Predicting the efficacy of BH3 mimetics through the profiling of multiple protein complexes

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Abstract

BH3 mimetics are protein-protein interaction (PPI) inhibitors that saturate anti-apoptotic proteins in the BCL2 family to lift the resistance of cancer cells to apoptosis, a prominent example of protein complex-targeting therapies[1-4]. Despite the remarkable success of the BH3 mimetic ABT-199 in treating hematological malignancies[5-7], only a fraction of patients respond to ABT-199[8-10] and eventually develop resistance[11,12], necessitating the usage of predictive biomarkers for both initial responses and resistance development. We here used the single-molecule pull-down[13,14] and co-immunoprecipitation (co-IP)[15,16] platform to quantify more than 20 different types of PPI complexes using ~1.2×10^6 cells in total, revealing the latest rewired status of the BCL2-family PPI network. By comparing the obtained multi-dimensional data with BH3 mimetic efficacies determined *ex vivo*, we constructed an analysis model for ABT-199 efficacy. Our model designates the BCL2-BAX and BCLxL-BAK complexes to contrasting roles, with the former complex driving ABT-199 efficacy and the latter contributing to resistance development. We then applied this model to assist in therapeutic decision-making for acute myeloid leukemia patients in a prospective manner. Our work demonstrates a capability for the extensive characterization of PPI complexes in clinical specimens, potentially opening up a new avenue of precision medicine for protein complex-targeting therapies.

Cells utilize large protein-protein complexes in making complex decisions while reflecting

various cellular states[17], with prominent examples including regulation of mechanistic target of

rapamycin (mTOR) complexes in metabolism[18], inflammasomes in innate immunity[19] and BCL2

family complexes in apoptotic cell death[20]. Despite the unexpected breadth of associated proteins

and their rapid turnover in these complexes, connectivity amongst several core components still

defines a critical setpoint in cellular decision making. For example, across possible combinations

of the BCL2 family proteins, the association between BAX and BAK forms proteinaceous pores

that lead to mitochondria outer membrane permeabilization (MOMP), defining a point of no

return for apoptosis initiation[21-23]. The survival and apoptotic pressure accrued in cells are

reflected by the expression of anti- and pro-apoptotic proteins, tipping a balance in cellular

decision toward life and death, respectively. While BCL2, BCLxL, and MCL1 make up the

group of anti-apoptotic proteins that sequester BAX/BAK to prevent pore formation[20,24-26], pro-

apoptotic proteins (such as BIM, BAD, and BID) share an alpha-helical BH3-domain and

interact with either anti-apoptotic proteins or BAX/BAK[27-29], thereby unleashing the activation

of BAX/BAK for pore formation[30,31].

In diseased states, cellular decisions are often misguided by chronic or spurious

formation of these protein-protein complexes, as exemplified by mTOR complexes found in

various cancers or type 2 diabetes[32,33] and inflammasomes in irritable bowel syndrome or

neurodegenerative diseases[34,35]. Likewise, in many cancers, PPIs of the anti-apoptotic proteins

are upregulated to suppress the activity of BAX/BAK, subsequently averting apoptosis

initiation[25,31,36-38]. Massive effort has thus been made toward the development of PPI inhibitors

that can disintegrate these disease-causing protein-protein complexes[39]. In particular, small-

molecule drugs that structurally emulate the BH3 domain, collectively referred to as BH3

mimetics[1,2], have been arguably the most notable example in these endeavors. While sparing pro-

apoptotic proteins, BH3 mimetics are expected to bind selectively to the binding grooves of the

anti-apoptotic proteins to shut down their interactions with pro-apoptotic proteins and

BAX/BAK[3]. By introducing an azaindole moiety to ABT-263 (Navitoclax) that binds to both

BCL2 and BCLxL[40], ABT-199 (Venetoclax) has been developed to specifically bind to BCL2

with a sub-nM affinity[5]. ABT-199 was approved for the treatment of chronic lymphoid leukemia

(CLL) in 2016[41] and acute myeloid leukemia (AML) in 2018[9,42], which stimulated the

development of other BH3 mimetics that target other anti-apoptotic proteins beyond BCL2[3,43].

As evidenced in other targeted therapies, a precision medicine platform will enable the

tailored use of PPI inhibitors utilizing the unique molecular information of individual patients[44].

Indeed, despite the remarkable success of ABT-199 in treating CLL[6,7], more than 30% of AML

patients still fail to respond to ABT-199[8-10], and even many of the patients with initial favorable

responses eventually develop resistance to ABT-199[11,12]. These realities indicate unmet needs

where the patients may benefit from various treatment options if their initial responses and/or

resistance development can be predicted with high confidence. There exist, however, multiple

layers in the regulation of PPIs, such as post-translational modifications, protein conformational

changes, and cellular localizations, all of which would limit the direct translation of genomic and

proteomic information into an accurate prediction of the strengths of PPIs[20,45,46]. Indeed, genomic

and proteomic profiling have found limited uses in this technical niche. Genomic mutations, such

as G101V and D103E, have been found in the *BCL2* gene in relapsed CLLs, but these mutations

account for only a small fraction of ABT-199 resistance in AMLs[47-49]. Total expression levels of

BCL2 and other anti-apoptotic proteins are allegedly associated with the responses to

corresponding BH3 mimetics[50,51]. The resulting correlations are, however, not high enough to

warrant application of these protein levels as a predictive biomarker in clinical settings[50-53]. BH3

profiling is a functional approach that directly measures MOMP of cancer cell-derived

mitochondria induced by various BH3 peptides[54-56]. Despite its potential usefulness as a

prediction medicine platform for BH3 mimetics, the BH3 profiling method is not routinely used

in clinical settings presumably because of the technical difficulties involved with the derivation

and maintenance of cancer-derived mitochondria.

In this work, we hypothesized that the responsiveness of individual cancers to a PPI

inhibitor would be determined by the ever-evolving protein compositions of the target protein

complexes. In the case of BH3 mimetics, the heterocomplexes formed between the anti- and the

pro-apoptotic proteins and their detailed balances would be primarily responsible for mediating

the efficacy of BH3 mimetics in given cancers. A predictive algorithm may be trained when it is

possible to extensively profile BCL2-family protein complexes for as many cancers with known

responses as possible. To develop this capability for the profiling of protein-protein complexes

with minimal sample consumption and increased throughput, we adopted the single-molecule

pull-down and co-immunoprecipitation (co-IP) platform that directly immobilized target protein

complexes on the imaging plane of a single-molecule fluorescence microscope and counted the

number of protein complexes[13,14,16,57]. With the resulting sensitivity and accuracy of the assays,

we determined the populations of 20 different types of protein-protein complexes (and protein

levels) using only ~30,000 cells per each complex type, revealing the latest rewiring status of the

BCL2 family network in individual clinical samples.

We found that upon the introduction of bacterial toxin and BH3 mimetics, the

composition of the BCL2 protein-protein complexes showed dramatic changes while involving

only minor alterations in the corresponding protein levels, attesting to the importance of direct

profiling of PPI complexes. By comparing these multi-dimensional data with the efficacies of

BH3 mimetics determined *ex vivo*, we were able to train analysis models that revealed the

protein and PPI parameters that played the most prominent roles in mediating the BH3-mimetic

efficacies. In the case of ABT-199, the counts of two PPI complexes, BCL2-BAX and BCLxL-

BAK, were found to be the critical analysis parameters of contrasting roles, with the former

driving ABT-199 efficacy and the latter contributing to resistance development. In a similar

procedure, we also constructed an efficacy model for an MCL1-targeting inhibitor. Finally, we

applied the developed analysis model to therapeutic decisions for AML patients in a prospective

manner and confirmed the predictive power of the analysis model. Our work demonstrates the

use of single-molecule pull-down and co-IP in extensive profiling of PPI complexes with

accuracy that warrants clinical applications, suggesting a path toward precision medicine for the

protein complex-targeting therapies.

Results

Profiling BCL2-family protein complexes using single-molecule pull-down and co-IP

To assess BCL2-family protein complexes and understand how apoptosis is suppressed in

individual cancers, we employed the single-molecule pull-down and co-IP platform to

characterize the PPI network among BCL2 family proteins[13-16]. We induced surface pull-down of

either one of the primary anti-apoptotic proteins (i.e., BCL2, BCLxL, or MCL1) from crude

extracts of cells onto the surface of the reaction chamber (Fig. 1a and Extended Data Fig. 1a-c).

After removal of the extract, we sequentially added a monoclonal antibody that binds to an

interaction partner located on the surface-immobilized bait followed by a fluorescently labeled

secondary antibody, which comprises of an immunoassay that detected a specific species of PPI

complexes (Fig. 1b, left). Alternatively, by using a detection antibody that binds to an epitope

directly on the surface bait, we could determine the total amount of surface-immobilized baits

(Fig. 1b, right and Extended Data Fig. 1d-f).

To improve sensitivity and reproducibility in this protein complex detection method, we

first optimized the lysis protocol[15,58]. Using HEK293T cells that co-expressed BCL2 and the

BH3 domain of BIM (BIM$_{BH3}$), we found that mild lysis with cholesterol-like detergents, such as

glycol-diosgenin (GDN) and digitonin, minimized dissociation of the model BCL2-BIM

complexes (Extended Data Fig. 2). In addition, we confirmed that this lysis protocol did not

induce the formation of spurious complexes even in dense cell extracts (i.e., at a total protein

concentration of 5 to 10 mg/ml), indicating that all detected PPI complexes were formed in

cellular environments (Fig. 1c). The BCL2 family proteins are known to undergo complex

conformational changes during their activation[31,59]. Using the effector BAX protein as a

precedent, we found that the detergent condition was critical in conserving the conformational

states of BAX[60]. While Triton X-100 – often used in conventional co-IP methods – induced

spurious conformational changes[61], the use of GDN or digitonin essentially preserved BAX's

active conformations induced by the addition of a bacterial toxin, staurosporine (STS)[62] (Fig. 1d).

To minimize non-specific adsorption to the surface, we placed a high-density

polyethylene glycol (PEG) layer between the IP antibodies and the glass coverslip[15,58] (Fig. 1a).

This PEG layer proved to be essential in permitting direct surface IP of the target protein

complexes from the crude extracts, as well as in reducing background signals to a minimal level

on our single-molecule fluorescence imaging (Fig. 1e). Finally, to determine the assay signal, we

directly counted the number of single-molecule fluorescence spots (Extended Data Fig. 3a).

Compared with conventional approaches that integrate total fluorescence signals over a field of

view, this single-molecule counting method showed an enhanced sensitivity particularly when

there were ~2,000 or fewer individual PPI complexes per imaging area (Fig. 1f and Extended

Data Fig. 3b,c).

By combining the three technological factors of optimized lysis protocol, anti-fouling

PEG layer, and direct single-molecule counting, we were able to obtain statistically significant

counts for endogenous BCL2-BIM or BCL2-BAX complexes (CPXs) each using only ~30,000

AML cells (Fig. 1g,h). Using a non-small cell lung cancer cell line (PC9 cells), we confirmed a

similar capability where we detected 8 different BCLxL- and MCL1-protein complexes using

less than 50,000 PC9 cells each (Fig. 1i and Extended Data Fig. 4). In addition, three

independent inter-chip measurements yielded coefficients of variation (CVs) of less than 15% for

all assays and cell numbers tested, attesting to the high stability of the single-molecule co-IP

platform (Fig. 1i and Extended Data Fig. 4).

Tracking the responses to apoptotic stress using single-molecule pull-down and co-IP

To see whether the developed platform could track changes incurred in the BCL2-family PPI

network, we treated HL60 cells with 2 μM of STS and obtained extracts of these cells at different

time points across the treatment. Using flow cytometry, we found that the early apoptosis

population marked by high Annexin V staining began to surge at 1 hour of STS treatment at the

expense of the healthy cell population (Extended Data Fig. 5a,b). The late apoptosis population

stained with both Annexin V and PI rose after 4 hours. Necrosis populations were negative

throughout the flow cytometry study, indicating that the cells underwent apoptosis, not necrosis.

We found that the counts of active BAX and BAK increased dramatically as apoptosis

progressed (Fig. 2a). The BAX-BAK heterocomplex count, a more direct surrogate marker of

MOMP[63,64], started to rise concurrently with the active BAX and BAK counts, but continued to

grow through the late apoptosis stage. We next determined the total levels of anti-apoptotic

proteins (Fig. 2b). Through meticulous calibration of the immunolabeling efficiencies, we were

able to directly compare the amounts of the main anti-apoptotic proteins and found that the

BCL2 proteins were present in greater amounts in magnitudes of 4 to 5 compared to BCLxL and

MCL1, consistent with the known single dependence of HL60 on BCL2 (Fig. 2b and Extended

Data Fig. 6a,b). As apoptosis proceeded, the total levels of BCLxL and MCL1 gradually

decreased while the amount of BCL2 proteins showed a slight, yet significant increase (Fig. 2b).

In contrast to the marginal change in the BCL2 protein level, the heterocomplexes

forming between BCL2 and pro-apoptotic proteins showed dynamic changes throughout the

stages of apoptosis. We found that the BCL2 PPI complexes outnumbered those involving

BCLxL and MCL1, reconfirming the BCL2-dependence of HL60 cells (Fig. 2c,d). Remarkably,

the two protein-protein complexes showed contrasting behaviors. While the BCL2-BIM complex

counts gradually declined over time, the BCL2-BAX complex counts showed an upsurge with

the onset of the early apoptosis stage (Fig. 2c,d). Collectively, our comprehensive profiling of the

BCL2-family protein complexes revealed that to absorb the STS-induced apoptotic pressure in

HL60, the BCL2 proteins mainly worked to sequester the active BAX proteins while losing some

of the previously held BIM proteins. Presumably, under the STS treatment condition used, the

rate at which active BAXs were produced excelled the rate that BCL2 sequestered BAX proteins,

resulting in HL60 cells finally succumbing to apoptotic stress and initiating MOMP (Fig. 2a,d).

Assessment of potential PPIs using protein interactor probes

Our observations reassure the fact that the BCL2 family proteins – like many cell signaling

proteins – work by binding (or sequestering) to interaction partners[20]. In the case of elevated

survival pressure in HL60 cells provoked by STS treatment, the BCL2 proteins continuously

formed additional BCL2-BAX complexes to absorb apoptotic pressure (Fig. 2d). These data

prompted us to devise other types of assays that measure the capacity of the BCL2 family

proteins for making further protein-protein complexes beyond current complex populations.

To assess the strengths of potential PPIs, we used the same surface pull-down scheme to

immobilize anti-apoptotic BCL2 family proteins, which had been confirmed to induce minimal

IP crosstalk and non-specific adsorption (Fig. 2e). We then added various pro-apoptotic BCL2

proteins – tagged with enhanced green fluorescent proteins (eGFPs) – to the reaction chamber.

We reasoned that these PPI probes would bind to a pool of anti-apoptotic proteins that were

unoccupied, yet still be capable of making potential protein complexes (Fig. 2e). Indeed, This

PPI probe assay recapitulated many of the known biochemical features, such as a higher affinity

of BCL2 for BAD than for BIM and negligible interactions for BCL2-NOXA and MCL1-BAD

pairs[20] (Extended Data Fig. 7a). We also confirmed that these PPI probes did not induce

dissociation of the preformed, endogenous PPI complexes (Extended Data Fig. 7b).

With this probe binding assay (PBA), we examined the BCL2 proteins derived from the

STS-treated HL60 cells (Extended Data Fig. 5b). When we added the BH3 domain of BIM

(BIM_{BH3}-eGFP) as a PPI probe, BCL2 showed a significantly higher PBA count compared to

BCLxL and MCL1 (Fig. 2f). Considering the higher affinities of the BIM_{BH3} domain toward

BCLxL and MCL1 than toward BCL2, this high PBA count obtained for BCL2 implies that

BCL2 accounts for a dominant portion in sequestering pro-apoptotic proteins in HL60 (Fig. 2f

and Extended Data Fig. 7c). Remarkably, as the apoptosis stage proceeded, the PBA count of

BIM_{BH3} gradually reduced, despite the increase in the total BCL2 level, likely reflecting the

depletion of available BCL2 proteins with the formation of the BCL2-BAX complexes (Fig. 2c-

f). In addition, we examined the composition of the BCL2 protein-protein complexes in four

AML cell lines (Fig. 2g). When immobilizing the same number of total BCL2 proteins per field

of view, we found that the NB4 and U937 cells contained many more BCL2-BIM and BCL2-

BAX complexes – the two main species of BCL2 PPI complexes – than HL60 did (Fig. 2g,h).

This observation was accompanied by the PBA count being more than halved for NB4 and U937

compared to HL60 (Fig. 2i), which presumably reflected higher occupancies of BCL2 and thus

smaller pools of BCL2 proteins for potential PPIs in these cells (Fig. 2j).

Finally, we examined whether different PPI probes measure a same pool of BCL2

proteins or distinct BCL2 pools (i.e., each pool can be accessed by only dedicated PPI probes).

To answer this question, we added different PPI probes together and found that these added

probes directly competed with one another (Fig. 2k,l). In addition, the ratios of the PBA counts

for different cell lines were maintained across different PPI probes, indicating an existence of

one common BCL2 protein pool, rather than multiple, fragmented pools of BCL2 proteins

(compare Fig. 2i with Extended Data Fig. 7d-f).

Tracing changes in the BCL2 family protein complexes evoked by BH3 mimetics

Using the two types of assays established above (i.e., single-molecule immunoassay and PBA),

we sought to examine how BH3 mimetics induced apoptotic pressure in AMLs. We first treated

the HL60 cells with 100 nM ABT-199 for 24 hours and found that the BCL2 total level was

slightly increased by ~30% while the BCLxL and MCL1 levels were kept at minimal levels (Fig.

3a). In contrast, the amounts of active BAX and BAK as well as BAX-BAK heterocomplexes

steeply increased five-fold in response to the ABT-199 treatment, indicating active apoptosis

induction in HL60 (Fig. 3b). While the total populations of BAX and BAK were largely

maintained (Fig. 3c), most of the BCL2-BIM and BCL2-BAX complexes were dissociated after

24 hours due to ABT-199 (Fig. 3d). These data indicated that BAX released from BCL2 mainly

contributed to the steep increases in active BAX and BAK populations. In addition, the freeing

up of many BCL2 proteins by ABT-199 led to an increase in the PBA count, an observation in

direct opposite to the STS-treated case where the PBA count decreased over treatment time (Fig.

3e).

We wanted to track the dynamics of BCL2-BIM and BCL-BAX complexes in more detail,

particularly at the early time points of ABT-199 treatment. We treated HL60 at a higher

concentration of 300 nM ABT-199 and carried out PPI profiling at each hour point past initial

treatment (Extended Data Fig. 5c). Remarkably, the BCL2-BAX complex started to disintegrate

immediately upon ABT-199 treatment whereas the number of BCL2-BIM complexes remained

largely constant (Fig. 3f). The kinetics of BCL2-BAX dissociation coincided with the induction

of active BAX/BAK conformations and BAX-BAK heterocomplexes (Fig. 3g). These data

indicated that the dissociation of BCL2-BAX complexes by itself – without requiring BCL2-

BIM dissociation and additional BAX expression – was likely enough to evoke pro-apoptotic

pressure to initiate apoptosis (Fig. 3f-i)[47,65-67].

We examined whether the same complex dynamics also occurred in MCL1 inhibitor-

responding cells. In response to AZD-5591[68], U937 cells showed increased populations of the

active BAX and BAK proteins as well as the BAX-BAK heterocomplex, consistent with U937's

responsiveness to the MCL1 inhibitor (Fig. 3j). As in the case of ABT-199-treated HL60 cells,

the AZD-5591 treatment induced conspicuous dissociation of MCL1 PPI complexes (MCL1-

BIM and MCL1-BAK) confirmed by the dramatic increase in binding of the BIM_{BH3} probe for

MCL1 (Fig. 3k,l). However, unlike the case of HL60 where the other anti-apoptotic proteins

showed minimal changes, the BCLxL proteins in the U937 cells showed marked surges in their

protein complex counts, with the BCLxL-BAK complexes becoming the most dominant species

(Fig. 3m). Through detailed calibration of labeling efficiencies, we were able to find that the

observed increase in BCLxL-BAK far outnumbered the decrease in the MCL1-BAK complexes

(Fig. 3n and Extended Data Fig. 6a,c). We thus hypothesized that the majority of new BCLxL-

BAK complexes were formed by the sequestering of nascent BAK proteins, rather than through

being captured by those released from MCL1 (Fig. 3o). In summary, these data assured the

feasibility of the comprehensive profiling of BCL2-family protein complexes, which helped us

understand how apoptotic pressure was generated and then coped by the BCL2-family protein

network in individual cancers.

Constructing an analysis model for ABT-199 efficacy with multi-dimensional PPI profiling

So far, our data collectively suggest that the BH3 mimetics engage either protein complex disintegration or saturation of anti-apoptotic proteins (or both) in the exertion of their efficacy. In addition, our preliminary data suggest that a single-agent response can be expected when the cancer cells have developed a singular dependence on a particular anti-apoptotic protein with minimal compensation from other anti-apoptotic proteins (Extended Data Fig. 8). We thus examined whether the multi-parameter data were used to train an analysis model that could delineate the dependency on anti-apoptotic proteins for given cancers and predict their responsiveness to BH3 mimetic drugs.

To this end, we analyzed 32 cases of primary AML samples. In this cohort, 30 cases were collected from bone marrow mononuclear cells (BMMCs) and the other 2 cases were collected from peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMCs), with clinical diagnosis composed of *de novo* AML (*n*=17), relapsed AML (*n*=4), and secondary AML (*n*=11) (Supplementary Table 1). We measured the *ex vivo* drug efficacy of ABT-199 and determined a normalized area under response curve (AUC) for each sample (Fig. 4a, upper). We simultaneously performed single-molecule PPI profiling on the same cohort samples in a blind manner. Of note, by virtue of the low sample consumption and high data accuracy, we determined 22 different protein/PPI metrics for each sample that consisted of ~1.2×10^6 cells in total (Fig. 4a, lower and Supplementary Table 2).

When comparing the correlation values of these protein/PPI assay data with AUC, the three BCL2-related assay data – BCL2-BAD PBA, BCL2-BIM$_{BH3}$ PBA, and BCL2-BAX CPX – showed the highest correlations with *ex vivo* efficacy (Fig. 4b and Extended Data Fig. 9a-c). The BCLxL- and MCL1-related metrics also showed appreciable, but lower correlation values,

indicating that most of the AML examined depended on BCL2 for their survival (Fig. 4b). Also,

it was notable that the BCL2-BIM complex showed a much lower correlation than the BCL2-

BAX complex count, echoing our observation that dissociation of the BCL2-BAX complexes

mainly mediated pro-apoptotic effects of ABT-199 in HL60 cells (Fig. 4c,d). The combination

between the three BCL2-related metrics, which showed the highest correlation to AUC,

improved the correlation to only a limited extent, indicating these three metrics reflected the

BCL2 dependence of the samples in a redundant manner (Extended Data Fig. 9d,e). We found

that addition of the BCLxL-BAK complex (with a negative coefficient) to the linear regression

model slightly but significantly improved the correlation to the AUC values (Fig. 4e).

We examined whether the generated model could reflect the changes in the BCL2 PPI

network as AML underwent clonal cancer evolution. For example, BC-7064, a case of primary

AML, showed favorable initial responses to a combined treatment of ABT-199 and azacitidine,

but later showed relapse after the treatment was discontinued (Fig. 4f). We carried out PPI

profiling for the initial (BC-7064) and the relapsed (BC-7064-R) samples using our platform (Fig.

4g). The initial sample showed a parameter combination for a strong ABT-199 effectiveness

(estimated score of 0.78), consisting of upregulated BCL2-BIM PBA and BCL2-BAX CPX

counts and a low BCLxL-BAK CPX level (Fig. 4g,h). On the other hand, the two BCL2-related

metrics were more than halved for BC-7064-R, indicating a weakened driving force for the ABT-

199 efficacy. Although the resistance factor BCLxL-BAK complex was also decreased for BC-

7064-R, the diminished BCL2 dependence led to an estimated score of 0.36, providing an

account for the relapse of this specific blood cancer (Fig. 4g-i).

Construction of an MCL1 inhibitor efficacy model

Next, we examined whether it was possible to train an analysis model for an MCL1 inhibitor,

AZD-5991, following a similar process we established for ABT-199. To this end, we determined

the *ex vivo* efficacy of AZD-5591 for the same primary AML cohort (27 out of 32 total samples)

and compared the determined AUC values with the BCL2 family metrics determined in Figure 4

(Supplementary Table 2). The MCL1 total level and the PBA count correlated with the AZD-

5591 efficacy, albeit with reduced correlations (Fig. 5a-c). The BIM_{BH3} PBA assay for BCLxL

showed a negative correlation with AZD-5991 efficacy (Fig. 5d). When we plotted the BCLxL

PBA counts for responsive (*ex vivo* AUC > 0.6) and non-responsive samples with respect to

AZD-5591, the non-responsive group exhibited distinctly higher counts, reflecting upregulated

activities of the BCLxL proteins in this group (Fig. 5e). These data collectively suggest that the

BCLxL proteins played major compensatory roles as MCL1 proteins were saturated with the

inhibitor molecules. In addition, MCL1 protein complexes showed only limited correlations,

consistent with the hypothesis we drew in Figure 3 that AZD-5591 might work by preventing

further binding of pro-apoptotic proteins to MCL1 (i.e., a saturation of MCL1 proteins), rather

than by inducing dissociation of the preexistent MCL1 PPI complexes (Fig. 5a).

The combination of multiple parameters, MCL1 total level, $BCLxL-BIM_{BH3}$ PBA, and

BCLxL-BAK CPX, led to a linear regression model showing an optimized correlation with the

ex vivo AZD-5591 efficacy (Fig. 5f). We noted that the resulting correlation was weaker than

what we were able to optimize for ABT-199 (Fig. 4e). Moreover, while multiple, BCL2-related

parameters already showed high correlations with the ABT-199 efficacy (an indicator of the

singular dependence on BCL2) (Fig. 4b and Extended Data Fig. 9a-d), the MCL1-related metrics

had to be combined to improve the correlation, indicating an intricate balance and dynamic

between MCL1 and BCLxL protein pools (Fig. 5f and Extended Data Fig. 9f). Altogether, our

multi-parameter PPI data not only generates an analysis model for the efficacy of BH3 mimetics,

but also enables us to discern the relative contribution of each assay data and the detailed

balances among the protein complexes, which may hint at potential modes of action of the drugs.

Using the PPI analysis model as a predictive biomarker for ABT-199 efficacy

Finally, we asked whether the BCL2 PPI profiling could guide therapeutic decisions in a

prospective manner. BCL2 PPI profiling was carried out for seven patients treated with ABT-199

via oral administration. Treatment outcomes were assessed per European LeukemiaNet (ELN)

recommendations, and sequential samples were acquired throughout the treatment journey[69] (Fig.

6a).

Two samples, BC-6524 and BC-7230, showed contrasting patterns in our PPI profiling,

parallel with the disparate responses of the original patients to the ABT-199 treatment (Fig. 6b-d).

In the combination analysis model developed in Figure 4e, BC-6524 exhibited significantly

higher levels of counts for the BCL2-BIM$_{BH3}$ PBA and BCL2-BAX CPX assays than BC-7230

while the BCLxL-BAK complex counts were low for both patients (Fig. 6b). These parameter

combinations indicated that BC-6524 would respond to a BCL2-targeted inhibitor with a high

estimated score of 0.90 (Fig. 6c, red). On the contrary, BC-7230 was predicted as a non-

responder with an estimated score of 0.27 (Fig. 6c, grey). Remarkably, these diagnostic

predictions correlated well with the *in vivo* responses: For the BC-6524 patient, peripheral blast

counts started to diminish from day 2, and complete remission was confirmed per bone marrow

examination (Fig. 6d, red). On the other hand, patient BC-7230 did not response to ABT-199 as

indicated by increasing peripheral blasts from day 3 (Fig. 6d, grey).

For six cases, including BC-6524 and BC-7230 illustrated above, the BCL2 PPI profiling

showed an outstanding performance in predicting the clinical responses (Extended Data Fig. 10

and Supplementary Table 3). One exception was BC-7052, where the patient initially responded

to ABT-199 but the duration of response was short-lived, discordant with a relatively high

estimated score of 0.64 (Extended Data Fig. 10a-c). Interestingly, in *ex vivo* efficacy

determination, the sample showed a high AUC value exactly matching the prediction by the

analysis model, pointing to a limit of the current model that was trained based on *ex vivo* drug

efficacy. The inclusion of the factors unique to cancer evolution in *in vivo* environments may

improve the predictive power of the model. For example, the BCLxL PBA count, which is not

included in the current model, was distinctively high for BC-7052, suggesting a possibility that

BCLxL proteins, initially largely unoccupied, become upregulated in its activity as the ABT-199

treatment was continued (Extended Data Fig. 10b).

In addition to the BC-7064 case examined in Figure 4f, we performed longitudinal

tracking for another case of BC-7107 to gain insights into how AML evolved with ABT-199

treatment. The patient had relapsed refractory disease with previous exposure to another

chemotherapeutic agent (Quizartinib) (Fig. 6e). The initial PPI profiling data showed a strongly

biased dependence on BCL2 (estimated score of 0.93), and the patient showed complete

remission for a combined treatment of ABT-199 and LDAC (Low-dose cytarabine) (Fig. 6f-h).

Unfortunately, after 1 month of treatment, relapse was noted (Fig. 6h). Remarkably, the PPI

profiling carried out after the relapse yielded virtually background signals for all three anti-

apoptotic proteins examined, indicating a possibility that this cancer might have developed a new

pathway to evade apoptosis initiation (Fig. 6g).

Discussion

In this work where we attempted to provide a precision medicine platform for protein complex-

targeting therapies, we used the single-molecule pull-down and co-IP platform to extensively

profile BCL2-family protein complexes in given AMLs. To this end, we optimized extraction

protocols that could be applied to clinical samples, which proved to preserve most PPI

complexes as well as specific conformations of the BCL2 family proteins through lysis. The anti-

fouling polymer layer minimized crosstalk and non-specific adsorption during surface pull-down.

In addition, the direct single-molecule counting of target PPI complexes retained its sensitivity

when there were only hundreds of PPI complexes pulled-down per each imaging area of $\sim 10^4$

μm^2. Altogether, the combination of these technical features allowed us to examine more than 20

different PPI species for clinical samples that consisted of as little as $\sim 1.2 \times 10^6$ cells, reaching the

sensitivity and accuracy levels that could be applied to clinical specimens.

Given that BH3 mimetics are PPI inhibitors, conventional genomic and proteomic

profiling would be inherently limited in tracking the rewiring in the PPI network and thus in the

prediction of its response to given BH3 mimetics as well[50-53,70,71]. We indeed found that by

reflecting the cellular stress states, the BCL2-family protein complex counts showed dramatic

changes by more than three- to five-fold while the corresponding protein levels were marginally

changed (within 30%). Furthermore, rather than one fixed pathway for these changes, we found

that the two BH3 mimetics examined, ABT-199 and AZD-5991, affected BCL2-family protein

complexes in disparate ways, presumably because of their different modes of action (see below).

Thus, the analysis of genomic mutations and proteomic levels – and not of the connectivity

between them – could fall short in understanding the true complexity of BCL2 family biology

underlying the efficacy of BH3 mimetics.

Currently, there are competing hypotheses as to how BH3 mimetics induce apoptotic

pressure in cancer cells[31,72,73]. The activated BAX and BAK proteins – which form the BAX-

BAK pores and mediate MOMP – can be either newly expressed by the cells or released from

anti-apoptotic proteins. In the former scenario, the BH3 mimetics saturate the target anti-

apoptotic proteins to prevent further sequestering of nascent BAX and BAK proteins. In the latter,

BH3 mimetics squeeze into the binding groove of the anti-apoptotic proteins to induce the

release of previously held pro-apoptotic proteins. Detailed analyses on the increases and

decreases of relevant PPI complexes and protein levels, and thus their detailed balances, revealed

that ABT-199 mainly worked by inducing the disintegration of the pre-existing BCL2 protein

complexes. On the contrary, the MCL1 inhibitor AZD-5591 likely exerted its efficacy by

quenching the binding of newly produced BAK proteins to MCL1. Furthermore, tracing the two

types of the BCL2 protein complexes over time revealed that the dissociation of BCL2-BAX –

but not that of BCL2-BIM – was closely associated with the onset of apoptosis in AML cells

evoked by ABT-199. Also, in our multi-parametric measurement and linear regression analysis,

the BCL2-BAX amount was by far more closely related to the ABT-199 *ex vivo* efficacy than

BCL2-BIM. Thus, we concluded that in the case of AML we studied, the dissociation of BCL2-

BAX complexes mainly drove the efficacy of ABT-199.

These data compelled us to hypothesize a particular group of driver protein-protein

complexes that powerfully and positively correlated with the efficacy of the BH3 mimetics. We

also found protein or PPI metrics associated with the drug efficacy with negative coefficients,

which we defined as resistance complexes. The resulting analysis models included both driver

and resistance complexes, reflecting the competing roles of different anti-apoptotic proteins in

achieving the BH3-mimetic efficacy. In the combined model for ABT-199 effectiveness, BCL2-

BIM PBA and BCL2-BAX CPX worked as the driver complexes, while BCLxL-BAK CPX

worked as the resistance complex. However, the coefficient for BCLxL-BAK CPX was much

smaller than those of BCL2-related parameters, consistent with the singular dependence of

AMLs on BCL2[74,75]. On the other hand, the analysis model for AZD-5591 efficacy, consisting of

MCL1 total level, BCLxL-BAK CPX, and BCLxL-BIM$_{BH3}$ PBA, assigned larger coefficients to

two BCLxL-involved parameters than it did for the MCL1 total level, suggesting that MCL1 was

in direct competition with BCLxL in mediating the effectiveness of AZD-5591.

Our analysis model has an inherent limitation in that it was generated based on the drug

efficacy determined *ex vivo*. Also, because of the small patient cohort size used in the study, it

remains to be tested whether the model would stay valid for larger cohorts. Despite these caveats,

we applied the analysis model to stratify ABT-199 responders prospectively and found that in six

out of seven cases, the prediction of the model highly correlated with the clinical responses.

Moreover, longitudinal tracking allowed us to take note of how the PPI connectivity rewired

itself across the BCL2 family proteins, which led to resistance development and relapse of the

cancers.

In summary, our work suggests that the single-molecule pull-down and co-IP platform

enables the examination of multiple protein-protein complexes in clinical specimens with high

sensitivity and accuracy. While the emerging technologies of single protein sequencing would

mainly serve as a discovery platforms[76], the platform demonstrated here would be used to

examine dozens of PPI complexes in clinical specimens, which are boiled down to be most

directly relevant to drug efficacies, thereby facilitating therapeutic decisions which would be

virtually impossible to achieve with genomic and proteomic profiling. Given the rapid rise in

protein complex-targeting therapies, it will be interesting to see whether the methodologies

developed here could be applied to other disease-causing protein complexes and drugs beyond

the BCL2 family and BH3 mimetics.

Methods

Antibodies

Anti-rabbit immunoglobulin G (IgG) with biotin conjugation (111-065-144; Jackson ImmunoResearch) and anti-mouse immunoglobulin G (IgG) with biotin conjugation (715-066-151; Jackson ImmunoResearch) were used to immobilize the antibodies for protein immunoprecipitation. Anti-RFP antibody with biotin conjugation (ab34771; Abcam) and anti-GFP antibody with biotin conjugation (ab6658; Abcam) were used to immuno-precipitate mCherry- or eGFP-labeled proteins.

MCL1 (94296S; Cell Signaling Technology), BCLxL (2764S; Cell Signaling Technology), BCL2 (4223S; Cell Signaling Technology), BAX (5023S; Cell Signaling Technology), and BAK (ab238515; Abcam) antibodies were used to immunoprecipitate the corresponding proteins. MCL1 (sc-12756; Santa Cruz Biotechnology), BCLxL (NBP1-47665; Novus Biologicals), BCL2 (sc-7382; Santa Cruz Biotechnology), BAX (MABC1176M; Sigma Aldrich), BAK (sc-517390; Santa Cruz Biotechnology), BIM (sc-374358; Santa Cruz Biotechnology), BAD (sc-8044; Santa Cruz Biotechnology), NOXA (sc-56169; Santa Cruz Biotechnology) antibodies were used to detect the corresponding proteins for immunoassay. Anti-rabbit immunoglobulin G (IgG) with Cy3 conjugation (111-165-046; Jackson ImmunoResearch) and anti-mouse immunoglobulin G (IgG) with Cy3 conjugation (715-165-151; Jackson ImmunoResearch) were used to label the detection antibodies for immunoassay.

Drug reagents

Staurosporine (HY-15141; MedChemExpress), ABT-199 (HY-15531; MedChemExpress), and

AZD-5991 (C-1060; Chemgood) were treated to the blood cancer cell lines or primary AML

cells. The concentration of the drugs was diluted to 10 mM with DMSO and stored at -80 ℃.

Cell culture

HL60, THP-1, U937, and Ramos cells were purchased from Korean Cell Line Bank. HEK293T

and SU-DHL8 cells were purchased from ATCC. NB4 cells were purchased from DSMZ. SF9

cells were provided by S. H. Roh (Seoul National University School of Biological Sciences,

South Korea). PC9 cells were provided by Y. Hayata (Kyushu University Faculty of Medicine,

Japan).

HEK293T cells were cultured in DMEM (D6429; Sigma Aldrich) supplemented with 10% (v/v)

FBS (26140-079; Gibco) and 100 μg/ml penicillin/streptomycin (15140-122; Gibco). HL60,

THP-1, NB4, U937, Ramos, SU-DHL8, and PC9 cells were cultured in RPMI1640 (R8758;

Sigma Aldrich) supplemented with 10 % (v/v) FBS and 100 μg/ml penicillin/streptomycin. For

THP-1, 0.05 mM of 2-mercaptoethanol (M3148; Sigma Aldrich) was added to culture media. All

cells were incubated in a humidified incubator at 37 ℃, 5% CO_2.

SF9 cells were cultured in Sf-900 II SFM (10902088; Gibco) supplemented with 10% FBS

(26140-079; Gibco) and 100 μg/ml penicillin/streptomycin. SF9 cells were then incubated on a

plat-form shaker rotating at ~130 rpm in a humidified incubator at 27 ℃, non-CO_2.

HEK293T and PC9 cells were rinsed with cold DPBS (D8537; Sigma Aldrich) before collection.

Cells were collected with a scraper (90020; SPL Life Sciences) in 1 ml of cold DPBS.

Suspension-type cells were collected with centrifugation at 500 g for 5 minutes at 4 ℃ and

rinsed with 1 ml of cold DPBS. The cell suspensions were centrifuged at 500 g for 5 minutes at

4 ℃. The supernatants were discarded after centrifugation and the cell pellets were stored at -80 ℃

by snap-freezing with liquid nitrogen.

Primary AML samples

The cryo-preserved bone marrow mononuclear cells (BMMC) and peripheral blood mononuclear

cells (PBMC) collected from AML patients treated at Seoul National University Hospital were

used. Samples were collected between January 2014 and December 2019. Acute promyelocytic

leukemias and biphenotypic leukemias were excluded. Mononuclear cells were isolated by ficoll

gradient centrifugation. All samples were frozen in liquid nitrogen before flow cytometry

analysis and single-molecule co-IP. Aforementioned cell line collection protocol was applied for

primary AML cell collection. Culturing method for flow cytometry assay is described on the

Drug treatment and drug efficacy measurement section. Detailed information of each sample is

described in Supplementary Table 1. This study was conducted according to the Declaration of

Helsinki and was approved by the institutional review board of Seoul National University

Hospital (IRB number: H-1910-176-107).

Fluorescence-labeled protein constructions

All BCL2 family proteins (*BCL2* (HG10195-M; SinoBiological), *BCLxL* (HG10455-M;

SinoBiological), *MCL1* (HG10240-M; SinoBiological), *BIM$_{EL}$* (HG13816-G; SinoBiological),

BAD (HG10020-M; SinoBiological), *BAX* (HG11619-M; SinoBiological), *BAK* (HG10450-M;

SinoBiological) and *NOXA* (HG16548-U; SinoBiological)) were isolated from their respective

human cDNA. All cDNAs were cloned into *pCMV* vectors with eGFP or mCherry sequence to

generate fluorescence-labeled proteins by Gibson assembly.

The resulting plasmids were introduced into HEK293T cells through transient transfection.

Plasmid DNA with the amount of 10 μg was mixed with 30 μg of linear polyethyleneimine (PEI)

(23966-100; Polysciences) in 1 ml of serum-free DMEM. The mixture was introduced into

~2x10^6 of HEK293T cells in a 90 mm^2 cell culture plate.

cDNA of BIM_{BH3} (MRQAEPADMRPEIWIAQELRRIGDEFNAYYARR) was isolated from

BIM_{EL} cDNA and cloned into $pFastBac1$ vector with eGFP to generate eGFP-labeled BIM_{BH3}

proteins by Gibson assembly. The resulting plasmid was introduced into SF9 cells through Bac-

to-Bac System transfection. Plasmid DNA with the amount of 1 μg was mixed with 8 μl of

Cellfectin II Reagent (10362100; Thermo Fisher Scientific) in 200 μl of Sf-900 II SFM. The

mixture was introduced into ~2x10^6 of SF9 cells in a 6-well cell culture plate.

Cell lysis

All collected cell pellets were resuspended with the lysis buffer (0.2% or 1% (v/v) detergent, 50

mM HEPES with pH 7.4, 150 mM NaCl, 10% (v/v) glycerol, 1 mM EDTA, 2% (v/v) protease

inhibitor cocktail (P8340; Sigma Aldrich), 2% (v/v) phosphatase inhibitor cocktail 2 (P5726;

Sigma Aldrich), and 2% (v/v) phosphatase inhibitor cocktail 3 (P0044; Sigma Aldrich). Triton-

X100 (X100; Sigma Aldrich), glyco-diosgenin (GDN) (GDN101; Anatrace), digitonin (D141;

Sigma Aldrich), Tween 20 (P2287; Sigma Aldrich), 3-[(3-Cholamidopropyl) dimethylammonio]-

1-propanesulfonate hydrate (CHAPS) (C3023; Sigma Aldrich), and sodium dodecyl sulfate (SDS)

(L3771; Sigma Aldrich)) were used for optimizing the lysis protocol. Triton-X100, GDN,

digitonin, Tween 20, and CHAPS were used in 1% (v/v), and SDS was used in 0.2% (v/v) in

lysis buffer.

HEK293T cells expressing PPI probes (BIM_{BH3}-eGFP, BIM_{EL}-eGFP, BAD-eGFP, and NOXA-

eGFP) and SF9 cells expressing BIM_{BH3}-eGFP probe were lysed with Triton-X100 lysis buffer

for PPI probe binding assay (PBA). HEK293T cells for fluorescently labeled BCL2 family

proteins expression, blood cancer cell lines, and primary AML cells were lysed with GDN lysis

buffer for immunoassay and PBA.

The cell pellets were lysed with proper lysis buffer for 30 minutes at 4 °C. After lysis, the cell

suspensions were centrifuged at 15,000 g for 10 minutes at 4 °C. The supernatants were isolated

after centrifugation. The total protein concentration for each supernatant was measured with a

DC protein assay kit (5000113, 5000114, 5000115; Bio-Rad) following the manufacturer's

instructions. The total concentration of the fluorescence proteins in each supernatant was

measured with a Sense microplate reader (425-301; HIDEX). To quantify the fluorescence

proteins, a laser wavelength of 485 nm was used for eGFP excitation and 544 nm was used for

mCherry excitation respectively. Serial dilution experiments using eGFP and mCherry were

performed to generate the calibration curves. The aforementioned calibration curves were used to

quantify the concentrations of fluorescently labeled proteins. The supernatants were then

aliquoted and stored at -80 °C followed by snap-freezing with liquid nitrogen.

Drug treatment and drug efficacy measurement

All blood cancer cells and primary AML cells were precultured in a non-treated 25T flask for 3

hours before drug treatment. All cells were seeded in 4.5 ml of culture media and cultured in a

humidified incubator at 37 °C, 5% CO_2. STS, ABT-199, and AZD-5991 were then treated to

cells at various concentrations. All drugs were initially diluted with DMSO to 1 mM. For

experiments, serial dilution was performed with non-serum RPMI1640 to reach the target

concentration.

To determine the efficacy of drugs in blood cancer cells and primary AML cells, an

AnnexinV/PI apoptosis assay was performed. All cells treated with drugs were stained with

FITC-AnnexinV (640906; Biolegend) and PI (421301; Biolegend). After drug treatment, 5×10^5

of cells were rinsed with cold DPBS and collected by centrifugation with 500 g for 5 minutes at

4 °C. After the supernatants were discarded, the cell pellets were resuspended with 100 μl of cold

AnnexinV-binding buffer (422201; Biolegend). After resuspension, 10 μl of FITC-AnnexinV

solution and 5 μl of PI solution were added into the cell suspensions. The cell suspensions were

incubated for 15 minutes at room temperature avoiding exposure to light. After that, 400 μl of

cold AnnexinV-binding buffer was added to avoid overstaining.

The stained cells were analyzed with a flow cytometry (SH800S; Sony). The proportions of

AnnexinV$^-$/PI$^-$ cells from each sample were calculated and converted to viability (%). Based on

the measured viabilities, the drug efficacy curve was fitted using the *logistic* function inside the

analysis software (OriginPro 2022), and the area under curve (AUC) was measured from the

fitted curve.

Single-molecule pull-down and co-IP analysis for BCL2 family proteins

Single-molecule pull-down for BCL2 family proteins: 5 μg/ml of NeutrAvidin (31000;

Thermo Fisher Scientific) was loaded into each reaction chamber of the PROTEINA imaging

chip (PROTEINA) and incubated for 10 minutes. The imaging chip was washed with TritonX-

100-buffer (0.1% (v/v) TritonX-100, 50 mM HEPES with pH 7.4, 150 mM NaCl) to remove

unbound NeutrAvidin. Biotin-conjugated IgGs were loaded to each reaction chamber with 1:200

in TritonX-100-buffer and incubated for 10 minutes. The imaging chip was washed with

TritonX-100-buffer. Then, primary antibodies for target proteins were loaded into each reaction

chamber with 1:100 in TritonX-100 buffer and incubated for 10 minutes. The imaging chip was

washed with GDN-buffer (0.01% (w/v) GDN, 50 mM HEPES with pH 7.4, 150 mM NaCl, 1%

(v/v) Glycerol, 1 mM EDTA). After washing, crude cell extracts were diluted based on the total

protein concentrations and were loaded into each reaction chamber. When immunoprecipitating

fluorescence-labeled proteins, anti-RFP or anti-GFP antibodies were loaded with 1:200 in

TritonX-100-buffer and incubated for 20 minutes instead of the biotin-conjugated IgGs.

Single-molecule co-IP for BCL2 family proteins: To measure the total level of BCL2 family

proteins, 1 mg/ml of cell extracts were loaded into each reaction chamber and incubated for 1

hour. To measure the total level of BAX and BAK, the cell extracts were activated with Triton

X-100 before pull-down. After activation, the cell extracts were loaded into each reaction

chamber and incubated for 1 hour. The level of PPI complex was measured by loading 2 mg/ml

of cell extracts into each reaction chamber with a 2 hour incubation time. After pull-down, the

primary antibodies to detect matching proteins or protein complexes were loaded into each

reaction chamber with 1:100 in TritonX-100-buffer and incubated for 1 hour. Cy3-conjugated

IgGs with 1:1,000 in TritonX-100-buffer were loaded into each reaction chamber to label the

detection antibodies with 20 minutes incubation.

To measure the PBA, 1 mg/ml of cell extracts were loaded into each reaction chamber and

incubated for 1 hour. After that, the imaging chip was washed with GDN-buffer. The HEK293T

or SF9 cells expressing PPI probes were lysed with TritonX-100 lysis buffer. The crude cell

extracts were diluted and then incubated for 10 minutes on the immunoprecipitated bait proteins.

Assessment of PPIs using single-molecule fluorescence imaging: Single-molecule

fluorescence signal was assessed using the PI-View system (PROTEINA). The PI-View system

allows single-molecule fluorescence imaging for two different excitation lasers, 488 nm and 532

nm. By adapting an extremely sensitive scalable complementary metal-oxide semiconductor

(sCMOS) camera in the system, the emitted photons from a single fluorophore can be collected

efficiently with superior signal-to-noise ratio. An autofocus system installed in the PI-View

system provides high-quality image acquisition during whole imaging chip assessment. To detect

fluorescence signal, the imaging chip after performing all steps required for single-molecule co-

IP analysis was put on a chip holder placed on the top of the PI-View system. To quantify the

fluorescence signal of each chamber, ~10 different locations were imaged with 89 x 89 μm^2 size

of the field of view. Each image was acquired for 5 frames with 0.1 s time resolution, and those

frames were averaged to generate a single snapshot. This frame average process can reduce

random noise and improve signal-to-noise ratio. From a processed image, single-molecule

fluorescence spots and sum of pixel signals were quantified using software provided by

PROTEINA.

Drug efficacy prediction model analysis

Drug efficacy prediction models for AML patients were generated using linear regression

analysis by MATLAB 2021a. The PPI profiles from the primary AML cells were all converted to

a log_2 scale. The number of single-molecule fluorescence spots fewer than 100 counts was fixed

to the minimum value (100 counts) for log transformation. For BCLxL-BAX, BCLxL-BAK, and

BCL2-BAK PPI complexes, the total fluorescence signal data were used instead of single-

molecule spot data, and the fluorescence signals less than 10^7 were fixed to the minimum value

(10^7, background level) for log transformation. The AUCs from the primary AML cells were

normalized by *normAUC= 1- (AUC/Maximal AUC)* and were used as *ex vivo* drug efficacy. The

correlation between the transformed PPI profiles and *ex vivo* drug efficacy was calculated

through linear regression. After that, the coefficients of the PPI metrics and the statistical

indicators (Pearson's R and *p*-value) of the model were collected from each regression model.

The models with low significance ($p > 0.05$), containing a low significant ($p > 0.05$) PPI metrics

as a variable, or inconsistent with common biological features, were excluded during analysis.

Custom MATLAB code for modeling is available upon request.

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Author contributions

T.-Y.Y. conceived of and supervised the project. C.C., J.M.B., M.C., H.L., B.C., Y.K., and T.-

Y.Y. designed the experiments. C.C. and M.C. performed the single-molecule pull-down and co-

IP experiments. C.C. and H.K. measured the inter-chip CVs of the immunoassays. J.M.B. and

Y.K. collected and characterized primary AML samples and performed *in vivo* ABT-199

treatment journey. C.C., Y.L., and H.P. developed the PPI probes for PBA. C.C., M.C., B.C.,

H.K., S.H., and Y.L. performed the PPI profiling for the primary AML samples. C.C. and M.C.

measured the *ex vivo* drug efficacies of the primary AML samples. H.L. developed the *ex vivo*

drug efficacy predicting programs. C.C. analyzed and visualized all data. C.C. and T.-Y.Y. wrote

the manuscript with inputs from all authors.

Competing interests

C.C., M.C., H.L., B.C., Y.L., S.H., Y.K., and T.-Y.Y. filed a patent on these findings (10-2020-

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Figures and legends

Fig. 1: Profiling BCL2-family protein complexes using single-molecule co-IP. a, Schematic

for the surface immunoprecipitation (IP) of BCL2 family proteins. Anti-apoptotic proteins

(BCL2, BCLxL, MCL1) in cell extracts were lysed with mild detergent and immobilized onto

the surface of the reaction chamber. **b,** Schematic of sandwich-type immunoassay selectively

detecting PPI complex (left) and the total level of surface bait (right). The fluorescence signals

from detection antibodies were imaged by a single-molecule co-IP platform. **c,** Comparing the

formation of BCL2-BIM$_{BH3}$ PPI complex in an intracellular environment by BCL2-

mCherry/BIM$_{BH3}$-eGFP co-transfection (red) and *in vitro* mixing of two individual extracts

expressing BCL2-mCherry and BIM$_{BH3}$-eGFP (black). **d,** Relative changes of active BAX level

from the STS treated HL60 cells after lysed with different detergent types. The monoclonal

antibody 6A7 was used to detect the activated BAX[60]. Spurious BAX activation by Triton X-100

was indicated (blue). **e,** Surface-immobilization of the matching IP antibodies immunoprecipitate

BCL2-eGFP from the crude extract with high specificity. **f,** Comparison of signal to noise ratio

(SNR) from single molecule counting analysis (red) and total fluorescence signal integrating

analysis (black). The raw data to calculate the SNRs are described in Extended Data Fig. 2. **g,**

Counts of endogenous BCL2-related PPI complexes (BCL2-BIM, BCL2-BAX) from the 30,000

HL60 cells by using immunoassay. Error bars represent mean ± s.d. from independent inter-chip

measurement ($n \geq 2$). (Two-sided two-sample *t*-test, $P=1.46\times10^{-5}$, 1.11×10^{-5} respectively). **h,**

Counts of endogenous BCL2-BIM PPI complexes and inter-chip CVs from the fixed numbers of

HL60 cells ($n \geq 2$). **i,** Inter-chip CVs obtained from independent inter-chip measurement for all

the immunoassays and cell numbers ($n \geq 2$).

Fig. 2: Tracking the responses to intrinsic apoptotic stress with single-molecule co-IP. a-d,

Changes of endogenous PPI profiles of HL60 cells through the apoptosis progression by 2 μM of

STS. (a) Active BAX/BAK level, (b) Total levels of anti-apoptotic proteins (BCL2, BCLxL,

MCL1), (c) BIM complexes with anti-apoptotic proteins, (d) BAX complexes with anti-apoptotic

proteins. **e,** Schematic for the PPI probe binding assay (PBA) for measuring unoccupied

populations of surface-immobilized anti-apoptotic proteins. **f,** Changes of BIM$_{BH3}$ PBAs for anti-

apoptotic proteins from HL60 cells through the apoptosis progression by STS. **g,** Schematic for

the comparison of the BCL2 PPI complex compositions in different AML cell lines. The density

of surface-immobilized BCL2 was constantly maintained by optimizing the total protein

concentration of crude cell extracts for all AML cell lines (HL60, THP-1, NB4, U937). **h,**

Compositions of the BCL2 complexes (BIM, BAX, BAD, BAK) in four different AML cell lines.

The labeling efficiencies of the immunoassays were applied. **i,** BCL2-BIM$_{BH3}$ PBA counts of

four AML cell lines. **j,** The PPI complex compositions of BCL2 in HL60, NB4, and U937 cell

extracts. **k,** Schematic of binding competition between two PPI probes, BIM$_{BH3}$-eGFP and BAD-

mCherry, on surface immobilized BCL2 from HL60 cells. **l,** Changes of BCL2-BIM$_{BH3}$ PBA and

BCL2-BAD PBA with increasing amounts of BAD probe. BIM$_{BH3}$ PPI probe was presented in

10 nM.

Fig. 3: Changes in the BCL2 family PPI complexes evoked by BH3 mimetics. a-e, Changes

of BCL2-related PPI profile in HL60 cells after ABT-199 (100 nM, 24 hours) treatment. (a) Total

levels of anti-apoptotic proteins, (b) Active BAX/BAK level, (c) Total levels of BAX/BAK, (d)

BCL2 complexes (BIM, BAX), (e) BCL2-BIM$_{BH3}$ PBA. **f-h,** Changes of PPI profile of HL60

cells after higher concentration of ABT-199 (300 nM) treatment. (f) BCL2 complexes (BIM,

BAX), (g) Active BAX/BAK level, (h) Total levels of BAX/BAK. **i,** Schematic model of mode

of action of ABT-199. **j-l,** Changes of MCL1-related PPI profile of U937 cells after AZD-5991

(100 nM, 24 hours) treatment. (j) Active BAX/BAK level, (k) MCL1 complexes (BIM, BAK), (l)

MCL1-BIM$_{BH3}$ PBA. The decrease of MCL1-BAK complex after AZD-5991 treatment was

indicated (blue). **m,** Changes of BCLxL complexes (BIM, BAX, BAD, BAK) from U937 cells

after AZD-5991 (100 nM, 24 hours) treatment. The increase of BCLxL-BAK complex after

AZD-5991 treatment was indicated (green). **n,** Comparison of relative changes of BAK

complexes from U937 cells after AZD-5991 treatment. The relative changes were obtained from

the indicated data in (k) and (m). **o,** Schematic model of mode of action of AZD-5991. (d, k, m)

The labeling efficiencies of the immunoassays were applied.

Fig. 4: Constructing an analysis model for ABT-199 efficacy with multi-dimensional PPI

profiling. a, Schematic for generating linear regression correlation between *ex vivo* efficacy of

ABT-199 and PPI profiles from primary AML samples. The collected AML cells were cultured

and treated with 0-1 μM of ABT-199, and the area under curves (AUCs) of cell viability were

obtained as *ex vivo* drug efficacy (upper). ~1.2x10⁶ of primary AML cells on the same cohort

were performed single-molecule co-IP profiling (lower) (*n*=32). **b**, Pearson's correlations

between *ex vivo* AUC of ABT-199 and PPI profiles for primary AML biopsies. **c, d**, Correlations

between *ex vivo* AUC and single BCL2-related PPI metrics. (c) BCL2-BAX complex, (d) BCL2-

BIM complex. **e,** Correlation between *ex vivo* AUC and combination of multiple PPI metrics

(BCL2-BIM$_{BH3}$ PBA, BCL2-BAX CPX, and BCLxL-BAK CPX). The statistical indicators

(coefficient, *p*-value) of each metric were displayed. **f,** Clinical features and the ABT-199

administration history of BC-7064. **g,** Comparison of the PPI profiles from the initial and the

relapsed BC-7064 samples. **h,** The estimated scores of BC-7064 and BC-7064-R from model (e).

i, Investigating the change of the estimated score and *ex vivo* AUC depending on the relapse of

the BC-7064.

Fig. 5: Construction of an MCL1 inhibitor efficacy model. a, Pearson's correlations between

ex vivo AUC of AZD-5991 and PPI profiles for primary AML samples (*n*=27). **b-c,** Correlations

between *ex vivo* AUC and single PPI metrics. (b) MCL1 total level, (c) MCL1-BIM_{BH3} PBA. **d,**

Negative correlation between *ex vivo* AUC for AZD-5991 and BCLxL-BIM_{BH3} PBA. **e,**

Comparison of BCLxL-BIM_{BH3} PBA counts for the AZD-5991 responsive (*ex vivo* AUC > 0.6,

n=12) and non-responsive (*ex vivo* AUC < 0.6, *n* =15) AML samples (Two-sided two-sample *t-*

968   test, mean difference: 3.90, P=9.09x10^{-11}). **f,** Correlation between *ex vivo* AUC and combination

969   of multiple PPI metrics (MCL1 total level, BCLxL-BIM$_{BH3}$ PBA, BCLxL-BAK CPX). The

970   statistical indicators (coefficient. p-value) of each metric were displayed.

Fig. 6: Using the PPI analysis model as a predictive biomarker for ABT-199 efficacy. a,

Complete blood cell count (CBC) analysis for counting the number of cancer blasts in the AML

samples. **b-d,** Comparison of the PPI profiles from the BC-6524 and BC-7230 samples. (b)

Comparison of PPI profiles for combinatory metrics model, (c) Clinical features and PPI

diagnostic results from the BIM$_{BH3}$ PBA profile and ABT-199 efficacy prediction model, (d)

Changes of *in vivo* cancer blast counts through the days after ABT-199 administration. **e,** Clinical

979   features and the ABT-199 administration history of BC-7107. **f,** Tracking the changes of PPI

980   profiles after relapse of BC-7107-R. **g,** Tracking the changes of BIM_{BH3}-PBA profiles and PPI

981   diagnostic results after relapse of BC-7107-R. **h,** Changes of *in vivo* cancer blast counts from

982   BC-7107-R through the days after ABT-199 administration. (c, g) The scores were estimated

983   from the model in Figure 4e.