Toward more accurate prediction of caspase cleavage sites: a comprehensive review of current methods, tools and features

Yu Bao, Simone Marini, Takeyuki Tamura, Mayumi Kamada, Shingo Maegawa, Hiroshi Hosokawa,* Jiangning Song* and Tatsuya Akutsu*

*Corresponding authors: Hiroshi Hosokawa, Graduate School of Informatics, Kyoto University, Sakyo-ku, Kyoto 606-8501, Japan. E-mail: hosokawa@i.kyoto-u.ac.jp; Jiangning Song, Monash Biomedicine Discovery Institute, Monash Centre for Data Science and ARC Centre of Excellence in Advance Molecular Imaging, Monash University, Melbourne, VIC 3800, Australia. E-mail: Jiangning.Song@monash.edu; Tatsuya Akutsu, Bioinformatics Center, Institute for Chemical Research, Kyoto University, Kyoto 611-0011, Japan. E-mail: takutsu@kuicr.kyoto-u.ac.jp.

*These authors correspondence should be addressed.

Abstract

As one of the few irreversible protein posttranslational modifications, proteolytic cleavage is involved in nearly all aspects of cellular activities, ranging from gene regulation to cell life-cycle regulation. Among the various protease-specific types of proteolytic cleavage, cleavages by caspsases/granzyme B are considered as essential in the initiation and execution of programmed cell death and inflammation processes. Although a number of substrates for both types of proteolytic cleavage have been experimentally identified, the complete repertoire of caspases and granzyme B substrates remains to be fully characterized. To tackle this issue and complement experimental efforts for substrate identification, systematic bioinformatics studies of known cleavage sites provide important insights into caspase/granzyme B substrate specificity, and facilitate the discovery of novel substrates. In this article, we review and benchmark 12 state-of-the-art sequence-based bioinformatics approaches and tools for caspases/granzyme B cleavage prediction. We evaluate and compare these methods in terms of their input/output, algorithms used, prediction performance, validation methods and software availability and utility. In addition, we construct...
Introduction

Proteases are proteolytic enzymes that catalyze the breakdown of protein or peptide substrates by hydrolysis of peptide bonds [1–9]. They represent 2% (at least 500–600 proteases) of all gene products in human and are involved in the functional regulation of a large number of important physiological processes such as cell cycle [10, 11], cell proliferation [12], programmed cell death [13–15], DNA replication [16], tissue remodeling [17] and immune response [18, 19]. The members in this class of enzymes recognize specific substrate protein sequences and catalyze the hydrolysis of peptide bonds to activate or degrade the substrate proteins. The effects of the hydrolysis reactions are frequently amplified, resulting in a rapid and substantial change of the biological systems through modulating the balance of proteomic dynamics. Such highly orchestrated sequence of events is thus termed ‘proteolytic cascades’ [20].

Caspases are a family of proteases that can be subdivided functionally into those involved in either apoptosis or inflammation [21]. In 1993, researchers found that the Caeorhabditis elegans cell death gene, ced-3, has a remarkable sequence similarity to interleukin-1β-converting enzyme (caspase-1), a mammalian protease responsible for proteolytic maturation of pro-interleukin-1β [22]. This finding elucidated the first two members of the caspase family and provided evidence that these proteinases might play an essential role in apoptosis. Subsequent studies of these proteinases drove the identification of several other caspase family members important for apoptosis or inflammation.

Apoptosis, or programmed cell death, is a fundamental process that occurs in all tissues during development, homeostasis and disease [23–26]. On the other hand, the inflammatory response is triggered by innate immune sensors following cellular damage, infection or stress, and serves to clear the harmful stimulus and initiate healing [27, 28].

To date, at least 15 mammalian caspases have been identified [29], and they are categorized into three groups, based on their substrate specificities: Group I caspases (caspase-1, 4, 5 and 13) prefer bulky hydrophobic amino acids at the P4 site and cleave the peptide sequence (W/L)EHD, Group II caspases (caspase-2, 3 and 7) preferentially cleave the sequence motif DEDX, whereas Group III caspases (caspase-6, 8, 9 and 10) cleave the motif (I/V/L)E/H/TD. In contrast to the caspases, granzyme B, another essential serine protease for apoptosis/inflammation, prefers to cleave the sequence motif IEXD [30].

For caspases not falling into Groups I, II and III, caspase-11 is considered an orthologue of caspase-4 and 5 found in murine. Activation of caspase-11 leads to septic shock, pyroptosis and often organismal death. Caspase-12 is closely related to caspase-1, and the activating form of caspase-12 is only found in people of African descent in Homo sapiens. Caspase-14 is enriched in human skin and mainly expressed in the upper layers of the epidermis. The protein is mainly localized to the cytosol according to the Cell Atlas.

Caspases are essential to coordinating and integrating signals, which lead to apoptosis, inflammation and other forms of programmed death, including pyroptosis and necroptosis [31, 32]. This view is supported by observations that proteins involved in apoptosis and inflammation contain common conserved domains, including caspase-associated recruitment domains and death effector domains, which are also present in caspases. Recent findings have indicated that classically ‘apoptotic’ caspases have essential roles in initiating inflammation, both directly and via inflammatory cell death pathways [33].

The specificity of proteases like caspases depends primarily on their active sites, whose selectivity depends on preferences for a number of specific amino acids at defined positions. In addition to the primary amino acid sequence of the substrate, the substrate specificity of a protease is also influenced by the three-dimensional conformation of its substrates. In particular, proteases preferentially cleave substrates within extended loop regions, while residues that are buried within the interior of the protein substrate are usually inaccessible to the protease active site.

Identification of native substrates of caspases and granzyme B is the key to the understanding of their physiological roles, implicated in the pathological processes contributing to proteolytic cascades, and leading to apoptotic cell death. Identification of native substrates also means to find potential substrates that can serve as viable therapeutic targets. Although the application of advanced large-scale high-throughput proteomic techniques has significantly increased the number of experimentally verified caspase and granzyme B substrates, the complete repertoire of the native substrates remains to be discovered, and furthermore, many other cleavage sites within the known substrates are not fully experimentally identified. Moreover, experimental identification and characterization of protease substrates are often time-consuming, expensive and requiring extensively trained personnel. Therefore, bioinformatic prediction of caspase and granzyme B substrates may provide valuable and experimentally testable information regarding novel potential cleavage sites or putative substrates, i.e. ranking the candidate protein target list according to their likeliness, narrowing it down to a reasonable number to be validated in the test tube.

Sequence and structural analysis of substrates of caspases and granzyme B has enabled the development of computational approaches for prediction of potential cleavage sites and putative substrates from sequence alone [34–36] using techniques for analyzing protein sequences [37–40]. However, the rapid growth in prediction approaches since the last comprehensive comparison [41], which was reported almost 5 years ago, creates a need to critically assess and compare the expanding and diverse bundle of prediction methods. In this article, therefore, we present a comprehensive review of 12 sequence-based methods for caspases/granzyme B cleavage prediction, offering insights into the nature of different predictors and facilitating potential improvement of caspases/granzyme B cleavage prediction.
All predictors are critically reviewed in terms of input/output, algorithm, prediction performance, validation method and software utility, i.e. whether a stand-alone software is available. To evaluate the performance of caspases/granzyme B cleavage predictors, we assembled independent testing data sets containing substrates of caspases/granzyme B of various species with carefully collected and curated data.

To address whether the predicted caspase substrate is really cleaved by caspase, we selected top-scoring sequences and test cleavage in vitro with a caspase assay. These sequences are top-ranked by prediction tools showing outstanding performances in our independent testing datasets.

**Methods**

**Existing tools reviewed in this study**

We briefly summarize the key aspects of the 12 tools evaluated for caspase/granzyme B cleavage prediction in Table 1. The tools included in the benchmarking analysis are GraBCas [48], CaSPredictor [49], PoPS [50], SitePrediction [51], Cascleave [52], Cascleave 2.0 [41], Pripper [53], PCSS [54], CASVM [55], CAT3 [56], PROSPER [57] and Blast [58].

**Model input**

In machine learning, the data set is often divided into training and testing data sets. The training data sets are used to build a computational model to learn hidden patterns in the data. For caspase/granzyme B substrates, the data are usually collected from various databases, such as MEROPS peptidase database [59], which contains over 410 000 listed cleavage peptidases as well as 28 000 inhibitors (physiological and nonphysiological). Other databases are CutDB [60], CaMPDB [61], TopFIND [62] and Degrable [63]. CutDB integrates 3070 proteolytic events for 470 different proteases captured from public archives. CaMPDB contains sequences of calpains, substrates and inhibitors as well as substrate cleavage sites, collected from the literature. TopFIND contains >290 000 N-/C-termini and >33 000 cleavage sites. Degrable comprises about 8000 unique N termini from >3200 proteins directly identified in subtiligase-based positive enrichment mass spectrometry experiments in healthy and apoptotic human cell lines.

The issue of biased prediction often occurs when there is an extensive overlap between the training and testing data sets. To avoid such bias, tools such as Pripper constructed training data sets according to careful selection criteria of the data (including removing the sequence redundancy in the data. For caspase/granzyme B substrates, the data are usually collected from various databases, such as MEROPS peptidase database [59], which contains over 410 000 listed cleavage peptidases as well as 28 000 inhibitors (physiological and nonphysiological). Other databases are CutDB [60], CaMPDB [61], TopFIND [62] and Degrable [63]. CutDB integrates 3070 proteolytic events for 470 different proteases captured from public archives. CaMPDB contains sequences of calpains, substrates and inhibitors as well as substrate cleavage sites, collected from the literature. TopFIND contains >290 000 N-/C-termini and >33 000 cleavage sites. Degrable comprises about 8000 unique N termini from >3200 proteins directly identified in subtiligase-based positive enrichment mass spectrometry experiments in healthy and apoptotic human cell lines.

The issue of biased prediction often occurs when there is an extensive overlap between the training and testing data sets. To avoid such bias, tools such as Pripper constructed training data sets according to careful selection criteria of the data (including removing the sequence redundancy in the data). For caspase/granzyme B substrates, the data are usually collected from various databases, such as MEROPS peptidase database [59], which contains over 410 000 listed cleavage peptidases as well as 28 000 inhibitors (physiological and nonphysiological). Other databases are CutDB [60], CaMPDB [61], TopFIND [62] and Degrable [63]. CutDB integrates 3070 proteolytic events for 470 different proteases captured from public archives. CaMPDB contains sequences of calpains, substrates and inhibitors as well as substrate cleavage sites, collected from the literature. TopFIND contains >290 000 N-/C-termini and >33 000 cleavage sites. Degrable comprises about 8000 unique N termini from >3200 proteins directly identified in subtiligase-based positive enrichment mass spectrometry experiments in healthy and apoptotic human cell lines.

Apart from the sequence overlap between the training data set and validation data set, the issue of data imbalance also needs to be addressed. Use of an unbalanced data set often leads to biased models that favor the prediction of the ‘majority’ class of samples. Most tools solve this issue by selecting the positive data set from experimental databases and manually generating/sampling the negative data set with different approaches. For example, Cascleave/Cascleave 2.0 address this issue by generating positive and negative data sets from substrate sequences using a local sliding window approach surrounding the experimentally verified cleavage sites and other residues that are found not to be cleaved by caspases, respectively. Cascleave also uses an undersampling approach by reducing the size of the overrepresented negative samples. Pripper creates the negative data set by selecting negative training sequences generated from the same substrate sequences that are used for positive sequences. Both Cascleave/Cascleave 2.0 and PROSPER set the ratio of the positive to negative data to approximately 1:3. Pripper sets the ratio of the positive data to negative data to approximately 1:1. Similar efforts to minimize the unbalanced data (such as controlling the ratio of positive and negative data), though not explained in detail, can be observed in the development of other prediction tools such as PoPS.

**Models construction and development**

Early tools for caspase/granzyme B cleavage site prediction predict caspase/granzyme B cleavage sites from sequence information only, while more sophisticated tools developed more recently consider additional information such as secondary structure (SS) information, hydrophilicity/hydrophobicity, as well as solvent accessibility (SA) and protein native disorder information. The prediction methods can be generally classified into two types, machine learning-based algorithms and statistical scoring method-based algorithms. Machine learning-based tools include CASVM, Pripper, PCSS, PROSPER, Cascleave and Cascleave 2.0. While Statistical scoring method-based tools include GraBCas, CaSPredictor, PoPS, SitePrediction, CAT3 and Blast.

GraBCas is a scoring method based on position-specific scoring matrices (PSSMs). The PSSM is constructed based on experimentally determined substrate specificities. For computing the score in PSSM, GraBCas screens for tetrapeptides with Asp (D) at their last position (P1) in a given amino acid sequence. Given the tetrapeptide AA3A2D (P4P3P2P1) of a potential cleavage site, its cleavage score for a given endopeptidase is computed by multiplying the corresponding matrix entries of A2 at position P2, A3 at position P3 and A4 at position P4. To improve the performance, GraBCas analyzes the amino acid distribution of known granzyme B and caspase-3 cleavage sites at positions P6-P2’ [where P and P’ mean residues C-terminal to the cleavage site as prime (P’) site and N-terminal peptide residues as non-prime (P) site] taken from the literature. CaSPredictor, a tool published at the same time with GraBCas, developed a scoring algorithm named CCSearch (Caspase Cleavage Site searcher), which is based on three parameters. The first parameter is calculated from the BLOSUM62 Substitution Matrix. The second parameter is the relative frequency f(i) for each amino acid residue at position i (P4-P1) from annotated sequences. The last parameter is the PEST index, calculated by giving a value of 1 to the amino acids in the following set: Ser (S), Thr (T), Pro (P), Glu or Asp (E/D), Asn (N) and Gln (Q), which are the residues of PEST regions [64]. There is an evidence that PEST-like sequences, rich in the aforementioned amino acids, if located in the upstream or downstream of the cleavage site, may contribute to the specificity for at least 60% verified caspase substrates [64, 65]. PoPS is a tool based on a computational model built from three components. The first component is the number of substrates within the active site of the protease. The second component is the specificity profile of each substrate, assigning a value to each of the 20 amino acids based on the relative contribution of the amino acid at that subsite to the overall substrate specificity of the protease. The last component is the weight of the subsite [50]. SitePrediction is a tool based on the idea that besides the occurrences of fixed consensus cleavage sites in the substrate sequence, a second score is calculated to improve the performance. This score is based on the similarity of the potential sequence overlap between the training data set and validation data set, the issue of data imbalance also needs to be addressed. Use of an unbalanced data set often leads to biased models that favor the prediction of the ‘majority’ class of samples. Most tools solve this issue by selecting the positive data set from experimental databases and manually generating/sampling the negative data set with different approaches. For example, Cascleave/Cascleave 2.0 address this issue by generating positive and negative data sets from substrate sequences using a local sliding window approach surrounding the experimentally verified cleavage sites and other residues that are found not to be cleaved by caspases, respectively. Cascleave also uses an undersampling approach by reducing the size of the overrepresented negative samples. Pripper creates the negative data set by selecting negative training sequences generated from the same substrate sequences that are used for positive sequences. Both Cascleave/Cascleave 2.0 and PROSPER set the ratio of the positive to negative data to approximately 1:3. Pripper sets the ratio of the positive data to negative data to approximately 1:1. Similar efforts to minimize the unbalanced data (such as controlling the ratio of positive and negative data), though not explained in detail, can be observed in the development of other prediction tools such as PoPS.
Table 1. A summary of key features of each tool evaluated in this article

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tools</th>
<th>SitePrediction</th>
<th>Cascleave</th>
<th>PoPS</th>
<th>Pripper</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Species</td>
<td>Multispecies</td>
<td>Multispecies</td>
<td>Multispecies</td>
<td>Multispecies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Algorithm</td>
<td>Combination of frequency score representing amino acids occurrence and position similarity</td>
<td>BEAA trained and tested support vector regression (SVR) model</td>
<td>PSSM matrix</td>
<td>Combination of SVM/random forest and J48 algorithm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Option of batch prediction</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjustment of prediction thresholds</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Standalone software availability</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Language implemented</td>
<td>C++</td>
<td>Perl</td>
<td>Java</td>
<td>Java</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dataset origin</td>
<td>Data from MEROPS</td>
<td>Multiple resources</td>
<td>Data from MEROPS</td>
<td>Data from EBI [42]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ratio of positive to negative samples</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>1:3</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>1:1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sliding window size</td>
<td>Within a second</td>
<td>16 amino acids</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>10 amino acids</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Computing time for processing a sequence</td>
<td>Within a second</td>
<td>5 min</td>
<td>Within a second</td>
<td>Within a second</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Whether structural information considered</td>
<td>Secondary structure prediction, SA and PEST sequence occurrence considered</td>
<td>Secondary structure, SA and natively disordered regions considered</td>
<td>Secondary or tertiary structure of the substrate considered</td>
<td>Not considered</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Types of caspases applicable</td>
<td>Specific training sets corresponding to caspases 1, 3, 6, 7, 8</td>
<td>Mixed training sets for all caspases</td>
<td>Mixed training sets for all caspases</td>
<td>Mixed training sets for all caspases</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tools</td>
<td>CAT3</td>
<td>PCSS</td>
<td>Blast</td>
<td>PROSPER</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Species</td>
<td>Multispecies</td>
<td>Multispecies</td>
<td>N.A.</td>
<td>Multi-Species</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Algorithm</td>
<td>PSSM matrix</td>
<td>SVM with radial basis function (RBF) kernel</td>
<td>N.A.</td>
<td>BEAA trained and tested SVR model with RBF kernel combined with MDGI feature selection</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Option of batch prediction</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>N.A.</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjustment of prediction thresholds</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>N.A.</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Standalone software availability</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>N.A.</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Language implemented</td>
<td>Perl</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>N.A.</td>
<td>Perl</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dataset origin</td>
<td>Data from PubMed [43]</td>
<td>Multiple resources</td>
<td>N.A.</td>
<td>Data from MEROPS, CutDB and PMAP [44]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ratio of positive to negative samples</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>N.A.</td>
<td>1:3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sliding window size</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>N.A.</td>
<td>Six amino acids</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Computing time for processing a sequence</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>A few minutes</td>
<td>N.A.</td>
<td>A few minutes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Whether Structure information considered</td>
<td>Not considered</td>
<td>Regular secondary structure considered</td>
<td>N.A.</td>
<td>Secondary structure, SA and native disorder considered</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Types of caspases applicable</td>
<td>Training sets corresponding to caspases-3</td>
<td>Separated training sets for caspases and granzyme B</td>
<td>N.A.</td>
<td>Mixed training sets for all caspases</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tools</td>
<td>GraBCas</td>
<td>CasPredictor</td>
<td>CASVM</td>
<td>Casleave 2.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Species</td>
<td>Multispecies</td>
<td>Multispecies</td>
<td>Multispecies</td>
<td>Multispecies</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Continued
Table 1. (continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tools</th>
<th>SitePrediction</th>
<th>Cascleave</th>
<th>PoPS</th>
<th>Pripper</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Algorithm</td>
<td>Scoring matrices</td>
<td>BLOSUM 62 Substitution Matrix-based CCSearcher algorithm</td>
<td>SVM</td>
<td>Maximum relevance, minimum redundancy and forward feature selection techniques trained SVM model</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Option of batch prediction | – | – | – | – |
| Adjustment of prediction thresholds | – | – | – | – |
| Standalone software availability | – | – | – | – |
| Language implemented | Java | Visual Basic | Perl | Java |
| Dataset origin | – | Various databases, including SwissProt [45], InterDom [46] and Pfam [47] | Various resources | MEROPS |
| Ratio of positive to negative samples | – | – | – | 1:1 |
| Sliding window size | – | – | – | Three scanning window sizes are available: P4P1, P4P2’ and P14P10’ |
| Computing time for processing a sequence | – | – | – | – |
| Whether Structure information considered | Not considered | Not considered | Not considered | Secondary structure, SA and SS is considered |
| Types of caspases applicable | Specific training sets corresponding to caspases-3 and granzyme B | Mixed training sets for all caspases | Mixed training sets for all caspases | Mixed training sets for all caspases |

Note: These features include applicable species, whether web server exists, algorithm used, whether the batch prediction option is available, whether threshold is adjustable, whether stand-alone software exists, programming language used to implement the program, the origins of training data set, ratio of positive and negative samples, sliding window size (if exists), computing time to process one sequence and whether SA and SS is considered. The '-' option means not available or not mentioned in the original paper.

cleavage sites to the known sites used. SitePrediction also makes use of extra features, including PEST sequences, SA and SS, which may also provide contribution to the prediction performance [51]. CAT3 is a PSSM matrix-based method developed in 2012 [56]. CAT3 exploits positional specific frequency matrices from the multiple sequence alignments of the relevant set of peptides. Each matrix consists of 14 rows, representing positions P9…P10’, where a D amino acid is at the position P1. The 20 columns of the matrix represent the frequencies of each amino acid. CAT3 also uses two weighting systems to correct the probability of overrepresented and underrepresented amino acids in the frequency matrices to establish the scoring matrices: Calculating log odd ratio and subtraction of negative control background, which also contributes to the accuracy of CAT3. Blast is an aligning tool ubiquitously used in proteomics. Assuming that target substrates share a similar sequence, it can be used as a rudimentary prediction tool [52]. For our assessment, the cleavage score of a query test protein corresponds to the highest Blast bit score (a normalized aligned value, independent from sequence length and database size) with the known substrates in the training set. PROSPERous [66] is a recently developed tool, which uses a combination of various scoring functions as the input, including nearest neighbor similarity (NNS), amino acid frequency (AAF), WebLogo-based Sequence conservation (WLS), BLOSUM62 Substitution Index (BSI) as well as pairs of these function, namely, AAF + NNS, WLS + BSI and NNS + WLS. More recently, an advanced version of PROSPER, termed iProt-Sub [67], was developed to provide optimized cleavage site prediction models with a larger coverage of more proteases (up to 4 major protease families and 38 different proteases). iProt-Sub uses 11 different sequence encoding schemes in combination with a two-step feature selection procedure to remove the redundant features and improve the accuracy [67].

Most of the recently developed tools for predicting caspase/granzyme B cleavage sites are based on the support vector machine (SVM) algorithm. These tools include CASVM, Pripper, PCSS, Cascleave, Cascleave 2.0, PROSPER and iProt-Sub.

SVMs are classifiers that based on the maximization of the margin between classes. The data are considered as n-dimensional vectors, and the algorithm finds a hyperplane that separates vectors in different classes with a maximal margin. A kernel function can be used to map vectors of the original feature space to a higher-dimensional space in which the data can always be linearly separated. Note that the selection of training data greatly affects the performance of an SVM classifier; therefore, we will provide a detailed description of the way to select training data for each tool. CASVM is trained with sequences from a data set containing unique caspase cleavage sites, obtained from experimentally verified caspase substrates and an equal number of 'non-cleavage' sites, i.e. random tetrapeptide sequences extracted elsewhere on the same substrate. The tetrapeptide sequences are selected with the upstream 10 residues up to P14 position and downstream 10 residues up to P10’ position (i.e. the classifier is
trained on a local window size of P14-P10’ sites) from the substrates. The SVM model of Pripper is trained on a balanced data set containing positive cleavage site samples gathered from 358 substrate proteins, and negative sequences generated from substrate sequences containing positive ones, specifically by selecting Asp (D) positions that have not been detected as caspase cleavage sites. Feature vectors consist of a fixed number of amino acids, encoded in a numerical form, incorporating both sides of the cleavage site. Each amino acid in the sequence is represented as an array of length 20 representing the 20 different amino acids. Only one element is set to 1, identifying the amino acid in question, while the rest is set to 0. PCSS model is based on single-cleavage sequences, each with eight features representing oligopeptides. To each residue, a feature number by the formula \( (n^2 + i) \) is assigned, where \( n \) represents the zero-based position in the peptide sequence of the residue, and \( i \) represents the position of the residue in line with a zero-based alphabetical ordering of all residues. In addition, PCSS also considers SS features, native disorder feature, SA feature calculated by DSSP [68], Disopred [69] and PSI-PRED [70], respectively. Casceleve uses a feature extraction method named binary encoding amino acid sequence profiles (BEAA) and its extension to include relevant structural features. In BEAA of which is encoded, substrate sequences are transformed into n-dimensional vectors using an orthonormal encoding scheme, in which each amino acid is represented by a 20-dimensional binary vector composed of either 0 or 1 elements. Similarly to PCSS, the structural information predicted by state-of-the-art algorithms, specifically, SSS, SA and natively unstructured regions are incorporated into the model to improve the performance. Casceleve also uses a novel approach named Bi-profile Bayesian signature, which is reported to significantly improve performance in methylation sites prediction [71]. Similarly to Casceleve, Casceleve 2.0 considers various structural information, including (but not limited to) SS, solvent accessibility, disordered region and amino acid index (AAnindex [72]). AAnindex consists of a list of amino acid indices representing various physicochemical and biochemical properties. Casceleve 2.0 also involves an over-and-underrepresented feature enrichment analysis. The rationale is that for each protein substrate, the set of various heterogeneous features generated above is highly dimensional, heterogeneous, noisy and redundant, and thus removing redundant features and using more relevant features might be useful for improving the predictive performance. Inclusion of noisy and redundant leads to a time-consuming practice to train classifiers, thereby resulting in possible biased model training and prediction. Casceleve 2.0 automatically estimates and eliminates noisy features. PROSPER, like Casceleve, is an SVM-based method; it can be applied to a broader range of proteases. Compared with Casceleve, PROSPER uses a feature selection method called mean decrease Gini index (MDGI) within the random forest algorithm, which can generate a score quantifying the importance and contribution of the individual element of a feature vector for correctly classifying a residue into a cleavage site or noncleavage site. The MDGI feature selection step has proven useful for improving the prediction accuracy [73] and is particularly useful for large training data sets.

**Performance evaluation**

To assess the performance of the compared methods, several cross-validation approaches are usually used, including N-fold, leave-one-out and leave-family-out. In addition, we look into prediction details by performing a case study. Cross-validation is typically exploited to avoid overfitting the training data set. Cross-validation consists in splitting the data set into \( N \) folds and combine \( N-1 \) folds as the training data set, while the left data set is regarded as test data set. Leave-one-out and leave-family-out are specific cases of \( N \)-fold cross-validation. Given a data set with \( D \) data samples, leave-one-out cross-validation (LOOCV) combines \( D-1 \) samples to form the training data set and leaves the remaining one sample as the test sample. By iteratively selecting test sample, each sample in the data set is used as a test sample once. On the other hand, in the leave-family-out cross-validation, if the data set is collected from different species/families, each subset from the same species/family is iteratively selected and regarded as test data set once, while other subsets will be combined to form the training data set. As each sample/subset is iteratively selected as the test set, we need to perform the prediction many times with different combination of training datasets. We then average these results (usually accuracy) and acquire the final performance for cross-validation tests. Among the evaluated tools, Casceleve, Cascleave 2.0, PROSPER use the 5-fold cross-validation, while Casceleve 2.0 uses the LOOCV to assess their performance.

**Experimental validation**

Recombinant target substrate proteins are incubated with active caspase-3 (Genetex) or active caspase-8 (Biovision) at 37°C for 2 h. After incubation, proteins are separated on 10% sodium dodecyl sulfate polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (SDS-PAGE) gels and transferred to nitrocellulose membrane. Transferred membrane is blocked with 4% blockace at 4°C for 2 h and incubated with anticyclic peptide antibody (9E10) for 1:5000 in 0.2% blockace in TBS-Tween (TTBS). After incubation, membrane is incubated with peroxidase conjugated anti-mouse IgG for 1:5000 in 0.2% blockace in TBS-Tween (TTBS) for 1 h. Bound antibody is visualized by supersignal west pico (PIERCE) according to manufacturer’s instruction and LAS4000 mini (Fuji).

**Predictor utility**

An important consideration for developing practically useful predictors in the biological research community is to provide a user-friendly Web interface or a local software tool, to enable nonbioinformaticians to apply the model directly to their own data. The usefulness of bioinformatics tools depends on three main factors, i.e. the Web interface, the output and interpretation of prediction results and the availability of local executable software. A user-friendly interface can provide appropriate guidance and instructions for users to avoid making potential mistakes when exploiting the Web server. This is particularly important when parameter settings are required before conducting prediction tasks. Among the predictors we tested, SitePrediction, Casceleve, PCSS and Blast have implemented Web servers. All these tools require to provide parameters regarding penalty, prediction algorithm, error handling as well as e-mail address where the prediction results will be sent.
Specifically, SitePrediction requires an input sequence to be submitted in the FASTA format, and the type of protease can be optionally selected, and multiple substrate protein sequences can be predicted at the same time. Cascleave requires users to input substrate sequences that need to be predicted, as well as algorithms used for performing the prediction. In addition, the user also needs to specify the e-mail address to acquire the prediction results. As Cascleave does not support batch submission, users can submit only one protein sequence to Cascleave each time. PCSS requires users to specify the training data as well as classifying data to perform the prediction, and also lists some pre-generated models for executing a quick prediction.

On the other hand, stand-alone software allows users to perform predictions for a large amount of sequences on local machines, offering an advantage over Web servers. However, there exists also a burden of installing (and perhaps compiling) the software locally, along with the dependent libraries. In addition, if the input sequence data are too large, there exists a possibility that the local resources may not be sufficient enough to run the program properly. Among the predictors we tested, Pripper and CAT3 are stand-alone software tools written using Java, whereas PoPS provides a JNLP file for downloading and local usage.

### Result

#### Independent test and performance evaluation

In this section, to assess the performance of the reviewed tools in an objective and fair manner, we constructed independent test sets of caspase-1 and 3 substrates for H. sapiens. To evaluate the performance of these tools on other species, we also constructed independent test sets of caspase-1 substrates for M. musculus and Escherichia coli.

Note that as some of the tools are not accessible (i.e. neither implemented as Web servers nor downloadable), we were forced to limit our assessment to the available ones: PoPS, SitePrediction, Cascleave, Pripper, PCSS, CAT3 and Blast.

#### Test data set construction

For each of the three species, we extracted all the fasta sequences from MEROPS of release 12.0 [59]. Training data sets for each tool and independent test data sets should have a minimum overlap, because a large overlap will likely result in an overestimation of the performance and biased prediction outcome. We therefore eliminated sequences that were overlapped in the training data sets of prediction tools, including Cascleave and Cascleave 2.0 from the independent test data sets. Both of these tools are recently developed, and thus, it is understandable that their training data set covered most of the extracted sequences (especially when compared with training datasets of tools developed in the early years). Our analysis showed that more than half of the extracted sequences were discarded for this reason, leaving 66 caspase-1 substrate sequences and 121 caspase-3 substrate sequences, respectively, in total, for all three species. For the negative data sets, we randomly selected proteins excluding those identified as substrates of caspase-1 or 3 of each species. To avoid biased performance evaluation, the size of negative data sets was set as the same as that of positive data sets. These constructed independent test data sets are named as Cas1-all and Cas3-all, respectively.

We further divided these data sets according to the corresponding species these substrates belong to, resulting in another six data sets corresponding to caspase-1 and caspase-3 substrates of the three species. Each of these sets is named as Cas1-homo, Cas3-homo, Cas1-mus, Cas3-mus, Cas1-coli and Cas3-coli, respectively. We notice that for caspase-1 the sizes of cas1-mus and cas1-coli were too small to be used for an effective receiver operating characteristic (ROC) evaluation, and thus, we skipped these two data sets when drawing ROC curves. We also notice that CAT3 was designed only for predicting caspase-3 substrates, and thus, we only performed the evaluation of CAT3 on the sets that composed of caspase 1 substrates. The detailed description of the test sets used is shown in Table 2.

#### Performance comparison

Among the reviewed predictors, as PoPS only has one parameter (threshold), we set the threshold as 0 to obtain more available results (as a lower threshold leads to a larger number of predicted potential cleavage sites [50]). For Cascleave, several prediction models (or the combination of models) such as BEAA, BPBAA and BPBDISO were tested. As the combination of BEAA, BPBAA and BPBDISO achieved the best in terms of the ROC

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Test set name</th>
<th>Positive or negative</th>
<th>Test set description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cas1-all</td>
<td>Positive set</td>
<td>Combination of caspase-1 substrates from H. sapiens, M. musculus and Escherichia coli extracted from MEROPS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Negative set</td>
<td>Combination of protein from H. sapiens, M. musculus and E. coli excluding caspase-1 substrates.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cas3-all</td>
<td>Positive set</td>
<td>Combination of caspase-3 substrates from H. sapiens, M. musculus and E. coli extracted from MEROPS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Negative set</td>
<td>Combination of protein from H. sapiens, M. musculus and E. coli excluding caspase-3 substrates.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cas1-homo</td>
<td>Positive set</td>
<td>Caspase-1 substrates from H. sapiens extracted from MEROPS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Negative set</td>
<td>Protein excluding caspase-1 substrates from H. sapiens</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cas3-homo</td>
<td>Positive set</td>
<td>Caspase-3 substrates from H. sapiens extracted from MEROPS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Negative set</td>
<td>Protein excluding caspase-3 substrates from H. sapiens</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cas1-mus</td>
<td>Positive set</td>
<td>Caspase-1 substrates from M. musculus extracted from MEROPS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Negative set</td>
<td>Protein excluding caspase-1 substrates from M. musculus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cas3-mus</td>
<td>Positive set</td>
<td>Caspase-3 substrates from M. musculus extracted from MEROPS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Negative set</td>
<td>Protein excluding caspase-3 substrates from M. musculus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cas1-coli</td>
<td>Positive set</td>
<td>Caspase-1 substrates from E. coli extracted from MEROPS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Negative set</td>
<td>Protein excluding caspase-1 substrates from E. coli</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cas3-coli</td>
<td>Positive set</td>
<td>Caspase-3 substrates from E. coli extracted from MEROPS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Negative set</td>
<td>Protein excluding caspase-3 substrates from E. coli</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
curve, we chose this option for evaluation. For SitePrediction, different predefined training databases, corresponding to various species, exist. It is therefore possible to choose a particular database for each test set. For caspase-1 substrates prediction, we chose ‘caspase-1 for all species’ training database, and for caspase-3 substrates prediction, we chose the ‘caspase 3 for all species’ training database to perform the evaluation. For Pripper, as vote option gets the highest performance on the ROC curve testing, we chose the ‘vote’ option and cut option as ‘Full cut’. For PCSS, we chose the caspase option in the pre-generated model and selected the training iteration as 100. For Blast, we used the default parameters to perform the prediction. Then, we performed the prediction on each of the constructed independent test sets described in the test data set construction section, and for each set, we evaluated the performance using area under the curve (AUC) values.

Figures 1 and 2 show the ROC curves of different tools assessed using the Cas1-all and Cas3-all test data sets, respectively. Cascleave, PoPS and Pripper outperformed other tools and achieved the best AUC values on the Cas1-all set (with an AUC value of 0.796 for Cascleave, 0.739 for PoPS and 0.655 for Pripper, respectively), while tools such as Blast, which depends on the sequence similarity, performed poorly in ROC performance. For Pripper, we used the default parameters to perform the prediction. Then, we performed the prediction on each of the constructed independent test sets described in the test data set construction section, and for each set, we evaluated the performance using area under the curve (AUC) values.

Figures 1 and 2 show the ROC curves of different tools assessed using the Cas1-all and Cas3-all test data sets, respectively. Cascleave, PoPS and Pripper outperformed other tools and achieved the best AUC values on the Cas1-all set (with an AUC value of 0.796 for Cascleave, 0.739 for PoPS and 0.655 for Pripper, respectively), while tools such as Blast, which depends on the sequence similarity, performed poorly in ROC performance. For Pripper, we used the default parameters to perform the prediction. Then, we performed the prediction on each of the constructed independent test sets described in the test data set construction section, and for each set, we evaluated the performance using area under the curve (AUC) values.

Figures 1 and 2 show the ROC curves of different tools assessed using the Cas1-all and Cas3-all test data sets, respectively. Cascleave, PoPS and Pripper outperformed other tools and achieved the best AUC values on the Cas1-all set (with an AUC value of 0.796 for Cascleave, 0.739 for PoPS and 0.655 for Pripper, respectively), while tools such as Blast, which depends on the sequence similarity, performed poorly in ROC performance. For Pripper, we used the default parameters to perform the prediction. Then, we performed the prediction on each of the constructed independent test sets described in the test data set construction section, and for each set, we evaluated the performance using area under the curve (AUC) values.

Figures 1 and 2 show the ROC curves of different tools assessed using the Cas1-all and Cas3-all test data sets, respectively. Cascleave, PoPS and Pripper outperformed other tools and achieved the best AUC values on the Cas1-all set (with an AUC value of 0.796 for Cascleave, 0.739 for PoPS and 0.655 for Pripper, respectively), while tools such as Blast, which depends on the sequence similarity, performed poorly in ROC performance. For Pripper, we used the default parameters to perform the prediction. Then, we performed the prediction on each of the constructed independent test sets described in the test data set construction section, and for each set, we evaluated the performance using area under the curve (AUC) values.

Figures 1 and 2 show the ROC curves of different tools assessed using the Cas1-all and Cas3-all test data sets, respectively. Cascleave, PoPS and Pripper outperformed other tools and achieved the best AUC values on the Cas1-all set (with an AUC value of 0.796 for Cascleave, 0.739 for PoPS and 0.655 for Pripper, respectively), while tools such as Blast, which depends on the sequence similarity, performed poorly in ROC performance. For Pripper, we used the default parameters to perform the prediction. Then, we performed the prediction on each of the constructed independent test sets described in the test data set construction section, and for each set, we evaluated the performance using area under the curve (AUC) values.

Figure 3 shows the ROC curves of different tools on the Cas1-homo set. PoPS, Cascleave and Pripper achieved the highest AUC values (PoPS with AUC value of 0.744, Cascleave with AUC value of 0.771 and Pripper with AUC value of 0.663, respectively). Figure 4 shows the ROC curves for the prediction result of the Cas3-homo set, for H. sapiens. SitePrediction, CAT3 and Cascleave achieved the best AUC values (SitePrediction with AUC value of 0.787, CAT3 with AUC value of 0.703 and Cascleave with AUC value of 0.745, respectively).

Figure 5 shows the ROC curves for the Cas3-mus set. The ROC curves show that for the Cas3-mus set, SitePrediction, PoPS and Cascleave achieved the best performance in terms of AUC value, each with AUC value of 0.760, 0.712 and 0.729.

Figure 5 shows the ROC curves for the Cas3-mus set. The ROC curves show that for the Cas3-mus set, SitePrediction, PoPS and Cascleave achieved the best performance in terms of AUC value, each with AUC value of 0.760, 0.712 and 0.729.

Figure 6 shows the ROC curves on the Cas3coli set. We can see from the ROC curves that SitePrediction, PoPS and CAT3 achieved the best AUC value (SitePrediction with AUC value of 0.702, PoPS with AUC value of 0.627 and CAT3 with AUC value of 0.638, respectively).

Combining the tool evaluation results in Table 1 and performance benchmarking results, we can draw the following conclusions:

SitePrediction achieves a better performance for general prediction (i.e. it provides a better performance for predicting caspase substrates from species excluding H. sapiens). This is perhaps because of the separation of the training sets provided by SitePrediction. The performance results in turn show that it is better to construct independent training sets for each species than to mix all sequences into a single training set. Considering the faster computing speed of SitePrediction, users are recommended to use SitePrediction to predict species excluding H. sapiens.

While SitePrediction possesses such a merit, it is also flawed when it has to address predictions on H. sapiens. From Table 3, we can see that while SitePrediction achieves the highest performance for caspase-3 substrate prediction, it performs poorly for caspase-1 substrate prediction. This indicates that it is generally better to use Cascleave to achieve the best performance on caspase-1 substrate prediction.

Although Cascleave provides the best performance on caspase-1 substrate prediction and an acceptable performance on caspase-3 prediction, the computational cost for Cascleave is a little higher compared with other tools. Moreover, in addition to the requirement of submitting fasta files, Cascleave only allows the submission of one sequence to the server each time, thereby limiting the batch prediction for Cascleave.
If users want to perform a caspase-specific (i.e. the types of the caspase substrate is limited) substrate prediction offline, they are advised to use CAT3 for caspase-3 substrate prediction and Pripper for caspase-1 substrate prediction, as these two tools come with an implemented local package, while the other tools with better performance such as Cascleave and SitePrediction can only be used online.

We also notice that Blast performs poorly for almost all the training set, and this is perhaps because that the Blast predictions are not aiming at identifying specific cleavage sites, but in general work by identifying homologous protein sequences as a whole that are similar to known cleavable sequences. The result of Blast is specifically generated according to the following steps: for a given caspase, a
positive set and a test protein, the test protein is aligned using Blast against all the proteins in the positive set, and then the best E-value is taken as the Blast prediction score, based on which Blast can predict the test protein to be a target substrate for the given caspase according to the highest similarity to the known targets.

On the other hand, the Blast calculation steps also indicate that Blast may perform better than specialized algorithms in certain cases (Figure 6); however, in terms of false-positive rates, it cannot identify the cleavage site. Furthermore, even if not designed for identifying small motifs, Blast can find an overall sequence similarity, which might result from a common
ancestry, and therefore share a common function, such as the whole protein being a cleavage target for caspases. The best AUC values for each prediction tool on each test set are summarized in Table 3. In summary, performance comparison analysis on the independent test indicates that SitePrediction and Cascleave are the two best-performing tools and generally provide an overall best performance among all the tools compared.

Although the AUC value shows that the state-of-the-art tools are still limited in terms of their predictive performance, there is room to further improve the performance by including newly discovered caspase substrates into training sets, integrating new informative features and developing novel models.

Table 3. Summary of the top three tools that achieved the highest performance of AUC values for each set evaluated

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Data set</th>
<th>Top three tools of the highest performance of AUC values</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cas1-all</td>
<td>Cascleave (0.796) PoPS (0.739) Pripper (0.655)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cas3-all</td>
<td>SitePrediction (0.754) CAT3 (0.711) SitePrediction (0.693)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cas1-homo</td>
<td>Cascleave (0.771) PoPS (0.744) Pripper (0.663)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cas3-homo</td>
<td>SitePrediction (0.787) Cascleave (0.745) CAT3 (0.703)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cas3-mus</td>
<td>SitePrediction (0.760) Cascleave (0.729) PoPS (0.712)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cas3-coli</td>
<td>SitePrediction (0.702) CAT3 (0.638) PoPS (0.627)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: The data sets used include are Cas1-all, Cas3-all, Cas1-homo, Cas3-homo, Cas3-mus and Cas3-coli.

Selection of potential caspase substrates

To further evaluate each tool described in this research, we selected a number of potential substrates with high scores predicted by most tools in the human proteome, and experimentally validated these potential substrates for caspase-3 and caspase-8 by performing caspase assay experiments. In the independent test step, the AUC values of caspase-1 and caspase-3 for H. sapiens showed that among all the tools tested Cascleave, PoPS and SitePrediction achieved better performances than other tools (Table 3). Among these three tools, Cascleave and SitePrediction achieved the best AUC values. We further notice that while on the Cas3-homo set SitePrediction achieved the best AUC value but performed poorly on the Cas1-homo set (even not included in the top three tools), suggesting that SitePrediction might be more suitable for predicting caspase-3 substrates.

We first made a consensus-based decision for caspase prediction using the predictors that are capable of discriminating caspase substrates from non-caspase substrate based on the result described above. The predictors used for this purpose were SitePrediction, Cascleave and PoPS. During the prediction, we notice that it took a longer time for Cascleave to complete the prediction process for a single protein sequence; thus, it is reasonable to use SitePrediction and PoPS first to perform a rough discrimination of the sequences in the proteome of H. sapiens and apply Cascleave to predict specific cleavage sites within the proteins selected out. The detailed procedures can be found in Figure 7.

Considering the fact that Cascleave performed best in discriminating caspase substrates from non-caspase substrates, we sorted the final predicted caspase substrates based on predicted cleavage probability the score of Cascleave, and then

Figure 6. ROC curves of Blast, Cascleave, PCSS, PoPS, Pripper, CAT3, SitePrediction on the Cas3-coli set.
performed the caspase cleavage assay experiments to validate these potential caspase substrates.

Caspase cleavage assay

The caspase cleavage assay is conducted to experimentally validate the potential substrates selected out in the previous section.

Figure 8 illustrates the caspase substrate cleavage results based on western blotting. Recombinant proteins encoding GST-myc-GFP with IETD linker between GST and GFP (Right) or without linker (Left) were digested by active caspase-8 (+) or control (−). After digestion, proteins were analyzed by western blotting using anti-myc. Recombinant GST-mycGFP, 75 kDa band, was detected in both conditions with and without caspase-8 treatment. In the recombinant GST-IETD-mycGFP protein case, a 75 kDa band was detected in caspase-8 nontreatment condition, and in contrast, a 50 kDa protein band was detected in caspase-8 treatment recombinant GSTIETD-mycGFP, indicating that IETD linker was cleaved by caspase-8.

Caspase assay result discussion

Caspase cleavage assay results are summarized in Tables 4 and 5. As we can see, the experimental results clearly show that the majority of predicted potential substrates were cleaved. These results indicate that the tools tested in the evaluation step demonstrate an excellent performance for predicting both caspase-3 and 8 target substrates. In addition, there also exist a
number of cleavage sites, which cannot be identified by most of the tools, highlighting that it remains a challenging task to develop more reliable and accurate caspase cleavage site prediction methods. See Supplemental Information for details of protein expression.

From the result, we can also see that some predicted substrates are both cleaved by caspases in the Group II and Group III, such as DETD—SGAG (both cleaved by caspase-3 and caspase-6) and DD'TD—GLTP (both cleaved by caspase-2 and caspase-6). This is the reason why many substrates cleaved by

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Predicted caspase-3 substrate cleavage site</th>
<th>PoPS score</th>
<th>SitePrediction score</th>
<th>Cascleave score</th>
<th>Experimental result</th>
<th>Corresponding annotations in MEROPS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>DVVD—GADT</td>
<td>21.32</td>
<td>1560.39</td>
<td>1.578</td>
<td>○</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EEVD—GSPP</td>
<td>20.08</td>
<td>1515.92</td>
<td>1.461</td>
<td>○</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EVD—GSQG</td>
<td>20.08</td>
<td>1515.92</td>
<td>1.461</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>C14 homologue</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EEVD—GAPR</td>
<td>20.08</td>
<td>1888.27</td>
<td>1.307</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>C14.005: caspase-6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DSVD—GSLT</td>
<td>21.26</td>
<td>1909.07</td>
<td>1.21</td>
<td>○</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AEVD—GVDE</td>
<td>19.93</td>
<td>295.25</td>
<td>1.061</td>
<td>×</td>
<td>C14 homologue</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DDFD—SAYL</td>
<td>18.08</td>
<td>680.822</td>
<td>1.058</td>
<td>○</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AEVD—GATP</td>
<td>19.94</td>
<td>623.306</td>
<td>1.034</td>
<td>×</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EEPD—GGFR</td>
<td>16.97</td>
<td>414.973</td>
<td>0.969</td>
<td>○</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TEPD—SPSP</td>
<td>Non-cleavage</td>
<td>Non-cleavage</td>
<td>0.961</td>
<td>×</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SEID—GKKG</td>
<td>18.7</td>
<td>220.873</td>
<td>0.911</td>
<td>○</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EEPD—SANS</td>
<td>17.14</td>
<td>761.635</td>
<td>0.82</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>C14.005: caspase-6, C14.006: caspase-2, C14 homologue</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NEVD—GSNE</td>
<td>20.01</td>
<td>223.501</td>
<td>0.766</td>
<td>○</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EETD—GLDP</td>
<td>16.86</td>
<td>886.89</td>
<td>0.747</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>C14.001: caspase-1, C14.005: caspase-6, C14.006: caspase-2, C14 homologue</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EETD—GLHE</td>
<td>16.86</td>
<td>886.89</td>
<td>0.747</td>
<td>○</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GEVD—GKAI</td>
<td>19.85</td>
<td>271.729</td>
<td>0.691</td>
<td>○</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TEMD—SETL</td>
<td>Non-cleavage</td>
<td>Non-cleavage</td>
<td>0.632</td>
<td>×</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LSED—SES1</td>
<td>Non-cleavage</td>
<td>Non-cleavage</td>
<td>0.585</td>
<td>×</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: '○' indicates the sequence is cleaved in the cleavage assay experiment while '×' indicates the sequence is not cleaved in the cleavage assay experiment.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Predicted caspase-8 substrate cleavage site</th>
<th>PoPS score</th>
<th>SitePrediction score</th>
<th>Cascleave score</th>
<th>Experimental result</th>
<th>Corresponding annotations in MEROPS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>DVVD—GADT</td>
<td>17.9</td>
<td>206.97</td>
<td>1.578</td>
<td>○</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EEVD—GSPP</td>
<td>21.24</td>
<td>771.98</td>
<td>1.461</td>
<td>○</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EVD—GSQG</td>
<td>21.24</td>
<td>771.98</td>
<td>1.461</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>C14 homologue</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DETD—SGAG</td>
<td>17.77</td>
<td>3194.444</td>
<td>1.345</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>C14.003: caspase-3, C14.005: caspase-6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EEVD—GAPR</td>
<td>21.24</td>
<td>1621.17</td>
<td>1.307</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>C14.005: caspase-6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DEVD—GAND</td>
<td>22.46</td>
<td>3371.648</td>
<td>1.261</td>
<td>○</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DSVD—GSLT</td>
<td>17.59</td>
<td>525.68</td>
<td>1.21</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>C14 homologue</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AEVD—GVDE</td>
<td>22.46</td>
<td>1010.936</td>
<td>1.061</td>
<td>○</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AEVD—GATP</td>
<td>21.21</td>
<td>1268.26</td>
<td>1.034</td>
<td>○</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TETD—SVGT</td>
<td>20.01</td>
<td>854.701</td>
<td>0.999</td>
<td>○</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EEPD—GGFR</td>
<td>Non-cleavage</td>
<td>Non-cleavage</td>
<td>0.969</td>
<td>×</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TEPD—SPSP</td>
<td>17.38</td>
<td>92.307</td>
<td>0.961</td>
<td>×</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LEDM—SVLK</td>
<td>19.27</td>
<td>412.088</td>
<td>0.935</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>C14.005: caspase-6, C14.006: caspase-2, C14 homologue</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EEPD—SANS</td>
<td>Non-cleavage</td>
<td>Non-cleavage</td>
<td>0.82</td>
<td>○</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EETD—GLDP</td>
<td>22.17</td>
<td>559.69</td>
<td>0.747</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>C14.001: caspase-1, C14.005: caspase-6, C14.006: caspase-2, C14 homologue</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EETD—GLHE</td>
<td>22.17</td>
<td>559.69</td>
<td>0.747</td>
<td>○</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TEED—SVSV</td>
<td>18.61</td>
<td>275.71</td>
<td>0.714</td>
<td>○</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TEMD—SETL</td>
<td>19.27</td>
<td>167.993</td>
<td>0.632</td>
<td>×</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LSED—SES1</td>
<td>18.58</td>
<td>526.556</td>
<td>0.585</td>
<td>×</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: '○' indicates the sequence is cleaved in the cleavage assay experiment while '×' indicates the sequence is not cleaved in the cleavage assay experiment.
caspase-3 are also cleaved by caspase-8. The result also indicates that there is a tendency that PoPS, SitePrediction and Cascleave prefer to predict substrates cleaved by caspas from the Groups II and III rather than Group I.

Conclusion

Owing to the functional significance of caspase substrate identification problem, computational biologists are motivated to develop more accurate and reliable predictors for caspase substrate prediction. Aiming at providing a comprehensive review of the status quo of caspase substrate predictors to non-bioinformaticians, this article describes and compares a number of widely used caspase substrate predictors in terms of their input/output, model construction and development, model performance evaluation as well as predictor utility. Benchmarking analysis on the independent test data sets revealed that Cascleave and SitePrediction achieve the overall highest AUC value when used for predicting caspase substrates in different species, especially for H. sapiens. In particular, SitePrediction achieved the highest AUC value when used for predicting caspase substrates for species other than H. sapiens. Detailed case studies of 21 caspase-3 substrate sequences and 21 caspase-8 substrate sequences demonstrate that while Cascleave, PoPS and SitePrediction achieved acceptable performance, there still exist some sequences that most currently available tools failed to predict. We conclude that caspase substrate prediction remains a challenging task, and we expect that more powerful next-generation algorithms with improved prediction performance will emerge with the increasing availability of caspase substrate cleavage data that can be used as high-quality training data for constructing the prediction models.

Key Points

• We tested and evaluated 12 state-of-the-art tools for caspase cleavage site prediction according to their input/output, model construction strategies, predictive performance and predictor utility.
• We constructed a series of testing data sets and performed independent data set testing.
• We performed a case study and experimentally validated the cleavage prediction results by conducting caspase assay to verify whether sequences with high predicted scores can be cleaved in vitro.

Supplementary Data

Supplementary data are available online at https://academic.oup.com/bib.

Acknowledgements

The authors would like to thank the three anonymous reviewers for their helpful and constructive comments that have greatly helped improve the presentation of this article. Availability: All the independent test data sets are available at http://sunflower.kuicr.kyoto-u.ac.jp/~houu/Caspase_tool_review/Original_input.zip.

Funding

T.A. and H.S. are supported by JSPS, Japan (grant-in-aid #26240034). J.S. is supported by grants from the National Health and Medical Research Council of Australia (NHMRC) (grant number 490989), the Australian Research Council (ARC) (grant numbers LP110200333 and DP120104460), the National Institute of Allergy and Infectious Diseases of the National Institute of Health (grant number R01 AI111965), a Major Inter-Disciplinary Research (IDR) project (grant number 201402) awarded by Monash University and the Collaborative Research Program of Institute for Chemical Research, Kyoto University (grant number 2018-28).

References

Accurate prediction of caspase cleavage sites


