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蛋白質摺疊率的研究

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摘要

蛋白質序列是一條由 20 種胺基酸所組成的線性結構,而這每一條蛋白 質序列都可以對應到其特定的三維結構。蛋白質由序列到三維結構的過程 稱之為「蛋白質摺疊」。蛋白質是如何摺疊為其特定的三維結構?序列和結 構之間又有著什麼樣的關係存在?在生物科學的領域裡,研究尋找這關係 的現象與作用一直以來都是相當重要的議題。我們試著藉由研究蛋白質摺 疊率與序列結構的關係,來了解蛋白質的摺疊。不同蛋白質的蛋白質有著 相當不一樣的摺疊率。通常比較小的蛋白質其摺疊所需花的時間往往比較 大的蛋白質所需花的時間來要少。在本研究中,我們利用向量支持回歸 (Support Vector Regression)作為主要的研究工具。在只使用序列資訊的情況 下,結果和蛋白質摺疊率的相關性達 80%左右。

Study on Protein Folding Rates

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ABSTRACT

Understanding the principles of the relationship between a primary amino acid sequence and its unique three-dimensional structures is one of the most important issues in biology science. A related and challenging task is to understand the relationship between sequences and folding rates of proteins. Proteins have different rates of folding. Small proteins usually fold faster than larger ones. We currently use amino acid sequences (which predicts properties such as protein secondary structure) as feature vectors to predict protein folding rates, using support vector regression in machine learning tool. Preliminary results show 80% correlation between the predicted and experimental folding rates.

在生命的旅程上,不斷地求知與學習是每個階段必經的過程。相當幸 運的可以在碩士班的階段,來到交通大學生物資訊所這個良好的環境來學 習。在這裡不僅僅開拓了我的視野,也使我成長了不少。

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1 Introduction

All the proteins begin their existence on a ribosome as a linear polypeptide chain. It is known that a protein sequence can fold into its unique three-dimensional conformation to achieve the biologically active native state. A protein structure evolves to have function only in a particular cellular environment. This kind of results is due to the evolution. But how does a sequence can find its most stable structure exactly? Proteins may lose their own function when only a simple mistake happens during the folding process.

In recent years, to understand the principles of the relationship between a primary amino acid sequence and its unique three-dimensional structures become one of the most important challenges in biology science. A folded protein is stabilized by many specific interactions, as seen in an X-ray or NMR structure. When the protein is unfolded, the interactions and functions are lost.¹ An understanding of this fundamental process would help in attempts to predict structure from sequence, in the rational design of proteins de novo, and in understanding how and why proteins misfold. 2 Besides, to realize the issue of protein folding may be the molecular basis for a wide range of human genetic disorders. For example, cystic fibrosis is caused by defects in a membrane-bound protein called cystic fibrosis trans-membrane conductance regulator (CFTR), which acts as a channel for chloride ions.³ It could lead to new therapies for this kind of diseases by an improvement of comprehending protein folding. A related and challenging task is to understand the relationship between sequences and folding rates of proteins.⁴

Proteins have very different rates of folding. In general, small proteins usually fold faster than the large ones.⁵ Many proteins with differing structures, stabilities and sequences, have been shown to fold with two-state kinetics or multi-state kinetics.² To be very similar, small proteins usually fold with two-state kinetics which are called two-state proteins; large proteins usually fold with multi-state kinetics which are called multi-state proteins. Two-state protein follows the simplest rule of protein folding. In this rule, it only contains two states, unfolded state and folded state. The rule of multi-state protein folding is more complicated than the two-state protein. Besides the unfolded state and the folded state, it contains various intermediate states. The intermediate states are between the unfolded state and the folded state. The number of intermediate states is based on the chemical and physical properties of a protein. If there is only one intermediate state between the unfolded and folded state, the protein is called three-stated protein.

There are a lot of factors which would affect the process of protein folding. One of them, which is relatively well understood, is the dependence of folding rate on temperature.³⁶ At very high temperature, protein conformations are usually tend to fold faster. On the other hand, proteins are tend to fold slower from the denature state to the native state at very low

temperature. Therefore, in order to reduce the influence from the temperature, all the folding rates of protein sequences we choose in this work are observed at the experimental environment of around 25°C. Many theoretical studies have found some important factors which correlated with the protein folding rates. Plexco et al. proposed the relative contact order (CO), which is the average sequence distance between all pairs of contacting residues normalized by the total sequence length.⁷ Gromiha et al. define a parameter, long-range order (LRO) for a protein from the knowledge of long-range contacts (contacts between two residues that are close in space and far in the sequence) in protein structure.⁸ Ivankov et al. emphasize the importance of effective chain length (L_{eff}) for protein folding.⁵ L_{eff} is a specific number of the chain residues. By this kind of studies, we can realize the complex process of protein folding more.

However, it comes an interesting issue which factors is the main determinant that affects the time of protein folding most. In this work, we build a method to predict the folding rate from the protein sequence and structure information. The first goal of this work is to compare the importance between each factor to understand the rules that govern protein folding. The second one is to develop a useful tool for predicting the protein folding rates from their sequence and structure information using support vector regression which is a novel machine learning skill.

2 Material and Method

2.1 Definition of folding rate

The folding rate (k_f) is a parameter which measures and describes how much time it takes in a protein folding process. It is an inverse of the time required for a folding process. The bigger folding rate is; the shorter time it takes. In this work, we use the logarithm of folding rate to do the experiments. The reason is based on the suggestion of both analytical theory^{9,10} and off-lattice computer simulations¹¹ of folding.

The folding rate is given by

$$
k_f = \frac{1}{T}
$$
 (1)

where *T* is the time required for a folding trajectory to reach the native conformation.

2.2 Dataset

Our dataset includes 64 proteins¹²⁻⁶⁹ that fold with two-state or multi-state kinetics which are shown in Table 1. The list including single-domain proteins and peptides that lack both disulfide bonds and covalent bonds to ligands is taken from Ivankov et al.⁵ All chemical and physical properties including in-water folding rates are collected from the experimental literatures. If folding of some protein is investigated at different temperatures, we use the closest to 25°C. Structural properties of the proteins are obtained from the literatures and Protein Data Bank⁷⁰.

2.2.1 Classification of two states and multi-states proteins

The primary criterion for the classification of a given protein as either a two state or a multi-state protein is considered to be whether the folding kinetics is single-exponential or

multi-exponential⁷¹. However changing the environment condition (e.g. temperature or pH), a protein may switch from two state folding to multi-state folding and contrariwise. The classification of folding mechanism of each protein in our dataset is based on the experiment.

The 64 proteins in our dataset includes 37 two state proteins, 25 multi-state proteins and two small artificial peptides which are shown in Table 2.

2.2.2 Classification of protein secondary structure

The rule of protein secondary structure classification is based on the SCOP Classification (version 1.69). We obtain from the experimental literatures and the website of Protein Data Bank. (http://www.rcsb.org/pdb/Welcome.do) The 64 proteins in our dataset includes 15 all alpha proteins, 18 all beta proteins and 31 mixed-class proteins which includes $\alpha + \beta$ and α / β proteins. Details are shown in Table 2.

2.3 Support vector regression

Support Vector Machines (SVM) was developed by Vapnik⁷² to solve the classification problem, but recently, SVM have been successfully extended to regression and density estimation problem⁷³. The support vector regression (SVR) is a powerful regression method that has become popular in computational biology. The original idea of SVR like the traditional linear regression is to solve a linear function given training data $(x_1, y_1),..., (x_n, y_n)$. SVR maps the data to a high dimensional space by a function $\Phi(x)$ and avoids the under-fitting and over-fitting problems of the training data by minimizing the training error.

Support vector regression proceeds two modifications to avoid over-fitting problems. The first one is to give a threshold ε so that if the *i*th data satisfies the followed equation: $-\varepsilon \leq y_i - (w^T \phi(x_i) + b) \leq \varepsilon$, it is considered a correct approximation. Then $\xi_i = \xi_i^* = 0$. The second one is to smooth the function $w^T \phi(x_i) + b$, an additional term $w^T w$ is added to the objective function. Clearly, ξ is called the upper training error (ξ ^{*} is the lower) subject to

the ε -insensitive tube $|y_i - (w^T \phi(x_i) + b)| \le \varepsilon$. If x_i is not in the tube, there is an error ξ_i or ξ_i^* which we would like to minimize in the objective function. SVR avoids underfitting and overfitting the training data by minimizing the training error $C\sum_{i=1}^{l} \xi_i$ + $C\sum_{i=l}^{l} \xi_i + \xi_i^*$ as well as the regularization term $\frac{1}{2}w^T w$ 2 $\frac{1}{2}w^T w$. The addition of the term $w^T w$ can be explained by a similar

way to that for classification problems.

This article uses $LIBSVM⁷⁴$ as computing tools to perform all the calculations. The version of LIBSVM is 2.8. In the SVR training procedure, it is necessary to use cross-validation to find the best parameter *C*, γ and *p* for RBF kernel. The LIBSVM provides a tool called gridregression to find the best parameters. The prediction result is correlated with these three parameters. Using the wrong parameters may generate worst prediction result. We use leave-one-out cross-validation to do the experiment. The system flowchart is illustrated in Figure 1.

2.4 Cross validation method

In order to check the performance and the efficiency of prediction methods, the method is often developed by cross-validation method or jack-knife method. In the cross-validation method, the datasets are divided into *N* groups for *N* fold cross-validation. One of each group would be the testing set and the other *N-1* groups would be the training set. This process is repeated by *N* times. Every group would be the testing set by turns. The final prediction results would be averaged over *N* testing sets. If the number of groups *N* equals the size of the whole dataset, it is called jack-knife method or leave-one-out cross-validation method. In this study, a leave-one-out cross-validation technique is used. One protein is removed from the whole dataset. The training is done on the remaining 63 proteins and the testing is done on the removed protein. This process is repeated 64 times by removing each protein in turn.

2.5 Feature vectors

Several different input features for SVR are considered in our experiments. They are including sequence and structure information. After combining and comparing these feature vectors by different protein classification, we use SVR to generate the prediction results. Details are shown in Table 3.

2.5.1 Sequence information

In this part, 10 major feature vectors are selected to do the experiments. They are sequence length (L), number of residues in helical conformation (L_H), number of helices (N_H), number of residues in strand conformation (L_S) , number of strands (N_S) , number of residues in coil conformation (L_C) , and number of coil (N_C) . The information of secondary structure is predicted by ALB⁷⁵ (http://i2o.protres.ru/alb) and PSIPRED⁷⁶ (http://www.psipred.net).

The residues predicted as helical are marked by H by PSIPRED and by H and & by ALB, and those predicted as strand are marked by E by PSIPRED and by S and B by ALB, and those predicted as coil are marked by C by PSIPRED.

2.5.2 Structure information

Relative contact order⁴ (RCO) and absolute contact order⁷⁷ (ACO) are collected as feature vectors in this work. They are define by Plaxco et al. and Ivankov et al respectively.

The RCO is given by

$$
RCO = \frac{1}{L \times N} \sum_{ij}^{N} \Delta L_{ij}
$$
 (2)

Where *N* is the number of contacts within a cutoff of 6 angstrom between non-hydrogen atoms in the protein, *L* is the length of protein in amino acid residues, and ΔL_i is the number of residues separating the interacting pair of non-hydrogen atoms. For example, adjacent residues are assumed to be separated by one residue.

The ACO is given by

$$
ACO = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{ij}^{N} \Delta L_{ij} = RCO \times L
$$
 (3)

2.6 Performance measure

The performance is measure by Correlation Coefficient (CC). The value of CC is between -1 and 1. When the value is closer to 1 or -1, it means there is a stronger positive or negative correlation between two variables respectively.

The CC is given by

$$
CC = \frac{Cov(X_1, X_2)}{\sigma_1 \sigma_2} \tag{4}
$$

Where $Cov(X_1, X_2)$ is the covariance of two random variables, X_1 and X_2 , σ_1 and σ₂ are the standard deviations of sample 1 and 2.

3 Result and Discussion

3.1 Comparison with previous work

We use the same coding scheme as Ivankov's. Instead of using their mathematical formula which is based on knowledge, we use SVR to perform the prediction to verify whether there is a correlation between the feature vectors and the folding rates. Our results achieve a 0.86 correlation coefficient compared to 0.82 in the feature vector of PSIPRED and achieve a 0.86 correlation coefficient compared to 0.78 in the feature vector of ALB and achieve a 0.86 correlation coefficient compared to 0.81 in the feature vector of DSSP. Our results are all better than the Ivankov's. The comparison is listed in Table 4. The correlation coefficient plots are showed as Figure 2 to Figure 4.

3.2 Comparison among different secondary structure coding features

The features used to encode include the helical, strand, and coil conformation predicted by PSIPRED and ALB respectively. The best result is given by the helical conformation. The features predicted by PSIPRED and ALB are almost have the same performance. The results are listed in Table 5. The correlation coefficient plots are showed as Figure 2 to Figure 3 and Figure 5 to Figure 8.

3.3 Comparison among different protein classification with different

secondary structure coding features

Besides the classify the protein into two state protein and multi-state protein, we also do the classification by the secondary structure which are All- α protein, All- β protein and Mixed-class protein. Different features play the different abilities. The performances of helical conformation divided into several groups are not as good as training and predicting using the whole dataset. It seems that the coil conformance play an important role in the dataset grouping by secondary structure. And the strand conformation get the better performance when the dataset classified by the mechanism of folding. The results are listed in Table 6. The correlation coefficient plots are showed as Figure 2 to Figure 3 and Figure 5 to Figure 23.

3.4 Comparison among different protein classification with contact order

Comparing the results between RCO and ACO, we can tell RCO has the better performance in multi-state proteins and ACO has the better result in two state proteins. The results are listed in Table 7.

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Tables

PDB_id	Length	$Log(k_f)$	State	SS	ref
1PGB	16	5.2	peptide	All- β	12
1L2Y	20	5.4	two-state protein	All- α	13
	21	6.7	peptide	All- α	14
1PIN	34	4.1	two-state protein	All- β	15
1VII	36	5	two-state protein	All- α	16
2PDD	41	4.3	two-state protein	All- α	17
1DIV	56	2.6	two-state protein	Mix	18
1PGB	57	2.6	two-state protein	Mix	19
1BDD	58		two-state protein	All- α	20
1ENH	61(54)	4.6	two-state protein	All- α	21
1SHG	62(58)	0.6	two-state protein 1896	All- β	22
1HZ6	62	1.8	two-state protein	Mix	23
$1C8C$	64	$\overline{3}$	two-state protein	Mix	24
1SRL	64(55)	1.7	two-state protein	All- β	25
2CI2	64	1.7	two-state protein	Mix	26
1C9O	66	3.1	two-state protein	All- β	27
1G6P	66	2.7	two-state protein	All- β	27
1SHF	67	$\overline{2}$	two-state protein	All- β	28
1CSP	67	2.9	two-state protein	All- β	27
1PSF	69	1.4	two-state protein	All- β	29
1MJC	69	2.3	two-state protein	All- β	30
2CRO	71(64)	1.6	multi-state protein	All- α	31

Table 1 List of 64 proteins

PDB_id	Length	$Log(k_f)$	State	SS	ref
1UBQ	76	2.6	multi-state protein	Mix	32
1LMB	80	3.7	two-state protein	All- α	33
1AYE	80	3	two-state protein	Mix	34
1POH	85	1.2	two-state protein	Mix	35
2ABD	86	2.9	two-state protein	All- α	36
1IMQ	86	3.2	two-state protein	All- α	37
1CEI	87	2.5	multi-state protein	All- α	37
1TIT	89	1.6	multi-state protein	All- β	38
1BRS	89	1.5	multi-state protein	All- β	39
1FNF	90	-0.4	two-state protein	All- β	40
1TEN	90	0.5	two-state protein	All- β	41
1PNJ	90(84)	-0.5	two-state protein	All- β	42
1GXT	91(88)	1.9	multi-state protein	Mix	43
1WIT	93	0.2	two-state protein	All- β	44
1FNF	94	2.4	multi-state protein	All- β	45
1APS	98	-0.7	two-state protein	Mix	46
2ACY	98	0.4	two-state protein	Mix	47
1HNG	98(97)	0.8	multi-state protein	All- β	48
1RIS	101(97)	2.6	two-state protein	Mix	49
1URN	102(96)	2.5	two-state protein	Mix	50
256B	106	5.3	two-state protein	All- α	51
1FKB	107	0.7	two-state protein	Mix	52
1BNI	110	1.1	multi-state protein	Mix	53
1SCE	113	1.8	multi-state protein	Mix	54
2VIK	126	3	two-state protein	Mix	55

Table 1 List of 64 proteins (Continued)

PDB id	Length	$Log(k_f)$	State	SS	ref
1EAL	127	0.6	multi-state protein	Mix	56
3CHY	129(128)	0.4	multi-state protein	Mix	57
1IFC	131	1.5	multi-state protein	Mix	58
1OPA	133	0.6	multi-state protein	Mix	58
1CBI	136	-1.4	multi-state protein	Mix	58
1A6N	151	0.5	multi-state protein	All- α	59
1AON	155	0.3	multi-state protein	Mix	60
2RN2	155	$\boldsymbol{0}$	multi-state protein	Mix	61
2A5E	156	1.5	multi-state protein	All- α	62
1RA9	159	$\overline{2}$	multi-state protein 13350	Mix	63
1LOP	164		two-state protein	Mix	64
2LZM	164	1.8	multi-state protein	Mix	61
1PHP	175	10	multi-state protein 189	Mix	65
1PHP	219	-1.5	multi-state protein	Mix	66
1QOP	268	-1.1	multi-state protein	Mix	67
1L8W	341	0.7	two-state protein	All- α	68
1QOP	396	-3	multi-state protein	Mix	69

Table 1 List of 64 proteins (Continued)

Classification	Two-state	Multi-state	Peptides ^a	Total
All- α	10	4		15
All- β	13	4		18
Mixed-class	14	17	-	31
Total	37	25		64

Table 2 Classification of 64 proteins

^a Artificial peptides α -helix and β -hairpin

^bStructural properties of the proteins are obtained from Protein Data Bank

 \textdegree All chemical and physical properties are collected from the literatures¹²⁻⁶⁹

Table 3 List of feature vectors

Feature vectors	Description
$L+L_H+N_H$ (PSIPRED)	Helical conformation predicted by PSIPRED
$L+L_H+N_H$ (ALB)	Helical conformation predicted by ALB
$L+L_H+N_H$ (DSSP)	Helical conformation predicted by DSSP
$L+LS+NS$ (PSIPRED)	Strand conformation predicted by PSIPRED
$L+Ls+Ns$ (ALB)	Strand conformation predicted by ALB
$L+L_C+N_C$ (PSIPRED)	Coil conformation predicted by PSIPRED
$L+L_C+N_C$ (ALB)	Coil conformation predicted by ALB
RCO	Relative contact order
ACO	Absolute contact order

Input Feature Vectors	Ivankov et al	This Work
$L+L_H+N_H$ (PSIPRED)	0.82	0.86
$L+L_H+N_H$ (ALB)	0.78	0.86
$L+L_H+N_H$ (DSSP)	0.81	0.86

Table 4 Comparison with Ivankov's results

Input Features Vectors	Ivankov et al	This Work
$L+L_H+N_H$ (PSIPRED)	0.82	0.86
$L+LS+NS$ (PSIPRED)		0.71
$L+L_C+N_C$ (PSIPRED)		0.74
$L+L_H+N_H$ (ALB)	0.78	0.86
$L+LS+NS$ (ALB)		0.71
$L+L_C+N_C$ (ALB)		0.72

Table 5 Comparison different predicted secondary structure features

Table 6 Comparison with different classification

Class (number)	RCO	ACO
All- α proteins(15)	-0.87	0.75
All- β proteins(18)	-0.83	0.80
Mixed-class proteins (31)	0.56	0.52
Two-state proteins (37)	0.56	0.78
Multi-state proteins(25)	0.75	0.64
All (64)	-0.78	0.72

Table 7 Comparison with different classification

Figure 1 System flowchart

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