A FREQUENCY DOMAIN APPROACH TO PROTEIN SEQUENCE SIMILARITY ANALYSIS AND FUNCTIONAL CLASSIFICATION

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ABSTRACT

A new computational approach for protein sequence similarity analysis and functional classification which is fast and easier compared to the conventional method is described. This technique uses Discrete Wavelet Transform decomposition followed by sequence correlation analysis. The technique can also be used for identifying the functional class of a newly obtained protein sequence. The classification was done using a sample set of 270 protein sequences obtained from organisms of diverse origins and functional classes, which gave a classification accuracy of 94.81%. Accuracy and reliability of the technique is verified by comparing the results with that obtained from NCBI.

KEYWORDS


1. INTRODUCTION

Genomic sequence analysis is a highly cross disciplinary field which aims at processing and interpreting the vast information available from the bio molecular sequences, for quicker and better understanding. A wide range of computational methods are being used with the intention of extracting valuable information from these sequences in real time, where the traditional methods based on statistical techniques are less suited.

DNA molecule has a double helix structure [1] consisting of two strands, where each strand consists of a linked chain of smaller nucleotides or bases. There are 4 types of bases- adenine (A), thymine (T), cytosine (C) and guanine (G). Three adjacent bases in a DNA sequence form a triplet called codon. Each of these codons represents an amino acid and instructs the cell machinery to produce the corresponding amino acid during the Translation phase of protein synthesis. Thus a protein is a linear chain of amino acids which starts with a start codon ATG, which corresponds to the amino acid methionine, followed by a sequence of amino acids and ends with a stop codon. Among the numerous available amino acids only 20 are generally found in living beings and they form a linear polypeptide chain by covalent linkages [2]. The amino acid sequence that makes a protein is called its primary structure. The physical and chemical interactions between the amino acids force the chain to take several different secondary structures like alpha – helix and beta – sheet as shown in Figure 1. Protein molecules tend to fold into complex three-dimensional structures forming weak bonds between their own atoms and they are responsible for carrying out nearly all of the essential functions in the living cell by properly binding to other molecules with a number of chemical bonds connecting neighbouring atoms. This unique 3-D structure enables the protein to have target specificity, as protein – target interaction occurs at predefined targets within the 3-D structure of the protein. This
selectivity and structure directly relates, to the amino acid sequence or in other words, to the primary structure of the protein. The biological function of a protein, its chemical properties and 3D structure are ultimately determined by the DNA character string. Protein sequences belonging to the same functional class from different organisms have some sort of sequence similarity that allows them to perform their common function. This similarity in structure and sequence can be attributed to the fact that they are derived phylogenetically from a common precursor and the evolution process appears to have exerted a considerable degree of conservatism towards functionally critical residues [4]. Protein sequence comparison and alignment is done to identify the similarities and differences between different protein sequences. This similarity search has various applications like identifying the amino acid residues that are critical for the biological function, structure and in phylogenetic analysis.

Comparative analysis of homologous sequences relies heavily on sequence alignment techniques and similarity score as a quantitative measure. A number of sequence alignment techniques have been developed. In [5], Lipman et al., proposed a new algorithm for rapid sequence similarity search. Instead of comparing each of the nucleotide or amino acid of one sequence with all of the residues in the second sequence, the algorithm focused on groups of identities between the sequences. In [6], Brodzik have applied a cross correlation based technique for sequence alignment. The symmetric phase only matched filter is used for alignment of DNA sequences containing repetitive patterns in the work. Katoh et al., have used a fast fourier transform based algorithm for rapid multiple sequence alignment in [7]. Homologous regions are rapidly identified using FFT and an efficient scoring system is also discussed. Bolten.E, et al., have described a protein clustering approach using transitivity in [8]. Here, pair-wise sequence similarity is found using Smith-Waterman local alignment algorithm, followed by a graph based method for clustering. In [9], A.Krause et al., proposed an iterative procedure which uses set theoretical relationship for clustering protein sequences. E.Giladi et al. proposed a window based approach for finding near-exact sequence matches in [10]. Yi-Leh Wu et al., in [11], have performed sequence similarity analysis using fourier transform and wavelet transform based methods. The results were compared and it was found that both methods give comparable results. A prototyped system of clustering proteins called SEQOPTICS is described by Y.Chen et al. in [12].SEQOPTICS system uses Smith-Waterman
algorithm for distance measurement and OPTICS for clustering. OPTICS (Ordering points to identify the clustering structure) uses a density based clustering approach. In [13], M.G. Grabherr et al. have described a procedure using fast fourier transform and cross correlation for sequence alignment. In [14], Kin-pong Chan et al. have used wavelet transform using haar wavelets for time series matching. In [15], S.A Aghili et al. have studied the effectiveness of the integration of DFT and DWT techniques for sequence similarity search of biological sequences. It is proposed as a pre-processing phase for any other sequence alignment technique as the method can be used to prune most of the non desired sequences and reduce the real search problem to only a fraction of the database. In [16], Veljkovic et al. proposed a Resonant Recognition Model (RRM) where the presence of consensus spectrum corresponding to a biological function is identified. In [17], Trad et al. used wavelet decomposition to extract characteristic bands from protein sequences. A sequence scale similarity analysis is also proposed to identify the functional similarity between sequences.

Traditional sequence comparison and alignment methods concentrate on local similarity, and the alignment is achieved introducing insertions and deletions into the sequences. In this method a sequence comparison and similarity measurement based on multi-resolution analysis of protein sequence using discrete wavelet transform is adopted. This allows comparison of two sequences at different resolutions. Based on this analysis a protein classification using simple sequence correlation is done which can be used as a pre screening method before further detailed analysis.

The paper is organised as follows. The method for representing protein sequence data in numerical form is mentioned in section 2. Section 3 describes the methodology used and in section 4 the details of implementation and results are discussed.

2. NUMERICAL REPRESENTATION OF AMINO ACID SEQUENCE

Most of the identified protein sequence data is available freely over the web at various online databases, one of which is the Entrez search and retrieval system of the National Center for Biotechnology Information (NCBI) [18]. These Protein sequences are often in the form of a sequence of characters, each representing a distinct amino acid. In order to perform an analysis on these protein sequence using digital signal processing methods the amino acid character sequence has to be represented in some numerical form. For a reliable representation, the numerical values assigned to each amino acid should represent a physical characteristic of the particular amino acid and should be relevant for the biological activity of these molecules [16]. A comparison of the informational capacity of various physicochemical, thermodynamic, structural and statistical amino acid parameters are analysed in [19] and it is shown that Electron Ion Interaction Potential (EIIP) is the most suitable known amino acid property that can be used in structure-function analyses of proteins. The EIIP values for amino acids and nucleotides are calculated using the general model pseudo potential described in [20]:

\[
\langle \delta + q | w | \delta \rangle = \alpha (Z - Z_0) \sin (2\pi \beta \mu) / 2\pi \mu
\]

where,
- \( q \) is the change of momentum of delocalized electron in the interaction with the potential \( w \),
- \( \alpha \) is a constant,
- \( Z \) is the atomic number,
- \( Z_0 \) is the atomic number of the inert element that begins the period, which includes the actual \( Z \) in the standard periodic table,

\[ \mu = \frac{q}{2\pi K_F} \]

with \( q \) a wave number and \( K_F \) the corresponding Fermi momentum.
\[ \beta_2 = \frac{2}{3} \frac{(E_f)_{\beta_2}}{\alpha (Z - Z_0)} \]

with \((E_f)_{\beta_2}\) the corresponding Fermi energy.

The EIIP values of the 4 nucleotides that constitute the entire genomic sequence are given in Table 1.

Table 1. EIIP values of Nucleotides.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nucleotide</th>
<th>Alphabet</th>
<th>EIIP</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Adenine</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>0.126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thymine</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>0.1335</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guanine</td>
<td>G</td>
<td>0.0806</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cytosine</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>0.134</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The EIIP values of the 20 amino acids that form the linear polypeptide chain of each protein sequence are given in Table 2.

Table 2. EIIP values of Amino acids [20].

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Amino acids</th>
<th>Alphabet</th>
<th>EIIP</th>
<th>Amino acids</th>
<th>Alphabet</th>
<th>EIIP</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Alanine (Ala)</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>0.0373</td>
<td>Methionine (Met)</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>0.0823</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cysteine (Cys)</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>0.0829</td>
<td>Asparagine (Asn)</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>0.0036</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aspartic acid (Asp)</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>0.1263</td>
<td>Proline (Pro)</td>
<td>P</td>
<td>0.0198</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Glutamic acid (Glu)</td>
<td>E</td>
<td>0.0058</td>
<td>Glutamine (Gln)</td>
<td>Q</td>
<td>0.0761</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phenylalanine (Phe)</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>0.0946</td>
<td>Arginine (Arg)</td>
<td>R</td>
<td>0.0959</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Glycine (Gly)</td>
<td>G</td>
<td>0.0050</td>
<td>Serine (Ser)</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>0.0829</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Histidine (His)</td>
<td>H</td>
<td>0.0242</td>
<td>Threonine (Thr)</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>0.0941</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Isoleucine (Ile)</td>
<td>I</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>Valine (Val)</td>
<td>V</td>
<td>0.0057</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lysine (Lys)</td>
<td>K</td>
<td>0.0371</td>
<td>Tryptophan (Trp)</td>
<td>W</td>
<td>0.0548</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leucine (leu)</td>
<td>L</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>Tyrosine (Tyr)</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>0.0516</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3. METHODOLOGY

3.1. Discrete Wavelet Transform decomposition of sequences

In Wavelet Transform (WT) analysis, a signal is represented as a linear combination of scaled and shifted versions of the mother wavelet and scaling functions. Thus it represents a signal as the sum of wavelets with different locations and scales, with the coefficients indicating the strength of the contribution of the wavelet at the corresponding locations and scales. In DWT, any discrete time sequence \( f(n) \) of finite energy can be expressed in terms of the discrete time basis functions \( \phi_{j,k} \) as,

\[
f(n) = \sum_{j,k} \phi_j(k) \omega(2^n n - k),
\]

where \( \phi_j(k) \) represent the coefficient corresponding to scale \( j \) and location \( k \).

DWT is implemented using filter banks where the signal is passed through a series of high pass and low pass filters followed by sub sampling, the method known as Mallat algorithm. Decomposition of the signal into different frequency bands is obtained by successive high pass and low pass filtering of the time domain signal. A schematic representation of two-level DWT decomposition is shown in Figure 2 and the corresponding frequency characteristics is shown in Figure 3. In the first level the discrete sequence \( X[n] \) is passed through a half band, high pass filter \( G_0 \) and a low pass filter \( H_0 \) and is then down sampled by 2 to produce the detail information \( D_1 \) and the coarse information \( A_1 \). The low frequency components \( A_1 \) is again passed through the filters \( G_0 \) and \( H_0 \) to produce \( D_2 \) and \( A_2 \). The filtered sequence at each level will have a frequency span one-half that of the original sequence. Thus the sequence can be represented by half the number of samples, and decimation by 2 is done. As a result DWT provides good time resolution at high frequencies and good frequency resolution at low frequencies.

![Figure 2. Schematic of Two-level DWT decomposition tree.](image-url)
The filtering and decimation operation done at each level can be mathematically represented as:

\[
D[n] = \sum_{k} X[k] \times g[2k - n]
\]

\[
A[n] = \sum_{k} X[k] \times h[2k - n]
\]

where, D is the high pass filter output and A is the low pass filter output.

![Figure 3. Frequency splitting characteristics of two-level DWT decomposition.](image)

### 3.2. Correlation Analysis

An L-Level DWT decomposition mentioned above will provide L+1 sequences, each of which corresponds to the protein sequence component belonging to different frequency bands. In order to measure the sequence similarity between two sequences, a cross correlation analysis is done between each level of the two sequences. The correlation function represents the similarity of one set of data with another. Hence the correlation coefficients obtained at each level gives a measure of similarity between the two sequences at each level. The correlation coefficient \( R(j) \) is calculated by shifting one sequence with respect to the other.

\[
R(j) = \frac{\sum_{0}^{N-1} s_2(n)s_1(n-j)}{\sqrt{\sum_{0}^{N-1} s_2^2(n) \times \sum_{0}^{N-1} s_1^2(n)}}
\]

where, \( s_1(n) \) and \( s_2(n) \) are the two sequences and \( j \) represents the shift.

The maximum value of the correlation coefficient at each level corresponds to the shift that gives the best matching alignment for the two sequences. This maximum value, say \( R_{max} \), is taken as a measure of similarity between the sequences at that level.
4. PROTEIN SEQUENCE COMPARISON AND CLASSIFICATION

The protein sequences that are represented in numerical form are subjected to multi resolution analysis using DWT followed by correlation analysis.

4.1 Database

The protein sequences that are used in this work are obtained from the National Center for Biotechnology Information (NCBI) website [18]. The Myoglobin sequences mentioned in section 4.3.1 are taken from the 24 different animals, Human, Finback whale, Dolphin, Baboon, Cattle, Dog, Fox, Gorilla, Grey whale, Horse, Mouse, Killer whale, Marmoset, Minke whale, Mole rat, Night monkey, Norway rat, Pika, Pilot whale, Rabbit, Red deer, Sheep, Sperm whale and Zebra, all belonging to the class Mammalia. The 11 Beta Actin sequences used in the second example are taken from Human, Vervet, Cattle, Chicken, Dog, Horse, Rhesus macaque, Mouse, Pig, Rabbit and Rat. The 15 Cytochrome C sequences used in the third example are taken from Cattle, Camel, Chicken, Chimpanzee, Dog, Gorilla, Grey whale, Horse, Mouse, Human, Rat, Ostrich, Pig, Seal and Sheep. The 270 protein sequences used in section 4.3.2 are also taken from the NCBI database.

4.2 Implementation

The protein sequences are first represented numerically using EIIP values, and normalized for zero mean. Then a 3 level DWT decomposition using Bior3.3 wavelet is performed giving 4 set of coefficient sequences, detail $D_1$, $D_2$, $D_3$ and approximation $A_3$. Bior3.3 decomposition wavelet function and scaling function are very rugged and have many abrupt changes and are shown suitable for the analysis of protein sequence which is also very rugged in nature [17]. The 4 coefficient sequences thus obtained from the two different proteins are subjected to correlation analysis, giving 4 correlation values corresponding to $R_{\text{max}}$ as mentioned above, representing the measure of sequence similarity. The sequence similarity thus obtained can be used for functional classification of proteins for which two conditions are to be satisfied. The first condition is that protein sequences belonging to same functional class should show very strong sequence similarity. The second condition is that sequences from different classes that belong to the same organism should not show any significant sequence similarity.

4.3 Results and Discussion

4.3.1 Correlation analysis of proteins

Initially Myoglobin sequences obtained from 24 different mammals mentioned above were considered. Human Myoglobin was taken as reference and it was compared with the remaining 23 sequences. The result of the correlation analysis is shown in the Figure 4. It can be noted that there is very strong correlation between every pair of sequences at all decomposition levels. This shows not only the local pair-wise similarity but also the global sequence similarity which we cannot obtain by conventional sequence alignment methods. There is more than 90% similarity in almost all pairs, which points to the conservation of nucleotides which are critical to the functionality of the proteins, across organisms.

As a second example Beta Actin sequences were considered. Here also, human beta actin sequence is taken as reference and Beta Actin sequence of 10 other organisms are taken for analysis. Nine out of Ten sequences showed 100% correlation while the remaining one showed 99% correlation. The result is shown in Figure 5. Third example taken was the Cytochrome C sequence. Here Bovine Cytochrome C sequence is taken as reference and it was compared with Cyt C sequences from 14 other origins. The result obtained was similar to the previous ones.
with minimum pair-wise correlation value greater than 0.8 (80%) showing significant sequence similarity, shown in Figure 6.
Figure 4. Correlation coefficients of human myoglobin against myoglobin sequence of 23 different organisms. The abscissa represents 23 different organisms and the ordinate is the maximum value of correlation coefficient, $R_{\text{max}}$, between human myoglobin and the corresponding organism. D1, D2, D3, A3 represents the 4 decomposition levels. Direct correlation represents the original sequence correlation.

Figure 5. Correlation plot of Human Beta Actin against Beta Actin from 10 other organisms. Similarity scores at all the 4 levels are shown.
Figure 6. Correlation plot of Bovine Cytochrome C against Cyt C from 14 other organisms. Similarity scores at all the 4 levels are shown.

Figure 7. Correlation Plot of human Myoglobin against 14 other human proteins.

1-Kinase  2-Myosin  3-FGF  4-Actin
5-Amylase  6-Protease  7-Cytochrome  8-Glucagon
9-Interferon  10-Lysozyme  11-Prolactin  12-Somatotropin
13-Hemoglobin  14-ILH
From the above results it is clear that the first condition is satisfied. To check the second condition the Myoglobin sequence itself was taken as an example. Human myoglobin was compared with 14 other human proteins. The result showed that there is no significant correlation between any pair at any decomposition level as shown in Figure 7.

To confirm this, 15 different human protein sequences belonging to the following family: Kinase, Myosin, FGF, Actin, Amylase, Protease, Cytochrome, Glucagon, Interferon, Lysozyme, Myoglobin, Prolactin, Somatotropin, Hemoglobin and Insulin like hormone, were compared among themselves. All the 120 possible pair wise similarity was measured and the results analysed. The result showed that among these only one protein, alpha hemoglobin showed good correlation (0.79) with kinase which is a functionally different protein. But this similarity is only in one frequency band (D3) and all other bands showed negligible correlation. None of the protein sequences showed similarity in all the bands with functionally dissimilar protein sequence. This confirmed that the second condition is also satisfied and this can be used for classifying protein sequences into different functional classes. Using this, when an unknown sequence is obtained it can be compared with a list of reference proteins and by best match criteria one can identify the functional class of that new protein.

### 4.3.2 Functional classification of proteins

Table 3. Comparison of the success rates of functional protein sequence classification using the two methods.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Class of Protein</th>
<th>Success rate (Method 1)</th>
<th>Success rate (Method 2)</th>
<th>Class of Protein</th>
<th>Success rate (Method 1)</th>
<th>Success rate (Method 2)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Actin-α</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>Hemoglobin-β</td>
<td>96.43%</td>
<td>96.43%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Actin-β</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>IGF</td>
<td>83.33%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Amylase</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>Interferon</td>
<td>82.6%</td>
<td>82.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cytochrome-b</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>Lysozyme</td>
<td>75%</td>
<td>83.33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cytochrome-c</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>Myoglobin</td>
<td>98.41%</td>
<td>98.41%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FGF</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>Prolactin</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Glucagon</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>Somatotropin</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>83.33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hemoglobin-α</td>
<td>96.43%</td>
<td>96.43%</td>
<td>Entire sequences</td>
<td>90.3%</td>
<td>94.81%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

46
A sequence correlation based classification was done on a sample set of 270 proteins belonging to 15 functional classes. These protein sequences are taken from vertebrates of diverse origin. Two methods were considered for the classification. In the first method, human protein sequences corresponding to the 15 protein classes are taken as reference protein set. Then from the sample set, each sequence is randomly selected and compared with reference set to find the class that has the best sequence similarity using the DWT coefficient correlation method mentioned in section 3.2.

The reference set consists of human protein sequence of the following classes: Alpha actin, Beta actin, Amylase, Cytochrome-b, Cytochrome-c, FGF, Glucagon, Alpha hemoglobin, Beta hemoglobin, IGF, Interferon, Lysozyme, Myoglobin, Prolactin and Somatotropin. The detailed result of the classification are shown in the Table 3 as Method 1. Using this method 244 out of the 270 protein sequences were classified to the correct family giving a success rate of 90.3%.

In method 2, further modification is done to improve the success rate by changing the selection criterion of the reference protein. In the previous step human sequences were selected as reference set which was a random selection. In this method reference protein for each class is selected by finding the one that has the maximum similarity with the rest of the proteins in the same class. Using this method 256 out of the 270 protein sequences were successfully classified with a success rate of 94.81%. The result obtained by this procedure is also shown in Table 3 as Method 2. The result illustrates that by selecting the reference proteins suitably the classification accuracy can be fine tuned.

5. CONCLUSIONS

A simple and successful method for identifying the protein similarity using frequency domain information is presented. The method uses a 3-level DWT decomposition using Bior3.3 wavelets followed by correlation analysis. This allows measurement of sequence similarity at 4 different scales, coarser A3 level to finer D1 level. Sequence scale similarity analysis of Myoglobin, Beta Actin and Cytochrome C taken from different organisms have been performed. It is seen that protein sequences of same functional class from different origins have strong correlation showing high sequence similarity. 15 functionally different protein sequences from human were taken and all the possible 120 combinations of pair wise similarity were analysed which clearly showed that protein sequences of different class taken from the same organism have no significant sequence similarity. Based on the above inference, classification is done on a sample set of 270 protein sequences obtained from organisms of diverse origins and functional class using two different methods. Using method 1, with human sequence as reference set, 244 out of the 270 samples were successfully classified with an accuracy of 90.3%. Using method 2, where reference set is selected based on maximum similarity criteria, 256 out of the 270 samples were successfully classified with an accuracy of 94.81%. Also when a new protein sequence is obtained, this method can be used as an initial step for identifying the functional class to which it belongs. The paper compared all the results with the NCBI database for verifying the reliability and accuracy of the results.

6. REFERENCES


Authors


[2] Dr. Tessamma Thomas received her M.Tech. and Ph.D from Cochin University of Science and Technology, Cochin-22, India. At present she is working as Professor in the Department of Electronics, Cochin University of Science and Technology. She has to her credit more than 80 research papers, in various research fields, published in International and National journals and conferences. Her areas of interest include digital signal / image processing, bio medical image processing, super resolution, content based image retrieval, genomic signal processing, etc.