

TPORTHMM: PREDICTING THE SUBSTRATE CLASS OF
TRANSMEMBRANE TRANSPORT PROTEINS USING PROFILE
HIDDEN MARKOV MODELS

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Abstract

TportHMM: Predicting the substrate class of transmembrane transport proteins
using profile Hidden Markov Models

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Transporters make up a large proportion of proteins in a cell, and play important roles in metabolism, regulation, and signal transduction by mediating movement of compounds across membranes but they are among the least characterized proteins due to their hydrophobic surfaces and lack of conformational stability. There is a need for tools that predict the substrates which are transported at the level of substrate class and the level of specific substrate.

This work develops a predictor, *TportHMM*, using profile Hidden Markov Model (HMM) and Multiple Sequence Alignment (MSA). We explore the role of multiple sequence alignment (MSA) algorithms to utilise evolutionary information, specificity-determining site (SDS) algorithms to highlight positional information, and a profile Hidden Markov Model (HMM) classifier to utilise sequence information.

We study the impact of different MSA algorithms (ClustalW, Clustal Omega, MAFFT, MUSCLE, AQUA, T-Coffee and TM-Coffee), and different SDS algorithms (Speer Server, GroupSim, Xdet and TCS). We compare these approaches with the state-of-the-art, *TrSSP* and *TranCEP*.

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Glossary

AAC Amino acid composition: the frequency of each amino acid in a protein

Accuracy The ability of the classifier to find the number of correct decision (both positive and negative) among the total number of cases examined

Alignment The process, or its result, of matching sequences to maximize an objective function

Amino acid One of the 20 chemical building blocks that form a polypeptide chain of a protein

ATP Adenosine triphosphate

BLAST Basic Local Alignment Search Tool: a heuristic algorithm for pairwise sequence alignment

blastp BLAST program to search a protein sequence as a query against a database of protein sequences

Blast+ Software package from NCBI which is latest version of implementation of BLAST

BLOSUM Blocks substitution matrix

Clustal Family of algorithms for multiple sequence alignment

ClustalW A commonly used progressive multiple sequence alignment program

Clustal Omega The latest multiple sequence alignment program from the Clustal family

HMM Hidden Markov Model

HMMER Commonly used software package for sequence analysis based on Profile Hidden Markov Model

IMP Integral membrane proteins are permanently attached to a membrane

JDet Multiplatform software for the interactive calculation and visualization of function-related conservation patterns in multiple sequence alignments and structures

MAFFT Multiple alignment program for amino acid or nucleotide sequences

MCC Matthews correlation coefficient, which is a single measure taking into account true and false positives and negatives

Motif Conserved element of a protein sequence alignment that usually correlates with a particular function

MUSCLE Multiple sequence comparison by log-expectation: software for MSA

Ortholog Orthologs are genes in different species that evolved from a common ancestral gene by a speciation event forming two separate species

PAM Point accepted mutation matrix

Pfam Collection of protein families represented by multiple sequence alignments and hidden Markov models (HMMs)

Profile Sequence profile is usually derived from multiple alignments of sequences with a known relationship, and represented as a PSSM or HMM

Protein Macromolecule that consists of a sequence of amino acids

PSSM Position Specific Scoring Matrix

Secator A program for inferring protein subfamilies from phylogenetic trees

Sensitivity The ability of the classifier to detect the positives that are correctly identified as such

SDS Specificity determining site

GroupSim A program for protein specificity determining position predictions

SP Sum-of-pairs function

SPEER SERVER A tool for prediction of protein specificity determining sites

Specificity The ability of the classifier to detect the negatives that are correctly identified as such

Swiss-Prot A high quality annotated and non-redundant protein sequence database

T-Coffee Tree based consistency objective function for alignment evaluation

TC Transporter classification scheme of IUBMB

TCDB Transporter classification database www.tcdb.org

TCS A program for evaluating alignment using transitive consistency score

TM-Coffee One part of the T-Coffee package that is designed specifically to align transmembrane proteins

TMS Transmembrane segment

Transmembrane protein Protein that spans the membrane

Transport The directed movement of a molecule into, out of, or within a cell, or between cells

TransportDB Transporter database primarily for prokaryotes

Transporter Protein carrying out transport

Xdet Binary distribution of functional residue detection programs of Jdet, used outside the JDet environment, directly from the command line, for massive/batch runs

Chapter 1

Introduction

Our work develops multiple predictors, using profile Hidden Markov Model (HMM) for classifying the substrates that are transported across a membrane by a transmembrane transport protein.

These predictors are assembled as the pipeline of multiple sequence alignment (MSA), prediction of specificity determining sites (SDS), and the HMMER tool `hmmbuild`.

In this chapter, we include a brief summary on the basic biological knowledge of membrane and transmembrane proteins in Section 1.1 ; Section 1.2 presents the state of the art; Section 1.3 shows the contribution of this thesis; Section 1.4 is the layout of this thesis.

1.1 Biological Background

A single cell consists of three parts: the cell membrane, the nucleus, and, between the two, the cytoplasm. The cell membrane separates the material outside the cell, extracellular, from the material inside the cell, intracellular. It maintains the integrity of a cell and controls passage of materials into and out of the cell.

Cell membranes consist of two main components: lipids and proteins as shown in Figure 1. Membrane proteins are important proteins for organisms. They enable the membrane to perform distinctive activities with a vast diversity of cell membrane functions. Membrane

proteins are classified into three different groups: integral membrane proteins (IMP), lipid-anchored membrane proteins and peripheral membrane proteins as shown in Figure 1. This work focuses on the integral membrane proteins, which are also called transmembrane proteins. In particular, we are concerned with the transmembrane transport proteins.

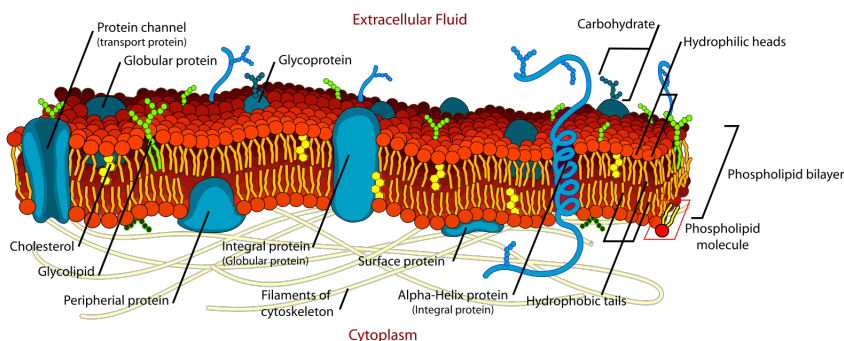


Figure 1: The cell membrane

The cell membrane separates the inside and outside of the cell. It contains a variety of biological molecules, mainly proteins and lipids. [Com20b]. [Fla19].

Transporters are transmembrane proteins involved with the movement of ions, small molecules, and macromolecules across the inner and outer membranes of a cell. Experimental characterization of their structure and function is exceptionally difficult, due to their hydrophobic surfaces and their lack of conformational stability. An example of this limitation is the Protein Data Bank (PDB). As of March 2020, less than 4% of the PDB is membrane proteins. Hence, there is a need for computational approaches to distinguish and characterize the substrates that they transport.

1.2 Related Works

For most of the work done on the prediction of transport proteins [GO14], there is no available software, so it is difficult to reproduce the work and to compare the results of different articles. *TranCEP* [AAB20] is the state-of-the-art, surpassing *TrSSP* [MCZ14]. Both these articles discuss the previous work in detail.

The *TranCEP* system is based on a Support Vector Machine (SVM) classifier using

amino acid composition (AAC) vectors. The work explored several methods of AAC with TM-Coffee as the single choice of MSA and TCS as the single choice of SDS. The best combination was TM-Coffee with TCS and pairwise amino acid composition (PAAC).

The *TrSSP* system uses a Support Vector Machine (SVM) with input from a profile PSSM and the AAIndex physicochemical composition and varies it to illustrate the impact of each of the factors: compositional, evolutionary, and positional information. This work investigate profile HMM classifiers rather than SVM, and investigate a broad range of MSA and SDS tools in the pipeline.

Multiple sequence alignments algorithms are surveyed in [Not07, Not02] and compared through benchmarking in [TPP99]. The MSA methods used for this experiment are ClustalW [THG94], MAFFT [KMKM02], MUSCLE [Edg04], TM-Coffee [FTC⁺16], AQUA [MCT⁺09], ClustalOmega [SWD⁺11], and T-Coffee [NHH00].

Positional information in terms of the amino acid location within the sequence, as determined by analysing an MSA for “important” positions (columns), whether based on conservation, mutual information, or specificity determining positions [TWNB12]. The available methods for these specificity-determining sites are surveyed in [CC15]. The SDS methods used are Speer Server [CML⁺12], GroupSim [CS08], Xdet [PRV06], and TCS [CDTN14].

1.3 Research Contribution

The contributions of this thesis are as follows:

1. This work is the first to apply Hidden Markov Models for classification of transporter protein substrates and the first to utilise the combination of specificity determining sites and Hidden Markov Model to classify the substrate class of a transmembrane transport protein based on a given transmembrane transporter protein.
2. We establish a pipeline for classification of the membrane proteins which integrates the steps of data processing, model building and model evaluation. It consists of similarity search, multiple sequence alignment, specificity determining site prediction

and construction of a profile Hidden Markov Model. We perform extensive testing and analysis of different combinations of MSA and SDS tools for two different datasets.

3. We study the impact of different MSA algorithms (ClustalW, Clustal Omega, MAFFT, MUSCLE, AQUA, T-Coffee and TM-Coffee), and different SDS algorithms (Speer Server, GroupSim, Xdet and TCS). We compare these approaches with the state-of-the-art, *TrSSP* and *TranCEP*.

1.4 Thesis Outline

The remainder of this thesis is organized as follows:

Chapter 2 introduces the background necessary for understanding the work in this thesis. Section 2.1 describes the structure of the proteins as well as the the function of the different types on integral membrane proteins. Section 2.2 and Section 2.3 present the algorithms for proteins sequence analysis, Section 2.4 outline a protein database, Section 2.5 to Section 2.8 describes the tools used in this thesis.

Chapter 3 explains our pipeline implementation in detail. Section 3.1 presents the datasets and database used in this project. Section 3.2 clarifies each method used in our implementation in detail. Section 3.3 respectively shows the experimental results and discussion on our work.

Chapter 4 concludes the thesis. Section 4.1 indicates some of the limitations that we faced in this experiment. Section 4.2 suggests some directions worthy of further investigation.

Chapter 2

Background

2.1 Membrane Proteins

2.1.1 Proteins

Proteins are built up from the blocks of alpha (α) amino acids. Thus, proteins are represented by a sequence of amino acids. The structure of amino acid is shown in Figure 2. Amino acids have a central alpha carbon atom, and four chemical groups bonded to it: an amino $-NH_2$, a carboxyl or carboxylic acid $-COOH$, a hydrogen atom H , and a side chain which we call R-group as shown. They are divided into several categories by their : side chain, size, shape, charge and hydrophobicity. There are 20 different amino acids that appear in the genetic code. They can be represented by English letters as shown in Table 1. An amino acid sequence helps determining the corresponding protein's 3D structure and by knowing the 3D structure, one can understand the protein functionality. The linear sequence of amino acids is called the protein primary structure.

2.1.2 Integral Membrane proteins

As mentioned in Section 1.1, the cell membrane separates the inside from the outside of the cell. Membrane proteins consist of three main categories: integral proteins, peripheral proteins, and lipid-anchored proteins. The integral membrane proteins transport specific ions, sugars, amino acids, and vitamins to cross the impermeable phospholipid bilayer into the cell

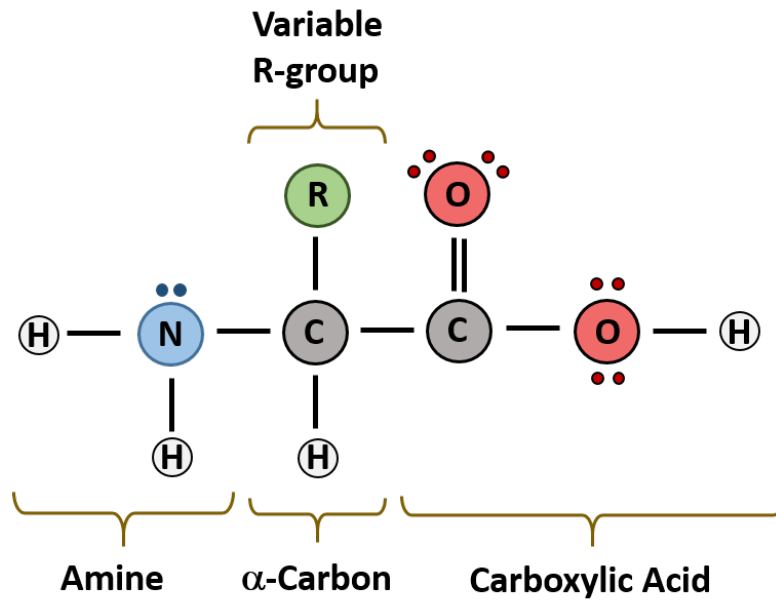


Figure 2: General Structure of an Alpha Amino Acid
 The chemical structure of the amino acids showing side chain [Fla19].

Table 1: Amino Acid Letter Codes

Amino Acids	Three Letter Code	Single Letter Code
Glycine	GLY	G
Alanine	ALA	A
Valine	VAL	V
Leucine	LEU	L
IsoLeucine	ILE	I
Threonine	THR	T
Serine	SER	S
Methionine	MET	M
Cystein	CYS	C
Proline	PRO	P
Phenylalanine	PHE	F
Tyrosine	TYR	Y
Tryptophane	TRP	W
Histidine	HIS	H
Lysine	LYS	K
Argenine	ARG	R
Aspartate	ASP	D
Glutamine	GLN	Q
Glutamate	GLU	E
Asparagine	ASN	N

```
>P0C0S1
MEDLNVVDSINGAGSWLVANQALLLSYAVNIVAALAIIVGLIARMISNAVNRLMISRKIDATVADFLSALVRYGIIAFTLI
AALGRVGVQTASVIAVLGAAGLAVGLALQGSLSNLAAGVLLVMFRPFRAGEYVDLGGVAGTVLSVQIFSTTMRTADGKIIVIP
NGKIIAGNIINFSREPVRNEFIIGVAYDSIDQVKQILTNIIQSEDRIKDRMTVRLNELGASSINFVVRVWSNSGDLQNV
YWDVLERIKREFDAAGISFPYPQMDVNFKRVKEDKAA
```

Figure 3: A Protein Sequence in Fasta format

A sequence in FASTA format begins with one line of description, followed by lines of sequence data. The definition line is distinguished from the sequence data by a greater-than (>) symbol at the beginning. The word following the ">" symbol is the identifier of the sequence, and the rest of the line is the description which is optional.

and export metabolic products out. They also process a similar exchange for intracellular organelles.

There are three main types of integral membrane proteins; channels, transporters and ATP powered pumps. Channels transport water, ions, or hydrophilic small molecules by their concentration or electric potential gradients. Transporters are involved with the movement of ions, small molecules, and macromolecules. They allow certain substrates enter or leave the cells. ATP-powered pumps move ions or small molecules against a chemical concentration gradient, an electric potential, or both.

2.2 Protein Sequence Analysis

The transporters are classified into families based on the transporter classification (TC) system. The assignment into a TC family can provide an indication of the transport mechanism but not the substrate specificity of the protein, since proteins belonging to the same TC family transport different substrates and proteins belonging to different families can transport the same substrate. Classifying the transporter at a level of substrate class is very challenging, since it is dependent on a very small number of sites in the protein sequence, and those sites are not known beforehand. The structure and function information available for membrane proteins is very limited. Experimentally finding a function of a protein is a hard task. Hence, we make use of the available experimental data and the transmembrane transport protein sequences in computational tools to predict the transmembrane and their

function. By classifying membrane proteins, we can understand their functionality.

2.2.1 Multiple Sequence alignment

Sequence alignment is a way of arranging the residues different sequences with respect to each other. It is used to identify regions of similarity that may be a consequence of functional, structural, or evolutionary relationships between the sequences. Sequences can be aligned either by performing local alignment or global alignment. Local alignment aligns the substring of the sequences, whereas global alignment aligns all of the residues of every sequences. The alignment of two sequences is called pairwise alignment and the alignment of three or more sequences is called multiple sequence alignment (MSA).

A protein sequence s of length l is a string of l characters derived from the alphabet

$$\mathcal{A} = \{A, C, D, E, F, G, H, I, K, L, M, N, P, Q, R, S, T, V, W, Y\}$$

Given a set of N sequences $S : S = \{S_1, S_2, \dots, S_N\}$, $N \geq 2$, $S_i = S_{i1}, S_{i2}, \dots, S_{il_i}$, for $i \leq N$, and $S_{ij} \in \mathcal{A}$, for $1 \leq j \leq l_i$, where l_i is the length of the i th sequence, then a **multiple sequence alignment** can be described by inserting gaps into sequences S_i in S that the modified sequences S'_i in set S' conform to length L , where $L \geq \max\{l_i | i = 1, \dots, N\}$ or in other words, MSA is defined as a matrix $A = (a_{ij})$, $1 \leq i \leq l$, $\max(l_i) \leq l \leq \sum_{i=1}^N l_i$. The matrix must meet the following three conditions:

1. $a_{ij} \in \mathcal{A} \cup \{-\}$, where "-" stands for gap.
2. After the "-" is removed from the i th line in the matrix, the string S_i is obtained.
3. The matrix does not contain columns whose characters are all gaps.

In order to measure the similarity between multiple sequences, a scoring mechanism is defined that is based on the multiple sequence alignment. All of the multiple sequence alignment methods use a metric called the objective function to measure the quality of their method. The most common objective function used is the sum-of-pairs function (SP).

The SP function gets two important arguments: substitution matrix M and gap penalties (including open gap penalties and extension gap penalties).

The SP function calculates the sum of the residue scores and the penalty scores. The higher the result, the better alignment. So the MSAs should aim to maximise matches while permitting minimum gaps.

$$SP(S_1, S_2, \dots, S_N) = \sum_{h=1}^L \sum_{i=1}^{N-1} \sum_{j=i+1}^N cost(S_{ih}, S_{jh})$$

where

$$cost(S_{ih}, S_{jh}) = \begin{cases} M(S_{ih}, S_{jh}) & \text{If both are the same residue (match);} \\ M(S_{ih}, S_{jh}) & \text{If both are residues, but different (non-match);} \\ 0 & \text{If either is a gap.} \end{cases}$$

```

sp | Q794F9 | 4F2_RAT      LSTDSTRLSREEGTSLLENLSLNPYEGLLLQFPFVA
sp | P10852 | 4F2_MOUSE   LSTD SARQSPREEDTSLKLENLSLNPYEGLLLQFPFVA
sp | P08195 | 4F2_HUMAN   LSTQP---GREGSPLELERLKLPEHGLLLRFPYAA
sp | Q7YQK3 | 4F2_RABIT    LSTHP---GREGTSLALEHLNLEPHEGLLLHFPYVA
***.      .***.: * **.*.*:*:*****:***:.*

```

Figure 4: Local alignment of multiple sequences with BLAST
 An * (asterisk) indicates positions which have a single, fully conserved residue. A . (period) indicates conservation between groups of weakly similar properties. A : (colon) indicates conservation between groups of strongly similar properties

The substitution matrix is used to records the similarity of two residues in protein sequence alignment, therefore it is used to calculate the cost function. Point accepted mutation (PAM) and Blocks substitution matrix (BLOSUM) are amongst the most commonly used substitution matrices [HH92]. The most commonly used are the PAM250 matrix and the BLOSUM-62 matrix. The BLOSUM-62 similarity score matrix is equivalent to a 62% residue match between the two sequences. Since multiple sequences in the alignment are

Ala	4																									
Arg	-1	5																								
Asn	-2	0	6																							
Asp	-2	-2	1	6																						
Cys	0	-3	-3	-3	9																					
Gln	-1	1	0	0	-3	5																				
Glu	-1	0	0	2	-4	2	5																			
Gly	0	-2	0	-1	-3	-2	-2	6																		
His	-2	0	1	-1	-3	0	0	-2	8																	
Ile	-1	-3	-3	-3	-1	-3	-3	-4	-3	4																
Leu	-1	-2	-3	-4	-1	-2	-3	-4	-3	2	4															
Lys	-1	2	0	-1	-3	1	1	-2	-1	-3	-2	5														
Met	-1	-1	-2	-3	-1	0	-2	-3	-2	1	2	-1	5													
Phe	-2	-3	-3	-3	-2	-3	-3	-3	-1	0	0	-3	0	6												
Pro	-1	-2	-2	-1	-3	-1	-1	-2	-2	-3	-3	-1	-2	-4	7											
Ser	1	-1	1	0	-1	0	0	0	-1	-2	-2	0	-1	-2	-1	4										
Thr	0	-1	0	-1	-1	-1	-1	-2	-2	-1	-1	-1	-1	-2	-1	1	5									
Trp	-3	-3	-4	-4	-2	-2	-3	-2	-2	-3	-2	-3	-1	1	-4	-3	-2	11								
Tyr	-2	-2	-2	-3	-2	-1	-2	-3	2	-1	-1	-2	-1	3	-3	-2	-2	2	7							
Val	0	-3	-3	-3	-1	-2	-2	-3	-3	3	1	-2	1	-1	-2	-2	0	-3	-1	4						
	Ala	Arg	Asn	Asp	Cys	Gln	Glu	Gly	His	Ile	Leu	Lys	Met	Phe	Pro	Ser	Thr	Trp	Tyr	Val						

Figure 5: BLOSUM62 [Com20a]

not identical, a **gap** is introduced to define insertion and deletion. To avoid aligning non homologous sequences, the number of gaps is limited to some extent. This number is retrieved by the scoring strategy the algorithm use. The matched residues get a positive score, while the gaps get a negative score or a penalty. There are two types of **gap penalty**: the **gap open penalty** and the **gap extend penalty**. The gap open penalty refers to the first gap inserted in a sequence while the sequence is being aligned and it normally has higher penalty than the gap extend penalty. The gap extend penalty refers to the insertion of the consecutive gap after the first gap is inserted.

Although there is no single best technique to find the best alignment, finding the alignment with biological correctness is not an easy task. When the number of sequences and length of sequences increase, finding the best exact alignment is too complex and computationally expensive. Therefore, MSA methods use heuristic technics to find the best alignment. The followings are the main types of heuristic algorithms used in MSA methods:

- Progressive algorithm
- Iterative algorithm
- Consistency-based algorithm

The idea of the **progressive algorithm** is to take an initial, approximate, phylogenetic tree between the sequences and to start with the two closest sequences and then gradually build up the alignment, following the order in the tree. Although it is a simple and fast algorithm, it is a greedy approach that its errors in the first alignments cannot be corrected later when the rest of the sequences are added which results in a “local minimization” problem. The representative progressive algorithms include ClustalW and Clustal Omega.

The concept of **Iterative alignment algorithm** is to produce progressive alignment and then fix the errors in the initial alignment iteratively until the alignment results are no longer improved. The difference between this method and the progressive algorithm is that the whole pairwise alignments produced in the beginning of it can be revisited and modified to get a better score. Iterative alignment algorithm is not as fast and efficient as the progressive algorithm and it does not provide guarantees for obtaining optimized results. However, in this method, the objective function and the optimization process are theoretically separated and it is robust and insensitive to the number of sequences. MAFFT and MUSCLE are two examples of that implement this algorithm.

Consistency-based methods main idea is that, for sequences x , y and z , if residue x_i aligns with residue y_j and y_j aligns with z_k , then x_i aligns with z_k . The consistency of each pair of residues with residue pairs from all of the other alignments is examined and weighted so it reflects the degree to which those residues align consistently with other residues. Based on benchmarking studies [Pev09b], the final multiple sequence alignments generated by this method are more accurate than the ones achieved by progressive alignments. T-Coffee is considered a representative of this algorithm.

2.2.2 Specificity Determining Sites

Gene duplication cause the accumulation of amino acid changes which can result in functional divergence [Gu01]. Proteins that share common evolutionary origins in a species with different function than each other are called paralogs. However, most amino acid changes represent neutral evolution and not related to functional divergence [Kim91].

Generally, the more important a function of amino acid site is, the less possible it is for its

evolutionary change of amino acid, because the variance in this kind of site will highly reduce the possibility of its host to survive and reproduce [Kim91]. A specificity determining site is the site in the amino acid sequences that any changes in its amino acids cause changes in the protein function. The SDS have special conservation or evolutionary role within a protein family [CC15], comparing to the neutral, non-function-related mutations in the majority of amino acid sites.

There are three types of functional divergence. Because of the pattern of evolution in them, several **evolutionary rate-base approaches** to SDS prediction have been defined. **Type I** functional divergence is the result of significant rate difference at a given site between two subgroups of a protein family, indicating that the function constraints at this position are different in the two groups. Type I functional divergence after gene duplication is highly correlated with the change in evolutionary rate, which is analogous to a fundamental rule in molecular evolution: functional importance is highly correlated with evolutionary conservation [Kim91]. The site of type I functional divergence is different between two subfamilies. The **type II** specificity determining sites may show a subfamily-specific conservation pattern, which is conserved in all subfamilies but using different amino acids in different subfamilies. This type II divergence is a consequence of the rate change where selection causes similar levels of conservation of different amino acid types for different protein subfamilies. **Type III** or **type MC** (marginally conserved) is involved in subfamily specificity determination where no apparent conservation of amino acids is observed within any of the subfamilies [CBP07].

Chakrabarti et al. [CBP07] indicate that almost half of the SDS belong to the type MC. Therefore, finding SDS using only conservation/evolution information from a strong background signals is extremely difficult. During the past decades, different algorithms has been developed, including the combination of at least some the signals from MSA, phylogenetic tree, amino acid physico-chemical properties and the protein's 3D structure [CC15]. Other computational algorithms are based on three approaches: evolutionary rate-based which was mentioned earlier, entropy-based, and amino acid physicochemical properties-based.

Several computational approaches have been developed to identify functional sites that

could be involved in specific function related to a subset of proteins within a family over the last couple of decades. They relied on the conservation pattern of amino acids in a protein sequence alignment, together with structural constraints as indicators of likely functional importance and are mainly use the concept of principal component analysis, systematic use of physico-chemical properties of amino acids and the widely popular evolutionary trace (ET) method for SDS prediction [CC15]. However, these methods were more biased toward the type II SDS.

Some of the other algorithms use the mutual information (MI) to differentiate SDS alignment columns from non-SDS columns. These algorithms are among the **Entropy-based approaches**. However, the direct use of relative entropy to identify SDS were introduced later. Entropy-based approaches calculate the relative entropy in one position between two subfamilies by computing the distribution of each amino acid in each column. A cumulative relative entropy (CRE) is the sum of relative entropy in one position between two subfamilies. The cumulative relative entropy is normalized to achieve Z-score. The larger the Z-score value, the more the amino acid distributions in both subfamilies differ from one another.

Physico-chemical properties-based approaches can capture amino acid properties in different ways. One of them is discussed in Section 2.7.2

2.3 Profile Hidden Markov Model

The hidden Markov model (HMM) is a kind of Markov chain. It describes a probability distribution over a potentially infinite number of sequences. Since these probabilities must sum to one, there is a constraint on the score that the HMM assigns to sequences. Also, if the probability of one sequence increases/decreases, the probability of one or more of the sequences should decrease/increase. The states of the hidden markov model cannot be directly observed but they can be observed with the observation vector sequences that are described in every state by the probability distribution. The states sequences constitute a first-order Markov chain; meaning that the probability of one state depends only on its

previous state. An HMM is a type of a non-deterministic finite state machine with transiting to another state and emitting a symbol under a probabilistic model.

The hidden markov model is a 5-tuple model: (S,O,T,E,I) where :

1. S: A finite set of states $S=\{q_1, q_2, \dots, q_N\}$
2. O: A finite set of observed values $O=\{O_1, O_2, \dots, O_M\}$
3. T: A probability of transition $T=\{t_{ij}\}$
4. E: An emission probability

$$E = e_{ik}, e_{ik} = P(O_t = O_k | S_t = q_i) \quad (1)$$

which means the probability of seeing O_k when in state q_i .

5. I: An initial state distribution $I=\{i_j\}$, $i_j = P(S_1 = q_i)$.

A profile hidden markov model has a start state and an end state which do not emit any symbols. In the profile hidden markov model, each node is one of the following:

- Matching state (m): one character in the column.
- Insertion state (i): additional characters can be emitted between the columns.
- Deletion state (d): no characters are emitted in the column.

The main steps to create a profile HMM:

1. Determine the matching status (main status). In the multiple sequence alignment of one protein family, the gaps tend to be line up, so the model considers the ungapped regions. The probability of a new sequence x according to this model is $P(x|M) = \prod_{i=1}^l e_i(x_i)$. To avoid underflow, it tried to evaluate $S = \sum_{i=1}^l \log \frac{e_i(x_i)}{q_{x_i}}$, where q_{x_i} is the probability of the x under a random model. So there is an ungapped score matrices for the main status. The matrix is a position specific score matix (PSSM).

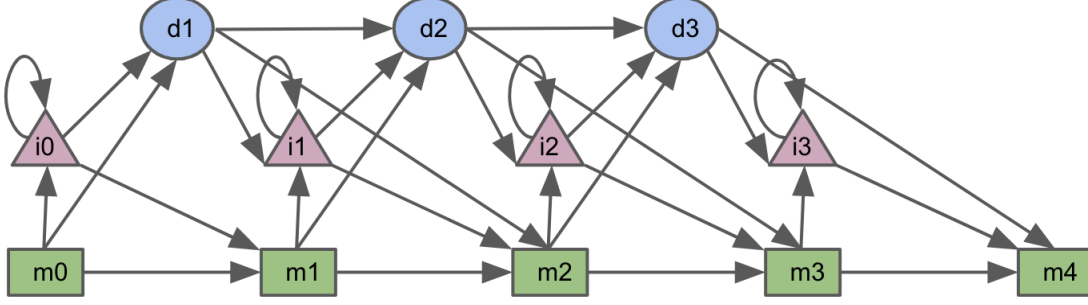


Figure 6: Different states of HMM and their transitions. The green states represent the Matching residues. The pink states are the Insertion states and the blue states are Deletion states.

2. Calculate the number of times the match status and the insert status symbol are issued and the number of transitions of various states.
3. Convert the number of times the symbol is sent and the number of state transitions to the corresponding probability.

2.3.1 Viterbi Algorithm

The **Viterbi algorithm** answers the question of given a known string, what is the sequence most likely to produce it, which is the **decoding problem**. The amount of time for calculating the possibility of all the possible state sequences will be exponential. The Viterbi algorithm tries to solve it with dynamic programming.

Definition $\phi_{t+1}(S_k) = \arg \max_{l=1,2,\dots,N} [\delta_t(l)T(l,k)]$, $t = 1, 2, \dots, n-1$, $k = 1, 2, \dots, N$. This variable is used to backtrack the maximum value subscript at each moment. Starting from the last moment n , step back and back, you can find the best path. If $s_n^* = \arg \max_{l=1,2,\dots,N} [\delta_t(l)T(l,k)]$, $s_t^* = \phi_{t+1}(S_{k+1}^*)$, $t = n-1, \dots, 1$, then the optimal path is $S^* = s_1^* s_2^* \dots s_n^*$. The Viterbi algorithm returns the most probable alignment between a given sequence and the profile HMM. It finds the maximum probability path for the profile HMM to generate the query sequence. Let $V_{i,j}$ be the maximum probability of a path from start state S_i to the the end state S_j , so the $V_{i+1,j} = \max_{0 \leq k \leq j-1} (V_{i,k} P(k,j) P(q_{i+1}|j))$

$$V_j^M(i) = \log \frac{e_{M_j}(x_i)}{q_{x_i}} + \max \begin{cases} V_{j-1}^M(i-1) + \log a_{M_{j-1}M_j} \\ V_{j-1}^I(i-1) + \log a_{I_{j-1}M_j} \\ V_{j-1}^D(i-1) + \log a_{D_{j-1}M_j} \end{cases}$$

$$V_j^I(i) = \log \frac{e_{I_j}(x_i)}{q_{x_i}} + \max \begin{cases} V_j^M(i-1) + \log a_{M_jI_j} \\ V_j^I(i-1) + \log a_{I_jI_j} \\ V_j^D(i-1) + \log a_{D_jI_j} \end{cases}$$

$$V_j^D(i) = \max \begin{cases} V_{j-1}^M(i) + \log a_{M_{j-1}D_j} \\ V_{j-1}^I(i) + \log a_{I_{j-1}D_j} \\ V_{j-1}^D(i) + \log a_{D_{j-1}D_j} \end{cases}$$

where a_{ij} is the transition probability from state i to j and e_i is the emission probability in state i , and $V_j^M(i)$ is the log-odds score of the best path matching subsequence $x_{1,\dots,i}$ to the submodel up to state j , ending with x_i being emitted by state M_j . Similarly $V_j^I(i)$ is the score of the best path ending in x_i being emitted by I_j , and $V_j^D(i)$ is for the best path ending in state D_j .

2.4 Bioinformatic Protein Database

The Universal Protein Resource (UniProt) is an accessible database of protein sequence and functional information and is mainly supported by the National Institutes of Health (NIH). The UniProt databases are the UniProt Knowledgebase (UniProtKB), the UniProt Reference Clusters (UniRef), and the UniProt Archive (UniParc).

The UniProtKB is the primary worldwide database of protein sequences with accurate, consistent and rich annotation. Each protein record contains a list of keywords that summarizes the content of a UniProtKB entry and facilitates the search for proteins of interest. The keywords are controlled vocabulary with a hierarchical structure that are added during the manual annotation process. The UniProtKB consists of two parts:

- **Swiss-Prot:** contains manually-annotated, nonredundant records with information

extracted from literature and curator-evaluated computational analysis. The annotation includes the protein and gene name, keyword assignment, function, subcellular location, peer-reviewed references, secondary structure elements, cross-references to other biological databases and information about their function

- **TrEMBL:** This section contains unrevised and automatically annotated protein sequences that await full manual annotation.

2.5 Bioinformatics Tools for Alignment

2.5.1 BLAST

Basic Local Alignment Search Tool (Blast)[AGM⁺90] is a sequence alignment algorithm based on the idea that similar proteins must have short matches. It is faster than most of the sequence alignment algorithms that align a query sequence against all sequences in a sequence database to find similar sequences or matches because sequence databases can contain millions of sequences making optimal alignments computationally expensive. Blast generates all possible short words or substrings of the query sequence. The default length of a word for protein sequences is 3 and for nucleic acid sequences is 11. The algorithm scans a sequence database for sequences that match the words with some threshold. Such matches are called seeds. The original Blast then extends the seeds to the right and left using ungapped alignments[AMS⁺97]. The algorithm terminates when the score of the extended alignment falls below some threshold S . Blast reports the extended alignments or hits that have a score at least S with their statistical significance. Such hits are called High Scoring Pairs (HSPs).

Blast uses a substitution matrix to compute the scores of each HSP. Statistical analysis of Blast alignment scores have been performed in the literature. The statistical significance of a Blast score S is given by the expected number, E-value [PF01], of an HSP with a score equivalent to or better than S . The probability of finding exactly n HSPs with score $\geq S$ is

called P-value which is calculated as follows:

$$p = e^{-E} \frac{E^n}{n!} \quad (2)$$

Where E is the E-value of S. The BLAST programs report E-value rather than P-values because it is easier to understand the difference between. However, when $E < 0.01$, P-value and E-value are nearly identical. The lower the E-value, the more significant the score and the alignment are. For a pair of query and subject sequences, Blast reports all HSPs and their associated measurements. The measurements of interest for the purpose of this document are query coverage, subject coverage, percent identity, E-value, and score. Query coverage is the ratio of the length of the HSP in the query sequence to the full length of the query sequence. Subject coverage is the ratio of the length of the hit in the subject sequence to the full length of the subject sequence. Percent identity is the percentage of identical amino-acids at the same positions in the alignment with respect to the alignment length. Score is the bit score, which is the raw score calculated from the substitution matrix normalized to parameters including the database size.

The program used the following parameters: Maximum target sequences: 120; E-value: 0.001; Word Size: 3 as Default; Substitution Matrix: BLOSUM 62; Gap Open Penalty: 11 as default; Gap Extension Penalty: 1 as default.

BLAST can be downloaded from: https://blast.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Blast.cgi?CMD=Web&PAGE_TYPE=BlastDocs&DOC_TYPE=Download.

2.5.2 ClustalW

ClustalW [THG94] is one of the most popular MSA algorithms that uses a progressive alignment algorithm. It starts with performing a pairwise alignment of all the sequences in the alignment in a matrix that shows the similarity of each pair of sequences. Then it constructs a phylogenetic tree called a guide tree using the neighbor-joining method [SN87] and the distance score matrix which can be interpreted by the similarity score matrix. Afterwards it starts with the two most similar sequences. Finally, it gradually adds new

sequences until all sequences are added.

In progressive methods, Different order of addition will produce different results. Therefore, finding the right alignment order is the key issue. Although progressive methods are very efficient, they can not correct an error that's been made at the early stages of the alignment which can increase the likelihood of misalignment due to incorrect conservation signals [DOS13] [Pev09a].

The default parameters are: Gap Open Penalty: 10.0; Gap Extension Penalty: 0.1; Substitution Matrix: BLOSUM 62.

ClustalW can be downloaded from: <http://www.clustal.org/clustal2/>.

2.5.3 Clustal Omega

Clustal Omega [SWD⁺11] is another tool in the Clustal family that uses progressive alignment algorithm. It works faster and more accurate than ClustalW. It also provides features that can be used to avoid recomputing an entire alignment every time that new sequences become available. Clustal Omega constructs the guide tree using a modified version of mBed [BSS⁺10] which is embedding the sequences in a vector space of n dimension where each element is the distance to the corresponding sequence. The pairwise alignment are computed using the HHaligh package [Sö05] which aligns the sequences with two profile hidden Markov models [Edd98]. For an alignment of N sequences, mBed algorithm has the complexity of $\mathcal{O}(N \log N)$.

Clustal Omega can be downloaded from: <http://www.clustal.org/omega/>.

2.5.4 MAFFT

The multiple alignment using fast Fourier transform (MAFFT) algorithm [KMKM02] is an iterative method that uses two-cycle heuristics. The frequency of amino acid substitutions strongly depends on the difference of physico-chemical properties. Initially each amino acid is converted into a vector, which includes two values: volume and polarity. The algorithm calculates the correlation between two amino acid sequences, the result is transformed to Fourier signal information, which reduces the cpu time from $\mathcal{O}(N^2)$. to $\mathcal{O}(N \log N)$. If two

sequences compared have homologous regions, their correlation will have some peaks corresponding to these regions. MAFFT applies standard dynamic programming to obtain an optimal path, which corresponds to the optimal arrangement of similar segments. In the program package MAFFT, there are several different modes including progressive methods FFT-NS-1 and FFT-NS-2, and an iterative refinement method FFT-NS-i and NW-NS-i. FFT-NS-1 and FFT-NS-2 use a guide tree like ClustalW. FFT-NS-i divides the alignment into two groups and realigns until there is no improvement in score. In the NW-NS-i algorithm the FFT approximation is disabled.

MAFFT can be downloaded from: <http://mafft.cbrc.jp/alignment/software/>.

2.5.5 MUSCLE

Multiple Sequence Comparison by Log-Expectation (MUSCLE) [Edg04] is a combination of the progressive method and iterative method. MUSCLE has three stages. At the completion of each stage, a multiple alignment is available and the algorithm can be terminated. The first stage starts by computing the similarity of each pair of sequences using the k-mer counting or by constructing a global alignment of the pair and determining the fractional identity. A tree is constructed from the distance matrix using UPGMA or neighbor-joining, and a root is identified. By progressive alignment, MUSCLE makes a preliminary alignment, MSA1. The second stage, which is the iterative method, the algorithm tries to improve the tree and builds a new progressive alignment according to this tree. The similarity of each pair of sequences is computed using fractional identity computed from their mutual alignment in the current multiple alignment. This time the tree is constructed by computing a Kimura distance matrix and applying a clustering method to this matrix. Both trees are then compared to identify the set of internal nodes for which the branching order has changed. If these steps of the second stage are executed more than once and the number of changed nodes has not decreased, the process of improving the tree is considered to have converged and iteration terminates. Then it builds another progressive alignment. In the third stage, an edge is deleted from the guide tree to divide the sequences into two groups. The profile

of the multiple sequence alignment in each subtree is computed. The two profiles are re-aligned to each other using profile-profile alignment. If the score of the new alignment is improved, the new alignment is kept, otherwise it is discarded.

MUSCLE can be downloaded from: <https://www.drive5.com/muscle/downloads.htm>.

2.5.6 AQUA

Automated Quality Improvement For Multiple Sequence Alignments or simply AQUA combines existing tools in three steps: the first step is called Computation of an initial MSA. It aligns the sequences with MAFFT and MUSCLE. The second step or Refinement of the MSA is introduced to detect and correct the errors made in the previous step. The program uses RASCAL [TTP03]. The last step or Evaluation and selection of the best MSA uses the NORMD [TPTP01] program to estimate the quality of each MSA produced in the previous steps. The NorMD score gives information about the general quality of the alignment but can also be used to compare different versions of the same MSA. Thus, it selects the MSA with the highest NorMD value.

AQUA can be downloaded from: <http://www.bork.embl.de/Docu/AQUA>.

2.5.7 T-Coffee

T-Coffee (Tree-based Consistency Objective Function for alignment Evaluation) is also a greedy progressive method but it has two main features that provides it with better information in the early stages. First, it allows that the multiple alignments be generated by different ways using heterogeneous data sources. These data are provided to T-Coffee by a library of pairwise alignments. The second one is the optimization method it uses. The optimization method tries to find the multiple alignments that best fits the pairwise alignment which is provided in the input library. It uses a progressive strategy, that is, using the information in the library to carry out progressive alignment in a manner that it considers the alignments between all the pairs. It has the advantage of being fast and accurate. T-Coffee is a progressive alignment with an ability to consider information from all of the sequences during each alignment step, not just those being aligned at that stage.

T-Coffee algorithm has five steps. The first one is generating a primary library of alignments. In this step, T-Coffee uses two alignment sources for each pair of sequences, one is local (Lalign [HM91]) and the other one is global using ClustalW. The second step is the derivation of the primary library weights. There is a weight which is generated on each pair of aligned residues, and it is equal to sequence identity within the pairwise alignment. So there are two libraries (local and global) for each set of sequences. Third, T-Coffee combines these two libraries by merging the duplicated pairwise residues and adding the sum of the two weights. The fourth step is extending the library. This enormously increases the value of the information in the library by examining the consistency of each pair of residues with residue pairs from all of the other alignments. A triplet approach is used. For example, for sequences A, B and C, where A(G) aligned with B(G), and there is a primary weight, then the weight(A(G), B(G)) will be changed depending on the weight(A(G), C(G)) and weight(B(G), C(G)). Lastly, the progressive alignment strategy uses the extension library as substitution matrix to align the sequences according to the phylogenetic tree [SN87].

T-Coffee can be downloaded from: <http://www.tcoffee.org/Projects/tcoffee/index.html#DOWNLOAD>.

2.5.8 TM-Coffee

Transmembrane proteins are a special class of proteins. The regions that insert into the cell-membrane have a profoundly different hydrophobicity pattern compared with soluble proteins. Most of the multiple alignment techniques use scoring schemes tailored for soluble proteins and are therefore, may not produce the optimal alignment for transmembrane transport proteins [PFH08]. TM-Coffee [FTC⁺16] is designed for this situation by using homology extension. In homology extension methods, database searches are used to replace each sequence with the profile of closely related homologs. Although this method gives much more accurate alignment, performing an alignment takes several orders of magnitude longer than the standalone applications [EB06].

The TM-Coffee algorithm is described as follows. First, run BLAST against a specified database for each sequence that is going to be aligned to find homologous sequences with

50% to 90% identity and a coverage of more than 70% are retained. Then the BLAST output is turned into a profile by removing all columns corresponding to positions unaligned to the query (i.e. gaps in the query) and the query positions unmatched by BLAST are filled with gaps [FTC⁺16]. Third, TM-Coffee produces a T-Coffee library by aligning every pair of profiles with a pair-HMM, and every pair of matched columns with a posterior probability of being aligned higher than 0.99 is added to the library. Last, this library is used to do the progressive alignment.

TM-Coffee can be downloaded from: <http://www.tcoffee.org/Projects/tcoffee/index.html#DOWNLOAD>.

2.6 Secator for Protein Subfamilies

With the increase in protein database sizes, finding the the number of sensible subsets of a large protein family for in-depth structural, functional, and evolutionary analyses is an important task. Secator [WPTP01] is a program that implements the principle of an ascending hierarchical method using a distance matrix based on a multiple alignment of protein sequences. The algorithm follows. Initially, each sequence is considered a family of protein and the dissimilarity between each pair is calculated based on the distance matrix given as an input and weight of the sequences. Secondly, while the number of families is greater than two do: it combines the two families with the smallest dissimilarity value and compute the dissimilarity and weights of the new formed family and the rest of the families. Once the number of families are two, Secator assign the dissimilarity of the two remaining families to a virtual node. The nodes are clustered into two groups, the group with high dissimilarity values and the group with low dissimilarity values. This clustering is done by computing the partition into two groups which has the maximum interclass inertia on a subset of all possible partitions. This partitioning produces a threshold for the low dissimilarity value. The families with the dissimilarity value below the threshold are partitioned and the new interclass inertia is calculated. The algorithm continues this procedure all of the dissimilarity values are higher than the threshold. Finally, all of the

nodes of a cluster with dissimilarity values above the threshold are put into a family.

Secator can be downloaded from: <http://math.univ-lille1.fr/~wicker/software.html>.

2.7 Bioinformatics Tools for Specificity Determining Sites

2.7.1 GroupSim

GroupSim [CS08] uses a score-based approach. In GroupSim, the average similarity between each pair of amino acids within a subgroup is calculated using a similarity matrix to obtain a column score, based on which the SDS predictions are done [CC15]. A protein family may be grouped into subfamilies that share specific functions that are not common to the entire family. Often, the amino acids present in a small number of sequence positions would determine each protein's particular functional specificity. GroupSim presents a sequence-based method to predict this kind of SDS.

First, the average similarity between each pair of amino acids in a subfamily is calculated according to a similarity matrix for each subfamily in the alignment. Second, in order to differentiate between specificity groups, GroupSim computes, for each subfamily, the average similarity of all amino acid pairs containing one amino acid in the group and one not in the group. When the subfamilies are more different, the column is more likely to be a SDS. Finally, GroupSim calculates the average of each subfamily similarity average. The column score is the average within-subfamily similarity minus the average between-subfamily similarity. Higher scores mean a greater likelihood to be a SDS.

GroupSim can be download from: <http://compbio.cs.princeton.edu/specificity/>.

2.7.2 SPEER-SERVER

SPEER is an ensemble approach for specificity prediction by analyzing quantitative measures of the conservation patterns of protein sites based on their physico-chemical properties and the heterogeneity of evolutionary changes between and within the protein subfamilies [CBP07].

The first component of SPEER, **PC property distance** calculates the weighted Euclidean distance between the vectors of physico-chemical properties of any two positions in the MSA. The average variability in a given subfamily column is calculated by summing the Euclidian distances for all residue pairs within the subfamily and normalizing by the average Euclidian distance of all residue pairs in the column of the overall family. The ED score is positive and low values correspond to the situation where amino acid properties are very well conserved within the subfamilies and non-conserved between them. The second component is the **Evolutionary rate (ER)** of the site as computed by the maximum-likelihood method implemented in the rate4site [PBM⁺02] program. A low average ER value indicates a strongly conserved site in subfamilies. The last component, **relative entropy**, is used to quantitatively distinguish the amino acid-type distributions of two protein subfamilies by calculating relative entropy for each pair within one subfamily, and gets the combined relative entropy (CRE). A large CRE value corresponds to large differences between amino acid distributions within the subfamily.

This experiment used the weights of 1.0, 1.0 and 1.0 as default for the parameters **relative entropy**, **PC property distance** and **ER**, respectively.

Speer Server can be download from: <http://www.hpppi.iicb.res.in/ss/download.html>.

2.7.3 TCS

The TCS (transitive consistency score) [CDTN14] is an alignment evaluation score that makes it possible to identify in an MSA the most correct positions. It uses a consistency transformation to assign a reliability index to every pair of aligned residues, to each individual residue in the alignment, to each column, and to the overall alignment. This scoring scheme has been shown to be highly informative with respect to structural predictions based on benchmarking databases. The reliability index ranges from 0 to 9, where 0 is extremely uncertain and 9 is extremely reliable. Columns with a reliability index less than 4 are removed.

TCS can be download from: <http://www.tcoffee.org/Projects/tcs/>.

2.7.4 Xdet

The idea behind Xdet [PRV06] is that, in the specificity sites, a sharp amino acid change between two proteins would be related with a high functional difference between these proteins, and the other way around. Xdet implements two methods for detecting residues responsible for functional specificity in multiple sequence alignments. The first method is the mutational behaviour (MB) method, and the second one is an upgraded version of the MB-method, which uses an external arbitrary functional classification instead of relying on the one implicit in the alignment. This kind of site, representing a family-dependent (or function-dependent) conservation pattern, complements the fully-conserved positions as predictors of functionality.

For each position in the alignment, Xdet construct a matrix to calculate the amino acid changes for all pairs of proteins is constructed based on a substitution matrix. In this matrix, a given entry represents the similarity between the residues of two proteins at that position. The second method, starts by constructing an equivalent matrix from an external explicit functional classification where each entry represents the functional similarity between the corresponding proteins. These two matrices are compared with a Spearman rank-order correlation coefficient

$$r_k = \frac{\sum_{pq} (A_{ijk'} - \bar{A}') (F_{ij}' - \bar{F}')}{\sqrt{\sum_{ij} (A_{ijk'} - \bar{A}')^2} \sqrt{\sum_{ij} (F_{ij}' - \bar{F}')^2}} \quad (3)$$

where r_k is the score for position k , A_{ijk} is the similarity between the amino acids of proteins i and j at position k , and F_{ij} is the functional similarity between proteins i and j . Positions with high r_k values are the ones for which similarities between amino acids are correlated with the functional similarities between the corresponding proteins, and hence are predicted as the ones related with functional specificity [PRV06].

Xdet can be download from: <http://pdg.cnb.uam.es/pazos/Xdet/>.

2.8 HMMER for Profile Hidden Markov Model

HMMER [FCE11] is a free and commonly used software package used for searching sequence databases for sequence homologs, and for making sequence alignments. It implements methods using probabilistic models called profile hidden Markov models. There are patterns of site-specific evolutionary conservation when aligning multiple sequence of a homologous family of protein domains. These conserved sites correspond to functional sites. The non-conserved sites are assumed to be non-specific feature sites. Therefore, There are different probability distribution sites over 20 amino acids, which measures the likelihood of each amino acid occurring at that site in the protein family. Multiple sequence alignments can then be modeled by capturing a probabilistic model of the shared nature of multiple sequence alignments [KBM⁺94].

HMMER uses `hmmbuild` to build a profile HMM using a multiple sequence alignment or single sequence as input. A profile is a position-specific scoring model that describes which symbols are likely to be observed and how frequently insertions/deletions occur at each position (column) of a multiple sequence alignment. The hidden state is one of the insert state, delete state and match state, while the observation layer consists of sequence letters. The transition probability and emission probability are calculated from the given multiple sequence alignment of the protein sequences, and a profile HMM for a protein family is built. Afterwards, the software uses `hmmsearch`, which scans a single protein sequence against a database of profile HMMs.

The program parameters used are: e-value: 0.1.

HMMER can be run download from: <http://hmmmer.org/download.html>.

Chapter 3

Classifier Construction

Existing tools that predict the substrate that is transported lag behind tools for annotation of other kinds of proteins such as enzymes. Most tools predict the type of substrates [SCH10, COLG11, SH12, BH13, MCZ14], chosen from a small subset of substrate types, or predict the family or subfamily [GY08, LBUZ09, OCG10, BH13] for the protein within the Transporter Classification (TC) [SJRT⁺16]. None attempt to predict the specific substrate. The state-of-the-art tool for *de novo* prediction of substrate class was TrSSP [MCZ14], as benchmarked on their dataset with seven substrate classes, which has become a standard benchmark in the literature.

3.1 Materials

3.1.1 Datasets

The first dataset of TrSSP is based on the Swiss-Prot database (release 2013-03). It is a standard benchmark in the literature. It is available at <http://bioinfo.noble.org/TrSSP>. The dataset contains 900 sequences of seven substrate classes: *amino acid*, *anion*, *cation*, *electron*, *protein/mRNA*, *sugar*, and *other*, divided into the training set of size 780 and the test set of size 120 (see Table 2).

An updated second dataset was collected from Swiss-Prot database of June 2018 and carefully assigned to eleven substrate classes [AB19]. The dataset has 1524 sequences which

Table 2: Dataset One

Substrate Class	Training	Test	Total
Amino Acid	70	15	85
Anion	60	12	72
Cation	260	36	296
Electron	60	10	70
Protein/mRNA	70	15	85
Sugar	60	12	72
Other	200	20	220
Total	780	120	900

The table shows Dataset One [MCZ14] with its seven classes and the number of sequences in the training set and test set for each class.

are randomly divided into a training set of size 1376 and a test set of size 148 as is shown in Table 3. It is available at <https://tootsuite.encs.concordia.ca/datasets>.

Table 3: Dataset Two

Substrate Class	Training	Test	Total
Nonselective	24	2	26
Water	24	2	26
Inorganic Cations	541	60	601
Inorganic anions	92	10	102
Organic anions	97	10	107
Organo-oxygens	157	17	174
Amino acids and derivatives	142	15	157
Other organonitrogens	144	16	160
Nucleotides	22	2	24
Organo heterocyclics	34	3	37
Miscellaneous	99	11	110
Total	1376	148	1524

The table shows Dataset Two [AB19] with its eleven classes and the number of sequences in the training set and test set for each class.

3.1.2 Database

The database used for searching for similar sequences using BLAST is *Swiss-Prot* database. The *Swiss-Prot* database is also used by TM-Coffee to guide the construction of alignments. Hence, to maintain the independence between training and testing, we remove all the test

sequences in the datasets from the databases used by BLAST and TM-Coffee.

3.2 Methods

For the training stage, we build a pipeline which combines different stages of data processing and a stage for building the model. The pipeline contains similarity search, multiple sequence alignment, specificity determining site prediction and construction of a profile Hidden Markov Model. Furthermore, the pipeline contains steps for model evaluation. Below are the steps of the training pipeline in order.

3.2.1 Blast

After placing each sequence in a separate file, we run BLAST [AGM⁺90] on each sequence in the training dataset to get similar sequences. For the Blast local database we use the Swiss-Prot by removing all copies of sequences in the test set. For each sequence in the training set, a BLAST search is performed to retrieve a maximum of 120 similar sequences using the following commandline:

```
BLAST blastp -query blast_query_path -db cleaned_swiss_prot_path -evalue
0.001 -outfmt 5 -out des_blast_file -max_target_seqs 120
```

Algorithm 1 BLAST

Input: the training dataset as .fasta file of protein sequences;

Output: up to 121 similar sequences containing each sequence in the training dataset;

- 1: LocalDB \leftarrow Search(Swiss-Prot, removing any copy of sequences in the train and test dataset)
 - 2: **for** each sequence s in training dataset **do**
 - 3: SimilarSeq[s] \leftarrow blastp(DB=LocalDB, query= s , maxseq=120, e-value=0.001)
 - 4: SimilarSeq[s].append(s)
 - 5: **end for**
-

However, three sequences of Dataset One twenty three sequences of the Dataset Two did not have any hits with the database by an e-value of 0.001 or less.

3.2.2 Multiple Sequence Alignment

We adopted the MSA-SDS approach which finds specificity determining sites with the evolutionary information available from the MSA. This process is done by retrieving homologous sequences of each protein sequence in the dataset and then building an MSA for the set of similar proteins. The MSA methods used for this experiment are Clustalw [THG94], MAFFT [KMKM02], MUSCLE [Edg04], TM-Coffee [FTC⁺16], AQUA [MCT⁺09], ClustalOmega [SWD⁺11], and T-Coffee [NHH00] and the specific commandlines calls are as follows:

AQUA

```
AQUA.tcl input_path output_path
```

ClustalOmega

```
clustalo -infile=input_path -outfile=output_path -output=fasta
```

ClustalW

```
clustalw -infile=input_path -outfile=output_path -output=fasta
```

MAFFT

```
mafft input_path > output_path
```

MUSCLE

```
muscle -in input_path -out output_path
```

T-Coffee

```
t_coffee -infile input_path -outfile output_path -output fasta_aln}
```

TM-Coffee

```
t_coffee tm_coffee_input_path -outfile tm_coffee_output_path -output fasta  
-mode psicoffee -blast_server LOCAL -protein_db cleaned_swiss_prot_path
```

3.2.3 Specificity Determining Sites

We filter an MSA to focus on important positions in the sequences. The SDS methods determine the important positions. We filter the alignment by changing all entries in the columns of non-SDS positions to '-', and other entries are unchanged. The SDS methods

used are Speer Server [CML⁺12], GroupSim [CS08], Xdet [PRV06], and TCS [CDTN14].

For Speer Server and GroupSim we run Secator [WPTP01] to separate the aligned sequences into subgroups based on a hierarchical clustering method. This is required as these SDS methods are based on the differences between subgroups. If Secator only returns one subgroup, then these SDS methods are bypassed for that training sequence.

Algorithm 2 SpeerServer

Input: MSA in .fasta file;
Output: SDS of the input sequences in .fasta file;

```
1: //finding the subfamilies
2: subfamilies  $\leftarrow$  secator(input=MSA, clustering_method=hierarchy)
3: //prepare the input based on subfamilies in .fasta file, save the size of each subfamily
4: size=[ ]
5: for each subfamily g in subfamilies do
6:   for each sequence s in subfamily g do
7:     fMA.append(s)
8:   end for
9:   size.append(size(g))
10: end for
11: // Check the number of subfamilies
12: if length of size >1 then
13:   SDS  $\leftarrow$  SPEER(input=fMA,sizes=size)
14: end if
15: for each position  $p$  not in SDS do
16:    $fMA[r, p] \leftarrow \text{'-'}$ , for each row  $r$  of alignment
17: end for
```

The command line of Secator is the following:

```
secator input_secator -dt=alignment -cm=hierar output
```

The commandline calls for the SDS methods are as follows:

GroupSim

```
python groupsim.py -n -m matrix_path -w 1 -o output_path
input_path sequences_in_group1 ... sequences_in_groupN
```

SpeerServer

```
SPEER -wRE 1 -wEDist 1 -wERate 1 -i input_path -o output_path
number_of_sequences_in_group1 ... number_of_sequences_in_groupN
```

Algorithm 3 GroupSim

Input: MSA in .fasta file;

Output: SDS of the input sequences in .fasta file;

```
1: //finding the subfamilies
2: subfamilies  $\leftarrow$  secator(input=MSA, clustering_method=hierarchy)
3: //prepare the input based on subfamilies in .clustal file
4: for each subfamily  $g$  in subfamilies do
5:   for each sequence  $s$  in subfamily  $g$  do
6:     fMA.append( $s$ )
7:   end for
8: end for
9: if length of size  $>1$  then
10:  SDS  $\leftarrow$  groupsim(input=fMA)
11: end if
12: for each position  $p$  not in SDS do
13:    $fMA[r,p] \leftarrow '-'$ , for each row  $r$  of alignment
14: end for
```

TCS

```
t_coffee -infile MSA_output -outfile tcs_output -evaluate -output tcs_column_filter4.fasta
```

Xdet

```
xdet input_path matrix_path > output_path -S 10
```

3.2.4 Hidden Markov Model

HMMER [FCE11] is a tool that constructs and utilises the profile Hidden Markov Models for the classification. We use *hmmbuild* to build a profile HMM from a multiple sequence alignment, or single sequence as input; we use *hmmcompress* to compress the profiles for use in *hmmsearch*; and we use *hmmsearch* to scan (and score) each test sequence against each profile.

Train classifier

Training is done by building a HMM profile with *hmmbuild* from the filtered MSA. The commandline call is as follows:

```
hmmbuild output_path input_path
```

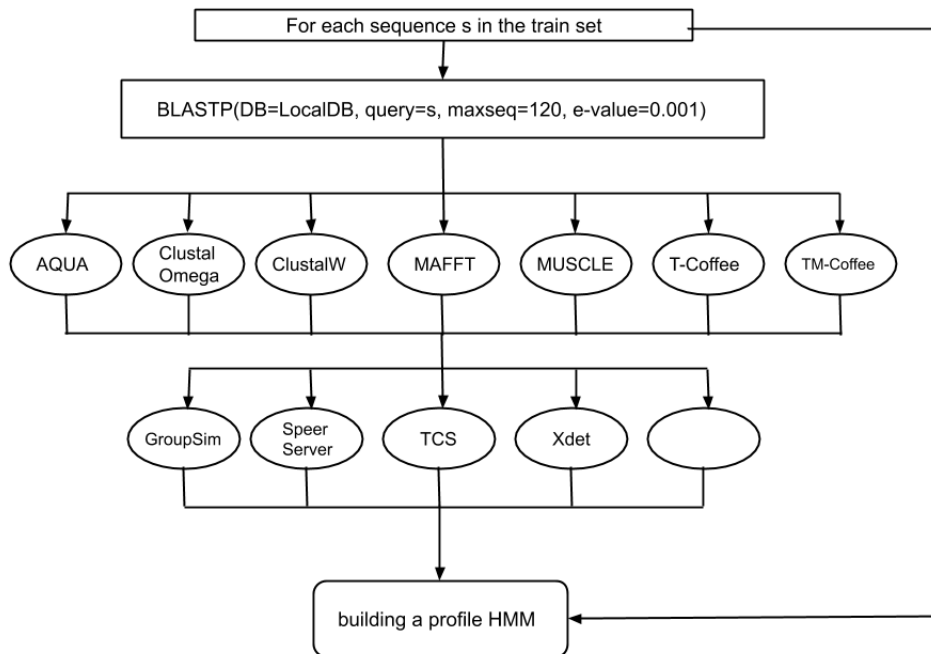


Figure 7: Training Steps

The figure shows the training steps of the pipeline. Note that each profile HMM can be built on the output of BLAST or the output of an MSA. These methods have their own processors; e.g. GroupSim contains running secator, preparing the GroupSim input, running GroupSim software and filtering out the unimportant columns of the MSA.

Classification

Classification is done by scoring each sequence of the test data against each HMM profile using *hmmScan*, and then selecting the class that corresponds to the profile with the best score. The commandline call is as follows:

```
hmmScan -o result_path -E 0.1 hmm_path query_path
```

3.2.5 Evaluation

Four statistical measures are used to measure the performance: Sensitivity, specificity, accuracy and Matthews correlation coefficient (MCC). For computing sensitivity, specificity, macro accuracy, macro MCC and overall MCC we disregard the unclassified sequences, but

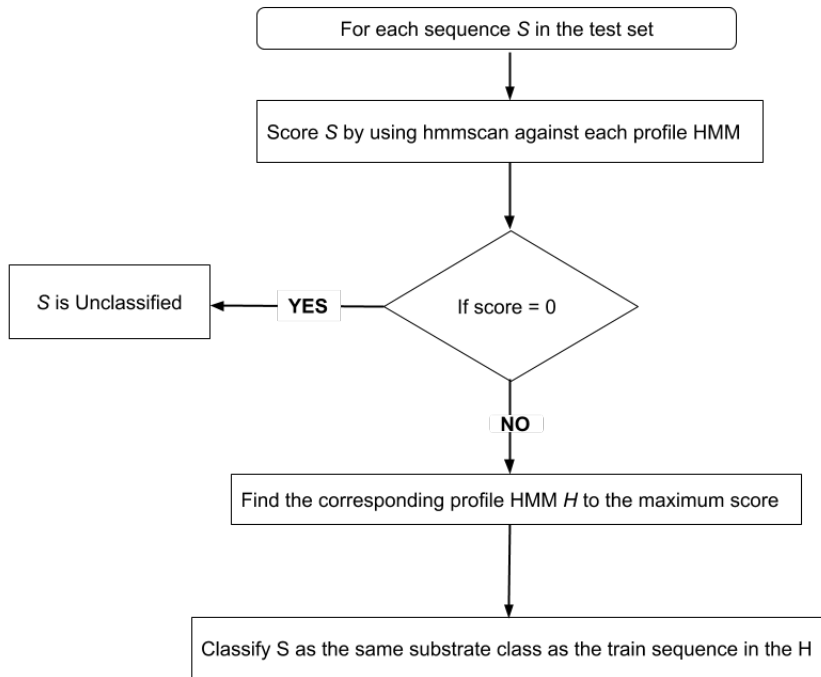


Figure 8: Classification Steps

The figure shows the classification steps of the pipeline. Note that each sequence in the test set is scored by running *hmmscan* against each profile HMM in the training set. *Unclassified* is defined as the test sequence that *hmmscan* outputs score 0 for all of the profile HMMs in the training set.

for calculating overall accuracy we take into the account of unclassified sequences.

sensitivity is the proportion of positive samples that are correctly identified:

$$Sensitivity = \frac{TP}{TP + FN} \quad (4)$$

In this measure we disregard the unclassified sequences. However, another option is to count the unclassified as *FN* which would lower the current measurement. For calculating the *Sensitivity* of each class *k*, we define *TP* or true positives as the sequences that were both belonged and predicted for class *k* and *FN* are sequences that are supposed to be in class *k* but the predictor did not predict them as class *k*.

specificity is the proportion of negative samples that are correctly identified:

$$Specificity = \frac{TN}{TN + FP} \quad (5)$$

Where TN is true negative which is the sequences that neither belong to class k nor was predicted as class k and FP as false positives that are the sequences that did not belong to class k but was predicted to be in class k .

accuracy is the proportion of correct classifications made amongst all the classifications:

$$Accuracy = \frac{TP + TN}{TP + FN + TN + FP} \quad (6)$$

Which in our case can be extended to :

$$Accuracy = \frac{TP + TN}{TP + FN + TN + FP + Un} \quad (7)$$

Where Un is the number of unclassified sequences and can be grouped into FP . Since the above equations are for binary classification, we use Equation 6 for calculating the accuracy of each class k , where TP are the true prediction for class k , TN are the sequences that neither belong to class k nor was predicted as class k , FP are sequences that did not belong to class k but was predicted to be in class k and FN are sequences that are supposed to be in class k but the predictor did not predict them as class k .

Matthews correlation coefficient (MCC) is a single measure taking into account true and false positives and negatives, and returns a value in the range from 1 to -1, where 1 indicates a perfect prediction, 0 represents prediction no better than random, and -1 implies total disagreement between the prediction and observation. Since MCC is less influenced by the imbalanced tests, we use it as the best single assessment metric:

$$MCC = \frac{(TP \times TN - FP \times FN)}{\sqrt{(TP + FP) \times (TP + FN) \times (TN + FP) \times (TN + FN)}} \quad (8)$$

where TP is the number of true positives, TN is the number of true negatives, FP is the

number of false positives, and FN is the number of false negatives. This formula however is for binary classification as well. As a result, for calculating the MCC of each class k we used the above formula where TP are the true prediction for class k , TN are the sequences that neither belong to class k nor was predicted as class k , FP are sequences that did not belong to class k but was predicted to be in class k and FN are sequences that are supposed to be in class k but the predictor did not predict them as class k . Another alternative to this calculation is to count the unclassified sequences as the false negative which in that case MCC score becomes smaller.

Since we are dealing with multiclass classification, a single aggregate measure that reflects the overall performance is needed. There are two methods to compute the overall performance, namely micro-averaging and macro-averaging. Macro-averaging computes a simple average performance of individual classes' performances. Whereas Micro-averaging computes an overall performance by globally counting the total true positives, false negatives and false positives. These methods can differ based on the class distribution. Macro-averaging is an unweighted average of each class, while micro-averaging gives equal weight to each individual classification decision. The overall accuracy of the tool is often calculated as the fraction of the correct predictions by the total number of predictions:

$$Accuracy_{Micro} = \sum_k^K \frac{TP_k}{N} \quad (9)$$

This measurement uses the number of Unclassifieds in N since N is the total number of sequences; $N=TP + FN + TN + FP + Un$. Also the macro-average accuracy is:

$$Accuracy_{Macro} = \frac{1}{K} \times \sum_k^K Accuracy_k \quad (10)$$

where TP_k is the number of true positives in class k , $Accuracy_k$ is the accuracy of class k , K is the number of different classes (7 and 11 for the respective datasets). It is worth mentioning that for calculating the accuracy of each class, $Accuracy_k$, we use Equation 6.

On the other hand, the overall MCC is calculated in terms of a $K \times K$ confusion matrix

C [Gor04]:

$$MCC_{overall} = \frac{\sum_k \sum_l \sum_m C_{kk} C_{lm} - C_{kl} C_{mk}}{\sqrt{\sum_k (\sum_l C_{kl}) (\sum_{k' | k' \neq k} \sum_{l'} C_{k'l'})} \sqrt{\sum_k (\sum_l C_{lk}) (\sum_{k' | k' \neq k} \sum_{l'} C_{l'k'})}} \quad (11)$$

Since this formula is based on a $K \times K$ confusion matrix, we disregard the unclassified sequences. The macro-average MCC is computed as:

$$MCC_{macro} = \frac{1}{K} \sum_{k=1}^K MCC_k \quad (12)$$

where MCC_k is the MCC of class k , and K is the number of different classes. Since the number of sequences in each class of the dataset is imbalanced, we used the overall accuracy as in Equation 9 and the overall MCC as in Equation 11 to evaluate and compare the different methods.

3.2.6 Experiment

In this experiment, we are trying to analyze the impact of different MSA and SDS tools. For both of the datasets, we consider each combination of MSA tool and SDS tool to determine the best combination. We also determine the impact of each MSA with or without using the SDS tools by including the baselines for each MSA tool. Furthermore, we include one primary baseline that does not use any MSA tool nor any SDS tool and simply builds a profile HMM from the (unaligned) set of similar sequences returned by the BLAST for each sequence. Figure 9 presents the steps of the pipeline before being fed to profile HMM.

3.3 Results

3.3.1 Comparative Performance

Table 4a shows the comparative performance of the 36 combinations of methods using Dataset One. They are sorted from low to high by overall MCC. The highest MCC was achieved by the primary baseline. Table 5a shows the comparative performance of the 36



Figure 9: Example of steps of the Clustal Omega-TCS combination

Steps of the Clustal Omega-TCS combination. Part(a) shows a part of the original sequence. Part(b) shows the BLAST hits. Part(c) shows an MSA constructed by Clustal Omega. Part(d) demonstrates the steps of TCS, at first it evaluates each MSA position, then it filters out the positions that have less quality than the average.

combinations of methods using Dataset Two. They are sorted from low to high by overall MCC. The highest MCC was also achieved by the primary baseline as well.

3.3.2 Detailed Performance

We have defined TportHMM as the primary baseline where the profile HMM is built from a single sequence in the training set. This gives the best MCC in Table 4a and Table 5a. The detailed performance of the TportHMM on Dataset One and its confusion matrix are presented in Table 6 and Table 7 respectively, while Table 8 and Table 9 show its detailed performance and confusion matrix on Dataset Two.

Table 4a: Comparative Performance on Dataset One

MSA	SDS	Micro Accuracy	Macro Accuracy	Overall MCC
T-Coffee	TCS	0.033	0.846	-0.087
T-Coffee	SpeerServer	0.233	0.840	0.212
T-Coffee	GroupSim	0.250	0.846	0.259
ClustalOmega	SpeerServer	0.308	0.849	0.326
ClustalOmega	GroupSim	0.342	0.851	0.331
ClustalW	GroupSim	0.342	0.851	0.343
MUSCLE	GroupSim	0.367	0.855	0.365
TM-Coffee	GroupSim	0.367	0.857	0.380
ClustalW	SpeerServer	0.325	0.858	0.393
AQUA	GroupSim	0.392	0.863	0.415
AQUA	SpeerServer	0.375	0.863	0.426
TM-Coffee	SpeerServer	0.375	0.864	0.437
MAFFT	GroupSim	0.400	0.867	0.435
MUSCLE	SpeerServer	0.400	0.867	0.444
MAFFT	SpeerServer	0.400	0.875	0.489
ClustalOmega	Xdet	0.475	0.881	0.506
TM-Coffee	Xdet	0.608	0.914	0.686
T-Coffee	Xdet	0.542	0.912	0.716
T-Coffee	-	0.567	0.913	0.702
TM-Coffee	-	0.650	0.923	0.721
MAFFT	Xdet	0.642	0.925	0.745
ClustalOmega	TCS	0.658	0.927	0.752
AQUA	Xdet	0.658	0.929	0.761
ClustalW	-	0.675	0.931	0.767
MUSCLE	-	0.675	0.931	0.767
ClustalOmega	-	0.683	0.932	0.768
MAFFT	-	0.683	0.932	0.769
MUSCLE	Xdet	0.658	0.930	0.770
TM-Coffee	TCS	0.675	0.932	0.777
AQUA	-	0.683	0.933	0.780
ClustalW	Xdet	0.658	0.932	0.783
ClustalW	TCS	0.667	0.933	0.785
MAFFT	TCS	0.675	0.933	0.787
AQUA	TCS	0.683	0.936	0.799
MUSCLE	TCS	0.692	0.937	0.802
-	-	0.650	0.933	0.812

The table compares performance of each combination on the 120 sequences of the test set of Dataset One. For each combination the table shows overall accuracy, Macro accuracy, and Overall MCC. They are ranked by their Overall MCC.

Table 4b: Detailed Comparative Performance on Dataset One

MSA	SDS	Correct Classifications	Misclassifieds	Unclassified
T-Coffee	TCS	4	13	103
T-Coffee	SpeerServer	28	46	46
T-Coffee	GroupSim	30	41	49
ClustalOmega	SpeerServer	37	42	41
ClustalOmega	GroupSim	41	46	33
ClustalW	GroupSim	41	46	33
MUSCLE	GroupSim	44	46	30
TM-Coffee	GroupSim	44	44	32
ClustalW	SpeerServer	39	36	45
AQUA	GroupSim	47	42	31
AQUA	SpeerServer	45	38	37
TM-Coffee	SpeerServer	45	37	38
MAFFT	GroupSim	48	40	32
MUSCLE	SpeerServer	48	38	34
MAFFT	SpeerServer	48	33	39
ClustalOmega	Xdet	57	39	24
TM-Coffee	Xdet	73	25	22
T-Coffee	Xdet	65	19	36
T-Coffee	-	68	21	31
TM-Coffee	-	78	23	19
MAFFT	Xdet	77	20	23
ClustalOmega	TCS	79	20	21
AQUA	Xdet	79	19	22
ClustalW	-	81	19	20
MUSCLE	-	81	19	20
ClustalOmega	-	82	19	19
MAFFT	-	82	19	19
MUSCLE	Xdet	79	18	23
TM-Coffee	TCS	81	18	21
AQUA	-	82	18	20
ClustalW	Xdet	79	18	23
ClustalW	TCS	80	18	22
MAFFT	TCS	81	17	22
AQUA	TCS	82	16	22
MUSCLE	TCS	83	16	21
-	-	78	14	28

The table compares the detailed performance of each combination on the 120 sequences of the test set of Dataset One. For each combination the table shows number of sequences correctly classified, number of sequences that were missclassified, and the number of unclassified sequences. They are ranked by their Overall MCC.

Table 5a: Comparative Performance on Dataset Two

MSA	SDS	Micro Accuracy	Macro Accuracy	Overall MCC
T-Coffee	TCS	0.135	0.980	-0.086
T-Coffee	GroupSim	0.277	0.908	0.096
T-Coffee	SpeerServer	0.291	0.913	0.157
ClustalOmega	GroupSim	0.365	0.912	0.190
TM-Coffee	GroupSim	0.365	0.913	0.201
MUSCLE	SpeerServer	0.338	0.913	0.209
AQUA	SpeerServer	0.338	0.913	0.216
ClustalW	GroupSim	0.378	0.913	0.224
TM-Coffee	SpeerServer	0.351	0.913	0.227
AQUA	GroupSim	0.372	0.912	0.228
MUSCLE	GroupSim	0.378	0.915	0.231
MAFFT	SpeerServer	0.338	0.912	0.232
ClustalW	SpeerServer	0.358	0.919	0.243
MAFFT	GroupSim	0.372	0.909	0.244
ClustalOmega	Xdet	0.466	0.916	0.364
ClustalOmega	SpeerServer	0.372	0.923	0.268
TM-Coffee	Xdet	0.507	0.923	0.418
ClustalW	-	0.554	0.931	0.481
AQUA	Xdet	0.541	0.931	0.482
ClustalW	Xdet	0.554	0.932	0.488
MAFFT	Xdet	0.568	0.934	0.502
ClustalW	TCS	0.568	0.936	0.509
AQUA	-	0.574	0.936	0.513
AQUA	TCS	0.581	0.939	0.533
TM-Coffee	TCS	0.588	0.940	0.542
T-Coffee	Xdet	0.534	0.947	0.555
MUSCLE	TCS	0.601	0.942	0.556
MAFFT	TCS	0.601	0.942	0.558
T-Coffee	-	0.574	0.948	0.572
ClustalOmega	-	0.628	0.946	0.587
TM-Coffee	-	0.635	0.946	0.592
MAFFT	-	0.642	0.946	0.593
MUSCLE	-	0.635	0.947	0.596
MUSCLE	Xdet	0.635	0.947	0.599
ClustalOmega	TCS	0.662	0.953	0.640
-	-	0.770	0.973	0.791

The table compares performance of each combination on the 148 sequences of the test set of Dataset Two. For each combination the table shows overall accuracy, Macro accuracy, and Overall MCC. They are ranked by their MCC.

Table 5b: Detailed Comparative Performance on Dataset Two

MSA	SDS	Correct Classifications	Misclassifieds	Unclassified
T-Coffee	TCS	20	16	112
T-Coffee	GroupSim	41	75	32
T-Coffee	SpeerServer	43	71	34
ClustalOmega	GroupSim	54	72	22
TM-Coffee	GroupSim	54	71	23
MUSCLE	SpeerServer	50	71	27
AQUA	SpeerServer	50	71	27
ClustalW	GroupSim	56	71	21
TM-Coffee	SpeerServer	52	71	25
AQUA	GroupSim	55	72	21
MUSCLE	GroupSim	56	69	23
MAFFT	SpeerServer	50	72	26
ClustalW	SpeerServer	53	66	29
MAFFT	GroupSim	55	74	19
ClustalOmega	Xdet	69	68	11
ClustalOmega	SpeerServer	55	63	30
TM-Coffee	Xdet	75	63	10
ClustalW	-	82	56	10
AQUA	Xdet	80	56	12
ClustalW	Xdet	82	55	11
MAFFT	Xdet	84	54	10
ClustalW	TCS	84	52	12
AQUA	-	85	52	11
AQUA	TCS	86	50	12
TM-Coffee	TCS	87	49	12
T-Coffee	Xdet	79	43	26
MUSCLE	TCS	89	47	12
MAFFT	TCS	89	47	12
T-Coffee	-	85	42	21
ClustalOmega	-	93	44	11
TM-Coffee	-	94	44	10
MAFFT	-	95	44	9
MUSCLE	-	94	43	11
MUSCLE	Xdet	94	43	11
ClustalOmega	TCS	98	38	12
-	-	114	22	12

The table compares performance of each combination on the 148 sequences of the test set of Dataset Two. For each combination the table shows number of sequences correctly classified, number of sequences that were misclassified, and the number of unclassified sequences They are ranked by their MCC.

Table 6: Performance of *TportHMM* on Dataset One

Class	Sensitivity	Specificity	Accuracy	MCC	Unclassified
AminoAcid	0.73	0.99	0.96	0.80	0.07
Anion	0.50	0.96	0.92	0.50	0.08
Cation	0.81	0.98	0.93	0.82	0.19
Electron	0.40	1.00	0.95	0.62	0.60
Protein	0.47	1.00	0.93	0.66	0.53
Sugar	0.75	0.97	0.95	0.72	0.17
Other	0.65	0.98	0.93	0.71	0.23
Overall			0.65	0.81	0.23
Macro-Average			0.93	0.71	0.23

The table shows performance by class of the *TportHMM* on the 120 sequences of the test set of Dataset One. The column *Unclassified* represents the proportion of sequences that had no match to any profile HMM.

3.3.3 Parameters

For BLAST, we used the e-value 0.001 and 120 as the maximum number of hits. Speer Server uses three parameters: *evolutionary rate* (wERate), *relative entropy* (wRE) and *evolutionary distance* (wDist) which are all set to the default value. There are two parameters in GroupSim: the substitution matrix, and the conservation window size. The substitution matrix used is Blosum60 and the window size used is 1. Xdet uses two parameters: the substitution matrix, and the number of random alignments. The random alignments are used to determine the p-value and z-score for correlation. We use *Maxhom_McLachlan* and 10 as the substitution matrix and the number of random alignments respectively. Afterwards, we filter out the columns that have either correlation value of -1 or entropy of -1. *hmmscan* uses the e-value of 0.01.

3.3.4 Number of Sequences returned from BLAST

Table 10 shows the number of sequences returned by BLAST in the Dataset One and the Dataset Two. Table 11 and Table 12 shows the sequences which returning zero BLAST hits in the second training set respectively.

Table 7: Confusion Matrix for *TportHMM* on Dataset One

Actual \ classified	Amino Acid	Anion	Cation	Electron	Protein	Sugar	Other	Unc.
AminoAcid	11	0	1	0	0	1	1	1
Anion	1	6	1	0	0	1	2	1
Cation	0	0	29	0	0	0	0	7
Electron	0	0	0	4	0	0	0	6
Protein	0	0	0	0	7	0	0	8
Sugar	0	0	0	0	0	9	1	2
Other	0	4	0	0	0	1	12	3

The table shows the confusion matrix of the *TportHMM* on the 120 sequences of the test set of Dataset One. The column *Unc.* represents the number of sequences that had no match to any profile HMM.

3.3.5 Number of Subfamilies in each MSA

Table 13 shows the number of subfamilies in each MSA file from MAFFT alignment. Nearly 20% of the first training dataset and 24% of the second training dataset have only one families, therefore they are disregarded for SpeerServer and GroupSim.

3.4 Discussion

We are guided by the performance on both datasets to define *TportHMM* as the primary baseline where the profile HMM is built from a single sequence in the training set. This gives the best overall MCC in Table 4a and Table 5a, hence better performance than the state-of-the-art on Dataset One.

For Dataset One, Table 4a shows the performance for the combination of MSA and SDS tools. The best performing combination is MUSCLE-TCS with an accuracy of 93.7% and overall MCC of 0.802. The primary baseline without any MSA or SDS method has accuracy of 93.3% and overall MCC of 0.812.

For Dataset Two, Table 5a shows the performance of the combinations of MSA and SDS tools. The best performing combination is ClustalOmega-TCS with an accuracy of 95.3% and MCC of 0.640. The primary baseline without any MSA or SDS method has accuracy of 97.3% and MCC of 0.791.

Table 8: Performance of *TportHMM* on Dataset Two

Class	Sensitivity	Specificity	Accuracy	MCC	Unc.
Nonselective	0.50	0.99	0.98	0.40	0.00
Water	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.00
Inorganic Cations	0.95	0.96	0.95	0.90	0.05
Inorganic anions	0.78	0.99	0.97	0.76	0.11
Organic anions	0.80	0.99	0.97	0.79	0.00
Organo-oxygens	0.76	0.97	0.95	0.73	0.00
Amino acids etc	0.92	0.99	0.98	0.87	0.25
Other organonitrogens	0.57	0.98	0.94	0.61	0.14
Nucleotides	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.00
Organo heterocyclics	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.00
Miscellaneous	0.63	0.98	0.97	0.60	0.38
Overall			0.77	0.79	0.09
Macro-Average			0.97	0.82	0.09

The table shows performance by class of the *TportHMM* on the 148 sequences of the test set of Dataset Two. The column *Unc.* represents the number of sequences that had no match to any profile HMM.

The impact of the SDS methods when compared to the MSA-baselines without any SDS method is generally weak or negative. This is contrary to the impact seen with SVM classifiers in our previous work [AAB20].

Even the relatively good performance of the primary baseline is surprising, as it indicates a negative impact from using MSA methods.

We expected combinations with TM-Coffee to outperform the other MSA tools, because TM-Coffee is specifically designed to produce alignments consistent with the transmembrane segments, but this was not the case.

3.4.1 Comparison with State of the Art

Table 3.4.1 and Figure 10 compares the performance of *TportHMM* to the state-of-the-art *TrSSP* [MCZ14] and *TranCEP* [AAB20] on the independent test set of size 120 from Dataset One. Table 3.4.1 and Figure 11 compares the performance of *TportHMM* to *TrSSP* and *TranCEP* [Alb20]. on the independent test set of size 148 from Dataset Two.

Table 9: Confusion Matrix of *TportHMM* on Dataset Two

Actual \ classified	non-selective	Water	Inorganic Cations	Inorganic anions	Organic anions	Organo-oxygens	Amino acids etc	Other organonitrogens	Nucleotides	Organo heterocyclics	Miscellaneous	Unclassified
Nonselective	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Water	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Inorganic Cations	2	0	54	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	3
Inorganic anions	0	0	0	7	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
Organic anions	0	0	0	1	8	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
Organo-oxygens	0	0	1	1	0	13	1	1	0	0	0	0
Amino acids etc	0	0	0	0	0	0	11	0	0	0	1	3
Other organonitrogens	0	0	2	0	0	3	0	8	0	0	1	2
Nucleotides	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
Organo heterocyclics	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	0	0
Miscellaneous	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	2	0	0	5	3

The table shows the confusion matrix of the *TportHMM* on the 148 sequences of the test set of Dataset Two. The column *Unclassified* represents the number of sequences that had no match to any profile HMM.

Table 10: Number of Sequences returned by BLAST

Number of BLAST hits	Number of sequences in the first training dataset	Number of sequences in the second training dataset
111-120	10	23
101-110	25	33
91-100	25	19
81-90	26	53
71-80	21	46
61-70	58	54
51-60	32	85
41-50	30	103
31-40	47	142
21-30	61	121
11-20	80	183
1-10	90	200

Table 11: Sequences which return zero BLAST Hits in Dataset One

Substrate class	Sequence ID
Amino Acid	P46133
Protein/mRNA	P39742
Other	A2RKV5

Table 12: Sequences which return zero BLAST Hits in Dataset Two

Substrate class	Sequence ID
Inorganic Cations	Q12078
	Q6K3T2
	P98161
	O15431
	P69380
	Q03829
	Q18120
	Q9FY75
	P33650
	Q5VT99
P38054	
Inorganic anions	A6YCJ2
	Q9NQ90
Organic anions	P23622
	Q10495
Organo-oxygens	Q9FE59
Other organonitrogens	P69428
	Q8BIJ7
	Q9D1N2
Organo heterocyclics	P39618
	Q9D232
Miscellaneous	O74899
	Q08777

Number of families	Number of MSA in the first training dataset	Number of MSA in the second training dataset
1	149	331
2	145	213
3	132	246
4	126	217
5	103	119
6	52	91
7	33	36
8	19	27
9	17	60
11	0	1
13	0	1
14	0	1
16	0	1
38	0	1
45	0	1
46	0	1

Table 13: The number of families returned by Secator in the Dataset One and Dataset Two

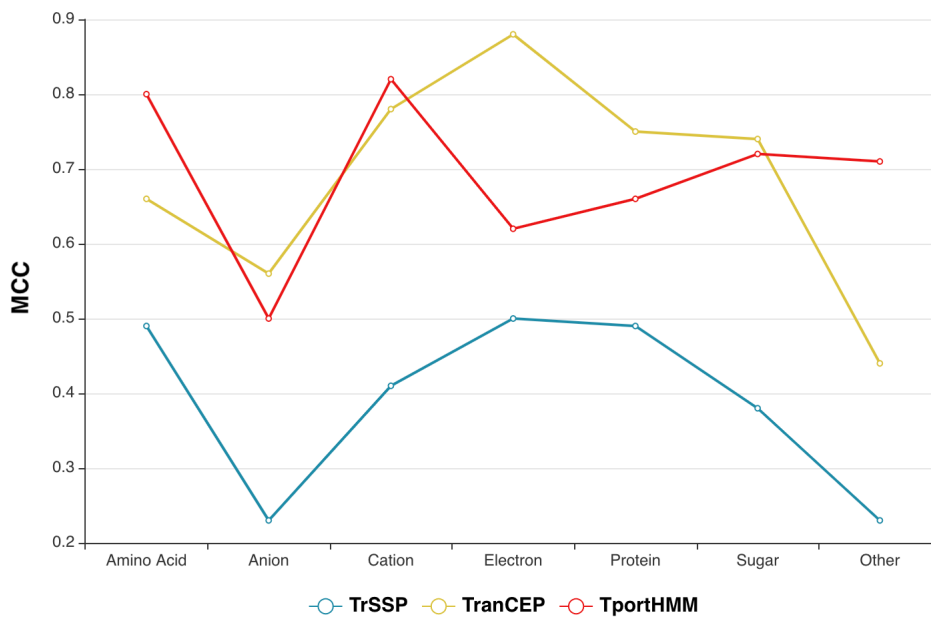


Figure 10: Comparison of *TportHMM* and state-of-the-art on Dataset One

Comparison between *TportHMM* and the state-of-the-art methods (Dataset One).

Class	Specificity		Sensitivity		Accuracy		MCC	
	TrSSP	TranCEP	TrSSP	TranCEP	TrSSP	TranCEP	TrSSP	TranCEP
Amino acid	82.42	96.10	93.33	93.33	83.33	91.75	0.49	0.66
Anion	69.05	96.30	75.00	58.33	69.44	90.82	0.23	0.56
Cation	74.31	89.29	75.00	58.33	74.44	89.00	0.41	0.78
Electron	91.78	100.00	80.00	80.00	91.11	97.80	0.50	0.88
Protein	82.42	99.07	93.33	66.67	83.33	93.68	0.49	0.75
Sugar	76.79	99.07	91.67	66.67	77.78	94.68	0.38	0.74
Other	73.13	86.00	60.00	65.00	71.67	80.91	0.23	0.44
Overall								
Macro-average								
					78.88	91.23	0.41	0.69
					NA	74.17	NA	0.69
								0.81
								0.71

The table presents our data for *TportHMM* built with the training set and run on the test set. The corresponding results for *TrSSP* and *TranCEP* are taken from their original paper. The table shows specificity, sensitivity, accuracy and MCC for each of the seven substrate types; the overall accuracy and MCC and the average accuracy and MCC. We calculated the overall accuracy as proportion of correct predictions divided by the total number of predictions, and the overall MCC from the confusion matrix as in Equation 11. The *TranCEP* results were calculated as both the average and overall, while the *TrSSP* results were calculated only as the average across the seven classes; if we adopt the same methods, we obtain the overall accuracy of 65.00% and overall MCC of 0.81 with the average accuracy is 93.33% and the average MCC is 0.71.

Comparison between *TportHMM* and the state-of-the-art methods (Dataset Two).

Class	Specificity			Sensitivity			Accuracy			MCC		
	TsSP	TranCEP	Tport HMM	TsSP	TranCEP	Tport HMM	TsSP	TranCEP	Tport HMM	TsSP	TranCEP	Tport HMM
C1	100.00	100.00	98.63	0.00	50.00	50.00	98.18	99.22	97.97	0.00	0.70	0.40
C2	99.32	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	99.08	100.00	100.00	0.81	1.00	1.00
C3	80.68	88.64	95.65	91.67	96.67	94.73	83.08	91.37	95.27	0.68	0.83	0.90
C4	98.55	100.00	98.56	60.00	70.00	77.77	94.74	97.69	97.30	0.64	0.83	0.76
C5	98.55	97.83	98.55	80.00	90.00	80.00	96.43	96.95	97.30	0.78	0.81	0.79
C6	96.95	97.71	96.95	64.71	76.47	76.47	91.53	94.78	94.60	0.64	0.76	0.73
C7	97.74	100.00	98.52	73.33	86.67	91.67	93.91	98.45	97.97	0.72	0.92	0.87
C8	94.70	96.21	97.76	56.25	87.50	57.14	88.52	94.78	93.92	0.50	0.77	0.61
C9	99.32	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	99.08	100.00	100.00	0.81	1.00	1.00
C10	98.62	100.00	100.00	33.33	100.00	100.00	96.43	100.00	100.00	0.31	1.00	1.00
C11	99.27	100.00	97.86	27.27	45.45	62.50	92.31	95.49	95.95	0.42	0.66	0.60
Overall												
Macro-average												
							72.97	85.81	77.03	0.65	0.82	0.79
							93.94	97.16	97.30	0.57	0.84	0.82

The table presents our data for *TportHMM* built with the training set and run on the test set. The corresponding results for *TrSSP* and *TranCEP* trained and tested with the same dataset. The table shows specificity, sensitivity, accuracy and MCC for each of the eleven substrate types; the overall accuracy and MCC; and the macroaverage accuracy and MCC. The overall accuracy was calculated as the number of correct predictions divided by the total number of predictions, and the overall MCC was calculated from the confusion matrix.

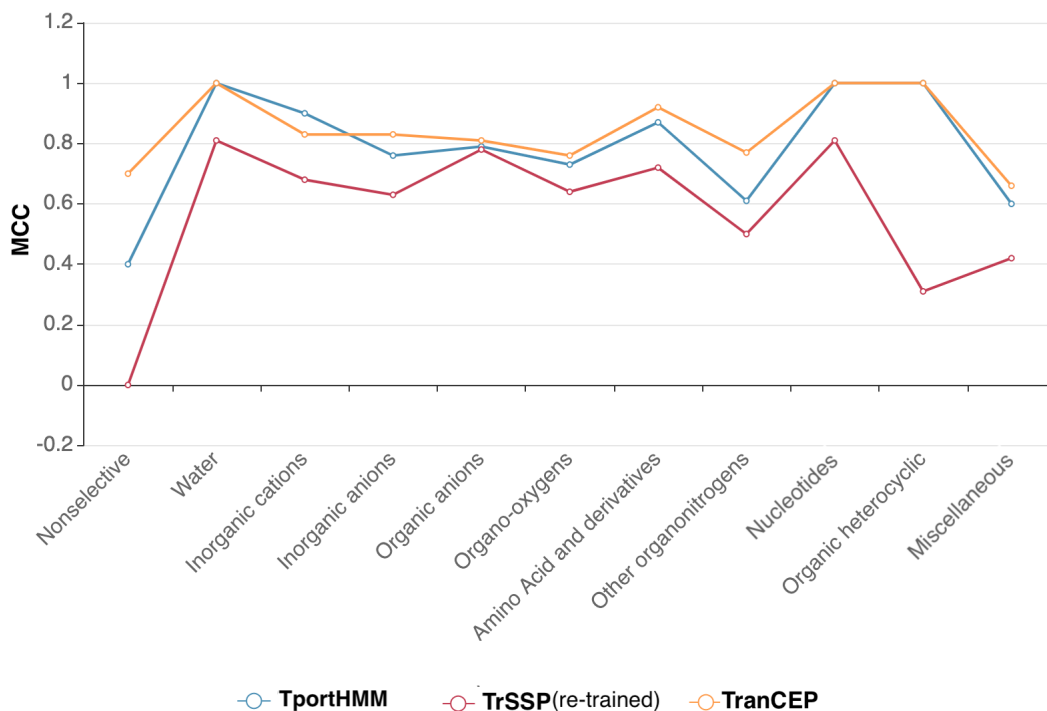


Figure 11: Comparison of *TportHMM* and state-of-the-art on Dataset Two

3.4.2 Unclassified Sequences

There are a number of sequences that were not classified by any combinations in both datasets. Table 15 and Table 14 shows the sequences that were unclassified by most of the sequences. Table 10 shows that roughly 12% of training sequences in Dataset One and 16% of training sequences in Dataset Two have less than the 10 hits used as our threshold, indicating that they have few similar sequences in Swiss-Prot, so perhaps no remote homology to the test sequences.

For the performance of GroupSim and SpeerServer, the low result are perhaps due to the high number of MSAs containing only one subfamily therefore disregarded for Training. This needs further investigation.

Table 14: Unclassified sequences in Dataset One

Amino Acids	Q7TNK0	30
	P60678	34
	P60698	36
Cations	Q99JR1	30
	Q3TMP8	34
	Q9CPC8	32
	P0A8Q0	35
	P09152	36
Electron	P33599	33
	P0AFE0	27
	P09193	36
	P0A616	19
	P40477	32
	Q6URK4	36
	P52870	36
Protein	P33754	36
	P0AG99	35
	P0ABU9	31
	Q7Z412	36
Sugar	P39344	31
	P71067	34
	P0AFF4	21
Other	O49929	36
	P38206	27

This table presents the sequences in the Dataset One that most of the combinations couldn't classify them.

Table 15: Unclassified sequences in Dataset Two

Substrate Class	Uniprot ID	Number of combinations
Inorganic Cations	Q99766	36
	Q3EBY6	33
	P76425	19
	Q15904	36
	P03926	36
Inorganic anions	Q06598	35
Miscellaneous	P69831	35
	Q6X893	11
	Q91X85	16
	Q9DFS4	36
Organo-Oxygens	Q9LF50	32
	P42905	15
Organic anions	Q1EBV7	13
	P37327	20
Amino Acid and derivatives	P0AD99	35
	O60146	17
	P57757	18
	Q10227	16
Other organonitrogens	Q9BZV2	15
	P32839	17
	P69423	18
	Q9NP61	34
	Q96A70	36
Nucleotides	P39719	17

This table presents the sequences in the Dataset Two that most of the combinations couldn't classify them.

Chapter 4

Conclusion

The performance of TrSSP on Dataset One is given in [MCZ14] and compared with TranCEP in [AAB20]. TrSSP and TranCEP achieve an MCC of 0.41 and 0.69 respectively. Their performance on Dataset Two is given in [Alb20, Table 30 page 115] where TrSSP and TranCEP achieve an MCC of 0.65 and 0.82 respectively. Our method TportHMM achieved an MCC of 0.812 and 0.791 on Dataset One and Dataset Two respectively.

Somewhat surprisingly, the results of our work do not show a benefit in using MSA or SDS methods in the construction of the HMM. Moreover, the SDS methods offer little benefit, or even negative benefit when combined with the different MSA methods. This deserves further investigation.

4.1 Limitation of the Work

Although we have analyzed thirty six combinations of seven multiple sequence alignment (MSA) and four different methods for the prediction of specificity determining sites (SDS), there are still a large number of tools for both multiple sequence alignment (MSA) and prediction of specificity determining sites (SDS) and methods that we have not yet tried. There are many MSA tools to be used but we only worked with the most popular ones. However, we used all the SDS tools that we could find the software to install and work on our systems.

Dataset One covers only seven substrate classes. Dataset Two contains examples from eleven substrate classes. The ultimate goal is to predict twenty seven substrate classes because of the literature. When scientists apply the TCDB database to annotate transmembrane transport proteins in a genome, they typically distinguish 27 substrate classes. Hence, our field should develop larger datasets with coverage of more substrate classes.

Classifying the substrate class of a transmembrane transport protein is important, but on many occasions scientists want more detailed information. They would like to know the **specific** substrate, not the **class** of the substrate, that is actually transported. At the moment, we do not have enough examples where the specific substrate is known, in order to attempt the classification of the specific substrate.

4.2 Future Work

The limitations noted in the last section call attention to several areas that we deem worthy of further investigation.

- Extend the dataset in size and in coverage of the substrate classes.
- Apply the pipeline with other classifiers beyond Hidden Markov Models, such as Support Vector Machines.
- Classify the specific substrate (e.g. Lysine) rather than the substrate class (e.g. amino acid), at least for those cases where there is sufficient data available.
- Build the MSAs from the each substrate class rather than on homologous sequences of each sequence in each substrate.
- Understand poor impact of MSA and SDS.
- Build hybrid predictor: best HMM per substrate class.
- Build ensembles from HMM, SVM, and similarity predictors.
- Tuning the parameters for *hmmscan* since the unclassified sequences are the result of *hmmscan* giving score 0.

Appendix A

GitHub

The files related to our work can be found at <https://github.com/shivashamloo/TporthMM>. The list of files are presented in Table A.1.

Files	Discription
main.py	A basic file that just takes input
finalpipeline.py	Our implementation of combination of methods in terms of a pipeline. This file takes the input from main.py and creates several objects for different stages of the experiment.
division.py	divide each sequence in the test and train in a separate file.
making_database.py	This file contains two function; the first one is to remove the sequences of the train and test set from the database, the second one is to build a database compatible with blast using blast.
blastrun.py	This file contains finding homologous sequences, reformatting the output and merging the training input sequences to its correspondance homologous group.

Continued on next page

Table A.1: List of files on GitHub

Table A.1 – continued from previous page

Files	Description
msa.py	This file contains a class called MSA and it has different functions for calculating the MSA based on the input. The output of this file has the following format: MSA_result
sds.py	This file is probably the most complicated one. In addition to the function computing the SDS, it also preprocess the MSA to pass them to SDS tools and filter out the MSAs based on the SDS. The output of this section based on SDS method is SDS_result.
hmm.py	This file contains a part of training and testing. First it builds the profile HMMs with <i>hmmbuild</i> , second it presses them with <i>hmmsearch</i> to be compatible with <i>hmmsearch</i> . And finally it scans each test sequence against the profile HMMs and keeps an score for each search. The training sequence in the profile with the maximum score is considered to be the in the same substrate class as the test sequence. So the prediction is complete.
latex.py	This file only computes some measurements and put them in a latex file and creates a <i>pdf</i> file.
group_sim_sdp.py	a python program of the GroupSim tool downloaded from https://compbio.cs.princeton.edu/specificity/
blosum62.bla	BLOSUM62
metrix	a folder containing BLOSUM45

Appendix B

Dataset One test set

Table B.1: Amino Acid

Uniprot ID	TCDB Family
B0R9X2	2.A.35.1.4 the nhac Na(+):H(+) antiporter (NHAC) family
P38084	2.A.3.10.6 the amino acid-polyamine-organocation (APC) family
P15365	2.A.1.14.4 the major facilitator superfamily (MFS)
P36837	2.A.17.1.3 the proton-dependent oligopeptide transporter (POT/PTR) family
Q9Z127	
Q8TF71	2.A.1.13.8 the major facilitator superfamily (MFS)
Q06593	2.A.67.1.4 the oligopeptide transporter (OPT) family
O01840	2.A.17.4.10 the proton-dependent oligopeptide transporter (POT/PTR) family
Q6YBV0	2.A.18.8.5 the amino acid/auxin permease (AAAP) family
Q9H2J7	2.A.22.6.7 the neurotransmitter:sodium symporter (NSS) family
Q7TNK0	
P38967	2.A.3.10.8 the amino acid-polyamine-organocation (APC) family
Q8BLE7	
Q10901	2.A.23.2.10 the dicarboxylate/amino acid:cation (Na(+) or H(+)) symporter (DAACS) family
O35633	2.A.18.5.3 the amino acid/auxin permease (AAAP) family

Table B.2: Anion

Uniprot ID	TCDB Family
P51788	2.A.49.2.12 the chloride carrier/channel (CLC) family
P21439	3.A.1.201.3 the ATP-binding cassette (ABC) superfamily
A0QQ70	3.A.1.9.2 the ATP-binding cassette (ABC) superfamily
P39535	2.A.47.2.3 the divalent anion: Na(+) symporter (DASS) family
Q8RX77	2.A.17.3.15 the proton-dependent oligopeptide transporter (pot/ptr) family
Q80UJ1	2.A.1.19.16 the major facilitator superfamily (MFS)
Q5DTL9	2.A.31.2.3 the anion exchanger (AE) family
Q9NPD5	2.A.60.1.12 the organo anion transporter (OAT) family
P39414	2.A.47.3.3 the divalent anion: Na(+) symporter (DASS) family
P37020	2.A.49.1.1 the chloride carrier/channel (CLC) family
Q02785	3.A.1.205.3 the ATP-binding cassette (ABC) superfamily
P44543	2.A.56.1.3 the tripartite ATP-independent periplasmic transporter (TRAP-t) family

Table B.3: Cation

Uniprot ID	TCDB Family
Q8AYS8	R-GGA-1296052 Ca ²⁺ activated K ⁺ channels R-RNO-1296072 Voltage gated Potassium channels
Q02280	1.A.1.20.6 the voltage-gated ion channel (VIC) superfamily
Q03721	
Q9UJ96	
O00180	
Q9ES08	
P51787	1.A.1.15.6 the voltage-gated ion channel (VIC) superfamily
Q6UVM4	
Q9YDF8	1.A.1.17.1 the voltage-gated ion channel (VIC) superfamily
P40260	1.A.11.3.1 the ammonium transporter channel (amt) family
P60678	2.A.63.1.3 the monovalent cation (K ⁽⁺⁾ or Na ⁽⁺⁾):proton antiporter-3 (CPA3) family
P60698	2.A.63.1.3 the monovalent cation (k ⁽⁺⁾ or NA ⁽⁺⁾):proton antiporter-3 (CPA3) family
Q9ZT63	2.A.4.3.4 the cation diffusion facilitator (CDF) family
P13738	2.A.33.1.1 the nhaa NA ⁽⁺⁾ :H ⁽⁺⁾ antiporter (NHAA) family
Q68KI4	2.A.36.5.1 the monovalent cation:proton antiporter-1 (CPA1) family
Q8BHK1	
Q8N130	2.A.58.1.3 the phosphate:NA ⁽⁺⁾ symporter (PNAS) family
Q96SN7	
Q10177	2.A.55.1.4 the metal ion (mn ⁽²⁺⁾ -iron) transporter (NRAMP) family
Q8BUX5	
Q9BXP2	2.A.30.1.6 the cation-chloride cotransporter (CCC) family
Q9NY26	2.A.5.3.2 the zinc (zn ⁽²⁺⁾)-iron (fe ⁽²⁺⁾) permease (ZIP) family
P04775	
Q62968	1.A.1.10.6 the voltage-gated ion channel (VIC) superfamily
Q99JR1	
Q96T83	2.A.36.1.3 the monovalent cation:proton antiporter-1 (CPA1) family
Q3TMP8	1.A.62.1.1 the homotrimeric cation channel (TRIC) family
P28584	2.A.38.2.3 the K ⁽⁺⁾ transporter (TRK) family
P42839	2.A.19.7.1 the Ca ⁽²⁺⁾ :cation antiporter (CACA) family
Q8IUH5	9.B.37.1.1 the huntington-interacting protein 14 (HIP14) family
P34240	2.A.5.5.3 the zinc (Zn ⁽²⁺⁾)-iron (Fe ⁽²⁺⁾) permease (ZIP) family
P19657	
P32842	3.A.2.2.3 the H ⁽⁺⁾ - or NA ⁽⁺⁾ -translocating f-type, v-type and a-type ATPase (f-ATPase) superfamily
Q9CPC8	
P36606	2.A.36.1.21 the monovalent cation:proton antiporter-1 (CPA1) family 2.A.36.4.3 the monovalent cation:proton antiporter-1 (CPA1) family

Table B.4: Electron transporter

Uniprot ID	TCDB Family
Q97K92	
P0A8Q0	
P0AAK4	
P09152	5.A.3.1.1 the prokaryotic molybdopterin-containing oxidoreductase (pmo) family
Q00141	
P33599	3.D.1.1.1 the H(+) or NA(+)-translocating NADH dehydrogenase (ndh) family
P0AFE0	3.D.1.1.1 the H(+) or NA(+)-translocating NADH dehydrogenase (ndh) family
P09193	3.E.2.2.2 the photosynthetic reaction center (prc) family
P0A616	
Q97D82	

Table B.5: Protein/mRNA

Uniprot ID	TCDB Family
P0ADC3	3.A.1.125.1 the ATP-binding cassette (abc) superfamily
P46970	
P40477	1.I.1.1.1 the eukaryotic nuclear pore complex (e-npc) family
Q6URK4	
P52870	3.A.5.8.1 the general secretory pathway (sec) family
P33754	3.A.5.8.1 the general secretory pathway (sec) family
P0AG99	3.A.5.1.1 the general secretory pathway (sec) family
P69428	2.A.64.1.1 the twin arginine targeting (tat) family
P32830	
P39515	3.A.8.1.1 the mitochondrial protein translocase (mpt) family
Q9Y5J7	
P0ABU9	1.A.30.2.2 the H(+)- or NA(+)-translocating bacterial flagellar motor/exbbd outer membrane transport energizer (mot/exb) superfamily
Q96QU8	
P33331	
Q7Z412	3.A.20.1.1 the peroxisomal protein importer (ppi) family

Table B.6: Sugar

Uniprot ID	TCDB Family
Q9JIF3	2.A.1.1.46 the major facilitator superfamily (mfs)
P39344	2.A.8.1.2 the gluconate:H(+) symporter (gntp) family
P68183	3.A.1.1.1 the ATP-binding cassette (abc) superfamily
Q57071	4.A.1.1.13 the pts glucose-glucoside (glc) family
P33026	2.A.1.20.2 the major facilitator superfamily (mfs)
Q94AZ2	2.A.1.1.50 the major facilitator superfamily (mfs)
O80605	2.A.2.4.3 the glycoside-pentoside-hexuronide (gph): cation symporter family
A1Z8N1	2.A.1.1.99 the major facilitator superfamily (mfs)
P0AGC0	2.A.1.4.1 the major facilitator superfamily (mfs)
O64503	2.A.7.11.4 the drug/metabolite transporter (dmt) superfamily
Q29Q28	
P71067	2.A.14.1.3 the lactate permease (lctp) family

Table B.7: Other transporter

Uniprot ID	TCDB Family
P0AFF4	2.A.1.10.1 the major facilitator superfamily (mfs)
O49929	1.B.28.1.1 the plastid outer envelope porin of 24 kda (oep24) family
P53860	
Q9LU77	2.A.69.1.2 the auxin efflux carrier (aec) family
P43286	1.A.8.11.4 the major intrinsic protein (mip) family
P69874	3.A.1.11.1 the ATP-binding cassette (abc) superfamily
Q04671	2.A.45.2.1 the arsenite-antimonite (arsb) efflux family
P38206	2.A.66.3.1 the multidrug/oligosaccharidyl-lipid/polysaccharide (mop) flippase superfamily
Q9BZV2	2.A.48.1.4 the reduced folate carrier (rfc) family
Q60714	
Q14542	2.A.57.1.8 the equilibrative nucleoside transporter (ent) family
Q9Y345	2.A.22.2.10 the neurotransmitter:sodium symporter (nss) family
D0ZXQ3	
Q41963	1.A.8.10.9 the major intrinsic protein (mip) family
P53099	2.A.39.2.2 the nucleobase:cation symporter-1 (ncs1) family
P04633	
Q8VHL0	
Q60932	
P67444	2.A.40.4.3 the nucleobase/ascorbate transporter (nat) or nucleobase:cation symporter-2 (ncs2) family
Q12675	3.A.3.8.5 the p-type ATPase (p-ATPase) superfamily

Appendix C

Dataset Two test set

Table C.1: Nonselective

Uniprot ID	TCDB Family
P0C0S1	1.A.23.2.1 The Small Conductance Mechanosensitive Ion Channel (MscS) Family
Q61835	1.A.27.1.2 The Phospholemman (PLM) Family

Table C.2: Water

Uniprot ID	TCDB Family
Q40746	
Q6Z2T3	1.A.8.12.2 The Major Intrinsic Protein (MIP) Family

Table C.3: Inorganic cations

UniprotID	TCDB family
Q9SZY7	
Q8IVB4	2.A.36.1.19 The Monovalent Cation:Proton Antiporter-1 (CPA1) Family
Q9IAL7	

Continued on next page

Table C.3 – continued from previous page

Uniprot ID	TCDB family
Q5U1X7	
Q9EYX5	1.A.35.4.1 The CorA Metal Ion Transporter (MIT) Family
Q21121	
Q7Z443	1.A.5.1.2 The Polycystin Cation Channel (PCC) Family
Q9XUC4	2.A.5.4.18 The Zinc (Zn^{2+})-Iron (Fe^{2+}) Permease (ZIP) Family
Q8VHX0	
Q54LY6	
Q1PE15	1.A.77.1.2 The Mg^{2+}/Ca^{2+} Uniporter (MCU) Family
P52191	
Q28139	2.A.19.4.1 The Ca^{2+} :Cation Antiporter (CaCA) Family
P47818	2.A.89.1.1 The Vacuolar Iron Transporter (VIT) Family
Q8S1N1	
P48048	1.A.2.1.1 The Inward Rectifier K^{+} Channel (IRK-C) Family
Q99712	
Q9ZTZ7	2.A.37.1.4 The Monovalent Cation:Proton Antiporter-2 (CPA2) Family
Q9M0Z3	2.A.37.1.6 The Monovalent Cation:Proton Antiporter-2 (CPA2) Family
P48549	1.A.2.1.12 The Inward Rectifier K^{+} Channel (IRK-C) Family
Q14B80	
P32798	2.A.4.2.1 The Cation Diffusion Facilitator (CDF) Family
Q99766	
Q21974	1.A.6.2.4 The Epithelial Na^{+} Channel (ENaC) Family

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Table C.3 – continued from previous page

Uniprot ID	TCDB family
Q6DBM8	
P34586	
Q75HP9	
Q8W4E7	2.A.100.1.2 The Ferroportin (Fpn) Family
Q9YDF8	1.A.1.17.1 The Voltage-gated Ion Channel (VIC) Superfamily
P61829	3.A.2.1.3 The H ⁺ - or Na ⁺ -translocating F-type, V-type and A-type ATPase (F-ATPase) Superfamily
P41807	3.A.2.2.3 The H ⁺ - or Na ⁺ -translocating F-type, V-type and A-type ATPase (F-ATPase) Superfamily
O70596	1.A.2.1.5 The Inward Rectifier K ⁺ Channel (IRK-C) Family
P23968	3.A.2.2.3 The H ⁺ - or Na ⁺ -translocating F-type, V-type and A-type ATPase (F-ATPase) Superfamily
P26235	2.A.37.2.1 The Monovalent Cation:Proton Antiporter-2 (CPA2) Family
Q8TD43	1.A.4.5.4 The Transient Receptor Potential Ca ²⁺ Channel (TRP-CC) Family
Q9WU39	
Q9WU38	
P24612	1.A.6.2.2 The Epithelial Na ⁺ Channel (ENaC) Family
P35500	
Q8L636	
Q24278	1.A.1.5.18 The Voltage-gated Ion Channel (VIC) Superfamily
Q8IWT1	8.A.17.2.2 The Na ⁺ Channel Auxiliary Subunit β 1- β 4 (SCA- β) Family
Q06538	1.A.17.5.11 The Calcium-dependent Chloride Channel (Ca-ClC) Family

Continued on next page

Table C.3 – continued from previous page

Uniprot ID	TCDB family
Q9EPK8	
Q96T55	1.A.1.9.10 The Voltage-gated Ion Channel (VIC) Superfamily
Q8I4B0	1.A.1.2.20 The Voltage-gated Ion Channel (VIC) Superfamily
P52192	
O95180	1.A.1.11.5 The Voltage-gated Ion Channel (VIC) Superfamily
Q3EBY6	1.A.87.1.2 The Mechanosensitive Calcium Channel (MCA) Family
P07293	1.A.1.11.2 The Voltage-gated Ion Channel (VIC) Superfamily
Q6DHQ1	
P76425	2.A.113.1.1 The Nickel/cobalt Transporter (NicO) Family
Q12791	1.A.1.3.10 The Voltage-gated Ion Channel (VIC) Superfamily
Q86LG1	
Q15904	8.A.107.1.1 The V-type ATPase assembly factor, ATP6AP1 (ATP6AP1) Family
P03928	
G5EBM5	
Q9ERS1	
Q9H427	1.A.1.9.12 The Voltage-gated Ion Channel (VIC) Superfamily
Q8W4S4	

Table C.4: Inorganic anions

Uniprot ID	TCDB Family
Q9XI23	
O35454	2.A.49.3.4 The Chloride Carrier/Channel (ClC) Family
P25360	2.A.47.2.1 The Divalent Anion:Na ⁺ Symporter (DASS) Family
P12234	2.A.29.4.1 The Mitochondrial Carrier (MC) Family
P92946	
P37002	1.A.43.1.1 The Camphor Resistance or Fluoride Exporter (Fluc) Family
Q9M817	2.A.17.3.13 The Proton-dependent Oligopeptide Transporter (POT/PTR) Family
Q06598	2.A.59.1.1 The Arsenical Resistance-3 (ACR3) Family
A8J6J0	2.A.53.1.8 The Sulfate Permease (SulP) Family
Q55461	

Table C.5: Organic anions

Uniprot ID	TCDB Family
Q9BXS9	2.A.53.2.7 The Sulfate Permease (SulP) Family
P32847	2.A.31.1.4 The Anion Exchanger (AE) Family
P58735	
Q1EBV7	2.A.28.2.3 The Bile Acid:Na ⁺ Symporter (BASS) Family
P53311	2.A.105.1.1 The Mitochondrial Pyruvate Carrier (MPC) Family
Q9SFB0	2.A.66.1.24 The Multidrug/Oligosaccharidyl-lipid/Polysaccharide (MOP) Flippase Superfamily
Q8LG88	2.A.47.1.6 The Divalent Anion:Na ⁺ Symporter (DASS) Family
Q9SJE9	
P33303	2.A.29.13.1 The Mitochondrial Carrier (MC) Family
P37327	1.A.16.4.1 The Formate-Nitrite Transporter (FNT) Family

Table C.6: Organo-oxygens

Uniprot ID	TCDB Family
Q12520	2.A.7.11.6 The Drug/Metabolite Transporter (DMT) Superfamily
Q66HX0	
P41036	2.A.1.12.1 The Major Facilitator Superfamily (MFS)
Q8GY97	
Q9BRV3	2.A.123.1.4 The Sweet; PQ-loop; Saliva; MtN3 (Sweet) Family
Q8K0H7	
P22732	2.A.1.1.13 The Major Facilitator Superfamily (MFS)
Q9LF50	2.A.84.1.1 The Chloroplast Maltose Exporter (MEX) Family
Q84L08	
Q94B65	
P42905	
Q7RTX9	2.A.1.13.12 The Major Facilitator Superfamily (MFS)
B1AT66	
Q7T384	2.A.21.5.4 The Solute:Sodium Symporter (SSS) Family
P32386	3.A.1.208.12 The ATP-binding Cassette (ABC) Superfamily
O95342	3.A.1.201.2 The ATP-binding Cassette (ABC) Superfamily
Q8ZKQ3	

Table C.7: Amino acids and derivatives

Uniprot ID	TCDB Family
P0AD99	2.A.26.1.10 The Branched Chain Amino Acid:Cation Symporter (LIVCS) Family
O34739	2.A.3.8.12 The Amino Acid-Polyamine-Organocation (APC) Family
Q9URZ4	2.A.3.10.21 The Amino Acid-Polyamine-Organocation (APC) Family
P11667	2.A.75.1.2 The L-Lysine Exporter (LysE) Family
Q9JHE5	2.A.18.6.4 The Amino Acid/Auxin Permease (AAAP) Family
Q60DN5	
Q04671	2.A.45.2.1 The Arsenite-Antimonite (ArsB) Efflux Family
O60146	
A0A1D8PNP3	
P43548	2.A.3.10.14 The Amino Acid-Polyamine-Organocation (APC) Family
Q12235	2.A.1.14.20 The Major Facilitator Superfamily (MFS)
P57757	
Q04301	2.A.1.48.1 The Major Facilitator Superfamily (MFS)
Q08AI6	2.A.18.6.18 The Amino Acid/Auxin Permease (AAAP) Family
Q10227	

Table C.8: Other organonitrogens

Uniprot ID	TCDB Family
Q9P5N0	3.A.1.208.28 The ATP-binding Cassette (ABC) Superfamily
Q02592	3.A.1.210.2 The ATP-binding Cassette (ABC) Superfamily
Q9NP78	3.A.1.209.2 The ATP-binding Cassette (ABC) Superfamily
Q9BZV2	2.A.48.1.4 The Reduced Folate Carrier (RFC) Family
P32839	3.A.28.1.1 The AAA-ATPase, Bcs1 (Bcs1) Family
Q9T091	
P35818	1.B.22.1.2 The Outer Bacterial Membrane Secretin (Secretin) Family
P69423	2.A.64.1.1 The Twin Arginine Targeting (Tat) Family
P35179	3.A.5.8.1 The General Secretory Pathway (Sec) Family
P32897	3.A.8.1.1 The Mitochondrial Protein Translocase (MPT) Family
Q8LPR8	3.A.9.1.2 The Chloroplast Envelope Protein Translocase (CEPT or Tic-Toc) Family
Q9W552	
Q9NP61	
P53134	2.A.67.2.7 The Oligopeptide Transporter (OPT) Family
P0AGH5	3.A.1.5.42 The ATP-binding Cassette (ABC) Superfamily
Q96A70	

Table C.9: Nucleotides

Uniprot ID	TCDB Family
P39719	1.A.4.9.3 The Transient Receptor Potential Ca ²⁺ Channel (TRP-CC) Family
Q20799	

Table C.10: Organo heterocyclics

Uniprot ID	TCDB Family
P0AGM9	2.A.40.4.2 The Nucleobase/Ascorbate Transporter (NAT) or Nucleobase:Cation Symporter-2 (NCS2) Family
Q9LZD0	2.A.39.3.11 The Nucleobase:Cation Symporter-1 (NCS1) Family
O43868	2.A.41.2.4 The Concentrative Nucleoside Transporter (CNT) Family

Table C.11: Miscellaneous

Uniprot ID	TCDB Family
P69831	4.A.5.1.1 The PTS Galactitol (Gat) Family
P39352	
Q6X893	2.A.92.1.1 The Choline Transporter-like (CTL) Family
P0AAG0	
O43000	2.A.1.14.17 The Major Facilitator Superfamily (MFS)
Q91X85	
Q99PE8	
P16258	
Q9BZF2	
Q9GQQ0	2.A.1.49.1 The Major Facilitator Superfamily (MFS)
Q9DFS4	

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