Supplementary Information

Statistical tests to detect differences between codon-specific Ramachandran plots

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A The null distribution of p-values is not super-uniform

This section is devoted to prove the technical results stated in the main text about the null distribution of the p-values defined in [1], in particular their non-super-uniformity. Keeping the notation of [1], for each pair of bootstrapped samples, we can define the quantity $p_b = (1 + n_b)/(1 + K)$ as a p-value for the b-th permutation test, with b = 1, ..., B. Each of the p_b follows a super-uniform distribution under the null hypothesis and thus it can be used to define a suitable statistical test accepting correction for multiplicity. Below, we show that the p-values defined in [1] are approximately the empirical mean of all the p_b , where the approximation error vanishes when the number of permutations K increases.

Proposition A.1. Let $p_{(c,c'),\mathcal{X}}$ be the p-value defined in [1] for a given null hypothesis $H_{0,(c,c')|\mathcal{X}}$, computed as detailed in [1] through B bootstrapped samples with K permutations each. Let p_b denote the p-value for the b-th permutation test for $b = 1, \ldots, B$, and \overline{p}_B be the empirical mean of $(p_b)_{1 \leq b \leq B}$. Then for any K > 0, it holds that:

$$0 \le \overline{p}_B - p_{(c,c'),\mathcal{X}} \le \frac{1}{K} \,. \tag{1}$$

Proof. Recalling that the p-value for the b-th permutation test is $p_b = \frac{n_b+1}{K+1}$, we have

$$p_{(c,c'),\mathcal{X}} = \frac{1 + \sum_{b=1}^{B} n_b}{1 + BK} = \frac{1 + \sum_{b=1}^{B} (p_b(K+1) - 1)}{1 + BK} = \frac{(K+1) \sum_{b=1}^{B} p_b - (B-1)}{1 + BK}$$
(2)

$$= \frac{B(K+1)\overline{p}_B - (B-1)}{1+BK}.$$
(3)

Therefore, we obtain

$$p_{(c,c'),\mathcal{X}} - \overline{p}_B = \frac{\overline{p}_B(B(K+1) - (1+BK)) - (B-1)}{1+BK} = \frac{(B-1)(\overline{p}_B - 1)}{1+BK}.$$
 (4)

Since $0 \le p_b \le 1$ for all b, we have $0 \le \overline{p}_B \le 1$ as well, so that

$$0 \le \overline{p}_B - p_{(c,c'),\mathcal{X}} \le \frac{(B-1)}{1+BK} \le \frac{1}{K},\tag{5}$$

where the last inequality holds for any B and K since $(B-1)K \leq 1 + BK$.

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The next step is to show that the empirical mean of two or more uniformly distributed random variables is not super-uniform. As noted in the main text, this empirical mean is asymptotically Gaussian if the variables are independent. The difficulty here is to prove the result without assuming independence, in order for it to be relevant for the study of $p_{(c,c'),\mathcal{X}}$. We first recall the definition of super-uniformity and give a useful equivalent statement in Remark A.1. Then, Proposition A.2 proves the non-uniformity of \overline{p}_B .

Definition A.1 (Super-uniformity). A random variable X taking values in [0,1] is said to be super-uniform if it is stochastically greater than a uniform random variable or, in other words, if

$$\mathbb{P}(X \le t) \le t \quad \forall t \in [0, 1]. \tag{6}$$

Remark A.1. As a consequence of Theorem 1 in [2], a random variable X taking values in [0,1] is super-uniform if and only if

$$\mathbb{E}(u(U)) \le \mathbb{E}(u(X)) \quad \text{for all non-decreasing function } u, \tag{7}$$

where U denotes a random variable uniformly distributed in [0,1].

Proposition A.2. Let U_1, \ldots, U_n be n real-valued random variables uniformly distributed on [0,1]. For all $n \geq 2$, their empirical mean $\overline{U_n} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n U_i$ is not super-uniform.

Proof. Let U be a random variable uniformly distributed in [0,1]. As a consequence of Remark A.1, it suffices to find a non-decreasing function u such that $\mathbb{E}(u(U)) > \mathbb{E}(u(\overline{U_n}))$ for all $n \geq 2$. Let $u : [0,1] \longrightarrow [0,1]$ be such that $u(t) = t^2$ for all $t \in [0,1]$. Then, as $\mathbb{E}(\overline{U_n}) = \mathbb{E}(U)$ and $\mathbb{E}(X^2) = \operatorname{Var}(X) + \mathbb{E}(X)^2$ for any real-valued random variable X, it suffices to prove that

$$\operatorname{Var}\left(\overline{U_n}\right) < \operatorname{Var}(U) = \frac{1}{12} \quad \forall n \ge 2.$$
 (8)

First, we have

$$\operatorname{Var}\left(\overline{U_n}\right) = \frac{1}{n^2} \operatorname{Var}\left(\sum_{i=1}^n U_i\right) = \frac{1}{n^2} \left[\sum_{i=1}^n \operatorname{Var}(U_i) + 2\sum_{i < j} \operatorname{Cov}(U_i, U_j)\right] = \tag{9}$$

$$\frac{1}{12n} + \frac{2}{n^2} \sum_{i < j} \text{Cov}(U_i, U_j) = \frac{1}{12n} + \frac{1}{n^2} \sum_{i < j} \left(\mathbb{E}(U_i U_j) - \mathbb{E}(U_i) \mathbb{E}(U_j) \right) =$$
(10)

$$\frac{1}{12n} + \frac{2}{n^2} \sum_{i < j} \left(\mathbb{E}(U_i U_j) - \frac{1}{4} \right) = \frac{1}{12n} - \frac{1}{2n^2} \binom{n}{2} + \frac{2}{n^2} \sum_{i < j} \mathbb{E}(U_i U_j) \,. \tag{11}$$

As the expectation of the product of two random variables defines an inner product on the set of random variables equally supported, we can apply Cauchy–Schwarz inequality and upper bound the last expectation in (11) as

$$\mathbb{E}(U_i U_j) \le \sqrt{\mathbb{E}(U_i^2) \mathbb{E}(U_j^2)} = \frac{1}{3}. \tag{12}$$

However, the maximum $\frac{1}{3}$ is achieved if and only if both random variables are equal. Indeed, an equality in (12) holds if and only if the two variables are linearly dependent [3]. If, what's more, they are identically distributed, linear dependence is equivalent to equality. Consequently, at least one of the pairs i < j must satisfy $\mathbb{E}(U_i U_j) < \frac{1}{3}$ or, on the contrary, we would have $U_1 = \cdots = U_n$, contradicting the hypothesis

 $n \geq 2$. Therefore, we can upper bound (11) as

$$\operatorname{Var}(\overline{U_n}) < \frac{1}{12n} - \frac{1}{2n^2} + \frac{2}{3n^2} \binom{n}{2} = \frac{1}{12n} + \frac{1}{6n^2} \binom{n}{2} = \frac{1}{12} \quad \forall n \ge 2, \tag{13}$$

which concludes the proof. \Box

B Numerical study of p-value null distribution

In this section, we illustrate the behaviour of the non-uniform p-values $p_{(c,c'),\mathcal{X}}$ under the null hypothesis. As explained in the main text, the B individual p-values p_b , $b=1,\ldots,B$, are not independent as they are computed by bootstrapping from one initial sample. If, on the contrary, the p_b were computed from independent samples, the empirical mean \overline{p}_B would converge in distribution to a Gaussian (Theorem 27.1 in [4]):

$$\sqrt{12B} \left(\overline{p}_B - \frac{1}{2} \right) \xrightarrow[B \to \infty]{\mathcal{D}} \mathcal{N}(0,1).$$
 (indep)

We aim at analysing how the dependence induced by bootstrapping alters the asymptotic distribution of (indep), as well as the effect of the number B of bootstrap iterations and the number K of permutations for each individual test. We simulated the distribution of $p_{(c,c'),\mathcal{X}}$ under the null hypothesis following the algorithm detailed in [1] (see Full procedure in Methods Section, end of p. 7). The original samples were drawn from a uniform distribution and had fixed sizes N=2000. Bootstrapped samples were extracted with size $N_{\text{max}}=200$. For the independence scenario, we replaced the bootstrapped samples by new equally sized samples drawn from a uniform distribution. As the explicit form of the test statistic is not provided in [1], we used the Wilcoxon statistic to illustrate the behaviour of $p_{(c,c'),\mathcal{X}}$. For each pair of values of K, B, the null distribution of $p_{(c,c'),\mathcal{X}}$ was simulated with 200 Monte Carlo iterations. Results are presented in Figure S1, where the empirical distribution is compared to the asymptotic independence scenario (indep).

The first row in Figure S1 shows the null distribution of $p_{(c,c'),\mathcal{X}}$ if samples are not bootstrapped but drawn independently at each iteration $b=1,\ldots,B$. The encountered empirical distribution matches the Gaussian (indep) more faithfully as K increases, which was expected as the difference $\|p_{(c,c'),\mathcal{X}} - \overline{p}_B\|$ is upper bounded by 1/K. In the same way, we should expect that the simulated $p_{(c,c'),\mathcal{X}}$ distributions are closer to the real (and unknown for this dependency scenario) null distribution of \overline{p}_B when moving from the left to the right column in Figure S1. When samples are bootstrapped as in [1], dependency between the p_b appears and as B increases (from the second to the last row in Figure S1) values deviate from the independence scenario (indep). When B remains small (as for B=25, the value chosen in [1]), the deviation from (indep) is slight. This can be explained as $N_{\text{max}} \ll N$, and bootstrapping few times samples with small size compared to the one of the original sample is close to drawn samples independently from the entire population. As B increases, so does the dependency between the individual p-values. This dilates the empirical distribution of $p_{(c,c'),\mathcal{X}}$ and extends the difference to (indep). A similar phenomenon was observed in [5] when studying the effect of unobserved covariates on the null distribution of p-values.

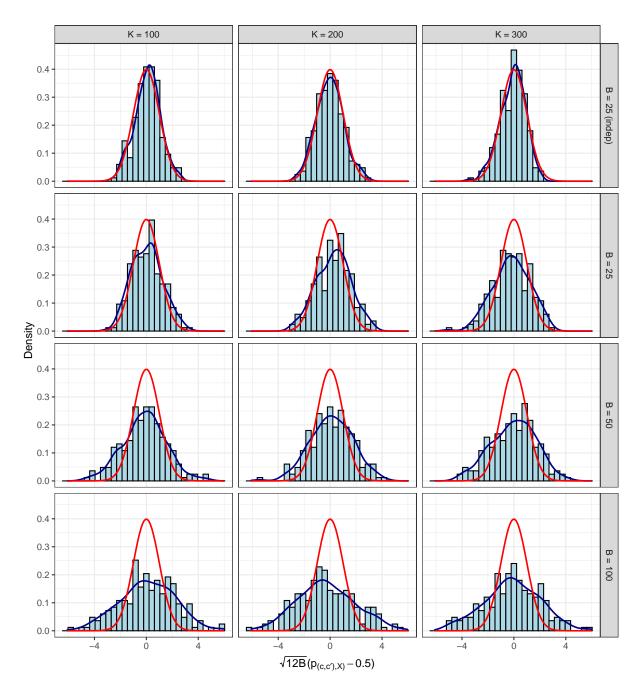


Figure S1: Simulation of the null distribution of $p_{(c,c'),\mathcal{X}}$ for different values of parameters K (in columns) and B (in rows). The first row corresponds to the independence scenario (indep), whose asymptotic standard Gaussian density is depicted in red in all cases. The blue line corresponds to the non-parametric kernel density estimate of the encountered empirical distribution. Note that, for the sake of comparison to (indep), the presented p-values have been re-scaled as $\sqrt{12B}(p_{(c,c'),\mathcal{X}}-0.5)$.

C Dispersion of (ϕ, ψ) samples for each secondary structure type

Let X_1, \ldots, X_n be n independent and identically distributed (i.i.d.) real-valued random variables. The sample variance, defined as

$$S_X^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \overline{X_n})^2,$$
(14)

is a measure of dispersion for X_1, \ldots, X_n or, conversely, of its concentration around its empirical mean $\overline{X_n}$. To define an analogous estimator of (14) for n i.i.d. random variables $\{(\phi_i, \psi_i)\}_{i=1}^n$ taking values on the two-dimensional flat torus \mathbb{T}^2 , we may consider

$$S_{(\phi,\psi)}^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n d_{\mathbb{T}^2}((\phi_i, \psi_i), (\phi_{n,\mathcal{F}}, \psi_{n,\mathcal{F}}))^2,$$
(15)

where $d_{\mathbb{T}}^2$ denotes the geodesic distance on the torus [6] and $(\phi_{n,\mathcal{F}}, \psi_{n,\mathcal{F}})$ denotes the sample barycenter (or Fréchet mean). However, the computation of Fréchet mean on the torus is not a trivial task. As our aim here is not theoretical, we will replace the barycenter $(\phi_{n,\mathcal{F}}, \psi_{n,\mathcal{F}})$ by the *extrinsic* barycenter on \mathbb{T}^2 [7], which is defined through a transformation to the euclidean space \mathbb{R}^4 as

$$(\phi_{n,E}, \psi_{n,E}) = (\operatorname{atan2}(s_{\phi}, c_{\phi}), \operatorname{atan2}(s_{\psi}, c_{\psi})),$$

where atan2(y, x) is the $\theta \in [-\pi, \pi)$ such that $\cos \theta = x$ and $\sin \theta = y$, and

$$(c_{\phi}, s_{\phi}, c_{\psi}, s_{\psi}) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (\sin \phi_i, \cos \phi_i, \sin \psi_i, \cos \psi_i)$$

is the euclidean mean of the transformed sample. In conclusion, our dispersion estimator is defined as

$$D = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} d_{\mathbb{T}^2}((\phi_i, \psi_i), (\phi_{n,E}, \psi_{n,E}))^2,$$
(16)

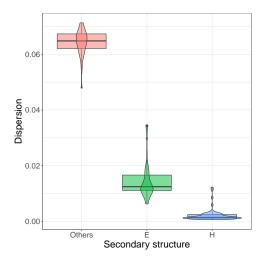


Figure S2: Empirical distribution (boxplots, violin plots) of (16), for conformations in extended strand (E, green), α -helix (H, blue) and other (Others, red) secondary structures. Values higher than the 0.95 quantile for each group were excluded.

which can be easily implemented. We computed (16) for every codon-specific Ramachandran plot with more than 30 points (the same criteria as to perform the statistical test). The results, classified by secondary structure as in Figure 1, are presented in Figure S2. The empirical distributions of (16) clearly illustrate how α -helical conformations (H) are highly restricted, the corresponding dihedrals being strongly concentrated around its barycenter. The dispersion of (ϕ, ψ) considerably increases for extended strand (E), and even more for the remaining DSSP structure classes merged together. These differences may be summarized by the average dispersion \overline{D} for each secondary structure: $\overline{D}_{\text{Others}} = 0.06 > \overline{D}_{\text{E}} = 0.01 > \overline{D}_{\text{H}} = 0.002$, as stated in the main text.

D Structural classification as non-overlapping regions of the Ramachandran space

We repeated the analysis presented in Figure 1 of the manuscript using a different structural classification, simply based on non-overlapping regions on the Ramachandran space:

$$\mathcal{A} = (-180^{\circ}, 0^{\circ}) \times (-120^{\circ}, 50^{\circ}), \quad \mathcal{B} = (-180^{\circ}, 0^{\circ}) \times (-50^{\circ}, 240^{\circ}). \tag{17}$$

Note that classes \mathcal{A} and \mathcal{B} are not limited to α -helices and extended strands. For instance, poly-l-proline type II (PPII) structures are included in \mathcal{B} . Moreover, a substantial number of conformations that were not classified as α -helical (H) or extended stand (E) by DSSP (named 'Others' in Figure 1) belong now to the \mathcal{A} or \mathcal{B} classes. More precisely, 37.69% and 44.41% of 'Others' conformations are now contained in \mathcal{A} or \mathcal{B} , respectively. Results of this analysis are presented in Figure S3, and discussed in the main text.

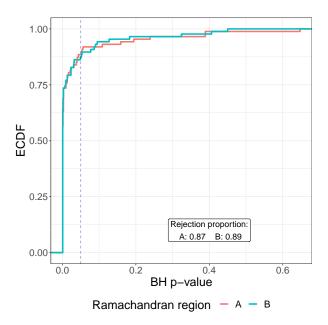


Figure S3: Empirical cumulative distribution function (ECDF) of corrected p-values corresponding to testing the equality of (ϕ, ψ) distribution pairs corresponding to different synonymous codons, for conformations in \mathcal{A} and \mathcal{B} classes, defined by the angular intervals (17). The dashed blue line indicates an arbitrary level of significance of $\alpha = 0.05$, determining the proportion of rejections among each set of tested hypotheses.

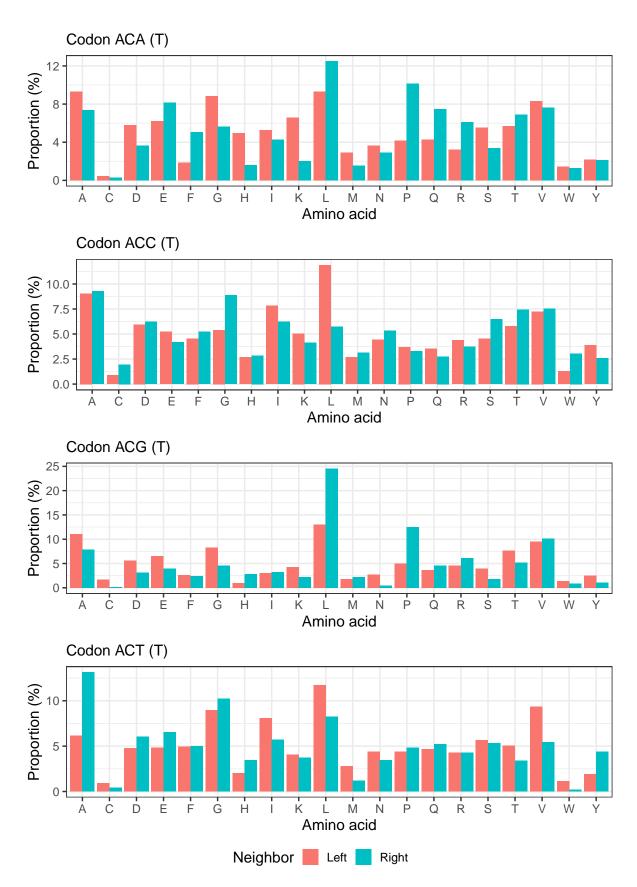


Figure S4: Proportions (in percentage) of left and right neighboring amino acid types for the four synonymous codons of threonine in the database provided in [1].

E Tripeptide-specific (ϕ, ψ) distribution analysis

The relevance of the nearest neighbor effects on the conformational preferences of an amino acid residue, in terms of (ϕ, ψ) distribution, has been demonstrated using experimental and computational approaches. Nevertheless, these effects have not been taken into account when defining the codon-specific distributions in [1]. As discussed in the main text, the proportion of left and right neighboring amino acid types substantially differs among synonymous codons. This is illustrated in Figure S4 for threonine. The behavior is similar for all amino acid types. Consequently, neighbor effects do not equally influence each (ϕ, ψ) distribution corresponding to different synonymous codons, introducing a bias that remains uncontrolled in [1].

When repeating the analyses by considering codon-specific Ramachandran plots for triplets of amino acids, the overall conclusions do not change. However, subtle differences appear if we analyze results more in detail. Here, we illustrate how the codon effect was found to be stronger when neighbors were considered. The quantitative comparison of p-values in both cases (with and without fixing neighbors) is possible only if sample sizes are similar. Therefore, we repeated the analysis for the single-amino-acid Ramachandran plots but reducing sample sizes to n = 50, which is the average sample size in the datasets considering triplets. More precisely, for each pair of synonymous codons, we extracted and compared 20 pairs of subsamples of size n = 50. Then, the distribution of p-values for the subsampled single-amino-acid datasets can be compared to the ones obtained from the tripeptide datasets. Such comparison is presented in Figure S5.

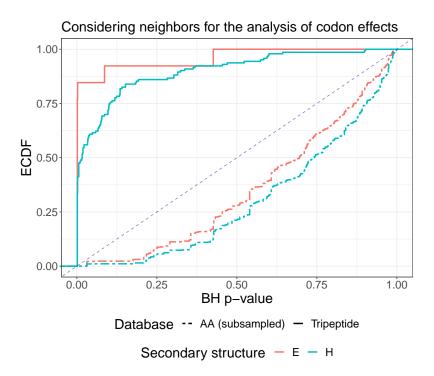


Figure S5: Empirical cumulative distribution function (ECDF) of p-values, corrected for multiplicity, corresponding to testing the equality of every synonymous codon (ϕ, ψ) distribution pairs, for conformations in extended strand (E) and α -helix (H) secondary structures. Each line type corresponds to the same analysis performed in one different database. The dashed blue line indicates the cumulative distribution function of a uniform distribution.

The distributions of p-values presented in Figure S5 show that, for comparable sample sizes, the deviations encountered between the distributions for synonymous codons are larger when tripeptides are considered. Indeed, p-values for the analysis using triplets are substantially closer to zero than the ones considering single amino acids. This means that the effect of codon is stronger when neighbors are taken into account or, equivalently, that ignoring neighbor identities -as in [1]- underestimates the codon effect on (ϕ, ψ) distributions.

References

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