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Motif-Based Protein Sequence Classification Using Neural Networks

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ABSTRACT

We present a system for multi-class protein classification based on neural networks. The basic issue concerning the construction of neural network systems for protein classification is the sequence encoding scheme that must be used in order to feed the neural network. To deal with this problem we propose a method that maps a protein sequence into a numerical feature space using the matching scores of the sequence to groups of conserved patterns (called motifs) into protein families. We consider two alternative ways for identifying the motifs to be used for feature generation and provide a comparative evaluation of the two schemes. We also evaluate the impact of the incorporation of background features (2-grams) on the performance of the neural system. Experimental results on real datasets indicate that the proposed method is highly efficient and is superior to other well-known methods for protein classification.

Key words: protein sequence classification, neural networks, probabilistic motifs, MEME algorithm, motif-based features.

1. INTRODUCTION

PROTEIN SEQUENCE CLASSIFICATION CONSTITUTES an important problem in biological sciences for annotating new protein sequences and detecting close evolutionary relationships among sequences. It deals with the assignment of sequences to known categories based on homology detection properties (sequence similarity). In several studies, protein classification has been examined at various levels, according to a top-down hierarchy in molecular taxonomy, consisting of superfamilies, families, and subfamilies (Dayhoff *et al.*, 1978). Throughout this paper, we will use the terms *family* (or *subfamily*) and *class* interchangeably to denote any collection of sequences that are presumed to share common characteristics and belong to the same category.

Various approaches have been developed for solving the protein classification problem. Most of them are based on appropriately modeling protein families, either directly or indirectly. Direct modeling techniques use a training set of sequences to build a model that characterizes the family of interest. Hidden Markov models (HMMs) are a widely used probabilistic modeling method for protein families (Durbin *et al.*, 1998) that provides a probabilistic measurement (score) of how well an unknown sequence fits to a family. Indirect techniques use direct models as a preprocessing tool in order to extract useful sequence features. In this way,

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sequences of variable length are transformed into fixed-length input vectors that are subsequently used for training discriminative models, such as neural networks.

In protein sequences, *motifs* or *patterns* enclose significant homologous attributes, since they correspond to conserved regions in protein families holding useful structural and functional biological properties. They can be considered as islands of amino acids conserved in the same order of a given family. Therefore, they can be seen as local features characterizing the sequences. Motifs can be either deterministic or probabilistic (Brāzma *et al.*, 1998; Rigoutsos *et al.*, 2000). Deterministic motifs follow grammatical inference properties in order to syntactically describe conserved regions of homologous sequences. The PROSITE database (Hofmann *et al.*, 1999) represents a large collection of such motifs used to identify protein families. On the other hand, probabilistic motifs are more flexible models, and they provide a probabilistic matching score of a sequence to a motif. The BLOCKS database (Henikoff and Henikoff, 1994) is an example of ungapped probabilistic motifs. In any case, motif models are suitable for constructing efficient similarity score functions that can be subsequently used as local features for protein classification. An example is presented by Ma and Wang (2000), and by Wang *et al.* (2001) where motif-based local features are produced based on the minimum description length (MDL) principle for the case of deterministic motif models.

The *background* information also constitutes another source for extracting features from sequence data. The determination of the background features, also defined as *global* features, is usually made by using the 2-gram encoding scheme that counts the occurrences of two consecutive amino acids in protein sequences (Wang *et al.*, 2001). In the case of protein sequences (generated from the alphabet of the 20 aminoacids), there are 400 possible 2-grams that produce a large feature space. A recent approach (Almeida and Vinga, 2002) proposes a scheme for globally encoding sequences, where each amino acid character is initially represented as a unique binary number with n bits (n = 5 for the 20 aminoacids) and then each sequence is mapped into a position inside the n-dimensional hypercube.

In this paper, we focus on building efficient neural classifiers for discriminating multiple protein families by using appropriate local features that have been extracted by efficient probabilistic motif models. As motifs constitute family diagnostic signatures, our aim is to exploit this information by constructing a neural network scheme that exploits motif-based (local) features.

The proposed method can be considered as combining an unsupervised with a supervised learning technique. Starting by applying a motif-discovery (unsupervised) algorithm, we identify probabilistic motifs in a training set of multiclass sequences. This can be achieved in two alternative ways: applying the algorithm for motif discovery either to each family training set separately (*class-dependent* motifs), or to the whole dataset of training sequences (*class-independent* motifs). The discovered motifs are then used to convert each sequence to a numerical input vector that subsequently can be applied to a typical feed-forward neural network. Using a Bayesian regularization training technique, the neural network parameters are adjusted, and therefore a classifier is obtained suitable for predicting the family of an unlabeled sequence.

The next section provides a brief overview of statistical and neural techniques proposed for classifying biological sequences, while Section 3 describes the proposed method. Experimental results obtained using several sets of protein families are presented in Section 4, along with a comparison with other known protein classification approaches. Finally, Section 5 summarizes the proposed classification scheme and specifies directions for future research.

2. PROTEIN CLASSIFICATION METHODS

One class of methods for protein sequence classification work directly with sequence information and establish classification criteria based on sequence homology properties. In the general scheme, a representative set of sequences is selected for each protein family and used to build an appropriate model for each family. The classification of an unknown sequence is made by selecting the family that best matches according to the model homology mechanism. This can be considered as a simple *nearest neighbor* scheme that ranks sequence similarities and selects the best ranking.

The popular BLAST tool (Altshul et al., 1990) represents the simplest nearest neighbor approach and exploits pairwise local alignments to measure sequence similarity. The BLAST technique compares protein

queries with a protein database of labeled sequences and produces normalized alignment scores for each comparison by calculating the corresponding expectation values (E-values). The classification procedure is based on the selection of the label of the sequence that produces the best pairwise alignment score (i.e., minimum E-value).

Another type of direct modeling methods is based on hidden Markov models (HMMs) (Durbin *et al.*, 1998; Karplus *et al.*, 1998). After constructing an HMM for each family, protein queries can be easily scored against all established HMMs by calculating the log-likelihood of each model for the unknown sequence and then selecting the class label of the most likely model.

The Motif Alignment and Search Tool (MAST) (Bailey and Gribskov, 1998) is based on the combination of multiple motif-based statistical score values. According to this scheme, groups of probabilistic motifs discovered by the MEME algorithm (Bailey and Elkan, 1994), are used to construct protein profiles for the families of interest. The MAST algorithm successively estimates the significance of the match of a query sequence to a family model as the product of the *p*-values of each motif match score. This measure (called *E*-value) can then be used to select the family of the unknown sequence.

Neural network schemes for protein classification consist of two stages: the *encoding* stage, where discriminative numerical features are computed for each training sequence, and the *decision* stage, where the created feature vectors are used as input vectors to a neural network classifier. Various encoding schemes have been proposed in the literature that produce numerical features in the encoding stage based on the calculation of background features (global sequence homology) and local features (locally conserved family information) embedded in motifs. In the decision stage, feed-forward neural networks have been used trained either through back-propagation (Wu *et al.*, 1996) or using Bayesian regularization (Ma and Wang, 2000; Wang *et al.*, 2001). These approaches are characterized by the enormous size of the extracted input vectors, the imbalance between global and local features (more emphasis on global features), and the need for large training sets (since the number of network inputs is very large). For example, in Ma and Wang (2000) and in Wang *et al.* (2001) only one feature was responsible for carrying local information, while all the others were produced by the 2-grams encoding scheme (background features).

Support vector machines (SVMs) (Vapnik, 1979) have been also applied to protein homology detection problems. Such an approach, which has been introduced by Logan *et al.* (2001), feeds probabilistic score values from all motifs available (nearly 10,000) in the BLOCKS database (Henikoff and Henikoff, 1994) into an SVM classifier. Obviously, this scheme uses only local features, but the dimensionality of the input space is extremely high. Another method has been proposed by Jaakkola *et al.* (2000) and by Karchin *et al.* (2002) that combines hidden Markov models (HMMs) and SVMs for detecting remote protein homologies. In particular, an HMM is first trained to model a protein family, and then the observed probabilities (in the log space) of each sequence with respect to each parameter of the HMM are calculated. The obtained gradient-log-probability vectors are applied to an SVM to identify the decision boundary between the family and the rest of the protein universe.

3. THE PROPOSED METHOD

This paper studies the problem of classifying a set of N protein sequences $\mathbf{S} = \{S_i, i = 1, ..., N\}$ into K classes. The set S is a union of positive example datasets S_k from K different classes, i.e., $S = \{S_1 \cup ... \cup S_K\}$, and can be seen as a subset of the complete set of all possible sequences over the amino acid alphabet $(S \subseteq \Sigma^*)$.

Figure 1 illustrates the architecture of the proposed protein classification scheme. It consists of a search tool (unsupervised learning) for discovering probabilistic motifs in a set of K protein families, a feature vector generator that converts protein sequences into feature vectors, and a decision module (neural network) for assigning a protein family to each input sequence. The following subsections describe in detail the major building blocks of the proposed architecture.

3.1. Using motifs for feature generation

Consider a finite alphabet consisting of set of characters $\Sigma = \{\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_{\Omega}\}\ (\Omega = 20 \text{ for protein sequences})$. We can probabilistically model a contiguous (ungapped) motif M_i of length W_i using a

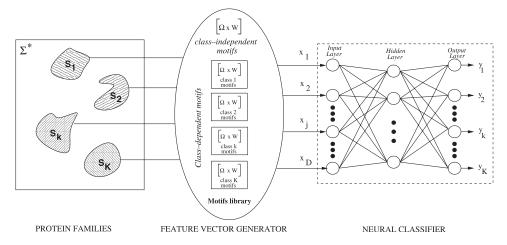


FIG. 1. The architecture of the proposed classification scheme.

position weight matrix (PWM_j) that follows a multinomial character distribution. Each column (l) of the matrix corresponds to a position l in the motif sequence $(l=1,\ldots,W_j)$, where the column elements provide the probability of each character of the alphabet $p_{\alpha_{\xi},l}$ $(\xi=1,\ldots,\Omega)$ to appear in that position.

Let $s_p = a_{p,1} \dots a_{p,W_j}$ denote a segment of a sequence S beginning at position p and ending at position $p + W_j - 1$. This represents a subsequence of length W_j . Totally, there are $L - W_j + 1$ such subsequences for a sequence S of length L. Then, we can define the probability that s_p matches the motif M_j , or alternatively, has been generated by the model PWM_j corresponding to that motif, using the following equation:

$$P(s_p|M_j) = \prod_{l=1}^{W_j} p_{a_{p,l},l} . {1}$$

A major advantage of using the probabilistic matrix PWM_j is the ability to compute the corresponding position-specific score matrix $(PSSM_j)$ in order to score a sequence. The $PSSM_j$ is a log-odds matrix calculating the logarithmic ratio $r_{\alpha_{\xi},l}$ of the probabilities $p_{\alpha_{\xi},l}$ suggested by the PWM_j and the corresponding general relative frequencies of aminoacids $\rho_{\alpha_{\xi}}$ in the family¹. According to the definition of $PSSM_j$, the score value $f_j(s_p)$ of a subsequence s_p of a sequence S can be defined as

$$f_j(s_p) = \sum_{l=1}^{W_j} \log \left(\frac{p_{a_{p,l},l}}{\rho_{a_{p,l}}} \right) = \sum_{l=1}^{W_j} r_{a_{p,l},l} . \tag{2}$$

At the sequence level, the score value of a protein sequence S against a motif M_j can be determined as the maximum value among all scores of the possible subsequences of S, i.e.,

$$f_j(S) = \max_{1 \le p \le L - W_j + 1} f_j(s_p).$$
 (3)

It must be noted that it is possible to adopt other definitions for scoring a sequence, such as setting scores below a certain threshold equal to zero (Bailey and Gribskov, 1998).

If we assume that we have discovered a group of D motifs in the set of sequences S, we can generate a D-dimensional numerical feature space and map each sequence S_i into a vector \mathbf{x}_i in the D-dimensional feature space by calculating the score values $x_{ij} = f_j(S_i)$ (j = 1, ..., D) for each of the D motif models.

¹The general relative frequencies of amino acids indicate the background information in a protein family and can be presented as a probabilistic vector ρ of size $\Omega = 20$.

3.2. Finding probabilistic motifs in protein sequences

Several approaches have been proposed for discovering probabilistic motifs in a set of unaligned biological sequences. CONSENSUS (Hertz and Stormo, 1999), the Gibbs sampler (Lawrence *et al.*, 1993), and MEME (Bailey and Elkan, 1994) are examples of such methods that identify multiple shared motifs in protein families. We have selected the MEME approach for the motif identification component of our strategy, since it has been widely used in biological applications and directly extracts position-specific score matrices. Below, we briefly describe this algorithm and propose two ways to integrate it in our classification system.

The MEME algorithm follows an iterative procedure, which applies at each iteration a two-component mixture model to discover one motif of length W. In the two-component model, one component describes the motif (ungapped common subsequences of length W) while the other component models the background information. Multiple motifs can be found by sequentially fitting the two-component model to the set of sequences that remain after removing the sequences containing occurrences of the already identified motifs.

In particular, MEME (Bailey and Elkan, 1994) uses the Expectation Maximization (EM) algorithm (Dempster *et al.*, 1977) to maximize the log-likelihood function of the two-component mixture model, i.e., to estimate the elements of the corresponding position weight matrix². Furthermore, MEME provides a strategy for locating efficient initial parameter values in order to prevent the EM algorithm from getting stuck in local optima (Bailey and Elkan, 1994). The D motif models PWM_j ($j=1,\ldots,D$) discovered by MEME can be of either fixed or variable length W_j . In our experimental studies, both types of motifs will be examined to evaluate the impact of this decision on the performance of the neural classifier.

In order to discover a group of motifs from a multiclass training set of sequences (containing sequences of K classes), two alternative approaches can be followed. The first approach is to apply the MEME algorithm K times, *separately* to the training sequences of each protein family. Then, putting all the discovered K family profiles together, we can form the final group of D motifs. An alternative approach is to apply the motif-discovery algorithm only once to the total training set S, ignoring class labels. In this way, we do not allow the algorithm to directly create K protein family profiles, but rather to discover D class-independent motifs.

The advantage of the second approach is the ability of taking into account local similarity measurements in the whole training set, without restricting the search procedure to a single class. Therefore, possible partial homologies among sequences from different families can be defined that may prove helpful for the classification task. On the other hand, a disadvantage of the class-independent approach is that the *D* discovered motifs may not be equally distributed among the *K* families. This may result in insufficient modeling of some families, thus leading to performance deterioration. During experiments, both motif-discovery strategies will be considered and evaluated.

3.3. Construction of a neural classifier

After discovering D motifs and constructing the D-dimensional feature space, the last stage in our methodology is to implement and train a feed-forward neural network that will be able to map the input vectors into the protein classes of interest. A typical network architecture is illustrated in Fig. 1. To construct the neural classifier, we use the training set $\mathbf{X} = \{\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{t}_i\}$, $i = 1, \ldots, N$ consisting of positive examples \mathbf{x}_i from the set of K protein families. The target vector \mathbf{t}_i is a binary vector of size K indicating the class label of input \mathbf{x}_i ; i.e., $t_{ik} = 1$ if \mathbf{x}_i corresponds to a sequence S_i belonging to class k, and 0 otherwise. The output of the classifier is represented by the K-dimensional vector \mathbf{y}_i where component y_{ik} corresponds to class k. Based on this scheme, the predicted class $h(\mathbf{x}_i)$ of an unlabeled feature vector \mathbf{x}_i corresponding to a query sequence S_i is given by the index of the output node with the largest value y_{ic} ; i.e.,

$$h(\mathbf{x}_i) = c : y_{ic} = \max_{1 \le k \le K} y_{ik} . \tag{4}$$

²The model used in our experiments assumes that there are zero or more nonoverlapping occurrences of the motif in each sequence of the dataset. Alternative models that can be used are the exactly one-occurrence-per-sequence and the zero-or-one-occurrence-per-sequence models.

Setting a threshold value $\theta \in [0, 1]$, we can restrict the classifiers' decision to only those input vectors whose maximum output value surpasses this threshold. In this case, we can write

$$h(\mathbf{x}_i, \theta) = c : y_{ic} = \max_{1 \le k \le K} y_{ik} \wedge y_{ic} \ge \theta . \tag{5}$$

Parameter θ can be used to specify the sensitivity of the classifier.

In order to train the neural network, we used the Gauss-Newton Bayesian Regularization (GNBR) learning algorithm (Foresse and Hagan, 1997). This algorithm applies Bayesian regularization and implements a Gauss-Newton approximation to the Hessian matrix of the objective function.

In the Bayesian regularization framework, the objective function is formulated as the weighted sum of two terms: the sum of the squared errors (E_X) and the sum of squares of the network weights (E_W) . Using Bayes' rule, the posterior probability distribution for the weights \mathbf{w} of the network given a training set \mathbf{X} can be written as follows:

$$P(\mathbf{w}|\mathbf{X}) = \frac{P(\mathbf{X}|\mathbf{w})P(\mathbf{w})}{P(\mathbf{X})}.$$
 (6)

By properly choosing the prior distribution $P(\mathbf{w})$ and the likelihood function $P(\mathbf{X}|\mathbf{w})$, we can obtain the following expression (Bishop, 1995; Foresse and Hagan, 1997) for the posterior distribution:

$$P(\mathbf{w}|\mathbf{X}) = \frac{1}{Z_F} \exp(-\beta E_X - \alpha E_W) = \frac{1}{Z_F} \exp(-F(\mathbf{w})), \tag{7}$$

where the Z_F corresponds to the normalizing factor that is independent of the weights.

Maximizing the above posterior distribution is equivalent to minimizing the regularized objective function $F(\mathbf{w})$:

$$F(\mathbf{w}) = \frac{\beta}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{N_X} \{ \mathbf{y}_i - \mathbf{t}_i \}^2 + \frac{\alpha}{2} \sum_{j=1}^{N_W} w_j^2 , \qquad (8)$$

where N_X and N_W represent the number of input vectors and network parameters, respectively. In order to estimate the normalizing factor Z_F , a Gaussian approximation can be used for the posterior distribution (MacKay, 1992) as obtained by the Taylor expansion of function $F(\mathbf{w})$ around the minimum value of the posterior, \mathbf{w}_{MP} . This gives the following estimation (Bishop, 1995):

$$Z_E^*(\alpha, \beta) = \exp(-F(\mathbf{w}_{MP}))(2\pi)^{N_W/2}|\mathbf{H}|^{-1/2}, \qquad (9)$$

where **H** corresponds to the Hessian matrix of the regularized objective function and, therefore, optimal values for parameters α and β at the minimum point \mathbf{w}_{MP} can be computed as follows:

$$\hat{\alpha} = \frac{\gamma}{2E_W(\mathbf{w}_{MP})} \text{ and } \hat{\beta} = \frac{\gamma N_X}{2E_X(\mathbf{w}_{MP})}.$$
 (10)

The quantity γ represents the effective number of network parameters \mathbf{w} and can be defined using the eigenvalues of H^{-1} as $\gamma = N_W - 2\alpha \mathrm{Tr} \mathbf{H}^{-1}$. In cases where the number of effective parameters is equal to the actual ones ($\gamma \approx N_W$), more hidden units must be added to the network. Furthermore, the GNBR algorithm follows a Gauss–Newton approximation method (Foresse and Hagan, 1997) for calculating the Hessian matrix of $F(\mathbf{w})$ at the minimum point \mathbf{w}_{MP} , using the Levenberg–Marquardt optimization algorithm (Bishop, 1995). It must be noted that in our experiments, the best results for the GNBR algorithm were obtained by scaling the network inputs in the range [-1, 1].

4. EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

Several experiments were conducted to evaluate the proposed method. The classification accuracy was measured by counting the sensitivity and specificity rates. In all *K*-class classification problems, each

Problem: PROSITE 1 $(K = 6)$		Problem: PROSITE 2 $(K = 7)$			
PROSITE family	Positive data	Training set (avg length of seqs)	PROSITE family	Positive data	Training set (avg length of seqs)
PS00030	302	20 (370)	PS00070	129	15 (558)
PS00038	289	20 (359)	PS00077	155	15 (502)
PS00061	317	20 (299)	PS00118	168	15 (127)
PS00198	300	20 (284)	PS00180	123	15 (408)
PS00211	574	30 (478)	PS00215	123	15 (321)
PS00301	386	20 (517)	PS00217	148	15 (490)
			PS00338	173	15 (212)

TABLE 1. THE TWO PROSITE FAMILIES USED IN THE EXPERIMENTAL STUDY

protein family S_k (k = 1, ..., K) was randomly partitioned into training and test sequences, with the training set being only a small percentage (5–10%) of the family dataset. Using the training datasets, experiments have been carried out using the MEME algorithm to discover groups of motifs. Two cases were considered: in the first case, the MEME algorithm has been applied separately to each training set providing a group of $D_k = 5$ class-dependent motifs for each family S_k . In the second case, the MEME algorithm was applied only once to the total training dataset (ignoring the class labels) to provide a group of $D = 5 \times K$ class-independent motifs.

In any case, the obtained final group of D motifs were used to transform each sequence of the dataset into a dataset with numerical D-dimensional feature vectors, denoted \mathbf{X}_s for the class-dependent case and \mathbf{X}_g for the class-independent case. Furthermore, we also experimented with the effect of the length W of the discovered motifs to the performance of the proposed classifier, by applying the MEME algorithm with either fixed or variable motif length. We selected W = 20 for the first case and the range [10, 30] for the second case. In summary, we have considered four distinct cases considering the application of MEME: discovering either class-dependent or class-independent motifs with either fixed or variable motif length. Therefore, for each classification problem, four distinct neural classifiers will be constructed and tested.

To evaluate classification performance, ROC (receiver operating characteristic) analysis was used. More specifically, we used the ROC_{50} curve which is a plot of the sensitivity as a function of false positives for various decision threshold values until 50 false positives are found.

For our experimental study, three real datasets were selected. In particular we have used protein families from the PROSITE database (Hofmann $et\ al.$, 1999), which is a large collection of protein families together with their characteristic (deterministic) motifs. Two datasets with K=6 (PROSITE 1) and K=7 (PROSITE 2) classes from the PROSITE database (Hofmann $et\ al.$, 1999) were selected, summarized in Table 1. Moreover, experiments have also been conducted on a dataset of G-protein coupled receptors (GPCR) (Horn $et\ al.$, 1998), that is, a superfamily of cell membrane proteins. The GPCR database is hierarchically classified into five major classes and their subfamilies (Horn $et\ al.$, 1998). We studied the problem of classifying subfamilies within the class A, since it dominates the whole GPCR database. As indicated by Karchin $et\ al.$ (2002), the difficulty of recognizing GPCR subfamilies arises from the fact that the classification of the subfamilies has been made based on chemical properties rather than sequence homology. Therefore, members from different subfamilies may share strong homology, thus making their discrimination hard. Among 15 subfamilies consisting of class A, seven of them have been selected in our experimental study described in Table 2. The remaining eight subfamilies are of very small size, and it is difficult to construct an effective system for their discrimination. Details of the three datasets (family/subfamily names and their protein ID's) used in our experiments are given in the appendix.

4.1. Local versus global features

In this series of experiments, we assessed the impact of using 2-grams (background features) on the performance of the proposed classification scheme. For a sequence S_i with length L_i , we define the feature

³Experiments with a greater number of motifs did not yield better classification performance.

Problem: $GPCR (K = 7)$			
GPCR Class A subfamily	Positive data	Training set (avg length of seqs)	
Amine	306	20 (485)	
Peptide	654	30 (383)	
Hormone	43	10 (378)	
Rhodopsin	270	20 (358)	
Olfactory	325	20 (317)	
Prostanoid	43	10 (721)	
Nucleotide-like	58	10 (348)	

Table 2. Seven Families from the GPCR Class A Used in the Experimental Study

value g_{iq} for each 2-gram q with respect to this sequence as

$$g_{iq} = \frac{\mathcal{N}(q|S_i)}{L_i - 1} , \qquad (11)$$

where $\mathcal{N}(q|S_i)$ denotes the number of occurrence of the 2-gram feature q in the sequence S_i . Obviously, the above equation gives the relative frequency of a 2-gram feature in a sequence. In a training set $\mathbf{S} = \{S_1, S_2, \ldots, S_N\}$ of N sequences, we can ignore *redundant* 2-grams and consider only the N_g features g_{iq} that correspond to the most frequently occurring 2-grams. We select the N_g 2-grams occurring in at least half of the training sequences and by computing the corresponding g_{iq} ($q = 1, \ldots, N_g$) values for each sequence S_i , we construct the corresponding feature vectors to be fed in the neural classifier.

Table 3 presents the dimensionality of the feature spaces obtained using 2-grams and motifs for each dataset used in the experiments. It must be noted that we can further reduce the dimensionality of the 2-gram feature vectors using standard dimension reduction techniques, such as principal component analysis (PCA).

To assess the impact of the several feature types on the performance of the classification system, we have considered five different datasets:

- X_s : D motif-based features separately identified for each family (class-dependent),
- X_g : D motif-based class-independent features,
- $\mathbf{X_s} \cup \mathbf{G}$: D motif-based class-dependent features along with N_g 2-gram features,
- $\mathbf{X_g} \cup \mathbf{G}$: D motif-based class-independent features, along with N_g 2-gram features
- **G**: N_g 2-gram features.

The neural network architecture had one hidden layer of either 10 (for the cases X_s and X_g) or 20 nodes (for the other three cases).

Figure 2 displays the ROC₅₀ curves obtained after training the five neural classifiers in each of the three classification problems, respectively. For each problem, two different graphs are presented concerning

Table 3. The Number of the Extracted Motif-Based (D) and 2-Gram (N_g) Features that Corresponds to Each Dataset

Problem	N_g 2-gram features	D motif-based features
PROSITE 1	174	$5 \times 6 = 30$
PROSITE 2	285	$5 \times 7 = 35$
GPCR	152	$5 \times 7 = 35$

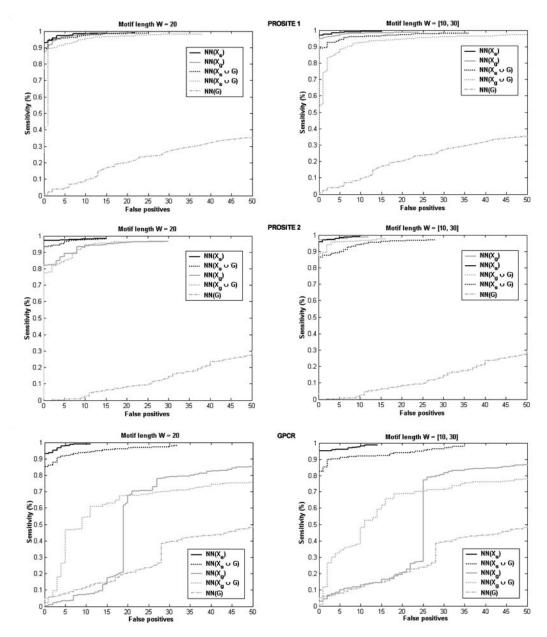
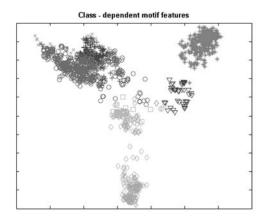


FIG. 2. ROC $_{50}$ curves illustrating the performance of the neural classifier on the three datasets using the five different feature vectors.

motifs of fixed length (W=20) and of variable length $W \in [10,30]$. Obviously, motif-based features themselves constitute an excellent source of information able to generate significant features and lead to the construction of efficient classifiers. In all cases, the neural networks trained by mixed features (e.g., $NN(X_s \cup G)$) exhibit lower classification accuracy compared to the corresponding classifier trained with only motif-based features (e.g., $NN(X_s)$). Furthermore, the 2-grams features alone (case NN(G)) do not seem to contain significant discriminant information.

Another observation that can be made from the ROC_{50} curves in Fig. 2 is related to the performance of the neural classifier with class-dependent motifs (network $NN(\mathbf{X}_s)$) compared to that obtained with class-independent motifs (network $NN(\mathbf{X}_g)$). In almost all cases, we obtained better classification results with the network $NN(\mathbf{X}_s)$. One explanation for this behavior is that, when searching for a specific number D of motifs in the whole training set (ignoring class labels), the algorithm may focus on some of the families



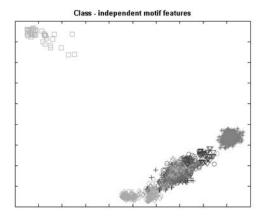


FIG. 3. The seven class regions in the GPCR dataset in the case of class-dependent and class-independent features. The data have been projected in two dimensions using PCA.

and leave the other families explored only partially. This possibly affects the satisfactory modeling of some families, since the discovered class-independent motifs may not be sufficient for describing them (only a few individual motifs are dedicated to this family). Experiments in the \mathbf{X}_g datasets with MEME have shown that the allocation of motifs in most cases was not equal for all the K families.

An example is shown in Fig. 3 that illustrates the constructed feature space of the X_s and X_g datasets in the case of the GPCR problem (seven classes), after projecting the 35-dimensional numerical to a two-dimensional space using PCA. It can be observed that in the case of class-dependent motifs the protein classes exhibit less overlap while in the reduced feature space of class-independent motifs there is a significant overlapping among class regions, thus making the discrimination harder. A selection of higher values of D probably would lead to better results for the class-independent case, but would simultaneously result in larger feature spaces or to the overestimation of some families.

4.2. Comparison with other approaches

We have also compared the neural classifier (with class-dependent motif-based features) with two other protein classification methods, namely, the MAST homology detection algorithm (Bailey and Gribskov, 1998) and the profile HMMs built using SAM, (Hughey and Krogh, 1996). In both MAST and SAM, each protein family (or subfamily) is transformed (indirectly or directly) into a probabilistic model-profile, and the test sequences are classified using the class of the profile with the best score value.

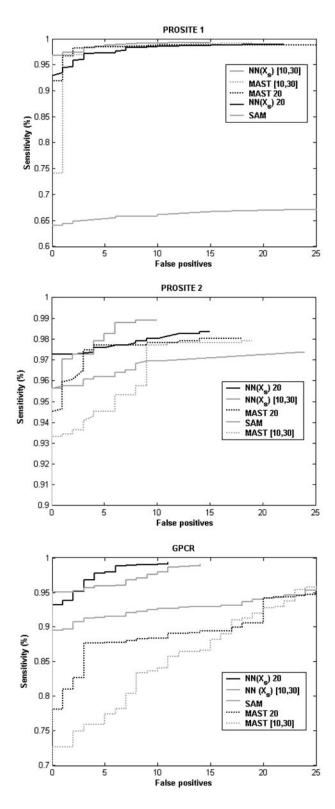
More specifically, the MAST procedure (Bailey and Gribskov, 1998) initially uses the MEME algorithm to discover groups of motifs separately for each one of the K protein families. For each sequence in the testing set, the MAST algorithm combines the calculated p-values and estimates the significance of the observed match (called E-value) of the sequence to each of the K groups of motifs. Then the query sequence is assigned to the class with the minimum E-value. The SAM method (Hughey and Krogh, 1996) works in a similar way by building an HMM for each one of the K protein families (or subfamilies) instead of discovering groups of motifs.

Figure 4 provides comparative results from the application of the proposed neural classifier, MAST and SAM, to the three datasets. We have created five ROC curves for each method (number of false positives versus sensitivity for several threshold values) until 25 false positives were found (ROC₂₅). The performance of the neural classifier and MAST was given by two curves respectively⁶ concerning motifs of fixed (W = 20) and variable length (W = [10, 30]), while the last one corresponds to SAM performance.

⁴We use the *meme* and *mast* commands from the available MEME package v.3.0.4.

⁵We use the *buildmodel* and *hmmscore* commands from the available SAM package v.3.3.1.

 $^{^6}$ The curves for the neural classifier performance were the best plots from the corresponding ROC₅₀ diagrams in Fig. 2.



 $\textbf{FIG. 4.} \quad ROC_{25} \text{ curves for the three methods (neural (NN), MAST, and SAM) on the three datasets.}$

In the case of MAST and SAM methods, ROC curves were obtained by setting several *E*-value thresholds. When the lowest estimated *E*-value for a query sequence was greater than the threshold, then the test sequence was considered unclassified.

The superior classification of the proposed neural approach is obvious from the plotted curves in all problems, offering greater sensitivity rates with perfect specificity (zero false positives). For the GPCR dataset, which is more difficult to discriminate, the classification improvement is more clear: a sensitivity rate of 99.30% was measured with only 11 false positives, while the corresponding results for MAST and SAM are (95.76%, 25) and (95.38%, 25), respectively. It is also important to stress the higher accuracy that the neural scheme achieves compared with MAST (dot lines). Although these two methods use the same groups of motifs, our method seems to offer a more efficient scheme for combining the motif match scores compared to the combination of their *p*-values as suggested by MAST. In addition, the neural classifier achieves fewer false positives with higher sensitivity rates in all datasets concerning either fixed or variable motif length. Again, the improvement is more clear in the plots corresponding to the GPCR dataset.

Regarding more carefully the three selected datasets, they can be considered as three different types of protein sequence classification problems. In particular, the PROSITE 1 dataset consists of *diverse protein families* in the sense that their corresponding PROSITE motifs are not very specific (such as in the case of PS00030 and PS00198) and they can be found in sequences from a large number of protein families. Hence, this application can be seen as a diverse protein family recognition problem. On the other hand, the PROSITE 2 dataset consists of protein families with more specific PROSITE motifs that can be distinguished more easily. Finally, the third dataset, GPCR, is related to the recognition of protein subfamilies within a broader protein family domain sharing strong homology.

In all the above three types of protein sequences classification problems, our approach has shown a superior classification performance providing better results in comparison with the two other approaches. As illustrated in Fig. 4, the SAM method seems to be unsuccessful in recognizing diverse protein families (PROSITE 1 case), and the obtained classification rate was low (the individual classification error for each diverse family was about 50%). On the other hand, the performance of the MAST method was lower in the case of the GPCR subfamily recognition problem where sequences from different subfamilies share strong homology. Finally, in the case of recognizing simple protein families (PROSITE 2 dataset), all the three approaches provide similar classification rates, with the proposed neural scheme offering slightly better results.

5. CONCLUSIONS

In this paper, we have presented a neural network approach for the classification of protein sequences. The proposed methodology is motivated by the principle that in biological sequence analysis motifs can provide major diagnostic features for determining the class label of the unknown sequences. The method is implemented in two steps, where a preprocessing step (based on the MEME algorithm) is initially applied for discovering a group of probabilistic motifs appearing in the sequences. We have suggested and evaluated two alternative ways for motif discovery in a set of K-class sequences depending on whether the class labels are taken into account. Using the discovered motifs, a numerical feature vector is generated for each sequence by computing the matching score of the sequence to each motif. At the second stage of the proposed method, the extracted feature vectors are used as inputs to a feed-forward neural network trained using the Gauss–Newton Bayesian Regularization algorithm that provides the class label of a sequence.

Experiments were conducted on real datasets (using very small training sets), and comparisons were made with the MAST and SAM probabilistic methods. ROC curves were used as a performance indicator, and the experimental results clearly illustrate the superiority of the proposed neural system. In addition we have shown that background features do not constitute a useful source of information for the classification task since they do not lead to performance improvement.

In future work, more extensive experiments could be conducted to assess the performance of the method on specific protein superfamilies of important biological functions, as was the case with the GPCR dataset. Also, alternative methods could be implemented and tested, both in the classification stage (mixture models, SVMs, etc.) and in the motif discovery stage.

APPENDIX: DATASETS

In the next tables proteins with bold ID's correspond to the training examples and the rest of them to the test set.

Table 4. Description of the PROSITE 1 Dataset

Family	Protein ID's
PS00030	CB20-HUMAN GAR2-SCHPO HRB1-YEAST HS49-YEAST IF34-MOUSE NAB4-YEAST PAB3-ARATH RB27-DROME RN15-YEAST ROA1-MOUSE ROC3-NICSY RU17-HUMAN RU17-YEAST RU1A-DROME RU2B-HUMAN SFPQ-HUMAN U2AF-CAEEL U2AF-HUMAN U2AG-HUMAN A2BP-HUMAN A2BP-HUMAN A2BP-HUMAN A2BP-HUMAN A2BP-HUMAN CAC-A-DROME GE20-XENLA GC79-HUMAN PM14-MOUSE CIRP-HUMAN CIPP-MOUSE CIRP-XENLA CPO-DROME CST2-HUMAN CSX1-SCHPO CTG1-ISCHPO CUG1-HUMAN CUG1-MOUSE CWF5-SCHPO CYPE-DROME CYPE-HUMAN CYPE-MOUSE D111-ARATH ELAV-DROME ELAV-DROVI ELV1-HUMAN ELV1-MOUSE ELV2-HUMAN ELV3-MOUSE ELV3-HUMAN ELV3-MOUSE ELV4-HUMAN ELV3-MOUSE ELV3-HUMAN ELV3-MOUSE ELV4-HUMAN ELV3-MOUSE GB2-HUMAN GBP3-MOUSE GBBP-HUMAN GBP3-MOUSE GBBP-HUMAN GBP3-MOUSE GBBP-HUMAN GBP3-MOUSE GBBP-HUMAN GBP3-SORBI GRP3-SORBI GBP3-ARATH GBP3-ARATH GBP4-MOUSE SINS1-YEAST LAGA-EBL 1E33-HUMAN 1E34-SCHPO 1E34-YEAST 1E39-HUMAN 1E34-SCHPO 1E34-YEAST 1E39-HUMAN 1E34-SCHPO 1E34-YEAST 1E39-HUMAN 1E34-SCHPO 1E34-YEAST 1E39-HUMAN 1E34-SCHPO 1E34-YEAST 1E34-HUMAN 1E34-SCHPO 1E34-YEAST 1E34-SCHPO 1E34-SCHPO 1E34-YEAST 1E34-SCHPO 1E34-YEAST 1E34-SCHPO 1E34-YEAST 1E34-SCHPO 1E34-YEAST 1E34-SCHPO 1E34-SCHPO 1E34-SCHPO 1E34-SCHPO 1
PS00038	AHR-RAT ARRS-MAIZE CBF1-YEAST DA-DROME ESM7-DROME HEN2-MOUSE HES3-MOUSE MAD4-MOUSE MITF-RAT MXII-BRARE MYC-HYLLA MYF6-HUMAN MYOD-BRARE NDF1-MESAU SINI-MOUSE TAL2-MOUSE TAL2-MOUSE TAL2-MOUSE TAL3-MOUSE ARL2-MOUSE ARL3-MOUSE BEST-MESAU BMAL-HUMAN CHI-KLULA CLOC-DROME CLOC-HUMAN CLOC-MOUSE CYCL-DROME DELPROME DPN. BROME EMC-DROME ESCI-S-CHPO ESM3-DROME ESM1-DROME ESM1-DROME ESM1-DROME ESM1-DROME ESM1-DROME HARL3-MOUSE ARL3-MOUSE HESS-MOUSE HESS-MOUSE HESS-MOUSE HESS-MOUSE HESS-RAT
PS00061	28HD-STREX ADH2-DROMN ADH-DROMA ADH-DROMM ADH-DROSL DECR-RAT DHB7-RAT DHGA-BACME DHG-BACSU DHI2-RABIT DHI2-SHEEP DHK2- STRVN ENTA-EOLI MASI-AGRT9 PGDH-HUMAN Y019-THEMA YAEB-SCHPO YF33-MYCTU WYC4-CAEEL OXIR-STRAT 25KD-SARPE 3BHD-COMTE ACT3-STRCO ADH1-DROMA DH1-DROMM ADH1-DROMM ADH1-DROMM ADH1-DROMM ADH1-DROMA ADH2-DROMA ADH3-DROMA ADH3-DROM

(continued)

Table 4. (Continued)

Family	Protein ID's
PS00198	DHSB-CYACA DHSB-PARDE DHSB-RICCN FER3-PLEBO FER-ALIAC FER-CLOST FIX3-RHIME FIXX-BRAJA HMC6-DESVH MAUM-METEX NIFJ-ECOLI NUIC-ARATH NUIM-NEUCR PORD-METIA PSAC-ORYSA RNFB-PASMU RNFC-ECOST Y208-METJA YDD9-METJA YFHL-ECOLI AEGA-ECOLI ASRA-SALTY ASRC-SALTY COOF-RHORU DCAI-METMA DCA2-METMA DCMA-METJA DCMA-METJO DCMA-METTE DCMA-METTH DCMG-METTE DHSB-SCHPO DHSB-BACSU DHSB-CASEL DHSB-CHOCR DHSB-COXBU DHSB-DOMDE DHSB-ECOLI DHSB-HUMAN DHSB-PORPU DHSB-BACT DHSB-SECAM DHSS-RICPR DHSS-SCHPO DHSB-USST MAD HISB-YEAST DMSB-ECOLI DMSB-HAEIN DPYD-BOVIN DPYD-CAEEL DPYD-HUMAN DPYD-PIG DSRB-ARCFU DSVB-DESGI DSVB-DESVH FOHB-METTO FDHB-METT FOHB-METTE FOHB-MUSLSU FONH-ECOLI FDNH-HAEIN FONN-ANSP FDNX-ANZOCH FDNN-BRAJA FDNX-RHILET FONN-RHIME FONN-RHIME FDNN-RHIME F
PS00211	ABC2-HUMAN APPD-BACSU FTSE-HAEIN HISP-SALTY KSTI-ECOLI LCCL-LACLA LMRA-LACLC LOLD-BUCAI MILB-BUCAI MILM-MYCTU MODC-HAEIN MRP2-RABIT NIKD-ECOLI NODI-AZOCA NODI-RIISIN NOSE-PSEST INTD-SYNY3 OPPF-LACLA OPPF-MYCHN POTA-MYCGE RFBB-MYXAX SUFC-ECOLI UVRA-BRUIAB UVRA-STRUU VEAC-SALTY HITH TANOAL YASH CLIHN Y198-MITTA 1JIK-HAEIN YNDL-BACSU APPF-RIILV ABIT-HAUMAN ABCAMUSE ABIT-SUFF ARCADINA ABIT-MUUNA ABCAMUSE ABIT-SUFF ABIT ABIT-RAT ABC-HUMAN ABCI-MUUSE ABIT-SUFF ABIT ABIT-RAT ABC-HUMAN ABCI-MUUSE ABIT-SUFF ABIT ABIT-RAT ABC-HUMAN ABCI-MUUSE ABC-HUMAN ABCI-MUUSE ABC-HUMAN ABCI-MUUSE ABC-HUMAN ABC-AHUNGA ABCR-HUMAN ABC-MUUSE ABC-HUMAN ABC-AHUNGA ABCR-HUMAN ABC-MUUSE ABC-HUMAN A

(continued)

Table 4. (Continued)

Family	
PS00301 CY MY MY MY SCC SCC SCC SCC SCC SCC SCC SCC SCC SC	ISN.RHITR CYSN-XYLFA EFIA-ARCFU EFIA-DICDI EFIA.SULSO EFIS-PORPU EF2-CHICK EF2-MESAU EFTU-CHLTR EFTU-FERIS EFTU-GRALE EFTU-YCPN EFTU-NEPOL EFTU-TOBAC EFTU-XYLFA LEPA-MYCHY LEPA-MYCLE LEPA-MYCPN TETQ-PREIN TYPA-SYNY3 CYSN-BUCAI CYSN-ECOLI CYSN-CCTU CYSN-PSEAE CYSN-RHIME BEFI0-XERLA EFI2-CHORD EFI1-ABROADE EFI1-ABROADE EFI1-BROADE EFI1-HORVU

Table 5. Description of the PROSITE 2 Dataset

Family	Protein ID's
PS00070	DHAE-MACPR DHAX-HUMAN DHA1-BOVIN HPCC-ECOLI YHJ9-YEAST GABD-ECOLI MAOC-ECOLI DHA4-YEAST DHA3-BACSU DHA5-YEAST YLQ6-CAEEL DHAS-CHICK DHAM-BOVIN PUTZ-HUMAN MMSA-CAEEL ALDA-ECOLI ALDB-ECOLI ASTD-PSEAE CALB-CAUCR CALB-PSEAE
PS00077	COXI-THETH COXI-BACFI COXI-DIDMA COXI-ASCSU COXI-HORSE COXI-EPHEQ FIXN-AZOCA COXI-SYNVU COXI-CRION COXI-ALLMA AOXI-AERPE COXI-PEA COXI-RHOSH COXI-SOVBN COXI-PLABE COI3-THETH COI4-BRAIA COXI-ACACA COXI-ALBCO COXI-ALBTU COXI-AMICA COXI-ANAPL COXI-ANGA COXI-ANGA COXI-ANGA COXI-ANAPL COXI-ANGA COXI-ANGA COXI-ACACA COXI-CHOC COXI-BACPA COXI-BACPA COXI-BACPA COXI-BACPA COXI-BACPA COXI-BACPA COXI-BACPA COXI-BACPA COXI-CHOCA COXI-CHORA COXI-BACPA COXI-BACPA COXI-BACPA COXI-BACPA COXI-BACPA COXI-CHORA COXI-CHO
PS00118	PA21-NAJMO PA21-HORSE PA2H-BUNFA PA2E-PSEAU PA2C-CRODU PA2H-BOTJR PA2C-PSEAU PA2Z-HUMAN PA22-BUNMU PA23-NAJNG PA21-TRIGA PA21-ACAN PA21-BOTPI PA2X-RAT PA22-PIG OC90-CAVPO OC90-HUMAN OC90-MOUSE PA20-BUNNU PA20-NOTSC PA20-PSEAU PA21-AGKHA PA21-AGKHP PA21-AGKPI PA21-BOTAS PA21-BOTAN PA21-BUNNU PA23-AGKPI PA21-BUNNU PA23-BOTAS PA21-BUNNU PA24-BUNNU PA24-BUNNU PA24-BUNNU PA21-AGKPI PA22-AGKPI PA22-AGKPI PA22-AGKPI PA22-AGKPI PA22-AGKPI PA22-AGKPI PA22-AGKPI PA22-AGKPI PA22-AGKPI PA23-BOTAS PA23-
PS00180	GLNA-COLGL GLN4-PEA GLN2-DROME GLNA-HELPY GLNA-PANAR GLN3-RHILP GLN1-ARATH GLN5-MAIZE GLNA-PIG GLNA-PYRHO GLNA-THIFE GLNA-SALTY GLN3-PHAVU GLNA-NICPL GLN2-DAUCA GLN1-ALNGL GLN1-BRAJA GLN1-CHLRE GLN1-DAUCA GLN1-DROME GLN1-FRAAL GLN1-LOTIA GLN1-MAIZE GLN1-MEDSA GLN1-MYCTU GLN1-ORYSA GLN1-PEA GLN1-PHAVU GLN1-RHILU GLN1-RHIME GLN1-SOYBN GLN1-STRVR GLN1-STRVR GLN1-VITVI GLN2-ARATH GLN2-BRAJA GLN2-PHAVU GLN2-ARATH GLN2-BRAJA GLN2-PHAVU GLN2-RHIP GLN2-RHIME GLN2-SOYBN GLN2-STRYR GLN2-PHAVU GLN2-NBVITU GLN3-MEDSA GLN2-PHAVU GLN2-RHIP GLN2-RHIME GLN2-HIME GLN2-SOYBN GLN2-STRYR GLN2-PAGE GLN3-HORVU GLN3-HUPAN GLN3-MAIZE GLN3-MEDSA GLN3-ORYSA GLN3-PEA GLN3-RHIME GLN4-MAIZE GLN2-PHAVU GLNA-AGABI GLNA-HALNI GLNA-HALVO GLNA-HALNI GLNA-HALVO GLNA-HALNI GLNA-LACDE GLNA-LACDE GLNA-LACDE GLNA-LACDE GLNA-LACDE GLNA-LACDE GLNA-LACDE GLNA-HALVO GLNA-MOUSE GLNA-NEIGO GLNA-PSMU GLNA-PSWU GLNA-PSWU GLNA-PSWO GLNA-PSWO GLNA-RETH GLNA-METVO GLNA-MOUSE GLNA-SUQUE GLNA-SUUG GLNA-STUR GLNA-SCHPO GLNA-SUUG G

(continued)

Table 5. (Continued)

Family	Protein ID's
PS00215	UCPS-HUMAN ARI3-NEUCR SAI8-MOUSE YIA6-YEAST SHMI-YEAST ADTI-BOVIN ADT2-WHEAT UCP3-BOVIN M20M-RAT YAD8-SCHPO UCP1-MOUSE TXTP-HUMAN DNC-HUMAN ADT3-YEAST ADT3-HUMAN ADT1-ARATH ADT1-GOSHI ADT1-GOSHI ADT1-HUMAN ADT1-MAIZE ADT1-RAT ADT1-SOLTU ADT1-WHEAT ADT1-YEAST ADT3-SARATH ADT3-HUMAN ADT3-WAZE ADT3-ADVAN ADT3-NEURA ADT3-SOLTU ADT2-YEAST ADT3-SBOVIN ADT3-NOGA ADT5-HLE ADT5-HUMEA ADT5-PROME ADT5-KLULA ADT3-NEUCR ADT5-GRYSA ADT5-SCHPO BT1-MAIZE CG69-HUMAN CMC1-CAEEL CMC1-DROME CMC1-HUMAN CMC1-YEAST CMC2-CAEEL CMC2-HUMAN CMC2-MOUSE CMC3-CAEEL DIC-HUMAN DIC-MOUSE ECHP-MOUSE ELX1-YEAST GDC-BOVIN GDC-HUMAN GDC-RAT LEU5-YEAST M20M-BOVIN M20M-HUMAN M20M-MOUSE MC3-HUMAN MC4T-RAT MFT-HUMAN MPCP-BOVIN MPCP-CAEEL MPC7-CHOFU MPCP-HUMAN MPCP-RAT MPCP-YEAST MRS3-YEAST MRS4-YEAST ODC1-YEAST GDC2-YEAST ODC1-HUMAN ORT1-HUMAN ORT1-MOUSE DRT1-YEAST OTC2-HUMAN P47A-CANBO P47B-CANBO
PS00217	GTR1-RAT IOLF-BACSU CSBC-BACSU GTRS-HUMAN KHT2-KLULA PH84-YEAST NANT-ECOLI GHT3-SCHPO HUP1-CHLKE HGT1-CANAL GTR4-RAT GTR1-CHICK MMLH-ALCEU OUSA-ERWCH PHDK-NOCSK AGT1-YEAST ARAE-BACSU ARAE-ECOLI GHT3-SCHPO GHT9-SCHPO GT10-HUMAN GT10-HUMAN GT10-HUMAN GT11-HUMAN GT11
PS00338	SOMA-TRIVU PRICHICK PRIPAROL SOMA-MACMIU PRIMOUSE SOMA-ACALA PLI.2-MESAU SOMISIGGU SOMA-ESOLU SOM2-CARAU SOMA-CANFA PRISHEEP SOM2-HUMAN PRIHORSE SOMA-PANTR GHRI-RAT GHR3-RAT GHR4-RAT PLF1-MOUSE PLF2-MOUSE PLF3-MOUSE PLF3-MOUSE PLF3-MOUSE PLF1-BOVIN PLL1-MOUSE PLL1-RAT PLL2-BOVIN PLL2-ACT PLL4-RAT PLF1-HUMAN PLL-SHEEP PRL1-ALILM PRL1-CRONO PRL1-ONCKE PRL1-OREMO PRL2-ALIM PRL2-CRONO PRL2-ONCKE PRL2-OREMO PRL2-ALIM PRL2-CRONO PRL3-DAVIN PRL2-OREMO PRL2-ALIM PRL2-CRONO PRL3-ONCKE PRL1-OREMO PRL2-ALIM PRL2-CRONO PRL3-ONCKE PRL1-OREMO PRL2-ALIM PRL2-CRONO PRL3-ONCKE PRL1-OREMO PRL2-ALIM PRL2-CRONO PRL3-ONCKE PRL1-OREMO PRL3-DAVIN PRL3-DAVIN PRR1-BOVIN PRR2-BOVIN PRPA PRA1-PAND PRA1-AND PRR3-BOVIN PRPA BOVIN SOM2-ONCMY SOM2-ONCMY SOM2-ONCMY SOM2-ONCMY SOM2-PANTR SOM2-SPAAU SOMA-ACABU SOMA-ACABU SOMA-ANDAL SOMA-CORIA SOMA-CRONA SOMA-CRONA SOMA-CYPCA SOMA-BUBBU SOM

TABLE 6. DESCRIPTION OF THE GPCR DATASET

Subfamily	Protein ID's
Amine	SHIA-RAT SHIB-CAVPO SHIB-CRIGR SHIB-HUMAN SHIB-RABIT SHID-MOUSE 512A-CRIGR SH2A-MOUSE 51TB-DROME ACMI-DROME ACMI-PIG ACMI-MOUSE B2AR-MESAU BDDR XENLA HH2R-MOUSE O44198 O61232 OAR2-LOCMI SHIA-FUGRU SHIA-HUMAN SHIA-MOUSE SHIB-DIDMA SHIB-FUGRU SHIB-MOUSE SHIB-RAT SHIB-SPAEH SHID-CANFA SHID-CANFA SHID-CAVPO SHID-FUGRU SHID-MOUSE SHIB-RAT SHIB-SPAEH SHID-CANFA SHID-CANFA SHIB-FUGRU SHIB-MOUSE SHIB-RAT SHIB-SPAEH SHID-CANFA SHID-CANFA SHID-RABIT SHID-RAT SHIE-HUMAN SHIB-FUGRU SHIB-MOUSE SHIB-RAT SHIZ-HUMAN SHIZ-MACMU SH2A-PIG SH2A-RAT SH2B-HUMAN SH2D-MOUSE SH2B-RAT SH2C-HUMAN SH2C-MOUSE SH2C-RAT SH2C-AVPO SH4-HUMAN SH2A-MOUSE SH3FA-RAT SH3A-HUMAN SH3A-MOUSE SH3B-RAT SH3C-HUMAN SH2C-MOUSE SH3C-RAT SH2C-HUMAN SH3C-MOUSE SH3FA-RAT SH3A-HUMAN SH3A-MOUSE SH3FA-RAT SH3A-HUMAN SH3A-MOUSE SH3FA-RAT SH3A-HUMAN SH3A-MOUSE SH3FA-RAT SH3A-HUMAN SH3A-MOUSE SH3FA-RAT SH3A-RAT SH3C-AVPO SH3-HUMAN SH3A-MOUSE SH3FA-RAT SH3A-RAT SH3A-CAVPO AIA-HUMAN AIA-MOUSE AIA-RAT AIA-BOVIN AIA-CAVPO AIA-HUMAN AIA-MOUSE AIA-RAT AIA-RABT AIA-R

(continued)

Table 6. (Continued)

Subfamily	Protein ID's
Peptide	BBS-HUMAN CCR-HUMAN CKES-MACMIC CKB-TRAFR FML-MOUSE FML-PANTR (JPS-HUMA) RIS-PANTR ILS-PANTR ILS-PANTR ILS-PANTR ILS-PANTR ILS-PANTR ILS-PANTR HIS-PANTR HIS
Hormone	FSHR-EQUAS FSHR-SHEEP Q14751 Q98T84 Q9BG55 Q9DGC5 Q9DGC6 Q9I8N7 Q9I948 TSHR-BOVIN FSHR-BOVIN FSHR-CHICK FSHR-HORSE FSHR-HUMAN FSHR-MACFA FSHR-MOUSE FSHR-PIG FSHR-RAT LSHR-BOVIN LSHR-CALJA LSHR-HUMAN LSHR-MOUSE LSHR-PIG LSHR-RAT LSHR-SHEEP Q15996 Q27986 Q4183 Q98T85 Q98T84 Q9BG56 Q9BGN4 Q9D697 Q9DGF5 Q91949 Q9PVN9 Q9PVN0 Q9PVN16 TSHR-CANFA TSHR-HUMAN TSHR-MOUSE TSHR-RAT TSHR-SHEEP
Rhodopsin	057422 057447 OPSI-DROPS OPSB-SAIBB OPSD-ICTPU OPSD-MACEA OPSD-SARMI OPSD-SARSP OPSD-SHEEP OPSG-SCICA OPSR-FELCA OPSV-CHICK Q90226 Q98UJ5 Q9GU63 Q9IB87 Q9PTX9 Q9PUE9 Q9UAM9 Q9W669 002464 002465 046554 057448 057605 061473 061474 062860 070363 076123 076124 076125 O96107 079701 OPSI-SHUMAN OPSI-MOUSE OPSI-LAWNO OPSI-CALVI OPSI-DROME OPSI-DROME OPSI-LAWNO OPSI-PATYE OPSI-SCHERG OPSI-DROME OPSI-D
Olfactory	O1C1-HUMAN O70266 O70270 O8B8-HUMAN OLF1-CANFA OLF6-CHICK OLF6-RAT Q9EQB2 Q9H340 Q9H341 Q918B8 Q918C2 Q918Z2 Q918Z8 Q91BD9 Q9PSU4 Q9PVU6 Q9QZ19 Q9TU89 Q9UDD9 GU27-RAT O1G36 G10.1-HUMAN O1D2-HUMAN O1D2-HUMAN O1D1-HUMAN O1E1-HUMAN O1E1-HUMAN O1E1-HUMAN O1E1-HUMAN O1E1-HUMAN O1E1-HUMAN O1E1-HUMAN O1E1-HUMAN O2E1-HUMAN O2

(continued)

Table 6. (Continued)

Subfamily	Protein ID's
Prostanoid	O00326 PD2R-MOUSE PE22-MOUSE PE23-BOVIN PE23-HUMAN PE23-RABIT PF2R-MOUSE PI2R-BOVIN Q9R261 TA2R-BOVIN 000325 015191 035932 046657 075228 PD2R-HUMAN PE21-HUMAN PE21-HOUSE PE21-RAT PE22-CANFA PE22-HUMAN PE22-RAT PE23-RAT PE23-RAT PE23-RAT PE24-HUMAN PE24-MOUSE PE24-RABIT PE24-RAT PF2R-BOVIN PF2R-HUMAN PF2R-RAT PF2R-SHEEP PI2R-HUMAN PI2R-MOUSE PI2R-RAT Q9BGL8 Q9D627 Q9TU16 TA2R-CERAE TA2R-HUMAN TA2R-MOUSE TA2R-RAT
Nucleotide-like	AAIR-BOVIN AAIR-RAT AA2A-RAT O57466 P2Y3-MELGA P2Y6-HUMAN P2YR-RAT Q99MT6 Q9ERK9 Q9H1C0 AAIR-CANFA AAIR-CAVPO AAIR-CHICK AAIR-HUMAN AAIR-RABIT AA2A-CANFA AA2A-CAVPO AA2A-HUMAN AA2A-MOUSE AA2B-CHICK AA2B-HUMAN AA2B-MOUSE AA2B-RAT AA3R-CANFA AA3R-RAHUMAN AA3R-RABIT AA3R-RAT AA3R-SHEEP GPRZ-HUMAN GPRZ-MOUSE 000398 008766 035811 P2UR-HUMAN P2UR-MOUSE P2UR-RAT P2Y3-CHICK P2Y4-HUMAN P2Y6-RAT P2Y8-XENLA P2Y9-HUMAN P2YR-BOVIN P2YR-CHICK P2YR-HUMAN P2YR-BUZ P2Y8-XENLA P2Y9-HUMAN P2YR-BOVIN P2YR-CHICK P2YR-HUMAN P2YR-MELGA P2YR-MOUSE Q9BXA5 Q9BXC1 Q9BYU4 Q9CPZ4 Q9DE05 Q9JJS7 Q9N1U0 Q9PU18 Q9R202 Q9W6C4

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