Accepted Manuscript



This is an *Accepted Manuscript*, which has been through the Royal Society of Chemistry peer review process and has been accepted for publication.

Accepted Manuscripts are published online shortly after acceptance, before technical editing, formatting and proof reading. Using this free service, authors can make their results available to the community, in citable form, before we publish the edited article. We will replace this Accepted Manuscript with the edited and formatted Advance Article as soon as it is available.

You can find more information about *Accepted Manuscripts* in the **Information for Authors**.

Please note that technical editing may introduce minor changes to the text and/or graphics, which may alter content. The journal's standard <u>Terms & Conditions</u> and the <u>Ethical guidelines</u> still apply. In no event shall the Royal Society of Chemistry be held responsible for any errors or omissions in this *Accepted Manuscript* or any consequences arising from the use of any information it contains.



www.rsc.org/molecularbiosystems

1	GPCRserver: an accurate and novel G protein-coupled receptor
2	predictor
3	
4 5 6 7 8	Renxiang Yan ^{a,} *, Xiaofeng Wang ^b , Lanqing Huang ^a , Jun Lin ^a , Weiwen Cai ^a and Ziding Zhang ^b
9	^a Institute of Applied Genomics, School of Biological Sciences and Engineering,
10	Fuzhou University, Fuzhou 350002, China
11	^b State Key Laboratory of Agrobiotechnology, College of Biological Sciences, China
12	Agricultural University, Beijing 100193, China
13 14 15	
16	*Corresponding author (E: <u>yanrenxiang@fzu.edu.cn</u> ; T/F: +86 591 22866273)
17	
18	Running title: Prediction of GPCRs
19	
20	
21	
22	
24	
25	
26	
27	
28	
29	
30	
31	
32	
33	
34 25	
36	

Molecular BioSystems Accepted Manuscrip

1 ABSTRACT

G protein coupled receptors (GPCRs), also known as seven-transmembrane domain receptors, pass through the cellar membrane seven times and play diverse biological roles in the cells such as signaling, transporting of molecules and cell-cell communication. In this work, we develop a web server, namely GPCRserver, which is capable of identifying GPCRs from genomic sequences, and locating their transmembrane regions. The GPCRserver contains three modules: (1) Trans-GPCR for transmembrane regions prediction by using sequence evolutionary profiles with the assistance of neural network training, (2) SSEA-GPCR for identifying GPCRs from genomic data by using secondary structure element alignment, and (3) PPA-GPCR for identifying GPCRs by using profile-to-profile alignment. Our predictor was strictly benchmarked and showed its favorable performance in the real application. The web server and stand-alone programs are publicly available at http://genomics.fzu.edu.cn/GPCR/index.html.

- ~-

Page 3 of 21

1 INTRODUCTION

G protein-coupled receptor (GPCR) is a major transmembrane (TM) protein type in 2 the cellular membrane and plays critical roles in a wide variety of biological processes, 3 including homeostasis modulation¹, cell growth² and transporting of small molecules 4 ³. GPCRs are also important to humans. The human genome encodes thousands of 5 GPCRs⁴, and, moreover, it is estimated that a large number of drugs in the market are 6 designed to regulate the mechanism involved in GPCRs ⁵. GPCRs are referred to as 7 seven-TM receptors according to the fact that all existing GPCRs contain seven-TM 8 α -helices with loops connecting them. Determination of the three-dimensional (3D) 9 structures is a direct way to decipher their biological functions. Unfortunately, it is 10 very time-consuming, and requires amazing funding and extensive efforts to obtain 11 12 crystals of GPCRs. Compared with globular proteins, it is much more difficult to determine 3D structures of GPCRs. Due to experimental difficulties, the existing 13 GPCR structures are very limited. For example, although there are more than 90000 14 protein structures deposited in the PDB database⁶, the existing 3D structures of 15 GPCRs in the PDB are only ~100 at the time of March, 2014, and the non-redundant 16 17 structures of GPCRs are much fewer. Considering the limitations of GPCR structural determination using wet experiments, it is of great need to develop accurate and 18 high-throughput GPCR prediction methods. 19

20

Currently, there exist two major tasks to the computational study of GPCRs. One is to 21 identify GPCRs from genome-wide sequences; the other is to locate TM regions of 22 23 GPCR candidates. The low sequence similarities among some GPCRs, especially the 24 existence of orphan GPCRs, hampers their identification by classical sequence-to-sequence alignments, such as BLAST ⁷. Thus, the community needs 25 specific GPCR prediction and identification programs. The past two decades have 26 been witnessing exciting advances of a couple of such bioinformatics methods. In 27 general, a sliding window centered at the target residue is excised and fed into the 28 statistical learning algorithms to train the models. As one of the simplest forms, Gao 29 and Chess developed hydropathy-curve algorithm to detect proteins with seven 30 hydrophobic stretches to screen potential GPCRs⁸. More sophisticated approaches 31 such as hidden Markov model (HMM)⁹ and Support Vector Machine (SVM)¹⁰ are 32 also used in the GPCR prediction. To develop the HMM-based methods, their designs 33 of topologies of the HMMs, number of states and their connection need to be fixed in 34 35 advance by taking insightful knowledge of known GPCRs. Once the topologies of HMMs are fixed, the protein sequence/structural data are used to train the probability 36 of each transition of the HMMs. Phobius ¹¹, TMHMM ¹², GPCRHMM ¹³ and 37 HMMTOP¹⁴ are hidden Markov model-based methods for GPCR TM region 38 prediction. PRED-GPCR by Papasaikas and his co-workers is a probabilistic method 39 that uses family-specific HMMs to determine to which GPCR family a target 40 sequence belongs ¹⁵. Jones group proposed a SVM-based method for TM protein 41 topology prediction ¹⁶. Meanwhile, a new set of conformational parameters for TM α 42 helices was developed by Gromiha¹⁷ and the parameters can be used to locate the TM 43 regions of GPCR. GPCRpred is also a SVM-based GPCR identification method by 44

clustering GPCRs into different families¹⁸. The TM region prediction programs can 1 2 be used for GPCR identification by scanning databases for proteins predicted to have seven-TM helices. GPCR identification and TM region prediction have been widely 3 used in biological research. So for examples, Nowling et al screened GPCRs in the 4 genomes of three insect vectors using an ensemble procedure ¹⁹; Takeda and his 5 co-workers identified a large number of potential GPCRs when searching human 6 proteome for proteins predicted to contain 6~8 TM helices ²⁰. Meanwhile, there are 7 some other bioinformatics studies of GPCRs²¹⁻²³. In general, the performance of 8 statistical learning methods depends on the input features, learning algorithms and 9 optimized parameters. Developers are required to carefully tune the parameters of 10 training algorithms to obtain optimized performance. 11

12

In this work, we develop a predictor, which is capable of accurately identifying 13 14 GPCRs from genomic sequences as well as predicting their TM segments. The TM regions of GPCRs are predicted by using sequence evolutionary profiles with the 15 assistance of neural network learning. Moreover, considering the secondary structure 16 17 topologies of GPCRs are conserved, protein secondary structure-based methods for GPCRs identification may make sense and we therefore develop such a method. 18 Meanwhile, a novel profile-to-profile alignment algorithm is also developed to detect 19 GPCRs. As that clearly pointed out by Chou in his review ²⁴ as well as that in several 20 closely related studies ²⁵⁻²⁷, we can use the following procedure to establish a practical 21 and reliable bioinformatics predictor. Firstly, build a model by using effective 22 23 mathematical expressions that can truly reflect their intrinsic correlation with the 24 target to be predicted, and then construct or select reliable benchmark datasets to 25 train/test the models. Secondly, objectively evaluate the anticipated accuracy of the 26 new model and compare it with community popular methods. Last but not the least, stand-alone programs and publicly available web servers for the models should be 27 developed to facilitate researchers to use new methods. We will describe the 28 29 procedure step-by-step in the following sections.

30

31 2 MATERIALS AND METHODS

32 2.1 Datasets

The benchmark datasets were constructed with the utilization of information in the 33 PDB²⁸, and UniProtKB²⁹. Firstly, we downloaded 55 structurally known GPCRs 34 from PDB database with timestamp of October, 2013. This dataset was named 35 GPCR PDB55. At the same time, the Swiss-Prot ²⁹ database of UniProtKB 36 (ftp://ftp.uniprot.org/pub/databases/uniprot/current release/knowledgebase/complete/ 37 uniprot sprot.dat.gz) was also downloaded in our local computers. We scanned all the 38 sequences in the Swiss-Prot database and there are 2222 GPCRs showing high 39 sequence similarity with sequences in the GPCR PDB55 (BLAST e-value<0.01). We 40 further scanned the Swiss-Prot database and obtained 558 potential GPCRs, which 41 were not similar to the 2222 proteins at the sequence level. Among the 558 proteins, 42 ones have already been included in the GPCRDB ³⁰ database 43 256 (http://www.gpcr.org/7tm/). Moreover, the remaining 302 proteins, which are 44

seven-TM proteins, out of the 558 proteins are probably GPCRs. We found there are 1 2 some annotations, such as 'SIMILARITY: Belongs to the G-protein coupled receptor 4 family', 'SIMILARITY: Belongs to the G-protein coupled receptor Fz/Smo', 'DR 3 4 Pfam; PF10326; 7TM GPCR Str; 1' and so on. Therefore, these 302 proteins are most likely to be GPCRs. Therefore, the 558 proteins were regarded as GPCRs in our 5 benchmark. Further, we randomly selected 721 non-GPCRs membrane proteins from 6 7 Swiss-Prot database. These datasets were filtered by removing redundancies at 95% 8 sequence identity. Finally, we obtained 1697 train (GPCR TRAIN1697), 492 test (GPCR TEST492) GPCRs and 504 non-GPCRs membrane proteins (MEM 504). 9 Details of removing redundancies are available in supplementary file 1. Meanwhile, 10 we collected 2014 non-GPCR proteins, covering 2014 SCOP protein families, from 11 12 SCOPe³¹ database, and the dataset of the 2014 proteins was named SCOP 2014. We used GPCR TEST492 to benchmark various GPCR TM location methods. The 13 performance of GPCR identification is assessed by methods' abilities in classification 14 of GPCR/non-GPCR in the GPCR TEST492, SCOP 2014 and MEM 504 datasets. 15 The datasets are available at http://genomics.fzu.edu.cn/GPCR/dataset/. It should be 16 clearly pointed out that the proteins in the GPCR TEST492 share low similarity with 17 the proteins of the GPCR TRAIN1697 dataset at the sequence level (BLAST 18 e-value>0.01). 19

20

21

22 **2.2 Trans-GPCR for TM region prediction**

Trans-GPCR is a neural network based method for TM region prediction. The neural 23 24 network algorithm used in this work was implemented utilizing Encog Java neural 32 downloaded 25 network framework which can be from https://code.google.com/p/encog-java/. The standard back propagation ³³ and sigmoid 26 activation function were used. We trained the Trans-GPCR using a similar way to 27 PSIPRED³⁴. Briefly, two feed-forward back-propagation neural networks were 28 jointly used. In our work, the first neural network contains two hidden layers, whereas 29 30 the second neural network only contains a single hidden layer. The nodes in both two hidden layers of the first neural network were set to 250; Meanwhile, the node 31 number in the hidden layer of the second neural network was set to 70. The 32 architectures and parameters of neural networks were optimized using the training 33 dataset. The input features of the first neural network are evolutionary sequence 34 35 profiles. The outputs of the first neural network are fed into the second neural network that to refine the prediction. To obtain the sequence profiles, the target sequence is 36 iteratively threaded through NCBI ³⁵ NR database for three repeats with an e-value 37 cutoff 0.001 for collecting multiple sequence alignments (MSAs) using PSI-BLAST ³⁶. 38 The position specific scoring matrix/profile (PSSM) is generated by the option '-Q'. 39 The position specific frequency matrix/profile (PSFM) is calculated from the 40 generated MSA using Henikoff weight ³⁷. In the Henikoff weight scheme, a residue in 41 each position is assigned a weight equal to 1/(t+s), where t is the number of different 42 residues in the column and s is the number of times the particular residue appears in 43 the column. The position-based weights (i.e. Henikoff weights) are then added for 44

1 each column and divided by the length of sequence. Then, we use following equation

2 to calculate the PSFM profile of each residue from a MSA

3

15

23

$$f_{u,r} = \frac{\sum_{i=l}^{N} w_u^i \delta_{u,r}^i}{\sum_{i=l}^{N} w_u^i}$$
(1)

where $f_{u,r}$ is the amino acid frequency of residue *r* at column *u*; *N* is the number of sequences in the MSA; w_u^i is the Henikoff weight for column *u* of sequence *i*; $\delta_{u,r}^i$ is set to 1 if sequence *i* has residue *r* in column *u* and 0, otherwise. For unaligned regions, only the target sequence itself is used to calculate the amino acid frequencies.

For each target residue, a sliding window containing 2n+1 residues long (i.e. window size = 2n+1) fragment profiles centered at the target residue is excised from the sequence profiles. The optimal window sizes of two neural networks were determined by performance in the training dataset and were set to 21. There are two sets of generated profiles, including PSFM and PSSM profiles. Using a similar way to Chen *et al* ³⁸, we also compute the Shannon entropy for each residue as

$$Entropy = \sum_{r=1}^{20} - f_{u,r} \log(f_{u,r})$$
(2)

where $f_{u,r}$ is calculated using Eq 1; *r* is the *r*th residue type. Meanwhile, there are two-dimensional RW-GRMTP (relative weight of gapless real matches to pseudocounts), which are the last two columns in the PSSM profile, of each residue generated by PSI-BLAST. The RW-GRMTP represents the number of aligned residues in that position. The RW-GRMTP information is also used as training features. Considering some elements of the PSSM profile are negatives, we directly scale the values to the range of $0 \sim 1$ by using the standard logistic function as

$$\frac{l}{l+e^{-X}}$$
(3)

where x is the element value of the PSSM profile. Again, we also compute the entropy 24 score for PSSM profile. For PSSM profile as well as PSFM profile, there are 20 25 residue frequencies and an entropy value. Additionally, an extra unit per amino acid is 26 used to indicate whether the residue spans either the N or C terminus of the protein 27 chain. For a given 21-residue window, input features for the first neural network are 28 29 window size 1*(21+21+2+1), where 21 for PSSM, 21 for PSFM, 2 for RW-GRMTP 30 and an additional unit to indicate whether the residue spans either the N or C terminus. The window size 1 value of 21 is optimized by the performance in the training 31 dataset. Using a similar way to Chou et al 24, we can denote the input features for 32 position *i* of a protein as 33

34
$$\{[PSSM(i+s,j)], [E(i+s)], [PSFM(i+s,j)], [\vec{E}(i+s)], RW-GRMTP(i+s)\}, j \in [0,20], s \in [-n,n]$$
 (4)

where PSSM(i+s,j) is for the scaled PSSM profile at the position i+s; j ranges from 0 to 19, in which [0,19] representing 20 amino acids and one additional bit that used to indicate whether the residue spans either the N or C terminus of the protein chain; s is

a shift value and its value ranges from -n to n (i.e. window size). E(i+s) is the 1 2 Shannon entropy for position i+s calculated using scaled PSSM profile at position i+s. 3 Similarly, PSFM(i+s,j) is for the PSFM profile at the position i+s; E(i+s) is the Shannon entropy for position i+s calculated using PSFM profile at position i+s; 4 RW-GRMTP(i+s) is the RW-GRMTP values (i.e. relative weight of gapless real 5 6 matches to pseudocounts) at position i+s. 7 The feature numbers for the second neural network are window size $2^{*}(2+1)$, where 8 2 denotes the outputs (e.g. prediction scores of TM/non-TM) of the first neural 9 network and an additional unit to indicate whether the residue spans either the N or C 10 11 terminus. The window size 2 value of 21 is optimized using the same way as that of window size 1. The average length of the TM regions is 22 in our training dataset. 12 13 Meanwhile, lengths of the loops connecting the TM segments are diverse. Based on this observation, we transform the prediction of orphan residues, assigning a TM 14 15 (non-TM) residue to non-TM (TM) region if its neighbor six residues (i.e. ±3 positions) are non-TM (TM). 16 17 2.3 GPCR identification 18 2.3.1 Trans-GPCR for GPCR identification 19 Furthermore, Trans-GPCR not only predicts the TM regions of GPCRs but also can 20 identify GPCRs. For a target sequence, Trans-GPCR determines whether it is GPCR 21 22 by the following equation $TransGPCR_Score = \sum_{i=1}^{N} max(NN(M) - NN(-), 0)$ 23 (5) 24 where NN(M) and NN(-) are the TM and non-TM prediction scores of residue *i* by two output nodes of the second neural network in Trans-GPCR method; N is length of 25 target protein. We use $\max(NN(M) - NN(-), 0)$ to ensure that only predicted TM 26 regions are summed (i.e. positive values). Here, we use a reliable parameter for 27 position *i* of target protein as 28

29 30

 $residue \ reliable(i) = abs(NN(M) - NN(-))$ (6)

31

where *residue_reliable(i)* is a reliable index; *abs* is the absolute mathematic function; *NN(M)* and *NN(-)* are defined in Eq. 5. *residue_reliable(i)* ranges [0-1], where a higher score corresponds to a more reliable prediction for residue *i*. It should be clearly pointed out that the parameter *TransGPCR_Score* is to determine whether a protein is GPCR, whereas *residue_reliable(i)* is a position-specific reliability index of prediction for position *i* of target protein.

38

39 2.3.2 SSEA-GPCR for GPCR identification

Here, we also develop a GPCR identification algorithm by using secondary structure
element alignment (SSEA). Since protein secondary structural topologies of GPCRs

are more conserved than single sequences, SSEA is therefore able to identify GPCRs.
 2
 2
 2
 2
 3
 4
 4
 4
 4
 4
 4
 4
 4
 4
 4
 4
 4
 4
 4
 4
 4
 4
 4
 4
 4
 4
 4
 4
 4
 4
 4
 4
 4
 4
 4
 4
 4
 4
 4
 4
 4
 4
 4
 4
 4
 4
 4
 4
 4
 4
 4
 4
 4
 4
 4
 4
 4
 4
 4
 4
 4
 4
 4
 4
 4
 4
 4
 4
 4
 4
 4
 4
 4
 4
 4
 4
 4
 4
 4
 4
 4
 4
 4
 4
 4
 4
 4
 4
 4
 4
 4
 4
 4
 4
 4
 4
 4
 4
 4
 4
 4
 4
 4
 4
 4
 4
 4
 4
 4
 4
 4
 4
 4
 4
 4
 4
 4
 4
 4
 4
 4
 4
 4
 4
 4
 4
 4
 4
 4
 4

3 SSEA-GPCR method searches a target sequence against a GPCR and a non-GPCR 4 databases. In this process, the top *i* SSEA similarity scores between GPCRs (non-GPCRs) are recorded (i.e. SSEA_{max gpcr i} and SSEA_{max non gpcr i}). In SSEA 5 algorithm, the secondary structural string for each sequence is converted into 6 secondary structure elements such that 'H' represents a helix element, 'E' denotes a 7 8 strand element, and 'C' stands for a coil element. Meanwhile, the predicted secondary structural string was shortened and the length of each element was retained for the 9 scoring of SSEA. Here, Needleman-Wunsch global alignment algorithm ³⁹ was used 10 with the gap penalties set to zeros. The alignment score of SSEA between two 11 12 secondary structure elements with lengths L_i and L_i is defined as 13

14
$$Score(i, j) = \begin{cases} \min(L_i, L_j) & Match between two identical elements \\ 0.5 \times \min(L_i, L_j) & Match between \alpha - helix / \beta - strand and coil (7) \\ 0 & Match between \alpha - helix and \beta - strand \end{cases}$$

15

where min(L_i , L_j) stands for the minimal length between L_i and L_j . The normalized SSEA alignment score is obtained by dividing by the length of the target sequence. Details of SSEA algorithm can refer to its original developer ⁴⁰ or our previous work ⁴¹. For a target sequence, the *SSEA_gpcr* prediction score is calculated using a simple *K*-nearest algorithm as

21
$$SSEA_gpcr = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{K} SSEA_{gpcr_top_i} - \sum_{i=1}^{K} SSEA_{non_gpcr_top_i}}{K}$$
(8)

where SSEA_{gpcr} top i and SSEA_{non} gpcr top i are the top i prediction scores of searching 22 target protein against GPCR and non-GPCR databases; The value of K is primarily 23 optimized and set to 10. Here, the GPCRs in the training dataset are used as GPCRs 24 database to calculate SSEA_{max epcr}. Meanwhile, we collected 3836 non-GPCR proteins, 25 which cover 1061 folds, 1713 superfamilies and 3836 families, as a non-GPCR 26 database from SCOPe database³¹. This dataset was named nonGPCRlib 3836. The 27 nonGPCRlib 3836 is used when calculating SSEA_{max non gpcr}. The proteins in the 28 SCOP 2014 dataset, which has been described in the Datasets section, share low 29 30 similarity with proteins in the non-GPCR database (i.e. nonGPCRlib 3836) at the 31 sequence level (BLAST e-value>0.01).

32

33 2.3.3 PPA-GPCR for GPCR identification

GPCRs constitute a large superfamily of proteins ¹³. Therefore, profile-to-profile alignment, which represents one of useful methods to detect distant homologs, should be effective to identify potential GPCRs. Similar to SSEA-GPCR method, Needleman-Wunsch global alignment algorithm is also used and the penalties for ending gaps are set as zeros. The scoring function for profile-to-profile alignment is as 1 2

Molecular BioSystems

 $Score(i,j) = PF(i,j) + w_I SS(i,j) + shift$ (9)

3 where PF(i,j) is an evolutionary profiles-based term. Evolutionary profiles are 4 generated from MSAs, which represent the divergence of proteins in the same family, and contain important information to infer the protein features. The MSAs are 5 obtained using the same way as that in Trans-GPCR. The values of gap openning, gap 6 extension, w_l and *shift* were obtained by maximum of the sequence alignments to 7 structural alignments ⁴² of all-to-all pair-wises for the 55 structurally known GPCRs 8 in the GPCR PDB55 dataset. The values of gap openning, gap extension, w₁ and shift 9 were set to -7.1, -0.56, 0.7 and -0.9. The Profile similarity score is as 10

11
$$PF(i,j) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=1}^{20} (PSFM(i,k)_{q} PSSM(j,k)_{t} + PSFM(j,k)_{t} PSSM(i,k)_{q})$$
(10)

where $PSFM(i, k)_q$ represents the frequency of the *k*th amino acid at the *i*th position of PSFM profile for target protein; $PSSM(j, k)_t$ denotes the *k*th amino acid at the *j*th position of PSSM profile for template. Similarly, $PSSM(j, k)_t$ represents the frequency of the *k*th amino acid at the *j*th position of PSFM profile for template; $PSSM(i, k)_q$ denotes the *k*th amino acid at the *i*th position of PSFM profile for target protein. In our method, the similarity score for each pair of secondary structure profile columns is defined as the Pearson's correlation coefficient between them as

$$SS(i,j) = \frac{3\sum_{k=1}^{3} Q_{i,k} T_{j,k} - \sum_{k=1}^{3} Q_{i,k} \sum_{k=1}^{3} T_{j,k}}{\sqrt{3\sum_{k=1}^{3} Q_{i,k}^{2} - (\sum_{k=1}^{3} Q_{i,k})^{2}} \sqrt{3\sum_{k=1}^{3} T_{j,k}^{2} - (\sum_{k=1}^{3} T_{j,k})^{2}}}$$
(11)

20 where $Q_{i,k}$ is the possibility of kth (i.e. k=1,2,3 corresponding to α -helix (H), β -strand 21 (E), and coil (C), respectively) secondary structure type at *i*th position of the target sequence. $T_{i,k}$ is the possibility of kth secondary structure type at *j*th position of the 22 template sequence. The prediction possibilities of protein secondary structure are 23 24 obtained by using PSIPRED. Similar to SSEA-GPCR, the normalized PPA-GPCR 25 alignment score is also obtained by being divided by length of target sequence. Moreover, the estimated significant Zscore of PPA-GPCR alignment scores should be 26 calculated. We use SCOPe 1187 dataset, which is constructed by randomly selecting 27 one protein of each fold from SCOPe database, as a reference database to calculate 28 mean and standard deviation of random scores. The Zscore is calculated as 29

30

$$Zscore = \frac{raw - mean}{std}$$
(12)

32

where *raw* is the alignment score between a target and a specific template; *mean* and *std* are the average and standard deviation of scores aligning target sequence to the proteins in the SCOPe_1187 dataset. There are two Zscores for any pair of target-template alignments. Here, we use a symmetrical Zscore similar to FFAS-3D ⁴³ as

$$Zscore(q,t) = ave(Zscore_q, Zscore_t)$$
(13)

1 2

3 where Z_{score_q} and Z_{score_t} are the Z_{scores} of the target and template proteins by 4 searching SCOPe 1187 database using Eq. 12. Here, we use the average of $Zscore_a$ and $Zscore_t$ as the final value of the calibrated score. Note that Zscore(q,t) is 5 6 symmetrical with respect to two proteins. We also tested the minimum and maximum 7 of the two Zscores, but the performance cannot be improved. For each target, we 8 search it against a GPCR database, which is GPCR TRAIN1697 in our benchmark. The maximum Zscore(q,t) of the target and the templates (i.e. 1697 pair-wise 9 alignment scores) in the GPCR TRAIN1697 database is recorded and is named 10 PPA gpcr in this paper. Confidence intervals (CI) of PPA gpcr are computed using 11 12 the common assumption of a normal distribution by the following as

13
$$\left[\mu - Z\frac{SD}{\sqrt{n}}, \quad \mu + Z\frac{SD}{\sqrt{n}}\right] \tag{14}$$

14 where μ and *SD* are mean and standard deviation of *PPA_gpcr* scores; *n* is sample size;

15 Z is the critical value and the value of Z is 1.96 in a 95% confidence level.

16

17 2.3.4 Combined methods

The combined methods can be constructed by using complementary algorithms with 18 improved performance. When combining the top four methods (HMMTOP, TMHMM, 19 20 Phobius and Trans-GPCR) for TM/non-TM region prediction, we use two bits to denote their prediction for each residue (i.e. [1, 0] for TM and [0, 1] for non-TM 21 22 predictions). To combine the four methods, the corresponding bit values are simply 23 added. For example, [1, 0], [1, 0], [1, 0] and [0, 1] are added and the result is [3, 1]. 24 The combined prediction for a residue is TM if the value of the first bit is bigger than that of the second bit, and non-TM, otherwise. The combined method for TM/non-TM 25 prediction is named TM-Combined in this paper. Similarly, we also combined the 26 methods (Trans-GPCR, SSEA-GPCR and PPA-GPCR) for GPCR identification 27 28 (Iden-Combined) using a weighted score as

29

30 31 $Iden-Combined = w_1 PPA_gpcr + w_2 Trans_gpcr + w_3 SSEA_gpcr$ (15)

where *Iden-Combined* is the combined prediction score; w_1 , w_2 and w_3 are weighted to balance the three terms. Considering the value ranges of the three terms, the values of w_1 , w_2 and w_3 are primarily optimized and set to 0.1, 0.0067 and 1, respectively.

35

36 2.3.5 Amino acid distribution of TM/non-TM regions

It is also interesting to mine the amino acid distribution of TM/non-TM regions in the
GPCRs. The formula for calculating the composition of *i*th residue is defined as

39
$$composition(i) = \frac{\sum_{k=l}^{N} \delta_{k}}{N}$$
 (16)

40 where *i* stands for composition of *i*th residue; δ_k is set to 1 if the position *k* of

Page 11 of 21

Molecular BioSystems

1 sequence is ith residue and 0, otherwise; N is the total number of residues in the

2 TM/non-TM regions.

3 2.4 Performance assessment

When the benchmark is performed over the test dataset in the TM/non-TM region prediction, the overall performance of different methods is evaluated with respect to four parameters: Accuracy (*Ac*), Sensitivity (*Sn*), Specificity (*Sp*) and Matthew correlation coefficient (*Mcc*). The TM (non-TM) residues of GPCRs are considered positives (negatives). The equations for these parameters are as follows $Ac = \frac{tp + tn}{t}$ (17)

$$Ac = \frac{tp + tn}{tp + fn + tn + fp}$$
(17)

10
$$Sn = \frac{tp}{tp + fn}$$
(18)

$$Sp = \frac{tn}{tn + fp}$$
(19)

12

$$Mcc = \frac{tp \times tn - fp \times fn}{\sqrt{(tp + fp)(tp + fn)(tn + fn)(tn + fp)}}$$
(20)

where tp, fp, fn and tn are the numbers of true positives, false positives, false 13 negatives and true negatives, respectively. The performance of GPCR identification 14 can be measured by receiver operating characteristic (ROC) curves ⁴⁴. The ROC 15 curves plot true-positive rate (instances) as a function of false-positive rate (instances) 16 for all possible thresholds of prediction scores by various methods. The set of four 17 equations (Eqs. 17-20) is used for single-label systems. For multi-label systems, 18 which are more frequent in system biology ^{45, 46}, a completely different set of metrics 19 as defined in ⁴⁷ is needed. 20

21

22 **3 RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS**

3.1 The performance of TM region prediction

24 Among the resulting measures, Ac and Mcc are the most comprehensive parameters to assess the prediction performance. The neural network model of Trans-GPCR was 25 intensively trained on the GPCR TRAIN1697 dataset and generated the results of 26 Ac=0.940 and Mcc=0.877. Further, the performance of TM region location was tested 27 on the GPCR TEST492 dataset. HMMTOP, TMHMM, Memast and Phobius 28 29 programs were installed in our local computers and the proteins were directly fed into 30 them. The prediction results of the TM regions for various methods were summarized 31 in Table 1. HMMTOP, TMHMM, Memast and Phobius generated Ac (Mcc) scores of 0.927 (0.804), 0.934 (0.823), 0.912 (0.766) and 0.935 (0.826), respectively. 32 Trans-GPCR generated a slightly lower Ac and Mcc values than that of HMMTOP, 33 34 TMHMM and Phobius. Although the these methods were benchmarked on the same dataset, it should be pointed out that proteins in the test dataset of Trans-GPCR share 35 low similarity with the proteins in the training dataset (BLAST e-value>0.01). 36 Meanwhile, the TM regions of some proteins in Swiss-Prot database are annotated by 37 using TMHMM, Memsat and Phobius (see http://www.uniprot.org/manual/transmem 38

for details). The complementarity of the these methods is given in Figure 1 using 1 VennDiagram package⁴⁸. For example, HMMTOP, TMHMM, Phobius, Memast and 2 Trans-GPCR methods correctly distinguish 1197, 1130, 787, 885 and 1003 residues 3 4 that can not be correctly distinguished by other methods. In Figure 2, two Mcc values of each protein by two methods correspond to a point. We calculated the statistical 5 6 significances of them using the student t-test (Table 2). The p-values of Mcc scores for 7 the methods were lower 0.01 although both HMMTOP, TMHMM and Phobius were 8 HMM-based algorithms. The different and complementary methods can be combined to generate improved performance. This is demonstrated by the TM-combined method, 9 which generated the highest Ac (0.935) and Mcc (0.828) values in the 10 11 GPCR TEST492 dataset. The increase in sensitivity using TM-combined may be 12 ascribed to that TM-combined measure is a consensus method by considering scores of the top four methods. But TM-combined method did not generate higher Mcc value 13 14 the GPCR TRAIN1697, and this may be because the proteins of in GPCR TRAIN1697 were used to train Trans-GPCR method. Therefore, it is very 15 difficult for TM-combined method to generate better performance. Meanwhile, we 16 17 also calculated the Pearon's correlation coefficient (Pcc) between them (Figure 2). As seen from the data above, we can know that the benchmarked five methods were 18 significantly different (p-value<0.01). The most significant methods were TMHMM 19 20 and Memsat (p-value<2.2e-16). To better understand the prediction error generation, it is important to know the misclassification rates between TM/non-TM. As can be seen 21 22 from Table 3, the largest misclassification state is TM to non-TM, which is consistent 23 for the five predictors.

24

25 **3.2 Benchmark of GPCR identification**

The performance of GPCR identification was compared via ROC analysis. As can be 26 seen from Figure 3, PPA-GPCR generated the best performance, resulting in an AUC 27 28 score of 0.990. Trans-GPCR and SSEA-GPCR generated AUC scores of 0.978 and 29 0.955. Because the performance at low false positive rates is more important in 30 real-world application, therefore, we paid more attention to the comparison of different methods' performance at < 1% false positive rates (Figure 3B and Table 4). 31 As shown in Table 4, SSEA-GPCR correctly recognized 193 GPCRs before including 32 33 36 false positives, whereas Trans-GPCR can detect 306 GPCRs. The distribution of 34 profile-to-profile alignment scores (i.e. *PPA gpcr* measure) in the three types of 35 proteins (i.e. GPCR, non-GPCR membrane proteins, and globular proteins) are 36 presented in Figure 4. The confident interval (CI) values of *PPA gpcr* for GPCRs, 37 non-GPCR membrane proteins and globular proteins were [13.53, 14.47], [6.77, 7.27] and [2.48, 2.61] (Table 5), respectively. There is no overlap among these intervals, 38 suggesting PPA-GPCR method can be used to distinguish GPCRs in a reasonable 39 result. PPA-GPCR detects the more GPCRs (385 hits) than Trans-GPCR and 40 SSEA-GPCR methods at the same false positives cutoff. When we used the 41 Iden-Combined measure to identify GPCRs and it identifies the most GPCRs at the 42 1% false positive rate (Figure 3 and Table 4). Despite the lack of sequence homology 43

between some GPCRs, all GPCRs share similar conserved secondary structural
 topologies and have the homologous relationships. Therefore, SSEA-GPCR and
 PPA-GPCR should be effective to detect them. Our benchmark results also support
 this point of view.

5

6 3.3 Significances of prediction scores and decision making

7 It is very necessary to estimate the significances of predictions when developing new probabilistic models. We estimated the significant scores of Trans-GPCR, 8 SSEA-GPCR and PPA-GPCR from the test dataset. In the Trans-GPCR method, we 9 10 designed two output nodes in two neural networks to represent the prediction scores of TM/non-TM regions. The difference of the two nodes of the second neural network 11 for target residue is represented by the measure residue reliable(i). The larger 12 13 *residue reliable(i)* score is, the more significant and reliable for target residue. In our 14 benchmark result, if the residue reliable(i)>0.911, it can generate a prediction result with less than a 1% false positive rate. Meanwhile, we also tested the 15 TransGPCR Score, SSEA gpcr and PPA gpcr scores, which are the parameters to 16 identify GPCRs, in the benchmark dataset to obtain their reliable cutoffs. In our 17 benchmark, if *TransGPCR Score* is larger than 84.834, the prediction result is at less 18 than a 5% false positive rate. At the same false positive rate control, SSEA gpcr and 19 PPA gpcr should be larger than 0.094 and 7.545, respectively. The prediction scores 20 21 and corresponding false positive rates were summarized in Table 6. A question should 22 be discussed here is that how to determine whether a protein is GPCR using these 23 methods. We suggest combining the three methods to make decisions. If proteins are 24 predicted to have less than 1% false positive rates by the three methods, the proteins 25 should be regarded as candidates for being GPCRs with high confidences. It is easy to distinguish GPCRs and globular proteins. However, it may be difficult to distinguish 26 GPCRs from some non-GPCR membrane proteins according to the fact that some of 27 28 them have similar topologies and exist in the similar biological environments. For such cases, maybe researchers can use the TM helices number and PPA gpcr scores 29 30 to determine whether a protein is GPCR or not. Alternatively, users can resort to combined methods (i.e. TM-Combined and Iden-Combined) to make decisions. If 31 Iden-Combined score higher than 1.589 by the combined method, the prediction is at 32 33 less than a 1% false positive rate. Some hard targets may need further literature survey. 34 In our web server (see supplementary file 2 for details), we provide the prediction 35 scores by Trans-GPCR, SSEA-GPCR, PPA-GPCR and Iden-Combined for each job. 36 To provide a real application example, we conduct our method on the proteome of 37 *Homo sapiens* (see supplementary file 3 for details).

38

39 3.4 Lengths and amino acid distribution of TM/non-TM regions

We calculated the mean lengths for TM/non-TM regions, but did not find significant
differences between TM segments of different GPCRs in the training dataset. The
lengths of TM helices are in the range of 6 to 30 amino acids and the average length

of TM helices is 22. The Beta-1 adrenergic receptor (Swiss-Prot entry: Q9TT96) 1 2 contains the longest (30 residues) TM segment in the sixth TM in our training dataset. Although Q7P0A1, Q6BKW6 and Q60880 proteins contain TM segments longer than 3 4 30, the segments of them were annotated as two independent parts. For example, the 220-261 of protein O7P0A1 is TM region. But 220-240 and 241-261 of this long 5 region were annotated as two independent parts in the Swiss-Prot database. For such 6 regions, we also counted them as two segments. Meanwhile, putative olfactory 7 8 receptor 10J6 protein (Swiss-Prot entry: Q8NGY7) contains the minimum length TM regions (6 residues) in our training dataset. The length of loops connecting TM helices 9 is more diverse. The protein Q4LBB6 contains the longest loop (843 residues), which 10 connects the fifth and sixth TMs. 11

12

13 The amino acid compositions in the TM, non-TM regions and differences of them are 14 shown in Figure 7, in which the similarities and differences of the 20 amino acid residues in the TM/non-TM regions were brought out. Residues with positive scores 15 16 of differences suggest their preference in the TM regions while those with negative 17 scores show their dominance in the non-TM regions. As can be seen from Figure 7, the most differences of amino acids are R (ARG), K (LYS), E (GLU), L (LEU), V 18 (VAL) and I (ILE). Among them, L, V and I are aliphatic amino acids; R, K, and E are 19 charged amino acids. Interestingly, L, V and I are enriched in the TM regions whereas 20 R, K, and E are enriched in non-TM regions. Meanwhile, C (CYS) and G (GLY) show 21 22 subtle difference in the amino acids composition. The amino acid compositions 23 differences in the TM and non-TM regions can be regarded as conformational 24 parameters of amino acids in TM regions. Similarly, Gromiha developed a set such 25 conformational parameters in a different way in 1999. Pearson's correlation 26 coefficient between our parameters and those developed by Gromiha is 0.932 (see supplementary file 4 for details), suggesting both sets of parameters can be used to 27 represent the preferences of amino acids in the TM regions although they are 28 calculated using different ways. Meanwhile, we also tested the performance of 29 secondary structure prediction by PSIPRED on GPCRs, and PSIPRED shows an 30 31 overall Q3 accuracy of 76.6% (see supplementary file 5 for details).

32

33 4 CONCLUSIONS

In this work, we developed a practical predictor for GPCR TM region prediction (Trans-GPCR), and GPCR identification (Trans-GPCR, SSEA-GPCR and PPA-GPCR). Our predictor has been intensively benchmarked and has been demonstrated its favorable performance in the real application.

38

Objectively speaking, our predictor has strengths and limitations compared to some other methods. The most obvious strength is its potential application to identify GPCRs that show little sequence similarity to known GPCRs but with similar topologies or homologous relationships. However, the qualities of both GPCR identification and their TM regions location are relied on the input profiles, and it may create problems if there are false homologous sequences imbedded in the MSAs that

used to calculate sequence profiles. This is one obvious limitation/disadvantage of our 1 2 predictor. 3 Anyway, our server should be useful based on its performance in the benchmark. 4 Although our predictor is a solely computational tool, we also hope that the 5 development of such novel methods will be helpful to accelerate the exploration of 6 the sequence-structure-function landscape in GPCRs. 7 ACKNOWLEDEGMENT 8 We would like to thank Shaoyu Su in Fujian Science and Technology Information 9 Institute for critical reading the manuscript. This work was supported by Start-Up 10 11 Fund of Fuzhou University (510046), National Natural Science Foundation of China (31301537) and Science Development Foundation of Fuzhou University 12 13 (2013-XY-17). 14 15 REFERENCES 16 1. G. G. Hazell, C. C. Hindmarch, G. R. Pope, J. A. Roper, S. L. Lightman, D. Murphy, A. M. 17 O'Carroll and S. J. Lolait, Frontiers in neuroendocrinology, 2012, 33, 45-66. 18 2. R. T. Dorsam and J. S. Gutkind, Nature reviews. Cancer, 2007, 7, 79-94. 19 3. F. Giordano, S. Simoes and G. Raposo, Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the 20 United States of America, 2011, 108, 11906-11911. 21 4. D. K. Vassilatis, J. G. Hohmann, H. Zeng, F. Li, J. E. Ranchalis, M. T. Mortrud, A. Brown, S. S. 22 Rodriguez, J. R. Weller, A. C. Wright, J. E. Bergmann and G. A. Gaitanaris, Proceedings of the 23 National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America, 2003, 100, 4903-4908. 24 5. J. P. Overington, B. Al-Lazikani and A. L. Hopkins, Nature reviews. Drug discovery, 2006, 5, 25 993-996. 26 6. H. M. Berman, Acta crystallographica, 2008, 64, 88-95. 27 7. S. F. Altschul, W. Gish, W. Miller, E. W. Myers and D. J. Lipman, Journal of molecular biology, 28 1990, **215**, 403-410. 29 8. Q. Gao and A. Chess, Genomics, 1999, 60, 31-39. 30 9. L. Rabiner, Proceedings of the IEEE, 1989, 77, 257-286. 31 10. L. C. Chang CC, Computer Program, 2001. 32 L. Kall, A. Krogh and E. L. Sonnhammer, Journal of molecular biology, 2004, 338, 1027-1036. 11. 33 12. A. Krogh, B. Larsson, G. von Heijne and E. L. Sonnhammer, Journal of molecular biology, 2001, 34 **305**, 567-580. 35 M. Wistrand, L. Kall and E. L. Sonnhammer, Protein Sci, 2006, 15, 509-521. 13. 36 14. G. E. Tusnady and I. Simon, Journal of molecular biology, 1998, 283, 489-506. 37 15. P. K. Papasaikas, P. G. Bagos, Z. I. Litou and S. J. Hamodrakas, SAR and QSAR in environmental 38 research, 2003, 14, 413-420. 39 16. T. Nugent and D. T. Jones, BMC bioinformatics, 2009, 10, 159. 40 17. M. M. Gromiha, Protein engineering, 1999, 12, 557-561. 41 18. M. Bhasin and G. P. Raghava, Nucleic acids research, 2004, 32, W383-389. 42 19. W. Yang, K. Wang and W. Zuo, International journal of bioinformatics research and 43 applications, 2013, 9, 207-219. 44 20. S. Takeda, S. Kadowaki, T. Haga, H. Takaesu and S. Mitaku, FEBS letters, 2002, 520, 97-101.

1	21.	D. W. Elrod and K. C. Chou, Protein engineering, 2002, 15, 713-715.
2	22.	K. C. Chou, Journal of proteome research, 2005, 4, 1413-1418.
3	23.	X. Xiao, J. L. Min, P. Wang and K. C. Chou, <i>PloS one</i> , 2013, 8 , e72234.
4	24.	K. C. Chou, Journal of theoretical biology, 2011, 273 , 236-247.
5	25.	W. Chen, P. M. Feng, H. Lin and K. C. Chou, Nucleic acids research, 2013, 41, e68.
6	26.	Y. Xu, X. J. Shao, L. Y. Wu, N. Y. Deng and K. C. Chou, PeerJ, 2013, 1, e171.
7	27.	X. Xiao, J. L. Min, P. Wang and K. C. Chou, Journal of theoretical biology, 2013, 337, 71-79.
8	28.	J. L. Sussman, D. Lin, J. Jiang, N. O. Manning, J. Prilusky, O. Ritter and E. E. Abola, Acta
9		crystallographica, 1998, 54 , 1078-1084.
10	29.	E. Boutet, D. Lieberherr, M. Tognolli, M. Schneider and A. Bairoch, Methods in molecular
11		biology (Clifton, N.J, 2007, 406 , 89-112.
12	30.	F. Horn, E. Bettler, L. Oliveira, F. Campagne, F. E. Cohen and G. Vriend, Nucleic acids research,
13		2003, 31 , 294-297.
14	31.	N. K. Fox, S. E. Brenner and J. M. Chandonia, Nucleic acids research, 2014, 42, D304-309.
15	32.	J. Heaton, 2008, 1-429.
16	33.	E. R. David, E. H. Geoffrey and J. W. Ronald, in Neurocomputing: foundations of research, eds.
17		A. A. James and R. Edward, MIT Press1988, pp. 696-699.
18	34.	D. T. Jones, Journal of molecular biology, 1999, 292 , 195-202.
19	35.	K. D. Pruitt, T. Tatusova, W. Klimke and D. R. Maglott, Nucleic acids research, 2009, 37,
20		D32-36.
21	36.	S. F. Altschul, T. L. Madden, A. A. Schaffer, J. Zhang, Z. Zhang, W. Miller and D. J. Lipman,
22		Nucleic acids research, 1997, 25 , 3389-3402.
23	37.	S. Henikoff and J. G. Henikoff, Journal of molecular biology, 1994, 243, 574-578.
24	38.	Z. Chen, Y. Wang, Y. F. Zhai, J. Song and Z. Zhang, <i>Molecular bioSystems</i> , 2013, 9, 2213-2222.
25	39.	S. B. Needleman and C. D. Wunsch, Journal of molecular biology, 1970, 48, 443-453.
26	40.	T. Przytycka, R. Aurora and G. D. Rose, Nature structural biology, 1999, 6, 672-682.
27	41.	R. X. Yan, Z. Chen and Z. Zhang, BMC bioinformatics, 2011, 12, 76.
28	42.	Y. Zhang and J. Skolnick, Nucleic acids research, 2005, 33, 2302-2309.
29	43.	D. Xu, L. Jaroszewski, Z. Li and A. Godzik, Bioinformatics (Oxford, England), 2014, 30, 660-667.
30	44.	T. Fawcett, Pattern Recognition Letters, 2006, 27, 861-874.
31	45.	K. C. Chou, Z. C. Wu and X. Xiao, <i>PloS one</i> , 2011, 6 , e18258.
32	46.	K. C. Chou, Z. C. Wu and X. Xiao, Molecular bioSystems, 2012, 8, 629-641.
33	47.	K. C. Chou, <i>Molecular bioSystems</i> , 2013, 9 , 1092-1100.
34	48.	H. Chen and P. C. Boutros, BMC bioinformatics, 2011, 12, 35.
35	TABL	LES
36	Table	1. Performance of TM region prediction of various methods on datasets.

Method ^a	Ac	Sn	Sp	Mcc
	Benchmark result on Gl	PCR_TRAIN16	97	
НММТОР	0.910	0.896	0.919	0.814
TMHMM	0.907	0.890	0.920	0.809
Memsat	0.892	0.906	0.882	0.780
Phobius	0.903	0.894	0.909	0.801
Trans-GPCR ^b	0.940	0.930	0.948	0.877
TM-Combined	0.935	0.943	0.930	0.867

	Delicilitatk result off C	IFCK_1E51492		
HMMTOP	0.927	0.865	0.947	0.804
TMHMM	0.934	0.874	0.954	0.823
Memsat	0.912	0.848	0.932	0.766
Phobius	0.935	0.884	0.951	0.826
Trans-GPCR	0.923	0.833	0.952	0.791
TM-Combined	0.935	0.901	0.946	0.828

Benchmark result on GPCR TEST492

1 ^aAll residues of test dataset were used to count true positives (TP), true negatives (TN), false positives (FP) and

2 false negatives (FN) measures.

3 ^bTrans-GPCR was intensively trained on GPCR_TRAIN1697 dataset. Proteins in the GPCR_TEST492 dataset

4 share low similarity with proteins in GPCR TRAIN1697 (BLAST e-value>0.01). Therefore, benchmark of

5 Trans-GPCR on GPCR_TRAIN1697 dataset does not make a lot of sense. We just want to know how much

6 performance decrease when tested Trans-GPCR on the GPCR_TEST492 compared with that of

7 GPCR TRAIN1697.

Table 2. The student t-test p-values of the five methods of *Mcc* scores 8

	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·				
Method ^a	HMMTOP	TMHMM	Memsat	Phobius	Trans-GPCR
HMMTOP		3.594e-05	9.885e-13	1.443e-06	3e-4
TMHMM			2.2e-16	0.6975	4.947e-13
Memsat				2.2e-16	1.588e-08
Phobius					2.2e-16
Trans-GPCR					

9

Table 3. Misclassification rates in the benchmark dataset 10

10010 0					•		
Native	Predicted	HMMTOP	TMHMM	Memsat	Phobius	Trans-GPCR	
М	-	0.134	0.126	0.151	0.115	0.166	
-	М	0.052	0.045	0.067	0.048	0.047	

11 ^aHere 'M' and '-' represent transmembrane and non-transmembrane residues. Misclassification rate is calculated

12 using equation E(i)/N(i), where E(i) is the number of misclassified state i and N(i) is the total number of state i in

13 the benchmark dataset.

14

Table 4. ROC table (≤36 false positives) for different methods 15

Receiver operator characteristics (≤ 36 false positives ^a)								
Methods	12	16	20	24	28	32	36	Auc ^b
Trans-GPCR	133	165	233	266	289	293	306	0.978
SSEA-GPCR	120	139	160	173	188	192	193	0.955
PPA-GPCR	319	346	354	356	374	382	385	0.990
Iden-Combined	343	381	388	411	431	444	461	0.993

16 ^a Here, false positives correspond to those non-GPCRs predicted as GPCRs.

17 ^b The Auc score represents the corresponding area under a ROC curve.

19

20

21	Table 5. Mean, st	tandard devia	tion and confidence in	tervals (C	I) at a 95% level
	Methods ^a	Mean	Standard deviation	CI	

Molecular BioSystems Accepted Manuscript

¹⁸

GPCRs	14.00	5.32	[13.53, 14.47]
Membrane proteins	7.02	2.88	[6.77, 7.27]
Globular proteins	2.54	1.44	[2.48, 2.61]

1

2 Table 6. Cutoffs of different methods at 95% and 99% confident levels

Methods	95% level	99% level
TransGPCR_Score ^a	84.834	112.295
residue_reliable ^a	0.000	0.911
SSEA_gpcr	0.094	0.139
PPA_gpcr	7.545	9.664
Iden-Combined	1.354	1.589

3 aTransGPCR_Score is a measure to determine whether a protein is GPCR, whereas residue_reliable(i) is a

4 parameter to describe the reliability in position *i* of a protein (i.e. TM or non-TM residue).

5

6 Figures



7



10

to the number in the overlapped regions.



Figure 2. All-to-all comparisons of *Mcc* scores between methods on the
 GPCR_TEST492 dataset. The number in each panel denotes the number of
 proteins/points in upper and lower triangles, respectively. Meanwhile, Pearson's
 correlation coefficient (Pcc) values are also given.



3

4



5 Figure 4. Boxplot of PPA_gpcr scores in the three types of proteins. Here,

6 membrane proteins denote the non-GPCR membrane proteins.



Figure 5. Amino acid composition of the 20 amino acid residues in TM regions
(blue bars), non-TM regions (red bars) and differences between them (green
bars).

5

1

- 6 Supplementary files
- 7 Supplementary file 1: Removing redundancies of datasets
- 8 Supplementary file 2: The web server for GPCR prediction
- 9 **Supplementary file 3**: Proteome-wide GPCR identification in *Homo sapiens*
- 10 Supplementary file 4: Correlation of conformational parameters for TM helices
- 11 Supplementary file 5: PSIPRED for protein GPCR secondary structure prediction