

Prediction of RNA-interacting residues in a protein using CNN and evolutionary profile

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Abstract

This paper describes a method Pprint2, which is an improved version of Pprint developed for predicting RNA-interacting residues in a protein. Training and independent/validation datasets used in this study comprises of 545 and 161 non-redundant RNA-binding proteins, respectively. All models were trained on training dataset and evaluated on the validation dataset. The preliminary analysis reveals that positively charged amino acids such as H, R and K, are more prominent in the RNA-interacting residues. Initially, machine learning based models have been developed using binary profile and obtain maximum area under curve (AUC) 0.68 on validation dataset. The performance of this model improved significantly from AUC 0.68 to 0.76, when evolutionary profile is used instead of binary profile. The performance of our evolutionary profile-based model improved further from AUC 0.76 to 0.82, when convolutional neural network has been used for developing model. Our final model based on convolutional neural network using evolutionary information achieved AUC 0.82 with Matthews correlation coefficient of 0.49 on the validation dataset. Our best model outperforms existing methods when evaluated on the independent/validation dataset. A user-friendly standalone software and web-based server named 'Pprint2' has been developed for predicting RNA-interacting residues (<https://webs.iitd.edu.in/raghava/pprint2> and <https://github.com/raghavags/pprint2>).

Keywords: RNA-interacting residues, binary profile, evolutionary profile, convolutional neural network, machine learning techniques

Introduction

Proteins and RNA are the most crucial biological components of life, whereas RNA forms the essential part of ribosome, spliceosome and performs diverse roles within cell [1]. The RNA-protein interactions are necessary for several biological functions such as gene expression regulation, viral assembly & replication, posttranscriptional modification and protein synthesis [2–7]. Recent studies reveal that RNA-protein interactions shows major involvement in developing human cancers and neurological disorders such as amyotrophic lateral sclerosis and Alzheimer's [8–12]. These interactions also play a very crucial role in various infectious and genetic disorders [13–15]. In order to understand the functions and mechanisms of any biological process, it is necessary to get information regarding the RNA-protein interaction residues. In addition to that, RNA-protein interactions play major role in cellular homeostasis and malfunctioning in these interactions may lead to abnormal cellular functions and diseases [16–19]. Therefore, identification of the RNA-interacting residues can help with biotechnological manipulation. With the better understanding of the RNA-protein interacting residues one

can design the RNA-based therapy to treat several RNA associated disorders [20–23]. The advancements in experimental techniques such as X-ray crystallography and nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) several structures of protein-RNA-interacting residues have been discovered and reported in Protein Data Bank [24]. However these experimental methods are very cost expensive and time-consuming. Whereas, computational approaches based on sequence information are very viable and cost-efficient in the probable detection of RNA-binding residues. Identification of RNA-interacting residues/sites in proteins is a highly significant and complex processes in molecular biology, and it has drawn many researchers to work on it for several years in order to provide the best of the best research in this field.

In the last few years a wide range of computational algorithms has been developed for the prediction and identification of RNA-interacting proteins and residues. Broadly, these methods can be divided into two categories, sequence-based and structure-based methods [25–31]. In case of structure based methods, RNA-interacting residues are identified from structure of RNA-protein complex. Unfortunately, due to limitation of experimental

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techniques it is not possible to determine structure of RNA-binding protein. In the last two decades; numerous sequence based methods have been developed where RNA-interacting residues are identified from sequence only. Kumar et al. [32] developed a sequence based model using machine learning techniques and evolutionary information. Song et al. [33] developed two approaches for predicting RNA-protein interaction residues in protein sequences; first is sequence-based method and second is feature-based method. In addition, PredRBR integrated huge number of sequence, structure-based features for the prediction of protein-RNA-binding affinity [34]. Another computational method named RPiRLS [35] predicts RNA-protein interactions using the structural information. Recently developed methods such as ProNA2020 and hybridNAP predict using sequence information [36]. List of all the available tools is provided in Table 1.

In this study, we have made a systematic attempt to construct machine learning and deep learning based models using the sequence information. We compute physicochemical properties, binary profile and position-specific scoring matrix or evolutionary profile-based features. In order to develop prediction models, we used a wide range of machine learning algorithms such as decision tree, extra-tree classifier, random forest, naive Bayes, gradient boosting, logistic regression and k-nearest neighbor. In addition, models have been developed using deep learning particularly convolutional neural network. In order to provide uniform benchmarking, all existing methods have been evaluated on an independent or validation dataset. We have integrated our best models in the webserver and standalone package for the prediction of RNA-interacting or non-interacting residues in a protein sequence. It has been shown that our convolutional neural network based model using evolutionary profile better than existing methods.

Material and methods

Dataset collection and pre-processing

In the current study, we have compiled the datasets from the recently published paper HybridNAP [48] and ProNA2020 [36], which consist of 1057 and 360 protein sequences that are annotated as RNA-binding proteins. In HybridNAP, the proteins were collected from BioLiP database [52] that provides annotations of biologically relevant protein-ligand interactions for complexes extracted from Protein Data Bank (PDB). Whereas, in ProNA2020, RNA-protein-binding dataset was collected from the Protein-RNA Interface Database (PRIDB) [53], which is a comprehensive repository of protein-RNA interfaces extracted from the protein-RNA complexes available in the PDB. We have used CD-HIT software with the standards of 30% sequence identity to take care the redundancy. In order to compare the performance of the proposed method with HybridNAP and ProNA2020, we have used their training dataset to train the model and independent/validation dataset to evaluate the final model, after removing the redundancy by implementing CD-HIT software. No protein in validation dataset has >30% similarity with any protein in training dataset. Eventually, we were left with 545 (18 559 RNA-interacting and 171 879 non-interacting residues) protein sequences in the training dataset and 161 (6966 RNA-interacting and 44 349 non-interacting residues) sequences in the validation dataset. After that, we generated the overlapping patterns for each sequence and with length 17, as done in previous studies [32, 54]. The central i.e. 9th residue was taken as the representative of whole pattern, such as if the 9th residue is RNA-interacting the pattern is assigned as RNA-interacting otherwise non-interacting. To handle

the terminal residues, eight 'X' residues were added to both terminals of the sequences before generating the patterns, so that each residue gets the chance to be the central residue. Figure 1 represents the complete workflow adapted in this study.

Amino acid composition

Amino acid composition (AAC) of residues in a protein sequence was computed using Pfeature standalone version [55]. For AAC, it calculates the percent composition and generates a fixed length vector of 20 amino acid residues as shown in Equation (1).

$$AAC_i = \frac{R_i}{L} \quad (1)$$

where AAC_i is amino acid composition of residue type i ; R_i and L number of residues of type i and length of sequence.

Feature generation

Binary profile

The binary profile is generated with the help of Pfeature [55], here we computed binary profile. Where, each amino acid residue represented with a fixed vector size i.e. 21, for example A is represented as 1,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0; in which 20 are natural amino acids and one is for dummy variable, whereas X is denoted as 0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,1. Hence, each pattern is denoted by a fixed length vector of size 357 (17 * 21).

Physicochemical properties profile

We have implemented Pfeature [55] to calculate physicochemical properties profile using binary profile module. In this approach, each amino acid is represented with a vector of size 25, where each element denotes the particular physicochemical property, such as amino acid 'A' is represented as 0,0,1,0,1,1,0,0,0,0,1,1,0,0,0,0,1,0,0,1,1,0; where 'X' is denoted by zero vector of length 25. '1' denotes the presence and '0' denotes the absence of a particular property. Since, the size of each pattern is 17, hence the resulting length for each vector is 425 (17 * 25).

Evolutionary profile

In order to compute the evolutionary information of residues we generate Position-Specific Scoring Matrix (PSSM) profiles. The PSSM profile was created using PSI-BLAST, which searches each sequence against the Swiss-Prot database. PSI-BLAST was conducted with three iterations along with an e-value of $1e^{-3}$. As shown in Equation (2), we further normalized the profiles, where each pattern is represented as a vector of length 357 in the final matrix for each sequence, which is of dimension $N \times 21$, where N is the length of the protein sequence.

$$PSSM_N = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-x}} \quad (2)$$

where, x is the PSSM score and $PSSM_N$ is the normalized value.

Model building

In order to classify RNA-interacting and non-interaction residues in a protein sequence, we have implemented various classifiers. These machine learning classifiers implemented in python library Scikit-learn [56]. To develop prediction models, we implement various classifiers such as decision tree (DT), random forest (RF),

Table 1. List of computational resources for the prediction of RNA-interacting residues

| Name | Year | Description (Weblink) | Working status |
|-----------------------|------|---|----------------|
| BindN [37] | 2006 | SVM based method for predicting DNA and RNA binding sites (http://bioinformatics.ksu.edu/bindn/) | No |
| RNABindR [38] | 2007 | Distance cut-off based prediction (http://bindr.gdcb.iastate.edu/RNABindR) | Yes |
| Pprint [32] | 2008 | SVM and PSSM profile-based prediction method (https://webs.iiitd.edu.in/raghava/print/) | Yes |
| PRINTR [39] | 2008 | SVM and PSSM profile-based prediction method (http://210.42.106.80/printr/) | No |
| BindN+ [40] | 2010 | SVM based DNA or RNA-binding site prediction using PSSM profile (http://bioinfo.ggc.org/bindn+/) | No |
| PRBR [41] | 2011 | RF based model developed using hybrid feature (http://www.cbi.ssu.edu.cn/PRBR/) | No |
| RPISeq [42] | 2011 | Sequence information prediction method for RNA-protein interaction (http://pridb.gdcb.iastate.edu/RPISeq/) | Yes |
| RNABindRPlus [43] | 2014 | Machine Learning and Sequence Homology-Based Methods (http://ailab-projects2.ist.psu.edu/RNABindRPlus/) | Yes |
| DR_bind [44] | 2014 | Evolutionary conserved structural and energetic features based prediction (https://drbind.limlab.ibms.sinica.edu.tw/) | Yes |
| RBScore & Nbench [45] | 2015 | Scoring scheme based linking of feature values with nucleic acid-binding probabilities (http://ahsoka.u-strasbg.fr/rbscorenbench/) | No |
| SNBRFinder [46] | 2015 | Prediction of nucleic acids binding residues using hybrid algorithm (http://ibi.hzau.edu.cn/SNBRFinder) | No |
| PredRBR [34] | 2016 | Structure based prediction method (http://denglab.org/PredRBR) | Yes |
| DRNAPred [47] | 2017 | Fast sequence-based method that accurately predicts RNA-interacting residues (http://biomine.cs.vcu.edu/servers/DRNAPred/) | Yes |
| HybridNAP [48] | 2017 | RNA-binding residue prediction method (http://biomine.cs.vcu.edu/servers/hybridNAP) | Yes |
| RPI-Bind [29] | 2017 | Structure-based method for accurate identification of RNA-protein-binding sites (http://ctsb.is.wfubmc.edu/publications/RPI-Bind-Pred.php) | No |
| iDeepS [27] | 2018 | Deep convolutional and neural networks based prediction method (https://github.com/xypan1232/iDeepS) | Yes |
| RPiRLS [35] | 2018 | Quantitative matrix based predictions of RNA interaction (http://bmc.med.stu.edu.cn/RPiRLS) | No |
| SVMnuc & NucBind [49] | 2019 | Support vector machine-based ab-initio method (https://yanglab.nankai.edu.cn/NucBind/) | Yes |
| PRIME-3D2D [31] | 2020 | Structure based RNA-binding residue prediction method (http://www.rnabinding.com/PRIME-3D2D/) | Yes |
| ProNA2020 [36] | 2020 | Standard neural networks based method (www.predictprotein.org) | Yes |
| NCBRPred [50] | 2021 | Multi-label learning framework method (http://bliulab.net/NCBRPred/) | Yes |
| PST-PRNA [30] | 2022 | Protein surface topology method (http://www.zpliulab.cn/PSTPRNA) | Yes |
| iDRNA-ITF [51] | 2022 | Induction & transfer framework based method (http://bliulab.net/iDRNA-ITF/) | Yes |

logistic regression (LR), eXtreme gradient boosting (XGB), Gaussian Naive Bayes (GNB), extra-tree classifier (ET), K-nearest neighbor and one-dimensional convolutional neural network (1D-CNN).

Five-fold cross-validation

To train, test and validate the prediction models, we employed 5-fold cross-validation and an external validation as implemented in previous studies [57, 58]. Five-fold cross-validation was employed only on the training dataset. In which the data were split into five parts, where four of which were used to train the model and the fifth set was utilized for testing. This process is iterated five times, in which each set is used in training and testing the models. We have hyper-tuned the parameters using grid-search approach for traditional machine learning and

deep-learning technique. For 1D-CNN model, the parameters were hyper-tuned at three level: layers (filters in each convolution layer, convolution filters' size, number of dense layers and number of neurons in each layer); functions (optimizers, loss function and activation function) and rates (learning and dropout).

Performance evaluation

In this work, we examined the performance of the model using sensitivity, specificity, *f*1 score, accuracy, area under the receiver operating characteristic (AUROC) and Matthews correlation coefficient (MCC). These parameters belong to threshold dependent (i.e. sensitivity, specificity, accuracy and MCC) and independent category (AUROC) to evaluate our models. These parameters were

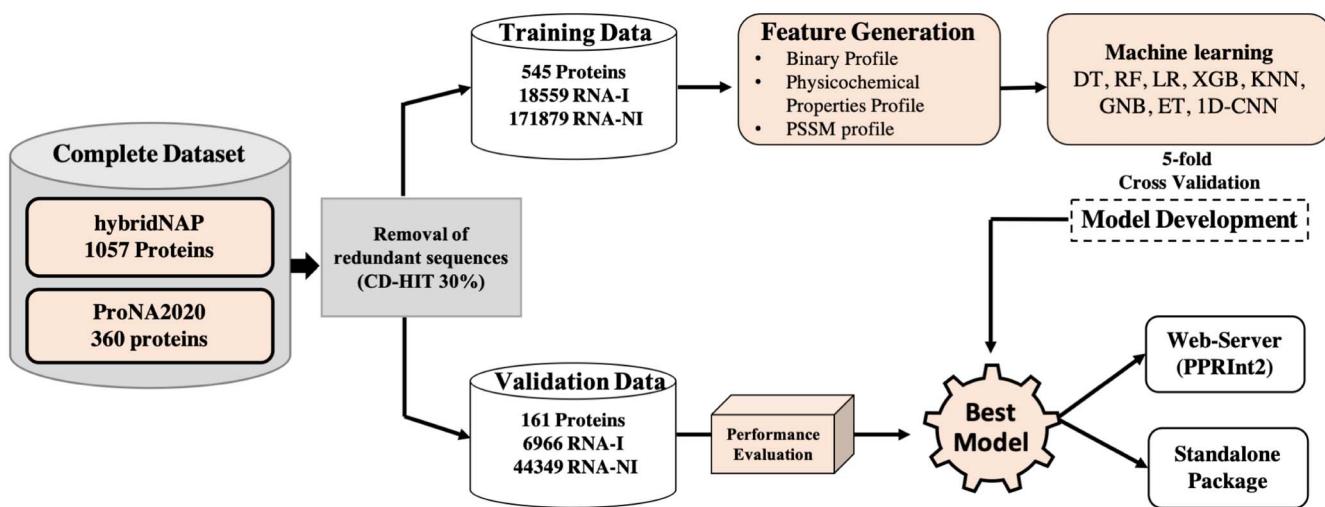


Figure 1. Complete workflow of the study including the dataset creation, feature generation, model development and evaluation.

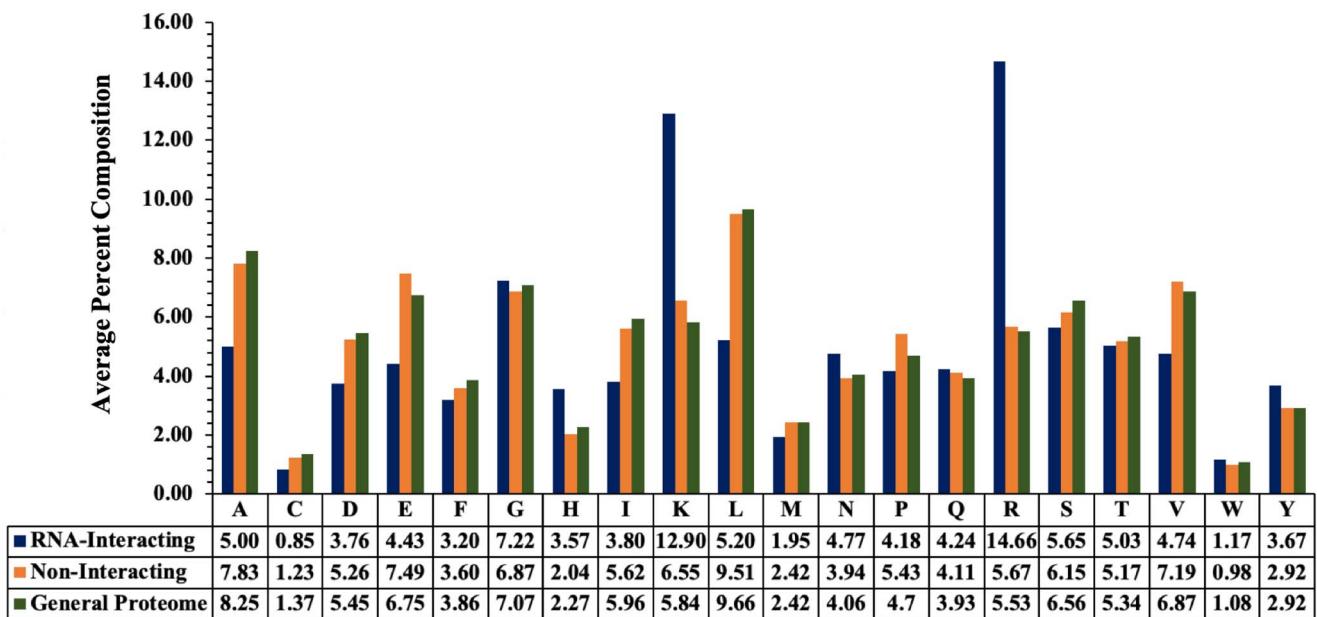


Figure 2. Average percent composition of each residue in RNA-interacting, non-interacting residues and general proteome.

computed using the following Equations (3–7).

$$\text{Sensitivity} = \frac{TP}{TP + FN} * 100 \quad (3)$$

$$\text{Specificity} = \frac{TN}{TN + FP} * 100 \quad (4)$$

$$\text{Accuracy} = \frac{TP + TN}{TP + FP + TN + FN} * 100 \quad (5)$$

$$\text{F1-score} = \frac{2TP}{FP + FN} \quad (6)$$

$$\text{MCC} = \frac{(TP * TN) - (FP * FN)}{\sqrt{(TP + FP)(TP + FN)(TN + FP)(TN + FN)}} \quad (7)$$

where, FP is false positive, FN is false negative, TP is true positive and TN is true negative.

Results

Compositional analysis

In order to understand the distribution of amino acid residues in the RNA-interacting versus non-interacting versus general proteome, we have calculated the percent amino acid composition. For percent amino acid composition of general proteome, we have used the values from the Swiss-Prot database available at <https://web.expasy.org/protscale/pscale/A.A.Swiss-Prot.html>. As exhibited by Figure 2, positively charged residue H, K and R are abundant in RNA-interacting residues as compare to non-interacting or general proteome, where A, D, E, I, L and V are rich in non-interacting and general proteome.

Physicochemical property analysis

In order to explore the nature of amino acids involved in the RNA-interaction, we computed physicochemical properties-based percent composition of residues involved in RNA-interaction.

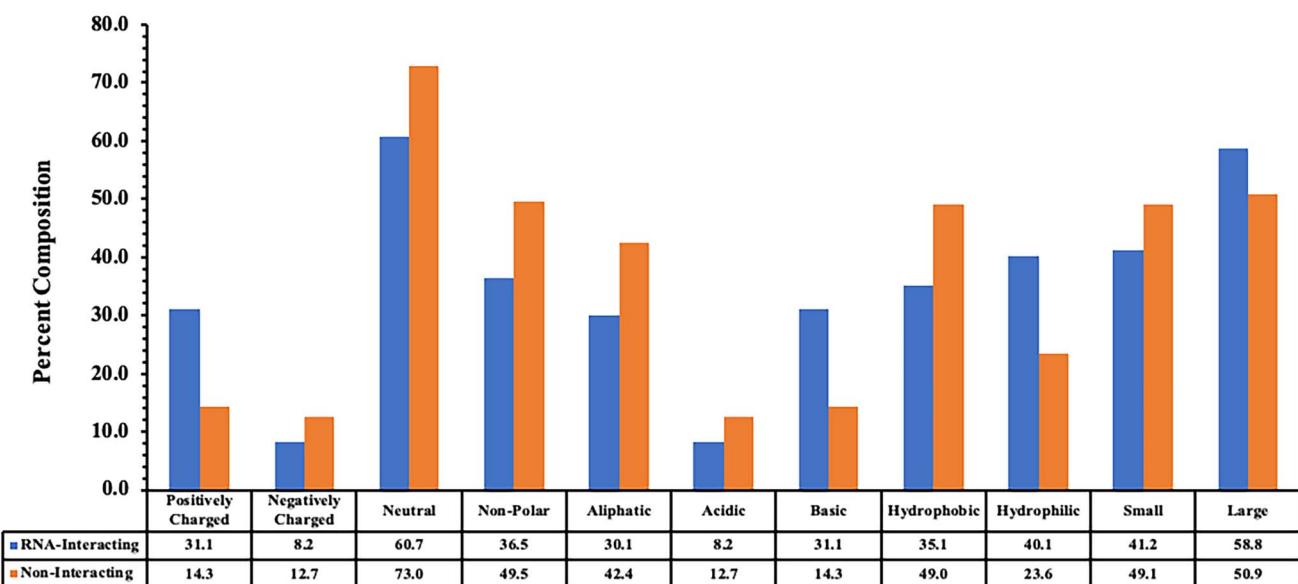


Figure 3. Percent composition based on physicochemical properties of residues involved in RNA-interaction.

Table 2. The performance binary profile based on models developed using different classifiers

| Classifier | Training dataset | | | | | | | Validation dataset | | | | | | |
|------------|------------------|-------|-------|------|------|------|------|--------------------|-------|-------|------|------|------|------|
| | Sens | Spec | Acc | AUC | F1 | K | MCC | Sens | Spec | Acc | AUC | F1 | K | MCC |
| DT | 19.14 | 88.93 | 82.13 | 0.54 | 0.17 | 0.07 | 0.07 | 15.94 | 89.07 | 79.14 | 0.53 | 0.17 | 0.05 | 0.05 |
| RF | 66.57 | 67.53 | 67.43 | 0.73 | 0.29 | 0.16 | 0.21 | 55.77 | 68.54 | 66.81 | 0.67 | 0.31 | 0.15 | 0.18 |
| LR | 67.20 | 68.16 | 68.07 | 0.74 | 0.29 | 0.16 | 0.22 | 55.79 | 70.37 | 68.39 | 0.68 | 0.32 | 0.16 | 0.19 |
| XGB | 66.88 | 67.54 | 67.48 | 0.74 | 0.29 | 0.16 | 0.21 | 55.86 | 69.65 | 67.78 | 0.68 | 0.32 | 0.16 | 0.19 |
| KNN | 60.32 | 63.75 | 63.41 | 0.64 | 0.24 | 0.10 | 0.15 | 52.60 | 64.66 | 63.02 | 0.60 | 0.28 | 0.10 | 0.12 |
| GNB | 66.63 | 65.14 | 65.28 | 0.71 | 0.27 | 0.14 | 0.19 | 56.30 | 67.11 | 65.64 | 0.65 | 0.31 | 0.14 | 0.17 |
| ET | 68.25 | 65.72 | 65.97 | 0.73 | 0.28 | 0.15 | 0.21 | 58.38 | 66.64 | 65.52 | 0.67 | 0.32 | 0.15 | 0.18 |
| 1D-CNN | 73.91 | 73.76 | 73.78 | 0.81 | 0.36 | 0.24 | 0.31 | 50.66 | 74.63 | 71.38 | 0.68 | 0.33 | 0.17 | 0.19 |

DT: decision tree; RF: random forest; LR: logistic regression; XGB: eXtreme gradient boosting; KNN: K-nearest neighbour; GNB: Gaussian Naïve Bayes; ET: extra tree; 1D-CNN: one-dimensional convolutional neural network; Sens: sensitivity; Spec: specificity; Acc: accuracy; AUC: area under the receiver operating characteristic curve; K: Kappa; MCC: Matthews correlation coefficient.

As shown by Figure 3, positively charged, basic and hydrophilic residues are abundant in the RNA-binding sites as RNA has a negative backbone. On the other hand, negatively charged, neutral charged, acidic, hydrophobic, small, non-polar and aliphatic residues are scarce in RNA-interacting sites.

Two sample logo

In the past, number of studies have shown that the interaction property of a residue is influenced by its neighboring residues. In this study, we have created the patterns of length 17, where central i.e. 9th residue is the representative of whole pattern and based on that a pattern is assigned as interacting or non-interacting. Figure 4 represents the preference of residues as each position in RNA-interacting and non-interacting patterns, and it shows that residue R is highly preferred at interacting site followed by K and H, flanked by positively charged residues R and K. On the contrary, non-interacting sites are preferred by residue L, followed by E, A and V, where these residues are flanked by residues E and L.

Performance of binary profile

We have used binary profile as input features to train and evaluate the prediction models by implementing various machine learning

classifiers. We used five-fold cross-validation technique to build prediction models on training datasets. As shown in Table 2, in case of machine learning techniques both logistic regression and XGB achieve maximum AUC 0.74. In case of deep learning, 1D-CNN based model obtained AUC 0.81, which is highest. In order to obtain unbiased performance of models we evaluate these models on validation/independent dataset. In case of machine learning techniques, we achieved maximum AUC 0.68 for both logistic regression and XGB based models. In case of 1D-CNN performance of model decrease drastically from 0.81 to 0.68 when tested on validation/independent dataset instead of training dataset. In summary, both 1D-CNN and machine learning based models achieve same performance on validation dataset.

Performance of physicochemical properties profile

In addition, models have been developed using physicochemical properties profile, which represents each amino acid with vector of length 25. In case of machine learning techniques, we got maximum AUC 0.74 and 0.68 on training and independent/validation dataset, respectively (Table 3).

In case of deep learning 1D-CNN, we achieved maximum AUC 0.79 and 0.68 on training and validation dataset, respectively.

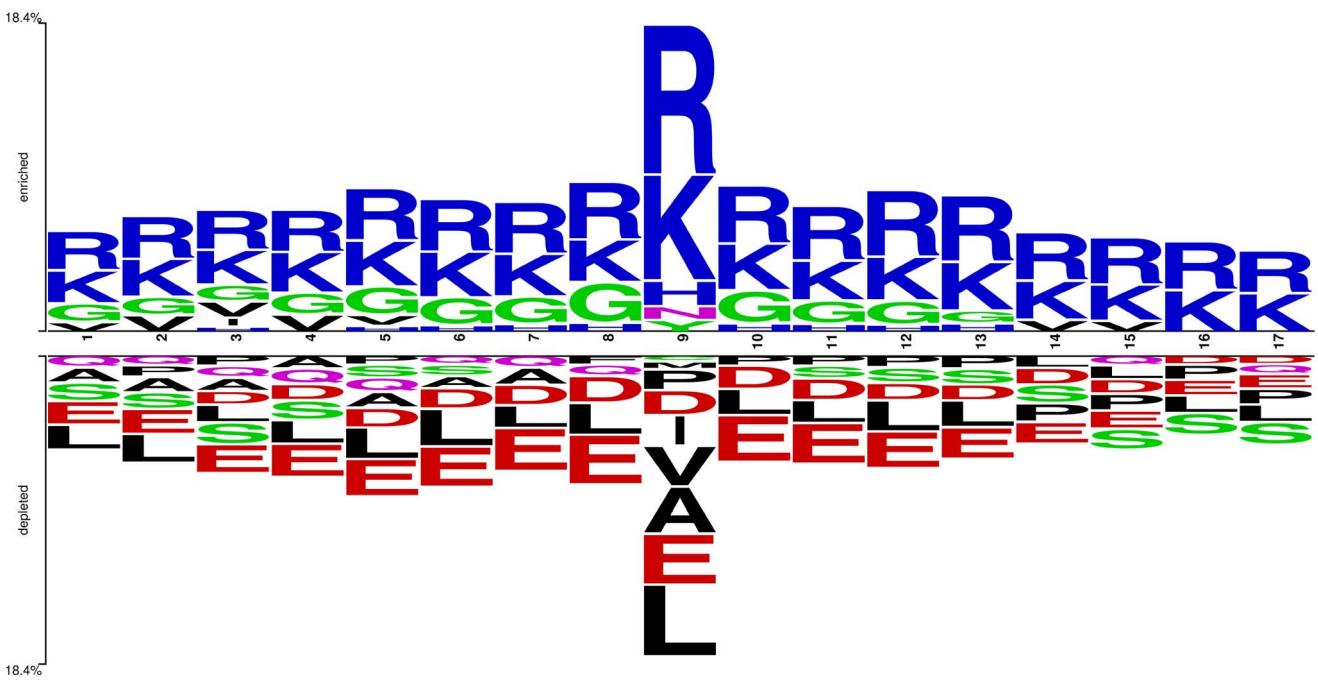


Figure 4. Two sample logo exhibits the preference of residues at each position in RNA-interacting and non-interacting patterns.

Table 3. Performance measures for models developed by implementing various classifiers using physicochemical properties profile as the input feature

| Classifier | Training dataset | | | | | | | Validation dataset | | | | | | |
|------------|------------------|-------|-------|------|------|------|------|--------------------|-------|-------|------|------|------|------|
| | Sens | Spec | Acc | AUC | F1 | K | MCC | Sens | Spec | Acc | AUC | F1 | K | MCC |
| DT | 16.15 | 91.03 | 83.73 | 0.54 | 0.16 | 0.07 | 0.07 | 14.00 | 91.46 | 80.95 | 0.53 | 0.17 | 0.06 | 0.06 |
| RF | 67.74 | 64.56 | 64.87 | 0.72 | 0.27 | 0.14 | 0.20 | 56.88 | 66.37 | 65.08 | 0.66 | 0.31 | 0.14 | 0.17 |
| LR | 67.30 | 68.19 | 68.10 | 0.74 | 0.29 | 0.16 | 0.22 | 55.70 | 70.48 | 68.47 | 0.68 | 0.32 | 0.16 | 0.19 |
| XGB | 65.41 | 68.60 | 68.29 | 0.73 | 0.29 | 0.16 | 0.21 | 54.22 | 70.50 | 68.29 | 0.68 | 0.32 | 0.16 | 0.18 |
| KN | 62.43 | 63.32 | 63.23 | 0.65 | 0.25 | 0.11 | 0.16 | 53.22 | 63.81 | 62.37 | 0.60 | 0.28 | 0.10 | 0.12 |
| GNB | 65.44 | 66.15 | 66.08 | 0.71 | 0.27 | 0.14 | 0.19 | 54.19 | 68.58 | 66.63 | 0.66 | 0.31 | 0.14 | 0.16 |
| ET | 65.81 | 67.25 | 67.11 | 0.72 | 0.28 | 0.15 | 0.20 | 54.65 | 68.74 | 66.83 | 0.66 | 0.31 | 0.14 | 0.17 |
| 1D-CNN | 69.84 | 69.60 | 69.62 | 0.77 | 0.31 | 0.19 | 0.25 | 56.42 | 71.14 | 69.14 | 0.69 | 0.33 | 0.17 | 0.20 |

DT: decision tree; RF: random forest; LR: logistic regression; XGB: eXtreme gradient boosting; KNN: K-nearest neighbour; GNB: Gaussian Naïve Bayes; ET: extra tree; 1D-CNN: one-dimensional convolutional neural network; Sens: sensitivity; Spec: specificity; Acc: accuracy; AUC: area under the receiver operating characteristic curve; K: Kappa; MCC: Matthews correlation coefficient.

Table 4. Performance of various classifiers using PSSM profile as input feature for training and validation dataset

| Classifier | Training dataset | | | | | | | Validation dataset | | | | | | |
|------------|------------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------------|-------|-------|------|------|------|------|
| | Sens | Spec | Acc | AUC | F1 | K | MCC | Sens | Spec | Acc | AUC | F1 | K | MCC |
| DT | 30.54 ± 1.56 | 92.02 ± 0.21 | 86.03 ± 0.31 | 0.61 ± 0.008 | 0.29 ± 0.018 | 0.22 ± 0.016 | 0.22 ± 0.016 | 22.08 | 92.42 | 82.87 | 0.57 | 0.26 | 0.17 | 0.17 |
| RF | 74.35 ± 1.79 | 70.63 ± 1.52 | 71.01 ± 1.20 | 0.80 ± 0.008 | 0.33 ± 0.012 | 0.21 ± 0.009 | 0.28 ± 0.009 | 62.26 | 70.90 | 69.73 | 0.73 | 0.36 | 0.20 | 0.24 |
| LR | 71.93 ± 1.69 | 71.63 ± 0.47 | 71.66 ± 0.29 | 0.79 ± 0.007 | 0.33 ± 0.14 | 0.21 ± 0.011 | 0.28 ± 0.013 | 61.71 | 74.12 | 72.44 | 0.75 | 0.38 | 0.23 | 0.27 |
| XGB | 74.23 ± 1.33 | 73.65 ± 0.61 | 73.71 ± 0.42 | 0.82 ± 0.006 | 0.36 ± 0.012 | 0.24 ± 0.008 | 0.31 ± 0.009 | 61.47 | 75.83 | 73.88 | 0.76 | 0.39 | 0.25 | 0.28 |
| KN | 74.19 ± 1.91 | 66.17 ± 0.79 | 66.96 ± 0.64 | 0.75 ± 0.012 | 0.30 ± 0.015 | 0.18 ± 0.012 | 0.25 ± 0.014 | 64.36 | 66.71 | 66.39 | 0.69 | 0.34 | 0.18 | 0.22 |
| GNB | 67.64 ± 1.70 | 68.82 ± 1.06 | 68.70 ± 0.80 | 0.75 ± 0.007 | 0.30 ± 0.010 | 0.17 ± 0.005 | 0.23 ± 0.007 | 54.78 | 73.28 | 70.77 | 0.70 | 0.34 | 0.18 | 0.21 |
| ET | 74.28 ± 1.87 | 70.24 ± 1.79 | 70.64 ± 1.44 | 0.80 ± 0.007 | 0.33 ± 0.012 | 0.21 ± 0.010 | 0.28 ± 0.009 | 62.82 | 70.12 | 69.13 | 0.72 | 0.36 | 0.20 | 0.24 |
| 1D-CNN | 83.08 ± 1.29 | 83.37 ± 1.34 | 83.34 ± 1.36 | 0.91 ± 0.008 | 0.49 ± 0.025 | 0.41 ± 0.023 | 0.47 ± 0.021 | 80.19 | 82.35 | 82.05 | 0.82 | 0.55 | 0.45 | 0.49 |

DT: decision tree; RF: random forest; LR: logistic regression; XGB: eXtreme gradient boosting; KNN: K-nearest neighbour; GNB: Gaussian Naïve Bayes; ET: extra tree; 1D-CNN: one-dimensional convolutional neural network; Sens: sensitivity; Spec: specificity; Acc: accuracy; AUC: area under the receiver operating characteristic curve; K: Kappa; MCC: Matthews correlation coefficient.

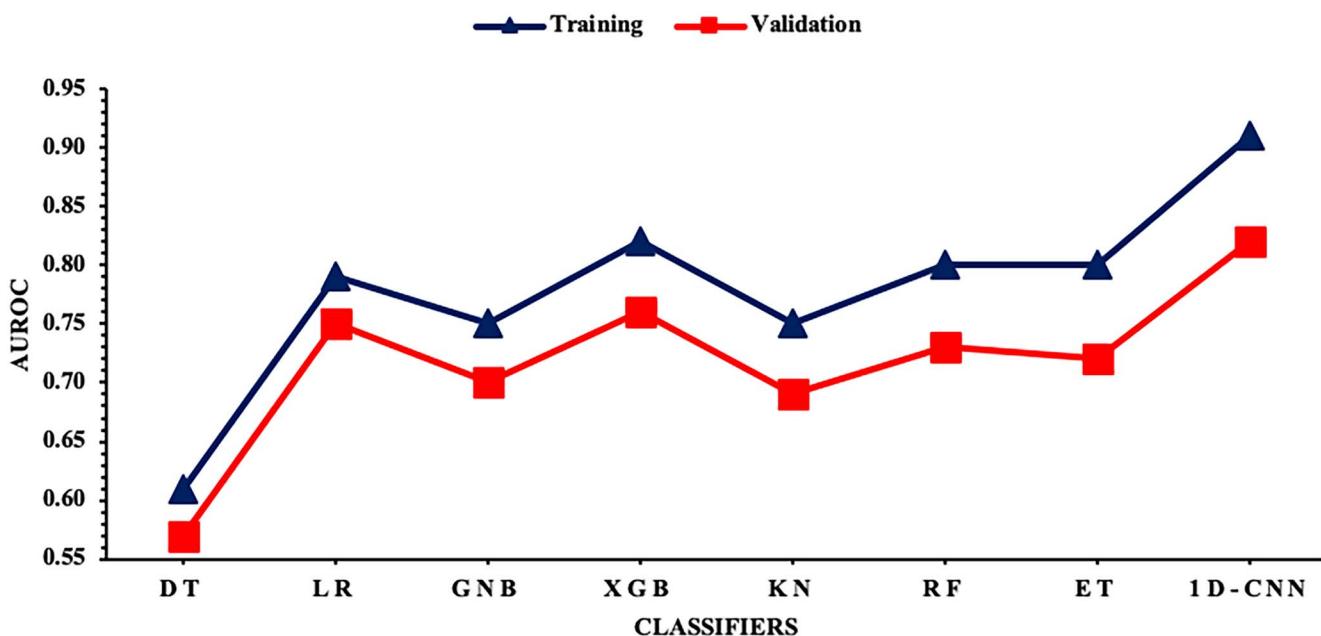


Figure 5. Difference in the AUROC of various models developed using PSSM profile.

These results indicate that models based on physicochemical properties and binary profile have nearly same precision.

Performance of evolutionary profile

It has been shown in the previous studies that evolutionary information provides more information than single sequence. Thus, in this study PSSM profiles were generated for proteins to capture evolutionary information. Machine learning based models have been developed using PSSM profile for predicting RNA-interacting residues. As shown in Table 4, almost all classifiers developed using PSSM profile perform better than binary profile-based models. In case of machine learning, XGB based model obtain AUC 0.82 and 0.76 on training and independent/validation dataset, respectively. It means the performance increases from 0.68 to 0.76 on the validation dataset, when we used PSSM profile in place of binary profile. It shows importance of PSSM profile in predicting RNA-interacting residues. Our 1D-CNN based model obtained AUC 0.91 and 0.82 on training and validation datasets respectively. In summary, 1D-CNN achieved maximum AUC 0.82 on validation dataset.

We have also compared the difference between the AUC of models built using PSSM profile, to understand the overfitting in the models by comparing their performances in training and validation dataset as shown in Figure 5. The difference in the AUC for training and validation dataset showed that DT model is least overfitted, whereas the performance of the deep-learning model exhibits that the resulting model is quite overfitted as compare to the other models.

Comparison with existing methods

In order to justify a newly developed method, it is essential to compare its performance with the existing methods. The existing methods have been trained and evaluated on different datasets as these methods have been developed over the years. In order to provide unbiased evaluation of methods, one should evaluate performance of all methods on a common dataset. In this paper, evaluate the performance of the existing methods on independent/validation dataset. The performance measures

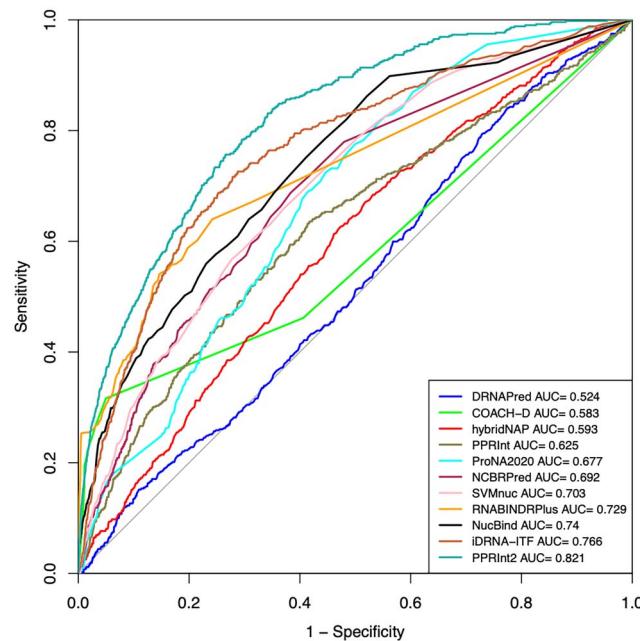


Figure 6. ROC curve shows the performance of all methods on validation dataset in term of area under curve (AUC).

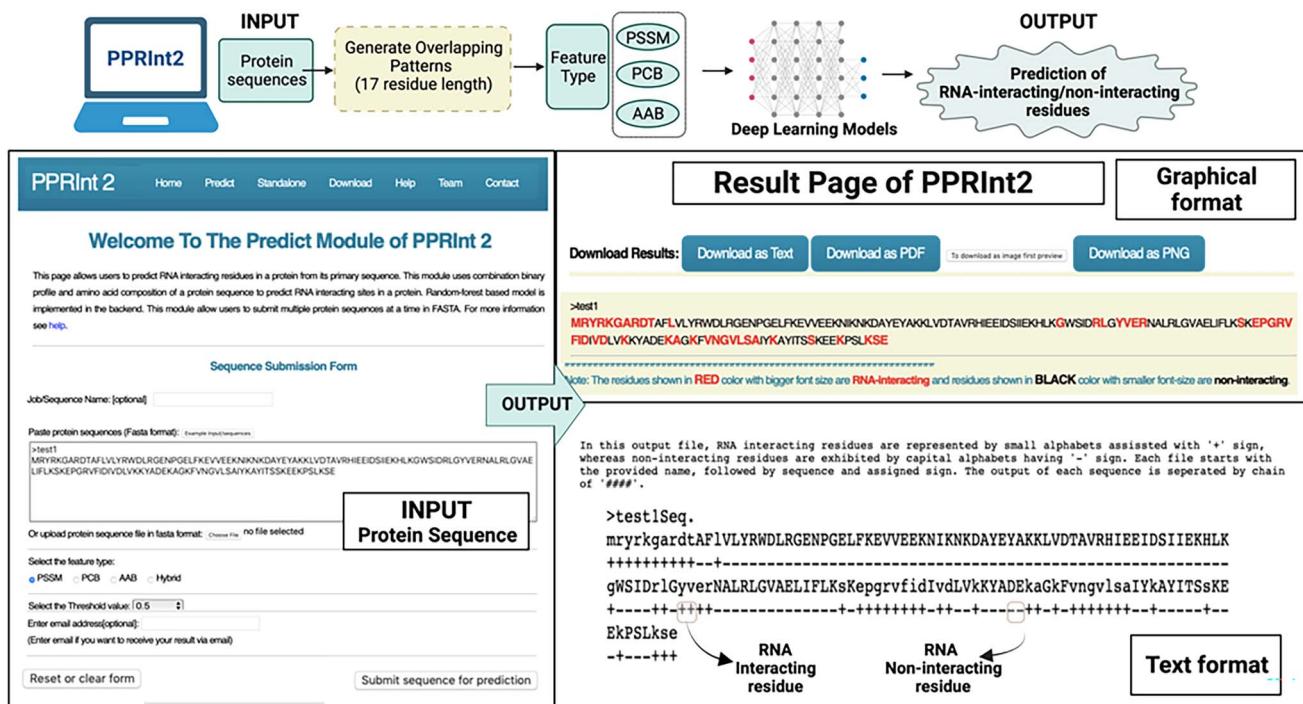
taken into consideration were sensitivity, specificity, AUC, accuracy, F1, Kappa and MCC. As shown in Table 5 and Figure 6, Pprint2 perform better than existing methods with AUC of 0.82, whereas iDRNA-ITF performed second best among the existing methods with AUC 0.77 (See Table 5).

Service to scientific community

In order to facilitate scientific community, we developed a web server and standalone package called Pprint2, which is available at <https://webs.iiitd.edu.in/raghava/pprint2/>. Our web server allows the users to predict RNA-interacting residues in a protein sequence pasted/uploaded by user. It allows users to select any

Table 5. Performance of existing methods on the validation dataset

| Methods | Sensitivity | Specificity | Accuracy | AUC | F1 | K | MCC |
|---------------|-------------|-------------|----------|------|------|------|------|
| DRNApRed | 45.40 | 51.87 | 51.59 | 0.52 | 0.08 | 0.00 | 0.01 |
| COACH-D | 46.17 | 59.37 | 58.80 | 0.58 | 0.09 | 0.01 | 0.02 |
| HybridNAP | 56.90 | 56.05 | 56.09 | 0.59 | 0.10 | 0.02 | 0.05 |
| Pprint | 60.15 | 60.29 | 60.28 | 0.63 | 0.12 | 0.04 | 0.08 |
| ProNA2020 | 62.07 | 62.44 | 62.43 | 0.68 | 0.13 | 0.05 | 0.10 |
| NCBRPred | 37.93 | 86.03 | 83.95 | 0.69 | 0.17 | 0.11 | 0.14 |
| SVMnuc | 63.03 | 65.39 | 65.29 | 0.70 | 0.14 | 0.06 | 0.12 |
| RNABindR-Plus | 67.24 | 68.36 | 68.31 | 0.73 | 0.16 | 0.09 | 0.15 |
| NucBind | 65.71 | 66.92 | 66.87 | 0.74 | 0.15 | 0.08 | 0.14 |
| iDRNA-ITF | 71.65 | 71.83 | 71.82 | 0.77 | 0.18 | 0.11 | 0.19 |
| Pprint2 | 80.19 | 82.34 | 82.05 | 0.82 | 0.55 | 0.45 | 0.49 |

**Figure 7.** Complete usage of prediction module of webserver.

modules for prediction that include PSSM profile and binary profile. The resulting page displays the input sequence(s) with highlighting the interacting residues in red color as represented in Figure 7. In addition, server provides the facility to download the results in .txt, .pdf and .png format. In addition, we have also provided the python-based standalone package, which is available from <https://github.com/raghavags/pprint2>.

Discussion and conclusion

The interaction between RNA and protein complexes is responsible for many fundamental processes such as splicing, translation, transport and silencing [59, 60]. Accurate identification of amino acid residues involving in the interaction with the RNA lead to the better understanding of the sequence specific mechanism of RNA-protein interaction [61, 62]. Correct identification of RNA-interacting residues in a protein is only possible if structure of RNA-protein complexes is available. Unfortunately, crystallization of all RNA-protein complexes is not possible due to number of

limitation of experimental techniques like crystallography and NMR. In addition, experimental techniques are costly and time-consuming. In order to facilitate researcher in the field of RNA biology, many methods have been developed for predicting RNA-interacting residues [63–65]. One of the major limitation of previous methods was that they have been trained and evaluated on limited RNA-binding proteins. For example, in our previous method Pprint [32], we trained and test our models on only 86 RNA-binding proteins. Due to lack of sufficient data, a lenient cut-off level 70% has been used for removing redundant proteins. This is true for most of old methods where limited set of RNA-binding proteins were used for training and evaluation. In addition, proteins in dataset contain high level of similarity with each other. Over the years structures of RNA-protein complexes have been grown drastically in PDB [62, 66]. Thus, there is a need to develop new method on large set of RNA-binding proteins whose structure is available in PDB. In addition, there is a need to create separate dataset for training and validation. In order to avoid any over optimization of machine learning models that proteins in

training and validation should not have minimum similarity. In this study, we make an attempt to train our models on large set of proteins. Initially, we obtained 1057 and 360 protein sequences from recently published articles hybridNAP [67] and proNA2020 [36]. In order to create dataset of redundant RNA-binding protein, we removed the redundant sequences using CD-HIT at 30%. This leads to a dataset of 545 proteins in training and 161 sequences in independent or validation dataset. This is one of the largest dataset used for training and validation. In addition, proteins in training and validation dataset have similarity 30% or less.

As shown in results section, in most of the cases performance of our machine learning based model on training and validation dataset is nearly same. This indicates that our models are not over optimized on training dataset. Our results indicate that performance of models improved significantly using evolutionary information. This support previous studies including our previous method Pprint that evolutionary information is important for prediction. The performance of models based on binary profile and physiochemical property is nearly same. It means over optimization is not a major challenge in case of machine learning techniques if models developed using cross-validation techniques. In case of 1D-CNN (deep learning), we observed high level of over optimization. Most of the 1D-CNN models have high performance on training dataset compare to validation dataset. Thus cross-validation techniques are not sufficient for evaluating deep-learning models. These deep-learning models should be evaluated on validation dataset for unbiased evaluation.

Key Points

- Machine learning based models were developed using different profiles.
- PSSM profile of a protein was created to extract evolutionary information.
- PSSM profiles of proteins were generated using PSI-BLAST.
- Convolutional neural network based model was developed using PSSM profile.
- Webserver, Python- and Perl-based standalone package and GitHub is available.

Data availability

All the datasets generated in this study are available at 'Pprint' web server <https://webs.iiitd.edu.in/raghava/pprint2/dataset.php>. BioRxiv DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1101/2022.06.03.494705>

Authors' contributions

SP and GPSR collected and processed the datasets. SP, KP, HS and GPSR implemented the algorithms and SP developed the prediction models. SP, AD and GPSR analysed the results. SP created the back-end of the web server the front-end user interface. SP, AD and GPSR penned the manuscript. GPSR conceived and coordinated the project. All authors have read and approved the final manuscript.

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