Structural bioinformatics

A new method to improve network topological similarity search: applied to fold recognition

John Lhota¹,†, Ruth Hauptman²,†, Thomas Hart³, Clara Ng² and Lei Xie²,4,*


*To whom correspondence should be addressed.
†The authors wish it to be known that, in their opinion, the first two authors should be regarded as Joint First Authors’.

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Abstract

Motivation: Similarity search is the foundation of bioinformatics. It plays a key role in establishing structural, functional and evolutionary relationships between biological sequences. Although the power of the similarity search has increased steadily in recent years, a high percentage of sequences remain uncharacterized in the protein universe. Thus, new similarity search strategies are needed to efficiently and reliably infer the structure and function of new sequences. The existing paradigm for studying protein sequence, structure, function and evolution has been established based on the assumption that the protein universe is discrete and hierarchical. Cumulative evidence suggests that the protein universe is continuous. As a result, conventional sequence homology search methods may not be able to detect novel structural, functional and evolutionary relationships between proteins from weak and noisy sequence signals. To overcome the limitations in existing similarity search methods, we propose a new algorithmic framework—Enrichment of Network Topological Similarity (ENTS)—to improve the performance of large scale similarity searches in bioinformatics.

Results: We apply ENTS to a challenging unsolved problem: protein fold recognition. Our rigorous benchmark studies demonstrate that ENTS considerably outperforms state-of-the-art methods. As the concept of ENTS can be applied to any similarity metric, it may provide a general framework for similarity search on any set of biological entities, given their representation as a network.

Availability and implementation: Source code freely available upon request

Contact: lxie@iscb.org

1 Introduction

Recent advances in whole-genome sequencing and high-throughput techniques have generated a vast amount of sequence and omics data. One critical bottleneck in the post-genome era is the discernment of the biological meaning of uncharacterized sequences in the context of complex phenotypes. Similarity search, as the foundation of bioinformatics, plays a key role in establishing structural, functional and evolutionary relationships between biological sequences. In the case of protein function annotation and structure determination, although the power of the similarity search has increased steadily in recent years, the protein universe still contains a high percentage of ‘dark matter’, which consists of proteins that cannot be characterized by existing experimental or computational techniques (Levitt, 2009). Thus, new similarity search strategies are needed to identify homologs of new sequences efficiently and reliably and to infer their structures and functions in the context of biological systems via integrating heterogeneous omics data.
An increasing body of evidence suggests that protein space is continuous in general, although there exist discrete islands (Berezovsky and Trifonov, 2001; Efimov, 1997; Kolodny et al., 2006; Lupas et al., 2001; Nepomnyachiy et al., 2014; Pascual-Garcia et al., 2009, 2010; Petrey et al., 2009; Sadowski and Taylor, 2010; Sadreyev et al., 2009; Shindyalov and Bourne, 2000; Skolnick et al., 2009; Szustakowski et al., 2005; Taylor, 2002; Tendulkar et al., 2004; Tsai et al., 2008; Xie and Bourne, 2008; Zhang et al., 2010). It implies that two proteins could be related even if their pairwise similarity is undetectable. Thus, the protein universe is better represented as a graph, where each node is a protein. Two nodes are connected if there is a detectable relationship between them (Dokholyan et al., 2002). In this way, two remotely related proteins can be connected through a transitive path (Nepomnyachiy et al., 2014). However, widely used sequence similarity search methods such as PSI-BLAST (Altschul et al., 1997) and hidden Markov model (HMM, Eddy, 1998), and conventional protein sequence and structure classification schema such as Pfam (Finn et al., 2008), structural classification of proteins (SCOP, Murzin et al., 1995) and CATH (Orengo et al., 1997) are built on the assumption that protein space is discrete and hierarchical. As a result, novel structural and functional relationships can be missed if two sequences are very divergent. A network-based method, which connects all sequences into a graph model and exploits the global network structure of similarity relationships between proteins in a database, provides an alternative solution to explore the protein space in a continuous fashion (Chen et al., 2011a, b; Chipman and Singh, 2009; Melvin et al., 2009; Singh-Blom et al., 2013; Vanunu et al., 2010; Wang et al., 2013; Weston et al., 2004). Although it has demonstrated its potential in detecting novel relationships that could be missed by the pairwise-based method (Atkinson et al., 2009), the existing network-based method has two fundamental limitations. First, it provides the ranking of similarities but gives no information on their reliabilities. A model that can assess the statistical significance of similarity is one of the key components in both pairwise-based and profile-based methods and is critical in distinguishing true and false positives and enhancing the sensitivity of a similarity search. Second, few network-based methods can combine sequence and structural similarity. The incorporation of structural similarity into sequence profile has been successfully applied to detecting novel sequence-structure relationships, as the structure is more conserved than the sequence (Petrey et al., 2003; Tang et al., 2003).

In this article, we introduce a new similarity search method, Enrichment of Network Topological Similarity (ENTS), to address challenges in protein similarity search in terms of the continuous protein space. ENTS synthesizes several concepts: network inference to detect the global similarity of a protein, grouping of relevant proteins as a network profile, incorporation of structural information into the sequence search and an efficient statistics model to assess the reliability of the network topological similarity profile. We apply ENTS to a challenging unsolved problem: protein fold recognition. Our rigorous benchmark studies demonstrate that ENTS significantly outperforms state-of-the-art profile- and network-based methods for protein structure prediction. Moreover, ENTS can integrate different similarity measurements (e.g. sequence similarity and structure similarity) and biological classifications (e.g. SCOP) to infer novel protein structure and function. As the principal concept of ENTS can be applied to any similarity metric, ENTS provides a new general framework to boost the performance of the similarity search and may inspire novel methodologies in broad areas of bioinformatics, such as RNA structure prediction and disease gene identification.

2 Methods

2.1 Overview

The rationale of ENTS is that when clusters of instances share common features, a cluster ranked closely together is more likely similar to the new instance than a cluster ranked randomly or spread out across the ranking. In addition, network topological similarity provides more robust and accurate global ranking across an entire hypothesis space than pairwise similarity does. Unlike conventional local ranking (e.g. k-nearest neighbors), global instance ranking can support statistical enrichment analysis because it draws valuable information on the ranking for all instances in a cluster from lower, non-randomly ranked cases. Figure 1 shows the scheme of ENTS.

2.2 A weighted graph representation of structural similarity

To initialize ENTS for structure prediction, ENTS builds a structural similarity graph of protein domains, which is essentially the same as the protein domain universe graph described by Dokholyan et al. (Dokholyan et al., 2002). The structural similarity graph is a weighted graph with one node for each structural domain and an edge between two nodes only if their pairwise similarity exceeds a certain threshold. In this article, the structural similarity score is determined by TM align (Zhang and Skolnick, 2005). The threshold is 0.4 of the TM align score. In other applications, the threshold depends on the features and the pairwise similarity metric. Any similarity metric (e.g. Euclidean distance, Jaccard index, HMM and kernel-based similarity) can be applied here.

2.3 Classification or clustering of protein structural domains

Next, some or all the structural domains in the database are labeled with SCOP (Murzin et al., 1995). If pre-classification is not used, clusters of structural domains can be assembled using structural similarity under unsupervised clustering techniques (Estivill-Castro, 2002) such as k-means (Hartigan and Wong, 1979), mean-shift (Comaniciu and Meer, 2002), affinity propagation (Frey and Dueck, 2007) or p-median model (Bruno and Kohn, 2008), etc. These domain clusters are applied to the next step. In general, the labeled clusters are not necessarily disjointed. They can overlap.

2.4 Network topological similarity

Given a query domain sequence and the goal to predict its structure, ENTS first links the query to all nodes in the structural similarity graph. The weights of these new edges are based only on the sequence profile-profile similarity derived from HHSearch (Soding, 2005). Then random walk with restart (RWR) is applied to perform a probabilistic traversal of the instance graph across all paths leading away from the query, where the probability of choosing an edge will be proportional to its weight. The algorithm will output a list of all instances in the graph, ranked by the probability of reaching the node i. In this way, RWR can capture global relationships that may be missed by pairwise similarity (Tong and Faloutsos, 2006).

We modified the RankProp algorithm (Melvin et al., 2009), a variant of RWR and implemented it using the boost library (http://www.boost.org). The graph is represented as an adjacency list to save memory and speed up the iterative algorithm. The current implementation is scalable to a graph with millions of nodes and hundreds of millions of edges.
2.5 Statistical significance of network topological similarity

A network topological search only ranks instances based on their similarity and gives no information on the reliability of the ranking. To assess the statistical significance of the ranking of a structural cluster \( C_i \), generated previously, ENTS compares the score distribution of the cluster \( C_i \) with that of a randomly drawn cluster of the same size. When the mean of global topological similarity scores \( \bar{X} \) in a cluster is used as the statistic, an efficient random-set method is used for the parametric approximation of the null distribution (Newton et al., 2007). The random-set method compares an enriched cluster of size \( m \) with all other distinct clusters of size \( m \) drawn randomly from a case graph on \( N \) nodes. The exact distribution of \( \bar{X} \) is intractable but can be approximated by the normal distribution with mean and variance as follows:

\[
\mu = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{j=1}^{N} p_j
\]

\[
\sigma^2 = \frac{1}{m} \left( \frac{N-m}{N-1} \right) \left( \frac{1}{N} \sum_{j=1}^{N} p_j^2 \right) - \left( \frac{1}{N} \sum_{j=1}^{N} p_j \right)^2
\]

Where \( p_j \) is the global topological similarity score of the structure \( j \) in the graph to the query.

The enrichment score of the cluster \( C_i \) is then normalized with

\[
Z = \frac{\bar{X} - \mu}{\sigma}
\]

2.6 Benchmark

The SCOP database (Murzin et al., 1995) version 1.75B is used as a gold standard for benchmarking. SCOP manually classifies approximately 40% of protein structures in the RCSB Protein Data Bank (PDB, Deshpande et al., 2005) based on similarities in their three-dimensional shapes (i.e. folds) and amino acid sequences. If two proteins have a similar sequence, they are classified into a common ‘family’. If two proteins have dissimilar sequences but similar folds and common evolutionary origin, they belong to the same ‘superfamily’. Two proteins from different superfamilies may share the same fold. The benchmark in this study is to recognize the fold of a protein by searching for a database that does not include any protein that shares the same family and superfamily as that of the query protein. The SCOP 1.75B release includes 1195 folds and 1962 superfamilies. A list of 36 003 non-redundant protein structural domains with sequence identity less than 40% (termed the 36 003 set) and their pairwise structural similarity that is determined by FATCAT structural comparison software (Ye and Godzik, 2003) were downloaded from the RCSB PDB (August 2013) (Deshpande et al., 2005). These proteins and their similarities were used to build graph models for the structure prediction. It is noted that only 23.9% of the structure domains in the 36 003 set have the SCOP classification. If a structure domain does not have a SCOP assignment, it was assumed that the non-SCOP-assigned domain shares the same superfamily as that of the SCOP-assigned domain to which it is the most structurally similar. It is noted that temporary SCOP assignments were not used for the gold standard to evaluate the performance of algorithms but only for building a benchmark (details below). To reduce the bias in the existing fold coverage of the protein universe, one structural domain was randomly selected from each SCOP superfamily as a benchmark if its SCOP fold had more than one superfamily. A list of structural domains was compiled (the 885-set). Then a separated subset \( B_i \) of the 36 003 set was assigned to each structure \( S_i \) in the 885 benchmark structures, such that all structures that have the same SCOP superfamilies (including the temporarily assigned SCOP superfamilies) as that of \( S_i \) were removed from the original 36 003 set. Overall, the benchmark is designed to evaluate the performance of algorithms in detecting novel structural relationships when sequence similarity is weak and noisy.

2.7 Performance evaluation

For a given benchmark structure \( S_i \), a true positive is defined as a correctly recognized fold when searching \( S_i \) against its corresponding \( B_i \). The incorrectly assigned folds are false positives. In total, there were 885 searches and 1 057 575 combined fold hits, including 885 true positives and 1 056 690 false positives. To reflect the situation in the real application, the performance of the algorithms was evaluated by the ratio of true positives on the top-N ranked hits (\( N \leq 2000 \)).

2.8 Experimental design

2.8.1 HMM-HMM similarity of protein sequence

An HMM sequence profile model was built for the amino acid sequence of each structural domain in the 36 003-set and 885-set using the HH-Suite package (Soding, 2005). The UniProt20 sequence database (Apweiler et al., 2004) was used to generate multiple
sequence alignment. The similarity between two HMM profiles was determined using HHSearch (Soding, 2005). All parameters to build and align HMMs used the default setting of the programs.

2.8.2 Fold recognition by HHSearch
Given a query sequence \( S \) and its corresponding HMM profile, its HMM-HMM similarity to each HMM profile consists of structural domains in the set of \( B \) was determined by HHBlits. HHBlits is a fast implementation of HHSearch, but the performance of each implementation is comparable (Remmert et al., 2012). For each SCOP fold \( F_i \), its association score \( b_{ij} \) with the \( S \) was assigned the best HMM-HMM probability score of the HMM hits that were classified as \( F_i \). All \( b_{ij} \) were ranked. The top-ranked statistically significant \( F_i \) is the candidate fold assignment to \( S \). It is noted that the HHSearch probability score incorporates the similarity of secondary structures.

2.8.3 Fold recognition by CNFpred
Fold recognition of each query sequence \( S \) was also done using CNFpred, another fold recognition program that correlates various sequence and structure features by using a conditional neural field's model (Ma et al., 2012). The same procedure is applied as HHSearch.

2.8.4 Construction of homology models
The three-dimensional homology model is constructed using the sequence alignment derived from CNFpred by Modeller v9.14 (Sali and Blundell, 1993).

2.8.5 Construction of HMM-HMM similarity graph
An HMM-HMM similarity graph \( G^{1} \) was constructed for each \( B_i \) in which each structural domain was a node. Two nodes were connected if they had detectable HMM-HMM similarity according to HHSearch. Each edge was assigned with a weight whose value was the probability score of similarity determined by HHSearch (ranging from 0.0 to 1.0).

2.8.6 Construction of structural similarity graph
All-against-all pairwise structural comparisons of non-redundant structural domains were downloaded from the RCSB PDB (Deshpande et al., 2005). A structural similarity graph \( G^{5} \) was constructed for each \( B_i \) in which each structural domain was a node. Two nodes were connected if they had similar structure, which was determined by TM align (Zhang and Skolnick, 2005) (0.4 ≤ TM-align score < 1.0). Each edge was assigned a weight whose value was the TM-align structural similarity score.

2.8.7 Fold recognition by network topological similarity search
Given a query sequence \( S \), the RankProp algorithm was applied to rank all structures in \( G^{1} \), or \( G^{5} \), to \( S \) based on their network topological similarity score. For each fold, the fold association score of \( S \) was assigned using the same method as the fold recognition by HHSearch. The RankProp is called RankProp-HHSearch and RankProp-Struct, respectively, when applied to \( G^{1} \), or \( G^{5} \).

2.8.8 Fold recognition by ENTS
As shown in Figure 1, ENTS was determined as follows:

1. All structures that were classified as the same SCOP fold were put into a commonly labeled set.

2. A query sequence \( S \) was connected to its corresponding similarity graph \( G^{1} \), or \( G^{5} \). The edges and edge weights between \( S \) and \( G^{1} \) (or \( G^{5} \)) were determined by HMM-HMM similarities.

3. The RankProp algorithm was applied to rank all structures in \( G^{1} \), or \( G^{5} \), to \( S \) based on their network topological similarity score.

4. The distribution of the topological similarity score in each labeled SCOP set was determined. Set enrichment analysis was applied to each set in terms of its score distribution. A z-score \( Z_{ij} \) was calculated for each set that corresponds to a single fold \( F_i \). \( Z_{ij} \) was the fold association score between \( S \) and \( F_i \).

5. For the purpose of benchmark comparison, all \( Z_{ij} \) from 885 experiments were combined and ranked.

6. When applied to \( G^{5} \), ENTS was called ENTS-HHSearch or ENTS-Struct, respectively.

3 Results

3.1 Overview of ENTS algorithm
We have developed a new algorithm, ENTS of Structure (ENTS-Struct), to infer protein structure based on the network topological similarity of a protein structure similarity network. As shown in Figure 1, ENTS-Struct consists of four key steps. First, we connect non-redundant protein structure domains found in the PDB into an all-against-all structure similarity network (referred to as StructWeb) based on a pairwise structural comparison. Second, if a structural domain has an existing annotation (e.g. SCOP), the structural domain is labeled with this annotation. Third, given a query protein, we connect the query to the StructWeb based on HMM-HMM similarity from HHSearch (Soding, 2005) and apply an RWR algorithm to define the network topological similarity between the query protein and other proteins in the StructWeb. Finally, to assess the statistical significance of the topological rank derived from the RWR, we apply random set theory to estimate the enrichment of a protein set that is associated with a structural or functional class (e.g. SCOP or GO) in terms of the distribution of its network topological similarity scores. The final output of ENTS-Struct is the statistical significance (z-score) of a list of inferred putative structures or functions for the query protein.

3.2 ENTS-Struct considerably improves the performance of fold recognition
The performance of ENTS-Struct was evaluated using HHSearch and CNFpred as baselines. HHSearch is one of the most sensitive sequence profile-profile comparison methods developed so far, outperforming PSI-Blast and HMMER (Eddy, 1998); in addition, secondary structural similarity is incorporated into the probability score of HHSearch. CNFpred correlates various sequence and structure features by using a conditional neural field's model (Ma et al., 2012). As shown in Figure 2, ENTS-Struct (black line) clearly outperforms the state-of-the-art algorithm HHSearch (red line) and CNFpred (purple line). With the same number of the highest ranked hits, ENTS-Struct consistently identifies more true positives than HHSearch. There are approximately 50% more true positives in the top 1000 ranked hits identified by ENTS-Struct than those identified by HHSearch. Although CNFpred improves the quality of sequence alignment, it does not perform as well as HHSearch in the fold recognition in our benchmark set.

The improved performance of ENTS-Struct benefits from the use of the structural similarity network StructWeb. As a comparison, an all-against-all HMM-HMM profile similarity network of structural
domains was constructed using HHSearch (referred to as ProfWeb). The ENTS procedure as shown in Figure 1 is applied to ProfWeb except that the StructWeb is replaced by the ProfWeb. The resulting algorithm is referred to ENTS-HHSearch. The performance of ENTS-HHSearch (orange line in Fig. 2) is much worse than ENTS-Struct. Although ENTS-HHSearch has the potential to identify more true hits than HHSearch, the false-positive rate is high in the top ranked regions. This is not surprising as the structural similarity detection is more accurate and less noisy (few false positives and false negatives) than the HMM-HMM similarity in terms of detecting remote relationships between proteins.

ENTS-Struct shares the RWR as a key component with RankProp, but ENTS-Struct is distinguished by its set enrichment analysis for statistical assessment of the ranking. Both ENTS-Struct and ENTS-HHSearch outperform their corresponding RankProp algorithm—RankProp-Struct (blue dashed line in the Fig. 2) and RankProp-HHSearch (green dashed line in the Fig. 2), respectively. It is noted that the sensitivity of RankProp is not as good as HHSearch for the top-ranked hits.

When only the top ranked hits are considered regardless of their statistical significance, the percentage of queries that can detect the correct fold at the top 1 and top 3 are shown in Fig. 3. The overall performance is ENTS-Struct > RankProp-Struct > ENTS-HHSearch > RankProp-HHSearch > HHSearch > CNFpred. ENTS-Struct ranks approximately 25% and 100% more true positives than the baseline HHSearch at top 1 and top 3, respectively.

A recent study suggests that the continuity of protein space is dependent on the structural class of the protein (Nepomnyachiy et al., 2014). The proteins belonging to SCOP α/β class can be linked with each other through an evolutionary path. However, other classes are relatively discrete (Nepomnyachiy et al., 2014). Consistent with this observation, Table 1 shows that the performance of ENTS varies when applied to different structural classes. ENTS improves the fold recognition in all classes. In regard to the ratio of true positives ranked at the top 3, the order of performance by both ENTS and HHSearch is α/β > all β > α + β > all α, as the α/β class is more evolutionarily related than the α, β and α + β classes, as observed by Nepomnyachiy et al. (2014). However, the improvements of ENTS relative to HHSearch vary by class, in the order of all β > α + β > all α > α/β. This implies that different network topological search parameters may be needed for different structural classes to balance the global and local perspective of structural similarity network.

### 3.3 Application of ENTS-Struct to hard targets of CASP11

To further test the performance of ENTS-Struct, we carried out a blind test of its performance on fold recognition for hard targets of CASP11. The hard targets are selected such that the highest HHSearch probability of profile–profile similarity between the CASP11 target and the PDB structural domain is <95.0% (e-value > 0.1). It is noted that all structural domains used in the benchmark were released by PDB prior to August 2013, 1 year earlier than that of CASP11. Table 2 lists nine hard targets that have released PDB structures, their most similar SCOP folds, the top 1 prediction from ENTS-Struct with medium and high confidences, their confidence levels, GDT-4.0 score (the percentage of residues in the model structure falling within 4.0 Å of their positions in the experimental structure) and root mean square deviation. Among these targets, ENTS-Struct correctly predicts the folds for the five domains of four targets (T0765, T0769, T0781 C-terminal, and T0808 N-terminal and C-terminal). Five structural domains of these targets (T0761, T0763, T0767, T0771 and the N-terminal domain of T781) do not have closely similar structures in the PDB. ENTS-Struct has four false-positive predictions and two true-negative predictions. Overall, the successful rate of ENTS-Struct is 63.5% (7 correct predictions over 11 cases) with a sensitivity of 83.3% and a specificity of 40.0%. It is noted that ENTS only assesses the statistical significance and re-ranks the hits of the structure prediction. The quality of homology models is dependent on the third party software for the alignment and model construction.

Using target T0769 as an example, Figure 4 and Table 3 demonstrate how ENTS-Struct improves the performance of fold recognition over HHSearch and RankProp-Struct. HHSearch only detects extremely weak similarity between T0769 and several structures that belong to SCOP fold d.58 (e-value ranges from 3.7 to 13). In addition, there are two false-positive hits dligha_ (SCOP fold d.57) and d3hya1 (SCOP fold d.52). They rank above the correct hits. These highest ranked hits of HHSearch are corrected as a graph, as shown in Figure 4. There are multiple edges linking the target to structures that belong to SCOP fold d.58. As a result, RankProp-Struct improves the ranking of d.58 to rank 2. By applying the set enrichment analysis of the RankProp score distribution, ENTS-Struct correctly ranks d.58 as the top 1 hit. Moreover, ENTS-Struct
provides reliability information on the ranking, which is missed by RankProp.

In summary, the superior performance of ENTS-Struct comes from its addition of global set statistics of topology similarity scores as well as hybrid HMM-HMM and structural similarity onto the RWR topological similarity ranking of protein space. The RWR captures the global structure of protein space. However, conventional statistics models may fail when applied to global similarity problems, as it is not straightforward to normalize topological properties. Global set statistics is more powerful than the fitted parametric statistical model. However, it is less useful when only the nearest neighbors are considered, as the scores of most entities in the set are zeros, providing no information for hypothesis testing. When ENTS is applied to HHSearch directly, its performance is worse than selecting the hit that scored highest in a set of hits belonging to the same fold (data not shown). ENTS by integrating RWR and global set statistics provides a general framework to enhance similarity search and association detection. Although this article focuses on its application to protein structure prediction, it is expected that ENTS may improve the performance of other bioinformatics applications such as drug target identification, RNA structure prediction and disease gene identification.

4 Discussions
4.1 Potential broad applications of ENTS
In this article, we introduce the new computational framework ENTS to assess the reliability of network topological ranking and
apply ENTS to the challenging problem of fold recognition. Network topological rankings have been widely applied in bioinformatics, such as in the cases of homology detection (Weston et al., 2004), gene-disease association (Chen et al., 2011a, b; Li and Patra, 2010; Singh-Blom et al., 2013; Vanunu et al., 2010), genetic interaction prediction (Chipman and Singh, 2009), drug target prediction (Wang et al., 2013), side effect prediction (Berger et al., 2010) and drug repurposing (Ng et al., 2014). However, they lack an efficient and generalized statistical model to normalize the ranking and to assess its reliability. As a result, it is not straightforward to determine a threshold for the selection of ranked hits in practice, especially when dealing with data on a large scale. In one application, the top first ranked hit could be a false positive. In another application, multiple top ranked hits can be true positives. The set statistical model introduced in ENTS is applicable to any similarity metric. Our benchmark studies clearly demonstrate that the application of ENTS to network topological rankings improves both the sensitivity and specificity of similarity search. Thus, it is expected that ENTS may have broad applications in bioinformatics and other domains.

Another unique feature of ENTS is that it can integrate heterogeneous similarity metrics. In the case of fold recognition, both reliable protein structural similarity and noisy sequence profile-profile similarity are used in the construction of the network. The integration of multiple omics data, which are often noisy, biased and incomplete, is one of the great challenges in the post-genome era. ENTS presents an alternative approach to integrate reliable and complementary relationships between biological entities with noisy data from heterogeneous data sources into a unified network model. As shown in our benchmark studies, the direct incorporation of structural similarity into sequence similarity search improves the performance of fold recognition. Similar strategies may be applicable to other bioinformatics problems.

4.2 Improvement of global topological similarity
ENTS can be improved in several aspects. The RWR step in the current iterative implementation of ENTS is computationally intensive. More efficient RWR implementation will make ENTS feasible for handling big data. Recent MapReduce-based graph querying and mining systems [e.g. GBase (Kang et al., 2011, 2012)] can support graphs with billions of nodes. They can be incorporated into ENTS. In principle, all steady-state probabilities of RWR are defined by the inversion of matrix $Q = I - \beta W$, where $1 - \beta$ is the restart probability and $W$ is the edge weight matrix. If $Q^{-1}$ is pre-computed, instant query response can be achieved. For graphs with specific block-linear structures that are common in biological and chemical networks, efficient linear system solvers that balance the pre-computational cost and on-line query response are available (Tong et al., 2006, 2008).

Other methods for computing global topological similarity may possess advantages over RWR. One of the disadvantages of RWR is that the convergence requires the normalization of edge weights. The normalization may result in the loss of similarity information between instances. For example, one instance has a similarity score of 1.0 with respect to its two neighbor instances. Another instance has the similarity score of 0.1 with respect to its two neighbor instances. After normalization in a graph representation, all edge weights may become 0.5. It has been suggested that diverse $k$-shortest paths analysis may overcome the shortcomings of RWR, thereby improving the detection of global topological relationships (Shih and Parthasarathy, 2012).

4.3 Improvement of set enrichment analysis
The mean set statistic calculation and the significance assessment using random set theory in the current implementation of ENTS are computationally efficient but may be suboptimal for performance, as the mean score distribution may not follow the normal distribution. Several other choices for the set statistic are available, for example, Kolmogorov–Smirnov statistics (Subramanian et al., 2005), maxmean statistics (Efron and Tibshirani, 2007), Wilcoxon rank sum test statistics and the conditional local false discovery rate (Efron, 2008). To assess significance, a non-parametric permutation test by shuffling labels may provide more accurate estimation when the underlying probability distribution is unknown. It is possible to adopt a two-step procedure for the significance assessment. The random-set method is first applied to filter out less significant hits, so only significant hits will be subject to the permutation test.

4.4 Integration with other methods for structure prediction
When ENTS is applied to protein structure prediction, it relies on a protein threading algorithm to link a query sequence to the structural similarity network and to align the sequence to the structure template. The threading method must detect structures similar to the query sequence, although confidence level does not need to be high. Indeed, the performance of ENTS is strongly dependent on the threading algorithms which are applied. The sequence similarity based on HHSearch outperforms that based on PSI-BLAST and the performance based on PSI-BLAST is better than that based on BLAST (data not shown). Thus, the incorporation of state-of-the-art protein threading algorithms such as MRAlign (Ma et al., 2014) into ENTS may further improve the performance of ENTS for structure prediction.

Although ENTS improves the performance of fold recognition over existing methods, the false-positive rate is still high. One possible solution is to build multiple conformational models for all top ranked hits. Then energy-based scoring functions can be used to distinguish true and false positives (Petrey et al., 2003). In addition, the nodes in the existing structural similarity network are structural domains. SCOP domain classification is used as the node label, mainly for the purpose of performance evaluation. If the query has a novel fold, the prediction is doomed to be a false positive. In principle, any structural classification, either automatic or manual, can be used to label the structure. Moreover, it is possible to use the recurrent structural fragment as a node to construct the structural similarity network. The query may have multiple statistically significant fragment hits. Many structure prediction methods [e.g. I-TASSER (Zhang, 2008)] then could be applied to assemble these fragments into a final structure.

5 Conclusion
Similarity is a fundamental concept in bioinformatics and the emerging discipline of data science, which seeks to harness big data to improve data-driven decision making. In this article, we propose a new method for computing statistically significant similarity via integrating similarity profiles, network topological similarity and set enrichment analysis. Because ENTS applies to any similarity metric, it is poised to make several contributions to bioinformatics. Individual predictive reliability is essential in risk-sensitive applications. ENTS is able to determine the statistical significance of any similarity metric and provides guidance for reliable discovery in large data sets. Robustness to noisy and incomplete data sets is important in
bioinformatics applications. Many bioinformatics tasks need to handle data sets that are partially or/and positive-only labeled. ENTS provides a new approach to handling noisy and incomplete data. Thus, it is expected that ENTS has broad applications in bioinformatics.

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