SCIENCE MEETS LIFE

PROTEIN IDENTIFICATION

Comp?

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MS/MS spectra and identification

- **Database search algorithms in three phases**
- **Sequencial search algorithms**
- **Decoys and false discovery rate calculation**
- **The future: machine learning**
- **Protein inference: bad, ugly, and not so good**

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Peptides subjected to fragmentation analysis can yield several types of fragment ions

There are several other ion types that can be annotated, as well as 'internal fragments'. The latter are fragments that no longer contain an intact terminus. These are harder to use for 'ladder sequencing', but can still be interpreted.

This nomenclature was coined by **Roepstorff and Fohlmann** *(Biomed. Mass Spec*., 1984) and **Klaus Biemann** *(Biomed. Environ. Mass Spec*., 1988) and is commonly referred to as 'Biemann nomenclature'. Note the link with the Roman alphabet.

In an ideal world, the peptide sequence will produce directly interpretable ion ladders

L E N N A R T

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Real spectra usually look quite a bit worse, which introduces ambiguity in interpretation

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Database search engines match experimental spectra to known peptide sequences

Three popular algorithms illustrate the three types of scoring systems

MASCOT (Matrix Science) / Andromeda (Jürgen Cox) Peak counting-based scoring system

X!Tandem (The Global Proteome Machine Organization) Hybrid scoring system

SEQUEST is the original search engine, and is based on ion intensity matching

Can be used for MS/MS (PFF) identifications

Based on a cross-correlation score (includes peak height)

Published core algorithm (patented, licensed to Thermo), Eng, *JASMS* 1994

Provides preliminary (Sp) score, rank, cross-correlation score (XCorr),

and score difference between the top tow ranks (deltaCn, Δ Cn)

Thresholding is up to the user, and is commonly done *per* charge state

Many extensions exist to perform a more automatic validation of results

The correlation score (*Rⁱ*) is calculated as the matched ion intensity

Yılmaz, Proteome Bioinformatics (MMB), Springer, 2017

The cross-correlation score (*Xcorr*) is *R⁰* calibrated by the average random correlation

XCorr =
$$
R_0 - \frac{1}{150} \left(\sum_{i=-75/R_0}^{+75} Ri \right)
$$

The best theoretical match is then compared to the second-best theoretical match

Eng, JASMS 1994 Yılmaz, Proteome Bioinformatics (MMB), Springer, 2017

Mascot is an equally recognized search engine, but is based on peak counting

Very well established search engine, Perkins, *Electrophoresis* 1999 Can do MS (PMF) and MS/MS (PFF) identifications Based on the MOWSE score, Unpublished core algorithm (trade secret) Predicts an *a priori* threshold score that identifications need to pass From version 2.2, Mascot allows integrated decoy searches Provides rank, score, threshold and expectation value per identification Customizable confidence level for the threshold score

Through Andromeda, we understand MASCOT

$$
s = -10 \times \log_{10} \sum_{j=k}^{n} \left[\binom{n}{j} (p)^j (1-p)^{n-j} \right]
$$

n = number of theoretical peaks

k = number of matched peaks (within a given fragment tolerance)

p = probability of finding a single, matched peak by chance

p is calculated by dividing the number of highest intensity peaks (q) by a mass-window size (100 Da) q is limited by a maximum value, and is optimized for maximum *s*

based on **peak counting** instead of intensity sums

Cox, J Prot Res, 2011 Yılmaz, Proteome Bioinformatics (MMB), Springer, 2017

X!Tandem introduces a hybrid score, based on both peak counting and ion intensity

A successful open source search engine, Craig and Beavis, *RCMS* 2003

Can be used for MS/MS (PFF) identifications

Based on a hyperscore (*Pi* is either 0 or 1):

Relies on a hypergeometric distribution (hence hyperscore)

Published core algorithm, and is freely available

Provides hyperscore and expectancy score (the discriminating one) X!Tandem is fast and can handle modifications in an iterative fashion

Has rapidly gained popularity as (auxiliary) search engine

$$
HyperScore = \left(\sum_{i=0}^{n} I_i * P_i\right) * N_b! * N_y!
$$

X!Tandem's significance calculation for scores can be seen as a general template

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*S*equence tags are as old as SEQUEST, and still have a role to play today

The concept of sequence tags was introduced by Mann and Wilm

Mann, Analytical Chemistry, 1994

Tabb, *Anal. Chem.* 2003, Tabb, *JPR* 2008, Dasari, *JPR* 2010 Recent implementations of the sequence tag approach Refine hits by peak mapping in a second stage to resolve ambiguities Rely on a empirical fragmentation model Published core algorithms, DirecTag and TagRecon freely available GutenTag/DirecTag extracts tags, TagRecon matches tags to database Very useful to retrieve unexpected peptides (modifications, variations) Entire workflows exist (e.g., combination with IDPicker)

GutenTag: two stage, hybrid tag searching

De novo sequencing tries to read the entire peptide sequence from the spectrum

Example of a manual de novo of an MS/MS spectrum No more database necessary to extract a sequence!

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All hits, good and bad together, form a distribution of scores

Nesvizhskii, J Proteomics, 2010

If we know how scores for bad hits distribute, we can distinguish good from bad by score

The separation is not perfect, which leads to the calculation of a local false discovery rate

Decoy databases are false positive factories, assumed to deliver representative bad hits

Three main types of decoy DB's are used:

- Reversed databases (*easy*)

LENNARTMARTENS → *SNETRAMTRANNEL*

- Shuffled databases (*slightly more difficult*)

LENNARTMARTENS → *NMERLANATERTTN (for instance)*

- Randomized databases (*as difficult as you want it to be*)

LENNARTMARTENS → *GFVLAEPHSEAITK (for instance)*

The concept is that each peptide identified from the decoy database is an incorrect identification. By counting the number of decoy hits, we can estimate the number of false positives in the original database, **provided that the decoys have similar properties as the forward sequences.**

With the help of the scores of decoy hits, we can assess the score distribution of bad hits

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Käll, Journal of Proteome Research, 2008

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Our MS2PIP fragmentation model accurately predicts peptide fragmentation behaviour

https://iomics.ugent.be/ms2pip/ Gabriels, Nucleic Acids Research, 2019

Our DeepLC model accurately predicts retention times of peptides with unseen modifications

Dataset from Zolg, MCP, 2018 Bouwmeester, Nature Methods, 2021

MS2PIP and DeepLC in MS²Rescore dramatically boost identification in immunopeptidomics

MS²Rescore can also be applied to generic peptidomics data

https://github.com/compomics/ms2rescore

MS²Rescore also boosts metaproteomics, opening up the prospect of meta-immunopeptidomics

Van Den Bossche *et al*., *in preparation*

MS2PIP and DeepLC power ionbot, a novel open modification search engine with high reliability

sensitive and highly accurate identification of (modified) peptides

https://ionbot.cloud Degroeve, https://www.biorxiv.org/content/10.1101/2021.07.02.450686v2

ionbot shows the value of open modification searches, and of accurate prediction models

https://ionbot.cloud Degroeve, https://www.biorxiv.org/content/10.1101/2021.07.02.450686v2

When all PTMs are considered, our view of proteins is changed

Zooming in shows that not all residues are created equal

The 3D structure view also becomes rather crowded

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Protein inference is a question of conviction

Martens, Molecular Biosystems, 2007

The complexity of protein inference is linked to the information ratio of a database

Barsnes, Amino Acids, 2013

In real life, protein inference issues will be mainly bad, often ugly, and occasionally good

Protein inference can create issues in quantification due to degenerate peptides

A nice example of the mess of degenerate peptides in quantification

Colaert, Proteomics, 2010

