Proteins associated with diseases show enhanced sequence correlation between charged residues

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ABSTRACT

**Motivation:** Function of proteins or a network of interacting proteins often involves communication between residues that are well separated in sequence. The classic example is the participation of distant residues in allosteric regulation. Bioinformatic and structural analysis methods have been introduced to infer residues that are correlated. Recently, increasing attention has been paid to obtain the sequence properties that determine the tendency of disease-related proteins (\(\alpha\) helices, \(\beta\) sheets, of fibrils. Motivated in part by the need to identify sequence characteristics that indicate a tendency to aggregate, we introduce a general method that probes covariations in charged residues along the sequence in a given protein family. The method, which involves computing the sequence correlation entropy (SCE) using the quenched probability \(P_{\text{corr}}(i,j)\) of finding a residue pair at a given sequence separation, \(s_k\), allows us to classify protein families in terms of their SCE. Our general approach may be a useful way in obtaining evolutionary covariations of amino acid residues on a genome wide level.

**Results:** We use a combination of SCE and clustering based on the principle component analysis to classify the protein families. From an analysis of 839 families, covering \(-500,000\) sequences, we find that proteins with relatively low values of SCE are predominantly associated with various diseases. In several families, residues that give rise to peaks in \(P_{\text{corr}}(i,j)\) are clustered in the three-dimensional structure. For the class of proteins with low SCE values, there are significant numbers of mixed charged-hydrophobic (CH) and charged-polar (CP) runs. Our findings suggest that the low values of SCE and the presence of (CH) and/or (CP) may be indicative of disease association or tendency to aggregate. Our results led to the hypothesis that functions of proteins with similar SCE values may be linked. The hypothesis is validated with a few anecdotal examples. The present results also lead to the prediction that the overall charge correlations in proteins affect the kinetics of amyloid formation—a feature that is common to all proteins implicated in neurodegenerative diseases.

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INTRODUCTION

The classification of proteins based on their structures into families is useful not only in assigning distinct functions but also for examining the evolution of sequences with related functions. Because proteins in a family are descendants of the same ancestral protein, it is logical to postulate that the observed sequence differences are the result of evolutionary pressure which vary greatly across distinct organisms. Sequence variations are tempered by the requirements of native state stability and function. Destabilization of the folded state by mutations at one site can be compensated by mutations at distant or nearby sites (Lesk and Chothia, 1980; Neher, 1994). Thus, it is important to study covariations of amino acids at distinct sites to decipher if there is communication between the two, especially as it pertains to function. Long-range communications between several residues (both along the sequence and across domains or interfaces in protein complexes) are crucial for biological function. Thus, it might also be necessary to introduce methods to infer multi-site variations across sequences in order to understand a number of issues in proteomics.

Correlations between amino acids in protein families have been probed using computational methods beginning with the classic works of Lesk and Chothia (1980) and Altschuh et al. (1987). Several studies (Neher, 1994; Taylor and Hatrick, 1994; Pollock and Taylor, 1997) have discovered relationships between coordinated amino acid changes that occur during evolution and the corresponding structural alterations. The working hypothesis in these studies is that a mutation at a site that compromises the function is often compensated by a mutation at another site that is in proximity in the three-dimensional (3D) structure. The difficulty in validating the working hypothesis arises largely because multi-correlation effects, which are difficult to capture (Pollock

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and Taylor, 1997), can be important in compensating a
given mutation. Nevertheless, the computational methods that

capture sequence covariations have provided insights in a

number of areas of protein science (Landgraf et al., 2001;
Pazos et al., 1997; Olmea et al., 1999; Fariselli and Casadio,
1999; Lockless and Ranganathan, 1999; Lichtarge and Sowa,
2002).

To infer the functional importance of correlated mutations, it

is crucial to include physico-chemical characteristics of amino

acids (charge, volume of side-chains, hydrophobicity, etc.)
to describe the positions in a multiple sequence alignment
(MSA) (Lesk and Chothia, 1980; Neher, 1994). Based on a
study of divergent evolution in a set of protein families with

known folds (Chelvanayagam et al., 1997), it has been argued
that only charged residues show discernible covariation at all
evolutionary distances. With these observations in mind, we
have investigated, using a new method, covariations among
charged residues in 839 families. To obtain such correlations
we introduce a function, the sequence correlation entropy
(SCE) that measures the extent to which two sites along a
given sequence are coupled. The values of SCE for protein
families show that families/functions are associated with spe-
dified mixed charged-hydrophobic (CH)/charged-polar (CP)
associations of a family. Families with high degree of
correlation of charged amino acids and the dis-

sion in charges along sequences occur often in a corre-

lated fashion in the evolutionary process.

SYSTEM AND METHODS

Sequence correlation function and the associated

‘entropy’

We introduce a general measure that probes correlation
between specific residues that are separated by a given
length for a database of sequences. Here, we focus on
charged residues (D and E are negatively charged, and
K and R are positively charged). To measure the correlation
along the sequence between two charged residues, i and j
(i, j ∈ [+ , –]), we introduce the SCE

\[ S(i, j) = - \sum_{k=1}^{I_{\text{max}}(i, j)} P_s(k, i, j) \ln [ P_s(k, i, j) ], \]

where \( S_k \) is the sequence separation between the residues,
\( k \) labels the pairs \((i, j)\) and \( I_{\text{max}}(i, j) \) is the total number of
sequence separations between residues \( i \) and \( j \) along
the sequences of the family. We choose those pairs for which
the locations of \( i \) and \( j \) are consecutive, or only those \((i, j)\) pairs
for which there is no identical pair located between them. The
probability of finding residues \( i \) and \( j \) at \( s_k \) in the MSA is

\[ P_s(i, j) = \frac{1}{n_{\text{seq}}(i, j)} \sum_{l=1}^{n_{\text{seq}}(i, j)} \frac{n^I_l(i, j)[s_k]}{n^I_l(i, j)}. \]

where \( n_{\text{seq}}(i, j) \) is the number of sequences in the MSA,
\( n^I_l(i, j) \) is the number of pairs of the type \((i, j)\) in sequence \( l \)
and \( n^I_l(i, j)[s_k] \) is the number of pairs of type \((i, j)\) from
sequence \( l \) at separation \( s_k \). This equation is meaningful
only if the statistical ensemble contains at least one pair
of type \((i, j)\). Note that \( P_s(i, j) \) satisfies the normalization
condition \( \sum_{k=1}^{I_{\text{max}}(i, j)} P_s(i, j) = 1 \). Because the SCE uses a
‘quenched’ sum (no pre-averaging over all the sequences in
the MSA) over the sequences of a given family, significant
correlations, if present, can be gleaned. In contrast, in the
mutual information function the equivalent of Equation (2)
would be

\[ \sum_{k=1}^{I_{\text{max}}(i, j)} \frac{n^I_l(i, j)[s_k]}{\sum_{j=1}^{n_{\text{seq}}(i, j)}}. \]

which involves implicit pre-averaging over all the sequences
in the MSA and might therefore mask correlations between
residues. The SCE depends only on \( s_k \) and \( P_s(i, j) \) regardless
of where \( i \) and \( j \) are located. This accounts for the possibility
that, to preserve the function, small rearrangements in the
sequence could be prefered to compensatory changes at fixed
positions along the sequence.

To assess the significance of SCE, it is necessary to calcu-
late its expected value if the pairs are randomly distributed.
For a protein family, with \( L_{\text{FAM}} \) being the sequence length
in the MSA, let \( N(i, j) \) be the total number of pairs of
\((i, j)\) and \( I_{\text{max}}(i, j) = L_{\text{FAM}} - 1 \) be the maximum
sequence separation between pairs of residues. If the \((i, j)\)
pair occurs randomly, the expected value of \( P_s^{\text{rand}}(i, j) \) is

\[ P_s^{\text{rand}}(i, j) = 1/[I_{\text{max}}(i, j)] \text{ provided } N(i, j) \geq I_{\text{max}}(i, j). \]

Otherwise, \( P_s^{\text{rand}}(i, j) = 1/N(i, j) \). To compare results for
SCE from all families on equal footing, we use

\[ \tilde{S}(i, j) = \frac{S(i, j)}{S^{(\text{rand})}(i, j)} \times 100, \]

where \( S^{(\text{rand})}(i, j) = - \ln \left[ P_s^{(\text{rand})}(i, j) \right] \). If \( \tilde{S}(i, j) = 0 \) it
implies that amino acids \( i \) and \( j \) always occur at separation
\( s_k \) in all members of the family. A relatively small value of
\( \tilde{S}(i, j) \) means that there is a preferred sequence separation \( s_k \)
for the \((i, j)\) pair.

Significant mixed runs of charged and
hydrophobic/polar residues
Karlin et al. (Karlin, 1995; Karlin et al., 2002) found that,
in five eukaryotic genomes, multiple long runs of given

types of amino acids occur in proteins associated with dis-

eases. For example, multiple long runs of glutamine, alanine
and serine dominate in Drosophila melanogaster whereas

2346
in human sequences a preponderance of glutamate, proline and leucine is found. Guided by these findings, we searched for significant mixed CH or CP runs. A mixed CH (CP) run is the longest possible segment of consecutive amino acids along the sequence such that the first and the last positions are occupied by charged amino acids while residues in between are either charged or hydrophobic (polar). If $P_{random} = (P_+)^n_+ (P_-)^n_- (P_H)^n_H L_{seq} < 10^{-3}$, where $P_+$, $P_-$, $P_H$ are the percentage of $+$, $-$ charged, hydrophobic (H) residues in the whole sequence, $n_+$, $n_-$ and $n_H$ are the numbers of each such type of residue in the given run and $L_{seq}$ is the length of the sequence, then a CH run is significant. Significance for (CP) runs is similarly defined. Using the number of significant mixed CH runs $[N_{run}(CH)]$ and CP runs $[N_{run}(CP)]$ in each sequence in the MSA whose real length is at least half of the length of the alignment, we calculated the average number of significant mixed runs per sequence $R_{run} = N_{run}/N_{seq}$; $N_{run}$ is either $N_{run}(CH)$ or $N_{run}(CP)$, and $N_{seq}$ is the number of sequences in the family.

**Database of aligned sequences**

We used two types of sequence alignments: (i) one obtained from the Pfam database (Bateman et al., 2002) (http://www.sanger.ac.uk/Software/Pfam/index.shtml), which comprises families of protein domains; and (ii) the other is produced by aligning a query sequence with similar sequences using the Psi-Blast software (Altschul et al., 1990) (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/BLAST) with the default settings. In the February 2002 release, Pfam had 3360 protein families that covered 68% of protein sequences. For some families (prions and globins), we used both the Pfam database and the Blast alignment to check whether the two approaches lead to comparable results. For other sequences (τ protein or Sup35), for which there is no known 3D structure, we used only the Blast alignment.

To compute SCE, we considered a dataset of 839 families from Pfam (the list is available upon request). The criteria for choosing the families were: (i) the average length of sequences in the family be at least 40 residues; (ii) the number of members in the family be large so that an ensemble of $(i, j)$ pairs can be created; and (iii) the families give a good coverage of the various protein functions. The database of families (‘All’) consists of heat shock proteins (21, ‘HSP’), nucleic acids (DNA or RNA) binding proteins (152, ‘NA’), disease-related proteins (prions, other amyloidogenic proteins, cancer, allergens, toxins) (40, ‘Disease’), viral proteins (209, ‘Viruses’) including viral nucleocapsid proteins (26, ‘Capsid’) and ‘normal’ proteins (595, ‘Normal’). The number of families are given in parentheses. For example, the families from the ‘Disease’ class represent the subset of all the families retrieved from Pfam with keyword ‘disease’, which also satisfy the above-mentioned criteria for statistical significance. The functions of the families are diverse enough that we can draw meaningful conclusions.

**IMPLEMENTATION**

**Disease associations based on clustering of sequence correlation entropy**

The $P[S(i, j)]$ distributions for the $(+,+)$, $(+,-)$ and $(-,-)$ are broad (Fig. 1a). Therefore any attempt to classify families based entirely on these distributions is bound to be arbitrary. A more reliable method is to use a clustering procedure to divide the families according to their $S(i, j)$ values. We start by constructing a $339 \times 3$ matrix with the rows representing the families and the columns corresponding to $S(i, j)$ values. Inspired by the principal component analysis clustering procedure (Jolliffe, 1986), we transformed the above matrix into

**Fig. 1.** (a) Histograms of $\bar{S}(i, j)$ [Equation (4)] for the 839 families. The top, middle and bottom panels are for $(-,-), (+,-)$ and $(+,+)$, respectively. (b) The distribution of average sequence identity (as presented in the Pfam file of the protein family) for the families in our dataset. Each family was classified according to its class (HC, MC or LC) as described in the text.
the 839 × 839 matrix of the euclidean distances between all pairs of families. An analysis of the eigenvalues of this matrix shows that the first 4–5 eigenvalues are much larger in magnitude than the others. Therefore, if there exists a tendency of the protein families to cluster then such a tendency will manifest itself in the behavior of the eigenvectors associated to the largest eigenvalues (because higher-order eigenvectors are bound to remove structure from the data points). Indeed, the plot of the second eigenvector (EV2) versus the first eigenvector (EV1) (data not shown) reveals two clusters of data: one corresponding to positive values of EV2, the other corresponding to negative values of EV2. But the boundary between the two clusters is not well defined. A much better picture is provided by the plots of EV4 versus EV1 from Figure 2a and EV4 versus EV2 from Figure 2b. Both graphs present three regions that we represent by filled triangles, filled circles and stars. A mapping of the points from one graph to the other shows that the corresponding regions are populated by almost the same set of points. But because the number of points in the corresponding regions from the two graphs varies somewhat, we choose to define the clusters based on Figure 2b. This choice leads to a more balanced distribution of points in each cluster: the highly correlated (HC) cluster contains 210 points, the moderately correlated (MC) cluster has 361 points, and the remaining 268 points are in the little correlated (LC) cluster. By mapping the points from the three clusters to families and their $\bar{S}(i, j)$ values, we can therefore classify the protein families in three classes: (1) HC families have at least two of the pairs satisfy the constraints $\bar{S}(+, +) \leq 52\%$, $\bar{S}(+, -) \leq 42\%$ and $\bar{S}(-, -) \leq 53\%$. (2) If at least two of the pairs satisfy $\bar{S}(+, +) = (53–61\%)$, $\bar{S}(+, -) = (43–49\%)$ and $\bar{S}(-, -) = (54–61\%)$, then the family is considered to have moderate correlation. (3) When at least two of the pairs lie outside the range, we assume that there is little correlation.
Many protein families are known to be associated with various diseases belong to the HC class (Table 1). Examples of families belonging to the HC class are prions, Aβ peptide, the τ protein and Sup35 (one of the Yeast prions) which are all known to aggregate and form fibrils. This result correlates well with the findings of various studies of protein aggregation that for prions charged residues play a key role (Billeter et al., 2002; Chiti et al., 2003). Other families with high degree of sequence correlation between charged amino acids represent proteins that cause diseases like viruses (HCV, Adeno-hexon, Vpu, Gag-p17), Androgen receptor (Kennedy disease), the lyme disease protein and P53 (whose malfunctioning is linked to cancer) and proteins which bind nucleic acids (DNA and RNA which are highly charged) like DNA-polB, recA and IF3, together with proteins that are implicated in the response of the organism to environmental stress (PAL). The largest category of proteins represented in the HC class are those associated with various diseases (Table 2). Families that belong to the MC class represent a mixture of structural proteins, enzymes, transport proteins and some disease-related proteins. Some examples are aerolysin (related to deep wound infections), aldehyd (allergens), alpha_TIF (viral protein), clathrin (structural protein in vesicles), FMN_dh (electron transfer) and GCV_H (glycine cleavage H-protein).

Three control calculations are needed to ascertain if the classification of protein families based on the clustering of SCE is reliable.

(i) It is likely that the high sequence correlation among charged residues can arise because of unusual sequence composition in disease-related proteins. If the fraction of total number of charged residues in a sequence exceeds the typical 23% observed in protein structures (Creighton, 1993), then one might expect it to belong to the HC class. Computation of the sequence composition of charged residues in all 839 families shows no correlation between the observed fraction of charged residues and the associated value of $S(i, j)$ (RID, unpublished data).

(ii) To ascertain if our findings are a result of high sequence identity, we explored the relationship between the average sequence identity in a family (as presented in the Pfam entry) and its class based on $S(i, j)$ values. The distributions of sequence identities for families belonging to the three classes show that families with similarities >90% belong to the HC class, while families with similarities <15% are most probable to belong to the LC class. This is exactly what one expects based on the Equations (1) and (2). But, in general, there is no good correlation between the sequence similarity in a family and its class (Fig. 1b). There is considerable variation in the sequence identities between families in both the HC and MC class (Fig. 1b). Both these control calculations show that the values of SCE among

### Table 1. Sequence correlation entropy for charged residues in protein families from the HC class

| Family (database) | SI | (+, +) | (+, −) | (−, −) |
|------------------|---|--------|--------|--------|
| Prions           | 83| 48     | 34     | 42     |
| Prions (Blast)   | 72| 45     | 33     | 42     |
| Aβ (Blast)       | 82| 31     | 33     | 40     |
| Tau (Blast)      | 55| 49     | 37     | 49     |
| GroEL (Blast)    | 54| 50     | 37     | 46     |
| A2M              | 51| 50     | 38     | 48     |
| Adeno-hexon      | 51| 47     | 36     | 45     |
| Cytochrome-b-C   | 74| 43     | 34     | 31     |
| DNA-polB         | 27| 50     | 39     | 53     |
| Gag-p17          | 69| 52     | 38     | 43     |
| HCV-capsid       | 90| 39     | 37     | 41     |
| HH-signal        | 84| 42     | 29     | 39     |
| IF3              | 45| 49     | 37     | 52     |
| Lipoprotein-1    | 71| 47     | 33     | 46     |
| P53              | 63| 44     | 37     | 46     |
| recA             | 62| 48     | 36     | 47     |
| Rubisco-large    | 85| 48     | 38     | 50     |
| Vpu              | 62| 45     | 32     | 49     |

*aThe sequence identity in the family.

*bSequence correlation entropy, expressed as a percentage [see Equation (4)] for (+, +) pairs.

*cSame as (b), except it is for (+, −) pairs.

*dSame as (b), except it is for (−, −) pairs.

#### Table 2. Link between sequence correlations and the number of mixed runs for the 839 families

| Familya | HCb | MCb | LCa | (CH)c | (CP)d | Runa |
|---------|-----|-----|-----|-------|-------|------|
| All     | 25  | 43  | 32  | 62    | 11    | 65   |
| Normal  | 13  | 44  | 43  | 76    | 7     | 76   |
| NA      | 20  | 58  | 22  | 67    | 13    | 73   |
| Disease | 28  | 42  | 30  | 55    | 45    | 64   |
| Viruses | 59  | 31  | 10  | 48    | 10    | 49   |
| Capsid  | 88  | 9   | 3   | 48    | 22    | 61   |

*aThe first column describes the functions of the families in the dataset (see text for an explanation). The 450 members in the ‘Normal’ category exclude the ‘NA’ and ‘HSP’ families.

*bPercentages of protein families in the HC, MC and LC classes. The largest and the smallest percentages in each column are given in boldface and in italics, respectively.

*cThe percentage of families, among the HC class, that have at least one significant mixed (CH) run.

*dSame as (e), except it is for mixed (CP) runs.

*ePercentage of proteins, in the HC class, that have either one (or more) significant (CH) or one (or more) significant (CP) run(s).
charged residues may indeed be associated with the function of the protein.

(iii) To determine the significance of the $\bar{S}(i, j)$ values in the various families, a comparative analysis with a random dataset is required. For this, we built 100,000 sets each containing 1000 sequences of length 100. Each position in a sequence was assigned to one of the 20 types of amino acids with equal probability. The corresponding distributions of $S(i, j)$ values (data not shown) are narrow with averages corresponding to 69, 57 and 76% for $\bar{S}(+, +)$, $\bar{S}(+,-)$ and $\bar{S}(-,-)$, respectively. Using these datasets, the $P$-values for $\bar{S}(i, j)$ in the HC class are $< 10^{-5}$, which shows that the calculated $\bar{S}(i, j)$ values are very significant. More importantly, the link between $\bar{S}(i, j)$ and the tendency to aggregate is indeed meaningful.

Specific sequence separations in charged residues may be preferred in proteins belonging to the HC class

Plots of $P_{\alpha}(i, j)$ as a function of $s_k$ for three of the families in the HC class show (Fig. 3) that there is a considerable structure in $P_{\alpha}(i, j)$, which implies that in these families there is a distinct correlation among charged residues at preferred values of $s_k$. Surprisingly, despite the similarity in the overall degree of correlation in prions and DNA-polB and HCV capsid proteins, the behavior of $P_{\alpha}(i, j)$ in prions resembles more closely that of the HCV capsid: in both cases there are a few peaks separated by deep valleys. On the other hand, in DNA-polB $P_{\alpha}(i, j)$ decays smoothly with the increase in $s_k$.

The availability of a representative structure in these families allows us to map these high probability sequence correlations (Fig. 3) and their occurrence in the structure. Mapping onto the NMR structure of the human prion protein (1QLX) of the positions, which are involved in the pairing that correspond to the largest $P_{\alpha}(i, j)$ (Fig. 4a) show that these 30 positions (which are mostly found in the three helices) are clustered almost entirely on one face of the 3D prion structure. In the prion family, the localization of charged amino acids in the 3D structure is reflected in the specific peaks in $P_{\alpha}(i, j)$. A similar mapping of positions (selected on the same basis as in prions) in DNA-polB on a structure from *Thermococcus gorgonarius* (1TGO) shows that these positions are uniformly distributed on all faces of the structure. If the linear density of charges (number of charged residues divided by sequence length) is roughly uniform, we expect $P_{\alpha}(i, j)$ to decay smoothly without any structure. This is the case in DNA-polB family (Fig. 3). As a result we find that, at the tertiary structure level, the charges are roughly uniformly distributed throughout the surface (Fig. 4b).

Could the observation of preferred sequence separation be anticipated from sequence entropy calculation alone? To answer this, we calculated $S(i) = -\sum_{\alpha=1}^{N_{\text{class}}} p_{\alpha}(i) \ln p_{\alpha}(i)$ using four classes ($N_{\text{class}} = 4$) of amino acids (positively and negatively charged, polar, hydrophobic) and where $p_{\alpha}(i)$ is the probability of observing amino acid $\alpha$ at site $i$ in an MSA [$p_{\alpha}(i) = \frac{1}{4}$ from random considerations]. We only discuss the prion family because in this family many positions are strongly conserved. There are a total of 35 charged residues in hPrP(23–253) out of which 14 are perfectly conserved [$S(i) = 0$]. In the structured region of hPrP, only 6 out of the 14
Sequence correlation between charged residues

(a)

(b)

Fig. 4. Mapping of HC, as measured by \( P_{\text{CH}}(i,j) \) (Fig. 3), charged residues onto the 3D structure. (a) Space filling representation of one face of the human prion structure (1QLX). Residues appearing in pairs corresponding to the peaks in \( P_{\text{CH}}(i,j) \) (Fig. 3) are shown in black. HC charged residues in sequence space are localized in the 3D structure. The black shades represent residues that have significant values of \( P_{\text{CH}}(i,j) \). (b) Similar picture for ITGO, which is a representative structure for DNA-polB. The black shades represent residues that have significant values of \( P_{\text{CH}}(i,j) \) (Fig. 3). Charged residues are uniformly distributed in the 3D structure. This figure can be viewed in colour on Bioinformatics online.

appear in pairs with high degree of correlation. Thus, there is no obvious relationship between conservation of individual charged residues and their covariation as measured by SCE.

Link between number of significant mixed runs and SCE

The distribution of \( R_{\text{CH}} \) for the protein families in the three classes (HC, MC, LC) shows clear differences between them (data not shown). In proteins belonging to the HC class (210 members) there is a long tail in the distribution of \( R_{\text{CH}} \), which implies that a large number of mixed (CH) runs are found. In the HC class, we find that a significant number of proteins have \( R_{\text{CH}} > 3 \) whereas the maximum value is \( R_{\text{CH}} < 3 \) for protein families belonging to the MC class (361 members). In the LC class (268 members), the number of significant mixed (CH) runs hardly exceeds 2. Overall, \( \sim 62\% \) of families in the HC class have \( R_{\text{CH}} > 1 \). On the other hand, only 43% of the families in the MC class have \( R_{\text{CH}} > 1 \) whereas only \( \sim 6\% \) of families in the LC class have \( R_{\text{CH}} > 1 \).

The results for the distribution of \( R_{\text{CP}} \) show even more dramatic differences between the three classes. Approximately 11% of families in the HC class have \( R_{\text{CP}} > 1 \), whereas only \( \sim 2\% \) of the MC class families have multiple (>1) significant mixed (CP) runs. Among the proteins in the LC class, we do not find any protein family with \( R_{\text{CP}} > 1 \). The percentage of families with either \( R_{\text{CH}} > 1 \) or \( R_{\text{CP}} > 1 \) is 65, 44 and 6% in the HC, MC and LC class, respectively. These results show that there is a significant correlation between the number of mixed charged runs and the SCE.

Examples of families with \( R_{\text{CH}} > 1 \) are aldehyde dehydrogenase (allergens), basic (myogenic Basic domain, DNA binding with bHLH motif), Betv1 (pathogenesis-related protein Betv1 family, allergens), endotoxin (bacteria toxins), bZIP MAF (bZIP MAF transcription factor, cancer-related), granin (cancer-related), Myc N-term (cancer-related), prions, Arena_nucleocapsid, Bunya_RdRp (Bunyavirus RNA-dependent RNA polymerase), Corona_nucleocapsid, DNA_poLB, Flu_PB1 (Influenza virus RNA-dependent RNA polymerase subunit PB1), Hanta_nucleocapsid, Paramyxo_ncap (Paramyxovirus nucleocapsid protein), RHD (cancer-related), tropomyosin (allergens), TTL (breast cancer-related), GroEL, HSP90, P53 and actin. \( R_{\text{CH}} > 1 \) is found in Androgen_recep (Kennedy disease), HSP90, HCV_capsid (hepatitis C virus nucleocapsid protein), granin, Myc N-term, P53, Corona_nucleocapsid, Astro_capsid (Astro virus nucleocapsid precursor), Arte_nucleocapsid (Arteri virus nucleocapsid protein) and Paramyxo_ncapsid.

We note that, in general, \( R_{\text{CH}} > 1 \) occurs only in families of proteins associated with diseases, while \( R_{\text{CP}} > 1 \) is found in both families of normal proteins and of proteins associated with diseases. Even more interestingly, this analysis reveals differences between disease-related proteins that might be due to the corresponding disease mechanism: proteins found in allergens and toxins and the majority of proteins related to cancer have large \( R_{\text{CH}} \) values and small \( R_{\text{CP}} \) values, while the protein related to Kennedy disease and some of the viral nucleocapsid proteins have large \( R_{\text{CP}} \) values and small \( R_{\text{CH}} \) values.
A summary of the major findings is given in Table 2. There are a number of lessons that can be gleaned from our findings: (1) only \sim 13\% of all normal proteins have high correlation among charged residues compared with 25\% of all proteins. However, among the 59 ‘normal’ protein families (that are in the HC class) 45 (76\%) have at least one significant (CH) or (CP) run. (2) The largest percentage of proteins in the HC class is from viral nucleocapsid protein families. These proteins, which are involved in transcription, also have a number of significant (CH) or (CP) runs. Taken together, these results show that, for all families, relatively low values of SCE are linked to the number of significant (CH) and/or (CP) runs.

**DISCUSSION**

**Comparison with other methods for extraction of sequence correlations**

In the Methods section, we noted that a quenched average over the sequences in the MSA can reveal novel correlations between residues [Equation (2)]. To ascertain if similar inferences can be drawn using other methods, we performed a mutual information function (MIF) (Li, 1990) analysis of the pairs of charged residues in the various protein families. We first determined the probability to find a charged residue (type C1) at a given position \( i \) in an MSA,

\[
P_i(C1) = \frac{\sum_{p=1}^{n_{\text{seq}}} \delta([i] - C1)}{\sum_{p=1}^{n_{\text{seq}}} 1},
\]

where \( \delta([i] - C1) \) is unity if the amino acid at position \( i \) is type C1 and is zero otherwise. The probability of finding a pair of charged residues (C1 and C2) at two positions \( i \) and \( j \) in the MSA

\[
P_{ij}(C1, C2) = \frac{\sum_{p=1}^{n_{\text{seq}}} \delta([i] - C1)\delta([j] - C2)}{\sum_{p=1}^{n_{\text{seq}}} 1}.
\]

The MIF is

\[
\text{MIF}(C1, C2) = \sum_{i=1}^{L_{\text{seq}}-1} \sum_{j=i+1}^{L_{\text{seq}}} P_{ij}(C1, C2) \times \ln \left[ \frac{P_{ij}(C1, C2)}{P_i(C1)P_j(C2)} \right].
\]

Just as before, we need to factor out the effects of the length of each MSA, so we measured the quantity:

\[
\text{MIF}_\times(C1, C2) = \frac{\text{MIF}(C1, C2)}{\ln(L_{\text{seq}})}.
\]

The \( \text{MIF}_\times(C1, C2) \) values for all 839 families are much smaller than the maximum possible value [\( \text{MIF}_{\text{max}}(C1, C2) = 4.4 \)].

**Plausible functional link among some families in the HC class**

The class of proteins that gives the most clear and consistent signal [relatively low values of SCE and multiple significant (CH) and (CP) runs] is that associated with disease-related proteins like prions, viruses and P53. Sequence-level correlations could be the result of the constraints imposed on the evolution of the protein by its function in the cell. Using these observations, we tentatively hypothesize that protein families with high degree of charge correlations may have somewhat similar functions. If this hypothesis is valid, we can surmise that there may be some level of similarity between the actions of prions and those of nucleocapsid viral proteins. Similarly, the functions of prions and P53 may be somewhat related. The function of prions is not known, but those of P53 and nucleocapsid proteins are: they both bind DNA with nucleocapsid proteins playing a vital role in the transcription and replication of viral DNA/RNA. Our hypothesis would suggest that the cellular form of prions can also bind nucleic acids. Because prions resemble the HCV nucleocapsid proteins even at the level of individual \( P_{ij}(i, j) \) (Fig. 3), we propose that the function of prions could be similar to that of nucleocapsid proteins.

There is experimental support to our inference that the functions of prions and nucleocapsid proteins may be similar. A series of studies (Sklavniidis et al., 1993; Cordeiro et al., 2001; Gabus et al., 2001a,b; Moscardini et al., 2002) have shown that the prion protein has DNA strand transfer properties similar to viral nucleocapsid proteins. It has been postulated that in prions an unknown cofactor (‘Protein X’) facilitates the dramatic conformational transition from the predominantly \( \alpha \)-helical structure to a state rich in \( \beta \)-sheet. DNA strands could play the role of ‘protein X’ in the conformational transition.

**Number of significant (CH)/(CP) runs and propensity for scrapie formation in prions are linked**

Recent sequence and structural analysis (Kallberg et al., 2001; Dima and Thirumalai, 2002) has suggested that elements of secondary structure in mammalian prions are frustrated. By frustration, we mean that the secondary structure elements
The correlation between charges. The identification of correlated 'normal' proteins exhibit only moderate or weak sequence avoiding aggregation. As a corollary, we find that the majority likely that the charge distributions may also be important in protein interactions or binding to DNA or RNA. It is also and/or (CP) runs might be indicative of their role in protein–

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Table 3. Amino acid composition and number of mixed runs in prion proteins

| Species | Ha | Ch | Pc | Ld | Nrun(CH) | Nrun(CP) |
|---------|----|----|----|----|----------|----------|
| Human   | 28 | 17 | 55 | 208| 2        | 0        |
| Possum  | 34 | 15 | 51 | 235| 2        | 1        |
| Turtle  | 33 | 16 | 51 | 246| 0        | 2        |
| Chicken | 36 | 15 | 49 | 249| 0        | 0        |

*Percentage of hydrophobic residues.
*Percentage of charged residues.
*Percentage of polar residues.
*Number of amino acids.
*Number of significant (CH) runs.
*Number of significant (CP) runs.

in the normal cellular form could be better accommodated by an alternative conformation. Avian prion sequences are not frustrated (Dima and Thirumalai, 2002), which explains the lack of observation of the scrapie form in these species. These findings are further corroborated here by the variations in the significant (CH) and (CP) runs (Table 3) between these species. Despite the lack of significant differences (Table 3) in the amino acid composition (especially in charged and polar residues) among the various species, the chicken prion sequence as well as of the other avian species does not have significant mixed (CH)/(CP) runs. However, (CH) and/or (CP) runs appear in all mammalian prions that are known to be associated with prion diseases. The absence of such runs might be one of the reasons for the lack of formation of the scrapie form of prions in avian species.

Despite the deleterious effects of sequence correlations among charged residues in proteins associated with diseases, our findings suggest that charged amino acids must play an important role in the functions of these proteins. Viruses (like HIV and hepatitis C) have high degree of sequence correlation between charges. Blocking the repertoire of charges in viruses might impair their capacity to induce and promote the associated disease. As a rule, protein families with high degree of sequence correlations also have a significant number of mixed (CH)/(CP) runs. When charged residues appear correlated in a sequence they are most probably distributed in patches in the 3D structure.

Given the potential link between high degree of charge correlation and disease, it is not clear why these proteins have not evolved with more benign characteristics. Perhaps, there are functional demands on this class of proteins that require multiple runs and significant charge correlations. The high degree of charge correlation and the presence of mixed (CH) and/or (CP) runs might be indicative of their role in protein–protein interactions or binding to DNA or RNA. It is also likely that the charge distributions may also be important in avoiding aggregation. As a corollary, we find that the majority of ‘normal’ proteins exhibit only moderate or weak sequence correlation between charges. The identification of correlated charged pairs in various families suggests that mutation of these residues can compromise their function. This prediction is amenable to experimental tests.

Importance of charged residues in kinetics of fibrillization

The factors that affect the amyloid deposition rates have not been fully elucidated. Only recently a systematic physical basis that relates sequence characteristics in disease-related proteins and amyloid formation has been explored (Chiti et al., 2003). This study shows that the overall charge states greatly affect fibrillation kinetics. The deposition rate decreases as the overall charge of the disease-related proteins increases. Similarly, we had argued (Thirumalai et al., 2003) both in prion proteins and Aβ peptides that the overall charge is relevant for polymerization. For example, the Aβ16-22 peptide with the sequence KLVFFAE is a significant (CH) run. This peptide has been shown by using solid-state NMR measurements to readily aggregate into amyloid fibrils organized into antiparallel β-sheets (Balbach et al., 2000). Extensive molecular dynamics simulations in explicit solvent probing the dynamics of the assembly process for three Aβ16-22 peptides (Klimov and Thirumalai, 2003) revealed that electrostatic and hydrophobic interactions play different roles in the formation of the antiparallel β-sheet: the electrostatic interactions play a crucial role in the orientation of the peptides in the oligomer, while the hydrophobic interactions bind the peptides together. As a result, mutations at either the C-terminal end from a negatively charged residue to polar residues (E22G and E22Q) or at the mid-hydrophobic positions (L17S/F19S/F20S) reduce considerably the stability of the oligomer. These studies provide additional support for our prediction that charged residues clustered into significant (CH) runs play an important part in the dynamics of protein aggregation. The prediction, based solely on bioinformatic analysis, that correlated mutations can inhibit amyloid formation can be experimentally tested.

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