KinPred: A unified approach and resource for human kinase-substrate predictions

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Tyrosine and serine/threonine kinases are essential regulators of cell processes and are important targets for human therapies. Unfortunately, very little is known about specific kinase-substrate relationships, making it difficult to infer meaning from dysregulated phosphoproteomic datasets or for researchers to identify possible kinases that regulate specific or novel phosphorylation sites. The last two decades have seen an explosion in algorithms to extrapolate from what little is known into the larger unknown – predicting kinase-substrate relationships using a variety of approaches that include the sequence-specificity of kinase catalytic domains and various other factors, such as evolutionary relationships, co-expression, and protein-protein interaction networks. Unfortunately, a number of limitations prevent researchers from easily harnessing these resources, such as loss of resource accessibility, limited information in publishing that results in poor mapping to a human reference, using different kinase names, and not being updated to match the growth of the human phosphoproteome. Here, we propose a methodological framework for publishing predictions in a unified way, which entails ensuring predictions have been run on a current reference proteome, mapping the same substrates and kinases across resources to a common reference, filtering for the human phosphoproteome, and providing methods for updating the resource easily in the future. We applied this framework on three currently available resources, published in the last decade, which provide kinase-specific predictions in the human proteome. Using the unified datasets, we then explore the role of study bias, the emergent network properties of these predictors, and comparisons within and between predictors. The combination of the code for unification and analysis, as well as the unified predictors are available under the resource we named KinPred. We believe this resource will be useful for a wide range of applications and establishes best practices for future predictors for long-term usability and sustainability.

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Introduction

Kinase regulation of protein phosphorylation plays important roles in almost all cell processes, including: growth factor/cytokine signaling, cell cycle and metabolic control, and DNA damage response. Serine/threonine phosphorylation-driven networks are anciently conserved and found throughout both prokaryotes and eukaryotes. Tyrosine phosphorylation is a more recent evolutionary mechanism, appearing as a complete signaling unit around the post-metazoan switch (1). We should also note that histidine phosphorylation plays essential roles in cell physiology, but experimental challenges for measuring it have hindered our ability to study and discover it (2), hence here we focus on serine/threonine and tyrosine phosphorylation. These types of post-translational modifications (PTMs) are extensive in human biology and currently include roughly 40,000 tyrosine and 200,000 serine/threonine residues known to be phosphorylated (3). This number of discovered phosphorylation sites has grown dramatically in recent years (4), due to advances in mass spectrometry-based enrichment and discovery methods (5).

Unfortunately, our understanding of the role and regulation of the phosphoproteome have not kept pace with its discovery. For example, only about 3% of phosphorylation sites have a kinase that is known to recognize and phosphorylate that site, meaning that the vast majority of phosphorylation sites have no known kinase (6). Since dysregulation of phosphorylation-driven networks are common to disease states and kinase inhibitors are a major class of FDA-approved drugs (7), it would be highly beneficial to connect dysregulated phosphorylation sites to candidate kinase targets.

A major breakthrough in the ability to hypothesize kinase-substrate connections came with the discovery that kinase catalytic domains have preferences for the protein sequence immediately surrounding the site of phosphorylation (8). However, kinases are often part of multi-domain protein architectures, where tertiary protein-protein interactions also help to shape kinase-substrate recognition (9, 10). The motivation to understand the kinases responsible for phosphorylating substrates and the discovery of kinase specificity determination has resulted in the proliferation of a large number of kinase-substrate prediction approaches. We found 30 such predictors published since 1999, ranging in methodologies from position specific scoring matrix approaches (11) to machine learning approaches, such as support vector machines (12, 13), Bayesian-based learning (14, 15), and recently, deep learning approaches (16). The myriad approaches suggests a vast array of resources for biologists to consider when identifying candidate kinases for new phosphosites, integrating for network-based approaches, or looking for kinase enrichment, such as in KSEA (17).

Despite a plethora of resources, there are significant barriers to the use of these predictors. For example, in our experience, one-third of the 15 resources published since 2010 are no longer accessible. In the event that the publication provided the predictions as supplementary material, there are two main classes of problems one encounters. First, are issues with the sequences provided and mapping to current

databases. For example, often a phosphorylation site is designated by its position and an accession only (e.g. Y1197 in UniProt record P00533). The older the dataset, the less likely there exists a Y/S/T at that position, as protein records are constantly changing. Second, these predictors might publish data filtered, either based on a stringency or based on the known phosphoproteome at that time. That presents a problem when one wishes to know whether the absence of a kinase-substrate edge truly represents a relationship that was tested and then filtered out due to stringency (a true negative), was tested and removed as it was a site not yet known to be phosphorylated, or not tested at all. Additionally, different age datasets and datasets published using alternate accession numbers are difficult to compare/cross-reference. The result of these challenges is that it is extremely difficult for a researcher to consider multiple prediction algorithms in their research, to get complete results for the current scale of the phosphoproteome, and to interpret the meaning of various prediction algorithms.

To overcome these challenges, we built a process for unifying kinase-substrate prediction datasets. This process uses a non-redundant reference proteome to retrieve proteome-level predictions (keeping all edges tested), mapping kinase names to a common ontology, filtering on the current phosphoproteome, and developing methods to allow for updates to both the reference proteome and phosphoproteome. Here, we present KinPred v1.0, a framework for unification, a unified resource containing three selected predictors, and analysis and methods for considering how to compare results, network sizes and emergent properties, agreement/disagreement between predictors, study bias, and the discriminability/overlap of different kinases within a predictor. We have made all code and datasets of KinPred v1.0 publicly available at https://github.com/NaegleLab/KinPred, and https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.12749342.v1, respectively.

Results

Evaluation of available kinase-substrate prediction sets. We performed a wide literature search of available kinase-substrate prediction algorithms. This encompasses 30 prediction algorithms published between 1999 and 2020 (Table S1). Our goal was to select prediction resources that were: 1) available/accessible, 2) covered a large range of kinases, and 3) were kinase, versus family, specific predictions. We selected algorithms that focused on kinase-specific results, instead of kinase family predictions, such as DeepPhos (16), Quokka (18), and MusiteDeep (19), for the breadth of kinases and to allow comparisons between sets, but also because there is evidence that total sequence similarity does not guarantee similarity in specificity. Typically, the most recently duplicated paralogs may have high overall similarity, but the duplication event itself likely results in the freedom of one of these copies evolving new function – i.e. substrate targets (20). Instead, small changes in key regions that define specificity can occur (21), resulting in differential specificity, such as seen for the highly similar paralogs SRC and LCK

Fig. 1. Comparison of the number of kinases in each predictor by kinase group. (A) Tyrosine kinases. **(B)** Serine/threonine kinases.

(22). There are three prediction algorithms that met these requirements, which are: (NetworKIN (23, 24), PhosphoPICK (15), and GPS 5.0 (25) (referred to here as GPS).

The three selected predictors use various features for prediction, which ultimately result in weighted edges between kinases and possible substrates, where the edge weight denotes the prediction likelihood of that relationship. NetworKIN's (24) prediction approach uses a kinase-specific classifier, based on sequence and evolutionary phylogeny, and a network proximity score, based on annotated proximity between kinases and substrates from the STRING protein-protein interaction database (26). We used the combined score of the sequence-specific and network-specific scores (done by a naive Bayes approach), which is reported as a log-likelihood. GPS's prediction approach relies on combined literature curation and kinase-substrate annotations from Phospho.ELM 7.0 (27) and PhosphoSitePlus (28), then uses a scoring approach based on sequence similarity to kinase substrates. GPS edge weights are reported as false positive rates based on generation of 10,000 random phosphopeptides, which are calculated within defined protein families based on protein

kinase homology. Finally, PhosphoPICK, like NetworKIN, incorporates both sequence-based and network-based information. For training data, they used Phospho.ELM (27) and HPRD (29) for defined kinase-substrate relationships and BioGRID (30) and STRING (26) for protein-protein interactions. There Bayesian network algorithm then estimates a likelihood p-value, which is the reported edge score. In summary, the three predictors rely heavily on sequence context, either from degenerate libraries (NetworKIN) or annotated kinase-substrate training sets (GPS, PhosphoPICK), where NetworKIN and PhosphoPICK add protein-protein interaction information and other context features.

Integration of multiple kinase-substrate predictions into a common ontology that can be updated. Having selected our three predictors, we next wished to create a unified prediction set for which we knew that all possible human substrates had been tested and the substrates and kinases were mapped onto a common ontology. In this framework, there are two steps: 1) we run the prediction on all unique human proteins to capture all predicted kinase-substrate edges mapping kinases and substrates to a common ontology – where edges may exist to Y, S, or T amino acids that are not known to be phosphorylated and 2) we filter those datasets to include only those sites that have been identified as phosphorylated according to the integrated compendia and experimental database of post-translational modifications, ProteomeScout, which combines five major compendia and primary phosphoproteomic experiments (3). The results are based on current ProteomeScout data (Feb. 7, 2020), which currently includes 41,414 unique phosphotyrosines and 204,399 unique phosphoserines/threonines. Combined, the three kinase-substrate predictors cover 76 tyrosine kinases and 266 serine/threonine kinases. Based on current UniProt annotations of human kinases this is out of 100 human tyrosine kinases and 376 human serine/threonine kinases possible. Of the few dual specificity kinases (9), we include them in both categories, keeping their relevant substrates as either phosphotyrosine or phosphoserine/phosphothreonine substrates. Figure 1 shows the total kinases covered, indicating that GPS is the largest and PhosphoPICK is the smallest of the predictors in this set. This dataset guarantees coverage of known phosphorylation sites across the available kinases, all commonly mapped to the same kinase and substrate identifiers.

In order to update this common resource in the future when new phosphorylation sites are discovered, a trend that continues (4), we have implemented two basic approaches. First, most updates will require pulling pre-calculated edge weights from the resource that were filtered in the last version as not being phosphorylated at the time. Second, for a smaller number of cases, the underlying human proteome sequence may have changed in a way that affects the sequence surrounding the phosphorylated amino acid of interest. In these cases, our infrastructure identifies these protein sequences for running anew on the prediction servers/code, where new predictions are then replaced/added in the compendia of kinase-substrate predictions. We plan to update these predictions once to twice a year, when ProteomeScout undergoes a stable update. Hence, we provide here both a current, unified prediction set across the three predictors, but also a general framework for adding new predictors and updating prediction sets in the future.

Table 1. The definition of kinase-substrate weighted edges in a given prediction network and suggested stringencies for those edge weights by predictor for low, medium, and high stringencies.

Predictor	Score Definition	Low	Medium	High
NetworKIN	Likelihood Ratio	0.3	0.5	1
PhosphoPICK	P-value	0.1	0.06	0.02
GPS (Ser/Thr)	False Positive Rate	10%	6%	2%
GPS (Tyr)	False Positive Rate	15%	9%	4%

Thresholding kinase-substrate predictions. The edges of each predictor have different meanings and each resource publication has suggested thresholds for consideration of different stringencies to consider for cutting off edges that fall below a specific likelihood (Table 1). To explore the effects of these thresholds on overall predictor coverage and size, we measured the total unique phosphorylation sites in post-thresholded predictor networks across the suggested stringencies (Fig. 2A). There is a unique behavior between tyrosine and serine/threonine kinase networks – increasing stringency in tyrosine kinase predictions results in a significant loss of human phosphotyrosine coverage in NetworKIN and, to a lesser extent, PhosphoPICK. For PhosphoPICK, this may be related to the smaller number of kinases predicted compared to the other predictors. However, NetworKIN and GPS have more equivalent tyrosine kinases in their predictors (50 and 65, respectively). Hence, the decrease in NetworKIN phosphotyrosine coverage is likely due to the distribution of edges – fewer overall sites have at least one high stringency edge in NetworKIN, compared to GPS. This behavior is unique to phosphotyrosine networks. Phosphoserine/threonine networks drop a significantly smaller fraction of the known human sites as a function of increasing stringency. Each predictor stringency therefore has different effects on overall phosphorylation site coverage that is specific to the predictor and the type of kinase network under consideration.

The total number of edges included in the post-thresholded networks is also of interest, this captures the density of kinase-substrate connections predicted in each network at or above the given stringency (Fig. 2B). At all thresholds, GPS contains the highest number of kinase-substrate edges, consistent with it being the largest of the three predictors in the total number of kinases available. However, the rate of loss of edges in the different predictors as a function of stringency differ. Specifically, medium and high stringencies in NetworKIN result in significant loss of predicted edges (as well as phosphorylation site coverage). To a lesser extent, this loss of network edges also occurs in PhosphoPICK.

Finally, in order to understand how total loss in edges as a function stringency translates to the connectedness of individual substrates, we explored the degree distribution of substrates as a function of stringency (Fig. 2C). Generally, the

Fig. 2. Network Comparisons Across Stringencies. **(A)** Bar graph of total phosphotyrosine and phoshposerine/phosphothreonine sites included in the network, normalized to the total number in the low stringency network, as a function of increasing stringency. Number of substrates at low stringency is labeled on each bar. **B)** Bar graph of total edges in the network, normalized by the total number covered in low stringency, as a function of threshold. Numbers on low stringency bars are the total number of edges at low stringency. **(C)** Distributions of substrate degree of phosphotyrosine and phosphoserine/phosphothreonine sites, where degree is the number of edges connected to a substrate at or above the denoted stringency.

median substrate degree is directly proportional to the networks' size (Fig. 2), where the center of the distribution is

highest for GPS, which generally predicts significantly more kinases are responsible for phosphorylating substrates than

Fig. 3. Effect of study bias The distribution of substrate degrees (number of kinase connections) as a function of the number of compendia those substrates are reported in, where increasing number of compendia suggests increasing study bias for phosphorylation sites. Degree was measured in high-stringency networks for NetworKIN, GPS, and PhosphoPICK (from left to right) and for tyrosine (top) and serine/threonine networks. Pairwise KS-tests were used to measure distributions between sequential number of compendia, * denotes <1e-3 p-value.

the other predictors. All predictors demonstrate that there are a small proportion of substrates that are highly connected – having higher degree than most substrates. For GPS, lowly connected substrates are considered outliers, which is different than the other predictors, where the majority of substrates are lowly-connected. Increasing stringency generally has the effect of reducing outliers (highly connected substrates) and decreasing the average degree of substrates. Taken together, the three different predictor networks demonstrate very different properties regarding substrate inclusion and connectedness, including different changes with stringency, suggesting that direct stringency comparisons do not result in comparable networks.

Effect of study bias in substrate prediction networks.
The training of kinase-substrate predictors rely on well-annotated training data, which has the potential to create bias of strong predictions for well-studied phosphorylation sites. To test for study bias, we looked at the relationship between the number of high-stringency edges a substrate has and how frequently it appears in compendia/databases of phosphorylation. ProteomeScout currently contains five compendia (PhosphoSitePlus (28), Phospho.ELM (27), dbPTM (31), HPRD (29), and UniProt (32)). Figure 3 plots the distribution of substrate degrees as a function of the number of compendia the substrate has been observed in. Roughly 93% and 90% of phosphotyrosine and phosphoserine/threonine sites, respectively, are annotated by at least one compendia, the majority of which are annotated only in one compendia (60% and 53% respectively). Roughly 16% of phosphotyrosines and 23% of phosphoserine/threonine are very well studied, appearing in at least three different compendia. Most predictors, in both phosphorylation groups, generally show increasing degree with increasing compendia annotations, suggesting a strong

relationship between how many high-stringency edges a substrate has and how well-studied it is. To statistically test this, we used the KS-test to compare the distributions of a group to the distribution in the next compendia group. If substrates were truly a random sampling of the background, the KS-test would result in no significant rejections of the null hypothesis. However, we observed very significant differences in most comparisons, including all of the tests in GPS substrate degrees and most of PhosphoPICK tests. NetworKIN demonstrates fewer significant differences in network degree as a function of study bias. These results suggest that it is important to understand the effect of study bias that underlies the kinase-substrate predictions when making conclusions from these predictors.

Direct comparison of kinase-substrate predictors. We wished to understand the similarity of kinase-substrate predictors in terms of general trends and direct overlap in how these independent predictors compare. For these analyses, we consider only the kinases that are predicted in any pair of predictors (Fig. 1), which includes: 11 tyrosine kinases and 68 serine/threonine kinases between PhosphoPICK and NetworKIN; 39 tyrosine kinases and 117 serine/threonine kinases between GPS and NetworKIN; 19 tyrosine kinases and 87 serine/threonine kinases between GPS and PhosphoPICK. One aspect of comparison we considered was whether different predictors agreed with how connected kinases are – i.e. their degree or number of substrates predicted per kinase. To measure this we looked at the correlation in kinase degree between predictors at different stringencies. There was no discernible correlation between any pair of predictors or kinase types. The highest correlation was between PhosphoPICK and NetworKIN tyrosine kinase degrees with a Pearson correlation of 0.49, but a p-value of 0.12, indicating low

Fig. 4. Within-predictor kinase similarity. Jaccard index matrices for NetworKIN predictions at **(A)** low and **(B)** high stringency. The symmetric matrix was sorted hierarchically and kinase names are highlighted in red text if their Jaccard index meets a minimum of 0.001 p-value significance (a value of 0.49 or greater). Those relationships that exceed significant Jaccard index values are shown in network diagrams **(C)** NetworKIN tyrosine and serine/threonine kinases under high stringency and **(D)** GPS tyrosine kinase networks (serine/threonine are large and available in Fig. S1). A spring layout was used on the weighted graph, so the closer the nodes the larger the Jaccard index. These graphs show all significant overlapping kinases in the given kinase network.

confidence in that correlation. If we perform the same analysis from the perspective of substrate connectivity, there is a correlation only between PhosphoPICK and NetworKIN for both tyrosine (r=0.6, p-value < 1e-100) and serine/threonine networks (r=0.4, p-value < 1e-100). In short, this means that no predictor agrees in the general trend of which kinases may be more "hub-like" within networks and only PhosphoPICK and NetworKIN have some agreement as to the general trend of substrate connectivity.

Finally, we wished to ask how similar/dissimilar different kinases are within and across predictors and whether that

changes with stringency. We measured the similarity between kinases using the Jaccard index, which is the size of the intersection of two sets, normalized by the size of the union of the sets. The Jaccard index ranges from 0, where there is no overlap to 1, when there is complete overlap. By random chance, there is an expectation that some amount of overlap randomly occurs. For, sets containing at least 100 elements, a Jaccard index of 0.49 or larger is considered significant at a p-value of 0.001 (33). Our sets were defined as the substrates connected to a kinase at a given threshold to another kinase's substrate set. As all of our comparisons contain at

minimum 100 elements, then 0.49 is a bound with conservative estimate of being unlikely due to random chance alone. Additionally, a Jaccard index of 0.49 corresponds to roughly half of the available substrates between both kinases as being the same. We used this approach to understand network overlap between kinases within the same predictor and between kinases in different predictors.

Within-predictor kinase similarity. We compared within-predictor kinase similarity to understand the overlap, or lack of discriminability, between kinases within a predictor. Figure 4 shows the results of all pairwise Jaccard scores for tyrosine kinase predictions within NetworKIN at low and high stringency. The highest degree of overlap exists at low stringencies, where 46% (23) of the tyrosine kinase networks predicted by NetworKIN are significantly similar to at least one other tyrosine kinase in NetworKIN. This overlap decreases with increasing stringency – dropping to 26% of kinases (13) at medium stringency and 22% of kinases (11) at high stringency. The NetworKIN serine/threonine kinase overlap starts higher (65.7% overlap significantly at low stringency), but also drops faster to end at only 9.3% overlap at high stringency. PhosphoPICK shows no significant overlap at high stringency for tyrosine kinases and modest overlap (2%) for serine/threonine kinases. The general trend of decreasing overlap with increasing stringency is consistent across all predictors and both tyrosine and serine/threonine networks (Fig. S1), with the exception of tyrosine kinase networks in GPS, which actually increase in the extent of overlap with increasing stringency.

We next used a network layout to see what kinases significantly overlap with each other (Fig. 4C,D and Fig. S1). The kinases that significantly overlap with each other show very different patterns in NetworKIN than in GPS. In NetworKIN high stringency networks, the remaining overlap occurs between highly homologous paralogs of kinases (e.g. the EPHA and MAPK family of kinases). However, in GPS there is low overlap amongst these families, but high overlap between diverse kinases, such as CSF1R, JAK1, ITK, ERBB4, and PTK2. Hence, our analysis suggests that when using the kinase-substrate networks as a whole, one must consider the degree of overlap, i.e. lack of discriminability, between kinases in a predictor and the role of stringency in alleviating (or in the case of GPS) increasing overlap.

Between-predictor kinase similarity. We next wished to understand whether the different predictors generally agreed regarding substrate similarity. We again used the Jaccard index, this time measuring overlap between a kinase in one predictor and kinases in a second predictor. Most notably, this analysis demonstrated that globally the between-predictor similarity of the same kinases is significant lower than within-predictor similarities of different kinases. For example, Figure 5 shows NetworKIN vs. PhosphoPICK at low stringencies for both tyrosine and serine/threonine networks (all direct comparison JI matrices are available in Fig. S2), with JI values that are significantly lower than the best JI values seen within a predictor (Fig. 4A).

Despite having low overall similarity we wished to know if the best overlap still occurred between predictors for the same kinase. Figure 5 and Figure S2 highlight the kinases whose match is in the top 1% of Jaccard scores measured against all kinases in another predictor. We noticed that although some kinase's rank high when comparing from one predictor to another, the opposite is not necessarily true. For example, SRC, ERBB1, ABL1, HCK, and INSR rank high when comparing NetworKIN to PhosphoPICK, but only SRC and ERBB1 rank high when mapping from PhosphoPICK to NetworKIN. Based on Jaccard scores, HCK of NetworKIN overlaps best with HCK PhosphoPICK networks, but the HCK PhosphoPICK network instead overlaps to a greater extent with NetworKIN's LCK, ABL2, and FYN networks. The same trend holds true for serine/threonine networks, where 14 kinases in NetworKIN's overlap in the top 1% of rankings with PhosphoPICK, but only 10 PhosphoPICK kinases overlap in the top 1% of JI values with NetworKIN kinases. Finally, we noted that the kinases which rank best is highly dependent on stringency – the kinases that overlap change drastically across different stringency networks (Fig. S2).

Since each predictor's stringency value has a different interpretation and results in different impacts on the overall networks (e.g. the number of edges, edge degree distributions, etc.), we wished to compare all combinations of stringencies in a pairwise manner to find when and what the best overlap of kinase networks are between predictors. Figure 5 shows the results of this experiment, presented as the cumulative distribution function of the kinases by rank – meaning one can measure the fraction of kinases whose direct match appears in the top 10 or top 20 ranks for tyrosine and serine/threonine networks, respectively. We included a line (in black) that establishes a bound on random expectation for this type of calculation. Additionally, we randomized the networks and performed this experiment, which demonstrated that random networks generally follow random expectation (Fig. S3).

The CDF ranks, akin to the findings of the top 1% of kinases in the heatmaps, highlights that the asymmetry in mapping results is universal. Specifically, there are drastically different behaviors in mapping from predictor "A" to predictor "B" than from B to A. For example, not only are the starting points (fraction that are ranked first) in the A:B than B:A plots different, but which stringency selections achieve optimum overlap varies between comparisons and between kinase types. For example, low stringency NetworKIN predictions have the best overlap with PhosphoPICK for tyrosine kinases, but the opposite is true for the serine/threonine comparison (where high stringency creates the best overlap). Additionally, the shape of the curve, where positive deviation from the random line indicates more similarity between predictors, is not the same in the A to B than the B to A comparisons. For example, although mapping from NetworKIN into GPS deviates positively from the random line, the opposite is not true – GPS rankings are not better than expected by random chance. This means that GPS overlap of kinases with the same kinase in NetworKIN is indistinguishable from the

Fig. 5. Between-predictor kinase similarity. Jaccard index matrices, comparing GPS and NetworKIN, both at low stringency for **(A)** Jaccard index for GPS and NetworKIN comparison at low stringency for tyrosine kinases, where labels in red indicate kinase is in the top 1% and **(B)** for serine/threonine kinases, where a kinase label in indicates that the kinase is in the top 1%. **(C)**: Cumulative distributions of the fraction of kinases up to that rank in one predictor (A) compared to all kinases in a second predictor (B), where the title label means A:B. Rank comparisons were based on Jaccard Index and the black line gives an estimation of what is expected by random chance. There are nine comparisons for each A:B pair, where the stringency is encoded in color for NetworKIN (top two rows) and PhosphoPICK (bottom row) and GPS stringencies are denoted by line transparency.

overlap they share with different kinases in NetworKIN. GPS mappings in both kinase groups and against both NetworKIN and PhosphoPICK perform the worst in matching relevant kinases in other predictors. Taken together, these results suggest that there is generally low agreement between predictors, although it is generally better than random chance, suggesting at least some agreement. Unfortunately, these results also suggest that there is no single best stringency to recommend that maximizes the comparisons across predictors.

Discussion

Lessons from comparisons of multiple predictors. The analyses we performed on the three different prediction datasets demonstrated vastly different behaviors in terms of network size, properties, study bias, and overlap both within and between predictors. Sadly, the deeply disparate results suggest that it is unlikely to be helpful to consider merging networks in a manner that relies on agreement between predictors. Instead, users of these networks should likely consider specific needs when determining which predictors to use, how to consider stringency, and how to aggregate results between predictors. For example, if one wishes to minimize overlap between kinase networks within a predictor, then for serine/threonine predictions you would select high stringency networks for all predictors, but for tyrosine networks you would select low stringency for GPS, medium or high stringency for PhosphoPICK, and high stringency for NetworKIN. If instead, one wished to maximize network coverage of phosphorylation sites, then GPS at any stringency and low stringencies for NetworKIN and PhosphoPICK would be ideal. Finally, if the goal is to maximize overlap between predictors, there is no single stringency selection that is ideal, even in a single pair of predictors, since mapping from one to the other is not equivalent in the reverse. In conclusion, we propose that the general analysis framework we have used and made available in Python code will be useful to researchers when considering this, or other predictors.

Another important conclusion from this analysis, is that it is likely that the predominate behaviors within the predictors are largely driven by the underlying assumptions and training data at the basis of the predictors. For example, NetworKIN's basis for sequence recognition did not come from annotated sets, but from degenerate libraries and therefore, may be the reason that NetworKIN does not exhibit the same extent of study bias within its network as GPS and PhosphoPICK. Since the latter two predictors relied on relatively small numbers of kinase-substrate annotations coming from databases like Phospho.ELM, we hypothesize that these predictors enrich for confident scores on well-studied proteins from the training data, which results in the very high degree of study bias observed. Secondly, NetworKIN's poor discrimination between highly homologous kinases is likely due to its reliance on assumptions that homologous kinases result in similar specificity. Unfortunately, whether highly homologous kinases are more likely to phosphorylate similar substrates, versus the suggestion of GPS, where highly dissimilar kinases have high degree of overlap, is difficult to

explore given the small amount of available data.

Value of cohesion and growth. KinPred (version 1.0) is the first bioinformatics resource that provides a unified kinase-substrate prediction network for the human phosphoproteome from multiple predictors. Here, we retrieved unified results for all kinase-specific predictors that were accessible at the time of this research. We believe this is a useful resource for any researcher wishing to explore specific kinase-substrate hypotheses or for use in algorithms that rely on entire networks, such as KSEA (17). In addition to the unified resource of these three predictors of kinase-substrate relationships in the current proteome, we have provided code and a general framework for unifying new approaches in kinase-substrate predictions and for keeping this resource updated as the human phosphoproteome continues to expand and as the underlying protein databases are changed.

Unfortunately, our broad exploration of kinase-substrate prediction resources highlighted challenges users face in accessing or understanding the predictions. Of the 15 predictors published since 2010, 5 were unavailable. For all resources, if we wished to guarantee coverage of the human phosphoproteome, it required running the full proteome against the website, or in downloadable code. This process took several weeks for the largest predictors. Hence, there are significant barriers to the usability of these resources and we would like to emphasize that for long term sustainability/usability of new algorithms in the field, publication should include the entirety of the prediction against a reference proteome (i.e. all kinase-substrate edges tested) and a subset of those predictions for the current phosphoproteome, provided with the reference proteome and phosphoproteome used. This way, should access to running new predictions no longer be available, users could more easily access and update from the available predictions at the time of publication. Ideally, if results were provided in the unified format we have developed, results would also easily be comparable to existing predictors. Finally, an advantage to providing all edge weights, instead of filtering on a specific stringency, is that, as we demonstrated, stringency selection for considering edges as significant will depend on the application, so filtering results at the time of publication presents a barrier to changing stringency cutoff.

Materials and Methods

Data and Code Availability. All retrieval, processing, and analysis code was written in Python3/Jupyter and are available in our Github repository at: `https://github.com/NaegleLab/KinPred`. All datasets, midpoints, reference proteome and phosphoproteomes, and mapping ontologies, extracted code, for KinPred v1.0 are available on Figshare at: `https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.12749333.v1`.

Data Preparation.

Retrieving and processing a unified prediction set. We used a non-redundant canonical human proteome refer-

ence file from UniProt (Feb. 26, 2020, stored with project data at: https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.12749342.v1). The downloaded FASTA file was programmatically split into 21 smaller files and then submitted to the prediction services, using the appropriate programmatic or web-based interface, as outlined below. We removed prediction types that did not refer to protein kinase-substrate interactions. For unification between predictors, the raw prediction data was pre-processed to a standard format, and a controlled vocabulary was used. The substrates and kinases were mapped to the same ontology, compliant with the UniProt reference. The standardized format includes the following information: the unique identifier for substrates, which is the combination of the protein UniProt accession and site position within the protein sequence; the protein accessions and gene names annotated in UniProt; the site, which is the combination of the amino acid residue and the site position within the protein sequence; the peptide sequence around the predicted site; and the common kinase name used across all predictions. Each predictor has a pre-processed prediction data file with a standardized format. We created a global kinase ontology reference to map between predictor-specific kinase names and a common kinase name (available at: https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.12749333.v1). The global kinase map contains the UniProt accession, a common kinase name, the description of the kinases, the kinase type, and the reference kinase names in each predictor. Additionally, this file contains a preferred name, so that users may define preferred kinase names in downstream analyses.

NetworKIN predictions were run from a local installation of NetworKIN3.0, software available at https://networkin.info/download/NetworKIN3.0_release.zip. Predictions were set to include all kinases with no threshold, in order to retrieve all possible edges, and Human was the selected species, if available.

GPS The GPS5.0 application was downloaded (GPS5.0 Unix v. 20190721 from http://gps.biocuckoo.cn/download.php), installed locally, and predictions were initially collected in January 2020, then updated to Feb. 26, 2020 reference proteome.

PhosphoPICK predictions were retrieved in November 2019 by submitting the split FASTA files to the web interface at http://bioinf.scmb.uq.edu.au/phosphopick/submit. Initial predictions were performed on a reference proteome from Oct.16, 2019, and then updated to the Feb. 26, 2020 reference proteome.

Filtering predictions for known phosphorylation sites.
We retained kinase-substrate predictions for known phosphorylation sites by using the reference phosphoproteome from ProteomeScout (downloaded Feb. 2020, reference available in project data with the human UniProt reference on the Figshare project in the Raw directory). Phosphosites were retrieved from the ProteomeScout database by protein accessions using ProteomeScout API (4, 34) for every UniProt accession in the reference proteome. The phosphorylation sites

were matched by the site position. If the site position did not match between the ProteomeScout UniProt record and the reference record, we matched the substrate sites by using the predictor returned 11-mer or 15-mer (GPS, PhosphoPICK) peptide – which, for some highly repetitive sequences in the human proteome, may match multiple times in a single protein record. In these cases, all matches were retained in the final data format. Kinase-substrate predictions were filtered for coherence – i.e. serine/threonine sites were removed if the kinase is a known tyrosine kinase and vice versa. Tyrosine/serine/threonine residues were kept for dual specificity kinases only. The final datasets for each predictor are available in the Figshare project under the "Final Data" directory. It is important to note that no stringency filters have been applied to this data, so that researchers have full control over edge weights of interest. However, all analyses in this paper applied at a minimum the lowest stringency as defined in Table 1.

Updating prediction data. We wrote methods to update the human phosphoproteome predictions for future releases of ProteomeScout datasets. This method checks for changes between the human reference used to generate KinPred v1.0 and a new human reference dataset. Any sequences that have changed or been added will be provided, such that the retrieval of new predictions can be performed and added/replaced in the datasets. Next, phosphosites in the new reference phosphoproteome are pulled from the unfiltered dataset to generate the updated set. Existing predictions for records that have been removed (or sites that have been removed) are also removed from the KinPred dataset.

Data Analysis Methods.

Thresholds for Final Prediction Data Comparison across Predictors. Each predictor has a different interpretation of what an edge weight signifies and therefore, there is no single value that can be applied to threshold all predictors. The thresholds used for filtering each predictor data set were summarized in Table 1.

NetworKIN the unified likelihood was used as the score of the predictions. The unified likelihood of a certain NetPhorest probability and network proximity score of STRING were calculated by the joint probability rule (24). Horn et al. indicated that it is likely to be true for the unified likelihood scores to be higher than the theoretically neutral value of 1 (24). Therefore, for the purpose of the predictor comparisons for NetworKIN prediction data, the low, medium, and high thresholds were adopted with the unified likelihood of 0.3, 0.5, and 1, respectively.

GPS5.0, the default low, medium, and high thresholds for serine/threonine kinases were adopted with FPRs of 10%, 6%, and 2%, respectively; and 15%, 9%, and 4%, respectively, for tyrosine kinases (25). These default thresholds were kept in this study. To obtain the actual cutoff scores for the predicted kinases, a random small subset of the human proteome sequences were submitted to GPS5.0 with threshold setting of low, medium, or high. The actual cutoff scores

were extracted from the 'Cutoff' column of the prediction results of GPS5.0 application. These values are provided in the Figshare project under the Raw/GPS directory.

PhosphoPICK The default thresholds of 0.25, 0.1, 0.05, and 0.005 as the low, medium, high, and very high, respectively ([15]), were not used in these analyses. Instead, in order to make comparisons more comparable to GPS, we used p-values of 0.1, 0.06, and 0.02, for low, medium, and high stringencies, respectively.

Predicted Kinase Networks Similarity Comparisons . The predicted kinase network similarity comparisons were measured by the Jaccard's Index ([33]). The Jaccard's index is the ratio of the intersection to the union of the two sets. The values range from 0 for no similarity to 1 for the complete overlap of the two compared sets. Based on "Tables of significant values of Jaccard's index of similarity" ([33]), the lower and upper critical values of Jaccard's index with the probability levels 0.05, 0.01 and 0.001 were calculated for the N elements in either of the two compared OTUs (Operational Taxonomic Units). The upper critical values of Jaccard's index of 0.49 with N=100, which is the upper limit for the calculated table of the significant values of Jaccard's index, correspond with the probability level of 0.001. Hence, we used a threshold of 0.49 to identify similarities between kinases that are significant.

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Fig. S1. Within Predictor Similarities Within-predictor kinase similarity measured by Jaccard index for all predictors at all stringencies (low, medium, and high from left to right). The symmetric matrix was sorted hierarchically. The within-predictor relationships that exceed significant Jaccard index (0.49) values are shown in network diagrams, below their corresponding heatmap. The figures are separated by kinase type (tyrosine kinases first and serine/threonine kinases second.

Fig. S2. Between Predictor Similarities Between-predictor kinase similarity measured by Jaccard index for all combinations of predictors at all stringencies (low, medium, and high from left to right). The matrices are sorted by the same kinase order on both the Y- and X-axes. If the ranking of kinase in predictor A is in the top 1% of similarities in predictor B comparisons, the font is in red for tyrosine kinases, or indicated with a label in serine/threonine kinases.

Fig. S3. Ranking Performance for Randomized Datasets The edges of predictors were randomized and the process of measuring Jaccard index overlap between predictors and measuring the cumulative distribution function of rankings, as done in Figure 5 was repeated on random datasets. The dashed-black line indicates the expectation of random performance line.

Table S1. Overview of Predictors. The name, Pubmed link, and details about the availability and details of 49 predictors of phosphorylation and kinase-substrate relationships.

Table S2. Ranks of kinases in between-predictor comparisons This Excel book contains an overview of the performance of each pairwise predictor overlap, the optimum stringency selected, and the ranks of kinases mapping from one predictor to another at those optimum stringencies.