

*Regular Article***Improvement in positional accuracy of neural-network predicted hydration sites of proteins by incorporating atomic details of water-protein interactions and site-searching algorithm**Kochi Sato^{1,2}, Masayoshi Nakasako^{1,2}¹ Department of Physics, Faculty of Science and Technology, Keio University, Yokohama, Kanagawa 223-8522, Japan.² RIKEN SPring-8 Center, Sayo-gun, Hyogo 679-5148, Japan.

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Visualization of hydration structures over the entire protein surface is necessary to understand why the aqueous environment is essential for protein folding and functions. However, it is still difficult for experiments. Recently, we developed a convolutional neural network (CNN) to predict the probability distribution of hydration water molecules over protein surfaces and in protein cavities. The deep network was optimized using solely the distribution patterns of protein atoms surrounding each hydration water molecule in high-resolution X-ray crystal structures and successfully provided probability distributions of hydration water molecules. Despite the effectiveness of the probability distribution, the positional differences of the predicted positions obtained from the local maxima as predicted sites remained inadequate in reproducing the hydration sites in the crystal structure models. In this work, we modified the deep network by subdividing atomic classes based on the electronic properties of atoms composing amino acids. In addition, the exclusion volumes of each protein atom and hydration water molecule were taken to predict the hydration sites from the probability distribution. These information on chemical properties of atoms leads to an improvement in positional prediction accuracy. We selected the best CNN from 47 CNNs constructed by systematically varying the number of channels and layers of neural networks. Here, we report the improvements in prediction accuracy by the reorganized CNN together with the details in the architecture, training data, and peak search algorithm.

Key words: deep learning, protein hydration, hydrophobic hydration, X-ray crystallography, artificial intelligence

◀ Significance ▶

Hydration structures of proteins are necessary for understanding why the aqueous environment is essential for protein folding and functions. However, the complete visualization of hydration structures is still difficult in structural biology. We developed a neural network, which was trained by the distribution patterns of protein atoms surrounding each hydration water molecule in high-resolution X-ray crystal structures. The predicted probability distributions of hydration water molecules will be useful for investigating the roles of hydration structures in the stability and dynamics of proteins and for designing drug molecules including the hydration structures in the pharmaceutical industry.

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Introduction

The aqueous environment is indispensable for proteins to fold into unique structures and to conduct biochemical and biophysical processes in living cells [1]. In the microscopic view of protein-water interaction, water molecules constitute parts of building blocks to stabilize protein structures including the catalytic center, mediate molecular interactions of proteins [2–4], and regulate internal motions necessary for biological functions [5–7]. Therefore, the visualization of the hydration structures of proteins is necessary for understanding why proteins require the aqueous environment at the atomic level [8].

The hydration structures of proteins have been investigated using various biophysical techniques [8–15]. Atomic details of hydration structures, such as the hydration sites and interaction modes, are predominantly provided by high-resolution X-ray crystal structure analyses at cryogenic temperature [6,8,16]. In X-ray crystal structure analysis, hydration water molecules appeared as spherical electron densities beyond a resolution of 2.0 Å. In local hydration structures, polar protein atoms are arranged to satisfy the tetrahedral hydrogen-bond geometry of water molecule [8,17]. However, it is difficult for crystallographic studies to provide hydration structures over protein molecules. For instance, we often miss hydration water molecules with large positional fluctuation, and hydration structures of areas occupied by precipitant molecules/ions and/or engaged in molecular contacts with crystallographic neighbors.

In contrast to X-ray crystallography visualizing protein structures in crystalline arrangement, cryogenic transmission electron microscopy (cryoEM) [18] for frozen-hydrated macromolecules allows us to visualize metastable conformations of proteins in solution [19,20] and has the potential to visualize the hydration structures of proteins [21,22]. Although both the protein conformations and their hydration structures are desirably visualized simultaneously, in many cases, the amounts of hydration water molecules identified in cryoEM maps are smaller than those detected in X-ray crystallography at an equivalent resolution, probably due to the low electron scattering cross-section of oxygen atoms [8]. Therefore, any computational approaches are necessary to predict the hydration structures for cryoEM structures.

Molecular dynamics (MD) simulations have shown the ability to predict hydration structures at a high spatiotemporal resolution [23–25] using the force field parameters optimized to reproduce crystallographically observed hydrogen-bond patterns [26]. Besides the MD simulations, the theory of liquids based on the statistical mechanics has been developed to predict hydration structures [27]. However, the theory is still in progress [28] because the hydration structures theoretically predicted over protein surfaces are inconsistent with the crystallographic observations [8]. In practice, as these computational approaches necessitate large computational costs and time, more convenient computational approaches are required to easily predict the hydration structures of proteins.

To reduce computational costs for predicting hydration sites, we defined a set of empirical hydration distribution functions (EHDF) around polar protein atoms through the database analysis of crystal structures of proteins [17]. The EHDFs were utilized to predict the distribution of hydration water molecules around hydrophilic amino acid residues [29,30].

Recently, as an alternative computational approach to those described above, neural networks (NNs) using the three-dimensional convolution filter (3D-CF) have been developed for predicting the hydration structures over the surfaces and in the cavities of proteins [31–33]. We also developed a convolutional neural network (CNN) dedicated to predicting the hydration structures of proteins [34]. The NN, which was optimized only using the distributions of protein atoms around hydration water molecules, provided probability distribution of hydration water molecules and hydration sites as the local maxima. The predicted positions as hydration sites were within 0.8 Å on average from the crystallographic hydration water molecules. However, the results were so unsatisfactory for us that the NN was subjected to improvement to reduce the positional differences between the predicted and experimentally observed hydration sites.

In this study, we reexamined the distance distribution of hydration water molecules from protein atoms by inspecting their electrostatic properties and increased the input channels from the previous four to 18. In addition, we constructed 47 NNs systematically varying the number of channels and layers in the NNs. Here, we report the prediction results by the newly reorganized NN together with the architecture, training data, and peak search algorithm.

Methods

Selection of protein structure models

We prepared training, validation and test datasets from crystal structure models of proteins available from the Protein Data Bank [35]. We picked up hydration water molecules, which were located within 5 Å from protein atoms. It should be noted that hydration water molecules within typical hydrogen-bond distances from protein atoms ($2.4 < d < 3.4$) satisfied the tetrahedral hydrogen-bond geometry of water molecules and independent of amino acid sequences of proteins.

To collect a sufficient amount of reliably identified hydration water molecules, we surveyed crystal structures along with more than 100 identified water molecules. In addition, for diminishing the positional unambiguity of hydration sites as small as possible, we selected the structure models which were refined at a resolution beyond 1.8 Å against diffraction

data collected at a cryogenic temperature and displayed crystallographic R-factors smaller than 0.20. Furthermore, to avoid redundant selection in terms of amino acid sequences, we obtained 7,937 representatives of sequence clusters below 30% sequence similarities, provided by RCSB PDB using MMseqs2 [36].

From the selected 7,937 structure models, we divided them into 7,137 as training data (Supplementary Table S1) and the remaining 800 as test data (Supplementary Table S2). As an extra evaluation data, we used the crystal structures of glutamate dehydrogenase (GDH) at a resolution of 1.8 Å [5,30,34], nitrile hydratase (NHase) at 1.7 Å [2,34,37], and other three types of proteins described in the Results section. These evaluation data were also selected to show the sequence similarities below 30% with any sequence in the training and test data.

Distance distributions of protein atoms surrounding hydration water molecules

For the dataset generation, we focused on the partial charges of protein atoms and surveyed the distributions of protein atoms from the hydration water molecule (Fig.1 and Table 1). As a result, we separated protein atoms into 18 types as follows.

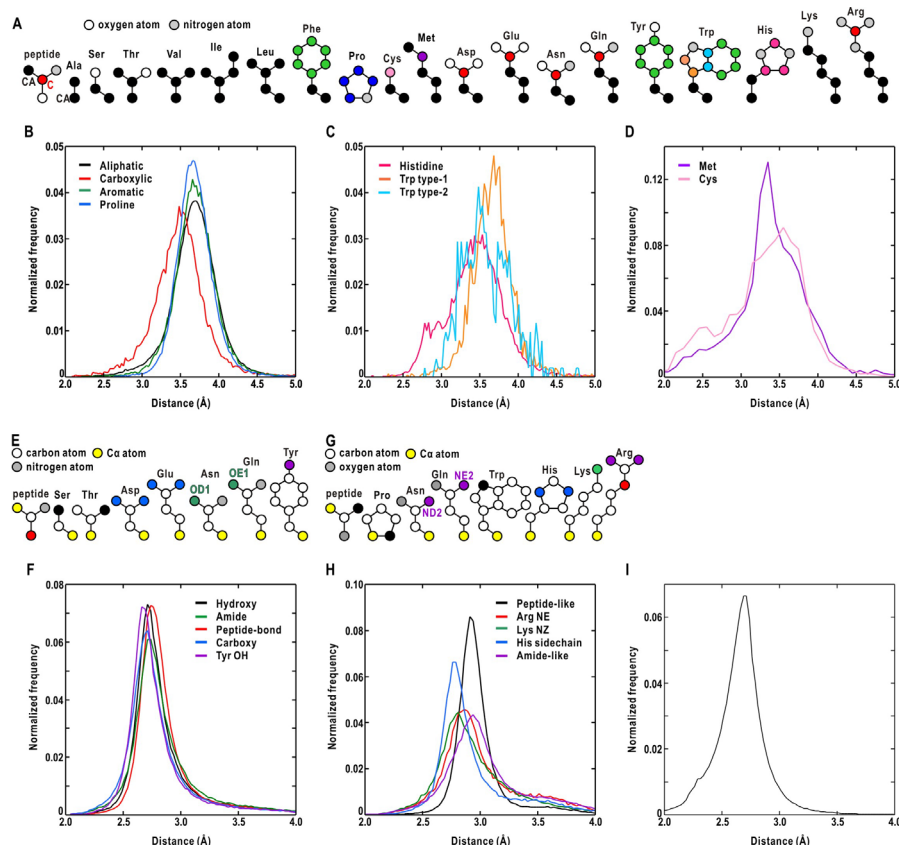


Figure 1 Distance distributions of protein atoms from hydration water molecules. The number of protein atoms used in the calculation of the distance distributions are summarized in Table 1. (A) Classification of carbon atoms composing 20 amino acids. The classified seven types are aliphatic (black filled circle), carboxylic (red), aromatic (green), proline (blue), histidine (magenta), type-1 (orange) and type-2 (cyan) of tryptophan sidechain. The sulfur atoms of cysteine and methionine are colored in brown and purple, respectively. (B, C) Distance distributions of the carbon atoms in the seven types from their nearest crystal water sites. In this plot and the following ones, each distribution was normalized with respect to the sum of the appearance frequencies. (D) Distance distribution of the sulfur atoms from their nearest crystal water sites. The distribution profiles in (B-D) are colored according to the scheme in panel (A). (E) Classification of oxygen atoms composing 7 amino acids and peptide bond. The classified five types are hydroxy (black filled-circles), peptide bond (red), amide (green), carboxy (blue) and OH of tyrosine (purple). (F) Distance distributions of the oxygen atoms in the five types from their nearest crystal water sites. The profiles are colored according to the scheme in panel (E). (G) Classification of nitrogen atoms composing eight amino acids. The classified five types are peptide-like (black), NE atom of arginine (red), NZ atom of lysine (green), histidine sidechain (blue) and amide-like (purple). (H) Distance distributions of the nitrogen atoms in the five types from their nearest crystal water sites. The profiles are colored according to the scheme in panel (G). (I) Distance distributions of crystal water sites from their nearest crystal water sites. The distribution was calculated from 3,265,405 hydration water molecules in 7,143 crystal structure models.

Carbon atoms were separated into seven types, i.e., aliphatic, carboxylic, aromatic, proline, histidine, and two types of tryptophan (Fig. 1A). The distance distributions of aliphatic, aromatic, and proline carbons exhibited similarities with respect to the profiles and the peak positions, while those of the other four differed (Figs. 1B-C and Table 1). Sulfur atoms were treated as a single type, because of the minimal differences in methionine and cysteine and the smaller number of available atoms than those of the other three atoms (Fig. 1D).

Oxygen atoms were separated into five types, i.e., hydroxy, peptide-bond, amide, carboxyl, and OH of tyrosine (Fig. 1E). Their distance distributions exhibited a slight difference in the peak position mainly due to the contributions of π -bonding (Fig. 1F). Nitrogen atoms were separated into five types, i.e., peptide-like, NE atom of arginine, NZ atom of lysine, histidine sidechain, and amide-like (Fig. 1G). The distance distributions of the five types had more variety than those of the other three atom types in both the profiles and peak positions (Fig. 1H).

Table 1 Protein atoms used in the distance distribution from crystal water molecules

Atom	Type	Number of atoms	Peak position (Å)	r_{\min} (Å)*
Carbon	Aliphatic	405,487	3.71	2.925
	Carboxylic	20,550	Approximately 3.5	2.700
	Aromatic	41,873	3.66	3.100
	Proline	60,831	3.66	3.225
	Histidine	16,834	Approximately 3.6	2.725
	Trp type-1	2,623	Approximately 3.7	3.125
	Trp type-2	510	Approximately 3.5	3.075
Sulfur		4,288	Approximately 3.4	2.200
Oxygen	Hydroxy	209,319	2.71	2.475
	Peptide-bond	1,069,604	2.74	2.525
	Amide	125,967	2.74	2.375
	Carboxy	492,155	2.71	2.350
	Tyr OH	69,818	2.66	2.425
Nitrogen	Peptide-like	333,323	2.91	2.675
	Arg NE	29,025	2.86	2.425
	Lys NZ	98,791	2.81	2.400
	His sidechain	40,322	2.76	2.500
	Amide-like	237,388	2.94	2.425

* r_{\min} is the exclusion radius of each atom used for modifying the probability distribution in searching hydration sites (Supplementary Table S3).

Preparation of dataset

For collecting the distribution patterns of protein atoms surrounding hydration water molecules, we used a trimming box of $11.25 \times 11.25 \times 11.25 \text{ Å}^3$, which was a $45 \times 45 \times 45$ array of $0.25 \times 0.25 \times 0.25 \text{ Å}^3$ voxel. For each crystal structure model, scanned surfaces and cavities with a non-zero ASA [38] were scanned using the trimming box. When a hydration water molecule is present within the trimming box, the center of the box was moved to the water molecule, and the distribution pattern of protein atoms within the box was assigned as the ‘water-present’ pattern. When water molecule was absent, the distribution pattern of protein atoms was collected as a ‘water-absent’ pattern. To generate unbiased datasets, the number ratio between the water-present and water-absent patterns was equalized. Each distribution pattern was voxelized separately with respect to the 18 atom types.

From the training data consisting of 7,137 protein structures, 6,530,810 patterns were prepared as datasets, and then divided into 70% as a training dataset and the remaining 30% as a validation dataset. In addition, 738,560 patterns were generated as a test dataset from the test data of 800 protein structures. It should be noted that the selection of the training dataset was independent from protein structures and sequences. As the datasets contained a large number of patterns, we conducted no data augmentation by rotation operation for the patterns.

Construction of neural network

We constructed CNNs [39] composed of a convolution block (CB) and a fully connected block (FCB) (Supplementary Note S1 and Table S4). The CB processes the given distribution patterns of protein atoms by two or three convolution units (CU), each of which was composed of two convolution layers (CL) followed by a max-pooling [40] to down-sample the CL-output and a dropout (DO) layer to avoid overfitting [41]. A three-dimensional convolution filter (3D-CF) of $F \times F \times F$, in this study $F=3$, was applied to each distribution pattern of atoms as follows:

$$u_{ijk} = \sum_{p=1}^F \sum_{q=1}^F \sum_{r=1}^F x_{i+p,j+q,k+r} f_{pqr}, \quad (1)$$

where $x_{i+p,j+q,k+r}$, f_{pqr} , and u_{ijk} are the input data, the convolution filter, and output data, respectively. The number of channels in the second CL was twice that of the first. The first CU had $(45 \times 45 \times 45) \times 18$ channels to independently process the distribution patterns of the 18 atom types. A rectified linear function [42] was applied to the output of each layer as an activation function throughout the NN.

The FCB was composed of two fully connected units, each of which was followed by one dropout layer. The number of nodes in each unit was a variable. The output of the FCB was fed into the softmax function, and then evaluated using the loss function, which is the binary cross-entropy. For the output $y \in [1, 0]$ for the positive class ($d=1$) or negative class ($d=0$), the binary cross-entropy is calculated as:

$$L(\mathbf{w}) = -\{d \log y + (1-d) \log (1-y)\}, \quad (2)$$

where \mathbf{w} represents all the parameters of the model (Fig. 1B). Throughout the training, the parameters of 3D-CFs in the CLs and FCB were optimized to minimize the loss function [43].

We constructed 47 CNNs by systematically varying the numbers of CU, channels in CL, nodes and layers in FCB (Supplementary Table S4). We selected several CNNs by inspecting the accuracy and loss scores for the validation and test datasets (Supplementary Note 2 and Table S5).

For evaluating the selected CNNs using the test dataset generated from 800 protein structure models (Supplementary Table S2), we used validation metrics, such as accuracy, precision, recall, F1-score, receiver operating characteristic (ROC) curve and area under curve (AUC) value. The metrics are described in detail in Supplementary Note S2 and the results are compiled in Supplementary Fig. S1 and Table S6. In addition, we examined the frequency distribution of hydration probability at the sites of hydration water molecules found in the crystal structures of GDH (Supplementary Fig. S2) and NHase (Supplementary Fig. S3).

Hydration probability

For the calculation of hydration probability over a protein, solvent accessible surfaces and cavities were scanned using a $21 \times 21 \times 21$ array of $0.50 \times 0.50 \times 0.50$ Å³ voxel. The CNN inspected the distribution pattern of protein atoms around the center voxel and yielded hydration probability. The CNN iteratively conducted this procedure for all voxels that were located within the range of 2–5 Å from protein atoms, which had non-zero ASA values.

Search method for hydration sites and output data format

Around a crystal water site, predicted hydration probability frequently displayed plateau of saturated value in a region larger than 1-Å diameter. In the region, a single hydration site is difficult to be proposed. When randomly sampled from the plateau region, the predicted site may be up to 1 Å apart from the crystal water site. To find the center of the plateau, we convoluted a Gaussian low-pass filter to the predicted hydration distribution. The standard deviation value of the filter was carefully determined through trial calculations (Supplementary Note S3).

Next, to avoid predicting hydration sites too close to the protein atoms, we introduced the exclusion radii of the protein atoms and hydration water molecules into the Gaussian-convoluted probability distribution. The exclusion radius for each of 18 atom species was determined using the accumulated frequency of the distance distribution in Fig. 1 (Supplementary Note S3, Fig. S4, Table S3, and Table S7).

In the next stage, hydration sites were iteratively determined from the highest probability regions to the next by reducing the threshold value of the probability distribution. During the threshold reduction, we estimated the number of predicted hydration sites of a target protein by comparing it to the possible number of hydration sites expected from the average coverage of a single hydration water molecule in the first layer class (20 Å² in ASA) [8,44]. As a result, the threshold for the predicted probability distributions was set to 80% so that the amount of predicted hydration sites was comparable to the estimated amount of hydration water molecules.

Finally, the probability distribution was generated in the MRC format [45], and the coordinates of the predicted hydration sites were written in the mmCIF format [35].

Prediction scores

With respect to the water-present sites, we calculated the mean absolute positional deviation (MAD) and root-mean-square deviation (RMSD) scores, defined as follows:

$$MAD = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N |\mathbf{r}_i^c - \mathbf{r}_i^p|, \quad RMSD = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^N (\mathbf{r}_i^c - \mathbf{r}_i^p)^2 / N}, \quad (3)$$

where \mathbf{r}_i^c and \mathbf{r}_i^p are the positions of an experimentally identified hydration site and the hydration site from the probability distribution, respectively. N is the number of hydration sites targeted in the evaluation.

Coding and computation

The CNNs were constructed using the Python language and several routines available from TensorFlow (Google Brain, USA). All computations were performed on a high-speed computer server composed of two Intel Xeon Gold 6226R (16 cores, 16 threads) (HPCT W216gs-DL, HPC Tech, Japan) equipped with a GPU card (NVIDIA Quadro RTX 8000 of CUDA version 10, NVIDIA, USA).

Results

Selection of the best CNN

Forty-seven CNNs were constructed by systematically varying the composition and parameters in both CB and FCB (Supplementary Note S1 and Table S4). At first, we selected five CNNs by inspecting the validation metrics such as accuracy, precision, recall, F1-scores and the ROC curves for the test dataset (Supplementary Note S2, Table S5, Fig. S1, and Table S6). Next, we selected the best CNN by comparing the frequency distributions of the hydration probability at the crystal water sites in the crystal structures of GDH [5,30,34] and NHase [2,34,37], which were prepared as the evaluation data (Supplementary Figs. S2–S3).

The selected CNN (Fig. 2A) displayed the validation metric values in Table 2, which were better than those yielded by the previous CNN. The ROC curve (Fig. 2B) reached approximately 0.9 at the false positive rate of 0.2 and the AUC value was 0.922. In addition, with respect to the 800-test data, we inspected the predicted hydration probabilities at crystal water sites (Fig. 2C) and the distances between predicted hydration sites and its nearest crystal water sites (Fig. 2D: see the “Search method for hydration sites and output data format subsection” in the Method section). For more than 62.3% of the crystal water sites, the selected CNN yielded probabilities greater than 80%. The predicted hydration sites were located within 1.0 Å from crystal water sites of more than 61.4%. The new CNN and site-searching algorithm provided much better scores in the positional accuracy monitored by MAD and RMSD than the previous one and other NN-based prediction methods [31–33] (Table 2).

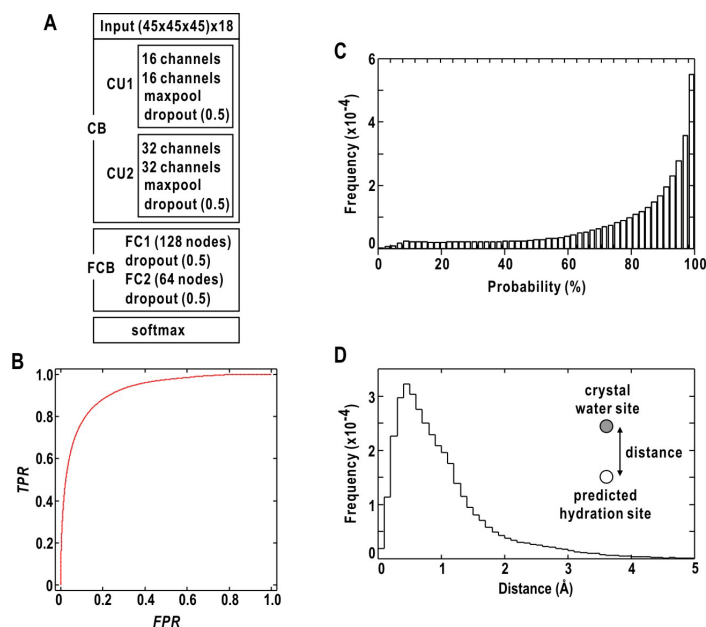


Figure 2 (A) Architecture of the selected CNN. (B) The receiver operating characteristic (ROC) curve of the selected CNN. (C) Frequency distribution of the predicted probabilities at the 365,329 crystal water sites identified in the 800 test crystal structures for the evaluation of the selected CNN. (D) Frequency distribution regarding the distances between predicted hydration sites and crystal water sites of the test 800 crystal structures.

Table 2 Validation and performance of the best CNN

Validation of the selected NN using a set of 800 crystal structures			
Loss	0.3588	F1-score	0.8455
Accuracy	0.8441	AUC	0.9210
Precision	0.8379	AUC-PR	0.9189
Recall	0.8533		
Prediction results for GDH and NHase			
GDH / NHase	Number of predicted sites		
	7,820 / 2,844 (4,671 / 1,456)		
	First-layer class	Inside class	
Number of crystal-water sites	1,425 / 785	195 / 170	
Ratio of crystal-water sites with probability greater than 80% (%)	74 / 65 (81 / 72)	91 / 89 (93 / 89)	
MAD (Å)	0.402 / 0.465 (0.60 / 0.68)	0.326 / 0.353 (0.52 / 0.53)	
	[1.13 / 0.72]	[0.39 / 0.33]	
RMSD (Å)	0.554 / 0.658 (0.82 / 0.93)	0.436 / 0.490 (0.73 / 0.73)	
	[1.13 / 1.10]	[0.65 / 0.51]	

The values in the parentheses and square brackets were obtained using the previously developed CNN [34] and Accutar [31], respectively.

Hydration probability and positional accuracy of predicted sites

As representative results of the CNN-prediction, Figure 3 depicts the predicted hydration probability distributions for NHase. The predicted hydration probability distribution at the 10% level covered the entirety of the protein molecule, with their inner surface considerably approximating the accessible solvent area (ASA), which was obtained using a sphere of 1.4-Å radius (Fig. 3A). By increasing the contour level, the distributions were localized as illustrated for the 50% level. At the 80% level, approximately corresponding to the one standard deviation level from the 100% probability (see Fig. 3B), the probability distributions were localized around the crystal-water sites. As the probability distributions had significant values for surfaces lacking crystal waters, the distributions provide potential hydration sites, which were missed in structure analyses.

Figure 3B shows the probability at crystal water sites of GDH and NHase. The CNN gave the probabilities higher than 80% for more than 90.8% and 88.8% of the crystal water sites in the inside class of GDH and NHase, respectively. Therefore, we concluded that the CNN is applicable to predict hydration sites in the cavities of proteins. Regarding the crystal water sites in the first-layer class of GDH and NHase, the probabilities higher than 80% reached more than 74.2% and 64.8%, respectively, implying that the CNN is suitable for predicting the hydration structures the solvent accessible surfaces of proteins.

Next, we compared the predicted hydration sites by the new CNN with those by the previous CNN with respect to the distances from the crystal water sites (Fig. 3C) and those from the protein atoms (Fig. 3D). In the frequency distributions on the distances between the predicted hydration sites and crystal water sites in GDH and NHase (Fig. 3C), 75.6% of hydration sites predicted by the new CNN were located within 1 Å from the crystal water sites, while the amount of the predicted sites by the previous CNN was 51.6%. Regarding the distances between the predicted sites and their nearest oxygen atoms, the new CNN yielded a frequency distribution of more than twice the height of that yielded by the previous CNN. The total number of oxygen atoms increased to 5,052 by the new CNN from 3,481 by the previous. The number of nitrogen atoms surrounding the predicted sites increased to 1,691 by the new CNN from 1,291 by the previous CNN. The number of carbon atoms was comparable between the new and previous CNNs. Therefore, we concluded that both the new CNN and the site-search algorithm predicted hydration sites closer to the crystal water molecules than the previous CNN.

Predicted hydration sites in the inside class

In this and the following sections, we showed representative examples of hydration structures predicted by the new CNN in detail to understand the characteristics of the predicted probability distributions and predicted sites.

As hydration water molecules in cavities of proteins act as building blocks for stabilizing the structures of proteins [2,8,46], understanding the roles of hydration water molecules in cavities requires a high accuracy in predicting hydration sites. Here we show examples of the predicted hydration distribution probabilities and hydration sites in the inside class of NHase and GDH.

For a narrow cavity formed by Thr166/α, Tyr168/α, and Asp202/β sidechains at the interface of the α- and β-subunits of NHase (Fig. 4A), the predicted hydration probability distributions were localized at the crystal water sites. In the adjacent cavity formed by Tyr127/α and Leu192/α sidechains, the predicted probability distributions were continuous

along the arrangement of crystal water sites 1-3 and between 4-5. Most of the hydration sites predicted by the new CNN were located within 0.3 Å from the crystal water sites. In both the cavities, the predicted sites were closer to the crystal water sites than those predicted by the previous CNN.

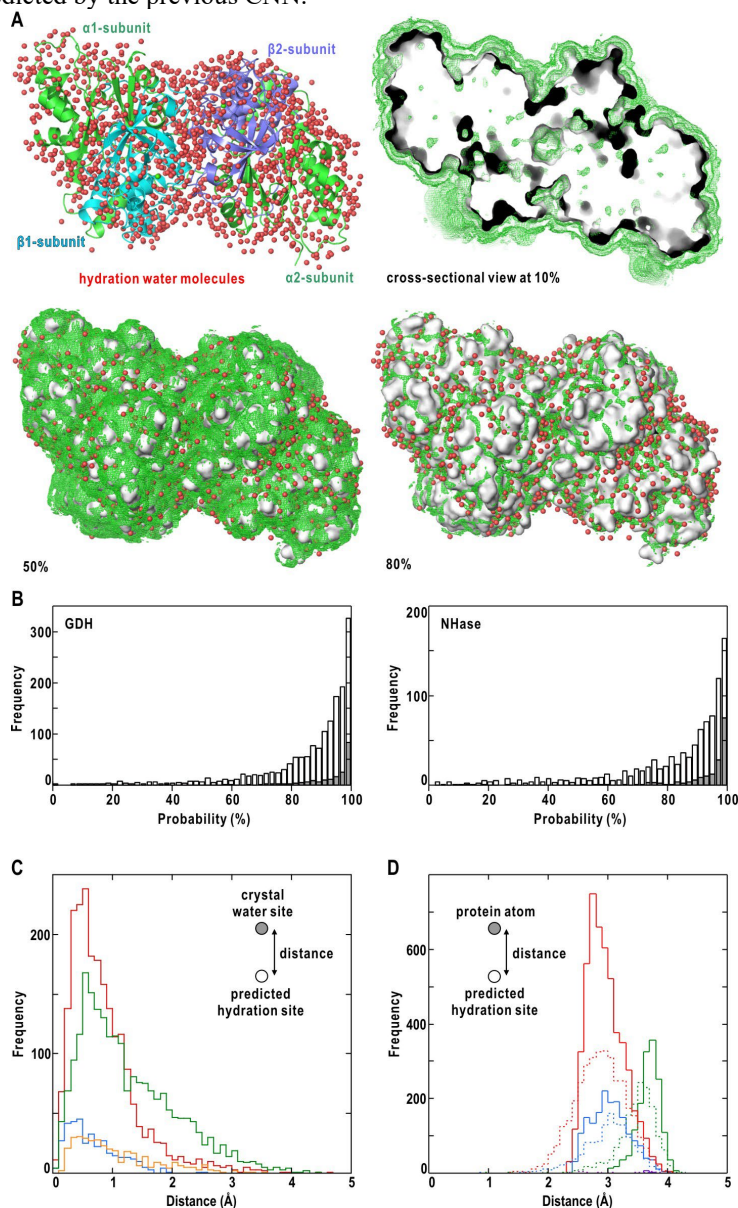


Figure 3 Characteristics of the predicted hydration probability distributions on protein surfaces. (A) The predicted hydration distribution for NHase composed of two α -subunits and two β -subunits (PDB ID: [2ahj](#)). The crystal structure is depicted as ribbon model in the top left panel. The probability distributions contoured at 10%, 50% and 80% levels are displayed on the surface-rendered models of the crystal structures. Only the 10% probability is shown in the cross-sectional view at the plane of the molecular center. In all panels, red spheres of 2 Å diameter indicate the locations of crystal-water sites. (B) Frequency distributions of predicted probability at the 1,425 crystal water sites in the first layer class (white bars) and 195 sites in the inside class (gray bars) in the crystal structure of GDH (PDB ID: [1euz](#)) (left panel) and those at the 785 crystal water sites in the first layer class (white bars) and 170 sites in the inside class (gray bars) in the crystal structure of NHase (right). (C) Frequency distributions on the distances between the predicted sites and crystal water sites in GDH and NHase. The red and blue histograms are distributions obtained by the new CNN for the first-layer and inside classes, respectively. The green (first layer) and yellow histograms (inside) are obtained by the previous CNN. (D) Frequency distributions on the distances between the predicted sites and their nearest oxygen (red), nitrogen (blue), carbon (green) and sulfur (purple) atoms of GDH and NHase. The solid and dashed histograms were obtained by the new and previous CNNs, respectively. Panel (A) was prepared using PyMOL [47].

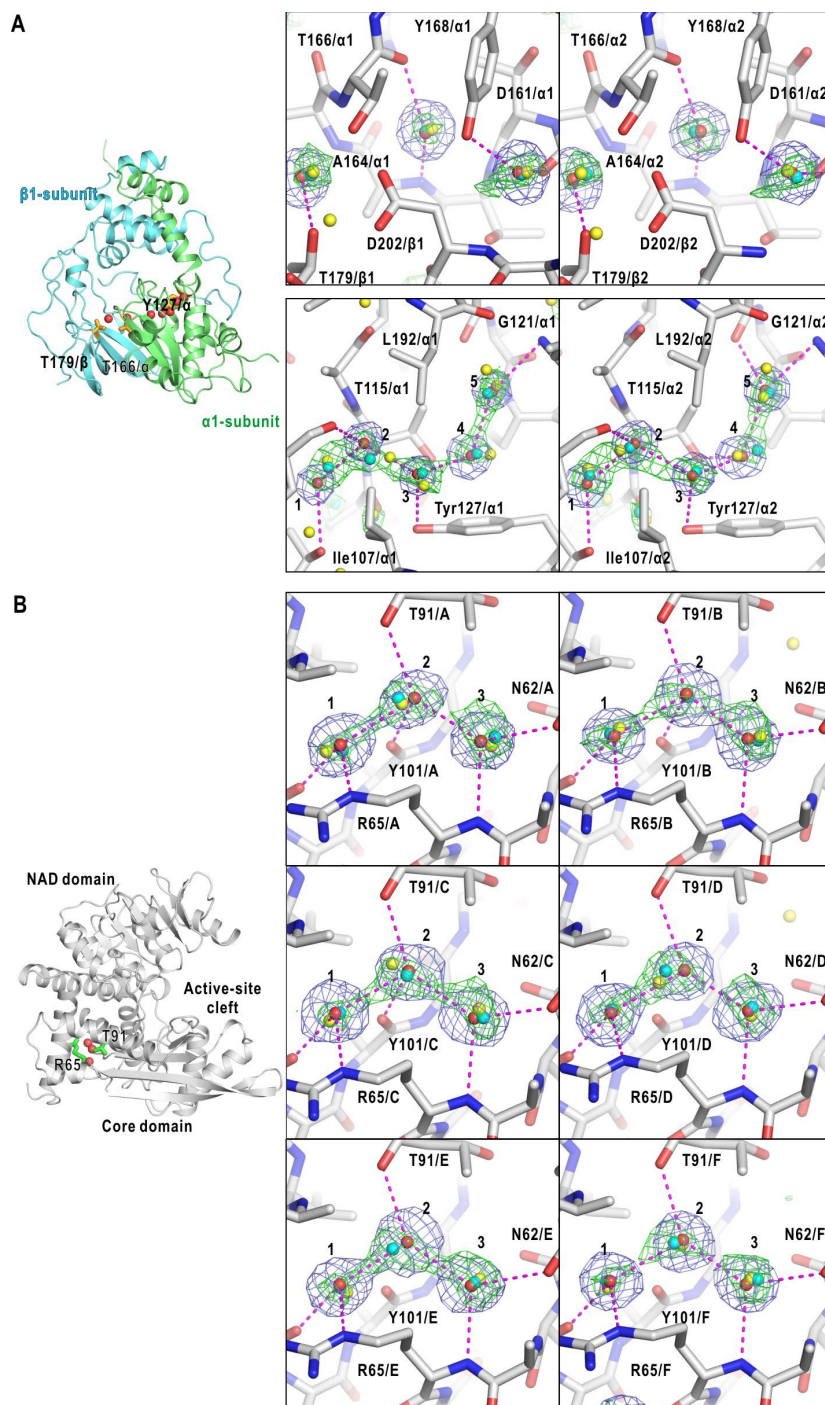


Figure 4 Predicted hydration probabilities and sites in cavities of NHase (A) and GDH (B). In each, the left panel shows the location of the cavity between subunits illustrated using the ribbon model with red spheres indicating the locations of hydration water molecules. Sidechains of landmark residues are depicted using stick models with labels. The right panes are magnified views of the hydration sites. Predicted hydration sites (cyan spheres) and probability distributions (green mesh) predicted are compared with the crystal water sites (red spheres) and omit maps of the crystal water molecules (slate mesh), respectively. The hydration probability is contoured at 80%. The omit maps of NHase and GDH were calculated at resolution of 1.7 and 1.8 Å, respectively, and contoured at 4 and 5 standard deviation level from the average (corresponding to 4σ and 5σ used in protein crystallography), respectively. Amino acid residues surrounding the crystal water sites are shown as stick models. The dashed lines (magenta) indicate possible hydrogen bonds. The yellow spheres are the hydration sites predicted by the previous CNN. Some amino acid residues are labeled. The scheme of this illustration is used in the following figures. Panels were prepared using PyMOL [47].

Comprising six identical subunits, GDH is convenient to examine the reproducibility of the hydration prediction. For the cavities formed by Arg65 and Thr91 (Fig. 4B), the predicted probability distributions were localized at the crystal water sites in each subunit, and most of the predicted sites were located within 0.3 Å from the crystal water sites. The sites predicted by the previous CNN displayed significant deviations from crystal water sites 2 in subunits C and D.

As a result, with respect to the reproducibility for hydration sites of the inside class, the new CNN displayed better performance than the previous CNN. The predicted probability distributions tended to be more localized in narrower cavities, but more continuous distributions in wider cavities.

Predicted hydration sites in the first layer class

Hydration water molecules of the first-layer class covering the surfaces of proteins have roles to maintain the surface structures of proteins [8]. In addition, their positional changes sometimes regulate conformational changes of proteins [7,8]. Figure 5 depicts the predicted probability distributions and hydration sites on the solvent accessible surfaces of NHase and GDH.

Figure 5A shows the prediction for a hexagonal arrangement of crystal water sites surrounding Ser109/ β 1 of NHase. The new CNN predicted hydration sites close to 12 crystal water sites, while the previous CNN failed the prediction of sites 2, 4, 6, 8, and 10. Regarding the hydration of Ser109/ β 2, the new CNN predicted crystal water site 6 missed in the crystal structure analysis. The new CNN did not fail the prediction, while the previous CNN failed the prediction for crystal water sites 2, 5, 9, and 11.

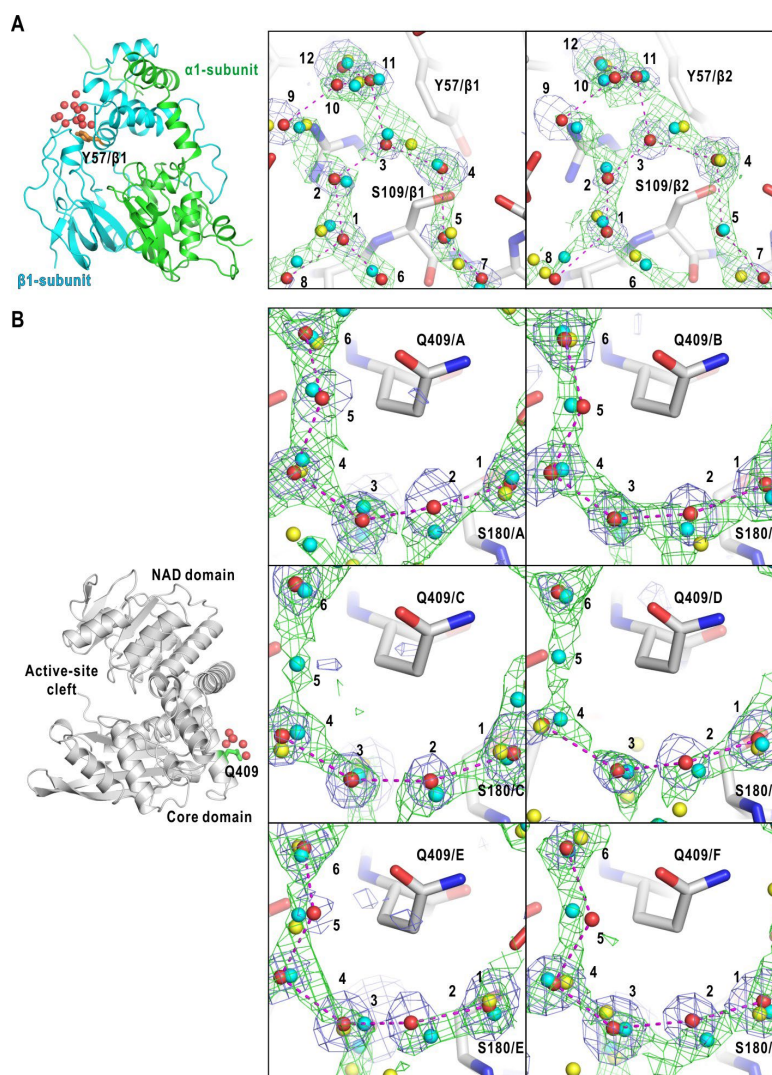


Figure 5 Predicted hydration probabilities and sites in the first-layer class of NHase (A) and GDH (B). The omit maps of NHase and GDH are contoured at 3 standard deviation level from the average (corresponding to 3σ used in protein crystallography). Panels were prepared using PyMOL [47].

The crystal water sites of the first-layer class covering the six subunits of GDH are also advantageous to examine both the reproducibility of hydration structures predicted by CNNs. Figure 5B depicts the first-layer hydration structures surrounding the Gln409 side chain in each subunit. The predicted probability was circularly and continuously distributed over the six crystal water sites. Although crystal water site 5 were missed in subunits C and D of the crystal structure, the new CNN predicted hydration probability distributions for crystal water sites 1-6 for each subunit. In addition, the previous CNN failed the prediction for several crystal water site, such as sites 2, 3, and 5 in subunit A, and sites 3-5 in subunit B. Therefore, from the prediction on the hydration structures surrounding Gln409, the new CNN displayed better performance regarding the predictability and reproducibility than the previous CNN.

In contrast to the localized probability distributions in small cavities (Fig. 4), the delocalization of the probability distribution was one of characteristics in the prediction for the first-layer class. This tendency suggests the movability and exchangeability of hydration water molecules between the sites covered by the continuous probability distribution.

Predicted hydration sites in water channel

Proteins has channel-like arrangements of hydration water molecules connected to bulk solvent as found first in lysozyme [29]. Aquaporin [48,49], as a representative example, has a water permeable channel composed of seven hydration sites. As the water channel is biologically important, it is worth examining the prediction accuracy of the new CNN for the water channel (Fig. 6).

The new CNN predicted hydration probability was continuously distributed over the channel with peak values near the crystal water sites. The continuous probability may correlate with the water permeability of the channel as discussed later. The predicted hydration sites except site 3 were located within 0.3 Å from the crystal water sites. The probability distribution covered site 3, but the site-searching algorithm suggested two possible hydration sites surrounding site 3. In contrast to the new CNN, the previous CNN predicted hydration sites located slightly distant from the crystal water sites, and missed site 2. In this case, the new CNN was advantageous to predict the seven hydration sites than the previous CNN.

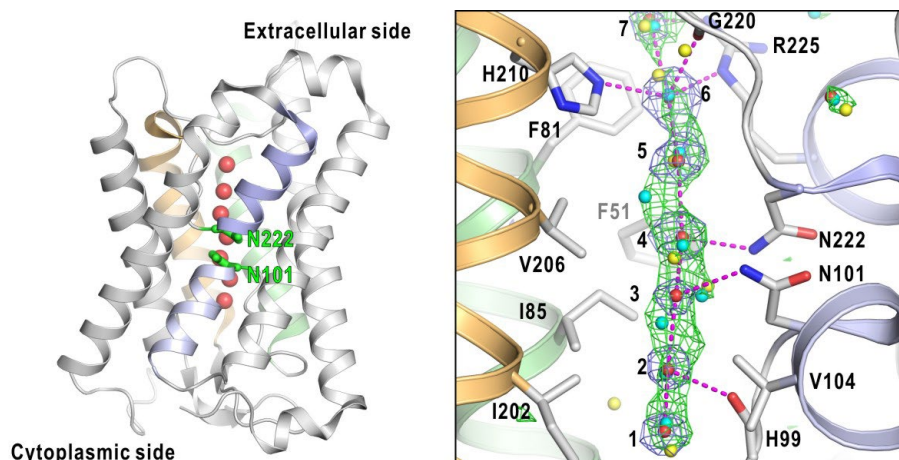


Figure 6 Predicted hydration probabilities and sites in the water channel of aquaporin [48] (PDB ID: [1Z98](#)). The omit map of the crystal water molecules were prepared using the structure factor of 1Z98, contoured at 3 standard deviation level from the average (corresponding to 3σ used in protein crystallography). Panels were prepared using PyMOL [68].

Predicted hydration sites on hydrophobic surface

Clusters of hydrophobic residues exposed to bulk solvent are frequently hydrated by parts of clathrate structures formed by hydration water molecules [8,16,50,51]. As reported previously, knowledge-based prediction around hydrophobic surfaces is quite difficult, because of the absence of any regular distribution of hydration water molecules around hydrophobic sidechains [52]. Therefore, it is a good examination whether hydration structures on hydrophobic surfaces are predicted by the new CNN, which was trained using hydration structures covering hydrophobic surfaces of proteins.

On an NHase surface, a pair of pentagonal arrangements of crystal water sites covered the surface of Pro175/ α 2-Ala176/ α 2 of α 2-subunit (Fig. 7A). The predicted probability distribution overlapped with the eight sites and additional sites necessary to anchor the pairs to polar protein atoms. For six of 10 crystal water sites (1, 4, 5, 7, 8, and 10), the new CNN predicted hydration sites were located at closer positions than those from the previous CNN. In addition, the previous CNN failed the prediction of sites 5, 6, and 10. On the surface of Pro175 α 1-Ala176 α 1 of α 1-subunit, although crystal water molecules at sites 2, 4 and 7 were missed in the electron density map, the CNN predicted the presence of the hydration sites.

Figure 7B shows the predicted probability and crystal water sites on hydrophobic surface formed by three phenylalanine residues on a surface of scytalone dehydratase (SDH) [53,54]. The phenylalanine residues are covered by three sets of pentameric arrangement of crystal water sites. The new CNN yielded more localized probability distributions than the previous CNN for the three sets of pentagonal arrangements, and the predicted sites were closer to crystal water sites 1-4, 9, and 10 than those from the previous CNN. The previous CNN failed the prediction for crystal water sites 2, and 5, and predicted site was distant from site 10 at the center of the three pentagons. Therefore, the CNN may be superior to the previous CNN with respect to the prediction of hydration structures of hydrophobic surfaces.

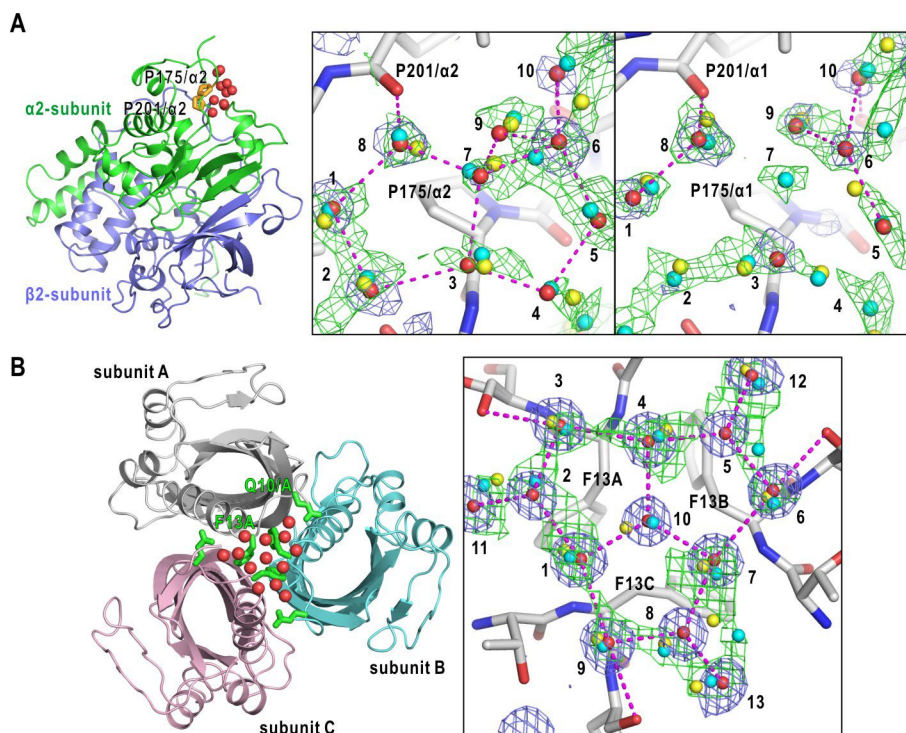


Figure 7 Predicted hydration probabilities and sites on hydrophobic surfaces of NHase and trimeric Phe162Ala-mutated SDH [54] (PDB ID: [1idp](#)). The omit maps of NHase and the mutant SDH are contoured at 3 standard deviation level from the average (corresponding to 3σ used in protein crystallography). Panels were prepared using PyMOL [47].

Discussion

The new CNN was constructed using a new architecture and trained by the distribution of protein atoms incorporating the electronic properties of protein atoms (Figs. 1 and 2). In addition, for searching hydration sites from the predicted probability distribution, the new algorithm was developed by taking the exclusion volume of atoms and water molecules into consideration. As a result, the new CNN yielded hydration probabilities covering the crystal water sites and predicted hydration sites located closer to crystal water sites than the previously developed CNN (Figs. 3C, 3D, and 4-7). Here, we discuss the characteristics of the predicted hydration probability distribution and the future application and prospect of the CNN for predicting hydration structures of biological macromolecules.

Localization and delocalization of probability distribution

The CNN learned the localized distributions of hydration water molecules in small cavities and the positional variations of hydration water molecules around polar atoms exposed to solvent. Subsequently, the CNN predicted two types of hydration probability distributions. In many small cavities, probability distributions were localized at the stable crystal water sites to give hydration sites within 0.3 Å from the crystal water sites in the inside class (Fig. 4). As most of the hydration water molecules in the inside class acts as building blocks for stabilizing protein structures, the small uncertainty is very important to understand the roles of the hydration in protein structures.

On the other hand, in large cavities and on most of protein surfaces, hydration probabilities were delocalized and continuously distributed over the crystal water sites (Figs. 4-7). The delocalized probability distribution may sometimes correlate with the functions of proteins. In the case of aquaporin (Fig. 6), hydration water molecules actually travel through the channel formed by a hydrophilic wall of Ile202, Val206, and Phe81 and a hydrophilic wall Asn101, Asn222, and

Arg225. Although the crystal structure visualized the localized hydration sites, the predicted probability distribution was delocalized for the narrow channel. The probability distribution may imply the movability of hydration water molecules between each pair of sites. Based on the crystal structure only, the permeability of the water channel is difficult to be interpreted. Therefore, the CNN-predicted hydration probability distribution may be helpful to judge whether a train of hydration water molecules in a channel is movable. In addition, the probability distribution may indicate site-dependent variation of the permeability of water molecules. The probability between sites 6 and 7 was lower than the in between regions of the other pairs of hydration sites. This low probability suggests that the permeability between sites 6 and 7 may be reduced probably due to the four hydrogen bonds with four polar atoms forming the channel.

These examples on localized and delocalized distributions of predicted hydration probability demonstrate the usefulness of the CNN for investigating the positional fluctuations of hydration water molecules in the cavities and on the surfaces of proteins.

The use of the CNN in theoretical studies

In theoretical studies subjected to the prediction of hydration structures, NNs were trained using the theoretically predicted hydration structures and/or hydration structures obtained from MD simulations [55]. However, as demonstrated in our previous study [26], appropriate force field parameters are necessary to reproduce experimentally observed hydration structures. In addition, the hydration structures predicted by the three-dimensional reference site model is inconsistent with the distribution of crystal water sites [8]. Therefore, we avoided the use of the hydration structures, which were virtually predicted by statistical mechanical calculation for liquid and molecular dynamics simulation.

In this study, the CNN demonstrated the feasibility to predict hydration probability and hydration sites consistent with the crystal water sites. Therefore, supported by the consistency, we suggest here how the CNN-predicted hydration probability and sites can be used in theoretical studies including MD simulations.

In the recent trend of structural biology, the experimentally visualized structures of proteins are subjected to MD simulations to investigate the dynamical motions and roles of key amino acid residues. When the resolution in the structure analysis is insufficient to identify hydration water molecules, it is necessary to generate hydration structures in cavities and on the surfaces. In particular, hydration of cavities inside protein is indispensable to avoid the collapse of protein structures during MD simulation. Then, the CNN may adequately and easily provide probable hydration structures for validating hydration structures generated by MD calculations.

In this regard, we have to examine whether the hydration structures provide by MD simulations are correctly reproduce real hydration structures. As reported previously, we demonstrated that the force field used in MD simulations are necessary to be improved with respect to the hydration patterns [26]. Then, we referred to the hydration distribution predicted by aggregating the knowledge-based hydration distributions around polar protein atoms [17,29]. However, the assessment was limited to hydrophilic surfaces in the previous study. Now, as the new CNN predicts not only hydrophilic surfaces but also the hydrophobic surfaces, the evaluation will be also applied to hydrophobic surfaces of proteins as demonstrated in Fig. 7.

In theoretical studies on protein structures, the design of small protein molecules is now possible using powerful artificial intelligence [56,57], such as AlphaFold2 [58]. However, the hydration structures of the designed proteins are unknown. Then, as the CNN predicts the hydration structures, it may be possible to analyze why the designed proteins are folded from the view point of hydration structures and hydration free energy.

In the field of drug design, docking studies of candidate molecules and proteins are routinely carried out [59,60]. However, hydration structures at the ligand binding-sites significantly contribute to ligand-binding geometry and the entropy/enthalpy compensation [4,61,62]. Since the CNN can predict the hydration structures of proteins and probably drug molecules composed of carbon, oxygen, nitrogen, and sulfur atoms, the quick prediction of hydration structures may help the survey of drug molecules including the influence of hydration.

Future prospect

The positional differences between the predicted and crystal water sites, such as observed in Figs. 2C, 2D, 3B-D, may be further improved. One of the possibilities for improvements is the incorporation of stereochemical information on hydrogen bonds of polar protein atoms as obtained in the previous study [17]. Then, the application of stereochemical information may be depended on how many residues involved in the formation of hydration sites.

To expand the applications of the CNN, the orientation of hydration water molecules is a challenging problem to task. To estimate the orientation, the positions of hydrogen atoms are indispensable. High-resolution X-ray crystal [63] and cryoEM [64] structure analyses, and neutron crystallography [65–68] have been providing the hydration structures including the positions of hydrogen atoms. However, at the present time, the accumulated structures are insufficient to train the new CNN, which may predict the probability distributions and positions of hydrogen atoms by introducing an atomic channel for hydrogen atoms.

As the used of the CNN is limited to soluble proteins only, we must extend the application of the CNN to membrane

proteins. The CNN, which was trained by hydration structure on hydrophobic surfaces (Fig. 7), unfortunately provides the hydration distributions over the transmembrane regions of membrane proteins. To avoid this incompleteness, we developed the present method by combining the new CNN with the previously developed knowledge-based hydration prediction algorithm for hydrophilic surfaces of proteins [8,17,26]. The results and the effectiveness of the algorithm dedicated to membrane proteins will be reported. In addition, we are planning to open the CNN-based method for users all over the world through the server in the Protein Institute of Osaka University in near future.

Conclusion

In the previous study, we constructed a three-dimensional convolutional neural network to predict the probability distribution of hydration water molecules over protein surfaces and in protein cavities. Although the accuracy of the prediction was the best among the neural network-based hydration prediction, the positional accuracy remained inadequate in reproducing the hydration sites in the crystal structure models. In this study, we largely modified the architecture of the convolutional network and the algorithm for proposing hydration sites. In addition, the training data were subdivided into atomic classes based on their electrostatic properties. The constructed CNN provided hydration probability distribution more localized than the previous CNN. The positions of predicted hydration sites by the new CNN were closer to the crystal water sites than those by the previous CNN. The superiority of the new CNN against the previous was confirmed by inspecting the hydration structures in the cavities and on the surfaces of proteins. Based on the prediction, we discussed the information on the dynamics of hydration and the use of the new CNN in theoretical studies including molecular dynamics simulations.

Conflict of Interest

The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

Author Contributions

M.N. planned the study based on the previous works on hydration structure of proteins. K.S developed the neural network. M.N. wrote the manuscript and both authors have read and agreed to the published version of the manuscript.

Data Availability

The evidence data generated and/or analyzed during the current study are available from the corresponding author on reasonable request.

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