

A NESTED MIXTURE MODEL FOR PROTEIN IDENTIFICATION USING MASS SPECTROMETRY

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Mass spectrometry provides a high-throughput way to identify proteins in biological samples. In a typical experiment, proteins in a sample are first broken into their constituent peptides. The resulting mixture of peptides is then subjected to mass spectrometry, which generates thousands of spectra, each characteristic of its generating peptide. Here we consider the problem of inferring, from these spectra, which proteins and peptides are present in the sample. We develop a statistical approach to the problem, based on a nested mixture model. In contrast to commonly used two-stage approaches, this model provides a one-stage solution that simultaneously identifies which proteins are present, and which peptides are correctly identified. In this way our model incorporates the evidence feedback between proteins and their constituent peptides. Using simulated data and a yeast data set, we compare and contrast our method with existing widely used approaches (Peptide-Prophet/ProteinProphet) and with a recently published new approach, HSM. For peptide identification, our single-stage approach yields consistently more accurate results. For protein identification the methods have similar accuracy in most settings, although we exhibit some scenarios in which the existing methods perform poorly.

1. Introduction. Protein identification using tandem mass spectrometry (MS/MS) is the most widely used tool for identifying proteins in complex biological samples [Steen and Mann (2004)]. In a typical MS/MS experiment [Figure 1(a)], proteins in a sample are first broken into short sequences, called peptides, and the resulting mixture of peptides is subjected to mass spectrometry to generate tandem mass spectra, which contains sequence information that is characteristic of its generating peptide [Coon et al. (2005); Kinter and Sherman (2003)]. The peptide that is most likely to generate each spectrum then is identified using some computational methods, for example, by matching to a list of theoretical spectra of peptide candidates. From these putative peptide identifications, the proteins that are present in the mixture are then identified. The protein identification problem is challenging, primarily because the matching of spectra to peptides is highly error-prone: 80–90% of identified peptides may be incorrect identifications if no filtering is applied [Keller, Nesvizhskii and Aebersold (2002, 2004)]. In particular, to minimize errors in protein identifications, it is critical to assess, and take proper account of, the strength of the evidence for each putative peptide identification.

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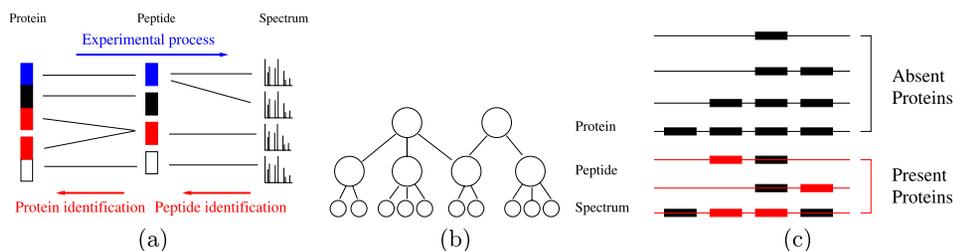


FIG. 1. (a) *Protein identification using mass spectrometry. Proteins (left) are broken into constituent peptides (center), which are then subjected to mass spectrometry to produce spectra (right). The inference problem considered here is to infer which peptides, belonging to which proteins, generated the observed spectra.* (b) *Graphical representation of the nested relationship between spectra, peptides and proteins.* (c) *Examples of putative protein identifications reconstructed from putative peptide identifications. Proteins that are truly absent from the sample will contain all incorrectly identified peptides (black). Proteins that are present in the sample will typically contain a mixture of correctly (red) and incorrectly (black) identified peptides.*

Here we develop a statistical approach to this problem, based on a nested mixture model. Our method differs from most previous approaches to the problem in that it is based on a *single* statistical model that incorporates latent variables indicating which proteins are present, and which peptides are correctly identified. Thus, instead of taking the more common sequential approach to the problem (spectra \rightarrow peptides \rightarrow proteins), our model *simultaneously* estimates which proteins are present, and which peptides are correctly identified, allowing for appropriate evidence feedback between proteins and their constituent peptides. This not only provides the potential for more accurate identifications (particularly at the peptide level), but, as we illustrate here, it also allows for better calibrated estimates of uncertainty in which identifications are correct. As far as we are aware, the only other published method that takes a single-stage approach to the problem is that of Shen et al. (2008). Although Shen et al.'s model shares the goal of our approach of allowing evidence feedback from proteins to peptides, the structure of their model is quite different from ours (see Discussion for more details), and, as we see in our comparisons, the empirical performance of the methods can also differ substantially.

In general statistical terms this problem involves a nested structure of a form that is encountered in other statistical inference problems (e.g., multilevel latent class models [Vermunt (2003)] and hierarchical topic models [Blei et al. (2004)]). These problems usually share two common features: (1) there exists a physical or latent hierarchical relationship between lower-level and upper-level elements; and (2) only the lowest-level elements in the hierarchy are typically observed. Here the nested structure is due to the subsequent relationship between lower-level elements (peptides) and upper-level elements (proteins) [Figure 1(b)]. The goals of inference will, of course, vary depending on the application. In this case the primary goal

is to infer the states (i.e., presence or absence in the mixture) of the upper-level elements, though the states of the lower-level elements are also of interest.

The structure of the paper is as follows. Section 2 describes the problem in more detail, reviews existing approaches, and describes our modeling approach. Section 3 shows empirical comparisons of our method with different approaches on both real and simulated data. In Section 5 we conclude and discuss potential future enhancements.

2. Methods and models. The first step in analysis of MS/MS data is typically to identify, for each spectrum produced, the peptide that is most likely to have generated the observed spectrum, and to assign each such identification a score that reflects the strength of the evidence for the identification being correct. Often this process is performed by searching a database of potential peptides, and computing some measure of the similarity between the observed spectrum and a theoretical “expected” spectrum for each peptide in the database [Sadygov, Co-ciorva and Yates (2004)]. For each spectrum the highest-scoring peptide is then reported, together with its score. Here we assume that this process has already been performed, and tackle the protein identification problem: using the list of putative peptides, and scores, to infer a list of proteins that are likely to be present in the mixture. Other important goals include accurately assessing confidence for each protein identification, and inferring which of the initial putative peptide identifications are actually correct.

2.1. Existing approaches. Almost all current approaches to protein identification follow a two-stage strategy:

1. The peptide identification scores are processed, together with other relevant information (e.g., sequence characteristics) on the identified peptide, to compute a statistical measure of the strength of evidence for each peptide identification. Although several methods exist [e.g., Sadygov and Yates (2003); Kall et al. (2007)], by far the most widely used approach appears to be PeptideProphet [Keller et al. (2002)], which uses a mixture model to cluster the identified peptides into correct and incorrect identifications, and to assign a probability to each peptide identification being correct.
2. The statistical measures of support for each peptide identification are taken as input to a protein inference procedure. These procedures infer the presence or absence of each protein, either by simple ad hoc thresholding rules, for example, identifying proteins as present if they contain two or more peptides with strong support, or by more sophisticated means (ProteinProphet [Nesvizhskii et al. (2003)], Prot_Probe [Sadygov, Liu and Yates (2004)] and EBP [Price et al. (2007)]). The basic idea of ProteinProphet [Nesvizhskii et al. (2003)], which is the most widely used of these methods, will be described below.

This two-stage approach, although widely used, is sub-optimal. In particular, it does not allow for evidence to feed back, from the presence/absence status of a protein to the status of its constituent peptides, as it should due to the nested relationship between a protein and its peptides. Shen et al. (2008) also note this problem with the two-stage approach, and propose an alternative one-stage approach using a latent-variable-based model. Their model differs from ours in several aspects (see discussion), and performs less well than our approach in the limited empirical comparisons we consider here (see results).

2.2. A nested mixture model. The data consist of a large number of putative peptide identifications, each corresponding to a single MS/MS spectrum, and each having a score that relates to the strength of the evidence for the identification being correct (higher scores corresponding to stronger evidence). From this list of putative peptides, it is straightforward to (deterministically) create a list of putative protein identifications. Specifically, for each putative peptide identification it is straightforward to determine, from a protein database, which proteins contain that peptide. The information available can thus be arranged in a hierarchical structure: a list of N putative protein identifications, with the information on protein k being a list of n_k putative peptide identifications, with a corresponding vector of scores $\mathbf{x}_k = (x_{k,1}, \dots, x_{k,n_k})$. Here $x_{k,j}$ is a scalar score that reflects how well the spectrum associated with peptide j in protein k matches a theoretical expectation under the assumption that it was indeed generated by that peptide. (Typically there are also other pieces of information that are relevant in assessing the evidence for peptide j having generated the spectrum, but we defer consideration of these to Section 2.5 below.) In general, correct peptide identifications have higher scores than incorrect ones, and proteins that are present tend to have more high-scoring peptide identifications than the ones that are not present. Our goal is to use this information to determine which assembled proteins are present in the sample and which peptides are correctly identified.

Note that, in the above formulation, if a peptide is contained in multiple proteins, then the data for that peptide is included multiple times. This is clearly sub-optimal, particularly as we will treat the data on different proteins as independent. The practical effect is that if one peptide has a very high score, and belongs to multiple proteins, then *all* these proteins will likely be identified as being present, even though only one of them may actually be present. This complication, where one peptide maps to multiple proteins, is referred to as “degeneracy” [Keller et al. (2002)]. We refer to our current treatment of degeneracy as the “nondegeneracy assumption” for the rest of the text. We view extension of our method to deal more thoroughly with degeneracy as an important area for future work.

We use indicators T_k to represent whether a protein k is present ($T_k = 1$) or absent ($T_k = 0$) in the sample, and indicators $P_{k,i}$ to represent whether a peptide i on the protein k is correctly identified ($P_{k,i} = 1$) or incorrectly identified ($P_{k,i} = 0$).

We let π_0^* and $\pi_1^* = 1 - \pi_0^*$ denote the proportions of absent and present proteins respectively:

$$(2.1) \quad \Pr(T_k = j) = \pi_j^* \quad (k = 1, \dots, N; j = 0, 1).$$

If a protein is absent, we assume that all its constituent peptides must be incorrectly identified; in contrast, if a protein is present, then we allow that some of its constituent peptides may be correctly identified, and others incorrectly [Figure 1(c)]. Specifically, we assume that given the protein indicators the peptide indicators are independent and identically distributed, with

$$(2.2) \quad \Pr(P_{k,i} = 0 | T_k = 0) = 1,$$

$$(2.3) \quad \Pr(P_{k,i} = 0 | T_k = 1) = \pi_1,$$

where π_1 denotes the proportion of incorrect peptides on proteins that are present.

Given the peptide and protein indicators, we assume that the number of peptides mapping to a present (resp., absent) protein has distribution h_1 (resp., h_0), and that the scores for correctly (resp., incorrectly) identified peptides are independent draws from a distribution f_1 (resp., f_0). Since present proteins will typically have more peptides mapping to them, h_1 should be stochastically larger than h_0 . Similarly, since correctly-identified peptides will typically have higher scores, f_1 should be stochastically larger than f_0 . The details on the choice of functional form for these distributions are discussed in Section 2.3 for f_j and in Section 2.4 for h_j .

Let Ψ denote all the parameters in the above model, which include $(\pi_0^*, \pi_1^*, \pi_1)$ as well as any parameters in the distributions h_0, h_1, f_0 and f_1 . We will use X, \mathbf{n} to denote the observed data, where $X = (\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_N)$, and $\mathbf{n} = (n_1, \dots, n_N)$. The above assumptions lead to the following nested mixture model:

$$(2.4) \quad L(\Psi) = p(X, \mathbf{n}; \Psi) = \prod_{k=1}^N [\pi_0^* g_0(\mathbf{x}_k) h_0(n_k) + \pi_1^* g_1(\mathbf{x}_k) h_1(n_k)],$$

where

$$(2.5) \quad g_0(\mathbf{x}_k) \equiv p(\mathbf{x}_k | n_k, T_k = 0) = \prod_{i=1}^{n_k} f_0(x_{k,i}),$$

$$(2.6) \quad g_1(\mathbf{x}_k) \equiv p(\mathbf{x}_k | n_k, T_k = 1) = \prod_{i=1}^{n_k} [\pi_1 f_0(x_{k,i}) + (1 - \pi_1) f_1(x_{k,i})].$$

Given the parameters Ψ , the probability that protein k is present in the sample can be computed as

$$(2.7) \quad \Pr(T_k = j | \mathbf{x}_k, n_k; \Psi) = \frac{\pi_j^* g_j(\mathbf{x}_k) h_j(n_k)}{\sum_{j=0,1} \pi_j^* g_j(\mathbf{x}_k) h_j(n_k)}.$$

Similarly, the classification probabilities for peptides on the proteins that are present are

$$(2.8) \quad \Pr(P_{k,i} = 1 | x_{k,i}, T_k = 1; \Psi) = \frac{\pi_1 f_1(x_{k,i})}{\pi_1 f_0(x_{k,i}) + (1 - \pi_1) f_1(x_{k,i})}.$$

As an absent protein only contains incorrect peptide identifications, that is, $\Pr(P_{k,i} = 1 | \mathbf{x}_k, T_k = 0) = 0$, the marginal peptide probability is

$$(2.9) \quad \Pr(P_{k,i} = 1 | \mathbf{x}_k) = \Pr(P_{k,i} = 1 | \mathbf{x}_k, T_k = 1) \Pr(T_k = 1 | \mathbf{x}_k).$$

This expression emphasizes how each peptide's classification probability is affected by the classification probability of its parent protein. We estimate values for these classification probabilities by estimating the parameters Ψ by maximizing the likelihood, (2.4), and substituting these estimates into the above formulas.

The idea of modeling the scores of putative peptide identifications using a mixture model is also the basis of PeptideProphet [Keller et al. (2002)]. Our approach here extends this to a nested mixture model, modeling the overall sample as a mixture of present and absent proteins. By simultaneously modeling the peptide and protein classifications, we obtain natural formulas, (2.7) and (2.9), for the probability that each protein is present, and each peptide correctly identified.

It is helpful to contrast this approach with the PeptideProphet/ProteinProphet two-stage strategy, which we now describe in more detail. First PeptideProphet models the overall sample as a mixture of present and absent peptides, ignoring the information on which peptides map to which proteins. This leads naturally to a formula for the probability for each peptide being correctly identified, $\Pr(P_{k,i} = 1 | X)$, and these probabilities are output by PeptideProphet. To translate these probabilities into a measure of the strength of evidence that each *protein* is present, ProteinProphet essentially uses the formula

$$(2.10) \quad \Pr_{\text{prod}}(T_k = 1 | X) = 1 - \prod_i \Pr(P_{k,i} = 0 | X),$$

which we refer to as the “product rule” in the remainder of this text. This formula is motivated by the idea that a protein should be called as present only if not all peptides mapping to it are incorrectly identified, and by treating the incorrect identification of each peptide as independent (leading to the product).

There are two problems with this approach. The first is that the probabilities output by PeptideProphet ignore relevant information on the nested structure relating peptides and proteins. Indeed, Nesvizhskii et al. (2003) recognize this problem, and ProteinProphet actually makes an ad hoc adjustment to the probabilities output by PeptideProphet, using the expected number of other correctly-identified peptides on the same protein, before applying the product rule. We will refer to this procedure as the “adjusted product rule.” The second, more fundamental, problem is that the independence assumption underlying the product rule does not hold in practice. Indeed, there is a strong correlation among the correct/incorrect statuses

of peptides on the same protein. For example, if a protein is absent, then (ignoring degeneracy) all its constituent peptides must be incorrectly identified. In contrast, our approach makes a very different independence assumption, which we view as more reasonable. Specifically, it assumes that, *conditional on the correct/incorrect status of different peptides*, the scores for different peptides are independent.

Empirically, it seems that, despite these issues, ProteinProphet is typically quite effective at identifying which proteins are most likely to be present. However, as we show later, probabilities output by the product rule are not well calibrated, and there are settings in which it can perform poorly.

2.3. *Choice of scores and distributions* f_0 , f_1 . Recall that f_0 and f_1 denote the distribution of scores for peptides that are incorrectly and correctly identified. Appropriate choice of these distributions may depend on the method used to compute scores [Choi and Nesvizhskii (2008)]. To facilitate comparisons with PeptideProphet, we used the discriminant summary used by PeptideProphet, f_{val} , as our score. Of course, it is possible that other choices may give better performance.

Similar to ProteinProphet, when a single peptide is matched to multiple spectra, each match producing a different score, we summarized these data using the highest score. (ProteinProphet keeps the one with the highest PeptideProphet probability, which is usually, but not always, the one with the highest score.) An alternative would be to model all scores, and treat them as independent, as in [Shen et al. (2008)]. However, in preliminary empirical assessments we found using the maximum produces better results, presumably because the independence assumption is poor (scores of spectra matching to the same peptide are usually highly correlated [Keller et al. (2002)]).

We chose to use a normal distribution, and shifted gamma distribution, for f_0 and f_1 :

$$f_0(x) = N(x; \mu, \sigma^2),$$

$$f_1(x) = \text{Gamma}(x; \alpha, \beta, \gamma),$$

where μ and σ^2 are the mean and variance of the normal distribution, and α , β and γ are the shape parameter, the scale parameter and the shift of the Gamma distribution. These choices were made based on the shapes of the empirical observations [Figure 3(a)], the density ratio at the tails of the distributions, and the goodness of fit between the distributions and the data, for example, BIC [Schwarz (1978)]. See Li (2008) for further details. In particular, to assign peptide labels properly in the mixture model, we require $f_0/f_1 > 1$ for the left tail of f_0 , and $f_1/f_0 > 1$ for the right tail of f_1 .

Note that these distribution choices differ from PeptideProphet, which models f_0 as shifted Gamma and f_1 as Normal. The distributions chosen by PeptideProphet do not satisfy the requirement of f_0/f_1 above and can pathologically assign observations with low scores into the component with higher mean. The

selected distributions fit our data well and also the data in Shen et al., who chose the same distributions as ours after fitting a two-component mixture model to the PeptideProphet discriminant summary of their data. However, alternative distributions may be needed based on the empirical data, which may depend on the choice of method for assigning scores.

In this setting it is common to allow peptides with different charge states to have different distributions of scores. This would be straightforward, for example, by estimating the parameters of f_0 and f_1 separately for different charge states. However, in all the results reported here we do not distinguish charge states, because in empirical comparisons we found that, once the ancillary information in Section 2.5 was included, distinguishing charge states made little difference to either the discriminating power or the probability calibration. A similar result is reported in Kall et al. (2007).

2.4. Choice of h : incorporating protein length. Recall that h_0 and h_1 denote the distributions for n_k , the number of putative identified peptides on protein k , according to whether protein k is absent or present. It is known that long proteins tend to have more identified peptides than short proteins (Figure 2), because of their potential to generate more peptides in the experimental procedure, and the higher chance to be randomly matched by incorrect peptide identifications. We therefore allow the distribution of n_k to depend on the protein length l_k . Length correction, though of a different sort, has been reported useful for reducing false identifications of long absent proteins that are mapped by many incorrect identifications [Price et al. (2007)].

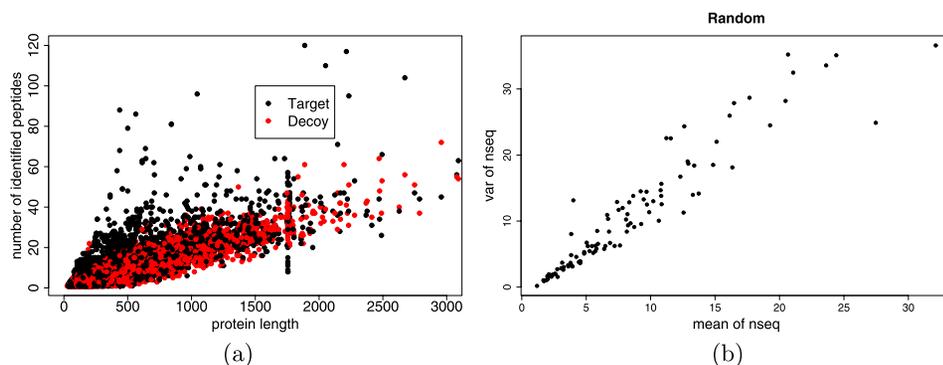


FIG. 2. Number of unique peptide hits and protein length in a yeast data set. (a) The relationship between number of peptide hits (Y-axis) and protein length (X-axis). Red dots are decoy proteins, which approximate absent proteins; black dots are target proteins, which contain both present proteins and absent proteins. (b) Verification of the Poisson model for absent proteins, approximated by decoy proteins, by mean–variance relationship. Proteins are binned by length with each bin containing 1% of data. Mean and variance of the number of sequences are calculated for the observations in each bin.

It might be expected that the rate of incorrect peptide identification in a fixed protein length is roughly uniform across all the proteins in the database. Thus, we choose h_0 to be Poisson with mean $c_0 l_k$, where c_0 represents the average number of incorrect peptide identifications in a unit protein length and is constant for all the absent proteins. The mean–variance relationship of n_k for absent proteins in a real data set [Figure 2(b)] confirms that the Poisson model is a reasonable fit.

For present proteins, we choose h_1 to be Poisson with mean $c_1 l_k$, where c_1 is a constant that is bigger than c_0 to take account of the correct peptide identifications additional to the incorrect ones. Similar Poisson assumptions, though with different parameterization, were also made elsewhere [Price et al. (2007)].

Because constructed proteins are assembled from one or more identified peptides (i.e., $n_k > 0$), we truncate both Poisson distributions at 0, that is,

$$(2.11) \quad h_j(n_k | l_k) = \frac{\exp(-c_j l_k)(c_j l_k)^{n_k}}{n_k!(1 - \exp(-c_j l_k))} \quad (n_k = 1, 2, \dots; j = 0, 1).$$

2.5. Incorporating ancillary information. In addition to the scores on each peptide identification based on the spectra, other aspects of identified peptide sequences, such as the number of tryptic termini (NTT) and the number of missing cleavage (NMC), are informative for the correctness of peptide identifications [Kall et al. (2007); Keller et al. (2002); Choi and Nesvizhskii (2008)]. Because $NTT \in \{0, 1, 2\}$ [Figure 3(b)], we model it using a multinomial distribution. We discretize NMC, which usually ranges from 0 to 10, into states (0, 1 and 2+) [Figure 3(c)], and also model it as a multinomial distribution. These treatments are similar to PeptideProphet.

Peptide identification scores and features on peptide sequences have been shown to be conditionally independent given the status of peptide identification [Keller et al. (2002); Choi and Nesvizhskii (2008)]. Thus, we may incorporate the ancillary information by replacing $f_j(X_{k,i})$ in (2.5) and (2.6) with $f_j(X_{k,i}) f_j^{NTT}(NTT_{k,i}) f_j^{NMC}(NMC_{k,i})$ ($j = 0, 1$). Further pieces of relevant information could be incorporated in a similar way.

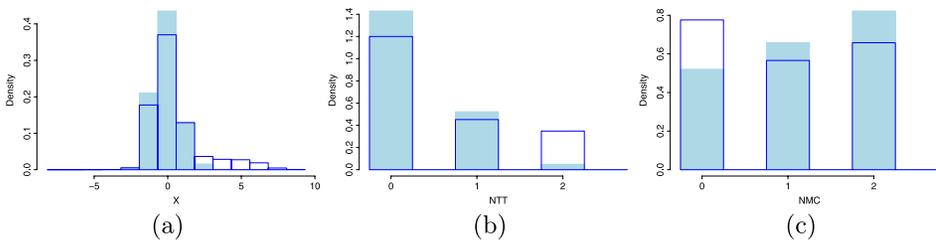


FIG. 3. The empirical distribution of features from peptide identification in a yeast data set. Border histogram: real peptides, which are a mixture of correct and incorrect identifications. Solid histogram: decoy peptides, whose distribution approximates the distribution of the incorrect identifications. (a) Summary score X . (b) Number of tryptic termini. (c) Number of missing cleavages.

2.6. *Parameter estimation and initialization.* We use an expectation-maximization (EM) algorithm [Dempster, Laird and Rubin (1977)] to estimate the parameters in our model and infer the statuses of peptides and proteins, with the statuses of proteins (T_k) and peptides ($P_{k,i}$) as latent variables. The augmented data for protein k take the form of $Y_k \equiv (\mathbf{X}_k, n_k, T_k, P_{k,1}, \dots, P_{k,n_k})$. The details of the EM algorithm can be found in the [Appendix](#).

To select a reasonable starting point for the EM algorithm, in the real data set, we initialize the parameters related to incorrect peptide identification (f_0 , f_0^{NTT} , f_0^{NMC} and c_0) using estimates obtained from the decoy database (see Section 3.3 for details). For f_1 , we initialize the shift $\gamma^{(0)} = \min_{k,i}(x_{k,i}) - \varepsilon$, where ε is a small positive number to ensure $x_{k,i} - \gamma^{(0)} > 0$ for all identified peptides (in both real and decoy databases), and estimate α and β using the sample mean and sample variance of the scores. We initialize f_1^{NTT} and f_1^{NMC} using the peptides that are identified in the real database and are scored in the upper 90% of the identifications to the real database. As $c_1 > c_0$, we choose $c_1 = bc_0$, where b is a random number in $[1.5, 3]$. The starting values of π_0^* and π_1 are chosen randomly from $(0, 1)$. For each inference, we run the EM algorithm from 10 random starting points and report the results from the run converging to the highest likelihood.

3. Results.

3.1. *Simulation studies.* We first use simulation studies to examine the performance of our approach, and particularly to assess the potential for it to improve on the types of 2-stage approach used by PeptideProphet and ProteinProphet. Our simulations are generated based on our nested mixture model, and ignore many of the complications of real data (e.g., degeneracy). Thus, their primary goal is not to provide evidence that our approach is actually superior in practice. Rather, the aim is to provide insight into the kind of gains in performance that *might* be achievable in practice, to illustrate settings where the product rule used by ProteinProphet may perform particularly badly, and to check for robustness of our method to one of its underlying assumptions (specifically the assumption that the expected proportion of incorrect peptides is the same for all present proteins). In addition, they provide a helpful check on the correctness of our EM algorithm implementation.

At the peptide level, we compare results from our model with the peptide probabilities computed by PeptideProphet, and the PeptideProphet probabilities adjusted by ProteinProphet (see Section 2.2). At the protein level, we compare results from our model with three methods: the classical deterministic rule that calls a protein present if it has two or more high-scored peptides (which we call the “two-peptide rule”) and the two product rules (adjusted and unadjusted; see Section 2.2). Because the product rule is the basis of ProteinProphet, the comparison with the product rule focuses attention on the fundamental differences between our method and ProteinProphet, rather than on the complications of degeneracy handling and other heuristic adjustments that are made by the ProteinProphet software.

TABLE 1

Simulation parameters and parameter estimation in the simulation studies. The simulation parameters are estimated from a yeast data set. π_0 is the proportion of incorrect peptides on the absent proteins in the simulated data

		π_0^*	c_0	c_1	π_0	π_1	f_0	f_1
S1	True parameter	0.88	0.018	0.033	1	0.58	$G(86.46, 0.093, -8.18)$	$N(3.63, 2.07^2)$
	Estimated values	0.87	0.018	0.032	–	0.58	$G(86.24, 0.093, -8.18)$	$N(3.57, 2.05^2)$
S2	True parameter	0.5	0.018	0.033	0.998	0.58	$G(86.46, 0.093, -8.18)$	$N(3.63, 2.07^2)$
	Estimated values	0.55	0.018	0.034	–	0.56	$G(83.78, 0.096, -8.18)$	$N(3.71, 2.08^2)$
S3	True parameter	0.88	0.018	0.033	1	Unif(0, 0.8)	$G(86.46, 0.093, -8.18)$	$N(3.63, 2.07^2)$
	Estimated values	0.88	0.018	0.034	–	0.40	$G(85.74, 0.094, -8.18)$	$N(3.68, 2.05^2)$

As PeptideProphet uses Gamma for f_0 and Normal for f_1 , we follow this practice in the simulations (both for simulating the data and fitting the model). In an attempt to generate realistic simulations, we first estimated parameters from a yeast data set [Kall et al. (2007)] using the model in Section 2, except for this change of f_0 and f_1 , then simulated proteins from the estimated parameters (Table 1).

We performed three simulations, S1, S2 and S3, as follows:

- S1. This simulation was designed to demonstrate performance when the data are generated from the same nested mixture model we use for estimation. Data were simulated from the mixture model, using the parameters estimated from the real yeast data set considered below. The resulting data contained 12% present proteins and 88% absent proteins, where protein length $l_k \sim \exp(1/500)$.
- S2. Here simulation parameters were chosen to illustrate a scenario where the product rule performs particularly poorly. Data were simulated as in S1, except for (i) the proportion of present proteins was increased to 50% ($\pi_0^* = 0.5$); (ii) the distribution of protein length was modified so that all present proteins were short ($l_k \in [100, 200]$) and absent proteins were long ($l_k \in [1000, 2000]$); and (iii) we allowed that absent proteins may have occasional high-scoring incorrect peptide identifications (0.2% of peptide scores on absent proteins were drawn from f_1 instead of f_0).
- S3. A simulation to assess sensitivity of our method to deviations from the assumption that the proportion of incorrect peptides is the same for all present proteins. Data were simulated as for S1, except $\pi_1 \sim \text{Unif}(0, 0.8)$ independently for each present protein.

In each simulation, 2000 proteins were simulated. We forced all present proteins to have at least one correctly identified peptide. For simplicity, only one identification score was simulated for each peptide, and the ancillary features for all the peptides ($NMC = 0$ and $NTT = 2$) were set identical. We ran the EM procedure from several random initializations close to the simulation parameters. We deemed

convergence to be achieved when the log-likelihood increased <0.001 in an iteration. PeptideProphet (TPP version 3.2) and ProteinProphet (TPP version 3.2) were run using their default values.

Parameter estimation. In all the simulations, the parameters estimated from our models are close to the true parameters (Table 1). Even when absent proteins contain a small proportion of high-scored peptides (S2) or the assumption of a fixed π_1 is violated (S3), our method still produces reasonable parameter estimations.

Tradeoff between true calls and false calls. We compared the performances of different methods by the tradeoff between the number of correct and incorrect calls made at various probability thresholds. As a small number of false calls is desired in practice, the comparison focuses on the performance in this region.

At the peptide level, our model consistently identifies substantially more (>100 in all cases) true peptides than PeptideProphet at any controlled number of false peptides in the range of 0–200 [Figure 4 (S1) left and (S2) left], in all the simulations. This gain illustrates the potential for our one-stage model to provide effective feedback of information from the protein level to peptide level, to improve peptide identification accuracy.

At the protein level, our model consistently identifies more true proteins than the adjusted product rule at any controlled number of false proteins in the range of 0–50, in all simulations [Figure 4 (S1) right and (S2) right]. In S2 the product rules perform less well than the other two simulations. This poor performance is anticipated in this setting, due to its assumption that correctness of peptides on the same proteins is independent. In particular, when absent proteins with big n_k contain a single high-scored incorrect peptide, the product rule tends to call them present. When present proteins with small n_k contain one or two correct peptides with mediocre scores besides incorrect ones, the product rule tends to call them absent. The examination of individual cases confirms that most mistakes made by the product rule belong to either of the two cases above.

It is interesting that although the adjusted product rule improves peptide identification accuracy compared with the unadjusted rule, it also worsens the accuracy of protein identification (at least in S1 and S3). This illustrates a common pitfall of *ad hoc* approaches: fixing one problem may unintentionally introduce others.

Calibration of probabilities. Methods for identifying proteins and peptides should, ideally, produce approximately calibrated probabilities, so that the estimated posterior probabilities can be used as a way to assess the uncertainty of the identifications. In all the three simulations the peptide probabilities from our method are reasonably well calibrated, whereas the PeptideProphet probabilities are not, being substantially smaller than the actual probabilities [Figure 5(a)]. Our method seems to be better calibrated than the adjusted product

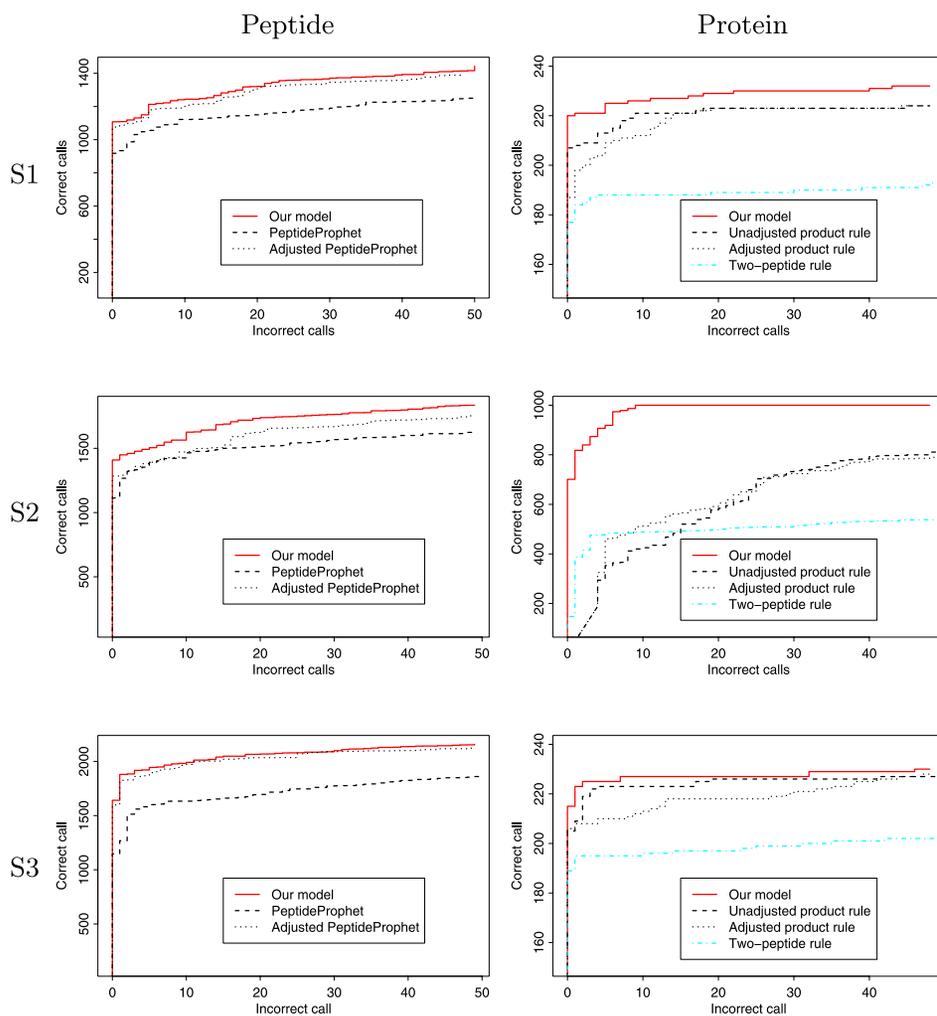


FIG. 4. *The number of correct and incorrect calls made at various thresholds in simulation studies. Incorrect calls: the number of incorrect peptides or absent proteins assigned posterior probabilities exceeding the thresholds; correct calls: the number of correct peptides or present proteins assigned posterior probabilities exceeding the thresholds.*

rule at the protein level [Figure 5(b)]. However, very few proteins are assigned probabilities $\in [0.2, 0.9]$, so larger samples would be needed to confirm this.

3.2. *A standard mixture.* Mixtures of standard proteins have been used for assessing the performance of identifications. Although these mixtures are known to be too simple to reflect the complexity of the realistic samples and may contain many unknown impurities [Elias, Faherty and Gygi (2005)], they can nonetheless

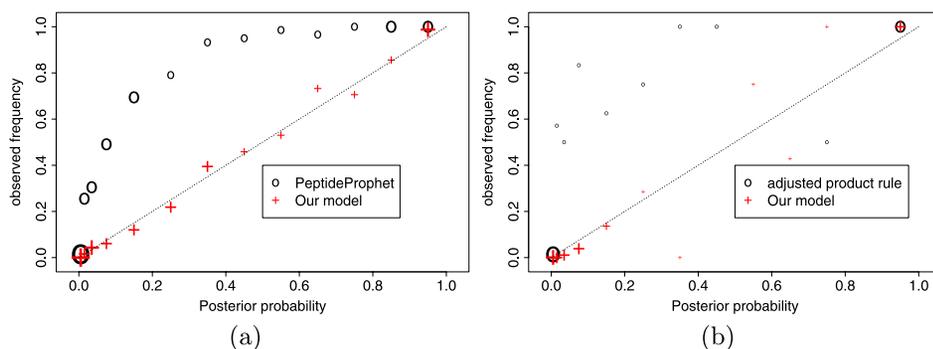


FIG. 5. Calibration of posterior probabilities in a simulation study S1. The observations are binned by the assigned probabilities. For each bin, the assigned probabilities (X-axis) are compared with the proportion of identifications that are actually correct (Y-axis). (a) peptide probabilities, (b) protein probabilities. Black: PeptideProphet [in (a)] or adjusted product rule [in (b)]; Red: our method. The size of the points represents the number of observations in each bin. Other simulations have similar results.

be helpful as a way to assess whether a method can effectively identify the known components.

We applied our method on a standard protein mixture [Purvine, Picone and Kolker (2004)] used in Shen et al. (2008). This data set consists of the MS/MS spectra generated from a sample composed of 23 stand-alone peptides and trypsin digest of 12 proteins. It contains three replicates with a total of 9057 spectra. The experimental procedures are described in Purvine, Picone and Kolker (2004). We used Sequest [Eng, McCormack and Yates (1994)] to search, with nontryptic peptides allowed, a database composed of the 35 peptides/proteins, typical sample contaminants and the proteins from *Shewanella oneidensis*, which are known to be not present in the sample and serve as negative controls. After matching spectra to peptides, we obtained 7935 unique putative peptide identifications. We applied our methods to these putative peptide identifications, and compared results, at both the protein and peptide levels, with results from the same standard mixture reported by Shen et al. for both their own method (“Hierarchical Statistical Method”; HSM) and for PeptideProphet/ProteinProphet. Note that in assessing each method’s performance we make the assumption, standard in this context, that a protein identification is correct if and only if it involves a known component of the standard mixture, and a peptide identification is correct if and only if it involves a peptide whose sequence is a subsequence of a constituent protein (or is one of the 23 stand-alone peptides).

At the protein level all of the methods we compare here identify all 12 proteins with probabilities close to 1 before identifying any false proteins. Our method provides a bigger separation between the constituent proteins and the false proteins, with the highest probability assigned to a false protein as 0.013 for our

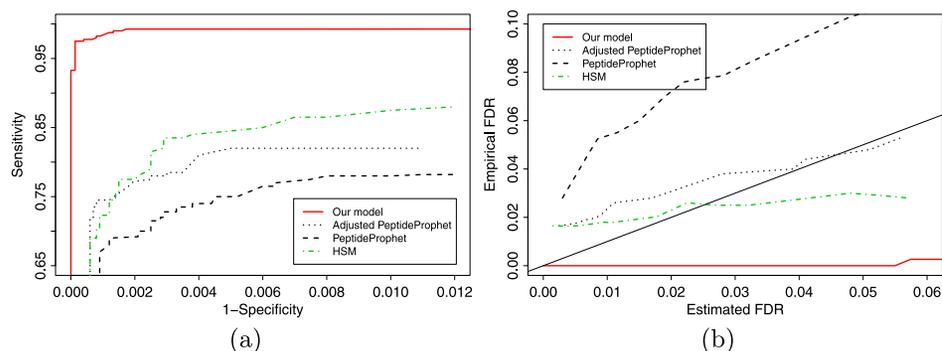


FIG. 6. *Peptide identification on a standard protein mixture.* (a) *ROC curves for peptide identification on a standard protein/peptide mixture.* (b) *Calibration of the FDR estimates for peptide identifications on a standard protein/peptide mixture. The straight line represents a perfect estimate.*

method and above 0.8 for ProteinProphet and HSM. At the peptide level, our model shows better discriminating power than all the other methods [Figure 6(a)]. Again, we ascribe this better performance at the peptide level to the ability of our model to effectively feedback information from the protein level to the peptide level.

To assess calibration of the different methods for peptide identification, we compare the empirical FDR and the estimated FDR [Figure 6(a)], where the estimated FDR is computed as the average posterior probabilities to be absent from the sample for the identifications [Efron et al. (2001); Newton et al. (2004)]. None of the methods is particularly well-calibrated for these data: our method is conservative in its estimated FDR, whereas the other methods tend to underestimate FDR at low FDRs. Our conservative estimate of FDR in this case partly reflects the simplicity of this artificial problem. Indeed, our method effectively separates out the real and not real peptides almost perfectly in this case: 99% of peptide identifications are assigned probability either >0.99 (all of which are real) or <0.01 (less than one percent of which are real). Thus, for both these groups our method is effectively calibrated. The conservative calibration apparent in Figure 6(b) reflects the fact that the remaining 1% of peptides that are assigned intermediate probabilities (between 0.01 and 0.99) are all real.

We emphasise that this standard mixture inevitably provides only a very limited comparison of the performance of different methods. Indeed, the fact that in this case all methods effectively correctly identify all the real proteins, with no false positives, suggests that this standard mixture, unsurprisingly, provides nothing like the complexity of most real data problems. On the other hand, it is reassuring to see our method perform well on this problem, and the results in Figure 6(a) do provide a nice illustration of the potential benefits of effective feedback of information from the protein to peptide level.

3.3. *Application on a yeast data set.* To provide comparisons on more realistic data, we also compared methods using a yeast data set [Kall et al. (2007)]. Because the true protein composition of this data set is unknown, the comparisons were done by use of a decoy database of artificial proteins, which is a commonly used device in this setting [Elias and Gygi (2007)]. Specifically, in the initial step of matching spectra to peptides, each spectrum was searched against a combined database, containing both target (i.e., real) proteins and decoy (i.e., nonexistent) proteins created by permuting the sequences in the target database. This search was done using Sequest [Eng, McCormack and Yates (1994)]. The methods are then applied to the results of this search, and they assign probabilities to both target and decoy proteins. Since the decoy proteins cannot be present in the sample, and assuming that their statistical behavior is similar to real proteins that are absent from the sample, a false discovery rate for any given probability threshold can be estimated by counting the number of decoy proteins assigned a probability exceeding the threshold.

The data set contains 140,366 spectra. After matching spectra to peptides (using Sequest [Eng, McCormack and Yates (1994)]), we obtained 116,264 unique putative peptide identifications. We used DTASelect [Tabb, McDonald and Yates (2002)] to map these peptides back to 12,602 distinct proteins (the proteins were found using DTASelect [Tabb, McDonald and Yates (2002)]).

We compared our algorithm with PeptideProphet for peptide inferences and actual ProteinProphet for protein inferences on this data set. The HSM method, whose computational cost and memory requirement are proportional to the factorial of the maximum protein group size, encountered computation difficulties on this data set and failed to run, because this data set contains several large protein groups. We initialized our algorithm using the approach described in Section 2.6, and stopped the EM algorithm when the change of log-likelihood is smaller than 0.001. PeptideProphet and ProteinProphet were run with their default settings.

In this case the comparison is complicated by the presence of peptides belonging to multiple proteins, that is, degeneracy, which occurs in about 10% of proteins in yeast. Unlike our approach, ProteinProphet has routines to handle degenerate peptides. In brief, it shares each such peptide among all its corresponding proteins, and estimates an ad hoc weight that each degenerate peptide contributes to each protein parent. In reporting results, it groups together proteins with many shared peptide identifications, such as homologs, and reports a probability for each group (as one minus the product of the probabilities assigned to each of the individual proteins being absent). In practice, this has the effect of upweighting the probabilities assigned to large groups containing many proteins.

To make our comparison, we first applied our model ignoring the degeneracy issue to compute a probability for each protein being present, and then used these to assign a probability to each group defined by ProteinProphet. We treated proteins that were not in a group as a group containing one protein. For our method, we assigned to each group the maximum probability assigned to any protein in the

group. This also has a tendency to upweight probabilities to large groups, but not by as much as the ProteinProphet calculation.

Note that the tendency of both methods to upweight probabilities assigned to large groups, although a reasonable thing to do, makes reliably estimating the FDR more difficult. This is because, unlike the real proteins, the decoy proteins do not fall into homologous groups (i.e., each is in a group by itself), and so the statistical behavior of the decoy groups will not exactly match those of the absent real protein groups. The net effect will be that, for both methods, the estimates of the FDR based on the decoy comparison will likely underestimate the true FDR. Further, we suspect that the amount of underestimation of the FDR will be stronger for ProteinProphet than for our method, because ProteinProphet more strongly upweights probabilities assigned to large groups. As a result, comparing the *estimated* FDRs from each method, as we do here, may give a slight unfair advantage to ProteinProphet. In any case, this rather subtle issue illustrates the severe challenges of reliably comparing different approaches to this problem.

We assessed the methods by comparing the number of target and decoy protein groups assigned probabilities exceeding various thresholds. We also compared the number of decoy and target peptides assigned probabilities exceeding various thresholds. The results are shown in Figure 7.

At a given number of decoy peptide identifications, our model identified substantially more target peptides than PeptideProphet [Figure 7(a)]. Among these, our method identified most of the target peptides identified by PeptideProphet, in addition to many more not identified by PeptideProphet. For example, at $FDR = 0$ (i.e., no decoy peptides identified), our method identified 5362 peptides out of 5394 peptides that PeptideProphet identified, and an additional 3709 peptides that PeptideProphet did not identify.

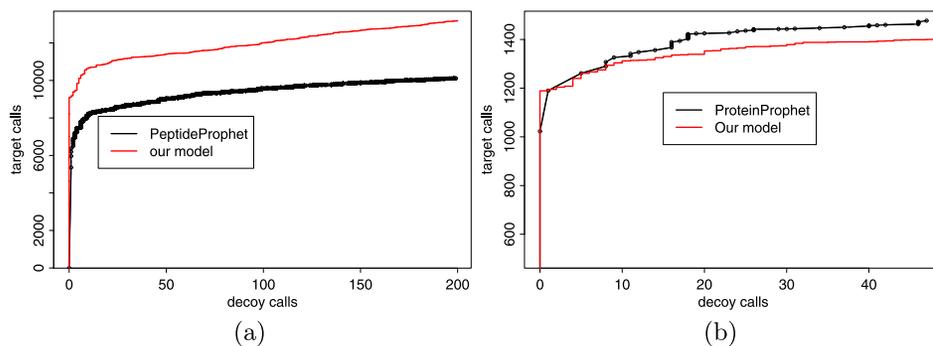


FIG. 7. The number of decoy and target peptides (a) or protein groups (b) assigned probabilities exceeding various thresholds in a yeast data set. Decoy calls: the number of decoy peptides or protein groups assigned a probability exceeding the threshold. Target calls: the number of target peptides or protein groups assigned a probability exceeding the threshold. (a) Peptide inference. (b) Protein inference.

For the protein identification, the methods identified similar numbers of real protein groups at small FDRs (<10 decoy proteins identified). At slightly larger FDRs (>10 decoy proteins identified) ProteinProphet identified more real protein groups (<100) than our method. This apparent slightly superior performance of ProteinProphet may be due, at least in part, to issues noted above regarding likely underestimation of the FDR in these experiments.

4. Comparison with HSM on another yeast data set. To provide comparisons with HSM method on a realistic data set, we compared our method with HSM on another yeast data set, which was original published in [Elias, Faherty and Gygi \(2005\)](#) and analyzed by [Shen et al. \(2008\)](#). We were unable to obtain the data from the original publication; instead, we obtained a processed version from Shen, which produces the results in [Shen et al. \(2008\)](#). Because the processed data lacks several key features for processing by PeptideProphet and ProteinProphet, we were unable to compare with PeptideProphet and ProteinProphet on this data set.

This data set was generated by searching a yeast sample against a sequence database composed of 6473 entries of yeast (*Saccharomyces cerevisiae*) and 22,437 entries of *C. elegans* (*Caenorhabditis elegans*). In total, 9272 MS/MS spectra were assigned to 4148 unique peptides. Following [Shen et al. \(2008\)](#), we exclude 13 charge +1 peptides and fit peptides with different charge states separately (charge +2: 6869 and charge +3: 2363). The rest of the 4135 peptides consists of 3516 yeast peptides and 696 *C. elegans* peptides. These peptides map to 1011 yeast proteins and 876 *C. elegans* proteins. Among all the peptides, 468 (11.3%) are shared by more than one protein and 77 peptides are in common between the two species. Due to peptide sharing between species, 163 *C. elegans* proteins contain only peptides that are in common with yeast proteins. These proteins and peptides shared between species are removed at performance evaluation for all methods of comparison.

We compare the performance of our method with Shen's method for both peptide inferences and protein inferences in [Figure 8](#). Similar to the previous section, a false discovery rate for any given probability threshold can be estimated by counting the number of *C. elegans* proteins assigned a probability exceeding the threshold, since the *C. elegans* peptides or proteins that do not share common sequences with Yeast peptides or proteins cannot be present in the sample. We assessed the methods by comparing the number of yeast and *C. elegans* peptides or proteins assigned probabilities exceeding various thresholds. The results are shown in [Figure 8](#).

At a given number of *C. elegans* peptide identifications, our model identified substantially more yeast peptide identifications than HSM at small FDR (<100 *C. elegans* peptides). For example, at $FDR = 0$, our method identifies 516 peptides out of 522 peptides that are identified by HSM and an additional 2116 peptides that HSM did not identify. The methods identified similar numbers of yeast peptides

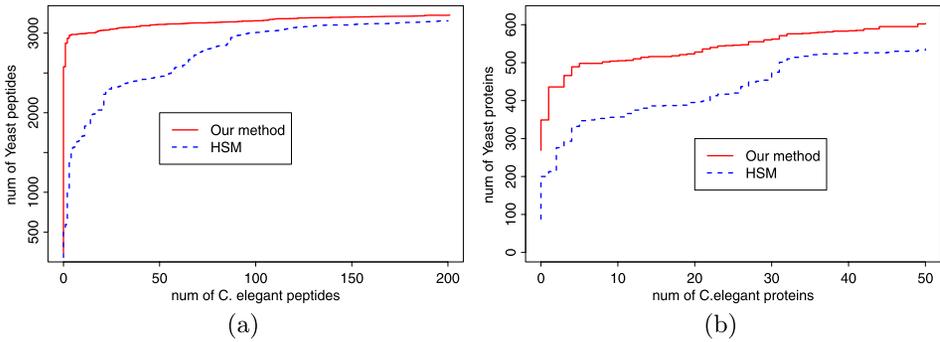


FIG. 8. The number of *C. elegans* and Yeast peptides (a) or proteins (b) assigned probabilities exceeding various thresholds in the yeast sample in Shen's paper.

at higher FDR (> 100 *C. elegans* peptides). For the protein identification, in the range of FDR that we studied, our method consistently identifies over 80 more yeast proteins than HSM at a given number of *C. elegans* protein identifications, in addition to the majority (e.g., 96.5% at $FDR = 0$) of the yeast proteins identified by HSM.

Although ProteinProphet results reported by Shen et al. (Table 1 in Shen et al.) appear to identify more yeast proteins than our method at a given number of *C. elegans* proteins in the range they studied, without access to the raw data, it is difficult to gain insights into the differences. For example, the information on whether the reported ProteinProphet identifications are proteins or protein groups and which proteins are grouped together by ProteinProphet are unavailable from the data we worked on. However, they are critical for making comparisons on the same basis. The comparison with proper handling of these issues (e.g., grouping our protein identifications as in Section 3.3) may lead to conclusions different from a naive comparison.

5. Discussion. We have presented a new statistical method for assessing evidence for presence of proteins and constituent peptides identified from mass spectra. Our approach is, in essence, a model-based clustering method that simultaneously identifies which proteins are present, and which peptides are correctly identified. We illustrated the potential for this approach to improve accuracy of protein and peptide identification in both simulated and real data.

A key feature of our nested mixture model is its ability to incorporate evidence feedback from proteins to the peptides nested on them. This evidence feedback helps distinguish peptides that are correctly identified but with weak scores, from those that are incorrectly identified but with higher scores. The use of a coherent statistical framework also avoids problems with what we have called the “product rule,” which is adopted in several protein identification approaches [Nesvizhskii et al. (2003); Price et al. (2007)], but is based on an inappropriate assumption

of independence of the presence and absence of different peptides. It has been noted [e.g., Sadygov, Liu and Yates (2004); Feng, Naiman and Cooper (2007)] that the product rule tends to wrongly identify as present long proteins with occasional high-scored incorrect peptides; our simulation results [Figure 4(S2)] illustrate this problem, and demonstrate that our approach does not misbehave in this way.

In recent work Shen et al. (2008) also introduced a nested latent-variable-based model (HSM) for jointly identifying peptides and proteins from MS/MS data. However, although HSM shares with our model the goal of simultaneous modeling of peptides and proteins, the structure of their model is different, and their approach also differs in several details. Among these differences, the following seem to us most important:

1. HSM accounts for degeneracy, whereas ours does not. We comment further on this below.
2. HSM includes all the scores for those peptides that match more than one spectrum, whereas our model uses only the maximum score as a summary of the evidence. Modeling all scores is obviously preferable in principle, but, in practice, it is possible that it could actually decrease identification accuracy. We note two particular issues here: (a) Shen et al. assume that, conditional on a peptide's presence/absence status, multiple scores for the same peptide are independent. This independence assumption will not hold in practice, and the costs of such modeling errors could outweigh the benefits of using multiple scores; (b) HSM appears to condition on the number of spectra matched to each peptide, rather than treating this number as an informative piece of data. As a result of this conditioning, additional low-scoring hits to a peptide will always decrease the probability assigned to that peptide. This contrasts with our intuition that additional hits to a peptide could, in some cases, increase confidence that it is present, even if these hits have low scores.
3. HSM incorporates only whether the number of hits to peptides in a protein exceeds some threshold, h (which is set to 1 in their applications). In contrast, our model incorporates the actual number of (distinct) peptides hitting a protein using a Poisson model. In this way our model uses more available information, and accounts for variations in protein length. Note that modeling only whether the number of hits exceeds h has some undesirable consequences, similar to those noted above for conditioning on the number of hits to a peptide. For example, if $h = 1$, then a protein that has two hits, each with low scores, will be assigned a higher identification probability than a protein that is hit more than twice with low scores.
4. HSM conditions on the number of specific cleavages (NTT in our development here) in each putative peptide. Specifically, their parameter $\pi_{ij}(\alpha)$ is the probability of a particular cleavage event occurring, conditional on NTT. In contrast,

our model treats the NTT for each peptide hit as observed data. This may improve identification accuracy because the distribution of NTT differs greatly for correct and incorrect identifications (Figure 3).

We expect that some of these differences in detail, perhaps in addition to other differences not noted here, explain the different performances of our method and that of Shen et al. on the standard mixture data and the yeast data used in Shen et al. (2008). On the other hand, we agree with Shen et al. that comparisons like these are less definitive, and harder to interpret, than one would like, because of the absence of good gold-standard realistic data sets where the truth is known.

We emphasize that, despite its promise, we view the model we present here as only a starting point toward the development of more accurate protein and peptide identification software. Not only is the development of robust fast user-friendly software a considerable task in itself, but there are also important aspects of real data—specifically degeneracy, which is prevalent in high-level organisms—that are not properly accounted for by our model. Currently, most existing approaches to handle degeneracy are based on heuristics. For example, ProteinProphet groups the proteins with shared peptides and assigns weights to degenerate peptides using heuristics. An exception is Shen et al.'s model [Shen et al. (2008)], which attempts to provide a coherent statistical solution to the problem by allowing that a peptide will be present in the digested sample if any one of the proteins containing that peptide generates it, and assuming that these generation events are independent [their equation (2)]. However, because their model computes all the possible combinations of protein parents, which increases in the order of factorials, it is computationally prohibitive to apply their method on data with a moderate or high degree of degeneracy. It should be possible to extend our model to allow for degeneracy in a similar way. However, there are some steps that may not be straightforward. For example, we noted above that our model uses NTT as observed data. But under degeneracy, NTT for each peptide is not directly observed, because it depends on which protein generated each peptide. Similarly, the number of distinct peptides identified on each protein depends on which protein generated each peptide. While it should be possible to solve these issues by introducing appropriate latent variables, some care may be necessary to ensure that, when degeneracy is accounted for, identification accuracy improves as it should.

APPENDIX

Here we describe an EM algorithm for the estimation of $\Psi = (\pi_0^*, \pi_0, \pi_1, \mu, \sigma, \alpha, \beta, \gamma, c_0, c_1)^T$ and the protein statuses and the peptide statuses. To proceed, we use T_k and $(P_{k,1}, \dots, P_{k,n_k})$ as latent variables, then the complete log-likelihood

for the augmented data $Y_k \equiv (\mathbf{X}_k, n_k, T_k, P_{k,1}, \dots, P_{k,n_k})$ is

$$\begin{aligned}
 & l^C(\Psi|\mathbf{Y}) \\
 &= \sum_{k=1}^N \left\{ (1 - T_k) \left[\log \pi_0^* + \log h_0(n_k|l_k, n_k > 0) \right. \right. \\
 &\quad \left. \left. + \sum_{i=1}^{n_k} (1 - P_{k,i}) \log(\pi_0 f_0(x_{k,i})) \right. \right. \\
 &\quad \left. \left. + \sum_{i=1}^{n_k} P_{k,i} \log((1 - \pi_0) f_1(x_{k,i})) \right] \right\} \\
 &+ \sum_{k=1}^N \left\{ T_k \left[\log(1 - \pi_0^*) + \log h_1(n_k|l_k, n_k > 0) \right. \right. \\
 &\quad \left. \left. + \sum_{i=1}^{n_k} (1 - P_{k,i}) \log(\pi_1 f_0(x_{k,i})) \right. \right. \\
 &\quad \left. \left. + \sum_{i=1}^{n_k} P_{k,i} \log((1 - \pi_1) f_1(x_{k,i})) \right] \right\}.
 \end{aligned}
 \tag{A.1}$$

E-step:

$$\begin{aligned}
 & Q(\Psi, \Psi^{(t)}) \equiv E(l^C(\Psi)|\mathbf{x}, \Psi^{(t)}) \\
 &= \sum_{k=1}^N P(T_k = 0) \left\{ \log \pi_0^* + \log h_0(n_k|l_k, n_k > 0) \right. \\
 &\quad \left. + \sum_{i=1}^{n_k} P(P_{k,i} = 0|T_k = 0) \log(\pi_0 f_0(x_{k,i})) \right. \\
 &\quad \left. + \sum_{i=1}^{n_k} P(P_{k,i} = 1|T_k = 0) \log((1 - \pi_0) f_1(x_{k,i})) \right\} \\
 &+ \sum_{k=1}^N P(T_k = 1) \left\{ \log(1 - \pi_0^*) + \log h_1(n_k|l_k, n_k > 0) \right. \\
 &\quad \left. + \sum_{i=1}^{n_k} P(P_{k,i} = 0|T_k = 1) \log(\pi_1 f_0(x_{k,i})) \right. \\
 &\quad \left. + \sum_{i=1}^{n_k} P(P_{k,i} = 1|T_k = 1) \log((1 - \pi_1) f_1(x_{k,i})) \right\}.
 \end{aligned}
 \tag{A.2}$$

Then

$$\begin{aligned}
 \hat{T}_k^{(t)} &\equiv E(T_k | \mathbf{x}_k, n_k, \Psi^{(t)}) \\
 &= \frac{P(T_k = 1, \mathbf{x}_k, n_k | \Psi^{(t)})}{P(\mathbf{x}_k, n_k | \Psi^{(t)})} \\
 \text{(A.3)} \quad &= ((1 - \pi_0^{*(t)})g_1^{(t)}(\mathbf{x}_k, n_k | \Psi^{(t)})h_1^{(t)}(n_k | c_0^{(t)})) \\
 &\quad / (\pi_0^{*(t)}g_0^{(t)}(\mathbf{x}_k, n_k | \Psi^{(t)})h_0^{(t)}(n_k | c_0^{(t)}) \\
 &\quad + (1 - \pi_0^{*(t)})g_1^{(t)}(\mathbf{x}_k, n_k | \Psi^{(t)})h_1^{(t)}(n_k | c_1^{(t)})),
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \hat{I}_0^{(t)}(P_{k,i}) &\equiv E(P_{k,i} | T_k = 0, x_{k,i}, \Psi^{(t)}) \\
 \text{(A.4)} \quad &= \frac{P(P_{k,i} = 1, x_{k,i} | T_k = 0, \Psi^{(t)})}{P(x_{k,i} | T_k = 0, \Psi^{(t)})} \\
 &= \frac{(1 - \pi_0^{(t)})f_1^{(t)}(x_{k,i})}{\pi_0^{(t)}f_0^{(t)}(x_{k,i}) + (1 - \pi_0^{(t)})f_1^{(t)}(x_{k,i})},
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \hat{I}_1^{(t)}(P_{k,i}) &\equiv E(P_{k,i} | T_k = 1, x_{k,i}, \Psi^{(t)}) \\
 \text{(A.5)} \quad &= \frac{(1 - \pi_1^{(t)})f_1^{(t)}(x_{k,i})}{\pi_1^{(t)}f_0^{(t)}(x_{k,i}) + (1 - \pi_1^{(t)})f_1^{(t)}(x_{k,i})}.
 \end{aligned}$$

M-step: Now we need maximize $Q(\Psi, \Psi^{(t)})$. Since the mixing proportions and the distribution parameters can be factorized into independent terms, we can optimize them separately. The MLE of the mixing proportion π_0^* is

$$\text{(A.6)} \quad \pi_0^{*(t+1)} = \frac{\sum_{k=1}^N (1 - \hat{T}_k^{(t)})}{N},$$

$$\text{(A.7)} \quad \pi_0^{(t+1)} = \frac{\sum_{k=1}^N [(1 - \hat{T}_k^{(t)}) \sum_{i=1}^{n_k} (1 - \hat{I}_0^{(t)}(P_{k,i}))]}{\sum_{k=1}^N (1 - \hat{T}_k^{(t)})n_k},$$

$$\text{(A.8)} \quad \pi_1^{(t+1)} = \frac{\sum_{k=1}^N [\hat{T}_k^{(t)} \sum_{i=1}^{n_k} (1 - \hat{I}_1^{(t)}(P_{k,i}))]}{\sum_{k=1}^N \hat{T}_k^{(t)}n_k}.$$

If incorporating ancillary features of peptides, we replace $f_j(x_{k_i})$ with $f_j(x_{k_i}) \times f_j^{nmc}(nmc_{k,i})f_j^{ntt}(ntt_{k,i})$ as in Section 2.5, where x_{k_i} is the identification score, $nmc_{k,i}$ is the number of missed cleavage and $ntt_{k,i}$ is the number of tryptic termini (with values $s = 0, 1, 2$). As described in Section 2.3, $f_0 = N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ and $f_1 = \text{Gamma}(\alpha, \beta, \gamma)$. We can obtain closed form estimators for f_0 as follows, and estimate f_1 using the numerical optimizer `optimize(·)` in R:

$$\text{(A.9)} \quad \mu = \frac{\sum_{k=1}^N \sum_{i=1}^{n_k} [(1 - \hat{T}_k^{(t)})(1 - \hat{I}_0^{(t)}(P_{k,i})) + \hat{T}_k^{(t)}(1 - \hat{I}_1^{(t)}(P_{k,i}))]x_{k_i}}{\sum_{k=1}^N \sum_{i=1}^{n_k} [(1 - \hat{T}_k^{(t)})(1 - \hat{I}_0^{(t)}(P_{k,i})) + \hat{T}_k^{(t)}(1 - \hat{I}_1^{(t)}(P_{k,i}))]},$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \sigma^2 &= \sum_{k=1}^N \sum_{i=1}^{n_k} [(1 - \hat{T}_k^{(t)})(1 - \hat{I}_0^{(t)}(P_{k,i})) + \hat{T}_k^{(t)}(1 - \hat{I}_1^{(t)}(P_{k,i}))] \\
 &\times (x_{k_i} - \mu_0)^2 \\
 &\Big/ \sum_{k=1}^N \sum_{i=1}^{n_k} [(1 - \hat{T}_k^{(t)})(1 - \hat{I}_0^{(t)}(P_{k,i})) + \hat{T}_k^{(t)}(1 - \hat{I}_1^{(t)}(P_{k,i}))].
 \end{aligned}
 \tag{A.10}$$

As described in Section 2.5, we discretize NMC, which usually ranges from 0 to 10, into states $s = 0, 1, 2$, with $s = 2$ representing all values ≥ 2 . So the MLE of f_0^{nmc} is

$$f_0^{nmc}(nmc_{k,i}) = \frac{w_s^{(t)}}{\sum_{s=0}^2 w_s^{(t)}},
 \tag{A.11}$$

where

$$\begin{aligned}
 w_s^{(t)} &= \sum_{k=1}^N \sum_{i=1}^{n_k} (1 - \hat{T}_k^{(t)})(1 - \hat{I}_0^{(t)}(P_{k,i}))1(nmc_{k,i} = s) \\
 &+ \sum_{k=1}^N \sum_{i=1}^{n_k} \hat{T}_k^{(t)}(1 - \hat{I}_1^{(t)}(P_{k,i}))1(nmc_{k,i} = s).
 \end{aligned}
 \tag{A.12}$$

Similarly, the MLE of f_1^{nmc} is

$$f_1^{nmc}(nmc_{k,i}) = \frac{v_s^{(t)}}{\sum_{s=0}^2 v_s^{(t)}},
 \tag{A.13}$$

where

$$\begin{aligned}
 v_s^{(t)} &= \sum_{k=1}^N \sum_{i=1}^{n_k} (1 - \hat{T}_k^{(t)})\hat{I}_0^{(t)}(P_{k,i})1(nmc_{k,i} = s) \\
 &+ \sum_{k=1}^N \sum_{i=1}^{n_k} \hat{T}_k^{(t)}\hat{I}_1^{(t)}(P_{k,i})1(nmc_{k,i} = s).
 \end{aligned}
 \tag{A.14}$$

The MLE of f_j^{nmt} takes the similar form as f_j^{nmc} , $j = 0, 1$, with states $s = 0, 1, 2$.

For h_0 and h_1 , the terms related to h_0 and h_1 in $Q(\Psi, \Psi^t)$ are

$$\sum_{k=1}^N (1 - \hat{T}_k) \log h_0(n_k) = \sum_{k=1}^N (1 - \hat{T}_k) \log \frac{\exp(-c_0 l_k)(c_0 l_k)^{n_k}}{n_k!(1 - \exp(-c_0 l_k))},
 \tag{A.15}$$

$$\sum_{k=1}^N \hat{T}_k \log h_1(n_k) = \sum_{k=1}^N \hat{T}_k \log \frac{\exp(-c_1 l_k)(c_1 l_k)^{n_k}}{n_k!(1 - \exp(-c_1 l_k))}.
 \tag{A.16}$$

The MLE of the above does not have a close form, so we estimate c_0 and c_1 using $\text{optimize}(\cdot)$ in R.

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