

Discovering Protein Sequence-Structure Motifs
and
Two Applications to Structural Prediction

by

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Abstract

This thesis investigates the correlations between short protein peptide sequences and local tertiary structures. In particular, it introduces a novel algorithm for partitioning short protein segments into clusters of local sequence-structure motifs, and demonstrates that these motif clusters contain useful structural information via two applications to structural prediction.

The first application utilizes motif clusters to predict local protein tertiary structures. A novel dynamic programming algorithm that performs comparably with some of the best existing algorithms is described.

The second application exploits the capability of motif clusters in recognizing regular secondary structures to improve the performance of secondary structure prediction based on Support Vector Machines. Empirical results show significant improvement in overall prediction accuracy with no performance degradation in any specific aspect being measured.

The encouraging results obtained illustrate the great potential of using local sequence-structure motifs to tackle protein structure predictions and possibly other important problems in computational biology.

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Chapter 1

Introduction

1.1 Importance of Protein Tertiary Structures

Every cell of every eukaryotic organism contains a copy of the blueprint for that organism: pairs of long and massive polymers stored in the form of a twisted double helix called *DNA* (deoxyribonucleic acid). Certain regions along DNA are called *genes*. Special signals found inside and in the vicinity of genes flag the cell to transcribe the genes into *RNA* (ribonucleic acid). While some genes code for RNA that is used directly by the cell for vital enzymatic purposes, most genes are *protein-coding*. That is, the resultant RNA is to be translated into another kind of polymer called *proteins*, which are ultimately responsible for the large majority of life functions. Despite their functional variety, all proteins are essentially created by chaining molecules called *amino acids* in different orders. The sequence of amino acids forms the *primary structure* of a protein. Each amino acid in a protein is called an *amino acid residue* or just *residue*, as its flanking atoms have been stripped off during the translation process.

The primary structure does not give the protein the ability to perform its functions right away. Instead, it causes the protein to undergo a *folding process*, in which the protein folds into a particular three dimensional (3D) shape believed to be the most energetically stable after taking into consideration all interactions among its residues. This shape, called the *tertiary structure*, enables the protein to interact with other proteins and/or molecules in order to achieve its intended biological functions.

Biologists have long realized the utmost importance of the tertiary structures of proteins. Simply put, the tertiary structure dictates how well a protein carries out its activities. Improperly folded proteins may lose their functions entirely or even assume new but undesirable ones, as in the case of Bovine Spongiform Encephalopathy, commonly known as Mad Cow disease. Other common lethal diseases resulting from protein misfolding include Alzheimer's disease, Parkinson's disease, and type II diabetes, among others. Therefore, knowing the shape of a protein is not only vital in understanding its biological roles, but also in developing possible cures should the protein misfold or disappear for any reason.

1.2 Challenges in Protein Tertiary Structure Prediction

It has been shown more than 30 years ago that all the information needed for a protein to fold resides in its amino acid sequence¹ [1]. Unfortunately, while current technologies such as gene-finding and mRNA micro-arrays have given us ample access to novel protein sequences, finding tertiary structures given the sequences remains a daunting challenge. Laboratory methods such as NMR Microscopy and X-ray Crystallography do exist for fold determination, but they are expensive and time-consuming. Even worse, the methods fail for proteins that are difficult to

¹ Exceptions to the rule such as folds created with the aid of chaperons or post-translational modifications are generally ignored for simplification purposes.

crystallize, especially membrane proteins. On the computational side, accurate prediction of tertiary structure is still out of reach after decades of research. Owing to its urgency and substantial impact on mankind, protein tertiary structure prediction is considered one of the most critical problems in computational biology.

A major obstacle for protein tertiary structure prediction lies in the complexity of modeling protein 3D conformations due to the large degree of structural freedom and sophisticated interactions among residues. Previous computational approaches include a number of lattice and off-lattice models as surveyed by Yuan et al. [2], all of which essentially formulate structural prediction into a large-scale search problem with limited success. Inspired by the conjecture that a newly created polypeptide forms local folds in parts before settling to its final fold [3], a model has recently emerged that treats a protein as a composition of local structural motifs. This model manages to reduce the size of protein conformational space to a point where many search-based prediction strategies finally become feasible. As a result, extraction of local motifs has always been a subject of intense study (see Section 2.1 for examples).

The tertiary structure of a protein is a concerto of two kinds of residue interactions: long-range interactions between distant residues such as disulfide bridges and inter-group charges, and local interactions among nearby residues. Xu et al. [4] have created RAPTOR, an innovative protein tertiary structure predictor based on optimal threading by linear programming. Unfortunately, as RAPTOR focuses primarily on achieving optimal global mapping between target and homologous proteins, it lacks a mechanism for refining output predictions based on local sequence patterns. This shortcoming has led to the investigation of local protein folds and their potential in *ab initio local structure prediction*, the prediction of tertiary structures of short protein segments based solely on the sequence information contained in the segments (See Section 2.2 for further details).

1.3 Some Biology Background

1.3.1 Protein Structure

A protein is a polymer consisting of many repeatedly linked units called amino acids. All amino acids (except proline) have the structure shown in Figure 1.1. In general, each amino acid has a central alpha-carbon atom C_α connected to a hydrogen atom, an amino group (NH_2), a carboxyl group ($COOH$), and a *side chain* denoted by R in the diagram. Because the carboxyl group is characteristic of all organic acids, the simultaneous presence of the amino group and the carboxyl group gives rise to the name “amino acid”.

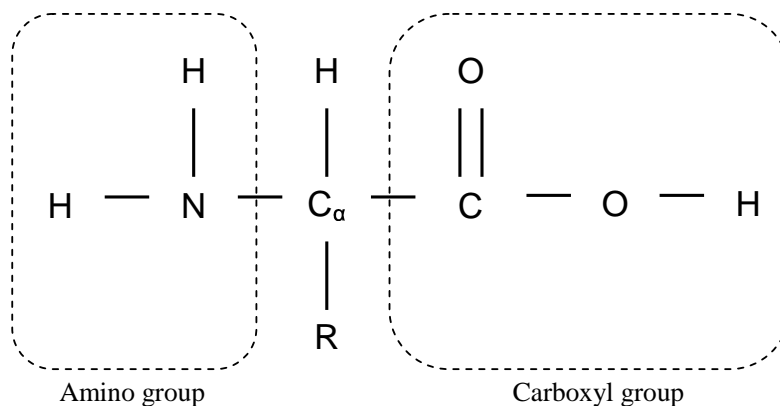
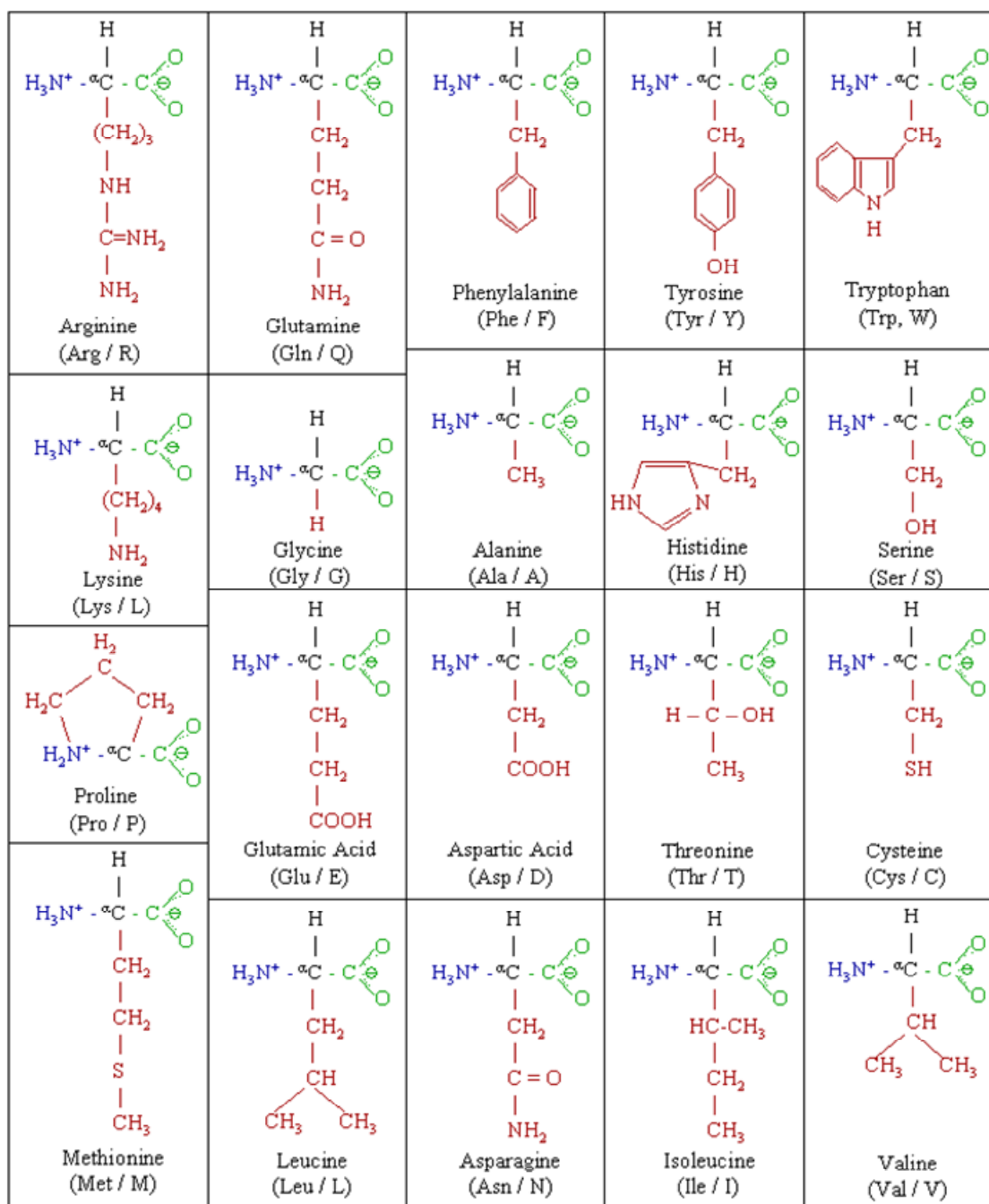


Figure 1.1: General structure of an amino acid (except praline) with side chain R

There are 20 standard amino acids distinguished by different side chain configurations. Other non-standard amino acids exist, but they are rare and only found in organisms inhabiting extreme environments such as volcanoes and ocean bottoms. Therefore, these non-standard amino acids are irrelevant as far as the majority of the research, including this thesis, is concerned. Figure 1.2 lists the names, symbols, and molecular structures for all 20 standard amino acids.

Figure 1.2: The 20 amino acids (taken from http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Amino_acid)

The difference in side chain configuration induces different properties on each amino acid. For instance, an amino acid can be *hydrophilic* (water-loving) or *hydrophobic* (water-repelling), polar or non-polar, charged or neutral, flexible or rigid, etc. Table 1.1 categorizes the amino acids based on different properties.

Table 1.1: Properties of standard amino acids

Properties	Property Description	Amino Acids
Hydrophobic	Hydrophobic amino acids stay inside of a protein, while hydrophilic ones tend to stay in the exterior.	V, L, I, M, F
Hydrophilic		N, E, Q, H, K, R, D
In-between		G, A, S, T, Y, W, C, P
Positively charged	Oppositely charged amino acids can form salt bridges.	R, H, L
Negatively charged		D, E
Polar but not charged	Polar amino acids can participate in hydrogen bonding.	N, Q, S, T
Non-polar		A, G, I, L, M, P, V

Guided by a sequence of codons (triplets of nucleotides) in a RNA molecule, a cell organelle called the ribosome creates a protein by linking amino acids together with *peptide bonds*, as shown in Figure 1.3. Therefore, a protein is also called a *polypeptide* because it consists of many amino acid residues linked together by peptide bonds.

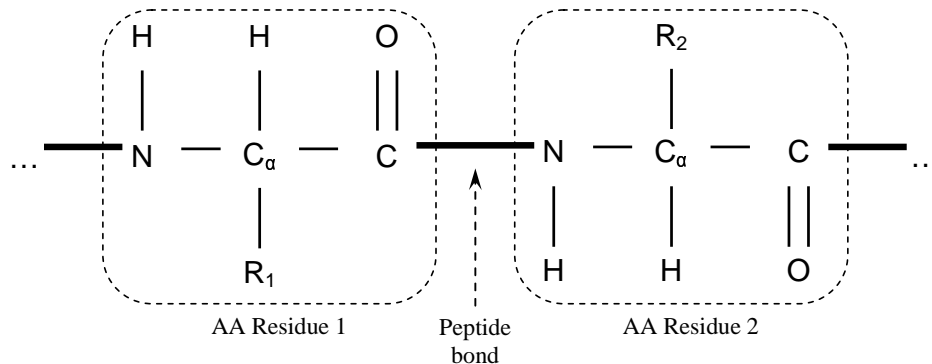


Figure 1.3: Peptide bond linking two amino acid (AA) residues

Although the entire 3D conformation of a protein can be expressed with coordinates for all atoms, it suffices to just consider the coordinates of the *backbone* atoms, namely the repeating (N, C_α, C) chain of atoms in Figure 1.3. Scientists also use *dihedral angles* to precisely describe the shape of a protein. A dihedral angle is defined as the torsion angle from one planar surface to another, as depicted in Figure 1.4. Dihedral angles must be between 180° and -180° inclusive.

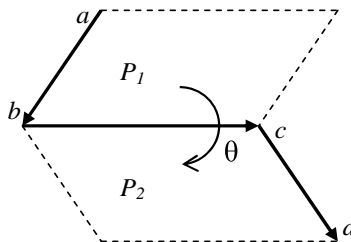


Figure 1.4: Dihedral angle θ from P_1 (defined by ab and bc) to P_2 (defined by bc and cd)

There are three types of dihedral angles associated with the backbone of a protein, namely the *phi* (ϕ), *psi* (ψ), and *omega* (ω) angle. Figure 1.5 depicts the different dihedral angles along a protein backbone. Note that the diagram also shows the three types of bonds connecting the backbone atoms: the C-N bond (i.e. the peptide bond), the N-C_α bond, and the C_α-C bond. If (b_1, b_2) represents the plane defined by non-collinear bonds b_1 and b_2 , then ϕ is the dihedral angle from (C-N, N-C_α) to (N-C_α, C_α-C), ψ is the dihedral angle from (N-C_α, C_α-C) to (C_α-C, C-N), and ω is the dihedral angle from (C_α-C, C-N) to (C-N, N-C_α). Since bond lengths and bond angles are fairly rigid under normal biological conditions [5], the series of backbone dihedral angles are sufficient to describe the full conformation of a protein.

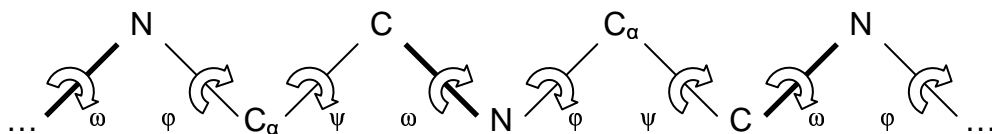


Figure 1.5: Dihedral angles along protein backbone (thick lines denote peptide bonds)

Further simplification is possible as peptide bonds can only exist in either the *cis* ($\omega = 0^\circ$) or the *trans* ($\omega = \pm 180^\circ$) configuration. Peptide bonds in the *cis* configuration are a lot rarer, and their presence usually indicates special regional activities or structures due to their less energetically favorable nature [6]. Hence, ω angles are often assumed to be 180° under normal circumstance, leaving only ϕ and ψ angles to express the whole protein geometry.

1.3.2 Sequence Profiles

Despite numerous possible mutations and re-arrangement events, certain genes are well conserved across species after a long period of time due to their important biological functions. Nevertheless, however conserved the genes are, their resultant proteins could have very different primary structures. Sander and Schneider [7], for example, have determined empirically that structure homology is implied even for proteins with as low as 25% sequence similarity². Their study and others alike have confirmed the inadequacy of solely comparing primary structures for determining if two proteins are evolutionarily related. The correct alternative would be to compare sequence profiles instead. A *sequence profile* or *frequency profile* of a protein shows the probability of observing each amino acid in each position along the protein. It is generated from a multiple sequence alignment in which the protein is aligned to its homologues. The whole idea is that if two proteins are indeed evolutionarily related, then they must share the same ancestor and homologous siblings, and therefore similar sequence profiles.

There are many methods for generating sequence profiles, two of which are especially common in the research community. The first method is to use a tool called PSI-BLAST [8], a brief description of which can be found in Section 2.3.1. The second method is to generate profiles based on alignments available in the HSSP database [7]. Note that this method could

² Measured in an alignment over a length of 80 residues or longer

result in biased profiles as the alignments used might have been heavily populated by proteins from certain families but lightly so by others. Fortunately, many sequence weighting methods exist for correcting such unequal representation including simple pseudo-counts, Voronoi weights [9], Maximum discrimination weights [10], and Maximum entropy weights [11].

Rost and Sander [12] achieved a 6% increase in prediction accuracy in their neural network method when they replaced primary structures with sequence profiles for prediction. Improvement resulting from the usage of sequence profiles was also confirmed by de Breven et al. [13]. As implied in Jones' work [14], the quality of sequence profiles has a dramatic impact on performance.

1.4 Protein Motifs

Within the context of this thesis, a *motif* is defined as a recurrent feature shared by a significant number of segments that are extracted from proteins belonging to different families. There are three main categories of motifs, namely *sequence motifs*, *structural motifs*, and *sequence-structure motifs*.

As its name suggests, a sequence motif describes a recurrent sequence pattern found in a significant number of protein segments. Likewise, a structural motif describes a recurrent structural pattern. One might often be misled by intuition that sequence similarity automatically implies structural similarity, which would have been true if the folding of protein segments were solely determined by local inter-residue interactions within the segments. Unfortunately, there are also long-range interactions such as disulfide bridges, inter-group charges, and hydrophobic effects that alter the overall tertiary structure of a protein. Segments under the influence of such global forces would fold differently from other segments even if they share a high degree of

sequence similarity. Since it is ultimately the shape that matters to the protein's capability, sequence motifs tend to be less valuable and much less frequently studied.

On the contrary, structural motifs are more intensively studied because they constitute the conformational search space for many search-based structural prediction algorithms [15, 16, 17]. Nevertheless, structural motifs neglect specific sequence information that characterizes their formation, so their usage in *ab initio* structural prediction usually requires some sort of external guidance such as a global energy function.

The last category comprises sequence-structure motifs. Each sequence-structure motif is shared by segments that are highly similar in both sequence composition and tertiary structure. By definition of motifs, these segments must amount to a significant number and belong to proteins from different families, so the observed sequence-structure correlation is almost impossible to happen by chance. As a result, one may deduce with high confidence that for any sequence-structure motif, the structure is mostly or even entirely determined by the corresponding sequence pattern. This important concept forms the underlying principle that enables sequence-structure motifs to map short sequence patterns into relevant structures.

1.5 Research Overview

The two main problems being addressed by this thesis are the discovery of sequence-structure motifs given a set of non-redundant proteins, and the prediction of protein folds by exploiting the motifs' ability to map sequences to structures. The rest of this thesis is organized as follows: Chapter 2 will present a detailed survey of some of the previous related work, Chapter 3 will describe a novel clustering algorithm for extracting sequence-structure motifs, Chapter 4 will describe a novel dynamic programming algorithm for *ab initio* local structure prediction using

motif clusters, Chapter 5 will describe a procedure for using motif clusters to enhance secondary structure prediction based on Support Vector Machines, and finally Chapter 6 will conclude the paper with some final comments and a list of future work.

Chapter 2

Related Work

The materials presented in this thesis concern three major areas: motif extraction via clustering, *ab initio* local structure prediction, and secondary structure prediction. This section will present some background and related research in each area.

2.1 Extraction of Protein Motifs via Clustering

Clustering is a popular statistical technique for analyzing large data sets through the grouping of similar items. It enables researchers to focus on the general patterns instead of on the individual items themselves. Since motifs are patterns shared by a significant number of segments, their extraction can be properly achieved through clustering. Previous methods for clustering short protein segments are generally divided into two categories: 1) those with clustering based on structure alone, and 2) those with clustering based on both sequence and structure. A brief survey of six recent methods is presented below, where the first three belong to the first category and the rest belong to the second.

2.1.1 Clustering using Reference Frame $Oxyz$

Wojcik et al. [15] invented a novel orthogonal reference frame called $Oxyz$ for aligning two loop segments in order to calculate their structural deviation. For each loop segment s , the Ox axis was the line joining the C_α atoms of the first and last residues in s , Oy axis was defined such that the plane formed by Ox and Oy contained the centre of gravity of the backbone of s , and finally Oz axis was the vector product of Ox and Oy . Loop segments of length 3 to 8 residues long were extracted and classified using hierarchical clustering based on RMSD (root mean squared distance) between backbone atoms positioned in $Oxyz$. Each resultant cluster essentially represented a structural motif. The set of all clusters was subsequently used for loop modeling in the remainder of the study.

2.1.2 Clustering using K-means Stimulated Annealing

Kolodny et al. [16] clustered protein segments of length 4 to 7 residues long using a modified k-means algorithm called *k-means stimulated annealing*, which was identical to the original k-means algorithm [18, 19] except that two clusters were merged and another was split in a Monte Carlo fashion at the end of each iteration. RMSD after superposition was used within the algorithm to measure the distance between any two given segments. The authors claimed that their special k-means algorithm improved the handling of segment concentrations and reduced sensitivity to the initial choice of cluster centers. The quality of the resultant clusters was evaluated by examining how well the clusters could fit into the structures of certain test proteins.

2.1.3 Clustering using Hypercosine as Distance Measure

Although RMSD is a popular measure of inter-segment distances, its usage in large-scale clustering could be hindered by its expensive numerical computation. Hunter et al. [17] thus

suggested a new structural distance measure based on *hypercosine*, which they claimed was a good approximation of RMSD while being much more efficient to compute. To measure the structural deviation between two segments, a vector was created from each segment by taking the backbone atomic coordinates along the segment after it was aligned in the 3D Cartesian space with its first C_α atom at the origin, its last C_α atom on the z axis, and its second C_α atom on the x - z plane. Let u and v be the resultant vectors for the two segments, $\langle u, v \rangle$ be their inner product, and $|u|$ and $|v|$ be the l^2 -norm (i.e. the magnitude) of u and v respectively. The hypercosine between u and v , denoted by $HCos(u, v)$, was computed as follows:

$$HCos(u, v) = \frac{\langle u, v \rangle}{|u| |v|} \quad (2.1)$$

The output was a real value in the range $[0, 1]$, with 0 indicating totally structural dissimilarity and 1 indicating structural identicalness. Hunter and his peers tested the efficiency of the new method by clustering 150,000 length-7 segments. The remainder of their study focused on how changes in hypercosine threshold affected the quality of the resultant cluster set.

2.1.4 Protein Blocks

French scientists de Brevern et al. [13] clustered protein segments of length 5 based on both sequence and structure in a two-stage process. During the first stage, they partitioned segments by structure into 16 clusters called *Protein Blocks* as follows. Each segment centered at $C\alpha_i$ was represented as a vector of eight dihedral angles ($\psi_{i-2}, \phi_{i-1}, \psi_{i-1}, \phi_i, \psi_i, \phi_{i+1}, \psi_{i+1}, \phi_{i+2}$), and inter-segment distance was measured by RMSDA (root mean squared distance on angular values). An unsupervised Kohonen network formed the basis of the clustering method. In short, the method was initialized with a fixed number of randomly drawn cluster centroids. It then assigned each

segment to its closest cluster and updated the cluster's centroid accordingly. Once all segments had been exhausted, the assignment process restarted with the new centroids. This was repeated for a given number of times to obtain the final set of clusters or Protein Blocks.

Every Protein Block was further sub-divided into *sequence families* based on sequence composition in the second stage. Initially, all segments within each Protein Block were arbitrarily partitioned into a fixed number of groups, and the consensus sequence profile for each group was computed. Each segment was then assigned to the group whose profile yielded the highest conditional probability of observing the segment. After all segments had been assigned, new profiles were generated for the groups and the assignment process was repeated. The whole procedure stopped when changes to new profiles were minimal. The resultant sequence families from all 16 Protein Blocks ultimately formed the complete set of sequence-structure motifs.

2.1.5 I-sites Library

The *I-sites Library*, created by Bystroff and Baker [20], is a collection of 13 different sequence-structure motifs commonly found in proteins. Similar to Protein Blocks, the motifs were also extracted via a two-stage process. In the first stage, segments of length 3 to 15 were partitioned based on sequence similarity using a custom distance function and the k-means clustering algorithm [18, 19]. A refinement process in the next stage removed segments whose structures were different from the paradigm structures of their respective clusters. The remaining segments in each cluster were combined to form a signature sequence profile used to further search for other similar segments in the training database. The segments that were initially removed from each cluster formed a new cluster, which then underwent the same refinement process. Because each repetition isolated segments sharing the paradigm or “peak” structure from the rest, the

refinement process was called *iterative peak removal*. The end result was a set of 82 clusters that could be roughly grouped into 13 different sequence-structure motifs.

2.1.6 LPBSP1

Yang and Wang [21] created a *local structure-based sequence profile* database called *LPBSP1*. Local structure-based sequence profiles are equivalent to sequence-structure motifs as they both represent the consensus of a group of segments sharing similar compositions and structures.

Prior to clustering, each segment in the training database was preprocessed such that every *phi* and *psi* angle pair was converted into a *backbone conformational state* as defined by Oliva et al. [22]. This preprocessing step essentially mapped the continuous backbone structures into discrete states needed for subsequent local structure prediction (see Section 2.2.3).

Each local structure-based sequence profile was created by first selecting a segment known as the seed. To refine the seed, all segments in the training database were examined, and those resembling the seed's structure were extracted. The resultant segments were then filtered using a custom scoring matrix to retain those that were also sequence-wise similar to the seed. The final set of segments composed a consensus sequence profile, which was used along with the seed's structure to "fish" out other unidentified homologues in the training database. At the end, all segments that had been found constituted the sequence-structure motif cluster for the seed segment. The entire process was repeated for all segments in the database, and all resultant clusters with less than 10 segments were discarded. Yang and Wang applied the clustering method to 213,338 length-9 segments to obtain a final set of 138,604 clusters.

2.2 *Ab Initio* Local Structure Prediction

The aim of *ab initio* local structure prediction is to predict the tertiary structures of short protein segments based solely on the sequence information contained in the segments. A main driving force behind such prediction is its potential in tackling the protein folding problem [23], the resolution of which lends itself to other critical problems such as *ab initio* prediction of global tertiary structures and identification of protein misfolding.

Protein folding is very difficult to simulate mainly because of the many different ways residues can interact with their distant counterparts. These long-range interactions play a vital role in guiding polypeptides to fold properly upon their creation. Given the efficiency of the folding process, however, it is impossible for a polypeptide to consider all distant interactions or even a majority of them. As a result, the folding process is believed to initiate with segments folding locally, forming structural intermediaries whose interactions lead to the final shape. Therefore, the study of local structures and their formations would be a steppingstone, if not a prerequisite, to understanding the folding process.

Macromolecular structure repositories such as the Brookhaven Protein Databank (PDB) have enabled researchers to discover a number of local structural motifs, such as the Schellman motif [24], the hydrophobic staple [25], the extended capping box [26], and various beta-hairpin structures [27, 28]. The values of local motifs to structural prediction have been noted in a number of studies including Bonneau et al. [29], Fidelis et al. [30], and Rooman et al. [31]. The following sub-sections describe *ab initio* local structure prediction using Protein Blocks (Section 2.1.4), the I-sites Library (Section 2.1.5), and LPBSP1 (Section 2.1.6).

2.2.1 Prediction using Protein Blocks

After discovering Protein Blocks and sequence families, de Brevern et al. [13] went on to apply them to local structure prediction. In their prediction method, Protein Block b was assigned to a target segment s if sequence family $f \subseteq b$ yielded the largest ratio $r = P(f | s) / P(f)$ among all sequence families³. The ratio r was calculated using only the sequence profiles of f and s . To predict the local structure of a target protein p , the method simply assigned the optimal protein block (i.e. the one yielding the largest ratio r) to each overlapping segment in p . During the evaluation process, an assignment involving Protein Block b and segment s was considered correct if b was also the Protein Block structurally closest to the true conformation of s . The overall prediction accuracy, evaluated as the percentage of correct assignments over the total, was 40.7%. The authors subsequently claimed better accuracies by considering multiple top-scoring Protein Blocks, instead of just the optimal one, for each segment. Unfortunately, those results were practically meaningless because the authors failed to instruct which Protein Block was to be chosen should the true structures be unavailable for comparison, as in a real prediction scenario.

2.2.2 Prediction using the I-sites Library

As described in Section 2.1.5, the I-sites library is a collection of 82 clusters grouped into 13 sequence-structure motifs. Recall that during the extraction process, Bystroff and Baker [20] utilized a custom distance function to cluster segments based on sequence similarity. The same distance function was used to score sequence similarity between a cluster and a given segment during local structure prediction. Since different clusters were of different lengths, the similarity scores were not directly comparable. As a remedy, Bystroff and Baker mapped each score into a

³ $P(x)$ is the probability of observing x , and $P(x | y)$ is the probability of observing x given the presence of y .

confidence value, which stood for the likelihood of the segment having the structure of the cluster given the score. The mapping was derived empirically through a cross-validation procedure.

The prediction method first computed the confidence values of all overlapping segments in the target protein versus all 82 clusters. The set of all segment-cluster pairs were then sorted by confidence values in descending order. The first segment-cluster pair was processed by assigning the consensus dihedral angles of the cluster to the residues in the segment. Each subsequent segment-cluster pair was processed only if the consensus dihedral angles of the cluster did not conflict with the ones previously assigned to the segment.

A residue was correctly predicted if it was found in at least one length-8 segment whose predicted structure was within 1.4 Å in RMSD of the true structure. The overall prediction accuracy, evaluated as the percentage of correctly predicted residues over the total, was 50%.

2.2.3 Prediction using LPBSP1

LIBSP1 [21], a collection of 138,604 sequence-structure motifs (see Section 2.1.6), was created specifically for local structure prediction. The sequence composition for each motif was represented by a position specific scoring matrix (PSSM) created with the Bayesian prediction pseudo-count method [32]. To predict the structure of a length-9 segment s , Yang and Wang searched through LIBSP1 to obtain the set W of all motifs whose PSSMs yielded high similarity scores for s , and assigned the structure of the motif located at the center of W to s . The above process was repeated for each overlapping length-9 segment along the target protein. At the end, the final prediction for each residue was taken to be the majority conformation found in the 9 overlapping predictions covering the residue. Yang and Wang developed an evaluation scheme called *RMSDaccuracy*, which they claimed was comparable to the RMSD measure used by Bystroff and Baker [20]. Their published result under the scheme was 62.1%.

Unfortunately, the method did not achieve high accuracy without cost. Because of the need to find the majority conformation, the continuous backbone dihedral angles were mapped into discrete states, as described in Section 2.1.6. The final predicted structure was expressed as a string of only four states {A, B, G, E}, so it was at best a rough approximation. In other words, there had been a trade-off between prediction accuracy and preciseness of predicted structures.

2.3 Enhancement to Secondary Structure Prediction

The tertiary structure of a protein can be seen as a spatial arrangement of three types of 3D sub-structures known as helices, strands, and coils. The distribution of these sub-structures along a protein is referred to as the *secondary structure* of the protein. While *ab initio* prediction of tertiary structure is difficult, that of secondary structure is a lot simpler because the latter projects the complicated 3D structures onto a linear sequence of H (helix), E (strand), and C (coil). Knowledge of secondary structures is often used as a constraint to tertiary structure prediction or as part of fold recognition methods [33]. There are numerous *ab initio* secondary structure prediction methods such as BRNN [34], DSC [35], NNSSP [36], PHD [37], PREDATOR [38], SVM [39], and Zpred [40]. Given the array of methods, a more practical option would be to enhance the performance of the best in the herd. Two example attempts to be described in this section are PSIPRED [14] and PMSVM [41].

2.3.1 PSIPRED

PSIPRED [14] is considered an improved version of PHD [37], a predictor widely recognized for its supreme accuracy. The main improvement comes from the use of position specific scoring matrices (PSSMs) generated by PSI-BLAST [8]. Given a query sequence, PSI-BLAST searches for high-scoring homologues from a non-redundant protein database, creates a profile from the

homologues, and repeats the search with the new profile. The process lasts for a specified number of iterations. The utilization of PSI-BLAST profiles has increased the accuracy (or Q_3 to be exact, see Section 5.4) by about 5% on average, from around 73% to around 78%. At present, PSIPRED remains one of the most reliable secondary structure prediction methods available.

2.3.2 PMSVM

Support Vector Machine [42], or *SVM* for short, is a powerful statistical method for data classification. The most common use of SVM is as a binary classifier. In a nutshell, training a binary SVM classifier involves computing the separating hyper-plane that divides the training data points in such a way as to achieve maximal margin (i.e. to maximize the gap between the plane and the closest data points on either side). Once trained, new data points are classified to either category depending on which side of the hyper-plane they land on.

Hua and Sun [39] invented a secondary structure prediction method based on SVM, and achieved prediction accuracies that rivaled PHD, if not better. Motivated by the success of PSIPRED, Guo et al. [41] set out to improve the SVM prediction method of Hua and Sun. Besides utilizing PSI-BLAST profiles, they introduced a second SVM prediction layer to produce a dual-layer SVM predictor called PMSVM. The second layer was meant to refine the output of the first by considering the patterns of surrounding secondary structures for each residue. Guo et al. reported around 79% as the average prediction accuracy (Q_3) for PMSVM, an improvement of about 5% over the single-layer SVM approach.

Chapter 3

Discovery of Sequence-Structure Motifs

Clustering of short protein segments will be used as the primary approach for the discovery, or extraction, of sequence-structure motifs. Many of the previous methods, such as those described in Section 2.1.4 and Section 2.1.5, perform clustering in two stages. A problem associated with a two-stage approach is that segments with similar sequence patterns and folds might not as clearly reveal such a relationship when one looks at sequence and structure separately. Those segments are likely to get misclassified in either or both stages. This section presents a novel one-stage method intended to eliminate the deficiency by considering both sequence and structure together throughout the whole clustering process. Specifically, this section describes the inter-segment distance measure, segment preparation and filtration, the main clustering algorithm, and the experiments conducted and results gathered.

3.1 Segment Attributes

All protein segments are assumed to be of the same length L . Every segment is represented as an array of L records, each of which stores information for one residue. The stored information

includes the occurrence frequencies for all 20 amino acids, the secondary structure label (H, E, or C), and all three backbone dihedral angles in degrees. Backbone atomic coordinates are not explicitly stored, but are calculated as needed from the dihedral angles. Table 3.1 below lists the values of bond lengths and bond angles determined empirically by Engh and Huber [43].

Table 3.1: Bond lengths and bond angles along protein backbone

N-C _α bond length	1.458 Å
C _α -C bond length	1.525 Å
C-N bond length	1.329 Å
N-C _α -C bond angle	111.2°
C _α -C-N bond angle	116.2°
C-N-C _α bond angle	121.7°

3.2 Measure of Inter-Segment Distance

Each of the 20 amino acids is represented by a unique index in the range 0 to 19 inclusive. The exact index assignment is irrelevant but it must be consistent throughout the study. Let φ_i and ψ_i be the *phi* and *psi* angles in degrees at position i , and f_{ij} be the frequency of observing amino acid with index j at the same position. Note that the condition $\sum_{j=0,19} f_{ij} = 1$ must hold for all i . Given segments x and y , both of length L , their distance $D(x, y)$ is computed as follows:

$$D(x, y) = \begin{cases} \sqrt{\sum_{i=0}^{L-1} \left(\left(\frac{\Delta\varphi_i}{360} \right)^2 + \left(\frac{\Delta\psi_i}{360} \right)^2 + \sum_{j=0}^{19} \Delta f_{ij}^2 \right)} & \text{if } \max(\Delta\varphi_i, \Delta\psi_i) \leq \theta \quad \forall i \\ \infty & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad (3.1)$$

Symbol Δ denotes the absolute difference in the associated quantity. Value θ is L -dependent and it limits the largest dihedral angle difference allowed. Note that Equation (3.1) has two ideal properties as a distance function. First, it encompasses differences in both sequence patterns and

structures, hence allowing one-stage clustering. Second, it is the Euclidean distance between two points in a $22L$ -dimensional Cartesian space and therefore satisfies the triangular inequality, making it acceptable for use in clustering [44].

The validity of Equation (3.2) below justifies the assumption that contributions from differences in structure and in sequence have equal weights. The second condition as well as the tightness of both bounds can all be proven trivially.

$$0 \leq \left(\frac{\Delta\varphi_i}{360}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\Delta\psi_i}{360}\right)^2 \leq 2 \text{ and } 0 \leq \sum_{j=0}^{19} \Delta f_{ij}^2 \leq 2 \quad \forall i \in [0, L-1] \quad (3.2)$$

3.3 Cluster Radius

Besides a distance function, a threshold called *cluster radius* is needed to tell if two segments are sufficiently close to be grouped together. The choice of cluster radius is crucial: being too small yields a handful of clusters capturing only the most conserved motifs, while being too big yields coarse clusters contaminated with irrelevant segments. A systematic way exists to determine a suitable radius for a given segment length. First, segments of that length are extracted from a large database of non-redundant proteins whose structures are known. An ideal choice for the database would be PDB Select 25 [45, 46]. The set of all segments are then divided in half, and distances between segments in different halves are computed. The resultant figures form a normal distribution with mean μ and standard deviation σ , as shown in Figure 3.1 for segments of length 8. The radius is set to $\mu - 3\sigma$, corresponding to a confidence interval of 99.73%. This choice of radius is found to consistently deliver clusters of reasonable quality.

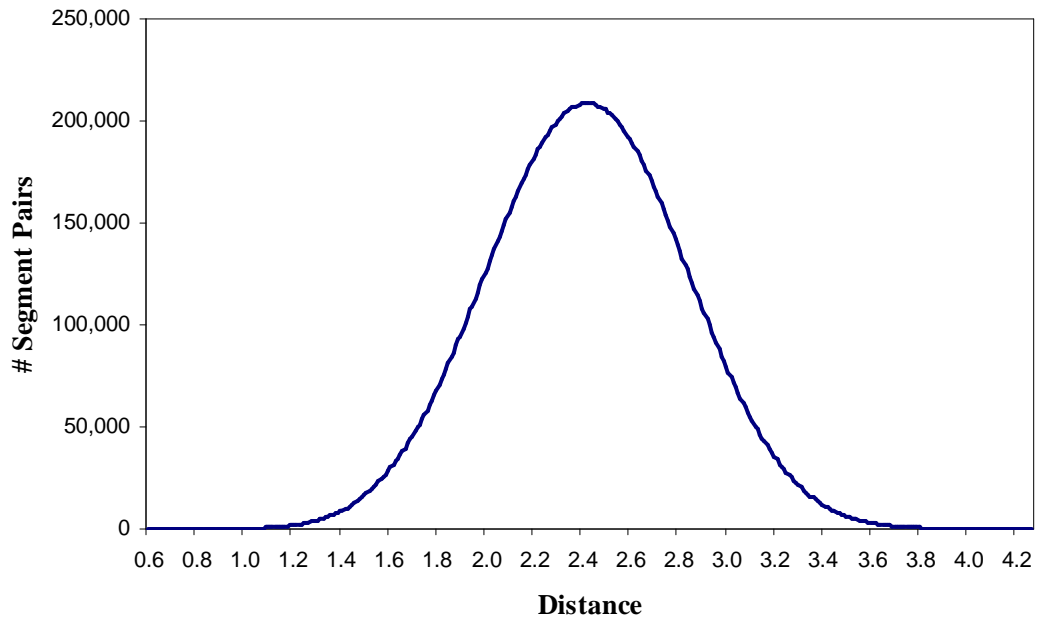


Figure 3.1: Normal distribution for inter-segment distances obtained from a large sample of length-8 segments, with mean $\mu = 2.42$ and standard deviation $\sigma = 0.41$

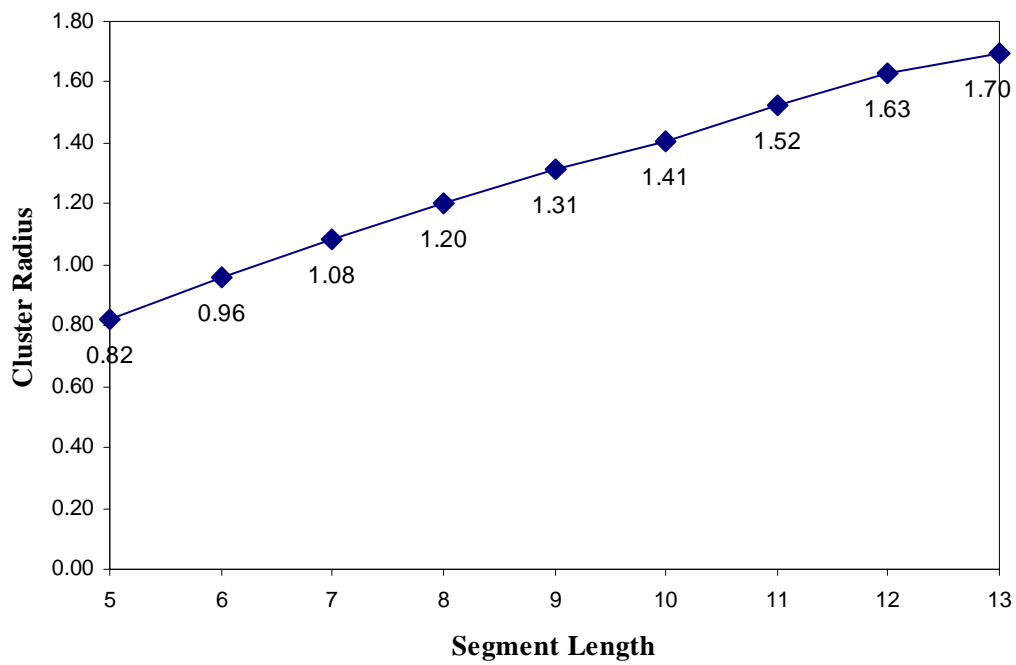


Figure 3.2: Fluctuation in cluster radius as segment length increases from 5 to 13

The cluster radii are larger for longer segments because they have to account for differences between more residues. Intuitively, once the segment length doubles, so does the radius for having to account for differences between twice as many residues. Therefore, a roughly linear relationship is expected between the radius and the segment length. Our empirical method for radius determination seems legitimate in that it does produce results that agree with expectation. Figure 3.2 shows the increase in cluster radius as segment length increases from 5 to 13 inclusive.

3.4 Segment Preparation and Filtration

The distance function shown in Equation (3.1) requires sequence profiles for both segments stating the occurrence frequency of each amino acid at every position. The profiles in this study are generated from multiple sequence alignments available in the HSSP database [7], and post-processed with the Voronoi Monte Carlo algorithm [9] to correct for unequal representations. Aside from profiles, secondary structure labels are also gathered, and for that the DSSP secondary structure labeling [47] is chosen due to its popularity.

A filtration process is in place to ensure the legitimacy of segments used for clustering. Specifically, a segment is not qualified unless it meets all three requirements: it must be aligned to at least 20 proteins in the HSSP database, comprise only standard residues, and contain only *trans* peptide bonds between residues (see Section 1.3.1). Overlapping segments are then extracted from protein peptides satisfying all the requirements.

3.5 Clustering Algorithm

The k-means algorithm [18, 19] is the ideal method for clustering protein segments due to the large input volume. Unfortunately, there are several issues that must first be resolved. The foremost is the requirement to specify the number of clusters k in advance. Some studies have suggested that the numbers of sequence-structure motif clusters are in the hundreds, while others have suggested numbers in the thousands or even as much as over 100K. The wide range makes estimating the number of clusters a groundless act. Moreover, aside from knowing that a larger k generally results in finer clusters, there is not a precise correlation between k and the degree of segment similarity in each cluster. Finally, the original k-means algorithm would fit every segment into its closest cluster, even if that cluster is really nowhere near the segment at all. This would end up contaminating the resultant sequence-structure motif clusters, making them less representative and degrading their capacity to recognize homologous sequence patterns.

The novel clustering algorithm, outlined in Figure 3.3, is intended to solve the aforementioned problems. It is derived from the k-means algorithm and modified to allow a variable number of clusters [48]. An input to the algorithm is the cluster radius r , such that a segment either goes to its closest cluster if the distance is within r , or starts a new cluster otherwise. The input r eliminates the need to estimate and fix the number of clusters, allows a more direct control over the cluster quality, and prevents segments from being forcibly added to faraway clusters. The algorithm also uses a special cluster called the *residue cluster* to hold all outlier segments that cannot be clustered due to their unique sequence patterns or shapes. Since segments in the residue cluster are considered outliers, they are prohibited from initiating new clusters in subsequent iterations. This measure has led to significant runtime improvement as it effectively prevents the creation of tiny miscellaneous clusters.

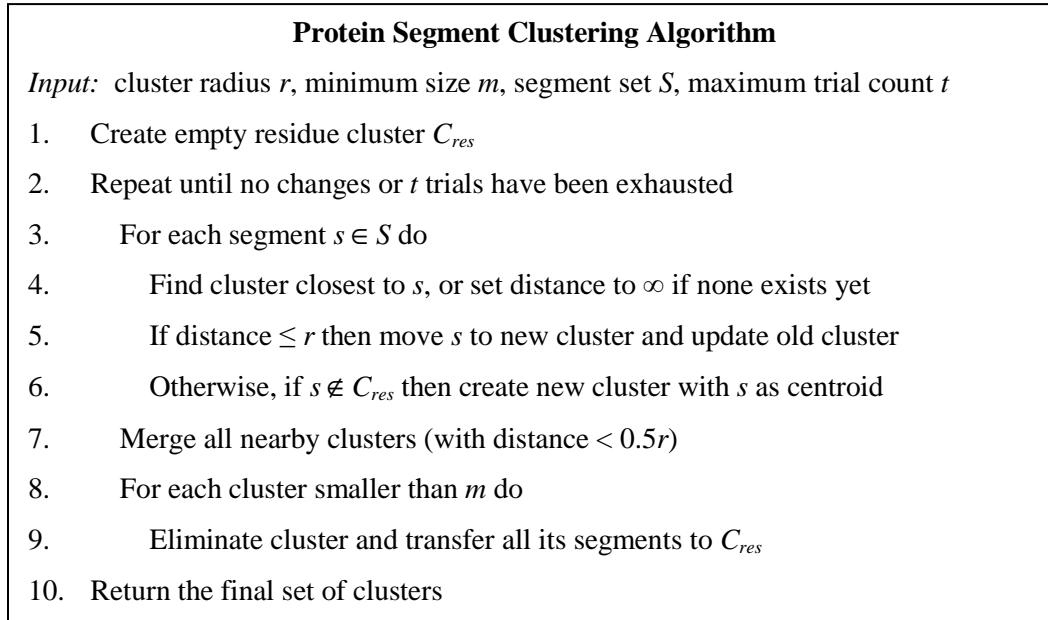


Figure 3.3: Outline of algorithm for clustering protein segments

3.6 Experiments and Results

The algorithm presented in Section 3.5 has been applied to clustering a set of 396 non-redundant proteins selected by Cuff and Barton (CB396) [49]. Segment length L was set to 8, a value small enough to allow clusters of reasonable size but large enough to capture local residue interactions. Results reported by Bystroff et al. [3] have shown that segments of length 8 are very effective at preserving local sequence-dependent information. The cluster radius was set to 1.2 based on the method described in Section 3.3. Both the minimum cluster size and maximum trial count were set to 5. Symbol θ in Equation (3.1) was set to 120° , an arbitrary but reasonable choice for segments of length 8. A total of 47,907 overlapping segments were extracted from qualified protein peptides (see Section 3.4).

The output consisted of 357 clusters, but the number of distinct structural motifs was much less since many clusters either had the same fold, or were overlapping images of the same

motif. For instance, 89 clusters were helices, showing the motif's abundance and its variety in sequence patterns. In short, all motifs in the I-sites library [20, 50] had been discovered together with some new ones. Four examples of new motifs are shown in Figure 3.4 and Figure 3.5. More examples are shown in Appendix A. For each motif, the following information is displayed:

<i>Segment count</i>	This is the size of the cluster capturing the motif. This number might seem small because it only includes segments that are highly similar to the motif in terms of both sequence and structure.
<i>Dihedral angle plot</i>	The plot shows the <i>phi</i> and <i>psi</i> angles for each position along the motif and facilitates comparison between structures of different motifs.
<i>Log-odds profile</i>	For position i and amino acid j , entry v_{ij} in the log-odds profile is calculated from f_{ij} (the corresponding entry in frequency profile) and b_j (the background frequency for amino acid j) as follows: $v_{ij} = \log_2(f_{ij} / b_j)$.
<i>Backbone drawing</i>	3D drawing of backbone conformation using Protein Explorer, where the N-terminus is labeled 'N' and the C-terminus is labeled 'C'.

The motif in Figure 3.4(a) represents a turn between two helices, characterized by a MET at position 2, a preference for hydrophobic residues at position 3, and an aversion to them at position 4. In general, positions prior to and including position 3 tend to prefer hydrophobic residues while the others tend prefer hydrophilic ones, inferring a possible emergence from the protein interior to the surface. The motif in Figure 3.4(b) is also a turn flanked by helices. It is characterized by a GLY at position 3, a conserved hydrophobic residue at position 4, and finally an ASX (i.e. ASN or ASP) at position 5. Hydrophilic residues are generally preferred throughout the motif, potentially suggesting that the entire motif is exposed to the aqueous surrounding.

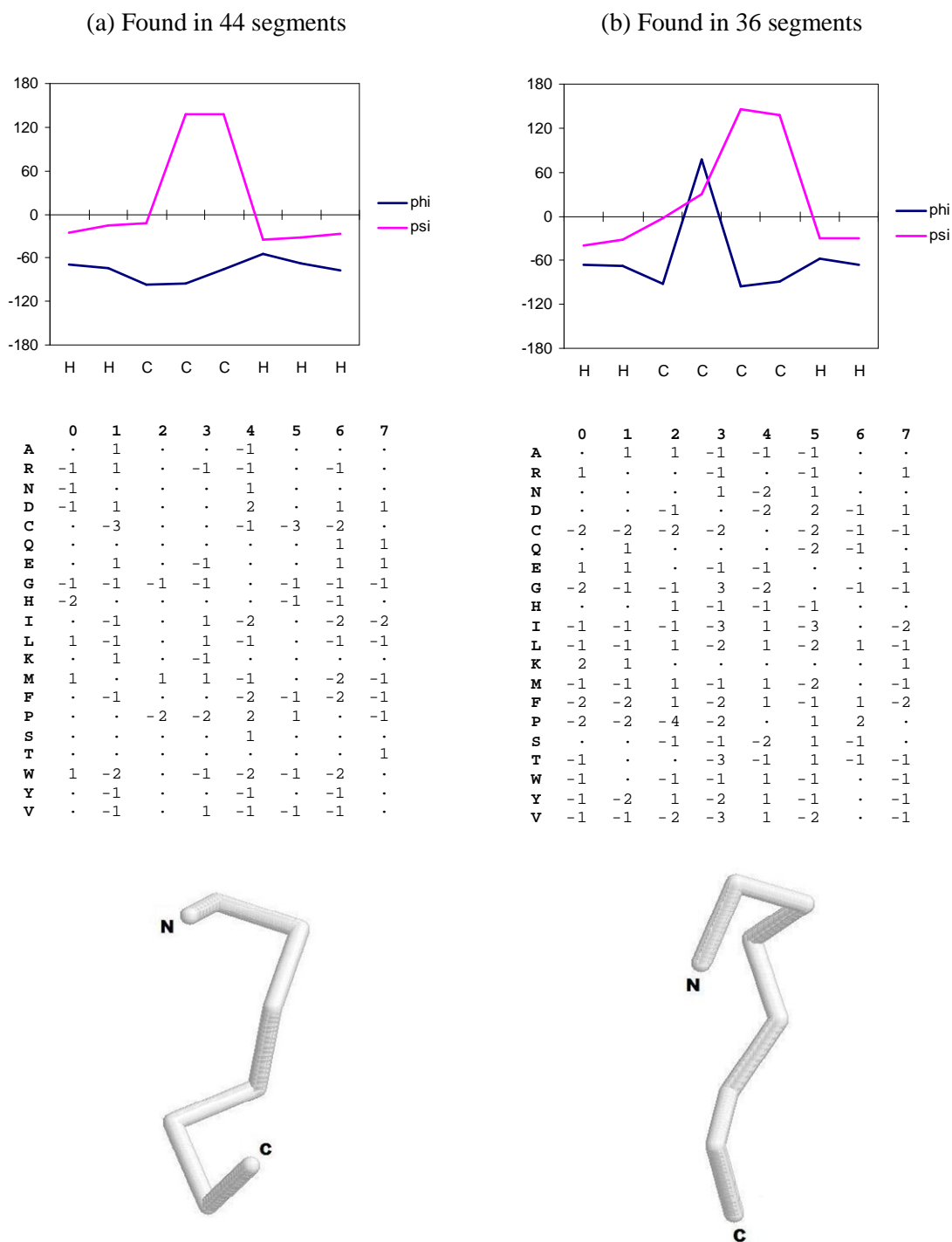


Figure 3.4: Dihedral angles, log-odds profiles, and 3D backbone drawings for two novel motifs not listed in the I-sites Library. Dot (·) represents background frequency.

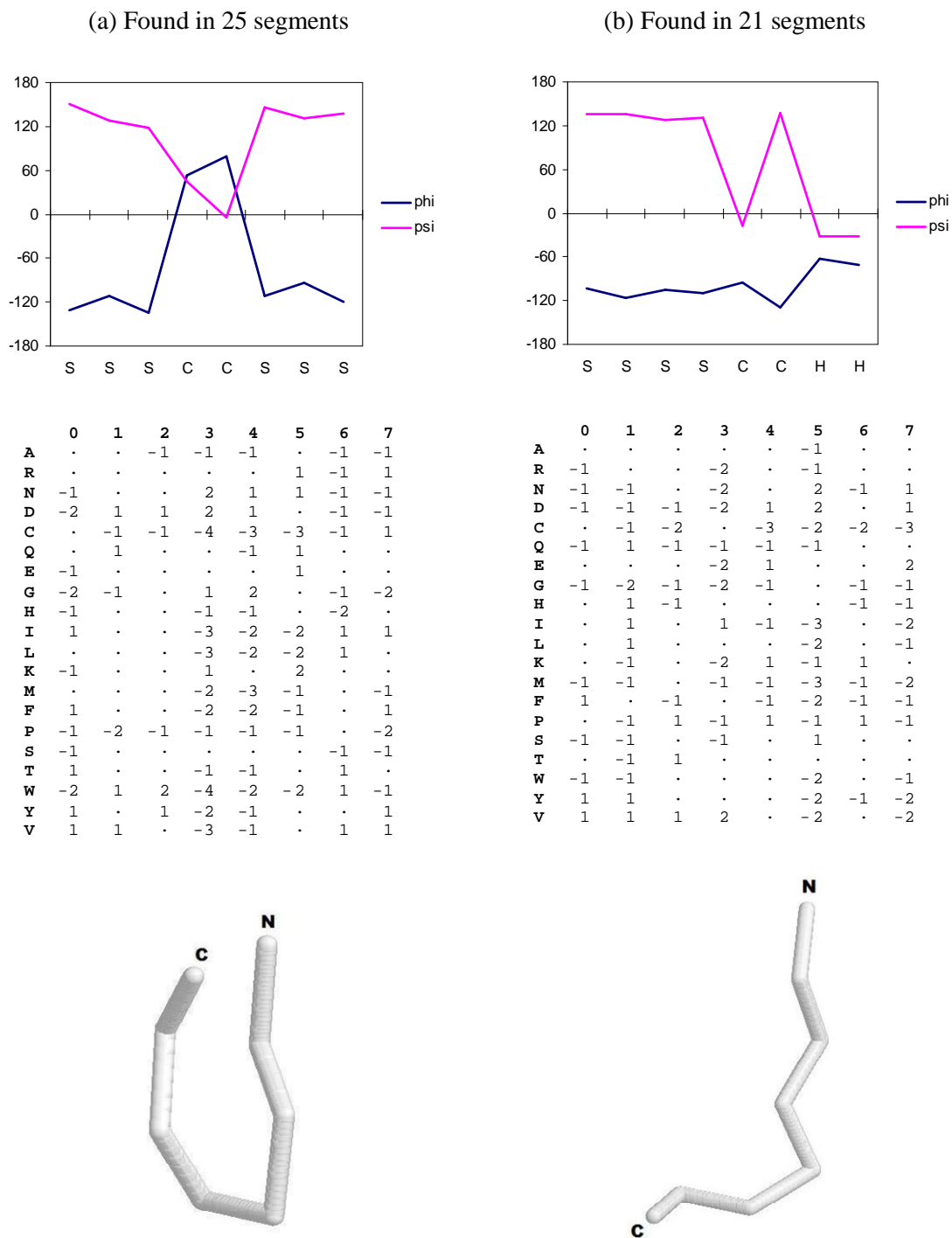


Figure 3.5: Dihedral angles, log-odds profiles, and 3D backbone drawings for two other novel motifs not listed in the I-sites Library. Dot (·) represents background frequency.

On the other hand, the motif in Figure 3.5(a) is very similar to the PDG beta-hairpin listed in the I-sites library. While both motifs possess the conserved sequence ASX-GLY, the PDG hairpin has an additional conserved PRO prefixing the sequence. Similar to the PDG hairpin, this motif also forms a hairpin by having two anti-parallel strands connected by a U-shaped turn. Finally, the motif in Figure 3.5(b) represents a turn linking a strand and a helix. It is characterized by a conserved hydrophilic residue at position 4 and an ASX at position 5. The preceding strand positions are mostly hydrophobic, indicating that the motif is likely to protrude from the protein interior.

These examples illustrate the competency of the clustering method at discovering local protein motifs, revealing their unique compositions, and identifying their relative locations within proteins. Note that it is difficult to conduct a fair comparison between clustering methods due to the vastly different settings. Nevertheless, given that the novel method was able to discover all motifs in the I-sites Library and more, one may conclude that it is comparable, if not better, than the method of Bystroff and Baker [20].

Chapter 4

Local Tertiary Structure Prediction

The first application of sequence-structure motif clusters is aimed at the prediction of local tertiary structures based on sequence composition alone, and a novel algorithm based on dynamic programming (DP) has been invented for that purpose. This section begins with the definition of *cluster assignment* and *assignment rank*, two important concepts appearing in the algorithm. It then describes the two preprocessing steps taken to improve the prediction capacity of a given cluster set, namely the removal of *noise clusters* and the enhancement to the cluster assignment scoring function. Finally, the prediction algorithm is covered in detail, and performance results gathered from a comprehensive experiment are presented.

4.1 Cluster Assignment and Assignment Rank

Scoring function $K_c(s)$, shown in Equation (4.1), computes the likelihood of a length- L segment s belonging to cluster c based on sequence composition. It is derived from the log-odds ratio of the probability of observing s given c to the background probability. Symbols s_{ij} and c_{ij} denote the

frequency of amino acid j at position i on s and c 's centroid respectively. Symbol b_j denotes the background frequency for amino acid j .

$$K_c(s) = \log_2 \left(\frac{\prod_{i=0}^{L-1} \sum_{j=0}^{19} s_{ij} c_{ij}}{\prod_{i=0}^{L-1} \sum_{j=0}^{19} s_{ij} b_j} \right) \quad (4.1)$$

The main purpose of the scoring function is for making *cluster assignments*. Another related concept that is equally important is the *assignment rank*. Both concepts are central to the algorithm for predicting local tertiary structure (Section 4.5) and enhancing secondary structure prediction (Section 5.1). Their definitions are as follows.

Definition 4.1.1 (Cluster assignment). A *cluster assignment*, or just *assignment*, refers to an instance when a cluster is assigned to a segment based on a score computed via Equation (4.1). The assignment is said to cover the segment and its residues. Each assignment has three basic attributes: the cluster being assigned, the segment being covered, and the score associated with the pair.

Definition 4.1.2 (Assignment rank). An algorithm utilizing an *assignment rank*, or just *rank*, of R means that the R highest scoring assignments are made to each segment for the task at hand. The highest scoring assignment is at rank 1, the second highest at rank 2, and so on.

4.2 Evaluation of Local Structure Prediction

The evaluation scheme for local tertiary structure prediction was invented by Lesk [51]. It takes two parameters, a window size w and a RMSD threshold t . Given a true structure and its

prediction, the scheme computes the percentage of residues found in length- w segments whose predicted structures are within t of the true structure after superposition [52]. The parameters used by Bystroff and Baker [20] are selected to facilitate comparison (i.e. $w = 8$ and $t = 1.4 \text{ \AA}$).

4.3 Noise Cluster Elimination

In a large cluster set, some weak clusters capturing rare motifs possess similar sequence profiles as do the significant clusters capturing more common motifs. Those weak clusters tend to compete with the significant clusters for sequence similarity with target segments during cluster assignment, degrading prediction accuracy. Because they create noise that disturbs prediction, those weak clusters are called *noise clusters* and should be eliminated.

Clusters produced by the algorithm described in Section 3.5 are of minimum size m . If m is set too small, many noise clusters arise. If it is set too large, significant clusters are lost. To determine m maximizing the predictive power for a set of clusters, the following method is used.

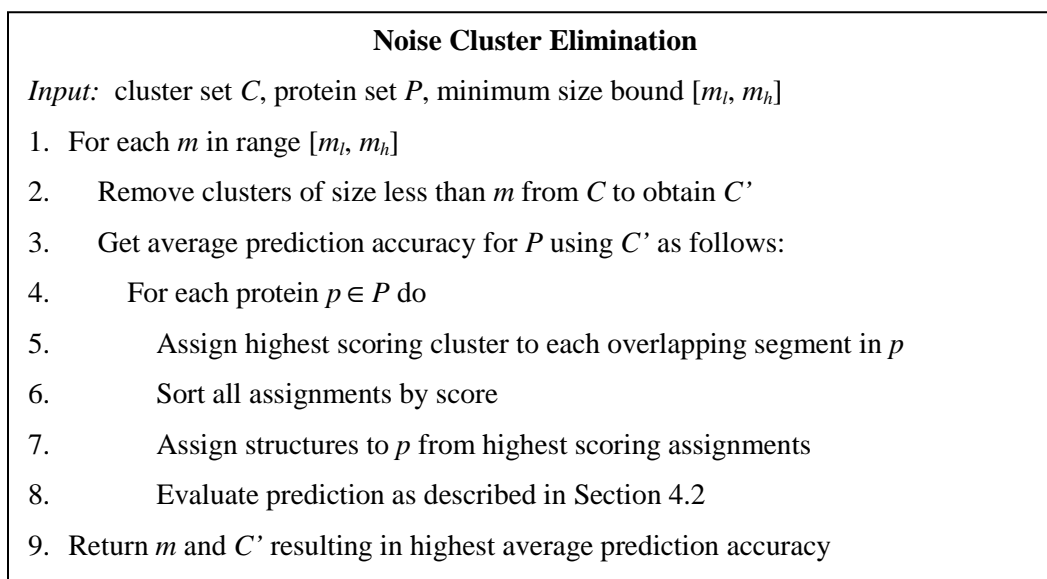


Figure 4.1: Outline of procedure for eliminating noise clusters

Figure 4.2 shows the fluctuation in prediction accuracy as m increased from 5 to 25 inclusive. While the prediction accuracy remained rather constant in the middle stretch, it rose and fell sharply at both ends. Prediction was compromised by the presence of noise clusters for small m (< 8) and the absence of significant clusters for large m (> 20). The optimal minimum cluster size was $m = 16$, yielding a prediction accuracy of 54.66%.



Figure 4.2: Fluctuation in prediction accuracy as minimum cluster size m rises from 5 to 25

4.4 An Enhanced Cluster Likelihood Function

As described in Section 4.1, cluster assignments are made based on similarity scores computed via the likelihood function shown in Equation (4.1). This section improves the function with the addition of a new term, as shown in Equation (4.2) below.

$$K_c(s) = \log_2 \left(\frac{\prod_{i=0}^{L-1} \sum_{j=0}^{19} s_{ij} c_{ij}}{\prod_{i=0}^{L-1} \sum_{j=0}^{19} s_{ij} b_j} \right) - base_c \quad (4.2)$$

The new term $base_c$ represents the *cluster-specific base cutoff* for cluster c . Equation (4.1) simply assumes a cutoff of 0 for all clusters, an intuitive choice for log-odds. The derivation of cluster-specific base cutoffs is based on a simple observation. The rarer the motif a cluster represents, the more likely that segments classified to the cluster are false positives (F^+), and the higher the cutoff has to be raised to avoid a high F^+ rate. In contrast, if a cluster represents a common motif, then segments not classified to it are likely to be false negatives (F^-), so the cutoff has to be lowered to suppress the F^- rate. The derivation procedure for the cutoffs is shown in Figure 4.3, where $sign(x)$ returns 1 if $x \geq 0$ or -1 otherwise.

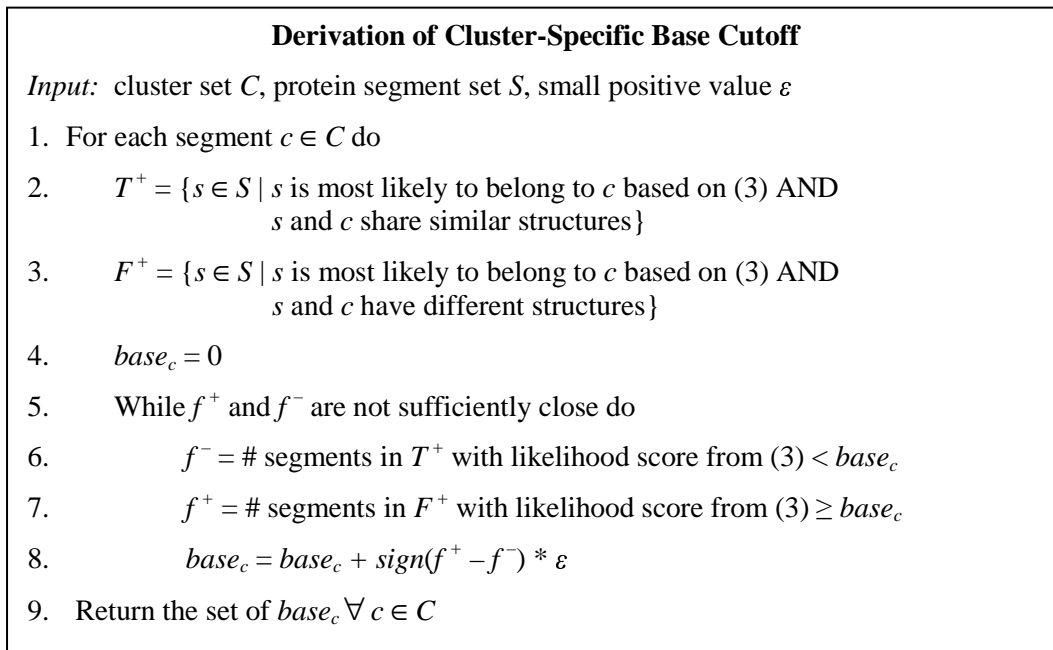


Figure 4.3: Outline of derivation procedure for cluster-specific base cutoffs

Recall from Figure 4.2 that the highest accuracy reached was 54.66% for $m = 16$. Once switched to Equation (4.2), the accuracy climbed to 56.7%. Note that the forthcoming definition is to override Definition 4.1.1 for the remainder of this thesis. The only difference is that Definition 4.1.1 refers to Equation (4.1) while the new definition refers to Equation (4.2).

Definition 4.4.1 (Cluster assignment). A *cluster assignment*, or just *assignment*, refers to an instance when a cluster is assigned to a segment based on a score computed via Equation (4.2). The assignment is said to cover the segment and its residues. Each assignment has three basic attributes: the cluster being assigned, the segment being covered, and the score associated with the pair.

4.5 Local Structure Prediction using Dynamic Programming

Let R be the assignment rank, L be the segment length, and p be the target protein of length n . The initial setup for the algorithm involves making the R highest scoring cluster assignments to each overlapping length- L segment along p . Let a_{ir} denote the assignment at rank r starting at position i , where $1 \leq r \leq R$ and $0 \leq i \leq n-L$. Define $A_i = \{a_{ir} \forall r\}$ and $A = \{a_{ir}\}$. The set A , depicted in Figure 4.4(a), forms the entire search space for the algorithm.

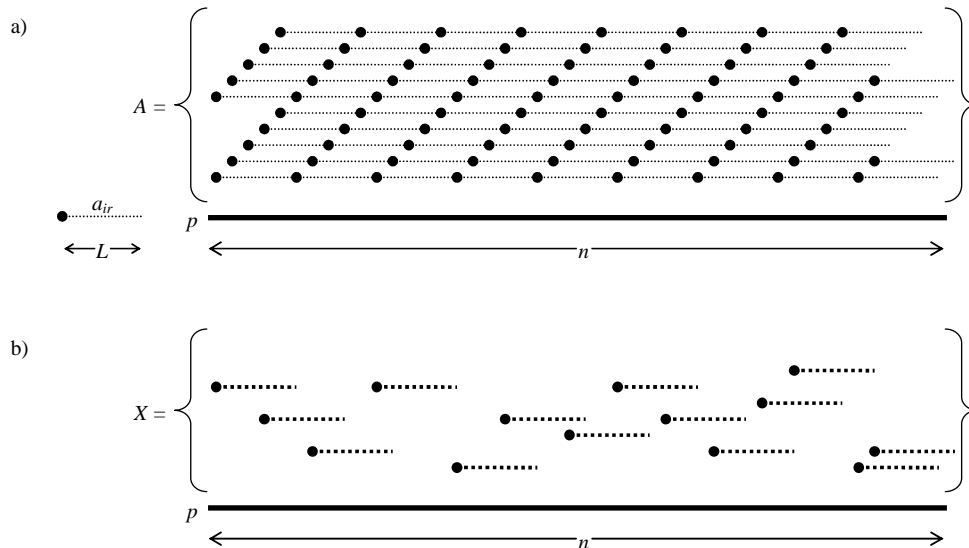


Figure 4.4: (a) Assignment set A consists of all individual assignments a_{ir} of length L covering target protein p of length n . Assignment rank R is 2, the number of assignments made to each overlapping length- L segment in p . Each assignment a_{ir} , represented as a big dot (\bullet) with a dotted tail, covers residues i to $i+L-1$ inclusive. (b) X is a subset of A that covers all residues in p , formed by linking adjoining assignments together.

The goal is to compute a subset $X^* \subseteq A$ such that X^* covers all residues in p and maximizes a certain objective function. An example of a legitimate candidate subset X is shown in Figure 4.4(b). The objective function is derived in light of two observations. First, the cluster assignment most appropriately capturing the shape of a segment might not always be the optimal (i.e. highest scoring) one but a sub-optimal one. Second, if overlapping assignments have serious structural conflicts among themselves, then they should not be adopted together. Having taken both factors into consideration, Equation (4.3) is proposed as the objective function for measuring the quality of an assignment set X when used to form a prediction for a protein of length n .

$$F(X) = q \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} score(X, i) - \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} conflict(X, i) \quad (4.3)$$

Function $F(X)$ returns the objective score for assignment set X . Symbol q is a non-negative constant for balancing the two parts representing the total score and conflict induced by X . It is set to 70 in this study, a value found empirically to yield one of the best predictions. Functions $score(X, i)$ and $conflict(X, i)$ are defined in Equation (4.4) and Equation (4.5) respectively.

$$score(X, i) = \begin{cases} \text{score of highest scoring assignment in } X \text{ covering residue } i, \text{ or} \\ 0 \text{ if no assignment in } X \text{ covers residue } i \end{cases} \quad (4.4)$$

$$conflict(X, i) = \begin{cases} \overline{\Delta\phi} + \overline{\Delta\psi} \text{ between all pairs of assignments in } X \text{ at positions} \\ \text{covering residue } i, \text{ or} \\ 0 \text{ if at most 1 assignment in } X \text{ covers residue } i \end{cases} \quad (4.5)$$

Symbols $\overline{\Delta\phi}$ and $\overline{\Delta\psi}$ denote the mean absolute difference in phi and psi angles respectively.

Now, the algorithm is to take a dynamic programming (DP) approach to compute the assignment set X^* that covers all residues in p and is optimal (i.e. maximizing objective function F).

Assignment sets are built starting from the head of p by appending or concatenating to the end one adjoining assignment at a time. Note that simply extending the current optimal set by adding to its tail the best available adjoining assignment does not guarantee optimality for the resultant set. The assignment just added may overlap with existing assignments in the set, introducing new conflicts that must be fixed by replacing those assignments, which in turn may cause more new conflicts with their prior overlapping assignments and necessitate further replacements. To avoid such propagation of conflict, a more involved DP algorithm is needed.

When any assignment $\alpha \in A_i$ is appended to the end of assignment set X , it would come in contact with one or more trailing assignments in X . The relative arrangement of these trailing assignments and their ranks collectively form the *tail configuration* for X with respect to $\alpha \in A_i$, denoted by $tail_i(X)$. Note that $tail_i(X)$ is defined to be an *empty tail configuration* if X is too short to reach any assignment in A_i . For formulation purposes, $tail_j(X)$ is allowed for $j > n-L$ as if A_j actually existed. Figure 4.5 shows the set of all possible non-empty tail configurations for $L = 3$ and $R = 1$ with respect to α , the assignment to be appended.

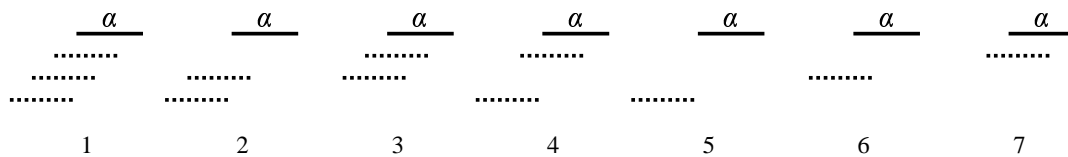


Figure 4.5: All seven unique non-empty tail configurations for $L = 3$ and $R = 1$. Each line denotes an assignment. In each case, α (solid line) is the assignment to be appended to a set X , and the set of all trailing assignments in X touched by α (dotted lines) forms the tail configuration w.r.t. α .

For each position i starting from the head of p , the algorithm computes V_i , the set of all optimal assignment sets X with unique non-empty $tail_{i+1}(X)$. The DP recurrence for the algorithm is stated in Figure 4.6.

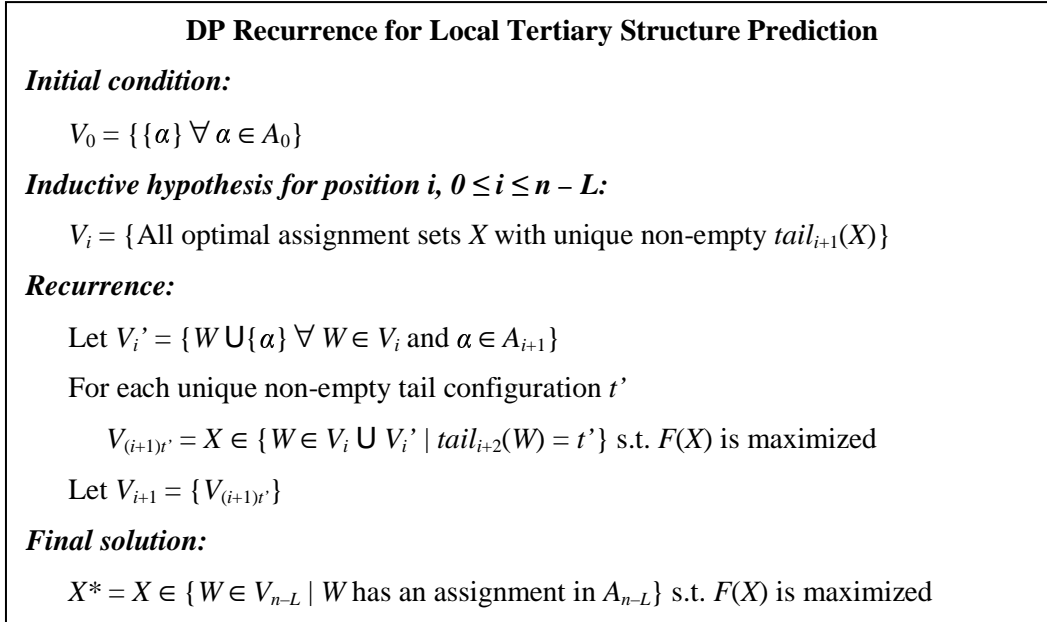


Figure 4.6: DP recurrence for local tertiary structure prediction

The recurrence ensures the optimality for each $V_{(i+1)t'}$, and the uniqueness and non-emptiness of the associated tail configuration t' , so the inductive hypothesis holds for position $i+1$. Finally, dihedral angles are assigned to the residues in p by back-tracking the creation of X^* .

4.6 Time Complexity of DP Algorithm

A bound on the size of V_i is required in order to analyze the time complexity of the DP algorithm just described. By definition, $|V_i|$ is at most the total number of all unique non-empty tail configurations. Figure 4.5 lists all seven possible unique non-empty tail configurations for segment length $L = 3$ and assignment rank $R = 1$ with respect to assignment α . For general L and R , note that when α is appended to an assignment set X , it could be touching anywhere from 1 to L trailing assignments in X , each of which is selected from a pool of size R . Further, the k trailing assignments being touched could be any k out of a total of L . Let T_k represent the number of

unique non-empty tail configurations comprising k assignments. It can be computed as follows according to basic counting principles:

$$T_k = \binom{L}{k} R^k \quad (4.6)$$

Summing all T_k gives the total number of unique non-empty tail configurations T :

$$T = \sum_{k=1}^L T_k = \sum_{k=1}^L \binom{L}{k} R^k = \sum_{k=0}^L \binom{L}{k} R^k - 1 = (R+1)^L - 1 \quad (4.7)$$

Consequently, the bound $|V_i| \leq T = (R+1)^L - 1$ holds. For each position i , the algorithm calculates the objective value for $|V_i| * R$ new assignment sets, where each calculation takes $O(L^3)$ if done carefully. Hence, the total runtime is $O(n |V_i| R L^3) = O(n L^3 (R+1)^{L+1})$ for all n positions. Despite the exponential term, typical values for R and L are small enough to make the algorithm feasible (e.g. $R = 3$ and $L = 8$ in this study).

4.7 Experiments and Results

4.7.1 Rotation Test

The four protein sets used for training and testing in this test were the testing set of 55 proteins used by Bystroff and Baker (BB55) [20], the training set of 126 proteins introduced by Rost and Sander (RS126) [37], the testing set of 187 proteins for PSIPRED (PP187) [14], and finally the testing set of 396 proteins selected by Cuff and Barton (CB396) [49]. A listing of the proteins in each data set can be found in Appendix B.

The test method started by picking one set to be the training set for cluster creation and using the rest as testing sets. After gathering results, the method rotated the sets such that a different set became the training set and the others became testing sets. The method continued until all sets had been used for training. Doing such rotation helped avoid biased results due to dataset-dependency and test data insufficiency. Assignment rank R was set to 3 throughout the test. The results are summarized in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1: Prediction accuracy of the DP algorithm obtained from the rotation test, evaluated using the scheme described in Section 4.2. “Min. Size” refers to the optimal minimum size as described in Section 4.3, and “# Clusters” refers to the number of clusters with at least the minimum size.

Train- ing Set	Min. Size / # Clusters	Testing Set	Helix Accuracy	Strand Accuracy	Coil Accuracy	Overall Accuracy	Average
BB55	7 / 40	RS126	81.39%	55.05%	43.25%	58.35%	58.00%
		PP187	78.56%	51.71%	41.61%	56.86%	
		CB396	80.26%	52.95%	43.21%	58.78%	
RS126	10 / 58	BB55	79.37%	54.01%	40.61%	57.74%	58.32%
		PP187	80.80%	52.43%	41.61%	57.81%	
		CB396	82.52%	53.03%	42.75%	59.42%	
PP187	7 / 161	BB55	79.26%	49.18%	41.83%	57.22%	58.52%
		RS126	83.95%	51.75%	43.46%	58.49%	
		CB396	83.28%	50.47%	44.51%	59.84%	
CB396	16 / 164	BB55	84.58%	46.31%	43.71%	59.39%	59.88%
		RS126	87.69%	48.05%	45.41%	59.69%	
		PP187	87.17%	48.56%	44.96%	60.55%	
Average			82.40%	51.13%	43.08%	58.68%	

4.7.2 Jackknife Test

Since the data sets used in the rotation test (i.e. PP55, RS126, PP187, and CB396) were selected independently, members in different sets might be highly similar or even identical. Such overlaps could have inflated the prediction accuracy and thus prevented the rotation test from impartially

evaluating the performance of the algorithm. As a remedy, a jackknife test ensuring absolutely no overlaps between training and testing sets was conducted.

The jackknife test was performed on CB396 [49], a set of 396 peptides selected through a very stringent procedure to ensure non-redundancy between members. The entire test consisted of 10 iterations, each of which involved splitting CB396 into two disjoint subsets in 80/20 ratio by residue count. The larger subset was then used for training and the smaller one for testing.

Note that testing sets containing more helices tend to yield higher accuracies than those containing more coils. Consequently, for results to be consistent, all testing sets should contain similar proportions of each secondary structure (SS). To guarantee such condition, the background proportion of each SS was first estimated from the whole CB396. Each repetition of the jackknife test then produced 50 pairs of training and testing sets, and used the pair whose testing set exhibited SS proportions most closely resembling the background ones. Table 4.2 shows the results from the jackknife test, using the same assignment rank as the rotation test (i.e. $R = 3$).

Table 4.2: Prediction accuracy of the DP algorithm obtained from a ten-iteration jackknife test and evaluated using the scheme described in Section 4.2.

Jackknife Test Iteration #	Helix Accuracy	Strand Accuracy	Coil Accuracy	Overall Accuracy
1	86.22%	44.91%	40.58%	58.51%
2	84.54%	39.61%	40.52%	56.19%
3	84.27%	44.71%	41.07%	58.03%
4	84.65%	43.22%	40.19%	57.45%
5	86.12%	43.63%	42.87%	59.15%
6	88.11%	42.92%	43.05%	59.69%
7	84.83%	44.35%	40.99%	57.76%
8	84.94%	43.98%	42.90%	58.83%
9	86.09%	43.22%	42.78%	58.86%
10	83.68%	45.30%	40.61%	57.62%
Average	85.35%	43.59%	41.56%	58.21%

Average accuracy obtained in the rotation test (i.e. 58.68%) is higher than that obtained in the jackknife test (i.e. 58.21%). If overlaps between data sets were responsible for the slight difference of 0.47%, then this test would confirm the negligibility of the overlaps and uphold the validity of the results in the rotation test. Additionally, this test has also illustrated the consistent performance of the algorithm as similar accuracies were observed across all iterations.

4.7.3 Discussion

Both tests have shown that over 58% of all residues on average were found in at least one length-8 segment whose predicted structure was within 1.4 Å of the true structure, measured in RMSD. This is significant considering that the prediction relied solely on sequence information, without taking into account global forces such as disulfide bridges, hydrophobic effects, inter-group charges, and so on. The result is also a great improvement over that published by Bystroff and Baker [20], which was 50% (see Section 2.2.2). Although the method of Wang and Yang [21] produced better numerical results, it used over 100K motif clusters and yielded only approximate predictions (see Section 2.2.3). The algorithm described here, for example, used at most 164 clusters in the rotation test and produced predictions with precise backbone conformations. Taking all the factors into consideration, both methods would be very much comparable.

While all four training sets yielded similar results according to Table 4.1, a general trend existed in which the more clusters the training involved, the higher the average accuracy reached. Besides overlaps between data sets, which have been deemed insubstantial by the jackknife test, another possible reason would be that a larger cluster set constituted a larger conformational search space and consequently contributed to better predictions. The real surprising observation, however, is that the number of clusters had only minimal effects on the prediction accuracy. For instance, using a set of 40 clusters (created from BB55) yielded 58% accuracy, while using

another with 164 clusters (created from CB396) yielded 60% accuracy. Although the difference of nearly 2% was significant, one might have expected more given the large deviation in cluster counts. The likely explanation is that the larger clusters were already sufficient to account for the common structures in the test proteins, leaving the smaller clusters to handle only the rarer shapes. This in turn confirms the effectiveness of the clustering method described in Chapter 3, as the larger clusters produced were indeed able to capture the majority of protein conformations.

A breakdown in overall prediction accuracy in both tests by secondary structure states reveals the real strengths and weaknesses of prediction using clusters. Helices were by far the most accurately predicted because they were the most conserved and abundant local motifs. Strands, albeit well conserved, were a lot harder to predict as their formation involved long-range residue interactions, something not captured by local motif clusters. Coils were the most difficult to predict since most of them lacked virtually any kind of detectable conserved patterns.

Chapter 5

Secondary Structure Prediction

The second application of sequence-structure motif clusters deals with enhancing secondary structure (SS) prediction. The target predictor [39] is the one based on Support Vector Machines (SVM) [42], so selected because it is one of the best available. As an overview, the procedure involves building a *Secondary Structure Confidence Profile (SSCP)* and using it as additional data for training and classification.

5.1 Secondary Structure Confidence Profile (SSCP)

The SSCP of a protein shows the confidence, or probability, of each residue being in each of the three SS states, namely helix (H), strand (E), and coil (C). Figure 5.1 shows the SSCP for a section of the protein identified as 1LCL in PDB.

<i>Seq</i>	P	Y	T	E	A	A	S	L	S	T	G	S	T	V	T	...
<i>Helix</i>	0.40	0.46	0.36	0.36	0.31	0.28	0.22	0.21	0.09	0.04	0.05	0.03	0.03	0.03	0.03	...
<i>Strand</i>	0.27	0.32	0.29	0.31	0.31	0.33	0.38	0.30	0.14	0.10	0.11	0.20	0.84	0.89	0.90	...
<i>Coil</i>	0.33	0.22	0.35	0.33	0.38	0.39	0.40	0.49	0.77	0.86	0.84	0.77	0.13	0.08	0.07	...

Figure 5.1: Secondary structure confidence profile (SSCP) for a section of protein 1LCL

Let R be the assignment rank and p be the target protein. The procedure for generating SSCP starts by making the R highest scoring assignments to each overlapping segment in p . Then, for each residue i and SS label $s \in \{H, E, C\}$, it computes $score_{is}$ by summing the scores of all assignments covering i with label s at the covering position. The value $score_{is}$ is then normalized to obtain ssc_{is} , the SS confidence for i belonging to state s . That is, $ssc_{is} = score_{is} / (score_{iH} + score_{iE} + score_{iC})$. The set of all ssc_{is} constitutes the SSCP for p .

5.2 Training of SVM Binary Classifiers

The training procedure is similar to the one used by Hua and Sun [39]. Fix a window half-width h such that each residue is represented by the sequence profile spanning $(2h + 1)$ columns, with the said residue in the middle. Each column is coded using 21 entries, where the extra entry is set when the window is extended beyond the ends of a protein [53]. Together, each residue is coded by a total of $(2h + 1) * 21$ entries. When SSCP is incorporated into training, each column is coded with four additional entries. Each of the first three holds the SSCP confidence value for a different SS state, and the last is again set for the case when the window is extended beyond the ends of a protein. Hence, each residue is now coded by a total of $(2h + 1) * 25$ entries. The conceptual view of training with and without SSCP is shown in Figure 5.2.

5.3 SVM Predictor Construction

Hua and Sun [39] have demonstrated that the arrangement of SVM binary classifiers has a significant impact on the performance of the resultant SS predictor. This study has adopted an arrangement called *SVM MAX*, one of the most effective arrangements among those Hua and Sun have considered. *SVM MAX* comprises three SVM binary classifiers, namely H/~H, E/~E, and

C/~C. Each target residue is fed in parallel to all three classifiers, and assigned the SS label corresponding to the one giving the largest decision value. For optimal prediction, the half-width h for the three classifiers is set to 5, 4, and 3 respectively.

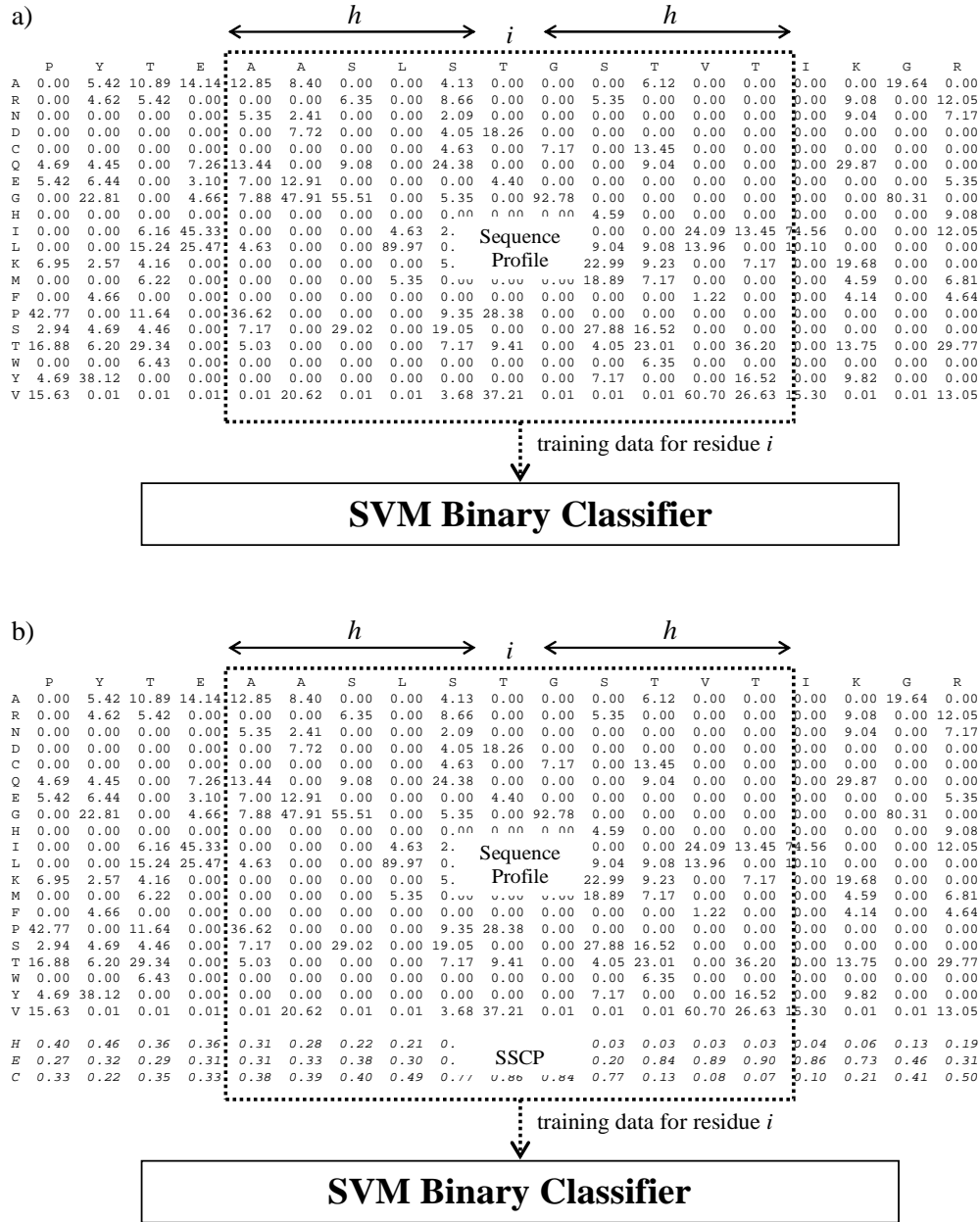


Figure 5.2: Conceptual view of training SVM binary classifier for SS prediction ($h = 5$). (a) Training with sequence profile alone. (b) Training with sequence profile and SSCP.

5.4 Evaluation of Secondary Structure Prediction

The following metrics are used to measure the quality of SS prediction:

1. *The Three-state Single Residue Accuracy measure (Q_3)* has four components denoted by Q_H , Q_E , Q_C , and Q_3 . For $s \in \{H, E, C\}$, Q_s is the percentage of correctly predicted residues over all residues with observed label s . Q_3 is the overall accuracy calculated as the percentage of correctly predicted residues over the total in all three SS states.
2. *The Matthew's Correlation Coefficients (MCC)* [54] has three components denoted by C_H , C_E and C_C . Each of them is calculated from a formula that accounts for both over- and under-predictions. A perfect prediction yields a value of 1, while a random prediction yields a near zero or even negative value.
3. *The Segment Overlap (SOV)* is designed to evaluate SS prediction on a non-per-residue basis. The original version, invented in 1994 by Rost et al. [55], has two serious problems. First, it yields un-normalized values that have no defined upper-bound, making it difficult for comparison. Second, the extension factor δ is miscalculated, resulting in inflated values that do not truly reflect the prediction quality. Fortunately, both problems have been corrected in a re-definition of SOV in 1999 [56] by Zemla et al. Unless specified otherwise, the corrected version is intended whenever SOV is mentioned in the remainder of this thesis.

5.5 Experiments and Results

5.5.1 Rotation Test

The data sets and method for the rotation test were as described in Section 4.7.1, except that the training set was also used for SSCP generation and SVM training in addition to motif cluster

creation. Assignment rank R was set to 6. Parameters for SVM binary classifiers were 1.5 for error trade-off and 0.1 for γ in the radial basis function used as the kernel [42]. SVM^{light} [57] was extensively used throughout the experiment. The results are listed in Table 5.1.

Table 5.1: Prediction accuracy of SVM MAX trained without SSCP (top values) and trained with SSCP (bottom values) in the rotation test. Bolded pairs (3 instances) indicate a drop in accuracy after SSCP was used. A positive delta on the last row indicates an average improvement with SSCP (delta = average bottom value – average top value).

Training Set	Testing Set	Q ₃ (%)	Q _H (%)	Q _E (%)	Q _C (%)	C _H	C _E	C _C	SOV (%)
BB55	RS126	70.28	75.56	45.54	78.59	0.59	0.48	0.51	63.07
		73.01	79.61	53.80	77.44	0.65	0.55	0.53	67.82
	PP187	70.68	76.93	43.69	79.79	0.60	0.47	0.53	67.13
		72.78	79.80	50.31	78.76	0.64	0.52	0.55	68.86
	CB396	71.08	78.85	44.42	78.62	0.60	0.49	0.54	68.51
		73.05	81.35	50.13	78.03	0.65	0.53	0.55	69.37
RS126	BB55	70.47	71.85	52.70	77.84	0.58	0.48	0.53	67.53
		72.26	72.28	58.90	78.76	0.63	0.53	0.53	69.47
	PP187	71.45	74.13	51.71	79.77	0.62	0.49	0.54	68.16
		73.57	75.84	57.26	80.40	0.67	0.54	0.55	69.31
	CB396	70.87	75.13	50.97	77.91	0.60	0.49	0.53	68.35
		73.55	77.52	57.02	78.99	0.67	0.54	0.54	70.45
PP187	BB55	73.41	76.26	57.48	78.49	0.63	0.54	0.56	70.64
		75.37	77.62	61.85	79.85	0.67	0.58	0.58	72.05
	RS126	73.65	78.05	56.89	78.61	0.66	0.55	0.55	68.09
		75.78	80.39	61.91	79.10	0.71	0.58	0.56	71.14
	CB396	73.91	78.98	56.30	78.94	0.65	0.55	0.56	71.19
		76.24	81.36	61.12	79.86	0.71	0.60	0.58	72.62
CB396	BB55	75.73	78.47	59.55	81.03	0.67	0.59	0.59	73.30
		77.04	78.63	64.11	81.85	0.70	0.61	0.60	74.03
	RS126	72.96	76.47	56.51	78.50	0.65	0.54	0.53	67.15
		75.14	78.82	62.59	78.56	0.69	0.58	0.56	70.44
	PP187	75.47	78.58	58.42	81.96	0.69	0.58	0.58	71.39
		77.28	79.55	64.19	82.37	0.72	0.61	0.60	72.67
Average		72.50	76.61	52.85	79.17	0.63	0.52	0.55	68.71
		74.59	78.56	58.60	79.50	0.68	0.56	0.56	70.69
Delta		2.09	1.95	5.75	0.33	0.05	0.04	0.01	1.98

5.5.2 Jackknife Test

As described in Section 4.7.2, data sets in the rotation test were likely to contain overlaps and yield unjust results, so a jackknife test was needed to evaluate the genuine contribution of SSCP.

The data set (i.e. CB396) and method were as described in Section 4.7.2, except once again that each training set was used to generate SSCP and train SVM classifiers in addition to creating motif clusters. Assignment rank R and all parameters for SVM classifiers remained the same.

The results from the jackknife test and their averages are shown in Table 5.2.

Table 5.2: Prediction accuracy of SVM MAX trained without SSCP (top values) and trained with SSCP (bottom values) in a ten-iteration jackknife test. Bolded pairs (3 instances) indicate a drop in accuracy after SSCP was used. A positive delta on the last row indicates an average improvement with SSCP (delta = average bottom value – average top value).

Iteration	Q ₃ (%)	Q _H (%)	Q _E (%)	Q _C (%)	C _H	C _E	C _C	SOV (%)
1	72.15	74.30	55.44	78.49	0.63	0.51	0.53	68.57
	74.10	76.34	60.90	78.60	0.68	0.55	0.55	70.63
2	74.44	79.03	57.33	79.07	0.66	0.56	0.57	69.77
	75.97	78.85	63.39	79.86	0.69	0.59	0.58	71.58
3	71.94	80.36	50.26	76.87	0.64	0.51	0.53	69.50
	74.35	81.57	55.77	78.58	0.69	0.56	0.55	70.15
4	71.61	76.37	52.78	77.18	0.62	0.51	0.53	68.37
	73.29	76.92	58.07	77.99	0.65	0.54	0.54	70.52
5	72.36	77.21	52.96	78.32	0.65	0.51	0.54	70.23
	74.23	79.13	58.54	78.10	0.68	0.55	0.55	71.43
6	73.57	79.72	56.68	77.05	0.65	0.55	0.55	71.58
	75.84	81.89	61.96	77.79	0.71	0.59	0.57	73.01
7	72.09	78.23	52.07	77.62	0.64	0.51	0.53	70.11
	73.56	79.25	55.06	78.65	0.67	0.53	0.55	71.61
8	70.81	76.23	51.23	76.56	0.62	0.50	0.51	66.54
	72.86	77.50	56.07	77.80	0.66	0.53	0.53	68.57
9	73.13	76.25	56.36	79.52	0.64	0.55	0.55	70.78
	75.01	77.82	62.51	79.33	0.68	0.59	0.56	72.92
10	70.70	74.93	50.48	77.72	0.61	0.49	0.52	66.34
	72.86	77.24	56.39	77.72	0.65	0.53	0.54	67.97
Average	72.28	77.26	53.56	77.84	0.64	0.52	0.53	69.18
	74.21	78.65	58.87	78.44	0.68	0.56	0.55	70.84
Delta	1.93	1.39	5.31	0.60	0.04	0.04	0.02	1.66

The improvements (i.e. the deltas) in Table 5.1 are generally larger than those in Table 5.2. This is within expectation as overlaps between training and testing sets in the rotation test helped generate more reliable SSCP, which in turn contributed to greater improvements in SS prediction. The differences, however, are not significant. For instance, there has been a drop of only 8% in Q_3 and 16% in SOV going from the rotation test to the jackknife test. Hence, while being slightly biased, results from the rotation test can be considered valid.

5.5.3 Discussion

Both tests have shown that by combining SSCP with sequence profile for training and classification, SVM MAX predictor showed improvements in all Q_3 , MCC and SOV measures. Specifically, SSCP contributed to an average Q_3 improvement of 2.09% (from 72.50% to 74.59%) in the rotation test and 1.93% (from 72.28% to 74.21%) in the jackknife test. It did so by boosting the prediction accuracy for helixes and strands, the latter in particular. In other words, SSCP helped the predictor be more certain when determining if a residue was part of a helix or strand. Moreover, the use of SSCP also resulted in visible improvements in all aspects of MCC and SOV, regardless of tests and data sets.

Unfortunately, improvements to Q_C and C_C were only minimal. After all, clusters could only capture regions with strong sequence-structure correlations, a condition excluding most coils. Consequently, cluster assignments made to segments along coil regions were mostly incorrect, leading to unreliable SS confidence values and subsequently the negligible increase in coil prediction accuracies.

Chapter 6

Conclusion and Future Work

6.1 Approximation Algorithm for Tertiary Structure Prediction

Recall from Section 4.6 that the DP algorithm for local tertiary structure prediction has a runtime of $O(n L^3 (R+1)^{L+1})$, where n is the length of the target protein, L is the segment length, and R is the assignment rank. The exponential term restricts R to a small value such as 3 in this study. Note that a larger R means a larger conformational search space (see Figure 4.4(a)) and possibly better predictions as a result. Unfortunately, while a large value of R such as 10 or more might be desirable, it would lead to a prohibitive execution time.

To draw a balance, a viable option would be to develop an approximate DP algorithm that sacrifices optimality for an execution time allowing larger values of R . An example that has been considered is a “greedy” DP algorithm. For each assignment α to be appended, the algorithm keeps track of the $R * L$ assignment sets such that the last assignment in every set touches α . The greedy nature comes in when α is appended to the set such that the resultant set yields the highest objective score. While the optimality for the final prediction is lost, the runtime

requirement is only $O(nR^2L^3)$. Unfortunately, the option has not been further investigated since proving an approximation guarantee for the algorithm would be another research topic on its own.

6.2 A Better DP Objective Function

There is one aspect regarding the current DP objective function (i.e. Equation (4.3)) that might require some major refinement. For convenience, the objective function is restated in Equation (6.1) below. Please refer to Section 4.5 for further details.

$$F(X) = q \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \text{score}(X, i) - \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \text{conflict}(X, i) \quad (6.1)$$

Function *conflict* might not always have appropriately reflected the structural disagreement between overlapping assignments in some circumstance. Recall from Section 4.5 that *conflict*(X, i) returns the average dihedral angle difference between all pairs of overlapping assignments in X covering position i . Assume for now that there are only two assignments α_1 and α_2 in X covering position i , and at that position the *phi* angles are 0° and 100° for α_1 and α_2 respectively⁴. By definition, *conflict*(X, i) returns $|100^\circ - 0^\circ| / 1 = 100^\circ$. If another assignment α_3 is subsequently appended to X to produce X' such that it covers position i with a *phi* angle of 50° , then *conflict*(X', i) only returns $(|100^\circ - 0^\circ| + |100^\circ - 50^\circ| + |50^\circ - 0^\circ|) / 3 = 66.67^\circ$. In other words, the addition of α_3 has “harmonized” α_1 and α_2 by partially hiding their serious structural disagreement, which is certainly flawed. Improving the objective function by minimizing or even eliminating the deficiency is the key to achieving better predictions.

⁴ WLOG, *psi* angles have been ignored for simplicity.

motif of size n would comprise n local sequence-structure motifs and up to $(n)(n-1)/2$ interactions among the n motifs. Figure 6.2 shows an instance of non-local motif x of size $n = 2$.

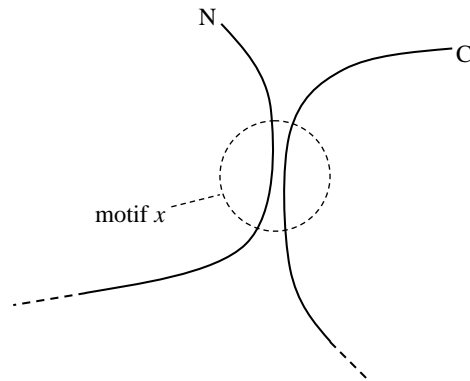


Figure 6.2: Motif x capturing the distant interaction between two stretches of the same protein, where 'N' and 'C' denote the N and C termini respectively

One method for discovering non-local motifs of size n is to extract all local sequence-structure motifs, select all n -tuples of mutually interacting local motifs, and perform clustering on the resultant n -tuples. The primary issue with the extraction of non-local motifs is that there might not be sufficient training data (i.e. resolved protein structures) to give rise to any significant motifs, even for $n = 2$. Other issues may also arise such as those concerning the measurement of distances between n -tuples of segments and the determination of a suitable similarity threshold. In spite of all the issues, extraction of non-local motifs is worth exploring as a systemic way for categorizing and analyzing long-range interactions. In the future, non-local motifs might even be combined with the local ones to directly predict global tertiary structures.

6.5 Conclusion

The partition of short protein segments into clusters of local sequence-structure motifs has profound applications. It effectively reveals the composition and fold characterizing each motif,

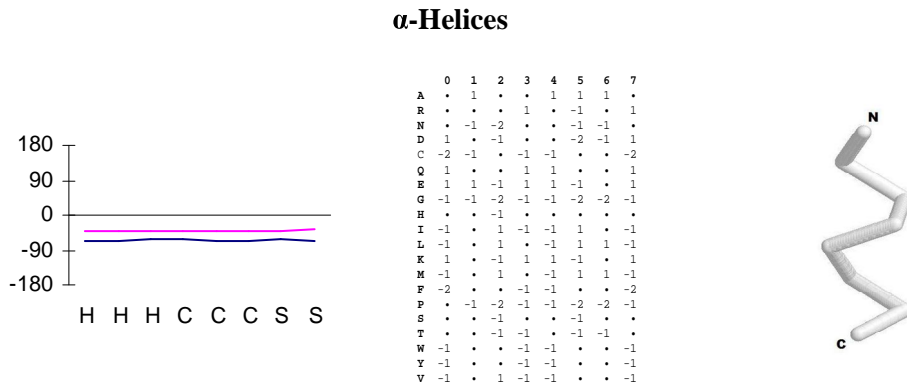
enabling the inference of structural formation and functional role. Besides biological studies, these motif clusters achieve discretization of protein conformational space and provide an adequate mapping between sequence and structure, all contributing to the success of their employment to both secondary and tertiary structure prediction. The promising results obtained in this study could mark the beginning of a wide range of potential applications for motif clusters, which include fold recognition, domain detection, functional annotation, and structural correction for NMR and X-ray Crystallography.

Appendix A

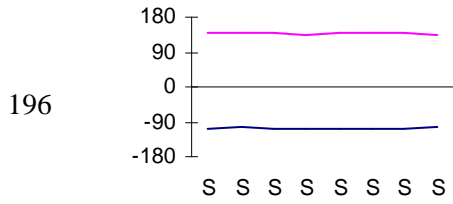
Listing of Sequence-Structure Motifs

This appendix presents some significant sequence-structure motifs discovered by clustering the set of proteins known as CB396 [49]. Each entry shows the number of segments exhibiting the motif, the dihedral angle plot, the log-odds profile, and the 3D backbone drawing. In each dihedral angle plot, the *phi* angle is denoted by a blue (dark) line and the *psi* angle is denoted by a magenta (light) line. Please refer to Section 3.6 for further details.

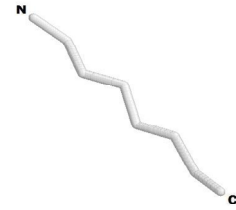
511



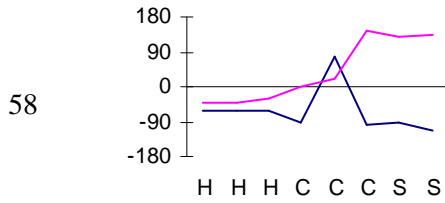
β-Strands



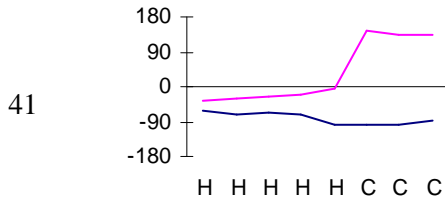
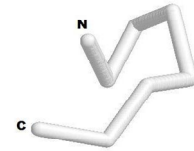
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D	.	.	-2	.	-1	.	.	.
C	-1	-1	-3	-2	-2	-2	-2	-1
Q	.	.	-1	.	-1	-1	1	.
E	-1	1	-1	.	.	-1	1	.
G	-2	-1	-1	-1	.	2	.	.
H	-1	-1	-1	1	.	.	1	-2
I	2	.	1	.	-2	-3	-2	-1
L	.	.	1	.	.	-1	-2	-1
K	.	.	-1	.	.	.	-1	.
M	.	.	.	1	1	-1	.	-2
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P	-1	.	-1	1	2	.	.	1
S	-1	1	1
T	.	1	-1	-1	.	.	-1	1
W	.	.	-2	-2	1	-3	-2	-1
Y	.	-1	-2	-1	.	-2	.	.
V	1	.	1	.	-1	-2	-1	.



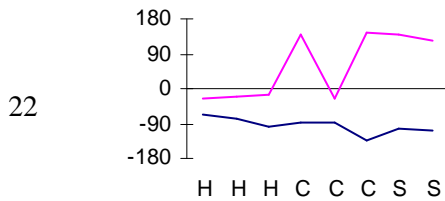
Helix C-Caps



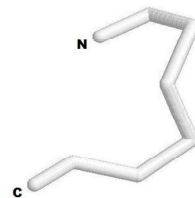
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E	1	1	-1	-1	1	-1	.	1
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T	.	.	-1	-1	.	-1	-1	.
W	-1	.	.	-1	-1	.	.	-1
Y	-1	.	.	-1	-1	.	.	-1
V	-1	.	1	-1	-1	.	.	-1

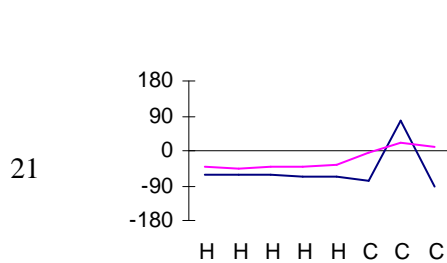


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N	.	-1	.	.	1	.	.	.
D	1	-1	.	1	.	-1	.	1
C	-3	-1	-1	-3	-1	-1	-1	.
Q	1	.	.	1	.	.	.	-1
E	1	.	.	1
G	-1	-1	-1	-1	-1	-1	-1	-1
H	-1	.	.	.	1	.	.	.
I	-1	1	.	-1	-1	1	-1	.
L	.	1	1	-1	-1	1	-1	.
K	1	.	.	1	1	.	1	.
M	.	.	-1	.	.	.	-1	.
F	-1	.
P	.	-1	.	.	.	-1	2	1
S
T	-1	-1	.	-1
W	-1	1	-1	.	-2	-3	-1	1
Y	-1	-1
V	-1	.	.	-2	-1	1	-1	.

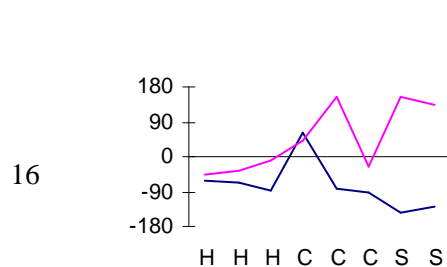
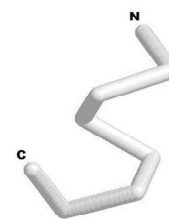


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D	-1	.	.	-1	1	.	-1	-2
C	-1	-3	.	.	-2	-1	-1	.
Q	.	1	1	-2
E	.	1	.	-1	.	1	.	-1
G	-2	-1	-1	-1	.	-1	-2	-1
H	-1	.	1	.	.	1	.	.
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S	.	1	-1
T	.	-1	-1	-1	.	-1	.	-1
W	-1	-2	.	-1	-1	-1	-2	.
Y	.	.	1	.	-2	1	.	.
V	1	-1	-1	1	-1	.	1	1

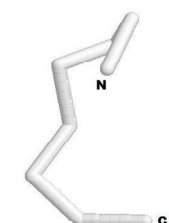




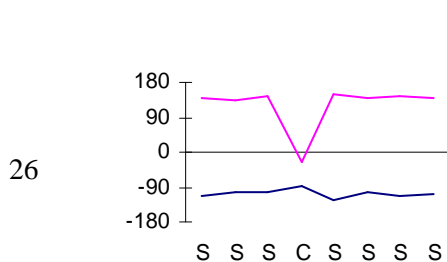
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C	-1	-3	-1	.	-5	-4	-2	-5
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E	.	1	.	.	1	1	.	1
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K	.	1	.	.	1	.	.	1
M	1	.	1	1	.	.	-2	-1
F	.	.	1	-1	-3	-2	-1	.
P	.	-2	-1	-2	-2	.	-1	1
S	-1	.	.	-1	-1	.	.	.
T	-1	-1	.	-1	-1	.	-1	.
W	-1	-1	-2	2	-3	-2	-5	-2
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V	1	-2	-1	.	-1	-2	-1	-1



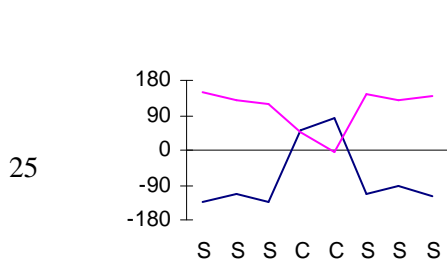
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D	.	.	-2	1	-2	2	.	-11
C	-2	-2	-1	-3	1	-4	-1	-1
Q	1	1	.	1	-3	1	-1	-7
E	1	1	-2	.	-2	.	.	-5
G	-1	-1	-2	2	-2	-2	1	-4
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L	.	-1	.	-2
K	2	1	.	1	.	1	-1	-11
M	-1	.	.	-2	-2	-3	.	.
F	-3	-2	1	-4	.	-2	-1	.
P	-2	-2	-1	.	2	-1	-3	-4
S	.	.	-1	-1	-1	.	.	-1
T	-1	.	1	-2	-2	.	-1	-1
W	-4	-3	-1	-11	-2	-1	-3	-3
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Inter-Strand Turns and Hairpins

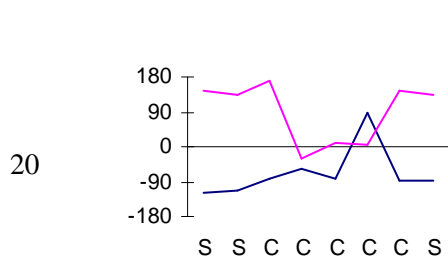


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N	-1	.	.	.	1	-1	-2	.
D	-1	.	-1	1	.	-1	-1	-1
C	-2	-1	-1	-2	-5	-4	-2	-1
Q	.	1	-1	.	1	.	.	.
E	.	1	-1	1	1	.	.	.
G	-1	-2	.	.	.	-2	-1	-2
H	-1	1	-1	-1
I	.	.	.	-1	-1	1	1	1
L	.	.	.	-1	-2	1	.	.
K	.	.	.	1	1	.	.	.
M	-1	.	-1	-1	-2	-1	.	-1
F	1	.	-1	-2	-1	.	1	.
P	1	-1	1	.
S	.	.	1	1	1	.	.	.
T	.	1	.	1	.	.	.	1
W	.	.	-4	-3	.	-2	-4	-2
Y	.	.	1	-1	.	-2	1	.
V	.	.	1	.	-1	1	1	1

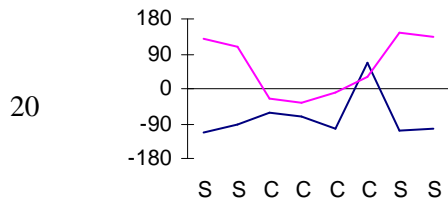
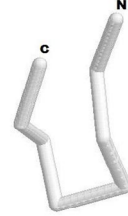


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N	-1	.	.	2	1	1	-1	-1
D	-2	1	1	1	1	.	-1	-1
C	.	-1	-1	-4	-3	-3	-1	1
Q	.	1	.	.	-1	1	.	.
E	-1	1	.	.
G	-2	-1	.	.	1	2	.	-1
H	-1	.	.	-1	-1	.	-2	.
I	1	.	.	.	-3	-2	-2	1
L	-3	-2	-2	1
K	-1	.	.	1	.	2	.	.
M	.	.	.	-2	-3	-1	.	-1
F	1	.	.	-2	-2	-1	.	1
P	-1	-2	-1	-1	-1	-1	.	-2
S	-1	-1	-1
T	1	.	.	-1	-1	.	1	.
W	-2	1	2	-4	-2	-2	1	-1
Y	1	.	1	-2	-1	.	.	1
V	1	1	.	-3	-1	.	1	1

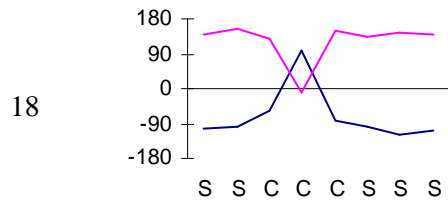
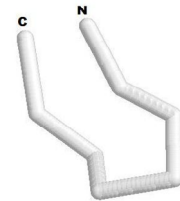




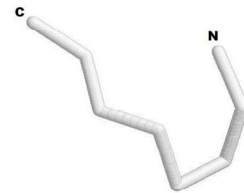
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N	-1	-1	1	1	2	1	1	-1
D	-2	-2	2	1	2	-1	.	-1
C	.	-1	-1	-1	-4	-2	-2	.
Q	-2	.	.	.	1	-1	1	-1
E	-1	.	.	1	1	-1	1	-1
G	-1	-1	-1	.	.	3	.	-2
H	-1	.	-1	-1	.	-1	.	.
I	1	1	-2	-2	-2	-2	-1	.
L	1	1	-1	-2	-2	-1	-1	.
K	-1	1	.	1	.	.	1	.
M	.	.	-1	-2	-3	-1	-1	.
F	1	.	-1	-1	-3	-2	-2	.
P	-2	-1	-1	1	-2	-1	-1	2
S	-1	-1	.	.	.	-1	.	-1
T	-1	.	2	.	1	-1	.	.
W	1	-2	.	-11	-11	-2	-3	.
Y	1	.	-1	-2	-2	-2	-2	.
V	1	1	-2	-1	-3	-2	-1	1



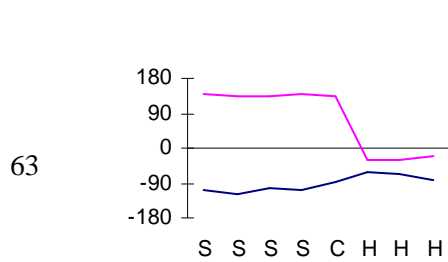
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D	-2	2	.	1	1	1	-1	-1
C	-1	-2	-2	-2	-2	-5	-1	-2
Q	-1	-1	.	1	-1	1	1	.
E	-1	-1	1	.	.	.	1	.
G	-2	-1	-1	.	.	2	-2	-2
H	.	.	-1	.	.	.	-1	-1
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M	-1	-2	.	-2	-1	.	-3	1
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P	.	-1	2	-1	-1	-2	-2	-3
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T	.	-1	.	.	2	-2	.	1
W	1	1	-1	-1	-1	-2	-2	.
Y	2	-1	.	-2	-3	-2	-1	.
V	1	-2	.	-1	-2	-3	-1	1



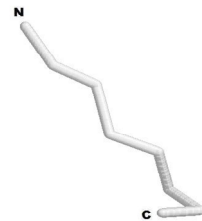
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N	-3	.	.	1	.	-1	-3	-1
D	-4	-1	.	-1	2	-2	-3	.
C	-1	-5	-2	-3	-1	-1	-2	-4
Q	-2	1	.	-3	2	1	-2	.
E	-2	1	1	-1	1	.	-2	1
G	-1	.	-2	3	-1	-2	-3	-1
H	-2	.	-1	-1	.	-1	-2	.
I	1	-2	.	-5	-2	.	2	.
L	1	-2	.	-3	-3	-1	1	1
K	-1	2	.	-1	.	1	-2	.
M	.	-2	-3	-1	.	-1	.	-1
F	-1	-1	.	-4	-3	.	-1	-2
P	.	1	2	-2	-3	.	-4	.
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T	-1	.	-1	-3	.	1	-2	1
W	-3	-4	-11	-3	-1	.	-3	-2
Y	-1	-1	-1	-6	.	.	-3	-1
V	2	-1	.	-4	-2	.	3	.

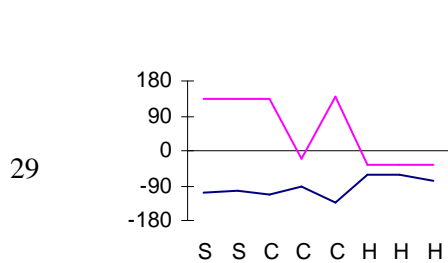


Strand-Helix Turns

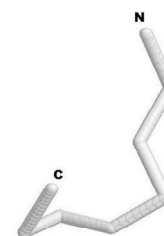


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D	.	-1	.	-1	2	1	1	1
C	-1	.	.	.	-1	-1	-2	-2
Q	.	.	.	-1	-1	.	.	1
E	.	.	.	-1	-1	.	.	1
G	-1	-1	-2	-1	-1	-1	.	-1
H	-1	.	.	.
I	.	.	.	1	-2	-1	-2	-1
L	.	.	.	-1	1	-1	.	1
K	.	.	.	-1	.	.	1	.
M	-1	-1	-1	-1
F	.	1	.	1	-1	-1	-1	.
P	1	2	.	-1
S	.	.	.	-1	1	.	.	.
T	.	.	.	-1	1	.	.	.
W	.	.	-1	1	-3	-1	-2	.
Y	.	1	.	1	-2	-1	-1	.
V	1	1	1	1	-1	-1	-1	-1

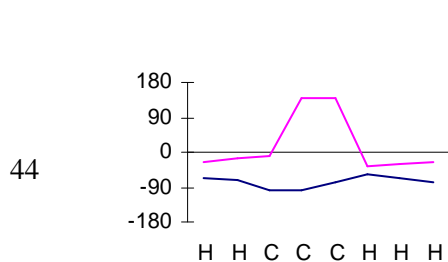




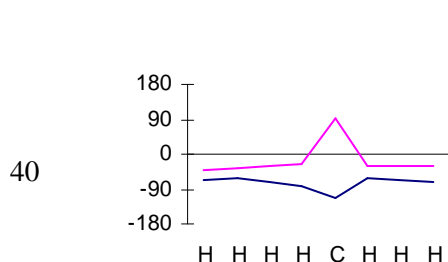
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R	1	.	-1	.	-2	.	.	.
N	-1	-1	-2	.	2	-1	.	-1
D	-1	-1	-1	.	2	.	1	1
C	-2	-1	.	-3	-2	-2	-3	-2
Q	1	.	-1	-1	-1	.	.	1
E	.	.	-1	.	.	.	2	2
G	-2	-1	-1	-1	-1	-1	-1	-2
H	1	-1	.	.	.	-1	-1	1
I	1	.	1	-1	-2	-1	-1	-1
L	.	.	.	-1	-3	.	-1	-1
K	.	.	-1	.	-1	.	.	.
M	.	-1	-1	.	-2	.	-1	-1
F	-3	-1	-2	-1
P	-1	1	.	1	.	2	-1	-2
S	-1	.	-1	.	1	.	.	.
T	-1	.	.	1	1	.	.	.
W	-1	.	-1	-1	-1	-2	-1	.
Y	.	.	1	-1	-1	-1	-1	-1
V	1	1	2	.	-2	-1	-1	-1



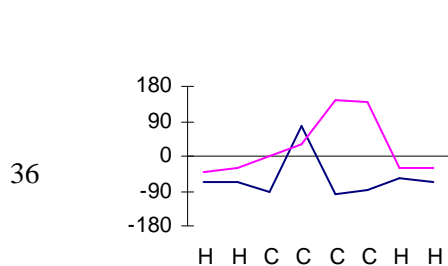
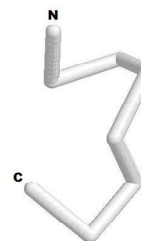
Inter-Helix Turns



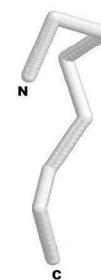
	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
A	.	1	.	.	-1	.	.	.
R	-1	1	.	-1	-1	.	-1	.
N	-1	.	.	.	1	.	.	.
D	-1	1	.	.	2	.	1	1
C	.	-3	.	.	-1	-3	-2	.
Q	1	1
E	.	1	.	-1	.	.	1	1
G	-1	-1	-1	-1	.	-1	-1	1
H	-2	-1	-1	.
I	.	-1	.	1	-2	.	-2	-2
L	1	-1	.	1	-1	.	-1	-1
K	.	1	.	-1
M	1	.	1	1	-1	.	-2	-1
F	.	-1	.	.	-2	-1	-2	-1
P	.	.	-2	-2	2	1	.	-1
S	1	.	.	.
T	1	.
W	1	-2	.	-1	-2	-1	-2	.
Y	.	-1	.	.	-1	.	-1	.
V	.	-1	.	1	-1	-1	-1	.



	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
A	.	.	1	1	-1	.	.	.
R	.	.	1	.	-1	-1	.	.
N	-1	-1	.	.	-2	-1	.	.
D	.	-2	.	.	1	.	1	.
C	-5	-1	.	-2	.	-2	-4	-1
Q	.	.	1	1	.	.	1	.
E	-1	.	1	1	.	.	1	.
G	-2	-2	-2	.	-2	-1	.	-2
H	-1	.	.	.	1	-1	-1	.
I	.	1	-1	-2	-1	-2	-1	.
L	1	1	-1	-1	-1	-1	-1	1
K	.	.	1	1
M	1	.	.	-1	1	-1	-1	.
F	1	1	.	-2	.	-1	-1	1
P	.	-1	-2	-2	-1	3	.	-1
S	.	.	.	1	.	.	1	.
T	-1	-1	-1	.	-1	-1	.	-1
W	1	.	-2	-2	.	-1	-2	-1
Y	1	.	-1	-1	1	-1	.	.
V	-1	.	-1	-1	-1	-1	-1	.

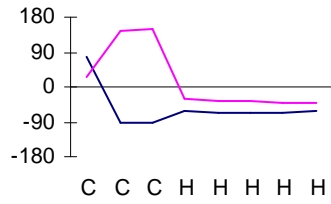


	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
A	.	1	1	-1	-1	-1	.	.
R	1	.	.	-1	.	-1	.	1
N	.	.	1	-2	1	.	.	.
D	.	.	-1	.	-2	2	-1	1
C	-2	-2	-2	-2	.	-2	-1	-1
Q	.	1	.	.	.	-2	-1	.
E	1	1	.	-1	-1	.	.	1
G	-2	-1	-1	3	-2	.	-1	-1
H	.	.	1	-1	-1	.	-1	.
Y	-1	-1	-1	-3	1	-3	.	-2
L	-1	-1	1	-2	1	-2	1	-1
K	2	1	1
M	-1	-1	1	-1	1	-2	.	-1
F	-2	-2	1	-2	1	-1	1	-2
P	-2	-2	-4	-2	.	1	2	.
S	.	-1	-1	-2	1	-1	.	.
T	-1	.	.	-3	-1	1	-1	-1
W	-1	.	-1	-1	1	-1	.	-1
Y	-1	-2	1	-2	1	-1	.	-1
V	-1	-1	-2	-3	1	-2	.	-1



Helix N-Caps

33



	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
A	-1	*	-1	*	*	*	1	1
R	-1	*	-1	-1	*	*	*	*
N	1	-1	1	-1	*	*	-3	-1
D	1	-1	1	*	1	1	-2	-1
C	-2	*	-2	-1	-1	-3	*	*
Q	*	*	-1	*	*	1	-1	*
E	*	*	-1	*	2	1	*	*
G	2	-2	*	-1	-1	-1	-2	-2
H	*	-1	-1	-1	-1	*	-2	-1
I	-2	*	-4	*	-2	-1	1	*
L	-2	1	-2	1	-1	*	1	*
K	*	*	*	-1	*	*	-1	*
M	-1	1	-2	*	-2	-1	*	*
F	-2	*	-2	*	-2	-1	*	*
P	-1	*	1	1	*	-2	-3	-1
S	*	-1	2	-1	1	*	-1	-1
T	-1	*	1	-1	*	*	-1	-1
W	-2	*	-3	*	-1	-1	*	*
Y	-1	1	-2	*	-1	-1	*	*
V	-2	*	-2	*	-1	-1	1	*



Appendix B

Listing of Protein Data Sets

This appendix lists the proteins found in all data sets used in this study, which include BB55, RS126, PP187, and CB396. Each protein is represented by its PDB ID and chain ID (if exist). Note that there are only 317 proteins in CB396 as some of the proteins have been split into multiple disjoint peptides to make up a total of 396 entries.

BB55 selected by Bystroff and Baker [20]:

1ANV	1APY A	1AYL	1BMF A	1BMF D	1BMF G	1BRO A	1CEM
1CPO	1DEK A	1DIV	1FIE A	1FRV A	1FRV B	1GAL	1GND
1GPL	1GTM A	1HAV A	1HLR A	1HTP	1HTT A	1HXP A	1IGN A
1IHF B	1KXU	1LBD	1LBU	1LCL	1LNH	1MSP A	1OTG A
1OXY	1QBA	1REQ A	1RIE	1SFE	1STM A	1TAQ	1TFE
1TFR	1VCC	1VHI A	1VNC	1WHI	1XEL	1XSM	1XVA A
1ZYM A	2AYH	2EBN	2ENG	2STV	4KBP A		

RS126 selected by Rost and Sander [37]:

1A45	1ACX	1AZU	1BBP A	1BDS	1BKS A	1BKS B	1BMV 1
1BMV 2	1CBH	1CC5	1CDT A	1CRN	1CSE I	1CYO	1DUR A
1ECA	1ETU	1FC2 C	1FDL H	1FKF	1FND	1FXI A	1G6N A

1GD1 O	1GDJ	1GP1 A	1HIP	1IL8 A	1IQZ A	1L58	1LAP
1LMB 3	1MCP L	1MRT	1OVO A	1PAZ	1PPT	1PYP	1R09 2
1RBP	1RHD	1S01	1SH1	1TGS I	1TNF A	1UBQ	256B A
2AAT	2AK3 A	2ALP	2CAB	2CCY A	2CYP	2FOX	2GBP
2GLS A	2GN5	2HMZ A	2I1B	2LHB	2LTN A	2LTN B	2MEV 4
2MHU	2OR1 L	2PAB A	2PCY	2PHH	2RSP A	2SNS	2SOD B
2STV	2TGP I	2TMV P	2TSC A	2UTG A	2WRP R	3AIT	3BLM
3CD4	3CLA	3CLN	3EBX	3HMG A	3HMG B	3ICB	3PGM
3RNT	3TIM A	4BP2	4CMS	4CPA I	4CPV	4GR1	4PFK
4RHV 1	4RHV 3	4RHV 4	4RXN	4SDH A	4SGB I	4TS1 A	4XIA A
5CYT R	5ER2 E	5HVP A	5LDH	5LYZ	6ACN	6CPA	6CPP
6CTS	6DFR	6HIR	6TMN E	7CAT A	7ICD	7RSA	8ABP
8ADH	9API A	9API B	9INS B	9PAP	9WGA A		

PP187 selected by Jones [14]:

1A34 A	1ACI	1AE9 A	1AFW B	1AH7	1AJZ	1AK0	1ALV A
1AMM	1AMU A	1AOH B	1AOP	1AOZ A	1ARS	1ARU	1AT0
1AVM A	1AYL	1BFD	1BGF	1BQU B	1CAA	1CBN	1CEI
1CEL A	1CEM	1CHM A	1CLC	1CMB A	1COY	1CPO	1CSH
1CUK	1CYN A	1CYO	1DAA A	1DJA	1DMB	1DMR	1DUP A
1ECL	1EMA	1ESF A	1EXT A	1EZM	1FKF	1FLE I	1FMK
1FUA	1FVK A	1GAI	1GD1 O	1GLQ A	1GND	1GOF	1GPB
1GPR	1GZI	1HAN	1HCZ	1HFC	1HPM	1HRD A	1HSB A
1HTR P	1HXN	1HXP A	1HYP	1IGD	1IOW	1ISO	1ISU A
1JBC	1JDW	1KAP P	1KID	1KNB	1KPT A	1KVD A	1LAM
1LDG	1LIS	1LMB 3	1LTS A	1MDL	1MLA	1MML	1MOL A
1MRK	1MSK	1MTY D	1MTY G	1MUG A	1NAH	1NNC	1NOX
1NP4	1OBW B	1OIS	1ONC	1ONR A	1OPC	1ORC	1OSP O
1OTF A	1PBE	1PGS	1PK4	1PMI	1PNK A	1PNK B	1PPN
1PTY	1QBA	1QNF	1RA9	1REG X	1RHS	1RIE	1RKD
1RPO	1RSS	1SFT A	1SGP I	1SJU	1SKZ	1SLU A	1SRI A
1STM A	1SVB	1TFE	1THG	1THV	1TVD A	1TX4 A	1TYS
1TYV	1UBS B	1UCH	1UDG	1UTG	1UXY	1VCC	1VHB A
1VHH	1VIE	1VJS	1VOM	1VPS A	1VPT	1WBA	1WER
1WHI	1WJD B	1XIK A	1YGE	1YTB A	1ZNB A	2ABK	2ARC A
2BAA	2CBA	2CCY A	2CMD	2CTC	2CY3	2END	2ENG
2ERL	2ILK	2LTN B	2MSB A	2NLL B	2OHX A	2PHY	2PSP A
2RAN	2RN2	2SIC I	2TGI	2VPF B	3CLA	3PTE	4BCL
4RHN	5CYT R	8RUC K					

CB396 selected by Cuff and Barton [46]:

154L	1AAZ B	1ADD	1ADE B	1AHB	1ALK B	1AMG	1AMP
1AOR B	1AOZ B	1ASW	1ATP I	1AVH B	1AYA B	1BAM	1BCX

1BDO	1BET	1BFG	1BNC B	1BOV B	1BPH A	1BRS E	1BSD B
1CBG	1CDL G	1CEI	1CEL B	1CEM	1CEO	1CEW I	1CFB
1CFR	1CGU	1CHB E	1CHD	1CHK B	1CHM B	1CKS C	1CLC
1CNS B	1COI	1COL B	1COM C	1CPC L	1CPN	1CQA	1CSM B
1CTF	1CTH B	1CTM	1CTN	1CTU	1CXS A	1CYX	1DAA B
1DAR	1DEL B	1DFJ I	1DFN B	1DIH	1DIK	1DIN	1DKZ A
1DLC	1DNP B	1DPG B	1DSB B	1DTS	1DUP A	1DYN B	1ECE B
1ECL	1ECP F	1EDD	1EDM C	1EDN	1EFT	1EFU D	1EPB B
1ESE	1ESL	1EUU	1FBA B	1FBL	1FDT	1FIN D	1FJM B
1FUA	1FUQ B	1GAL	1GCB	1GCM C	1GEP	1GFL B	1GHS B
1GKY	1GLN	1GMP B	1GND	1GOG	1GP2 A	1GP2 G	1GPC
1GPM D	1GRJ	1GTM C	1GTQ B	1GYM	1HAN	1HCG B	1HCR A
1HIW S	1HJR D	1HMP B	1HMY	1HNF	1HOR B	1HPL B	1HSL B
1HTR P	1HUP	1HVQ	1HXN	1HYP	1IGN B	1ILK	1INP
1IRK	1ISA B	1ISU B	1JUD	1KIN B	1KNB	1KPT B	1KRC A
1KRC B	1KTE	1KTQ	1KUH	1LAT B	1LBA	1LBU	1LEH B
1LIB	1LIS	1LKI	1LPB A	1LPE	1MAI	1MAS B	1MCT I
1MDA J	1MDA M	1MDT A	1MJC	1MLA	1MMO H	1MNS	1MOF
1MRR B	1MSP B	1NAL 4	1NAR	1NBA C	1NCG	1NDH	1NFP
1NGA	1NLK L	1NOL	1NOX	1NOZ B	1OAC B	1ONR B	1OTG C
1OVB	1OXY	1OYC	1PBP	1PBW B	1PDA	1PDN C	1PDO
1PGA	1PHT	1PII	1PKY C	1PMI	1PNM B	1PNT	1POC
1POW B	1PPI	1PTR	1PTX	1PYT A	1QBB	1QRD B	1REC
1REG Y	1REQ C	1RHG C	1RIE	1RIS	1RLD S	1RLR	1RPO
1RSY	1RVV Z	1SCU D	1SCU E	1SEI B	1SES A	1SFE	1SFT B
1SMN B	1SMP I	1SPB P	1SRA	1SRJ A	1STF I	1STM E	1SVB
1TAB I	1TAQ	1TCB A	1TCR A	1TFR	1THT B	1THX	1TIE
1TIF	1TIG	1TII C	1TML	1TND B	1TPL B	1TRB	1TRH
1TRK B	1TSP	1TSS B	1TUL	1TUP C	1UBD C	1UDH	1UMU B
1VCA B	1VCC	1VHH	1VHR B	1VID	1VJS	1VMO B	1VNC
1VOK B	1VPT	1WAP V	1WFB B	1WHI	1XVA B	1YPT B	1YRN A
1ZNB B	1ZYM B	2AAI B	2ABK	2ADM B	2AFN C	2ASR	2BAT
2BLT B	2BOP A	2CMD	2CPO	2DKB	2DLN	2DNJ A	2EBN
2END	2ERL	2GSQ	2HFT	2HHM B	2HIP B	2HPR	2MLT B
2MTA C	2NAD B	2NPX	2OLB A	2PGD	2PHY	2POL B	2REB
2RSL A	2SCP B	2SIL	2SPT	2TGI	2TMD B	2TRT	2YHX
3BCL	3CHY	3COX	3ECA B	3INK D	3MDD B	3PGK	3PMG B
4FIS B	5SIC I	6RLX C	6RLX D	821P			

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