DAMA: a method for computing multiple alignments of protein structures using local structure descriptors

Paweł Daniluk¹, Tymoteusz Oleniecki² and Bogdan Lesyng ³,*

¹Bioinformatics Laboratory, Mossakowski Medical Research Centre, Polish Academy of Sciences, 02-106 Warsaw, Poland, ²College of Inter-Faculty Individual Studies in Mathematics and Natural Sciences, University of Warsaw, 02-089 Warsaw, Poland and ³Department of Biophysics, Faculty of Physics, University of Warsaw, 02-093 Warsaw, Poland

*To whom correspondence should be addressed.

Associate Editor: Jinbo Xu
Received on December 24, 2020; revised on May 31, 2021; editorial decision on June 21, 2021

Abstract

Motivation: The well-known fact that protein structures are more conserved than their sequences forms the basis of several areas of computational structural biology. Methods based on the structure analysis provide more complete information on residue conservation in evolutionary processes. This is crucial for the determination of evolutionary relationships between proteins and for the identification of recurrent structural patterns present in biomolecules involved in similar functions. However, algorithmic structural alignment is much more difficult than multiple sequence alignment. This study is devoted to the development and applications of DAMA—a novel effective environment capable to compute and analyze multiple structure alignments.

Results: DAMA is based on local structural similarities, using local 3D structure descriptors and thus accounts for nearest-neighbor molecular environments of aligned residues. It is constrained neither by protein topology nor by its global structure. DAMA is an extension of our previous study (DEDAL) which demonstrated the applicability of local descriptors to pairwise alignment problems. Since the multiple alignment problem is NP-complete, an effective heuristic approach has been developed without imposing any artificial constraints. The alignment algorithm searches for the largest, consistent ensemble of similar descriptors. The new method is capable to capture most of the biologically significant similarities present in canonical test sets and is discriminatory enough to prevent the emergence of larger, but meaningless, solutions. Tests performed on the test sets, including protein kinases, demonstrate DAMA’s capability of identifying equivalent residues, which should be very useful in discovering the biological nature of proteins similarity. Performance profiles show the advantage of DAMA over other methods, in particular when using a strict similarity measure Qc, which is the ratio of correctly aligned columns, and when applying the methods to more difficult cases.

Availability and implementation: DAMA is available online at http://dworkowa.imdik.pan.pl/EP/DAMA. Linux binaries of the software are available upon request.

Contact: lesyng@gmail.com

Supplementary information: Supplementary data are available at Bioinformatics online.

1 Introduction

Structures of proteins are conserved more than their sequences. It is believed, that methods based on analysis of structure, rather than sequence analysis, provide more complete information on residue conservation in evolutionary processes. This knowledge is crucial for both, determination of evolutionary relationships between proteins, and for the identification of structural patterns involved in similar functions. Unfortunately aligning structures is a computationally much more demanding task than aligning sequences. Nevertheless, structure alignment is commonly used in protein classification (e.g. Fox et al., 2014; Orengo et al., 1997) or in structural motif recognition (Singh and Saha, 2003). One of the most challenging tasks in computational biology is multiple structure alignment (MStA). There are several methods for computing MStA, like CBA (Ebert and Brutlag, 2006), Matt (Menke et al., 2008), MASS (Dror et al., 2003), MAMMOTH-Multi (Lupyan et al., 2005), MultiProt (Shatsky et al., 2004), MUSTANG (Konagurthu et al., 2006) or POSA (Ye and Godzik, 2005). Some of them were reviewed in (Berbalk et al., 2009). Since then some new methods have been developed, like MAPSCI (Linkin et al., 2010), MISTRAL (Micheletti and Orland, 2009), 3DCOMB (Wang et al., 2011), mSTALI (Shealy and Valafar, 2012), mTM-align (Dong et al., 2018) or Caretta (Akdel et al., 2020).
The MStA problem can be formulated in several ways and existing algorithms differ by the type of alignments they compute. We distinguish methods in which structures are treated as rigid bodies (CBA, 3DCOMB) from methods that allow a certain level of flexibility (Matt, POSA, MASS). Some algorithms may allow for circular permutations (and other rearrangements) (MASS).

Most approaches either gradually join pairwise structural alignments into one MStA (i.e. perform progressive alignment), or align all structures simultaneously.

DAMA has been designed to bridge a gap between these approaches and ensure robust performance while imposing the least constraints on the solution. Quality of alignments is achieved by ensuring that the entire molecular environment of the aligned residues is taken into account. There are no constraints on the global superposition, which enables alignment of structures with significant spatial distortions (e.g. a different arrangement of domains connected by a flexible linker). Circular permutations and segment swaps are allowed as well. The concept of progressive alignment is applied in the initial phase for generating several alignments to be further improved by an evolutionary algorithm. Selected algorithms have already been implemented and optimized for CUDA graphical processors (Daniluk et al., 2019).

2 Approach

Finding optimal multiple alignments is a computationally difficult problem. However, it has been proven that a seemingly simpler problem of computing a multi-alignment as a consensus of given pairwise alignments is intractable as well (Daniluk and Lesyng, 2014). This is due to the fact, that not all sets of pairwise alignments may constitute a valid multiple alignment. It is disallowed for two different residues from a single structure to belong to the same column in the alignment. Nevertheless, it is easy to construct a set of pairwise alignments which would lead to such a condition if merged into a multiple alignment (see Fig. 1). Therefore, computing a multiple alignment from a set of pairwise alignments would require identifying all such conflicts, and finding an optimal way of removing them.

In this study, we tackle the multi-alignment problem in its most generic form. We aim at finding multiple alignments that may contain circular permutations, segment swaps and other sequential rearrangements, as well as structural deformations.

The only constraint we enforce on the multiple alignments is the similarity of local physico-chemical environments, which are characterized using molecular fragments called local descriptors of protein structure (Daniluk and Lesyng, 2011b; Hvidsten et al., 2009). A local descriptor is a small part of a structure that can be viewed as a residue-attached local environment. In principle, it is possible to build a descriptor for every residue of a given protein. This process begins by identifying all residues in contact with the descriptor’s central residue. Elements are then built by including two additional residues along the main-chain, both upstream and downstream of each contact residue. Any overlapping elements are concatenated into single segments. Thus, a descriptor is typically built of several disjoint pieces of the main chain (Fig. 2). It reflects approximately the range of local, most significant physico-chemical interactions between its central residue and surrounding amino-acids. This constitutes a significant difference compared to single segments so frequently used in other studies. Single segments reflect features along the main-chain exclusively, while descriptors are spatial, and thus add a three-dimensional context to local properties of a protein molecule.

In the preliminary stage of computing all pairs of similar descriptors belonging to compared structures are identified. Such pairs constitute small, local pairwise alignments, which can be viewed as building blocks for a larger alignment. In the following stages only alignments which comprise such descriptor pairs are considered. It has already been established, that this approach yields remarkably accurate (also in terms of low RMSD) pairwise alignments (Daniluk and Lesyng, 2011b).

The main difficulty in building a multiple alignment from descriptor alignments results from the fact, that contrary to the pairwise case, it is not enough to select a set of descriptor pairs in which every two of them form a valid alignment. This condition does not prevent conflicts of a kind mentioned above. Therefore, an approach based on computing maximal cliques cannot be straightforwardly used in this case (it would be possible to search for maximal cliques, and then try to resolve all conflicts. However, the problem of resolving conflicts constitutes the most difficult (and intractable) part of the multiple alignment. Furthermore, because resolving conflicts shrinks a clique, such a method would have to take into consideration all maximal cliques, not just the largest ones.).

We have overcome this problem by building an alignment incrementally. If we divide the set of structures into two sets, an optimal multiple alignment is an optimal alignment of multiple alignments of these subsets (Alignments of these subsets do not have to be optimal). Aligning two multiple alignments may lead to conflicts as well, but their number is expected to be low, when similarity within these alignments is high. This principle leads to an application of a neighbor join (NJ) method. We use a randomized version of the NJ algorithm to generate a set of specimens to be further improved by an evolutionary algorithm.

3 Materials and methods

3.1 Local descriptors of protein structure

Descriptors have already been applied in several studies (Björkholm et al., 2009; Daniluk and Lesyng, 2011b, 2014; Drabikowski et al., 2007; Hvidsten et al., 2003, 2009; Strömbergsson et al., 2006, 2008). Here, we use a version of the local descriptor methodology described in (Daniluk and Lesyng, 2011a,b, 2014). Every descriptor is built around its central residue. It contains residues that are in contact with the central residue (i.e. $d_a \leq 6.5\AA$ or $d_r \leq 8\AA$ and $d_s - d_c \geq 0.75\AA$, where $d_a$ and $d_c$ denote distances between $C_a$ and

Fig. 1. Example of inconsistency between pairwise alignments. Each row of dots presents residues in a protein structure. Arcs between dots denote pairwise alignment between residues. Three alignments between structures S1, S2 and S3 cannot be combined into a single multiple alignment. A gap at position 4 in S2–S3 causes ambiguity which makes several residues in e.g. S2 transitively (via S1 and S3) aligned.

Fig. 2. An exemplary descriptor built around the residue MET70 of 1lg7A contains nine contacts (dashed lines) between its central amino acid (red) and residues forming the centers of its elements. Some of the elements overlap forming longer segments [in particular fragments of two β-strands (blue and yellow) and a fragment of an α-helix (green)]. Altogether, this descriptor consists of five continuous segments.
atoms and geometrical centers of side-chains, respectively). In the second step, elements around selected residues are built by taking four sequential neighbors, two on each side. Finally, overlapping elements are merged into segments. For more details, see Daniluk and Lesyng (2011a, 2014).

It should be noted that this kind of similarity is totally sequence-independent. Because elements are the smallest indivisible blocks, it is possible that one segment will be aligned to two smaller ones which have a few residues apart.

3.2 Pairwise alignments

Once a set of pairs of similar descriptors is computed, one can define a graph, where nodes correspond to descriptor pairs. It can be easily proven, that the largest alignment of two structures corresponds to a maximal clique in such a graph.

Cliques in the graph are identified using a heuristic approach based on the Motzkin-Straus theorem by iteratively searching for a maximum of a certain quadratic form which corresponds to the largest clique in the graph (Daniluk et al., 2019). Possible conflicts are identified and then resolved by a branch-and-bound algorithm searching for a set of descriptor pairs which removal should result in the smallest possible reduction of the alignment size.

3.3 Stochastic generation of initial multiple alignments

We incorporated the progressive alignment method to generate a starting population for the evolutionary algorithm. In order to obtain alignments, we have developed a process of randomly generating guide trees. We use a method akin to the NJ algorithm, where at each step a pair of clusters with the highest average similarity of elements is joined. In our implementation, a pair to be joined is chosen randomly with a probability proportional to the average similarity of elements.

3.4 Evolutionary algorithm

Multiple alignments generated in a stochastic progressive alignment phase are refined using an evolutionary algorithm. It is an application of a generic strategy mimicking evolutionary processes by maintaining a population of specimens that correspond to solutions to a problem. Mutation and crossover

In the case of mutation, an internal node of a spanning tree is randomly selected and a multiple alignment connected with it is recomputed as a pairwise alignment of multiple alignments in its children. The process is later repeated for all nodes on a path from a selected node to the root of a tree.

In the crossover procedure, structures are randomly divided into two subsets and subalignments containing these subsets are extracted from the chosen specimens. These subalignments are then aligned to obtain a new specimen. A pair of structures is chosen with probability proportional to their distance in spanning trees. They form centroids of subsets for both specimens. After that, structures close to respective centroids in spanning trees are added to subsets. If the process stops before all structures are exhausted, new centroids are selected and iteration is resumed. Steady-state algorithm

We applied a steady-state evolutionary algorithm (Whitley et al., 1989). It is performed independently for each specimen immediately after its generation. In this manner, successful individuals can contribute to the new population without an unnecessary delay. To achieve quick convergence, we used a variant of elitist selection. A new specimen is preserved (added to population), if its fitness exceeds the fitness of an individual most similar to it, or if the population has not reached its maximal size. All individuals whose identity to the newly added specimen exceeds 80% are removed from the population. Gradual extension of the search space

The evolutionary algorithm starts with refining the consensus of pairwise alignments. After converging, the most under-performing structure is identified by comparing its contribution to the score of the best multiple alignment with scores of its pairwise alignments. This structure is freed by including all descriptor pairs in which one descriptor belongs to this structure in the set of allowed similarities. Then the evolutionary algorithm is restarted. The process is repeated until all structures become unconstrained.

3.5 Measure of the alignment size and quality

To evaluate the global quality we assess the spatial arrangement of the local components. We enumerate all pairs of the aligned residues which are in contact in at least one of the aligned structures. Then for each such contact, we compute the RMSD of the respective five residue pieces (elements) of the backbone. These distances are averaged for each residue over all its contacts, for each pair of structures, and after raising to the power of two for the whole multiple alignment. The result can be viewed as an average ‘tension’ exerted on structures when superimposed structures are treated as elastic objects.

Sometimes a pairwise alignment can be divided into regions with no contacts between them. In such a case, possible conformational distortions would not influence tension. Therefore, we augment the score of all regions, except the largest one, by a factor proportional to $1 - \cos^2 \theta$, where $\theta$ is an angle between rotations required to superimpose the largest region and the augmented one, respectively.

3.6 Core alignment and its refinement

We use a two-stage process similar to the one used by our DEDAL method (Daniluk and Lesyng, 2011b). An optimal multiple alignment is built using only descriptor alignments that have at least three segments. Such alignment in principle contains all similarities of the protein cores, but may not cover loops and extended linkers. In the second stage, the algorithm is rerun to extend computed alignment with all remaining descriptor pairs which are consistent and overlap the alignment computed in the first stage.

4 Implementation

We have implemented the described algorithm in C on the Linux platform. For the rapid finding of cliques in large graphs we have used CUDA-MS—a GPU accelerated library (Daniluk et al., 2019). We have made DAMA available online at http://dworkowa.imdik.pan.pl/EP/DAMA. Linux binaries of the software are available upon request. The server can be used to align structures identified by PDB or SCOP accession codes or supplied in uploaded files. Superpositions can be downloaded as PDB files and also viewed through the WebGL applet. The alignments are available in FASTA format and as a list of corresponding residue ranges.

Scalability of implementation was shown in Supplementary Figure S3 in Supplementary Materials.

5 Results

5.1 SISY-multiple dataset

In this study, we have used SISY-multiple—a set of multiple alignments created especially for assessment of the quality of multiple structure alignment methods (Berbalk et al., 2009). It is based on SISYPHUS—a manually curated set of multiple structure alignments (Andreeva et al., 2007), which has been pruned from ambiguities. It contains 106 multiple alignments comprising from 3 to 119 structures (~13 on average). Several of them contain particular difficulties such as repetitions, insertions/deletions, permutations or conformational variabilities. This set has been used for testing several alignment algorithms already.

Berbalk et al. use two measures to assess the similarity of a given alignment to a reference one. A more stringent measure (Qc) is the ratio of correctly aligned columns, while a more lenient one (Qp) is the ratio of correctly aligned residue pairs. It should be noted, that all alignments in SISY-multiple have all columns completely filled (i.e. contain residues belonging to a core common to all structures). We present values of Qc and Qp for alignments computed by Caretta (Akel et al., 2020), MASS (Drot et al., 2003), Matt (Menke et al., 2008), MultiProt (Shatsky et al., 2004), MUSTANG (Konagurthu et al., 2006), POSA (Ye and Godzik, 2005), 3DCOMB...
(Wang et al., 2011), MISTRAL (Michelleti and Orland, 2009), MAMMOTH (Lupyan et al., 2005), MAPSCI (Linkin et al., 2010), mTM-align (Dong et al., 2018) and DAMA. The results for the first five methods are taken from (Berbalk et al., 2009). For the remaining ones, we have performed computations ourselves. Several methods fail in some cases either due to internal faults or incompatibility of input data (MUSTANG, Matt and POSA are incapable of aligning structures with multiple chains). In his study Berbalk et al. have chosen a set of 61 alignments for which no program has failed.

DAMA turned out to be the most accurate method on the whole SISY-multiple dataset achieving median accuracy of 82.3% for the $Q_c$ and 92.2% for $Q_P$ measure, second-best 3DCOMB achieved 67.1% and 89.8% respectively (67.6% and 89.9% when limited to cases for which program has not failed). If one disregards cases for which programs have failed, Matt ($Q_c$: 81.4%, $Q_P$: 90.6%), POSA ($Q_c$: 77.4%, $Q_P$: 88.3%) and MUSTANG ($Q_c$: 75.9%, $Q_P$: 90.6%) perform better than 3DCOMB. However, these three methods have the highest number of failures. Results for the remaining methods are provided in Table 1 and Figure 3.

Performance profiles (Dolan and Moré, 2002) are convenient to assess quality on a large dataset. In this case, however, we used them to compare the accuracy of the algorithms tested. Let $c_{a,m}$ be the accuracy of the solution computed by the method $m$ for the alignment $a$—with either the $Q_c$ or $Q_P$ measure. We define accuracy ratio as $r_{a,m} = \frac{c_{a,m}}{\max_c c_{a,c}}$. These ratios are aggregated into profiles for each method:

$$\rho_{a,m}(x) = \frac{|\{a \in A : r_{a,m} > x\}|}{|A|}$$

where $A$ is a set of reference alignments, and $| \cdot |$ denotes the set cardinality. According to Dolan and Moré performance profiles may be interpreted as probabilities for a method to achieve performance not worse than the best method by a given ratio. Performance profiles for all alignments in the SISY-multiple dataset for the $Q_c$ (a) and $Q_P$ (b) measure are presented in Figure 4, and profiles for the subset of 61 safe alignments selected from the SISY-multiple dataset by Berbalk et al. are presented in Supplementary Figure S2 in Supplementary Materials. Performance profiles show that DAMA is the most likely method to retain a satisfactory alignment regardless of the desired accuracy. MUSTANG, Matt and POSA along with 3DCOMB perform very well on the subset of easier alignments. However, when compared using the whole set, only 3DCOMB and DAMA remain outstanding. There is a significant difference between the $Q_c$ and $Q_P$ profiles for these methods indicating that DAMA is more likely to align whole columns correctly, and thus identify the whole common core. The numerical values of AUC are provided in Supplementary Table S3 in Supplementary Materials.

Sample alignment from the SISY-multiple dataset returned by DAMA (containing circular permutation) can be found in Supplementary Table S6 in Supplementary Materials.

### 5.2 Case study: protein kinases

As reference, we have taken an alignment of 31 kinases prepared by Scheff and Bourne (Scheff and Bourne, 2005). This alignment includes 25 typical protein kinases (TPKs) and 6 atypical kinases (AKs). The authors describe 20 features characteristic to some kinase families or of all of them (see Supplementary Tables S1 and S2 in Supplementary Materials). We have identified 240 aligned positions in that curated multiple alignment corresponding to notable features, and used them to test two methods performing best on the SISY-multiple set—3DCOMB and DAMA.

#### 5.2.1 Highly conserved residues

There are few residues playing important role in kinase activity which are conserved in all structures, in particular K72, E91, D166 or D184 [positions according to PKA (1cdk)]. Residues crucial for the ATP hydrolysis (D134) and present in the catalytic region (D166) were aligned correctly by both methods. However, only DAMA did equally well with residues responsible for ATP stabilization in the binding pocket (K72 and E91), while 3DCOMB shifted its alignment of three structures by 1–2 residues (see Fig. 5). There is also a number of other residues which are conserved in some structures. Examples are H138 and D220 forming hydrogen bonds stabilizing the catalytic region in most kinases, and N171 or equivalent isoleucine or glutamine interacting with an Mg$^{2+}$ cation important for the catalytic process. Aligning N171 or H138 caused no difficulties. 3DCOMB aligned all residues at position D220, while DAMA shifted respective residues in PDK1, GSK3 and PKB by one position and IRK by three.

#### 5.2.2 Secondary structure

There are several secondary structures conserved in the reference alignment. Among them, helices denoted with letters A–F are common for all structures (except for B-helix), while G to I helices are present only in TPKs and vary in length. B-helix is shared only by AGC kinases (five out of TPKs) and ChaK, while in other structures a loop takes its place. Also a number of β-strands numbered from 1 to 8 forming a β-sheet N-terminal domain is present in all structures (see Fig. 6 and Supplementary Fig. S2 in Supplementary Materials).
C- and D-helices or β-strand 4 were aligned correctly for TPKs by both programs. 3DCOMB failed, however, to align corresponding regions in AKs due to incorrect gap placement. Well-aligned remaining secondary structures are F-helix, containing aspartate D220 forming H-bond with H158, common to all kinases, as well as, G- and H-helices present in TPKs exclusively. In the DAMA alignment four shifts occur in F-helix and propagate further through all following helices, but remaining structures are aligned correctly, including AKs F-helix. 3DCOMB, on the other hand, incorrectly aligned F-helix in AKs, but committed no errors in the case of G- and H-helices present in TPKs.

The most troublesome elements were helix B (or its substitute loop), and z-helix I common for all TPKs. 3DCOMB aligned correctly only half of I helices, applying minor shifts in the remaining structures, while the result from DAMA shows only shifts in four previously mentioned structures. Helix B, on the other hand, was aligned correctly by DAMA, while 3DCOMB found only two correct pairs out of thirty (partially aligning remaining pairs).

5.2.3 Insertions
There are four insertions present only in some kinases. One present in the catalytic region of one structure—AFK—was not aligned with any residues from other structures by both programs as expected. Long insertions in CKA-2 and APH were correctly aligned by DAMA, and 3DCOMB achieved approximately 25% accuracy (see Fig. 7). The similarity of insertions between G- and H-helices shared by CMGC kinases was detected by DAMA in 3 out of 5 structures, while 3DCOMB failed to align any inserted regions in these structures. In the case of insertion preceding I-helix, shared by five ACG kinases, DAMA missed one structure, while 3DCOMB detected similarity for only one pair of structures.

5.2.4 Other
Summary of all identified structural features and performance of DAMA and 3DCOMB can be found in Supplementary Tables S4 and S5 in Supplementary Materials.
The main goal to compute multiple alignments is not only to assess whether given structures are similar, but also to discover the exact nature of this similarity. Such an aim can be achieved only if an alignment algorithm reliably reconstructs whole columns of the optimal alignment. The test performed on protein kinases shows DAMA’s capability in this respect. Performance profiles (see Fig. 4 and Supplementary Fig. S1 in Supplementary Material) also show that advantage of DAMA over other methods are more pronounced when using the Qc measure.

Funding

This study was supported by the Z-526/22 [IMDk PAN] and PP/BF-501-D111-01-1110102 (UW) funds. Computations were carried out using the infrastructure funded by the POIG.02.03.00-00-003/09 (Biocentrum-Ochota) and POIG.02.01.00-14-122/09 (Physics at the basis of new technologies) projects.

Conflict of Interest

none declared.

References

Akdal,M. et al. (2020) Caretta – a multiple protein structure alignment and feature extraction suite. Comput. Struct. Biotechnol. J., 18, 981–992.
Andreeva,A. et al. (2007) SISYPHUS—structural alignments for proteins with non-trivial relationships. Nucleic Acids Res., 35, D253–9.
Berbalk,C. et al. (2009) Accuracy analysis of multiple structure alignments. Protein Sci., 18, 2027–2035.
Björklund,P. et al. (2009) Using multi-data hidden Markov models trained on local neighborhoods of protein structure to predict residue-residue contacts. Bioinformatics, 25, 1268–1276.
Daniluk,P. and Lesyng,B. (2011a) DAMA: a novel method for aligning multiple protein structures. In: Multi-Pole Approach to Structural Biology Conference, Warsaw, Poland.
Daniluk,P. and Lesyng,B. (2011b) A novel method to compare protein structures using local descriptors. BMC Bioinformatics, 12, 344.
Daniluk,P. and Lesyng,B. (2014) Theoretical and computational aspects of protein structural alignment. In: Liwo, A. (ed.) Computational Methods to Study the Structure and Dynamics of Biomolecules and Biomolecular Processes, Springer, Berlin Heidelberg, pp. 557–598.
Daniluk,P. et al. (2019) Implementation of maximum clique search on CUDA. J. Heuristics, 25, 247–271.
Dolan,E.D. and Moré,J.J. (2002) Benchmarking optimization software with performance profiles. Math. Program., 91, 201–213.
Dong,R. et al. (2018) mTXM-align: an algorithm for fast and accurate multiple protein structure alignment. Bioinformatics, 34, 1719–1725.
Drabikowski,M. et al. (2007) Library of local descriptors models the core of proteins accurately. Proteins, 69, 499–510.
Dror,O. et al. (2003) MASS: multiple structural alignment by secondary structures. Bioinformatics, 19, 105–104.
Ebert,J. and Beutrag,D. (2006) Development and validation of a consistency based multiple structure alignment algorithm. Bioinformatics, 22, 1080–1087.
Fox,N.K. et al. (2014) Scope: structural classification of proteins-extended, integrating scop and astral data and classification of new structures. Nucleic Acids Res., 42, D304–D309.
Fridsten,T.R. et al. (2003) A novel approach to fold recognition using sequence-derived properties from sets of structurally similar local fragments of proteins. Bioinformatics, 19, i81–91.
Fridsten,T.R. et al. (2009) Local descriptors of protein structure: a systematic analysis of the sequence-structure relationship in proteins using short- and long-range interactions. Proteins, 75, 870–884.
Ilinkin,I. et al. (2010) Multiple structure alignment and consensus identification for proteins. BMC Bioinformatics, 11, 71.
Konagurthu,A.S. et al. (2006) MUSTANG: a multiple structural alignment algorithm. Proteins, 64, 559–574.
Lupyan,D. et al. (2005) A new progressive-iterative algorithm for multiple structure alignment. Bioinformatics, 21, 3253–3263.
Menke,M. et al. (2008) MtrP: local flexibility aids protein multiple structure alignment. PLoS Comput. Biol., 4, e10.
Micheletti,C. and Orlandi,H. (2009) Mistral: a tool for energy-based multiple structural alignment of proteins. Bioinformatics, 25, 2663–2669.
Orengo,C.A. et al. (1997) CATH—a hierarchic classification of protein domain structures. Structure, 5, 1093–1108.
Scheff,E.D. and Bourne,P.E. (2005) Structural evolution of the protein kinase-like superfamily. PLoS Comput. Biol., 1, e49.
Shatsky,M. et al. (2004) A method for simultaneous alignment of multiple protein structures. Proteins, 56, 143–156.
Shealy,P. and Valafar,H. (2012) Multiple structure alignment with mstal. BMC Bioinformatics, 13, 105.
Singh,R. and Saha,M. (2003) Identifying structural motifs in proteins. In: Proceedings of the eighth Pacific Symposium on Biocomputing (PSB), Island of Kauai, Hawaii. World Scientific, pp. 228–239. https://psb.stanford.edu/psb-online/proceedings/psb03/.
Strömbergsson,H. et al. (2006) Generalized modeling of enzyme-ligand interactions using proteochrometrics and local protein substructures. Proteins, 65, 568–579.
Strömbergsson,H. et al. (2008) Interaction model based on local protein substructures generalizes to the entire structural enzyme-ligand space. J. Chem. Inf. Model., 48, 2278–2288.
Wang,S. et al. (2011) Alignment of distantly related protein structures: algorithm, bound and implications to homology modeling. Bioinformatics, 27, 2537–2545.
Whitley,L.D. et al. (1989) The GENITOR algorithm and selection pressure: why rank-based allocation of reproductive trials is best. In: Schaffer, J.D. (ed.) Proceedings of the 3rd International Conference on Genetic Algorithms, , Vol. 89, pp. 116–123, Morgan Kaufmann Publishers, San Mateo.
Ye,Y. and Godzik,A. (2005) Multiple flexible structure alignment using partial order graphs. Bioinformatics, 21, 2362–2369.
Zhang,Y. and Skolnick,J. (2004) Scoring function for automated assessment of protein structure template quality. Proteins Struct. Funct. Bioinf., 59, 702–710.