End to end differentiable protein structure refinement

Xiaoyong Cao[1] and Pu Tian[1,2,*]
1. School of Life Sciences, Jilin University
2. School of Artificial Intelligence, Jilin University, 2699 Qianjin Street, Changchun, China 130012
*. Corresponding author: tianpu@jlu.edu.cn

Abstract

Refinement is an essential step for protein structure prediction. Conventional force fields (both physics and knowledge-based ones) and sampling (molecular dynamics simulations and Monte Carlo algorithms) based methods are computationally intensive on the one hand, and are labor intensive for updating parameters on the other hand. A number of neural network based methods have been developed for prediction of global protein structures. However, no differentiable refinement algorithm is available up to date. Based on neural network implementation of local maximum likelihood approximation of generalized solvation free energy theory, we develop a fully differentiable refinement algorithm with clear physical interpretation. Instead of explicit functions utilized by conventional force field approach, molecular interactions are described by neural network parameters, updating of which may be readily realized by training. Substitution of configuration sampling by differentiation increases optimization efficiency by many orders of magnitude. Additionally, both global and local conformation restraints are added to further improve the refinement algorithm. More importantly, due to modular separation of coordinates transformation (updating) and neural network, the algorithm is amenable to further sophisticated incorporation of various information through redesign of neural network architecture.

1. Introduction

With rapid development of sequencing capability, computational protein structure prediction has become an increasingly important tool for understanding biological processes at the molecular level [1]. Despite great progress has been made, there is still a big gap between the prediction accuracy and high resolution experimental methods [2]. As the endgame of structural prediction [3], refinement is meant to bridge this tremendously challenging gap [2,4-6]. Since CASP8(Critical Assessment of Structure Prediction), protein structure refinement has become an independent competition. Combination of force fields (FF) and sampling are the mainstream of refinement. Sampling methods include MD (molecular dynamics)-based [7-10] or MC (Monte Carlo)-based approaches [11-13], side-chain rebuilding approaches [14-16] and fragment-based approaches [17]. Major FF maybe loosely classified as physics based (e.g. CHARMM [18] and AMBER [19]) and knowledge based ones (e.g. Dfire [20], Dope [21], RW [22],RWplus[22], GOAP[23], Rosetta energy function[24-26]). Since CASP10, Feig et al. have made significant progress towards a more consistent refinement with improved FF, the application of $C\alpha$ restraints and an ensemble averaging stage with explicit solvent [27]. Since then, MD-based approaches have become the mainstream for protein structure refinement [26,29,30]. However, optimization of a typical 3D model (~150 residues) requires about 75000 CPU Hours [28]. All algorithms based on conventional FF and sampling framework share the difficulty in updating of parameters and expensive computational cost for sampling.

NN （neural network） has become very popular in protein structure prediction and has brought great progress [31,32,33]. In particular, Alpha-fold won the first place in the FM (Free Model) structure prediction in the CASP13 competition [34,35]. Three representative NN based structure prediction schemes are summarized in Fig. 1B. RefineD [36] protocol utilized the integrated classifier based on deep discriminant learning to predict multi-resolution probability constraints, which were furthered converted into scoring terms to guide conformational sampling with Rosetta-based

FastRelax [37]. In his 2019 paper, AlQuraishi stated "hybrid systems using deep learning and co-evolution as priors and physics-based approaches for refinement will soon solve the long-standing problem of accurate and efficient structure prediction" [33]. Conventional force fields and sampling framework remains to be the only option for protein structural refinement.

In the paper, we proposed a novel differentiable refinement protocol named GSFE-Refinement which substitutes sampling with differentiation, resulting in speeding up of approximately 1000,000 times (seconds vs. thousands of hours). Molecular interactions are specified by parameters of a simple NN based on LMLA (local maximum likelihood approximation) treatment of the GSFE (generalized solvation free energy) theory [38]. These NNFF (neural network force fields) parameters take a few hours to train on a 1080Ti GPU, dramatically more efficient than updating of conventional force fields. As shown in Fig. 1C, refinement utilized the same NN model with assessment of structures except the derivative is taken with respect to protein structural coordinates rather than NNFF parameters as in training.

2. Materials and Method

2.1 Introduction to local maximum likelihood approximation of GSFE

In GSFE, each comprising unit is both solute and solvent of its neighbors. For a n-residue protein with sequence X={x_1,x_2,…x_n}, the free energy of a given structure is:

$$F = -\ln P(\text{Structure}|X) \tag{1}$$

With Bayes formula：

$$-ln P(\text{Structure}|X) = -\ln P(X|\text{Structure})P(\text{Structure})/P(X) \tag{2}$$

For a given sequence X, P(X) is irrelevant. Define R_i (X_i, Y_i) as all local structure within selected cutoff distance of X_i with Y_i being specific solvent of X_i, we have:

$$P(structure) = P(R_1, R_2 … R_n) \prod_{i=1}^{n} P(R_i) \tag{3}$$

$$P(X|\text{Structure}) \approx \prod P(x_i|R_i) \tag{4}$$

Equation (4) assumes all influence to each unit is included in its solvent Y_i, this product of n conditional probabilities is the LMLA (local maximum likelihood approximation) of GSFE. Equation (3) has two terms, $\prod_{i=1}^{n} P(R_i)$ are local priors and $P(R_1, R_2 \dots R_n)$ is the global correlation term. In this work, our neural network is based on LMLA. Incorporation of local priors and global correlations will be tackled in future.

2.2 Training of neural network force fields

The same dataset as Ref 38 is used for training NNFF. For each target residue, 22 neighboring residues are selected as its neighbors (including 6 upstream, 6 downstream adjacent residues in primary sequence and 10 nonadjacent residues). Features extracted for each target residue include one-hot vector representing identity of neighboring residue, residue pair distances (Cα-Cα) between target and each neighbor residue and dihedral angles $(C_\alpha, C, N, C_\beta)$ indicating side chain orientations[38]. Two versions of NNFFs are trained. Input features for the first NNFF include a 22-dimensional one-hot vector, 6 dihedral angles (in radians) and the Cα-Cα distance for each neighboring AA (amino acid), amount to (22+6+1)*22= 638 dimensions. For the other NNFF, each angle θ is converted into sinθ and cosθ, resulting in an input of (22+6*2+1) * 22=770 dimensions. These two NNFFs are referred to as 638-NNFF and 770-NNFF below. A four-layer feed-forward (638/770-512-512-512-21) network architecture is used (Fig. 1A) and trained for 30 epochs with learning rates of 0.1.

2.3 Refinement process

As shown in Fig.1 C, a given starting three dimensional structure is first converted from cartesian coordinates of the backbone atoms $(C_\alpha, C, N, C_\beta)$ into internal coordinates, which is further converted back into cartesian coordinates for feature extraction. Finally, the starting structure is optimized by minimizing the LOSS (approximate free energy plus structural restraints) with the NN model generated in the training of NNFF.

2.3.1 Coordinate transformation

Coordinate transformations are the key steps for constraints of fixed bond lengths and

bond angles. Setting gradient of approximate free energy with respect to backbone dihedrals φ and ψ facilitates automatic differentiation, which is the key technology underlying highly efficient differential optimization. We utilize the Natural Extension Reference Frame (NeRF) algorithm [33,43]:

$$\widetilde{c_k} = [r_k cos(\theta_k), r_k cos(\psi_k)sin(\theta_k), r_k sin(\psi_k)cos(\theta_k)] \qquad (5)$$

$$m_k = c_{k-1} - c_{k-2}, \qquad (6)$$

$$M_k = [\widehat{m_k}, \widehat{m_k} \times \widehat{n_k}, \widehat{n_k}], \qquad (7)$$

$$c_k = M_k \widetilde{c_k} + c_{k-1} \qquad (8)$$

Here, r_k is the bond length of atoms $k-1$ and k, θ_k is the bond angle composed of atoms $k-2$, $k-1$, k, and ψ_k is the dihedral angle of $k-2$, $k-1$ as the axis of rotation, $\widehat{m_k}$ is the unit vector of m_k, $\times$ is the vector cross product, and c_k is the cartesian coordinate of the updated k atom.

Fig.1 Schematic representation of A) neural network implementation of GSFE. B) major present protein structure prediction based on NN. All networks provide a map from sequence (all contacts predicted from sequence) information to structure. C) Flowchart of the GSFE-refinement protocol, with "Feature extraction" and "NN Model" being the same as that of A). This scheme provide a map between structure and free energy. Through iterative minimization of free energy, we realized differentiable structure

optimization.

2.3.2 Loss function of the optimization process

The total loss is shown below:

$$LOSS = loss + \lambda loss_{smoothL1} \qquad (9)$$

$$loss = \frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n} -w_i y_i \log p_i \qquad (10)$$

$$w_i = 1 + p_i \log p_i / \log 21, \qquad (11)$$

$$p_i = \frac{\exp(x_{ij})}{\sum_j^m \exp(x_{ij})} \qquad (12)$$

$$loss_{smoothL1} = \frac{1}{L}\sum_{k=1}^{L} \begin{cases} 0.5 * [dist0 - dist1]^2 & if\ |dist - dist1| < 1 \\ |dist0 - dist1| - 0.5 & otherwise \end{cases}$$

$$(13)$$

Here, λ is the coefficient of $loss_{smoothL1}$, $loss_{smoothL1}$ is the limitation of the optimization space for each iteration. The larger the λ, the stronger the restraint. w_i is the amino acid site weight parameter, n is the protein chain length, m is the type of amino acid (m = 21), L is the number of neighboring AA around each target AA (L = 16), and y_i is the label of residue i。 The $dist0$ is a AA pair distance in the starting structure, and $dist1$ is the corresponding AA pair distance in the updated structure. The *loss* term is the local maximum likelihood approximation of the free energy with w_i and $\lambda loss_{smoothL1}$ serve as local and global regularization terms respectively. The total *LOSS* is iteratively minimized during the optimization.

2.4 Optimization benchmark dataset

The 3Drobot data set is taken as the source, which contains decoys for 200 native structures. After removing structures with a homology similarity higher than 25% with the training set, 10800 decoys of 36 native structures (300 each) are selected as the benchmark dataset. The RMSD of 300 decoys from their native structures are approximately evenly distributed in the interval of 0-12Å.

3. Results and discussion

3.1 Refinement with automatic differentiation

In order to investigate the efficiency of optimization with automatic differentiation (back propagation) [39] and the optimization performance of local maximum likelihood approximation of GSFE, we carried out refinement of the 10800 benchmark dataset. With 5 iterations, all target optimization takes less than 20 seconds on one core of a i5-8500 6-core CPU at 3.0GHz. That is about 1000,000 times faster than thousands of CPU core hours with MD-based optimization of typical sized protein structures [28]. The results from optimization with 5 iteration steps for 638-NNFF and 770-NNFF at learning rates of 0.001 and 0.0005 are evaluated by Cα RMSD (Root Mean Squared Deviation) and GDT-HA (Global Distance Test High Accuracy) as indicators [44]. Table 1 lists the average RMSD and GDT-HA results of top1 model for all decoys. For given NNFF, the result with the learning rate of 0.0005 is better than that of 0.001. For the 638-NNFF, the average GDT-HA-num (average number of improved decoys based on increase of GDT-HA) increased from 54.7 to 66.6; For 770-NNFF, it increased from 50.7 to 64.9. There is a similar trend in the number of decoys that RMSD-num (average number of improved decoys based on decrease of RMSD) increase on average. Meanwhile, with the same learning rate, the 638-NNFF performed better than the 770-NNFF. The best of 5 model improved over the top1 model significantly (Table 2), with 770-NNFF at learning rate of 0.0005 achieved the best performance.

As a more detailed specific example, we analyze the optimization of the decoys in the IT1ABV group in the ITASSER data set [22]. After 5 iterations, 204 decoys are successfully optimized (RMSD decreased), with RMD mainly concentrated in the range of 3A-8A. The best result is observed for decoy14_57, the loss decreases from 2.89 to 2.68 after 50 times, and the RMSD decreases from 3.48A to 2.78A (Fig. 2b, 2c). However, in many cases, as the number of iterations increases, the RMSD increase despite decrease of loss. This suggest the limitation of NNFF based on local maximum likelihood estimation approximation.

Tabel1. Results of top 1

NNFF/lr[a]	GDT-HA-num[b]	Avg ΔGDT-HA[c]	RMSD-num[d]	Avg-ΔRMSD[e]
638/0.0005	66.6/300	-0.0162	105.7/300	0.0475
638/0.001	54.7/300	-0.0278	89.7/300	0.1073
770/0.0005	64.9/300	-0.0187	103.1/300	0.0532
770/0.001	50.7/300	-0.0351	82.4/300	0.1369

[a]NNFF is denoted by the input tensor dimension of neural network force fields, lr is the learning rate

[b]The average decoy number of ΔGDT-HA>0 for all decoy sets

[c]The average value of ΔGDT-HA value for all decoys

[d]The average decoy num of ΔRMSD<0 for all decoy sets

[e]The average value of ΔRMSD value for all decoys

Tabel2. Results of Best of 5

NNFF/lr	GDT-HA-num	Avg ΔGDT-HA	RMSD-num	Avg-ΔRMSD
638/0.0005	130.6/300	-0.0009	149.5/300	-0.0141
638/0.001	110.3/300	-0.0071	140.0/300	-0.0059
770/0.0005	152.2/300	0.0015	169.3/300	-0.0111
770/0.001	108.6/300	-0.0071	135.9/300	-0.0084

Fig.2 the performance of IT1ABV decoys refinement. A, the cumulative distribution of RMSD for 400 decoys and 204 successfully refined decoys. B, decrease of RMSD with the number of iterations C, decrease of loss with the number of iterations.

3.2 Impact of the Smooth_l1 term

In view of the increasing accuracy of the starting structure generated by protein structure prediction, the imposition of reasonable restrictions has become an important part of refinement [2,40,41,43]. We therefore add the smooth_l1 Loss term to limit the conformation search space to be in the vicinity of the starting structure (Equations 9 and 13). As shown in Table 3 and Table 4, with this additional restraint, both top 1 and best of 5 models improve. While learning rate of 0.0005 is better than 0.001 for both GDT-HA-num and average ΔGDT-HA, the opposite is observed for RMSD measures. Taking the best of 5 model as an example, with the combination of 638-NNFF/lr=0.0005, average ΔGDT-HA of 0.0006 is significantly better than -0.0011 for combination 638-NNFF/lr= 0.001. Given learning rate, the optimization results of 638-NNFF and 770-NNFF are similar.

Tabel3. Top1 model with Smooth_l1 Loss

NNFF/lr	GDT-HA-num	Avg-ΔGDT-HA	RMSD-num	Avg-ΔRMSD
638/0.0005	91.3/300	-0.0044	132.3/300	0.0091
638/0.001	86.4/300	-0.0065	127.4/300	0.0131
770/0.0005	91.0/300	-0.0048	130.8/300	0.0091
770/0.001	86.3/300	-0.0071	126.8/300	0.0134

Tabel4. Best of 5 model with Smooth_l1 Loss

NNFF/lr	GDT-HA-num	Avg ΔGDT-HA	RMSD-num	Avg-ΔRMSD
638/0.0005	151.4/300	0.0006	180.5/300	-0.0146
638/0.001	148.4/300	-0.0011	191.6/300	-0.0241
770/0.0005	152.5/300	0.0007	182.0/300	-0.0163
770/0.001	147.6/300	-0.0012	191.6/300	-0.0257

3.3 Impact of entropy weights on the model

There have been some studies on the local restraints of protein structure refinement based on prior knowledge [2,45,46], selection of specific regions [2,15,45], and local structure evaluation [2,45,47]. In this regard, we calculate the entropy of the predicted probability of each amino acid site as the local optimization weight of each site (Equations 10, 11). Table 5 shows the results of the top1 model after adding local

weights. Compared with the results of Table 3, various evaluation indicators improve further，the RMSD-num in the 638-NNFF is 159.8 / 300 at a learning rate of 0.0005 and 170.2 / 300 at a learning rate of 0.001, more than half of decoy's RMSD decrease after optimization. In particular, Avg.-ΔRMSD for the combination of 638-NNFF/lr=0.001 is -0.0071. Overall, the optimization results in top1 mode are not optimistic. In contrast, in the best of 5 model, GDT-HA-num is between 166.3 / 300 and 171.5 / 300, Avg-ΔGDT-HA is greater than 0, RMSD-num is 203.0 / 300 to 225.0 / 300, and Avg-ΔRMSD is- 0.0156 to -0.0293. All indicators are much better than Top1 model.

Table 5. Top 1 model with entropy and global conformation weights

NNFF/lr	GDT-HA-num	Avg ΔGDT-HA	RMSD-num	Avg-ΔRMSD
638/0.0005	100.8/300	-0.0014	159.8/300	0.0032
638/0.001	93.4/300	-0.0032	170.2/300	-0.0071
770/0.0005	98.6/300	-0.0019	138.0/300	0.0036
770/0.001	92.1/300	-0.0036	130.2/300	0.0072

Table 6. Best of 5 model with entropy and global conformation weights

NNFF/lr	GDT-HA-num	Avg ΔGDT-HA	RMSD-num	Avg-ΔRMSD
638/0.0005	171.5/300	0.0017	210.7/300	-0.0156
638/0.001	170.5/300	0.0011	225.0/300	-0.0293
770/0.0005	166.3/300	0.0015	203.0/300	-0.0158
770/0.001	166.5/300	0.0008	218.0/300	-0.0293

3.4 GSFE-refinement performance on other datasets

In order to further investigate the robustness of GSFE-refinement, we test the performance of the model on the refineD dataset at a learning rate of 0.0005 with 770-NNFF. As shown in Table 7. In the top 1 model, the GDT-HA score of GSFE-refinement is -0.08 (ranked fourth), worse than refineD-C (0.6365), FG-MD (0.5597), ModRefiner-100[g] (0.1491). In the Best of 5 model, although the result of GSFE-refine is ranked sixth, its result (0.4322) is better than FastRelax-0.5Å (0.0548), FastRelax-4.0Å (0.0751), FastRelax (-0.1999), ModRefiner-0[f](-0.8400), and ModRefiner-100[g](0.1491). These results are generated by 5 iterations. With 50 iterations, the result in the best of 50 model is 0.87, and the GDT-HA-num is 122/150. With super efficiency of our

differentiable refinement algorithm, many more (than 50) iterations is not an issue, however, our scoring (*LOSS*) based on local maximum likelihood approximation is not always able to successfully identify the best models.

Table 7. Average GDT-HA score of GSFE-refinement and other refinement methods on the refineD benchmark datasets of 150 targets

Method	Avg. Top 1	Avg. Best of 5	GDT-HA-num
refineD-C	0.6365	1.3109	121/150
refineD-NC	-1.2403	1.5343	104/150
FG-MD	0.5597	0.5597	-
FastRelax	-3.4317	-0.1999	-
FastRelax-0.5 Å	-0.1403	0.0548	64/150
FastRelax-1.0 Å	-0.3411	0.8811	90/150
FastRelax-2.0 Å	-1.2120	0.8223	77/150
FastRelax-4.0 Å	-2.5471	0.0751	67/150
ModRefiner-0[f]	-0.8400	- 0.8400	-
ModRefiner-100[g]	0.1491	0.1491	-
GSFE-refinement	-0.0800	0.4322	98/150

4. Discussions

The superb efficiency of our algorithm is mainly due to the end to end differentiation such that no random search is performed at all. AlQuraishi developed end-to-end differentiable structure prediction algorithm based on LSTM (long short term memory) architecture that provide a direct map between sequence and structure. Our algorithm, however, is fundamentally different by realizing direct map from structure to free energy. One great feature of GSFE-refinement is that coordinate update/transformation module is separated from NNFF. Therefore, future modification of neural network is extremely flexible, as we indeed need such flexibility to advance from present AA level LMLA treatment (Equation 4) to incorporate side chain heavy atoms, local priors and global correlations (Equation 3). Another advantage of GSFE is that direct control of each comprising unit is straight forward with well-defined physical

interpretation as demonstrated by addition of local restraints (Equations 10, 11).

As each assessment step provides suggestions of preferable AA identity at each position in primary sequence, simple neural network implementation of GSFE is natural and highly efficient for protein design, which would be one direction of our future efforts. Therefore, GSFE theory and GSFE-refinement realize unification of NNFF development, structural model assessment, refinement and design within three thousand lines of codes, and provide clear directions of further development.

Each iteration of GSFE-refinement generates one updated structure. If the NNFF is sufficiently accurate, then with more iterations, better structural model would be generated. For 5-iteration optimizations, the best model should be that last one generated, which is shown as the top 1 model. However, this is apparently not the case, as best of 5 model is on average significantly better than top1 model. Our experiments with RefindD data set suggest that with 50 iterations, the best generated model is significantly better than best of 5 model, but unfortunately is not the 50th model in majority of cases. These observations clearly reflect that the utilized NNFFs are not sufficiently accurate. This is expected by the fact that we utilize only backbone and C_β atoms with a small training set in terms of information source, and use LMLA treatment with both local priors and global correlations ignored in terms of level of theory. Fortunately, the flexibility of our algorithm provides a good platform for further investigations in these directions.

5. Conclusions

In this work, we develop GSFE-refinement, a fully differentiable protein optimization algorithm based on neural network implementation of LMLA treatment of GSFE theory. Training of NNFF may be completed within a few hours on a single GPU card, and optimization of a typical protein structure is accelerated for approximately 1000,000 times when compared with MD-based sampling approach. Therefore, we successfully accomplish our goal to overcome the difficulty of parameter updating and to reduce computation intensity in conventional force fields and sampling framework of protein

structure refinement. In terms of accuracy/reliability of interaction description, performance of optimization suggests that our NNFF based on LMLA and backbone atoms (plus C_β), are comparable to present state-of-the-art all-atom force fields with help of both local and global restraints. There are a lot of potential improvement to be added, including increasing source experimental data input, addition of side chain heavy atom information, incorporation of the local prior term (Equation 4) and proper treatment of global (both pairwise and higher ordered) correlations (Equation 4). We look forward to perform further investigations in these directions.

References

1. Zhang Y. Protein structure prediction: when is it useful? [J]. Current opinion in structural biology, 2009, 19(2): 145-155.

2. Feig M. Computational protein structure refinement: almost there, yet still so far to go[J]. Wiley Interdisciplinary Reviews: Computational Molecular Science, 2017, 7(3): e1307.

3. Maccallum J L, Hua L, Schnieders M J, et al. Assessment of the protein-structure refinement category in CASP8[J]. Proteins Structure Function and Bioinformatics, 2009, 77 Suppl 9(S9):66-80.

4. Hovan L, Oleinikovas V, Yalinca H, et al. Assessment of the model refinement category in CASP12[J]. Proteins: Structure, Function, and Bioinformatics, 2018, 86: 152-167.

5. Heo, L.; Park, H.; Seok, C. GalaxyRefine: Protein structure refinement driven by side-chain repacking[J]. Nucleic Acids Res. 2013, 41, 384–388.

6. Adiyaman R, McGuffin L J. Methods for the Refinement of Protein Structure 3D Models[J]. International journal of molecular sciences, 2019, 20(9): 2301.

7. Lee, M. R.; Tsai, J.; Baker, D.; Kollman, P. A. Molecular dynamics in the end game of protein structure prediction[J]. Mol. Biol. 2001, 313, 417−430.

8. Fan, H.; Mark, A. E. Refinement of homology-based protein structures by molecular dynamics simulation techniques[J]. Protein Sci. 2004, 13, 211−20.

9. Chen J, Brooks III C L. Can molecular dynamics simulations provide high-resolution refinement of protein structure? [J]. Proteins: Structure, Function, and Bioinformatics, 2007, 67(4): 922-930.

10. Feig M, Mirjalili V. Protein structure refinement via molecular-dynamics simulations: what works and what does not? [J]. Proteins: Structure, Function, and Bioinformatics, 2016, 84: 282-292.

11. Bhattacharya D, Cheng J. i3Drefine software for protein 3D structure refinement and its assessment in CASP10[J]. PloS one, 2013, 8(7).

12. Park H, DiMaio F, Baker D. CASP 11 refinement experiments with ROSETTA[J]. Proteins: Structure, Function, and Bioinformatics, 2016, 84: 314-322.

13. Bhattacharya, D.; Cheng, J. 3Drefine: consistent protein structure refinement by optimizing hydrogen bonding network and atomic-level energy minimization[J]. Proteins: Struct., Funct., Genet. 2013, 81, 119−31.

14. Heo, L.; Park, H.; Seok, C. GalaxyRefine: Protein structure refinement driven by side-chain

repacking. Nucleic Acids Res[J]. 2013, 41, W384−8.

15. Park, H.; Seok, C. Refinement of unreliable local regions in template-based protein models[J]. Proteins: Struct., Funct., Genet. 2012, 80, 1974−86.

16. Park, H.; Ko, J.; Joo, K.; Lee, J.; Seok, C.; Lee, J. Refinement of protein termini in template-based modeling using conformational space annealing[J]. Proteins: Struct., Funct., Genet. 2011, 79, 2725−34.

17. Zhang, J.; Liang, Y.; Zhang, Y. Atomic-level protein structure refinement using fragment-guided molecular dynamics conformation sampling[J]. Structure 2011, 19, 1784−95.

18. Best, R.B.; Zhu, X.; Shim, J.; Lopes, P.E.M.; Mittal, J.; Feig, M.; MacKerell, A.D. Optimization of the Additive CHARMMAll-Atom Protein Force Field Targeting Improved Sampling of the Backbone φ, ψ and Side-Chain χ 1 and χ 2 Dihedral Angles[J]. Chem. Theory Comput. 2012, 8, 3257–3273.

19. Maier, J.A.; Martinez, C.; Kasavajhala, K.; Wickstrom, L.; Hauser, K.E.; Simmerling, C. ff14SB: Improving the Accuracy of Protein Side Chain and Backbone Parameters from ff99SB[J]. Chem. Theory Comput. 2015, 11, 3696–3713.

20. Zhou H, Zhou Y. Distance-scaled, finite ideal-gas reference state improves structure-derived potentials of mean force for structure selection and stability prediction[J]. Protein Sci. 2002;11(11):2714–26.

21. Shen M, Sali A. Statistical potential for assessment and prediction of protein structures[J]. Protein Sci. 2006;15(11):2507–24.

22. Zhang J, Zhang Y. A novel side-chain orientation dependent potential derived from random-walk reference state for protein fold selection and structure prediction[J]. PLoS One. 2010;5(10):e15386.

23. Zhou H, Skolnick J. GOAP: a generalized orientation-dependent, all-atom statistical potential for protein structure prediction. Biophys [J]. 2011;101(8): 2043–52.

24. Mirjalili V, Feig M. Protein structure refinement through structure selection and averaging from molecular dynamics ensembles[J]. Journal of chemical theory and computation, 2013, 9(2): 1294-1303.

Tyka,M.D.; Keedy,D.A.; André,I.; Dimaio,F.; Song,Y.; Richardson,D.C.; Richardson,J.S.; Baker,D.Alternate states of proteins revealed by detailed energy land scape mapping[J].Mol. Biol. 2011,405,607–618.

DiMaio, F.; Tyka, M.D.; Baker, M.L.; Chiu, W.; Baker,D.Refinement of Protein Structures into Low-Resolution Density Maps Using Rosetta[J]. Mol. Biol. 2009, 392, 181–190.

Mirjalili V, Feig M. Protein structure refinement through structure selection and averaging from molecular dynamics ensembles[J]. Journal of chemical theory and computation, 2013, 9(2): 1294-1303.

Mirjalili V, Noyes K, Feig M. Physics-based protein structure refinement through multiple molecular dynamics trajectories and structure averaging[J]. Proteins: Structure, Function, and Bioinformatics, 2014, 82: 196-207.

Critical Assessment of Techniques for Protein Structure Prediction. 13 Abstracts. Available online: http://predictioncenter.org/casp13/index.cgi (accessed on 2 April 2019).

Alford, R.F.; Leaver-Fay, A.; Jeliazkov, J.R.; O'Meara, M.J.; DiMaio, F.P.; Park, H.; Shapovalov, M.V.; Renfrew, P.D.; Mulligan, V.K.; Kappel, K.; et al. The Rosetta All-Atom Energy Function for Macromolecular Modeling and Design. J. Chem. Theory Comput. 2017, 13

Wang S, Peng J, Ma J, et al. Protein secondary structure prediction using deep convolutional neural fields[J]. Scientific reports, 2016, 6(1): 1-11.

Xu J. Distance-based protein folding powered by deep learning[J]. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences, 2019, 116(34): 16856-16865.

AlQuraishi M. End-to-end differentiable learning of protein structure[J]. Cell systems, 2019, 8(4): 292-301. e3.

AlQuraishi M. AlphaFold at CASP13[J]. Bioinformatics, 2019, 35(22): 4862-4865.

Senior A W, Evans R, Jumper J, et al. Improved protein structure prediction using potentials from deep learning[J]. Nature, 2020: 1-5.

Bhattacharya D. refineD: Improved protein structure refinement using machine learning based restrained relaxation[J]. Bioinformatics, 2019, 35(18): 3320-3328.

Khatib F, Cooper S, Tyka M D, et al. Algorithm discovery by protein folding game players[J]. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences, 2011, 108(47): 18949-18953.

Long S, Tian P. A simple neural network implementation of generalized solvation free energy for assessment of protein structural models[J]. RSC Advances, 2019, 9(62): 36227-36233.

Goodfellow I, Bengio Y, Courville A. Deep learning[M]. MIT press, 2016.

Qian B, Raman S, Das R, et al. High-resolution structure prediction and the crystallographic phase problem[J]. Nature, 2007, 450(7167): 259-264.

Nugent T, Cozzetto D, Jones D T. Evaluation of predictions in the CASP10 model refinement category[J]. Proteins: Structure, Function, and Bioinformatics, 2014, 82: 98-111.

Adhikari, Badri, Cheng, Jianlin. CONFOLD2: improved contact-driven ab initio protein structure modeling[J]. Bmc Bioinformatics, 19(1):22.

Parsons J, Holmes J B, Rojas J M, et al. Practical conversion from torsion space to Cartesian space for in silico protein synthesis[J]. Journal of computational chemistry, 2005, 26(10): 1063-1068.

Zemla A. LGA: a method for finding 3D similarities in protein structures[J]. Nucleic acids research, 2003, 31(13): 3370-3374.

Ishitani R, Terada T, Shimizu K. Refinement of comparative models of protein structure by using multicanonical molecular dynamics simulations[J]. Molecular Simulation, 2008, 34(3): 327-336.

Cao W, Terada T, Nakamura S, et al. Refinement of comparative-modeling structures by multicanonical molecular dynamics[J]. Genome Informatics, 2003, 14: 484-485.

Zhang J, Liang Y, Zhang Y. Atomic-level protein structure refinement using fragment-guided molecular dynamics conformation sampling[J]. Structure, 2011, 19(12): 1784-1795.