Foldclass and Merizo-search: embedding-based deep learning tools for protein domain segmentation, fold recognition and comparison

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Abstract

The availability of very large numbers of protein structures from accurate computational methods poses new challenges in storing, searching and detecting relationships between these structures. In particular, the new-found abundance of multi-domain structures in the AlphaFold structure database introduces challenges for traditional structure comparison methods. We address these challenges using a fast, embedding-based structure comparison method called Foldclass which detects structural similarity between protein domains. We demonstrate the accuracy of Foldclass embeddings for homology detection. In combination with a recently developed deep learning-based automatic domain segmentation tool Merizo, we develop Merizo-search, which first segments multi-domain query structures into domains, and then searches a Foldclass embedding database to determine the top matches for each constituent domain. Combining the ability of Merizo to accurately segment complete chains into domains, and Foldclass to embed and detect similar domains, Merizo-search can be used to detect per-domain similarities for complete chains. We anticipate that these tools will enable a number of analyses using the wealth of predicted structural data now available. Foldclass and Merizo-search are available at https://github.com/psipred/merizo_search.

Introduction

In the post-AlphaFold2 (Jumper *et al.*, 2021) era, the field of structural biology has been revolutionised by an influx of structures, generated at the push of a button. Consider this question: given a protein of interest, what is the best way to identify similar structures from within a database of more than 200 million AlphaFold2, or 600 million ESMFold (Lin *et al.*, 2023) structures? In such a situation, most, if not all traditional methods for structural comparison (e.g. TMalign (Zhang and Skolnick, 2005) and SSAP (Orengo and Taylor, 1996)), will struggle with the sheer volume of data. This challenge is partially mitigated by advanced tools like Foldseek (van Kempen *et al.*, 2023), which navigates the extensive search space far more rapidly than traditional tools. Foldseek's efficiency stems from its unique encoding system, which compresses the contact information of a protein's 3D structure into a one-dimensional sequence (or "3Di string"), enabling it to make use of highly efficient alignment and clustering methodologies introduced in its predecessor MMseqs2 (Steinegger and Söding, 2017). However, fast as it is, Foldseek is not without its limitations. Its simplified representation of 3D structures, relying on nearest neighbour contacts, may inadvertently lead to similar 3Di strings generated for certain unique but similar protein folds.

This consideration is particularly relevant in the context of structural homology detection, which concerns the detection of distant evolutionary relationships between pairs of proteins, seemingly unrelated by sequence, but which are related by the fold of their structures. Many methods have been devised to aid in this task, leveraging state-of-the-art deep learning methodologies for comparing structures and include methods such as TMVec (Hamamsy *et al.*, 2023) and Progres (Greener and Jamali, 2022). In short, these methods each make use of embedding-based approaches for determining similarity within an embedding space. A neural network embeds the protein sequence, structure, or both, into a latent embedding space, whereby similar proteins are localised to the same areas of the embedding space during training. Distance metrics such as the cosine distance can be used to calculate a single score representing the similarity between two embeddings in a latent space (i.e. two structures). A similar but machine learning-free approach is taken in Geometricus (Durairaj *et al.*, 2020), which decomposes a query structure into a set of fragments and 3D moment invariants that characterise local structural neighbourhoods. These fragments are discretized, and using the set union of such fragments observed in a reference set of proteins, and the vector of counts of each fragment serves as an embedding of the structure, which can then be searched against a precomputed database of such embeddings to find similar structures.

However, the task of structure searching is further complicated by a multitude of factors. Many proteins consist of multiple domains that can appear in varying orders and conformations, necessitating a clear definition of "similarity" between two structures. To address this challenge, searches can be conducted at the domain level by initially decomposing a query protein into its constituent domains before comparing them against a library of annotated domains, such as those found in CATH (Sillitoe *et al.*, 2021) and ECOD (Cheng *et al.*, 2014). As domains constitute the functional units of proteins, this approach further facilitates the transfer of functional annotations by linking specific regions of a protein to known functional domains. Automated domain parsing methods like Merizo (Lau *et al.*, 2023), Chainsaw (Wells *et al.*, 2023), UniDoc (Zhu *et al.*, 2023), and SWORD (Postic *et al.*,

2017) can be employed to accomplish this task, with the newer methods Merizo and Chainsaw capable of operating on both experimental structures and those predicted by deep learning methods such as AlphaFold. This distinction is crucial, as models generated by methods such as AlphaFold2 and ESMFold, may feature long stretches of unstructured regions that are not part of domains (non-domain residues; NDR), owing to the full sequence being modelled. With few exceptions, NDRs are typically absent in experimentally determined structures.

We describe a new method for conducting protein structure similarity searching at the domain level. This tool extends the functionality of our recent method Merizo, allowing a multidomain query to be first segmented using Merizo, before embedding domain structures into a latent representation using an equivariant graph neural network called Foldclass. Domain embeddings are compared against a library of precomputed structure embeddings from structure databases such as the CATH database, and the top k nearest neighbours (measured by cosine distance) are returned, with further validation using TMalign to confirm hits. Since Merizo has already been benchmarked for accuracy on domain segmentation tasks (Lau et al. 2023), here we focus on the development and performance of Foldclass for embedding-based similarity searching, and its integration with Merizo into Merizo-search.

Results

Integration of Merizo and Foldclass in Merizo-search

A summary of our combined Merizo and Foldclass method is shown in Figure 1. Our method consists of several key routines which make it convenient for a multidomain query to be searched against a library of domains. Firstly, given a multidomain query, the Merizo-segment routine can be called to predict the domains of the query. These domains are then encoded using the Foldclass network into fixed size embedding of shape [N, 128], where N is the number of identified domains in the original query. Query domain embeddings are then searched against a structure library which can be separately prepared using the Merizo-createdb routine, which handles the high-throughput embedding of each structure into a custom Foldclass database containing the per-structure embeddings of size [M, 128] (where M is the number of encoded target structures), and their Cα coordinates. The Merizo-search functionality conducts the searching of the query domain embeddings against the target embeddings and the distance between all queries and targets are computed via a metric such as the cosine distance. In the final step, Merizo-search validates the top *k* targets (ranked via the distance metric in the previous step) by computing the TM-align score between their Cα coordinates. To make our method more comprehensive, the Merizo easy-search method can be used to automatically run Merizo-segment and Merizo-search on a query structure, provided the user already has a pre-encoded target database.

Figure 1. Workflow of Merizo-search. (**a**) A query composed of multiple domains can be input to the *segment* module of Merizo-search which segments the query into *N* domains using Merizo. Domains are then encoded using Foldclass into fixed-size embeddings. (**b**) The *createdb* module allows a structure database (e.g. CATH domains) to be encoded into a database of embeddings and Cα coordinates using Foldclass. (**c**) The *search* module computes the nearest neighbour of each query embedding against target embeddings using cosine distance. The nearest neighbours of each query domain is ranked according to cosine distance and the top *k* results are validated using TM-align. The *easy-search* module uses the *segment* and *search* routines to directly search a multidomain query against a pre-encoded target database of structures.

Accuracy of Foldclass embeddings for structure similarity searching

As a validation of the Foldclass embedding network itself, we looked at its classification performance on a holdout set of 62 domains from the last 3 CASP experiments for which no homologs could be found in CATH, but which did have matches at the fold (T) level. On this set, Foldclass has an overall accuracy of 45/62 (73%). However, when thresholded at a confidence of 0.9, 42/44 (precision 95%) of the domains are correctly labelled (recall 65%), showing that the Foldclass network performs well on these hard cases when used as just a simple classifier.

We then compared the performance of Merizo-search against Foldseek, in both TMalign and 3Di+AA alignment modes. In each experiment, we search the CATH (v4.3) S40 representative domains against the CATH S20 set and evaluate whether each S40 query is matched with a S20 target of the same CATH superfamily. As not all CATH superfamilies are included within the CATH S20 and S40 representative sets, we evaluate only domains belonging to superfamilies which are present in both datasets (n=21,005). For each S40 query, we take its corresponding CATH superfamily label and check the top target returned by each method (sorted by descending query TM-align score). A match is considered a hit if the target domain belongs to the same CATH superfamily.

The results shown in Figure 2 indicate that Merizo-search identifies a comparable number of hits to Foldseek when the value of top *k* is increased, with the most hits identified at *k*=20. Compared to Foldseek, Merizo-search outperforms both the 'fast' and 'fastest' search modes of Foldseek which perform faster searches but at a cost to sensitivity.

Figure 2. Comparing Merizo-search and Foldseek on CATH superfamily predictions. Each bar represents the percentage of queries where the top ranked target belongs to the same CATH superfamily (n=21,005).

We further evaluated whether the hits identified by Foldseek and Merizo-search overlapped. The results of this benchmark are shown in Tables 1 and 2 for Foldseek in TM-align modes

and 3Di+AA modes respectively. Overall, we see that Merizo-search is able to recover several hundred to several thousand queries that Foldseek cannot find correct matches for, with the highest recovery gained when Foldseek is used in its "fast" and "fastest" modes (which differ from the default mode by altering the sensitivity setting). Compared to Foldseek's exhaustive modes, Merizo-search is able to find matches for several hundred more queries, even when running Merizo-search in the least sensitive *k*=1 mode. Taken together, these results suggest that structure matching via embedding similarity can be used to complement Foldseek in order to maximise coverage for a set of queries.

Table 1. Number of additional hits recovered by Merizo-search over Foldseek (TMalign mode). n=21,005

	Merizo-search		
Foldseek	Top k=1	Top k=10	Top k=20
Fastest (s=1)	8140	9134	9285
Fast (s=4)	3004	3600	3707
Default (s=9.5)	147	191	211
Exhaustive	111	134	151

Table 2. Number of additional hits recovered by Merizo-search over Foldseek (3Di+AA mode). n=21,005

	Merizo-search		
Foldseek	Top k=1	Top k=10	Top k=20
Fastest (s=1)	8948	10002	10158
Fast (s=4)	3313	3994	4110
Default (s=9.5)	240	378	414
Exhaustive	124	227	255

Discussion

The ability to represent protein domains as fixed-length vectors lends itself to a number of applications, including the ability to rapidly conduct similarity searches against libraries of domains. To date, most embedding methods for protein sequences and structures have focused on per-residue embeddings computed for entire chains, meaning that comparison is most accurate and meaningful when comparing entire proteins. A more complete picture of evolutionary relatedness would need to take into account the domain architecture of the proteins being compared. Our work using Foldclass illustrates the principle that this technique for searching is indeed effective, and the strategy we employ lends itself to more scalable approaches that can meet the challenge of searching very large databases of protein domain structures. The ability to do this opens up new possibilities in furthering our understanding of the protein universe. Additionally, we leveraged our recently developed

domain segmentation tool, Merizo, to first automatically segment a query structure if needed, embed the constituent domains using the Foldclass neural network and then search the constituent domains against a precomputed database of Foldclass-derived embeddings. This integrated tool makes it convenient for users to assess domain-level evolutionary relationships between protein structures, and we anticipate that it can be used to discover similarities and differences between multi-domain structures, which account for a significant fraction of proteomes across the Tree of Life.

Methods

Model architecture and Training

The Foldclass neural network model is essentially a stack of two or more E(n)-equivariant graph neural network (EGNN) blocks (Satorras *et al.*, 2021), with the residue positional encoding used as the node features, and the original domain Cα coordinates used as the coordinate inputs. The EGNN layers compute updated node representations using a message-passing framework and have the property of being equivariant to rotations, translations, reflections and permutations of the input coordinates. In our implementation, we omit the coordinate update step used in the original, as this is not useful for a fold classification task, and the same unchanged coordinates are presented to all the EGNN blocks. The EGNN blocks use a hidden dimension of 128 and an output dimension of 256 for the node and edge update sub-networks. The updated node features from the final EGNN layer are then averaged to yield the final embedding of the input structure. This yields the final fixed-size embedding for a given input structure regardless of the number of residues.

Input node features are just sinusoidal positional encoding vectors (Vaswani *et al.*, 2017) for the sequence. An encoding of the sequence itself was not used as input to the model, as this was found to cause rapid overfitting.

Unlike previous methods, which tend to make use of contrastive loss, Foldclass is initially trained purely as a multiclass classifier. This turns out to be a very efficient and stable way of training the model. The final average embedding of the input structure is used as the input for three separate linear layers. These three output heads of the network predict logits for the Class (C), Architecture (A) and Topology (T) level classifications in CATH. The classification heads are trained using categorical cross-entropy loss functions with inbuilt softmax functions. During training, class weights were set to f_{min}/f_i i.e. weighted according to reciprocal frequency of each class in the training set where the minimum class frequency in the training set is given a weight of 1. Training the network on the different levels of the CATH hierarchy in parallel, where the C and C.A labels are effectively acting as auxiliary losses, reduces overfitting and gives a more robust final embedding.

The training set comprised 31,885 domains, which are the S30 non-redundant subset of domains in the CATH 4.3 release. A small random validation set of 50 was used to monitor overfitting. Although this classifier training is considered as pre-training of the model, we did make use of a separate classification test set of 62 domains that were targets in CASP13-15 which have no detectable homologs in the 4.3 release of CATH, but which did have matching folds and so could be assigned CAT labels.

The number of different labels for the 3 output heads are as follows: 5 (C), 43 (CA) and 1421 (CAT). The EGNN weights are initialised from a normal distribution with a mean of 0 and a standard deviation of 1e-3, while the classification layers are initialised using the PyTorch default initialization. The Foldclass network is trained for a maximum of 300 epochs using the AdamW optimiser (Loshchilov and Hutter, 2017; Kingma and Ba, 2014) with a learning rate of 0.0003 and a weight decay of 1E-2. Further regularisation is provided by adding Gaussian noise with a standard deviation of 1.5Å to the Cα input coordinates of each training example. No noise is added for validation samples.

Using Foldclass for structure embedding

Although Foldclass is trained as a classifier, in practice its primary use is in generating an embedding vector which is a representation of the overall chain fold of the protein domain. This is achieved by simply removing the linear layers which output the classification logits and taking the mean output from the EGNN blocks as the embedding vector. These vectors can easily be compared by say Euclidean distance or cosine similarity like any embedding vector.

Database construction and searching

A Foldclass database is a collection of the sequences of the constituent structures, along with its embedding computed from the Foldclass neural network. The embedding of the query sequence is then used to compute cosine similarities to the embeddings stored in the database. The top k hits with highest similarity are returned. The parameter k can be varied and we investigate the performance of a few settings of k. This approach is acceptable as a proof of principle, but does not scale to very large database sizes (>10M entries), for which specialised vector databases with approximate k-nearest neighbour searching techniques are needed for reasonable runtimes; this is left for future work.

Acknowledgements

We thank Daniel Buchan for helpful discussions.

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