

Supplementary Materials

1. Supplementary method descriptions

1.1 Augmenting the structural prototypes of protein fragments with local environment information

We consider a fragment comprising l contiguous residues as a single entity. We represent the local geometric and environmental features of fragment a by a coding vector of $1+2l$ components,

$$\mathbf{C}^a = \{C_{SP}^a, C_{SS,1}^a, C_{SS,2}^a, \dots, C_{SS,l}^a, C_{SA,1}^a, C_{SA,2}^a, \dots, C_{SA,l}^a\}. \quad (1)$$

The first component, C_{SP}^a , encodes the structure prototype of the fragment. In this study we consider fragments comprising 5 contiguous residues and the value of C_{SP}^a will be one of the 16 structure prototypes (protein blocks) defined based on backbone torsional angles by de Brevern et al (de Brevern, et al., 2000; Etchebest, et al., 2005).

The next l components, $\{C_{SS,1}^a, C_{SS,2}^a, \dots, C_{SS,l}^a\}$, encode the secondary structure states. For each residue, we consider three possible secondary structure states, helix, coil and strand. The $C_{SS,i}^a$ encodes the secondary structure state of the i th residue of the fragment as a three-dimensional vectors, with possible values (0,0,1), (0,1,0) and (1,0,0) for helix, coil and strand, respectively.

The last l components of the coding vector, $\{C_{SA,1}^a, C_{SA,2}^a, \dots, C_{SA,l}^a\}$, encode the solvent accessibility, with $C_{SA,i}^a$ encoding the relative solvent accessibility of the side chain of the i th residue of the fragment in the native protein structure, also as a three dimensional vector, the sub-components of which taking real-number values within [0,1] computed as

$$C_{SA,i,1-3}^a = \begin{cases} (0, \delta - \delta * \frac{SA_0 - SA}{SA_0}, \delta + \delta * \frac{SA_0 - SA}{SA_0}) & \text{if } SA \leq SA_0, \\ (\delta - \delta * \frac{SA_1 - SA}{SA_1 - SA_0}, \delta, \delta * \frac{SA_1 - SA}{SA_1 - SA_0}) & \text{if } SA_0 < SA < SA_1 \text{ and} \\ (\delta + \delta * \frac{SA - SA_1}{1 - SA_1}, \delta - \delta * \frac{SA - SA_1}{1 - SA_1}, 0) & \text{if } SA \geq SA_1. \end{cases} \quad (2)$$

SA is the relative solvent accessible areas of residue i within [0,1], $SA_0=0.09$ separates the complete buried states from the intermediately buried states, and $SA_1=0.36$ separates the intermediately buried states from the exposed states. The $C_{SA,i}^a$ would be (0,0,1), (0,0.5,0.5), (0.5,0.5,0) and (1,0,0) when SA takes values of 0, SA_0 , SA_1 , and 1, respectively.

1.2. Measuring similarity between protein fragments using the coding vectors.

Given two fragments a and b with their respective coding vectors $\mathbf{C}^a$ and $\mathbf{C}^b$, we use the

following function to score their overall similarity,

$$S(\mathbf{C}^a, \mathbf{C}^b) = \delta_{c_{SP}^a c_{SP}^b} (w_{SS} S_{SS}^{ab} + w_{SA} S_{SA}^{ab}). \quad (3)$$

The Kronecker δ function is 1 if a and b are of the same structure prototype (PB) and 0 otherwise. S_{SS}^{ab} and S_{SA}^{ab} measure the similarity of the secondary structure components and solvent accessibility components, respectively, of a and b . Here we compute them as the Pearson correlation coefficients between the corresponding components of the coding vectors. For example,

$$S_{SS}^{ab} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^l \sum_{j=1}^3 (C_{SS,i,j}^a - \bar{C}_{SS}^a) * (C_{SS,i,j}^b - \bar{C}_{SS}^b)}{\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^l \sum_{j=1}^3 (C_{SS,i,j}^a - \bar{C}_{SS}^a)^2} \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^l \sum_{j=1}^3 (C_{SS,i,j}^b - \bar{C}_{SS}^b)^2}}. \quad (4)$$

Here $\bar{C}_{SS}^a$ and $\bar{C}_{SS}^b$ stand for averages over the three subcomponents for each position and then over the l positions for fragments a and b , respectively. The weighting parameters w_{SA} and w_{SS} in equation (3) determine respectively the relative contributions of the secondary structure components and solvent accessibility components (see below for how they have been determined).

1.3 Clustering protein fragments in the space of the coding vectors.

We apply the K-means algorithm (MacQueen, 1967) to cluster protein fragments in the space spanned by their coding vectors based on the similarity measure described above. Given a set of data points and a metric for similarity between them, the K-means algorithm partitions the set into user-specified number of clusters, so that each cluster contains data points as similar to each other as possible while the similarity between points in different clusters is minimized. This is achieved through the local minimization of a pseudo energy function which depends on both the within-cluster similarity and the between-cluster dissimilarity. There are two consequences of practical implications for such an approach. One is that the number of clusters is an input parameter for rather than a result of the clustering process, thus we can choose this parameter so that certain extra properties of the clusters are optimum. The other is that the local minimization process, usually started from random initial guesses, cannot be guaranteed to reach the global minimum of the pseudo energy function. Heuristically the clustering can be repeated with different initial guesses and the “best” solution is accepted.

Usually, the aggregation of clustered data points in the coding space is employed to measure the effectiveness of clustering. Such a metric, however, do not suit our purpose, which is to bridge the space coding structure and environmental of the fragments with the sequence space, rather than to aggregate fragments in the coding space itself. It is thus appropriate to use the similarity of the structurally and environmentally clustered fragments in the sequence space to select optimum clustering solutions.

Given the size of the dataset to be partitioned into clusters, the numbers of data points

contained in individual clusters change in inverse proportion to the total number of clusters. Changing the number of data points in a structure cluster has dual effects on our efforts to extract sequence preferences of its members. On one hand, a larger cluster size implies better statistics for the sequence preferences of the members of the cluster. On the other hand, larger clusters may also imply wider spreading of the members in both the structure and the sequence spaces and the specificity of the extracted preferences decreases. To balance between these two effects, we define a cluster size-independent measurement of sequence biases as criteria for selections of the clustering parameters.

Given m fragments forming a cluster in the structure and environmental coding space, we can compute their similarity in the sequence space. This similarity can be compared with the sequence similarity between randomly-selected m fragments from the entire data set. The probability that the randomly chosen fragments aggregates better in the sequence space than the clustered fragments is used as a measure of the sequence bias of the clustered fragments. The lower this probability, the stronger the sequence bias of the clustered fragments. As there are the same numbers of structurally clustered and randomly chosen fragments, the size-dependence of the computed similarity in the sequence space is compensated for. As the sequence biases at different positions of the fragments can be very different, we measure the sequence similarity of each position separately. Consider cluster k containing m_k fragments, we use the following $c_i(k)$ to measure the similarity of residues at position i of different members of the cluster,

$$c_i(k) = \frac{2}{m_k(m_k - 1)} \sum_{\substack{a, b \in \text{cluster } k \\ a < b}}^{m_k} \sigma(\alpha_i^a, \alpha_i^b), \quad (5)$$

in which α_i^a and α_i^b are the amino acid residue types at position i of fragments a and b , respectively. The $\sigma(\alpha_i^a, \alpha_i^b)$ is the corresponding element in the BLOSUM90 amino acid substitution matrix (Henikoff and Henikoff, 1996; Henikoff and Henikoff, 1992). To define the cluster size-independent sequence bias at position i , we use

$$b(k) = \sum_{i=1}^l 1 - \theta[P(c_0(m_k) > c_i(k))], \quad (6)$$

$$\theta(x) = \begin{cases} 1, & x > p_0 \\ 0, & x \leq p_0 \end{cases}$$

in which $c_0(m)$ is the similarity score of a randomly chosen set of m residues as measured in equation (3), and P represents probability. Equation (6) measures effectively the number of positions at which similar amino acid residues are significantly preferred (above the confidence level $(1 - p_0) \times 100\%$, where p_0 equal 0.1) in member fragments of cluster k . For a given partitioning of an entire dataset of fragments into N clusters, we compute

$$b_{total} = \frac{\sum_{k=1}^N m_k b(k)}{\sum_{k=1}^N m_k} \quad (7)$$

as a measure of the effectiveness of the partitioning for extracting sequence preferences.

As the K-means computations are expensive for larger datasets, we first used a dataset comprising all 5-residue fragments in 72 proteins to explore different coding schemes and similarity measures based on the b_{total} value. These proteins have been selected randomly from a dataset containing 482 protein chains (see below). For each explored schemes and parameters multiple (>50) K-means runs were performed and the averaged b_{total} values were considered. The ratio between the weighting factors w_{SS} and w_{SA} has been systematically changed between 10:1 to 1:10, with the additional choices of 0:1 and 1:0 considered. For each chosen $w_{SS}:w_{SA}$ ratio the total number of k-means clusters was systematically varied from 5 to 500. Comparing the resulting b_{total} values an approximate range for the $w_{SS}:w_{SA}$ ratio between 1:10 to 1:1 was determined. Fixing w_{SA} to 1.0 and w_{SS} was systematically changed between 0.1 to 1.0 in steps of 0.1, for each of the ratio, the dataset containing 482 proteins were clustered with varying number of k-means clusters. Again by comparing the resulting b_{total} values an optimum $w_{SS}:w_{SA}$ ratio and the corresponding optimum number of clusters for each PB type determined. In Table S8 the averaged b_{total} values resulted from different $w_{SS}:w_{SA}$ ratios are listed, in which $w_{SS}=0.4$ with w_{SA} fixed at 1.0 is the optimum. Figure S1 shows as an example how the b_{total} value changes with the number of k-means clusters (with $w_{SS}=0.4$ and w_{SA} fixed at 1.0) for PB type C.

1.4. Modeling the sequence preferences of clustered fragments

We can describe the sequence preferences of fragments in cluster k by the following conditional probability, $p(\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_l | k)$. Given any reasonable database size, the number of members contained the clusters would not allow for any meaningful direct estimation of this completely jointed distribution. Thus we approximate the distribution using the single site marginal distributions and the correlations between two sites,

$$p(\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_l | k) \propto \prod_{i=1}^l p(\alpha_i | k) * \left(\prod_{i=2}^l \prod_{j=1}^{i-1} \frac{p(\alpha_i, \alpha_j | k)}{p(\alpha_i | k) p(\alpha_j | k)} \right)^\zeta \quad (8)$$

The conditional probabilities $p(\alpha_i | k)$, and $p(\alpha_i, \alpha_j | k)$ are estimated from the amino acid sequences of the fragments contained in the cluster, and $\zeta = 0.2$ for $l=5$. The inter-site coupling will be used only in the local structure prediction tests. In the sequence prediction tests (see below) we will treat the distributions at different sites as mutually independent ($\zeta = 0$).

The member fragments contained in a cluster can be considered as a sample of the sequence

distribution of all fragments in similar shape and local environments. The size of the sample usually does not allow for accurate estimation of the probability of rare sequences even with approximations in equation (8). We used pseudocounts to partly compensate for the effects of this insufficient sampling,

$$p(\alpha_i = \alpha | k) \approx \frac{n_k(\alpha_i = \alpha) + b_{c\alpha}}{N_k + B_c} \quad (9)$$

in which N_k is the size of the sample or the number of members in cluster k , $n_k(\alpha_i = \alpha)$ is the actual count of residue α at position i , B_c is the total number of pseudocounts, and $b_{c\alpha}$ is the number of pseudocounts for residue α at position i based on certain a prior distributions. The following choices of B_c and $b_{c\alpha}$ were found to perform well (Henikoff and Henikoff, 1996; Marti-Renom, et al., 2004; Sadreyev and Grishin, 2004; Sunyaev, et al., 1999),

$$\begin{aligned} b_{c\alpha} &= B_c * p(\alpha | SS, SA) \\ B_c &= 5 * R_c \end{aligned} \quad (10)$$

in which R_c is the total number of different residue types observed at a given position, and $p(\alpha | SS, SA)$ is the amino acid distribution at positions with given secondary structure and solvent accessibility state, estimated directly using the entire data set.

The two-site joint probability $p(\alpha_i, \alpha_j | k)$ in equation (8) have also been estimated using pseudocounts, with the total number of pseudocounts $B_c = \sqrt{N_k}$ and the pseudocounts for residue pair (α_i, α_j) proportional to the corresponding joint probability in all training fragments belonging to the PB associated with cluster k .

1.5. Local protein structure predictions by a hidden Markov model.

The simplest scheme to predict local structures using the above model is to compare directly the likelihoods of different structure types (equation (8)) given the sequence of the l contiguous residues, ignoring the influences of surrounding residues and their preferred structures. In such a model the strong correlations between the shapes of neighboring or overlapping fragments would have been ignored. We considered several different approaches to take such correlations into account and to generate consistent predictions for contiguous fragments. The first is a hidden Markov model (HMM (Rabiner and Juang, 1986)), in which the joint structural and environmental cluster a fragment may belong to is considered as a hidden state, and the sequence of the fragment are the observed values. The emission probabilities for different sequences are modeled by equation (8). The distribution of the initial hidden states and the transition probabilities between neighboring hidden states can be estimated directly from a database of training protein structures. Given the complete sequence of a protein (the sequence of the observed states), the standard forward-backward algorithm can be applied to compute the distribution of hidden states for any fragment. From the distribution the probability for a fragment to be of certain structure prototype

(protein block) can be computed. We compared different choices (from 1 to $l-1$ residues along the sequence) for the frame shift between neighboring hidden states and they produced similar prediction results. The results from a frame shift of one residue will be reported here.

1.6. Another scoring scheme for local structure prediction by sequence–structure database matching

This scheme is based on the distribution of central fragment structure prototypes among the N top-scoring template windows. The integrated score for structure prototype SP is given by

$$\sigma_{N-top}(SP) = \frac{N_{top}(SP)}{N_{top_total}}, \quad (11)$$

in which $N_{top}(SP)$ is the number of template windows whose central fragments are of structure prototype SP among the N_{top_total} top-scoring template windows for the given target window.

The predicted structure prototype for the target fragment would be the prototype associated with the highest score defined in equation (11). The results are not very sensitive to the exact values of N_{top_total} between several hundred to one or two thousand. And the reported results have been obtained using $N_{top_total}=1000$.

1.7. Datasets, cross tests and control calculations

Both the probabilistic sequence preference models in equation (8) and the sequence-structure database matching method for local structure prediction depend on a set of training or template data comprised of proteins of known structures. We considered two datasets of different sizes for training and testing the methods. The small dataset contains 482 complete, non-homologous peptide chains (Table S1) with known structures selected by de Brevern et al (<http://condor.ebgm.jussieu.fr/~debvern/DOWN>). The proteins contained a total number of 117377 overlapping, five-residue long fragments. The large dataset comprises 1462 complete chains (Table S2) contained in PDB-REPRDB (Noguchi and Akiyama, 2003). These 1462 proteins are not homologous with pair-wise sequence identities <20%, chain lengths > 40, structures determined by X-ray crystallography at resolutions < 2.0 Å and with R-factors < 0.3. The total number of fragments contained in these proteins is 375511. The secondary structure state of each residue in both datasets has been computed using STRIDE(Frishman and Argos, 1995) and the relative solvent accessibility computed using the Lee and Richards algorithm(Lee and Richards, 1971).

For each datasets, we performed 6-fold cross tests for both sequence preference predictions and local structure prediction. In the tests the dataset was randomly partitioned into 6 groups of protein chains. When chains in one group were used as test data, chains in the remaining five groups were used not only to derive the probabilistic sequence preference models, but also to construct the template database for sequence-structure matching. The tests covered the entire dataset after each of the 6 groups has been used as test data in turn.

To investigate the effects of augmenting the fragment shape information by solvent accessibilities, we performed the following control calculations on the large dataset. Probabilistic sequence preference models have been built separately (i) without any partitioning of fragments of each PB into clusters (i.e., one cluster for each PB type, noted as “PB only”), (ii) with partitioning based on only the PB types and secondary structure states ($w_{SS}=1.0$ and $w_{SA}=0.0$ in equation (3), noted as “PB+SS”), and (iii) with partitioning based on only the PB types and the solvent accessibility states ($w_{SS}=0.0$ and $w_{SA}=1.0$ in equation (3), noted as “PB+SA”). For (i) we consider the additional case in which only a single 5-residue long fragment is included for local structure prediction ($m=0$ in equation 12, noted as “1PB only”). For control models (ii) and (iii) we partition each PB into the same number of clusters as used for the default case (both secondary structure and solvent accessibility states are included, noted as “PB+SS+SA” when necessary). All control calculations have been performed using the σ_{total} scoring scheme and the 6-fold cross test scheme described above.

2. Supplementary results and discussions

2.1. Clustering by K-means.

Number of clusters for each PB type. Figure S1 shows how the b_{total} score defined in equation (7) depends on the number of K-means clusters, using PB type c as an example. Although given the number of clusters, there are significant variations in the b_{total} scores generated by different K-means runs started from different initial guesses, the overall dependence relation indicates a discernible minimum number of clusters above which the b_{total} score no longer increases with the number of clusters. Similar dependencies have been observed for other PB types. From these relations an optimum number of clusters for each PB type has been determined and listed in Table S3. In total all training fragments of different PBs form 300 clusters. While the sizes of the clusters (the numbers of fragments contained in individual clusters) are not uniform, ranging between a few tens to several thousands of fragments, most clusters contained one to several hundred fragments for the small dataset. The optimum numbers of clusters for individual PB types are obviously not proportional to the occurring frequencies of the PBs in native protein structures. In their original work de Brevern et al have reported these frequencies (de Brevern, et al., 2000; Etchebest, et al., 2005). Similar frequencies were observed in both datasets used in this work (Table S3 listed for the small dataset the number of fragments belonging to different PBs).

Variations in secondary structures and in solvent accessibility within PBs and within clusters.

To some extent the number of clusters for each PB reflects the variations in the secondary structure and solvent accessibility states of different fragments contained in the same PB. Figure S2a compared the within-PB and within-cluster distributions of the three secondary structure states at individual sites. Figure S2b shows similar distributions of the three solvent accessibility states. PBs and secondary structure states are both descriptors of local shapes and thus strongly correlated. Despite of this some of the within-cluster secondary structure distributions still deviate significantly from the within-PB distributions. The within-PB distributions of the solvent

accessibility state for most sites do not indicate strong preferences of any particular state, although there are some general trends that residues contained in PBs corresponding to coil regions are more likely to be exposed than residues in regular secondary structures. Thus fragments of similar shapes do locate in different environments in native proteins. As expected, the within-cluster distributions are more homogeneous: the same sites on fragments within the same cluster are more likely to be in the same secondary structure and solvent accessibility state than sites on fragments belonging to the same PB. It is interesting to note that for a given site, the within-cluster distributions of the secondary structure or environment states can be completely different from the within-PB distributions. For example, the within PB distributions suggest that the first site of PB type a are more likely to be exposed to solvent, while for fragments within some clusters associated with this PB type their first sites are dominantly in buried environments.

Specificity of within-PB and within-cluster sequence preferences. Intuitively, fragments within the same PB but located in different environment may have different sequence preferences, and amino acid preferences learned from PBs separated into clusters should be more specific than those learned from PBs. We calculated the respective relative entropies of the within-PB and the within-cluster amino acid distributions with the background amino acid distribution. Larger relative entropies imply larger deviations from the background distributions, or more specific and strongly biased amino acid preferences. The relative entropies computed for each PB type clustered by different criteria and the overall averaged values are listed in Table S4. For the within-PB distributions the relative entropy averaged over all sites of all PBs is 0.0051. The averaged relative entropy for distributions within fragments clustered by PB and the secondary structure states is 0.0070. The value increases to 0.0102 if the fragments have been clustered by PB and the solvent accessibility states, and 0.0105 if both secondary structure and solvent accessibility states have been considered together with PB to cluster the fragments. The increases in the relative entropy are distributed to almost all PB types, although not evenly. One exception is PB type j, for which the within-PB distributions result in the largest relative entropy (0.0179), indicating very specific sequence preferences of fragments having local shapes represented by this PB. The relative entropies for the within-cluster distributions associated with this PB type are slightly lower, probably because that for clusters of smaller size, the contributions of the background distributions through pseudo counts are larger.

2.2. Comparing different control calculations for sequence design

For comparisons we report sequence design results from the control calculations. Besides control calculations which considered PB but left out either the secondary structures (“PB+SA”) or the solvent accessibilities (“PB+SS”) or both (“PB only”), additional control calculations which only considered the secondary structure and solvent accessibility of single sites either separately (“SS” and “SA”, respectively) or jointly (“SS+SA”) without representing the containing fragments as PBs have also been performed.

Table 1 in the main text shows that the control model “PB+SA” and the default model

“PB+SS+SA” predict best the native residues. The averaged ratios between the predicted and background probabilities are above 1.3. The median values of these ratios are above 1.4, or for 50% of the sites the predicted probabilities of the native residues are more than 1.4 times of the corresponding background probabilities. These averaged and median ratios are significantly larger than those obtained using other control models (averaged values 1.05~1.17 and median values 1.07~1.15). Probably due to information redundancy between PB types and secondary structure states (both describe the local shape), the “PB+SS” model does not bring about as much improvement as the “PB+SA” model over the “PB only model”. Even the “SS+SA” model predicts better sequence preferences than the “PB+SS” model, although it is not as informative as the “PB+SA” model.

If we consider the number of sites for which the native residues are predicted to be significantly preferred, joint considerations of both local shape and environment outperform models considering only the shape or environment by even larger margins. For more than 45% (28%) of the sites the predicted probabilities by the “PB+SA” or “PB+SS+SA” model are more than 1.5 (2.0) times of the corresponding background probabilities. Same percentages produced by the “PB only” or “SS” or “SA” only models are significantly lower (24-38% for the 1.5 probability ratio threshold and 8-13% for the 2.0 threshold). Interestingly, when we consider whether the native residue is predicted to be the most or among the top two or three most preferred residues, the “PB only” model is as good as the “SS+SA” model, although the models combining local shape represented as PB type with environment still perform the best.

2.3. Local structure predictions from sequences

Comparisons between different scoring schemes in sequence-structure database matching.

The σ_{total} scoring scheme outperforms the σ_{N-top} scheme in terms of Q_{14} , although in terms of Q_{16} the σ_{N-top} scheme produced better results (Table S5). The σ_{total} scheme produced more balanced predictions of regular and non-regular secondary structure PBs. Comparisons of the overall SLR values for the 14 non-regular secondary structure PBs indicate that the higher Q_{16} rates of the σ_{N-top} scoring scheme are associated with over-predictions of PBs m and d which are associated with regular secondary structures, especially for the small dataset. Thus in what follows by the sequence-structure matching results we will refer to those obtained with the σ_{total} scheme, although we cannot exclude that using datasets larger than those used here the σ_{N-top} scheme could also produce balanced predictions and catch up with or even exceed the σ_{total} scheme in terms of Q_{14} (Table S5) shows that going for the small to the large dataset, the Q_{14} associated with σ_{N-top} increased from 24.6 to 31.0 without loss in the corresponding SLR),

Comparisons between sequence-structure database matching and the first-order HMM. In general, the two methods produced similar predictions. The HMM however results in lower Q_{14} for the small dataset and both lower Q_{14} and Q_{16} for the larger dataset (Table S5). For most of the

PB types the HMM model also does not perform as well as the sequence-structure database matching method and will not be discussed further.

Comparing the sequence-structure database matching strategy with the “new sequence family” method. We will first compare the “1PB only” and “PB only” control models with the “new sequence family” method of de Brevern et al, as all these models derive sequence preferences from local shapes of peptide fragments represented as PBs without considering environments of the PBs. Hence the differences may be attributed mostly to the different representations of sequence preferences (the “sequence family” concept is used only in the “new sequence family” model but not in the “PB only” model) and the different prediction strategies.

The results of the “1PB only” and “PB only” control calculations are given in Table S6 and in Table S7. Going from considering 5 residue windows each containing a single PB (the “1PB only” model) to considering 9 residue windows each containing 5 overlapping PBs (the “PB only model”), the Q_{14} increases from 32.2% for 33.9% and Q_{16} from 39.3% to 41.8%.

We applied the “new sequence family” method of de Brevern et al to each of the 482 test proteins in the small dataset. We believe the total number of test fragments (more than one hundred thousand) contained in this dataset is already large enough to obtain accurate estimates for the various prediction rates (this model has been trained using a necessarily fixed training set to achieve optimum results and dataset size dependences like that of the sequence-structure database matching method are not expected). The prediction results are summarized as overall Q_{14} and Q_{16} rates in Table 2 and as SNRs and SLRs for individual PBs in Table 3. The overall Q_{14} and Q_{16} rates are 30.7% and 43.6%, respectively. Compared with the “PB only” control model (Table S6) the Q_{14} is 3.2 percentage points lower but the Q_{16} is 1.8 percentage points higher.

Comparing the SNRs and SLRs of the “new sequence family” method (Table 3) with those of the “PB only” control model in (Table S7 in supplementary) indicate that for most PB types, including a, c, e, h, i, and p, the comparison fit the third scenario defined above, i.e., the SNR and SLR for the same PB changed in inversed directions and neither method is definitely favored. Comparisons for PB types d and m fit the first scenario in favor of the “new sequence family” method, in consistence with its higher Q_{16} . Comparisons for PB types n and o fit the first scenario in slight but definite favor of the sequence-structure database matching approach. Comparisons for PB types f, k, l fit the second scenario also in slight favor of the sequence-structure database matching approach. Interestingly, the predictions of PB types b, g, and i by the “new sequence family” method are much more sensitive than the sequence-structure database matching approach. Although the SLRs are in favor of the sequence-structure database matching methods, the comparisons for these PB types fit the second scenario in favor of the “new sequence family” method. However, for the PB types g and i, the SNRR/SLR ratios produced by the “new sequence family” model are significantly above 1.0 (1.7 for g and 3.8 for i), indicating significant over-predictions of these PBs. On the contrary, the sequence-structure matching approach under-predicts these three PB types.

We note that de Brevern et al have developed the “new sequence family” method based on a training set containing 425 chains and a test set containing 250 chains (Etchebest, et al., 2005). For this particular test set they obtained much higher Q_{14} and Q_{16} rates (37.4% and 48.7%, respectively). We have applied the sequence-structure database matching method using the same training and test sets, the resulting Q_{14} and Q_{16} rates are 36.1% and 46.6%, respectively, both significantly higher than what we obtained using 6-fold cross tests on either the small or the large dataset. This indicated that local structure prediction results obtained using the particular training and test data of reference (Etchebest, et al., 2005) may not be generalized, probably due to unwanted similarities between training and testing data. In fact de Brevern et al ((Etchebest, et al., 2005) have specifically pointed out that their inclusions of data into the training and test sets were necessarily not random, and had been adjusted so that the resulting model achieves similar prediction performances on both sets.

Effects of including secondary structures and solvent accessibility. Further clustering of local structures defined as PBs by the secondary structure states of individual residues improved the Q_{14} from 34.0% to 35.7% (Table S6). This is, however, accompanied with a decrease in Q_{16} from 42.9% to 41.7%. If comparisons in terms of individual PB types are made (Table S7), only a few PBs belong to the first (PB e) or the second (PBs b, c, and p) scenarios described earlier in favor of the “PB+SS” model. Among them, the SNR for PB type b increased significantly. For PB type m, the SNR decreased from 58.1% to 49.8% in the “PB+SS” model although the accuracy rate increased from 65.9% to 69.5%. This may be the major contributor to the decrease in Q_{16} . Thus augmenting the structure alphabet defined as PBs by secondary structures does not bring about general improvements for the prediction of local structures as PBs. This is probably because of the strong correlations between secondary structure states of individual residues and the PB type of the containing fragments.

Including solvent accessibility states have definitively positive effects on the prediction results. Compared with the “PB only” model, the Q_{14} for the “PB+SA” model increased from 34.0% to 35.2%, and Q_{16} from 42.9% to 45.0% (Table S6). The SLR rate for the 14 non-regular secondary structure states also increased from 30.5% to 32.1%. When results for individual PBs are compared (Table S7), most of them belongs to either the first (PB types c, d, e, f, i, j, k, l, m, o and p) or the second (PB types a, b and n) scenarios in favor of the “PB+SA” model, remaining results for PB types g and h belonging to the third scenario which is not in definite favor of either model if both SNR and SLR are considered. The largest improvements in SNR are for PB types b and d. For PB types a, i, k, n, o, p the SLR rates increase by more than 2 percentage points. Results from the default “PB+SS+SA” model are very close to the “PB+SA” model in terms of both the overall accuracies and performances for individual PB types, with very small increases in Q_{14} , Q_{16} , and SLR for the non-regular secondary structures. In later discussions we will focus on results of the “PB+SS+SA” model (the default model) unless stated otherwise.

Comparing the “PB+SS+SA” sequence-structure database matching model with the new

sequence family method. When the results of our default model are compared with the “new sequence family” model, Q_{14} increased from 30.7% to 35.6% and Q_{16} from 43.6% to 45.3% (Table 2). The SLR for the 14 non-regular secondary structure states also increased from 29.6% to 32.3%. When individual PBs are compared (Table 3), five PB types (c, d, f, i, n and o) can be assigned to the first scenario in favor of our default model. The largest improvements are in the SNRs for PB types c (from 28.2% to 33.6%), d (from 42.7% to 48.5%) and i (from 33.5% to 41.0%) at no cost of the respective SLRs. The improvements for f and n are mainly in the SLRs (from 31.3% to 35.3% for f and 31.0% to 35.6% for n) accompanied also by slight increases in the respective SNRs. For six PB types (a, e, h, k, l, p) the results can be assigned to the second scenario also in favor of our default model. Especially for PB types e, k and p there are significant increases in the SNRs (more than 10 percentage points) accompanied with relatively small drops in the respective SLR rates. Result for no PB type can be assigned to the first scenario in favor of the “new sequence family” model. However, augmenting the PB by solvent accessible states does not improve enough the sensitivity rates obtained with the sequence-structure database matching method for PB types b, g, and j to make them comparable to predictions made by the “new sequence family” method. The under-predictions of these PB types remain in contrast to the over-predictions of them by the “new sequence family” method.

2.4. Implications on local sequence to structure relations

The results reported here confirmed that there exist strong correlations between local structure/environment and sequence, although such correlations should be understood in a complex, probabilistic, and environment dependent multiple sequence types-to-multiple local structure prototypes mapping sense rather than with a simple, deterministic, environment-free one sequence type-to-one local structure type mapping picture.

The local conformation combined with the local environment put stronger constraints on the sequence than either element alone. On average close to 20% of the native residues correspond to residues predicted to be most preferred by the local shape and environment of the containing fragments. And the ratio for strongly preferred (with a predicted probability 1.5 times of the background probability) native residues is 45%.

In the other direction, protein local structures depend strongly on the local sequence. On average 45% of the five-residue fragments contained in globular proteins can be predicted from sequence to have the most preferred local structure type among the 16 possible PB types, and such fragments cover 75% of all residues. The ratio of fragments adopting not necessarily the most but strongly preferred local structures are even higher, c.a. 62% and 72% respectively with local structure types among the predicted top two and top three most preferred types.

The success rates of deriving sequences from local structures and of the reversed predictions vary greatly among different proteins. Figures S3 and S4(in supplementary)shows the distributions of the per-protein success rates among the 1462 proteins for the “prediction” of native sequences from PB and environment types and for the prediction of PB types from sequences. In different

proteins, the ratio of native residues predictable from local structures and environments varied between a few percent to more than 30%, and the ratio of fragments with local structures uniquely predictable from local sequences varied between 20% to 70%. Do these variations reflect different weights of local sequence-structure dependences in the global sequence-structure relationships of different proteins, or do they simply reflect biases in the computational models (that is, the local sequence-structure dependences captured by the model apply better to some proteins than others)?

To explore this issue, we divided the 1462 protein chains into three groups according to the per-protein Q_{16} rates: the top 30% protein chains with the highest Q_{16} rates, the bottom 30% protein chains with the lowest Q_{16} rates, and the remaining 40% protein chains with Q_{16} rates in between. The local structure prediction accuracy- Δ_{12} relations were recomputed for each protein group. Figure 1 shows that different protein groups generated exactly the same relation between prediction accuracy and Δ_{12} . This strongly suggests that the local sequence-structure relations captured by our model apply equally to different protein groups. The protein-independence of the prediction accuracy- Δ_{12} relation also strongly suggests that Δ_{12} may be associated with some physical meaning. A larger Δ_{12} may implicate a wider “free energy gap” between the most preferred local structure state and other possible state, thus stronger local structure preferences of the respective sequence segment. This in turn implicates a larger probability for the segment to adopt the preferred local structure when integrated into the native structure of a complete peptide chain. The lower success rates for some proteins are probably due to that they contained more local sequence segments which do not have strong preferences for unique local structures, possibly because these proteins rely less on such preferences but more on longer range interactions to fold into native three dimensional structures. Should this be the case, the accuracy of deterministic, unique local structure predictions would be intrinsically limited, and predictions ranking different local structures probabilistically would be more natural.

3. Supplementary Tables

Table S1. PDB codes of the 482 protein chains forming the small dataset.

153l
1a12A
1a1x
1a2pA
1a2zA
1a3aA
1a3h
1a44
1a4iB
1a4uA
1a76
1a7uA
1a8e
1a8h
1a8l
1a8p
1aew
1af7
1afwB
1agiA
1ah7
1ahc
1ai3
1ai9A
1aj8A
1ajz
1ako
1amm
1amp
1aocA
1apyA
1apyB
1aq0A
1aqb
1arb
1aru
1atlA
1axn
1ayoA
1ayx
1b00A
1b1cA
1b2pA
1b4kA
1b5eA
1b5qB
1b71A
1b8aA
1b8pA
1b94A
1b9hA
1bbpA
1bd8
1bea
1bf2
1bf6B
1bfd
1bgf
1bgvA
1bhe
1bhtA
1bj7
1bjwA
1bkpB
1bkzA
1bn8A
1bolA
1bqk
1bslB
1bsmA
1btI
1btn
1bu7A
1buoA
1bxaA
1byfB
19gsA
1byqA
1bz0A
1bzyA
1c02A
1clfA
1clkA
1c2pA
1c3kA
1c3qA
1c44A
1c8kA
1c8uA
1ca1
1cczA
1celA
1cem
1cewI
1cfb
1chd
1chmA
1cjeA
1cmbA
1cnzA
1cozA
1cp2A
1cpn
1cq3A
1cqxA
1crzA
1cs6A
1css
1cv8
1cvtA
1cz1A
1czfA
1cztA
1d0bA
1d0qA
1d2oA
1d2vA
1d2vC
1d3sA
1d4oA
1d6oA
1d8wA
1d9cA
1dbfA
1dciA
1dd3A
1ddvA
1dfx
1dgwA
1dhn
1dixA
1dj0A
1dk0A
1dk8A
1dlwA
1dmhA
1dmr
1doi
1dorA
1dowA
1dozA
1dp4A
1dqeA
1dqqA
1dqiA
1dqtA
1dqzA
1ds0A
1dsbA
1dts
1dugA
1dupA
1dusA
1duwA
1dexA
1dxy
1dysA
1dytA
1dz3A
1dzfA
1e0cA
1e15A
1e19A
1e29A
1e2uA
1e3aA
1e3uB
1e5mA
1e6oL
1e6qM
1e6uA
1e87A
1ecsA
1edg
1edqA
1edt
1ee8A
1eejA
1eg9A
1eg9B
1eguA
1ej2A
1ejbA
1ejdA
1ejjA
1ek0A
1ekgA
1el4A
1el6A
1emvB
1eo6B
1eo9A
1eo9B
1eokA
1ep0A
1eq6A
1erzA
1esgB
1esl
1eswA
1eu3A
1eu8A
1euaA
1euhA
1eur
1evxA
1ew0A
1ew4A
1ew6A
1ex2A
1extA
1ey0A
1eyhA
1eyqA
1eyvB
1ez3A
1f00I
1f08A
1f0kA
1f2dA
1f2tB
1f2uA
1f32A
1f39A
1f5mB
1f5vA
1f5wA
1f6kA
1f7sA
1f8mA
1f9zA
1fc3A
1fc9A
1fd7D
1fgyA
1fi2A
1fit
1fj2A
1fkmA
1fl2A
1flmA
1flp
1fn9A
1fnc
1fp2A
1fs7A
1ft5A
1ftrA
1fua
1fupA
1fus
1fvaB
1fqzA
1g0sB
1g12A
1g13A
1g1bA
1g1kA
1g29I
1g3qA
1g5tA
1g6sA
1g72A
1g73A
1g73B
1g73D
1g8lA
1gakA
1gcuA
1gd0A
1gd1O
1gefA
1gg6B
1ggxA
1gia
1gnd
1gof
1gp1A
1gpeA
1gpr
1h2rL
1h2rS
1hcz
1he7A
1hf8A
1hfc
1hhsA
1hruA
1hsbA
1htrB
1i0dA
1i0rB
1i39A
1i6pA
1iab
1iakA
1iakB
1iazA
1icjA
1ido
1igs
1ihgA
1io7A
1jbc
1jfrA
1jkmB
1kdj
1koe
1kpf
1lam
1lenC
1lib
1lki
1ltsA
1mba
1mgtA
1mkaA
1mla
1mml
1mugA
1muyA
1nah
1nar
1nbaA
1nbcA
1nkr
1nlr
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1npk
1nseA
1nsf
1nsj
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1nwpA
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1pbwA
1pdo
1phnA
1php
1pmi
1pnkB
1poa
1ppn
1pprM
1prn
1psc
1pud
1qazA
1qb8A
1qccA
1qcxA
1qd9A
1qgiA
1qh4A
1qh5A
1qhQA
1qhV
1qi7A
1qjdA
1qk8A
1qksA
1qnrA
1qnxA
1qqjA
1qsaA
1qstA
1qtoA
1qtsA
1qu1F
1regX
1rhs
1rl6A
1rmg
1rom
1rpjA
1rro
1sacA
1seiA
1sftA
1skf
1sll
1smlA
1sra
1srvA
1stmA
1sur
1svb
1svy
1tea
1tf4A
1tfe
1thfD
1thm
1thv
1tib
1tkiA
1tl2A
1tpfA
1trkA
1ttqB
1udh
1uok
1uroA
1vcaA
1vfrA
1vid
1vls
1vpnB
1vsd
1vsrA
1wab
1wdcC
1wgtA
1whi
1xer
1xgsA
1xib
1xnb
1xsoA
1xwl
1yacA
1yge
1zin
1zpdA
256bA
2abh
2abk
2baa
2bbkH
2bbkL
2cba
2cpl
2ctb
2e2c
2end
2fcbA
2gdm
2hrvA
2hvm
2i1b
2lisA
2mem
2mnr
2nacA
2pgd
2pia
2pii
2plc
2por
2pth
2rn2
2scpA
2sil
2spcA
2tgi
2tlxA
2tnfA
3chy
3cyr
3daaA
3grs
3hsc
3lzm
3mbp
3pah
3pte
3sdhA
3stdA
3thiA
3vub
3wrp
4fgf
4pgaA
4uagA
5nll
7nn9

Table S2. PDB codes of the 1462 protein chains forming the large dataset.

1531 1a12A 1a1iA 1a1x 1a34A 1a3aA 1a4iB 1a6m 1a73A 1a76 1a8d 1a8l 1a8s 1adeA 1af7 lagi 1ah7 1aj2 1ajsA 1ak0 1ako 1al3 1amm 1amx 1aocA 1apyB 1arb 1b0yA 1b2pA 1b3aA 1b5pA 1b5qB 1b8oA 1b94A 1b9hA 1bd0A 1bea 1behA 1bf2 1bgf 1bgvA 1bhe 1bif 1bm9A 1bn6A 1bn8A 1brfA 1bslB 1byrA 1c02A 1c0pA 1c1dA 1c1kA 1c1yB 1c30B 1c39A 1c52 1c5kA 1c7cA 1c7nA 1c7sA 1c8kA 1c8uA 1c96A 1c9oA 1cc8A 1ccwB 1cczA 1cdcA 1cdy 1cfb 1chd 1chmA 1cjcA 1cl8A 1cmbA 1cmlA 1cpn 1cq3A 1cqxA 1cruB 1cs6A 1csh 1csn 1cuoA 1cv8 1cvrA 1cz9A 1czfA 1czpA 1czqA 1cztA 1d02B 1d0cA 1d0qA 1d2oA 1d2vA 1d2zD 1d4oA 1d4tA 1d9cA 1dad 1dbfA 1dciA 1dd3A 1dgwA 1dj0A 1dk0A 1dk8A 1dljA 1dmhA 1dmr 1dozA 1dp4A 1dpG A 1dqaA 1dqgA 1dqzA 1ds1A 1dvoA 1dzfA 1dzkA 1e19A 1e29A 1e2wA 1e3uB 1e59A 1eaoA 1eb6A 1ecfB 1edg 1edt 1ee8A 1eejA 1eerB 1eexA 1eexB 1eg3A 1ekjG 1el5A 1el6A 1elkA 1eokA 1epfB 1es5A 1esgB 1esjA 1eu3A 1euvA 1evhA 1ew0A 1ew4A 1ex2A 1ex7A 1exrA 1extA 1ey4A 1eyqA 1ezgA 1ezjA 1ezwA 1f08A 1f0kA 1f1mA 1f1uA 1f20A 1f24A 1f2dA 1f2tB 1f2uA 1f39B 1f3uA 1f46B 1f5mB 1f60B 1f74A 1f86A 1fbqB 1fc9A 1fczA 1fil 1fiuA 1fk5A 1fl0A 1fl2A 1flmA 1fn9A 1fnf 1fp2A 1fp3A 1fr2B 1fs7A 1fsoA 1ft5A 1ftrA 1furA 1fxlA 1fxoB 1fy7A 1g0sB 1g12A 1g1tA 1g2qA 1g38A 1g5tA 1g61A 1g66A 1g6gA 1g6sA 1g6xA 1g73A 1g85A 1g8aA 1g8eA 1g8kA 1g8kB 1g8lA 1g97A 1g9gA 1g9zA 1ga6A 1gakA 1gk2A 1gk9A 1gl4A 1glg 1gmuC 1gnlA 1gnuA 1gnyA 1gof 1gotB 1gp0A 1gpeA 1gpiA 1gpr 1gpuA 1gq8A 1gqiA 1gqnA 1gqvA 1gqyB 1gs5A 1gs9A 1gsa 1gtzA 1gu2A 1gu7A 1gudA 1guiA 1guqA 1gv4A 1gvp 1gwmA 1gwyA 1gx0A 1gxjB 1gxmB 1gxqA 1gxuA 1gxyA 1gy6A 1h0aA 1h16A 1h1yA 1h2cA 1h2wA 1h4gB 1h4pA 1h4yA 1h6fB 1h6hA 1h6lA 1h6tA 1h7eA 1h7wD 1h8eH 1h8pA 1h8xA 1h9sB 1hbnB 1hbnC 1hbzA 1hd2A 1hdoA 1he1A 1he7A 1hf8A 1hh8A 1hq0A 1hqkA 1hs6A 1ht6A 1htwA 1hufA 1hw5A 1hyoB 1hz4A 1i0dA 1i0rB 1i1dD 1i1nA 1i2aA 1i39A 1i4mA 1i4uA 1i5gA 1i5rA 1i6mA 1i7nA 1i8dA 1i8oA 1i9gA 1ia9B 1iab 1iakA 1iapA 1ib2A 1ibyA 1ic6A 1iccA 1idpA 1ifc 1ifgA 1ifrA 1ig0B 1ig3A 1ihrB 1ijhA 1ijyA 1iktA 1inlC 1io0A 1io1A 1iow 1ipbA 1iq4A 1iq6B 1iqzA 1ituA 1itvA 1iu8A 1iv3A 1iv9A 1ivuA 1iw0A 1iwmA 1ixbA 1iz6C 1izcA 1j09A 1j0pA 1j1bB 1j1nA 1j1tA 1j23A 1j2rA 1j30A 1j33A 1j34B 1j3wB 1j8qA 1j8uA 1j9jA 1ja1A 1jakA 1jayA 1jb3A 1jb7A 1jb7B 1jbc 1jcdA 1jdw 1jetA 1jf2A 1jf8A 1jflA 1jfrA 1jfuB 1jfxA 1jg9A 1jh6A 1jhfa 1jhjA 1jhsA 1ji1A 1jidA 1jixA 1jkeC 1jkxA 1jl1A 1jnrA 1jnrB 1josA 1jovA 1jpeA 1jr2B 1jr8A 1jsrA 1ju2A 1jubA 1juvA 1jx6A 1jyeA 1jyhA 1jyoE 1k04A 1k0iA 1k0mB 1k1eA 1k2eA 1k32A 1k3yA 1k4gA 1k4iA 1k7cA 1k7hA 1k7iA 1k94A 1kafD 1kblA 1kbqA 1kcmA 1kdgB 1keiA 1kg2A 1khiA 1kjlA 1kl1A 1km4A 1kncA 1knlA 1koe 1kolA 1kpf 1kphB 1kq3A 1kqfB 1kqfC 1kqpA 1krhA 1ks8A 1kt6A 1ku0A 1kufA 1kwgA 1kyfA 1kzkB 1kzqA 1l2tA 1l3jA 1l6rA 1l6wA 1l6xA 1l7aA 1l8fA 1l9lA 1l9xA 1lam 1lc0A 1lgpA 1lh0A 1lhua 1lj9A 1lk2A 1lk2B 1lk5A 1lki 1lkoA 1llfA 1ln4A 1lniB 1lo7A 1loeB 1lovA 1lplA 1lq9A 1lqbC 1lqvB 1lr5A 1lriA 1lslA 1luaA 1lwbA 1lwdA 1lxA 1lxzA 1ly2A 1lyqB 1lyvA 1lzlA 1m15A 1m1hA 1m1nA 1m1nB 1m2aB 1m2kA 1m2tB 1m3kA 1m3uA 1m4iA 1m4jA 1m55A 1m5wA 1m70A 1m9xC 1m9zA 1mbmA 1mbyA 1mdl 1mf7A 1mgtA 1mho 1mixA 1mk4A 1mkaA 1mkkA 1ml4A 1mla 1mml 1mopA 1mqdA 1mqvA 1msc 1msk 1mtpA 1muwA 1mw7A 1mxrA 1n08B 1n0qA 1n0sA 1n13B 1n13E 1n2sA 1n2zA 1n5uA 1n62A 1n62B 1n67A 1n7fA 1n7sC 1n8fA 1n8kA 1na0A 1nar 1nawA 1nbcA 1nbuA 1nc5A 1ne9A 1nepA 1ng2A 1ng6A 1nijA 1nkgA 1nkiA 1nkr 1nlnA 1nm8A 1nofA 1nogA 1nox 1np3A 1np6B 1n rzA 1nsf 1nsxB 1ntvA 1ntyA 1nv0A 1nvMB 1nvM G 1nwaA 1nwzA 1nxjA 1nxmA 1nycA 1nykA 1nytA 1o08A 1o0sA 1o0wB 1o26B 1o4yA 1o5uA 1o6sB 1o7iA 1o7nB 1o98A 1o9iA 1oa8D 1oaoC 1obnA 1ockA 1ocyA 1oflA 1ofzA 1oh0B 1oh4A 1oi6B 1oioA 1oizA 1okoA 1okqA 1olrA 1omrA 1on3E 1onrA 1oo0A 1ooeA 1oohA 1oqqA 1oqvA 1orb 1orsC 1orvA 1osyB 1otkB 1owlA 1oxjA 1oz2A 1oz9A 1p1jA 1p1xA 1p36A 1p4kA 1p4oB 1p6oB 1p71A 1p99A 1pbyA 1pbyB 1pcfB 1pdo 1pi1A 1pii 1pjcA 1pk6A 1pkhA 1pl3A 1pm4A 1pmi 1pnf 1po5A 1poc 1pot 1pp0B 1pt7A 1pvmB 1pwB A 1pwmA 1px4A 1pxrA 1pxzA 1pzxB 1q08A 1q0nA 1q0qA 1q0rA 1q16A 1q1cA 1q4gA 1q5zA 1q6zA 1q7fB 1q7lA 1q7lB 1q7zA 1q8fA 1q92A 1q98A 1qazA 1qb0A 1qb5D 1qb7A 1qcxA 1qd1B 1qd9A 1qdvA 1qftA 1qgiA 1qh5A 1qhdA 1qhoA 1qipB 1qj8A 1qjcA 1qksA 1ql0A 1qlmA 1qmgA 1qmyA 1qnrA

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 lqxmA lqxrA lqz4A lqz9A lr0vA lr1hA lr1mA lr1tB lr29A lr3sA lr45A lr5zA lr6dA lr6jA lr6xA lr7jA
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 lsg4C lsh8A lsixA lsjwA lsk7A lskz lsqwA lsr4A lsr4C lsra lsu8A lsulB lsur lsvb lsvdA lsvmC lsvpA
 lsvsA lsw5A lsxrA lszhA lt06A lt0bH lt0fA lt0iA lt0pB lt2dA lt3cA lt3mA lt4bA lt5oA lt61D lt6cA
 lt6nA lt7rA lta3A lta8A ltbFA ltea lte5A lten ltf1A ltfE ltg7A lth7A lthzA lti6B ltjlA ltjyA ltkeA ltl2A
 ltl9A ltoaA ltr0A ltt8A ltu1A ltu9A ltuaA ltuA ltuV ltv4A ltvfA ltwbA ltwiA ltx4A ltxgA ltxlA lty9B
 ltyjA ltzcA ltzvA ltzyA ltzyB ltzyG lu07A lu11B lu1iA lu1qA lu4bA lu55A lu5dA lu5hA lu5pA lu5uA
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 luscA luslC luv4A luvjA luwcA luwfA luwKB luxzA luy2A luy1A lv00A lv0eA lv2xA lv30A lv33A
 lv3eA lv4pA lv58A lv5dA lv5vA lv6pA lv6sA lv70A lv71A lv73A lv74A lv77A lv7bA lv7lA lv7zA
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Table S3. Number of clusters for each PB and the number of fragments of each PB type in the dataset containing 482 protein chains.

PB	a	b	c	d	e	f	g	h	i	j	k	l	m	n	o	p	total
Number of clusters	36	14	24	52	32	22	11	12	25	8	14	12	13	8	5	12	300
Number of Fragments	4544	5189	9501	22349	2893	7885	1347	2808	2154	982	6391	6345	35204	2401	3264	4111	117,377

Table S4. Relative entropies or the Kullback-Leibler divergences of the within-PB and within-cluster amino acid distributions relative to the background distribution. Fragments contained in each PB are either not partitioned further (within PB) or have been clustered by considering the secondary structure states (PB+SS), or the solvent accessibility states (PB+SA), or both (PB+SS+SA).

PB type	Within PB	PB+SS	PB+SA	PB+SS+SA
a	0.0132	0.0143	0.0148	0.0153
b	0.0027	0.0062	0.0073	0.0076
c	0.0032	0.0064	0.0088	0.0088
d	0.0021	0.0054	0.0088	0.0093
e	0.0122	0.0129	0.0129	0.0143
f	0.0045	0.0072	0.0091	0.0091
g	0.0087	0.0082	0.0106	0.0104
h	0.0123	0.0124	0.0136	0.0141
i	0.0136	0.0134	0.0131	0.0139
j	0.0179	0.0152	0.0154	0.0160
k	0.0070	0.0087	0.0107	0.0109
l	0.0058	0.0076	0.0099	0.0101
m	0.0026	0.0038	0.0095	0.0096
n	0.0151	0.0161	0.0170	0.0184
o	0.0129	0.0143	0.0153	0.0157
p	0.0090	0.0105	0.0127	0.0128
averaged	0.0051	0.0070	0.0102	0.0105

Table S5. Overall prediction rates of sequence-structure database matching using the σ_{N-top} scoring scheme and the HMM model.

Method	sequence-structure database matching using σ_{N-top}		HMM	
	small dataset	large dataset	small dataset	large dataset
Q_{14}^a	24.6 (36.0)	31.0 (36.0)	31.5 (29.9)	32.3 (30.9)
TOP2 Q_{14}^b	45.3	50.2	-	-
TOP3 Q_{14}^b	58.6	62.9	-	-
Q_{16}^a	46.7	48.0	43.9	44.7
TOP2 Q_{16}^b	63.6	64.7	-	-
TOP3 Q_{16}^b	73.3	74.2	-	-

^a See text for definitions of Q_{14} and Q_{16} rates. Data in parentheses correspond to selectivity rate for the 14 non-regular secondary structure PBs. The small dataset contains 482 and the large dataset contains 1462 selected protein chains. Results have been obtained using 6-fold cross testing. ^b TOP2 and TOP3 rates have been computed by considering any of the two or three PB types with the highest σ_{N-top} scores as acceptable predictions.

Table S6. Overall prediction rates of different control models in 6-fold cross tests using the large dataset.

Accepted predictions	1 PB only		PB only		PB+SS		PB+SA	
	Q ₁₄ ^a	Q ₁₆	Q ₁₄	Q ₁₆	Q ₁₄	Q ₁₆	Q ₁₄	Q ₁₆
Top1	32.1(29.0)	40.7	34.0(30.5)	42.9	35.7(30.1)	41.7	35.2(32.1)	45.0
Top2	50.0	57.2	51.6	59.5	52.1	58.8	52.0	61.5
Top3	61.8	67.8	63.2	69.8	63.1	69.4	63.1	71.5

^a Data in parentheses are selectivity rates for the 14 non-regular secondary structure PBs

Table S7 The sensitivity rates (SNR) and the selectivity rates (SLR) of different control models in 6-fold cross tests using the large dataset.

PB	PB+SA		PB+SS		PB only		1PB only	
	SNR	SLR	SNR	SLR	SNR	SLR	SNR	SLR
<i>a</i>	62.3	36.0	62.8	34.1	63.6	33.3	63.0	32.5
<i>b</i>	11.8	23.2	10.6	22.8	5.0	27.0	3.7	24.5
<i>c</i>	33.8	30.3	33.7	28.8	31.0	29.4	29.2	28.2
<i>d</i>	49.1	49.0	44.9	47.2	42.8	48.4	39.6	45.3
<i>e</i>	40.4	26.2	42.5	25.0	39.7	24.8	37.4	23.3
<i>f</i>	29.8	34.7	31.1	32.7	28.7	34.2	26.2	31.8
<i>g</i>	12.6	16.9	9.3	18.9	10.4	18.8	9.3	17.7
<i>h</i>	39.6	25.8	38.5	25.0	41.3	23.6	39.6	22.5
<i>i</i>	40.2	23.3	36.6	22.0	40.5	20.6	38.4	19.4
<i>j</i>	10.4	19.3	10.8	18.3	8.6	19.8	6.7	17.4
<i>k</i>	35.4	37.1	37.5	34.0	34.7	35.1	31.7	32.8
<i>l</i>	30.3	37.8	30.7	33.4	29.5	35.6	27.2	33.4
<i>m</i>	59.1	70.7	49.8	69.5	58.1	65.9	56.0	62.2
<i>n</i>	48.6	35.7	48.5	32.4	49.9	31.2	48.4	29.5
<i>o</i>	47.5	38.0	49.9	34.4	47.8	35.0	45.9	33.3
<i>p</i>	39.5	32.8	42.4	29.1	39.6	30.9	38.0	29.7

Table S8. The averaged b_{total} values at different $w_{SS}:w_{SA}$ ratios. The line corresponding to the optimum ratio has been highlighted.

w_{SS}	w_{SA}	b_{total}
0.00	1.00	0.221
0.10	1.00	0.234
0.20	1.00	0.234
0.30	1.00	0.233
0.40	1.00	0.245
0.50	1.00	0.240
0.60	1.00	0.233
0.70	1.00	0.223
0.80	1.00	0.219
0.90	1.00	0.214
1.00	1.00	0.209
2.00	1.00	0.212
3.00	1.00	0.190
4.00	1.00	0.208
5.00	1.00	0.213
6.00	1.00	0.192
7.00	1.00	0.168
8.00	1.00	0.178
9.00	1.00	0.174
10.00	1.00	0.165
1.00	0.00	0.080

Table S9. The averaged logarithm of the probabilities of native residue types predicted using equation (1) in the main text over the respective background probabilities computed using different values for the parameter ϵ in the same equation. Results for ϵ from 0.01 to 0.49 are given. The line corresponding to the optimum of ϵ has been highlighted.

ϵ	averaged logarithm
0.01	0.0207
0.03	0.0595
0.05	0.0948
0.07	0.1265
0.09	0.1548
0.11	0.1798
0.13	0.2015
0.15	0.2201
0.17	0.2357
0.19	0.2484
0.21	0.2584
0.23	0.2657
0.25	0.2704
0.27	0.2728
0.29	0.2730
0.31	0.2709
0.33	0.2669
0.35	0.2609
0.37	0.2531
0.39	0.2436
0.41	0.2325
0.43	0.2198
0.45	0.2057
0.47	0.1902
0.49	0.1734

4. Supplementary Figures

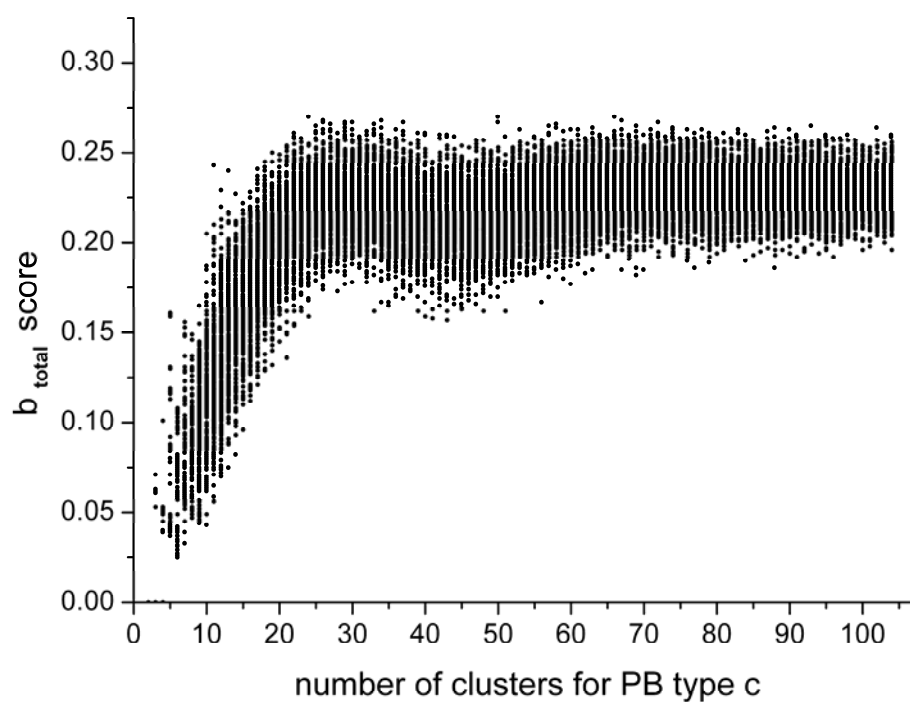
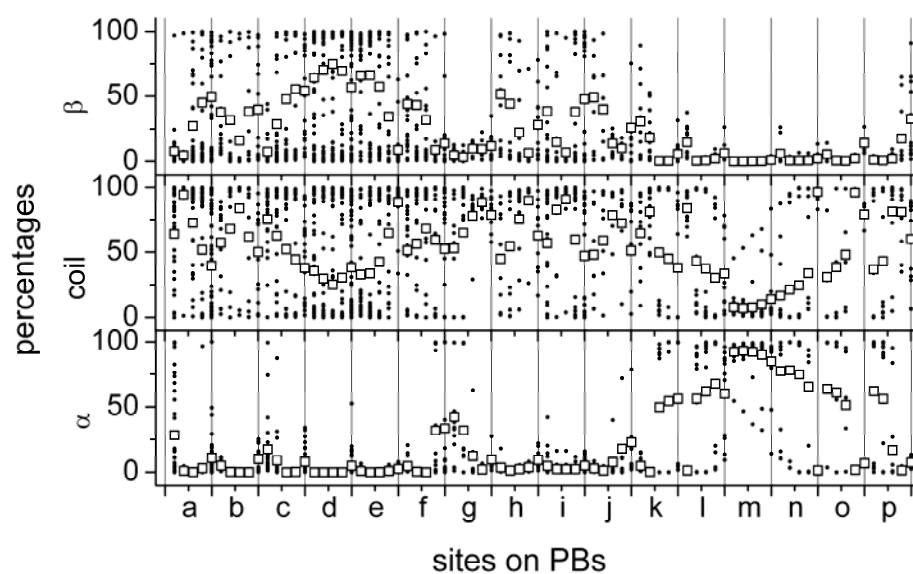
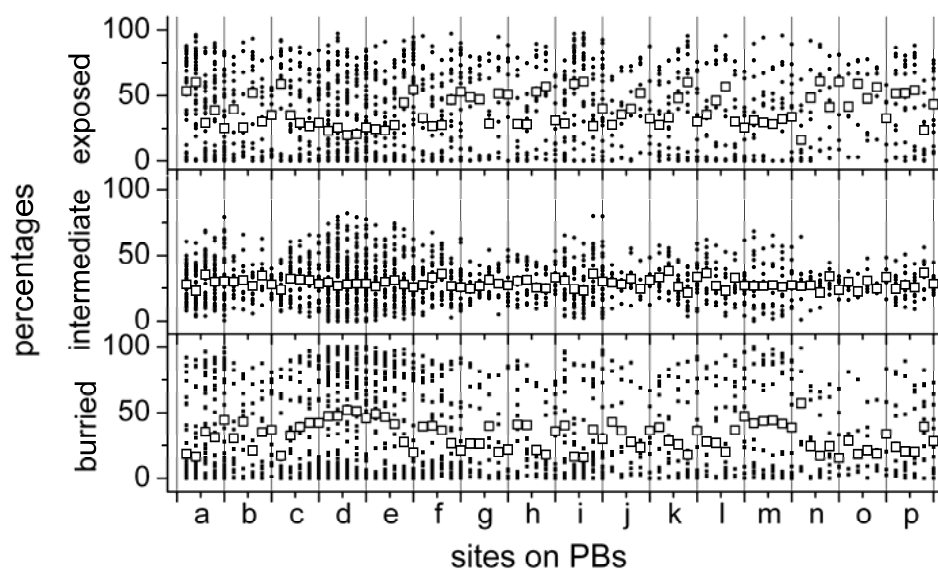


Figure S1. The b_{total} scores (see text) versus the number of clusters in the K-means clustering of fragments of PB type c contained in the small dataset. Each point corresponds to one K-means run starting from a random initial guess with given number of clusters.



(a)



(b)

Figure S2. The within-PB and within-cluster distributions of the (a) three secondary structure, and (b) solvent accessibility states computed using the large dataset. The within-PB (open squares) and within-cluster (dots) percentages (the y axis) of sites (the x axis) in different states are shown. Each PB contains five sites and clusters belong to the same PB are shown with the same x coordinates

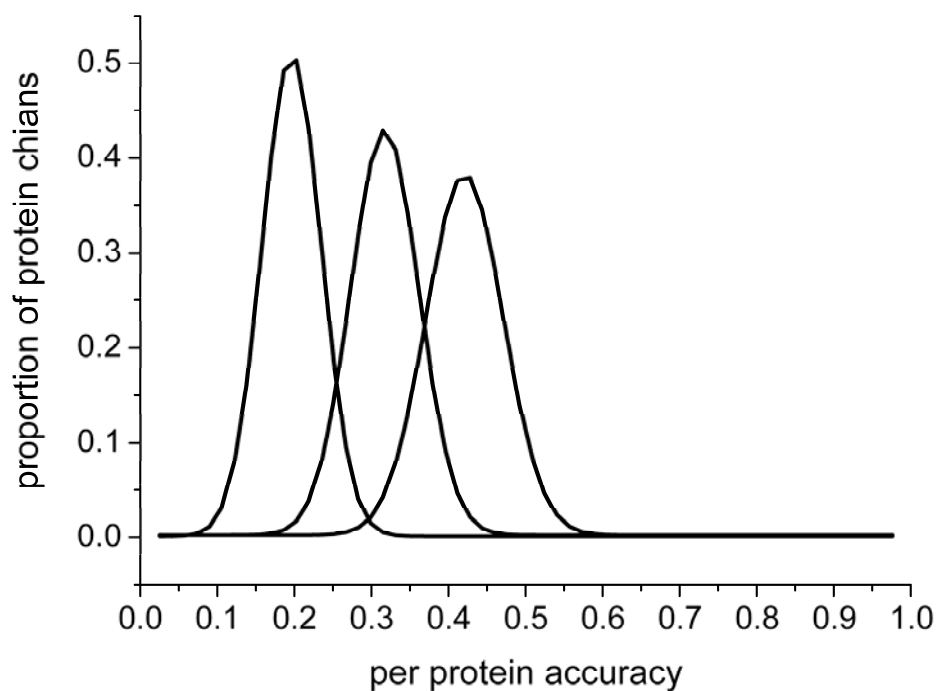


Figure S3. Distributions of the per-protein success rates for the 6-fold pseudo sequence design cross test using the large dataset. Lines from left to right correspond respectively to distributions of rates computed considering any of the one, two and three amino acid types with the highest predicted probabilities as acceptable

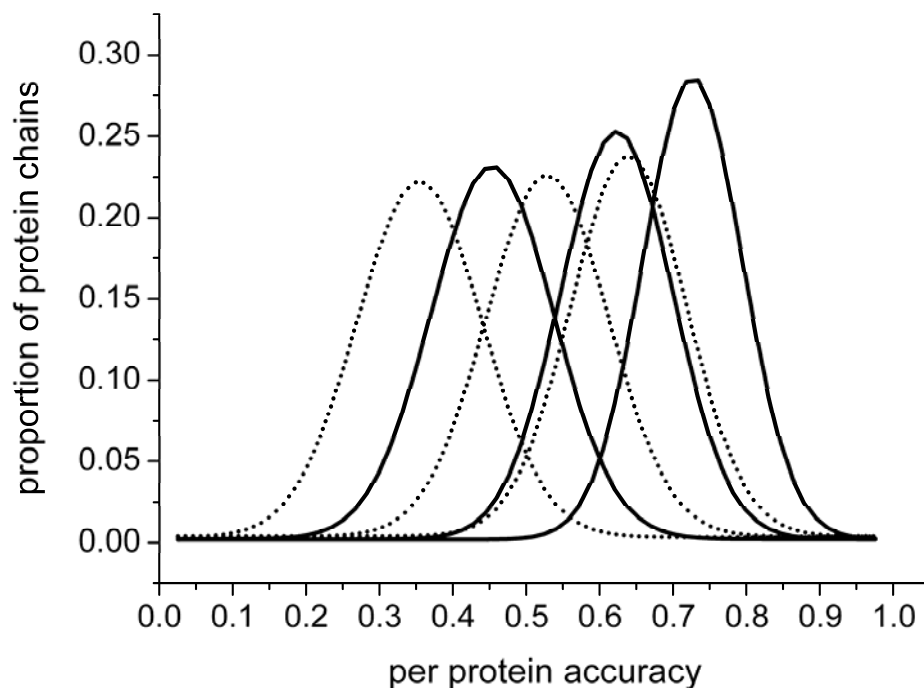


Figure S4. Distributions of the per protein success rates for the 6-fold local structure prediction cross test using the large dataset. Q_{14} : dotted lines, Q_{16} : solid lines. Lines from left to right correspond respectively to distributions of rates computed considering any of the one, two and three top-scoring PB types as acceptable predictions.