A Methodology for Determining Amino-Acid Substitution Matrices from Set Covers

Alexandre H. L. Porto Valmir C. Barbosa^{*}

Universidade Federal do Rio de Janeiro Programa de Engenharia de Sistemas e Computação, COPPE Caixa Postal 68511 21941-972 Rio de Janeiro - RJ, Brazil

Abstract

We introduce a new methodology for the determination of aminoacid substitution matrices for use in the alignment of proteins. The new methodology is based on a pre-existing set cover on the set of residues and on the undirected graph that describes residue exchangeability given the set cover. For fixed functional forms indicating how to obtain edge weights from the set cover and, after that, substitution-matrix elements from weighted distances on the graph, the resulting substitution matrix can be checked for performance against some known set of reference alignments and for given gap costs. Finding the appropriate functional forms and gap costs can then be formulated as an optimization problem that seeks to maximize the performance of the substitution matrix on the reference alignment set. We give computational results on the BAliBASE suite using a genetic algorithm for optimization. Our results indicate that it is possible to obtain substitution matrices whose performance is either comparable to or surpasses that of several others, depending on the particular scenario under consideration.

Keywords: Sequence alignment, Substitution matrix, Residue set cover.

1 Introduction

One of the most central problems of computational molecular biology is to align two sequences of residues, a residue being generically understood as a nucleotide or an amino acid, depending respectively on whether the sequences under consideration are nucleic acids or proteins. This problem lies at the

^{*}Corresponding author (valmir@cos.ufrj.br).

heart of several higher-level applications, such as heuristically searching sequence bases [44, 57, 1, 2] or aligning a larger number of sequences concomitantly [26, 64, 22, 58, 39, 56, 17] for the identification of special common substructures (the so-called motifs, cf. [15, 7, 74, 60, 63]) that encode structural or functional similarities of the sequences [70, 78, 8, 41] or yet the sequences' promoter regions in the case of nucleic acids [74], for example.

Finding the best alignment between two sequences is based on maximizing a scoring function that quantifies the overall similarity between the sequences. Normally this similarity function has two main components. The first one is a symmetric matrix, known as the substitution matrix for the set of residues under consideration, which gives the contribution the function is to incur when two residues are aligned to each other. The second component represents the cost of aligning a residue in a sequence to a gap in the other, and gives the negative contribution to be incurred by the similarity function when this happens. There is no consensually accepted, general-purpose criterion for selecting a substitution matrix or a gap-cost function. Common criteria here include those that stem from structural or physicochemical characteristics of the residues (e.g., [19, 23, 49, 18, 59, 16]) and those that somehow seek to reproduce well-known alignments as faithfully as possible (e.g., [47, 13, 25, 40, 61, 21, 27, 34, 33, 5, 62, 35, 52, 6, 43, 30, 51, 75, 82]). Useful surveys include [77, 29, 73].

We then see that, even though an optimal alignment between two sequences is algorithmically well understood and amenable to being computed efficiently, the inherent difficulty of selecting appropriate scoring parameters suggests that the problem is still challenging in a number of ways. This is especially true of the case of protein alignment, owing primarily to the fact that the set of residues is significantly larger than in the case of nucleic acids, and also to the existence of a multitude of criteria whereby amino acids can be structurally or functionally exchanged by one another.

For a given structural or physicochemical property (or set of properties) of amino acids, this exchangeability may be expressed by a set cover of the set of all amino acids, that is, by a collection of subsets of that set that includes every amino acid in at least one subset. Each of these subsets represents the possibility of exchanging any of its amino acids by any other. Set covers in this context have been studied extensively [67, 32, 69, 65, 45, 50, 36, 54, 68, 81, 31, 76, 10, 42] and constitute our departing point in this paper. As we describe in Section 2, we introduce a new methodology for discovering both an appropriate substitution matrix and gap-cost parameters that starts by considering an amino-acid set cover. It then builds a graph from the set cover and sets up an optimization problem whose solution is the desired substitution matrix and gap costs.¹

The resulting optimization problem is defined on a set of target sequence pairs, preferably one that embodies as great a variety of situations as possible. The target pairs are assumed to have known alignments, so the optimal solution to the problem of finding parameters comprises the substitution matrix and the

¹Our new methodology is ultimately related to the work of several other authors that have dealt with the issue of assessing the efficacy of a substitution matrix or its relation to possible groupings of amino acids. We refer the interested reader to [28, 79, 46, 24, 37], for example.

gap costs whose use in a predefined alignment algorithm yields alignments of the target pairs that in some sense come nearest the known alignments of the same pairs. Our optimization problem is set up as a problem of combinatorial search, being therefore highly unstructured and devoid of any facilitating differentiability properties. Reasonable ways to approach its solution are then all heuristic in nature. In Section 3, we present the results of extensive computational experiments that employ an evolutionary algorithm and targets the BAliBASE pairs of amino-acid sequences [71, 3].

Notice, in the context of the methodology categorization we mentioned earlier in passing, that our new methodology is of a dual character: it both relies on structural and physicochemical similarities among amino acids and depends on a given set of aligned sequences in order to arrive at a substitution matrix and gap costs. We return to this hybrid aspect of our methodology in Section 4, where conclusions are given.

2 The methodology

We describe our methodology for sequences on a generic set R of residues and only specialize it to the case of proteins in Section 3. Given two residue sequences X and Y of lengths x and y, respectively, a global alignment of X and Y can be expressed by the $2 \times z$ matrix A having the property that its first line, when read from left to right, is X possibly augmented by interspersed gaps, the same holding for the second line and Y, so long as no column of A comprises gaps only. It follows that $z \ge x, y$. In the case of a local alignment, that is, an alignment of a subsequence of X and another of Y, this matrix representation remains essentially unchanged, provided of course that x and y are set to indicate the sizes of the two subsequences.

For a given substitution matrix S and a pair (h, g) of gap costs,² the similarity score of alignment A, denoted by $F_S^{h,g}(A)$, is given by

$$F_S^{h,g}(A) = \sum_{j=1}^{z} f_S^{h,g}(A(1,j), A(2,j)), \tag{1}$$

where $f_S^{h,g}(A(1,j), A(2,j))$ gives the contribution of aligning A(1,j) to A(2,j)as either S(A(1,j), A(2,j)), if neither A(1,j) nor A(2,j) is a gap; or -(h+g), if either A(1,j) or A(2,j) is the first gap in a contiguous group of gaps; or yet -g, if either A(1,j) or A(2,j) is the kth gap in a contiguous group of gaps for k > 1. An optimal global alignment of X and Y is one that maximizes the similarity score of (1) over all possible global alignments of the two sequences. An optimal local alignment of X and Y, in turn, is the optimal global alignment of the subsequences of X and Y for which the similarity score is maximum over all pairs of subsequences of the two sequences. The set of all optimal

²For k > 0, we assume the customary affine function p(k) = h + gk with h, g > 0 to express the cost of aligning the kth gap of a contiguous group of gaps in a line of A to a residue in the other line as p(k) - p(k-1), assuming p(0) = 0 [64].

alignments of X and Y may be exponentially large in x and y, but it does nonetheless admit a concise representation as a matrix or directed graph that can be computed efficiently by well-known dynamic programming techniques [80, 9, 53, 11], regardless of whether a global alignment of the two sequences is desired [55] or a local one [66]. We refer to this representation as \mathcal{A}_{XY}^* .

Our strategy for the determination of a suitable substitution matrix starts with a set cover $C = \{C_1, \ldots, C_c\}$ of the residue set R, that is, C is such that $C_1 \cup \cdots \cup C_c = R$. Next we define G to be an undirected graph of node set R having an edge between two nodes (residues) u and v if and only if at least one of C_1, \ldots, C_c contains both u and v. Graph G provides a natural association between how exchangeable a node is by another and the distance between them in the graph. Intuitively, the closer two nodes are to each other in G the more exchangeable they are and we expect an alignment of the two to contribute relatively more positively to the overall similarity score. Quantifying this intuition involves crucial decisions, so we approach the problem in two careful steps, each leaving considerable room for flexibility. The first step consists of turning G into a weighted graph, that is, assigning nonnegative weights to its edges, and then computing the weighted distance between all pairs of nodes.³ The second step addresses the turning of these weighted distances into elements of a substitution matrix so that larger distances signify ever more restricted exchangeability.

Let us begin with the first step. For (u, v) an edge of G, let w(u, v) denote its weight. We define the value of w(u, v) on the premise that, if the exchangeability of u and v comes from their concomitant membership in a large set of C, then it should eventually result in a smaller contribution to the overall similarity score than if they were members of a smaller set. In other words, the former situation bespeaks an intuitive "weakness" of the property that makes the two residues exchangeable. In broad terms, then, we should let w(u, v) be determined by the smallest of the sets of C to which both u and v belong, and should also let it be a nondecreasing function of the size of this smallest set.

Let c^- be the size of the smallest set of \mathcal{C} and c^+ the size of its largest set. Let $c_{u,v}^-$ be the size of the smallest set of \mathcal{C} of which both u and v are members. We consider two functional forms according to which w(u,v) may depend on $c_{u,v}^-$ as a nondecreasing function. Both forms force w(u,v) to be constrained within the interval $[w^-, w^+]$ with $w^- \geq 0$. For $\lambda \geq 1$, the first form is the convex function

$$w_1(u,v) = w^- + (w^+ - w^-) \left(\frac{c_{u,v}^- - c^-}{c^+ - c^-}\right)^{\lambda},$$
(2)

while the second is the concave function

$$w_2(u,v) = w^+ - (w^+ - w^-) \left(\frac{c^+ - c_{u,v}^-}{c^+ - c^-}\right)^{\lambda}.$$
(3)

Having established weights for all the edges of G, let $d_{u,v}$ denote the weighted distance between nodes u and v. Clearly, $d_{u,u} = 0$ and, if no path exists in

 $^{^{3}}$ Weight non-negativity is crucial here, since the presence of negative weights may render the weighted-distance problem ill-posed [12].

G between u and v (i.e., G is not connected and the two nodes belong to two different connected components), then $d_{u,v} = \infty$.

Carrying out the second step, which is obtaining the elements of the substitution matrix from the weighted distances on G, involves difficult choices as well. While, intuitively, it is clear that residues separated by larger weighted distances in G are to be less exchangeable for each other than residues that are closer to each other (in weighted terms) in G, the functional form that the transformation of weighted distances into substitution-matrix elements is to take is once again subject to somewhat arbitrary decisions. What we do is to set S(u, v) = 0 if $d_{u,v} = \infty$, and to consider two candidate functional forms for the transformation in the case of finite distances.

Let us initially set $[S^-, S^+]$ as the interval within which each element of the substitution matrix S is to be constrained (we assume $S^- > 0$ for consistency with the substitution-matrix element that goes with an infinite distance, whose value we have just set to 0). Let us also denote by d^+ the largest (finite) weighted distance occurring in G for the choice of weights at hand. We then consider two functional forms for expressing the dependency of S(u, v), as a nonincreasing function, upon a finite $d_{u,v}$. For $\mu \geq 1$, we once again consider a convex function,

$$S_1(u,v) = S^- + (S^+ - S^-) \left(\frac{d^+ - d_{u,v}}{d^+}\right)^{\mu},$$
(4)

and a concave one,

$$S_2(u,v) = S^+ - (S^+ - S^-) \left(\frac{d_{u,v}}{d^+}\right)^{\mu}.$$
 (5)

In Figure 1 we provide examples of the candidate functional forms for $w_1(u, v)$, $w_2(u, v)$, $S_1(u, v)$, and $S_2(u, v)$ as given by (2)–(5), respectively. Each functional form is illustrated for two λ or μ values, as the case may be.

Once we decide on one of the two functional forms (2) or (3), and similarly on one of (4) or (5), and also choose values for w^- , w^+ , λ , S^- , S^+ , and μ , then the substitution matrix S as obtained from C is well-defined and, together with the gap-cost parameters h and g, can be used to find the representation $\mathcal{A}_{X,Y}^*$ of the set of all optimal (global or local) alignments between the two sequences Xand Y. The quality of our choices regarding functional forms and parameters, and hence the quality of the resulting S, h, and g, can be assessed if a reference alignment, call it $\mathcal{A}_{X,Y}^r$, is available for the two sequences. When this is the case, we let $\rho_S^{h,g}(\mathcal{A}_{X,Y}^r, \mathcal{A}_{X,Y}^*)$ be the fraction of the columns of $\mathcal{A}_{X,Y}^r$.⁴ The substitution matrix S, and also h and g, are then taken to be as good for $\mathcal{A}_{X,Y}^r$ as $\rho_S^{h,g}(\mathcal{A}_{X,Y}^r, \mathcal{A}_{X,Y}^*)$ is close to 1.

⁴This definition must be read with care. If a certain column of $A_{X,Y}^r$ refers to a certain occurrence of residue α in X and of residue β in Y, then it counts towards $\rho_S^{h,g}(A_{X,Y}^r, \mathcal{A}_{X,Y}^*)$ only if the same two occurrences of α and β are aligned to each other in at least one of the alignments represented in $\mathcal{A}_{X,Y}^*$. The cases in which a residue in one of the two sequences is

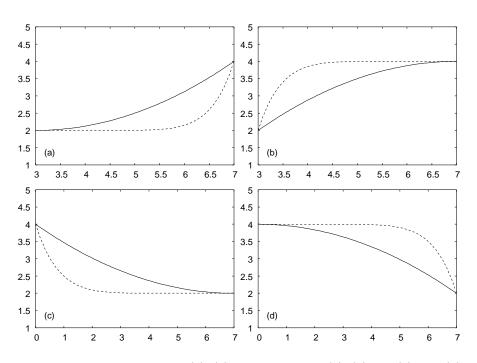


Figure 1: Illustrative plots for (2)–(5), respectively in (a)–(d). In (a) and (b), $w^- = 2$, $w^+ = 4$, $c^- = 3$, $c^+ = 7$, and $\lambda = 2$ (solid plot) or $\lambda = 9$ (dashed plot). In (c) and (d), $S^- = 2$, $S^+ = 4$, $d^+ = 7$, and $\mu = 2$ (solid plot) or $\mu = 9$ (dashed plot).

	Table 1: Parameters and their domains.		
Parameter	Description	Domain	
b_w	Selects between (2) and (3)	$\{1,2\}$	
w^-	Least possible edge weight	$\{0.5, 0.55, \dots, 1\}$	
w^+	Greatest possible edge weight	$\{1, 1.125, \dots, 5\}$	
λ	Exponent for use in (2) or (3)	$\{1, 1.125, \dots, 5\}$	
b_S	Selects between (4) and (5)	$\{1,2\}$	
S^-	Least possible element of S	$\{0.5, 0.55, \dots, 1\}$	
S^+	Greatest possible element of S	$\{1, 1.25, \ldots, 25\}$	
μ	Exponent for use in (4) or (5)	$\{1, 1.125, \ldots, 5\}$	
h	Initialization gap cost	$\{2, 2.5, \ldots, 30\}$	
g	Extension gap cost	$\{0.25, 0.375, \dots, 5\}$	

Thus, given a residue set cover \mathcal{C} and a set \mathcal{A}^r of reference alignments (each alignment on a different pair of sequences over the same residue set R), obtaining the best possible substitution matrix S and gap-cost parameters h and g can be formulated as the following optimization problem: find functional forms and parameters that maximize some (for now unspecified) average of $\rho_S^{h,g}(A_{X,Y}^r, \mathcal{A}_{X,Y}^*)$ over all pairs (X, Y) of sequences such that $A_{X,Y}^r \in \mathcal{A}^r$. In the next section, we make this definition precise when residues are amino acids and proceed to the description of computational results.

3 Computational results

Let b_w be a two-valued variable indicating which of (2) or (3) is to be taken as the functional form for the edge weights, and similarly let b_S indicate which of (4) or (5) is to give the functional form for the elements of S. These new parameters defined, we begin by establishing bounds on the domains from which each of the other eight parameters involved in the optimization problem may take values, and also make those domains discrete inside such bounds by taking equally spaced delimiters. For the purposes of our study in this section, this results in what is shown in Table 1.

The parameter domains shown in Table 1 make up for over 3.7 trillion possible combinations, yielding about 1.6 billion different substitution matrices.⁵ The set of all such combinations seems to be structured in no usable way, so finding the best combination with respect to some set of reference alignments as

aligned to a gap in the other in $A_{X,Y}^r$ are entirely analogous. The required bookkeeping in any of the cases is simple to perform if one resorts to the matrix or directed graph that gives the structure of $\mathcal{A}_{X,Y}^r$.

⁵This is only a rough estimate, since there are combinations that yield the same substitution matrix. For example, setting $\lambda = 1$ renders b_w needless, the same holding for μ and b_S . In a similar vein, setting $w^- = w^+ = 1$ renders both b_w and λ needless, and similarly for b_S and μ (together with b_w , w^- , w^+ , and λ) when $S^- = S^+ = 1$.

discussed in Section 2 must not depend on any technique of explicit enumeration but rather on some heuristic approach.

The approach we use in this section is to employ an evolutionary algorithm for finding the best possible combination within reasonable time bounds. Each individual for this algorithm is a 10-tuple indicating one of the possible combination of parameter values. Our evolutionary algorithm is a standard generational genetic algorithm [48]. It produces a sequence of 100-individual generations, the first of which is obtained by randomly choosing a value for each of the 10 parameters in order to produce each of its individuals. Each of the subsequent generations is obtained from the current generation by a combination of crossover and mutation operations, following an initial elitist step whereby the 5 fittest individuals of the current generation are copied to the new one. While the new generation is not full, either a pair of individuals is selected from the current generation to undergo crossover (with probability 0.5) or one individual is selected to undergo a single-locus mutation (with probability 0.5).⁶ The pair of individuals resulting from the crossover, or the single mutated individual, is added to the new generation, unless an individual that is being added is identical to an individual that already exists in the population. When this happens, the duplicating individual is substituted for by a randomly generated individual. Selection is performed in proportion to the individuals' linearly normalized fitnesses.⁷

The crux of this genetic algorithm is of course how to assess an individual's fitness, and this is where an extant set of reference alignments \mathcal{A}^r comes in. In our study we take \mathcal{A}^r to be the set of alignments present in the BAliBASE suite [3]. It contains 167 families of amino-acid sequences arranged into eight reference sets. For each family of the first five reference sets two pieces of reference information are provided: a multiple alignment of all the sequences in the family and a demarcation of the relevant motifs given the multiple alignment. Families in the remaining three reference sets are not provided with motif demarcations, so we refrain from using them in our experiments, since the fitness function that we use relies on reference motifs as well. Note that, even though the BAliBASE suite is targeted at multiple sequence alignments (cf. [72, 38] for example applications), each such alignment trivially implies a pairwise alignment for all sequence pairs in each family and also motif fragments for each pair. Our set \mathcal{A}^r then comprises every sequence pair from the BAliBASE suite for which a reference alignment exists with accompanying motif demarcation.

The organization of the BAliBASE suite suggests a host of possibilities for evaluating the efficacy of a substitution matrix S and of gap-cost parameters h

⁶Both the crossover point and the locus for mutation are chosen at random, essentially with the parameters' domains in mind, so that the probability that such a choice singles out a parameter whose domain has size a is proportional to $\log a$. Mutating the parameter's value is achieved straightforwardly, while breaking the 10-tuples for crossover requires the further step of interpreting the parameter as a binary number.

⁷This means that, for $1 \le k \le 100$, the *k*th fittest individual in the generation is selected with probability proportional to L - (L-1)(k-1)/99, where *L* is chosen so that the expression yields a value *L* times larger for the fittest individual than it does for the least fit (for which it yields value 1). We use L = 10 throughout.

and g. For a pair of sequences (X, Y), whose reference alignment is $A_{X,Y}^r \in \mathcal{A}^r$, and recalling that $\mathcal{A}_{X,Y}^*$ represents the set of all optimal alignments of X and Y given S, h, and g, we use four variants of the $\rho_S^{h,g}(A_{X,Y}^r, \mathcal{A}_{X,Y}^*)$ of Section 2 as the bases of the fitness function to be used by the genetic algorithm. These are denoted by $\rho_{S,1}^{h,g}(A_{X,Y}^r, \mathcal{A}_{X,Y}^*)$ through $\rho_{S,4}^{h,g}(A_{X,Y}^r, \mathcal{A}_{X,Y}^*)$ and differ among themselves as to which of the columns of the reference alignment are checked to be present in at least one of the optimal alignments. We let them be as follows:

- $\rho_{S,1}^{h,g}(A_{X,Y}^r, \mathcal{A}_{X,Y}^*)$ is based on all the columns of $A_{X,Y}^r$;
- $\rho_{S,2}^{h,g}(A_{X,Y}^r, \mathcal{A}_{X,Y}^*)$ is based on all the columns of $A_{X,Y}^r$ that contain no gaps;
- $\rho_{S,3}^{h,g}(A_{X,Y}^r, \mathcal{A}_{X,Y}^*)$ is based on all the columns of $A_{X,Y}^r$ that lie within motifs;
- $\rho_{S,4}^{h,g}(A_{X,Y}^r, \mathcal{A}_{X,Y}^*)$ is based on all the columns of $A_{X,Y}^r$ that lie within motifs and contain no gaps.

These defined, we first average each one of them over \mathcal{A}^r before combining them into a fitness function. The average that we take is computed in the indirectly weighted style of [79], which aims at preventing any family with overly many pairs, or any pair on which S, h, and g are particularly effective, from influencing the average too strongly. The weighting takes place on an array having 10 lines, one for each of the nonoverlapping 0.1-wide intervals within [0, 1], and one column for each of the BAliBASE families. Initially each pair (X, Y) having a reference alignment $A^r_{X,Y}$ in \mathcal{A}^r is associated with the array cell whose column corresponds to its family and whose line is given by the interval within which the identity score of the reference alignment $A^r_{X,Y}$ falls. This score is the ratio of the number of columns of $A^r_{X,Y}$ whose two amino acids are identical to the number of columns that have no gaps (when averaging $\rho^{h,g}_{S,3}(A^r_{X,Y}, \mathcal{A}^*_{X,Y})$ or $\rho^{h,g}_{S,4}(A^r_{X,Y}, \mathcal{A}^*_{X,Y})$, only columns that lie within motifs are taken into account).

For $1 \leq k \leq 4$, we then let $\rho_{S,k}^{h,g}(\mathcal{A}^r)$ be the following average of $\rho_{S,k}^{h,g}(\mathcal{A}_{X,Y}^r, \mathcal{A}_{X,Y}^*)$ over \mathcal{A}^r . First take the average of $\rho_{S,k}^{h,g}(\mathcal{A}_{X,Y}^r, \mathcal{A}_{X,Y}^*)$ for each array cell over the sequence pairs (X, Y) that are associated with it (cells with no pairs are ignored). Then $\rho_{S,k}^{h,g}(\mathcal{A}^r)$ is computed by first averaging those averages that correspond to the same line of the array and finally averaging the resulting numbers (note that lines whose cells were all ignored for having no sequence pairs associated with them do not participate in this final average).

We are then in position to state the definition of our fitness function. We denote it by $\varphi_S^{h,g}(\mathcal{A}^r)$ to emphasize its dependency on how well S, h, and g lead to alignments that are in good accord with the alignments of \mathcal{A}^r . It is given by the standard Euclidean norm of the four-dimensional vector whose kth component is $\rho_{S,k}^{h,g}(\mathcal{A}^r)$, that is,

$$\varphi_S^{h,g}(\mathcal{A}^r) = \sqrt{\left[\rho_{S,1}^{h,g}(\mathcal{A}^r)\right]^2 + \dots + \left[\rho_{S,4}^{h,g}(\mathcal{A}^r)\right]^2}.$$
(6)

Matrix	Original reference	Reference for h and g
BC0030	[6]	5
BENNER74	[5]	[79]
BLOSUM62	[27]	[79]
FENG	[18]	[79]
GONNET	[21]	[79]
MCLACH	[47]	[79]
NWSGAPPEP	[25]	[79]
PAM250	[13]	[79]
RAO	[59]	[79]
RUSSELL-RH	[62]	[6]
VTML160	[51]	[24]

Table 2: Substitution matrices used for comparison.

Clearly, $0 \le \varphi_S^{h,g}(\mathcal{A}^r) \le 2$ always. The substitution matrices we have used for comparison are shown in Table $2,^8$ where for each one we give its most common epithet, the reference to where it was originally described, and, when different from the former, the reference to where the gap-cost parameters h and q we use with it are to be found for both global and local alignments. This table is supplemented by Table 3, where for each matrix we show the value of $\varphi_S^{h,g}(\mathcal{A}^r)$ for both the global- and the local-alignment case; numbers in bold typeface are the minimum and maximum of the corresponding column. Table 4 gives the two set covers we have used: \mathcal{I} is the set cover from [31], \mathcal{S} the one from [65].

One first set of results is summarized in the plots of Figure 2 and also in Table 5. Each of the plots in the figure indicates the evolution of $\varphi_S^{h,g}(\mathcal{A}^r)$ as the genetic algorithm is run for each of the four combinations of global or local alignments with the \mathcal{I} or \mathcal{S} set cover. At each generation, what is plotted is the greatest value of $\varphi_S^{h,g}(\mathcal{A}^r)$ for individuals of that generation, \hat{S} being the substitution matrix that corresponds to each individual as explained in Section 2. We present each plot against two constant values (indicated as dashed lines) giving the corresponding minimum and maximum highlighted in Table 3. The best individual of the last generation of each run is shown as a column in Table 5 containing the corresponding parameter values. Each of Table 5's columns therefore corresponds to a substitution matrix, the one output by the corresponding run of the genetic algorithm, with accompanying gap costs.

The first notable feature of the four plots in Figure 2 is that, in all cases, the fittest individual of the initial generation is already well placed with respect to the substitution matrices of Table 2, even though this generation is the result

⁸The denomination NWSGAPPEP is taken from [20], whose GCG software package was originally described by [14]. For global alignments, we use BLOSUM62 to refer to a version of the matrix that has nonnegative elements exclusively (this version is obtained by adding the absolute value of the least element of the original matrix to all other elements, provided at least one negative element exists). The same holds for local alignments, in this case for the matrices BENNER74, GONNET, and PAM250 as well.

	$arphi^{h,g}_S(\mathcal{A}^r)$		
S	Global alignments	Local alignments	
BC0030	1.5226	1.5060	
BENNER74	1.5601	1.5348	
BLOSUM62	1.5532	1.5542	
FENG	1.5062	1.4950	
GONNET	1.5419	1.5373	
MCLACH	1.5415	1.5371	
NWSGAPPEP	1.5306	1.5181	
PAM250	1.5243	1.5064	
RAO	1.4864	1.4912	
RUSSELL-RH	1.4508	1.4508	
VTML160	1.5734	1.4296	

Table 3: Values of $\varphi_S^{h,g}(\mathcal{A}^r)$ for the matrices of Table 2 under global or local alignments.

Table 4: Set covers.				
Cover set	\mathcal{I}	S		
C_1	$\{M, I, L, V\}$	$\{P\}$		
C_2	$\{M, I, L, V, A, P\}$	$\{A,G\}$		
C_3	$\{M, I, L, V, F, W\}$	$\{D, E\}$		
C_4	$\{M, I, L, V, A, P, F, W\}$	$\{N,Q\}$		
C_5	$\{D, E, H, R, K\}$	$\{S,T\}$		
C_6	$\{S, T, Q, N\}$	$\{F, W, Y\}$		
C_7	$\{S, T, Q, N, D, E\}$	$\{H, K, R\}$		
C_8	$\{Q, N, D, E, H, R, K\}$	$\{I, L, V\}$		
C_9	$\{S, T, Q, N, D, E, H, R, K\}$	$\{C, F, I, L, M, V, W, Y\}$		
C_{10}	$\{Q, N\}$	$\{D, E, H, K, N, Q, R, S, T\}$		
C_{11}	$\{D, E, Q, N\}$			
C_{12}	$\{H, R, K\}$			
C_{13}	$\{R,K\}$			
C_{14}	$\{F, W, Y\}$			
C_{15}	$\{G, N\}$			
C_{16}	$\{A, C, G, S\}$			
C_{17}	$\{S,T\}$			
C_{18}	$\{D, E\}$			

Table 4: Set cover

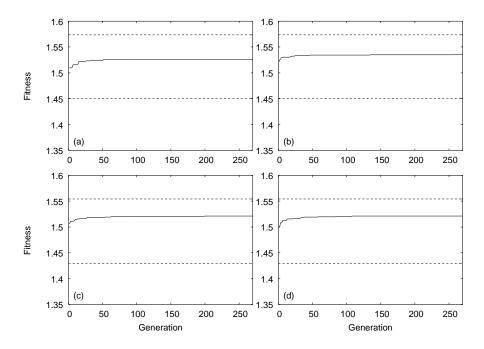


Figure 2: Evolution of the fitness, as given by (6), under global (a and b) or local (c and d) alignments for the \mathcal{I} (a and c) or \mathcal{S} (b and d) set covers.

ure the columns correspond.					
-		Final values			
	Parameter	Global	alignments	Local a	lignments
		\mathcal{I} (a)	\mathcal{S} (b)	\mathcal{I} (c)	\mathcal{S} (d)
-	b_w	1	1	1	1
	w^-	0.95	0.85	0.9	0.95
	w^+	2.125	2.25	2.125	2
	λ	2	2.875	2	4.375
	b_S	1	1	1	2
	S^-	0.6	1	0.5	1
	S^+	23	10	22.75	10
	μ	3.125	1	3.625	1.125
	h	29	16.5	29.5	16
	g	0.25	0.75	0.375	0.5

Table 5: Values of the parameters of Table 1 at the end of each of the four runs depicted in Figure 2. Indications in parentheses refer to which of parts (a)–(d) of the figure the columns correspond.

of a random selection of parameter values for each of its individuals. This, alone, is in our opinion solid indication that the essential underlying premise of our new methodology—that the elements of a substitution matrix can be computed as a function of weighted distances on the undirected graph that represents a certain amino-acid set cover—is sound. From the initial generations onward, in all four cases some rapid progress is made initially, and then fitness improvements become more and more sporadic. This is no surprise if we consider that the fitness landscape we are dealing with is completely non-differentiable and probably highly rugged (i.e., with many local maxima) as well, which is in fact the reason why we give mutations the high prominence of a 50% chance as a new generation is being filled.

The question, of course, is whether running the genetic algorithm beyond the 270 generations of the figure can lead it to eventually find individuals whose fitnesses go beyond the uppermost dashed lines in the plots (that is, individuals that surpass the best-performing matrices on the reference alignments in \mathcal{A}^r). Seemingly, this would require some sort of phase-transition behavior following the slow progress that the plots depict past the first 50 generations or so. While such a behavior is known to occur relatively often when handling hard, unstructured optimization problems (cf., e.g., [4] for a recent example from combinatorial optimization), in our case carrying over with the algorithm for each single generation has required roughly 13 to 14 hours,⁹ so at first seeking significant further improvement does seem impractical.

Notice, however, that practically all of this time consumption is related to computing $\varphi_S^{h,g}(\mathcal{A}^r)$ for each individual in the current population. Because this is done in a manner that is fully independent from any other individual, we can speed the overall computation up nearly optimally by simply bringing more processors into the effort.¹⁰

Our second set of results carries the genetic algorithm well beyond the 270 generations of Figure 2. To this end we employed the parallel strategy outlined above on four processors, and also concentrated solely on evolving individuals under global alignments for the S set cover. We did, in addition, consider only a subset of \mathcal{A}^r , denoted by $\mathcal{A}^{r,1}$, comprising sequence pairs that are relative to the BAliBASE reference set 1. In this case, the fitness function to be maximized is $\varphi_S^{h,g}(\mathcal{A}^{r,1})$, defined as in (6) when $\mathcal{A}^{r,1}$ substitutes for \mathcal{A}^r . Given these simplifications, computing through each generation has taken roughly 20 minutes.

The values of $\varphi_S^{h,g}(\mathcal{A}^{r,1})$ for the substitution matrices of Table 2 are given in Table 6 for global alignments only. Notice that this table also contains values for the individual fitness components $\rho_{S,1}^{h,g}(\mathcal{A}^{r,1}), \ldots, \rho_{S,4}^{h,g}(\mathcal{A}^{r,1})$ for each matrix;

⁹These data refer to an Intel Pentium 4 processor running at 2.26 GHz.

¹⁰A finer-grained opportunity for fully independent parallelism can also be identified if we recognize that computing $\varphi_S^{h,g}(\mathcal{A}^r)$ in essence boils down to computing each of $\rho_{S,1}^{h,g}(\mathcal{A}^r_{X,Y},\mathcal{A}^*_{X,Y})$ through $\rho_{S,4}^{h,g}(\mathcal{A}^r_{X,Y},\mathcal{A}^*_{X,Y})$, independently, for every pair (X,Y) having a reference alignment in \mathcal{A}^r . Harnessing this form of parallelism is infeasible, though, given the current technological reality.

of Table 2 under global anglinents.					
S	$\varphi^{h,g}_S(\mathcal{A}^{r,1})$	$ ho^{h,g}_{S,1}(\mathcal{A}^{r,1})$	$ ho^{h,g}_{S,2}(\mathcal{A}^{r,1})$	$ ho^{h,g}_{S,3}(\mathcal{A}^{r,1})$	$ ho^{h,g}_{S,4}(\mathcal{A}^{r,1})$
BC0030	1.5149	0.7398	0.7738	0.7565	0.7593
BENNER74	1.5448	0.7607	0.7988	0.7632	0.7661
BLOSUM62	1.5865	0.7897	0.8278	0.7758	0.7786
FENG	1.5216	0.7554	0.7922	0.7457	0.7488
GONNET	1.5253	0.7572	0.7906	0.7494	0.7526
MCLACH	1.5544	0.7702	0.8045	0.7654	0.7679
NWSGAPPEP	1.5019	0.7349	0.7671	0.7489	0.7525
PAM250	1.4996	0.7380	0.7705	0.7436	0.7466
RAO	1.5205	0.7553	0.7908	0.7453	0.7486
RUSSELL-RH	1.4661	0.7274	0.7615	0.7197	0.7227
VTML160	1.5789	0.7830	0.8238	0.7736	0.7763

Table 6: Values of $\varphi_S^{h,g}(\mathcal{A}^{r,1})$ and of $\rho_{S,1}^{h,g}(\mathcal{A}^{r,1}), \ldots, \rho_{S,4}^{h,g}(\mathcal{A}^{r,1})$ for the matrices of Table 2 under global alignments.

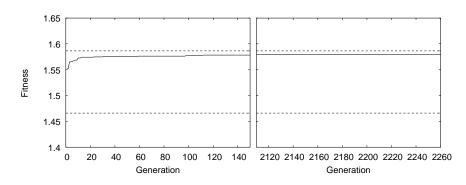


Figure 3: Evolution of the fitness, as given by (6) on $\mathcal{A}^{r,1}$, under global alignments for the \mathcal{S} set cover.

these will be used shortly. In Table 6, as in Table 3, a bold typeface is used to indicate extremal values within each of the five numeric columns.

Figure 3 and Table 7 summarize the results of this smaller-scale experiment. The plot in Figure 3 is analogous to each of the plots in Figure 2 and, like them, is given against the dashed lines that indicate the values highlighted in the leftmost numeric column of Table 6. It is presented as two juxtaposed plots on the initial and final 150 generations simply for the sake of emphasizing the rapid fitness growth during the first few tens of generations, on the one hand, and the very slow growth thereafter, on the other (during the generations that the plot skips there is growth in one single generation only). Table 7 is analogous to Table 5, indicating the parameter values that characterize the fittest individual at the end of the run of the genetic algorithm.

What is interesting in this second set of results is that, even though nothing resembling the phase-transition-like behavior alluded to above has taken place,

Parameter	Final value
b_w	1
w^-	0.95
w^+	3.625
λ	1.875
b_S	1
S^-	1
S^+	5.5
μ	1.125
h	7.5
g	1.5

Table 7: Values of the parameters of Table 1 at the end of the run depicted in Figure 3.

the fitness of the substitution matrix and gap costs that arise from the parameter values of Table 7, specifically 1.5797, is now very near 1.5865, which is the highest value appearing in the leftmost numeric column of Table 6. In addition, let us consider the greatest values of each of $\rho_{S,1}^{h,g}(\mathcal{A}^{r,1}), \ldots, \rho_{S,4}^{h,g}(\mathcal{A}^{r,1})$ for each generation. Plotting these values against the corresponding minima and maxima highlighted in the rightmost four columns of Table 6 yields what is shown in Figure 4, which clearly indicates that the genetic algorithm very quickly produces a substitution matrix, with associated gap costs, that surpasses the champion of Table 6 as far as the fitness components $\rho_{S,3}^{h,g}(\mathcal{A}^{r,1})$ and $\rho_{S,4}^{h,g}(\mathcal{A}^{r,1})$. This substitution matrix, it turns out, is then superior to all the matrices of Table 2 when it comes to stressing alignment columns that lie within motifs.

4 Concluding remarks

We have introduced a new methodology for the determination of amino-acid substitution matrices. The new methodology starts with a set cover of the residue alphabet under consideration and builds an undirected graph in which node vicinity is taken to represent residue exchangeability. The desired substitution matrix arises as a function of weighted distances in this graph. Determining the edge weights, and also how to convert the resulting weighted distances into substitution-matrix elements, constitute the outcome of an optimization process that runs on a set of reference sequence alignments and also outputs gap costs for use with the substitution matrix. Our methodology is then of a hybrid nature: it relies both on the structural and physicochemical properties that underlie the set cover in use and on an extant set of reference sequence alignments.

The optimization problem to be solved is well-defined: given parameterized functional forms for turning cover sets into edge weights and weighted distances into substitution-matrix elements, the problem asks for parameter values and

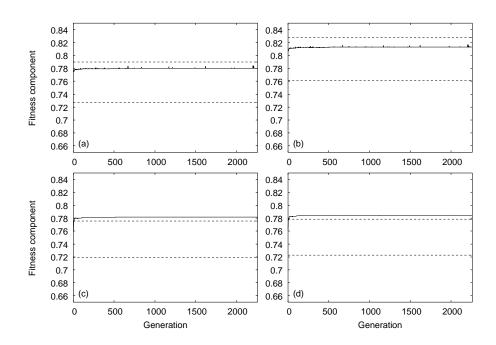


Figure 4: Evolution of each of the fitness components $\rho_{S,1}^{h,g}(\mathcal{A}^{r,1}), \ldots, \rho_{S,4}^{h,g}(\mathcal{A}^{r,1})$, shown respectively in (a) through (d), under global alignments for the \mathcal{S} set cover.

gap costs that maximize a certain objective function on the reference set of alignments. We have reported on computational experiments that use a genetic algorithm as optimization method and the BAliBASE suite as the source of the required reference alignments. Our results are supportive of the following main conclusions. First, that the overall methodology is capable of producing substitution matrices whose performance falls within the same range of a number of known matrices' even before any optimization is actually performed (i.e., based on the random parameter instantiation that precedes the genetic algorithm); this alone, we believe, singles out our methodology as a principled way of determining substitution matrices that concentrates all the effort related to the structure and physicochemical properties of amino acids on the discovery of an appropriate set cover. Secondly, that there are scenarios for which the methodology we introduce can already be claimed to yield a substitution matrix that surpasses all the others against which it was tested.

We have also found that strengthening this latter conclusion so that it holds in a wider variety of scenarios depends on how efficiently we can run the genetic algorithm. Fortunately, it appears that it is all a matter of how many processors can be amassed for the effort, since the genetic procedure is inherently amenable to parallel processing and highly scalable, too. There is, of course, also the issue of investigating alternative functional forms and parameter ranges to set up the optimization problem, and in fact the issue of considering other objective functions as well. Together with the search for faster optimization, these issues make for a very rich array of possibilities for further study.

Acknowledgments

The authors acknowledge partial support from CNPq, CAPES, and a FAPERJ BBP grant.

References

- S. F. Altschul, W. Gish, W. Miller, E. W. Myers, and D. J. Lipman. Basic local alignment search tool. *Journal of Molecular Biology*, 215:403–410, 1990.
- [2] S. F. Altschul, T. L. Madden, A. A. Schäffer, J. Zhang, Z. Zhang, W. Miller, and D. J. Lipman. Gapped BLAST and PSI-BLAST: a new generation of protein database search programs. *Nucleic Acids Research*, 25:3389–3402, 1997.
- [3] A. Bahr, J. D. Thompson, J.-C. Thierry, and O. Poch. BAliBASE (Benchmark Alignment dataBASE): enhancements for repeats, transmembrane sequences and circular permutations. *Nucleic Acids Research*, 29:323–326, 2001.

- [4] V. C. Barbosa and L. C. D. Campos. A novel evolutionary formulation of the maximum independent set problem. *Journal of Combinatorial Optimization*, 8:419–437, 2004.
- [5] S. A. Benner, M. A. Cohen, and G. H. Gonnet. Amino acid substitution during functionally constrained divergent evolution of protein sequences. *Protein Engineering*, 7:1323–1332, 1994.
- [6] J. D. Blake and F. E. Cohen. Pairwise sequence alignment below the twilight zone. Journal of Molecular Biology, 307:721–735, 2001.
- [7] A. Brazma, I. Jonassen, I. Eidhammer, and D. Gilbert. Approaches to the automatic discovery of patterns in biosequences. *Journal of Computational Biology*, 5:279–305, 1998.
- [8] T. A. Brown. Genomes 2. Wiley-Liss, Oxford, UK, 2002.
- [9] T. H. Byers and M. S. Waterman. Determining all optimal and near-optimal solutions when solving shortest path problems by dynamic programming. *Operations Research*, 32:1381–1384, 1984.
- [10] N. Cannata, S. Toppo, C. Romualdi, and G. Valle. Simplifying amino acid alphabets by means of a branch and bound algorithm and substitution matrices. *Bioinformatics*, 18:1102–1108, 2002.
- [11] K.-M. Chao. On computing all suboptimal alignments. Journal of Information Sciences, 105:189–207, 1998.
- [12] T. H. Cormen, C. E. Leiserson, R. L. Rivest, and C. Stein. Introduction to Algorithms. The MIT Press, Cambridge, MA, second edition, 2001.
- [13] M. O. Dayhoff, R. M. Schwartz, and B. C. Orcutt. A model of evolutionary change in proteins. In M. O. Dayhoff, editor, *Atlas of Protein Sequence and Structure*, volume 5, supplement 3, pages 345–352. National Biomedical Research Foundation, Washington, DC, 1978.
- [14] J. Devereux, P. Haeberli, and O. Smithies. A comprehensive set of sequence analysis programs for the VAX. Nucleic Acids Research, 12:387–395, 1984.
- [15] R. F. Doolittle. Similar amino acid sequences: chance or common ancestry? Science, 214:149–159, 1981.
- [16] Z. Dosztányi and A. E. Torda. Amino acid similarity matrices based on force fields. *Bioinformatics*, 17:686–699, 2001.
- [17] I. Eidhammer, I. Jonassen, and W. R. Taylor. Protein Bioinformatics. John Wiley & Sons, Chichester, UK, 2004.
- [18] D.-F. Feng, M. S. Johnson, and R. F. Doolittle. Aligning amino acid sequences: comparison of commonly used methods. *Journal of Molecular Evolution*, 21:112–125, 1985.

- [19] W. M. Fitch. An improved method of testing for evolutionary homology. Journal of Molecular Biology, 16:9–16, 1966.
- [20] Genetics Computer Group. Program manual for the GCG package, version 7, April 1991.
- [21] G. H. Gonnet, M. A. Cohen, and S. A. Benner. Exhaustive matching of the entire protein sequence database. *Science*, 256:1443–1445, 1992.
- [22] O. Gotoh. Multiple sequence alignment: algorithms and applications. Advances in Biophysics, 36:159–206, 1999.
- [23] R. Granthram. Amino acid difference formula to help explain protein evolution. Science, 185:862–864, 1974.
- [24] R. E. Green and S. E. Brenner. Bootstrapping and normalization for enhanced evaluations of pairwise sequence comparison. *Proceedings of the IEEE*, 90:1834–1847, 2002.
- [25] M. Gribskov and R. R. Burgess. Sigma factors from E. coli, B. subtilis, phage SP01, and phage T4 are homologous proteins. *Nucleic Acids Re*search, 14:6745–6763, 1986.
- [26] D. Gusfield. Algorithms on Strings, Trees, and Sequences. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, UK, 1997.
- [27] S. Henikoff and J. G. Henikoff. Amino acid substitution matrices from protein blocks. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences USA*, 89:10915–10919, 1992.
- [28] S. Henikoff and J. G. Henikoff. Performance evaluation of amino acid substitution matrices. *Proteins: Structure, Function, and Genetics*, 17:49–61, 1993.
- [29] S. Henikoff and J. G. Henikoff. Amino acid substitution matrices. In P. Bork, editor, Advances in Protein Chemistry, volume 54, Analysis of Amino Acid Sequences, pages 73–97. Academic Press, 2000.
- [30] I. Holmes and G. M. Rubin. An expectation maximization algorithm for training hidden substitution models. *Journal of Molecular Biology*, 317:753–764, 2002.
- [31] T. R. Ioerger. The context-dependence of amino acid properties. In Proceedings of the Fifth International Conference on Intelligent Systems for Molecular Biology, pages 157–166, 1997.
- [32] M. A. Jiménez-Montaño and L. Zamora-Cortina. Evolutionary model for the generation of amino acid sequences and its application to the study of fragments of mammal-hemoglobin chains. In *Proceedings of the Seventh International Biophysics Congress*, 1981.

- [33] M. S. Johnson and J. P. Overington. A structural basis for sequence comparisons. An evaluation of scoring methodologies. *Journal of Molecular Biology*, 233:716–738, 1993.
- [34] D. T. Jones, W. R. Taylor, and J. M. Thornton. The rapid generation of mutation data matrices from protein sequences. *Computer Applications in* the Biosciences, 8:275–282, 1992.
- [35] J. S. Jung and B. Lee. Use of residue pairs in protein sequence-sequence and sequence-structure alignments. *Protein Engineering*, 9:1576–1588, 2000.
- [36] T. M. Klingler. Structural Inference from Correlations in Biological Sequences. PhD thesis, Program in Medical Informatics, Stanford University, 1996.
- [37] C. Kosiol, N. Goldman, and N. H. Buttimore. A new criterion and method for amino acid classification. *Journal of Theoretical Biology*, 228:97–106, 2004.
- [38] T. Lassmann and E. L. L. Sonnhammer. Quality assessment of multiple alignment programs. *FEBS Letters*, 529:126–130, 2002.
- [39] O. Lecompte, J. D. Thompson, F. Plewniak, J.-C Thierry, and O. Poch. Multiple alignment of complete sequences (MACS) in the post-genomic era. *Gene*, 270:17–30, 2001.
- [40] J. M. Levin, B. Robson, and J. Garnier. An algorithm for secondary structure determination in proteins based on sequence similarity. *FEBS Letters*, 205:303–308, 1986.
- [41] B. Lewin. Genes VIII. Prentice Hall, Upper Saddle River, NJ, 2003.
- [42] T. P. Li, K. Fan, J. Wang, and W. Wang. Reduction of protein sequence complexity by residue grouping. *Protein Engineering*, 16:323–330, 2003.
- [43] K. Lin, A. C. W. May, and W. R. Taylor. Amino acid substitution matrices from an artificial neural network model. *Journal of Computational Biology*, 8:471–481, 2001.
- [44] D. J. Lipman and W. R. Pearson. Rapid and sensitive protein similarity searches. *Science*, 227:1435–1441, 1985.
- [45] C. D. Livingstone and G. J. Barton. Protein sequence alignments: a strategy for the hierarchical analysis of residue conservation. *Computer Appli*cations in the Biosciences, 9:745–756, 1993.
- [46] A. C. W. May. Towards more meaningful hierarchical classification of amino acid scoring matrices. *Protein Engineering*, 12:707–712, 1999.

- [47] A. D. McLachlan. Tests for comparing related amino-acid sequences. Cytochrome c and cytochrome c551. Journal of Molecular Biology, 61:409– 424, 1971.
- [48] M. Mitchell. An Introduction to Genetic Algorithms. The MIT Press, Cambridge, MA, 1996.
- [49] T. Miyata, S. Miyazawa, and T. Yasunaga. Two types of amino acid substitutions in protein evolution. *Journal of Molecular Evolution*, 12:219–236, 1979.
- [50] G. Mocz. Fuzzy cluster analysis of simple physicochemical properties of amino acids for recognizing secondary structure in proteins. *Protein Sci*ence, 4:1178–1187, 1995.
- [51] T. Müller, R. Spang, and M. Vingron. Estimating amino acid substitution models: a comparison of Dayhoff's estimator, the resolvent approach and a maximum likelihood method. *Molecular Biology and Evolution*, 19:8–13, 2002.
- [52] T. Müller and M. Vingron. Modeling amino acid replacement. Journal of Computational Biology, 7:761–776, 2000.
- [53] D. Naor and D. L. Brutlag. On near-optimal alignments of biological sequences. Journal of Computational Biology, 1:349–366, 1994.
- [54] D. Naor, D. Fischer, R. L. Jernigan, H. J. Wolfson, and R. Nussinov. Amino acid pair interchanges at spatially conserved locations. *Journal of Molecular Biology*, 256:924–938, 1996.
- [55] S. B. Needleman and C. D. Wunsch. A general method applicable to the search for similarities in the amino acid sequence of two proteins. *Journal* of Molecular Biology, 48:443–453, 1970.
- [56] C. Notredame. Recent progress in multiple sequence alignment: a survey. *Pharmacogenomics*, 3:131–144, 2002.
- [57] W. R. Pearson and D. J. Lipman. Improved tools for biological sequence comparison. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences USA, 85:2444–2448, 1988.
- [58] P. A. Pevzner. *Computational Molecular Biology*. The MIT Press, Cambridge, MA, 2000.
- [59] J. K. M. Rao. New scoring matrix for amino acid residue exchanges based on residue characteristic physical parameters. *International Journal of Peptide* and Protein Research, 29:276–281, 1987.
- [60] I. Rigoutsos, A. Floratos, L. Parida, Y. Gao, and D. Pratt. The emergence of pattern discovery techniques in computational biology. *Metabolic Engineering*, 2:159–177, 2000.

- [61] J. L. Risler, M. O. Delorme, H. Delacroix, and A. Henaut. Amino acid substitutions in structurally related proteins. a pattern recognition approach. *Journal of Molecular Biology*, 204:1019–1029, 1988.
- [62] R. B. Russell, M. A. S. Saqi, R. A. Sayle, P. A. Bates, and M. J. E. Sternberg. Recognition of analogous and homologous protein folds: analysis of sequence and structure conservation. *Journal of Molecular Biology*, 269:423–439, 1997.
- [63] M.-F. Sagot and Y. Wakabayashi. Pattern inference under many guises. In B. A. Reed and C. L. Sales, editors, *Recent Advances in Algorithms and Combinatorics*, pages 245–287. Springer-Verlag, New York, NY, 2003.
- [64] J. Setubal and J. Meidanis. Introduction to Computational Molecular Biology. PWS Publishing Company, Boston, MA, 1997.
- [65] R. F. Smith and T. F. Smith. Automatic generation of primary sequence patterns from sets of related protein sequences. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences USA*, 87:118–122, 1990.
- [66] T. F. Smith and M. S. Waterman. Identification of common molecular subsequences. *Journal of Molecular Biology*, 147:195–197, 1981.
- [67] P. H. Sneath. Relations between chemical structure and biological activity in peptides. *Journal of Theoretical Biology*, 12:157–195, 1966.
- [68] L. E. Stanfel. A new approach to clustering the amino acids. Journal of Theoretical Biology, 183:195–205, 1996.
- [69] W. R. Taylor. The classification of amino acid conservation. Journal of Theoretical Biology, 119:205–218, 1986.
- [70] W. R. Taylor. The properties of amino acids in sequences. In M. J. Bishop, editor, *Genetic Databases*, pages 81–103. Academic Press, London, UK, 1999.
- [71] J. D. Thompson, F. Plewniak, and O. Poch. BAliBASE: a benchmark alignment database for the evaluation of multiple alignment programs. *Bioinformatics*, 15:87–88, 1999.
- [72] J. D. Thompson, F. Plewniak, and O. Poch. A comprehensive comparison of multiple sequence alignment programs. *Nucleic Acids Research*, 27:2682– 2690, 1999.
- [73] W. S. J. Valdar. Scoring residue conservation. Proteins: Structure, Function, and Genetics, 48:227–241, 2002.
- [74] A. Vanet, L. Marsan, and M.-F. Sagot. Promoter sequences and algorithmical methods for identifying them. *Research in Microbiology*, 150:779–799, 1999.

- [75] S. Veerassamy, A. Smith, and E. R. M. Tillier. A transition probability model for amino acid substitutions from blocks. *Journal of Computational Biology*, 10:997–1010, 2003.
- [76] M. S. Venkatarajan and W. Braun. New quantitative descriptors of amino acids based on multidimensional scaling of a large number of physicalchemical properties. *Journal of Molecular Modeling*, 7:445–453, 2001.
- [77] M. Vingron and M. S. Waterman. Sequence alignment and penalty choice. review of concepts, case studies and implications. *Journal of Molecular Biology*, 235:1–12, 1994.
- [78] D. Voet, J. G. Voet, and C. W. Pratt. Fundamentals of Biochemistry. John Wiley & Sons, New York, NY, 2001.
- [79] G. Vogt, T. Etzold, and P. Argos. An assessment of amino acid exchange matrices in aligning protein sequences: the twilight zone revisited. *Journal* of Molecular Biology, 249:816–831, 1995.
- [80] M. S. Waterman. Sequence alignments in the neighborhood of the optimum with general application to dynamic programming. *Proceedings of* the National Academy of Sciences USA, 80:3123–3124, 1983.
- [81] T. D. Wu and D. L. Brutlag. Discovering empirically conserved amino acid substitution groups in databases of protein families. In *Proceedings of* the Fourth International Conference on Intelligent Systems for Molecular Biology, pages 230–240, 1996.
- [82] W. Xu and D. P. Miranker. A metric model of amino acid substitution. Bioinformatics, 20:1214–1221, 2004.