STUDY OF PROTEIN STRUCTURE ALIGNMENT PROBLEM IN PARAMETERIZED COMPUTATION

Cody Ashby\(^1\), Kun Wang\(^2\), Carole L. Cramer\(^3\) and Xiuzhen Huang\(^*\)\(^{4}\)

\(^1\)MBS PhD Program, Arkansas State University, Jonesboro, AR, U.S.A.
\(^2\)Bioinformatics PhD Program, University of Arkansas at Little Rock, Little Rock, AR, U.S.A.
\(^3\)Arkansas Bioscience Institute, Dept. of Biology, Arkansas State University, Jonesboro, AR, U.S.A.
\(^4\)Computer Science Dept., Arkansas State University, Jonesboro, AR, U.S.A.

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Abstract: Motivated by the practical application of protein structure-structure alignment, we have studied the problem of maximum common subgraph within the framework of parameterized complexity. We investigated the lower bound for the exact algorithms of the problem. We proved it is unlikely that there is an algorithm of time \( p(n,m) \ast \kappa^m \) for the problem, where \( p \) is a polynomial function, \( k \) is a parameter of map width, and \( m \) and \( n \) are the numbers of vertices of the two graphs respectively. In consideration of the upper bound of \( p(n,m) \ast \kappa^m \) based on the brute-force approach, our lower bound result is asymptotically tight. Although the algorithm with the running time \( p(n,m) \ast \kappa^m \) could not be significantly improved from our lower bound result, it is still possible to develop efficient algorithms for the practical application of the protein structure-structure alignment. We developed an efficient algorithm integrating the color coding method and parameterized computation for identifying the maximum common subgraph of two protein structure graphs. We have applied the algorithm to protein structure-structure alignment and conducted experimental testing of more than 600 protein pairs. Our parameterized approach shows improvement in structure alignment efficiency and will be very useful for structure comparisons of proteins with large sizes.

1 INTRODUCTION

Protein three-dimensional structure is critical for its correct function and important roles in the living cell. For example, enzymes rely on their active sites tertiary structures to bind to different substrates and ligands must effectively recognize and bind to their targets based on structural as well as chemical interactions. There are experimental techniques such as X-ray crystallography and NMR spectroscopy for protein three-dimensional structure determination, which could provide protein structures at the atomic resolution. Protein structures in the current RCSB Protein Data Bank (PDB) are typically obtained by X-ray crystallography or NMR spectroscopy and submitted by biologists and biochemists from around the world. About 90% of the protein structures in the PDB were determined by X-ray crystallography, and 10% by NMR. As of Tuesday Mar 15, 2011, there are 71794 protein structures stored in PDB. Comparing protein three-dimensional structures will reveal important function relationship between the proteins and imply the evolutionary relationship of the proteins. Structure comparison and alignment software could also be applied to evaluate the quality of the models of protein tertiary structure prediction (Zhang et al., 2005), where the predicted theoretical models and the known experimental structures are compared.

There are many structure comparison and alignment algorithms and software developed in this field, which are based on various alignment models, such as backbone atom \( (C_\alpha) \) alignment, secondary structure elements alignment, sequence-based alignment, contact map and Connolly's molecular surface alignment. Readers are referred to (Xu et al, 2007; Zhang et al., 2005; Comin et al., 2004; Holm et al., 1993; Caprara et al., 2002; Lancia et al., 2003; Lemmen et al., 2000). Still it is very challenging to conduct efficient protein structure-structure alignment for proteins of large sizes.

In this research, we focus on the the structure comparison of two proteins and work on developing of more efficient computational approaches and effective evaluation for the structure-structure alignment of...
two proteins. Our computational approach is based on a topological graph comparison model and integrates the color coding methods and the idea of parameterized computation. We introduce a new evaluation criteria of core coverage for evaluating structure alignments based on alignments of secondary structure elements. Besides the protein structure-structure alignment, many practical applications in bioinformatics and computational biology could be modeled as the comparison of graphs. In this paper, we first study the parameterized complexity of the problem MAXIMUM COMMON SUBGRAPH of two graphs. This study can be extended to different variants of the problems in different applications.

2 PRELIMINARIES OF PARAMETERIZED COMPLEXITY

We first give a brief review on parameterized complexity theory and some recent progress on parameterized intractability. A parameterized problem \( Q \) is a decision problem consisting of instances of the form \((x,k)\), where the integer \( k \geq 0 \) is called the parameter. The parameterized problem \( Q \) is fixed-parameter tractable (Downey et al., 1999) if it can be solved in time \( f(k)\cdot|x|^{O(1)} \), where \( f \) is a recursive function. Note that in this paper, we always assume that complexity functions are “nice” with both domain and range being non-negative integers and the values of the functions and their inverses can be easily computed. Certain NP-hard parameterized problems, such as VERTEX COVER, are fixed-parameter tractable, and hence can be solved practically for small parameter values. On the other hand, the inherent computational difficulty for solving many other NP-hard parameterized problems with even small parameter values has motivated the theory of fixed-parameter intractability (Downey et al., 1999). The \( \mathcal{W} \)-hierarchy \( \bigcup_{j \geq 1} \mathcal{W}[j] \) has been introduced to characterize the inherent level of intractability for parameterized problems. Examples of \( \mathcal{W}[1] \)-hard problems include problems such as CLIQUE and DOMINATING SET. It has become commonly accepted that no \( \mathcal{W}[1] \)-hard problem can be solved in time \( f(k)n^{O(1)} \) for any function \( f \), i.e., \( \mathcal{W}[1] \neq FPT \). \( \mathcal{W}[1] \)-hardness has served as the hypothesis for fixed-parameter intractability.

Note that investigation (Chen et al, 2006) has derived stronger computational lower bounds for well-known NP-hard parameterized problems. For example, for the CLIQUE problem, which asks if a given graph of \( n \) vertices has a clique of size \( k \), it is proved that unless an unlikely collapse occurs in parameterized complexity theory, the problem is not solvable in time \( f(k)n^{o(k)} \) for any function \( f \). Note that this lower bound is asymptotically tight in the sense that the trivial algorithm that enumerates all subsets of \( k \) vertices in a given graph to test the existence of a clique of size \( k \) runs in time \( O(n^k) \).

3 PARAMETERIZED LOWER BOUND FOR MAXIMUM COMMON SUBGRAPH

We derive the lower bounds for the exact algorithms for the parameterized versions of the MAXIMUM COMMON SUBGRAPH problem. We first give the formal parameterized versions of the problem.

**Definition.** The \( MCS_k \) problem:
Instance: Source graph \( H \) with \( m \) vertices, host graph \( G \) with \( n \) vertices, and a map scheme \( M \) of map width \( k \).
Parameter: \( k, s \), where \( k, 0 \leq k \leq n \), is the map width and \( s, 0 \leq s \leq m \) is the size of the common subgraph.
Question: is there a common subgraph \( G' \) with \( s \) vertices of graphs \( H \) and \( G \)?

In the above definition, we use the notion of map scheme introduced by Song et al. in (Song et al., 2006).

**Definition.** A map scheme \( M \) between \( H \) and \( G \) is a binary relation \( M \subseteq V(H) \times V(G) \). The corresponding map set \( M(v) \) of a vertex \( v \in V(H) \) is defined as \( \{u : (v,u) \in M\} \). \( M \) is said to have map width \( k \) if \( |M(v)| \leq k \) for every \( v \in V(H) \). Apparently \( k \leq n \), where \( n = |V(G)| \). \( M \) is called well-formed if for every \( (v_1,v_2) \in E(H) \), there exist \( u_1 \in M(v_1) \) and \( u_2 \in M(v_2) \) such that \((u_1,u_2) \in E(G)\).

The following results on the parameterized complexity of the parameterized problems are known:

- The \( MCS_k \) problem is solvable with a brute-force approach in time \( p(n,m) \cdot k^m \), where \( p \) is a polynomial function, \( k \) is the map width, and \( m \) and \( n \) are the numbers of vertices of the source graph and the host graph respectively.
- The general parameterized MCS problem is \( \mathcal{W}[1] \)-hard (Huang, 2006). For the general parameterized MCS problem, there is no parameterized algorithms of running time \( f(s) \cdot (\max(n,m)\cdot O(1)) \) for any function \( f \), unless there is an unlikely collapse in parameterized complexity (Huang, 2006).
We prove the following lower bound result for the parameterized MCSₖ problem.

**Theorem 3.1.** The MCSₖ problem has no algorithm of time \( p(n,m) \ast k^{o(m)} \), where \( p \) is a polynomial function, \( k \) is the map width, and \( m \) and \( n \) are the numbers of vertices of the source graph and the host graph respectively, unless the ETH (exponential time hypothesis) fails (i.e., all SNP problems are solvable in subexponential time).

Note that the class SNP introduced by Papadimitriou and Yannakakis (Papadimitriou et al., 1991) contains many well-known NP-hard problems including, for any fixed integer \( q \geq 3 \), CNF q-SAT, q-COLORABILITY, q-SET COVER, and VERTEX COVER, CLIQUE, and INDEPENDENT SET (Impagliazzo et al., 2001). It is commonly believed that it is unlikely that all problems in SNP are solvable in subexponential time. A recent result showed the equivalence between the statement that all SNP problems are solvable in subexponential time, and the collapse of a parameterized class called Mini[1] to FPT (Downey et al., 2003).

In order to prove the theorem, we will prove the following lemma first.

**Lemma 3.2.** The MCSₖ problem has no algorithm of time \( p(n,m) \ast k^{o(m)} \), where \( p \) is a polynomial function, \( k \) is the map width, and \( m \) and \( n \) are the numbers of vertices of the source graph and the host graph respectively, unless the 3SAT problem with \( n' \) variables and \( m' \) clauses can be solved in time \( O(2^{o(m')}) \).

**Proof.** We prove the lemma through a reduction from 3SAT to the MCSₖ problem. This reduction is adapted from the polynomial time reduction in (Song et al., 2006). Given a Boolean formula \( \phi \) in the conjunctive normal form

\[
\phi = (l_1^1 \lor l_2^1 \lor l_1^2) \land (l_1^2 \lor l_2^2 \lor l_1^3) \land \ldots \land (l_m^1 \lor l_2^m \lor l_3^m)
\]

we construct two graphs, \( H_\phi \), \( G_\phi \) and map scheme \( M_\phi \) as follows: \( H_\phi \) contain \( m' \) vertices, \( v_1, \ldots, v_{m'} \), forming a clique. \( G_\phi \) contains \( 3m' \) vertices, one for every literal occurrence in formula \( \phi \) in which two vertices \( u_i^j \) and \( u_j^s \) corresponding to \( l_i^j \) and \( l_j^s \) form an edge if \( s \neq i \) and \( l_i^j \) are not complementary literals. The map scheme \( M_\phi \) is defined as \( M_\phi = u_1^1, u_2^1, u_3^1, r = 1, \ldots, m' \). It is not difficult to verify that formula \( \phi \) is satisfiable if and only if there is a clique subgraph in \( G_\phi \) which is isomorphic to \( H_\phi \) and the isomorphism is constrained by map scheme \( M_\phi \) with the map width \( k = 3 \). This reduction can be done in time \( p(n',m') \). Therefore, if the MCSₖ problem has an algorithm of time \( p(n',m') \ast k^{o(m')} \), then the 3SAT problem with \( n' \) variables and \( m' \) clauses can be solved in time \( O(2^{o(m')}) \). The Theorem is proved.

Through a close study of the reduction, we can see that this reduction is a linear fpt-reduction (Chen et al., 2006). Therefore, if MCSₖ is subexponential-time solvable, then 3SAT is subexponential-time solvable, which indicates that ETH (exponential time hypothesis) fails.

**Lemma 3.3.** The 3SAT problem with \( n' \) variables and \( m' \) clauses can be solved in time \( O(2^{o(m')}) \) if and only if it can be solved in time \( O(2^{o(n')}) \).

**Lemma 3.4.** The 3SAT problem with \( n' \) variables and \( m' \) clauses could not be solved in time \( O(2^{o(n')}) \) unless the ETH fails (i.e., all SNP problems are solvable in subexponential time).

By combining the above Lemma 3.2, Lemma 3.3 and Lemma 3.4, the Theorem 3.1 is proved. This theorem shows that the algorithm for the MCSₖ problem with running time \( p(n,m) \ast k^m \) based on the brute force approach could not be significantly improved, where \( p \) is a polynomial function, \( k \) is the map width, and \( m \) and \( n \) are the numbers of vertices of the source graph and the host graph respectively. In consideration of the upper bound of \( p(n,m) \ast k^m \) for the problem, we point out that the lower bound results for the problem presented here is asymptotically tight.

## 4 EFFICIENT ALGORITHM FOR PROTEIN STRUCTURE ALIGNMENT

In the previous section, we have proved the asymptotically tight lower bound result for the MCSₖ problem. Although the algorithm with running time \( p(n,m) \ast k^m \) based on the brute force approach could not be significantly improved, it is still possible to develop efficient algorithms for practical emerging applications. Here we develop an efficient algorithm integrating the color coding method (Alon et al., 2002) and the idea of parameterized computation (Downey et al., 1999) for the problem of MAXIMUM COMMON SUBGRAPH with applications in protein structure-structure alignment.

### 4.1 Protein Structure Graphs

There are three levels of protein structures: primary sequence, secondary structure and tertiary structure. We use two proteins with PDB codes 1llda (chain A of allosteric L-lactate dehydrogenase from *Bifidobacterium longum*) and 6ldh (M4 apo-lactate dehydrogenase from the spiny dogfish, *Squaleus acanthius*), from the Lindahl benchmark data set (Lindahl et al., 2000)
as examples in our study. The protein data bank website (http://www.pdb.org/pdb/) provides the information of the three levels of the two proteins.

We build mixed structure graphs for the proteins using the PDB files supplemented with additional data generated by DSSP (Kabsch et al., 1993). Directed and undirected edges and two types of vertices of the mixed structure graph are constructed as follows.

- Convert all regions that contain more than four amino acids that form a secondary structure (an alpha helix or beta sheet) into a vertex in the graph that does not include the first and last amino acid from the region. These are referred to as core regions.
- Build directed edges between the core regions as they appear sequentially in the protein.
- Build undirected edges between core regions that are within seven Angstroms of each other.

The construction of the mixed structure graphs are similar to the protein structure graphs in (Song et al., 2006). The difference is that for our graph model we distinguish between the different types of core regions using two different types of vertices in the graph. Refer to the structure graphs in Figures 1 and 2 for proteins 1llda and 6ldh.

![Figure 1: Structure graph for 1llda. Alpha helix regions are represented by circles and beta sheet cores are represented by squares. (The maximum common subgraph is illustrated in red).](image)

![Figure 2: Structure graph for 6ldh. Alpha helix regions are represented by circles and beta sheet cores are represented by squares. (The maximum common subgraph is illustrated in red).](image)

### 4.2 Structure Alignment based on Maximum Common Subgraph

After we build the two mixed structure graphs to represent two protein structures, we design efficient algorithms which incorporate the color coding method (Alon et al., 2002) and parameterized computation (Downey et al., 1999). We use an iterative approach to find the common subgraphs of the two structure graphs and then, based on the identified common subgraphs, build the structure alignment of the two proteins.

The following is a brief description of our MCS algorithm based on color coding and parameterized computation for finding the common subgraphs of the two protein structure graphs.

1. Preprocess the two structure graphs $G$ and $H$ using known secondary structure information. For each vertex $v$ of $G$, it can align with $k$ vertices of $H$, where $k$ is the statistical cutoff.
2. Compare the size of $G$ and $H$, choose the smaller one as graph $S$, the bigger one as the graph $B$. Let $s$ be the size of the vertex set of $S$.
3. With the color coding method, we get a valid coloring of size $s$ of the vertices of $B$. Each valid coloring of $s$ vertices makes a subgraph $S_k$ of the graph $B$. We compare $S_k$ and $S$ to see if they are isomorphic to each other.
4. We output all these subgraphs to the pool and go to step 5. If we cannot find a subgraph of size $s$ that is isomorphic to $S$, go to step 4.
5. Decrease the value of $s$ by 1. Then we get different subgraphs of size $s$ from $S$ with the color coding method. Then for every subgraph, go to step 3.
6. Use the score scheme in (Xu et al., 2006) to evaluate the subgraphs in the pool. Output the common subgraph with the best score in the pool.
7. Iteratively find the common subgraphs of the remaining parts of the two structure graphs.

When we align two structure graphs $G$ and $H$, we need a mapping from the vertex set of $n$ vertices of the graph $G$ to the vertex set of $s$ vertices of the graph $H$. The idea is to randomly pick $s$ vertices from both vertex sets of $G$ and $H$ with the color coding method. Then we compare the two corresponding subgraphs of size $s$ to see if they are isomorphic to each other. Since in the structure graph there is a directed path to indicate the linear order of the vertices, it is easy to compare the directed edges. For the structure comparison of the two subgraphs, we need to make sure the corresponding undirected edges match.

There are two important ideas in the color-coding method that we have applied: random orientations and random colorings. An easy way of achieving random orientations is by choosing a random acyclic orientation of the graph $G$. We can obtain it by choosing a random permutation $\pi$: the vertex set $V \rightarrow 1, ..., |V|$ and directing an edge $(u, v) \in E$ from $u$ to $v$ if and only if $\pi(u) < \pi(v)$. Random colorings is to choose a random coloring of the vertices of $G$ with $s$ colors.
A path in $G$ is said to be colorful if each vertex on it is colored by a distinct color. A colorful path in $G$ is clearly simple.

For the de-randomized process, we need a list of colorings of the vertex set $V$ such that for every subset $V' \subseteq V$, where $|V'| = s$, there exists a coloring in the list that gives each vertex in $V'$ a distinct color. In other words, it is a map from the vertex set $V$ of $n$ vertices to the subgraph vertex set of $s$ vertices. We keep the colorings that are colorful and also there is a set of color number (from 1 to $s$) in the increasing order. In this way we can make sure the orientation of all the directed edges are right.

4.3 Experimental Testing for Protein Structure-Structure Alignment

We first illustrate our approach through the structural alignment of the two proteins 1llda and 6ldh. Figure 3 and 4 shows the maximum common subgraph of the two structure graphs.

Each pair of matched cores ($\{1,1\}$, $\{2,2\}$, $\{3,3\}$, $\{4,4\}$, $\{6,5\}$, $\{7,9\}$) are aligned against each other via pairwise alignment. The regions around them are also aligned by pairwise alignment, keeping sequential flow of the two proteins in mind. These alignments are combined into one alignment that represents a structural alignment between the two proteins (Figure 3).

This structural alignment was used as input into a MODELLER (Fiser et al., 2003) script to superposition 6ldh onto 1llda. The resulting models were then visualized using PyMOL (Delano, 2002) (refer to Figure 4). Given two proteins, $p_1$ and $p_2$, $p_1c$ is the number of cores in $p_1$, $p_2c$ is the number of cores in $p_2$ and $MCS_n$ is the size of the common subgraph, the core coverage is a percentage defined by: $MCS_n/\min(p_1c, p_2c)$. The structure alignment of 6ldh and 1llda has a core coverage of 71.43%.

We compare the running time of our approach with FAST (Zhu et al., 2005), which is based on pairwise backbone atom ($C_\alpha$) alignment, and MUSTANG (Konagurthu et al., 2006), at a pairwise alignment level. Refer to Table 2 for the running time comparison of 10 protein pairs with different sequence lengths and different numbers of cores. From the experimental testing we can see that our core coverage is always significant when the protein sequence lengths increase. This indicates that our approach is very efficient and suitable for structural alignment of proteins with large numbers of amino acids.

We test our structure alignment approach through conducting protein structure-structure alignments of more than 600 pairs of proteins of the Lindahl benchmark data set (Lindahl et al., 2000). Please refer to Figure 5 for core coverage distributions, Figure 6 for running time distribution (of proteins with the number of cores larger than 5) and Figure 7 for RMSD distribution of structure alignments for 631 protein pairs. Figure 5 and Table 1 shows that our approach achieves a high rate of core coverage. From Figure 6 of the running time distribution of the protein structure alignments of proteins with different sequence lengths, we can see that because our parameterized approach is based on core alignments, the running time does not increase significantly when the protein sequence lengths increase. This indicates that our approach is very efficient and suitable for structural alignment of proteins with large numbers of amino acids.

We compare the running time of our approach with FAST (Zhu et al., 2005), which is based on pairwise backbone atom ($C_\alpha$) alignment, and MUSTANG (Konagurthu et al., 2006), at a pairwise alignment level. Refer to Table 2 for the running time comparison of 10 protein pairs with different sequence lengths and different numbers of cores. From the experimental testing we can see that our MCS-based approach has achieved a similar efficiency level over the other approaches. Compared with FAST and MUSTANG, our approach has an improvement in efficiency for structure alignments of protein pairs with large numbers of amino acids.
of 60-70%, 80 pairs with a core coverage of 80-90%, and 4 pairs with a 100% core coverage.

For protein structure alignment of two proteins, we applied a graph comparison model to identify the maximum common subgraph of two protein structure graphs. We first studied the parameterized computation for the problem.

We then developed efficient algorithms integrating the color coding method and parameterized computation for protein structure alignment. Testing in alignment efficiency and accuracy of our algorithms are conducted using large benchmark testing data sets. Our parameterized approach shows improvement in

5 SUMMARY

For protein structure alignment of two proteins, we applied a graph comparison model to identify the maximum common subgraph of two protein structure graphs. We first studied the parameterized complexity of the MAXIMUM COMMON SUBGRAPH problem. Computational lower bounds for the parameterized versions of the problem were investigated. We proved it is unlikely that there is an algorithm of time \( p(n, m) \times k^m \) for the problem \( MCS \), where \( k \) is the map width of the source graph \( H \) with \( m \) vertices and the host graph \( G \) with \( n \) vertices. In consideration of the upper bound of \( p(n, m) \times k^m \) for the problem, we point out that the lower bound results for the problem presented here is asymptotically tight.

We then developed efficient algorithms integrating the color coding method and parameterized computation for protein structure alignment. Testing in alignment efficiency and accuracy of our algorithms are conducted using large benchmark testing data sets. Our parameterized approach shows improvement in
Figure 7: RMSD distribution of structure alignments for 631 protein pairs from the Lindahl data set.

Table 1: Core coverage testing results of structure alignments of ten protein pairs from the Lindahl data set.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Protein 1 (P1)</th>
<th>Protein 2 (P2)</th>
<th>Length of P1</th>
<th>Length of P2</th>
<th>Cores in P1</th>
<th>Cores in P2</th>
<th>Core Coverage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1akl</td>
<td>1ospo</td>
<td>224</td>
<td>251</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>100.00%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1dud</td>
<td>1duta</td>
<td>136</td>
<td>117</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>75.00%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1fcdc</td>
<td>1dvh</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>75.00%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1llda</td>
<td>6ldh</td>
<td>170</td>
<td>169</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>71.43%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1mai</td>
<td>1pls</td>
<td>119</td>
<td>113</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>57.14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1phe</td>
<td>1oxa</td>
<td>405</td>
<td>403</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>43.75%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1lb</td>
<td>1glg</td>
<td>259</td>
<td>263</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>46.15%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2bhn</td>
<td>1miob</td>
<td>456</td>
<td>457</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>42.11%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3gsta</td>
<td>1glqa</td>
<td>133</td>
<td>131</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>55.56%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5sgae</td>
<td>1p03a</td>
<td>181</td>
<td>198</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>55.56%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2: Comparison of the running time of our MCS approach with those of FAST and MUSTANG on ten protein pairs from the Lindahl data set. (Time unit: second. Testing was conducted on a 15-inch MacBook Pro with the following configuration: 8GB 667MHz DDR2 SDRAM, 2.5GHz Intel Core 2 Duo).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Protein 1 (P1)</th>
<th>Protein 2 (P2)</th>
<th>Length of P1</th>
<th>Length of P2</th>
<th>Time (MCS)</th>
<th>Time (FAST)</th>
<th>Time (MUSTANG)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1akl</td>
<td>1ospo</td>
<td>224</td>
<td>251</td>
<td>0.014</td>
<td>0.560</td>
<td>3.433</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1dud</td>
<td>1duta</td>
<td>136</td>
<td>117</td>
<td>0.053</td>
<td>0.213</td>
<td>0.607</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1fcdc</td>
<td>1dvh</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>0.083</td>
<td>0.395</td>
<td>0.187</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1llda</td>
<td>6ldh</td>
<td>170</td>
<td>169</td>
<td>0.223</td>
<td>0.308</td>
<td>0.902</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1mai</td>
<td>1pls</td>
<td>119</td>
<td>113</td>
<td>0.493</td>
<td>0.142</td>
<td>0.436</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1phe</td>
<td>1oxa</td>
<td>405</td>
<td>403</td>
<td>0.866</td>
<td>1.974</td>
<td>6.257</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1lb</td>
<td>1glg</td>
<td>259</td>
<td>265</td>
<td>0.810</td>
<td>0.875</td>
<td>1.914</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2bhn</td>
<td>1miob</td>
<td>456</td>
<td>457</td>
<td>1.104</td>
<td>1.538</td>
<td>11.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3gsta</td>
<td>1glqa</td>
<td>133</td>
<td>131</td>
<td>0.848</td>
<td>0.193</td>
<td>0.861</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5sgae</td>
<td>1p03a</td>
<td>181</td>
<td>198</td>
<td>1.099</td>
<td>0.423</td>
<td>1.153</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Efficiency when applied to the structure alignments of protein pairs with large sizes. For further work we will refine the core region alignment of the protein structure graphs to improve the performance of our approach and design sophisticated scoring schemes based on core coverage to evaluate the common subgraphs of two protein structure graphs.

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