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Flexible protein–protein docking

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Predicting the structure of protein–protein complexes using docking approaches is a difficult problem whose major challenges include identifying correct solutions, and properly dealing with molecular flexibility and conformational changes. Flexibility can be addressed at several levels: implicitly, by smoothing the protein surfaces or allowing some degree of interpenetration (soft docking) or by performing multiple docking runs from various conformations (cross or ensemble docking); or explicitly, by allowing sidechain and/or backbone flexibility. Although significant improvements have been achieved in the modeling of sidechains, methods for the explicit inclusion of backbone flexibility in docking are still being developed. A few novel approaches have emerged involving collective degrees of motion, multicopy representations and multibody docking, which should allow larger conformational changes to be modeled.

Addresses

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Introduction

Given the increased focus on interactions in the current post-genomic era, structural knowledge of complexes is required to understand how the various biomolecular units work together to fulfill their tasks. The number of expected biomolecular complexes will, however, exceed the number of proteins in a proteome by at least one order of magnitude; a significant fraction of these will be extremely difficult to study using classical structural methods such as NMR and X-ray crystallography. Therefore, the importance of computational approaches such as docking, the process of predicting the three-dimensional structure of a complex based on its known constituents, is evident. Unfortunately, predicting the structure of protein–protein complexes is a difficult problem, with major challenges that include identifying correct solutions, and

properly dealing with flexibility and conformational changes. In this review, recent progress in the latter area will be addressed.

To monitor the performance of current docking methods, CAPRI (Critical Assessment of Predicted Interactions), a community-wide blind docking experiment, has been established (<http://capri.ebi.ac.uk>). The recent CAPRI results [1•] indicate that, although for ‘easy’ targets that show only small backbone conformational changes, excellent predictions can be obtained by the modeling community as whole, targets for which conformational changes take place upon binding are extremely challenging (even for backbone RMSD changes as small as 2 Å!). Initially, most protein–protein docking approaches have been developed based on rigid-body docking algorithms, thus ignoring any conformational change that might occur upon binding. However, the realization of the importance of flexibility in docking is leading to new developments. Flexibility can be introduced at several levels: implicitly, by smoothing the protein surfaces or allowing some degree of interpenetration (soft docking) or by performing multiple docking runs from various conformations (cross or ensemble docking); or explicitly, by allowing sidechain and/or backbone flexibility, either during docking or in a refinement step. A few novel approaches are emerging that involve collective degrees of motion or multicomponent rigid-body docking with flexible hinges. One common denominator here is that some *a priori* knowledge of flexible and/or hinge regions is often required. I will therefore first discuss recent progress in the prediction of flexibility and conformational changes in biomolecules before reviewing the various implementations of flexibility in docking. Note that flexibility also plays a major role in small-molecule docking; however, because of the smaller molecular sizes, the problem is more tractable (but not less challenging!) and many of the developments that I report here have been previously implemented in protein–ligand docking (for an overview, see [2,3]).

Analyzing and predicting protein flexibility

Introducing flexibility in protein–protein docking is facilitated if knowledge of flexible regions and possible conformational changes is available. Such knowledge can be derived *in silico* from molecular dynamics (MD) simulations in combination with principal components analysis. These simulations are, however, computationally demanding and limited in terms of amplitudes of motions, which makes them less suited to large-scale application and/or large systems. Fast and simpler alternatives are now emerging within the context of docking. Provided that several structures of a protein and/or its

homologues have been solved, information about flexible and hinge regions can be derived from three-dimensional structure similarity analysis [4]. Analysis of collective motions (e.g. by normal mode or principal components analysis) based on simplified descriptions of the molecules, such as graph theory [5] and elastic network [6] models, provides a computationally cheap alternative to MD simulations [5,7–10]. For identifying flexible and hinge regions, methods that limit the analysis to backbone or C α atoms are usually sufficient [8,9]. However, if the aim is to generate starting conformations for docking, all (heavy) atom models are required, and several tools and web servers are now available for this purpose [11–13].

Implicit treatment of flexibility in docking

Soft docking

Many docking methods map the structures of the receptor and/or ligand onto a three-dimensional grid to simplify the search problem. In such representations, sidechain (and small backbone) rearrangements can be modeled by allowing some degree of interpenetration of the surfaces to be matched, the so-called soft-core approach [14], or by trimming long sidechains [15]. Snapshots of an MD simulation have recently been used to build grids for docking in which only grid points consistently occupied by all conformations are considered, thus excluding mobile regions from the construction of the grid [16]. This resulted in an increased hit rate and prediction accuracy for one of the recent CAPRI targets [16]. Note that surface softening does not always lead to improved results [17]. One of the drawbacks of this kind of flexibility treatment is that severe steric clashes are frequently introduced when returning to a full-atom representation, thus requiring further optimization.

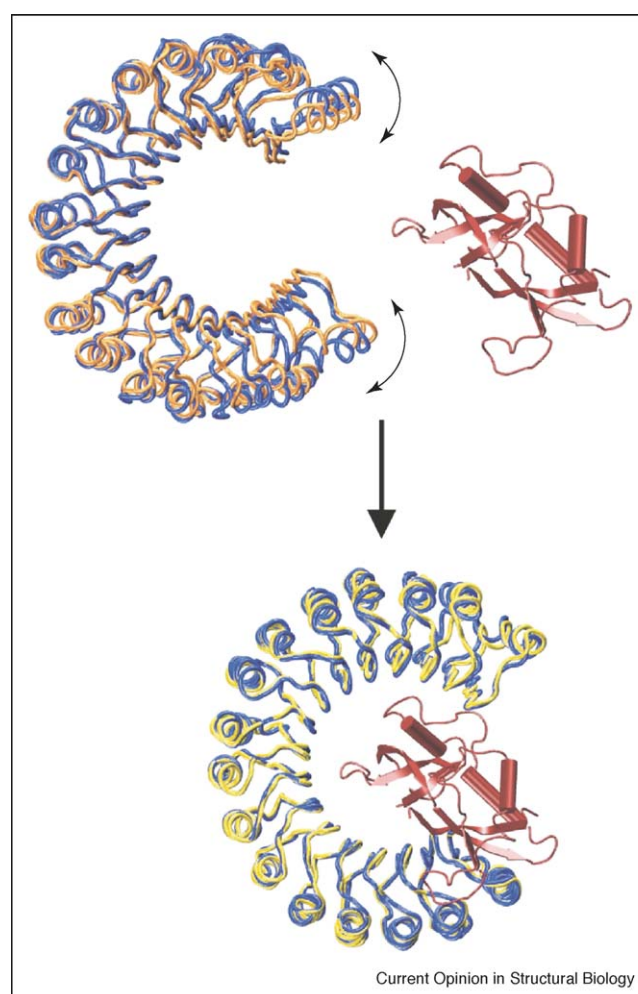
Ensemble docking

Another, rather different, implicit treatment of flexibility can be achieved by performing (rigid-body) docking of ensembles of conformations taken from, for example, NMR structures, MD simulations or any other conformational sampling method. In such cases, the docking process is repeated from various combinations of starting structures (ensemble or cross docking), which can lead to a significant increase in computing time, depending on the implementation. The conformations can span various degrees of flexibility, from small mainly sidechain rearrangements to large-scale global backbone motions.

Even small sidechain rearrangements from short MD simulations can be beneficial for improving docking predictions. It has been shown that residues important for molecular recognition will usually sample bound conformations during MD simulations of the unbound protein [18,19]. Similarly, exposed sidechains in an ensemble of NMR structures usually sample various conformations; their use in data-driven docking was shown to increase

both accuracy and hit rate [20]. Two rather systematic studies have been published that investigate the use of MD structures in cross docking [17,21]. Both studies indicate that ensemble docking improves the performance in terms of the number of (near) native solutions, but also leads to increased numbers of false positives (wrong solutions with high scores) and therefore makes the scoring more difficult. In addition, no clear correlation was found between RMSD from the bound form and success rate. Several groups have made use of MD snapshots as the starting point for docking in the latest CAPRI rounds [22,23,24].

Figure 1



Normal-mode-based docking of RNase A to the porcine RNase A inhibitor (PDB code 1DFJ) using ATTRACT [41]. Simultaneous docking minimization of RNase A (red cartoon representation) in translational and rotational degrees of freedom, and against the softest global mode of the unbound inhibitor yielded results in closer agreement with the bound form (blue) than simple rigid-body docking. The flexible global modes of the receptor (inhibitor) were calculated using the approximate normal mode method of Hinsen *et al.* [43]. The unbound inhibitor (yellow coil, top) and the docked conformation after optimization against soft global modes (orange coil, bottom) are compared to the bound crystal form (blue coils).

Ensembles of structures generated from collective-motion-based methods (see above) have also been applied to protein–protein docking. These usually sample larger conformational changes involving backbone atoms. Structures obtained from flexibility analysis based on the graph theory algorithm FIRST [5], coupled with conformational sampling using ROCK [11], were shown to improve the quality of results for protein docking with both small molecules and peptides [25^{*}]. Similarly, conformations generated from essential dynamics analysis [26] of an ensemble of structures calculated with CONCOORD [7] have been used in CAPRI [27].

Explicit treatment of flexibility in docking

In the final refinement step of most docking approaches, a limited degree of flexibility is introduced by performing a (usually) short energy minimization (EM). This typically does not lead to any significant improvement in RMSD from the target structure, but rather is meant to remove clashes and improve the energetics, which can have a significant impact on the scoring performance [28]. In the past few years, flexibility has been explicitly introduced in the docking process. This is, however, only possible when molecules are explicitly represented (rather than, for example, on a grid).

Sidechain flexibility

In ICM-DISCO, docking against a soft grid is followed by Monte Carlo (MC) optimization of the ligand sidechains [29]. This procedure is quite successful in reproducing induced changes in surface sidechains as long as

no large backbone rearrangements take place. In HADDOCK [30], sidechains of both receptor and ligand are treated as being flexible during the first MD simulated annealing refinement stage. Several other methods describe sidechain flexibility based on rotamer libraries. ATTRACT [31,32] uses a reduced protein representation together with multiple sidechain copies: switching between rotamers is performed at various stages during docking and the best conformation is selected for the next few subsequent EM steps. In RosettaDock [33], after the initial low-resolution search, the sidechains are repacked and further optimized in an MC search that includes rigid-body displacements. Recent developments include the sampling of off-rotamer sidechain conformations [34^{*}] and a new solvated rotamer library [35]. Rather impressive results on the accuracy of sidechain positioning were obtained for those CAPRI targets that exhibit only minor backbone conformational changes upon binding [36,37].

Backbone flexibility

Dealing with backbone flexibility in protein–protein docking is still an open challenge. For protein–peptide docking, an MC-based flexible approach was reported that explicitly samples protein sidechain and ligand backbone and sidechain rotations [38]. Of all the approaches represented in CAPRI (see Table III in [1^{*}]), only one, HADDOCK [30], explicitly allows backbone flexibility during an MD simulated annealing refinement stage in torsion angle space. Guided docking [39], which allows some degree of backbone rearrangement, was also

Figure 2

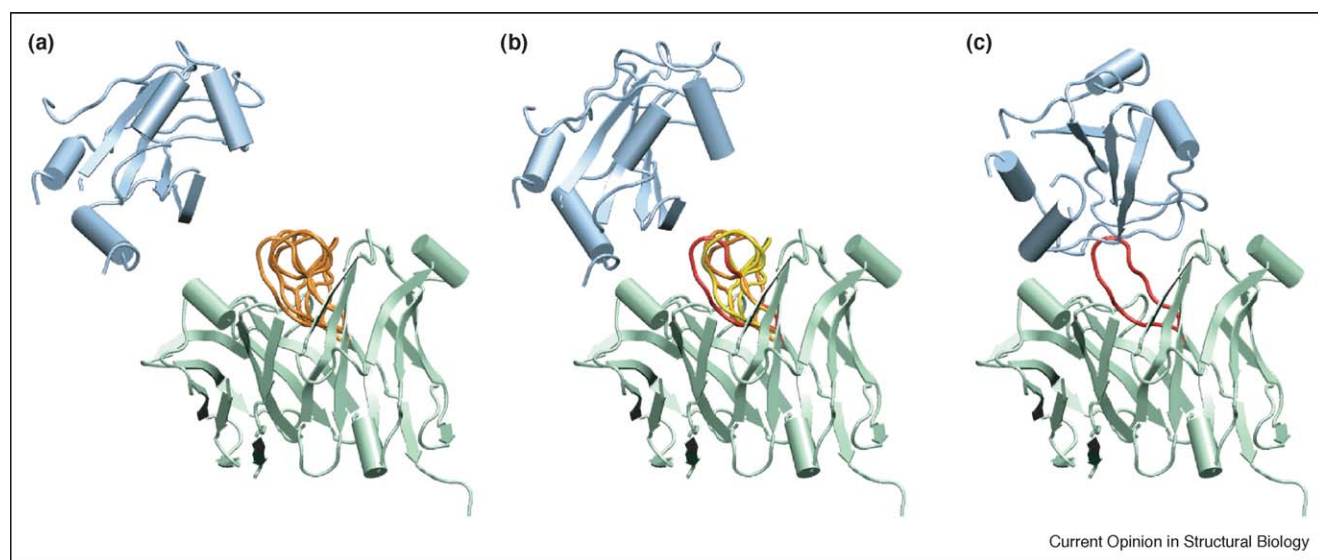


Illustration of the treatment of loop flexibility in the docking of the IgE Fv Spe7–thioredoxin complex (PDB code 1OAZ) using the mean-field multicopy approach [46^{*}]. C α traces of the receptor and ligand are indicated in green and blue, respectively. **(a)** At the start, each loop copy is assigned a weight [between 1 (red) and 0 (white)], according to its interaction energy with the ligand. **(b)** During docking, the most favorable loop conformation obtains a high weight and dominates the minimization. **(c)** At the end, the most favorable loop conformation has a weight close to 1.

applied to a few targets [22]. For the successful predictions obtained with HADDOCK, explicit inclusion of backbone and sidechain flexibility increased the number of acceptable solutions and improved the scoring of the resulting complexes [24[•]]. The effect on backbone RMSD, however, was less clear, improving the solutions by up to approximately 1.5 Å when the unbound forms were structurally relatively distant, but leading to some deterioration in quality when the differences between unbound and bound forms were minimal. The major impact on the docking results was to increase the fraction of native contacts by 10–35% [24[•]]. Similar conclusions were drawn from an MD study of the association of barnase and barstar from short distances [40].

Describing large conformational changes in docking

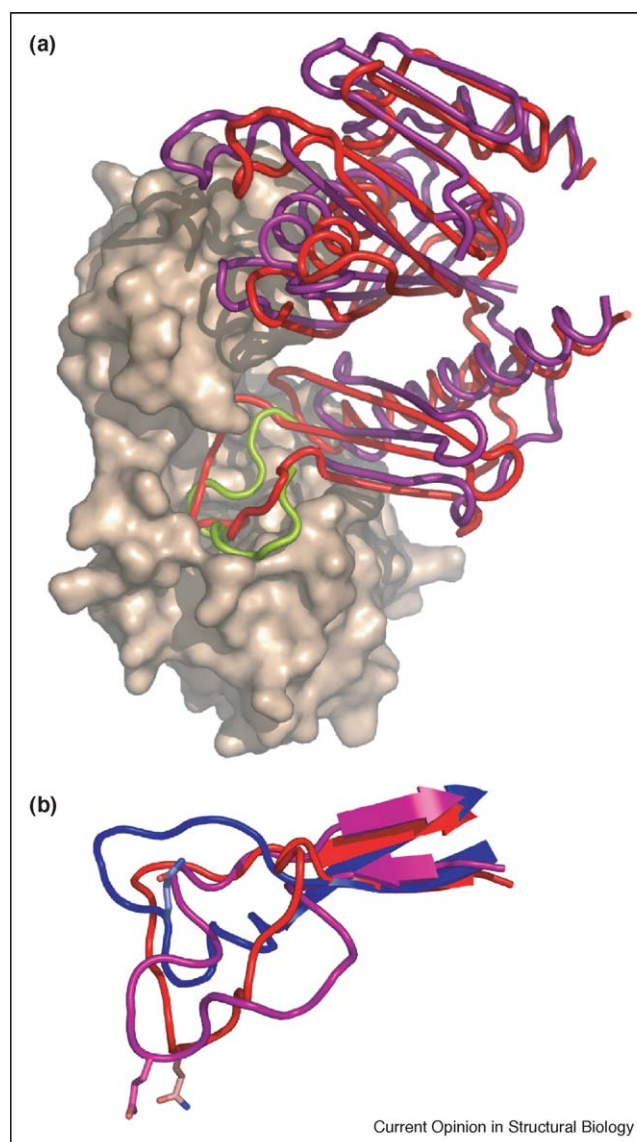
Several promising approaches have recently been reported that allow the sampling of large conformational changes, either directly during docking or as a refinement step.

The concept of using collective motions for the analysis and prediction of motions has now been incorporated directly into the modeling process. Deformations along principal components are treated as additional degrees of freedom in ATTRACT, allowing the structures to deform along soft harmonic modes to facilitate the binding process [32]. This ‘normal-modes-based’ docking approach was shown to improve the results of both protein–ligand [32] and protein–protein docking [41^{••}] (Figure 1). Large deformations can, however, lead to sidechain distortions and thus there is need for a sidechain rebuilding step. Normal modes have also been applied to the optimization of complexes against electron density maps [42,43] and the refinement of protein–DNA models [44]. Such approaches should lead to improved docking results, provided that the identified modes are relevant to the binding process; this is again related to our ability to predict motions.

Large loop rearrangements are also difficult to model and can thus hinder docking, even when some degree of backbone flexibility is introduced. A multicopy, mean-field approach has been proposed to deal with this problem [45,46[•]]. Multiple loop conformations generated by systematic conformational sampling are considered; during docking, the statistical weight of each copy is adapted according to the Boltzmann criterion and the receptor experiences the mean field of the ensemble of conformations (Figure 2). However, this method can lead to a combinatorial explosion in the number of interactions to be calculated if too many flexible loops need to be considered in both the ligand and the receptor. Another, rather stringent, way of dealing with flexible loops is to simply ignore them during docking and rebuild them in the context of the complex in a loop modeling step [47]. For the HemK–RF1 complex (CAPRI target 20) [48], the

only acceptable solution was obtained using this strategy. In this case, it was clear that a loop must undergo significant conformational changes to expose a glutamine sidechain for methylation by HemK. Using HADDOCK, we performed a two-stage docking: first, based on biological information, a fully flexible loop segment was

Figure 3



Result of multibody ($N = 3$) flexible docking of the HemK–RF1 complex (PDB code 2B3T; CAPRI target 20 [48]) using HADDOCK [30]. **(a)** Best solution (i -RMSD 1.9 Å) superimposed onto the crystal structure. HemK is shown in surface representation. The backbone of RF1 in the crystal structure is shown in red. Three-body docking was performed with RF1 cut into a flexible 16-residue loop segment (green) and a core region (magenta). **(b)** Comparison of the loop conformations of RF1 in the starting homology model (blue) (loop RMSD from the bound conformation 9.6 Å), after multibody flexible docking (purple) (RMSD 4.7 Å) and in the crystal structure (red). The glutamine sidechain that becomes methylated by HemK is rendered in sticks.

Figure 4

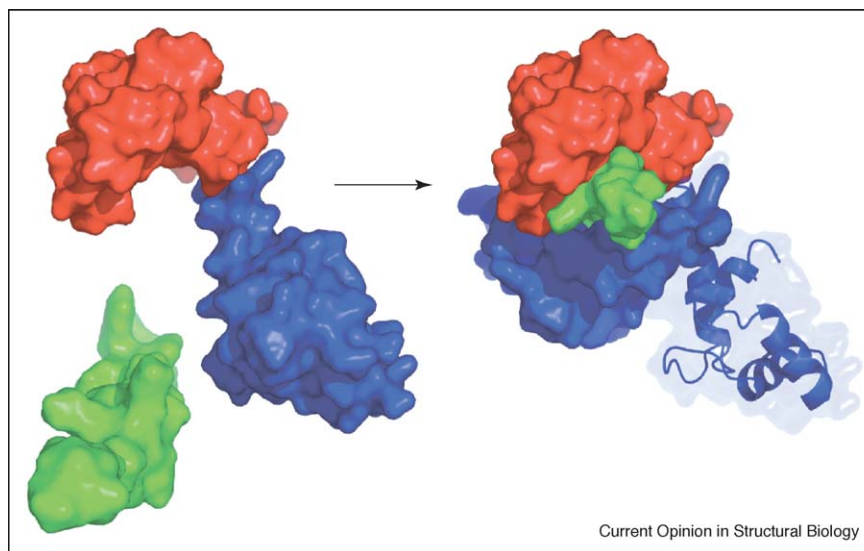


Illustration of hinge-based flexible docking of calmodulin to the myosin kinase peptide (PDB code 2BBM). The extended unbound conformation of calmodulin is represented on the left and the best solution obtained using FlexDock [49*] (2.1 Å RMSD from crystal structure) is on the right. The N- and C-terminal domains of calmodulin, which were treated as separate domains for docking, are indicated in red and blue, respectively, and the peptide is in green. To highlight the large domain movements that take place upon binding, the unbound orientation of the C-terminal domain is shown in semi-transparent blue in the docked model.

docked by MD; the resulting loop conformation was then grafted onto the RF1 core, followed by docking using the standard HADDOCK protocol (rigid-body docking followed by semi-flexible refinement), resulting in a solution with an interface RMSD (i-RMSD) of 4.2 Å and 30% native contacts. Recently, we performed a multibody (N = 3: HemK, RF1 core and RF1 loop) rigid-body docking followed by flexible refinement, leading to solutions with less than 2 Å i-RMSD and more than 50% of the native contacts (Figure 3). Although further analysis showed that acceptable solutions could be recovered at the rigid-body docking stage, flexible refinement improved the accuracy significantly (from 3.5 Å to 1.9 Å i-RMSD for our top-ranked solution).

Dissecting proteins into subdomains can thus offer a way to deal with large conformational changes in docking. This has been implemented in FlexDock [49*]: once hinge regions have been identified (or predicted), a fast two-body rigid docking is performed with the various combinations of subdomains. The resulting fragments are then assembled using a graph theory algorithm. This very promising approach was able to model the very large conformational change that occurs upon the binding of calmodulin to a target peptide (Figure 4) and produced the only acceptable solution for the LicT dimer (CAPRI target 9). A recent review by Wolfson *et al.* [50**] nicely illustrates the combination of flexibility prediction with this new ‘hinge-bending’ rigid-body docking approach. A similar, incremental, multibody, multistage docking strat-

egy was successfully applied to several CAPRI targets using MolFit [51].

Conclusions and perspectives

The proper treatment of flexibility in protein–protein docking is clearly an active field of research, as evident from recent developments. It is, however, still in its infancy and remains a challenging problem, in particular when it comes to describing (large) conformational changes involving backbone atoms. Most probably, there will not be a unique solution; rather, it will be the proper combination of approaches for representing conformational changes and flexibility at several levels that will lead to success. This will be tightly coupled to our ability to properly identify flexible and hinge regions, and predict conformational changes. In addition, parallel developments in scoring schemes will be required, because the inclusion of flexibility in docking, although improving the success rate and the fraction of correctly predicted intermolecular contacts, can complicate the identification of the correct solutions. Finally, an even more challenging problem is awaiting us — the modeling of complexes in which the folding of one of the partners is coupled to binding. This will require us to address protein folding and structure prediction in the context of docking.

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