

The Disulfide Connectivity Prediction with Support Vector Machine and Behavior Knowledge Space

Hong-Yu Chen¹, Chang-Biau Yang^{1,†}, Kuo-Tsung Tseng^{2,‡} and Chiou-Yi Hor¹

¹Department of Computer Science and Engineering, National Sun Yat-sen University, Kaohsiung 80424, Taiwan

²Department of Information Management, Fooyin University, Kaohsiung 83102, Taiwan

[†]cbyang@cse.nsysu.edu.tw, [‡]ft051@fy.edu.tw

Keywords: Disulfide Bond, Cysteine, Connectivity Pattern, Support Vector Machine, Behavior Knowledge Space.

Abstract: A disulfide bond, formed by two oxidized cysteines, plays an important role in the protein folding and structure stability, and it may regulate protein functions. The disulfide connectivity prediction problem is to reveal the correct information of disulfide connectivity in the target protein. It is difficult because the number of possible patterns grows rapidly with respect to the number of cysteines. In this paper, we discover some rules to discriminate the patterns with high accuracy in various methods. Then, we propose the pattern-wise and pair-wise BKS (behavior knowledge space) methods to fuse multiple classifiers constructed by the SVM (support vector machine) methods. Furthermore, we combine the CSP (cysteine separation profile) method to form our hybrid method. The prediction accuracy of our hybrid method in SP39 dataset with 4-fold cross-validation is increased to 69.1%, which is better than the best previous result 65.9%.

1 INTRODUCTION

A *disulfide bond*, also called *SS-bond* or *SS-bridge*, is a single covalent bond, and it is usually formed from the oxidation of two thiol groups. In proteins, only the thiol groups of cysteine residues can form the disulfide bonds by oxidation. The goal of the *disulfide connectivity prediction* (DCP) problem is to figure out which cysteine pair would be cross-link from all possible candidates. It may be conducive to the solution of the protein structure prediction problem if precise disulfide connectivity information is available.

There are two main ways for solving the DCP problem in previous works, pair-wise and pattern-wise. The pair-wise method focuses on the bonding potential of each cysteine pair, and encodes the target according to cysteine pairs. The pattern-wise method makes a comprehensive survey of the whole connectivity pattern and it usually ranks the connectivity patterns, so the prediction ability may be limited to the diversity of patterns in a training set.

The pattern-wise DCP task is difficult because the number of possible connectivity patterns grows rapidly with respect to the number of cysteines. The number of possible patterns is given as follows:

$$N = \frac{C_2^{2B} \times C_2^{2B-2} \times \dots \times C_2^2}{B!} = (2B-1)!! \quad (1)$$

where B is the number of disulfide bonds in the protein. For instance, if the oxidized state of each cysteine is known in advance, then $N = 945$ when $B = 5$, and N is up to 10395 when $B = 6$. Thus, most studies restrict the number of disulfide bonds to be from two to five.

Some statistical analysis (Paul M. Harrison and Michael J. E. Sternberg, 1994; Chih-Hao Lu et al., 2007; Leonid A. Mirny and Eugene I. Shakhnovich, 1996; Rotem Rubinstein and Andras Fiser, 2008) have been applied to the DCP problem. Many researchers tried to solve the problem with machine learning methods such as *neural network* (NN) (Pierre Baldi et al., 2005; Jianlin Cheng et al., 2006; Piero Fariselli et al., 1999; F. Ferre and P. Clote, 2005; Pier Luigi Martelli et al., 2002; Alessandro Vullo and Paolo Frasconi, 2004; Castrense Savojardo et al., 2013) and *support vector machine* (SVM) (Yu-Ching Chen et al., 2004; Yu-Ching Chen and Jenn-Kang Hwang, 2005; P. Frasconi et al., 2002; Jayavardhana Rama G. L. et al., 2005; Hsuan-Liang Liu and Shih-Chieh Chen, 2007; Chih-Hao Lu et al., 2007; Chi-Hung Tsai et al., 2005; Marc Vincent et al., 2008).

Before 2005, many studies (Pierre Baldi et al., 2005; F. Ferre and P. Clote, 2005) were devoted to the DCP problem, but most of their accuracies are less than 50%. In 2005, Zhao *et al.* (East Zhao et al., 2005) utilized the global information in a pro-

tein, called *cysteine separation profile* (CSP), which is the separations among all oxidized cysteines on a protein sequence.

In the past, the bonding states of each cysteine pair are usually used to describe the disulfide pattern and used as the samples of SVM. Lu *et al.* (Chih-Hao Lu et al., 2007) call this type of representation of the disulfide pattern as the CP₁ representation. In 2007, Lu *et al.* further proposed a novel concept of the CP₂ representation which use every two cysteine pairs (four cysteines) as the samples, and applied the genetic algorithm (GA) to the optimization of feature selection.

In 2012, Wang *et al.* (Chong-Jie Wang et al., 2012) proposed a hybrid model based on SVM and the weighted graph matching (Piero Fariselli and Rita Casadio, 2001), with accuracy 65.9%. They extracted different feature sets depending on whether the number of disulfide bonds in a protein is odd or even. The main difference of feature sets for the two submodels is the secondary structure information around the oxidized cysteines.

The rest of this paper is organized as follows. We introduce some preliminary knowledge, including related tools and previous works of the DCP problem in Section 2. In Section 3, we describe our hybrid method for solving the DCP problem. Our experimental results are shown in Section 4, and we also compare the prediction accuracy of our method with the previous works. Finally, our conclusion are given in Section 5.

2 PRELIMINARY

In this section, we introduce some background knowledge for this paper, including the *Position-Specific Scoring Matrix* (PSSM), *support vector machine* (SVM) and *behavior knowledge space* (BKS).

2.1 Position-specific Scoring Matrix

Position-Specific Scoring Matrix (PSSM) (Stephen F. Altschul et al., 1997), also called *profile*, is a scoring matrix derived from a group of aligned protein sequences. It represents the similarity of residues in every specific position of a query sequence (a target protein) according to the alignment result of the query sequence and the others (probes) in database. Basically, PSSM is a matrix of size $N \times 20$, where N denotes the length of a query sequence and every residue in the query sequence contains a 20-element vector. The 20-element vector respectively represents the scores

of 20 standard amino acids which are substituted for the position-specific residue of the query sequence.

2.2 Support Vector Machine

Support vector machine (SVM) is a machine learning method for classification and regression. It was first introduced by Vapnik (Vladimir N. Vapnik, 1999) in 1999. SVM seeks to create a hyperplane to discriminate different labels of the data elements (vectors) in the training set and utilizes the model to predict the labels of target data elements. Each vector is considered as a point in the feature space, and each dimension of the coordinates represents one kind of features. To discover the discriminative features is the key point of SVM.

For SVM implementation in this paper, we use the LIBSVM package (Chih-Chung Chang and Chih-Jen Lin, 2001), which is an easy-to-use tool for *support vector classification* (SVC) and *support vector regression* (SVR). The SVC function classifies the data with their probabilities, and the SVR function generates the regression value of each target data element.

2.3 Behavior Knowledge Space

Behavior knowledge space (BKS) (Sarunas Raudys and Fabio Roli, 2003) is a method for fusing multiple classifiers. It builds a look-up table for estimating the posterior probabilities and every combination of votes. Assume there are m classifiers composing an ensemble for a classification task of n labels. The BKS table contains n^m entries, the number of all possible combinations of m classifiers' outputs. And each entry records the distribution of n true labels in the training set.

Table 1 illustrates an example of the BKS table for a 3-label classification problem with two classifiers. The 'C1' and 'C2' represent the outputs from the two classifiers, and the entries below them show all nine possible prediction combinations. Cells below 'Real label', 'L1', 'L2', and 'L3', are the distribution of the true labels associated with the predicted label vectors. For example, when 'C1'='L1' and 'C2'='L3', the predicted answer of the ensemble is 'L2' since it is the most possible label. As another example, if we have 'C1'='L3' and 'C2'='L2', the answer goes to 'L3'.

3 ALGORITHMS FOR CONNECTIVITY PREDICTION

The prediction accuracies of Chung et al. (Wei-Chun

Table 1: An example of the BKS table.

Predicted label		Real label		
C1	C2	L1	L2	L3
L1	L1	23	8	2
L1	L2	5	0	4
L1	L3	2	7	1
⋮	⋮	⋮	⋮	⋮
L3	L2	1	1	5
L3	L3	1	3	12

Table 2: The feature vector of the permutation order.

Permutations	Feature vector
C ₁ -C ₂ -C ₃ -C ₄	(0.25, 0.5, 0.75, 1)
C ₁ -C ₃ -C ₂ -C ₄	(0.25, 0.75, 0.5, 1)
C ₁ -C ₄ -C ₂ -C ₃	(0.25, 1, 0.5, 0.75)

Chung et al., 2009) and Wang et al. (Chong-Jie Wang et al., 2012) are 63.5% and 65.9%, respectively. It may be hard to find more features with good discrimination capability for a single SVM method in the connectivity prediction. However, we may get better accuracies if we fuse the advantages of the multiple models.

Our method is based on SVM models, and we use BKS to fuse these models. The features and cysteine-pair representation we adopt are inspired by Wang *et al.* (Chong-Jie Wang et al., 2012) and Lu *et al.* (Chih-Hao Lu et al., 2007). In addition, we also combine the CSP method (East Zhao et al., 2005) to our hybrid method.

3.1 Feature Extraction

We follow the features used by Wang *et al.* (Chong-Jie Wang et al., 2012) and add the new feature *permutation order* for the model of CP₂ representation. The definition of permutation order is given as follows.

Permutation order: This feature implies the order of feature extraction in each cysteine window. For every cysteine-pair combination in the CP₂ representation, we encode the samples in three permutations illustrated in Table 2. For example, C₁-C₃-C₂-C₄ means that the first and third cysteines form a disulfide bond in these four cysteines, and the second and fourth form the other bond. This bond pattern is represented by (0.25, 0.75, 0.5, 1).

3.2 SVM Method

We implement three SVM models with different features, CP₁F₅₂₁, CP₁F₆₂₃ and CP₂Label₂. Table 3 shows the feature set used in each model. These fea-

tures are encoded by the segments of every cysteine pair. The cysteine segment is a window centering at a target cysteine. Many previous works (Yu-Ching Chen and Jenn-Kang Hwang, 2005; Guantao Chen et al., 2006; Chao-Chun Chuang et al., 2003; F. Ferre and P. Clote, 2005; David T Jones, 1999; Jayavardhana Rama G. L. et al., 2005; Chih-Hao Lu et al., 2007; Pier Luigi Martelli et al., 2002; Rotem Rubinstein and Andras Fiser, 2008; Chi-Hung Tsai et al., 2005; Marc Vincent et al., 2008) also adopted the similar idea of the window approach. Here we set the window size to 13.

Table 3: The feature sets used in our three SVM models. Here, $2k + 1$ denotes the window size centering at a target cysteine, whose value is set to 13 in this paper.

Feature	size	M ^x	M ^y	M ^z
Distance of cysteines	1	Y	Y	Y
Cysteine order	2		Y	
Protein weight	1		Y	
Protein length	1		Y	
Amino acid composition	20		Y	
PSSM around cysteine	$(2k + 1) \times 20 \times 2$	Y	Y	Y
Secondary structure around cysteine	$(2k + 1) \times 3 \times 2$		Y	
Permutation order	4			Y
Total size		521	623	525

^x CP₁F₅₂₁ model.

^y CP₁F₆₂₃ model.

^z CP₂Label₂ model.

3.3 BKS Methods

We adopt the BKS concept to fuse the classifiers mentioned above. We design two BKS models, pattern-wise BKS and pair-wise BKS, combined with the probability intervals. The probability intervals for predicting different proteins are illustrated in Table 4.

The pattern-wise BKS is constructed from the combinations of the predicted pattern probabilities of two classifiers, CP₁F₅₂₁ and CP₁F₆₂₃. The pattern-wise BKS method is used for the prediction of proteins with 2 or 3 bonds. Table 5 illustrates an example of the partial pattern-wise BKS table for 2-bond proteins. For example, in the second row, the probabilities of the predicted pattern 1-1-2-2 for both classifiers locate in (0.15, 0.2). In this case, 5, 3 and 1 proteins have the true patterns 1-1-2-2, 1-2-1-2 and 1-2-2-1, respectively. Thus, the predicted answer would be 1-1-2-2. We set the threshold of the pattern support in the pattern-wise BKS table to 2, and reject to

Table 4: The probability intervals for BKS methods with various numbers of bonds, denoted by B .

B	Type of BKS	Probability intervals
2	Pattern-wise	(0, 0.15, 0.2, 0.25, 0.3, 0.35, 0.5, 1)
3	Pattern-wise	(0, 0.25, 0.5, 1)
4	Pair-wise	(0, 0.1, 0.2, 0.3, 0.4, 0.5, 1)
5	Pair-wise	(0, 0.1, 0.2, 0.3, 0.4, 0.5, 1)

give an answer in the case below the threshold. Table 6 shows some real examples for 3-bond proteins whose prediction can be corrected by the pattern-wise BKS method, while the original predictions made by the classifiers are wrong.

However, the pattern-wise BKS method is not suitable for the prediction of every protein. The number of all possible combinations of patterns grows rapidly with respect to the number of bonds, so the number of the training samples is relatively not enough. We then adopt the pair-wise BKS method for the prediction of proteins with 4 or 5 bonds. The pair-wise BKS table records the numbers of the truly bonded pairs and non-bonded pairs in various probability intervals from two classifiers, CP_1F_{521} and CP_2Label_2 . Table 7 shows an example of the partial pair-wise BKS table for 5-bond proteins. For every cysteine pair, we advisably adjust the original probability from CP_1F_{521} method according to the ratio of the truly bonded pairs in the pair-wise BKS table. As the experimental results show in the next section, we get better prediction accuracies if we adopt different methods to solve the DCP problem with different numbers of bonds.

3.4 The Hybrid Method

Instead of large amount of features used by the SVM method, Zhao *et al.* (East Zhao et al., 2005) adopted only one feature, CSP (cysteine separations profile), to achieve nearly 50% accuracy in the insufficient dataset. The CSP of protein x with $2n$ oxidized cysteines (n disulfide bonds) is defined as

$$\begin{aligned} CSP_x &= (\delta_1, \delta_2, \dots, \delta_{2n-1}) \\ &= (\rho_2 - \rho_1, \rho_3 - \rho_2, \dots, \rho_{2n} - \rho_{2n-1}) \end{aligned} \quad (2)$$

where ρ_i denotes the sequence position of the i th oxidized cysteine in the protein and δ_i denotes the separation distance between oxidized cysteines i and $i + 1$.

The divergence (D) of two CSPs for two proteins x and y is defined (East Zhao et al., 2005) as follows:

$$D = \sum_{i=1}^{i=2n-1} |\delta_{x,i} - \delta_{y,i}|. \quad (3)$$

It shows that the CSP is an important global feature for the DCP problem. Thus, we also combine the CSP method to our hybrid method. Our hybrid method for predicting the disulfide connectivity pattern is described as follows.

Algorithm: Hybrid method for DCP.

Input: A protein sequence and the bonding states of all cysteines in it.

Output: The predicted disulfide connectivity pattern.

Case 1: For a 2-bond or 3-bond protein.

- Step 1.1: If the query meets the threshold in the pattern-wise BKS method for fusing the results of CP_1F_{521} and CP_1F_{623} , report this pattern as the predicted pattern.
- Step 1.2: If the minimum divergence obtained by the CSP search is less than or equal to the threshold, report this pattern as the predicted pattern.
- Step 1.3: For the remaining, take the original maximum weighted pattern from the CP_1F_{521} method as the predicted result.

Case 2: For a 4-bond or 5-bond protein.

- Step 2.1: If the minimum divergence obtained by the CSP search is less than or equal to the threshold, report this pattern as the predicted pattern.
- Step 2.2: Apply the pair-wise BKS method to fusing the results of CP_1F_{521} and CP_2Label_2 . And then report the answer.

4 EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

In this section, we present the dataset used in our experiments and performance evaluation criteria of the DCP problem. We also show the experimental results.

4.1 Dataset and Performance Evaluation

For the fair comparison of the prediction accuracy with previous works, we use SP39 dataset, which is the same dataset adopted in some previous works. Table 8 illustrates the summary of SP39 dataset. This dataset was first used by Vullo and Frasconi (Alessandro Vullo and Paolo Frasconi, 2004), and it contains 446 proteins with 2 to 5 disulfide bonds, derived from the SWISS-PROT release no. 39. We also use the same way as Wang *et al.*'s (Chong-Jie Wang et al., 2012) to divide SP39 dataset into 4 disjoint subsets

Table 5: An example of the partial pattern-wise BKS table for 2-bond proteins.

CP ₁ F ₅₂₁	Interval	CP ₁ F ₆₂₃	Interval	1-1-2-2	1-2-1-2	1-2-2-1
1-1-2-2	(0.15, 0.2)	1-1-2-2	(0, 0.15)	0	1	0
1-1-2-2	(0.15, 0.2)	1-1-2-2	(0.15, 0.2)	5	3	1
1-1-2-2	(0.15, 0.2)	1-1-2-2	(0.2, 0.25)	4	0	0
1-1-2-2	(0.15, 0.2)	1-1-2-2	(0.25, 0.3)	0	0	0
1-1-2-2	(0.15, 0.2)	1-1-2-2	(0.3, 0.35)	0	0	0
1-1-2-2	(0.15, 0.2)	1-1-2-2	(0.35, 0.5)	1	0	0
1-1-2-2	(0.15, 0.2)	1-1-2-2	(0.5, 1)	0	0	0

Table 6: Examples for 3-bond proteins corrected by the pattern-wise BKS method.

Proteins	Real patterns	CP ₁ F ₅₂₁	CP ₁ F ₆₂₃	Predicted by BKS
CXOA_CONMA	1-2-3-1-2-3	1-2-1-3-2-3	1-2-1-3-2-3	1-2-3-1-2-3
HST1_ECOLI	1-2-3-1-2-3	1-2-1-3-2-3	1-2-1-3-2-3	1-2-3-1-2-3
HCYA_PANIN	1-1-2-2-3-3	1-1-2-2-3-3	1-1-2-3-3-2	1-1-2-2-3-3
CXOB_CONST	1-2-3-1-2-3	1-2-1-3-2-3	1-2-1-3-2-3	1-2-3-1-2-3

Table 7: An example of the partial pair-wise BKS table for 5-bond proteins.

Pairs from CP ₁ F ₅₂₁	Pairs from CP ₂ Label ₂	Truly bonded	Not bonded
(0.3, 0.4)	(0, 0.1)	0	0
(0.3, 0.4)	(0.1, 0.2)	0	1
(0.3, 0.4)	(0.2, 0.3)	6	5
(0.3, 0.4)	(0.3, 0.4)	4	6
(0.3, 0.4)	(0.4, 0.5)	6	6
(0.3, 0.4)	(0.5, 1)	1	12

Table 8: The summary of SP39 dataset, where B denotes the number of disulfide bonds.

	Number of proteins					Number of cysteines	
	$B = 2$	$B = 3$	$B = 4$	$B = 5$	$B = 2 \dots 5$	Oxidized	Total
SP39*	156	146	99	45	446	2742	4401

* Defined by Vullo and Frasconi (Alessandro Vullo and Paolo Frasconi, 2004).

for the 4-fold cross-validation. The sequence identity of proteins between any two subsets is less than 30%.

For the measurement of the performance in connectivity pattern prediction, the accuracy is calculated as follows:

$$Q_p = \frac{C_p}{T_p}, \quad (4)$$

where C_p denotes the number of proteins whose connectivity patterns are correctly predicted, and T_p is the total number of proteins for testing.

4.2 Results

In the CP₁F₅₂₁ method, combined by SVM and the maximum weighted graph matching (Piero Fariselli and Rita Casadio, 2001), we find that the prediction accuracy is very high when the probability of the predicted pattern is greater than or equal to 0.5 (half). Thus, before performing our method, the answer is settled down for these predictions.

Table 9 shows the Q_p of our methods compared

with previous works in SP39 dataset. The accuracies of the three SVM models are derived from the patterns with the maximum weighted graph matching (Piero Fariselli and Rita Casadio, 2001). However, we find that it is hard to improve the accuracy by only one single SVM model. BKS can play a supporting role in our method. Although the performance of CP₂Label₂ is not better than CP₁F₅₂₁ or CP₁F₆₂₃, CP₂Label₂ provides the effect for pair-wise BKS since CP₂Label₂ represents another concept of pair extraction. As one can see in the table, with the help of BKS fusing methods, the accuracy is improved to 65.9%.

Furthermore, when the divergence of CSP is low, the prediction confidence is also high. Thus, we set the applicable thresholds of CSP to pick out the patterns as predicted results. Here, we set the threshold of CSP to 0, 5, 10, and 15 for proteins with 2 to 5 bonds, respectively. Eventually, the prediction accuracy of our hybrid method with SVM, BKS and CSP reaches 69.1%, a great improvement compared with the previous results.

Table 9: The Q_p (in %) of our methods and previous works in SP39 dataset.

Method	$B = 2$	$B = 3$	$B = 4$	$B = 5$	$B = 2 \cdots 5$
CSP ^a	72.4	54.1	33.3	17.8	52.2
Wang's method ^b	84.0	60.3	55.6	44.4	65.9
CP ₁ F ₅₂₁	84.0	53.4	55.6	46.7	63.9
CP ₁ F ₆₂₃	78.2	60.3	53.5	44.4	63.5
CP ₂ Label ₂	75.0	49.3	52.5	40.0	58.1
CP ₁ F ₅₂₁ + BKS	84.0	56.8	55.6	55.6	65.9
CP ₁ F ₅₂₁ + BKS + CSP	84.0	64.4	57.6	57.8	69.1

^a Proposed by Zhao *et al.* (East Zhao *et al.*, 2005).

^b Proposed by Wang *et al.* (Chong-Jie Wang *et al.*, 2012).

5 CONCLUSIONS

According to the study of Wang *et al.* (Chong-Jie Wang *et al.*, 2012), which focuses SVM models on varied features, and the concept of different cysteine-pair representations proposed by Lu *et al.* (Chih-Hao Lu *et al.*, 2007), we do many integrated experiments, whose results are not all shown in this paper. However, the improvement of the pure SVM method is not so significant although the SVM method is still relatively good among the various methods. Some studies (Bo-Juen Chen *et al.*, 2006; Yu-Ching Chen, 2007) combine the SVM method with CSP or sequence alignment to raise the accuracy. The key step of the CSP method and the sequence alignment method is to search for a good template set. However, the accuracy of these two methods deeply depends on the pattern varieties in the template set.

In this paper, we first gather some statistics about the disulfide bonds, and have successfully found some rules to discriminate the patterns with high accuracy in various methods. Then, we adopt the pattern-wise and pair-wise BKS methods to fuse multiple SVM models. In addition, the CSP search method is also invoked in our method. As the experimental results show, we think that the hybrid method is one of the good ways to increase the prediction accuracy in the DCP problem.

In the future, we may apply our hybrid method to other datasets, and explore more methods for fusing multiple classifiers such as the weighted majority vote. We may try the CSP method on the inter-bond template dataset to explore more possibilities of sub-pattern development.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This research work was partially supported by the National Science Council of Taiwan under contract NSC 100-2221-E-242-003.

REFERENCES

- Alessandro Vullo and Paolo Frasconi (2004). Disulfide connectivity prediction using recursive neural networks and evolutionary information. *Bioinformatics*, 20(5):653–659.
- Bo-Juen Chen, Chi-Hung Tsai, Chen-hsiung Chan, and Cheng-Yan Kao (2006). Disulfide connectivity prediction with 70% accuracy using two-level models. *PROTEINS: Structure, Function, and Genetics*, 64:246–252.
- Castrense Savojardo, Piero Fariselli, Pier Luigi Martelli, and Rita Casadio (2013). Prediction of disulfide connectivity in proteins with machine-learning methods and correlated mutations. *BMC Bioinformatics*, 14(S10).
- Chao-Chun Chuang, Chun-Yin Chen, Jinn-Moon Yang, Ping-Chiang Lyu, and Jenn-Kang Hwang (2003). Relationship between protein structures and disulfide-bonding patterns. *PROTEINS: Structure, Function, and Genetics*, 53:1–5.
- Chi-Hung Tsai, Bo-Juen Chen, Chen-Hsiung Chan, Hsuan-Liang Liu, and Cheng-Yan Kao (2005). Improving disulfide connectivity prediction with sequential distance between oxidized cysteines. *Bioinformatics*, 21(24):4416–4419.
- Chih-Chung Chang and Chih-Jen Lin (2001). LIBSVM: A library for support vector machines. Software available at <http://www.csie.ntu.edu.tw/~cjlin/libsvm>.
- Chih-Hao Lu, Yu-Ching Chen, Chin-Sheng Yu, and Jenn-Kang Hwang (2007). Predicting disulfide connectivity patterns. *PROTEINS: Structure, Function, and Genetics*, 67:262–270.
- Chong-Jie Wang, Chang-Biau Yang, Chiou-Yi Hor, and Kuo-Tsung Tseng (2012). Disulfide bond prediction with hybrid models. In *Proc. of the 2012 International Conference on Computing and Security (ICCSq12)*, Ulaanbaatar, Mongolia.
- David T Jones (1999). Protein secondary structure prediction based on position-specific scoring matrices. *Journal of Molecular Biology*, 292(2):195–202.
- East Zhao, Hsuan-Liang Liu, Chi-Hung Tsai, Huai-Kuang Tsai, Chen-Hsiung Chan, and Cheng-Yan Kao (2005). Cysteine separations profiles on protein sequences infer disulfide connectivity. *Bioinformatics*, 21(8):1415–1420.

- F. Ferre and P. Clote (2005). Disulfide connectivity prediction using secondary structure information and diredisid frequencies. *Bioinformatics*, 21(10):2336–2346.
- Guantao Chen, Hai Deng, Yufeng Gui, Yi Pan, and Xue Wang (2006). Cysteine separations profiles on protein secondary structure infer disulfide connectivity. In *2006 IEEE International Conference on Granular Computing*, pages 663–665.
- Hsuan-Liang Liu and Shih-Chieh Chen (2007). Prediction of disulfide connectivity in proteins with support vector machine. *Journal of the Chinese Institute of Chemical Engineers*, 38(1):63–70.
- Jayavardhana Rama G. L., Alistair P. Shilton, Michael M. Parker, and Marimuthu Palaniswami (2005). Prediction of cystine connectivity using svm. *Bioinformatics*, 1(2):69–74.
- Jianlin Cheng, Hiroto Saigo, and Pierre Baldi (2006). Large-scale prediction of disulphide bridges using kernel methods, two-dimensional recursive neural networks, and weighted graph matching. *PROTEINS: Structure, Function, and Genetics*, 62:617–629.
- Leonid A. Mirny and Eugene I. Shakhnovich (1996). How to derive a protein folding potential? a new approach to an old problem. *Journal of Molecular Biology*, 264(5):1164–1179.
- Marc Vincent, Andrea Passerini, Matthieu Labbe, and Paolo Frasconi (2008). A simplified approach to disulfide connectivity prediction from protein sequences. *BMC Bioinformatics*, 9(1):20.
- P. Frasconi, A. Passerini, and A. Vullo (2002). A two-stage svm architecture for predicting the disulfide bonding state of cysteines. In *Proceedings of the IEEE Workshop on Neural Networks for Signal Processing*, pages 25–34.
- Paul M. Harrison and Michael J. E. Sternberg (1994). Analysis and classification of disulphide connectivity in proteins : The entropic effect of cross-linkage. *Journal of Molecular Biology*, 244(4):448–463.
- Pier Luigi Martelli, Piero Fariselli, Luca Malaguti, and Rita Casadio (2002). Prediction of the disulfide-bonding state of cysteines in proteins at 88% accuracy. *Protein Science*, 11:2735–2739.
- Piero Fariselli, Paola Riccobelli, and Rita Casadio (1999). Role of evolutionary information in predicting the disulfide-bonding state of cysteine in proteins. *PROTEINS: Structure, Function, and Genetics*, 36:340–346.
- Piero Fariselli and Rita Casadio (2001). Prediction of disulfide connectivity in proteins. *Bioinformatics*, 17(10):957–964.
- Pierre Baldi, Jianlin Cheng, and Alessandro Vullo (2005). Large-scale prediction of disulphide bond connectivity. In *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems 17*, pages 97–104, Cambridge, MA, USA. MIT Press.
- Rotem Rubinstein and Andras Fiser (2008). Predicting disulfide bond connectivity in proteins by correlated mutations analysis. *Bioinformatics*, 24(4):498–504.
- Sarunas Raudys and Fabio Roli (2003). The behavior knowledge space fusion method: Analysis of generalization error and strategies for performance improvement. In *In Proc. Int. Workshop on Multiple Classifier Systems (LNCS 2709)*, pages 55–64. Springer.
- Stephen F. Altschul, Thomas L. Madden, Alejandro A. Schaffer, Jinghui Zhang, Zheng Zhang, Webb Miller, and David J. Lipman (1997). Gapped blast and psiblast: a new generation of protein database search programs. *Nucleic Acids Research*, 25(17):3389–3402.
- Vladimir N. Vapnik (1999). *The Nature of Statistical Learning Theory*. Springer.
- Wei-Chun Chung, Chang-Biau Yang, and Chiou-Yi Hor (2009). An effective tuning method for cysteine state classification. In *Proc. of National Computer Symposium, Workshop on Algorithms and Bioinformatics*, Taipei, Taiwan.
- Yu-Ching Chen (2007). *Prediction of Disulfide Connectivity from Protein Sequences*. Ph. D. dissertation, National Chiao Tung University, Hsinchu, Taiwan.
- Yu-Ching Chen and Jenn-Kang Hwang (2005). Prediction of disulfide connectivity from protein sequences. *PROTEINS: Structure, Function, and Genetics*, 61:507–512.
- Yu-Ching Chen, Yeong-Shin Lin, Chih-Jen Lin, and Jenn-Kang Hwang (2004). Prediction of the bonding states of cysteines using the support vector machines based on multiple feature vectors and cysteine state sequences. *PROTEINS: Structure, Function, and Genetics*, 55:1036–1042.