

SEGEM: a Fast and Accurate Automated Protein Backbone Structure Modeling Method for Cryo-EM

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Abstract—Cryo-electron microscopy (cryo-EM) technique has been widely used in protein structure determination, whereas it remains a challenge to automatically build accurate protein backbone structure from cryo-EM density map. A typical pipeline to automatically build a structure model from cryo-EM map is to first predict C α sites and then assign them to protein sequence, which is a typical combinatorial optimization task of extremely high computational complexity. Here we propose SEGEM, a fast and accurate automated protein backbone structure modeling method for cryo-EM. We employed 3D Convolutional Neural Networks to predict C α sites with their amino acid types from cryo-EM, and developed a highly parallel pipeline to assign C α sites with their predicted amino acid types to protein sequence. We tested SEGEM on three benchmark datasets where it significantly outperformed several state-of-the-art prediction methods including MAINMAST, C-CNN and DeepTracer. In our method plus version SEGEM++, we combined SEGEM with the protein structure prediction algorithm AlphaFold2. SEGEM++ is capable to identify whether AlphaFold2 folds a good structure, and rectify the incorrectly folded region through protein threading on cryo-EM map. In our curated dataset of hard targets where AlphaFold2 predicted structures obtained an average RMSD of 7.87Å and GDT-TS score of 0.652 when superimposed to the native structure, SEGEM++ achieved a significantly better RMSD of 2.46Å and 0.676 GDT-TS score on average. Furthermore, with our highly parallel pipeline on 30 cores CPU, both SEGEM and SEGEM++ finished structure modeling within 10 minutes on average in our test datasets, indicating their potential in high throughput automated accurate backbone structure modeling for cryo-EM.

Index Terms—cryo-EM, protein structure modeling, deep learning, 3D image semantic segmentation, protein structure prediction, AlphaFold2

I. INTRODUCTION

Proteins perform a variety of functions, e.g., DNA replication, chemical reaction catalysis, and cell signals transmission, which are essential for organisms' life activities [1]. Protein

function is determined by its structure [2]. The knowledge about protein structure is not only beneficial for drug design and vaccine engineering [3], [4], but also helps researchers to understand the complex mechanisms of life. As a consequence, it's crucial to deduce protein structure through wet-lab experiment and computational processing.

With the breakthrough of electronic instrument and image processing algorithm, cryo-electron microscopy (cryo-EM) has been developed rapidly in last decade and is widely used in protein structure determination [5]–[8]. cryo-EM is able to reconstruct 3D density maps in near-atomic resolution, which indicates the electronic density of the native protein structure. The number of 3D cryo-EM density maps deposited in EMDataResource (EMDB) is growing almost exponentially [9], which has given rise to the demand for automated structure modeling tools. Tools sprang up like bamboo shoots. The early work like EM-fold [10] and Gorgon [11] carried out pioneering explorations. Pathwalking [12]–[14] performed K-means clustering on the density map and using traveling salesman problem (TSP) solvers Concorde and LKH in protein threading. David Baker's lab developed a series of template fragment based method, e.g., Rosetta *de novo* [15] and RosettaES [16]. Phenix [17]–[20] is a software suite for cryo-EM protein structure modelling which ensemble a variety of image processing method, structure prediction model and backbone tracing tools. MAINMAST [21] identified the backbone structure by mean shift and employed tabu search algorithm in backbone tracing. Recently, method like A² Net [22], C-CNN [23], DeepTracer [24] and DeepMM [25] have explored the deep learning application in this field, whereas among them few works utilized protein sequence information. DeepMM grouped amino acid type into four-class to predict instead of predicting all 20 amino acid types. [25] DeepTracer predicted the total 20 amino acid types but was still lack in accuracy [24]

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Although advances have been made in the field of protein structure computational aided experimental determination, there is still an insurmountable gap between the number of determined protein sequences [26] and protein structures [27]. Can protein structure be computationally predicted for a given sequence? To give an answer to this question, CASP competition has been held for 14 sessions. The AlphaFold2 (AF2) algorithm [28], proposed by DeepMind, won CASP14 with a breaking average GDT score record of 0.92. After that, DeepMind cooperated with EMBL-EBI to release a large-scale predictive protein structure database, which covers 98.5% of human proteins [29]. It means that high-throughput accurate protein structure prediction is no longer far away. AF2 starts from multiple sequence alignments (MSAs) and structure template search, passes and transforms sequential and pairwise features interactively in attention-based Evoformer blocks and use SE(3)-equivariant Transformer network to finally end-to-end generate 3D coordinate of protein atoms [28].

We propose a novel cryo-EM protein backbone structure modelling method named SEGEM. We design a 3D image semantic segmentation framework to predict the $C\alpha$ site and their amino acid type. After that the native protein sequence and predicted amino acid are used to build a score matrix, which could help us assign the predicted $C\alpha$ to sequence efficiently. We then perform protein threading on each unassigned sequence segment and output the coordinate of each $C\alpha$ site aligning to protein sequence. SEGEM significantly outperformed MAINMAST, C-CNN, DeepTracer in our test of experimental cryo-EM maps. Furthermore, in its plus version SEGEM++, we combined AF2 with SEGEM complementarily. SEGEM++ first tries to identify the correctly folded region in AF2 structure utilizing our predicted $C\alpha$ probability density from cryo-EM maps. After that the high confidence AF2 structure fragments help us build a more accurate protein structure from cryo-EM map, which could rectify the incorrectly folded region in AF2 structure.

To summarize, our contributions are as follows:

- We designed a novel 3D image semantic segmentation framework to predict $C\alpha$ site and amino acid type.
- We developed a fast and accurate pipeline to parallelly assign predicted $C\alpha$ s to protein sequence through aligning predicted amino acid type with native sequence.
- We created a paradigm that complementarily combines cryo-EM protein structure modeling with AlphaFold2 (AF2) structure prediction, where modeling on cryo-EM map helps to identify and rectify the incorrectly folded region in AF2 structure, and the high confidence AF2 structure fragments improve the structure modeling from cryo-EM.

II. MATERIALS AND METHOD

A. Method Overview

Identifying $C\alpha$ sites in cryo-EM density map is the key point to build a protein backbone structure. We regard this as a 3D image semantic segmentation task. In our method, we

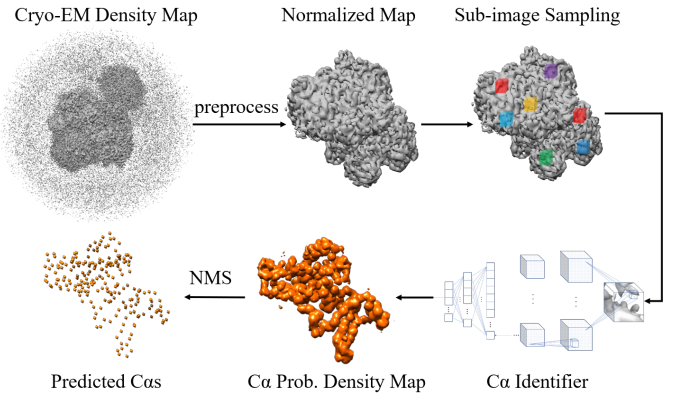


Fig. 1. The $C\alpha$ predict pipeline, where the $C\alpha$ probability density map represents the predicted probability for each voxel to be $C\alpha$ site, and NMS is the abbreviation of Non-Maximum Suppression algorithm

designed a simple but efficient 3D image semantic segmentation framework (Fig.3 D) to identify $C\alpha$ sites and predict their amino acid type and secondary structure from cryo-EM density maps. Fig.1 illustrates the $C\alpha$ site predict pipeline, which outputs the predicted $C\alpha$ coordinates from a cryo-EM density map. Assigning the predicted $C\alpha$ s to protein sequence is a typical combinatorial optimization task, which can be extremely high in computational complexity. We designed a highly parallel pipeline to solve this problem, as is shown in Fig.2. In this pipeline we first trace each predicted $C\alpha$ with its spatial neighbors to generate local $C\alpha$ traces. For each $C\alpha$ trace its sequence profile can be predicted using our amino acid type predictor. After that we align all $C\alpha$ traces to native protein sequence segments, calculating a matching score matrix. All these steps are accelerated by multi-thread computation to about 23 times faster using 30 cores of Intel(R) Xeon(R) Gold 6248R CPU. We then utilize the score matrix to build a high confidence base structure model. At last a prune-search based protein threading is performed to finish the final model. Our method output a pdb file of $C\alpha$ coordinates aligned to protein sequence.

B. Training Datasets

Training a deep neural network is in high demand for a large training dataset. Therefore, we curated two training datasets, one of which contains 41428 simulated cryo-EM maps, named as TR_SIM, and another consists of 2088 experimental cryo-EM maps, called TR_EXP.

The simulated maps in TR_SIM are generated by the EMAN2 script pdb2mrc.py [30] from PDB files of a protein dataset used in our previous study [31]. Every employed protein is R-factor > 1.0 , sequence length ≥ 30 , and sequence identity $\leq 25\%$ with each other. In this study, an additional filter was applied on TR_SIM to remove chains whose sequence identity $> 25\%$ with any chains in our simulated test set, and thus only 10357 chains were left for simulated data generation. In order to avoid over-fit and obtain robust performance on various resolution density maps, the

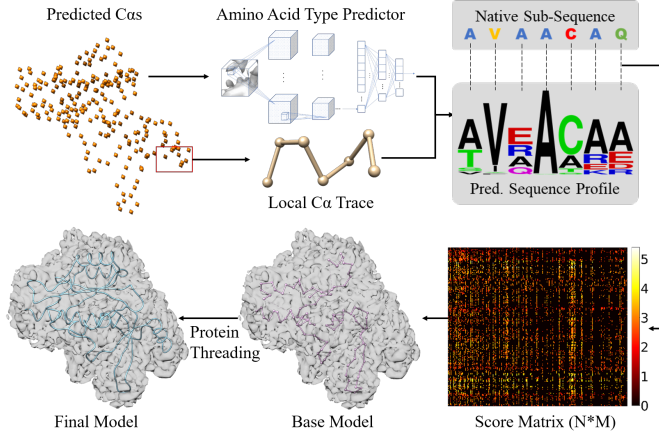


Fig. 2. Pipeline to assign predicted C α to protein sequence, in which the sequence profile is the 20 amino acid type probability predicted by amino acid type predictor for all C α s in a C α trace, and the score matrix is of size ($N \times M$) where N represents the number of protein sequence segments and M is the number of C α traces.

neural network was trained with density maps with various resolution. Given a PDB file, we generate 4 simulated cryo-EM maps with various random resolution ranging from 3-4Å, 4-5 Å, 5-6Å and 6-7Å respectively. Finally, we obtained 41428 simulated cryo-EM density maps for TR_SIM. The experimental training set TR_EXP is composed of about two thousand cryo-EM maps from EMDB server. We collected maps deposited from January 2017 to April 2020. From them, maps without associated pdb were excluded. Furthermore, we removed maps whose protein sequence identity is more than 25% with any chains in our experimental test set. At last, we maintained 2088 maps, whose EM method is single particle, specimen type is particle, microscope model is FEI TITAN KRIOS, and resolution is from 2Å to 5Å.

C. Image preprocess

The cryo-EM maps were deposited by researchers that employed a verity of microscope equipment, electron doses, electron detectors, and experimental procedures. It results in the large variance in density distribution, local resolution and noise intensity. Therefore, its crucial to adopt an image pre-processing step to normalize the maps, making it more suitable for image semantic segmentation. An experimental EM map usually contains more than one chain. To focus on our target chain, a single subunit is first zoned out from a whole density map with a distance cutoff of 5Å [21], [23], [25]. After that, the subunit is transposed to the same coordinate system of its ground truth pdb file. Then we reshape the map by trilinear interpolation so that every voxel occupied exactly $1\text{\AA} \times 1\text{\AA} \times 1\text{\AA}$. Finally, we normalize the map by formula (1):

$$M_{ijk} = \begin{cases} 0, & M_{ijk} < \theta_{med} \\ \frac{M_{ijk} - \theta_{med}}{\theta_{top1}}, & \theta_{med} \leq M_{ijk} < \theta_{top1} \\ 1, & \theta_{top1} \leq M_{ijk} \end{cases} \quad (1)$$

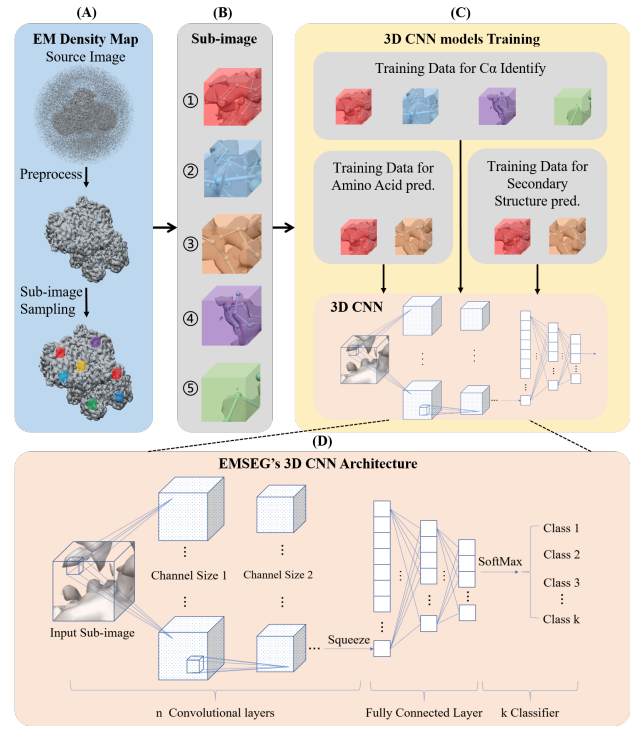


Fig. 3. The CNN model training procedure: (A) image preprocessing and group sub images into (B) 5 types of training data, which would be fed into (C) three CNN models for C α identification, amino acid type and secondary structure prediction, whose network architecture illustrated in (D) where the output class number k varies in different tasks (3 for C α and secondary structure identification, and 20 for acid amino type prediction).

, where M_{ijk} is the density value of $[i, j, k]$ voxel, and θ_{med} represents the median density in the whole map, and θ_{top1} is defined as the top 1% density.

D. Image Semantic Segmentation

In our method, we designed a simple but efficient 3D image semantic segmentation framework based on 3D Convolutional Neural Networks (CNN), as is shown in Fig.3D. Considering the memory and time consumption, we set the size of input image to $11 \times 11 \times 11$. A batch of input data is firstly fed into a bottleneck block which enlarged the channel size to 16. The bottleneck block is followed by 5 convolution blocks. In each block we employ convolutions with kernel size of $3 \times 3 \times 3$, stride of 1 and no padding. We don't use pooling since it introduces the translation invariance which is not conducive to image semantic segmentation tasks. Output of the last convolution block is squeezed and then fed into a fully-connected network with one hidden layer.

It is challenging to train a well-performed model to distinguish the C α atoms with other atoms. Thus we grouped the sub-images into 5 types shown in Fig.3B: ① centering at native C α site, ② centering at other atoms, ③ centering voxel nearby a C α atom, ④ centering voxel nearby other atoms, and ⑤ otherwise. For C α identification, we labeled sub-images ① as the C α class, ②④ as *other-atom* class, and ⑤ as *non-atom* class. Considering the native sample number of these 3 classes

are extremely imbalance, we applied down-sampling in other-atom class and none-atom class to make sure the number of training data for three classes were 1:1:1. We did not sample sub-images ③ for C α identification since it might confuse the model. However, for amino acid and secondary structure prediction, we sampled both ① and ③ as training data since training on sub-images ③ is beneficial for model robustness when the predicted C α are not precise enough.

In C α site prediction, it's unnecessary and time-wasted to identify C α for all voxels since the density map is sparse and most of C α s are in high density region. So we only sample sub-images whose central $3 \times 3 \times 3$ densities are over average. It could filter out about 99% of the sub-images, but retain more than 99% of the native C α sites, which greatly reduce the time consumption with a tolerable accuracy lost. We feed the sampled sub-images into C α identification CNN to obtain a predicted C α probability density map. After that the Non-Maximum Suppression algorithm (NMS) picks out the local maximum C α probability density voxels as predicted C α sites whose amino acid type would also be predicted and be used for assigning the predicted C α s to protein sequence.

E. Assigning C α to Sequence

We designed a pipeline (Fig.2) to assign the predicted C α s to protein sequence, which includes the following steps:

The first step is C α local tracing. For each predicted C α , we trace its neighbors (C α distance within 2Å-6Å) iteratively to generate C α traces. The number of generated C α traces increases exponentially with their tracing depth, which results in higher computational complexity. On the other hand, aligning longer traces with sequence strengthen the sequential and structural constraints, which would feed back a more accurate matching score. In our method, tracing depth is set to 7 or 11, trying to find a balance between low computational complexity and high accuracy.

The second step is to calculate the matching score of C α traces and sequence segments. We first predict amino acid type for every predicted C α , after which we obtain an amino acid scoring matrix noted as A. A_{jk} represents the predicted probability that the j_{th} C α belong to the k_{th} type amino acid. Then we can calculate the amino acid type matching score Sa_{ij} for the i_{th} position in protein sequence and j_{th} C α :

$$Sa_{ij} = A_{j,a_i} \quad (2)$$

, where a_i represents the i -th amino acid type in native protein sequence.

Sa is then used in the matching score function of C α traces and sequence segments. We designed a scoring function defined as follow:

$$S_{t,s} = \sum_{d=0}^{m-1} Sd_{t_d,t_{d+1}} \times (Sa_{s_d,t_d} + Sa_{s_{d+1},t_{d+1}}) \quad (3)$$

, where t and s represent a C α trace and a sequence segment respectively, d denotes the tracing depth and m is the max tracing depth (7 or 11), and we defined the distance score Sd as:

$$Sd_{j_1,j_2} = \begin{cases} 1, |D_{j_1,j_2} - 3.8| < 0.5 \\ 1 - \frac{|D_{j_1,j_2} - 3.8| - 0.5}{2}, 0.5 \leq |D_{j_1,j_2} - 3.8| < 2.5 \\ 0, 2.5 \leq |D_{j_1,j_2} - 3.8| \end{cases} \quad (4)$$

, where D_{j_1,j_2} is the distance between the j_{1th} and j_{2th} predicted C α .

The third step is to build a high confidence base model. A naive way is to assign the best matched C α trace to each sequence segment with a matching score cutoff, whereas it may cause structure clash or result in spatial distance gap between sequential neighbors. We adopted a carefully designed strategy to avoid structure clash and make sure that sequential neighbors are always contacted in spatial, as is described in Algorithm 1.

Algorithm 1 Build the Base Model

Require: C α trace list, *traceL*
Require: protein sequence segments list, *segmentL*
Require: trace-segment matching score matrix, *scoreM*
Require: matching score cutoff, *scoreThrh*

```

for segment in segmentL do
    find bestTrace in traceL by scoreM
end for
sort segmentL by bestTraceScore from max to min
for segment in sortedSegmentL do
    if bestTraceScore  $\leq$  scoreThrh then
        break
    end if
    if bestTrace clash with any pickedTrace then
        continue
    end if
    if segment gap with any assignedSegment then
        continue
    end if
    pick bestTrace and assign to segment
end for

```

The final step is to perform protein threading on the remaining C α s, aligning to the unassigned sequence segments. We trace C α from the left or right endpoint, which is assigned with a certain C α in base model, until it reach another end or failed. But it suffers from high computational complexity in long sequence segment. So we developed a strategy of breadth-first search with pruning to accelerate that, as is introduced in Algorithm 2. At last we obtain a final model, which consists of C α coordinates aligned to protein sequence.

F. SEGEM++ with AlphaFold2

In our method plus version SEGEM++, we first modify the scoring function to calculate the matching score of C α traces and sequence segments, noted as S^{++} :

$$S_{t,s}^{++} = S_{t,s} - \sigma_{t,s} \quad (5)$$

, where S is the original scoring function, t and s represent a C α trace and a sequence segment respectively, and $\sigma_{t,s}$ is

Algorithm 2 Breadth-First Search with Pruning

Require: $C\alpha$ trace list, $traceL$
Require: remaining $C\alpha$ list, $C\alpha L$
Require: max number of $C\alpha$ traces, $maxNum$
Require: scoring function for $C\alpha$ traces, $scoringF$
Require: breadth first search function, BFS

```

while not reach the end or failed do
   $traceL \leftarrow BFS(traceL, C\alpha L)$ 
  if length of  $traceL \geq maxNum$  then
     $newTraceL \leftarrow$  empty list
    sort  $traceL$  by  $scoringF$  from max to min
    for  $t$  in sorted  $TraceL$  do
      if  $t$  not similar with  $traces$  in  $newTraceL$  then
        add  $t$  to  $newTraceL$ 
      end if
    end for
     $traceL \leftarrow newTraceL$ 
  end if
end while

```

the RMSD calculated by superimposing the $C\alpha$ trace t to AlphaFold2 (AF2) structure on s .

After building a base model, we superimpose AF2 structure to this base model, and calculate the matching score of each $C\alpha$ in AF2 structure to our predicted $C\alpha$ probability density map. We regard this as a confidence score to identify whether AF2 folded correctly in this area. The scoring function is described as below:

$$C_{xyz} = \sum_{i=x-2}^{x+2} \sum_{j=y-2}^{y+2} \sum_{k=z-2}^{z+2} P_{ijk} \times D_{xyz,ijk}^2 \quad (6)$$

, where C_{xyz} denote the confidence score of a $C\alpha$ (coordinate [x,y,z]) in superimposed AF2 structure, [i,j,k] is one of its $5 \times 5 \times 5$ neighbor coordinate, P represents our predicted $C\alpha$ probability and D calculate the spatial distance.

Once we get the confidence score for all $C\alpha$ s of AF2 structure, a confidence cutoff is set to get a list of high confidence correctly folded AF2 structure fragments. We then use these fragments as new base model, and perform protein threading on the predicted $C\alpha$ probability density map to build the final model (similar to the final step in SEGEM's modeling pipeline).

III. RESULT

TABLE I
AVERAGE PERFORMANCE COMPARISON ON TS_SIM

Method	time	AA acc ^a	RMSD ^b	CLICK-SO ^c
MAINMAST	-	-	1.79Å	81.88%
SEGEM	5.1 min	97.18%	1.11Å	98.47%

^aamino acid type prediction accuracy on native structure

^broot mean square deviation(RMSD) of $C\alpha$ atoms between predicted structure and natives structure.

^cpercentage of predicted $C\alpha$ s within 3.5Å of the aligned native $C\alpha$ s

A. Modeling on Simulated EM Maps

To evaluate the performance of our method on simulated cryo-EM density maps, we test it in a simulated map dataset curated by MAINMAST [21], named as TS_SIM. Density maps in this dataset were generated at a resolution of 5.0 Å using the e2pdb2mrc.py script [32]. Table I provide the average performance of MAINMAST and SEGEM on TS_SIM, where SEGEM obtained a significant outperformance than MAINMAST, with its 1.11Å average RMSD and 98.47% average CLICK-SO compared to the 1.79Å and 81.88% of MAINMAST (CLICK-SO is computed by the CLICK package [33], and the result of MAINMAST is from MAINMAST paper [21]). We studied the detailed performance of SEGEM and MAINMAST on every test case of TS_SIM, and found that SEGEM outperformed MAINMAST in almost all cases for both RMSD and CLICK-SO metrics. These should be mainly attributed to our employed semantic segmentation framework. Compared to the mean shift algorithm in MAINMAST, our CNN-based semantic segmentation framework is able to predict more accurate $C\alpha$ coordinate. It is worth mentioning that SEGEM correctly predict 97.18% amino acid type for native $C\alpha$ sites on TS_SIM, which helps us assign more predicted $C\alpha$ sites to protein sequence on our base model. Larger base model means less protein threading, while our highly parallel pipeline to build the base model would take up a larger proportion in the entire modeling process. As a consequence, SEGEM finished the end-to-end structure modeling with 5.1 minutes per case on average using 30 cores of Intel(R) Xeon(R) Gold 6248R CPU, significantly faster than 31.7 minutes running on single core environment.

B. Modeling on Experimental EM Maps

For experimental maps, we employed two benchmark set. The first benchmark set from C-CNN [23] consists of 50 experimental maps, named as TS_CC. The second one is composed of 18 test cases from MAINMAST [21], so we called it TS_MM.

TABLE II
AVERAGE PERFORMANCE COMPARISON ON TS_CC

Method	False Positive ^a	CC-RMSD ^b	$C\alpha$ in 3Å ^c
Phenix	-	1.22Å	66.8%
C-CNN	3.74%	1.23Å	88.5%
SEGEM	3.26%	1.13Å	95.5%

^apercentage of $C\alpha$ atoms in the predicted model that are more than 3Å away from any native $C\alpha$ atom.

^bRMSD between native $C\alpha$ and its closest predicted $C\alpha$.

^cpercentage of native $C\alpha$ atoms within 3Å of its closest predicted $C\alpha$.

First, we compared SEGEM with C-CNN [23] and Phenix [19] on TS_CC. C-CNN adopted a different RMSD metric with MAINMAST, and we call it CC-RMSD, which represents the RMSD between native $C\alpha$ and its closest predicted $C\alpha$. C-CNN also employed the false positive rate and $C\alpha$ in 3Å rate to evaluate the method performance. We test SEGEM with the same evaluation metrics and the results are provided in Table

II. SEGEM achieved the lowest false positive rate, the lowest CC-RMSD and the highest $C\alpha$ in $3\text{\AA}$ rate when compared to C-CNN and Phenix (the results of C-CNN and Phenix are from C-CNN paper [23]). DeepTracer [24] is another method developed by C-CNN’s authors, which evaluate its amino acid prediction and secondary structure prediction accuracy on a subset of TS_CC. Table III makes a performance comparison between SEGEM and DeepTracer on this subset. SEGEM achieved better performances in all five aspects: lower average false positive rate (3.2% than 5.8%), more $C\alpha$ in $3\text{\AA}$ (94.7% than 87.5%), smaller RMSD (1.12 $\text{\AA}$ than 1.18 $\text{\AA}$), higher prediction accuracy of amino acid type (48.3% than 25.2%) and secondary structure (84.5% than 81.7%). We studied the detailed performance for amino acid type prediction of all test cases, and found that SEGEM obtained over 40% accuracy for 20 maps in total 30 test maps while DeepTracer got none.

TABLE III
AVERAGE PERFORMANCE COMPARISON ON A SUBSET OF TS_CC

Method	False Positive	CC-RMSD	$C\alpha$ in $3\text{\AA}$	AA acc	SS acc ^a
DeepTracer	5.80%	1.18 $\text{\AA}$	87.5%	25.2%	81.7%
SEGEM	3.20%	1.12 $\text{\AA}$	94.7%	48.3%	84.5%

^asecondary structure predict accuracy for native $C\alpha$ sites

Test dataset TS_MM contains 18 test maps that have been modeled by MAINMAST. We test SEGEM on these maps, and the result is shown in Table IV. MAINMAST utilized a series of tools including MDFF [34] to refine their structure. Even so, SEGEM obtained the best average RMSD of 11.68 $\text{\AA}$, better than that of MAINMAST refined models (15.69 $\text{\AA}$). For the coverage evaluation, SEGEM achieved 91.76%, which is far better than Rosetta’s 68.33%, and slightly outperforms MAINMAST refined models (91.39%). We noticed that the average AA accuracy on experimental test set (47.27% in TS_MM and 48.3% in TS_CC) is significantly inferior to that of the simulated test set (97.18%). This should be attributed to the variant local resolution and noise density in experimental maps, which make them hard to be normalized and thus difficult for CNN training and prediction. We then studied the correlation between AA accuracy and the model performance. As is shown in Fig.4, AA accuracy shows a significant negative correlation with RMSD and an obvious positive correlation with coverage. We also found that the RMSD and coverage were almost stable around 0-5 $\text{\AA}$ and 95-100% when the AA accuracy rate exceeded 50%. In future, SEGEM is expected to achieve better performance with the improvement of AA accuracy leading by advancing 3D image semantic segmentation algorithm and cryo-EM image processing technology.

C. Modeling on Experimental EM Maps with SEGEM++

In our method plus version SEGEM++, we combined SEGEM with the protein structure prediction algorithm AlphaFold2. SEGEM++ is capable to identify whether AlphaFold2 folds a good structure, and rectify the incorrectly folded region through protein threading on cryo-EM map. For

TABLE IV
AVERAGE PERFORMANCE COMPARISON ON TS_MM

Method	time	AA acc	RMSD	coverage ^a
Rosetta	-	-	30.22 $\text{\AA}$	68.33%
MAINMAST org.	-	-	19.39 $\text{\AA}$	-
MAINMAST ref.	-	-	15.69 $\text{\AA}$	91.39%
SEGEM	9.2 min	47.27%	11.68 $\text{\AA}$	91.76%

^athe fraction of $C\alpha$ atoms in the native structure that are within 3.0 $\text{\AA}$ cutoff to any $C\alpha$ atoms in the predicted structure.

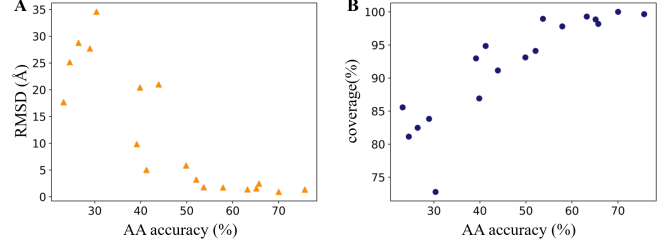


Fig. 4. Scatter plot of the model RMSD (A) and coverage (B) with amino acid type prediction accuracy on TS_MM.

SEGEM++ we build a test dataset TS_AF of 66 experimental cryo-EM maps deposited in EMDB after 2021-1-1 and reported resolution between 2 $\text{\AA}$ -5 $\text{\AA}$. Then we run AF2 code to predict protein structure from their fasta files (randomly select one chain for each cryo-EM map). The max_template_date for AF2 to search template is set as 2020-05-14.

We first test the performance of SEGEM++ in identifying the correctly folded region of AF2 structures on TS_AF. We superimpose AF2 structure to native structure and calculate the aligned $C\alpha$ distance. A large $C\alpha$ distance indicates that AF2 did not correctly fold the protein structure in this area. We then study the correlation between $C\alpha$ distance and the confidence score computed by SEGEM++. As illustrated in Fig.5A, with the increase of the confidence score, the average value and standard deviation of the $C\alpha$ distance decline and trend towards 0 as our expectation. We also counted the number of $C\alpha$ s in each confidence interval in Fig.5A. It can be found that our confidence cutoff of 5 could retain about 90% of $C\alpha$ s while filtering out most of the incorrectly folded structure regions. We then study the correlation between average RMSD (RMSD between the filtered AF2 structure and native structure) and coverage (the percentage of remaining $C\alpha$ s in AF2 structure) on TS_AF. As is shown in Fig.5B, the confidence score show negative correlation to both RMSD and coverage. The filtered AF2 structures retained more than 80% $C\alpha$ s and obtained RMSD less than 1.5 $\text{\AA}$ on average when the confidence score cutoff was set in 1-8, indicating the well-performance of SEGEM++ to identify the correctly folded region of AF2 structure.

We then evaluate the performance of SEGEM++ in building the final structure model. For every AF2 predicted structure, SEGEM++ base model and SEGEM++ final model in TS_AF, we calculate the GDT-TS score and RMSD when

TABLE V
AVERAGE PERFORMANCE COMPARISON ON TS_AF

Dataset	TS_AF		TS_AF _{hard}	
	RMSD	GDT-TS	RMSD	GDT-TS
AF2 model	2.62Å	0.880	7.87Å	0.652
SEGEM++ base	1.05Å	0.852	1.59Å	0.585
SEGEM++ final	1.30Å	0.881	2.46Å	0.676

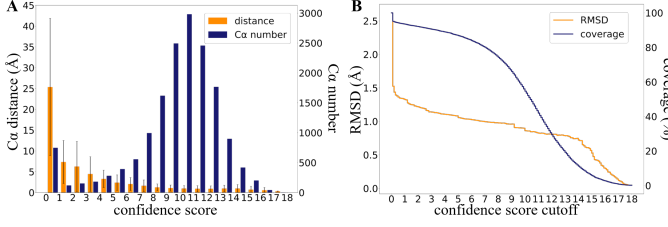


Fig. 5. Correlation between confidence score, C α distance, and C α number shown in histogram (A), and correlation between confidence score cutoff, RMSD and coverage of AF2 structure fragments plotted in (B)

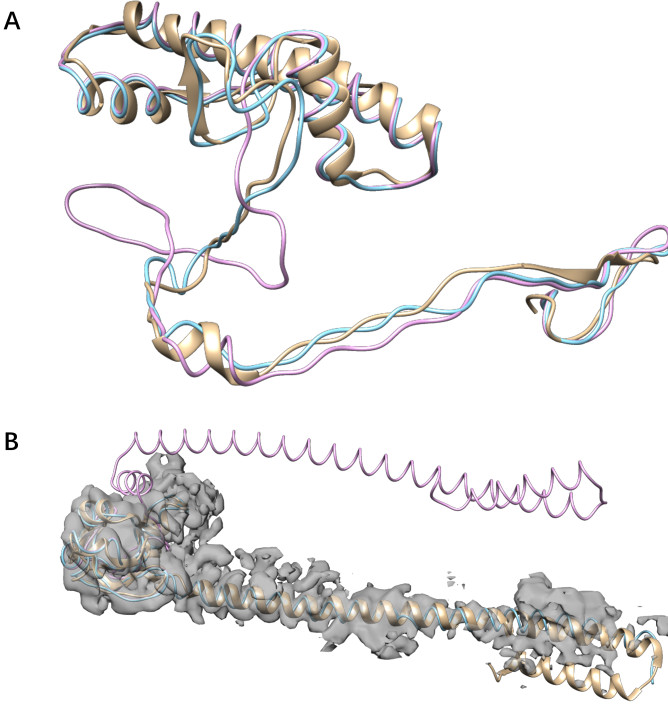


Fig. 6. Case study of (A) EM-31116, pdb-chain: 7egg-F, and (B) EM-31138, pdb-chain: 7egq-B, where golden ribbon is the native structure, pink line represents the AF2 structure superimposed to native structure, and blue line figure out SEGEM++ final structure; the transparent gray area in (B) represents the density value EM-31138 with a density cutoff.

superimposed to the native structure. As is shown in Table V, SEGEM++ final model significantly outperformed AF2 model by RMSD (1.30Å compared to 2.62Å) while their GDT-TS score are both approximately equal to 0.88. We then studied on a subset contains 11 test case of TS_AF, where the GDT-TS score of AF2 structure are all less than 0.80, named as TS_AF_{hard}. Table V provides the test

result on TS_AF_{hard}, from which we found that SEGEM++ final model achieved both better RMSD (2.46Å) and GDT-TS (0.676) than AF2 model (7.87Å RMSD and 0.652 GDT-TS). These result indicates the ability of SEGEM++ to rectify the incorrectly folded AF2 structure. As a detailed example in Fig.6A, for EM_31116, SEGEM++ correctly rectified the incorrectly folded random coil in AF2 structure, achieving the 1.92 Å RMSD and 0.84 GDT-TS score, which significantly outperformed the 10.17Å and 0.71 of AF2. For another case EM_31138 in Fig.6B, SEGEM++ also successfully rectified incorrectly folded region in AF2 structure, while SEGEM++ didn't finish the complete protein threading in the tail. To study the possible infactor, we visualized the cryo-EM density map in Fig.6B and found local density variance in the uncompleted threading area, which makes it difficult for C α site prediction and might gap the protein threading as a consequence. We also observed that SEGEM++ complete the structure modeling within an impressive speed: 3.9 minutes on average for TS_AF (excluding AF2 structure prediction time consumption), indicating the potential for high-throughput automated structural modeling from cryo-EM maps in future.

IV. CONCLUSION

In this study, we proposed a novel automated protein backbone structure modeling method SEGEM. Different from previous methods, SEGEM utilized the predicted amino acid type to develop a highly parallel pipeline to assign the predicted C α s to protein sequence. As a consequence, SEGEM achieving state-of-the-art modeling accuracy and coverage with low time consumption. In its plus version SEGEM++ we employ protein structure prediction algorithm AlphaFold2 (AF2) to improve structure modeling from cryo-EM maps. SEGEM++ is proved to be discriminating at whether AF2 folded a good structure and is capable to rectify the incorrectly folded region, which make it obtain a near atomic modeling accuracy in our test dataset. Nevertheless, for some test case, SEGEM++ still failed to build a complete model. We study these case and deduce the reason to be the missing identification of some native C α sites, which is a consequence of variant local resolution and noise density in cryo-EM map. But with the development of 3D image semantic segmentation algorithm and cryo-EM image processing technology, it's expected that our method would achieve higher modeling quality.

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