

# The Biopython Structural Bioinformatics FAQ

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## 1 Introduction

The Biopython Project is an international association of developers of freely available Python (<http://www.python.org>) tools for computational molecular biology. Python is an object oriented, interpreted, flexible language that is becoming increasingly popular for scientific computing. Python is easy to learn, has a very clear syntax and can easily be extended with modules written in C, C++ or FORTRAN.

The Biopython web site (<http://www.biopython.org>) provides an online resource for modules, scripts, and web links for developers of Python-based software for bioinformatics use and research. Basically, the goal of biopython is to make it as easy as possible to use python for bioinformatics by creating high-quality, reusable modules and classes. Biopython features include parsers for various Bioinformatics file formats (BLAST, Clustalw, FASTA, Genbank,...), access to online services (NCBI, Expasy,...), interfaces to common and not-so-common programs (Clustalw, DSSP, MSMS...), a standard sequence class, various clustering modules, a KD tree data structure etc. and even documentation.

Bio.PDB is a biopython module that focuses on working with crystal structures of biological macromolecules. This document gives a fairly complete overview of Bio.PDB.

## 2 Bio.PDB's installation

Bio.PDB is automatically installed as part of Biopython. Biopython can be obtained from <http://www.biopython.org>. It runs on many platforms (Linux/Unix, windows, Mac,...).

However, the `Bio.PDB.mmCIF.MMCIFlex` module (used internally by `Bio.PDB.MMCIFParser` to parse mmCIF files) is *not* currently installed by default. This module relies on a third party tool called flex (fast lexical analyzer generator). At the time of writing, in order to parse mmCIF files you'll have to install flex, then tweak your `setup.py` file and (re)install Biopython from source.

## 3 Who's using Bio.PDB?

Bio.PDB was used in the construction of DISEMBL, a web server that predicts disordered regions in proteins (<http://dis.embl.de/>), and COLUMBA, a website that provides annotated protein structures (<http://www.columba-db.de/>). Bio.PDB has also been used to perform a large scale search for active sites similarities between protein structures in the PDB (see *Proteins Struct. Func. Gen.*, **2003**, 51, 96-108), and to develop a new algorithm that identifies linear secondary structure elements (*BMC Bioinformatics*, **2005**, 6, 202, <http://www.biomedcentral.com/1471-2105/6/202>).

Judging from requests for features and information, Bio.PDB is also used by several LPCs (Large Pharmaceutical Companies :-).

## 4 Is there a Bio.PDB reference?

Yes, and I'd appreciate it if you would refer to Bio.PDB in publications if you make use of it. The reference is:

Hamelryck, T., Manderick, B. (2003) PDB parser and structure class implemented in Python. *Bioinformatics*, **19**, 2308-2310.

The article can be freely downloaded via the Bioinformatics journal website (<http://www.binf.ku.dk/users/thamelry/references.html>). I welcome e-mails telling me what you are using Bio.PDB for. Feature requests are welcome too.

## 5 How well tested is Bio.PDB?

Pretty well, actually. Bio.PDB has been extensively tested on nearly 5500 structures from the PDB - all structures seemed to be parsed correctly. More details can be found in the Bio.PDB Bioinformatics article. Bio.PDB has been used/is being used in many research projects as a reliable tool. In fact, I'm using Bio.PDB almost daily for research purposes and continue working on improving it and adding new features.

## 6 How fast is it?

The `PDBParser` performance was tested on about 800 structures (each belonging to a unique SCOP superfamily). This takes about 20 minutes, or on average 1.5 seconds per structure. Parsing the structure of the large ribosomal subunit (1FKK), which contains about 64000 atoms, takes 10 seconds on a 1000 MHz PC. In short: it's more than fast enough for many applications.

## 7 Why should I use Bio.PDB?

Bio.PDB might be exactly what you want, and then again it might not. If you are interested in data mining the PDB header, you might want to look elsewhere because there is only limited support for this. If you look for a powerful, complete data structure to access the atomic data Bio.PDB is probably for you.

## 8 Usage

### 8.1 General questions

#### Importing Bio.PDB

That's simple:

```
from Bio.PDB import *
```

#### Is there support for molecular graphics?

Not directly, mostly since there are quite a few Python based/Python aware solutions already, that can potentially be used with Bio.PDB. My choice is Pymol, BTW (I've used this successfully with Bio.PDB, and there will probably be specific PyMol modules in Bio.PDB soon/some day). Python based/aware molecular graphics solutions include:

- PyMol: <http://pymol.sourceforge.net/>
- Chimera: <http://www.cgl.ucsf.edu/chimera/>

- PMV: <http://www.scripps.edu/~sanner/python/>
- Coot: <http://www.ysbl.york.ac.uk/~emsley/coot/>
- CCP4mg: <http://www.ysbl.york.ac.uk/~lizp/molgraphics.html>
- mmLib: <http://pymmlib.sourceforge.net/>
- VMD: <http://www.ks.uiuc.edu/Research/vmd/>
- MMTK: <http://starship.python.net/crew/hinsen/MMTK/>

I'd be crazy to write another molecular graphics application (been there - done that, actually :-).

### What about 3D printing?

Yes, there is support. The `internal_coords` module can convert internal coordinates (bond lengths, angles and dihedral angles) into 3D (cartesian, XYZ) coordinates. The algorithm is also supplied in OpenSCAD (a language for 3D modeling) so, by combining with internal coordinates for your protein, a model of your structure may be created for 3D printing. You will need to install the OpenSCAD software and use it to process the `.scad` file generated by `write_SCAD()`.

- OpenSCAD: <https://www.openscad.org/>
- a modified example: <https://www.thingiverse.com/thing:3957471>

## 8.2 Input/output

### How do I create a structure object from a PDB file?

First, create a `PDBParser` object:

```
parser=PDBParser()
```

Then, create a structure object from a PDB file in the following way (the PDB file in this case is called '1FAT.pdb', 'PHA-L' is a user defined name for the structure):

```
structure=parser.get_structure('PHA-L', '1FAT.pdb')
```

### How do I create a structure object from an mmCIF file?

Similarly to the case the case of PDB files, first create an `MMCIFParser` object:

```
parser=MMCIFParser()
```

Then use this parser to create a structure object from the mmCIF file:

```
structure=parser.get_structure('PHA-L', '1FAT.cif')
```

### ...and what about the new PDB XML format?

That's not yet supported, but I'm definitely planning to support that in the future (it's not a lot of work). Contact me if you need this, it might encourage me :-).

### I'd like to have some more low level access to an mmCIF file...

You got it. You can create a python dictionary that maps all mmCIF tags in an mmCIF file to their values. If there are multiple values (like in the case of `tag_atom_site.Cartn_y`, which holds the y coordinates of all atoms), the tag is mapped to a list of values. The dictionary is created from the mmCIF file as follows:

```
mmcif_dict=MMCIF2Dict('1FAT.cif')
```

Example: get the solvent content from an mmCIF file:

```
sc=mmcif_dict['_exptl_crystal.density_percent_sol']
```

Example: get the list of the y coordinates of all atoms

```
y_list=mmcif_dict['_atom_site.Cartn_y']
```

### Can I access the header information?

Thanks to Christian Rother you can access some information from the PDB header. Note however that many PDB files contain headers with incomplete or erroneous information. Many of the errors have been fixed in the equivalent mmCIF files. *Hence, if you are interested in the header information, it is a good idea to extract information from mmCIF files using the `MMCIF2Dict` tool described above, instead of parsing the PDB header.*

Now that is clarified, let's return to parsing the PDB header. The structure object has an attribute called `header` which is a python dictionary that maps header records to their values.

Example:

```
resolution=structure.header['resolution']
keywords=structure.header['keywords']
```

The available keys are `name`, `head`, `deposition_date`, `release_date`, `structure_method`, `resolution`, `structure_reference` (maps to a list of references), `journal_reference`, `author`, `compound` (maps to a dictionary with various information about the crystallized compound), and `astral` (maps to dictionary with additional information about the domain if present).

The dictionary can also be created without creating a `Structure` object, ie. directly from the PDB file:

```
file=open(filename, 'r')
header_dict=parse_pdb_header(file)
file.close()
```

### Can I use Bio.PDB with NMR structures (ie. with more than one model)?

Sure. Many PDB parsers assume that there is only one model, making them all but useless for NMR structures. The design of the `Structure` object makes it easy to handle PDB files with more than one model (see section 8.3).

### How do I download structures from the PDB?

This can be done using the `PDBList` object, using the `retrieve_pdb_file` method. The argument for this method is the PDB identifier of the structure.

```
pdbl=PDBList()
pdbl.retrieve_pdb_file('1FAT')
```

The `PDBList` class can also be used as a command-line tool:

```
python PDBList.py 1fat
```

The downloaded file will be called `pdbl1fat.ent` and stored in the current working directory. Note that the `retrieve_pdb_file` method also has an optional argument `pdir` that specifies a specific directory in which to store the downloaded PDB files.

The `retrieve_pdb_file` method also has some options to specify the compression format used for the download, and the program used for local decompression (default `.Z` format and `gunzip`). In addition, the PDB ftp site can be specified upon creation of the `PDBList` object. By default, the RCSB PDB server (<ftp://ftp.rcsb.org/pub/pdb/data/structures/divided/pdb/>) is used. See the API documentation for more details. Thanks again to Kristian Rother for donating this module.

### How do I download the entire PDB?

The following commands will store all PDB files in the `/data/pdb` directory:

```
python PDBList.py all /data/pdb
python PDBList.py all /data/pdb -d
```

The API method for this is called `download_entire_pdb`. Adding the `-d` option will store all files in the same directory. Otherwise, they are sorted into PDB-style subdirectories according to their PDB ID's. Depending on the traffic, a complete download will take 2-4 days.

### How do I keep a local copy of the PDB up-to-date?

This can also be done using the `PDBList` object. One simply creates a `PDBList` object (specifying the directory where the local copy of the PDB is present) and calls the `update_pdb` method:

```
pl=PDBList(pdb='/data/pdb')
pl.update_pdb()
```

One can of course make a weekly `cronjob` out of this to keep the local copy automatically up-to-date. The PDB ftp site can also be specified (see API documentation).

`PDBList` has some additional methods that can be of use. The `get_all_obsolete` method can be used to get a list of all obsolete PDB entries. The `changed_this_week` method can be used to obtain the entries that were added, modified or obsoleted during the current week. For more info on the possibilities of `PDBList`, see the API documentation.

### What about all those buggy PDB files?

It is well known that many PDB files contain semantic errors (I'm not talking about the structures themselves know, but their representation in PDB files). Bio.PDB tries to handle this in two ways. The `PDBParser` object can behave in two ways: a restrictive way and a permissive way (THIS IS NOW THE DEFAULT). The restrictive way used to be the default, but people seemed to think that Bio.PDB 'crashed' due to a bug (hah!), so I changed it. If you ever encounter a real bug, please tell me immediately!

Example:

```
# Permissive parser
parser=PDBParser(PERMISSIVE=1)
parser=PDBParser() # The same (default)
# Strict parser
strict_parser=PDBParser(PERMISSIVE=0)
```

In the permissive state (DEFAULT), PDB files that obviously contain errors are 'corrected' (ie. some residues or atoms are left out). These errors include:

- Multiple residues with the same identifier
- Multiple atoms with the same identifier (taking into account the altloc identifier)

These errors indicate real problems in the PDB file (for details see the Bioinformatics article). In the restrictive state, PDB files with errors cause an exception to occur. This is useful to find errors in PDB files.

Some errors however are automatically corrected. Normally each disordered atom should have a non-blanc altloc identifier. However, there are many structures that do not follow this convention, and have a blank and a non-blank identifier for two disordered positions of the same atom. This is automatically interpreted in the right way.

Sometimes a structure contains a list of residues belonging to chain A, followed by residues belonging to chain B, and again followed by residues belonging to chain A, i.e. the chains are 'broken'. This is also correctly interpreted.

### Can I write PDB files?

Use the `PDBIO` class for this. It's easy to write out specific parts of a structure too, of course.

Example: saving a structure

```
io=PDBIO()
io.set_structure(s)
io.save('out.pdb')
```

If you want to write out a part of the structure, make use of the `Select` class (also in `PDBIO`). `Select` has four methods:

```
accept_model(model)
accept_chain(chain)
accept_residue(residue)
accept_atom(atom)
```

By default, every method returns 1 (which means the model/chain/residue/atom is included in the output). By subclassing `Select` and returning 0 when appropriate you can exclude models, chains, etc. from the output. Cumbersome maybe, but very powerful. The following code only writes out glycine residues:

```
class GlySelect(Select):
    def accept_residue(self, residue):
        if residue.get_name()=='GLY':
            return 1
        else:
            return 0
io=PDBIO()
io.set_structure(s)
io.save('gly_only.pdb', GlySelect())
```

If this is all too complicated for you, the `Dice` module contains a handy `extract` function that writes out all residues in a chain between a start and end residue.

### Can I write mmCIF files?

Yes, very similar to writing PDB files, use the `MMCIFIO` class:

```
io=MMCIFIO()
io.set_structure(s)
io.save('out.cif')
```

This class also makes use of the `Select` class from `PDBIO`.

## 8.3 The Structure object

### What's the overall layout of a Structure object?

The `Structure` object follows the so-called SMCRA (Structure/Model/Chain/Residue/-Atom) architecture :

- A structure consists of models
- A model consists of chains
- A chain consists of residues
- A residue consists of atoms

This is the way many structural biologists/bioinformaticians think about structure, and provides a simple but efficient way to deal with structure. Additional stuff is essentially added when needed. A UML diagram of the `Structure` object (forget about the `Disordered` classes for now) is shown in Fig. 1.

### How do I navigate through a Structure object?

The following code iterates through all atoms of a structure:

```
p=PDBParser()
structure=p.get_structure('X', 'pdb1fat.ent')
for model in structure:
    for chain in model:
        for residue in chain:
            for atom in residue:
                print atom
```

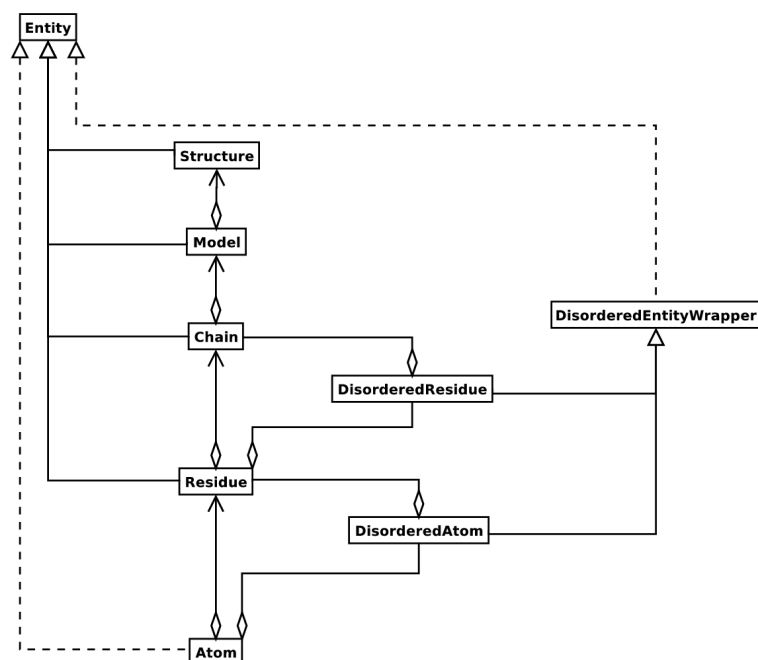


Figure 1: UML diagram of SMCRA architecture of the `Structure` object. Full lines with diamonds denote aggregation, full lines with arrows denote referencing, full lines with triangles denote inheritance and dashed lines with triangles denote interface realization.

There are also some shortcuts:

```
# Iterate over all atoms in a structure
for atom in structure.get_atoms():
    print atom
# Iterate over all residues in a model
for residue in model.get_residues():
    print residue
```

Structures, models, chains, residues and atoms are called `Entities` in Biopython. You can always get a parent `Entity` from a child `Entity`, eg.:

```
residue=atom.get_parent()
chain=residue.get_parent()
```

You can also test whether an `Entity` has a certain child using the `has_id` method.

### Can I do that a bit more conveniently?

You can do things like:

```
atoms=structure.get_atoms()
residue=structure.get_residues()
atoms=chain.get_atoms()
```

You can also use the `Selection.unfold_entities` function:

```
# Get all residues from a structure
res_list=Selection.unfold_entities(structure, 'R')
# Get all atoms from a chain
atom_list=Selection.unfold_entities(chain, 'A')
```

Obviously, A=atom, R=residue, C=chain, M=model, S=structure. You can use this to go up in the hierarchy, eg. to get a list of (unique) `Residue` or `Chain` parents from a list of `Atoms`:

```
residue_list=Selection.unfold_entities(atom_list, 'R')
chain_list=Selection.unfold_entities(atom_list, 'C')
```

For more info, see the API documentation.

### How do I extract a specific Atom/Residue/Chain/Model from a Structure?

Easy. Here are some examples:

```
model=structure[0]
chain=model['A']
residue=chain[100]
atom=residue['CA']
```

Note that you can use a shortcut:

```
atom=structure[0]['A'][100]['CA']
```

### What is a model id?

The model id is an integer which denotes the rank of the model in the PDB/mmCIF file. The model starts at 0. Crystal structures generally have only one model (with id 0), while NMR files usually have several models.

### What is a chain id?

The chain id is specified in the PDB/mmCIF file, and is a single character (typically a letter).

### What is a residue id?

This is a bit more complicated, due to the clumsy PDB format. A residue id is a tuple with three elements:

- The **hetero-flag**: this is 'H\_' plus the name of the hetero-residue (eg. 'H\_GLC' in the case of a glucose molecule), or 'W' in the case of a water molecule.
- The **sequence identifier** in the chain, eg. 100
- The **insertion code**, eg. 'A'. The insertion code is sometimes used to preserve a certain desirable residue numbering scheme. A Ser 80 insertion mutant (inserted e.g. between a Thr 80 and an Asn 81 residue) could e.g. have sequence identifiers and insertion codes as follows: Thr 80 A, Ser 80 B, Asn 81. In this way the residue numbering scheme stays in tune with that of the wild type structure.

The id of the above glucose residue would thus be ('H\_GLC', 100, 'A'). If the hetero-flag and insertion code are blank, the sequence identifier alone can be used:

```
# Full id
residue=chain((' ', 100, ' '))
# Shortcut id
residue=chain[100]
```

The reason for the hetero-flag is that many, many PDB files use the same sequence identifier for an amino acid and a hetero-residue or a water, which would create obvious problems if the hetero-flag was not used.

### What is an atom id?

The atom id is simply the atom name (eg. 'CA'). In practice, the atom name is created by stripping all spaces from the atom name in the PDB file.

However, in PDB files, a space can be part of an atom name. Often, calcium atoms are called 'CA..' in order to distinguish them from C $\alpha$  atoms (which are called '.CA.'). In cases where stripping the spaces would create problems (ie. two atoms called 'CA' in the same residue) the spaces are kept.



## How is disorder handled?

This is one of the strong points of Bio.PDB. It can handle both disordered atoms and point mutations (ie. a Gly and an Ala residue in the same position).

Disorder should be dealt with from two points of view: the atom and the residue points of view. In general, I have tried to encapsulate all the complexity that arises from disorder. If you just want to loop over all C $\alpha$  atoms, you do not care that some residues have a disordered side chain. On the other hand it should also be possible to represent disorder completely in the data structure. Therefore, disordered atoms or residues are stored in special objects that behave as if there is no disorder. This is done by only representing a subset of the disordered atoms or residues. Which subset is picked (e.g. which of the two disordered OG side chain atom positions of a Ser residue is used) can be specified by the user.

**Disordered atom positions** are represented by ordinary Atom objects, but all Atom objects that represent the same physical atom are stored in a DisorderedAtom object (see Fig. 1). Each Atom object in a DisorderedAtom object can be uniquely indexed using its altloc specifier. The DisorderedAtom object forwards all uncaught method calls to the selected Atom object, by default the one that represents the atom with the highest occupancy. The user can of course change the selected Atom object, making use of its altloc specifier. In this way atom disorder is represented correctly without much additional complexity. In other words, if you are not interested in atom disorder, you will not be bothered by it.

Each disordered atom has a characteristic altloc identifier. You can specify that a DisorderedAtom object should behave like the Atom object associated with a specific altloc identifier:

```
atom.disordered_select('A') # select altloc A atom
atom.disordered_select('B') # select altloc B atom
```

A special case arises when disorder is due to **point mutations**, i.e. when two or more point mutants of a polypeptide are present in the crystal. An example of this can be found in PDB structure 1EN2.

Since these residues belong to a different residue type (e.g. let's say Ser 60 and Cys 60) they should not be stored in a single Residue object as in the common case. In this case, each residue is represented by one Residue object, and both Residue objects are stored in a single DisorderedResidue object (see Fig. 1).

The DisorderedResidue object forwards all uncaught methods to the selected Residue object (by default the last Residue object added), and thus behaves like an ordinary residue. Each Residue object in a DisorderedResidue object can be uniquely identified by its residue name. In the above example, residue Ser 60 would have id 'SER' in the DisorderedResidue object, while residue Cys 60 would have id 'CYS'. The user can select the active Residue object in a DisorderedResidue object via this id.

Example: suppose that a chain has a point mutation at position 10, consisting of a Ser and a Cys residue. Make sure that residue 10 of this chain behaves as the Cys residue.

```
residue=chain[10]
residue.disordered_select('CYS')
```

In addition, you can get a list of all Atom objects (ie. all DisorderedAtom objects are 'unpacked' to their individual Atom objects) using the get\_unpacked\_list method of a (Disordered)Residue object.

## Can I sort residues in a chain somehow?

Yes, kinda, but I'm waiting for a request for this feature to finish it :-).

## How are ligands and solvent handled?

See 'What is a residue id?'.

**What about B factors?**

Well, yes! Bio.PDB supports isotropic and anisotropic B factors, and also deals with standard deviations of anisotropic B factor if present (see [8.4](#)).

**What about standard deviation of atomic positions?**

Yup, supported. See section [8.4](#).

**I think the SMCRA data structure is not flexible/sexy/whatever enough...**

Sure, sure. Everybody is always coming up with (mostly vaporware or partly implemented) data structures that handle all possible situations and are extensible in all thinkable (and unthinkable) ways. The prosaic truth however is that 99.9% of people using (and I mean really using!) crystal structures think in terms of models, chains, residues and atoms. The philosophy of Bio.PDB is to provide a reasonably fast, clean, simple, but complete data structure to access structure data. The proof of the pudding is in the eating.

Moreover, it is quite easy to build more specialised data structures on top of the Structure class (eg. there's a Polypeptide class). On the other hand, the Structure object is built using a Parser/Consumer approach (called PDBParser/MMCIFParser and StructureBuilder, respectively). One can easily re-use the PDB/mmCIF parsers by implementing a specialised StructureBuilder class. It is of course also trivial to add support for new file formats by writing new parsers.

## 8.4 Analysis

**How do I extract information from an Atom object?**

Using the following methods:

```
a.get_name() # atom name (spaces stripped, e.g. 'CA')
a.get_id() # id (equals atom name)
a.get_coord() # atomic coordinates
a.get_vector() # atomic coordinates as Vector object
a.get_bfactor() # isotropic B factor
a.get_occupancy() # occupancy
a.get_altloc() # alternative location specifier
a.get_sigatm() # std. dev. of atomic parameters
a.get_siguij() # std. dev. of anisotropic B factor
a.get_anisou() # anisotropic B factor
a.get_fullname() # atom name (with spaces, e.g. '.CA.')
```

**How do I extract information from a Residue object?**

Using the following methods:

```
r.get_resname() # return the residue name (eg. 'GLY')
r.is_disordered() # 1 if the residue has disordered atoms
r.get_segid() # return the SEGID
r.has_id(name) # test if a residue has a certain atom
```

**How do I measure distances?**

That's simple: the minus operator for atoms has been overloaded to return the distance between two atoms.

Example:

```
# Get some atoms
ca1=residue1['CA']
ca2=residue2['CA']
# Simply subtract the atoms to get their distance
distance=ca1-ca2
```

**How do I measure angles?**

This can easily be done via the vector representation of the atomic coordinates, and the `calc_angle` function from the `Vector` module:

```
vector1=atom1.get_vector()
vector2=atom2.get_vector()
vector3=atom3.get_vector()
angle=calc_angle(vector1, vector2, vector3)
```

**How do I measure torsion angles?**

Again, this can easily be done via the vector representation of the atomic coordinates, this time using the `calc_dihedral` function from the `Vector` module:

```
vector1=atom1.get_vector()
vector2=atom2.get_vector()
vector3=atom3.get_vector()
vector4=atom4.get_vector()
angle=calc_dihedral(vector1, vector2, vector3, vector4)
```

**Is there higher level support for bond geometries?**

Use the `internal_coords` module:

```
pdb_structure.atom_to_internal_coordinates()
for r in pdb_structure.get_residues():
    if r.internal_coord:
        print(
            r,
            r.internal_coord.get_angle("psi"),
            r.internal_coord.get_angle("phi"),
            r.internal_coord.get_angle("omg"),
            r.internal_coord.get_angle("chi2"),
            r.internal_coord.get_length("OC:1N"),
        )
```

**How do I determine atom-atom contacts?**

Use `NeighborSearch`. This uses a KD tree data structure implemented in C, so it's pretty darn fast (see the `KDTree` class in `Bio.PDB.kdtrees`).

**How do I extract polypeptides from a Structure object?**

Use `PolypeptideBuilder`. You can use the resulting `Polypeptide` object to get the sequence as a `Seq` object or to get a list of  $C\alpha$  atoms as well. Polypeptides can be built using a C-N or a  $C\alpha$ - $C\alpha$  distance criterion.

Example:

```
# Using C-N
ppb=PPBuilder()
for pp in ppb.build_peptides(structure):
    print pp.get_sequence()
# Using CA-CA
ppb=CaPPBuilder()
for pp in ppb.build_peptides(structure):
    print pp.get_sequence()
```

Note that in the above case only model 0 of the structure is considered by `PolypeptideBuilder`. However, it is possible to use `PolypeptideBuilder` to build `Polypeptide` objects from `Model` and `Chain` objects as well.

Code	Secondary structure
<b>H</b>	$\alpha$ -helix
<b>B</b>	Isolated $\beta$ -bridge residue
<b>E</b>	Strand
<b>G</b>	3-10 helix
<b>I</b>	$\Pi$ -helix
<b>T</b>	Turn
<b>S</b>	Bend
-	Other

Table 1: DSSP codes in Bio.PDB.

### How do I get the sequence of a structure?

The first thing to do is to extract all polypeptides from the structure (see previous entry). The sequence of each polypeptide can then easily be obtained from the `Polypeptide` objects. The sequence is represented as a Biopython `Seq` object, and its alphabet is defined by a `ProteinAlphabet` object.

Example:

```
>>> seq=polypeptide.get_sequence()
>>> print seq
Seq('SNVVE...', <class Bio.Alphabet.ProteinAlphabet>)
```

### How do I determine secondary structure?

For this functionality, you need to install DSSP (and obtain a license for it - free for academic use, see <http://www.cmbi.kun.nl/gv/dssp/>). Then use the `DSSP` class, which maps `Residue` objects to their secondary structure (and accessible surface area). The DSSP codes are listed in Table 1. Note that DSSP (the program, and thus by consequence the class) cannot handle multiple models!

### How do I calculate the accessible surface area of a residue?

Use the `DSSP` class (see also previous entry). But see also next entry.

### How do I calculate residue depth?

Residue depth is the average distance of a residue's atoms from the solvent accessible surface. It's a fairly new and very powerful parameterization of solvent accessibility. For this functionality, you need to install Michel Sanner's MSMS program ([http://www.scripps.edu/pub/olson-web/people/sanner/html/msms\\_home.html](http://www.scripps.edu/pub/olson-web/people/sanner/html/msms_home.html)). Then use the `ResidueDepth` class. This class behaves as a dictionary which maps `Residue` objects to corresponding (residue depth,  $C\alpha$  depth) tuples. The  $C\alpha$  depth is the distance of a residue's  $C\alpha$  atom to the solvent accessible surface.

Example:

```
model=structure[0]
rd=ResidueDepth(model, pdb_file)
residue_depth, ca_depth=rd[some_residue]
```

You can also get access to the molecular surface itself (via the `get_surface` function), in the form of a Numeric python array with the surface points.

### How do I calculate Half Sphere Exposure?

Half Sphere Exposure (HSE) is a new, 2D measure of solvent exposure. Basically, it counts the number of  $C\alpha$  atoms around a residue in the direction of its side chain, and in the opposite direction (within a radius of 13 Å). Despite its simplicity, it outperforms many other measures of solvent exposure. An article describing this novel 2D measure has been submitted.

HSE comes in two flavors:  $\text{HSE}\alpha$  and  $\text{HSE}\beta$ . The former only uses the  $\text{C}\alpha$  atom positions, while the latter uses the  $\text{C}\alpha$  and  $\text{C}\beta$  atom positions. The HSE measure is calculated by the `HSEExposure` class, which can also calculate the contact number. The latter class has methods which return dictionaries that map a `Residue` object to its corresponding  $\text{HSE}\alpha$ ,  $\text{HSE}\beta$  and contact number values.

Example:

```
model=structure[0]
hse=HSEExposure()
# Calculate HSEalpha
exp_ca=hse.calc_hs_exposure(model, option='CA3')
# Calculate HSEbeta
exp_cb=hse.calc_hs_exposure(model, option='CB')
# Calculate classical coordination number exp_fs=hse.calc_fs_exposure(model)
# Print HSEalpha for a residue
print exp_ca[some_residue]
```

### How do I map the residues of two related structures onto each other?

First, create an alignment file in FASTA format, then use the `StructureAlignment` class. This class can also be used for alignments with more than two structures.

### How do I test if a Residue object is an amino acid?

Use `is_aa(residue)`.

### Can I do vector operations on atomic coordinates?

`Atom` objects return a `Vector` object representation of the coordinates with the `get_vector` method. `Vector` implements the full set of 3D vector operations, matrix multiplication (left and right) and some advanced rotation-related operations as well. See also next question.

### How do I put a virtual $\text{C}\beta$ on a Gly residue?

OK, I admit, this example is only present to show off the possibilities of Bio.PDB's `Vector` module (though this code is actually used in the `HSEExposure` module, which contains a novel way to parametrize residue exposure - publication underway). Suppose that you would like to find the position of a Gly residue's  $\text{C}\beta$  atom, if it had one. How would you do that? Well, rotating the N atom of the Gly residue along the  $\text{C}\alpha$ -C bond over -120 degrees roughly puts it in the position of a virtual  $\text{C}\beta$  atom. Here's how to do it, making use of the `rotaxis` method (which can be used to construct a rotation around a certain axis) of the `Vector` module:

```
# get atom coordinates as vectors
n=residue['N'].get_vector()
c=residue['C'].get_vector()
ca=residue['CA'].get_vector()
# center at origin
n=n-ca
c=c-ca
# find rotation matrix that rotates n
# -120 degrees along the ca-c vector
rot=rotaxis(-pi*120.0/180.0, c)
# apply rotation to ca-n vector
cb_at_origin=n.left_multiply(rot)
# put on top of ca atom
cb=cb_at_origin+ca
```

This example shows that it's possible to do some quite nontrivial vector operations on atomic data, which can be quite useful. In addition to all the usual vector operations (cross (use `**`), and dot (use `*`) product, angle, norm, etc.) and the above mentioned

rotaxis function, the Vector module also has methods to rotate (rotmat) or reflect (refmat) one vector on top of another.

Alternatively, the IC\_Residue class of the internal\_coords module exposes a gly\_Cbeta variable. If this is set True, internal coordinates for the virtual C $\beta$  atom will be created using database values when other internal coordinates are calculated:

```
IC_Residue.gly_Cbeta = True
# calculate internal coordinates for structure s, create a
# new structure pdb2 with only the internal coordinates
pdb2 = IC_duplicate(s)
# compute pdb2 atom coordinates from internal coordinates
pdb2.internal_to_atom_coordinates()
```

## 8.5 Manipulating the structure

### How do I superimpose two structures?

Surprisingly, this is done using the Superimposer object. This object calculates the rotation and translation matrix that rotates two lists of atoms on top of each other in such a way that their RMSD is minimized. Of course, the two lists need to contain the same amount of atoms. The Superimposer object can also apply the rotation/translation to a list of atoms. The rotation and translation are stored as a tuple in the rotran attribute of the Superimposer object (note that the rotation is right multiplying!). The RMSD is stored in the rmsd attribute.

The algorithm used by Superimposer comes from *Matrix computations, 2nd ed. Golub, G. & Van Loan (1989)* and makes use of singular value decomposition (this is implemented in the general Bio.SVDSuperimposer module).

Example:

```
sup=Superimposer()
# Specify the atom lists
# 'fixed' and 'moving' are lists of Atom objects
# The moving atoms will be put on the fixed atoms
sup.set_atoms(fixed, moving)
# Print rotation/translation/rmsd
print sup.rotran
print sup.rms
# Apply rotation/translation to the moving atoms
sup.apply(moving)
```

### How do I superimpose two structures based on their active sites?

Pretty easily. Use the active site atoms to calculate the rotation/translation matrices (see above), and apply these to the whole molecule.

### Can I manipulate the atomic coordinates?

Yes, using the transform method of the Atom object, or directly using the set\_coord method.

## 9 Other Structural Bioinformatics modules

### Bio.SCOP

Info coming soon.

### Bio.FSSP

Info coming soon.

## 10 You haven't answered my question yet!

Woah! It's late and I'm tired, and a glass of excellent *Pedro Ximenez* sherry is waiting for me. Just drop me a mail, and I'll answer you in the morning (with a bit of luck...).

## 11 Contributors

The main author/maintainer of Bio.PDB is yours truly. Kristian Rother donated code to interact with the PDB database, and to parse the PDB header. Indraneel Majumdar sent in some bug reports and assisted in coding the `Polypeptide` module. Many thanks to Brad Chapman, Jeffrey Chang, Andrew Dalke and Iddo Friedberg for suggestions, comments, help and/or biting criticism :-).

## 12 Can I contribute?

Yes, yes, yes! Just send me an e-mail (thamelry@binf.ku.dk) if you have something useful to contribute! Eternal fame awaits!

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