



Knowledge representation in bioinformatics

# Introduction to Bioinformatics

Databases, database searching

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# Last lectures

- 4 datatypes (sequences, structures, networks, texts)
- Sequence alignment (→ score, sequence motif)
- Multiple alignments
- Phylogenetics → tree

Indirect take home message: a sequence group is a cluster, connected by significant similarities, and it can be described with a multiple alignment, a common motif, a tree, a frequency matrix. Etc.



# Knowledge representation in bioinformatics

## Bioinformatics databases

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[net.icgeb.org/pongor](http://net.icgeb.org/pongor)

PPKE-ITK  
ICGEB-Trieste



# Outline

- Intro: Databases as a tool of communication, syntax, semantics
- Logical structure (briefly)
- Current dbase formats (even more briefly)
- Database contents
  - Sequence databases (primary/secondary, raw/annotated, comprehensive/specialized)
  - Ontologies (simple keywords, GO)
- Protein sequence clusters (the protein universe)
- Examples
  - UNIPROT
  - PFAM

# The place of databases within bioinformatics I

- Algorithms and software are for gathering knowledge.
- Databases store and communicate knowledge.  
A kind of message (collection of messages)

# The place of databases within bioinformatics II.

- All messages put (map) knowledge items into a standardized form (phrase structure, diagram, table... database record) and use one or more standardized languages.
- So databases have *syntax* and *semantics*
- Syntax and semantics is often formalized as ontologies (computer science term).

# The evolution of messages

- Chemical signals of bacteria
- Cries, speech
- Stone carved inscriptions
- Codices, books
- Journals
- Encyclopedias
- Handbooks
- Scientific databases
- Internet: blogs, discussion lists, bulletin boards





# ...biological databases vs. books

- The classical databases are like *encyclopedias* (esp. UNIPROT)
- Fast development (as new data-types appear). Often contain additional database sections with unorganized data
- Daily/monthly updates (new data)



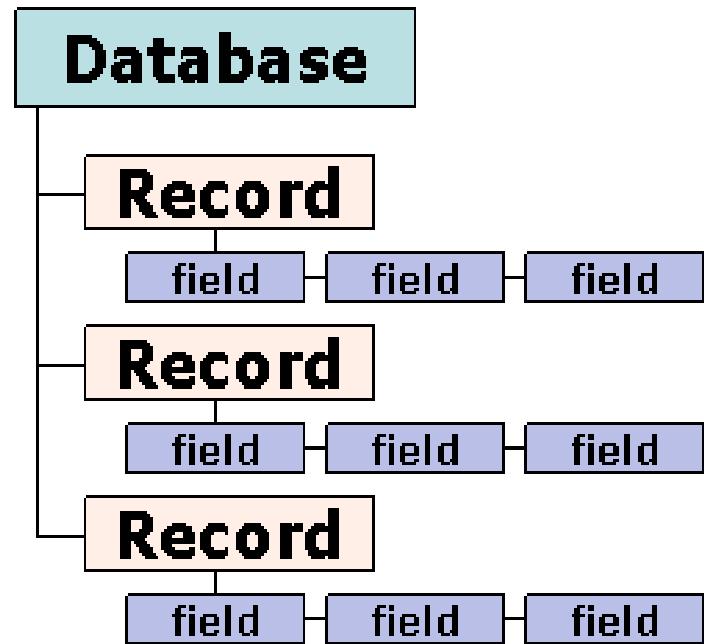
# ...Biological databases in brief

- 1 Searchable, organized (structured), regularly updated datasets
- 2 Specialize on certain data-types (e.g. protein sequences, DNA sequences, certain genomes) but also contain other types of data and are cross-referenced to many other databases.
- 3 Contain textual info, written in a standardized language (specified in external ontologies)
- 4 Often associated with special computational methods (similarity search, visualization etc) → WWW sites, resources.



# The technical structure of biological databases

- **Units: Records, contain fields subfields etc.**
- **In a flat file, each unit has its delimiter (record starts, record ends).**
- **There are mandatory fields, e.g. ID**
- **Example:**  
**Record = one protein**  
**Field: name of protein**  
**sequence of protein**



This is the same with all, not only biological databases



# Current database formats

- Flat files → Human readable
- XML → suitable for linking various databases and visualization through HTML pages.
- RDF → Resource Description Framework (generalized WWW format)
- Relational databases (MySQL, ORACLE). Searchable via SQL (Structured query language). Links given in tables – data integrity guaranteed – generally used by db developers as the core dataset.
- **Accessible forms: web page, dynamically generated (usually from a relational dbase)**

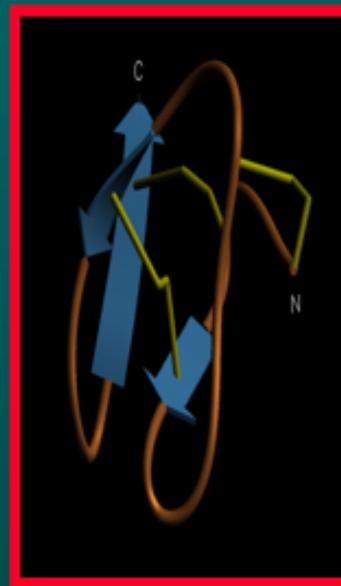
# THERE ARE SEPARATE LANGUAGES FOR THE MAIN DATA-TYPES

```
tassfvvswsasdttvsgfrvey  
elseegdepqyldlpstatzvni  
pdllpgzkytvnvyei seegegn  
lilstsqttapdappdptvdqvdy  
dtsivwrvwsrpapitgyxivys  
psvegssstelnlpetaansvtlsd  
lqpgvqynitiyazeenqestpy  
fiqqettgvprsdkvvppprdlqf  
vevtvdvkitimwtppepsvptgyx  
vdvipvnlpgehgqrlpvsrnntf  
aevtqlspgatyhfkvfawnqgq  
eskpltaqqatkladptnlqf in  
etdttvivtwtppraxivgyrlt  
vgltrggqpkqymwgpaaasqypl  
mnlqpgseyavslvavkgnqqsp  
rvtgvfttlqplgsiphynetev  
ettivitwtppaprigfklgvrops  
qggeaprevtsesgsivvsgltp  
gveyvvtisvldgqeradapivk
```

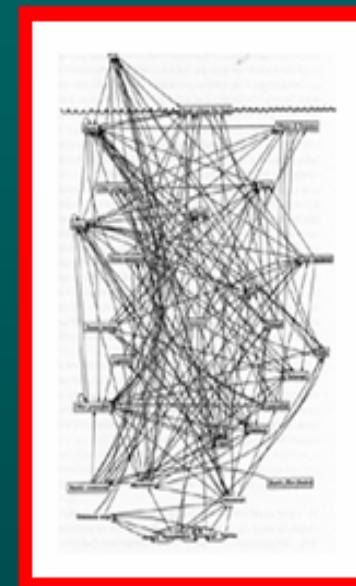
SEQUENCES



We focus on sequences

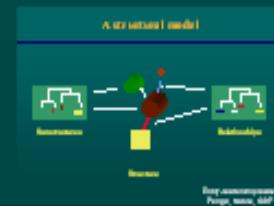


3-D



NETWORKS

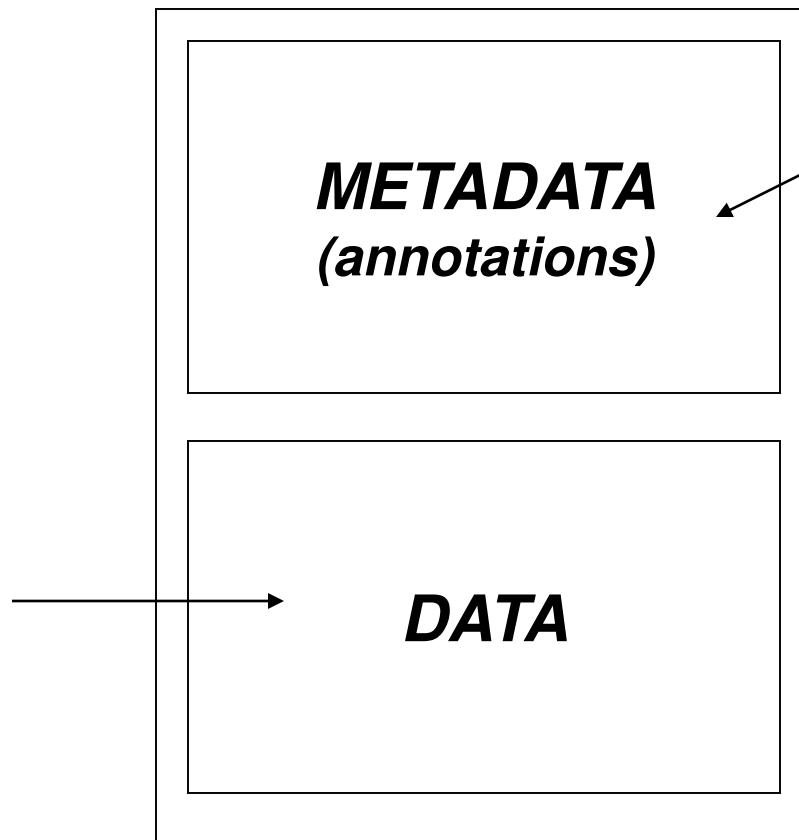
TEXT





# The logical structure of biological databases

We focus on sequences



Data on data i.e. :  
a) Locally stored  
b) Cross-references  
(links) to other  
dbases

This is the same with all, not only  
biological databases



# THE STANDARDIZED LANGUAGE OF BIOLOGICAL SEQUENCES

## I. SYNTAX

- DNA, RNA: nucleotide alphabets, 4 main characters, plus wild cards, nucleotide groups, modifications
- Protein: amino acid alphabet, 20 main characters+ wild cards, etc.
- Today dbases use one letter codes, there are other (more or less historical) conventions, sometimes used in arfticles.

<http://www.chem.qmul.ac.uk/iupac/mis/naabb.html>

<http://www.chem.qmul.ac.uk/iupac/AminoAcid/AA1n2.html>



# THE STANDARDIZED SYNTAX OF BIOLOGICAL SEQUENCES



- One type of relationship: sequential vicinity
- (OK, there are upstream and downstream neighbors)

<http://www.chem.qmul.ac.uk/iupac/mis/naabb.html>

<http://www.chem.qmul.ac.uk/iupac/AminoAcid/AA1n2.html>



# THE FASTA SEQUENCE FORMAT

Record separator

↓

>sp|P12746|LUXR\_VIBFI Transcriptional activator  
MKNINADDTYRIINKIKACRSNNDINQCLSDMTKMVHCEYYLLAIY  
NYPKKWRQYYDDANLIKYDPIVDYSNSNHSPINWNIFENNAVNKKSE  
GFSFPIHTANNGFGMLSFAHSEKDNYIDSFLHACMNIPLIVPSLVID  
NDLTKEKECLAWACEGKSSWDISKILGCERTVTFHLTNAQMKLNT  
GAIDCPYFKN

↑

Name, arbitrary form

↑

Sequence in one letter code

Used by most programs. A series of such sequences is a  
concatenated **FASTA file**



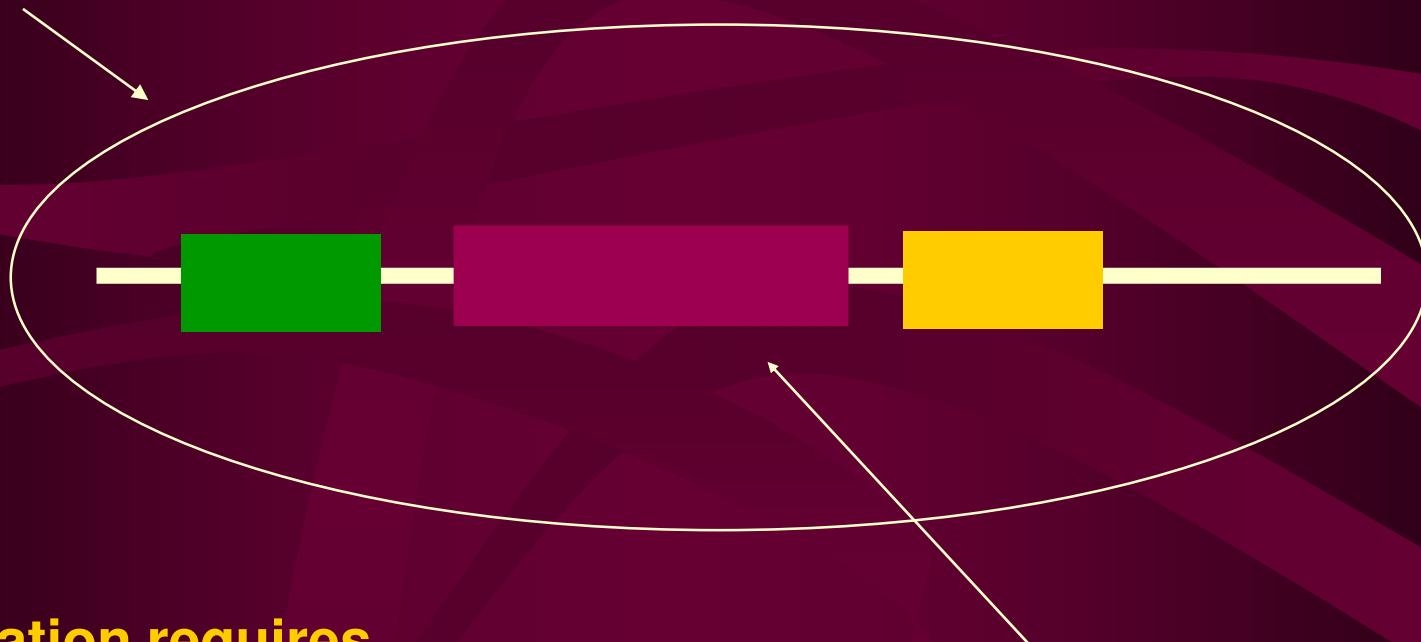
# OTHER SEQUENCE FORMATS ARE USED MOSTLY FOR VISUALIZATION

<u>10</u>	<u>20</u>	<u>30</u>	<u>40</u>	<u>50</u>	<u>60</u>
MKNINADDTY	RIINKIKACR	SNNDINQCLS	DMTRKMVHCEY	YLLATIYPHS	MVKSDISILD
<u>70</u>	<u>80</u>	<u>90</u>	<u>100</u>	<u>110</u>	<u>120</u>
NYPRKKWRQYY	DDANLIKYDP	IVDYSNSNHS	PINWNIFENN	AVNKKSPNVI	KEAKTSGLIT
<u>130</u>	<u>140</u>	<u>150</u>	<u>160</u>	<u>170</u>	<u>180</u>
GFSFPIHTAN	NGFGMLSFAH	SEKDNYIDSL	FLHACMNIPL	IVPSLVDNYR	KINIANNKSN
<u>190</u>	<u>200</u>	<u>210</u>	<u>220</u>	<u>230</u>	<u>240</u>
NDLTKREKEC	LAWACEGKSS	WDISKILGCS	ERTVTFHLTN	AQMKLNTTNR	CQSISKAILT

Used in some databases, mostly for human use. Similar notations for EMBL, UNIPROT etc databases. FASTA is always offered as an alternative.

# The traditional view on sequence data

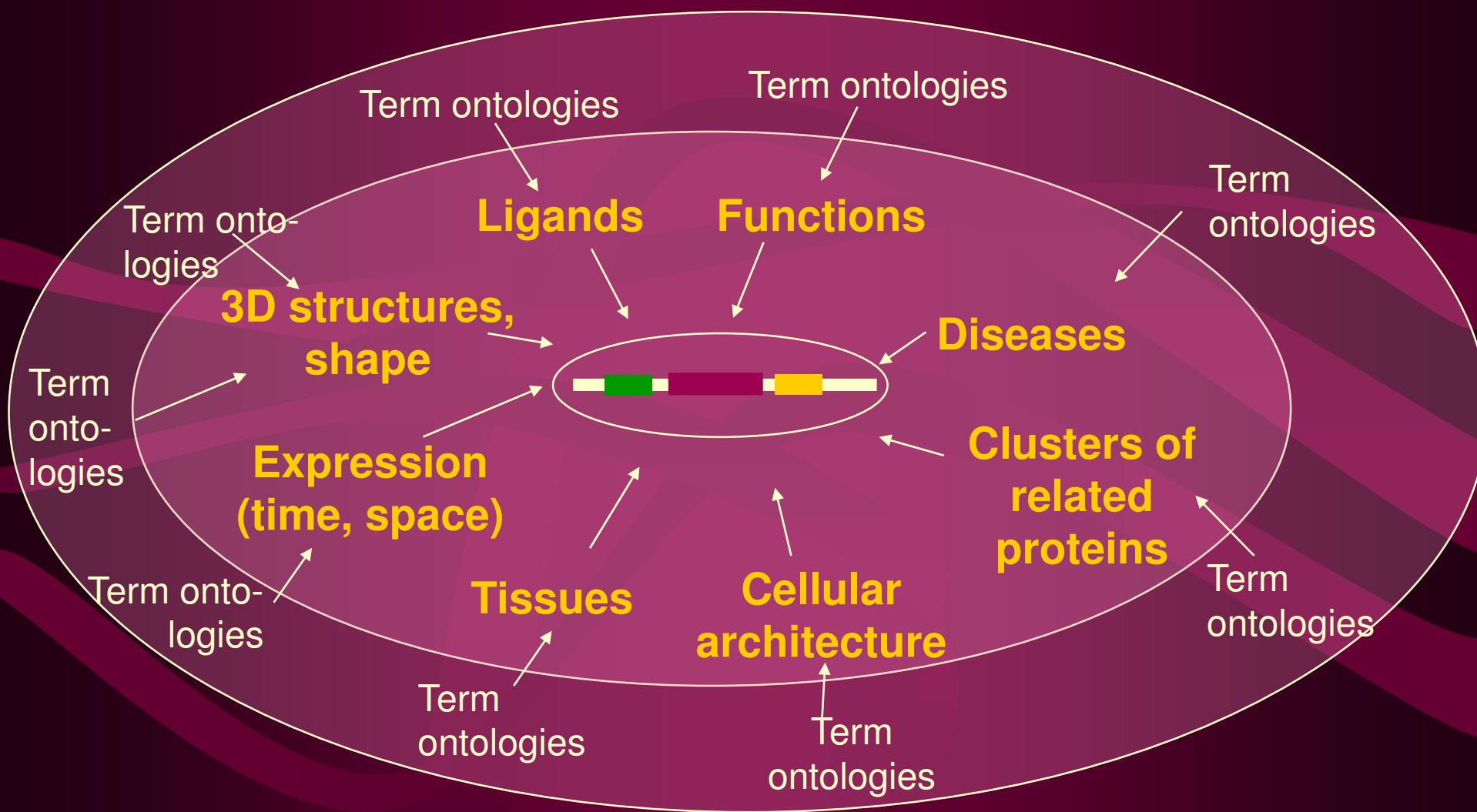
**Global descriptors**  
e.g. function



**Annotation requires  
database search and  
knowledge of biology**

**Local descriptors**  
e.g. binding sites,  
domains

# Current view on sequence data 1: systematically annotated data



# Current view on sequence data 1: systematically annotated data A

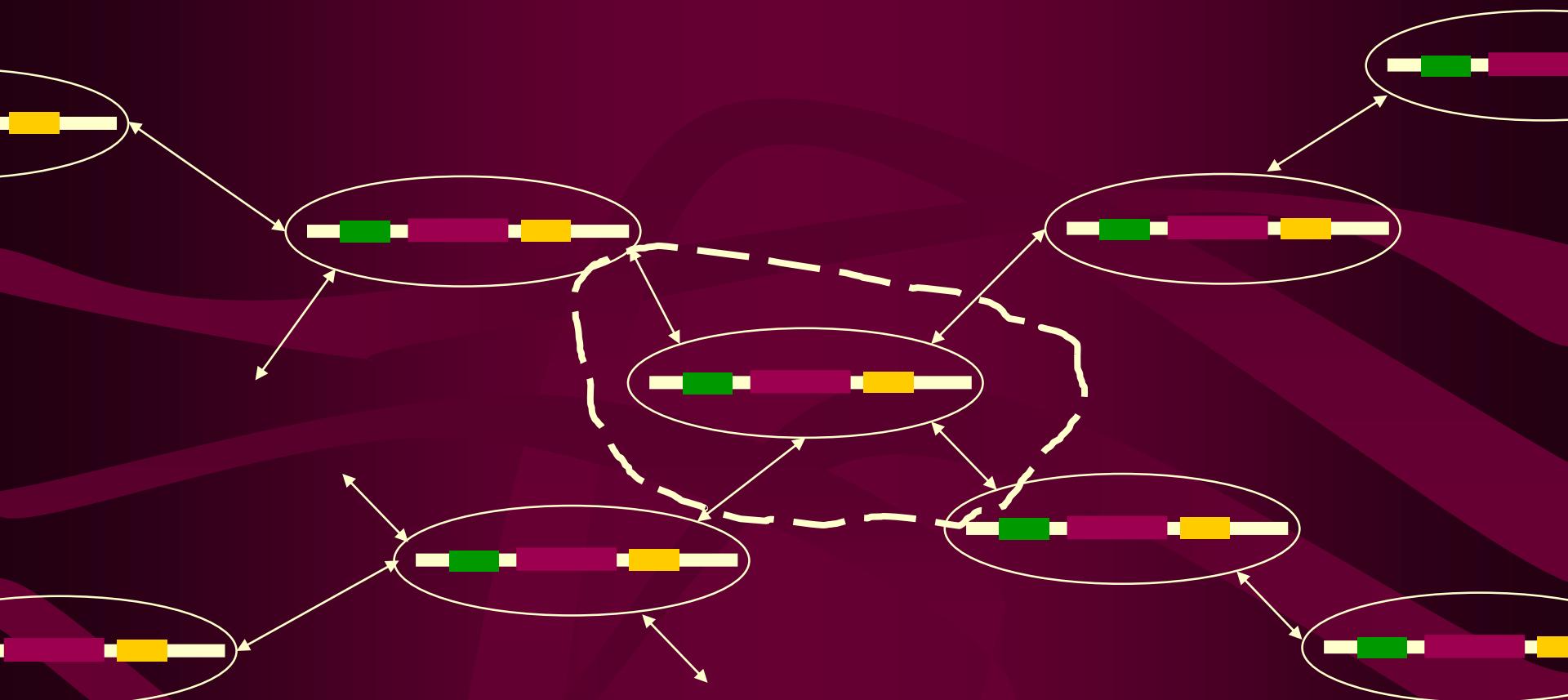
Links to physical, biological,  
chemical items (function etc.)



Annotated data item  
(sequence)

Links to ontologies  
(vocabularies, definitions)

# Current view on sequence data 2: a data-network of various items

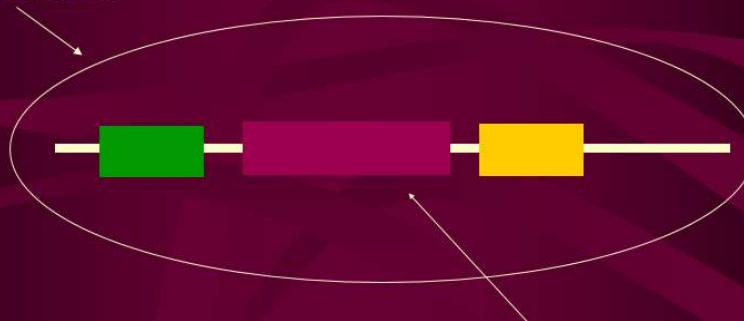


- A dense network connected by explicit (clickable) and potential (computable) links
- An item is an arbitrarily delimited subnetwork, not an independent unit.

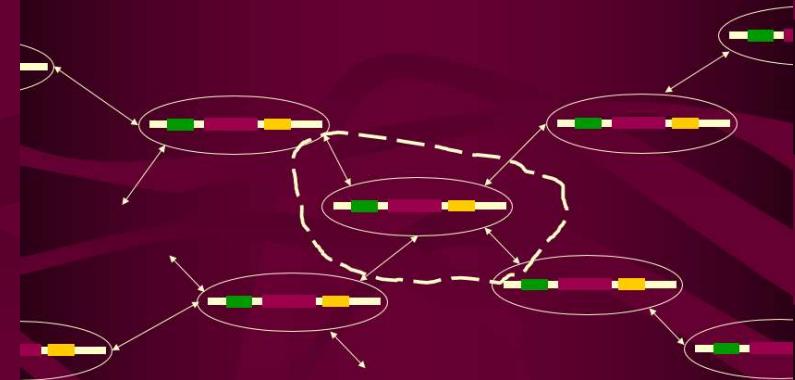
# Traditional and current views on bioinformatics data

## The traditional view on sequence data

Global descriptors  
e.g. function



## Current view on sequence data 2: a data-network of various items



The „data network” is never „complete”.  
Realistic database architecture include  
only selected items.

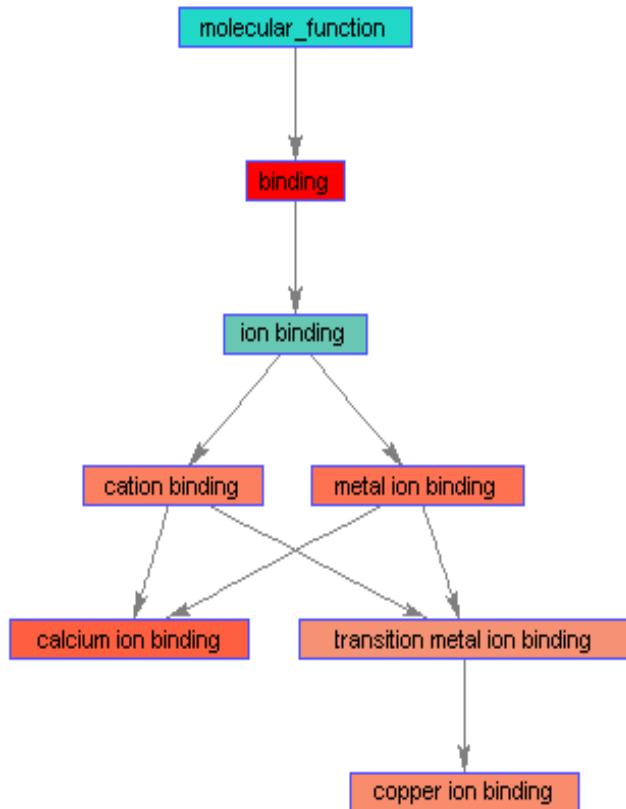


# The language of metadata

- Separate (arbitrary) conventions for bibliographic data, for version history, cross references, etc
- Organized languages for function (Gene ontology), for 3D structure (Protein Ontology) etc.
- Organized structures for local descriptors: feature table of GFF format.



## II. SEMANTICS: Standardized concepts + standardized language = ontology.



- 1) Simplest form: added keywords
- 2) The **Gene Ontology (GO) project** standardizes the names and functional description of genes and proteins, in the form of concept hierarchies (directed acyclic graphs).

→ Comparable descriptors: “copper binding” is near “ion-binding”).

Separate GO ontologies  
Molecular function,  
Cellular component,  
Biological process

[www.geneontology.org/](http://www.geneontology.org/)

*The long and winding road towards machine-readability*

# Main tasks in database construction

(sequence databases as an example)

1. Data collection, storage
2. Validation (e.g. is the ORF real?)
3. Clustering (Classification, redundancy filtering)
4. Annotation (crossrefs + text)
5. Integration, visualization

# How many kinds of protein sequence databases?

- **Raw** (only sequence + some predicted function) **vs.** **annotated** (provided with additional info)
- **Comprehensive** (all organisms) **vs.** **species specific** (e.g. human, yeast etc)
- **Primary** (full sequences) **vs. secondary** (derived entities, like domain sequences, modification sites etc.)

## Notes:

- 1) These are just the main points, there are countless other, “boutique” databases
- 2) Dedicated journals: Nucleic Acids Research (NAR) Database issue, NAR Web issue, “Database” Journal

# I. How raw protein sequence databases are prepared/updated

Nyers adatbázis előállítása automatikus módszerrel

- **Data collection:** genome sequencing projects, individual sequences → DNA sequences → machine translation into open reading frames (ORFs)
- **Redundance filtering:** preparation of a nearly non-redundant dataset (e.g. using clustering)
- **Comparison with previous release** - a dataset of known and function-annotated proteins. In case of strong similarities a putative function is assigned (“probable protease”) as an ID
- The TrEMBL database (Translated EMBL) is prepared this way.

# Identification of Open reading frames (ORFs) in prokaryotes

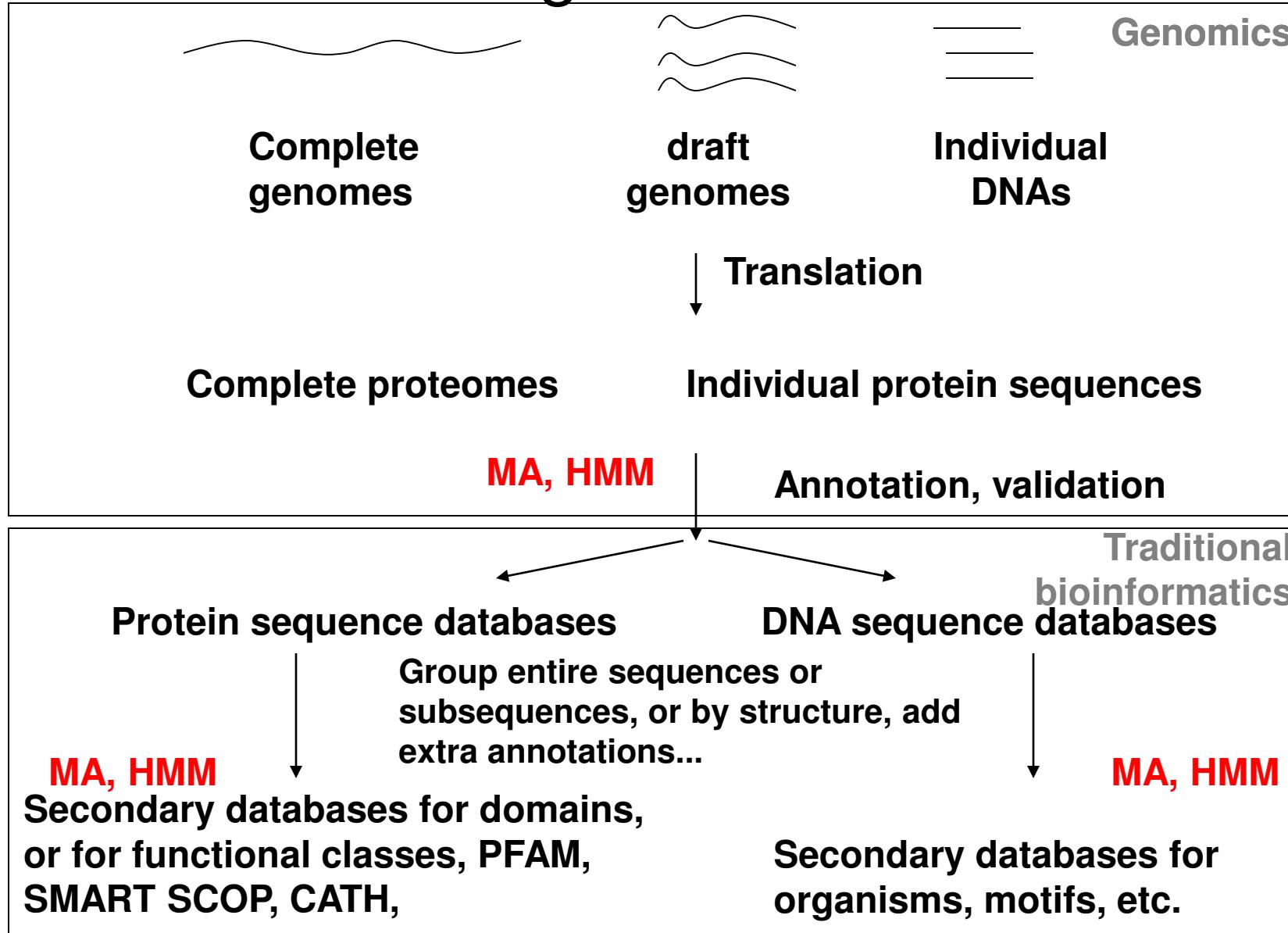
- An open reading frame in a raw DNA sequence may or may not code a protein sequence. Rough translation according to the codon usage table (CUT) can be misleading.
- Simple programs, like GLIMMER (Steve Salzberg) identify runs of translatable codons (in 6 reading frames), delimited by start and stop codons.
- Start/stop is identified by CUT + short motifs statistically determined previously for a taxonomic group. Probable sequence errors are corrected.
- ORFs above a length threshold are reported. Almost perfect, in practice we find erroneous stops, starts probably due to too low quality sequences.

Example of a first step...

## II. Preparing an annotated database

- Annotation is info added to raw data.
- Based on human intervention, literature searching, similarity searching, calculations,
- Main elements
  - Literature citations (where was it published, where was the sequence determined, etc.)
  - Cross-reference to other databases (3D, DNA, gnomes)
  - Known or predicted functions,
  - Known mutations, variants.
  - Known parts (e.g. domains, active center of enzymes, metal-binding sites etc.).

# How sequence databases are organized....



# Examples

- Comprehensive protein database → Uniprot

<http://www.uniprot.org/>

- Protein domain database → Pfam

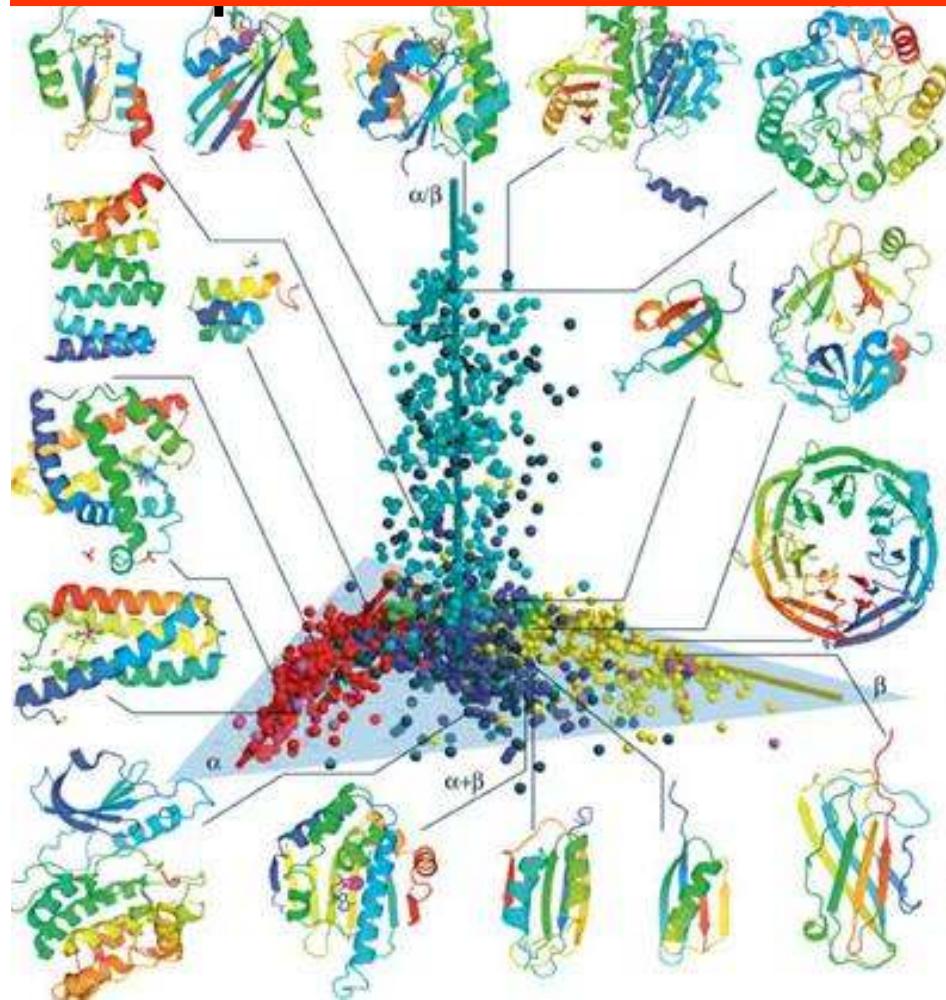
<http://pfam.janelia.org/>

# Concepts you need to know for understanding protein databases

- Domains (structural and evolutionary units, parts in larger sequences, amenable to multiple alignment)
- Single domain proteins, multidomain proteins
- COGs (clusters of orthologous proteins): sequences of common evolutionary origin carrying the same function
- Protein families: Like COGs. Emphasis on sequence and structural similarity
- UNIPROT clusters: automated sequence clusters, characterized by % identity only.

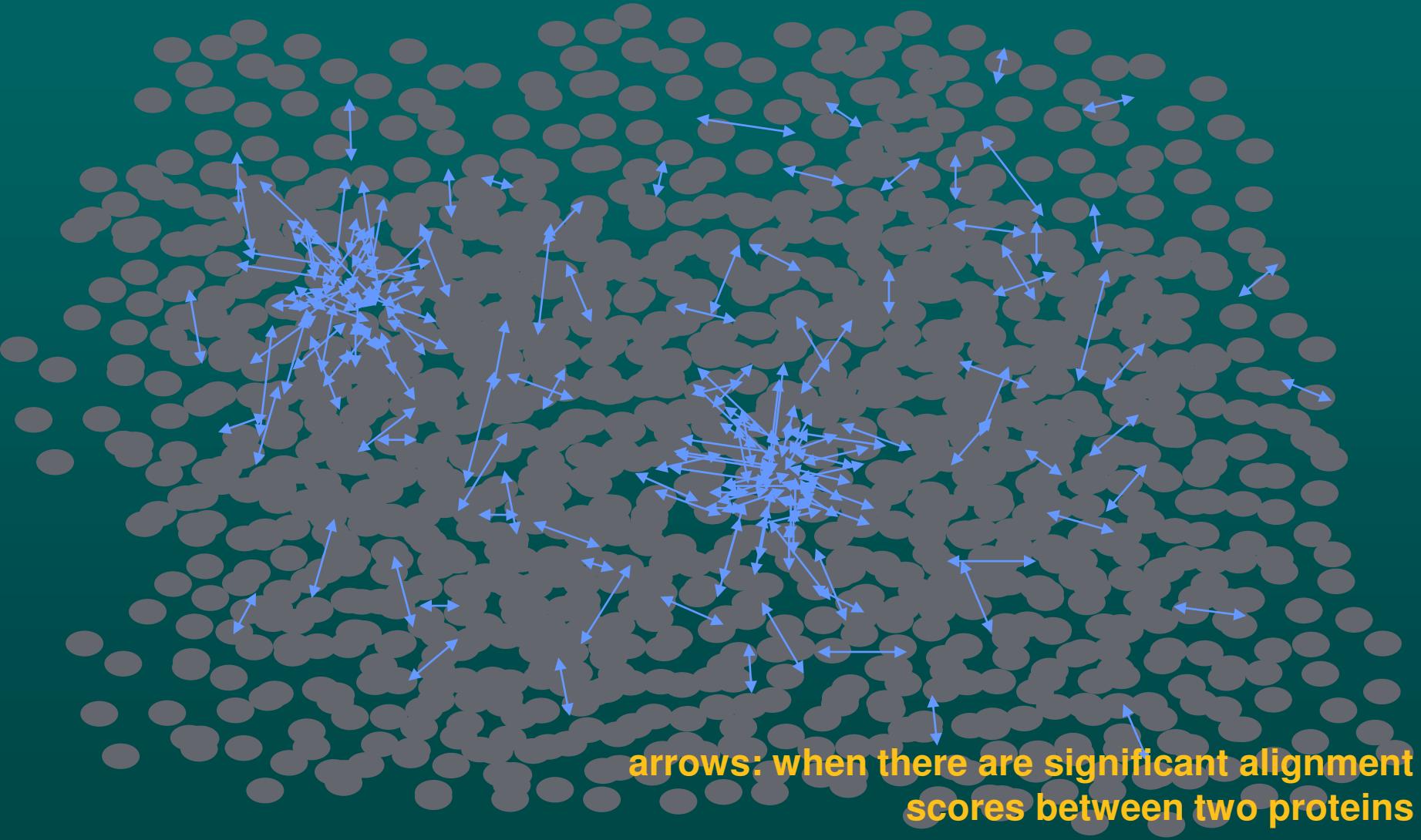


# What are clusters? The protein Universe

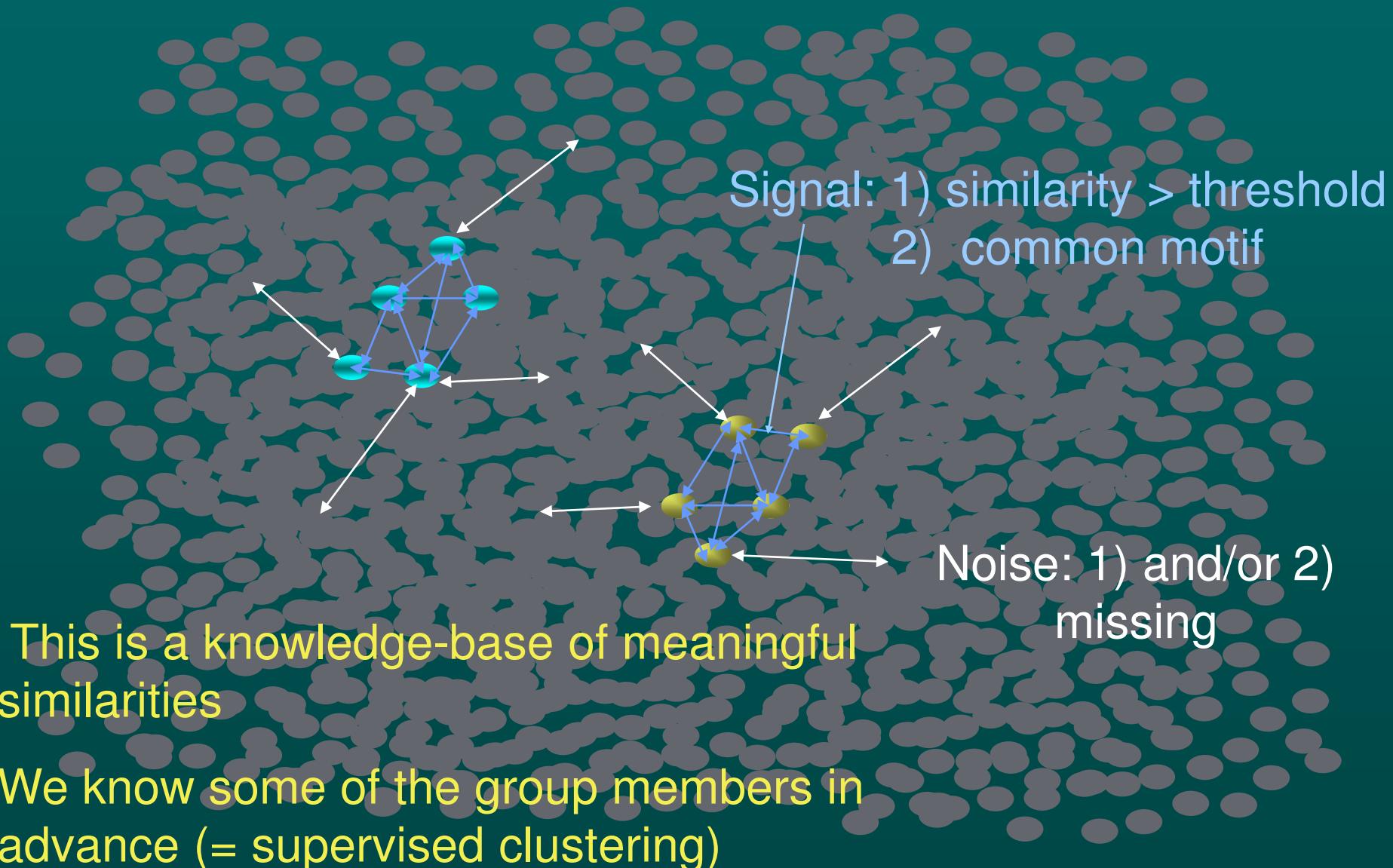


A weighted graph,  
nodes = proteins  
edges = similarities

# The (protein sequence) database as network of similarities: clustering

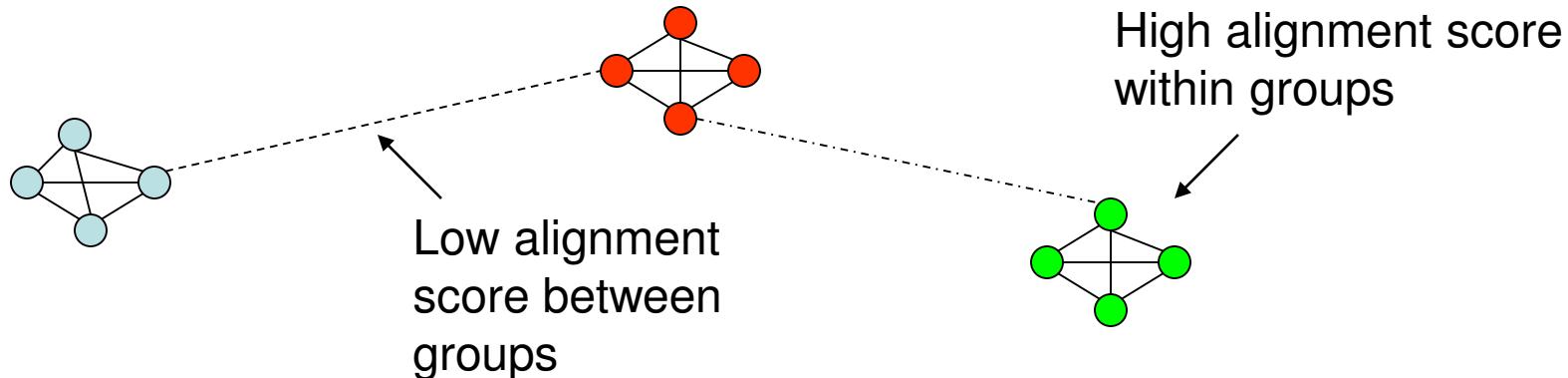


# From data to knowledge in a protein sequence database: distinguish signal from noise



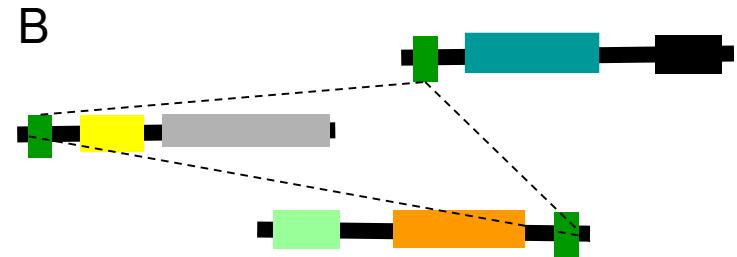
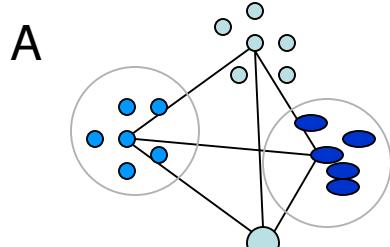


# The protein universe (as a sequence similarity network)



- Proteins of all organisms is “the protein universe”. A cumulative result of evolution...
- Contains many tightly connected “**similarity groups**” – these are those **protein families** that share structure and function (orthologs)
- Usually : If a sequence is >90% identical with members of very little similarity between the groups
- **Trivial classification** is to assign a sequence to a group where it belongs there... Most protein similarities are trivial so classification can be almost always done by alignment.. The rest is *difficult!!!*

- Proteins consisting of a single domain form +/- clearcut groups (families), but deeper analysis may reveal subroups (A)
- Multi-domain proteins are connected to many different families and are difficult do deal with because of the shared domains (B)



# 1) Knowledge-based clusters

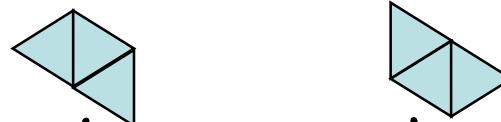
- Database of orthologous groups (COG)  
NCBI – full sequences, best for  
prokaryotic groups (function-based)
- SBASE library of protein domain  
sequences – domains, local homology  
assignments (**developed originally by our  
group**)

# COG clustering

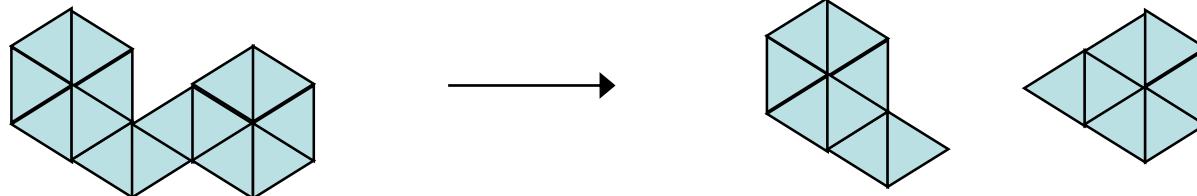
- Detect triangles of best hits between genomes



- Merge triangles with a common side to form COGs



- Case-by-case 'manual' analysis, examination of large COGs (might be split up)



# COGs Categories

## INFORMATION STORAGE AND PROCESSING

- [J] Translation, ribosomal structure and biogenesis
- [A] RNA processing and modification
- [K] Transcription
- [L] Replication, recombination and repair
- [B] Chromatin structure and dynamics

## CELLULAR PROCESSES AND SIGNALING

- [D] Cell cycle control, cell division, chromosome partitioning
- [Y] Nuclear structure
- [V] Defense mechanisms
- [T] Signal transduction mechanisms
- [M] Cell wall/membrane/envelope biogenesis
- [N] Cell motility
- [Z] Cytoskeleton
- [W] Extracellular structures
- [U] Intracellular trafficking, secretion, and vesicular transport
- [O] Posttranslational modification, protein turnover, chaperones

# COG/KOG orthologous groups

- ~3000 prokaryotes (bacteria, archaea, viruses)
- ~5000 for eukaryotes

Now the completely human curated COG/KOG is still intensively used, but there are more recent versions, like EGGNOG, which is to a large part machine/created

# Other approaches to knowledge based protein clustering

- The goal is to find domains, i.e. autonomously evolving units of protein structure
- Early approaches relied on manual work
  - PROSITE: clusters described with sequence motifs (Swiss Bioinformatics Institute)
  - SBASE: clusters defined as searchable sequence collections (our group) (similar to COG)

# Other approaches to knowledge based protein clustering

- Modern approaches use clusters (at least one member) with known 3D structures (if available)
- Groups represented as multiple alignments, profile.
- Typical example: PFAM (Sanger Institute, Cambridge, UK)

# Why are 3D based clusters important?

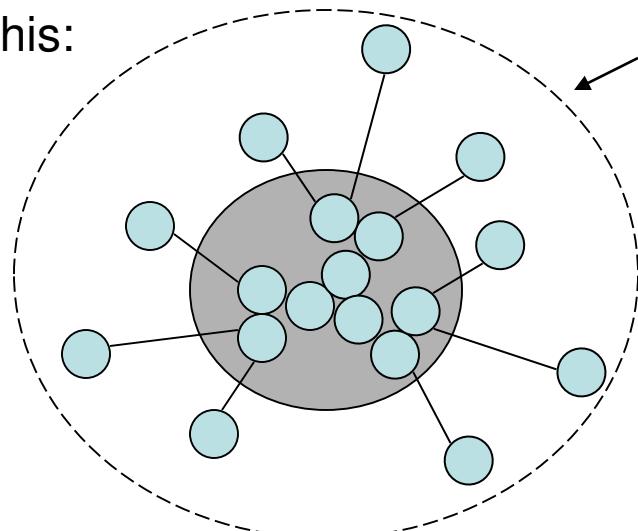
- Because of evolution. (Most) Proteins evolve by retaining a typical 3D shape
- As genes are duplicated, several independent sequence families arise within the same shape. Then slowly, new shapes emerge.
- So a combined 3D + sequence classification gives insight into long range evolution.
- Typical example: PFAM (Sanger Institute, Cambridge, UK)



Now: unsupervised classification

# But how do we automatically find sequence clusters?

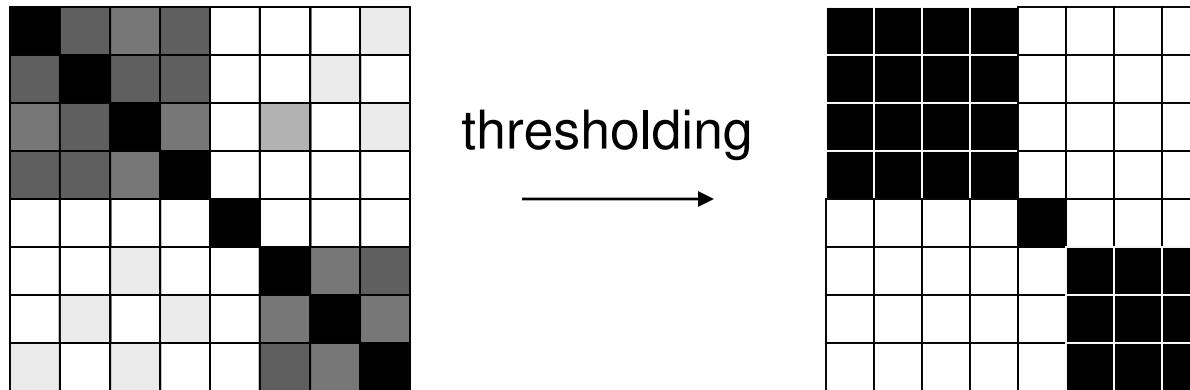
Like this:



Complete similarity group (difficult, needs manual checking/annotation)

“X% identity group” (Easy, 90% identity indicates functional identity. These are the un-annotated clusters, like UNIREF)

# Heuristic solution to sequence clustering...



- All against all comparison gives a matrix of similarity measures
- Apply a strict threshold: sequences above 90% residue identity belong to the same cluster, otherwise not.  
(Tarján Róbert's method for finding connected components in graphs)

# What is then the problem? (1)

- **Problem 1: Time** All-against-all is too expensive to compute with the only suitable algorithm (string alignment with dynamic programming).
- **Solution 1:** Use an inexpensive description at first, like word presence-absence vectors

# What is the problem? (2)

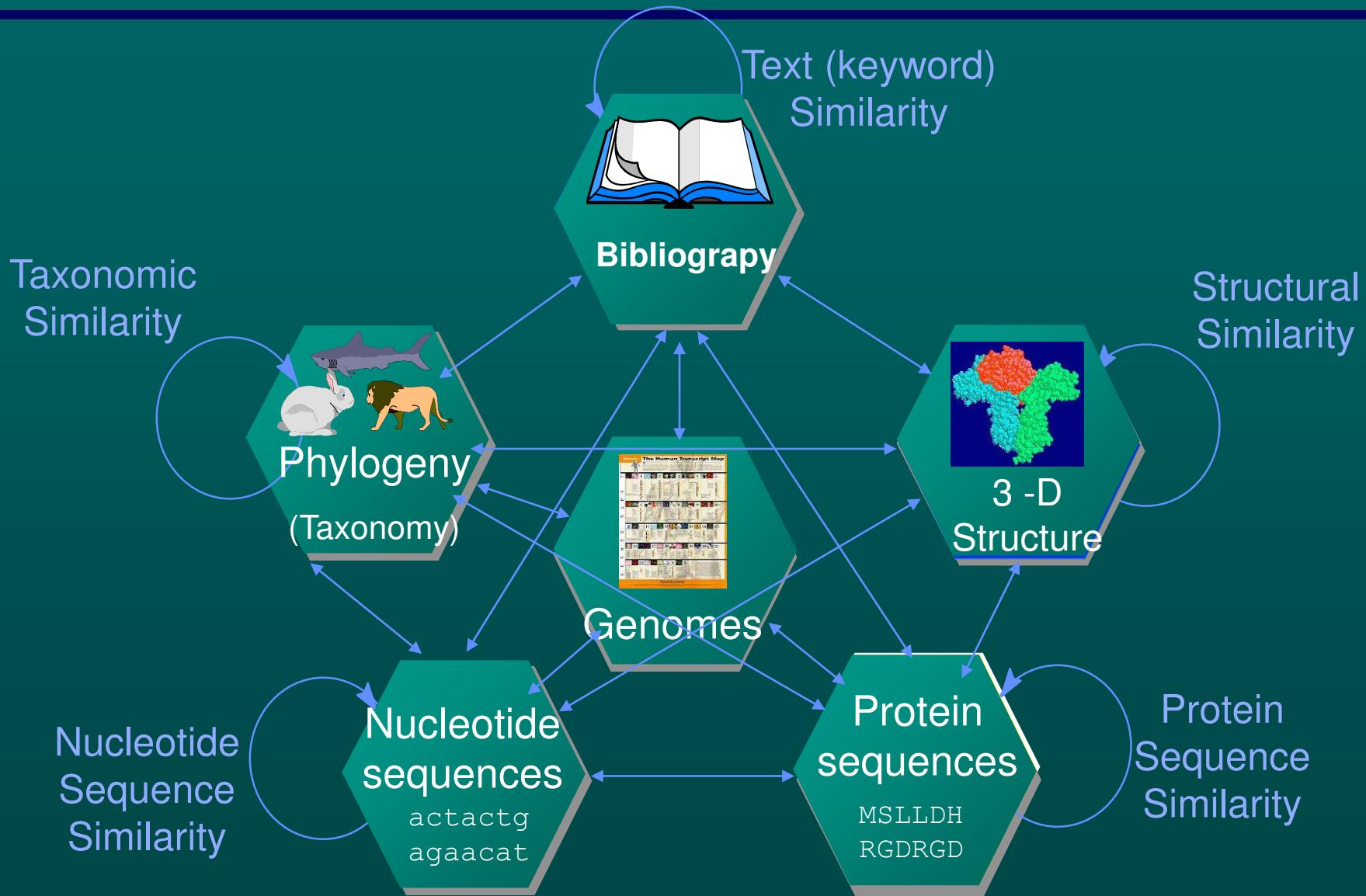
- **Problem 2: Memory** Word-frequency vectors AND All-against-all matrices are too big (but fortunately, sparse)
- **Solution 2.1:** Use a compressed representation for word frequency matrices
  - a) hash table (sequence x: word1, word2,..)
  - or b) index table (word x: seq1, seq2, ...)
- **Solution 2.2:** Compute all-against-all only for the groups found OK by word frequency..

# The (current) solution for protein sequence clustering

- Represent sequences as an index table
- 1) For sequence  $i=1$ : retrieve all sequences that share a „sufficient number” of identical words.
- 2) Do an all-against-all comparison for the retrieved group. Those sequences that are above threshold (say, 90 % identity), are recorded in cluster 1, and excluded from further comparison.
- Repeat steps 1 and 2 until there are no more sequences.

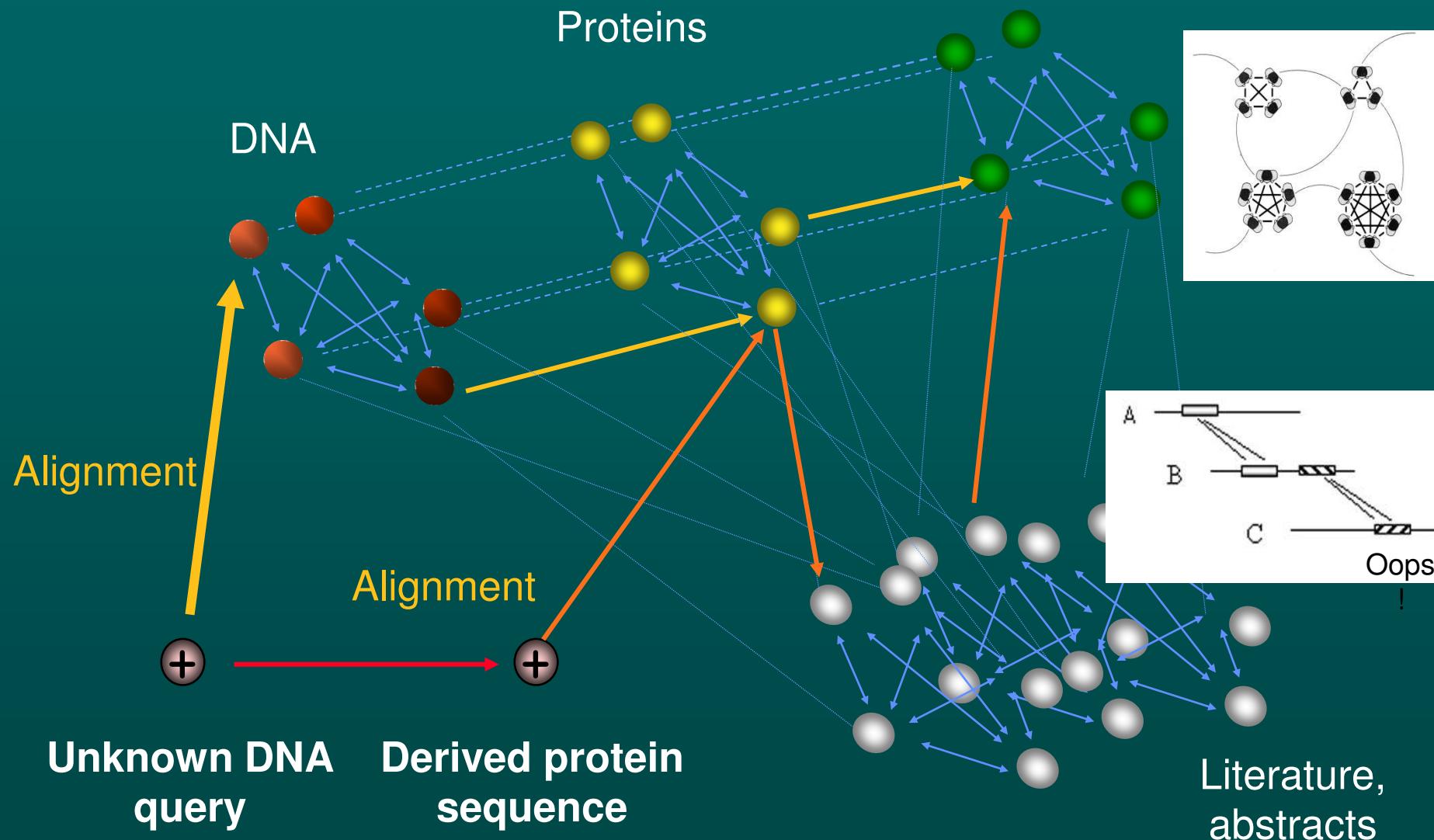
This is how the clusters of the UNIPROT sequence database are prepared (Adam Godzik, CD-hit program)

# An integrated database resource at the NCBI: a network of clustered data



# Search on a preprocessed, integrated database: the importance of a good neighbourhood

## 3D Structures



# What you should know

!

- Main data types, main tasks
- Logical structure and current dbase formats
- Generation of raw databases and annotated databases
- Types of sequence databases  
(primary/secondary, raw/annotated, comprehensive/specialized)
- Ontologies
- Protein Universe as Clusters of proteins
- Examples
  - Uniprot (main current sequence dbase)
  - PFAM (main domain dbase)
    - ... will be shown during practicals)