Integration of data management and analysis for genome research

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In S. Schubert, B. Reusch and N. Jesse (eds.), "Informatik bewegt". *Lecture Notes in Informatics (LNI) - Proceedings* P-20, 10–21.

Abstract: Technological advances in genome research have produced unprecedented volumes of genetic and molecular data that now provide the context for any biological research. However, data access, curation, and analysis have remained challenging areas for continued research and development and often prove to be the bottleneck for scientific progress.

Many a paper in bioinformatics or even in general molecular biology these days start out just like the abstract above, with an acknowledgement of the explosive growth of molecular sequence, structure, and expression data. What fit nicely within the printed pages of a thin booklet only 25 years ago now comprises large and increasingly complex databases that are Web-accessible to the public. Figure 1 shows the growth on one major molecular sequence repository - GenBank, maintained at the U.S. National Center of Biotechnology Information (NCBI). The slope of the curve is indeed impressive. However, the actual size of the data sets would seem to be easily dwarfed by database sizes in other commercial, governmental, or even other research fields. What then is the real problem, if any, facing the biology community?

I think there are many aspects for consideration. One important facet is that the molecular databases themselves have evolved over the years, and surely many details of database design should have been done differently in hindsight. However, the rapid pace of new data acquisition has so far prevented any major re-design and re-construction of the databases the community is accustomed to. Another critical point is that the data derive from a large variety of sources and are intrinsically heterogenous. There are no uniform standards for data quality and annotation. In these notes I shall not further discuss the challenges faced by the large database providers, but rather I shall review the problem first from the point of a user and then suggest some approaches we have pursued to provide intermediate solutions.

Growth of GenBank



Figure 1: Molecular Database Growth (from www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Genbank/genbankstats.html).

1 Some Comments on the Current Status of Molecular Databases

1.1 Existing Data Retrieval Systems

Two of the centralized, prominent Web access points to existing sequence and molecular biology data are the Entrez system at NCBI (www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Entrez/) and the SRS system developed in Europe (www.embl-heidelberg.de:80/srs5/). Both systems are limited in three ways: 1) data are provided in flat file formats only, often requiring much user manipulation after receipt; 2) retrievals are inflexible, and do not

support items such as ranges and numerical operators (e.g., >, <, etc.), and 3) the Web and email server user interfaces are non-intuitive and force users to learn specific query syntaxes in order to use them effectively. For example, with current query protocols it is not possible to retrieve "all GenBank genomic DNA entries with a single CDS feature annotation"; or the subset of the previous query restricting the retrieved entries to "CDS with at least two annotated coding exons"; or "the DNA sequence segments in FASTA format for 500 nucleotides immediately upstream of the annotated ATG start codon"; or protein records including their cognate cDNA sequence (see Section 1.3 for further examples).

1.2 Annotation Errors in Public Databases

Publicly available biological databases should be distinguished as either data repositories or curated databases. These two categories serve very different needs. Data repositories, including most prominently GenBank, provide centralized access to original data. Curated databases, on the other hand, provide annotated data according to the curators' discretion. In practice, of course, these distinctions tend to be blurred, and most databases serve a mixture of original and annotated data, or data with rather limited annotation. The data repositories are essential when a researcher needs to locate particular data from its original source. For example, a search of GenBank might quickly turn up a particular protein sequence translated from its corresponding genomic and cDNA sequence determined by author A in year X. Subsequently, errors in the interpretation of the data may be discovered, or author B may publish a corrected sequence independently in year Y. In this case, the data repository would still retain author A's entry, but in a curated database a single entry should represent the combined interpreted data (one correct sequence, or annotation of allelic variation). Brenner [Bre99] estimated the error rate of functional assignment in gene annotation to be at least 8%.

To illustrate these problems, we followed up on a number of erroneous GenBank entries pointed out by Korning *et al.* [KHRB96]. These authors built a training set for a neural network algorithm to predict splice sites in *Arabidopsis* genes and encountered "an alarmingly high error rate" in the requisite GenBank annotation. While some errors were due to typographical misprints that could be corrected by comparison with the original papers, many errors were found to be systematic shift errors created by wrong assignments of splice sites (see below). Table 1 of the Korning *et al.* paper listed 24 specific GenBank entries with erroneous splice site annotations. Our present re-checking of these files revealed that only five of these entries have been corrected in the past six years. For others, the mostly obvious annotation errors remain. Figure 2 gives one example. For other files, splice sites are erroneously assigned when the 5' and 3' sequences are identically AGGT (the correct assignment is agGT ... AGgt, intron residues in capitals; based on cognate cDNA matching alone, there are four alternative assignments matching up the aggt of the cDNA).

It is evident that erroneous data place a heavy burden on individual researchers who have to devote a large effort to clean up the errors before the data can be successfully used in their research. Even more disturbing is the persistence and propagation of errors in the

| LOCUS CDS | ATKIN2 join(104. | | DNA .390,504 | PL1 | N 2 | 3-JUL-1992 | | |
|---|--|---------------------|---------------------|------------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------------|--|--|
| EST Accession 3450035: | | | | | | | | |
| Exon 2 Intron 2 | 78 160 (161 321 (322 390 (391 504 (505 785 (| 69 n); c 114 n); | DNA 81 Pd: 0.999 | l 149 (9 (s: 0.96) | 69 n); s , Pa: 0.9 | core: 0.971 64 (s: 0.98) | | |
| Alignment (genomic DNA sequence = upper lines): | | | | | | | | |
| | AAAAAATATC TGA AAA-AATTTC TGA | | | | | | | |
| | TGGCAAAGCT GAG | | TCTCTCTTA | GAACAGAGTA | CTGATAGA | TT 197 | | |
| | TGGCCAAGCT GAG | | | | | 80 | | |
| ////// | | | | | | | | |
| | AGCAATGTTC TGC | | | | | | | |
| TTCCGCGCAA | CAGGTAAACG ATC | CTATACAC A | CATTATGAC | ATTTATGTAA | AGAATGAA | AA 437 | | |
| | | | | | | 149 | | |
| ////// | | | | | | | | |
| | GGAAAGAGTA TA1 | | | | | | | |
| | GGAAAGAGTA TAT | | | | | | | |
| CAAGACCGGC | CTGAACAAGT AGO | GATCCGA G | TCAACTTTG | GGAGTTATAA | TTTCCCTT | TT 617 | | |
| | | | | | | | | |
| ////// | | | | | | | | |
| <pre>>Pcorrect (gi 399298 sp P31169 KIN2_ARATH) MSETNKNAFQ AGQAAGKAEE KSNVLLDKAK DAAAAAGASA QQAGKSISDA AVGGVNFVKD KTGLNK</pre> | | | | | | | | |

>Pfalse (gi|16354|emb|CAA44171.1) MSETNKNAFQ AGQAAGKAER RRAMFCWTRP RMLLLQLELP RNRAGKSISD AAVGGVNFVK DKTGLNK

Figure 2: Example of an erroneous GenBank annotation. The GenBank CDS gives incorrect assignment of both acceptor sites (319 should be 321, 503 should be 504), as pointed out by Korning et al. [KHRB96]. Spliced alignment with an *Arabidopsis* EST by the GeneSeqer program [UB00] proves the correct assignment (identities between the genomic DNA, upper lines, and EST, lower lines, are indicated by |; positions of the rightmost residues in each sequence block are given on the right; introns are indicated by ...; for brevity, some sequence segments are replaced by //////). The erroneous intron assignment led to an incorrect protein sequence prediction (Pfalse). Both the incorrect sequence and the correct protein sequence (Pcorrect) persist in the NCBI non-redundant protein database under different accessions. databases. For example, assessment of protein sequence similarity is the major annotation tool for novel genomic and cDNA sequences. Spurious similarities will lead to further misclassifications.

1.3 Examples of Data Retrieval Challenges for Specific Research Questions

Many interesting questions in molecular biology, genomics, and bioinformatics involve initial data preparation steps that, although conceptually simple, can in practice turn out to very cumbersome and time-consuming. We illustrate such problems with a few typical examples. While drawn from our own research interests, the examples easily generalize and will be familiar to many researchers.

1.3.1 Derivation of Non-redundant Sets of Homologous Proteins

We have a keen interest in pre-mRNA processing in plants. As part of our studies, we have cloned several maize genes with high sequence similarity to vertebrate splicing factors. In particular, we have cloned a putative maize homolog of the human SC35 protein. To study the molecular phylogeny of this splicing factor and to characterize individual members of this multi-gene family, we decided to build our own database of SC35-related proteins. We pursued several common paths to derive this sequence collection: (1) Entrez text search for "SC35"; (2) NCBI BLAST search [AMS+97] with human SC35 against the non-redundant protein database GenPept; (3) NCBI BLASTX search against dbEST. Figure 3 gives the (partial) output for approach (2); approach (1) gave a similar set. As displayed, human SC35 can be accessed by nine different accession numbers. The two groups of identical sequences represented by gi|6755478 and gi|4506899 differ by a single residue in the 221 amino acid protein. Thus, while Entrez provides a starting point for data collection, the process of deriving a non-redundant set of sequences is currently very cumbersome - the different accessions must be downloaded locally and pairwise compared, representative sequences must be selected, and a final data set must be derived in a common format.

1.3.2 Identification of potential chloroplast proteins in Arabidopsis thaliana

Now that the complete genome of the model dicot *Arabidopsis thaliana* is essentially at hand, many interesting questions can be posed and studied at the whole genome level. One such question concerns the cellular targeting of nuclear-encoded proteins. One approach is to use sequence analysis to determine the protein composition of the chloroplast. Because the chloroplast is believed to have derived from a cyanobacterial endosymbiont precursor, the following strategy seems reasonable: (1) retrieve the (FASTA-formatted) database of all *Arabidopsis* proteins and of all *Synechocystis* proteins (a completely sequenced cyanobacterium); (2) use a local BLAST comparison [AMS ⁺97] to derive a set of significantly related pairs of proteins with one member of the pair each from one of the two species; (3) identify a potential signal peptide in the *Arabidopsis* proteins with

significant similarity to cyanobacterial proteins; and (4) determine possible roles for the identified proteins in biochemical pathways associated with the chloroplast. The intersection of sequence sets identified by (2)-(4) should provide a highly reliable set of definite chloroplast proteins. Novel methods for signal peptide identification can then be developed with this set as the positive training set. This approach is easily stated but its execution currently involves extensive programming and scripting.

Query= gi|539663|pir||A42701 PR264/SC35 protein -human (221 letters)
Database: nr 511,898 sequences; 160,474,304 total letters

| Sequences producing significant alignments: | Score (bits) | E Value |
|--|--|-------------------------|
| <pre>gi 3929383 sp Q62093 SFR2_MOUSE SPLICING FACTOR, ARGININE/SERINE. gi 266991 sp P30352 SFR2_CHICK SPLICING FACTOR, ARGININE/SERINE gi 6755478 ref NP_035488.1 splicing factor, arginine/serine-ri. gi 4506899 ref NP_003007.1 splicing factor, arginine/serine-ri. gi 7243688 gb AAF43415.1 AF232775_1 (AF232775) SR family splicin. gi 423485 pir A46241 interferon response element-binding factor. gi 3929375 gb AAC78303.1 (AF064592) RNA-binding protein [Schist. gi 3929375 sp Q09511 SFR2_CAEEL PUTATIVE SPLICING FACTOR, ARGINI. gi 7446336 pir T09704 probable arginine/serine-rich splicing fa.</pre> | 185 182 140 124 117 116 | 2e-46 2e-46 2e-45 |
| >gi 3929383 sp Q62093 SFR2_MOUSE SPLICING FACTOR, ARGININE/SERINE (SC-35) (SPLICING COMPONENT, 35 KD) (PR264 PROTEIN) >gi 1405747 emb CAA67134.1 (X98511) PR264/SC35 [Mus m | | |
| <pre>>gi 266991 sp P30352 SFR2_CHICK SPLICING FACTOR, ARGININE/SERINE- (SC-35) (SPLICING COMPONENT, 35 KD) (PR264 PROTEIN) >gi 539509 pir B42701 PR264 protein - chicken >gi 63752 emb CAA44306.1 (X62446) PR 264 [Gallus gall >gi 228503 prf 1805195A RNA-binding protein PR264 [Ga</pre> | us] | lus] |
| >gi 6755478 ref NP_035488.1 splicing factor, arginine/serine-ri >gi 539663 pir A42701 PR264/SC35 protein - human >gi 35597 emb CAA44307.1 (X62447) PR 264 [Homo sapien >gi 455419 emb CAA53383.1 (X75755) PR264/SC35 [Homo s >gi 3335676 gb AAC71000.1 (AF077858) SC35 [Mus muscul >gi 228504 prf 1805195B RNA-binding protein PR264 [Hom | s] apiens] us] | |
| <pre>>gi 4506899 ref NP_003007.1 splicing factor, arginine/serine-ri >gi 266992 sp Q01130 SFR2_HUMAN SPLICING FACTOR, ARGININE/SERINE-RICH 2 (SPLICING FACTOR SC35) (SC-35) (SPLICING COMPONENT, 35 KD) (PR264 PROTEIN) >gi 420095 pir A42634 splicing factor SC35 - human >gi 337926 gb AAA60306.1 (M90104) splicing factor [Homesica]</pre> | | 15] |

Figure 3: (Partial) NCBI BLASTP output of a default query with a human SC35 protein sequence. Resolution of the query result into a non-redundant set of SC35-homologs would require much additional work of sequence and annotation comparisons.

1.3.3 Conserved Proteins Between Plants and Fungi but not Animals

Similar to the previous problem, in this example the query involves initially the intersection of two sequence sets (plant and fungal protein sequences). Subsequently, we are interested in the complement of the result of the first intersection intersected with a third set (animal

proteins). The initial protein sets would be the complete protein repertoires of model organisms, and conservation would be assessed on the basis of strong sequence similarity.

1.3.4 Identification of Promoter Motifs for Co-regulated Genes

A novel data resource of increasing application derives from microarray gene expression studies. A typical outcome of the analysis of such data would be the clustering of specific genes that appear to be co-regulated. Further analysis of such gene clusters would typically be directed at the 5'-untranslated regions of these genes in search for common promoter motifs. A starting point for such analysis might be the sequence window of 500 bases upstream of the initiator methionine codon of all co-regulated genes (or their close homologs in other species).



Figure 4: AtGDB - Whole genome view. The five *Arabidopsis* chromosomes are shown approximately to scale. Detailed views of particular genome locations are provided upon clicking the respective spot in the display.

2 An Arabidopsis thaliana Genome Database and Web-Workbench

A common theme across the examples given above is the need to work with a subset or "extract" of data relevant to a particular research question. From many researchers' experience, derivation of such extract can be one of the most time-consuming parts of a project. In our own work with the *Arabidopsis* genome we found data access and scope in the existing databases (TAIR, www.arabidopsis.org; MATDB, mips.gsf.de/proj/thal) too limited. Figure 4 displays one of the entry pages into our local *Arabidopsis* database (AtGDB, zmdb.iastate.edu/PlantGDB/AtGDB), developed on MySQL (www.mysql.org). The page illustrates one of the principles of molecular database interface design, which is to provide intuitive graphics to access the data in addition to command-line type access. In this case, the user can select a chromosomal segment of interest either by clicking on the graphic or by typing numberical coordinates in the toolbar fields.



Figure 5: AtGDB - Query results. "14 3 3" refers to a particular gene family. All annotated genes from this family are shown with GenBank gene model code and respective genome location.

Figure 5 shows the results of an alternative access point by querying for terms in the gene definition lines. The output lists all the locations of genes matching the search term,



Figure 6: AtGDB - Genome context view for a particular gene selected from the search results in Figure 5. The current gene model (GenBank annotation) is shown on the top in dark blue. Exons are shown as solid boxes, introns as lines. cDNA (light blue and gray) and EST (red and pink) spliced alignments are shown below (the darker colors indicate cognate locations, whereas the lighter colors indicate that the respective sequence have a better match elsewhere in the genome). The green box associates ESTs experimentally known to derive from the same gene.

and the user has again the choice to hone in on a particular gene by either clicking on the graphic or selecting the gene from the table. The listing below provides links to the GenBank repository.

The core of our database is shown in Figure 6. This schematic summarizes spliced alignment results of the type shown in Figure 2 using all available cDNAs and ESTs matching the selected locus. The display is drawn dynamically from pre-computed spliced alignment coordinates stored in the database. Clicking on a particular sequence will show the record for that sequence (Figure 7) as well as provide links to insert this sequence directly into other tools, e.g. BLAST (Figure 8).



Figure 7: AtGDB - Detail for a particular EST selected from the spliced alignment display in Figure 6. Alignment details and links to other analytical tools are available via buttons.

A detailed description of biological background and questions addressed with the database and its interface are beyond the scope of this discussion. What I hope to convey are a number of design principles that in our view are critical for providing the best possible access to the rich resource of genomic sequence data. One key element is to parse the analytical output of standard research applications on the genome sequences also into the database, in addition to the raw sequence data and annotation. In this way, the full query capabilities of the database software can be applied to the results to quickly provide genome-wide views of the data. For example, it is now trivial to pull out a list of all gene models supported by full-length cDNA evidence, or to view all matching locations of a particular gene probe, or to select all duplicated gene pairs with different exon numbers, and so forth. A second point is to link the analytical tools directly to the displayed data so that all results can be reproduced by the user, possibly using different parameter choices or additional input data. In this way, for example, the biologist who is expert on a particular subset of genes is empowered to easily check the annotation provided in the database, without the awkward steps of having to download the sequence data, format the data correctly for input into local analytical programs, and then relating the results back to the database source. Ultimately, it would be helpful to design interfaces that will allow expert curation of the database via the Web. It is likely that in another 25 years hence today's achievements will look as insignificant as the small printed collections of sequences a quarter of a century ago.



Figure 8: AtGDB - Integrated analytical tools. The EST sequence selected in Figure 7 is pasted into a text input window for a BLAST search against other sequence selections.

I would like to acknowledge the students and staff in my research group at Iowa State University who has friends and collaborators contribute greatly to these emerging ideas and implementations.

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