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## **An Integrated Database to Support Research on *Escherichia coli*<sup>1</sup>**

by

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## **Abstract**

We have used logic programming to design and implement a prototype database of genomic information for the model bacterial organism *Escherichia coli*. This report presents the fundamental database primitives that can be used to access and manipulate data relating to the *E. coli* genome. The present system, combined with a tutorial manual, provides immediate access to the integrated knowledge base for *E. coli* chromosome data. It also serves as the foundation for development of more user-friendly interfaces that have the same retrieval power and high-level tools to analyze complex chromosome organization.

# 1 Introduction

Two recent advances in biotechnology have produced a pressing need to integrate and make accessible large volumes of genomic information. First, large-scale chromosome mapping strategies [1, 5, 6, 8, 10, 11, 12, 18, 22, 24, 25, 28] are now being successfully used to determine the chromosome locations of specific DNA sequences. Second, the development of automated DNA fragment analysis and sequencing machines [9, 22] has made it possible to determine the complete DNA sequence for any organism with a small genome in a reasonable amount of time. Large-scale efforts at determining the complete DNA sequence of several model organisms have been targeted by the joint DOE/NIH Human Genome Project (HGP) [7]. Though relatively little gene sequence data has been produced by its component projects so far, approximately three gigabases of human DNA sequence will be determined in the next fifteen years. This number translates, at 2 bits per base, into approximately 750 megabytes of data, or about the size of the database that can fit onto a relatively cheap, commercially available hard disk drive for any desktop workstation. Thus, the scientific issue is not storage per se, but a mechanism for providing flexible access to stored sequence information in order to analyze it. For example, consider the process of determining large DNA sequences. A sequencing project requires extensive manipulation of the data for sequences and clones to keep track of experimental details. Systematic computational analysis of these data is also required to determine the course of continued experimentation, diagnose discrepancies and errors in the data, and evaluate progress toward the goal of completing the sequenced DNA fragment. Such systematic analysis requires reliable and flexible access to the clone and sequence information. Finally, there must be an ongoing effort to interpret the data which necessarily often involves manipulations of the data using novel methods specific to the questions asked. Yet because the methods used in determining sequences and the underlying conceptual framework for analysis are changing almost daily, an adaptable system is required that is easy and natural for practicing biologists to use when analyzing the data and designing experiments.

## 1.1 Flexibility of a Chromosome Analysis System

The answers to many challenging questions in biology require an analysis facility that combines information from different subdisciplines to form a coherent picture of the genetic basis of a biological process. Indeed, a key element in successfully interpreting the biological “meaning” of genomic sequence data hinges on the availability of a wide spectrum of information. For example, in the assignment of chromosomal locations for specific sequence in any organism, the information for clonal origin of the sequenced fragment, the high resolution physical and genetic maps for the chromosome and an analysis of the physical map related sites in the sequence to be located are needed. The most complete collection of genomic data is for *E. coli* where ~ 30% of the chromosome has been sequenced, complete low and high resolution restriction maps are available, approximately half of the genes have been identified, and several ordered libraries are available. This rich information base provides an excellent platform to explore the fundamental principles necessary to manipulate and perform comparative analysis of multiple maps to resolve the final chromosomal location of the new sequence information.

Recent improvements in experimental technologies have facilitated a shift in focus to larger-scale projects aimed at integrating more global biological information. These include attempts to identify all expressed genes in the bacterium *Escherichia coli* [23], the mouse *Mus musculus* [13, 16] and humans [2]. Consolidation of existing DNA sequence and restriction map data into a coherent representation has been the target of research efforts on the *E. coli* chromosome [3, 26] and large-scale physical mapping of several organisms such as the bacterium *E. coli* [4, 15, 17, 18, 20, 27]; the yeast

*S. cerevisiae* [12, 19]; the fruit fly *Drosophila melanogaster* [11]; the nematode *C. elegans* [29]; and all human chromosomes [8, 10, 22, 28]. Each of these efforts builds on the collective research of nearly eighty years on particular biological problems in these different species. Integrating and reconciling these different data with DNA sequence data into a knowledge base to support both broadly based research and the genome projects poses a substantial challenge.

To meet this challenge, developers of integrated systems of genomic information confront several problems that stem from the nature of the biological investigations. One major problem is that the accepted view of the information is in a continual state of flux. This goes far beyond the automatic updating of previous information required after every transaction. In scientific databases, data can be of widely different quality and even contradictory. Multiple values, or none at all (null values), for a given attribute can occur. Further, the biological concepts that underlie the organization of the database are in constant revision, and key conceptual elements may not have a meaning agreed upon by all users.

Nevertheless, it is incorrect to think that biology is chaotic or that it lacks a common language. Instead, the instabilities reflect experimental error, incompleteness of data, and controversy over the meaning of the data. Obviously, some areas of inquiry are better established than others; thus, the universe of discourse is heterogeneous with respect to controversy and quality, and therefore stability. This instability extends to the questions users wish to pose: as new experimental protocols are invented, the data types, the inferences drawn, and the questions all change. The user community is also diverse, including DNA sequencing project managers, biochemists, and population geneticists. Each scientist has a customized set of algorithms and queries. Thus, any chromosome analysis system that seeks to accommodate biological information from multiple sources must be extremely flexible in both design and use.

## 1.2 Ease of Access

The second issue is the ease of user access. While many different algorithms exist for the analysis of gene sequence information, each software package implements those algorithms using different data formats and requires the user to learn yet another set of conventions for constructing queries. Posing even relatively simple queries can require substantial effort. To ease this burden, various groups of departmental “experts” have been formed, groups to whom other scientists come for help and instruction. However, since few departments can afford professional database managers, or even formal training for their “experts,” many interesting questions go unaddressed.

Furthermore, one program package generally cannot be immediately used as input to another, and current software systems for genomic data analysis typically lack access to an integral database management facility that would enable the computationally naive molecular biologist to infer new data.

Therefore, any new system should allow users to formulate new queries as easily and as intuitively as possible and should interface with existing packages in order to maximize the amount of genome information available.

## 1.3 Reconciliation of Data

The final issue is the reconciliation of different interpretations of the data. Genetic information and gene sequence data come from multiple sources in different formats. Such sources may disagree even on the usage of common terms. A gene in one database may be understood to be the sequence data coding for a protein, while in another context it may include adjoining regulatory regions. While synonyms are easy to recognize since most databases include suitable pointers or tables, homonyms

require a knowledge of the biological literature to determine whether a protein in one database is the same as another protein described in a different database.

These difficulties complicate the normal task of assuring data integrity. Since the data should be biologically appropriate, integrity checks can and should be performed; but these require expert knowledge. For example, with DNA sequence data, checks that take advantage of the analysis of potential protein coding reading frames (ORF's) and comparison with genetic data can be quite powerful in assigning a chromosome position. Therefore, a system is needed that enables the comparison of multiple interpretations of chromosome organization.

## 1.4 Current Systems

Currently, data that has been sent to one of the centrally supported distribution mechanisms (e.g., Genbank or EMBL) is accessed via one of two techniques.

The researcher may use a limited set of tools to locate sequences similar to a specified sequence; in particular, tools exist that allow the researcher to search through the literature relating to a sequence or to sequences similar to a given sequence. Alternatively, the researcher can hire a programmer to write small, special-purpose programs designed to answer specific, unpredictable questions. The former technique is limited by the number and type of tools available. The latter technique is limited by its cost and its inability to be broadly applicable to a variety of organisms.

## 1.5 Prototype Database Based on Logic Programming

The goal of this work was to develop an environment to facilitate the analysis of genomic data. This environment requires data be easily incorporated. To address these limitations, we have used logic programming to develop a prototype database of genomic information for the model bacterial organism *Escherichia coli*. The system is extremely flexible and is relatively simple for biologists to use.

We have based our approach on logic programming for two principal reasons. First, logic programming enables rapid prototyping and adaptable data retrieval. The technical problems outlined above make it particularly important to experiment in a restricted domain before proceeding to more complex databases involving multiple genomes. Second, logic programming enables the straightforward inclusion of the query capabilities of a relational database with the ability to do pattern-matching operations against sequence data in a single declarative framework.

The virtues of logic programming to support flexible access to data are well understood. We have developed a logic programming workbench for genome analysis based on the language Prolog. This prototype environment was designed to facilitate the exploration of chromosome structure and organization [14, 21]. While the primitives we describe for accessing the data do require some computational education of the user, most queries can be formulated easily with minimum instruction. Furthermore, we have already constructed a natural-language interface that demonstrates the utility of the underlying primitives, and several graphical display interfaces written in C to visualize the spatial relationships of the integrated data and chromosome analysis features. We shall describe these interfaces in separate documents. We believe that the features included in our current system, along with the relatively short time required to construct the system, support our decision to base our implementation on the logic programming.

This report presents the fundamental database primitives that can be used to access and manipulate data relating to the *E. coli* genome. The present system, combined with a tutorial manual, provides immediate access to the integrated knowledge base for *E. coli* chromosome data and serves

as the foundation for development of user-friendly interfaces that have the same retrieval power and high level tools to analyze complex chromosome organization.

## 2 Conceptual Framework

Like the data in all experimental biological databases, the data here should be understood to be tentative. In other words, much of the data reflects a temporary state of validation. Some items are believed to be almost certain, while others are far less determined and reflect the views of the curator. Any database provides a more-or-less accurate model of reality that can be queried. The conclusions drawn from the model inherently reflect the degree of certainty in the incorporated data. The goal of our work is to make the interrogation of the model as straightforward and as flexible as possible.

The *E. coli* chromosome for this work is represented as a double-stranded circular piece of DNA of fixed length. The current implementation defines this length at 4,672,600 bases pairs. This length is an extrapolation based on the high-resolution physical map of the *E. coli* chromosome and the known lengths of assembled sequenced portions of the chromosome represented in the EcoSeq data collection [27]. Oriented sequence fragments containing 1,332,986 bases have been assigned positions [26] that account for 28.5% of the chromosome.

### 2.1 Objects with Positions on the Chromosome

The system supports queries relating to a number of different types of objects. One general category involves objects that have been assigned or mapped to positions on the chromosome. The system supports queries concerning the locations, directional arrangements, and distributions of such objects. Initially, the objects with positions on the chromosome that can be queried fall into the following categories:

1. *Kohara's clones* - the cloned DNA fragments used by Kohara [15] to determine the high-resolution physical map of the *E. coli* chromosome.
2. *Kohara's restrictions sites* - the estimated positions of restriction enzyme cut sites within Kohara's cloned *E. coli* DNA fragments, used to assemble the high-resolution physical map for the *E. coli* genome. Those restriction enzyme sites are BamHI, BglI, EcoRI, EcoRV, HindIII, KpnI, PstI, and PvuII.
3. *Fragments of sequence* - the DNA sequence contigs and individual sequences that make up the Rudd EcoSeq database. Many of the sequences have been assigned genome positions based a comparison of the distribution of restriction enzyme sites in sequences and the physical map.
4. *Restriction sites that occur within sequence fragments* - the eight same restriction enzyme DNA sequence recognition sites that were used by Kohara and have been identified by pattern analysis of the DNA sequence data. The sites are BamHI, GGATCC; BglI, GCCnnnnnGGC; EcoRI, GAATTC; EcoRV, GATATC; HindIII, AAGCTT; KpnI, GGTACC; PstI, CTGCAG; and PvuII, CAGCTG.
5. *Genes that have been identified by direct DNA sequencing* - DNA sequence regions for structural RNAs like tRNA, and rRNAs as well as protein coding regions. All genes have a length and a direction of information content that corresponds to the direction of transcription.

Some of these objects have been assigned to sections of the chromosome that have been sequenced (e.g., all “fragments of sequence,” six of Kohara’s clones, and some occurrences of genes); others have been partially sequenced or not sequenced at all.

In the following short subsections, we illustrate some of the basic queries that can be used to access data about these objects. the accompanying appendix contains a summary of the Prolog predicates that were developed to organize and manipulate this E. coli knowledge base. In a later section, we use these basic techniques to illustrate the level of interaction required to answer “higher-level” questions typical of those that might be made by a molecular biologist.

### 2.1.1 Kohara’s Clones and Restriction Sites

Each of Kohara’s clones has a unique identifier. One can access the object corresponding to a specific identifier and display it using the following Prolog query:

```
| ?- kohara_clone(' [629B]18C4',Clone),display_object(Clone).

4240715/4243455    2741           [629B]18C4           (Kohara clone)
```

Here, the system displays the position (beginning/end), length, and identifier of the clone. To list the set of Kohara restriction sites that occur in a given clone, one might use a query of the form

```
| ?- kohara_clone(' [531B]3C5',Clone),
setof(Site,(kohara_rsite(Site),contains(Clone,Site)),Sites),
display_objects(Sites).

4234059/4234064      6           EcoR5           (Kohara site)
4234092/4234097      6           EcoR5           (Kohara site)
4234292/4234297      6           EcoR5           (Kohara site)
4234440/4234450     11           Bgl1            (Kohara site)
4235157/4235162      6           EcoR5           (Kohara site)
4236072/4236082     11           Bgl1            (Kohara site)
4236533/4236538      6           EcoR5           (Kohara site)
4236665/4236675     11           Bgl1            (Kohara site)
4236848/4236853      6           EcoR1           (Kohara site)
4237609/4237614      6           Hind3          (Kohara site)
4238177/4238182      6           Hind3          (Kohara site)
4238203/4238208      6           EcoR1           (Kohara site)
4238367/4238377     11           Bgl1            (Kohara site)
4240268/4240273      6           EcoR1           (Kohara site)
```

This query retrieves exactly those Kohara physical map sites associated with clone [531B]3C5 and displays their locations and lengths.

In the last example, we introduced the use of `kohara_rsite(Object)` to retrieve an arbitrary Kohara restriction site. The following Prolog predicate allows access to Kohara restriction sites corresponding to a specific restriction enzyme:

```
| ?- kohara_rsite(Beg,End,Enzyme).
      Beg = 600,      End = 610,      Enzyme = 'Bgl1' ;
      Beg = 1458,     End = 1468,     Enzyme = 'Bgl1' ;
```



```

        Beg = 2611,      End = 2616,      Enzyme = 'Pvu2' ;
        Beg = 3709,      End = 3714,      Enzyme = 'EcoR1',
    .
    .
    .

```

By invoking `kohara_rsite/3` with the third argument instantiated, one can extract restriction sites for a specific enzyme:

```

| ?- kohara_rsite(Beg,End,'Not1').

        Beg = 25087,      End = 25094 ;
        Beg = 679216,     End = 679223 ;
        Beg = 786494,     End = 786501
    .
    .
    .

```

The predicates `all_kohara_clones(Clones)` and `all_kohara_rsites(Rsites)` are provided to collect all Kohara clones or restriction enzyme map sites. In both cases, the objects are sorted based on starting location on the chromosome.

### 2.1.2 Fragments of Sequence

Knowledge about the *E. coli* genome has progressed to the point where many of the isolated sequence entries in Genbank can be assigned locations on the chromosome [Rudd]. Our knowledge base includes those nonoverlapping entries from the EcoSeq database, each of which has an associated unique identifier. To access the position and length of a specified object, one would use a Prolog query of the form

```

| ?- dna_fragment('ECOPROC',Fragment),display_object(Fragment).

```

```

411369/412336      968      ECOPROC      (DNA fragment)

```

Note that what we are calling a “fragment” is a specified section of the chromosome that has been sequenced; to access the sequence associated with the fragment, one needs to use the tools described in Section 2.2.

To access the complete set of DNA sequence fragments, one should use the predicate `all_dna_fragments(Frag`. As with the predicates for Kohara clones and restrictions sites, the objects are ordered based on starting location.

### 2.1.3 Computed Restriction Sites

For each section of the chromosome that has been sequenced, we can compute the position of restriction sites that occur in that region. This capability is extremely useful for comparing the arrangement of sites in a new DNA fragment against a physical map of the Kohara restriction sites. The alignment of such restriction sites was one of the main methods of positioning fragments of sequence on the genome. The predicates for computed restriction sites are similar to those used to access Kohara restriction sites:

```

| ?- dna_frag_rsite(Obj).
    Obj = dna_frag_rsite(1973976,1973981,'Acc1') ;
    Obj = dna_frag_rsite(1974741,1974746,'Acc1') ;
    Obj = dna_frag_rsite(1974347,1974352,'Acy1') ;
    Obj = dna_frag_rsite(1974329,1974334,'Af13')

| ?- dna_frag_rsite(Beg,End,Enz).
    Beg = 1973976, End = 1973981, Enz = 'Acc1' ;
    Beg = 1974741, End = 1974746, Enz = 'Acc1'

| ?- dna_frag_rsite(Beg,End,'EcoR1').
    Beg = 335988, End = 335993 ;
    Beg = 338631, End = 338636 ;
    Beg = 338989, End = 338994

```

We have a large list of restriction enzymes sites that are known to the system. To compute positions any restriction enzyme site, one might use the following:

```

| ?- restriction_site('Not1',Pattern,Cuts), format('~s~n',[Pattern]).
    GCGGCCGC

| ?- restriction_site('AlwN1',Pattern,Cuts), format('~s~n',[Pattern]).
    CAGnnnCTG

```

To get the set of restriction sites corresponding to a set of restriction enzymes in a given object, one uses `restriction_sites_in_object/3`:

```

| ?- gene(aceE,Gene),
restriction_sites_in_object(Gene,['EcoR1','BamH1','BbvS1'],Sites),
display_objects(Sites).

```

123370/123375	6	GGATCC	(BamH1)
123625/123629	5	GCTGC	(BbvS1)
123826/123830	5	GCAGC	(BbvS1)
123899/123904	6	GAATTC	(EcoR1)
124129/124133	5	GCAGC	(BbvS1)
124246/124250	5	GCTGC	(BbvS1)
124376/124380	5	GCAGC	(BbvS1)
.			
.			
.			

#### 2.1.4 Occurrences of Genes

The database includes information about genes that have been sequenced, along with genes that have been assigned positions but have not yet been sequenced. The basic notions of gene that we have implemented are as follows:

**structural gene** - a section of the chromosome that corresponds to a “mature product.” That is, if the gene codes for a protein, the section of the chromosome corresponding to the structural gene will begin with a valid start codon and end with a valid stop codon. Otherwise, it will correspond to a mature RNA product like tRNA or rRNA. Each gene has an associated “direction of expression,” which has two possible values – “clockwise” or “counterclockwise.”

**translated gene** - a structural gene believed to code for a polypeptide. It will always be a multiple of 3 in length, will begin with a valid start codon, and will end with a valid stop codon.

**mapped gene** - a gene that has been approximately positioned by using genetic mapping [Bachmann], but has not yet been sequenced.

**known gene** - either a structural gene or a mapped gene. Since the lengths of mapped genes are not known, we represent them as points on the chromosome, while structural genes all have known lengths and are thought of as a contiguous section of the chromosome (the complexities associated with the distinction of exons and introns are absent in the restricted case of *E. coli*).

To access structural genes, one can use the `gene/2` or `gene/4` predicates:

```
| ?- gene(Id,Obj).  
  
Id = thrA,  
Obj = gene(thrA,207,2669,clockwise) ;  
  
Id = thrB,  
Obj = gene(thrB,2671,3600,clockwise) ;  
  
Id = thrC,  
Obj = gene(thrC,3601,4887,clockwise)  
  
| ?- gene(Id,Beg,End,Direction).  
  
Id = thrA,  
Beg = 207,  
End = 2669,  
Direction = clockwise ;  
  
Id = thrB,  
Beg = 2671,  
End = 3600,  
Direction = clockwise ;  
  
Id = thrC,  
Beg = 3601,  
End = 4887,  
Direction = clockwise
```

To access a gene with a specified `Id` or `Direction`, one can invoke these predicates with the appropriate arguments instantiated.

To access all genes, one uses `all_genes(Genes)`, which binds `Genes` to the set of all genes, ordered by starting location (i.e., the start of the gene on the chromosome, irrespective of direction of expression).

To access all translated genes, one can use `translated_gene/2` or `translated_gene/4`:

```
| ?- translated_gene(aceE,Obj).

Obj = gene(aceE,123344,126004,clockwise)

| ?- translated_gene(Id,Beg,End,counterclockwise).

Id = gef,
Beg = 16867,
End = 17019 ;

Id = apaH,
Beg = 50814,
End = 51656
```

To access all translated genes, one uses

```
all_translated_genes(Genes)
```

To access a mapped gene, one uses `mapped_gene/2`:

```
| ?- mapped_gene(Id,Gene).

Id = tolJ,
Gene = mapped_gene(tolJ,'Bach.',unknown,4.0E-02,6099) ;

Id = tolI,
Gene = mapped_gene(tolI,'Bach.',unknown,5.0E-02,6645) ;

Id = popD,
Gene = mapped_gene(popD,'Bach.',unknown,8.0E-02,8284) ;
.
.
.
```

Note that the second argument is bound to a structure of the form

```
mapped_gene(Id,Map,Direction,PositionOnMap,PositionOnChromosome)
```

Here, 'Bach.' is a reference to the digitized Bachmann genetic map, 4.0E-02 is a position in the units chosen by the person constructing the map (in this case, minutes), and 6099 is the best estimate of the position on the chromosome (in terms of base pairs).

To access known genes (both structural genes and mapped genes), one uses `known_gene/2`:

```

| ?- known_gene(Id,Gene).

Id = thrA,
Gene = gene(thrA,207,2669,clockwise) ;

Id = thrB,
Gene = gene(thrB,2671,3600,clockwise) ;
.
.
.

```

The predicates `all_known_genes/1` and `all_mapped_genes/1` are available to access entire collections of either known or mapped genes.

## 2.2 Predicates Common to All Objects Located on the Chromosome

To access the location of any object on the chromosome, one can use the `location/3` predicate:

```

| ?- gene(entA,Obj), location(Obj,Beg,End).

Obj = gene(entA,636874,637620,clockwise),
Beg = 636874,
End = 637620

```

Alternatively, one can use `start_of/2` and `end_of/2`:

```

| ?- gene(entA,Obj), start_of(Obj,Beg), end_of(Obj,End).

Obj = gene(entA,636874,637620,clockwise),
Beg = 636874,
End = 637620

```

To determine whether an object has been sequenced, one uses the `sequenced/1` predicate. Thus,

```

| ?- gene(Id,Obj), sequenced(Obj).

Id = thrA,
Obj = gene(thrA,207,2669,clockwise)

```

is guaranteed to set `Obj` to a sequenced gene.

The length of an object is computed with

```

| ?- gene(entA,Obj), length_obj(Obj,Ln).

Obj = gene(entA,636874,637620,clockwise),
Ln = 747

```

The sum of the lengths of a list of objects can be computed with `length_objects/2`:

```
| ?- all_translated_genes(AllTranslated),
    length_objects(AllTranslated,Ln).

AllTranslated = [gene(thrA,207,2669,clockwise), ...]
Ln = 764226
```

It is often extremely useful to be able to check whether one object contains another. This check can be done with `contains/2`. For example, to locate the Kohara clone that contains gene `phnL`, one could use the query

```
| ?- gene(phnL,Gene), kohara_clone(_,Clone),
    contains(Clone,Gene).

Gene = gene(phnL,4354686,4355366,clockwise),
Clone = kohara_clone('[643]12H2',4337800,4358195)
```

To display an object, one uses `display_object/1`; to display a set of objects, one uses `display_objects/1`:

```
| ?- gene(phnL,Gene), kohara_clone(_,Clone),
    contains(Clone,Gene),
    display_object(Gene),
    display_objects([Gene,Clone]).
```

4354686/4355366	681	phnL	(gene)	clockwise
4337800/4358195	20396	[643]12H2	(Kohara clone)	
4354686/4355366	681	phnL	(gene)	clockwise

We note that `display_objects/1` sorts the objects to be displayed into ascending order based on their starting locations. Hence, the Kohara clone appears before `phnL` in the displayed list.

We have discussed how to locate restriction sites in an object (using `restriction_sites_in_object/3`). For sequenced objects, one can compute a restriction map of the object using code similar to the following:

```
| ?- gene(aceE,Gene),
    map_restriction_fragments(Gene,['EcoR1','Af13','BamH1'],Map),
    display_objects(Map).

123371/123899      529      [BamH1,EcoR1]      (computed rest. frag.)
123900/124020      121      [EcoR1,Af13]      (computed rest. frag.)
```

To create a restriction map based on Kohara restriction sites (which can be done for either sequenced or unsequenced objects), one uses code similar to

```
| ?- kohara_clone('[101]9E4',Clone),
    kohara_map(Clone,['EcoR1','Hind3','EcoR5'],Map),
    display_objects(Map).
```

3710/5063	1354	[EcoR1,EcoR5]	(Kohara rest. frag.)
5064/5879	816	[EcoR5,EcoR5]	(Kohara rest. frag.)
5880/6602	723	[EcoR5,EcoR5]	(Kohara rest. frag.)
6603/8602	2000	[EcoR5,EcoR5]	(Kohara rest. frag.)
8603/8900	298	[EcoR5,Hind3]	(Kohara rest. frag.)
8901/13006	4106	[Hind3,EcoR1]	(Kohara rest. frag.)
13007/13278	272	[EcoR1,EcoR5]	(Kohara rest. frag.)
13279/13710	432	[EcoR5,EcoR5]	(Kohara rest. frag.)
13711/14439	729	[EcoR5,Hind3]	(Kohara rest. frag.)
14440/15322	883	[Hind3,Hind3]	(Kohara rest. frag.)

## 2.3 The Use of Actual Sequence Data

One central goal of our prototype is not only to demonstrate a capability of manipulating not only relational data about the chromosome, but also to support an extensive sequence searching functionality. As an example, one type of analysis involves the identification of regions in the DNA that could form a secondary structure known as a hairpin. Hairpin structures are characterized by a region of sequence that is followed by a complementary sequence. These hairpin structures are often part of the genetic control mechanisms. The advantage that this query facility has is that it is simple to write a query to extract all hairpins that occur near the end of any structural gene. To do this requires using the relational capabilities discussed above to locate the sections of the chromosome that correspond to the notion “near the end of a structural gene” and then having access to pattern matching functions to check for hairpins.

In this section, we discuss the fairly low-level operations to access and search a sequence. We also discuss how to search for patterns, translate genes, and search for patterns in translated genes. We believe that these capabilities go beyond those normally offered by chromosomal databases and that they are extremely useful for supporting active research about the contents of the chromosome.

### 2.3.1 Accessing the Sequence of an Object

To access the sequence of the fragment, one could use

```
| ?- dna_fragment('ECOPROC',Fragment),
      sequence_of(Fragment,Seq),
      display_object(Seq).
```

```
411369/412336:      sequence
411369      GGTTAAATTGAAATTTGCATAAAAAATTGCGGCCTATATGGATGTTGGAAC
411419      CGTAAGAGAAAAATGAATTTACGGCAGGAGTGAGGCAATGAAAAGAAAA
411469      TCGGTTTTATTGGCTGCGGCAATATGGGAAAAGCCATTCTCGGCGGTCTG
411519      ATGCCAGCGGTTCAGGTGCTTCCAGGGCAAATCTGGGTATACACCCCTC
411569      CCCGATAAAGTCGCCGCCCTGCATGACCAGTTCGGGCATCAACGCCGCAG
411619      AATCGGCGCAAGAAGTGGCGCAAATCGCCGACATCATTTTTGCTGCCGTT
411669      AAACCTGGCATCATGATTAAAGTGCTTAGCGAAATCACCTCCAGCCTGAA
411719      TAAAGACTCTCTGGTCGTTTCTATTGCTGCAGGTGTCACGCTCGACCAGC
411769      TTGCCGCGCGCTGGGCCATGACCGGAAAAATTATCCGCGCCATGCCGAAC
```

```

411819    ACTCCCGCACTGGTTAATGCCGGGATGACCTCCGTAACGCCAAACGCGCT
411869    GGTAACCCCAAGAAGATACCGCTGATGTGCTGAATATTTCCGCTGCTTTG
411919    GCGAAGCGGAAGTAATTGCTGAGCCGATGATCCACCCGGTGGTCGGTGTG
411969    AGCGGTTCTTCGCCAGCCTACGTATTTATGTTTATCGAAGCGATGGCCGA
412019    CGCCGCCGTGCTGGGCGGGATGCCACGCGCCAGGCGTATAAATTGCCG
412069    CTCAGGCGGTAAATGGGTTCCGCAAAAATGGTGCTGGAAACGGGAGAACAT
412119    CCGGGGGCACTGAAAGATATGGTCTGCTCACCGGGAGGCACCACCATTGA
412169    AGCGGTACGCGTACTGGAAGAGAAAGGCTTCCGTGCTGCAGTGATCGAAG
412219    CGATGACGAAGTGTATGGAAAAATCAGAAAACTCAGCAAATCCTGATGA
412269    CTTTCGCCGACGTCAGGCCGCCACTTCGGTGCGGTTACGTCCGGCTTTC
412319    TTTGCTTTGTAAAGCGCT

```

Here, only the sequence of the clockwise strand of DNA is displayed. That is,

```
sequence_of(Object,Seq)
```

sets Seq to a “sequence object” representing the sequence of Object, and

```
display_object(AnyObject)
```

displays any object, including a “sequence object.” You can also extract any sequence by absolute coordinates. Thus, the following works as well.

```
| ?- sequence_at(123344,126004,Seq),display_object(Seq).
```

```

123344/126004:      sequence
                   123344    ATGTCAGAACGTTTCCCAAATGACGTGGATCCGATCGAAACTCGCGACTG
                   123394    GCTCCAGGCGATCGAATCGGTCATCCGTGAAGAAGGTGTTGAGCGTGCTC
                   123444    AGTATCTGATCGACCAACTGCTTGCTGAAGCCCGCAAAGGCGGTGTAAAC
                   .
                   .

```

There is one additional type of goal to access sequence data: a goal of the form `subseq(Position,Length,SubSeq)` can be used to access subsequences of a sequence. It can be used either to find the subsequence at a given position in a sequence or to search for where a given SubSequence occurs in Sequence. Therefore, the following query computes all of the ten character sequences that occur at least twice in the gene aceE.

```

| ?- gene(aceE,Gene),sequence_of(Gene,Seq),
      subseq(Pos1,10,SubSeq,Seq),
      subseq(Pos2,10,SubSeq,Seq), Pos2 > Pos1,
      format('~d/~d: ~s~n',[Pos1,Pos2,SubSeq]),
      fail.

```

```

123541/124860: TGAAGAACAA
123575/123604: CTGGAACGCC
123744/125084: GCGGCGACCT
124190/125450: GAAGGTGCTG

```



```

124281/125715: TGATGAACGA
124631/125972: GATGCAGATA
124747/125623: CTTACCCGAG
125545/125851: CCTGCGTCAC

```

```

no
| ?-

```

This is such a common request that we have included a predicate that computes the set of such common sequences:

```

| ?- gene(aceA,Gene),
      common_seqs_at_least_k_long([Gene,Gene],10,Seqs),
      display_objects(Seqs).

```

```

4246610/4246619:      sequence
                   4246610  TCCTGAATGC
4246984/4246993:      sequence
                   4246984  TCCTGAATGC

4246902/4246914:      sequence
                   4246902  GCGGGCATTGAGC
4247289/4247301:      sequence
                   4247289  GCGGGCATTGAGC

```

Notice that, in this case, matches are extended as far as possible (thus, the second reported match is 13 characters long). One would normally use this with distinct objects, for example,

```

| ?- gene(thrA,Gene),
      start_of(Gene,Start),
      StartPre is Start-100, EndInit is Start+80,
      common_seqs_at_least_k_long([region(StartPre,Start),
                                   region(Start,EndInit)],5,Seqs),
      display_objects(Seqs).

```

```

129/133:              sequence
                   129      GTACA
229/233:              sequence
                   229      GTACA

134/138:              sequence
                   134      GGAAA
278/282:              sequence
                   278      GGAAA

141/145:              sequence
                   141      CAGAA
247/251:              sequence

```

	247	CAGAA
147/151:		sequence
	147	AAAGC
280/284:		sequence
	280	AAAGC
177/181:		sequence
	177	TTTTC
254/258:		sequence
	254	TTTTC

We also allow you to look for the longest common subsequence.

```
| ?- gene(aceE, Gene), location(Gene, Beg, End), EndPt is Beg+99,
      sequence_at(Beg, EndPt, Prefix),
      longest_common_subseq(Prefix, Prefix, Common, Pos1, Pos2),
      format('~d/~d ~s~n', [Pos1, Pos2, Common]).
```

```
123375/123402 CGATCGAA
```

The answer from this query indicates that the displayed eight-character string is the longest string that occurs twice in the first hundred characters of the gene *aceE*.

### 2.3.2 Higher-Level Predicates to Support Scanning for Patterns in Objects

To properly handle requests to search for structures like hairpins or repeats, we found it necessary to implement the ability to scan for patterns. Here, we think of a pattern as a sequence of pattern units, each of which can be

1. a string of DNA characters (including the codes to represent ambiguous characters);
2. a pattern unit that matches an arbitrary string of characters, where the length of the string varies between specified bounds; and
3. a pattern unit that “matches” the reverse complement of a string matched by a previous pattern unit, or
4. a pattern that matches a string identical to a previously matched pattern unit.

Both of the last two types of pattern units allow one to specify an allowable number of mismatches, insertions, and deletions (which gives an “approximate” matching capability).

For example, we would think of the pattern

```
p1=AYGG 3...5 ~p1 p1
```

as capable of matching a sequence like

```
ACGGTTCGCCGTACGG
```

We must encode such patterns as Prolog terms. The previous pattern would be encoded as

```
[pvar(p1,dna("AYGG")),
 elipses(3,5),
 complement(p1,0,0,0),
 repeat(p1,0,0,0)]
```

The actual format for a term encoding a pattern is as follows:

1. A pattern is a list of pattern units.
2. A pattern unit can be either a “raw” pattern unit or of the form

```
pvar(Id,RawUnit)
```

When an Id is specified, it is used to allow following units to refer back to the string matched by this pattern unit.

3. A raw pattern unit must be of the form
  - (a) dna(String)
  - (b) elipses(Min,Max) where Min and Max give the bounds on the length of the string matched
  - (c) complement(Id,Mis,Ins,Del), where Mis gives the number of allowed mismatches, Ins specifies the number of indels that can be inserted into the string matched, and Del specifies the number of characters in the string being matched that can be deleted
  - (d) repeat((Id,Mis,Ins,Del), where the parameters are just as for complement.

To scan a section of the chromosome for the occurrence of a pattern, one uses the routine `scan_mem_for_pattern_occurrence/4`:

```
| ?- gene(aceE,Gene),start_of(Gene,Beg),end_of(Gene,End),
    scan_mem_for_pattern_occurrence(Beg,End,
    [pvar(p1,dna("RYRYRY")),
     elipses(0,400),
     repeat(p1,1,1,0)],0cc),
    display_object(0cc).
```

```
123436/123464:          sequence
                123436   GCGTGC TCAGTATCTGATCGACCA ACTGC
```

By computing the set of such matches, one can rapidly acquire all matches of fairly complex patterns fairly quickly (the actual pattern matching is achieved by invoking an underlying routine written in C).

### 2.3.3 A Predicate to Support Scanning for Patterns in Translated Genes

We have found that users wish to scan for patterns in the translated genes, as well as for patterns in the DNA sequences. Hence, we have provided a predicate to support this capability:

```
find_pp_match(+Pat,+Gene,-PolyPepTide)
```

Pat must be an encoding of a pattern to scan for in the translation of Gene. PolyPepTide is bound to a section of the translation that matches. Pat is a list of pattern units. Each unit is one of the following:

1. a string of 1-character amino acid codes, with ? to represent an arbitrary amino acid (e.g., "CP???H"),
2. the alternative of two patterns P1 and P2, which is represented as P1;P2

The following example will illustrate:

```
| ?- gene(thrA,Gene),  
      find_pp_match(["RE?E",("H";"L")],Gene,Match),  
      display_object(Match).
```

```
2280/2294          15          thrA (expressed) clockwise  
                    RELE L
```

### 2.3.4 Predicates for Computing Codon Usage, K-mer Counts, and GC Content

The database provides a facility for computing codon usage for any set of translated genes. This is achieved by using the predicate

```
codon_usage(Objects,Counts)
```

where Objects is a list of translated genes, and Counts is set to a list of 65 integers. The first integer is a count of the number of “invalid” codons (i.e., those that are ambiguous or unsequenced characters). The remaining 64 correspond to the counts of AAA, AAC, AAG, AAT, ACA,...TTT. To display the counts in a meaningful way, one can use

```
print_codon_usage(Counts)
```

For example, one can get the codon usage statistics for the genes currently placed on the genome by using

```
| ?- all_translated_genes(Genes),  
      codon_usage(Genes,Counts),  
      print_codon_usage(Counts).
```

```
number valid codons = 254740  
number invalid codons = 2
```

alanine: 24676	9.69%
GCA: 5133	2.01%
GCC: 6189	2.43%
GCG: 9146	3.59%
GCT: 4208	1.65%
arginine: 14841	5.83%
AGA: 291	0.11%
AGG: 215	0.08%
CGA: 713	0.28%
CGC: 5914	2.32%
CGG: 1130	0.44%
CGT: 6578	2.58%
asparagine: 9740	3.82%
AAC: 6237	2.45%
AAT: 3503	1.38%
aspartic_acid: 13829	5.43%
GAC: 5739	2.25%
GAT: 8090	3.18%
cystenine: 2736	1.07%
TGC: 1592	0.62%
TGT: 1144	0.45%
glutamic_acid: 15961	6.27%
GAA: 11170	4.38%
GAG: 4791	1.88%
glutamine: 11235	4.41%
CAA: 3329	1.31%
CAG: 7906	3.10%
glycine: 19285	7.57%
GGA: 1490	0.58%
GGC: 8191	3.22%
GGG: 2442	0.96%
GGT: 7162	2.81%
histidine: 5762	2.26%
CAC: 2819	1.11%
CAT: 2943	1.16%
isoleucine: 14551	5.71%
ATA: 604	0.24%
ATC: 7132	2.80%

ATT: 6815	2.68%
leucine: 25943	10.18%
CTA: 747	0.29%
CTC: 2596	1.02%
CTG: 14682	5.76%
CTT: 2392	0.94%
TTA: 2563	1.01%
TTG: 2963	1.16%
lysine: 11835	4.65%
AAA: 9040	3.55%
AAG: 2795	1.10%
methionine: 6885	2.70%
ATG: 6885	2.70%
phenylalanine: 9369	3.68%
TTC: 4653	1.83%
TTT: 4716	1.85%
proline: 11145	4.38%
CCA: 1973	0.77%
CCC: 1030	0.40%
CCG: 6609	2.59%
CCT: 1533	0.60%
serine: 13923	5.47%
AGC: 3925	1.54%
AGT: 1698	0.67%
TCA: 1398	0.55%
TCC: 2442	0.96%
TCG: 2050	0.80%
TCT: 2410	0.95%
stop: 697	0.27%
TAA: 451	0.18%
TAG: 49	0.02%
TGA: 197	0.08%
threonine: 13465	5.29%
ACA: 1304	0.51%
ACC: 6436	2.53%
ACG: 3297	1.29%
ACT: 2428	0.95%
tyrosine: 7040	2.76%

TAC: 3403	1.34%
TAT: 3637	1.43%
valine: 18436	7.24%
GTA: 2873	1.13%
GTC: 3724	1.46%
GTG: 6816	2.68%
GTT: 5023	1.97%

The database also includes the capability of rapidly accumulating statistics on the occurrences of k-mers. In the most trivial case, one can get and display the number of occurrences of each of the four nucleotides by using

```
| ?- all_dna_fragments(Frags),
      kmer_usage(Frags,1,Counts),
      print_kmer_usage(Counts,1),
      print_gc_content(Counts).
```

A: 354898	24.29%
C: 375714	25.71%
G: 377757	25.85%
T: 352961	24.15%

Gs, Cs: 753471	51.56%
As, Ts: 707859	48.44%

```
Counts = [354898,375714,377757,352961]
```

We support the general capability of accumulating counts for any size k-mers (although it is assumed that the user will probably not wish to stretch the point by going above 10-mers).

## 2.4 Interface to External Systems

Our objective is to support the capability of storing and retrieving genetic data; it is certainly not our ambition to recreate the standard tools required to analyze the retrieved sequence data. That is, this system must be able to extract data that can later be processed by standard statistical packages or data that support graphical exploration. This ability to interface to external packages can be achieved in two basic ways:

1. For a very limited set of tools that require efficient transmission of data to and from the tool, it is possible to install the C or Fortran code as “foreign predicates” which can be invoked directly from the Prolog environment. This is how we have integrated the version of the Smith-Waterman algorithm written by Xiaohu Huang and Webb Miller<sup>13</sup>
2. More commonly, to invoke an external tool, one simply extracts the data, writes it to a file, and invokes a UNIX shell script that invokes the desired tool and reformats the produced data in a form accessible by the Prolog system. This is, for example, how we interface to external systems to plot data and how we invoke FASTA 31 (the system for rapid similarity searches distributed Bill Pearson).

The second approach is clearly more flexible and offers the most painless way to integrate new capabilities. Tools that perform multiple-sequence alignment and motif searching must be integrated into systems that compute the energetic stability of secondary structures.

### 3 Encoding of Biologically Relevant Queries

In this section, we illustrate the functionality of the query facility established with the predicates discussed in the preceding section. We have a collection of questions that are typical of those that might be asked by molecular biologists. We provide short routines that will produce the desired answers to illustrate the level of difficulty required. In each case, the predicates have been implemented in a straightforward manner based on the predicates presented in the appendix. Specifically, we present a collection of 21 questions about the *E. coli* chromosome, including the query, the answer, and the Prolog solution.

#### 3.1 Physical Map Sites in Objects

The first three queries deal with identifying physical map sites in clones and sequences.

In determining a physical map for a chromosome, and in establishing the chromosome positions of genes, it is useful to know which gene regions would be interrupted by digestion with specific restriction enzymes.

Query 1: For a specified restriction enzyme Not1, find all sequenced genes in which Not1 occurs precisely once.

```
% | ?- query1('Not1',Genes),display_objects(Genes).
%
% 785627/786892      1266      tolA      (gene)      clockwise
% 816181/817473      1293      bioA      (gene)      counterclockwise
% 1251391/1253088    1698      treA      (gene)      clockwise
% 2011366/2012091    726      orf      (gene)      counterclockwise
% 4083713/4084762    1050      glnL     (gene)      counterclockwise
%

query1(E,Genes) :-
    set_of_all(Gene,
                Id^Sites^
                (gene(Id,Gene),
                 computed_restriction_sites_in_object(Gene,[E],[Sites])),
                Genes).
```

Subcloning operations designed to manipulate a gene sequence often require a list of restriction enzymes whose cut sites occur exactly once in that gene.

Query 2: For a given sequenced gene thrA, find all restriction enzymes that occur precisely once in thrA.

```
% | ?- query2(thrA,Enzymes).
%
```



```
% Enzymes = ['Ava1','Bbv2','Bcl1','BsaB1','BstX1','Cla1','Dde1','Drd1',
%           'Ear1','EcoA','EcoP1','HgiC1','Mae1','Mst1','Nae1','Nsp3',
%           'NspC1','Pvu1','Pvu2','SgrAI','SnaB1','Ssp1']

query2(GeneId,Enzymes) :-
    gene(GeneId,Gene),
    set_of_all(Enz,
        Pattern^CutPoint^Sites^
        (restriction_site(Enz,Pattern,CutPoint),
        computed_restriction_sites_in_object(Gene,[Enz],[Sites])
        ),
        Enzymes).
```

The enzymes to use in isolating intact genes on single DNA fragments are those whose restriction sites do not cut those genes. The following query allows us to identify that set of restriction enzymes.

Query 3. For a given sequenced gene G, find the set of Kohara enzymes that do not occur in G.

```
% | ?- query3(thrA,Enz).
%
% Enz = ['BamH1','EcoR1','EcoR5','Hind3','Kpn1','Pst1']

query3(GeneId,Enzymes) :-
    gene(GeneId,Gene),
    set_of_all(Enz,
        Kenz^
        (kohara_enzymes(Kenz),
        member(Enz,Kenz),
        computed_restriction_sites_in_object(Gene,[Enz],[]))
        ),
        Enzymes).
```

### 3.2 Identifying Sequence Features

The next collection of seven queries involves searching for patterns in DNA sequences.

Much of the current work in the molecular biology involves some “reverse engineering.” That is, we can often predict a short DNA sequence fragment (also known as a primer) that is characteristic of some genetic or structural trait. These DNA primers can be used as probes to determine which clones contain the potential target genes. However, to find interesting clones for further study, we need to identify the sequenced clones that contain the primers. The following query identifies such clones.

Query 4: For a given sequence X, list all Kohara clones that contain X.

```
% | ?-
query4("GATTGCCAGTTCGCCATAATCACTCTTC",Clones),display_objects(Clones).
```

```
%
% 1957500/1977500      20001      [337]20H4      (Kohara clone)
% 1969800/1988245      18446      [338]12C7      (Kohara clone)
```

```
query4(String,Clones) :-
    set_of_all(Clone,
        Id^0ccs^
        (kohara_clone(Id,Clone),
            subseqs_in_obj(Clone,String,0ccs)
        ),
        Clones).
```

Conversely, we might like to identify those clones that do not contain a specific target sequence.

Query 5: For a given string X, list all Kohara clones that are not known to contain X.

```
% | ?- query5("GATTGCC",Clones).
%
% Clones = [kohara_clone('[102]6H3',9400,24157),...]
%
```

```
query5(String,Clones) :-
    set_of_all(Clone,
        Id^0ccs^
        (kohara_clone(Id,Clone),
            \+ subseqs_in_obj(Clone,String,0ccs)
        ),
        Clones).
```

It is often the goal of a subcloning or a probing project to identify those short unique sequences that are diagnostic for a particular DNA segment. The following query allows us to identify diagnostic sequences of a specific length within a target clone.

Query 6: Given a length K and a clone Clone, produce a sequence S that occurs just once in Clone.

```
% | ?- query6(6,'[116]15A7',S), format('~s~n',[S]).
%
% CGCCTA
```

```
query6(K,CloneId,S) :-
    kohara_clone(CloneId,Clone),
    sequence_of(Clone,SeqObj),
    subseq(Pos,K,S,SeqObj),
```

```
\+ (member(Char,S), \+ base(Char)),
\+ (subseq(Pos2,K,S,SeqObj), Pos2 =\= Pos).
```

To confirm that the sequence is diagnostic of the fragment, we can use the following query to check that the sequence does not occur in any other sequenced clone.

Query 7: Given a length K and a clone Clone, give me a sequence that occurs just once in Clone, and never in any other Clone. Check both strands.

```
% | ?- query7(12,'[116]15A7',S), format('~s~n',[S]).
% ATCGCCTAATGC
%
```

```
query7(K,CloneId,S) :-
    kohara_clone(CloneId,Clone),
    sequence_of(Clone,SeqObj),
    subseq(Pos,K,S,SeqObj),
    \+ (member(Char,S), \+ base(Char)),
    domain(ecoli_genome,Beg,End),
    \+ (subseq_both(Pos2,K,S,seq(Beg,End),_), Pos2 =\= Pos).
```

Certain sequences must stand in spatial relationship to one another in order for certain biological mechanisms to take place. For example, genes that are regulated through a coordinated control mechanism using a common control protein usually have common control sequence motifs that occur in specific spatial relationships to those genes. The following query searches for a potential control sequence with a particular spatial requirement. In a relational database, identifying sequence level features such as these normally requires an extensive, specialized programming effort.

Query 8: List genes that contain sequence X exactly once, and the occurrence is at least a distance of Y away from each end of the gene.

```
% | ?- query8("TGATTGCT",60,Genes),display_objects(Genes).
%
% 14285/15415      1131      dnaJ      (gene)      clockwise
% 572030/573193    1164      int      (gene)      counterclockwise
% 631876/632832    957      fepB      (gene)      counterclockwise
% 995234/996436    1203      pncB      (gene)      counterclockwise
% 1408669/1409421  753      fnr      (gene)      counterclockwise
% 2104525/2105829  1305      hisD      (gene)      clockwise
% 2448989/2449477  489      dedE      (gene)      counterclockwise
% 2465017/2466087  1071      aroC      (gene)      counterclockwise
% 2699918/2703805  3888      purL      (gene)      clockwise
% 3610926/3611813  888      ugpA      (gene)      counterclockwise
% 3903261/3904334  1074      recF      (gene)      counterclockwise
% 4014398/4015594  1197      hemY      (gene)      counterclockwise
```

```
%
query8(X,Y,Genes) :-
    length(X,Ln),
    set_of_all(Gene,
        Id^SeqObj^Pos^Pos2^Dir^Dir2^Beg^End^
        (gene(Id,Gene), sequence_of(Gene,SeqObj),
         subseq_both(Pos,Ln,X,SeqObj,Dir),
         \+ (subseq_both(Pos2,Ln,X,SeqObj,Dir2), Pos =\= Pos2),
         location(Gene,Beg,End),
         Pos-Beg >= Y, End-Pos >= Y
        ),
        Genes).
```

The presence of localized repeated sequences often reflects a common heritage of those chromosome regions. The following query demonstrates how to search for repeats of a definite size within a specific clone.

Query 9: List all repeats of length N in Kohara clone C.

```
% | ?- query9('[102]6H3',13,Repeats),display_objects(Repeats).
%
% 14556/14568:          sequence
%                14556    GCGATATTTTGG
% 14580/14592:          sequence
%                14580    GCGATATTTTGG
%
% 18932/18944:          sequence
%                18932    TATGCCGATAAAA
% 19486/19498:          sequence
%                19486    TATGCCGATAAAA
%
% 19062/19074:          sequence
%                19062    ACGCCGCAGTGGT
% 23657/23669:          sequence
%                23657    ACGCCGCAGTGGT
%
```

```
query9(CloneId,N,Repeats) :-
    kohara_clone(CloneId,Clone),
    common_seqs_at_least_k_long([Clone,Clone],N,Repeats).
```

Another possible “hot spot” for transcriptional control features (whether sequences or structural features) is the region between convergent genes. The following query searches for possible “hot spots.”

Query 10: What is the longest common sequence between two convergent

```

transcripts?

% | ?- query10(G1,G2,Common),
%       display_objects([G1,G2]), display_objects(Common),nl,fail.
%
% 15562/16836      1275      orf2      (gene)      clockwise
% 16867/17019      153      gef      (gene)      counterclockwise
%
% 16844/16847:      sequence
%                  16844      GGGA
% 16852/16855:      sequence
%                  16852      TCCC
%
% 16846/16849:      sequence
%                  16846      GATC
%
%
%
% 18719/19507      789      orf3      (gene)      clockwise
% 20833/21096      264      rpsT      (gene)      counterclockwise
%
% 20158/20169:      sequence
%                  20158      GCCAGCGCTGGC
%
%
%
% 50257/50736      480      folA      (gene)      clockwise
% 50814/51656      843      apaH      (gene)      counterclockwise
%
% 50761/50767:      sequence
%                  50761      GCCGGAT
% 50787/50793:      sequence
%                  50787      ATCCGGC
%
% .
% .
% .

query10(Gene1,Gene2,Longest) :-
    convergent_genes(Gene1,Gene2),
    gap(Gene1,Gene2,Gap),
    ( (common_seqs_at_least_k_long_both_strands([Gap,Gap],8,Common),
      Common \== []) ->
      true
    ;
      common_seqs_at_least_k_long_both_strands([Gap,Gap],4,Common)
    ),
    keep_max(Common,Longest).

```

```

keep_max([H|T],Longest) :-
    H=common_sequence([S1|_]),
    length_obj(S1,Ln1),
    keep_max(T,Ln1,[H],Longest).

keep_max([],_MaxLn,Longest,Longest).
keep_max([H|T],MaxLn,MaxSet,Longest) :-
    H=common_sequence([S1|_]),
    length_obj(S1,Ln1),
    (   Ln1 < MaxLn ->
        keep_max(T,MaxLn,MaxSet,Longest)
    ;
      (   Ln1 == MaxLn ->
          keep_max(T,MaxLn,[H|MaxSet],Longest)
        ;
          keep_max(T,Ln1,[H],Longest)
        )
    ).

```

Some transcriptional control sequences often occur just upstream of a gene. If one conjectured that a particular transcriptional control signal were composed of a single occurrence of a sequence in the gene together with two identical sequences at different positions upstream of that gene, the following query would extract the desired data.

Query 11: For a gene G, find all strings of length at least 6 that occur at least twice in the first 150 characters upstream and at least once in the first 100 characters of G.

```

% | ?- query11(Id,Strings),gene(Id,Gene),display_object(Gene),
%      display_objects(Strings).
%
% 84435/85307          873          leu0          (gene)      clockwise
%
% 84407/84415:         sequence
%          84407      GGAGTTAAG
% 84425/84433:         sequence
%          84425      GGAGTTAAG
% 84470/84478:         sequence
%          84470      GGAGTTAAG
%
% .
% .
% .

```

```

query11(GeneId,Strings) :-
    gene(GeneId,Gene),
    upstream(Gene,150,Upstream),
    initial(Gene,100,Initial),

```

```

        common_seqs_at_least_k_long([Upstream,Upstream,Initial],6,Strings),
        Strings \== []).

upstream(Gene,Ln,region(Pt1,Pt2)) :-
    direction(Gene,Dir), location(Gene,Beg,End),
    (   Dir == clockwise ->
        Pt1 is Beg-Ln, Pt2 is Beg-1
    ;
        Pt1 is End+1, Pt2 is End+Ln
    ).

initial(Gene,Ln,region(Pt1,Pt2)) :-
    direction(Gene,Dir), location(Gene,Beg,End),
    (   Dir == clockwise ->
        Pt1 is Beg, Pt2a is Beg+Ln, min(End,Pt2a,Pt2)
    ;
        Pt1 is End, Pt2a is End-Ln, max(Beg,Pt2a,Pt2)
    ).

```

### 3.3 Structure-Related Features

The following four queries ask about the arrangement of genes on the chromosome and about potential structural features such as hairpins that may be related to gene positions.

According to one well-known hypothesis, there is a correlation between the direction of replication and the strand on which genes are predominantly found [reference]. The following query retrieves the data available to test this hypothesis.

Query 12: Give the counts of clockwise genes in the region just preceding the origin of replication and just following it, along with the percentage of each region that is sequenced. Then, do the same for counterclockwise genes.

```

% | ?- query12(100000).
% 3853061/3953061  100001                                (region)
% 1 cw genes; 33 ccw genes; 39% sequenced
% 3953061/4053061  100001                                (region)
% 35 cw genes; 8 ccw genes; 49% sequenced

```

```

query12(Dist) :-
    oriC(ecoli,Origin),
    Left is Origin-Dist, Right is Origin+Dist,
    report_on_region(region(Left,Origin)),
    report_on_region(region(Origin,Right)).

```

```

report_on_region(Region) :-
    genes_in_object(Region,clockwise,CWG),
    genes_in_object(Region,counterclockwise,CCWG),
    length(CWG,CWcount), length(CCWG,CCWcount),

```

```

kmer_usage([Region],1,[A,C,G,T]),
length_obj(Region,Ln),
PerCent is integer(100 * ((A+C+G+T) / Ln)),
display_object(Region),
format('~d cw genes; ~d ccw genes; ~d% sequenced~n',
      [CWcount,CCWcount,PerCent])).

genes_in_object(Object,Direction,Genes) :-
    set_of_all(Gene,
        Id~
        (gene(Id,Gene),
         direction(Gene,Direction),
         contains(Object,Gene)
        ),Genes).

```

Similarly, one may wish to know whether there a correlation between the direction of replication and the frequencies of occurrences of different sequences of length four (4-mers).

Query 13: Consider the set of 4-mers that occur in clockwise genes just to the left of the origin of replication and in clockwise genes just to the right. Are the frequencies of occurrence for each 4-mer about the same? In particular, give the set of 4-mers that occur more than twice as often (as a percentage of the length of the sequence of clockwise genes) on one side or the other.

```

% | ?- query13(200000).
% CCTT: left=0.0012 right=0.0027
% CTAG: left=0.0002 right=0.0004
% TAGG: left=0.0005 right=0.0012
%

query13(Dist) :-
    oriC(ecoli,Origin),
    Left is Origin-Dist, Right is Origin+Dist,
    get_adjusted_counts(region(Left,Origin),LeftCounts),
    get_adjusted_counts(region(Origin,Right),RightCounts),
    report_disparity(LeftCounts,RightCounts).

get_adjusted_counts(Region,Counts) :-
    genes_in_object(Region,clockwise,CWG),
    kmer_usage(CWG,4,[Counts1]),
    sumL(Counts1,Sum),
    adjust_to_give_fraction(Counts1,Sum,Counts).

sumL(L,Sum) :- sumL(L,0,Sum).

sumL([],Sum,Sum).
sumL([H|T],SoFar,Sum) :- SoFar1 is SoFar+H, sumL(T,SoFar1,Sum).

```



```

adjust_to_give_fraction([],_,[]).
adjust_to_give_fraction([H|T],Sum,[Ha|Ta]) :-
    Ha is H / Sum,
    adjust_to_give_fraction(T,Sum,Ta).

report_disparity(Left,Right) :- report_disparity(Left,Right,0).

report_disparity([],[],_).
report_disparity([Lh|Lt],[Rh|Rt],Which) :-
    ( (Lh >= 2*Rh ; Rh >= 2*Lh) ->
        conv_kmer(4,Which,String),
        format('~s: left=~4f right=~4f~n',[String,Lh,Rh])
    );
    true
),
    Which1 is Which+1,
    report_disparity(Lt,Rt,Which1).

```

A hairpin loop in a DNA molecule is a structural feature that allows a single-stranded DNA molecule to fold back on itself to form a double-stranded stem composed of complementary base pairs: A-T, G-C. Linearly, it can be described as a sequence that is followed at some distance by its reverse complement. Hairpin loops are often identified as structural signals for transcriptional regulation. To find transcriptional signals common to a set of genes, we might wish to identify a set of hairpin loops that occur at the beginnings of genes. The following query identifies the genes that contain hairpins within 20 bases of the start of the gene.

Query 14: Find all hairpin loops with that occur at the start of genes.

```

% | ?- query14(20,9).
% 27228/28142          915          orf          (gene)          clockwise
% 27208/27231:          sequence
%          27208          GCATTTTTT ATGGAG AAAACATGC
%
% 98459/99703          1245          ftsW          (gene)          clockwise
% 98442/98479:          sequence
%          98442          GCGAAGGAG TTAGGTTGATGCGTTTATCT CTCCTCGC
%
% 108335/111040          2706          secA          (gene)          clockwise
% 108327/108347:          sequence
%          108327          ATTTTATTA TGC TAATCAAAT
%
% 231921/233462          1542          rrsH          (gene)          clockwise
% 231909/231938:          sequence
%          231909          CATCAAAC TTTAAATTGAAG AGTTTGATC
%
% 736274/738322          2049          kdpB          (gene)          counterclockwise

```

```

% 738321/738342:      sequence
%                   738321  ATATTCAGT GCTC ACTCAATAT
%
% 1303723/1306398      2676      adhE      (gene)      clockwise
% 1303706/1303735:      sequence
%                   1303706  ACCTTCTAC ATAATCACGACC GTAGTAGGT
%
% 1320555/1321094      540      orf      (gene)      counterclockwise
% 1321074/1321097:      sequence
%                   1321074  AAAATCAAG AACTG CTCATTTT
%
% 2272115/2273806      1692      fruA      (gene)      clockwise
% 2272098/2272131:      sequence
%                   2272098  CAATCAGGC ATTTATCGACATAAAC GCCAGATTG
%
%                   .
%                   .
%                   .

```

```

query14(Dist,Stem) :-
    gene(_Id,Gene),
    once((
        around_start(Gene,Dist,Pt1,Pt2),
        scan_mem_for_pattern_occurrence(Pt1,Pt2,
            [pvar(p1,elipses(Stem,Stem)),
             elipses(3,20),
             complement(p1,1,0,0)
            ],
            Occ),
        display_object(Gene), display_object(Occ),nl)
    ),
    fail.
query14(_,_).

```

```

around_start(Gene,Dist,Pt1,Pt2) :-
    ( direction(Gene,clockwise) ->
        start_of(Gene,Start),
        Pt1 is Start-Dist, Pt2 is Start+Dist
    ;
        end_of(Gene,End),
        Pt1 is End-Dist, Pt2 is End+Dist
    ).

```

It is also possible to query the knowledge base about structural features of RNA molecules. Double-stranded hairpin stems in RNA molecules consist of the complementary base pairs A-U, G-C, and G-U. In investigating the potential structure of an RNA molecule transcribed from a known gene in another species, we detected complementary sequences as long as 18 bases in length. Such complementary sequences could form hairpins in the transcribed RNA molecules. How often do such complementary sections occur?

Query 15: Find all hairpins with stems 18 bases in length with loops that could be as large as 300 bases, allowing for G-T as a "match."

```
% | ?- query15(N).
%
% 85385/85402:      sequence
%                85385      TGCAGAATAGGTCAGACA
% 85407/85424:      sequence
%                85407      TGTCTGGTTTATTCTGCA
%
% 123257/123274:    sequence
%                123257      GAACCTGTCTTATTGAGC
% 123287/123304:    sequence
%                123287      GTTCAATGGGACAGGTT
%
% 123258/123275:    sequence
%                123258      AACCTGTCTTATTGAGCT
% 123286/123303:    sequence
%                123286      AGTTCAATGGGACAGGTT
%
% 123259/123276:    sequence
%                123259      ACCTGTCTTATTGAGCTT
% 123285/123302:    sequence
%                123285      GAGTTCAATGGGACAGGT
%
%                .
%                .
%                .

query15(N) :-
    set_of_all(HairPin,rna_hairpin(18,HairPin),L),
    length(L,N).

rna_hairpin(Ln, hairpin(seq(B1,B1e)-0cc)) :-
    all_dna_fragments(Frags),
    member(Frag,Frags), format('checking ~w~n',[Frag]),
    location(Frag,Beg,End), End1 is End-21,
    subseq(B1,Ln,DNA,seq(Beg,End1)),
    S2 is B1+(Ln+3), E2 is S2+300, min(E2,End,E2a),
    to_look_for(DNA,RNAComp),
    scan_mem_for_pattern_occurrence(S2,E2a,[dna(RNAComp)],0cc),
    B1e is B1+(Ln-1),
    display_objects([seq(B1,B1e),0cc]).

to_look_for(DNA,RNAComp) :- reverse(DNA,DNAr), rna_comp(DNAr,RNAComp).

rna_comp([],[]).
rna_comp([H|T],[H2|T2]) :- rna_comp_char(H,H2), rna_comp(T,T2).
```

```

rna_comp_char(65,84).    % A/T
rna_comp_char(67,71).    % C/G
rna_comp_char(71,89).    % G/Y
rna_comp_char(84,82).    % T/R

```

### 3.4 Questions about the Overall Project Status

This final group of queries are directed toward assessing the current status of the assembly of the total genome sequence.

In the management of a large-scale sequencing project, one must know the current status with respect to project completion. The following query identifies which clones have been completely sequenced.

Query 16: List all clones that are completely sequenced.

```

% | ?- query16(Clones),display_objects(Clones).
%
% 96594/105701      9108      [110]6F3      (Kohara clone)
% 3444102/3447540   3439      [630A]5F12    (Kohara clone)
% 3936168/3952263   16096     [560]2A1      (Kohara clone)
% 4233865/4240715   6851      [531B]3C5     (Kohara clone)
% 4240030/4240715   686       [530B]6G9     (Kohara clone)
% 4240715/4243455   2741      [629B]18C4    (Kohara clone)
%

```

```

query16(SequencedClones) :-
    all_dna_fragments(Frags),
    set_of_all(Clone,
        Id^Frag^
        (kohara_clone(Id,Clone),
        member(Frag,Frags),
        contains(Frag,Clone)
        ),
        SequencedClones).

```

We can also construct queries to assess progress in sequencing any chromosome region or clone.

Query 17: List all clones that are greater than 90% sequenced.

```

% | ?- query17(90,L),member(Clone-PerCent,L),
%       format('~n~3f% sequenced:~n',PerCent),display_object(Clone),fail.
%
% 100.000% sequenced:
% 96594/105700      9107      [110]6F3      (Kohara clone)
%
% 90.136% sequenced:
% 760100/775499    15400     [176]7E10     (Kohara clone)

```

```

%
% 100.000% sequenced:
% 4240030/4240714      685      [530B]6G9      (Kohara clone)
%
% 100.000% sequenced:
% 4233865/4240714      6850     [531B]3C5      (Kohara clone)
%
% 93.674% sequenced:
% 4188805/4206684      17880     [534]E11C11     (Kohara clone)
%
% 100.000% sequenced:
% 3936168/3952262      16095     [560]2A1      (Kohara clone)
%
% 93.768% sequenced:
% 3611044/3627299      16256     [613]1B6      (Kohara clone)
%
% 98.882% sequenced:
% 3606153/3617239      11087     [614]5B10     (Kohara clone)
%
% 100.000% sequenced:
% 4240715/4243454      2740      [629B]18C4     (Kohara clone)
%
% 100.000% sequenced:
% 3444102/3447539      3438      [630A]5F12     (Kohara clone)
%
% no

```

```

query17(X,ClonesAndPerCent) :-
    set_of_all(Clone-PerCent,
        Id^A^C^G^T^Ln^
        (kohara_clone(Id,Clone),
        kmer_usage([Clone],1,[A,C,G,T]),
        length_obj(Clone,Ln),
        PerCent is ((A+C+G+T) / Ln) * 100,
        PerCent >= X
        ),
        ClonesAndPerCent).

```

To keep track of unsequenced regions, we need to identify gaps between known sequence fragments.

Query 18: Compute the gaps between sequence fragments.

```

%
% | ?- query18(Gaps),display_objects(Gaps).
%
% 5933/12279      6347      (gap)
% 34340/49698     15359     (gap)

```

```
% 54148/62852      8705      (gap)
% 71729/83533      11805     (gap)
%
%
%
```

```
query18(Gaps) :-
    all_dna_fragments(Frags),
    gaps(Frags,Gaps).
```

Knowing the unsequenced regions in the chromosome, we can now identify the Kohara clones that should be used to complete the sequencing.

Query 19: For any unsequenced region, give the Kohara clones that overlap the region.

```
% | ?- query18(Gaps), member(Gap,Gaps),
%       query19(Gap,Clones), display_object(Gap),display_objects(Clones).
%
% 5933/12279      6347      (gap)
%
% 383/17253      16871      [101]9E4      (Kohara clone)
% 9400/24157      14758      [102]6H3      (Kohara clone)
%
%
%
%
```

```
query19(Region,Clones) :-
    set_of_all(Clone,
        Id^
        (kohara_clone(Id,Clone),overlaps(Region,Clone)),
        Clones).
```

One might wish to locate the blocks of unknown sequence that could be removed with relatively small effort.

Query 20: Find all gaps between sequenced fragments that are less than 700 bp long.

```
% | ?- query20(L), member(X,L),display_objects(X),nl,fail.
%
```

```

% 779858/783702      3845      ECOCYD      (DNA fragment)
% 783703/783891      189       (gap)
% 783892/788928      5037      tolQecoM     (DNA fragment)
%
%
% 408099/410813      2715      ECOPH0AA     (DNA fragment)
% 410814/411367      554       (gap)
% 411368/412335      968       ECOPROC      (DNA fragment)
%
% .
% .
% .
% no

```

```

query20(ClonesAndGaps) :-
    all_dna_fragments(L),
    domain(ecoli_genome,Beg,End),
    set_of_all([X,Y,Gap],
        Ln^
        (adjacent(X,Y,L),
         contains(region(Beg,End),X),
         contains(region(Beg,End),Y),
         gap(X,Y,Gap),
         length_obj(Gap,Ln),
         Ln < 700
        ),
        ClonesAndGaps).

```

Given a region bounded by known sequence, one can use “primers” (strings that occur only once in a specified clone) to start the sequencing reaction. The following query identifies the primers that, used in a DNA sequencing reaction, will supply the sequence to “fill in” the gaps identified above.

Query 21: Given the output of the last query, find the sequencing primers on the counterclockwise and clockwise strands that can be used to complete the sequence.

```

% | ?- query21(L),member(X,L),display_closure(X),fail.
% CCW sequencing primer AACACCAGACCCGCGACAAA(410783)
% 408099/410813      2715      ECOPH0AA     (DNA fragment)
%
% CW sequencing primer GTAACCGCACCGAAGTGGCG(411398)
% 411368/412335      968       ECOPROC      (DNA fragment)
%
% will close the following gap:
% 410814/411367      554       (gap)
%
% The following clones contain the above gap and primers:
%
% 399200/415299      16100      [142]1A10      (Kohara clone)

```

```

% 409727/425480      15754      [143]6A12      (Kohara clone)
% -----
% CCW sequencing primer CAACACGGCCACCGGTAGCA(4155544)
% 4151732/4155574      3843      cytRecoM      (DNA fragment)
%
% CW sequencing primer CCTACAAGTTCGTGCAAATT(4156143)
% 4156113/4164654      8542      metJecoM      (DNA fragment)
%
% will close the following gap:
% 4155575/4156112      538      (gap)
%
% The following clones contain the above gap and primers:
%
% 4146365/4163864      17500      [538]12E3      (Kohara clone)
% -----
% CCW sequencing primer CCCTTCGGAGTTTTAGTCAC(3493602)
% 3490087/3493632      3546      tufAecoM      (DNA fragment)
%
% CW sequencing primer TAATGCCCCCATTAAGGTCT(3494112)
% 3494082/3495097      1016      ECOSTR1      (DNA fragment)
%
% will close the following gap:
% 3493633/3494081      449      (gap)
%
% The following clones contain the above gap and primers:
%
% 3487500/3502699      15200      [626]3F8      (Kohara clone)
% -----

% no

query21(GapClosure) :-
    query20(FragsAndGaps),
    set_of_all([Seq1,Pos1,Seq2,Pos2,Frag1,Frag2,Gap,Clones],
                Id^Clone^MustBeBefore^MustBeAfter^
                (member([Frag1,Frag2,Gap],FragsAndGaps),
                 kohara_clone(Id,Clone), contains(Clone,Gap),
                 once ccw_primer(Frag1,Clone,Seq1,Pos1),
                 once cw_primer(Frag2,Clone,Seq2,Pos2),
                 MustBeBefore is Pos1-20, MustBeAfter is Pos2+20,
                 clones_that_contain(region(MustBeBefore,MustBeAfter),
                                     Clones)
                ),
                GapClosure).

ccw_primer(Object,Clone,Seq,CCWpos) :-
    sequence_of(Clone,CloneSeq),

```



```

        location(Object,Beg,End),
        Start is End-30,
        pick(CCWpos,Start,Beg),
        subseq_backwards(CCWpos,20,Seq,CloneSeq),
        \+ (subseq_both(Pos,20,Seq,CloneSeq,_), Pos =\= CCWpos).

cw_primer(Object,Clone,Seq,CWpos) :-
    sequence_of(Clone,CloneSeq),
    location(Object,Beg,End),
    Start is Beg+30,
    pick(CWpos,Start,End),
    subseq(CWpos,20,Seq,CloneSeq),
    \+ (subseq_both(Pos,20,Seq,CloneSeq,_), Pos =\= CWpos).

clones_that_contain(Obj,Clones) :-
    set_of_all(Clone,
                Id^(kohara_clone(Id,Clone),contains(Clone,Obj)),
                Clones).

display_closure([Seq1,Pos1,Seq2,Pos2,Frag1,Frag2,Gap,Clones]) :-
    format('CCW sequencing primer ~s(~d)~n',[Seq1,Pos1]),
    display_object(Frag1),nl,
    format('CW sequencing primer ~s(~d)~n',[Seq2,Pos2]),
    display_object(Frag2),nl,
    format('will close the following gap:~n',[Gap]),
    display_object(Gap),nl,
    format('The following clones contain the above gap and primers:~n',[Clones]),
    display_objects(Clones),
    format('-----~n',[ ]).

```

This set of example queries has been included only as an illustration of what can be done with a database of the sort we have constructed. In fact, many more queries are routinely made by practicing biologists. We believe that the set we have chosen does accurately reflect the level of effort required to extract a broad range of information.

## 4 Summary

Although enormous resources are going into the effort of accumulating raw sequence data, no effective means yet exists for allowing a biologist to query the data without employing a computing technician. As the volume of available sequence data increases, and as complete genomes begin to be assembled, the need for flexible access to the data is becoming increasingly acute.

A variety of database technologies can be used to achieve flexible access. We have selected logic programming, and we have implemented a prototype system for answering queries about the *E. coli* genome. This system provides numerous capabilities that are not available under any other system. It allows biologically relevant queries to be answered in small fractions of the time that would be required using more conventional tools.

This system was developed as the initial step towards an environment to support comparative

analysis of chromosomes. It will be extended to provide the database services to support queries relating to several chromosomes. Then, we will create user interfaces that make access to the data possible with no special-purpose programming. At this point, we have developed one such interface, based on a restricted use of natural language, and we anticipate that other groups will wish to experiment with other such interfaces.

We believe that an approach based on an extension of the work presented in this document offers the most cost-effective strategy for making the benefits of database technology accessible to the practicing biologist. Logic programming, by integrating database queries with ease of computation, creates an appropriate foundation for building user interfaces that will enable biologists to directly answer the questions required to interpret genetic data.

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## Appendix

### Supported Predicates for Querying the E. coli Database

`adjacent(-Object1,-Object2,+ListOfObjects)`  
Object1 and Object2 are adjacent in ListOfObjects (and the last element in the list is considered to be adjacent to the first)

`align_2_seqs(+String1,+String2,-Corr,-Score)`  
Align the two lists of ascii DNA characters using a Smith-Waterman algorithm. Corr is set to a list of terms of the form P1-P2 where P1 and P2 are displacements (integers from 0) into Seq1 and Seq2.

`align_two_objects(+Obj1,+Obj2)`  
aligns the sequence of Obj1 with that of Obj2 and prints the result

`aligned_sequences(+String1,+String2,-Score,-Aligned1,-Aligned2)`  
This is used to produce aligned versions of Seq1 and Seq2 (i.e., the aligned sequences that are returned are lists of characters that have indels inserted at the appropriate locations).

`alignment_parameters(-U,-V)`  
returns current Smith-Waterman deletion cost parameters (mismatch is always -18, and a match is always +18)

`all_dna_frag_rsites(-AllDna_FragRsites)`  
gets a list of all restriction sites in sequenced fragments of DNA

`all_dna_fragments(-AllFragments)`  
gets a list of all sequenced fragments of DNA

`all_genes(-AllGenes)`  
gets a list of all the genes

`all_known_genes(-AllKnownGenes)`  
gets a list of all structural genes and mapped genes

`all_kohara_clones(-AllClones)`  
gets a list of all of the Kohara clones

`all_kohara_rsites(-AllKoharaRsites)`  
gets a list of all of the Kohara restriction sites

`all_mapped_genes(-MappedGenes)`  
gets a list of unsequenced, but mapped genes

`all_translated_genes(-TranslatedGenes)`  
 gets a list of translated genes

`amino_acid(?OneCharCode,?ThreeCharCode,?AminoAcid)`  
 table of codes used to represent amino acids

`between(+Point1,+Point2,+Point3)`  
 succeeds if Point2 is between Point1 and Point3. This will be the case  
 iff the shortest path on the circular chromosome from Point1 to Point3  
 goes through Point2

`quick_sim(+Seq,+PrintFlag,+MaxMatches,-Matches)`  
 Seq represent a sequence fragment to be quick\_simed against the ecoli  
 database. PrintFlag should be 0 or 1 (print). Matches comes back as  
 a list of terms of the form

`region(FragId,QueryBeg,QueryEnd,FragBeg,FragEnd,Score)`

`bp_to_min(?BasePairs,?Minutes)`  
 converts (using just a simple formula) between BasePair coordinates and  
 Minutes on the genetic map

`char_stats(+Object,+Size,-CharStats)` For a given object (that may or may not  
 have been sequenced), this goes through the sequence cutting it into  
 pieces of length Size. Then it accumulates counts of each of the types of  
 characters (A,C,G,T, and Other) for each interval. The list of CharStats  
 is actually a "list of objects", which means that each interval has a  
 location and can be displayed using `display_object/1`. Thus, you can get  
 character count statistics and then just display them using  
`display_objects/1`. However, the more common use is to feed them into  
 either `gc_histogram/1` or `gc_histogram_averaged_window/1`.

`clean_pins(+Pins,-CleanedPins)`  
 Pins must be a list of pairs of the form P1-P2. CleanedPins is set to a  
 list in which "pins" do not cross. Thus, [3-22,4-23,5-17,7-25] would  
 produce [3-22,4-23,7-25] as the "cleaned" pins.

`codon(?Char1,?Char2,?Char3,?ThreeCharCode,?OneCharCode)`  
 Table of the genetic code, where Char1-3 are ascii numeric values.

`codon_usage(+Objects,-Counts)`  
 Objects is a list of objects. Counts is set to a list of 65 integers.  
 The first is a count of the number of "invalid" codons (i.e., those that  
 contain ambiguous or unsequenced characters). The remaining 64 correspond  
 to the counts of AAA, AAC, AAG, AAT, ACA,...TTT.

`common_seq_at_least_k_long(+Objects,+Min,-Seqs)`

Locates a sequence that is at least Min long in all Objects and then finds all occurrences in the objects and sets Seqs to the set of occurrences.

`common_seq_at_least_k_long_both_strands(+Objects,+Min,-Seqs)`

Locates a sequence that is at least Min long in all Objects and then finds all occurrences in the objects and sets Seqs to the set of occurrences (looking at both strands)

`common_seqs_at_least_k_long(+Objects,+Min,-SubSeqs)`

Computes the set of values returned by `common_seq_at_least_k_long/3`.

`common_seqs_at_least_k_long_both_strands(+Objects,+Min,-SubSeqs)`

Computes the set of values returned by `common_seq_at_least_k_long_both_strands/3`.

`common_sub_sequence(+SequenceObjects,+Length,-Common,-Positions)`

SequenceObjects must be a list of sequence objects (produced by `sequence_at/3` or `sequence_of/2`). Suppose this list has length N. Then Positions will be set to a list of N positions of occurrences of a Common string of the given Length.

`common_sub_sequence_both_strands(+SequenceObjects,+Length,-Common,-Positions)`

SequenceObjects must be a list of sequence objects (produced by `sequence_at/3` or `sequence_of/2`). Suppose this list has length N. Then Positions will be set to a list of N positions of occurrences of a Common string of the given Length. The search proceeds by picking a sequence in the "forwards" strand of the first object, and then by taking strings from either strand of the following objects. The positions are either integers (same strand) or i' (for reverse strand).

`compl(+String,?Complement)`

produces the Watson-Crick complement of a string. Thus, `compl("AACG",X)` binds X to "TTGC"

`complement(+String,-ReversedComplement)`

produces the reversed complement of String. Thus, `complement("AACG",X)` binds X to "CGTT"

`computed_dna_frag_rsite(+LB,+UB,?Beg,?End,-Cuts,+Enzyme)`

LB and UB must be the bounds of a sequenced section of DNA. Beg and End are then the beginning and end of a restriction site for the designated enzyme.

`computed_restriction_fragment(-Beg,-End,+Enzymes,-UsedEnzymes,+LB,+UB)`

Given bounds LB and UB and a list of restriction Enzymes, find Beg and

End that delimit a restriction fragment, and bind UsedEnzymes to a list containing just the two cutting enzymes.

computed\_restriction\_sites\_in\_object(+Obj,+Enzymes,-Sites)

returns a list of computed restriction sites from  
the given set of Enzymes that occur in Obj.

cont\_gc\_histogram(+Object,+SizeOfWindow)

Given a sequenced Object and a size of a window, produce a histogram  
with one entry for each position in the object which can be the center  
of a window. The histogram gives the average GC content of the window.

contains(+ContainingObject,+ContainedObject)

succeeds if the first object contains the second

convergent\_genes(-Gene1,-Gene2)

binds Gene1 and Gene2 to convergent genes (which are objects, not IDs)

direction(+Gene,?Direction)

Gene must be a gene, and direction gets bound to clockwise or  
counterclockwise.

disp\_seqs(+Ids,+Strings)

This is used to display a set of sequences that might be over 50  
characters long. Thus,

```
disp_seqs([seq1,seq2],[S1,S2])
```

would interleave 50 characters of each sequence in a visual display.

disp\_seqs(+Ids,+Strings,+StartingLocations)

like disp\_seqs/2, except that the positions of sequences can be specified.

display\_object(+Object)

displays an arbitrary object (gene, dna\_fragment, sequence object, etc.)

display\_objects(+ListOfObjects)

displays a list of objects

dist(+Point1,+Point2,-Distance)

gets the Distance from Point1 to Point2 on the circular chromosome

divergent\_genes(-Gene1,-Gene2)

gets two divergent genes (Gene1 and Gene2 are adjacent; Gene1 is expressed  
ccw and Gene2 cw)

dna\_frag\_rsite(?Beg,?End,?Enzyme)



Beg and End delimit a site that is matched by the cutting pattern for the designated Enzyme in a sequenced section of the genome

`dna_frag_rsite(?Object)`

Object is bound to an object representing a DNA fragment restriction site.

`dna_fragment(?Id,?Beg,?End)`

Id is the ID of a sequenced fragment of the genome beginning at Beg and ending at End

`dna_fragment(?Id,?Object)`

Id is the ID of a sequenced fragment represented by the object Object.

`end_of(+Object,-EndLocation)`

Equivalent to `location(Object,_,EndLocation)` for noncomposite objects. For composite objects, it gives the location of the last piece.

`find_pp_match(+Pat,+Gene,-PolyPepTide)`

Pat must be an encoding of a pattern to scan for in the translation of Gene. PolyPepTide is bound to a section of the translation that matches. Pat is a list of pattern units. Each unit is one of the following:

1. a string of 1-character amino acid codes, with ? to represent an arbitrary amino acid (e.g., "CP???H"),
2. the alternative of two patterns P1 and P2, which is represented as

P1;P2

To illustrate,

```
| ?- gene(thrA,Gene), find_pp_match(["RE?E",("H";"L")],Gene,Match),
    display_object(Match).
```

```
2280/2294          15          thrA (expressed) clockwise
                   RELE L
```

`first_n(+List,+N,-ListOfFirstN,-AllButFirstN)`

ListOfFirstN is set to be a list of the first N elements of List, and AllButFirstN is bound to a list of the remaining elements in List.

`gap(+Object1,+Object2,-Gap)`

Gap is bound to an object representing the gap between Object1 and Object2.

`gaps(+Objects,-Gaps)`  
 Gaps is bound to a list of any gaps that occur between the objects in the list `Objects`.

`gc_histogram(+CharStats)`  
 writes a histogram of the GC contents of the intervals described in `CharStats` (produced by `char_stats/3`).

`gc_histogram_averaged_window(+CharStats)`  
`gc_histogram/1` just produces a bar for the GC percentage for each interval, with the bar corresponding to the midpoint of the interval. This looks at adjacent intervals, setting the bar to represent the GC percentage for two adjacent intervals. Thus, there is an overlapping effect.

`gene(?Id,?Beg,?End,?Direction)`  
 Beg and End delimit a transcribed section of the genome, where `Direction` is either counterclockwise or clockwise, giving the direction of transcription.

`gene(?Id,?Object)`  
 Object is an object representing the gene with ID `Id`. This predicate is identical to `structural_gene/2`. To get only genes that are translated, use `translated_gene/2`.

`genetic_code(?DNA,?AminoAcids)`  
 DNA is a list of Ascii characters representing DNA, and `AminoAcids` is set to a list of 1-char-codes of the corresponding amino acids produced by translation of the code

`group(+ListOfKeyValuePairs,-Groups)`  
 This routine takes a list of sorted key-value pairs and groups them. For example  
     `group([3-a,3-b,4-c,5-a,5-c],X)`  
 would bind `X` to `[3-[a,b],4-[c],5-[a,c]]`

`helix(+StartLoop,+LoopMin,+LoopMax,-Ln,-SizeLoop)`  
 StartLoop specifies a point in the genome. This routine considers all possible helices that could be formed with perfect pairing and loops containing `LoopMin` to `LoopMax` characters. `Ln` is set to the maximum length of the stem of a helix, and `SizeLoop` gets the size of the loop that produced the maximal stem length.

`histogram(+ListOfPairs)`  
 ListOfPairs must be a list of X-Y pairs. A histogram is printed on the terminal to represent the data (one line of asterisks for each pair).

`init`  
 an initialization routine that must be run before access to sequence data are made. The routine loads sequences from the file "sequences" into main memory, where C routines access the data.

`is_left(+Point1,+Point2)`  
 succeeds if the shortest path from Point2 to Point1 is counterclockwise  
 ("Point1 is to the left of Point2")

`is_right(+Point1,+Point2)`  
 succeeds if the shortest path from Point2 to Point1 is clockwise  
 ("Point1 is to the right of Point2")

`kmer-usage(+Objects,+K,-Counts)`  
 Accumulates a list of K-mer counts. For example,

```
| ?- gene(thrA,G), kmer_usage([G],1,L).
```

```
G = gene(thrA,207,2669,clockwise),
L = [0,553,614,692,604]
```

Here, there were

```
0   - invalid 1-mers (ambiguous or unsequenced)
553 - As
614 - Cs
692 - Gs
604 - Ts
```

`known_gene(?Id,?Gene)`  
 either a structural gene or a mapped gene

`kohara_clone(?Id,?Object)`  
 Object is an object representing the Kohara clone with ID Id.

`kohara_clone(?Id,?Beg,?End)`  
 The Kohara clone with ID Id begins at Beg and ends at End.

`kohara_enzymes(?Enzymes)`  
 the enzymes that Kohara used to construct his map

`kohara_restriction_fragment(-Beg,-End,+Enzymes,-UsedEnzymes)`  
 There is a Kohara restriction fragment from Beg to End bounded by cutting sites for the two enzymes in UsedEnzymes, which are both elements of Enzymes.

`kohara_rsite(?Beg,?End,?Enzyme)`  
 Beg and End bound a cutting site for Enzyme in the Kohara map.

`kohara_rsite(?Object)`  
 Object represents a Kohara restriction site.

`kohara_rsites_in_object(+Object,-Rsites)`  
 binds Rsites to the list of Kohara restriction sites that occur in Object

`length_obj(+Object,-Ln)`  
 Ln is the length of Object.

`length_objects(+Objects,-Ln)`  
 binds Ln to the sum of the lengths of the objects in the list Objects

`location(+Object,?Beg,?End)`  
 Object has a piece that begins at Beg and ends at End. Normally, objects are not composite, so this succeeds just once. However, for composite objects, it will succeed multiple times.

`longest_common_subseq(+Seqs,-Common,-Positions)`  
 Seqs must be a list of sequence objects (produced by `sequence_at/3` and `sequence_of/2`). Suppose that the length of this list is N. Then, Common string and Positions are bound to a set of N unique positions (each from the corresponding sequence object). Thus,

`longest_common_subseq([Prefix, Gene, Gene], Common, [P1, P2, P3])`

would find the longest sequence that occurred in Prefix and twice in Gene. P1 would get the occurrence in Prefix. This call is determinate.

`map_restriction_fragments(+Object,+Enzymes,-Map)`  
 produces a list of restriction fragments (which are objects) which would be formed by Enzymes cutting Object. One can display the map using `display_objects/1`. Object must be sequenced.

`mapped_gene(?Id,-Gene)`  
 used to access genes that have been mapped, but not sequenced

`mapped_gene(?Id,?Mapper,?Dir,?MapLoc,?BasePair)`  
 Mapper is the name of the person who did the map (e.g., 'Bach.' for Barbara Bachmann); Dir is 'clockwise', 'counterclockwise', or 'unknown'; MapLoc is the location on the map, using whatever units the Mapper gave; BasePair is the location on the chromosome that we computed by converting the MapLoc.

`match(+Pattern,+String)`

If Pattern is a string that may contain ambiguous characters (Ns, Rs, Ys, etc.) and String is a string of DNA, then this succeeds if each character in the pattern matches the corresponding character in the string. An ambiguous character in the pattern matches the appropriate values in the string. On the other hand, an ambiguous character in the string will match only that exact character in the pattern (preventing a string of Ns in the string from matching every restriction enzyme).

maxL(+List,-Maximum)

Maximum is the maximum element in List.

max\_match(+Pattern,+String,-Matched)

Matched is set to the maximum number of characters that the pattern matches the string.

minL(+List,-Minimum)

Minimum is the minimum value in List.

minutes\_to\_bp(+Min,-Bp)

converts a coordinate given in minutes on the Bachmann genetic map to a base pair location (by interpolation between points that occur on both the genetic and physical maps).

on\_circular\_chromosome(+X,-XonChrom)

XonChrom is X modulo the length of the chromosome.

once(+Goal)

allows a single solution of Goal

overlaps(+Object1,+Object2)

succeeds iff Object1 overlaps Object2

overlaps(+Object1,+Object2,-OvBeg,-OvEnd)

like overlaps/2, except that the region of overlap is returned

pick(-X,+StartOfRange,+EndOfRange)

This clause allows you to pick a value of X in the range StartOfRange to EndOfRange. The values may be ascending or descending.

polypeptide(?Id,?PolyPepTide)

used to access translations of structural genes that code for proteins

polypeptide(?Id,?Beg,?End,?Dir,?AAs)

For the translated gene given by translated\_gene(Id,Beg,End,Dir), AAs is a list of "chunks of the polypeptide", where each chunk is a list of the 1-character amino acid codes. This predicate always returns AAs as a list of one element, which is the translation of the region Beg/End. Other

routines occasionally return the translation broken into sublists; these are separated by a space when the string is displayed.

`print_codon_usage(+Counts)`

displays the meaning of the 65 integers in the list `Counts`. For example,

```
| ?- gene(thrA,G),codon_usage([G],L),print_codon_usage(L).
number valid codons = 821
number invalid codons = 0
```

alanine: 92	11.21%
GCA: 15	1.83%
GCC: 36	4.38%
GCG: 27	3.29%
GCT: 14	1.71%

arginine: 47	5.72%
AGA: 0	0.00%
AGG: 2	0.24%
CGA: 3	0.37%
CGC: 19	2.31%
CGG: 5	0.61%
CGT: 18	2.19%

asparagine: 40	4.87%
AAC: 18	2.19%
AAT: 22	2.68%

.  
.  
.

`print_gc_content(+Counts)`

displays GC content represented by `Counts` returned by `kmer_usage/2`.

For example,

```
| ?- gene(thrA,G), kmer_usage([G],1,L), print_gc_content(L).
invalid bases: 0
```

Gs, Cs: 1306	53.02%
As, Ts: 1157	46.98%

```
G = gene(thrA,207,2669,clockwise),
L = [0,553,614,692,604]
```

`print_kmer_usage(+Counts,+K)`

displays the `Counts` returned by `kmer_usage/2`. For example,

```
| ?- gene(thrA,G), kmer_usage([G],1,L), print_kmer_usage(L,1).
invalid 1mers: 0
```

```
A: 553          22.45%
C: 614          24.93%
G: 692          28.10%
T: 604          24.52%
```

```
G = gene(thrA,207,2669,clockwise),
L = [0,553,614,692,604]
```

`restriction_site(+Enzyme,-Pattern,-DisplacementToCut)`  
 returns the pattern and position of the cut for a specified restriction enzyme

`restriction_sites_in_object(+Obj,+Enzymes,-Sites)`  
 returns a list of restriction sites (both computed and Kohara sites) from the given set of Enzymes that occur in Obj. To get just the computed restriction sites, use `computed_restriction_sites_in_object/3`.

`scan_mem_for_pat(+Pattern,+Beg,+End,-Matches)`  
 To scan a section of the chromosome for the occurrence of a pattern, one uses the routine `scan_mem_for_pattern_occurrence/4`:

```
| ?- gene(aceE,Gene),start_of(Gene,Beg),end_of(Gene,End),
    scan_mem_for_pattern_occurrence(Beg,End,
    [pvar(p1,dna("RYRYRY")),
    elipses(0,400),
    repeat(p1,1,1,0)],0cc),
    display_object(0cc).
```

```
123436/123464:          sequence
                  123436      GCGTGC TCAGTATCTGATCGACCA ACTGC
```

```
Gene = gene(aceE,123344,126004,clockwise),
Beg = 123344,
End = 126004,
0cc = seq(123436,123464,spaces([123442,123460]))
```

`sequence_at(+Beg,+End,-SequenceObject)`  
 produces a sequence object representing the section of the genome from Beg to End.

`sequence_of(+Object,-SequenceObject)`  
 produces a sequence object representing the sequence of a given object.

```

sequenced(+Object)
    succeeds if Object has been entirely sequenced

set_sw_parameters(+U,+V)
    set insertion costs for the Smith-Waterman alignment algorithm.
    Mismatches cost -18; matches have a similarity of +18. Insertion of n
    indels costs -(U + nV).

set_sw_parameters(U,V)
    sets the costs of insertions for the Smith-Waterman
    algorithm. "Identical matches" are worth 18 points of similarity for
    DNA/RNA. The cost of a k-indel insertion is U+kV. Default settings for
    the DNA/RNA alphabet (which is the default alphabet) are U=0, V=18.

similarity_search(+String1,+Id1,+String2,+Id2,+MS,+Q,+R,+K,+Print,-Sim)
    This predicate invokes the similarity search generously contributed by
    Xiaoqiu Huang and Webb Miller. Seq1 and Seq2 are lists of ascii
    characters. Id1 and Id2 are atoms. MS, Q, R, and K are as described
    above. Print_flag == yes -> write out the report of similarities;
    anything else will suppress printing. Similarities are bound to a list in
    which each element is of the form

```

```

        similarity(Score,NumCharMatched,LengthOfAlignmentWithIndels,
                   NumberMisMatches,Start1,End1,Start2,End2)

```

Here is a little example:

```

:- similarity_search("aaaaaaaaacccccccccggggggggg",seq1,
                    "ccccaacccccaaaaacccc",seq2,
                    -1.0,2.2,0.2,2,yes,Similarities).

```

produces the following output:

```

=====

```

Match	Mismatch	Gap-Open Penalty	Gap-Extension Penalty
1.0	-1.0	2.1	0.1

```

        Upper Sequence : seq1
        Length : 27
        Lower Sequence : seq2
        Length : 20

```

```

*****

```

```

    Number 1 Local Alignment
    Similarity Score : 9
    Match Percentage : 100%
    Number of Matches : 9

```



```

Number of Mismatches : 0
Total Length of Gaps : 0
Begins at (5, 12) and Ends at (13, 20)

```

```

0      .
5 aaaaacccc
  |||||
12 aaaaacccc

```

\*\*\*\*\*

```

Number 2 Local Alignment
Similarity Score : 8.4
Match Percentage : 68%
Number of Matches : 11
Number of Mismatches : 0
Total Length of Gaps : 5
Begins at (8, 5) and Ends at (18, 20)

```

```

0      .      :      .
8 aaccccc      cccc
  |||||-----|||
5 aacccccaaaaacccc

```

```

X = [similarity(90,9,9,0,5,13,12,20),similarity(84,11,16,0,8,18,5,20)]

```

similarity\_search(+String1,+String2)

runs the local similarity search and displays the best 5 alignments

sites\_in\_object(+Object,-Sites)

Sites is set to a list of objects representing "interesting sites" that occur in Object. You can use display\_objects/1 to display the objects.

sites\_in\_object\_both(+Object,-Sites)

Sites is set to a list of objects representing "interesting sites" that occur in Object, looking at both strands.

start\_of(+Object,-StartingLocation)

equivalent to location(Object,StartingLocation,\_) for noncomposite objects. For composite objects, it gives the location of the first piece.

sub\_list(+Pattern,+String,-LocOfMatch)

finds a location in String (location values start from 1) for which Pattern matches.

sub\_seq(+Position,+Ln,?String)

a predicate that takes some of the pain out of invoking subseq/4. Position is an expression that gets evaluated. Then, String is set to the

Ln characters that occur at that position (on the clockwise strand) at that location.

`subseq(?Position,?Length,?String,+SequenceObject)`  
as described in the tutorial

`subseq_backwards(?Position,?Length,?String,+SequenceObject)`  
as described in the tutorial

`subseq_both(?Position,?Length,?String,+SequenceObject,-Direction)`  
as described in the tutorial

`subseqs_in_obj(+Object,+String,-Positions)`  
binds Positions to a list of all occurrences of String in the Object (which does not have to be a sequence object). This predicate fails if there are no occurrences.

`sum_gaps(+ListOfGaps,-Sum)`  
ListOfGaps must be a list of gap objects. Sum is bound to the sum of the lengths of the gaps.

`trans_to_polypeptide(+Beg,+End,+Dir,-AAs)`  
translates the DNA string in the region Beg/End in the direction given by Dir, setting AAs to the list of 1-character amino acid codes

`translated_gene(?Id,?Object)`  
Object is an object representing the gene with ID Id. Furthermore, the gene has a length that is a multiple of 3, and it begins with ATG or GTG and terminates with either TGA, TAA or TAG.

`unique(+Beg,+End)`  
succeeds if the region Beg/End has been sequenced, and if the value occurs just once.

`write_list(+List)`  
displays the list of Prolog terms