

# On Semantic Similarity and Relatedness for Knowledge-Driven Discovery in Biomedical Data

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## Abstract

A great variety of tasks, from word sense disambiguation and document retrieval to assessing the functional similarity of gene products and validating protein-protein interaction networks, depend on the ability to measure the semantic similarity between concepts organized in ontologies. This report is a comprehensive study of classic and recent computational methods measuring semantic relatedness. Motivational arguments set the stage for a survey of the methods, applications and a critical assessment of the methods and of the various evaluation strategies adopted in the literature. Proposals for future directions in the areas of measuring semantic similarity and relatedness, as well as suggestions for improvement, currently under investigation, are offered.

## Contents

|                       |          |
|-----------------------|----------|
| <b>1 Introduction</b> | <b>2</b> |
| <b>References</b>     | <b>9</b> |

# Glossary

## 1 Introduction

As various high-throughput technologies mature and become more cost effective, the major challenge in bioinformatics is no longer how to generate vast quantities of genomic data, but rather how to best collect, manage, and analyze the data. I will attempt to explain in this section how ontologies as “formal, explicit specification[s] of a shared conceptualization”[47], and associated reasoning techniques, in particular the concept of *similarity*, apply to the current biological data analysis methods as well as to the emerging discovery systems. I will then cover existing techniques for measuring concept similarity as well as evaluation strategies for these techniques (section2), a side by side comparison (section 3 ). In the last section I will discuss several issues important to both improving the measurement techniques and assessing the quality of similarity measures as well as my current research and directions for future research.

The most basic reason bio-ontologies have been receiving an increased amount of attention is their potential to help solve the semantic mismatch, which is a major impediment that data analysis strategies must overcome even for very simple research scenarios. It is widely acknowledged that heterogeneity is inherent in biological data, but there is perhaps less awareness of its extent and pervasiveness.

Heterogeneity occurs not only in the schemas used to store data, but also in the actual data values themselves. For example, comparisons between microarray data are difficult not only because of the biological, technical, and analytical differences between studies but also because the results may be reported in different gene nomenclatures such as those used by Genbank<sup>1</sup>, Entrez Gene<sup>2</sup>, EMBL Nucleotide Sequence Database<sup>3</sup>, Unigene<sup>4</sup>, Affymetrix, etc. The use of ambiguous terms, is another wide spread and difficult to resolve issue. A prominent example is the concept of *gene*. For the Human Genome Database<sup>5</sup>, a gene is a “DNA fragment that

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<sup>1</sup> Available at: <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Genbank/>

<sup>2</sup> Available at: <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/sites/entrez?db=gene>

<sup>3</sup> Available at: <http://www.ebi.ac.uk/embl/>

<sup>4</sup> Available at: <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/sites/entrez?db=unigene>

<sup>5</sup> Available at: <http://www.hugo-international.org/>

can be transcribed and translated into a protein” but for Genbank<sup>6</sup> a gene is a “DNA region of biological interest with a name and that carries a genetic trait or phenotype”. Since the second definition includes nonstructural coding DNA regions like introns, promoters and enhancers, there is a clear semantic distinction between those two notions of *gene* but both continue to be used by different communities. Another commonly used term with multiple meanings is *protein function*. Depending on the context, *function* can refer to a *biochemical function*, e.g. enzyme catalysis, a *genetic function*, e.g. transcription repressor, a *physiological function*, e.g. signal transducer, etc.

The fundamental reason that makes resolving semantic heterogeneity so difficult is that the data sets are developed independently, and therefore varying structures and naming strategies are used to represent the same or overlapping concepts. In many cases the data systems to be integrated were developed for very different business and research needs. Hence, even if they model overlapping domains, they may model them in distinct ways as different agents/actors have varying conceptualizations of their domain of interest. Semantic standardization would impose a certain view of a domain, but in many situations this is not feasible because the domain is changing very fast and/or competing players cannot agree due to costs or diverging interests or views of the domain.

Although ontologies, as computer readable formulations of concepts and relationships among them, are hailed as the potential solution to the semantic interoperability problem, there is no clear consensus on what an ontology really is and depending on the context, an ontology can refer to, for example, a , a with an informal representation, typically consisting of *is-a* relationships, a *conceptual model of a domain*, including rules to infer new knowledge.

From the many ontology formalisms we adopt here the definition given in the Karsrue Ontology Model[34]. This framework does not handle constraints and axioms but it is its simplicity that makes it better suited to bio-ontologies, most of which have very informal representations.

**Definition 1.1** *An ontology with datatypes is a structure  $O := (C, T, R, A, I, V, \sigma_R, \sigma_A, \leq_C$*

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<sup>6</sup>Available at: <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Genbank/>

,  $\leq_R, \leq_A, i_C, i_T, i_R, i_A$ ) consisting of

- 6 disjoint sets  $C, T, R, A, I$  and  $V$  called concepts, datatypes, relations, attributes, instances and datavalues
- partial orders concept hierarchy,  $\leq_C$  on  $C$ , and type hierarchy,  $\leq_T$  on  $T$
- functions relation signature,  $\sigma_R : R \rightarrow C \times C$ , and attribute signature,  $\sigma_A : A \rightarrow C \times T$
- partial orders  $\leq_R$  on  $R$  and  $\leq_A$  on  $A$
- instantiation functions  $i_C : C \rightarrow 2^I, i_T : T \rightarrow 2^V, i_R : R \rightarrow 2^{I \times I}, i_A : A \rightarrow 2^{I \times V}$

In this formalism the hierarchical relations  $\leq$  represent the *is-a* relations from other formal and informal definitions.

I illustrate the ontology definition with an example which relates genes and pathways.

**Example 1.1** Let  $O_{\text{pathway-example}}$  be the structure  $(C, T, R, A, I, V, \sigma_R, \sigma_A, \leq_C, \leq_R, \leq_A, i_C, i_T, i_R, i_A)$ , where

- $C = \{ \text{ROOT}, \text{PATHWAY}, \text{GENE} \}$ ,
- $T = \{ \text{string} \}$ ,
- $R = \{ \text{is\_involved\_in}, \text{changes\_expression\_level} \}$ ,
- $V = \{ \text{"signaling"}, \text{"metabolic"} \}$ ,
- $I = \{ \text{Insulin\_Signaling\_Pathway}, \text{Glycolysis\_Pathway}, \text{INS}, \text{GAPDH} \}$ ,
- $A = \{ \text{CATEGORY} \}$ ,
- $\leq_C = \{ (\text{ROOT}, \text{PATHWAY}), (\text{ROOT}, \text{GENE}) \}$ ,
- $\leq_R = \{ \}$ ,
- $\leq_A = \{ \}$ ,

- $i_C = \{(PATHWAY, \{Insulin\_Signaling\_Pathway\}), (PATHWAY, \{Glycolysis\_Pathway\}), (GENE, \{INS\}), (GENE, \{GAPDH\})\}$ ,
- $i_A = \{(CATEGORY, (Insulin\_Signaling\_Pathway, "signaling")), (CATEGORY, \{(Glycolysis\_Pathway, "metabolic")\})\}$ ,
- $i_T = \{(string, "signaling", "metabolic")\}$ ,
- $i_R = \{(is\_involved\_in, \{(GAPDH, Glycolysis\_Pathway)\}), (changes\_expression\_level, \{(Insulin\_Signaling\_Pathway, INS)\})\}$

Among the many ontologies developed for the biomedical domain, Systematized Nomenclature of Medicine - Clinical Terms(SNOMED-CT) and the Gene Ontology(GO)[26] are the most widely used. Several dozen others are maintained by the Open Biomedical Ontology<sup>7</sup> and many more are being developed independently by various research groups around the world. SNOMED-CT has more than 370 000 unique concepts, covering most areas of clinical information such as diseases and microorganisms, which related through semantic relations such as *is-a*, *treats*, *prevents*, *has ingredient*, etc. The concepts are organized into 13 hierarchies united by a root concept.

The Gene Ontology, developed by the Gene Ontology Consortium, is one of the most widely used systems for semantic annotation. Although it has been often criticized for inconsistencies and for not adhering to formal principles[112, 111], it is nevertheless acquiring the status of a standard ontology across various biological domains. The Gene Ontology is structured into three domain ontologies (*molecular function*(MF), *biological process*(BP) and *cellular component*(CC)) with the terms organized in a directed acyclic graph. The relationships between terms are of several types: *is-a*, *part-of*, *regulates*, *positively-regulates*, and *negatively-regulates*. According to the GO documentation, a biological process is “a recognized series of events or molecular functions”, but currently there are no associative relationships in GO indicating whether a molecular function is involved in a biological process. In May 2008 the Gene Ontology consortium announced that it will introduce *regulates* relationships within the Molecular Func-

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<sup>7</sup><http://www.obofoundry.org/>

tion ontology and between the MF and BP ontologies at the end of 2008. This decision comes as a recognition of the necessity to make explicit some relatedness relationships in addition to similarity (*is-a*) or compositionality (*part-of*) relationships. However, although relationships such as the one between *regulation of kinase activity*(BP) and *kinase activity*(MF) will be made explicit with the introduction of the new links, others, such as between *transcription*(BP) and *aryl hydrocarbon receptor binding*(MF), will not. In addition, other relatedness relationships, such as *localization*, for example between *nucleus*(CC) and *DNA binding*(MF), or between *chromosome*(CC) and *sister chromatid biocondensation*(BP) need to be discovered automatically. In some cases it is possible to detect by a simple lexical analysis the localization relationships between CC and MF terms such as *Golgi apparatus*(CC), *Golgi organization and biogenesis*(MF), or between CC and BP terms such as *vacuole*(CC) and *vacuolar protein processing*(BP), but most such relationships, such as between *nucleus*(CC) and *mRNA transcription*(BP), are not immediately evident and more sophisticated techniques are needed.

As amply illustrated by the literature, the importance of the biomedical ontologies, GO especially, goes beyond simply that of simple annotation vocabularies. They are central to a multitude of tasks, from predictive functional genomics to information retrieval and mediating between data sources in data integration engines.

### **Automatic Annotation of Gene Products**

One of the most exciting applications of annotation terms is their use as a predictive instruments for tasks such as assigning functions or localization information to unannotated genes and proteins identified by genome sequencing and other methods. This is an area that has received significant attention in the past years, as many organisms have now been completely sequenced, but establishing the function(s) of various genes is lagging behind. For example, the *Arabidopsis thaliana* (thale cress) genome is completely sequenced, but functional annotation of the genes remains a key challenge as approximately 50% of the 28,000 genes have not been assigned any function.

Another frequent computational task is the analysis of high-throughput experimental data in order to identify genes which are differentially expressed between normal and pathological

tissues. This analysis includes associating the significant genes with descriptors that may help explain the biological meaning of the experimental results. The process of finding/predicting the most relevant descriptors can take advantage of the annotations attached to the similar or related gene products in the medical/bio-chemical literature and/or various public and proprietary databases.

### **Predicting Gene Function**

Typically, investigators use computational sequence analysis tools to assign functions to newly found gene products. To date, the most commonly used techniques are based on physical association, genetic interaction, sequence relationships, patterns of gene expression and *enrichment analysis*. Much of the work in enrichment analysis uses statistical methods[53, 115, 64, 17, 1, 120], primarily based on the frequency of terms associated with a list of genes, without taking into account the semantic relationships that may exist between the terms. Ignoring this information, however, may result in failure to identify the similar genes that are annotated with distinct but semantically similar or related terms.

In semantic similarity approaches the functional similarity between gene products is calculated by matching the functional domains that they contain, which addresses the main problem of sequence-based similarity, i.e., when the region of a gene product that is matched by a query sequence is not related to the function of that gene product.

The functional relationship is usually estimated by comparing the shared annotation of gene products. The annotation terms most often belong to a controlled vocabulary system, such as GO and several methods exist to assess the similarity of sets of such terms. However, simply identifying shared GO annotations may not be adequate for the estimation of semantic similarity as even if two annotations are different, they can be closely related via their common ancestors in the taxonomy. On the other hand, the shared terms may be too general to be used as evidence for the functional association of annotated gene products and the GO graph structure can be used to improve the sensitivity of semantic measures.

### **Evaluation of Domain-Domain and Protein-Protein interaction Networks**

In addition to enabling the identification of functionally related gene products, similarity

measures can also be used to predict and validate high-throughput protein interaction data. The prediction of protein-protein interactions is mainly based on the homology of protein sequences, but the experimental coverage of the interactomes for many organisms is still low and other methods are needed to help validate the posited interactions. In recent years, several techniques[75, 72, 103] have been proposed, with very promising results, for the ab initio prediction of protein-protein interactions and for assessing the quality of extant predictions. The initial evaluation studies all corroborated the conclusion that functional similarity based on the Gene Ontology annotations improve the accuracy of the interaction predictions.

### Ontology-based Data Integration

As we approach the post-genomic era, it is estimated that the focus will move from “models-of-analysis” of the existing data, such as algorithms for functional gene clustering, to “models-of-process”, which aim at explaining the relationship between genomic data and the biological pathways underlying physiologic processes. The next logical step, and ultimately the goal of genomic research, is relating these processes to clinical outcomes and achieving this goal will rely on methods that perform the semantic integration of various data sources from different levels of biology.

The development of ontologies is seen as a key to successful semantic data integration [48], but having domain ontologies will not solve the data integration problem right away as even within a single domain there are many competing ontologies. For example the *C. elegans development* and *C. elegans anatomy* ontologies from the Open Biomedical Ontology repository<sup>8</sup> and *C. elegans cell and anatomy* ontology developed for WormBase<sup>9</sup> were all developed to describe concepts related to the worm anatomy, but, with slightly different research goals in mind.

As most of the existing resources contain annotations from only one ontology, any researcher interested in performing a cross-species analysis would need a method to combine the annotations contained in all the data sources. As an example, one of the tasks currently receiving a lot of attention is linking genome sequence information to organism function, which is commonly

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<sup>8</sup> <http://www.obofoundry.org/>

<sup>9</sup><http://www.wormbase.org/>

accomplished by characterizing phenotypes resulting from mutations. The required bridging between genotype and phenotype information is generally achieved through the integration of knowledge sources such as EntrezGene(EG) and Online Mendelian Inheritance in Man (OMIM)<sup>10</sup>. The ontologies used by EG and OMIM, as by most biomedical systems, have been developed independently, and since they do not adhere to a common vocabulary their integration is performed manually or by highly customized software [82]. An automatic mapping system will greatly speed up the integration process, and a significant amount a research is being conducted in this area. Much of the work is aimed at leveraging the results accumulated in the similar area of database schema matching, but new techniques are needed for ontology mapping and integration as this area presents challenges and opportunities not existing in databases.

Both ontologies and schemas (i) provide a vocabulary of terms that describes a domain of interest and (ii) constrain the meaning of terms used in the vocabulary. However, database schemas often do not provide explicit semantics for their data as the semantics is, usually, specified explicitly only at modelling time and it is not a part of a database specification and therefore not available. Formal ontologies, on the other hand, are logical systems that obey some formal semantics so that we can interpret ontology definitions as sets of logical axioms. The mapping strategies also differ in the way they perform the core operation of assessing the *similarity* between the items being matched. In database schema matching the similarity is evaluated with the help of techniques that “guess” the meaning encoded in the schemas, while the ontology matching systems (primarily) try to exploit the knowledge explicitly encoded in the ontologies.

A comprehensive discussion of the differences and commonalities between ontologies database schemas and other knowledge representation technologies is outside the scope of this paper and I refer the reader to [123] for a good overview.

The focuss of this review is *semantic similarity*, an issue central to data processing algorithms such as functional gene clustering and validation of interaction networks as well as integrative data discovery systems.

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<sup>10</sup>Available at: <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/sites/entrez?db=omim>

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