

Phenoscape: Semantic analysis of organismal traits and genes yields insights in evolutionary biology

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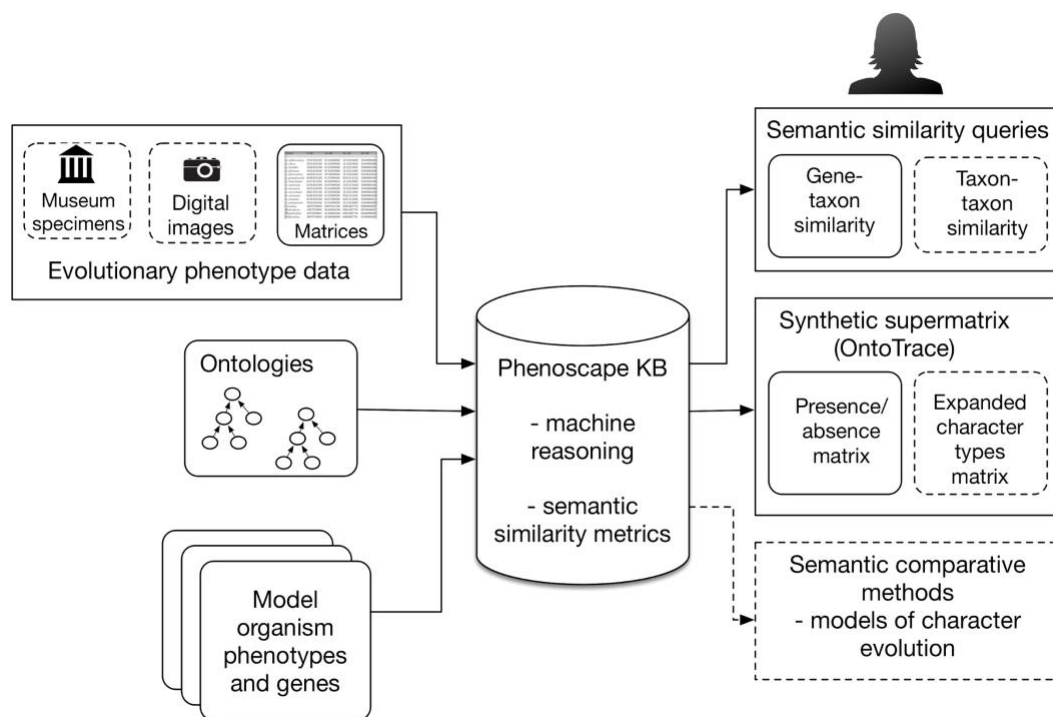
1 ABSTRACT

2 The study of how the observable features of organisms, i.e., their phenotypes, result from the
3 complex interplay between genetics, development, and the environment, is central to much
4 research in biology. The varied language used in the description of phenotypes, however,
5 impedes the large scale and interdisciplinary analysis of phenotypes by computational methods.
6 The Phenoscape project (www.phenoscape.org) has developed semantic annotation tools and a
7 gene–phenotype knowledgebase, the Phenoscape KB, that uses machine reasoning to connect
8 evolutionary phenotypes from the comparative literature to mutant phenotypes from model
9 organisms. The semantically annotated data enables the linking of novel species phenotypes with
10 candidate genes that may underlie them. Semantic annotation of evolutionary phenotypes further
11 enables previously difficult or novel analyses of comparative anatomy and evolution. These
12 include generating large, synthetic character matrices of presence/absence phenotypes based on
13 inference, and searching for taxa and genes with similar variation profiles using semantic
14 similarity. Phenoscape is further extending these tools to enable users to automatically generate
15 synthetic supermatrices for diverse character types, and use the domain knowledge encoded in
16 ontologies for evolutionary trait analysis. Curating the annotated phenotypes necessary for this
17 research requires significant human curator effort, although semi-automated natural language
18 processing tools promise to expedite the curation of free text. As semantic tools and methods are
19 developed for the biodiversity sciences, new insights from the increasingly connected stores of
20 interoperable phenotypic and genetic data are anticipated.

21 INTRODUCTION

22 There are over 20 million extant species on the planet, most of which can be described in
23 relation to their unique and widely diverse phenotypes. Comparisons across species phenotypes,
24 however, cannot yet readily be made using computer-assisted methods. This is because the rich
25 legacy of comparative morphology has not yet been semantically enabled—that is, the corpus is
26 in a free-text format that renders computation nearly impossible. This situation began to change
27 almost two decades ago when model organism geneticists began representing the phenotypic
28 changes resulting from experimental gene manipulations, with terms from anatomy or phenotype
29 ontologies that they developed for each model organism (e.g., Sprague et al. 2001). More
30 recently, the opportunity to enable interoperability from the phenotypes of biodiverse species to
31 candidate genes from model species (Mabee et al. 2007a, 2007b) motivated the Phenoscope team
32 to develop one of the first multispecies anatomy ontologies, the Teleost Anatomy Ontology
33 (Dahdul et al. 2010b), based initially on the Zebrafish Anatomy Ontology (Ruzicka et al. 2015).
34 Developing ontologies appropriate for biodiversity, including taxonomy ontologies (Midford et
35 al. 2013) and scaling them up first to the level of teleost fishes (Dahdul et al. 2010), then to the
36 level of vertebrates (Dahdul et al. 2012) and then to the level of metazoans (Mungall et al. 2012;
37 Haendel et al. 2014), further enabled the automation of phenotypic comparisons across vertebrate
38 species and discovery of candidate genes underlying evolutionarily novel phenotypes by the
39 team (Edmunds et al. 2016). Over the past ten years a broad community of scientists invested in
40 the development of shared community ontologies (e.g., Gkoutos et al. 2005; Haendel et al. 2008,
41 2014; Dahdul et al. 2014), annotation tools (Balhoff et al. 2010, 2014a; Yoder et al. 2010; Cui et
42 al. 2016; The Gene Ontology Consortium 2017) and formats (Dahdul et al. 2010a; Vos et al.
43 2012) for phenotype annotation across biodiverse species (Dahdul et al. 2010a). These resources

44 have made computational analyses possible and they have been leveraged to build a wealth of
 45 innovative applications (e.g., Deans et al. 2012; Mullins et al. 2012; Balhoff et al. 2013;
 46 Dececchi et al. 2015; Manda et al. 2015; Druzinsky et al. 2016; Jackson et al. 2018) across a
 47 variety of biodiversity-based research. The Phenoscope Knowledgebase (KB) (Figure 1)
 48 demonstrates these connections by integrating gene phenotype annotations from model organism
 49 databases with phenotype annotations from the biodiversity literature (Table 1). Compelling
 50 demonstrations of the utility of semantics for biodiversity studies are important because of the
 51 large and expensive investments in infrastructure and tool development required to curate the
 52 legacy literature and move the publication of phenotypic data into a natively semantic form.



53
 54 **Figure 1.** Flow chart of currently existing data sources and tools (solid borders and lines) in the
 55 Phenoscope KB, and data and tools not yet integrated or developed (dotted borders and lines) but
 56 relevant to users in biodiversity research.

57

58 **Table 1:** Data for evolutionary and model organism phenotypes in the Phenoscope KB. (Data as
59 of 2018-05-11)

60 **Evolutionary Phenotypes**

Annotated anatomical character states	22,321
Total number of annotated taxa (extant and fossil vertebrates)	5,310
Total number of taxon phenotypes	540,163
Terminal taxa (species) with at least one phenotype	4,260
Non-terminal taxa with at least one phenotype	1,050
Evolutionary phenotype profiles	682

61

62 **Model Organism Phenotypes**

	Zebrafish	Mouse	Xenopus	Human
Genes with at least one phenotype	5,883	7,758	12	3,717
Phenotype annotations	90,132	171,876	236	123,956
Genes with any expression data	12,509	10,599	15,062	0
Gene expression annotations	179,232	800,824	454,337	0

63 To date, only a small proportion of the biodiversity literature has been annotated
64 semantically, and no publisher, to our knowledge, tags phenotypes with ontological terms that
65 would support interoperability. The comparative study of organismal phenotypes, however,
66 motivates research across diverse fields of biology, including evolution, paleontology,
67 developmental biology, agriculture, and the veterinary and health sciences (Deans et al. 2015).
68 The efficiency and potential of fundamental discoveries in the biodiversity arena would be
69 dramatically expanded by the increased use of semantics. Further, few species, i.e., only model
70 organisms, have curated phenotypic data that is linked to genetic and genomic data. The growth
71 in sequencing technology, however, is changing this dynamic, resulting in the rapid expansion of
72 genomic data for non-model species (e.g., Russell et al. 2017 and Chapter 10). However, without
73 corresponding phenomic databases, the challenge of relating the growing volume of genetic
74 knowledge in model and emerging model organisms to the diversity of phenotypes in nature
75 cannot be met. In this chapter, through the description of driving research questions and by
76 examples of the use of semantically annotated data in the Phenoscape KB, we provide a glimpse
77 of the promise that semantic analysis tools hold in comparing phenotypes across species and
78 globally associating genetic to phenotypic data.

79 **1. Relating biodiverse phenotypes to candidate genes**

80 Identifying the genetic and developmental changes that brought forth the incredible
81 phenotypic diversification of life is a recalcitrant problem, but one where a basic semantic
82 approach has shown promise and where more sophisticated approaches using semantic similarity
83 may yet be even more valuable. Semantic similarity enables comparison and analysis of semantic
84 annotations between entities (genes, taxa) using ontologies and computational reasoners to
85 compute scores that reflect the level of similarity (e.g., Washington et al. 2009; Manda et al.

86 2015; see examples in Chapter 10). The Phenoscope team showed that ontology-driven
87 information systems can generate thousands of testable hypotheses relating unique morphologies
88 from non-model biodiverse species to candidate genes (Mabee et al. 2012). One of these, for
89 example, connected the unique loss of a tongue ('basihyal element') in catfishes (Siluriformes)
90 with several candidate genes from the zebrafish data. Edmunds et al. (2016) experimentally
91 tested the candidates by examining their endogenous expression patterns in the channel catfish,
92 *Ictalurus punctatus*, and found results consistent with the in silico hypothesis that the tongue
93 evolved through disruption in developmental pathways at, or upstream of, *brpf1*.

94 The Phenoscope team recently extended this approach (Manda et al. 2015) by using
95 semantic similarity to find matches between the full set of phenotypes described for a gene and
96 the unique set of phenotypes that characterizes a clade of species, i.e., an 'evolutionary
97 phenotype profile'. The effects from a gene knockdown range from several to hundreds of
98 phenotypes, and the goal is to compare these in their entirety to the calculated set of phenotypes
99 that are variable among the immediate descendants of a particular taxon. Using semantic
100 similarity, the Phenoscope KB performs fuzzy matching between suites of phenotypes, and
101 displays the taxonomic groups that vary in phenotypes that match most closely to the gene
102 profile that results when the action of that gene is disrupted (e.g., knocked down). The user
103 interface provides the statistical support for each match and allows the supporting evidence to be
104 examined. There are some important caveats that must be considered when interpreting the
105 results, such as the potential for some matches to result from differences in annotation coverage
106 between genetic and evolutionary studies in the KB. Potentially spurious matches in that
107 category are flagged by the KB. The KB also provides an interface for the reverse query: what
108 genes have phenotypes that match most closely to the set of evolutionary phenotypes in a

109 particular taxon under consideration? That is, a biologist who is curious about the genetic basis
110 of taxonomic diversity might want to find genes that have phenotypes that resemble the
111 phenotypic variation exhibited by a particular taxon.

112 2. Future applications of semantic similarity to phenotypes of biodiverse taxa

113 Questions of whether a particular combination of phenotypes in a taxon is unique, or
114 what it might be similar to, are the types of broad questions that may be addressed in applying
115 semantic similarity-based data mining to phenotypes across diverse taxa. Semantic similarity
116 would retrieve taxa with similar phenotypic profiles; such similarity may have arisen because of
117 common ancestry or independent origin (a ‘homoplasy finder’). As described by Braun et al.
118 (Chapter 10), predictive phenomics can, for example, be used to target desired phenotypes in
119 species of interest - and together with recent gene editing capabilities, functional genomic
120 analysis can be newly brought to bear on biodiverse species. The Phenoscape KB currently
121 enables users to view taxa with variation similar to the phenotypic profile of a gene (and *vice*
122 *versa*). In the future, they will also be able to query one custom set of phenotypes against another
123 or a taxonomically selected subset, and obtain a ranked list of taxa with similar phenotypes. For
124 example, miniature fishes in the genus *Paedocypris*, like many fishes that are evolutionarily
125 reduced to an extremely small body size, exhibit the absence of bones including the interhyal,
126 vomer, parietal, posttemporal, and supraneurals (Britz and Conway 2009). Are there other taxa
127 that lack a highly similar set of bones? Enabling a comparison of these phenotypes across
128 diverse taxa would allow a user to query for such matches; in this case, matches would include
129 the ricefishes in the family Adrianichthyidae (Wiley and Johnson 2010), which similarly lack the
130 interhyal, vomer, and supraneurals, and other bones such as the supracleithrum. Further,
131 adrianichthyids may lack or possess extremely small or absent parietal bones and have

132 structurally simple posttemporal bones, which biologists may recognize as reductive phenotypes
133 on a continuum close to ‘absent’. Methods that incorporate a framework of probabilistic
134 reasoning for phenotype relatedness (e.g., Bauer et al. 2012) have the potential to improve
135 precision of ontology-based queries.

136 **3. Relating biodiverse phenotypes across studies: presence/absence**

137 Addressing many of the questions in the biodiversity sciences involve knowing how a
138 specific trait or set of traits has evolved across a group of species. Although the published
139 literature is replete with research relating species and traits, and a few repositories hold
140 phylogenetic trees, some of which are computed products from trait data, neither the traits nor
141 the trees can be easily synthesized across studies. The OntoTrace tool was developed by the
142 Phenoscope team (Balhoff et al. 2014b; Dececchi et al. 2015) to enable users to automatically
143 pull together, from phenotype annotations made to published character matrices and
144 monographic texts (Dececchi et al. 2015, 2016), a set of presence/absence data for specific traits
145 for a set of taxa. For example, querying the Phenoscope KB for a supermatrix of traits of fins,
146 limbs, girdles and their parts in sarcopterygian vertebrates (lobe-finned fishes and tetrapods),
147 Dececchi et al. (2015) retrieved data for 1,052 taxa from 55 studies. The data, 1,759 synthetic
148 presence/absence characters, were derived from 2,588 text-based character states (1,195
149 characters). The resultant character by taxon matrix was termed a ‘synthetic morphological
150 supermatrix’. Because of the ontological annotations, not only could these phenotypic data be
151 automatically aggregated from multiple studies into a supermatrix, but the asserted data could be
152 extended through inference to traits that were implied by, but not directly asserted in the original
153 publications. For example, if an author observed a curved pectoral fin ray in a species, the
154 machine would infer, based on the knowledge of anatomy encoded in the requisite ontology

155 (Uberon in this case), that a pectoral fin is present in that species (see Dececchi et al. 2015 and
156 Jackson et al. 2018 for further examples). In this manner, the missing data in the variable
157 character subset of the matrix (the subset containing only characters that include both present and
158 absent states) was reduced from 98.5% to 78.2%. Further, 76% of the variable characters were
159 made variable through the addition of inferred states. The authors pointed out that character
160 conflicts and provenance reports from OntoTrace would support researchers review of large
161 aggregated data sets and they showed how such machine reasoning enables quantification and
162 new visualizations of the data, allowing the identification of undersampled character space.

163 **4. Relating biodiverse phenotypes to phylogenetic trees**

164 Using ontologies and machine reasoning to automatically generate large, synthetic
165 character matrices of presence/absence phenotypes (as per above) set the stage for the research of
166 Jackson et al. (2018), who took this a step further. They developed a bioinformatic pipeline to
167 propagate data that was asserted to higher-level taxonomic nodes, to descendant species that
168 were missing data. Similar to Dececchi et al. (2015), they showed that such logic inference
169 significantly extended the asserted data (missing data were reduced from 98.0% to 85.9%), but
170 additionally they showed the value of taxonomic data propagation, which extended the data
171 further, reducing missing data to 34.8% (Jackson et al. 2018). Using the resultant matrix along
172 with a synthetic phylogeny from the Open Tree of Life (Hinchliff et al. 2015), they mapped the
173 full trait data set for 12,582 species to the tree and addressed the question of how often paired
174 fins were lost in teleost fishes and whether they were ever regained (Jackson et al. 2018).
175 Looking ahead, if all published traits and trees were made computable using these methods, any
176 user could automatically generate a matrix for a specified set of traits and map it on various
177 synthetic tree topologies, which in turn would allow addressing a host of questions regarding the

178 pattern and tempo of phenotypic evolution and associations with genomic and environmental
179 (Thessen et al. 2015) variables.

180 **5. Relating biodiverse phenotypes across studies: future work**

181 As described above, OntoTrace generates synthetic morphological supermatrices for
182 presence/absence characters only (Dececchi et al. 2015). Expanding this functionality to
183 automatically synthesize characters of other qualities, such as shape, size, structure, and color, is
184 a current challenge that the Phenoscope team is addressing. For example, whereas characters in a
185 presence/absence matrix are by definition limited to two states per character, the number of
186 possible states for characters in other categories is *a priori* unconstrained. Thus, automatically
187 synthesizing characters that, for example, describe ‘basihyal bone, shape’, can result in a large
188 number of states per character because every originally published state that semantically is some
189 type of ‘basihyal bone shape’ would have to be appended as a new state to the synthesized
190 character. In the case of this example, there may be seven distinct shape terms used in its
191 annotation (Box 1). The ontological relationships indicate that subsets of these states are more
192 similar to each other than others. By adapting current semantic similarity metrics for the purpose
193 of character and character state aggregation, and in effect, homology assignment, these distinct
194 shape descriptors can be consolidated into new, synthetic states (see matrix in Box 1).

195

196

197 Box 1. Assembling a synthetic character and its states for ‘basihyal bone, shape’.

198 *Step 1: Assemble list of ‘shape’ (PATO:0000052) quality terms for all characters and states from*
199 *multiple publications that include the entity ‘basihyal bone’ (UBERON:0011618):*

200 ‘spiny’ (PATO:0001365)

201 ‘folded’ (PATO:0001910)

202 ‘upturned’ (PATO:0002031)

203 ‘blade-like’ (PATO:0002235)

204 ‘pointed’ (PATO:0002258)

205 ‘curved ventral’ (PATO:0001469)

206 ‘tapered’ (PATO:0001500)

207

208 *Step 2: Apply semantic similarity to above list of PATO terms for basihyal bone. Because of*
209 *higher similarity among terms, three states (0, 1, 2) are generated from the seven phenotypes:*

210 Character 1: Basihyal bone: shape

211 Synthetic State 0: ‘sharp’ (PATO:0001419) (includes ‘blade-like’, ‘pointed’, ‘tapered’)

212 Synthetic State 1: ‘curved’ (PATO:0000406) (includes ‘upturned’, ‘curved ventral’)

213 Synthetic State 2: ‘surface feature shape’ (PATO:0001925) (includes ‘spiny’, ‘folded’)

214

215

216 The Phenoscape team is now developing semantic similarity-based methods to cluster

217 phenotypes across different character categories into characters and states, thus automating

218 matrix construction, and enabling users to optimize the matrix for a variety of metrics. This

219 would allow a user to constrain the number of characters in a synthesized matrix by excluding
220 those with low information content (e.g., those for high level terms from the anatomy ontology
221 such as ‘fin’ vs. ‘pectoral fin’). Thus, employing semantic reasoning in matrix construction will
222 allow a user to balance the properties of a synthetic matrix between, on the one hand, containing
223 highly specific characters (and thus increased missing data), and on the other, including lower
224 specificity characters (and thus decreasing missing data).

225 In addition to semantic tools for supermatrix construction, the Phenoscope team is
226 developing enhanced semantics for addressing questions of trait evolution. Unlike the current
227 tools available for analyzing molecular data, where each nucleotide site can be treated as
228 independent of each other, evolutionary models for large morphological character matrices face
229 significant challenges overcoming the strong conditional dependencies and correlations among
230 morphological traits. Most existing methods ignore such dependencies and morphological
231 characters are treated as independent. By leveraging domain knowledge relevant to assessing
232 correlations of the traits underlying the characters, Phenoscope is developing tools that enable
233 users to incorporate evidence of the relatedness of traits in a morphological matrix and into
234 models of character evolution. These include measures of trait independence based on
235 ontological relationships, distance (semantic similarity) of traits in the knowledge graph, and
236 measures of genetic overlap (as derived from gene-phenotype annotations from model organism
237 databases). Such dependencies can be directly built into the macroevolutionary model, or can be
238 used to inform prior probabilities in Bayesian analyses when grouping traits into modules with
239 shared evolutionary parameters or dynamics.

240 One of the challenges in conducting semantic similarity comparisons is the computational
241 overhead of comparing EQ phenotypes over a large ontology space. Improvements in scalability

242 of semantic similarity methods would enable fast, on-the-fly semantic similarity searches.
243 Successfully applying these methods also currently depends on accurate *a posteriori* annotation
244 of characters to capture the original author's intent. With only the published description and
245 perhaps images to rely on, curators are unable to consistently apply standardized terms, a factor
246 leading to lower consistency (Cui et al. 2015). For example, in a comparison of curator vs.
247 machine generated annotations (Cui et al. 2015; in prep), three curators described the increased
248 distance between the contralateral pelvic fins with three different quality descriptors: 'far from',
249 'separated from', and 'set apart from'. As methods and software tools develop, such that original
250 authors are better empowered to apply the semantics themselves, the accuracy of character
251 annotation, and thus, consolidation will increase. In the above example, the author would
252 presumably be able to choose, based on the different definitions of the ontology terms, which
253 term is most applicable to the phenotype observed.

254 **6. Future challenges**

255 A long-standing question, and one also being currently tackled by the Phenoscope team,
256 is how the relationship of historical homology, i.e., similarity due to common ancestry, can most
257 effectively be used in data retrieval. Recent work by Manda et al. (2016b), examined how
258 semantic similarity is affected when external homology knowledge is included in an ontology.
259 They measured phenotypic similarity between orthologous and non-orthologous gene pairs
260 between humans and either mouse or zebrafish, and they compared the effect of including real
261 vs. faux homology axioms. Semantic similarity was preferentially increased for orthologs when
262 using real homology axioms, though only across the more divergent of the two species (human to
263 zebrafish, not human to mouse) (Manda et al., 2016). Overall, the effect of including homology
264 axioms on cross-species semantic similarity was modest, though the authors suggested that the

265 effect might be greater for more distant species comparisons. Current efforts include editing and
266 clarifying the homology relationships in the Uberon ontology and investigating how reasoning
267 on different models of homology affects information retrieval in the KB.

268 Another challenge for the broader application of semantics to biodiversity data is the
269 significant, largely manual, effort necessary to annotate phenotypes from the published literature
270 (Dahdul et al. 2015). Natural language processing tools are needed going forward to auto-
271 annotate the legacy literature (Arighi et al. 2013; Cui et al. 2015; in prep). Further, in the future
272 semantic phenotype data may increasingly come directly from publications, as semi-automated
273 methods for marking up manuscripts at the time of publication become more accurate, mature,
274 and thus prevalent. Evaluating, and hence continuously improving the accuracy of machine
275 generated annotations depends on expert-curated “gold standard” data sets. To this end,
276 Phenoscope has developed the first gold standard dataset for biodiversity phenotypes (in prep).
277 Efforts to use ontologies in the process of new species descriptions are underway (Deans et al.
278 2012; Balhoff et al. 2013), and will contribute to achieving a vision of widely available linked
279 species phenotype data.

280 As high-throughput phenotyping, typically involving image data collection, becomes
281 more scalable, the application of semantic metadata would enable automated connections to the
282 tools and computable datasets described herein. These digitization efforts can be new sources of
283 phenotype information (Figure 1). Although broad domains of biology can be served if semantics
284 are placed on digitized images and specimens, so far only a few projects are using semantics to
285 label digitized specimens and their parts, despite promising prototypes (Maglia et al. 2007;
286 Ramírez et al. 2007). If anatomical parts were tagged with ontology terms, then queries on basic
287 trait distributions could be enabled (e.g., presence of pectoral fins in taxa a, b, c...). Although

288 having a reduced information content compared to full Entity-Quality expressions, entity-only
289 annotations have been shown to be informative for semantic similarity (Manda et al. 2016a).
290 Thus, new sources of phenotypic data, such as those for specimens of extinct and extant taxa
291 associated with institutional collections, can easily be made interoperable through shared
292 semantics (Figure 1).

293 **CONCLUSIONS**

294 Over the past 10 years the development of shared cross-species community ontology resources
295 such as Uberon and PATO has enabled interoperability of phenotype and genotype data. This in
296 turn enables a wealth of potential applications and discoveries from semantic analysis of
297 biodiverse taxa. Scientific attention continues to move toward gaining a deeper fundamental
298 understanding of the developmental and evolutionary relationship between genotype and
299 phenotype. The profound scale and scope of this problem will not only require interoperable big
300 data, both genomic and phenomic, from a biodiverse set of taxa, but also new ways of using
301 machines to enable this understanding. The applications of semantic analysis described herein
302 only scratch the surface of what is possible. As scientific publication moves to incorporate
303 semantic markup of phenotype data, and semi-automated tools are improved to annotate the
304 phenotype legacy literature, knowledge of the rich phenotypic palette of life on our planet can be
305 exposed to machine computation with great advantage to fundamental discovery across the life
306 sciences.

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