Structural Databases of Biological Macromolecules

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The Protein Data Bank began as an archive of the structural data available about known biological macromolecules. The advances made in all technologies have been mirrored in further development of the Protein Data Bank and in the structural, speciality and structural characteristic databases that have also evolved.

Historical Background

In 1957, the first structure of a biological macromolecule (myoglobin) was determined (Kendrew et al., 1958). This was followed by the determinations of several more key molecules, including hemoglobin (Perutz et al., 1960), lysozyme (Blake et al., 1965) and ribonuclease (Kartha et al., 1967; Wyckoff et al., 1967). In 1971, small-molecule and protein crystallographers from both sides of the Atlantic agreed to establish a data bank of the protein structures being determined. Its mission would be to collect, archive and disseminate data on the three-dimensional structures of biological macromolecules. Walter Hamilton of the Brookhaven National Laboratory and Olga Kennard of the Cambridge Structural Database (CSD) collaborated to manage the Protein Data Bank (PDB) resource (1971). Hamilton's interest was borne from his work on the high-resolution determination of amino acid crystal structures and from his visionary idea of setting up distributed computing resources whereby every crystallographer would have a graphics workstation on his/her desk with full network access to powerful high-speed computers. Kennard had founded the CSD in 1965 to create a database of organic and metal-organic compounds studied by X-ray and neutron diffraction, and was well experienced in managing structural data. (See Crystallization of Nucleic Acids; Protein Structure.)

The PDB contained less than a dozen structures at its inception, with a few more structures added each year. The structures themselves were relatively small. The PDB file format was simple, and it was relatively easy to extract the structures from magnetic tape to find out what you wanted to know about any particular molecule.

In the 1980s, the improvements in the technology required to do crystal structures began to evolve rapidly. Now, two decades later, modern molecular biology techniques have made it much more straightforward to obtain large quantities of proteins. Crystallization methods have emerged that allow investigators

Advanced article

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doi: 10.1038/npg.els.0005252

to screen many different conditions using exceedingly small amounts of material. Data collection methods have improved at all levels. The lifetimes of crystals are routinely extended by flash freezing. The radiation sources are much more intense, especially with the emergence of powerful synchrotron beam lines. Detectors are much more sensitive and allow the very rapid collection of arrays of reflections. Methods for phase determination and refinement have improved. Indeed, crystallography is now part of the armament of techniques that is readily accessible to biologists.

As crystallographic methods continue to improve, another method of structure determination has come of age: nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR). This method, which allows the determination of structures in solution, is currently responsible for approximately 15% of the structures released in the PDB.

The improvements in technology have also made it possible to determine the structures of very complex molecules. Several structures of ribosomal subunits (Moore, 2001), as well as the entire 70S ribosome structure (Yusupov *et al.*, 2001), have been deposited in the PDB. During this same period, the structural genomics initiative (2000) has begun with the goal of determining thousands of structures in a high-throughput mode. Thus, the PDB holdings will continue to grow (**Figure 1**).

The level of activity in structural biology has made it essential that the PDB use the most modern technologies to collect, archive and disseminate data. The PDB is an *archival database*, which contains coordinates of biological macromolecules determined using public funds as well as many from the private sector. It also contains information about the methods and materials used to determine those structures. Other databases have emerged (**Table 1**) that extract some of the information contained in the PDB and



Figure 1 Growth of the contents of the Protein Data Bank. The number of structures deposited each year is shown in gray, the total number of structures available in black. This chart is regularly updated at http://www.rcsb.org/pdb/holdings.html.

organize that information in different ways so as to enable different types of query. These are *value-added databases*, which serve the needs of particular users. In this article we describe the PDB and some of these other structural databases.

The Protein Data Bank

After 27 years at Brookhaven National Laboratory, the PDB is now managed by the Research Collaboratory of Structural Bioinformatics (RCSB) (Berman et al., 2000). The RCSB is a consortium consisting of three member groups: Rutgers, the State University of New Jersey; the San Diego Supercomputer Center of the University of California, San Diego; and the National Institute of Standards and Technology. The PDB collects information about biological macromolecular structures and the methods used to determine those structures. Coordinates, primary experimental data, statistics about the structure determination and refinement, information about the source, sequence and chemistry of the molecule and the solution and/or crystallization conditions are collected and assembled using a software tool called the AutoDep Input Tool (ADIT) (see Web Links). Annotation, checking and validation of the data are carried out with a variety of programs whose output is reviewed by skilled

annotation staff working in close collaboration with the depositors of the data.

Once the data are fully checked and approved for release, they are loaded into a series of databases. Two different search engines can query the databases: *SearchLite* and *SearchFields*. A rich set of reporting options make it possible to access information about a single molecule, compare it with other molecules, and access other databases that contain information about that molecule. Particular groups of macromolecules can be selected according to their features so that a variety of reports can be created. The PDB maintains mirrors around the world, which provide the same capabilities as the main RCSB site.

As of this writing there are more than 15800 molecules in the PDB. The distribution of these data is shown in **Table 2**.

Structural Databases

While the PDB focuses on individual structures, some databases organize their data according to tertiary structural characteristics. SCOP (a Structural Classification of Proteins) classifies each structure in the PDB according to *family*, *superfamily*, *common fold* and *class*. *Families* are classified according to their sequence similarities. Families with similar structure and function belong to the same *superfamily*. Families and

Table 1 Selected database resources for macromolecular structures

| Archival database of biological macromolecules | | | |
|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-------------------------------------------------------|--|--|
| Protein Data Bank (Berman et al., 2000; Bernstein et al., 1977) | http://www.pdb.org/ | | |
| Structural databases | | | |
| 3D ALI (a database of aligned protein structures and related sequences) (Pascarella and Argos, 1992) | http://www.embl-heidelberg.de/argos/ali/ali_info.html | | |
| CAMPASS (Sowdhamini et al., 1998) | http://www-cryst.bioc.cam.ac.uk/~campass/ | | |
| CATH (Orengo et al., 1997) | http://www.biochem.ucl.ac.uk/bsm/cath/ | | |
| CSD (Allen et al., 1979) | http://www.ccdc.cam.ac.uk/ | | |
| FSSP (Holm and Sander, 1998) | http://www2.ebi.ac.uk/dali/fssp/ | | |
| HSSP (Dodge et al., 1998) | http://www.sander.embl-heidelberg.de/hssp/ | | |
| ISSD (Adzhubei et al., 1998) | http://www.protein.bio.msu.su/issd/ | | |
| Library of Protein Family Cores (LPFC) (Schmidt et al., 1997) | http://WWW-SMI.Stanford.EDU/projects/helix/LPFC/ | | |
| Molecular Modeling Database (Holm and Sander, 1994) | http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Structure/ | | |
| SCOP (Murzin et al., 1995) | http://scop.mrc-lmb.cam.ac.uk/scop/ | | |
| Speciality databases | | | |
| ENZYME database (Bairoch, 2000) | http://www.expasy.ch/enzyme/ | | |
| Enzyme Structures Database | http://www.biochem.ucl.ac.uk/bsm/enzymes/ | | |
| HIV Protease Database (Vondrasek et al., 1997) | http://srdata.nist.gov/hivdb/ | | |
| International Immunogenetics Database (IMGT) (Lefranc et al., 1998) | http://imgt.cines.fr:8104/ | | |
| Nucleic Acid Database (Berman et al., 1992) | http://ndbserver.rutgers.edu/ | | |
| Prolysis (protease and protease inhibitor web server) | http://delphi.phys.univ-tours.fr/Prolysis/ | | |
| Protein Kinase Resource (Smith et al., 1997) | http://pkr.sdsc.edu/html/index.shtml | | |
| Structural characteristic databases | | | |
| Biological Macromolecule Crystallization Database (BMCD) (Gilliland, 1997) | http://wwwbmcd.nist.gov:8080/bmcd/bmcd.html | | |
| Dictionary of Interfaces in Proteins (DIP) | http://www.drug-redesign.de/ | | |
| ISOSTAR (Bruno et al., 1997) | http://www.ccdc.cam.ac.uk/prods/isostar/ | | |
| Molecular Movements Database (Gerstein and Krebs, 1998) | http://bioinfo.mbb.yale.edu/MolMovDB/ | | |
| OLDERADO (Kelley and Sutcliffe, 1997) | http://neon.chem.le.ac.uk/olderado/ | | |
| PDBSum (Laskowski et al., 1997) | http://www.biochem.ucl.ac.uk/bsm/pdbsum/ | | |
| PROCAT (Wallace et al., 1996) | http://www.biochem.ucl.ac.uk/bsm/PROCAT/PROCAT.html | | |
| PROMISE (Degtyarenko et al., 1998) | http://metallo.scripps.edu/PROMISE/ | | |
| Protein Quaternary Structures (PQS) | http://pqs.ebi.ac.uk/ | | |
| ReLiBase (Receptor/ligand complexes database) (Hendlich <i>et al.</i> , 2003) TESS | http://relibase.ccdc.cam.ac.uk/ | | |

| | Proteins, peptides and viruses | Protein–nucleic acid complexes | Nucleic acids | Carbohydrates | Total | |
|-----------------------------|--------------------------------|-----------------------------------|---------------|---------------|----------|--|
| X-ray diffraction and other | 11 893 | 569 | 579 | 14 | 13 0 5 5 | |
| NMR | 1964 | 73 | 390 | 4 | 2431 | |
| Theoretical modeling | 293 | 20 | 23 | 0 | 336 | |
| Total | 14 150 | 662 | 992 | 18 | 15822 | |

Table 2 Protein Data Bank holdings (as of 14 August 2001)

superfamilies with the same arrangement of secondary structures, which are connected with one another in the same way, have the same *common fold*. *Class* refers to the types of secondary structures (all alpha, all beta,

alpha-beta, etc.). SCOP was one of the earliest databases that attempted to integrate sequence, structure and function information; it continues to be a major resource in structural biology.

CATH provides another classification scheme based on class (C), architecture (A), topology (T) and homologous superfamilies (H). *Class* defines the secondary structure content as in SCOP. *Architecture* defines the description of the arrangement of these secondary structures without consideration of the connectivities. *Topology* is equivalent to fold in SCOP. Finally, *homologous superfamilies* contain all folds with a similar function. CATH has a systematic classification system for all structures analogous to the EC classification for enzyme function. The type of research possible with this database is exemplified by an analysis of all enzymes in which it was shown that the topology of enzymes is more related to the ligands bound than the enzyme EC class (Martin *et al.*, 1998).

Speciality Databases

Another type of database that has proved invaluable in research has been the speciality database. These databases are curated by experts in the field and provide information beyond the structures themselves. These may include derived structural data, sequence information and other biochemical information. An example is the Protein Kinase Resource, which provides not only structural but also functional and pharmacological data about these key drug targets. The same is true of the HIV Protease Database, which has captured all the information about HIV protease structures to be included in one place with the goal of aiding drug development. The Nucleic Acid Database (NDB) has provided a searchable resource about nucleic acids. The Enzyme Structures Database organizes all the enzyme structures in the PDB according to the EC codes contained in the ENZYME Data Bank and provides information about them. (See DNA Structure.)

Databases of Structural Characteristics

Databases of structural features contained within macromolecules have also emerged. The Molecular Movements Database provides information about the possible motions of macromolecules by analyzing the various structures of particular molecules. OLDERADO (On Line Database of Ensemble Representatives And Domains) provides a database of structures for which there are several representatives, such as an ensemble of NMR structures. The TESS (Template Search and Superimposition) algorithm has allowed for the creation of a database of active site templates called PROCAT. This type of database will become invaluable in the quest for relating structure to function. PROMISE is a database that provides information about the prosthetic centers and metal ions in the active sites. ISOSTAR provides an integrated view of the nonbonded interactions geometry around ligands in proteins. PDBsum gives a variety of carefully curated information about all the structures in the PDB. The Dictionary of Interfaces in Proteins (DIP) is a data bank of complementary molecular surface patches and is meant to enable molecular recognition research.

Challenges

The PDB is now much more than a repository of coordinate data. To make this resource even more useful, all the files need to be in a uniform format so that the many new databases of derived information can be easily constructed without having to first clean the files. A project at the PDB is underway to re-examine the archive to achieve this uniformity (Bhat *et al.*, 2001). The PDB will also integrate the validation criteria that have been developed by a variety of researchers (Wilson *et al.*, 1998).

The various methods that have been developed for classification (Gerstein and Levitt, 1998; Orengo and Taylor, 1996) and structure comparison (Alexandrov and Fischer, 1996; Gibrat *et al.*, 1996; Holm and Sander, 1996; Shindyalov and Bourne, 1998) will continue to improve and their results incorporated into the databases, as will methods to understand macromolecular interactions with one another (Jones and Thornton, 1997), with nucleic acids (Jones *et al.*, 1999) and with small molecule ligands (Wallace *et al.*, 1995).

The goal of being able to relate structure to function will be facilitated by different types of database efforts. Databases that assemble information about particular protein families will be one avenue that will provide this information. In these databases the coverage is very narrow and deep, so that a truly full understanding of a single class of proteins with known function is possible. The lessons learned from these types of resource will perhaps allow us to develop some general principles about the relationships of structure and function.

The structural genomics project is an outgrowth of the various genome projects. Its goal is to determine macromolecular structures on a genomic scale – the discovery, analysis and dissemination of threedimensional structures of biological macromolecules representing the entire range of structural diversity found in nature (see Web Links). The sequences being targeted by many of these efforts are being stored in a database (see Web Links). Once the anticipated large volume of three-dimensional data is collected and assembled, it will be critical to coordinate and to relate the structural and sequence data in order to create a full picture of protein fold space.

While these efforts are ongoing, databases of information about chemical and biological properties of macromolecules and their complexes will provide yet another avenue to understanding function.

With the large number of databases that have been created, it is important to develop methods to query across all of these databases in a seamless way. To help in this effort, the RCSB has developed a standard application interface for macromolecular data based on the Common Object Request Broker Architecture (Corba). The proposal was adopted by the Object Management Group (OMB) in February 2001 (see Web Links). This specification opens the door to more seamless and specific access to PDB data. More specifically, it provides a standard application programming interface (API) that will allow direct access by remote programs to the binary data structures of the PDB. This and other similar initiatives will help to ensure that the world of biology in silico will be readily accessible.

Acknowledgements

Parts of this work have appeared in 'The past and future of structural databases' by Helen M. Berman (1999) *Current Opinion in Biotechnology* **10**: 76–80. The US National Science Foundation, the Department of Energy and the National Institutes of Health supported this work.

See also

Protein Databases

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Web Links

- PDB Deposition Information. Links to the AutoDep Input Tool (ADIT), AutoDep, and other deposition resources http://www.pdb.org/
- Second International Structural Genomics Meeting. NIGMS statement on coordinate deposition, highlights, agreed principles and procedures, roster, agenda, and Task Force Reports http://www.nigms.nih.gov/news/meetings/airlie.html
- TargetDB. Target Registration Database that contains sequences from the worldwide structural genomics centers, and the PDB http://targetdb.pdb.org/
- OMG/LSR Corba Standard for Macromolecular Structure Data (OMG specification formal/02-05-01). First formal version of the Macromolecular Structure specification http://www.omg.org/technology/documents/formal/ macro_molecular.htm
- The OpenMMS Toolkit. Corba, Relation Database and XML Software for Macromolecular Structure http://openmms.sdsc.edu/