

## 2.4. Specification of the Molecular Information File (MIF)

BY F. H. ALLEN, J. M. BARNARD, A. P. F. COOK AND S. R. HALL

### 2.4.1. Introduction

This volume is primarily concerned with methods for the exchange of crystallographic information, such as experimental conditions and measurements, computational procedures and results, and the geometrical description of three-dimensional (3D) chemical structures. Such information, now available for some 400 000 compounds (Allen & Glusker, 2002) is, of course, vitally important in chemistry and in many other branches of science. However, it must be appreciated that two-dimensional (2D) chemical structural diagrams are available for over eight million compounds, and are fundamental components of the language of chemistry at all levels. Two-dimensional graphical representations indicate atomic connectivities, formal bond types and residual atomic charges, and provide the universal formalism through which chemists communicate with each other on a daily basis and document their results.

In common with scientists in other disciplines, chemists were early users of computer technology. They solved their information needs through the creation of major databases of chemical compounds and the development of methods for searching these databases for complete structures or substructural fragments. From these data, software can compute the 3D structures and properties of molecules, and the resulting molecular images can be displayed and manipulated. Consequently, 2D chemical diagrams are at the heart of many computerized documentation systems, and are the basis for computational chemistry applications that form part of the routine armoury of the modern chemist.

Computationally, the 2D diagram is treated as a mathematical graph (Harary, 1972). The nodes of the graph represent atoms and the edges of the graph represent bonds. Each of these primary components can have additional attributes: element type, valency, charge *etc.* in the case of the atomic nodes, and bond type, cyclicity indicators *etc.* in the case of the bonded edges. Within this formalism, 2D display coordinates and 3D crystallographic or computed coordinates are additional atom attributes, while interatomic distances can further qualify the bonded edges. Using the concepts of graph theory, it is then possible to write algorithms for the analysis of chemical graphs, *e.g.* for the detection of chemical rings and ring systems (*e.g.* Wipke & Dyott, 1975), for the analysis of functional groups and their relationships *etc.* Most importantly, procedures have also been developed for the matching of complete chemical graphs (full graph isomorphism), and for the location of chemical substructures within a complete chemical graph (sub-graph isomorphism) (*e.g.* Feldmann *et al.*, 1977). In this way it is possible to achieve graphical substructure searches of very large collections of 2D chemical diagrams.

As with early crystallographic data exchange, structural chemistry applications use their own specialized formats for input, manipulation and output. The ready exchange of chemical data is often inhibited by specific data formats and by the enormous

variation in methods used to represent 2D structures, stereochemical descriptors and certain 3D structural attributes. These are computational ‘bottlenecks’ that detract from an effective use of the large financial and intellectual investment in proprietary software and database systems. They have also contributed to the major need for in-house format conversion software, which must be continually upgraded and maintained to accommodate developmental changes within imported systems.

The need for a universal interchange format for chemical information became apparent in the late 1980s, at almost exactly the same time as crystallographers recognized a similar need. Data standards in structural chemistry involve many international organizations and individuals, and consequently a number of proposals for exchanging data were initially put forward. From these the Standard Molecular Data (SMD) format (Bebak *et al.*, 1989; Barnard, 1990) emerged as the leading contender. In the early 1990s, discussions between the SMD and CIF developers led to a re-expression of the SMD data items within the Self-defining Text Archive and Retrieval (STAR) File syntax (Hall, 1991; Hall & Spadaccini, 1994).

This chapter describes the initial core data definitions of a universal exchange format for chemistry, the Molecular Information File (MIF: Allen *et al.*, 1995), that arose from this coalescence of concepts and ideas. MIF is a complementary approach to CIF (Hall *et al.*, 1991). Because SMD was fundamental to the development of MIF, we begin this chapter with a brief history of this project.

### 2.4.2. Historical background

The Standard Molecular Data (SMD) format was initially developed by a group of European pharmaceutical companies in the mid-1980s. Draft documents were made available from 1987 and the specification was published (Bebak *et al.*, 1989). A meeting in Frankfurt in 1988 established a series of technical working groups under the auspices of the Chemical Structure Association (CSA) to examine the format specifications in detail and to make recommendations for any revision. As a result, a draft form of a revised format, described as SMD Version 5.0, was published in February 1990 (Barnard, 1990). A document describing the core format, *i.e.* those data items regarded as essential in any exchange file, was prepared by one of us (JMB) for consideration by Subcommittee E49.51 of the American Society for Testing and Materials (ASTM).

In December 1993, the ASTM subcommittee E49.51 approved a standard specification for the content (*i.e.* recommended data items) of computerized chemical structural files (ASTM, 1994), although the subcommittee did not publish any proposals for a format specification. Later, the *Chemical Abstracts Service* (CAS) circulated a draft proposal for a connection-table-based exchange format for chemical substances and queries. It used some ideas that are similar to the 1990 SMD proposal and is expressed within the framework of the Abstract Syntax Notation 1 (ISO, 2002a,b). MDL Information Systems Inc. has also published a description of their proprietary formats (Dalby *et al.*, 1992) and a number of other software systems now provide interfaces to these formats.

Affiliations: FRANK H. ALLEN, Cambridge Crystallographic Data Centre, 12 Union Road, Cambridge, CB2 1EZ, England; JOHN M. BARNARD and ANTHONY P. F. COOK, BCI Ltd, 46 Uppergate Road, Stannington, Sheffield S6 6BX, England; SYDNEY R. HALL, School of Biomedical and Chemical Sciences, University of Western Australia, Crawley, Perth, WA 6009, Australia.

## 2.4. SPECIFICATION OF THE MOLECULAR INFORMATION FILE (MIF)

During this period, the IUCr Working Party on Crystallographic Information had commissioned one of us (SRH) to coordinate the development of a universal file to replace the existing fixed-format Standard Crystallographic File Structure (SCFS: Brown, 1988). As documented in Chapter 1.1, the CIF approach was adopted as the international standard in 1990 and published by Hall *et al.* (1991). Although the small-molecule CIF is able to store a representation of 2D chemical topology, its data definitions do not meet all the needs of the chemical community. In 1991, the IUCr became interested in further extending CIF into the chemical arena and discussions took place between representatives of the CIF project and of the SMD Technical Working Group. These meetings decided that an integration of the SMD format and the STAR syntax was desirable because it provided a number of advantages over the existing SMD specifications (Barnard & Cook, 1992). In particular, SMD/STAR provides for a clearer separation of the data structure and the data content roles, together with more flexible data extensibility in future versions. In addition, automated data validation of STAR/SMD files is possible using electronic data dictionaries. In a wider context, there were obvious opportunities for integrating with other applications of the STAR File.

### 2.4.3. MIF objectives

Molecular information embraces a broad spectrum of data related to chemical and molecular structure. It includes both individual and linked data items, *inter alia* spectroscopic measurements, thermochemical data, electrochemical properties, crystal structure information and so on. These items represent the data descriptors of molecular chemistry and it is intended that all of these will eventually be accommodated in the MIF approach. However, the initial MIF implementation (Allen *et al.*, 1995), summarized in this chapter, treated only the important core information: the data items needed to specify the connectivity and stereochemistry of molecules and their 2D and 3D spatial representations. The MIF data items needed for more extensive applications must, in the future, involve the collaborative efforts of informatics and database experts from chemical industry and academia.

A dictionary of the initial MIF core data items described in this paper is given in Chapter 4.8. This is the abbreviated text version of the definition attributes contained in the electronic dictionary file. The core MIF data items provide descriptors for representing the 2D connectivity of a molecule or substructure, the conventions for relative or absolute stereochemical relationships, and the coordinates and conventions used for the generation of 2D and 3D graphical depictions. These data items apply to complete molecules, or to substructures with incomplete or variable attributes. As a consequence they are well suited for query definitions in substructure search systems, a feature that will be discussed later in this chapter.

### 2.4.4. MIF concepts and syntax

The syntax of the Molecular Information File is based on that of the STAR File (Hall, 1991; Hall & Spadaccini, 1994). A MIF is an ASCII text file that can be read or amended using a standard text editor, and that can be processed computationally without conversion to another format. The organization and expression of MIF data is summarized in Table 2.4.4.1. Each file consists of a series of data blocks and each block consists of a series of individual data items. There may be any number of items within a block and any number of blocks within a file. A data block represents a logical grouping of data items and, in most MIF applications, a data block will usually specify a complete chemical entity, *i.e.* a fully defined molecule or a query substructure.

Table 2.4.4.1. Brief overview of the MIF syntax

---

A text string is a string of characters bounded by white space, single or double quotes, or semicolons in column 1.
A data name is a text string bounded by white space starting with an underline.
A data value is a text string not starting with underline, preceded by an identifying data name.
A list is a sequence of data names, preceded by 'loop_' and followed by a list of data values.
A save frame is a collection of data within a data block, preceded by 'save_framecode' and closed with 'save'.
A data block is a collection of data, preceded by 'data_blockcode'.
A global block is a collection of data, preceded by <code>global_</code> , that is common to all subsequent data blocks.
A file may contain any number of data blocks or global blocks.
A data name must be unique within a data block.

---

The MIF syntax, unlike that of a CIF, places no restrictions on line lengths or nested loop levels. For a detailed understanding of the differences between a MIF and a CIF, the reader should compare this chapter with Chapter 2.2 or refer to the published details of the STAR syntax (Hall & Spadaccini, 1994), the specification of the CIF core data items (Hall *et al.*, 1991) and the Dictionary Definition Language (Hall & Cook, 1995) used to define data items in the electronic version of a STAR dictionary.

CIF data, described by over a thousand items in the current dictionaries (see Part 4), encompass the fields of crystallographic structure and diffraction techniques, and these data items could readily be incorporated into a MIF. It should be noted, however, that currently the reverse is not possible because the current CIF syntax does not support nested loops or save frames.

#### 2.4.4.1. Data identification

The fundamental principle that underpins MIF is exactly as for CIF: every data item is represented by a unique data tag followed by its associated data value. These combinations are referred to as tag-value pairs or tuples. Data names must start with an underline (*i.e.* underline) character and data values may be any type of string, ranging from a single character to many lines of text. Here are some simple examples of MIF data items:

```
atom mass number      79
atom type              Se
display colour         blue_medium
```

The complete list of MIF core data items is given in Chapter 4.8.

#### 2.4.4.2. Looped lists

Repetitive data are stored in a MIF as lists of values, as they are in a CIF. Each list is prefaced by a `loop_` statement and a sequence of data names that identify the data values that follow in 'packets' of equal length. The values in each packet match the order and number of the data names. Any number of packets may appear in a looped list.

Atom and bond properties are typical of the information to appear in a looped list. The atoms and bonds of thiabutylolactone in MIF format are shown in Fig. 2.4.4.1. The description of each data item in this example is given in Chapter 4.8, although the meanings are clear from the self-descriptive data names. The number of data values in each list is an exact multiple of the number of data names at the start of each loop structure. Looped lists are terminated by the next list or by any other data name, data block or end of file. Comments may be included in a MIF and are preceded by a # character, as illustrated in Fig. 2.4.4.1.

Hierarchical data may require the use of nested loop structures (see the `display_*` loop in Fig. 2.4.4.2). Note that the packet for `display_id` of 7 has two sets of `display_conn` values giving