CSE 527 Lectures ~12-13

Markov Models and Hidden Markov Models

Markov & Hidden Markov Models

 Reference: Durbin, Eddy, Krogh and Mitchison, "Biological Sequence Analysis" Cambridge, 1998

Independence

 A key issue: All models we've talked about so far assume independence of nucleotides in different positions - definitely unrealistic.

Example: "CpG Islands"

- CpG 2 adjacent nucs, same strand (not Watson-Crick)
- C of CpG is often methylated (in Eukaryotes)
- Methyl-C mutates to T relatively easily
- Net: CpG is less common than expected genomewide: f(CpG) < f(C)*f(G)
- BUT in promoter (& other) regions, CpG remain unmethylated, so CpG ->TpG less likely there: makes "CpG Islands"

CpG Islands

- CpG Islands
 - More CpG than elsewhere
 - More C & G than elsewhere, too
 - Typical length: few 100 to few 1000 bp
- Questions
 - Given short sequence (say 200 bp), is it a CpG island or not?
 - Given long sequence (say, 10-100kb), fing CpG islands in it?

A sequence of random variables

X, X2 ... is a K-th ovder Markov Chara

if $\forall i$ $P_Y(X_i \mid X_1 \mid X_2 \cdot ... \mid X_{i-1}) = P_Y(X_i \mid X_{i-K} \mid X_{i-K+1} \cdot ... \mid X_{i-1})$ i.e. it value is independent of all but

Previous K values

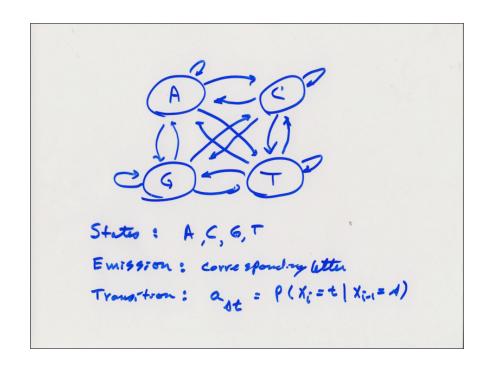
Example 1 uniform random A ACTAS ... ? oth

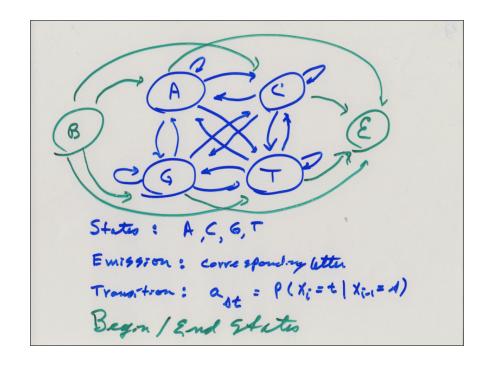
Example 2 weight matrix model South

M.M.

Example 3 ACGT, but Pr(G following C) lower:

1 ottorhum





Probability of Emitting Squarex

$$X = X_{1} \times X_{2} \cdots X_{N}$$

$$P(X) = P(X_{1}, X_{2}, \dots, X_{N})$$

$$= P(X_{N} | X_{N-1} | X_{N-2} \cdots X_{1}) \cdot P(X_{N-1} | X_{N-2} \cdots X_{1}) \cdots P(X_{N})$$

$$= P(X_{N} | X_{N-1}) \cdot P(X_{N-1} | X_{N-2}) \cdots P(X_{2} | X_{1}) \cdot P(X_{1})$$

$$= P(X_{1}) \prod_{i=1}^{N-1} \alpha_{X_{i}, X_{i+1}}$$

and derived two Markov chain models, one for the regions labelled as CpG islands (the '+' model) and the other from the remainder of the sequence (the '-' model). The transition probabilities for each model were set using the equation

$$a_{st}^{+} = \frac{c_{st}^{+}}{\sum_{t'} c_{st'}^{+}},$$
 (3.3)

and its analogue for a_{st}^{-} , where c_{st}^{+} is the number of times letter t followed letter s in the labelled regions. These are the maximum likelihood (ML) estimators for the transition probabilities, as described in Chapter 1.

(In this case there were almost 60 000 nucleotides, and ML estimators are adequate. If the number of counts of each type had been small, then a Bayesian estimation process would have been more appropriate, as discussed in Chapter 11 and below for HMMs.) The resulting tables are

+	A	С	G	Т	-	A	С	G	Т	
A	0.180	0.274	0.426	0.120	A	0.300	0.205	0.285	0.210	-
C	0.171	0.368	0.274	0.188	C	0.322	0.298%	0.078	0.302	
G	0.161	0.339	0.375	0.125			0.246			
T	0.079	0.355	0.384	0.182	T	0.177	0.239	0.292	0.292	

where the first row in each case contains the frequencies with which an A is followed by each of the four bases, and so on for the other rows, so each row

Training

 Max likelihood estimates for transition probabilities are just the frequencies of transitions when emitting the training sequences

Calculate log likelihood vation for (pG woold va background would

$$S(x) = \log \frac{P(x \mid + \text{model})}{P(x \mid - \text{model})} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \log \frac{a_{x_{i-1}, x_{i}}^{+}}{a_{x_{i-1}, x_{i}}^{-}}$$

les the probability for G following C is lower than that for C following G, 1 the effect is stronger in the '-' table, as expected.

e these models for discrimination, we calculate the log-odds ratio

$$S(x) = \log \frac{P(x|\text{model } +)}{P(x|\text{model } -)} = \sum_{i=1}^{L} \log \frac{a_{x_{i-1}x_i}^+}{a_{x_{i-1}x_i}^-}$$
$$= \sum_{i=1}^{L} \beta_{x_{i-1}x_i}$$

is the sequence and $\beta_{x_{i-1}x_i}$ are the log likelihood ratios of corresponding n probabilities. A table for β is given below in bits:¹

β	A	C	G	Т
A	-0.740	0.419	0.580	-0.803
C	-0.913	0.302	1.812	-0.685
G	-0.624	0.461	0.331	-0.730
T	-1.169	0.573	0.393	-0.679

 \geq 3.2 shows the distribution of scores, S(x), normalised by dividing by gth, i.e. as an average number of bits per molecule. If we had not norby length, the distribution would have been much more spread out.

Above answers Q1: "gizune short
Segnene, is it more likely to be
from feature model or background mad!"
What about Q2: "Given larry againer
where are features in it?"

Approach 1: Acove, say, 100 backe
Windows.

Pro: Simple
Con: avbitrary window; fixed an

Approach 2: Combine +2 - models

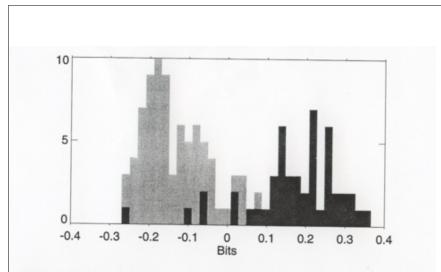
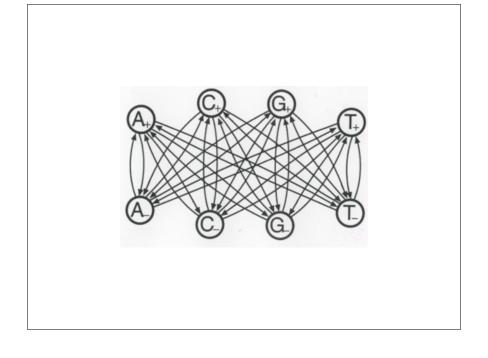


Figure 3.2 The histogram of the length-normalised scores for all the sequences. CpG islands are shown with dark grey and non-CpG with light grey.



Hidden Markov Models (HMMa)

States: 1,2, ...

Patho: Sequense of states TT= (TI, Tz, ", TIN)

Transitions: ake = Prof (Ti = 1 | Ti= = K)

Ewissions & ek(b) = Prob(X:=b | Tr:=k)

Observed Data: only emission sag. Hidden Data: The State/transfrom sag.

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3.2 Hidden Markov models 315116246446644245311321631164152133625144543631656626566666 Rolls

Rolls 6511664531326512456366646316366631623264552362666666625151631

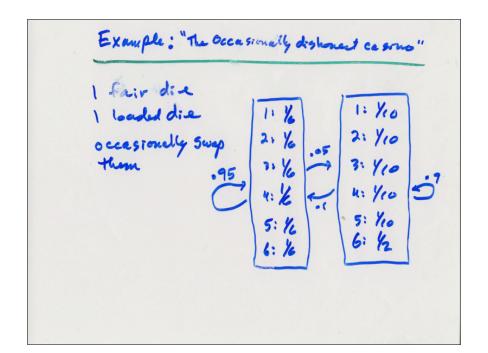
222555441666566563564324364131513465146353411126414626253356

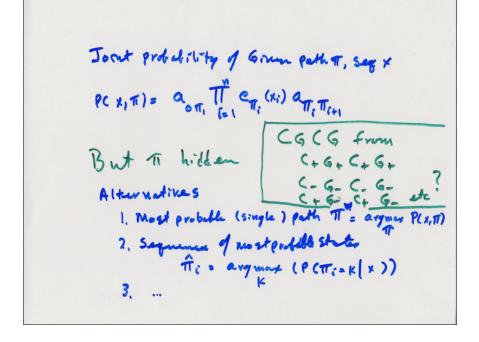
233121625364414432335163243633665562466662632666612355245242

Figure 3.5 The numbers show 300 rolls of a die as described in the example. Below is shown which die was actually used for that roll (F for fair and L for loaded). Under that the prediction by the Viterbi algorithm is shown.

the model as described earlier. Each roll was generated either with the fair die (F) or the loaded one (L), as shown below the outcome of the roll in Figure 3.5. The Viterbi algorithm was used to predict the state sequence, i.e. which die was used for each of the rolls. Generally, as you can see, the Viterbi algorithm has recovered the state sequence fairly well.

Exercise





The Viter bi Algorithm: Most Probable Path Want THE argman P(X, TT) TO Often true that I path dominates all others (if not, other approaches may be preferable) * Key Problem: exponentially many TT

Viterbi Traceback

- Above finds probability of best path
- To find the path itself, trace backward to state *k* attaining the max at each stage

Yet to come

- More on HMMs:
 - Viterbi, forward, backward
 - Posterior decoding
 - Training: Viterbi & Baum-Welch
 - Model structure

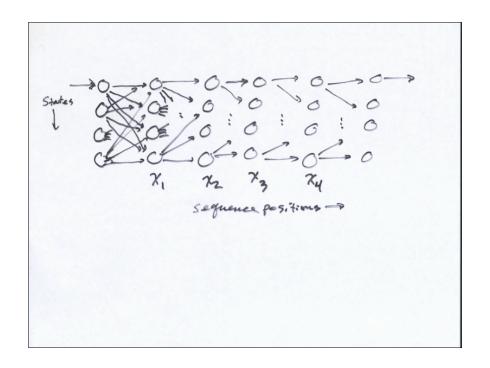
HIMM
Viterbi Max P(X, TT)

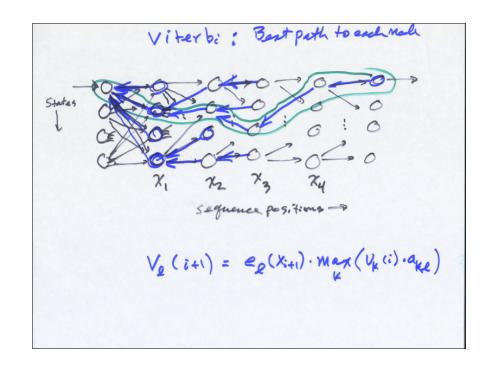
TT

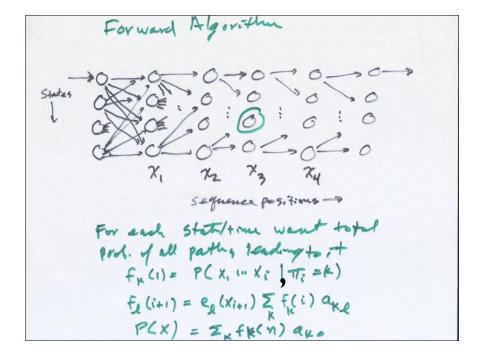
A

Security

Sold Bis most probable state
at step 2.







$$P(X, \pi_{i} = k) \circ P(X_{i} - i X_{i}, \pi_{i} = k) P(X_{i+1} - i X_{i} | X_{i} - X_{i})$$

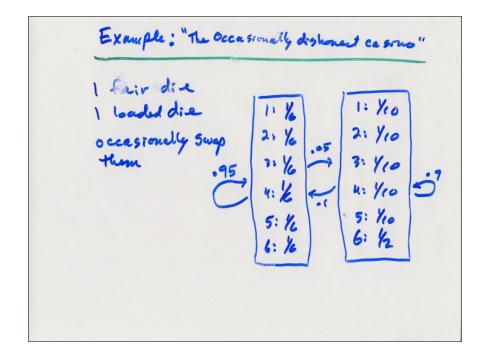
$$= f_{k}(i) = P(X_{i+1} - X_{i} | \pi_{i} = k)$$

$$= b_{k}(i)$$

$$b_{k}(i)$$

$$P(\pi_{i} = k | X) \circ P(X_{j} = \pi_{i} = k) = f_{k}(i) \cdot b_{k}(i)$$

$$P(X_{j} = k | X) \circ P(X_{j} = k)$$



3.2 Hidden Markov models 315116246446644245311321631164152133625144543631656626566666 651166453132651245636664631636663162326455236266666625151631 222555441666566563564324364131513465146353411126414626253356 366163666466232534413661661163252562462255265252266435353336 Figure 3.5 The numbers show 300 rolls of a die as described in the example. Below is shown which die was actually used for that roll (F for fair and L for loaded). Under that the prediction by the Viterbi algorithm is shown. the model as described earlier. Each roll was generated either with the fair die (F) or the loaded one (L), as shown below the outcome of the roll in Figure 3.5. The Viterbi algorithm was used to predict the state sequence, i.e. which die was used for each of the rolls. Generally, as you can see, the Viterbi algorithm has recovered the state sequence fairly well. Exercise

Posterior Decoding, II

Alt' $\hat{\pi}_i = avgwax (P(\mathbf{x}_i = K \mid X))$ K Alt^2 g(K) function anstats $G(i \mid X) = Z_K P(\mathbf{x}_i = K \mid X) \cdot g(K)$

3 Markov chains and hidden Markov models

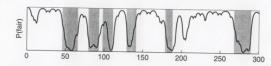


Figure 3.6 The posterior probability of being in the state corresponding to the fair die in the casino example. The x axis shows the number of the roll. The shaded areas show when the roll was generated by the loaded die.

The first approach is to define a state sequence $\hat{\pi}_i$ that can be used in place of π_i^* ,

$$\hat{\pi}_i = \underset{k}{\operatorname{argmax}} P(\pi_i = k|x). \tag{3.15}$$

As suggested by its definition, this state sequence may be more appropriate when we are interested in the state assignment at a particular point i, rather than the complete path. In fact, the state sequence defined by $\hat{\pi}_i$ may not be particularly likely as a path through the entire model; it may even not be a legitimate path at all if some transitions are not permitted, which is normally the case.

The second, and perhaps more important, new decoding approach arises when it is not the state sequence itself which is of interest, but some other property derived from it. Assume we have a function g(k) defined on the states. The natural value to look at then is

$$G(i|\mathbf{r}) = \sum P(\pi_i - k|\mathbf{r})g(k) \tag{2.16}$$

Data: 41 human sags, totaling tokep, W/ 48 cp6 islands
and langth on 1kpp each

Viter bi

Found 46 of 48
Plus 121 "falce pos"

Posterior decoding

Same a false veg
236 false pos

Plus 83 folse reg
Plus 83 folse reg
Plus 83 folse reg

Given model topology

Given to independent training sequences

Want to beautifrency

Probabilities

If IT known, then

MLE ake = Court K-Il

cont K-I anythen

exto) = similar

It hidden given to can extent to

Use EM: given to can extent to

Note the still weeful)

Note still weeful)

Baum- Welch Training

P(Ti=K,Ti+=e|X,0)

= f_K(i) · e_g(X_{i+1}) · b_g(i+1)

P(x10)

E(#9K->1) = Z + 2x_j Z

+ raming segs

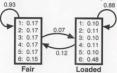
Emi49izes: 9,-m. len

Example: The occasionally dishonest casino, part 5 We are suspicious that a casino is operated as described in the example on p. 54, but we do not know for certain. Night after night we collect data by simply observing rolls. When we have enough, we want to estimate a model. Assume the data we collected were the 300 rolls shown in Figure 3.5. From this sequence of observations a model was estimated by the Baum-Welch algorithm. Initially all the probabilities were set to random numbers. Here are diagrams of the model that generated the data (identical to the one in the example on p. 54) and the estimated model. True Learned Model Model (300 rolls) You can see they are fairly similar, although the estimated transition probabilities are quite different from the real ones. This is partly a problem of local minima, and by trying more times it is actually possible to obtain a model closer to the correct one. However, from a limited amount of data it is never possible to estimate the parameters exactly. To illustrate the last point, 30 000 random rolls were generated (data are not

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3 Markov chains and hidden Markov models

shown!), and a model was estimated. This came very close to the correct one:



Learned Model (30,000 rolls)

To see how good these models are compared to just assuming a fair die all the time, the log-odds per roll was calculated using the 300 observations for the three models:

The correct model 0.101 bits
Model estimated from 300 rolls 0.097 bits
Model estimated from 30 000 rolls 0.100 bits

The worst model estimated from 300 rolls has almost the same log-odds as the two other models. That is because it is being tested on the same data as it was estimated from. Testing it on an independent set of rolls yields significantly lower log-odds than the other two models.

Exercises

3.5 Derive the result (3.19). Use the fact that

$$P(\pi_i = k, \pi_{i+1} = l | x, \theta) = \frac{1}{P(x|\theta)} P(x, \pi_i = k, \pi_{i+1} = l | \theta),$$

Viterbi

best single Path Med of Product

Forward

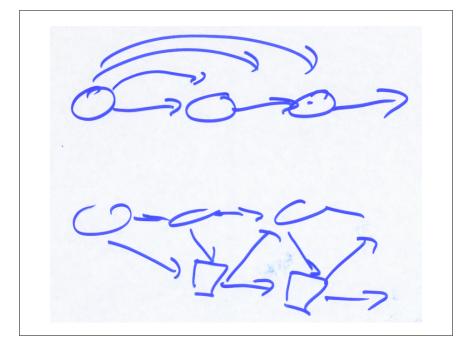
Summing over all parts

Sum of product

Similar

Baum valoh

Training be siden EM & F/B



HMM's in Action: pfam Proteins fell into families, both across & within species Ex: Globins, GPCRA,... Identifying family is kery useful Suggests function, etc. So search & alignment are important One successful approach profile HMM's

Profile Hmm Structure

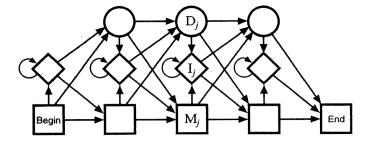


Figure 5.2 The transition structure of a profile HMM. We use diamonds to indicate the insert states and and circles for the delete states.

M_i: Match states (20 emission probabilities)

i: Insert states (Background emission probabilities)

Di: Delete states (silent - no emission)

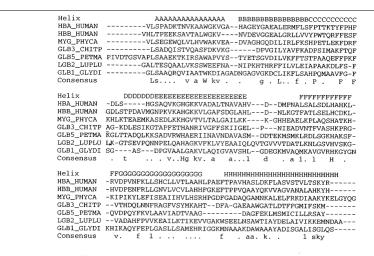
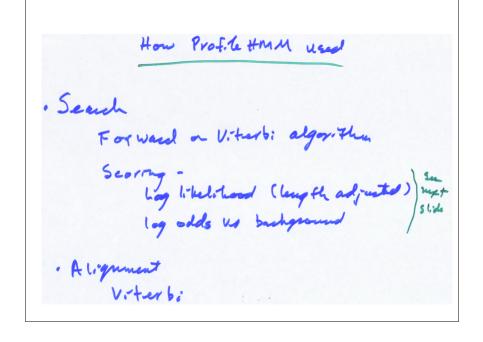
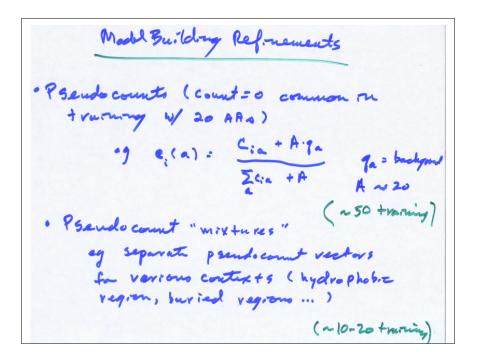


Figure 5.1 An alignment of seven globins from Bashford, Chothia & Lesk [1987]. To the left is the protein identifier in the SWISS-PROT database [Bairoch & Apweiler 1997]. The eight alpha helices are shown as A-H above the alignment. A consensus line below the alignment indicates residues that are identical among at least six of the seven sequences in upper case, ones identical in four or five sequences in lower case, and positions where there is a residue identical in three sequences with a dot.



Likelihood vs Odds Scores non-globins training data other globins non-globins 400 training data other globins 300 LL/length 200 -3 100 -4 -5 -200 150 200 250 protein length

Figure 5.5 To the left the length-normalized LL score is shown as a function of sequence length. The right plot shows the same for the log-odds score.



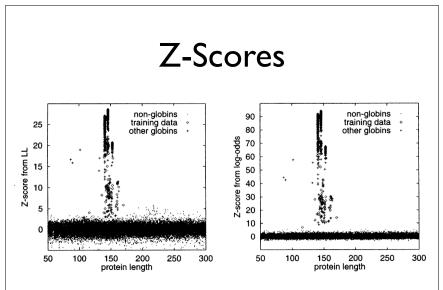


Figure 5.6 The Z-score calculated from the LL scores (left) and the log-odds (right).

