CSEP 590 A Computational Biology

Genes and Gene Prediction



3% change in LL may look small, but exp(4.3) = 73.7 time more likely₂

Gene Finding: Motivation

Sequence data flooding in What does it mean?

protein genes, RNA genes, mitochondria, chloroplast, regulation, replication, structure, repeats, transposons, unknown stuff, ...

More generally, how do you: learn from complex data in an unknown language, leverage what's known to help discover what's not

Protein Coding Nuclear DNA

Focus of this lecture

Goal: Automated annotation of new seq data

State of the Art:

In Eukaryotes:

predictions ~ 60% similar to real proteins

~80% if database similarity used

Prokaryotes

better, but still imperfect

Lab verification still needed, still expensive

Largely done for Human; unlikely for most others

Bio	logical	B	asi	ics
	- J			

Central Dogma:

DNA transcription RNA translation Protein

Codons: 3 bases code one amino acid

Start codon

Stop codons

3', 5' Untranslated Regions (UTR's)





Figure 3-7. Coupled transcription/translation in bacteria is visualized. Oscar Miller and colleagues lysed *E. coli* cells and immediately collected the cell contents on electron microscope grids. They saw threads of mRNA still associated with DNA (thin lines), and ribosomes—several at a time—were already translating protein along the mRNA. Thus, in bacterial cells, the picture of information recovery and use, at least in broad outline, was complete: mRNA was made on demand; ribosomes recognized the 5' end of the mRNA, bound, and began protein synthesis even before the mRNA had been completely synthesized. (In this photo, the arrow indicates a presumptive RNA polymerase [the faint disk to the left of the first ribosome]. The DNA thread at the top is being copied into mRNA, but the one at the bottom is not. Both are presumably double stranded.) (Reprinted, with permission, from Miller et al. 1970 [\bigcirc AAAS].)

Darnell, p120

Translation: mRNA → Protein



Ribosomes



Watson, Gilman, Witkowski, & Zoller, 1992

Codons & The Genetic Code

		Second Base					
		U	С	A	G		
		Phe	Ser	Tyr	Cys	U	
		Phe	Ser	Tyr	Cys	С	
		Leu	Ser	Stop	Stop	Α	
		Leu	Ser	Stop	Trp	G	
First Base		Leu	Pro	His	Arg	U	
	C	Leu	Pro	His	Arg	С	
		Leu	Pro	Gln	Arg	Α	e
		Leu	Pro	Gln	Arg	G	Baş
	A	lle	Thr	Asn	Ser	U	hird
		lle	Thr	Asn	Ser	С	F
		lle	Thr	Lys	Arg	Α	
		Met/Start	Thr	Lys	Arg	G	
	G	Val	Ala	Asp	Gly	U	
		Val	Ala	Asp	Gly	С	
		Val	Ala	Glu	Gly	Α	
		Val	Ala	Glu	Gly	G	

- Ala : Alanine
- Arg : Arginine
- Asn : Asparagine
- Asp : Aspartic acid
- Cys : Cysteine
- Gln : Glutamine
- Glu : Glutamic acid
- Gly : Glycine
- His : Histidine
- Ile : Isoleucine
- Leu : Leucine
- Lys : Lysine
- Met : Methionine
- Phe : Phenylalanine
- Pro : Proline
- Ser : Serine
- Thr : Threonine
- Trp : Tryptophane
- Tyr : Tyrosine
- Val : Valine

Idea #1: Find Long ORF's

Reading frame: which of the 3 possible sequences of triples does the ribosome read?

Open Reading Frame: No stop codons In random DNA

average ORF ~ 64/3 = 21 triplets 300bp ORF once per 36kbp per strand But average protein ~ 1000bp

A Simple ORF finder

start at left end scan triplet-by-non-overlapping triplet for AUG then continue scan for STOP repeat until right end repeat all starting at offset 1 repeat all starting at offset 2 then do it again on the other strand



* In bacteria, GUG is sometimes a start codon...

Idea #2: Codon Frequency

In random DNA

Leucine : Alanine : Tryptophan = 6 : 4 : 1

But in real protein, ratios $\sim 6.9 : 6.5 : 1$

So, coding DNA is not random

Even more: synonym usage is biased (in a species dependant way) examples known with 90% AT 3rd base Why? E.g. efficiency, histone, enhancer, splice interactions

Recognizing Codon Bias

Assume

Codon usage i.i.d.; *abc* with freq. *f(abc)*

 $a_1a_2a_3a_4...a_{3n+2}$ is coding, unknown frame Calculate

$$p_{1} = f(a_{1}a_{2}a_{3})f(a_{4}a_{5}a_{6})...f(a_{3n-2}a_{3n-1}a_{3n})$$

$$p_{2} = f(a_{2}a_{3}a_{4})f(a_{5}a_{6}a_{7})...f(a_{3n-1}a_{3n}a_{3n+1})$$

$$p_{3} = f(a_{3}a_{4}a_{5})f(a_{6}a_{7}a_{8})...f(a_{3n}a_{3n+1}a_{3n+2})$$

$$P_{i} = p_{i}/(p_{1}+p_{2}+p_{3})$$

More generally: *k*-th order Markov model k = 5 or 6 is typical

Codon Usage in $\Phi x174$



Promoters, etc.

In prokaryotes, most DNA coding E.g. ~ 70% in *H. influenzae* Long ORFs + codon stats do well But obviously won't be perfect short genes 5' & 3' UTR's Can improve by modeling promoters, etc. e.g. via WMM or higher-order Markov models

Eukaryotes

As in prokaryotes (but maybe more variable) promoters start/stop transcription start/stop translation

And then...





Nobel Prize of the week: P. Sharp, 1993, Splicing

Mechanical Devices of the Spliceosome: Motors, Clocks, Springs, and Things

Jonathan P. Staley and Christine Guthrie

CELL Volume 92, Issue 3, 6 February 1998, Pages 315-326

Figure 2. Spliceosome Assembly, Rearrangement, and Disassembly Requires ATP, Numerous DExD/H box Proteins, and Prp24. The snRNPs are depicted as circles. The pathway for *S. cerevisiae* is shown.



Figure 3. Splicing Requires Numerous Rearrangements





Figure 6. A Paradigm for Unwindase Specificity and Timing? The DExD/H box protein UAP56 (orange) binds U2AF65 (pink) through its linker region (L). U2 binds the branch point. Y's indicate the polypyrimidine stretch; RS, RRM as in Figure 5A. Sequences are from mammals.

Hints to Origins?



nucleotide

Genes in Eukaryotes

As in prokaryotes (but maybe more variable) promoters start/stop transcription start/stop translation 5' **New Features:** intron exon introns, exons, splicing branch point signal donor alternative splicing polyA site/tail



Characteristics of human genes (Nature, 2/2001, Table 21)

	Median	Mean	Sample (size)
Internal exon	122 bp	145 bp	RefSeq alignments to draft genome sequence, with confirmed intron boundaries (43,317 exons)
Exon number	7	8.8	RefSeq alignments to finished seq (3,501 genes)
Introns	1,023 bp	3,365 bp	RefSeq alignments to finished seq (27,238 introns)
3' UTR	400 bp	770 bp	Confirmed by mRNA or EST on chromo 22 (689)
5' UTR	240 bp	300 bp	Confirmed by mRNA or EST on chromo 22 (463)
Coding seq	1,100 bp	1340 bp	Selected RefSeq entries (1,804)*
(CDS)	367 aa	447 aa	
Genomic span	14 kb	27 kb	Selected RefSeq entries (1,804)*

* 1,804 selected RefSeq entries were those with fulllength unambiguous alignment to finished sequence

Big Genes

Many genes are over 100 kb long,

Max known: dystrophin gene (DMD), 2.4 Mb.

The variation in the size distribution of coding sequences and exons is less extreme, although there are remarkable outliers.

The titin gene has the longest currently known coding sequence at 80,780 bp; it also has the largest number of exons (178) and longest single exon (17,106 bp).

RNApol rate: 1.2-2.5 kb/min = >16 hours to transcribe DMD_{45}



Figure 36 GC content

Nature 2/2001





a: Distribution of GC content in genes and in the genome. For 9,315 known genes mapped to the draft genome sequence, the local GC content was calculated in a window covering either the whole alignment or 20,000 bp centered on midpoint of the alignment, whichever was larger. Ns in the sequence were not counted. GC content for the genome was calculated for adjacent nonoverlapping 20,000bp windows across the sequence. Both distributions normalized to sum to one.



b: Gene density as a function of GC content (= ratios of data in a. Less accurate at high GC because the denominator is small)

c: Dependence of mean exon and intron lengths on GC content. The local GC content, based on alignments to finished sequence only, calculated from windows covering the larger of feature size or 10,000 bp centered on it

Other Relevant Features

PolyA Tails

100-300 A's typically added to the 3' end of the mRNA after transcription-*not* templated by DNA

Processed pseudogenes

Sometimes mRNA (*after* splicing + polyA) is reverse-transcribed into DNA and re-integrated into genome

~14,000 in human genome

Alternative Splicing



Other Features (cont)

Alternative start sites (5' ends) Alternative PolyA sites (near 3' ends) Alternative splicing

Collectively, these affect an estimated 95% of genes, with ~5 (a wild guess) isoforms per gene (but can be huge; fly Dscam: 38,016, potentially)

Trans-splicing and gene fusions (rare in humans but important in some tumors)

Computational Gene Finding?

How do we algorithmically account for all this complexity...

A Case Study -- Genscan

C Burge, S Karlin (1997), "Prediction of complete gene structures in human genomic DNA", Journal of Molecular Biology, 268: 78-94.

Training Data

238 multi-exon genes 142 single-exon genes total of 1492 exons total of 1254 introns total of 2.5 Mb

NO alternate splicing, none > 30kb, ...

Performance Comparison

	Accuracy						
	per r	nuc.		р	er exo	n	
Program	Sn	Sp	Sn	Sp	Avg.	ME	WE
GENSCAN	0.93	0.93	0.78	0.81	0.80	0.09	0.05
FGENEH	0.77	0.88	0.61	0.64	0.64	0.15	0.12
GeneID	0.63	0.81	0.44	0.46	0.45	0.28	0.24
Genie	0.76	0.77	0.55	0.48	0.51	0.17	0.33
GenLang	0.72	0.79	0.51	0.52	0.52	0.21	0.22
GeneParser2	0.66	0.79	0.35	0.40	0.37	0.34	0.17
GRAIL2	0.72	0.87	0.36	0.43	0.40	0.25	0.11
SORFIND	0.71	0.85	0.42	0.47	0.45	0.24	0.14
Xpound	0.61	0.87	0.15	0.18	0.17	0.33	0.13
GeneID‡	0.91	0.91	0.73	0.70	0.71	0.07	0.13
GeneParser3	0.86	0.91	0.56	0.58	0.57	0.14	0.09

After Burge&Karlin, Table 1. Sensitivity, Sn = TP/AP; Specificity, Sp = TP/PP
Generalized Hidden Markov Models

 π . Initial state distribution

 a_{ij} : Transition probabilities

One submodel per state



Outputs are *strings* gen'ed by submodel Given length *L* Pick start state q_1 (~ π) While $\sum d_i < L$ Pick d_i & string s_i of length d_i ~ submodel for q_i Pick next state q_{i+1} (~ a_{ij}) Output $s_1 s_2 ...$

Decoding

A "parse" ϕ of $s = s_1 s_2 \dots s_L$ is a pair $d = d_1 d_2 \dots d_k$, $q = q_1 q_2 \dots q_k$ with $\sum d_i = L$

A forward/backward-like alg calculates, e.g.:

Pr(generate $s_1 s_2 \dots s_i$ & end in state q_k)

(summing over possible predecessor states q_{k-1} and possible d_k etc.)

$$P_r(\varphi(s) = \frac{P_r(\varphi \land s)}{P_r(s)}$$





Figure 4. Length distributions are shown for (a) 1254 introns; (b) 238 initial exons; (c) 1151 internal exons; and (d) 238 terminal exons from the 238 multi-exon genes of the learning set \mathscr{L} . Histograms (continuous lines) were derived with a bin size of 300 bp in (a), and 25 bp in (b), (c), (d). The broken line in (a) shows a geometric (exponential) distribution with parameters derived from the mean of the intron lengths; broken lines in (b), (c) and (d) are the smoothed empirical distributions of exon lengths used by GENSCAN (details given by Burge, 1997). Note different horizontal and vertical scales are used in (a), (b), (c), (d) and that multimodality in (b) and (d) may, in part, reflect relatively

Effect of G+C Content

Group	Ι	II	III	IV
C ‡ G% range	<43	43-51	51-57	>57
Number of genes	65	115	99	101
Est. proportion single-exon genes	0.16	0.19	0.23	0.16
Codelen: single-exon genes (bp)	1130	1251	1304	1137
Codelen: multi-exon genes (bp)	902	908	1118	1165
Introns per multi-exon gene	5.1	4.9	5.5	5.6
Mean intron length (bp)	2069	1086	801	518
Est. mean transcript length (bp)	10866	6504	5781	4833
Isochore	L1+L2	H1+H2	H3	H3
DNA amount in genome (Mb)	2074	1054	102	68
Estimated gene number	22100	24700	9100	9100
Est. mean intergenic length	83000	36000	5400	2600
Initial probabilities:				
Intergenic (N)	0.892	0.867	0.54	0.418
Intron (I+, I-)	0.095	0.103	0.338	0.388
5' Untranslated region (F+, F-)	0.008	0.018	0.077	0.122
3' Untranslated region (T+, T-)	0.005	0.011	0.045	0.072
				61

Submodels

- 5' UTR
 - L ~ geometric(769 bp), s ~ MM(5)
- 3' UTR

L ~ geometric(457 bp), s ~ MM(5)

Intergenic

L ~ geometric(GC-dependent), s ~ MM(5) Introns

L ~ geometric(GC-dependent), s ~ MM(5)

Submodel: Exons

Inhomogenious 3-periodic 5th order Markov models

Separate models for low GC (<43%), high GC

Track "phase" of exons, i.e. reading frame.

Signal Models I: WMM's

Polyadenylation

- 6 bp, consensus AATAAA
- **Translation Start**
 - 12 bp, starting 6 bp before start codon
- **Translation stop**
 - A stop codon, then 3 bp WMM

Signal Models II: more WMM's

Promoter 70% TATA 15 bp TATA WMM s ~ null, L ~ Unif(14-20) 8 bp cap signal WMM 30% TATA-less 40 bp null

Signal Models III: W/WAM's

Acceptor Splice Site (3' end of intron)

[-20..+3] relative to splice site modeled by "1st order weight array model"

Branch point & polypyrimidine tract

Hard. Even weak consensus like YYRAY found in [-40..-21] in only 30% of training

"Windowed WAM": 2nd order WAM, but averaged over 5 preceding positions

"captures weak but detectable tendency toward YYY triplets and certain branch point related triplets like TGA, TAA, ..."

What do splice sites look like?



Signal Models IV: Maximum Dependence Decomposition

Donor splice sites (5' end of intron) show dependencies between non-adjacent positions, e.g. poor match at one end compensated by strong match at other end, 6 bp away

Model is basically a decision tree

Uses χ^2 test to quantitate dependence

χ^2 test : Are events A & B independent ?

	В	not B		Event
A	8	4	12	counts
not A	2	6	8	plus
	10	10	20	marginals

 $\chi^{2} = \sum_{i} \frac{(\text{observed}_{i} - \text{expected}_{i})^{2}}{\text{expected}_{i}}$

"Expected" means expected assuming independence, e.g. expect B 10/20; A 12/20; both 120/400*20 = 6, etc.

Significance: table look up (or approximate as normal)

χ^2 test for independence of nucleotides in donor sites

i	Con	j: -3	-2	-1	+3	+4	+5	+6	Sum
-3	c/a		61.8*	14.9	5.8	20.2*	11.2	18.0*	131.8*
-2	Α	115.6*		40.5*	20.3*	57.5*	59.7*	42.9*	336.5*
-1	G	15.4	82.8*		13.0	61.5*	41.4*	96.6*	310.8*
+3	a/g	8.6	17.5*	13.1		19.3*	1.8	0.1	60.5*
+4	А	21.8*	56.0*	62.1*	64.1*		56.8*	0.2	260.9*
+5	G	11.6	60.1*	41.9*	93.6*	146.6*		33.6*	387.3*
+6	t	22.2*	40.7*	103.8*	26.5*	17.8*	32.6*		243.6*

* means chi-squared p-value < .001

Technically – build a 2 x 4 table for each (i,j) pair: Pos i does/does not match consensus vs pos j is A, C, G, T calculate χ^2 as on previous slide, e.g. χ^2 for +6 vs -1 = 103.8 If independent, you'd expect $\chi^2 \le 16.3$ all but one in a 1000 times.

					(All don	or spli	ce sites						
Pos	A%	C%	G%	U %			(1254)			Pos	A%	C%	G%	U%
-3	33	36	19	13				$\overline{}$		-3	35	44	16	6
-2	56	15	15	15	_		\sim			-2	85	4	7	5
-1	9	4	(78)	9		G 5) (Н5		-1	2	1	97	0
+3	44	3	51	3	(1	(057)		(197)	J	+3	81	3	15	2
+4	75	4	13	9			$<$ \sim			+4	51	28	9	12
+6	14	18	19	49			\mathbf{i}			+6	22	20	30	28
-3	34	37	18	11		Y	\mathbf{X}		_	-3	29	31	21	18
-2	59	10	15	16	G	5G.1) (G5H.1		-2	43	30	17	11
+3	40	4	53	3	(8	323)		(234)		+3	56	0	43	0
+4	70	4	16	10		<u> </u>	くし			+4	93	2	3	3
+6	17	21	21	42			1			+6	5	10	10	76
-3	37	42	18	3	Gel		~ 2	CaC aB		-3	29	30	18	23
+3	39	5	51	5	05	J-1		120-In	-2	+3	42	1	56	1
+4	62	5	22	11	(4	87)		(336)		+4	80	4	8	8
+6	19	20	25	36			\sum			+6	14	21	16	49
-3	32	40	23	5	C-C			GAA	v	-3	39	43	15	2
+3	27	4	59	10	050.	IA-20(9 195	0-1A-2	• 6	+3	46	6	46	3
+4	51	5	25	19		(7)		(310)	\mathcal{I}	+4	69	5	20	7
	All	sites:					Positio	n				Ν	/lanv	
		D	2	•	1	. 1		. 2		. =				
		Base	-3	-2	-1	+1	+2	+3	+4	+5	+0	C	lepen	dencies,
		A 0%	33	60	Q	0	0	40	71	6	15	S	uch a	s 5'/3'
		C%	37	13	4	ő	õ	3	7	5	19		0000	nontion
		Ğ%	18	14	(81)	100	ŏ	45	12	84	20	C	ompe	isalion,
		U%	12	13	Y	0	100	3	.9	5	4 6	e	e.g. G	$_{1}$ vs G ₅ /H ₅
U1	snRN	A: 3'	G	U	С	С	Α	U	U	С	Α	5'		



Summary of Burge & Karlin

Coding DNA & control signals are nonrandom

Weight matrices, WAMs, etc. for controls Codon frequency, etc. for coding GHMM nice for overall architecture Careful attention to small details pays

Problems with BK training set

- 1 gene per sequence
- Annotation errors
- Single exon genes over-represented?
- Highly expressed genes over-represented?
- Moderate sized genes over-represented? (none > 30 kb) ...
- Similar problems with other training sets, too (Of course we can now do better for human, mouse, etc., but what about cockatoos or cows or endangered frogs, or ...)

Problems with all methods

Pseudo genes (~ 14,000 in human) Short ORFs Sequencing errors Non-coding RNA genes & spliced UTR's **Overlapping genes** Alternative TSS/polyadenylation/splicing Hard to find novel stuff – not in training Species-specific weirdness – spliced leaders, polycistronic transcripts, RNA editing...

Other important ideas

Database search - does gene you're predicting look anything like a known protein?

Comparative genomics - what does this region look like in related organisms?

Assaying Gene Expression







RNAseq protocol (approx)

Extract RNA (maybe by polyA ↔ polyT) Reverse-transcribe into DNA ("cDNA") Make double-stranded, maybe amplify Cut into, say, ~300bp fragments Sequence ~100-175bp from one or both ends

CAUTIONS: non-uniform sampling, sequence (e.g. G+C), 5'-3', and length biases

Goals of RNAseq

#1: Which genes are being expressed? How? assemble reads (fragments of mRNAs) into (nearly) full-length mRNAs and/or map them to a reference genome
#2: How highly expressed are they? How? count how many fragments come from each gene-expect more highly expressed genes to yield more reads, after correcting for biases like mRNA length

RNAseq Data Analysis

De novo Assembly

mostly deBruijn-based, but likely to change with longer reads more complex than genome assembly due to alt splicing, wide diffs in expression levels; e.g. often multiple "k's" used pro: no ref needed (non-model orgs), novel discoveries possible, e.g. very short exons

con: less sensitive to weakly-expressed genes

Reference-based (more later)

pro/con: basically the reverse

Both: subsequent bias correction, quantitation, differential expression calls, fusion detection, etc.

"TopHat" (Ref based example)

- map reads to ref transcriptome (optional)
- map reads to ref genome

BWA

- unmapped reads remapped as 25mers
- novel splices = 25mers anchored 2 sides
- stitch original reads across these
- remap reads with minimal overlaps
- Roughly: 10m reads/hr, 4Gbytes (typical data set 100m–1b reads)



RNAseq Bias

BIOINFORMATICS ORIGINAL PAPER

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Gene expression

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A new approach to bias correction in RNA-Seq

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ABSTRACT

Motivation: Quantification of sequence abundance in RNA-Seq experiments is often conflated by protocol-specific sequence bias.

These biases may adversely film

low level not

RNAseq or pping

Extract RNA. Fragment it. Sequence it. Map it. Count it. More mRNA⇒more reads. A random sampling process.

Example



What we expect: Uniform Sampling



Uniform sampling of 4000 "reads" across a 200 bp "exon." Average 20 \pm 4.7 per position, min \approx 9, max \approx 33

What we get: highly non-uniform coverage





What we get: highly non-uniform coverage



The Good News: we can (partially) correct the bias

Bias is sequence-dependent



and platform/sample-dependent

Fitting a model of the sequence surrounding read starts lets us predict which positions have more reads.



(a) sample foreground sequences








Form of the models: Directed Bayes nets



Wetterbom (282 parameters)

One "node" per nucleotide, ±20 bp of read start

- •Filled node means that position is biased
- Arrow i → j means letter at position i modifies bias at j
- •For both, numeric

parameters say how much How–optimize:

$$\ell = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \log \Pr[x_i | s_i] = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \log \frac{\Pr[s_i | x_i] \Pr[x_i]}{\sum_{x \in \{0,1\}} \Pr[s_i | x] \Pr[x]}$$

Result – Increased Uniformity





What is the chance that we will learn an incorrect model? E.g., learn a biased model from unbiased input?



Wetterbom (282 parameters)



some questions

Bullard (696 parameters)

How does the amount of training data effect accuracy of the resulting model?



Availability



Isolator

Soon to be the world's best isoform quantitation tool