

Introduction to Bioinformatics

BS (CS - 460)

Lecture Set 02

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Topics

1. Gene Ontology Classification Scheme

2. Introduction to Sequence Alignment

What is an Ontology?

- An ontology is a formal explicit description of concepts in a domain of discourse, properties of each concept describing various features and attributes of the concept and restrictions on them.
- An ontology together with a set of individual instances of classes (concepts) constitutes a knowledge base.

Ontology why develop it?

Why develop an ontology:

- 1. To share common understanding of the structure of information among people or software agents
- 2. To enable reuse of domain knowledge
- 3. To make domain assumptions explicit
- 4. To separate domain knowledge from the operational knowledge
- 5. To analyze domain knowledge

Why Gene Ontology?

- Elusive (undescribable) nature of protein functions.
- Protein function is an umbrella term for all types of activities that a protein is involved in, be it cellular, molecular or physiological.
- The three categories are not independent, but rather are hierarchically related.
- The need for a standardized functional labeling scheme was paramount, and several groups responded to this need with very innovative proposals.

Gene Ontology (GO)

- URL: http://www.geneontology.org/
- Gene Ontology is
 - A hierarchy of roles of genes and gene products, independent of any organism.
 - Composed of three independent ontologies: molecular function, biological process, cellular component
 - GO itself does not contain any information on genes or gene products

GO annotations

- http://www.geneontology.org/GO.current.ann otations.shtml
- Curators annotate their findings of genes (known as annotations) by utilizing GO for various organisms (about 20 of them).
- Different kinds of evidence codes
 - Annotations with IEA (inferred from electronic annotation) evidence code are not manually verified (Least reliable)

Properties of Gene Ontology?

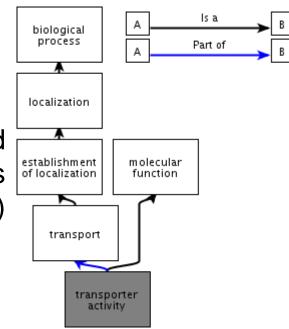
- (1) **Wide coverage:** This is the most important property, since any functional scheme should cover as many of the functional phenomena across as many the organisms as possible.
- (2) Standardized format: Having minimal variability in the functional labels and adopting a standard data structure for the scheme makes the scheme easily readable by computer programs and significantly enhances their impact.
- (3) **Hierarchical structure:** Protein functions do not form a flat list, but are instead arranged hierarchically at a conceptual level. Functional classes range from specific functions to very general functional categories, thus allowing a researcher to choose the appropriate level(s) for his analysis.

Properties of Gene Ontology? (Contd...)

- (4) **Disjoint categories:** Functions can be of different types, such as **cellular component**, **molecular function** and **biological process**. A separate hierarchy allows the choice of the appropriate type of function to be studied.
- (5) Multiple functions: In order to model the biological possibility of a protein being involved in multiple biological processes depending on the context, it is necessary for a functional scheme to allow the labeling of a single protein with multiple functions.
- (6) **Dynamic nature:** Last but not the least, the scheme should not be static, but should be modified as and when new functional knowledge is discovered.

GO Molecular Function Ontology

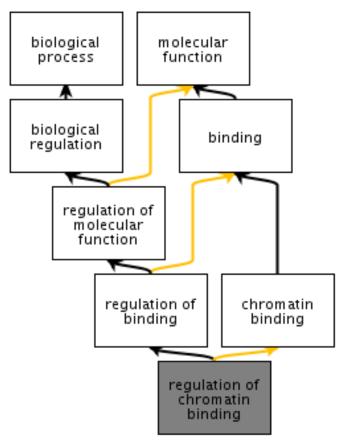
- Describes activities, such as catalytic or binding activities, that can be performed by individual gene products or assembled complexes of gene products at the molecular level.
- Example of activities
 - transporter activity
 - Genes that enable the directed movement of substances (such as macromolecules, small molecules, ions) into, out of, within or between cells.
- Example of binding
 - insulin receptor binding
 - Genes that interact with insulin receptors

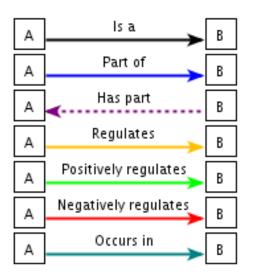


GO Biological Process Ontology

- Defined as a biological objective to which the gene or gene product contributes.
- Examples
 - Cell Proliferation
 - Genes that are responsible for the multiplication or reproduction of cells, resulting in the rapid expansion of a cell population.
 - Regulation of Chromatin Binding
 - Genes that enable regulation and processing of chromatin binding.

GO Biological Process Ontology





QuickGO - http://www.ebi.ac.uk/QuickGO

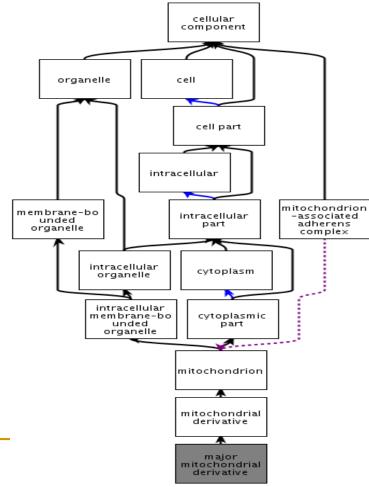
GO Cellular Component Ontology

Refers to the place in the cell where the gene product is

active.

Examples

- mitocondria
- nucleus
- cell membrane



Part of

Has part

Regulates

Positively regulates

Negatively regulates

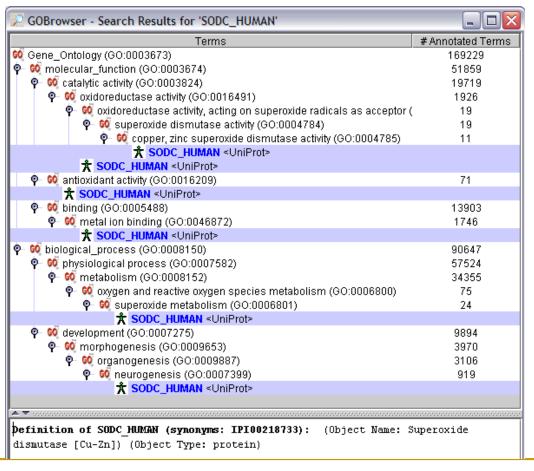
Occurs in

В

В

Example of a gene product

 A gene product has one or more molecular functions and is used in one or more biological processes; it might be associated with one or more cellular components.



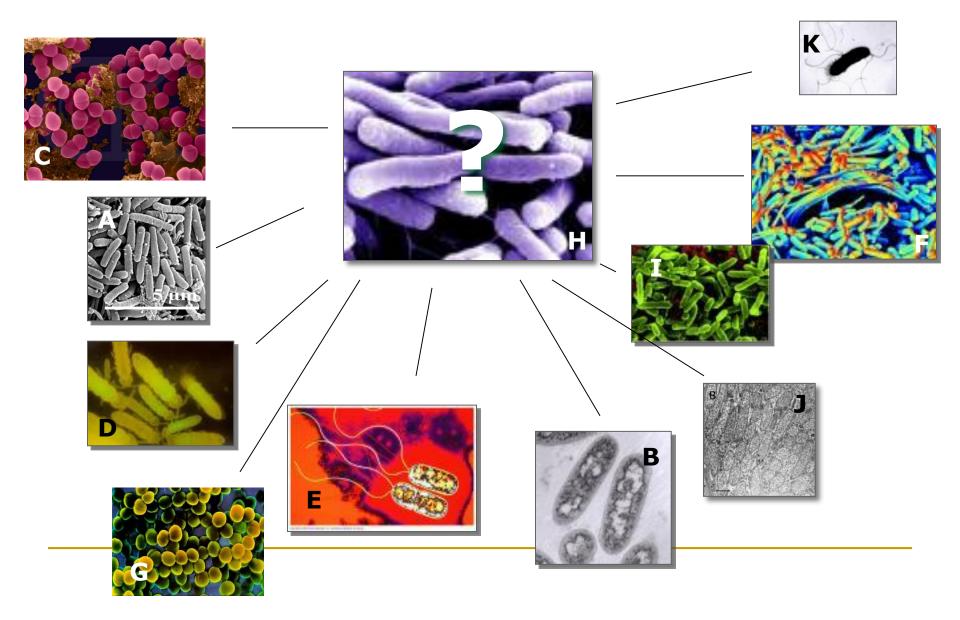
An example showing all occurrences of SODC protein in the Gene Ontology from the human annotation.

Common applications of GO

- Analysis of microarray data
 - Finding genes with similar functions
 - Utilize biological process ontology
- Evaluation of protein-protein interactions
 - Proteins are likely to interact if they are in the same location
 - Utilize cellular component ontology
- Studying Protein Binding Sites
 - Utilize molecular function ontology

Homology and Sequence Alignment

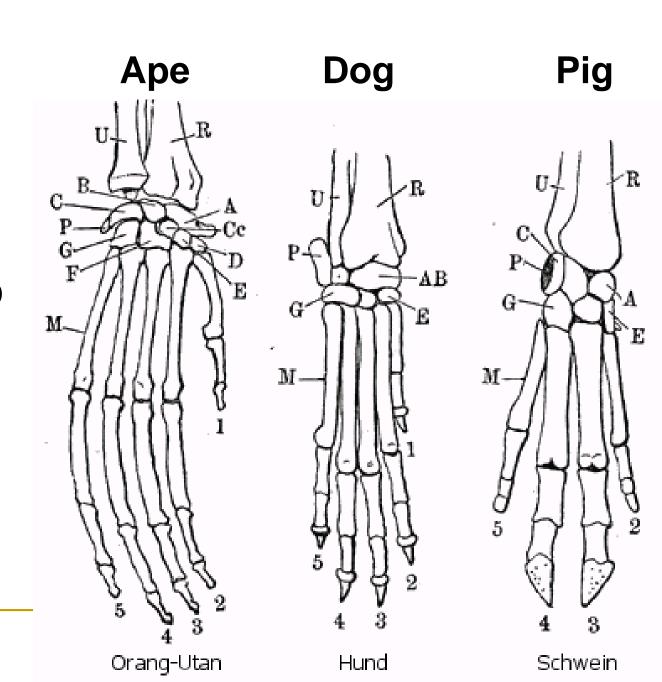
How is this organism related to other species?



Homology

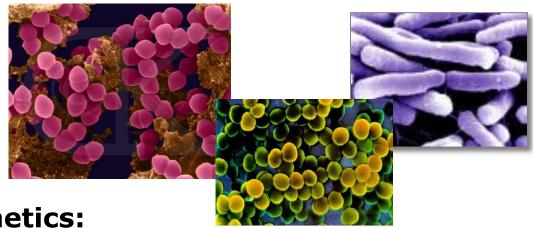
Homology =
Similarity
between
objects due to
a common
ancestry

Hund = Dog, Schwein = Pig Orang-Utan=Ape



DNA sequences provide characters that are:

- Numerous, discrete characters (A, T, C, G)
- Directly comparable across species
- Unlikely to change due to culture conditions



Molecular phylogenetics:

Inference of evolutionary relationships based on molecular data

Sequence homology

Similarity between sequences as a result of common ancestry.



Sequence alignment

Alignment: Comparing two (pairwise) or more (multiple) sequences. Searching for a series of identical or similar characters in the sequences.





- 1. To detect if two sequences are homologous. If so, homology may indicate **similarity in function** (and structure).
- 2. Required for **evolutionary studies** (e.g., taxonomic tree reconstruction).
- 3. To **detect conservation** (e.g., a tyrosine (Y) amino acid that is evolutionary conserved, is more likely to be a phosphorylation site).
- 4. Given a sequenced DNA, from an unknown region, **align** it to the genome.

Insertions, deletions, and substitutions What makes them?

A Note about Mutations

A mutation is a permanent change in the DNA sequence of a gene. Sometimes mutations can be useful but mostly they are harmful as changes in DNA can change the way a cell behaves. As genes are a set of hereditary materials that contain instructions necessary for a cell to work so if some of these instructions go wrong the cell may not know how to function.

Mutations can also be **acquired** depending on what sort of environment a person lives in as some environmental agents can damage the DNA or when mistakes occur during cell division. For example **radiations released during the nuclear disasters** in Hiroshima and Nagasaki and Chernobyl are still affecting and causing mutations in the genetic makeup of the people living in those areas. Moreover, different types of cancers are also caused by mutations.

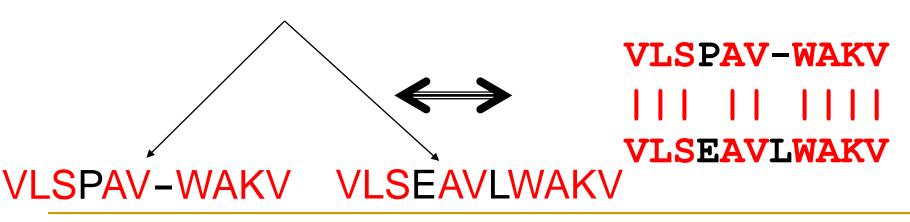
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A Note about Mutations

Mutations can be **inherited** which means the mutated genetic code can be passed on to the next generations. For example heart disease, diabetes, stroke or high blood pressure, run in the family. If parents suffered from them, their children may also develop them. Ten million men in the U.S. are colour blind but less than 600,000 American women have the same disability. That's because this mutation is located on the X-chromosome. Men only have one Xchromosome, so that one is enough to induce the condition, but women have two X chromosomes, and they require the mutation in double set to experience the condition.

Sequence alignment

If two sequences share a common ancestor – for example human and dog **hemoglobin**, we can represent their evolutionary relationship using a tree

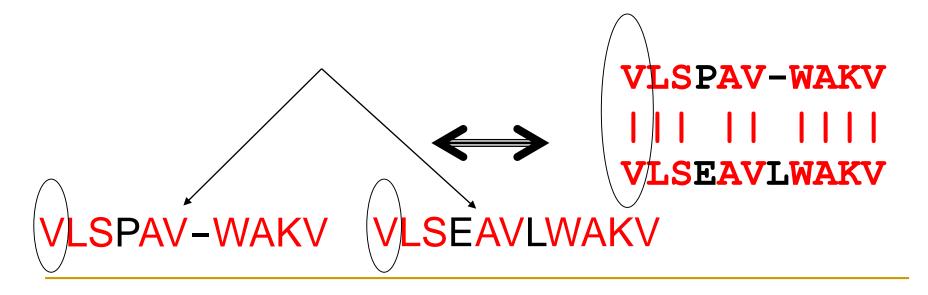


Human's Hemoglobin

Dog's Hemoglobin

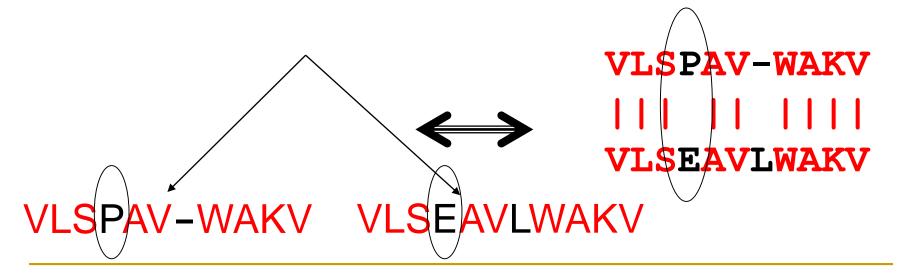
Perfect match

A perfect match suggests that no change has occurred from the common ancestor (although this is not always the case).



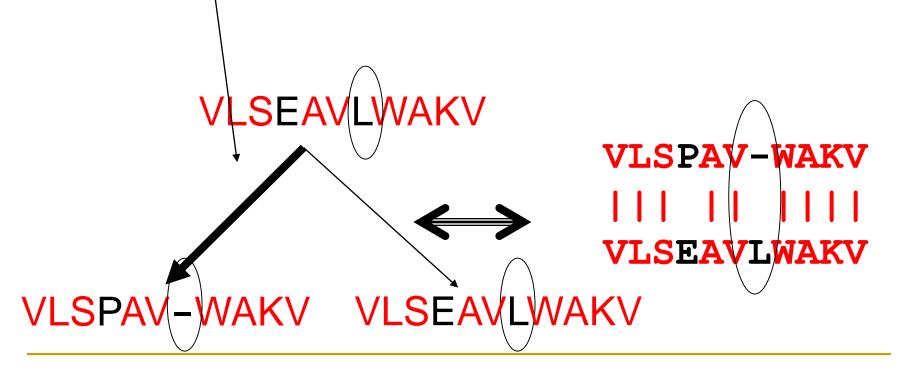
A substitution

A substitution suggests that at least one change has occurred since the common ancestor (although we cannot say in which lineage it has occurred).



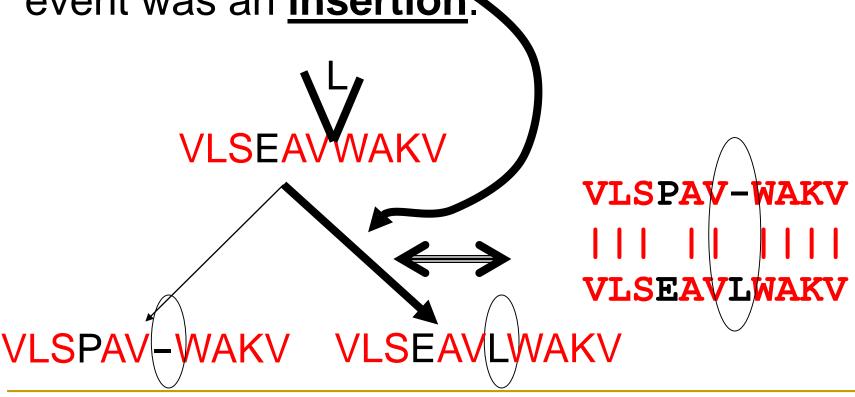
Indel

Case 01: The ancestor had L and it was lost here. In such a case, the event was a **deletion**.



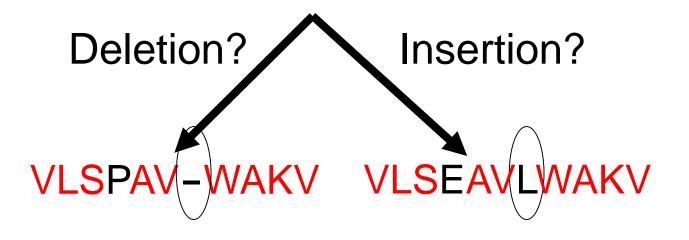
Indel

Case 02: The ancestor was shorter and the L was inserted here. In such a case, the event was an **insertion**.



Indel

Normally, given two sequences we cannot tell whether it was an insertion or a deletion, so we term the event as an **indel**.



Indels in protein coding genes

Indels in protein coding genes are often of 3bp, 6bp, 9bp, etc...

Gene Search

In fact, searching for indels of length 3K (K=1,2,3,...) can help algorithms that search a genome for coding regions

Global and Local pairwise alignments

Global vs. Local

Global alignment – finds the best alignment in across the entire two sequences.

ADLGAVFALCDRYFQ
||||| |||||
ADLGRTQN-CDRYYQ

Local alignment – finds regions of similar
 parts of the sequences.



Global
alignment:
forces
alignment in
regions
which differ

Local
alignment
will return
only
regions of
good
alignment

Global alignment





human 10	07 VREKYELAHPPEEWKYELRIRYLPKGFLNQFTEDKPTLNFFYQQVKSDYM	156
rhesus 15	51 VREKYELAHPPEEWKYELRIRYLPKGFLNQFTEDKPTLNFFYQQVKSDYM	200
human 15	57 LEIADQVDQEIALKLGCLEIRRSYWEMRGNALEKKSNYEVLEKDVGLKRF	206
rhesus 20	01 LEIADQVDQEIALKLGCLEIRRSYWEMRGNALEKKSNYEVLEKDVGLKRF	250
human 20	07 FPKSLLDSVKAKTLRKLIQQTFRQFANLNREESILKFFEILSPVYRFDKE	256
rhesus 25		300
human 25	57 CFKCALGSSWIISVELAIGPEEGISYLTDKGCNPTHLADFTQVQTIQYSN	306
rhesus 30		350
human 30	07 SEDKDRKGMLQLKIAGAPEPLTVTAPSLTIAENMADLIDGYCRLVNGTSQ	356
rhesus 35		400
human 35	57 SFIIRPQKEGERALPSIPKLANSEKQGMRTHAVSVSETDDYAEIIDEEDT	406
rhesus 40		450
human 40	07 YTMPSTRDYEIQRERIELGRCIGEGQFGDVHQGIYMSPENPALAVAIKTC	456
rhesus 45		500
human 45	57 KNCTSDSVREKFLOEALTMROFD-HPHIVKLIGVITENPVWIIMELCTLG	505
		E E O

PTK2 protein *tyrosine kinase 2* of **human** and **Rhesus monkey**

Global alignment

A ":" Conserved amino acid substitutions are the replacement of an amino acid residue with another one with **similar properties**, such as **aspartate** for **glutamate**. They are both negatively charged amino acids.

A "." semi-conserved amino acid replaces one residue with another one that has similar **steric conformation**, but does not share chemical properties. An example would be substituting **cysteine** for **alanine** or **leucine**.

Local Alignment: Proteins are comprised of domains

Human PTK2:

Domain A

Domain B

Protein tyrosine kinase domain

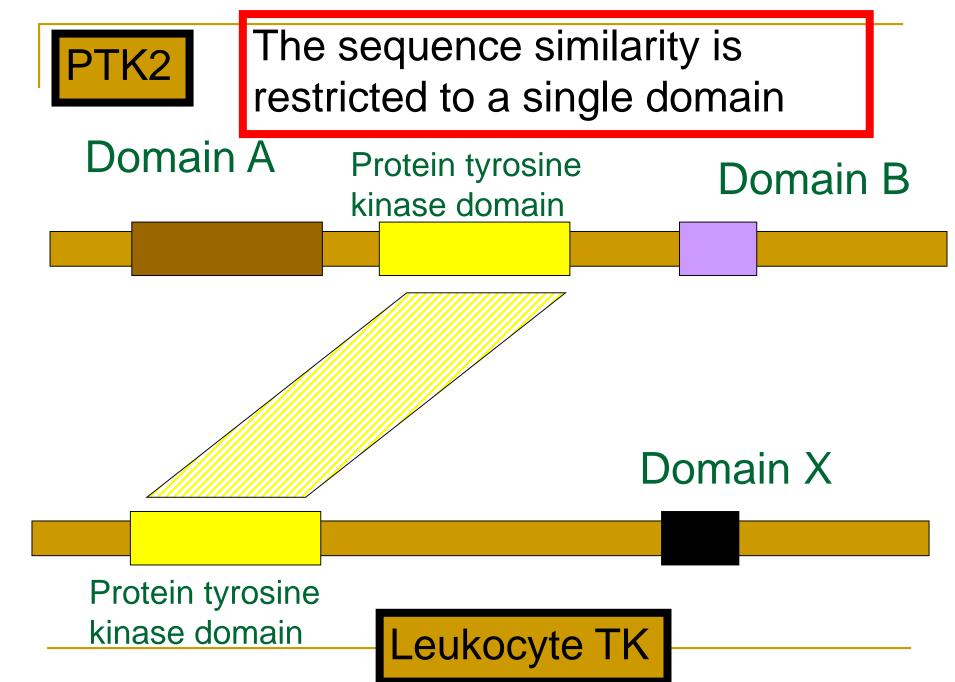
Protein tyrosine kinase domain

In Leukocytes, a different gene product for tyrosine kinase domain is expressed.

Domain A

Domain X

Protein tyrosine kinase domain



Global alignment of PTK and LTK



Local alignment of PTK and LTK

human_ptk2	343 LIDGYCRLVNGTSQSFIIRPQKEGERALPSIPKLANSEKQGMRTHA	388
human_LTK	439 LLMVCGVLILVKQKKWQGLQEMRLPS-PELELSKLRTSA	476
human_ptk2	389 VSVSETDDYAEI-IDEEDTYTMPSTRDYEIQRERIELGRCIGEGQFGDVH	437
human_LTK	:: .:: ::: ::. . .: . : : 477 IRTAPNPYYCQVGLGPAQSWPLPPGVT-EVSPANVTLLRALGHGAFGEVY	525
human_ptk2	438 QGIYMSPENPALAVAIKTCKNCTSDSVREKFLQEALTMRQFDHPHIVK	485
human_LTK	: .::: . . :::: . :: 526 EGLVIGLPGDSSPLQVAIKTLPELCSPQDELDFLMEALIISKFRHQNIVR	575
human_ptk2	486 LIGV-ITENPVWIIMELCTLGELRSFLQVRKYSLDLASLILYAY	528
human_LTK	:: : : :: ::: :: . : . : :	625
human_ptk2	529 QLSTALAYLESKRFVHRDIAARNVLVSSNDCVKLGDFGLSRYMEDST	575
human_LTK	.:: :	675
human_ptk2	576 YY-KASKGKLPIKUMAPESINFRRFTSASDVWMFGVCMWEILMHGVKPFQ	624
human_LTK	:: : . : .: . .: .: :. 676 YYRRGDRALLPVKWMPPEAFLEGIFTSKTDSWSFGVLLWEIFSLGYMPYP	725
human_ptk2	625 GVKMNDVIGRIENGERLPMPPNCPPTLYSLMTKCWAYDPSRRPRFTE	671
human LTK	.: : . : . .: : : : .: .	775

Conclusions

Use global alignment when the two sequences share the same overall sequence arrangement.

Use local alignment to detect <u>regions</u> of similarity.

How alignments are computed

Pairwise alignment

AAGCTGAATTCGAA AGGCTCATTTCTGA

One possible alignment:

AAGCTGAATT-C-GAA AGGCT-CATTTCTGA- AAGCTGAATT-C-GAA AGGCT-CATTTCTGA-

This alignment includes:

2 mismatches 4 indels (gap) 10 perfect matches

Choosing an alignment for a pair of sequences

Many different alignments are possible for 2 sequences:

AAGCTGAATTCGAA AGGCTCATTTCTGA

A-AGCTGAATTC--GAA AG-GCTCA-TTTCTGA- AAGCTGAATT-C-GAA AGGCT-CATTTCTGA-

Which alignment is better?

Scoring system (naïve)

Perfect match: +1

Indel (gap): -1

Mismatch: -2

AAGCTGAATT-C-GAA AGGCT-CATTTCTGA- A-AGCTGAATTC--GAA AG-GCTCA-TTTCTGA-

Score: =
$$(+1)x10 + (-2)x2 + (-1)x4 = 2$$
 Score: = $(+1)x9 + (-2)x2 + (-1)x6 = -1$

Higher score → Better alignment

Alignment scoring - scoring of sequence similarity:

Assumes independence between positions: each position is considered separately

Scores each position:

- Positive if identical (match)
- Negative if different (mismatch or gap)

Total score = sum of position scores Can be positive or negative

Scoring systems

Scoring system

- In the example above, the choice of +1 for match,-2 for mismatch, and -1 for gap is quite arbitrary
- Different scoring systems → different alignments
- We want a good scoring system...

Scoring matrix

Representing the scoring system as a table or matrix nxn (n is the number of letters the alphabet contains. n=4 for nucleotides, n=20 for amino acids)

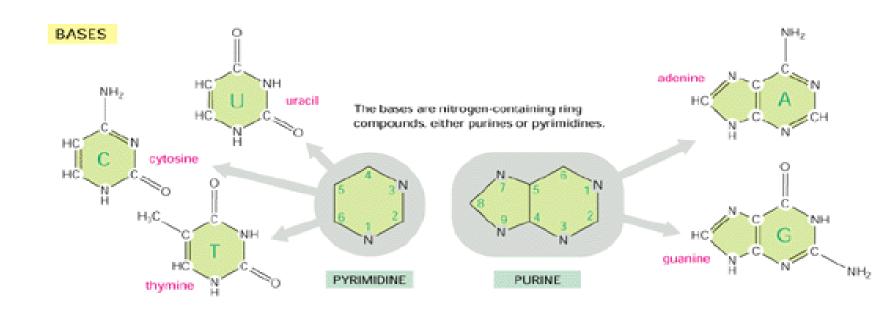
	А	G	С	Т
Α	2			
G	-6	2		
С	-6	-6	2	
Т	-6	-6	-6	2

symmetric

DNA scoring matrices

Can take into account biological phenomena such as:

Transition-transversion



Thank you for your attention!

Questions?