

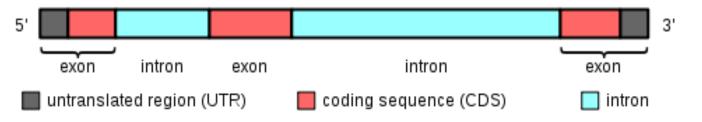
# Dynamic Programming 2: Gene Prediction

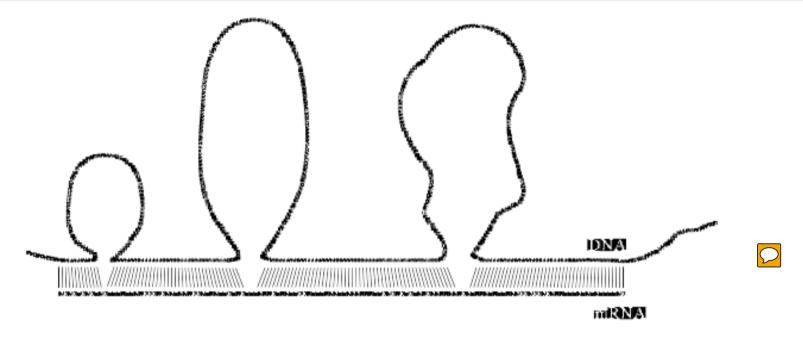
**Bioinformatics Programming - 2016** 

Computer Engineering, Chiang Mai University

- The first steps in understanding the genome of a species once it has been sequenced aka. Gene finding
- The process of identifying the regions of genomic DNA that encode genes [wikipedia]
  - mRNA genes
  - Protein coding genes
  - Regulatory regions
- A high degree of similarity to a known mRNA or protein product is strong evidence that a region of a target genome is a protein-coding gene

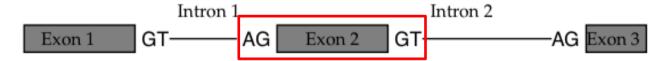
- Sydney Brenner and Francis Crick showed that every triplet of nucleotides (codon) in gene codes for one amino acid
  - Deleting three consecutive nucleotides results in minor change in the protein
- Biologists believed that a protein was encoded by a long string of contiguous triplets
  - Many organisms contain large amount of "junk DNA" that does not code for proteins at all – introns
  - These introns break organism genome into pieces of coding gene exons





- The jump between different parts of split genes are inconsistent from species to species
- Number of exons may be different
  - While the genes are related (between species)
  - An exon in human genome may be broken into two in the mouse genome, or vice versa

- Human genes, exons, consist of only 3% of human genome
- Prokaryotic organisms do not have broken genes
  - Gene prediction algorithms tend to be simpler than those for eukaryotes
- Two approaches
  - Statistical approach looks for features that appear frequently in gene: splicing signals (exon-intron junction)



■ Similarity-based approach – a newly sequenced gene has a good chance of being related to one that is already know

- We cannot simply look for similar sequence in one organism's genome based on the genes known in another:
  - Exon sequence and exon structure of the related gene in different species are different
- The commonality between related genes in both organisms is that they produce similar proteins
  - Suppose we know a human protein,
  - We want to discover the exon structure of the related gene in the genome that produce similar human protein

- The simplest way to detect potential coding region is to look at open reading frames (ORFs)
  - The subsegments start with start codon and end with stop codon
- Start codon
  - The first codon of a mRNA that signals the a start of translation
  - Almost always codes for methionine (Met) AUG (or ATG in DNA)
- Stop codon
  - Termination codon
  - A triplet within mRNA that signals a termination of translation
  - In RNA UAG, UAA, UGA (TAG, TAA, TGA in DNA)

- Example: three reading frames
- 1. ATG CAA TGG GGA AAT GTT ACC AGG TCC GAA CTT ATT GAG GTA AGA CAG ATT TAA
- 2. A TGC AAT GGG GAA ATG TTA CCA GGT CCG AAC TTA TTG AGG TAA GAC AGA TTT AA
- 3. AT GCA <mark>ATG</mark> GGG AAA TGT TAC CAG GTC CGA ACT TAT <mark>TGA</mark> GGT AAG ACA GAT TTA A
- DNA has two anti-parallel strands, an additional three reading frames arise, giving possible six frame translations

- Long ORFs are often used to initially identify candidates in DNA sequence
  - Longer than some threshold length



- May fail to detect short genes or genes with short exons
- The presence of an ORF does not mean that the region is ever translated
- Many statistical algorithm rely on statistical features in protein-coding regions
  - Frequency of occurrence 64 codon usage array

☐ The codon usage array in **E.COLI** genes

	U				<u> </u>				A				G				
	GUG	Val(♥)	2.4	0.34	GCG	Ala (A)	3.2	0.34	GAG	Glu(E)	1.9	0.30	GGG	Gly (G)	0.9	0.13	G
	GUA	Val(♥)	1.2	0.17	GCA	Ala (A)	2.1	0.22	GAA	Glu (E)	4.4	0.70	GGA	Gly (G)	0.7	0.09	A
	GUC	Val(♥)	1.4	0.20	GCC	Ala (A)	2.3	0.25	GAC	Asp (D)	2.3	0.41	GGC	Gly (G)	3.0	0.40	Ċ
G	GUU	Val(♥)	2.0	0.29	GCU	Ala (A)	1.8	0.19	GAU	Asp (D)	3.3	0.59	GGU	Gly (G)	2.8	0.38	U
	AUG	Met (M)	2.6	1.00	ACG	Thr (T)	1.3	0.23	AAG	Lys (K)	1.2	0.24	AGG	Aig (R)	0.2	0.03	G
	AUA	Ile (I)	0.4	0.07	ACA	Thr (T)	0.1	0.30	AAA	Lys(K)	3.8	0.76	AGA	Arg (R)	0.2	0.04	A
	AUC	Ile (I)	2.7	0.46	ACC	Thr (T)	2.4	0.43	AAC	Asn (N)	2.6	0.61	AGC	Ser (8)	1.5	0.27	C
A	AUU	Ile (I)	2.7	0.47	ACU	Thr (T)	1.2	0.21	AAU	Asn (N)	1.6	0.39	AGU	Ser (8)	0.7	0.13	U
	CUG	Leu (L)	5.2	0.55	CCG	Pro(P)	2.4	0.55	CAG	Gln(Q)	2.9	0.69	CGG	Aig (R)	0.5	0.08	G
	CUA	Leu (L)	0.3	0.03	CCA	P10 (P)	8.0	0.20	CAA	Gln(Q)	1.3	0.31	CGA	Aig (R)	0.3	0.05	A
	CUC	Leu (L)	0.9	0.10	ccc	Pro(P)	0.4	0.10	CAC	His (H)	1.1	0.48	CGC	Aig (R)	2.2	0.37	C
C	CUU	Leu (L)	1.0	0.10	CCU	P10 (P)	0.7	0.16	CAU	His(H)	1.2	0.52	CGU	Aig (R)	2.4	0.42	U
	UUG	Leu (L)	1.1	0.11	UCG	Ser (8)	0.8	0.13	UAG	STOP	0.03	0.09	UGG	Trp (♥)	1.4	1.00	G
	UUA	Leu (L)	1.0	0.11	UCA	Ser (8)	0.7	0.12	UAA	STOP	0.2	0.62	UGA	STOP	0.1	0.30	A
	UUC	Phe (F)	1.8	0.49	UCC	Ser (8)	1.0	0.17	UAC	Tyı (Y)	1.4	0.47	UGC	Cys(C)	0.6	0.57	C
U	UUU	Phe (F)	1.9	0.51	UCU	Ser (8)	1.1	0.19	UAU	Tyı (Y)	1.6	0.53	UGU	Cys (C)	0.4	0.43	U
		ac id <sup>2</sup>				ac id				ac id				acid			
	Codon	Amino	983	Ratio <sup>4</sup>	Codon	Amino	98	Ratio	Codon	Amino	98	Ratio	Codon	Amino	98	Ratio	l

- The codon usage array
  - The arrays for coding regions and for non-coding regions are different enabling one to use them for gene prediction
- In human, CGC and AGG code for the same amino acid (Arg) but have very different frequencies
  - GCG is 12x more likely to be used in genes than AGG
  - ORF that prefers CGC over AGG while coding for Arg is likely candidate gene

☐ The codon usage in Homo sapiens

П	Ū		C		A		G	
Н				1.0		F0		4 =
U	UUU Phe	57	UCU Ser	16	UAU Tyr	58	UGU Cys	45
	UUC Phe	43	UCC Ser	15	UAC Tyr	42	UGC Cys	55
	<b>UUA</b> Leu	13	UCA Ser	13	UAA Stp	62	UGA Stp	30
	<b>UUG</b> Leu	13	UCG Ser	15	<b>UAG</b> Stp	8	UGG Trp	100
С	CUU Leu	11	CCU Pro	17	CAU His	57	CGU Arg	37
	CUC Leu	10	CCC Pro	17	CAC His	43	CGC Arg	38
	<b>CUA</b> Leu	4	CCA Pro	20	CAA Gln	45	CGA Arg	7
	CUG Leu	49	CCG Pro	51	CAG Gln	66	CGG Arg	10
П	AUU Ile	50	ACU Thr	18	AAU Asn	46	AGU Ser	15
	AUC Ile	41	ACC Thr	42	AAC Asn	54	AGC Ser	26
Α	<b>AUA</b> Ile	9	ACA Thr	15	AAA Lys	75	AGA Arg	5
	<b>AUG</b> Met	100	ACG Thr	26	AAG Lys	25	AGG Arg	3
П	GUU Val	27	GCU Ala	17	GAU Asp	63	GGU Gly	34
	GUC Val	21	GCC Ala	27	GAC Asp	37	GGC Gly	39
5	<b>GUA</b> Val	16	GCA Ala	22	GAA Glu	68	<b>GGA</b> Gly	12
	GUG Val	36	GCG Ala	34	GAG Glu	32	GGG Gly	15

□ The codon usage array in **E.COLI** genes



	Codon	Amino	<sub>98</sub> 3	Ratio <sup>4</sup>	Codon	Amino	98	Ratio	Codon	Amino	%	Ratio	Codon	Amino	98	Ratio	$\Box$
		acid <sup>2</sup>				ac id				ac id				acid			
U	UUU	Phe (F)	1.9	0.51	UCU	Ser (8)	1.1	0.19	UAU	Tyr (Y)	1.6	0.53	UGU	Cys (C)	0.4	0.43	U
	uuc	Phe (F)	1.8	0.49	UCC	Ser (8)	1.0	0.17	UAC	Tyr (Y)	1.4	0.47	UGC	Cys(C)	0.6	0.57	C
	UUA	Leu (L)	1.0	0.11	UCA	Ser (8)	0.7	0.12	UAA	втор	0.2	0.62	UGA	STOP	0.1	0.30	Α
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		Ü				C				A				G			

- The likelihood ratio approach
  - Compute conditional probabilities of the DNA sequence in a window, under the hypotheses:
    - The window contains a coding sequence
    - The window contains a noncoding sequence
  - Slide the window along the DNA sequence and calculate the likelihood
    - Genes are often showed as peaks in the likelihood ratio plot

- These approaches are successful in prokaryotes, but using them with eukaryotes is complicated by exon-intron structure
  - Average length of exon in vertebrates 130 nucleotides
  - 130 nucleotides is too short to produce reliable peaks because they are not different enough from random variations
- Many researchers have used a more biologically oriented approach to recognize the splicing signals at the exon-intron junctions
  - Profiles for splice sites are weak and thereby limited success
  - Replaced by hidden Markov model (HMM) approaches

- Uses previously sequenced genes, G, and their protein products as a template for the recognition of unknown target genes, T
- Combinatorial puzzle:
  - Given a known target protein and a genomic sequence
  - Find a set of substrings (candidate exons) whose concatenation (splicing) best fits the target

- Naive Brute Force The spliced alignment problem
  - Find all local similarities between the genomic sequence, G, and the target protein sequence, T
  - $\blacksquare$  Each substring from G that exhibits sufficient similarity to T could be considered a putative exon (possible exon)
    - a putative may not be flanked by AG and GT dinucleotide
  - The resulting set may contain overlapping substrings
  - Choose the best subset of nonoverlapping substrings as a putative exon structure
    - Exon in real genes do not overlap

- Modeling a putative exon
  - Weighted interval (l, r, w)
    - *l*: left-hand position
    - ightharpoonup r: right-hand position
    - $\square$  w: weight, reflects the likelihood that this interval is an exon
  - Chain a set of nonoverlapping weighted intervals
  - Total weight of a chain
    - The sum of the weights of the intervals in the chain
  - Maximum chain
    - A chain with maximum total weight among all possible chains

#### Exon Chaining Problem

#### **Exon Chaining Problem:**

Given a set of putative exons, find a maximum set of nonoverlapping putative exons.

**Input:** A set of weighted intervals (putative exons).

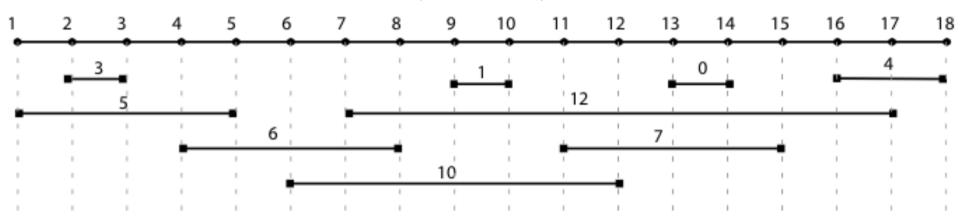
Output: A maximum chain of intervals from this set.

- Problem of n intervals can be solved by dynamic programming in a graph G on 2n vertices: for left and right positions
- Assuming that the set of vertices are sorted into increasing order

$$(v_1, v_2, ..., v_{2n})$$

■ Exon Chaining Problem

Sorted vertex:  $(v_1, v_2, ... v_{2n})$ 



#### ■ Exon Chaining Problem

- There are (3n-1) edges in the graph:
  - $\square$  An edge for each interval, between  $l_i$  and  $r_i$ , with weight  $w_i$
  - $\square$  (2n-1) edges of weight 0 which connect adjacent vertices
- $\square$   $S_i$  the length of the longest path in the graph ending with  $v_i$
- $\square$   $S_{2n}$  the solution to the problem

#### ■ EXONCHAINING Algorithm

```
EXONCHAINING(G, n)

1 for i \leftarrow 1 to 2n

2 s_i \leftarrow 0

3 for i \leftarrow 1 to 2n

4 if vertex v_i in G corresponds to the right end of an interval I

5 j \leftarrow index of vertex for left end of the interval I

6 w \leftarrow weight of the interval I

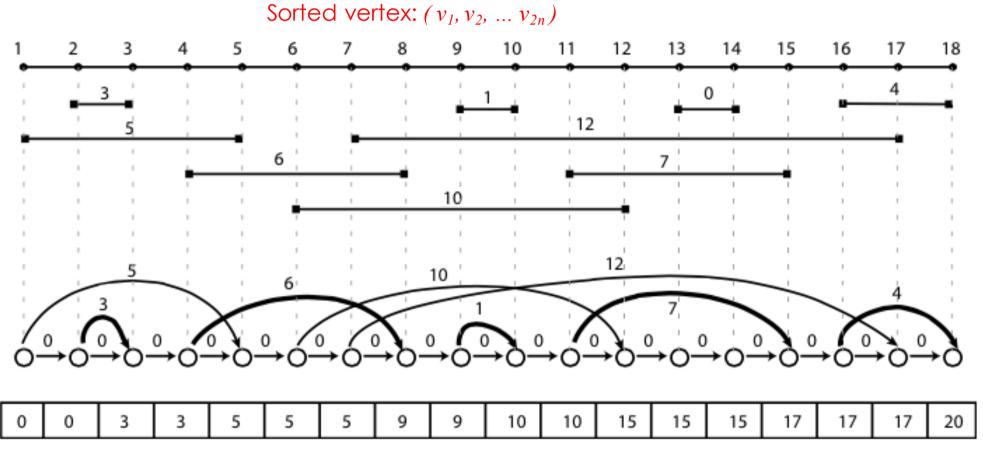
7 s_i \leftarrow \max\{s_j + w, s_{i-1}\}

8 else

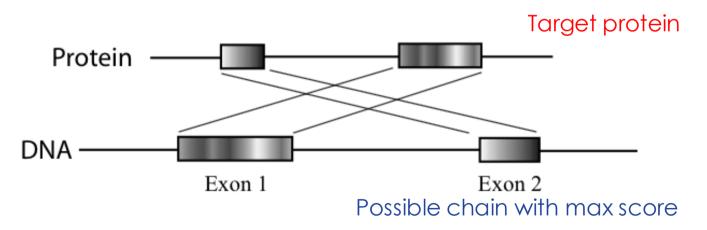
9 s_i \leftarrow s_{i-1}

10 return s_{2n}
```

■ Exon Chaining Problem



- Exon Chaining Problem
  - Disadvantages
    - The endpoints of putative exons are not well defined
    - Optimal chain of intervals may not correspond to any valid alignment



- In 1996, Mikhail Gelfand and colleagues proposed the spliced alignment approach to find genes in eukaryotes
  - Given a genomic sequence and a set of candidate exons
  - Explore all possible exon assemblies and find a chain of exons which best fits a related target protein
- A set of candidate exons block
  - All putative exons between potential AG and GT, or
  - All substrings similar to target protein (local similarities)

- Next step is to filter the set of candidate exons very gentle
  - This left a set of candidate exons that may contains many false exons, but definitely contains all the true ones
- Given the set of (filtered) candidate exons (aka blocks) and a target protein sequence
  - Explore all possible chains (assemblies)
  - Find the assembly with the highest similarity score to the target

- Spliced Alignment Problem
  - Genomic sequence:  $G = g_1...g_n$
  - Target sequence:  $T = t_1 ... t_m$
  - $\blacksquare$  Chain  $\Gamma$ : a sequence of nonoverlapping blocks
  - $\blacksquare$  String  $\Gamma^*$ : a string formed by the chain  $\Gamma$ 
    - We are looking for a string with highest similarity to the target sequence (global alignment),  $s(\Gamma^*, T)$

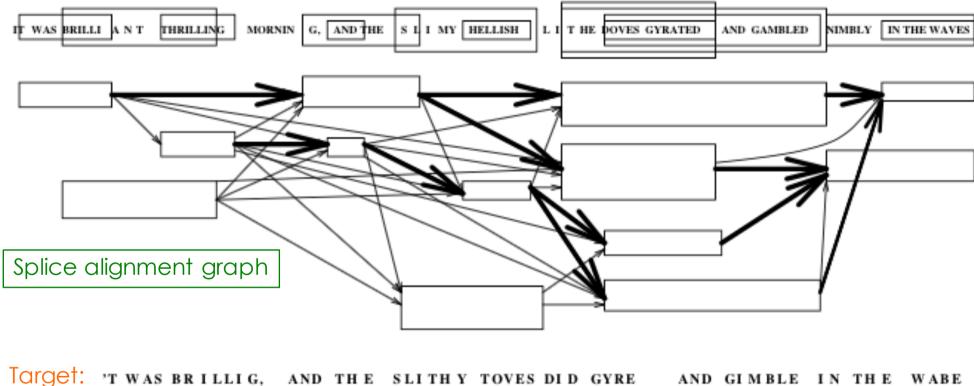
#### Spliced Alignment Problem

#### Spliced Alignment Problem:

Find a chain of candidate exons in a genomic sequence that best fits a target sequence.

**Input:** Genomic sequence G, target sequence T, and a set of candidate exons (blocks)  $\mathcal{B}$ .

**Output:** A chain of candidate exons  $\Gamma$  such that the global alignment score  $s(\Gamma^*, T)$  is maximum among all chains of candidate exons from  $\mathcal{B}$ .



T WAS BRILLIG, SL THE DOVES GYRATED AND GAMBLED IN THE AND THE T WAS BRILLIG, AND THE SL THE DOVES GYRATED NIMBLY IN THE WAVE HRILLING GYRATED AND GAMBLED IN THE AND HEL LISH DOVES GYRATED HR I LLI NG AND HEL LISH DOVES NIMBLY IN THE WAVE

4 different block assemblies – best fit to the target is the first one

- Spliced Alignment Problem
  - Similar to the problem of finding path in DAG
  - Vertices: blocks (candidate exons)
  - Edges: edges connect nonoverlapping blocks
  - Every path gives out a string obtained by concatenation of labels of its vertices
  - Weight of a path the score of the optimal alignment between the concatenated blocks of a path and the target sequence
    - Not defined weights for individual edges

- lacksquare Similarity score between *i-prefix* of the blocks and *j-prefix* of the target sequence, T
  - $\blacksquare B = g_{left} \dots g_i \dots g_{right}$  (candidate exon containing position i)

  - $\blacksquare$  End(B) = right (the rightmost index of B)
- □ If the chain  $\Gamma = (B1, B2, ..., B)$

$$\Gamma^*(i) = B_1 \circ B_2 \circ \cdots \circ B(i)$$

The score of the optimal spliced alignment between i-prefix of G and the j-prefix of T

$$S(i, j, B) = \max_{\text{all chains } \Gamma \text{ ending in } B} s(\Gamma^*(i), T(j)).$$

Assuming that this alignment ends in block B

 $\blacksquare$  If *i* is NOT the starting vertex of block *B*:

$$S(i, j, B) = \max \begin{cases} S(i - 1, j, B) - \sigma \\ S(i, j - 1, B) - \sigma \\ S(i - 1, j - 1, B) + \delta(g_i, t_j) \end{cases}$$

 $\square$  If *i* is the starting vertex of block *B*:

$$S(i, j, B) = \max \begin{cases} S(i, j - 1, B) - \sigma \\ \max_{\text{all blocks } B' \text{ preceding } B} S(end(B'), j - 1, B') + \delta(g_i, t_j), \\ \max_{\text{all blocks } B' \text{ preceding } B} S(end(B'), j, B') - \sigma, \end{cases}$$

lacktriangle After calculate the table S(i, j, B), the score of the optimal spliced alignment is

$$\max_{B} S(end(B), m, B),$$

■ We can reduce the number of edges in the graph by making a transformation

