# Introduction to Bioinformatics and Computational Biology

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## Contents

1 Course information		urse information	11
	1.1	Contributors	11
2	Inti	roduction	13
	2.1	Brief history of bioinformatics	14
	2.2	Should I take this course?	14
	2.3	Course information	14
	2.4	Lab 1	14
3	Hig	h throughput sequencing	15
	3.1	Three generations of sequencing technologies	15
	3.2	FASTQ and FASTQC	15
	3.3	Early sequence alignment (1 with 1) $\dots \dots \dots \dots$	15
	3.4	Sequence search algorihtms (1 with many)	16
	3.5	Borrow-Wheeler Aligner (many with many)	16
	3.6	Alignment output	16
4	RN	A-seq Quantification	17
	4.1	Introduction to RNA-seq experiment	17
	4.2	RNA quality control and experimental design	17
	4.3	Alignment	17
	4.4	RNA-seq QC	17
	4.5	RNA-seq expression index	17
	4 6	RSEM and Salmon	17

4		CONTENTS

	4.7	RNA-seq read distribution	17
	4.8	Lab 2	17
5	Diff	ferential expression, FDR, GO, and GSEA	19
	5.1	DESeq2 library normalization	20
	5.2	DESeq2 variance stabilization	20
	5.3	Multiple hypotheses testing and False Discovery Rate $\ \ \ldots \ \ldots$	20
	5.4	DESeq2 gene filtering	20
	5.5	Gene Ontology (GO analysis)	20
	5.6	Gene Set Enrichent Analysis (GSEA)	20
	5.7	DESeq2 tutorial	20
6	Clu	stering	21
	6.1	Heatmap and clustering quality	21
	6.2	Hierarchical cluster	21
	6.3	K means cluster	21
	6.4	Pick K and consensus clustering	21
	6.5	Batch effect removal	21
	6.6	Lab3	21
7	Din	nension Reduction	23
	7.1	Principal Component Analysis: idea behind PCA	23
	7.2	Principal Component Analysis: PCA applications	23
	7.3	Multidimensional Scaling (MDS)	23
	7.4	Linear discriminant Analysis (LDA)	24
8	Cla	ssification	<b>25</b>
	8.1	Introduction	25
	8.2	Supervised learning	26
	8.3	Cross validation	26
	8.4	Regression	26
	8.5	Regularization	26
	8.6	KNN	26

CONTENTS	F
T T INCT BOND IS	5
CONTENTS	9

	8.7	Decision trees	26
	8.8	Random forest	26
	8.9	SVM	26
0	Мол	dule I Review	97
9			27
	9.1	Gene Expression Module Summary	27
	9.2	Gene Expression Analysis Scenarios	27
10	Trai	nscription Factor Motif Finding	29
	10.1	Transcription regulation	29
	10.2	Motif representation	29
	10.3	EM	29
	10.4	Gibbs sampler	29
	10.5	Gibbs intuition	29
	10.6	Motif finding in eukaryotes	29
	10.7	Known motif database	29
	CI T		0.1
11		P-seq, Expression Integration	31
		ChIP-seq	31
		BWA and MACS	31
	11.3	ChIP-seq QC	31
	11.4	TF interactions (motif) $\dots \dots \dots \dots \dots \dots$	31
	11.5	TF target genes (expression integration)	31
12	Epig	genetics, DNA Methylation	33
	12.1	Epigenetics	33
	12.2	DNA methylation	33
		Promoter function	33
			-
	12.4	Gene body function	33
		Gene body function	33 33
	12.5	Enhancer function	33
	12.5 12.6		

6 CONTENTS

13	Hist	one Modifications, Chromatin Accessibility	<b>35</b>
	13.1	Nucleosome positions	35
	13.2	Histone modification	35
	13.3	Promoters (bivalent) $\dots \dots \dots \dots \dots \dots \dots$	35
	13.4	Genes (K36me3, new genes)	35
	13.5	Enhancers (K27ac)	35
	13.6	Super-enhancers	35
	13.7	DNase-seq	35
	13.8	ATAC-seq	35
14	Lon	g Range Chromatin Interactions	37
	14.1	Chromatin interactions	37
	14.2	HiC	37
	14.3	$\label{eq:hicken} \mbox{HiC contact map} \ \dots $	37
	14.4	HiC normalization	37
	14.5	Fractal globule	37
	14.6	Loops	37
	14.7	Domains	37
	14.8	Compartments	37
	14.9	Phase separation	37
15	Hide	den Markov Model	39
	15.1	Intro to HMM	39
	15.2	Pb1: Forward & backward procedure	39
	15.3	Pb2: Viterbi algorithm	39
	15.4	Pb3: Parameter estimation	39
	15.5	HMM application	39
16	Mod	dule II Review	41
	16.1	Module II Review	41
	16.2	Practive Questions	41

CONTENTS	7

17 SNP and GWAS		43
17.1 SNP and LD		43
17.2 Family-based vs case-control association studies		43
17.3 GWAS studies and catalog		43
17.4 GTEx and eQTL		43
18 GWAS and Epigenomics		<b>45</b>
18.1 Find tissue / cell type		45
18.2 Identify causal SNPs and genes		45
18.3 Predict phenotypes		45
19 Single-cell RNA-seq (1)		47
19.1 Intro to scRNA-seq		47
19.2 Smart, Droplet, microwell, SCI-based		47
19.3 QC		47
19.4 Normalization		47
19.5 Imputation		47
19.6 Dimension reduction		47
19.7 Clustering		47
19.8 t-SNE and UMAP		47
20 Single-cell RNA-seq (2)		49
20.1 Annotate scRNA-seq clusters		49
20.2 Differential expression		49
20.3 Batch effect removal		49
20.4 Pseudotime		49
20.5 Overload 10X		49
20.6 Other applications (CITE-seq, multi-seq, spatial transcriptom	ics)	49

8 CONTENTS

<b>21</b>	scATAC-seq	<b>51</b>
	21.1 Intro to scATAC-seq	51
	21.2 Sample and cell QC $\hdots$	51
	21.3 Dimension reduction, clustering & visualization	51
	21.4 Differential peaks and annotations	51
	21.5 Integration with scRNA-seq	51
22	Module III Review	53
	22.1 Module III Review	53
23	Cancer Genome Sequencing , Mutation analyses	<b>55</b>
	23.1 Intro to TCGA	55
	23.2 Cancer mutation characterization	55
	23.3 Cancer mutation patterns	55
	23.4 Tumor purity and clonality	55
	23.5 Interpret tumor mutations	55
	23.6 Find cancer genes	55
	23.7 Summary and future	55
24	Cancer Subtyping, Survival Analyses	57
	24.1 TCGA expression	57
	24.2 Tumor subtypes	57
	24.3 Survival analysis	57
	24.4 GoF Oncogenes and LoF TS $\ \ldots \ \ldots \ \ldots \ \ldots \ \ldots$	57
	24.5 Chromatin regulator mutations in cancer	57
	24.6 DNA methylation and CIMP	57
<b>25</b>	Targeted Therapy, Drug Resistance, Compound and Genetic Screens	59
	25.1 Hallmarks of cancer	60
	25.2 Chemo vs targeted therapy	60
	25.3 Drug resistance	60
	25.4 Synthetic lethality	60

9

	25.5	Precision medicine	60
	25.6	Tumor (bulk vs scRNA-seq), mice, cell lines	60
	25.7	Compound screens	60
	25.8	Genetic screens	60
	25.9	Tumor heterogeneity	60
26	Con	cer Immunotherapy (1)	61
20		Systemic immunotherapy	61
		Personalized immunotherapy	61
		HLA and neoantigens	61
	26.4	Tumor immune deconvolution	61
	26.5	T cell signaling (PD1/PDL1, etc)	61
	26.6	Other immune-cells (scRNA-seq) $\ \ldots \ \ldots \ \ldots \ \ldots$	61
27	Can	cer Immunotherapy (2)	63
	27.1	TCR analysis	63
	27.2	BCR analysis	63
		Microbiome	63
		Immunotherapy response biomarkers	63
	27.5	Targeted therapy as immune-modulators	63
	27.6	Epigenetic therapy as immune-modulators	63
<b>28</b>		SPR Screens	65
	28.1	CRISPR and KO	65
	28.2	CRISPRa and CRISPRi	65
	28.3	CRISPR design and outcome	65
	28.4	CRISPR screens & DepMap	65
	28.5	CRISPR screen analysis	65
	28.6	CRISPR screens in drug response	65
	28.7	CRISPR screens in immunology	65
	28.8	Enhancer CRISPR screen	65
	28.9	CRISPR screens + scRNA-seq	65

10	CONTENTS

29 Module IV Review and Course Review			
29.1 Module IV Review	67		
29.2 Course Review	67		

#### Course information

This is the course material for STAT115/215 BIO/BST282 at Harvard University.

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We thank many colleagues in the community, who helped Dr. Liu in prepare the STAT115/215 BIO/BST282 course over the years. Some of the lecture slides acknowledged their contributions, but these contributors are not individually acknowledged here.

#### Introduction

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- 2.1.1 Protein structure wave
- 2.1.2 Gene expression wave
- 2.1.3 Genome sequencing wave
- 2.1.4 Big data challenge from sequencing
- 2.2 Should I take this course?
- 2.2.1 Bioinformatics vs computational biology
- 2.2.2 Is this class for me?

#### 2.3 Course information

- 2.3.1 Logistics
- 2.3.2 X Shirley Liu lab introduction
- 2.4 Lab 1
- 2.4.1 Introduction
- 2.4.2 Introduction to R
- 2.4.3 Introduction to Bash
- 2.4.4 Getting started with Cannon

# High throughput sequencing

# 3.1 Three generations of sequencing technologies

First generation sequencing is Sanger sequencing. It is the technology that was used to obtain the first human genome sequence.

Second generation sequencing is also called next generation sequencing (NGS) and is the start of high throughput sequencing. It is what scientists use most often nowadays, and Illumina is the market leader. Most of the rest of this course will cover data analysis using second generation sequencing.

Third generation sequencing is single-molecule sequencing. There are many new technologies still under active development, although none has reached market penetration.

#### 3.2 FASTQ and FASTQC

NGS generates FASTQ files. FASTQC is an computational approach to evaluate the quality of your NGS data.

#### 3.3 Early sequence alignment (1 with 1)

In the early days (1970s), scientists were not worried about having to align too many sequences. They wanted to find the best alignment between two sequences. Many bioinformatics courses start with learning these, although it is not the main focus of our course. We included two videos in case you are interested.

The Needlemen-Wunsch algorithm is the earliest algorithm to find the alignment between two sequences and score their similarity.

When two sequences are long, and only a portion of them can align well with each other, the Smith-Waterman algorithm can find the best local sequence alignment. It is still considered the best alignment approach, although it is slow.

#### 3.4 Sequence search algorithms (1 with many)

With more and more sequences available in the public in the 1980s, scientists were interested in finding whether their newly sequenced string has been sequenced before in the public database. Therefore, the fast search algorithm BLAST was developed, using one sequence as the query to find similar sequences from a database.

#### 3.5 Borrow-Wheeler Aligner (many with many)

With NGS, scientists need much faster search (aka mapping) algorithms in order to align the millions of sequences to the reference genome. The current best algorithm is called Borrow-Wheeler Aligner or BWA.

In order to understand BWA, we first need to introduce Borrows-Wheeler transformation and LF mapping

The basic idea of Borrows-Wheeler alignment

#### 3.6 Alignment output

NGS raw data is in FASTQ. Alignment gives you SAM (alignment) or BAM (binary version of SAM) files which contain the sequence information in FASTQ and the mapping locations. BED file is the simpliest, although there is information loss.

## RNA-seq Quantification

- 4.1 Introduction to RNA-seq experiment
- 4.2 RNA quality control and experimental design
- 4.3 Alignment
- 4.4 RNA-seq QC
- 4.5 RNA-seq expression index
- 4.6 RSEM and Salmon
- 4.7 RNA-seq read distribution
- 4.8 Lab 2
- 4.8.1 STAR tutorial
- 4.8.2 RSeQC tutorial
- 4.8.3 RSEM/Salmon Tutorial

# Differential expression, FDR, GO, and GSEA

**DESeq2** is a popular and accurate computational algorithm to detect differential gene expression from RNA-seq data. It includes many elegant quantitative considerations, such as:

- Normalize the gene read counts by library size and composition
- Model gene read counts with negative binomial distribution
- Use hierarchical modeling to stabilize the gene variance
- Use Benjamini-Hochberg to calculate control for false discovery rate of calling differentially expressed genes
- Filter lowly expressed genes to reduce the number of hypotheses to be tested

- 5.1 DESeq2 library normalization
- 5.2 DESeq2 variance stabilization
- 5.3 Multiple hypotheses testing and False Discovery Rate
- 5.4 DESeq2 gene filtering
- 5.5 Gene Ontology (GO analysis)
- 5.6 Gene Set Enrichent Analysis (GSEA)
- 5.7 DESeq2 tutorial

## Clustering

- 6.1 Heatmap and clustering quality
- 6.2 Hierarchical cluster
- 6.3 K means cluster
- 6.4 Pick K and consensus clustering
- 6.5 Batch effect removal
- 6.6 Lab3
- 6.6.1 PCA tutorial
- 6.6.2 Clustering tutorial
- 6.6.3 Combat tutorial
- 6.6.4 DESeq2 Tutorial
- 6.6.5 DAVID/GSEA Tutorial

#### **Dimension Reduction**

RNA-seq samples have tens of thousands of genes, although many genes might not vary much between samples and many others have correlated gene expression. Dimension reduction techniques aim to reduce the dimension of representing each sample with tens of thousands of genes to much fewer demensions, e.g. 2 to 100.

# 7.1 Principal Component Analysis: idea behind PCA.

PCA / SVD automatically outputs PC1, PC2, PC3, etc, with earlier PCs capturing the highest level of variability in the original data. Each PC is a linear combination of raw gene expression, and is orthogonal to all other PCs.

# 7.2 Principal Component Analysis: PCA applications.

PCA is a widely used method to project samples with high dimensions (e.g. with gene expression data) onto two dimensions for better visualization. It is an intuitive way to identify sample clusters, and identify batch effect.

#### 7.3 Multidimensional Scaling (MDS)

MDS can use differential ways to calculate pair-wise distance, then use lower dimensions to satisfy the pair-wise distance. PCA is a special case of MDS.

#### 7.4 Linear discriminant Analysis (LDA)

LDA is not only a dimension reduction method, but also a supervised machine learning method.

#### Classification

#### 8.1 Introduction

Imagine you have RNA-seq of a collection of labeled normal lung and lung cancer tissues. Given a new sample of RNA-seq from the lung with unknown diagnosis, will you be able to predict based on the existing labeled samples and the expression data whether the new sample is normal or tumor? This is a sample classification problem, and it could be solved using **unsupervised** and **supervised** learning approaches.

Unsupervised learning is basically clustering or dimension reduction. You can use hierarchical clustering, MDS, or PCA. After clustering and projection the data to lower dimensions, you examine the labels of the known samples (hopefully they cluster into separate groups by the label). Then you can assign label to the unknown sample based on its distance to the known samples.

**Supervised learning** considers the labels with known samples and tries to identify features that can separate the samples by the label. Cross validation is conducted to evaluate the performance of different approaches and avoid over fitting.

StatQuest has done an amazing job with machine learning with a full playlist of well organized videos. While the full playlist is worth a full course, for the purpose of the course, we will just highlight a number of widely used approaches. They include logistic regression (this is considered statistical machine learning), K nearest neighbors, random forest, and support vector machine (these are considered computer science machine learning).

- 8.2 Supervised learning
- 8.3 Cross validation
- 8.4 Regression
- 8.5 Regularization
- 8.5.1 Ridge regression
- 8.5.2 LASSO regression
- 8.6 KNN
- 8.7 Decision trees
- 8.8 Random forest
- 8.9 SVM

## Module I Review

- 9.1 Gene Expression Module Summary
- 9.2 Gene Expression Analysis Scenarios

# Transcription Factor Motif Finding

- 10.1 Transcription regulation
- 10.2 Motif representation
- 10.3 EM
- 10.4 Gibbs sampler
- 10.5 Gibbs intuition
- 10.6 Motif finding in eukaryotes
- 10.7 Known motif database

# ChIP-seq, Expression Integration

- 11.1 ChIP-seq
- 11.2 BWA and MACS
- 11.3 ChIP-seq QC
- 11.4 TF interactions (motif)
- 11.5 TF target genes (expression integration)

# Epigenetics, DNA Methylation

- 12.1 Epigenetics
- 12.2 DNA methylation
- 12.3 Promoter function
- 12.4 Gene body function
- 12.5 Enhancer function
- 12.6 Repetitive region function
- 12.7 Early cancer detection

# Histone Modifications, Chromatin Accessibility

- 13.1 Nucleosome positions
- 13.2 Histone modification
- 13.3 Promoters (bivalent)
- 13.4 Genes (K36me3, new genes)
- 13.5 Enhancers (K27ac)
- 13.6 Super-enhancers
- 13.7 DNase-seq
- 13.8 ATAC-seq

 $36 CHAPTER\ 13.\ \ HISTONE\ MODIFICATIONS\ ,\ CHROMATIN\ ACCESSIBILITY$ 

# Long Range Chromatin Interactions

- 14.1 Chromatin interactions
- 14.2 HiC
- 14.3 HiC contact map
- 14.4 HiC normalization
- 14.5 Fractal globule
- **14.6** Loops
- 14.7 Domains
- 14.8 Compartments
- 14.9 Phase separation

## Hidden Markov Model

- 15.1 Intro to HMM
- 15.2 Pb1: Forward & backward procedure
- 15.3 Pb2: Viterbi algorithm
- 15.4 Pb3: Parameter estimation
- 15.5 HMM application

# Module II Review

- 16.1 Module II Review
- 16.2 Practive Questions

# SNP and GWAS

- 17.1 SNP and LD
- 17.2 Family-based vs case-control association studies
- 17.3 GWAS studies and catalog
- 17.4 GTEx and eQTL

# **GWAS** and Epigenomics

- 18.1 Find tissue / cell type
- 18.2 Identify causal SNPs and genes
- 18.3 Predict phenotypes

# Single-cell RNA-seq (1)

- 19.1 Intro to scRNA-seq
- 19.2 Smart, Droplet, microwell, SCI-based
- 19.3 QC
- 19.4 Normalization
- 19.5 Imputation
- 19.6 Dimension reduction
- 19.7 Clustering
- 19.8 t-SNE and UMAP

# Single-cell RNA-seq (2)

- 20.1 Annotate scRNA-seq clusters
- 20.2 Differential expression
- 20.3 Batch effect removal
- 20.4 Pseudotime
- 20.5 Overload 10X
- 20.6 Other applications (CITE-seq, multi-seq, spatial transcriptomics)

# scATAC-seq

- 21.1 Intro to scATAC-seq
- 21.2 Sample and cell QC
- 21.3 Dimension reduction, clustering & visualization
- 21.4 Differential peaks and annotations
- 21.5 Integration with scRNA-seq

# Module III Review

#### 22.1 Module III Review

# Cancer Genome Sequencing, Mutation analyses

- 23.1 Intro to TCGA
- 23.2 Cancer mutation characterization
- 23.3 Cancer mutation patterns
- 23.4 Tumor purity and clonality
- 23.5 Interpret tumor mutations
- 23.6 Find cancer genes
- 23.7 Summary and future

# Cancer Subtyping, Survival Analyses

- 24.1 TCGA expression
- 24.2 Tumor subtypes
- 24.3 Survival analysis
- 24.4 GoF Oncogenes and LoF TS
- 24.5 Chromatin regulator mutations in cancer
- 24.6 DNA methylation and CIMP

# Targeted Therapy, Drug Resistance, Compound and Genetic Screens

- 25.1 Hallmarks of cancer
- 25.2 Chemo vs targeted therapy
- 25.3 Drug resistance
- 25.4 Synthetic lethality
- 25.5 Precision medicine
- 25.7 Compound screens
- 25.8 Genetic screens
- 25.9 Tumor heterogeneity

# Cancer Immunotherapy (1)

- 26.1 Systemic immunotherapy
- 26.2 Personalized immunotherapy
- 26.3 HLA and neoantigens
- 26.4 Tumor immune deconvolution
- 26.5 T cell signaling (PD1/PDL1, etc)
- 26.6 Other immune-cells (scRNA-seq)

# Cancer Immunotherapy (2)

- 27.1 TCR analysis
- 27.2 BCR analysis
- 27.3 Microbiome
- 27.4 Immunotherapy response biomarkers
- 27.5 Targeted therapy as immune-modulators
- 27.6 Epigenetic therapy as immune-modulators

## **CRISPR Screens**

28.1	CRISPR	and KC
40.1	CUISEL	and NU

- 28.2 CRISPRa and CRISPRi
- 28.3 CRISPR design and outcome
- 28.4 CRISPR screens & DepMap
- 28.5 CRISPR screen analysis
- 28.6 CRISPR screens in drug response
- 28.7 CRISPR screens in immunology
- 28.8 Enhancer CRISPR screen
- 28.9 CRISPR screens + scRNA-seq

# Module IV Review and Course Review

- 29.1 Module IV Review
- 29.2 Course Review