

# Bioinformatics Algorithms

## COS-BIOL-530/630

### Lecture08

<b>Days &amp; Times</b>	<b>Room</b>	<b>Meeting Dates</b>
Tu 2:00PM - 3:50PM	Thomas Gosnell Hall (GOS)-2178	01/13/2025 - 04/28/2025
Th 2:00PM - 3:50PM	Thomas Gosnell Hall (GOS)-2178	01/13/2025 - 04/28/2025

Instructor:

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Office: Orange Hall 1311

# Algorithms and pattern matching

## - Lecture08-

### Announcements

#### Week 8

Lab07

Lecture08/Lab08

**Quiz6 (Lecture07-Gene ontologies) opens Friday, March 7<sup>th</sup>**

**Quiz7 (Lecture08-Algorithms and Motif analysis) opens Friday, March 14<sup>th</sup>**



Qualtrics  
Survey  
Extra credit!

# Algorithms and pattern matching

## - Lecture08-

Topics:

- Algorithms and complexity
- Algorithm design techniques
- Pattern matching search

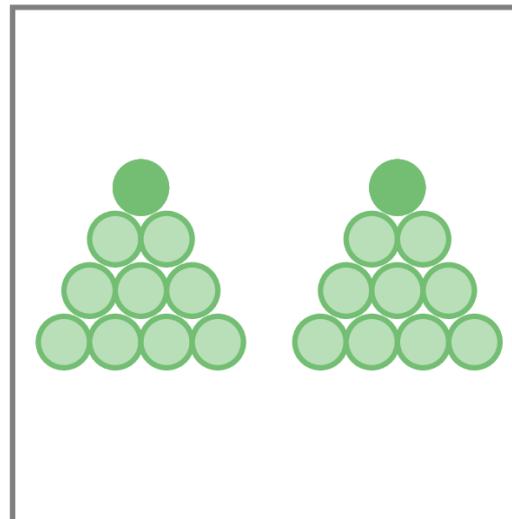
# Algorithm definition

- Wikipedia: In mathematics and computer science, an algorithm is a finite sequence of mathematically rigorous instructions, typically used to solve a class of specific problems or to perform a computation.
- Dictionary (Merriam-Webster): a step-by-step procedure for solving a problem or accomplishing some end.
- Algorithms can be designed to perform calculations, process data, or perform automated reasoning tasks.

# Algorithm definition

## Two Rocks Game

*There are two piles of ten rocks. In each turn, you and your opponent may either take one rock from a single pile, or one rock from both piles. Your opponent moves first and the player that takes the last rock wins the game. Design a winning strategy.*



Source :<https://cogniterra.org>

# Algorithm definition

## Two Rocks Game

- Since YOU know Bioinformatics Algorithms, you shouldn't have problems designing a winning strategy: recipe-style instructions are not a sufficiently expressive language for describing algorithms.
- Draw the following table filled with the symbols  $\uparrow$ ,  $\leftarrow$ ,  $\nwarrow$ , and  $*$ .
  - The entry in position  $(i, j)$  (i.e., the  $i^{\text{th}}$  row and the  $j^{\text{th}}$  column) describes the moves that you will make in the  $i + j$  game, with  $i$  and  $j$  rocks in piles A and B respectively.
  - $A \leftarrow$  indicates that she should take one stone from pile B.
  - $A \uparrow$  indicates that she should take one stone from pile A.
  - $A \nwarrow$  indicates that she should take one stone from each pile
  - And  $*$  indicates that you should not bother playing the game because you will definitely lose against an opponent who has a clue.
- This table, sounds familiar??

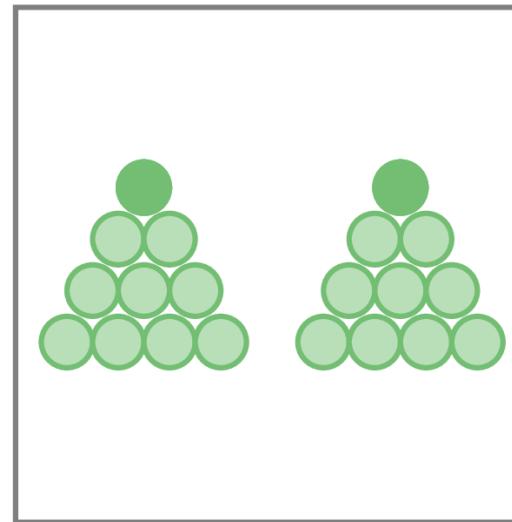
# Algorithm definition

## Two Rocks Game

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
0	*	↑	*	↑	*	↑	*	↑	*	↑	*
1	↑	↖	↑	↖	↑	↖	↑	↖	↑	↖	↑
2	*	↑	↖	↑	*	↑	*	↑	*	↑	*
3	↑	↖	↑	↖	↑	↖	↑	↖	↑	↖	↑
4	*	↑	↖	↑	*	↑	*	↑	*	↑	*
5	↑	↖	↑	↖	↑	↖	↑	↖	↑	↖	↑
6	*	↑	↖	↑	*	↑	*	↑	*	↑	*
7	↑	↖	↑	↖	↑	↖	↑	↖	↑	↖	↑
8	*	↑	*	↑	*	↑	*	↑	*	↑	*
9	↑	↖	↑	↖	↑	↖	↑	↖	↑	↖	↑
10	*	↑	*	↑	*	↑	*	↑	*	↑	*

# Algorithm definition

- The Rock game is in fact the ubiquitous sequence alignment problem in disguise.
- The computational idea used to solve both problems is the same.
- Now, you can try to play the game against the machine with our algorithm.



Play here :

<https://discrete-math-puzzles.github.io/puzzles/take-the-last-stone/index.html>

# Algorithm definition

There are specific requirements that an algorithm must abide by:

- Definiteness: Each step in the process is precisely stated.
- Effective Computability: Each step in the process can be carried out by a computer.
- Finiteness: The program will eventually successfully terminate.
- May have an *Input*.
- Must produce an *Output*.

# Some types of Algorithms

- Recursive algorithms
- Exhaustive search – Brut force
- Branch and Bound algorithms
- Greedy algorithms
- Dynamic programming
- Divide and Conquer algorithms
- Machine learning
- Randomized algorithms



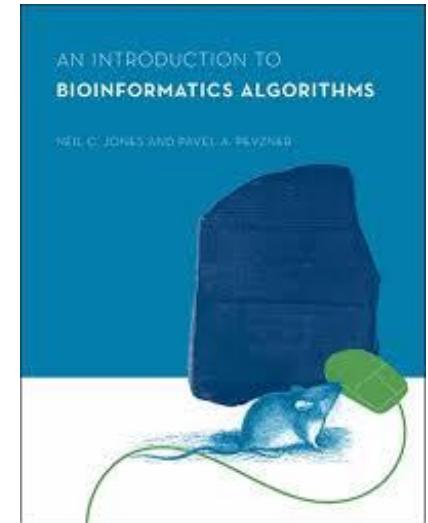
## CSCI-665 Foundations of Algorithms Schedule

Week	Topics
1	Introduction, asymptotic notation, analyzing running times
2	$O(n)$ and $O(n \log n)$ algorithms: Karatsuba, mergesort
3	Introduction to recurrences, Master Theorem
4	$\Omega(n \log n)$ lower bound on sorting, linear-time k-Select algorithm
5	Greedy vs (simple) dynamic programming algorithms
6	Greedy vs dynamic programming algorithms (simple and with an added variable): variants of coin changing, knapsack
7	Greedy vs dynamic programming algorithms (simple and with an added variable): sequence problems (longest increasing, longest common)
8	Greedy vs dynamic programming algorithms (subproblem defined by "from-to" indices): Huffman coding, matrix-chain multiplication
9	Graphs: traversals and their applications: connected components, topological sort, etc.
10	Graphs: minimum spanning trees: Kruskal, Prim, union-find data structure
11	Graphs: shortest paths: Dijkstra, Floyd-Warshall, Bellman-Ford
12	Graphs: network flow
13	NP-completeness
14	NP-completeness continued, introduction to linear programming
15	Approximation algorithms and heuristics
16	Review, other topics, e.g., advanced data structures, pattern matching, or randomized algorithms

# Some types of Algorithms

Subject	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Mapping DNA	○								
Sequencing DNA						○			
Comparing Sequences			○	○		○			
Predicting Genes				○					
Finding Signals	○	○						○	○
Identifying Proteins						○			
Repeat Analysis							○		
DNA Arrays						○			
Genome Rearrangements		○							
Molecular Evolution								○	

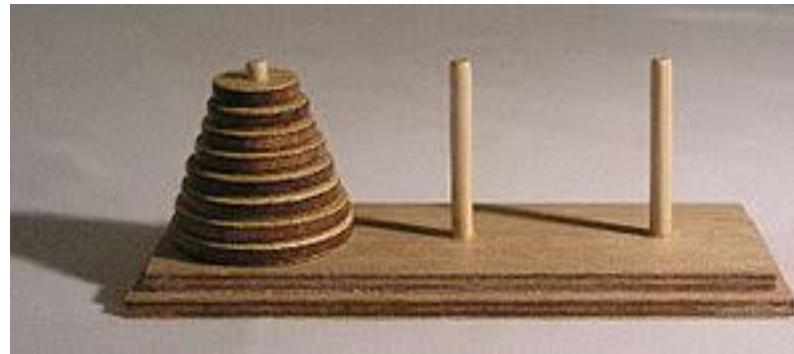
Exhaustive Search  
Greedy Algorithms  
Dynamic Programming  
Divide-and-Conquer Algorithms  
Graph Algorithms  
Combinatorial Algorithms  
Clustering and Trees  
Hidden Markov Models  
Randomized Algorithms



Source: *Introduction to bioinformatics algorithms*, Jones and Pevzner

# Recursive Algorithms

- Recursion is one of the most ubiquitous algorithmic concepts. Simply, an algorithm is recursive if it calls itself.
- Towers of Hanoi problem: The game is played by moving **one disk at a time** between pegs. You are **only allowed to place smaller disks on top of larger ones**, and any disk may go onto an empty peg. The puzzle is solved when all of the disks have been moved from peg 1 to peg 3.



# Recursive Algorithms

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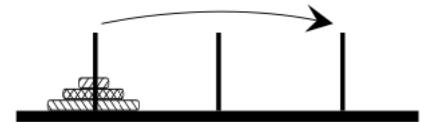
## Towers of Hanoi Problem:

*Output a list of moves that solves the Towers of Hanoi.*

**Input:** An integer  $n$ .

**Output:** A sequence of moves that will solve the  $n$ -disk Towers of Hanoi puzzle.

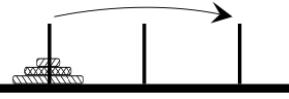
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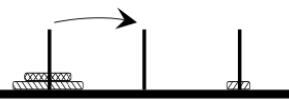
# Recursive Algorithms

Three-disk: Seven moves:

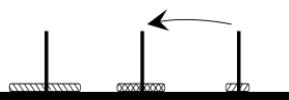
- Move disk from peg 1 to peg 3



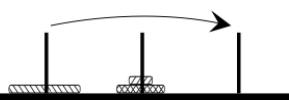
- Move disk from peg 1 to peg 2



- Move disk from peg 3 to peg 2



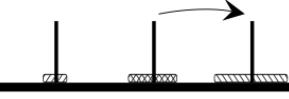
- Move disk from peg 1 to peg 3



- Move disk from peg 2 to peg 1



- Move disk from peg 2 to peg 3



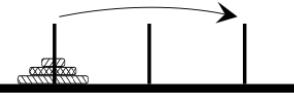
- Move disk from peg 1 to peg 3



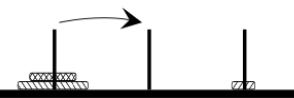
# Recursive Algorithms

## Three-disk: Seven moves:

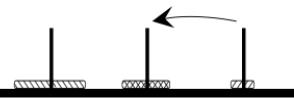
- Move disk from peg 1 to peg 3



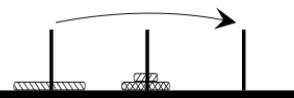
- Move disk from peg 1 to peg 2



- Move disk from peg 3 to peg 2



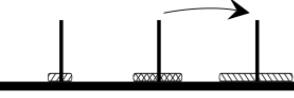
- Move disk from peg 1 to peg 3



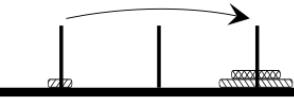
- Move disk from peg 2 to peg 1



- Move disk from peg 2 to peg 3



- Move disk from peg 1 to peg 3



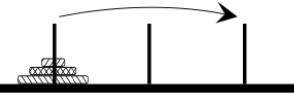
## Four-disk puzzle?

- Move the top three to an empty peg (7 moves)
- Then, move the larger disk (one move)
- Again, move the three disk from their temporary peg to rest o top of the larger disk (another 7 moves)
- Total:  $7+1+7=15$  moves

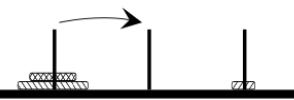
# Recursive Algorithms

## Seven moves:

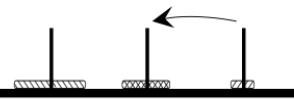
- Move disk from peg 1 to peg 3



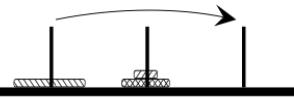
- Move disk from peg 1 to peg 2



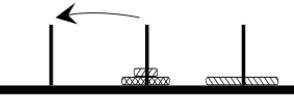
- Move disk from peg 3 to peg 2



- Move disk from peg 1 to peg 3



- Move disk from peg 2 to peg 1



- Move disk from peg 2 to peg 3



- Move disk from peg 1 to peg 3



## Stack of size n?

- First, move a stack of size  $n - 1$  from left to middle
- Then, from the middle to the right peg, once you have moved the  $n^{\text{th}}$  disk to the right peg
- To move a stack of size  $n - 1$  from the middle to the right, you first need to move a stack of size  $n - 2$  from the middle to the left
- Then, move the  $(n - 1)$  disk to the right
- And move the stack of  $n - 2$  from the left to the right peg
- And so on....

# Recursive Algorithms

- At first glance, the Towers of Hanoi problem looks difficult.
- However, the following recursive algorithm solves the Towers of Hanoi problem with  $n$  disks.
- The solution can be expressed in 8 lines of pseudocode

```
HANOITOWERS( $n$ , fromPeg, toPeg)
1 if  $n = 1$ 
2   output "Move disk from peg fromPeg to peg toPeg"
3   return
4  $unusedPeg \leftarrow 6 - fromPeg - toPeg$ 
5 HANOITOWERS( $n - 1$ , fromPeg, unusedPeg)
6 output "Move disk from peg fromPeg to peg toPeg"
7 HANOITOWERS( $n - 1$ , unusedPeg, toPeg)
8 return
```

The variables (*fromPeg*, *toPeg*, *unusedPeg*) refer to the three different pegs.

So HANOITOWERS( $n$ , 1, 3) moves  $n$  disks from the first peg to the third peg

To solve 100-disk tower: it require more moves than atoms in the universe.

# Recursive Algorithms

- Recursive algorithms can often be written to use iterative loops instead, and vice versa.
- Recursion is often the most natural way to solve many computational problems.
- However, recursion can often lead to very inefficient algorithms.
- Let's see this with the example of the **Fibonacci sequence**:



- Leonardo Pisano Fibonacci (Italy, XIII century) tried to compute the number of offspring of a pair of rabbits over the course of a year.
- Other examples:



Nautilus shell



Sunflower seeds

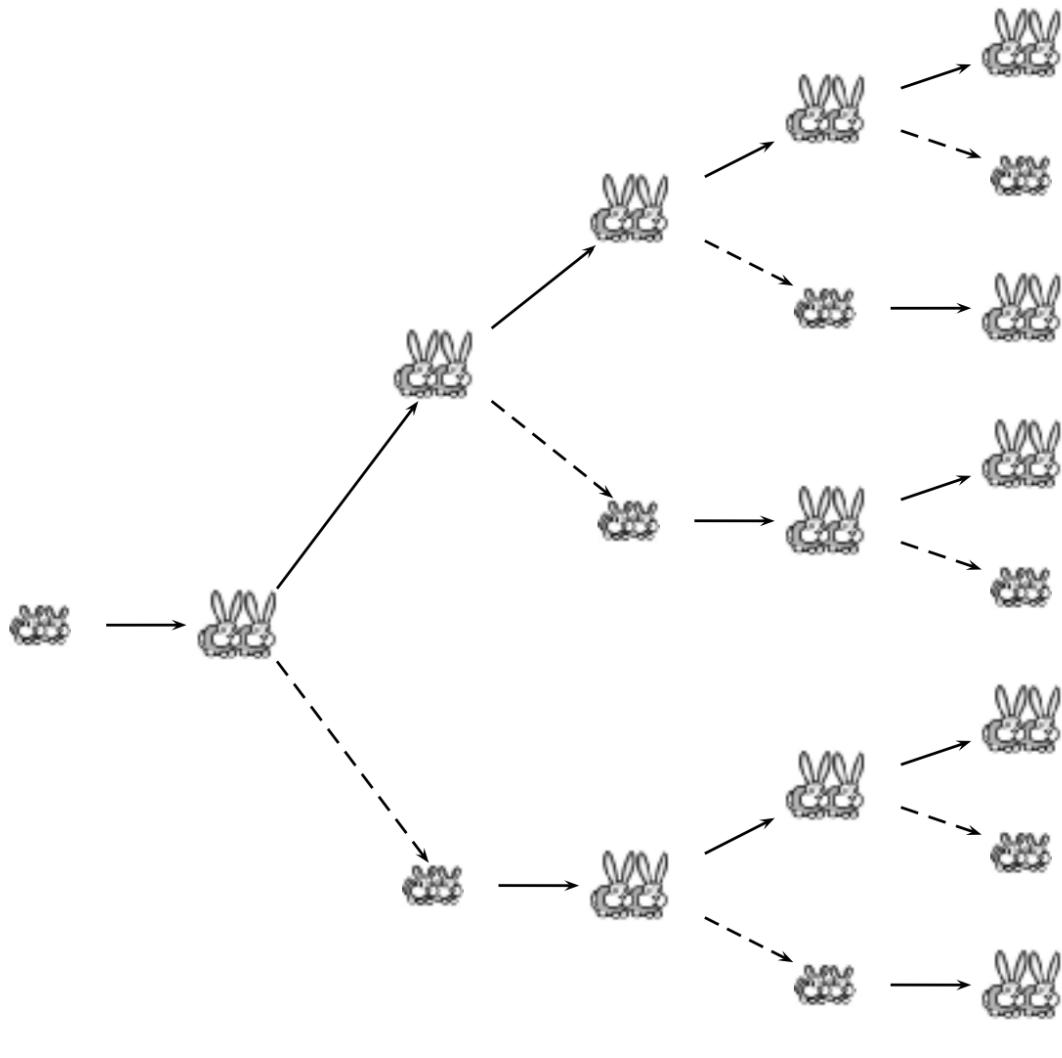


Storm systems

# Recursive Algorithms

- Recursive algorithms can often be written to use iterative loops instead, and vice versa.
- Recursion is often the most natural way to solve many computational problems.
- However, recursion can often lead to very inefficient algorithms.
- Let's see this with the example of the Fibonacci sequence:
  - Leonardo Pisano Fibonacci (Italy, XIII century) tried to compute the number of offspring of a pair of rabbits over the course of a year.
  - One pair of adults could create a new pair of rabbits in the same time it takes baby rabbits to grow into adults.
  - $F_n$  represents the number of rabbits in period n (adults plus babies)
  - $F_0 = 0$  AND  $F_1 = 1$
  - $F_n = F_{(n-1)} + F_{(n-2)}$
  - 0, 1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 13, 21, 34, ...

# Fibonacci sequence



1 pair      1 pair      2 pairs      3 pairs      5 pairs      8 pairs

**Figure 2.4** Fibonacci's model of rabbit expansion. A dashed line from a pair of big rabbits to a pair of little rabbits means that the pair of adult rabbits had bunnies.

- The simplest recursive algorithm calculate  $F_n$  by calling itself to compute  $F_{(n-1)}$  and  $F_{(n-2)}$ .
- This approach results in a large amount of duplicated effort: in calculating  $F_{(n-1)}$  we find the value of  $F_{(n-2)}$ .
- But we calculate it again from scratch in order to determine  $F_n$ .
- It is a waste of computing resources.

Source: *Introduction to bioinformatics algorithms*, Jones and Pevzner

# Fibonacci sequence

```
RECURSIVEFIBONACCI( $n$ )
```

```
1 if  $n = 1$  or  $n = 2$ 
2     return 1
3 else
4      $a \leftarrow \text{RECURSIVEFIBONACCI}(n - 1)$ 
5      $b \leftarrow \text{RECURSIVEFIBONACCI}(n - 2)$ 
6     return  $a + b$ 
```

```
FIBONACCI( $n$ )
```

```
1  $F_1 \leftarrow 1$ 
2  $F_2 \leftarrow 1$ 
3 for  $i \leftarrow 3$  to  $n$ 
4      $F_i \leftarrow F_{i-1} + F_{i-2}$ 
5 return  $F_n$ 
```

- However, by using an array to save previously computed Fibonacci numbers, we can calculate the  $n^{\text{th}}$  Fibonacci number without repeating work.
- RECURSIVEFIBONACCI is an exponential-time algorithm
- FIBONACCI is a linear-time algorithm
- The example shows that an iterative algorithm is superior to a recursive algorithm.
- They require different amounts of time to resolve the same problem.

# Algorithm efficiency

- When we develop or use an algorithm, we would like to know how its run time and memory requirements will scale with respect to data size.
- We need to know if a given algorithm can be completed (terminate) within a reasonable amount of time.
- Computer scientists use the **Big-O notation** to describe concisely the running time of an algorithm.
- It provides a standardized way to compare the efficiency of different algorithms in terms of their worst-case performance.
- Understanding **Big-O notation** is essential for analyzing and designing efficient algorithms.

# Algorithm efficiency

- **Big-O notation** is used to notate the upper bound of how slow a function,  $f(n)$ , grows with respect to  $n$ .
- For example, consider the function in Python:

```
def f(n):
    print("Hello World")
```

- No matter what  $n$  is, this function will always run in *constant* time and is independent of the input  $n$ . This function use the notation  $O(1)$ .
- But with:

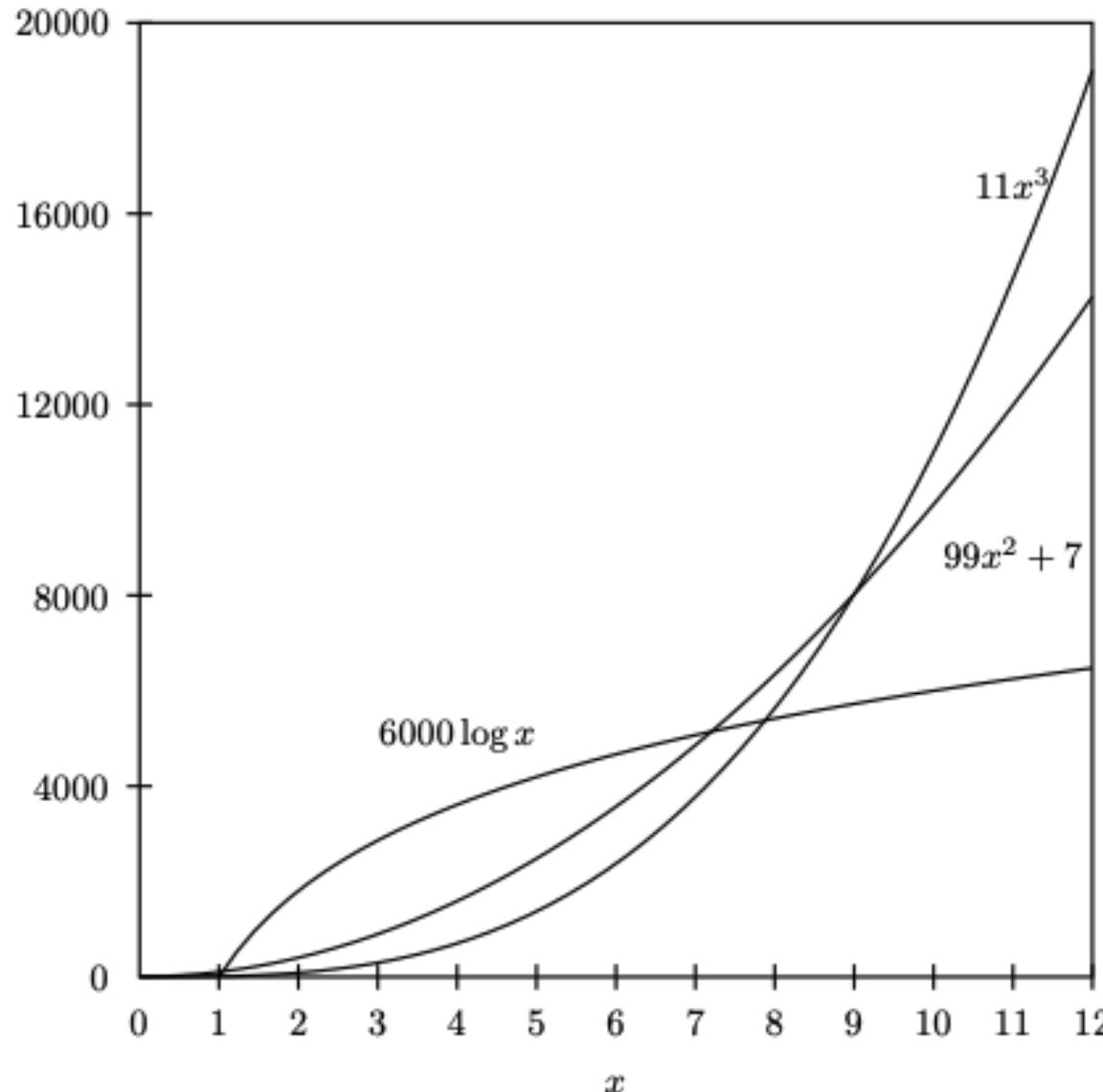
```
def f(n):
    for i in range(n):
        print(i)
```

- Now, this function is dependent on  $n$ . If  $n$  is 1, it will print 1 line. If  $n$  is 9000, it will print 9000 lines. We say that the growth of this function is **linear** and use the notation  $O(n)$  to upper bound its growth.

# How fast is an algorithm?

- If we know how to compute the number of basic operations that an algorithm performs, then we have a basis to compare it against a different algorithm that solves the same problem.
- Rather than tediously count every multiplication and addition, we can perform this comparison by gaining a high-level understanding of the growth of each algorithm's operation count as the size of the input increases.
- To illustrate this, suppose an algorithm **A** performs  $11x^3$  operations on an input of size  $x$ , and a different algorithm, **B**, solves the same problem in  $99x^2 + 7$  operations. Which algorithm, **A** or **B**, is faster?
- **A** may be faster than **B** for some small  $x$ . But  $x^3$  is a faster growing function than  $x^2$  with respect to  $x$ .

# How fast is an algorithm?



A comparison of a logarithmic ( $h(x) = 6000 \log x$ ), a quadratic ( $f(x) = 99x^2 + 7$ ), and a cubic ( $g(x) = 11x^3$ ) function.

Any three (positive-valued) functions with leading terms of  $\log x$ ,  $x^2$ , and  $x^3$  respectively would exhibit the same basic behavior, though the crossover points might be different.

Source: *Introduction to bioinformatics algorithms*, Jones and Pevzner

# Big-O Notation

- **Big-O**, commonly referred to as “**Order of**”, is a way to express the **upper bound** of an algorithm’s time complexity, since it analyses the **worst-case** situation of algorithm.
- It provides an **upper limit/bound** on the time taken by an algorithm in terms of the size of the input.
- It’s denoted as  **$O(f(n))$** , where  **$f(n)$**  is a function that represents the number of operations (steps) that an algorithm performs to solve a problem of size  **$n$** .
- **Big-O notation** only describes the **asymptotic** behavior of a function, not its exact value.
- The **Big-O notation** can be used to compare the efficiency of different algorithms or data structures.

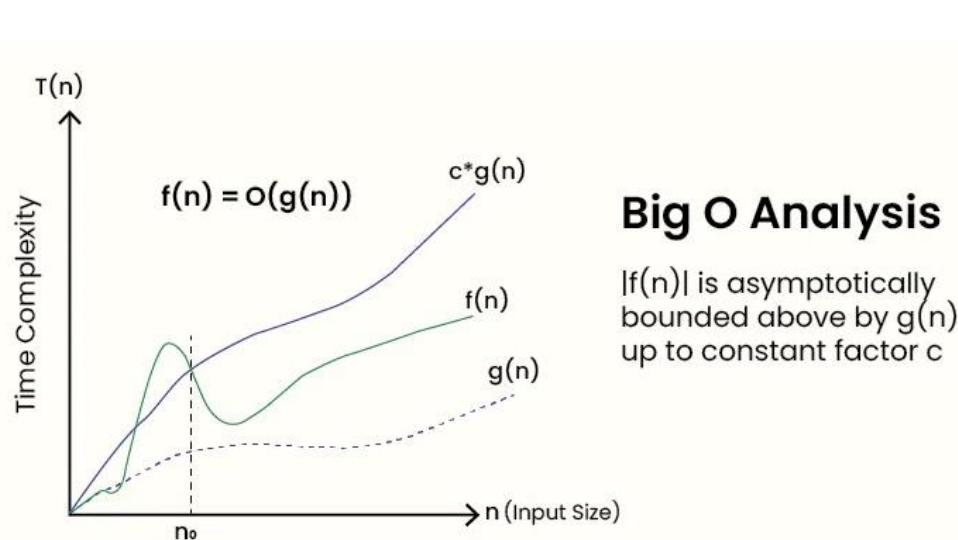
Asymptotic: approaching a given value as an expression containing a variable tends to infinity.

**Big-O notation** is used to describe the performance or complexity of an algorithm. Specifically, it describes the **worst-case scenario** in terms of **time or space complexity**.

Source: <https://www.geeksforgeeks.org/>

# Definition of Big-O Notation

- Given two functions  $f(n)$  and  $g(n)$ , we say that  $f(n)$  is  $O(g(n))$  if there exist constants  $c > 0$  and  $n_0 \geq 0$  such that  $f(n) \leq c*g(n)$  for all  $n \geq n_0$ .
- In simpler terms,  $f(n)$  is  $O(g(n))$  if  $f(n)$  grows no faster than  $c*g(n)$  for all  $n \geq n_0$  where  $c$  and  $n_0$  are constants.



Source: <https://www.geeksforgeeks.org/>

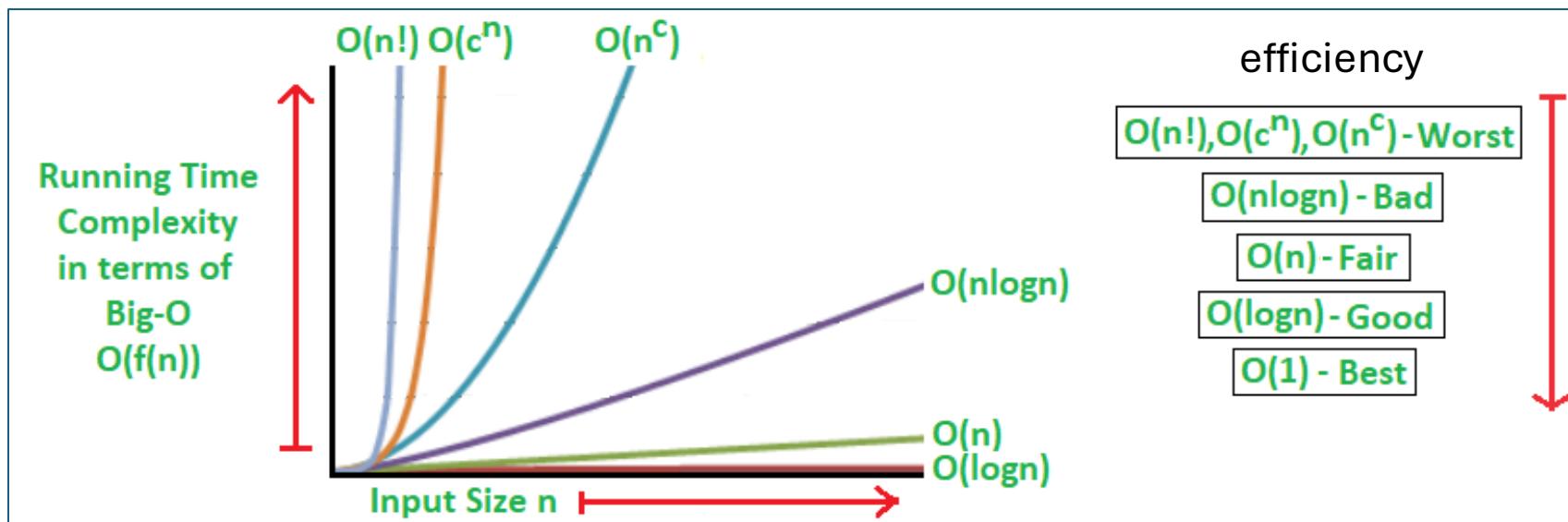
# Big-O Notation

Big O notation is important for several reasons:

- Big O Notation is important because it helps analyze the efficiency of algorithms.
- It provides a way to describe how the **runtime or space requirements** of an algorithm grow as the input size increases.
- Allows programmers to compare different algorithms and choose the most efficient one for a specific problem.
- Helps in understanding the scalability of algorithms and predicting how they will perform as the input size grows.
- Enables developers to optimize code and improve overall performance.

# Big-O Notation

If we plot the most common Big O notation examples, we would have a graph like this:



But:

$$n^2 = O(n^2)$$
$$n^2 + n = O(n^2)$$
$$n^2 + 1000n = O(n^2)$$
$$5000n^2 + 1000n = O(n^2)$$

Constants do not matter!

Source: <https://www.geeksforgeeks.org/>

# Big-O Notation

- Big-O notation tells you how much slower an algorithm gets as the input gets larger.
- Examples:
  - Returning the first element of an array takes a constant amount of time. If you double the length of an array, it still takes the same amount of time. That code does not scale with input size.
  - Summing all the elements of an array takes a linear amount of time with regard to the length of the array. Double the length, the code takes roughly twice as long
  - Searching for an element in a sorted array? Performance *does* get worse as the array length increases, but less than linearly.
- The "notation" of Big-O notation is just concise shorthand for describing the above patterns.  $O(1)$  for constant time,  $O(n)$  for linear time (where  $n$  is the length of the array),  $O(\log n)$  for logarithmic time, etc.

# Polynomial vs. Exponential

RECURSIVEFIBONACCI( $n$ )

```
1 if  $n = 1$  or  $n = 2$ 
2     return 1
3 else
4      $a \leftarrow$  RECURSIVEFIBONACCI( $n - 1$ )
5      $b \leftarrow$  RECURSIVEFIBONACCI( $n - 2$ )
6     return  $a + b$ 
```

**O(2 $n$ )**

**Exponential algorithms:** run time is bounded by an exponential function, where the exponent is  $n$ :  $n^n$ ,  $2^n$ , etc.

FIBONACCI( $n$ )

```
1  $F_1 \leftarrow 1$ 
2  $F_2 \leftarrow 1$ 
3 for  $i \leftarrow 3$  to  $n$ 
4      $F_i \leftarrow F_{i-1} + F_{i-2}$ 
5 return  $F_n$ 
```

**O( $n$ )**

**Polynomial algorithms:** run time is bounded by a polynomial function (addition, subtraction, multiplication, division, non-negative integer exponents):  $n$ ,  $n^2$ ,  $n^{5000}$ , etc

# Algorithm design techniques

- Many algorithms share similar ideas, even though they solve very different problems.
- There appear to be relatively few basic techniques that can be applied when designing an algorithm.
- To illustrate the design techniques, we will consider a very simple problem:



Source: *Introduction to bioinformatics algorithms*, Jones and Pevzner

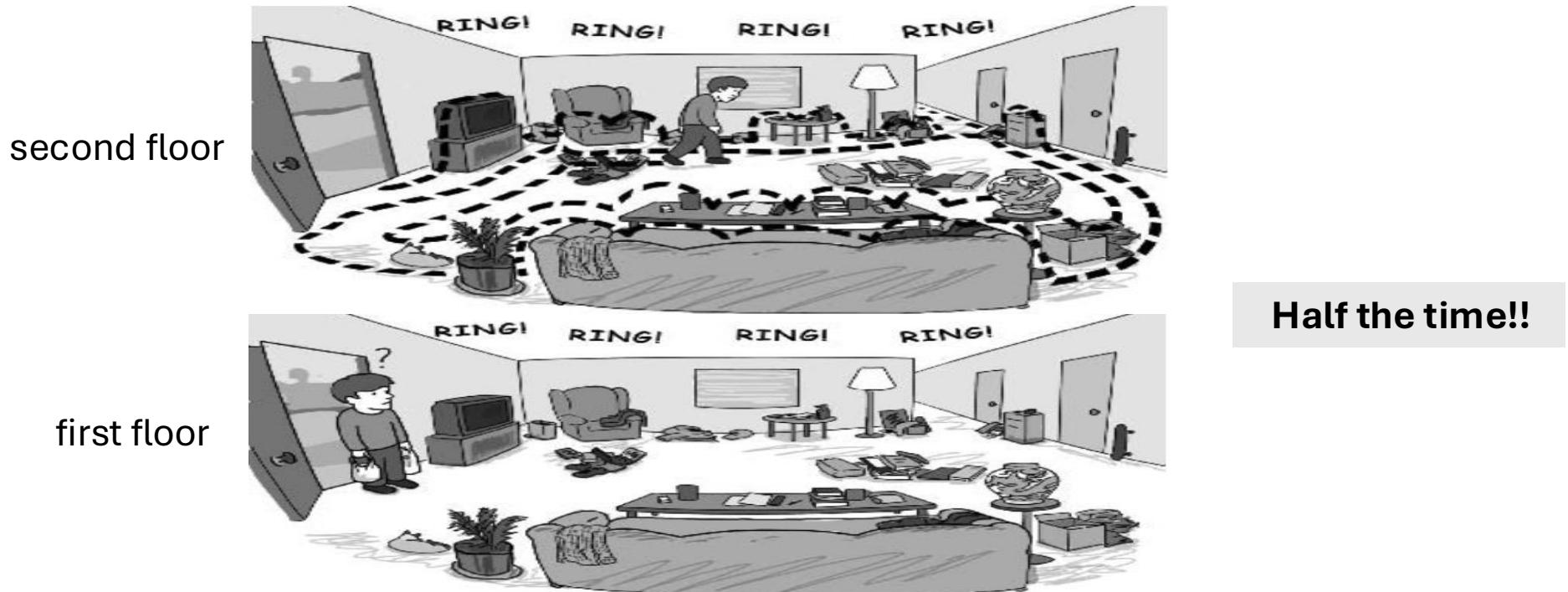
# Exhaustive search – brute force

- Examine every possible alternative to find one particular solution.
- These are the easiest algorithms to design and understand.
- Sometimes they work acceptably for certain practical problems in biology.
- But brute force algorithms are too slow to be practical for anything.



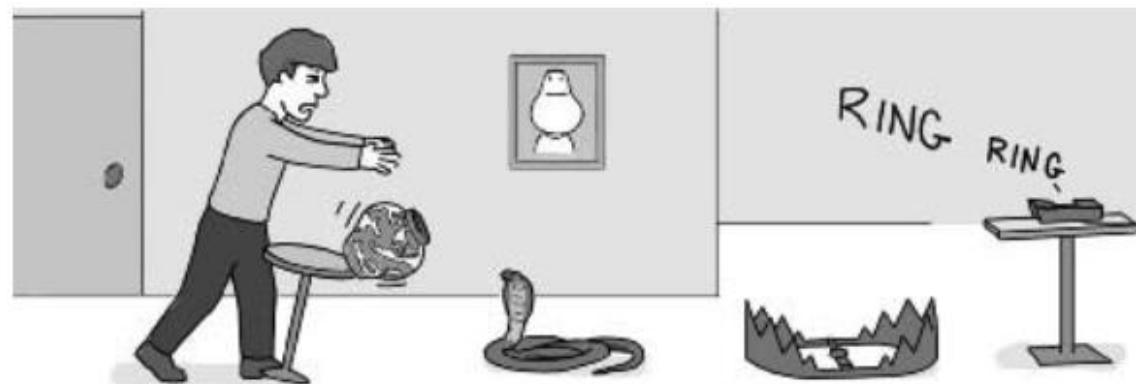
# Branch and Bound algorithms

- Omit a large number of alternatives when performing brute force.
- Suppose you are exhaustively searching the first floor and hear the phone ringing above your head.



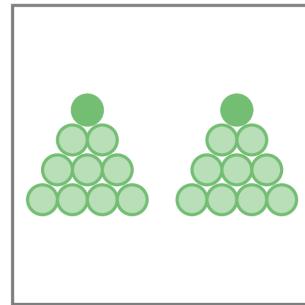
# Greedy algorithms

- Many algorithms are iterative procedures that choose among a number of alternatives at each iteration.
- Greedy algorithms choose the “most attractive” alternative at each iteration.
- In the telephone example, the corresponding greedy algorithm would simply be to walk in the direction of the telephone’s ringing until you found it.
- In many cases, a greedy approach will seem “obvious” and natural, but will be subtly wrong.



# Dynamic Programming

- Break problems into subproblems; solve subproblems; merge solutions of subproblems to solve the real problem.
- Keep track of computations to avoid recomputing values that you already solved.
- Dynamic programming (traceback) table. Example: Rocks game, Global sequence alignment.



Sequence 01												
	T	G	C	A	T	C	T	T	G	C	T	G
A	*											
G		*							*		*	
C			*						*		*	
A				*								
T	*								*	*		
G		*							*		*	
T			*						*	*		
T	*								*			
T				*					*			
C					*							
T	*				*				*	*		
G		*								*		

Sequence 02

	T	G	C	A	T	C	T	T	G	C	T	G
A	*											
G		*							*		*	
C			*						*		*	
A				*								
T	*								*	*		
G		*							*		*	
T			*						*	*		
T	*								*			
T				*					*			
C					*							
T	*				*				*	*		
G		*								*		

# Algorithm design techniques

- **Divide and conquer:**
  - Split, solve, merge
  - Merge sort: is one of the most efficient sorting algorithms. It works on the idea of breaking down a list into several sub-lists until each sublist consists of a single element and merging those sublists in a manner that results into a sorted list.
- **Machine learning:**
  - Analyze previously available solutions, calculate statistics, apply most likely solution
- **Randomized algorithms:**
  - Pick a solution randomly, test if it works. If not, pick another random solution

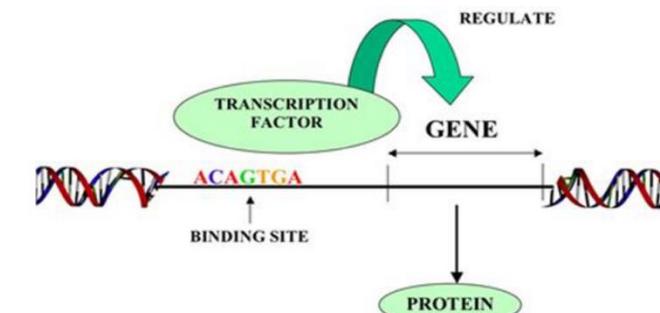
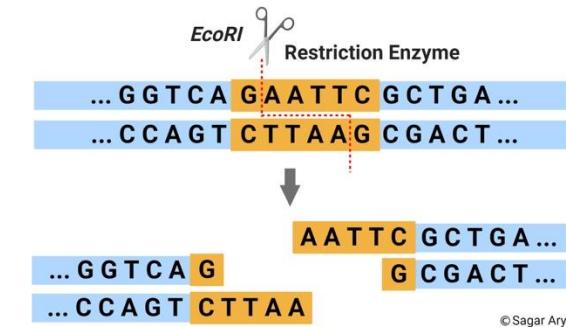
# Pattern Matching

- In biology we have patterns everywhere!
  - TATA box (“TATAAA”)
  - Protein motifs
  - Restriction enzyme cleaves sites
  - Exon-Intron splice sites
  - Termination signals
  - Transcription factor binding sites
  - ...

All have regular  
patterns!

# Pattern Matching

- Exact patterns
  - Not that common in biology
  - Restriction enzyme recognition sites
- Inexact patterns
  - Common in biology
  - Transcription factor binding sites
  - Splicing recognition sequences
  - Termination sequences



# Transcription Factor binding sites

Binding Site	Description	Publications
	Cytoadherence, sporozoite-regulated. Bound by the AP2 transcription factor PF14_0633.	De Silva et al. (2008) <i>PNAS</i> 105: 8393-8398. Young et al. (2008) <i>BMC Genomics</i> 9: 70.
	Heat shock, trophozoite-specific genes, <b>ribosomal proteins</b> .	Militello et al. (2004) <i>Mol. Biochem. Parasitol.</i> 134:75-88. Young et al. (2008) <i>BMC Genomics</i> 9: 70.
	Protein modification, phosphorylation, apical complex and <b>invasion</b> . Regulated by the AP2 transcription factor PFF0200c.	De Silva et al. (2008) <i>PNAS</i> 105: 8393-8398. Young et al. (2008) <i>BMC Genomics</i> 9:70. Voss et al. (2003) <i>Mol. Micro.</i> 48: 1593-1608.
	Ookinete-regulated. Bound by the AP2 transcription factor PB000572.01.0.	Yuda et al. (2008) <i>Mol. Micro.</i> 71: 1402-1414.

The height of the nucleotide (A T C G) is proportional to how often it is observed at that position in the TF binding site.

# Pattern Matching search

How to search for patterns?

- **Brute force:**

- Given the pattern “TATAAA”
- Search in the sequence “GATATATCTATAAAGTTATAAATA...”

GATATATCTATAAAGTTATAAATA  
TATAAA

X

GATATATCTATAAAGTTATAAATA  
TATAAA

X

GATATATCTATAAAGTTATAAATA  
TATAAA

X

GATATATCTATAAAGTTATAAATA  
TATAAA

X

GATATATCTATAAAGTTATAAATA  
TATAAA

Y

# Pattern Matching search

## How to search for inexact matches?

- We need to represent the pattern with a syntax
  - Use a period (“.”)
  - Case sensitive
  - Match the pattern at the beginning of a string (“^”)
    - “^TATA”
  - Match at the end of the string only (“\$”)
    - “TA\$”
  - String starting with “Q”, “G” or “W” (amino acids)
    - “^AGW”
- We can use regular expressions, which are rather standard across different tools

GATATATATATAAAGTTATAAATA  
TATA.A

TATATATAAAGTTATAAATA  
TATA

TATATATAAAGTTATAAATA  
TA

# Pattern Matching search

- There are several systems of representing inexact patterns.
  - Grep
  - Perl
  - Tools for motif analysis
    - transcription factor binding sites
    - RNA motif analysis
    - ...
  - Graph matching for molecular compounds

# Motif sequence search

- Sequence motifs are short segments of conserved protein or nucleic acid sequences, that are present in many proteins or and have specific functional significance.
  - In some cases, the entire set of amino acids or nucleic acids in the sequence **is conserved** and required to perform the specific function.
  - In other cases, only amino acids or nucleic acids at specific locations in the sequence motif **may be conserved** and significant for the function.
- The sequence motif search option allows you to query for amino acid or nucleotide sequence fragments.
- But sequence motif searches are indeed different from a regular similarity-based sequence search (e.g., BLAST).
  - Proteins
  - DNA

# Motif sequence syntax



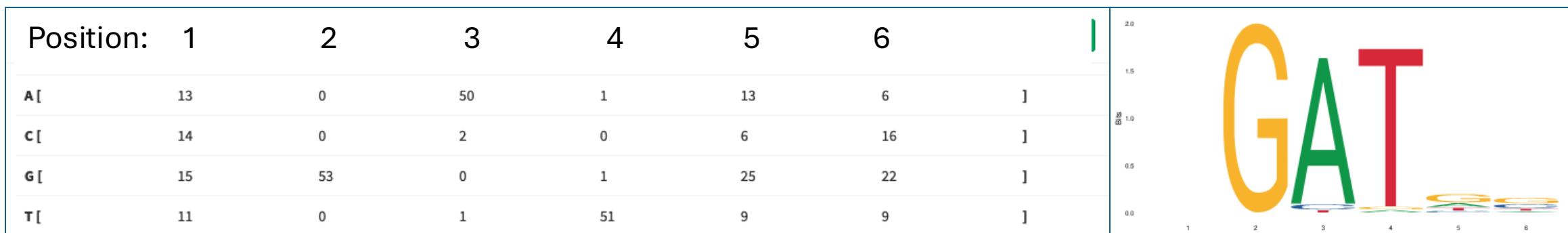
- Simple mode: Input a sequence of one or more of one-letter codes.
  - Ambiguous nucleotide codes: wildcard symbol (**X**)
  - Use < and > to match the N- and C-termini, respectively.
- PROSITE mode: for more complex queries.
  - Any-of ([ ]) One or more codes enclosed in [ ], such as [ATC]. This matches exactly 1 residue whose code is listed.
  - None-of ({ }) One or more codes enclosed in { }, such as {ATC}. This matches exactly 1 residue whose code is not listed.
  - N-terminus (<)
  - C-terminus (>)
  - Quantifiers
    - Exact A(2) matches exactly AA.
    - Minimum A(2,) matches at AA, AAA, ....
    - Range A(2,4) matches AA, AAA, and AAAA.

# Motif sequence match

In various motif-based analysis tools, sequences are searched for matches to **a set of motifs**, and the sequences are sorted by the best combined match to all motifs.

- Input:
  - Sequence (query) file
  - Motif file:

Frequency matrix



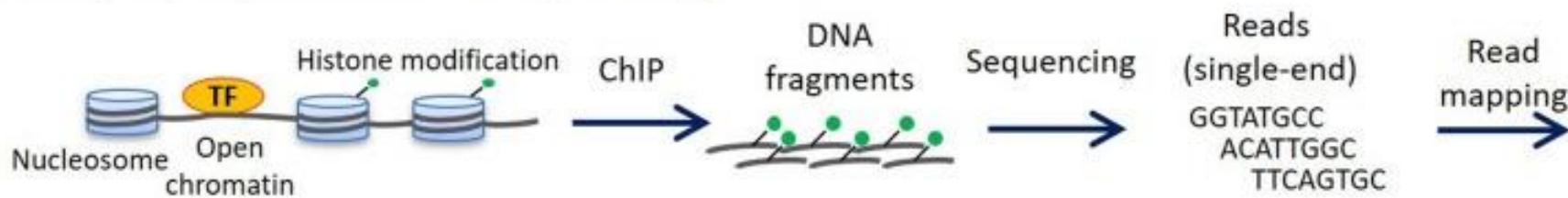
>query1  
AATAAAAGAGATAAAAATGGAAATATCAAGGC  
>query2  
AATAAAAGTGTGATGAAATGGAAATATCAAGGC



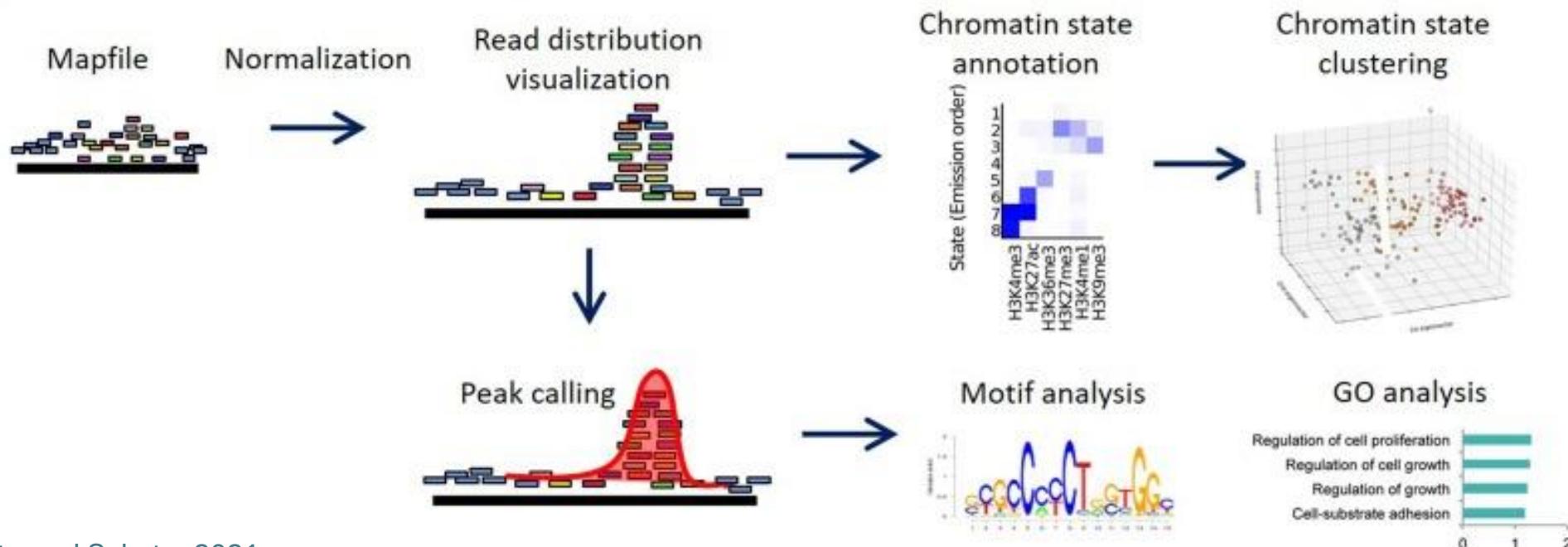
-Calculates a Match Score for every position in the motif  
-Sequence location with highest scores

# ChIP-seq analysis workflow

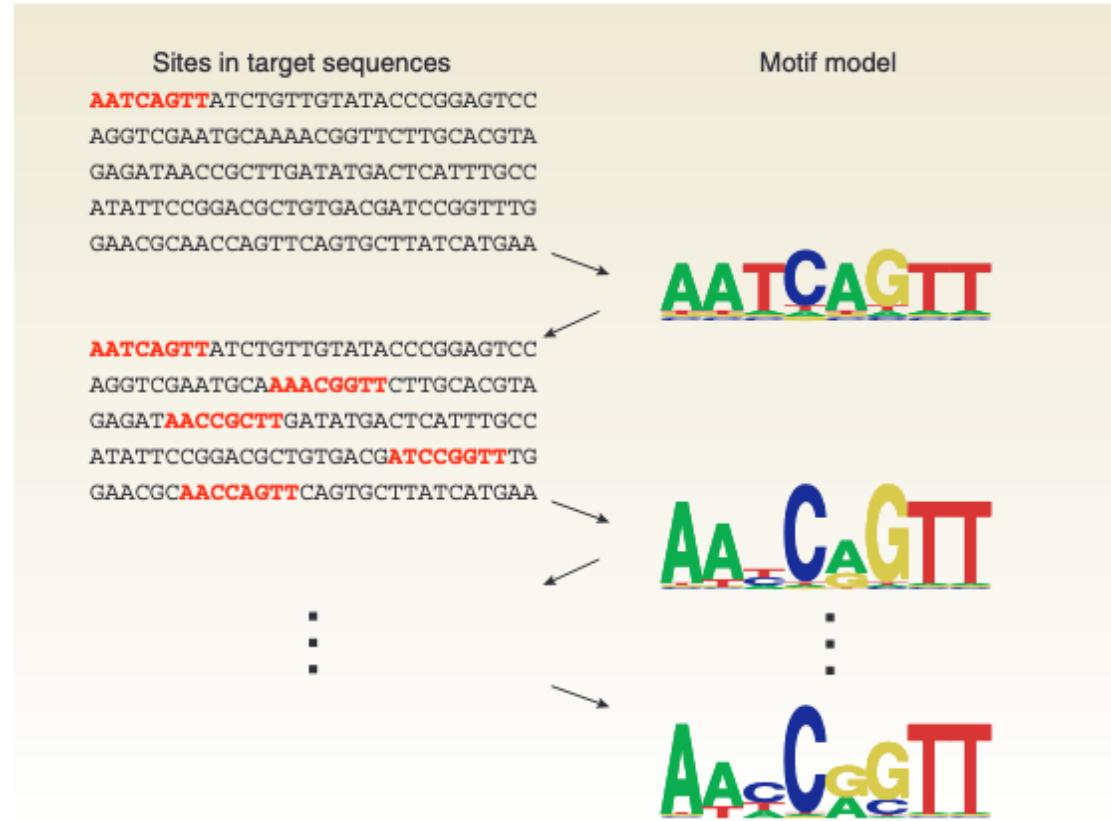
## (A) Sample preparation and sequencing



## (B) Computational analysis



# How does DNA sequence motif discovery work?



Starting from a single site, expectation maximization algorithms such as MEME alternate between assigning sites to a motif (left) and updating the motif model (right).

The position weight matrix for the motif is initialized with a single n-mer subsequence.

Next, for each n-mer in the target sequences, we calculate the probability that it was generated by the motif.

Source: [D'haeseleer, 2006](#)