

# Bioinformatics Algorithms

## COS-BIOL-530/630

### Lecture10

Days & Times	Room	Meeting Dates
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

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# Gene Prediction

## - Lecture10-

### Announcements

Lecture10

Lab10

- Activity 10
- Discussion 10

Quiz 9: Open Friday April 4<sup>th</sup> 5 pm (**next week!**)

- Lecture/Lab 10 (Gene Prediction)
- Lecture/Lab 11 (High Throughput Sequencing)

# Gene Prediction

## - Lecture 10 -

Topics:

- Gene recognition in sequences
- CpG islands
- Markov Model
- Hidden Markov Models

# Gene Prediction

## The problem:

We are given a sequence of **DNA**, and we wish to know which subsequence or concatenation of subsequences constitutes a **gene**.

>chr

ATCTTTTTTCGGCTTTTTTTAGTATCCACAGAGGTTATCGACAACATTTTCACATTACCAACCCCTGTGGA  
CAAGGTTTTTCAACAGGTTGTCCGCTTTGTGGATAAGATTGTGACAACCATTTGCAAGCTCTCGTTTATT  
TTGGTATTATATTTGTGTTTTAACTCTTGATTACTAATCCTACCTTTCTCTTTATCCACAAAGTGTGGA  
TAAGTTGTGGATTGATTTACACAGCTTGTGTAGAAGGTTGTCCACAAGTTGTGAAATTTGTCGAAAAGC  
TATTTATCTACTATATTATATGTTTTCAACATTTAATGTGTACGAATGGTAAGCGCCATTTGCTCTTTTT  
TTGTGTTCTATAACAGAGAAAGACGCCATTTTCTAAGAAAAGGAGGGACGTGCCGGAAGATGGAAAATAT  
ATTAGACCTGTGGAACCAAGCCCTTGCTCAAATCGAAAAAAGTTGAGCAAACCGAGTTTTGAGACTTGG  
ATGAAGTCAACCAAAGCCCACTCACTGCAAGGCGATACATTAACAATCACGGCTCCCAATGAATTTGCCA  
GAGACTGGCTGGAGTCCAGATACTTGCATCTGATTGCAGATACTATATGAATTAACCGGGGAAGAATT  
GAGCATTAAAGTTTGTCAATTCCTCAAAATCAAGATGTTGAGGACTTTATGCCGAAACCGCAAGTCAAAAA  
GCGGTCAAAGAAGATACATCTGATTTTCTCAAAATATGCTCAATCCAAATATACTTTTGATACTTTTG  
TCATCGGATCTGGAAACCGATTTGCACATGCTGCTTCCCTCGCAGTAGCGGAAGCGCCCGCGAAAGCTTA  
CAACCCTTTATTTATCTATGGGGGCGTCGGCTTAGGGAAAACACACTTAATGCATGCGATCGGCCATTAT  
GTAATAGATCATAATCCTTCTGCCAAAGTGTTTTATCTGTCTTCTGAGAAATTTACAAACGAATTCATCA  
ACTCTATCCGAGATAATAAAGCCGTCGACTTCCGCAATCGCTATCGAAATGTTGATGTGCTTTTGATAGA  
TGATATTCAATTTTAGCGGGGAAAGAACAACCCAGGAAGAATTTTCCATACATTTAACACATTACAC  
GAAGAAAGCAAACAAATCGTCATTTCAAGTGACCGGCCGCAAAGGAAATTCCGACACTTGAAGACAGAT  
TGCGCTCACGTTTTGAATGGGGACTTATTACAGATATCACACCGCCTGATCTAGAAACGAGAATTGCAAT  
TTTAAGAAAAAAGGCCAAAGCAGAGGGCCTCGATATTCCGAACGAGGTTATGCTTTACATCGCGAATCAA  
ATCGACAGCAATATTCGGGAACTCGAAGGAGCATTAAATCAGAGTTGTGCTTATTCATCTTTAATTAATA  
AAGATATTAATGCTGATCTGGCCGCTGAGGCGTTGAAAGATATTATTCCTTCCTCAAACCGAAAGTCAT  
TACGATAAAAGAAATTCAGAGGGTAGTAGGCCAGCAATTTAATATTAAACTCGAGGATTTCAAAGCAAAA  
AAACGGACAAAGTCAGTAGCTTTTCCGCGTCAAATCGCCATGTACTTATCAAGGGAAATGACTGATTCCT  
CTCTTCCTAAAATCGGTGAAGAGTTTGGAGGACGTGATCATACGACCGTTATTCATGCGCATGAAAAAAT  
TTCAAACTGCTGGCAGATGATGAACAGCTTCAGCAGCATGTAAAAGAAATTAAGAAGCAGCTTAAATAG  
CAGGACCGGGGATCAATCGGGGAAAGTGTGAATAACTTTTCGGAAGTCATACACAGTCTGTCCACATGTG  
GATAGGCTGTGTTTCTGTCTTTTTCACAACTTATCCACAAATCCACAGGCCCTACTATTACTTCTACTA  
TTTTTTATAAATATATATATTAATACATTATCCGTTAGGAGGATAAAAATGAAATTCACGATTCAAAAAG  
ATCGTCTTGTTGAAAGTGCCAAGATGTATTAAGAGCAGTTTCATCCAGAACCACGATTCCCATTTCTGAC  
TGGTATTAAAAATTGTTGCATCAGATGATGGAGTATCCTTTACAGGGAGTGAATCAGATATTTCTATTGAA  
TCCTTCATTCCAAAAGAAGAAGGAGATAAAGAAATCGTCACTATTGAACAGCCCGGAAGCATCGTTTTAC  
AGGCTCGCTTTTTTAGTGAAATTGTAAAAAATTGCCGATGGCAACTGTAGAAATTGAAGTCCAAAATCA  
GTATTTGACGATTATCCGTTCTGGTAAAGCTGAATTTAATCTAAACGGACTGGATGCTGATGAATATCCG  
CACTTGCCGCAGATTGAAGAGCATCATGCGATTGAGATCCCAACTGATTTGTTAAAAAATCTAATCAGAC  
AAACAGTATTTGCAGTGTCCACCTCAGAAACACGCCCTATCTTGACAGGTGTAAACTGGAAAGTGGAGCA  
AAGTGAATTATTATGCACTGCAACGGATAGCCACCGTCTTGCAATTAAGAAAGGCGAAACTTGATATTCCA  
GAAGACAGATCTTATAACGTCGTGATTCCGGGAAAAAGTTTAACTGAACTCAGCAAGATTTTAGATGACA  
ACCAGGAACCTGTAGATATCGTCATCACAGAAACCCAAGTTCTGTTTAAAGCGAAAAACGTCTTGTTCTT  
CTCACGGCTTCTGGACGGGAATTATCCAGACACAACCAGCCTGATTCCGCAAGACAGCAAAACAGAAATC

# Algorithms and Models in Bioinformatics

## Model of a gene

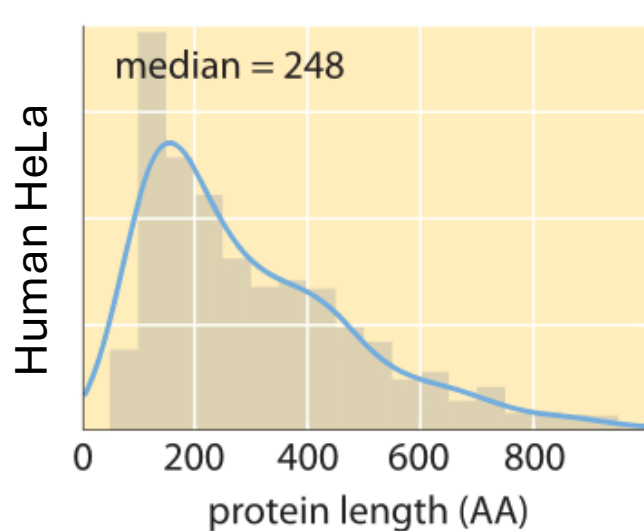
A gene is a sequence of nucleotides that encodes a protein sequence

- between 50 and 1000 residues in length
- A gene starts with Methionine
- And ends with a Stop Codon

## Gene finding algorithm

Search for and identify all sequences that:

- start with ATG
- end with either TAG/TAA/TGA
- between 150 and 3,000 nucleotides in length.



Source: <https://book.bionumbers.org>

Define the DNA sequence as a string

Create an empty list to store identified gene sequences

Set minimum\_length = 150

Set maximum\_length = 3000

For each position i in the DNA sequence from 0 to (length of sequence - 3):

    If the substring from i to i+2 is "ATG": # Check for start codon

        For each position j from i+3 to (length of sequence - 2):

            If the substring from j to j+2 is "TAG" or "TAA" or "TGA": # Stop codon

                Calculate gene\_length = j + 3 - i # Length of the gene

                If minimum\_length <= gene\_length <= maximum\_length:

                    Extract the substring from i to j+2 as the gene

                    Add the gene sequence to the list

                Break the inner loop # Move to the next start codon

Output the list of identified gene sequences

Lecture  
01!

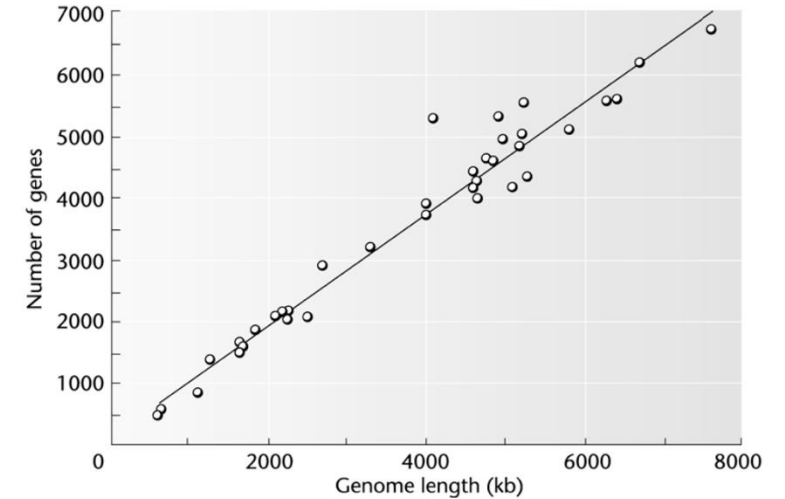
# Gene Prediction

- There is a key difference between prokaryotes and eukaryotes.

- > 85% of the prokaryotic genome is coding DNA



- The portion of eukaryotic genome coding:
    - Fungi: 70% in *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* (yeast)
    - Plants: 20% in *Arabidopsis*
    - Human: 3%

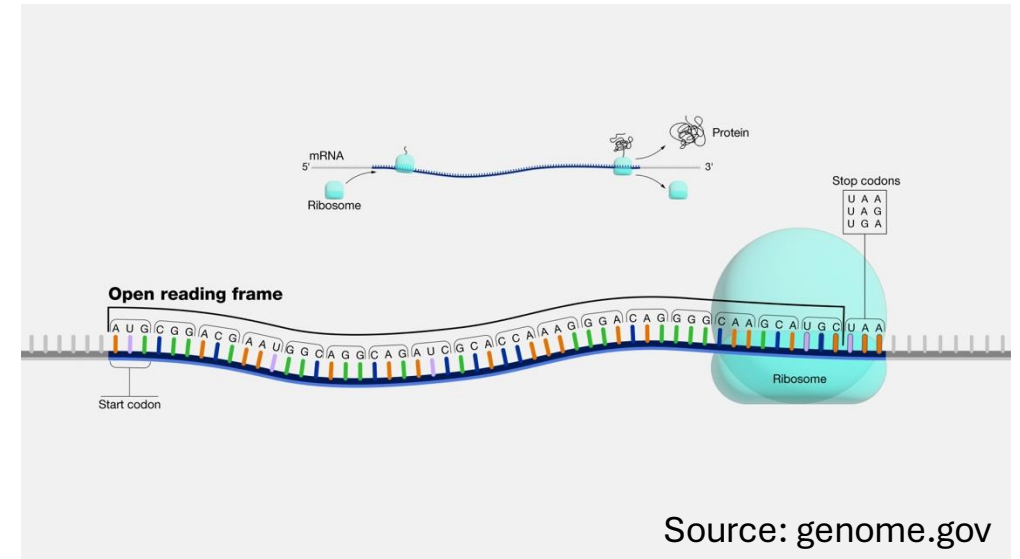
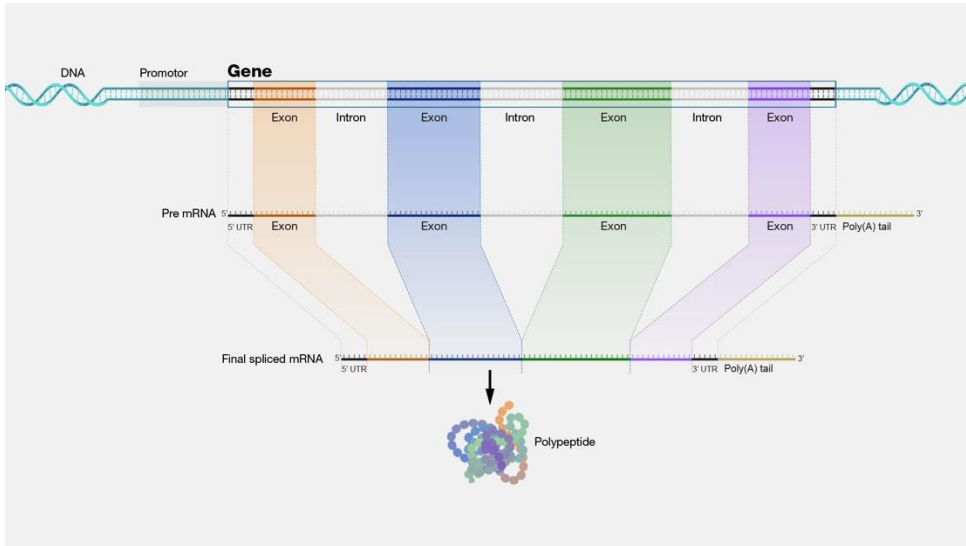
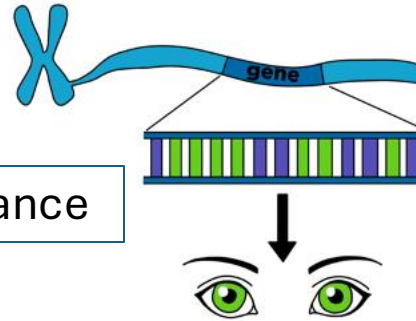


In prokaryotes most of the space is composed by genes.

- We need to parse the genomic DNA to identify a complete gene with some knowledge (**a model**).

# Gene vs. Open Reading Frame

The gene is considered the basic unit of inheritance



Source: genome.gov

An **open reading frame (ORF)**, as related to genomics, **is a portion of a DNA sequence that does not include a stop codon** (which functions as a stop signal). A codon is a DNA or RNA sequence of three nucleotides (a trinucleotide) that forms a unit of genomic information encoding a particular amino acid or signaling the termination of protein synthesis (stop codon).



# Prokaryotic genes

- A prokaryotic gene typically begins with a start codon (eg. ATG, GTG, TTG).
- Ends with one of the three stops codon (eg. TAG, TAA, or TGA).
- Most of the genes are organized in ***operons***: gene clusters of **more than one ORF** that are under the control of a shared set of regulatory sequences.
  - Promoters
  - Silencers
  - Terminators
  - Operators
- Regulatory sequences constitute 10—15% of the prokaryote genome.
- Promoters are located near the transcription start sites (TSSs) of genes, on the same strand and upstream of the gene or ORF.

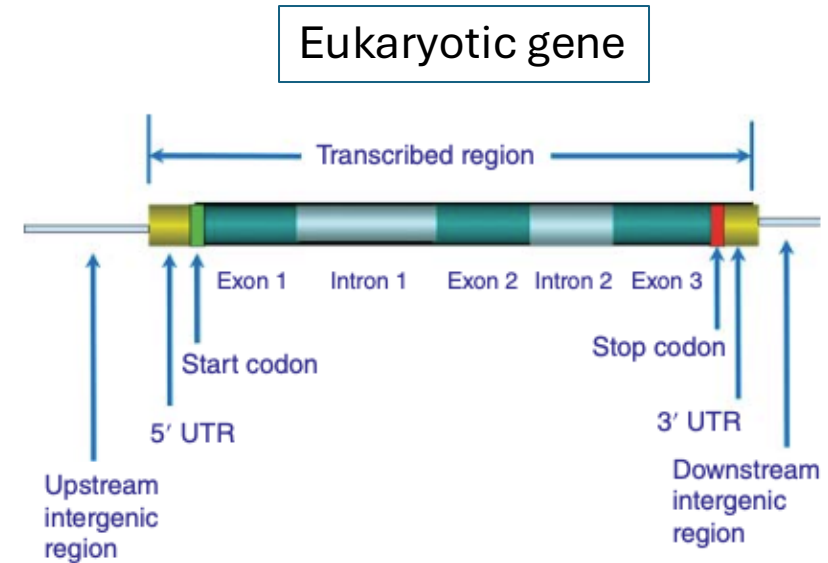


Source: Bioinformatics, Baxevanis

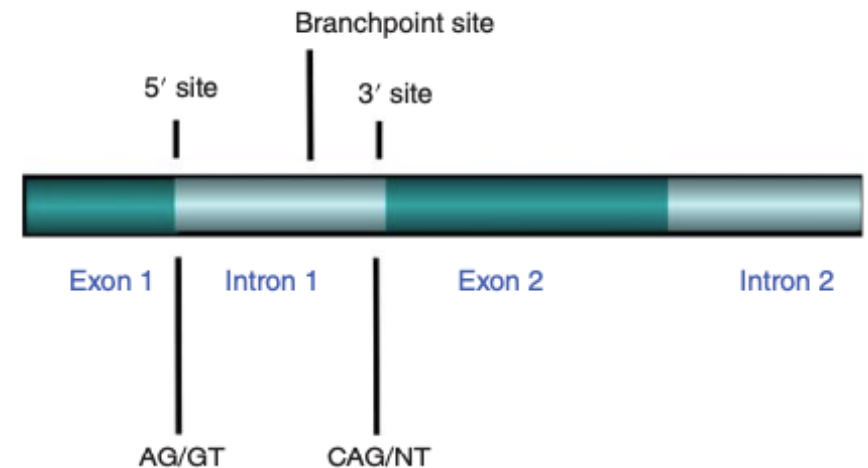
# Eukaryotic genes

To find a eukaryotic gene, we must identify 4 signals:

- Start codon
- Stop codon
- Beginning of intron (donor site)
- End of intron (acceptor site)



**Splice site region  
exon/intron**

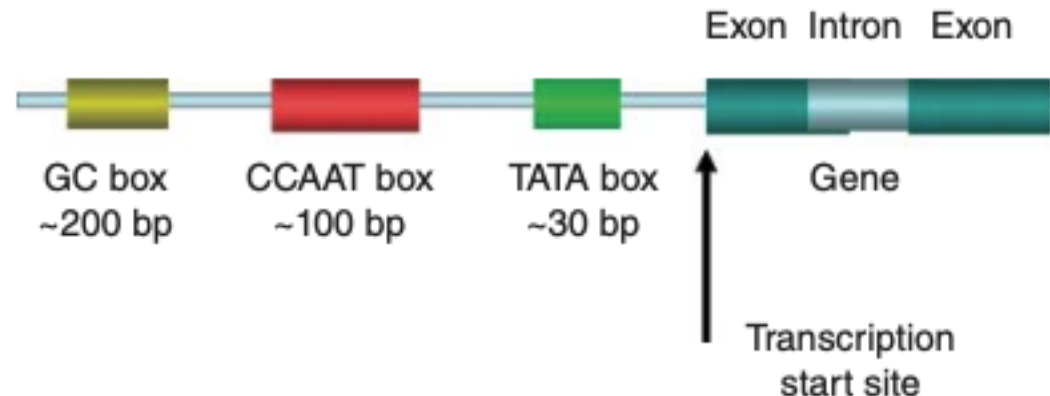


# Eukaryotic genes

To find a eukaryotic gene, we must identify 4 signals:

- Start codon
- Stop codon
- Beginning of intron (donor site)
- End of intron (acceptor site)

**\* It helps to find other signals outside the gene, such as promoters and ribosomal binding sites**



# Start codon

What defines a start codon?

- Eukaryotes: ATG
- Prokaryotes: ATG, GTG, TTG
- In a random sequence, **the probability of an initiation codon is  $(1/4)^3 = 1/64$  (for each).**
- There is usually a characteristic regulatory sequence upstream (promoter).
- However, regulatory element location and sequence are not consistent between species.

# Stop codon

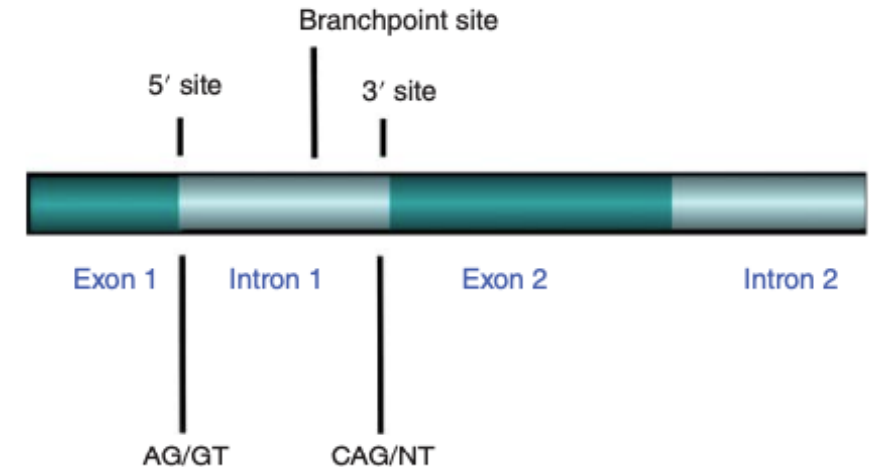
What defines a stop codon?

- TAA, TAG, TGA
- No sequence or regulatory element upstream.
- In a random sequence, **the probability of a stop codon is  $(1/4)^3 = 1/64$  (for each).**

# Splice sites

What defines a splice site (eukaryotes)?

- The donor is **almost** always GT.
- The acceptor is **almost** always AG.
- There are **certain consistencies** around the splice sites.
- However, the (average) size of introns varies between species.
- Exon base count is not always multiple of 3: introns can split codons!
- The split is not necessary in the same frameshift.



# ORFs

What defines an open reading frame?

- Begins with **START codon**, ends with **STOP codon**.
- If we have a DNA sequence (not genome), an ORF must be the longest sequence without a stop codon.
- This is easy! In theory, an ORF is a gene. Indeed, in bacteria, it is a gene.
- The problem:
  - An ORF is ended by a stop codon. How do you know that the stop codon is the *real stop*?
  - Maybe the stop codon is just a random sequence embedded (randomly) in a non-coding area.
  - And the stop codon could come from any of the SIX reading frames (sense and anti-sense, 3 frames each).



```
>chr
ATCTTTTTTCGGCTTTTTTTTAGTATCCACAGAGGTTATCGACAACATTTTCACATTACCAACCCCTGTGGA
CAAGGTTTTTTCAACAGGTTGTCCGCTTTGTGGATAAGATTGTGACAACCATTTGCAAGCTCTCGTTTATT
TTGGTATTATATTTGTGTTTTAACTCTTGATTACTAATCCTACCTTTCCTCTTTATCCACAAAGTGTGGA
TAACTTCTGCAATTCATTTTCACAGAGGTTGTGTTTAACTCTTGATTACTAATCCTACCTTTCCTCTTTATCCACAAAGTGTGGA
```

### Algorithm *Find\_Stop\_Codons*

Input: DNA\_sequence (a string of nucleotides)

Output: A list of positions of stop codons in each reading frame

Define stop\_codons as ["TAA", "TAG", "TGA"]

Initialize stop\_positions as an empty dictionary with keys "Frame 1", "Frame 2", and "Frame 3"

For each frame in {0, 1, 2}: // Three reading frames

Initialize stop\_positions["Frame " + (frame + 1)] as an empty list

For  $i$  from frame to length(DNA\_sequence) - 2 step 3:

codon  $\leftarrow$  substring of DNA\_sequence from  $i$  to  $i+2$  (inclusive)

If codon is in stop\_codons:

Append  $i$  (position of stop codon) to stop\_positions["Frame " + (frame + 1)]

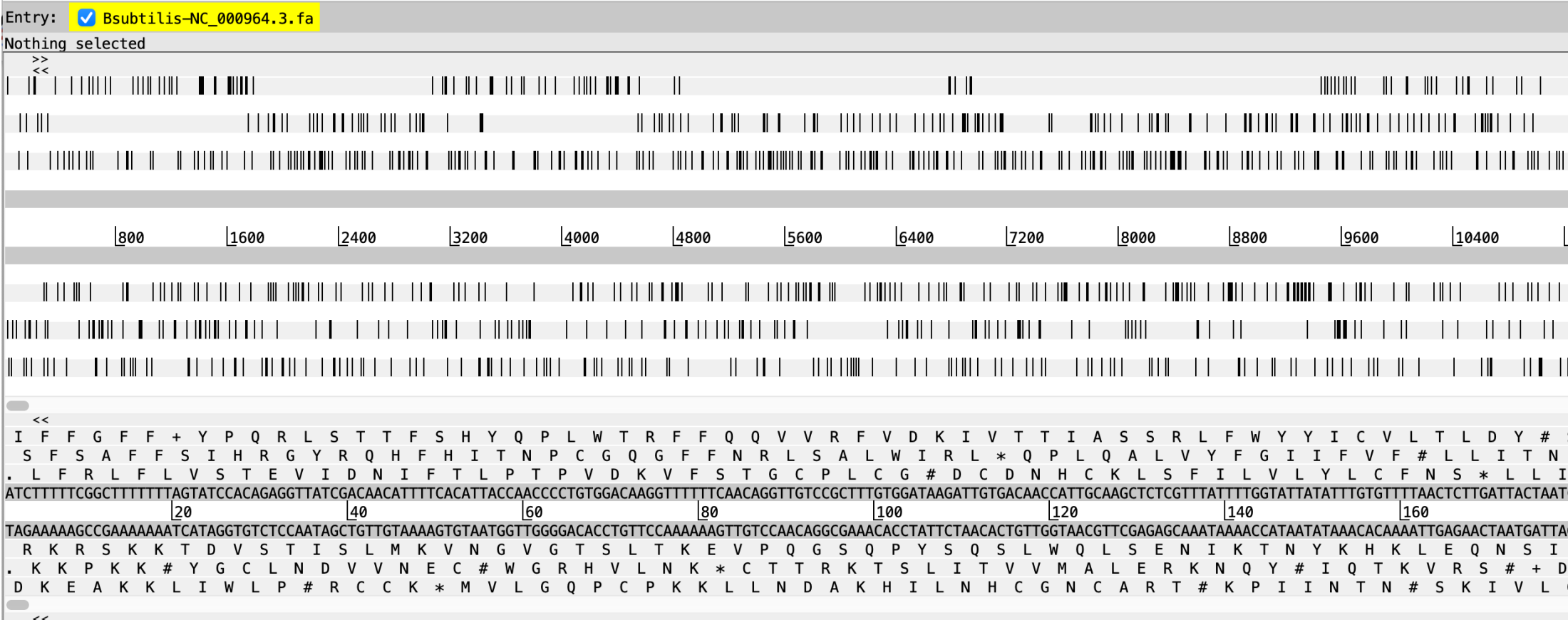
Return stop\_positions

```
TTAGTGAATTATTATGCACTGCAACGGATAGCCACCGTCTTGCAATTAAGAAAGGCGAAACTTGATATTCCA
GAAGACAGATCTTATAACGTCGTGATTCCGGGAAAAAGTTTAACTGAACTCAGCAAGATTTTAGATGACA
ACCAGGAACTTGTAGATATCGTCATCACAGAAACCCAAGTTCTGTTTTAAAGCGAAAAACGTCTTGTTCTT
CTCACGGCTTCTGGACGGGAATTATCCAGACACAACCAGCCTGATTCCGCAAGACAGCAAAACAGAAATC
```



Algorithm *Find\_Stop\_Codons*

For each frame  
(+)  
1  
2  
3  
(+)  
1  
2  
3



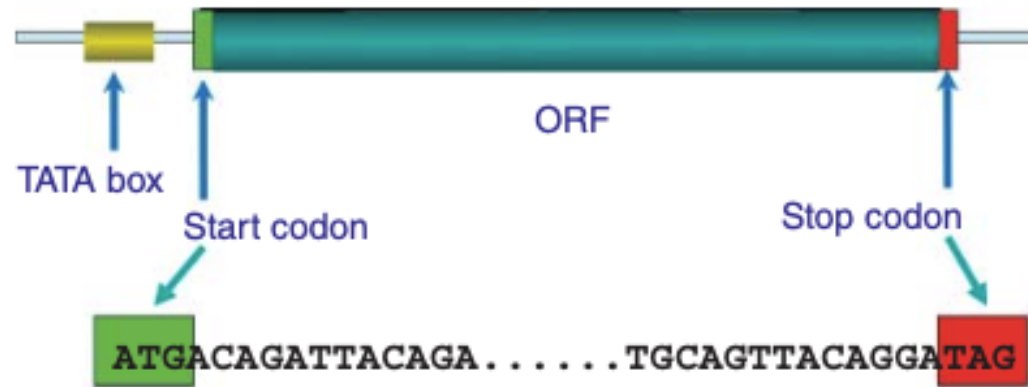
# Gene Prediction

## The solution:

- In prokaryotes:
  - Find the ORF
- In Eukaryotes:
  - Need to identify more structures (splice sites)

# Gene Finding Strategy

in prokaryotes



# Gene Finding Strategy

in prokaryotes



- Brute force:
  - Find ATG start codon
  - Longest ORF (>150 bases)
  - Move to the next ATG downstream
  - Repeat the process in the opposite strand
- Find motif signal (matrix profile)
  - TATA - Pribnow box

# Gene Finding Models

- Markov Models (MMs)
- Hidden Markov Models (HMMs)

# Models and Algorithms used in Computational Biology

A **model** is a parametric explanation of the observations of interest.

## **Probabilistic models/methods:**

- Maximum Likelihood
- Bayesian
- Machine Learning
- Markov Chain Models
- Hidden Markov Models

**“All models are wrong, but some models are useful”**

George Box

An **algorithm** is a set of instructions for solving a problem, e.g. , inferring the optimal value of a model's parameter.

## **Algorithms/Methods:**

- Sequence (string): sort/search algorithms
- Optimization algorithms:
  - Linear programming
  - Dynamic programming
  - Greedy algorithms
  - Heuristic methods

**Correct *versus* incorrect Algorithms**

**Lecture  
01!**

# Markov Models (MMs)

A Markov chain, model, or process refers to a series of observations in which the **probability of an observation depends on a number of previous observations**. The number of observations defines the “order” of the chain.

For example, in a first-order Markov model, the probability of an observation depends only on the previous observation. In a Markov chain of order 5, the probability of an observation depends on the five preceding observations.

A DNA sequence can be considered to be an example of a Markov model because the likelihood of **observing a particular base at a given position may depend on the bases preceding it**. In particular, in coding regions, it is well known that **the probability of a given base depends on the five preceding bases**, reflecting observed **codon biases** and dependencies between adjacent codons.

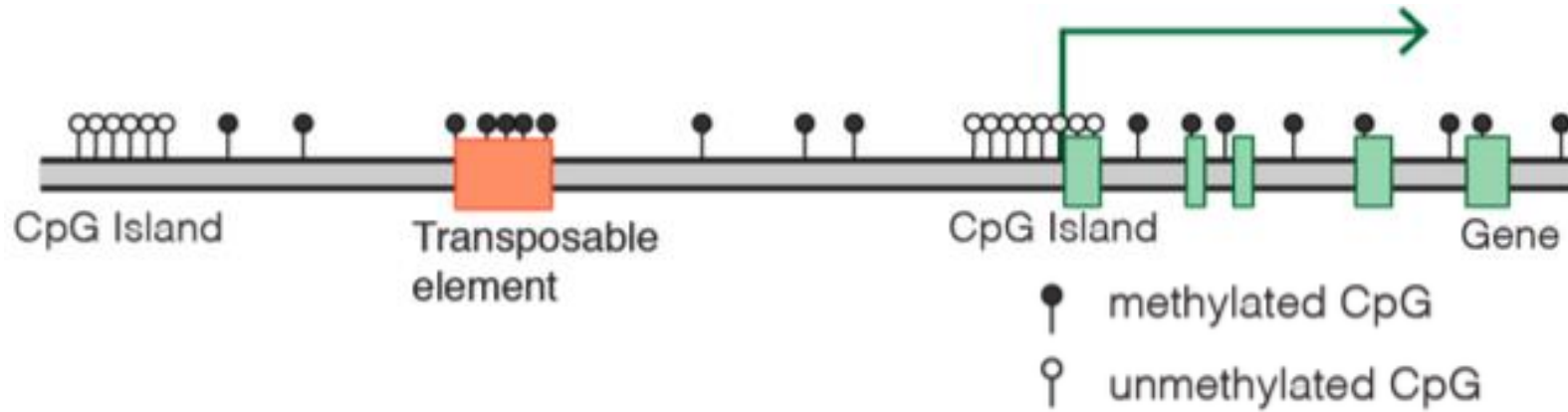
Such dependence is **not observed in non-coding regions**. When scanning an anonymous genomic region, one can compute how well the local nucleotide sequence conforms to the fifth-order dependencies observed in coding regions and assign appropriate coding likelihood scores.

# CpG islands

- In the (human) genome, CpG dinucleotides should be rare (probabilities of C and G). **Why?**
- They are rich regions in CG dinucleotides.
- From 100-1000 bases long.
- The cytosine is usually modified by methylation (5mC).
- CpG regions in the genome play an essential role in regulation (suppressing nearby promoters/genes).
- CpG islands have other bases (A and T); they are just rich in CG dinucleotides.
- Question: given a stretch of a genomic region, **how can we say if it comes from a CpG island or not?**

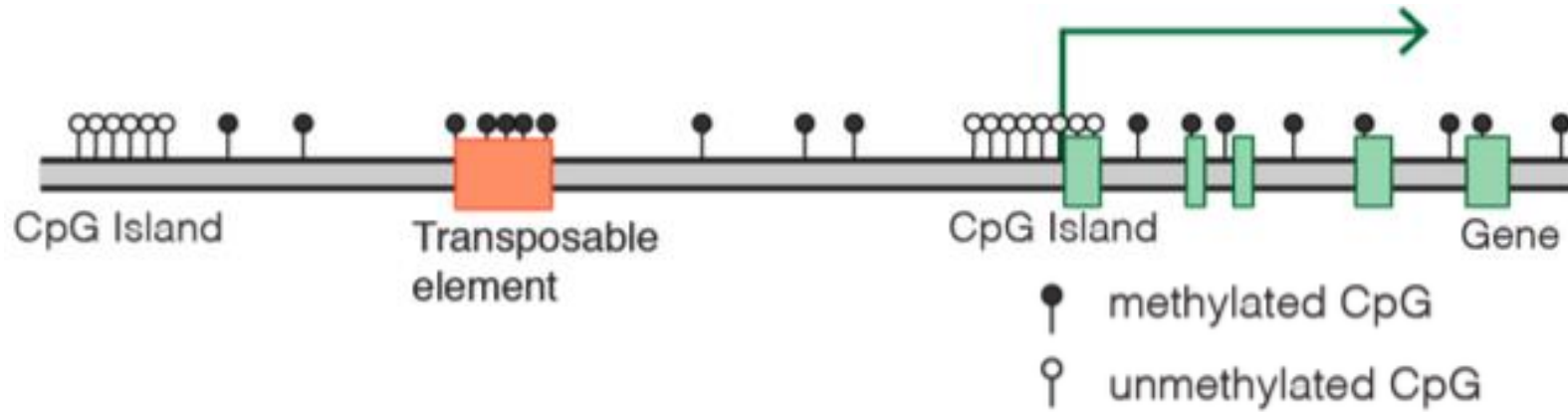


# CpG islands



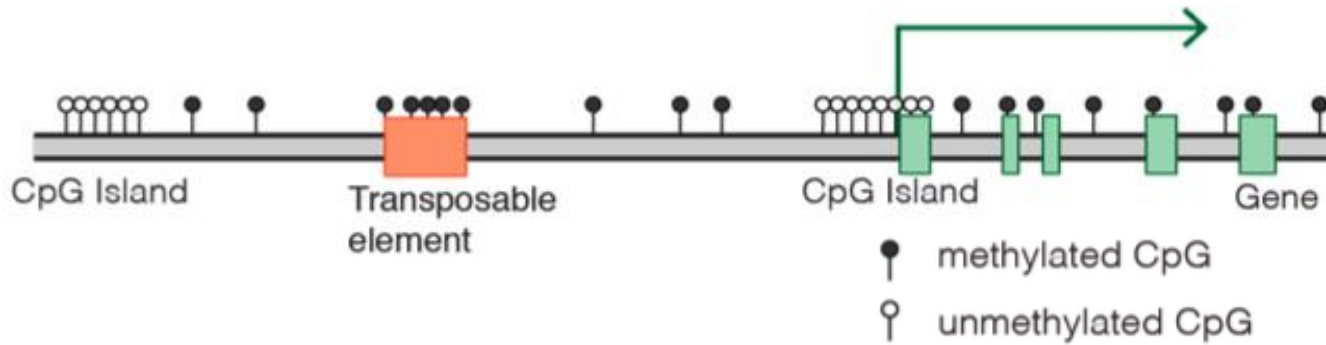
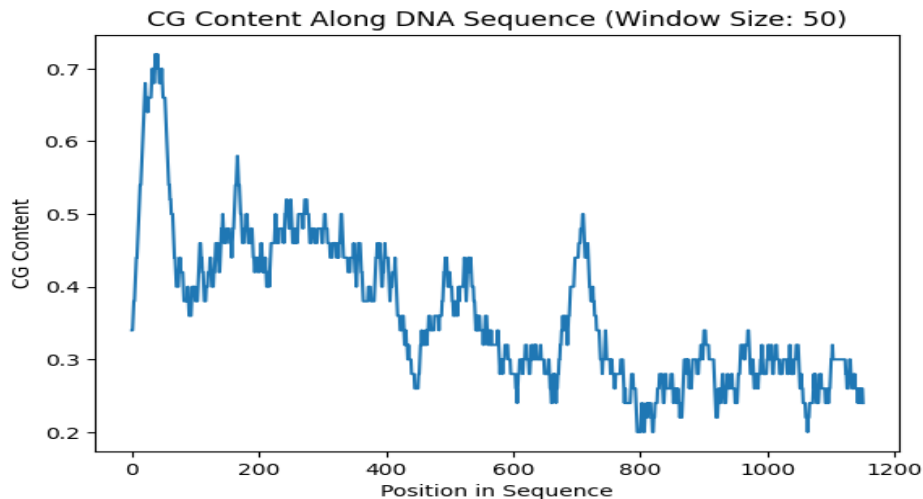
Check  
Seq\_CG-content  
Notebook

# CpG islands



Is the sequence  
**ATCG** more likely  
to be from a CpG  
island?

# Finding CpG islands



Problems with sliding window heuristics:

- What is the right window size?
  - Too small: break up real islands
  - Too large: we miss islands
- What cut-off (threshold) should we use?

\*Check Seq\_CG-content [Notebook](#)

# Markov property example

Sequence: ATG ATG ATG ATG ATG ATG ATG ATG ATG ATG ATG ATG ATG ATG ATG ATG ATG

Table of transition probabilities

	A	G	C	T
A		↓		
G		↓		
C				
T		↑		

↓ : Low probability

↑ : High probability

- If you know you are looking at a sequence of  $(ATG)_n...$
- The probability of the next character being a G?  
Depending on what character we are looking at:
  - If you are looking at a T: the odds are good that the next is a G
  - If you are looking at a A: the odds are weak that the next is a G
  - If you are looking at a G: the odds are weak that the next is a G

# Markov property example

Table of transition probabilities

	A	G	C	T
A		↓		
G		↓		
C				
T		↑		

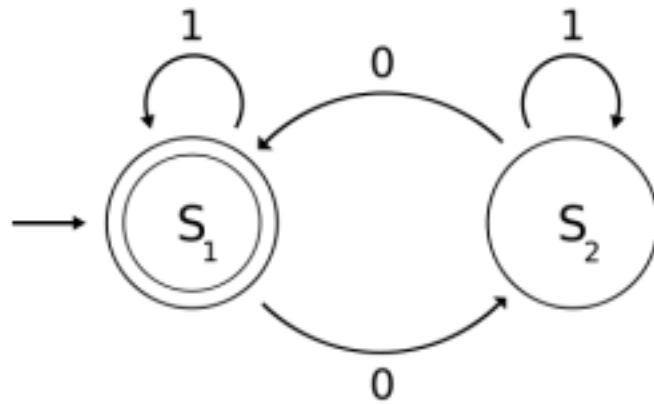
↓ : Low probability

↑ : High probability

- As a result, we can model such a system with a series of transition probabilities.
- A table representing
  - If we are here...
  - What is the probability of getting there.
  - For all possible scenarios

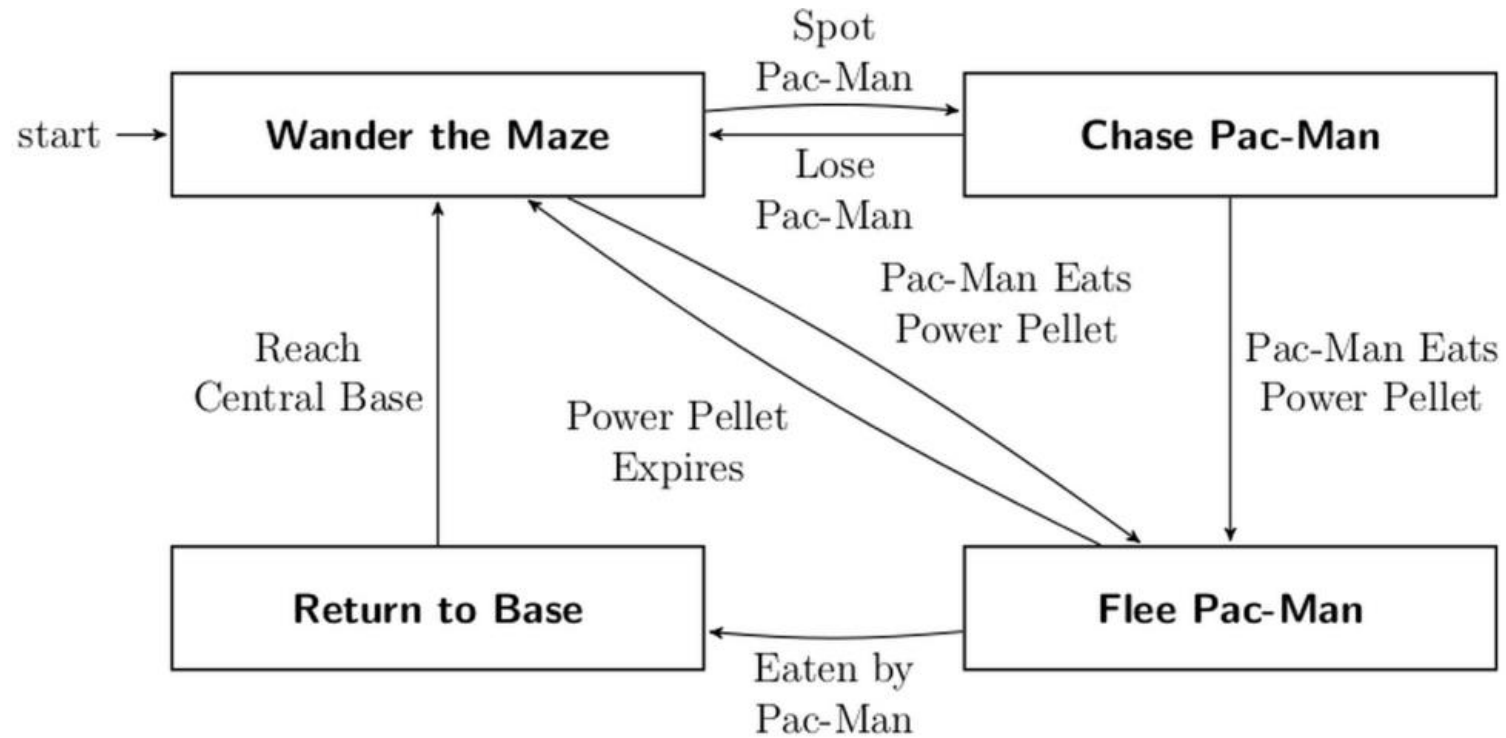
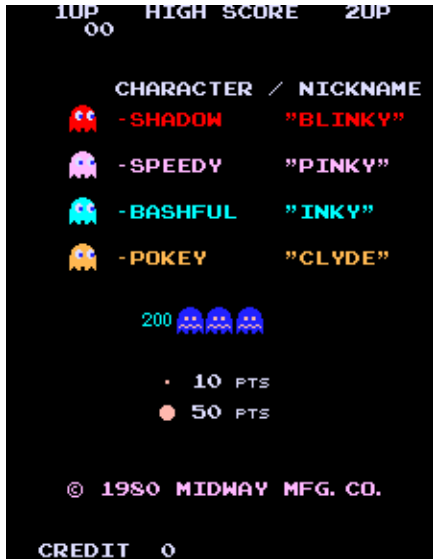
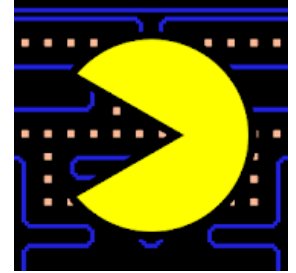
# Markov chains

- Markov Chains are implementations of models for systems with the Markov property.
- They are represented as **Deterministic Finite Automaton** (DFA).
- The **edges** (arrows) are represented as probabilities of a transition.
- The **vertices** (nodes) represent states.
- Often the DFA has “begin” and “end” states.



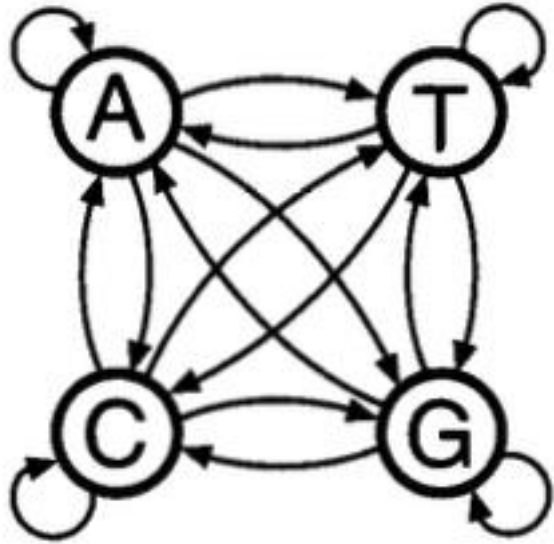
*A DFA requires  **$O(1)$**  memory (constant), regardless of the length of the input.*

# Markov chains



Pac-Man uses a four-state automaton

# DNA Markov chains



A Markov chain or DNA can be drawn with a state for each of the four letters A, C, G and T.

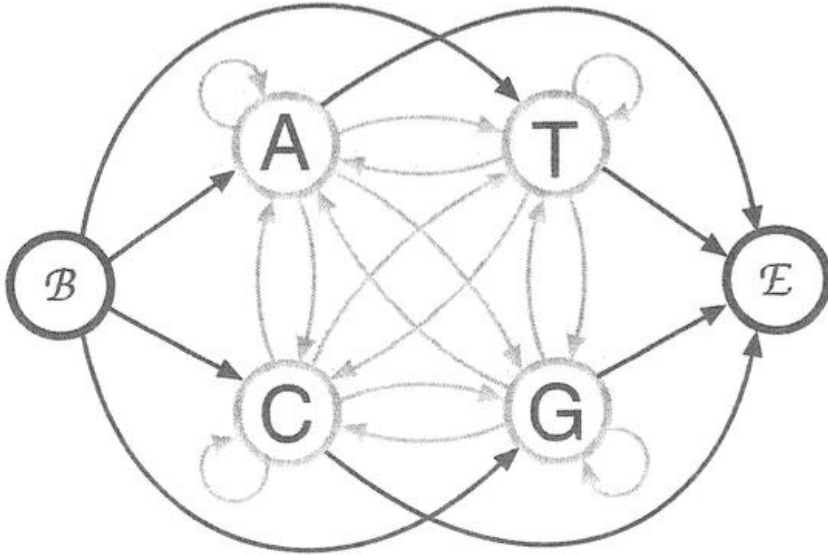
A probability parameter is associated with each arrow (edges): the probability of a certain residue following another residue.

The probability parameters are called **transition probabilities**.

Source: *Biological sequence analysis*, Durbin



# DNA Markov chains



Source: *Biological sequence analysis*, Durbin

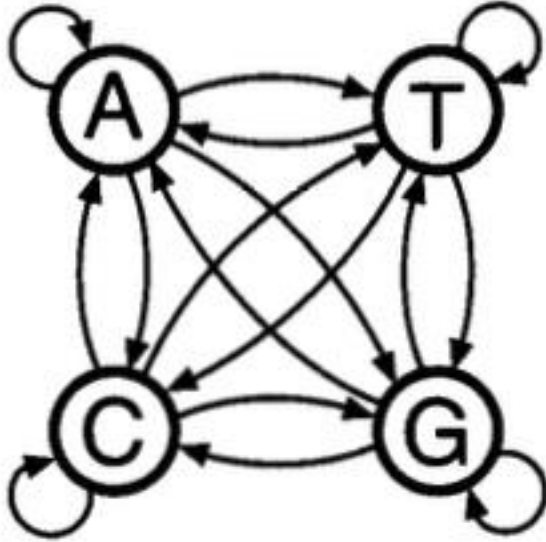
A Markov chain or DNA can be drawn with a state for each of the four letters A, C, G and T.

A probability parameter is associated with each arrow (edges): the probability of a certain residue following another residue.

The probability parameters are called **transition probabilities**.

**Begin and end states** can be added to the Markov Chain.

# DNA Markov chains



L = 4  
P (ACGT)  
P (AGTC)  
...  
P (TGCA)

When moving between states, it accumulates the product of probabilities.

$$\sum_x P(x)$$

The **probability for a given model** approaches to zero.

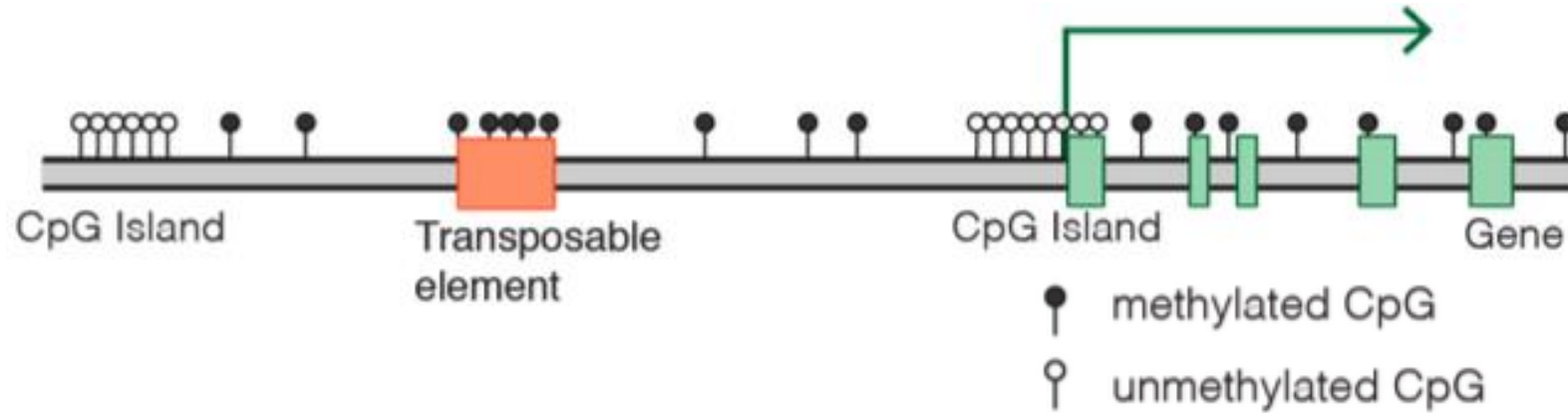
$$P = 0.5 * 0.2 * 0.1 * 0.3 \dots$$

The longer the model runs, the smaller the result.

Each chain represents the probability of following the exact chain/string (eg. sequence nucleotide).

**What is the sum of the probabilities of all possible sequences of length L?**

# CpG islands



We have to train our model for:

- CpG island
- Non-CpG island (or CpG oceans)

Compute the probability of each possible transition.

$$\frac{\sum_{\forall i, \forall j} transition_{island} i \rightarrow j}{number\ of\ all\ possible\ transitions_{island}}$$

# CpG islands

Table of transition probabilities

- Rows = from
- Columns = to
- Red = high probability
- Orange = medium
- Yellow = low

Non-CpG island

	A	G	C	T
A	Orange	Orange	Orange	Orange
G	Orange	Orange	Orange	Orange
C	Orange	low	Orange	Orange
T	Orange	Orange	Orange	Orange

CpG island

	A	G	C	T
A	Orange	Red	Red	Orange
G	Orange	Red	Red	Orange
C	Orange	high	Red	Orange
T	Orange	Red	Red	Orange

# CpG islands

Probabilities

	A	G	C	T
A	0.19	0.27	0.40	0.14
G	0.17	0.33	0.36	0.14
C	0.19	0.36	0.25	0.20
T	0.10	0.34	0.38	0.19

What's the probability of the sequence ATCG in a CpG island?

$x = \text{ATCG}$

$$P(x) = P(x_4|x_3)P(x_3|x_2)P(x_2|x_1)P(x_1)$$

$$P(x) = P(G|C)P(C|T)P(T|A)P(A)$$

$$P(x) = 0.36 * 0.38 * 0.14 * 0.16$$

$$*P(A) \text{ approx.} = \text{mean } P(A|X) = 0.16$$

Simulating

$$P(C|A) = 0.40$$

Building

$$P(C|A) = \# \text{ times AC occurs} / \# \text{ times AX occurs}$$

# CpG islands

Probabilities

Non-CpG island

	A	G	C	T
A	0.34	0.23	0.18	0.25
G	0.30	0.25	0.20	0.25
C	0.38	0.04	0.26	0.33
T	0.22	0.26	0.21	0.31

Which one is more likely?

Which model/scenario  
(CpG island or non-CpG  
island) is more likely for  
the sequence ATCG to  
be?

CpG island

	A	G	C	T
A	0.19	0.27	0.40	0.14
G	0.17	0.33	0.36	0.14
C	0.19	0.36	0.25	0.20
T	0.10	0.34	0.38	0.19

$x = \text{ATCG}$

$$P(x) = 0.04 \times 0.21 \times 0.25 \times 0.31$$

$$P(x) = 0.000651$$

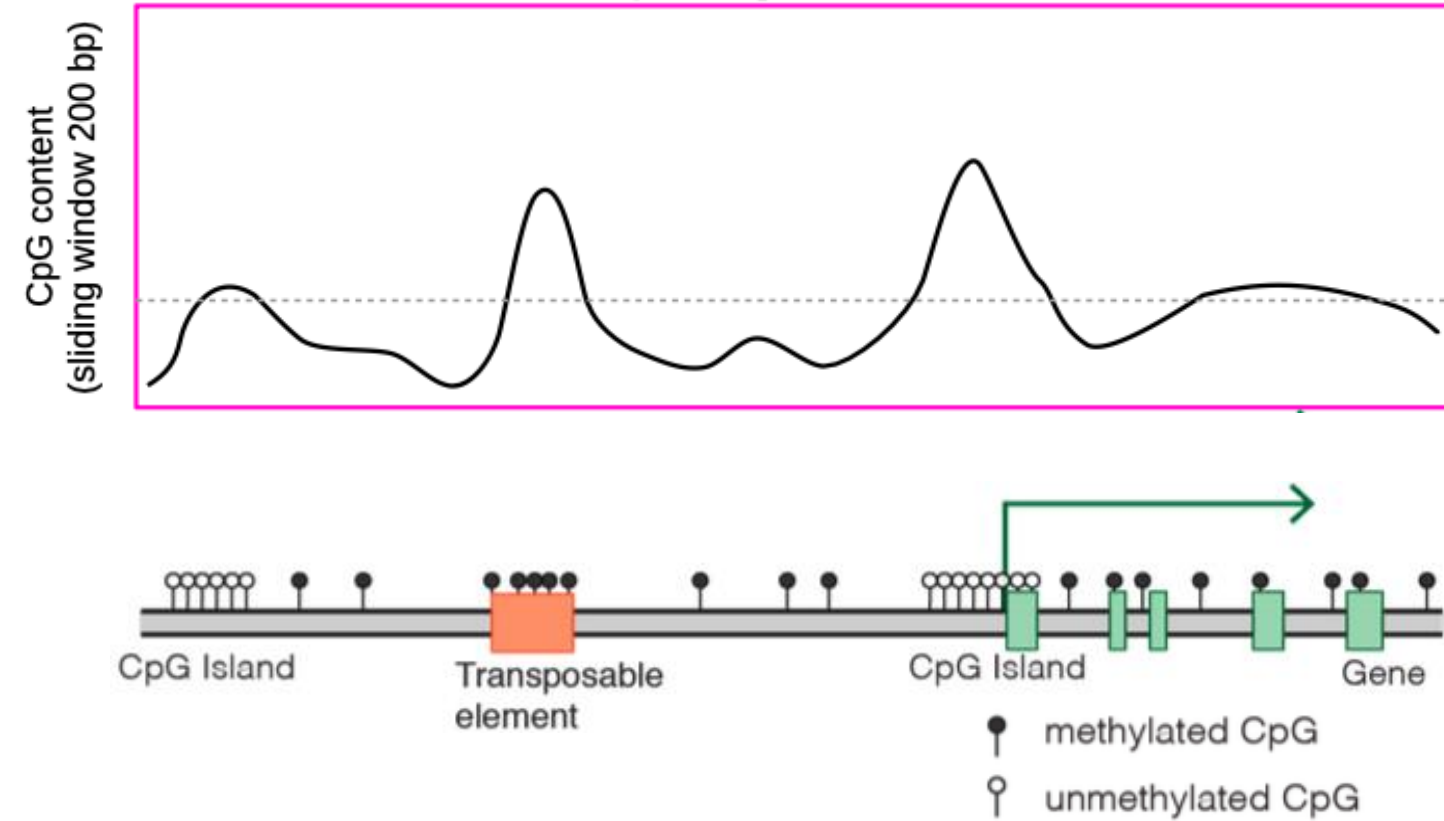
4.7 time more likely

$x = \text{ATCG}$

$$P(x) = 0.36 \times 0.38 \times 0.14 \times 0.16$$

$$P(x) = 0.00306$$

# Finding CpG islands



Problems with sliding window heuristics:

- What is the right window size?
  - Too small: break up real islands
  - Too large: we miss islands
- What cut-off (threshold) should we use?

\*Check Seq\_CG-content [Notebook](#)

# Finding CpG islands

## Markov Models

Non-CpG island

	A	G	C	T
A	0.34	0.23	0.18	0.25
G	0.30	0.25	0.20	0.25
C	0.38	0.04	0.26	0.33
T	0.22	0.26	0.21	0.31

CpG island

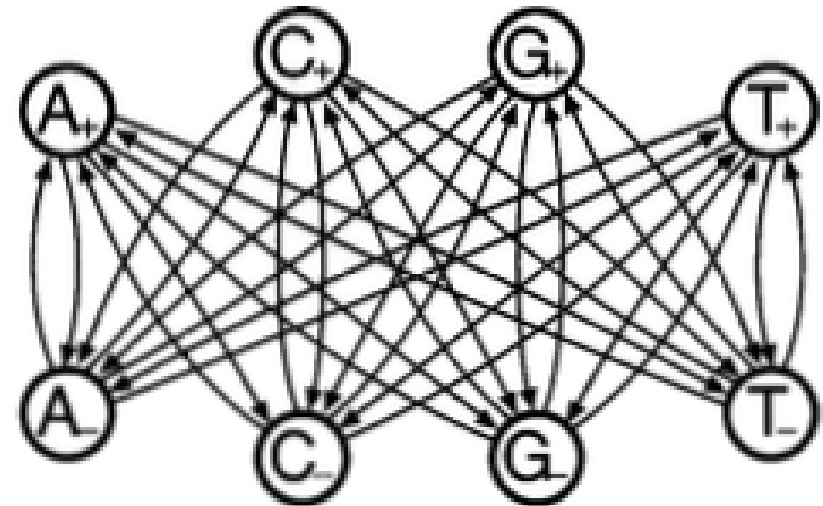
	A	G	C	T
A	0.19	0.27	0.40	0.14
G	0.17	0.33	0.36	0.14
C	0.19	0.36	0.25	0.20
T	0.10	0.34	0.38	0.19

- In order to train the model, you must know up front whether the training data came from an **island** or an **ocean**.
- The **cut-off problem is solved** with MMs: calculate which model is more likely.
- We can use Markov Chains for discrimination.
- But we still have to deal with size and boundary problems: *“Distinguishing the **shorelines**.”*



# Hidden Markov Models

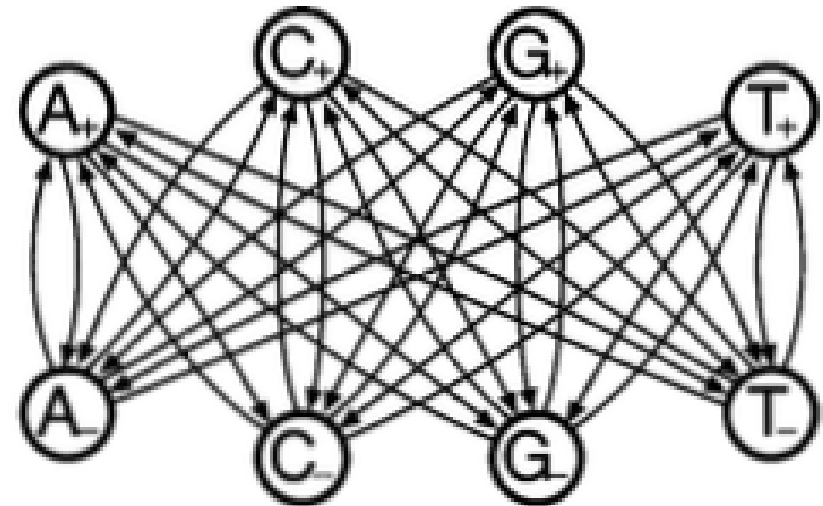
- We can use Hidden Markov Models (HMMs) to identify the boundaries of the CpG island.
- CpG island boundaries are "sharp" but with variable length.
- We can implement a model with an additional set of transition probabilities and changes of states.
- To simulate in one model the "islands" in an "ocean" of non-island genomic sequence, we want to have both Markov chains present in the same model.
- We relabel the states with "+" and "-" symbols.
- Look for the most probable state path.



Source: *Biological sequence analysis*, Durbin

# Hidden Markov Models

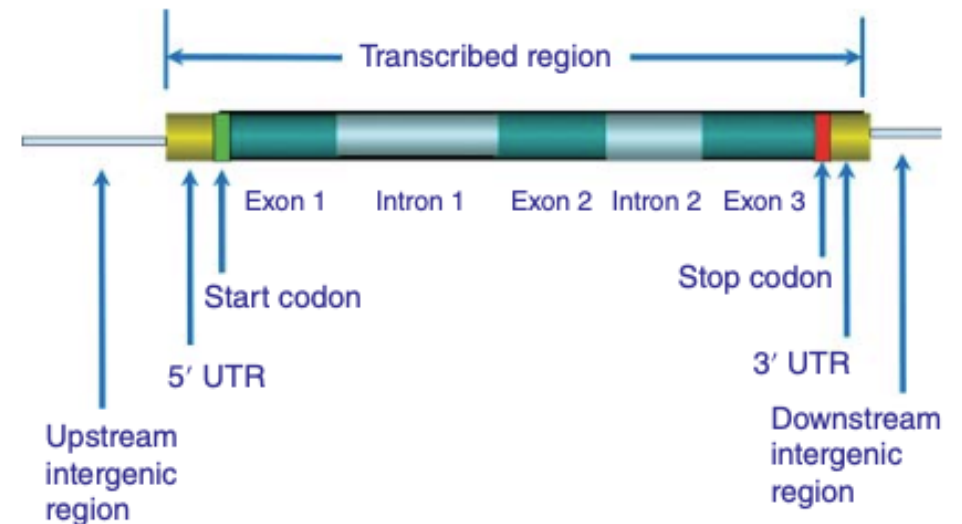
- A set of states (eg. CpG island, CpG ocean).
- A set of symbols to be determined (A, C, G, T)
- A set of **emission probabilities** for each symbol from each state
- An index (eg. next nucleotide)
- A **transition probability** between successive states.
- **What other states can we look for in a genome?**



Source: *Biological sequence analysis*, Durbin

# Hidden Markov Models

- A set of states (eg. CpG island, CpG ocean).
- A set of symbols to be determine (A, C, G, T)
- A set of emission probabilities for each symbol from each stated
- An index (eg. next nucleotide)
- A transition probability between successive states.
- **What other states can we look for in a genome?**
- Hidden Markov Models (HMM) forms the core component of most gene predictors.



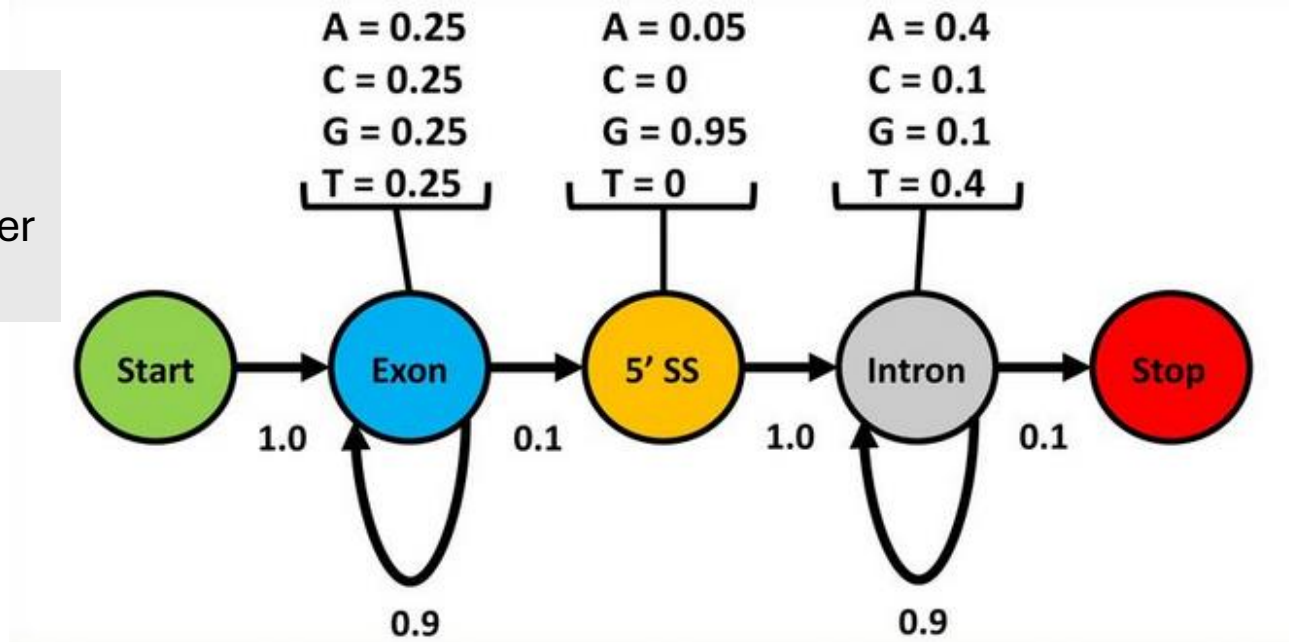
# Hidden Markov Models in gene prediction

- Hidden Markov models (HMMs) are used to provide a **statistical representation** of real biological processes.
- HMMs are used in speech recognition, facial recognition, and other applications.
- They have found widespread use in many areas of bioinformatics, including multiple sequence alignment, the characterization and classification of protein families, the comparison of protein structures, and the prediction of gene structure.
- In general, gene-finding methods use a raw nucleotide sequence as their input and, for each position in the sequence, they attempt to predict whether **a given base is most likely found in an intron, an exon, or within an intergenic region.**
- In making these predictions, the algorithm applied (variation of HMMs) must consider what is known about the structure of a gene for that specific genome or taxa.
- Each of the elements – exons, introns, and so forth – are referred to as **states**.

# HMM Probabilities

- The probability of switching from one state to another (eg. exon -> intron) is called **transition probability**.
- The probability of observing a nucleotide (A, T, C, G) that is of a certain state (exon, intron, splice junction) is called an **emission probability**. (eg. the probability of observing an adenine in an exon).

The probability of switching from one state type to another (ex. Exon - Intron).



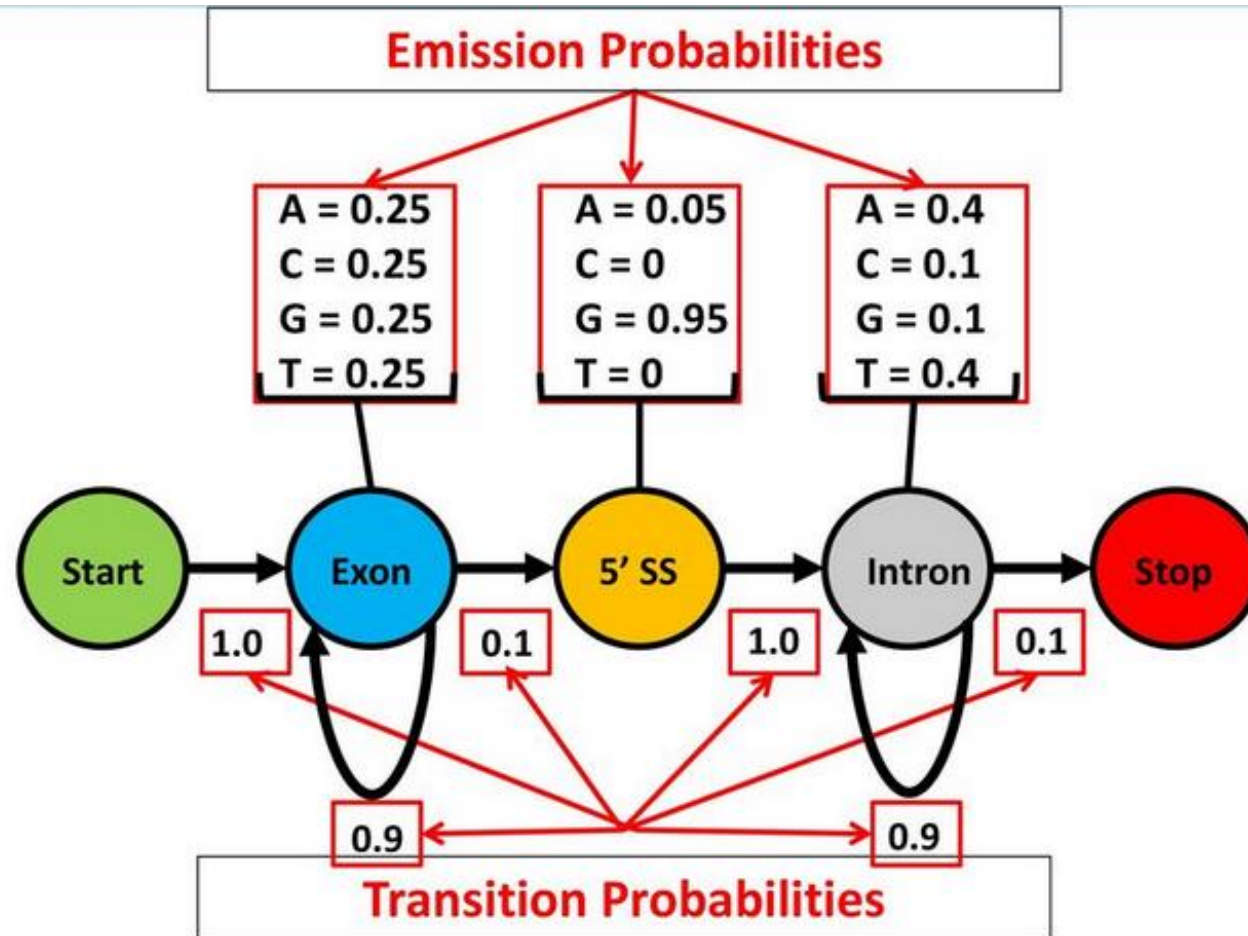
Source: *Introduction to HMMs*, Weisstein



Splice Site

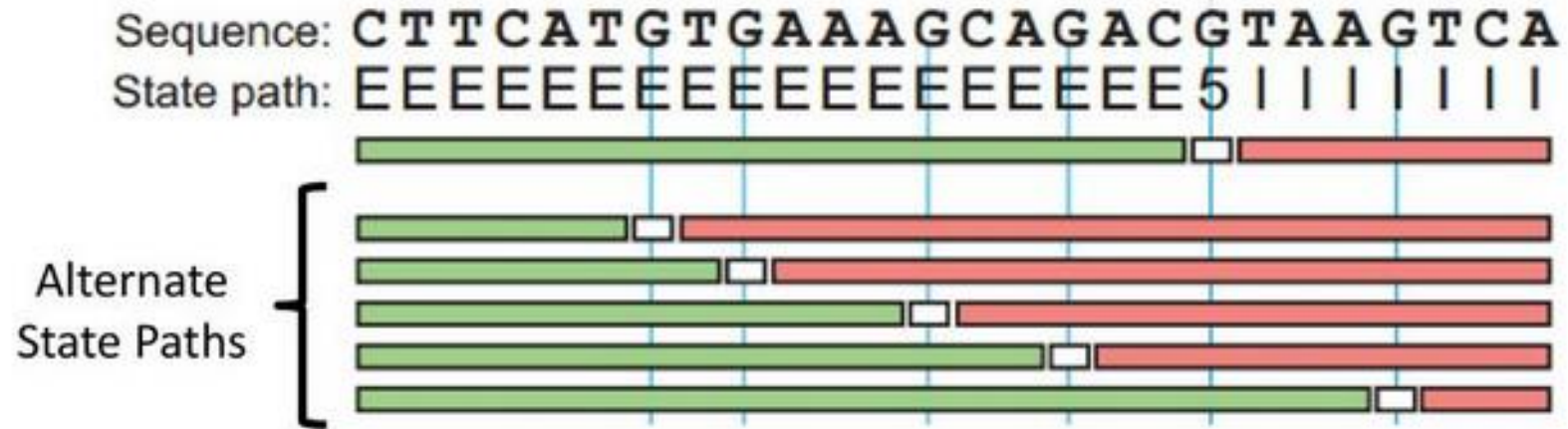
# HMM Probabilities

The probability of switching from one state type to another (ex. Exon - Intron).



Source: *Introduction to HMMs*, Weisstein

# HMM Probabilities

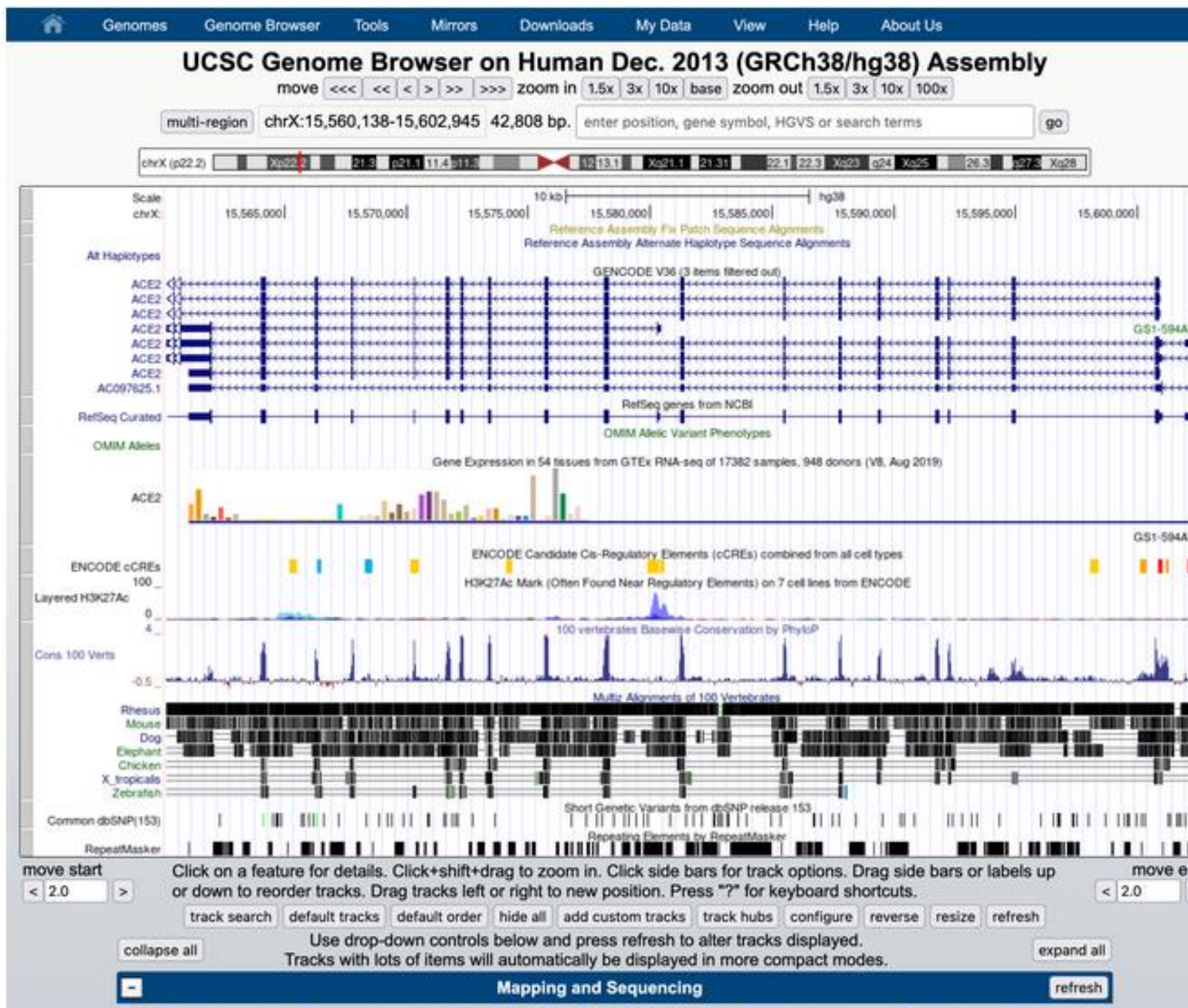


- A **state path** is the list of states (E: exon; I: intron; 5: 5' splice junction).
- An HMM can produce many state paths for a single sequence.
- We use an algorithm to determine what is the most likely path given the emissions:
  - **Viterbi algorithm:**
    - Calculates a transition matrix.
    - Use dynamic programming to find the most probable path

# Eukaryotic gene prediction

- We must train or know intron-exon and exon-intron junctions.
- The gene finder must find promoter motifs.
- Must have ORF awareness.
- HMMs are the core of several gene prediction algorithms:
  - GenScan
  - Augustus
  - GeneMark
  - GRAIL
  - Twinscan
- Gene prediction accuracy depends partly on transition probabilities calculated based on the training data.





# Thursday Lab10

Gene prediction in prokaryotes

GeneMarkS-2 (<https://genemark.bme.gatech.edu/>)