

**CO7100/CO7200**  
**Algorithms for Bioinformatics**  
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- Processing biological data often requires complex computations on large data volumes.
- Efficient algorithms are needed to solve such processing tasks.
- This module teaches the basic concepts of algorithms in the context of bioinformatics.
  - Design principles
  - Analysis of algorithms
  - Algorithm implementation in Java
  - Probabilistic models

- String matching
- Pairwise sequence alignment
- Hidden Markov models
- Restriction site mapping
- Multiple sequence alignment
- Phylogenetic trees
- Genome rearrangement

- [DEKM] R. Durbin, S. Eddy, A. Krogh, G. Mitchison: **Biological sequence analysis – Probabilistic models of proteins and nucleic acids.** Cambridge University Press, 1998.
- [JP] N.C. Jones, P.A. Pevzner: **An introduction to bioinformatics algorithms.** MIT Press, 2004.
- [CLRS] T.H. Cormen, C.E. Leiserson, R.L. Rivest, C. Stein: **Introduction to Algorithms, Second Edition.** MIT Press, 2001.
- [G] D. Gusfield: **Algorithms on Strings, Trees, and Sequences.** Cambridge University Press, 1997.

- CO7100: 50% Coursework, 50% Exam  
CO7200: 40% Coursework, 60% Exam
- Coursework (see module webpage for dates):
  - 2 problem-based worksheets:
    - Hand in to me at the beginning of the first Tuesday class on the day of the deadline
  - 1 programming assignment:
    - Submit by 11.59pm on the day of the deadline, departmental hand-in system

The three pieces of coursework contribute 30%, 30% and 40% to the coursework mark.

- Additional unassessed worksheets

# Introduction to algorithms

- Algorithm: set of rules for solving a problem in a finite number of steps
- “al-kawarizmi”, a ninth-century Persian mathematician
- machine independent and language independent
- described in natural language or **pseudo-code**
- can be implemented in any programming language, e.g. Java

# Pseudocode: Assignments

- Assignment statements:

$$i \leftarrow 5$$
$$j \leftarrow i + 7$$

Assign the value on the right-hand side to the variable on the left-hand side.

- Array access:

$$A[1] \leftarrow 8$$
$$A[2] \leftarrow 5$$
$$i \leftarrow 1$$

**print**  $A[i]$

An array is a vector of variables of the same type.



# Pseudocode: Conditionals

- if-statements:

```
if  $i = 0$  then  
  | print "i is zero"
```

*or*

```
if  $i = 0$  then  
  | print "i is zero"  
else if  $i > 0$  then  
  | print "i is positive"  
else  
  | print "i is negative"
```

Execute commands based on whether a condition is true.

# Pseudocode: for-Loops

- for-loop:

```
 $s \leftarrow 0$   
for  $i \leftarrow 5$  to 10 do  
   $s \leftarrow s + i$   
print  $s$ 
```

The body of the for-loop is executed for  $i = 5, i = 6, \dots, i = 10$ .

This for-loop outputs 45 (it calculates  $5 + 6 + 7 + 8 + 9 + 10$ ).

- while-loop:

```
 $i \leftarrow 0$   
while  $i * i \leq 10000$  do  
  | print  $i * i$   
  |  $i \leftarrow i + 1$ 
```

The body of the while-loop is executed as long as the while-condition holds.

If the while-condition is false initially, the body of the loop is not executed at all.

- Function definition:

**Algorithm** Fibonacci( $n$ )

**Input:** *positive integer  $n$*

**Output:**  *$n$ -th Fibonacci number*

$F[1] \leftarrow 1$

$F[2] \leftarrow 1$

**for**  $i \leftarrow 3$  **to**  $n$  **do**

$F[i] \leftarrow F[i - 1] + F[i - 2]$

**return**  $F[n]$

Defines a function Fibonacci that takes a number  $n$  as parameter and computes the  $n$ -th Fibonacci number.

- Calling a function:

**print** Fibonacci(10)

# Aspects of Algorithms

- Modelling the problem  
(often: statistical considerations)
- Designing an algorithm
  - divide-and-conquer, dynamic programming, greedy, backtracking, etc.
- Analysing the algorithm (worst case, average case)
- Algorithm implementation
- Experimental evaluation

# Time complexity

- Running-time of the algorithm
- Want: general statement, not specific to machine, implementation and input
- Time complexity measured as number of elementary steps, specified as function of input size (or other parameters)
- Constant factors are usually ignored and the big-oh notation is used.
- Running-time  $O(n^2)$  can mean  $0.5 \cdot n^2 - 7$  or  $20n^2 + 10n + 3$ , for example.

# Big-oh notation

- Formally, for functions  $f$  and  $g$  that map natural numbers to natural numbers, we say that  $f$  is  $O(g)$  if there are constants  $n_0 \in \mathbb{N}$  and  $c \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $f(n) \leq c \cdot g(n)$  for all  $n$  larger than  $n_0$ .
- Intuitively, “ $f$  is  $O(g)$ ” means “ $f$  is smaller or equal to  $g$  multiplied by an appropriate factor, for all  $n$  that are larger than a certain value  $n_0$ .”
- $0.5n^2 - 7$  is  $O(n^2)$  because  $0.5n^2 - 7 \leq n^2$  for all  $n$ . (choose  $c = 1$  and  $n_0 = 1$ )
- $20n^2 + 10n + 3$  is  $O(n^2)$  because for  $n \geq 10$ :

$$20n^2 + 10n + 3 \leq 20n^2 + n^2 + n^2 = 22n^2$$

(choose  $c = 22$  and  $n_0 = 10$ )

# Worst-case time complexity

- Running-time of an algorithm as a function of the size or of other parameters of the input.
- Example: If the input is a string, it is natural to consider the running-time as a function of the length of the string.
- Worst-case analysis: we want a function  $f$  such that the algorithm makes at most  $f(n)$  steps on **any** input of size  $n$ .
- If we find such an  $f$  and if that  $f$  is  $O(g)$ , we say that the algorithm has running-time (or time complexity)  $O(g)$ .



# Classes of running-times

- linear running-time:  $O(n)$  or  $O(n + m)$
- quadratic running-time:  $O(n^2)$  or  $O(nm)$
- polynomial running-time:  $O(n^k)$  for some constant  $k$
- logarithmic running-time:  $O(\log n)$
- exponential running time:  $O(c^n)$  for some constant  $c > 1$

# Space complexity

- Similar to time complexity, one can also consider the amount of memory space an algorithm needs on inputs of a certain size.
- If a program's memory usage exceeds the main memory, swapping occurs and performance deteriorates.
- Therefore, the space complexity of an algorithm can also be very important.

- Many computational problems are either polynomial-time solvable or NP-hard.
- For NP-hard problems, no polynomial-time algorithm is known, and there is strong evidence (but no proof yet) that no such algorithm exists.
- Best known algorithms for NP-hard problems have exponential time complexity.
- Often impossible to compute optimal solutions for large instances of NP-hard problems in reasonable time.
- NP stands for “non-deterministic polynomial time”.
- A problem that is NP-hard and can be solved non-deterministically in polynomial time is called NP-complete.

# String matching

- String: sequence of symbols over a fixed-size alphabet  $\Sigma$ .
- $\Sigma = \{A, G, C, T\}$  for DNA sequences,  $\Sigma =$  “set of amino acids” for protein sequences.
- String  $X$  of length  $m$  consists of symbols  $X[0], X[1], \dots, X[m-1]$ .
- $X[i..j]$  is substring of  $X$  from position  $i$  to  $j$
- $X[0..i]$ : prefix,  $X[i..m-1]$ : suffix
- **proper** prefix or suffix if not the whole string

# String matching problem

- Input: two strings (the **text**  $T$  of length  $n$  and the **pattern**  $P$  of length  $m$ )
- Output: Does  $P$  occur in  $T$ ? (If yes, output the positions of all occurrences of  $P$  in  $T$ .)
- $P$  occurs in  $T$  at position  $i$  if  $P = T[i..i + m - 1]$
- Running-time of string matching algorithm: function of  $n$  and  $m$ .

# A first approach

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## Algorithm 1: Naive String Matching

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**Input:** pattern  $P$ , text  $T$

**Output:** all occurrences of  $P$  in  $T$

$m \leftarrow P.\text{length}$

$n \leftarrow T.\text{length}$

**for**  $i \leftarrow 0$  **to**  $n - m$  **do**

$f \leftarrow \text{true}$

**for**  $j \leftarrow 0$  **to**  $m - 1$  **do**

**if**  $T[i + j] \neq P[j]$  **then**

$f \leftarrow \text{false}$

**break**

**if**  $f = \text{true}$  **then**

**print** “pattern occurs in position”  $i$

---

- Outer for-loop:  $n - m + 1$  iterations.
- Number of iterations of the inner for-loop is between 1 and  $m$ .
- In the worst case, number of steps is proportional to  $(n - m + 1)m$ .
- Thus, running-time is  $O(nm)$ .
- Worst-case running-time is achieved if, e.g.,  $T = \text{AAA} \dots \text{AAA}$  and  $P = \text{AAA} \dots \text{AA}$  and  $m \leq n/2$ .
- Okay for small inputs ( $n=1,000$ ,  $m=10$ ), bad for large inputs ( $n=1,000,000$ ,  $m=100,000$ ).



# Idea for improvement

$T$ : 

A	A	A	A	C
---	---	---	---	---

$P$ : 

A	A	A	C
---	---	---	---

(a)

$T$ : 

A	A	A	A	C
---	---	---	---	---

$P$ : 

A	A	A	C
---	---	---	---

(b)

- When checking for an occurrence in position 0, a mismatch in position 3 is detected, see (a).
- When checking for an occurrence in position 1, the two symbols in position 1 and 2 are checked again, see (b). But we already **know** that they match!
- Idea: Avoid such redundant work ➡ Knuth-Morris-Pratt algorithm

# Avoiding redundant work

- Assume we have found that the first  $q$  symbols of  $P$  match  $T$  starting at position  $i$ , but the  $q + 1$ -th symbol does not match.
- We want to determine the next possible starting position (after  $i$ ) at which  $P$  could possibly occur in  $T$ .
- We also want to avoid comparing symbols that we already know a second time.
- For this, we can exploit the knowledge that the first  $q$  symbols of  $P$  match  $T$  from position  $i$ .

# The prefix function

- Define **prefix function**  $\pi$  for pattern  $P$  as follows:

*For  $q = 1, 2, \dots, m$ ,  $\pi[q]$  is the largest value of  $k$  such that  $k < q$  and  $P[0..k-1]$  is a suffix of  $P[0..q-1]$ .*

- For  $k = 0$ ,  $P[0..k-1]$  is the empty string.
- $\pi[q]$  is the length of the longest proper suffix of  $P[0..q-1]$  that is also a prefix of  $P$ .

# How does it help?

- Assume that  $q$  symbols of  $P$  match  $T$  from position  $i$  to  $j = i + q - 1$ , while there is a mismatch at position  $j + 1$ .
- What is the next potential match?  
The one where  $P$  is aligned to  $T$  in such a way that its first  $\pi[q]$  symbols match positions  $j - \pi[q] + 1$  to  $j$ .
- Next thing to check is whether the next symbol of the pattern matches the symbol in position  $j + 1$  of the text.
- In this way we avoid comparing symbols of the text up to position  $j$  a second time.

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## Algorithm 2: KMP Algorithm

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**Input:** pattern  $P$ , text  $T$

**Output:** all occurrences of  $P$  in  $T$

$m \leftarrow P.\text{length}$

$n \leftarrow T.\text{length}$

$\pi \leftarrow \text{Compute-Prefix-Function}(P)$

$q \leftarrow 0$

**for**  $i \leftarrow 0$  **to**  $n - 1$  **do**

**while**  $q > 0$  **and**  $P[q] \neq T[i]$  **do**

$q \leftarrow \pi[q]$

**if**  $P[q] = T[i]$  **then**

$q \leftarrow q + 1$

**if**  $q = m$  **then**

**print** "pattern occurs in position"  $i - m + 1$

$q \leftarrow \pi[q]$

---

# Running-time of KMP

- Prefix function can be computed in  $O(m)$ .
- for-loop has  $n$  iterations, and each iteration has a constant number of steps, except for the while-loop.
- Each iteration of the while-loop reduces  $q$ , and  $q$  is increased at most  $n$  times by one.
- Therefore, total work in while-loop is  $O(n)$ .
- Total running-time is  $O(m + n)$ , linear.

---

**Algorithm 3:** Compute-Prefix-Function( $P$ )

---

**Input:** pattern  $P$

**Output:** prefix function  $\pi$  for  $P$

$m \leftarrow P.\text{length}$

$\pi[1] \leftarrow 0$

$k \leftarrow 0$

**for**  $q \leftarrow 2$  **to**  $m$  **do**

**while**  $k > 0$  **and**  $P[k] \neq P[q - 1]$  **do**

$k \leftarrow \pi[k]$

**if**  $P[k] = P[q - 1]$  **then**

$k \leftarrow k + 1$

$\pi[q] \leftarrow k$

---

# Sequence alignment



# Motivation

- Fundamental task in sequence analysis: determine whether two given sequences are related.
- Usually done by aligning the sequences (or parts thereof) and scoring the alignment.
- Assume that sequences diverged from a common ancestor via mutations (insertions, deletions, substitutions).
- Example of alignment of human alpha and beta globin, taken from [DEKM]:

```
HBA_HUMAN  GSAQVKGHGKKVADALTNAVAHVDDMPNALSALSDLHAHKL
            G+ +VK+HGKKV  A+++++AH+D++ +++++LS+LH  KL
HBB_HUMAN  GNPKVKAHGKKVLGAFSDGLAHLNCLKGTFATLSELHCDKL
```

# Gapped alignments

- Gaps (“-” symbols) model insertions or deletions.
- Alignment of human alpha globin and leghaemoglobin from yellow lupin, taken from [DEKM]:

```
HBA_HUMAN  GSAQVKGHGKKVADALTNAVAHV---D--DMPNALSALSDLHAHKL
              ++ ++++H+ KV    + +A  ++              +L+ L+++H+ K
LGB2_LUPLU  NNPELQAHAGKVFKLVYEAAILQLQVTGVVVTDATLKNLGSVHVS KG
```

- This is a structurally plausible alignment.
- But be careful: Sometimes spurious high-scoring alignments between proteins with completely different function and structure are found.

## Global alignment of strings $S$ and $T$ :

- Possibly insert gaps into both strings, resulting in strings  $S'$  and  $T'$  of same length (consisting of **real** symbols and **gap** symbols)
- Write  $S'$  and  $T'$  above each other, aligning corresponding symbols.
- Reasonable assumption:  $S'$  and  $T'$  do not have gap symbols in the same position.
- Compute score of alignment based on aligned pairs of real symbols (residues) and gap penalties.

- Score an alignment by adding up scores for each pair of aligned real symbols and scores for each gap.
- Defined using **substitution matrix** and **gap penalties**.
- Probabilistic interpretation: score corresponds to the logarithm of the relative likelihood that the sequences are related, compared to being unrelated. (We come back to this later.)
- Interpretation assumes that mutations at different positions (sites) of the sequences occur independently. (Reasonable approximation for DNA and protein sequences.)

# Substitution scores

- Specifies score  $s(x, y)$  for each pair  $(x, y)$  of aligned symbols.
- Consider probability of observing  $x$  and  $y$  in related and in unrelated sequences: probability  $p_{xy}$  for related sequences, probability  $q_x q_y$  for unrelated sequences.
- The **odds ratio** is:  $\frac{p_{xy}}{q_x q_y}$ .
- To obtain an additive scoring function, we use the **log-odds ratio**:  $s(x, y) = \log \frac{p_{xy}}{q_x q_y}$ .
- Add  $s(x, y)$  for all pairs  $(x, y)$  of aligned symbols when computing score of an alignment (for alignments without gaps).

# Substitution matrix

- The scores  $s(x, y)$  can be arranged in a matrix; entry in position  $i, j$  represents the score of aligning the  $i$ -th symbol with the  $j$ -th symbol of the alphabet.
- This matrix is called **substitution matrix** or **score matrix**.
- For amino acids,  $20 \times 20$  matrix.
- Popular examples of substitution matrices for protein sequences are the BLOSUM and PAM matrices.
- Entries are usually scaled and rounded to integers for computational efficiency.

# BLOSUM50 matrix

	A	R	N	D	C	Q	E	G	H	I	L	K	M	F	P	S	T	W	Y	V
A	5	-2	-1	-2	-1	-1	-1	0	-2	-1	-2	-1	-1	-3	-1	1	0	-3	-2	0
R	-2	7	-1	-2	-4	1	0	-3	0	-4	-3	3	-2	-3	-3	-1	-1	-3	-1	-3
N	-1	-1	7	2	-2	0	0	0	1	-3	-4	0	-2	-4	-2	1	0	-4	-2	-3
D	-2	-2	2	8	-4	0	2	-1	-1	-4	-4	-1	-4	-5	-1	0	-1	-5	-3	-4
C	-1	-4	-2	-4	13	-3	-3	-3	-3	-2	-2	-3	-2	-2	-4	-1	-1	-5	-3	-1
Q	-1	1	0	0	-3	7	2	-2	1	-3	-2	2	0	-4	-1	0	-1	-1	-1	-3
E	-1	0	0	2	-3	2	6	-3	0	-4	-3	1	-2	-3	-1	-1	-1	-3	-2	-3
G	0	-3	0	-1	-3	-2	-3	8	-2	-4	-4	-2	-3	-4	-2	0	-2	-3	-3	-4
H	-2	0	1	-1	-3	1	0	-2	10	-4	-3	0	-1	-1	-2	-1	-2	-3	2	-4
I	-1	-4	-3	-4	-2	-3	-4	-4	-4	5	2	-3	2	0	-3	-3	-1	-3	-1	4
L	-2	-3	-4	-4	-2	-2	-3	-4	-3	2	5	-3	3	1	-4	-3	-1	-2	-1	1
K	-1	3	0	-1	-3	2	1	-2	0	-3	-3	6	-2	-4	-1	0	-1	-3	-2	-3
M	-1	-2	-2	-4	-2	0	-2	-3	-1	2	3	-2	7	0	-3	-2	-1	-1	0	1
F	-3	-3	-4	-5	-2	-4	-3	-4	-1	0	1	-4	0	8	-4	-3	-2	1	4	-1
P	-1	-3	-2	-1	-4	-1	-1	-2	-2	-3	-4	-1	-3	-4	10	-1	-1	-4	-3	-3
S	1	-1	1	0	-1	0	-1	0	-1	-3	-3	0	-2	-3	-1	5	2	-4	-2	-2
T	0	-1	0	-1	-1	-1	-1	-2	-2	-1	-1	-1	-1	-2	-1	2	5	-3	-2	0
W	-3	-3	-4	-5	-5	-1	-3	-3	-3	-3	-2	-3	-1	1	-4	-4	-3	15	2	-3
Y	-2	-1	-2	-3	-3	-1	-2	-3	2	-1	-1	-2	0	4	-3	-2	-2	2	8	-1
V	0	-3	-3	-4	-1	-3	-3	-4	-4	4	1	-3	1	-1	-3	-2	0	-3	-1	5

# Example

- Alignment:

ADC

RNC

- BLOSUM50 score is:

$$s(A, R) + s(D, N) + s(C, C) = -2 + 2 + 13 = 13$$



# Gap penalties

- Standard method: define gap penalty  $\gamma(g)$  for gaps of length  $g$ .
- **Linear gap penalty:**  $\gamma(g) = -gd$   
for some constant  $d$
- **Affine gap penalty:**  $\gamma(g) = -d - (g - 1)e$   
for constants  $d$  and  $e$ , where  $d$  is the **gap-open** penalty and  $e$  is the **gap-extension** penalty ( $e \leq d$ ).
- For use with BLOSUM50,  $d = 8$  in the linear case and  $d = 12$ ,  $e = 2$  in the affine case are reasonable choices.

# Example

- Alignment:

AR---N

DRAACN

- Score using BLOSUM50:

$$s(A, D) + s(R, R) + \gamma(3) + s(N, N) = -2 + 7 + \gamma(3) + 7 = 12 + \gamma(3).$$

- With  $\gamma(g) = -g \cdot 8$ , the score of the alignment is  $12 - 3 \cdot 8 = 12 - 24 = -12$ .
- With  $\gamma(g) = -12 - (g - 1) \cdot 2$ , the score of the alignment is  $12 - 12 - 2 \cdot 2 = -4$ .

# Alignment algorithms

- For two given strings, we want to compute the (gapped) alignment of highest score.
- Trying out all possible alignments is infeasible (too many).
- Faster algorithms can be obtained using the algorithm design principle of **dynamic programming**:  
Compute optimal solutions for subproblems and then combine these to obtain the optimal solution for the original problem.
- Dynamic programming usually means filling in a matrix (whose entries are solutions to subproblems) and then reading off the solution from the matrix (traceback).

# Needleman-Wunsch algorithm

- Compute global alignment of given strings  $X$  and  $Y$  with largest score (for given substitution matrix and linear gap penalties).
- Let  $X$  be of length  $n$  and  $Y$  be of length  $m$ .
- Positions in  $X$  (in  $Y$ ) are indexed from 0 to  $n - 1$  (to  $m - 1$ ).
- Basic idea: compute optimal alignment scores for all pairs of strings  $X[0..i - 1]$  and  $Y[0..j - 1]$  for  $0 \leq i \leq n$ ,  $0 \leq j \leq m$ .

# Equations for subproblems

- Let  $F(i, j)$  be the score of an optimal alignment between  $X[0..i-1]$  and  $Y[0..j-1]$ . Then:

$$F(0, 0) = 0$$

$$F(i, 0) = -id$$

$$F(0, j) = -jd$$

$$F(i, j) = \max \begin{cases} F(i-1, j-1) + s(X[i-1], Y[j-1]) \\ F(i-1, j) - d \\ F(i, j-1) - d \end{cases}$$

- The last equation says that the largest possible score for aligning  $X[0..i-1]$  and  $Y[0..j-1]$  is obtained in one of three ways:
  - $X[i-1]$  is aligned to  $Y[j-1]$ , and to the left of this aligned pair of symbols we use an optimal alignment of  $X[0..i-2]$  and  $Y[0..j-2]$ .
  - $X[i-1]$  is aligned with a gap symbol inserted into  $Y$ , and to the left of this we use an optimal alignment of  $X[0..i-2]$  and  $Y[0..j-1]$ .
  - $Y[j-1]$  is aligned with a gap symbol inserted into  $X$ , and to the left of this we use an optimal alignment of  $X[0..i-1]$  and  $Y[0..j-2]$ .
- This covers all possible cases.

- If the entries of the matrix  $F$  are computed in order of increasing row and column indices (e.g., row by row), the three entries on the right-hand side of the equations have already been computed when  $F(i, j)$  is computed.
- We can compute all entries of  $F$  in time  $O(mn)$ .
- The entry  $F(n, m)$  gives us the score of the optimal alignment.
- How do we get the actual optimal alignment (not only its score)? Traceback!
- Total running-time is  $O(nm)$ .

# Storing traceback information

- Remember for each  $F(i, j)$  which of the three expressions on the right-hand side of the equation gave the maximum.
- For this, use a second matrix  $P$  with:

$$P(i, j) = \begin{cases} \text{D} & \text{if } F(i, j) = F(i-1, j-1) + s(X[i-1], Y[j-1]) \\ \text{T} & \text{if } F(i, j) = F(i-1, j) - d \\ \text{L} & \text{if } F(i, j) = F(i, j-1) - d \end{cases}$$

(D for diagonal, T for top, L for left)

- $P(i, j) = \text{D}$  means: align  $X[i-1]$  and  $Y[j-1]$   
 $P(i, j) = \text{T}$  means: align  $X[i-1]$  with '-'  
 $P(i, j) = \text{L}$  means: align '-' with  $Y[j-1]$



# Constructing the alignment

- $P(n, m)$  tells us the symbols in the last position of the optimal alignment.
- Continue with either  $P(n - 1, m - 1)$  or  $P(n, m - 1)$  or  $P(n - 1, m)$ , depending on  $P(n, m)$ ; that entry tells us the symbols in the next-to-last position.
- Continue until we reach  $P(0, 0)$ .
- This process is called **traceback**.

---

**Algorithm 4:** Needleman-Wunsch

---

```
 $n \leftarrow X.length; m \leftarrow Y.length$   
for  $i = 0$  to  $n$  do  
  for  $j = 0$  to  $m$  do  
    if  $i = 0$  and  $j = 0$  then  $F(i, j) \leftarrow 0$   
    else if  $i = 0$  then  
       $F(i, j) \leftarrow -jd$   
       $P(i, j) \leftarrow L$   
    else if  $j = 0$  then  
       $F(i, j) \leftarrow -id$   
       $P(i, j) \leftarrow T$   
    else  
       $F(i, j) \leftarrow \max\{F(i-1, j-1) + s(X[i-1], Y[j-1]),$   
         $F(i-1, j) - d, F(i, j-1) - d\}$   
      set  $P(i, j)$  to D, T, or L depending on which  
        term yielded the maximum  
  
return  $F(n, m)$ 
```

---

---

**Algorithm 5:** Traceback

---

```
 $n \leftarrow X.length; m \leftarrow Y.length$   
 $X' \leftarrow \text{empty string}; Y' \leftarrow \text{empty string}; i \leftarrow n; j \leftarrow m$   
while  $i + j > 0$  do  
  if  $P(i, j) = D$  then  
    insert  $X[i - 1]$  in the beginning of  $X'$   
    insert  $Y[j - 1]$  in the beginning of  $Y'$   
     $i \leftarrow i - 1; j \leftarrow j - 1$   
  else if  $P(i, j) = T$  then  
    insert  $X[i - 1]$  in the beginning of  $X'$   
    insert - in the beginning of  $Y'$   
     $i \leftarrow i - 1$   
  else  
    insert - in the beginning of  $X'$   
    insert  $Y[j - 1]$  in the beginning of  $Y'$   
     $j \leftarrow j - 1$   
return  $(X', Y')$ 
```

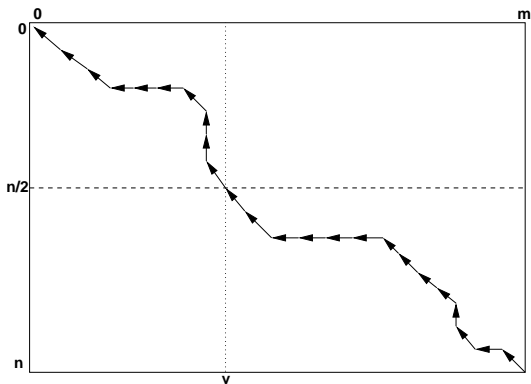
---

- The Needleman-Wunsch algorithm has time complexity  $O(nm)$  (or  $O(n^2)$  if we assume that  $n$  and  $m$  are roughly the same).
- The algorithm uses quadratic space  $O(nm)$  for storing  $F$  and  $P$ .
- For very long sequences, the space usage can become a problem.
- Thus, we are interested in **linear-space** algorithms with running-time  $O(nm)$  for sequence alignment.

# Linear-space sequence alignment

- If we only want the optimal score, we can modify Needleman-Wunsch so that it stores only the current row and the previous row of  $F$  and  $P$ . This already gives a linear-space algorithm.
- But to construct the optimal alignment, it seems that we need the whole  $P$  matrix.
- We can get around this problem by using the **divide-and-conquer** principle:  
Divide the problem into two smaller ones, solve these recursively, and then combine the solutions to get a solution for the original problem.

# Divide and conquer



- Find column  $v$  such that optimal traceback path passes through entry  $(u, v)$ , where  $u = n/2$ .
- Compute optimal alignment of  $X[0..u - 1]$  and  $Y[0..v - 1]$ , and of  $X[u..n - 1]$  and  $Y[v..m - 1]$ , recursively.

# Finding the middle cell

- Compute  $V(i, j)$  for each  $i \geq u$  and  $0 \leq j \leq m$ :  
 $V(i, j) = t$  if the traceback from  $P(i, j)$  visits  $P(u, t)$ .
- $V(i, j) = \begin{cases} j & \text{if } i = u, \\ V(i', j') & \text{if } i > u, F(i, j) \text{ stems from } F(i', j') \end{cases}$
- $V(n, m)$  gives us the desired value  $v$  (the column of row  $u = n/2$  through which the traceback from  $P(n, m)$  passes).
- Can compute  $F(n, m)$  and  $V(n, m)$  in linear space,  $O(m)$ , by storing only current and previous row.
- Thus, total space requirement of resulting algorithm is linear.

- Denote the running-time for input strings of length  $m$  and  $n$  by  $T(n, m)$ .
- Recurrence relation:

$$T(n, m) \leq \begin{cases} O(m), & \text{if } n \text{ is bounded by a constant} \\ hnm + T(n/2, v) + T(n/2, m - v), & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

- Here,  $hnm$  (with suitable  $h$ ) is the time to compute  $v$  and to combine the two optimal alignments obtained from the recursive calls.
- Solving this recurrence yields that  $T(n, m)$  is  $O(nm)$ .
- Thus, we have an algorithm for optimal global alignments with linear gap penalties that uses linear space  $O(n + m)$  and has time complexity  $O(nm)$ .



# General gap penalties

- Arbitrary gap penalty  $\gamma(g)$  (assuming  $\gamma(g_1) + \gamma(g_2) \leq \gamma(g_1 + g_2)$ )
- Idea: Consider all possible gap starting points when computing  $F(i, j)$ :

$$F(i, j) = \max \begin{cases} F(i-1, j-1) + s(X[i-1], Y[j-1]) \\ \max\{F(k, j) + \gamma(i-k) \mid 0 \leq k \leq i-1\} \\ \max\{F(i, k) + \gamma(j-k) \mid 0 \leq k \leq j-1\} \end{cases}$$

- Running-time  $O(n^3)$  (if  $n$  and  $m$  are roughly the same), space complexity  $O(n^2)$

# Affine gap penalties

- $\gamma(g) = -d - (g - 1)e$
- To get  $O(nm)$  algorithm, keep three matrices:
  - $M(i, j)$  is the largest score of an alignment between  $X[0..i - 1]$  and  $Y[0..j - 1]$  for which  $X[i - 1]$  is aligned to  $Y[j - 1]$ .
  - $I_X(i, j)$  is the largest score of an alignment between  $X[0..i - 1]$  and  $Y[0..j - 1]$  for which  $X[i - 1]$  is aligned to a gap.
  - $I_Y(i, j)$  is the largest score of an alignment between  $X[0..i - 1]$  and  $Y[0..j - 1]$  for which  $Y[j - 1]$  is aligned to a gap.
- Maximum of  $M(n, m)$ ,  $I_X(n, m)$  and  $I_Y(n, m)$  gives score of optimal alignment.

$$M(i, j) = \max \begin{cases} M(i-1, j-1) + s(X[i-1], Y[j-1]) \\ l_X(i-1, j-1) + s(X[i-1], Y[j-1]) \\ l_Y(i-1, j-1) + s(X[i-1], Y[j-1]) \end{cases}$$

$$l_X(i, j) = \max \begin{cases} M(i-1, j) - d \\ l_X(i-1, j) - e \end{cases}$$

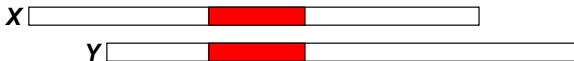
$$l_Y(i, j) = \max \begin{cases} M(i, j-1) - d \\ l_Y(i, j-1) - e \end{cases}$$

(Assuming insertions not followed directly by deletions.)

# Local alignment

# Local alignments

- So far: align  $X$  to  $Y$  (global alignment)
- Now: identify substrings  $X'$  and  $Y'$  that have a high-scoring alignment:



- Useful if two protein sequences may share a common domain, or when comparing extended sections of genomic DNA sequence.
- Part of a sequence can be under strong enough selection to preserve detectable similarity, while the rest accumulates noise.

## Local alignment problem:

- Given: two strings  $X$  and  $Y$ .
- Compute substrings  $X'$  of  $X$  and  $Y'$  of  $Y$  so that the largest-scoring alignment of  $X'$  and  $Y'$  has maximum score.

As scoring model, we use a substitution matrix and linear gap penalties.

Solvable via dynamic programming:

**Smith-Waterman algorithm**

# Dynamic programming matrix

- Let  $n$  be length of  $X$ ,  $m$  be length of  $Y$ .
- Let  $X_i = X[0..i-1]$  denote the prefix of  $X$  of length  $i$ ;  $X_0$  is the empty string. (Define  $Y_j$  analogously.)
- Define dynamic programming matrix  $F$ :  
 $F(i, j)$  is the largest score of an alignment between any suffix  $X'$  of  $X_i$  and any suffix  $Y'$  of  $Y_j$ .
- Once  $F$  has been computed, the largest value  $F(i, j)$  gives the score of the best local alignment (and traceback from  $(i, j)$  can construct it).

## Equations for computing $F$ :

$$F(0,0) = 0$$

$$F(i,0) = 0$$

$$F(0,j) = 0$$

$$F(i,j) = \max \begin{cases} 0 \\ F(i-1,j-1) + s(X[i-1], Y[j-1]) \\ F(i-1,j) - d \\ F(i,j-1) - d \end{cases}$$

Difference from Needleman-Wunsch: if a matrix entry is negative, we replace it by 0 (corresponding to  $X'$  and  $Y'$  being the empty string).



# Summary of Smith-Waterman

- Can compute all values  $F(i, j)$  by filling the matrix row by row.
- Create second matrix  $P$  in which  $P(i, j)$  tells us which of the four possible expressions gave the maximum in the computation of  $F(i, j)$ .
- In the end, find largest entry of matrix  $F$ ; assume it is  $F(i_0, j_0)$ .
- This means score of best local alignment is  $F(i_0, j_0)$ , achieved by an alignment of a suffix of  $X_{i_0}$  and a suffix of  $Y_{j_0}$ .
- To construct the alignment (and  $X'$ ,  $Y'$ ), use  $P$  matrix for traceback starting at  $P(i_0, j_0)$  and ending at first  $(i_1, j_1)$  with  $F(i_1, j_1) = 0$ .

# Example

		H	E	A	G	A	W	G	H	E	E
		0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
P		0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
A		0	0	0	5	0	<b>5</b>	0	0	0	0
W		0	0	0	0	2	0	<b>20</b>	<b>12</b>	4	0
H		0	10	2	0	0	0	12	18	<b>22</b>	14
E		0	2	16	8	0	0	4	10	18	<b>28</b>
A		0	0	8	21	13	5	0	4	10	20
E		0	0	6	13	18	12	4	0	4	16

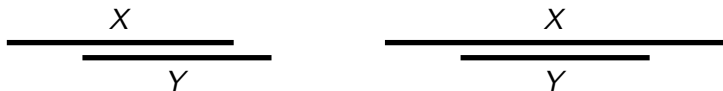
Best local alignment (score 28):  
 AW-HE  
 AWGHE

- Algorithm can be adapted to affine gap penalties or general gap penalties.
- Subtle issues concerning suitable scoring models for local alignments:
  - Expected score for the alignment of a pair of random symbols must be negative.
  - Otherwise, longer alignments will tend to have larger scores than shorter ones, even if they are not biologically meaningful.
  - Then the algorithm would give a global or nearly global alignment as the best local alignment.

# Other alignment variants

Dynamic programming solves also many other alignment problems (simply adapt the equations), e.g.:

- **Repeated matches:** Find different local alignments of parts of one sequence with non-overlapping parts of the other sequence (e.g., find many copies of a repeated domain or motif in a protein).
- **Overlap matches:**



Essentially a global alignment, but do not penalise overhanging ends (useful for DNA fragments).

# Heuristic alignment algorithms

- Dynamic programming algorithms compute optimal alignments (**exact** algorithms), but have running-time at least  $O(nm)$ .
- When checking a sequence database of size  $n$  for alignments with a new sequence  $X$  of length  $m$ , running-time  $O(nm)$  can mean several hours or days.
- **Heuristic** alignment algorithms do not guarantee optimal alignments, but are much faster and often useful in practice.
- Two popular packages: BLAST and FASTA

- BLAST (Basic Local Alignment Search Tool) package
- Collection of programs for comparing gene and protein sequences against others in public databases.
- <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/BLAST/>
- Basic idea: good local alignments are likely to include short stretches of identities or very high scoring matches.
- Initially look for such short stretches and use them as 'seeds' in search of a good local alignment.

- BLAST first makes a list of all 'neighbourhood words' of a fixed length (by default, 3 for protein sequences, 11 for nucleic acids) that would match the query sequence somewhere with a score higher than a threshold.
- It then scans through the database, and whenever it finds a word in this set, it starts a **hit extension** process to extend the possible match in both directions.
- Initial versions of BLAST produced only alignments without gaps, but more recent versions can also compute gapped alignments.

- <http://fasta.bioch.virginia.edu/>
- Multistep approach to finding high-scoring local alignments between two sequences:
  - Starts from exact short word matches.
  - Finds maximal scoring ungapped extensions.
  - Combines them into gapped alignments.
- Highest-scoring gapped alignments are finally realigned using modified dynamic programming.



- In first step, uses lookup table to locate all identically matching words of length *ktup* between the two sequences (*ktup* is typically 1 or 2 for protein sequences and 4 or 6 for DNA).
- Then looks for diagonals with many such matches.
- In second step, considers best diagonals and extends the short matches into maximal scoring ungapped regions (possibly joining several short matches).
- In the third step, combines several ungapped regions into gapped regions.

# Significance of scores

# Significance of scores

- We know how to compute high-scoring local or global alignments between two given sequences.
- How can we assess the significance of the score of an alignment?
  - How do we know if the produced alignment is a biologically meaningful alignment giving evidence for a homology, or just the best alignment between two entirely unrelated sequences?
- Questions can be addressed using statistical considerations.
- We will discuss the Bayesian approach and outline a second approach.
- Consider **only ungapped alignments** here.

- $\Pr[A]$ : probability of event  $A$
- $\Pr[A, B]$ : probability of event  $A$  and event  $B$  occurring together
- $\Pr[A \mid B] = \frac{\Pr[A, B]}{\Pr[B]}$ : conditional probability of event  $A$ , assuming that  $B$  has occurred
- $\Pr[A, B] = \Pr[A \mid B] \cdot \Pr[B]$

# Bayes' Theorem

- Bayes' Theorem:

$$\Pr[A \mid B] = \frac{\Pr[B \mid A] \cdot \Pr[A]}{\Pr[B]}$$

- Marginal probability:

$$\Pr[A] = \sum_i \Pr[A, B_i] = \sum_i \Pr[A \mid B_i] \cdot \Pr[B_i],$$

where the  $B_i$  are disjoint events covering all possible outcomes

# The Bayesian approach

- Consider two probabilistic models for generating an alignment:
  - Model  $M$  (match): related sequences
  - Model  $R$  (random): unrelated sequences
- Let given sequences be

$$X = x_1 x_2 \cdots x_n$$

and

$$Y = y_1 y_2 \cdots y_n$$

- In the end, we would like to know the probability that the sequences  $X$  and  $Y$  are related:

$$\Pr[M \mid X, Y]$$

- Model  $R$
- Assume that each symbol  $c$  has a probability  $q_c$  of appearing in any position of any of the two sequences.
- Probability of observing  $X$  and  $Y$  is:

$$\Pr[X, Y \mid R] = q_{x_1} q_{y_1} q_{x_2} q_{y_2} \cdots q_{x_n} q_{y_n} = \prod_{i=1}^n q_{x_i} q_{y_i}$$

# The match model

- Model  $M$
- Assume that for every pair of symbols  $c$  and  $d$ , there is a probability  $p_{cd}$  of observing  $c$  aligned to  $d$ .
- Probability of observing  $X$  aligned to  $Y$  is:

$$\Pr[X, Y \mid M] = p_{x_1y_1} p_{x_2y_2} \cdots p_{x_ny_n} = \prod_{i=1}^n p_{x_iy_i}$$



## Recall our scoring model

- We used the log-odds ratio  $S$  to motivate our scoring model (log is to base  $e$  here):

$$\begin{aligned} S &= \log \frac{\Pr[X, Y \mid M]}{\Pr[X, Y \mid R]} \\ &= \log \frac{\prod_{i=1}^n p_{x_i y_i}}{\prod_{i=1}^n q_{x_i} q_{y_i}} \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n \log \frac{p_{x_i y_i}}{q_{x_i} q_{y_i}} \end{aligned}$$

This is why we defined  $s(x, y) = \log \frac{p_{xy}}{q_x q_y}$ .

# What we actually want

- Probability that  $X$  and  $Y$  are related:  $\Pr[M \mid X, Y]$ .
- For calculation, must assume *a priori* probability  $\Pr[M]$  for related sequences and  $\Pr[R]$  for unrelated sequences.
- Using Bayes' Theorem:

$$\begin{aligned}\Pr[M \mid X, Y] &= \frac{\Pr[X, Y \mid M] \Pr[M]}{\Pr[X, Y]} \\ &= \frac{\Pr[X, Y \mid M] \Pr[M]}{\Pr[X, Y \mid M] \Pr[M] + \Pr[X, Y \mid R] \Pr[R]} \\ &= \frac{\Pr[X, Y \mid M] \Pr[M] / (\Pr[X, Y \mid R] \Pr[R])}{1 + \Pr[X, Y \mid M] \Pr[M] / (\Pr[X, Y \mid R] \Pr[R])}\end{aligned}$$

# Relation to scoring model

- We have:

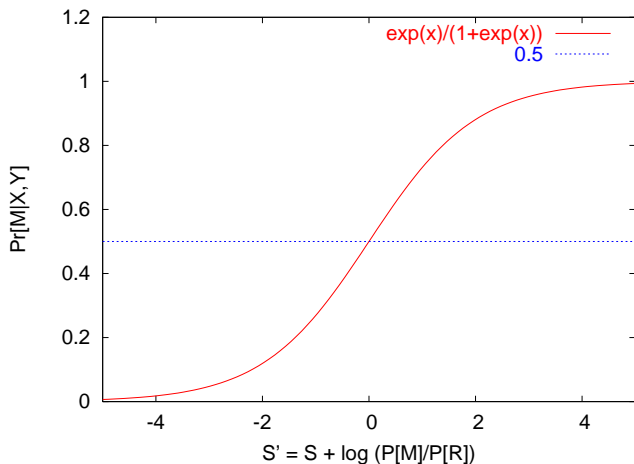
$$\Pr[M \mid X, Y] = \frac{\Pr[X, Y \mid M] \Pr[M] / (\Pr[X, Y \mid R] \Pr[R])}{1 + \Pr[X, Y \mid M] \Pr[M] / (\Pr[X, Y \mid R] \Pr[R])}$$

- With  $S = \log \frac{\Pr[X, Y \mid M]}{\Pr[X, Y \mid R]}$  we get:

$$\log \frac{\Pr[X, Y \mid M] \cdot \Pr[M]}{\Pr[X, Y \mid R] \cdot \Pr[R]} = S + \log \frac{\Pr[M]}{\Pr[R]}$$

- With  $S' = S + \log \frac{\Pr[M]}{\Pr[R]}$ :  $\Pr[M \mid X, Y] = \frac{e^{S'}}{1 + e^{S'}} = \sigma(S')$   
where  $\sigma(x) = \frac{e^x}{1+e^x}$  (**logistic** function).

# Logistic function



- $\sigma(S')$  is 0.5 for  $S' = 0$  and greater than 0.5 for  $S' > 0$ .

# Conclusion from Bayesian approach

- It is meaningful to use a new score of  $S' = S + \log \frac{\Pr[M]}{\Pr[R]}$  for an alignment, where  $S$  is the score defined via the log-odds ratio.
- Note that  $\log \frac{\Pr[M]}{\Pr[R]}$  is usually negative, as  $\Pr[M] < \Pr[R]$  in most cases.
- To see whether the two sequences  $X$  and  $Y$  are likely to be related, compare  $S'$  with 0.

# Example

- Assume we look for alignments of  $X$  to strings in a database of  $N$  strings.
- If we expect that  $X$  will match only one of the  $N$  strings in the database, this corresponds to  $\Pr[M] = 1/N$  and  $\Pr[R] = 1 - 1/N$ .
- In this case,  $\log \frac{\Pr[M]}{\Pr[R]} = \log \frac{1/N}{1-1/N} \approx \log \frac{1}{N} = -\log N$ .
- Hence, should **subtract**  $\log N$  from the log-odds score of each alignment between  $X$  and a database string, and check for positive values.
- Equivalently, only alignments with a log-odds score  $S$  of more than  $\log N$  should be considered significant.

# Extreme value distribution

- Alternative approach to assessing significance of alignment scores.
- Consider scores for alignments of query string  $X$  with strings in database of  $N$  strings.
- Let  $M_N$  be the maximum of the alignment scores of  $X$  with  $N$  random strings (a random variable).
- Distribution of  $M_N$  can sometimes be approximated using *extreme value distribution*:

$$\Pr[M_N \leq x] \simeq \exp(-KNe^{\lambda(x-\mu)})$$

## Using the second approach

- Let optimal alignment of  $X$  with a string  $Y$  in the database have score  $S$ .
- If probability that  $M_N$  is greater or equal to  $S$  is small (say, at most 0.05 or 0.01), conclude that  $X$  and  $Y$  are likely to be related.
- Probability that  $M_N$  is greater or equal to  $S$  can be approximated using extreme value distribution.



# Deriving score parameters

# Deriving score parameters

- Basis of our scoring models is log-odds ratio, using:

$$s(x, y) = \log \frac{p_{xy}}{q_x q_y}$$

- Estimate  $p_{xy}$ ,  $q_x$ ,  $q_y$  from known alignment data:
  - $q_x$ : observed frequency of  $x$
  - $p_{xy}$ : observed frequency of  $x$  aligned to  $y$  in confirmed alignments of related sequences
- Difficulties:
  - Representative sample of sequences + alignments?
  - Alignments of 'related' sequences depend much on whether the sequences have diverged recently or a long time ago (leading to different values of  $p_{xy}$ ).

- PAM: Point Accepted Mutations
- Dayhoff, Schwartz and Orcutt (1978)
- Idea:
  - Obtain substitution data from alignments between very similar proteins
  - Extrapolate this information to longer evolutionary distances.

# PAM matrices: Details

- Use alignments of neighbouring protein sequences in a phylogenetic tree to estimate the probabilities  $\Pr[b \mid a, 1]$  that  $a$  is substituted by  $b$  after divergence time 1.
- Divergence time 1: expected number of substitutions 1%
- Then calculate  $\Pr[b \mid a, t]$  for  $t = 1, 2, \dots$  (probability that  $a$  is substituted by  $b$  after divergence time  $t$ )
- For each  $t$ , scores  $s(a, b \mid t)$  are defined by:

$$s(a, b \mid t) = \log \frac{\Pr[b \mid a, t] q_a}{q_a q_b} = \log \frac{\Pr[b \mid a, t]}{q_b}$$

- Resulting substitution matrices: PAM $t$
- Most widely used matrix is PAM250 (scaled by  $3/\log 2$ ).

# Weaknesses of PAM matrices

- Scores for larger values of  $t$  are calculated from those for  $t = 1$  without taking into account the differences between short time substitutions and long term ones.
- But:
  - Short time substitutions are dominated by amino acid substitutions that arise from single base changes in codon triples.
  - Long term substitutions show all kinds of codon changes.
- Therefore, it is appropriate to use different scoring models depending on the expected divergence of the sequences we are comparing.

- After introduction of PAM, databases with multiple alignments of more distantly related proteins have been made.
- Can use these to derive score matrices more directly.
- Popular example: BLOSUM matrices, introduced by Henikoff and Henikoff in 1992.
- BLOSUM matrices were derived from a set of aligned, ungapped regions from protein families in the BLOCKS database.

- Cluster sequences from each block, putting two sequences in the same cluster when the percentage of identical residues exceeds  $L\%$ .
- Calculate frequencies  $A_{ab}$  of observing residue  $a$  in one cluster aligned to  $b$  in another cluster (normalised by the sizes of the clusters).
- Estimate  $q_a$  and  $p_{ab}$  using

$$q_a = \frac{\sum_b A_{ab}}{\sum_{cd} A_{cd}} \quad \text{and} \quad p_{ab} = \frac{A_{ab}}{\sum_{cd} A_{cd}}.$$

- Define scores as  $s(a, b) = \log \frac{p_{ab}}{q_a q_b}$  (scaled and rounded to integers)

# Popular BLOSUM matrices

- Two popular BLOSUM matrices are:
  - **BLOSUM50**
    - good for gapped alignments
    - obtained for  $L = 50\%$
    - scaled by  $3/\log 2$
  - **BLOSUM62**
    - good for ungapped alignments
    - obtained for  $L = 62\%$
    - scaled by  $2/\log 2$
- Lower values of  $L$  correspond to longer evolutionary time, and are applicable for more distant searches.



# Power of DNA sequence comparison

- After a new gene is found, biologists usually have no idea about its function.
- A common approach to inferring the function of a newly sequenced gene is to use alignment algorithms to find similarities with genes whose function is known.
- Examples of important discoveries (from [JP]):
  - Link between cancer-causing genes and normal growth genes.
  - Elucidating the nature of cystic fibrosis.

# Cancer-causing genes

- In 1984, scientists compared the newly discovered cancer-causing  $\nu$ -sis oncogene with known genes.
- Surprising finding: cancer-causing gene matches a normal gene involved in growth and development, called platelet-derived growth factor (PDGF).
- As a result, scientists became suspicious that cancer might be caused by a normal growth gene being switched on at the wrong time.

# Cystic fibrosis

- Cystic fibrosis is a fatal disease associated with abnormal secretions.
- Diagnosed in children at a rate of 1 in 3900.
- A defective gene causes the body to produce abnormally thick mucus that clogs the lungs and leads to lifethreatening infections.
- More than 10 million Americans are unknown and symptomless carriers of the defective cystic fibrosis gene.
- Each time two carriers have a child, 25% chance that child will have cystic fibrosis.

# Cystic fibrosis discovery

- In 1989, search for the cystic fibrosis gene had been narrowed to a region of 1 million nucleotides on the chromosome 7.
- When that region was sequenced, biologists compared it against a database of known genes.
- Found similarities between some segment within the region and a known gene that codes for **adenosine triphosphate (ATP) binding proteins**. These proteins span the cell membrane multiple times as part of the ion transport channel.
- This is a plausible function for a cystic fibrosis gene, as the disease involves sweat secretions with abnormally high sodium content.