

Introduction to cis-regulation

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FORMER ADDRESS (1999-2011)

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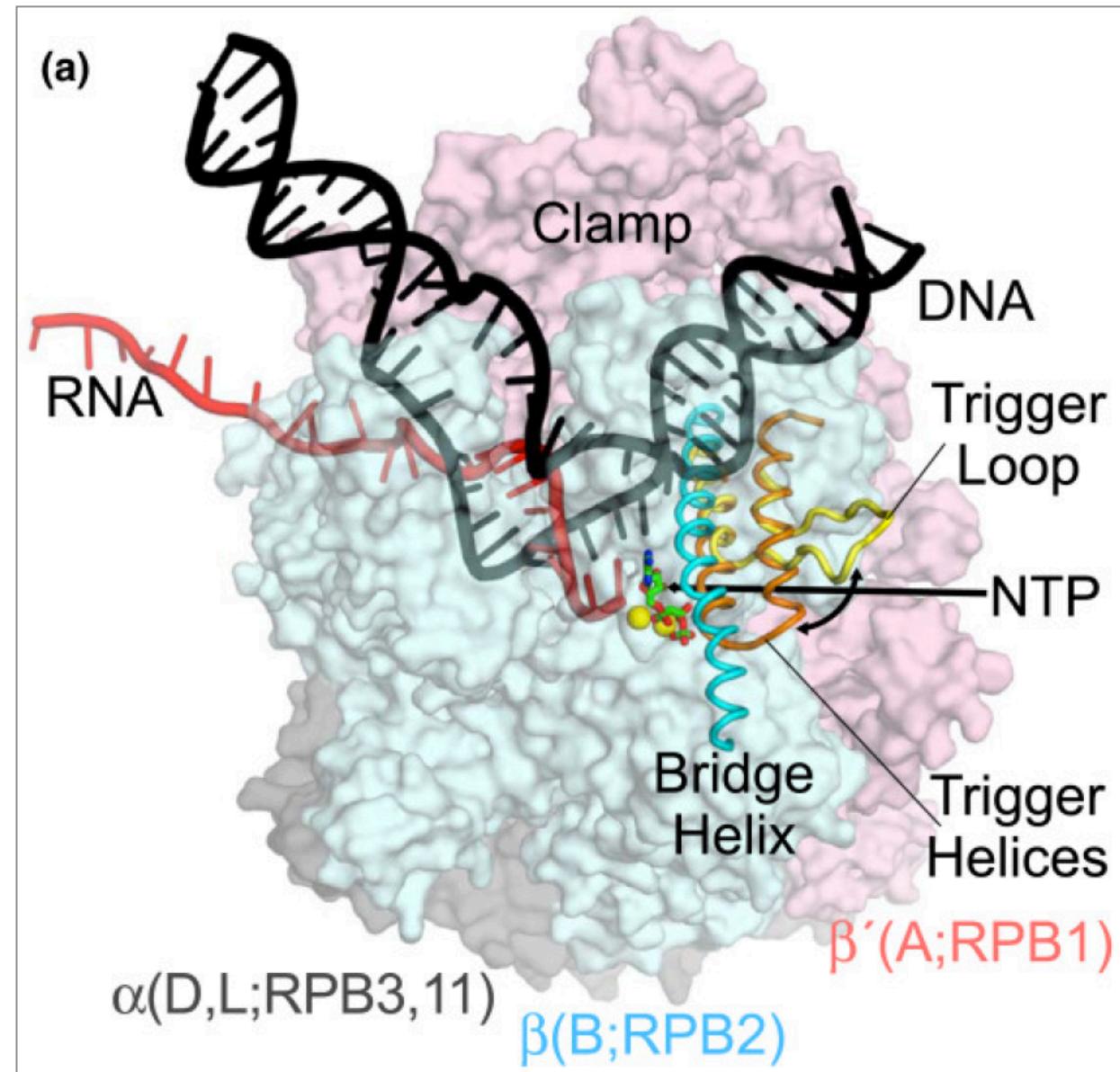
<http://www.bigré.ulb.ac.be/>

Genome sizes - some examples

Species name	Common name	Genome completion	Genome size Mb	Number of genes	Average distance between genes Kb	Coding fraction %	Non-coding fraction %	Repeats %	Transcribed %	Remarks
Bacteria										
<i>Mycoplasma genitalium</i>	<i>Mycoplasma</i>	1995	0.6	481	1.2	90	10			Small igenome (intracellular parasite)
<i>Haemophilus influenzae</i>		1995	1.8	1 717	1.0	86	14			First sequenced bacterial genome
<i>Escherichia coli</i>	<i>Enterobacteria</i>	1997	4.6	4 289	1.1	87	13			
Yeasts										
<i>Saccharomyces cerevisiae</i>	<i>Budding yeast</i>	1996	12	6 286	1.9	72	28			First sequenced eukaryote genome
Animals										
<i>Caenorhabditis elegans</i>	<i>Nematod worm</i>	1998	97	19 000	5	27	73			First sequenced metazoan genome
<i>Drosophila melanogaster</i>	<i>Fruit fly</i>	2000	165	16 000	10	15	85			
<i>Ciona intestinalia</i>			174	14 180	12					
<i>Danio rerio</i>	<i>Zebrafish</i>		1 527	18 957	81					
<i>Xenopus laevis</i>	<i>Xenopus (amphibian)</i>		1 511	18 023	84					
<i>Gallus gallus</i>	<i>Chicken</i>		2 961	16 736	177					
<i>Ornithorhynchus anatinus</i>	<i>Platypus</i>		1 918	17 951	107					
<i>Mus musculus</i>	<i>Mouse</i>	2002	3 421	23 493	146					
<i>Pan troglodytes</i>	<i>Chimp</i>		2 929	20 829	141					
<i>Homo sapiens</i>	<i>Human</i>	2001	3 200	21 528	149	2	98	46	28	(20001=draft version)
1000 génomes humains		> 2008								Project launched January 2008
Plants										
<i>Arabidopsis thaliana</i>		2001	120	27 000	4	30	70			First plant genome
<i>Oryza sativa</i>	<i>Rice</i>		390	37 544	10					
<i>Zea mays</i>	<i>Maize</i>		2 500	50 000	50		50			Approximate number of genes
<i>Triticum aestivum</i>	<i>Wheat</i>		16 000							Hexaploid genome
<i>Lilium</i>	<i>Lilium</i>		120 000							
<i>Psilotum nudum</i>	<i>Fern-like plant</i>		250 000							

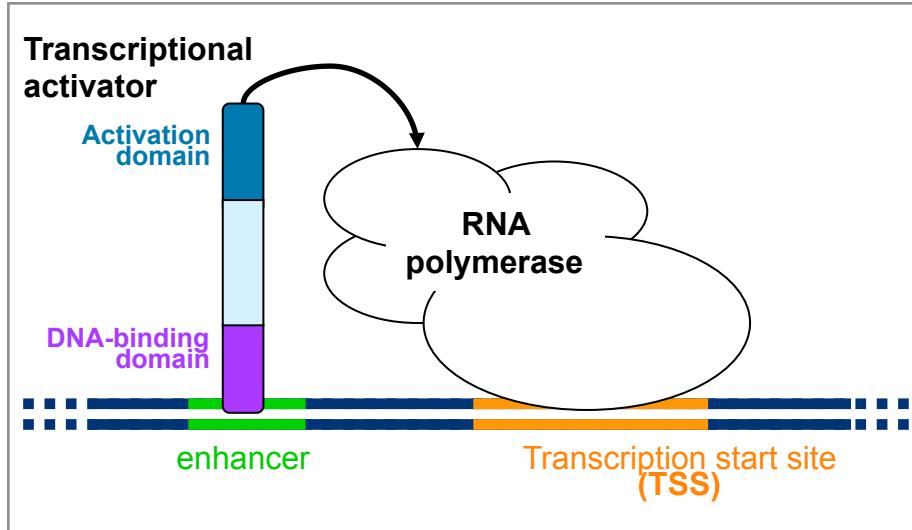
Transcriptional activation and repression

RNA polymerase 3D model

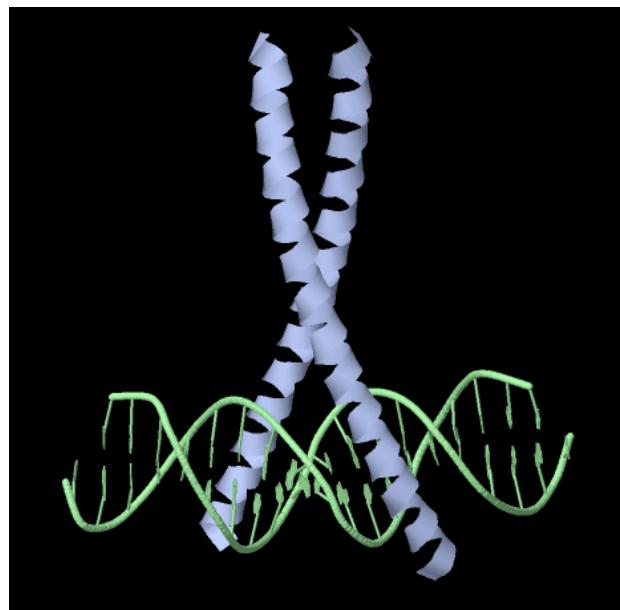


- Hein and Landick. The bridge helix coordinates movements of modules in RNA polymerase. BMC Biol (2010) vol. 8 pp. 141, [Figure 1](#)

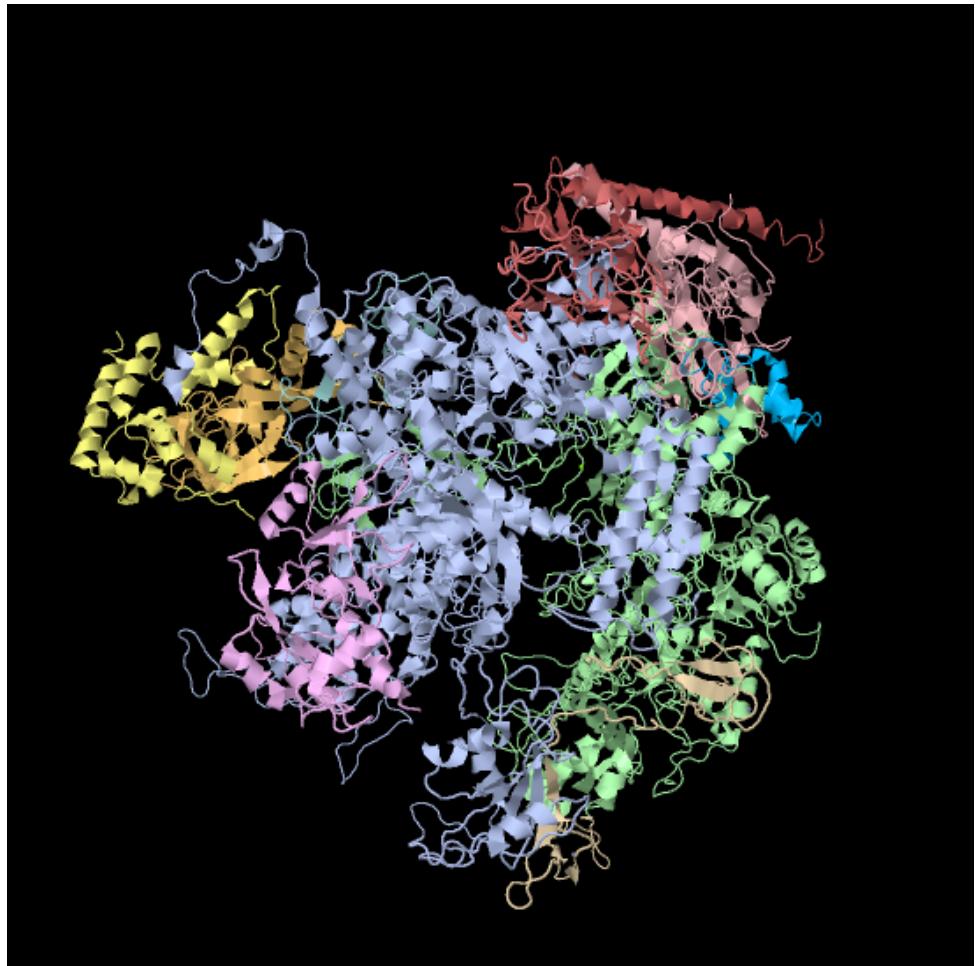
Transcriptional activation



Gcn4p from *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*
PDB 2DGC <http://www.rcsb.org/pdb/explore.do?structureId=2DGC>

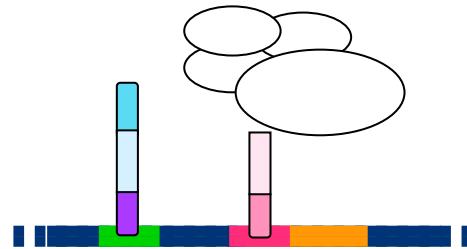


RNA polymerase II from *Schizosaccharomyces pombe*.
PDB 3H0G <http://www.rcsb.org/pdb/explore.do?structureId=3H0G>

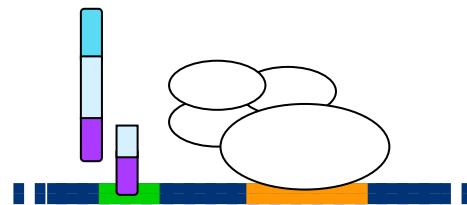


Transcriptional repression

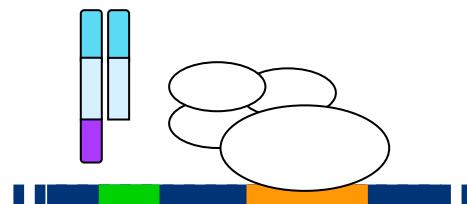
- The concept of transcriptional repression encompasses a variety of molecular mechanisms.



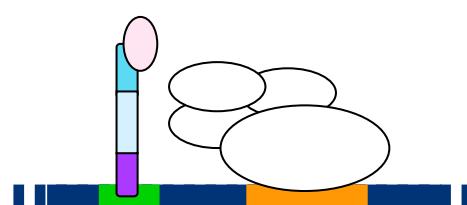
Prevent RNA polymerase from accessing DNA
(e.g. many bacterial repressors)



Competition for factor binding site
(e.g. yeast GATA factors)



Factor titration
(e.g. Drosophila Helix-loop-helix)

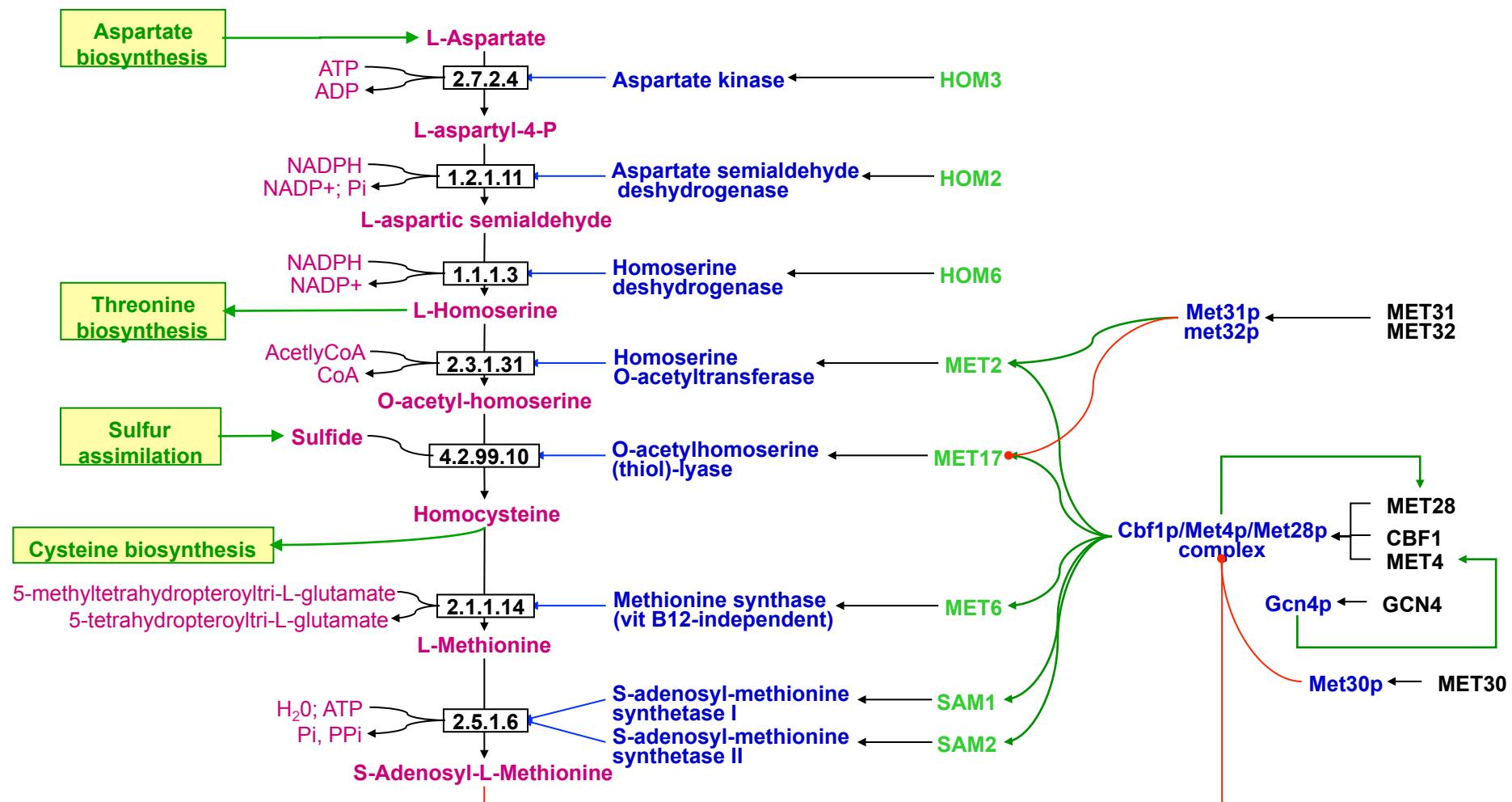


Modify transcription factor conformation -> prevent it from interacting with RNA-polymerase
(e.g. yeast Gal80p)

Cis-regulation of biological processes : some examples

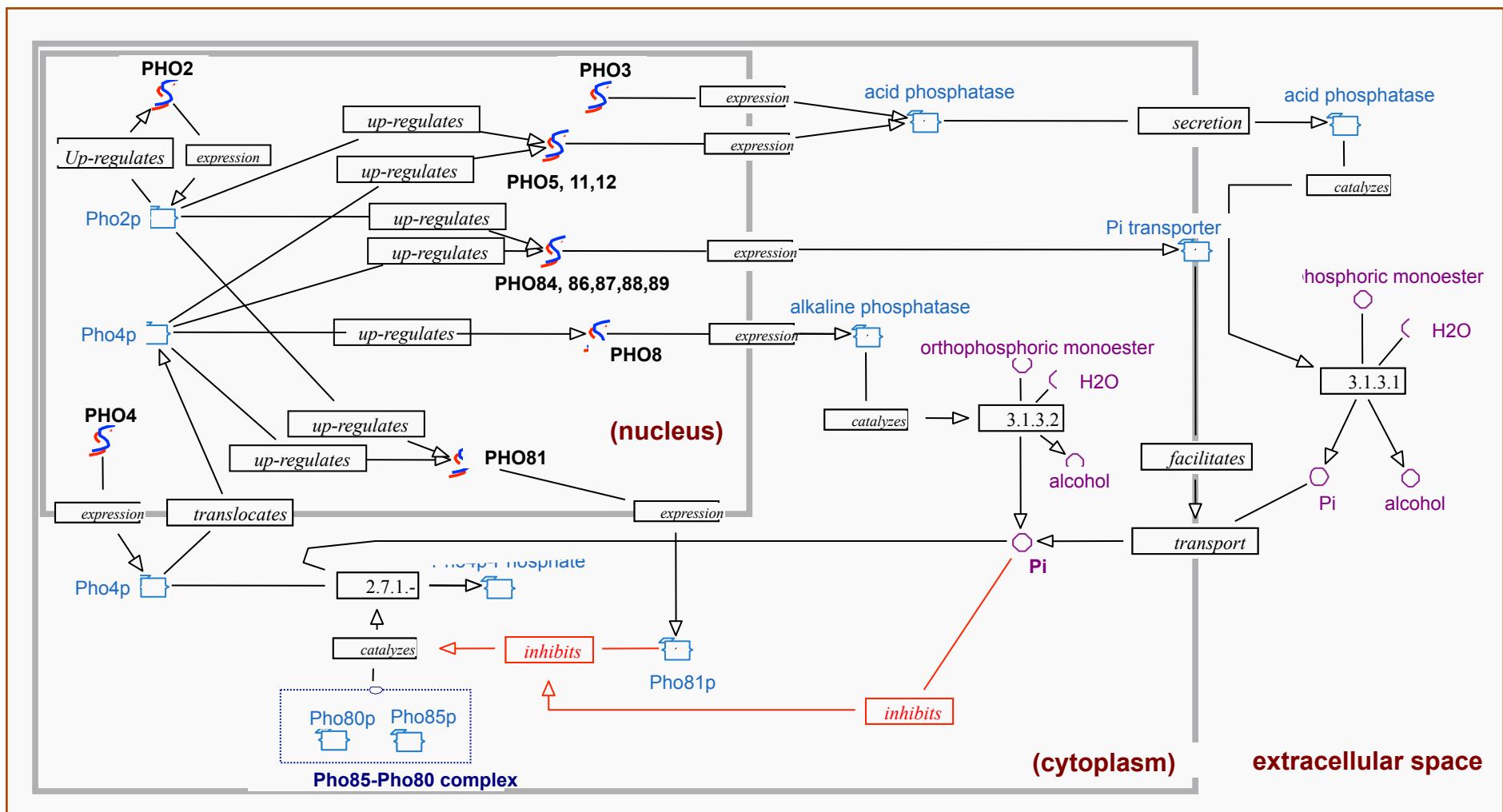
Methionine Biosynthesis in *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*

- In the budding yeast, the enzymes involved in methionine biosynthesis are cis-regulated by various transcription factors.
- Those factors are themselves trans-regulated by the end product, thereby creating a negative feed-back loop that ensures homeostasis.



Phosphate utilization in *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*

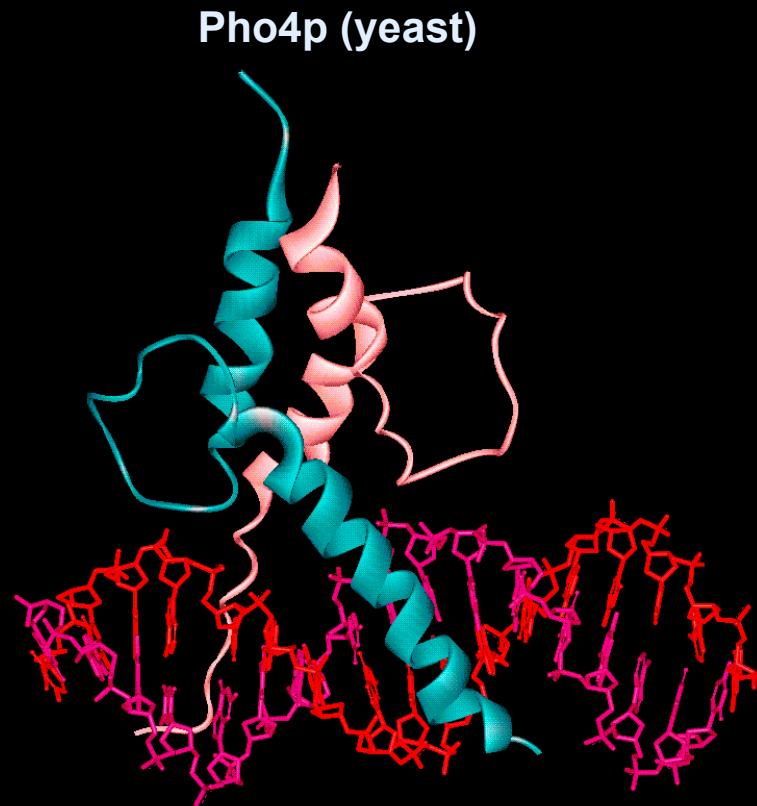
- The budding yeast responds to a phosphate stress by expressing
 - Two types of phosphatases: alkaline (Pho8p) and acid (Pho5p, Pho11p, Pho12p).
 - Several phosphate transporters (Pho84p, Pho86p, Pho87p, Pho88p, Pho89p).
 - Regulatory proteins (Pho81p) ensuring a negative feedback loop
- When Phosphate concentration is high, the transcriptional activator (Pho4p) is inactivated.



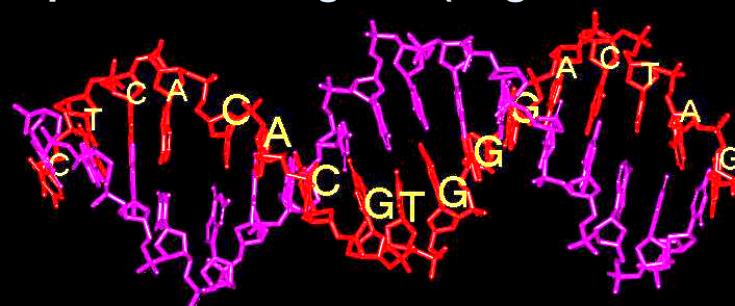
Regulatory Sequence Analysis

***Transcription factors (TF)
and their binding sites (TFBS)***

Interface between the yeast Pho4p protein and one of its binding sites

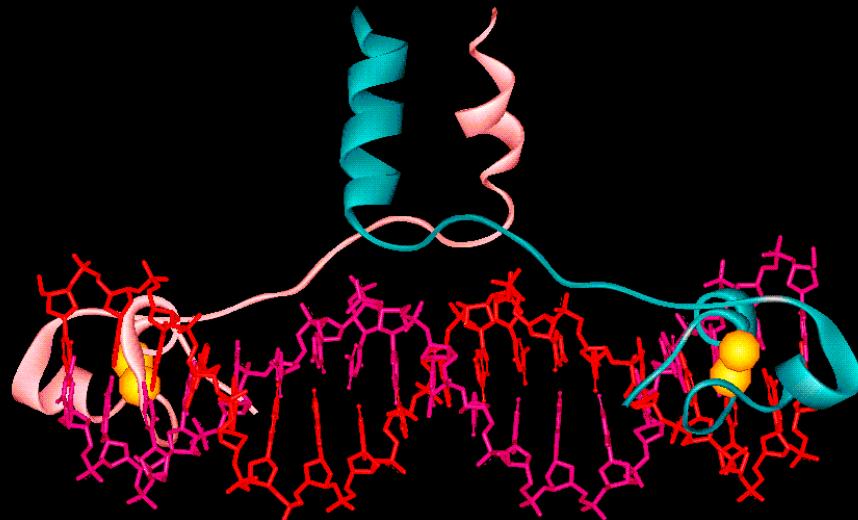


Pho4p DNA binding site (oligonucleotide)

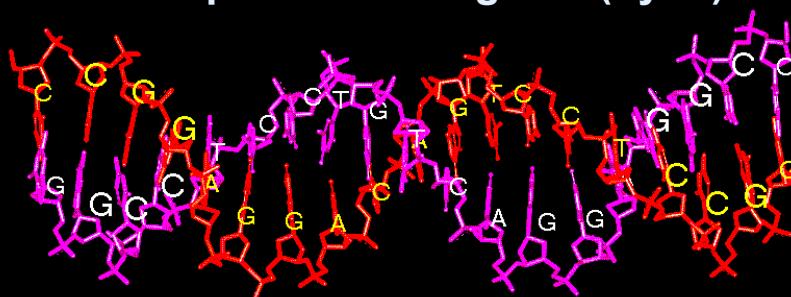


Interface between the yeast Gal4p protein and one of its binding sites

Gal4p (yeast)



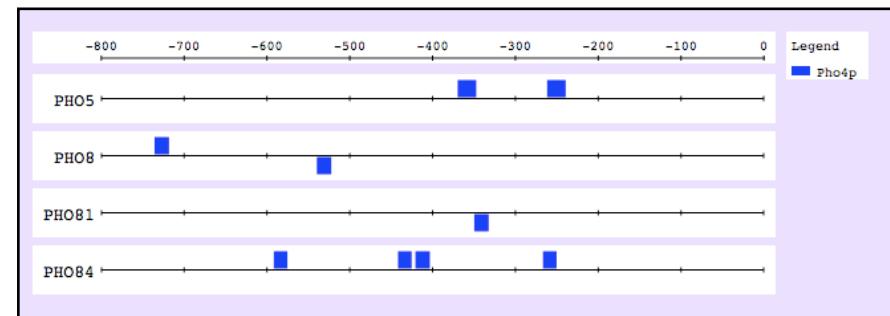
Gal4p DNA binding site (dyad)



S.cerevisiae Pho4p binding sites (TFBS)

Gene	Ft_type	Factor	Strand	left	right	Sequence
PHO5	site	Pho4p	D	-370	-347	TAAATTAG CACGT TTTCGCATAGA
PHO5	site	Pho4p	D	-262	-239	TGGCACTCAC ACGT GGGACTAGCA
PHO8	site	Pho4p	R	-540	-522	ATCGCTGC ACGT GGGCCGA
PHO8	site	Pho4p	D	-736	-718	ATATTAAGCGTGCGGGTAA
PHO81	site	Pho4p	R	-350	-332	TTATT CG ACGT GCCATAA
PHO84	site	Pho4p	D	-592	-575	TTACG CACGT TTGGTGCTG
PHO84	site	Pho4p	D	-421	-403	TTTCCAGC ACGT GGGGCGG
PHO84	site	Pho4p	D	-442	-425	TAGTTCC ACGT GGACGTG
PHO84	site	Pho4p	DR	-879	-874	aaaagtgt CACGT Gataaaaaat
PHO84	site	Pho4p	D	-267	-250	TAATAACG ACGT TTTTAA

- A **transcription factor binding site (TFBS)** is a **location** within a sequence, where a transcription factor binds specifically.
- The site is characterized by
 - a position (start, end, strand) relative to some reference (chromosome start, gene TSS, ...).
 - a sequence
- A site can be
 - experimentally proven(known site)
 - inferred by some algorithm (predicted site)
- Example
 - binding sites for the yeast transcription factor Pho4p. Coordinates are relative to the start codon.



From binding sites to binding motifs

Definition: transcription factor binding site (TFBS)

- Transcription factor binding site
 - “Position on a DNA molecule where a transcription factor (TF) specifically binds. By extension, the sequence of the bound DNA segment. Note that there is a frequent confusion in the literature between the concepts of binding site and binding motif. We recommend to reserve the term “site” to denote the particular sequence (genomic or artificial) where a factor binds, and the term “motif” for the generic description of the binding specificity, obtained by summarizing the information provided by a collection of sites.”

Definition: transcription factor binding motif (TFBM)

- Transcription factor binding motif
 - “*Representation of the binding specificity of a transcription factor, generally obtained by summarizing the conserved and variable positions of a collection of binding sites. Several modes or representation can be used to describe TFBM: consensus, position-specific scoring matrices, Hidden Markov Models (HMM).*
 - We use the term **motif** (or **pattern**) in the sense of a model representing the specificity of binding for a transcription factor.
 - A motif is generally built from a collection of transcription binding sites.
 - A motif can be described using different formalisms.
 - Consensus string
 - nucleotide alphabet **CACGTGGG**
 - IUPAC alphabet **CACGTGKK**
 - regular expressions. **CACGTG [GT] [GT]**
 - Position-specific scoring matrix (PSSM)
 - Logo representation (Schneider, 1986)
 - Hidden Markov Models (HMM)

Binding specificity

- The binding specificity of Pho4p has been pretty well described (Source : Oshima et al. Gene 179, 1996; 171-177)
- High-affinity sites have the core CACGTG, followed by a few Gs or Cs
- Medium-affinity sites have the core CACGTT, followed by a few Ts.
- Some single-nucleotide mutations are sufficient to prevent the binding.

Gene	Site Name	Sequence	Affinity
PHO5	UASp2	---aCtCaCA CACGTGGG ACTAGC-	high
PHO84	Site D	---TTTCCA GCACGTGGG GCGGA--	high
PHO81	UAS	----TTATG GCACGTGCG AATAA--	high
PHO8	Proximal	GTGATCGCT GCACGTGG CCCGA---	high
group 1	consensus	----- gCACGTGgg ------	high
PHO5	UASp1	--TAAATTAG GCACGTTT TTCGC---	medium
PHO84	Site E	----AATA GCACGTTT TTAATCTA	medium
group 2	consensus	----- cgCACGTTt t-----	medium
Degenerate consensus		----- GCACGTKKk -----	high-med

IUPAC ambiguous nucleotide code		
A	A	Adenine
C	C	Cytosine
G	G	Guanine
T	T	Thymine
R	A or G	puRine
Y	C or T	pYrimidine
W	A or T	Weak hydrogen bonding
S	G or C	Strong hydrogen bonding
M	A or C	aMino group at common position
K	G or T	Keto group at common position
H	A, C or T	not G
B	G, C or T	not A
V	G, A, C	not T
D	G, A or T	not C
N	G, A, C or T	aNy

Non-binding sites

PHO5	UASp3	--TAATTG GCA <u>T</u> GTGCG ATCTC--	No binding
PHO84	Site C	----ACGTC CACGTG <u>G</u> ACTAT--	No binding
PHO84	Site A	----TTTAT CACGTG <u>A</u> CACTTTT	No binding
PHO84	Site B	----TTAC GCACGTT <u>G</u> GTGCTG--	No binding
PHO8	Distal	---TTACCC GCACG <u>C</u> TTAATAT---	No binding

Consensus representation

- The TRANSFAC database contains 8 binding sites for the yeast transcription factor Pho4p
 - 5/8 contain the core of high-affinity binding sites (CACGTG)
 - 3/8 contain the core of medium-affinity binding sites (CACGTT)
- The IUPAC ambiguous nucleotide code allows to represent variable residues.
- 15 letters to represent any possible combination between the 4 nucleotides ($2 - 1 = 15$).
- This representation however gives a poor idea of the relative importance of residues.

R06098 \TCACACGTGGGA\
R06099 \GGCCACGTGCAG\
R06100 \TGACACGTGGGT\
R06102 \CAGCACGTGGGG\
R06103 \TTCCACGTGCGA\
R06104 \ACGCACGTTGGT\
R06097 \CAGCACGTTTTC\
R06101 \TACCAACGTTTTC\

Cons **yvvCACGTkbkn**

IUPAC ambiguous nucleotide code		
A	A	Adenine
C	C	Cytosine
G	G	Guanine
T	T	Thymine
R	A or G	puRine
Y	C or T	pYrimidine
W	A or T	Weak hydrogen bonding
S	G or C	Strong hydrogen bonding
M	A or C	aMino group at common position
K	G or T	Keto group at common position
H	A, C or T	not G
B	G, C or T	not A
V	G, A, C	not T
D	G, A or T	not C
N	G, A, C or T	aNy

Building a position-specific scoring matrix from a collection of sites

Alignment of Pho4p binding sites (TRANSFAC annotations)

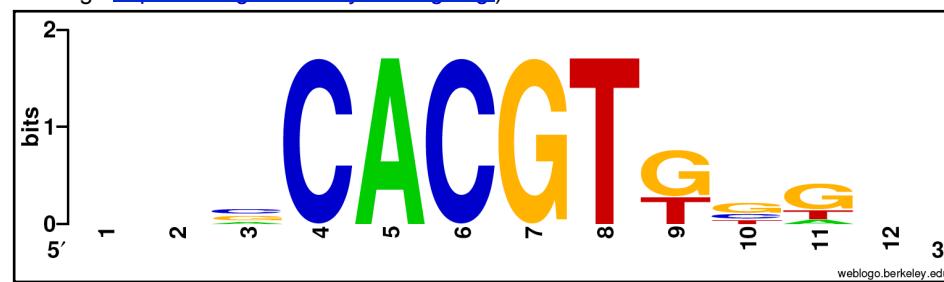
R06098	T	C	A	C	A	C	G	T	G	G	G	A
R06099	G	G	C	C	A	C	G	T	G	C	A	G
R06100	T	G	A	C	A	C	G	T	G	G	G	T
R06102	C	A	G	C	A	C	G	T	G	G	G	G
R06103	T	T	C	C	A	C	G	T	G	C	G	A
R06104	A	C	G	C	A	C	G	T	T	G	G	T
R06097	C	A	G	C	A	C	G	T	T	T	T	C
R06101	T	A	C	C	A	C	G	T	T	T	T	C

Count matrix (TRANSFAC matrix F\$PHO4_01)

Residue\position	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
A	1	3	2	0	8	0	0	0	0	0	1	2
C	2	2	3	8	0	8	0	0	0	2	0	2
G	1	2	3	0	0	0	8	0	5	4	5	2
T	4	1	0	0	0	0	0	8	3	2	2	2
Sum	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8

Tom Schneider's sequence logo

(generated with Web Logo <http://weblogo.berkeley.edu/logo.cgi>)



TRANSFAC record for the yeast PHO4 matrix (ID M00064)

AC M00064

XX

ID F\$PHO4_01

XX

DT 13.04.1995 (created); hiwi.

DT 18.07.2000 (updated); ewi.

CO Copyright (C), Biobase GmbH.

XX

NA PHO4

XX

DE PHO4

XX

BF T00690 PHO4; Species: yeast, *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*.

XX

PO	A	C	G	T	
01	1	2	1	4	N
02	3	2	2	1	N
03	2	3	3	0	V
04	0	8	0	0	C
05	8	0	0	0	A
06	0	8	0	0	C
07	0	0	8	0	G
08	0	0	0	8	T
09	0	0	5	3	K
10	0	2	4	2	B
11	1	0	5	2	G
12	2	2	2	2	N

XX

BA 8 binding sites from 4 genes

XX

CC compiled sequences

XX

RN [1]; RE0002931.

RX PUBMED: 1327757.

RA Fisher F., Goding C. R.

RT Single amino acid substitutions alter helix-loop-helix protein specificity for bases flanking the core CANNTG motif

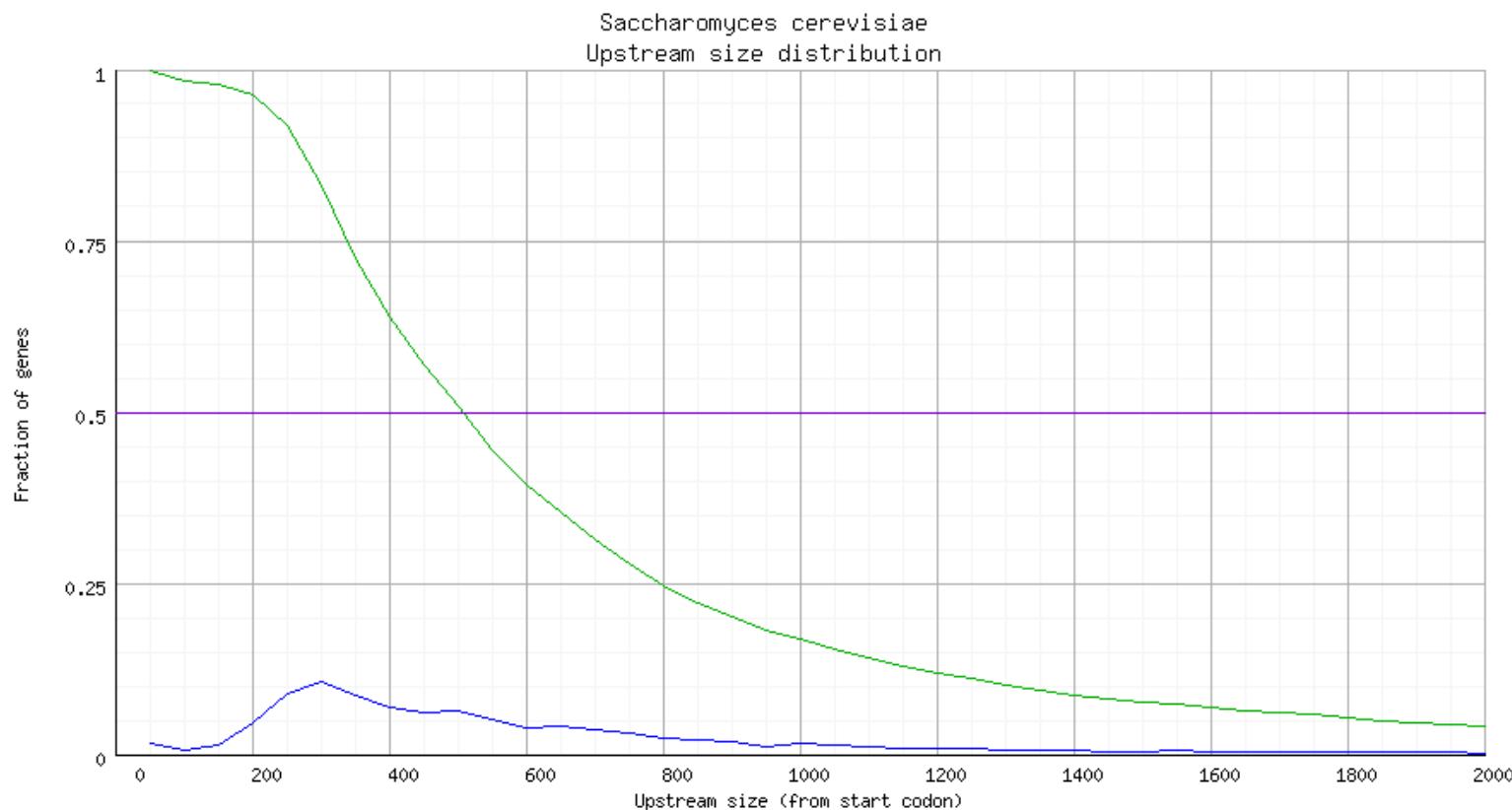
RL EMBO J. 11:4103-4109 (1992).

XX

//

Characteristics of yeast regulatory regions

- In the yeast *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*
 - Cis-regulatory elements are located in the non-coding region upstream the regulated gene
 - Strand-insensitive
 - Activity does not depend on the strand
 - Within ~800 bp from the start codon
 - Activity does not depend on precise position



*Experimental methods for characterizing
cis-regulatory elements*

Experimental methods for characterizing transcription factor binding sites

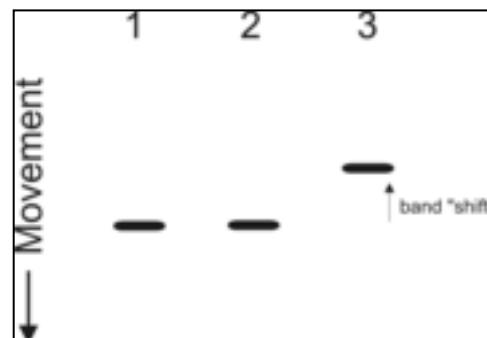
DNAse footprint

- Galas & Schmitz (1978). DNAse footprinting: a simple method for the detection of protein-DNA binding specificity. Nucleic Acids Res. 30: 1851-1858.
- The residues participating in the DA-TF interface are protected from the DNase.
- Sites are characterized very precisely (typically 6-20bp)

EMSA

- Garner & Revzin (1981). A gel electrophoretic method for quantifying the binding of proteins to specific DNA regions: applications to components of the *Escherichia coli* lac operon regulatory system. Nucleic Acids Res. 5: 3157-3170.
 - Electrophoretic mobility shift assay (also called **gel shift**).
 - Larger fragments than footprints: sometimes 50bp or more.
- The concept of “binding site” itself can be questioned.
- Transcription factors have a higher affinity for DNA than for the nucleoplasm.
 - According to some models, they can bind anywhere on DNA, but they spend more time on some sites than on other ones.
 - One could thus consider a continuum of binding affinities.

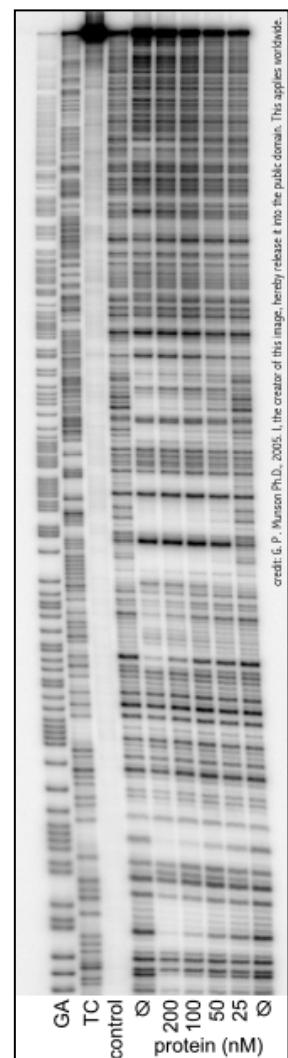
Gel shift (EMSA)



Lane 1 is a negative control, and contains only DNA. Lane 2 contains protein as well as a DNA fragment that, based on its sequence, does not interact. Lane 3 contains protein and a DNA fragment that does react; the resulting complex is larger, heavier, and slower-moving. The pattern shown in lane 3 is the one that would result if all the DNA were bound and no dissociation of complex occurred during electrophoresis. When these conditions are not met a second band might be seen in lane 3 reflecting the presence of free DNA or the dissociation of the DNA-protein complex.

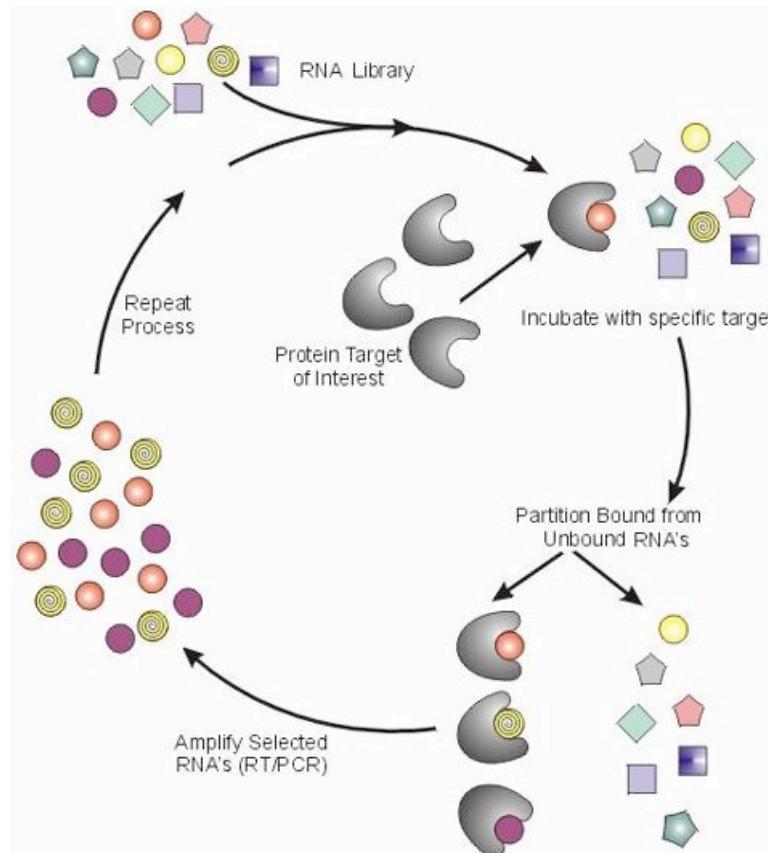
Source: Wikipedia

DNAse footprint



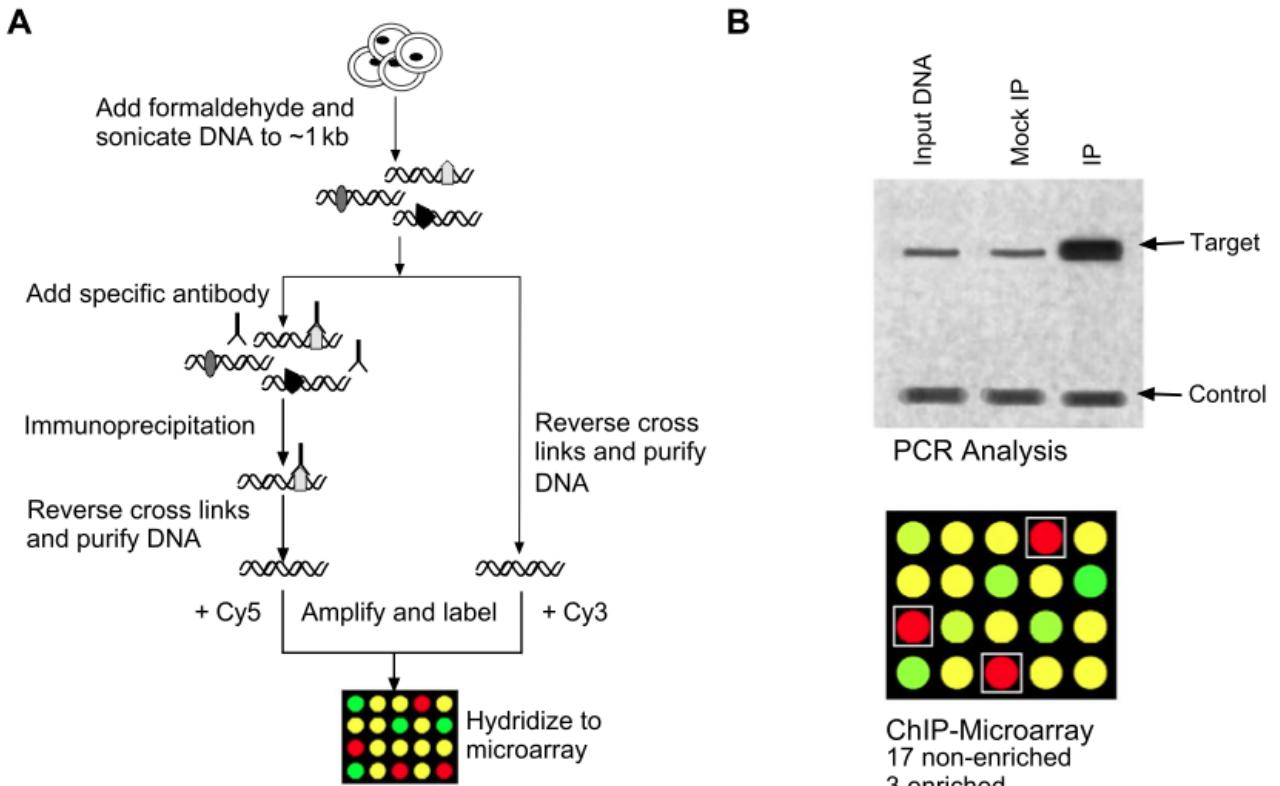
SELEX

- Systematic Evolution of Ligands by EXponential enrichment.



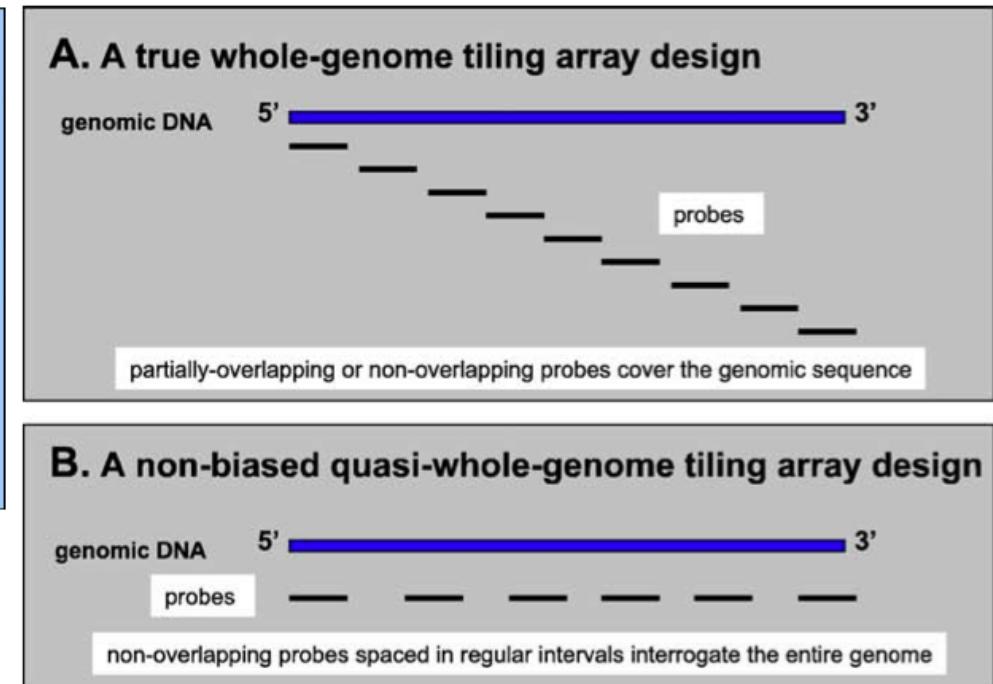
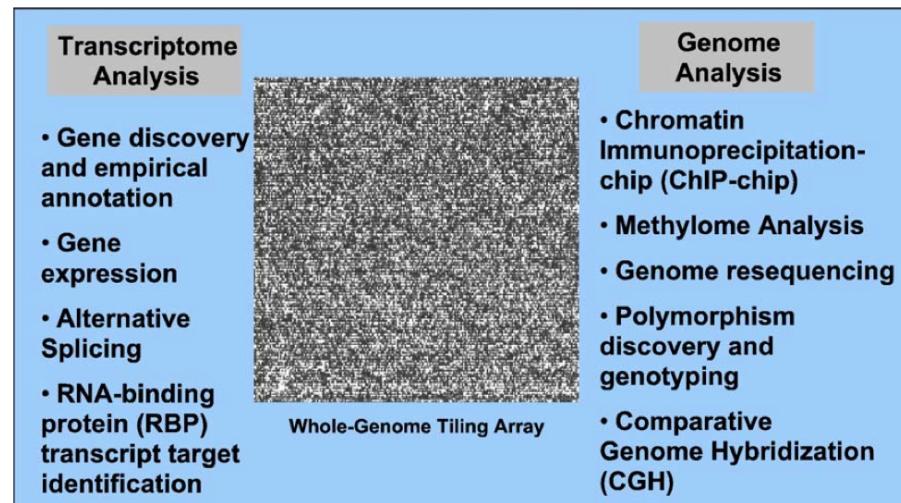
ChIP-on-chip

- The ChIP-chip method combines
 - Chromatin Immunoprecipitation (ChIP) to select genome fragments bound to a tagged transcription factor.
 - DNA microarrays (chip) spotted with several thousands of genome fragments (typically all the intergenic regions of a given organism) are used to detect the relative enrichment: immunoprecipitated (IP) versus non-precipitated DNA (« mock » IP).
- Strength: genome-wide coverage
- Weakness: fragmentation by sonication -> large variations in DNA fragment sizes (from a few tens of bases to several kbs).



Tiling arrays

- Tiling arrays cover the entirety of a genome, without pre-selection of any particular sequence type (intergenic, coding).
- Can be used to obtain high-coverage mapping of TF binding sites with the ChIP-chip method.
- Number of sequence fragments per array: between 10,000 and 6,000,000.



Universal protein-binding microarrays

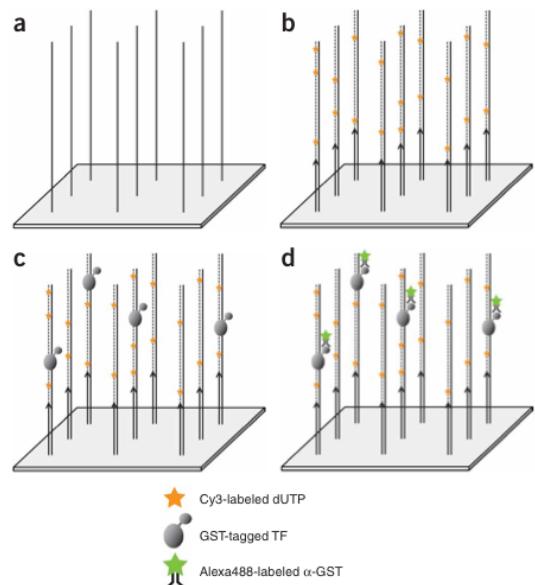
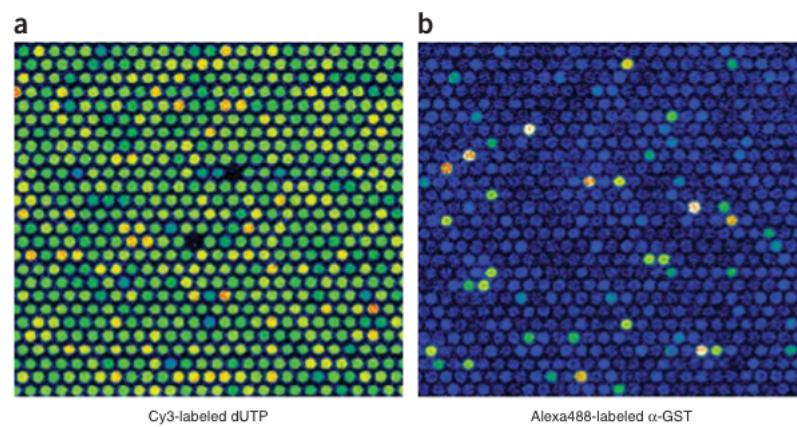


Figure 1 | Schematic of universal PBM experiments. (a) A commercially synthesized single-stranded DNA microarray is double-stranded by (b) solid-phase primer extension using a small amount of spiked-in fluorescently labeled dUTP. (c) An epitope-tagged TF is bound directly to the DNA on the microarray, and the (d) protein-bound array is labeled with a fluorophore-conjugated antibody.

Figure 3 | Zoom-in of a universal PBM scan.
(a) Region of a single subgrid, consisting of just over 1% of the total slide area, scanned to detect relative DNA amounts, as indicated by Cy3-labeled dUTP. (b) The same region of the same microarray, scanned with a different laser to detect protein binding, as indicated by Alexa 488-labeled anti-GST antibody. Intensities are shown in false color, with white indicating saturated signal intensity, yellow indicating high signal intensity, green indicating moderate signal intensity and blue indicating low signal intensity.



The “next generation sequencing” (NGS) era

- Figure from Sboner et al. The real cost of sequencing: higher than you think!.

The cost of sequencing decreased exponentially since the end of the 1990s, due to the improvements and automation of sequencing, stimulated by the genome sequencing projects.

- This decrease was more or less proportional to the exponential decrease of storage and computing costs (Moore's law).

- **Next Generation Sequencing**

- In 2007, several companies proposed new technologies enabling a much faster sequencing.
- The cost of sequences now decreases much faster than the cost of computers.
- We can foresee real problems for storing and analyzing the massive amounts of sequences to be produced.

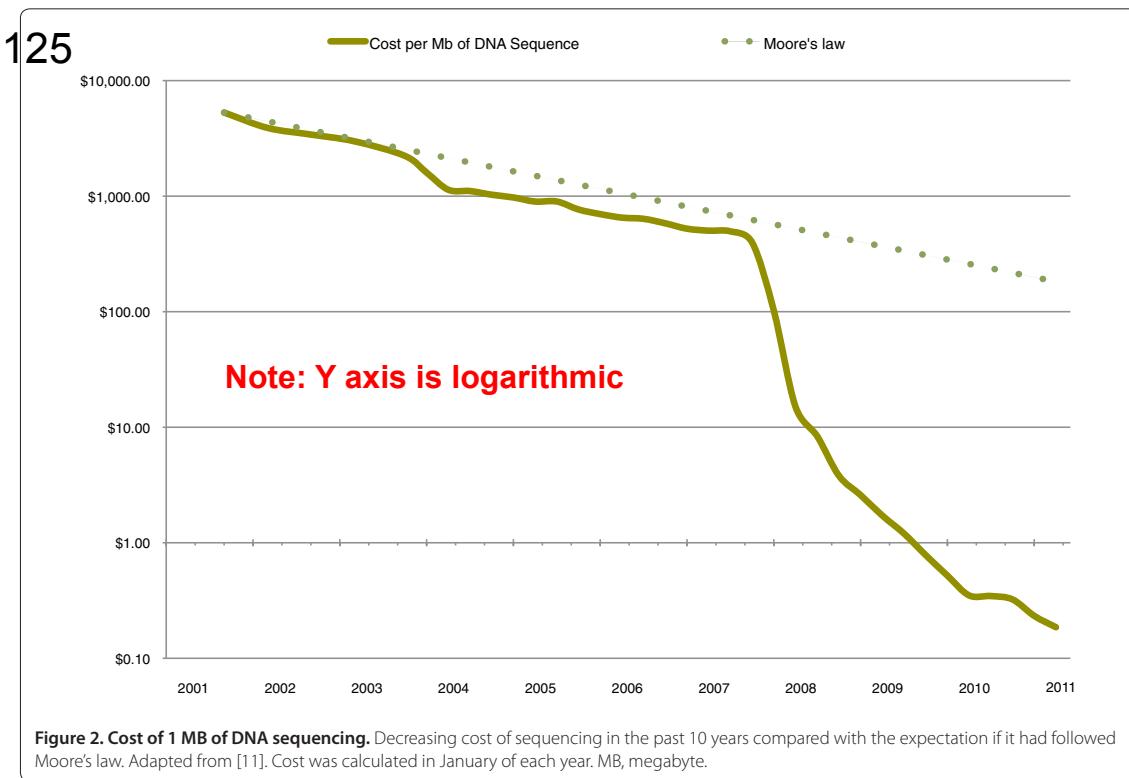
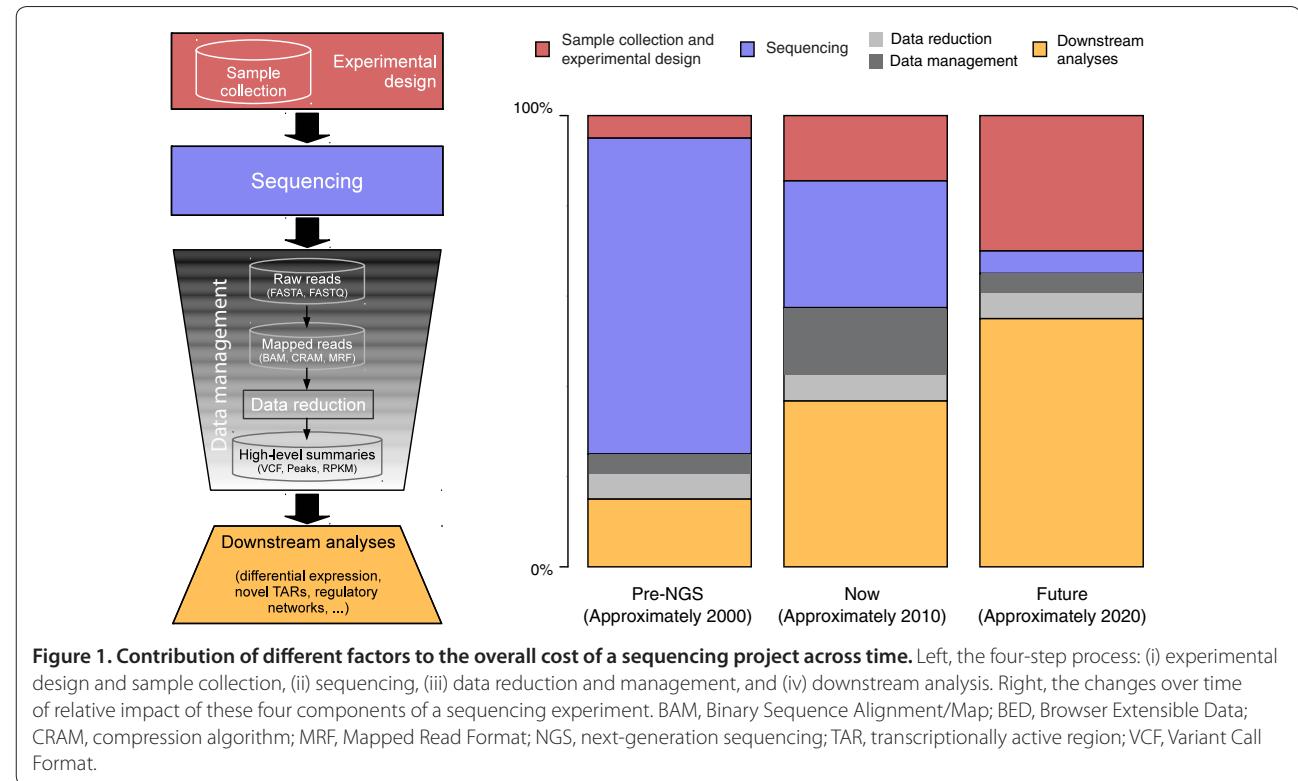


Figure 2. Cost of 1 MB of DNA sequencing. Decreasing cost of sequencing in the past 10 years compared with the expectation if it had followed Moore's law. Adapted from [11]. Cost was calculated in January of each year. MB, megabyte.

Sboner et al. (2011) The real cost of sequencing: higher than you think!. Genome Biol 12: 125

Cost of sequencing projects

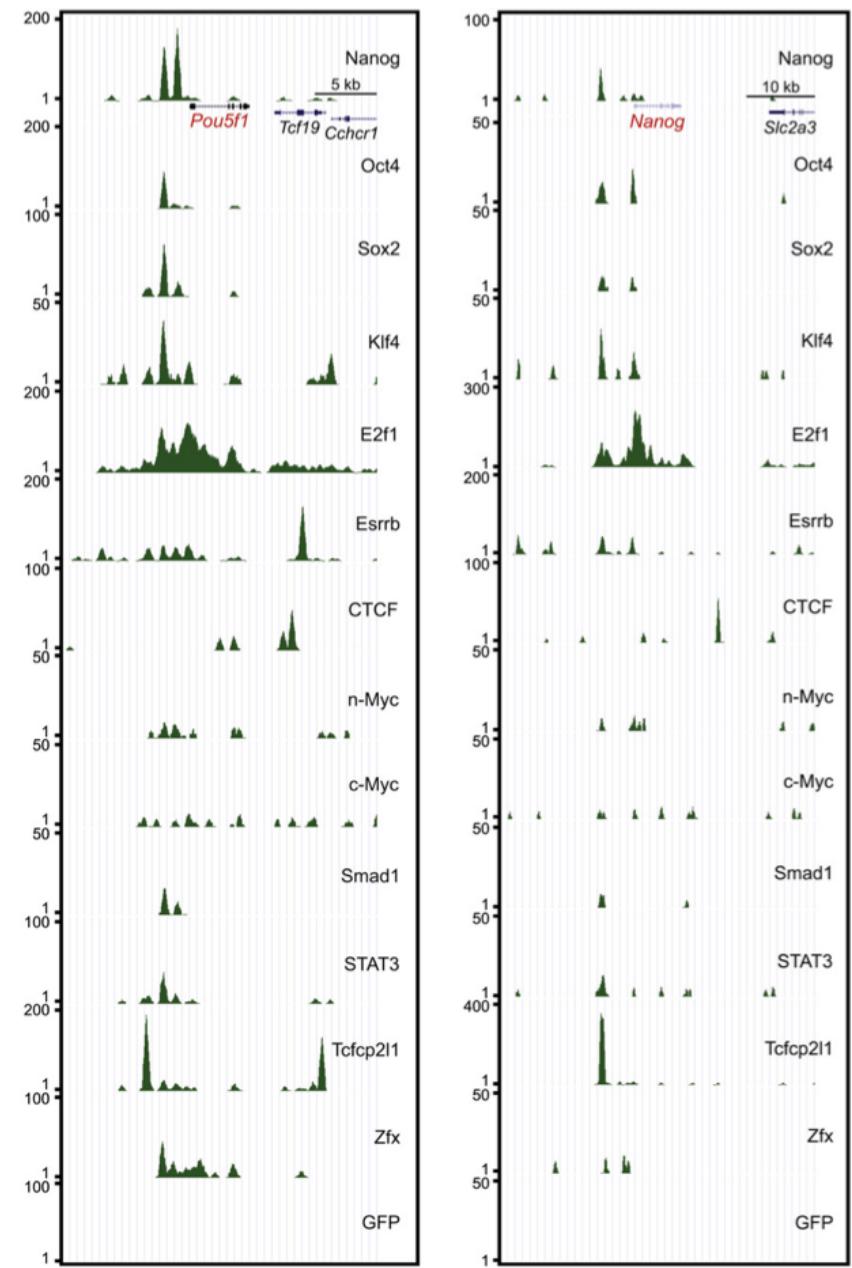
- The decrease of sequencing cost is accompanied by a drastic change in cost repartition, with a relative increase of the pre-processing (sample collection) and post-processing (bioinformatics analysis).
- There is thus an increasing need for bioinformatics know-how in all the laboratories treating next generation sequencing data.



Sboner et al. (2011) The real cost of sequencing: higher than you think!. Genome Biol 12: 125

ChIP-seq

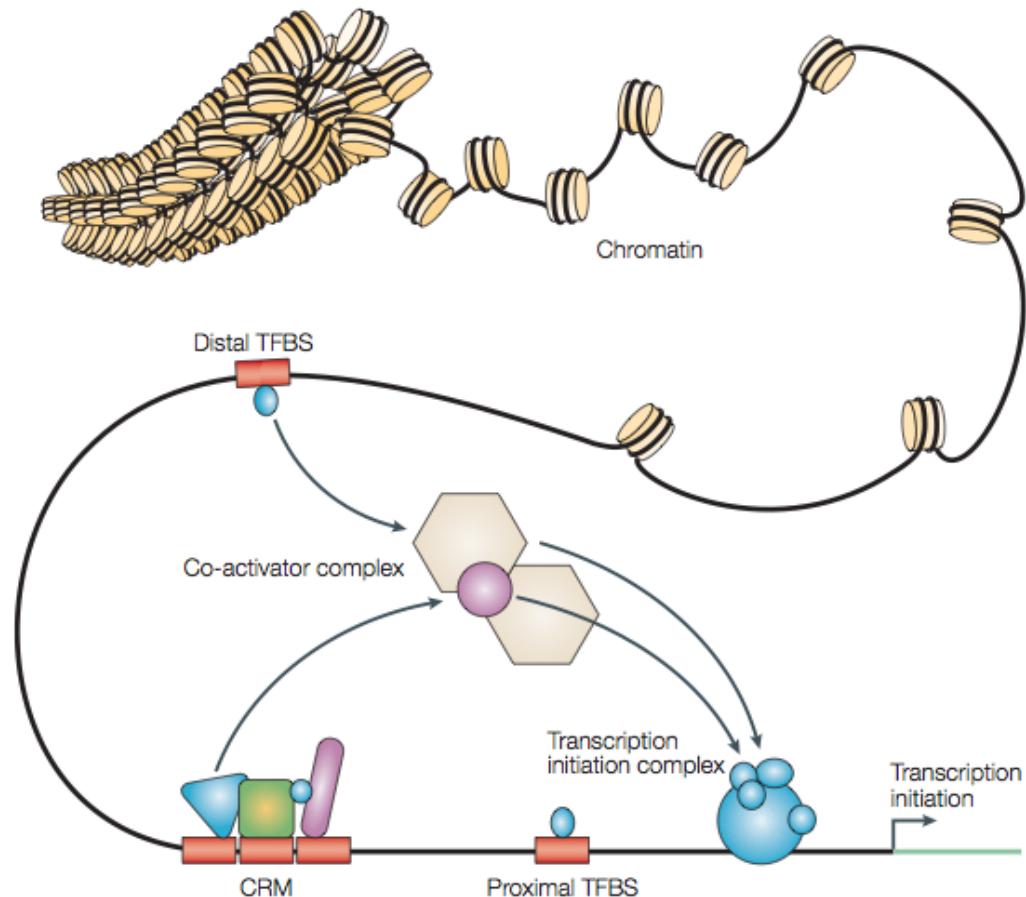
- Combination of
 - Chromatin Immunoprecipitation (ChIP), as for ChIP-chip.
 - Next Generation Sequencing (NGS) to characterize the immunoprecipitated DNA fragments.
- Strength:
 - No problem of imprecision due to the hybridation of large IP fragments to short spotted features.
 - Thanks to the « next » generation sequencing (NGS) methods, sequencing can be very efficient.
 - Does not require prior sequencing of the genome.
- Weaknesses
 - Variability of fragment sizes obtained by ultrasonication.
 - Detection of relevant peaks (peak calling) is not trivial.



Source: Chen et al. Integration of external signaling pathways with the core transcriptional network in embryonic stem cells. Cell (2008) vol. 133 (6) pp. 30 1106-17

*From transcription factor binding sites to
cis-regulatory modules (CRM)*

Cis-regulatory modules (CRM)



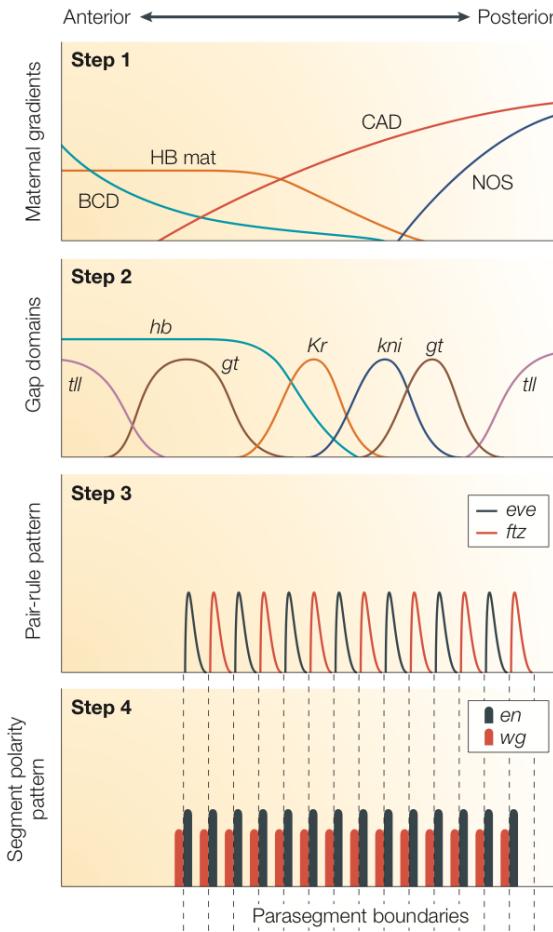
- In Metazoa, some non-coding regions (typically 100-200 bp) contain closely packed binding sites for distinct transcription factors.
- These regions are called **cis-regulatory modules (CRMs)**
- CRMs play the role of integrating devices.
- Depending on the combination of transcription factors present in the cell, they will activate or repress the expression of a target gene.
 - Activation -> enhancers
 - Repression -> silencers

Figure 1 | Components of transcriptional regulation. Transcription factors (TFs) bind to specific sites (transcription-factor binding sites; TFBS) that are either proximal or distal to a transcription start site. Sets of TFs can operate in functional *cis*-regulatory modules (CRMs) to achieve specific regulatory properties. Interactions between bound TFs and cofactors stabilize the transcription-initiation machinery to enable gene expression. The regulation that is conferred by sequence-specific binding TFs is highly dependent on the three-dimensional structure of chromatin.

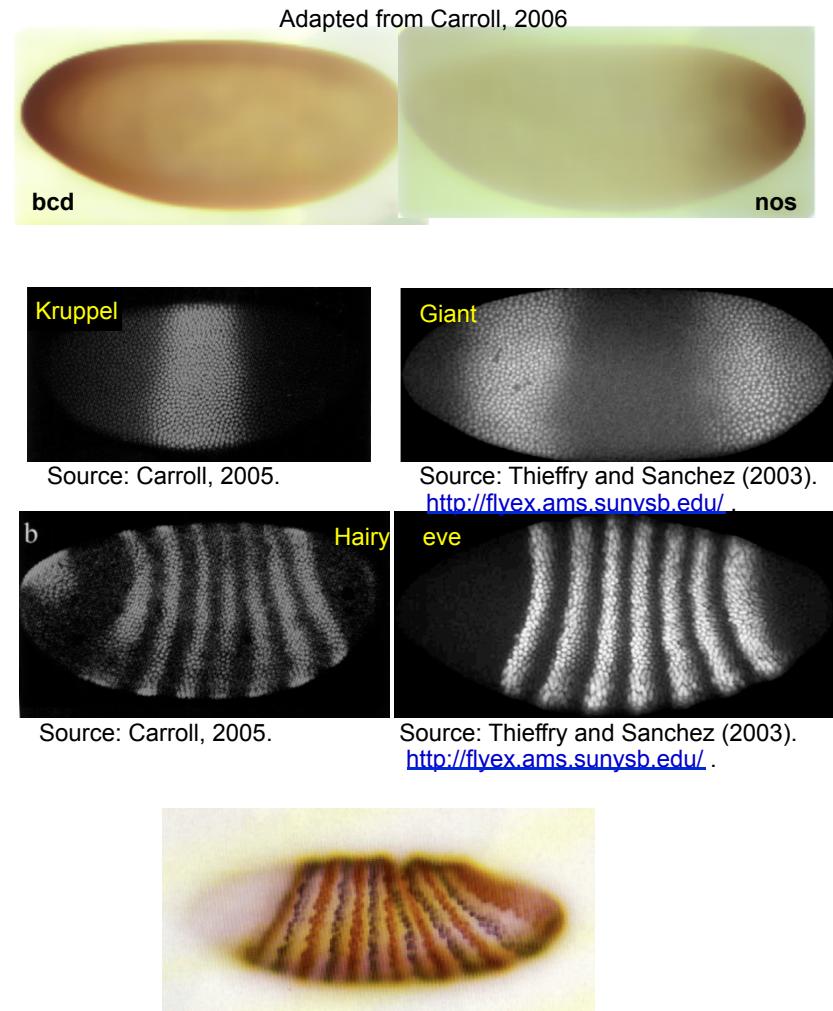
Source: Wasserman and Sandelin. Applied bioinformatics for the identification of regulatory elements. *Nat Rev Genet* (2004) vol. 5 (4) pp. 276-87. [PMID 15131651](#)

Drosophila Antero-Posterior (AP) segmentation – expression domains

- Establishment of expression domains
 - Maternal genes: gradients of mRNAs coding for transcription factors.
 - Gap genes: broad domains.
 - Pair-rule genes: expressed every other segment (odd or even segments).
 - Segment polarity genes: expressed with a segmental periodicity, across 2-3 cells wide bands.



Peel et al. Arthropod segmentation: beyond the Drosophila paradigm. *Nature Reviews Genetics* (2005) vol. 6 (12) pp. 905-16. [PMID 16341071](https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/16341071/)



Drosophila Antero-Posterior (AP) segmentation – regulatory network

- The establishment of expression domains relies on a modular network of transcriptional regulations.
- Hierarchy: Maternal genes -> Gap -> Primary pair-rule -> Secondary pair rule -> Segment polarity.

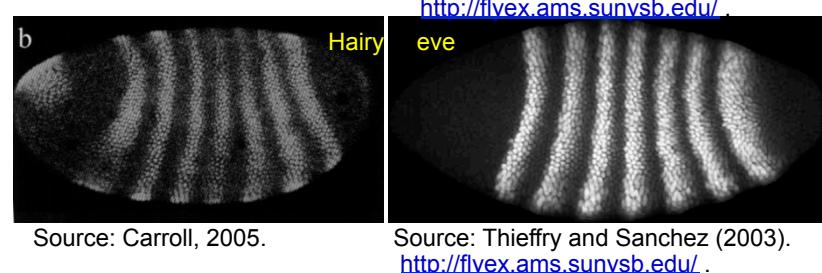
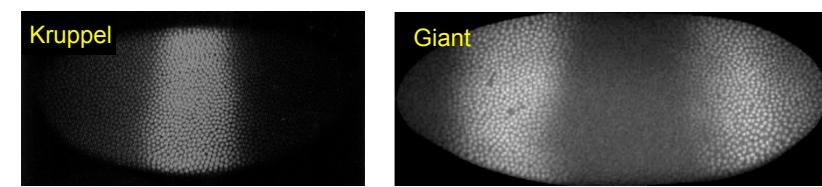
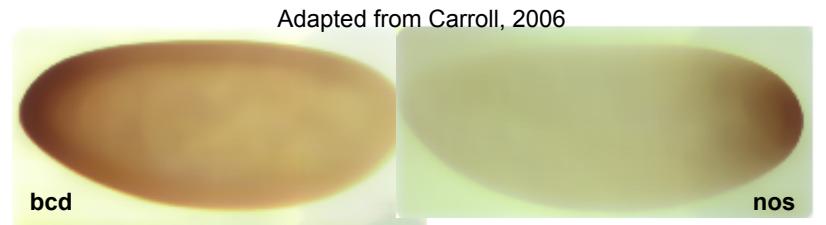
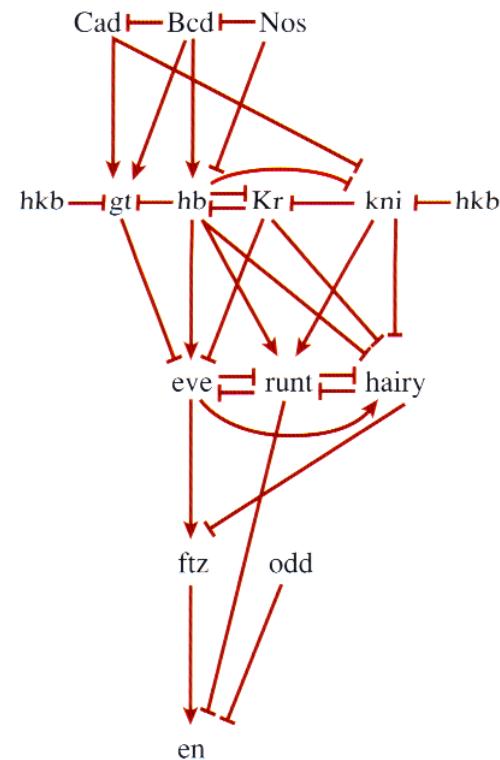
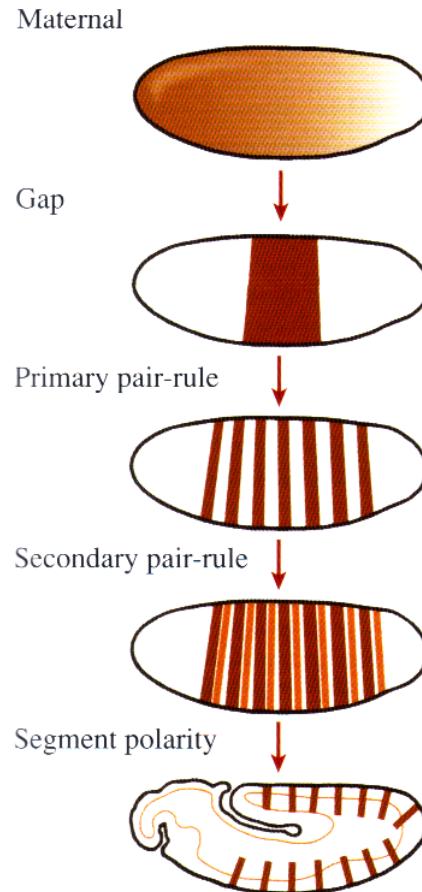


Figure 3.5
The segmentation genetic regulatory hierarchy

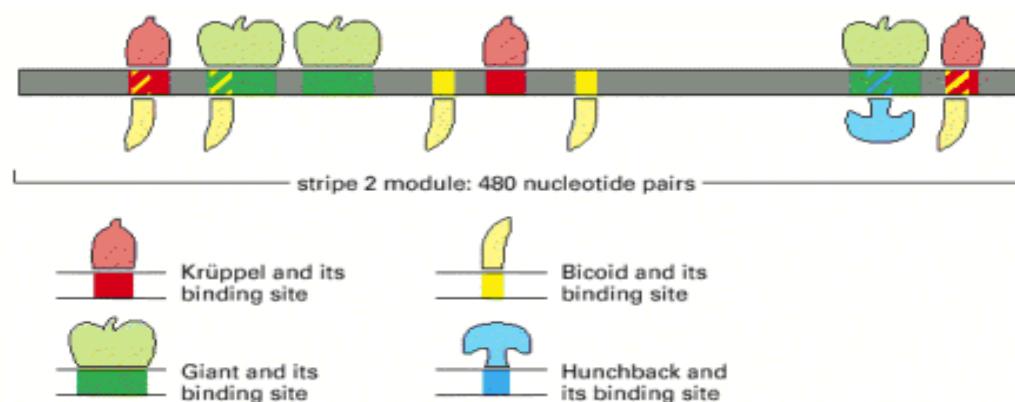
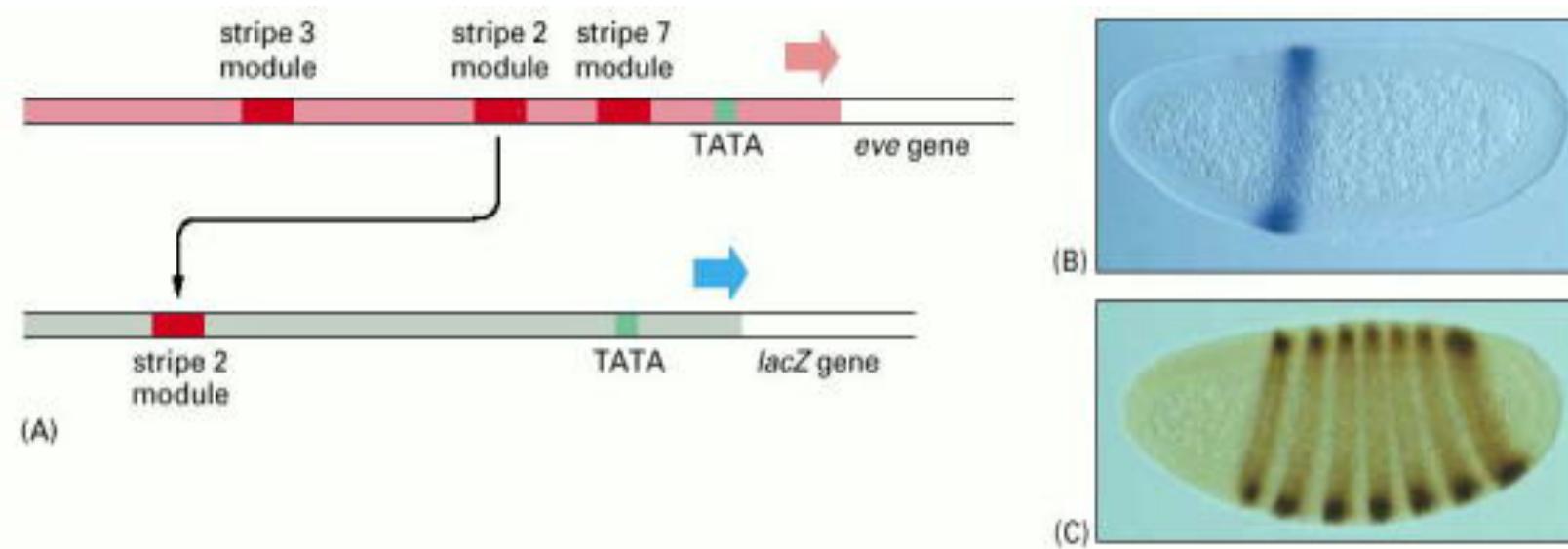
(left) The expression patterns of five classes of anteroposterior axis patterning genes are depicted in embryos at different stages.
(right) Selected members of these classes are shown and the regulatory interactions between these genes are indicated. An arrow indicates a positive regulatory interaction; a line crossed at its end indicates a negative repressive regulatory relationship.

Source: Carroll, 2005. From DNA to diversity (2nd edition). Blackwell Publishing.

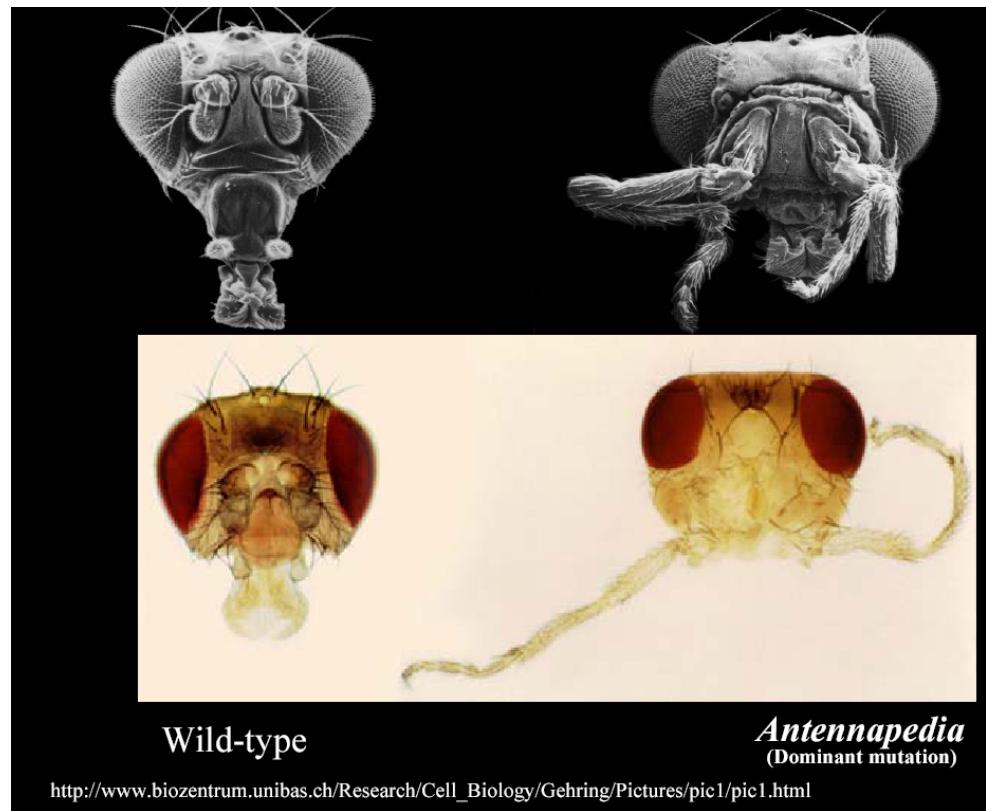
Source: Lawrence (1992). *The Making of a Fly: The Genetics of Animal Design*. Blackwell Science Ltd. ISBN 0632030488

The stripe-specific enhancers of *Drosophila* even-skipped (*eve*)

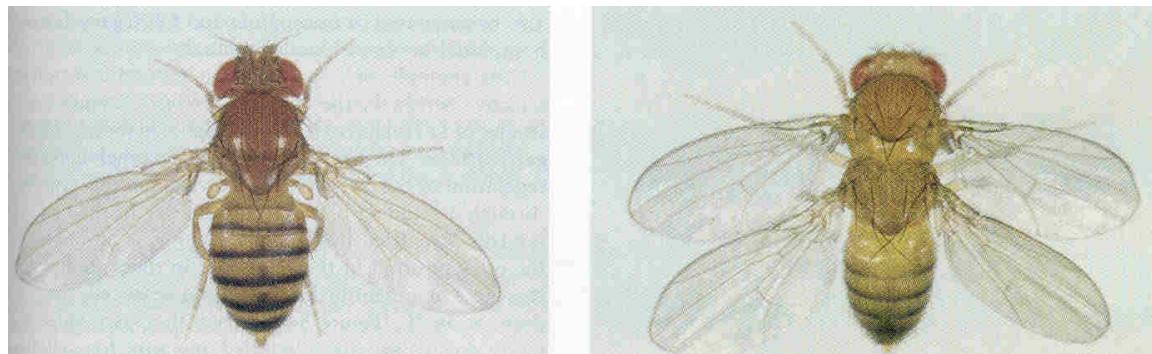
- Each one of the 7 stripes of *even-skipped* expression is activated by a specific enhancer.
- The stripe 2 module (enhancer) contains a density of sites for Kr, bcd, Hb and Gt.



Homeotic mutations



- Mutations of the Hox genes modify the segmental identity.
- Antennapedia mutant fly: legs develop at the location of antennae.

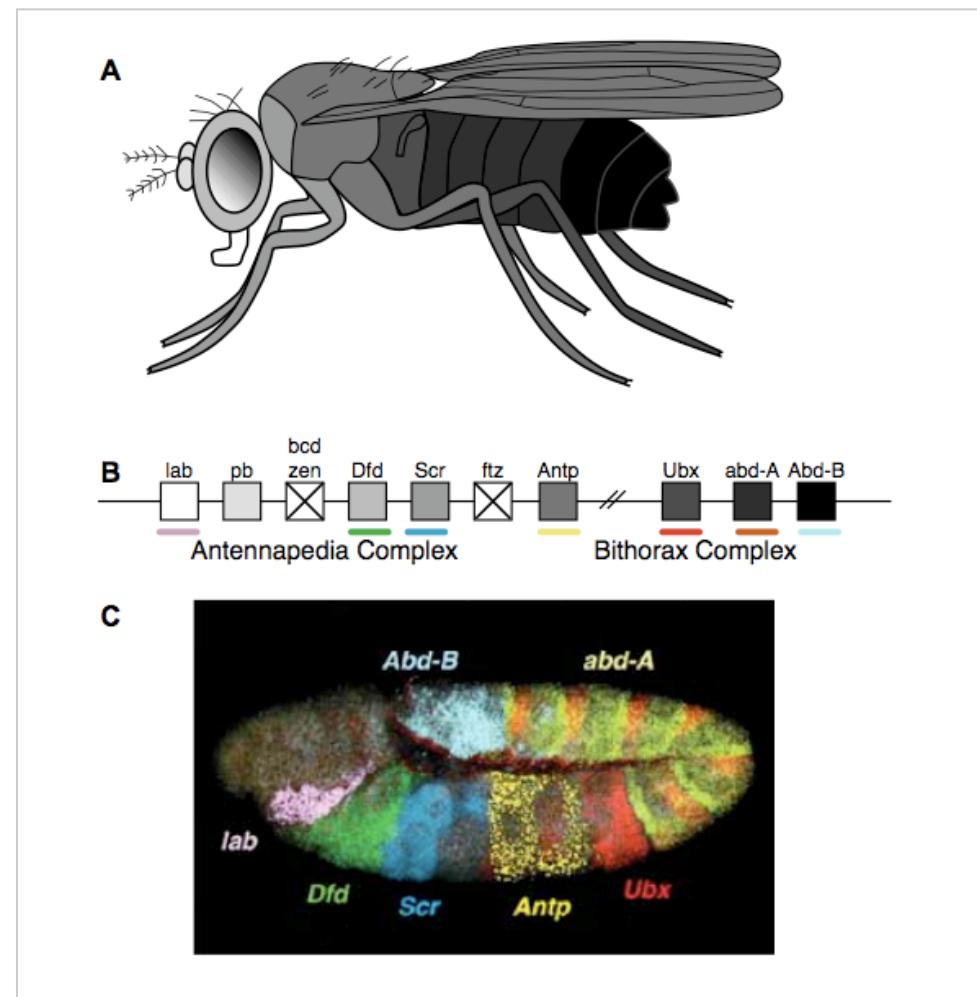


http://www.cb.ku.ac.th/down_load/drsermsiri.ppt

- Bithorax complex (triple mutant): the 3rd thoracic segment (metathorax) develops as a copy of the second segment (mesothorax), with wings instead of halterae.

Specification of segmental identity

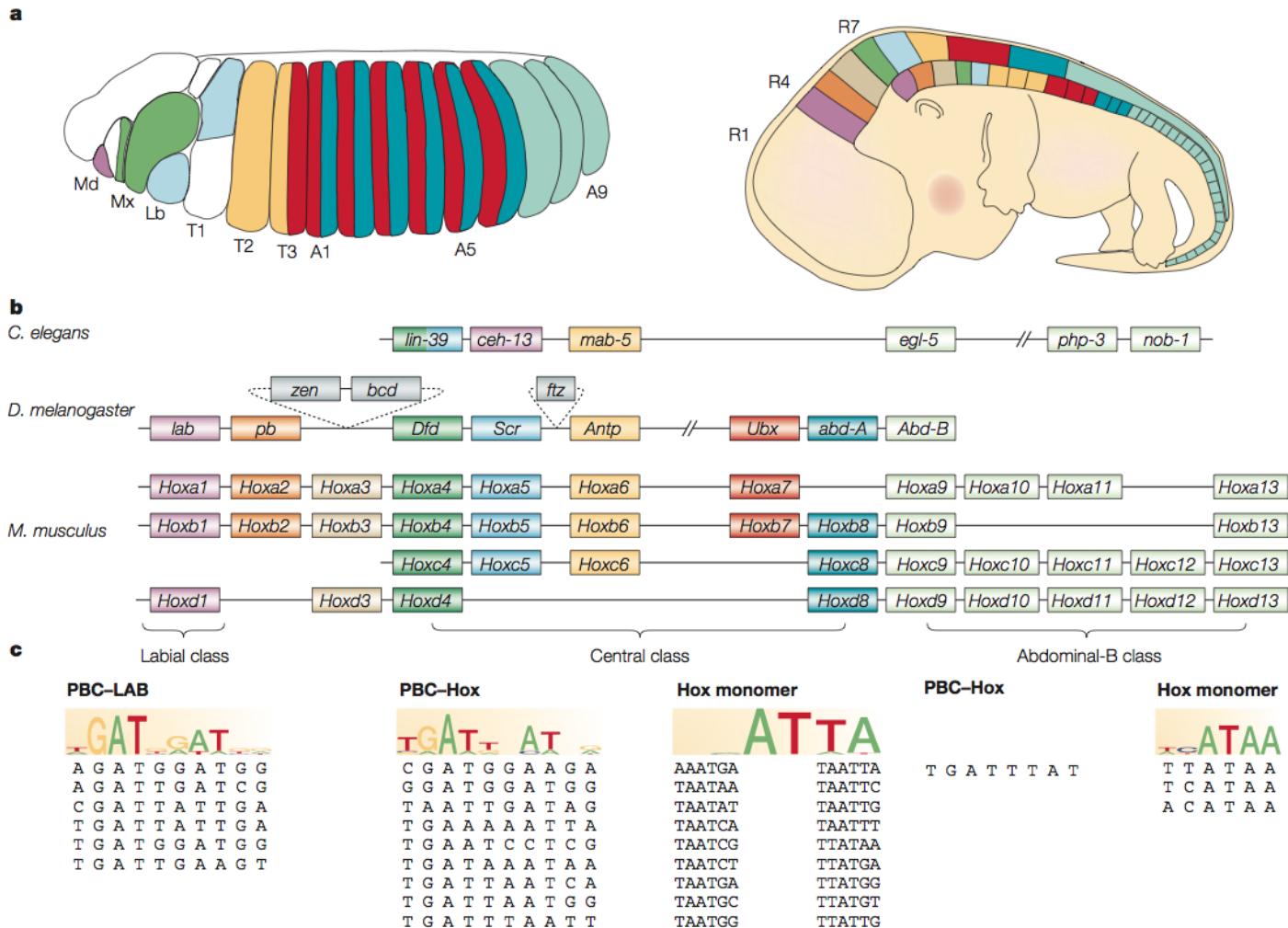
- After segmentation, each segment is committed to a particular « identity »: head, thorax, abdomen, ...
- This identify is specified by transcription factors belonging to the Hox family.
 - Bithorax complex
 - Antennapedia complex
- Each factor is expressed in a specific antero-posterior domain.



Sources of the Figures:

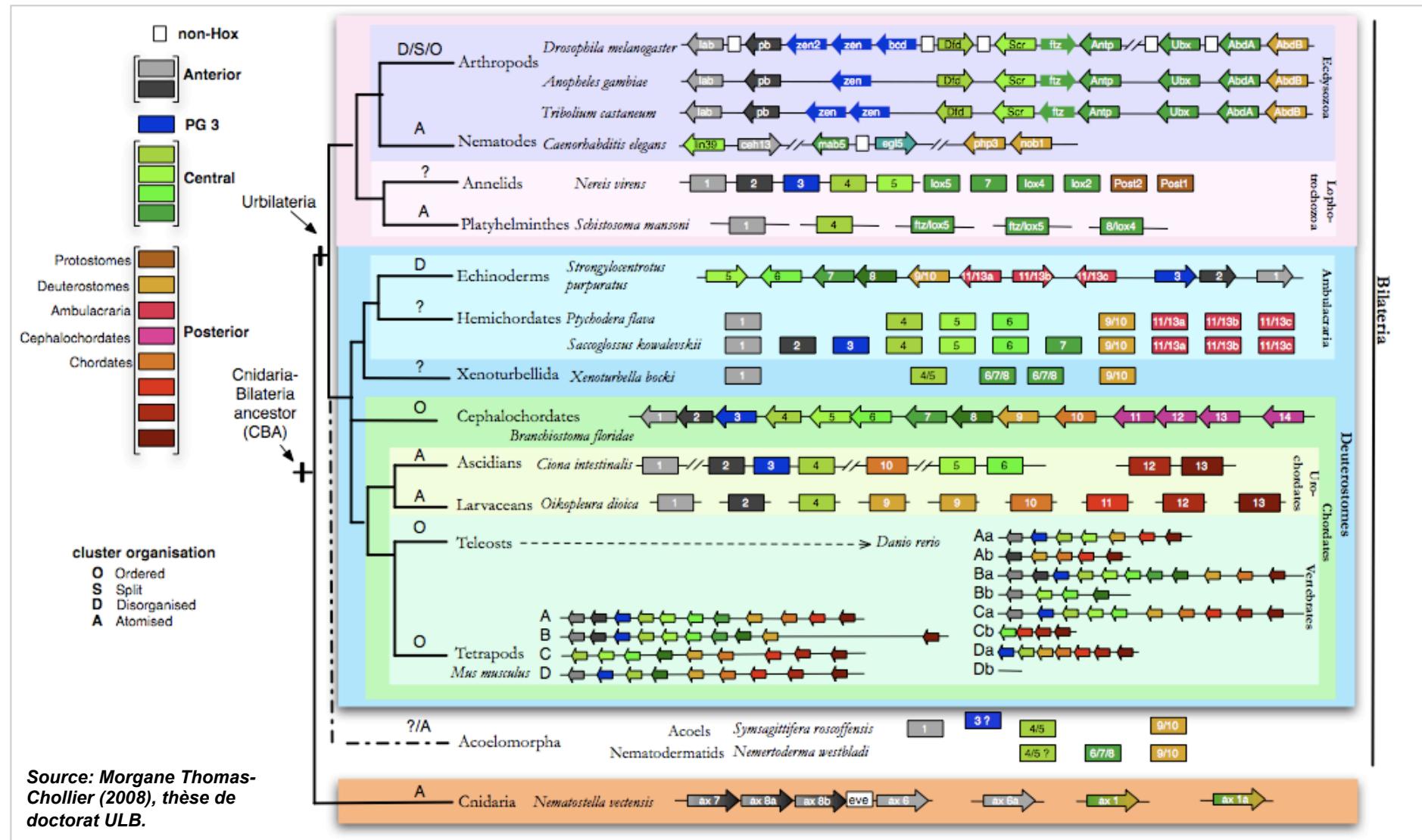
- Morgane Thomas-Chollier (2008). PhD Thesis, ULB
- Lemons & McGinnis (2006).

The Hox complex - from *drosophila* to mammals



Hox evolution: complexification by duplication/divergence

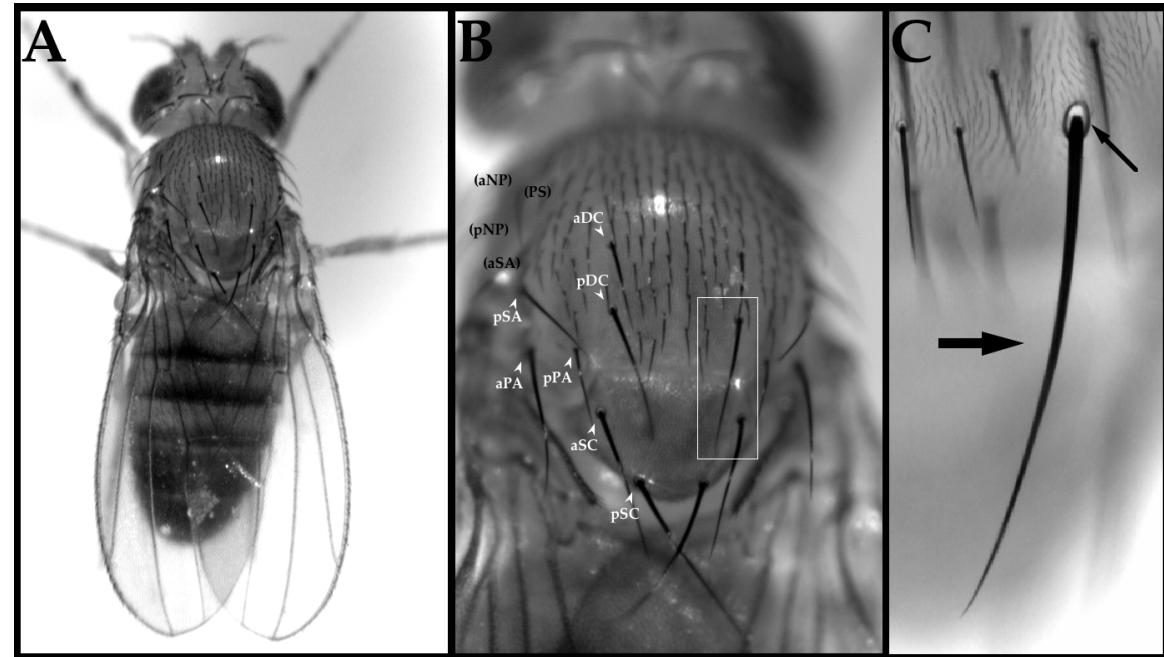
- Hox genes are found in all the Bilaterians, and they determine segmental identity.
- The topological organization of the complex has been partly conserved from invertebrate to vertebrate.
- The whole complex has been duplicated several times during evolution



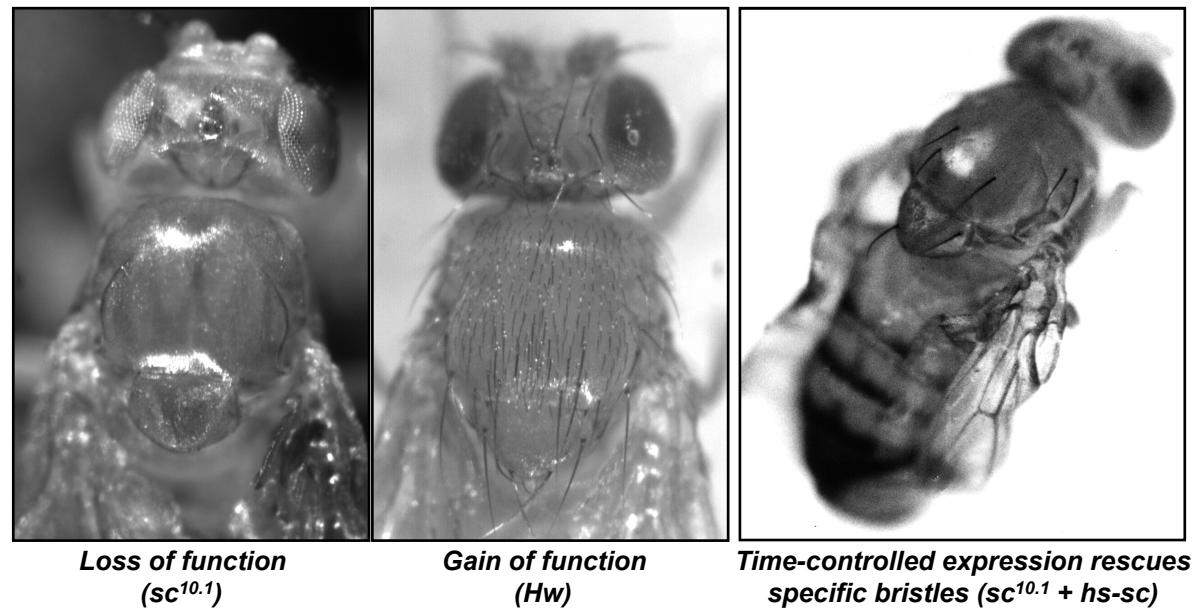
Source: Morgane Thomas-Chollier (2008), thèse de doctorat ULB.

The proneural genes in *Drosophila melanogaster*

- In *Drosophila*, sensory organs are arranged in a species-specific way, identical between individuals of the same species.
- Sensory bristles are determined by the proneural genes *achaete* and *scute*.
- **Loss of function:** *achate-scute* double mutants (*ac⁻ sc⁻*) are devoid of sensory bristles.
- **Gain of function:** an excess of *achate-scute* expression provokes the formation of ectopic bristle.
- **Rescue:** a time-controlled expression of *scute* partly rescues the *achate-scute* loss of function phenotype.

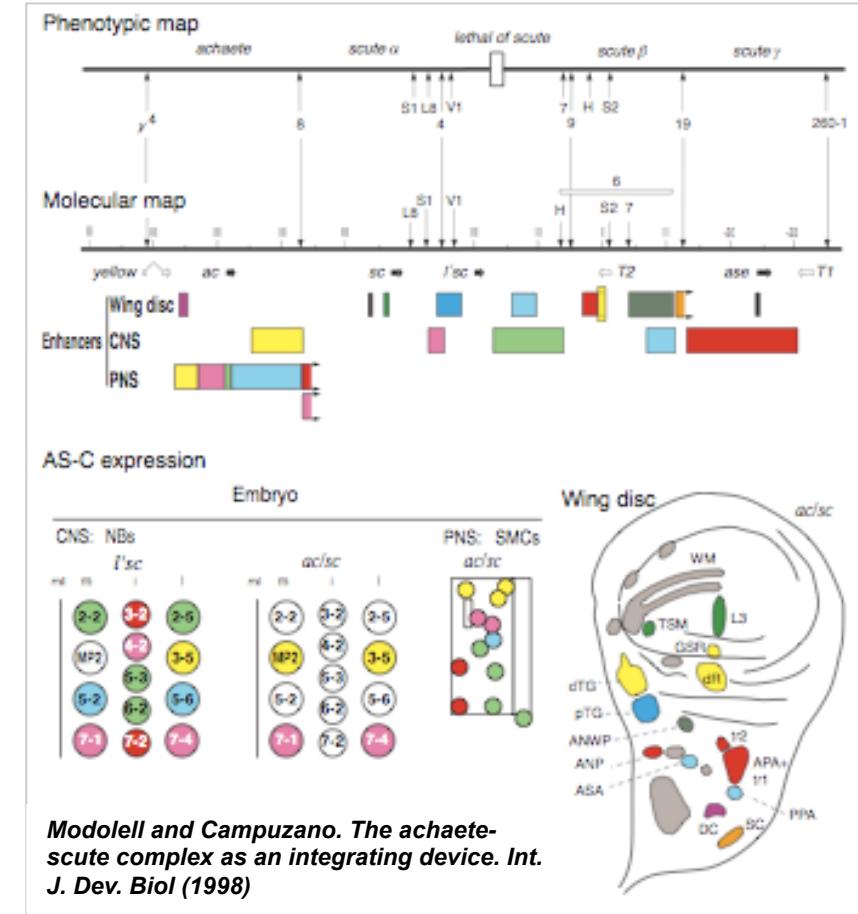
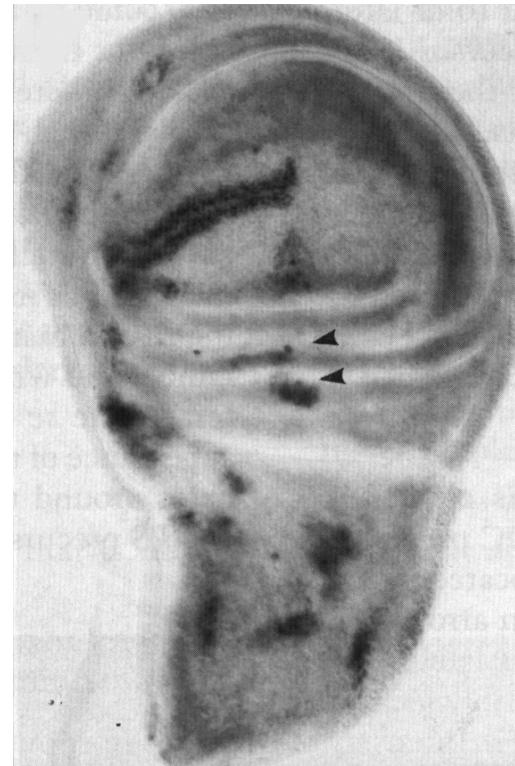


Wild type phenotype

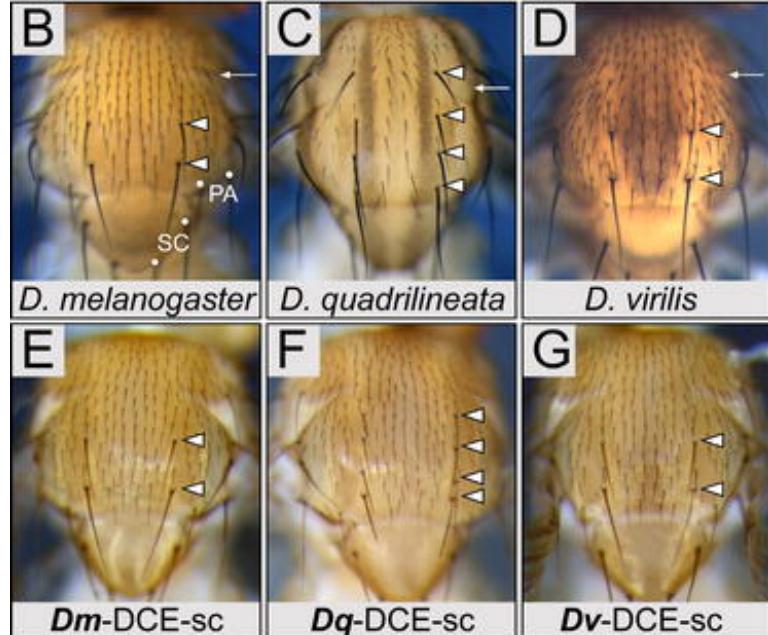
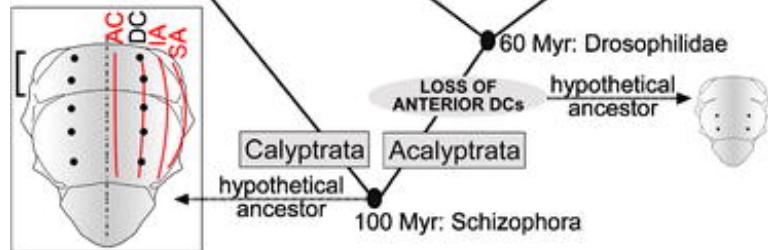
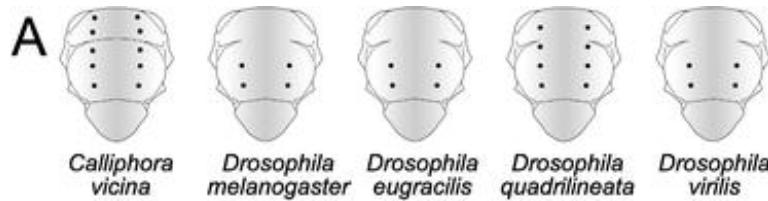


Position-specific enhancers in the achaete-scute complex

- The **achaete-scute complex (ASC)** contains 4 genes coding for paralogous transcription factors.
- Those genes are expressed in specific groups of cells (**proneural groups**) in the wing discs of the larva. A sensory organ mother cell emerges from each proneural cluster, and give rise to a bristle of the adult.
- Most of the complex is made of non-coding sequences containing **position-specific enhancers**.



Species-specificity of the developmental patterns



Regulatory Sequence Analysis

Cis-regulatory regions

Cis-regulatory elements and their organization

- The localization of cis-regulatory regions varies depending on the type of organism.

organism	Bacteria	Fungi	Metazoa
location	upstream overlap. Initiation	upstream	upstream downstream intergenic regions within introns
distance range	-400 to +50 bp	-800 to -1 bp	from several Kbs to several Mb !
position effect	often essential	often irrelevant	often irrelevant
strand	sensitive or symmetric	insensitive	insensitive
most common core	spaced pair of 3nt	~5-8 conserved bp	~5-8 conserved bp
repeated sites	rare	occasional	frequent
cis-regulatory modules (CRMs)			frequent

Regulatory Sequence Analysis

Questions and approaches

Questions and approaches

- Pattern matching
 - If we know the consensus for a given transcription factor, can we predict its binding sites in a DNA sequence ?
- Matching a library of patterns
 - Can we scan a sequence for matches with the consensus of all he currently known transcription factor ?
- CRM prediction
 - Detect regions with a higher density of predicted sites than expected by chance (cis-regulatory enriched regions, CRERs).
- Motif discovery
 - Starting from a set of supposedly co-regulated genomic regions (promoters, ChIP-seq peaks), can we predict transcription factor binding motifs involved in their transcriptional regulation ?
- Phylogenetic footprinting
 - Can we detect regulatory signals by searching conserved elements in non-coding sequences of orthologous genes ?
- Network inference
 - Can we infer groups networks of regulation from cis-regulatory elements ?
- Classification of genomic sequences based on pattern scores
 - Can we classify regulatory regions (promoters, ChIP-seq peaks, enhancers) on the basis of the presence of regulatory motifs in their regulatory regions ?
 - Unsupervised classification (clustering): regroup elements (genes) in clusters without a priori knowledge about these clusters. The clusters are “discovered” during the clustering process.
 - Supervised classification: use pre-defined groups of genes (training sets) to train a program, and then use this programs to assign new elements (genes) to one of the pre-defined groups.