

# Gene Annotation

Michael Schatz

March 1, 2018

Lecture 10: Applied Comparative Genomics



# Assignment 4: Due Thursday March 1

## Assignment 4: Read mapping and variant calling

Assignment Date: Thursday, Feb. 22, 2018

Due Date: Thursday, Mar. 1, 2018 @ 11:59pm

### Assignment Overview

In this assignment, you will align reads to a reference genome to call SNPs and short indels. Then, you will perform an experiment to empirically determine the “mappability” of a genomic region. Finally, you will investigate some empirical behavior of the binomial test for heterozygous variant calling.

As a reminder, any questions about the assignment should be posted to [Piazza](#). Don't forget to read the [Resources](#) section at the bottom of the page!

### Question 1. Small Variant Analysis [XX pts]

Download chromosome 22 from build 38 of the human genome from here:

<http://hgdownload.cse.ucsc.edu/goldenPath/hg38/chromosomes/chr22.fa.gz>

Download the read set from here:

<http://schatzlab.cshl.edu/data/teaching/sample.tgz>

For this question, you may find this tutorial helpful:

<http://clavius.bc.edu/~erik/CSHL-advanced-sequencing/freebayes-tutorial.html>

- 1a. How many reads align to the reference? How many reads did not align? How many aligned reads had a mate that did not align (AKA singletons)? Count each read in a pair separately.  
[Hint: Build the index using `bowtie2-build`, align reads using `bowtie2`, analyze with `samtools flagstat`.]
- 1b. How many reads are mapped to the reverse strand? Count each read in a pair separately.  
[Hint: Find out what SAM flags mean [here](#) and use `samtools view`.]
- 1c. How many high-quality (QUAL > 20) single nucleotide and indel variants does the sample have? Of the high-quality SNPs, what is the transition / transversion ratio? Of the indels, how many are insertions and how many are deletions?  
[Hint: Identify variants using `freebayes -` sort the SAM file first. Filter using `bcftools filter`, and summarize using `bcftools stats`.]
- 1d. Does the sample have any nonsense or missense mutations?  
[Hint: try the [Variant Effect Predictor](#) using the [Genode basic transcripts](#)]

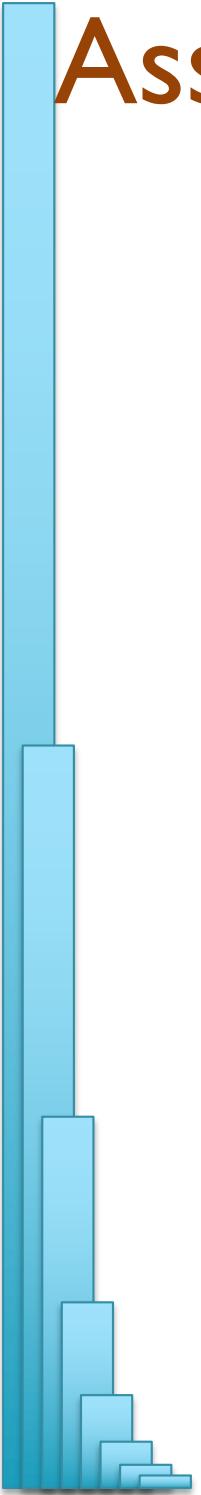
### Question 2. Read Mapping Uncertainty [XX pts]

For the region chr22:21000000-22000000 of the reference sequence for chromosome 22, extract every substring of length 35. Format the substrings as a FASTA file and use read names that indicate the origin. (No need to construct quality values or read pairs: use `bowtie2` with `-f` and `-d` respectively). Make a new index and align these “reads” to chr22:21000000-22000000.

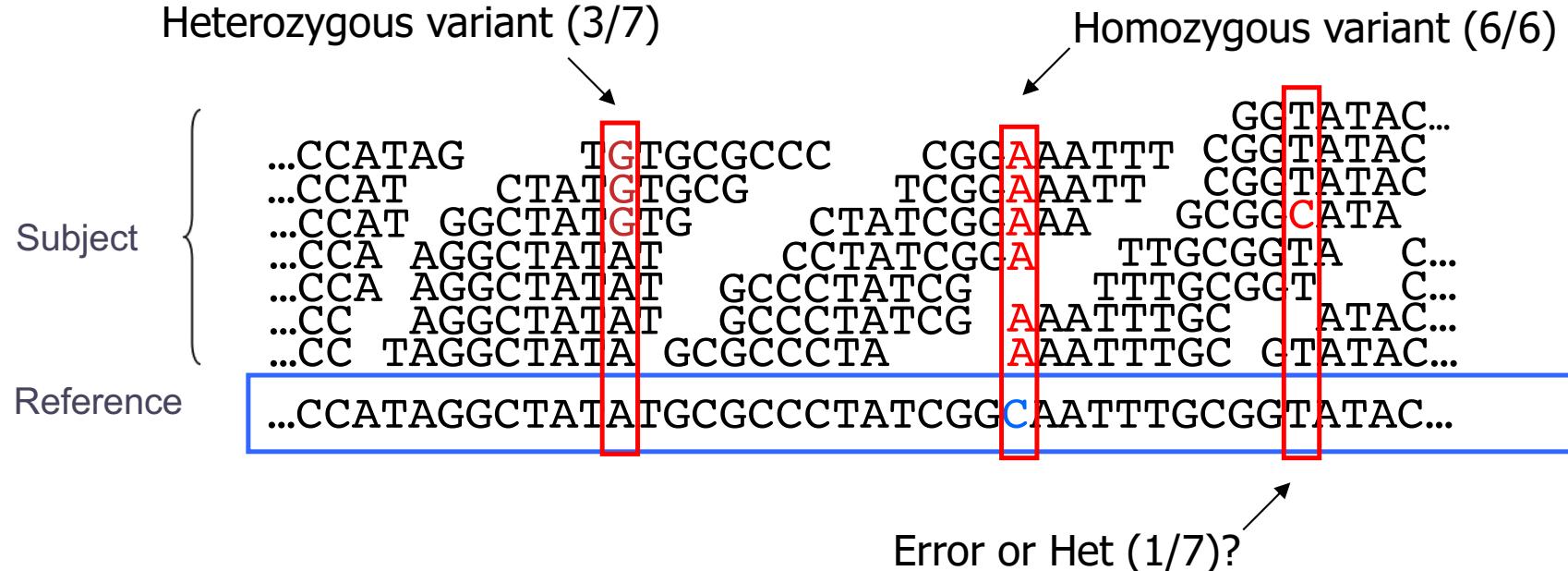
[Hint: On the command line or in a script, load the sequence once and extract substrings in a loop.]

- 2a. How many reads align more than one time to the reference? How many reads did not align?

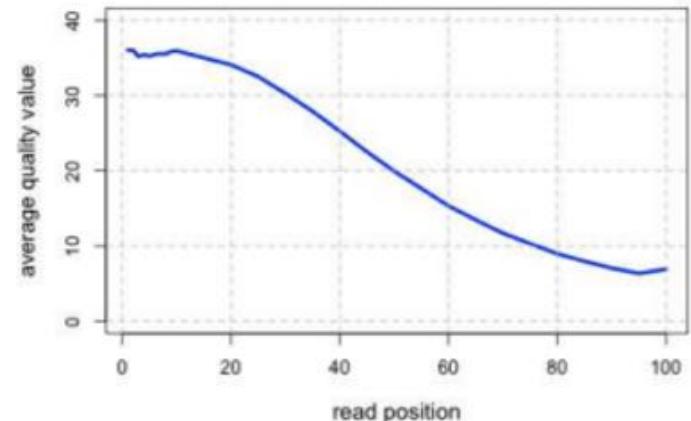
# Assignment 5: Due Thursday March 8



# Genotyping Theory



- If there were no sequencing errors, identifying SNPs would be very easy: any time a read disagrees with the reference, it must be a variant!
- Sequencing instruments make mistakes
  - Quality of read decreases over the read length
- A single read differing from the reference is probably just an error, but it becomes more likely to be real as we see it multiple times



# NGMLR + Sniffles

BWA-MEM:



NGMLR:



NGMLR: Convex gap penalty to balance frequent small sequencing errors with larger SVs

Sniffles: Scan within and between split reads to accurately find SVs (Ins, Del, Dup, Inv, Trans)

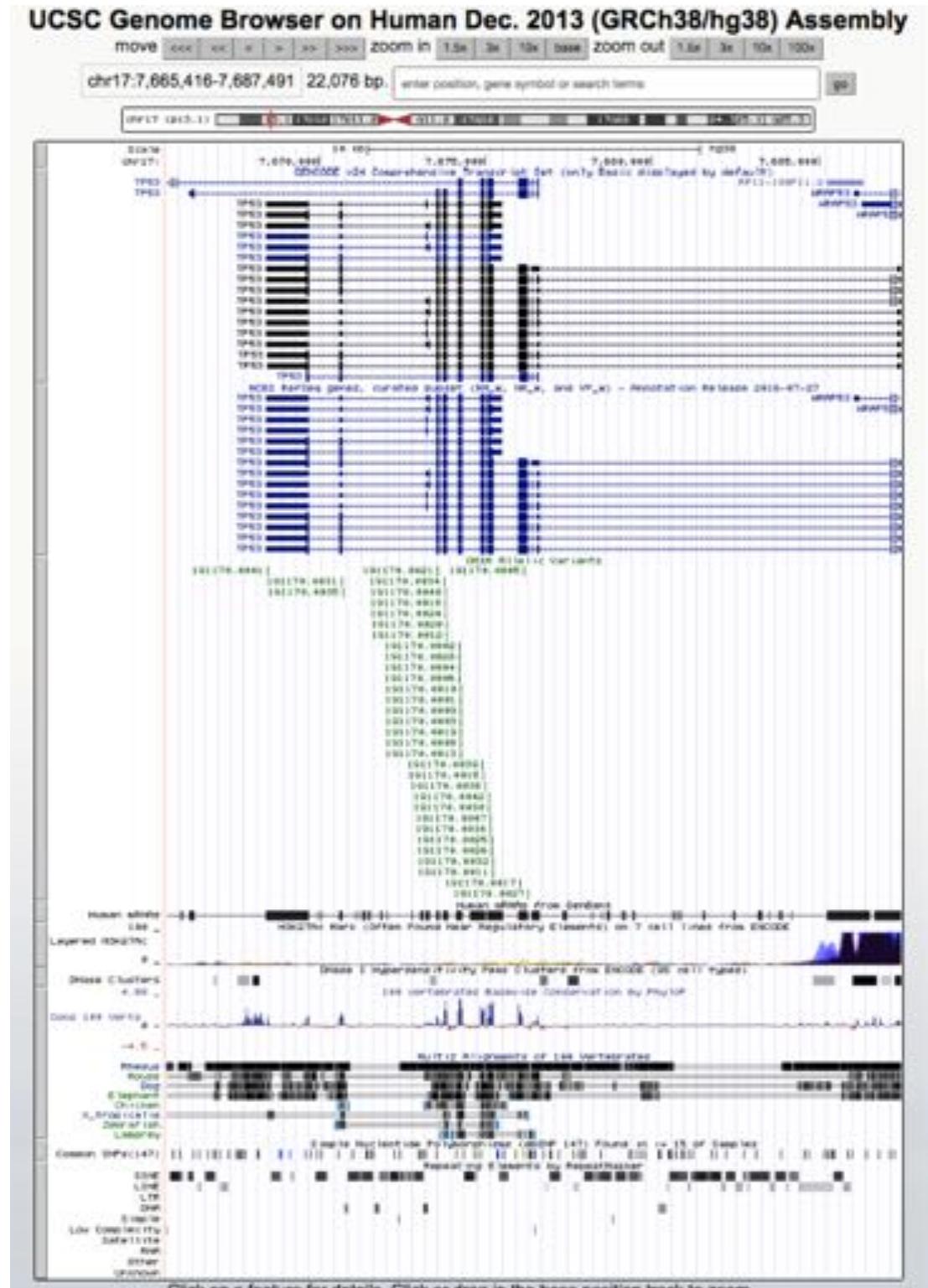
Mendelian concordance >95%, experimental validation also very high

***Accurate detection of complex structural variations using single molecule sequencing***

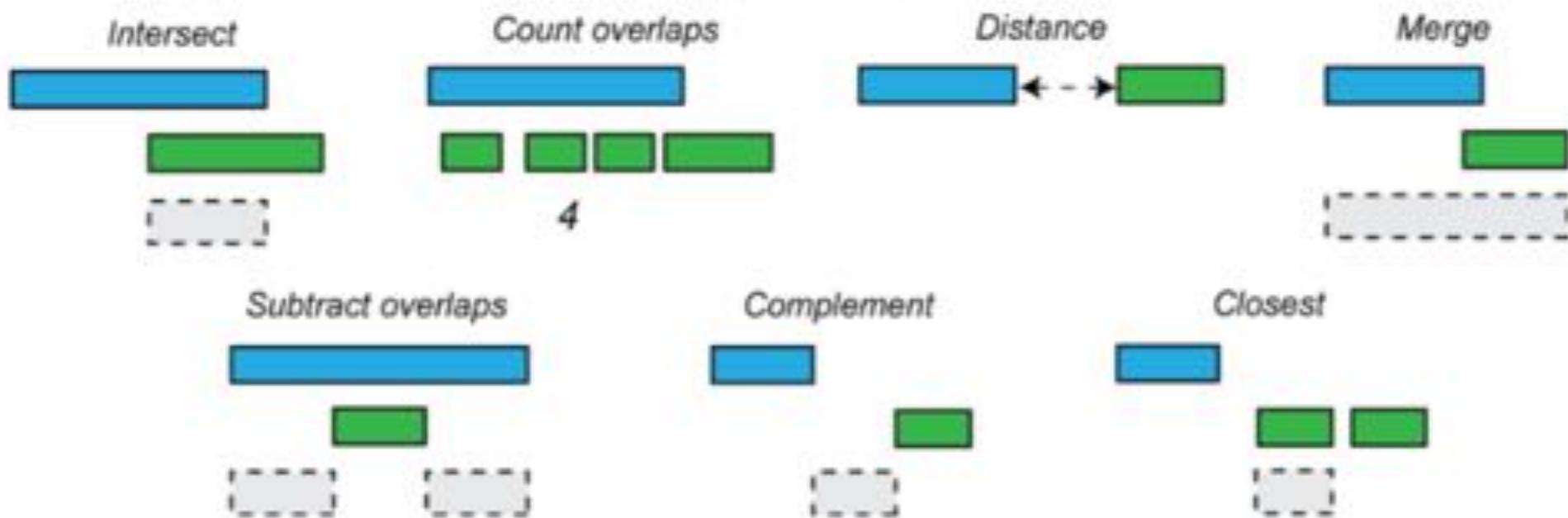
Sedlazeck, Rescheneder et al (2018) *Nature Methods*. In Press

# What are genome intervals?

- Genetic variation:
  - SNPs: 1bp
  - Indels: 1-50bp
  - SVs: >50bp
- Genes:
  - exons, introns, UTRs, promoters
- Conservation
- Transposons
- Origins of replication
- TF binding sites
- CpG islands
- Segmental duplications
- Sequence alignments
- Chromatin annotations
- Gene expression data
- ...
- ***Your own observations and data: put them into context!***



# BEDTools to the rescue!

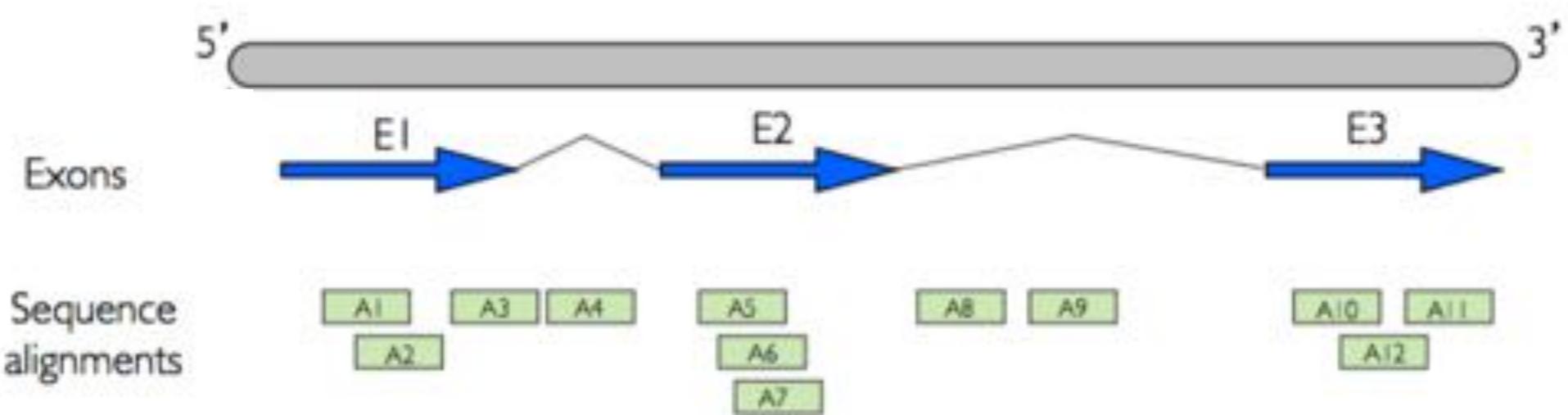


# BEDTools commands

annotate	getfasta	overlap
bamtobed	groupby	pairstobed
bamtofastq	groupby	pairstopair
bed12tobed6	igv	random
bedpetobam	intersect	reldist
bedtobam	jaccard	shift
closest	links	shuffle
cluster	makewindows	slop
complement	map	sort
coverage	maskfasta	subtract
expand	merge	tag
flank	multicov	unionbedg
fisher	multiinter	window
genomcov	nuc	

<http://bedtools.readthedocs.io/en/latest/content/bedtools-suite.html>

# BEDTools Performance



How many reads are aligned to exonic sequences?

```
$ awk '{if ($3=="exon") {print}}' gencode.v21.annotation.gff3 | wc -l  
1162114
```

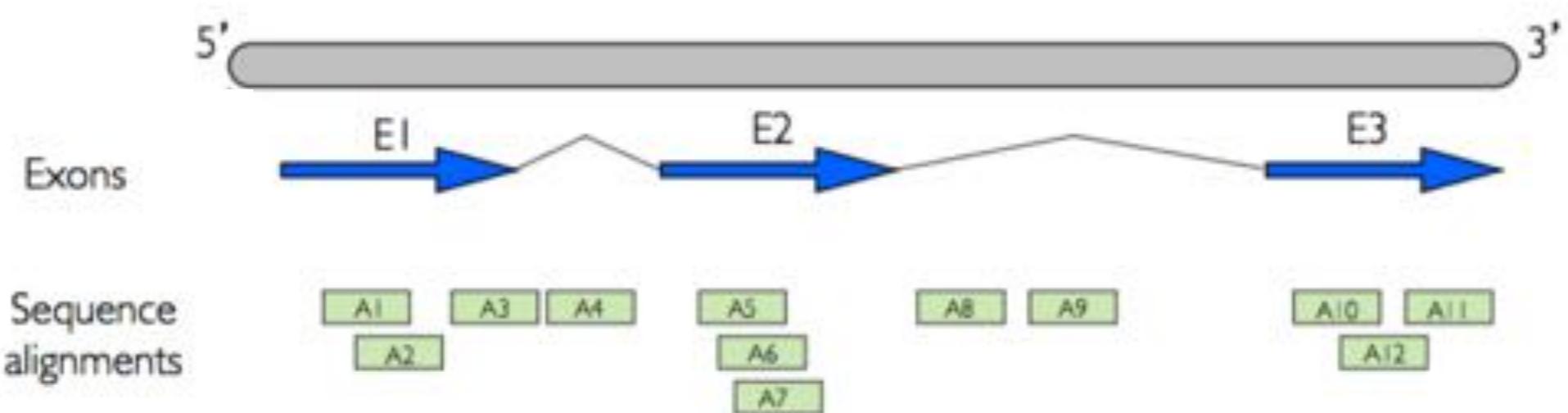
```
if ((read.start <= exon.end) && (read.end >= exon.start)) { print "in exon!"; }
```

How many comparison would a brute force approach take to scan a 30x dataset?

30x3Gb = 90Gbp / 100bp reads = 900M reads

900M reads x 1.1M exons = 990MM comparisons! ☹

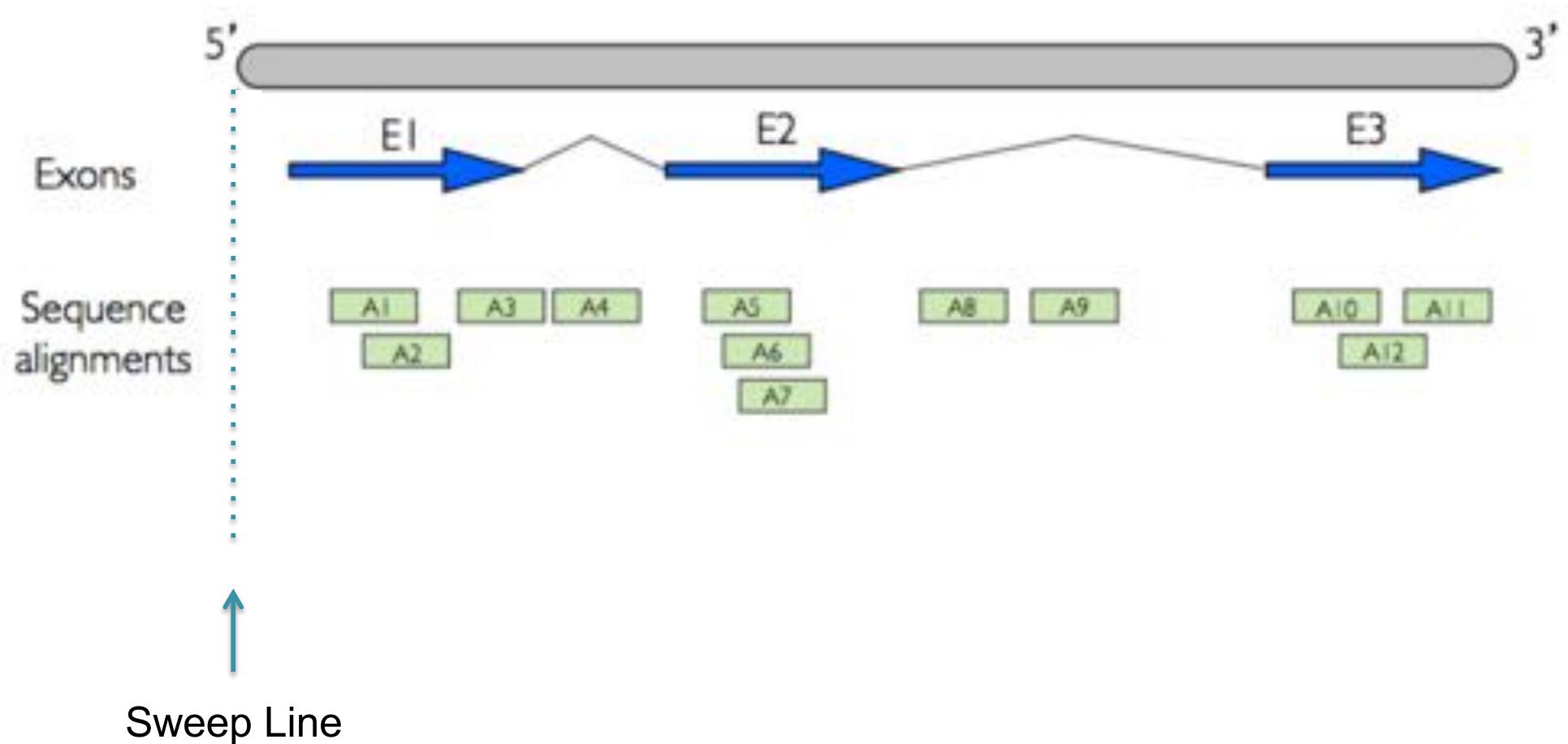
# BEDTools Performance



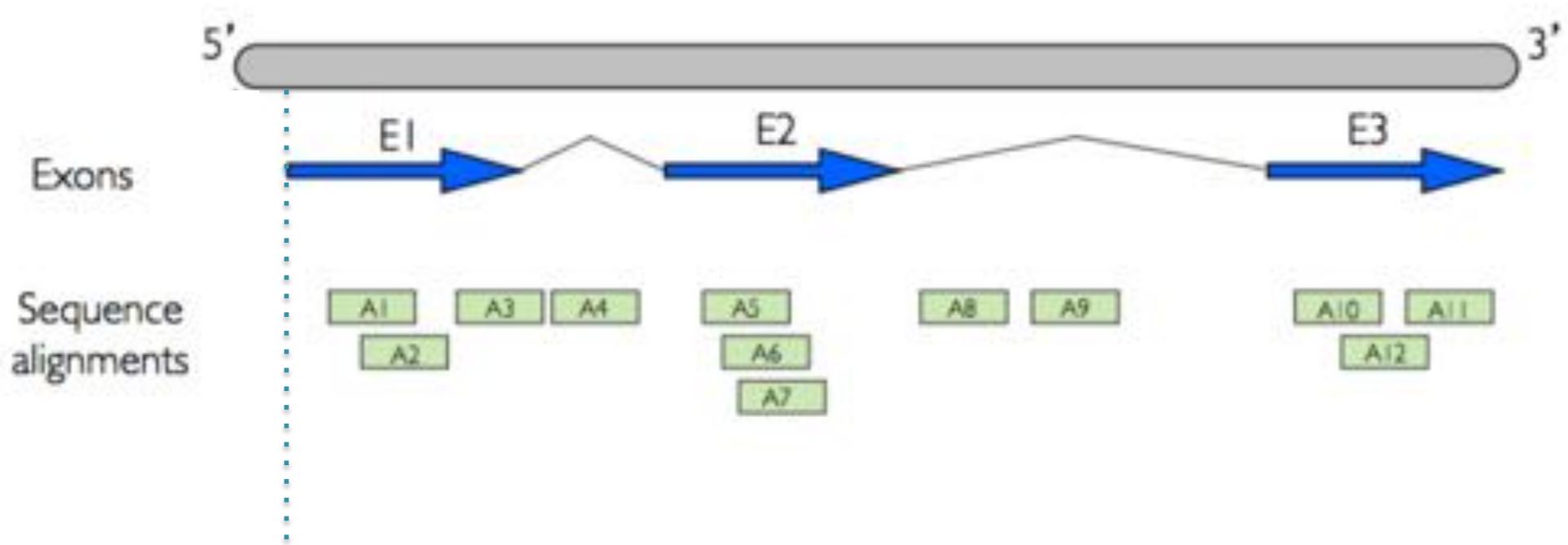
Assume datasets are sorted by chromosome and start position  
samtools sort to sort alignments, unix sort to sort BED file

Any ideas?

# Plane Sweep to the Rescue!



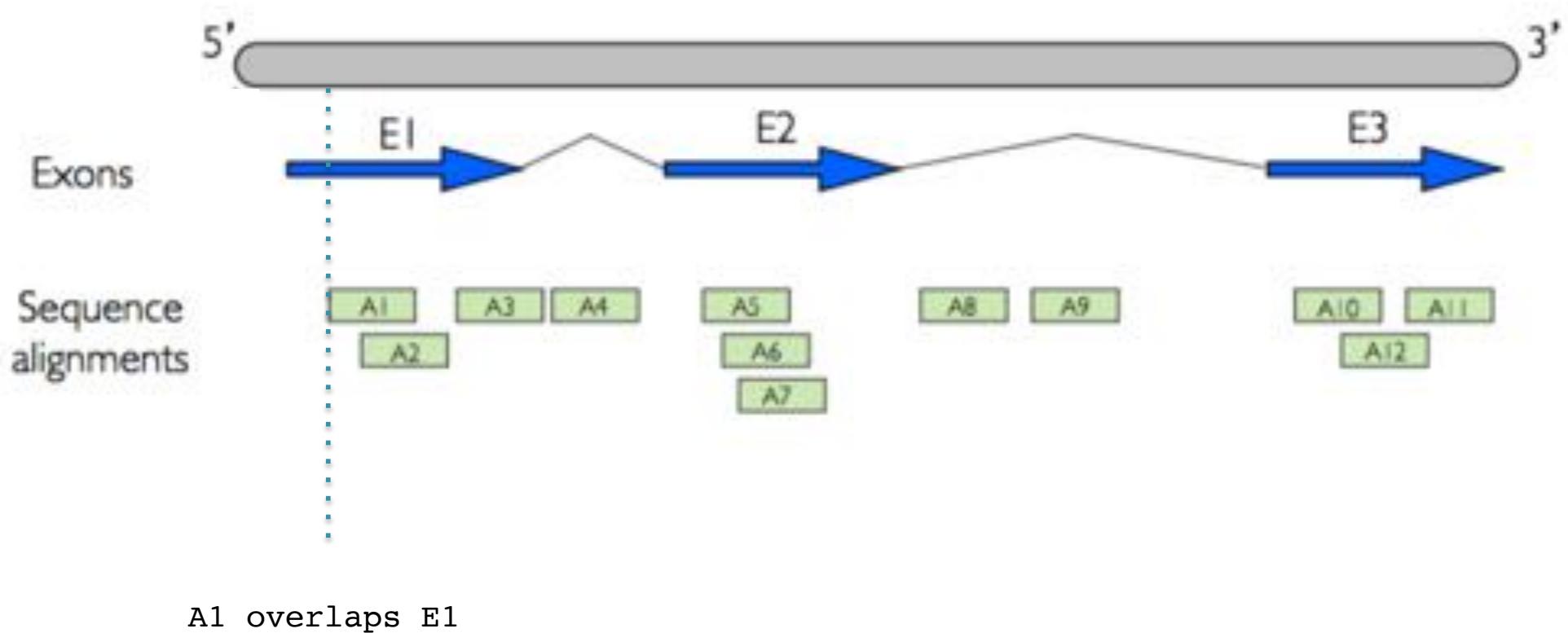
# Plane Sweep to the Rescue!



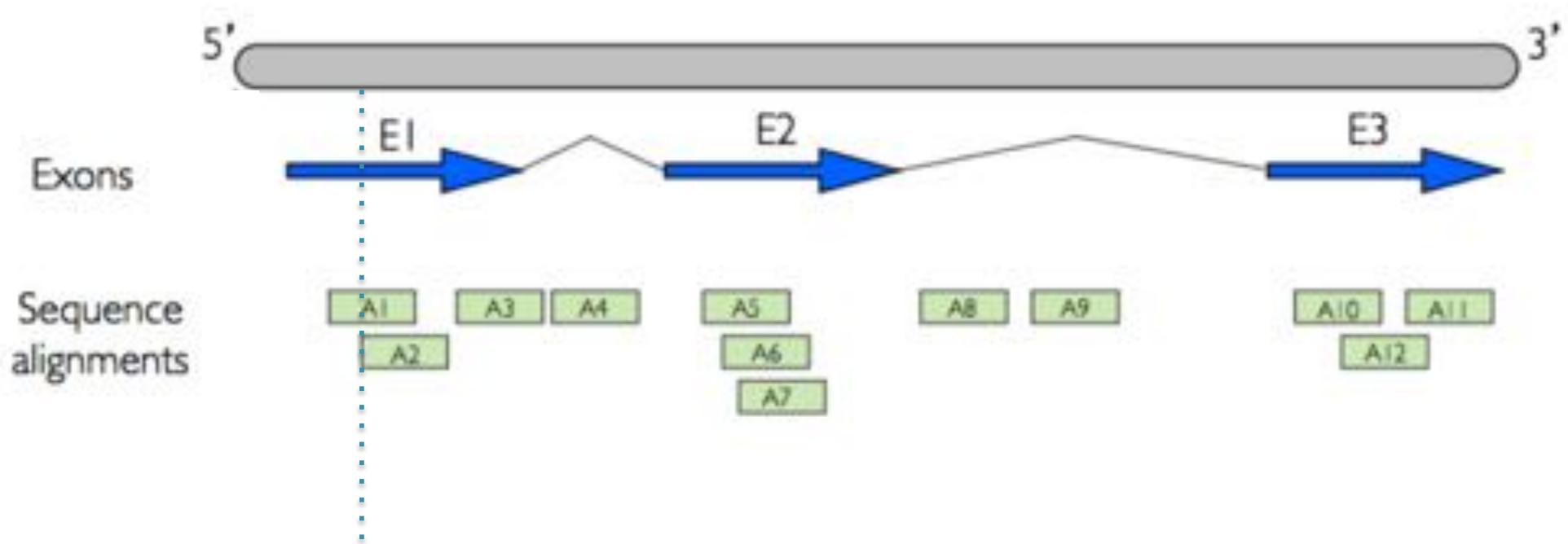
Start of E1  
E1 is active

{E1}

# Plane Sweep to the Rescue!



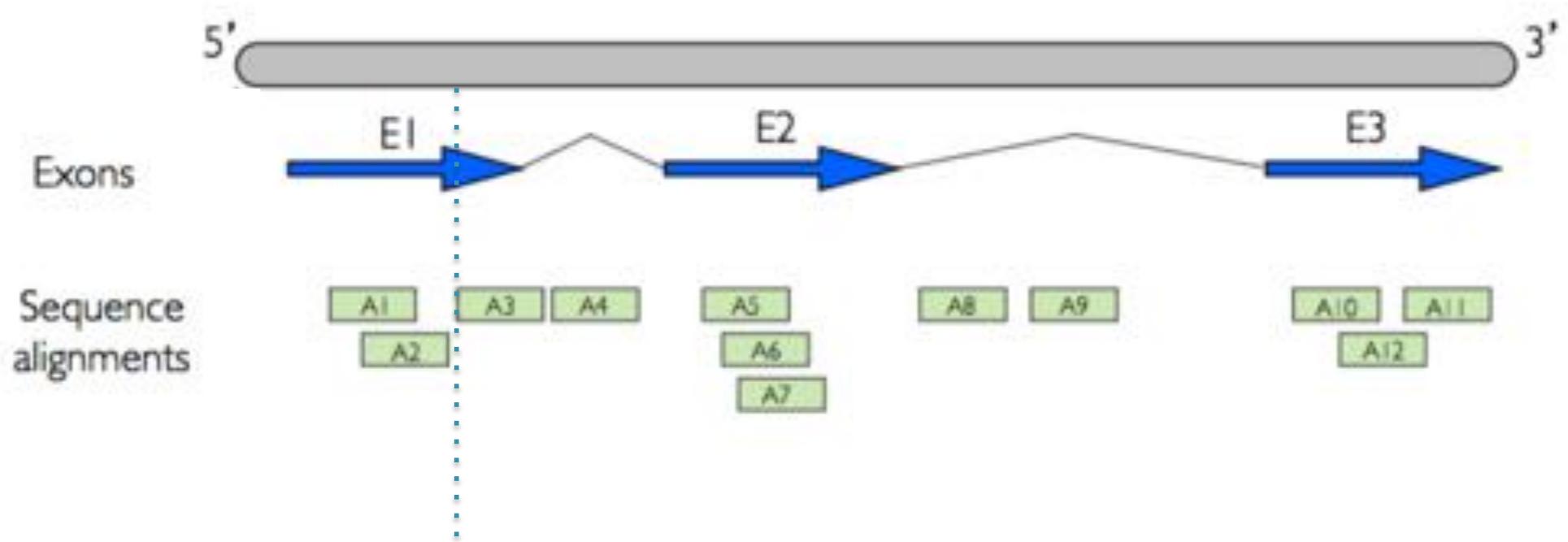
# Plane Sweep to the Rescue!



A2 overlaps E1

{E1=(A1, A2)}

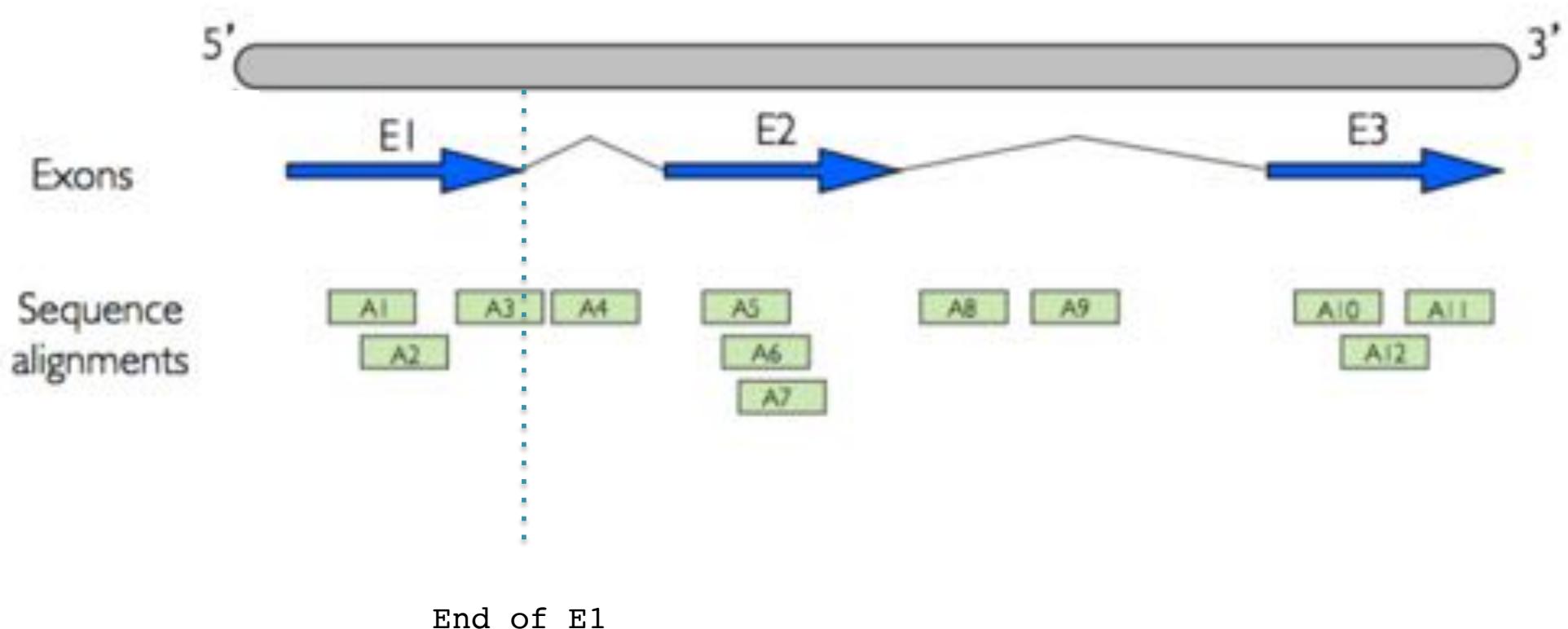
# Plane Sweep to the Rescue!



A3 overlaps E1

{E1=(A1, A2, A3)}

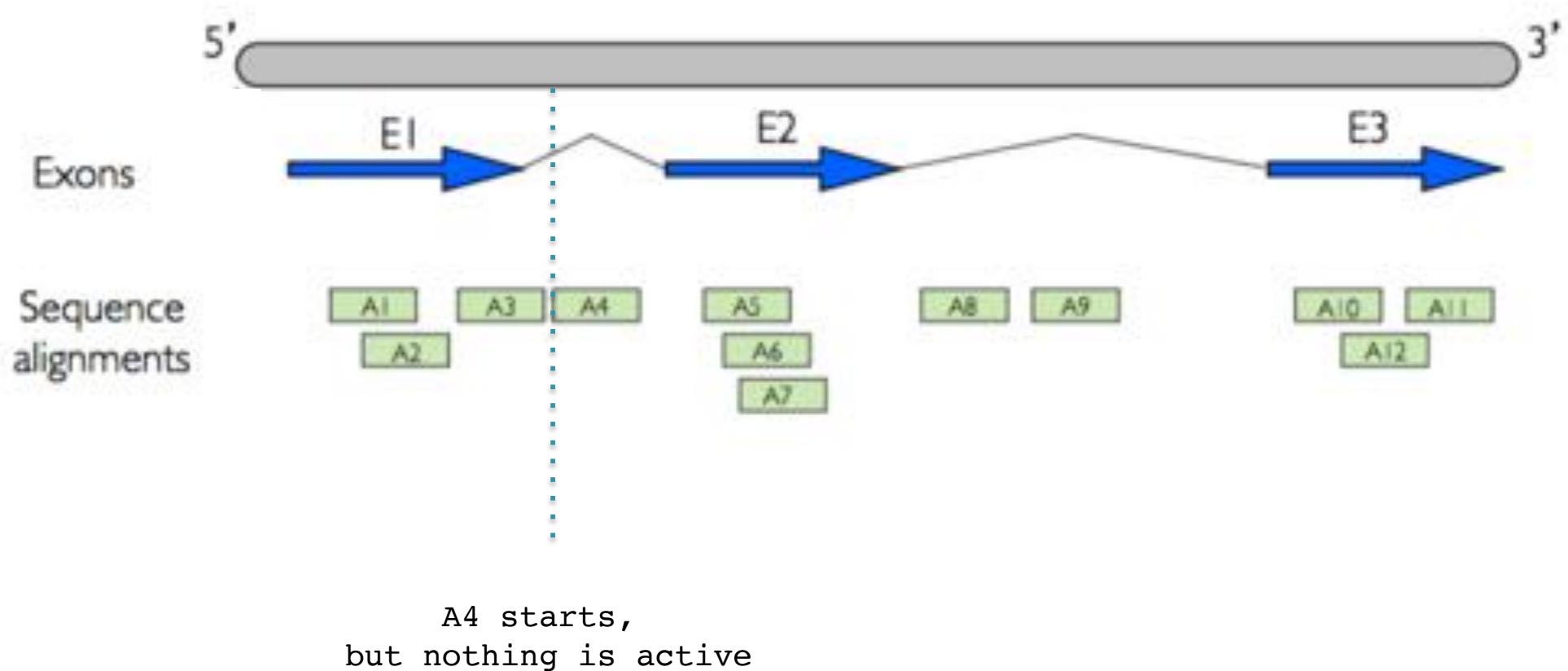
# Plane Sweep to the Rescue!



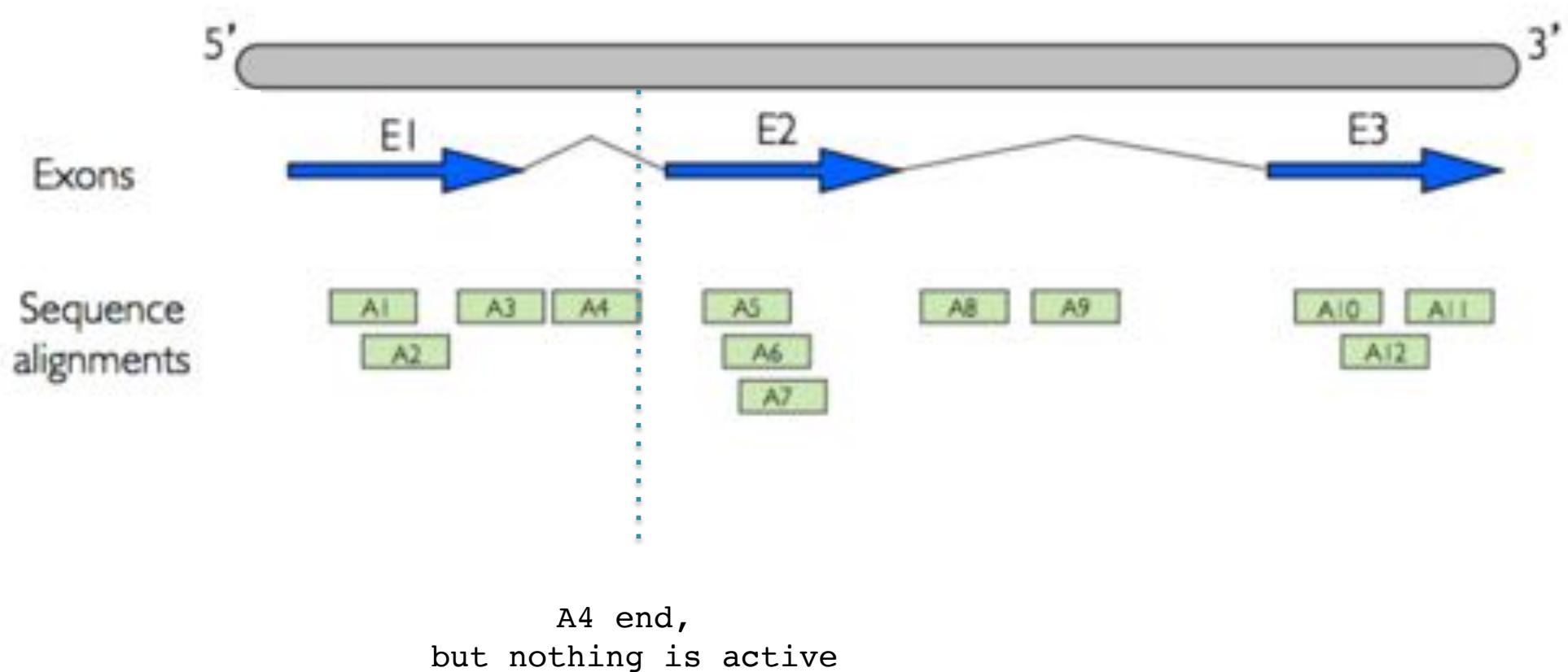
End of E1

Report:  
{E1=(A1, A2, A3)}

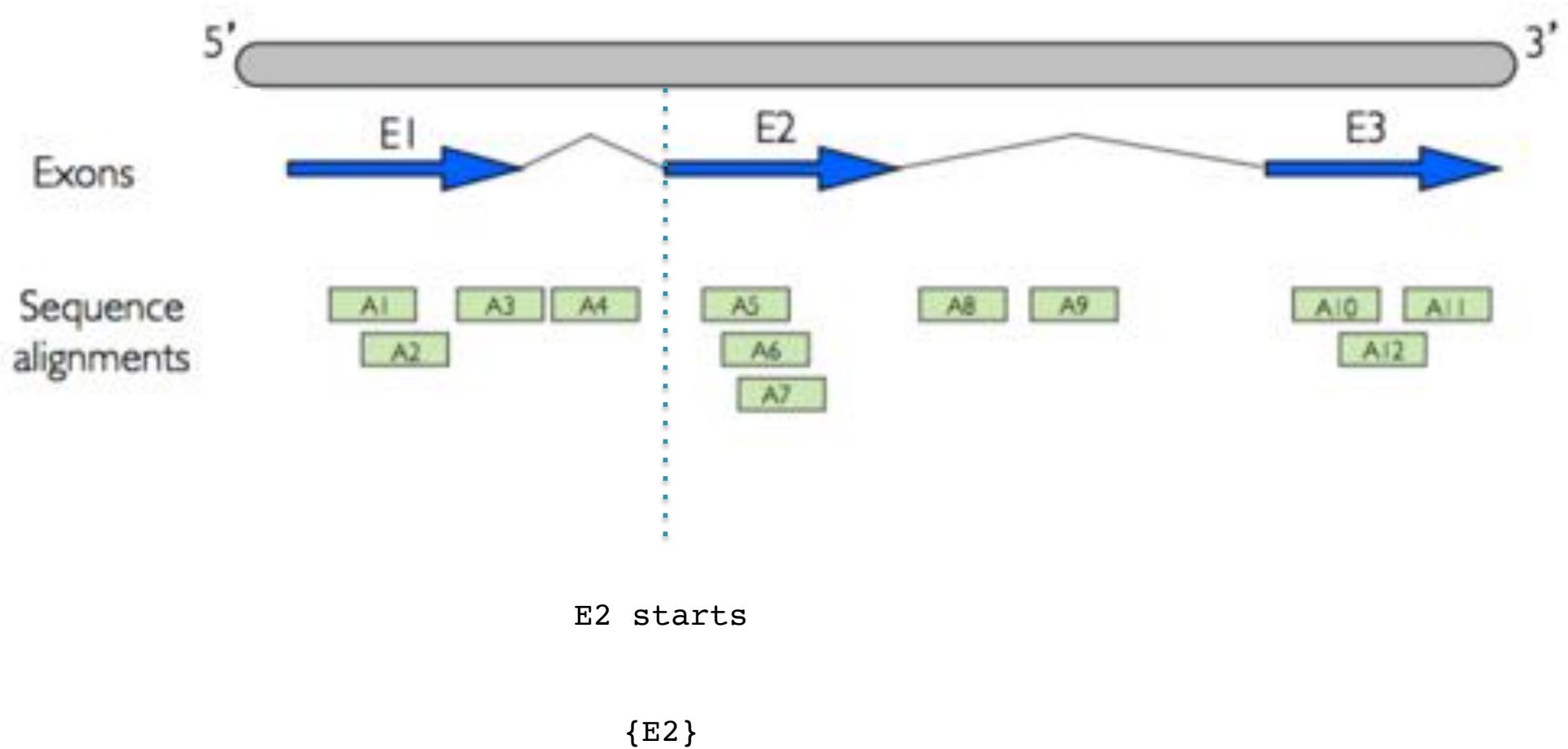
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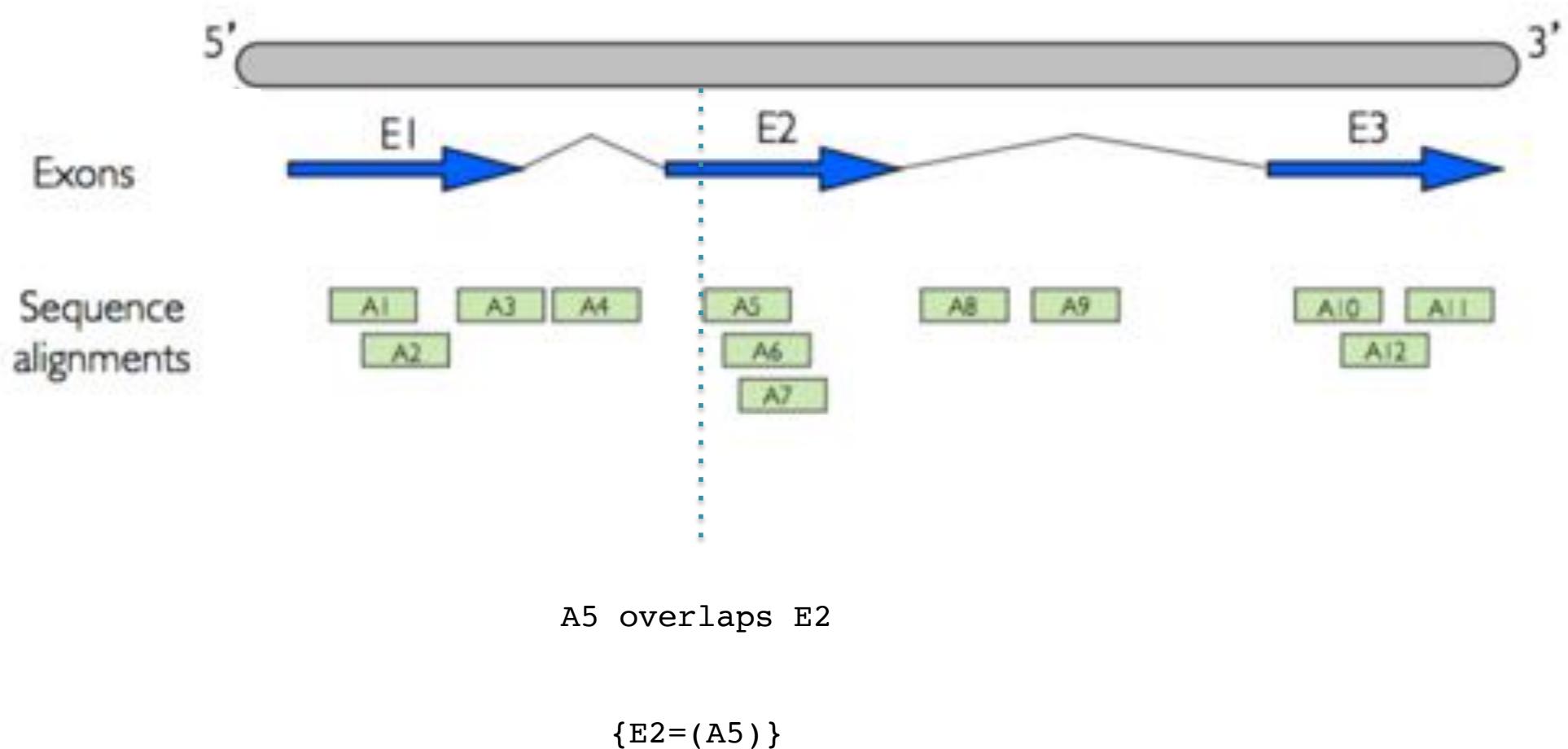
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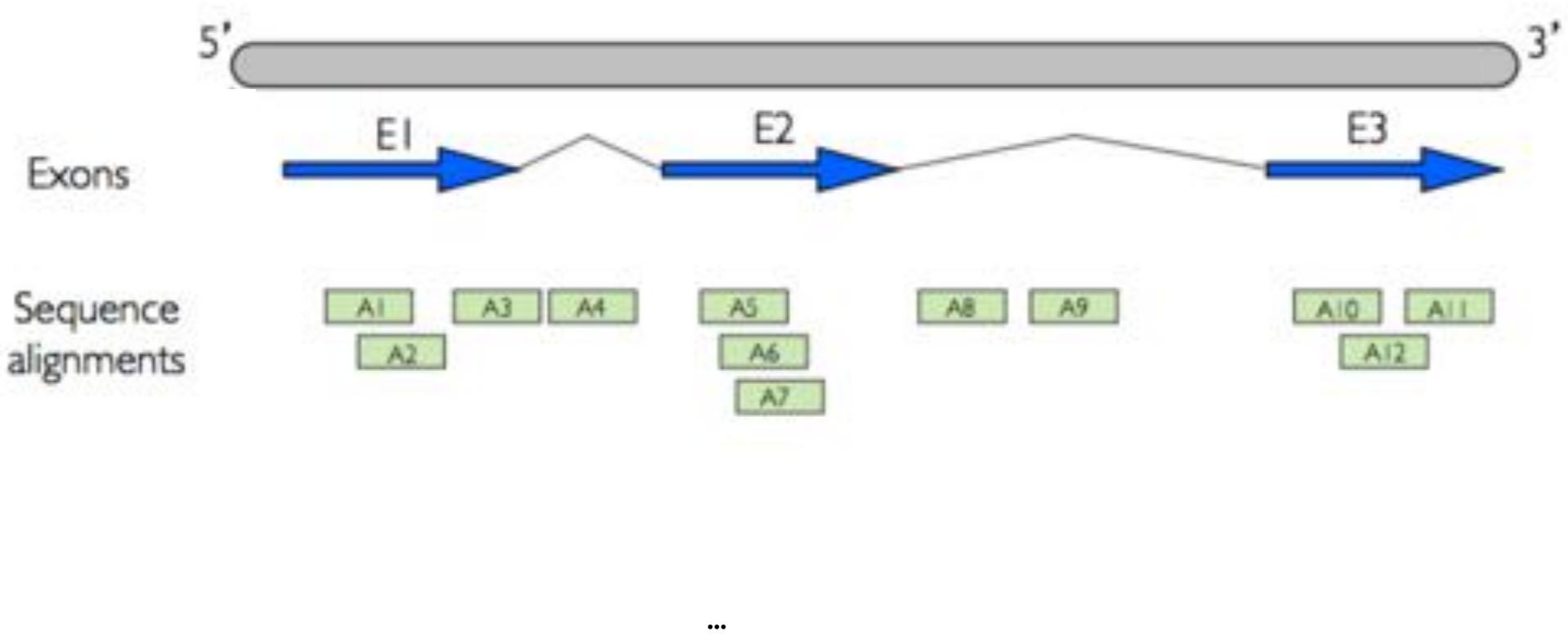
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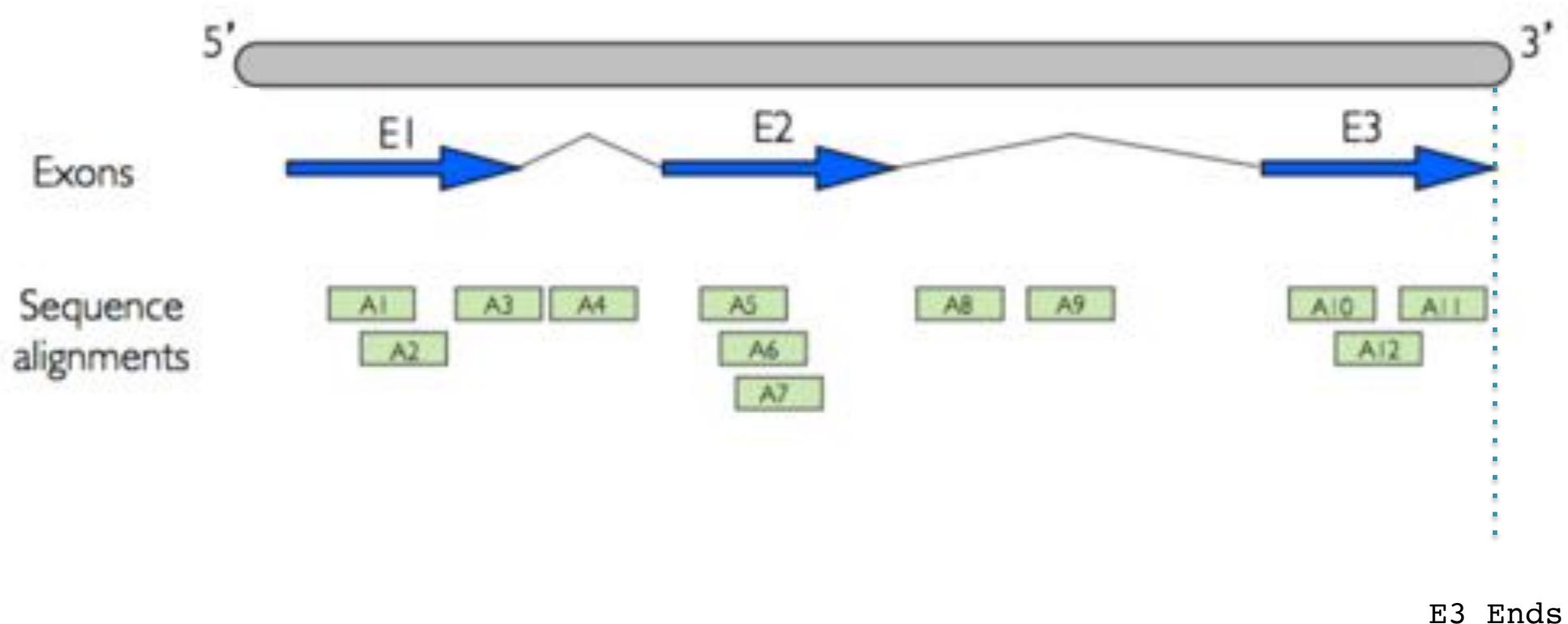
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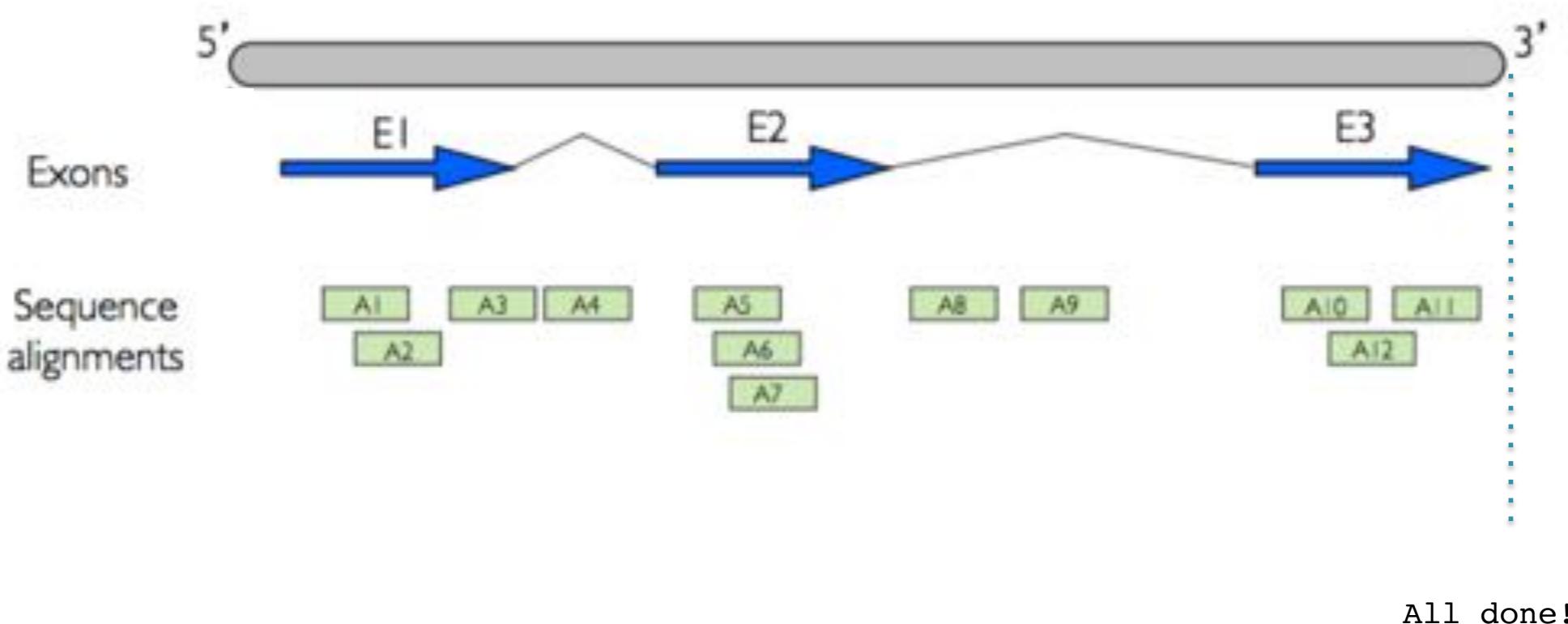
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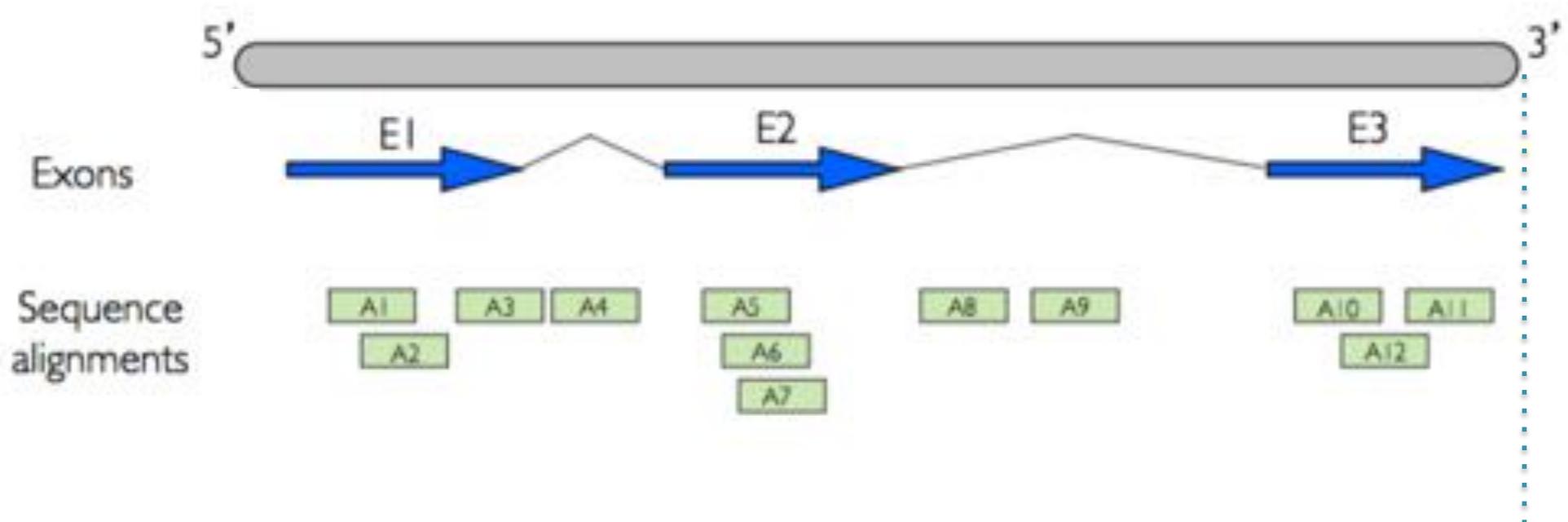
# Plane Sweep to the Rescue!



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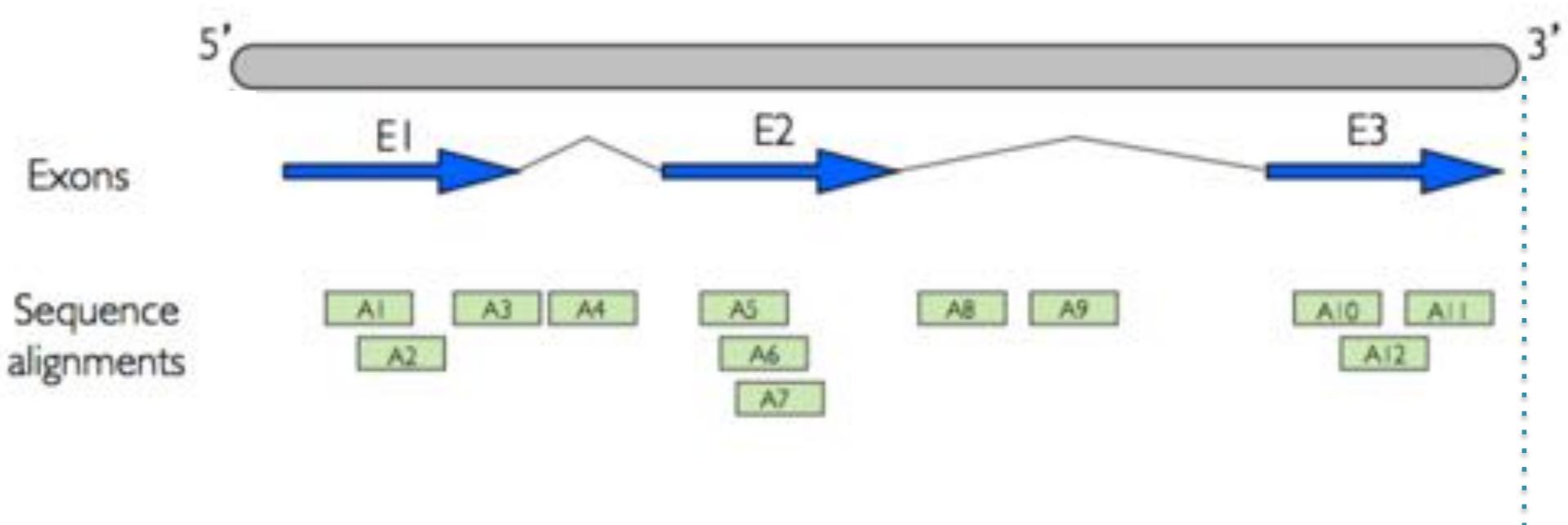
Final Results:

$$E1 = (A1, A2, A3)$$

$$E2 = (A5, A6, A7)$$

$$E3 = (A10, A11, A12)$$

# Plane Sweep to the Rescue!



How many comparisons does the plane sweep algorithm make?

Each read is compared to the “active set”

Relatively few exons overlap: average ~1.1 active exons/position

Total comparisons: 900M reads \* 1.1 “active exons/read” = 990M comparisons ☺

# Heap-based Plane-Sweep

```
## record the delta encoded depth using a plane sweep
deltacovplane = []

## use a list to record the end positions of the elements currently in plane
planeheap = []

## BEGIN SWEEP (note change to index based so can peek ahead)
for rr in xrange(len(reads)):
    r = reads[rr]
    startpos = r[1]
    endpos   = r[2]

    ## clear out any positions from the plane that we have already moved past
    while (len(planeheap) > 0):

        if (planeheap[0] <= startpos):
            ## the coverage steps down, extract it from the front of the list
            ## oldend = planelist.pop(0)
            oldend = heapq.heappop(planeheap)

            nextend = -1
            if (len(planeheap) > 0):
                nextend = planeheap[0]

            ## only record this transition if it is not the same as a start pos
            ## and only if not the same as the next end point
            if ((oldend != startpos) and (oldend != nextend)):
                deltaxcovplane.append((oldend, len(planeheap)))
            else:
                break

        ## Now insert the current endpos into the correct position into the list
        heapq.heappush(planeheap, endpos)

    ## Finally record that the coverage has increased
    ## But make sure the current read does not start at the same position as the next
    if ((rr == len(reads)-1) or (startpos != reads[rr+1][1])):
        deltaxcovplane.append((startpos, len(planeheap)))

    ## if it is at the same place, it will get reported in the next cycle

## Flush any remaining end positions
while (len(planeheap) > 0):
    ##oldend = planelist.pop(0)
    oldend = heapq.heappop(planeheap)
    deltaxcovplane.append((oldend, len(planeheap)))
```

Keep track of reads “touching” the sweep plane using a heap

Compare the new read startpos to the smallest endpos on the sweep

If we have moved past a read, remove from heap

Slightly annoying bookkeeping for reads with same coordinates

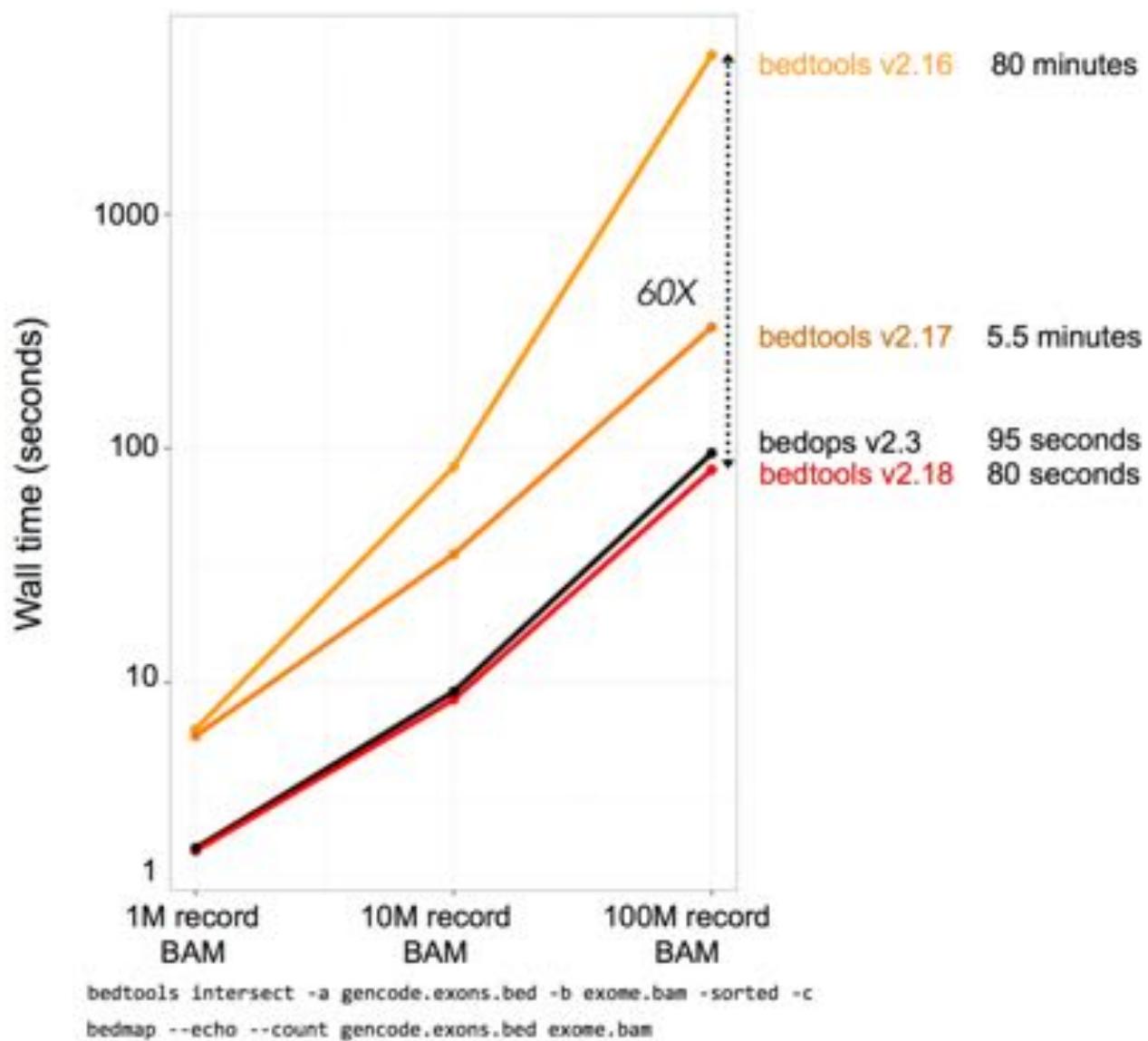
Now add the new read to the sweep plane

Flush at the end

Beginning heap-based plane sweep over 1873 reads

Heap-Plane sweep found 3698 steps, saving 99.62% of the space in 14.26 ms (311.08 speedup)!

# BEDTools Performance



# Part 2: Genome Annotation



# Goal: Genome Annotations

aatgcatgcggctatgcta atgcatgcggctatgcta agctggatccgatgaca atgcatgcggctatgcta  
atgcatgcggctatgca agctggatccgatgactatgcta agctggatccgatgaca atgcatgcggctatgct  
aatgaatggtcttggatt tacctt ggaatgcta agctggatccgatgaca atgcatgcggctatgcta atgaa  
tgg tcttggatt tacctt ggaatatgcta atgcatgcggctatgcta agctggatccgatgaca atgcatgcg  
gctatgcta atgcatgcggctatgca agctggatccgatgactatgcta agctgcggctatgcta atgcatgcg  
gctatgcta agctggatccgatgaca atgcatgcggctatgcta atgcatgcggctatgca agctggatc  
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atgcta atgcatgcggatccgatgaca atgcatgcggctatgcta atgcatgcggctatgca agctggatcc  
gctatgcta agctggatccgatgaca atgcatgcggctatgcta atgcatgcggctatgca agctggatcc  
atgactatgcta agctgcggctatgcta atgcatgcggctatgcta agctcatgcggctatgcta agctggat  
gcatgcggctatgcta agctggatccgatgaca atgcatgcggctatgcta atgcatgcggctatgca agctg  
ggatccgatgactatgcta agctgcggctatgcta atgcatgcggctatgcta agctcggtatgcta atgaa  
gtcttggatt tacctt ggaatgcta agctggatccgatgaca atgcatgcggctatgcta atgcatgcggat  
gatt tacctt ggaatatgcta atgcatgcggctatgcta agctggatgcatgcggctatgcta agctggatc  
cgatgaca atgcatgcggctatgcta atgcatgcggctatgca agctggatccgatgactatgcta agctgcg  
gctatgcta atgcatgcggctatgcta agctcatgcgg

# Goal: Genome Annotations

aatgcatcggttatgctaattgcattgcggctatgctaagctggatccatgacaatgcattgcggctatgcta  
gcatcggttatgcaaggctggatccatgactatgctaagctggatccatgacaatgcattgcggctatgct  
aatgaatggtcttggatttaccttggaaatgctaagctggatccatgacaatgcattgcggctatgcta  
tggcttggatttaccttggaaatgctaattgcattgcggctatgctaagctggatccatgacaatgcattgc  
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gcggctatgctaattgaatggtcttggatttaccttggaaatgctaagctggatccatgacaatgcattgcggct  
atgctaattgaatggtcttggatttaccttggaaatgctaagctggatccatgacaatgcattgcggct  
gctatgctaagctggatccatgacaatgcattgcggctatgctaattgcattgcggctatgcaagctggatcc  
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gcatcggttatgctaagctggatccatgacaatgcattgcggctatgctaattgcattgcggctatgcaagctg  
ggatccatgactatgctaagctggctatgctaattgcattgcggctatgctaagctggctatgctaattgaatg  
gtcttggatttaccttggaaatgctaagctggatccatgacaatgcattgcggctatgctaattgaatggtcttgg  
atttaccttggaaatatgctaattgcattgcggctatgctaagctggatgcattgcggctatgctaagctggatcc  
catgacaatgcattgcggctatgctaattgcattgcggctatgcaagctggatccatgactatgctaagctgc  
gctatgctaattgcattgcggctatgctaagctcatgcgg

# Genetic Code

		1st base									
		U		C		A		G			
2nd base	U	UUU	Phenylalanine	UCU	Serine	UAU	Tyrosine	UGU	Cysteine	U	
	U	UUC	Phenylalanine	UCC	Serine	UAC	Tyrosine	UGC	Cysteine	C	
	U	UUA	Leucine	UCA	Serine	UAA	Stop	UGA	Stop	A	
	U	UUG	Leucine	UCG	Serine	UAG	Stop	UGG	Tryptophan	G	
2nd base	C	CUU	Leucine	CCU	Proline	CAU	Histidine	CGU	Arginine	U	
	C	CUC	Leucine	CCC	Proline	CAC	Histidine	CGC	Arginine	C	
	C	CUA	Leucine	CCA	Proline	CAA	Glutamine	CGA	Arginine	A	
	C	CUG	Leucine	CCG	Proline	CAG	Glutamine	CGG	Arginine	G	
2nd base	A	AUU	Isoleucine	ACU	Threonine	AAU	Asparagine	AGU	Serine	U	
	A	AUC	Isoleucine	ACC	Threonine	AAC	Asparagine	AGC	Serine	C	
	A	AUA	Isoleucine	ACA	Threonine	AAA	Lysine	AGA	Arginine	A	
	A	AUG	Methionine (Start)	ACG	Threonine	AAG	Lysine	AGG	Arginine	G	
2nd base	G	GUU	Valine	GCU	Alanine	GAU	Aspartic Acid	GGU	Glycine	U	
	G	GUC	Valine	GCC	Alanine	GAC	Aspartic Acid	GGC	Glycine	C	
	G	GUA	Valine	GCA	Alanine	GAA	Glutamic Acid	GGA	Glycine	A	
	G	GUG	Valine	GCG	Alanine	GAG	Glutamic Acid	GGG	Glycine	G	
Nonpolar, aliphatic			Polar, uncharged		Aromatic		Positively charged		Negatively charged		



# Outline

1. Alignment to other genomes
2. Prediction aka “Gene Finding”
3. Experimental & Functional Assays



# Outline

1. Alignment to other genomes
2. Prediction aka “Gene Finding”
3. Experimental & Functional Assays

# Basic Local Alignment Search Tool

- Rapidly compare a sequence  $Q$  to a database to find all sequences in the database with a score above some cutoff  $S$ .
  - Which protein is most similar to a newly sequenced one?
  - Where does this sequence of DNA originate?
- Speed achieved by using a procedure that typically finds “most” matches with scores  $> S$ .
  - Tradeoff between sensitivity and specificity/speed
    - Sensitivity – ability to find all related sequences
    - Specificity – ability to reject unrelated sequences

# Seed and Extend

FAKDFLAGGVAAAISKTAVAPIERVKLLLQVQHASKQITADKQYKGIIDCVVRIPKEQGV

FLIDLASGGTAAAVSKTAVAPIERVKLLLQVQDASKAIAVDKRYKGIMDVLIRVPKEQGV

- Homologous sequences are likely to contain a **short high scoring word pair**, a seed.
  - Smaller seed sizes make the sense more sensitive, but also (much) slower
  - Typically do a fast search for prototypes, but then most sensitive for final result
- BLAST then tries to extend high scoring word pairs to compute **high scoring segment pairs** (HSPs).
  - Significance of the alignment reported via an e-value

# Seed and Extend

FAKDFLAGGVAAAISKTAVAPIERVKLLLQVQHASKQITADKQYKGIIDCVVRIPKEQGV  
| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |  
FLIDLASGGTAAAVSKTAVAPIERVKLLLQVQDASKAIAVDKRYKGIMDVLIRVPKEQGV

- Homologous sequences are likely to contain a **short high scoring word pair**, a seed.
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# BLAST E-values

E-value = the number of HSPs having alignment score S (or higher) expected to occur by chance.

- Smaller E-value, more significant in statistics
- Bigger E-value, less significant
- Over 1 means expect this totally by chance  
(not significant at all!)

The expected number of HSPs with the score at least S is :

$$E = K * n * m * e^{-\lambda S}$$

K,  $\lambda$  are constant depending on model

n, m are the length of query and sequence

E-values quickly drop off for better alignment bits scores

# Very Similar Sequences

Query: HBA\_HUMAN Hemoglobin alpha subunit

Sbjct: HBB\_HUMAN Hemoglobin beta subunit

Score = 114 bits (285), Expect = 1e-26

Identities = 61/145 (42%), Positives = 86/145 (59%), Gaps = 8/145 (5%)

Query 2 LSPADKTNVKAAWGKVGAHAGEYGAEALERMFLSFPTTKTYFPHF-----DLSHGSAQV 55  
L+P +K+ V A WGKV + E G EAL R+ + +P T+ +F F D G+ +V

Sbjct 3 LTPEEKSAVTALWGKV--NVDEVGGEALGRLLVVYPWTQRFFESFGDLSTPDAMGNPKV 60

Query 56 KGHGKKVADALTNAVAHVDDMPNALSALSDLHAHKLRDPVNFKLLSHCLLVTLAAHLPA 115  
K HGKKV A ++ +AH+D++ + LS+LH KL VDP NF+LL + L+ LA H

Sbjct 61 KAHGKKVLGAFSDGLAHLDNLKGTFATLSELHCDKLHVDPENFRLLGNVLVCVLAHHFGK 120

Query 116 EFTP AVHASLDKFLASVSTVLTSKY 140  
EFTP V A+ K +A V+ L KY

Sbjct 121 EFTPPVQAAYQKVVAGVANALAHKY 145

# Quite Similar Sequences

Query: HBA\_HUMAN Hemoglobin alpha subunit

Sbjct: MYG\_HUMAN Myoglobin

Score = 51.2 bits (121), Expect = 1e-07,

Identities = 38/146 (26%), Positives = 58/146 (39%), Gaps = 6/146 (4%)

Query 2 LSPADKTNVKAAGKVGAGHAGEYGAELERMFLSFPTTKTYFPF-----DLSHGSAQV 55  
LS + V WGKV A +G E L R+F P T F F D S +

Sbjct 3 LSDGEWQLVVLNVWGKVEADIPGHGQEVLIRLFKGHPETLEKFDKEKHLKSEDEMKAEDL 62

Query 56 KGHGKKVADALTNAVAHVDDMPNALSALSDLHAHKLRVDPVNFKLLSHCLLVTAAHLPA 115  
K HG V AL + + L+ HA K ++ + +S C++ L + P

Sbjct 63 KKHGATVLTALGGILKKKGHHEAEIKPLAQSHATKHKI PVKYLEFISECIIQVLQSKHPG 122

Query 116 EFTPASVHASLDKFLASVSTVLTSKYR 141  
+F +++K L + S Y+

Sbjct 123 DFGADAQGAMNKALELFRKDMASNYK 148

# Not similar sequences

Query: HBA\_HUMAN Hemoglobin alpha subunit

Sbjct: SPAC869.02c [Schizosaccharomyces pombe]

Score = 33.1 bits (74), Expect = 0.24

Identities = 27/95 (28%), Positives = 50/95 (52%), Gaps = 10/95 (10%)

Query 30 ERMFLSFPTTKTYFPHFDSLHGSAQVKGHGKKVADALTNAVAHVDDMPNALSALSDLHAAH 89  
++M ++P P+F+ +H + +A AL N ++DD+ +LSA D

Sbjct 59 QKMLGNYPEV---LPYFNKAHQISL--SQPRILAFALLNYAKNIDDL-TSLSAFMDQIVV 112

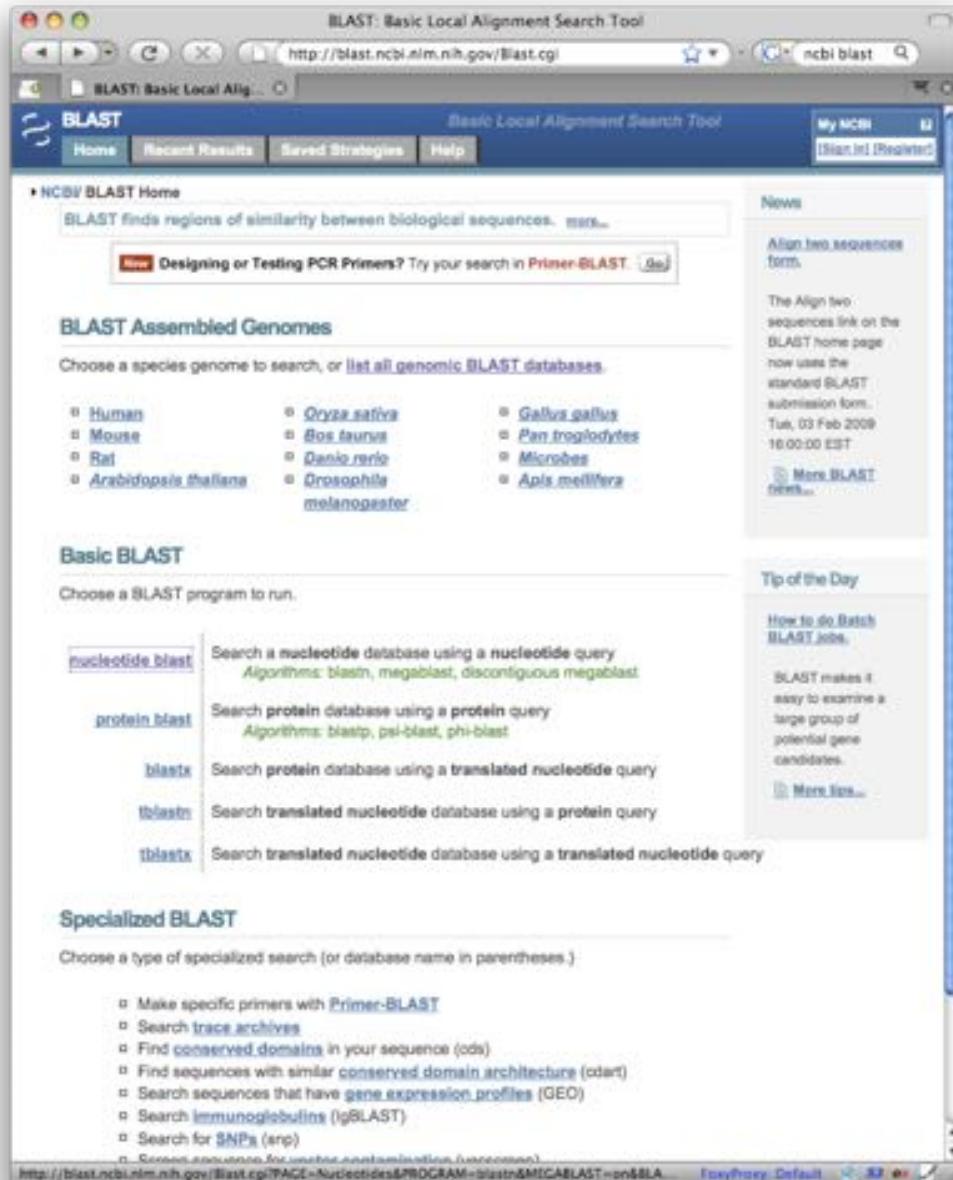
Query 90 K---LRVDPVNFKLLSHCLLVTLAAHLPAEF-TPA 120  
K L++ ++ ++ HCLL T+ LP++ TPA

Sbjct 113 KHVGLQIKAEHYPIVGHCLLSTMQUELLPSDVATPA 147

# Blast Versions

Program	Database	Query
BLASTN	Nucleotide	Nucleotide
BLASTP	Protein	Protein
BLASTX	Protein	Nucleotide translated into protein
TBLASTN	Nucleotide translated into protein	Protein
TBLASTX	Nucleotide translated into protein	Nucleotide translated into protein

# NCBI Blast

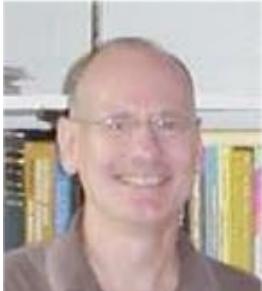


- Nucleotide Databases
  - nr:All Genbank
  - refseq: Reference organisms
  - wgs:All reads
- Protein Databases
  - nr:All non-redundant sequences
  - Refseq: Reference proteins



# Outline

1. Alignment to other genomes
2. Prediction aka “Gene Finding”
3. Experimental & Functional Assays



# Bacterial Gene Finding and Glimmer

(also Archaeal and viral gene finding)

Arthur L. Delcher and Steven Salzberg  
Center for Bioinformatics and Computational Biology  
Johns Hopkins University School of Medicine

# Step One

- Find open reading frames (ORFs).

A diagram showing a segment of DNA sequence: ...TAGATGAATGGCTCTTTAGATAAATTTCATGAAAAAATTGA.... A green rectangular box highlights a portion of the sequence: TAGATGAATGGCTCTTTAGATAAATTTCATGAAAAAATTGA. Three red arrows point to specific codons within this box: one points to the first 'TGA' (labeled 'Start codon'), another points to the last 'TGA' (labeled 'Stop codon'), and a third points to the second 'TGA' (also labeled 'Stop codon').

Start codon

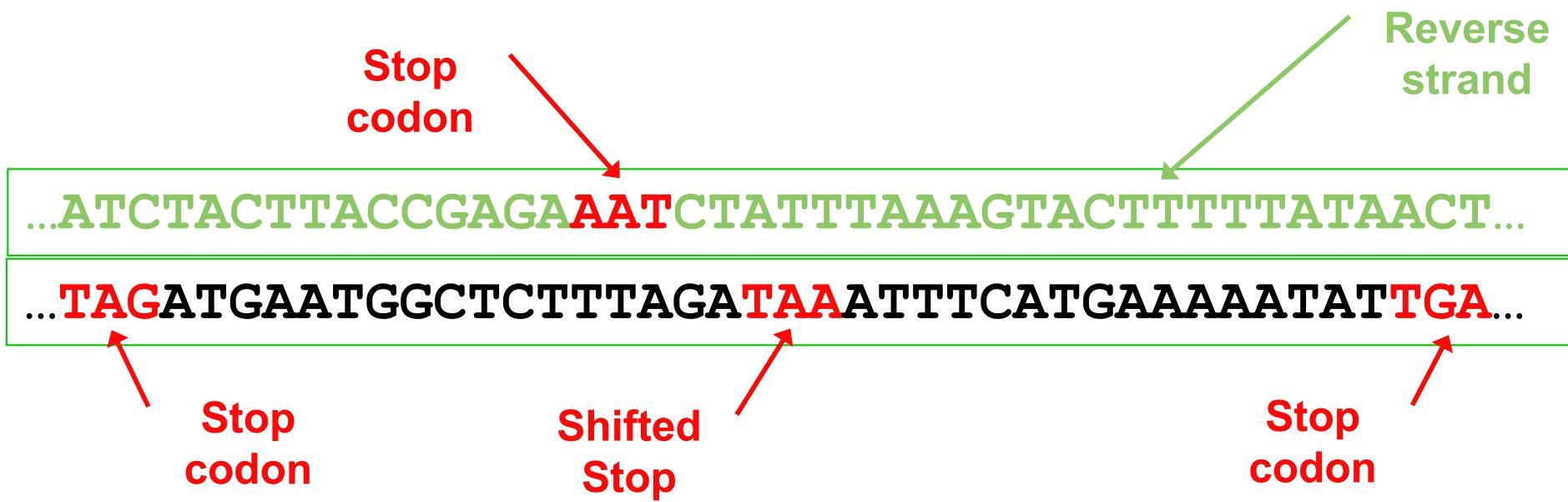
Stop codon

Stop codon

...TAGATGAATGGCTCTTTAGATAAATTTCATGAAAAAATTGA...

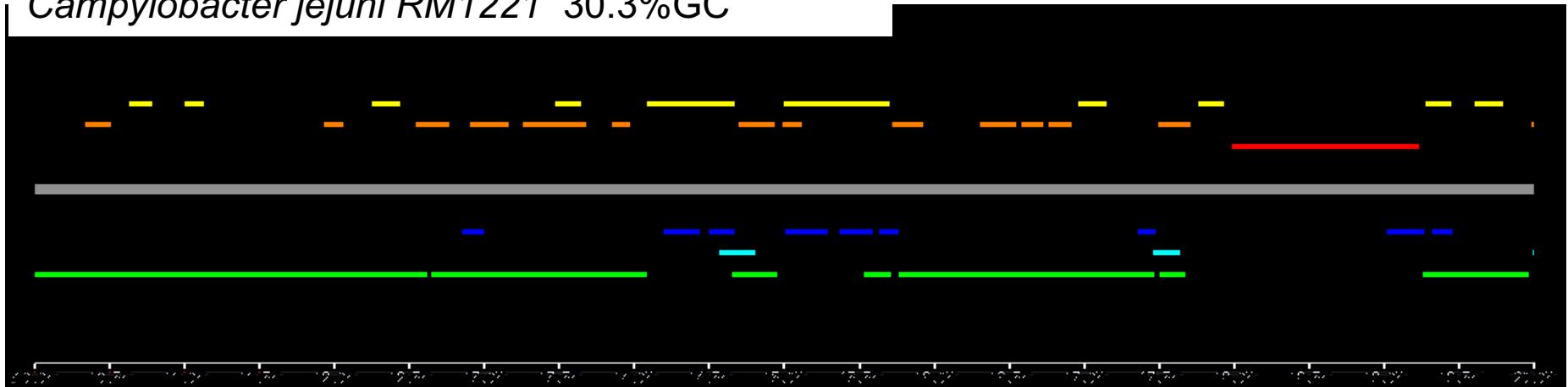
# Step One

- Find open reading frames (ORFs).



- But ORFs generally overlap ...

*Campylobacter jejuni* RM1221 30.3%GC

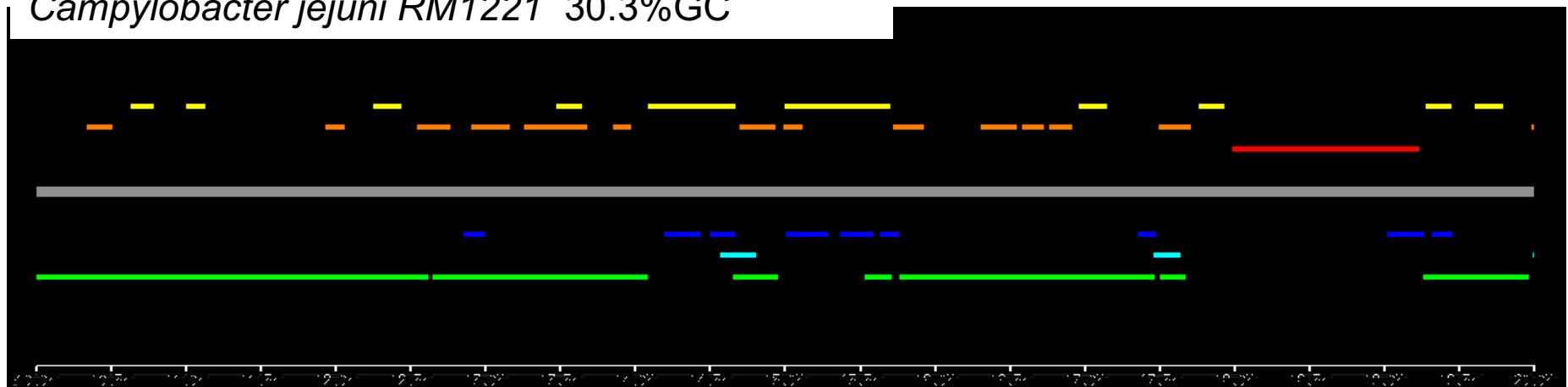


All ORFs longer than 100bp on both strands shown  
- color indicates reading frame  
Longest ORFs likely to be protein-coding genes

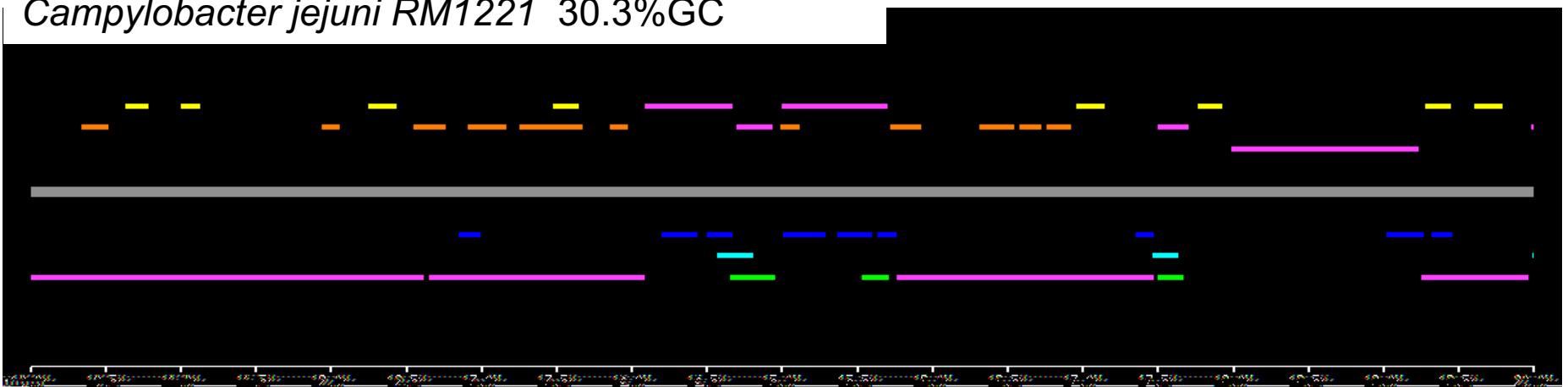
Note the low GC content

All genes are ORFs but not all ORFs are genes

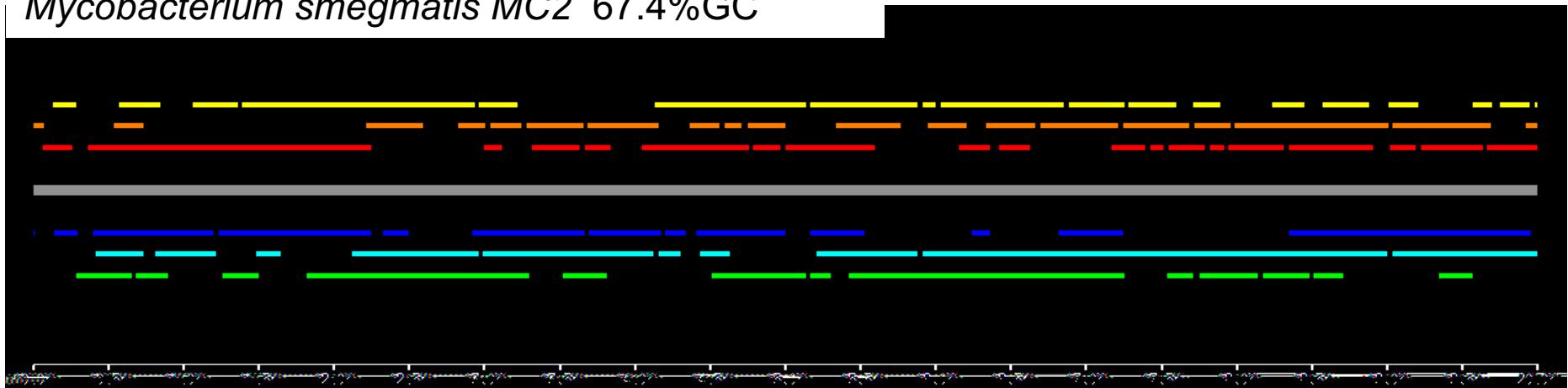
*Campylobacter jejuni* RM1221 30.3%GC



*Campylobacter jejuni* RM1221 30.3%GC

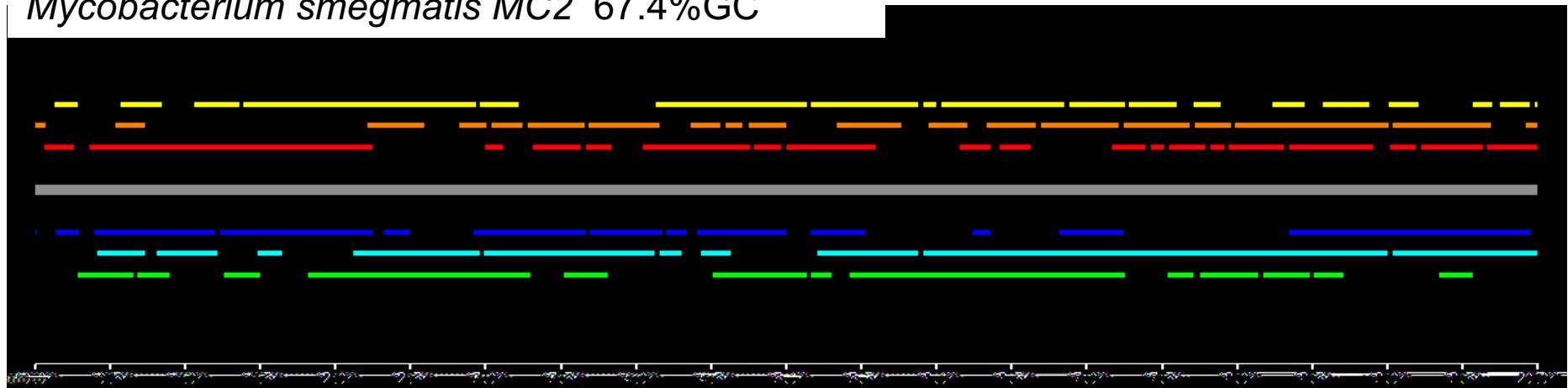


*Mycobacterium smegmatis MC2* 67.4%GC

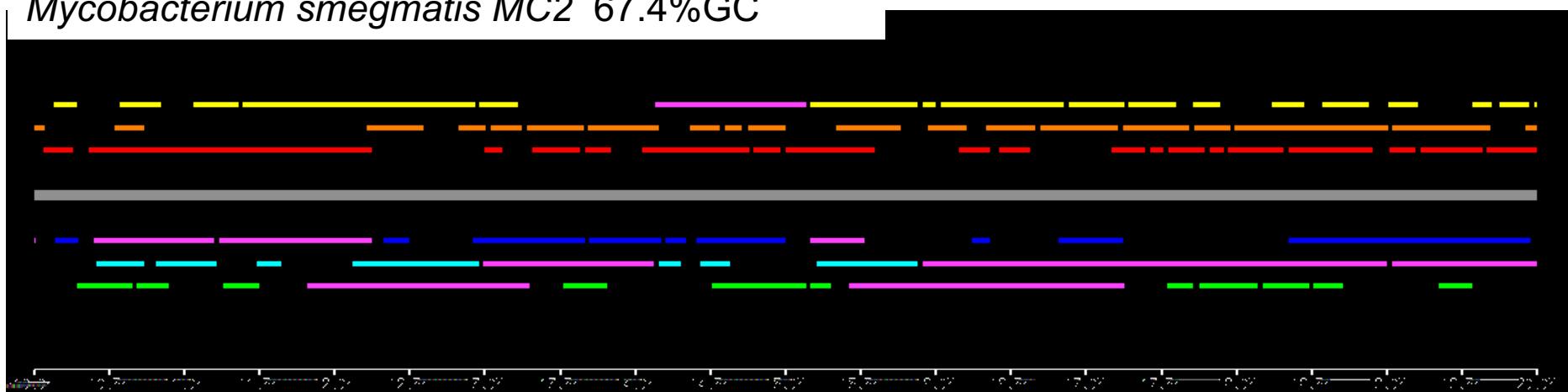


Note what happens in a high-GC genome

*Mycobacterium smegmatis* MC2 67.4%GC



*Mycobacterium smegmatis* MC2 67.4%GC



# Probabilistic Methods

- Create models that have a probability of generating any given sequence.
  - Evaluate gene/non-genome models against a sequence
- Train the models using examples of the types of sequences to generate.
  - Use RNA sequencing, homology, or “obvious” genes
- The “score” of an orf is the probability of the model generating it.
  - Most basic technique is to count how kmers occur in known genes versus intergenic sequences
  - More sophisticated methods consider variable length contexts, “wobble” bases, other statistical clues

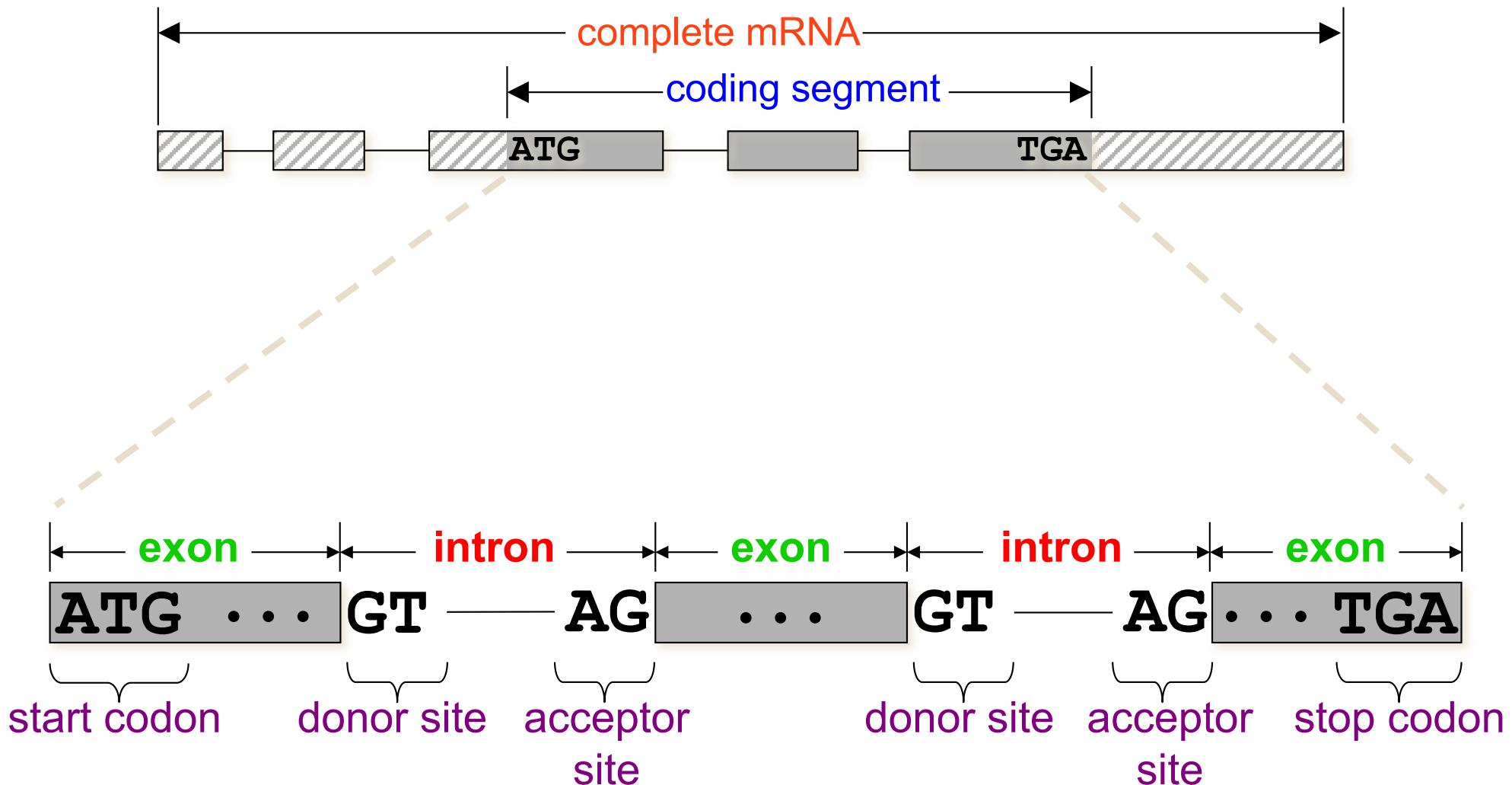


# Overview of Eukaryotic Gene Prediction

CBB 231 / COMPSCI 261

*W.H. Majoros*

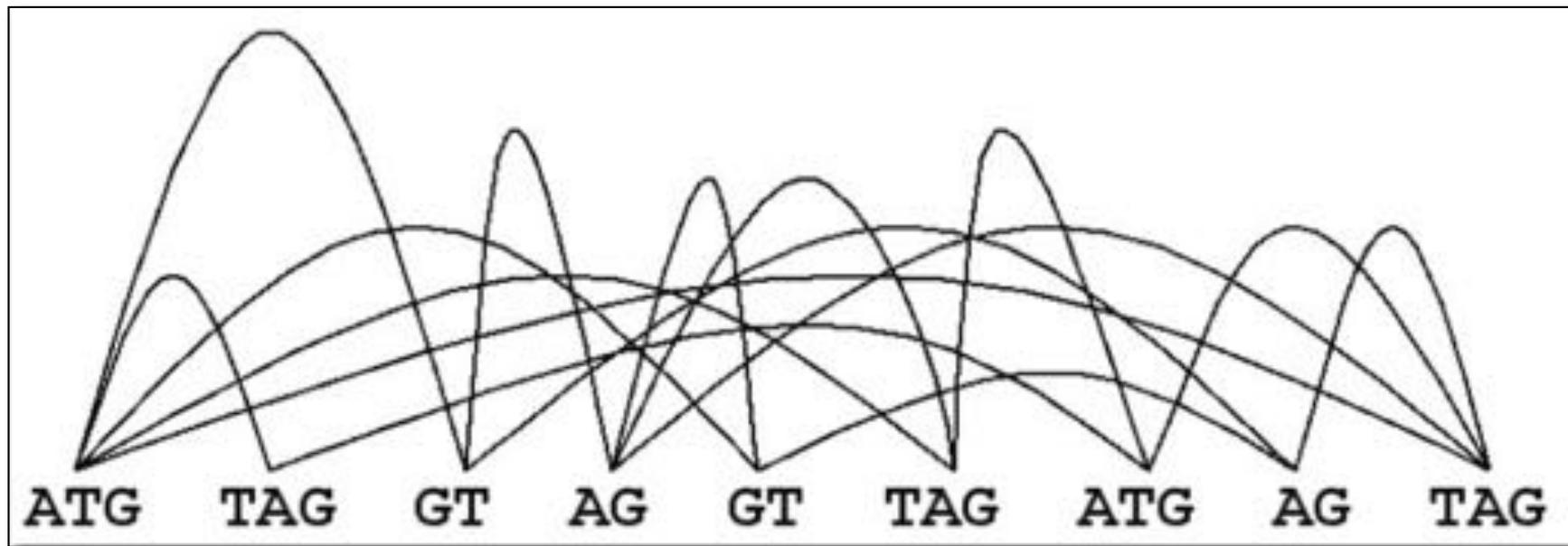
# Eukaryotic Gene Syntax



Regions of the gene outside of the CDS are called **UTR's** (*untranslated regions*), and are mostly ignored by gene finders, though they are important for regulatory functions.

# Representing Gene Syntax with ORF Graphs

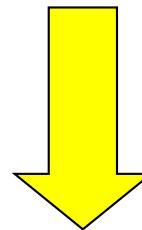
After identifying the most promising (i.e., highest-scoring) signals in an input sequence, we can apply the gene syntax rules to connect these into an *ORF graph*:



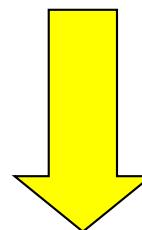
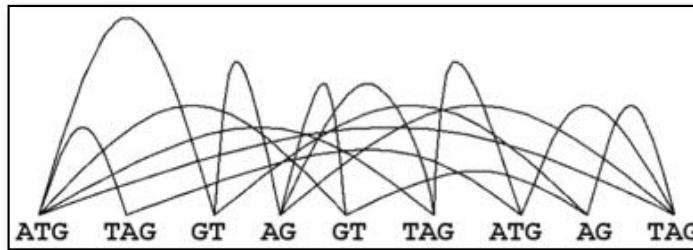
An ORF graph represents all possible *gene parses* (and their scores) for a given set of putative signals. A *path* through the graph represents a single gene parse.

# Conceptual Gene-finding Framework

TATTCCGATCGATCGATCTCTCTAGCGTCTACG  
CTATCATCGCTCTCTATTATCGCGCGATCGTCG  
ATCGCGCGAGAGTATGCTACGTGATCGAATTG



identify most promising signals, score signals and content regions between them; induce an ORF graph on the signals

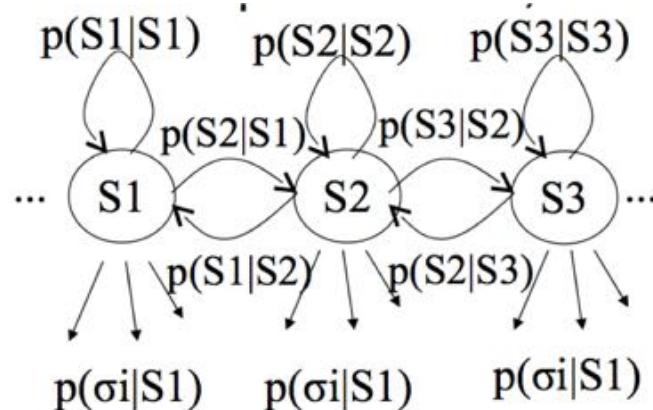


find highest-scoring path through ORF graph;  
interpret path as a gene parse = gene structure



# Why Hidden?

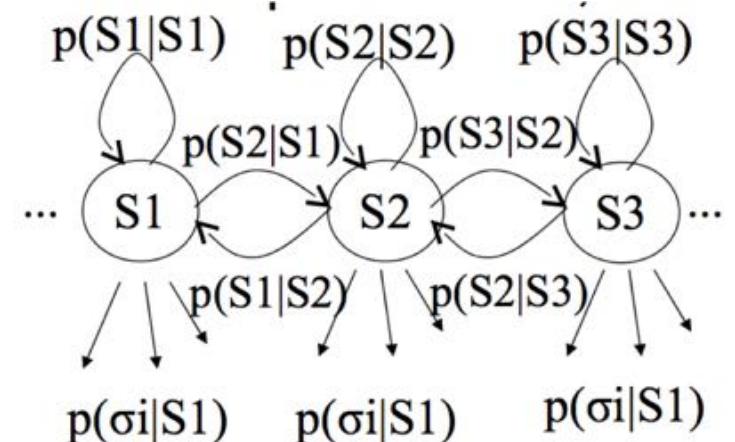
- Similar to Markov models used for prokaryotic gene finding, but system may transition between multiple models called states (gene/non-gene, intergenic/exon/intron)
- Observers can see the emitted symbols of an HMM (i.e., nucleotides) but have no ability to know which state the HMM is currently in.
  - But we can *infer* the most likely hidden states of an HMM based on the given sequence of emitted symbols.



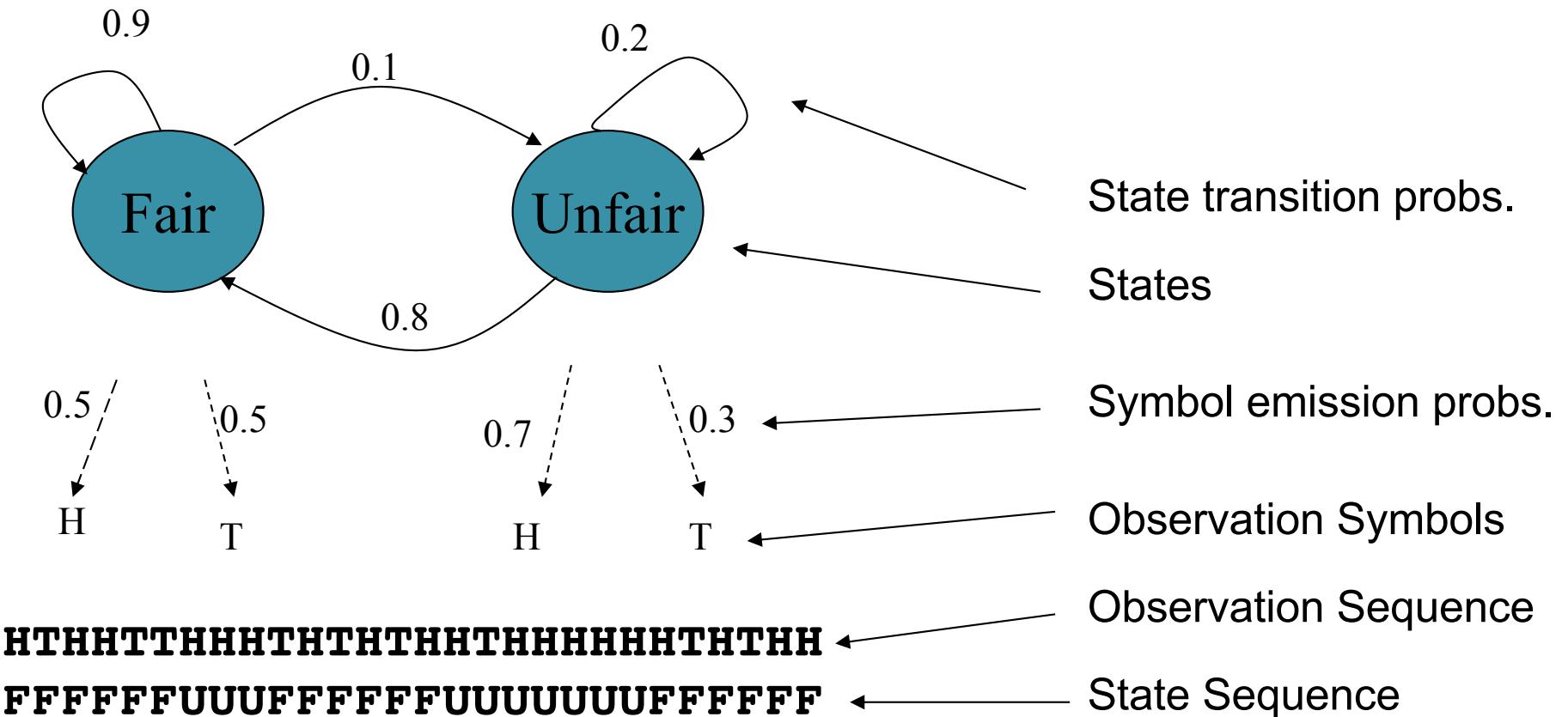
AAAGCATGCATTAACGTGAGCACAAATAGATTACA

# What is an HMM?

- Dynamic Bayesian Network
  - A set of states
    - {Fair, Biased} for coin tossing
    - {Gene, Not Gene} for Bacterial Gene
    - {Intergenic, Exon, Intron} for Eukaryotic Gene
  - A set of emission characters
    - $E=\{H,T\}$  for coin tossing
    - $E=\{1,2,3,4,5,6\}$  for dice tossing
    - $E=\{A,C,G,T\}$  for DNA
  - State-specific emission probabilities
    - $P(H | \text{Fair}) = .5, P(T | \text{Fair}) = .5, P(H | \text{Biased}) = .9, P(T | \text{Biased}) = .1$
    - $P(A | \text{Gene}) = .9, P(A | \text{Not Gene}) = .1 \dots$
  - A probability of taking a transition
    - $P(s_i=\text{Fair} | s_{i-1}=\text{Fair}) = .9, P(s_i=\text{Bias} | s_{i-1}=\text{Fair}) = .1$
    - $P(s_i=\text{Exon} | s_{i-1}=\text{Intergenic}), \dots$



# HMM Example - Casino Coin



**Motivation:** Given a sequence of H & Ts, can you tell at what times the casino cheated?

# Three classic HMM problems

1. **Evaluation:** given a model and an output sequence, what is the probability that the model generated that output?
2. **Decoding:** given a model and an output sequence, what is the most likely state sequence through the model that generated the output?
3. **Learning:** given a model and a set of observed sequences, how do we set the model's parameters so that it has a high probability of generating those sequences?

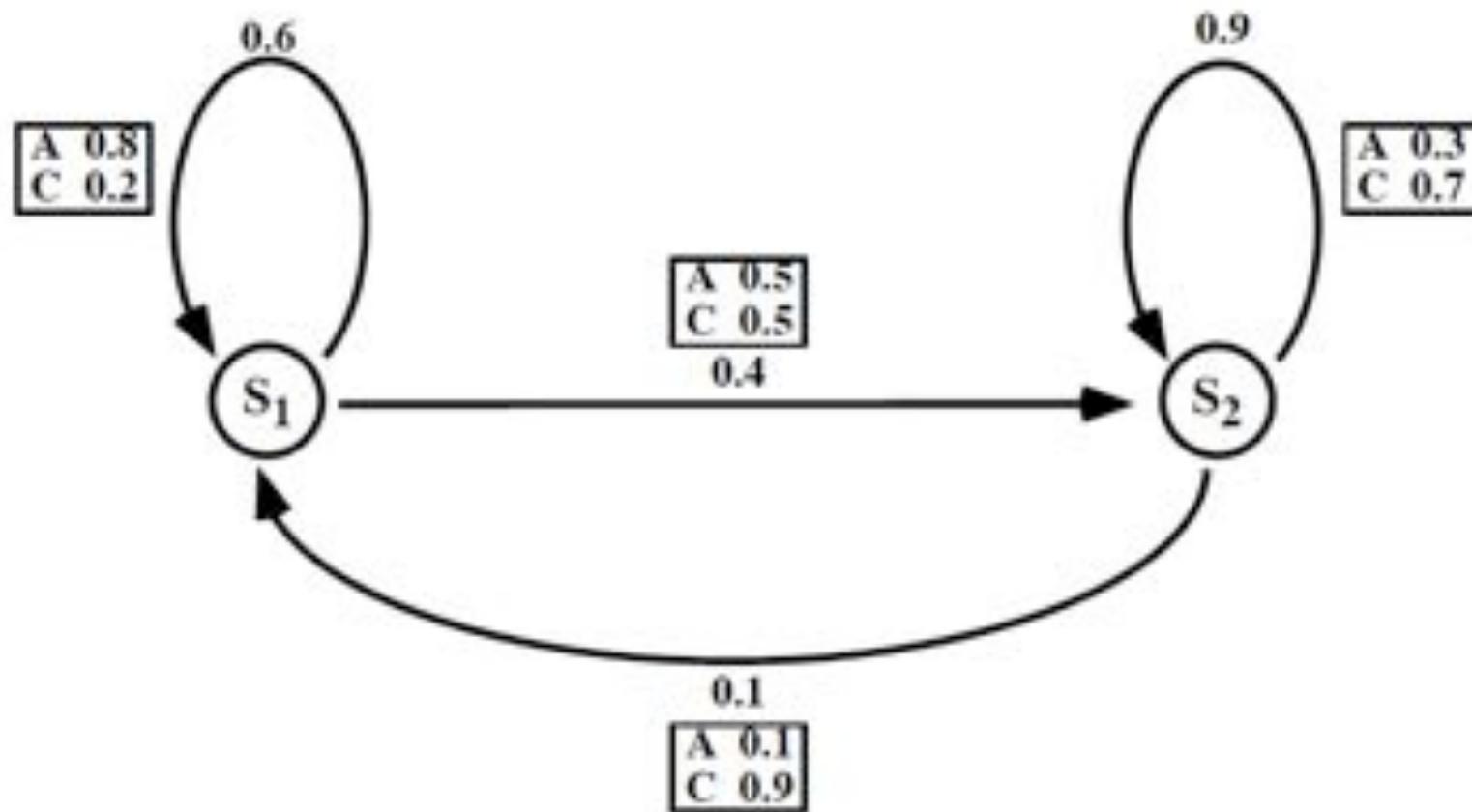
# Three classic HMM problems

1. **Evaluation:** given a model and an output sequence, what is the probability that the model generated that output?
  - To answer this, we consider all possible paths through the model
  - Example: we might have a set of HMMs representing protein families -> pick the model with the best score

# Solving the Evaluation problem: The Forward algorithm

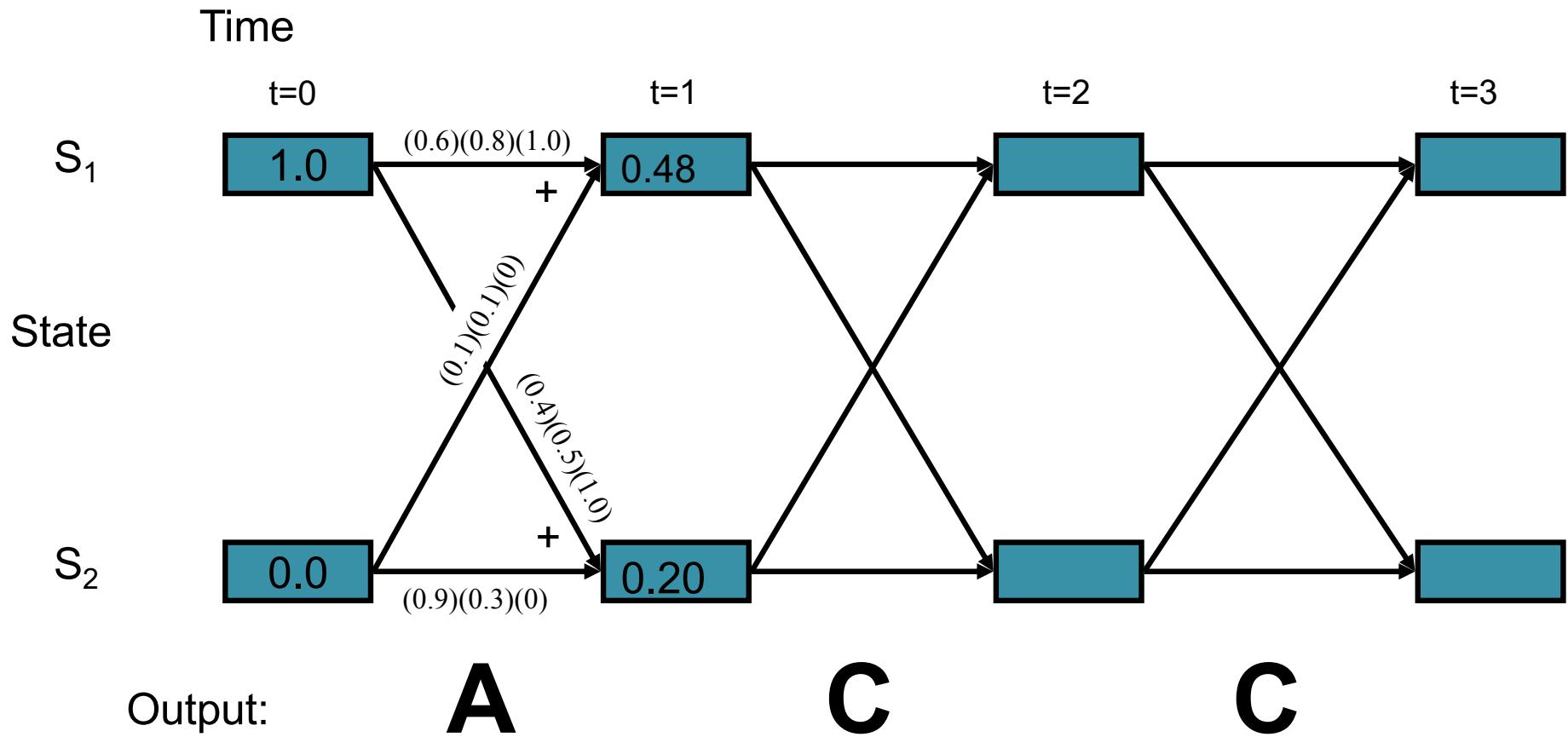
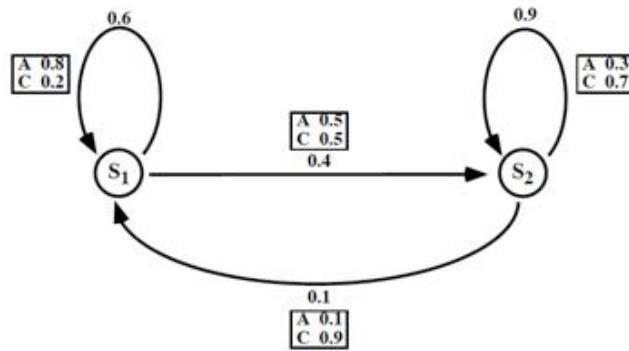
- To solve the Evaluation problem (probability that the model generated the sequence), we use the HMM and the data to build a *trellis*
- Filling in the trellis will give tell us the probability that the HMM generated the data by finding all possible paths that could do it
  - Especially useful to evaluate from which models, a given sequence is most likely to have originated

# Our sample HMM

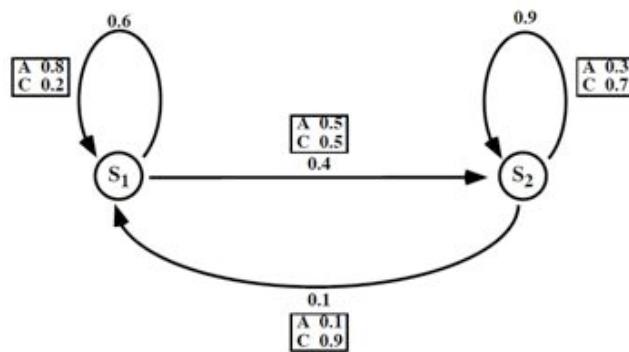


Let  $S_1$  be initial state,  $S_2$  be final state

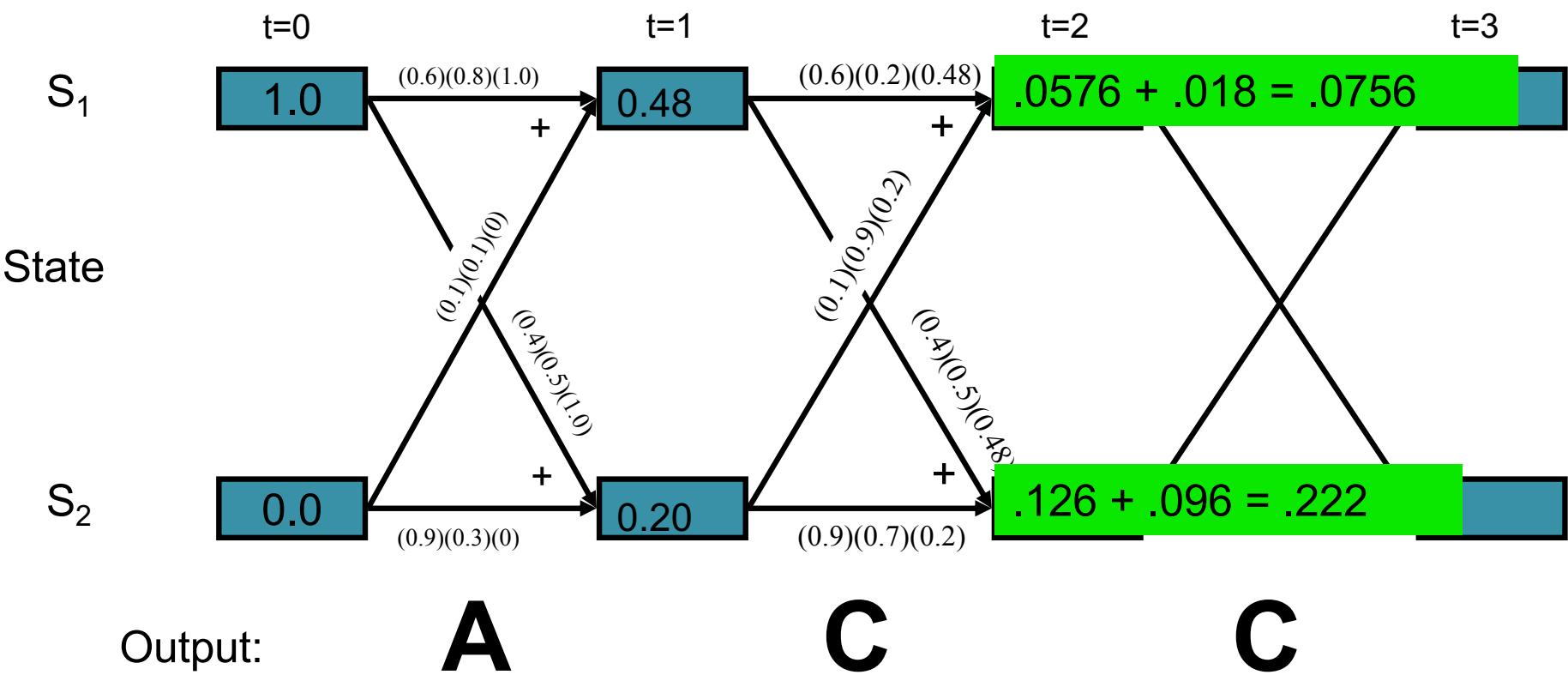
# A trellis for the Forward Algorithm



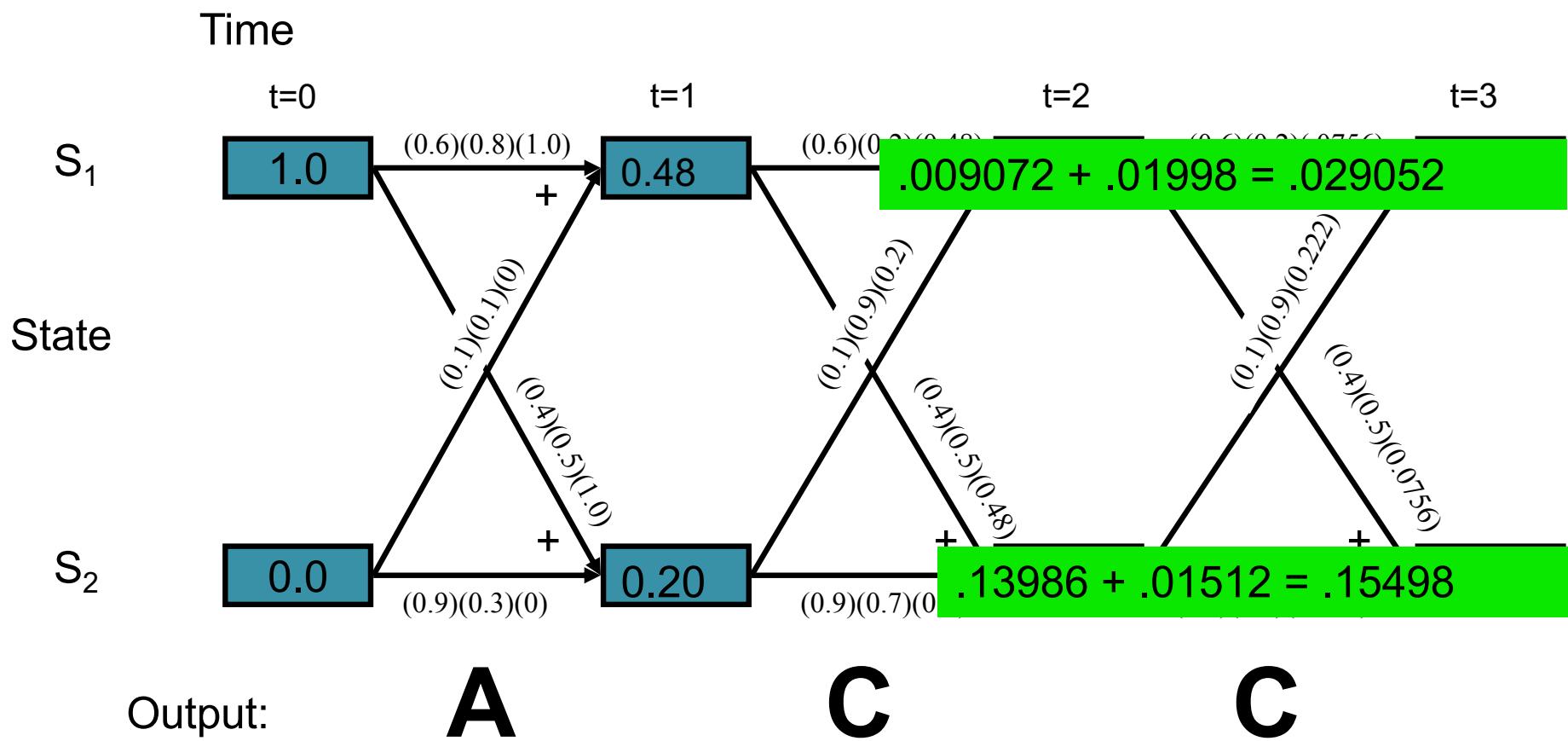
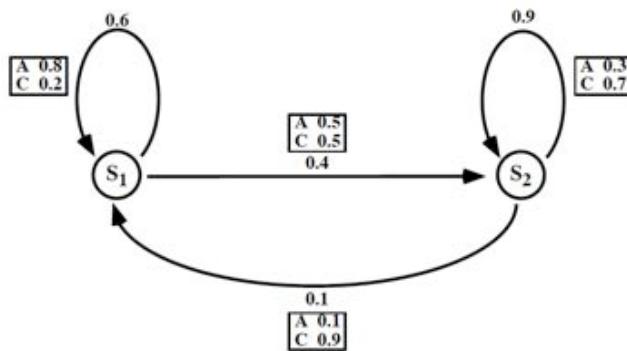
# A trellis for the Forward Algorithm



Time



# A trellis for the Forward Algorithm



# Probability of the model

- The Forward algorithm computes  $P(y|M)$
- If we are comparing two or more models, we want the likelihood that each model generated the data:  $P(M|y)$

– Use Bayes' law:

$$P(M | y) = \frac{P(y | M)P(M)}{P(y)}$$

- Since  $P(y)$  is constant for a given input, we just need to maximize  $P(y|M)P(M)$

# Three classic HMM problems

2. **Decoding:** given a model and an output sequence, what is the most likely state sequence through the model that generated the output?
  - A solution to this problem gives us a way to match up an observed sequence and the states in the model.

AAAGCATGCATTAACGAGAGCACAGGGCTCTAATGCCG

The sequence of states is an annotation of the generated string – each nucleotide is generated in **intergenic**, **start/stop**, **coding** state

# Three classic HMM problems

2. **Decoding:** given a model and an output sequence, what is the most likely state sequence through the model that generated the output?
  - A solution to this problem gives us a way to match up an observed sequence and the states in the model.

AAAGC **ATG** CAT TTA ACG AGA GCA CAA GGG CTC **TAA** TGCCG

The sequence of states is an annotation of the generated string – each nucleotide is generated in **intergenic**, **start/stop**, **coding** state

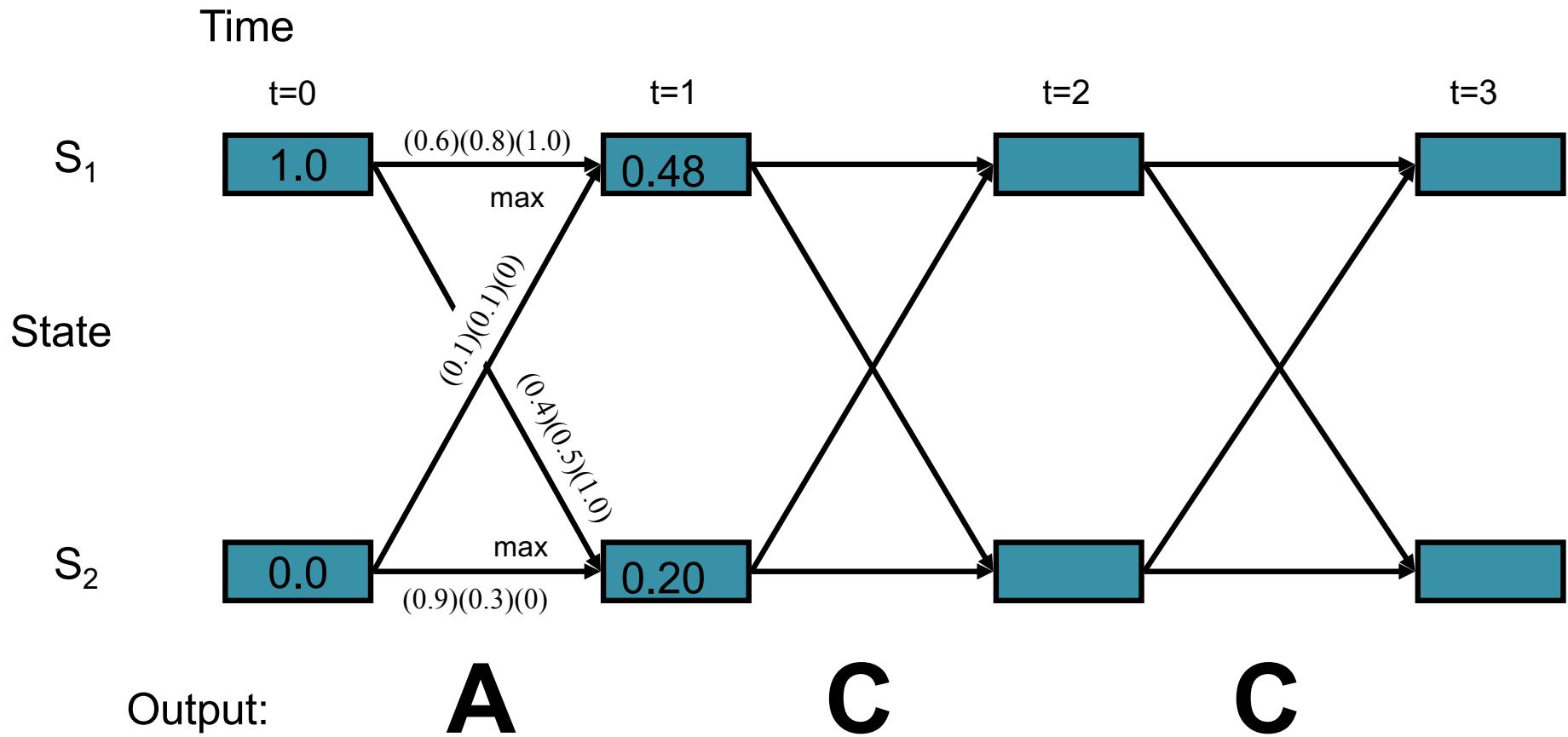
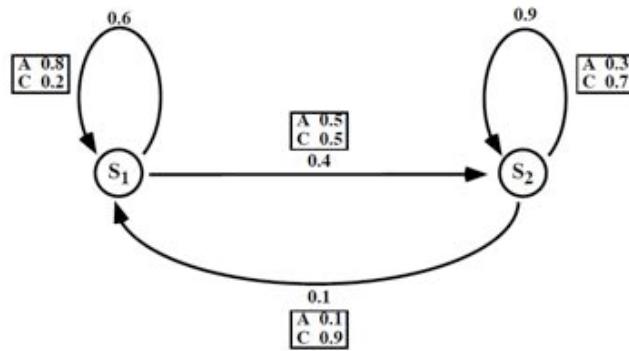
# Solving the Decoding Problem: The Viterbi algorithm

- To solve the decoding problem (find the most likely sequence of states), we evaluate the Viterbi algorithm

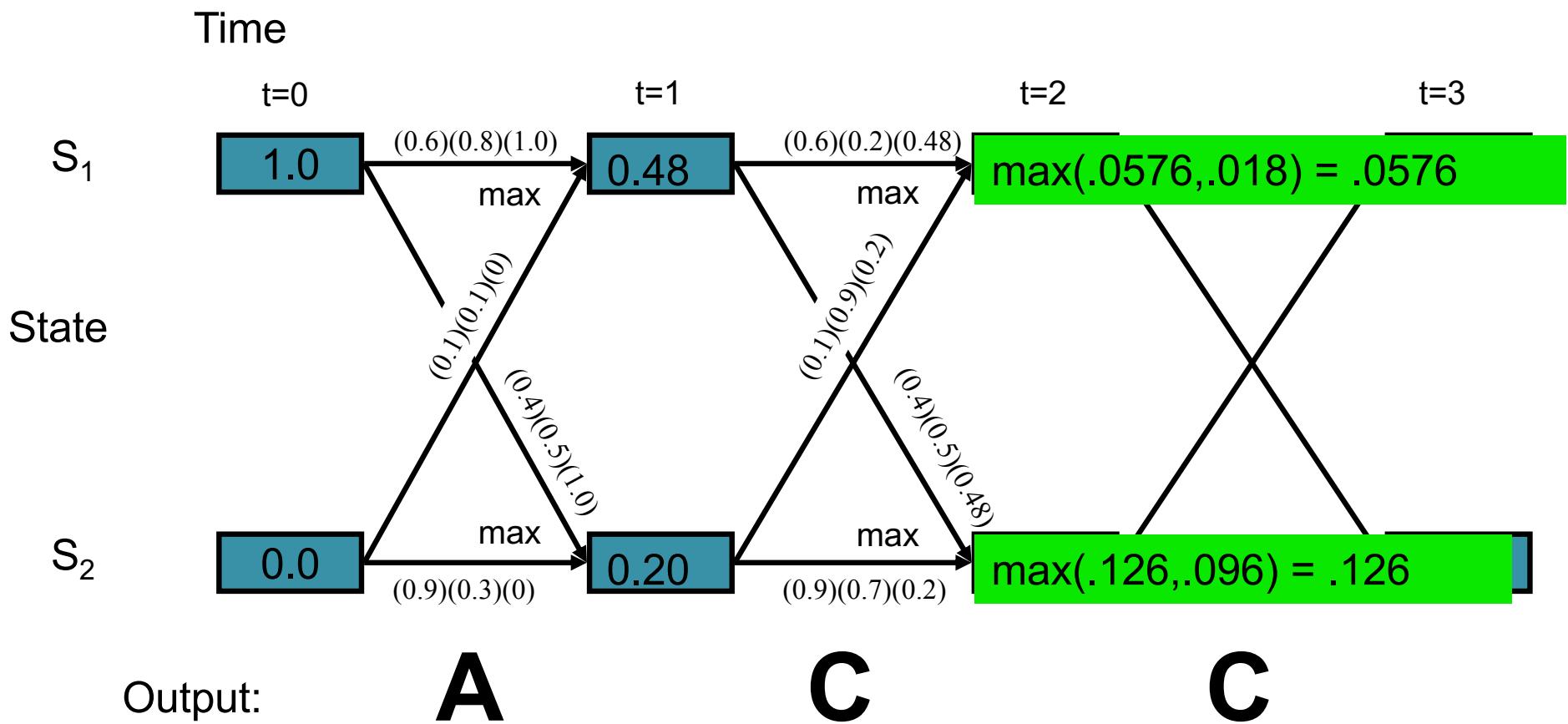
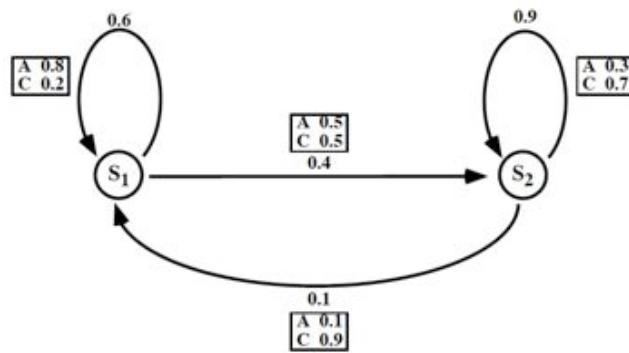
$$V_i(t) = \begin{cases} 0 & : t = 0 \wedge i \neq S_I \\ 1 & : t = 0 \wedge i = S_I \\ \max V_j(t-1) a_{ji} b_{ji}(y) & : t > 0 \end{cases}$$

Where  $V_i(t)$  is the probability that the HMM is in state  $i$  after generating the sequence  $y_1, y_2, \dots, y_t$ , following the *most probable path* in the HMM

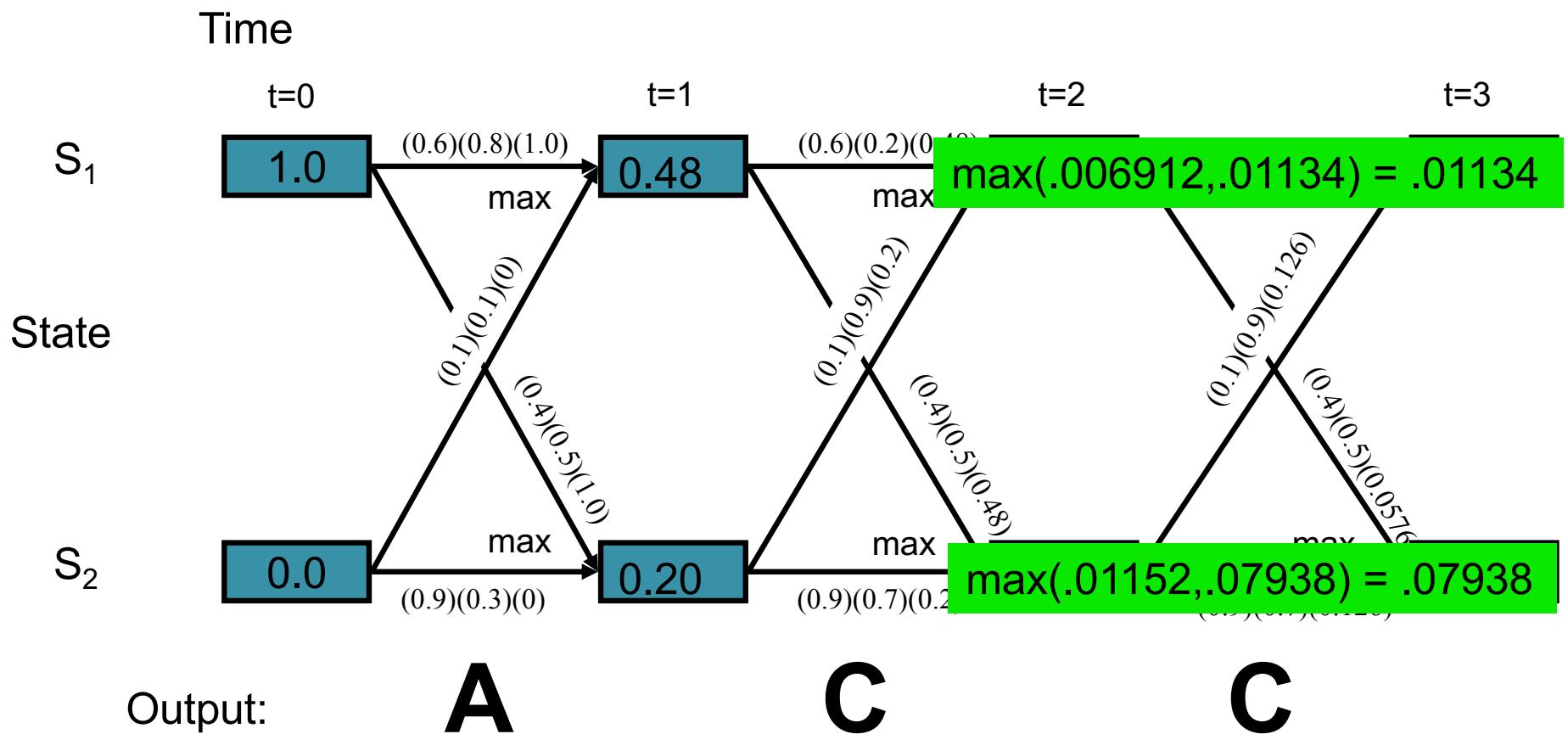
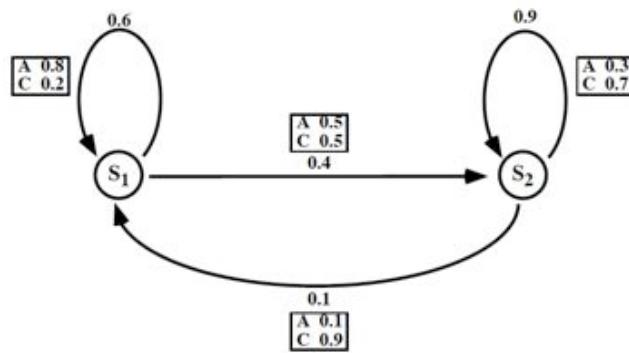
# A trellis for the Viterbi Algorithm



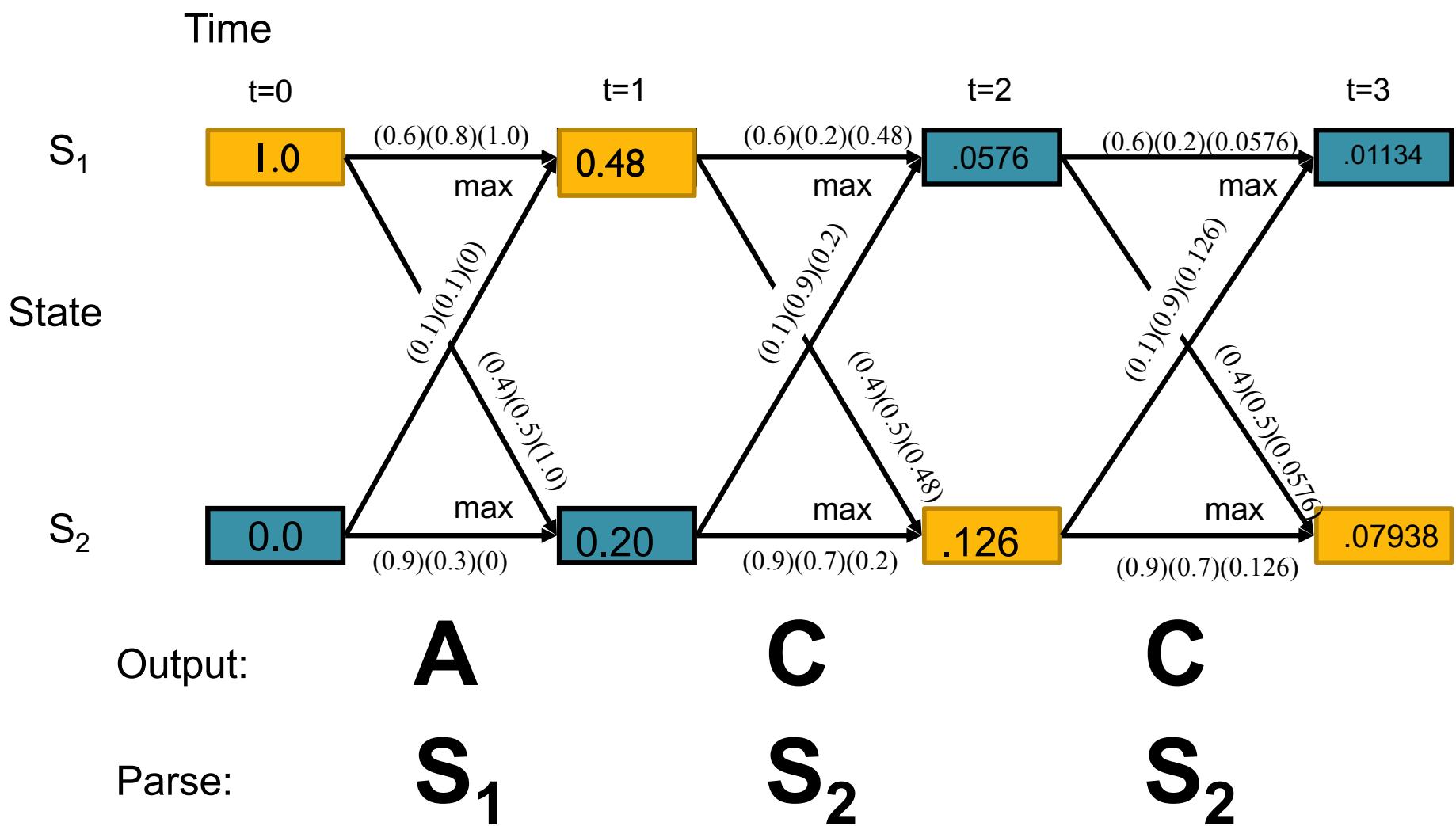
# A trellis for the Viterbi Algorithm



# A trellis for the Viterbi Algorithm



# A trellis for the Viterbi Algorithm



# Three classic HMM problems

3. **Learning:** given a model and a set of observed sequences, how do we set the model's parameters so that it has a high probability of generating those sequences?
  - This is perhaps the most important, and most difficult problem.
  - A solution to this problem allows us to determine all the probabilities in an HMMs by using an ensemble of training data

# Learning in HMMs: The E-M algorithm

- The learning algorithm is called “Expectation-Maximization” or E-M
  - Also called the Forward-Backward algorithm
  - Also called the Baum-Welch algorithm
- In order to learn the parameters in an “empty” HMM, we need:
  - The topology of the HMM
  - Data - the more the better

→ Great topic for QB2?



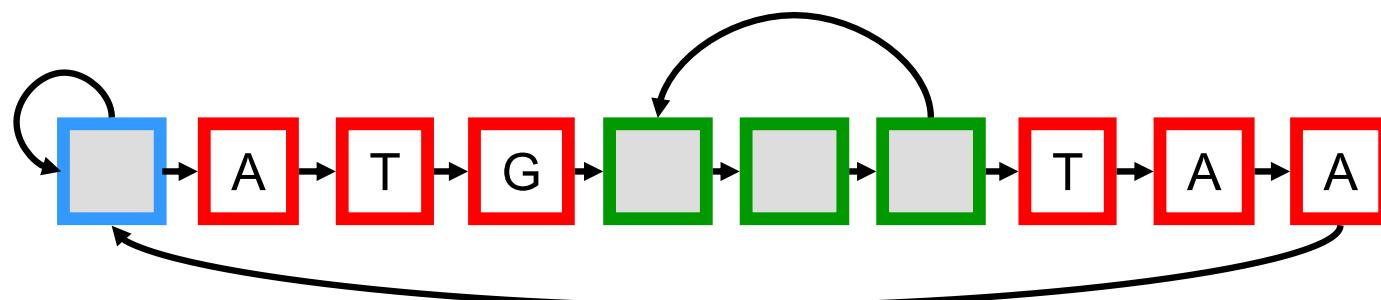
# Eukaryotic Gene Finding with GlimmerHMM

Mihaela Pertea  
Assistant Professor  
JHU

# HMMs and Gene Structure

- Nucleotides  $\{A,C,G,T\}$  are the observables
- Different states generate nucleotides at different frequencies

A simple HMM for unspliced genes:



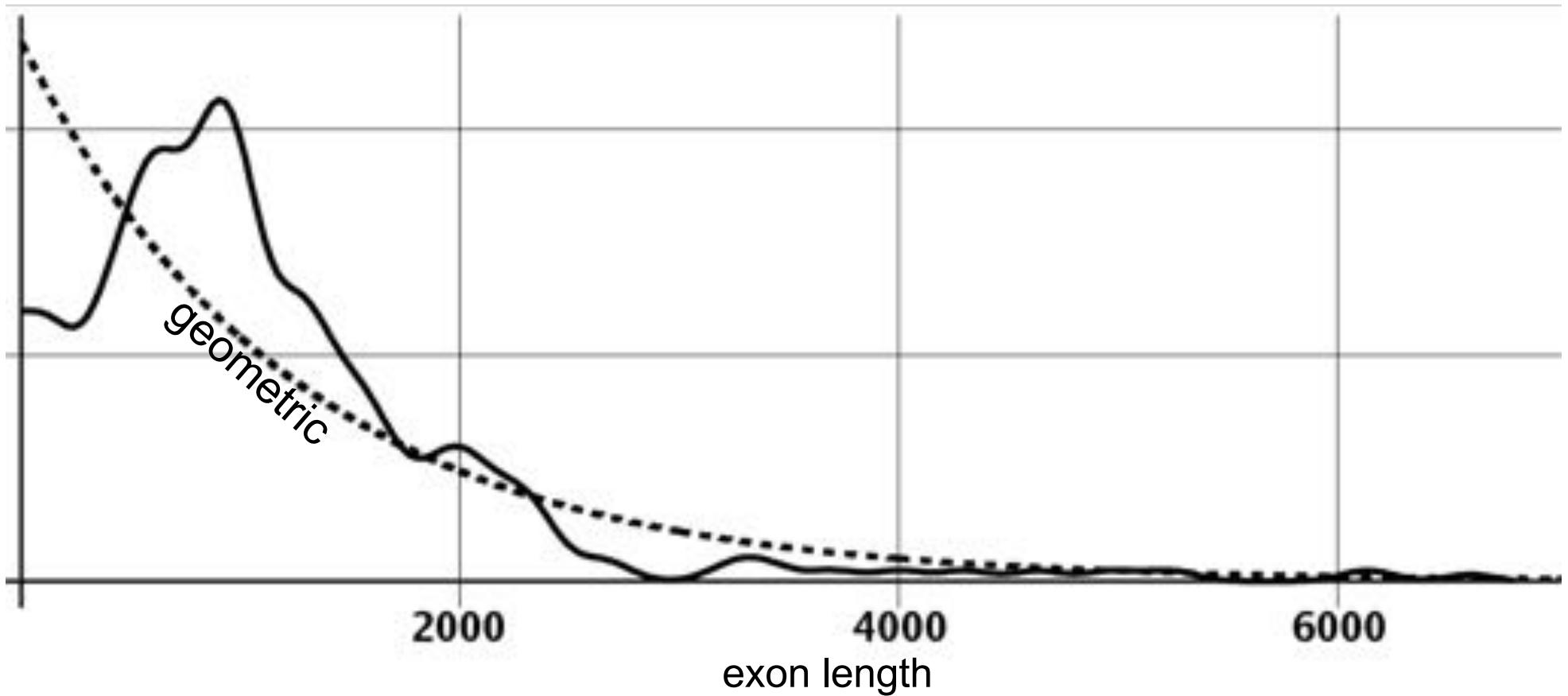
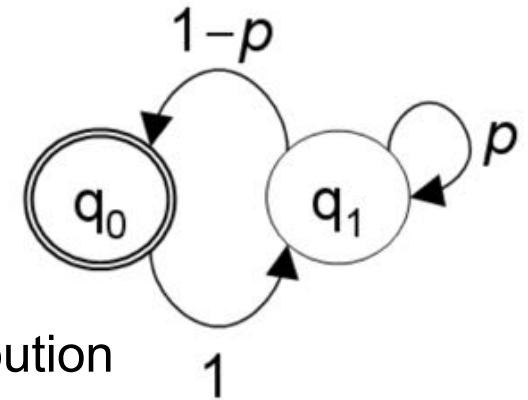
AAAGC ATG CATT ACG AGA GCA CAA GGG CTC TAA TGCCG

- The sequence of states is an annotation of the generated string – each nucleotide is generated in **intergenic**, **start/stop**, **coding** state

# HMMs & Geometric Feature Lengths

$$P(x_0 \dots x_{d-1} | \theta) = \left( \prod_{i=0}^{d-1} P_e(x_i | \theta) \right) p^{d-1} (1-p)$$

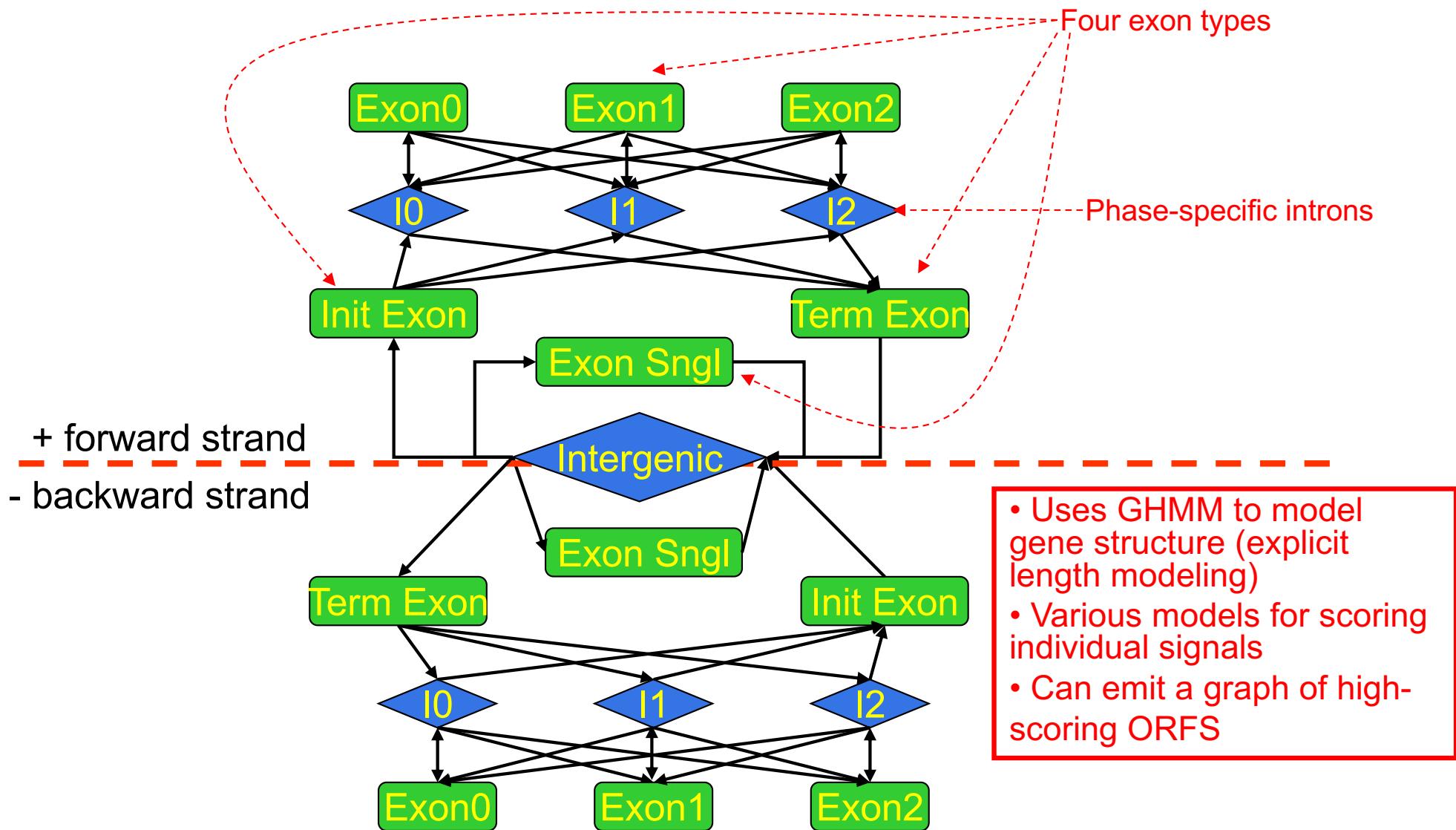
geometric distribution



# Generalized HMMs Summary

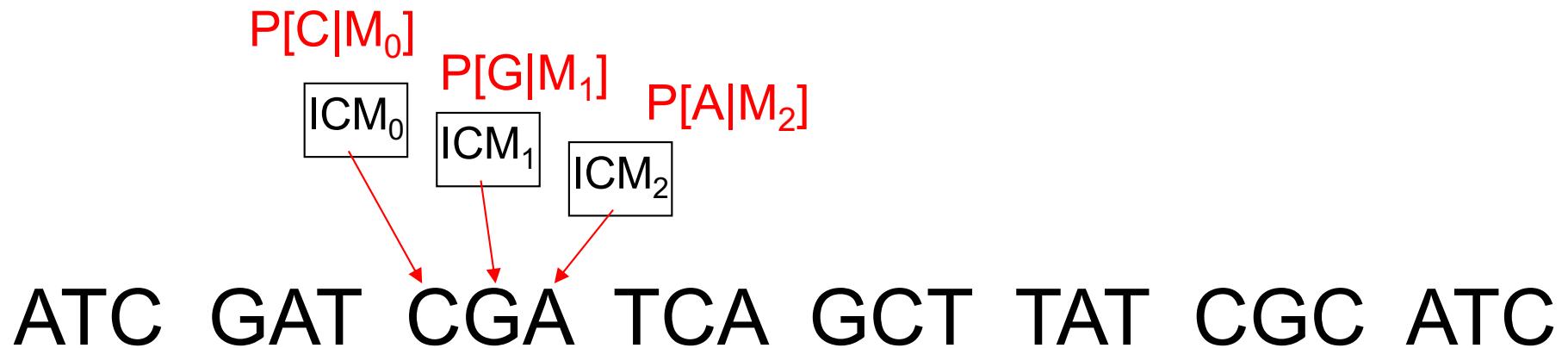
- GHMMs generalize HMMs by allowing each state to emit a **subsequence** rather than just a single symbol
- Whereas HMMs model all feature lengths using a **geometric distribution**, coding features can be modeled using an arbitrary **length distribution** in a GHMM
- Emission models within a GHMM can be any arbitrary probabilistic model (“**submodel abstraction**”), such as a neural network or decision tree
- GHMMs tend to have many **fewer states** => simplicity & modularity

# GlimmerHMM architecture



# Coding vs Non-coding

A three-periodic ICM uses three ICMs in succession to evaluate the different codon positions, which have different statistics:



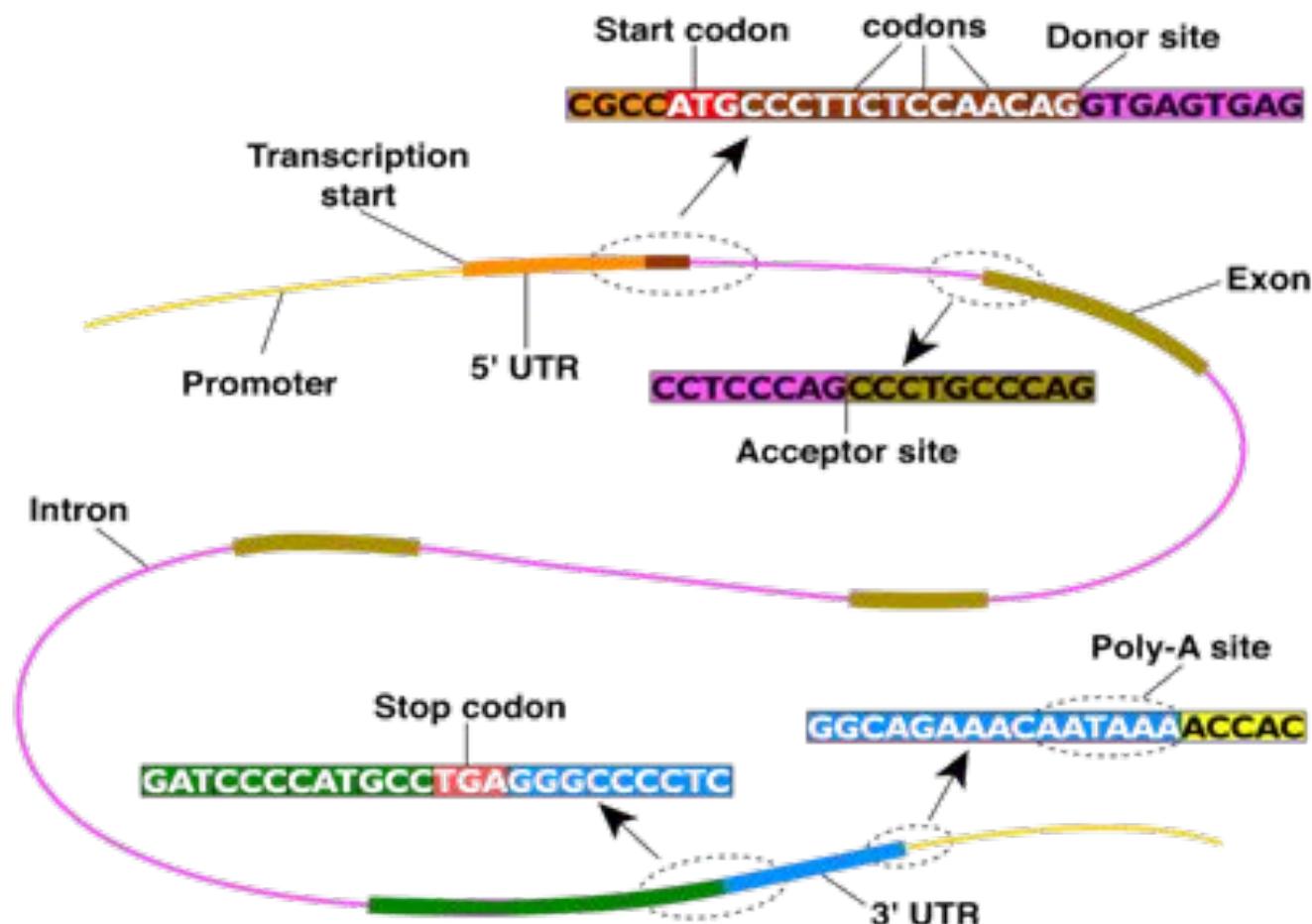
The three ICMs correspond to the three phases. Every base is evaluated in every phase, and the score for a given stretch of (putative) coding DNA is obtained by multiplying the phase-specific probabilities in a mod 3 fashion:

$$\prod_{i=0}^{L-1} P_{(f+i)(\text{mod } 3)}(x_i)$$

GlimmerHMM uses 3-periodic ICMs for coding and homogeneous (non-periodic) ICMs for noncoding DNA.

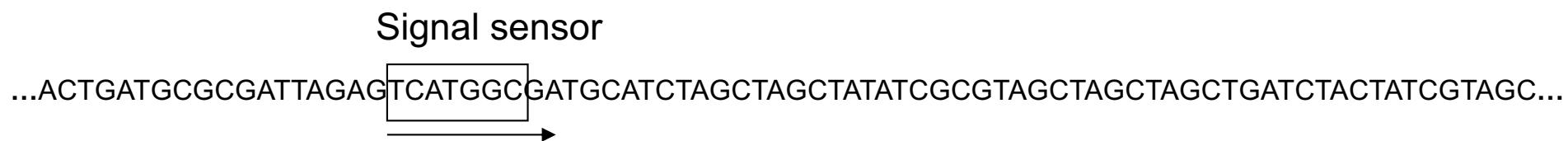
# Signal Sensors

Signals – short sequence patterns in the genomic DNA that are recognized by the cellular machinery.



# Identifying Signals In DNA

We slide a fixed-length model or “window” along the DNA and evaluate score (signal) at each point:

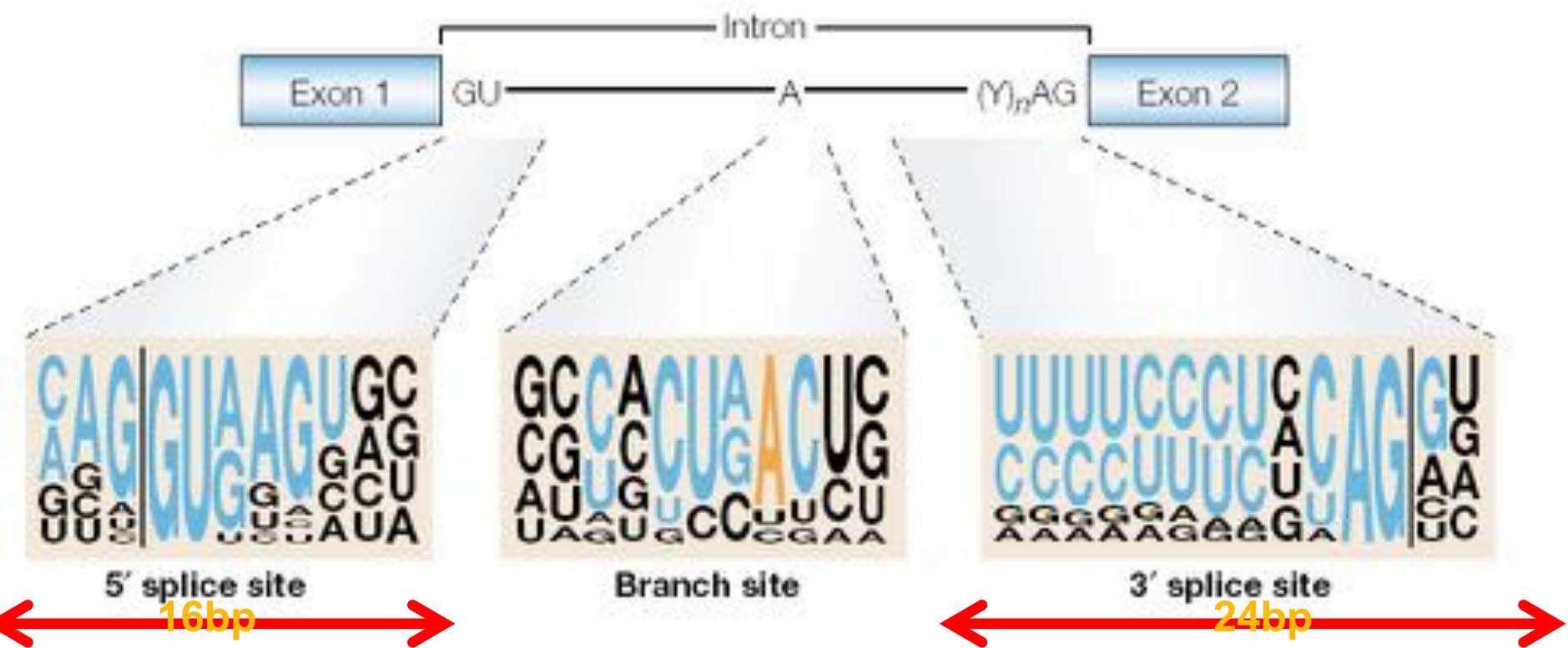


When the score is greater than some threshold (determined empirically to result in a desired sensitivity), we remember this position as being the potential site of a signal.

The most common signal sensor is the Weight Matrix:

A = 31% T = 28% C = 21% G = 20%	A = 18% T = 32% C = 24% G = 26%	<b>A</b> 100%	<b>T</b> 100%	<b>G</b> 100%	A = 19% T = 20% C = 29% G = 32%	A = 24% T = 18% C = 26% G = 32%
--	--	------------------	------------------	------------------	--	--

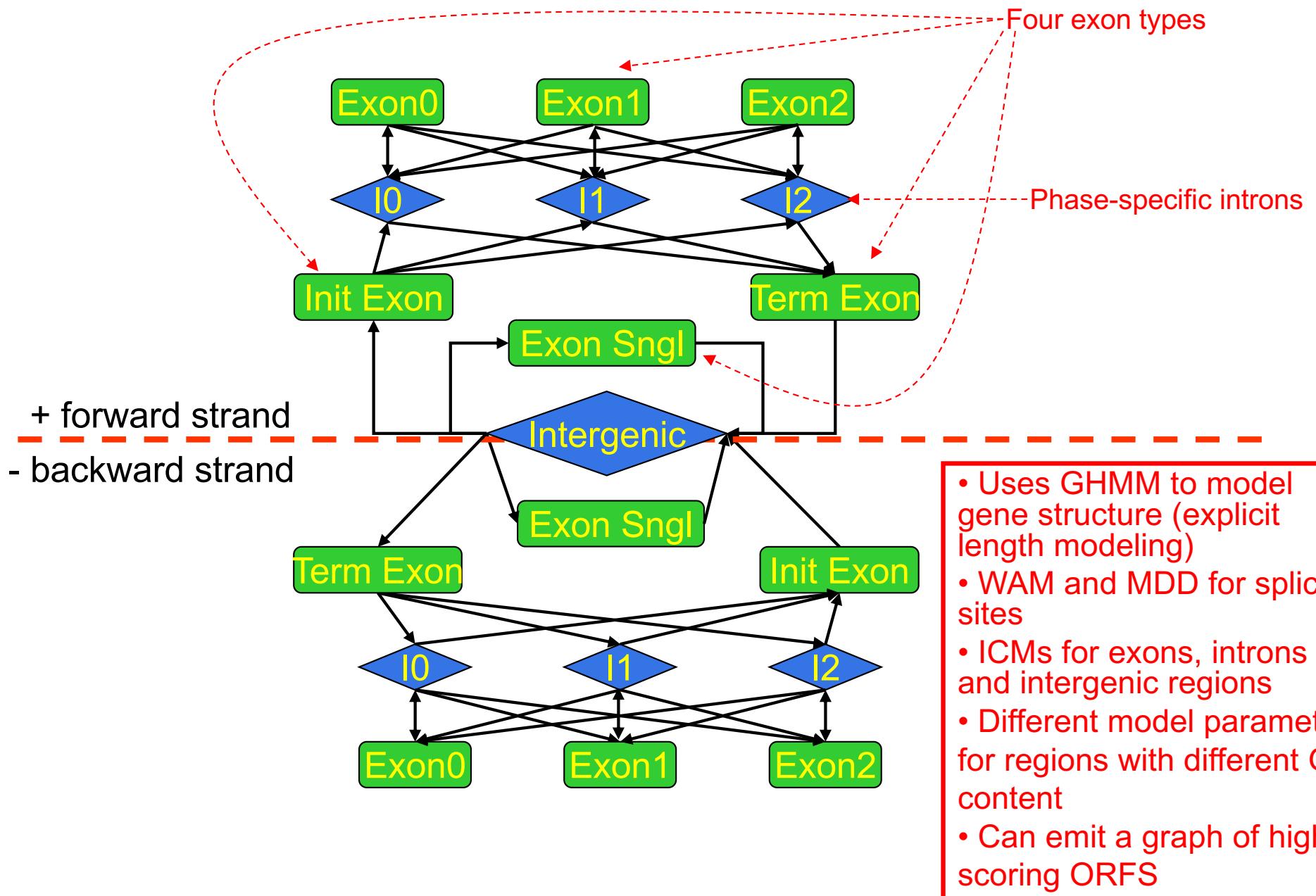
# Splice site prediction



The splice site score is a combination of:

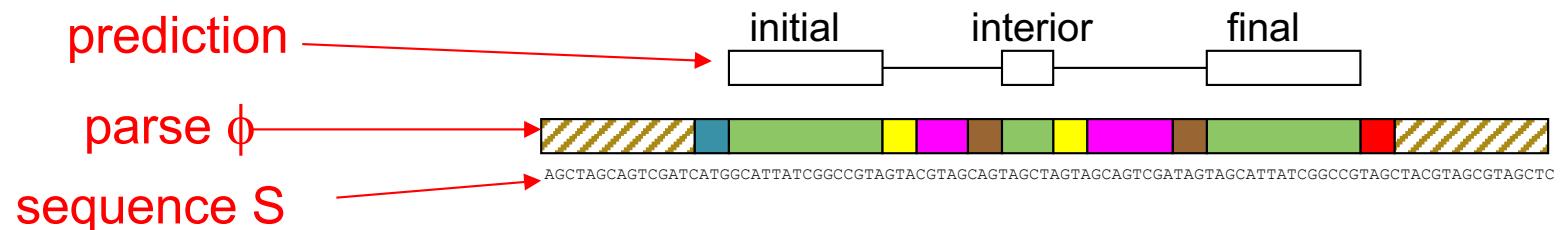
- first or second order inhomogeneous Markov models on windows around the acceptor and donor sites
- Maximal dependence decomposition (MDD) decision trees
- longer Markov models to capture difference between coding and non-coding on opposite sides of site (optional)
- maximal splice site score within 60 bp (optional)

# GlimmerHMM architecture



# Gene Prediction with a GHMM

Given a sequence  $S$ , we would like to determine the parse  $\phi$  of that sequence which segments the DNA into the most likely exon/intron structure:

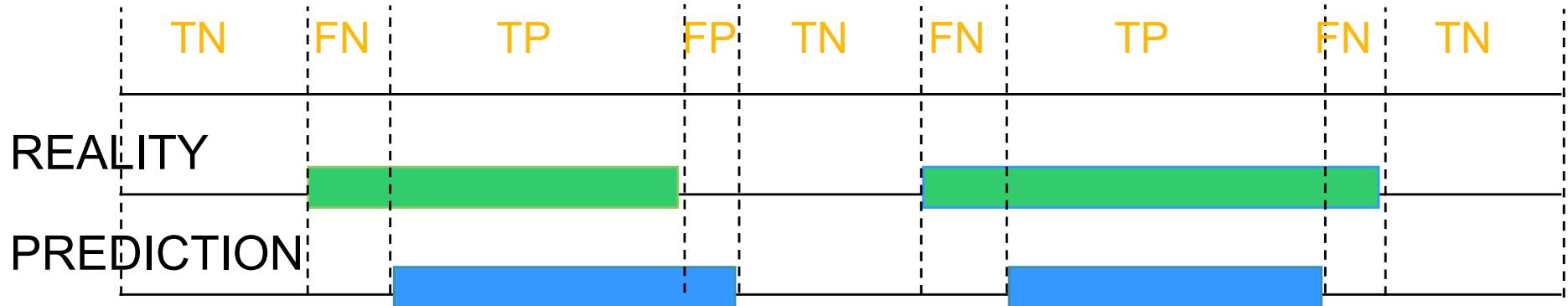


The parse  $\phi$  consists of the coordinates of the predicted exons, and corresponds to the precise sequence of states during the operation of the GHMM (and their duration, which equals the number of symbols each state emits).

This is the same as in an HMM except that in the HMM each state emits bases with fixed probability, whereas in the GHMM each state emits an entire feature such as an exon or intron.

# Evaluation of Gene Finding Programs

Nucleotide level accuracy



Sensitivity:

$$Sn = \frac{TP}{TP + FN}$$

What fraction of reality did you predict?

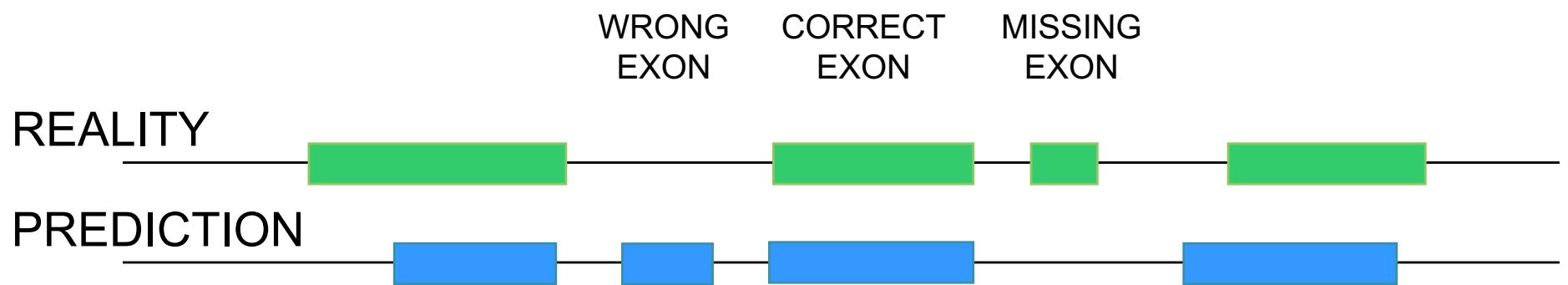
Specificity:

$$Sp = \frac{TN}{TP + FP}$$

What fraction of your predictions are real?

# More Measures of Prediction Accuracy

## Exon level accuracy



$$ExonSn = \frac{TE}{AE} = \frac{\text{number of correct exons}}{\text{number of actual exons}}$$

$$ExonSp = \frac{TE}{PE} = \frac{\text{number of correct exons}}{\text{number of predicted exons}}$$

# GlimmerHMM is a high-performance ab initio gene finder

Arabidopsis thaliana test results

	Nucleotide			Exon			Gene		
	Sn	Sp	Acc	Sn	Sp	Acc	Sn	Sp	Acc
GlimmerHMM	97	99	98	84	89	86.5	60	61	60.5
SNAP	96	99	97.5	83	85	84	60	57	58.5
Genscan+	93	99	96	74	81	77.5	35	35	35

- All three programs were tested on a test data set of 809 genes, which did not overlap with the training data set of GlimmerHMM.
- All genes were confirmed by full-length Arabidopsis cDNAs and carefully inspected to remove homologues.

# GlimmerHMM on human data

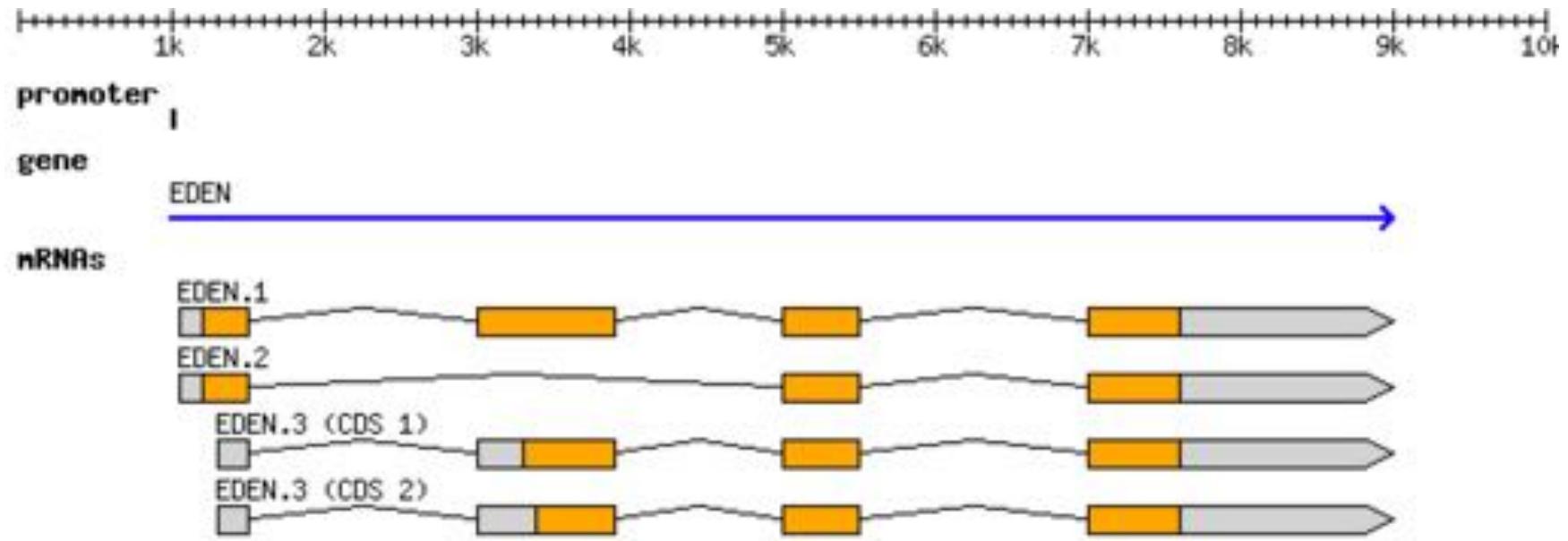
	<i>Nuc Sens</i>	<i>Nuc Spec</i>	<i>Nuc Acc</i>	<i>Exon Sens</i>	<i>Exon Spec</i>	<i>Exon Acc</i>	<i>Exact Genes</i>
<i>GlimmerHMM</i>	86%	72%	79%	72%	62%	67%	17%
<i>Genscan</i>	86%	68%	77%	69%	60%	65%	13%

GlimmerHMM's performance compared to Genscan on 963 human RefSeq genes selected randomly from all 24 chromosomes, non-overlapping with the training set. The test set contains 1000 bp of untranslated sequence on either side (5' or 3') of the coding portion of each gene.

# Gene Finding Overview

- Prokaryotic gene finding distinguishes real genes and random ORFs
  - Prokaryotic genes have simple structure and are largely homogenous, making it relatively easy to recognize their sequence composition
- Eukaryotic gene finding identifies the genome-wide most probable gene models (set of exons)
  - “Probabilistic Graphical Model” to enforce overall gene structure, separate models to score splicing/transcription signals
  - Accuracy depends to a large extent on the quality of the training data

# Gene Models



- “Generic Feature Format” (GFF) records genomic features
  - Coordinates of each exon
  - Coordinates of UTRs
  - Link together exons into transcripts
  - Link together transcripts into gene models

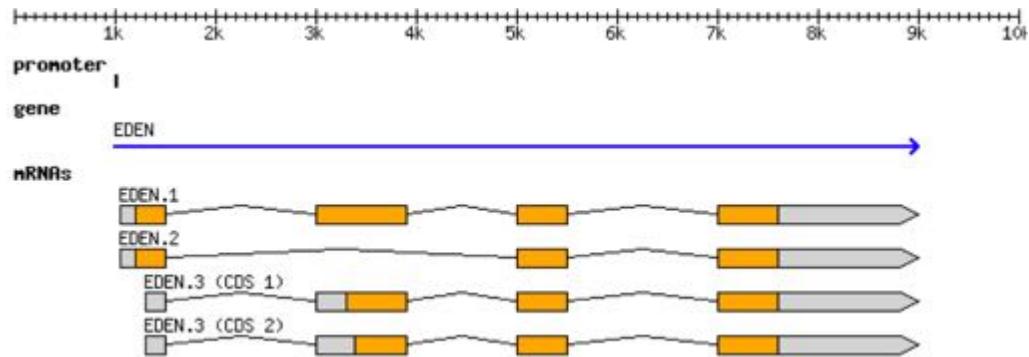
# GFF File format

GFF3 files are nine-column, tab-delimited, plain text files

- 1. seqid:** The ID of the sequence
- 2. source:** Algorithm or database that generated this feature
- 3. type:** gene/exon/CDS/etc...
- 4. start:** 1-based coordinate
- 5. end:** 1-based coordinate
- 6. score:** E-values/p-values/index/colors/...
- 7. strand:** “+” for positive “-” for minus, “.” not stranded
- 8. phase:** For “CDS”, where the feature begins with reference to the reading frame (0,1,2)
- 9. attributes:** A list of tag=value features
  - Parent: Indicates the parent of the feature (group exons into transcripts, transcripts into genes, ...)

# GFF Example

Gene “EDEN” with 3 alternatively spliced transcripts, isoform 3 has two alternative translation start sites



```
##gff-version 3
##sequence-region ctg123 1 1497228
ctg123 . gene    1000 9000 . + . ID=gene00001;Name=EDEN
ctg123 . TF_binding_site 1000 1012 . + . ID=tfbs00001;Parent=gene00001
ctg123 . mRNA    1050 9000 . + . ID=mRNA00001;Parent=gene00001;Name=EDEN.1
ctg123 . mRNA    1050 9000 . + . ID=mRNA00002;Parent=gene00001;Name=EDEN.2
ctg123 . mRNA    1300 9000 . + . ID=mRNA00003;Parent=gene00001;Name=EDEN.3
ctg123 . exon    1300 1500 . + . ID=exon00001;Parent=mRNA00003
ctg123 . exon    1050 1500 . + . ID=exon00002;Parent=mRNA00001,mRNA00002
ctg123 . exon    3000 3902 . + . ID=exon00003;Parent=mRNA00001,mRNA00003
ctg123 . exon    5000 5500 . + . ID=exon00004;Parent=mRNA00001,mRNA00002,mRNA00003
ctg123 . exon    7000 9000 . + . ID=exon00005;Parent=mRNA00001,mRNA00002,mRNA00003
ctg123 . CDS     1201 1500 . + 0 ID=cds00001;Parent=mRNA00001;Name=edenprotein.1
ctg123 . CDS     3000 3902 . + 0 ID=cds00001;Parent=mRNA00001;Name=edenprotein.1
ctg123 . CDS     5000 5500 . + 0 ID=cds00001;Parent=mRNA00001;Name=edenprotein.1
ctg123 . CDS     7000 7600 . + 0 ID=cds00001;Parent=mRNA00001;Name=edenprotein.1
ctg123 . CDS     1201 1500 . + 0 ID=cds00002;Parent=mRNA00002;Name=edenprotein.2
ctg123 . CDS     5000 5500 . + 0 ID=cds00002;Parent=mRNA00002;Name=edenprotein.2
ctg123 . CDS     7000 7600 . + 0 ID=cds00002;Parent=mRNA00002;Name=edenprotein.2
ctg123 . CDS     3301 3902 . + 0 ID=cds00003;Parent=mRNA00003;Name=edenprotein.3
ctg123 . CDS     5000 5500 . + 1 ID=cds00003;Parent=mRNA00003;Name=edenprotein.3
ctg123 . CDS     7000 7600 . + 1 ID=cds00003;Parent=mRNA00003;Name=edenprotein.3
ctg123 . CDS     3391 3902 . + 0 ID=cds00004;Parent=mRNA00003;Name=edenprotein.4
ctg123 . CDS     5000 5500 . + 1 ID=cds00004;Parent=mRNA00003;Name=edenprotein.4
ctg123 . CDS     7000 7600 . + 1 ID=cds00004;Parent=mRNA00003;Name=edenprotein.4
```

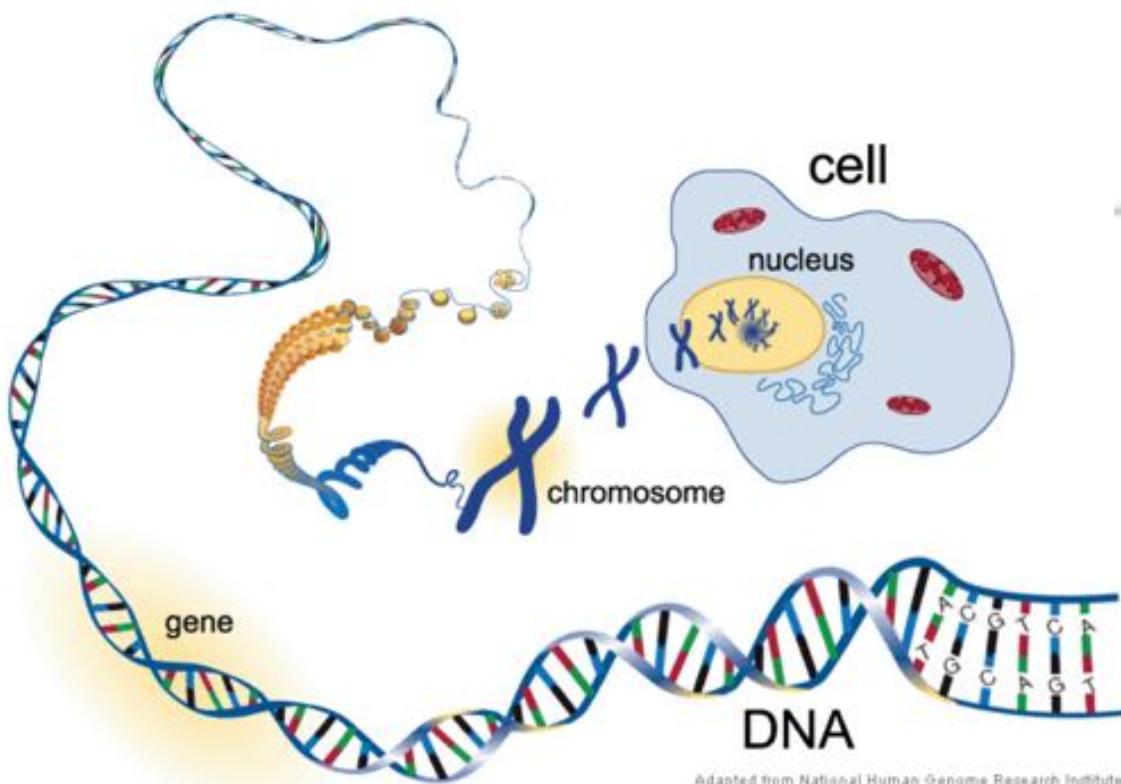


# Outline

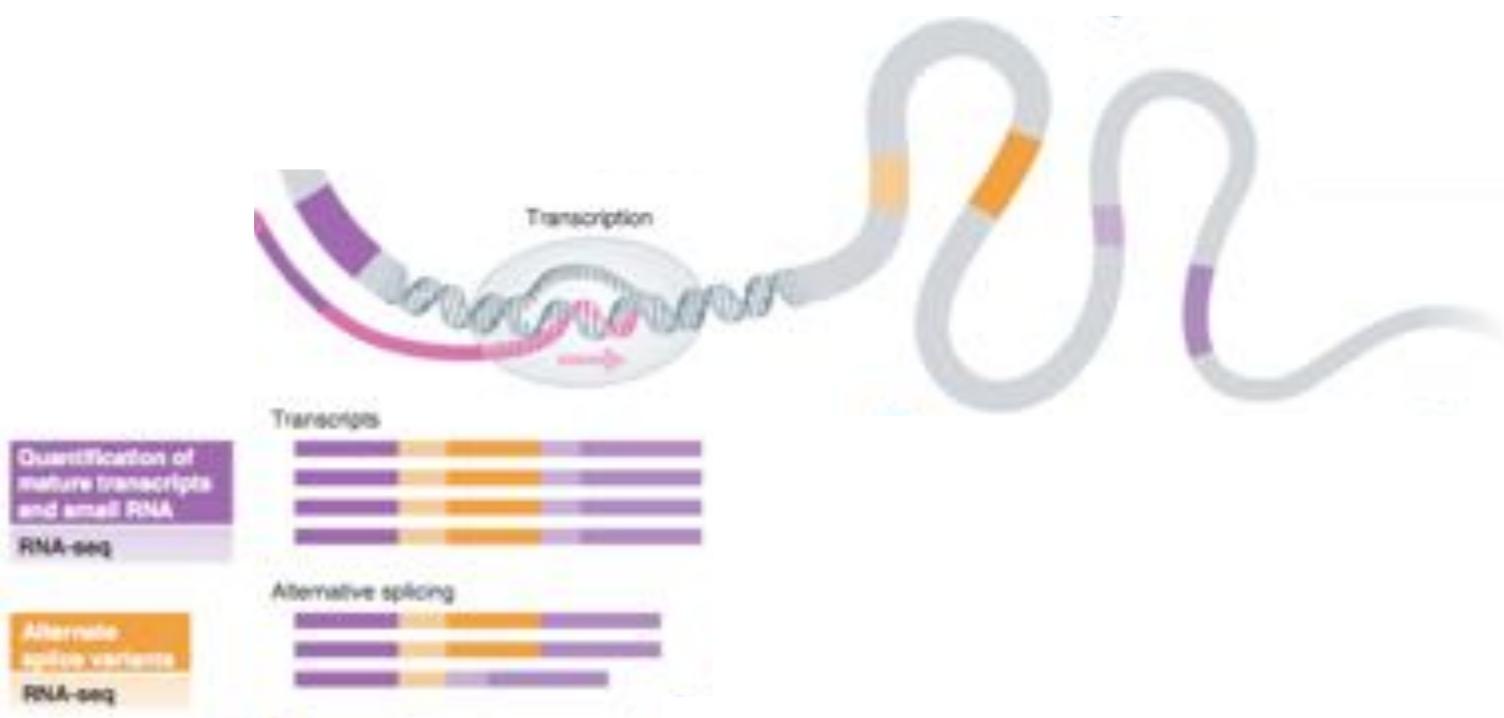
1. Alignment to other genomes
2. Prediction aka “Gene Finding”
3. **Experimental & Functional Assays**

# Sequencing techniques

Much of the capacity is used to sequence genomes (or exomes) of individuals...



... but biology is much more than just genomes...

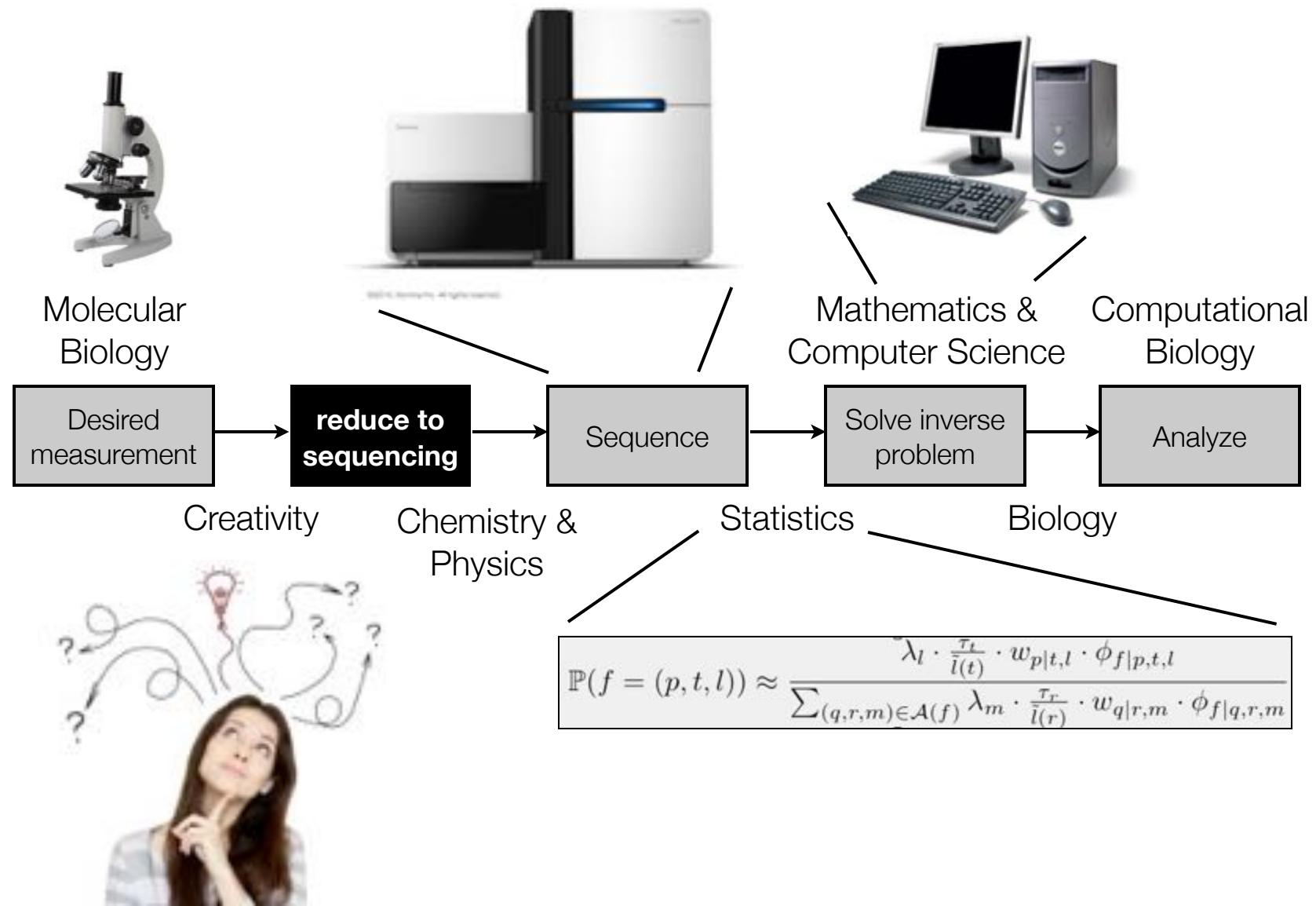


# Sequencing Assays

## The \*Seq List (in chronological order)

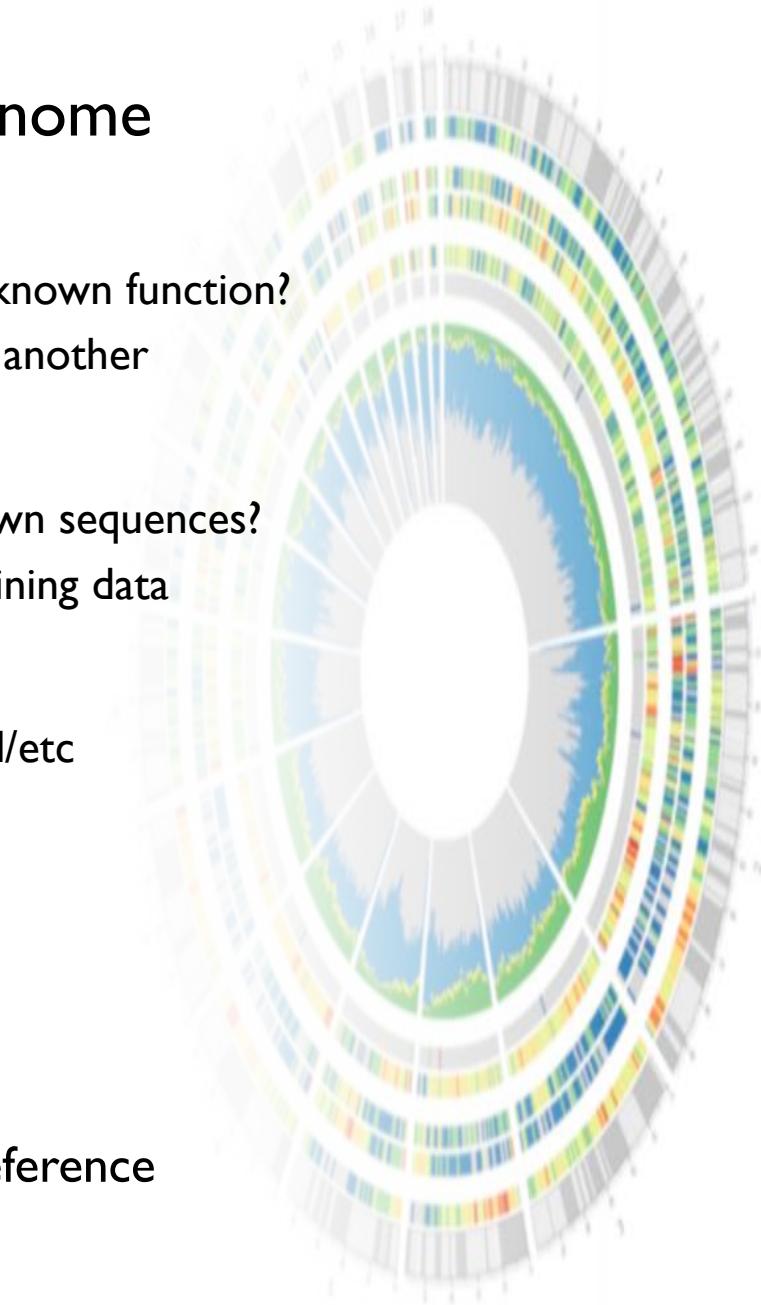
1. Gregory E. Crawford et al., “Genome-wide Mapping of DNase Hypersensitive Sites Using Massively Parallel Signature Sequencing (MPSS),” *Genome Research* 16, no. 1 (January 1, 2006): 123–131, doi:10.1101/gr.4074106.
2. David S. Johnson et al., “Genome-Wide Mapping of in Vivo Protein-DNA Interactions,” *Science* 316, no. 5830 (June 8, 2007): 1497–1502, doi:10.1126/science.1141319.
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5. Ali Mortazavi et al., “Mapping and Quantifying Mammalian Transcriptomes by RNA-Seq,” *Nature Methods* 5, no. 7 (July 2008): 621–628, doi:10.1038/nmeth.1226.
6. Nathan A. Baird et al., “Rapid SNP Discovery and Genetic Mapping Using Sequenced RAD Markers,” *PLoS ONE* 3, no. 10 (October 13, 2008): e3376, doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0003376.
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10. Nicholas T. Ingolia et al., “Genome-Wide Analysis in Vivo of Translation with Nucleotide Resolution Using Ribosome Profiling,” *Science* 324, no. 5924 (April 10, 2009): 218–223, doi:10.1126/science.1168978.
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13. Zachary D. Smith et al., “High-throughput Bisulfite Sequencing in Mammalian Genomes,” *Methods* 48, no. 3 (July 2009): 226–232, doi:10.1016/j.ymeth.2009.05.003.
14. Andrew M. Smith et al., “Quantitative Phenotyping via Deep Barcode Sequencing,” *Genome Research* (July 21, 2009),

# What is a \*Seq assay?



# Annotation Summary

- Three major approaches to annotate a genome
  - 1. Alignment:
    - Does this sequence align to any other sequences of known function?
    - Great for projecting knowledge from one species to another
  - 2. Prediction:
    - Does this sequence statistically resemble other known sequences?
    - Potentially most flexible but dependent on good training data
  - 3. Experimental:
    - Lets test to see if it is transcribed/methylated/bound/etc
    - Strongest but expensive and context dependent
- Many great resources available
  - Learn to love the literature and the databases
  - Standard formats let you rapidly query and cross reference
  - Google is your number one resource 😊





**Welcome to Applied Comparative Genomics**  
<https://github.com/schatzlab/appliedgenomics2018>

**Questions?**