CS2220 Introduction to Computational Biology Lecture 7: Gene Finding by Computational Analysis

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Outline



- Gene structure basics
- Gene finding overview
- GRAIL
- Indel & frame-shift in coding regions

Gene Structure Basics

A brief refresher

Some slides here are "borrowed" from Ken Sung







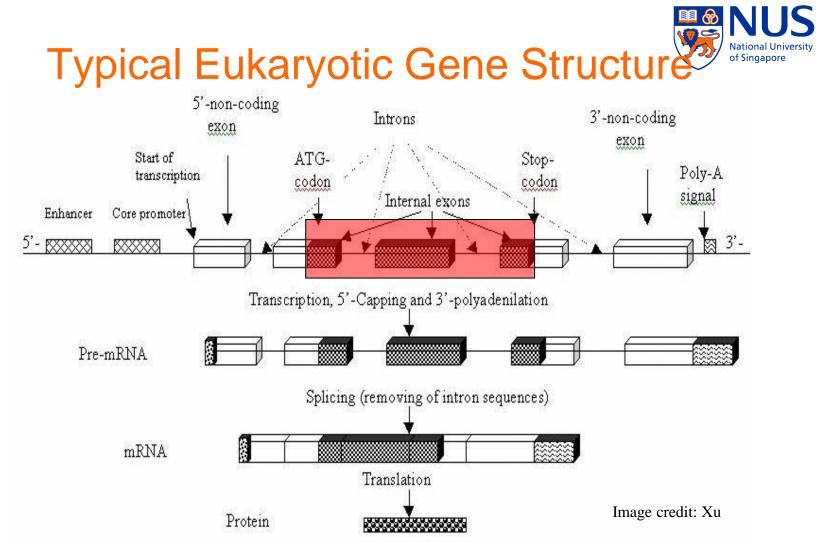
- A gene is a sequence of DNA that encodes a protein or an RNA molecule
- About 30,000 35,000 (protein-coding) genes in human genome
- For gene that encodes protein
 - In Prokaryotic genome, one gene corresponds to one protein
 - In Eukaryotic genome, one gene can corresponds to more than one protein because of the process "alternative splicing"



Introns and Exons

- Eukaryotic genes contain introns & exons
 - Introns are seq that are ultimately spliced out of mRNA
 - Introns normally satisfy
 GT-AG rule, viz. begin w/
 GT & end w/ AG
 - Each gene can have many introns & each intron can have thousands bases

- Introns can be very long
- An extreme example is a gene associated with cystic fibrosis in human:
 - Length of 24 introns
 ~1Mb
 - Length of exons ~1kb



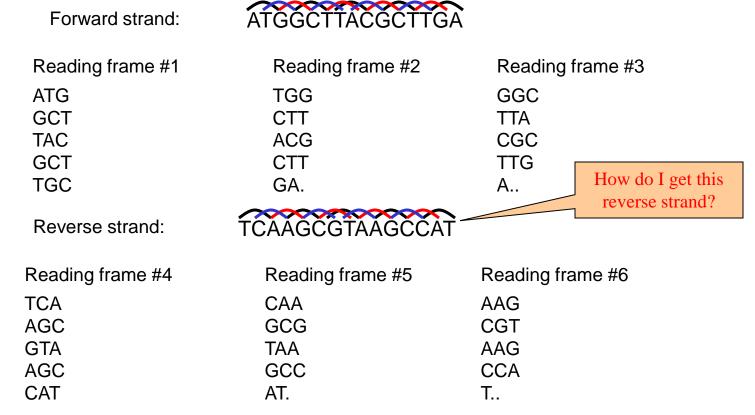
Unlike eukaryotic genes, a prokaryotic gene typically consists of only one contiguous coding region

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Reading Frame



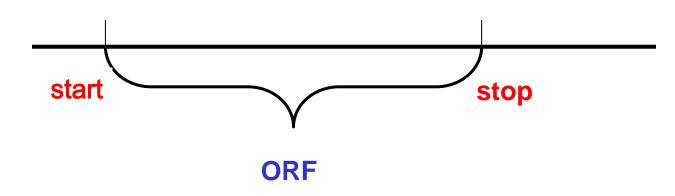
Each DNA segment has six possible reading frames





Open Reading Frame (ORF)

 ORF is a segment of DNA with a start codon and an in-frame stop codon at the two ends and no inframe stop codon in the middle



• Each ORF has a fixed reading frame

NB: Other definitions are also used. Most impt aspect is that there is no stop codon in the middle.



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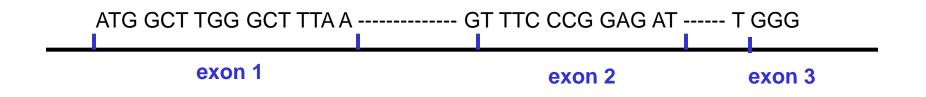
Coding Region

- Each coding region (exon or whole gene) has a fixed translation frame
- A coding region always sits inside an ORF of same reading frame
- All exons of a gene are on the same strand
- Neighboring exons of a gene could have different reading frames



Frame Consistency

 Neighboring exons of a gene should be frameconsistent



Exercise: Define frame consistency mathematically

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Overview of Gene Finding

Some slides here are "borrowed" from Mark Craven





What is Gene Finding?

- Find all coding regions from a stretch of DNA sequence, and construct gene structures from the identified exons
- Can be decomposed into
 - Find coding potential of a region in a frame
 - Find boundaries betw coding & non-coding regions

atgaacag acgcgatettettttacaagaaatgggcattteccagtgggaattatateg cccgaggtactgcaggttcagtaggaattagtgtggcagaatattegeetta gtttccgatgaaaatatcagtagctcgcctttgttggctgatgtgctgttaagccttaat cttaabaaagaaaattgtttatgtttgaattacgatcaaatccagcatatggaatgtaaa cagcctattcgitattggttactatcagaaaatagcgaccaaattgaccgcatttgcca tttgcaagcaggctgagcaggtttatcgctcgccaagttggcagcaatttcaatctaat catc

Image credit: Xu

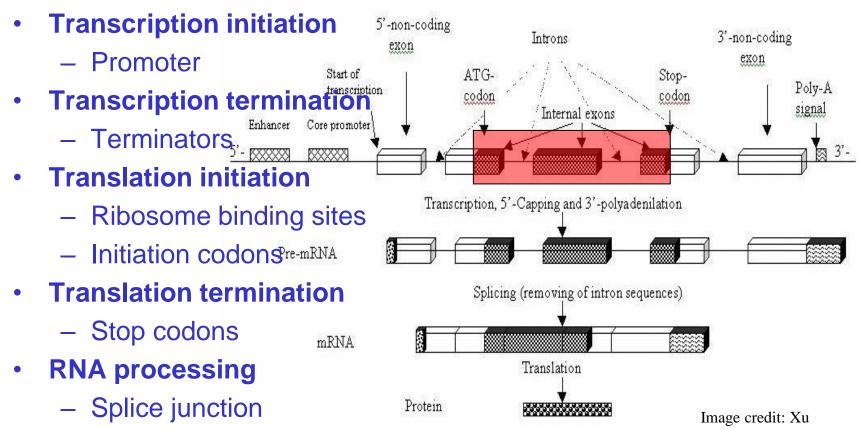
Approaches



- Search-by-signal: find genes by identifying the sequence signals involved in gene expression
- Search-by-content: find genes by statistical properties that distinguish protein coding DNA from non-coding DNA
- Search-by-homology: find genes by homology (after translation) to proteins
- State-of-the-art systems for gene finding usually combine these strategies



Relevant Signals for Search-by-Signals





How Search-by-Signal Works

- There are 2 impt regions in a promoter seq
 - -10 region, ~10bp before TSS
 - -35 region, ~35bp before TSS
- Consensus for –10 region in E. coli is TATAAT, but few promoters actually have this seq
- Recognize promoters by
 - weight matrices
 - probabilistic models
 - neural networks, ...



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How Search-by-Content Works

- Encoding a protein affects stats properties of a DNA seq
 - some amino acids used more frequently
 - diff number of codons for diff amino acids
 - for given protein, usually one codon is used more frequently than others
- ⇒ Estimate prob that a given region of seq was "caused by" its being a coding seq

Codon Pr	eference	in E. Col
AA	codon	/1000
Gly	GGG	1.89
Gly	GGA	0.44
Gly	GGU	52.99
Gly	GGC	34.55
Glu	GAG	15.68
Glu	GAA	57.20
Asp	GAU	21.63
Asp	GAC	43.26

Image credit: Craven



How Search-by-Homology Works

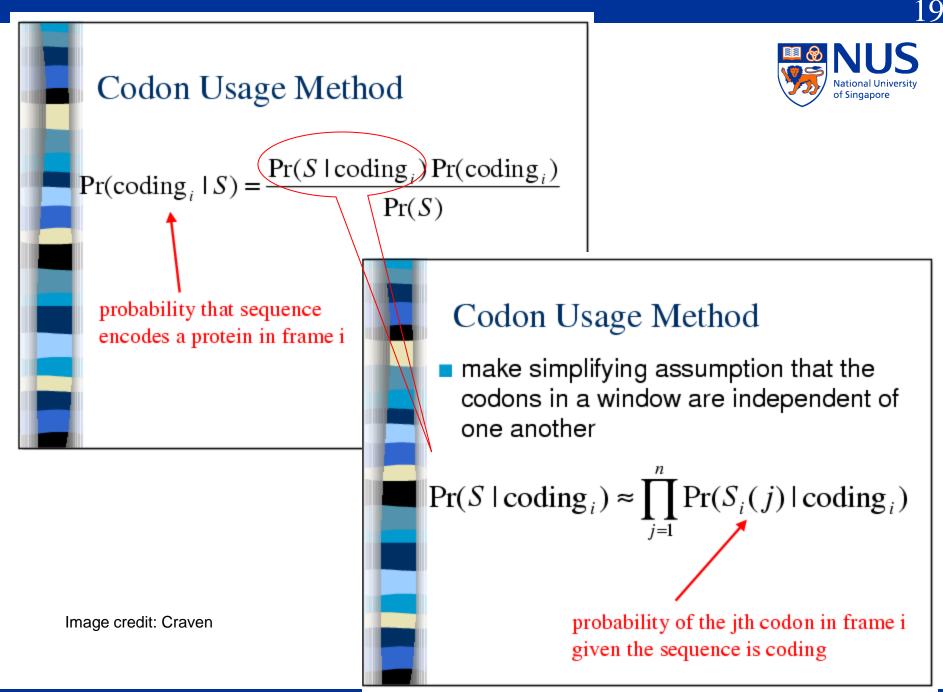
- Translate DNA seq in all reading frames
- Search against protein db
- High-scoring matches suggest presence of homologous genes in DNA
- \Rightarrow You can use BLASTX for this



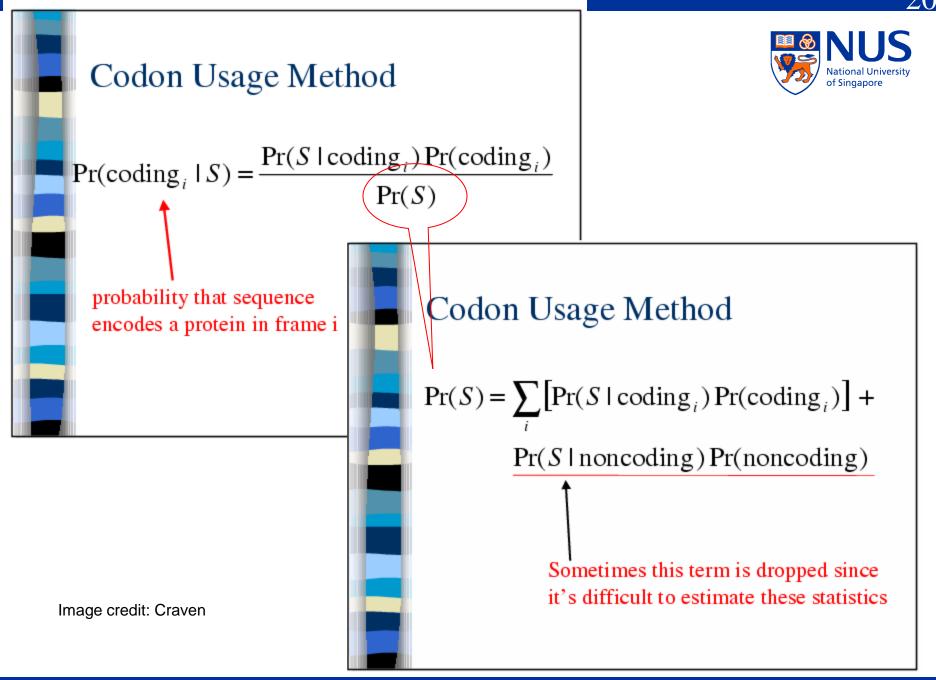
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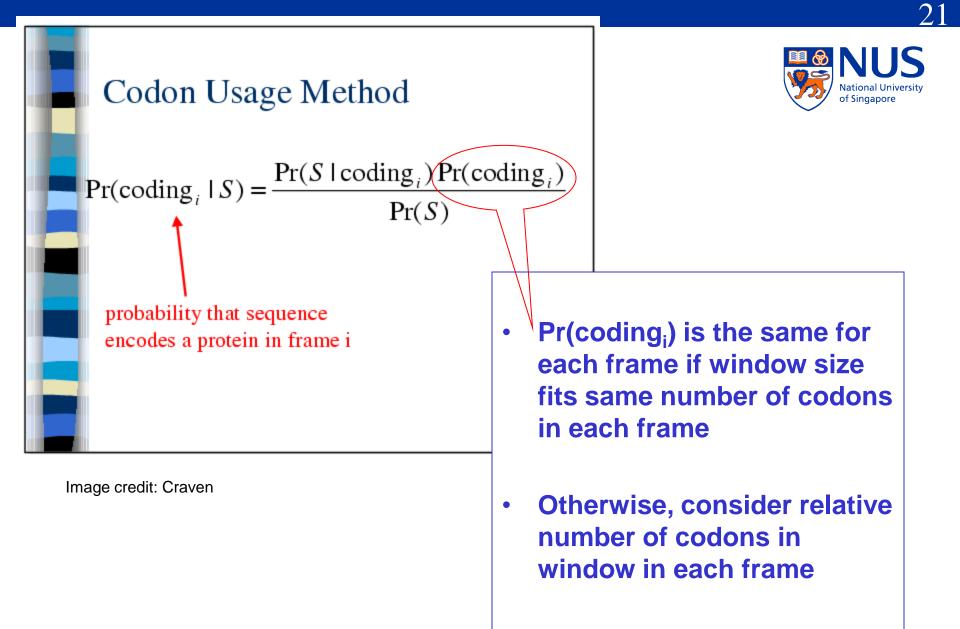
Search-by-Content Example: Codon Usage Method

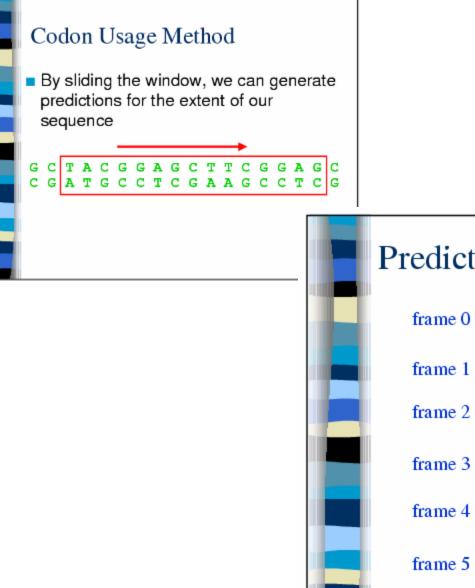
- Staden & McLachlan, 1982
- Process a seq w/ "window" of length L
- Assume seq falls into one of 7 categories, viz.
 - Coding in frame 0, frame 1, ..., frame 5
 - Non-coding
- Use Bayes' rule to determine prob of each category
- Assign seq to category w/ max prob



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Predicted Coding Regions

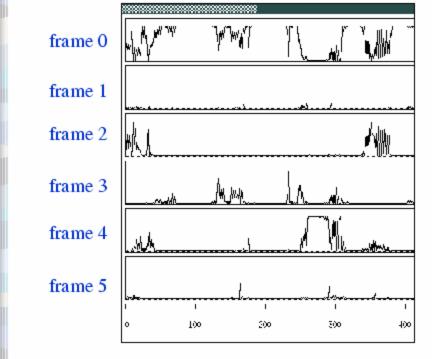
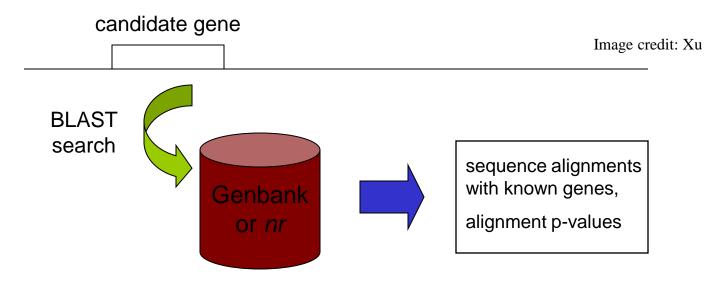


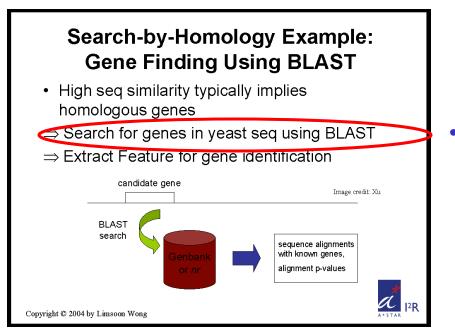
Image credit: Craven



Search-by-Homology Example:

- High seq similarity typically implies homologous genes
- \Rightarrow Search for genes in yeast seq using BLAST
- \Rightarrow Extract Feature for gene identification

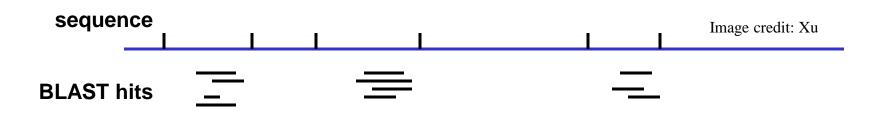


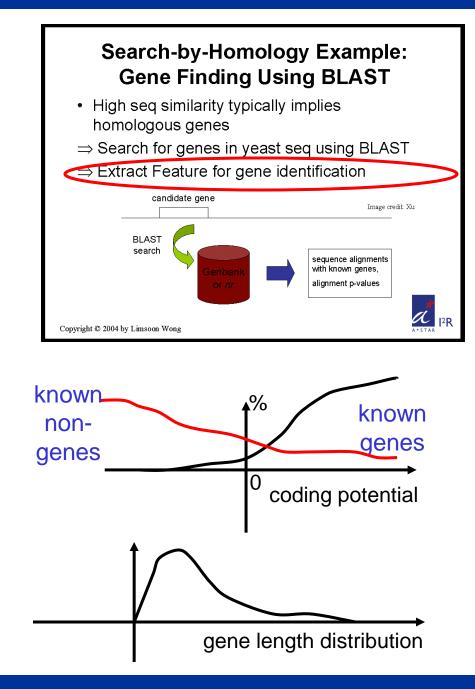




Searching all ORFs

 against known genes in nr
 db helps identify an initial
 set of (possibly
 incomplete) genes







- A (yeast) gene starts w/ ATG and ends w/ a stop codon, in same reading frame of ORF
- Have "strong" coding potentials, measured by, preference models, Markov chain model, ...
- Have "strong" translation start signal, measured by weight matrix model, ...
- Have distributions wrt length, G+C composition,
- Have special seq signals in flanking regions, ...

GRAIL. An Important Gene Finding Program Signals assoc w/ coding regions Models for coding regions Signals assoc w/ boundaries Models for boundaries Other factors & information fusion Some slides here are "borrowed" from Ying Xu





- Freq distribution of dimers in protein seq
- E.g., Shewanella
 - Ave freq is 5%
 - Some amino acids prefer to be next to each other
 - Some amino acids prefer to be not next to each other

Name	ala	arg	asn	asp	cys	glu	gln	gly	his	ile	leu	lys	met	phe	pro	ser	thr	trp	tyr	val
ala	9.5	4.1	4.3	5.3	1.2	6	4.8	6.5	2	6.5	11.5	6	2.6	3.7	3.5	6.2	5	1.1	2.7	6.5
arg	7.9	5.5	3.9	5.3	1.1	6	5.5	5.9	2.6	6.5	11.4	5	2.2	4.7	3.6	5.5	4.4	1.4	4	6.6
asn	9.6	4.9	4.2	4.9	1	5.3	5.6	7.4	2.3	6	10	4.9	2	3.5	5.1	6.1	5.5	1.5	3.1	6.1
asp	9.3	4	4.7	5.1	1	6.7	2.9	7	1.8	7.1	9.6	6.3	2.3	4.3	3.9	5.9	5.1	1.6	3.6	6.6
cys	8.4	4.8	3.3	5.4	1.7	5.6	5.2	8.1	4.3	5.4	10.2	3.8	1.8	4.1	4.5	6.3	4.3	1.6	3.4	6.8
glu	9.4	5.8	3.6	4.5	0.8	4.9	7	5.8	2.6	5.9	12.7	5	2.4	4	3.5	5.4	5	1.1	2.8	6.8
gln	10.3	4.9	3	4.4	0.9	4.5	6.8	7	2.7	5.5	12.8	4.1	2	3.9	3.8	5.8	5.3	1.4	3	6.9
gly	8.1	4.8	3.9	5.1	1.2	6	4.6	6.4	2.4	6.8	10.5	5.8	2.7	4.8	2.4	5.8	5.1	1.4	3.7	7.5
his	7.3	4.7	4	4.8	1.5	4.9	5.6	6.9	3	6.2	10.8	4.8	1.6	5	5.2	6.8	4.9	1.7	4.2	5.1
ile	11	4.7	4.9	6.5	1.1	6.9	3.6	7.2	2.1	5.3	8.6	5.3	1.8	3.2	4.2	7	5.6	0.9	2.9	6.1
leu	10.4	4.2	4.3	5.2	1.1	5.2	3.7	6.8	2	5.6	10.6	5.3	2.3	3.8	4.5	7.4	6.2	1	2.6	6.6
lys	10.6	5.2	3.8	5.2	0.5	5.3	5.9	6.6	2.6	5.2	11.3	4.7	1.9	2.8	4.6	6	5.5	1.2	2.6	7.6
met	10.8	4.8	3.8	4.6	0.7	4.6	4.9	7	1.7	4.7	11.4	5.2	2.8	3.3	5.1	7.4	6.3	0.9	2	6.8
phe	9.6	3.7	5.2	6.5	1.2	6.4	2.7	7.9	1.9	6.7	7.4	5	2.5	3.9	3.6	8	5.8	1.3	3.3	6.3
pro	8.4	3.6	4.6	5.4	0.7	7.6	5.2	5.4	2.3	6.1	11.2	5.5	2.4	4.2	2.8	6.5	5.4	1.4	2.9	7.5
ser	9.1	4.6	3.7	5	1	5.4	5.2	7.2	2.6	6	11.6	4.5	2.2	4.1	4.1	6.5	5	1.2	3.2	6.8
thr	9.1	4.2	3.7	5.6	0.9	5.7	5.7	7.5	2.2	5.5	12	4.2	2	3.5	5.5	6.2	5.3	1.1	2.6	6.7
trp	7.1	6.3	3.2	4.8	1.3	3.9	8.5	6.6	3.6	5	14.2	3.2	2.4	4.6	3.9	5.8	4.3	1.3	3	6.1
tyr	7.9	6.5	3.6	4.9	1.2	4.5	7	7.1	2.6	5	11.7	4	1.6	4.7	4.9	6.4	4.6	1.5	3.4	5.7
val	9.6	4.1	4.4	5.9	1	6.2	3.4	6.4	1.8	6.5	10.2	5.2	2.5	3.7	3.8	7.2	6.1	1.1	2.7	7.1

Image credit: Xu

Exercise: What is shewanella?



- Dimer preference implies dicodon (6-mers like AAA TTT) bias in coding vs non-coding regions
- Relative freq of a dicodon in coding vs non-coding
 - Freq of dicodon X (e.g, AAA AAA) in coding region
 = total number of occurrences of X divided by total
 number of dicodon occurrences
 - Freq of dicodon X (e.g, AAA AAA) in noncoding
 region = total number of occurrences of X divided by
 total number of dicodon occurrences

Exercise: In human genome, freq of dicodon "AAAAAA" is ~1% in coding region vs ~5% in non-coding region. If you see a region with many "AAAAAA", would you guess it is a coding or non-coding region?



Why Dicodon (6-mer)?

- Codon (3-mer)-based models are not as info rich as dicodon-based models
- Tricodon (9-mer)-based models need too many data points

There are $4^3 = 64$ codons $4^6 = 4096$ dicodons $4^9 = 262144$ tricodons

- To make stats reliable, need ~15 occurrences of each X-mer
- ⇒ For tricodon-based models, need at least 15*262144 = 3932160 coding bases in our training data, which is probably not going to be available for most genomes



- Most dicodons show bias toward either coding or non-coding regions
- ⇒ Foundation for coding region identification

Regions consisting of dicodons that mostly tend to be in coding regions are probably coding regions; otherwise non-coding regions

⇒ Dicodon freq are key signal used for coding region detection; all gene finding programs use this info



Dicodon freq in coding vs non-coding are genome-dependent

Image credit: Xu

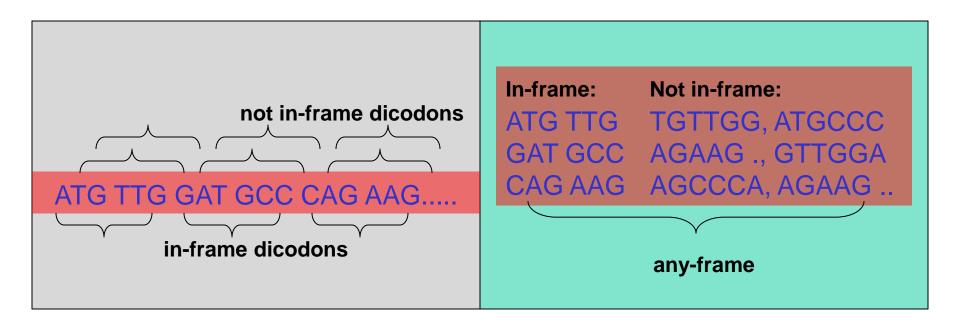
Name	ala	a a	arg	asn	asp) су	7S §	glu	glr	ı gly	y hi	is i	le	leu	lys	met	phe	pro	ser	th	r tr	p t	yr	val	Name	ala	arg	asn	asp	cys	glu	gln	gly	his	ile	leu	lys	met	phe	e pro	ser	thr	trp	tyr	val
ala	9.5	5 4	4.1	4.3	5.3	1.	2	6	4.8	6.5	5 2	! 6	5.5	11.5	6	2.6	3.7	3.5	6.2	5	1.	1 2	.7 (6.5	ala	11.4										9.7									
arg	7.9) (5.5	3.9	5.3	1.	1	6	5.5	5.9	2.	66	5.5	11.4	5	2.2	4.7	3.6	5.5	4.4	1.	4	4 (6.6	arg	8.5	7.7	4	4.6	2.3	5.9	3.8	7.6	2.5	4.4	9.2	5	1.7	4	5.3	6.3	5	1.5	3.4	6.5
asn	9.6	54	1.9	4.2	4.9	1		5.3	5.6	7.4	2.	3	6	10	4.9	2	3.5	5.1	6.1	5.5	5 1.	53	8.1	6.1	asn	6.3	4.9	4.9	4.4	2.1	5.3	4.1	6.9	2.2	5.6	9.7	5.4	2.1	4.1	5.9	7.3	5.3	1.9	4.6	6.2
asp	9.3	3	4	4.7	5.1	1	. (5.7	2.9	7	1.	8 7	7.1	9.6	6.3	2.3	4.3	3.9	5.9	5.1	1.	63	6.6	6.6	asp	7.4	4.9	3.5	5.4	2.4	6.6	3.4	7.4	2.1	5.4	9.5	4.7	2	4.4	5.4	6.8	5.7	1.6	4	6.4
cys	8.4	1 4	1.8	3.3	5.4	1.	7	5.6	5.2	8.1	4.	3 5	.4	10.2	3.8	1.8	4.1	4.5	6.3	4.3	3 1.	63	.4 (6.8	cys	6.9	5.9	4	5.4	2.7	5.6	4.9	7.1	3	4.4	8.8	5.4	1.6	3.5	6.8	7.4	5.7	1.4	2.7	5.7
glu	9.4	1 5	5.8	3.6	4.5	0.	8 4	4.9	7	5.8	3 2.	65	5.9	12.7	5	2.4	4	3.5	5.4	5	1.	1 2	.8	6.8	glu	7.8	5.3	4.3	6.4	1.9	9.7	3.7	6.8	2	5.1	8.2	6.2	2.2	3.3	4.8	5.3	5.4	1.2	3.2	6.2
gln	10.	3 4	1.9	3	4.4	0.9	9 4	4.5	6.8	7	2.	7 5	5.5	12.8	4.1	2	3.9	3.8	5.8	5.3	3 1.	4	3 (6.9	gln	7.9	5.6	4.2	5	2	6.6	5.1	6.9	2.1	4.7	9.3	5.7	2	3.3	5.9	5.7	6.1	1.6	3.3	6.2
gly	8.1	1 4	1.8	3.9	5.1	1.	2	6	4.6	6.4	2.	4 6	5.8	10.5	5.8	2.7	4.8	2.4	5.8	5.1	1.	4 3	.7	7.5	gly	7.9	5.8	3.9	5	1.9	6.2	3.5	8	1.8	4.7	8.7	5.2	1.7	3.7	6.9	7.4	5.8	1.4	3.2	6.2
his	7.3	3 4	4.7	4	4.8	1.	5 4	4.9	5.6	6.9) 3	6	5.2	10.8	4.8	1.6	5	5.2	6.8	4.9) 1.	74	.2	5.1	his	6	5.8	4.3	3.5	2.9	5.1	4.1	6.3	3.2	4.5	10.6	4.8	1.6	4.5	6.7	6.6	6.1	1.7	3.9	6.9
ile	11	4	1.7	4.9	6.5	1.	1 6	5.9	3.6	7.2	2 2.	1 5	5.3	8.6	5.3	1.8	3.2	4.2	7	5.6	6 0.	9 2	.9 (6.1	ile	6.2	4.9	4.9	4.7	2.4	5.3	4.6	5.8	2.2	6	9.9	5.3	2.1	4.1	5.3	7.7	6.9	1.2	3.7	6
leu	10.	4 4	1.2	4.3	5.2	1.	1 :	5.2	3.7	6.8	3 2	! 5	6.6	10.6	5.3	2.3	3.8	4.5	7.4	6.2	2 1	. 2	.6	6.6	leu	7.7	5.6	4.1	4.7	2.1	5.8	4.5	6.8	2.1	4.6	11	5.4	1.9	3.7	5.7	7	5.5	1.2	3.1	6.4
lys	10.	6 5	5.2	3.8	5.2	0.	5 5	5.3	5.9	6.6	5 2.	6 5	5.2	11.3	4.7	1.9	2.8	4.6	6	5.5	i 1.	2 2	.6	7.6	lys	6.3	5.2	4.8	5.2	2.1	7.2	3.7	6.7	2.2	6	8.5	7.5	2	3.5	4.8	6.1	5.8	1.6	3.5	6.3
met	10.	8 4	1.8	3.8	4.6	0.	7 4	4.6	4.9	7	1.	7 4	1.7	11.4	5.2	2.8	3.3	5.1	7.4	6.3	8 0.	9	2 (6.8	met	9.3						. <u>.</u>		ļ	ļ	9.6					6.9	5.5	1	3.2	6.6
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pro	8.4	1	3.6	4.6	5.4	0.	7	7.6	5.2	5.4	2.	36	5.1	11.2	5.5	2.4	4.2	2.8	6.5	5.4	1.	4 2	.9	7.5	pro	8.5	5.4	3.1	5.1	1.9	6.7	3.9	9.5	1.9	4.3	7.7	4.3	1.7	3.3	8.7	6.9	5.7	1.4	2.8	6.4
ser	9.1	14	1.6	3.7	5	1		5.4	5.2	7.2	2 2.	6	6	11.6	4.5	2.2	4.1	4.1	6.5	5	1.	2 3	8.2	6.8	ser		5.4	. <u>j</u>						<u>.</u>	<u>.</u>	9.5			4		8.6	6.2	1.4	3	6.4
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val	9.6	5 4	4.1	4.4	5.9	1	. (5.2	3.4	6.4	1.	86	5.5	10.2	5.2	2.5	3.7	3.8	7.2	6.1	1.	1 2	2.7	7.1	val	7.6	5	4.4	5.2	2.4	5.7	3.7	6.3	1.9	5	9.3	5.1	2.1	4.1	5.5	6.9	6.6	1.1	3.6	7.4

Shewanella

Bovine



 In-frame vs any-frame dicodons In-frame dicodon freq provide a more sensitive measure than any-frame dicodon freq





Dicodon Preference Model

 The preference value P(X) of a dicodon X is defined as

 $P(X) = \log FC(X)/FN(X)$

where

FC(X) is freq of X in coding regions FN(X) is freq of X in non-coding regions

Dicodon Preference Model's Properties

- P(X) = 0 if X has same freq in coding and noncoding regions
- P(X) > 0 if X has higher freq in coding than in noncoding region; the larger the diff, the more positive the score is
- P(X) < 0 if X has higher freq in non-coding than in coding region; the larger the diff, the more negative the score is



Dicodon Preference Model Example

• Suppose AAA ATT, AAA GAC, AAA TAG have the following freq:

FC(AAA ATT) = 1.4%FN(AAA ATT) = 5.2%

FC(AAA GAC) = 1.9%FN(AAA GAC) = 4.8%

FC(AAA TAG) = 0.0%FN(AAA TAG) = 6.3% Then P(AAA ATT) = -0.57 P(AAA GAC) = -0.40 $P(AAA TAG) = -\infty$, treating STOP codons differently

⇒ A region consisting of only these dicodons is probably a non-coding region



Frame-Insensitive Coding Region Preference Model

 A frame-insensitive coding preference S_{is}(R) of a region R can be defined as

 $S_{is}(R) = \Sigma_{X \text{ is a dicodon in } R} P(X)$

R is predicted as coding region if S_{is}(R) > 0

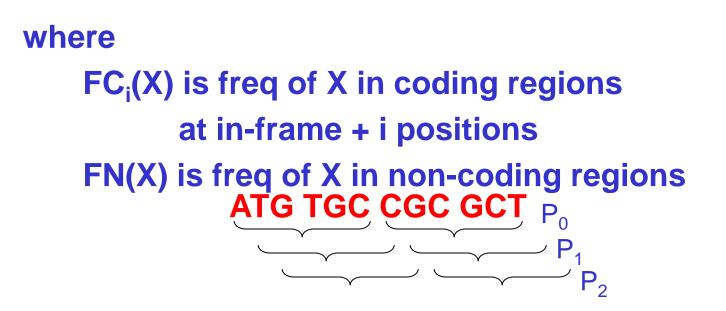
NB. This model is not commonly used



In-Frame Dicodon Preference Model

The in-frame + i preference value P_i(X) of a dicodon X is defined as

 $P_i(X) = \log FC_i(X)/FN(X)$



In-Frame



Coding Region Preference Model

 The in-frame + i preference S_i(R) of a region R can be defined as

 $S_i(R) = \Sigma_{X \text{ is a dicodon at in-frame + i position in } R} P_i(X)$

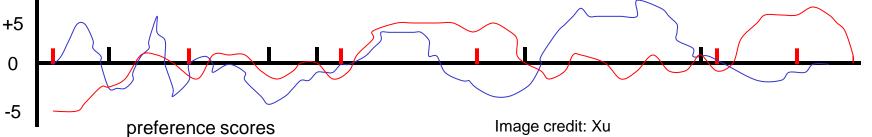
• R is predicted as coding if $\sum_{i=0,1,2} S_i(R)/|R| > 0$

NB. This coding preference model is commonly used



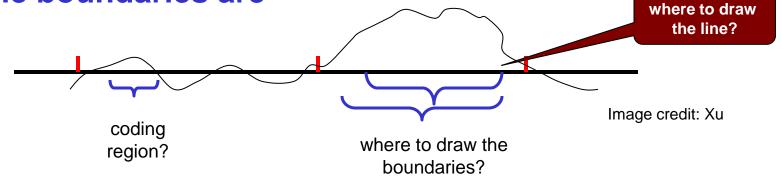
Coding Region Prediction: An Example Procedure

- Calculate all ORFs of a DNA segment
- For each ORF
 - Slide thru ORF w/ increment of 10bp
 - Calculate in-frame coding region preference score, in same frame as ORF, within window of 60bp
 - Assign score to center of window
- E.g., forward strand in a particular frame...



Problem with Coding Region Boundares

 Making the call: coding or non-coding and where the boundaries are



⇒ Need training set with known coding and noncoding regions to select threshold that includes as many known coding regions as possible, and at the same time excludes as many known noncoding regions as possible



Types of Coding Region Boundaries

- Knowing boundaries of coding regions helps identify them more accurately
- Possible boundaries of an exon

{ translation start, acceptor site }

{ translation stop, donor site }

Image credit: Xu

- Splice junctions:
 - Donor site: coding region | GT
 - Acceptor site: CAG | TAG | coding region
- Translation start
 - in-frame ATG

What do you expect at translation stop?



Signals for Coding Region Boundaries

- Splice junction sites and translation starts have certain distribution profiles
- For example, ...



Acceptor Site (Human Genome)

 If we align all known acceptor sites (with their splice junction site aligned), we have the following nucleotide distribution

	-14	-13	-12	-11	-10	-9	-8	-7	-6	-5	-4	-3	-2	-1	1
A	11.1	12.7	3.2	4.8	12.7	8.7	16.7	16.7	12.7	9.5	26.2	6.3	100	0.0	21.4
с	36.5	30.9	19.1	23.0	34.9	39.7	34.9	40.5	40.5	36.5	33.3	68.2	0.0	0.0	7.9
G	9.5	10.3	15.1	12.7	8.7	9.5	16.7	4.8	2.4	6.3	13.5	0.0	0.0	100	62.7
U	38.9	41.3	58.7	55.6	42.1	40.5	30.9	37.3	44.4	47.6	27.0	25.4	0.0	0.0	7.9

Image credit: Xu

Acceptor site: CAG | TAG | coding region



Donor Site (Human Genome)

• If we align all known donor sites (with their splice junction site aligned), we have the following nucleotide distribution

	-3	-2	-1	1	2	3	4	5	6
A	34.0	60.4	9.2	0.0	0.0	52.6	71.3	7.1	16.0
С	36.3	12.9	3.3	0.0	0.0	2.8	7.6	5.5	16.5
G	18.3	12.5	80.3	100	0.0	41.9	11.8	81.4	20.9
ប	11.4	14.2	7.3	0.0	100	2.5	9.3	5.9	46.2

Image credit: Xu

• Donor site: coding region | GT

What Positions Have "High" Info Content:

 For a weight matrix, information content of each column is calculated as

 $- \sum_{X \in \{A,C,G,T\}} F(X)^* \log (F(X)/0.25)$

- When a column has evenly distributed nucleotides, its information content is lowest
- Only need to look at positions having high information content



Information Content Around Donor Sites in Human Genome

	-3	-2	-1	1	2	3	4	5	6
A	34.0	60.4	9.2	0.0	0.0	52.6	71.3	7.1	16.0
С	36.3	12.9	3.3	0.0	0.0	2.8	7.6	5.5	16.5
G	18.3	12.5	80.3	100	0.0	41.9	11.8	81.4	20.9
ប	11.4	14.2	7.3	0.0	100	2.5	9.3	5.9	46.2

Information content

Image credit: Xu

- □ column -3 = .34*log (.34/.25) .363*log (.363/.25) - .183* log (.183/.25) - .114* log (.114/.25) = 0.04
- □ column −1 = .092*log (.92/.25) .03*log (.033/.25) - .803* log (.803/.25) - .073* log (.73/.25) = 0.30

Weight Matrix Model for Splice Site Sites Sites

Weight matrix model

- Build a weight matrix for donor, acceptor, translation start site, respectively
- Use positions of high information content

	-3	-2	-1	1	2	3	4	5	6
A	34.0	60.4	9.2	0.0	0.0	52.6	71.3	7.1	16.0
С	36.3	12.9	3.3	0.0	0.0	2.8	7.6	5.5	16.5
G	18.3	12.5	80.3	100	0_0	41.9	11.8	81.4	20.9
U	11.4	14.2	7.3	0.0	100	2.5	9.3	5.9	46.2

Nucleotide distribution around human donor sites Image credit: Xu



Just to make sure you know what I mean??..

- Give me 3 DNA seq of length 10:
 - Seq₁ = ACCGAGTTCT
 - Seq₂ = AGTGTACCTG
 - Seq₃ = AGTTCGTATG
- Then the weight matrix is ...

1-mer	pos1	pos2	pos3	pos4	pos5	pos6	pos7	pos8	pos9	pos10
Α	3/3	0/3	0/3							
С	0/3	1/3	1/3		Exerc	vise: Fil	l in the	rest of t	he table	•
G	0/3	2/3	0/3							
Т	0/3	0/3	2/3							



Splice Site Prediction: A Procedure

	-3	-2	-1	1	2	3	4	5	6
A	34.0	60.4	9.2	0.0	0.0	52.6	71.3	7.1	16.0
С	36.3	12.9	3.3	0.0	0.0	2.8	7.6	5.5	16.5
G	18.3	12.5	80.3	100	0.0	41.9	11.8	81.4	20.9
U	11.4	14.2	7.3			2.5		5.9	46.2

Nucleotide distribution around human donor sites

Image credit: Xu

• Add up freq of corr letter in corr positions:

AAGGTAAGT: .34 + .60 + .80 +1.0 + 1.0 + .52 + .71 + .81 + .46 = 6.24

TGTGTCTCA: .11 + .12 + .03 +1.0 + 1.0 + .02 + .07 + .05 + .16 = 2.56

Make prediction on splice site based on some threshold

Other Factors Considered by GRA

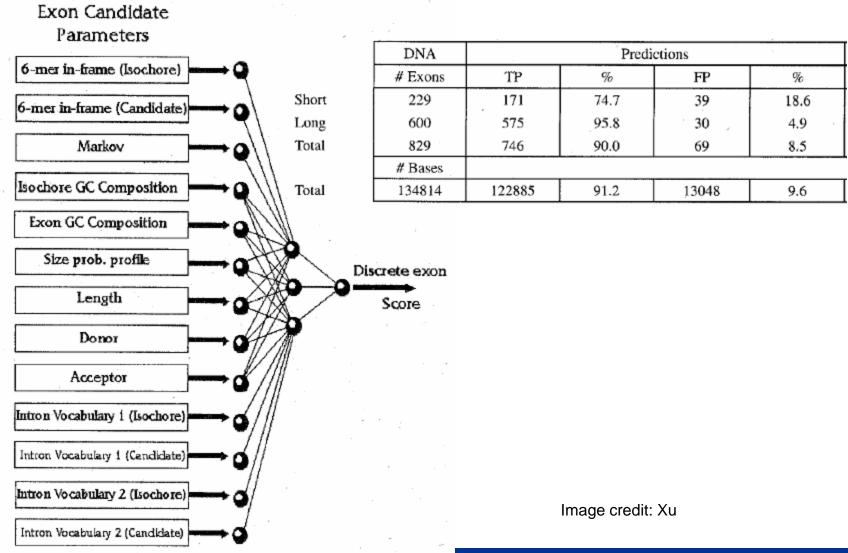
- G+C composition affects dicodon distributions
- Length of exons follows certain distribution
- Other signals associated with coding regions
 - periodicity
 - structure information
- Pseudo genes

.

•



Info Fusion by ANN in GRAIL



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Remaining Challenges in GRAIL

- Initial exon
- Final exon
- Indels & frame shifts

Indel & Frame-Shift in Coding Regions

Problem definition Indel & frameshift identification Indel correction An iterative strategy

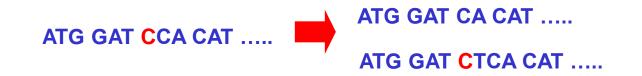
Some slides here are "borrowed" from Ying Xu





Indels in Coding Regions

- Indel = insertion or deletion in coding region
- Indels are usually caused by seq errors



Effects of Indels on Exon Prediction Singapore

 Indels may cause shifts in reading frames & affect prediction algos for coding regions

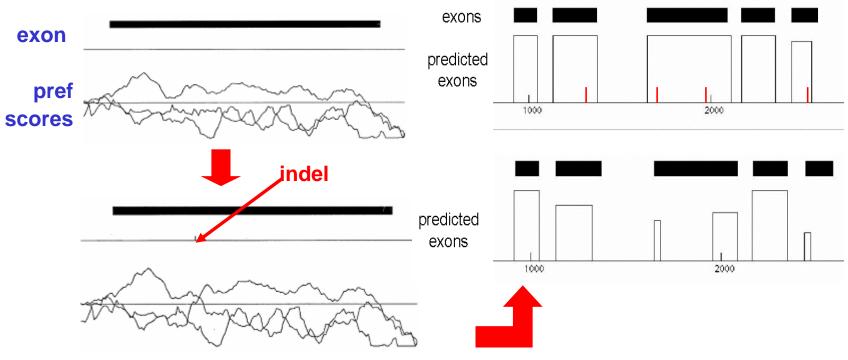


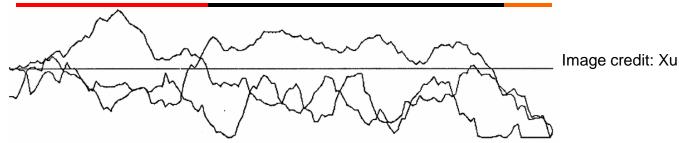
Image credit: Xu

55



Key Idea for Detecting Frame-Shi

- Preferred reading frame is reading frame w/ highest coding score
- Diff DNA segments may have diff preferred reading frames



- \Rightarrow Segment a coding sequence into regions w/ consistent preferred reading frames corr well w/ indel positions
- \Rightarrow Indel identification problem can be solved as a sequence segmentation problem!

Frame-Shift Detection by Seq Segmentation

- Partition seq into segs so that
 - Chosen frames of adjacent segs are diff
 - Each segment has >30 bps to avoid small fluctuations
 - Sum of coding scores in the chosen frames over all segments is maximized



Frame-Shift Detection: A Simplified Treatment

- Given DNA sequence $a_1 \dots a_n$
- Define key quantities

C(i, r) = max score on a₁ ... a_i, w/ the last segment in frame r

• Then

 $max_{r \in \{0, 1, 2\}} C(n, r)$ is optimal solution



Frame-Shift Detection: *C(i,r)*

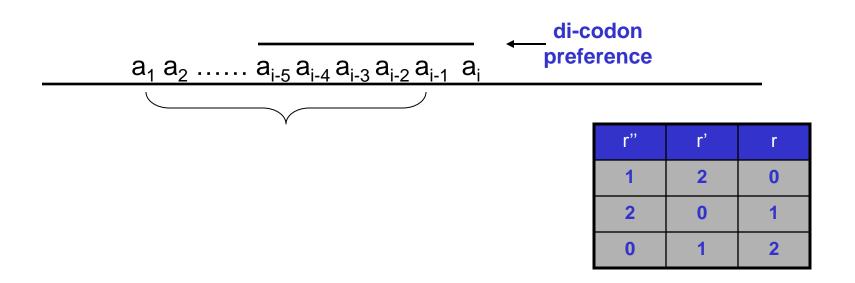
- To calculate *C(i,r)*, there are 3 possible cases for each position *i*:
 - Case 1: no indel occurred at position i
 - Case 2: a_i is an inserted base
 - Case 3: a base has been deleted in front of a_i
- \Rightarrow C(i, r) = max { Case 1, Case 2, Case 3 }



Frame-Shift Detection: Case 1

• No indel occurs at position *i*. Then

 $C(i,r) = C(i-1, r') + P_r(a_{i-5}...a_i)$

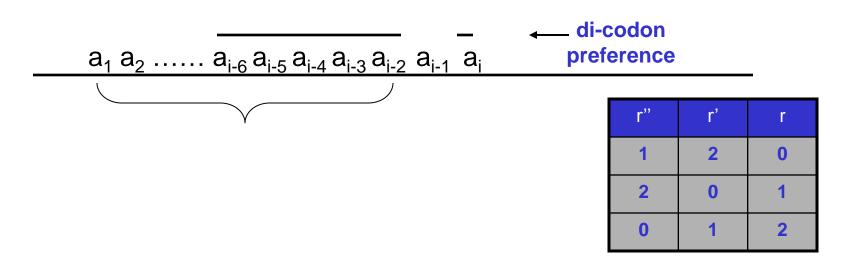




Frame-Shift Detection: Case 2

a_{i-1} is an inserted base. Then

$$C(i,r) = C(i-2, r') + P_r(a_{i-6}...a_{i-2}a_i)$$



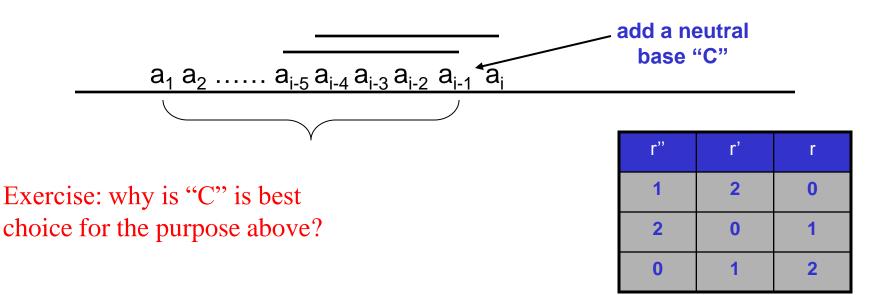
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Frame-Shift Detection: Case 3

• A base has been deleted in front of a_i. Then

$$C(i, r) = C(i-1, r'') + P_{r'}(a_{i-5}..., a_{i-1}C) + P_{r}(a_{i-4}..., a_{i-1}Ca_{i})$$



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Frame-Shift Detection: Initiation

Initial conditions,

 $C(k, r) = -\infty, k < 6$ $C(6, r) = P_r(a_1 \dots a_6)$

• This is a dynamic programming (DP) algorithm; the equations are DP recurrences

Exercise: How to modified the recurrence so that each fragment is at least 30bp?



Frame-Shift Detection: Determining Indel Positions

- Calculation of max_{r∈{0, 1, 2}}C(i, r) gives an optimal segmentation of a DNA sequence
- Tracing back the transition points---viz. case 2 & case 3---gives the segmentation results

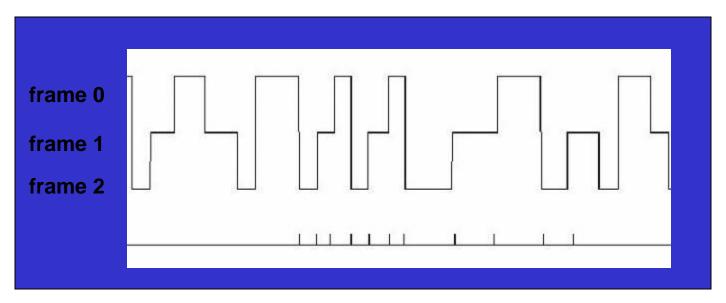


Image credit: Xu



Frame-Shift Detection: Determine Coding Regions

• For given H_1 and H_2 (e.g., = 0.25 for noncoding and 0.75 for coding), partition a DNA seq into segs so that each seg has >30 bases & coding values of each seg are consistently closer to one of H_1 or H_2 than the other

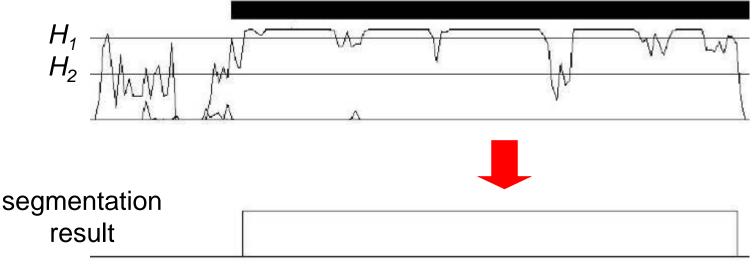


Image credit: Xu



Frame-Shift Detection: Finally...

 Overlay "preferred reading-frame segs" & "coding segs" gives coding region predictions regions w/ indels

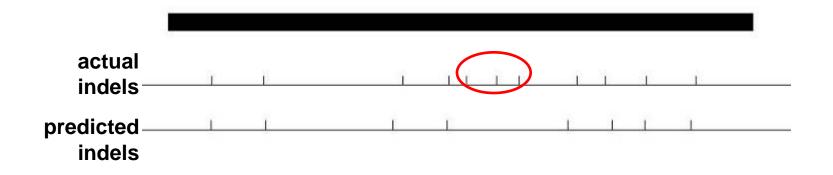
actual exon	
predicted exons	ω
actual indels-	(B)
predicted_ indels	(C)
predicted exon w/ frameshift correction –	(D)
	Image credit: Xu

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What Happens When Indels Are Close Together?

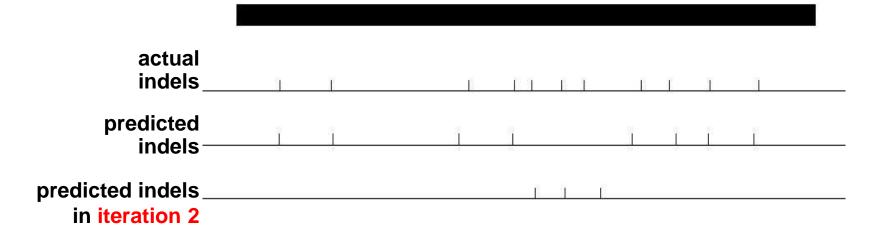
- Our procedure works well when indels are not too close together (i.e., >30 bases apart)
- When indels are too close together, they will be missed...





Handling Indels That Are Close Together

- Employ an iterative process, viz
 - Find one set of indels
 - Correct them
 - Iterate until no more indels can be found





About the Inventor: Ying Xu



Ying Xu's family with Huiqing Liu's family. Image credit: Huiqing Liu

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Any Question?





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