Lecture 17

• Parsing genomes with HMMs

Genome biology overview

- Genomes undergo two fundamental processes (both involve copying!):
	- Replication
	- Transcription
- Genomic functional information is in the form of *sites:*
	- Short (\sim 2 \sim 15 base) sequence segments that bind to an *RNA* or *protein* molecule (the *reader*) to help mediate some function

Genome HMMs

- a genome consists of (functionally important) *sites* within (nonfunctional) *background* sequence.
- can define an HMM that reflects this:
	- one state per site position, for each type of site
	- background state
	- appropriate topology (allowed transitions)
	- emission & transition probs

and use it to get Viterbi parse & posterior probs

HMM for *C. elegans* 3' Splice Sites

- Complication: sites have *orientation* (top or bottom *strand*)
	- e.g. from transcription direction
- One strategy: analyze 2 strands separately – problem: resolving conflicts
- Better strategy: *expand model* to allow sites in both orientations, and run on *top strand* only
	- double # site states
	- bottom strand states have
		- complementary emission probs
		- reversed allowed transitions
- # params does not change
- size of WDAG increases, but only by factor of \sim 2
	- no transitions *between* top & bottom strand states, except for background

cf. WDAG for 3-state HMM length n sequence (*lecture 13*)

Prokaryotes vs eukaryotes

- Such HMMs are most reliable, & most widely used, for prokaryotic genomes, which usually have
	- high site density, homogeneous background
	- relatively simple spatial relationships among sites
	- often relatively little 'supporting information' such as
		- protein binding & transcript data
		- closely related genomes
- eukaryotic genomes are less suitable:
	- low site density, heterogeneous background
	- complex site spatial relationships (not well captured by Markov transition model)
	- often much supporting info
		- similar genomes to transfer annotations from;
		- protein binding / RNASeq & other experimental data
		- in principle, some of this could be incorporated into HMM
			- (expanded symbol alphabet)

Prokaryote genomes

- typically a few MB in size
- up to ~80% protein coding
- Typical CDS size ~1 KB
- introns & overlapping CDSs rare
- range of GC contents

ORF analysis

- Translate genome in all 6 reading frames
- In each, find 'open reading frames' starting with ATG (or NTG), ending in stop
- Sort ORFs by (decreasing) length
- Work through sorted list, discarding any ORF that
	- overlaps a longer one, or
	- is 'too short'
- Problems:
	- short CDSs are missed
	- CDSs often have long overlapping fake ORFs on opposite strand
	- poor performance on GC-rich genomes (many long fake ORFs

• Additional information that is present in real coding sequence (but ignored in ORF analysis) – *cf. lecture 3*

– amino acid usage

- synonymous codon bias
- Use this, in a probability model!

The Genetic Code

Synonymous codon bias

- In most organisms, the codons for an amino acid are not used with equal frequency
- For many organisms this may reflect differences in translational efficiency & accuracy
	- more highly expressed genes have stronger biases
- For mammals codon usage mainly reflects the GC content of the region in which the gene is found
	- GC content variation probably reflects GC-biased gene conversion

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Figure 34 The human genetic code and associated tRNA genes. For each of the 64 codons, we show: the corresponding amino acid; the observed frequency of the codon per 10,000 codons; the codon; predicted wobble pairing to a tRNA anticodon (black lines); an unmodified tRNA anticodon sequence; and the number of tRNA genes found with this anticodon. For example, phenylalanine is encoded by UUU or UUC; UUC is seen more frequently, 203 to 171 occurrences per 10,000 total codons; both codons are expected to be decoded by a single tRNA anticodon type, GAA, using a G/U wobble; and there are 14 tRNA genes found with this anticodon. The modified anticodon sequence in the mature tRNA is not shown, even where post-transcriptional modifications can be confidently predicted (for example, when an A is used to decode a U/C third position, the A is almost certainly an inosine in the mature tRNA). The Figure also does not show the number of distinct tRNA species (such as distinct sequence families) for each anticodon; often there is more than one species for each anticodon.

Prokaryote HMMs

- Main types of sites:
	- Codon sites
	- Translation start sites (Shine-Dalgarno)
	- Promoter elements
		- Transcription factor binding sites
	- (RNA genes / RNA folding sites)
	- (replication origin)
- Simple 7-state prokaryote genome model:
	- 1 state for intergenic regions
	- 3 states for codon positions in top-strand genes
	- 3 for codon positions in bottom-strand genes

Average codon biases (*lecture 3*)

- At codon position 1,
	- purines (*A* and *G*) predominate among over-represented amino acids,
	- pyrimidines (*C* and *T*) among under-represented amino acids.
- At codon position 2,
	- *A* and *T* predominate among over-represented amino acids,
	- *C* and *G* among under-represented amino acids.
- Hypotheses to explain *RWR* codon preference:
	- (Neutralist) Vestige of ancestral code? (Shepherd)
	- (Selectionist) More efficiently translated?

• These biases are somewhat subtle – but strong enough to (often) distinguish – coding sequences (of reasonable length) from

– background sequence

7-state model for prokaryote genomes

- intergenic
- first codon position top strand coding sequence
- second codon position top strand coding sequence \bigcap
- third codon position top strand coding sequence
- first codon position bottom strand coding sequence
- second codon position bottom strand coding sequence \bigcirc
- third codon position bottom strand coding sequence

a (very short!) 'bottom-strand' gene, in a different region of the genome:

• N.B. the emitted symbols are always *top strand* nucleotides!

A better HMM!

- Amino acid-specific codon blocks
	- Not really 'sites' as previously defined may have more than one tRNA reader
	- Split the three 6-codon amino acids into 2 sites $(4 + 2)$
		- E.g. Leu: CTN and TTR 'sites'
		- A single YTN site would also emit Phe codons
	- The other 17 aas are each 1 site
- 'Start' codon: NTG

– Part of Shine-Dalgarno

- 2 Stop codon sites: TAR, TGA
- Total codon sites: $17 + 3 \times 2 + 1 + 2 = 26$ 26

The Genetic Code

- Total codon *states*
- $= 26$ sites \times 2 strands \times 3 pos $= 156$
- Transitions within & between codons are the obvious ones
	- Unless one wishes to allow for frameshift sequencing errors!
- Also, states for promoter element sites
	- TF binding sites
- Ignore RNA genes
	- (identify by sequence similarity)
- Ignore replication origins
	- Often can identify after HMM analysis, by orientation biases 28

• Need more than one background state, to allow memory of where one is in a gene, and strand

- May need additional backgd states if promoter element *order* is important
- Role of 'memory' is to *reduce* impact of biologically implausible paths
	- Model may still work without these complications – but with reduced power
- Reasonable to constrain all backgd states to have *same emission probs*
- Use Viterbi or Baum-Welch training – (with appropriate top vs bottom constraints etc) to find
	- Codon biases, aa freqs
	- Promoter elements
		- Include sites of size ~6, random initial emission probs
	- Shine-Dalgarno sequence preferences

Complications in Eukaryotes

- $5'$ & $3'$ splice sites
- poly A sites
- introns
	- Must retain memory of where codon is interrupted!
- 5' & 3'UTR
- G+C variation

• Not difficult to set up an HMM with states corresponding to the above; *but* complex site spatial relationships are not well captured by Markov transition model:

– Intron size constraints

- Enhancers (possibly intronic!)
- Also:
	- alternative splicing
	- alternative promoters
	- overlapping sites
- imply any single parse is incomplete