Lecture 17

• Parsing genomes with HMMs

Genome biology overview

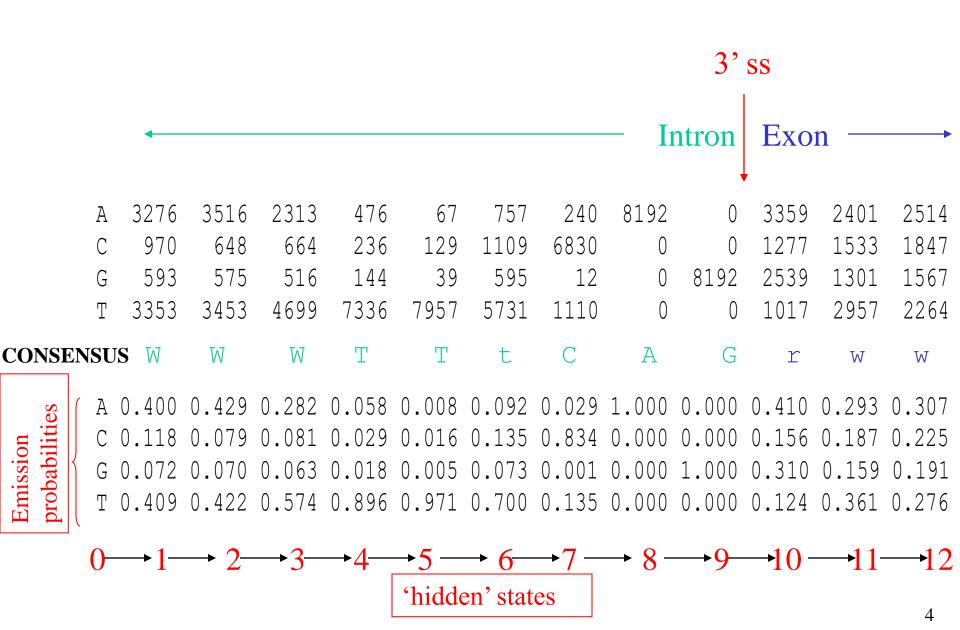
- Genomes undergo two fundamental processes (both involve copying!):
 - Replication
 - Transcription
- Genomic functional information is in the form of *sites*:
 - Short (~2 ~15 base) sequence segments that bind to an RNA or protein molecule (the reader) to help mediate some function

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 ~2
 - no transitions between top & bottom strand states, except for background

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

weights are emission probabilities $e_k(b_i)$ for i^{th} residue b_i weights are transition probabilities a_{kl} b_{i+1} b_i position *i*-1 position iposition i+1

 b_{i-1}

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

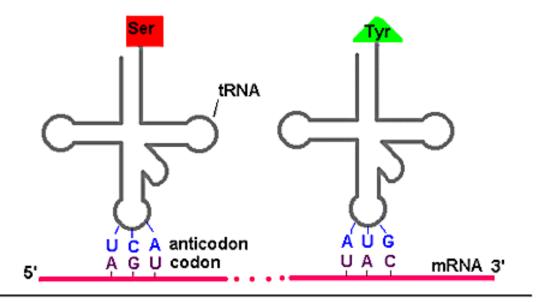
- Translate genome in all 6 reading frames
- In each, find 'open reading frames' starting with ATG (or NTG), ending in stop
- Sort ORFs by (decreasing) length
- Work through sorted list, discarding any ORF that
 - overlaps a longer one, or
 - is 'too short'

• 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!

3rd base in codon



2nd base in codon

		J	O	Α	G	
ist base in codon	U	Phe	Ser	Tyr	Cys	C
		Phe	Ser	Tyr	Cys	С
		Leu	Ser	STOP	STOP	Α
		Leu	Ser	STOP	Тгр	G
	С	Leu	Pro	His	Arg	C
		Leu	Pro	His	Arg	С
		Leu	Pro	Gln	Arg	C A
		Leu	Pro	Gln	Arg	G
	Α	lle	Thr	Asn	Ser	C
		lle	Thr	Asn	Ser	CA
		lle	Thr	Lys	Arg	Α
		Met	Thr	Lys	Arg	G
	G	Val	Ala	Asp	Gly	C
		Val	Ala	Asp	Gly	С
		Val	Ala	Glu	Gly	C A G
		Val	Ala	Glu	Gly	G

The Genetic Code

Amino Acid	Obs/Exp	1 st codon	2 nd codon	3 rd codon	# codons
		base	base	base	
Е	1.92	G	A	R	2
K	1.80	A	A	R	2
D	1.62	G	A	Y	2
M	1.46	A	T	G	1
N	1.37	A	A	Y	2
F	1.25	T	T	Y	2
Q	1.22	С	A	R	2
I	1.16	A	T	Not G	3
A	1.14	G	C	N	4
G	1.05	G	G	N	4
V	.99	G	T	N	4
Y	.98	T	A	Y	2
L	.95	C(T)	T	N	6
T	.88	A	C	N	4
W	.79	T	G	G	1
P	.74	С	С	N	4
S	.73	T(A)	C(G)	N	6
Н	.67	С	A	Y	2
R	.53	C(A)	G	N	6
С	.52	T	G	Y	2

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

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

Amino Acid	Obs/Exp	1 st codon	2 nd codon	3 rd codon	# codons
		base	base	base	
Е	1.92	G	A	R	2
K	1.80	A	A	R	2
D	1.62	G	A	Y	2
M	1.46	A	T	G	1
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Q	1.22	C	A	R	2
I	1.16	A	T	Not G	3
A	1.14	G	C	N	4
G	1.05	G	G	N	4
V	.99	G	T	N	4
Y	.98	T	A	Y	2
L	.95	C(T)	T	N	6
T	.88	A	C	N	4
W	.79	T	G	G	1
P	.74	С	С	N	4
S	.73	T(A)	C(G)	N	6
Н	.67	С	A	Y	2
R	.53	C(A)	G	N	6
С	.52	T	G	Y	2

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
- third codon position top strand coding sequence
- first codon position bottom strand coding sequence
- second codon position bottom strand coding sequence
- 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: $17 + 3 \times 2 + 1 + 2 = 26$

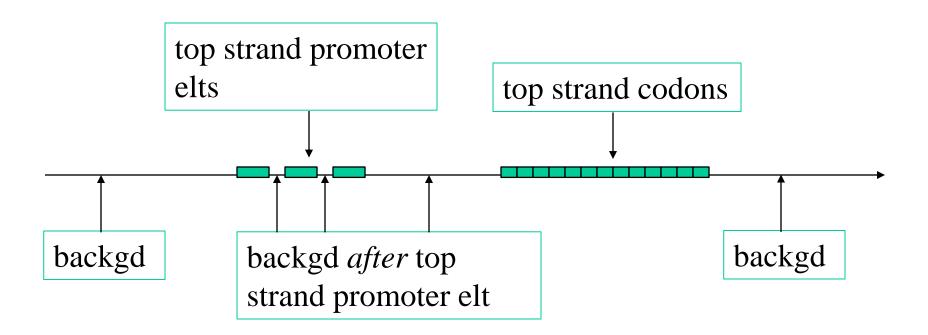
The Genetic Code

	U	C	A	G	
U	Phe	Ser	${ t Tyr}$	Cys	U
	Phe	Ser	${ t Tyr}$	Cys	C
	Leu	Ser	Stop	Stop	A
	Leu	Ser	Stop	${ t Trp}$	G
С	Leu	Pro	His	Arg	U
	Leu	Pro	His	Arg	C
	Leu	Pro	Gln	Arg	A
	Leu	Pro	Gln	Arg	G
A	Ile	${\tt Thr}$	Asn	Ser	U
	Ile	${ t Thr}$	Asn	Ser	C
	Ile	${ t Thr}$	Lys	Arg	A
	Met	${ t Thr}$	Lys	Arg	G
G	Val	Ala	Asp	Gly	U
	Val	Ala	Asp	Gly	C
	Val	Ala	Glu	${ t Gly}$	A
	Val	Ala	Glu	Gly	G

- Total codon states
- $= 26 \text{ sites} \times 2 \text{ strands} \times 3 \text{ pos} = 156$
- 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

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 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