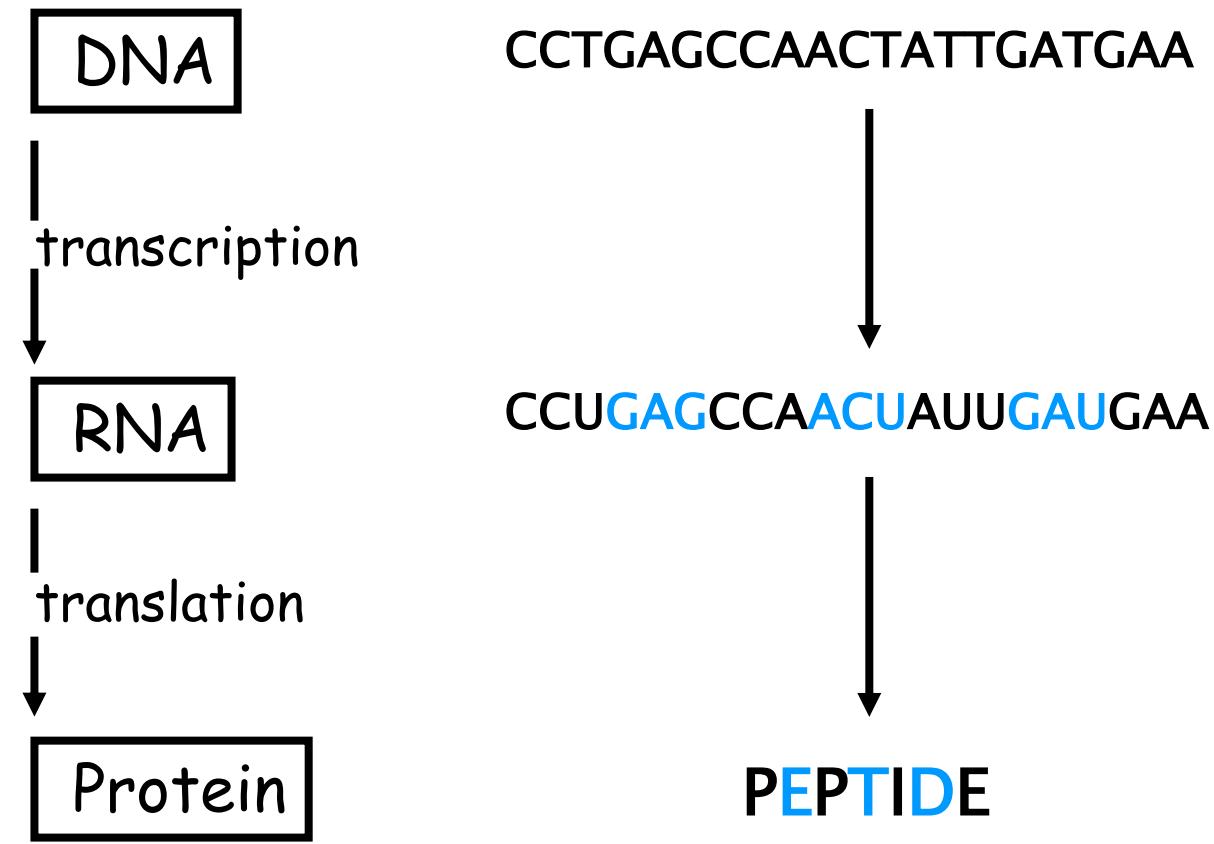
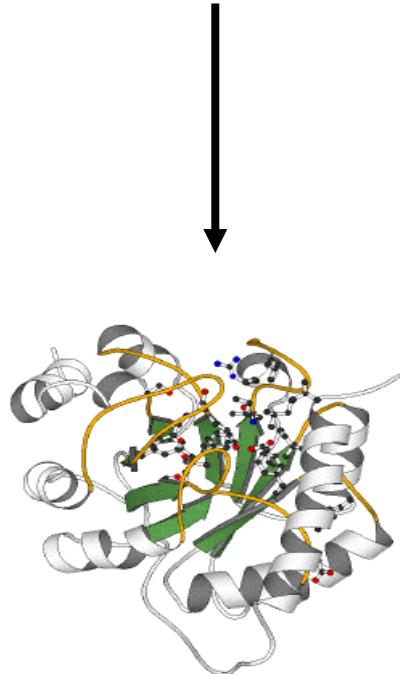
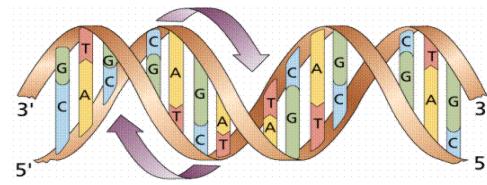


EECS730: Introduction to Bioinformatics

Lecture 08: Gene finding

aatgcatgcggctatgctaattgcattgcggctatgctaaggctggatccgatgacaatgcattgcggctatgctaattgcattgcggc
tatgcattggatccgatgactatgctaagctggatccgatgacaatgcattgcggctatgctaattgcattgcggctatgctaattgcattgcggatt
taccttggatgcataagctggatccgatgacaatgcattgcggctatgctaattgcattgcggctatgctaattgcattgcggctatgctaattgcattgcggatt
taatgcattgcggctatgctaagctggatccgatgacaatgcattgcggctatgctaattgcattgcggctatgctaattgcattgcggctatgctaattgcattgcggatt
gatgactatgctaagctgcggctatgctaattgcattgcggctatgctaagctggatccgatgacaatgcattgcggctatgctaattgcattgcggctatgctaattgcattgcggatt
tgcattgcggctatgcaagctggatccctgcggctatgctaattgcattgcggctatgctaattgcattgcggctatgctaattgcattgcggctatgctaattgcattgcggatt
gatgacaatgcattgcggctatgctaattgcattgcggctatgctaattgcattgcggctatgctaattgcattgcggctatgctaattgcattgcggctatgctaattgcattgcggatt
aatgcattgcggctatgctaagctggatccgatgacaatgcattgcggctatgctaattgcattgcggctatgctaattgcattgcggctatgctaattgcattgcggatt
gatgactatgctaagctgcggctatgctaattgcattgcggctatgctaagctcatgcggctatgctaattgcattgcggctatgctaattgcattgcggatt
ctatgctaagctggatccgatgacaatgcattgcggctatgctaattgcattgcggctatgctaagctcatgcggctatgctaattgcattgcggatt
aatgcattgcggctatgctaattgcattgcggctatgctaagctggatccgatgacaatgcattgcggctatgctaattgcattgcggctatgctaattgcattgcggatt
gctggatccgatgacaatgcattgcggctatgctaattgcattgcggctatgctaattgcattgcggctatgctaattgcattgcggctatgctaattgcattgcggatt
gctaattgcattgcggctatgctaattgcattgcggctatgctaattgcattgcggctatgctaattgcattgcggctatgctaattgcattgcggctatgctaattgcattgcggatt
gctggatccgatgactatgctaagctgcggctatgctaattgcattgcggctatgctaattgcattgcggctatgctaattgcattgcggctatgctaattgcattgcggatt

Central Dogma: DNA → RNA → Protein



Translating Nucleotides into Amino Acids

- Codon: 3 consecutive nucleotides
- $4^3 = 64$ possible codons
- Genetic code is degenerative and redundant
 - Includes start and stop codons
 - An amino acid may be coded by more than one codon

Codons

- In 1961 Sydney Brenner and Francis Crick discovered **frameshift mutations**
- Systematically deleted nucleotides from DNA
 - Single and double deletions dramatically altered protein product
 - Effects of triple deletions were minor
 - Conclusion: every triplet of nucleotides, each **codon**, codes for exactly one amino acid in a protein

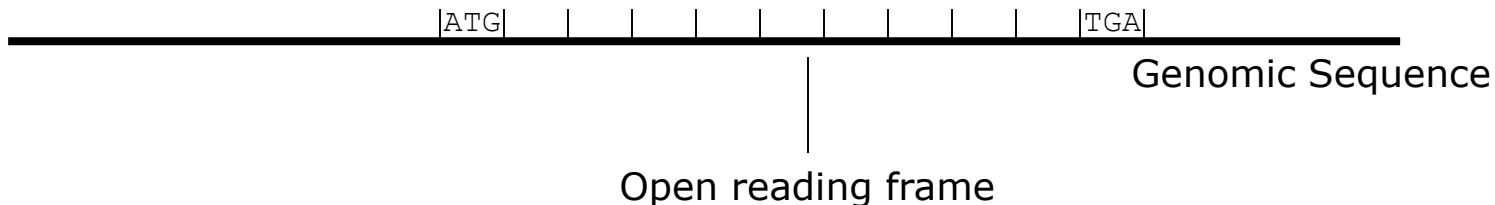
Six frames of DNA translation

CTGCAGACGAAACCTCTTGATGTAGTTGGCCTGACACCGACAATAATGAAGACTACCGTCTTACTAACAC
CTGCAGACGAAACCTCTTGATGTAGTTGGCCTGACACCGACAATAATGAAGACTACCGTCTTACTAACAC
CTGCAGACGAAACCTCTTGATGTAGTTGGCCTGACACCGACAATAATGAAGACTACCGTCTTACTAACAC
→
CTGCAGACGAAACCTCTTGATGTAGTTGGCCTGACACCGACAATAATGAAGACTACCGTCTTACTAACAC
GACGTCTGCTTGGAGAACTACATCAACCGGACTGTGGCTGTTATTACTCTGATGGCAGAATGATTGTG
←
GACGTCTGCTTGGAGAACTACATCAACCGGACTGTGGCTGTTATTACTCTGATGGCAGAATGATTGTG
GACGTCTGCTTGGAGAACTACATCAACCGGACTGTGGCTGTTATTACTCTGATGGCAGAATGATTGTG

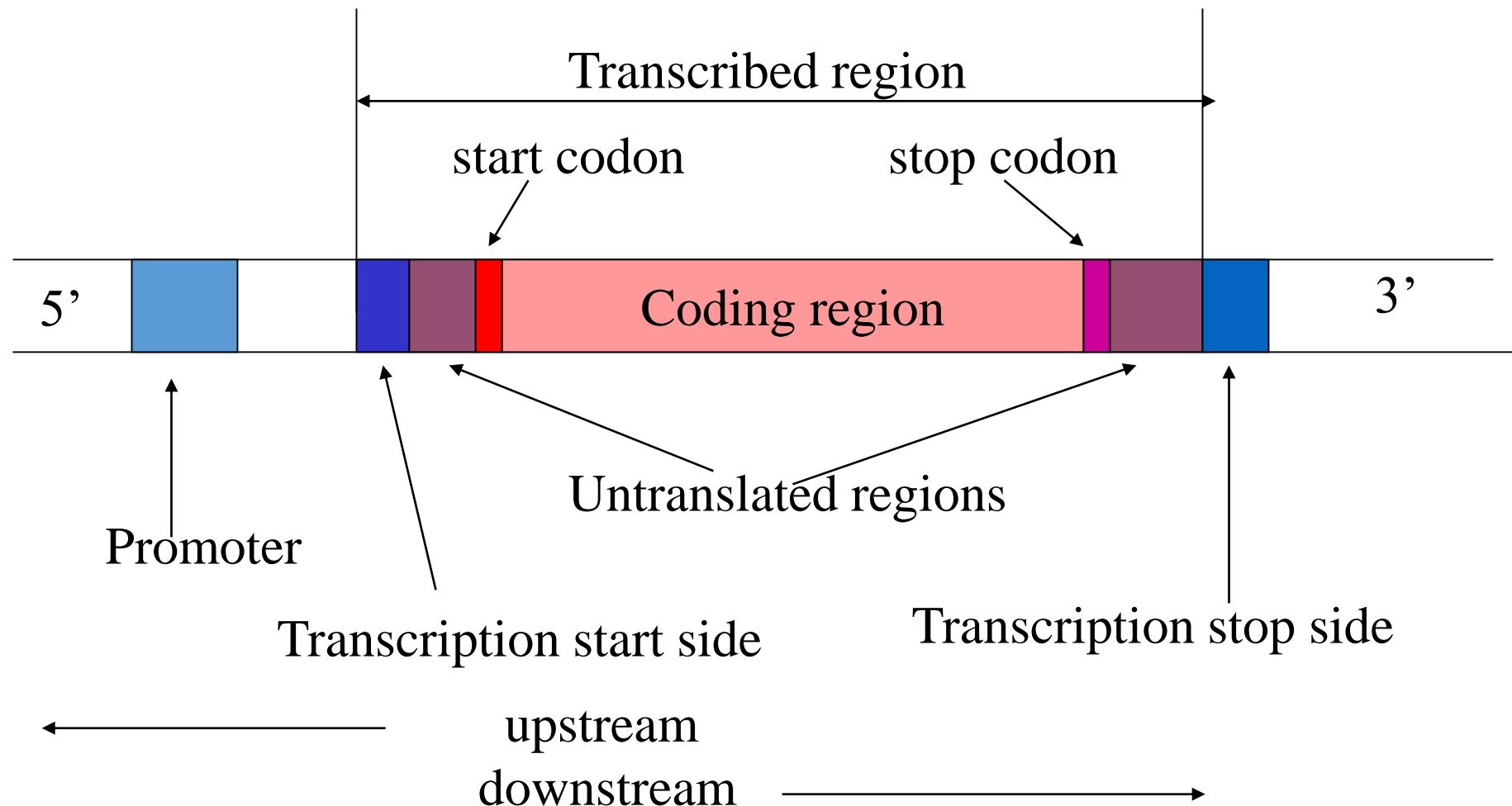
- stop codons – TAA, TAG, TGA
- start codons - ATG

Open reading frame (ORF)

- Detect potential coding regions by looking at **ORFs**
 - A genome of length n is comprised of $(n/3)$ codons
 - Stop codons break genome into segments between consecutive Stop codons
 - The subsegments of these that start from the Start codon (ATG) are ORFs
 - ORFs in different frames may overlap



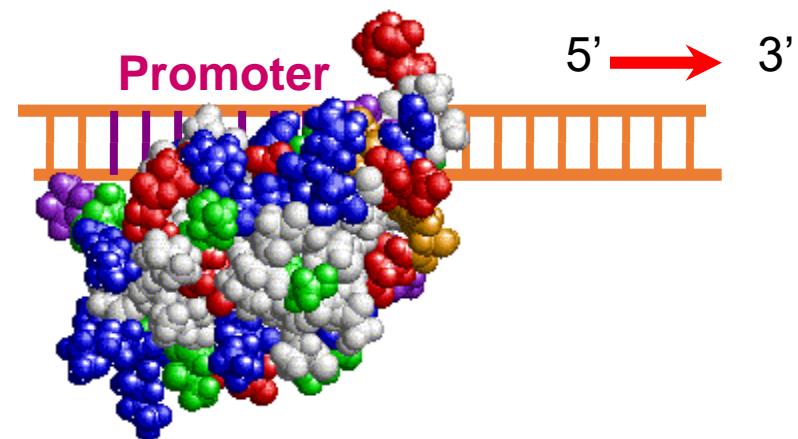
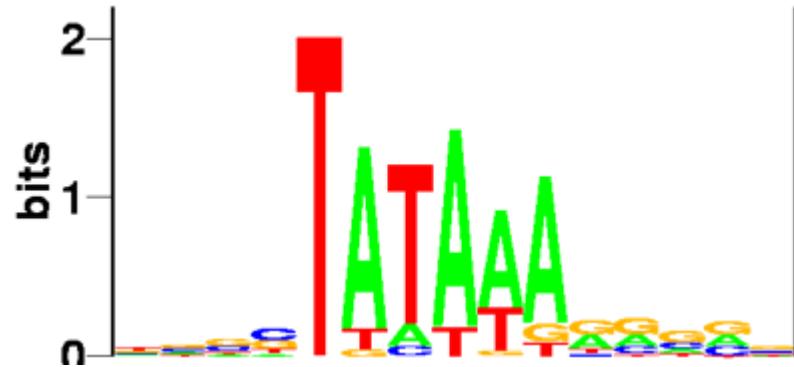
Prokaryotes gene structure



$-k$ denotes k^{th} base before transcription, $+k$ denotes k^{th} transcribed base

Promoter

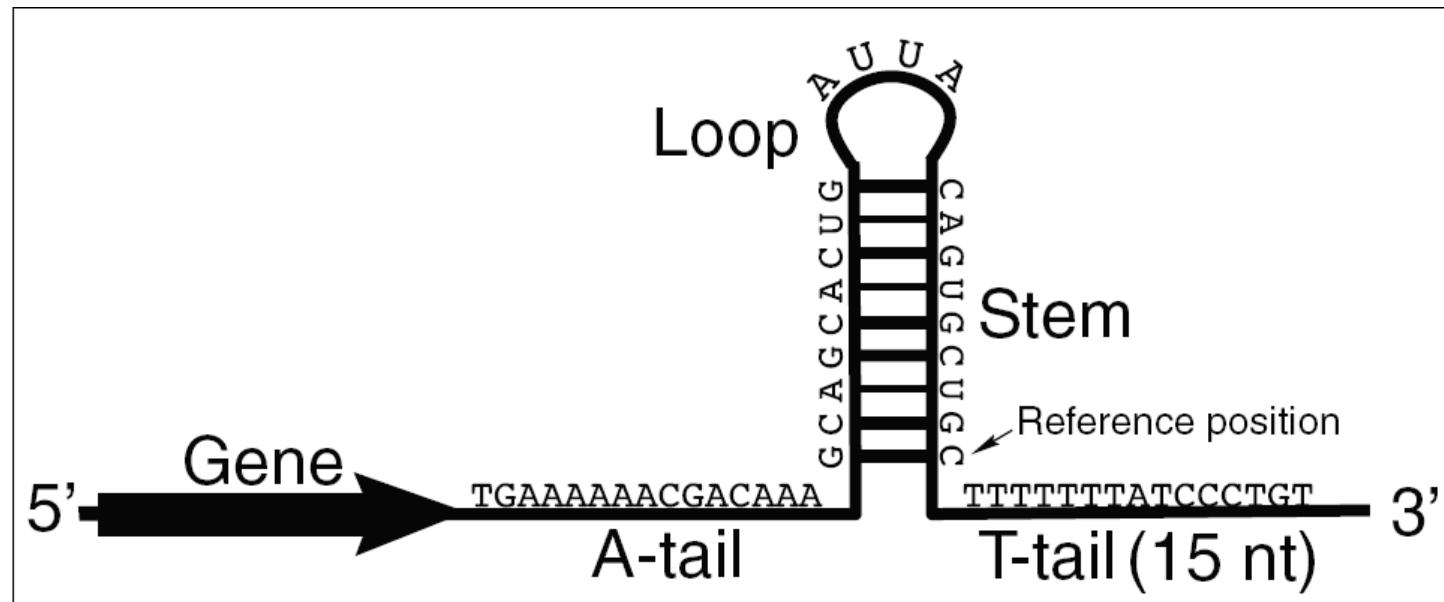
- Promoters are DNA segments upstream of transcripts that initiate transcription



- Promoter *attracts* RNA Polymerase to the transcription start site

Other signals

- Terminator in prokaryotes: Rho-independent (intrinsic) transcription termination – G-C reach inverted repeat.
- Poly-A signal in eukaryotes



Long vs short genes

- Long open reading frames may be a gene
 - At random, we should expect one stop codon every $(64/3) \approx 21$ codons
 - **However**, genes are usually much longer than this
- A basic approach is to scan for ORFs whose length exceeds certain threshold
 - This is naïve because some genes (e.g. some neural and immune system genes) are relatively short

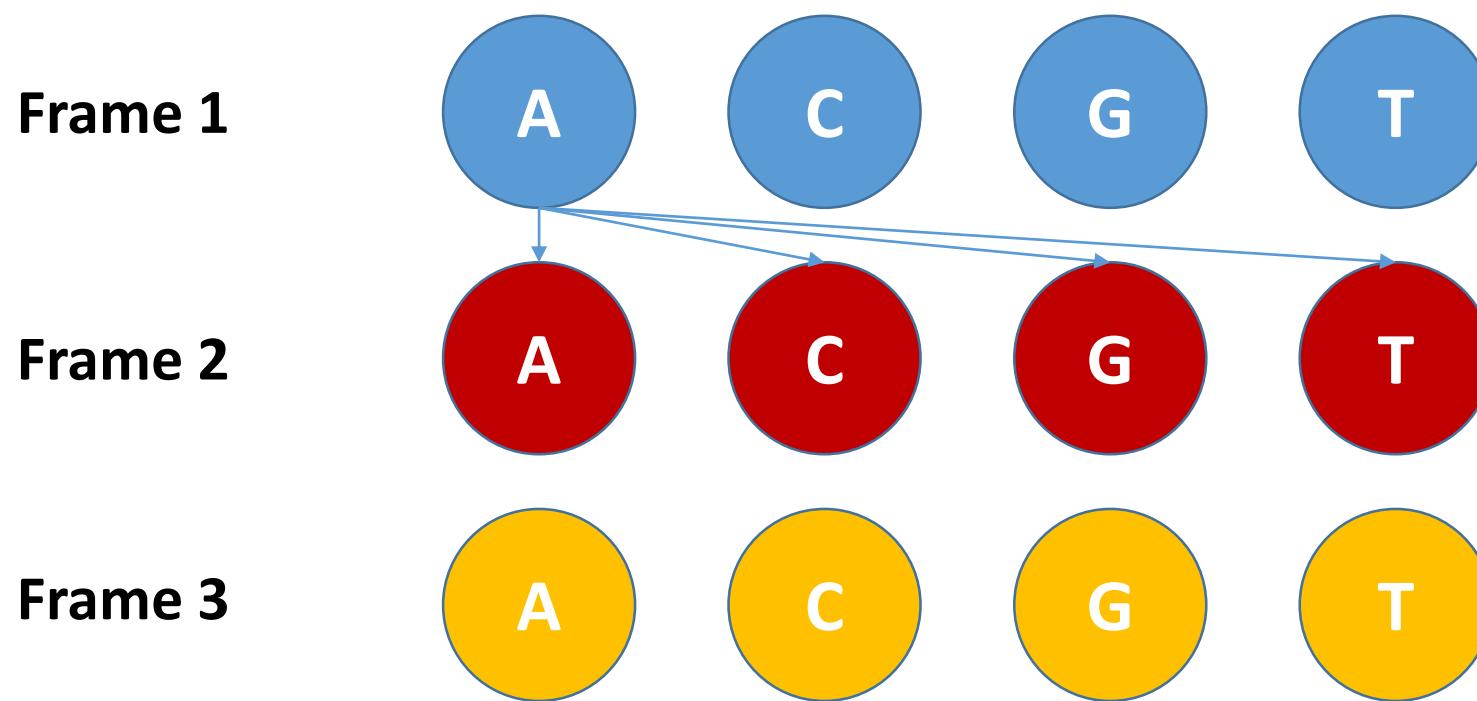
Codon usage

- Create a 64-element hash table and count the frequencies of codons in an ORF
- Amino acids typically have more than one codon, but in nature **certain codons are more in use**
- Uneven use of the codons may characterize a real gene
- This compensate for pitfalls of the ORF length test

Codon usage of the human genome

	U	C	A	G	
U	UUU Phe 57	UCU Ser 16	UAU Tyr 58	UGU Cys 45	
	UUC Phe 43	UCC Ser 15	UAC Tyr 42	UGC Cys 55	
	UUA Leu 13	UCA Ser 13	UAA Stp 62	UGA Stp 30	
	UUG Leu 13	UCG Ser 15	UAG Stp 8	UGG Trp 100	
C	CUU Leu 11	CCU Pro 17	CAU His 57	CGU Arg 37	
	CUC Leu 10	CCC Pro 17	CAC His 43	CGC Arg 38	
	CUA Leu 4	CCA Pro 20	CAA Gln 45	CGA Arg 7	
	CUG Leu 49	CCG Pro 51	CAG Gln 66	CGG Arg 10	
A	AUU Ile 50	ACU Thr 18	AAU Asn 46	AGU Ser 15	
	AUC Ile 41	ACC Thr 42	AAC Asn 54	AGC Ser 26	
	AUA Ile 9	ACA Thr 15	AAA Lys 75	AGA Arg 5	
	AUG Met 100	ACG Thr 26	AAG Lys 25	AGG Arg 3	
G	GUU Val 27	GCU Ala 17	GAU Asp 63	GGU Gly 34	
	GUC Val 21	GCC Ala 27	GAC Asp 37	GGC Gly 39	
	GUA Val 16	GCA Ala 22	GAA Glu 68	GGA Gly 12	
	GUG Val 36	GCG Ala 34	GAG Glu 32	GGG Gly 15	

GeneMark MM model



Frequencies for first order MM

TABLE 1. Positional Frequency of Dinucleotides in Different
Dinucleotide Frames [1]

Dinucleo- tide	Positional frequency of dinu- cleotides			Dinucleo- tide	Positional frequency of dinu- cleotides		
	first frame	second frame	third frame		first frame	second frame	third frame
TT	0,054	0,071	0,039	AT	0,082	0,066	0,023
TC	0,037	0,073	0,060	AC	0,049	0,081	0,043
TA	0,029	0,029	0,062	AA	0,094	0,101	0,047
TG	0,020	0,116	0,103	AG	0,023	0,064	0,066
CT	0,079	0,054	0,042	GT	0,074	0,073	0,037
CC	0,040	0,062	0,058	GC	0,098	0,072	0,080
CA	0,065	0,039	0,074	GA	0,123	0,009	0,065
CG	0,056	0,070	0,115	GG	0,077	0,021	0,088

Frequencies for second order MM

TABLE 2. Transitional Probabilities $P^i(c|ab)$, $i = 1, 2, 3$; $a, b, c = T, C, A, G$, for Nonuniform Second-Order Markov Chain

Dinucleotide	First frame				Second frame				Third frame			
	T	C	A	G	T	C	A	G	T	C	A	G
TT	0,272	0,388	0,158	0,367	0,154	0,183	0,239	0,423	0,350	0,317	0,243	0,090
TC	0,341	0,337	0,148	0,175	0,150	0,192	0,274	0,384	0,334	0,161	0,285	0,220
TA	0,449	0,551	0,000	0,000	0,172	0,276	0,276	0,276	0,369	0,167	0,405	0,059
TG	0,244	0,255	0,000	0,501	0,121	0,257	0,257	0,371	0,161	0,275	0,361	0,203
CT	0,113	0,106	0,033	0,748	0,148	0,204	0,167	0,463	0,326	0,247	0,212	0,215
CC	0,132	0,095	0,181	0,592	0,145	0,161	0,290	0,403	0,288	0,178	0,276	0,258
CA	0,135	0,189	0,197	0,478	0,154	0,256	0,231	0,385	0,290	0,204	0,360	0,146
CG	0,512	0,392	0,042	0,052	0,129	0,329	0,229	0,314	0,207	0,226	0,337	0,230
AT	0,268	0,386	0,035	0,312	0,121	0,273	0,242	0,348	0,411	0,275	0,190	0,124
AC	0,241	0,480	0,097	0,183	0,148	0,222	0,247	0,383	0,339	0,162	0,256	0,243
AA	0,141	0,292	0,427	0,140	0,099	0,227	0,267	0,406	0,289	0,252	0,373	0,086
AG	0,231	0,659	0,075	0,036	0,172	0,328	0,219	0,266	0,182	0,278	0,334	0,206
GT	0,342	0,164	0,205	0,288	0,151	0,247	0,260	0,342	0,468	0,234	0,175	0,123
GC	0,243	0,226	0,222	0,309	0,139	0,208	0,222	0,431	0,354	0,169	0,262	0,215
GA	0,248	0,208	0,386	0,158	0,222	0,222	0,333	0,333	0,343	0,189	0,395	0,073
GG	0,451	0,387	0,067	0,095	0,143	0,286	0,238	0,285	0,242	0,288	0,288	0,182

Computing the likelihood of a nucleotide fragment

We shall move directly to the algorithm. We consider the nucleotide fragment (a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n) , subsequently abbreviated as α . It is convenient to take n as a multiple of three. We designate by $P(K|\alpha)$ the probability that if a site identical to α is found in the DNA sequence, this site will belong to a coding region, and by $P(N|\alpha)$, the probability that this site will belong to a noncoding region. The quantity $P(K|\alpha)$ is made up of three quantities $P(K_1|\alpha)$, $P(K_2|\alpha)$, and $P(K_3|\alpha)$. $P(K_i|\alpha)$ is the probability that α will belong to a coding region, and at the same time nucleotide a_i occupies the i th position in some codon. To calculate the probabilities $P(N|\alpha)$ and $P(K_i|\alpha)$, $i = 1, 2, 3$, we must know the parameters of the mathematical models of the coding and noncoding regions.

Computing the likelihood

non-protein-coding region

$$P(\alpha | N) = P_0(a_1) P(a_2 | a_1) \cdot \dots \cdot P(a_n | a_{n-1}).$$

protein-coding region

$$P(\alpha | K_1) = P_0^1(a_1) P^1(a_2 | a_1) P^2(a_3 | a_2) \cdot \dots \cdot P^2(a_n | a_{n-1}),$$

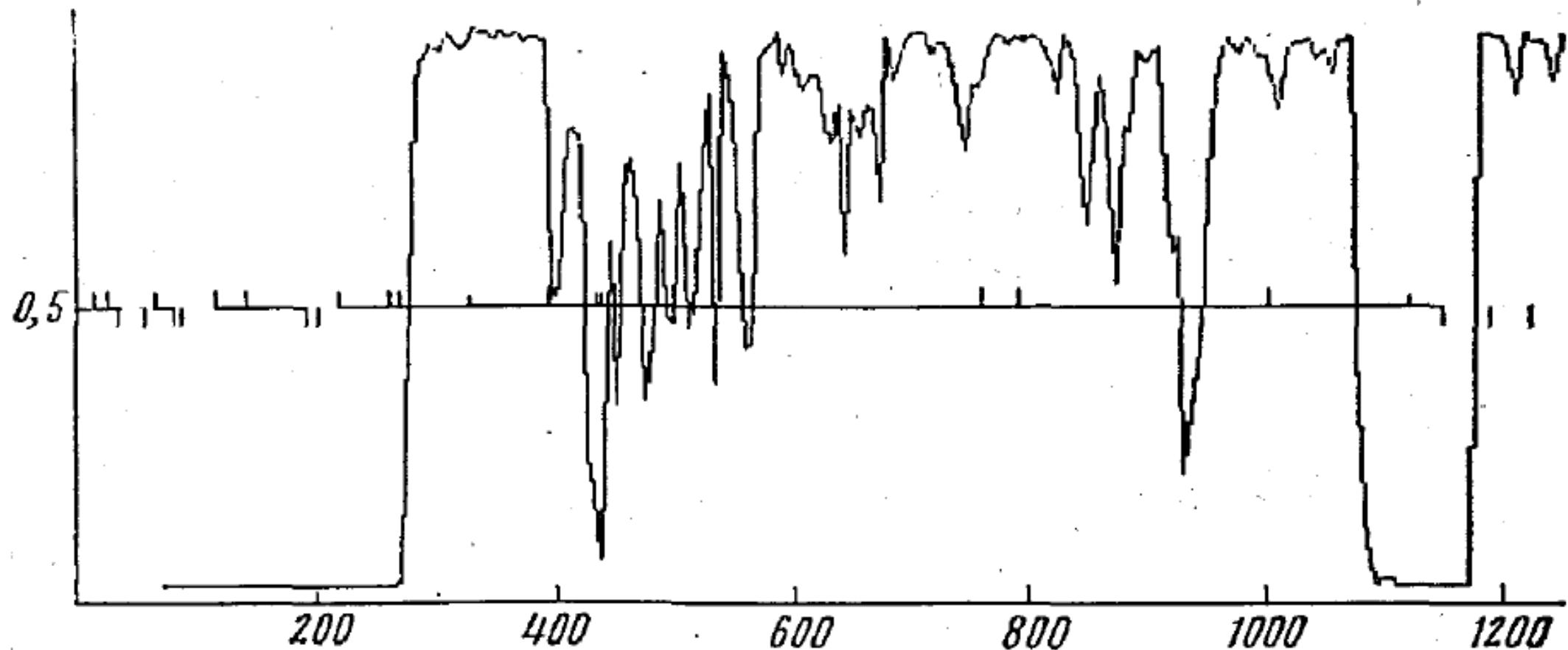
$$P(\alpha | K_2) = P_0^2(a_1) P^2(a_2 | a_1) P^3(a_3 | a_2) \cdot \dots \cdot P^3(a_n | a_{n-1}),$$

$$P(\alpha | K_3) = P_0^3(a_1) P^3(a_2 | a_1) P^1(a_3 | a_2) \cdot \dots \cdot P^1(a_n | a_{n-1}).$$

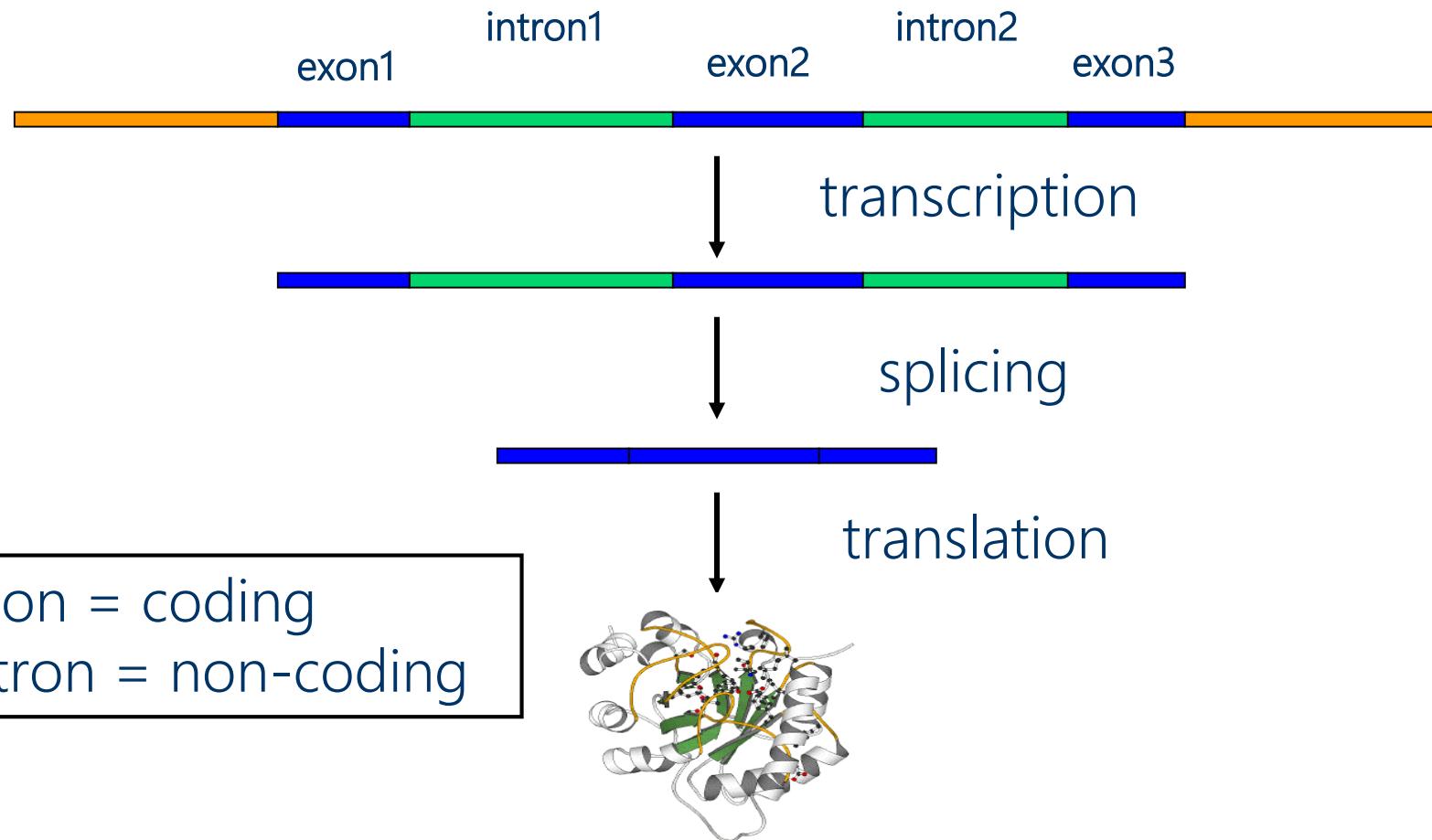
Posterior likelihood

$$P(K_i | \alpha) = \frac{P(\alpha | K_i) P(K_i)}{\sum_i P(\alpha | K_i) P(K_i) + P(\alpha | N) P(N)}, \quad i = 1, 2, 3.$$

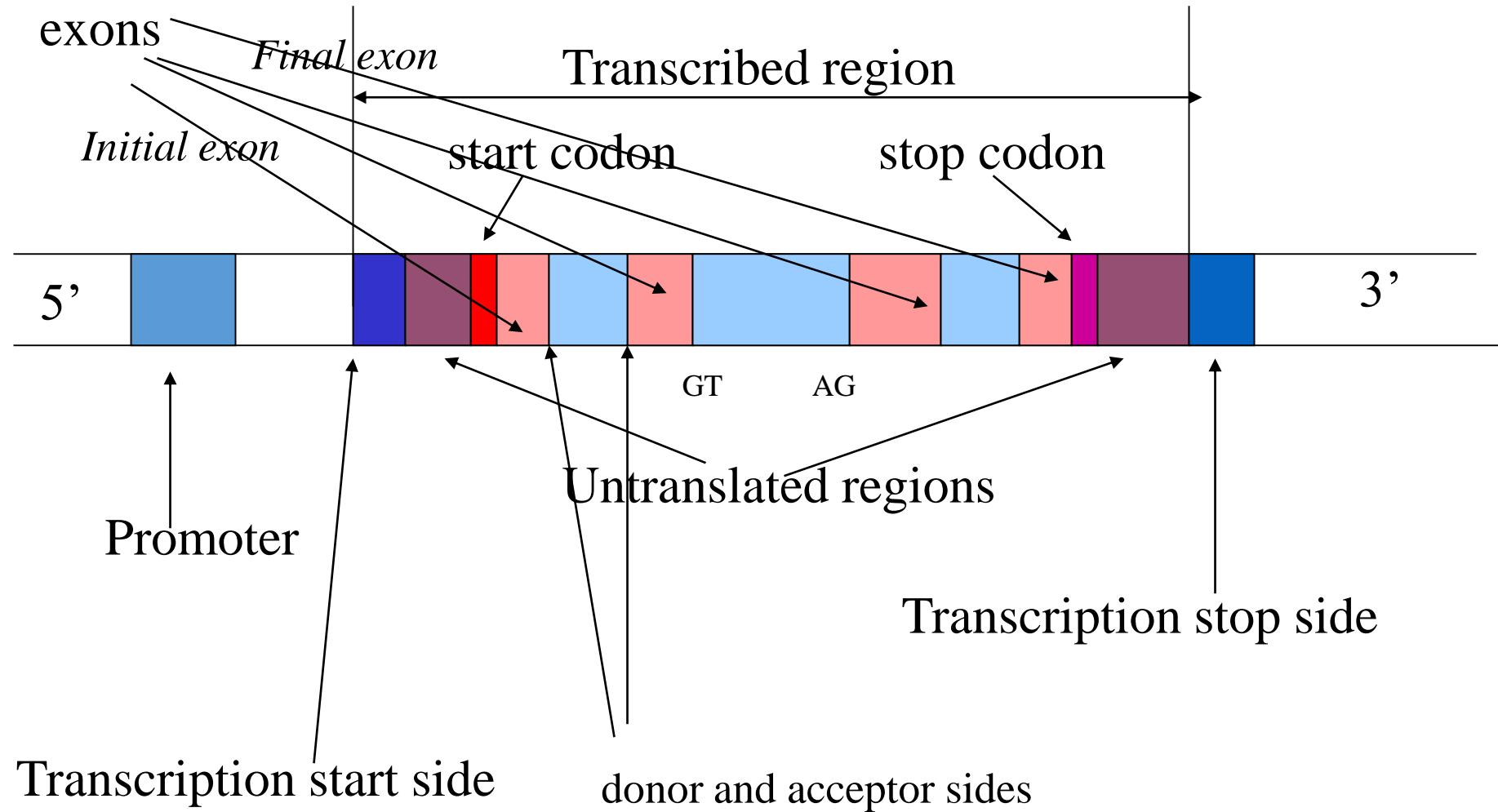
Scan the genome



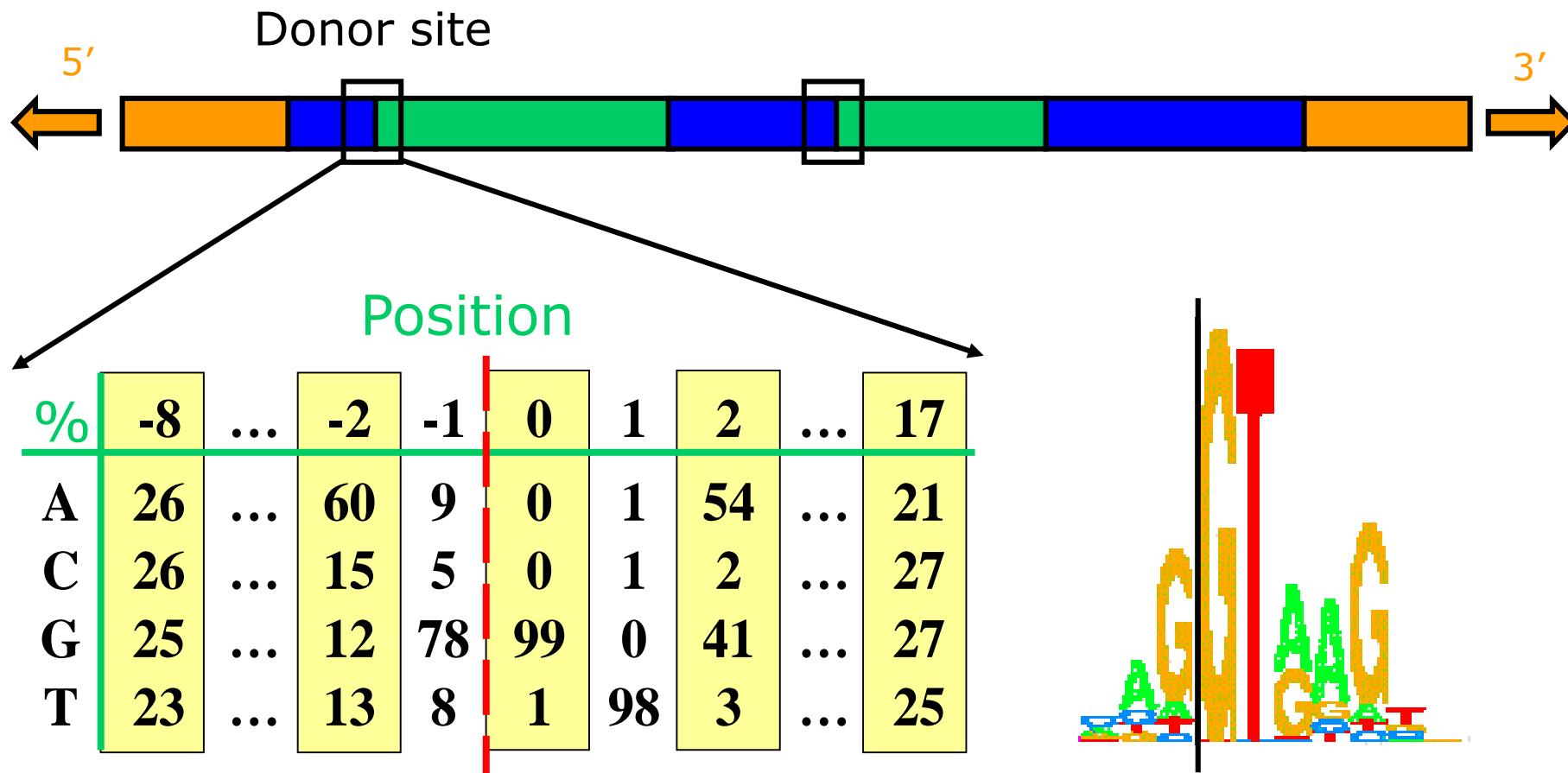
Eukaryotes gene prediction



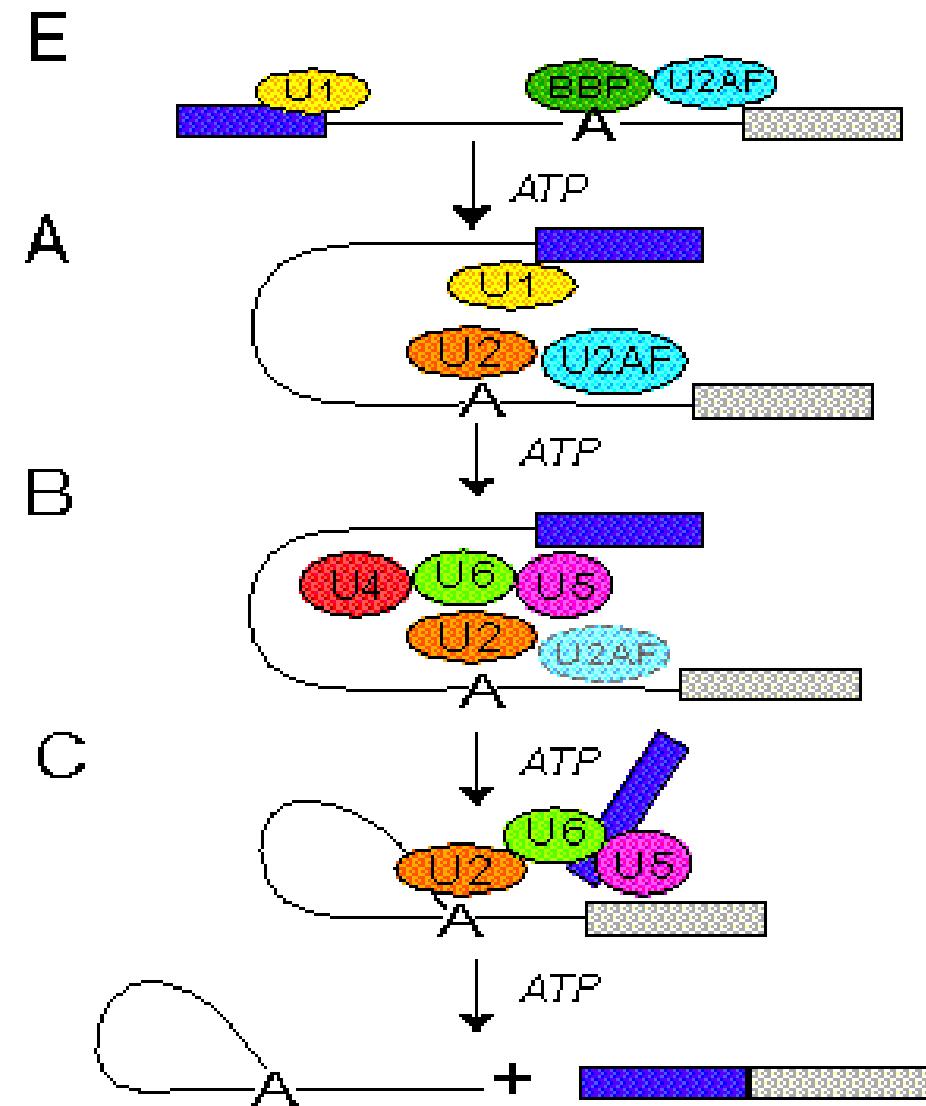
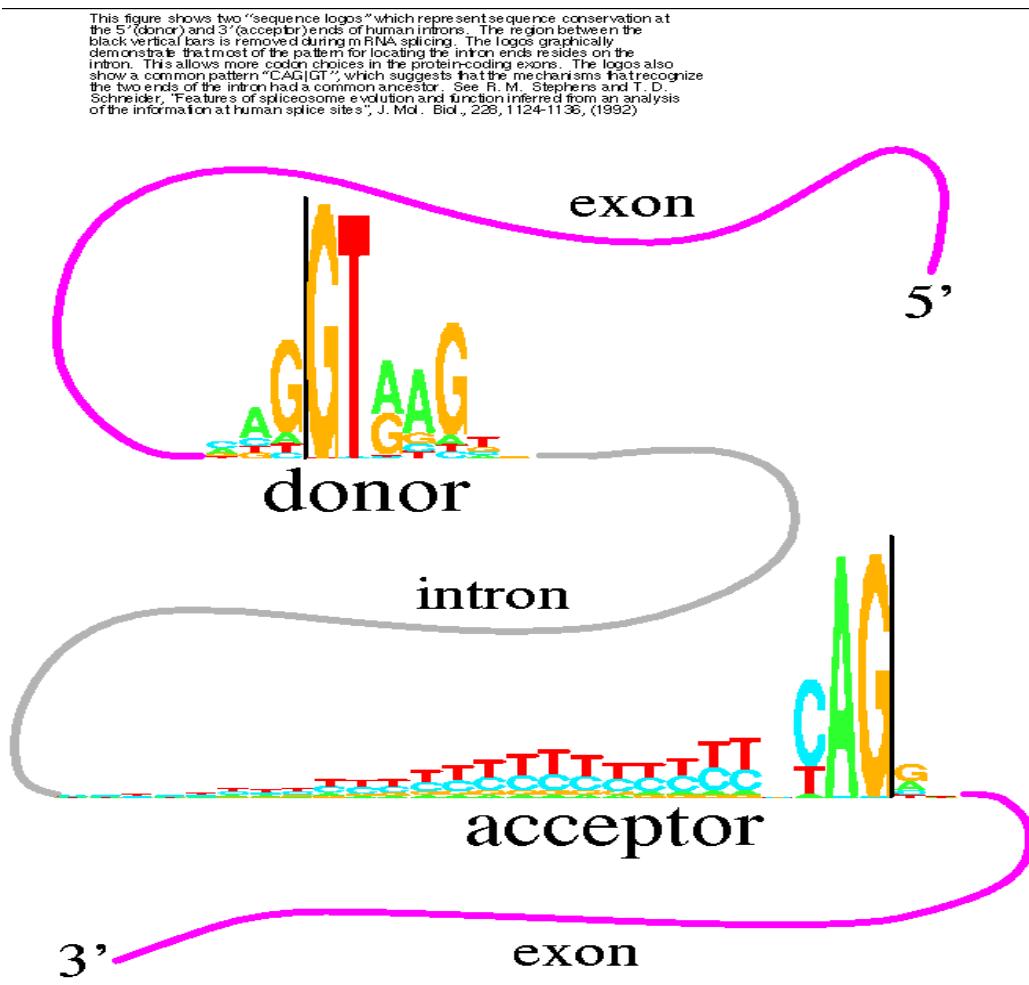
Eukaryotes gene structure



Splicing Signals for eukaryotes

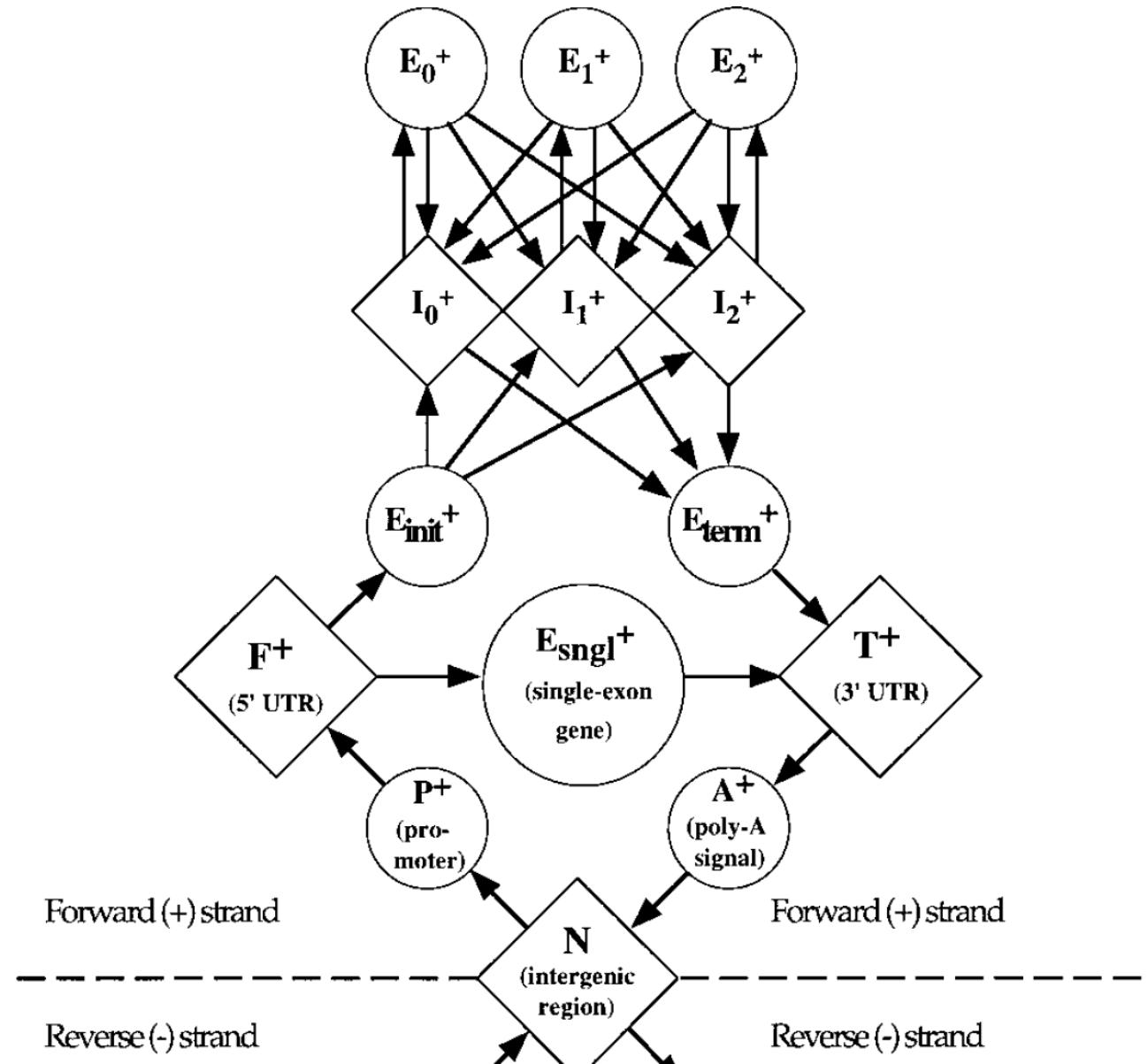


Splice site signals



GeneScan model

- States- correspond to different functional units of a genome (promoter region, intron, exon,...)
- The states for introns and exons are subdivided according to “phase” three frames.
- There are two symmetric sub modules for forward and backward strands.



FragGeneScan model

