

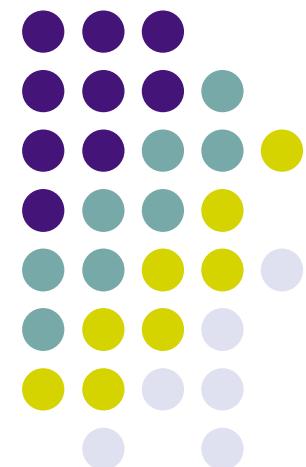
# Graduate Computational Genomics

02-710 / 10-810 & MSCBIO2070

## Computational gene prediction

Takis Benos

Lecture #9, February 13, 2007



Reading: hand-outs & papers



# Outline

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- The problem
- Predicting the coding parts of the genome
- Predicting splice sites
- Predicting exons
- Predicting whole gene structures
  - *GenScan*
  - *TwinScan*
  - *N-SCAN*



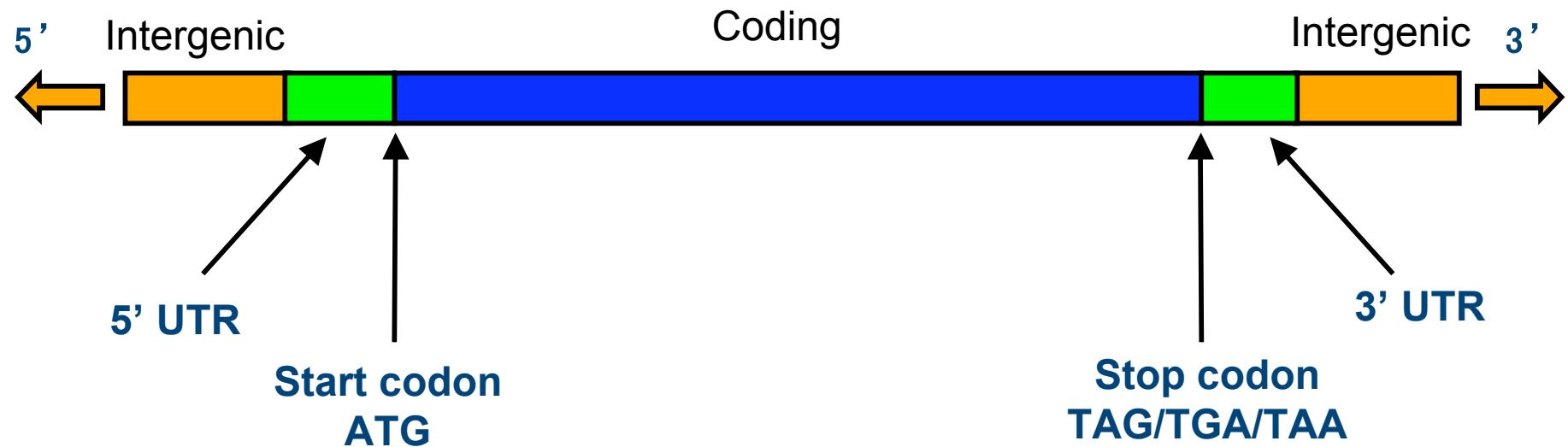
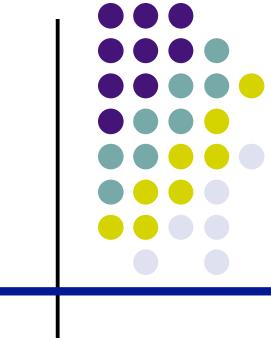
# The problem

Given a genomic DNA piece, predict the regions that are more likely to be part of a (protein coding) gene.

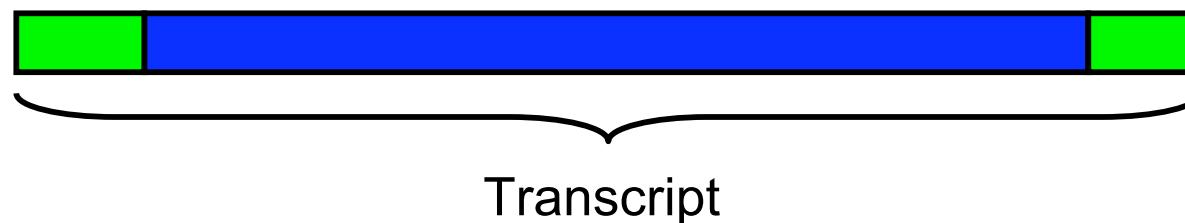
Protein coding gene parts:

- (promoter region)
  - 5' Untranslated Region (*5' UTR*)
  - Open Reading Frame (*ORF*)
  - 3' Untranslated Region (*3' UTR*)
- } → *Eukaryotes*
- Introns
  - Exons

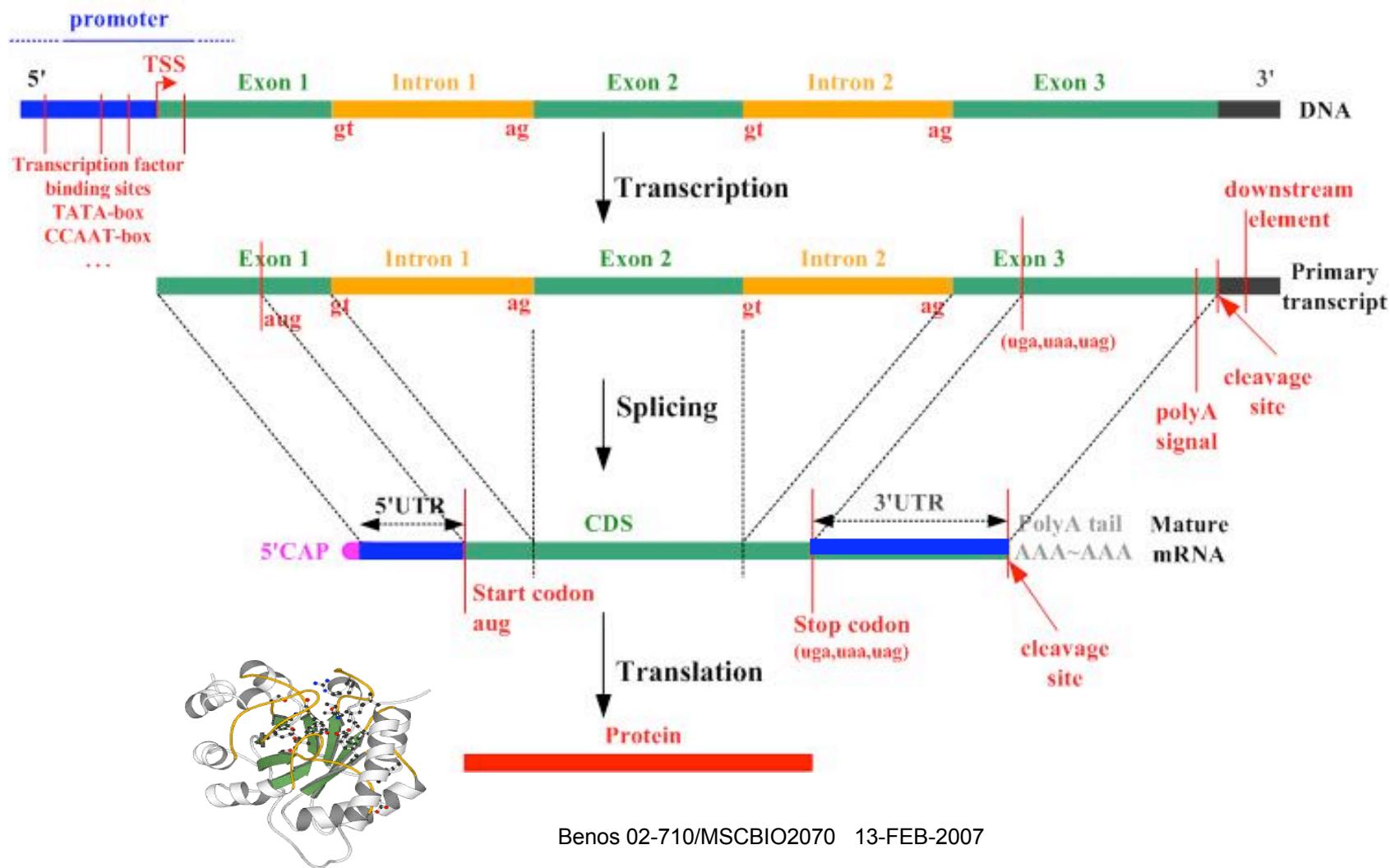
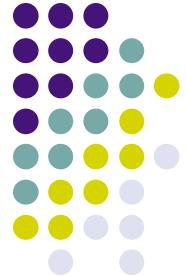
# Finding Genes in Yeast



Mean coding length about 1500bp (500 codons)



# Gene structure (eukaryotes)





# Codon bias

First letter

	Second letter								
	U	C	A	G					
U	UUU UUC UUA UUG	Phenylalanine Leucine	UCU UCC UCA UCG	Serine	UAU UAC UAA UAG	Tyrosine Stop codon Stop codon	UGU UGC UGA UGG	Cysteine Stop codon Tryptophan	U C A G
	CUU CUC CUA CUG	Leucine	CCU CCC CCA CCG	Proline	CAU CAC CAA CAG	Histidine Glutamine	CGU CGC CGA CGG	Arginine	U C A G
	AUU AUC AUA AUG	Isoleucine Methionine; initiation codon	ACU ACC ACA ACG	Threonine	AAU AAC AAA AAG	Asparagine Lysine	AGU AGC AGA AGG	Serine Arginine	U C A G
	GUU GUC GUA GUG	Valine	GCU GCC GCA GCG		GAU GAC GAA GAG	Aspartic acid Glutamic acid	GGU GGC GGA GGG	Glycine	U C A G

## *E. coli* (per 1,000)

Phe	UUU	22.3
Phe	UUC	16.6
Leu	UUA	13.9
Leu	UUG	13.7
Leu	CUU	11.0
Leu	CUC	11.1
Leu	CUA	3.9
Leu	CUG	52.6
Ile	AUU	30.3
Ile	AUC	25.1
Ile	AUA	4.4
Met	AUG	27.9
Val	GUU	18.3
Val	GUC	15.3
Val	GUA	10.9
Val	GUG	26.4

## *yeast* (per 1,000)

Phe	UUU	26.1
Phe	UUC	18.2
Leu	UUA	26.4
Leu	UUG	27.1
Leu	CUU	12.2
Leu	CUC	5.4
Leu	CUA	13.4
Leu	CUG	10.4
Ile	AUU	30.2
Ile	AUC	17.1
Ile	AUA	17.8
Met	AUG	20.9
Val	GUU	22.0
Val	GUC	11.6
Val	GUA	11.8
Val	GUG	10.7



# Coding exon finding

Measures of “coding potentials” related to codon usage:

- Codon usage measure
- Hexamer measure
- Amino acid usage measure
- Di-amino acid usage measure



# Codon usage measure

- Staden & McLachlan (1982)
  - “Coding” probability of a window is the product of the codon probabilities calculated from a reference set (mRNA):

$$P(w_j) = \prod_{i=1}^{L/3} P(c_i)$$

- Gribskov, Devereux & Burgess (1984)
  - “Coding” probability of a window is the product of log-likelihood of the in-frame vs. out-of-frame codon frequencies:

$$S(w_j) = \prod_{i=1}^{L/3} \frac{P(c_i | \text{coding})}{P(c_i | \text{non-coding})}$$



# Codon usage measure (cntd)

- Hinds & Blake (1985)
  - Similar to Staden & McLachlan, but the  $P(c_i)$  is calculated as the frequency of the in-frame codon,  $c_i$ , over all occurrences (both in-frame and out-of-frame).
- Claverie & Bougueret (1986 & 1990)
  - $p(w_j)$  and  $q(w_j)$  are the frequencies of the hexamer  $w_j$  in exons and introns, resp.
  - Two hexamer measures were used:
    1.  $d_1(w_j) = p(w_j) / ( p(w_j) + q(w_j) )$
    2.  $d_2(w_j) = p(w_j) - q(w_j)$



# Codon usage measure (cntd)

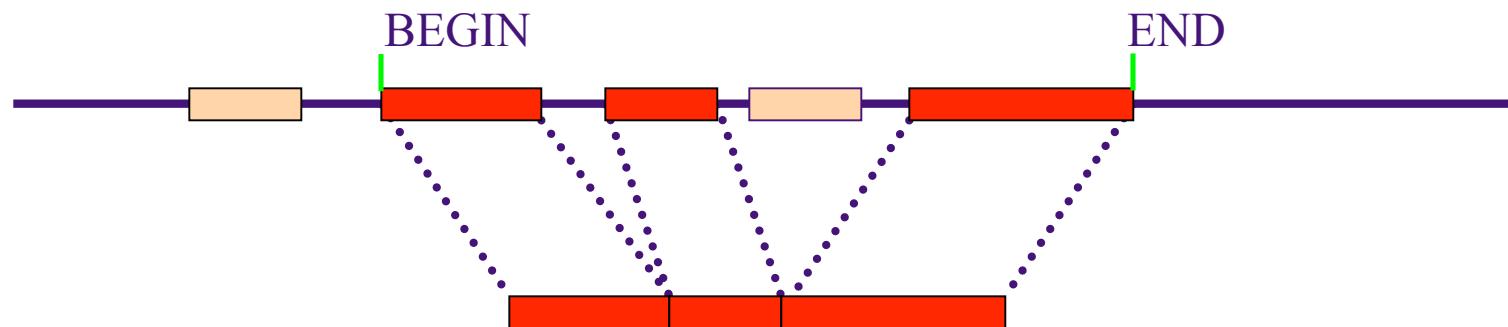
- Borodovsky *et al.* (1986)
  - Construct four Markov Models from reference set: (1-3) each of the three frames of the coding regions, (4) non-coding regions
  - For each window, calculate the (four) window probabilities given a particular model
  - Calculate the probabilities of each model given the window (using Bayes)
- Markov models of order 1 through 5 were used.
- Best results were obtained with MM of order 5 (hexamer frequencies)



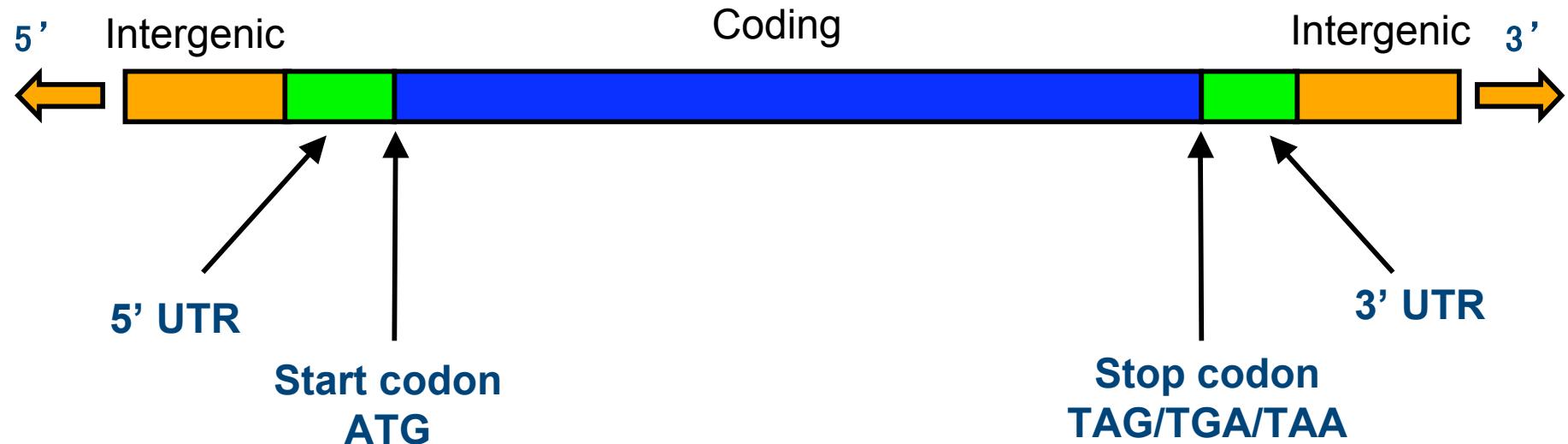
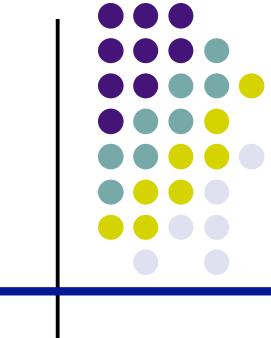
# Predicting genes

✓ Prediction of exon(s)

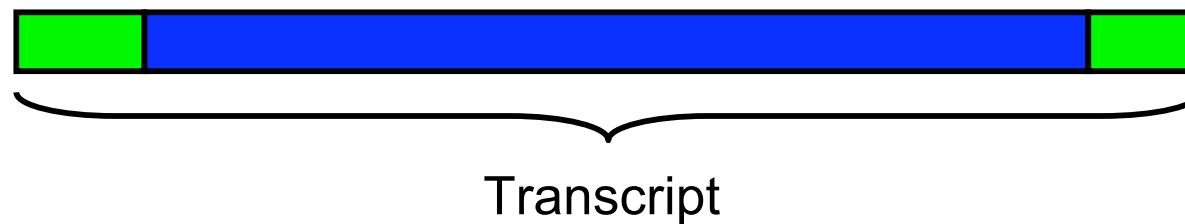
- Prediction of exact splice sites
- Prediction of begin/end of the gene
- Selection of exons



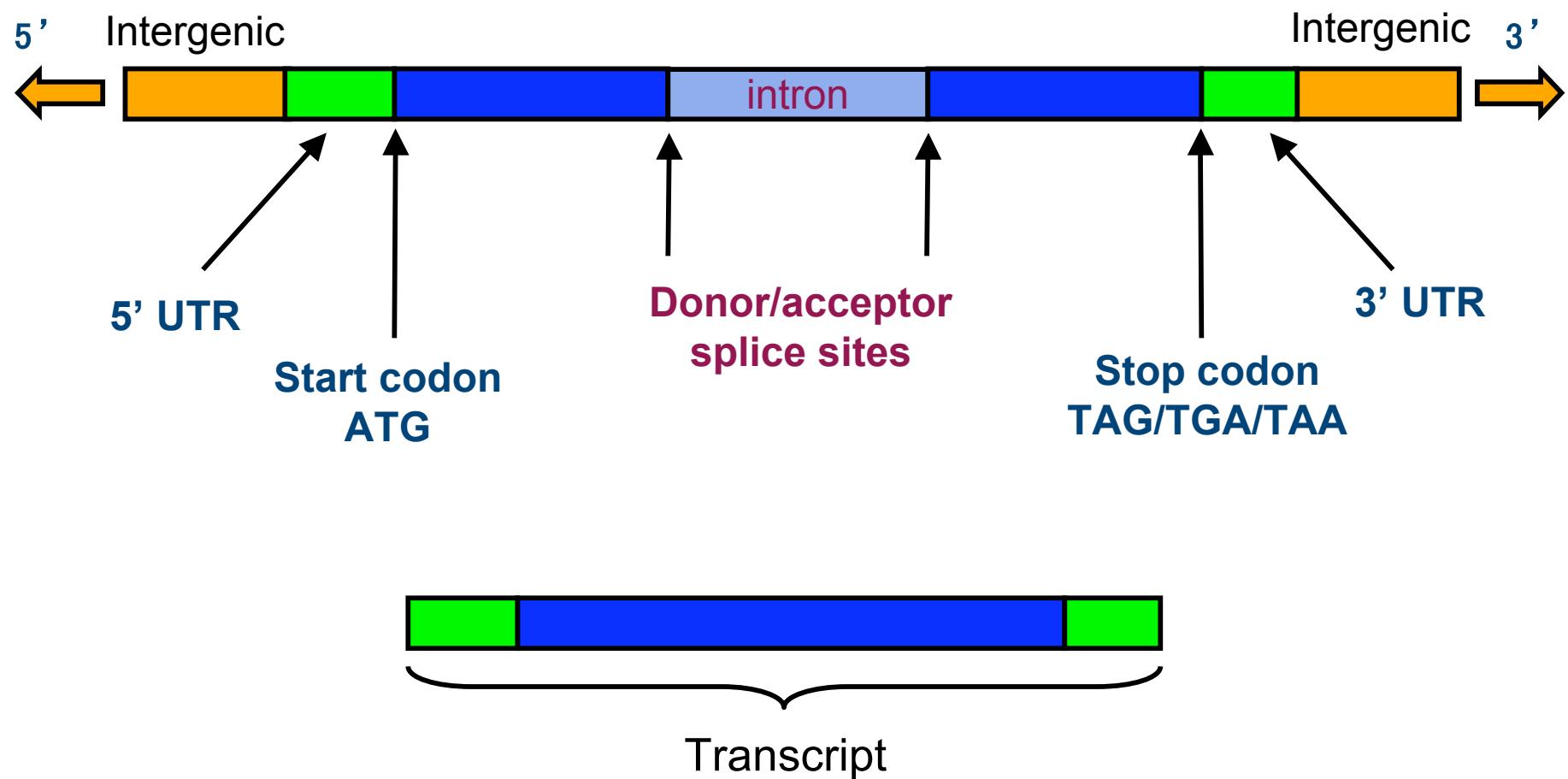
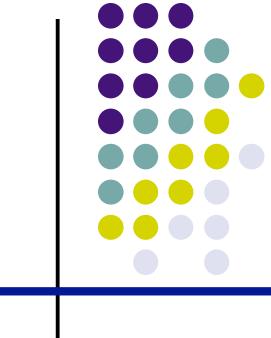
# Finding Genes in Yeast



Mean coding length about 1500bp (500 codons)

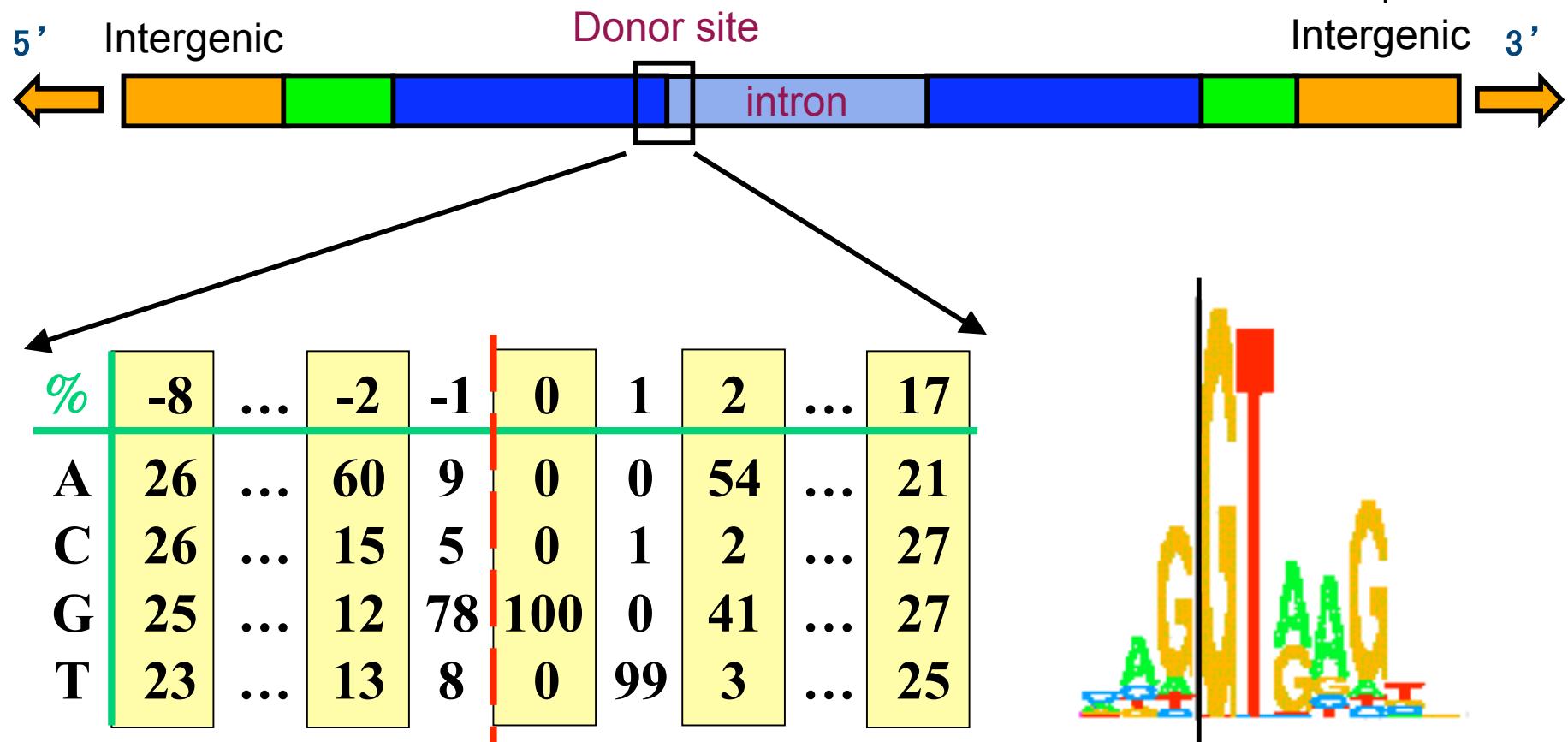


# Splice sites





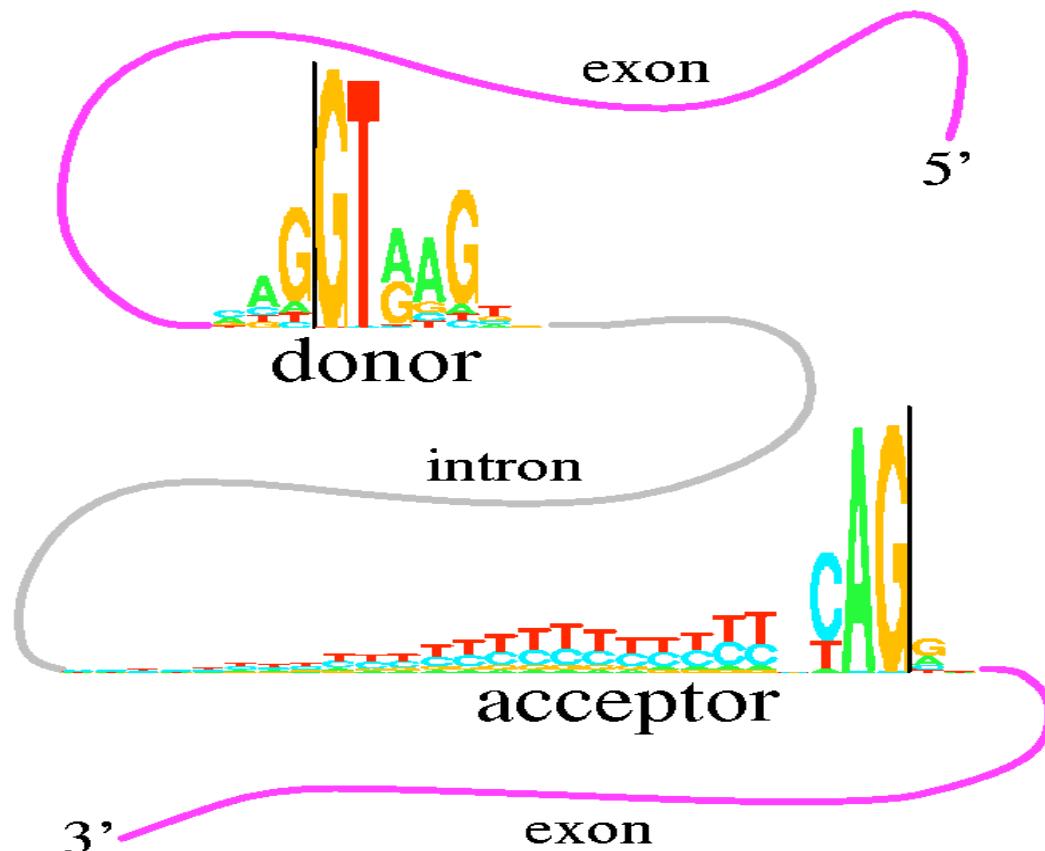
# Splice sites (cntd)





# Splice sites (cntd)

This figure shows two "sequence logos" which represent sequence conservation at the 5' (donor) and 3' (acceptor) ends of human introns. The region between the black vertical bars is removed during mRNA splicing. The logos graphically demonstrate that most of the pattern for locating the intron ends resides on the intron. This allows more codon choices in the protein-coding exons. The logos also show a common pattern "CAG|GT", which suggests that the mechanisms that recognize the two ends of the intron had a common ancestor. See R. M. Stephens and T. D. Schneider, "Features of spliceosome evolution and function inferred from an analysis of the information at human splice sites"; J. Mol. Biol., 228, 1124-1136, (1992).

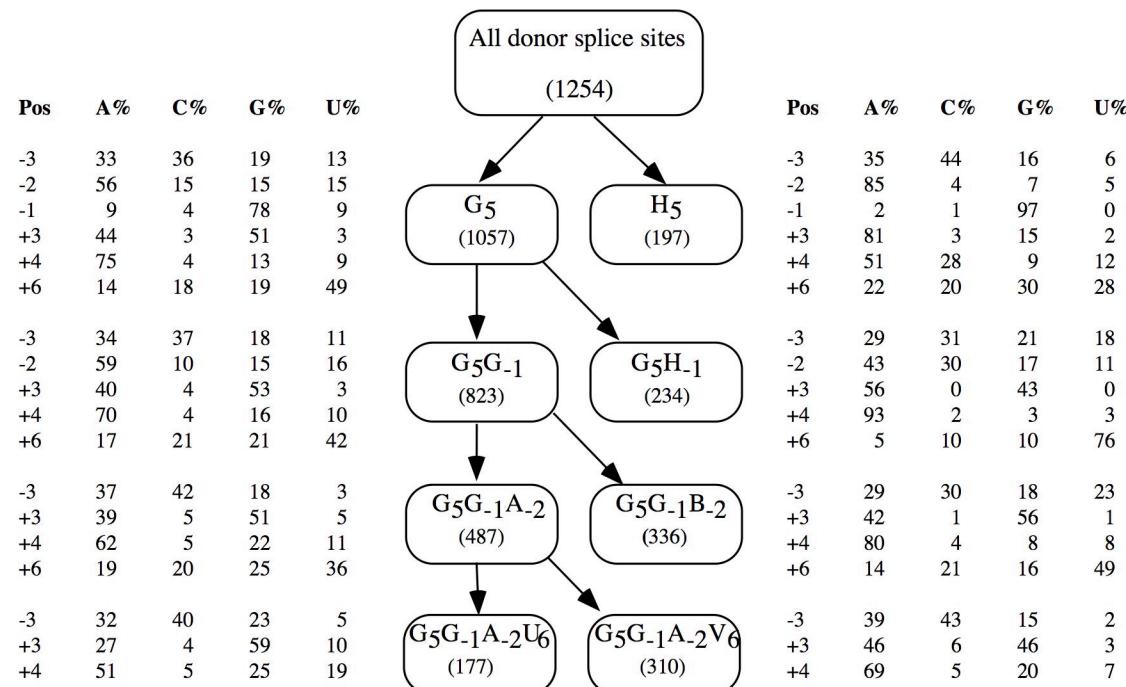




# Modeling splice sites

- **WMM:** weight matrix model = PSSM (Staden 1984)
- **WAM:** weight array model = 1<sup>st</sup> order Markov (Zhang & Marr 1993)
- **MDD:** maximal dependence decomposition (Burge & Karlin 1997)
  - Decision-tree algorithm to take pairwise dependencies into account
  - Train separate WMM models for each subset

# Maximal Dependence Decomposition



All sites:		Position									
Base	-3	-2	-1	+1	+2	+3	+4	+5	+6		
A%	33	60	8	0	0	49	71	6	15		
C%	37	13	4	0	0	3	7	5	19		
G%	18	14	81	100	0	45	12	84	20		
U%	12	13	7	0	100	3	9	5	46		

U1 snRNA: 3' G U C C A U U C A 5'



# Prediction of gene structure

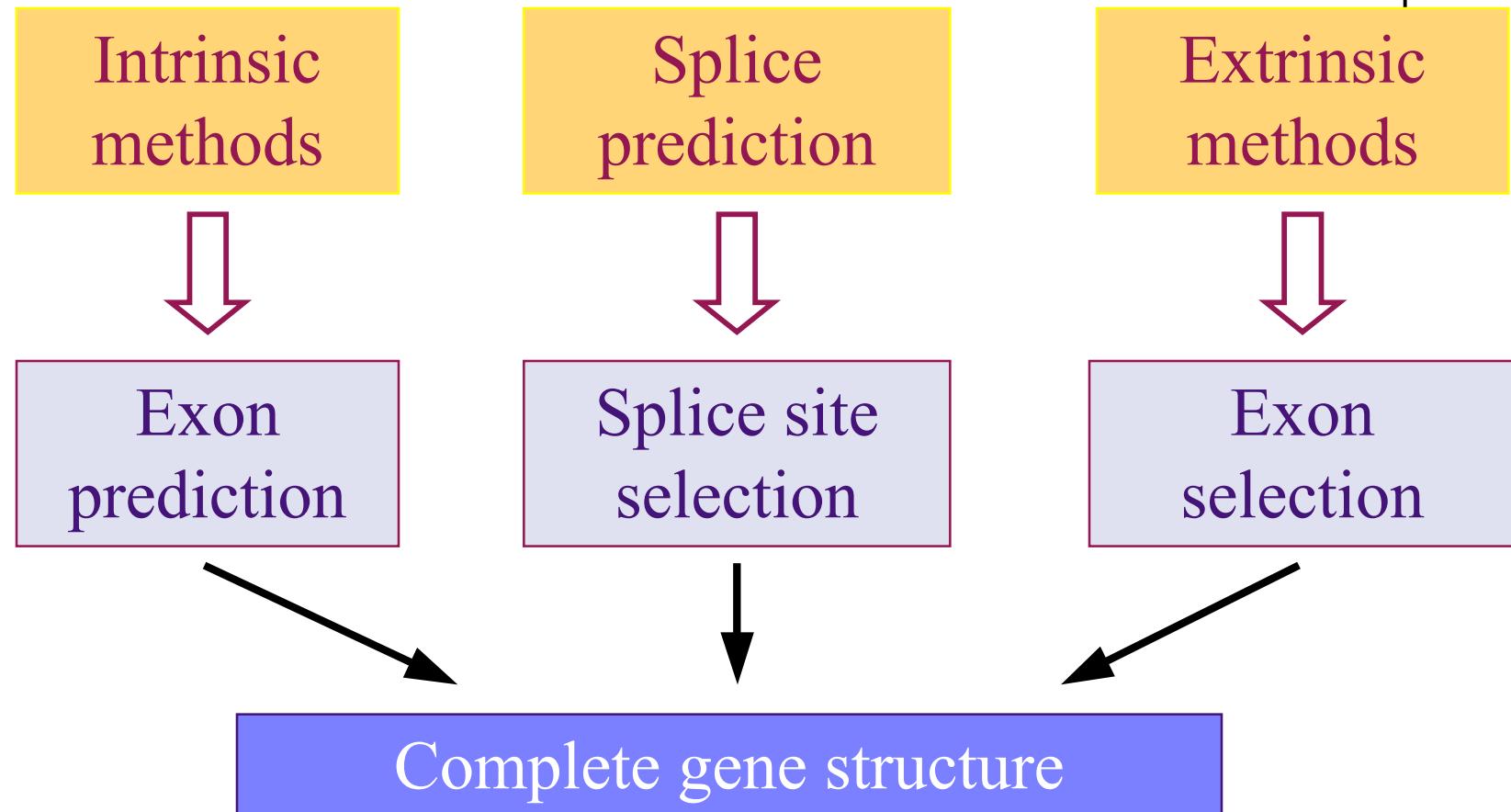
## Extrinsic information:

- Alignment with known protein sequences
- Alignment with ESTs or cDNAs
- Alignment with genomic DNA of related species

## Potential sources of problems:

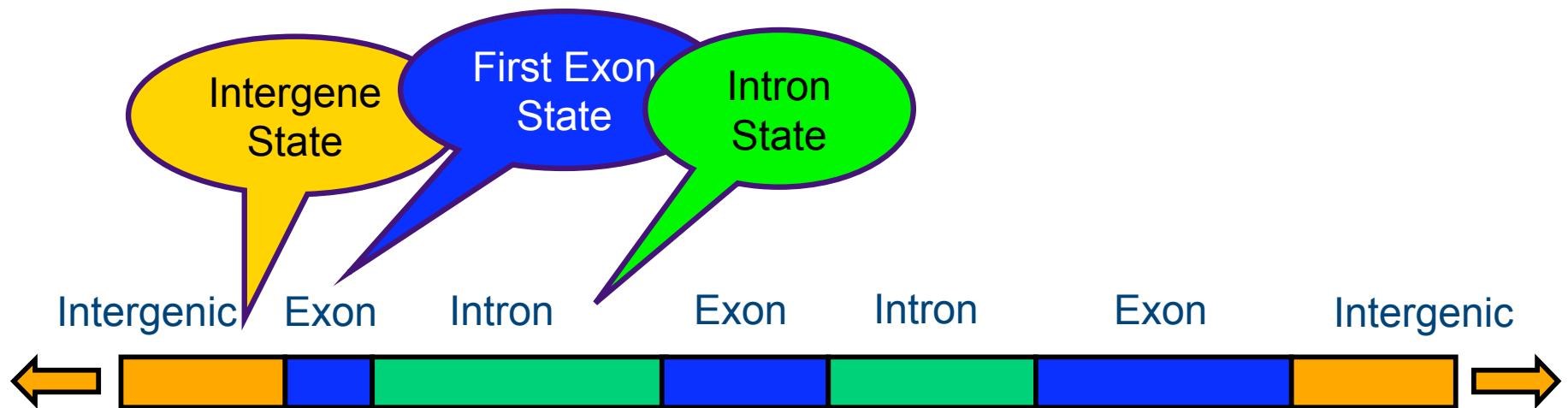
- Genes with no similarity in the database
- Poor database quality
- Genes expressed in specific conditions or at low levels
- Alternatively spliced genes

# All together now...





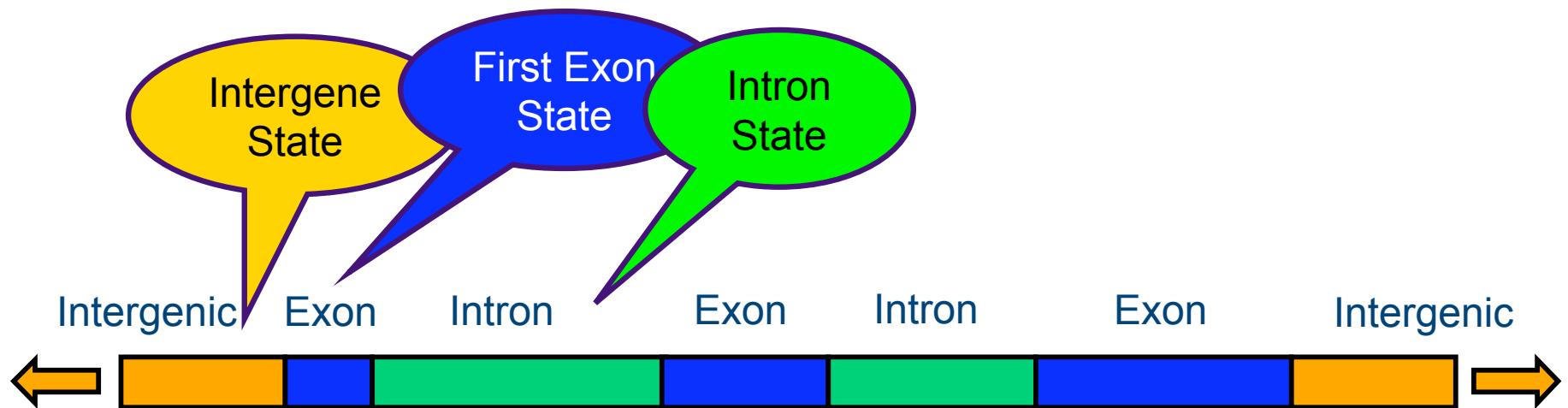
# HMMs for Gene Finding



GTCAGATGAGCAAAGTAGACACTCCAGTAACGCGGTGAGTACATTAA

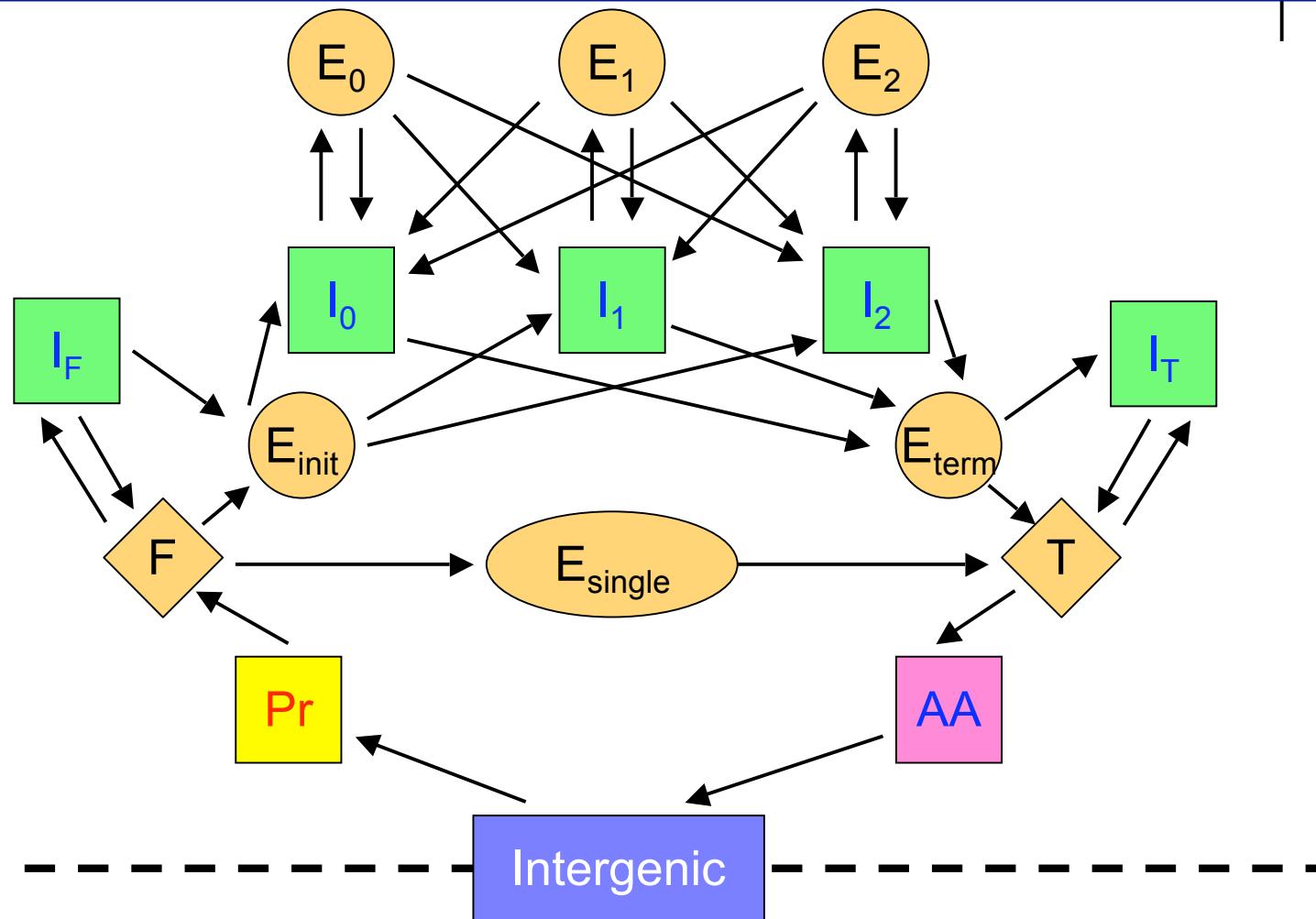
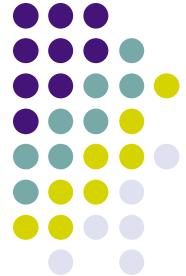


# HMMs for Gene Finding



**GTCAGATGAGCAAAGTAGACACTCCAGTAACGCGGTGAGTACATTAA**

# GENSCAN



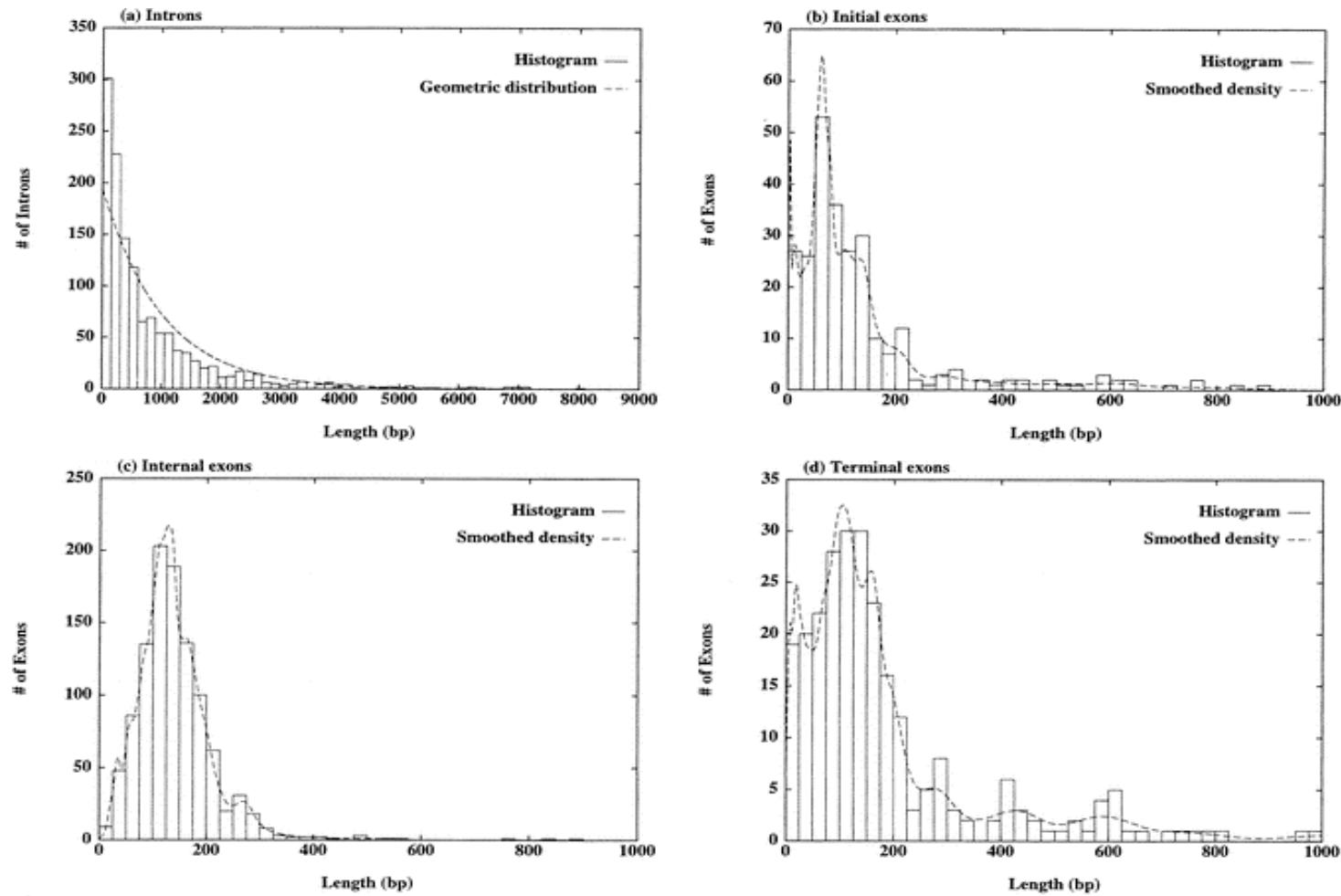


# GENSCAN Characteristics

- Burge and Karlin, Stanford, 1997
- Explicit state duration HMM (with tricks)
  - Intergenic and intronic regions have geometric length distribution
  - Exons are only possible when correct flanking sequences are present
- Output probabilities for NC and CDS are 5<sup>th</sup>-order Markov
- Each CDS frame has its own model
- WAM models for start/stop codons and acceptor sites
- MDD model for donor sites
- Separate parameters for regions of different GC content



# Exon/Intron Lengths





# GENSCAN Performance

- Performed well on realistic sequences (complementary to *Genefinder*, Phil Green, University of Washington, *unpublished*)
  - *Genscan*: long, multiple genes in both orientations
  - *Genefinder*: short, multiple genes in both orientations
- Pretty good sensitivity, poor specificity
  - Exon: Sn = 69%; Sp = 33%
  - Exact gene: Sn = 10%; Sp = 4%
- Was the best gene predictor for about 4 years



# TWINSCAN

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- Korf, Flliceck, Duan, Brent, Washington University in St. Louis, 2001
- Uses an informant sequence to help predict genes
  - Informant sequence consists of three states (**match**, **mismatch**, **unaligned**)
  - Informant sequence assumed independent of target sequence



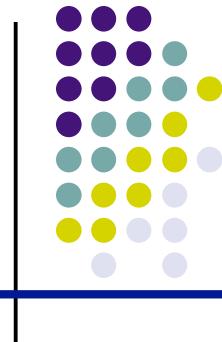
# The TWINSCAN Model

- Extends GENSCAN by adding a model for conservation sequence
- 5<sup>th</sup>-order models for CDS and NC, 2<sup>nd</sup>-order models for start and stop codons and splice sites
  - One CDS model for all frames
- Mouse was used as informant (the best of those tried)



# TWINSCAN Performance

- Slightly more sensitive than GENSCAN, much more specific
  - Exon: Sn = 71%; Sp = 61%
  - Exact gene: Sn = 25%; Sp = 15%
- Was the best gene predictor for about 4 years



# N-SCAN

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- Brown, Gross and Brent, Washington University in St. Louis, 2005
- Multiple informants
- Richer models of sequence evolution
- Frame-specific CDS conservation model
- Conserved noncoding sequence model
- 5' UTR structure model

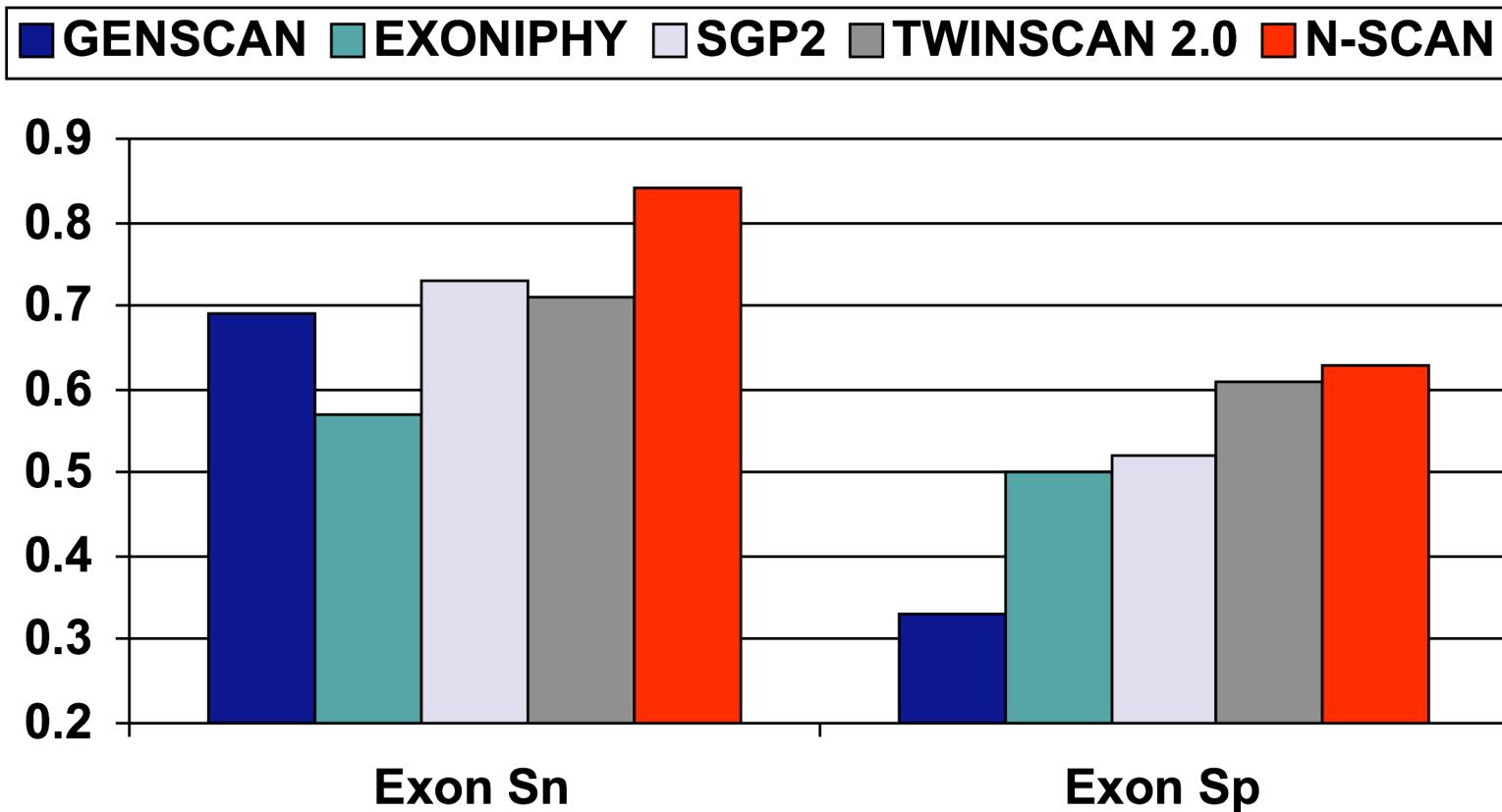


# Evaluating Performance

- Three levels of performance: gene, exon, nucleotide
- Two measures of performance:
  - Sensitivity =  $TP / (TP + FP)$
  - Specificity =  $TP / (TP + FP)$
- Testing standard is whole-genome prediction
  - Predicting on single-gene sequences is easier and less interesting

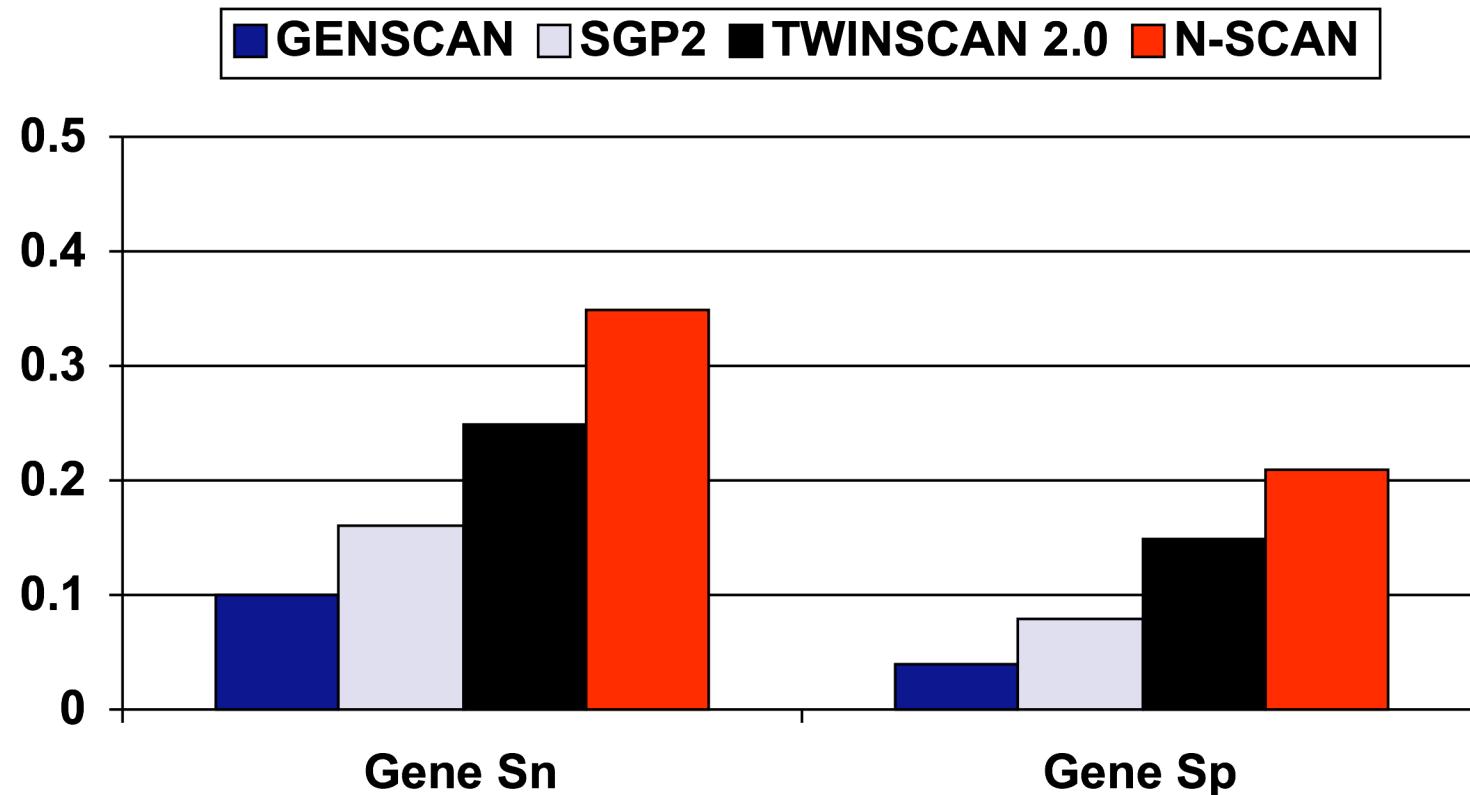


# Exact Exon Accuracy



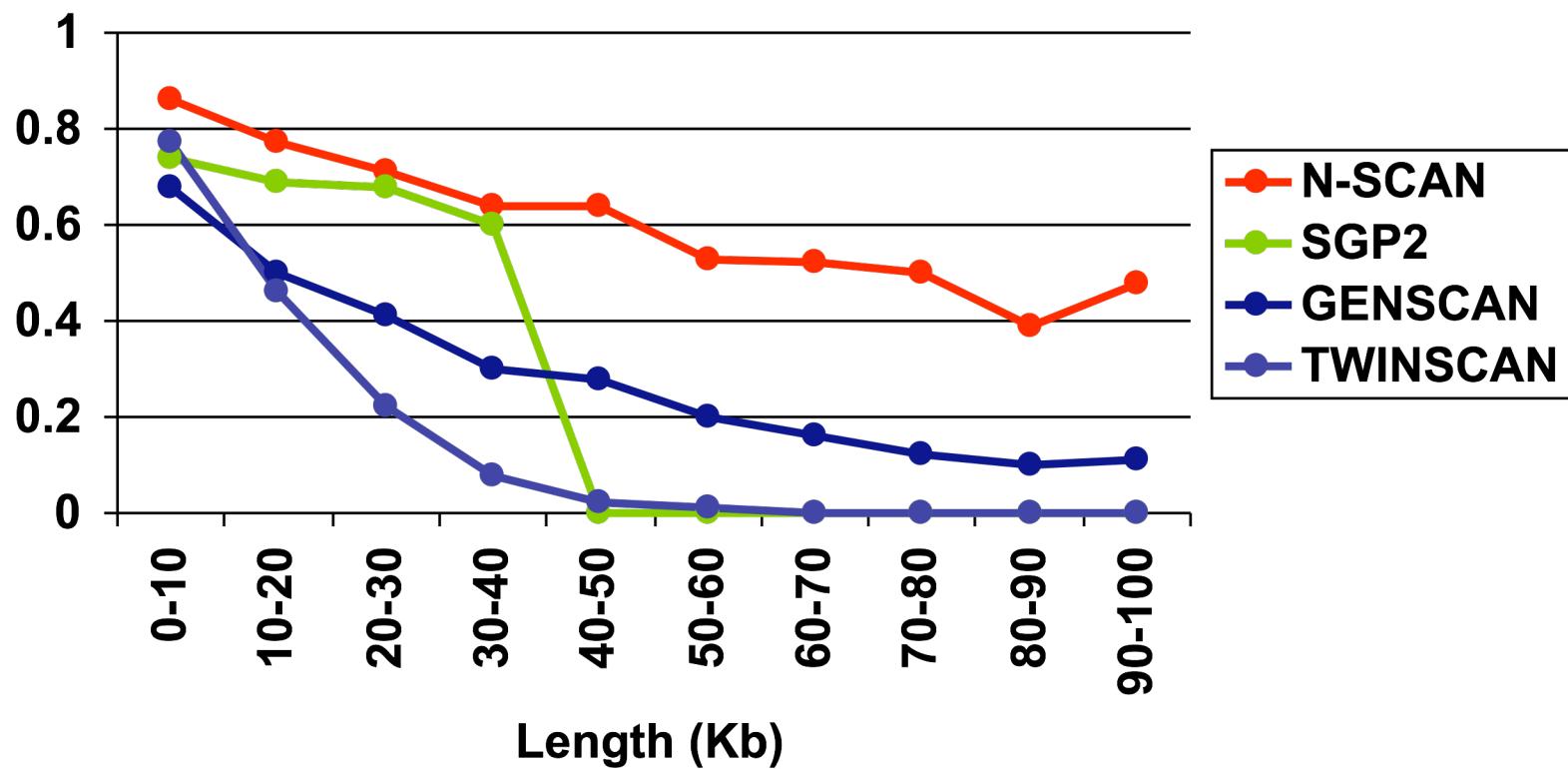


# Exact Gene Accuracy

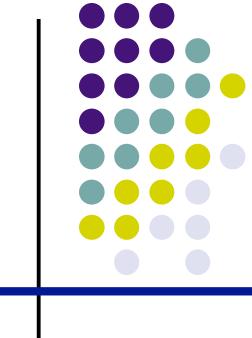




# Intron Sensitivity By Length

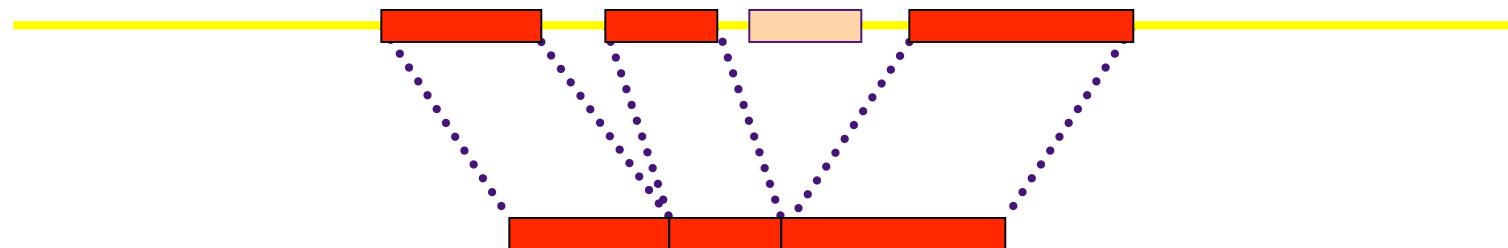


# Missing parts...

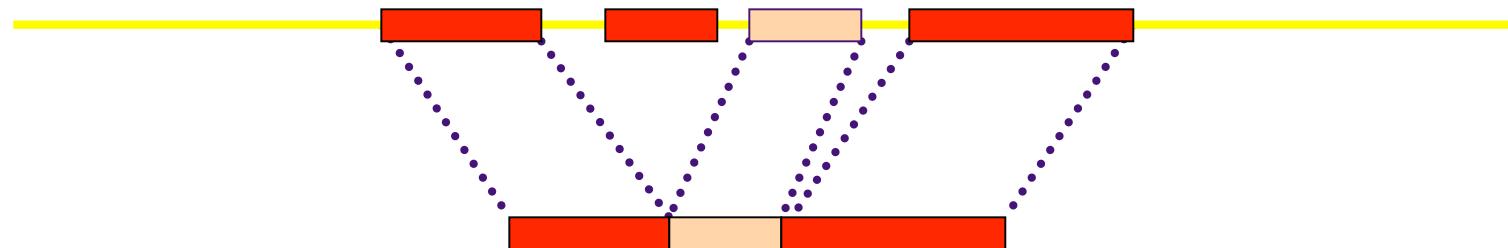


- Alternatively spliced genes

Form A



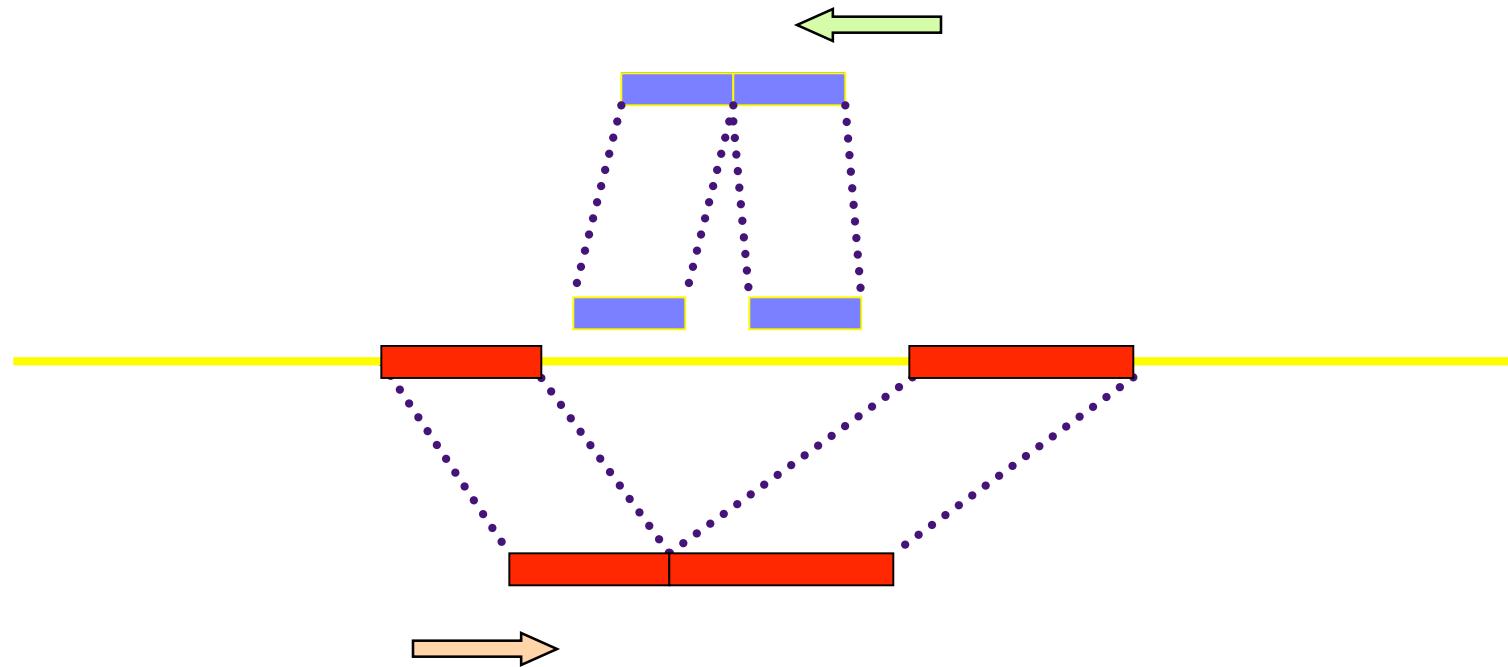
Form B





# Missing parts...(cntd)

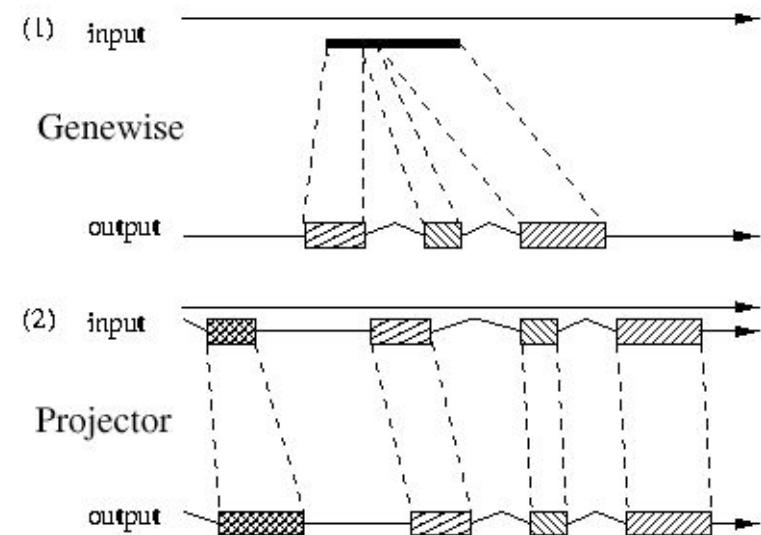
- Genes within genes



# Homology-Based Gene Prediction



- Idea: Try to predict a gene in one organism using a known orthologous gene or protein from another organism
- Genewise
  - Protein homology
- Projector
  - Gene structure homology
- Very accurate if (and only if??) homology is high





# For more reading

- GENSCAN: Burge & Karlin, “*Prediction of complete gene structures in human genomic DNA*” (1997) *J Mol Biol* **268**: 78-94
- TWINSCAN: Korf, Flicek, Duan, Brent, “*Integrating genomic homology into gene structure prediction*” (2001) *Bioinformatics* **17** Suppl 1: S140-S148
- N-SCAN: Gross & Brent ,”*Using multiple alignments to improve gene prediction*” (2006) *J Comput Biol* **13**: 379-393
- Fickett & Tung, “*Assessment of protein coding measures*” (1992) *Nuc Acids Res* **20**: 6441-6450
- Rogic *et al.* “*Evaluation of Gene-Finding Programs on Mammalian Sequences*” (2001) *Genome Res* **11**: 817-832
- Mathe *et al.* “*Current methods of gene prediction, their strengths and weaknesses*” (2002) *Nuc Acids Res* **30**: 4103-4117



# Acknowledgements

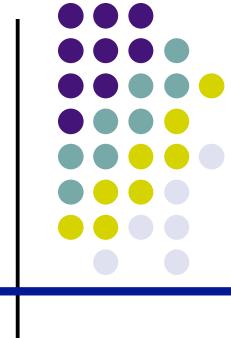
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Some of the slides used in this lecture are adapted or modified slides from lectures of:

- Serafim Batzoglou, Stanford University

Theory and examples from the following:

- C. Burge, PhD thesis, 1997, Stanford University
- <http://www-lmmb.ncifcrf.gov/~toms/sequencelogo.html>





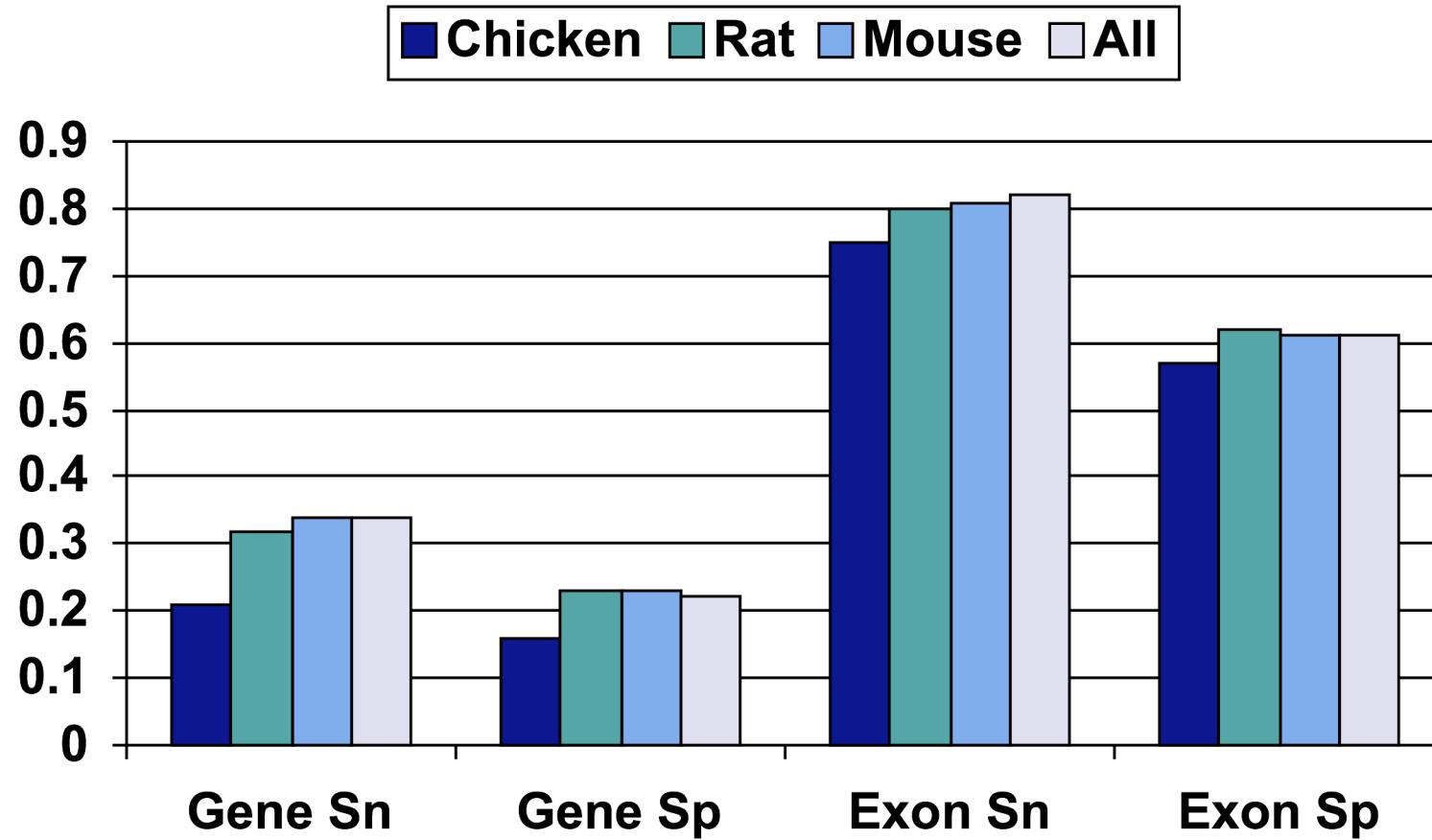
# GENSCAN Performance

Programs	No. of sequences	Nucleotide accuracy			
		Sn	Sp	AC	CC
FGENES	195 (5)	0.86	0.88	0.84 ± 0.19	0.83
GeneMark.hmm	195 (0)	0.87	0.89	0.84 ± 0.18	0.83
Genie	195 (15)	0.91	0.90	0.89 ± 0.16	0.88
Genscan	195 (3)	0.95	0.90	0.91 ± 0.12	0.91
HMMgene	195 (5)	0.93	0.93	0.91 ± 0.13	0.91
Morgan	127 (0)	0.75	0.74	0.70 ± 0.21	0.69
MZEF	119 (8)	0.70	0.73	0.68 ± 0.21	0.66

Programs	No. of sequences	Exon accuracy							
		ESn	ESp	(ESn+ESp)/2	ME	WE	PCa	PCp	OL
FGENES	195 (5)	0.67	0.67	0.67 ± 0.32	0.12	0.09	0.20	0.17	0.02
GeneMark.hmm	195 (0)	0.53	0.54	0.54 ± 0.36	0.13	0.11	0.29	0.27	0.09
Genie	195 (15)	0.71	0.70	0.71 ± 0.30	0.19	0.11	0.15	0.15	0.02
Genscan	195 (3)	0.70	0.70	0.70 ± 0.32	0.08	0.09	0.21	0.19	0.02
HMMgene	195 (5)	0.76	0.77	0.76 ± 0.30	0.12	0.07	0.14	0.14	0.02
Morgan	127 (0)	0.46	0.41	0.43 ± 0.26	0.20	0.28	0.28	0.25	0.07
MZEF	119 (8)	0.58	0.59	0.59 ± 0.28	0.32	0.23	0.08	0.16	0.01

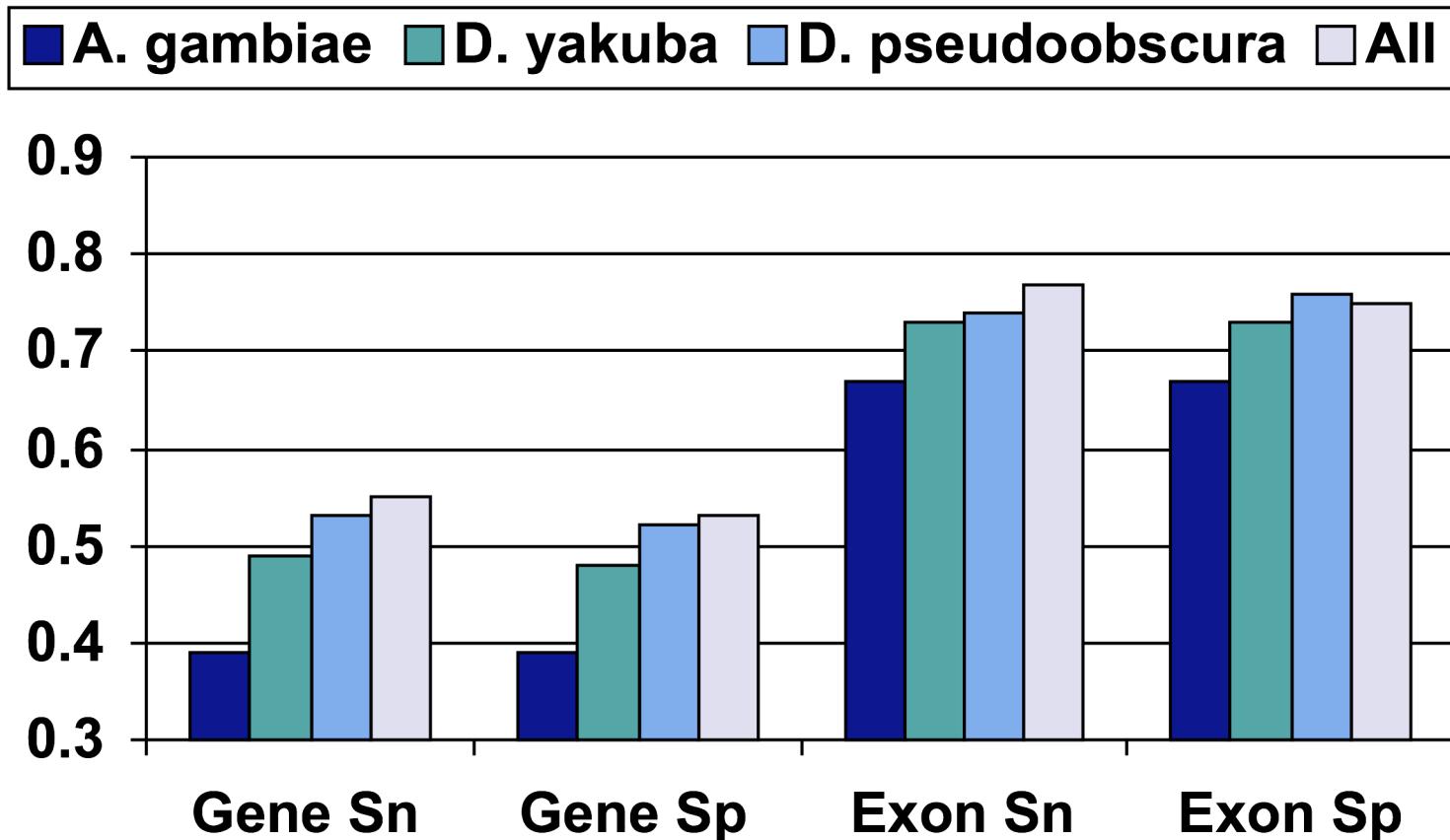


# Human Informant Effectiveness





# *Drosophila* Informant Effectiveness





# Codon usage measure (cntd)

- Lapedes *et al.* (1990 & 1992)
  - A neural network approach.
  - Uses one hidden layer to summarize codon usage data from a window input.
  - Initially using a 64-space vector, later expanded to include dicodons.



# Locating Genes

- We have a genome sequence, maybe with related genomes aligned to it...where are the genes?
- Yeast genome is about 70% protein coding
  - About 6000 genes
- Human genome is about 1.5% protein coding
  - About 22,000 genes

# Introns: The Bane of ORF Scanning



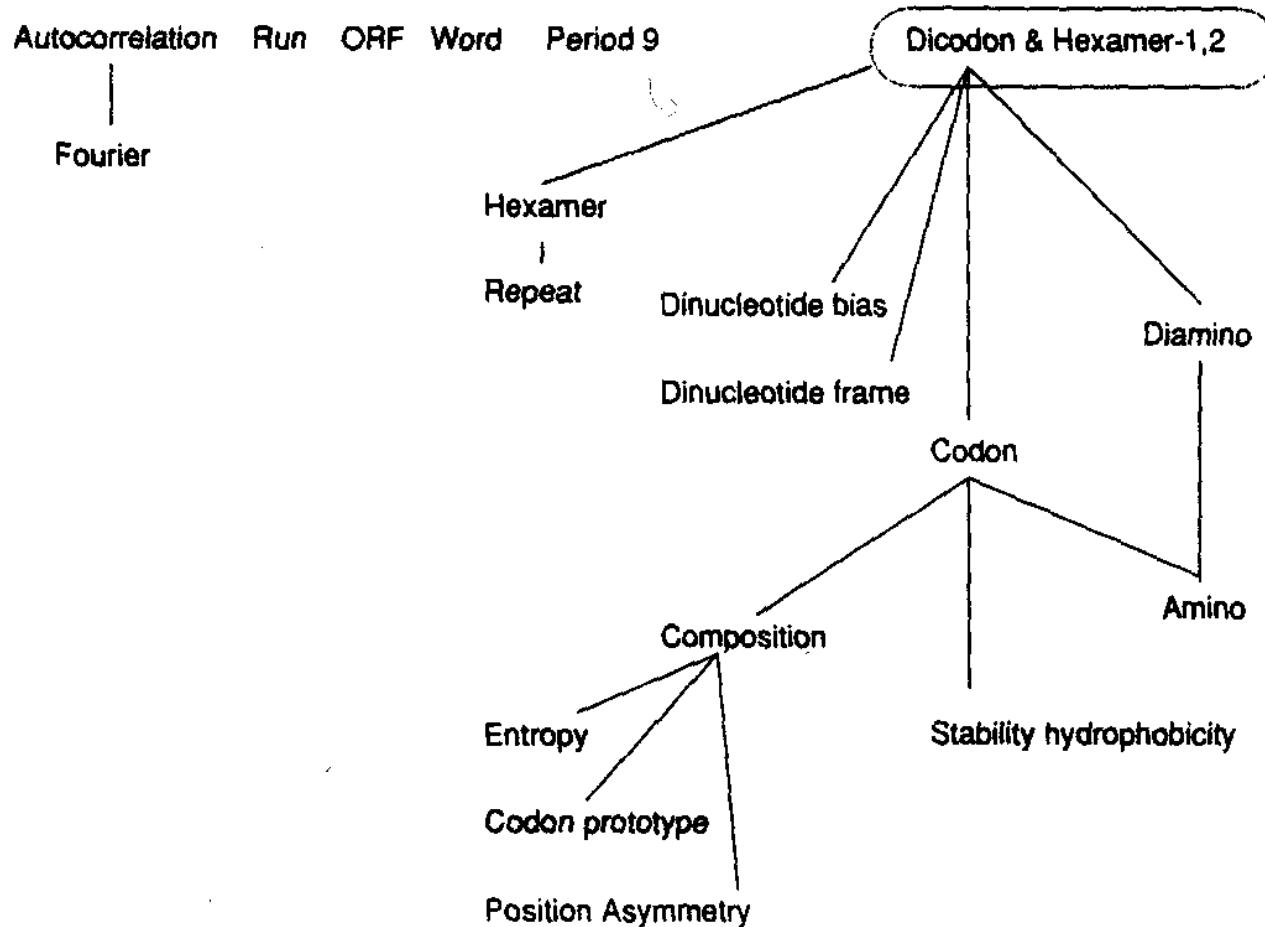
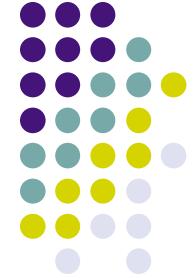
- Drosophila:
  - 3.4 introns per gene on average
  - mean intron length 475, mean exon length 397
- Human:
  - 8.8 introns per gene on average
  - mean intron length 4400, mean exon length 165
- ORF scanning is defeated

Benos 02-710/MS



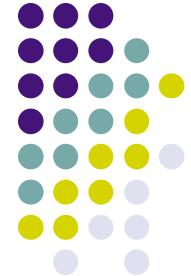
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# Comparison of exon prediction methods



Fickett & Tung (1992) Nuc Acids Res 20:6441-6450

# Comparison of exon prediction methods (cntd)

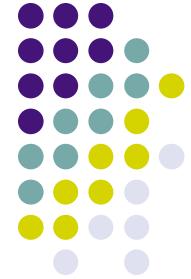


**Table 2.** Percentage accuracy (average of specificity and sensitivity) of the coding measures in predicting region coding

Measure	Human 54 Penrose	Human 108 Penrose	Human 162 Penrose	E. coli 54 Penrose	Human 54 Classical
Hexamer	70.5	73.1	74.2	67.5	
Position Asymmetry	70.2	76.6	80.6	61.6	70.3
Dicodon Usage	70.2	72.9	73.9	67.5	—
Fourier	69.9	76.5	80.8	61.3	69.9
Hexamer-1	69.9	72.6	73.8	66.8	—
Hexamer-2	69.9	72.6	73.8	66.7	—
Run	66.6	70.3	71.3	63.6	67.9
Codon Usage	65.2	68.0	69.5	64.1	66.
Repeat	65.1	69.9	73.1	62.4	—
Autocorrelation	64.9	71.1	77.0	58.2	64.9
Dinucleotide Bias	62.9	55.5	50.7	55.9	62.7
Diamino Acid Usage	62.8	66.3	67.8	61.3	—
Composition	61.7	64.1	65.9	61.7	61.3
Amino Acid Usage	60.6	63.4	64.7	59.7	61.3
Word	59.5	66.4	71.4	56.6	61.0
Entropy	58.4	63.1	66.2	55.0	58.4
Dinucleotide Frame	58.0	62.9	66.6	54.6	58.0
Open Reading Frame	57.8	59.2	60.7	57.4	57.8
Stability Hydrophobicity	55.5	57.5	58.7	55.5	55.5
Codon Prototype	54.7	56.1	56.4	54.7	54.7
Period 9	52.5	53.0	52.8	51.8	52.4

Data from five benchmark situations are shown, with varying data set (Human or *E. coli*), window length (54, 108, or 162) and decision method (Penrose discriminant or Classical linear discriminant).

# Comparison of exon prediction methods (cntd)



**Table 3.** Percentage accuracy (average of specificity and sensitivity) of the coding measures in predicting phase-specific coding

Measure	Human 54 Penrose	Human 108 Penrose	Human 162 Penrose	<i>E. coli</i> 54 Penrose	Human 54 Classical
Dicodon Usage	80.7	84.3	85.4	88.7	—
Hexamer-2	79.5	82.8	84.2	87.2	—
Hexamer-1	78.6	82.0	83.3	87.1	—
Codon Usage	78.0	81.0	82.1	86.9	81.7
Diamino Acid Usage	77.2	84.9	87.7	84.2	—
Amino Acid Usage	75.3	81.1	83.6	83.3	76.2
Codon Prototype	74.3	78.2	80.5	78.8	74.3
Open Reading Frame	72.9	83.3	88.0	75.6	72.9
Composition	72.2	74.7	75.9	78.8	75.0
Hexamer	71.7	74.3	75.4	70.5	—
Position Asymmetry	68.1	74.7	77.5	59.7	68.3
Fourier	67.8	74.8	77.6	54.7	67.5
Run	66.1	69.6	71.1	62.5	67.0
Repeat	65.5	70.4	73.8	63.0	—
Autocorrelation	64.5	71.4	76.3	58.6	64.6
Dinucleotide Bias	61.9	56.4	55.5	50.3	61.4
Entropy	61.1	64.7	69.2	56.2	61.2
Stability Hydrophobicity	59.8	62.5	63.8	60.4	59.8
Word	58.4	65.6	72.9	57.6	60.7
Dinucleotide Frame	58.4	62.6	65.7	52.1	56.5
Period 9	55.0	58.4	58.9	53.9	55.0

Data from five benchmark situations are shown, with varying data set (Human or *E. coli*), window length (54, 108, or 162) and decision method (Penrose discriminant or Classical linear discriminant).

