

TWO DE D

The ENCODE Project

- 44 regions of the human genome were selected, spanning 30 megabases (about 1% of the human genome).
- The **ENCODE regions** include:
 - About 50% randomly selected loci
 - About 50% containing well-known genes
 - Example: alpha and beta globins, CFTR
- The **ENCODE Project Consortium** released its findings in a 2007 article (>250 coauthors)

Experiment Padundaney

Experiment Redundancy

- The ENCODE pilot project aimed to establish redundancy with respect to the findings represented by different data sets:
 - Multiple experiments based on a similar technique:
 - e.g. study transcriptional activity in different tissues using the same technology.
 - Multiple experiments based on different techniques.
- Such redundancy has allowed methods to be compared and consensus data sets to be generated.

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Major Findings of ENCODE

- The majority of all nucleotides are transcribed as part of
 - Coding transcripts
 - Noncoding RNAs
 - Random transcripts that may have no biological
- Many genes have multiple, previously undetected, transcription start sites
 - Regulatory sequences are as likely to be upstream as downstream of the major start sites.



Highlights of ENCODE Project (I)

- The human genome is pervasively transcribed, such that the majority of its bases are associated with at least one primary transcript.
- Many novel non-protein-coding transcripts have been identified:
 - many non-protein-coding genes overlap with protein-coding loci
 - others are located in regions of the genome previously thought to be transcriptionally silent.



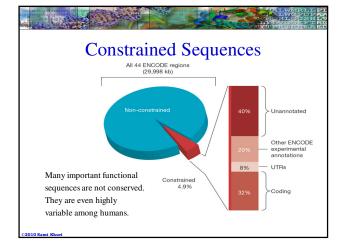
Highlights of ENCODE Project (II)

- Numerous previously unrecognized transcription start sites have been identified, many of which show chromatin structure and sequence-specific protein-binding properties similar to well understood promoters.
- Regulatory sequences that surround transcription start sites are symmetrically distributed, with no bias towards upstream regions.



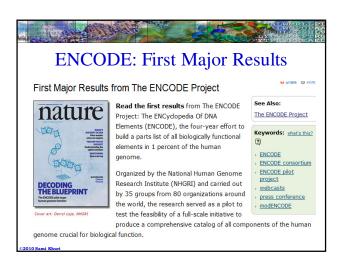
Comparative Analysis

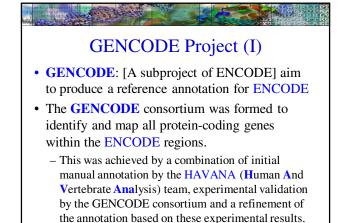
- 206Mb of genomic sequences orthologous to the human ENCODE DNA sequences were generated from 14 mammalian species
- The orthologous sequences were aligned using three alignment programs: TBA, MAVID and MLAGAN.
- Four independent methods that generated highly concordant results were then used to identify sequences under constraint (PhastCons, GERP, SCONE and BinCons).
- From these analyses, a high-confidence set of 'constrained sequences' was developed that correspond to 4.9% of the nucleotides in the ENCODE regions.
- Constrained sequence is a genomic region associated with evidence of negative selection (that is, rejection of mutations relative to neutral regions).

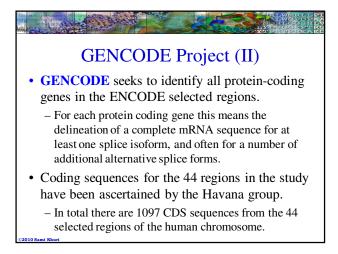


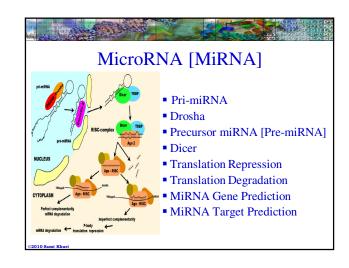
ENCODE Portal at UCSC • The main portal for ENCODE data is provided by the UCSC Genome Browser: genome.ucsc.edu/ENCODE/ The ENCODE Project: ENCyclopedia Of DNA Elements Overview Accessing ENCODE Data The National Human Genome Research Institute (NHGRI) launched a public research to consortium named ENCODE, the Encyclopeda of DNA Elements, in September 2005 carry out a project to identify all functional elements in the human genome sequence, reproject started with two components - a pilot phase and a technology development phase.

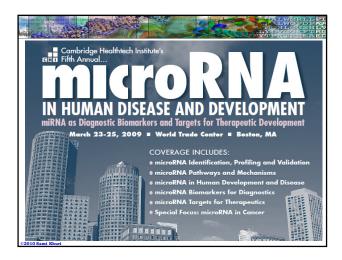
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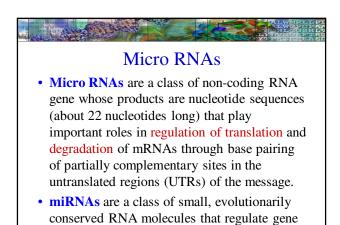












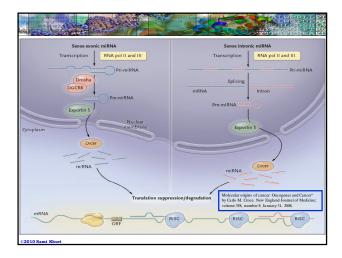
expression at the post-transcriptional level.

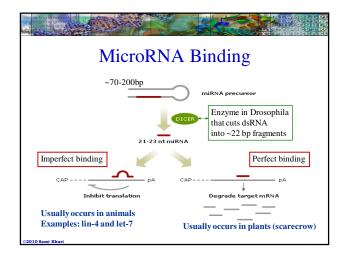
First Micro RNAs

- Micro RNAs (miRNA) were first discovered by Chalfie et al. through genetic studies in the nematode Caenorhabditis elegans as essential regulators of development.
 - lin-4 and let-7 seemed to be involved in controlling the timing of larval development
- · Since then, numerous microRNAs have been found in different species:
 - miRBase (release 13.0) contains 9,499 microRNA entries from 103 species, among which 706 are human
 - many microRNA gene families are conserved among diverse species.

Producing Micro RNAs

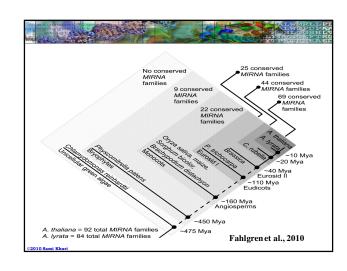
• MiRNAs gene encode precursor RNAs that undergo processing to form miRNAs of length approximately 22 nucleotides.



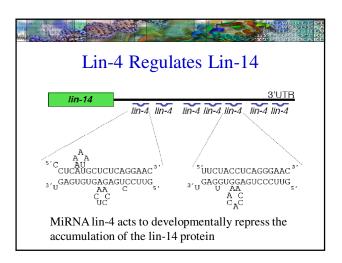


Animal versus Plant Targets

- In plants:
 - microRNAs bind almost perfectly to their target mRNAs
 - targets have been found anywhere on the mRNA
 - relatively few targets because microRNA-mRNA binding requires near-perfect complementarity
- In animals:
 - partial base-pairings with the target mRNAs
 - targets are typically found in the 3'-UTR, where the silencing machinery can easily interact with the initiation
 - multiple targets on the same mRNA and often multiple microRNAs target the same mRNA



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miRNA Challenges and Hope

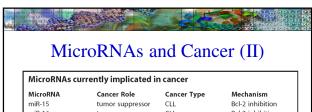
- The challenges are:
 - Predict the functions of the miRNAs
 - Identify the potential target mRNAs to which miRNAs will bind
 - Characterize the consequences of their regulatory interactions.
- The hope is:
 - RNA interference will be used to inactivate tumor genes or viruses.
 - · miRNA-based therapies are under investigation



MicroRNAs and Cancer (I)

- More recently, in the past few years, it has been discovered that some of the 250 to 300 human miRNA are linked to cancers, such as leukemia, lung, breast, and colon cancers.
- Mapping of numerous miRNA genes has shown that many occur in chromosomal regions that undergo rearrangements, deletions, and amplifications in cancer cells.

Molecular origins of cancer: Oncogenes and Cancer" by Carlo M. Croce. New England Journal of Medicine; volume 358, number 5; January 31, 2008

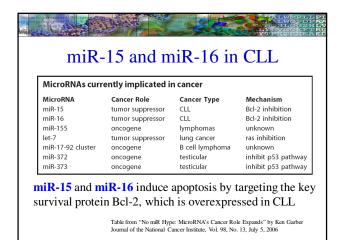


miR-16 Bcl-2 inhibition tumor suppressor miR-155 oncogene lymphomas unknown ras inhibition let-7 tumor suppressor lung cancer miR-17-92 cluster B cell lymphoma oncogene unknown miR-372 testicula inhibit p53 pathway oncogene miR-373 oncogene testicular inhibit p53 pathway

Chronic Lymphocytic Leukemia (CLL): disease of white blood cells that won't die It is the most common leukemia.

A miRNA can be a tumor suppressor if in a given cell type its target is an oncogene. It can be an oncogene if in a different cell type its target is a tumor-suppressor gene.

Table from "No miR Hype: MicroRNA's Cancer Role Expands" by Ken Garber
Journal of the National Cancer Institute, Vol. 98, No. 13, July 5, 2006



MiRNAs and Treatment

- Examples of the role **miRNA** plays in cancer pathophysiology involve miR-15a and miR-16-1, which are deleted or downregulated in most indolent (slow to develop) cases of chronic lymphocytic leukemia.
- The discovery of the involvement of miRNAs in the initiation and progression of human cancer may provide additional targets for anticancer treatments.

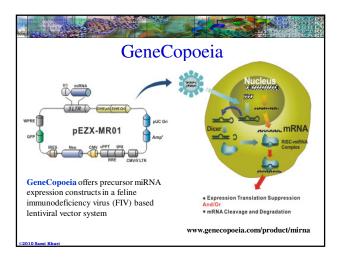
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Antagomirs

- Chemically modified antisense oligonucleotides (i.e., short strings of DNA bases complementary in sequence to their targets) injected into mice potentially silenced a target miRNA in the liver.
- The oligonucleotides were dubbed antagomirs.
- It is believed that antagomirs should be more effective against cancer-causing miRNAs than classic antisense therapy has been against proteincoding mRNAs:
 - antagomirs compete with miRNA targets for binding.
 An easier task than interfering with the protein translation machinery, which is the classic antisense mechanism.

Silencing of microRNAs in vivo with 'antagomirs by Jan Krützfeldt et al. Nature 438, 685-689 (Dec 2005).

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Computational Problems

- Multiple computational problems exist in microRNA research;
 - most notably:
 - microRNA gene prediction
 - microRNA target identification



MicroRNA Gene Prediction

- Traditional gene finding algorithms, which use statistical properties of coding regions, are not appropriate for finding microRNA genes.
- Homology-based searches fail due to the lack of a clear evolutionary model for microRNAs.
- Current techniques for finding microRNA genes take into account the following two properties:
 - the mature microRNA should be approximately 22 nt in length, and
 it should be processed from a stem-loop precursor of around 65 nt in length.
- Some of the freely available microRNA gene finding tools for mammals are MirScan and ProMir, and for plants, MIRFINDER and FINDmicroRNA
- We concentrate on Target Prediction.



Target Prediction

- MicroRNA target prediction is an active area of research and the search for the best method for target prediction continues.
- Since microRNA targets in plants and animals show significant differences, different computational approaches are used.



Target Prediction

- Algorithms for predicting animal targets can be broadly divided into two categories:
 - The objective of the methods in the first category is to find targets for a given microRNA in the 3'-UTR:
 - use microRNA properties, such as base-pair complementarities, cross-species conservation and minimization of free energy.
 - The methods in the second category use machine learning techniques to classify a given microRNA-mRNA pair as a true or false interaction.



Traditional Target Prediction

- microRNA targets are typically found in the 3'-UTR region of animal mRNA.
- The microRNA-mRNA binding in animals is not perfect, it often contains mismatches, gaps, and wobble pairs (G:U), thus reducing the length of the perfect pairwise alignment between the microRNA and its
- However, in most microRNA-mRNA bindings, there is a region that exhibits a nearly perfect complementarity. This region is termed *seed* and it is found in the 5'-end of the microRNA and the 3'-end of the mRNA target.
- The most popular methods use seeds as primary filters: MiRanda, TargetScan, and PicTar.



MiRanda (I)

- Match (align) a microRNA against all 3'-UTR in a genome allowing for wobble pairs and small indels and score the alignments:
 - The algorithm uses higher scores for perfect matches in the 5'-end of the microRNA.
 - The scores are weighted based on the nucleotide position with respect to the 5'-end of the microRNA.
 - Only the alignments with the score above a threshold are kept.
- · Each microRNA-mRNA alignment is filtered based on its computed thermostability.
- Retain only those mRNA targets that have been conserved in other (closely related) species.



MiRanda (II)

- Initially developed for *Drosophila melanogaster*
- Extended for target prediction in humans and other animal species.
- The latest version of the algorithm was updated to include microRNA expression profiles derived from sequencing a large set of mammalian tissues and cell
- The MiRanda software currently predicts 1,934,522 target sites in 31,869 human gene isoforms.



TargetScan (I)

- Takes as input microRNAs that are conserved across a group of organisms and scans them against a set of orthologous 3'-UTR from the same organisms.
- All potential seeds, i.e. perfect matches in positions 2-8 of the microRNA, are extended to *target sites*, which may contain wobble pairs, indels and
- A folding algorithm is used to determine the secondary structure of the microRNA-mRNA duplex and to compute the folding free energy.



TargetScan (II)

- Each target site receives a score based on the number of matches predicted for the same 3'-UTR and their respective free energies.
- Target sites with a score above a threshold are output.
- Current versions of the software include specialized TargetScanHuman, TargetScanFly and TargetScanMouse.



PicTar

- Search for near-perfect seven nucleotide-long seeds starting at position 1 or 2 in the 5'-end of microRNA.
- Extend seeds into target sites and filter each target site based on the minimum free energy of the resulting microRNA-mRNA duplex.
- A second filter is applied to retain only the target sites that fall into overlapping positions of aligned orthologous sequences.
- The target sites that pass both filters are given a score that takes into account multiple binding sites for a single microRNA.
- Target sites with a score higher than a threshold are output.

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Target Identification

- Main problem: lack of verified targets:
 - thousands of microRNA genes have been experimentally verified, only a few of these genes have been assigned a function:
 - miRBase has 9,499 microRNA entries from 103 species
 - TarBase5.0, the database of experimentally supported targets, contained only 1,300 entries for nine species.

DLWERLER LWCPOPN 1.01 LWCPSHX 1.01 LWCPSHX

Problems of Traditional Methods

- Lack of high-throughput experimental techniques to confirm the thousands of predicted targets.
- The numbers of predicted targets differ among programs, with only limited overlap in the topranking targets:
 - mainly due to differences in selection criteria and the use of numerical cutoffs
 - TargetScan: complementarity in positions 2-7 from 5' end of microRNA, whereas in PicTar: positions 1-8 or 2-9.

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Machine Learning Approaches (I)

- Machine-learning methods try to classify microRNA-mRNA duplexes using a set of experimentally verified positive and negative interactions.
- The aim of these methods is to classify the predicted microRNA-mRNA target interactions as true or false and this is done by considering both, seed and non-seed regions of the target.

Manhing Insuring Appropriate (II)

Machine Learning Approaches (II)

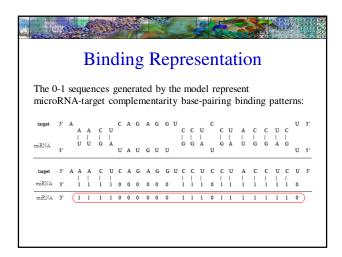
- Kim et. al implemented miTarget, a support vector machine that considers position, thermodynamic properties and structure of the 5' and 3' half of the hybridization site in microRNA-mRNA interactions.
- Saetrom et al. developed a TargetBoost algorithm that combines genetic programming with boosting.
 - The genetic programming component evolves a series of patterns which try to generalize properties of microRNA target sites, i.e. existence of a seed or a bulge of unpaired nucleotides.
 - Each of these patterns is a classifier itself. The boosting technique assigns a weight to each classifier, depending on its performance on the training set.

Weaknesses of Machine Learning Approaches

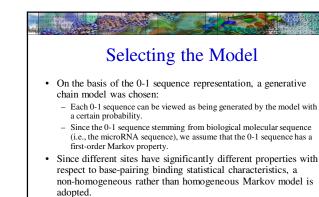
- The main weakness of the classifier methods is the small size (or even lack of) negative training data.
 [Negative Training Data: Known miRNA binds to mRNA but it is experimentally known that the binding site is NOT a target].
- Some authors attempt to overcome this drawback by artificially generating negative target sites and using them in their classifiers.
- However, until one has the technology for verifying microRNA-mRNA interactions, this weakness will persist.

Alternatives

- "Assessing potential microRNA targets based on a Markov model" by Fu et al., 2009:
 - developed a Markov model to learn from known microRNA-mRNA duplexes and applied it to filter out predictions of traditional algorithms:
 - only 30% of MiRanda predictions were picked up by the model.
 - but when the model was applied to the intersection of MiRanda and PicTar predictions, the model picked 70% of the targets.

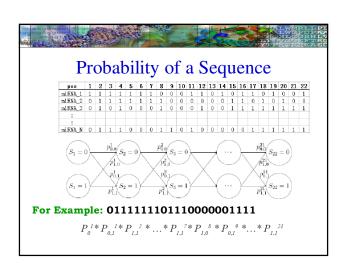


Lack of Uniqueness The 0-1 sequence can represent different binding scenarios:



Model States

- Two states were assigned for the *ith* base site of 22-nucleotide-length microRNA from 5' to 3', state 1 and state 0.
- Either state can be viewed as a value of a variable s_i .
 - State 1 stands for forming Watson-Crick pairing, while the state 0 stands for unforming pairing.
- From the state s_i , either the next state 1 or 0 can be transferred with probability $p^{i}_{si,0}$ or $p^{i}_{si,1}$, respectively.



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Estimating Model Parameters

- All of the model parameters were estimated by maximum likelihood estimation method.
- Used 128 0-1 sequences, corresponding to 128 known human microRNA-mRNA bindings from TarBase.
- Discovered that not all transition probabilities were needed, probability parameters corresponding to sites 2-11 achieve the maximal recognition rates.
- Model identified 110 targets from the set of 128



Links for MiRNA

Ambion, Inc.

www.ambion.com/main/explorations/mirna.html

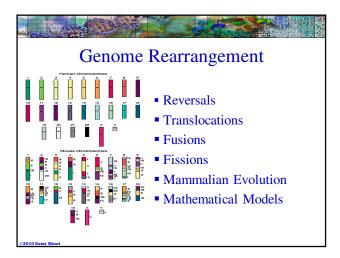
- Nature Genetics
- www.nature.com/ng/supplements/micrornas/rosetta_video.mpg
- · Rosetta Genomics

Developer of microRNA-based diagnostic tests and therapeutic

www.rosettagenomics.com/inner_video.asp?first_tier=97

Nature Genetics - Several articles on miRNAs www.nature.com/ng/journal/v38/n6s/index.html







Chromosomal Exchanges

- During biological evolution, inter- and intrachromosomal exchanges of chromosomal fragments disrupt the order of genes on a chromosome.
- Genome rearrangement approach:

The use of combinatorial optimization techniques to infer a sequence of rearrangement events to account for the differences among the genomes

Genome Rearrangement

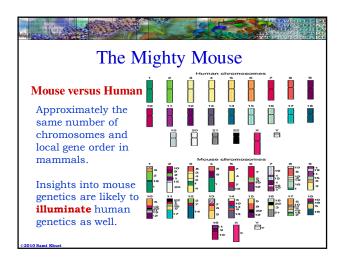
- Genes are arranged along the genome.
- Distinct species often have surprisingly many genes in common, but in different order and with different orientations.
- Periodic, large-scale **genome rearrangement** events, that alter the order and/or orientation of gene sequences occurred.

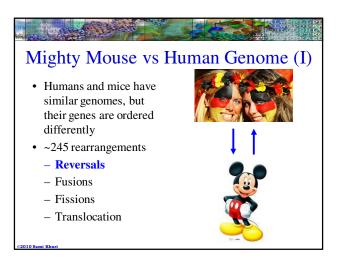


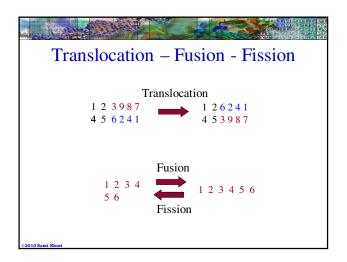
Genome Rearrangement Events

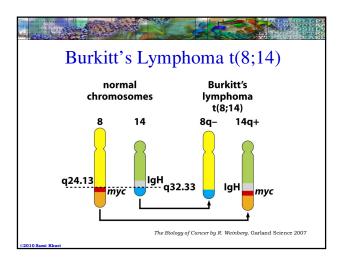
- The most common rearrangement events:
 - Reversal (inversion): reverses the order of genes in a chromosome.
 - Transposition: removes a sequence of genes from the chromosome and inserts it into another place on the same chromosome.
 - Translocation: same as transposition but the sequence of genes is inserted in a different chromosome.
 - Fusion: concatenates 2 chromosomal regions into one.
 - **Fission**: does the opposite work of fusion.

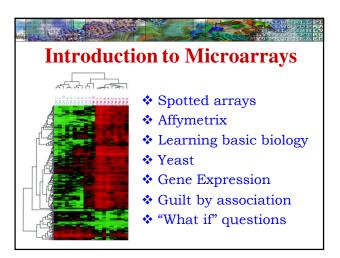
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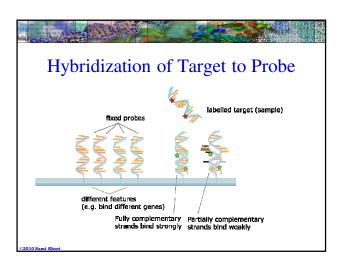


Fundamentals of Microarrays

• Microarrays are composed of short DNA sequences attached to a slide at high density

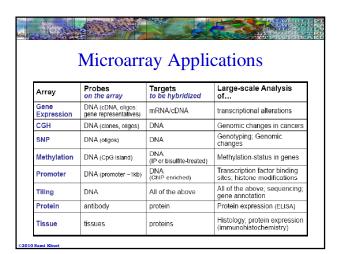
• Microarrays work by exploiting the ability of an mRNA molecule to bind specifically to the DNA sequence from which it originates

• This RNA (or its DNA derivative) is fluorescently labeled so that the amount of hybridization can be quantitatively measured



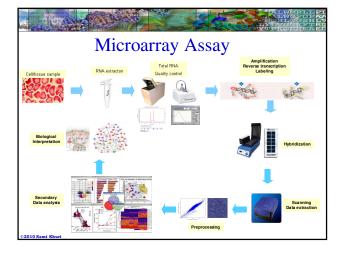


- Microarrays descend from Southern and Northern blotting. Unknown DNA is transferred to a membrane and then probed with a known DNA sequence with a label.
- In microarrays, the known DNA sequence (or probe) is on the membrane while the unknown labeled DNA (or target) is hybridized and then washed off so only specific hybrids
- Dot blots of different genes in an array were used to assay gene expression as early as 1987.
- Complete genome of all Saccharomyces cerevisiae ORFs on a microarray were published in 1997 by Lashkari et al.





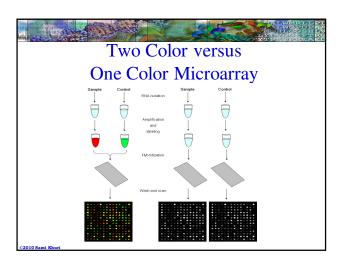
- · Gene expression:
 - A process by which inheritable information from a gene is made into a functional gene product
- Gene expression profiling:
 - A measurement of the activity of thousands of genes at once, creating a global profile of cellular function.
 - Profiles can for example distinguish between cells that are actively dividing, or show how the cells react to a particular treatment.
 - The sequence tells us only what the cell could possibly do, the expression profile tells us what the cell is actually doing at that moment.

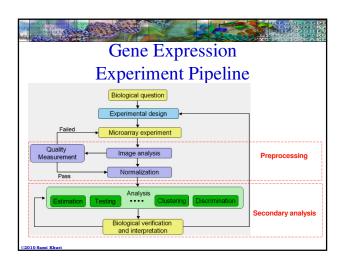


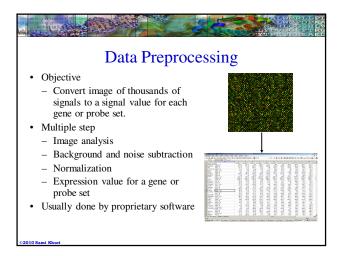
Microarray Technology

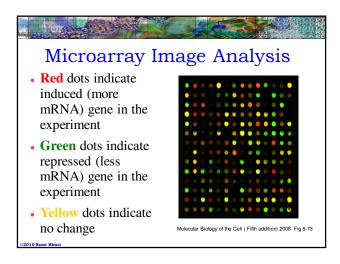
- Basic idea: mRNA hybridizes best to exactly complementary sequences.
- - Probes are attached to a substrate in a known location
 - mRNA in one or more samples are fluorescently labelled
 - samples are hybridized to probe array, excess is washed off, and fluorescence reading are taken for each position
- Two major classes:
 - "custom" cDNA arrays (probes are full length cDNAs)
 - "Affymetrix" oligonucleotide arrays (probes are unique ~25bp segments from genes & ESTs)

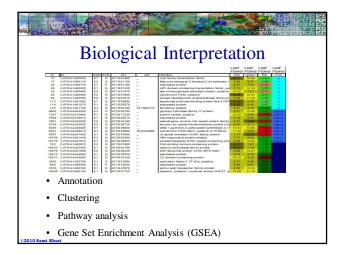
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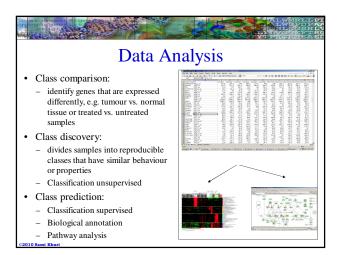






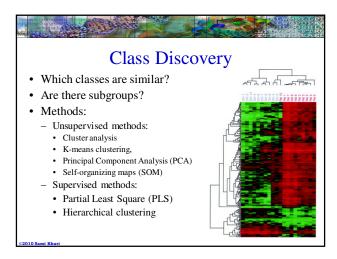








- Differential expression analysis:
 - What genes are up regulated between control and test or multiple test conditions?
 - · Normal vs. tumor
 - · Treated vs. untreated
- · Fold change
- Statistics
 - t-test, non-parametric tests, ANOVA, SAM





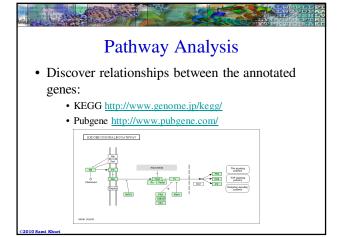
Functional Genomics

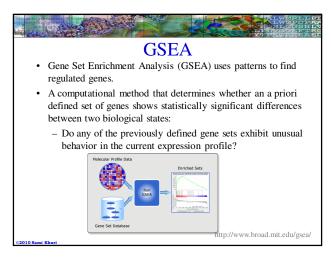
- Take a list of "interesting" genes and find their biological relationships.
- Gene lists may come from significance/classification analysis of microarrays, proteomics, or other highthroughput methods.
- · Requires a reference set of "biological knowledge".



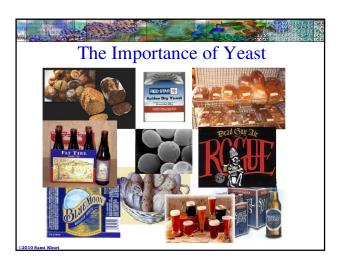
Gene Annotation

- Gene ontology is a gene annotation system, a controlled vocabulary used to describe gene products:
 - What does a gene product do?
 - Why does it perform these activities?
 - Where does it act?
 - Are several genes involved in the same process?
- Different platforms provide gene ontology mining tool which returns GO terms for probe sets:
 - Panther (Applied Bios stems)
 - NetAffx Analysis Center (Affymetrix)
 - DAVID database
 - www.geneontology.org/GO.tools.microarray.shtmlm
- Annotation challenges
 - Databases change regularly
 - Various databases refer to the same protein by different names
 - A changing understanding of protein function A gene product may be part of several different ontologies



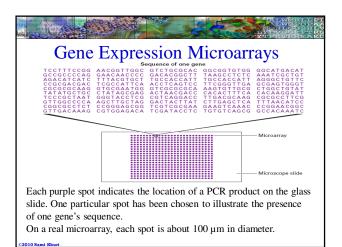


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The Yeast Genome

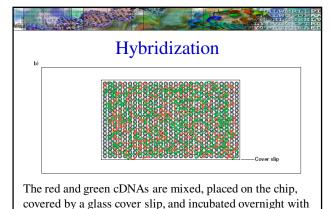
- The yeast genome has about 6,200 genes.
- All 6,200 genes are amplified by polymerase chain reaction (PCR).
- The PCR products are verified, purified, and spotted onto an ordinary glass microscope slide by a robot.
- The spotted DNA is denatured and covalently linked to the glass slide.
- Each spot contains many amplified copies of a single gene.





Yeast DNA Chip Experiment

- Cells are grown in two different conditions:
 - In the presence of oxygen
 - In the absence of oxygen.
- The 2 populations of mRNAs are harvested from each population of cells and separately converted into cDNAs.
- The two populations of cDNAs are colored either green or red, each representing the transcriptome from one population of cells.



the DNA microarray.

Results From a Single DNA Chip The microarray is put under a scanner that uses light to excite the dyes and sensors to detect the dyes to record the location and two-color intensities for each spot. Diagram of a single DNA chip showing: a) the red transcriptome, b) the green transcriptome, c) which genes are expressed in both transcriptomes. Some genes are not expressed in either growth condition (gray spots).

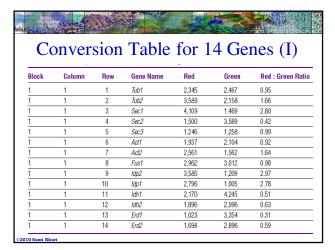
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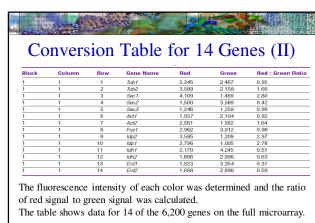


- · Scanning one microarray chip takes about
- When completed, the green color image and the red color image are stored in a computer for image analysis.
- The computer also generates a new merged image, with yellow spots indicating the open reading frames (ORFs) that are transcribed in both transcriptomes

Conversion of Color Spots to Table

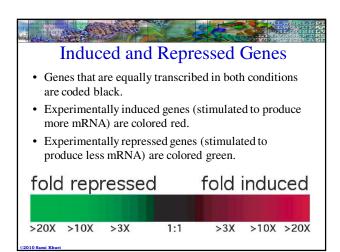
- Yellow spots are a visual way of depicting a red-to-green ratio 1:1. More typically, the merged image will be a bit more green or a bit more red.
- The color spots are then converted to numbers that represent the light intensity of
 - red dye,
 - green dye, and
 - the ratio of red to green.



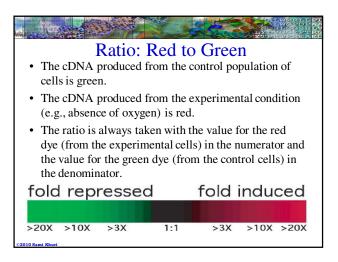


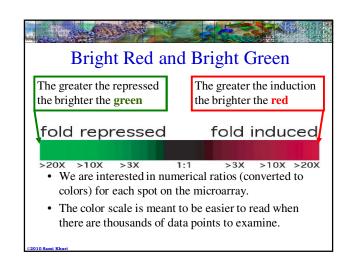
Note that the location of each spot is shown in the table.

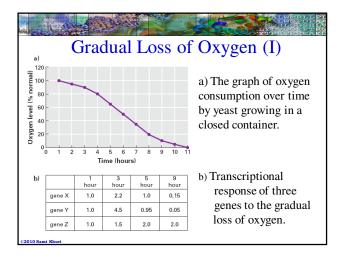
Red-Green Color Scale · Humans process visual data much faster than numbers. • So the numerical data ratios of red to green is converted into a visually comprehensive system. fold repressed fold induced >20X >10X >3X >3X >10X >20X 1:1

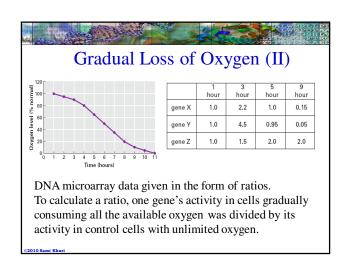


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The Need to Organize Data in Meaningful Patterns Measure the cellular response every 2 hours to a depletion of oxygen over a 10-hour period. At the end, the experiment produces: 5 x 6,200 = 31,000 gene expression ratios. How can we organize the data so as to see the genes that responded in similar ways to the depletion of oxygen? Organize the data into meaningful patterns.

Organizing Data: Example (I)						
Name	0 hours	2 hours	4 hours	6 hours	8 hours	10 hours
gene C	1	8	12	16	12	8
gene D	1	3	4	4	3	2
gene E	1	4	8	8	8	8
gene F	1	1	1	0.25	0.25	0.1
gene G	1	2	3	4	3	2
gene H	1	0.5	0.33	0.25	0.33	0.5
gene I	1	4	8	4	1	0.5
gene J	1	2	1	2	1	2
gene K	1	1	1	1	3	3
gene L	1	2	3	4	3	2
gene M	1	0.33	0.25	0.25	0.33	0.5
gene N	1	0.125	0.0833	0.0625	0.0833	0.125

