Chapter 8 Class Notes – DNA Sequence Assembly

8.1. <u>The Biological Problem</u>: here we consider DNA sequence assembly via both the top-down (or map-based) approach (such as originally used in the Human Genome Project) and the bottomup approach. In the latter case, a small-insert library is used to assemble the restriction map of a larger region by detecting overlaps of inserts to build contigs (here for a sequence rather than a restriction map). "The process of producing the sequence of a DNA segment (perhaps a genome) from a large number of randomly chosen sequence reads derived from it is called shotgun sequencing." Our focus here: Whole-genome shotgun (WGS) sequencing.

8.2. <u>Reading DNA</u>: Older versions have been replaced by the Sanger dideoxy sequencing method, "which employs the counterintuitive approach of analysis by synthesis." "Rather than breaking down a duplex molecule into fragments to be sequenced, we start with a single-strand molecule and manufacture fragments whose sizes depend upon the actual DNA sequence." Check out:

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=bEFLBf5WEtc

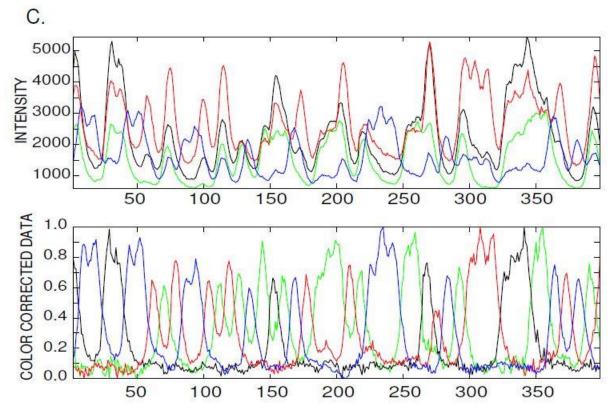
In our text, the process is demonstrated with the following figure (Fig. 8.1 on p.199) for the "A" sequencing. The 12-nt primer is on the left in grey, followed by the 8 cases of "early stops" by the dideoxy process. The sequence is then determined by running through a gel: "Polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis physically sorts molecules by size"; see image below at bottom.

Quantitative Bioinformatics

C.

5'catgacgatcgg <mark>tttA* 3'gtactgctagcc<mark>aaaTggacaaTagcTacagacccaTTTcTgaTcagg5'</mark></mark>
5'catgacgatcggtttAcctgttAtcgAtgtctgggtAA* 3'gtactgctagccaaaTggacaaTagcTacagacccaTTTcTgaTcagg5'
5'catgacgatcgg <mark>tttA</mark> cctgtt A* 3'gtactgctagcc <mark>aaaT</mark> ggacaaTagcTacagacccaTTTcTgaTcagg5'
5'catgacgatcgg <mark>tttA</mark> cctgttAtcgAtgtctgggtAAAgActA* 3'gtactgctagcc <mark>aaaTggacaaTagcTacagacccaTTTcTgaTcagg5'</mark>
5'catgacgatcggtttAcctgttAtcgAtgtctgggtAAAgA* 3'gtactgctagccaaaTggacaaTagcTacagacccaTTTcTgaTcagg5'
5'catgacgatcggttt A cctgttAtcgA* 3'gtactgctagcc <mark>aaaTggacaaTagcTacagacccaTTTcTgaT</mark> cagg5'
5'catgacgatcggtttAcctgttAtcgAtgtctgggtA* 3'gtactgctagccaaaTggacaaTagcTacagacccaTTTcTgaTcagg5'
5'catgacgatcggtttAcctgttAtcgAtgtctgggtAAA* 3'gtactgctagccaaaTggacaaTagcTacagacccaTTTcTgaTcagg5' A. B.

More recently, "automated capillary sequencers" are being used with four different fluorescent dyes, yielding images such as (with A, C, G and T):



In the above, going from the top image to the bottom one is done by "color-correcting". These plots are produced as in this video: <u>http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=AV35C36bBto</u>

8.3. <u>The Three-Step Method: Overlap, Layout, and Multiple</u> <u>Alignment</u> – regarding alignments using shotgun sequencing, recall that it "is a mistake to think the entire target sequence will be determined even if the assembly is perfect" and we must keep in mind the statistical distribution of oceans and islands (p.112). Here, we'll discuss the 3 steps in shotgun sequencing: (1) pairwise comparison, (2) layout, and (3) multiple alignment. Note that for reads *r* and *s*, we consider: *r* vs *s*, *r* vs *s**, *r** vs *s*, and *r** vs *s**.

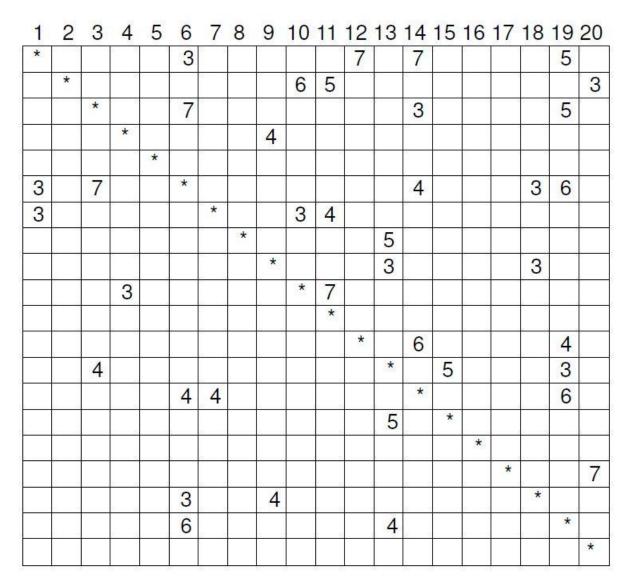
Here's an illustration (from p.205) where reads are 8 long:

5'- <u>CAGCGCGCTGCGTGACGAGTCTGACAAAGACGGTATGCGCATCGTGATTGAAGTG</u> AAACGCGATGCGGTCGGTGAAG<u>TTGTGCT</u> - 3'

Table below left gives the 20 reads & their reversals (all $5' \rightarrow 3'$)

o.	Read	Read*	a a maama	14
			GCATCGTG CATCGTGA	14
	CATCGTGA	TCACGATG	ATCGTGAT	12
	CGGTGAAG	CTTCACCG	AIGGIGAI	12
	TATGCGCA	TGCGCATA		
	GACGAGTC	GACTCGTC	0100001T	7*
	CTGACAAA	TTTGTCAG	GACCGCAT ATGCGCAT	6=6*
	ATGCGCAT	ATGCGCAT	GCATCGTG GCATCGTGA CATCGTGAT <u>G</u> CGCATCG CG <u>CAG</u> CGC CGCATCGTGAT	14
	ATGCGGTC	GACCGCAT		1
	CTGCGTGA	TCACGCAG		12
	GCGTGACG	CGTCACGC		19
0	GTCGGTGA	TCACCGAC		13*
1	GGTCGGTG	CACCGACC	CGCATCGIGAI	
2	ATCGTGAT	ATCACGAT		
3	GCGCTGCG	CGCAGCGC		
4	GCATCGTG	CACGATGC	CGGTGAAG	2
5	AGCGCGCT	AGCGCGCT	GTCGGTGA	10
6	GAAGTTGT	ACAACTTC	GGTCGGTG ATGCGGTC	11 7
7	AGTGAAAC	GTTTCACT	ATGCGGTCGGTGAAG	<u> </u>
8	ACGCGATG	CATCGCGT		
9	GCGCATCG	CGATGCGC		
0	AAGTGAAA	TTTCACTT	AGTGAAAC	17
			AAGTGAAA	20
			AAGTGAAAC	

The reads above are a subset of all possible reads, and were chosen at random locations in the sequence and in random orientations. We present below the 20×20 overlap matrix that indicates which fragments or their complements overlap by ≥ 3 .



To understand the table, the '3' in the (7,1) entry corresponds to the read of 1 and the read* for 7, and the overlap is CAT; the '7' in the (1,12) entry corresponds to the reads of 1 and 12, and the overlaps is ATCGTGA. We then start with the (1,14) and (1,12) high-scoring '7' entries, and build the arrangement in the previous table at top right, reproduced here:

GCATCGTG 14 CATCGTGA 1 ATCGTGAT 12

Including other matches (namely 19, 6, 7* and 13*) gives the next entry and the table (above right) and the ultimate alignment: CGCATCGTGAT. In the original sequence (which normally we wouldn't know and are trying to "estimate"), this is the word starting at position 31 (not counting the original 7-base left end). Continuing the process gives us alignments ATGCGGTCGGTGAAG starting at position 56 and AAGTGAAAC starting at position 44.

Clearly only part of the sequence is determined from these data, but this is to be expected since the coverage is only $c = \frac{20 \times 8}{70} =$ 2.286, and so $f_c = 1 - e^{-2.286} = 0.8983$. "At a coverage of 10 we would with reasonable probability recover most of the 70bp."

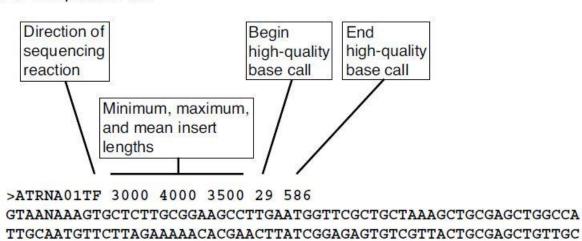
8.4. <u>High-Throughput Genome Sequencing</u> – "the key underlying determinant is that we can obtain high-quality continuous sequence reads of up to 500 to 800 bases with current technology." <u>Big problem</u>: eukaryotic genomes contain repeated sequences that may be longer than the average sequence read; possible solution: employ difference sizes of cloned inserts.

8.4.1. <u>Computational Tools</u>: base calling is the process of identifying which base corresponds to each position in a sequence read. One example of base-calling software is called Phred (<u>http://www.phrap.org/phredphrapconsed.html</u>); the trace

processing steps are: (a) idealized predicted peak locations, (b) observed peaks above a threshold, (c) matching observed and predicted peaks, and (d) accounting for missing peaks.. "A very important feature of Phred is that it associates with each base a probability p that the base call is in error. The probability p depends upon things such as peak spacings, peak resolution, and areas of uncalled peaks. The quality of each base call is described by the quality score Q, which is defined as $Q = -10 \log_{10} p$."

The next step is sequence assembly; the inputs are:

A. Sequence file



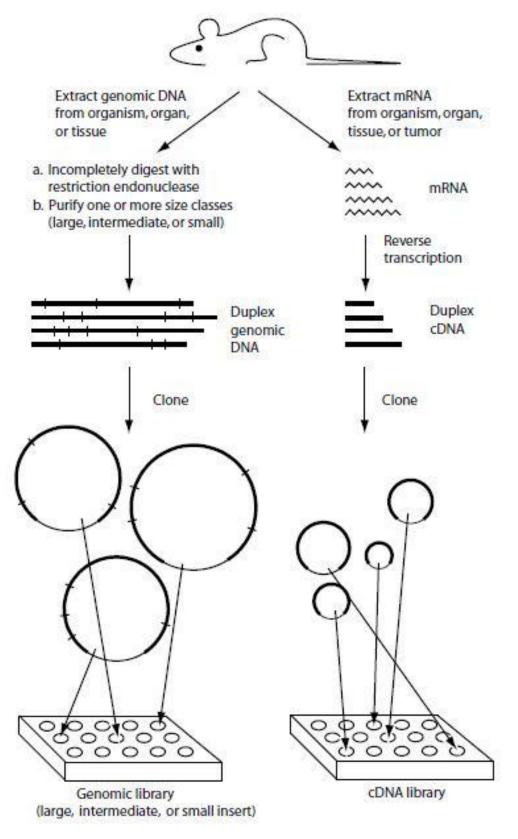
TTGCAATGTTCTTAGAAAAACACGAAGCCTTGAATGGTTCGCTGCTAAAGCTGCGAGCTGGCCA CGGTCGGTTTTCTCTGACAACACGAACTTGATGCCGCTGATGTCGTCGAGGGTGGAGGTT TAGTCGCCGGAACTCTGACCGTCGGTGTTGCTCATGGTGAATTGATCGTTGCTCTGAAGT ...

Quality file (B) is on next page; note that "00" for *Q* corresponds to a p-value of 1 (i.e., a very unreliable base call). These inputs are used in the TIGR Assembler (The Institute for Genome Research, now merged into J. Craig Venter Institute & with other associations, <u>http://www.jcvi.org/cms/home/</u>). The ultimate output of the assembler is the consensus assembled sequence with the reliability score at each position.

B. Quality file

"In 2001, the human genome sequence assembly required 20,000 hours of CPU time and 500GB of storage, with the use of forty, four-processor machines, each having 4GB of RAM, running in parallel. Half of this time was employed in computing the overlaps between reads."

8.4.2. <u>Genome-Sequencing Strategies</u>: recall cloning from Chap.1:

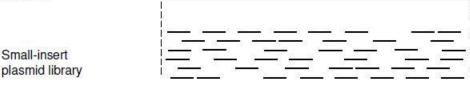


So the DNA (double-stranded genomic DNA or single-strand cDNA) is inserted into plasmid DNA (taken from bacteria) and a sequence primer is added – then called a recombinant plasmid. The plasmid is put in water with bacteria and heated so the plasmid enters into the bacteria. The goal is to then grow the bacteria (i.e., makes copies or clones). Aside: bacteriophage lambda is a virus which infects a bacterium.

All genome sequencing strategies require cloning and shotgun sequencing: "the differences in strategies lie in the use of clone mapping, and the point at which random shotgun sequencing is initiated." "Three particular strategies are: the clone-by-clone shotgun approach, shotgun sequencing of BACs joined into a minimum tiling path by sequence-tagged connectors, and wholegenome shotgun (WGS) assembly."

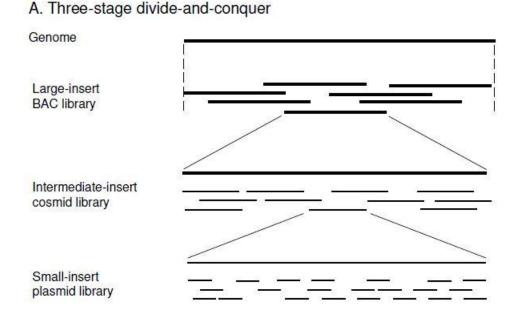
C. Whole-genome shotgun sequencing

Genome



The (last) WGS assembly approach (illustrated above) was first used for viral genomes (such as the cauliflower mosaic virus: 8031bp, and bacteriophage lambda: 48502bp); randomly selected small-insert clones are used. Appears not feasible for larger genomes due to long repeats and lack of computing power. Note that here sequence coverage is the average number of times any given genomic base is represented in sequence reads.

The top-down approach is illustrated next – it was thought that this 'divide-and-conquer' strategy would be useful for the Human Genome Project:

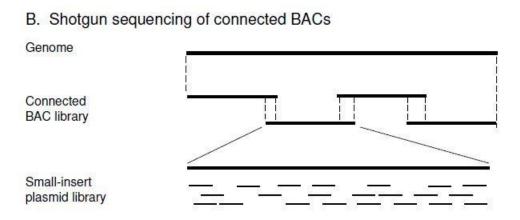


The differences above (plasmids at bottom, cosmids in center, BACs at top) correspond to size: plasmids (Lederberg, 1952) are vectors akin to viruses and can accept DNA inserts of up to about 15kb; cosmids (Collins & Hohn, 1978) are a type of plasmids but they contain cos sequences and can accept inserts up to about 45-50kb, and BACs up to 300kb; the following link may be helpful: <u>http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Genomic_library</u>

This 3-stage method includes: construct a high-resolution genetic map, a low resolution physical map from large-insert clones (BACs), and a high resolution physical map bases on cosmids.

A third choice ("B" in the diagram) is a hybrid (intermediate approach); the intermediate insert cosmid step is omitted by

using large-insert BAC clones and sequence-tagged connectors (note the overlap at the ends below); PCR reactions are used to amplify unique sequences at the ends of a BAC. Then, each BAC clone (insert size ~150kb) is subjected to random shotgun sequencing.



8.4.3. <u>Whole-Genome Shotgun Sequencing of Eukaryotic</u> <u>Genomes</u>: WGS not practical for some eukaryotes; for example, "the human genome consists of about 45% repeated sequences

"the human genome consists of about 45% repeated sequences, with over a million copies of Alu elements alone."

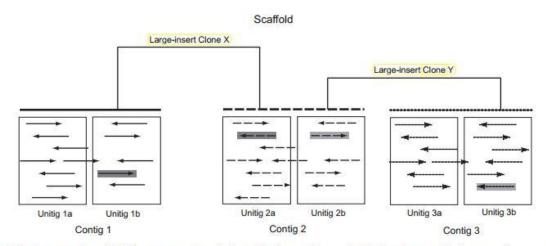


Fig. 8.7. Anatomy of a scaffold. Sequence reads are indicated by lines with arrowheads. Based upon pairwise comparisons, sequence reads can be assembled into small contigs called *unitigs*, which can further be merged into larger *contigs* based upon sequence reads present as mate pairs on small- and intermediate-insert clones. Contigs are completely spanned by a DNA sequence, although not all regions may have the same depth of coverage. Contigs can be further grouped to form a *scaffold*. Even though the regions between these contigs may not be represented by a DNA sequence, large-insert clones X and Y whose mate-pair reads lie in different contigs (shaded boxes) allow those contigs to be correctly positioned and oriented.