

L7: Transcriptome challenge for bioinformatics

DNA microarrays

- Overview of a technique
- Microarray experiment design
- Data analysis – general considerations & databases
- Data analysis – steps and methods

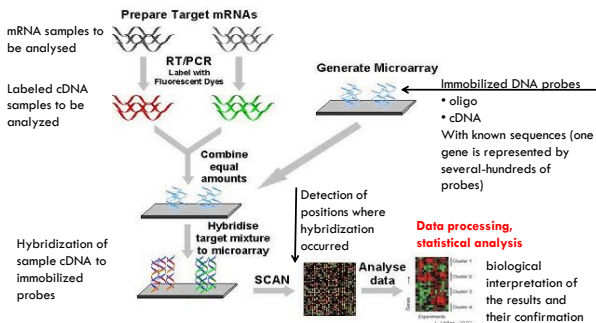
SAGE

- Overview of a technique
- Data analysis – general considerations & databases

RNA sequencing

- Overview of next generation sequencing techniques
- Data analysis – general considerations & databases

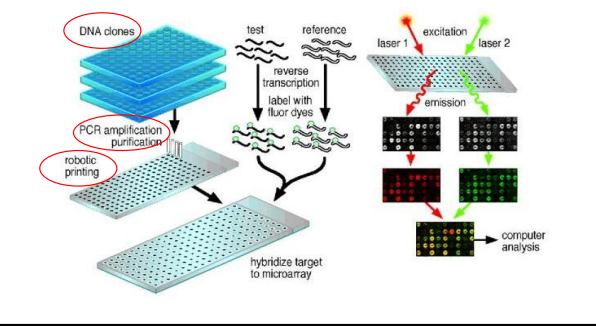
DNA microarray experiment – the principle



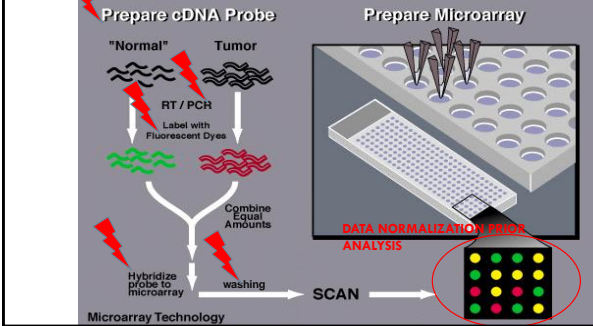
DNA microarray experiment variations

DNA probes immobilized on solid support	Sample and control RNA preparation	cDNA (cRNA) labeling	cDNA (cRNA) hybridization
oligonucleotides	Rewrite mRNA to cDNA	Fluorescently	Single sample hybridizations
cDNA	mRNA → cDNA → biotin-labelled cRNA	Radioactively	Competitive hybridization (previously labelled with two dyes e.g. Cy3 & Cy5)

Types of DNA probes - cDNA



DNA microarray experiment error-inducing points



Stage 1: Experimental design

Stage 2: RNA and probe preparation

Stage 3: Hybridization to DNA arrays

Stage 4: Image analysis

Stage 5: Microarray data analysis

Stage 6: Biological confirmation

Stage 7: Microarray databases

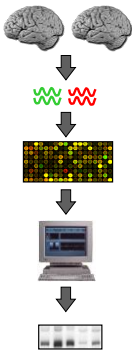


Fig. 8.17
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Stage 1: Experimental design

- [1] **Biological samples; technical and biological replicates;**
determine the data analysis approach at the beginning!
- [2] **RNA extraction, conversion, labeling, hybridization**
RNA procedures must be standardized (but still laboratory operator impact may be huge)
- [3] **Arrangement of DNA elements on a solid surface**
randomization in cDNA printing can reduce spatially-based artifacts

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Stage 2: RNA preparation

- For Affymetrix chips, need about 5 μg total RNA
- Confirm purity and integrity by running agarose gel
- Measure A_{260}/A_{280} to confirm purity and quantity
- One of the greatest sources of error in microarray experiments is artifacts associated with RNA isolation:
be sure to create an appropriately balanced, randomized experimental design (do not isolate samples for the same analysis on different days!).

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Stage 3: Hybridization to DNA arrays

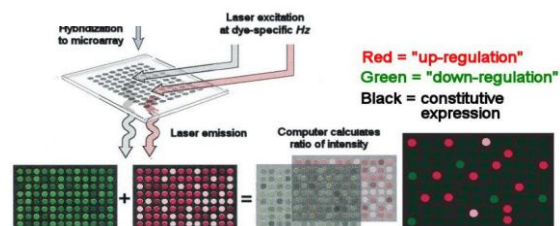
- The array consists of cDNA or oligonucleotides (several 25-mers/gene).
- Oligonucleotides can be deposited by photolithography (Affymetrix)
- The sample is converted to cRNA or cDNA (most commonly)
- For competitive approaches **equal** amount of 2 samples is essential
- Hybridization is done in specific apparatus stabilizing temperature. Buffer conditions and step washes to be optimized.

Note that the terms "probe" and "target" may refer to the element immobilized on the surface of the microarray, or to the labeled biological sample; for clarity, it may be simplest to avoid both terms.

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Stage 4: Image analysis

- Fluorescence intensity is measured with a scanner
- If competitive hybridization was used two readings are merged



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Stage 4: Image analysis

- Fluorescence intensity is measured with a scanner
- If competitive hybridization was used two readings are merged

RNA transcript levels are quantified

Many experimental designs provide set of so-called „house keeping“ genes which expression is unchanged in several cell types in broad range of conditions.

(Transcript level normalization as in RT-PCR and qRT-PCR).

Common examples:

Beta-actin, glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate dehydrogenase (GAPDH)

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Stage 5: Microarray data analysis

Preprocessing

Hypothesis testing

- How can arrays be compared?
- Which RNA transcripts (genes) levels are changed?
- Are differences authentic?
- What are the criteria for statistical significance?

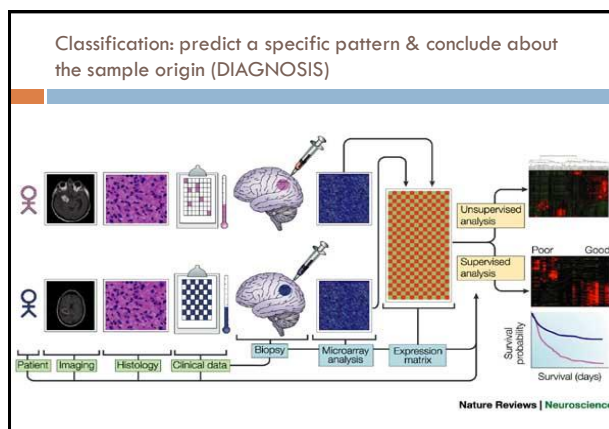
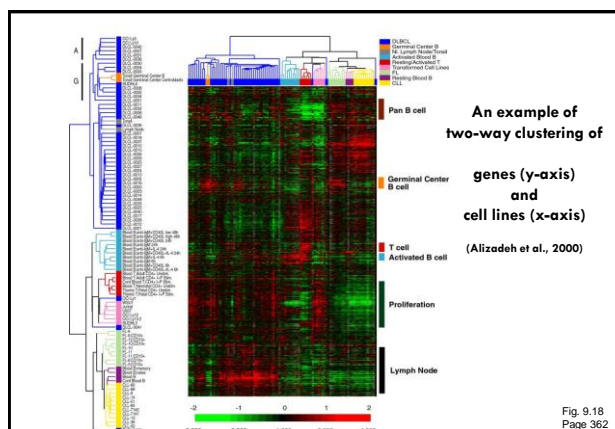
Clustering

- Are there meaningful patterns in the data (e.g. groups)?

Classification

- Do RNA transcripts predict predefined groups, such as disease subtypes?

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Stage 6: Biological confirmation

Microarray experiments can be thought of as "hypothesis-generating" experiments.

The differential up- or down-regulation of specific RNA transcripts can be measured using independent assays such as:

- Northern blots
- polymerase chain reaction (RT-PCR, qRT-PCR)
- *in situ* hybridization (confirming localization as well)

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MIAME (<http://www.mged.org>)

MIAME = Minimum Information About a Microarray Experiment was established in an effort to standardize microarray data presentation and analysis.

The MIAME framework standardizes six areas of information:

- ▶ experimental design
- ▶ microarray design
- ▶ sample preparation
- ▶ hybridization procedures
- ▶ image analysis
- ▶ controls for normalization

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Stage 5: Microarray data analysis

Preprocessing

Hypothesis testing (statistics)

- How can arrays be compared?
- Which RNA transcripts (genes) are regulated?
- Are differences authentic?
- What are the criteria for statistical significance?

Clustering

- Are there meaningful patterns in the data (e.g. groups)?

Classification

- Do RNA transcripts predict predefined groups, such as disease subtypes?

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Microarray data analysis: preprocessing

Observed differences in gene expression (fluorescence) could be due to transcriptional changes, or they could be caused by artifacts such as:

- different labeling efficiencies of Cy3, Cy5
- uneven spotting of DNA onto an array surface
- variations in RNA purity or quantity
- variations in washing efficiency
- variations in scanning efficiency

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Microarray data analysis: preprocessing

The main goal of data preprocessing is to **remove the systematic bias** in the data as completely as possible, while **preserving the variation in gene expression** that occurs because of biologically relevant changes in transcription.

A basic assumption of most normalization procedures is that the average gene expression level does not change in an experiment.

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Microarray data analysis - preprocessing

We begin with a data matrix (gene expression values versus samples)

	A	B	C	D
1	Gene Sym	Chromosome	OS_Cereb	OS_Cereb
2	ATP5O	21	10.3967	10.2140
3	CRYBB2	21	6.96712	6.07946
4	C1orf53	21	0.9064	0.74096
5	WRE	21	9.67306	9.3076
6	ALCO5	10	4.36077	4.4186
7	HEMTLL1	21	9.16697	8.91893
8	PITPH1	20	6.32176	6.27589

Typically, there are many genes (>> 20,000) and few samples (< 10)

Preprocessing

Inferential statistics

Descriptive statistics

Fig. 9.1
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Data analysis: global normalization

Global normalization is used to correct two or more data sets.

Sample RNA is labeled with **Cy3** (cyanine3 - green dye) and control RNA with **Cy5** (red dye). After hybridization and washing, probes are excited with a laser and detected with a scanning confocal microscope.

Example: total fluorescence read in

Cy3 channel = 4 million fluoresc. units

Cy 5 channel = 2 million fluoresc. units

Then the **uncorrected ratio for a gene** could show 2,000 units versus 1,000 units. This would artifactually appear to show **2-fold regulation**!

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Data analysis: global normalization

Global normalization procedure

Step 1: subtract background intensity values
(use a blank (with no RNA added) region of the array)

Step 2: globally normalize so that the average ratio = 1
(apply this to 1-channel or 2-channel data sets)

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Scatter plots

Are useful to represent and compare gene expression values from two microarray experiments (e.g. from control & tested conditions, two different cell types, normal and diseased samples etc.)

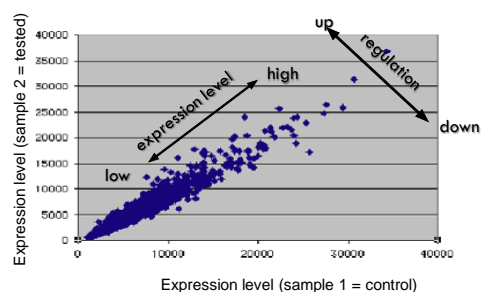
Each dot corresponds to a gene expression value

Most dots fall along a line

Outliers represent up-regulated or down-regulated genes

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Scatter plots

Fig. 9.2
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Scatter plots

Typically, data are plotted on log-log coordinates (in stead of row data)

Visually, this spreads out the data and offers **symmetry**:

Sam- ple	time point	transcript behavior	raw fluorecence ratio value	log ₂ ratio value
C	t=0	basal	1.0	0.0
1	t=1h	no change	1.0	0.0
2	t=2h	2-fold up	2.0	1.0
3	t=3h	2-fold down	0.5	-1.0

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Scatter plots of log-log coordinates

After RMA (a normalization procedure), the median is near zero, and skewing is corrected.

Scatterplots above display the effects of normalization.

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The R Project for Statistical Computing

http://www.r-project.org

Robust multi-array analysis (RMA)

- Developed by Rafael Irizarry, Terry Speed and others
- Available at www.bioconductor.org as an R package

There are three RMA steps:

- [1] Background adjustment
based on a normal plus exponential model (no mismatch data are used)
- [2] Quantile normalization
(nonparametric fitting of signal intensity data to normalize their distribution)
- [3] Fitting a log scale additive model robustly.
The model is additive: probe effect + sample effect

Histograms of raw intensity values for 14 arrays (plotted in R) before RMA was applied.

Histograms of raw intensity values for 14 arrays (plotted in R) after RMA was applied.

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Inferential statistics

Inferential statistics are used to make conclusions about a population from a sample.

Hypothesis testing is a common form of inferential statistics.

A **null hypothesis** is stated, such as:
"There is no difference in signal intensity for the gene expression measurements in normal and diseased samples."
The **alternative hypothesis** is that there is a difference.

We use a test statistic to decide whether to accept or reject the null hypothesis.

For many applications, we set the significance level to $p < 0.05$.

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Inferential statistics

A **t-test** is a commonly used test statistic to assess the difference in mean values between two groups.

$$t = \frac{x_1 - x_2}{SE} = \frac{\text{difference between mean values}}{\text{variability (standard error of the difference)}}$$

Questions:

Is the sample size (n) adequate?

Are the data normally distributed?

Is the variance of the data known?

Is the variance the same in the two groups?

Is it appropriate to set the significance level to $p < 0.05$?

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Inferential statistics methods

Paradigm	Parametric test	Nonparametric
Compare two unpaired groups	Unpaired t-test (independent samples)	Mann-Whitney test
Compare two paired groups	Paired t-test (e.g. repetitions of measurement)	Wilcoxon test
Compare 3 or more groups	ANOVA	

Paired t-test is more powerful as paired units are similar with respect to noise factors

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Inferential statistics

Is it appropriate to set the significance level to $p < 0.05$?

If you hypothesize that a specific gene is up-regulated, you can set the probability value to 0.05.

You might measure the expression of 10,000 genes and hope that any of them are up- or down-regulated. But you can expect to see 5% (500 genes) regulated at the $p < 0.05$ level by chance alone.

To account for the thousands of repeated measurements you are making, **some researchers apply** a Bonferroni correction. The level for statistical significance is divided by the number of measurements, e.g. the criterion becomes:

$$p < (0.05)/10,000 \quad \text{or} \quad p < 5 \times 10^{-6}$$

But the Bonferroni correction is generally considered to be too conservative...

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Inferential statistics: false discovery rate

The **false discovery rate** (FDR) is a popular multiple corrections correction.

A **false discovery** = false positive (also called a type I error)

The FDR equals the p value of the t-test multiplied by the number of genes measured (e.g. for 10,000 genes and a p value of 0.01, $FDR=100$ means that there are 100 expected false positives).

You can adjust the false discovery rate. For example:

FDR	# regulated transcripts	# false discoveries
0.1	100	10
0.05	45	3
0.01	20	1

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Descriptive statistics

Microarray data are highly dimensional: there are many thousands of measurements made from a small number of samples.

Descriptive (exploratory) statistics help you to find meaningful patterns in the data.

A first step is to arrange the data in a matrix.

Next, use a **distance metric** to define the relatedness of the different data points. Two commonly used distance metrics are:

- Euclidean distance
- Pearson coefficient of correlation

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Principal components analysis (PCA)

Principal components analysis is an exploratory technique used to reduce the dimensionality of the data set to 2D or 3D.

For a matrix of **m genes x n samples**,
create a new, covariance matrix of size **n x n**

Thus transform some large number of variables into a smaller number of uncorrelated variables called **principal components** (PCs).

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Principal components analysis (PCA): objectives

- to reduce dimensionality
- to determine the linear combination of variables
- to choose the most useful variables (features)
- to visualize multidimensional data
- to identify groups of objects (e.g. genes/samples)
- to identify outliers

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Stage 5: Microarray data analysis

Preprocessing

Hypothesis testing

- How can arrays be compared?
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- Are differences authentic?
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Clustering

- Are there meaningful patterns in the data (e.g. groups)?

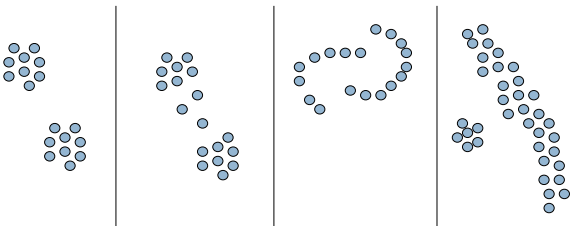
Classification

- Do RNA transcripts predict predefined groups, such as disease subtypes?

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What is a cluster?

A cluster is a group that has **homogeneity** (internal cohesion) and **separation** (external isolation). The relationships between objects being studied are assessed by similarity or dissimilarity measures.



Descriptive statistics: clustering

Clustering algorithms offer useful visual descriptions of microarray data.

We may wish to cluster: genes, samples or both

Hierarchical clustering.

Agglomerative

(beginning with the two most closely related objects (like UPGMA))

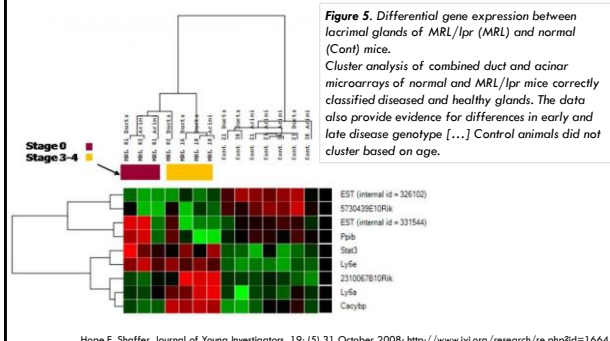
Divisive

(beginning by finding the most dissimilar objects first).

In each case, we end up with a tree having branches and nodes.

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Results of clustering: finding a relationship between gene expression profiles and phenotypes



Problems with microarray experiments

Cost

- hard to afford to do appropriate numbers of internal controls, technical replicates (min 5) & biological replicates (min 3)

Knowledge limitations

- Available only for known genomes!
- Noncoding (regulatory) RNAs not yet fully represented

Quality control

- Artifacts with image analysis
- Artifacts with data analysis
- Attention to experimental design needed
- Tight collaboration with statisticians exceptionally important

SAGE is not only a herb...



□ **SAGE = serial analysis of gene expression** (V. Velculescu, 1995)

The principle:

- Calculate the amount of mRNA molecules using its unique, short representatives – so called „tags“
- Gene expression level measure is **quantitative**
- It is possible to analyze **unknown** sequences (you don't need to know genome sequence *a priori*)

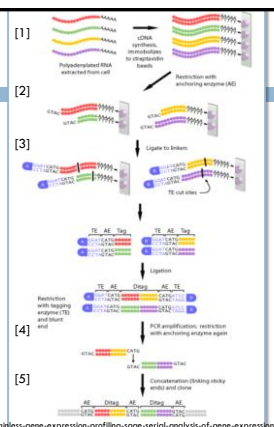
Assumptions:

- It is possible to prepare tags representing every transcript in the cell
- 18bp-long tag is unique in transcriptome (classic version of SAGE produce 14bp-long tags which are shared by some mRNAs)
- All transcripts possess appropriate restriction sites

SAGE

- [1] mRNA isolation and cDNA synthesis & streptavidin binding
- [2] tags preparation: restriction digestion with AE (frequently cutting restrictionase with 4bp recognition site),
- [3] ditags preparation: ligation with two types of linkers (A,B) possessing type IIS restriction sites; restriction digestion with TE (20bp away from its recognition site) – bead release, blunt ends ligation
- [4] PCR amplification of ditags with primers complementary to the two linkers' sequences (A&B), enrichment of ditags in a mixture
- [5] AE digestion of amplified ditags (linker release) and their ligation to create a construct ready for vector cloning

Sequencing



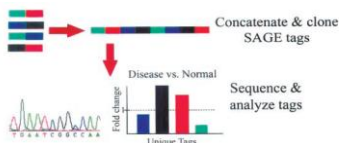
<http://www.scribbr.ca/postless-gene-expression-profiles-sage-serial-analysis-of-gene-expression/>

SAGE data analysis – general considerations

The output of SAGE:

a list of tags and the number of times they were observed

- Statistical methods are applied to count lists of tags from different samples



SAGE data analysis – general considerations

SAGE results analysis:

- [1] decipher the SAGE tags from the sequence data files
- [2] download a sequence database from the NCBI
- [3] associate the tags to the expressed gene database

The **relative transcript abundance** can then be calculated by dividing the **unique tag count** by the total tags sequenced, and the **fold change** can be determined by the **ratio of tags between libraries (samples)**.

Patino et al., Circ Res. 2002;91:565-569

SAGE data analysis – [1] from ditags to tags

- Locate the punctuation – restriction site of AE: “CATG”
- Extract ditags of length 20-26 between the punctuation
- Discard duplicate ditags (including in reverse direction) -- probably PCR artifacts
- Take extreme 10 bases as the two tags, reversing right-hand tag
- Discard linker sequences
- Count occurrences of each tag

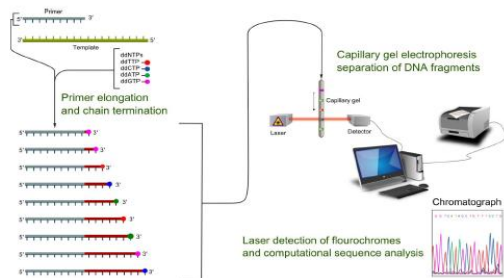
SAGE data analysis – [3] from tags to genes

- Collect sequence records from GenBank (UniGene collection of ESTs)
- Assign sequence orientation (by finding poly-A tail or poly-A signal or from annotations)
- Extract 10-bases 3'-adjacent to 3'-most CATG
- Assign UniGene identifier to each sequence with a SAGE tag
- Record (for each tag-gene pair)
 - #sequences with this tag
 - #sequences in gene cluster with this tag

Ideal situation:
one gene = one tag

True situation:
one gene = many tags (alternative splicing & polyadenylation)
one tag = many genes (conserved 3' regions)

1st generation sequencing



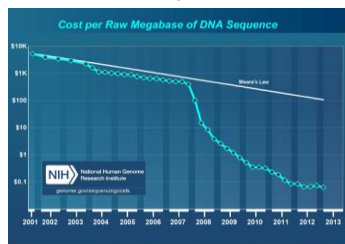
Conventional DNA sequencing limitations

- The rate-limiting step: the need to separate randomly terminated DNA fragments by gel electrophoresis
- Relatively low number of samples could be analyzed in parallel
- Total automation of the sample preparation methods is difficult
- DNA fragments need to be cloned into bacteria for larger sequences
- High cost of sequencing
- Sequencing errors. Level of sensitivity (generally estimated at 10-20%) insufficient for detection of clinically relevant low-level mutant alleles or organisms.
- *cis* or *trans* orientation of heterozygous positions may be difficult to resolve during data analysis.
- Not readily scalable to achieve a throughput capable of efficiently analyzing complex diploid genomes at low cost.
- *de novo* genome assembly is difficult

Fakruddin and Abhijit Chowdhury, Pyrosequencing-An Alternative to Traditional Sanger Sequencing, American Journal of Biochemistry and Biotechnology 8 (11): 14-20, 2012.

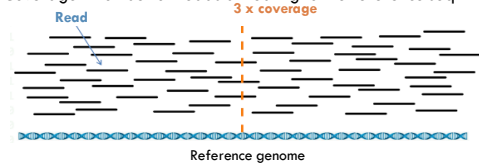
New (next) generation sequencing

- Fragment DNA, multiply them and sequence in parallel huge number of short fragments



A few new words...

- Library – collection of DNA/RNA fragments with appropriate adaptors (sequences added for amplification and sequencing)
- Read – result of the sequencing experiment (adaptor seq. Most often deleted by sequencing machine software)
- Coverage – number of reads annealing to the reference seq.



idea4biology.com

RNA Sequencing

Steps in Preparing an RNA-Seq Library

1. Purify RNA
2. Bind polyA fraction (mRNA)
3. Fragment RNA (200 bp)
4. Convert to cDNA by random priming
5. Apply adaptors and sequence
6. Analyze millions of 25 bp reads

geospiza

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http://findtalk.geospiza.com/2008_09_01_archive.html

NGS platforms

- **Illumina** Genome Analyzer Iix, HiSeq HiSeq 2000, MiSeq (in situ synthesis approach; short reads: 50-250 nt; most frequently cited platform)
- **Life Sciences/Roche 454** (pyrosequencing; longer reads – up to 700 nt)
- **ABI Solid Sequencing System** (2-mer ligation strategy; short reads: 50 nt; the lowest cost per site)
- **Ion Torrent** (pH measurement, the lowest cost of the instrument)
- **Pacific Biosciences** (immobilised single polymerase molecule)
- Nanopore sequencing – research stage
- your idea?

Bridge-PCR based cluster formation

illumina®

Illumina/Solexa
Solid-phase amplification
One DNA molecule per cluster

Sample preparation
DNA (5 µg)

Template
dNTPs and polymerase

Bridge amplification

100-200 million molecular clusters

Cluster growth

Metzker 2010

ideas4biology.com

In situ synthesis approach

anchor single DNA molecules to solid surface

copy each molecule in situ by PCR to amplify template

1. 3'-...CATAAAAGCCGTGTC...
5'-...
add 4 colour labeled reversible terminating, polymerase, universal primer

2. 3'-...CATAAAAGCCGTGTC...
5'-...
remove unincorporated nucleotides

3. 3'-...CATAAAAGCCGTGTC...
5'-...
detect with laser

4. 3'-...CATAAAAGCCGTGTC...
5'-...
reverse termination (chemically or enzymatically)
repeat cycle 1-100 times

Roche 454 – emulsion PCR

One DNA molecule per bead. Clonal amplification to thousands of copies occurs in microreactors in an emulsion

Primer, template, dNTPs and polymerase

PCR amplification

Break emulsion

Template dissociation

100-200 million beads

Chemically cross-linked to a glass slide

Roche/454, Life/APG, Polonator
Emulsion PCR

ion torrent by life technologies™

Polymerase integrates a nucleotide.

Hydrogen ions level (pH) is measured

Hydrogen and pyrophosphate are released.

Sequential flow of dNTP

www.wikipedia.com

Immobilised polymerase instead of DNA

Pacific Biosciences, Life/Visigen, LI-COR Biosciences
Single molecule: polymerase immobilized

Thousands of primed, single-molecule templates

NGS applications

Sekwencjonowanie genomów

Sekwencjonowanie transkryptomów (RNA-Seq)

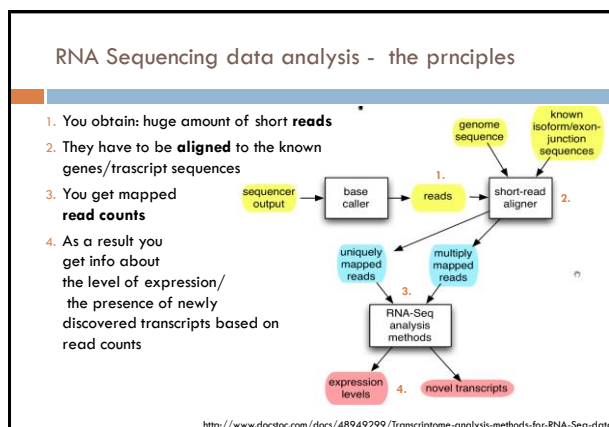
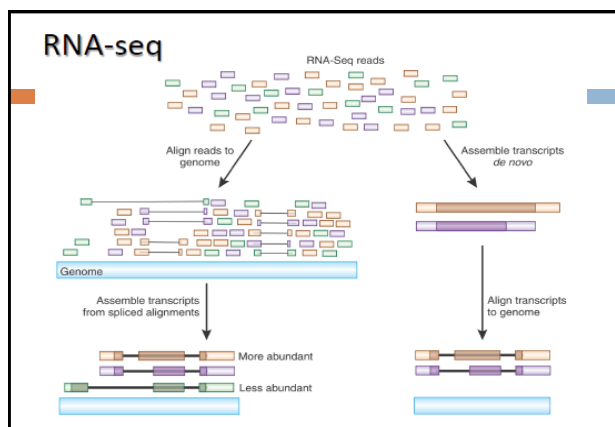
Interakcje białko – RNA (CLIP-seq)

Interakcje białko – DNA (ChIP-seq)

Badanie metylacji DNA

Metagenomika

ideas4biology.com



Raw and Aligned Reads

- Raw data is a (large) set of sequences
- Typical read file format is FASTQ


```
@HWI-EAS255_4_FC2010Y_1_43_110_790
TTAATCTACAGATAGATAGCTAGCATATATTT
+
hhhhhhhhhhhhhhhhhhhhhhhhhhhhhdRehdh
```

Read Identifier

Bases called

Base quality codes
- Alignment to genome is done by efficient indexing of seed sequences
- Aligned reads typically are in SAM format:

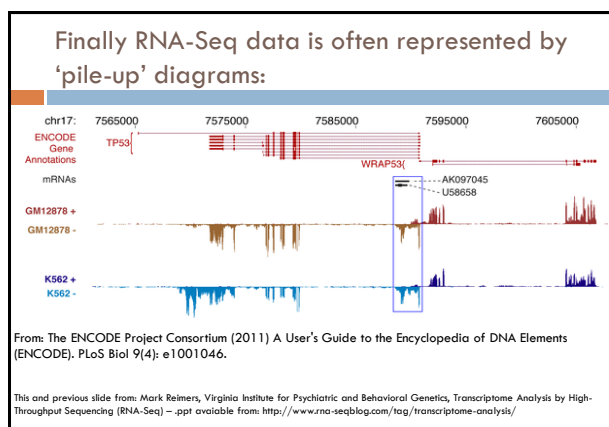

```
@HWI-... 163 chr19 9900 10000 16M2I25M
```

Read identifier

Where this read matched

Start and end positions

Codes for match: 16 matches, 2 extra,...



NGS results depositories – SRA (@NCBI)

- SRA = Sequence Read Archive
- Data in SRA come from the following platforms: 454, IonTorrent, Illumina, SOLiD, Helicos, Complete Genomics (data are cataloged by the method used)
- <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Traces/sra/>
- ENA – European Nucleotide Archive (@EBI)
- GEO – Gene expression Omnibus (@NCBI)

RNA Sequencing resources:

www.rna-seqblog.com

www.seqanswers.com

www.blueseq.com

Medicalgenomics

RNA-Seq Atlas - News

RNA-Seq Atlas - A reference database for gene expression profiling in normal tissue by next generation sequencing

RNA-Seq Atlas is a web-based repository of RNA-Seq gene expression profiles and query tools.

The website offers free and easy access to RNA-Seq gene expression profiles and tools to both compare tissues and find genes with specific expression patterns. To enlarge the scope of the RNA-Seq atlas, the data were linked to extensive functional and genetic databases. Additionally, data were linked to multiple microarray gene expression profiles normal as well as pathological tissue states and our data search interface allows an integrative detailed comparison between our RNA-Seq data and the microarray information.

Data access and query tools

Data access:

Table view of all entries within the database.

Search section:

- Full-text search
- Comparison of specific tissue profiles: view allowing for comparative analysis not only between normal tissue information but also to NCBI data and thus between normal and tumor tissues.
- Explore common (and diverse) gene expression profiles between tissues.
- Explore pathway profiles: e.g. selecting one or multiple KEGG pathway resulting in a list of associated genes.

Download section:

Download RNA-Seq atlas in tab separated text file format.

Data:

- **RNA-Seq:** The RNA-Seq atlas genome-wide expression compendium originates from human tissue samples profiled from multiple donors spanning 22,816 specific transcripts corresponding to a 24,000 gene set. The tissue includes adipose, blood, brain, breast, colon, esophagus, liver, lung, muscle, skeletal muscle, skin, stomach, testis, and thyroid.
- **Microarray:** Tissue (for more information see: <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/geo/>).

© 2012 Medicalgenomics. Multiple microarrays were adapted from BioGPS (2012) et al.