#### Bioinformatics: Genomics Part II

### Applications of Sequencing Technology

Matt Simon Dept. of Molecular Biophysics & Biochemistry Chemical Biology Institute January 23, 2017

#### Overview

- Genomics I (Wednesday's lecture): Focus on sequencing technology and genomes.
- Genomics II: (Today's lecture): Focus on applications of sequencing technology.
  - 1. Annotation of the genome in chromatin
  - 2. Regulation of gene expression at the level of RNA

Credit: Jim Noonan for many of the slides

### Genomics lecture 1 summary

### 1. Isolation of sample.

e.g., Isolate DNA and shear.

### 2. Library preparation

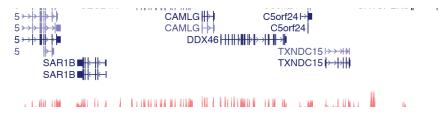
e.g., Clean up and ligate Y-adaptors.

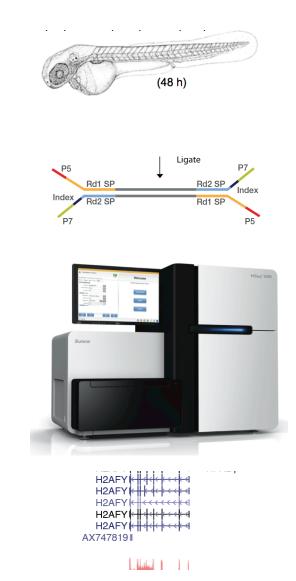
### 3. Sequencing

e.g., Illumina HiSeq

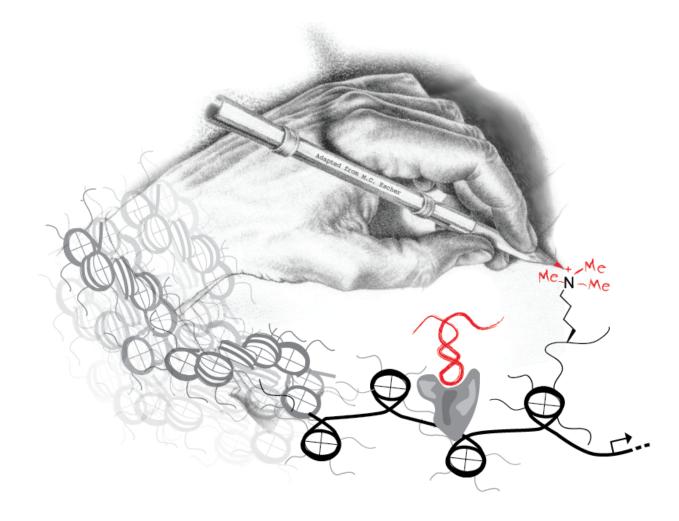
### 4. Analysis

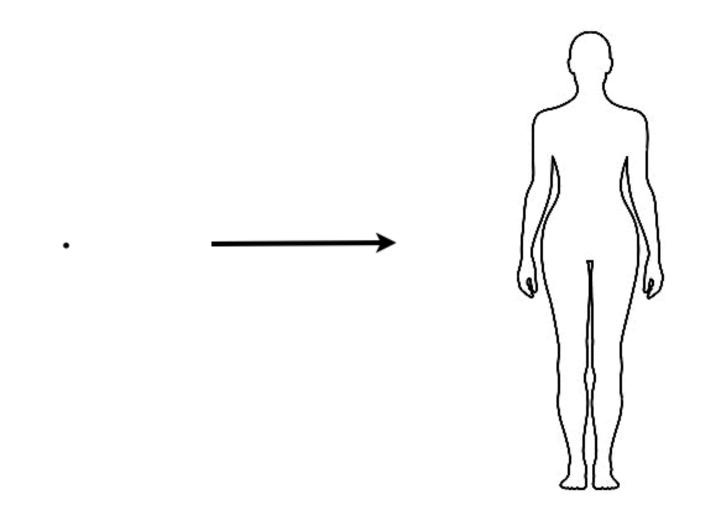
e.g., Map to genome and interpret.



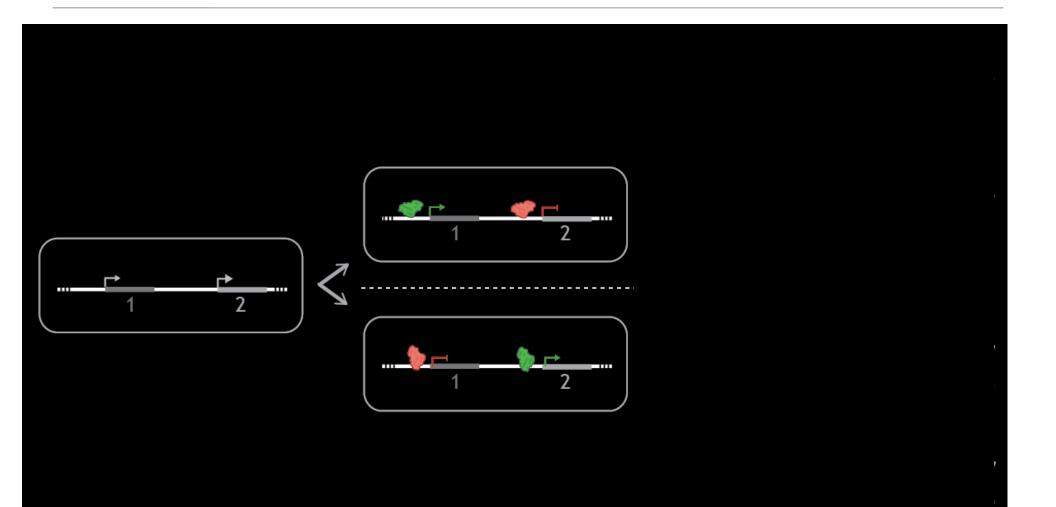


#### Part 1. How do cells annotate their genomes?

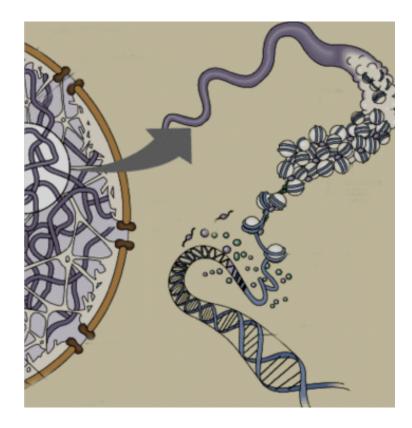


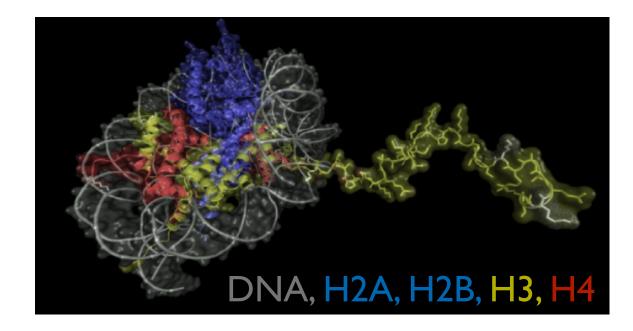


## How is gene expression regulated and faithfully inherited?



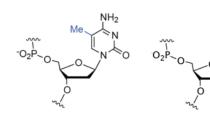
#### DNA in the cell is packaged into chromatin



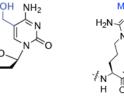


Modeled nucleosome based on Luger et al., Nature 1997 389, 251.

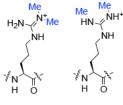
### Summary and nomenclature of common covalent modifications.



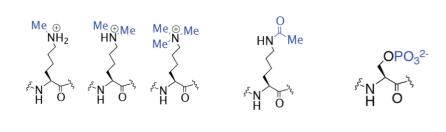
mC



Rme1



Rme2a Rme2s



Kme3

Kac

Sph

H4 H2B C-term H3K79 H2A C-term H2A K12 K119 H3 Histone globular regions Acetyl Lys Methyl Arg H2B Methyl Lys Phosphoryl Ser Ubiquityl Lys

hmC

**H3** K27 ac  $\Box_{\mu}$ Residue Modification Histone

Turner, B. M. Reading signals on the nucleosome with a new nomenclature for modified histones. Nat Struct Mol Biol 12, 110-112 (2005). 8

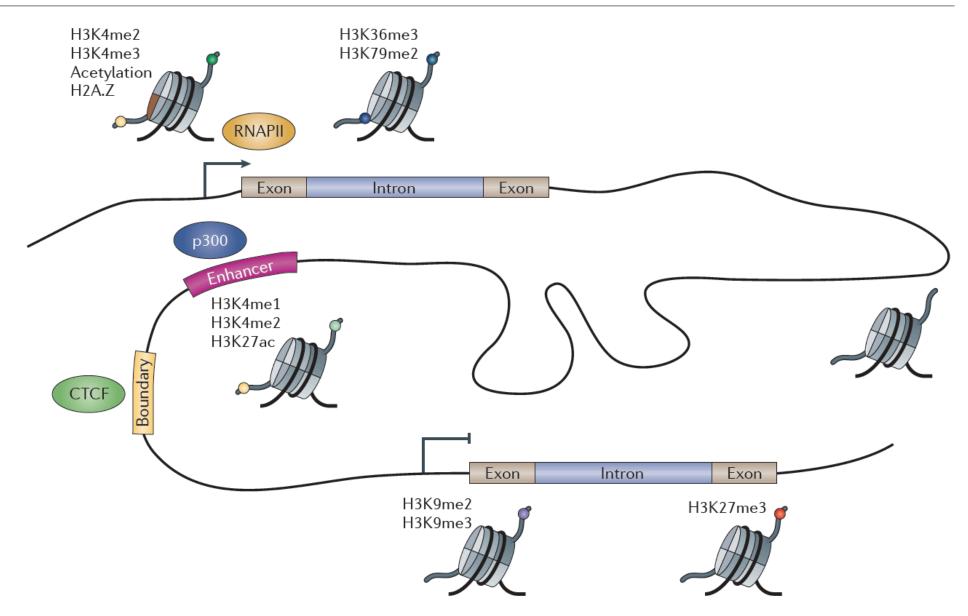
#### Table 1 The Brno nomenclature for histone modifications

Kme1

Modifying group	Amino acid(s) modified	Level of modification	Abbreviation for modification <sup>a</sup>	Examples of modified residues <sup>1</sup> H3K9ac	
Acetyl-	Lysine	mono-	ас		
Methyl-	Arginine	mono-	me1	H3R17me1	
	Arginine	di-, symmetrical	me2s	H3R2me2s	
	Arginine	di-, asymmetrical	me2a	H3R17me2a	
	Lysine	mono-	me1	H3K4me1	
	Lysine	di-	me2	H3K4me2	
	Lysine	tri-	me3	H3K4me3	
Phosphoryl-	Serine or threonine	mono-	ph	H3S10ph	
Ubiquityl-	Lysine	mono- <sup>c</sup>	ubl	H2BK123ub1	
SUMOyl-	Lysine	mono-	su	H4K5su <sup>d</sup>	
ADP ribosyl-	Glutamate	mono-	arl	H2BE2ar1	
	Glutamate	poly-	arn	H2BE2arn <sup>d</sup>	

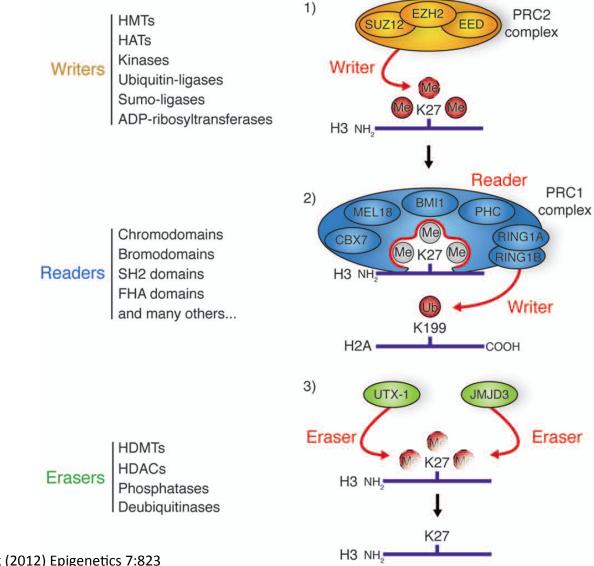
Kme2

# Chromatin modifications correlate with different genomic functions.



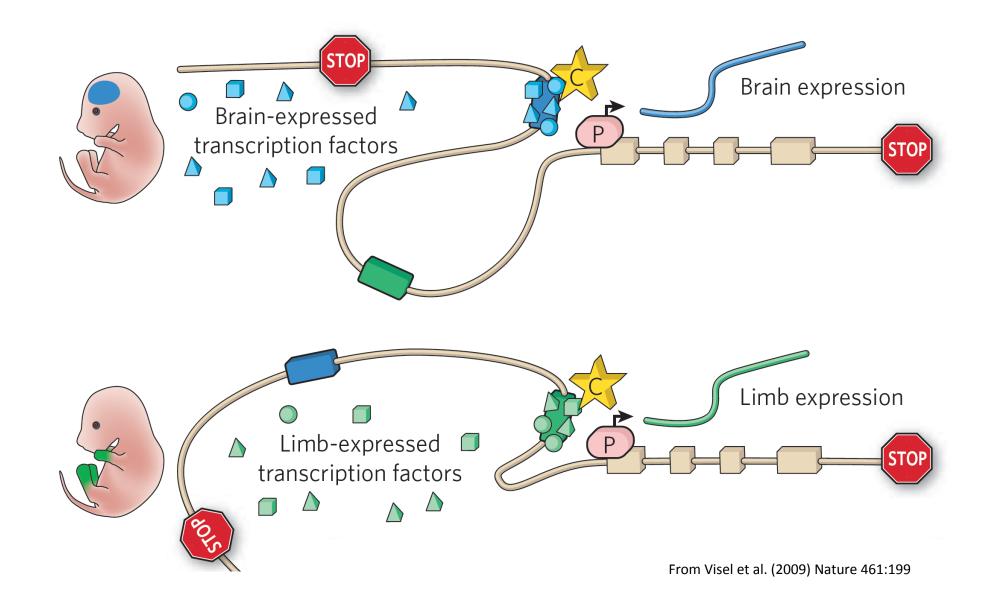
Zhou et al. Nat Rev Genet 12:7 (2011)

#### Installing, binding, and removing modifications



Tollervey and Lunyak (2012) Epigenetics 7:823 Ram et al., Cell 147:1628 (2011)

#### Regulation is temporally and specially controlled



### Using sequencing to annotate the genome

#### 1. Where are the cis-acting regulatory elements in DNA?

- A. DNase I hyper-sensitivity mapping (DNase-Seq).
- B. FAIRE to map regulatory elements.

#### 2. Where do transcription factors bind?

- C. ChIP-seq of transcription factors (or in high res, ChIP-exo)
- D. Nucleosome mapping (MNase-Seq).

#### 3. Where are different histone modifications found?

- E. ChIP-Seq of histone modifications.
- F. ChIP-Seq of chromatin writers, readers and erasers.
- 4. Where is RNA polymerase transcribing?
  - G. ChIP-Seq of polymerase.
  - H. GRO-Seq, NET-Seq and TT-Seq to measure RNA in the polymerase active site..
- 5. How is the genome organized in 3D?
  - I. 4C/5C/Hi-C to measure chromatin conformation.

### Using sequencing to annotate the genome

- 1. Where are the cis-acting regulatory elements in DNA?
  - A. DNase I hyper-sensitivity mapping (DNase-Seq).
  - B. FAIRE to map regulatory elements.

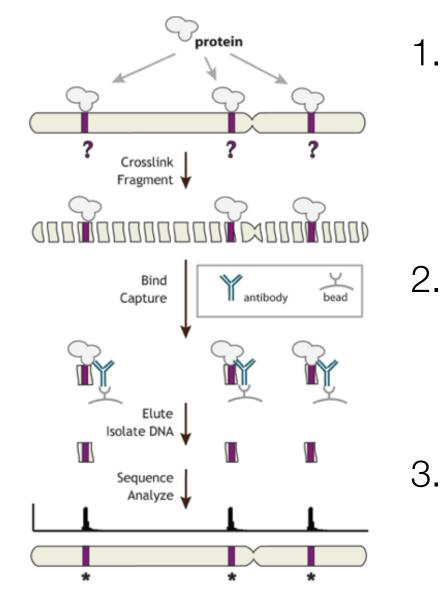
#### 2. Where do transcription factors bind?

- C. ChIP-seq of transcription factors (or in high res, ChIP-exo)
- D. Nucleosome mapping (MNase-Seq).

#### 3. Where are different histone modifications found?

- E. ChIP-Seq of histone modifications.
- F. ChIP-Seq of chromatin writers, readers and erasers.
- 4. Where is RNA polymerase transcribing?
  - G. ChIP-Seq of polymerase.
  - H. GRO-Seq, NET-Seq and TT-Seq to measure RNA in the polymerase active site..
- 5. How is the genome o, rganized in 3D?
  - . 4C/5C/Hi-C to measure chromatin conformation.

Localization of proteins in the genome with chromatin immunoprecipitation (ChIP-Seq)



#### **Crosslink** the cells with formaldehyde to "fix" factors in place. Exception: Native ChIP with histone

Exception: Native ChIP with histone antibodies.

### 2. Shear chromatin to

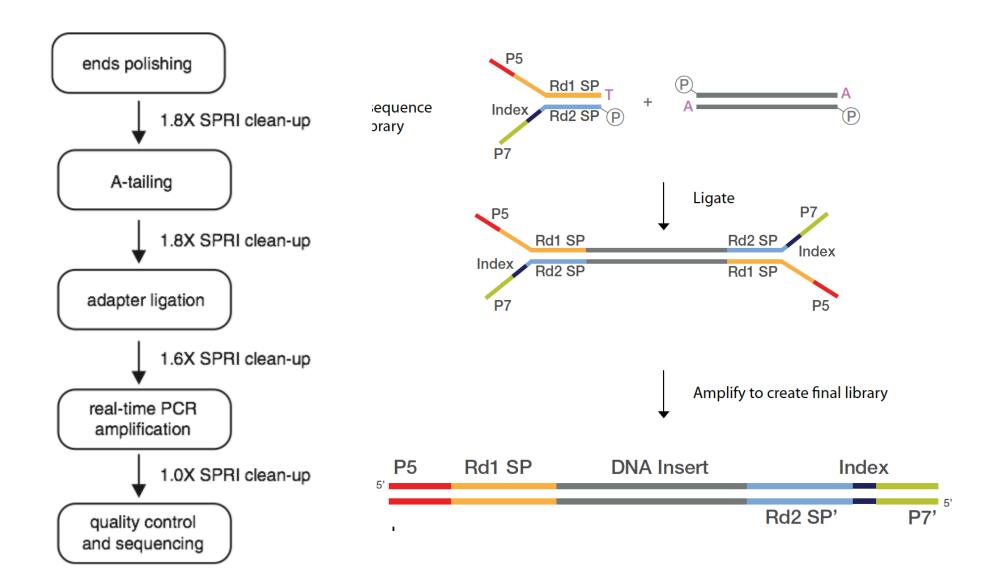
#### smaller pieces.

Shear size determines resolution. Note: ChIP-exo uses an exonuclease at a later step to increase resolution.

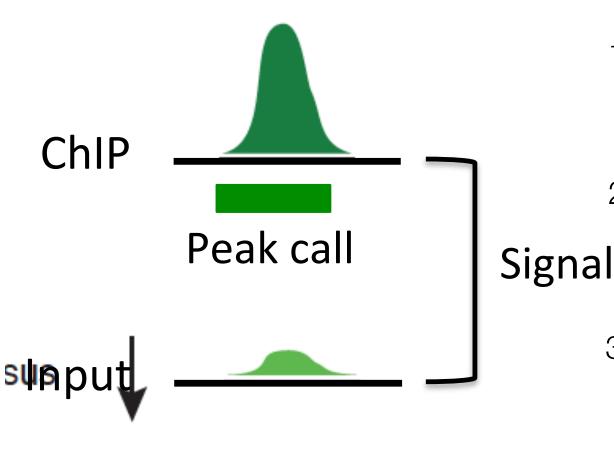
# . **Enrich** target using an antibody.

Enrichment is only as good as the antibody.

### Preparing a Seq library using ChIP-enriched DNA.

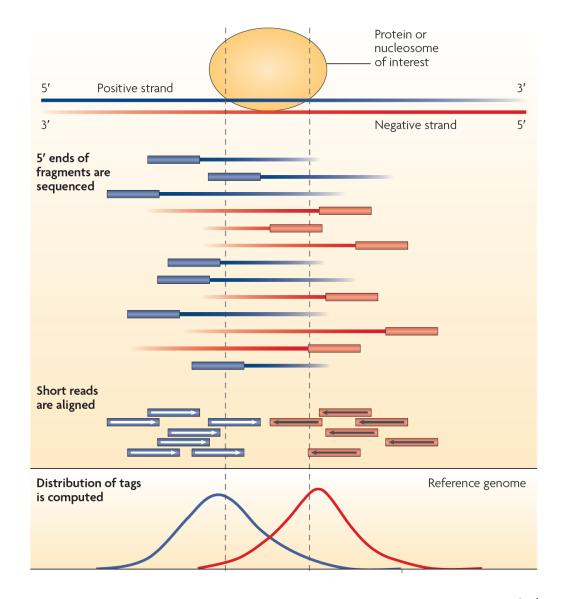


### Determining sites of enrichment from ChIP-Seq



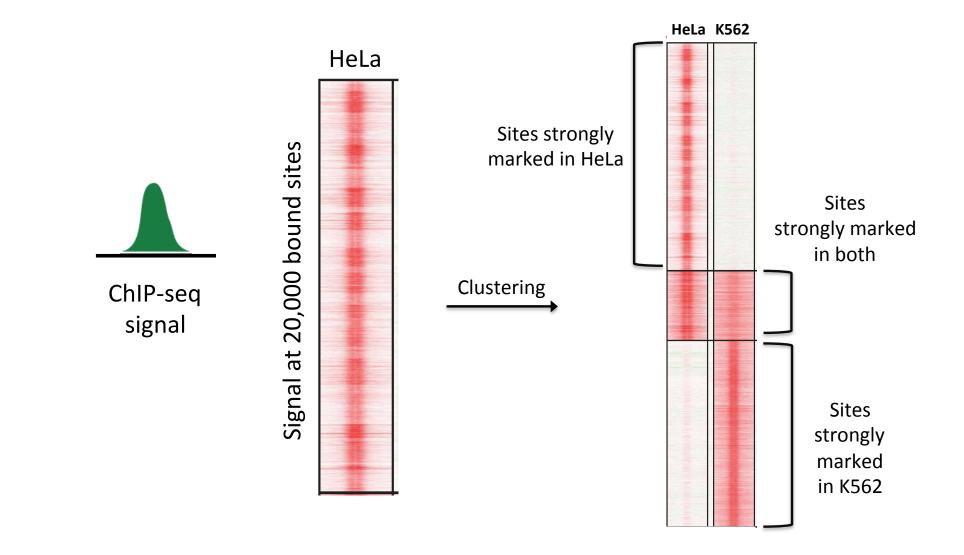
- 1. **Align** reads to the genome.
- Compare to input to look
   for enrichment.
   Input coverage is not even.
- 3. **Call peaks** to determine statistically significant sites of enrichment.

#### Avoiding artifacts using features in Seq data

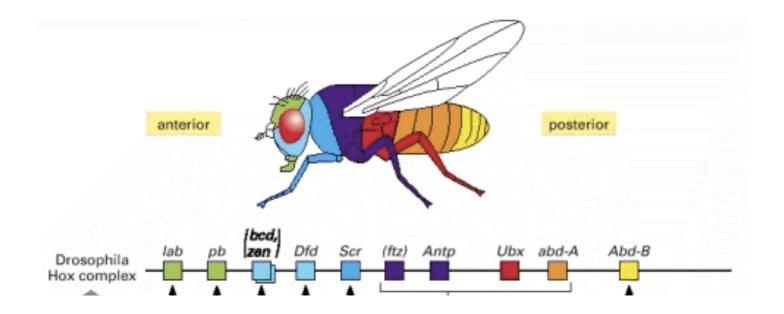


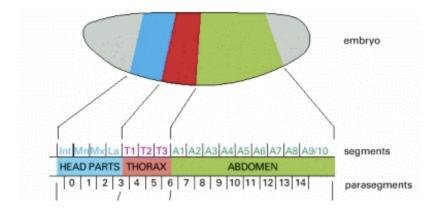
From Park (2009) Nat Rev Genet 10:669

#### ChIP-Seq signals reveal difference between cells

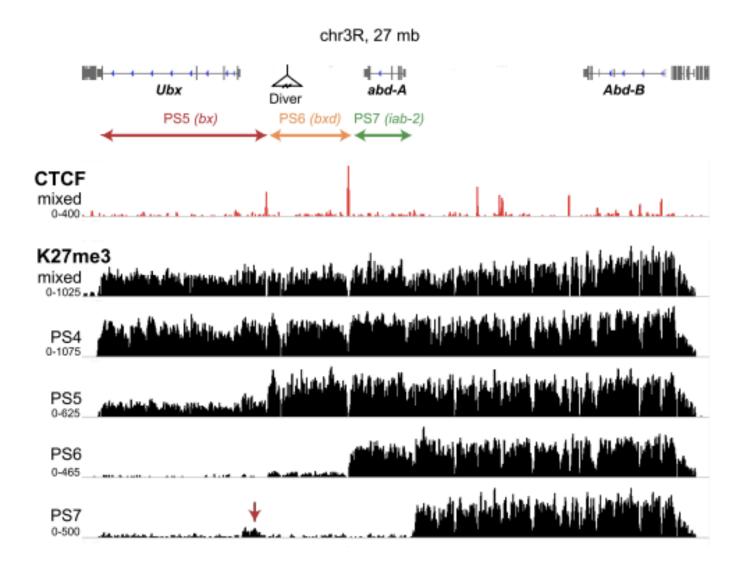


#### Example: Anterior-to-posterior body plan in flies



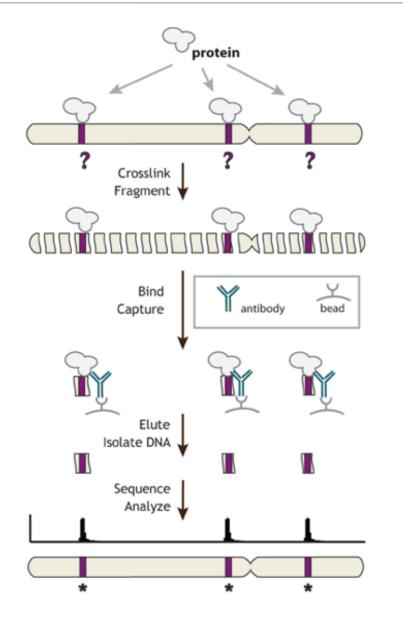


#### ChIP of CTCF and H3K27me3 in fly development



Bowman, S. K. et al. Elife 3, e02833 (2014).

#### Limitations of ChIP-Seq

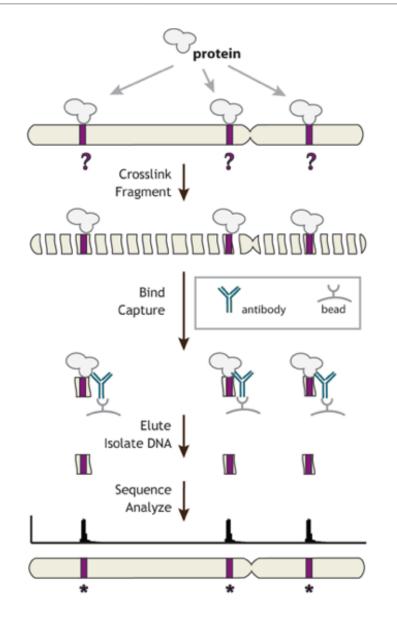


- 1. **Cross linking** efficiency is not necessarily uniform.
- 2. Enrichment is dependent on the **quality of antibody.** e.g., Site and degree of histone modifications.
- 3. Enrichment is dependent on the accessibility of the epitope.

Comparing different sites to each other in the genome can be problematic.

4. Output is **descriptive**. Hard to infer function without more experimentation.

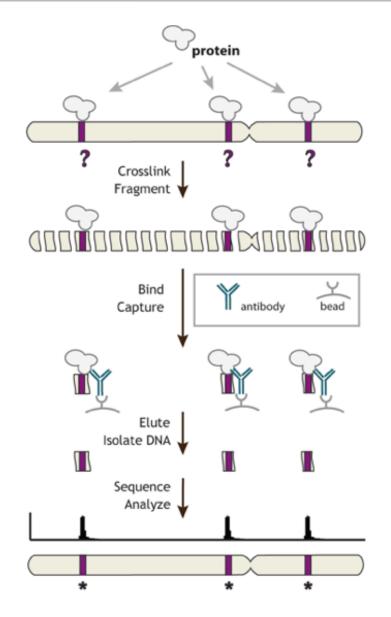
#### Extensions of ChIP

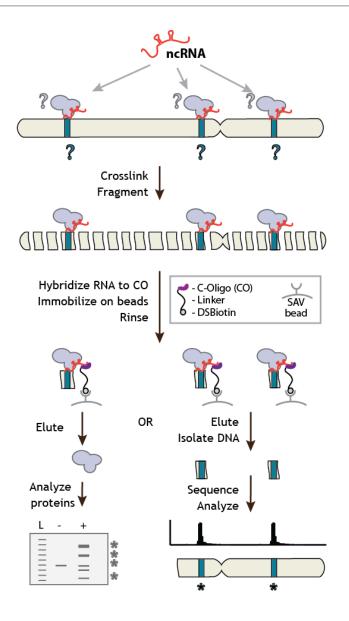


- 1. Using a nuclease to achieve **higher resolution** (ChIP-exo).
- 2. Analysis of **nucleosome turnover** and exchange.

3. Extension to **RNA factors**.

#### Extension to RNA factors: CHART, ChIRP and RAP



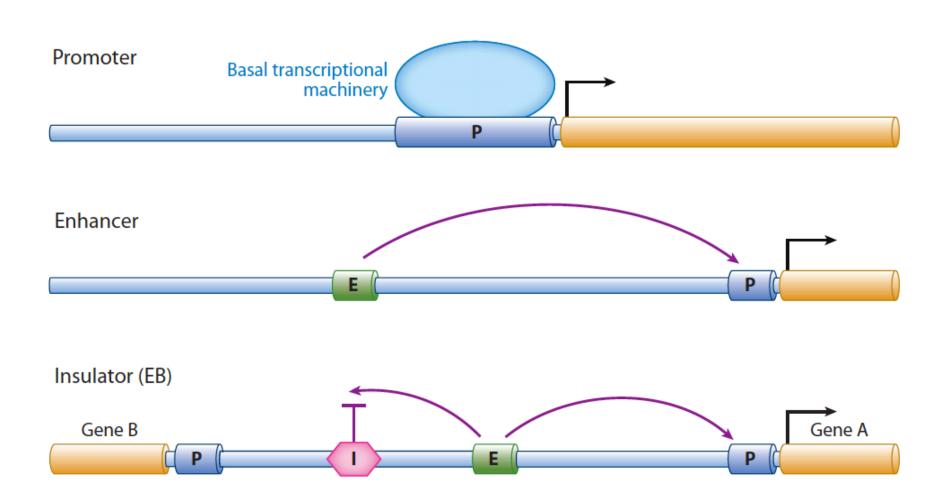


#### Using sequencing to annotate the genome

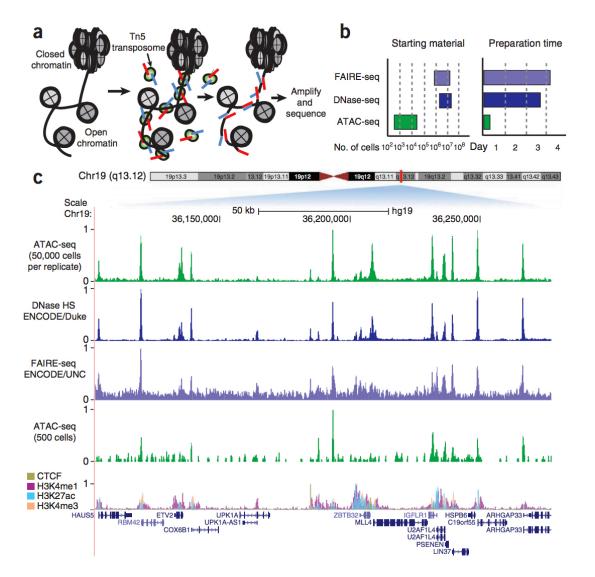
- 1. Where are the cis-acting regulatory elements in DNA?
  - A. DNase I hyper-sensitivity mapping (**DNase-Seq**).
  - B. **FAIRE** to map regulatory elements.
  - C. ATAC-Seq to map regulatory elements.
- 2. Where do transcription factors bind?
  - D. ChIP-seq of transcription factors (or in high res, ChIP-exo)
  - E. Nucleosome mapping (**MNase-Seq**).
- 3. Where are different histone modifications found?
  - F. **ChIP-Seq** of histone modifications.
  - G. **ChIP-Seq** of chromatin writers, readers and erasers.
- 4. Where is RNA polymerase transcribing?
  - H. **ChIP-Seq** of polymerase.
  - I. **GRO-Seq** and **NET-Seq** to measure RNA in the polymerase active site..
- 5. How is the genome organized in 3D?
  - J. 4C/5C/Hi-C to measure chromatin conformation.

Targeted approaches v Global approaches

# How do we identify regulatory elements in the genome?



# Using differences in biochemical properties of regulatory elements to identify them by Seq

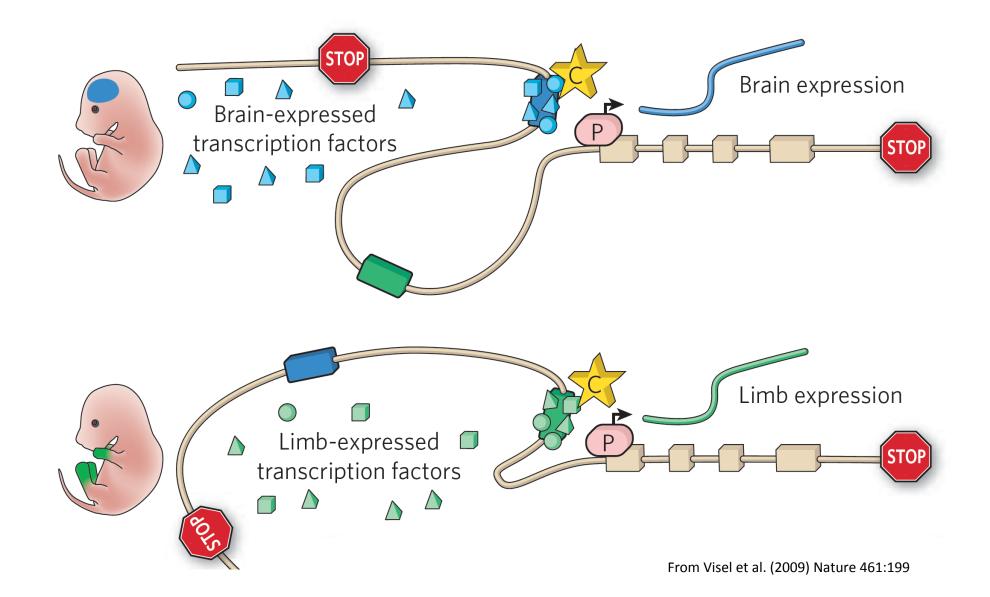


- Transcription factor binding frequently deforms the B-form DNA, making it hypersensitive to DNase I.
- Changes in accessibility of chromatin can provide information about regulation

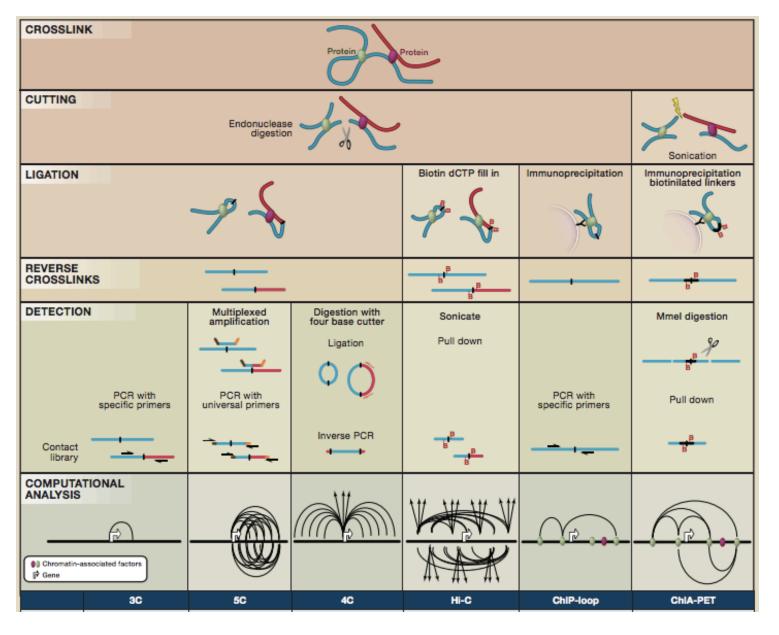
   ATAC-seq (shown)
   FAIRE-seq (not shown)
   MNase-Seq (not shown).

Buenrostro et al., Nature Methods, 2013

#### The 3D organization of the genome is important

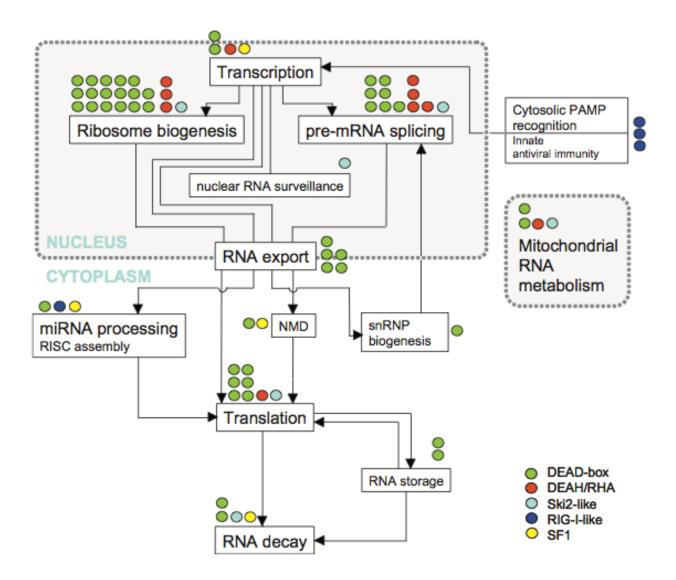


#### Techniques to analyze chromatin conformation



Hakim & Misteli, Cell (2012)

## Gene expression is also controlled at the level of RNA



#### Part 2: RNA-Seq and applications of RNA-Seq

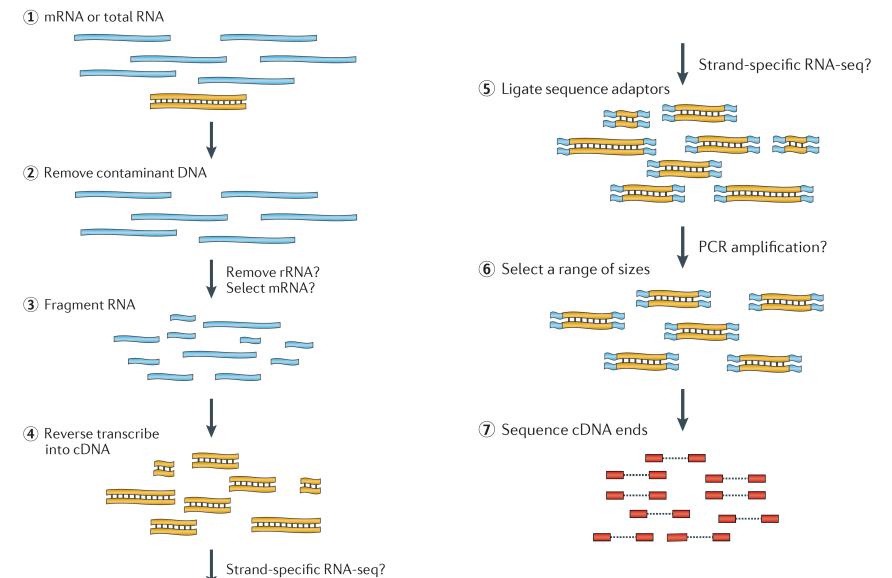
#### Using RNA-Seq to examine RNA

- Technical methodology
- Read mapping and normalization
- Estimating isoform-level gene expression
- De novo transcript reconstruction
- Sensitivity and sequencing depth
- Differential expression analysis

#### **RNA-Seq** workflow

 $\frown$  . .

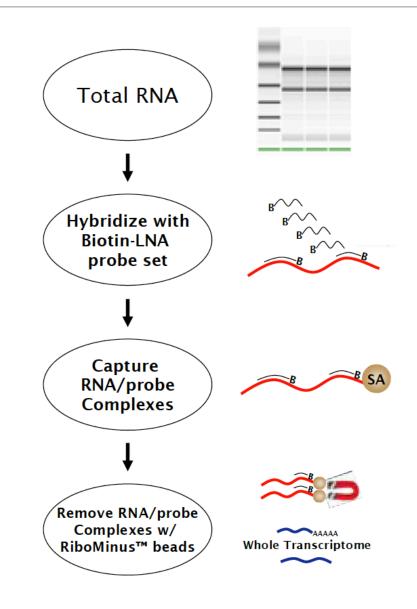
.



#### Some technical details specific to RNA-Seq

- Wide dynamic range of RNA concentrations.
- RNA is strand specific (unlike dsDNA)
- RNA degrades easily (RNase and spontaneous)
- RNA is processed (e.g., spliced)
- RNA has secondary structure (possible blocks to reverse transcriptase).

# Ribosomal RNA will dominate the sequenced reads unless removed

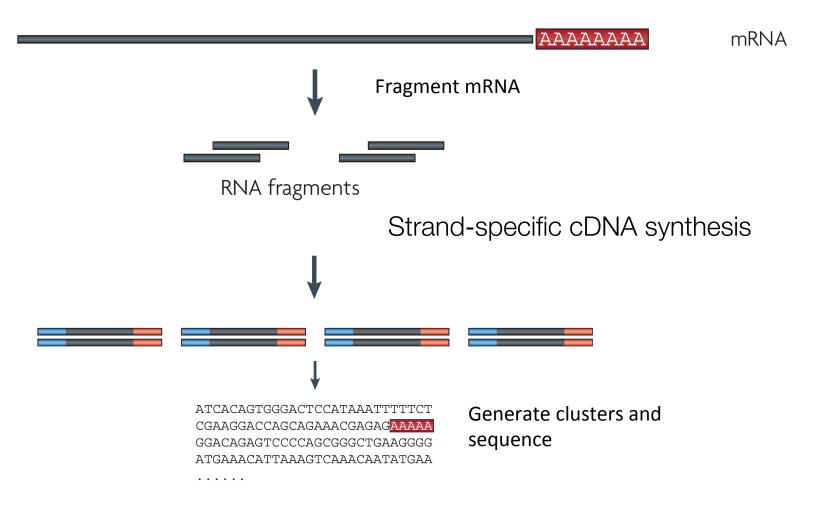


RiboMinus

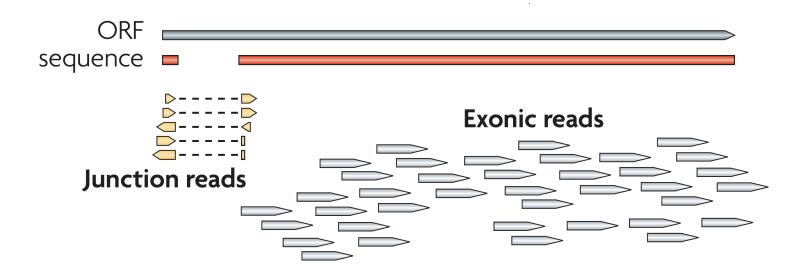
#### Illumina RNA-seq workflow

Capture poly-A RNA with poly-T oligo attached beads (100 ng total) (2x)

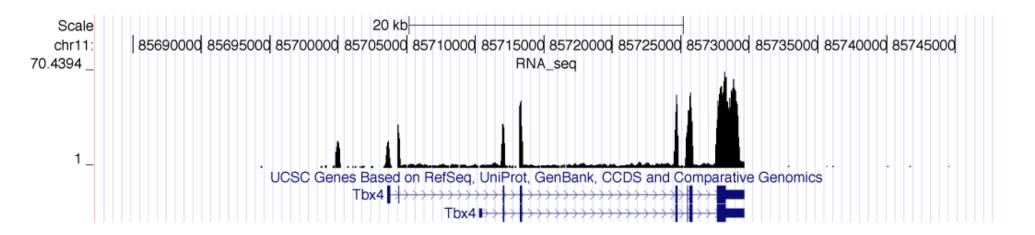
- RNA quality must be high degradation produces 3' bias
- Non-poly-A RNAs are not recovered



#### RNA-Seq reads map mostly to exons



Martin and Wang Nat Rev Genet 12:671 (2011)



#### How does one analyze RNA levels from RNA-Seq?

#### Use existing gene annotation:

Align to genome plus annotated splices Depends on high-quality gene annotation Which annotation to use: RefSeq, GENCODE, UCSC? Isoform quantification? Identifying novel transcripts?

#### **Reference-guided alignments:**

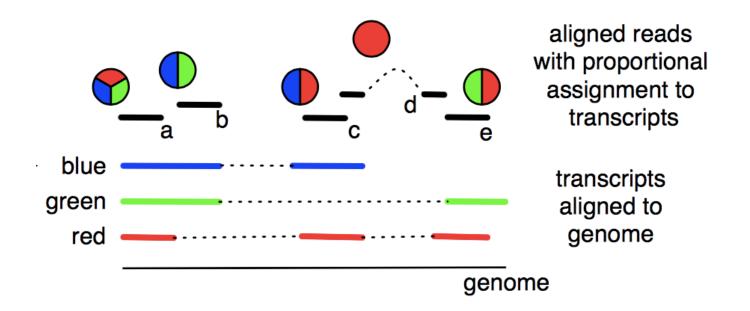
Align to genome sequence Infer splice events from reads Allows transcriptome analyses of genomes with poor gene annotation

#### De novo transcript assembly:

Assemble transcripts directly from reads Allows transcriptome analyses of species without reference genomes RNA-seq reads contain information about the abundance of different transcript isoforms

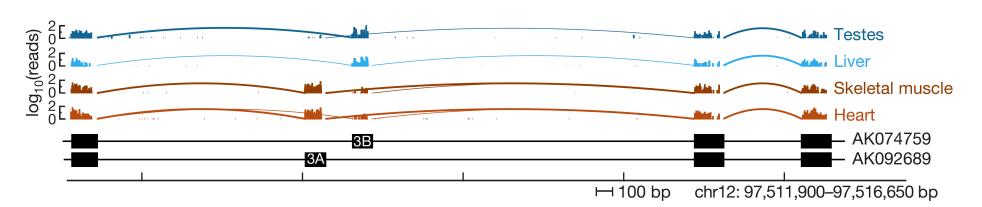
#### Normalization :

**Internal**: *Reads or Fragments* per kilobase of feature length per million mapped reads (RPKM or FPKM) **External**: Reads relative to a standard "spike"



http://arxiv.org/pdf/1104.3889v2.pdf

### There is a lot of functional diversity in transcript isoforms



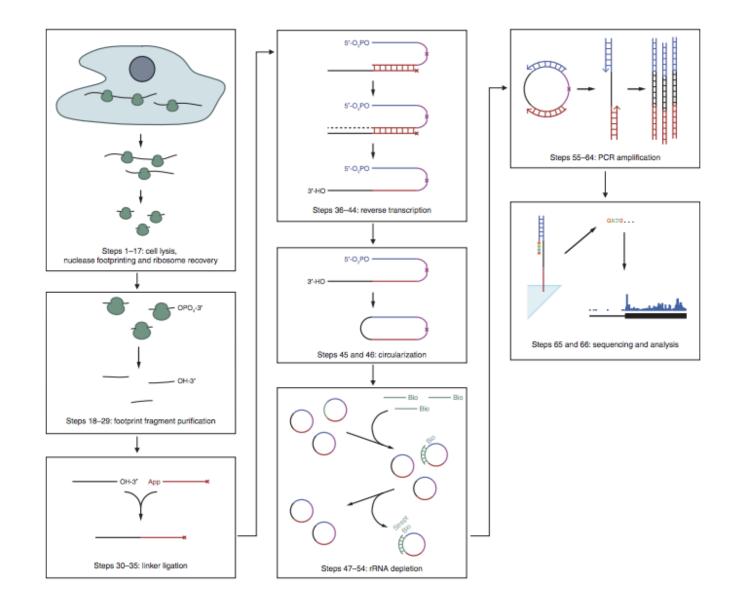
Alternative transcript events		Total events (×10 <sup>3</sup> )	Number detected (×10 <sup>3</sup> )	Both isoforms detected	Number tissue- regulated	% Tissue- regulated (observed)	% Tissue- regulated (estimated)
Skipped exon		37	35	10,436	6,822	65	72
Retained intron		1	1	167	96	57	71
Alternative 5' splice site (A5SS)		15	15	2,168	1,386	64	72
Alternative 3' splice site (A3SS)		17	16	4,181	2,655	64	74
Mutually exclusive exon (MXE)		4	4	167	95	57	66
Alternative first exon (AFE)		14	13	10,281	5,311	52	63
Alternative last exon (ALE)		9	8	5,246	2,491	47	52
Tandem 3' UTRs	= = = pA	A 7	7	5,136	3,801	74	80
Total		105	100	37,782	22,657	60	68
Constitutive ex	d	Junction read			pA Polyadenylation site		

Alternative exon or extension Inclusive/extended isoform Exclusive isoform Both isoforms

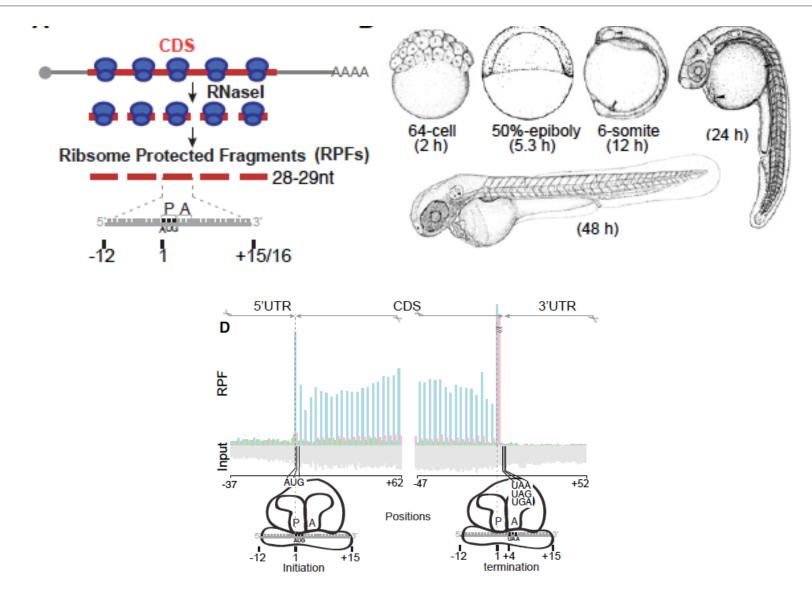
#### Examples of applications of RNA-seq

Characterizing transcriptome complexity Alternative splicing Differential expression analysis Gene- and isoform-level expression comparisons Novel RNA species IncRNAs and eRNAs Pervasive transcription Translation **Ribosome** profiling Allele-specific expression Measuring RNA half-lives and decay Examining protein-RNA interactions (CLIP, RIP, &c.) Effect of genetic variation on gene expression Imprinting RNA editing Novel events

#### Ribosome profiling to reveal translation

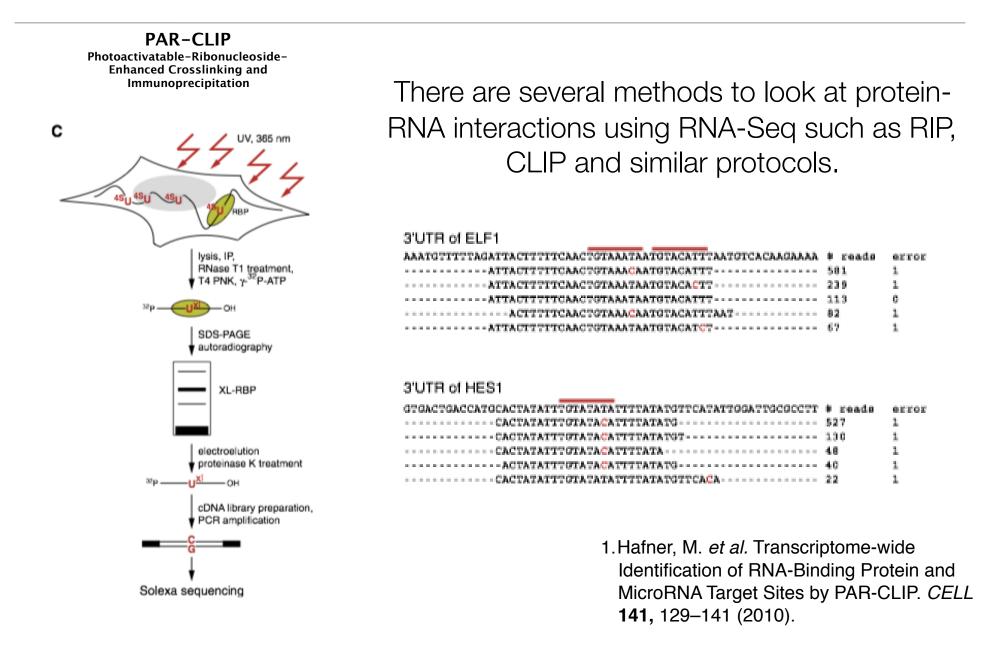


## Ribosome foot printing can reveal which reading frame is translated.



1. Bazzini, A. A. *et al.* Identification of small ORFs in vertebrates using ribosome footprinting and evolutionary conservation. *EMBO J* **33**, 981–993 (2014).

#### RNA-seq to examine protein-RNA interactions



#### Summary

- Genomics I: Deep sequencing gives us access to information on a genomic level.
- Genomics II: These approaches provide a diverse set of tools to study life at a genomic scale.

\*Sophisticated use of data from genomics requires an integrated understanding of the biological experiment, sample preparation and down stream computational analyses of the data.