

CS-E5875 High-Throughput Bioinformatics

RNA-seq analysis: alignment, assembly, and quantification

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Contents

- ▶ Gene transcription and alternative splicing
- ▶ Alignment of RNA-seq data
- ▶ Transcriptome assembly
- ▶ Gene expression quantification

Gene transcription

- A process of making an RNA copy of a gene sequence in DNA

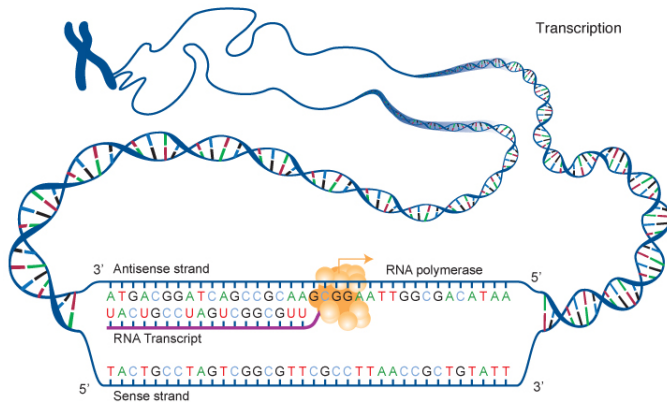


Figure from https://geneed.nlm.nih.gov/topic_subtopic.php?tid=15&sid=22

Alternative splicing

- ▶ A process of making alternative mRNA molecules from the same precursor RNA (pre-mRNA)
- ▶ In humans, $\sim 95\%$ of multi-exonic genes are alternatively spliced

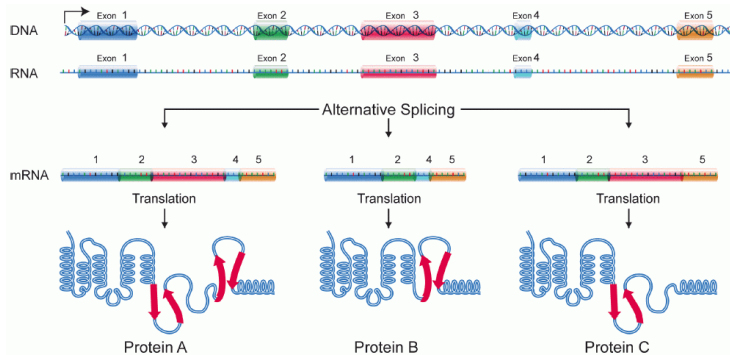


Figure from https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Alternative_splicing

Alternative splicing mechanisms

- ▶ Alternative splicing happens co-transcriptionally and is largely regulated by splicing factors (proteins) that bind RNA motifs (short stretches of RNA) located in the pre-mRNA

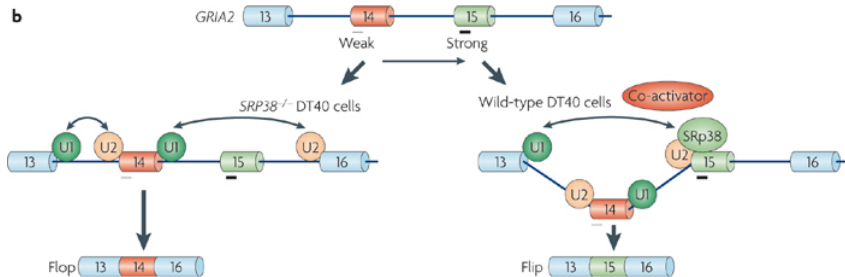


Figure from (Chen & Manley, 2009)

Different types of alternative splicing

► Basic modes of alternative splicing

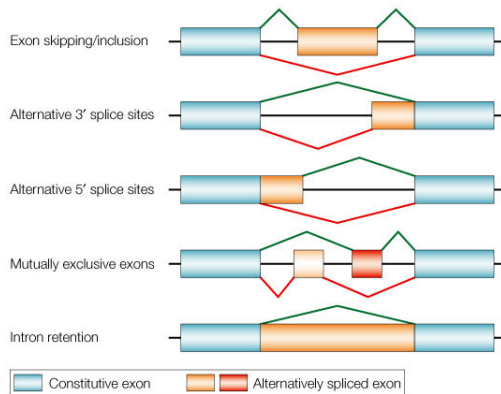


Figure from (Cartegni et al., 2002)

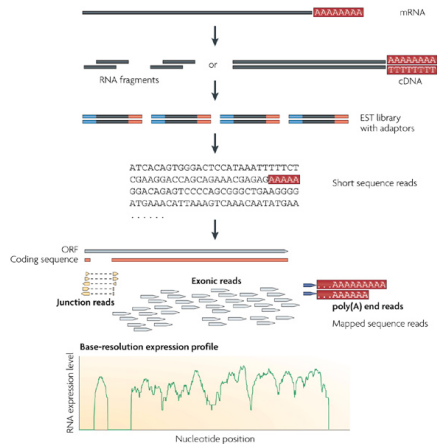
RNA-seq

- ▶ High-throughput sequencing of RNA provides a comprehensive picture of the transcriptome
- ▶ Types of RNA molecules in a cell

ribosomal RNA	rRNA	~85-90%
transfer RNA	tRNA	~10%
mRNA messenger	RNA	~1-5%
micro RNA and other	miRNA, piRNA, etc.	rest

RNA-seq: basic experimental protocol

1. RNA population is converted to a library of cDNA fragments with adaptors attached to one or both ends
2. High-throughput sequencing for the cDNA fragment library (single-end or paired-end), read length ~ 30 -400 bp
3. Computational and statistical analysis: alignment against reference genome or transcriptome, transcriptome reconstruction, expression quantification, etc.



Nature Reviews | Genetics

Figure from (Wang et al., 2009)

What can we do with RNA-seq data?

- ▶ Transcript assembly
 - ▶ Construct full-length transcript sequences from the RNA-seq data (either with or without the knowledge of the reference genome)
 - ▶ Identify transcript variants
- ▶ Transcript quantification
 - ▶ Given transcript sequence annotations (reference), estimate
 - ▶ Gene expression or
 - ▶ Abundances of all different transcripts (alternative transcript isoforms for a gene)
- ▶ Differential expression
 - ▶ Statistical inference for differential gene expression or alternative splicing

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RNA-seq read alignment

- ▶ If full-length transcript annotations are known, then reads can be aligned exactly as aligning against a reference genome
 - ▶ Use transcripts in place of reference genome
- ▶ If transcript annotations are not known, still similar approaches as for aligning DNA sequence reads will work with some modifications
 - ▶ Transcriptomic reads can span exon junctions
 - ▶ Transcriptomic reads can contain poly(A) ends (from post-transcriptional RNA processing)

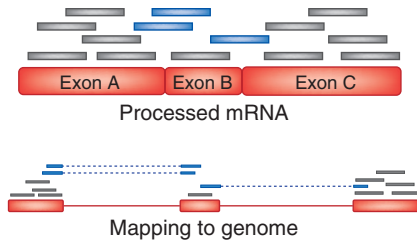


Figure from (Trapnell & Salzberg, 2009)

TopHat pipeline

- ▶ We will look at TopHat, a commonly used tool for RNA-seq alignment
- ▶ All reads are mapped to the reference genome using Bowtie
 - ▶ These are sequencing reads that originate from individual exons, i.e., do not span exon-exon boundaries
- ▶ Reads that do not map to the genome are set aside as “initially unmappable reads” (IUM reads)
 - ▶ These are sequencing reads that potentially originate from a part of a transcript that connects two (or more) exons, i.e., span exon-exon boundaries

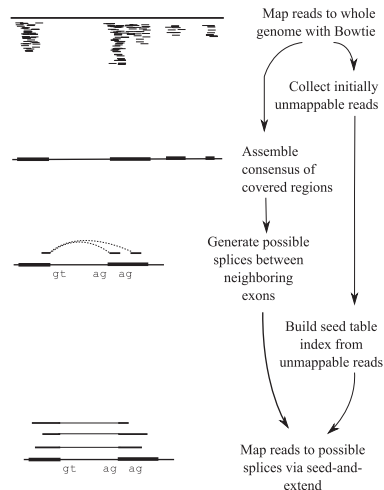


Figure from (Trapnell et al., 2009)

TopHat pipeline

- ▶ Consensus assembly of initially mapped reads with Maq assembler
 - ▶ Similarly as in de novo assembly, partly overlapping short sequencing reads define the assembly
 - ▶ Note that in this case the overlaps between short reads have been found by aligning against the **known** reference
 - ▶ For low-quality or low-coverage positions, use reference genome to call the base
 - ▶ Consensus exons are likely missing some amount of sequence at ends
- TopHat considers flanking sequences from reference genome (default=45bp)
- ▶ Merge neighboring exons with very short gap to a single exon

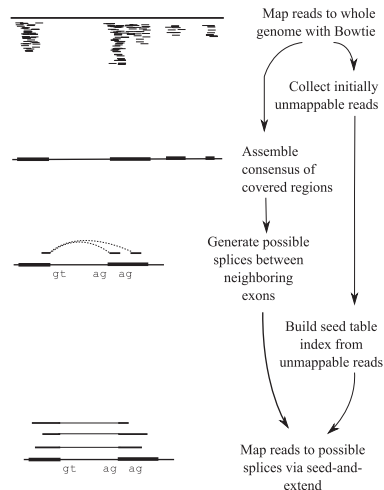


Figure from (Trapnell et al., 2009)

TopHat pipeline

- ▶ To map reads to splice junctions:
 - ▶ Enumerate all canonical donor and acceptor splicing sites between consecutive exons
 - ▶ Consider all possible pairings between donor-acceptor sites (allowed intron length is an adjustable parameter)
 - ▶ For each candidate splice junction, find initially unmapped reads that span them: seed-and-extend approach

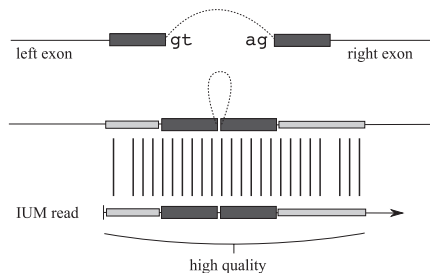


Figure from (Trapnell et al., 2009)

TopHat pipeline

► Seed-and-extend:

- Pre-compute an index of reads: a lookup table based on partly overlapping $2k$ -mer keys in the middle of their high-quality region (default $k = 5$)
- For candidate splice junction, concatenate the k bases downstream of the acceptor to the k bases upstream
- Query this $2k$ -mer against the read index (exact seed match, no mismatch allowed)
- Align remaining part of read left and right of the exact match (allowing fixed number of mismatches)

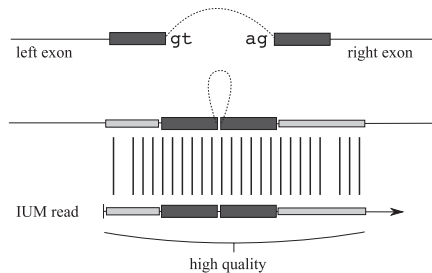


Figure from (Trapnell et al., 2009)

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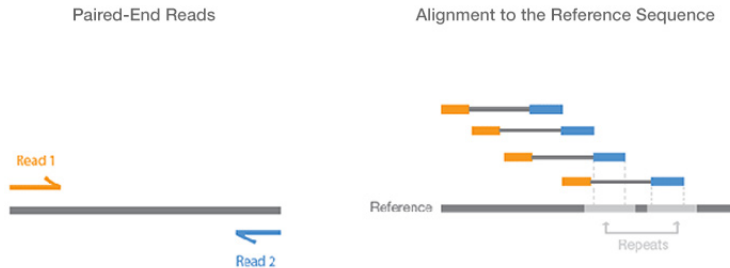
- ▶ Gene transcription and alternative splicing
- ▶ Alignment of RNA-seq data
- ▶ Transcriptome assembly
- ▶ Gene expression quantification
- ▶ Differential gene expression analysis
- ▶ Transcript-level analysis

Transcriptome assembly

- ▶ TopHat pipeline can identify exons and exon-exon junctions, but does not output the full-length transcripts
- ▶ Goal: define precise map of all transcript variants / isoforms that are expressed in a particular sample
- ▶ Challenges
 - ▶ For short reads, hard to determine from which isoform they were produced, because isoforms contain the same exons and exon-exon pairs
 - ▶ Gene expression spans several orders of magnitude, with some genes represented by only few reads
 - ▶ Reads can originate from mature mRNA or from incompletely spliced precursor RNA
- ▶ Two main classes of methods
 - ▶ Genome-independent (de Bruijn graph, see previous lecture)
 - ▶ Genome-guided (after read alignment)

Paired-end sequencing reads

- ▶ Paired-end sequencing technology quantifies the nucleotide content of genomic DNA or cDNA (for RNA) fragments from both ends of the fragments



Paired-end sequencing enables both ends of the DNA fragment to be sequenced. Because the distance between each paired read is known, alignment algorithms can use this information to map the reads over repetitive regions more precisely. This results in much better alignment of the reads, especially across difficult-to-sequence, repetitive regions of the genome.

Transcriptome reconstruction with Cufflinks

- ▶ Genome-guided: takes TopHat spliced alignments as input
- ▶ With paired-end RNA-seq data, Bowtie and TopHat produce alignments where paired reads of the same fragment are treated together as single alignment

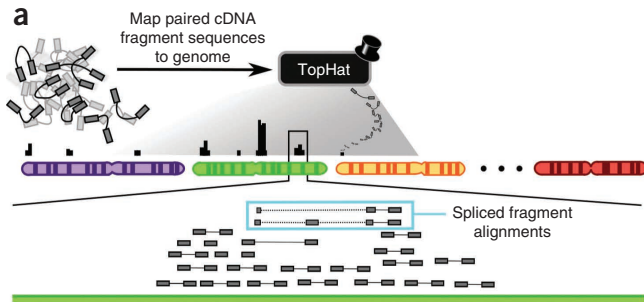


Figure from (Trapnell et al., 2010)

Transcriptome reconstruction with Cufflinks

- ▶ Connect fragments in an overlap graph
- ▶ Each fragment (read pair) corresponds to a node
- ▶ Directed edge from node x to node y if
 - ▶ The alignment for x starts at a lower coordinate than y
 - ▶ The alignments overlap in the genome, and
 - ▶ The fragments were “compatible” (every implied intron in one fragment matched an identical implied intron in the other fragment), i.e., the fragments x and y can come from the same transcript isoform
- ▶ If two reads originate from different isoforms they are likely incompatible

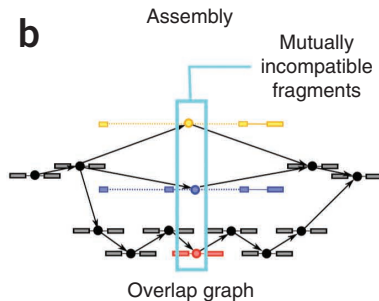


Figure from (Trapnell et al., 2010)

Transcriptome reconstruction with Cufflinks

- ▶ Construct from the overlap graph minimal set of transcript isoforms that can explain all the fragments
 - ▶ Minimum path cover problem
- ▶ Dilworth's theorem: maximum number of mutually incompatible fragments equals minimum number of paths covering the whole graph (=minimum number of transcripts needed to explain all the fragments)

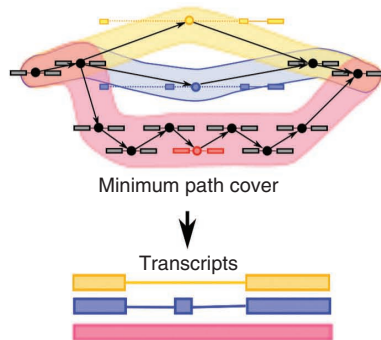


Figure from (Trapnell et al., 2010)

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Simplified gene expression counting schemes

- ▶ Expression of a gene: sum of the expression of all its transcript variants / isoforms
 - ▶ Computing isoform abundances can be computationally challenging
- ▶ Simplified counting schemes without computing isoform abundances
 - ▶ Exon union method: count sequencing reads mapped to any of the exons
 - ▶ Exon intersection method: count reads mapped to constitutive exons

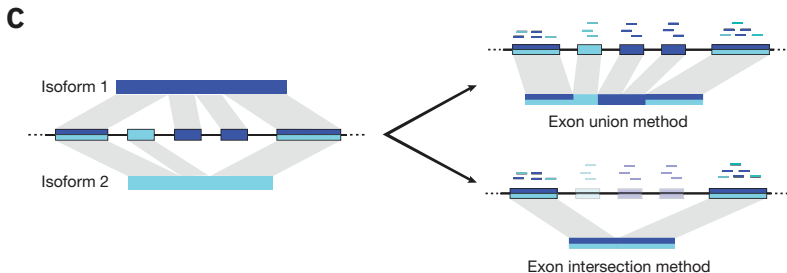


Figure from (Garber et al., 2011)

Simplified gene expression counting schemes

- ▶ Disadvantages of the simplified models
 - ▶ The union model tends to underestimate expression for alternatively spliced genes
 - ▶ Because it overestimates the length of isoforms: we will see the reason for this later
 - ▶ The intersection can reduce statistical power for differential expression analysis
 - ▶ Because a fraction of mapped sequencing reads are ignored

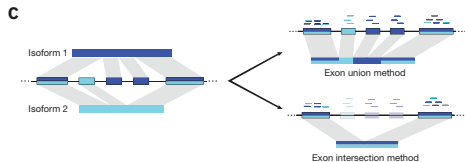
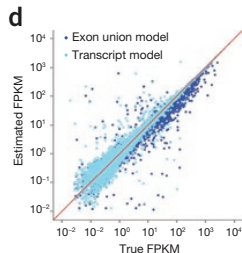


Figure from (Garber et al., 2011)



Gene expression quantification

- ▶ Basic idea: read count corresponds to the expression level
- ▶ Basic assumption

$$\theta_i = P(\text{"randomly sample a sequencing read from gene"} \ i) = \frac{1}{Z} \mu_i \ell_i,$$

where

- ▶ μ_i is the expression level (abundance) of gene i
- ▶ ℓ_i is the length of gene i (e.g. the total length of constitutive exons for the intersection method)
- ▶ Normalizing constant is $Z = \sum_i \mu_i \ell_i$

Gene expression quantification

- ▶ Use the frequency estimator to estimate the probability that a read originates from a given gene i

$$\hat{\theta}_i = \frac{k_i}{N},$$

where

- ▶ k_i is the number of sequencing reads mapping to gene i
- ▶ N is the total number of mapped reads
- ▶ Convert the estimates into expression values by normalizing by the gene length
- ▶ Recall from the previous slide that $\theta_i \propto \mu_i \ell_i$, which we can solve for μ_i

$$\hat{\mu}_i \propto \frac{\hat{\theta}_i}{\ell_i} = \frac{k_i}{N\ell_i}$$

RPKM: reads per kilobases per million reads

- ▶ The number of read that map to a specific gene k_i depends on the total number of mapped reads N
- ▶ The number of read that map to a specific gene k_i depends on the length of the gene ℓ_i
- ▶ By normalizing with these two terms, N and ℓ_i , we obtain a common unit to quantify gene expression
 - ▶ Across different experiments that may have a different N
 - ▶ Across genes that may have a different ℓ_i
- ▶ RPKM: reads per kilobases per million reads

$$\text{RPKM}_i = \frac{k_i}{\frac{\ell_i}{10^3} \cdot \frac{N}{10^6}} = 10^9 \frac{k_i}{\ell_i N} = 10^9 \hat{\mu}_i$$

- ▶ RPKM is for single-end reads
- ▶ FPMK is essentially the same as RPKM but defined for paired-end reads such that each read-pair is counted only once

Gene expression quantification

- ▶ Consider the 4 transcripts with different lengths and expression levels illustrated below (left)
- ▶ On the right panel: the read counts normalized by the transcript length using the FPKM (or RPKM) metric
 - ▶ Transcripts 2 and 4 have comparable read-counts, transcript 2 has a significantly higher normalized expression level
 - ▶ After normalization, transcripts 3 and 4 have similar expression values

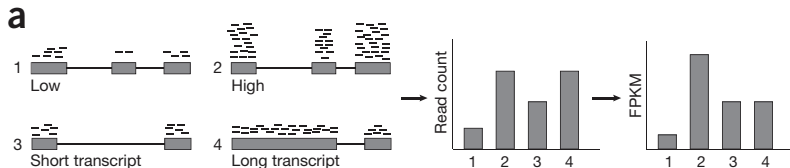


Figure from (Garber et al., 2011)

- ▶ When the same gene is compared between conditions, the read counts (normalized by sequencing depth, but not by transcript length) are often just fine

Gene expression quantification

- ▶ The above formulation assumes that all reads can be assigned uniquely to a single gene
- ▶ That is generally not true for transcripts (sometimes not even for genes)
 - ▶ Different transcript isoforms can share a large fraction of their exons
 - ▶ Genes belonging to the same gene families have similar genome/RNA sequence
 - ▶ Different genes can be located in the same genomic region but on opposite DNA strands (strand specific RNA-seq resolves this issue)

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