

# CS-E5875 High-Throughput Bioinformatics

## DNA methylation analysis

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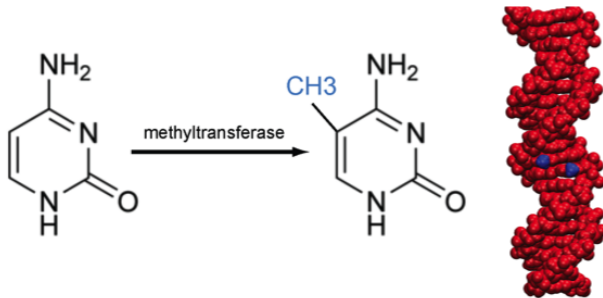
November 13, 2020

# Contents

- ▶ DNA methylation
- ▶ Bisulfite sequencing (BS-seq) protocol
- ▶ Alignment and quantification of BS-seq data
- ▶ Statistical analysis of BS-seq data

# DNA methylation

- ▶ Epigenetic changes are reversible modifications on DNA, or “on top of DNA”, which do not change the DNA sequence itself
- ▶ DNA methylation is an epigenetic modification where methyl group is added to the 5 position of a cytosine in DNA
- ▶ Methyl group is added enzymatically by DNA methyl transferases (DNMT)
- ▶ By far the most extensively studied epigenetic modification on DNA



# DNA methylation

- ▶ In mammalian genomes, DNA methylation primarily occurs in the context of CpG dinucleotides
- ▶ Non-CpG methylation found e.g. in stem cells and brain
- ▶ CpGs occur with a smaller frequency than expected
  - ▶ Human genome GC content is 42%
  - ▶ CpGs are expected to occur 4.41% of the time
  - ▶ The frequency of CpG dinucleotides is 1%
  - ▶ Methylated CpGs are prone to spontaneous deamination to thymines

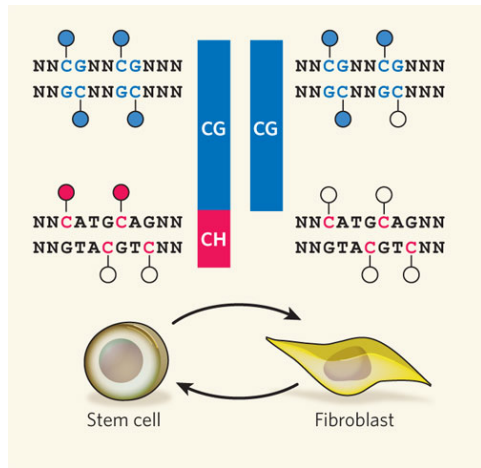
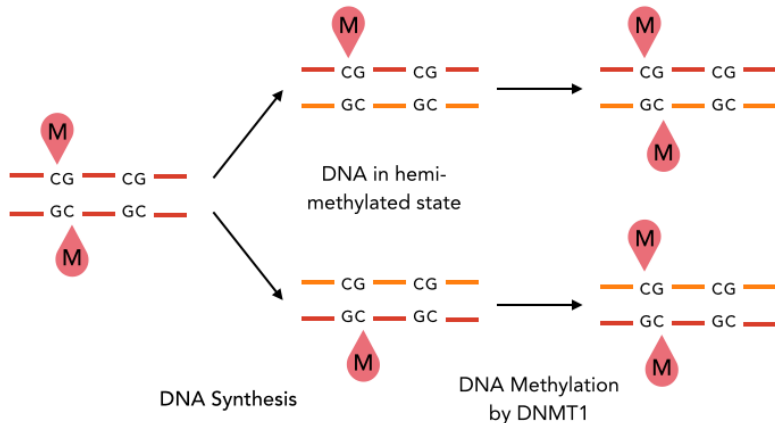


Figure from (Schubeler, 2009)

# DNA methylation

- ▶ Two general classes of enzymatic methylation activities
  - ▶ De novo methylation
  - ▶ Maintenance methylation



# DNA methylation in gene regulation and various traits

- ▶ CpG islands (C+G dense  $\gtrsim 500$  long regions) are present in the 5' regulatory regions of many genes
- ▶ Hypermethylation (=overmethylation) of CpG islands near gene promoters contributes to transcriptional silencing by
  - ▶ Affecting binding of transcription factors (DNA binding protein that regulate gene transcription)
  - ▶ Binding proteins with methyl-CpG-binding domains (MBDs), and recruiting e.g. histone deacetylases and other chromatin remodellers

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  - ▶ Affecting binding of transcription factors (DNA binding protein that regulate gene transcription)
  - ▶ Binding proteins with methyl-CpG-binding domains (MBDs), and recruiting e.g. histone deacetylases and other chromatin remodellers
- ▶ DNA methylation differences are associated with many diseases
- ▶ DNA methylation is also known to associate with e.g. age of an individual and smoking

# DNA methylation

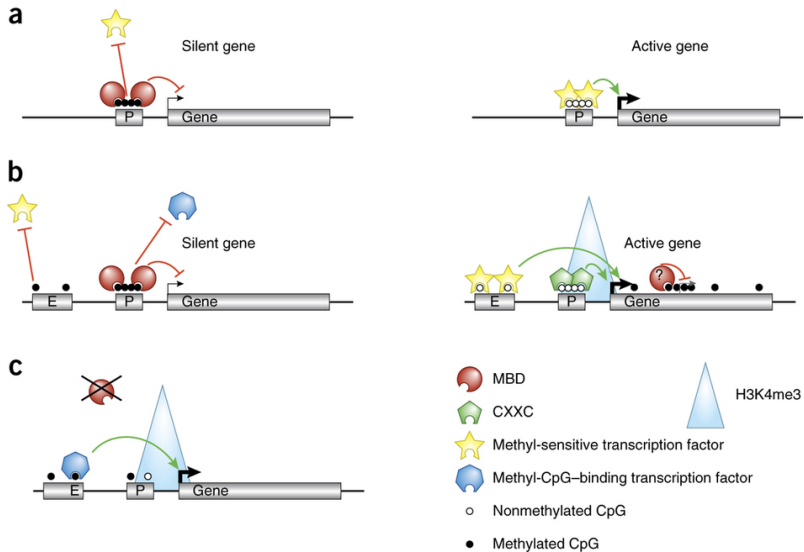


Figure from (Spruijt & Vermeulen, 2014)



# DNA demethylation

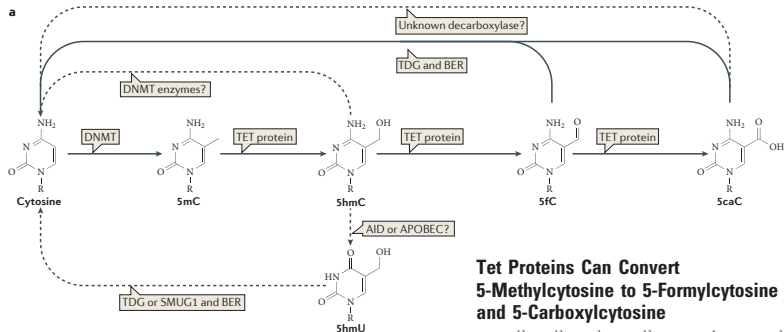
- ▶ Until recently, it was believed that methylated DNA can be unmethylated only by dilution during cell differentiation/DNA replication
- ▶ Recently, TET family proteins were shown to be dioxygenases that converted 5mC to 5hmC, 5fC and 5caC, which can be further converted back to unmethylated C
- ▶ TETs thus contribute to active demethylation, but 5hmC, 5fC and 5caC can also have multiple functions

# DNA demethylation

## Conversion of 5-Methylcytosine to 5-Hydroxymethylcytosine in Mammalian DNA by MLL Partner TET1

Mamta Tahiliani,<sup>1</sup> Kian Peng Koh,<sup>1</sup> Yinghua Shen,<sup>2</sup> William A. Pastor,<sup>1</sup>  
Hozefa Bandukwala,<sup>1</sup> Yevgeny Brudno,<sup>3</sup> Suneet Agarwal,<sup>3</sup> Lakshminarayan M. Iyer,<sup>4</sup>  
David R. Liu,<sup>1,2</sup> L. Aravind,<sup>1,2</sup> Anjana Rao<sup>1,2</sup>

15 MAY 2009 VOL 324 SCIENCE www.sciencemag.org



## Tet Proteins Can Convert 5-Methylcytosine to 5-Formylcytosine and 5-Carboxylcytosine

Shinsuke Ito,<sup>1,2,\*</sup> Li Shen,<sup>1,2,\*</sup> Qing Dai,<sup>2</sup> Susan C. Wu,<sup>1,2</sup> Leonard B. Collins,<sup>4</sup> James A. Swenberg,<sup>2,4</sup>  
Chuan He,<sup>2</sup> Yi Zhang<sup>1,2,†</sup>

2 SEPTEMBER 2011 VOL 333 SCIENCE www.sciencemag.org

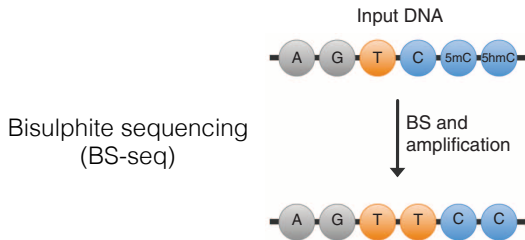
BER := base excision repair  
TDG := thymine DNA glycosylase  
AID := activation-induced deaminase  
APOBEC := apolipoprotein B mRNA editing enzyme,  
catalytic polypeptide-like

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# Bisulfite sequencing (BS-seq) protocol

- ▶ Bisulfite treatment of genomic DNA converts unmethylated cytosines to uracils which are read as thymine during sequencing
- ▶ Methylated (and hydroxymethylated) cytosines are resistant to the conversion and are read as cytosine



## Cytosine modification

	C	5mC	5hmC
BS-seq	T	C	C

Figure from (Booth et al, 2012)

# Bisulfite sequencing (BS-seq) protocol

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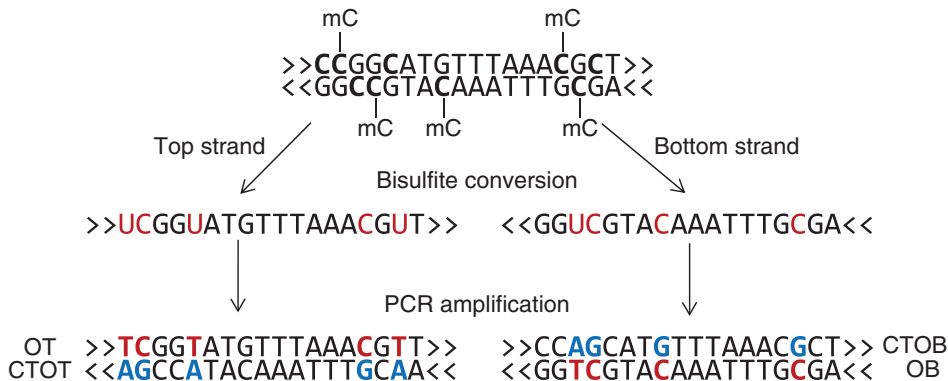
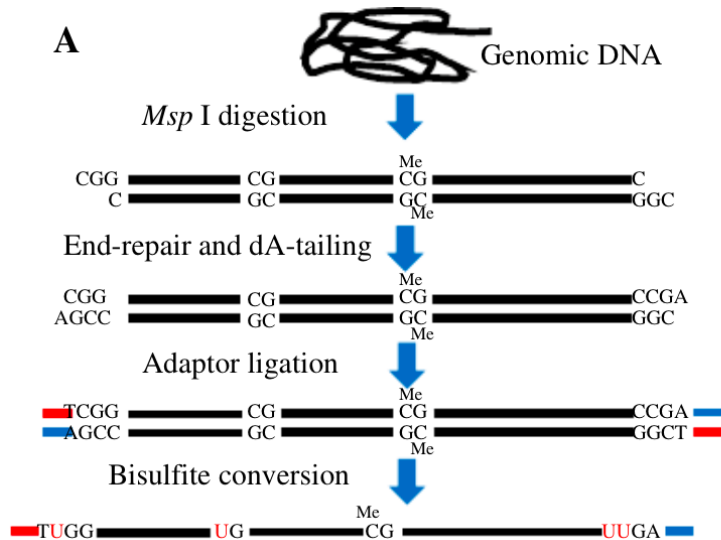


Figure from (Krueger et al, 2012)

## Reduced representation BS-seq (RRBS-seq)

- ▶ BS-seq provides an accurate map of methylation state at single nucleotide resolution
- ▶ Whole genome analysis is expensive because only about 1% of the human genome contains CpGs
- Experimental techniques to enrich for the areas of the genome that have a high CpG content
- ▶ Reduced representation BS-seq (RRBS-seq) uses restriction enzymes prior to bisulfite sequencing
  - ▶ MspI digests genomic DNA in a **methylation-insensitive** manner
  - ▶ MspI targets 5'CCGG3' sequences and cleaves the phosphodiester bonds upstream of CpG dinucleotide.
  - Each fragment will have a CpG at each end
- ▶ RRBS-seq will cover majority of promoters and GC rich regions

# Reduced representation BS-seq (RRBS-seq)



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# Aligning BS-seq reads

- ▶ Bisulfite treatment introduces mutations into genomic DNA in a methylation dependent manner
  - ▶ Alignment of BS-seq reads is more challenging
  - ▶ Standard alignment methods cannot be used directly
- ▶ Bismark tool uses the following approach to map BS-seq reads
  - ▶ Reads from a BS-seq experiment are converted into a C-to-T version and a G-to-A version
  - ▶ The same conversion for the genome
  - ▶ Bowtie alignment in the genome that has reduced complexity
  - ▶ A unique best alignment is determined from four parallel alignment processes (see next page)

# Bismark tool

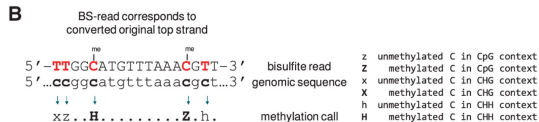
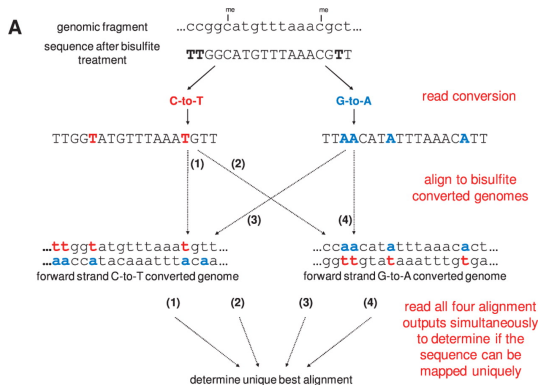


Figure from (Krueger & Andrews, 2011)

## Quantifying BS-seq data

- ▶ Bismark outputs, among others, one line per read containing useful information
  - ▶ Mapping position, alignment strand, the bisulfite read sequence, its equivalent genomic sequence and a methylation call string
- ▶ Bismark automatically extracts the methylation information at individual cytosine positions
  - ▶ For different sequence contexts (CpG, CHG, CHH; where H can be either A, T or C)
  - ▶ Strand-specific or strands merged
- ▶ That is, for each cytosine Bismark outputs
  - ▶  $n_i$  the number of reads covering the cytosine in sample  $i$
  - ▶  $m_i$  the number of methylated readouts (i.e., "C") for the cytosine in sample  $i$
- ▶ One way to quantify methylation proportion is

$$\hat{p}_i = \frac{m_i}{n_i} = \frac{\text{the number of C reads overlapping the cytosine}}{\text{the number of C or T reads overlapping the cytosine}}$$

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## Beta-binomial model

- ▶ At the end, one is typically interested in testing a hypothesis, e.g. is there a statistically significant difference in methylation levels between group A and group B
- ▶ Some early methods applied e.g. the  $t$ -test on the estimated methylation fractions  $\hat{p}_i$  (or their logit transformations)
- ▶ We will look at RadMeth tool (Dolzhenko and Smith, 2014)
- ▶ RadMeth uses the beta-binomial regression model, where beta-binomial is a compound distribution obtained from the binomial by assuming that its probability of success parameter follows a beta distribution

# Beta-binomial model

- ▶  $i = 1, \dots, s$ , where  $s$  is the number of samples
- ▶ For each cytosine in the genome we have the following model
  - ▶  $n_i$ : the number of reads covering the cytosine in sample  $i$
  - ▶  $m_i$ : the number of reads that contain "C" readout (i.e. methylated) at the cytosine in sample  $i$  ( $0 \leq m_i \leq n_i$ )
  - ▶ If we knew the underlying methylation level  $p_i$ , then:  $M_i \sim \text{Binom}(p_i, n_i)$

# Beta-binomial model

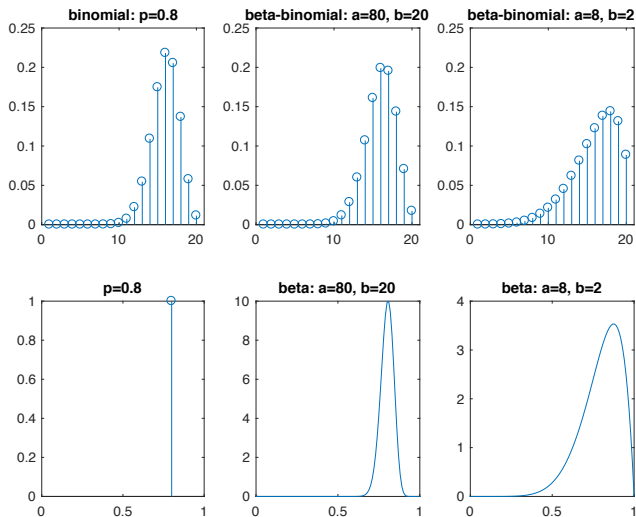
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  - ▶ If we knew the underlying methylation level  $p_i$ , then:  $M_i \sim \text{Binom}(p_i, n_i)$
  - ▶  $p_i$ : the unknown methylation level of the cytosine in sample  $i$
  - ▶ Instead of assuming a fixed (unknown) methylation level, assume  $p_i$  has a compounding distribution  $p_i \sim \text{Beta}(\alpha, \beta)$ ,  $\alpha \geq 0, \beta \geq 0$
  - ▶ The probability of observing methylation level  $M_i = m_i$  for a coverage  $n_i$  follows so called beta-binomial model

$$\begin{aligned} P(M_i = m_i | n_i, \alpha, \beta) &= \int_0^1 \text{Binom}(m_i | p_i, n_i) \text{Beta}(p_i | \alpha, \beta) dp_i \\ &= \binom{n_i}{m_i} \frac{B(m_i + \alpha, n_i - m_i + \beta)}{B(\alpha, \beta)}, \end{aligned}$$

where B is the beta function

# Beta-binomial model

- An illustration of binomial / beta / beta-binomial densities



Binomial and beta-binomial densities



# Beta-binomial model

- ▶ Mean and variance of the beta-binomial model are

$$\mu = \frac{n_i \alpha}{\alpha + \beta} \quad \text{and} \quad \sigma^2 = \frac{n_i \alpha \beta (\alpha + \beta + n_i)}{(\alpha + \beta)^2 (\alpha + \beta + 1)}$$

- ▶ Reparameterization

- ▶  $\pi = \frac{\alpha}{\alpha + \beta}$  is the the average methylation level of a set of replicate samples
- ▶  $\gamma = \frac{1}{\alpha + \beta + 1}$  is the common dispersion parameter

allows us to write the same model as

$$M_i \sim \text{BetaBinomial}(n_i, \pi, \gamma)$$

where the mean and the variance are now defined as

- ▶  $E(M_i) = n_i \pi$
- ▶  $\text{Var}(M_i) = n_i \pi (1 - \pi) (1 + (n_i - 1) \gamma)$
- ▶ Recall that the variance of the binomial distribution is  $n_i \pi (1 - \pi)$  which is smaller than  $\text{Var}(M_i)$  for  $n_i \geq 2$

## Generalized beta-binomial model

- ▶ In most of the real world applications, methylation levels can be confounded by one or more factors (e.g. age and smoking)
- ▶ The generalized linear model (GLM) generalizes the ordinary linear regression to allow for response variables that have likelihood models other than a normal distribution

## Generalized beta-binomial model

- For each sample  $i$  (and for each cytosine), the mean methylation level  $\pi_i$  depends on covariates  $\mathbf{x}_i = (x_{i1}, x_{i2}, \dots, x_{it})^T$

$$g(\pi_i) = \sum_{j=1}^t x_{ij} \eta_j = \mathbf{x}_i^T \boldsymbol{\eta}$$

where  $\boldsymbol{\eta}$  is a  $t \times 1$  parameter vector and

$$g(\pi) = \text{logit}(\pi) = \log\left(\frac{\pi}{1-\pi}\right)$$

$$\pi_i = \text{logit}^{-1}(\mathbf{x}_i^T \boldsymbol{\eta}) = \text{logistic}(\mathbf{x}_i^T \boldsymbol{\eta}) = \frac{\exp(\mathbf{x}_i^T \boldsymbol{\eta})}{\exp(\mathbf{x}_i^T \boldsymbol{\eta}) + 1}$$

- $\text{logit}(\cdot) : ]0, 1[ \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , thus  $\text{logit}(\cdot)^{-1} : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow ]0, 1[$

# Model fitting and inference

- ▶ The beta-binomial regression is fit separately for each CpG site
- ▶ The parameters  $\eta$  and  $\gamma$  are estimated using maximum likelihood
  - ▶ Iteratively reweighted least squares algorithm using a Newton-Raphson method
- ▶ Test the differential methylation w.r.t. a test factor  $\eta_j$ :
  - ▶ Learn the full model and the reduced model without the test factor
  - ▶ Compare the models using log-likelihood ratio test

$$D = -2 \ln \left( \frac{\text{likelihood of the reduced model}}{\text{likelihood of the full model}} \right)$$

- ▶  $p$ -value from chi-square test with  $d_{full} - d_{reduced}$  degrees of freedom, where  $d_{full}$  denotes the number of free parameters in the full model

## RadMeth application

- ▶ Neuron and non-neuron RRBS-seq samples from mouse frontal cortex:  $x_{i1} \in \{0, 1\}$
- ▶ 6 samples:  $s = 6$
- ▶ Two additional factors: age ( $x_{i2} \in \mathbb{R}_+$ ), sex ( $x_{i3} \in \{0, 1\}$ )
- ▶ 72 000 differentially methylated (DM) regions between neuron and non-neuron samples that contain at least 10 CpGs
- ▶ DM regions with minimum methylation difference above 0.55
  - ▶ 1708 lowly methylated (active) regions in neurons
  - ▶ These regions are associated with (located close to) 1089 genes
  - ▶ GO enrichment analysis by DAVID found a strong association of these genes with various aspects of neuronal development and function

# RadMeth application

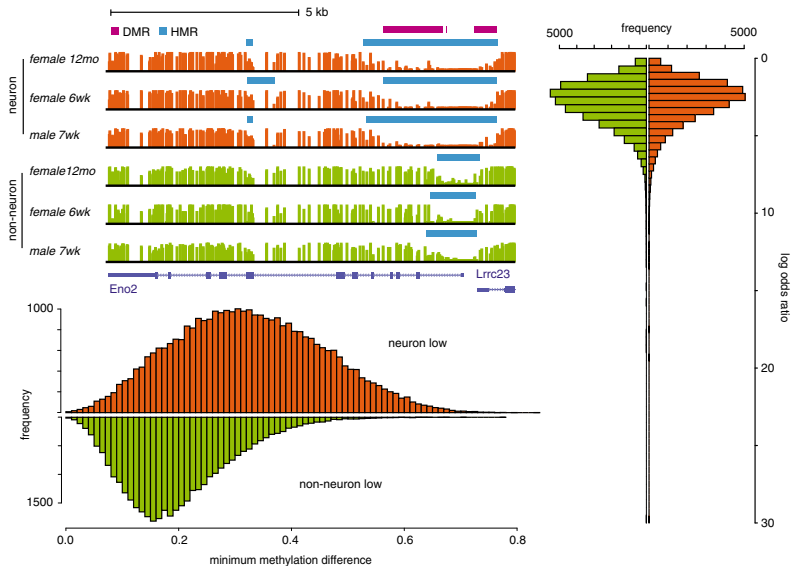


Figure from (Dolzhenko and Andrew, 2014)

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