Bioinformatics 3 V7 – Gene Regulation

Mon., Nov 16, 2015

Turn, Turn, Turn...

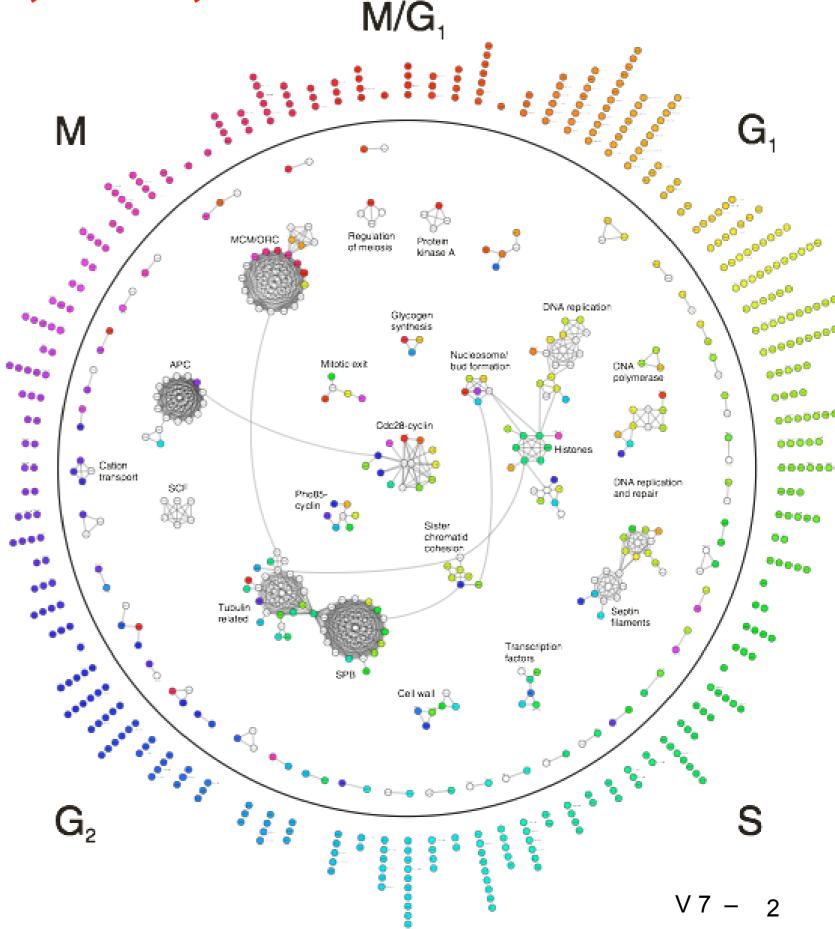
From Lichtenberg et al, Science 307 (2005) 724:

The wheel represents the 4 stages of a cell cycle in yeast.

Colored proteins are components of protein complexes that are (only) expressed at certain stages.

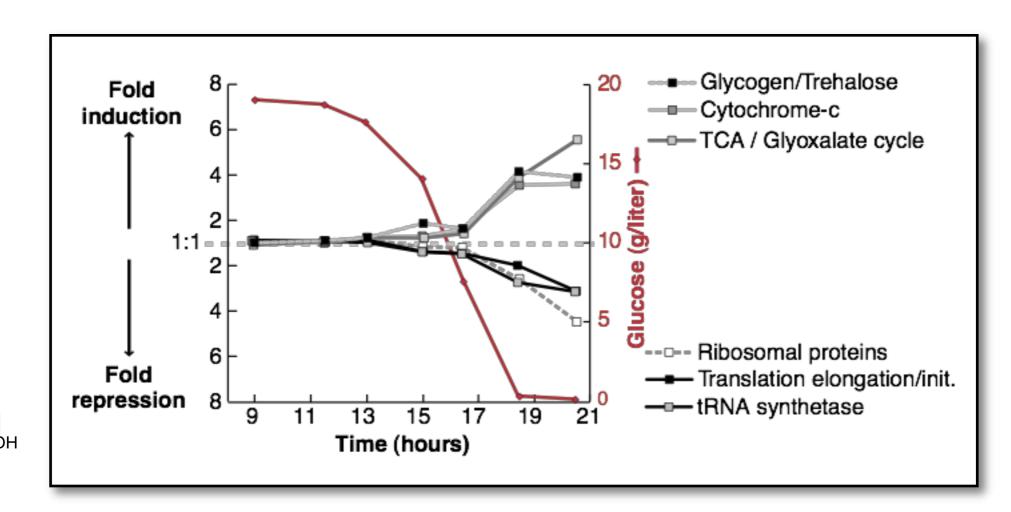
Other parts of these complexes have constant expression rates (white).

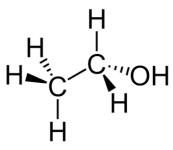
→ "assembly in time"



External Triggers affect transcriptome

Re-routing of metabolic fluxes during the diauxic shift in *S. cerevisiae*→ changes in protein abundances (measured via mRNA levels)





anaerobic fermentation:

fast growth on glucose → ethanol



aerobic respiration:

ethanol as carbon source

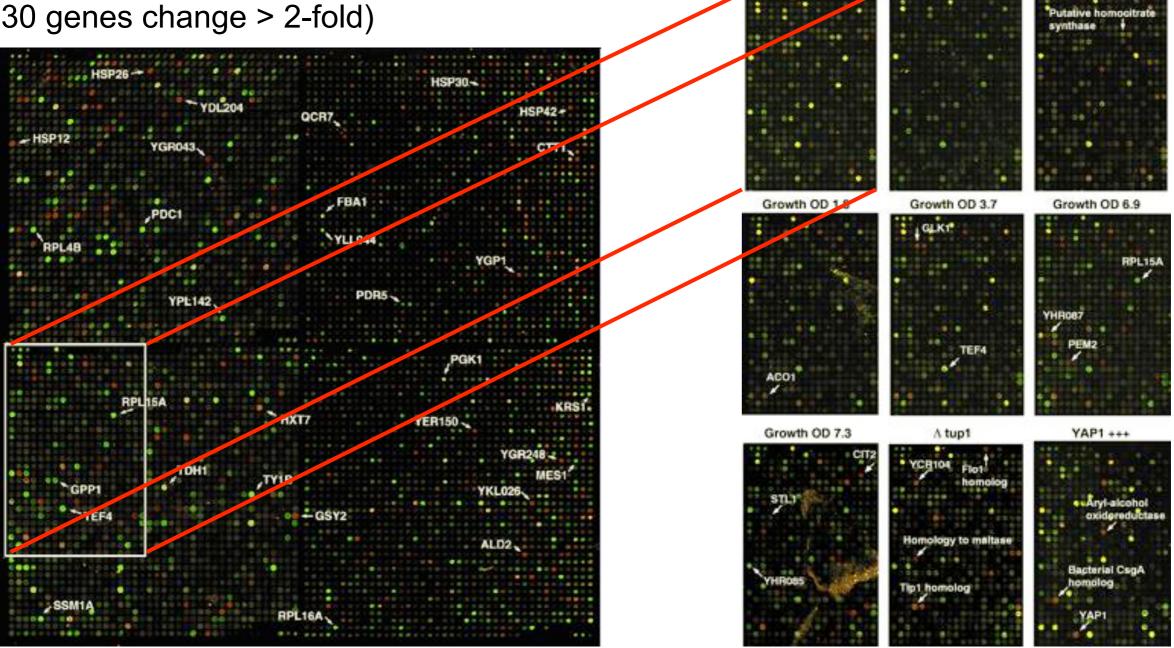
DeRisi et al., Science 278 (1997) 680

CH₂OH

Diauxic shift affects hundreds of genes

Cy3/Cy5 labels (these are 2 dye molecules for the 2-color microarray), comparison of 2 probes at 9.5 hours distance; w and w/o glucose

Red: genes induced by diauxic shift (710 genes 2-fold) Green: genes repressed by diauxic shift (1030 genes change > 2-fold)



Growth OD 0.14

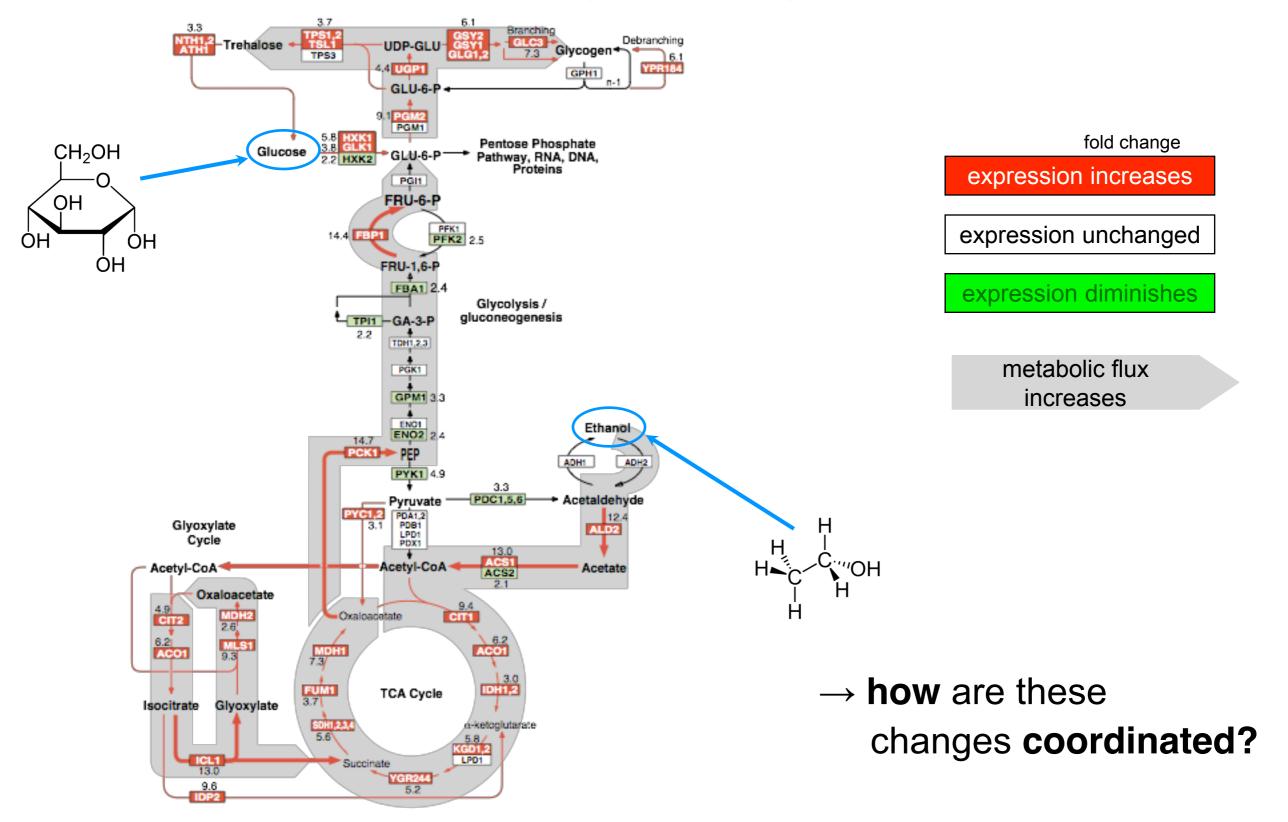
Optical density (OD)

illustrates cell growth;

Growth OD 0.8

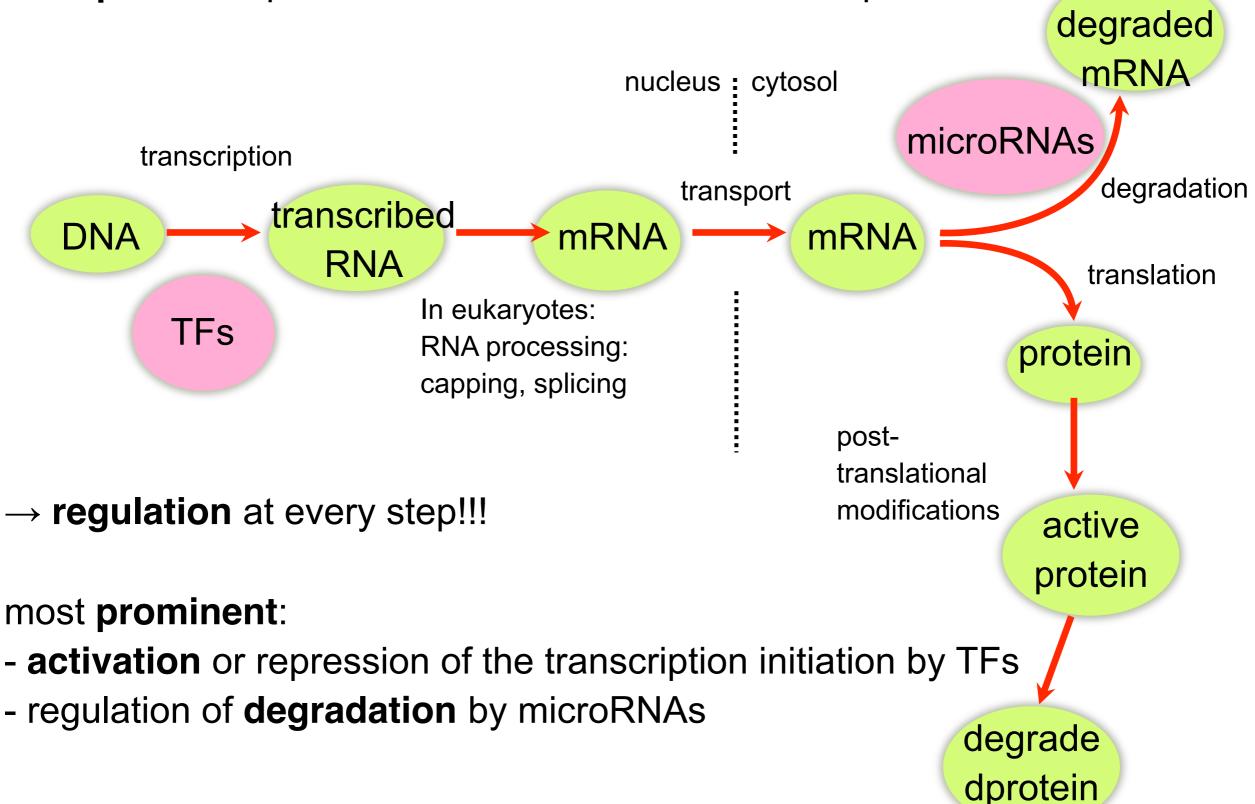
Growth OD 0.46

Flux Re-Routing during diauxic shift



Gene Expression

Sequence of processes: from DNA to functional proteins

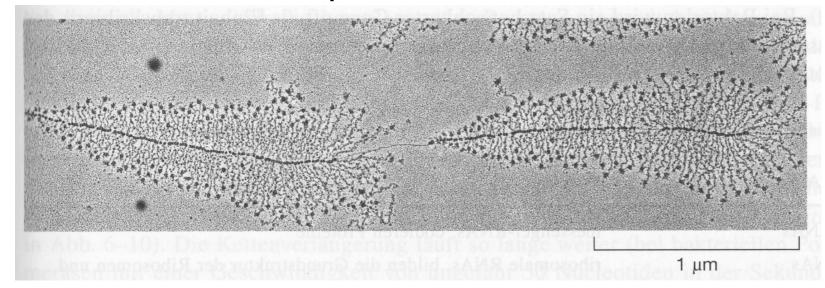


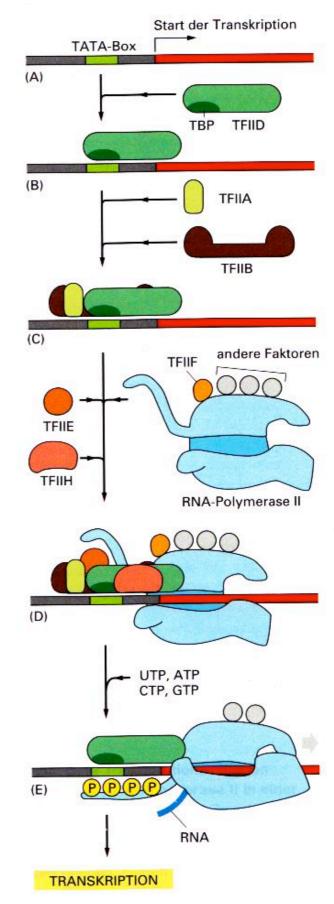
Bioinformatics 3 – WS 15/16

Transcription Initiation

In eukaryotes:

- several general transcription factors
 have to bind
- specific enhancers or repressors
 may bind
- then the RNA polymerase binds
- and starts transcription





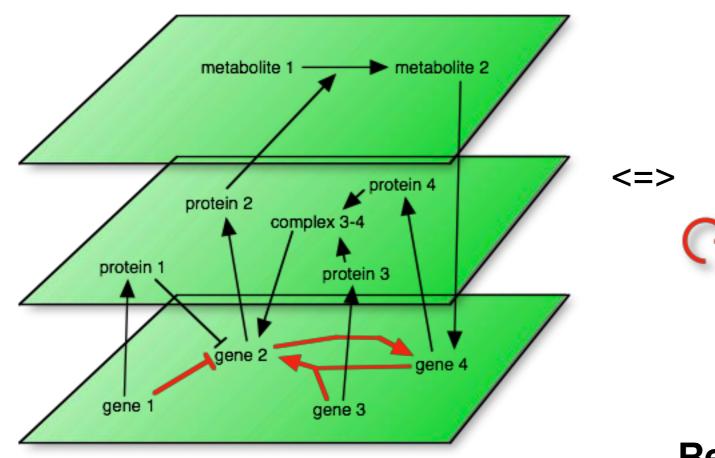
Alberts et al.

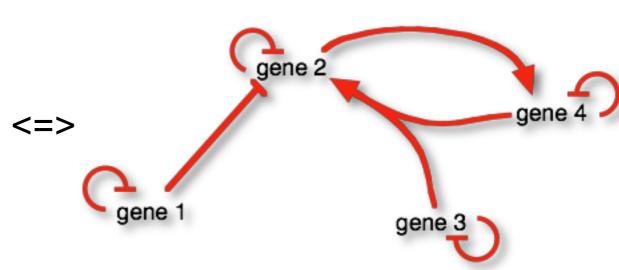
"Molekularbiologie der Zelle", 4. Aufl.

Layers upon Layers

Biological regulation via proteins and metabolites

<=> Projected regulatory network





Remember: genes do not interact directly

Conventions for GRN Graphs

Nodes: genes that code for proteins which catalyze products ...

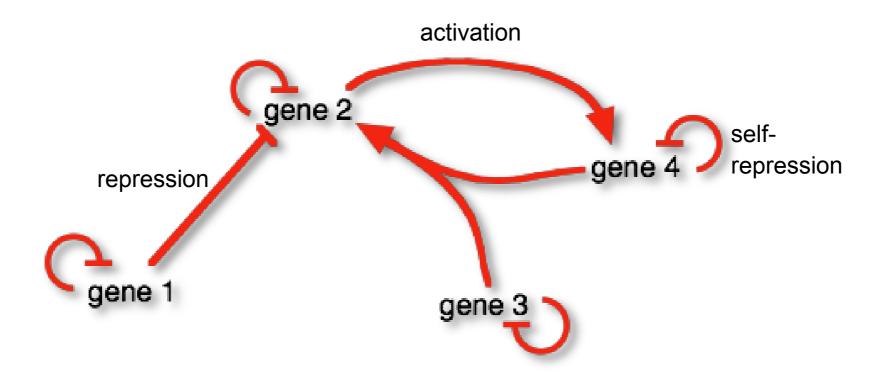
→ everything is projected onto respective gene

Gene regulation networks have "cause and action"

→ **directed** networks

A gene can enhance or suppress the expression of another gene

→ two types of arrows



What is a GRN?

Gene regulatory networks (GRN) are model representations of how genes regulate the expression levels of each other.

In transcriptional regulation, proteins called **transcription factors (TFs)** regulate the transcription of their **target genes** to produce messenger RNA (mRNA),

whereas in **post-transcriptional regulation microRNAs** (miRNAs) cause degradation and repression of target mRNAs.

These interactions are represented in a GRN by adding edges linking TF or miRNA genes to their target mRNAs.

Narang et al. (2015). PLoS Comput Biol 11(9): e1004504

What is a GRN?

Since these physical interactions are fixed, we can represent a GRN as a **static network** even though regulatory interactions occur dynamically in space and time.

A GRN provides a systemic view of gene regulation by coordinated activity of multiple TFs and miRNAs and thus serves as a medium for understanding the mechanism of gene regulation.

Narang et al. (2015). PLoS Comput Biol 11(9): e1004504

Which TF binds where?

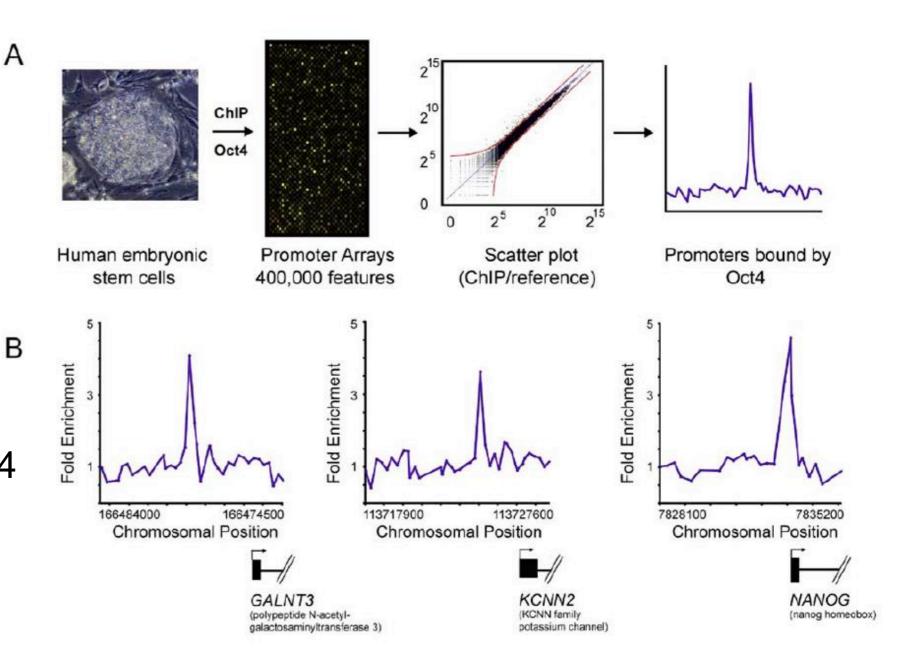
Chromatin immuno precipitation: use e.g. antibody against Oct4

→ "fish" all DNA fragments that bind Oct4

→ sequence DNA fragments bound to Oct4

→ align them + extract characteristic sequence features

→ Oct4 binding motif



Boyer et al. Cell 122, 947 (2005)

Sequence logos represent binding motifs

A **logo** represents each column of the alignment by a stack of letters, with the height of each letter proportional to the **observed frequency** of the corresponding amino acid or nucleotide, and the overall height of each stack proportional to the sequence conservation, measured in bits, at that position.

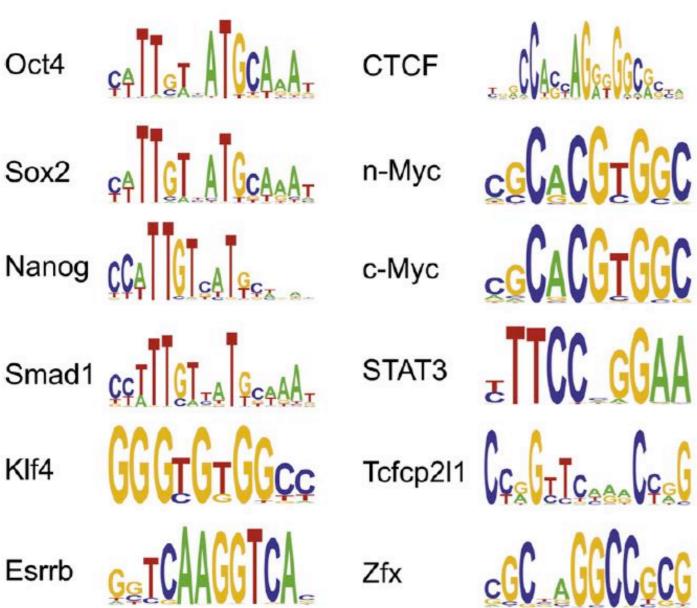
Sequence conservation is defined as difference between the maximum possible entropy and the entropy of the observed symbol distribution:

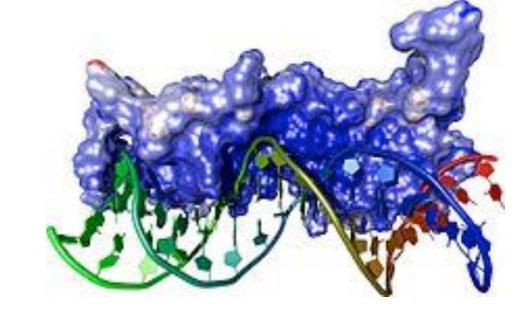
$$R_{seq} = S_{max} - S_{obs} = \log_2 N - \left(-\sum_{n=1}^{N} p_n \log_2 p_n\right)$$

 p_n : observed frequency of symbol n at a particular sequence position N: number of distinct symbols for the given sequence type, either 4 for DNA/RNA or 20 for protein.

Crooks et al., Genome Research 14:1188–1190 (2004)

Construct preferred binding motifs





DNA-binding domain of a glucocorticoid - receptor from *Rattus norvegicus* with the matching DNA fragment; www.wikipedia.de

Chen et al., Cell 133, 1106-1117 (2008)

Position specific weight matrix

Build list of genes that share a TF binding motif.

Generate multiple sequence alignment of their sequences.

Alignment matrix: how often does each letter occur at each position in the alignment?

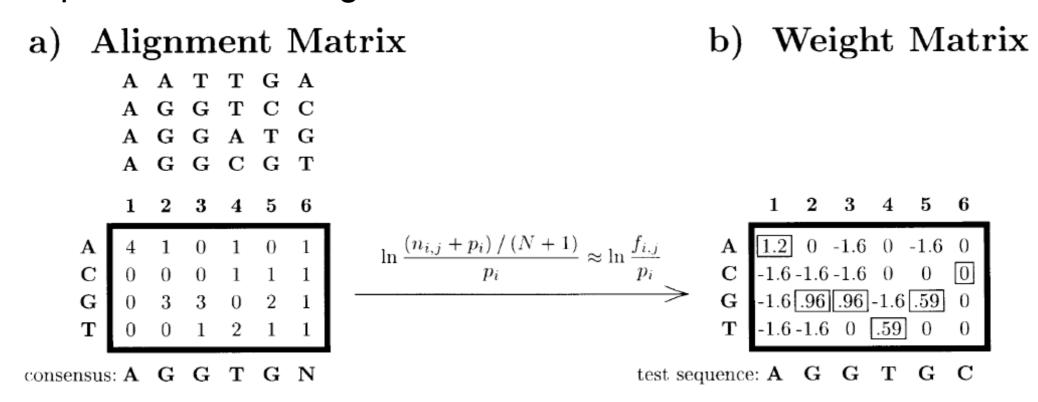


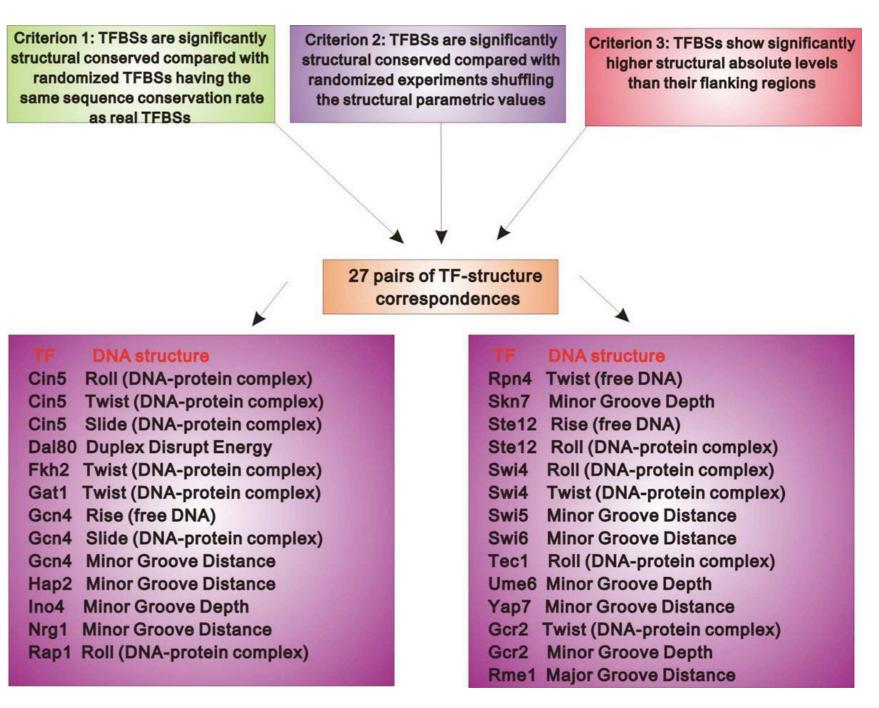
Fig. 1. Examples of the simple matrix model for summarizing a DNA alignment. (a) An alignment matrix describing the alignment of the four 6-mers on top. The matrix contains the number of times, $n_{i,j}$, that letter i is observed at position j of this alignment. Below the matrix is the consensus sequence corresponding to the alignment (N indicates that there is no nucleotide preference). (b) A weight matrix derived from the alignment in (a). The formula used for transforming the alignment matrix to a weight matrix is shown above the arrow. In this formula, N is the total number of sequences (four in this example), p_i is the *a priori* probability of letter i (0.25 for all the bases in this example) and $f_{i,j} = n_{i,j}/N$ is the frequency of letter i at position j. The numbers enclosed in blocks are summed to give the overall score of the test sequence. The overall score is 4.3, which is also the maximum possible score with this weight matrix.

Hertz, Stormo (1999) Bioinformatics 15, 563

What do TFs recognize?

(1) Amino acids of the TFs make specific contacts (e.g. hydrogen bonds) with DNA base pairs

(2) DNA conformation
depends on its sequence
→ Some TFs "measure"
different aspects of
the DNA conformation



Dai et al. BMC Genomics 2015, 16(Suppl 3):S8

E. coli Regulatory Network

BMC Bioinformatics



Research article

Open Access

Hierarchical structure and modules in the Escherichia coli transcriptional regulatory network revealed by a new top-down approach

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BMC Bioinformatics **5** (2004) 199

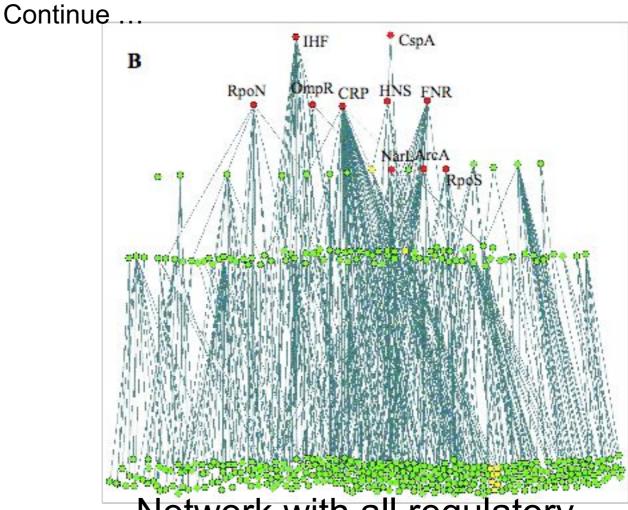
Simple organisms have hierarchical GRNs

Largest weakly connected component (ignore directions of regulation) : 325 operons (3/4 of the complete network)

Network from standard layout algorithm

Lowest level: operons that code for TFs with only autoregulation, or no TFs

Next layer: delete nodes of lower layer, identify TFs that do not regulate other operons in this layer (only lower layers)



Network with all regulatory edges pointing downwards

→ a few global regulators (•) control all the details

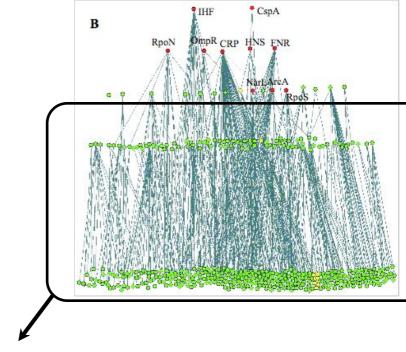
Global Regulators in *E. coli*

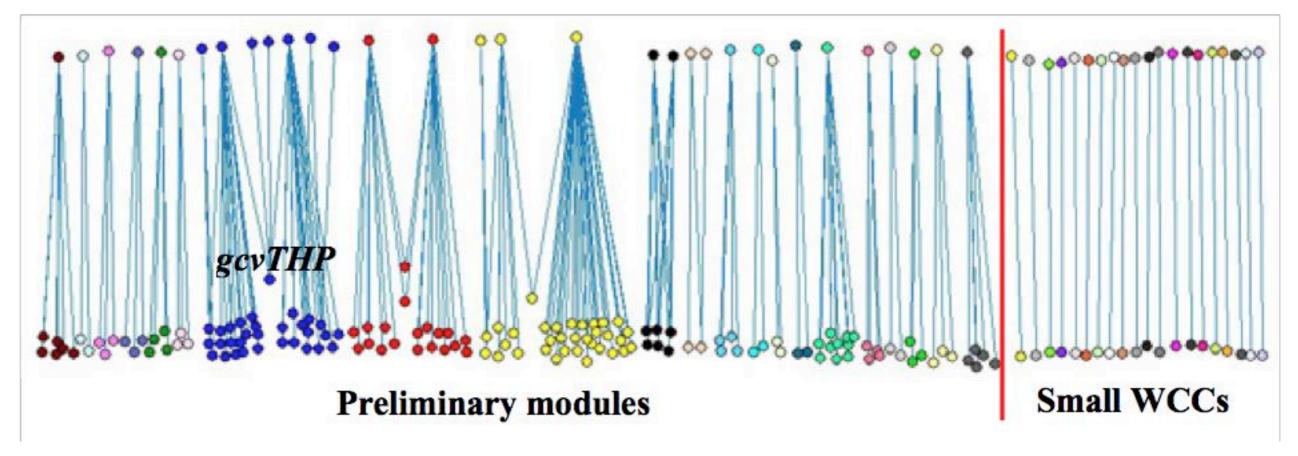
Table I: Global regulators and their regulated operons and functions in the regulatory network of E. coli.

Global regulator	directly regulated Operons	Total regulated operons	Modules regulated	Function
IHF	21	39	15	integration host factor
CspA	2	24	5	Cold shock protein
CRP	72	112	21	cAMP receptor protein
FNR	22	38	16	anaerobic regulator, regulatory gene for nitrite and nitrate reductase
HNS	7	22	5	DNA-binding global regulator; involved in chromosome organization; preferentially binds bent DNA
OmpR	6	20	3	Response regulator for osmoregulation; regulates production membrane proteins
RpoN	12	17	4	RNA polymerase sigma 54 subunit
RpoS	14	24	8	stationary phase sigma factor
ArcA	20	21	6	Response regulator protein represses aerobic genes under anaerobic growth conditions and activates some anaerobic gen
NarL	13	15	5	Two-component regulator protein for nitrate/nitrite respons

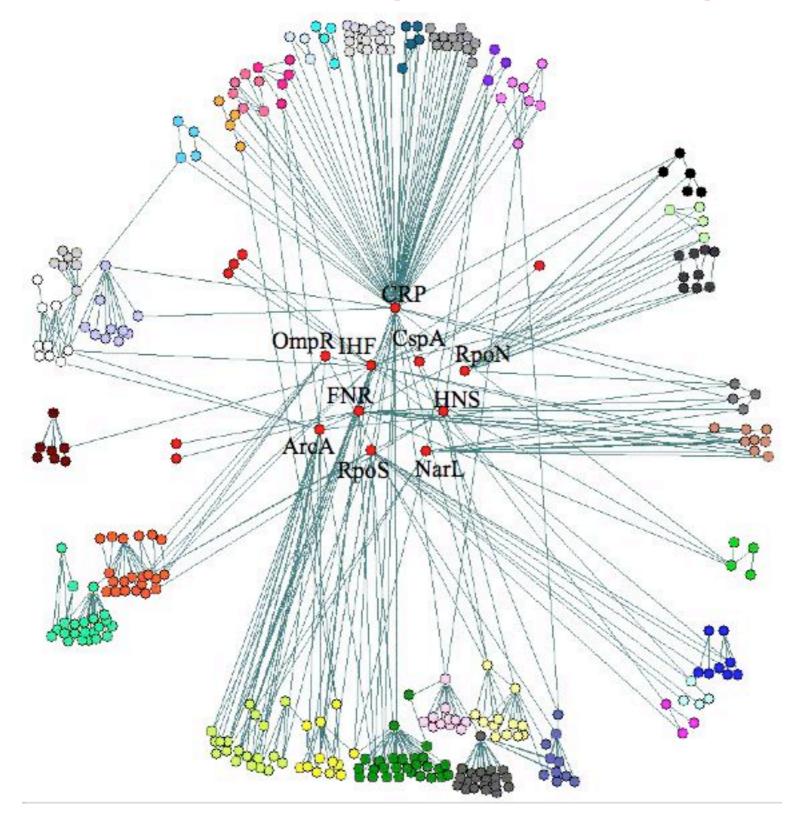
E.coli GRN modules

Remove top 3 layers and determine WCCs
→ just a few modules





Putting it back together



The 10 global regulators are at the core of the network, some hierarchies exist between the

modules

Modules have specific functions

Table 2: Functional i	investigation of	f modules	identified.
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index	Operons included	Biological function description
l	aceBAK, acs, adhE, fruBKA, fruR, icdA, iclMR, mlc, ppsA, ptsG, ptsHI_crr, pykF	Hexose PTS transport system, PEP generation, Acetate usage, glyoxylate shunt
2	acnA, fbr, fumC, marRAB, nfo, sodA, soxR, soxS, zwf	Oxidative stress response
3	ada_alkB, aidB, alkA, ahpCF, dps, gorA, katG, oxyR	Oxidative stress response, Alkylation
4	alaWX, aldB, argU, argW, argX_hisR_leuT_proM, aspV, dnaA, leuQPV, leuX, lysT_valT_lysW, metT_leuW_glnUW_metU_glnVX, metY_yhbC_nusA_infB, nrdAB, pdhR_aceEF_lpdA, pheU, pheV, proK, proL, proP, sdhCDAB_b0725_sucABCD, serT, serX, thrU_tyrU_glyT_thrT, thrW, tyrTV, valUXY_lysV, yhdG_fis	rRNA, tRNA genes, DNA synthesis system, pyruvate dehydrogenase and ketoglutarate dehydrogenase system
5	araBAD, araC, araE, araFGH, araJ	Arabinose uptake and usage
6	argCBH, argD, argE, argF, argI, argR, carAB	Arginine usage, urea cycle
7	caiF, caiTABCDE, fixABCX	Carnitine usage
8	clpP, dnaKJ, grpE, hflB, htpG, htpY, ibpAB, lon, mopA, mopB, rpoH	Heat shock response
9	codBA, cvpA_purF_ubiX, glnB, glyA, guaBA, metA, metH, metR, prsA, purC, purEK, purHD, purL, purMN, purR, pyrC, pyrD, speA, ycfC_purB, metC, metF, metJ	Purine synthesis, purine and pyrimidine salvage pathway, methionine synthesis
10	cpxAR, cpxP, dsbA, ecfl, htrA, motABcheAW, ppiA, skp_lpxDA_fabZ, tsr, xprB_dsbC_recf	Stress response, Conjugative plasmid expression, cell motility and Chemotaxis
11	dctA, dcuB_fumB, frdABCD, yjdHG	C4 dicarboxylate uptake
12	edd_eda, gntKU, gntR, gntT	Gluconate usage, ED pathway
13	csgBA, csgDEFG, envY_ompT, evgA, gcvA, gcvR, gcvTHP, gltBDF, ilvlH, kbl_tdh, livJ, livKHMGF, lrp, lysU, ompC, ompF, oppABCDF, osmC, sdaA, serA, stpA	Amino acid uptake and usage
14	fdhF, fhIA, hycABCDEFGH, hypABCDE	Formate hydrogenlyase system
15	flgAMN, flgBCDEFGHIJ, flgKL, flgMN, flhBAE, flhDC, fliAZY, fliC, fliDST, fliE, fliFGHIJK, fliLMNOPQR, tarTapcheRBYZ	Flagella motility system
16	ftsQAZ, rcsAB, wza_wzb_b2060_wcaA_wcaB	Capsule synthesis, cell division
17	gdhA, glnALG, glnHPQ, nac, putAP	Glutamine and proline utilization
18	glmUS, manXYZ, nagBACD, nagE	Glucosamine, mannose utilization
19	glpACB, glpD, glpFK, glpR, glpTQ	Glycerol phosphate utilization
20	lysA, lysR, tdcABCDEFG, tdcR	Serine, threonine usage
_J	TEC malk land add maleo mals mall malz	Maltose willingtion

Transcription factors in yeast S. cereviseae

Q: How can one define transcription factors?

Hughes & de Boer consider as TFs proteins that

- (a) bind DNA directly and in a sequence-specific manner and
- (b) function to regulate transcription nearby sequences they bind

Q: Is this a good definition?

E.g. only 8 of 545 human proteins that bind specific DNA sequences and regulate transcription lack a known DNA-binding domain (DBD).

Transcription factors in yeast

Hughes and de Boer list 209 known and putative yeast TFs, the vast majority

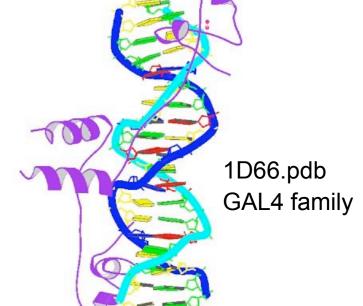
of which contain a canonical DNA-binding domain.

Most abundant:

- GAL4/zinc cluster domain (57 proteins), largely specific to fungi (e.g. yeast)
- zinc finger C2H2 domain (41 proteins), most common among all eukaryotes.

Other classes:

- bZIP (15),
- Homeodomain (12),
- GATA (10), and
- basic helix-loop-helix (bHLH) (8).



Hughes, de Boer (2013) Genetics 195, 9-36

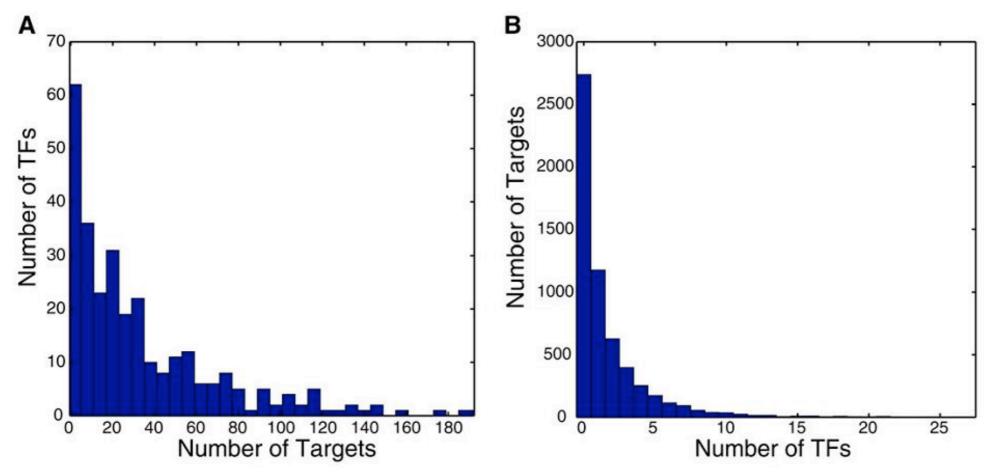
TFs of S. cereviseae

(A) Most TFs tend to bind relatively few targets.

57 out of 155 unique proteins bind to ≤ 5 promoters in at least one condition.

17 did not significantly bind to any promoters under any condition tested.

In contrast, several TFs have hundreds of promoter targets. These TFs include the general regulatory factors (GRFs), which play a global role in transcription under diverse conditions.



Hughes, de Boer (2013) Genetics 195, 9-36

Co-expression of TFs and target genes?

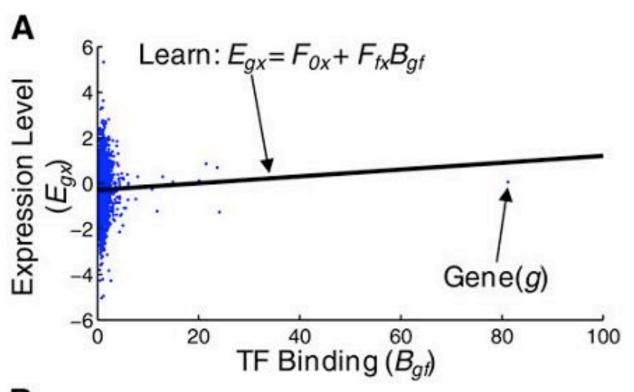
Overexpression of a TF often leads to induction or repression of target genes.

This suggests that many TFs can be regulated simply by the abundance (expression levels) of the TF.

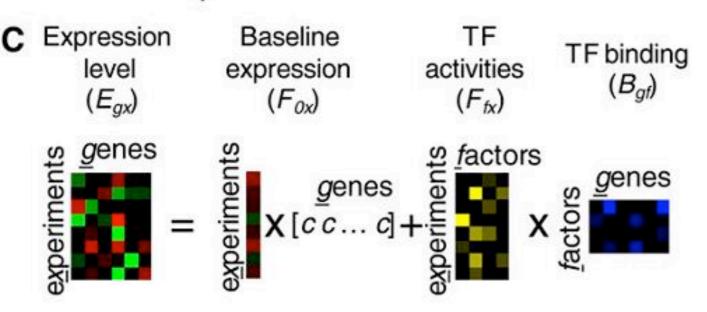
However, across 1000 microarray expression experiments for yeast, the **correlation** between a TF's expression and that of its ChIP-based targets was typically **very low** (only between 0 and 0.25).

Considering that at least some of this correlation can be accounted for by the fact that a subset of TFs autoregulate, this finding supports the notion that TF expression accounts for only a minority of the regulation of TF activity in yeast.

Using regression to predict gene expression



$$E_{gx} = F_{0x} + \sum_{f} F_{fx} B_{gf}$$



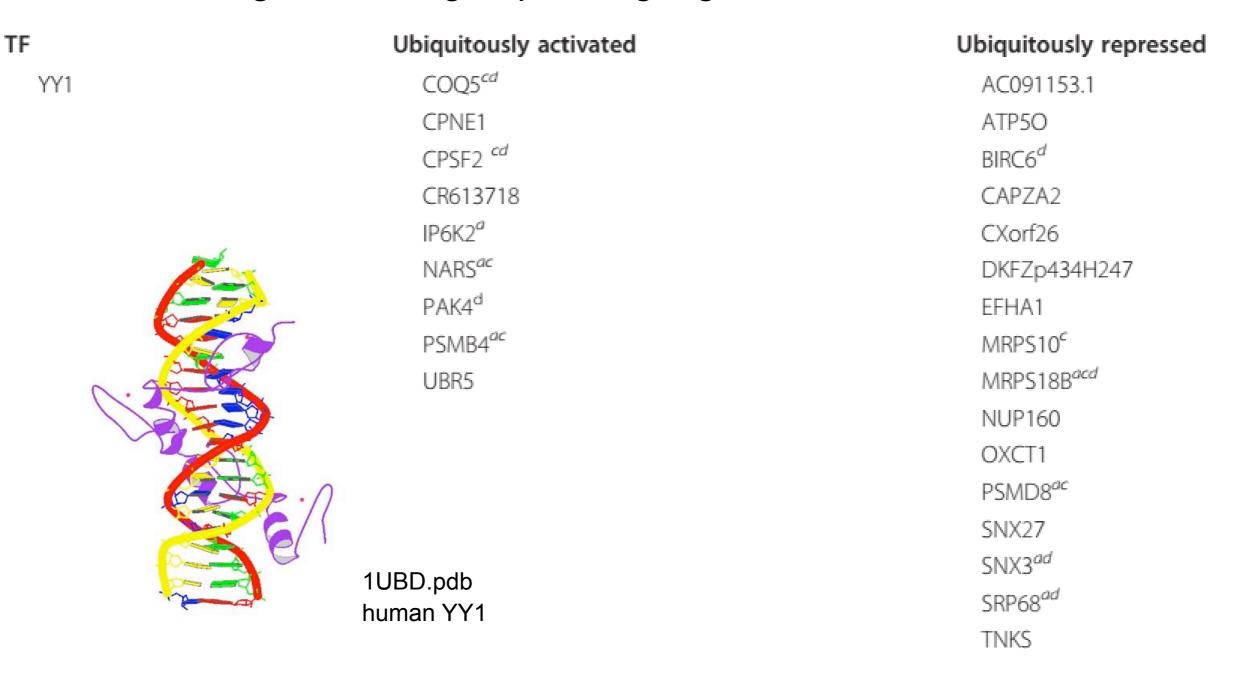
- (A) Example where the relationship between expression level (E_{gx}) and TF binding to promoters (B_{gf}) is found for a single experiment (x) and a single TF (f). Here, the model learns 2 parameters: the background expression level for all genes in the experiment (F_{0x}) and the activity of the transcription factor in the given experiment (F_{fx}).
- (B) The generalized equation for multiple factors and multiple experiments.
- (C) Matrix representation of the generalized equation.

Baseline expression is the same for all genes and so is represented as a single vector multiplied by a row vector of constants where c = 1/(no. genes).

Hughes, de Boer (2013) Genetics 195, 9-36

Transcription factors in human: ENCODE

Some TFs can activate and express target genes. YY1 shows largest mixed group of target genes.



Whitfield et al. Genome Biology 2012, 13:R50

YY1 binding motifs

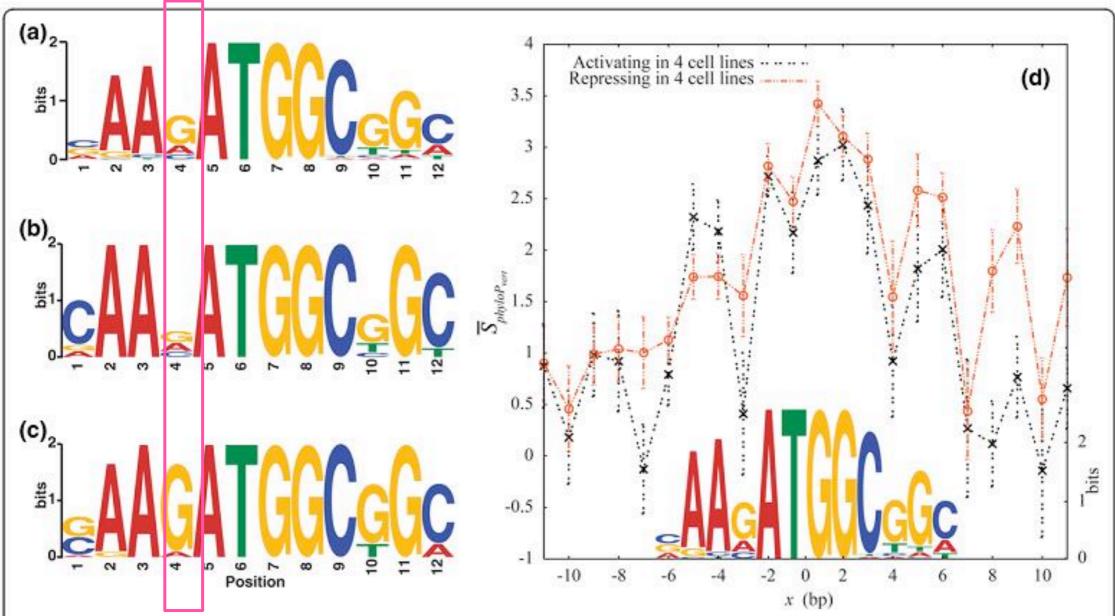
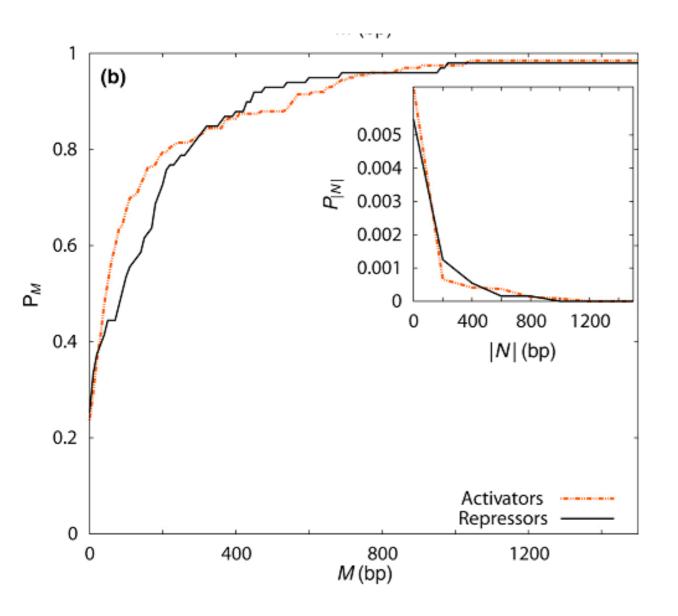


Figure 2 Characterization of functional YY1 binding sites. Sequence logo [102] for YY1 binding sites from (a) PWM and sites that are functionally (b) ubiquitously activating (9 BS) or (c) ubiquitously repressive (16 BS) in four human cell lines. In (d), we plot the mean vertebrate phyloP conservation score [90] around functional YY1 binding sites. The mean score, $\bar{S}_{phyloP_{vert}}$, was computed at each base for sites where the binding event ubiquitously activated (black line) or repressed (red line) transcription in all four cell lines. The position weight matrix that was used to predict YY1 binding sites is shown (scale on the right axis).

Whitfield et al. Genome Biology 2012, 13:R50

Where are TF binding sites wrt TSS?

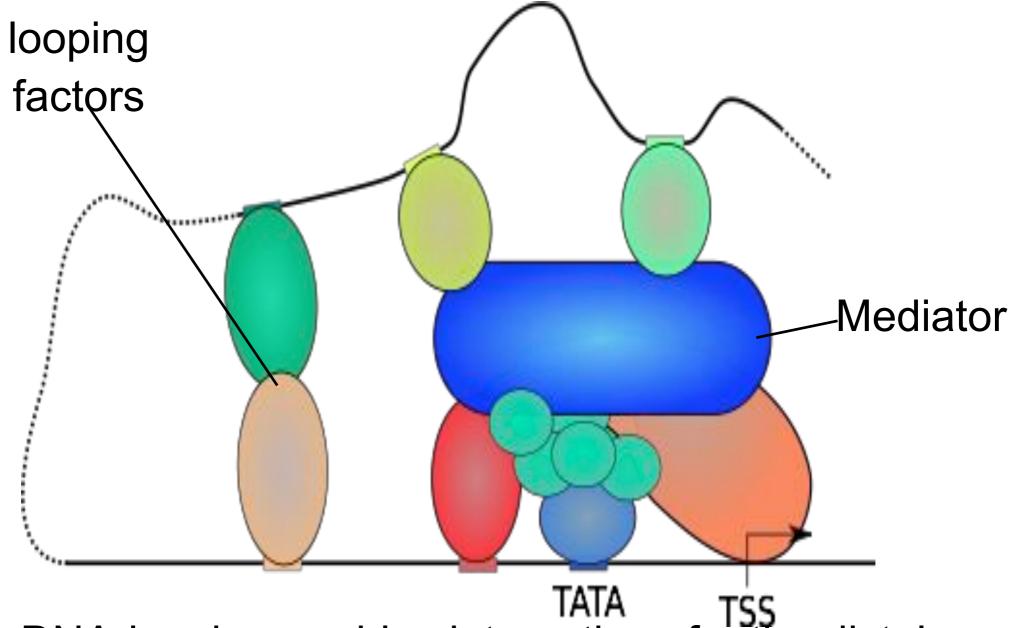


Inset: probability to find binding site at position N from transcriptional start site (TSS)

Main plot: cumulative distribution.

activating TF binding sites are significantly closer to the TSS than repressing TF binding sites $(p = 4.7 \times 10^{-2})$.

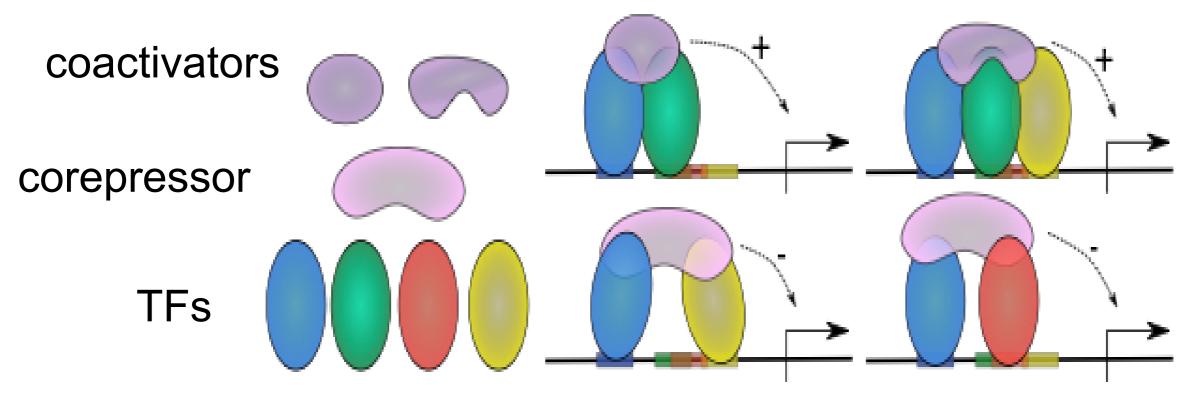
Cooperative transcriptional activation



DNA-looping enables interactions for the distal promotor regions,

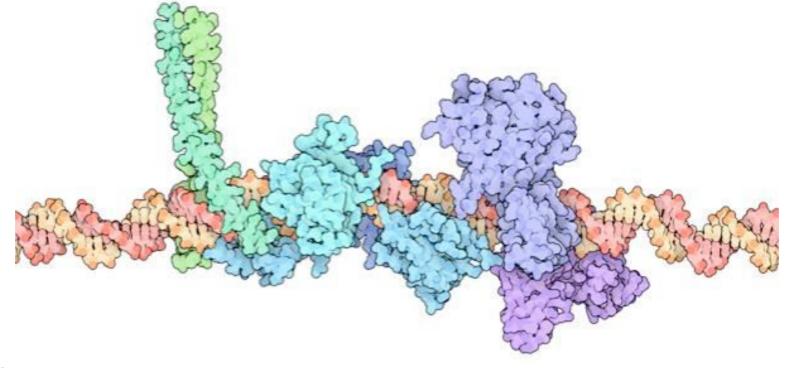
Mediator cofactor-complex serves as a huge linker

cis-regulatory modules

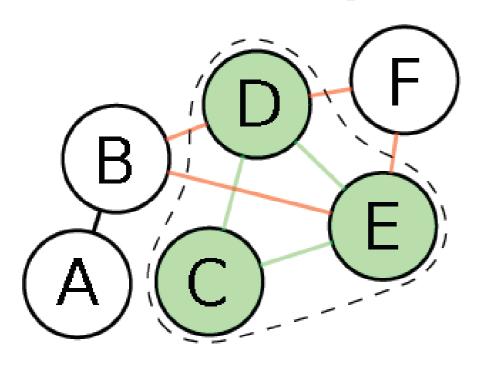


TFs are not dedicated activators or respressors!

It's the assembly that is crucial.



Protein complexes involving multiple transcription factors

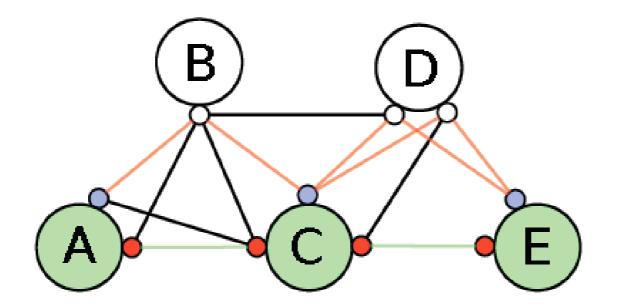


Borrow idea from ClusterOne method:
Identify candidates of TF complexes
in protein-protein interaction graph
by optimizing the cohesiveness

$$f(V) = \frac{w^{in}(V)}{w^{in}(V) + w^{bound}(V)}$$

underlying domain-domain representation of PPIs

Assumption: every domain supports only one interaction.

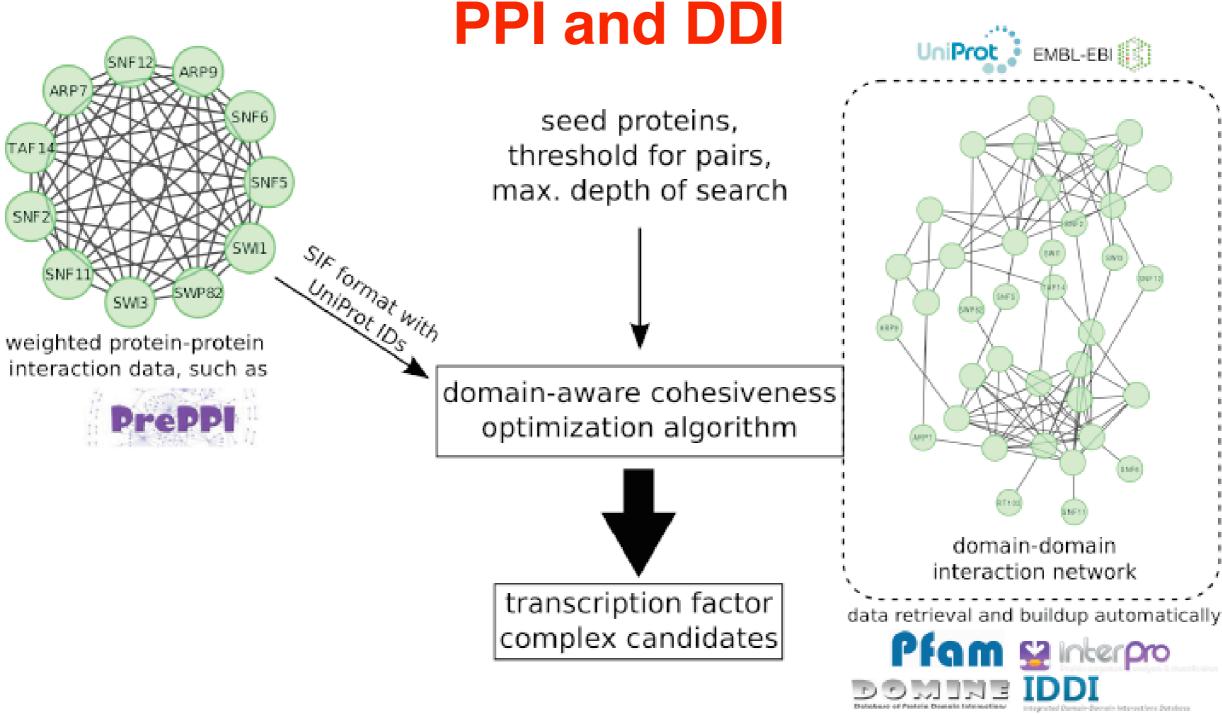


Green proteins A, C, E form actual complex.

Their red domains are connected by the two green edges.

B and D are incident proteins. They could form new interactions (red edges) with unused domains (blue) of A, C, E

data source used: Yeast Promoter Atlas,



Will, T. and Helms, V. (2014) Bioinformatics, 30, i415-i421

Daco identifies far more TF complexes than other methods

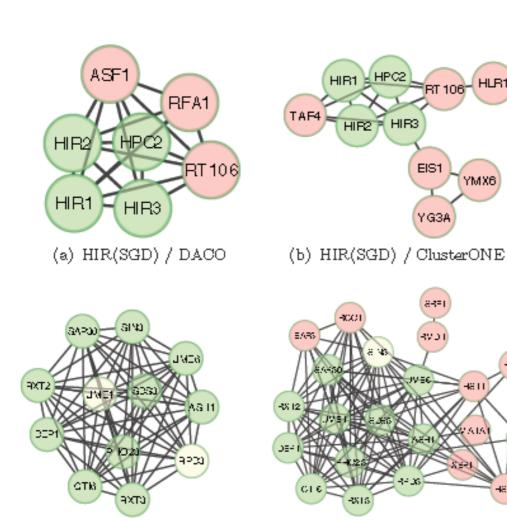
	DACO	Cl1ps	Cl1s	Cl1	MCD	MCL
TF complexes TF variants		175/176 134/138				

ClusterOne (Cl1), MCD and MCL are other methods to generate protein complexes from PP interaction data.

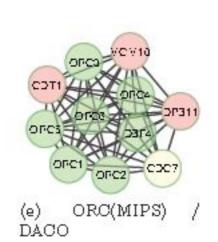
Listed here are the number of disjoint protein complexes generated by these methods that involve at least 2 TFs.

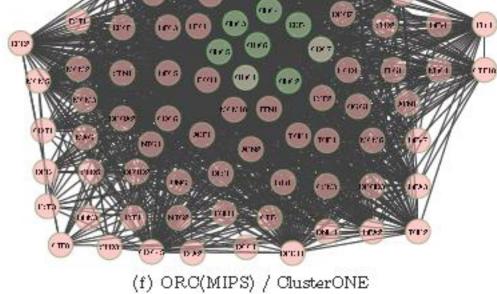
Examples of TF complexes – comparison

with ClusterONE



(d) RPD3L(CYC2008) / ClusterONE





Green nodes: proteins in the reference that were matched by the prediction

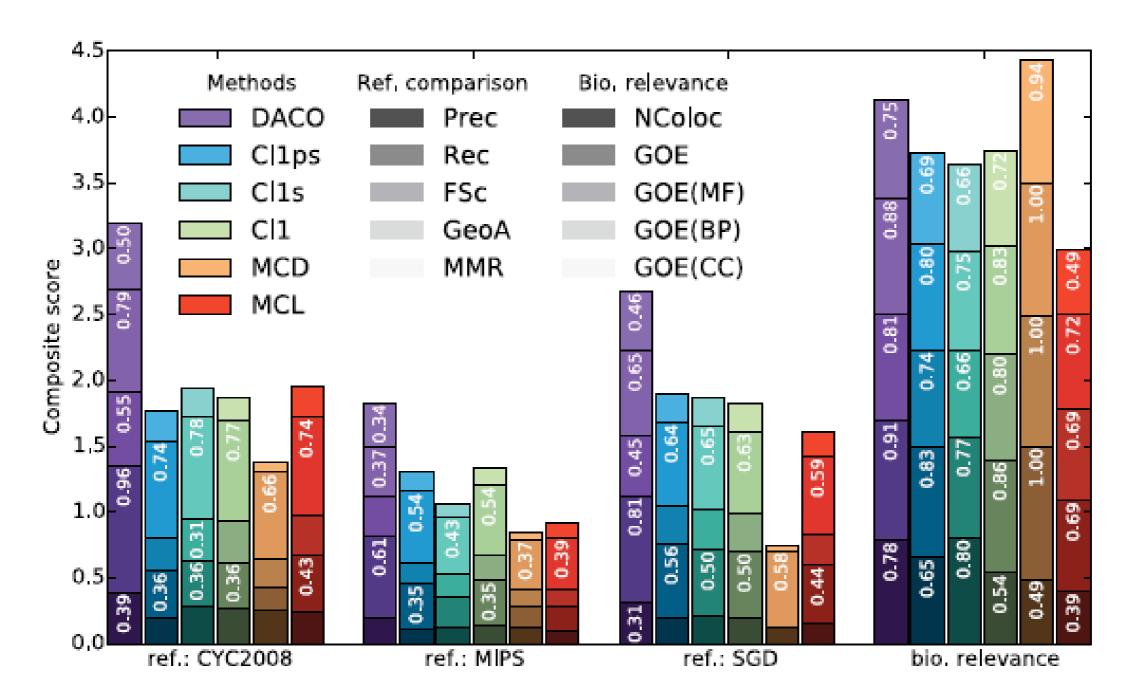
red nodes: proteins that are in the predicted complex, but not part of the reference.

→ DACO complexes are more compact than ClusterONE complexes

(c) RPD3L(CYC2008) /

DACO

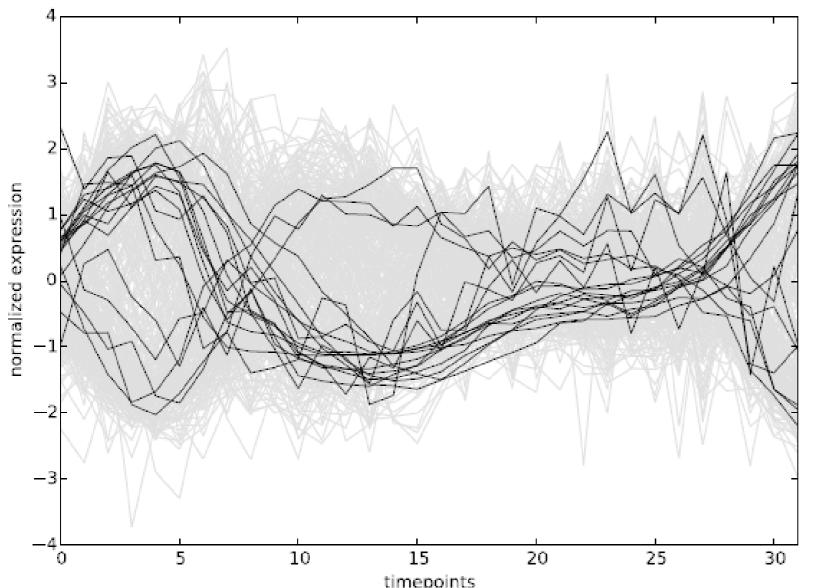
Performance evaluation



Columns 1-3: overlap of predicted complexes with gold-standard sets Column 4: functional homogeneity (GO terms) of complex components

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Co-expressed target genes of MET4/MET32 TF complex during yeast cell cycle



X-axis: 32 time points during yeast cell cycle

Y-axis: normalized expression of target genes of TFs MET4 and MET32

Grey: target genes of either MET4 or MET32 show scattered expression

Black: target genes of MET4 and MET32 show 2 expression modes

Functional role of TF complexes

TFs	$P_{ ext{dECS}}$	bind. mode	targets	reg. influence	GO process enrichment ($P < 0.05$) in targets
MET4/MET32	0.0010	coloc.	19	+	methionine metabolic process
TBP/HAP5	0.0335	med .	47	+	/
GLN3/DAL80	0.0009	med .	28	/	allantoin catabolic process
DIG1/STE12/SWI6	0.0369	all	15	/	fungal-type cell wall organization
FHL1/RAP1	0.0001	coloc.	116	+	rRNA transport
RPH1/GIS1	0.0001	med .	100	-	hexose catabolic process
CBF1/MET32	0.0002	coloc.	33	o	sulfate assimilation
DIG1/STE12	0.0003	med .	34	-	response to pheromone
GCN4/RAP1	0.033	med .	62	+	
MSN4/MSN2	0.0021	med .	105	+	oligosaccharide biosynthetic process
DAL80/GZF3	0.0044	\mathbf{med} .	20	-	purine nucleobase metabolic process
SWI6/SWI4	0.0039	med .	53	+	regulation of cyclin-dependent protein serine/threonine kinase activity
STB1/SWI6	0.0275	all	47	+	/
TBP/SWI6	0.0159	med .	14	+	/
GLN3/GZF3	0.0120	adj.	31	/	allantoin catabolic process
MBP1/SWI6/SWI4	0.0307	\mathbf{med} .	18	+	regulation of cyclin-dependent protein serine/threonine kinase activity
MBP1/SWI6	0.0124	adj.	25	/	cell cycle process