

Mapping the Genome: Mathematical and computational challenges

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Outline

Biological Background

Organization of genetic material (DNA)

Recombination

Building multilocus maps

Reduction to *TSP*

Consensus mapping as “synchronous” *TSP*

Mapping quantitative traits

Univariate and multivariate formulations

Using novel chip technologies

The challenge of high dimensionality

Some background

Life, Cell, and the Genome

Life primary principles: { Metabolism (catalyzed)
Reproduction (inheritance)
Evolution

Genome as evolving “program”

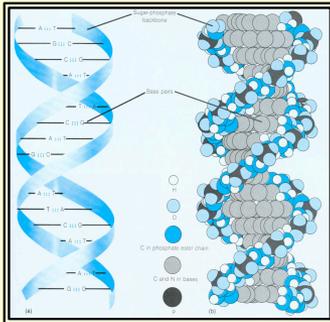
Genetic material: Molecular organization

Double helix DNA (Watson & Crick, 1953):

(a) location - mainly in **chromosomes** (nucleus)

(b) structure - a long **double helix** molecule

(c) coding elements - cytosine (C) & thymine (T)
adenine (A) & guanine (G)

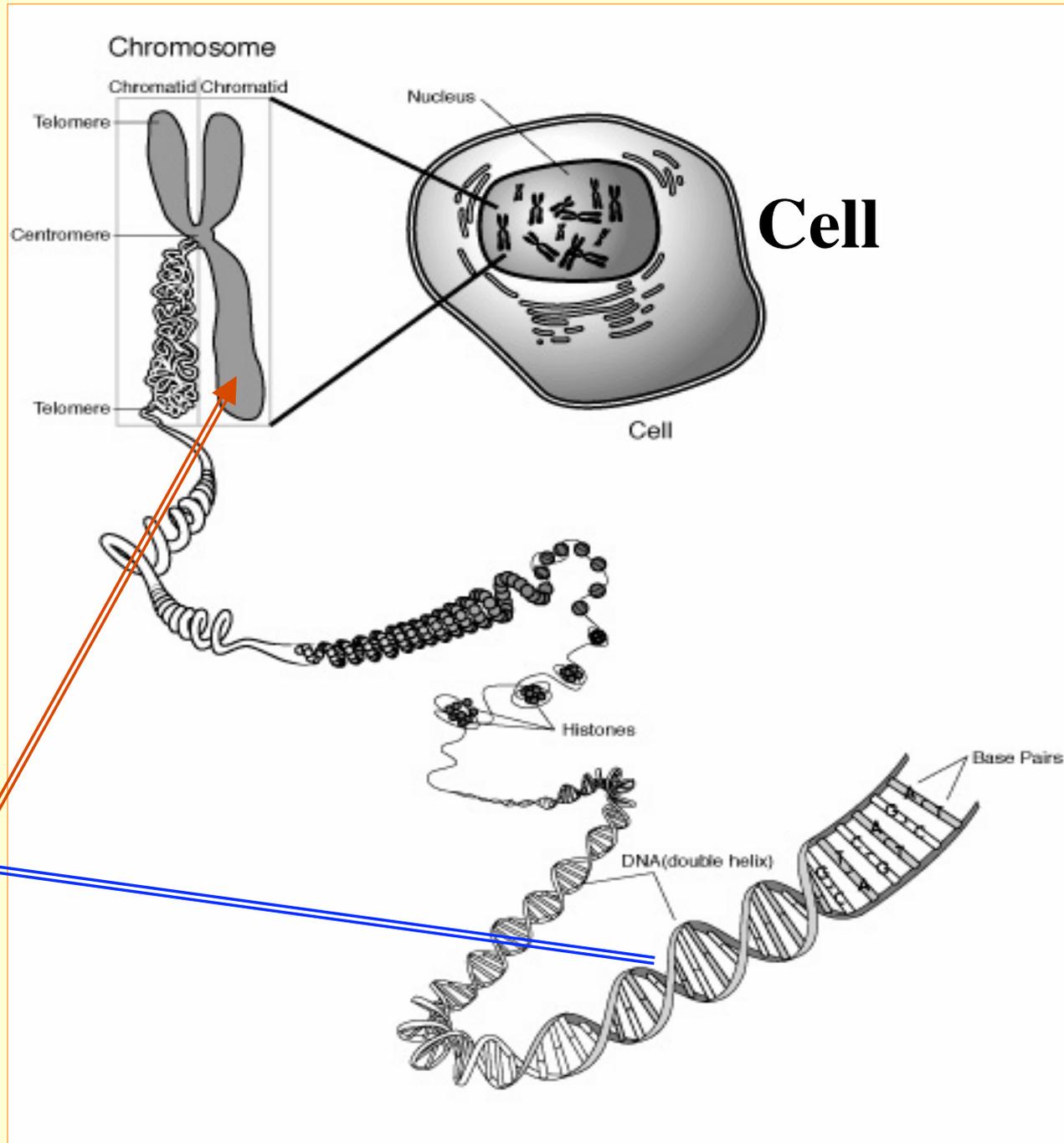
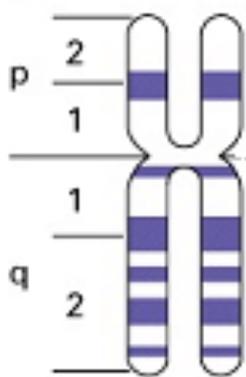
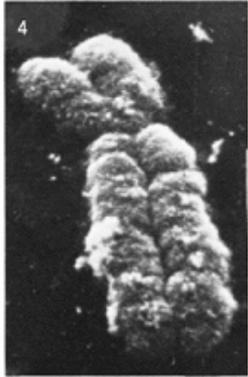


pairs: A ↔ T and G ↔ C

Complementary pairing

Genes encoding for proteins and other molecules are using this 4-letter alphabet across life

Organization of genetic material in eukaryotes

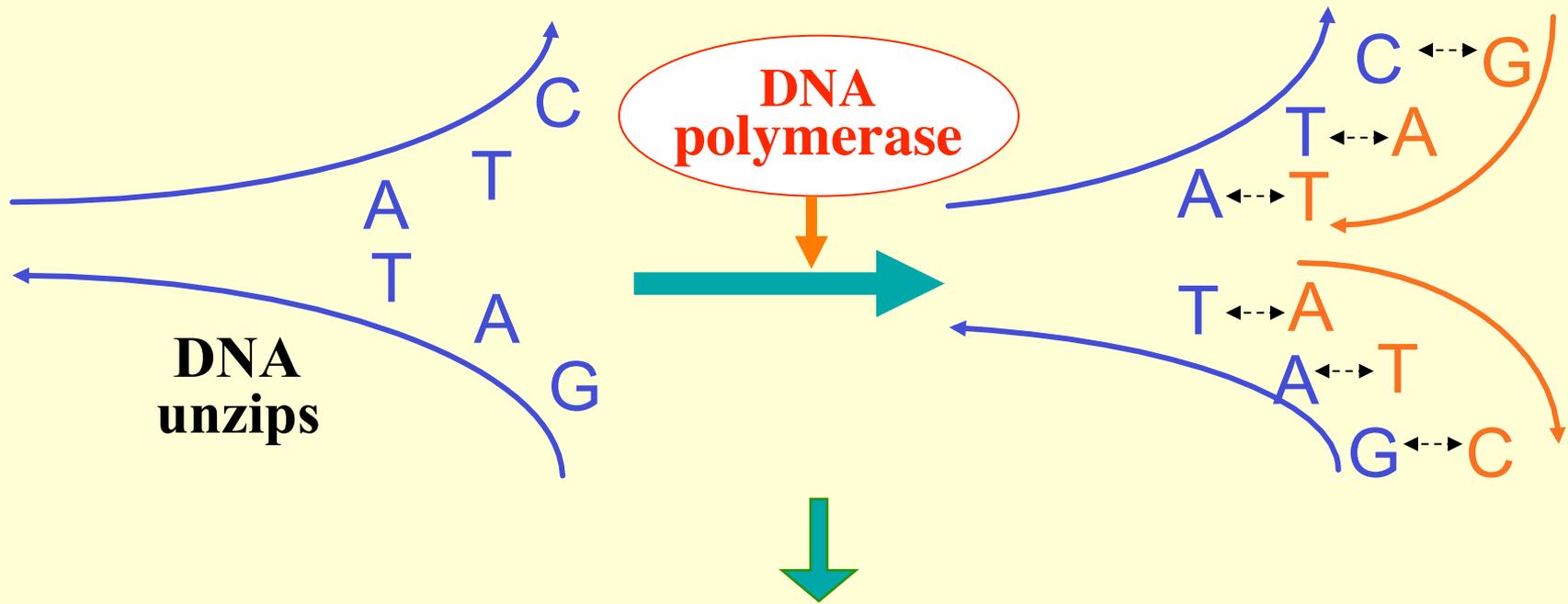


Several levels of DNA folding

from *cm*

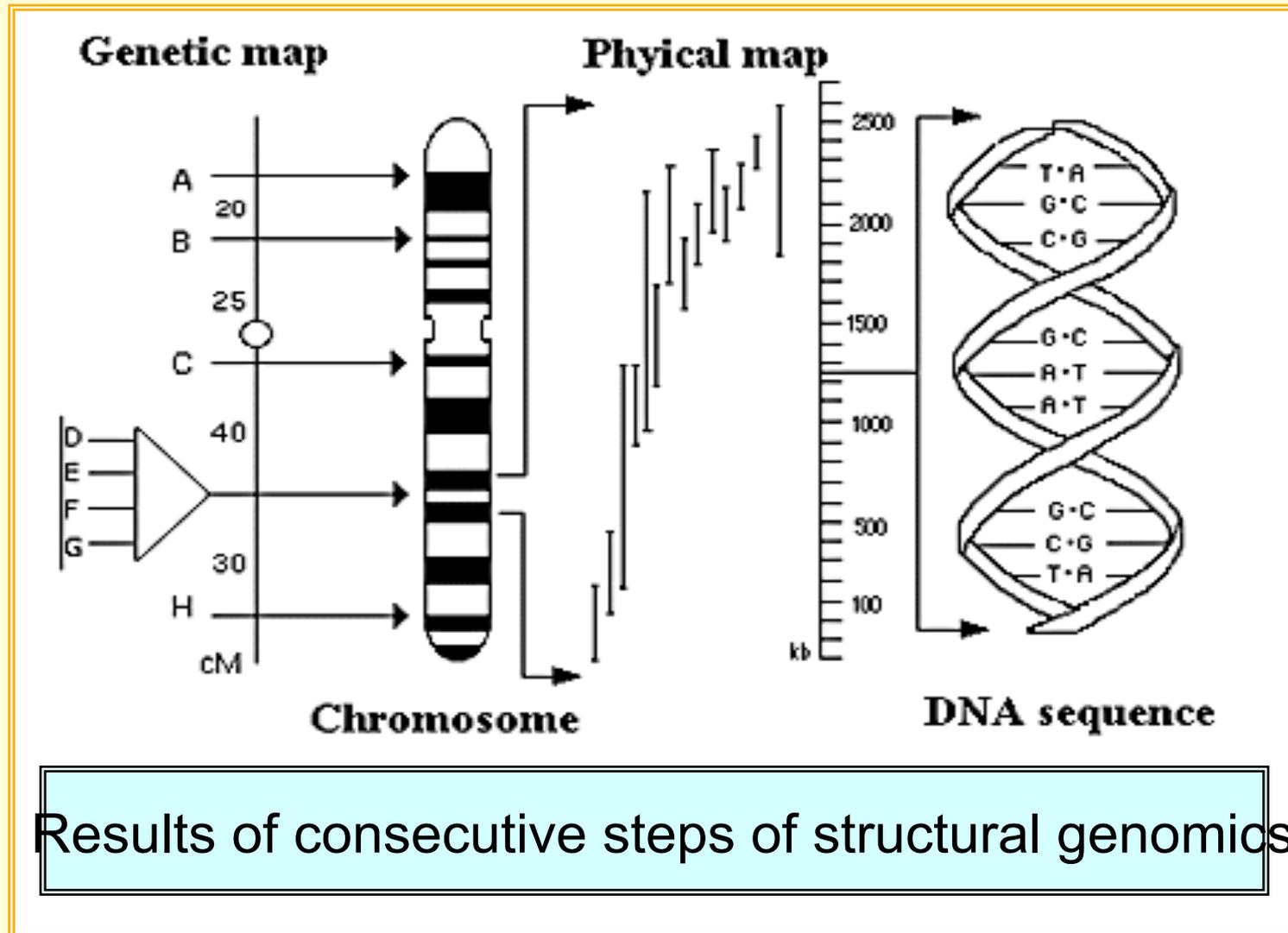
to *micron*

DNA replication: Forming DNA for new cells



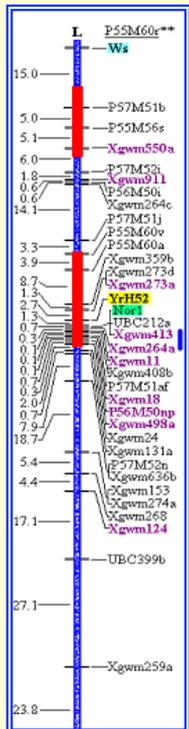
Semi-conservative replication: 2 double-stranded DNA molecules for 2 new cells

Structural genomics includes: genetic mapping, physical mapping and sequencing of entire genomes

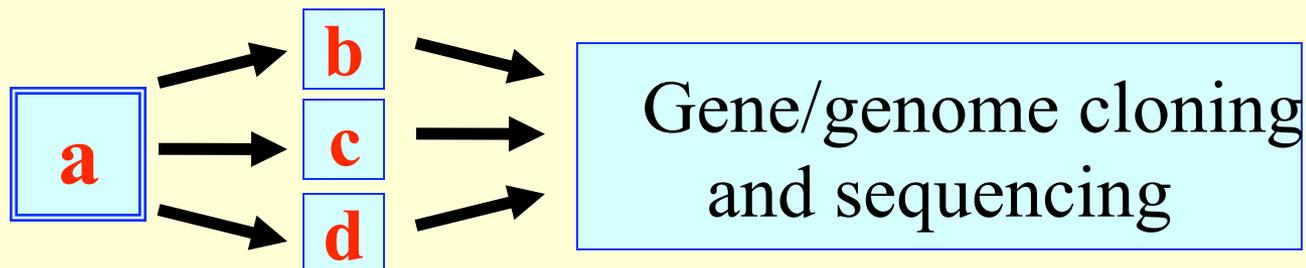


Genome mapping (genetic and physical mapping)

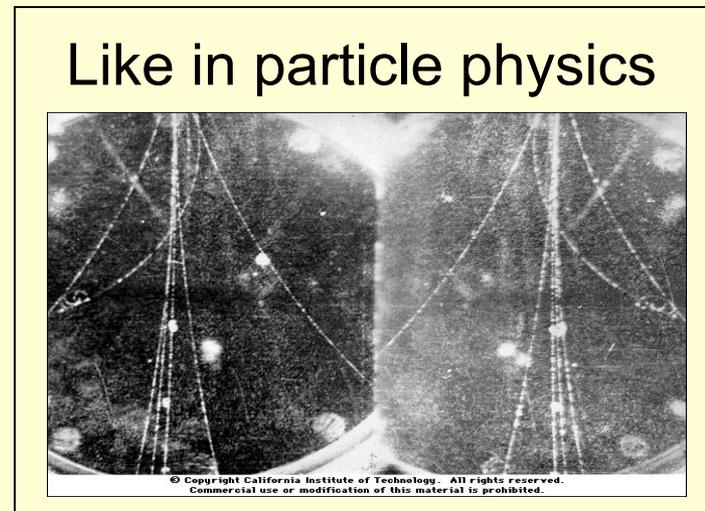
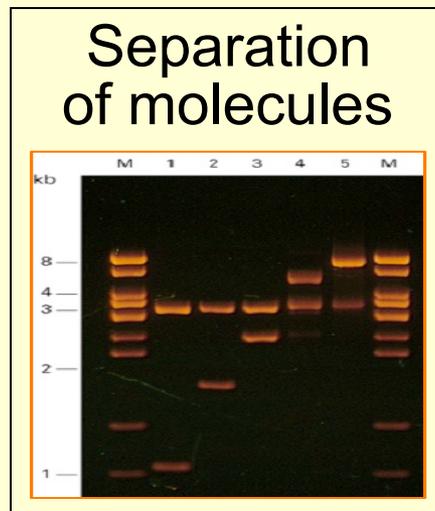
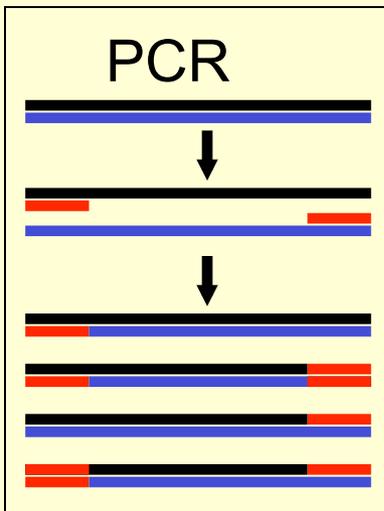
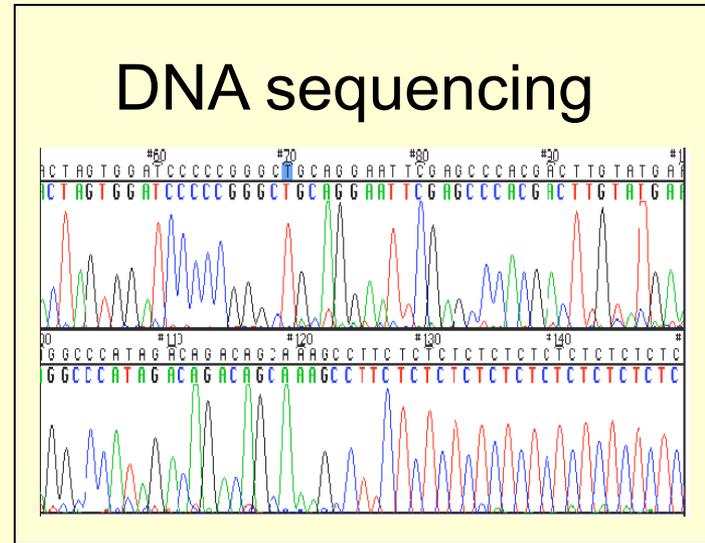
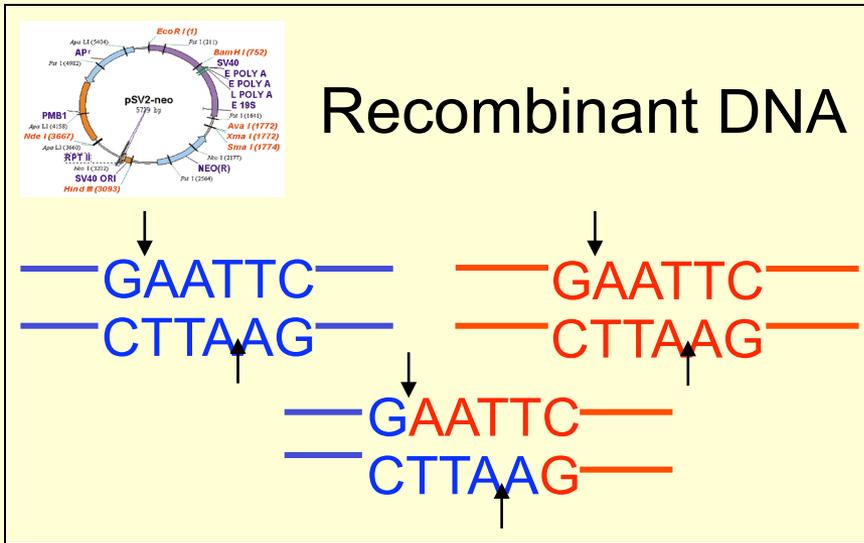
Genome mapping is a major part of genome projects and precondition for most of the genomic applications



- Positioning of DNA markers → genetic maps
- Positioning DNA pieces → physical maps
- Locating *Mendelian* genes relative to markers
- Mapping quantitative trait loci (QTL maps)



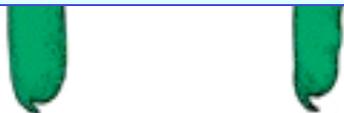
Major technological breakthroughs



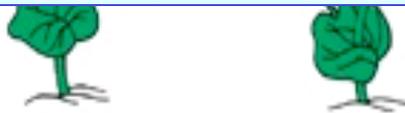
Mendel laws of genetics were discovered based on pairs of contrasting inherited pea *phenotypic* traits

In the progeny of hybrids between carriers of these traits Mendel found **new combinations**, in proportions fitting independent segregation model (Mendel 3rd law). Unlike such situations with *unlinked genes* that belong to different chromosomes, transmission of *linked genes* is not independent.

Studies of linked genes in fruit fly lead Morgan to discovery of *genetic recombination*.



Inflated or pinched ripe pods



Axial or terminal flowers

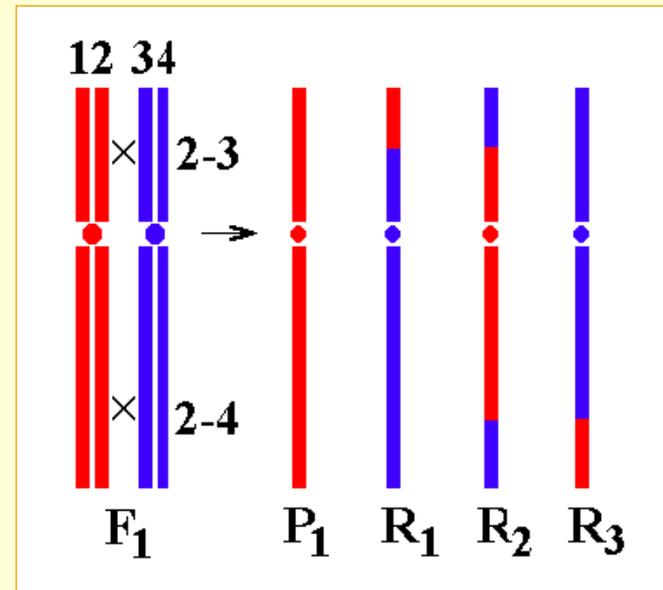
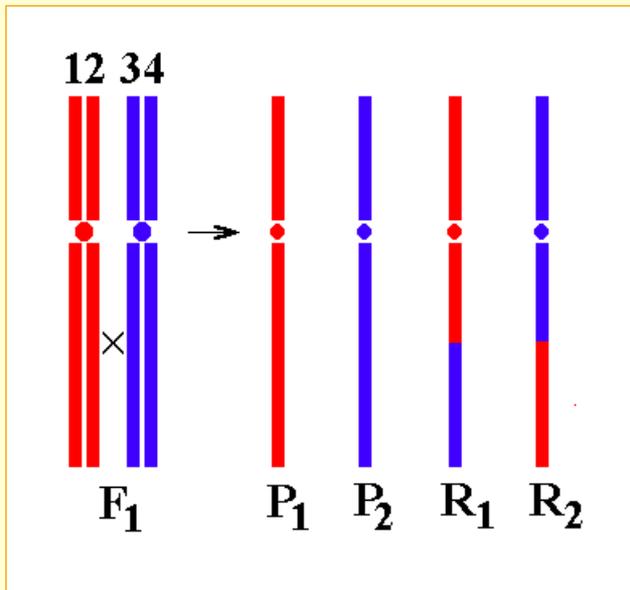


Long or short stems



Recombination (crossing-over) is the central event of sex

occurs at *meiosis*, during formation of sexual cells



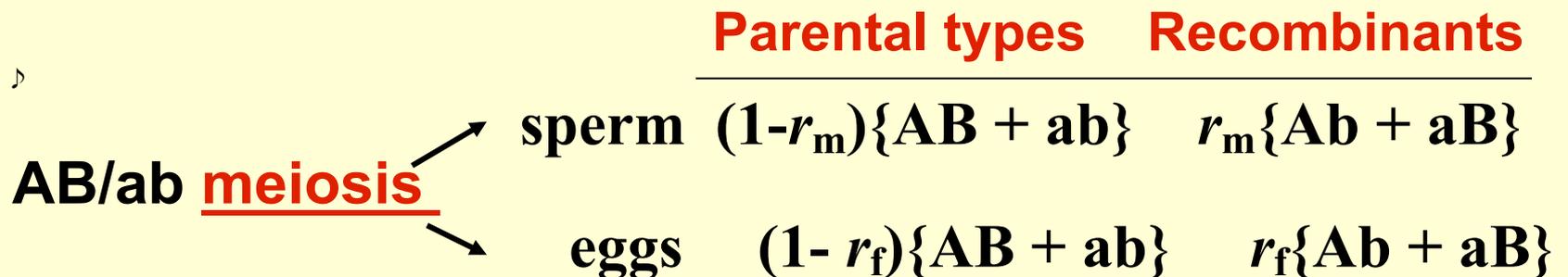
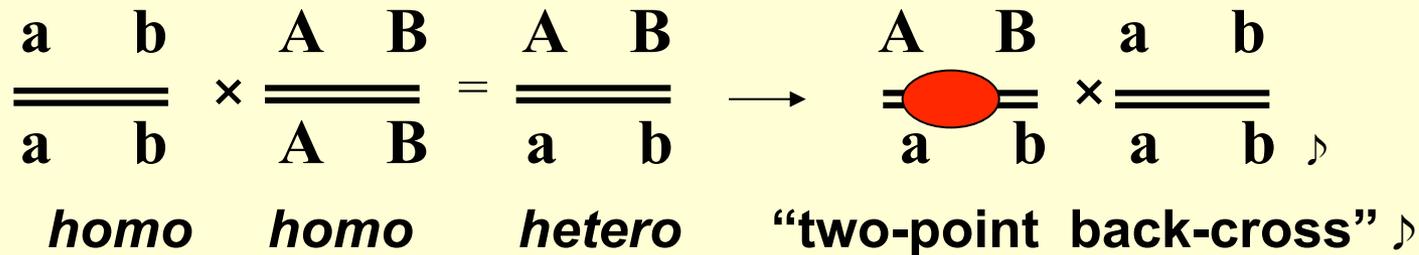
single-exchange

double-exchange

meiotic configurations

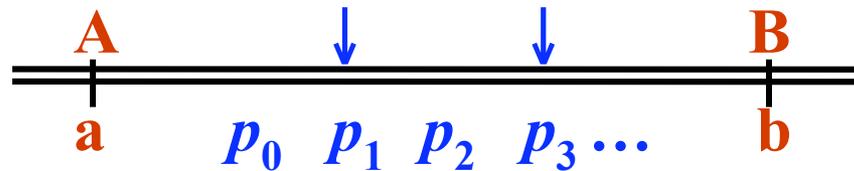
Recombination: the basis of genetic mapping

Genetic mapping: a procedure of revealing the order of genes in chromosomes. It uses a notion of *genetic distance*. But in fact, mapping is based on *recombination rates*.



Recombination rate and genetic map distance

Genetic Distance: $x = d(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b})$ - average number of recombination events in the segment over many meiotic cells



where p_k – prob. of k ($k = 0, 1, \dots$) exchanges in the interval.

Thus
$$x = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} k p_k, \quad \text{but} \quad r = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} p_{2k+1}$$

recombination rate r is the proportion of recombinant gametes

Problem: *observed* vs. *occurred*: Only **uneven** exchanges result in **recombinants** that can be registered.

Constructing dense and reliable genetic maps (ordering the markers)

- The 3rd generation of human map includes $\sim 2 \cdot 10^4$ loci
- A maize mapping project (Iowa, 2005) $\rightarrow \sim 10^4$ loci
- 12% (!) of markers on cattle maps proved erroneously positioned

<u>A</u>	<u>B</u>	<u>C</u>	<u>D</u>	<u>E</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>G</u>	<u>H</u>	<u>...</u>
a	b	c	d	e	f	g	h	...

Different approaches of multilocus ordering

Genetic distance

$$x_{ij} \geq 0$$

$$x_{ij} = x_{ji}$$

$$x_{ik} + x_{kj} = x_{ij}$$

Recombination rate

$$r_{ij} \geq 0$$

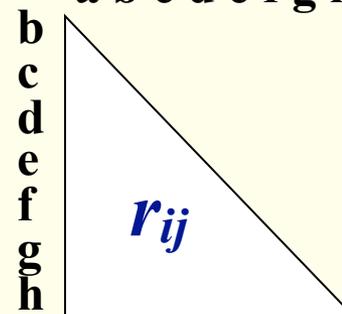
$$r_{ij} = r_{ji}$$

$$r_{ik} + r_{kj} \geq r_{ij}$$

A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H
a	b	c	d	e	f	g	h



Data
matrix of pairs
a b c d e f g h



- A** Multilocus likelihood analysis: calculates probabilities of orders
- B** Stepwise mapping by adding a marker at each step (“empiric”)
- C** Treatment of the full matrix of pair-wise distances (our approach)

Constructing dense genetic maps

(reliable multilocus ordering)

- Objectives

- ◆ Building multilocus maps (with $\sim 10^3$ markers/chr)
- ◆ Verification of the orders (and removing “bad guys”)
- ◆ Building consensus maps

- Method and technology

- ◆ Reduction to the *Traveler Salesman Problem* (TSP)
- ◆ *Evolutionary strategy optimization* algorithms

ES algorithm as a simulation analogue of evolutionary adaptation models

Natural elements

Chromosome

Individual, a set of chromosomes

Mutation, a small change of the chromosome

Population, set of individuals

Fitness, quantitative characteristic of organism's "fitness"

Selection, choosing the fittest individual(s) for the next generation

Simulation elements

Variable value x_i

Solution vector $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$

Operator **M**: $\mathbf{x}^k \rightarrow \mathbf{x}^{k+1}$

Set **P** of solution vectors $\{\mathbf{x}^k\}$

Criterion value $f(\mathbf{x}^k)$

Operator **S**: $f(\mathbf{x}^k) \rightarrow \min$

ES algorithm for ordering multilocus maps

<u>Order 1:</u>	a b c d e f g h k l m n	l_1
<u>Order 2:</u>	b a c d e f g h k l m n	l_2
	
<u>Order i:</u>	f c m h e a g n k l b d	l_i

Let order O_i be considered a ‘*genotype*’, and its ‘*fitness*’
e defined as: $w_i = l(O_i) = 1/l_i$ (or $-l_i$)

‘Progeny’ is produced via *mutations* (changed orders).

A ‘child’ replaces its parent if its fitness is higher.

To build the map we need only the (ML) estimates of
pair-wise recombination rates for all pairs of markers

Building multilocus maps: Sources of complexity

- $\frac{1}{2} n!$ orders possible. As a solution we need to find not just any order with a small total map length. Rather, the goal is to reveal **the real** order (i.e. *unique solution*) j
- Sampling variation of r_{ij} , missing data, data errors
- Small sample size relative to the number of markers
- Genetic interference (inter-dependence of cross-overs along the chromosome)

Re-sampling for quality control

The best way to **check** / **verify** the map is to show that the obtained solution does not depend on:
(a) sampling data variation, and **(b)** starting points

By taking sub-samples, one can build **repeated** maps and test whether/where marker ordering remains the same.



Detecting trouble-making markers



Major unsolved problem: We believe that we can reach the unique solution for a given data set.

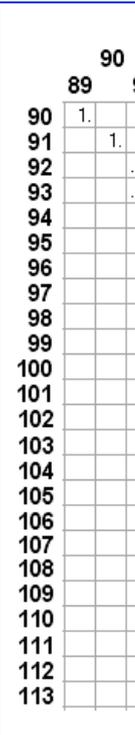
However, we have no regular procedure that leads to the best subsets of markers allowing for:

- stable ordering
- combined with highest “map coverage”
- combined with minimal gaps along the map

Removing one marker out of $n \rightarrow n$ ways

two markers $\rightarrow \frac{1}{2} n(n-1)$ ways

...



Initial ordering:
Unstable neighborhoods



Stable neighborhoods: after
removing problematic markers

Assembling multilocus consensus maps

Objective: Building multilocus maps based on data from **different labs** and **different mapping populations**

Requirements:

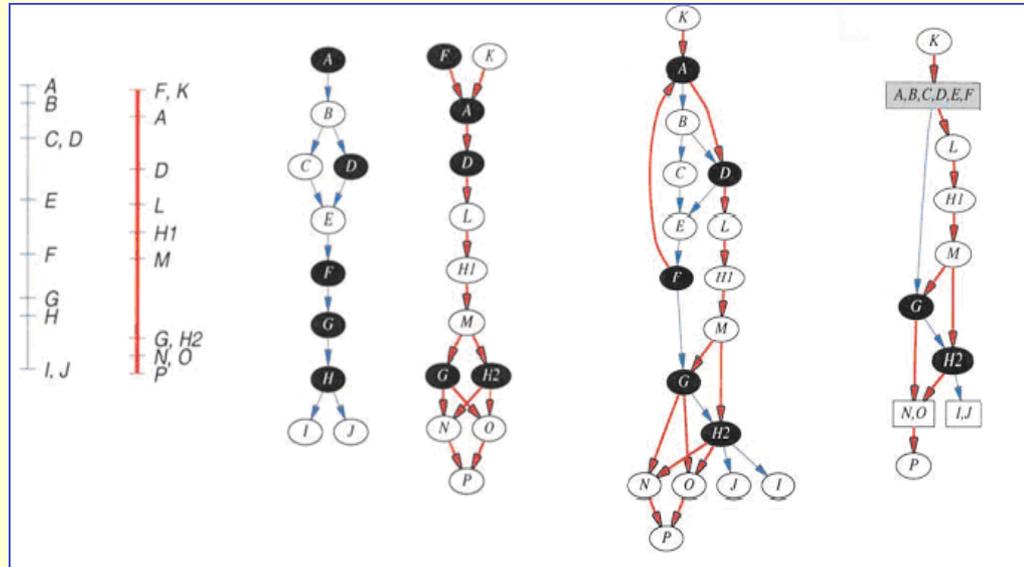
- Shared markers must be in an identical order
- The resulting consensus ordering must be verified via re-sampling

Proposed strategy:

- **Re-building maps** under the constraint of *identical order for shared markers*, instead of **looking for shared orders in pictures** of previously build maps

Graph-theoretical approach for reconciling two orders, received from different sources

“Giving credit”
to individual
multilocus maps:
Yap et al.,
Genetics, 2003



Our strategy: re-building the maps

Re-analysis of raw data by reduction to *synchronous TSP*

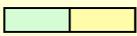
→ Parallel discrete optimization for multiple data sets
with the foregoing constraint

Consensus mapping (with 100% shared markers)

simulated example, 6 families each with n=100

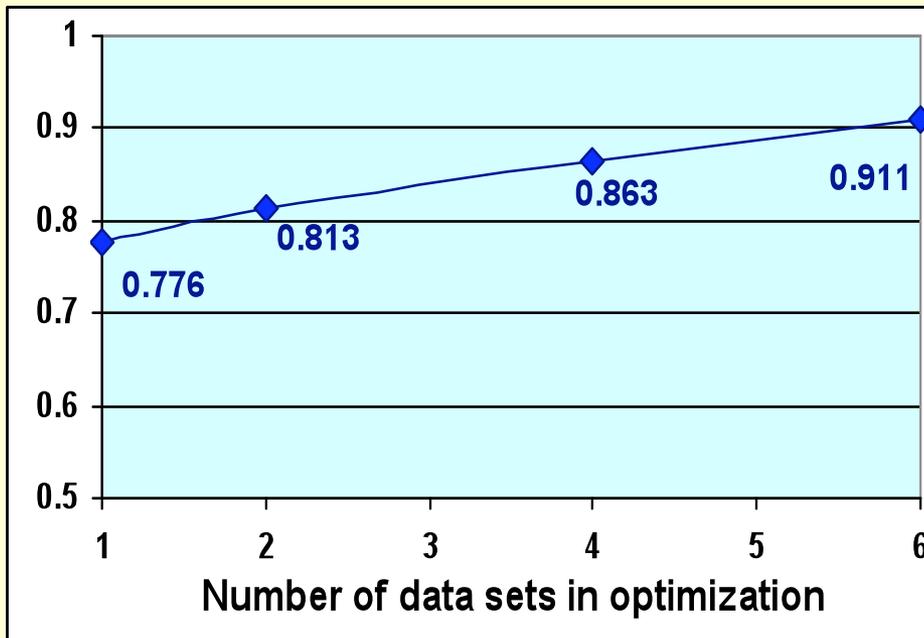
Pop	Mthd	Marker position																			
1	NSO	20	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19
	SO	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
2	NSO	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	9	8	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
	SO	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
3	NSO	15	14	13	12	11	10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	1	2	16	17	18	19	20
	SO	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
4	NSO	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	11	10	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
	SO	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
5	NSO	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	18	17	16	15	14	19	20
	SO	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
6	NSO	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	19	18	20
	SO	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20

NSO - non-synchronized optimization
SO - synchronized optimization

False order 
True order 

Quality of multilocus ordering as a function of the proportion of utilized data sets

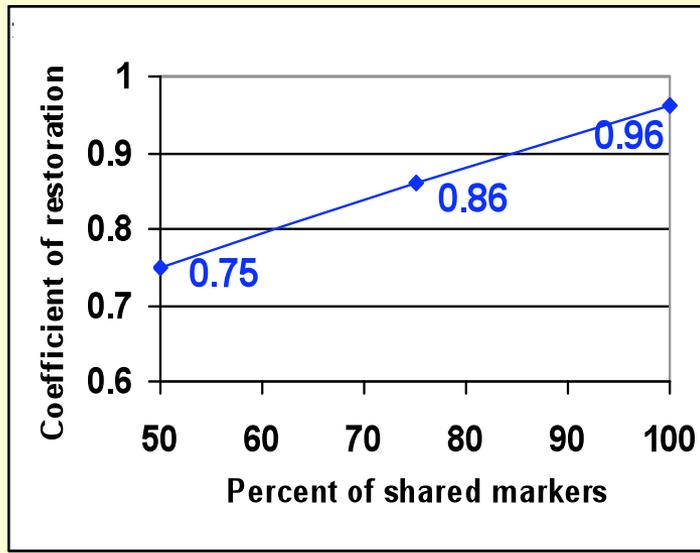
(results of tests with six data sets)



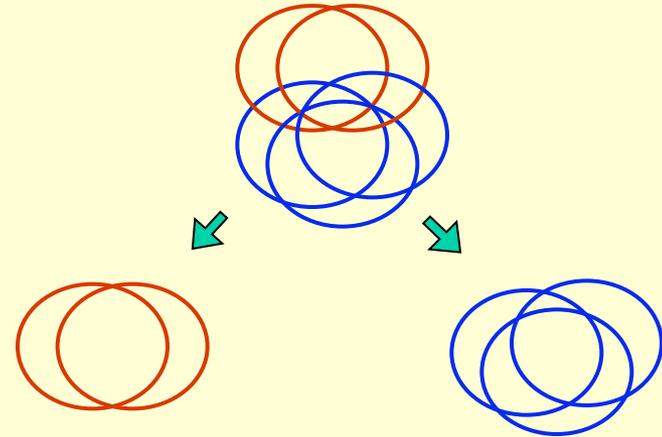
Thus, the information from additional data sets allows reaching better map quality

However, we have a problem →

Dependence of the quality of consensus map on the proportion of shared markers



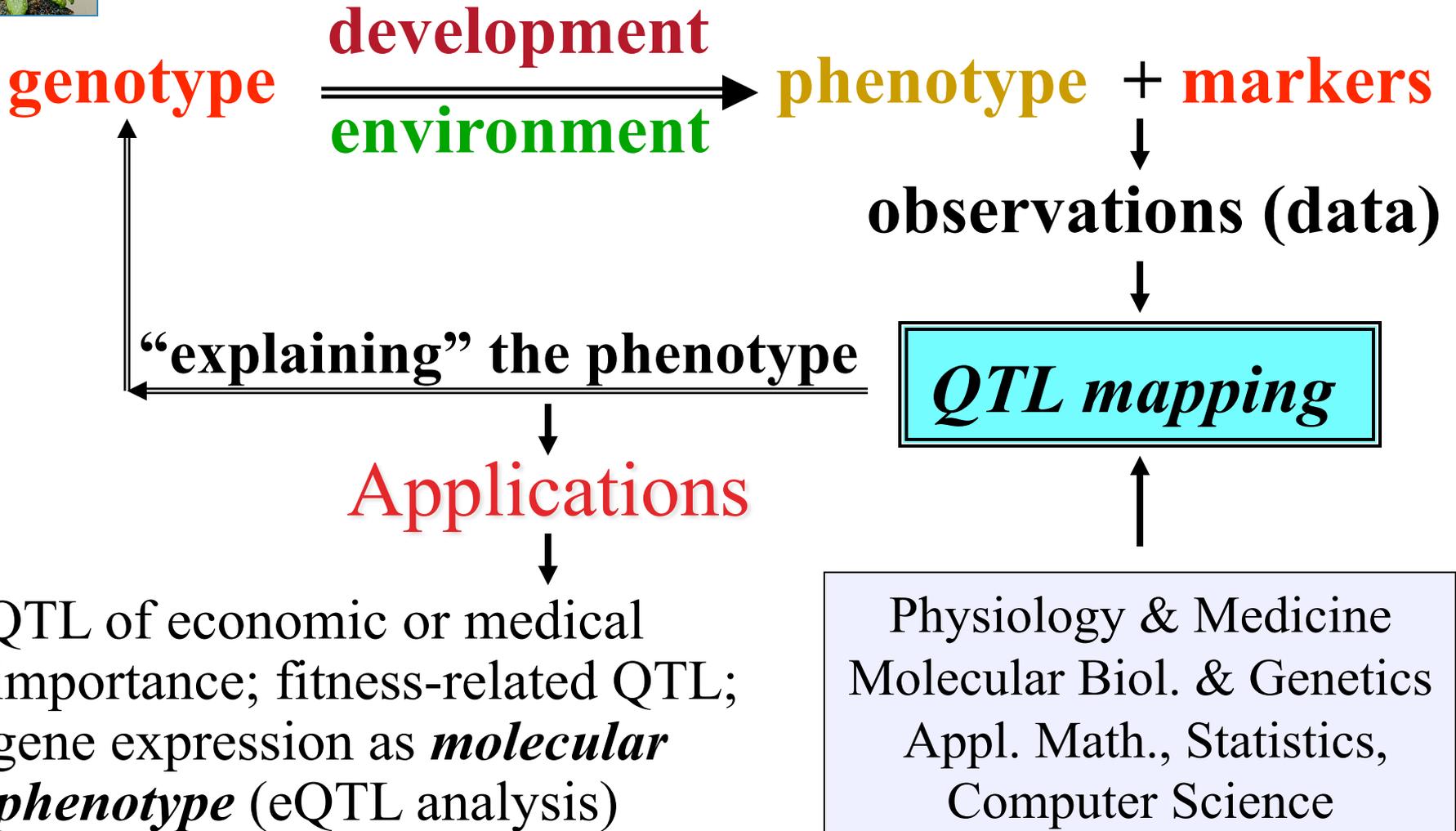
The need in re-structuring the synchronous mapping problem



Unsolved problems:

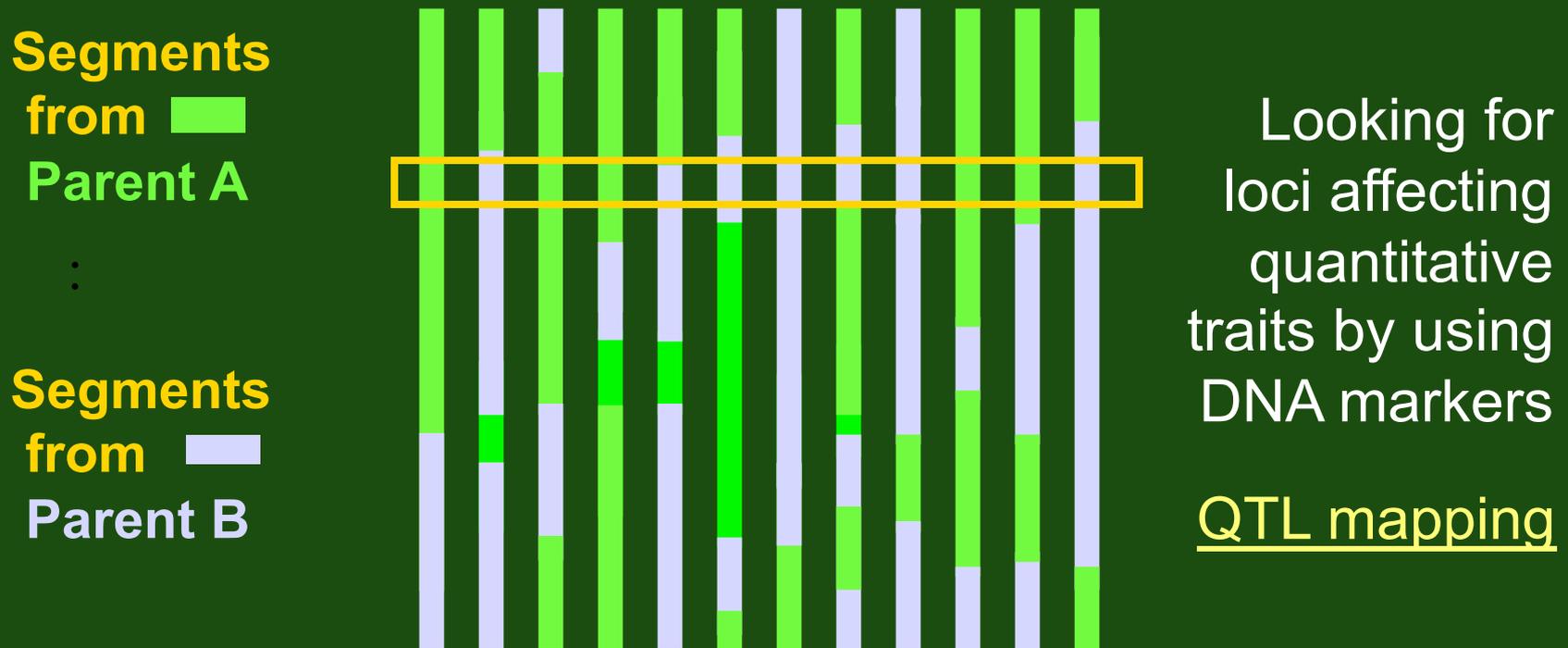
- How to subdivide the entire set into subsets
- How to build the jackknifing procedure

Genetic dissection of quantitative traits

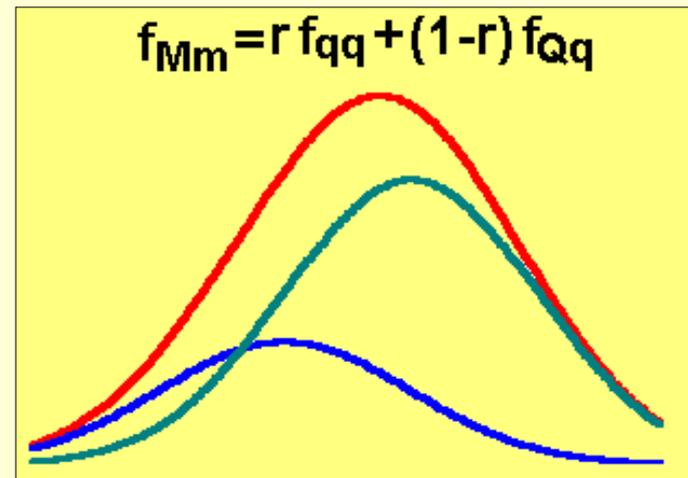
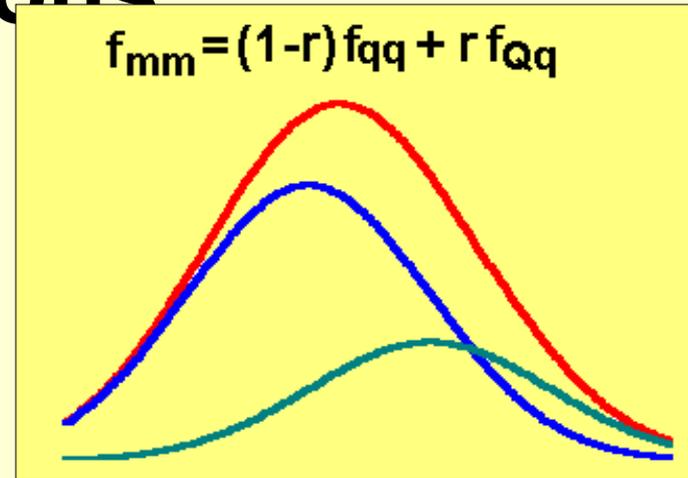
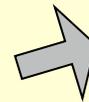
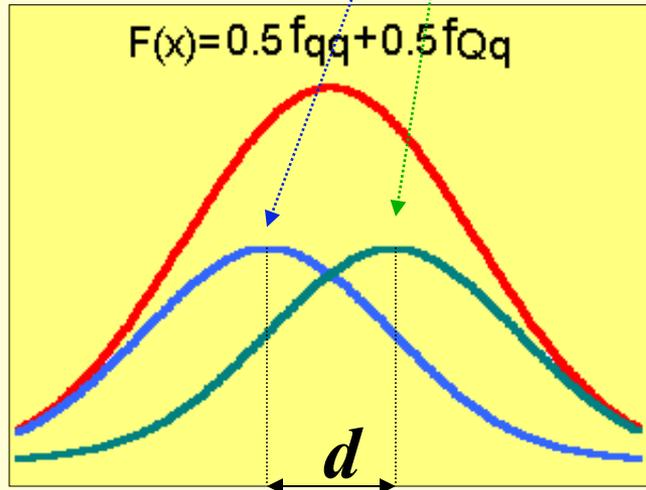
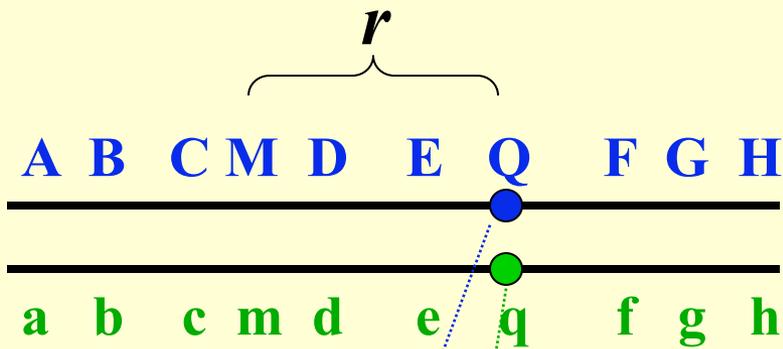


Analysis of the genetic composition of segregating recombinant genotypes

Individual recombinant chromosomes

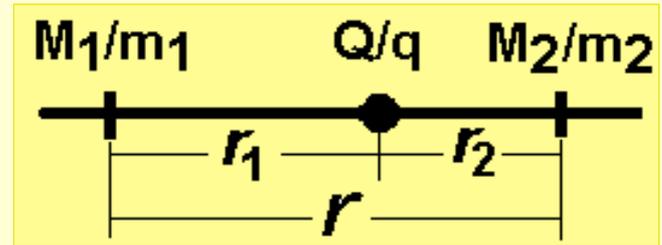


QTL analysis – dealing with distributions



QTL Interval Mapping

Expected distributions of the trait in the flanking marker groups are mixtures of non-recombinants and recombinants



$$f_{M_1M_2} = [(1-r_1)(1-r_2)f_Q + r_1r_2f_q]/(1-r)$$

$$f_{M_1m_2} = [(1-r_1)r_2f_Q + r_1(1-r_2)f_q]/r$$

$$f_{m_1M_2} = [r_1(1-r_2)f_Q + r_2(1-r_1)f_q]/r$$

$$f_{m_1m_2} = [r_1r_2f_Q + (1-r_1)(1-r_2)f_q]/(1-r)$$

The model of QTL effect

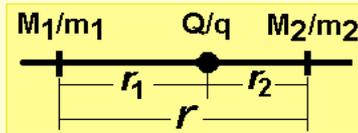
For additive QTL effect: $x = m + dg_q + \xi$

where $g_q = -1$ for qq , and $+1$ for QQ ; $E\xi=0$, $\sigma\xi = \sigma$,
and $d=(\mu_{QQ} - \mu_{qq})/2$, $\mu_{qq} = m-d$, $\mu_{QQ} = m+d$

ML-estimation in QTL interval

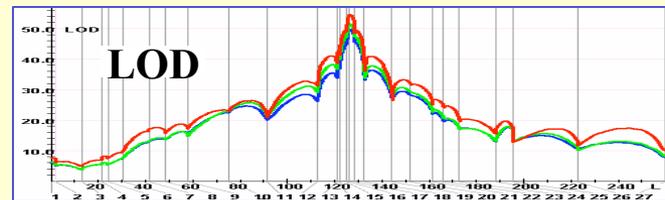
analysis

$$L(r, m, d, \sigma) = \prod_{i=1}^4 \prod_{j=1}^{N_i} f_i(r, m, d, \sigma | \mathbf{x}_{ij}) \rightarrow \max$$



ML-estimates: r^* , m^* , d^* ,

Log-likelihood ratio
test (for H_1 vs H_0)



σ
*

What do one expect from analytical tools ?

*To extract maximum mapping information
from the experimental data*

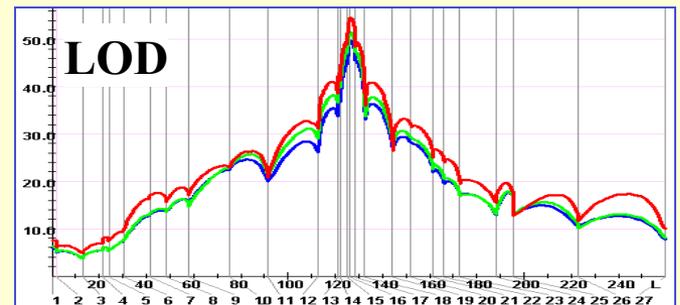
The main questions in QTL analysis:

- QTL detection power (detect the effect when it exists)
- Minimum “false positives” (high significance)
- Accuracy of parameter estimates

For single-trait analysis:

$$ELOD = -\frac{1}{2}N \log(1 - H^2),$$

$H^2 = d^2 / (d^2 + \sigma^2)$ is “heritability”

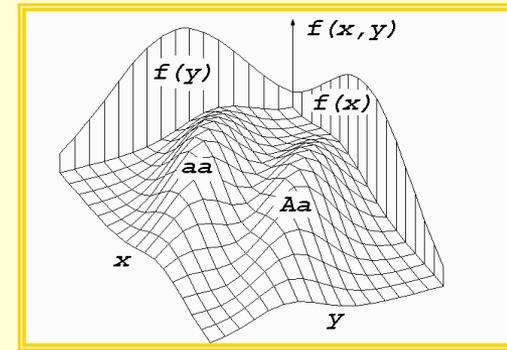


What could be the benefit from a transition to multiple-trait analysis ?

For single-trait analysis:

$$ELOD_x = - \frac{1}{2} N \log(1 - H^2_x)$$

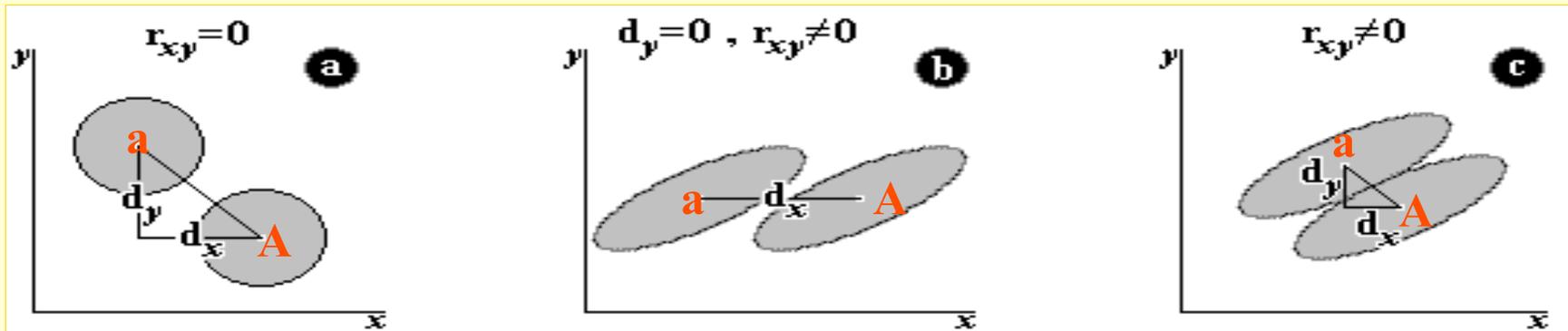
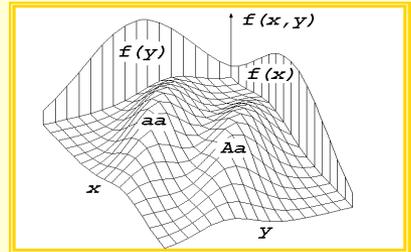
The same holds in two-trait analysis, upon $H^2_x \implies H^2_{xy}$



$$H^2_{xy} = 1 - \frac{\sigma^2_x \sigma^2_y (1 - R^2_{xy})}{(\sigma^2_x + d^2_x / 4)(\sigma^2_y + d^2_y / 4) - \sigma^2_x \sigma^2_y [R_{xy} + d_x d_y / (4\sigma_x \sigma_y)]^2}$$

It appears that $H^2_{xy} \geq H^2_x \implies ELOD_{xy} \geq ELOD_x$

The main sources of statistical superiority of two-trait analysis

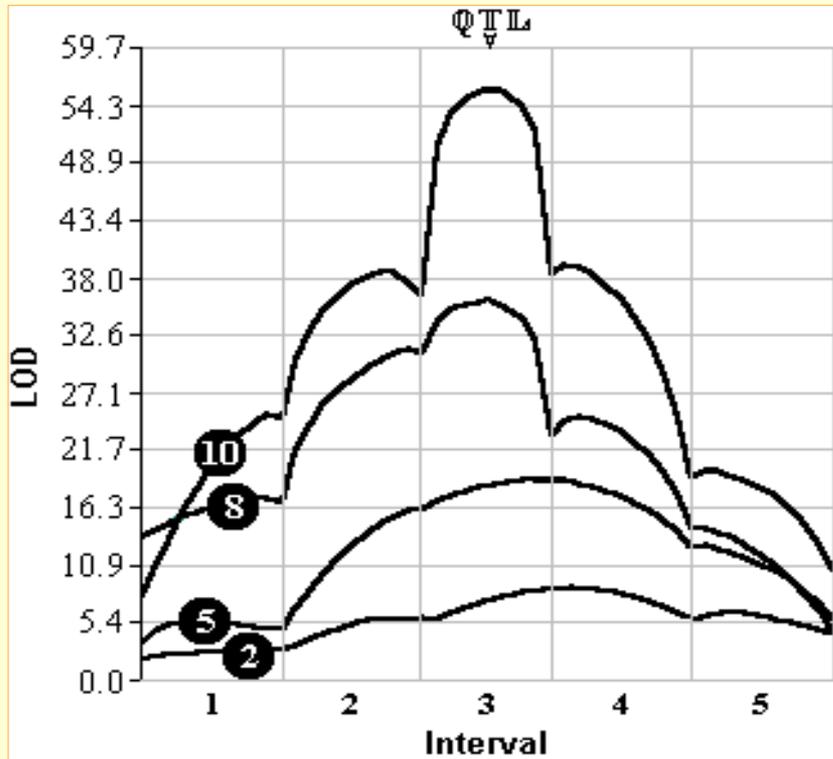


↑
any d_x & d_y

↑
any d_x & r_{xy}

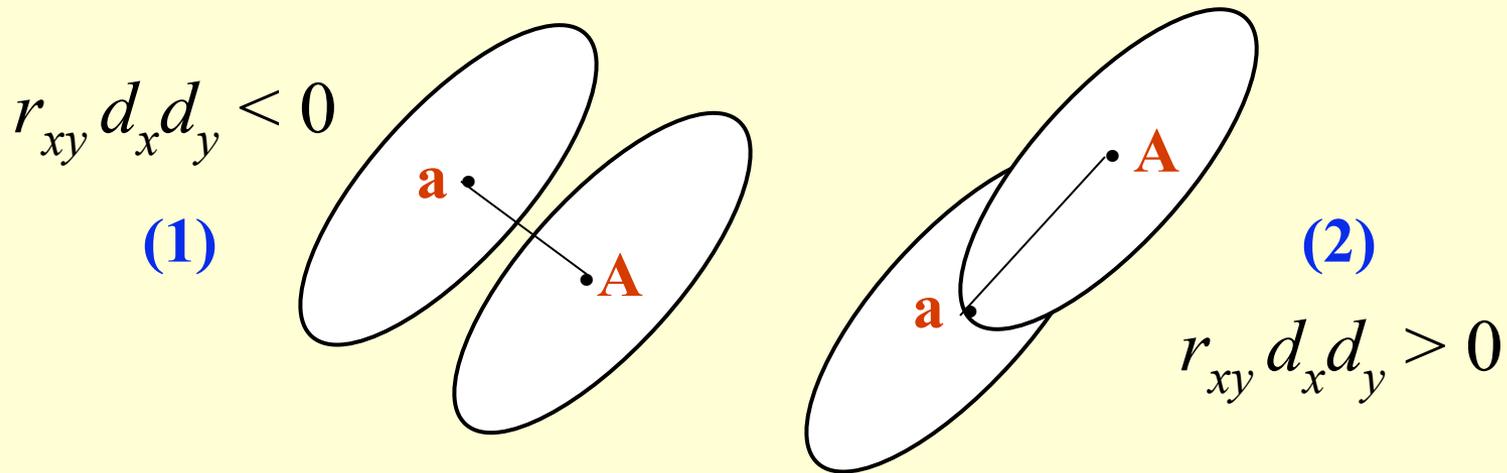
↑
 $r_{xy} d_x d_y < 0$

Effect of the number of traits on the efficiency of QTL mapping



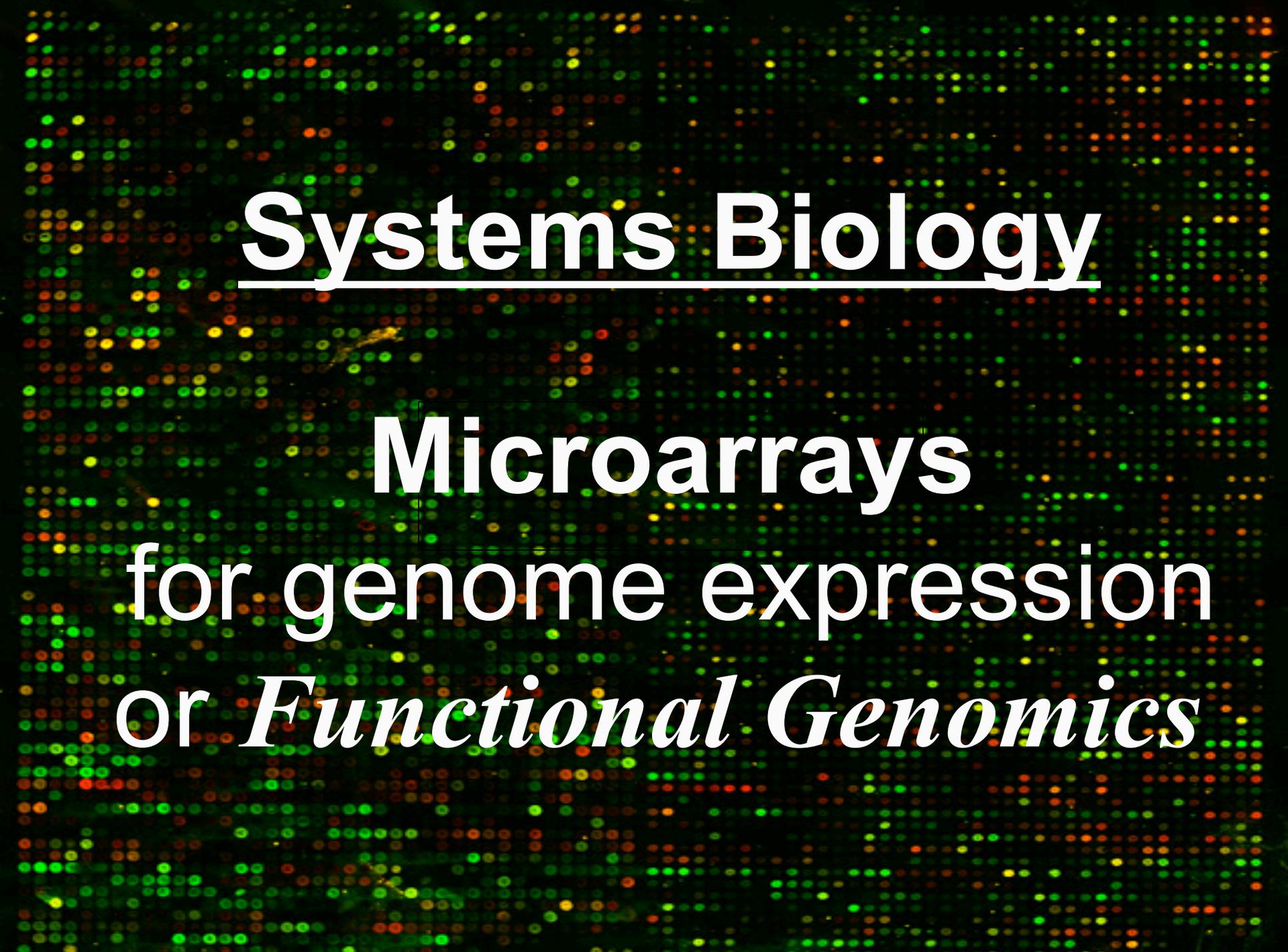
Based on
interval-specific
multivariate
analysis

Multiple-trait analysis does not necessarily improve the quality of QTL analysis



With the same overlapping of marginal distributions, the bivariate distributions of QTL groups **a** and **A** overlap less in (1) than in (2)

Required: Extension of the above criterion for arbitrary numbers of traits. To allow selecting of sub-sets with improved resolution... (for $n \sim 10^2$ or even 10^4)



Systems Biology

Microarrays

for genome expression
or *Functional Genomics*

How genes are expressed in the cell ?

Gene sequences encoding for proteins are **non-overlapping** texts that begin from *start signal* and end by *stop signal*.

DNA transcription → **mRNA** translation → **protein**

A gene can be *transcribed* many times. The resulting **mRNA** can be *translated* many times → many copies of the enzyme. Each synthesized enzyme molecule can *catalyze* the target reaction thousands times → strong “signal amplification”



All mRNAs of the genome
($\sim 40,000$ genes) \rightarrow DNA chip



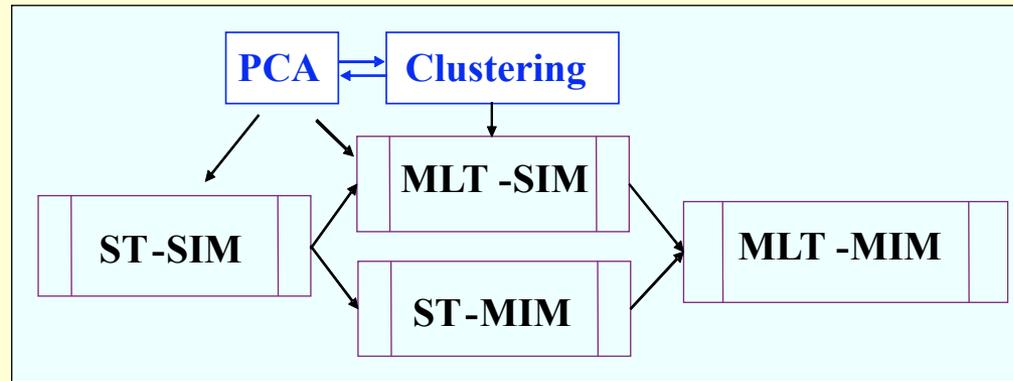
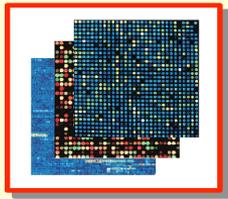
Expression of each gene can be scored as a quantitative trait in a mapping population ($n \sim 10^2-10^3$) and tested for association with DNA markers across the genome ($k \sim 10^2-10^5$) \rightarrow eQTL mapping

The challenge of the problem size: With $N \sim 10^4$ genes, the number of data points reaches $\sim 10^8-10^{12}$

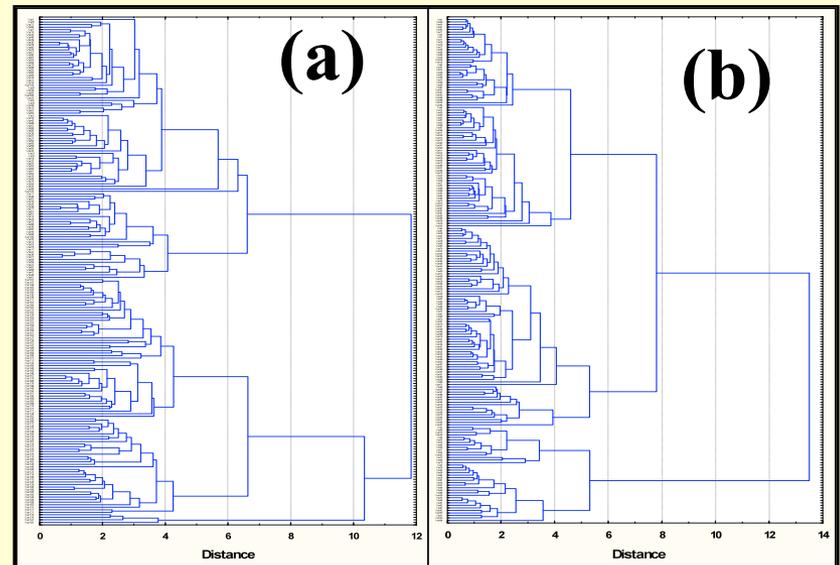
Multiple-trait QTL analysis of the $N \sim 10^4$ expression traits ?
An urgent need in “dimensionality reduction” methods

pathological states, aging, evolution, etc.?

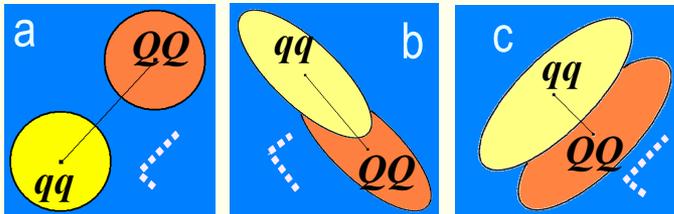
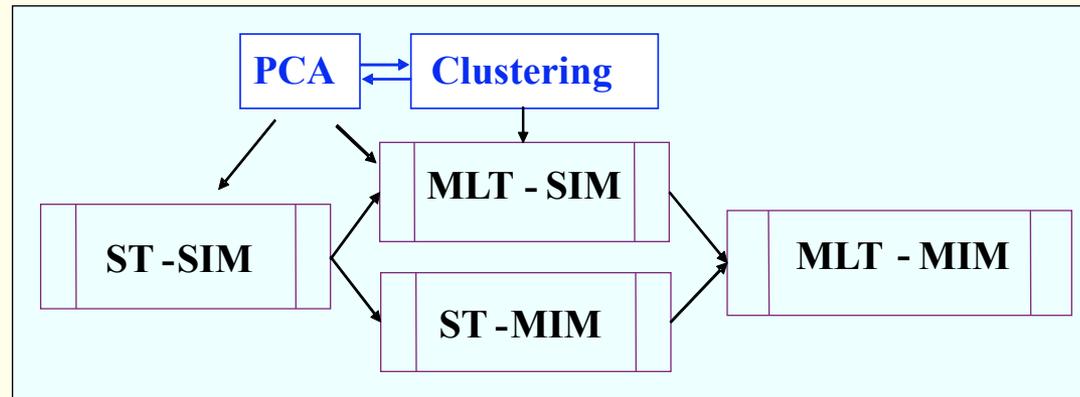
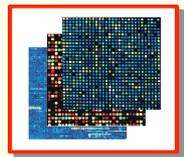
Expression scores as a vector of quantitative traits: Dealing with high dimensionality in multiple-trait QTL mapping



Clustering of the chosen 400 genes: **(a)** 100+100 up- and down-regulated, **(b)** 100+100 plus- and minus-correlated to obesity genes



Expression scores as a vector of quantitative traits: Dealing with high dimensionality



The first PCs may (a & b) or may not (c) correspond to the direction of multivariate QTL effects

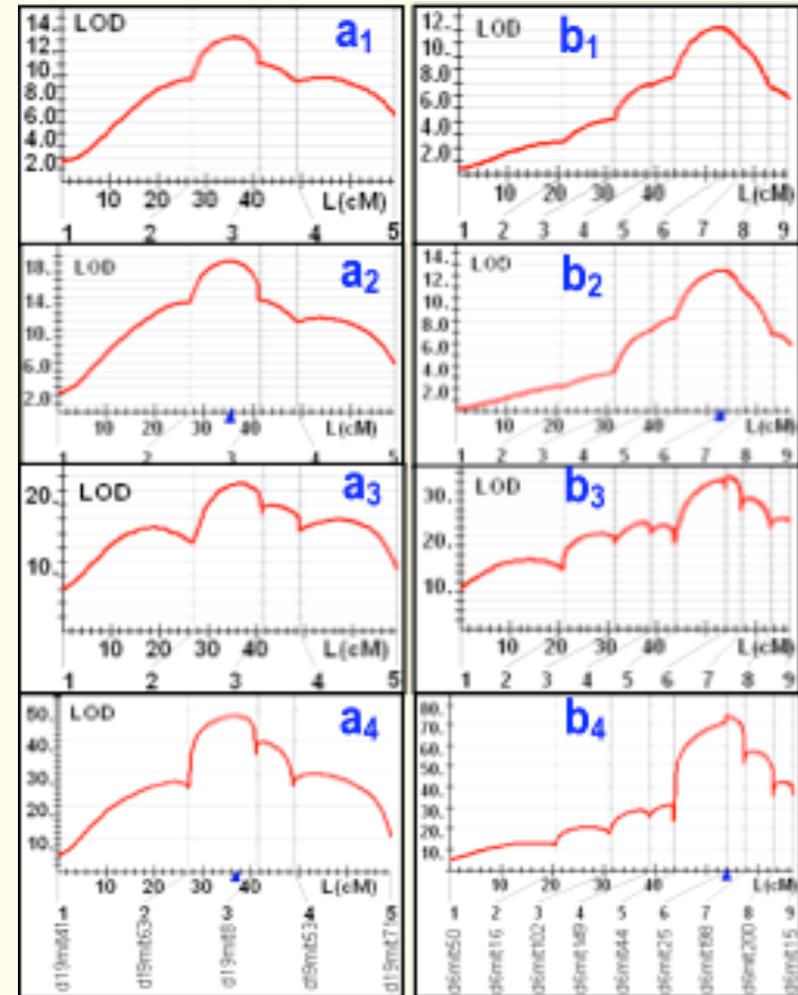
Multiple-trait vs. single-trait eQTL mapping *dealing with clusters (on an example of mouse obesity)*

Mapping for 2 sub-clusters: **(a)** up- or down-regulated, **(b)** positively or negatively correlated with obesity.

For these groups, the estimated QTL location L and $SD(L)$ were, for chr. 19 and 6, respectively:

	(a)	(b)	
SIM-ST	36.9±6.8	51.7±2.8	cM
MIM-ST	35.0±3.3	52.4±1.9	cM
SIM-MLT	39.6±8.4	52.4±5.9	cM
MIM-MLT	36.7±2.6	53.9±0.7	cM

Using data from Ghazalpour et al., 2005



Summary (what we have been talking about)

- *Genome mapping* - reduction to TSP
- *Consensus mapping* - synchronous TSP
- *QTL mapping*
- *Multiple-trait QTL analysis* - looking for best sub-sets
- *Microarray analysis* - expression QTL (eQTL)
- *Multi-trait eQTL mapping* - dimensionality reduction

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