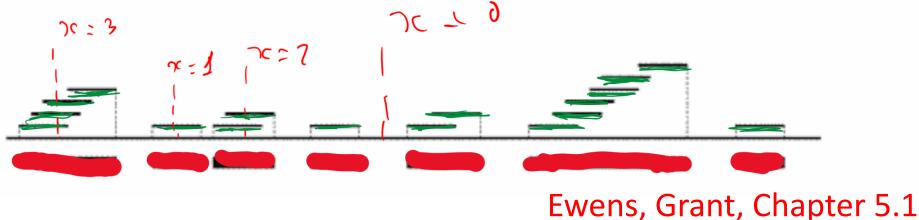
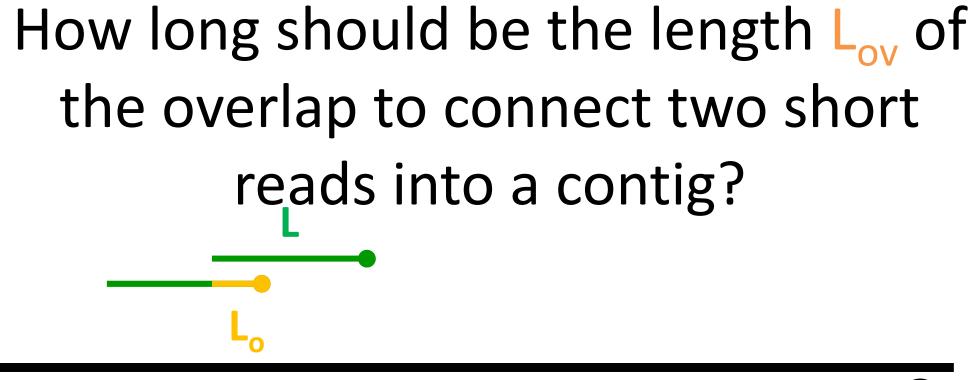
Where is the Poisson?

- G genome length (in bp)
- L short read average length
- N number of short read sequenced
- λ sequencing coverage redundancy = LN/G
- *x* number of short reads covering a given site on the genome

$$P(x) = \frac{\lambda^x e^{-\lambda}}{x!}$$

Poisson as a limit of Binomial: For a given site on the genome for each short read Prob(site covered): p=L/G is very small. Number of attempts (short reads): N is very large. Their product (sequencing redundancy): $\lambda = NL/G$ is O(1).





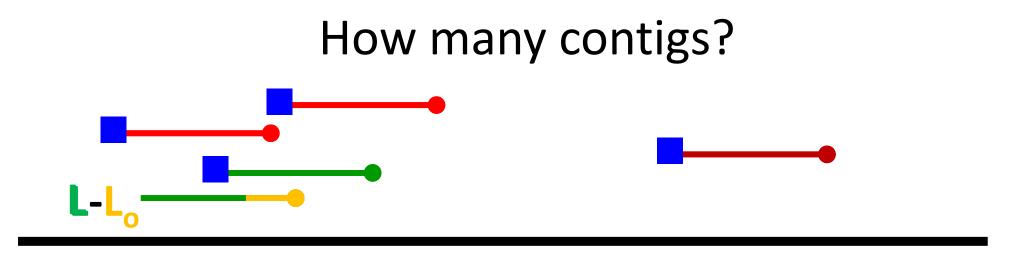
G

If DNA was a random chain with $p_A = p_C = p_G = p_T = 1/4$

L_{ov}~16-20 would be enough

 $2 \cdot G \cdot 4^{-Lov} = 2 \cdot 3x10^9 \cdot 4^{-16} = 1.4$

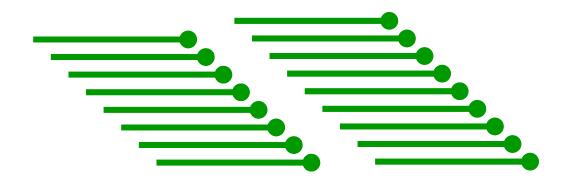
 $2 \cdot 3x10^9 \cdot 4^{-20} = 0.0055 << 1$



G

P(short read can be extended by another short read)= $\frac{L - L_o}{G} = p$ P(short read cannot be extended by any short reads)= $e^{-pN} \approx Ne^{-\lambda}$

number of contigs=
$$Ne^{-pN} \approx Ne^{-\lambda}$$



How many contigs?

- A given short read is the right end of a contig if and only if no left ends of other short reads fall within it.
- The left end of another short read has the probability p=(L-1)/G to fall within a given read. There are N-1 other reads. Hence the expected number of left ends inside a given shot read is $p \cdot (N-1)=(N-1) \cdot (L-1)/G \approx \lambda$
- If significant overlap required to merge two short reads is L_{ov} , modified λ is given by $(N-1) \cdot (L L_{ov})/G$
- Probability that no left ends fall inside a short read is $exp(-\lambda)$. Thus the Number of contigs is $N_{contias} = Ne^{-\lambda}$:

λ	0.5	0.75	1	1.5	2	3	4	5	6	7
Mean number of contigs	60.7	70.8	73.6	66.9	54.1	29.9	14.7	6.7	3.0	1.3

Table 5.2. The mean number of contigs for different levels of coverage, with G = 100,000 and L = 500.

Average length of a contig?

- Length of a genome covered: $G_{covered} = G \cdot P(X > 0) = G \cdot (1 - exp(-\lambda))$
- Number of contigs $N_{contigs} = N \cdot e^{-\lambda}$
- Average length of a contig =

$$=\Sigma_i L_i / N_{contigs} = G_{covered} / N_{contigs} =$$

 $G \cdot (1 - \exp(-\lambda)) / N \cdot e^{-\lambda} = L \cdot (1 - \exp(-\lambda)) / \lambda \cdot e^{-\lambda}$

λ	2	4	6	8	10
Mean contig size	1,600	6,700	33,500	186,000	1,100,000

Table 5.3. The mean contig size for different values of a for the case L = 500.

Estimate

- Human genome is $3x10^9$ bp long
- Chromosome 1 is about G=0.25x10⁹ bp
- Illumina generates short reads L=100 bp long
- What number of reads *N* are needed to completely assemble the 1st chromosome?
- The formula to use is: $1 = N_{contigs} = Ne^{-\lambda} = Ne^{-NL/G}$
- Answer: N=4.4x10⁷ short (100bp) reads
 Test: 4.4e7*exp(-4.4e7*100/0.25e9)=0.9997
- What coverage redundancy λ will it be? Answer: $\lambda = NL/G = 17.6$ coverage redundancy

How much would it cost to assemble human genome now?

- Human Genome Project: \$2.7 billion in 1991 dollars.
- Now a de novo full assembly of the whole human genome would now cost 3 x10⁹ x 17.6 /10⁹ x 10\$/GBase =\$ 530
- 2nd genome (and after) would be even cheaper as we would already have a reference genome to which we can map short reads. (Puzzle: picture on the box)
- But this is a naïve estimate. In reality, there are complications. See the next slides:

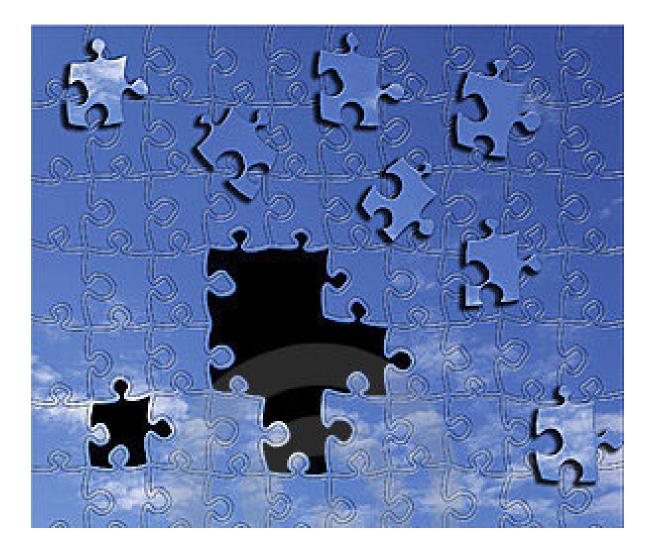
What spoils these estimates?

>gi|224514922|ref|NT_024477.14| Homo sapiens chromosome 12 genomic contig, GRCh37.p13 Primary Assembly (displaying 3' end) CGGGAAATCAAAAGCCCCTCTGAATCCTGCGCACCGAGATTCTCCCCAGCCAAGGTGAGGCGGCAGCAGT GGGAGATCCACACCGTAGCATTGGAACACAAATGCAGCATTACAAATGCAGACATGACACCGAAAATATA ACACACCCCCATTGCTCATGTAACAAGCACCTGTAATGCTAATGCACATGACACGAAAACAAAATATTAATAT AAGATCGGCAATCCGCACACTGCCGTGCAGTGCTAAGACAGCAATGAAAATAGTCAACATAATAACCCTA ATAGTGTTAGG

FIGURE 8.11 A BLASTN search of the human genome (all assemblies) database was performed at the NCBI website using **TTAGGGTTAGGGTTAGGG** as query (i.e., three TTAGGG repeats). There were matches to hundreds of genomic scaffolds. This figure shows an example (NT_024477.14) assigned to the telomere of chromosome 12q having many dozens of TTAGGG repeats. These occurred at the 3' end of the genomic contig sequence.

There were 100s of matches while one expects << 1 match: $2 \cdot 3x10^9 \cdot 4^{-18}=0.08<<1$ DNA repeats make assembly difficult

Repeats are like sky puzzle pieces



How many repeats are in eukaryotic genomes?

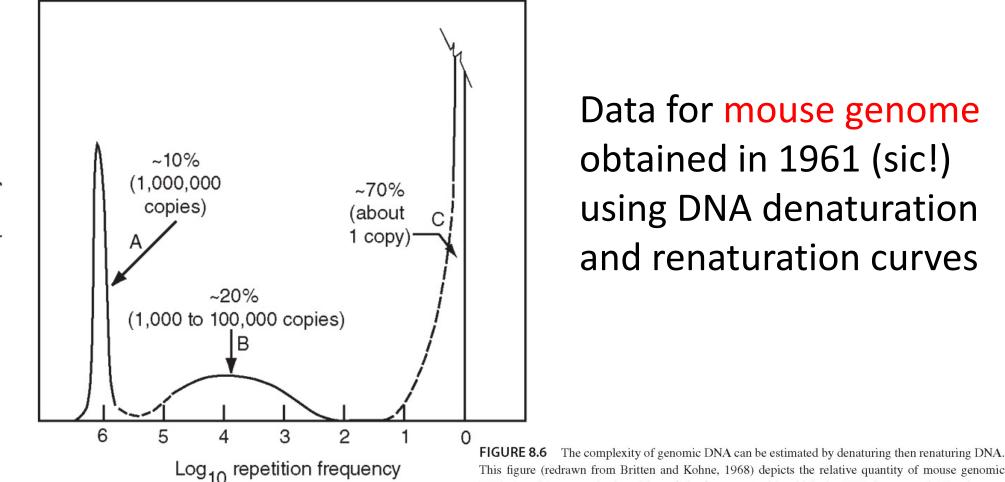
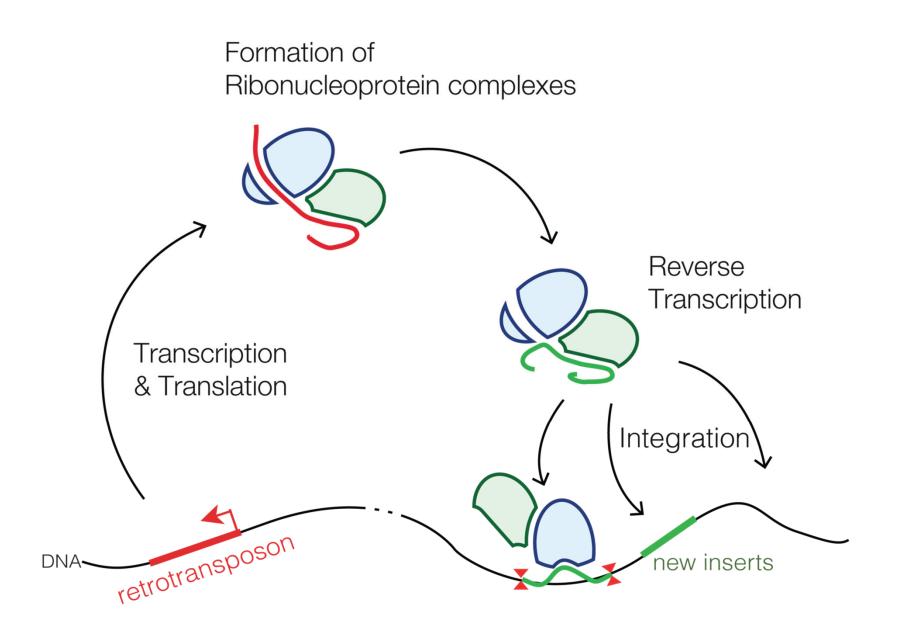
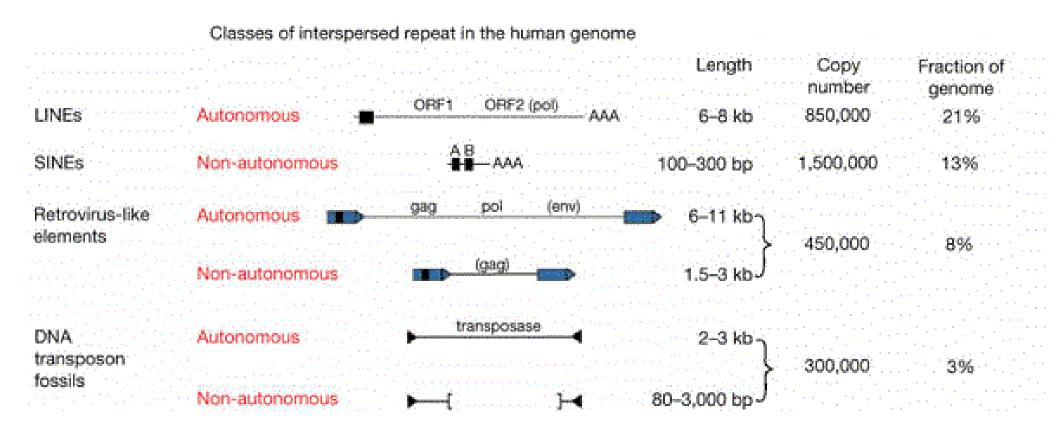


FIGURE 8.6 The complexity of genomic DNA can be estimated by denaturing then renaturing DNA. This figure (redrawn from Britten and Kohne, 1968) depicts the relative quantity of mouse genomic DNA (*y* axis) versus the logarithm of the frequency with which the DNA is repeated. The data are derived from a $C_0 t_{1/2}$ curve, which describes the percent of genomic DNA that reassociates at particular times and DNA concentrations. A large $C_0 t_{1/2}$ value implies a slower reassociation reaction. Three classes are apparent. The fast component accounts for 10% of mouse genomic DNA (arrow A), and represents highly repetitive satellite DNA. An intermediate component accounts for about 20% of mouse genomic DNA and contains repeats having from 1000 to 100,000 copies. The slowly reassociating component, comprising 70% of the mouse genome, corresponds to unique, single-copy DNA. Britten and Kohne (1968) obtained similar profiles from other eukaryotes, although distinct differences were evident between species. Used with permission.

Bioinformatics and Functional Genomics, Third Edition, Jonathan Pevsner. © 2015 John Wiley & Sons, Ltd. Published 2015 by John Wiley & Sons, Ltd. Companion Website: www.wiley.com/go/pevsnerbioinformatics



Almost all transposable elements in mammals fall into one of four classes



Slide by Ross Hardison, Penn State U.

How to assemble a real genome with repeats?

Here we assume a "de novo" assembly without help from the previously assembled genomes



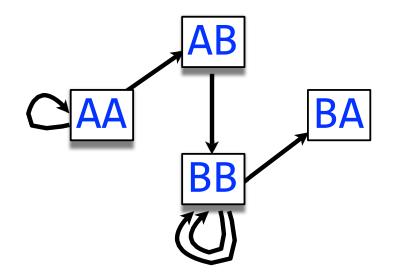
Nicolaas Govert de Bruijn (1918 – 2012) was a Dutch mathematician, noted for his many contributions in the fields of graph theory, analysis, number theory, combinatorics and logic

Courtesy of <u>Ben Langmead</u>. Used with permission.

De Bruijn graph

genome: AAABBBBA

3-mers: AAA, AAB, ABB, BBB, BBB, BBA L/R 2-mers: AA, AA AA, AB AB, BB BB, BB BB, BB BB, BB BB, BB

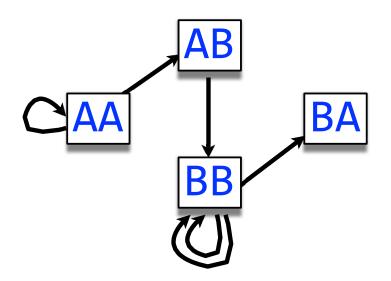


One edge per every k-mer

One node per distinct k-1-mer

Courtesy of <u>Ben Langmead</u>. Used with permission.

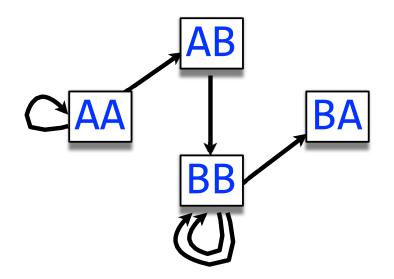
De Bruijn graph



Walk crossing each edge exactly once gives a reconstruction of the genome

Courtesy of <u>Ben Langmead</u>. Used with permission.

Assembly = Eulerian walk on De Bruijn graph



AAABBBBA

Walk crossing each edge exactly once gives a reconstruction of the genome. This is an *Eulerian walk*.

Courtesy of <u>Ben Langmead</u>. Used with permission. <u>http://www.langmead-lab.org/teaching-materials/</u>

Edge-disjoint loops are a problem: multiple solutions

graph can have multiple Eulerian walks, only one of which corresponds to original superstring

Right: graph for ZABCDABEFABY, k=2

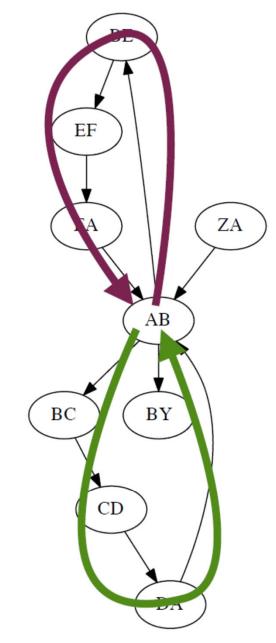
Alternative Eulerian walks:

 $ZA \rightarrow AB \rightarrow BE \rightarrow EF \rightarrow FA \rightarrow AB \rightarrow BC \rightarrow CD \rightarrow DA \rightarrow AB \rightarrow BY$

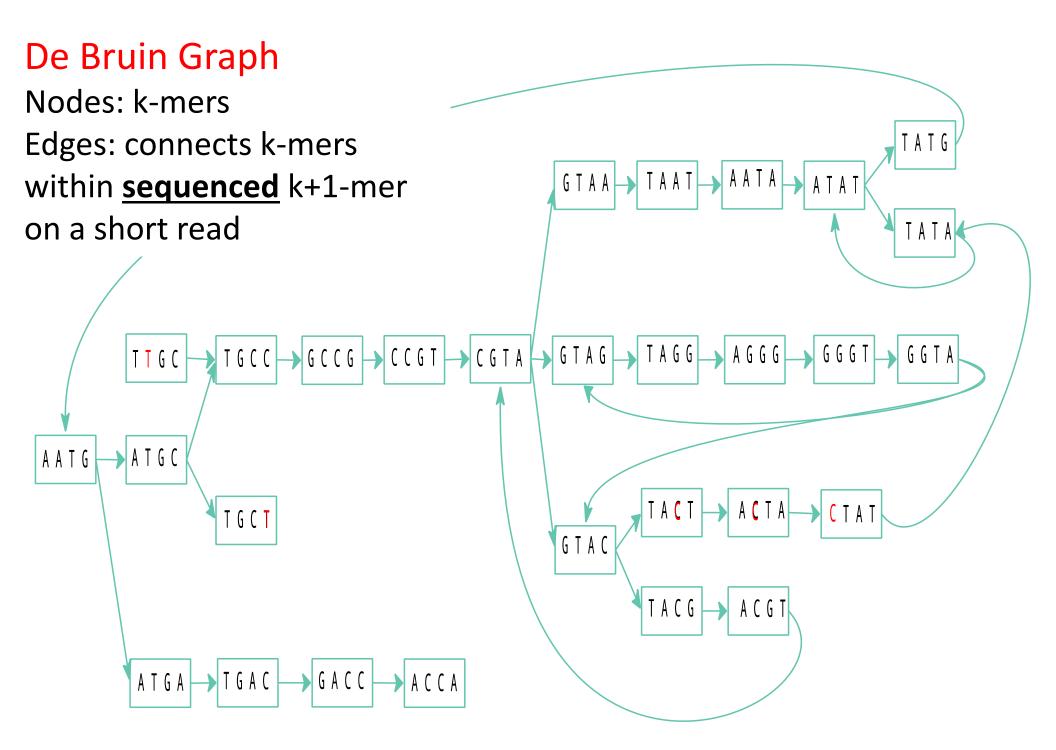
 $ZA \rightarrow AB \rightarrow BC \rightarrow CD \rightarrow DA \rightarrow AB \rightarrow BE \rightarrow EF \rightarrow FA \rightarrow AB \rightarrow BY$

These correspond to two edge-disjoint directed cycles joined by node AB

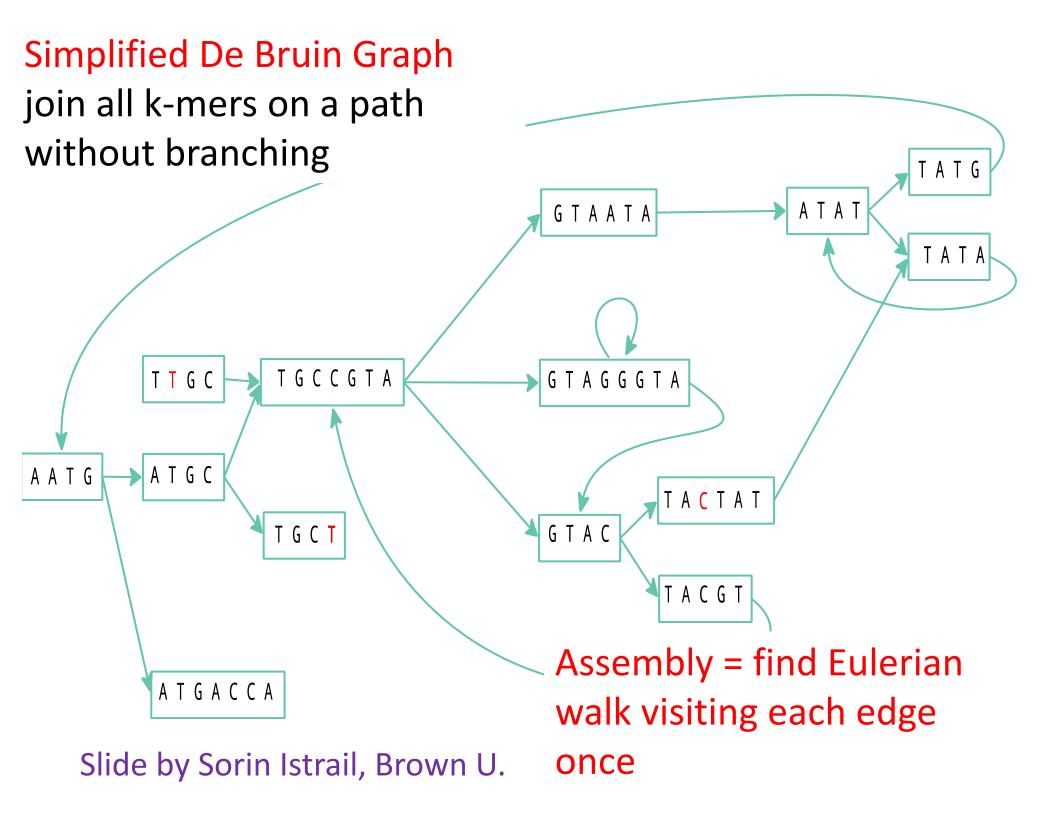
AB is a repeat: ZABCDABEFABY



Adapted from a slide by Ben Langmead, Johns Hopkins U.



Slide by Sorin Istrail, Brown U.

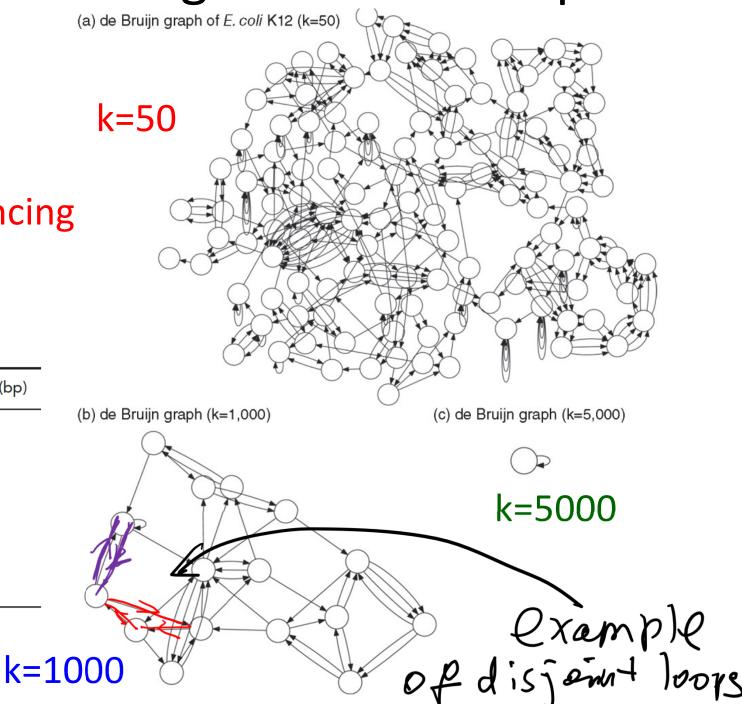


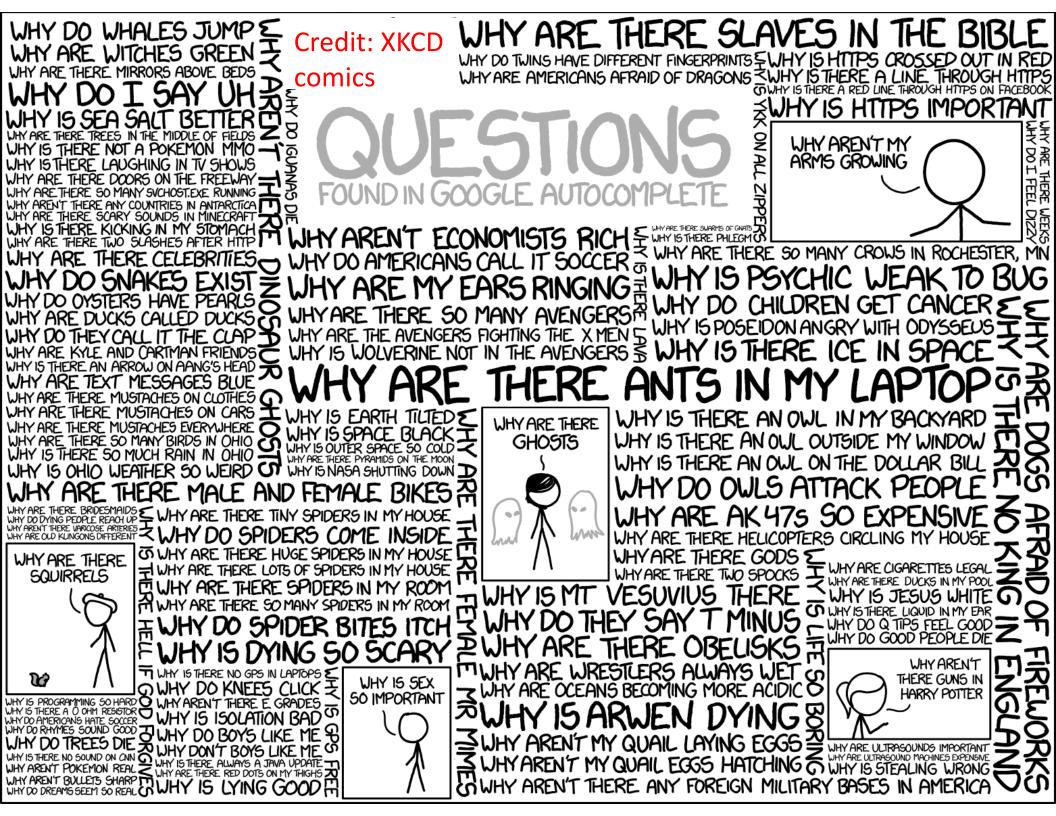
How to assemble a genome with repeats?

- Answer: longer reads
- But: cheap sequencing =

short reads

Technology	Read length (bp
Roche 454	700
Illumina	50–250
SOLiD	50
Ion Torrent	200
Pacific Biosciences	2900
Sanger	400–900





A gallery of useful discrete probability distributions

Geometric Distribution

- A series of Bernoulli trials with probability of success =p. continued <u>until the first success</u>. X is the number of trials.
- Compare to: Binomial distribution has:
 - Fixed number of trials =n.

$$P(X=x) = C_x^n p^x (1-p)^{n-x}$$

- Random number of successes = x.
- Geometric distribution has reversed roles:
 - Random number of trials, x
 - Fixed number of successes, in this case 1.
 - Success always comes in the end: so no combinatorial factor C_x^n
 - $P(X=x) = p(1-p)^{x-1}$ where:

x-1 = 0, 1, 2, ..., the number of failures until the 1st success.

• NOTE OF CAUTION: Matlab, Mathematica, and many other sources use x to denote the number of failures until the first success. We stick with Montgomery-Runger notation

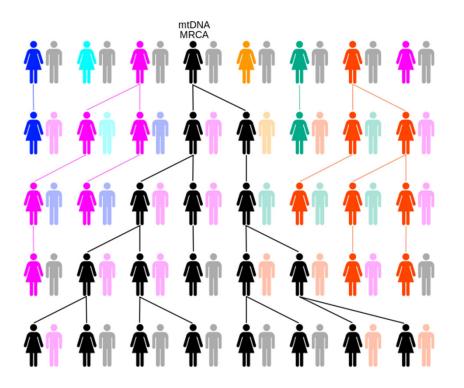
Geometric Mean & Variance

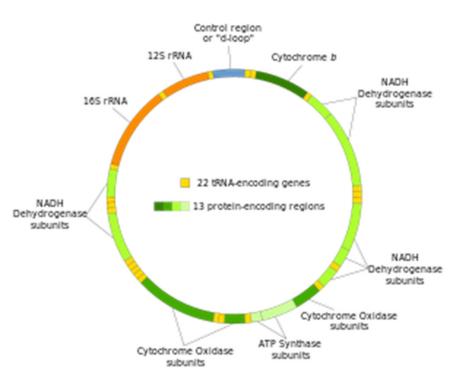
 If X is a geometric random variable (according to Montgomery-Bulmer) with parameter p,

$$\mu = E(X) = \frac{1}{p}$$
 and $\sigma^2 = V(X) = \frac{(1-p)}{p^2}$ (3-10)

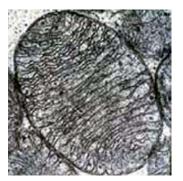
- For small p the standard deviation =(1-p)^{0.5}/p ~= mean=1/p
- Very different from Binomial and Poisson, where
 variance = mean and standard deviation = mean^{1/2}

Geometric distribution in biology



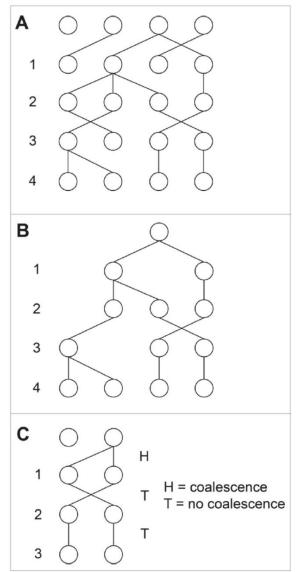


- Each of our cells has mitochondria with 16.5kb of mtDNA <u>inherited only from our mother</u>
- Human mtDNA has 37 genes encoding 13 proteins, 22+2 tRNA & rRNA
- Mitochondria appeared 1.5-2 billion years ago as a symbiosis between an alpha-proteobacterium (1000s of genes) and an archaeaon (of UIUC's Carl R. Woese fame)
- Since that time most mitochondrial genes were transferred into the nucleus
- Plants also have plastids with genomes related to cyanobacteria



Time to the last common (maternal) ancestor follows geometric distribution

- Constant population of N women
- Random number of (female) offsprings. Average is 1 (but can be 0 or 2)
- Randomly pick two women.
 Question: how many generations T since their last maternal ancestor?
- T is a random variable What is its PMF: P(T=t)?
 Answer: P(T=t) follows a geometric distribution
- Do these two women have the same mother? Yes: "success" in finding their last common ancestor (p=1/N). P(T=1)=1/N.
- No? "failure" (1-p=1-1/N). Go to their mothers and repeat the same question.
- $P(T=t)=(1-1/N)^{t-1}(1/N) \approx (1/N) \exp(-(t-1)/N)$
- t can be inferred from the density of differences on mtDNA =2µt



Most Recent Common Ancestor (MRCA)

- Start with *N* individuals. Unit of time is *N* generations (time for one pair to merge) since $E(T) = \sum_{t=1}^{\infty} t \cdot (1/N) \exp(-t/N) = N$
- Any of $\frac{N(N-1)}{2}$ pairs can merge first. The average time for the first pair to merge is $\frac{2}{N(N-1)}$

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- After merger $N \rightarrow N 1$,
- so time until the next

• merger is
$$\frac{2}{(N-1)(N-2)}$$

Most Recent Common Ancestor (MRCA)

Total time until the MRCA

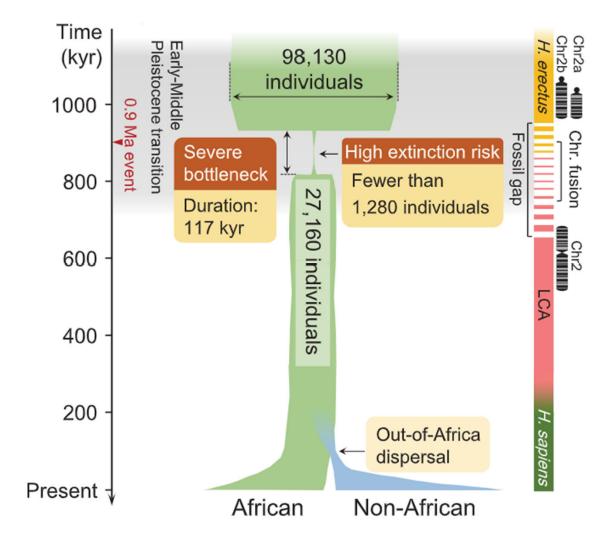
$$T_{MRCA} = N \cdot \sum_{k=2}^{N} \frac{2}{k(k-1)}$$
$$= 2N \sum_{k=2}^{N} \left(\frac{1}{k-1} - \frac{1}{k}\right) = 2N \left(1 - \frac{1}{N}\right) \approx 2N$$

- There are about *N=3.5x10⁹* women living today
- Most Recent maternal Common Ancestor (MRCA)

of all people living today lived $T_{MRCA} = 2N$ generations ago

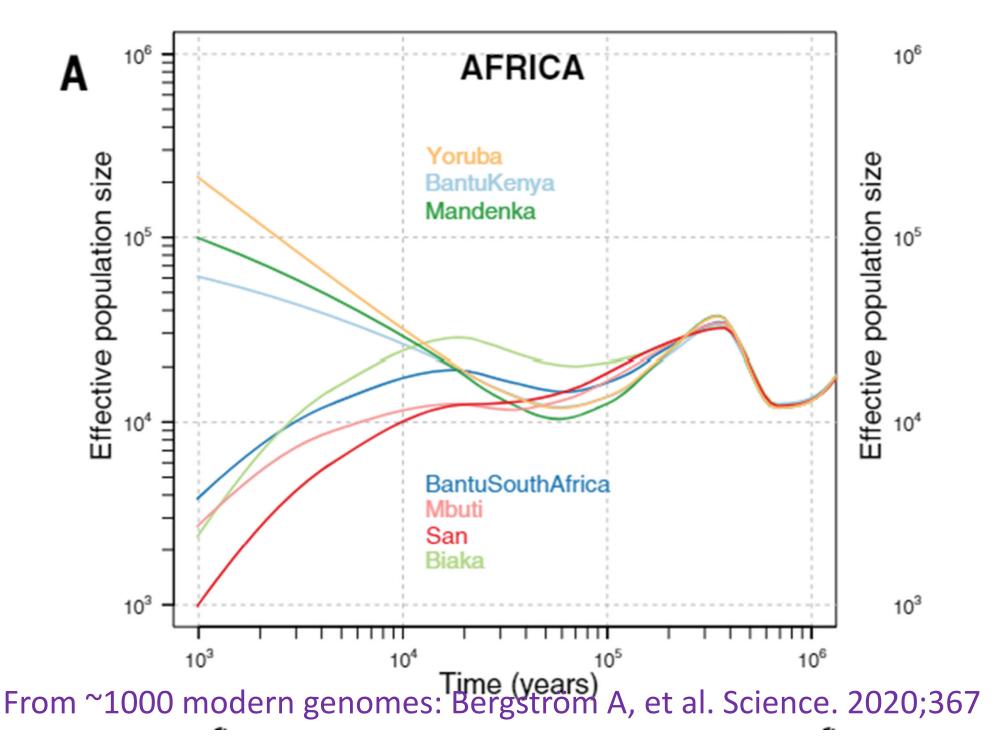
- $T_{MRCA} = 2 \cdot 3.5 \times 10^{9}$ generations
- If the generation time 20 years it is 140 billion years > 10 times the time since the Big Bang.
- Something is wrong here!

Hot off the press: human ancestors almost got extinct about 1M years ago



Hu W, et al. Science. 2023;381: 979–984

Effective human population size ~10,000



- Population is not constant and for a long time was very low
- Change N to the "effective" size N_e
- Current thinking is that for all of us including people of African ancestry $N_e^{10,000}$ people
- For humans of European + Asian ancestry N_e~ 3000 people
- Mito Eve lived in Africa ~2*(Ne/2)*20 years=10,000*20 years= 200,000 years ago