# Lecture 3 <br> Probabilistic Sequence Models 

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## Probability 101

- frequentist interpretation: the probability of an event is the proportion of the time events of same kind will occur in the long run
- examples
- the probability my flight to Chicago will be on time
- the probability this ticket will win the lottery
- the probability it will rain tomorrow
- always a number in the interval $[0,1]$

0 means "never occurs"
1 means "always occurs"

## Sample Spaces

- sample space: a set of possible outcomes for some event
- examples
- flight to Chicago: \{on time, late\}
- lottery: \{ticket 1 wins, ticket 2 wins, ...,ticket $n$ wins $\}$
- weather tomorrow:
\{rain, not rain\} or
\{sun, rain, snow\} or
\{sun, clouds, rain, snow, sleet\} or...


## Random Variables

- random variable: a variable representing the outcome of an experiment
- example:
- $X$ represents the outcome of my flight to Chicago
- we write the probability of my flight being on time as $\operatorname{Pr}(X=$ on-time $)$
- or when it's clear which variable we're referring to, we may use the shorthand $\operatorname{Pr}$ (on-time)


## Notation

- uppercase letters and capitalized words denote random variables
- lowercase letters and uncapitalized words denote values
- we'll denote a particular value for a variable as follows

$$
\operatorname{Pr}(X=x) \quad \operatorname{Pr}(\text { Fever }=\text { true })
$$

- we'll also use the shorthand form

$$
\operatorname{Pr}(x) \text { for } \operatorname{Pr}(X=x)
$$

- for Boolean random variables, we'll use the shorthand

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \operatorname{Pr}(\text { fever }) \text { for } \operatorname{Pr}(\text { Fever }=\text { true }) \\
& \operatorname{Pr}(\neg \text { fever }) \text { for } \operatorname{Pr}(\text { Fever }=\text { false })
\end{aligned}
$$

## Probability Distributions

- if $X$ is a random variable, the function given by $\operatorname{Pr}(X=x)$ for each $x$ is the probability distribution of $X$
- requirements:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \operatorname{Pr}(x) \geq 0 \text { for every } x \\
& \sum_{x} \operatorname{Pr}(x)=1
\end{aligned}
$$



## Joint Distributions

- joint probability distribution: the function given by

$$
\operatorname{Pr}(X=x, Y=y)
$$

- read " $X$ equals $x$ and $Y$ equals $y$ "
- example

| $x, y$ | $\operatorname{Pr}(X=x, Y=y)$ |
| :--- | :---: |
| sun, on-time | $0.20 \longleftarrow$ | | probability that it's sunny |
| :--- |
| and my flight is on time |

## Marginal Distributions

- the marginal distribution of $X$ is defined by

$$
\operatorname{Pr}(x)=\sum_{y} \operatorname{Pr}(x, y)
$$

"the distribution of $X$ ignoring other variables"

- this definition generalizes to more than two variables, e.g.

$$
\operatorname{Pr}(x)=\sum_{y} \sum_{z} \operatorname{Pr}(x, y, z)
$$

## Marginal Distribution Example

joint distribution

| $x, y$ | $\operatorname{Pr}(X=x, Y=y)$ |
| :--- | :---: |
| sun, on-time | 0.20 |
| rain, on-time | 0.20 |
| snow, on-time | 0.05 |
| sun, late | 0.10 |
| rain, late | 0.30 |
| snow, late | 0.15 |

marginal distribution for $X$

| $x$ | $\operatorname{Pr}(X=x)$ |
| :--- | ---: |
| sun | 0.3 |
| rain | 0.5 |
| snow | 0.2 |

## Conditional Distributions

- the conditional distribution of $X$ given $Y$ is defined as:

$$
\operatorname{Pr}(X=x \mid Y=y)=\frac{\operatorname{Pr}(X=x, Y=y)}{P(Y=y)}
$$

"the distribution of $X$ given that we know $Y$ "

## Conditional Distribution Example

conditional distribution for $X$ given $Y=$ on-time

| $x, y$ | $\operatorname{Pr}(X=x, Y=y)$ |  | $x$ | $\operatorname{Pr}(X=x \mid Y=$ on-time $)$ |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| sun, on-time | 0.20 |  | sun | $0.20 / 0.45=0.444$ |
| rain, on-time | 0.20 |  | rain | $0.20 / 0.45=0.444$ |
| snow, on-time | 0.05 |  | snow | $0.05 / 0.45=0.111$ |
| sun, late | 0.10 |  |  |  |
| rain, late | 0.30 |  |  |  |
| snow, late | 0.15 |  |  |  |

## Independence

- two random variables, $X$ and $Y$, are independent if

$$
\operatorname{Pr}(x, y)=\operatorname{Pr}(x) \times \operatorname{Pr}(y) \quad \text { for all } x \text { and } y
$$

## Independence Example \#1

joint distribution

| $x, y$ | $\operatorname{Pr}(X=x, Y=y)$ |
| :--- | :---: |
| sun, on-time | 0.20 |
| rain, on-time | 0.20 |
| snow, on-time | 0.05 |
| sun, late | 0.10 |
| rain, late | 0.30 |
| snow, late | 0.15 |

marginal distributions

| $x$ | $\operatorname{Pr}(X=x)$ |
| :--- | ---: |
| sun | 0.3 |
| rain | 0.5 |
| snow | 0.2 |


| $y$ | $\operatorname{Pr}(Y=y)$ |
| :--- | ---: |
| on-time | 0.45 |
| late | 0.55 |

Are $X$ and $Y$ independent here? NO.

## Independence Example \#2

joint distribution

| $x, y$ | $\operatorname{Pr}(X=x, Y=y)$ |
| :--- | :---: |
| sun, fly-United | 0.27 |
| rain, fly-United | 0.45 |
| snow, fly-United | 0.18 |
| sun, fly-Northwest | 0.03 |
| rain, fly-Northwest | 0.05 |
| snow, fly-Northwest | 0.02 |

marginal distributions

| $x$ | $\operatorname{Pr}(X=x)$ |
| :--- | ---: |
| sun | 0.3 |
| rain | 0.5 |
| snow | 0.2 |


| $y$ | $\operatorname{Pr}(Y=y)$ |
| :--- | ---: |
| fly-United | 0.9 |
| fly-Northwest | 0.1 |

Are $X$ and $Y$ independent here? YES.

## Conditional Independence

- two random variables $X$ and $Y$ are conditionally independent given $Z$ if

$$
\operatorname{Pr}(X \mid Y, Z)=\operatorname{Pr}(X \mid Z)
$$

"once you know the value of $Z$, knowing $Y$ doesn't tell you anything about $X$ "

- alternatively

$$
\operatorname{Pr}(x, y \mid z)=\operatorname{Pr}(x \mid z) \times \operatorname{Pr}(y \mid z) \text { for all } x, y, z
$$

## Conditional Independence Example

| Flu | Fever | Vomit | $\operatorname{Pr}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| true | true | true | 0.04 |
| true | true | false | 0.04 |
| true | false | true | 0.01 |
| true | false | false | 0.01 |
| false | true | true | 0.009 |
| false | true | false | 0.081 |
| false | false | true | 0.081 |
| false | false | false | 0.729 |

Fever and Vomit are not independent: e.g. $\operatorname{Pr}($ fever, vomit $) \neq \operatorname{Pr}($ fever $) \times \operatorname{Pr}($ vomit $)$
Fever and Vomit are conditionally independent given Flu:
$\operatorname{Pr}($ fever, vomit $\mid$ flu $)=\operatorname{Pr}($ fever $\mid$ flu $) \times \operatorname{Pr}($ vomit $\mid$ flu $)$
$\operatorname{Pr}($ fever, vomit $\mid \neg f l u)=\operatorname{Pr}($ fever $\mid \neg f l u) \times \operatorname{Pr}($ vomit $\mid \neg f l u)$
etc.

## Bayes Theorem

$$
\operatorname{Pr}(x \mid y)=\frac{\operatorname{Pr}(y \mid x) \operatorname{Pr}(x)}{\operatorname{Pr}(y)}=\frac{\operatorname{Pr}(y \mid x) \operatorname{Pr}(x)}{\sum_{x}^{\operatorname{Pr}(y \mid x) \operatorname{Pr}(x)}}
$$

- this theorem is extremely useful
- there are many cases when it is hard to estimate $\operatorname{Pr}(x \mid y)$ directly, but it's not too hard to estimate $\operatorname{Pr}(y \mid x)$ and $\operatorname{Pr}(x)$


## Bayes Theorem Example

- MDs usually aren't good at estimating Pr(Disorder $\mid$ Symptom $)$
- they're usually better at estimating $\operatorname{Pr}($ Symptom $\mid$ Disorder $)$
- if we can estimate $\operatorname{Pr}(f e v e r \mid f l u)$ and $\operatorname{Pr}(f l u)$ we can use Bayes’ Theorem to do diagnosis

$$
\operatorname{Pr}(f l u \mid \text { fever })=\frac{\operatorname{Pr}(\text { fever } \mid f l u) \operatorname{Pr}(f l u)}{\operatorname{Pr}(f \text { fever } \mid f l u) \operatorname{Pr}(f l u)+\operatorname{Pr}(f e v e r \mid \neg f l u) \operatorname{Pr}(\neg f l u)}
$$

## Expected Values

- the expected value of a random variable that takes on numerical values is defined as:

$$
E[X]=\sum_{x} x \times \operatorname{Pr}(x)
$$

this is the same thing as the mean

- we can also talk about the expected value of a function of a random variable

$$
E[g(X)]=\sum_{x} g(x) \times \operatorname{Pr}(x)
$$

## Expected Value Example

- Suppose each lottery ticket costs $\$ 1$ and the winning ticket pays out $\$ 100$. The probability that a particular ticket is the winning ticket is 0.001 .
$E[\operatorname{gain}($ Lottery $)]=$
gain $($ winning $) \operatorname{Pr}($ winning $)+$ gain $($ losing $) \operatorname{Pr}($ losing $)=$ $(\$ 100-\$ 1) \times 0.001-\$ 1 \times 0.999=$
- \$0.90


## Probabilistic Sequence Models in Computational Biology

- there are many cases in which we would like to represent the statistical regularities of some class of sequences
- genes
- various regulatory sites in DNA (e.g. where RNA polymerase and transcription factors bind)
- proteins in a given family


## Probability Of A Sequence

- given some sequence $x$ of length $L$, we want to compute its probability (likelihood)
- one way to compute this is the joint probability of all the characters in the sequence:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{Pr}(x) & =\operatorname{Pr}\left(x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{L}\right) \\
& =\operatorname{Pr}\left(x_{1}\right) \operatorname{Pr}\left(x_{2} \mid x_{1}\right) \ldots \operatorname{Pr}\left(x_{L} \mid x_{1}, \ldots, x_{L-1}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

- for example:

$$
\operatorname{Pr}(c g g t)=\operatorname{Pr}(c) \operatorname{Pr}(g \mid c) \operatorname{Pr}(g \mid c g) \operatorname{Pr}(t \mid c g g)
$$

- problem: biological sequences tend to be very long; that's too many conditional probabilities to estimate!


## The Markov Assumption

- trick: assume the probability of a character is only dependent on the previous character, not the entire prefix

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{Pr}(x) & =\operatorname{Pr}\left(x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{L}\right) \\
& \approx \operatorname{Pr}\left(x_{1}\right) \operatorname{Pr}\left(x_{2} \mid x_{1}\right) \ldots \operatorname{Pr}\left(x_{L-1} \mid x_{L-2}\right) \operatorname{Pr}\left(x_{L} \mid x_{L-1}\right) \\
& =\operatorname{Pr}\left(x_{1}\right) \prod_{i=2}^{L} \operatorname{Pr}\left(x_{i} \mid x_{i-1}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

- now our probabilities are easier to estimate:

$$
\operatorname{Pr}(c g g t)=\operatorname{Pr}(c) \operatorname{Pr}(g \mid c) \operatorname{Pr}(g \mid g) \operatorname{Pr}(t \mid g)
$$

- this trick is called the Markov assumption, and a statistical process that uses it is called a Markov chain


## Markov Chain Models



$$
\begin{aligned}
& \quad \text { transition probabilities } \\
& \operatorname{Pr}\left(x_{i}=a \mid x_{i-1}=g\right)=0.16 \\
& \operatorname{Pr}\left(x_{i}=c \mid x_{i-1}=g\right)=0.34 \\
& \operatorname{Pr}\left(x_{i}=g \mid x_{i-1}=g\right)=0.38 \\
& \operatorname{Pr}\left(x_{i}=t \mid x_{i-1}=g\right)=0.12
\end{aligned}
$$

## Markov Chain Models

- can also have an end state; allows the model to represent
- a distribution over sequences of different lengths
- preferences for ending sequences with certain symbols



## Markov Chain Models

- a Markov chain model is defined by
- a set of states
- some states emit symbols
- other states (e.g. the begin and end states) are silent
- a set of transitions with associated probabilities
- the transitions emanating from a given state define a distribution over the possible next states


## Markov Chain Notation

- the transition parameters can be denoted by $a_{x_{i-1} x_{i}}$ where

$$
a_{x_{i-1} x_{i}}=\operatorname{Pr}\left(x_{i} \mid x_{i-1}\right)
$$

- similarly we can denote the probability of a sequence $x$ as

$$
a_{\mathrm{B} x_{1}} \prod_{i=2}^{L} a_{x_{i-1} x_{i}}=\operatorname{Pr}\left(x_{1}\right) \prod_{i=2}^{L} \operatorname{Pr}\left(x_{i} \mid x_{i-1}\right)
$$

where $a_{\mathrm{B} x_{1}}$ represents the transition from the begin state

The Probability of a Sequence for a Given Markov Chain Model

$\operatorname{Pr}(c g g t)=\operatorname{Pr}(c) \operatorname{Pr}(g \mid c) \operatorname{Pr}(g \mid g) \operatorname{Pr}(t \mid g) \operatorname{Pr}($ end $\mid t)$

## Estimating the Model Parameters

- given some data (e.g. a set of sequences), how can we determine the probability parameters of our model?
- one approach: maximum likelihood estimation
- given a set of data $D$
- set the parameters $\theta$ to maximize

$$
\operatorname{Pr}(D \mid \theta)
$$

- i.e. make the data $D$ look as likely as possible under the model $\theta$


## Maximum Likelihood Estimation

- suppose we want to estimate the parameters:

$$
\operatorname{Pr}(\mathrm{a}), \operatorname{Pr}(\mathrm{c}), \operatorname{Pr}(\mathrm{g}), \operatorname{Pr}(\mathrm{t})
$$

- and we're given the sequences accgcgetta gcttagtgac tagccgttac

$$
\operatorname{Pr}(a)=\frac{n_{a}}{\sum_{i} n_{i}}
$$

- then the maximum likelihood estimates are

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\operatorname{Pr}(a)=\frac{6}{30}=0.2 & \operatorname{Pr}(g)=\frac{7}{30}=0.233 \\
\operatorname{Pr}(c)=\frac{9}{30}=0.3 & \operatorname{Pr}(t)=\frac{8}{30}=0.267
\end{array}
$$

## Maximum Likelihood Estimation

- suppose instead we saw the following sequences


## gccgegcttg <br> gcttggtggc <br> tggccgttgc

- then the maximum likelihood estimates are


$$
\begin{aligned}
& \operatorname{Pr}(g)=\frac{13}{30}=0.433 \\
& \operatorname{Pr}(t)=\frac{8}{30}=0.267
\end{aligned}
$$

do we really want to set this to 0 ?

## A Bayesian Approach

- instead of estimating parameters strictly from the data, we could start with some prior belief for each
- for example, we could use Laplace estimates

$$
\operatorname{Pr}(a)=\frac{n_{a}+1}{\sum_{i}\left(n_{i}+1\right)} \quad \text { pseudocount }
$$

- where $n_{i}$ represents the number of occurrences of character $i$
- using Laplace estimates with the sequences
gccgegcttg

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \operatorname{Pr}(a)=\frac{0+1}{34} \\
& \operatorname{Pr}(c)=\frac{9+1}{34}
\end{aligned}
$$

## A Bayesian Approach

- a more general form: m-estimates

$$
\operatorname{Pr}(a)=\frac{n_{a}+p_{a} m}{\left(\sum_{i} n_{i}\right)+m} \text { prior probability of } a
$$

- with $m=8$ and uniform priors
gccgcgettg gcttggtggc
$\operatorname{tgg} c \mathrm{~g} \operatorname{ttg} \mathrm{c}$

$$
\operatorname{Pr}(c)=\frac{9+0.25 \times 8}{30+8}=\frac{11}{38}
$$

## Estimation for $1^{\text {st }}$ Order Probabilities

- to estimate a $1^{\text {st }}$ order parameter (where each character depends on 1 previous character), such as $\operatorname{Pr}(c \mid g)$, we count the number of times that $c$ follows the history $g$ in our given sequences
- using Laplace estimates with the sequences:
gccgegcttg
gcttggtggc

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\operatorname{Pr}(a \mid g)=\frac{0+1}{12+4} & \operatorname{Pr}(a \mid c)=\frac{0+1}{7+4} \\
\operatorname{Pr}(c \mid g)=\frac{7+1}{12+4} & \vdots \\
\operatorname{Pr}(g \mid g)=\frac{3+1}{12+4} & \\
\operatorname{Pr}(t \mid g)=\frac{2+1}{12+4} &
\end{array}
$$

$\operatorname{tggccgttg} \mathrm{c}$

## Higher Order Markov Chains

- the Markov property specifies that the probability of a state depends only on the probability of the previous state
- but we can build more "memory" into our states by using a higher order Markov model
- in an $n$th order Markov model

$$
\operatorname{Pr}\left(x_{i} \mid x_{i-1}, x_{i-2}, \ldots, x_{1}\right)=\operatorname{Pr}\left(x_{i} \mid x_{i-1}, \ldots, x_{i-n}\right)
$$

## Selecting the Order of a Markov Chain Model

- higher order models remember more "history"
- additional history can have predictive value
- example:
- predict the next word in this sentence fragment "...finish ___" (up, it, first, last, ...?)
- now predict it given more history
"nice guys finish $\qquad$


## Selecting the Order of a Markov Chain Model

- but the number of parameters we need to estimate grows exponentially with the order
- for modeling DNA we need $O\left(4^{n+1}\right)$ parameters for an $n$th order model
- the higher the order, the less reliable we can expect our parameter estimates to be
- estimating the parameters of a $2^{\text {nd }}$ order Markov chain from the complete genome of E. Coli, we'd see each "word" 72,000+ times on average
- estimating the parameters of an $8^{\text {th }}$ order chain, we'd see each "word" about 5 times on average


## Higher Order Markov Chains

- an $n$th order Markov chain over some alphabet $A$ is equivalent to a first order Markov chain over the alphabet of $n$-tuples $A^{n}$
- example: a $2^{\text {nd }}$ order Markov model for DNA can be treated as a $1^{\text {st }}$ order Markov model over alphabet

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { AA, AC, AG, AT, CA, CC, CG, CT, GA, GC, GG, GT, } \\
& \text { TA, TC, TG, TT }
\end{aligned}
$$

- caveat: we process a sequence one character at a time

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \mathrm{ACCGGT} \\
& \mathrm{AC} \rightarrow \mathrm{CG} \rightarrow \mathrm{GG} \rightarrow \mathrm{GT}
\end{aligned}
$$

## A Fifth Order Markov Chain



## A Fifth Order Markov Chain



$$
\operatorname{Pr}(\text { gctaca })=\operatorname{Pr}(\text { gctac }) \operatorname{Pr}(a \mid \text { gctac })
$$

## Example Application

- language classification
- given:
- passages of text from different languages
- e.g. newspaper articles written in English, French, Spanish, German, and Italian
- do:
- learn a Markov chain model for each language
- use these models to determine the most likely language for some new passage of text
- http://pages.cs.wisc.edu/~bsettles/webtoys/polyglot/


## Example Biological Application

- CpG islands
- CG dinucleotides are rarer in eukaryotic genomes than expected given the marginal probabilities of C and G
- but the regions upstream of genes are richer in CG dinucleotides than elsewhere $-C p G$ islands
- useful evidence for finding genes


## Example Biological Application

- given sequences from CpG islands, and sequences from other regions, we can construct
- a model to represent CpG islands
- a null model to represent the other regions
- can then score a test sequence by:

$$
\operatorname{score}(x)=\log \frac{\operatorname{Pr}(x \mid \text { CpG model })}{\operatorname{Pr}(x \mid \text { null model })}
$$

## Example Biological Application

- parameters estimated for CpG and null models
- human sequences containing 48 CpG islands
- 60,000 nucleotides

| $+$ | $\operatorname{Pr}(c \mid a)$ |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | $a$ |  | $g$ | $t$ |
| $a$ | . 18 | . 27 | . 43 | . 12 |
| $c$ | . 17 | . 37 | . 27 | . 19 |
| $g$ | . 16 | . 34 | . 38 | . 12 |
| $t$ | . 08 | . 36 | . 38 | . 18 |
|  |  |  |  |  |


| - | $a$ | c | $g$ | $t$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $a$ | . 30 | . 21 | . 28 | . 21 |
| c | . 32 | . 30 | . 08 | . 30 |
| $g$ | . 25 | . 24 | . 30 | . 21 |
| $t$ | . 18 | . 24 | . 29 | . 29 |

## Example Biological Application



- light bars represent negative sequences
- dark bars represent positive sequences
- the actual figure here is not from a CpG island discrimination task, however

Figure from A. Krogh, "An Introduction to Hidden Markov Models for Biological Sequences" in Computational Methods in Molecular Biology, Salzberg et al. editors, 1998.

## Example Biological Application

- why use

$$
\operatorname{score}(x)=\log \frac{\operatorname{Pr}(x \mid C p G)}{\operatorname{Pr}(x \mid \text { null })}
$$

- Bayes' rule tells us

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \operatorname{Pr}(C p G \mid x)=\frac{\operatorname{Pr}(x \mid C p G) \operatorname{Pr}(C p G)}{\operatorname{Pr}(x)} \\
& \operatorname{Pr}(\text { null } \mid x)=\frac{\operatorname{Pr}(x \mid \text { null }) \operatorname{Pr}(\text { null })}{\operatorname{Pr}(x)}
\end{aligned}
$$

- if we're not taking into account prior probabilities of two classes $(\operatorname{Pr}(C p G)$ and $\operatorname{Pr}($ null $))$ then we just need to compare $\operatorname{Pr}(x \mid C p G)$ and $\operatorname{Pr}(x \mid$ null $)$


## Hidden Markov Models



- given say a $T$ in our input sequence, which state emitted it?


## Hidden State

- we'll distinguish between the observed parts of a problem and the hidden parts
- in the Markov models we've considered previously, it is clear which state accounts for each part of the observed sequence
- in this example, there are multiple states that could account for each part of the observed sequence
- this is the hidden part of the problem
- hidden Markov models (HMMs) are Markov chain models with hidden state


## Simple HMM for Gene Finding

Figure from A. Krogh, An Introduction to Hidden Markov Models for Biological Sequences


## HMM Applications

- classification
- given: a set of models representing different sequence classes (e.g. protein families), and a test sequence
- do: determine which model/class best explains the sequence
- use Forward algorithm to calculate probability of sequence under each each model
- segmentation
- given: a model representing different sequence classes, a test sequence
- do: segment the sequence into subsequences, predicting the state labels for each subsequence
- use Viterbi algorithm to find most probable path for sequence


## Example: Protein Classification

given: amino-acid sequence of a protein do: predict the family to which it belongs

GDLSTPDAVMGNPKVKAHGKKVLGAFSDGLAHLDNLKGTFATLSELHCDKLHVDPENFRLLGNVCVLAHHFGKEFTPPVQAAYAKVVAGVANALAHKYH


## Alignment of Globin Family Proteins

- The sequences in a family may vary in length
- Some positions are more conserved than others



## Profile HMMs

- profile HMMs are commonly used to model families of sequences

Delete states are silent; they Account for characters missing in some sequences

Insert states account for extra characters in some sequences

Match states represent key conserved positions
 sequence characters

## Profile HMM Accuracy



- classifying 2447proteins into 33 families
- $x$-axis represents the median \# of negative sequences that score as high as a positive sequence for a given family's model


## Example: Gene Finding

given: an uncharacterized DNA sequence $d o$ : locate the genes in the sequence, including the coordinates of individual exons and introns

image from the UCSC Genome Browser
http://genome.ucsc.edu/

## Eukaryotic Gene Structure



## Parsing a DNA Sequence

The Viterbi path represents a parse of a given sequence, predicting exons, introns, etc


## Example: Information Extraction From Biomedical Literature

given: a passage of text from a scientific article $d o$ : identify mentions of genes or proteins, annotate the article with this information in a database

```
Annotated Text
Analysis of myeloid-associated genes in human hematopoietic progenitor cells
Bello-Fernandez et al. Exp Hematol. 1997 Oct ; 25 (11): 1158-66.
The distribution of myeloid lineage-associated cytokine receptors and lysosomal proteins was analyzed in human CD34+ cord blood cell (CB) subsets at different stages of myeloid commitment by reverse-transcriptase polymerase chain reaction (RT-PCR).
The highly specific granulomonocyte-associated lysosomal proteins myeloperoxidase (MPO) and ly sozyme (LZ), as well as the transcription factor PU.1, were already detectable in the most immature CD34+ Thy-1+ subset
Messenger RNA (mRNA) levels for the granulocyte-colony stimulating factor (G-CSF)
```


## Entity Recognition Tools

[^0]
## Next Time...

- basic molecular biology
- sequence alignment
- probabilistic sequence models
- gene expression analysis
- protein structure prediction
- by Ameet Soni


[^0]:    Annotate! protein DNA RNA cell line cell type

