



Quantitative Biology

La Thuile 03/03/2011

Michele Caselle – University of Torino and INFN caselle @to.infn.it



Plan of the talk

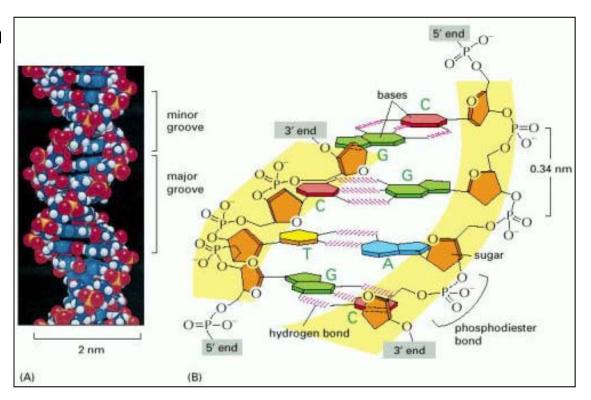


- 1. Introduction: DNA, genes and proteins
- 2. The last ten years: The "genomic revolution"
- 3. New tools and ideas: Computational Biology and Systems biology
- 4. Example 1: Evolutionary models
- 5. Example 2: Gene Regulation
- 6. Example 3: Chemotaxis

DNA

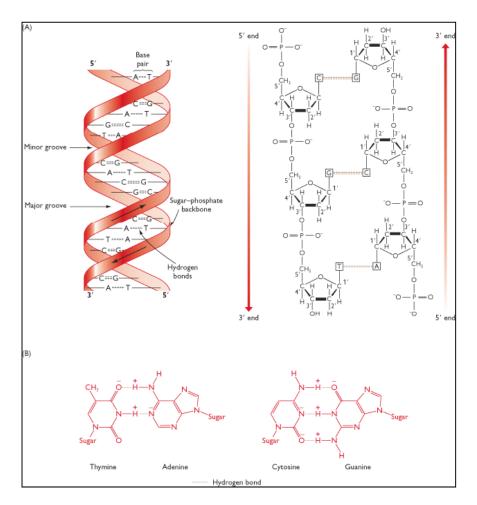
- Genomic information is encoded in the **DNA** chain.

- In the human case the genome is composed by 3x10^9 base pairs which may take four possible values: **A,C,G,T**



DNA

The main property of the **DNA** chain is base pairing: (A,T) and (C,G). This allows both DNA replication and the use of the chain as a template for protein production.

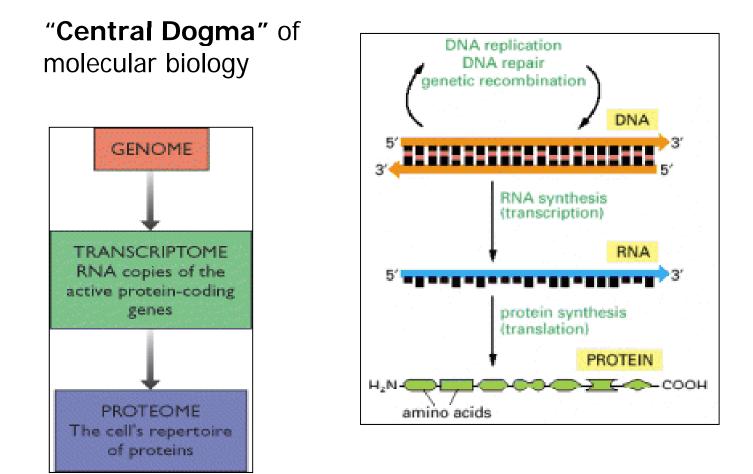


Proteins

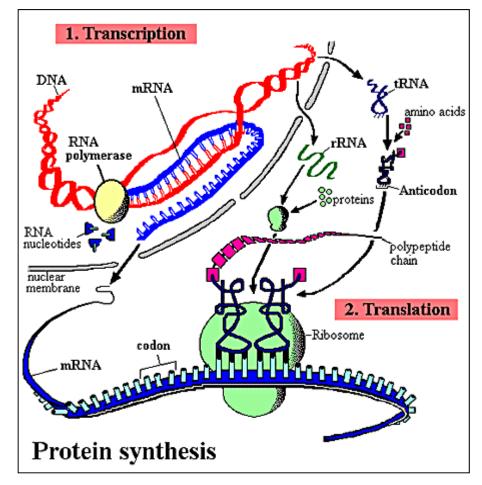
Most of the functions in the cell are performed by **proteins** which are composed by 20 different types of elemantary constituents: the aminoacids



Information flow in the cell



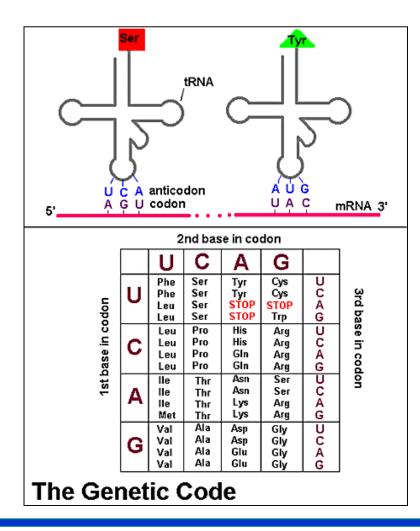
Protein synthesis



Genetic Code

Genetic code is

the rule which allows to translate the 4 symbols alphabet of **DNA** to the 20 symbols one of **proteins**.



The Genomic Revolution

Started at the end of '90, triggered by

Impressive technological improvements:

high-throughput experiments

- massive sequencing projects
- microarray
- proteomics
- world wide SNP studies

A central role in this revolution was played by physics.

Both on the experimental side:

- nanotechnolgy
- microfluidics

And on the theoretical side:

- new inference methods
- modeling of complex systems
- network theory
- alignment tools

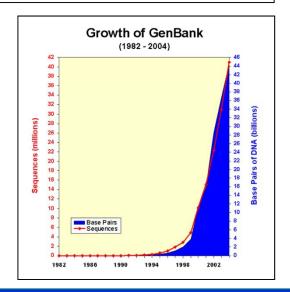
Genomic Revolution: sequences

- Automatic sequencing of DNA
- Open access information: GenBank
- Sequencing projects for thousand of different organisms (and individuals)

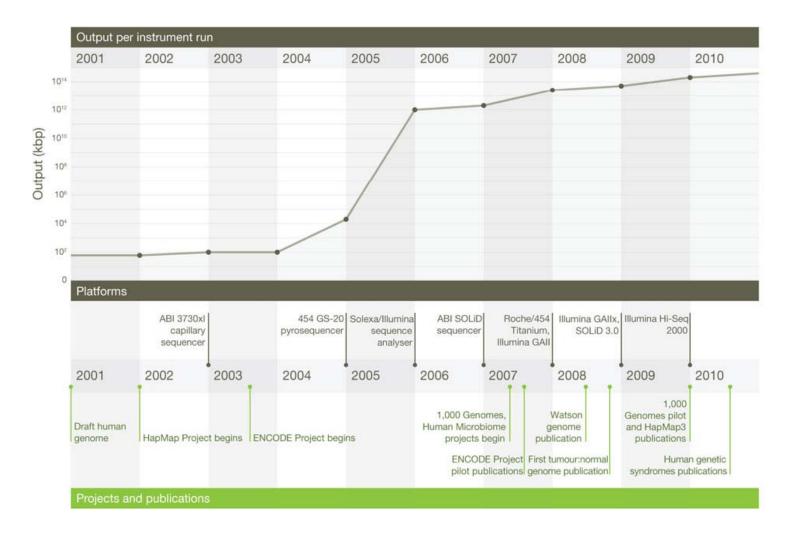
> homo_sapiens ACTTTTTTACCCTCGTGTGTTGC AGACTTTTTGCCACTTTTAAAAC GCTGACAATTCGACCCTTTCCAA GTGCAAAAAGTGCCAAGATTTA CGATAAAATTCCCCCGAGAGAC GTGTGCA......



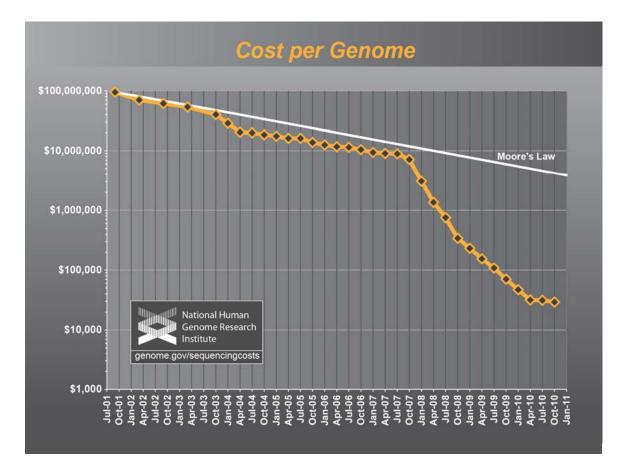


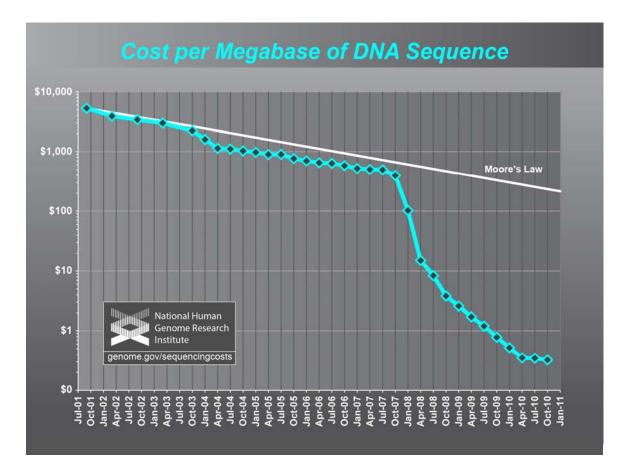


Changes in instrument capacity over the past decade



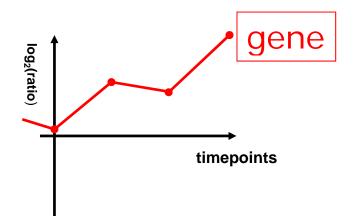
Timing of the major sequencing projects

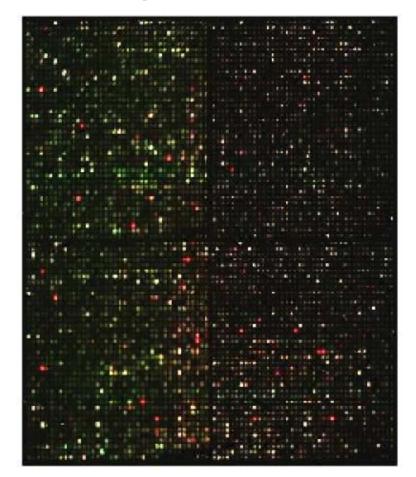




Transcriptomics: microarray

 A typical microarray experiment measures the expression level (amount of mRNA in the cell) of thousands of genes in a single run.

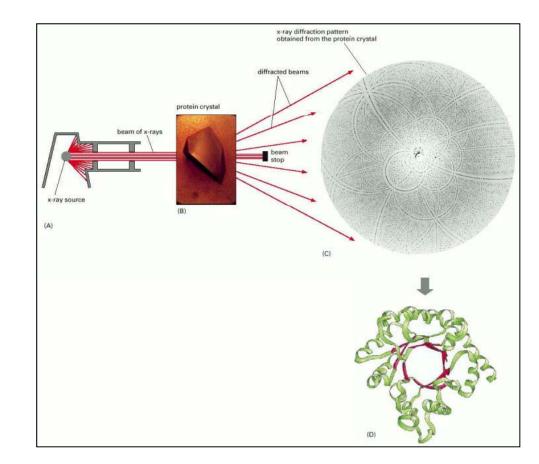




Proteomics:

- Systematic study of 3D protein structure using Xray spectroscopy

- Sistematic study of protein interactions.



New questions, new ideas

- How is it organized the Genome?
- How many genes do we have?
- Which is the role of non coding DNA?
- How different are humans and chimps ?
- Where is it hidden the impressive complexity of multicellular organisms?

Genome Sizes (Mb)

Procaryotes:

Mycoplasma Genitalium	0,58
Escherichia Coli	4,64

Eucaryotes:

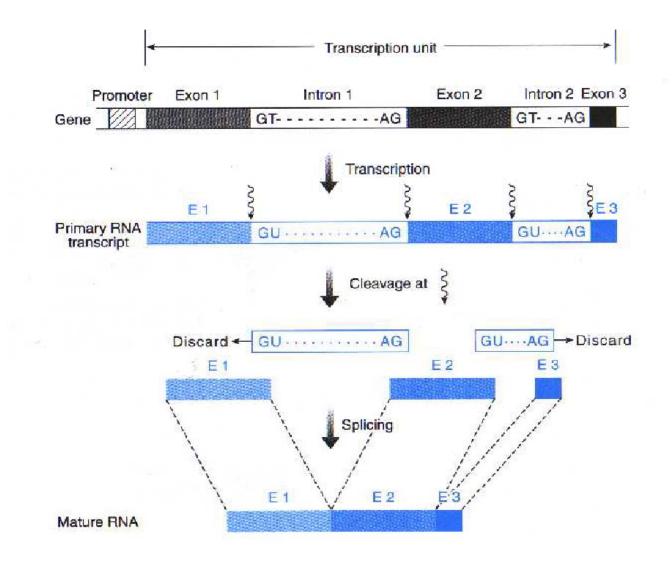
Saccaromices cerevisiae	12
Arabidopsis thaliana	100
Drosophila Melanogaster	140
Caenorabditis Elegans	100
Homo Sapiens	3000

Genome Organization

- The portion of the genome coding for proteins decreases as the complexity of the organism increases. It is very high in procaryotes and yeast but very low in mammalian. 97% of the human genome is non-coding!!
- Most of this non-coding DNA is involved in the regulation of gene expression.

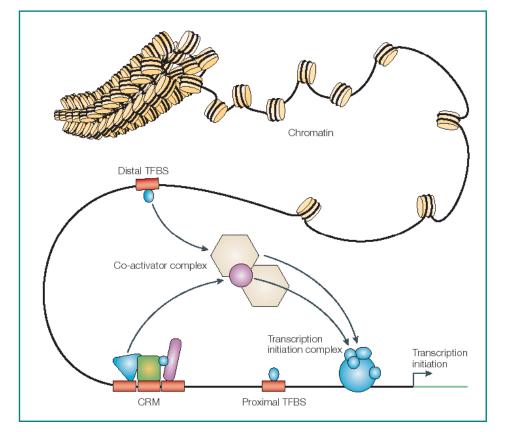
Gene structure

A typical human gene has a very complex internal structure. It is composed by coding blocks (exons) separated by long non-coding sequences (introns). Exons are glued together during the mRNA maturation (splicing process). They can be glued in many different ways thus giving, upon translation several different proteins (alternative splicing)

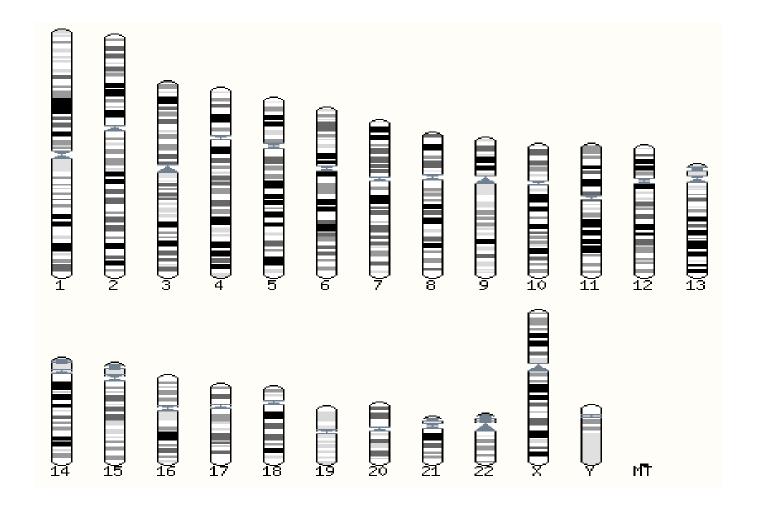


Gene Regulation

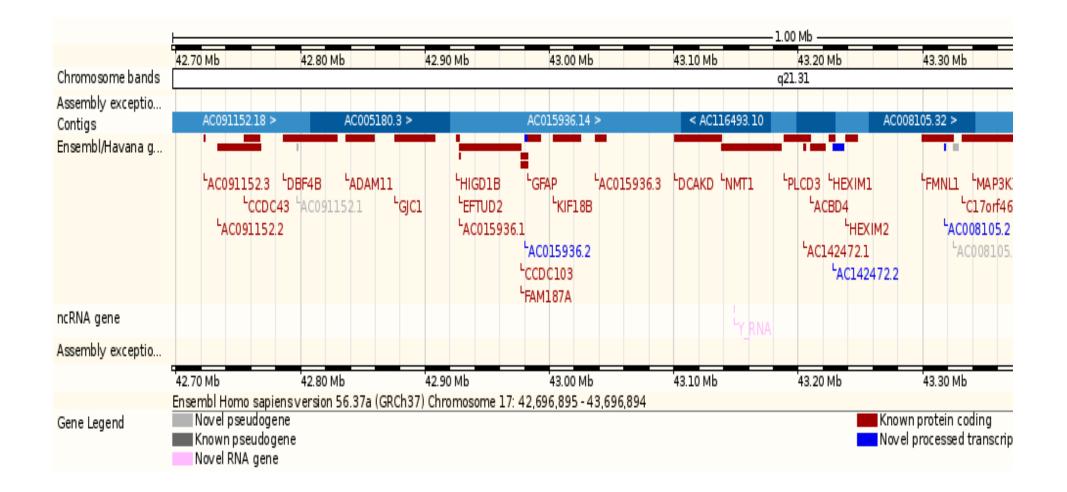
 Gene expression is tightly regulated. All cells in the body carry the full set of genes, but only expres about 20% of them at any particular time



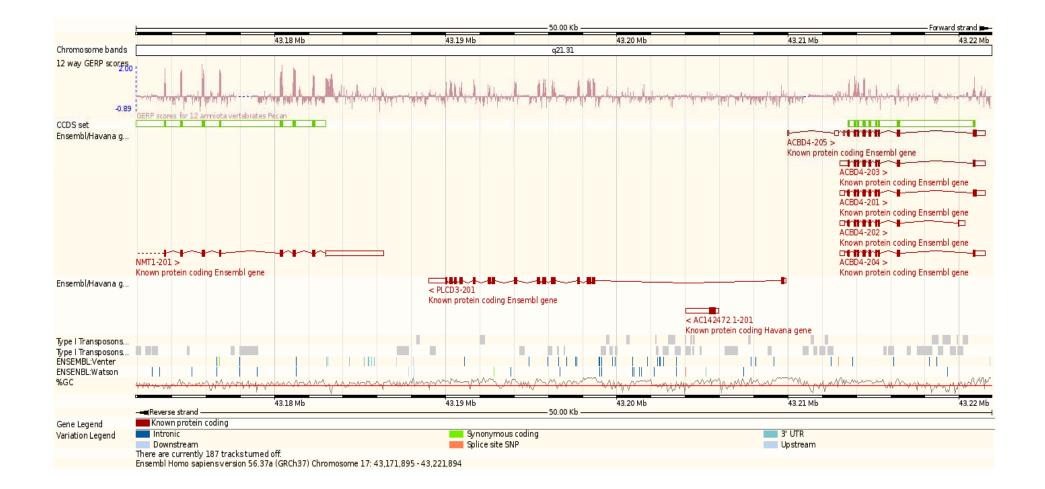
Human Genome



Ensembl Genome Browser



Zoom!



New questions, a few tentative answers

- Most of the human DNA is not coding and regulates protein expression.
- The "central dogma" is wrong: from a single gene the cell can create a huge amount of different proteins

(alternative splicing)

- The information flow can be reverted: from RNA to DNA (Retrotransposons)

New Theoretical Tools:

Systems biology and Computational Biology

Computational Biology

With the terms "Computational Biology" or "Bioinformatics" one usually refers to all the data mining tool based on methods and ideas coming from mathematics / physics / statistics / computer-science .

Genomic data (both sequences and annotations) Can be easily downloaded from huge "open access" data banks.

These data contain a lot of hidden information. In general only a fraction of it has been recognized and published by the authors of the experiments.

Relevant original results can be obtained with no need of new costly experiments but simply using in a clever way existing data.

Systems Biology

Network theory: Complex functions, must be described at the network level and not at the level of single genes, proteins or neurons.

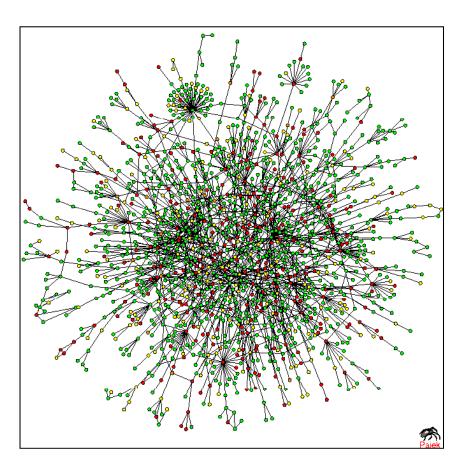
Modeling: These networks can be decomposed in elementary circuits. ("network motifs") which may be modeled using differential or stochastic equations.

Ontologies: biological (and medical) information must be organized in a quantitative and standardized way

Modern Genomics: networks

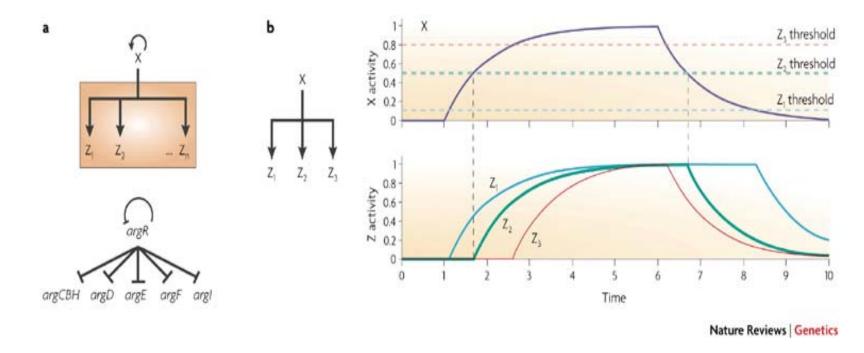
- genes and proteins of a given organism are organized in networks.
- Cells react to external stimuli in a "global" way.

H.Jeong et al. Nature, 411 (2001) 41



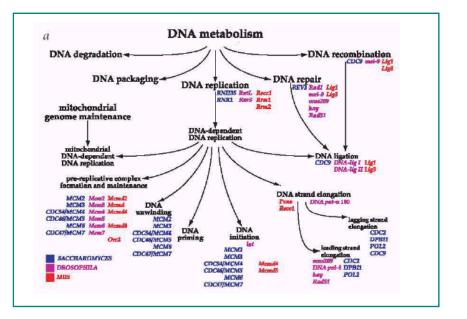
Network motifs

Example: SIM (Single Input Module) (a) experimental realization: arginine biosynthesis b) Circuit behaviour: different genes are activated at different times as a function of their different activation threshold as the concentration of X (master regulator) changes in time R.Milo et al. Science 298 (2002) 824



Modern Genomics: Gene Ontology

- Gene Ontology is an example of standardization of biological data.
- The goal is the construction of a controlled vocabulary to describe:
 - Molecular function
 - Biological process
 - Cellular component of a given gene.
- The ontologies are organized as hierarchical networks (Directed acyclic graphs)



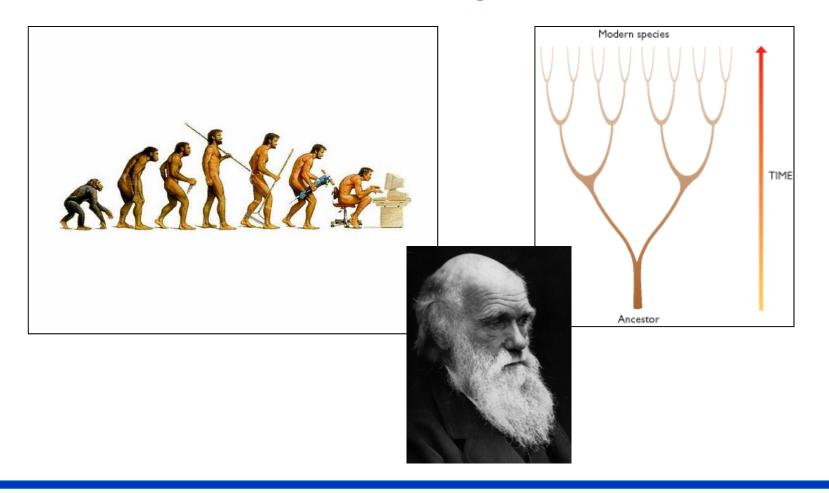
The G.O. Consortium Nature Genet. 25 (2000) 25

Three examples of applications

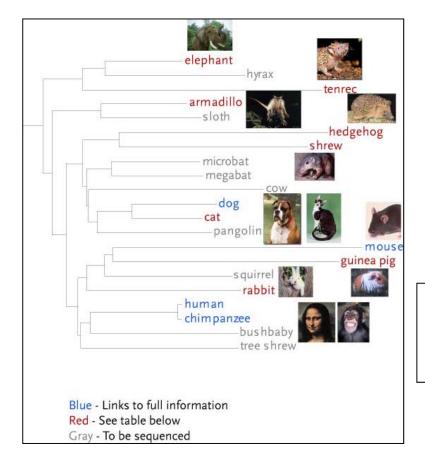
§ Evolutionay models

- § Gene Regulation
- **§** Chemotaxis

Evolutionary models



Taxonomic versus Genomic trees



Genomic trees may be obtained using alignment algorithms. They are impressively similar to the taxonomic trees. This is a highly non trivial test of Evolution theory.



 Human
 GCCTGGCCGAAAATCTCTCCCGCGCGCCCTGACCTTGGGTTGCCCCAGCCA

 Mouse
 ------AAGCCTGTGGCGCGCCCCGTGACCTTGGGCTGCCCCAGGCG

 Rat
 ------AAGTTTCT---CTGC-CCTGACCTTGGGTTGCCCCAGGCG

 Dog
 GGCTGC----AGACCTGCCCTGAGGGAATGACCTTGGGCGGCCGCAGCGG

 *
 *

Human and Chimps



Evolution and gene regulation

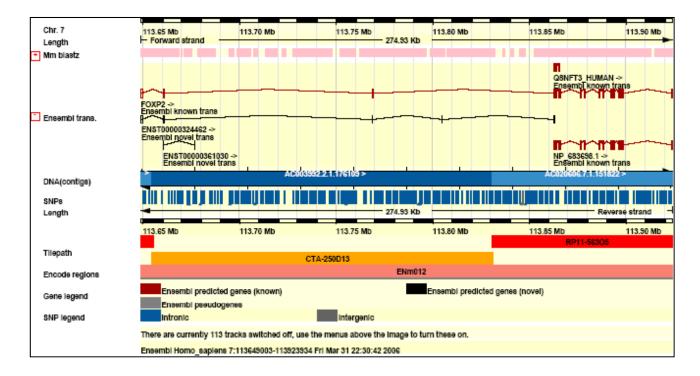
 Goal: use evolutionary conservation to identify functionally important regions of the genome. Different regions show different levels of conservation

"Ultraconserved regions" have been protected against mutations for hundreds of millions of years. They are likely to be crucially important regulatory regions.

One of these appears to be mutated in the human gene FOXP2.

FOXP2 !!

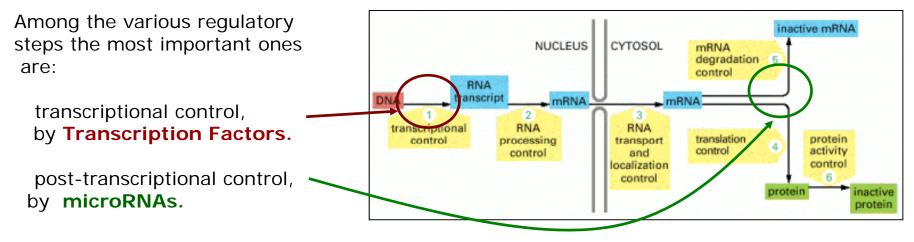
Mutations (SNPs) in the FOXP2 gene are associated to deep alterations in speaking ability.





Gene Regulation

Gene expression in eukaryotes is carefully controlled.



Alberts, Molecular Biology of the Cell

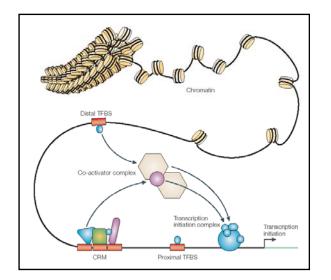


Transcription Factors and miRNAs



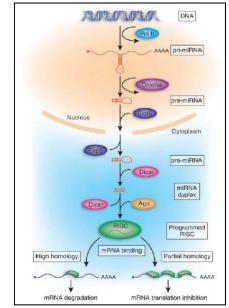
• **Regulation of gene expression** mainly mediated by:

Transcription Factors (TFs): proteins binding to specific recognition **motifs (TFBSs)** usually short (5-10 bp) and located **upstream** of the coding region of the regulated gene.



Wassermann, Nat. Rev. Genetics

MicroRNAs (miRNAs) are a family of small RNAs (typically 21 - 25 nucleotide long) that negatively regulate gene expression at the posttranscriptional level, (usually) thanks to the "seed" region in 3'-UTR regions.





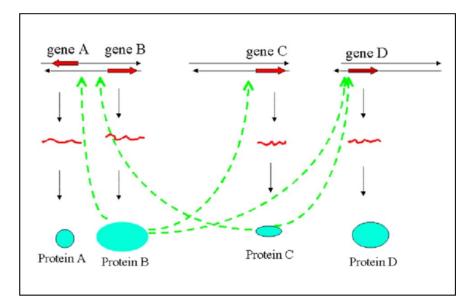


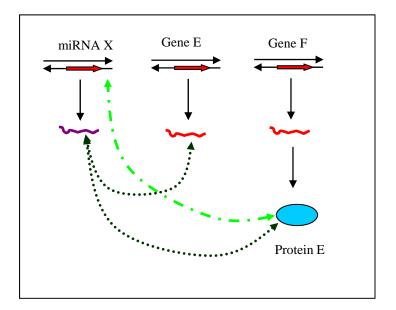
Regulatory Networks 1

Key 1 --> TFs are themselves proteins produced by other genes, and they act in a combinatorial way, resulting in a complex network of interactions between genes and their products.

--> Transcriptional Network

miRNAs also act in a combinatorial and one-to-many way, and, moreover, <u>are transcribed from same POL-II promotes of TFs</u>. --> Post-Transcriptional Network



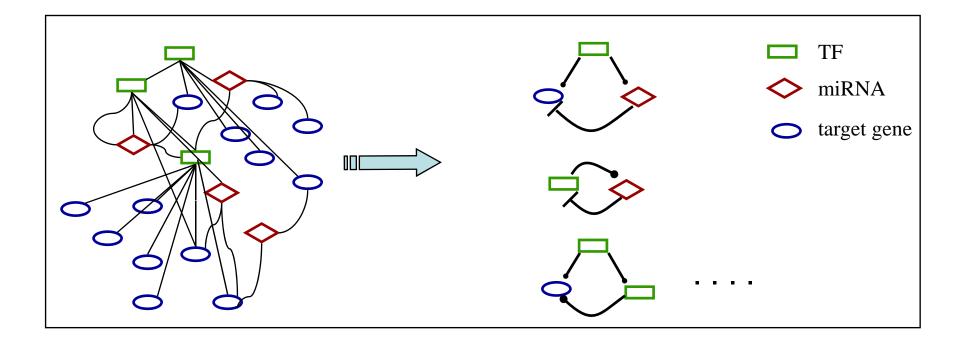




Regulatory Networks 2



Key 2 --> Biological functions are performed by groups of genes which act in an interdependent and synergic way. A complex network can be divided into simpler, distinct regulatory patterns called **network motifs**, typically composed by 3 or 4 interacting components which are able to perform elementary signal processing functions.





Network Motifs

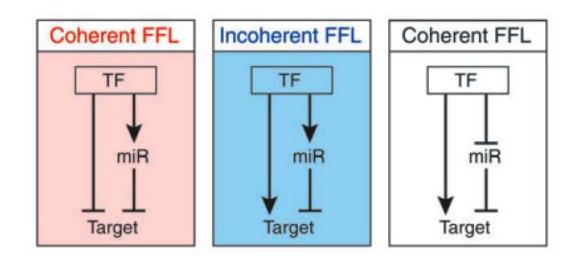


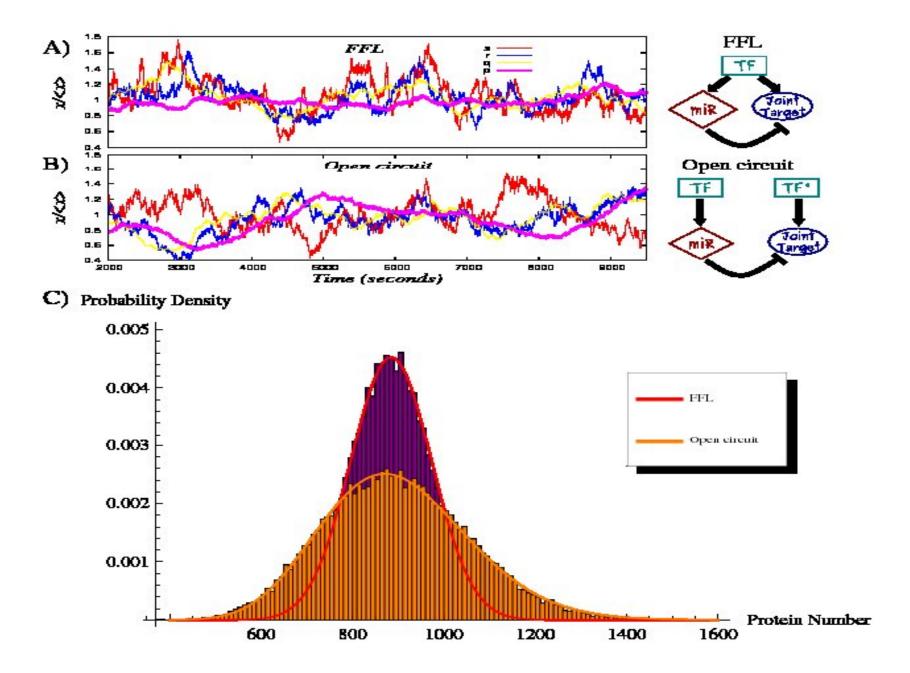
Network motifs can be studied using standard tools of theoretical physics:

- Ordinary differential equations
- Stochastic equations
- Montecarlo (Gillespie) simulations.

- Goal: understand the functional role of the motif and why it was selected by evolution

- Example: incoherent feedforward loops can reduce the noise in the amount of produced proteins.







Chemotaxis



Chemotaxis is the process which allows eukaryotic cells to identify and follow spatial gradients of extracellular guidance cues (chemoattractors)

Chemotaxis can be understood as a phase separation process (like the Ising model phase transition).

The process which drives chemotaxis is a complex combination of protein interactions in the so called **signalling network**.

The architecture of this network is very similar to that of **multilayer perceptrons** and, as for MLP, the signalling network is able to organize non trivial strategies



Conclusions



Quantitative biology offers a lot of interesting challenges for physicists, both from the experimental point of view:

- nanotechnologies
- microfluidics

and from the theoretical point of view:

- modeling
- inference techniques
- simulations



Backup Slides





MicroRNA biogenesis

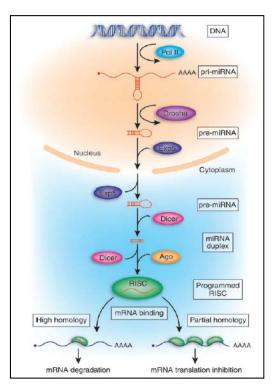


MicroRNAs (miRNAs) are a family of small RNAs (typically **21 - 25** nucleotide long) that negatively regulate gene expression at the post-transcriptional level.

MiRNAs derive from larger precursors transcribed from genomic DNA

- MiRNA transcripts (pri-miRNA) are processed into ~100 nucleotide precursors (pre-miRNA) by Drosha.
- cleavage of the precursors generate 21 25 nucleotide mature miRNAs in cytoplasm.
- mature miRNAs couple with a special protein complex called RNA-Induced Silencing Complex (RISC).

miRNAs are able to negatively affect the expression of a "target" gene via mRNA cleavage or translational repression, after **antisense complementary basepair** matching to specific target sequences in the 3'-UTR of the regulated genes (the "**seeds**").



He L., Hannon GJ. Nature Review Genetics 5, 522 - 531 (2004)



MicroRNA: functions



Members of the miRNA family were initially discovered as small temporal RNAs that regulate developmental transitions in Caenorhabditis Elegans (lin-4). (Chalfieet al. 1981; Lee et al. 1993) but considered only as a peculiarity of worms. In 2002-2003 it was suddenly realized that miRNA exist in all higher Eukaryotes in several copies and that they play an essential role in development and differentiation of tissues.

The functions in which miRNAs are involved are extremely wide and, in animals, they include: developmental timing, pattern formation and embryogenesis, differentiation and organogenesis, growth control and cell death.

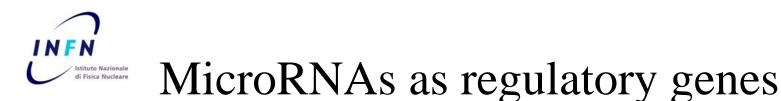


MicroRNA: evolution



MiRNAs also show interesting evolutionary properties between different species. Up to one third of the miRNAs discovered in C. elegans have an orthologous in human.

Tracing back this evolutionary pattern it is possible to guess that miRNA appeared as a new regulatory mechanism about 500 Myears ago. It is interesting to observe that this time scale almost coincides with the impressive explosion of new species in the Cambrian age and with the almost simultaneous appearance of retrotransposons in Eukaryotes.





MiRNAs expression is regulated by the same TF which regulate all the other genes

Regulation by miRNAs is a combinatorial process. Each miRNA is expected to control from one to hundreds of targets while a given mRNA can be under control of many different miRNAs. Usually miRNA binding sites are overrepresented in the 3'-utr sequence of target genes.

Transcription Factors and miRNAs share a very similar behaviour. The main difference between the two is that while TF act as a sort of on/off switch, it seems that the miRNA role is to fine tune the gene expression.