

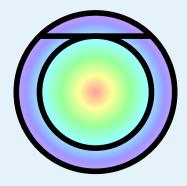


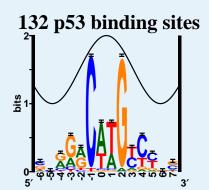


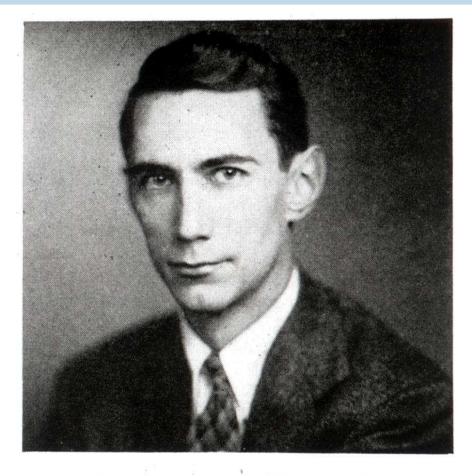
# Biological Information Theory (BIT) gives a natural binding site cutoff

# Thomas D. Schneider, Ph.D.

Molecular Information Theory Group RNA Biology Laboratory Center for Cancer Research National Cancer Institute Frederick, MD 21702-1201

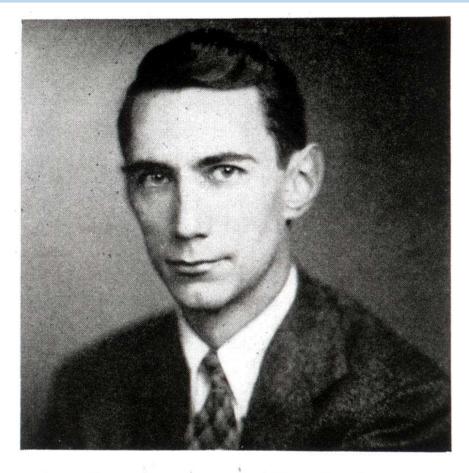






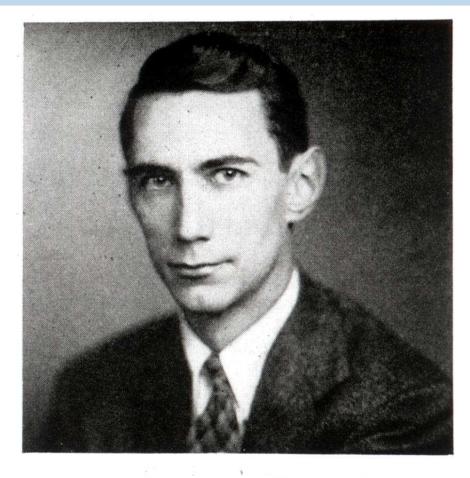
# CLAUDE E. SHANNON

• April 30, 1916 - February 24, 2001



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- April 30, 1916 February 24, 2001
- Founded Information Theory



#### A Mathematical Theory of Communication

#### By C. E. SHANNON

#### INTRODUCTION

THE recent development of various methods of modulation such as PCM and PPM which exchange bandwidth for signal-to-noise ratio has intensified the interest in a general theory of communication. A basis for such a theory is contained in the important papers of Nyquist<sup>1</sup> and Hartley<sup>2</sup> on this subject. In the present paper we will extend the theory to include a number of new factors, in particular the effect of noise in the channel, and the savings possible due to the statistical structure of the original message and due to the nature of the final destination of the information.

The fundamental problem of communication is that of reproducing at one point either exactly or approximately a message selected at another point. Frequently the messages have *meaning*; that is they refer to or are correlated according to some system with certain physical or conceptual entities. These semantic aspects of communication are irrelevant to the engineering problem. The significant aspect is that the actual message is one *selected from a set* of possible messages. The system must be designed to operate for each possible selection, not just the one which will actually be chosen since this is unknown at the time of design.

If the number of messages in the set is finite then this number or any monotonic function of this number can be regarded as a measure of the information produced when one message is chosen from the set, all choices being equally likely. As was pointed out by Hartley the most natural choice is the logarithmic function. Although this definition must be generalized considerably when we consider the influence of the statistics of the message and when we have a continuous range of messages, we will in all cases use an essentially logarithmic measure.

The logarithmic measure is more convenient for various reasons:

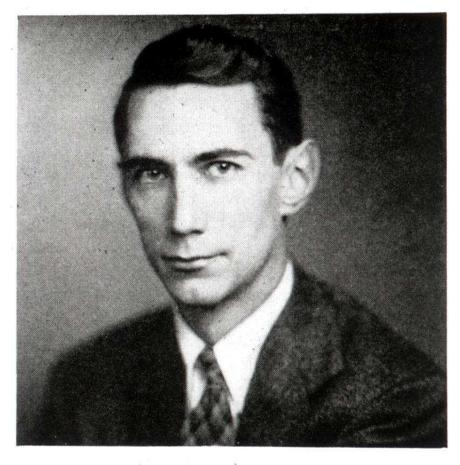
- It is practically more useful. Parameters of engineering importance such as time, bandwidth, number of relays, etc., tend to vary linearly with the logarithm of the number of possibilities. For example, adding one relay to a group doubles the number of possible states of the relays. It adds 1 to the base 2 logarithm of this number. Doubling the time roughly squares the number of possible messages, or doubles the logarithm, etc.
- 2. It is nearer to our intuitive feeling as to the proper measure. This is closely related to (1) since we intuitively measures entities by linear comparison with common standards. One feels, for example, that two punched cards should have twice the capacity of one for information storage, and two identical channels twice the capacity of one for transmitting information.
- It is mathematically more suitable. Many of the limiting operations are simple in terms of the logarithm but would require clumsy restatement in terms of the number of possibilities.

The choice of a logarithmic base corresponds to the choice of a unit for measuring information. If the base 2 is used the resulting units may be called binary digits, or more briefly *bits*, a word suggested by J. W. Tukey. A device with two stable positions, such as a relay or a flip-flop circuit, can store one bit of information. N such devices can store N bits, since the total number of possible states is  $2^N$  and  $\log_2 2^N = N$ . If the base 10 is used the units may be called decimal digits. Since

 $\log_2 M = \log_{10} M / \log_{10} 2$ = 3.32 log<sub>10</sub> M,

<sup>1</sup>Nyquist, H., "Certain Factors Affecting Telegraph Speed," Bell System Technical Journal, April 1924, p. 324; "Certain Topics in Telegraph Transmission Theory," A I.E.E. Trans., v. 47, April 1928, p. 617. "Flartley, R. V.L., "Transmission of Hormation," Bell System Technical Journal, July 1928, p. 535.

- CLAUDE E. SHANNON
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- Important papers: 1948



# CLAUDE E. SHANNON

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- Important papers: 1948, 1949

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CLAUDE E. SHANNON, MEMBER, IRE

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<sup>1</sup>Nyquist, H., "Certain Fa Telegraph Transmission The <sup>2</sup>Hartley, R. V. L., "Trans A method is developed for representing any communication system geometrically. Messages and the corresponding signals are points in two "function spaces," and the modulation process is a mapping of one space into the other. Using this representation, a number of results in communication theory are deduced concering expansion and compression of bandwidth and the threshold effect. Formulas are found for the maximum rate of transmission of binary digits over a system when the signal is perturbed by various types of noise. Some of the properties of "ideal" systems which transmit at this maximum rate are discussed. The equivalent number of binary digits per second for certain information sources

**Communication in the Presence of Noise** 

#### e ti is calculated. e ti I. INTRODUCTION

Classic Paper

A general communications system is shown schematically in Fig. 1. It consists essentially of five elements.

1) An Information Source: The source selects one message from a set of possible messages to be transmitted to the receiving terminal. The message may be of various types; for example, a sequence of letters or numbers, as in telegraphy or teletype, or a continuous function of time f(t), as in radio or telephony.

2) The Transmitter: This operates on the message in some way and produces a signal suitable for transmission to the receiving point over the channel. In telephony, this operation consists of merely changing sound pressure into a proportional electrical current. In telegraphy, we have a encoding operation which produces a sequence of dots, dashes, and spaces corresponding to the letters of the message. To take a more complex example, in the case of multiplex PCM telephony the different speech functions must be sampled, compressed, quantized and encoded, and finally interleaved properly to construct the signal.

3) The Channel: This is merely the medium used to transmit the signal from the transmitting to the receiving point. It may be a pair of wires, a coaxial cable, a band of radio frequencies, etc. During transmission, or at the receiving terminal, the signal may be perturbed by noise or distortion. Noise and distortion may be differentiated on the basis that distortion is a fixed operation applied to the signal, while noise involves statistical and unpredictable

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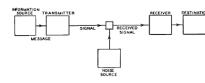


Fig. 1. General communications system

perturbations. Distortion can, in principle, be corrected by applying the inverse operation, while a perturbation due to noise cannot always be removed, since the signal does not always undergo the same change during transmission.

4) The Receiver: This operates on the received signal and attempts to reproduce, from it, the original message. Ordinarily it will perform approximately the mathematical inverse of the operations of the transmitter, although they may differ somewhat with best design in order to combat noise.

5) The Destination: This is the person or thing for whom the message is intended.

Following Nyquist<sup>1</sup> and Hartley,<sup>2</sup> it is convenient to use a logarithmic measure of information. If a device has *n* possible positions it can, by definition, store log<sub>b</sub> *n* units of information. The choice of the base *b* amounts to a choice of unit, since log<sub>b</sub>  $n = \log_b c \log_c n$ . We will use the base 2 and call the resulting units binary digits or bits. A group of *m* relays or flip-flop circuits has  $2^m$  possible sets of positions, and can therefore store log<sub>2</sub>  $2^m = m$  bits.

If it is possible to distinguish reliably M different signal functions of duration T on a channel, we can say that the channel can transmit  $\log_2 M$  bits in time T. The *rate* of transmission is then  $\log_2 M/T$ . More precisely, the *channel capacity* may be defined as

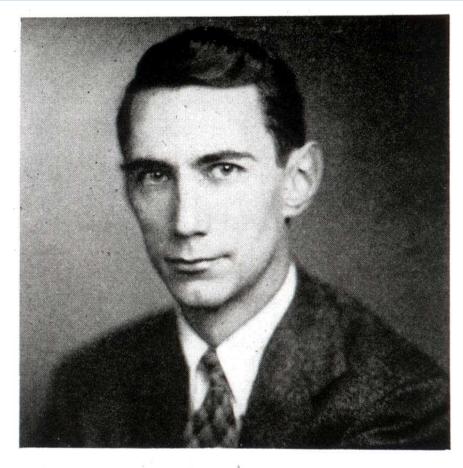
$$C = \lim_{T \to \infty} \frac{\log_2 M}{T}.$$
 (1)

<sup>1</sup>H. Nyquist, "Certain factors affecting telegraph speed," *Bell Syst. Tech. J.*, vol. 3, p. 324, Apr. 1924.

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<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>R. V. L. Hartley, "The transmission of information," *Bell Syst. Tech. J.*, vol. 3, p. 535–564, July 1928.



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- April 30, 1916 February 24, 2001
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- Important papers: 1948, 1949
- Result: modern communications!

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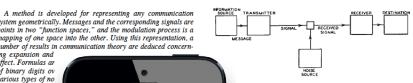
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Classic Paper



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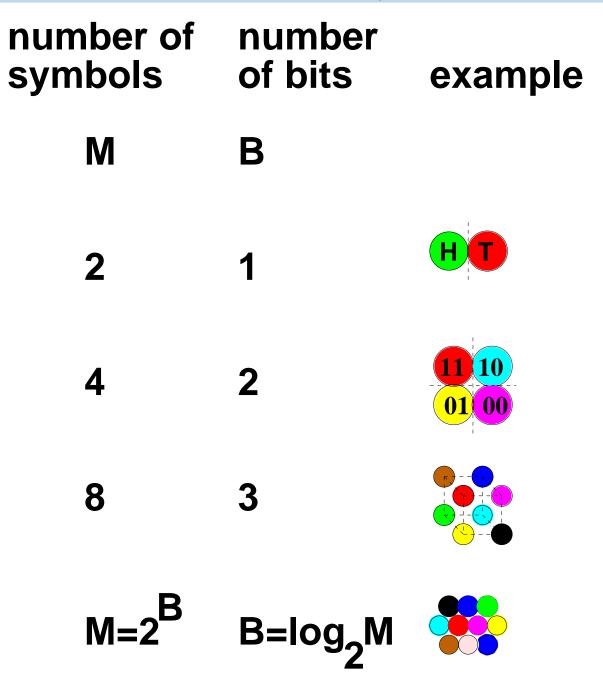
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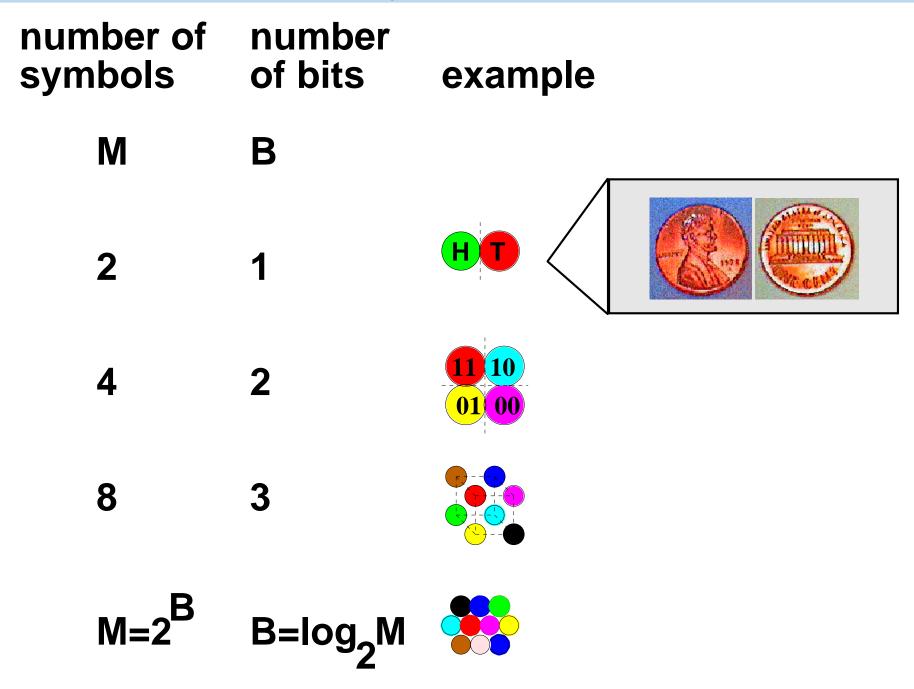
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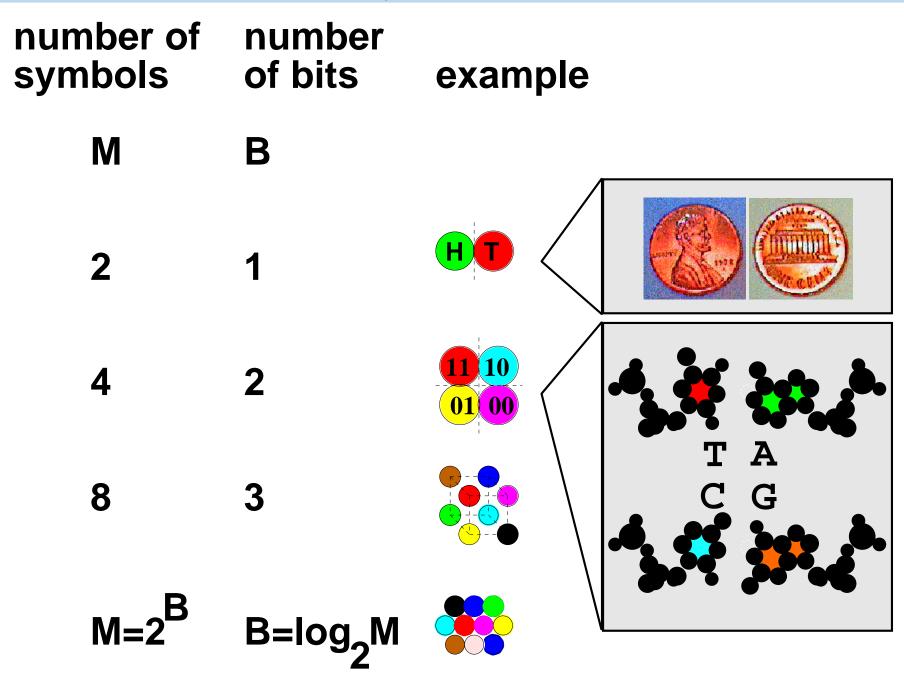
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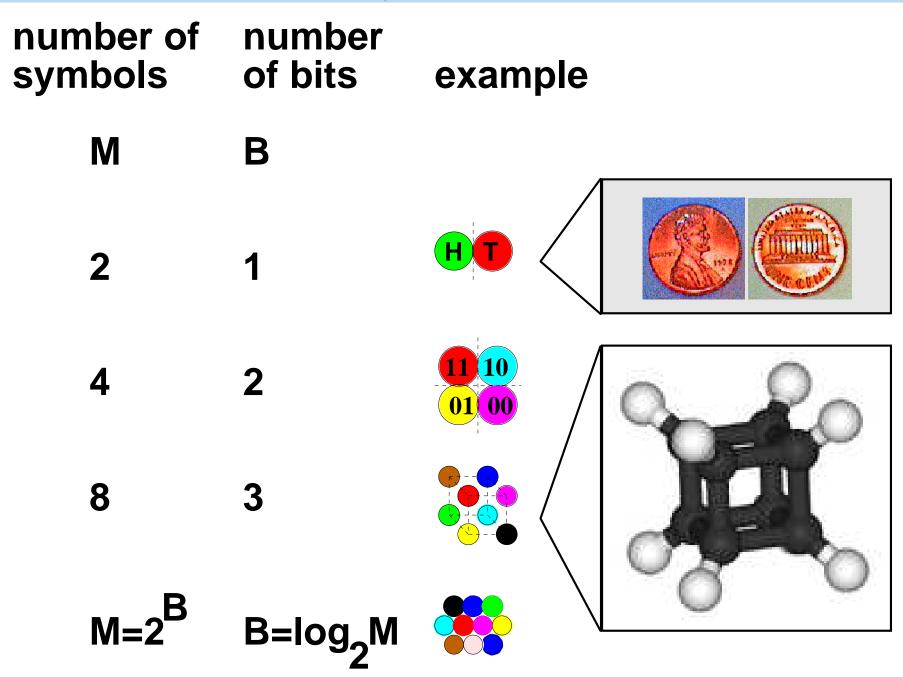
PROCEEDINGS OF THE IEEE, VOL. 86, NO. 2, FEBRUARY 1998

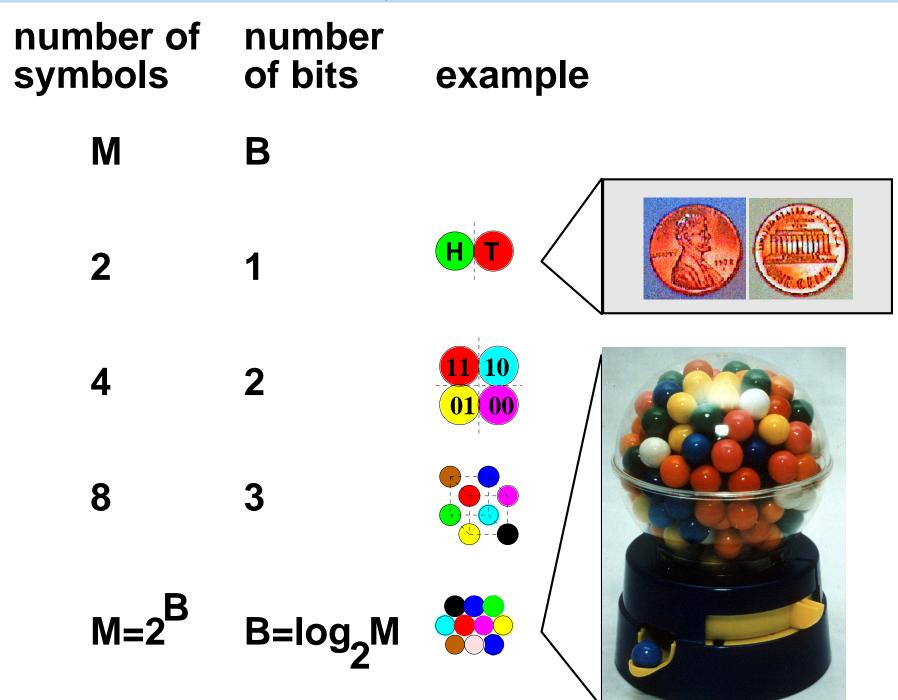
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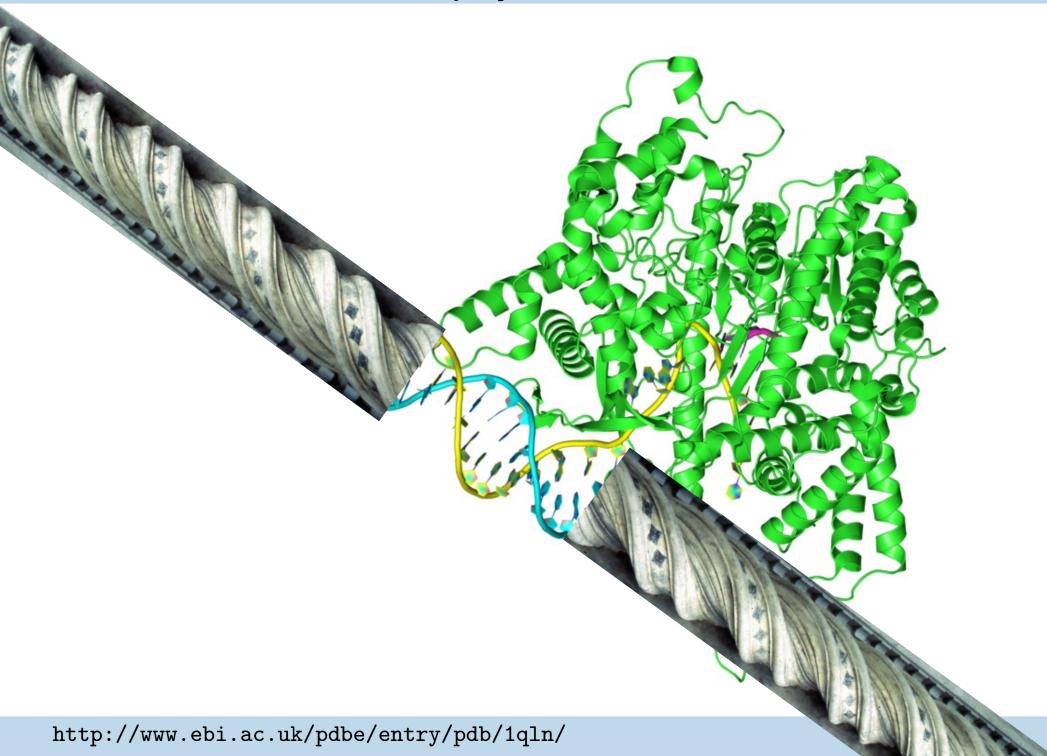


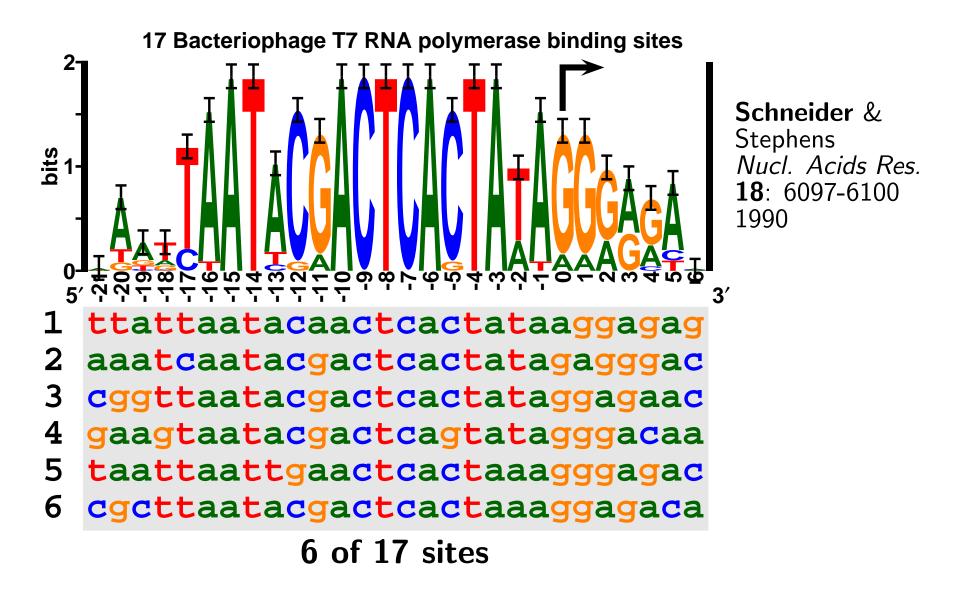


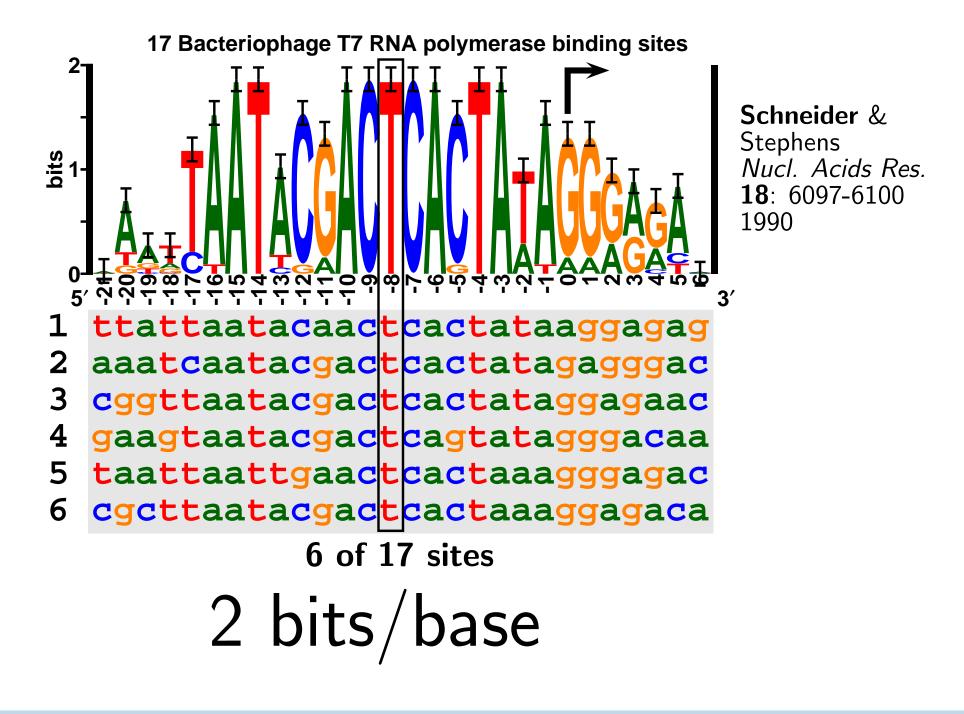
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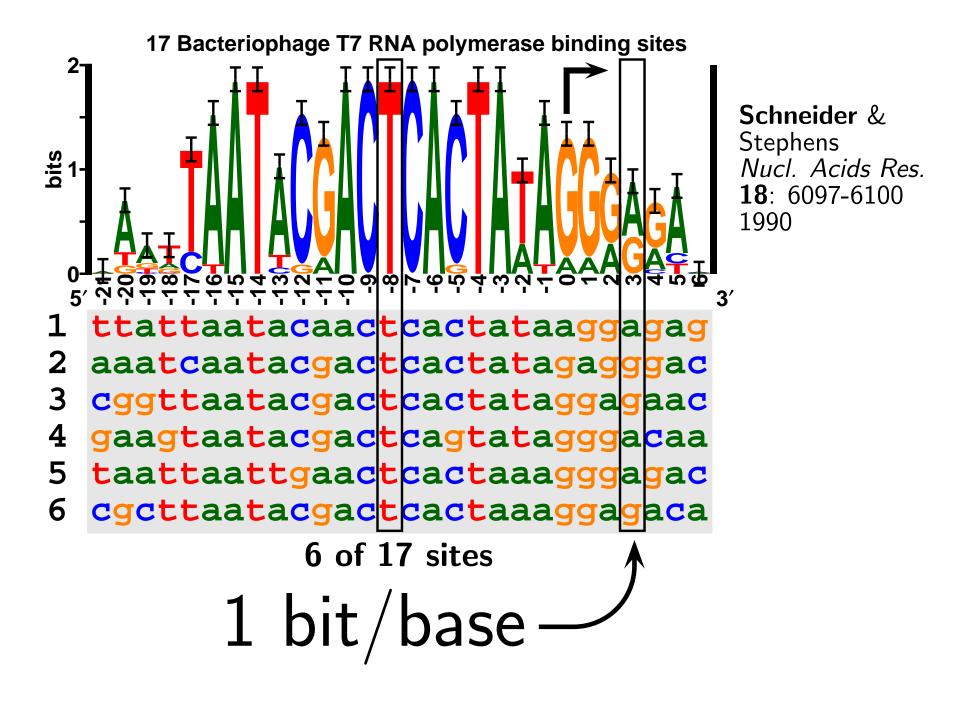


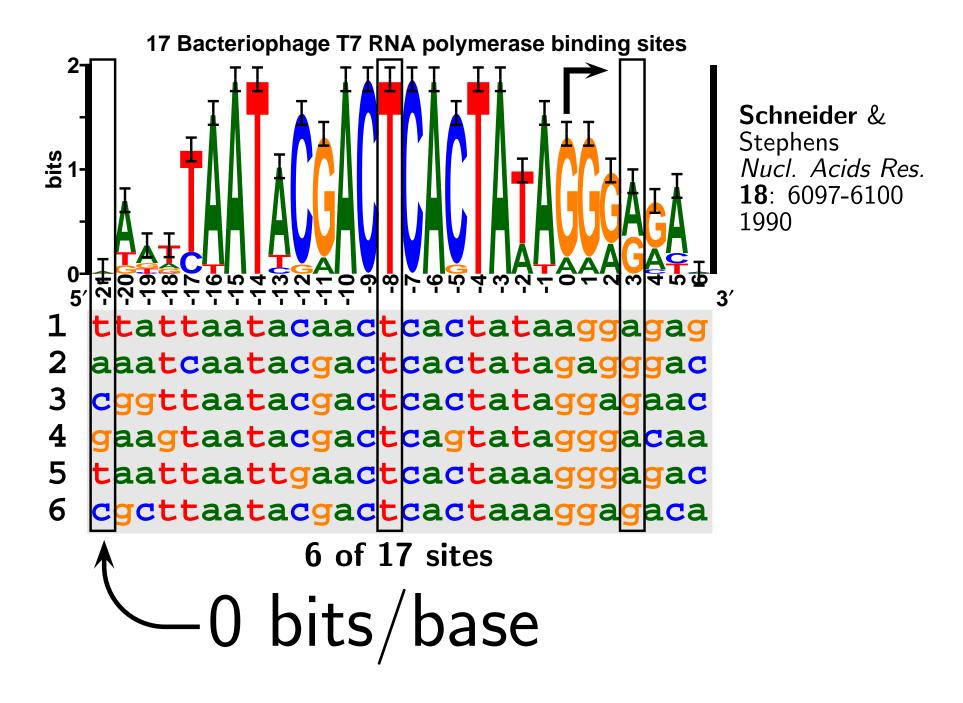
**T7** RNA polymerase + DNA

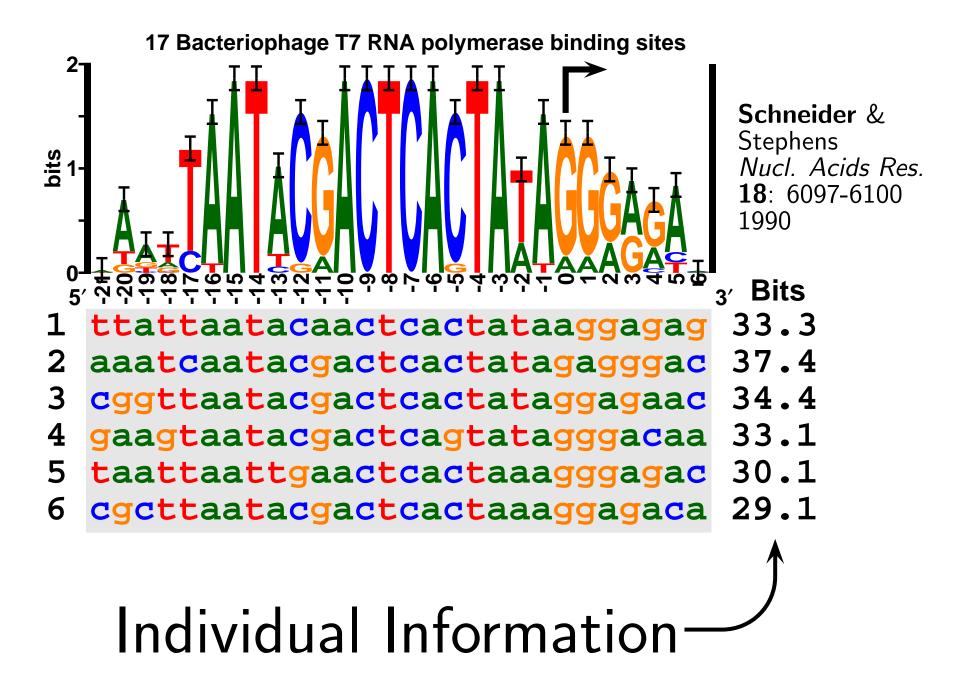




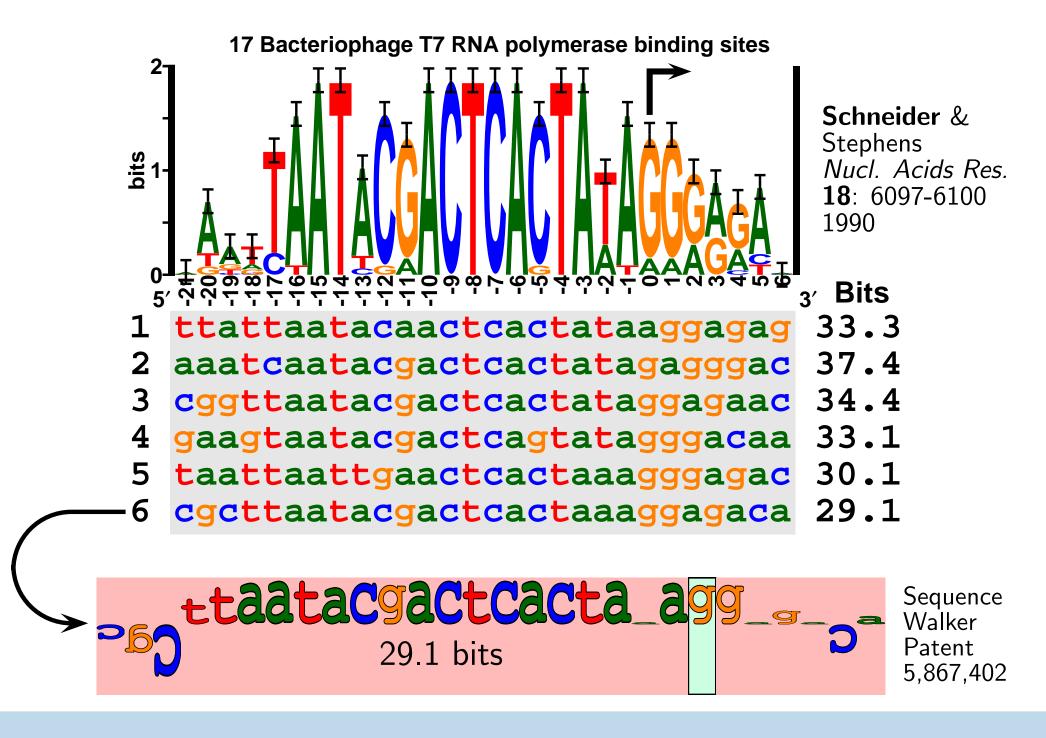




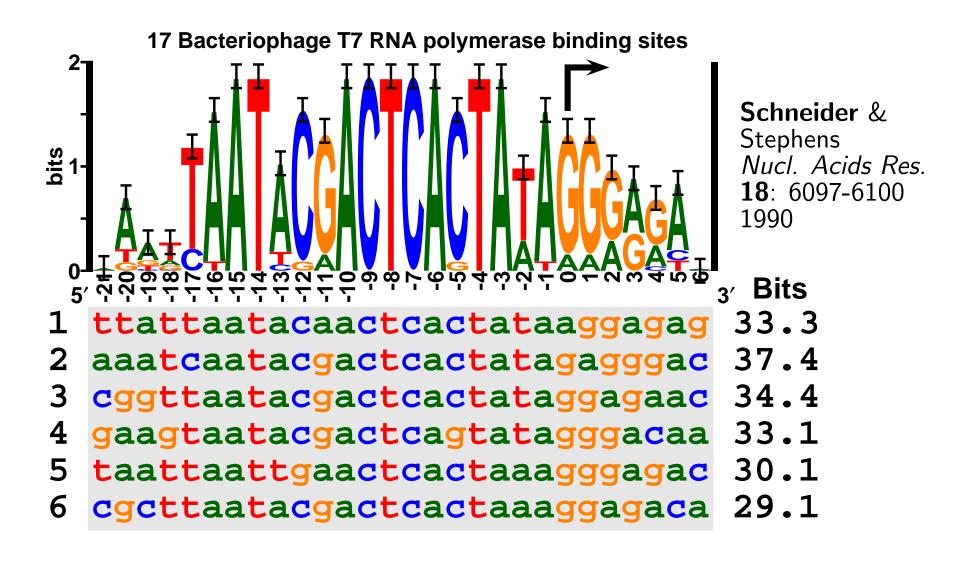




### **Sequence Logo and Sequence Walker**

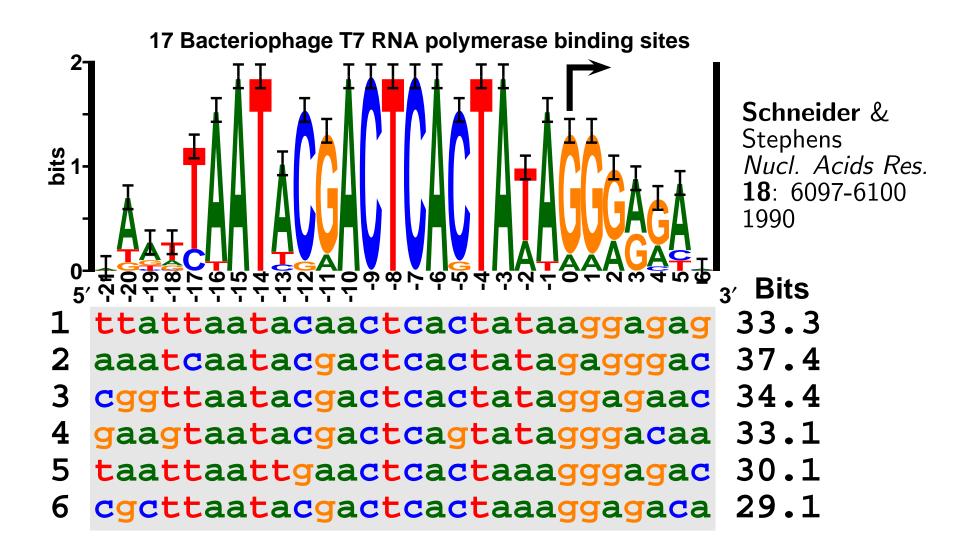


### Sequence Logo and Sequence Walker and Rsequence



Rsequence is the average:  $35.0 \pm 0.6$  bits

### Sequence Logo and Sequence Walker and Rsequence



Rsequence is the average=35abet Underitshe logo"

More Information Theory - 1

### An Intuitive Approach

Information to chose one symbol from M symbols:

 $\log_2 M \tag{1}$ 

More Information Theory - 1

### An Intuitive Approach

Information to chose one symbol from  ${\cal M}$  symbols:

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$$= -\log_2 1/M.$$

1/M is like the probability of a symbol.

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$$\log_2 M \tag{1}$$
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1/M is like the probability of a symbol.

If the probabilities  $P_i$  of different symbols, i, are not equal, then the **surprisal** is:

$$u_i \equiv -\log_2 P_i. \tag{2}$$

how surprised one is to see a symbol



(3)

(4)

$$P_{\rm ring} = 1/1024$$
  
 $P_{\rm silent} = 1023/1024$ 



(3)

(4)

$$P_{ring} = 1/1024$$
  
 $P_{silent} = 1023/1024$ 

Surprisal:

surprisal<sub>ring</sub> = 
$$-\log_2(1/1024) = 10$$
 bits (5)  
surprisal<sub>silent</sub> =  $-\log_2(1023/1024) \approx 0$  bits (6)



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The average surprisal is called the uncertainty, H:

 $H = P_{\mathsf{ring}} \times \mathsf{surprisal}_{\mathsf{ring}}$ 



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$$H = P_{\mathsf{ring}} \times \mathsf{surprisal}_{\mathsf{ring}} + P_{\mathsf{silent}} \times \mathsf{surprisal}_{\mathsf{silent}}$$
(7)



$$P_{\text{ring}} = 1/1024$$
 (3)  
 $P_{\text{silent}} = 1023/1024$  (4)

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(7)  
$$H = P_{\text{ring}} \times \left( -\log_2(P_{\text{ring}}) \right) + P_{\text{silent}} \times \left( -\log_2(P_{\text{silent}}) \right)$$
(8)

For M symbols use the sum  $(\sum)$  notation:

$$H = \sum_{i=1}^{M} P_i \times (\text{surprisal for} P_i)$$

(9)

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(10)

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(10)  
$$= -\sum_{i=1}^{M} P_i \log_2 P_i \text{ bits per symbol (11)}$$

$$H = -\sum_{i=1}^{M} P_i \log_2 P_i \quad \text{bits per symbol} \quad (1)$$

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Simplified Example For two symbols, plot the uncertainty  
$$M = 2, \quad P_1 + P_2 = 1 \qquad (2)$$



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$$M = 2, \quad P_1 + P_2 = 1 \qquad (2)$$
$$P_2 = 1 - P_1 \qquad (3)$$



$$H = -\sum_{i=1}^{M} P_i \log_2 P_i \text{ bits per symbol (1)}$$
  
Simplified Example For two symbols, plot the uncertainty  

$$M = 2, \quad P_1 + P_2 = 1 \qquad (2)$$

$$P_2 = 1 - P_1 \qquad (3)$$

$$H = -P_1 \log_2 P_1 \qquad (4)$$

$$+ -P_2 \log_2 P_2$$



$$H = -\sum_{i=1}^{M} P_i \log_2 P_i \quad \text{bits per symbol} \quad (1)$$
Simplified Example For two symbols, plot the uncertainty
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$$+$$

$$-P_2 \log_2 P_2$$



 $H = -P_1 \log_2 P_1 + (-(1-P_1) \log_2(1-P_1))$  (5)

$$H = -\sum_{i=1}^{M} P_i \log_2 P_i \text{ bits per symbol (1)}$$
  
Simplified Example For two symbols, plot the uncertainty  

$$M = 2, P_1 + P_2 = 1 (2)$$

$$P_2 = 1 - P_1 (3)$$

$$H = -P_1 \log_2 P_1 (4)$$

$$-P_2 \log_2 P_2$$

$$H = -P_1 \log_2 P_1 + (-(1-P_1) \log_2(1-P_1)) (5)$$

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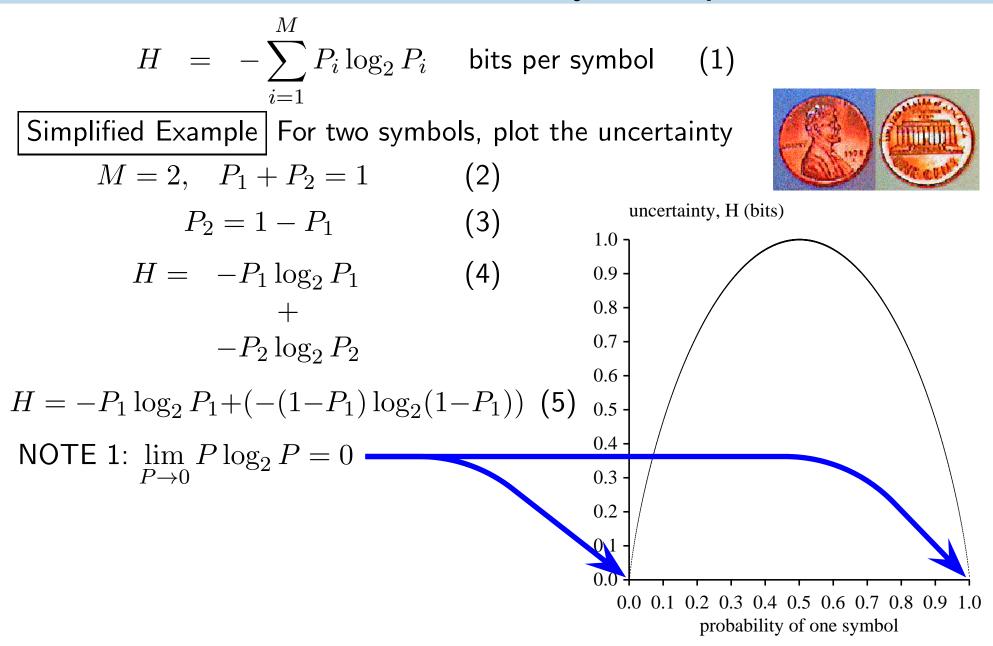
$$0.6$$

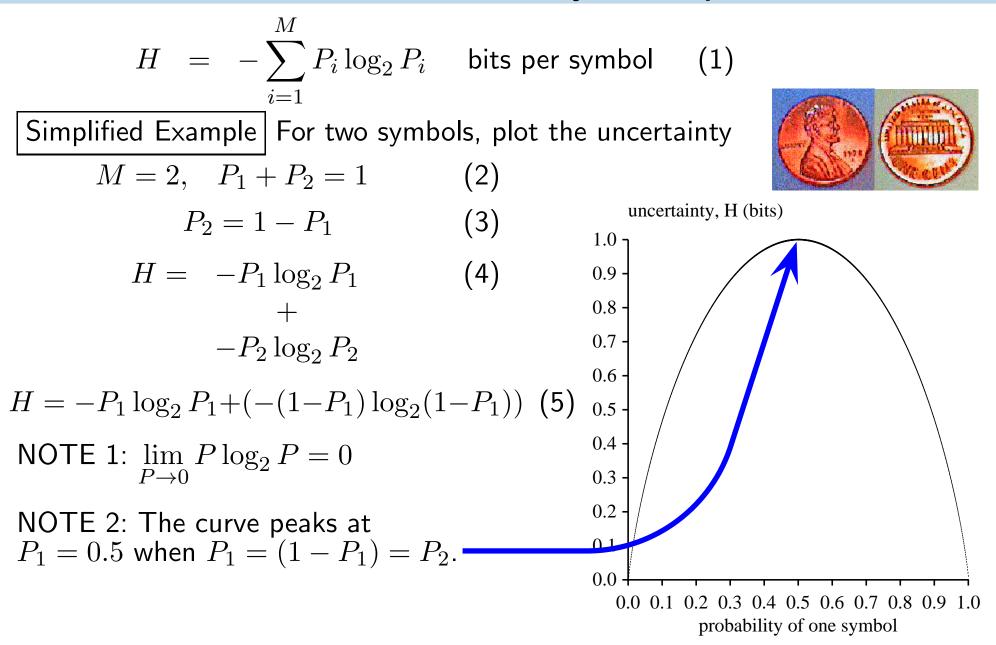
$$0.6$$

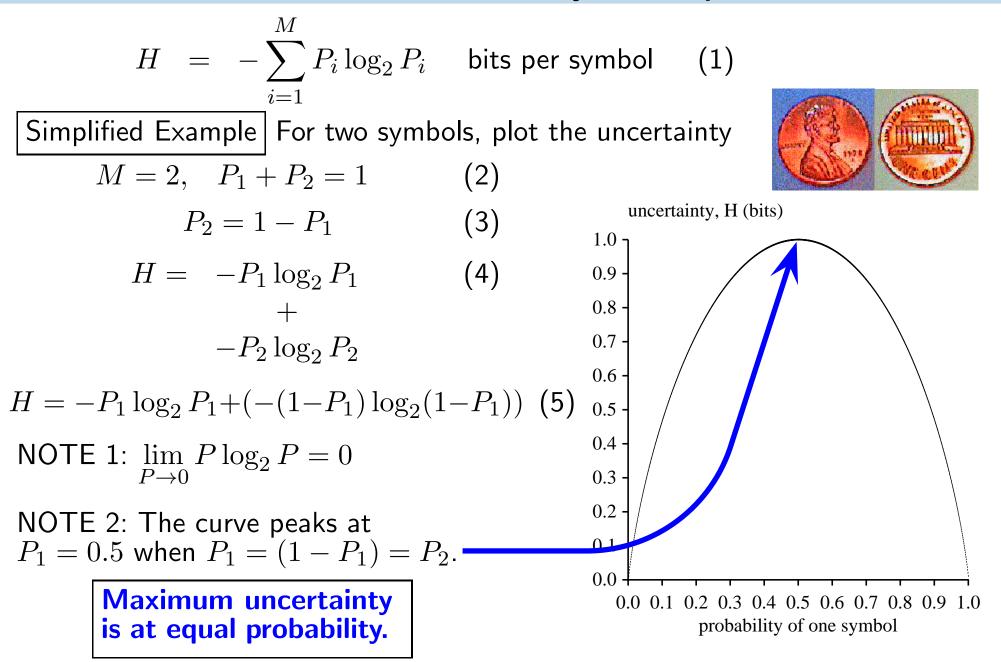
$$0.6$$

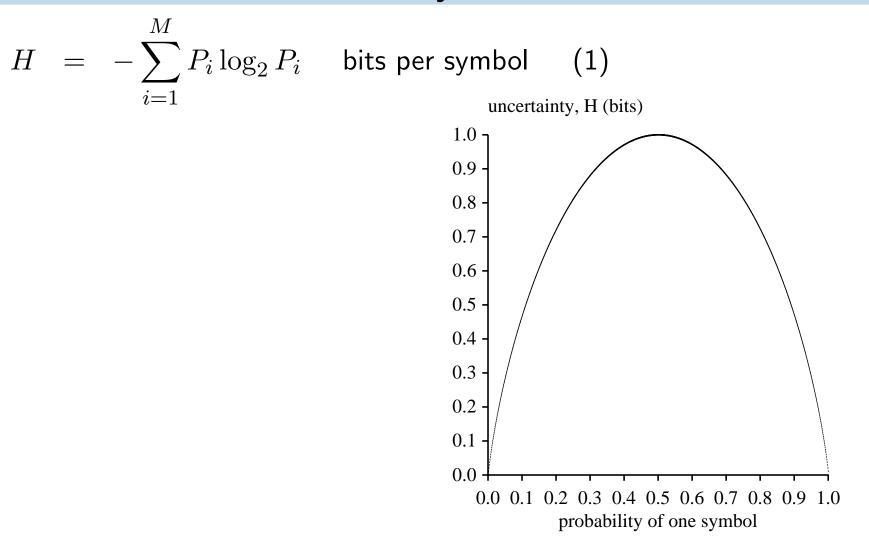
$$0.6$$

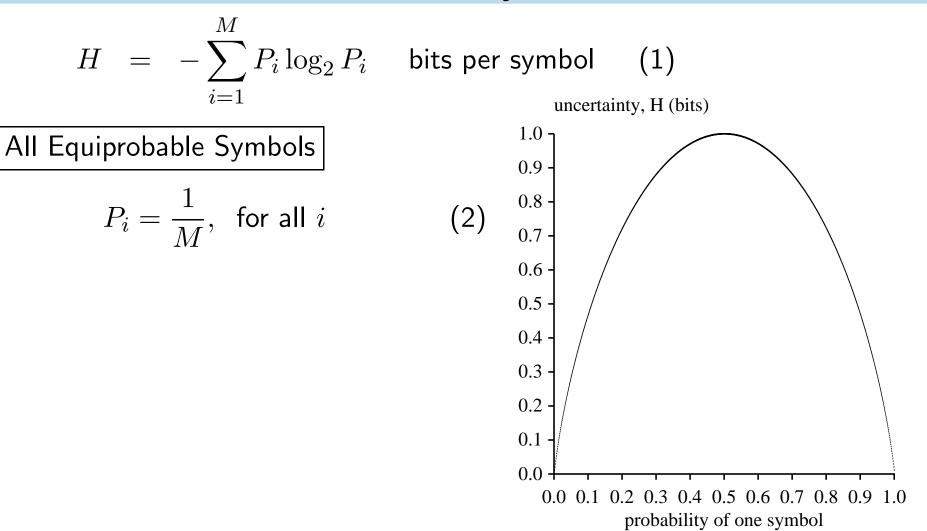
probability of one symbol

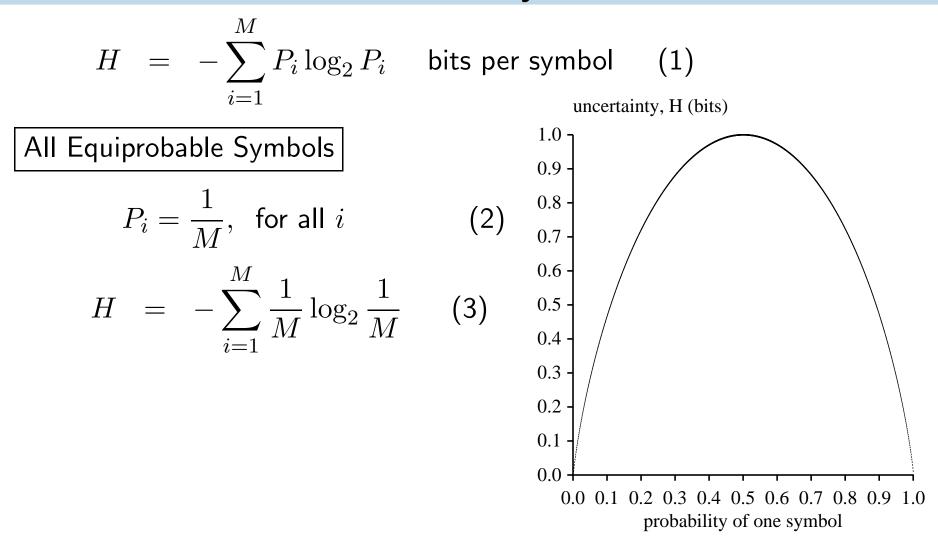


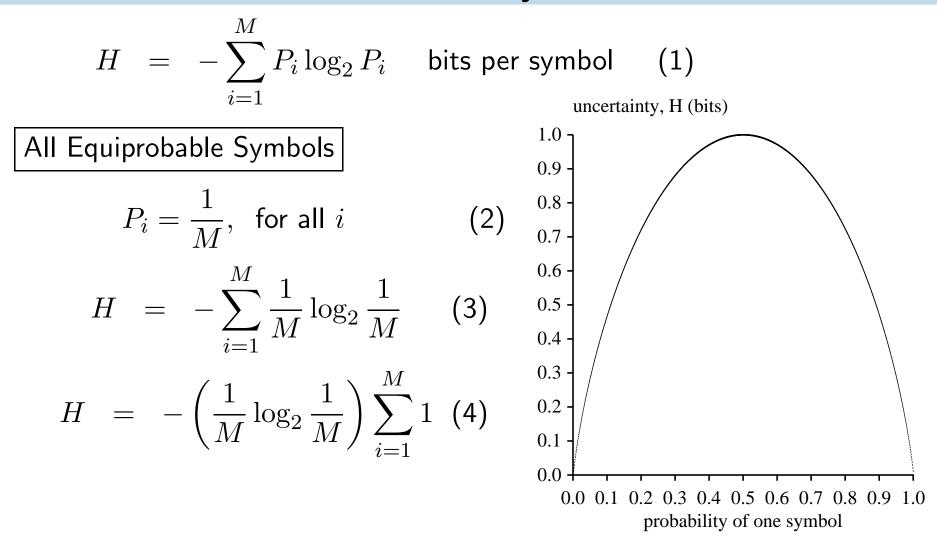


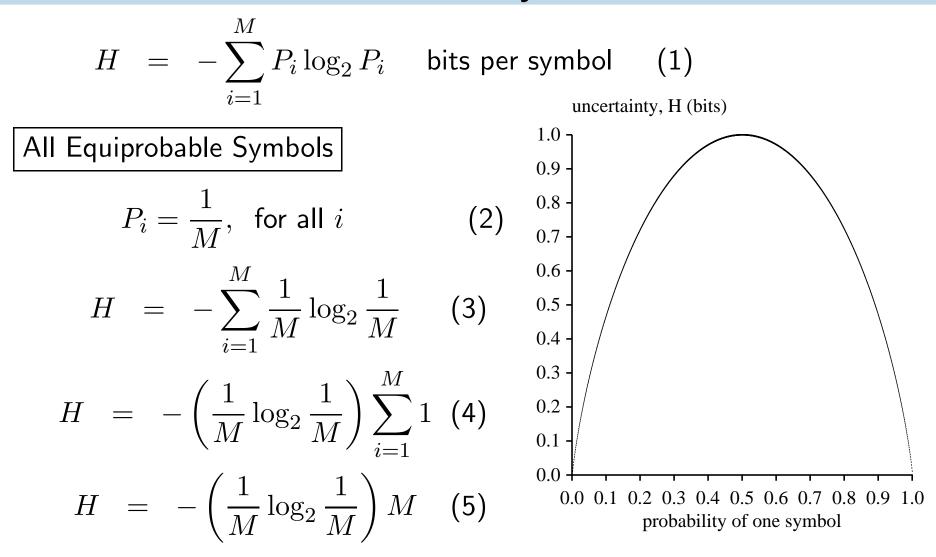


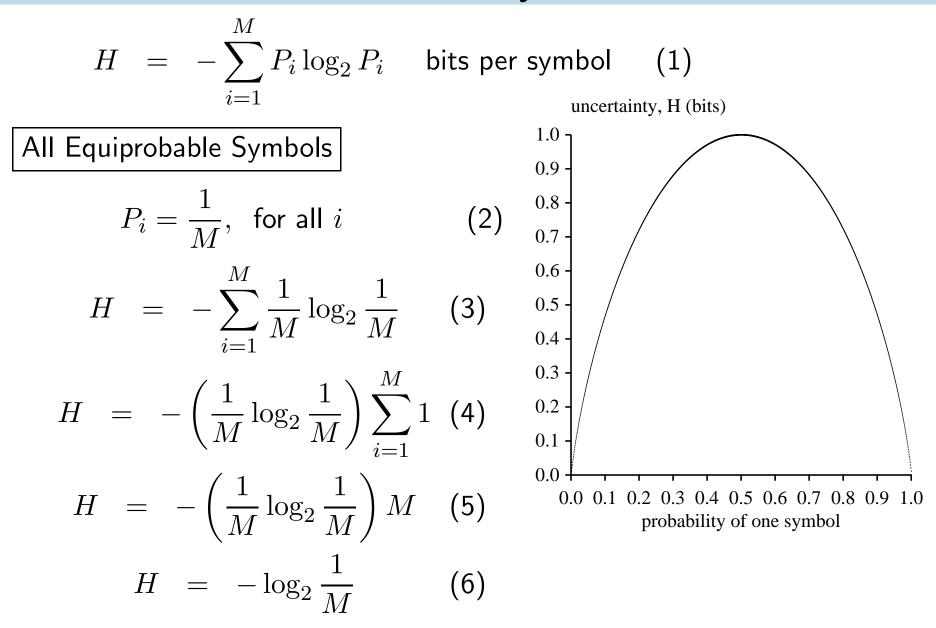


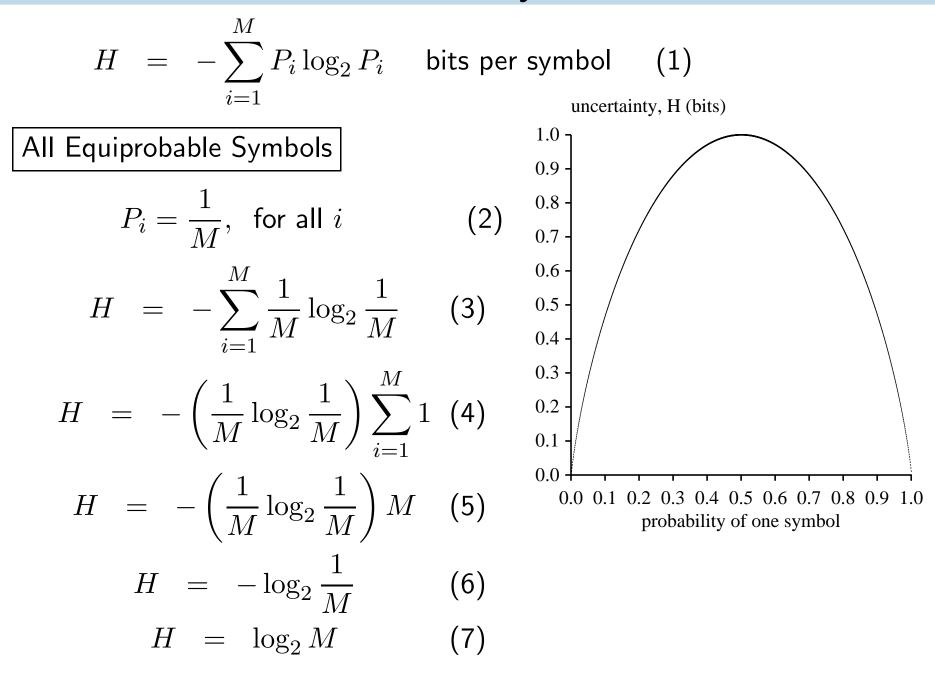


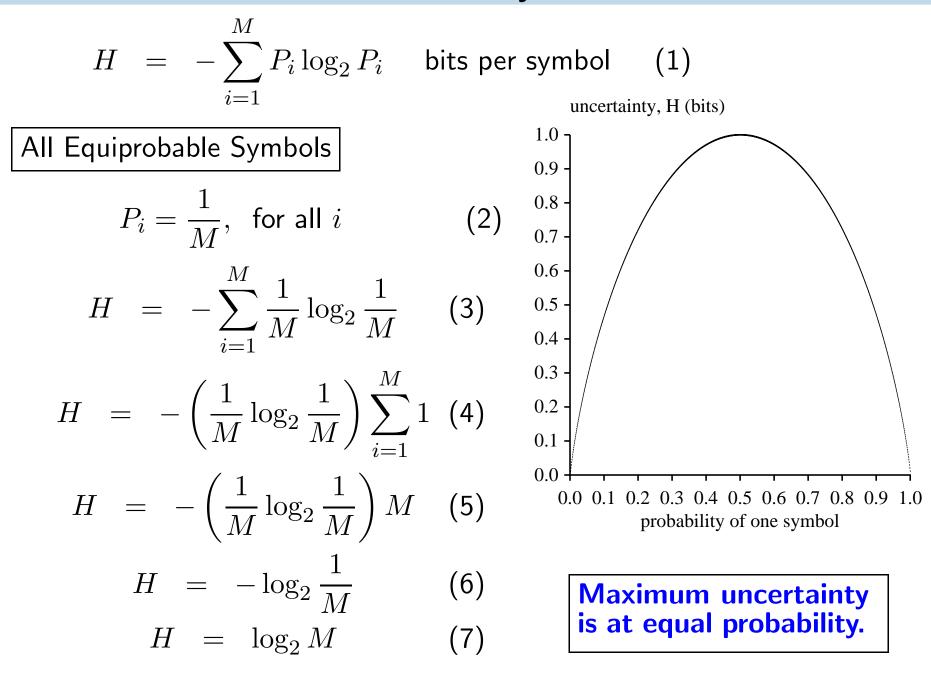












# Information required to find a set of binding sites

G = # of potential binding sites

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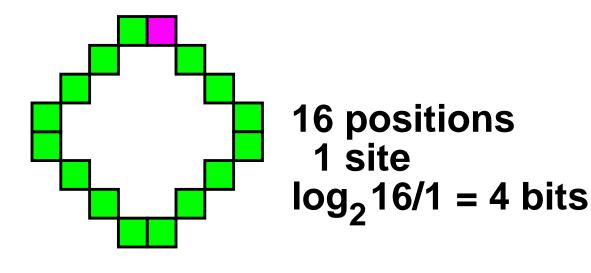
# Information required to find a set of binding sites

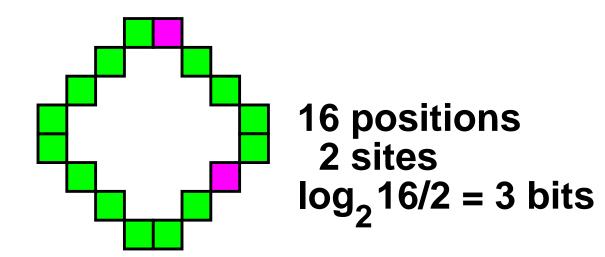
G = # of potential binding sites = genome size in some cases

 $\gamma = \operatorname{number}$  of binding sites on genome

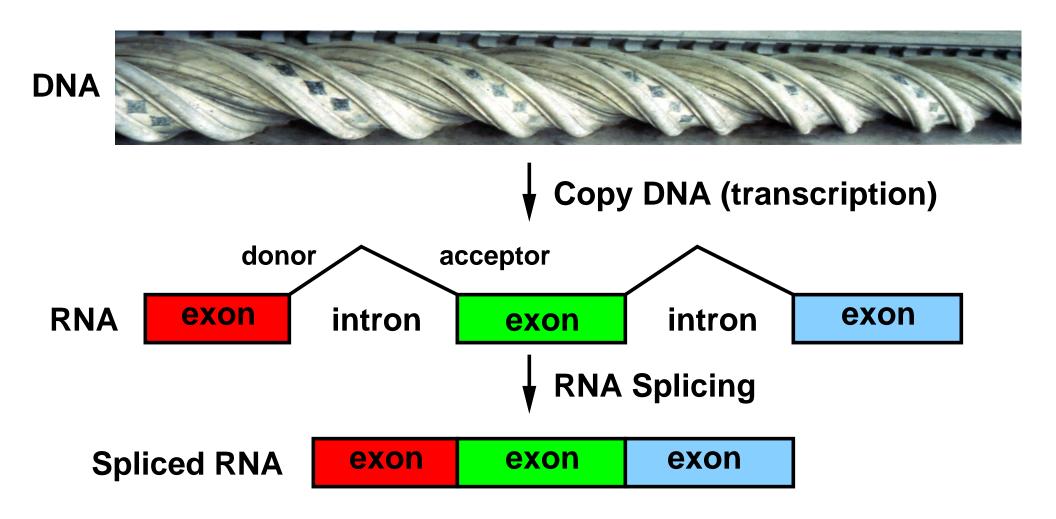
$$R_{frequency} = H_{before} - H_{after}$$
$$= \log_2 G - \log_2 \gamma$$
$$= -\log_2 \gamma/G$$

# Information required to find a set of binding sites in a genome

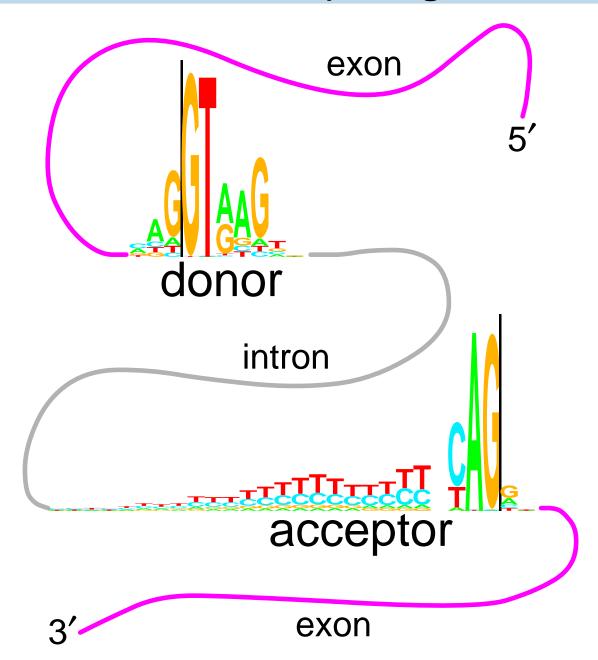




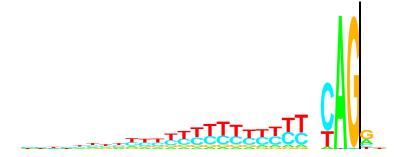
# **RNA Splicing**



## Donor and acceptor logos



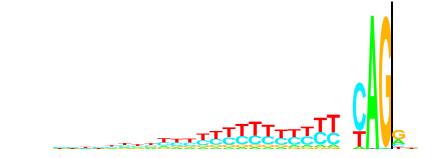
#### **Rsequence and Rfrequency for Splice Acceptors**



- Information at binding site sequences (area under sequence logo)
- from: binding site sequences
- 9.4 bits per site

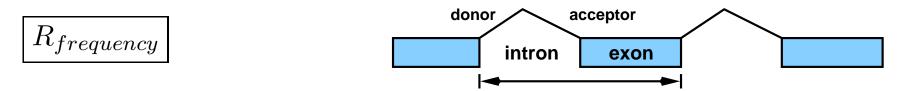
 $R_{sequence}$ 

#### **Rsequence and Rfrequency for Splice Acceptors**



- Information at binding site sequences (area under sequence logo)
- from: binding site sequences
- 9.4 bits per site

 $R_{sequence}$ 



- Information needed to locate the sites
- from: size of genome and number of sites (length of intron+exon)
- 9.7 bits per site

$$R_{frequency}/R_{sequence} = 0.97$$

**R**sequence = **R**frequency **H**ypothesis

# Hypothesis:

The information in binding site patterns is just sufficient for the sites to be found in the genome

## **Rsequence versus Rfrequency**

Binding Site Recognizer <sup>1</sup>	Total Pattern Information $= \mathbf{R}_{sequence}$ (bits)	Information needed to Locate Site in Genome $= \mathbf{R_{frequency}}$ (bits)	$\frac{\text{Pattern Info}}{\text{Location Info}}$ $= \frac{\text{R}_{\text{sequence}}}{\text{R}_{\text{frequency}}}$
Spliceosome acceptor <sup>2</sup> Spliceosome donor	$\begin{array}{c} {\bf 9.35 \pm 0.12} \\ {\bf 7.92 \pm 0.09} \end{array}$	9.66 9.66	$\begin{array}{c} {\bf 0.97 \pm 0.01} \\ {\bf 0.82 \pm 0.01} \end{array}$
Ribosome $\lambda$ cl/cro LexA TrpR Lacl ArgR O ( $\lambda$ Origin) Ara C Transcription at TATA <sup>3</sup>	$\begin{array}{c} 11.0\\ 17.7\pm1.6\\ 21.5\pm1.7\\ 23.4\pm1.9\\ 19.2\pm2.8\\ 16.4\\ 20.9\\ 19.3\\ 3.3 \end{array}$	$egin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	$\begin{array}{c} 1.0\\ 0.9\pm 0.1\\ 1.2\pm 0.1\\ 1.2\pm 0.1\\ 0.9\pm 0.1\\ 0.9\\ 1.0\\ 1.0\\ \sim 1\end{array}$
T7 Promoter	35.4	16.5	2.1

<sup>1</sup>T. D. Schneider, G. D. Stormo, L. Gold, and A. Ehrenfeucht. J. Mol. Biol., 188:415-431, 1986. <sup>2</sup>R. M. Stephens and T. D. Schneider. J. Mol. Biol., 228:1124-1136, 1992.

<sup>3</sup>F. E. Penotti. J Mol Biol, 213:37-52, 1990.

 $R_{sequence}$  versus  $R_{frequency}$  - meaning

The information in the binding site pattern  $(R_{sequence})$ is close to The information needed to find the binding sites  $(R_{frequency})$   $R_{sequence}$  versus  $R_{frequency}$  - meaning

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But for a species in a stable environment:

- size of genome (G) is fixed (e. g. E. coli has  $4.7 \times 10^6$  bp)
- number of binding sites ( $\gamma$ ) is fixed (*e. g.* there are  $\sim$ 50 *E. coli* LexA sites)

so  $R_{frequency} = \log_2 G/\gamma$  is fixed

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# Rsequence must evolve towards Rfrequency!

•  $R_{frequency}$  is fixed relative to  $R_{sequence}$ 

R<sub>frequency</sub> is fixed relative to R<sub>sequence</sub>
Does R<sub>sequence</sub> evolve toward R<sub>frequency</sub>?

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Setup a Computer Model, 'Ev': A population of "creatures" with

• genomes containing 4 bases (A, C, G, T)

- $R_{frequency}$  is fixed relative to  $R_{sequence}$
- Does  $R_{sequence}$  evolve toward  $R_{frequency}$ ?

- genomes containing 4 bases (A, C, G, T)
- a defined genome size (G)

- $R_{frequency}$  is fixed relative to  $R_{sequence}$
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- genomes containing 4 bases (A, C, G, T)
- a defined genome size (G)predetermined binding site locations  $(\gamma)$   $\begin{cases} R_{frequency} \\ \text{is fixed} \end{cases}$ (to fix the frequency of sites)

- $R_{frequency}$  is fixed relative to  $R_{sequence}$
- Does  $R_{sequence}$  evolve toward  $R_{frequency}$ ?

Setup a Computer Model, 'Ev': A population of "creatures" with

- genomes containing 4 bases (A, C, G, T)
- a defined genome size (G)
- a defined genome size (G)predetermined binding site locations  $(\gamma)$ (to fix the frequency of sites)

,  $R_{frequency}$  is fixed

 a recognizer gene encoded in the sequence: use a weight matrix

### How A Weight Matrix Works

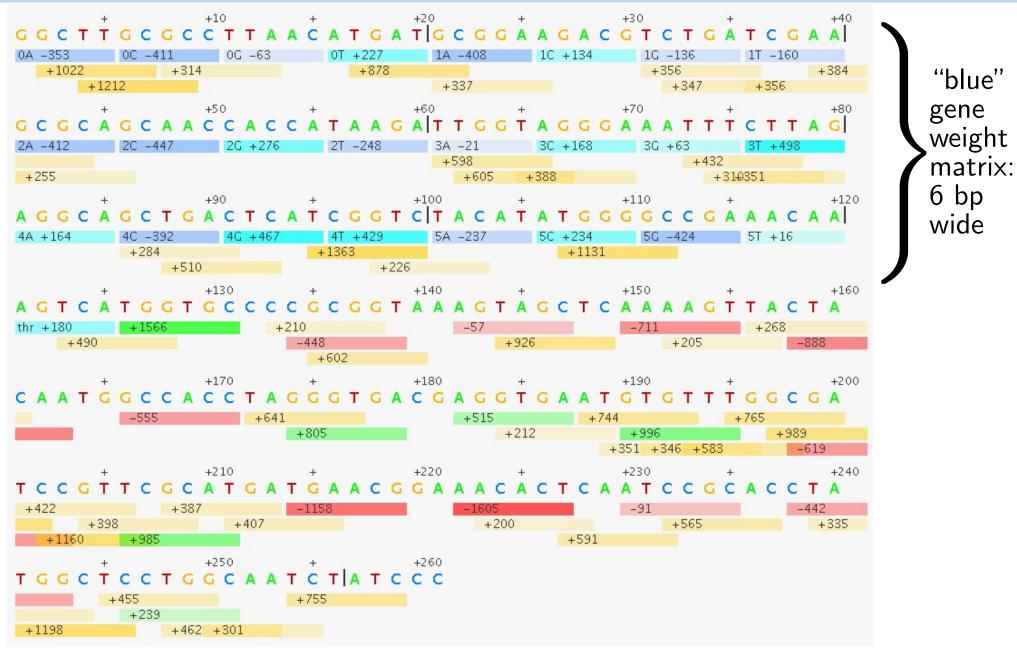
Sequence matrix, s(b,l,j) for sequence j

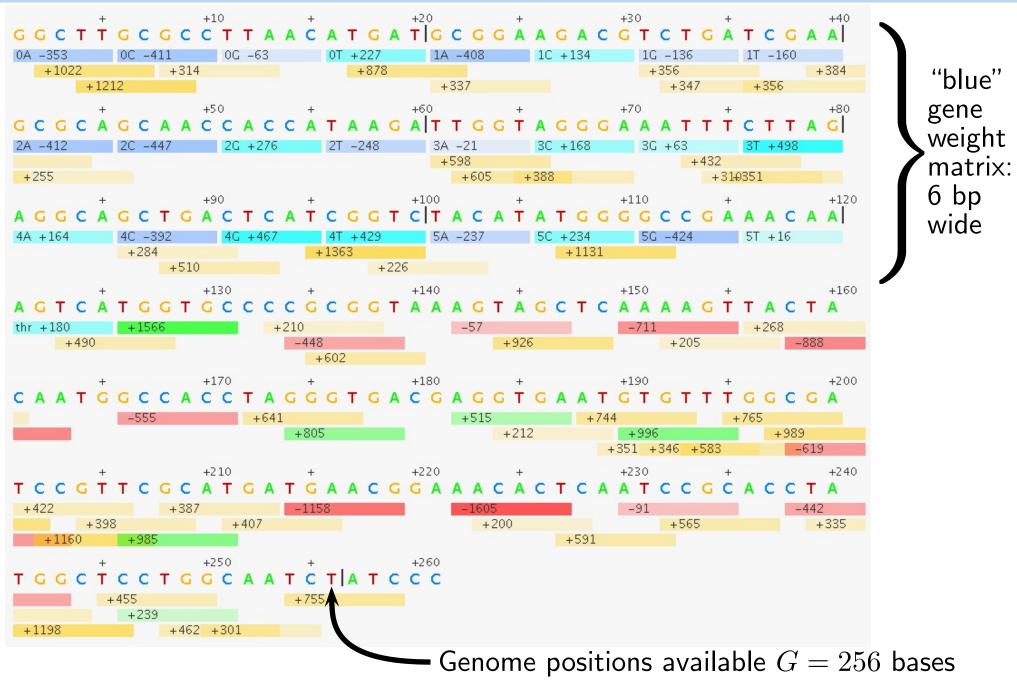
base b	position 1									
	С	Α	G	G	Т	С	Т	G	С	Α
	-3	-2	-1	0	1	<b>2</b>	3	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>	6
Α	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
C	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0
G	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	0
Т	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0

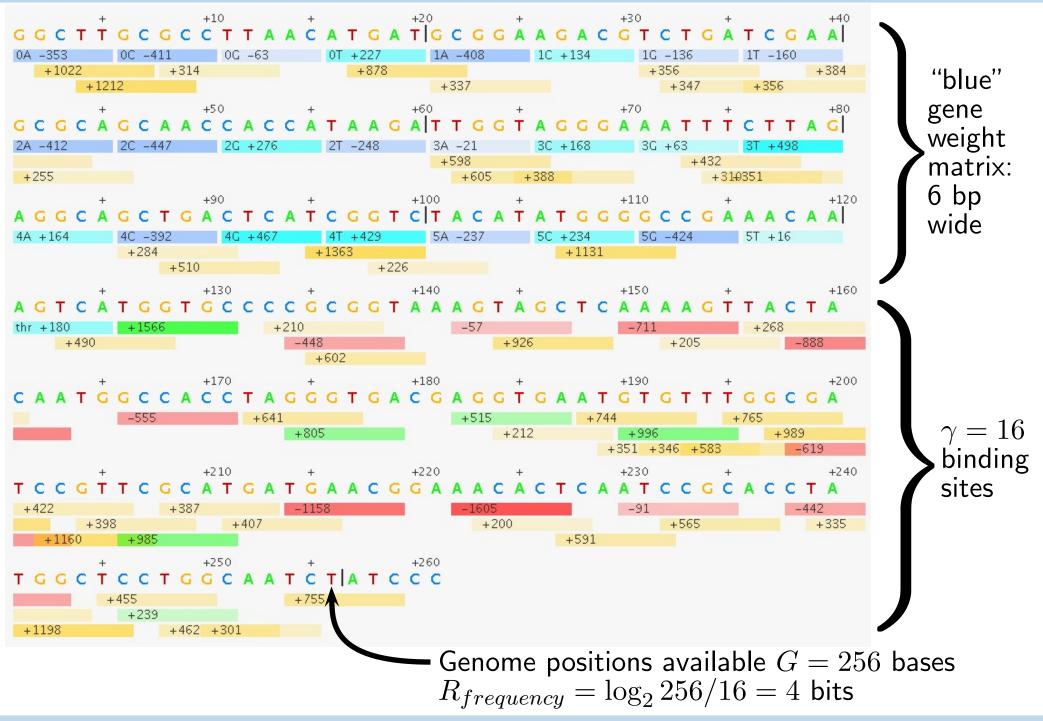
#### Individual information weight matrix, $R_{iw}(b, l)$

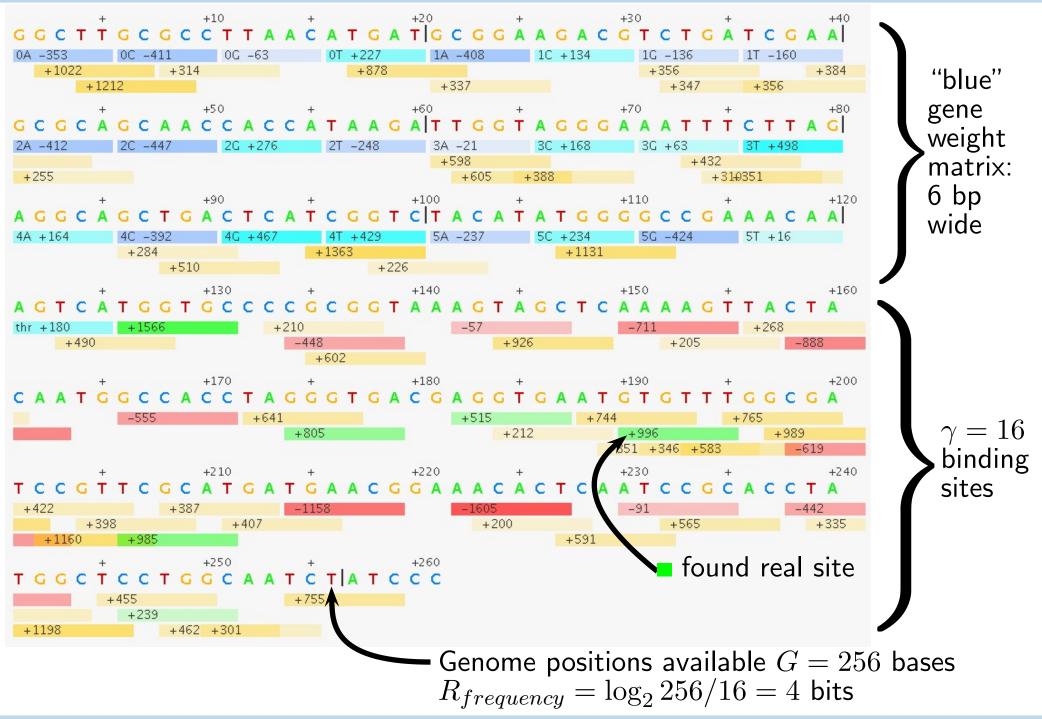
base b	position 1										
	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	
А	+0.4	+1.3	-1.4	-8.8	-5.8	+1.1	+1.5	-1.8	-0.7	+0.0	
C	+0.6	-0.8	-2.4	-7.8	-5.5	-3.7	-1.6	-2.2	-0.5	-0.2	
G	-0.6	-1.0	+1.6	+2.0	-6.2	+0.7	-1.1	+1.7	-0.3	+0.4	
Т	-1.0	-0.9	-1.7	-5.8	+2.0	-3.4	-1.6	-2.2	+0.9	-0.5	

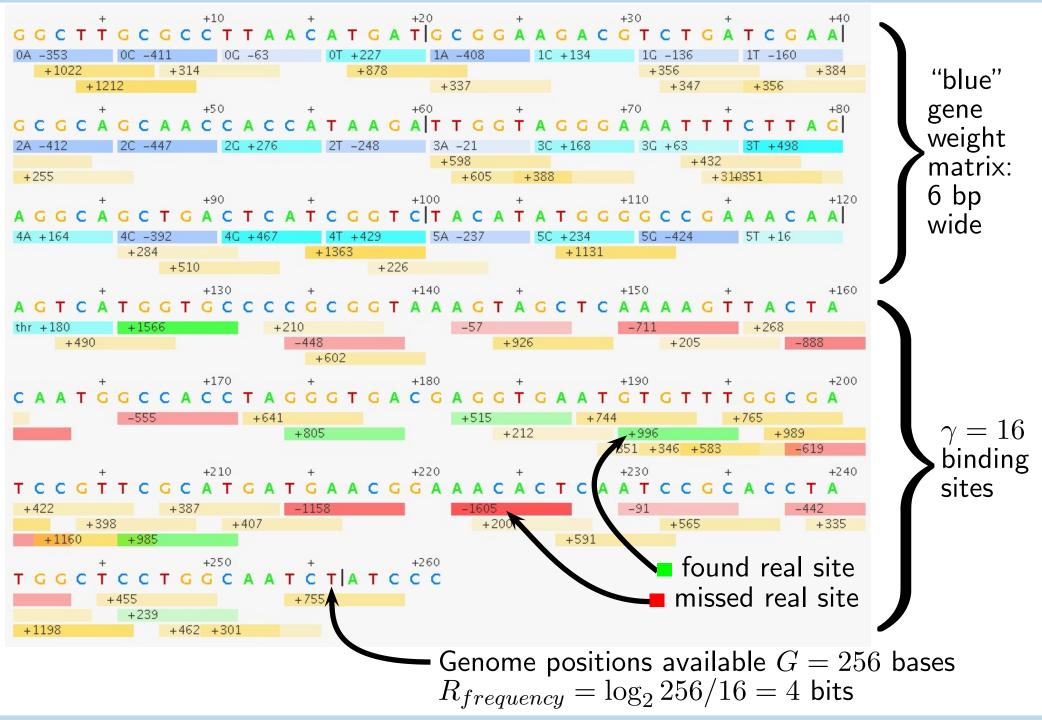


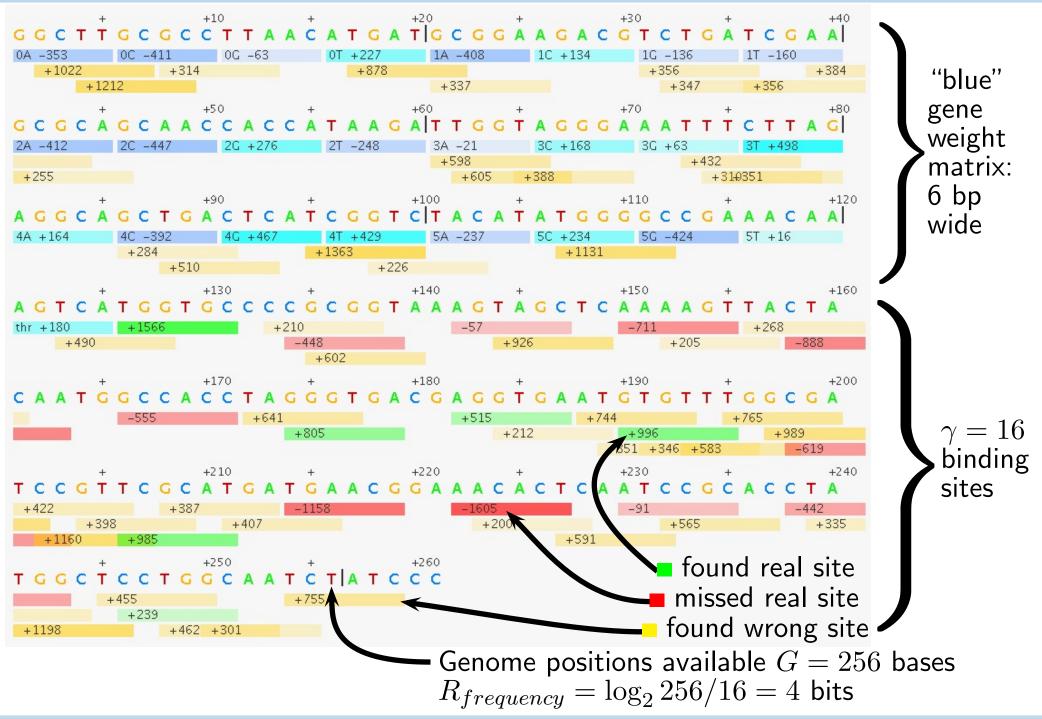




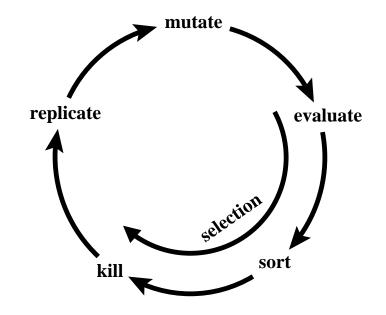




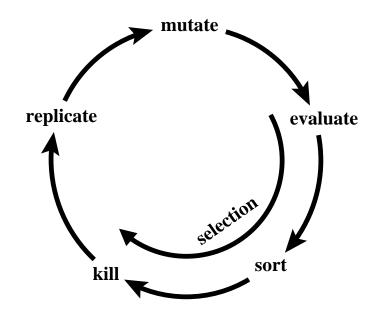




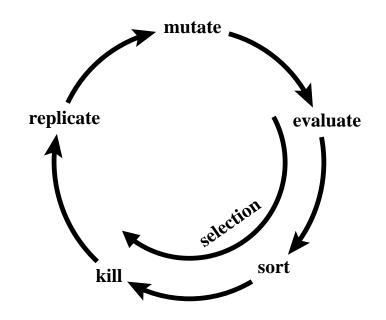
• EVALUATE each creature



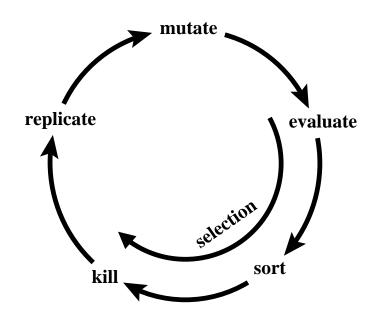
- EVALUATE each creature
  - translate the recognizer gene into a weight matrix



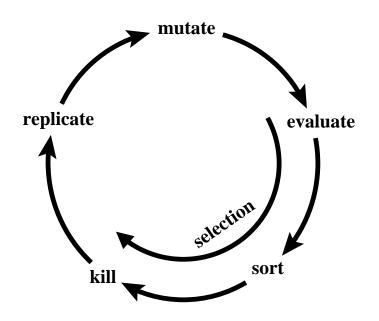
- EVALUATE each creature
  - translate the recognizer gene into a weight matrix
  - scan the weight matrix across the genome



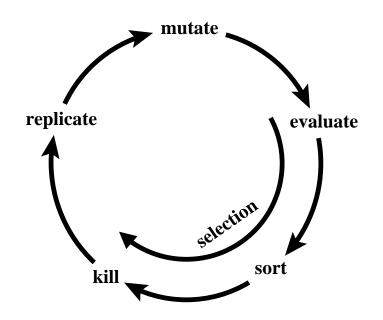
- EVALUATE each creature
  - translate the recognizer gene into a weight matrix
  - scan the weight matrix across the genome
  - count the number of mistakes:



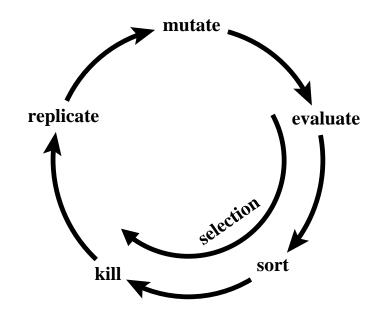
- EVALUATE each creature
  - translate the recognizer gene into a weight matrix
  - scan the weight matrix across the genome
  - count the number of mistakes:
     missing a site at a right place



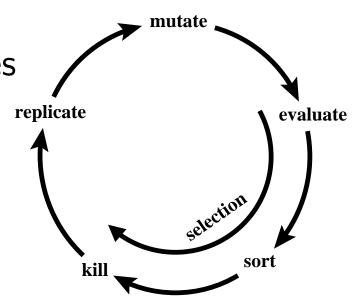
- EVALUATE each creature
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  - scan the weight matrix across the genome
  - count the number of mistakes:
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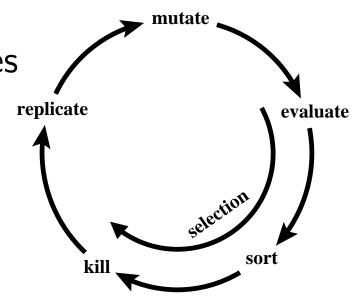
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     finding a site at a wrong place
  - Sort the creatures by their mistakes



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  - scan the weight matrix across the genome
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     finding a site at a wrong place
  - Sort the creatures by their mistakes
- REPLICATE: the best creatures are duplicated and replace the worst ones

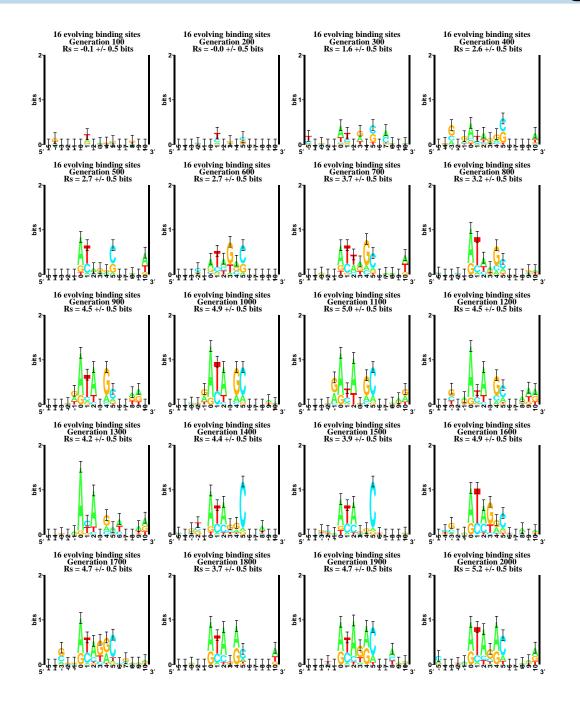


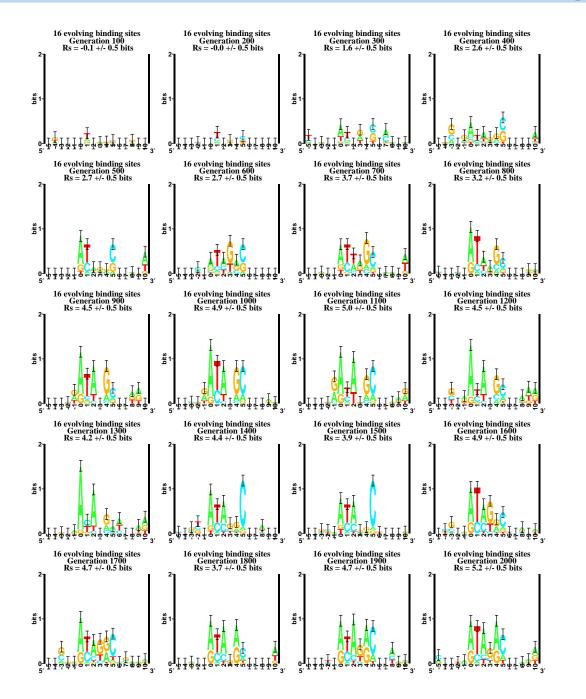
- EVALUATE each creature
  - translate the recognizer gene into a weight matrix
  - scan the weight matrix across the genome
  - count the number of mistakes:
     missing a site at a right place
     finding a site at a wrong place
  - Sort the creatures by their mistakes
- REPLICATE: the best creatures are duplicated and replace the worst ones
- MUTATE all genomes randomly

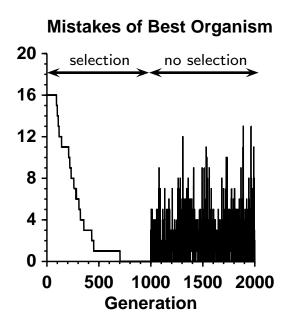


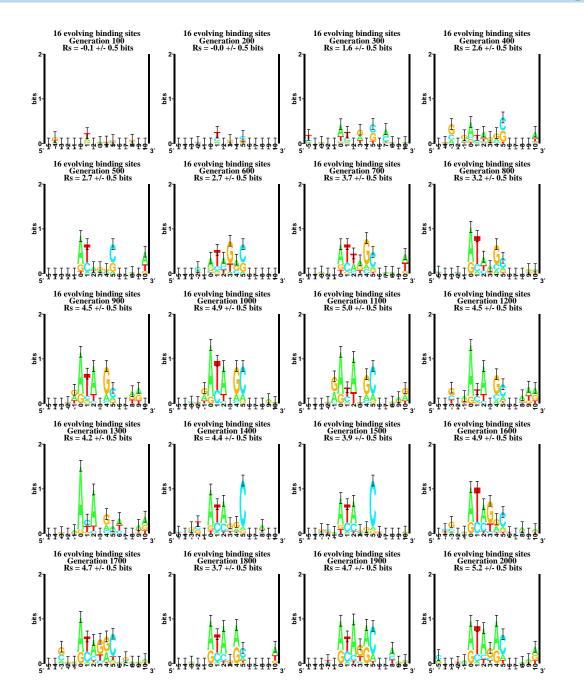
#### **Evolved Ev Creature**

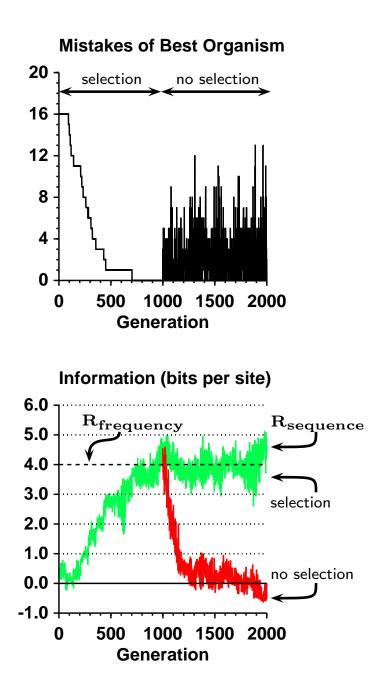




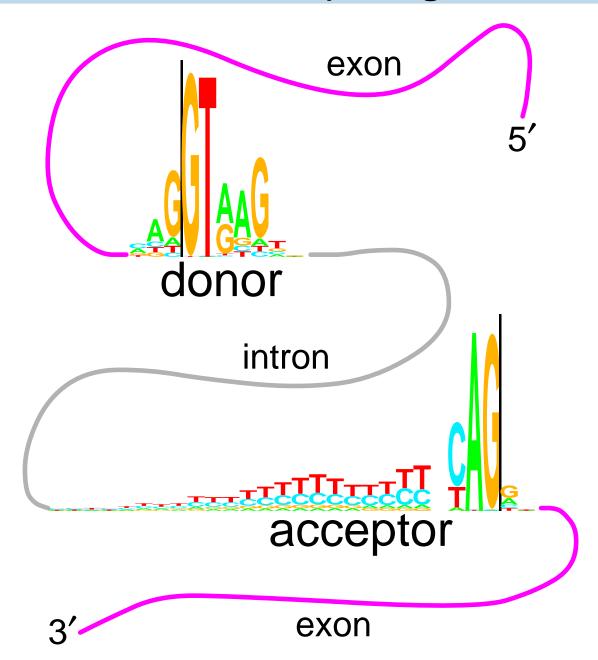


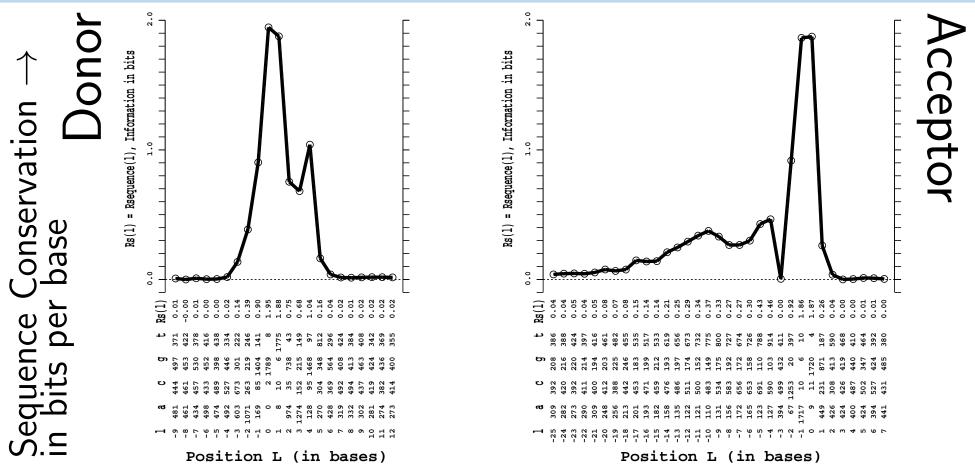




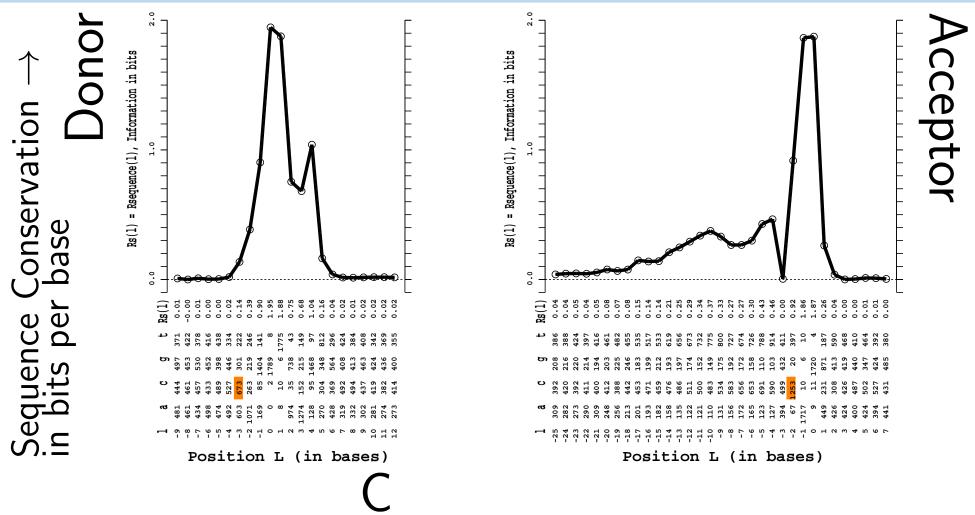


### **Donor and acceptor logos**

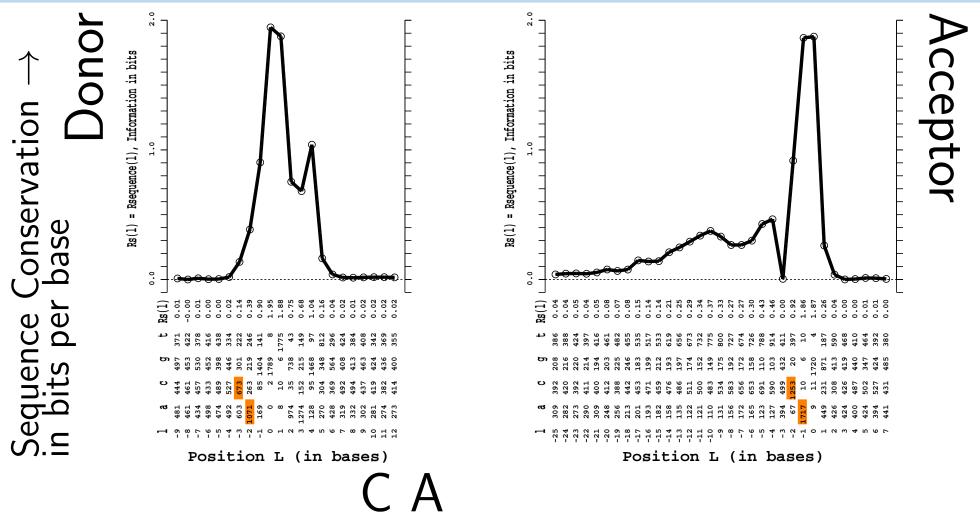




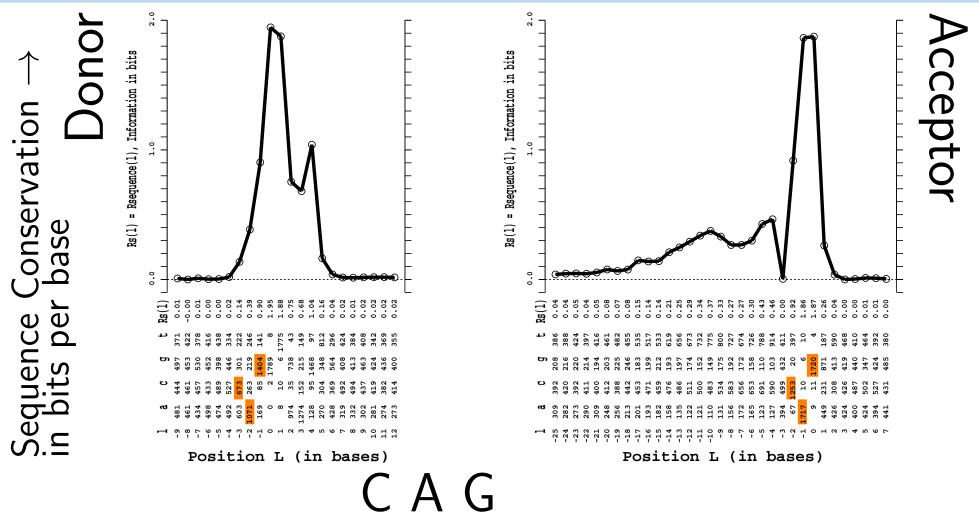
• The consensus sequences match ...



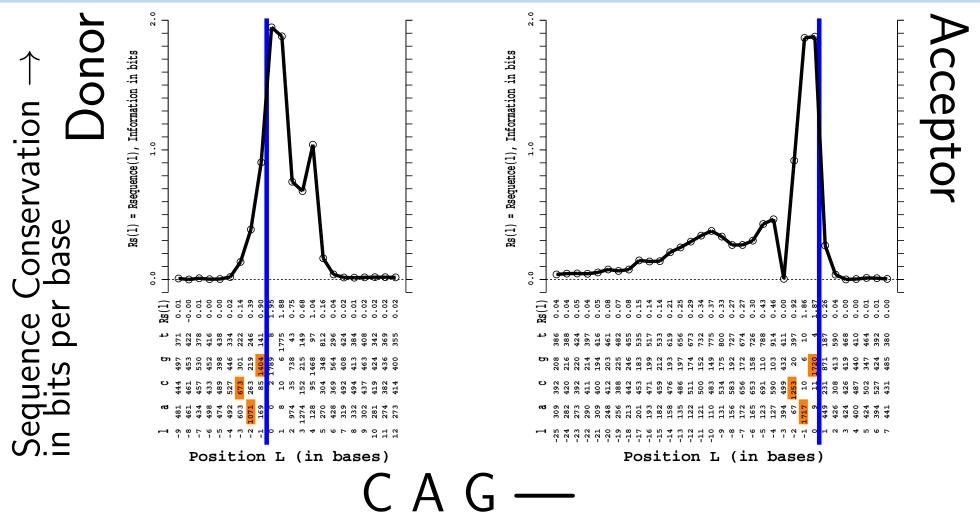
• The consensus sequences match ...



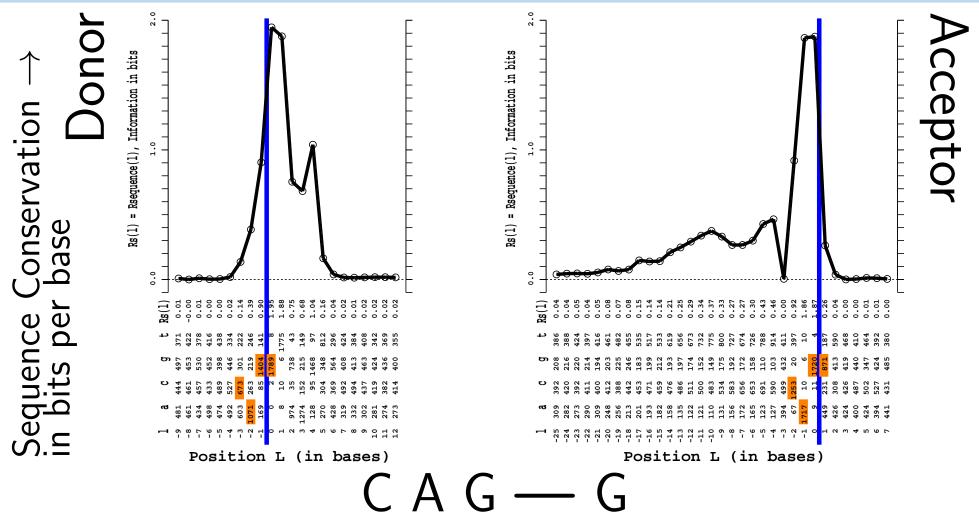
• The consensus sequences match ...



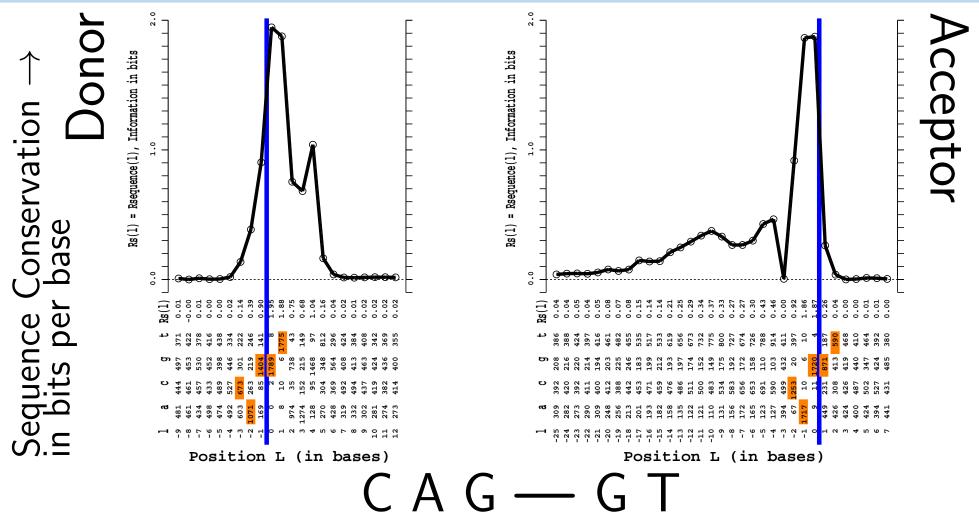
• The consensus sequences match ....



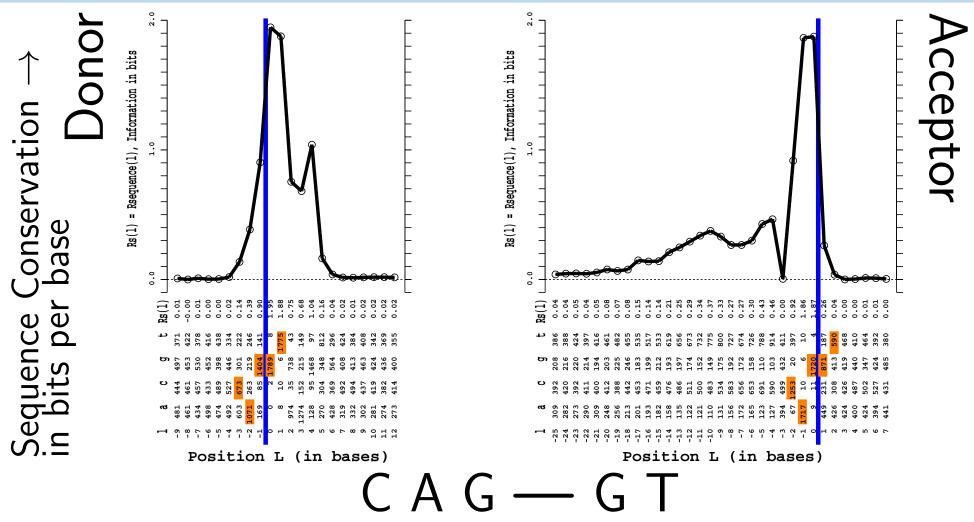
• The consensus sequences match ...



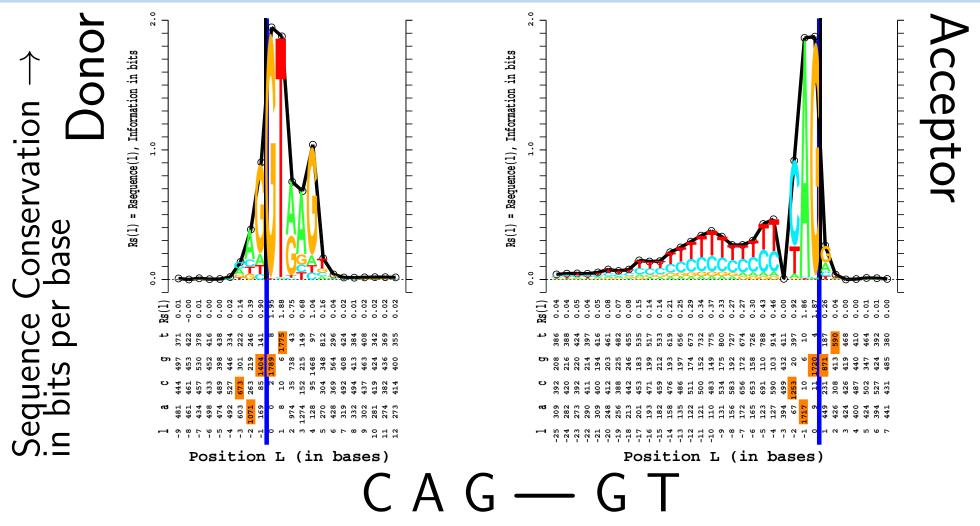
• The consensus sequences match ...



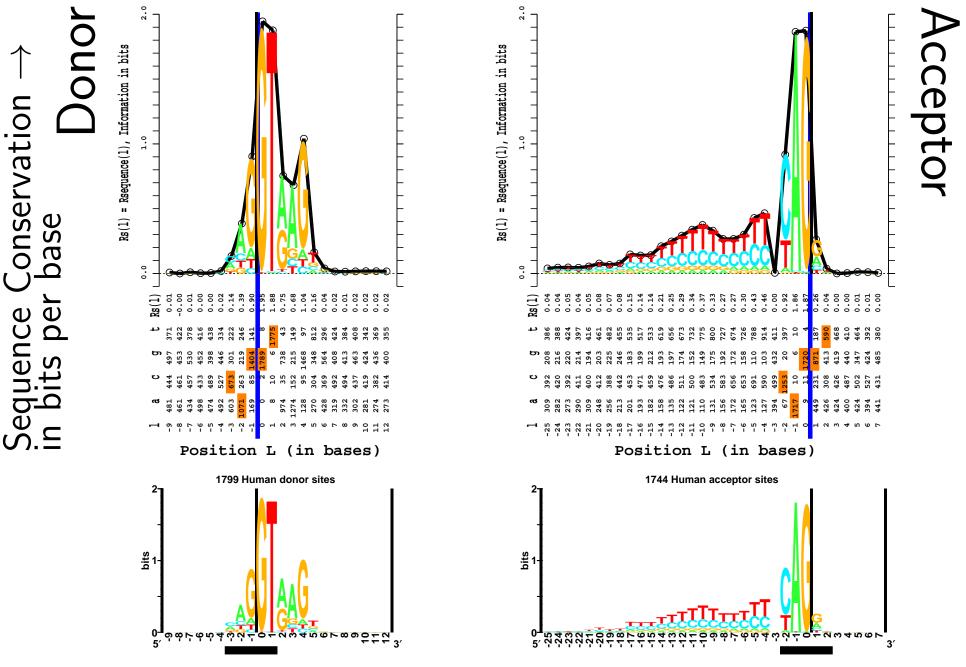
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- The consensus sequences match ...
- BUT the information curves (sequence conservation) differ!

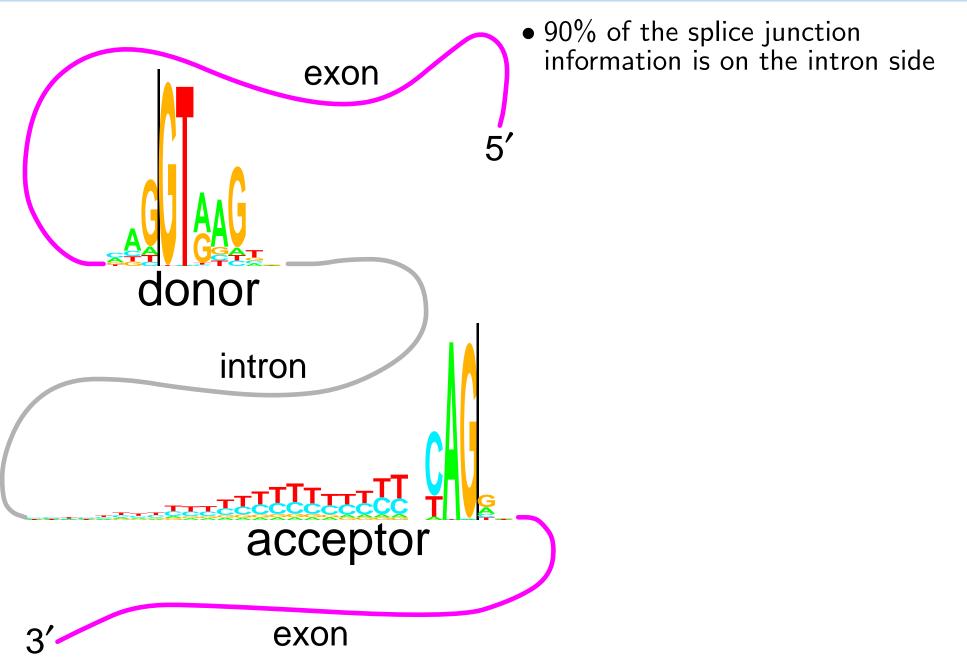


- The consensus sequences match ...
- BUT the information curves (sequence conservation) differ!
- Put letters into the graph proportional to their frequency!

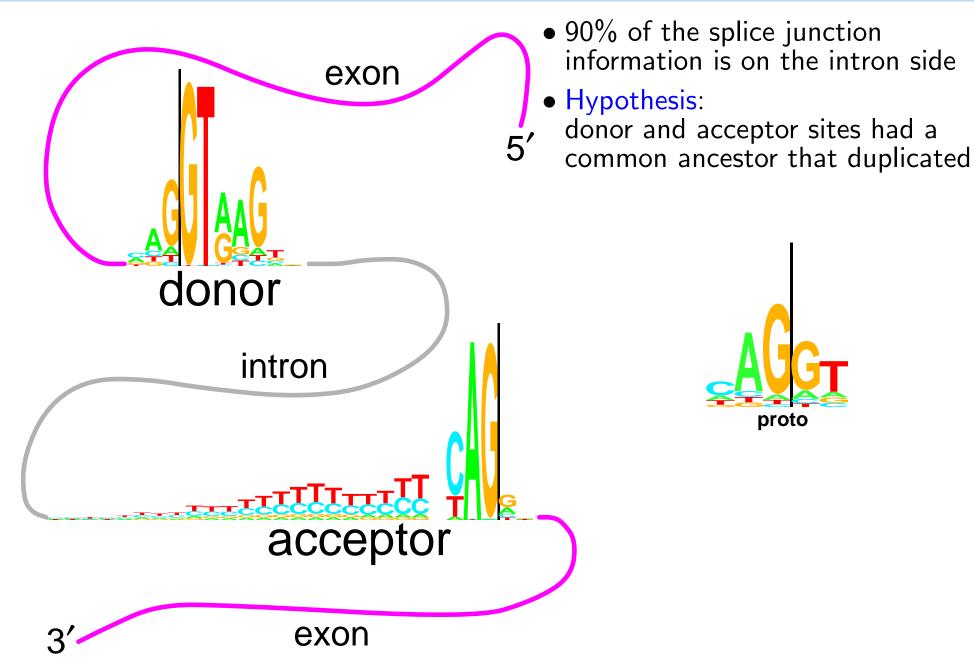


• That's how and why we invented sequence logos!

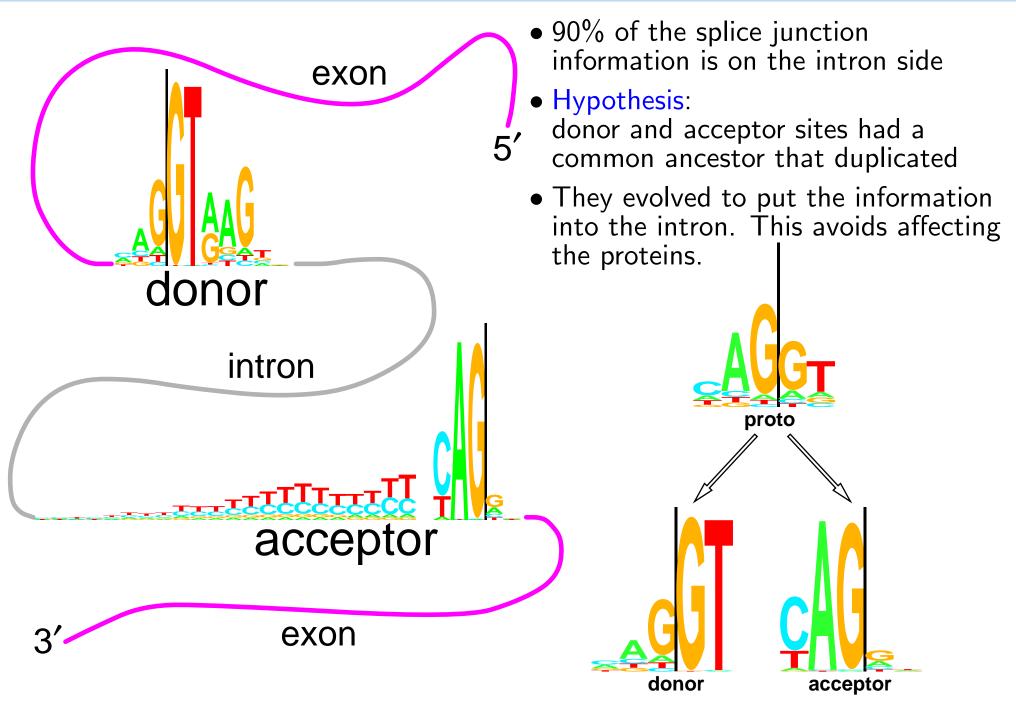
### **Splice Junction Sequence Logos**



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### **Splice Junction Sequence Logos**



• Before binding a recognizer is anywhere on the nucleic acid

- Before binding a recognizer is anywhere on the nucleic acid
- After binding a recognizer is at its binding sites

- Before binding a recognizer is anywhere on the nucleic acid
- After binding a recognizer is at its binding sites
- Information R is a decrease of uncertainty:

$$R = -\Delta H = H_{before} - H_{after}$$

- Before binding a recognizer is anywhere on the nucleic acid
- After binding a recognizer is at its binding sites
- Information R is a decrease of uncertainty:

$$R = -\Delta H = H_{before} - H_{after}$$

• This is how both Rsequence and Rfrequency were defined.

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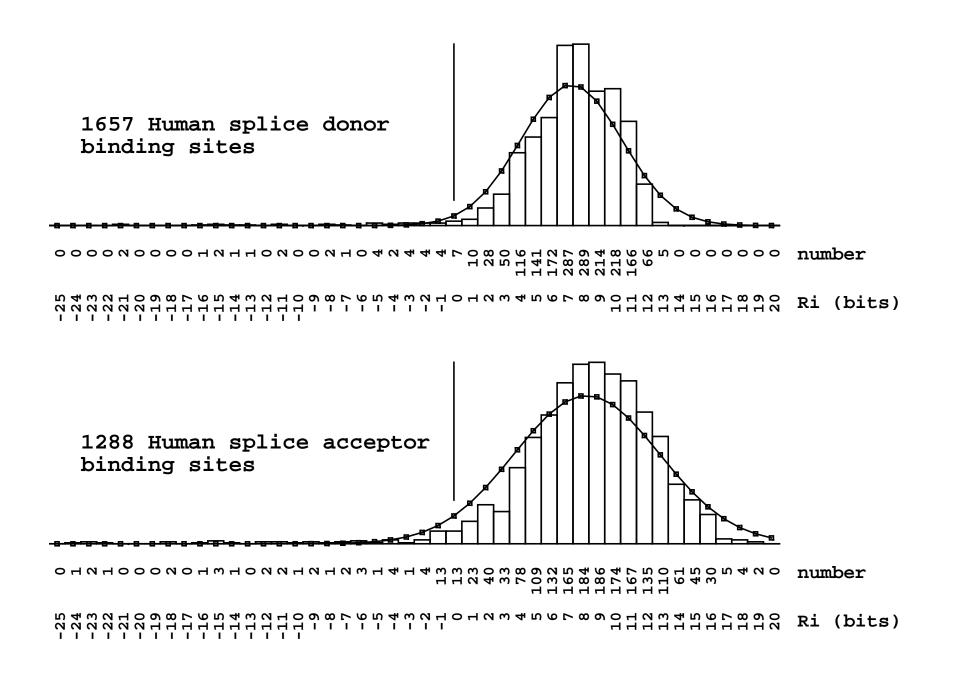
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Proven by John Spouge (NIH, NLM) to be unique

#### **Individual Information Curves**



Relating Uncertainty H to physical entropy S

• Uncertainty with probabilities  $P_i$  and M states:

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• H relates to S when symbols M =microstates  $\Omega$ :

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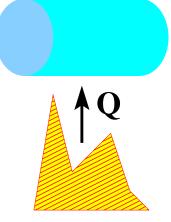
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• Substitute for  $\Delta S$  to  $\Delta H$  and then to R:

$$k_{\scriptscriptstyle \mathsf{B}}T\ln(2) \le \frac{-Q}{R}$$
 (joules per bit)



$$E_{min} \equiv k_{\scriptscriptstyle B} T \ln(2) \le \frac{-Q}{R}$$
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• Minimum energy dissipated to get a bit:

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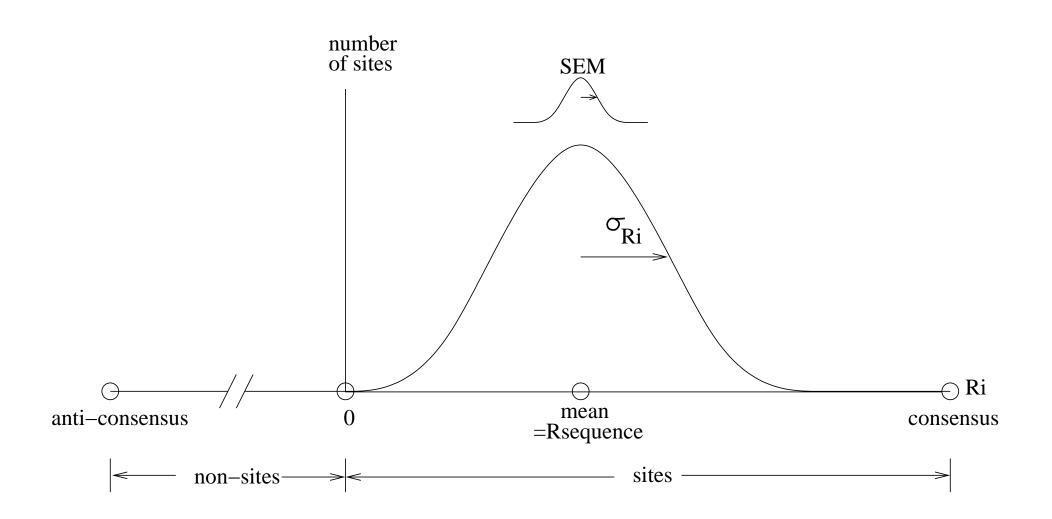
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- Sequences with Ri < 0 are not binding sites.

## **Individual Information Density Curve**



# How A Weight Matrix Works

Sequence matrix, s(b,l,j) for sequence j

base b	position 1									
	С	Α	G	G	Т	С	Т	G	С	Α
	-3	-2	-1	0	1	<b>2</b>	3	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>	6
Α	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
C	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0
G	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	0
Т	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0

#### Individual information weight matrix, $R_{iw}(b, l)$

base b	position 1										
	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	
А	+0.4	+1.3	-1.4	-8.8	-5.8	+1.1	+1.5	-1.8	-0.7	+0.0	
C	+0.6	-0.8	-2.4	-7.8	-5.5	-3.7	-1.6	-2.2	-0.5	-0.2	
G	-0.6	-1.0	+1.6	+2.0	-6.2	+0.7	-1.1	+1.7	-0.3	+0.4	
Т	-1.0	-0.9	-1.7	-5.8	+2.0	-3.4	-1.6	-2.2	+0.9	-0.5	

### How A Weight Matrix Works

Sequence matrix, s(b, l, j) for sequence j

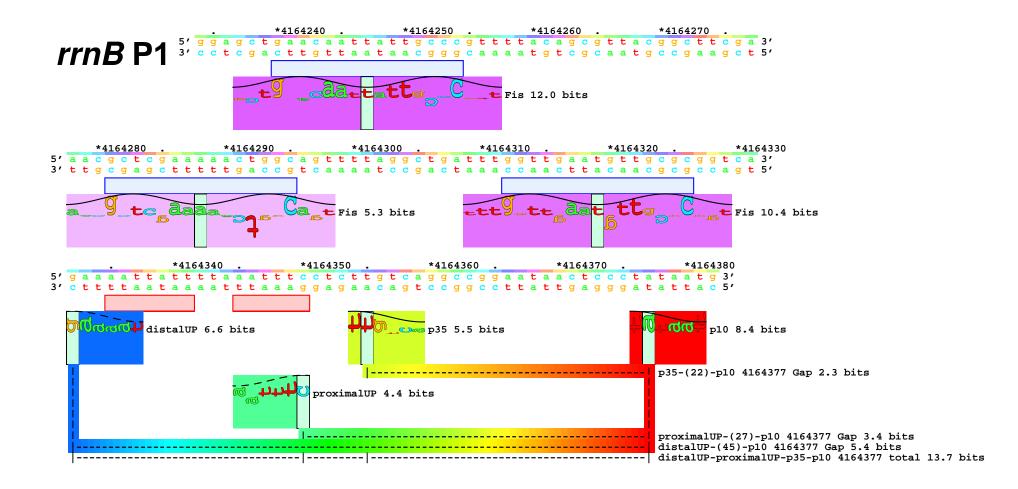
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	С	Α	G	G	Т	С	Т	G	С	Α
	-3	-2	-1	0	1	<b>2</b>	3	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>	6
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5' c a g g t c t g c a 3' Sequence Walker

#### Sequence Walker example: rrnB P1

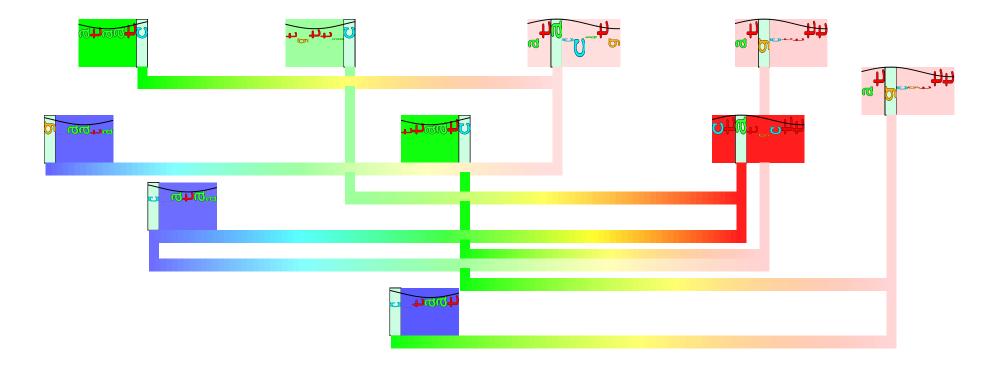


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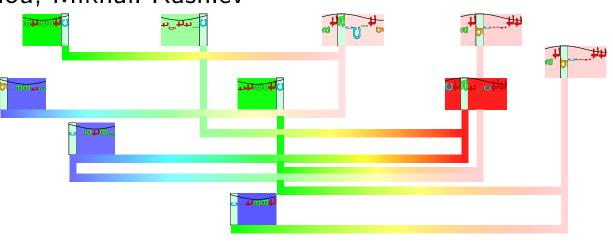
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- $\sigma^{38}$  promoter *talA* P1 is complex!

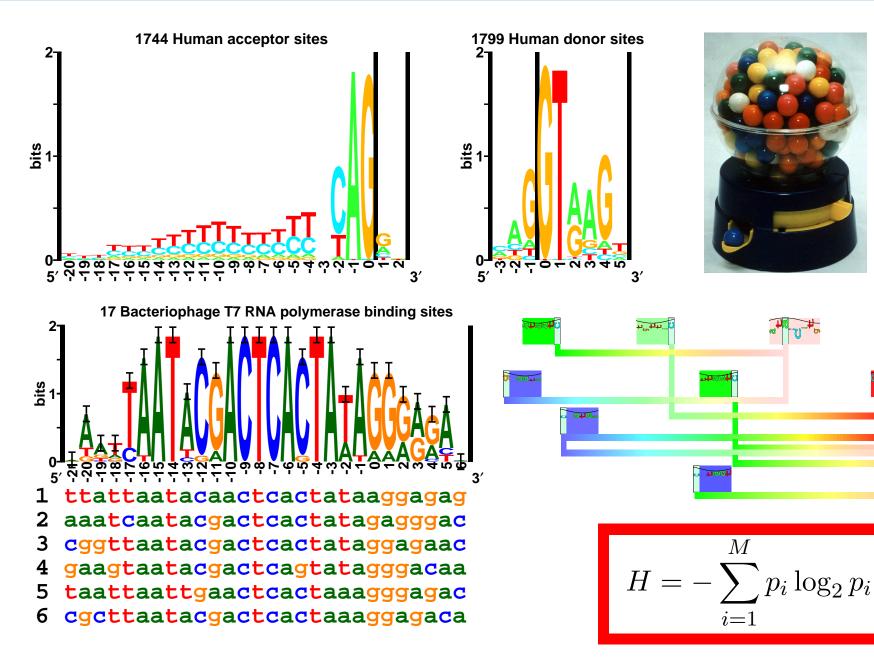


# Acknowledgements

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  - Ryan Shultzaberger (flexible walkers)
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# Biological Information theory: the mathematics of biology



# Version

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