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CREx: Inferring Genomic Rearrangements Based on Common Intervals

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ABSTRACT

Summary: We present the web-based program CREx for heuristically determining pairwise rearrangement events in unichromosomal genomes. CREx considers transpositions, reverse transpositions, reversals, and tandem-duplication-random-loss (TDRL) events. It supports the user in finding parsimonious rearrangement scenarios given a phylogenetic hypothesis. CREx is based on common intervals, which reflect genes that appear consecutively in several of the input gene orders.

Availability: CREx is freely available at http://pacosy.informatik.uni-leipzig.de/crex

1 INTRODUCTION

Genomic rearrangement operations present a powerful approach to determining the phylogenetic relationship of species. In this context, unichromosomal genomes are usually encoded as signed permutations, in which each element represents a gene and the sign determines the orientation of the gene. Inversions (mostly referred to as "reversals" in the bioinformatics literature) are by far the best-studied gene order rearrangement operations. Given a set of gene orders, software packages such as GRAPPA [Moret et al., 2005] and amGRP [Bernt et al., 2007a] try to find i) a topology of a binary tree with the gene orders as leaf nodes and ii) gene orders for the inner nodes of that tree, such that the overall reversal distance of all edges is minimal.

Phylogenetic reconstruction methods based on more general sets of rearrangement operations are rare, presumably because for some of the operations of interest the problem of computing an exact distance is unsolved or computationally hard. On the other hand, there is ample evidence in the biological literature that - particularly in mitochondrial genomes - rearrangements are the consequence of multiple mechanisms [Boore, 1999]. Biological findings thus strongly influenced methods for phylogenetic reconstruction methods; it is well known, for instance, that gene groups are often preserved during evolution. Algorithmically, this property is reflected by so-called common intervals, while so-called strong common interval trees, which are close relatives of PQ-trees [Booth and Lueker, 1976], are a datastructure this is particularly well-suited for inferring rearrangement scenarios [Bérard et al., 2007]. Algorithms for gene order rearrangements that preserve common intervals are also discussed by Bernt et al. [2007b], strong common intervals, on the other hand, were already used to reconstruct rearrangement scenarios with the focus on reversals and transpositions [Parida, 2006]. CREx is based on these approaches and extends them to a larger set of operations.

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2 METHODS

Formally, a common interval is a subset of genes that appear consecutively in two (or more) input gene orders [Bérard et al., 2007]. Two intervals I and J are said to commute if either $I \subset J$, or $I \supset J$, or $I \cap J = \varnothing$ holds. A common interval is a *strong interval* if it commutes with every common interval. A *strong interval tree* (SIT) for two gene orders, finally, is a rooted tree which has exactly one leaf for each gene and exactly one inner node for each strong common interval. The edges of the tree are defined by the inclusion order of the set of strong intervals. There exist two types of inner nodes. An inner node is called (increasing or decreasing) linear if its child nodes are in a left-to-right or right-to-left order, otherwise the child nodes are not ordered and the inner node is called prime.

The basic principle for computing heuristic gene order rearrangement scenarios with CREx is to detect patterns in the SITs that reflect the corresponding genome rearrangement operations. For example, reversals are very simple to detect because this operation is reflected as a sign difference of parent node and child nodes in the SIT. Prime nodes are a good indicators for TDRL events. Both transpositions and reverse transpositions also lead to recognizable patterns in the SIT. CREx uses a stepwise approach to suggesting a genome rearrangement scenario: First it identifies transpositions and reverse transpositions, then reversals are identified based on the sign differences between connected nodes in the SIT. In these first two steps, CREx only operates on linear nodes. In the third step, the prime nodes are analyzed to identify combinations of reversal and TDRL operations (including transpositions), which can explain the corresponding prime nodes.

TDRL are of particular interest for phylogenetic analysis because the distance measure between gene orders that is based on the minimum number of TDRLs is not symmetric [Chaudhuri et al., 2006]. In particular, in many cases a rearrangement can be explained by a single TDRL in one direction, while reversing the rearrangement would require more than a single operation. It follows that TDRLs imply the evolutionary direction of the rearrangement in many cases and hence allow the re-construction of the ancestral state from a comparison of two gene orders without considering an outgroup. In contrast, reversals, transpositions, and reverse transpositions are inherently symmetric, hence ancestral states cannot be reconstructed without outgroup information.

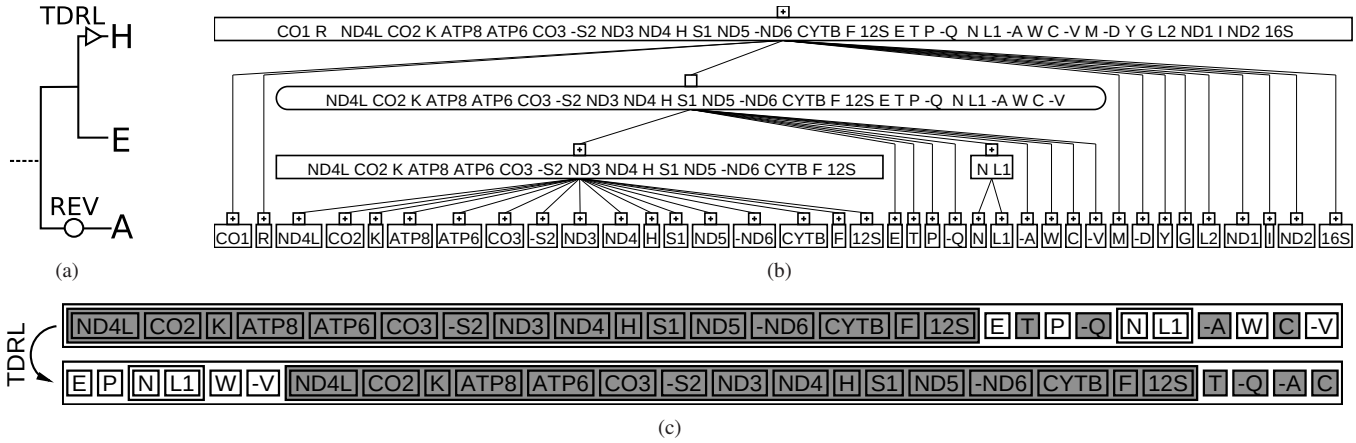

Fig. 1. (a): Mitochondrial gene order rearrangement scenario inferred by CRex for the given phylogeny of Asteroidea (A), Echinoidea (E), and Holothuroidea (H) showing one reversal (REV) and one TDRL; (b): SIT for E→H; (c): TDRL of E→H as suggested by CRex; Figures 1(b) and 1(c) are exported from CREx.

3 CREX

CREx is a web-based application for analyzing gene orders based on the application server Zope. The algorithms handling the common interval data structures and for computing scenarios were implemented in C++. They were integrated into Zope via Python modules. For drawing publication ready downloadable versions of the SITs ReportLab was used.

After uploading the gene order data in FASTA format to CREx, a distance matrix is computed and displayed. The elements are colored according to the distance values so that gene orders with a small evolutionary distance can be easily identified. The pairwise distances can be computed as common interval distance, breakpoint or reversal distance. Columns, rows, and individual elements of the distance matrix can be selected; for the selected elements the SITs are computed and displayed as a tree or as a family diagram [Bergeron and Stoye, 2006]. As briefly described in Section 2, the structure of the SIT can be used to infer genomic rearrangement operations connecting a pair of input gene orders. CREx uses its heuristic approach to suggests a rearrangement scenario based on common intervals. CREx allows the user to select individual operations of the scenario to highlight the affected common intervals.

4 CASE STUDY AND DISCUSSION

While testing CREx we found that, to the best of our knowledge, all reported cases of TDRL events in mitochondrial gene orders in the literature were correctly identified, e.g. [Arndt and Smith, 1998, Inoue et al., 2003]. We furthermore used CREx to analyse the genomic rearrangement history of the complete mitochondrial genomes of echinoderms (including the newly sequenced mitogenomes of the crinoid *Antedon mediterranea* and the ophiuroid *Ophiura albida*), see [Perseke et al., 2007].

For the sake of space we can discuss here only a small example to illustrate the functionality of CREx. We analyze the mitochondrial gene order rearrangement history of Asteroidea (A), Echinoidea (E), and Holothuroidea (H) (within these groups all sequenced species have the same gene order). CREx identifies three TDRL events for the evolution H→E, and one TDRL event, which was analyzed in detail by Arndt and Smith [1998], for E→H. This implies that the ancestral state conforms E. For A↔E a single reversal is needed. As CREx suggests the same reversal and the same TDRL for A→H (not shown here), we can immediately infer the genome rearrangement events for the phylogeny in Fig. 1(a). A more detailed analysis including all published echinoderm mitochondrial genomes and different phylogenetic hypotheses is presented in [Perseke et al., 2007]. The SIT for E→H is given in Figure 1(b), the corresponding TDRL is depicted in Figure 1(c).

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