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**Computer Science and Engineering** 

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### An Iterative Beam Search Algorithm for Degenerate Primer **Selection**

Richard Souvenir

Single Nucleotide Polymorphism (SNP) Genotyping is an important molecular genetics process in the early stages of producing results that will be useful in the medical field. Due to inherent complexities in DNA manipulation and analysis, many different methods have been proposed for a standard assay. One of the proposed techniques for performing SNP Genotyping requires amplifying regions of DNA surrounding a large number of SNP loci. In order to automate a portion of this particular method, it is necessary to select a set of primers for the experiment. Selecting these primers can be formulated as the Multiple Degenerate Primer... Read complete abstract on page 2.

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Department of Computer Science & Engineering

2003-76

#### An Iterative Beam Search Algorithm for Degenerate Primer Selection -Master's Thesis, December 2003

Authors: Souvenir, Richard

December 4, 2003

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Short Title: Multiple Degenerate Primer Design Souvenir, M.Sc. 2003

### WASHINGTON UNIVERSITY SEVER INSTITUTE OF TECHNOLOGY DEPARTMENT OF COMPUTER SCIENCE AND ENGINEERING

#### AN ITERATIVE BEAM SEARCH ALGORITHM FOR DEGENERATE PRIMER SELECTION

by

Richard M. Souvenir, B.S.

Prepared under the direction of Professor W. Zhang

A thesis presented to the Sever Institute of Washington University in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Science

December, 2003

Saint Louis, Missouri

#### WASHINGTON UNIVERSITY SEVER INSTITUTE OF TECHNOLOGY DEPARTMENT OF COMPUTER SCIENCE AND ENGINEERING

#### ABSTRACT

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ADVISOR: Professor W. Zhang

December, 2003

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Single Nucleotide Polymorphism (SNP) Genotyping is an important molecular genetics process in the early stages of producing results that will be useful in the medical field. Due to inherent complexities in DNA manipulation and analysis, many different methods have been proposed for a standard assay. One of the proposed techniques for performing SNP Genotyping requires amplifying regions of DNA surrounding a large number of SNP loci. In order to automate a portion of this particular method, it is necessary to select a set of primers for the experiment. Selecting these primers can be formulated as the Multiple Degenerate Primer Design (MDPD) problem.

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### List of Abbreviations

- i.i.d. independent and identically distributed
- IUB International Union of Biochemistry
- IUPAC International Union of Pure and Applied Chemistry
- MDPD Multiple Degenerate Primer Design
- MIPS Multiple, Iterative Primer Selector
- MP-PCR Multiplex Polymerase Chain Reaction
- PCR Polymerase Chain Reaction
- PT-MDPD Primer-Threshold MDPD
- SNP Single Nucleotide Polymorphism
- TT-MDPD Total-Threshold MDPD

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Richard M. Souvenir

Washington University in Saint Louis December, 2003

### Chapter 1

### Introduction

Single Nucleotide Polymorphisms (SNPs) are singular base differences among DNA sequences from the same species that are partially responsible for individualization. Figure 1 shows an example of a SNP between two sequences. It is estimated that there are roughly three million SNPs in the human genome [15]. Research investigating associations between SNPs and various diseases, along with studies of differences in how individuals respond to common therapies, promise to revolutionize medical science in the coming years [2]. Another interesting biological facet of SNPs is that recent work suggests there may be only a few hundred thousand "blocks" of SNPs in the human genome rather than a random dispersion. These "blocks" provide most of the variability seen in human populations [6]. In spite of all this effort, it is still a daunting task to identify the specific genetic variations occurring in specific individuals in order to determine their associations with important phenotypes. Currently, there

> **C G G T A C T T G A G G C T A** Person 1 **C G G T A C T C G A G G C T A** Person 2

Figure 1.1: Single Nucleotide Polymorphism (SNP) diagram

are many proposed techniques for the process of determining the SNP composition of a given genome, which is known as SNP Genotyping. In order for these assaying techniques to be effective in large-scale genetic studies of hundreds or thousands of SNPs, they must be scalable, automated, robust, and inexpensive [12].

One technique involves the use of Multiplex PCR (MP-PCR) to amplify the regions around the SNP [12]. Polymerase Chain Reaction (PCR) [16] is a powerful molecular genetics technique which rapidly amplifies a small segment of DNA using two additional DNA fragments known as primers. Figure 1.2 shows how PCR cyclically creates a large number of DNA fragments. MP-PCR is a variation of PCR where multiple DNA fragments are replicated simultaneously. MP-PCR, like all PCR variations, makes use of oligonucleotide primers to define the boundaries of amplification. For each region of DNA that is to be amplified, two primers, generally referred to as the forward and reverse primers, are needed. In MP-PCR, it is necessary to select a pair of forward and reverse primers for each of the regions to be replicated, and for the large-scale amplification required in SNP Genotyping, there can be hundreds, or perhaps thousands, of those regions. The process of selecting such a large set of primers by current methods, including trial-and-error [12], can be time-consuming and difficult.

In this thesis, we begin with a description of the related work in the area. Next, we describe the Multiple Degenerate Primer Design (MDPD) problem and present an algorithm, the Multiple, Iterative Primer Selector (MIPS) [24], to solve this problem. We continue by showing how MIPS performs relative to another solution in the domain on real and simulated data. Next, we discuss the difficulty of solving this problem in general by calculating the theoretical limits of any solution and dealing with the issue of erroneous amplification. Finally, we conclude with comments about avenues for possible improvement.



Figure 1.2: Example of a typical PCR experiment. The area in bold on the original doublestranded sequence represents the DNA fragment which is the region of interest. Normally this continues for 30 cycles, which would result in a theoretical maximum of  $2^{30}$  fragments for each original molecule. (Diagram from [27])

### Chapter 2

### Related Work

There are two problems in primer selection similar to the main problem of this thesis, the Primer Selection Problem and the Degenerate Primer Design Problem.

#### 2.1 Primer Selection Problem

The Primer Selection Problem [20] involves minimizing the number of primers needed to amplify regions of DNA in a set of sequences. It has been shown that this is an NP-hard problem [7] in reductions from other hard problems, including Set Cover and Graph Coloring [4]. There have been a number of proposed heuristics to solve this problem, including a branch-and-bound search algorithm [19]. Also, algorithms have been proposed which incorporate biological data about the primers into the search [17, 5].

#### 2.2 Degenerate Primer Design Problem

Figure 1.2 from the previous chapter shows that in order to perform PCR both forward and reverse primers are needed for the fragment being amplified. Therefore, in a

typical MP-PCR experiment where, the number of primers needed is equal to twice the number of sequences in the input set. In general, the algorithms mentioned above reduce the number of primers needed to 25-50% of this value, which can still be rather high for the large-scale amplification needed for SNP Genotyping.

The desire to design fewer primers leads to the use of degenerate primers. Degenerate primers [13] are primers that make use of the degenerate nucleotides [3], which can be found in Table 2.1. The number of primers that a degenerate primer represents is referred to as its degeneracy. For example, consider this degenerate primer, ACMCM, where M is a degenerate nucleotide which represents either of the bases, A or C. This degenerate primer is actually representative of the set of 4 primers {ACACA, ACACC, ACCCA, ACCCC}, and so its degeneracy is 4.

Degenerate primers are as easy to produce as regular primers, and therefore save the molecular biologist time during the primer design phase of the experiment. The use of degenerate primers, however, introduces two new problems. First, the effective concentration of the desired primers is decreased by the presence of undesired primers. Second, the presence of undesired primers can lead to erroneous amplification. Therefore, it is important to use primers of relatively low degeneracy to realize the inherent benefits of degenerate primer design while minimizing the effects of these two problems.

The Degenerate Primer Design (DPD) Problem, is the decision problem of determining whether or not there exists a single degenerate primer below some given degeneracy threshold which can amplify regions of DNA for some number of a set of input sequences. There are two variations of DPD. Maximum Coverage DPD (MC-DPD) is the related maximization problem where the goal is to find the maximum number of sequences that can be amplified by a degenerate primer whose degeneracy falls below some threshold. Minimum Degeneracy DPD (MD-DPD) is the second

Symbol	Meaning
А	А
$\overline{C}$	$\overline{C}$
G	$\overline{G}$
$\mathbf T$	T
$\mathbf U$	U
M	A or C
R	A or G
W	A or T
$\mathbf S$	C or G
Y	$C$ or $T$
K	G or T
V	A or C or G
Η	A or C or T
D	A or G or T
B	C or G or T
X	G or A or T or C
N	G or A or T or C

Table 2.1: IUPAC-IUB symbols for nucleotide nomenclature

variation of DPD whose goal is to find the degenerate primer of minimum degeneracy that amplifies all of the input sequences. Both MC-DPD and MD-DPD have been shown to be NP-Hard problems [14].

### Chapter 3

# Problem Description and **Complexity**

Some of the notation from [14] is used to describe this problem. To maintain consistency, lower-case symbols (e.g.  $l, b, i$ ) represent numerical values, counting variables, or individual characters (possibly degenerate) in a sequence. Upper-case symbols (e.g.  $P, S$ ) denote primers, sequences, or subsequences. Finally, calligraphic symbols (e.g.  $S$ , C) represent sets of sequences or primers.

Let  $\Sigma = \{A, C, G, T\}$  be the finite fixed alphabet of DNA. A *degenerate primer* is a string P with several possible characters at each position, i.e.,  $P = p_1 p_2 \cdots p_l$ , where  $p_i \subseteq \Sigma, p_i \neq \emptyset$  and l is the length of primer P. The *degeneracy* of P is  $d(P) = \prod |p_i|$ . Consider the degenerate primer  $P' = \{A\}\{A, C\}\{A, C\}\{A, C\}$ . The l  $i=1$ length of  $P'$  is 4 and  $d(P') = 8$ . For the sake of clarity, we use the IUPAC symbols from Table 2.1 for degenerate nucleotides to represent degenerate primers. Therefore,  $P'$ can be represented as  $AMMM$  where M is the degenerate nucleotide which represents  ${A, C}$ . Degenerate primers can be constructed by *primer addition*. For any two primers,  $P^1$  and  $P^2$ , their sum  $P^3$  equals  $(p_1^1 \cup p_1^2)(p_2^1 \cup p_2^2) \cdots (p_l^1 \cup p_l^2)$ .

For any sequence  $S_i$  in an input set  $S$ , we say that a degenerate primer  $P$ covers  $S_i$  if there is a substring F of length l in  $S_i$  where for each character  $f_i$  in F,  $f_i \in p_i$ . We now describe the three problems at the heart of this thesis.

Problem 1 (Multiple Degenerate Primer Design(MDPD)). Given a set of n sequences over an alphabet  $\Sigma$  and integers l and k, is there a set of primers, P, for which each element is of length l that covers all of the input sequences, where  $|\mathcal{P}| \leq k$ ?

We now describe two optimization problems that are variants of the MDPD problem which add additional constraints to the final solution  $P$ .

Problem 2 (Primer-Threshold MDPD (PT-MDPD)). Given a set of n sequences over an alphabet  $\Sigma$  and integers l and  $\alpha$ , find a set of primers,  $\mathcal{P}$ , for which each element is of length l that covers all of the input sequences, where  $\forall P_i \in$  $\mathcal{P}, d(P_i) \leq \alpha.$ 

In PT-MDPD, we want a small set of degenerate primers where the degeneracy of each primer in that set is less than some threshold. In the next variation, TT-MDPD, we want a small set of degenerate primers where the sum of the degeneracies of the set is below some threshold.

**Problem 3 (Total-Threshold MDPD (TT-MDPD)).** Given a set of n sequences over an alphabet  $\Sigma$  and integers l and  $\alpha$ , find a set of primers,  $P$ , for which each element is of length l that covers all of the input sequences, where  $\sum$  $P_i \in \mathcal{P}$  $d(P_i) \leq \alpha$ .

We now show that optimal, efficient algorithms for these problems do not likely exist since both are NP-complete [7]. In order to show the necessary proofs, we will restate each problem as a decision problem where we wish to determine whether the solution set,  $P$ , has size less than a given value, k.

For PT-MDPD, we will use a reduction from the Primer Selection Problem (PSP) [20]. The input to PSP is a set of input sequences  $\mathcal{S}'$  and a threshold  $k'$ , and

the goal is to find a set of (non-degenerate) primers  $\mathcal{P}'$  which cover all the sequences in S' and where  $|\mathcal{P}'| \leq k'$ .

Theorem 1. PT-MDPD is NP-complete.

*Proof.* To show that PT-MDPD  $\in$  NP, given an input set  $S$ , we use the solution  $\mathcal{P}$ as a certificate for S. Checking whether the primers in  $P$  cover all of the sequences in  $S$  can be accomplished in polynomial time in the number of sequences, given the observation that  $|\mathcal{P}| \leq |\mathcal{S}|$ .

We next prove that PSP  $\leq_P$  PT-MDPD, which shows that our problem is NP-Complete. The reduction begins with an instance of  $\text{PSP} = \langle S', k' \rangle$ . To construct an instance of PT-MDPD =  $\langle S, \alpha, k \rangle$ , we simply let  $S = S'$ ,  $\alpha = 1$ , and  $k = k'$ .

At this point, it should be obvious that a valid solution for PSP yields a valid solution for this construction of PT-MDPD, and vice-versa. Therefore, the remainder of the proof is trivial and therefore omitted.  $\Box$ 

For TT-MDPD, we will use a reduction from the related primer design problem, Degenerate Primer Design (DPD), which has been shown to be NP-Complete [14]. An instance of DPD is a set  $\mathcal{S}'$  of n' strings, and integers l',  $\alpha'$ , and m'. A solution is a degenerate primer of length  $l'$  and degeneracy at most  $\alpha'$  that matches at least m input strings. For this reduction, we consider a special case of DPD where  $m' = n'$ .

#### Theorem 2. TT-MDPD is NP-complete.

*Proof.* To show that TT-MDPD  $\in$  NP, given an input set S, we use the solution  $\mathcal{P}$ as a certificate for  $S$ . Checking whether the primers in  $P$  cover all of the sequences in S and the total weight is less than  $\alpha$  can be accomplished in polynomial time.

We next prove that DPD  $\leq_P$  TT-MDPD, which shows that our problem is NP-Complete. The reduction begins with an instance of DPD =  $\langle S', n', l', \alpha' \rangle$ .

The instance of TT-MDPD =  $\langle S, \alpha, l, k \rangle$  is constructed as follows. We simply let  $S = S'$ ,  $\alpha = \alpha'$ ,  $l = l'$  and  $k = 1$ .

In this special case of DPD where  $m' = n'$  and  $k = 1$  for TT-MDPD, the goal of each problem is identical: to find a single degenerate primer of length  $l = l'$  with degeneracy  $\alpha = \alpha'$  which covers all of the sequences. Therefore a valid solution for one problem yields a valid solution for the other. $\Box$ 

### Chapter 4

### Multiple, Iterative Primer Selector

To overcome the difficulty caused by the NP-hardness of MDPD problems, we propose an iterative beam search heuristic, the Multiple, Iterative Primer Selector (MIPS) to make a tradeoff between optimality and tractability. In order to solve PT-MDPD and TT-MDPD, MIPS can run in either of two modes, MIPS-PT and MIPS-TT, respectively. This chapter focuses on MIPS-TT. However, we will highlight how MIPS-PT operates differently.

MIPS progressively constructs a set of primers that covers all the input sequences. Define a  $k$ -primer to be a degenerate primer that covers k input sequences. The basic algorithm first generates a set of candidate 2-primers, each having some degeneracy value, then iteratively extends all candidate k-primers into  $(k+1)$ -primers by generalizing them to cover an additional sequence. Generalization stops when no primer can be extended without exceeding the degeneracy threshold  $\alpha$ . At this point, the set of remaining primers cover  $k_{last}$  sequences, so we retain the primer of minimum degeneracy, remove the input sequences it covers from consideration, and repeat the algorithm until all sequences are covered.

To guide the search, MIPS uses the degeneracy of a primer as a scoring function. The set of primers that are stored for further extension are known as a beam.

Beam search [1] differs from greedy or best-first search in that multiple nodes, degenerate primers in this case, are saved for extension instead of just one. This model of progressively adding to a beam of degenerate primers and updating the scoring function is similar to the Consensus motif-finding model [10].

It is important to note that the degeneracy of a given k-primer increases or remains the same with the addition of new sequence fragments. This observation encourages us to employ a strategy which ignores degenerate primers with high degeneracy, in order to speed up the algorithm. Therefore, the search is restricted only to the primers with the lowest degeneracy. In this algorithm, the number of the candidate primers to restrict the search to at each level can be specified. This constant, b, describes the number of k-primers to save for each level. Increasing b can possibly improve the quality of the solution, but lengthens the running time of the algorithm. In section 6.1, we examine the effect of this parameter, b, on the speed and quality of the solution produced by MIPS.

The constructive search continues until one of two cases occurs. In the first case, all sequences are covered by a single *n*-primer, where *n* is the number of sequences in the input set. The algorithm then terminates with that primer as the result. In the second case, no k-primer can be extended to a  $(k+1)$ -primer without exceeding the degeneracy threshold and there exists at least one sequence uncovered. At this point,  $k_{last}$  sequences have been covered. The algorithm chooses the best degenerate  $(k_{last})$ -primer,  $P_0$ , from the set  $P$  of primers sorted by degeneracy value. The problem then reduces to a smaller instance where the input set is the original set of sequences minus those covered by  $P_0$ . In MIPS-PT, the degeneracy threshold for this subproblem is equivalent to the original threshold,  $\alpha$ . In MIPS-TT, the degeneracy threshold is reduced by the degeneracy of  $P_0$ . The algorithm then restarts on the reduced problem.

For MIPS-PT, iteratively applying this procedure will eventually return a set of primers to cover the set of input sequences. However, this is not necessarily the case for MIPS-TT. After  $P_0$  is discovered and its sequences are removed from consideration, the new threshold may be too low to cover the rest of the sequences. In this case, MIPS-TT backtracks to the previous level,  $k_{last} - 1$ , and selects the next best primer  $P'_0$  $D'_0$  as part of the final solution. Again, MIPS restarts on the sequences that  $P'_0$  has not covered and with a degeneracy limit that is the original  $\alpha$  minus the degeneracy of  $P'_0$  $\frac{1}{0}$ .



Figure 4.1: Pruning of the search space by MIPS-TT

Figure 4.1 shows, schematically, an execution of MIPS-TT. For these graphs, the depth of a node represents the number of sequences from the input set covered and the number in a node represents the number of degenerate primers that will be used to cover those sequences. Each node can be expanded into two child nodes. The left child represents covering an additional sequence using an existing degenerate primer and the right child represents covering an additional sequence using a new degenerate primer. The left tree in Figure 4.1 shows a full search. The right tree shows the pruning that takes place in MIPS-TT during the backtracking phrase. Consider the two bold nodes. Both of these cover the same number of sequences with the same number of primers. MIPS-TT will therefore only expand the node whose total score is better. While this greedy choice may not be optimal, it avoids the exponential expansion seen on the full tree by not exploring the nodes represented by dotted circles.

The pairwise comparison of two sequence fragments is the dominating operation and a rate-limiting step of the algorithm. A majority of these comparisons are between two fragments that share few, if any, nucleotides. To avoid comparisons between dissimilar fragments, the exhaustive pairwise comparison is replaced with a similarity lookup. All of the primer candidates are added to a FASTA-style [18] lookup table. In general, for DNA, a FASTA table fragment length of 6 is recommended [9]. Using the table, each fragment is compared only to the other fragments that are returned.

A pseudo-code description of the MIPS algorithm is given in Appendix A.

### Chapter 5

### Algorithm Complexity

We now examine the theoretical bounds of MIPS and compare these values to the computing resources consumed in practice. Consult Table 5.1 for a list of variables used in the chapter and what they represent.

Variable	Represents
$n_{\cdot}$	number of input sequences
m	average sequence length
	beam size
	primer length

Table 5.1: Properties of an execution of the MIPS algorithm

#### 5.1 Space

From the input set, each primer is stored individually which requires space  $O(nml)$ . In the implementation, there are four  $n \times n$  matrices that are needed for back-tracking and storing degenerate primers that could eventually become part of the final solution. This adds an additional  $O(n^2)$  of storage. Therefore, the total amount of space is  $O(n^2 + nml)$ .

#### 5.2 Time

The time complexity is analyzed in a bottom-up fashion. The procedure of comparing the fragments in the beam to the remaining sequences is called ONE PASS which is described in Algorithm 3 of Appendix A. ONE PASS makes  $O(bnm)$  primer additions, since there are  $O(nm)$  total fragments and b fragments in the beam. Each primer addition requires comparing every character in each of the two primers. Therefore, this portion requires  $O(bnml)$  time.

The process of generating new beams of  $k$ -primers, for increasing  $k$ , is called MIPS SEARCH, which is described in Algorithm 2 of Appendix A. MIPS SEARCH uses ONE PASS to build new beams, and could, in the worst case, build  $n$ beams. Therefore, the overall time complexity is  $O(bn^2ml)$ . The number of times MIPS SEARCH is executed depends on the amount of back-tracking. This is directly related to the number of primers in the final solution. In the best case, if the solution only requires one primer, there will be only one call to MIPS SEARCH. In the worst case, if the solution requires  $n$  primers (one primer for each input sequence) there will be  $n^2/2$  calls to MIPS\_SEARCH. Let p be the number of primers in the final solution. The best approximation to the number of MIPS SEARCH calls is  $O(pn)$ . This brings the overall time complexity to  $O(bn^3mlp)$ .

The graphs in Figure 5.1 show how the running time of MIPS changes when various parameters of the input set are manipulated. These graphs correlate with the theoretical predictions of time dependencies. All of these experiments were run on a computer running Red Hat Linux 7.3 with an AMD 1.6GHz CPU and 2GB RAM.



Figure 5.1: Timing graphs for various input sizes.

### Chapter 6

### MIPS Experiments

MIPS has been applied to both human DNA sequences and randomly generated datasets. The primary dataset is a database of sequences containing regions of human DNA surrounding 95 known SNPs. The sequences varied in length from a few hundred nucleotides to well over one thousand. The location of a SNP on a sequence was marked in order to provide a reference for the forward and reverse primers. To ensure effective PCR product analysis, each primer could not be located within 10 bases of the SNP and the entire PCR product length could not exceed 400 bases.

In this chapter, we perform three experiments. First, we show how the beam size affects the speed and quality of the solution produced by MIPS. Second, we show some results of MIPS on the human dataset of 95 sequences. Finally, we compare MIPS to an algorithm designed to solve the DPD problem considered in [14].

#### 6.1 Beam Size Parameter

Figure 6.1a shows that increasing the beam size linearly increases the running time of the algorithm. Figure 6.1b shows the effect of beam size on the solution quality, or number of primers. These figures show the trade-off between the quality of the



Figure 6.1: The effect of beam size on the (a) running time of the algorithm and (b) number of primers discovered.

solution and the running time of the algorithm. For this particular dataset, there was a decrease of two degenerate primers in the final solution when the beam size was increased from 10 to 100. Moreover, only a slightly better solution was discovered when the beam size was increased to 250. For the average desktop computer, beam sizes larger than a few hundred result in impractical running times. For the input set we used, which contained 95 human DNA sequences, using a beam size of 100 produced solutions that did not significantly improve as the beam size increased. Empirically, a beam size close, in value, to the number of sequences in the input set seems to produce a solution that is balanced in running time and quality.

#### 6.2 Human Dataset

In an unpublished laboratory experiment, a set of degenerate primers of length 20 was manually constructed where each primer was a mixture of 8 specific bases and 12 fully degenerate nucleotides (*e.g.*  $AGTCGGTANNNNNNNNNNN$ *)* For this experiment, the total degeneracy would be  $\approx 4^{12}$ . MIPS was originally designed to automate this procedure and, possibly, reduce the total degeneracy and/or number of primers used. In practice the desired accuracy in the experiment determines the actual parameter values used for MIPS. Table 6.2 shows the results. For 95 sequences, 190 primers

PT-MDPD		TT-MDPD	
Degeneracy	# Primers	Degeneracy	# Primens
$4^6 \approx 4K$	53	$4^9 \approx 262K$	
$4^7 \approx 16K$	44	$4^{10} \approx 1M$	37
$4^8 \approx 64K$	36	$4^{11} \approx 4M$	30
$4^9 \approx 262K$	29	$4^{12}\approx 16M$	23

Table 6.1: Results on a dataset of 95 human SNP regions.

would be needed in the general case. MIPS-PT decreased the total number of primers to 15% of this unoptimized value for a degeneracy limit of  $4^9 = 262, 144$ . Table 6.2 includes the similar results for PT-MDPD and TT-MDPD.

#### 6.3 Comparison to HYDEN

The HYDEN algorithm [14] is a heuristic designed for finding approximate solutions to the DPD problems. Recall that DPD is a set of problems where the general goal is to find a single degenerate primer that either covers the most sequences while having a degeneracy value less than a specified threshold or covers all of the sequences with minimum degeneracy. The DPD problem is the most closely related one to our MDPD problem.

HYDEN can solve the PT-MDPD problem indirectly by iteratively solving the MC-DPD problem on smaller and smaller sets. After selecting a pair of degenerate primers under a given bound that covers a certain subset of the sequences in an input set, the algorithm runs again on the remaining sequences. For the reasons described below, iteratively solving MC-DPD is not the most effective way to solve the PT-MDPD problem. However, this was the most reasonable comparison that was possible given the implementation available to us at the time of testing. The graphs in Figure 6.2 shows the number of primers that each algorithm found from



Figure 6.2: The number of degenerate primers selected by HYDEN and MIPS for 20 randomly-generated datasets in solving PT-MDPD for degeneracy thresholds of 10,000 (a) and 100,000 (b).

a randomly generated set of sequences of varying lengths with varying degeneracy thresholds. They are uniformly-distributed i.i.d. sequences of equal length. Each program searched for degenerate primers without allowing any mismatches at any positions.

In general, HYDEN produced more primers than MIPS in attempting to solve PT-MDPD. For a primer degeneracy value of 100,000 and over 100 sequences, the difference was as large as 60% more primers. These results can be partially explained by the differing design requirements of the DPD and MDPD problems. Even when applied iteratively, the goal of the DPD problems is to have a result which could be divided into distinct PCR experiments. The goal of the MDPD problems is to have a set of primers for one large-scale PCR experiment. Specifically, to solve the DPD problem, the HYDEN algorithm must ensure that for any given degenerate forward primer that is discovered, exactly one degenerate reverse primer is used to cover the sequences covered by the forward primer. Therefore, a given degenerate forward primer is restricted to which sequences it is reported to cover based on the presence of a suitable degenerate reverse primer, and vice-versa. Moreover, the HYDEN algorithm has an additional restriction in which any given degenerate primer is limited to covering either a set of forward or reverse primers, but not both.

### Chapter 7

### Degenerate Primer Design

The results of the previous chapter suggest that MIPS and other algorithms in the domain can be useful in selecting a set of degenerate primers. However, as previously mentioned, the use of degenerate primers generally introduces problems into the biological assay. In this section, we will discuss these problems in depth, show how they are amplified when the background base composition is non-random (such as in the human genome), re-examine the quality of the solutions MIPS produces, and finally suggest improvements to MIPS.

Representing an unnecessarily large set of primers is a problem introduced by the use of degenerate primers. For this discussion, we define target primers to be primers that are intended to be used in the PCR assay, and auxiliary primers to be primers represented by degenerate primers, which may or may not bind to fragments in the input set, but are not intended to be used in the PCR assay. The two main problems associated with degenerate primer usage are a decrease in the effective concentration of the target primers and an increase in the possibility of amplifying an unexpected region, or mispriming. In order to explore these problems, in the next two sections we consider the following questions:

- How effective do we expect a given degenerate primer to be? In other words, for the set of primers that a given degenerate primer represents, what is the ratio of target primers to auxiliary primers?
- Given the presence of these auxiliary primers, how often do we expect to see an unexpected PCR product?

#### 7.1 Degenerate Primer Efficacy

Multiplex primer design demands that many input sequences share sites complementary to some common (possibly degenerate) primer. In the general case, the sequences to be co-amplified are not related, so their complementarity to a common primer is largely a matter of chance. We therefore explore the chance-imposed limits of multiplexing, that is, how many unrelated DNA sequences are likely to be covered by a single PCR primer of a given degeneracy?

Let S be a collection of n DNA sequences of common length m. Call a primer  $P$ an  $(l, \alpha, k)$ -primer for S if it has length l and degeneracy at most  $\alpha$  and covers at least k sequences of S. A natural way to quantify the limits of multiplexing is to compute the probability that an  $(l, \alpha, k)$ -primer exists for S. However, this probability is difficult to compute, even assuming that  $\mathcal S$  consists of i.i.d. random DNA with equal base frequencies. We instead compute the *expected* number of  $(l, \alpha, k)$ -primers for S. If this expectation is much less than one, Markov's inequality implies that  $S$  is unlikely to contain any such primer.

We do not count the total number of  $(l, \alpha, k)$ -primers for S but only the number of maximal primers. A primer P of degeneracy at most  $\alpha$  is said to be maximal if increasing P's degeneracy at any position would cause its total degeneracy to exceed α. The expected number of maximal  $(l, \alpha, k)$ -primers for S is in general less than the total number of  $(l, \alpha, k)$ -primers, but a primer of this type exists for S if and only if a maximal primer exists. Hence, the former expectation is more useful than the latter for bounding the probability that at least one  $(l, \alpha, k)$ -primer exists.

#### 7.1.1 Occurrence probability for one fixed primer

Let P be a primer of length l, such that the jth position of P permits  $|p_j|$  different bases. Let S be a collection of n i.i.d. random DNA sequences of common length m with equal base frequencies, and let  $T$  be a single  $l$ -mer at a fixed position in some sequence  $S_i \in \mathcal{S}$ . Say that P matches T if P would hybridize to T. We have that

$$
\Pr[P \text{ matches } T] = \prod_{j=1}^{l} \frac{|p_j|}{4}
$$

$$
= \frac{d(P)}{4^l}.
$$

The probability that P covers  $S_i$ , i.e., that it matches at least one l-mer of  $S_i$ , depends in a complicated way on P's overlap structure, but if  $S_i$  is not too short and  $d(P)/4^l \ll$ 1 (both of which are typically true), then using Poisson approximation [26],

$$
\Pr[P \text{ occurs in } S_i] \approx 1 - e^{-\frac{d(P)}{4^l}(m-l+1)}.
$$

Let q be the probability that  $P$  matches somewhere in a single sequence of length m, and let  $c(P)$  be P's coverage of S, i.e., the number of sequences of S in which P matches at some position. Because the sequences of  $\mathcal S$  are independent, the probability that  $P$  matches in at least  $k$  sequences given by the binomial tail probability

$$
\Pr[c(P) \ge k] = 1 - \Pr[B(n, q) < k],
$$

where  $B(n, q)$  is the sum of n independent Bernoulli random variables, each with probability q of success.

#### 7.1.2 Computing the expectation

Let  $\Pi(l,\alpha)$  be the set of all maximal primers of length l and degeneracy at most  $\alpha$ . To count the expected number  $E_{l,\alpha,k}$  of  $(l,\alpha,k)$ -primers for S, observe that

$$
E_{l,\alpha,k} = \sum_{P \in \Pi(l,\alpha)} \Pr[c(P) \ge k].
$$

Enumerating all  $P \in \Pi(l, \alpha)$  to compute this expectation would be computationally expensive, but this enumeration is not needed for i.i.d. sequences with equal base frequencies. Given these assumptions about  $\mathcal{S}$ 's sequences, the probability that P matches a given *l*-mer does not change if we rearrange its positions (e.g. " $AMC$ " versus " $MCA$ ") or change the precise nucleotides matched (e.g. " $RTG$ " versus " $MCA$ "). Let W be a multiset of l values drawn from  $\{1, 2, 3, 4\}$  that lists the degeneracies  $n_j$ (in any order) of a primer from  $\Pi(l,\alpha)$ . Then every primer described by the same W has the same probability of covering at least k sequences in  $\mathcal{S}$ . Hence, the desired expectation is given by

$$
E_{l,\alpha,k} = \sum_{W} \#(W) \Pr[c(P) \ge k \mid P \text{ described by } W].
$$

where the sum ranges over all feasible W for  $\Pi(l,\alpha)$  and  $\#(W)$  denotes the number of degenerate primers described by  $W$ . The probability is computed as described above, so we need only describe how to compute  $#(W)$ .

Let W be a multiset with  $n_1$  1's,  $n_2$  2's,  $n_3$  3's, and  $n_4$  4's. If we fix which positions in P permit 1, 2, 3, and 4 nucleotides respectively, then there are  $4^{n_1} \times$ 

 $6^{n_2} \times 4^{n_3}$  ways of assigning nucleotide sets to these positions. Hence,

#(W) = l n<sup>1</sup> n<sup>2</sup> n<sup>3</sup> 4 <sup>n</sup>1+n<sup>3</sup> 6 n<sup>2</sup> .

Enumerating all feasible W for  $\Pi(l,\alpha)$  is straightforward, so the expectation can be computed.

#### 7.1.3 Results

The theoretical estimates of the previous section can be used to evaluate whether a particular primer-design algorithm performs well on the MC-DPD problem, that is, whether it finds degenerate primers with coverage close to the maximum predicted for a given set of input sequences. We evaluated the MIPS algorithm's performance on MC-DPD by comparing the primers it found in random DNA with those expected to exist in theory. For these experiments, we generated test sets of i.i.d. random DNA sequences with equal base frequencies with  $n = 190$ , and  $m = 211$ , so that the number and average length of the test sequences roughly matched those of the human DNA test sequences.

We used MIPS to find a single primer with maximum coverage in each test set, subject to varying degeneracy bounds  $\alpha$ . Table 7.1 compares the average coverage of primers found by MIPS in 20 trials to the largest coverage k such that  $E_{l,\alpha,k}$  for test sets of the specified size is  $> 1$ . Primers with coverage exceeding this value of k are not expected to occur in the test sets, while primers with slightly smaller coverage may or may not occur frequently.

MIPS proved adept at finding primers close to the maximum predicted coverage for relatively small degeneracies ( $\alpha \leq 10000$ ). We therefore have considerable confidence in its ability to find high-coverage primers if they are present. The gap

Table 7.1: Actual and predicted coverage of 20-mer primers found on sets of 190 random sequences of length 211. Avg Coverage: average coverage of primer found over 20 random trials. Max Predicted: largest coverage m such that  $E_{20,\alpha,m} > 1$ .

degeneracy $\alpha$	Avg Coverage	Max Predicted
1000	6.30	
10000	10.55	
100000	19.30	26

between the best primers found by MIPS and those predicted to occur in theory grows with the degeneracy bound, but we cannot say with certainty whether this fact represents a limitation of the algorithm or of the theoretical estimates, since primers with expectation greater than one may with significant probability still fail to occur. Moreover, the high degeneracies where MIPS might perform poorly are of less practical interest, since single primers with such high degeneracies are experimentally more difficult to work with.

Overall, MIPS appears to be operating close to the theoretical limit for MC-DPD problems of small degeneracy. Although our analysis does not directly address the MDPD problems, any large gap between the most efficient design and the designs produced by MIPS is unlikely to arise from failure to find single high-coverage primers when they exist.

#### 7.2 Mispriming

Due to the presence of auxiliary primers, it is possible that a pair of primers binds to an undesired location and results in an erroneous amplification. Mispriming is the occurrence of this event where the unwanted PCR product is indistinguishable, by size, from the targeted products.

Suppose we design a set of degenerate primers with length  $l$ , such that the *total* degeneracy of the set is  $\alpha$ . We wish to estimate the expected number of mispriming events when our primer set is applied to a genome of length g. The background model greatly influences the calculations, therefore, we will consider two models separately, an i.i.d. random genome with equal base frequencies and the human genome.

A pair of l-mers cause a mispriming event if and only if they bind to the genome within  $\delta$  bases of each other, in the appropriate orientations to permit amplification of the sequence between them. Let  $i$  index the positions of the genome on its forward strand. Let the 0-1 random variable  $x_i$  indicate the event that an *l*-mer from our primer set is complementary to the forward strand at position i, and let  $\overline{x}_i$  be the event that an  $l$ -mer is complementary to the reverse-complement strand at  $i$ . We say that a mispriming event occurs at  $i$  if  $\overline{x}_i \cap$  $i+$  $\vert \ \ \vert$  $\delta-1$  $j = i$  $x_j = 1$ . Denote this event by the 0-1 indicator  $M_i$ . The total number of mispriming events M in a genome of size g is simply  $\sum$ g  $i=1$  $M_i$ .

#### 7.2.1 Mispriming in i.i.d. Random and Human Genome

In this section we consider the background model where the genome consists of i.i.d. random sequence with equal base frequencies. For the expectation of a matching event to occur at a position *i* we have that  $E[x_i] = E[\overline{x}_i] =$  $\alpha$  $\frac{\alpha}{4^l}$ .

Note that the two matching events are independent in an i.i.d. random DNA sequence when the two primers do not overlap. To simplify our calculations, we ignore the effect of overlapping primer boundaries. Using Poisson approximation to estimate the probability of the matching event on the forward strand, we have that

.

$$
E[M_i] = E[\overline{x}_i \cap \bigcup_{j=i}^{i+\delta-1} x_j]
$$
  
= 
$$
E[\overline{x}_i]E\left[\bigcup_{j=i}^{i+\delta-1} x_j\right]
$$
  

$$
\approx E[\overline{x}_i] \left(1 - e^{-\sum_{j=i}^{i+\delta-1} E[x_j]}\right)
$$

Finally, setting  $\rho = \alpha/4^l$ , we derive the expected mispriming rate as

.

$$
E[M] = \sum_{i=1}^{g} E[M_i]
$$
  

$$
\approx g\rho (1 - e^{-\delta \rho})
$$

To test the accuracy of these calculations, we constructed a human-size genome  $(g \approx 3 \times 10^9)$  of i.i.d. random sequence of equal base frequencies. We obtained results from MIPS-PT on the human dataset used in Chapter 6. Finally, we simulated a PCR experiment using both the test genome and the human genome (10 Apr 2003) [25, 11], assuming that the primers in the solution would all bind to complementary fragments, thus ignoring inexact binding. In accordance with the calculations, we considered a mispriming event an instance of a matching event occurring in one strand and another matching event occurring on the opposite strand within  $\delta = 500$  bp. Table 7.2 shows the total degeneracy of the solution, the number of predicted mispriming events, and finally the number of mispriming events seen in the simulation of the test and human genomes.

		Total Degeneracy    Predicted   Random Genome   Human Genome				
84720	0.009		82254			
321456	0.133		112162			
1262260	2.063		64938			
4824870	30.12		201209			

Table 7.2: Predicted and actual mispriming rates in simulated PCR experiments with i.i.d. random and human genome.

The model predicts the mispriming rate well for the test genome, however fails to predict the same for the human genome. In the next section we discuss implications of these results, the complexity involved in properly calculating the expected human mispriming rate and possible heuristics that can be employed to select effective degenerate primers which do not misprime with such high frequency.

Early data from the results of the Human Genome Project [25] strongly suggest that the sequence and frequency of the bases of the human genome is not random. The evidence lies in the presence of interspersed repeats and regions of low-complexity sequence [21, 22]. The presence of repetitive elements in the human genome can affect the mispriming rate of the MIPS solver by violating the implicit assumption that a degenerate primer's mispriming rate is solely determined by the degeneracy of the primer.

#### 7.2.2 Reducing Mispriming Events

Consider an input sequence that contains fragments which are overrepresented in the genome. If MIPS selects any of these loci as the primer binding site in the final solution, the likelihood of a mispriming event increases when screened against the sequence of the human genome. The solution to this problem, therefore, is not to allow MIPS to select these fragments. For this, we processed the input sequences with RepeatMasker [23], which masks sequence fragments which are overrepresented in certain genomes, in our case 'Primates'. Using the human SNP input set, Figure 7.1 shows the results of applying RepeatMasker and the percentage of bases that were masked by the algorithm.

A side effect of using the masked input set was that two of the sequences of the input set were rendered unusable. The masking process effectively reduces the size of the input sequences and therefore the possible binding sites. Two of the input sequences did not contain 20 consecutive unmasked bases, or any possible binding sites, so they were omitted. Table 7.3 shows the reduction in mispriming events when the input sequences are masked by comparing the mispriming rates of the results of MIPS-PT on the unmasked input set versus the masked input set.



ost repeats fragmented by insertions or deletions have been counted as one element

The sequence(s) were assumed to be of primate origin. RepeatMasker version 07/07/2001 , default mode run with cross\_match version 0.990329 RepBase Update 6.3, vs 05152001

Figure 7.1: Results of RepeatMasker on human SNP input dataset.

Table 7.3: Mispriming rates in simulated PCR experiments with original and masked input sets

Degeneracy Threshold   Original		Masked
$4^6 \approx 4K$	82254	164
$4^7 \approx 16K$	112162	1104
$4^8 \approx 64K$	64938	2043
$4^9 \approx 262K$	201209	17337

Empirically, these results seem to indicate that simply removing overrepresented fragments from the input set render the results of MIPS far more useful in practice by reducing the number of predicted PCR artifacts.

Another interesting result of masking the input sequences for this particular dataset is the resulting solution from MIPS-PT. Intuitively, it is expected that reducing the size of the input set would likely increase both the size and total degeneracy of the final solution when compared to the original data set since the likelihood of finding similar fragments is decreased. Table 7.4 shows the number of primers selected and total degeneracy of the final solutions for both the original and masked input set. The full output of MIPS-PT for both of these input sets can be found in Appendix B. For each degeneracy threshold tested, MIPS-PT selected fewer primers for the masked data set and on two occassions the total degeneracy of those primers was also less than that of the original set.

	Original		Masked	
<i>Threshold</i>	# Primers	Degeneracy	# Primers	Degeneracy
$4^6 \approx 4K$	53	84720	49	128144
$4^7 \approx 16K$	44	321456	42	319872
$4^8 \approx 64K$	36	$1.262 * 10^6$	34	$1.299 * 10^6$
$4^9 \approx 262K$	29	$4.824 * 10^6$	28	$4.277 * 10^6$

Table 7.4: Comparison of MIPS-PT results on original and masked input sets.

#### 7.2.3 Alternate Strategies to Mispriming

Using RepeatMasker on the input set dramatically reduces the number of expected mispriming events by eliminating input sequence fragments which are overrepresented in the genome. However, it is still possible that one or more of the degenerate primers selected represents an overrepresented fragment which does not occur at all in the input set. Consider this simple example where the sequence ACACACAC is a repetitive element in the human genome. If the final solution of MIPS includes the primer MMMMMMM where M is the degenerate nucleotide which represents  $\{A, C\}$ , then this solution could lend itself to a large number of mispriming events even though the particular repetitive sequence is not necessarily a part of the input set.

The problem is that certain degenerate primers represent overrepresented sequence fragments and it is not desirable to select these primers in any final solution. Therefore, we want a method to determine whether or not a given degenerate primer is likely to cause a large number of mispriming events before it is selected as part of a final solution. A simple workaround would be to maintain a list of each degenerate primer and its frequency in the human genome. A scoring function could then be generated to calculate the likelihood of a degenerate primer being involved in a mispriming event. However, there are over  $10^{24}$  degenerate primers of length 20 and maintaining such a data structure is currently infeasible.

Another workaround would be to dynamically calculate such a likelihood for each primer as they are encountered in the beam search. It is feasible to estimate the probability of a degenerate sequence appearing in a complex background model such as the human genome using a high-order Markov model and a dynamic programming algorithm, similar to the Viterbi algorithm [8].

### Chapter 8

### Conclusions

SNP Genotyping is poised to become an important procedure in the future of human genomics. Based on sound theoretical principles, the application ideas in various domains are on the verge of implementation. One of the final barriers to realizing this promise rests in a practical, cost-efficient technique for large-scale DNA analysis. The work of this thesis focuses on a problem that arises in high-throughput multiplex PCR experiments, which is a major part of one of the proposed SNP Genotyping techniques.

We developed an iterative beam-search heuristic, MIPS, for this problem which can be used to select a set of degenerate primers for a given set of sequences. This algorithm compares favorably to an existing algorithm for similar problems. Using both theoretical calculations and experimental analysis, we have shown that MIPS provides results which are close to the theoretical limits of degenerate primer design. We also discussed the practical limitations of the algorithm and the modifications that can be employed to improve upon the solutions. MIPS is neither time nor memory intensive and could conceivably be used as a desktop tool. The overall effectiveness of this algorithm will ultimately be determined by the application of the resulting primers in biological experiments.

# Appendix A

### MIPS Pseudocode

#### Algorithm 1 MIPS( $S, \alpha$ )

- 1: Initialize Global variables (2-D matrices): BEST candidate fragments; COVERED - sequences covered; ALLOWABLE - remaining degeneracy,  $ALLOWABLE(0, 0) = \alpha.$
- 2: for  $p = 1$  to the number of degenerate primers that will be used do
- 3: Let  $c =$  the maximum number of sequences that the  $(p-1)$  primers covered
- 4: while  $c > 0$  do
- 5: MIPS\_SEARCH( $S$  COVERED( $p-1, c$ ), ALLOWABLE( $p-1, c$ ),  $p, c$ )
- 6: if this search covers S, print solution and exit
- 7: else  $c=c-1$
- 8: end while
- 9: end for

```
1: Input: Sequence set S, degeneracy bound \alpha, primer number p, sequences covered
c.
```
- 2: Output: total number of sequences covered
- 3: Initialize priority queue  $Q$  of size  $b$ ;
- 4: Perform pair-wise comparisons.
- 5: for all sequence  $S_i \in \mathcal{S}$  do
- 6: **for all** substring  $S_i[j, l]$  **do**

7: Let 
$$
\mathcal{C} = \{ x | \langle f, x \rangle \in T \text{ and } f \text{ is a } k\text{-length substring of } S_i[j, l] \}
$$

8: **for all** fragment  $C_k \in \mathcal{C}$  do

9: 
$$
D = S_i[j, L] + C_k
$$

```
10: Insert D into queue Q
```
- 11: end for
- 12: end for
- 13: end for

```
14: Let c' = c
```
- 15: while queue  $Q$  is not empty do
- 16: Let  $P =$  the best element of  $Q$
- 17: if degeneracy( $P$ ) < degeneracy( $BEST(p, c)$ ) then
- 18:  $\text{BEST}(p, c') = P$
- 19:  $ALLOWABLE(p, c') = \alpha \text{degeneracy}(P)$
- 20:  $COVERED(p, c') = CONERED(p-1, c) \cup covers(P, S)$
- 21:  $Q = ONE\text{ }PASS(Q, \mathcal{S}, \alpha)$
- 22: end if

```
23:0' = c' + 1
```

```
24: end while
```
25: return  $(c' + 1)$ 

#### Algorithm 3 ONE PASS $(Q, \mathcal{S}, \alpha)$

```
1: Input: Priority queue Q, set of sequences S, degeneracy bound \alpha.
```
- 2: **Output**: Priority queue  $Q'$
- 3: for all primer  $P \in Q$  do
- 4: for all sequence  $S_i \in \mathcal{S}$  do
- 5: if  $S_i \notin \text{ covers}(P)$  then
- 6: **for all** substring  $S_i[j, l]$  do
- 7:  $D = S_i[j, l] + P$
- 8: Insert  $D$  into queue  $Q'$
- 9: end for
- $10:$  end if
- 11: end for
- 12: end for

```
13: return Q'
```
# Appendix B

# Supplemental Data

The following figures are the full output of MIPS-PT on a dataset of regions of human DNA surrounding 95 known SNP locations.

MIPS-PT Output Primer Size: 20 Primer Degeneracy Threshold: 4100 Beam Size: 100 Pair Fragment Size: 6

Number of Sequences: 190



Total Degeneracy: 84720

Figure B.1: MIPS-PT output with  $\alpha = 4^6$ .

MIPS-PT Output Primer Size: 20 Primer Degeneracy Threshold: 16400 Beam Size: 100 Pair Fragment Size: 6 Number of Sequences: 190 Total # Primers: 44 Primers Degeneracy # Covered TGWADWAABTMHYDARKMAA 10368 3<br>WMMKCYCADCTRDSTKCYTS 9216 3 WMMKCYCADCTRDSTKCYTS 9216 3<br>AARYCWKSAABATWKTADKS 4608 3 AARYCWKSAABATWKTADKS CMYSRWRTCCWGSYTCCCWG 1024 3 BMTBTSAARGSAACYRYWCA 2304 3 WSMHAKMCCTWBACTGTHCA 1728 3 ASMWCYTBHTSTKAAATTWG 1152 3 KKRDDGTGDGTRARMRKRAA 13824 4 ARTASSWDRHGDRRGWTCMC 13824 4 TYMAWRACTGWKDYMWKWTK 12288 4 TDWTAGAAANRMAADDWYTW 6912 4 CTCTYWBHWGYYTGKDTCYW 6912 4 TKTNRSDKATGAGAGDRVWG 6912 4 ASTYTCWWSAYCAKYMMMWY 8192 4<br>MWGCYTCTKBCMWHYWCABA 6912 4 MWGCYTCTKBCMWHYWCABA 6912 4 CCWMYTYWRSTGRVYKTGCW 6144 4 AMWYKWAKGAAHDTSTTTMY 4608 4 TRAAWYYYSTYTMTGWBWTW 6144 4 TTCTTYYKMWYWGVRATBYC 4608 4 MAYTGMTTWTGHRWWWTKWA 3072 4 YHTMATCWKMTKTYWYWTTT 3072 4<br>ASACAKARGKVASRDCYWRG 4608 4 ASACAKARGKVASRDCYWRG 4608 4<br>sycwkyctchtycmvrccar 4608 4 SYCWKYCTCHTYCMVRCCAR 4608 4<br>AKTAABTWWTATYTSYWYWW 3072 4 AKTAABTWWTATYTSYWYWW 3072 4 KBTWAAYAGWTTADGWHWWT 3456 4 SCCAKWGWCWGADWTYYTTB 2304 4 YWMCMCTBYWWCHTCTCYYM 9216 5 KGDAKKGRSWGAYWTYCYTT 3072 4 YTASRRTYTHCWHTYTBYAW 13824 5 AGAVRAGCARARRGRBSWWA 2304 4 CTGVYTKGARRRAMSWCAMT 1536 4<br>WAAMAWWDRTSAYTGMMDYT 9216 5 WAAMAWWDRTSAYTGMMDYT 9216 5<br>WRWGYTSSSWTWABWGSYGT 12288 5 WRWGYTSSSWTWABWGSYGT 12288 GRDGAAABKKARRBTKTAWD 10368 5<br>SCTKNYYWYCWCMYCTVYCA 12288 5 SCTKNYYWYCWCMYCTVYCA 12288 5<br>ATWWNTWYTKTKGBHMTTTR 9216 5 ATWWNTWYTKTKGBHMTTTR 9216<br>TYMTTYARAHWSAWRRYAWA 6144 TYMTTYARAHWSAWRRYAWA 6144 5<br>MMMVAACAVAYRMASRSVCA 13824 5 MMMVAACAVAYRMASRSVCA 13824 5 TTKADKDAWMTTWHTYWAWG 6912 5 KAKGMAATBARDRMHDAAVT 15552 6 WMBATTKTKHDTWTYYAWMT 13824 6 AWMVARARSRARAAMAMRKW 12288 6 TWKTTTDTTDKTHTDTBTKA 3888 6 AKWYYYTKTYTCHWAAAHWD 13824 7 ---

Total Degeneracy: 321456

Figure B.2: MIPS-PT output with  $\alpha = 4^7$ .

MIPS-PT Output Primer Size: 20 Primer Degeneracy Threshold: 66000 Beam Size: 100 Pair Fragment Size: 6 Number of Sequences: 190 Total # Primers: 36 Degeneracy # Covered TGCTATGCCCAGGTGGCCAG 1 1 YHYAGTWTMAAWBKRYWRMA 18432 3 TDABRMMRYTTTMWTKATSA 4608 3 YMYMCMTTBYBSHRHYAACT 41472 4 WHTVWCCWHYYKBCTSTSAG 20736 4 SMRABCWNHTBWACAKRWWT 55296 5 DATGRHTRTCYTBWTBHABT 11664 4 YTVWGDKGARKAAMDTSAVA 10368 4 CTCTYHBHWKYYTGBDTCYD 46656 5 CASAVAKVAGGHRGSHHHRW 46656 5 HGTSDVSWKGRARGVSCYSC 41472 5 TTBCYDTWCYMYWWHWMABC 41472 5 RTKTGAWKWRNRTGDRWWTR 24576 5<br>YTSDBAGCHARRSSWWSKWG 55296 5 YTSDBAGCHARRSSWWSKWG 55296 5 MDGGARRCCTBYKSMYWYMW 36864 5 SADRSTRASTKYTYCCHDRW 27648 5 MTTCAHSMHTWRRWTKDRSA 27648 5 TSTCTKYDKKYMYBTVCTTK 13824 5 KHAMWWWRTAHKAARMWKTT 18432 5 WDCWKHTYTMTYTMAAWDYH 41472 6 RWWTYHAHWRATATWWHKTB 41472 6 WWMCCTBYWWHMTMTCWKNT 36864 6<br>TKMTRKTYTBVAWAWMTDKS 27648 5 TKMTRKTYTBVAWAWMTDKS 27648 5 CTGVYTKKARRRAMSWYMHT 18432 5 WRADDWKCMRAAABKSBAAV 62208 6 TMWCANTGDTKMYKNDADTT 27648 6 WWHWNTHYTKTDKGWMTTTR 55296 6 MHADAHMAVWCAMAVRCNSA 62208 6 WDYYMCMYTCCHVCYWSHCC 41472 6<br>MYTKYAVWKDAWWWYAWWAA 36864 6 MYTKYAVWKDAWWWYAWWAA 36864 6 TYBAWKKADCHTRCWTHWWK 41472 6 TATTNBCAMAAHBTWYTVHH 23328 6 WNVANTKHRAKWWTKTADAT 55296 7 AWMRRRARGRARWAMAHDKW 36864 7 TWKTYYDTTDKKHTNTNTKA 55296 8 AKWYYYTKYYTYHWAAAHWD 55296 9 --- Total Degeneracy: 1.26226e+06

Figure B.3: MIPS-PT output with  $\alpha = 4^8$ .



Total Degeneracy: 4.82487e+06

Figure B.4: MIPS-PT output with  $\alpha = 4^9$ .

MIPS-PT Output Primer Size: 20 Primer Degeneracy Threshold: 6600 Beam Size: 100 Pair Fragment Size: 6

Number of Sequences: 188

Total # Primers: 49		
Primers	Degeneracy	# Covered
GWGGKGCTRGGTGCTGRCAG	16	2
TATGAATWTMBTKATKHAKT	288	3
TATGAATWTMBTKATKHAKT	288	3
TATGAATWTMBTKATKHAKT	288	3
CWSTHTCTRMWTCTGYCMTM	768	3
AWAYRGAGHRWWWRAAAAAA	768	3
ATAAMWTGRRAGSMAMRTVA	768	3
CCWYDAACWTTTMWKAAYAK	768	3
CMRCACRAAKMAGGWGRCMW	512	3
YWARAGGAWKAGCTRTGBTS	384	3
MRGTYAWSTTBATAAKMTCT	384	3
SWKTTTCYKYTSMCWKKGGM	4096	4
AMTTCTSSCMRDKRWMTGRY	6144	4
MYHTTTTWYWKHAARAWMTG	4608	$\overline{4}$
WDWSTGWKTGAVCWKGRASG	4608	4
RWATGHMATATTKTWRATBH	1728	4
ATWTRSYTWTBCAKTTSHAM	2304	$\overline{4}$
GGAWMATRABVAYATBRAWS	3456	4
AMWYKWAKGAAHDTSTTTMY	4608	$\overline{4}$
ASACAKARGKVASRDCYWRG	4608	4
WGTWYBTTTMWKAHTDTAWA	3456	4
RTBCYSWDTBTAWAAATRYA	3456	$\overline{4}$
RGMWTYTTSMCKWWGSMAGM	4096	4
CMYAGWCTSWYYSARRSCAR	4096	4
TRRATTYTBTBDCTGWTRWM	3456	$\overline{4}$
TGWAWTYWTWDATATHWWKT	2304	4
YWWWAWAMWAWKVATTTART	3072	$\overline{4}$
AGHMAWWRTTMWYAMAAAYY	3072	4
TWYAAWTARTKACWDAVWCD	3456	$\overline{4}$
ARMTTTTYTHTHTSAHTWTB	2592	4
YTASRRTTTHCWHTYTKCAW	2304	$\overline{4}$
		4
WACCCTBYWWCHTCTCYYMK	2304	$\overline{4}$
KTTKSWGKTYTTHMMMACTR	3072	
RTAAMATWWKCCCHSASRBA	2304	$\overline{4}$
TAAMAWWRRTSAYTGMMDTT	1536	4
CHCHCARGYCASYTWYSWTT	2304	4
AGAVRAGCARARRGRBSWWA	2304	$\overline{4}$
ATRKKRGRMCTKTGGTRRRW	2048	4
ATWWBTWCTKTKGSYMTTTR	1536	$\overline{4}$
CMADAMMARWCAMARRCNCA	3072	4
MTKKMARWGRAWDTCATWAM	3072	$\overline{4}$
TTWHWTTAAAWWMRWGRWWW	6144	5
MTCYYCMYTCYHDCCWCYCC	2304	$\overline{4}$
TYTBYWWAMTGTAATADRMM	2304	4
TTTYYCWMKYYWWMCCTTTW	2048	$\overline{4}$
TTKARKDAACTTWHTYWAWG	1152	$\overline{4}$
AKSHAATKAVDAAWDRAAWG	5184	5
WMBATTKTKHRTATYYAWMT	4608	5
AWMRARARGRARAAMAMRKW 4096		5
Total Degeneracy:	128144	

Figure B.5: MIPS-PT output on masked input set with  $\alpha = 4^6$ .

MIPS-PT Output Primer Size: 20 Primer Degeneracy Threshold: 16400 Beam Size: 100 Pair Fragment Size: 6 Number of Sequences: 188 Total # Primers: 42 Primers Degeneracy # Covered ADAYRGARHDHWWVAAAAAA 7776 4 RAAANAMWAAATGRSSRHVS 9216 4 TATDWCWKWYTWTWWATVMH 13824 5 ARGMYATSAAANBWMYMTKT 6144 4 KMRADGGRHAAARGRAWGAV 3456 4 YTKVCCTVTGTGNSDCCBBT 7776 4 YTWVTRAMYWYCTTTMTVTH 6912 4 RCARAASSAWBWGYKDTGDT 6912 4 CTRWWTSTSYCYWAGANKHA 6144 4 WRCMCTSHTWCYTCTSYYMK 6144 4  $\begin{array}{ccc} \texttt{WDWSTGWKTGAVCWKGRASG} & \begin{array}{c} 4608 \\ 4608 \end{array} & \begin{array}{c} 4 \\ 4 \end{array} \\ \begin{array}{c} 4 \\ 4 \end{array} \end{array}$ ASACAKARGKVASRDCYWRG 4608 4 GKDMYCAKKRTADAWMTGCW 4608 4 YABAWHKWDTTYTTMAAAAW 3456 4<br>GGAWMATGWBSACAKSVMWS 4608 4 GGAWMATGWBSACAKSVMWS 4608 4<br>WWYTDWTWTWKMRTTWTTTA 3072 4 WWYTDWTWTWKMRTTWTTTA 3072 4<br>WRHATKYAYRAATATMWTKW 3072 4 WRHATKYAYRAATATMWTKW 3072 4 RAYYTCTBBCCAKTMTMYRR 4608 4 CMYAGWCTSWYYSARRSCAR 4096 4 AKTAAYTWWKWTKKSYWCWA 4096 4 WTWYTTHAWAWVAWKDTKWA 13824 5 YTWCADWTWATTWHWAAMAH 3456 4<br>WTTWVTMWCTYVATATYAYK 2304 4 WTTWVTMWCTYVATATYAYK 2304 4 AGAVRAGCARARRGRBSWWA 2304 4<br>MWWWAWAMYRWGMATYWMRT 16384 5 MWWWAWAMYRWGMATYWMRT 16384 5 KGDAKKGRSWGAYWTYCYTT 3072 4 TMTKTGKKTMKDYRCHTBTS 13824 5 WTWTHYTDTWTYTAWAAHWW 6912 5 CHCHMARGHCABYTWYVWTT 15552 5 TTKYDKKDCWTHAAAAYTDK 10368 5 TGGKGHCYVHRKYTYWSCYC 13824 5 WTWWVTWYTKTKGKWMTKTR 12288 5 RDAACATWTKYSMMMAVRBA 13824 5 TYTHTCTYTYTDDAYYKWYT 6912 5 TTWHWTTAAAWWMRWGRWWW 6144 5 TYTBBWWAMTGTAATWDDMH 15552 5 HTTDMRDARRAWWTMATWAA 6912 5 CTKNYYWYCWCMYCTVYCAS 12288 5 TTKADKDAWMTTWHTYWAWG 6912 5 AKSHAATKAVDAAWDRAAWG 5184 5 WMBATTKTKHRTATYYAWMT 4608 5 AWMRARARGRARWAMAHRKW 12288 6 ---

Total Degeneracy: 319872

Figure B.6: MIPS-PT output on masked input set with  $\alpha = 4^7$ .



Total Degeneracy: 1.29923e+06

Figure B.7: MIPS-PT output on masked input set with  $\alpha = 4^8$ .

MIPS-PT Output					
Primer Size: 20					
Primer Degeneracy Threshold: 262200					
Beam Size: 100					
Pair Fragment Size: 6					
Number of Sequences: 188					
Total # Primers: 28					
Primers	Degeneracy # Covered				
GKDMYCAKKRTADAWMTGCW	4608	4			
WTDYCYTKHHYTTWDVWHWA	186624	6			
VMADKAMHHATKRHAGWDNT	186624	6			
AWARHHWWRDMRTTNHMART	165888	6			
AWYTBHBHTWKMVYWWTYTA	124416	6			
TWDRHANRMAWTATTNYMRM	73728	6			
VNDRGVAAARDGMWCWBWKS	248832	7			
TDWWTKNRHRAANWKAWTDW	221184	7			
BVADMMYBYTHCCCAMMYSH	186624	6			
BHHHWVTTBAKAWKMTSTSK	186624	6			
AKHAWHTTKYMDWTBNMCWR	165888	6			
NWWSWWWTWWDKAMWAAMAH	147456	7			
ADBTWTWTNCAKYWADHDVW	186624	7			
CYTBYHYWSSWYCCCWVHCM	82944	6			
YWWDAWWMWHWKNATBTRRT	221184	7			
ATWTYHTDWHWHYWRNAAHA	124416	7			
DAAMAYHWBMMCMCWKGKVK	82944	6			
WABVDTTTMMDHTYTWMWWW	124416	7			
CMCAGWBKNWHKVARRCMHR	165888	7			
ATDKKRGRMMYNKGGKRRVW	147456	7			
WTWDVWDYTKTKGKHHTKTR	124416	7			
DSNAKDGRSDGANWTYYYTK	221184	8			
MYTKHANWKDAWDWYAWWAA	110592	7			
HBSKGWCTGHRDTYYTSHBC	93312	7			
TTKHNDDAWMTTWHYYHAWR	248832	8			
RRSNRAKGRDDAARKRRAWS	147456	8			
WHBATTKTKHRDAWHYHWMT 186624 8					
AWMVWRARSRARDAMAHRKW 110592		8			
Degeneracy: 4.27738e+06 Total					

Figure B.8: MIPS-PT output on masked input set with  $\alpha = 4^9$ .

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