A new algorithm for primer design

Debanjan Guha Roy
*The University of Western Ontario*

Supervisor
Ilie, Lucian
*The University of Western Ontario*

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Abstract

The Polymerase Chain Reaction (PCR) technology is widely used to create DNA copies. It has impacted many diverse fields including genetics, forensics, molecular paleontology, medical applications and environmental microbiology.

The main object in PCR is a primer, a short single strand of DNA, about 18-25 bases long, that serves as the starting point of DNA synthesis. Primers are essential for DNA replication because the enzymes that catalyze this process, DNA polymerases, can only add new nucleotides to an existing strand of DNA. The PCR starts at the 3' end of the primer and copies the opposite strand.

Designing good primers is essential for a successful PCR process. Primer3 is one of the main available programs that produce primers for a variety of applications. Other programs, such as PrimerBLAST, QuantPrime and PRIMEGENS, depend on Primer3 for generating candidate primers and then subject them to specificity checking. The primers produced must not have high similarity with sequences other than their targets, as this would enable unwanted cross-hybridization. We will discuss these techniques, focusing on the parameters required for designing good primers and the pros and cons of some of the above mentioned programs. We introduce a new program, bestPrimer, that produces better primers and runs faster as shown by extensive comparison with Primer3.

Keywords: DNA, Primer, Polymerase Chain Reaction, Primer3, bestPrimer
Summary for lay audience

DNA samples need to be amplified into multiple copies for research purposes. This can be done using a technology called Polymerase Chain Reaction (PCR), which has impacted many diverse fields including genetics, forensics, molecular paleontology, medical applications and environmental microbiology. The process requires a small fragment of DNA called a primer, which acts as the starting point of the DNA replication. Primers are essential for the PCR reaction to be successful, because the replication can only take place from one of the specific ends of the primer.

There are several programs available for designing primers. Primer3 is one popular program for primer design that considers several factors for designing primers. The primers produced must not have high similarity with sequences other than their targets, as this would enable unwanted cross-hybridization. We will discuss these techniques, focusing on the parameters required for designing good primers and introduce a new program, bestPrimer, that produces better primers and runs faster as shown by extensive comparison with Primer3.
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Chapter 1

Introduction

Polymerase Chain Reaction (PCR) is a common laboratory technique used to make millions of copies of a region of DNA. PCR requires a DNA polymerase enzyme that makes new strands of DNA. The DNA polymerase generally used in PCR is called Taq polymerase. Taq polymerase can only make DNA if it is given a primer. Primers are short single-stranded artificial DNA (oligomers) about 18 to 25 nucleotides long that matches the beginning and end of the DNA fragment to be amplified. The primers anneal to a specific region in the DNA template by complementary base pairing. After the primers bind the DNA-Polymerase binds and begins the synthesis of the new DNA strand.

PCR and primer design application are diverse. PCR is used in many different areas of biology and medicine including molecular biology research, medical diagnostics and even some branches of ecology. Choosing the right primer for PCR is one of the most crucial factors determining the outcome and quality of the PCR.

There are several programs available for designing PCR and sequencing primers. Primer3 \[1\] is one of the widely used programs in this field. Other programs like Primer-BLAST \[2\], QuantPrime \[3\] and PRIMEGENS \[4\] use the Primer3 software to design primer pair candidates with added functionalities. Primer3 does not perform target analysis, i.e., it does not take into consideration the similarity of suggested primers with their non-targets. Since they allow primers having high similarity with unintended targets, this leads to unwanted cross-hybridization. QuantPrime is a specialized tool to design target-specific primers for detecting mRNA in real-time PCR. Likewise, the PRIMEGENS Sequence Specific Primer Design tool can be used for specific primer design for a limited number of organisms. However, neither of these tools guarantees an accurate count of nucleotide matches between primer and target since they both use a local alignment algorithm (i.e., BLAST) alone for the similarity search and thus may miss part of alignment between primer and target. Primer-BLAST uses BLAST along with the Needleman-Wunsch (NW) global alignment algorithm \[5\] to look for matches between the primers and targets.

Apart from specificity check, several other factors are considered for designing a good primer such as:

- GC content
- Melting Temperature
• Secondary structures etc.

We present a new standalone program bestPrimer that designs highly specific primers after considering all factors and performing a thorough similarity search using multiple spaced seeds computed by SpEED [6]. bestPrimer produces better primers and finds the largest number of unique primers for the given template sequence as shown by extensive comparison with Primer3. This tool can also be used to evaluate the specificity of pre-existing primers. bestPrimer is implemented using C++ and OpenMP. It does not use any external software, is easy to use and allows the user to adjust a variety of parameters through command line argument.

The thesis is organized as follows. In Chapter 2, we provide a brief introduction to molecular biology and the process of nucleic acid amplification, followed by the new algorithm to design PCR primer in Chapter 3. In Chapter 4, we show comparison between bestPrimer and Primer3, and finally a brief discussion of the achievements in Chapter 5.
Chapter 2

Background

In this chapter, we introduce the basic concepts and definitions of molecular biology, followed by the concepts of Polymerase Chain Reaction (PCR) and primers. Then we explain the central problem of this thesis, primer design, and discuss some of the leading programs in this field.

2.1 Molecular biology

In this section, we present a brief introduction to basic terminology of molecular biology in order to have a better insight into the following topics.

2.1.1 Organisms and cells

An organism is an individual entity that exhibits the properties of life [7]. Each organism is a living framework made from one or more cells. Some organisms are composed of a single cell, called unicellular organisms and others are composed of many units, called multi-cellular organisms. A cell is called the structural and functional unit of life [8]. It is a functional unit because all the functions of the body such as physiological, biochemical, genetic and other metabolic functions are carried out by cells. Cells are classified into two types, Prokaryotic cells which are usually singleton and Eukaryotic cells which are found in a multi-cellular organism (Fig.2.1). Prokaryotic cells lack a nuclear membrane, so DNA is unbound inside the cell while eukaryotic cells have a nuclear membrane. All cells, regardless of whether prokaryotic or eukaryotic, have a membrane, which wraps the cell, isolates its inside from its environment, directs what moves in and out, and keeps up the electric potential of the cell. Inside the membrane, a salty cytoplasm takes up the greater part of the cell volume. All cells have DNA, the hereditary material of genes, and RNA, containing the information important to build different proteins such as enzymes. There are additionally other kinds of bio-molecules in a cell. All cells share several similar functions such as reproduction, metabolism, transportation and secretion of substances.
2.1.2 DNA, RNA and proteins

DNA, deoxyribonucleic acid, is the blueprint of life in humans and almost all other organisms [9]. It contains the information the cell requires to synthesize protein and to replicate itself. The famous double helical structure of DNA has its own significance (Fig. 2.2). The information in DNA is stored as a code made up of four nucleotide bases, which make up the DNA: Adenine (A), Guanine (G), Thymine (T) and Cytosine (C). Each base has its complementary base, which means in the double helical structure of DNA, A will have T as its complement and similarly G will have C. DNA molecules are incredibly long. The complete set of DNA sequences is called genome. The human genome contains approximately 3 billion base pairs. The DNA is broken down into bits and is tightly wound into coils, which are called chromosomes; human beings have 23 pairs of chromosomes. These chromosomes are further broken down into smaller pieces of code called genes. The 23 pairs of chromosomes consist of about 70,000 genes and every gene has its own function. A gene is the basic physical and functional unit of heredity. Some genes act as instructions to make molecules called proteins. However, many genes do not code for proteins. The relationship between genome, chromosomes and genes is shown in the Fig. 2.3.

RNA is somewhat like DNA, they both are nucleic acids of nitrogen-containing bases joined by the sugar-phosphate backbone. However structural and functional differences distinguish RNA from DNA. RNA is single-stranded whereas DNA is double-stranded (Fig. 2.2). RNA is made up of Uracil (U) in place of Thymine (T) in DNA. RNA uses the protein-encoding information maintained by DNA to enable the cell to synthesize a protein. The gene’s sequence contained in the DNA instructs the cell to manufacture a particular protein. A certain encoded
sequence of RNA translates a gene’s message into a protein’s amino acid sequence. It is the protein that determines the trait.

All nucleic acids have two distinctive ends: the 5′-end and 3′-end. This terminology refers to the 5′ and 3′ carbons on the sugar. For both DNA and RNA, the 5′-end bears a phosphate, and the 3′-end a hydroxyl group.

2.1.3 Nucleic acid thermodynamics

In its natural state, DNA is a large biological macro-molecule. It is composed of two single strands held together along their length with hydrogen bonds between the bases. Each single strand is a long polymer of nucleotide monomers that bind perfectly to the complementary bases of another strand through hydrogen bonds which is called hybridization or annealing. This gives the DNA its double helix structure. However, the two strands can be separated by heating often called DNA melting or denaturation [10]. During this process, the double-stranded DNA unwinds and separates into single strands by breaking the hydrogen bonds between the complementary base pairs (Fig. 2.4). In DNA the GC pairs are bound with three hydrogen bonds whereas the AT pairs are bound with two hydrogen bonds (Fig. 2.5). DNA
with less GC content is less stable than DNA with higher GC content, however, the stability of DNA does not depend on the hydrogen bonds but rather on base stacking. GC content (Guanine-Cytosine content) is the percentage of nitrogenous bases in the DNA molecule, which is directly proportional to the melting temperature of the DNA. Melting temperature of DNA is the temperature when half of the strands are in the double-helical state and half are in the random-coil state.

Several studies have been proposed to determine the melting temperature of DNA. The Nearest Neighbor model is a widely used approach [11]. We will explain the concepts of GC content and melting temperature and why they are crucial in our problem along with the approach used to calculate the melting temperature of DNA in details in Chapter 3.

### 2.2 Polymerase Chain Reaction (PCR) and primers

Polymerase Chain Reaction (PCR) is a method for making multiple copies of a specific DNA sequence in a test tube [12] (Fig.2.6). The process involves the use of primers, which are short single stranded segments of DNA made in a laboratory [13]. Primers are custom designed and can be made up of different nucleotide sequences to best fit the needs. Primers are selected to give the best specificity possible while maintaining an efficient PCR amplification. To begin the process of PCR, the DNA polymerase enzyme needs a base to add new nucleotide sequences. Primers act as the starting foundation for the DNA replication process and they are used to mark off the segment of the DNA template to be amplified. In this process two primers anneal to the specific segment of the DNA template; the forward primer attaches itself to the forward strand while the reverse primer attaches itself to the reverse strand (Fig.2.7). Extension takes
place at the 3′-end of the primer. An amplicon is a piece of DNA or RNA that is the source and/or product of amplification or replication events. Although primers can be composed of RNA, DNA primers are more suitable for PCR because they are more temperature stable.

### 2.2.1 Types of PCR

Over the years many variations of the basic PCR technique have been developed, some of which follow the original technique and others which follow on from or resemble an entirely different form.

*Quantitative PCR (qPCR)* often called real-time PCR is an extension of the basic PCR technique. The aim of qPCR is to measure exactly how much of the DNA is being produced and expressed over time which enables researchers to quantify the exact amount of DNA within a sample. It works almost in the exact same way as regular PCR, however, to track the amount of DNA produced, DNA probes are added to the mixture before the reaction takes place. DNA probes or oligonucleotides are short single-stranded fragments of DNA which can be labeled with a molecular marker of either radioactive or fluorescent molecules to detect the hybridization of the probe to its target sequence. The fluorescent reporter head is released from the probe once the DNA is copied. As millions of DNA strands finish transcription, the strong fluorescent response can be directly captured by an optical camera. The amplitude of the response can then be plotted out with a brighter fluorescence corresponding to a greater concentration.
Nested PCR is another similar technique, which aims to reduce non-specific amplification of the DNA template. This process includes two primer sets and two successive PCR reactions. The first reaction is performed with primers that cover the target sequence and some additional sequence flanking both ends of the target sequence. After the first reaction, a second reaction is carried out on the products of the first PCR with primers that bind to the target sequence and are within the amplified sequence of the first PCR. This reduces the amount of non-specific binding because, in the second reaction, most of the amplicons of the first reaction only contain the target sequence and its surrounding sequences.

Multiplex PCR is used to amplify several different DNA sequences within the same sample. This is achieved by using multiple primers at the same time. However, there are several factors which must be paid attention to. The primers must have minimal overlap between primer specificity. Cross-template binding can be a disaster. The primers must be short usually 18-22 base pairs long, such that the chance of any cross-hybridization is minimized. Furthermore, it is highly important that the different primers all respond and anneal at similar temperatures. If all the above conditions are met it is possible to replicate huge amounts of different DNA in a single PCR process instead of using multiple PCR, saving a lot of time and money.

Reverse Transcription PCR is often confused with real-time PCR; however, this technique is entirely different. This technique starts with an RNA template and works in reverse, producing a strand of complementary DNA through the use of an enzyme known as reverse transcriptase. This complementary DNA can then be amplified by a methodology very similar to the basic PCR process. This process can either be done entirely within one test tube known as “one-step RT-PCT” with the advantage of controlling any possible temperature or other vari-
2.2. Polymerase Chain Reaction (PCR) and primers

2.2.2 PCR-field of applications

PCR has impacted many diverse fields including medicine, molecular paleontology and forensics.

Forensics is one of the most well-known applications of PCR. Before the advent of PCR, a small sample of DNA may not have been sufficient to perform testing and draw an accurate conclusion. However, by using PCR scientists and researchers can now generate enough DNA to identify remains, for example at the scene of accidents and natural (or man-made) disasters such as earthquakes or fires. Similarly, minute samples of DNA recovered from crime scenes can be replicated using PCR to identify criminals.
Modern medicine has several applications of PCR, for example, PCR has become an important tool in the field of cancer research. It can be used to detect some virally-induced cancers such as cervical cancer caused by the HPV (Human Papilloma Virus). PCR is also used in the field of medicine to help choose appropriate treatment for the patient. For instance, where a cancer patient’s DNA shows a specific genetic mutation that could indicate whether they will respond better to one treatment over another. Another important medical application of PCR is in the procedure of tissue typing for patients who need to undergo an organ transplant. Yet another common usage of PCR is paternity testing.

Infectious diseases in birds, animals or humans can be detected and monitored using PCR. PCR is faster than other methods to identify infectious diseases, which allow starting treatment at an early stage. PCR can identify both fungal and parasitic infection and can, for example, detect HIV infection even before any antibodies have been produced. DNA amplification is a routine method for screening donated blood to prevent infected blood to enter blood bank. In dentistry, PCR is used to diagnose maxillofacial infections, periodontal disease and mouth cancers.

In the field of genetic engineering, PCR has several applications such as gene sequencing, cloning and genotyping, and to amplify and copy DNA sequences for introduction into the host organism. It can be used to diagnose genetic diseases even before birth.

Molecular Paleontology says DNA can survive in tissues over a hundred thousand years old. However, it wasn’t until the development of PCR that ancient DNA samples could be amplified and studied. This technique can be used on samples of mummified tissue, ancient flora and fauna, or recent fossils and sub-fossils to identify and learn about creatures that are now extinct, and about the processes of fossilization and evolution.
In environmental microbiology, PCR techniques have been proved to be useful in several aspects; for example, they are used to help detect and identify harmful bacteria and pathogens in public water supplies. PCR is also used to detect degrading microorganisms where toxic waste and pollution spills have occurred. This helps in determining the remedial measure and hasten the implementation of clean-up operation.

2.2.3 Types of PCR primers

There are several types of primers, choosing the right primer is of utmost importance for the outcome and quality of PCR, using the wrong primer can even cause the reaction to fail. Therefore, the more information we know about the DNA sequence the easier it will be to choose the right primer.

*Primer pair* consists of a forward and a reverse primer. It is important that both the primers have similar melting temperatures to facilitate a successful PCR reaction. Software available identifies potential primer pairs providing their melting temperature and other primer properties.

*Universal primers*, as the name suggests, are primers that anneal with many different types of DNA templates. Universal primers are used in many PCR reactions and relate to nucleotide sequences that are commonly found in cloning vectors and DNA molecules.

*Specific primers* are used in places where the genetic sequence is already known, or a specific gene is a target. In these cases, specific primers can be used to amplify the DNA, rather than universal primers. Specific primers can be purposefully designed to amplify a particular gene, which increases the success rate of PCR.

*Special primers* include those that incorporate fluorescent dye markers which are useful in several research applications.

*Degenerate primers* are composed of two similar primers, although very similar but not exactly the same. They have specific uses, such as for copying the same gene from two different organisms and are widely used in microbial ecology.

2.3 Factors for primer design

The goal of primer design is producing good primers. There are several critical requirements to design a good primer or primer pair for a successful reaction.

*Melting temperature:* Primer melting temperature (Tm) by definition is the temperature at which half of the DNA duplex strands are in the double helical state and half are in the random coil state (Fig.2.8) \[14\]. Denaturation is the process in which proteins or nucleic acid lose the highly ordered structure in its natural state by application of some external stress (by heating, by treatment with alkali, acid, urea, or detergents). Primers with melting temperature in the range 57-63°C produce the best results. The GC content of the sequence gives a fair indication of the primer’s Tm because Tm is directly propostional to GC content.

*GC content:* The GC content of a primer is defined as the number of Guanines (G) and Cytosines (C) in the primer as a percentage of the total bases. The GC pair is bound by three hydrogen bonds while the AT pair is bound by two hydrogen bonds. DNA with low GC content is less stable than DNA with high GC content; however, the hydrogen bonds themselves do not
have a significant impact on stabilization, the stabilization is mainly due to interactions of base
stacking. Primers with GC content 40-60% are most stable and ensure stable binding between
the primer and template. The relation between GC content and melting temperature is shown
in the Fig.2.9.

*Primer length:* The optimal length of primers is 18-22 base pair (bp) long. This length is
long enough for adequate specificity and short enough for primers to bind easily to the template
at the annealing temperature.

*Secondary structures:* Nucleic acid secondary structure is the base pairing interactions
within a single nucleic acid polymer or between two polymers. Presence of secondary struc-
tures in the primers due to inter-molecular or intra-molecular interactions can result in poor
or no yield of product. Secondary structures adversely affect primer-template annealing and
thus amplification. There are three types of secondary structures that needs to be avoided while
designing primers. First, self-dimers are formed by inter-molecular interactions between two
primers (same sense), where the primer is homologous to itself. Second, cross-dimers are
formed by inter-molecular interaction between a forward and a reverse primer, where they are
complementary to each other. And hairpins loops are formed by intra-molecular interactions
within the primer (Fig.2.10).

*Specificity:* One critical primer property is the target specificity. Ideally, a primer should
only amplify the intended target, but not any unintended targets. Any amplification of non-
target will result in a poor yield of the PCR product. Hence it is of vital importance that we de-
sign primers with a certain similarity threshold towards non-targets to avoid cross-hybridization.
2.3. Factors for primer design

Figure 2.9: Relation between GC Content and melting temperature.
(http://www.biology.arizona.edu/biomath/tutorials/linear/linearfunctionapplication/dnamelt.html)

Figure 2.10: Types of secondary structures.(researchgate.net)

3'-end mismatches: A number of studies have shown that a target can be amplified even if it has a few mismatches to the primer. Mismatches towards the 3'-end affect target amplification much more than mismatches towards the 5'-end [2]. It has been established that at least a two-base mismatch at the 3'-end generally prevents amplification of non-targets. A single base mismatch at the 3'-end as well as a few mismatches in the middle or towards the 5'-end allows amplification of targets but at low efficiency. Therefore, for a high yield of PCR product, it is important to detect the number of mismatches at the 3'-end.
2.4 Sequence similarity search

Similar sequences usually have similar functions. Therefore, it is very important to detect sequence similarity. Sequence identity is described as the amount of characters which match exactly between two different sequences. This can be done using a slow dynamic programming algorithm such as Smith-Waterman [15] or Needleman-Wunsch algorithm [5] or a fast heuristic one such as BLAST [16]. We discuss them briefly in this section.

2.4.1 Dynamic programming

Dynamic programming is an optimization over plain recursion. The idea is to simply break the problem into sub-problems, store the results of sub-problems, so that we do not have to re-compute them when needed later. This simple optimization reduces time complexities from exponential to polynomial.

Smith-Waterman algorithm

The Smith-Waterman algorithm [15] is a local alignment algorithm i.e. it finds the best local alignment between two sequences (Fig. 2.12). A local alignment between two sequences is an alignment between parts of the two sequences. It applies dynamic programming to compare biological sequences. The Smith-Waterman algorithm has several steps:

- **Determine the substitution matrix and the gap penalty scheme**: A substitution matrix assigns each pair of bases a score for match or mismatch. Matches get positive scores, whereas mismatches get relatively lower scores. A gap penalty function determines the score cost for opening or extending gaps.

- **Initialize the scoring matrix**: The dimensions of the scoring matrix are \(1+\text{length of each sequence} \) respectively. All the elements of the first row and the first column are set to 0. The extra first row and first column make it possible to align one sequence to another at any position, and setting them to 0 makes the terminal gap free from penalty.

- **Scoring**: Score each element from left to right, top to bottom in the matrix, considering the outcomes of substitutions (diagonal scores) or adding gaps (horizontal and vertical scores). If none of the scores are positive, this element gets a 0. Otherwise the highest score is used and the source of that score is recorded.

- **Traceback**: Starting at the element with the highest score, traceback based on the source of each score recursively, until 0 is encountered. The segments that have the highest similarity score based on the given scoring system are generated in this process. To obtain the second best local alignment, apply the traceback process starting at the second highest score outside the trace of the best alignment.

Creating the alignment matrix and backtracking in it to find the optimal alignment takes \(O(nm)\) time and space. Fig 2.11 illustrates an example of local alignment using the Smith-Waterman algorithm for the given sequences \(X = ATGCATCCCATGAC\) and \(Y = TCTATATCCGT\), using -2 as a gap penalty, -3 as a mismatch penalty, and 2 as the score for a match.
2.4. Sequence similarity search

Figure 2.11: Smith-Waterman alignment of two sequences. (Wikipedia)

Needle-Wunsch algorithm

The Needle-Wunsch algorithm [5] is a global alignment algorithm. Global alignment aligns two complete sequences (Fig 2.12). It's algorithm is similar to that of Smith-Waterman algorithm, it is also one of the first applications of dynamic programming in comparing biological
sequences. Both algorithms use the concepts of a substitution matrix, a gap penalty function, a scoring matrix, and a traceback process. Three main differences are shown in Table 2.1.

The most important distinction is that no negative score is assigned in the scoring system of the Smith-Waterman algorithm, which enables local alignment. When any element has a score lower than zero, it means that the sequences up to this position have no similarities; this element will then be set to zero to eliminate influence from previous alignment. In this way, calculation can continue to find alignment in any position afterwards.

The initial scoring matrix of Smith–Waterman algorithm enables the alignment of any segment of one sequence to an arbitrary position in the other sequence. In Needleman–Wunsch algorithm, however, end gap penalty also needs to be considered in order to align the full sequences. The time complexity of the algorithm for two sequences of length n and m is $O(mn)$ and since the algorithm fills an $n \times m$ table the space complexity is $O(mn)$. As an example to perform global alignment using Needleman-Wunsch algorithm between the two sequences; $X = \text{ACTGATTCA}$ and $Y = \text{ACGCATCA}$, using -2 as a gap penalty, -3 as a mismatch penalty, and 2 as the score for a match, results in the following alignment Fig. 2.13:

![Figure 2.13: Needleman-Wunsch alignment of two sequences.](https://www.cs.utoronto.ca/brudno/bcb410/lec2notes.pdf)
BLAST

The Smith-Waterman and Needle-Wunsch dynamic programming algorithm for alignment are highly accepted due to its high sensitivity, however its quadratic time complexity makes it impossible to be used with large genome sequences. Thus, heuristic approaches that can identify similarities between sequences were needed. BLAST [16] also known as Basic Local Alignment Search tool, became the most widely used algorithm in finding similarities. It is assumed that high similarity implies sharing a long sub-string which results in local alignment of the two sequences. BLAST uses a consecutive seed 11111111111 to select 11 consecutive positions which are identical. A ’1’ denotes a match and 11 consecutive matches are called a hit. BLAST finds pairs of such matching strings and then attempts to extend similarity both ways (Fig2.14). Consecutive matches are easy to find, but BLAST may miss some high similarity where all positions match, except for every eleventh one. The similarity is about 91%, but BLAST fails to detect it.

![Figure 2.14: BLAST will extend the consecutive matches to find more similarities.](image)

2.5 Leading programs for primer design

A significant amount of research has been conducted on the topic of primer design. In this section we discuss the algorithms of some of the leading programs available for primer design.

2.5.1 Primer3

Primer3 [17] [1] is a computer program that suggests PCR primers for a variety of applications. Primer3 can also be used to design single primers for sequencing reactions and can design oligonucleotide hybridization probes. In selecting oligos for primers or hybridization probes, Primer3 considers many factors which include oligo melting temperature, length, GC content, 3’ end stability, estimated secondary structures, the tendencies of annealing to or amplifying undesirable sequences and the likelihood of primer-dimer formation between two copies of the same primer. In order to design primer pairs, Primer3 can consider product size, differences in melting temperature and likelihood of primer-dimer formation between the primers in the
pair. The program accepts more than 150 parameters which is far too much information to be supplied on the command line. It reads most of its inputs from flat text files (boulder IO format). It consists of a command line C program, primer3_core and has web interfaces - the original web interface, Primer3web and the newer Primer3Plus. However, primer3_core is the underlying engine for all primer design tasks.

In the current version of Primer3 several enhancements have been made since its initial release.

Primer design tasks

Primer3 can perform the following primer design tasks (Fig.2.15):

- generic: This task includes the standard primer pair design for PCR amplification of a DNA template.

- check_primers: This option is used to evaluate existing primers even in the absence of a template sequence. Primer3 evaluates whether the primer or primer pair satisfies the user specified constraints and also provides additional information describing aspects of the primers and primer pairs such as melting temperature, propensity to form secondary structures, product size, etc.

- pick_sequencing_primers: This task allows to design a series of unpaired forward and reverse primers on the template strand for Sanger sequencing reads. The spacing between successive forward and reverse primers are governed by arguments.

- pick_primer_list: This allows to generate a list of legal forward and reverse primers without regard to their positions relative to each other.

Improved thermodynamic models

Primer3 incorporates nearest-neighbor thermodynamic models with up-to-date nearest-neighbor parameters and salt correction formula for melting temperature calculations and estimating the propensity of primers to hybridize at unintended sites. The same approach is used for calculating the stability of potential hairpin structures within the primers.

Nearest-neighbor thermodynamic models offer the most accurate approach for predicting the energetic stability of DNA structures [11]. These models estimate duplex stability by considering not only the effects of the number of hydrogen bonds linking base pairs but also the effects of the stacking of neighboring base pairs along the length of the duplex. For example, due to stacking, the stability of of 5′-CT-3′ hybridized to 3′-GA-5′ is different from that of 5′-CA-3′ hybridized to 3′-GT-5′, even though the base pairings C:G and T:A are the same. To account for the effects of base pair stacking, nearest neighbor models capture the thermodynamic stability of overlapping neighboring base pairs rather than considering only single base pairs at a time. For example, nearest-neighbor models calculate the melting temperature of the oligo GCATCG using thermodynamic parameters of the overlapping neighboring bases that make up the sequence: GC, CA, AT, TC and CG. These models also consider specific aspects of the PCR buffer composition- salt and deoxyribonucleotide triphosphate (dNTP)
2.5. LEADING PROGRAMS FOR PRIMER DESIGN

Figure 2.15: Three types of Primer3 tasks.

concentrations that influence the stability of primer binding and potential secondary structures [18, 19, 20, 21, 22, 23, 24].

Primer3 recommends the use of thermodynamic parameters and formula for melting temperature calculation and salt correction suggested in the paper [11].

Using default salt and DNA concentrations we have

\[ Tm = \frac{\Delta H}{\Delta S + R \times \ln(C/4)} \] (2.1)

where \( R \) is the gas constant (1.987 cal/K mol) and \( C \) is the DNA concentration.

Using these models, Primer3 estimates the melting temperature of oligos and also predicts the strength of three types of secondary structures: two types of bi-molecular interactions (‘ANY’ and ‘END’) and one type of uni-molecular interactions. ANY interactions involve the binding of an oligo (a primer or a hybridization oligo) anywhere within its sequence to another DNA molecule, while END interactions involve the binding of 3’-end of a primer to another single-stranded DNA molecule. END interactions are more vital to PCR activity. Primer3 filters out primers with stable END interactions to avoid those prone to forming primer-dimers. Uni-molecular hairpin structures can inhibit primer hybridization to target molecules and cause the PCR reaction to fail. Primer3 also filters out primers likely to form hairpin structures.
Primer3 expresses the stability of secondary structures as melting temperatures. The methods for calculating melting temperatures for ANY and END bi-molecular interactions and unimolecular hairpin structures are extensions of those used to calculate melting temperatures for oligos.

**New search algorithm**

The original algorithm looked for the best primer pairs by considering legal combinations of reverse and forward primers. It used a branch and bound approach \cite{25} based on penalties associated with the individual primers. In the new implementation, to speed up the search instead of inefficiently re-evaluating possible pairs every time it had to find the next best pair, each pair is evaluated at most once, and then its characteristics are stored in memory which requires higher memory usage. In order to minimize the memory used, the characteristics are stored in a hash map and, therefore, allocates memory for a pair only when necessary. The algorithm also postpones computing some expensive-to-compute characteristics of primers until it is known that the primer might be part of a legal primer pair.

**Primer3Plus**

As mentioned earlier, Primer3 has two web interfaces- the original Primer3web, and the newer Primer3Plus \cite{26}, which is easier to use and harnesses the full power of Primer3. It offers several tabs from which all Primer3 parameters are accessible, including the thermodynamic parameters. All primer design tasks available in Primer3 are also available in Primer3Plus. All tasks invokes the primer3_core for primer selection.

**2.5.2 Primer-BLAST**

Primer-BLAST \cite{2} is a tool to design target-specific primers for polymerase chain reaction. The program consists of a module for generating candidate primer pairs and a module for checking the target specificity of the generated primer pairs. Primer3 is used to generate the candidate primer pairs for a given template sequence. Primer-BLAST then uses BLAST along with the Needleman-Wunsch (NW) global alignment algorithm \cite{5} to look for matches between the primers and targets.

**Specificity checking module**

In order to find specific primer pairs, Primer-BLAST submits the PCR template sequence to MegaBLAST \cite{27} for a fast search to identify highly similar regions to non-target sequences in the user-specified database. Primer3 is then instructed to place at least one primer between the pair, if possible, outside such regions. The candidate primers are then subjected to specificity checking process. Since Primer3 generates many candidate primer pairs, instead of searching each pair with BLAST which can be a very long process, it is observed that any primer is essentially a sub-region of the PCR template and a single BLAST result using the template as a query should contain alignment information for all primer pairs. All regions on the template that do not contain candidate primers are masked out to avoid irrelevant BLAST hits. A primer
pair is considered to be specific only if it has no amplicons on any targets other than the submitted template within the specificity checking threshold specified by the user. Otherwise, it is deemed non-specific. Primer-BLAST also checks amplicons arising from either primer alone.

2.5.3 QuantPrime

QuantPrime [3] offers primer pair design and specificity checking for small-to large-scale quantitative PCR (qPCR). It consists of two main algorithms, one for primer pair design and one for specificity checking. The primer pair design algorithm uses the Primer3 program to generate primer pair candidates.

Pre-filtering

Apart from Primer3 selection criteria, the primer pair candidates are filtered based on several conditions (Fig. 2.16):

- QuantPrime filters out primer pair candidates with too many G or C bases within the last five bases of the 3′-end of a primer which cannot be controlled by Primer3. The default setting is maximum three G or C bases in the last five bases of a primer.

- QuantPrime favors primers for amplicons at the 3′-end of the transcript (the last 1000 bp).

- In cases where multiple polyadenylation signals exist in the 3′-end UTR, QuantPrime avoids priming in this region as it could lead to biased quantification. Polyadenylation is the addition of a poly(A) tail to a messenger RNA. The poly(A) tail is a stretch of RNA that has only adenine bases. In eukaryotes, polyadenylation is part of the process that produces mature messenger RNA (mRNA) for translation.

- When possible QuantPrime favors primers that span an exon-exon junction (an exon is a segment of a DNA or RNA molecule containing coding information for a protein or peptide sequence), especially when the junction occurs at the 3′-end of the primer, to decrease the probability of extendable annealing to genomic DNA.

- Before the specificity testing algorithm, QuantPrime pre-filters obvious unspecific primer pairs. This is achieved by finding transcripts that are similar to the target transcript using BLAST and filtering out the primer pair candidates annealing perfectly to those sequences. A transcript is a single-stranded ribonucleic acid (RNA) product synthesized by transcription of DNA.

Specificity testing algorithm

The successful primer pair candidates after the pre-filtering are subjected to primer pair specificity determination algorithm (Fig. 2.17). This algorithm is based on the interpretation of the BLAST results, using each primer as a query towards the transcriptome (the sum total of all the messenger RNA (mRNA) molecules expressed from the genes of an organism) and, when available, against the genome.
Primer pairs should be as specific as possible to the target sequence. This is approximated by checking if a single primer in the pair has a significant identity (default is 75%) to another cDNA sequence (complementary DNA (cDNA) is DNA synthesized from a single-stranded RNA template in a reaction catalyzed by the enzyme reverse transcriptase. cDNA is often used to clone eukaryotic genes in prokaryotes), and whether the last 3′-base is identical.

2.5.4 PRIMEGENS

PRIMEGENS [4] designs PCR primers using DNA fragments that are specific to individual open reading frames (ORFs). An ORF is a continuous stretch of codons that begins with a start codon (usually AUG/ATG) and ends at a stop codon (usually UAA/TAA, UAG/TAG or UGA/TGA). Codon is a sequence of three nucleotides which together form a unit of genetic code in a DNA or RNA molecule. In order to avoid cross-hybridization researchers do not use full length genes as targets but rather use gene-specific fragments of a microarray, i.e., a fragment of DNA sequence of a gene that does not have high sequence identity to any other sequence in the genome pool. To address this issue PRIMEGENS identifies two tasks, first to identify a fragment specific to an ORF and second to design a primer pair based on the selected gene-specific fragment to allow ORF-specific amplification by polymerase chain reaction. The amplified DNA fragments can then be used as probes specific to individual genes on microarrays.
Algorithm

PRIMEGENS first uses BLAST search each ORF against the database of all ORFs in the genome (Fig. 2.18). This fast local alignment identifies possible homologous sequences. Then it performs optimal sequence alignment using dynamic programming (Smith and Waterman, 1981) [15] between the target ORF and each of its homologous ORFs. The algorithm uses the sequence alignment to select gene-specific fragments and then feeds the fragments to the Primer3 program to design primer pairs for PCR amplification.
Figure 2.18: A flowchart to show how PRIMEGENS works. [4]
Chapter 3

A new algorithm for primer design

In this chapter, we present a new algorithm for primer design, our program is called bestPrimer. Before we discuss the algorithm it is essential to discuss the concept of multiple spaced seeds, which is central to our program.

3.1 Multiple spaced seeds

A homology search algorithm using a (non-consecutive) spaced seed was presented by Pattern-Hunter [28], to find similarities between sequences. This approach is far more sensitive than BLAST. PatternHunter uses a spaced seed, 111∗1∗1∗1∗11∗111; where a ’1’ denotes a match and ’∗’ represent a don’t care position. BLAST’s consecutive seeds, 1111111111 is a special case that contains only matches. It only checks the positions corresponding to 1’s, while ignoring the positions corresponding to ’∗’. The weight of a seed refers to the number of 1’s, while the total number of 1’s and ’∗’s is the length of a seed. The probability of a hit depends on the weight of a seed. Therefore, the expected number of hits between a spaced and a non-spaced seed of same weight are same. The higher sensitivity of spaced matches is due to less overlapping between hits. In other words, with the shifting of a seed, spaced seeds need more matches to detect another hit. Thus, contiguous seeds suffer from hit clustering and spaced seeds can detect more similarities. Sensitivity of a seed is defined as the probability to detect a similarity. Fig3.1 shows a comparison between spaced and non-spaced seeds.

A set of several spaced seeds can be used together for homology searching which can dramatically increase the sensitivity. SpEED [29] was used to design optimal multiple spaced seeds employed by bestPrimer to ensure high sensitivity.

3.2 Problems with existing design

As discussed in the previous chapter several researchers have conducted significant research on the problem of primer design. Primer3 is the most common tool for designing primers for PCR and several other programs depend on Primer3 to suggest primer pair candidates before specificity checking. However, they only succeed partially in addressing the most important and challenging problem of primer design, i.e. hybridization with non-targets. DNA hybridization
Figure 3.1: Comparison between consecutive and spaced seeds. The red 1’s show the extra matches required for another hit.

takes place between complementary sequences. The complementarity does not have to be perfect for strong hybridization to take place. Since it is absolutely necessary for primers to bind only to their targets for PCR amplification to be successful, their complementary sequences must be very different from any non-targets.

First, some of these programs do not detect the potential non-targets at all, others use BLAST to find similarities between primers and non-targets. BLAST, however has limitations in finding similarities. BLAST (weight 7) finds only 52.39% of the similarities of length 20 and identity 75%. Its sensitivity is shown as the blue line in the Fig.3.2

The second problem is that the current programs do not find the highest possible number of good primers. These algorithms stop the search after they find some primers that are considered to be good and they may miss some potential unique primers. Third, the methods used in evaluating the primers suffer from the same problem of not being sensitive enough to look for similarities. For example, Primer-BLAST uses a word size of 7 by default to evaluate the primers for specificity, it will miss any regions that have 6 or fewer consecutive matches to a primer. The sensitivity can be increased by decreasing the weight of the BLAST seed, but it will lead to running much slower.

Fig.3.1 illustrates the sensitivity comparison of BLAST seed and multiple spaced seeds computed by SpEED \[6\] for designing primers of length 20. Primer-BLAST uses the BLAST weight 7 seed, whereas the standard BLAST uses weight 11 seed. In the next chapter, we propose a new algorithm that uses multiple spaced seeds computed by SpEED which is more sensitive in finding similarities. We employ the weight 8 multiple spaced seeds to design our primers and a more sensitive weight 6 multiple spaced seeds to evaluate the primers. More details on multiple spaced seeds in the next section.

### 3.3 The bestPrimer algorithm

In this section, we explain the bestPrimer algorithm for designing primers for PCR. bestPrimer can design a series of forward and reverse primers on the template strands with appropriate spacing between the primers, the positioning can be controlled by the user through command
3.3. The bestPrimer algorithm

The bestPrimer algorithm

Figure 3.2: Comparing sensitivity of spaced seed and BLAST seed. The green line shows weight 6 multiple spaced seeds; the red line shows weight 8 multiple spaced seeds; the blue line shows weight 7 BLAST seed; the pink line shows the standard BLAST seed of weight 11.

line parameters. bestPrimer also has the option to design overlapping primers, i.e., the program will return all the forward and reverse primers possible on the forward and reverse strand.

To ensure spacing (default = 500 bp), bestPrimer considers every position of a short interval (default = 40 bp) in every 500 bp of the template as a potential primer candidate. At every next step candidate positions are eliminated when they do not satisfy several criteria for a good primer. Once a position is marked as non-candidate, the remaining steps will not consider it.

The main steps of bestPrimer program are listed below:

- Encoding the input sequence
- Fast elimination of highly similar regions
- GC content calculation and selection
- Melting temperature calculation and selection
- Intensive elimination by homology search
- Best primer selection
3.3.1 DNA encoding

bestPrimer encodes the input template sequence into binary code, using two bits for each nucleotide (see Table 3.1). After binary encoding the input sequence is stored in a vector of 64-bit unsigned integers, which means each value of the vector contains 32-mers. By k-mer we shall mean a substring of length K.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nucleotide base</th>
<th>Binary encoding</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>01</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3.1: Encoding of input sequence

This approach has three main advantages. First, data encoding enables the use of bit-wise operations. Second, we can compare chunks of the template sequence i.e., 32-mers at a time instead of one nucleotide at a time. Third, it saves three quarter of the memory usage. Encoding each nucleotide requires only two bits, whereas in regular storage, each nucleotide base needs one byte due to character data type. This helps managing large template sequences.

3.3.2 GC content

To evaluate the GC content of each potential primer candidate, bestPrimer algorithm considers the maximum and minimum range of GC content specified by the user. By default, maximum GC content is set to 80 and the minimum GC content is set to 20, however they can be easily changed through command line argument. Those primer candidates whose GC content lies outside the acceptable predefined range are eliminated (Fig. 3.3). Always the start position of the primer candidate is marked as non-candidate.

3.3.3 Melting temperature

Melting temperature $T_m$, is a very important factor to design good primers for PCR amplification. The melting temperature of all the primers needs to be close to the optimal $T_m$ (default = 59°C). The nearest neighbor thermodynamic model is the most accurate approach to calculate melting temperature. The thermodynamic parameters and formula suggested by Santa Lucia [11] for melting temperature calculation is employed by bestPrimer. Using default salt and DNA concentrations we have:

$$T_m = \frac{\delta H}{\delta S + R \times \ln(\frac{C}{4})}$$

where $R$ is the gas constant (1.987 cal/K mol) and $C$ is the DNA concentration.

The salt correction formula is also suggested in the paper [11]:

$$\delta S = \delta S + (0.368 \times N \times \ln(NA+))$$

where $N$ is the oligonucleotide length minus 1 and $NA+$ is the salt concentration.
3.3. The bestPrimer algorithm

The melting temperatures of all candidate primers are computed and the ones falling outside the defined range are considered as non-candidates. The default range of melting temperature is set to 57-62 degree Celsius but can be changed by the user. Enthalpy or deltaH (k.cal/mol) denotes the total energy exchange between the system and its surrounding environment and Entropy or deltaS (cal/mol.K) is the energy spent to achieve self-organization by the system. The values of deltaH and deltaS are denoted in the Table 3.2.

3.3.4 Similarity search

The similarity search involves finding and investigating all hits corresponding to multiple spaced seeds. This can be a time consuming task and in order to speed up the process, the similarity search is conducted in two phases. In the first phase, a fast homology search is conducted where large regions of high similarities are eliminated. In the next phase, an intensive search is performed using the full potential of all seeds.

bestPrimer employs the set of eight spaced seeds of weight 8 shown in Fig 3.4 These seeds were computed using SpEED [29].

Hash table construction

Given a spaced seed s, an s-mer is a sequence that contains nucleotides for the ’1’ positions and zeros for the ’*’ positions. For example, if s = 11 ** 1 * 1, then an s-mer is AG00C0T, where
Table 3.2: Nearest-Neighbor parameters for DNA/DNA duplexes. (SantaLucia [11])

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stack (5'3'/3'5')</th>
<th>deltaH (kcal/mol)</th>
<th>deltaS (cal/mol.k)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AA/TT</td>
<td>-7.9</td>
<td>-22.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AT/TA</td>
<td>-7.2</td>
<td>-20.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TA/AT</td>
<td>-7.2</td>
<td>-21.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CA/GT</td>
<td>-8.5</td>
<td>-22.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GT/CA</td>
<td>-8.4</td>
<td>-22.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CT/GA</td>
<td>-7.8</td>
<td>-21.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GA/CT</td>
<td>-8.2</td>
<td>-22.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CG/GC</td>
<td>-10.6</td>
<td>-27.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GC/CG</td>
<td>-9.8</td>
<td>-24.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GG/CC</td>
<td>-8.0</td>
<td>-19.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Init. w/term. G/C</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>-2.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Init. w/term.</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>4.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A/T Symmetry correction</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>-1.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 3.4: Multiple spaced seeds used in the homology search phase.

the don’t care positions are replaced with 0’s. However, since the nucleotides are encoded in binary, s-mers consist of sequences of bits and the seed is also encoded, where 1 is 11 and ∗ is 00. This enables us to perform bit-wise AND between the seed and the sequence. A hit is given by a pair of identical s-mers. The algorithm stores all s-mers of each seed in a hash table.

For each of the 8 spaced seeds, a hash table is created and double hashing technique is used to handle collisions. The algorithm screens from the right end of the encoded sequence and slides to the left end. The s-mers integer value for each position in the template sequence is searched by using the seed model. If a hit is found, it is investigated for potential similarity.
3.3. **The bestPrimer algorithm**

### Initial similarity search

In the fast elimination phase, bestPrimer quickly looks for unsatisfactory primer candidate positions and eliminates them due to high similarity elsewhere in the input template.

At each position in the template sequence, the algorithm computes the corresponding integer value of the position according to the seed model. Finding a hit is equivalent to finding the same integer value in the hash table. After computing the integer value for a position in the algorithm searches for the integer value in the hash table and inserts the hash value and the related position into the hash table if the hash value does not exist in the table. If the integer value is found in the hash table, which indicates a hit, the algorithm extends the positions related to the hit from both left and right up to the specified primer length and checks for maximum similarity threshold allowed. Both positions will be eliminated and considered as non-candidates if the similarity level of two extended regions is more than the predefined threshold and this process will be continued by sliding the extended regions one position to the left or right till the threshold condition is satisfied. This process is repeated for each spaced seed.

### Thorough similarity search

In the intensive similarity search phase, bestPrimer calculates the s-mer integer value for each position and inserts this value as the hash key and its corresponding position into the hash table. If the hash key already exists in the hash table only the position is stored for that hash key.

Once all the hash tables are constructed, the algorithm checks the specificity of every valid candidate position in each interval against all other positions in the hash table. For each valid position, all hits of all s-mers corresponding to all eight seeds are investigated. bestPrimer eliminates all those positions which have higher similarity than the user specified threshold.

The difference between the fast and intensive phases is that for the fast phase we keep only one position for each hash key that is the last seen position of a hit in screening from right to left, while in the intensive phase we keep all positions and their corresponding hash values in the hash table.

### 3.3.5 Secondary structures

Secondary structure assessment can be performed in two ways; the first way is self-complementary (self-annealing) checking by aligning the oligonucleotide with its reverse-complement sequence; the other one is thermodynamic calculations to determine the stability of potential secondary structures (Fig.3.5). bestPrimer uses the first approach to assess secondary structures because the goal is to find if the primers have propensity to form any secondary structures and to find the best secondary structures.

Each valid candidate position is subjected to secondary structure assessment before the intensive homology search. The probability of forming secondary structures is very high in regions of significant self-complementarity, therefore the secondary structure assessment step is used to avoid designing primers that can form stable secondary structures. All primer candidates are examined for the propensity to form stable stem-loop structures by searching for short stretches of complementary sequences, called stems, that are separated by few bases, called the
3.3.6 Best primer selection

In the thorough similarity search phase, every valid candidate position is scanned for specificity against all positions in the hash tables. Those candidate positions whose similarity is found to be higher than the predefined threshold are eliminated and marked as non-candidate and those whose similarity is less than the threshold are stored in a map. The start position of the primers acts as the key and their corresponding similarities with their closest non-target as the value. The minimum value of those similarities is found and all other candidate positions with the same value are retrieved. In the last step, the candidate position with the melting temperature closest to the optimal melting temperature is returned.

This makes bestPrimer algorithm capable of finding the best primer in every interval i.e. the primer with lowest similarity with the closest non-target and melting temperature closest
to the optimal melting temperature in every interval. This gives an uniformity in the melting temperatures of all the primers in every interval.

3.4 3’ end mismatches

As discussed earlier, it has been established that mismatches towards the 3’ affect target amplification much more than mismatches towards the 5’ end \([2]\). It has been observed that at least a two-base mismatch at the 3’ end generally prevents amplification of non-targets. A single base mismatch at the 3’ end as well as a few mismatches in the middle or towards the 5’ end allows amplification of target but at low efficiency.

bestPrimer can evaluate every potential primer candidate with its closest non-target, and if there is at least two-base mismatch at the 3’ end, then the closest non-target is considered as a potential primer candidate itself. This gives us higher number of potential unique primers. The default length of 3’ end checking range is set to 5 and the number of mismatches at the 3’ end is set to 2. The values can be changed by the user through command line input.
Chapter 4
Evaluation

In this chapter we compare the primers designed by bestPrimer with the primers designed by the leading current software Primer3 \[1\].

4.1 Operation environment

bestPrimer is implemented in C++, and parallelized using openMP. All jobs are performed on the SHARCNET (Shared Hierarchical Academic Research Computing Network) which is a high performance computing consortium. bestPrimer is run in parallel (32 cores), Primer3 can run only in serial mode. The most time consuming tasks are done in parallel i.e, using multiple processors. It is important to notice that the order in which the genes are considered is irrelevant; this helps parallelizing the process. The hash tables for all seeds are computed in parallel for all seeds in each set. The thorough simmilarity search for each interval and picking the best primer in each interval is also done in parallel. We used some nodes of the "shadowfax" cluster whose characteristics are given below:

- Processor: 32 cores
- RAM: 1024.0 GB
- Operating System: CentOS 6.3
- Compiler: GCC version 5.1.0

4.2 Data sets

We use the following data sets as the input template sequence to design primers. The FASTA file of *Mus musculus chromosome 17*, \[https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/nuccore/NC_000083.6\] Total length: 8 million bp (maximum template length that can be handled by Primer3), 32000002 - 40000002 bp randomly selected.

4.3 Evaluation

The evaluation algorithm is very similar with the one for designing primers. The difference comes from the more sensitive seed used.

bestPrimer employs the multiple spaced seed of weight 6 (Fig. 4.1) designed by SpEED [29] to evaluate existing primers to compute their closest non-target similarity. For a given primer, a non-target is any region different from the intended target. The closest non-target is a non-target that has the highest similarity with the (reverse complement of the) primer sequence. It is the position where the primer is most likely to wrongly bind. The evaluation algorithm also outputs other primer properties such as GC content, melting temperature, sequence position and the position of closest non-target.

11101011
1100100111
110100001011
1010001000111
10100100100101
11001000100101
1101000001000101
1100000100010011

Figure 4.1: Multiple spaced seeds used in the evaluation algorithm.

4.4 Comparison

We have set the bestPrimer parameters to match as closely as possible to the default ones for Primer3. We evaluate several characteristics of the primers:

- GC content
- Melting temperature
- Closest non-target identity
- Distance between consecutive primers
- Primer-dimer propensity
The only difference between different runs of bestPrimer is the maximum similarity allowed with a non-target: 75%, 80%, ..., 100%, where 100% means there are no restrictions. Each next higher level adds some primer on top of those found by the previous one (see also Fig.4.8), so it suffices to look at bestPrimer-100%. The other ones simply run faster (see second last column of Table.4.1).

We notice from Table.4.1 and Table.4.2 is that bestPrimer produces more primers (in the 100% mode) and runs faster; recall that Primer3 runs in serial mode only.

Table 4.1: Comparison of bestPrimer Vs Primer3 on the Mus musculus chromosome 17 data set.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Software</th>
<th>GC range (%)</th>
<th>Tm range (°C)</th>
<th>Tm optimal (°C)</th>
<th>Length (bp)</th>
<th>Max similarity (%)</th>
<th>Forward primers</th>
<th>Reverse primers</th>
<th>Time* (sec)</th>
<th>Peak memory (MB)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>bestPrimer</td>
<td>40..60</td>
<td>57..62</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>1710</td>
<td>1714</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>2900</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bestPrimer</td>
<td>40..60</td>
<td>57..62</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>6583</td>
<td>6681</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>2900</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bestPrimer</td>
<td>40..60</td>
<td>57..62</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>7776</td>
<td>7828</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>2900</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bestPrimer</td>
<td>40..60</td>
<td>57..62</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>8737</td>
<td>8803</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>2900</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bestPrimer</td>
<td>40..60</td>
<td>57..62</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>9949</td>
<td>10009</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>2900</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bestPrimer</td>
<td>40..60</td>
<td>57..62</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>11471</td>
<td>11540</td>
<td>126</td>
<td>2900</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primer3</td>
<td>30..70</td>
<td>57..62</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>11181</td>
<td>11184</td>
<td>266</td>
<td>324.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* bestPrimer is run in parallel (32 cores), Primer3 is run in serial.

Table 4.2: Comparison of bestPrimer Vs Primer3 on the Mus musculus chromosome 6 data set.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Software</th>
<th>GC range (%)</th>
<th>Tm range (°C)</th>
<th>Tm optimal (°C)</th>
<th>Length (bp)</th>
<th>Max similarity (%)</th>
<th>Forward primers</th>
<th>Reverse primers</th>
<th>Time* (sec)</th>
<th>Peak memory (MB)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>bestPrimer</td>
<td>40..60</td>
<td>57..62</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>12389</td>
<td>12558</td>
<td>174</td>
<td>3000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primer3</td>
<td>30..70</td>
<td>57..62</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>11885</td>
<td>12030</td>
<td>303</td>
<td>317</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* bestPrimer is run in parallel (32 cores), Primer3 is run in serial.

4.4.1 GC content evaluation

Fig.4.2 and Fig.4.3 shows the distribution of GC content, as we can see there is no significant difference between the two programs. The GC range is set to 40..60 for bestPrimer as Primer3 outputs primers in this range.

4.4.2 Melting temperature evaluation

As shown in Fig.4.4 and Fig.4.5, the melting temperature distribution is narrower for bestPrimer and closer to the optimal 59 °C. A narrower melting temperature interval is better since the primers should ideally bind at the same time.

4.4.3 Closest non-target similarity

The most important comparison is shown in Fig.4.6 and Fig.4.8. This is the similarity with the closest non-target. Recall that the closest non-target is a non-target that has the highest similarity...
4.4. Comparison

Figure 4.2: GC content distribution for the *Mus musculus chromosome 17* data set.

with the primer. It is the most dangerous position for the primer, therefore a lower similarity with the sequence at this position is highly desired. As seen from Figure 4.6, bestPrimer primers have a significantly lower similarity with their closest non-targets. So to speak, they are “more unique” than those designed by Primer3.

The same information is presented differently in Fig. 4.8 and Fig. 4.9 where the number of primers at each similarity level with the closest non-targets is plotted. The curve for bestPrimer at a given similarity level is a continuation of the same curve at the previous level. The one for bestPrimer-100% is therefore representative for all previous curves. Comparing bestPrimer-100% with Primer3, we note that bestPrimer produces more primers at lower levels (less similar with the closest non-targets) and fewer at higher levels (Table 4.3 and Table 4.4).

4.4.4 Distance between consecutive primers

It is expected that the distance between consecutive primer positions in the input sequence decreases with more primer being produced. This is shown in Fig. 4.10 and Fig. 4.11. Lower distance is desired as it indicates better sequence coverage. Unrestricted bestPrimer (maximum allowed similarity is 100%) has the lowest distance.
4.4.5 Primer-dimer propensity

Primer cross dimers are formed by inter-molecular interactions between sense and anti-sense primers, where they are homologous. Optimally a 3’ end cross dimer with a deltaG of -5 kcal/mol and an internal cross dimer with a deltaG of -6 kcal/mol is tolerated generally. For primer-dimer comparison we have used AutoDimer [31] and the results are shown in Fig. 4.12, Fig.4.13, Fig.4.14 and Fig.4.15. AutoDimer tool is used to screen 1000 random sequences (primers) for primer-dimer propensity. The two algorithms perform similarly.

A score value is determined by combining the number of Watson-Crick base pairs (+1) with the mismatches (-1). The score given for each interaction is a very basic criterion used to judge the degree of complementarity. The score reflects the general stability or tendency of the potential interaction to exist in solution. Optimally it has been observed that a score threshold of 7 nor 8 works well when designing multiplex PCR primers (Fig.4.14 and Fig.4.15).

A more quantitative way of describing the interaction is through a stability based on predetermined thermodynamic parameters. The Gibbs Free Energy G is the measure of the amount of work that can be extracted from a process operating at a constant pressure. It is the measure of the spontaneity of the reaction. The stability of Primer-Dimer is commonly represented by
4.4. Comparison

Figure 4.4: Melting temperature distribution for the *Mus musculus chromosome 17* data set.

Its deltaG value (Fig. 4.12 and Fig. 4.13), the energy required to break the secondary structure. Larger negative value for deltaG indicates stable undesirable hairpins.
Figure 4.5: Melting temperature distribution for the *Mus musculus chromosome 6* data set.

Table 4.3: Number of primers with different non-target similarities for the *Mus musculus chromosome 17* data set.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Non-target similarity</th>
<th>bestPrimer-100%</th>
<th>Primer3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>75%</td>
<td>311</td>
<td>561</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>80%</td>
<td>4579</td>
<td>7118</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>85%</td>
<td>3155</td>
<td>5065</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>90%</td>
<td>1658</td>
<td>2342</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>95%</td>
<td>1843</td>
<td>2623</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100%</td>
<td>3338</td>
<td>4656</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Figure 4.6: Closest non-target similarity distribution for the *Mus musculus chromosome 17* data set.

Table 4.4: Number of primers with different non-target similarities for the *Mus musculus chromosome 6* data set.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Non-target similarity</th>
<th>bestPrimer-100%</th>
<th>Primer3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>75%</td>
<td>2410</td>
<td>562</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>80%</td>
<td>14923</td>
<td>11470</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>85%</td>
<td>4598</td>
<td>7785</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>90%</td>
<td>1057</td>
<td>1692</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>95%</td>
<td>853</td>
<td>996</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100%</td>
<td>1106</td>
<td>1410</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Figure 4.7: Closest non-target similarity distribution for the *Mus musculus chromosome 6* data set.
Figure 4.8: The number of primers at various levels of similarity with the closest non-target for the *Mus musculus chromosome 17* data set.
Figure 4.9: The number of primers at various levels of similarity with the closest non-target for the *Mus musculus chromosome 6* data set.
Figure 4.10: Distance between consecutive primers for the *Mus musculus chromosome 17* data set.
Figure 4.11: Distance between consecutive primers for the *Mus musculus chromosome 6* data set.
Figure 4.12: Delta G distribution for the *Mus musculus chromosome 17* data set.
Figure 4.13: Delta G distribution for the *Mus musculus* chromosome 6 data set.
Figure 4.14: Score distribution for the *Mus musculus chromosome 17* data set.
Figure 4.15: Score distribution for the *Mus musculus chromosome 6* data set.
Chapter 5

Conclusion

In this thesis, we have considered the problem of designing primers for PCR. The results of Primer3 are far from satisfactory since some of the produced primers have high similarity with non-targets. Also, the highest number of primers are not found. The previous methods of evaluation suffer from the same problem of not being sensitive enough in finding similarities.

After discussing the shortcomings of the existing programs, we introduce a new one, bestPrimer, that produces significantly better primers. Through our evaluation program, we have performed a comprehensive analysis and comparison between Primer3 and bestPrimer. bestPrimer produces more specific or unique primers with a narrower melting temperature range that enables efficient PCR binding. The “best” part of the name requires a brief explanation: bestPrimer is the best possible at finding the closest non-target for each designed primer, that is, the most likely place for the primer to wrongly bind.

In addition, bestPrimer produce higher number of primers with decreasing distance between them which provides better coverage of the template sequence. bestPrimer run in parallel mode which decreases the running time to a great extent. All parameters can be customized by the user through command line input.
Bibliography


[23] Nicolas Peyret, P Ananda Seneviratne, Hatim T Allawi, and John SantaLucia. Nearest-neighbor thermodynamics and nmr of dna sequences with internal a·a, c·c, g·g, and t·t mismatches. *Biochemistry*, 38(12):3468–3477, 1999.


Curriculum Vitae

Name: Debanjan Guha Roy

Post-Secondary Education and Degrees:
West Bengal University of Technology
Kolkata, India

University of Western Ontario
London, ON
2017 - present M.Sc. candidate

Honours and Awards:
Western Graduate Research Scholarship
2017-2018

Related Work Experience:
Teaching Assistant
The University of Western Ontario
2017 - 2019

Project Engineer
Wipro India Ltd.