Transrate: Quality assessment of *de-novo* transcriptome assemblies

# Abstract

Improvements in short-read sequencing technology combined with rapidly decreasing prices have enabled the use of RNA-seq to assay the transcriptome of species whose genome has not been sequenced.

*De-novo* transcriptome assembly attempts to reconstruct the original transcript sequences from short reads.

Such transcriptome assemblies are relied upon for gene expression studies, phylogenetic analyses, and molecular tooling.

It is therefore important to ensure that assemblies are as accurate as possible, but to date there are few published tools for deep quality assessment of de-novo transcriptome assemblies, and none using paired-end read information.

We present **transrate**, an open source command-line program and library implemented in the Ruby and C languages that automates deep analysis of transcriptome assembly quality.

Transrate evaluates assemblies based on inspecting contigs, paired-read mapping, and optionally comparison to reference sequences with an extensive suite of established and novel metrics.

We introduce the **transrate score**: a novel summary statistic based on an explicit, intuitive statistical model of the transcriptome that captures many aspects of assembly quality.

Individual contigs and entire assemblies can be scored, enabling quality filtering of contigs and comparison and optimisation of assemblies.

We demonstrate using published data that the transrate score identifies the strengths and weaknesses of different assembly strategies and accurately classifies contigs.

Uniquely, the components of the transrate score quantify specific common problems with individual contigs, allowing the identification of subsets of contigs that can be improved by post-processing, and those that are already suitable for downstream analysis.

# Background

The use of RNA-seq for de-novo transcriptome assembly is a complex procedure, but if done well can yield valuable, high throughput biological insights at relatively low cost (e.g. [\*list a few nice transcriptomics papers]).

A transcriptome assembly pipeline might include trimming adapters and low quality bases, read error correction, digital normalisation, assembly and post-assembly improvements such as scaffolding and clustering.

Because the computational problems involved in these steps are hard to solve [\*cite], there are many competing approaches.

For example, popular tools for the assembly step include Trinity (Grabherr et al. 2011), Oases (Schulz et al. 2012), Trans-AbySS (Robertson et al. 2010), IDBA-tran (Peng et al. 2013) and SOAPdenovo-Trans (Xie et al. 2014), among many others.

Each of these tools implements a complex algorithm with many heuristics and parameters that can often be user-controlled.

Furthermore, because each organism has unique genomic properties, the algorithms need to be selected and tuned carefully for each experiment.

These conditions mean that any de-novo transcriptome experiment should ideally involve comparison of assemblies from across a potentially vast parameter space. For this to be tractable, a method is required to accurately judge the quality of transcriptome assemblies.

In addition to quality varying between assemblies, contigs within an assembly can have varying levels of usefulness. Any transcriptome assembly is likely to contain well-assembled contigs that represent full-length transcripts, as well as poorly assembled contigs that are incomplete or erroneous reconstructions of transcripts, and nonsense contigs that are artefacts of the assembly algorithm.

It is therefore desirable to be able to select out the well-assembled contigs, likely to be of use in downstream biological interpretation, from those that are not suitable for downstream use.

Compared to transcriptome assemblies, evaluation of the quality of genome and metagenome assemblies is a relatively mature field. Approaches include providing a range of basic metrics about assemblies (Gurevich et al. 2013), or explicitly modelling the sequencing and assembly process to provide a likelihood-based measure of quality (Clark et al. 2013, Rahman and Pachter (2013)).

Some authors have used reference-based measures for evaluation of de-novo transcriptome assemblies (Elijah K Lowe, Billie J Swalla, and C. Titus Brown 2014; O’Neil and Emrich 2013, O’Neil et al. (2010)). However, in most cases, a high-quality, closely related reference transcriptome is not available, limiting the usefulness of these metrics in practice (B. Li et al. 2014).

To date, only a single published reference-free transcriptome assembly evaluation tool, RSEM-EVAL (B. Li et al. 2014), takes a statistically principled approach to transcriptome assembly quality evaluation.

In this work we describe transrate, our software for deep quality analysis of transcriptome assemblies. transrate implements two novel reference-free statistics, the transrate contig score and the transrate assembly score, which allow for optimisation within and between assemblers respectively, using only the assembly and the paired-end reads used to generate it.

Unlike existing reference-free statistical approaches to assembly evaluation, the transrate scores are made up of components that are independently useful in identifying specific problems with contigs, namely gene family collapse, fragmentation or chimerism.

transrate uses these components to classify the contigs in an assembly, outputting separate files containing the well-assembled contigs, those that could be improved by scaffolding, those that required chimera splitting, and those that are poor quality in multiple or other ways.

Furthermore, the transrate model is descriptive rather than generative, making it considerably easier for users to understand and interpret than existing methods.

We show that transrate improves upon the state of the art in several key ways: Firstly, we show that transrate is more accurate than existing reference-free measures when tested using real and simulated data, with a better ability to identify common types of misassembly, as well as being significantly faster. Secondly, we demonstrate that the reference-free transrate contig score outperforms existing reference-based metrics even when a same-species reference is used. Finally, we demonstrate that using the transrate contig score to select the optimal subset of contigs from an assembly improves the biological utility of assemblies.

# Methods

## Transrate

### Overview

transrate takes as input one or more transcriptome assemblies generated from the same set of paired-end reads, and the reads used to generate the assemblies.

Analysis proceeds by aligning the reads to the assemblies. For reads with multiple alignments within an assembly, only the most likely alignment is chosen. For each contig, the reads aligning to it are inspected to accumulate the components of the contig score. The assembly score is calculated using the contig scores and the full set of reads and alignments, including reads that did not align. Finally, contigs are classified according to whether they are (a) well-assembled, poorly assembled but could be improved by either (b) scaffolding, (c) chimera splitting, (d) reassembly or (d) poorly assembled and unable to be improved.

### Implementation

Transrate is written in Ruby and C++. It is open source, released under the MIT license. Code is available at http://github.com/Blahah/transrate, while help and full documentation are available at http://hibberdlab.com/transrate. The code is fully covered by automated tests. The software is operated via a user-friendly command line interface and can be used on OSX and linux. Transrate can also be used programmatically as a Ruby gem.

### Read alignment and assignment

Reads are aligned to each assembly using SNAP v1.0.0.dev67 (Zaharia et al. 2011). Alignments are reported up to a maximum edit distance of 30. Up to 10 multiple alignments are reported per read where available (-omax 10), up to a maximum edit distance of 5 from the best-scoring alignment (-om 5). Exploration within an edit distance of 5 from each alignment is allowed for the calculation of MAPQ scores (-D 5).

BAM-format alignments produced by SNAP are passed to Salmon, part of the Sailfish suite, (Patro, Mount, and Kingsford 2014), to assign multi-mapping reads to their most likely contig of origin.

## The transrate score

We developed a reference-free statistical measure of assembly quality, the transrate score.

An assembly consists of a set of contigs derived from a set of reads . Reads are aligned and assigned to contigs such that is the set of reads assigned to .

### For contigs

We model a perfect contig as:

1. being a representation of a single transcript such that:
2. each base in the contig must be derived from only one transcript
3. all bases in the contig must be derived from the same transcript
4. unambiguously and accurately representing the identity of each base in the transcript
5. being structurally accurate and complete, such that the ordering of bases in the contig faithfully recreates the ordering of bases in the transcript

The transrate contig score is an estimate of the probability that a contig is perfect, i.e. meets all these criteria, using the aligned, assigned reads as evidence. We estimate the contig score by taking the product of the probability of the components , mapping to the criteria above.

To estimate our confidence that each base in the contig is derived from a single transcript, we use the alignment edit distance, i.e. the number of changes that must be made to a read in order for it to perfectly match the contig sequence. We denote the edit distance of an assigned read as and the set of reads that cover base () as $\varrho k$. The maximum possible edit distance for alignment is fixed by the aligner, denoted as . Then the probability that a base is derived from a single transcript is estimated as the arithmetic mean of for each $r\_{ij} \in \varrho k $, and the probability that each base in a contig is derived from a single transcript is then the root mean square of .

We adapt the Bayesian segmentation algorithm of J. S. Liu and Lawrence (1999) to estimate , our confidence that all bases in a contig derive from the same transcript. We assume that a contig that represents a single transcript will have a read coverage related to the expression level of that transcript in the sequenced sample. A contig that is a chimera derived from concatenation two or more transcripts will have multiple levels of read coverage representing the expression levels of its component transcripts. We therefore approximate by the probability that the read coverage over a contig has a single level. To make the computation tractable, we further simplify the problem by treating the read coverage along the contig as a sequence of letters in an unordered alphabet. We achieve this representation by discretising the coverage at each base by taking its base-2 logarithm, rounded to the nearest integer. can then be stated as the probability that the sequence of coverage values does not change composition at any point along its length, i.e. that it is composed of a single composition segment. The Liu and Lawrence (1999) algorithm is applied to find this probability.

Whether the contig accurately represents base identity of the transcript of origin is partially captured in for bases that have reads assigned to them. We thus capture the missing information required to include this confidence in the score as , which is estimated as the proportion of bases that are supported by assigned reads.

Confidence in the structural accuracy and completeness of a contig, , is estimated using the pairing information of reads. We classify alignments of read pairs according to whether they are biologically plausible if we assume that the contig is structurally accurate and complete. Thus a read pair must meet all the following criteria to be valid: (a) both reads in the pair align to the same contig, (b) in an orientation that matches the sequencing protocol, (c) within a plausible distance given the fragmentation and size selection applied in the sequencing protocol. is then approximated by the proportion of reads that are assigned to a contig that are valid.

### The assembly score

We model a perfect assembly descriptively such that:

1. a perfect assembly is made up of a perfect contig representing each transcript that it contains (and thus has high per-contig scores)
2. has all transcripts represented (and thus incorporates a high proportion of the experimental evidence)

We take the geometric mean of the contig scores to represent (1), and use the proportion of read pairs that had at least one structurally valid alignment to represent the completeness of the assembly.

Our confidence in the quality of an assembly can therefore be expressed as:

## Evaluation

To evaluate the transrate algorithm, we opted to use data from previously published assembly papers. Two different strands of analysis were performed: a detailed evaluation of the algorithm using ten assemblies from four species, and a broader survey of the range of assembly scores achievable using the entire NCBI Transcriptome Shotgun Archive.

### Detailed algorithm evaluation

#### Using real data

To evaluate the contig and assembly scores using real data, we used transrate to analyse assemblies from two previous publications: Xie et al. (2014), and Davidson and Oshlack (2014).

From Xie et al. (2014), assemblies were available for rice (*Oryza sativa*) and mouse (*Mus musculus*) that had been assembled using Oases, Trinity, and SOAPdenovo-Trans. From Davidson and Oshlack (2014), assemblies were available for human (*Homo sapiens*) and yeast (*Saccharomyces cerevisiae*) that had been assembled with Oases and Trinity.

These assemblies were chosen because they represent a phylogenetically diverse range of species assembled with several assemblers, with the read data and the transcriptome assemblies available to download, and with a relatively well-annotated reference genome available for each species.

Transrate was run separately for each species, with the full set of reads and all assemblies for that species as input.

For the pre-made assemblies, we generated a reference-based score for each contig in each of the ten assemblies. A reference dataset was compiled by including all transcripts plus any non-coding RNAs described in the reference annotation for each species.

Contigs were compared to the reference dataset by nucleotide-nucleotide local alignment with BLAST+ blastn version 2.2.29 (Camacho et al. 2009). Because no genome annotation is complete, de-novo transcriptome assemblies are likely to contain contigs that are well-assembled representations of real transcripts not present in the reference. We therefore only considered contigs for score comparison if they aligned successfully to at least one reference transcript.

Each contig that has at least one hit was given a reference score by selecting the alignment with the lowest bitscore for each contig, then taking the product of the proportion of the reference covered, the proportion of the query covered, and the identity of the alignment.

#### Using simulated data

We generated reads by simulated sequencing for each of the four species (rice, mouse, human and yeast) using flux-simulator v1.2.1 (Griebel et al. 2012). For each species, a total of 10 million mRNA molecules were simulated from across the full set of annotated mRNAs from the Ensembl annotation with a random (exponentially distributed) expression distribution. mRNA molecules were uniform-randomly fragmented and then size-selected to a mean of 400 and standard distribution of 50. From the resulting fragments, 8 million 100bp paired-end reads were simulated using a learned error profile from real Illumina reads.

From each set of simulated reads, an assembly was generated using Oases, with a kmer size of 23, and defaults for all other parameters.

Accuracy was evaluated as for real data, except that all contigs (including those that did not align) were incorporated into the accuracy calculation.

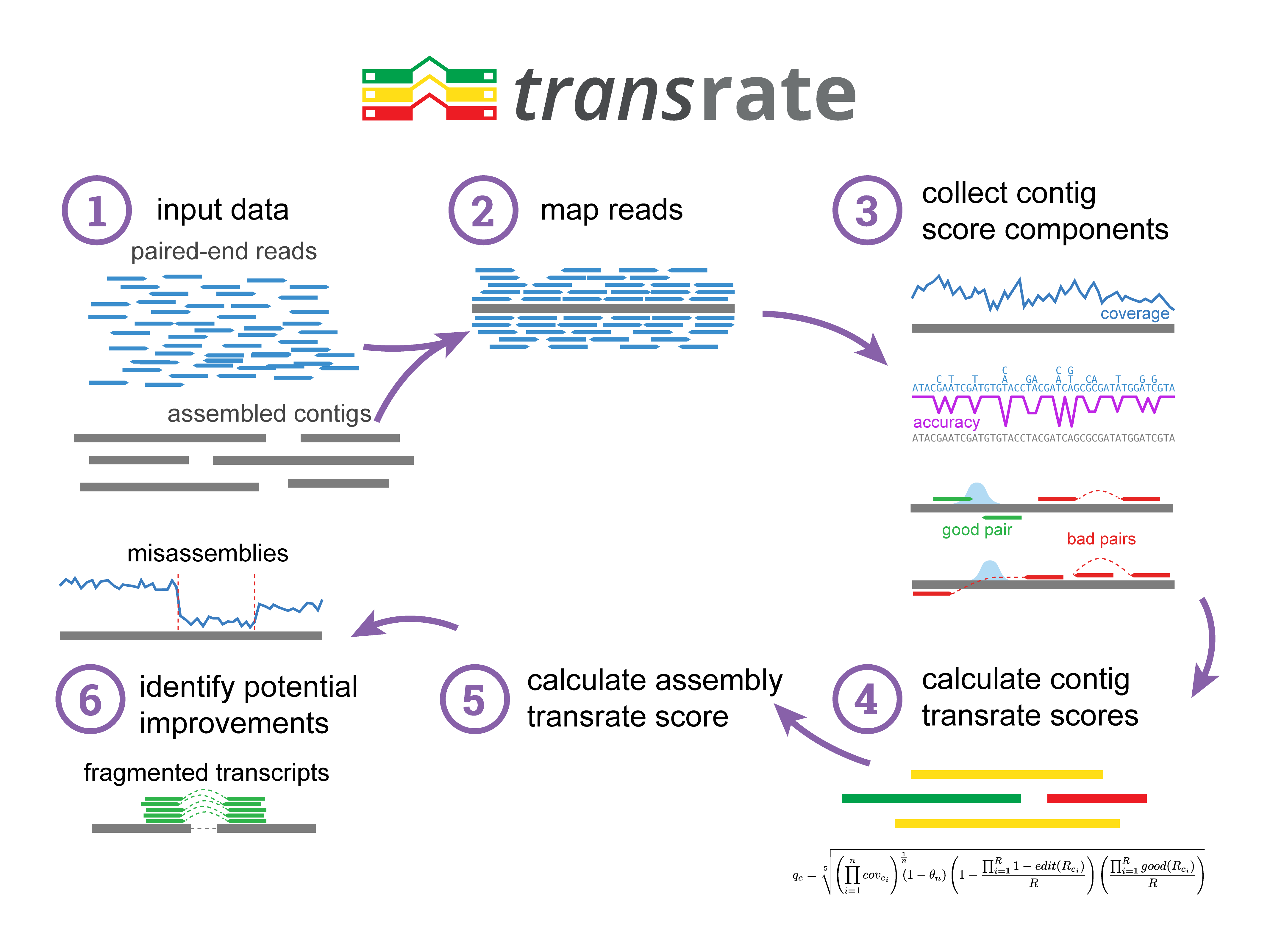
### Assembly score survey

A survey of the range of achievable assembly scores was conducted by analysing transcriptome assemblies from the Transcriptome Shotgun Archive (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genbank/tsa). Entries in the archive were filtered to retain only those where paired-end reads were provided, the assembler and species were named in the metadata, and the number of contigs was at least 5,000. For the retained entries, the assembly and reads were downloaded, and transrate run to produce the assembly score for each entry.

## Results and discussion

### Transrate is software for deep quality analysis of transcriptome assemblies

We have developed Transrate, a method for detailed quality analysis of whole transcriptome assemblies and their constituent contigs without a reference. Transrate uses only the contigs themselves and the paired-end reads used to generate them as evidence. Here we present the Transrate method. First we describe the Transrate contig and assembly scores, with a focus on how they can be used to identify misassemblies, select the most useful information from the assembly, and to improve and compare assemblies. Next, we perform experiments using real and simulated data across a range of species to evaluate the accuracy and usefulness of the method, and demonstrate its improvement over existing methods.



The Transrate workflow. (1.) Transrate takes as input one or more de-novo transcriptome assemblies and the paired-end reads used to generate them. (2.) The reads are aligned to the contigs with SNAP, and multi-mapping reads are assigned to their most likely contig of origin with Salmon. (3.) The assigned alignments are examined to measure per-base coverage and edit distance for each contig, and the proportion of reads mapping to each contig that agree with the contig structure. Per-base coverage is analysed to determine segmentation. (4.) Score components are combined to score each contig. (5.) Contig scores are combined with the full set of reads and alignments to score the entire assembly. (6.) Contigs are classified according to whether they are well-assembled, poorly assebled and unfixable, or poorly assembled and fixable by either reassembly, chimera splitting, or targeted scaffolding.

### Contig score components are independent and uncorrelated

One aim of transrate is to allow the classification of contigs according to whether they are well-assembled.

### Contigs can be classified by transrate score

### Transrate gives unprecedented detail about the quality of a de-novo transcriptome assembly

We obtained de-novo transcriptome assemblies and their accompanying paired-end RNAseq reads for four species with good quality genome assemblies: human and yeast from *corset\_paper; mouse and rice from* soapdt\_paper. For all four species assemblies made using Trinity and Oases were available. For mouse and rice, SOAPdenovo-trans assemblies were also available. The assemblies used are summarised in table 1.

Figure 2 shows the basic reference-free metrics reported for these assemblies in their original publications. Using these metrics the performance of the assemblers appears to be XXX. By comparison, the metrics reported by transrate enable a deeper understanding of the qualities of these assemblies.

We analysed all assemblies for each species using transrate to generate contig, read, and reference-based metrics, as well as per-contig and per-assembly transrate scores. For each assembly, the full set of cDNAs from the latest Ensembl annotation was used as a reference.

TODO:

* Something about how the metrics reported by transrate help understand the flaws in the assembly.
* Describe the results.

### Transrate indicates an assembly improvement strategy

The transrate metrics provide a clear indication of next steps to improve an assembly. In particular, they quantify to what extent the following actions will produce improvement:

1. Discarding low-quality contigs
2. Scaffolding and gap-filling
3. Chimera splitting.

### The reference-free transrate score accurately predicts true assembly quality.

In order to quantify the accuracy of the transrate score, for each contig in each assembly we sought to establish whether it was an accurate reconstruction of a genome-encoded RNA product.

Because RNAseq reads capture not only protein-coding sequences, but also lncRNAs and other RNAs, we first sought to discover the true set of genome-encoded RNA products represented in each RNAseq dataset. For each species, we aligned the RNAseq reads to the genome and performed a genome-guided assembly of the aligned reads to extend the existing annotation. We then filtered the annotations to remove those with no reads mapping.

For each assembly, we performed gapped alignment of contigs directly to the genome reference using exonerate. Contigs were classified as 'complete' if they aligned full-length to an annotated feature, with gaps corresponding to annotated introns. This allowed complete specification of accuracy as depicted in table 3:

| -- | Genome-based assessment |  
| ------------------------------------------|  
| Transrate score | Complete | Incomplete |  
| ------------------------------------------|  
| High | TP | FP |  
| Low | FN | TN |

Using this scheme we evaluated precision, recall and accuracy for each assembly (figure 6). Transrate score was strongly correlated with genome-based completeness (figure 6a).

To evaluate the predictive power of transrate scores, we varied the cutoff for 'high' transrate scores (figure 6). In all cases, the maximum accuracy was > [SOME NUMBER], with precision and recall in the ranges of [V-X] and [Y-Z].

### Filtering contigs by transrate score produces high-quality assemblies.

Something about the quality of the assemblies pre and post- filtering.

### Massive-scale analysis of assemblies provides guidance for using the transrate score.

To provide examples of real datasets and scores we downloaded all publicly available assembled transcriptomes that are available on the NCBI Transcriptome Shotgun Assembly database (ftp://ftp.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genbank/tsa/). Assemblies from this database were selected only if the following criteria were met:

1. The assembly program was listed.
2. Raw, paired-end reads were available for download.
3. The final assembly contained at least 5000 transcripts.

TODO:

* describe the overall distribution of transrate scores - what makes a good score?
* does the score differ by assembly method?
* does it differ by phylogeny?

### General performance expectations

TODO

* how long does transrate take with various sizes of input and various settings?

## Tables

### Table 1

Basic metrics as reported in the original publications for assemblies from the 4 species in analysis 1.

### Table 2

Summary of the transrate analysis for analysis 1.

### Table 3

Summary of the method used to measure accuracy of the transrate score.

## Figures

### Figure 1

Flow diagram explaining that reads are mapped to reference etc.

### Figure 2

Existing commonly used metrics used on the tests datasets used in this paper to describe the datasets.

### Figure 3

1. Plot of distribution of values per contig of all selected scores.
2. Correlation between all scores.
3. still to be decided.

### Figure 4

Distribution of all contig scores for each of the species for each of the assemblies. Small plots two column figure.

### Figure 5

1. Plot of score v contig length
2. score v FPKM, (demonstrate effect of sequence length and expression level bias on score).

### Figure 6

1. Exonerate validation percentage of transcripts in each decile that align full length to the genome using exonerate.
2. MCC plot varying the transrate score cut off for inclusion of transcripts.

### Figure 7

1. Distribution of all scores for the NCBI TSA database.
2. Assembly score V number of reads.
3. Partitioned by assembly method.
4. Average time taken to run analysis using transrate vs number of reads, transrate score.

Camacho, Christiam, George Coulouris, Vahram Avagyan, Ning Ma, Jason Papadopoulos, Kevin Bealer, and Thomas L Madden. 2009. “BLAST+: architecture and Applications.” *BMC Bioinformatics* 10 (December): 421. doi:[10.1186/1471-2105-10-421](http://dx.doi.org/10.1186/1471-2105-10-421). <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC2803857/>.

Clark, Scott C., Rob Egan, Peter I. Frazier, and Zhong Wang. 2013. “ALE: a Generic Assembly Likelihood Evaluation Framework for Assessing the Accuracy of Genome and Metagenome Assemblies.” *Bioinformatics* 29 (4): 435–43. doi:[10.1093/bioinformatics/bts723](http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/bioinformatics/bts723). <http://bioinformatics.oxfordjournals.org/content/29/4/435>.

Davidson, Nadia M., and Alicia Oshlack. 2014. “Corset: enabling Differential Gene Expression Analysis for de Novo Assembled Transcriptomes.” *Genome Biology* 15 (7): 410. doi:[10.1186/s13059-014-0410-6](http://dx.doi.org/10.1186/s13059-014-0410-6). <http://genomebiology.com/2014/15/7/410/abstract>.

Elijah K Lowe, Billie J Swalla, and C. Titus Brown. 2014. “Evaluating a Lightweight Transcriptome Assembly Pipeline on Two Closely Related Ascidian Species.” doi:[10.7287/peerj.preprints.505v1](http://dx.doi.org/10.7287/peerj.preprints.505v1). <http://dx.doi.org/10.7287/peerj.preprints.505v1>.

Grabherr, Manfred G., Brian J. Haas, Moran Yassour, Joshua Z. Levin, Dawn A. Thompson, Ido Amit, Xian Adiconis, et al. 2011. “Full-Length Transcriptome Assembly from RNA-Seq Data Without a Reference Genome.” *Nature Biotechnology* 29 (7): 644–52. doi:[10.1038/nbt.1883](http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/nbt.1883). <http://www.nature.com/nbt/journal/v29/n7/full/nbt.1883.html>.

Griebel, Thasso, Benedikt Zacher, Paolo Ribeca, Emanuele Raineri, Vincent Lacroix, Roderic Guigó, and Michael Sammeth. 2012. “Modelling and Simulating Generic RNA-Seq Experiments with the Flux Simulator.” *Nucleic Acids Research* 40 (20): 10073–83. doi:[10.1093/nar/gks666](http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/nar/gks666). <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC3488205/>.

Gurevich, Alexey, Vladislav Saveliev, Nikolay Vyahhi, and Glenn Tesler. 2013. “QUAST: quality Assessment Tool for Genome Assemblies.” *Bioinformatics* 29 (8): 1072–75. doi:[10.1093/bioinformatics/btt086](http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/bioinformatics/btt086). <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC3624806/>.

Li, Bo, Nathanael Fillmore, Yongsheng Bai, Mike Collins, James A. Thomson, Ron Stewart, and Colin N. Dewey. 2014. “Evaluation of de Novo Transcriptome Assemblies from RNA-Seq Data.” *Genome Biology* 15 (12): 553. doi:[10.1186/s13059-014-0553-5](http://dx.doi.org/10.1186/s13059-014-0553-5). <http://genomebiology.com/2014/15/12/553/abstract>.

Liu, J. S., and C. E. Lawrence. 1999. “Bayesian Inference on Biopolymer Models.” *Bioinformatics* 15 (1): 38–52. doi:[10.1093/bioinformatics/15.1.38](http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/bioinformatics/15.1.38). <http://bioinformatics.oxfordjournals.org/content/15/1/38>.

O’Neil, Shawn T., and Scott J. Emrich. 2013. “Assessing de Novo Transcriptome Assembly Metrics for Consistency and Utility.” *BMC Genomics* 14 (1): 465. doi:[10.1186/1471-2164-14-465](http://dx.doi.org/10.1186/1471-2164-14-465). <http://www.biomedcentral.com/1471-2164/14/465/abstract>.

O’Neil, Shawn T., Jason DK Dzurisin, Rory D. Carmichael, Neil F. Lobo, Scott J. Emrich, and Jessica J. Hellmann. 2010. “Population-Level Transcriptome Sequencing of Nonmodel Organisms Erynnis Propertius and Papilio Zelicaon.” *BMC Genomics* 11 (1): 310. doi:[10.1186/1471-2164-11-310](http://dx.doi.org/10.1186/1471-2164-11-310). <http://www.biomedcentral.com/1471-2164/11/310/abstract>.

Patro, Rob, Stephen M. Mount, and Carl Kingsford. 2014. “Sailfish Enables Alignment-Free Isoform Quantification from RNA-Seq Reads Using Lightweight Algorithms.” *Nature Biotechnology* 32 (5): 462–64. doi:[10.1038/nbt.2862](http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/nbt.2862). <http://www.nature.com/nbt/journal/v32/n5/full/nbt.2862.html>.

Peng, Yu, Henry C. M. Leung, Siu-Ming Yiu, Ming-Ju Lv, Xin-Guang Zhu, and Francis Y. L. Chin. 2013. “IDBA-Tran: a More Robust de Novo de Bruijn Graph Assembler for Transcriptomes with Uneven Expression Levels.” *Bioinformatics* 29 (13): i326–34. doi:[10.1093/bioinformatics/btt219](http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/bioinformatics/btt219). <http://bioinformatics.oxfordjournals.org/content/29/13/i326>.

Rahman, Atif, and Lior Pachter. 2013. “CGAL: computing Genome Assembly Likelihoods.” *Genome Biology* 14 (1): R8. doi:[10.1186/gb-2013-14-1-r8](http://dx.doi.org/10.1186/gb-2013-14-1-r8). <http://genomebiology.com/2013/14/1/R8/abstract>.

Robertson, Gordon, Jacqueline Schein, Readman Chiu, Richard Corbett, Matthew Field, Shaun D. Jackman, Karen Mungall, et al. 2010. “De Novo Assembly and Analysis of RNA-Seq Data.” *Nature Methods* 7 (11): 909–12. doi:[10.1038/nmeth.1517](http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/nmeth.1517). <http://www.nature.com/nmeth/journal/v7/n11/abs/nmeth.1517.html>.

Schulz, Marcel H., Daniel R. Zerbino, Martin Vingron, and Ewan Birney. 2012. “Oases: robust de Novo RNA-Seq Assembly Across the Dynamic Range of Expression Levels.” *Bioinformatics* 28 (8): 1086–92. doi:[10.1093/bioinformatics/bts094](http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/bioinformatics/bts094). <http://bioinformatics.oxfordjournals.org/content/28/8/1086>.

Xie, Yinlong, Gengxiong Wu, Jingbo Tang, Ruibang Luo, Jordan Patterson, Shanlin Liu, Weihua Huang, et al. 2014. “SOAPdenovo-Trans: de Novo Transcriptome Assembly with Short RNA-Seq Reads.” *Bioinformatics*, February, btu077. doi:[10.1093/bioinformatics/btu077](http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/bioinformatics/btu077). <http://bioinformatics.oxfordjournals.org/content/early/2014/03/07/bioinformatics.btu077>.

Zaharia, Matei, William J. Bolosky, Kristal Curtis, Armando Fox, David Patterson, Scott Shenker, Ion Stoica, Richard M. Karp, and Taylor Sittler. 2011. “Faster and More Accurate Sequence Alignment with SNAP.” *arXiv:1111.5572 [Cs, Q-Bio]*, November. <http://arxiv.org/abs/1111.5572>.