# Ensembl gene annotation project (e!68) Canis Iupus familiaris (dog, CanFam3.1 assembly)

Raw Computes Stage: Searching for sequence patterns, aligning proteins and cDNAs to the genome.

## Approximate time: 2 weeks

The annotation process of the high-coverage dog assembly began with the raw compute stage [Figure 1] whereby the genomic sequence was screened for sequence patterns including repeats using RepeatMasker [1] (version 3.2.8 with parameters '-nolow -species "dog" -s'), RepeatModeler [2] (version open-1.0.5, to obtain a repeats library, then filtered for an additional RepeatMasker run), Dust [3] and TRF [4]. Both executions of RepeatMasker and Dust combined masked 44.77% of the species genome.

Transcription start sites were predicted using Eponine–scan [5] and FirstEF [6]. CpG islands [Micklem, G.] longer than 400 bases and tRNAs [7] were also predicted. Genscan [8] was run across RepeatMasked sequence and the results were used as input for UniProt [9], UniGene [10] and Vertebrate RNA

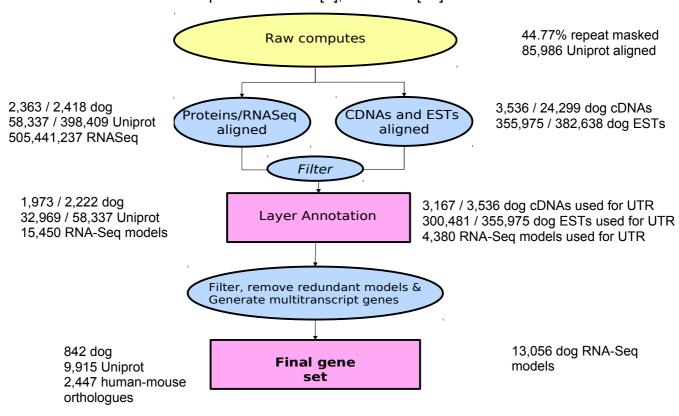


Figure 1: Summary of dog gene annotation project

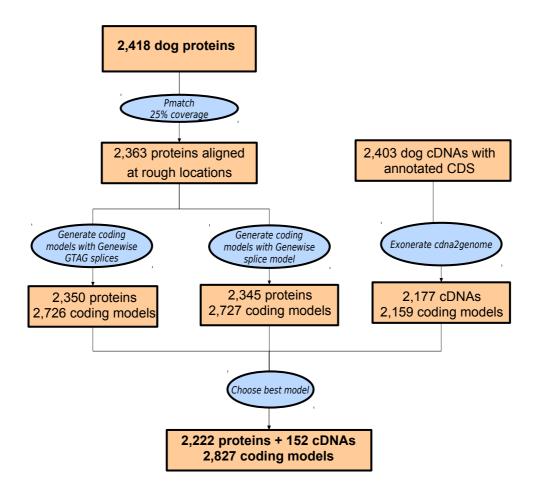


Figure 2: Targeted stage using dog protein sequences.

[11] alignments by WU-BLAST [12]. (Passing only Genscan results to BLAST is an effective way of reducing the search space and therefore the computational resources required.) This resulted in 85,986 UniProt, 312,958 UniGene and 309,864 Vertebrate RNA sequences aligning to the genome.

## Exonerate Stage: Generating coding models from dog

## Approximate time: 1 week

Next, dog protein sequences were downloaded from public databases (UniProt SwissProt/TrEMBL [9] and RefSeq [10]). The dog protein sequences were mapped to the genome using Pmatch as indicated in [Figure 2].

Models of the coding sequence (CDS) were produced from the proteins using Genewise [14] and Exonerate [13]. Where one protein sequence had generated more than one coding model at a locus, the BestTargetted module was used to select the coding model that most closely matched the source

protein to take through to the next stage of the gene annotation process. The generation of transcript models using species-specific (in this case dog) data is referred to as the "Targeted stage". This stage resulted in 2,222 (of 2,418) dog proteins used to build 2,827 coding models to be taken through to the UTR addition stage.

## Similarity Stage: Generating additional coding models using proteins from related species

## Approximate time: 2 weeks

Following the Targeted alignments, additional coding models were generated as follows. The UniProt alignments from the Raw Computes step were filtered and only those sequences belonging to UniProt's Protein Existence (PE) classification level 1 and 2 were kept. WU-BLAST was rerun for these sequences and the results were passed to Genewise [14] to build coding models. The generation of transcript models using data from related species is referred to as the "Similarity stage". This stage resulted in 58,337 coding models.

## CDNA, EST and translations alignments

#### Approximate time: 1 week

The dog cDNAs and ESTs were downloaded from Genbank, clipped to remove polyA tails, and aligned to the genome using Exonerate [Figure 3].

Of these, 3,536 (of 24,299) dog cDNAs aligned with a cut-off of 90% coverage and 90% identity; and 355,975 (of 382,638) dog ESTs aligned with a cut-off of 80% coverage and 95% identity. EST and cDNA alignments are displayed on the website in a separate track from the Ensembl gene set.

The dog Ensembl translations from release 65 were aligned to the genome. The 19,305 longest translations were downloaded and aligned using Exonerate. Of these, 18,527 aligned with a cut-off of 97% identity and 90% coverage.

## RNA-Seq models

### Approximate time: 2 months and 2 weeks

RNA-Seq data provided by the Broad Institute [15] was used in the annotation. This comprised paired end data from 10 tissues including: blood, brain, heart, kidney, liver, muscle, ovary, skeletal muscle, skin and testis. The 622,867,486 available reads were aligned to the genome using BWA, resulting in 505,441,237 reads aligning. Subsequently, the Ensembl RNA-Seq pipeline was used to process the BWA alignments and create a further 43,820,807 split read alignments using Exonerate. The split reads and the processed BWA alignments were combined to produce 33,778 transcript models in total. The predicted open reading frames were compared to Uniprot Protein Existence (PE) classification level 1 and 2 proteins using WU-BLAST.

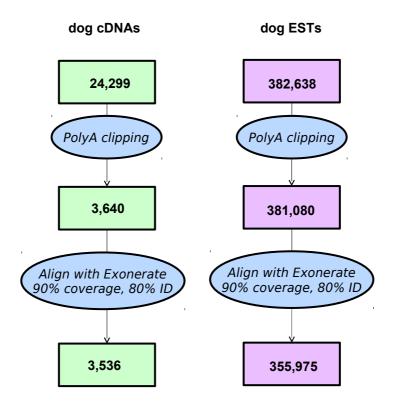


Figure 3: Alignment of dog cDNAs and ESTs to the dog genome Models with no BLAST alignment or poorly scoring BLAST alignments were split into a separate class.

Filtering Coding Models

Approximate time: 1 week

Coding models from the Similarity stage were filtered using modules such as TranscriptConsensus and LayerAnnotation. The Apollo software [16] was

used to visualise the results of filtering.

Addition of UTR to coding models

Approximate time: 1 week

The set of coding models was extended into the untranslated regions (UTRs) using filtered dog cDNA and dog RNA-Seq models. The RNA-Seq models were aligned against the UniProt proteins using WU-BLAST with a threshold of maximum 75% coverage for both the query (RNA-Seq model) and the target (UniProt) sequences. This resulted in 2,066 (of 2,829) dog coding models with UTR, 1,053 (of 9,065) human-mouse orthologues coding models

with UTR, and 5,258 (of 33,496) UniProt coding models with UTR.

Layering of evidence

Approximate time: 1 week

To combine models from different sources the LayerAnnotation module was used. This takes models from lower layers only where there are no models in a layer with higher priority. The layers, from the highest to the lowest order of precedence were:

Layer 1: targeted, RNA-Seg coding models (>75% coverage for both guery and target sequences), strongly supported similarity models, strongly

supported human-mouse orthologues.

Layer 2: RNA-Seg coding models (50-75% coverage for both guery and target

sequences).

Layer 3: RNA-Seq coding models from individual tissues (>75% coverage for

both query and target sequences).

Layer 4: RNA-Seg coding models from individual tissues (50-75% coverage

for both query and target sequences).

Layer 5: similarity models, human-mouse orthologues.

5

Layer 6: RNA-Seq coding models (>75% coverage of query sequence and 20-50% coverage of target sequence).

Layer 7: RNA-Seq coding models from individual tissues (>75% coverage of query sequence and 20-50% coverage of target sequence).

This led to a set of transcript models containing 2,829 from the targeted step, 32,969 from the similarity step, 15,450 from RNA-Seq evidence and 8,728 from the human-mouse orthologues set.

## Orthologue recovery: Retrieving one-to-one orthologues from other Ensembl species

Approximate time: 1 week

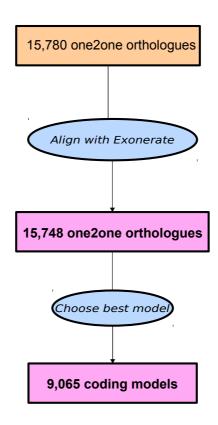


Figure 4: Retrieving missed orthologues for human and mouse using data from e!66

The preliminary set of coding models was compared to the set of Ensembl translations from human and mouse as follows: human-mouse one-to-one orthologues were retrieved using the Compara pipeline and aligned to the dog models.

Any alignments from human or mouse orthologues that did not align uniquely with a dog model were included in the dog set [Figure 4].

This resulted in 15,748 human-mouse orthologues taken through to the genebuild stage.

## Generating multi-transcript genes

### Approximate time: 2 weeks

The above steps generated a large set of potential transcript models, many of which overlapped one another. Redundant transcript models were collapsed and the remaining unique set of transcript models were clustered into multi-transcript genes where each transcript in a gene has at least one coding exon that overlaps a coding exon from another transcript within the same gene. The final gene set of 20,914 genes included 702 genes with at least one transcript supported by dog proteins. The remaining 20,212 genes had transcripts supported by proteins from other sources [Figure 5].

The final transcript set of 26,260 transcripts included 803 transcripts with support from 746 dog proteins, 13,056 transcripts with support from RNA-Seq data, 2,447 transcripts with support from one-to-one human-mouse orthologues and 9,915 transcripts with support from UniProt SwissProt [Figure 6].

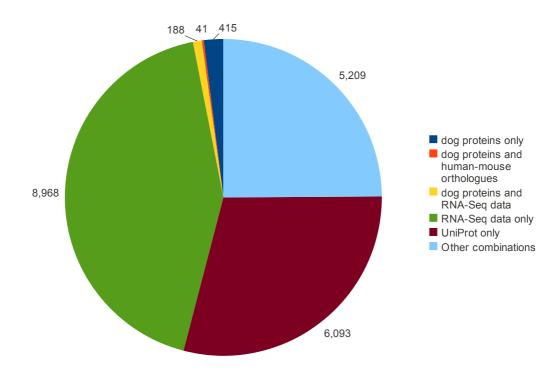


Figure 5: Supporting evidence for dog final gene set

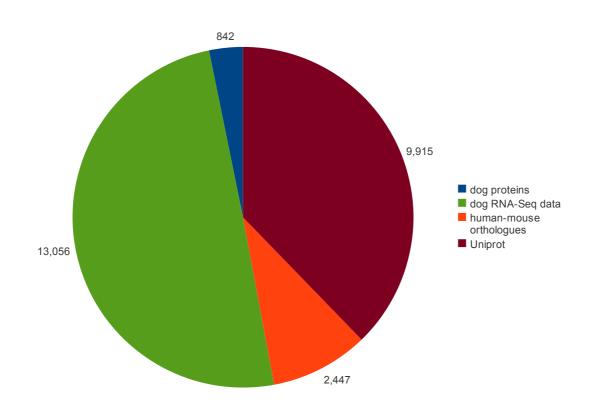


Figure 6: Supporting evidence for dog final transcript set

## Pseudogenes, Protein annotation, Cross-referencing, Stable Identifiers

## Approximate time: 2 weeks

The gene set was screened for potential pseudogenes. Before public release the transcripts and translations were given external references (cross-references to external databases), while translations were searched for domains/signatures of interest and labelled where appropriate. Stable identifiers were assigned to each gene, transcript, exon and translation. (When annotating a species for the first time, these identifiers are autogenerated. In all subsequent annotations for a species, the stable identifiers are propagated based on comparison of the new gene set to the previous gene set.)

Small structured non-coding genes were added using annotations taken from RFAM [17] and miRBase [18].

The final gene set consists of 19,856 protein coding genes, including mitochondrial genes, these contain 25,160 transcripts. A total of 950 pseudogenes were identified and 3,774 ncRNAs.

#### Further information

The Ensembl gene set is generated automatically, meaning that gene models are annotated using the Ensembl gene annotation pipeline. The main focus of this pipeline is to generate a conservative set of protein-coding gene models, although non-coding genes and pseudogenes may also be annotated.

Every gene model produced by the Ensembl gene annotation pipeline is supported by biological sequence evidence (see the "Supporting evidence" link on the left-hand menu of a Gene page or Transcript page); *ab initio* models are not included in our gene set. *Ab initio* predictions and the full set of cDNA and EST alignments to the genome are available on our website.

The quality of a gene set is dependent on the quality of the genome assembly. Genome assembly can be assessed in a number of ways, including:

### 1. Coverage estimate

- A higher coverage usually indicates a more complete assembly.
- Using Sanger sequencing only, a coverage of at least 2x is preferred.

## 2. N50 of contigs and scaffolds

- A longer N50 usually indicates a more complete genome assembly.
- Bearing in mind that an average human gene may be 10-15 kb in length, contigs shorter than this length will be unlikely to hold full-length gene models.

## 3. Number of contigs and scaffolds

 A lower number toplevel sequences usually indicates a more complete genome assembly.

### 4. Alignment of cDNAs and ESTs to the genome

 A higher number of alignments, using stringent thresholds, usually indicates a more complete genome assembly.

More information on the Ensembl automatic gene annotation process can be found at:

- Curwen V, Eyras E, Andrews TD, Clarke L, Mongin E, Searle SM,
   Clamp M: The Ensembl automatic gene annotation system.
   Genome Res. 2004, 14(5):942-50. [PMID: 15123590]
- Potter SC, Clarke L, Curwen V, Keenan S, Mongin E, Searle SM, Stabenau A, Storey R, Clamp M: The Ensembl analysis pipeline.
   Genome Res. 2004, 14(5):934-41. [PMID: 15123589]
- <a href="http://www.ensembl.org/info/docs/genebuild/genome annotation.html">http://www.ensembl.org/info/docs/genebuild/genome annotation.html</a>
- http://cvs.sanger.ac.uk/cgi-bin/viewvc.cgi/doc/pipeline docs/the genebuild process.txt?root=ensembl&view=co

## References

- 1 Smit, AFA, Hubley, R & Green, P: **RepeatMasker Open-3.0.** 1996-2010. www.repeatmasker.org
- 2 Smit, AFA, Hubley, R. RepeatModeler Open-1.0. 2008-2010. www.repeatmasker.org
- 3 Kuzio J, Tatusov R, and Lipman DJ: **Dust.** Unpublished but briefly described in: Morgulis A, Gertz EM, Schäffer AA, Agarwala R. A Fast and Symmetric DUST Implementation to Mask Low-Complexity DNA Sequences. *Journal of Computational Biology* 2006, **13(5):**1028-1040.
- 4 Benson G: Tandem repeats finder: a program to analyze DNA sequences.

  \*Nucleic Acids Res. 1999, 27(2):573-580. [PMID: 9862982]

  http://tandem.bu.edu/trf/trf.html
- Down TA, Hubbard TJ: Computational detection and location of transcription start sites in mammalian genomic DNA. Genome Res. 2002 12(3):458-461. <a href="http://www.sanger.ac.uk/resources/software/eponine/">http://www.sanger.ac.uk/resources/software/eponine/</a> [PMID: 11875034]
- Davuluri RV, Grosse I, Zhang MQ: Computational identification of promoters and first exons in the human genome. *Nat Genet.* 2001, **29(4)**:412-417. [PMID: 11726928]
- 7 Lowe TM, Eddy SR: tRNAscan-SE: a program for improved detection of transfer RNA genes in genomic sequence. *Nucleic Acids Res.* 1997, 25(5):955-64. [PMID: 9023104]
- 8 Burge C, Karlin S: **Prediction of complete gene structures in human genomic DNA.** *J Mol Biol.* 1997, **268(1):**78-94. [PMID: <u>9149143</u>]
- 9 Goujon M, McWilliam H, Li W, Valentin F, Squizzato S, Paern J, Lopez R: A new bioinformatics analysis tools framework at EMBL-EBI. Nucleic Acids Res. 2010, 38 Suppl:W695-699. <a href="http://www.uniprot.org/downloads">http://www.uniprot.org/downloads</a> [PMID: 20439314]
- Sayers EW, Barrett T, Benson DA, Bolton E, Bryant SH, Canese K, Chetvernin V, Church DM, Dicuccio M, Federhen S, Feolo M, Geer LY, Helmberg W, Kapustin Y, Landsman D, Lipman DJ, Lu Z, Madden TL, Madej T, Maglott DR, Marchler-Bauer A, Miller V, Mizrachi I, Ostell J, Panchenko A, Pruitt KD, Schuler GD, Sequeira E, Sherry ST, Shumway M, Sirotkin K, Slotta D, Souvorov A, Starchenko G, Tatusova TA, Wagner L, Wang Y, John Wilbur W, Yaschenko E, Ye J: Database resources of the National Center for Biotechnology Information. Nucleic Acids Res. 2010, 38(Database issue):D5-16. [PMID: 19910364]
- 11 <a href="http://www.ebi.ac.uk/ena/">http://www.ebi.ac.uk/ena/</a>
- 12 Altschul SF, Gish W, Miller W, Myers EW, Lipman DJ: **Basic local alignment search tool.** *J Mol Biol.* 1990, **215(3):**403-410. [PMID: <u>2231712</u>]
- 13 Slater GS, Birney E: Automated generation of heuristics for biological sequence

- comparison. BMC Bioinformatics 2005, **6:**31. [PMID: <u>15713233</u>]
- 14 Birney E, Clamp M, Durbin R: **GeneWise and Genomewise.** *Genome Res.* 2004, **14(5):**988-995. [PMID: <u>15123596</u>]
- Broad Institute of MIT and Harvard, 301 Binney Street, Cambridge, MA 02142, USA;
   Cambridge Center, Cambridge, MA 02142, USA;
   MA 02142, USA
- Lewis SE, Searle SM, Harris N, Gibson M, Lyer V, Richter J, Wiel C, Bayraktaroglir L, Birney E, Crosby MA, Kaminker JS, Matthews BB, Prochnik SE, Smithy CD, Tupy JL, Rubin GM, Misra S, Mungall CJ, Clamp ME: Apollo: a sequence annotation editor. *Genome Biol.* 2002, 3(12):RESEARCH0082. [PMID: 12537571]
- 17 Griffiths-Jones S., Bateman A., Marshall M., Khanna A., Eddy S.R: **Rfam: an RNA** family database. Nucleic Acids Research (2003) 31(1):p439-441. [PMID: 12520045]
- 18 Griffiths-Jones S, Grocock RJ, van Dongen S, Bateman A, Enright AJ: miRBase: microRNA sequences, targets and gene nomenclature. NAR 2006 34(Database Issue):D140-D144 [PMID: 16381832]
- Wilming L. G., Gilbert J. G. R., Howe K., Trevanion S., Hubbard T. and Harrow J. L: The vertebrate genome annotation (Vega) database. Nucleic Acid Res. 2008 Jan; Advance Access published on November 14, 2007; doi:10.1093/nar/gkm987 [PMID: 18003653]