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Small RNA transcriptome investigation based on next-generation sequencing technology

Linglin Zhou ^a, Xueying Li ^a, Qi Liu ^a, Fangqing Zhao ^{b,*}, Jinyu Wu ^{a,*}

^a Institute of Genomic Medicine, Wenzhou Medical College, Wenzhou 325035, China ^b Beijing Institutes of Life Science, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Beijing 100101, China

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Abstract

Over the past decade, there has been a growing realization that studying the small RNA transcriptome is essential for understanding the complexity of transcriptional regulation. With an increased throughput and a reduced cost, next-generation sequencing technology has provided an unprecedented opportunity to measure the extent and complexity of small RNA transcriptome. Meanwhile, the large amount of obtained data and varied technology platforms have also posed multiple challenges for effective data analysis and mining. To provide some insight into the small RNA transcriptome investigation, this review describes the major small RNA classes, experimental methods to identify small RNAs, and available bioinformatics tools and databases.

Keywords: Next-generation sequencing; Small RNA transcriptome; Category; Bioinformatics

1. Introduction

In almost all organisms, ranging from bacteria to mammals, our knowledge of small RNAs has grown at a breathtaking pace (Ghildiyal and Zamore, 2009), especially in the last few years since the first small non-coding RNA was identified. With the identification of extensive and diverse populations of small RNAs, increasing efforts have been made to reveal their wide range of biological functions. As potential regulators of gene expression at both transcriptional and post-transcriptional levels, small RNAs are found to be involved in regulation of gene expression through translational repression, mRNA degradation and chromatin modification (Czech and Hannon, 2011). Being the currently best-characterized, most conserved and prominent non-coding small RNAs (Bartel, 2009), micro-RNAs (miRNAs) are to date over 10,000 in number and found in 115 species across invertebrates, vertebrates, plants, yeasts, and

even protists and viruses (Liu et al., 2004a). lin-4 and let-7, originally identified by genetic analysis of *Caenorhabditis elegans* development timing, are the two founding members of miRNAs (Lee et al., 1993; Reinhart et al., 2000).

Due to an increased throughput and a reduced cost, nextgeneration sequencing (NGS) technology, such as Roche 454, ABI SOLiD and Illumina Solexa, represents an attractive alternative to traditional methods for a wide range of applications (Zhang et al., 2011). At present, NGS technology has been widely used in the fields of de novo genome sequencing, genome re-sequencing and transcriptome studies. In particular, deep sequencing has shown significant promise for small RNA discovery and genome-wide transcriptome profiling because of its ability to sequence many different small RNAs at singlebase resolution, on a genome-wide scale and in a single instrument run. Therefore, NGS has been widely used to study small RNA transcriptome. For example, using the Solexa platform, the NK cell miRNA transcriptome has been investigated to study miRNA roles in NK cell biology, and 21 novel miRNA genes have been discovered (Kapranov et al., 2007). Moreover, using deep sequencing, Jima et al. (2010) have provided a comprehensive quantitative catalog of miRNA

^{*} Corresponding authors. Tel/fax: $+86\ 10\ 6488\ 0586$ (F. Zhao); $+86\ 577\ 8883\ 1309$ (J. Wu).

E-mail addresses: zhfq@mail.biols.ac.cn (F. Zhao), iamwujy@yahoo.com.cn (J. Wu).

expression by normal and malignant B cells, paving the way for characterization of the biogenesis and functions of expressed miRNA genes (Kim, 2005).

However, with the generation of billions of short sequencing reads, the infrastructure of existing bioinformatics technology has been greatly challenged in the field of data transfer, storage, read alignment, assembly and subsequent processing management despite that lots of user-friendly and efficient analysis software have been developed to fill the gaps. In this review, we firstly give an overview of the small RNA categories. Then, we introduce various experimental methods adopted to investigate the small RNAs, with focus on the application of NGS technologies in miRNAs. Finally, we discuss recently available small RNA transcriptome databases and bioinformatics tools for NGS platforms.

2. Classes of small RNAs

Small RNAs, also called nonconventional, functional or regulatory RNAs, are defined as any non-coding RNAs <200 nucleotides (Kapranov et al., 2007), which are extensively involved in regulation. For example, they induce gene silencing through base-pairing with specific targets, and collectively regulate a substantial fraction of the transcriptome (Czech and Hannon, 2011). Their important roles in transcription, RNA stability, and translation are becoming increasingly evident. On the whole, based on their biogenesis, biological functions and associated protein partners, small RNAs can be categorized into a few broad classes (Kim, 2005) (Table 1).

Derived from the stem-loop regions of longer RNA precursors, miRNAs, ~21-24 nt in size, influence mRNA stability and translation by binding to them (Bartel, 2004). miRNA-mediated translational repression represents a distinct mechanism of post-transcriptional regulation, and modulates more than one-third of the human gene transcriptomes according to bioinformatics analysis (Lewis et al., 2005). To date, most of them have been identified to be involved in vital biological processes, such as development, apoptosis, neural patterning, and viral infection. Interestingly, miRNAs found in plants are different from those in animals in terms of gene structures, biogenesis and mechanisms as well as target properties, indicating that miRNAs in animals and plants may have independent origins (Jones-Rhoades et al., 2006; Molnar et al., 2007; Zhao et al., 2007). Deep sequencing has contributed considerably to the discovery of many expressed small RNAs and the identification of a large number of candidate miRNAs. Over the past 5 years, more than 8000 miRNA genes have been identified in animals and plants (miRBase release version 16), and the number is still growing (Witten et al., 2010). An up-to-date repository of miRNAs and miRNA genes from various organisms is publicly available in the miRNA registry (miRBase Sequence Database) (http:// www.mirbase.org/).

Short-interfering RNAs (siRNAs), another major class of endogenous non-coding small RNAs, are shown to be important regulators of gene expression in eukaryotes (Vazquez, 2006). siRNAs are usually derived from long double-stranded RNA

(dsRNA) processed by RNase III-like enzymes called DICERs and mainly involved in defense against molecular parasites including viruses, transposons, and transgenes through RNAi (Sijen and Plasterk, 2003). In general, siRNAs trigger mRNA degradation through perfect-matching to their targets (Meister and Tuschl, 2004). siRNAs are subdivided into tasi-RNA, ra-siRNA, nat-siRNAs, scnRNA and hc-siRNA (Table 1).

According to the report of Aravin et al. (2001), a distinct class of small RNAs, named PIWI-interacting RNAs (piR-NAs), typically 24–31 nt in size, has been proved to be present in *Drosophila melanogaster*. Since then, piRNAs are identified and preliminarily characterized as a novel class of small RNAs. Recent reports indicated that piRNAs specifically bind to the Piwi clade of Argonaute proteins (germline-specific members of the AGO protein family) to form the RNA-induced silencing complex (RISC), which silences transposable elements (TEs), thus protecting genomic integrity in the germ line (Li et al., 2009). Although much progress has been made in the investigation of their distinct biogenesis mechanisms (Girard et al., 2006; Aravin et al., 2007) and molecular functions (Siomi et al., 2011), the piRNA pathway remains poorly understood and needs to be further explored.

Recently, researchers have made a groundbreaking discovery of a new class of bidirectionally transcribed, non-polyadenylated non-coding RNA — enhancer RNA or eRNA (Kim et al., 2010). However, their biological functions remain unclear and need further investigation.

Discoveries will continue to exponentially increase the knowledge of new small RNA classes and new examples of existing classes, and thus our understanding of gene regulation will be expanded significantly as well.

3. Experimental methods to identify small RNAs

3.1. Conventional experimental approaches

Various experimental strategies including cloning, Northern blotting, RNase protection assay and primer extension methodologies have been employed for quantification and identification of novel small RNAs. A new miRNA gene prediction method combined with small-RNA cloning was used to study a subset of pathogenic viruses, and the family of herpes viruses was demonstrated most likely to encode miRNAs (Pfeffer et al., 2005). Many small RNAs with the potential to arise from fold-back structures characteristic of the lin-4 and let-7 hairpins were identified by cloning and sequencing (Lagos-Quintana et al., 2001). Furthermore, by using pyrosequencing technology, Ruby et al. (2006) identified thousands of endogenous small RNAs in C. elegans, including miRNAs, siRNAs, and 21U-RNAs. Although cloning and sequencing is a useful approach for the identification of individual novel small RNAs, there are several shortcomings in its application. For example, it requires a large amount of total RNA, but it is not practical in many cases. Due to its low coverage, small RNAs of low abundance may very often be missed. Additionally, it is difficult to use this method to distinguish miR-NAs from degradation products of other ncRNAs, such as

Table 1
The classification of small RNAs.

| Class | Sub-class | Length (nt) | Biogenesis | Protein partner (associated Argonaute superfamily proteins) | Action mechanism | Biological function | Reference |
|--------------------------------------|--|--|---|---|--|---|--|
| MicroRNA (miRNA) | | ~22 (19-25) | Two-step cleavage of hairpin precursors by Drosha and Dicer | Argonaute subfamily | Post-transcriptional regulation of transcripts | Diverse functions such as development and cell differentiation | Bartel, 2004; Meister and Tuschl, 2004 |
| Short-interfering RNA (siRNA) | Endogenous trans-acting siRNA (tasi-RNA) | 21-22 (nematode) and 21 (plants) | Cleavage of long endogenous dsRNAs precursors by Dicer | Ago1* | Post-transcriptional regulation of transcripts (mRNA cleavage) | Related to plant development | Peragine et al., 2004; Vazquez et al., 2004; Baumberger and Baulcombe, 2005; Zhao et al., 2007 |
| | Repeat-associated siRNA (ra-siRNA) | 24–26 (plants) and 24–27 (fruit flies) | Cleavage of long dsRNAs derived from genomic repeats and retrotransposons by Dicer | Ziwi | Modification of histone and/or DNA | Silence of transposable element and viruses | Ketting et al., 1999; Tabara et al., 1999; Djikeng et al., 2001; Mette et al., 2002; Schramke and Allshire, 2003; Xie et al., 2004; |
| | Natural-antisense transcript derived siRNAs (nat-siRNAs) | | Dicer processing of dsRNA arising from sense- and antisense- transcript pairs | | Post-transcriptional regulation | Pathogen defense and regulation of stress responses in plants | Borsani et al., 2005; Katiyar-Agarwal et al., 2006; Vazquez, 2006 |
| | Small scan RNA (scnRNA) | 27-30 | Cleavage of long dsRNAs by Dicer | Twi1 | Guide heterochromatin formation and DNA elimination | Genome rearrangement during conjugation | Mochizuki et al., 2002; Liu et al., 2004b; Mochizuki and Gorovsky, 2004 |
| | Heterochromatic siRNA (hc-siRNA) | ~24 | Derived from long dsRNA precursors | Ago1* | DNA and histone methylation | Transposon control and regulation of heterochromatin structures | Djikeng et al., 2001; Shi et al., 2004a, 2004b |
| Tiny non-coding RNA (tncRNA) | | ~18 | Produced by Dicer from specific position near the 5' end of transcribed genes | | | Unknown | Ambros et al., 2003; Taft et al., 2009 |
| Small modulatory RNA (smRNA) | | ~20 | Ç | | Transcriptional transactivation | Regulate neuron specific gene expression and neuronal differentiation | Kuwabara et al., 2004 |
| Endogenous siRNA (endo- siRNA) | | ~21 | Produced from endogenous dsRNA precursors by Dicer-2 | | Post-transcriptional regulation | Silence of transposable element and possibly endogenous mRNA | Tabara et al., 1999; Okamura and Lai, 2008; Watanabe et al., 2008; Fagegaltier et al., 2009 |
| Piwi-associated RNA (piRNA) | | 24-31 | Produced from long ssRNA precursors in gonads, which is Argonaute-dependent but Dicer-independent | Piwi, Aubergine (Aub) and Ago3* HILI, HIWI1, HIWI2 and HIWI3 | Post-transcriptional and chromatin regulation | Transposons and retroelements silence in the germline | Girard et al., 2006; Grivna et al., 2006; Lau et al., 2006; Grimson et al., 2008; Klattenhoff and Theurkauf, 2008 |

(continued on next page)

| table 1 (continued) | | | | | | | |
|---|-------------------|----------------------------|---|---|--------------------------------------|--|---------------------------------------|
| Class | Sub-class | Length (nt) | Biogenesis | Protein partner (associated Argonaute superfamily proteins) | Action mechanism | Biological function | Reference |
| Small nuclear RNA (snRNA) Small nucleolar RNA (snoRNA) | C/D box snoRNAs | ~70-120 | | | Post-transcriptional modification | Involved in mRNA splicing Directs the enzymatic modification of ribosomal | Kiss, 2001 Taft et al., 2009 |
| qiRNAs | H/ACA box snoRNAs | $\sim 100 - 200$ $20 - 21$ | Originate mostly from the ribosomal DNA locus | Argonaute protein QDE-2 | Post-transcriptional regulation | Guide pseudouridulation Guide pseudouridulation Play a role in the DNA damage response by inhibiting protein | Taft et al., 2010 Lee et al., 2009 |
| Enhancer RNAs (eRNAs) | | | | | | translation Unknown | Kim et al., 2010 |

rRNA or tRNA. To circumvent these limitations, many other methods for small RNA transcriptome analysis have been developed. Various studies have showed that miRNAs are efficiently detected by Northern blotting analysis (Valoczi et al., 2004). Using Northern blotting analysis, a subset of brain-expressed miRNAs were characterized, indicating their potential roles in murine and human neuronal differentiation (Pfeffer et al., 2005). RNase protection assay was used to detect mature miRNA (Lee et al., 2003). Previous research proposed a new real-time RT-PCR scheme (Stem-loop RT-PCR) for miRNA quantification (Kramer, 2011), which enables fast, accurate and sensitive detection and expression profiling of miRNA and other small RNAs.

3.2. Microarray

Microarray technology is a further step toward high throughput quantification of miRNA expression, and has been successfully developed to explore various miRNA expression patterns during development (Rosa and Brivanlou, 2009), differentiation (Asli et al., 2008), oncogenesis (Croce, 2009), and disease progression (Latronico and Condorelli, 2009). Moreover, this technology has also been developed for the identification of novel miRNAs predicted by bioinformatics approaches (Bentwich et al., 2005; Li et al., 2006). In a recent study, a combined approach of computational prediction and microarray analysis was used to identify and quantify a baboon's miRNAs (Karere et al., 2010). Using customdesigned dual-channel microarrays, researchers also conducted miRNA profiling studies of staged embryos to analyze microRNA expression levels (Thomson et al., 2004). In addition, microarray analysis was used to determine the expression patterns of a subset of miRNAs in the brain (Krichevsky et al., 2003) and many other human tissues (Barad et al., 2004). Therefore, microarrays can be used to study small RNA expression in addition to mRNA expression. A good case in point is miRNA microchip, which is specific for miRNA profiling on a global scale and serves as a robust tool not only for detection of miRNA expression patterns but also for expression quantification (Liu et al., 2008). In general, miRNA-specific oligonucleotide microarray system has several advantages in comparison with the currently available methods for detection and characterization of miRNAs. Firstly, the global expression of multiple genes can be identified in the same sample at one time point. Secondly, the expression of both mature and precursor molecules can be identified simultaneously using carefully synthesized oligonucleotide probes. Thirdly, in comparison to Northern blotting analysis, less amount of RNA is needed and more reproducible results can be obtained. Finally, lower false-negative and falsepositive rates can be achieved.

3.3. Next-generation sequencing

Although cloning and sequencing of small RNAs enables the discovery of new miRNAs, it was time-consuming and limited to the most abundant sRNAs. Real-time PCR enables a rapid detection of miRNAs and precursors but has limitations on novel miRNA detection. RNA hybridization has low throughput and limited sensitivity. miRNA arrays are not suitable for detecting novel miRNAs and have radioactive isotopes in probe design. Moreover, all these methods have major limitations on comparability and accuracy of the derived data (Cummins and Velculescu, 2006).

Traditional methods mentioned above are not generally useful for discovering and profiling low-abundance or novel small RNAs. In contrast, deep sequencing approaches, such as Illumina Solexa, ABI SOLiD and Roche 454, have several advantages, including high resolution, dramatically increased throughput and sequencing depth, and reduced complexity of experimental procedures. With the availability of high-throughput sequencing technology, new discoveries of species-or tissue-specific or low-abundant small RNAs have become possible.

Since there are some differences among these novel sequencing technologies, proper sequencing method should be selected based on different research goals (Metzker, 2010). For example, 454 technology offers the longest, high quality reads (with read lengths of 400 bp, 500 Mb/run), whereas the Solexa platform yields a much larger amount of data (with read lengths of 35–75 bp, 12 Gb/run) (McCormick et al., 2011). Therefore, for sequencing of shorter reads (up to 35 bp), the Solexa platform will be a better choice (Szittya et al., 2008). Unlike platforms that produce longer read lengths, SOLiD can currently give an enormous volume of reads with sequencing depth of 300 Gb/run and produce maximum read lengths of 75 bp (McCormick et al., 2011). Given that commercially available NGS platforms coexist in the marketplace with various sequencing capabilities in terms of throughput, read length, error rate, etc, a preferable platform is often selected according to several factors, e.g., cost, sequencing depth and read length. For example, considering that sRNA is in the range of approximately 18-30 nt and that low sequencing depth may fail to detect rare species, Illumina or SOLiD is currently the ideal choice for small RNA transcriptome investigations.

These revolutionized technologies have resulted in a massive expansion of transcriptomics in all fields. Particularly, for species whose whole genomic information is unavailable, deep sequencing method shows remarkable superiority over traditional approaches. We envision that such approaches will gain even more popularity in the near future. However, for the lack of efficient and flexible tools, how to handle and analyze the data yielded by deep sequencing is the computational and analytical challenge now facing us.

4. Currently available bioinformatics databases and tools

4.1. Databases

deepBase (Yang et al., 2010), a comprehensive database developed for annotation and discovery of small RNAs from transcriptomic data, for one thing, provides a comprehensive annotation and mining of deep sequencing data from 185

small RNA libraries covering diverse tissues and cell lines of seven organisms. Another two databases related to deep sequencing small RNA datasets are Gene Expression Omnibus (GEO), which is a web-based analysis tool established for the efficient large-scale functional genomic data retrieval and mining (Barrett et al., 2007), and FANTOM4 EdgeExpressDB, which is a novel database and set of interfaces for interpreting biological networks and comparing large high-throughput expression datasets that requires minimal development for new data types and search patterns (Severin et al., 2009). Using intuitive gene-centric and sub-network views, the FANTOM4 EdgeExpressDB summarizes gene expression patterns in the contexts of alternative promoter structures and regulatory transcription factors and miRNAs, and is a crucial resource for elucidation of the gene regulation mechanisms in acute myeloid leukemia, monocyte/macrophage differentiation as well as human transcriptional networks.

With a large number of miRNAs data being generated and miRNA target genes being discovered, many public resources have been constructed. miRBase (Griffiths-Jones et al., 2008), a database for miRNA research, is a central online repository focusing on miRNA nomenclature, annotation and target prediction. TarBase (Sethupathy et al., 2006) is developed for a comprehensive collection and description of experiment-supported miRNA targets. miR2Disease (Jiang et al., 2009) is designed for the study of miRNA-disease relationships in various human diseases. PMRD (Zhang et al., 2010), which integrates the latest plant miRNA data with a user-friendly web interface, is a useful tool for studying miRNAs and their target genes of model plants and major crops.

4.2. Bioinformatics analysis pipeline

Next-generation sequencing platforms pose increasing challenges for the efficiency, accuracy and usability of data analysis software. Now more than ever, intuitive and efficient data exploration and bioinformatics analysis tools are urgently required. In an effort to relieve growing pressure on handling massive quantities of short-read sequences, several NGS-based small RNA transcriptome bioinformatics analysis tools, together with useful databases of small RNAs, have been developed (Table 2).

MicroRazerS (Emde et al., 2010) is a stand-alone software optimized for rapid alignment of small RNA reads onto a reference genome, which is a basic step for further identification and quantification of miRNAs obtained from deep sequencing. CASHX pipeline (Fahlgren et al., 2009) is used to process read data generated from Illumina and other high-throughput sequencing technologies. The pipeline can be used to parse, map, quantify and manage large quantities of sequence data. Several computational methods were developed to detect miRNAs. Publicly available tools for miRNA discovery include miRDeep, miRTRAP, MIREAP, mirTools, miRanalyzer, MIReNA, miRExpress, UEA sRNA toolkit, SeqBuster and miRNAkey. miRDeep (Friedlander et al., 2008), to our knowledge the first stand-alone tool used for deep sequencing miRNA data, was developed to analyze

 $\label{thm:continuous} \begin{tabular}{ll} Table 2 \\ NGS-based small RNA transcriptome bioinformatics databases and analysis tools. \\ \end{tabular}$

| Name | Link | Function | Service type | Reference |
|----------------|--|---|---------------------------|--------------------------|
| MicroRazerS | http://www.seqan.de/projects/MicroRazerS.html | Small RNA reads alignment | Stand-alone | Emde et al., 2010 |
| CASHX | http://jcclab.science.oregonstate.edu/?q=node/view/54596 | Small RNA reads alignment Quantify and manage sequence data | Stand-alone | Fahlgren et al., 2009 |
| mirDeep | http://www.mdc-berlin.de/rajewsky/miRDeep.html | Detect known and novel miRNAs | Stand-alone | Friedlander et al., 2008 |
| miRTRAP | http://flybuzz.berkeley.edu/miRTRAP.html | Detect novel miRNAs | Stand-alone | Hendrix et al., 2010 |
| MIREAP | https://sourceforge.net/projects/mireap/ | Detect known and novel miRNAs | Stand-alone | |
| mirTools | http://centre.bioinformatics.zj.cn/mirtools/ | Small RNA read alignment | Web server | Zhu et al., 2010 |
| | | Comparative analysis of two or more | | |
| | | miRNA expression data | | |
| | | Classification and annotation of known | | |
| | | miRNAs | | |
| | | Detect novel miRNAs | | |
| miRanalyzer | http://bioinfo2.ugr.es/miRanalyzer/miRanalyzer.php | Small RNA read alignment | Web server | Hackenberg et al., 2011 |
| | | Detect known and unknown miRNAs | Stand-alone | |
| | | Detect undetected mature-star miRNAs | | |
| UEA sRNA | http://srna-tools.cmp.uea.ac.uk/ | Predict miRNAs and their targets | Web server | Moxon et al., 2008 |
| toolkit | | Compare expression levels in sRNA loci | | |
| C D4 | h.u., //tiill 1-h/ht | Find transactin siRNA loci | XX-1 | D |
| SeqBuster | http://estivill_lab.crg.es/seqbuster | miRNA isoforms analysis | Web server Stand-alone | Pantano et al., 2010 |
| miRNAkey | http://ibis.tau.ac.il/miRNAkey | Small RNA read alignment Comparative analysis of miRNA | Stand-alone | Ronen et al., 2010 |
| | | expression data | | |
| MIReNA | http://www.ihes.fr/~carbone/data8/ | Detect novel miRNAs | Stand-alone | |
| WIIKCIVA | http://www.mes.n/~carbone/datas/ | pre-miRNAs validation | Stand-alone | |
| miRExpress | http://mirexpress.mbc.nctu.edu.tw/index.php | miRNA expression profiling | Stand-alone | Wang et al., 2009 |
| deepBase | http://deepbase.sysu.edu.cn/ | Small RNA reads alignment | Database | Yang et al., 2010 |
| асерваяс | intp://deepease.sj.suiedaleiz | Small RNAs transcriptome annotation | Danouse | rang et an, 2010 |
| | | Data storage, retrieval, mining and | | |
| | | visualization | | |
| GEO short-read | http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/geo/ | Capture, storage and retrieval of large- | Database | Barrett et al., 2007 |
| archive | | scale genomic data | | |
| FANTOM4 | http://fantom.gsc.riken.jp/4/edgeexpress | Gene express patterns of promoters, | Database | Severin et al., 2009 |
| EdgeExpressDB | | genes and microRNAs | | |
| miRBase | http://www.mirbase.org | Search for miRNA | Database | Griffiths-Jones et al., |
| | | Analyze genomic coordinates and | | 2008 |
| | | context | | |
| | | Mine relationships between miRNAs | | |
| TarBase | http://diana.cslab.ece.ntua.gr/tarbase/ | Collection of experimentally tested | Database | Sethupathy et al., 2006 |
| | | miRNA targets information | | |
| miR2Disease | http://www.mir2disease.org/ | Collection of microRNA-disease | Database | Jiang et al., 2009 |
| | | relationship information | | |
| DMDD | harman Marian for a mariant and a second and | Data submission or retrieval | D-4-1 | 71 |
| PMRD | http://bioinformatics.cau.edu.cn/PMRD/ | Integrations of plant miRNA data | Database | Zhang et al., 2010 |

large-scale small RNA sequencing data and detect both known and novel miRNAs with high confidence, and employs stringent statistical controls to estimate the false-positive rate and the sensitivity of predictions to ensure its reliability. MiRTRAP (Hendrix et al., 2010) is a novel computational strategy developed for comprehensive identification of the full repertoire of miRNAs (known and novel miRNAs) from deep sequencing. In brief, MiRTRAP has powerful strength to systematically identify all possible miRNAs from Illumina Solexa sequencing data. MIREAP (https://sourceforge.net/ projects/mireap/) is a tool for identifying both known and novel miRNAs from small RNA libraries generated by Illumina/454/SOLiD technology. mirTools (Zhu et al., 2010), a comprehensive web server developed to characterize multiple small RNA transcriptomes in 15 most commonly studied model organisms, has several advantages such as high resolution, high yield and reduced complexity of experimental

procedures. One feature of mirTools is that it runs in twomode architecture on a centralized platform supporting miRNA identification not only in single but between paired samples. miRanalyzer (Hackenberg et al., 2011), a web server and stand-alone tool based on a highly accurate machinelearning approach, enables detection of all known miRNA sequences annotated in miRBase and prediction of novel miRNAs. Additionally, the new version of miRanalyzer has been developed with differential expression module, allowing comparative analysis of differential expression of known and predicted microRNAs. MIReNA (http://www.ihes.fr/~carbone/ data8/) is a genome-wide search algorithm for the detection of new miRNAs starting from known ones or from deep sequencing data, and for pre-miRNAs validation, with high sensitivity, specificity and accuracy. Compared with miRDeep, MIReNA shows high specific predictive power for miRNAs. miRExpress (Wang et al., 2009) is a stand-alone software

package initially designed for detecting miRNA expression profile from HTS reads of small-RNAs without the need for sequenced genomes. UEA sRNA toolkits (Moxon et al., 2008) were designed to analyze a large number of short sequences, such as the identification of miRNAs and their targets and the detection of differential expression levels of specific small RNA loci. SeqBuster (Pantano et al., 2010) is a web-based tool for handling and analyzing the miRNA variants or isomers hidden in large-scale small RNA datasets. miRNAkey (Ronen et al., 2010) is a software package with user-friendly graphical interface that was developed to analyze miRNA deep sequencing data, including comparative analysis of differentially expressed miRNAs in paired samples.

4.3. Limitations of current approaches

The generation of expression profiles and identification of novel small RNAs from deep sequencing are dependent on tools. The bioinformatics tools introduced above can be used for i) data mapping, annotation and visualization; ii) data storage and retrieval; iii) integration and interpretation of data from multiple technological platforms, tissues and cell lines; and iv) custom analyses that help address a variety of biological questions. However, these tools still have some limitations on, for example, the identification of novel miRNAs, piRNAs, etc. Due to a large number of variable sequences and the nuclear localization of mammalian piRNAs, currently available tools are not effective in identifying novel piRNAs from tremendously abundant RNA species. Future studies should place emphasis upon identification of small RNAs which were previously thought to be mere degradation products. There are great challenges in the development of both more efficient automated pipelines for deciphering deep sequencing data and validation pipelines for checking the results. Additionally, there's an impending need for the analysis of large-scale data generated under a user-friendly environment in which large-scale short reads can be displayed from next-generation sequencing. Several bioinformatics tools have been specifically designed for visualizing nextgeneration sequencing data. For example, MapView has been designed for general short reads alignment (Bao et al., 2009), and MagicViewer for SNP annotation and visualization (Hou et al., 2010). However, no ideal next-generation sequencing data visualization tools have been presently developed for the small RNA transcriptome. Most notably, because bioinformatics tools, both web-based and stand-alone, differ somewhat in mapping and counting strategies, expression levels of miRNA estimated by different tools may vary to some degree. For example, using the same dataset (http:// ibis.tau.ac.il/miRNAkey/downloads/sample_data_small.tar.gz), a pair-wise comparison analysis between miRNAkey, UEA sRNA toolkits and miRExpress showed that there is some discrepancy between these tools in the estimated expression levels of miRNA (Supplementary Fig. 1). Since each tool bears inherent biases, to parse and compare sequencing data across platforms, further estimation and correction of systematic errors should be made.

5. Conclusions and perspectives

In summary, high-throughput sequencing, on the one hand, provides unprecedented opportunities to generate a large amount of sequencing data and boosts studies on the discovery and quantification of small RNAs; on the other hand, it poses challenges for subsequent data manipulation and interpretation. The development of tools for computational analysis of large amount of data generated from NGS is still in its infancy. Full-scale efforts are being made to improve our abilities to handle and analyze sequencing data. As miRNA research is an exciting and growing field, many open questions are yet to be answered and future research directions yet to be discussed. To solve these problems, the integration is required of genomics, genetics, molecular and structural biology, biochemistry and bioinformatics. With all the achievements described above, we have made a step further toward a comprehensive knowledge of the small RNAs.

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Supplementary data

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