

# PadeNA: A PARALLEL DE NOVO ASSEMBLER

Gaurav Thareja, Vivek Kumar  
*Aditi Technologies, Manyata Tech Park, Bangalore, India*  
{gauravt, vivekk}@aditi.com

Mike Zyskowski, Simon Mercer, Bob Davidson  
*Microsoft Research, One Microsoft Way, Redmond, WA 98052, U.S.A.*  
{Michael.Zyskowski, Simon.Mercer, Bob.Davidson}@microsoft.com

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**Abstract:** Recent technological advances in DNA sequencing technology are resulting in ever-larger quantities of sequence information being made available to an increasingly broad segment of the scientific and clinical community. This is in turn driving the need for standard, rapid and easy to use tools for genomic reconstruction and analysis. As a step towards addressing this challenge, we present PadeNA (Parallel *de Novo* Assembler), a parallelized DNA sequence assembler with a graphical user interface. PadeNA is designed using interface-driven architecture to facilitate code reusability and extensibility, and is provided as part of the open source Microsoft Biology Foundation. Installers and documentation are available at <http://research.microsoft.com/bio/>.

## 1 INTRODUCTION

Many attempts have been made to address the DNA sequence assembly problem and all give way to heuristic methods at some stage. Traditionally, Sanger sequencing projects have relied on a heuristic assembly method known as overlap-layout-consensus, in which overlaps between reads are used to guide the assembly. This graph-based model has inspired the development of applications such as the TIGR (Sutton, 1995), Celera (Myers 2000), Phrap (Green, 1996), CAP3 (Huang, 1999), Atlas (Havlak, 2003) and ARACHNE (Batzoglou, 2002) assemblers.

The latest generation of DNA sequencing technologies is capable of producing far greater volumes of data, but these tend to be in the form of short sequence reads. With short reads eliminating the reliability of read overlaps, the pioneering work of Pevzner *et al.* (Pevzner, 2001) on de Bruijn graphs now forms the basis of many of the current generation of short-read assemblers. Velvet (Zerbino, 2008), ALLPATHS (Butler 2008), Euler SR (Chaisson, 2008) and ABySS (Simpson, 2009) all have de Bruijn graphs at the heart of their algorithms.

Many of the currently available short read *de novo* assemblers are single-threaded applications accessible through a command line interface and designed to run on a single processor or distributed memory architectures. While sufficient for the current requirements of genomics, the increasing availability of cheap DNA sequence is already revolutionizing the many branches of genomics research and finding increasingly broad application in healthcare and non-traditional fields from environmental studies to law enforcement. This radically broadened user base will demand tools that are compatible with the latest sequencing technologies, are adapted to their specific needs and are responsive and intuitive. This in turn requires a code base that can leverage the capabilities of computer hardware with shared memory architectures and facilitate rapid application development and intuitive user interface design. Many of these needs can be met within a modular framework of reusable bioinformatics componentry open to community contribution and freely available for both commercial and academic developers. Such a framework would be able to evolve along with the technologies it supported, extending as needed to accommodate new experimental techniques and computer architectures while reducing the level of

effort needed to support an increasingly diverse user community.

## 2 IMPLEMENTATION

PadeNA (the Parallel *de Novo* Assembler) has been implemented with the principles of code modularization and reusability in mind, and focuses on the concept of parallelization in shared memory architecture. This is the first application of its kind developed for Windows-based users. The major improvement in PadeNA is interface driven design (Pattison, 1999) which promotes reusability and extensibility of code without affecting its data handling capabilities. In effect, PadeNA is a sequence of more basic functions, and developers can easily customize the default algorithm by inserting or substituting their own custom classes to meet the needs of their users. In order to demonstrate the functionality of PadeNA, we have also developed a graphical user interface using Windows Presentation Foundation, providing a usable and intuitive interface to this and other assembly algorithms.

PadeNA is built as a part of a .NET based open-source bioinformatics library, the Microsoft Biology Foundation (MBF). It uses .NET 4.0 constructs for multi-core parallelization and performance scales well on computers with two or more processors as compared to single-core systems.

Microsoft .NET framework uses a method to improve the runtime performance of computer programs. This is known as just-in-time compilation (JIT), also known as dynamic translation. JIT compilers represent a hybrid approach, with translation occurring continuously, as with interpreters, but with caching of translated code to minimize performance degradation. It also offers other advantages over statically compiled code at development time, such as handling of late-bound data types and the ability to enforce security guarantees.

Moreover, Native Image Generator, or simply NGEN is the Ahead-of-time compilation service of the .NET Framework. It allows a .NET assembly to be pre-compiled instead of letting the Common Language Runtime do a Just-in-time compilation at runtime (Biswas, 2006).

Further, bioinformatics researchers working in Unix/Linux environment can take advantage of Mono 2.8 for extending PadeNA. Mono is an open source, cross-platform, implementation of C# and

the CLR that is binary compatible with Microsoft.NET (Mono, 2004).

### 2.1 Microsoft Biology Foundation

The Microsoft Biology Foundation is an open source reusable .NET library and application programming interface for bioinformatics research. Application developers can use MBF to perform a wide range of tasks; DNA, RNA and protein sequences can be imported from files in a variety of standard data formats, including FASTA, FASTQ, GenBank, GFF, BED, SAM and BAM. Analysis of these sequences can be performed using one of several sequence alignment algorithms including Smith-Waterman, Needleman-Wunsch, pairwise overlap aligner, MUMmer and NUCmer (Kurtz, 2004). These sequences can also be queried against various databases using BLAST (Altschul, 1997) services, hosted at different locations and accessible through a web service interface. File formatters can be used to write sequences in the desired supported output format irrespective of the original input format.

Data files are sometimes large enough that hardware limitations prevent a parser from loading the entire data set into memory – this may occur when handling one very large sequence, or a very large file (or files) containing many smaller sequences. MBF implements data virtualization by dividing the data into blocks and providing the data block by block to the parser as required by the application.

MBF represents sequence data and metadata with format-independent Sequence and SequenceRange objects. These objects efficiently store sequence data in a variety of encoded formats and provide a flexible and robust way to represent sequences in the MBF environment.

MBF applications can be implemented in any .NET-compatible language. Over 70 of these exist, suiting many different programming styles and levels of expertise; examples include C#, F#, Visual Basic and Python.

### 2.2 Input Parameters

**Kmer Length:** The choice of kmer length is a critical task. The search space depends upon kmer length, with smaller kmer length increase the number of vertices in the graph. Larger kmer length reduces the number of ambiguous edges in the graph but also significantly impact the true overlaps between kmers. For optimal graph formation, kmer length should not be less than half the length of the

longest input sequence and cannot be more than the length of the shortest input sequence.

**Dangle Threshold:** Maximum length to traverse from dead ends till point of ambiguity is reached. This value is dependent on kmer length. (Default: Kmer length + 1)

**Redundant Path Length Threshold:** Maximum length to traverse from point of ambiguity till paths converge in the graph. (Default:  $3 * (\text{Kmer length} + 1)$ )

**Erosion Threshold:** The parameter erodes bases at the ends of blunt contigs with coverage less than the specified threshold. (Default: Square root of median of kmer coverage)

**Contig Coverage Threshold:** The parameter removes low coverage contigs. (Default: Square root of median of kmer coverage)

**Scaffold Redundancy:** The number of mate pair connections required to connect a pair of contigs. (Default: 2)

**Depth:** This parameter defines the threshold while performing depth first search on contig overlap graph. (Default: 10)

### 3 ASSEMBLY ALGORITHM

Sequence assembly algorithms typically have two major phases. In the first phase, contigs are extended until either they cannot be unambiguously extended further or they reach an end due to lack of read coverage.

During the second phase, information from paired-end reads is used to resolve ambiguities and order and merge contigs to generate scaffolds. We have used similar steps to those already available in ABySS (Simpson, 2009), Euler SR (Chaisson, 2008), BAMBUS (Pop, 2004) and the Greedy Path Merging Algorithm (Huson, 2002). However we have parallelized many of them, as described later.

#### 3.1 Building the de Bruijn Graph

The sequence reads are first loaded using the data-virtualized parser of MBF and read sequences with ambiguous characters are removed prior to construction of the graph. The remaining sequences are broken into kmers by defining a window of length  $k$  and moving it along each sequence one base at a time. The forward and reverse complementary sequence of a kmer are considered equivalent. We

consider lexicographically larger kmer sequence as sequence from positive strand.

A de Bruijn Graph is a edit distance graph in which nodes corresponds to objects, and two nodes are connected if the edit distances between the objects represented by those nodes is one. Each node in the

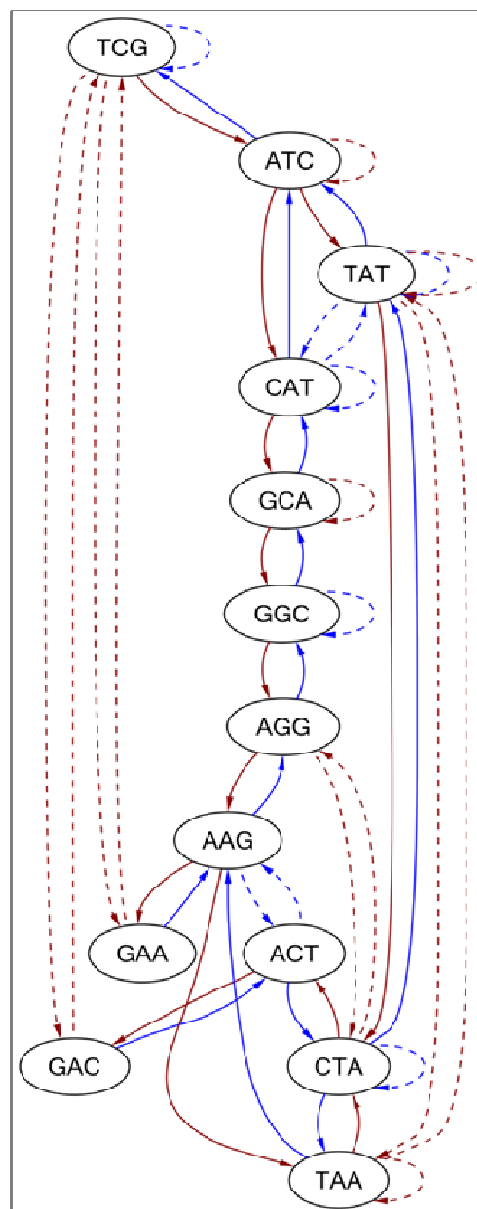


Figure 1: Bi-directed de Bruijn Graph for sequence ATCGACTATAAGGCATCGAA using kmer length = 3. Where, blue solid lines indicate forward edges, Brown solid lines indicate backward edges, blue dotted lines indicate forward edges for reverse complementary sequence and brown dotted lines indicate backward edges for reverse complementary sequence.

graph corresponds to a unique kmer present in some input sequence or its reverse complement. A directed edge connects two nodes labeled  $a\alpha$  and  $\alpha b$ , where  $\alpha$  is a string of length  $k-1$ . A bi-directed de Bruijn Graph is a natural model for the assembly problem because the two labels for nodes corresponds two strands of DNA molecule.

### 3.2 Error Removal

This is the most critical step for assembly. The steps involved here will remove sequencing errors in the reads. This process also removes single nucleotide polymorphisms.

#### 3.2.1 Dangling Link Removal

Any kmer containing a sequencing error is likely to be unique and will therefore have only a single connection to a preceding kmer in the graph, forming a short side branch. The graph is traced for branches with dead ends and then these branches are traced back to a point of ambiguity is reached. If the count of the nodes traversed is less than threshold value then nodes are removed from the graph. This step is iteratively performed for bigger branches with large number of nodes as removal of small branches may create longer dangling links until the threshold is reached. The effectiveness of the dangling link removal step also depends on kmer length (longer kmers may contain multiple sequence errors, in turn creating longer dangling links).

#### 3.2.2 Redundant Path Removal

Another common structure found in de Bruijn graphs is often caused by sequencing errors or single nucleotide polymorphisms in the middle of reads. Sequence variation of this kind creates ambiguity in the graph and impairs contig extension. The graph is traversed to find all points of divergence, and at each point of divergence the path is traced forward until a user-defined threshold is reached. If the paths converge and contain equal number of nodes, then the path with lower coverage is removed from the graph.

### 3.3 Contig Builder

In the final step of the first phase of sequence assembly, the graph is traversed to find nodes with ambiguous edges and these edges are removed, breaking the graph into a number of sub graphs. The DNA sequence of each sub-graph is reconstructed

from its constituent kmers to create the initial set of contigs.

### 3.4 Scaffold Generation

The second phase takes into consideration mate-pair information to determine an overall ordering of contigs.

Libraries of DNA fragments used in sequencing are frequently generated by experimental techniques that guarantee all fragments fall within a defined size range.

Mate-pairs are pairs of reads corresponding to the DNA sequence at each end of the same fragment of DNA and have a known strand and orientation relative to each other. Where the mean and standard deviation of fragment length is known for a library, we can estimate the distance between reads in a mate-pair and use this information to find an order and orientation of all contigs – a process known as scaffolding.

Mate pairs from multiple DNA libraries can also be used in this step. Each library is considered for distance estimation between contigs.

#### 3.4.1 Aligning Reads to Contigs

Reads are aligned to contigs before attempting to establish links between contigs. In PadeNA, we create ungapped alignments by converting each read to a list of kmers and matching these kmers to a list of kmers similarly generated from the contig.

#### 3.4.2 Establishing Mate-pair Links between Contigs

Potential links between contigs are determined from mate-pair information in the aligned reads. The information is encoded in the read id, and PadeNA supports several standard naming conventions.

#### 3.4.3 Filtering Mate-pairs

Mate-pairs are initially filtered based on contig orientation. The orientation of pair of contigs is the orientation supported by the largest number of mate-pairs that connect them. A mate-pair connection is confirmed between a pair of contigs only if the number of mate-pairs supporting a particular orientation is greater than or equal to a threshold value. This removes spurious links between contigs and helps in the correct estimation of distance between contigs. (Pop, 2004)

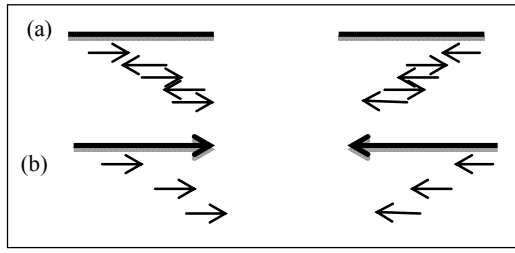


Figure 2: (a) Five mate-pairs are aligned to contig 1 and contig 2. Out of five mate-pairs, three support forward contig orientation of contig 1 and two support reverse orientation. (b) After filtering, the two mate-pairs supporting reverse orientation for contig 1 are removed and both contigs are given orientation based on the majority of mate-pairs.

### 3.4.4 Distance Calculation

The distance between contigs is calculated using mate-pair links. Each edge distance is given weight = 1.

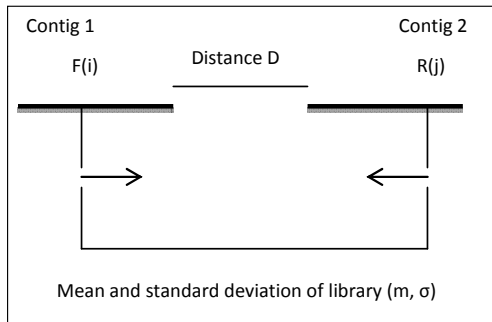


Figure 3:  $D = m - (l - F(i)) - R(j)$  where  $D$  is the distance between contigs,  $m$  is mean length of fragments in the library,  $l$  is length of contig 1,  $F(i)$  and  $R(j)$  are respective positions of alignment between the contig and read.

#### 3.4.4.1 Edge Bundling

If there is more than one-mate pair link between a pair of contigs, these mate-pairs are bundled into a single distance provided that mate pair distances lie in  $\pm 3\sigma$  range from the median distance between contigs. The length of the new edge after bundling is  $p/q$  and standard deviation =  $1/\sqrt{q}$  where:

$$p = \sum \frac{l(e_i)}{\sigma(e_i)^2} \text{ and } q = \sum \frac{1}{\sigma(e_i)^2} \quad (1)$$

This process is repeated until no edges fall in this range. The weight of the new edge is equal to the sum of the weights of the bundled edges. (Huson, 2002).

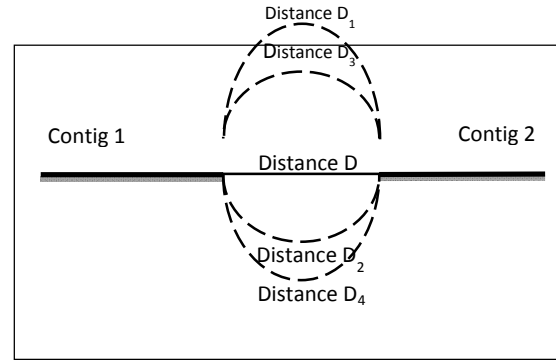


Figure 4:  $D_1, D_2, D_3, D_4$  are distances between a pair of contigs with different mate pairs.  $D$  represents distance between contigs after edge bundling.

#### 3.4.4.2 Weighted Reduction

If there are still edge distances which cannot be bundled using the above criterion, we perform weighted bundling, taking the weight of all edges into account:

$$l(e) = \frac{\sum l(e_i)}{\sum w(e_i)} \text{ and } \sigma(e) = \frac{\sum \sigma(e_i)}{\sum w(e_i)} \quad (2)$$

Where  $l(e)$  denotes length of the new edge and  $\sigma(e)$  denotes the standard deviation of the new edge. The weight of the new edge will be the sum of the weights of all merged edges.

### 3.4.5 Contig Overlap Graph

A contig overlap graph is created for a given set of contigs. Each node represents a contig and contigs are connected to other contigs if there is  $k-1$  overlap, where  $k$  denotes kmer length used for construction of contigs. (Huson, 2002).

### 3.4.6 Graph Traversal

The graph is traversed in a depth-first search manner to look for a single unique path from start contig  $C_i$  until all contigs paired with  $C_i$  are included in the path. As the graph can be extremely dense in repetitive areas, parameter threshold value is defined to limit the depth of search in the graph. This process is repeated for each contig  $C_i$ . The final step removes overlapping contigs and stitches together the consistent paths to generate the scaffolds.

## 4 PARALLELIZATION IN PADENA

Each step in PadeNA is individually parallelized which aids in extensibility and reusability of code.

### 4.1 Parallel de Bruijn Graph Construction

A de Bruijn Graph is the core data structure used in the assembly process. In PadeNA, we have developed a unique implementation of the de Bruijn Graph for shared memory architecture systems. The entire read set is portioned using .NET Partitioner equal to the number of cores in the system. Then individual core constructs kmer dictionary on portioned reads. Finally, dictionaries are merged into a single dictionary. While constructing dictionary forward and reverse complement are treated as same. Each kmer sequence as key in dictionary is defined as a node of a de Bruijn Graph. The adjacency information of each node is generated independently. Each node can be connected to a maximum of 8 neighbors, each sharing a  $(k-1)$  overlap with the node either in the forward or reverse direction. This connectivity information is also stored in nodes to fasten the step of graph traversal.

### 4.2 Error Removal

Dangling links identification and removal steps are both performed as a parallelized activity. Redundant paths which are also present can be similarly removed in parallel. For definitions of dangling links and redundant paths, please refer to the assembly algorithm section.

### 4.3 Scaffold Generation

Scaffold generation is the second phase of assembly. As with previous phase of assembly, each step is individually parallelized.

#### 4.3.1 Contig Overlap Graph

The contig overlap graph is a core data structure for the second phase of assembly. Each contig is considered as a node of the graph. Each contig independently locates its neighbor such that each neighbor should have a  $(k-1)$  overlap in either forward or reverse complement direction.

#### 4.3.2 Depth-First Search

The contig overlap graph is traversed in a depth-first fashion to generate all possible paths meeting the distance constraints imposed by mate-pair data. This step can be parallelized because each path originating from different node can be traversed independently and a list of paths generated. These paths may then be merged to generate scaffolds.

### 4.4 Scalability of PadeNA on different cores

The scalability of the algorithm is a major concern while parallelization of algorithm. The Euler dataset as explained in results section is used to assemble using default parameters on various system configurations.

The scalability of the algorithm depends on size of the data and error rate.

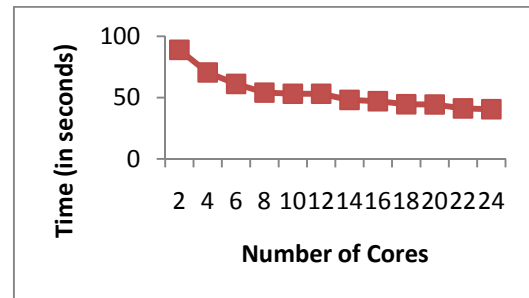


Figure 5: Variation of time taken for assembly vs. number of processors.

## 5 ASSEMBLY ANALYSIS

For all data sets, only contigs  $\geq 100$  bp in length were used for evaluation. In addition, contigs are only considered to be aligned, if they align  $\geq 95\%$  to a reference genome, if available. The parameters used to estimate quality of assembly are:

- **N50:** N50 is a statistical measure given in base pairs, such that 50% of the assembled genome lies in contigs of at least this length.  
**Genomic Coverage:** The percentage of bases of reference genome covered by contigs or scaffolds. This is computed using the MUMmer (Kurtz, 2004) tool where a reference genome is available.
- **Largest contig/Mean size of contigs/number of contigs  $\geq 100$  bp**

These parameters are calculated and used as a guideline to denote relative quality of the



Figure 6: Sequence assembler view of sequence assembly and BLAST result for assembled sequence.

assembly performed (De Novo, 2009). MUMmer is used for alignment because of its speed and suitability for genome-level alignments

## 6 RESULTS

### 6.1 Evaluation of PadeNA Assembly using Euler Data

The data used for the analysis is the data provided by the Euler SR (Chaisson, 2008) tool as test data. It is a 6.8 MB paired-read dataset with mean insert length of 1000bp and standard deviation of 500bp. We performed assemblies with Euler SR. version 1.1.2 and PadeNA version 1.0. Assemblies were analyzed using the above-mentioned assembly analysis parameters.

The results show PadeNA produces more contigs, which may be due to repeats in the base sequence. The reference sequence was not available

and so we were not able to calculate genomic coverage and analyze the reason for a large number of contigs.

Table 1: Comparison of PadeNA output quality against Euler SR.

Assembler	Contigs ≥ 100 bp	Mean Size (in bp)	N50	Largest Contig (in bp)
Euler SR version 1.1.2 (k = 20)	19	5185	14335	30523
PadeNA (k = 20 and Depth = 20)	50	10543	30628	30673

## 7 DISCUSSION

The PadeNA algorithm described above is included as part of the broader Microsoft Biology Foundation (MBF) library of general bioinformatics

functionality, and is available directly to the application developer or may be accessed by the user via the included Sequence Assembler demonstration application (Fig. 6). The Sequence Assembler application is a GUI-based interface to a range of MBF functions and uses rich user interface elements to enable visualization and manipulation of genomic data. The user can perform assembly, alignment and multiple sequence alignment of DNA, RNA and protein sequences, visualizing the output in a graphical alignment display built using the Windows Presentation Foundation and Silverlight. The Sequence Assembler also provides a connector to various BLAST (Altschul, 1997) web services, which can be used to characterize an assembled sequence using public databases.

While our initial results are promising, some work is needed to further improve the quality and utility of the assembled output, especially for large size genomes. Nonetheless, PadeNA can currently be used for assembling bacterial genomes on shared memory architectures and each step can be customized to handle datasets with different characteristics, or better meet the needs of different groups of scientific users.

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