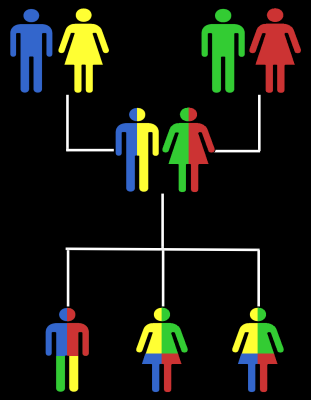
Todays Menu:

- **What is a Genome?**
  - Genome sequencing and the Human genome project
- **What can we do with a Genome?**
  - Compare, model, mine and edit
- **Modern Genome Sequencing**
  - 1st, 2nd and 3rd generation sequencing
- **Workflow for NGS**
  - RNA-Sequencing and Discovering variation

What is a genome?

The total genetic material of an organism by which individual traits are encoded, controlled, and ultimately passed on to future generations



Genetics and Genomics

Side note!

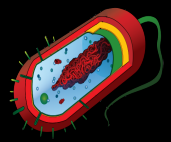
- **Genetics** is primarily the study of *individual genes*, mutations within those genes, and their inheritance patterns in order to understand specific traits.

- **Genomics** expands upon classical genetics and considers aspects of the *entire genome*, typically using computer aided approaches.

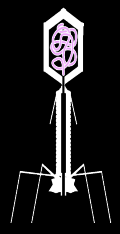
Genomes come in many shapes

Side note!

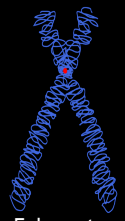
- Primarily DNA, but can be RNA in the case of some viruses
- Some genomes are circular, others linear
- Can be organized into discrete units (chromosomes) or freestanding molecules (plasmids)



Prokaryote



Bacteriophage



Eukaryote

Side note!

CHROMOSOMES CLOSE-UP

Chromosomes consist largely of double-helical DNA. Cells package the DNA into the nucleus by wrapping it around "spools" composed of histone proteins. The DNA-protein combination is known as chromatin. (Each color represents one chromosome.)

Under a microscope, a Eukaryotic cell's genome (i.e. collection of chromosomes) resembles a chaotic jumble of noodles. The looping is not random however and appears to play a role in controlling gene regulation.

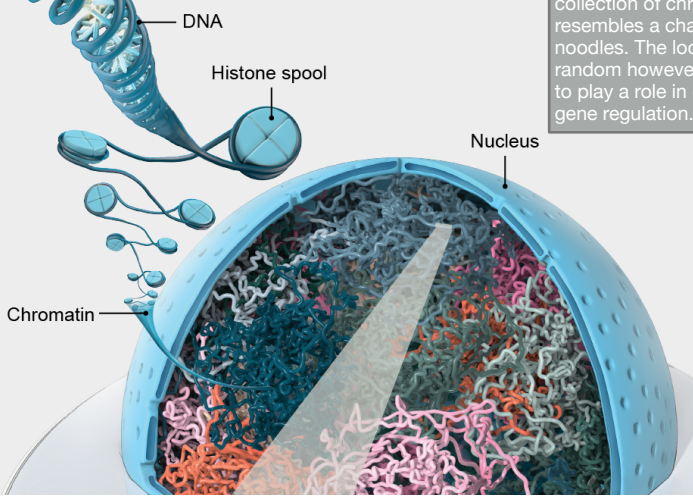
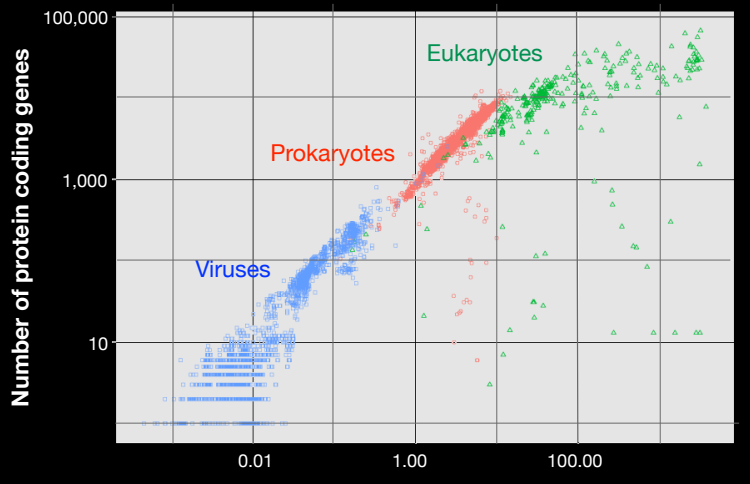


Image credit: Scientific American March 2019

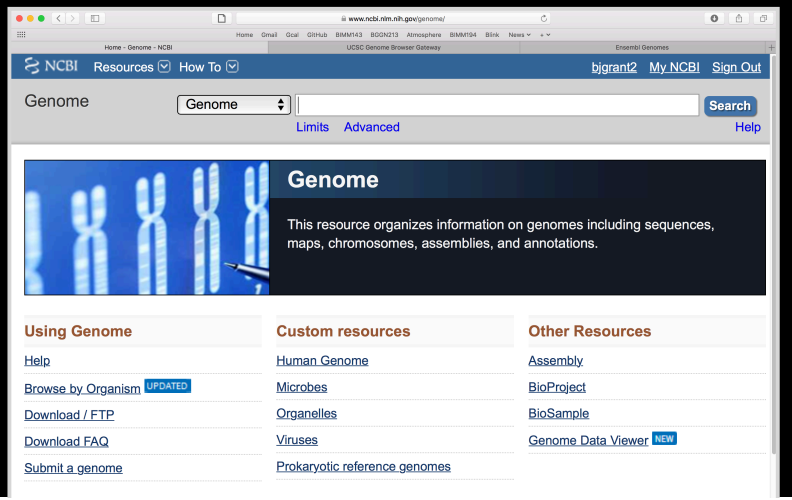
Genomes come in many sizes



Modified from image by Estevezj / CC BY-SA

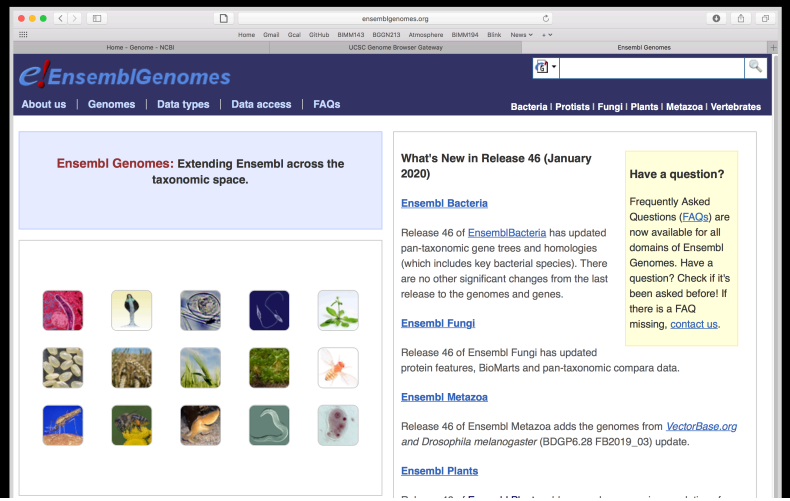
Genome Databases

NCBI Genome:
http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genome



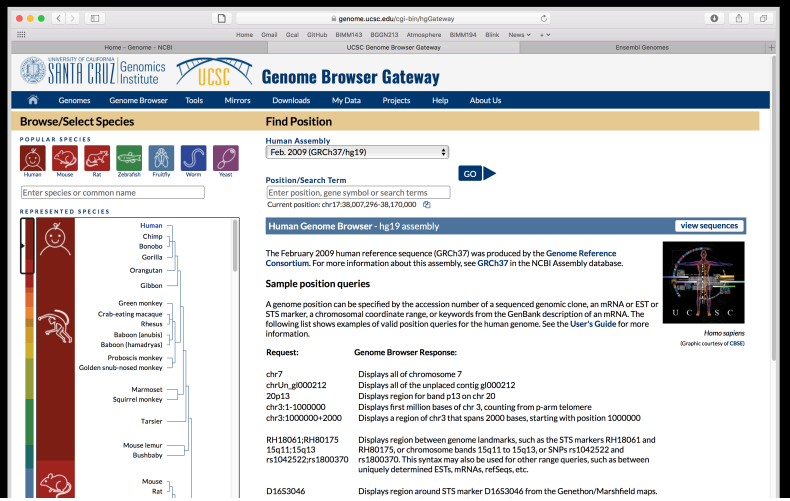
Genome Databases

(EBI) Ensemble Genomes:
http://ensemblgenomes.org

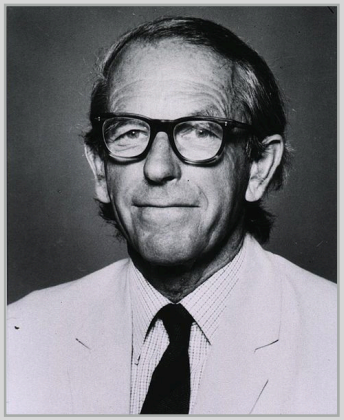


Genome Databases

UCSC Genome Browser Gateway:
https://genome.ucsc.edu/



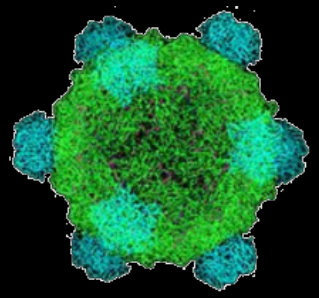
Early Genome Sequencing



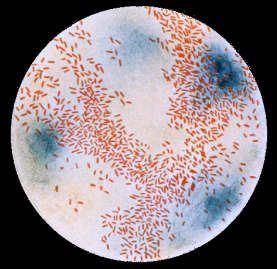
http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Frederick_Sanger

- Chain-termination "**Sanger**" **sequencing** was developed in 1977 by *Frederick Sanger*, colloquially referred to as the "Father of Genomics"
- Sequence reads were typically 750-1000 base pairs in length with an error rate of ~1 / 10000 bases

The First Sequenced Genomes



Bacteriophage φ-X174
- Completed in **1977**
- 5,386 base pairs, ssDNA
- 11 genes



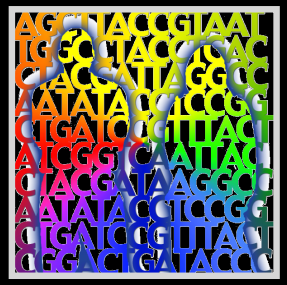
Haemophilus influenzae
- Completed in **1995**
- 1,830,140 base pairs, dsDNA
- 1,740 genes

http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Phi_X_174

http://phil.cdc.gov/

The Human Genome Project

- The Human Genome Project (HGP) was an international, public consortium that began in 1990
  - Initiated by James Watson
  - Primarily led by Francis Collins
  - Eventual Cost: $2.7 Billion
- Celera Genomics was a private corporation that started in 1998
  - Headed by Craig Venter
  - Eventual Cost: $300 Million
- Both initiatives released initial drafts of the human genome in 2001
  - ~3.2 Billion base pairs, dsDNA
  - ~20,400 coding (& ~24,000 non-coding) genes*

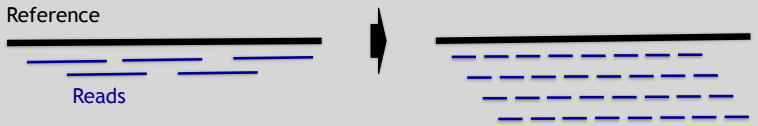


*Latest numbers < link >

DeCode Genetics INC.

Modern Genome Sequencing

- Next Generation Sequencing (NGS) technologies have resulted in a paradigm shift from long reads at low coverage to short reads at high coverage
- This provides numerous opportunities for new and expanded genomic applications



Rapid progress of genome sequencing

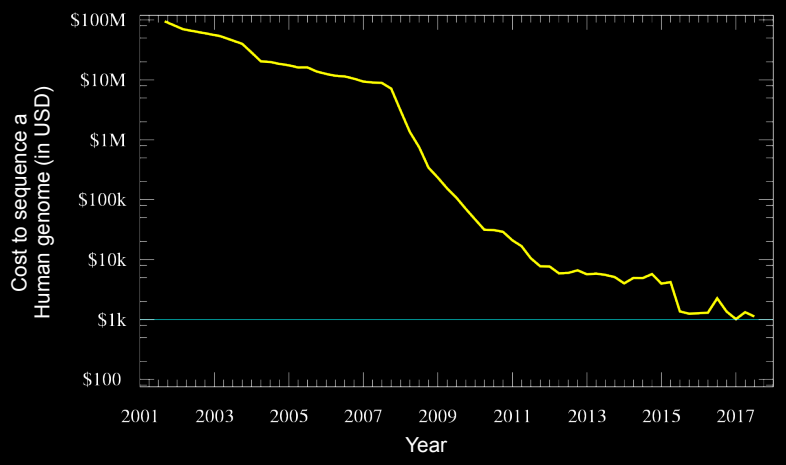


Image source: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Carlson_curve

Rapid progress of genome sequencing

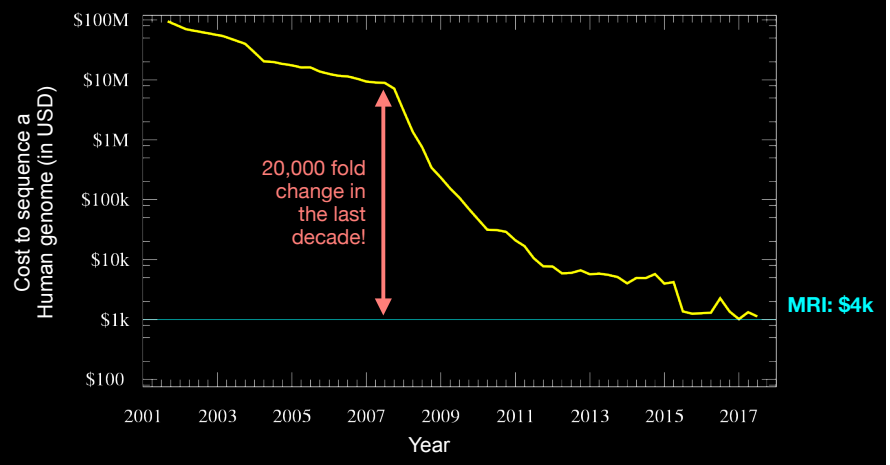


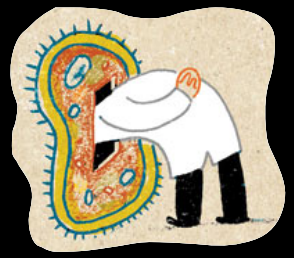
Image source: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Carlson_curve

Major impact areas for genomic medicine

- Cancer: Identification of driver mutations and drugable variants, Molecular stratification to guide and monitor treatment, Identification of tumor specific variants for personalized immunotherapy approaches (precision medicine).
- Genetic disease diagnose: Rare, inherited and so-called 'mystery' disease diagnose.
- Health management: Predisposition testing for complex diseases (e.g. cardiac disease, diabetes and others), optimization and avoidance of adverse drug reactions.
- Health data analytics: Incorporating genomic data with additional health data for improved healthcare delivery.
- Prenatal testing, transplant rejection, pathogen detection, microbiome etc.

Goals of Cancer Genome Research

- Identify changes in the genomes of tumors that drive cancer progression
- Identify new targets for therapy
- Select drugs based on the genomics of the tumor
- Provide early cancer detection and treatment response monitoring
- Utilize cancer specific mutations to derive neoantigen immunotherapy approaches



What can go wrong in cancer genomes?

Type of change	Some common technology to study changes
DNA mutations	WGS, WXS
DNA structural variations	WGS
Copy number variation (CNV)	CGH array, SNP array, WGS
DNA methylation	Methylation array, RRBS, WGBS
mRNA expression changes	mRNA expression array, RNA-seq
miRNA expression changes	miRNA expression array, miRNA-seq
Protein expression	Protein arrays, mass spectrometry

WGS = whole genome sequencing, WXS = whole exome sequencing
RRBS = reduced representation bisulfite sequencing, WGBS = whole genome bisulfite sequencing

DNA Sequencing Concepts

- **Sequencing by Synthesis:** Uses a polymerase to incorporate and assess nucleotides to a primer sequence
  - 1 nucleotide at a time
- **Sequencing by Ligation:** Uses a ligase to attach hybridized sequences to a primer sequence
  - 1 or more nucleotides at a time (e.g. dibase)

Modern NGS Sequencing Platforms

	Roche/454	Life Technologies SOLiD	Illumina Hi-Seq 2000
Library amplification method	emPCR* on bead surface	emPCR* on bead surface	Enzymatic amplification on glass surface
Sequencing method	Polymerase-mediated incorporation of unlabelled nucleotides	Ligase-mediated addition of 2-base encoded fluorescent oligonucleotides	Polymerase- mediated incorporation of end-blocked fluorescent nucleotides
Detection method	Light emitted from secondary reactions initiated by release of PPi	Fluorescent emission from ligated dye-labelled oligonucleotides	Fluorescent emission from incorporated dye-labelled nucleotides
Post incorporation method	NA (unlabelled nucleotides are added in base-specific fashion, followed by detection)	Chemical cleavage removes fluorescent dye and 3′ end of oligonucleotide	Chemical cleavage of fluorescent dye and 3′ blocking group
Error model	Substitution errors rare, insertion/ deletion errors at homopolymers	End of read substitution errors	End of read substitution errors
Read length (fragment/paired end)	400 bp/variable length mate pairs	75 bp/50+25 bp	150 bp/100+100 bp

Modified from Mardis, ER (2011), Nature, 470, pp. 198-203

Illumina now dominates the sequencing market

- Today more than 90% of all sequencing is done on illumina machines
- Generating millions to billions of reads per run (machine dependent)
- High fidelity (>99.9% accuracy for short ~300 bp reads)
- $1,000 per human genome in 48 hours*

Illumina now dominates the sequencing market

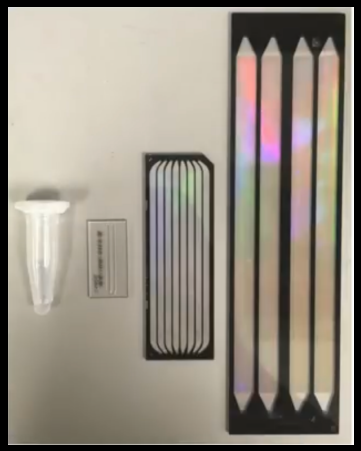
- Today more than 90% of all sequencing is done on illumina machines

(30 million read)

(3 billion reads)

(13 billion reads)

Illumina Flow Cells

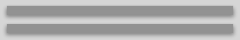


- MiSeq (1-30 million read)
- NextSeq (3 billion reads)
- NovaSeq (13 billion reads)

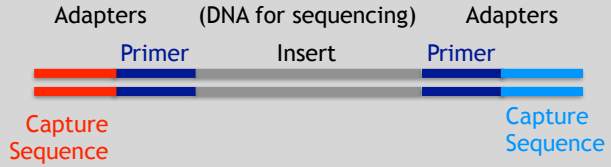
Preparing Samples

(DNA for sequencing)

Insert



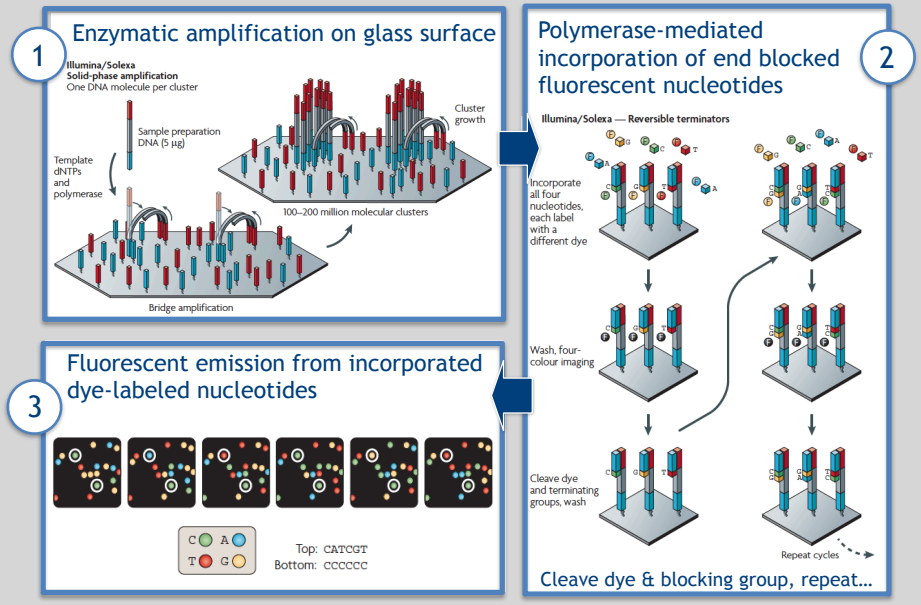
Preparing Samples



Adapters are required for sequencing

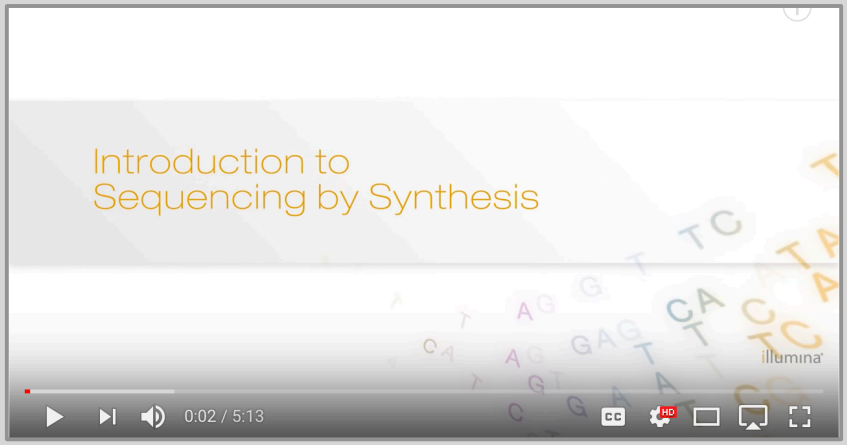
Adapter sequences include **primer binding** sites and **capture sequences**

Illumina – Reversible terminators



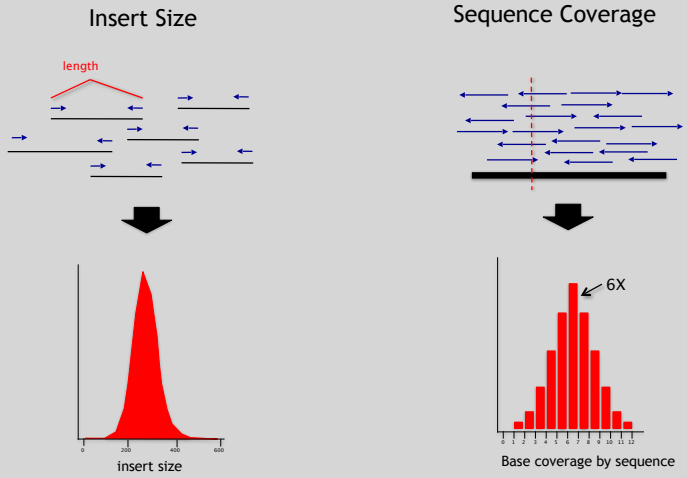
Images adapted from: Metzker, ML (2010), *Nat. Rev. Genet*, 11, pp. 31-46

Illumina Sequencing - Video



https://www.youtube.com/watch?src_vid=womKfikWlxM&v=fCd6B5HRaZ8

NGS Sequencing Terminology



Terminology: "Generations" of DNA Sequencing

	First generation	Second generation[a]	Third generation[a]
Fundamental technology	Size-separation of specifically end-labeled DNA fragments, produced by SBS or degradation	Wash-and-scan SBS	SBS, by degradation, or direct physical inspection of the DNA molecule
Resolution	Averaged across many copies of the DNA molecule being sequenced	Averaged across many copies of the DNA molecule being sequenced	Single-molecule resolution
Current raw read accuracy	High	High	Moderate
Current read length	Moderate (800–1000 bp)	Short, generally much shorter than Sanger sequencing	Long, 1000 bp and longer in commercial systems
Current throughput	Low	High	Moderate
Current cost	High cost per base Low cost per run	Low cost per base High cost per run	Low-to-moderate cost per base Low cost per run
RNA-sequencing method	cDNA sequencing	cDNA sequencing	Direct RNA sequencing and cDNA sequencing
Time from start of sequencing reaction to result	Hours	Days	Hours
Sample preparation	Moderately complex, PCR amplification not required	Complex, PCR amplification required	Ranges from complex to very simple depending on technology
Data analysis	Routine	Complex because of large data volumes and because short reads complicate assembly and alignment algorithms	Complex because of large data volumes and because technologies yield new types of information and new signal processing challenges
Primary results	Base calls with quality values	Base calls with quality values	Base calls with quality values, potentially other base information such as kinetics

Schadt, EE et al (2010), *Hum. Mol. Biol.*, 19(R2), pp. R227-R240

Third Generation Sequencing

- Currently in active development
- Hard to define what "3rd" generation means
- Typical characteristics:
  - Long sequence reads (1,000bp+)
  - Single molecule (no PCR amplification step required)
  - Often associated with "nanopore technology" (e.g. *Oxford Nanopore's* MinION USB sequencer)
  - Note that other approaches are being developed...

The first direct RNA sequencing by nanopore

Side-Note:

- For example this new nanopore direct RNA-sequencing method was published last year:
  https://www.nature.com/articles/nmeth.4577
- *"Sequencing the RNA in a biological sample can unlock a wealth of information, including the identity of bacteria and viruses, the nuances of alternative splicing or the transcriptional state of organisms. However, current methods have limitations due to short read lengths and reverse transcription or amplification biases. Here we demonstrate nanopore direct RNA-seq, a highly parallel, real-time, single-molecule method that circumvents reverse transcription or amplification steps."*

What can we do with all this sequence information?

Population Scale Analysis

We can now begin to assess genetic differences on a very large scale, both as naturally occurring variation in human and non-human populations as well somatically within tumors

1000 Genomes
A Deep Catalog of Human Genetic Variation

GENOME 10K
Unveiling animal diversity

The Cancer Genome Atlas
Understanding genomics to improve cancer care

The 100,000 Genomes Project
Genomics England & Partners

https://www.genomicsengland.co.uk/the-100000-genomes-project/

"Variety's the very spice of life"

–William Cowper, 1785

"Variation is the spice of life"

–Kruglyak & Nickerson, 2001

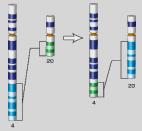
- While the sequencing of the human genome was a great milestone, the DNA from a single person is not representative of the millions of potential differences that can occur between individuals
- These unknown genetic variants could be the cause of many phenotypes such as differing morphology, susceptibility to disease, or be completely benign.

Types of Genomic Variation

- **Single Nucleotide Polymorphisms** (SNPs) - mutations of one nucleotide to another

- **Insertion/Deletion Polymorphisms** (INDELs) - small mutations removing or adding one or more nucleotides at a particular locus

- **Structural Variation** (SVs) - medium to large sized rearrangements of chromosomal DNA



Darryl Leja, Courtesy: National Human Genome Research Institute.

Differences Between Individuals

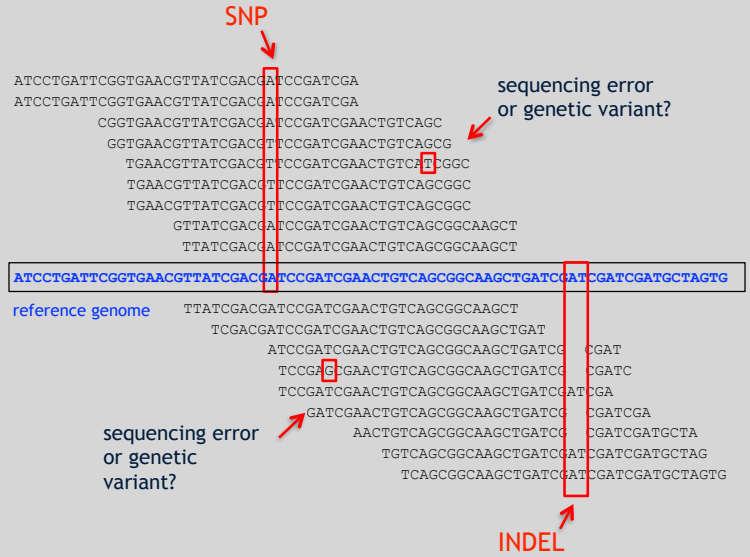
The average number of genetic differences in the germline between two random humans can be broken down as follows:

- 3,600,000 single nucleotide differences
- 344,000 small insertion and deletions
- 1,000 larger deletion and duplications

Numbers change depending on ancestry!

[Numbers from: 1000 Genomes Project, Nature, 2012]

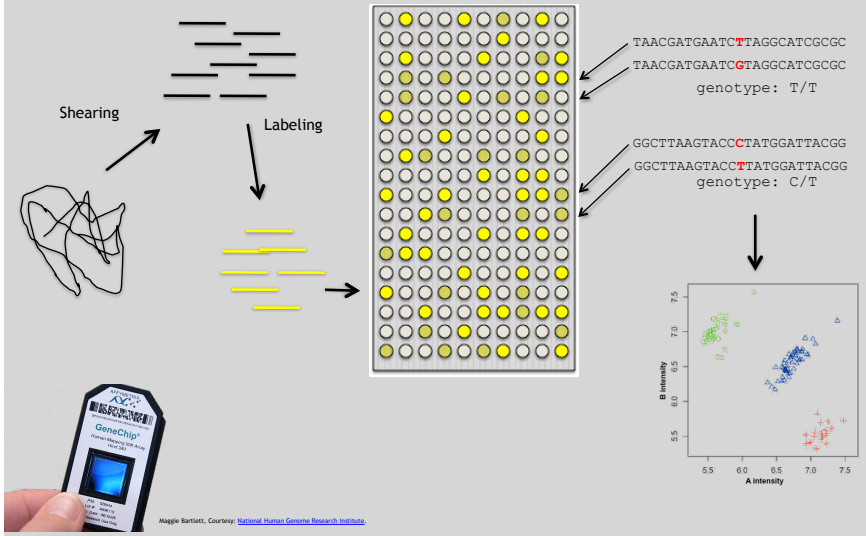
Discovering Variation: SNPs and INDELs



Genotyping Small Variants

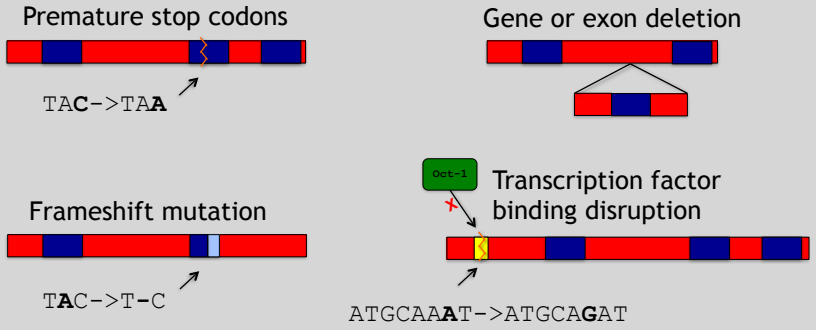
- Once discovered, oligonucleotide probes can be generated with each individual allele of a variant of interest
- A large number can then be assessed simultaneously on microarrays to detect which combination of alleles is present in a sample

SNP Microarrays



Impact of Genetic Variation

There are numerous ways genetic variation can exhibit functional effects

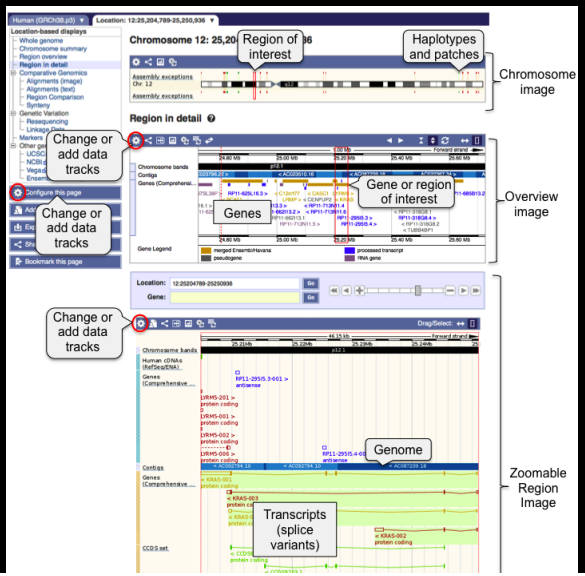


Do it Yourself!

Hand-on time!

Sections **1** to **3** please (up to running Read Alignment)
See IP address on website for **your** Galaxy server

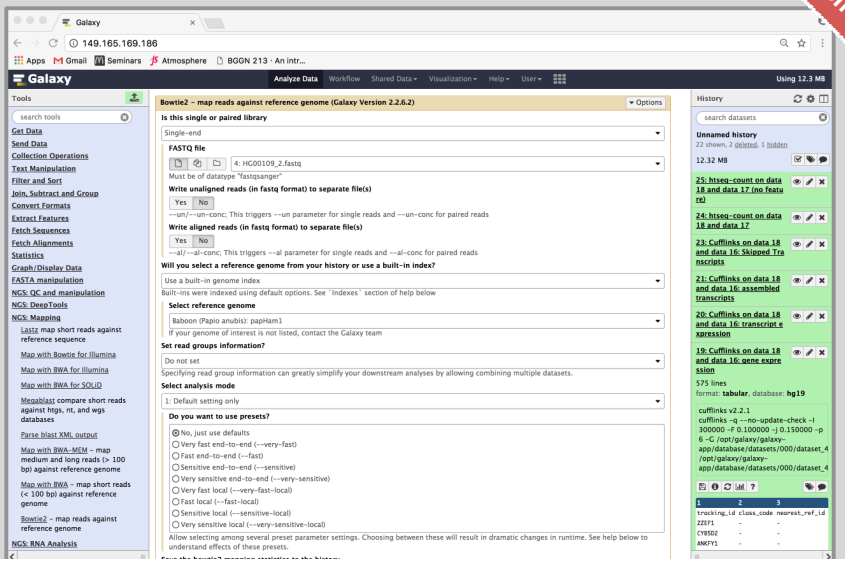
http://uswest.ensembl.org/Help/View?id=140



Access a jetstream galaxy instance!

Do it Yourself!

Use assigned IP address




```
>Identifier1 (comment)
XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX
XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX
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>Identifier2 (comment)
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```
@Identifier1 (comment)
XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX
+
QQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQ
@Identifier2 (comment)
XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX
+
QQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQQ
```

Raw data usually in FASTQ format

```
@NS500177:196:HFTTTAFXX:1:11101:10916:1458 2:N:0:CGCGGCTG      (1)
ACACGACGATGAGGTGACAGTCACGGAGGATAAGATCAATGCCCTCATTAAAGCAGCCGGTGTAA  (2)
+                                                              (3)
AAAAAEEEEEEEEEEE//AEEEAEEEEEEEEEEE/EE/<<EE/AAEEAEE///EEEEAEEEAEA<  (4)
```

Each sequencing "read" consists of 4 lines of data :

1. The first line (which always starts with '@') is a unique ID for the sequence that follows
2. The second line contains the bases called for the sequenced fragment
3. The third line is always a "+" character
4. The forth line contains the quality scores for each base in the sequenced fragment (these are ASCII encoded…)

ASCII Encoded Base Qualities

```
@NS500177:196:HFTTTAFXX:1:11101:10916:1458 2:N:0:CGCGGCTG
ACACGACGATGAGGTGACAGTCACGGAGGATAAGATCAATGCCCTCATTAAAGCAGCCGGTGTAA
+
AAAAAEEEEEEEEEEE//AEEEAEEEEEEEEEEE/EE/<<EE/AAEEAEE///EEEEAEEEAEA<  (4)
```

- Each sequence base has a corresponding numeric quality score encoded by a single ASCII character typically on the 4th line (see (4) above)
- ASCII characters represent integers between 0 and 127
- Printable ASCII characters range from 33 to 126
- Unfortunately there are 3 quality score formats that you may come across…

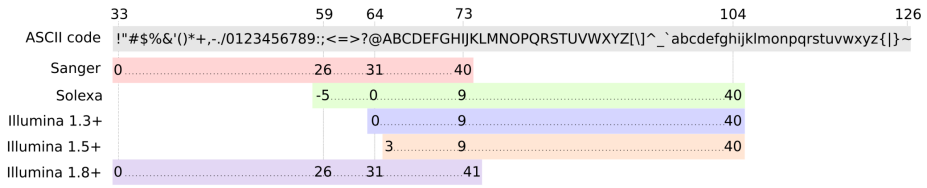
Interpreting Base Qualities in R

		ASCII Range	Offset	Score Range
Sanger, Illumina (Ver > 1.8)	**fastqsanger**	**33-126**	**33**	**0-93**
Solexa, Ilumina (Ver < 1.3)	fastqsolexa	59-126	64	5-62
Illumina (Ver 1.3 -1.7)	fastqillumina	64-126	64	0-62

```
> library(seqinr)
> library(gtools)
> phred <- asc( s2c("DDDDCDEDCDDDDBBDDDCC@") ) - 33
> phred
## D D D D C D E D C D D D D B B D D D C C @
## 35 35 35 35 34 35 36 35 34 35 35 35 35 33 33 35 35 35 34 34 31

> prob <- 10**(-phred/10)
```

Interpreting Base Qualities in R

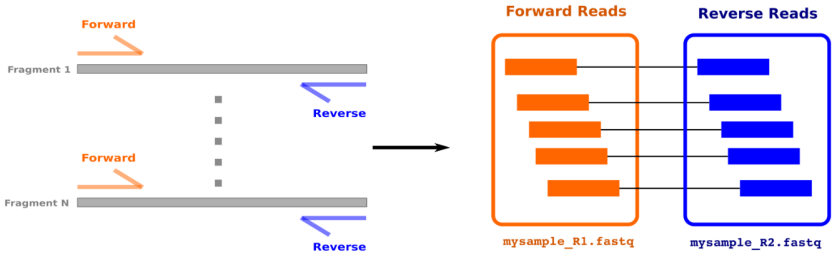



```
> library(seqinr)
> library(gtools)
> phred <- asc( s2c("DDDDCDEDCDDDDBBDDDCC@") ) - 33
> phred
## D D D D C D E D C D D D D B B D D D C C @
## 35 35 35 35 34 35 36 35 34 35 35 35 35 33 33 35 35 35 34 34 31

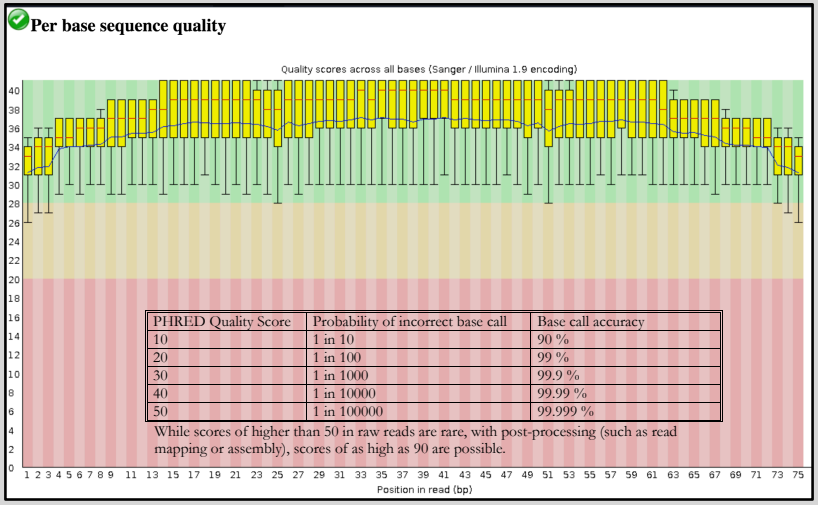
> prob <- 10**(-phred/10)
```

Paired-end FASTQ files

- Sequencer produces two FASTQ files:
  - **Forward** reads (usually **_1** or **_R1** in file name)
  - **Reverse** reads (usually **_2** or **_R2** in file name)



FastQC Report



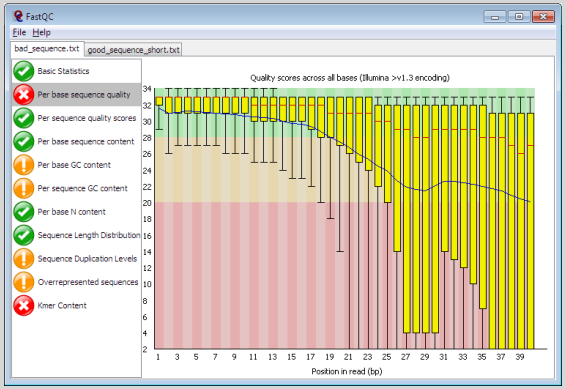
PHRED Quality Score	Probability of incorrect base call	Base call accuracy
10	1 in 10	90 %
20	1 in 100	99 %
30	1 in 1000	99.9 %
40	1 in 10000	99.99 %
50	1 in 100000	99.999 %

While scores of higher than 50 in raw reads are rare, with post-processing (such as read mapping or assembly), scores of as high as 90 are possible.

FASTQC

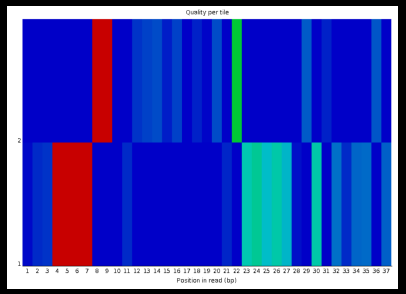
FASTQC is one approach which provides a visual interpretation of the raw sequence reads

- http://www.bioinformatics.babraham.ac.uk/projects/fastqc/



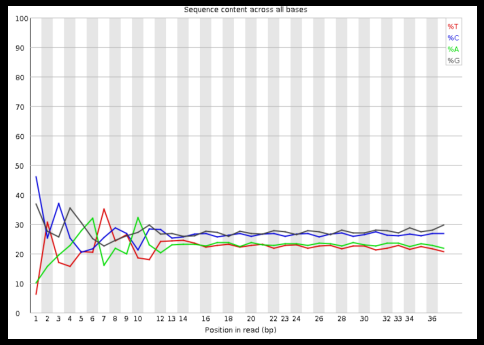
Per Tile Quality shows shows the deviation from the average quality for each tile

- In Illumina libraries the sequence identifier encodes the flowcell tile from which each read came.
- "Hot" colors indicate that a tile had worse quality reads than other tiles for that base
- Suggesting transient problems such as bubbles going through the flowcell, smudges or debris inside the flowcell lane.



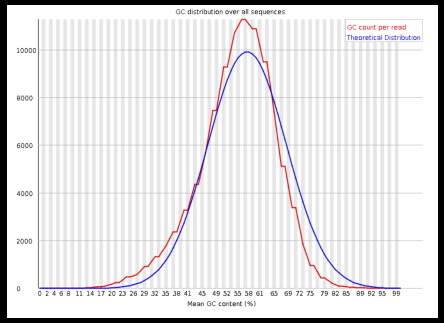
Per-base sequence content highlights the proportion of each base in each position

- In a random library there would be little to no difference between the different bases of a sequence run.
- Note that some types of libraries (e.g. RNA-Seq) will nearly always produce biased sequence composition at the start of the read.



GC content should follow a normal distribution

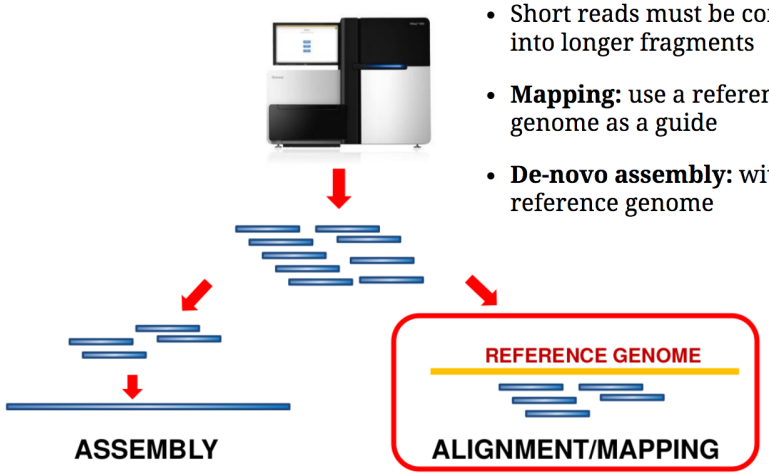
- An unusually shaped distribution could indicate a contaminated library or some other kinds of biased subset (frequent in metagenomic data sets).
- Sharp peaks on an otherwise smooth distribution are normally the result of a specific contaminant (e.g. adapter dimers)



Increasing the quality of sequences

- **Filtering of sequences (i.e. removing sequences):**
  - with small mean quality score
  - with too many N bases
  - based on their GC content
- **Cutting/Trimming sequences from low quality score parts** (i.e the tails/ends of reads)
- Re-run your sequencing job

What is mapping?



- Short reads must be combined into longer fragments
- **Mapping:** use a reference genome as a guide
- **De-novo assembly:** without reference genome

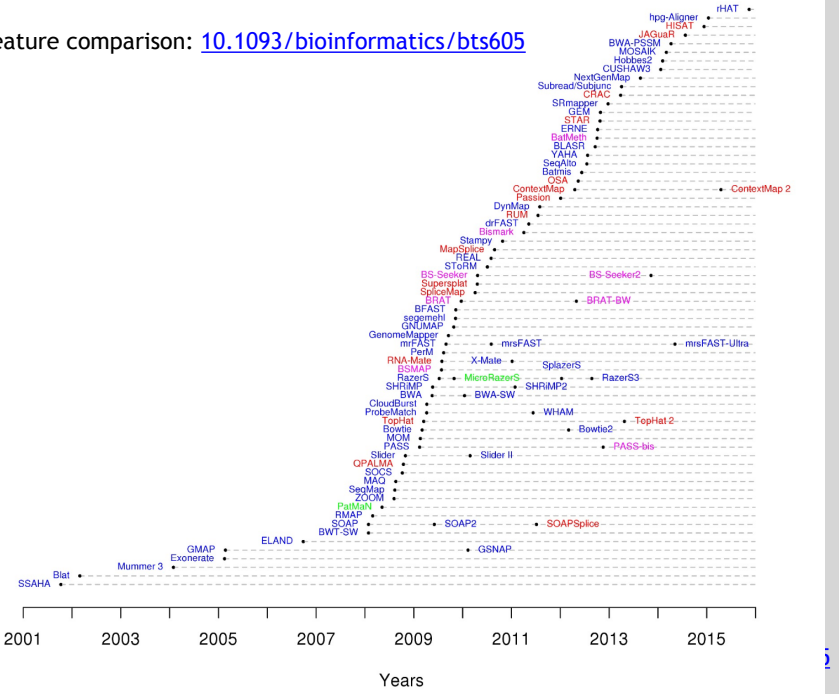
Sequence Alignment

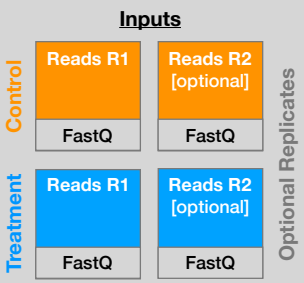
- Once sequence quality has been assessed, the next step is to **align/map** the sequence to a reference genome
- There are *many* distinct tools for doing this; which one you choose is often a reflection of your specific experiment and personal preference

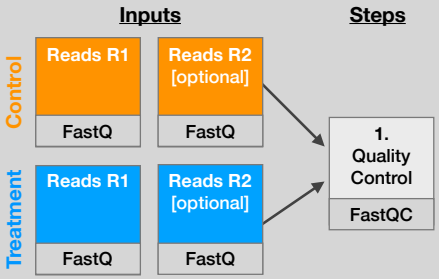
BWA	BarraCUDA	RMAP
Bowtie2	CASHx	SSAHA
SOAP2	GSNAP	etc
Novoalign	Mosiak	
mr/mrsFast	Stampy	
Eland	SHRiMP	
Blat	SeqMap	
Bfast	SLIDER	

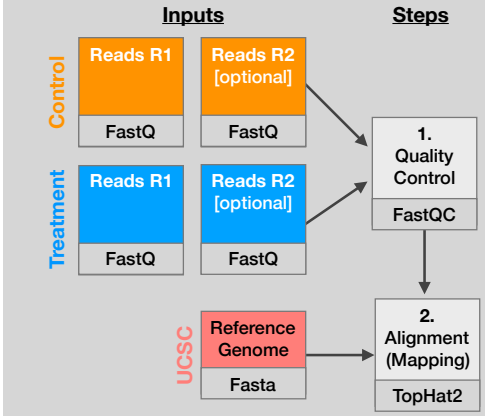
Feature comparison: 10.1093/bioinformatics/bts605

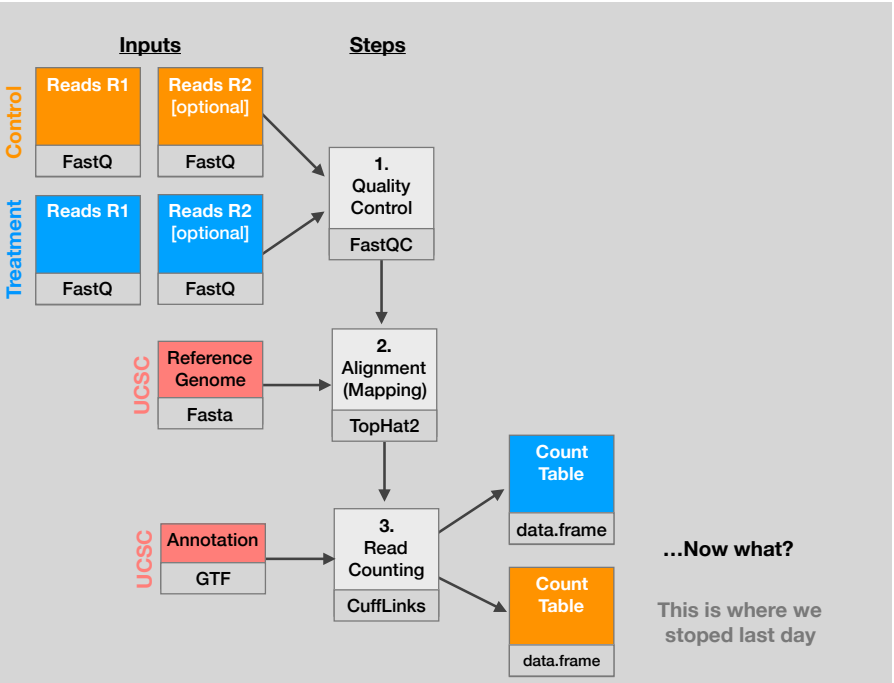
Feature comparison: 10.1093/bioinformatics/bts605

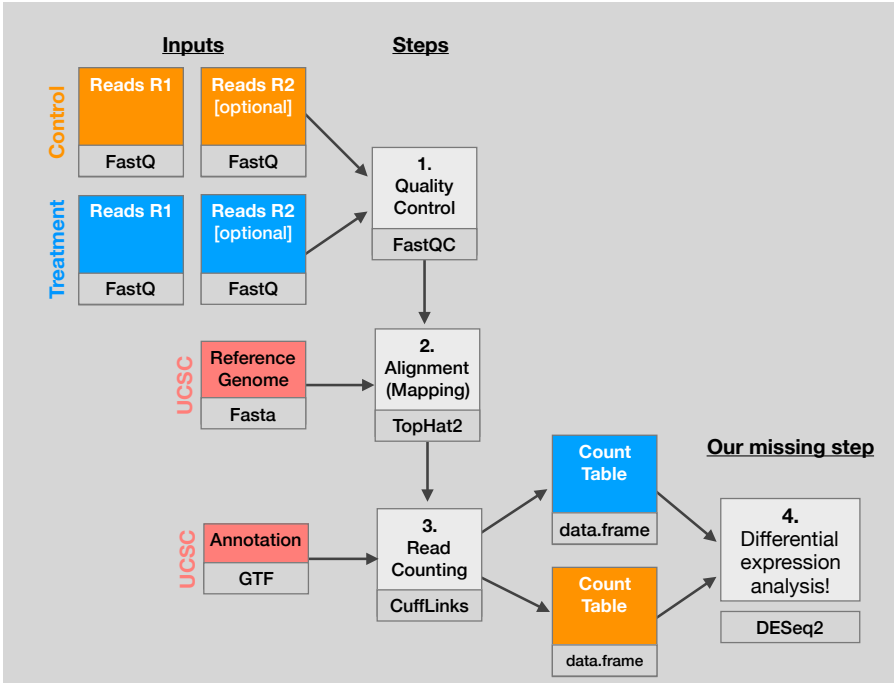





Inputs
Steps
Control
Reads R1
FastQ
Reads R2
[optional]
FastQ
Treatment
Reads R1
FastQ
Reads R2
[optional]
FastQ
1.
Quality
Control
FastQC

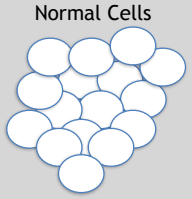

Inputs
Steps
Control
Reads R1
FastQ
Reads R2
[optional]
FastQ
Treatment
Reads R1
FastQ
Reads R2
[optional]
FastQ
1.
Quality
Control
FastQC
UCSC
Reference
Genome
Fasta
2.
Alignment
(Mapping)
TopHat2

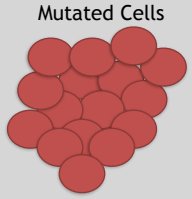

Inputs
Steps
Control
Reads R1
FastQ
Reads R2
[optional]
FastQ
Treatment
Reads R1
FastQ
Reads R2
[optional]
FastQ
1.
Quality
Control
FastQC
UCSC
Reference
Genome
Fasta
2.
Alignment
(Mapping)
TopHat2
UCSC
Annotation
GTF
3.
Read
Counting
CuffLinks
Count
Table
data.frame
Count
Table
data.frame
...Now what?
This is where we
stoped last day


Inputs
Steps
Control
Reads R1
FastQ
Reads R2
[optional]
FastQ
Treatment
Reads R1
FastQ
Reads R2
[optional]
FastQ
1.
Quality
Control
FastQC
UCSC
Reference
Genome
Fasta
2.
Alignment
(Mapping)
TopHat2
UCSC
Annotation
GTF
3.
Read
Counting
CuffLinks
Count
Table
data.frame
Count
Table
data.frame
Our missing step
4.
Differential
expression
analysis!
DESeq2

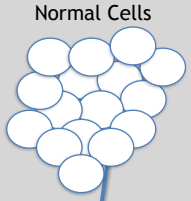
RNA Sequencing

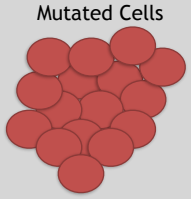
The absolute basics



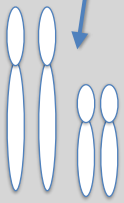


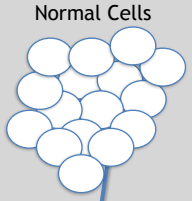
- The mutated cells behave differently than the normal cells
- We want to know what genetic mechanism is causing the difference
- One way to address this is to examine differences in gene expression via RNA sequencing…

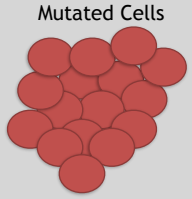


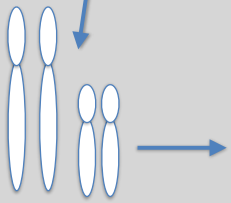


Each cell has a bunch of chromosomes

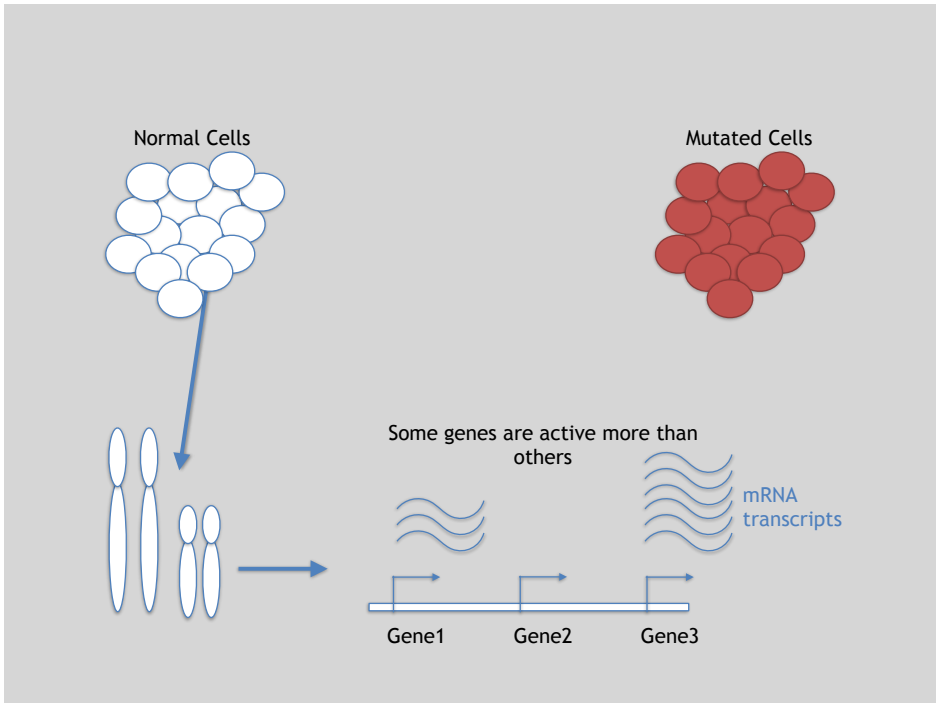


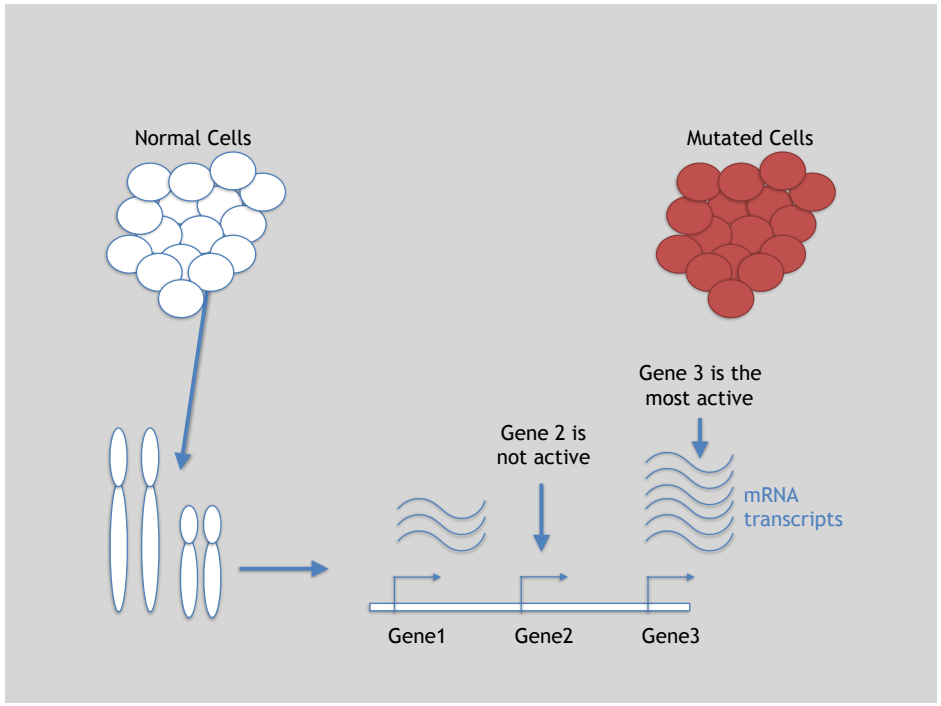


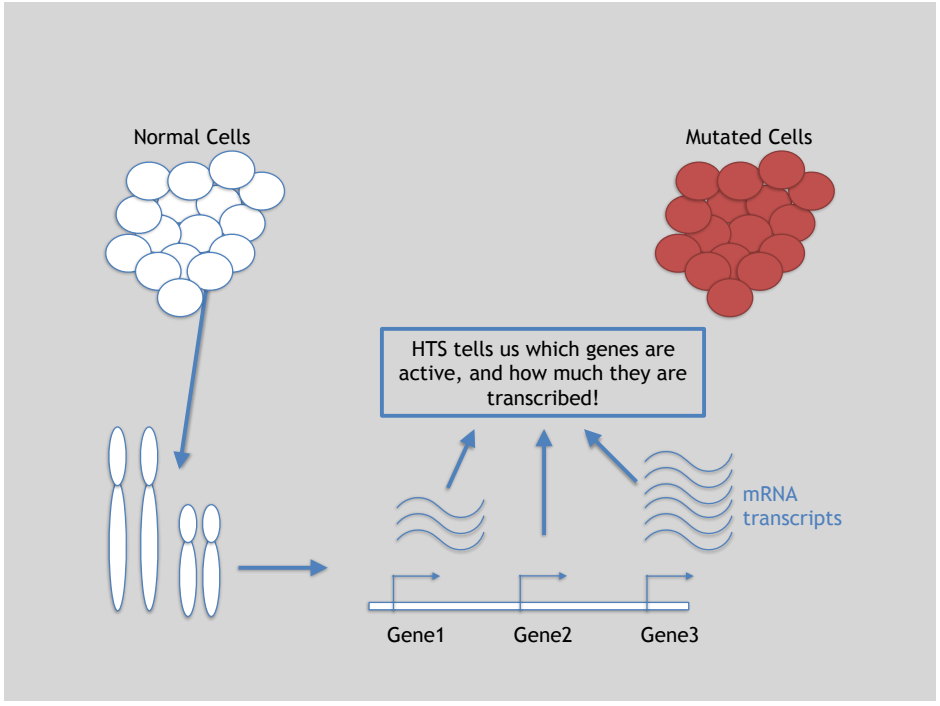


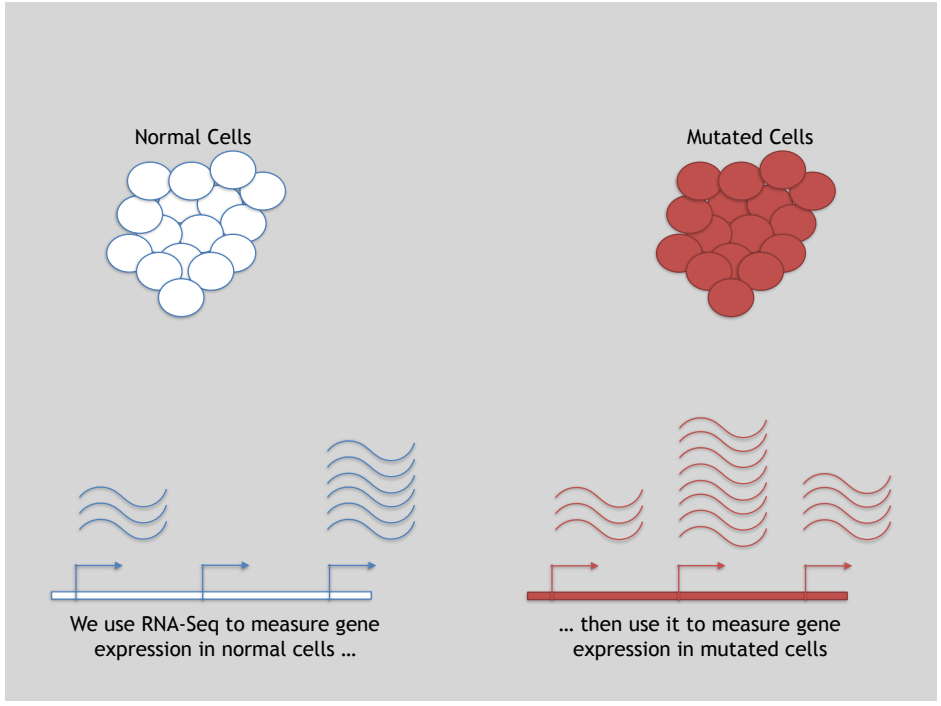


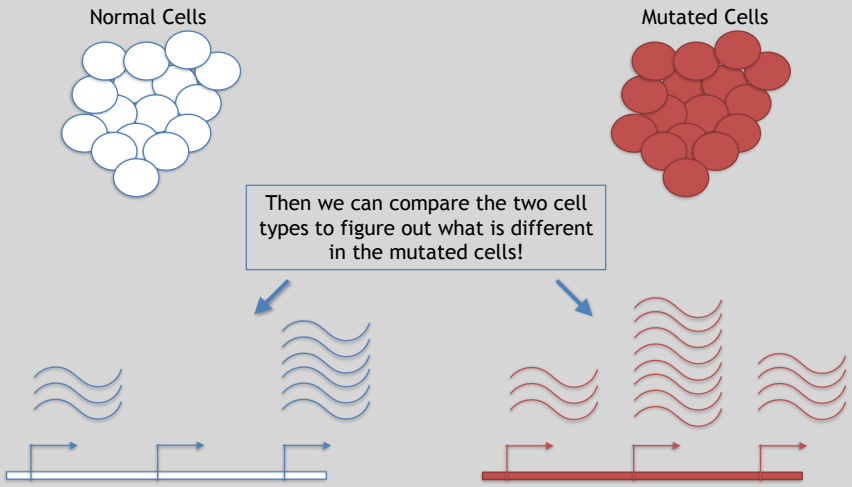
Each chromosome has a bunch of genes

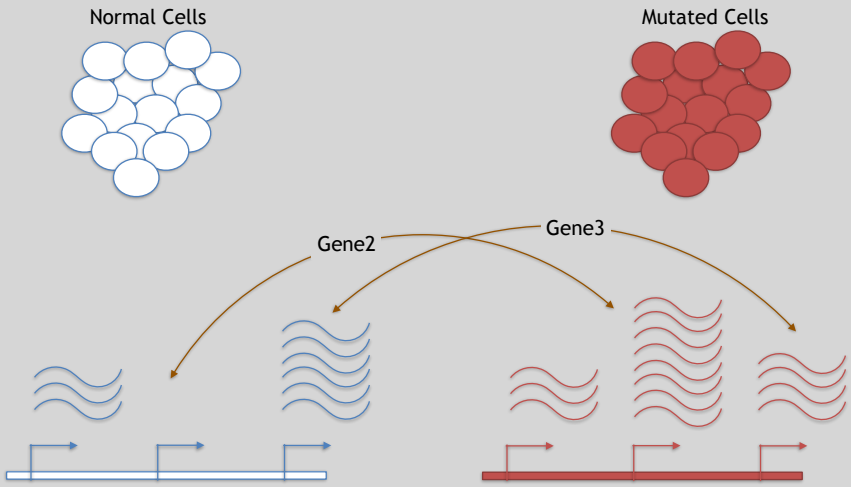

Normal Cells
Mutated Cells
Some genes are active more than others
mRNA transcripts
Gene1
Gene2
Gene3


Normal Cells
Mutated Cells
Gene 3 is the most active
Gene 2 is not active
mRNA transcripts
Gene1
Gene2
Gene3


Normal Cells
Mutated Cells
HTS tells us which genes are active, and how much they are transcribed!
mRNA transcripts
Gene1
Gene2
Gene3


Normal Cells
Mutated Cells
We use RNA-Seq to measure gene expression in normal cells …
… then use it to measure gene expression in mutated cells





Differences apparent for Gene 2 and to a lesser extent Gene 3

3 Main Steps for RNA-Seq:

1) **Prepare a sequencing library**
   (RNA to cDNA conversion via reverse transcription)

2) **Sequence**
   (Using the same technologies as DNA sequencing)

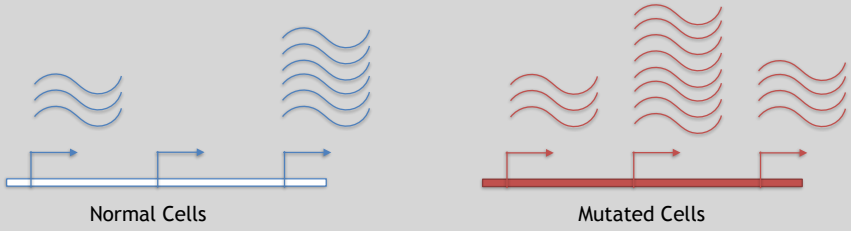
3) **Data analysis**
   (Often the major bottleneck to overall success!)

We will discuss each of these steps in detail (particularly the 3rd) next day!

Today we will get start of step 3!

Gene	WT-1	WT-2	WT-3	…
A1BG	30	5	13	…
AS1	24	10	18	…
…	…	…	…	…

We **sequenced**, **aligned**, **counted** the reads per gene in each sample to arrive at our data matrix



Do it Yourself!

Hand-on time!

Focus on Sections **4** please
(After your Alignment is finished)

Feedback:
[Muddy Point Assessment]

Reference

Additional Reference Slides
on SAM/BAM Format and
Sequencing Methods

Reference

SAM Format

- **S**equence **A**lignment/**M**ap (**SAM**) format is the almost-universal sequence alignment format for NGS
  - binary version is BAM
- It consists of a header section (lines start with '@') and an alignment section
- The official specification can be found here:
  - http://samtools.sourceforge.net/SAM1.pdf

Example SAM File

Reference

- Because SAM files are plain text (unlike their binary counterpart, BAM), we can take a peek at a few lines of the header with head, See:

https://bioboot.github.io/bimm143_F18/class-material/sam_format/

Header section

```
@HD    VN:1.0         SO:coordinate
@SQ    SN:1           LN:249250621    AS:NCBI37    UR:file:/data/local/ref/GATK/human_g1k_v37.fasta    M5:1b22b98cdeb4a9304cb5d48026a85128
@SQ    SN:2           LN:243199373    AS:NCBI37    UR:file:/data/local/ref/GATK/human_g1k_v37.fasta    M5:a0d9851da00400dec1098a9255ac712e
@SQ    SN:3           LN:198022430    AS:NCBI37    UR:file:/data/local/ref/GATK/human_g1k_v37.fasta    M5:fdfd811849cc2fadebc929bb925902e5
@RG    ID:UM0098:1    PL:ILLUMINA     PU:HWUSI-EAS1707-615LHAAXX-L001    LB:80    DT:2010-05-05T20:00:00-0400    SM:SD37743    CN:UMCORE
@RG    ID:UM0098:2    PL:ILLUMINA     PU:HWUSI-EAS1707-615LHAAXX-L002    LB:80    DT:2010-05-05T20:00:00-0400    SM:SD37743    CN:UMCORE
@PG    ID:bwa         VN:0.5.4
```

Alignment section

```
1:497:R:-272+13M17D24M    113    1    497    37    37M    15    100338662    0
CGGGTCTGACCTGAGGAGAACTGTGCTCCGCCTTCAG    0;==-==9;>>>>>=>>>>>>>>>>=>>>>>>>>>    XT:A:U    NM:i:0    SM:i:37    AM:i:0    X0:i:1    X1:i:0
XM:i:0    XO:i:0    XG:i:0    MD:Z:37
19:20389:F:275+18M2D19M    99    1    17644    0    37M    =    17919    314
TATGACTGCTAATAATACCTACACATGTTAGAACCAT    >>>>>>>>>>>>>>>>>>><<>>><<>>4::>>:<9    RG:Z:UM0098:1    XT:A:R    NM:i:0    SM:i:0    AM:i:0    X0:i:4
X1:i:0    XM:i:0    XO:i:0    XG:i:0    MD:Z:37
19:20389:F:275+18M2D19M    147    1    17919    0    18M2D19M    =    17644    -314
GTAGTACCAACTGTAAGTCCTTATCTTCATACTTTGT    ;44999;499<8<8<<<8<<><<<<><7<;<<<>><<    XT:A:R    NM:i:2    SM:i:0    AM:i:0    X0:i:4    X1:i:0
XM:i:0    XO:i:1    XG:i:2    MD:Z:18^CA19
9:21597+10M2I25M:R:-209    83    1    21678    0    8M2I27M    =    21469    -244
CACCACATCACATATACCAAGCCTGGCTGTGTCTTCT    <;9<<5><<<<><<<>><<><>><9>><>>>9>>><>    XT:A:R    NM:i:2    SM:i:0    AM:i:0    X0:i:5    X1:i:0
XM:i:0    XO:i:1    XG:i:2    MD:Z:35
```

SAM header section

Reference

- Header lines contain vital metadata about the reference sequences, read and sample information, and (optionally) processing steps and comments.
- Each header line begins with an **@**, followed by a two-letter code that distinguishes the different type of metadata records in the header.
- Following this two-letter code are tab-delimited key-value pairs in the format **KEY:VALUE** (the SAM format specification names these tags and values).

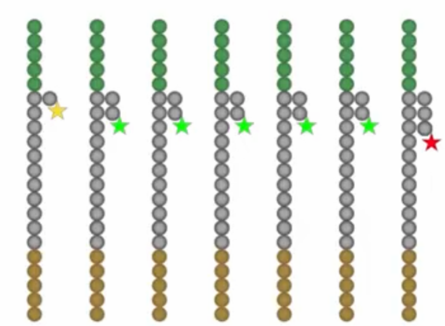
https://bioboot.github.io/bimm143_F18/class-material/sam_format/

SAM Utilities

Reference

- **Samtools** is a common toolkit for analyzing and manipulating files in SAM/ BAM format
  - http://samtools.sourceforge.net/
- **Picard** is a another set of utilities that can used to manipulate and modify SAM files
  - http://picard.sourceforge.net/
- These can be used for viewing, parsing, sorting, and filtering SAM files as well as adding new information (e.g. Read Groups)

Length limits for Illumina Sequencing

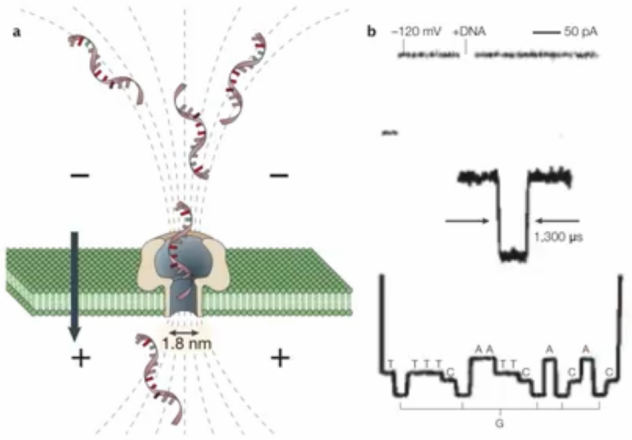


- Errors from chemistry add up.
- Limits reads to 300 bases

Reference

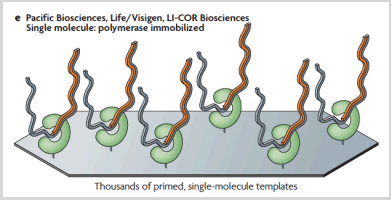
Additional Reference Slides on Sequencing Methods

Oxford Nanopore

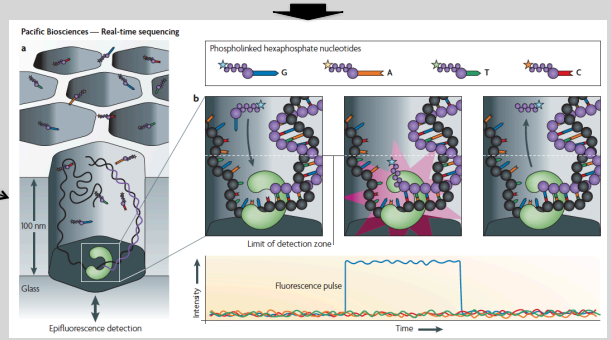


Nature Reviews Drug Discovery **volume 1**, 77-84 (2002)

Pacific Biosystems – Real Time Sequencing



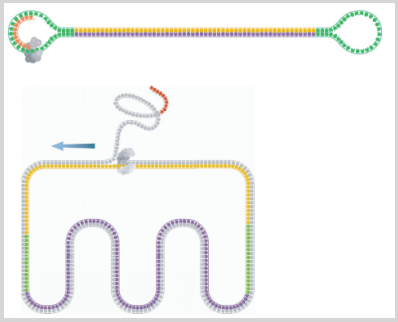
zero mode waveguides



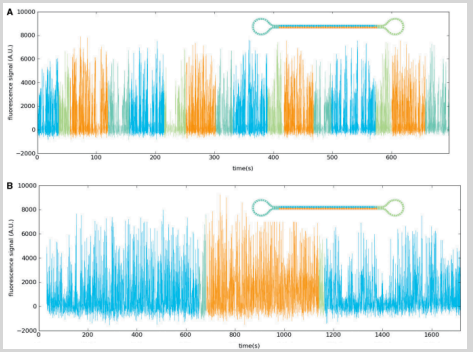
Metzker, ML (2010), *Nat. Rev. Genet*, 11, pp. 31-46

Pacific Biosystems – Circular Consensus

SMRTbell template

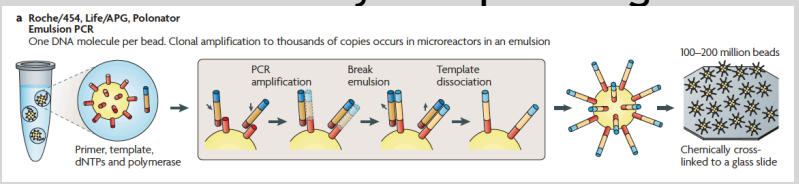


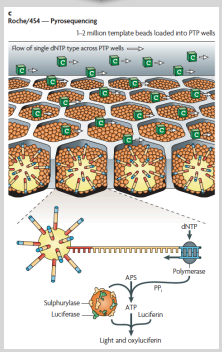
Subread Consensus Sequencing

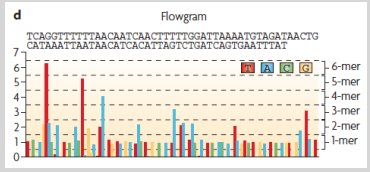


Travers, KJ et al (2010), *Nucl. Acids. Res.*, 38(15) pp. e159

Roche 454 - Pyrosequencing

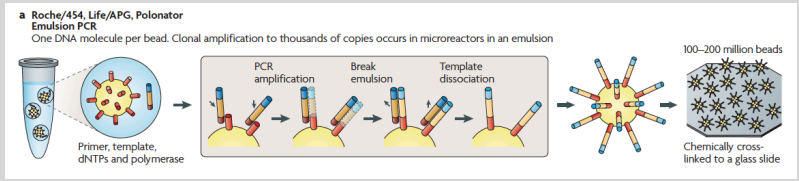


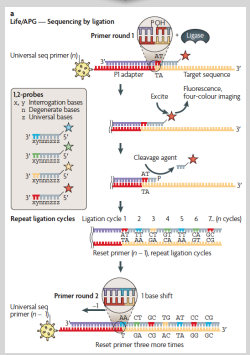


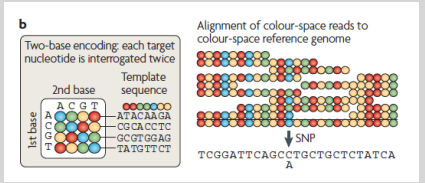


Metzker, ML (2010), *Nat. Rev. Genet*, 11, pp. 31-46

Life Technologies SOLiD – Sequence by Ligation



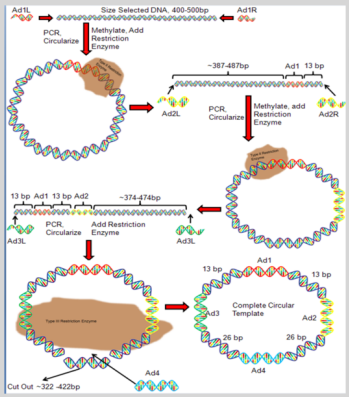


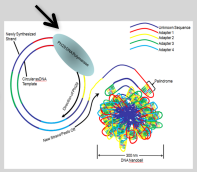


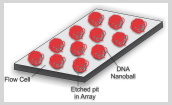
Metzker, ML (2010), *Nat. Rev. Genet*, 11, pp. 31-46

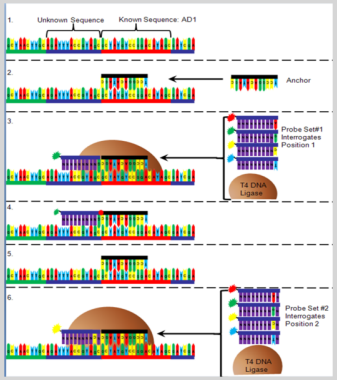
Complete Genomics – Nanoball Sequencing

Has proofreading ability!









Niedringhaus, TP et al (2011), *Analytical Chem.*, 83, pp. 4327-4341

Wikipedia, "DNA Nanoball Sequencing", September 26, 2012

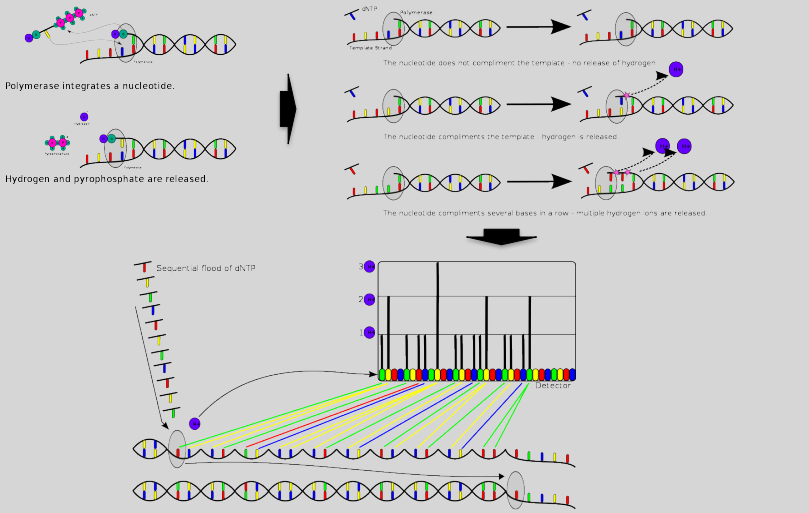
"Benchtop" Sequencers

- Lower cost, lower throughput alternative for smaller scale projects
- Currently three significant platforms
  - Roche 454 GS Junior
  - Life Technology Ion Torrent
    - Personal Genome Machine (PGM)
    - Proton
  - Illumina MiSeq

Platform	List price	Approximate cost per run	Minimum throughput (read length)	Run time	Cost/Mb	Mb/h
454 GS Junior	$108,000	$1,100	35 Mb (400 bases)	8 h	$31	4.4
Ion Torrent PGM						
(314 chip)	$80,490[a,b]	$225[c]	10 Mb (100 bases)	3 h	$22.5	3.3
(316 chip)		$425	100 Mb[d] (100 bases)	3 h	$4.25	33.3
(318 chip)		$625	1,000 Mb (100 bases)	3 h	$0.63	333.3
MiSeq	$125,000	$750	1,500 Mb (2 × 150 bases)	27 h	$0.5	55.5

Loman, NJ (2012), *Nat. Biotech.*, 5, pp. 434-439

PGM - Ion Semiconductor Sequencing



Wikipedia, "Ion Semiconductor Sequencing", September 26, 2012

Normalization

- Normalization is required to make comparisons in gene expression – Between 2+ genes in one sample – Between genes in 2+ samples
- Genes will have more reads mapped in sample with high coverage than with low read coverage – 2x depth ≈ 2x expression
- Longer genes will have more reads mapped than shorter genes – 2x length ≈ 2x more reads

Normalization: RPKM, FPKM and TPM

- **N.B.** Some tools for differential expression analysis such as edgeR and DESeq2 want raw read counts - i.e. non normalized input!
- However, often for your manuscripts and reports you will want to report normalized counts - e.g. plots of Log(FoldChange) vs Transcripts Per Million (or TPM)
- RPKM, FPKM and TPM all aim to normalize for sequencing depth and gene length.
- RPKM was made for single-end RNA-seq and stands for Reads per :
  - Count up the total reads in a sample and divide that number by 1,000,000 – this is our "per million" scaling factor.
  - Divide the read counts by the "per million" scaling factor. This normalizes for sequencing depth, giving you reads per million (RPM)
  - Divide the RPM values by the length of the gene, in kilobases. This gives you RPKM.

- FPKM was made for paired-end RNA-seq
- With paired-end RNA-seq, two reads can correspond to a single fragment
- The only difference between RPKM and FPKM is that FPKM takes into account that two reads can map to one fragment (and so it doesn't count this fragment twice).

- TPM is very similar to RPKM and FPKM. The only difference is the order of operations. Here's how you calculate TPM:
  - Divide the read counts by the length of each gene in kilobases. This gives you reads per kilobase (RPK).
  - Count up all the RPK values in a sample and divide this number by 1,000,000. This is your "per million" scaling factor.
  - Divide the RPK values by the "per million" scaling factor. This gives you TPM.
- So you see, when calculating TPM, the only difference is that you normalize for gene length first, and then normalize for sequencing depth second. However, the effects of this difference are quite profound.

- When you use TPM, the sum of all TPMs in each sample are the same. This makes it easier to compare the proportion of reads that mapped to a gene in each sample. In contrast, with RPKM and FPKM, the sum of the normalized reads in each sample may be different, and this makes it harder to compare samples directly.