# The conservation of gene models can support genome annotation 

Cassandria G. Tay Fernandez ${ }^{1}$ | Philipp E. Bayer $^{1}{ }^{\text {© }}$ | Jakob Petereit ${ }^{1}$ | Rajeev Varshney ${ }^{2,3}$ © | Jacqueline Batley ${ }^{1}$ © ${ }^{(0)}$ David Edwards ${ }^{1}$ ©<br>${ }^{1}$ School of Biological Sciences and Institute of Agriculture, University of Western Australia, Perth, Western Australia, Australia<br>${ }^{2}$ State Agricultural Biotechnology Centre, Centre for Crop and Food Innovation, Food Futures Institute, Murdoch University, Murdoch, Western Australia, Australia<br>${ }^{3}$ Centre of Excellence in Genomics \& Systems Biology, International Crops Research Institute for the Semi-Arid Tropics (ICRISAT), Hyderabad, Telangana, India

## Correspondence

David Edwards, School of Biological Sciences and Institute of Agriculture, University of Western Australia, Perth, WA, Australia.

Email: dave.edwards@uwa.edu.au

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#### Abstract

Many genome annotations include false-positive gene models, leading to errors in phylogenetic and comparative studies. Here, we propose a method to support gene model prediction based on evolutionary conservation and use it to identify potentially erroneous annotations. Using this method, we developed a set of 15,345 representative gene models from 12 legume assemblies that can be used to support genome annotations for other legumes.


## 1 | INTRODUCTION

The evolution of flowering plants can be traced back to the Cretaceous period around $125-100$ million years ago, with subsequent divergence and adaptation to a wide variety of habitats (Crane \& Lidgard, 1989; Lupia et al., 1999). However, many structures and much of the biochemistry remain common across plant species, which reflects shared common gene sets that encode heritable features of these shared traits. Genes are classically understood to be heritable sequences that impact the characteristics of an organism when expressed (Johannsen, 1909; Schnable, 2020). However, the impact of gene expression can be difficult to assess for some genes due to redundancy and highly specialized roles. For example, the phenotype of stress-related genes may only be observed when

[^0]stress is present and at specific developmental stages (Macneil \& Walhout, 2011). In contrast to the classical definition of a gene, a gene model describes a region of a genome that is transcribed as RNA and translated into protein or one of the classes of noncoding RNA genes. A gene by this definition does not need to play a role in specifying the characteristics of an organism (Gerstein et al., 2007).

Many protein-coding genes share sequence identity between species and can be structurally and functionally traced back to common ancestors. Large numbers of unique genes for species would suggest that de novo gene birth occurs at a high rate following speciation. Additionally, these novel genes must also be lost rapidly following diversification and the evolution of subsequent species, as their persistence would lead them to no longer be species-specific. Two lines of evidence suggest that this is not the case. First, while gene birth and gene death do play vital roles in evolution, genomic studies of closely related species do not identify significant births of novel functional genes (Armisén et al., 2008;

[^1]Demuth \& Hahn, 2009; Gu et al., 2002; Tian et al., 2009), In plants such as $A$, thaliana and $O$. sativa, many speciesspecific genes have been found in close relatives (Armisén et al., 2008). Second, examination of closely related species suggests that much of the gene content is conserved following speciation; this is apparent in the Brassica genus, where comparison of B. oleracea, B. rapa, and B. napus shows a high level of conservation for the composition and order of genes across their genomes (Golicz et al., 2016; Rana et al., 2004). The lack of evidence for the birth and death of large numbers of genes associated with speciation suggests that the majority of unique gene models predicted in individual plant genomes may be artifacts of the annotation process and are unlikely to be functional.

Methods for the prediction of gene models in a genome assembly vary depending on the resources available and the purpose of the resulting predicted gene set. A strict annotation may be applied where false-positive gene models may negatively influence subsequent analysis, while more relaxed annotation methods may be applied if the purpose is to capture all potential gene structures. Some pipelines predict gene models ab initio based on sequence features such as open reading frames JIGSAW (Allen \& Salzberg, 2005) and EvidenceModeler (Haas et al., 2008), while other pipelines, such as MAKER2 (Holt \& Yandell, 2011), require gene expression or other forms of external evidence that can vary depending on the availability of data (Wang et al., 2004). Genes can also be predicted through homology-based gene prediction, which involves aligning a target genome to an annotated genome (Keilwagen et al., 2016). This comparative method exploits the fact that coding genes are typically well conserved and assumes that genes that share significant sequence similarity have identical functions (Brent, 2005; Keilwagen et al., 2016; König et al., 2018; Sharma et al., 2017).
Here, we propose an additional method to support gene model prediction based on evolutionary conservation and comparative gene prediction. We use this approach to identify potentially erroneous annotations in 12 legume genome assemblies and establish a comparative gene set, a tool to help and improve gene model annotations.

## 2 | MATERIALS AND METHODS

To identify non-conserved gene models, the annotated genes for each assembly and whole genome sequences were downloaded from https://data.legumeinfo.org/ (Table 1). Each annotated coding sequence (CDS) was compared with the genome sequence for each of the other 12 species using a basic local alignment search tool (BLAST) v2.11.0+ (evalue $<0.05$ ). Genes that aligned with genes in other species were considered conserved sequences. If a gene did not match with any of the other genomes (e-value $<0.05$ ), the

## Core Ideas

- If a gene model is only found in one species, it is more likely to be an annotation artifact than a gene model found across species.
- A total of 15,345 representative gene models from 12 legume assemblies can support genome annotations for other legumes.
- Representative gene models can be established for any species to improve genome annotation.
gene was compared with the National Centre for Biotechnology Information-non-redundant (NCBI-NR) database using BLASTx v2.11.0+ (e-value < 0.05; accessed June 15, 2022; Altschul et al., 1990), and genes that still failed to find a match were considered non-conserved gene models. Genes that did have a match with the NCBI-NR database with a plant other than itself were included in the conserved sequences. RepeatMasker v4.1.5, rmblastn 2.14.0, and database CONS-DFam with RepBase 3.7 (species was set to Viridiplantae) were used to see the identity of 6899 genes only present in $P$. sativum. The same parameters were used to identify TE domains in both the conserved and the non-conserved genes.

To identify if a predicted CDS is conserved, the predicted gene sequences were compared with the whole genome sequences of the other species using BLASTx v2.11.0+ (e-value $<0.05$ ) to avoid potential errors from differences in the annotation of the other genomes. The representative gene set was assembled by first constructing a network using networkx. Genes were represented as nodes and edges were represented as BLASTx hits (Hagberg et al., 2008). The networks were constructed using the scripts selfblast_hsp_filter.R, network_gml.py, python edgelist_generator.py, and legume_rep_gene_filter.R available at GitHub; https://github.com/AppliedBioinformatics/legume_ gene_count. The gene with the most alignments in each gene cluster was designated as a representative gene, and genes sharing edges were removed. Then, the following gene with the most alignments would be designated as a representative gene, and those edges would be removed until only single nodes remained, thereby sequentially removing the redundant sequences. Gene features were visualized using ggplot 2 v3.3 (Wickham, 2016).

## 3 | RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

We first compared all annotated genes for each assembly with the whole genome sequence of each of the other assemblies. Gene models that had no significant sequence identity

TABLE 1 The assembly versions and references of each legume used to establish a legume representative gene set.

| Legume species | Assembly version | Citation |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Cajanus cajan | ICPL87119.gnm1.ann1.Y27M | (Varshney et al., 2012) |
| Cicer arietinum | CDCFrontier.gnm1.GkHc | (Varshney et al., 2013) |
| Glycine max | Wm82.gnm1.ann1.DvBy | (Schmutz et al., 2010) |
| Lotus japonicus | MG20.gnm3.ann1.WF9B | (Sato et al., 2008) |
| Lupinus angustifolius | Tanji1.gnm1.ann1.nnV9 | (Hane et al., 2017) |
| Medicago truncatula | Mt4.0v2 | (Tang et al., 2014) |
| Phaseolus vulgaris | G19833.gnm1.ann1.pScz | (Schmutz et al., 2014) |
| Pisum sativum | Cameor.gnm1.ann1.7SZR | (Kreplak et al., 2019) |
| Trifolium pratense | MilvusB.gnm2.ann1.DFgp | (De Vega et al., 2015) |
| Vigna angularis | Gyeongwon.gnm3.ann1.3Nz5 | (Kang et al., 2015) |
| Vigna radiata | VC1973A.gnm6.ann1.M1Qs | (Kang et al., 2014) |
| Vigna unguiculata | IT97K-499-35.gnm1.ann1.zb5D | (Lonardi et al., 2019) |



FIGURE 1 Comparison of gene length between 12 different legume species based on the reference sequence. The spread of gene lengths were taken for all genes (red) and the genes after filtering. If a gene shared sequence identity with the BLAST NCBI-NR database, or another legume, the gene was retained (green). Genes that did not were removed (blue).
with any of the other genomes were then compared with the NCBI-NR database (NCBI Resources Coordinators, 2018), and genes that still failed to find a match were considered species-specific or potential misannotations (Figure 1; Table 2). This process led to the identification of between 18 genes in Cajanus cajan and 6899 genes for Pisum sativum that are not present in the other legume genomes or NCBINR. Genes with no hits in legumes but hits in NCBI-NR were mostly contaminated. For example, in the C. cajan annotation, 80 gene models with no hits in the other legume
genomes matched Acinetobacter sp. gene models deposited in NCBI-NR.

Many $P$. sativum genes were not found in other legumes (Table 2). This was attributed to the pea reference genome used, which focused on capturing as many genes as possible and used AUGUSTUS and Fgnesh to identify gene models. However, these programs were trained on the M. truncatula gene matrix (Kreplak et al., 2019; Tang et al., 2014) hence many gene models were called for the pea genome, even if there was less confidence in the genes (Kreplak et al., 2019).

TABLE 2 A summary of legume gene models present within 12 legume species.
$\left.\begin{array}{|l|l|l|}\hline & \begin{array}{l}\text { Number of } \\ \text { reference gene } \\ \text { models }\end{array} & \begin{array}{l}\text { Number of gene models with } \\ \text { no identity with the other } \\ \text { legume genomes }\end{array} \\ \hline \text { Species } & 40,071 & 100\end{array} \begin{array}{l}\text { Number of gene models with } \\ \text { no identity with other legume } \\ \text { genomes and no match in } \\ \text { NCBI-NR }\end{array}\right\}$

Abbreviations: NCBI, National Centre for Biotechnology Information; NR, non-redundant.

The 6899 genes were examined through RepeatMasker and most genes were not repeats. While, on average, $2.8 \%$ of genes were covered with repeats, only $68 \%$ of those genes were covered by more than $90 \%$ by TEs. The most common repeat type was simple repeats, with 84 genes being identified as such. InterProScan was used to look for TE-related gene candidates but found no genes with TE-like domains amongst the low-confidence pea genes. In contrast, InterProScan did identify genes with TE-like domains in the representative gene set.
Separately, 6899 genes were compared to the Yang et al. (2022) pea reference using blastn (e-value 1e-10). The Yang et al. (2022) assembly use an independent, de novo annotation, and we assumed that genes that did not have a match with the other legumes would be misannotations and would not have a match with this assembly. A total of 1007 genes had a hit in the new annotation with an e-value $<1 \mathrm{e}-10$. Of those 1007 hits, 144 genes had $100 \%$ identity but only 14 had a $100 \%$ query coverage and $100 \%$ identity. Note that, 12 of 14 genes were not covered by any repeats and two genes were covered by $21 \%$ and $16 \%$ of repeats. Pisum sativum has more genes because the annotation parameters used gene were relaxed, allowing for more potential gene candidates to be captured. Under scrutiny, only 14 genes were able to be identified as "real genes". These genes are flagged for further study.
We compared the potential false-positive gene models with conserved gene models. On average, the potential falsepositive gene models (removed genes) were shorter than the retained genes (median 510 bp compared with 1209 bp , $p<0.05 t$-test; Figure 1). This is most prominent in $T$.
pratense, $V$. angularis, and $V$. radiata where the lower threshold of the gene length of all genes corresponds with the lower threshold of removed genes. Across all species, longer genes tend to be retained (Figure 1). The retained genes had a similar guanine-cytosine (GC) content (median $42.3 \%$ compared with $42.6 \%$ ) to the conserved gene models (Figure S1). The similar GC content suggests that false positive gene models are not always due to contamination with DNA from other species during the genome assembly process.

To establish a non-redundant representative set of conserved gene models, we first removed non-conserved gene models and then used a graph-based approach to identify representative gene models across the 12 genomes. This resulted in a total of 15,345 representative gene models that would produce at least one significant match when searched with each conserved gene model from each of the 12 genomes. For example, repeats and gene families that share similar sequences would thus be represented by a single representative in the final set.

Studying the representative set (made from conserved genes) showed that $9 \%$ of genes were masked. Of the 15,345 genes, 292 genes were covered by repeats (at least $90 \%$ ). These repeats are mostly Gypsy/Copia and the presence of these repeats could be attributed to R-genes which are mostly made up of repeats. We looked at the non-conserved genes and could not identify any TEs genes, likely because TEs are usually removed from annotation and assembly. Of the 6954 non-conserved pea genes, 4048 genes were identified as single-copy and 2858 were identified as paralogs ( 48 nonconserved genes likely being contaminations, e-value $>0.01$ ).


FIGURE 2 Percentage of plant, algae, and eukaryote annotation gene sets aligning with the representative legume gene set. Tip labels of legumes are purple, tip labels of angiosperms are green, and the remainder are black. The phylogeny is based on Kumar et al. (2017) with the $x$ axis showing divergence time in Mya.

Similar proportions were found through the non-conserved genes of the other species.
We compared the annotated gene models from other plant species, Chlamydomonas reinhardtii, and Homo sapiens with the representative gene models to assess how representative the gene set is across kingdoms (Figure 2). As expected, within the 12 legumes the gene sets align $100 \%$ with the conserved gene models, with fewer genes aligning with increasing evolutionary distance.
Brassica napus is more closely related to legumes than Musa acuminata but has less sequence identity than M. acuminata (Figure 2). This was attributed to the annotation of $B$. napus used which reported 101,040 annotated genes (Hurgobin et al., 2018). We compared the representative legumes to a more recent B. napus annotation (Lee et al., 2020) using tblastx (e-value 1e-2) and found that only $72.26 \%$ of genes had sequence similarity (e-value $1 \mathrm{e}-02$ ). We assume this is also caused by the annotation being more relaxed than for the other species aiming to predict all possible gene models and accepting a relatively high rate of erroneous gene calls.

The establishment of representative gene sets supports standardized annotation procedures for related species and robust comparative genomic analysis. While a predicted gene having sequence identity with a representative gene does not necessarily support a functional role, the prediction of a novel gene that lacks sequence identity to the representative set suggests that it may be an artifact and should be examined more closely for evidence to support a role (RNA-seq, proteomic data, etc.). Other approaches are required to assess if a gene is functional, as predicted genes may have a sequence
identity to pseudogenes or gene fragments. This representative gene set is valuable to support comparative genomic analysis among the 12 legumes studies here, but additional representative genes may be included with the expansion of high-quality genome assemblies for application to a broader range of species.

## AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

Cassandria G. Tay Fernandez: Investigation; writingoriginal draft. Philipp E. Bayer: Investigation; writingreview and editing. Jakob Petereit: Investigation; writingreview and editing. Rajeev K. Varshney: Writing-review and editing. Jacqueline Batley: Project administration; writing—review and editing. David Edwards: Conceptualization; funding acquisition; project administration; writingreview and editing.

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CONFLICT OF INTEREST STATEMENT
The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT
A fasta file of the representative legume proteins is available at https://dx.doi.org/10.26182/n6b5-zx38.

## ORCID

Philipp E. Bayer (®) https://orcid.org/0000-0001-8530-3067
Rajeev Varshney (—) https://orcid.org/0000-0002-4562-9131
Jacqueline Batley © https://orcid.org/0000-0002-5391-5824
David Edwards © https://orcid.org/0000-0001-7599-6760

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## SUPPORTING INFORMATION

Additional supporting information can be found online in the Supporting Information section at the end of this article.

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[^0]:    Abbreviations: BLAST, Basic Local Alignment Search Tool; bp, base pairs; CDS, coding sequence; GC, guanine-cytosine; NCBI, National Centre for Biotechnology Information; NR, non-redundant.

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