

TOPIC 1: Introduction to 2nd and 3rd-Gen Sequencing

Biol 525D - Bioinformatics for Evolutionary Biology
2020

Instructors

Dr Tom Booker



Julia Kreiner



Professor Kathryn Hodgins



booker@zoology.ubc.ca

julia.kreiner@mail.utoronto.ca

kathryn.hodgins@monash.edu

WEBSITE: <https://ubc-biol525d.github.io/>

Overview of the week

1. Introduction: Scope of course and overview of technology [Tom]
2. Introduction to command line programming [Tom]
3. Fastq files and quality checking/trimming [Kay]
4. Alignment: algorithms and tools [Tom]
5. Assembly: transcriptome and genome assembly [Kay]
6. RNAseq + differential expression analysis [Kay]
7. SNP and variant calling [Julia]
8. Population genomics and plotting in R (Part 1) [Julia]
9. Population genomics and plotting in R (Part 2) [Julia]
10. Case studies [Tom/Julia]

Goal of any sequencing project

Raw sequence data

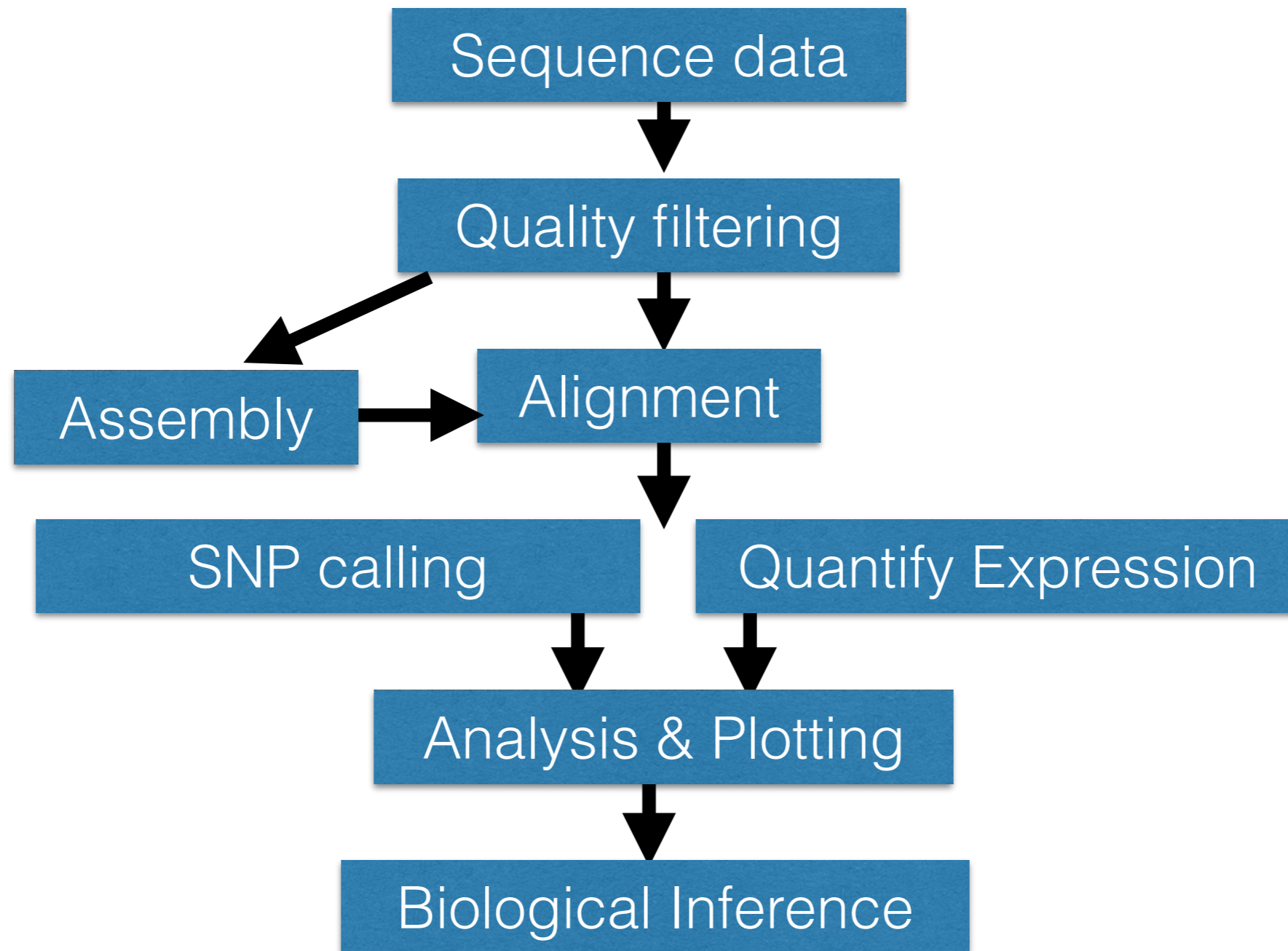


????

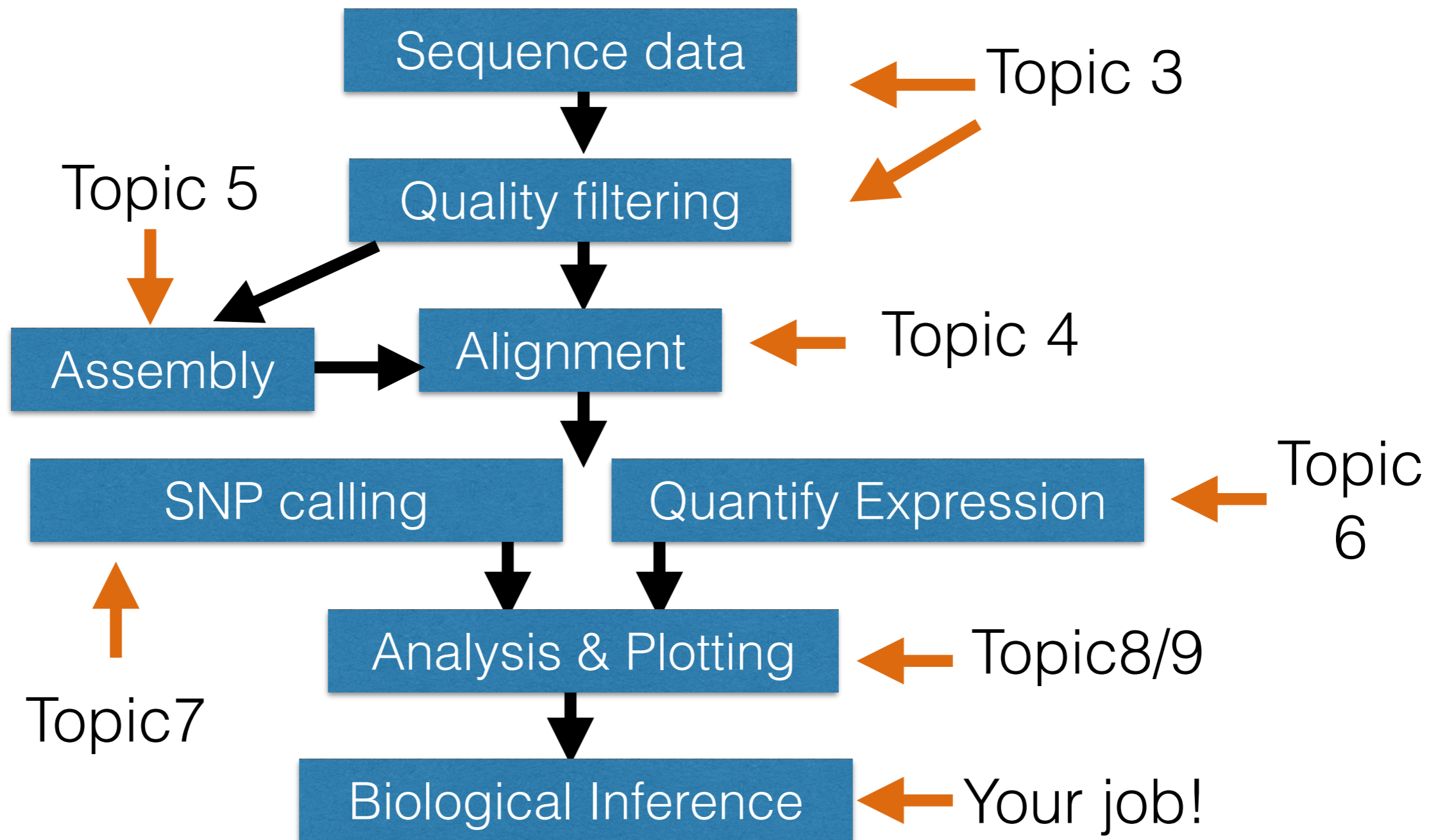


Biological inference

Rough outline



Rough outline





A brief history of DNA sequencing

Genome milestones

1977: *Bacteriophage* Φ X174

1982: *Bacteriophage lambda*

1995: *Haemophilus influenzae*

1996: *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*

1998: *Caenorhabditis elegans*

2000: *Drosophila melanogaster*

2000: *Arabidopsis thaliana*

2001: *Homo sapiens*

2002: *Mus musculus*

2004: *Rattus norvegicus*

2005: *Pan troglodytes*

2005: *Oryza sativa*

2007: *Cyanidioschyzon merolae*

2009: *Zea mays*

2010: Neanderthal

2012: Denisovan

2013: The HeLa cell line

2013: *Danio rerio*

2017: *Xenopus laevis*

Excerpted and edited from Box 1 and 2 - Shendure et al 2017 Nature



A brief history of DNA sequencing

Technological milestones

1953: Sequencing of insulin protein

1965: Sequencing of alanine tRNA

1968: Sequencing of cohesive ends of phage lambda DNA

1977: Maxam–Gilbert sequencing

1977: Sanger sequencing

1990: Paired-end sequencing

2000: Massively parallel signature sequencing by ligation

2003: Single-molecule massively parallel sequencing-by-synthesis

2003: Zero-mode waveguides for single-molecule analysis

2003: Sequencing by synthesis of in vitro DNA colonies in gels

2005: Four-colour reversible terminators

2005: Sequencing by ligation of in vitro DNA colonies on beads

2007: Large-scale targeted sequence capture

2010: Direct detection of DNA methylation during single-molecule sequencing

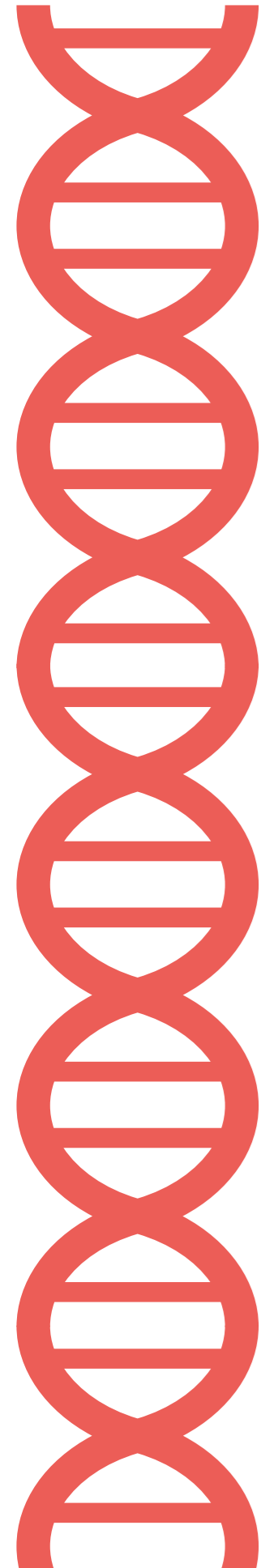
2010: Single-base resolution electron tunnelling through a solid state detector

2011: Semiconductor sequencing by proton detection

2012: Reduction to practice of nanopore sequencing

2012: Single-stranded library preparation method for ancient DNA

Excerpted and edited from Box 1 and 2 - Shendure et al 2017 Nature



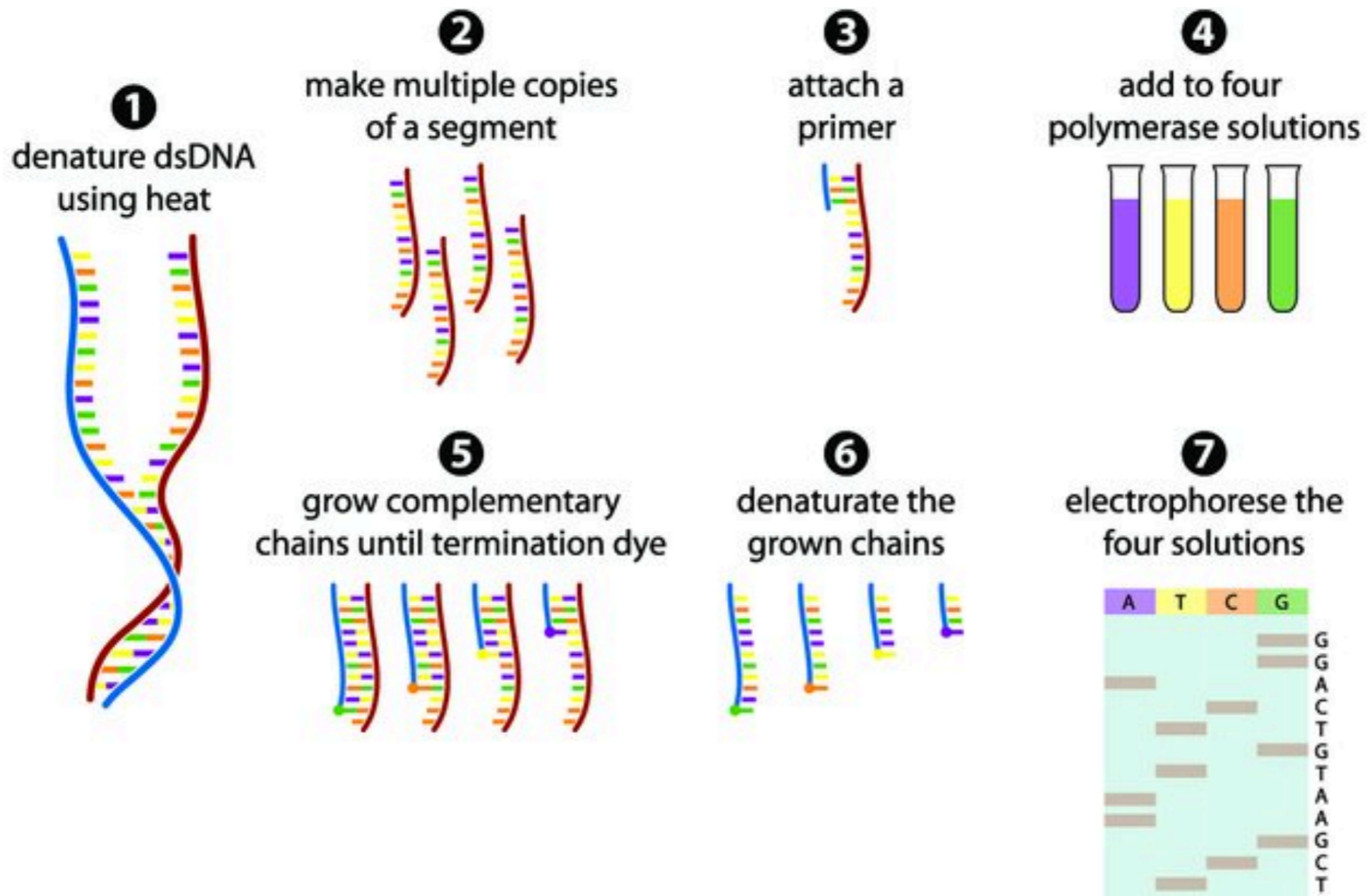
First Generation Sequencing

Maxam-Gilbert: Chemical modification and cleavage followed by gel electrophoresis

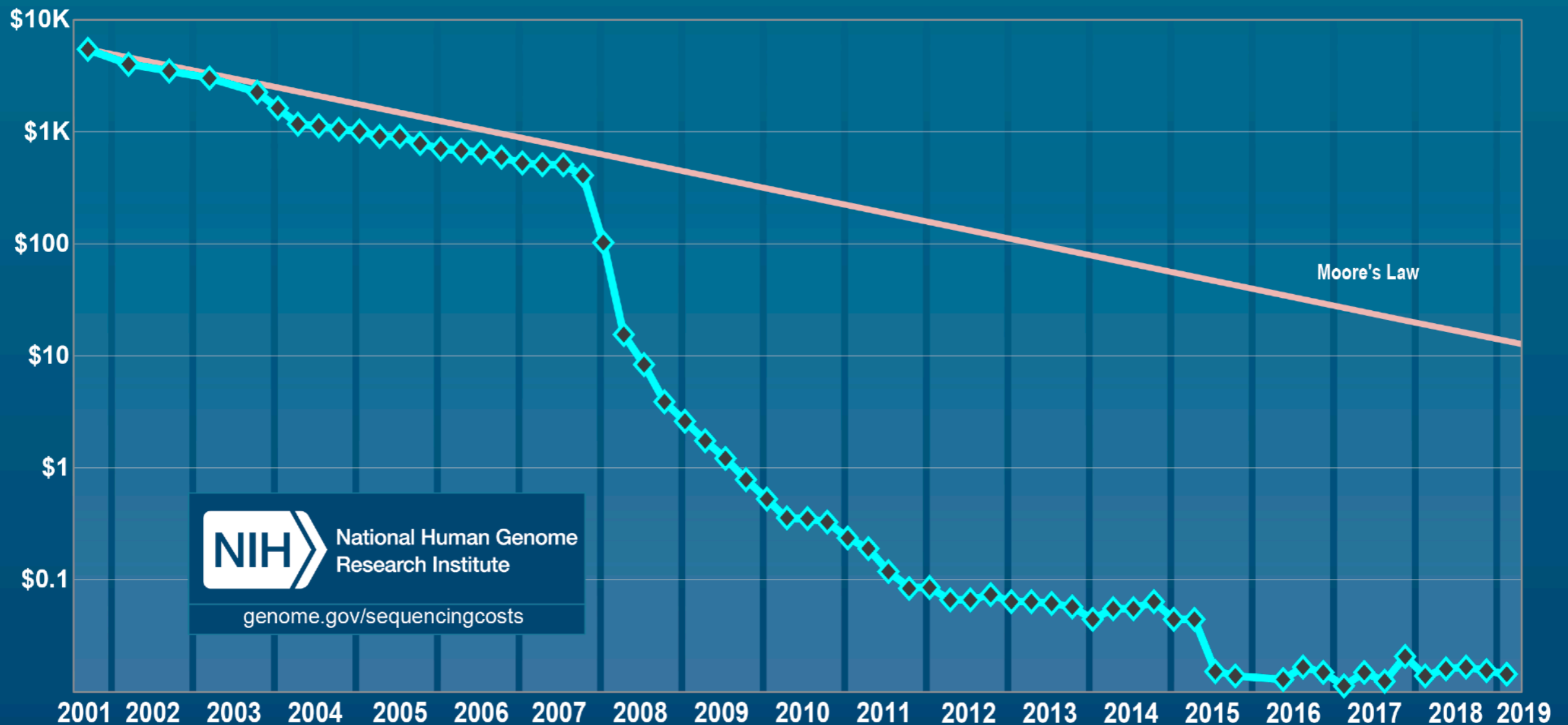
Sanger: Selective incorporation of chain-terminating dideoxynucleotides followed by gel electrophoresis

- Became full automated using fluorescently labeled dideoxy bases
- Dominant sequencer up until 2007
- Only one fragment sequenced per reaction
- Still used for sequencing individual PCR products


Sanger sequencing



Cost per Raw Megabase of DNA Sequence



*Moore's law stated that the number of transistors on a microchip doubled every two years, while costs halved



Second (Next-gen) and third generation sequencing

Sequences many molecules in parallel

Don't need to know anything about the sequence to start

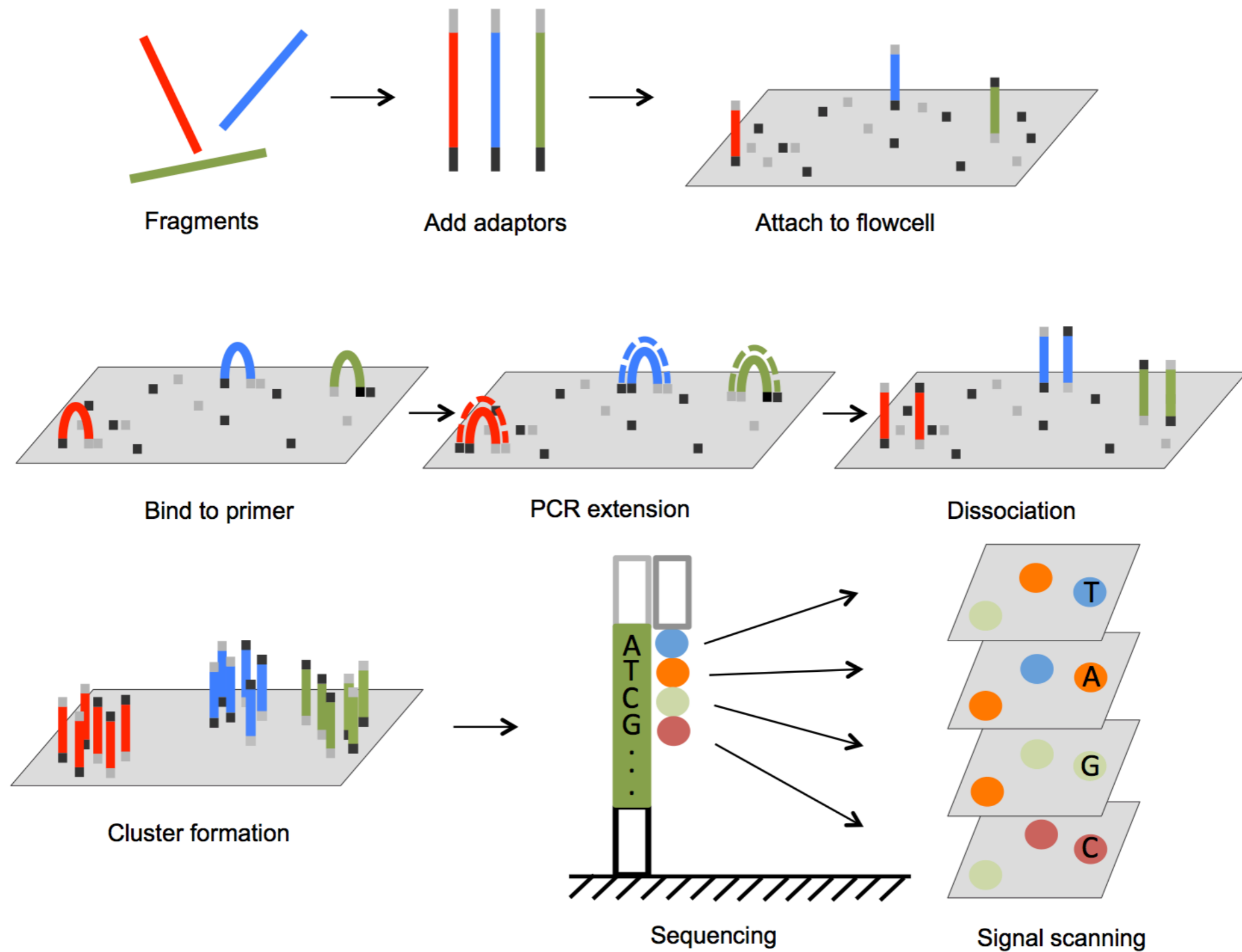
Main technologies:

- Illumina
- Ion torrent
- 454 (Pyrosequencing)
- PacBio

Second generation sequencing

Technology	Read Length	Accuracy	Bases/run	Uses
Illumina	50-600bp	99.9%	500-600 GBase	Resequencing General depth
Oxford Nanopore	5kb-100kb	85-95%	10-30GBase	Microbial genomes Genome assembly
PacBio	10kb-40kb	85-90%	5-10Gbase	Genome assembly Structural variants

Illumina sequencing



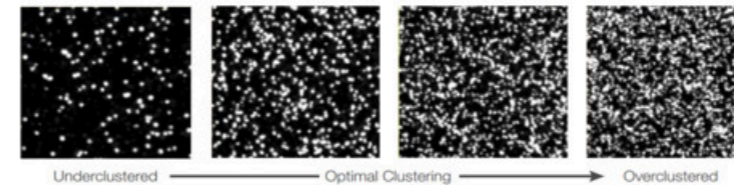
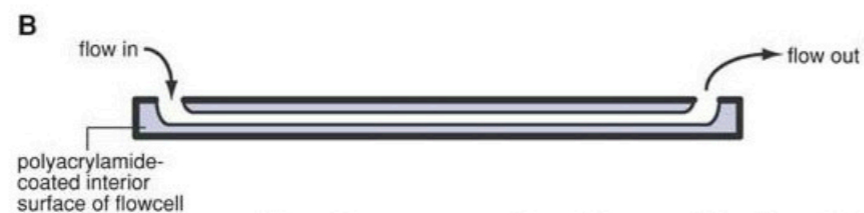
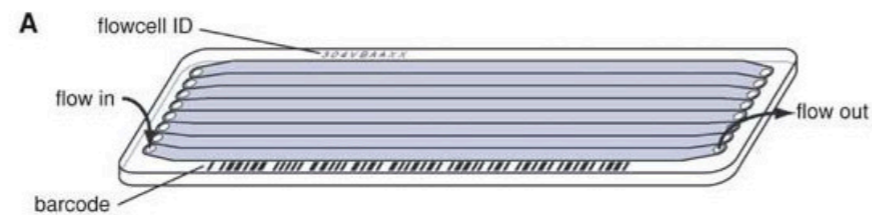
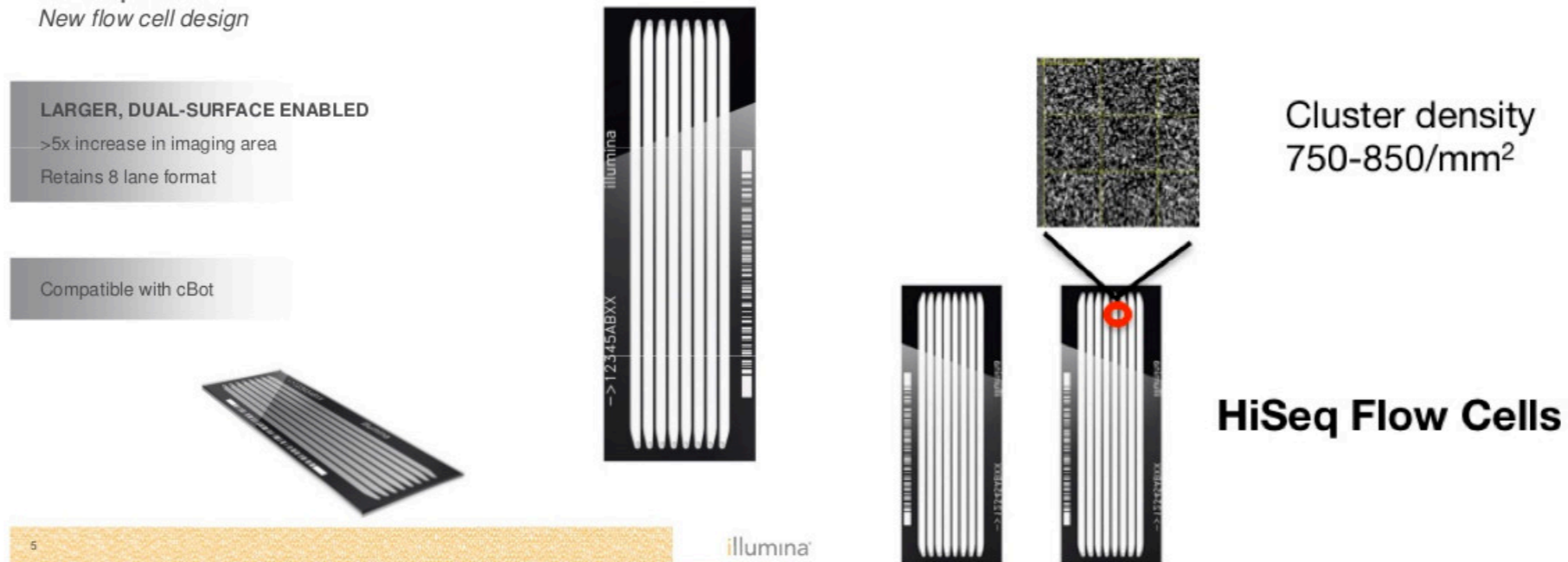
Illumina sequencing

HiSeq 2000
New flow cell design

LARGER, DUAL-SURFACE ENABLED

>5x increase in imaging area
Retains 8 lane format

Compatible with cBot



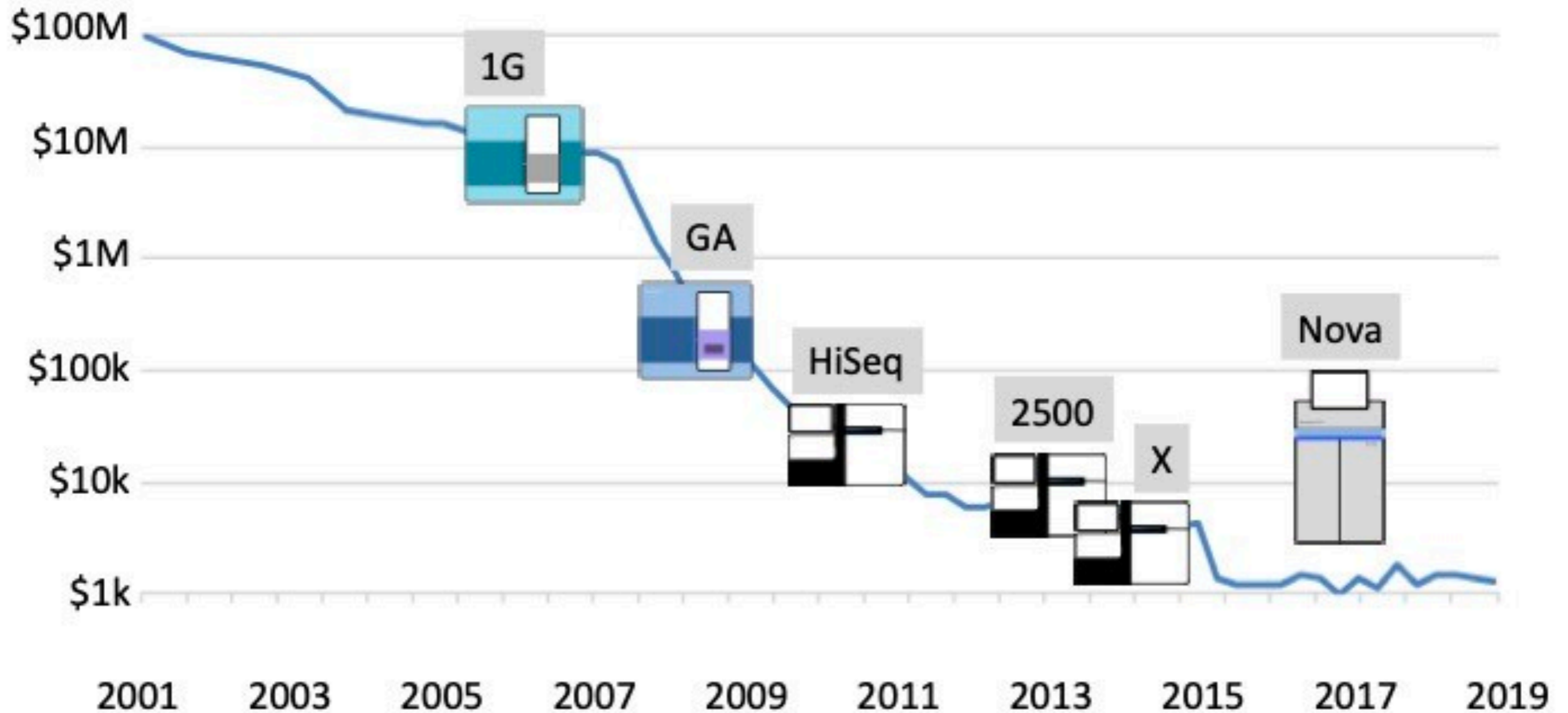
Illumina uses a glass 'flowcell', about the size of a microscope slide, with 8 separate 'lanes'.

The HiSeq instrument scans both upper and lower surfaces of each flowcell lane.

From hackteria.org

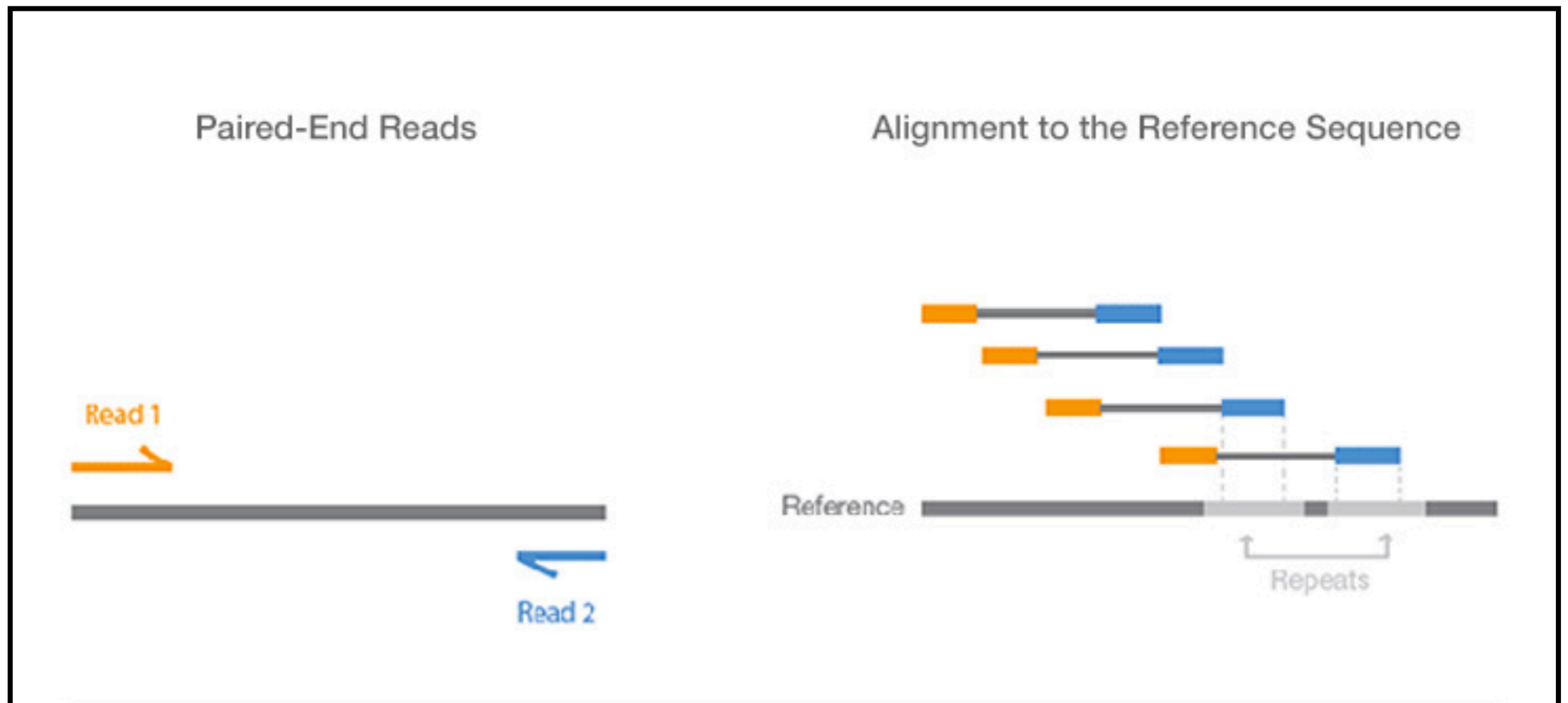
<http://www.hackteria.org/wiki/File:FlowCell.jpg>

Production cost per 30x Human genome over **18** years



Illumina sequencing

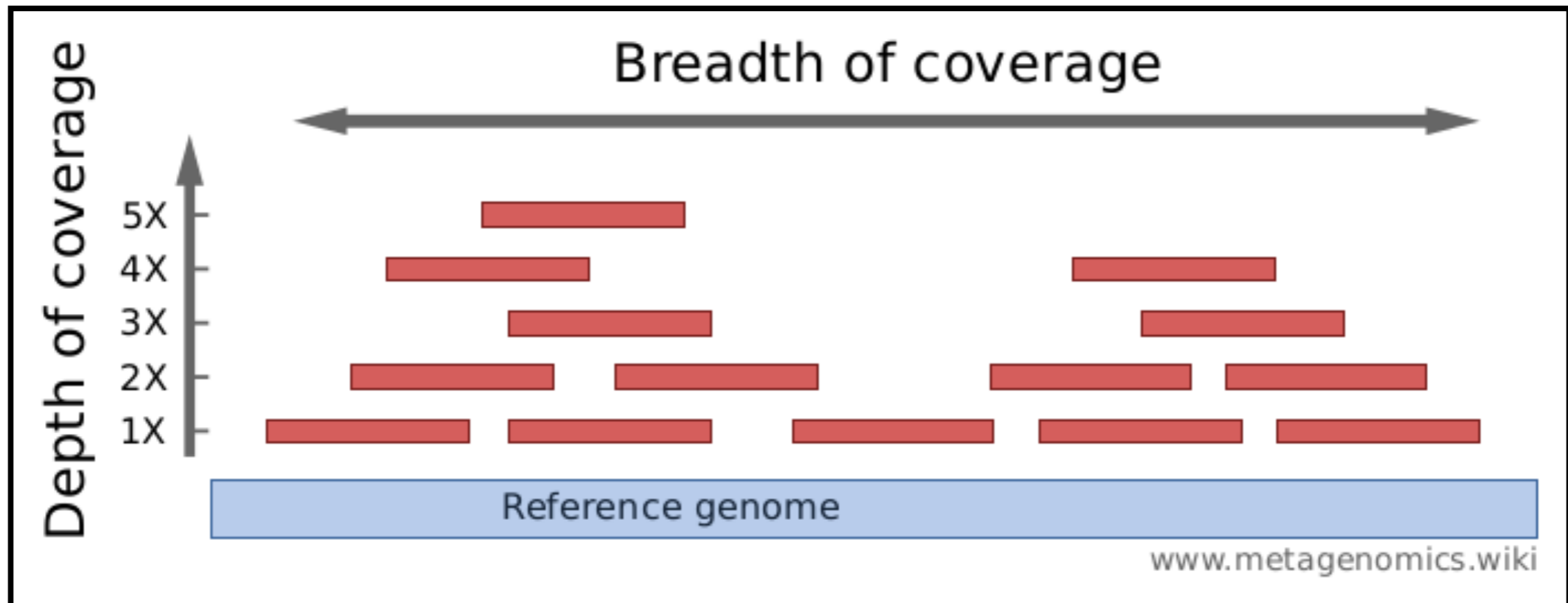
Why paired ends?



From Illumina website

Illumina sequencing

Important concepts



Illumina Machines



Name	MiSeq	HiSeq 4000	NovaSeq 6000
Sequencing Capacity	8Gbp	50Gbp	500-600Gbp
Cost (/lane)	~\$1,500	~\$3,000	~\$8,000

Long read sequencing

Two dominant companies are PacBio and Oxford Nanopore

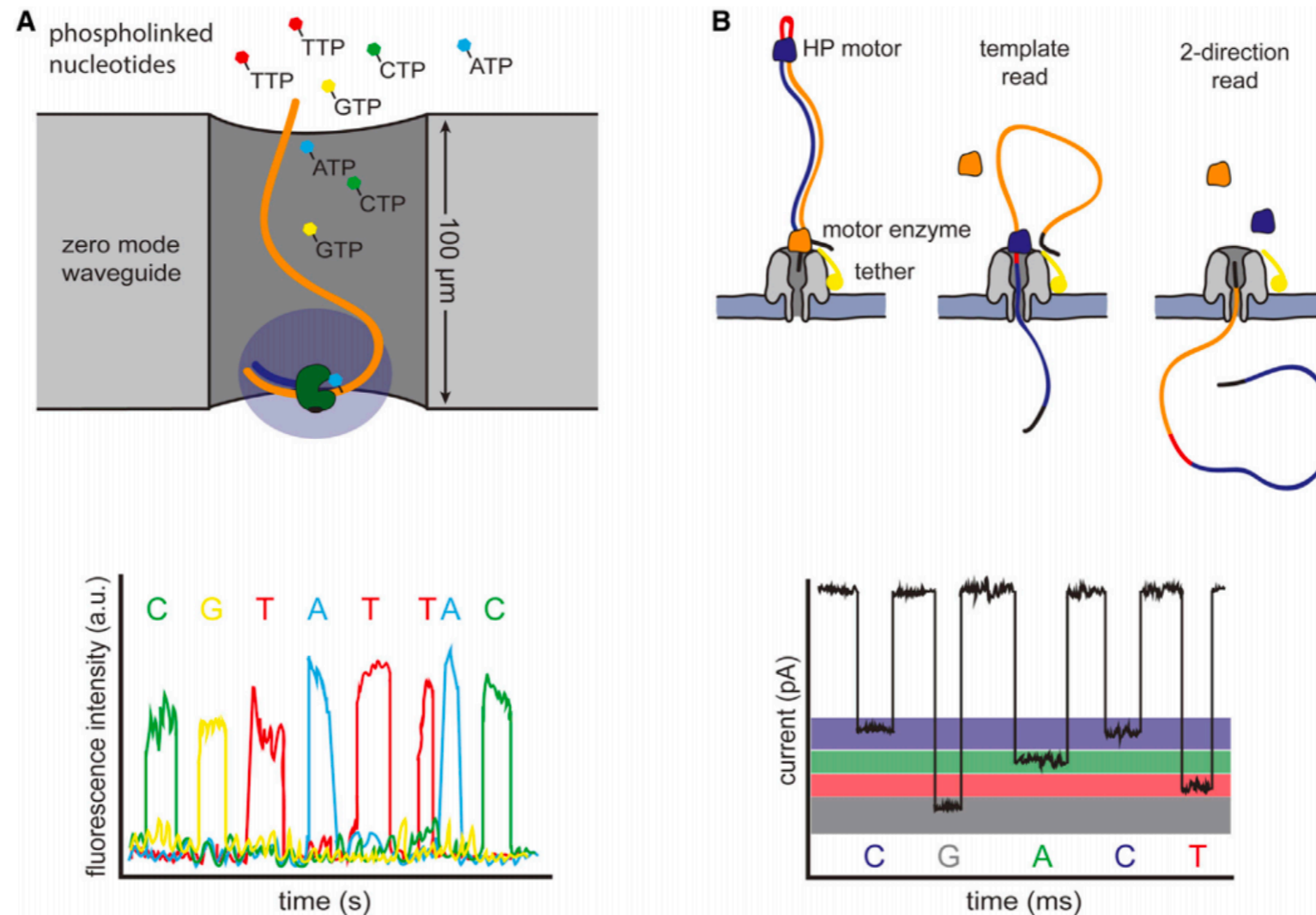


Figure 3. Single Molecule Sequencing Platforms

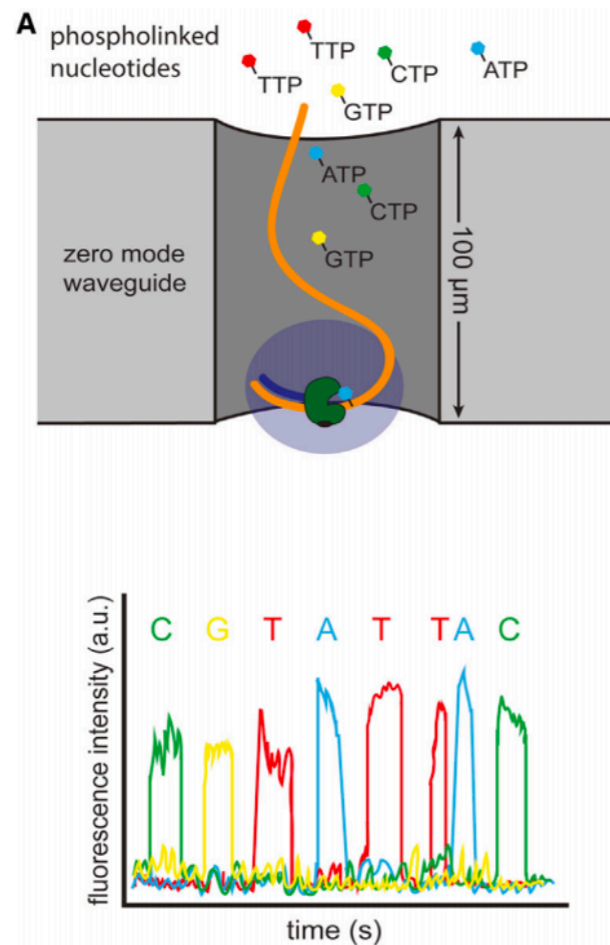
(A) Pacific Bioscience's SMRT sequencing. A single polymerase is positioned at the bottom of a ZMW. Phosphate-labeled versions of all four nucleotides are present, allowing continuous polymerization of a DNA template. Base incorporation increases the residence time of the nucleotide in the ZMW, resulting in a detectable fluorescent signal that is captured in a video.

(B) Oxford Nanopore's sequencing strategy. DNA templates are ligated with two adaptors. The first adaptor is bound with a motor enzyme as well as a tether whereas the second adaptor is a hairpin oligo that is bound by the HP motor protein. Changes in current that are induced as the nucleotides pass through the pore are used to discriminate bases. The library design allows sequencing of both strands of DNA from a single molecule (two-direction reads).

Excerpted from Reuter et al 2015 - Molecular Cell

Long read sequencing

PacBio - Pacific Biosciences



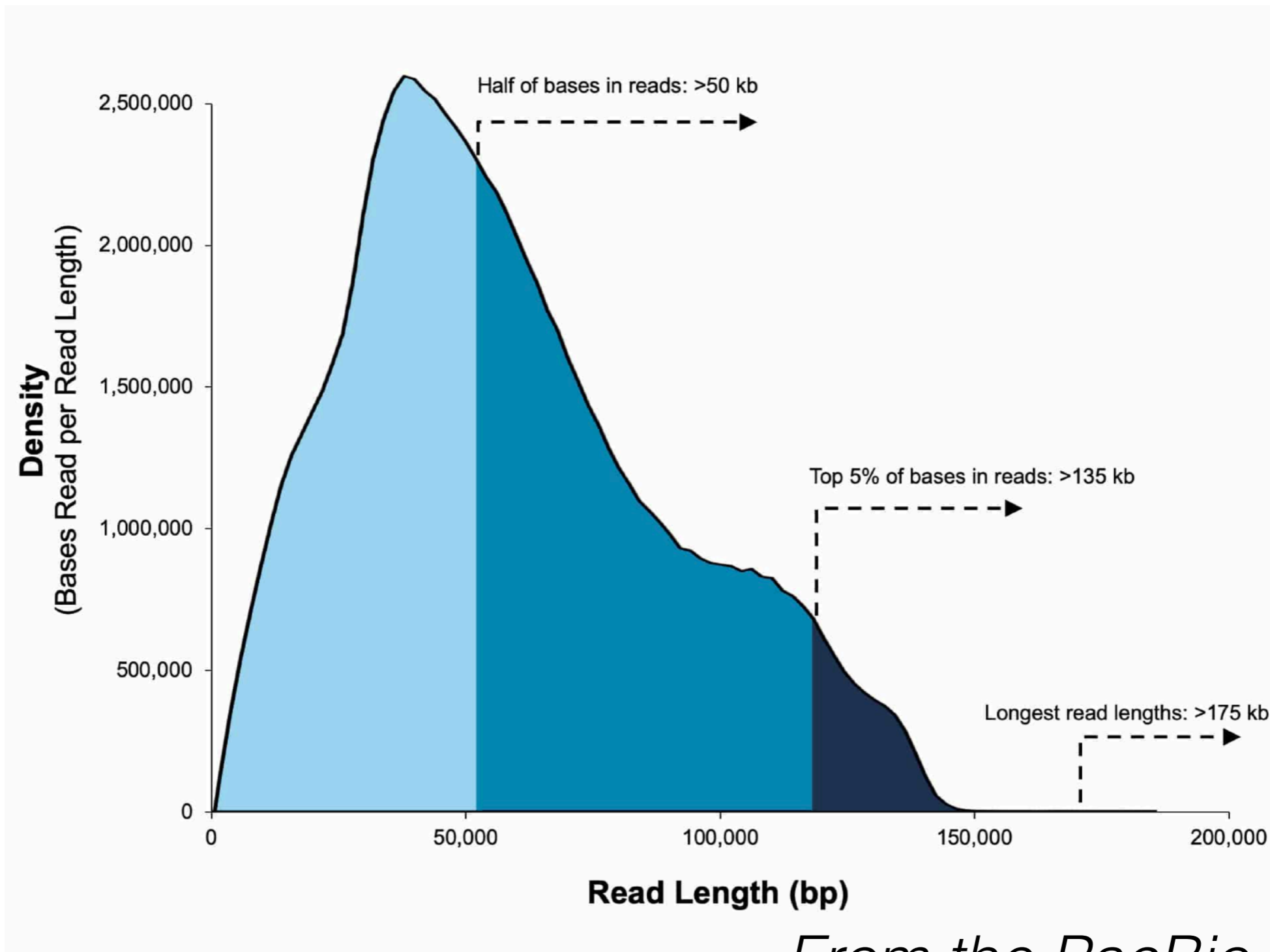
Sequel II

1-10Gb/flowcell

~\$500/flowcell

13% error rate

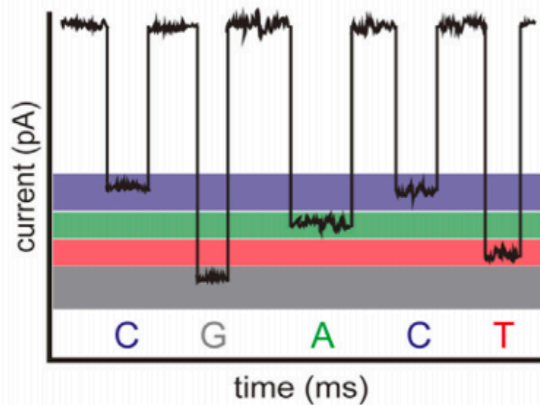
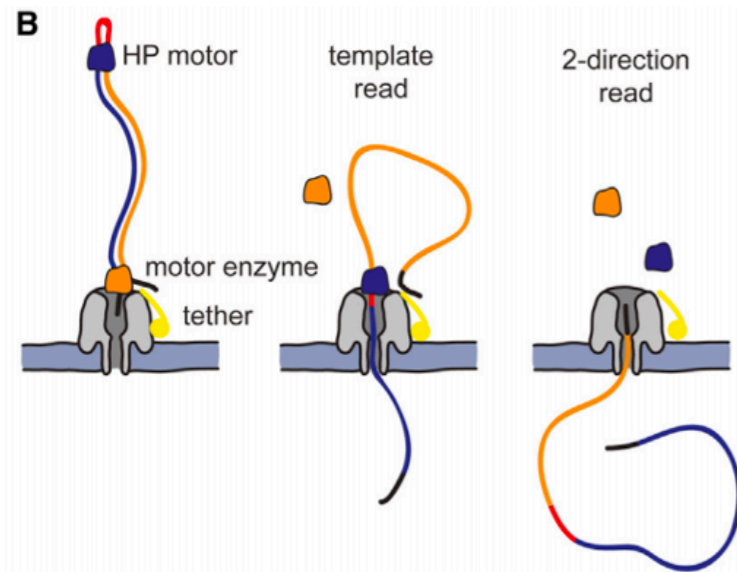
Pacific Biosciences



From the PacBio website

Long read sequencing

Oxford Nanopore



MinION

15-30Gb/flowcell

~\$1000/flowcell



PromethION 24

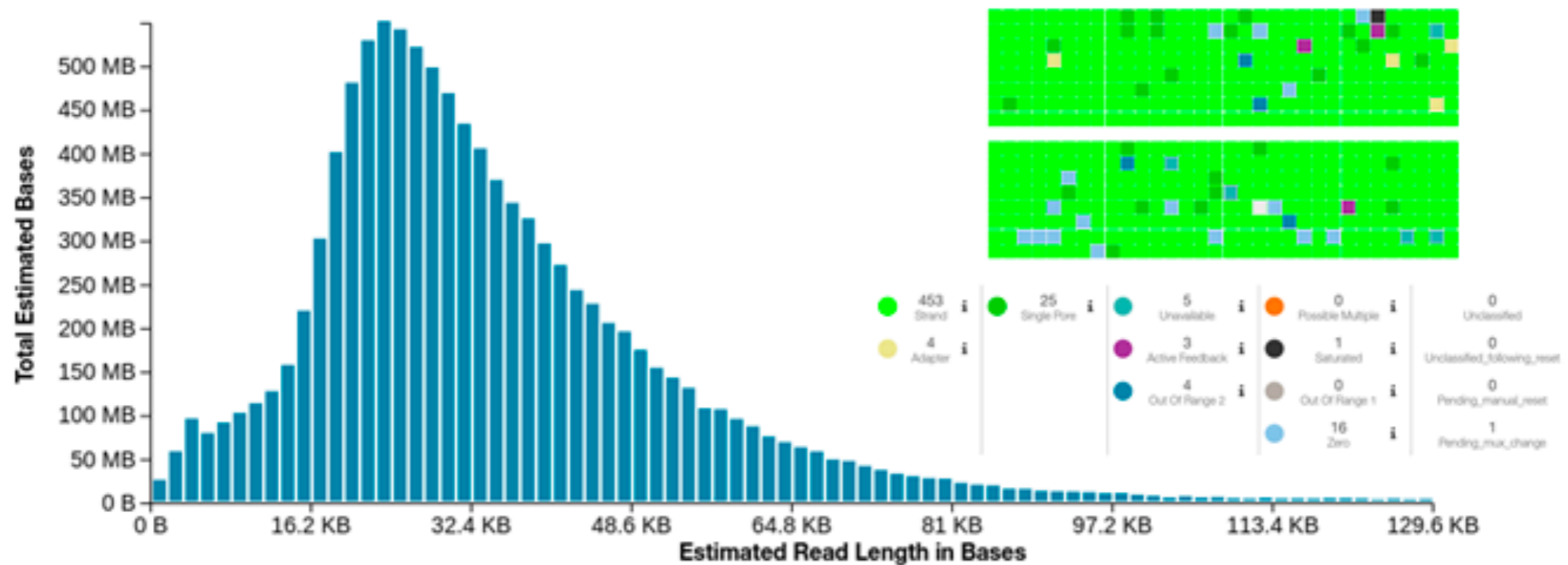
100-180Gb/flowcell

~\$2000/flowcell

2-13% error rate

Oxford Nanopore

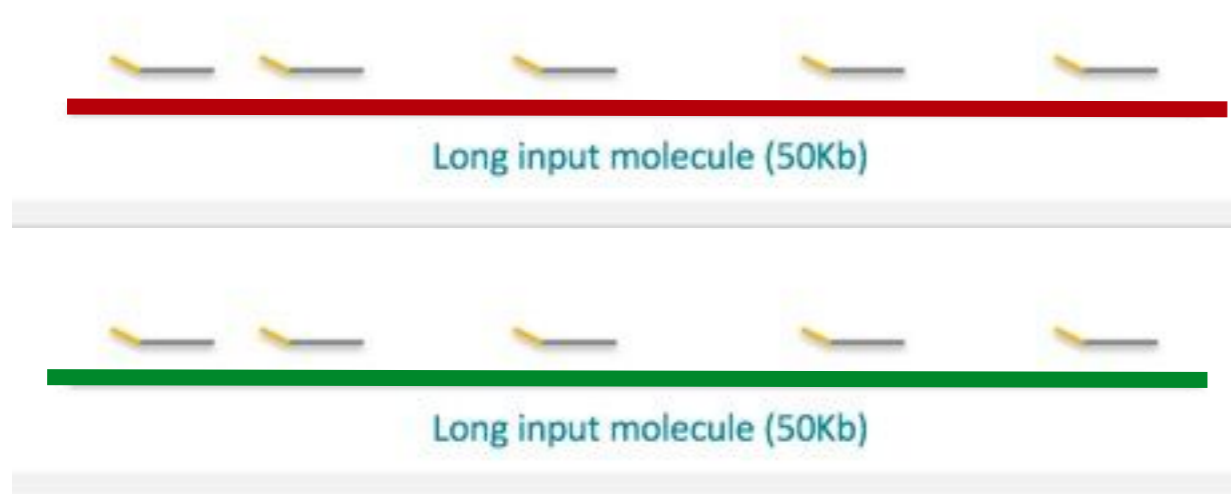
(C) *Eucalyptus albens*; end ligation library prep (SQK-LSK109). Output: 12.50 Gb.



Comparing short and long read technologies

Short Reads		Long Reads	
Pros	Cons	Pros	Cons
Extremely accurate for complex regions	Rely on amplification, which can introduce errors (at a rate of around 10^{-6} - 10^{-7} /bp).	Great for genome assembly <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 30-60X coverage from ion torrent or PacBio will produce a nice draft genome. 	More difficult library prep
Allele frequencies can be scored at many sites across the genome	Assembling and aligning short reads in repetitive regions is very challenging -> impossible	Can characterise alternate splicing of genes.	Too expensive to be used for population level sequencing.
Very cost-effective	Both large and small structural variants pose difficulties	Structural rearrangement discovery and genotyping.	High error rate.

Synthetic long reads



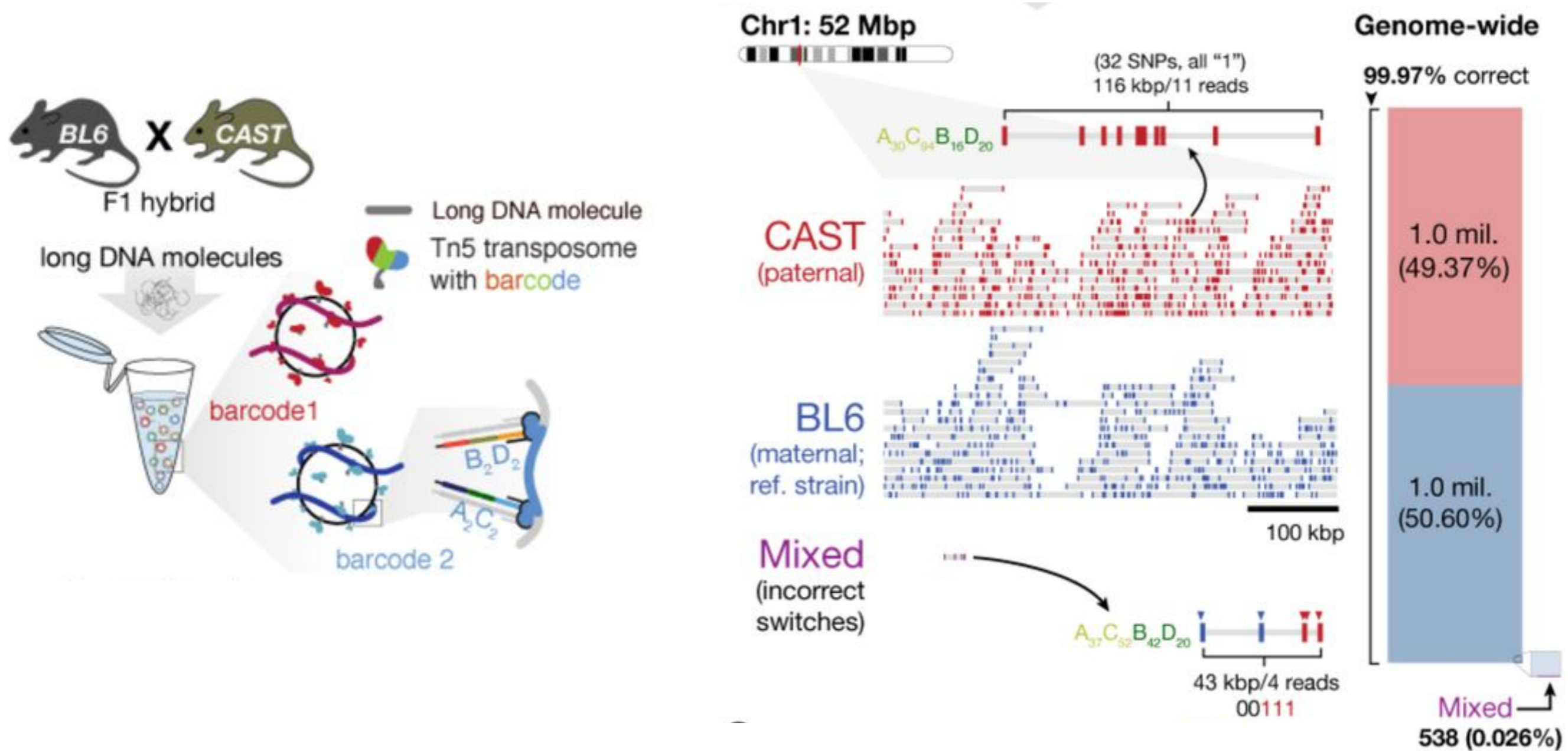
Barcodes read originating from individual DNA molecules

Sequence with Illumina reads

Original molecule can be reconstructed using the barcodes

Potentially very useful for genome assembly and phasing

Synthetic long reads



Flavours of DNA/RNA sequencing

Whole Genome Sequencing

Pool Seq

RNAseq

Amplicon Sequencing (GT-seq)

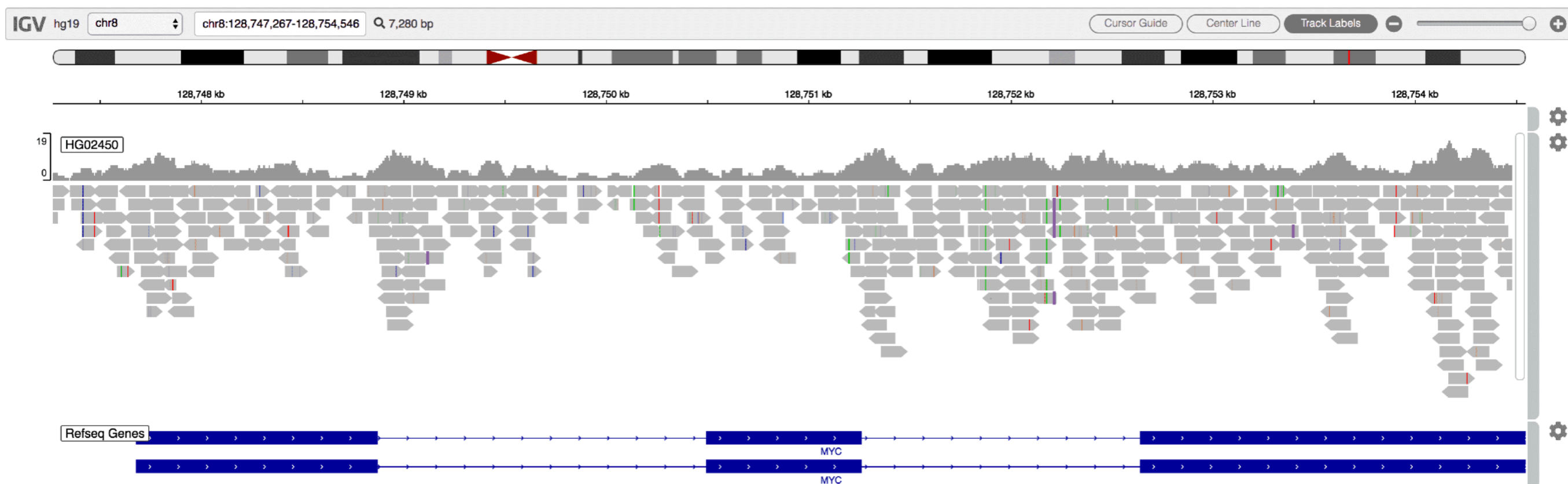
Sequence Capture

Reduced-Representation
Sequencing (RADseq/GBS/
RADcapture)

Whole Genome Sequencing

Randomly shear DNA and sequence all fragments

May use double-stranded nuclease treatment to reduce repetitive elements

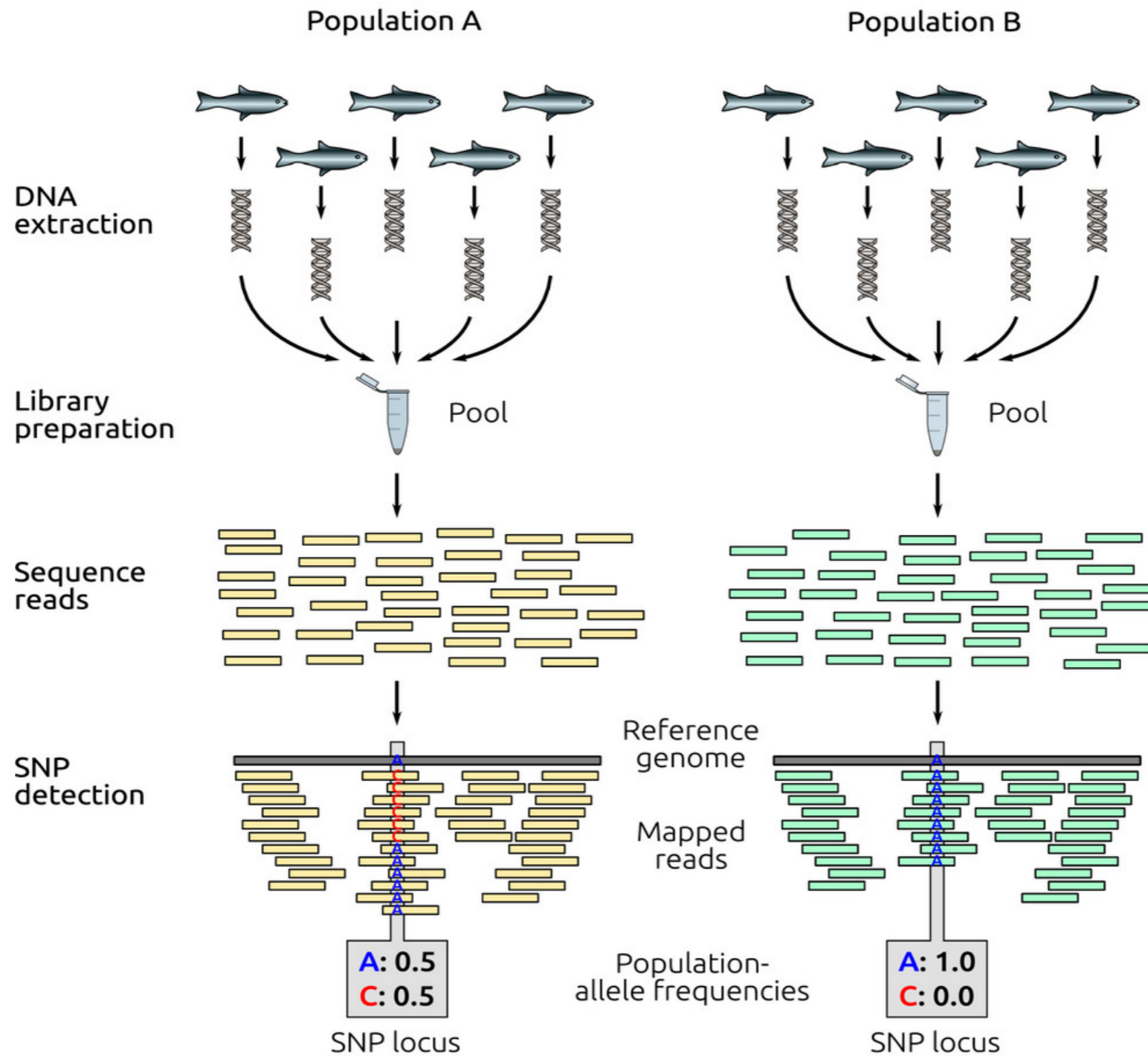


Screen shot from the Integrated Genomics Viewer

Whole Genome Sequencing

Pros	Cons
All sites possible	Comparatively expensive per sample
Simple library prep	Storage and bioinformatics challenging with lots of samples

Pool Seq



Pool Seq

Pros

All sites possible

Simple library prep

Cheaper than individual WGS

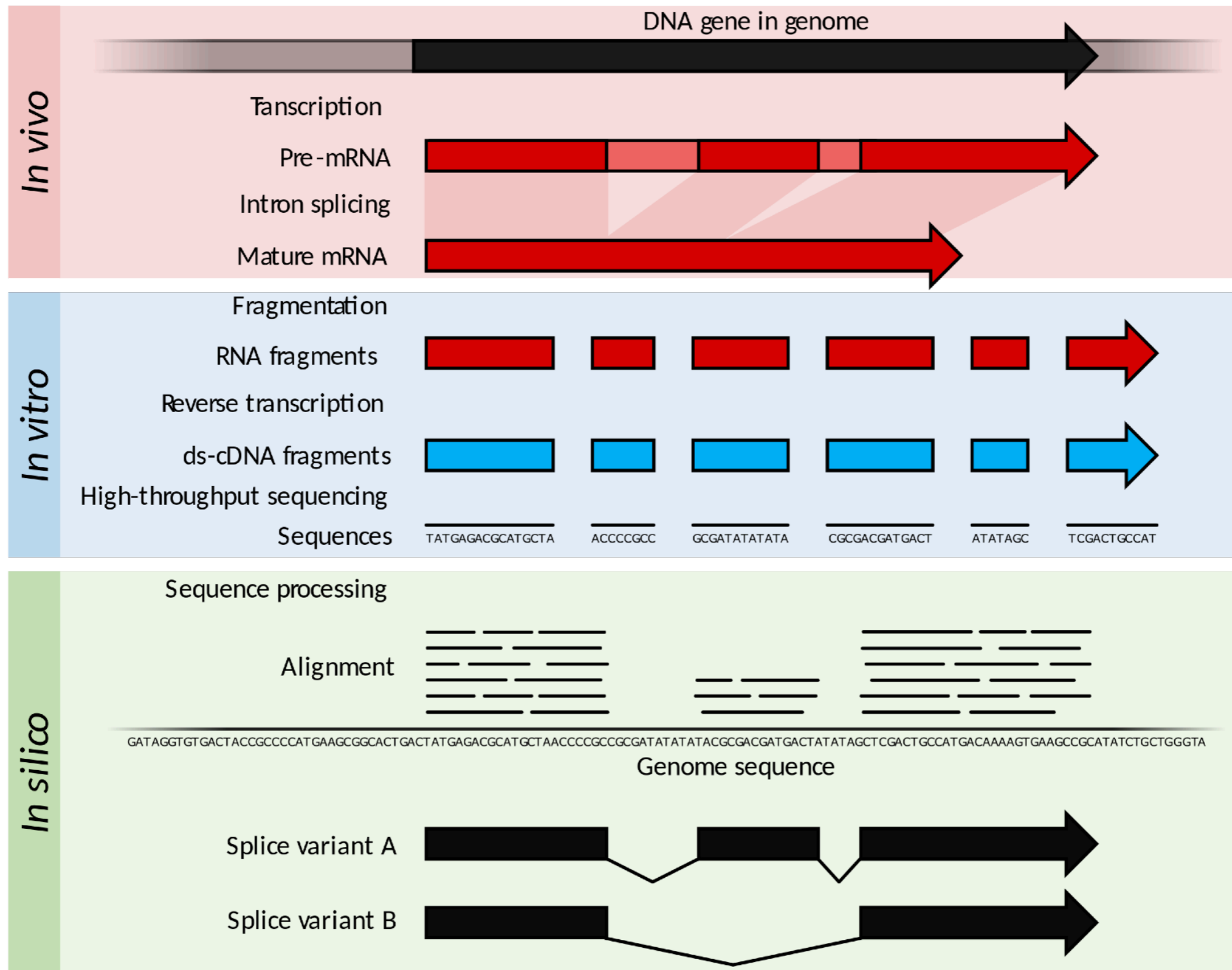
Cons

Limited analysis options

No haplotype information

Best in cases where
 $\# \text{ samples} > \# \text{ reads}$

RNAseq



RNAseq

Pros

Many sites and only
in genes

Also get expression
information

Relatively easy to
assemble

Cons

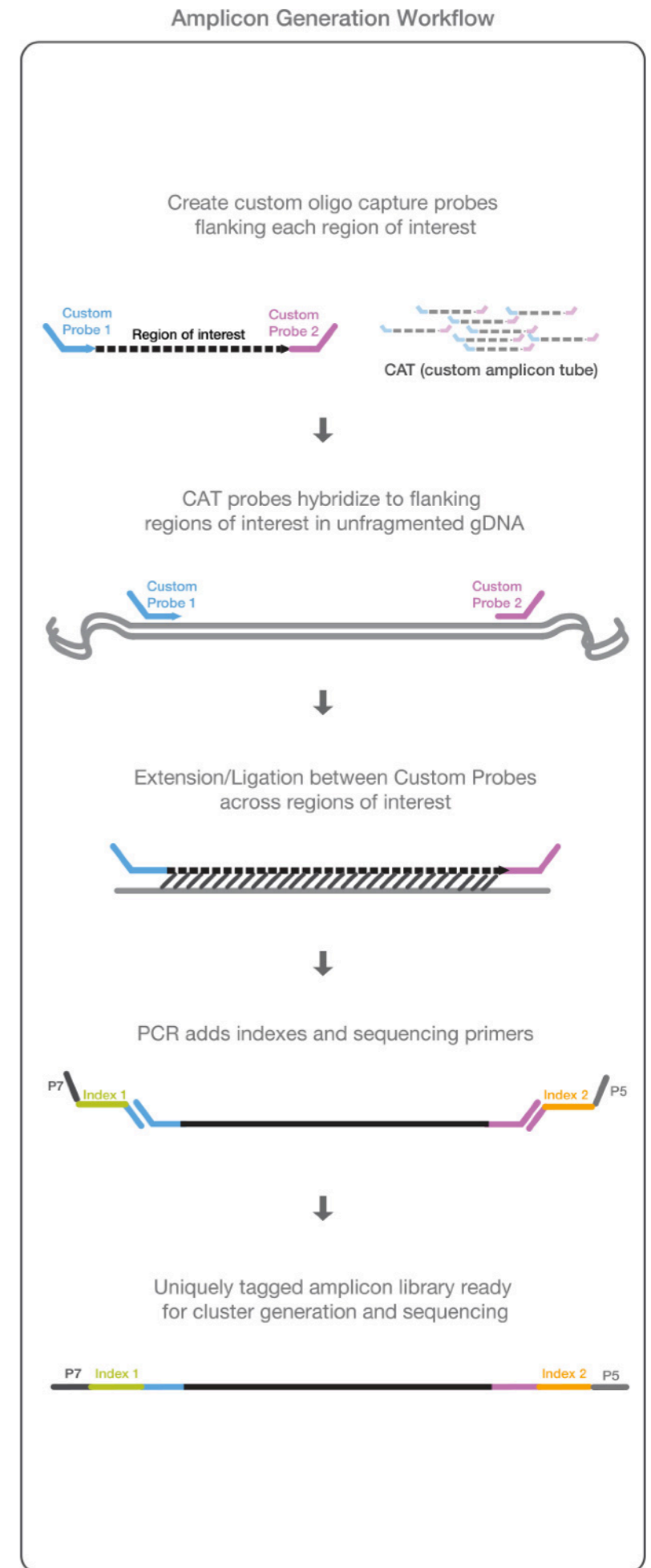
Expression
differences
complicate SNP
calling

Expensive for pop
gen level sampling

Difficult library prep
(or so I'm told!)

Amplicon Sequencing

- Use PCR to amplify target DNA. Sequence many barcoded samples in one lane.
- Used to characterise microbiome by sequencing 16s rRNA



Amplicon Sequencing

Pros

Get incredible depth at single locus

Simple bioinformatics.

Cons

Limited to one or few loci

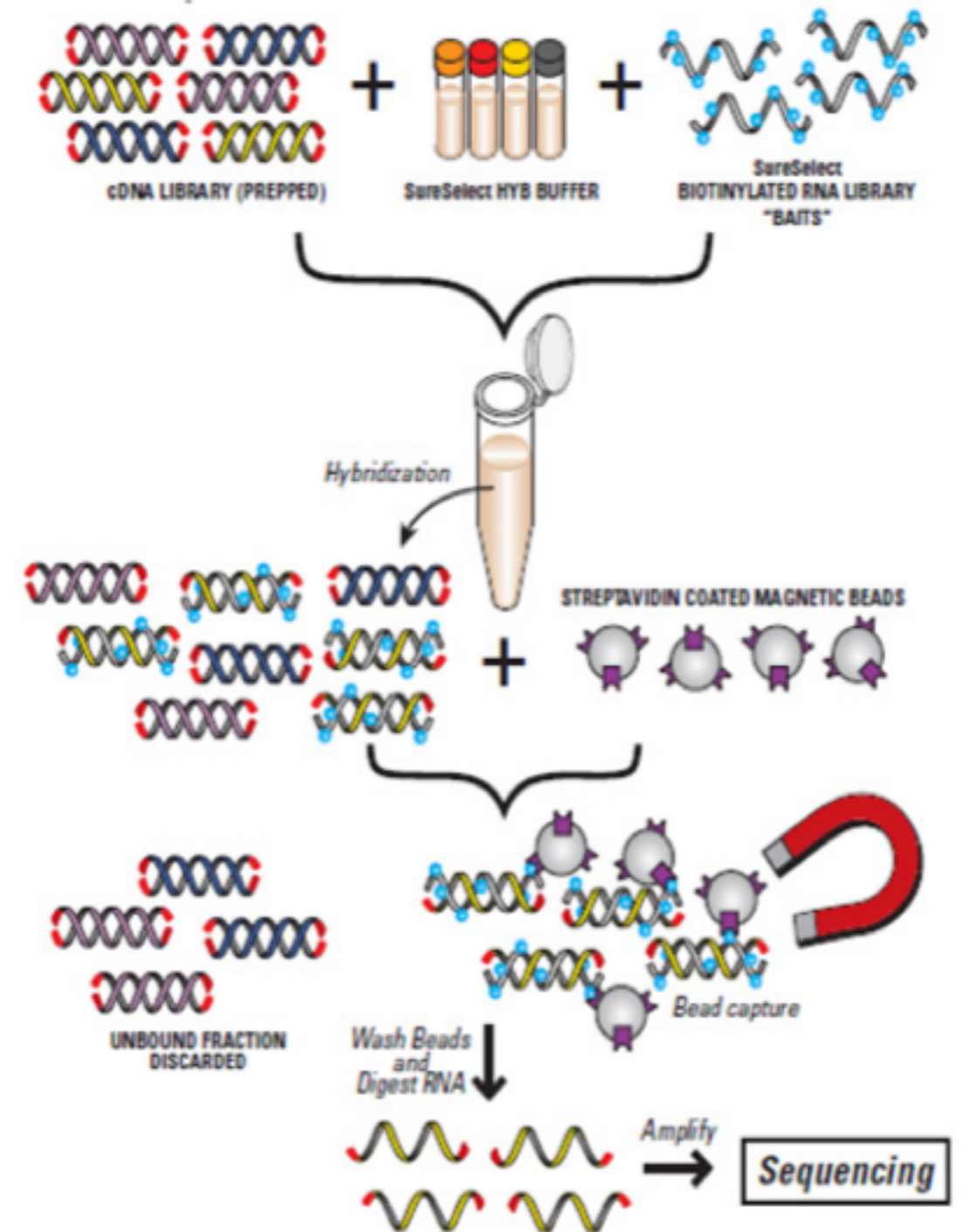
Mutations in primer site don't sequence

GT-seq

- Genotyping by Thousands
- Based on Amplicon sequencing
- Multiplex PCR amplify ~200 known SNPs and then sequence pooled PCR products.
- Very cheap (\$1/sample), and bioinformatically simple.
- Useful for genotyping thousands or tens of thousands of samples.
- Complicated initial set-up.

Sequence Capture

- Design probe sequences from genome resources, synthesis attached to beads
- Make WGS library, hybridize with probe set. Matching sequence will be captured, all others washed away
- Collect capture sequence, amplify and sequence



Sequence Capture

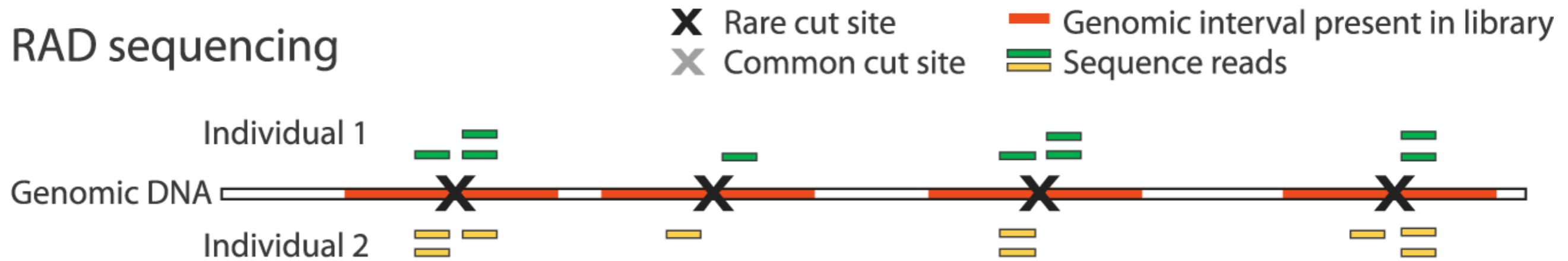
Pros	Cons
Relatively cheap per sample	Requires designing probes
Good depth at targeted sites	Long library prep

Reduced Representation Sequencing

Instead of sequencing the whole genome, it can be sufficient to sequence just a part of it

A

RAD sequencing



B

double digest RADseq

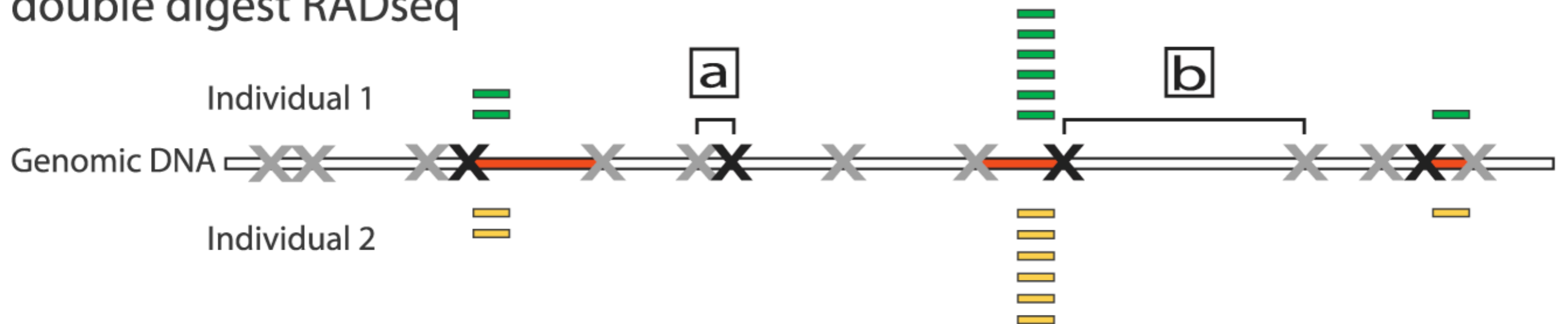
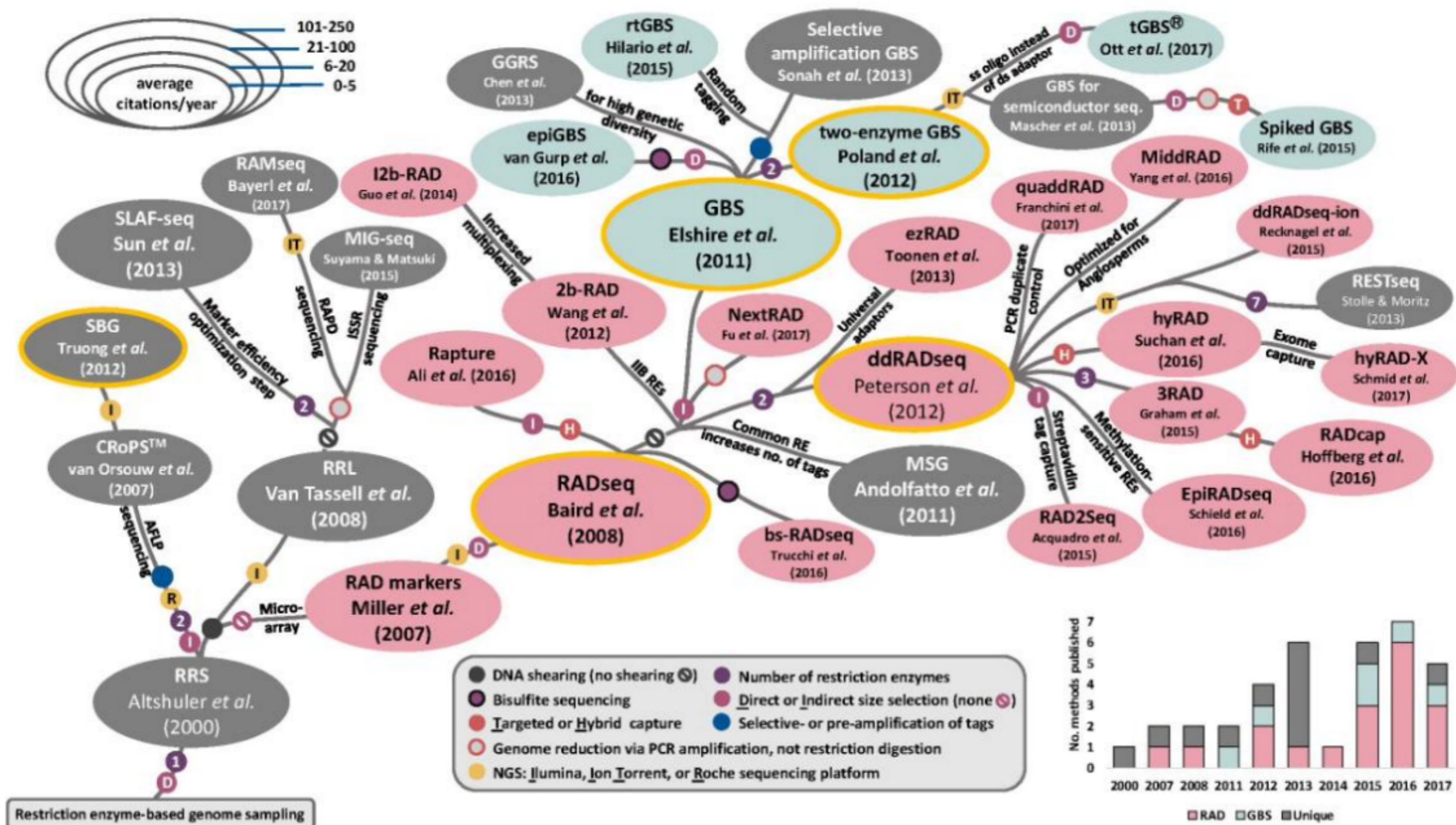


Figure from Peterson et al PLoS One 2012

Reduced Representation Sequencing

Pros	Cons
Quick library prep for hundreds of samples	Relatively sparse SNPs compared to other methods - limiting analysis options
Comparatively cheap per sample cost	Can have problems overlapping different library preps

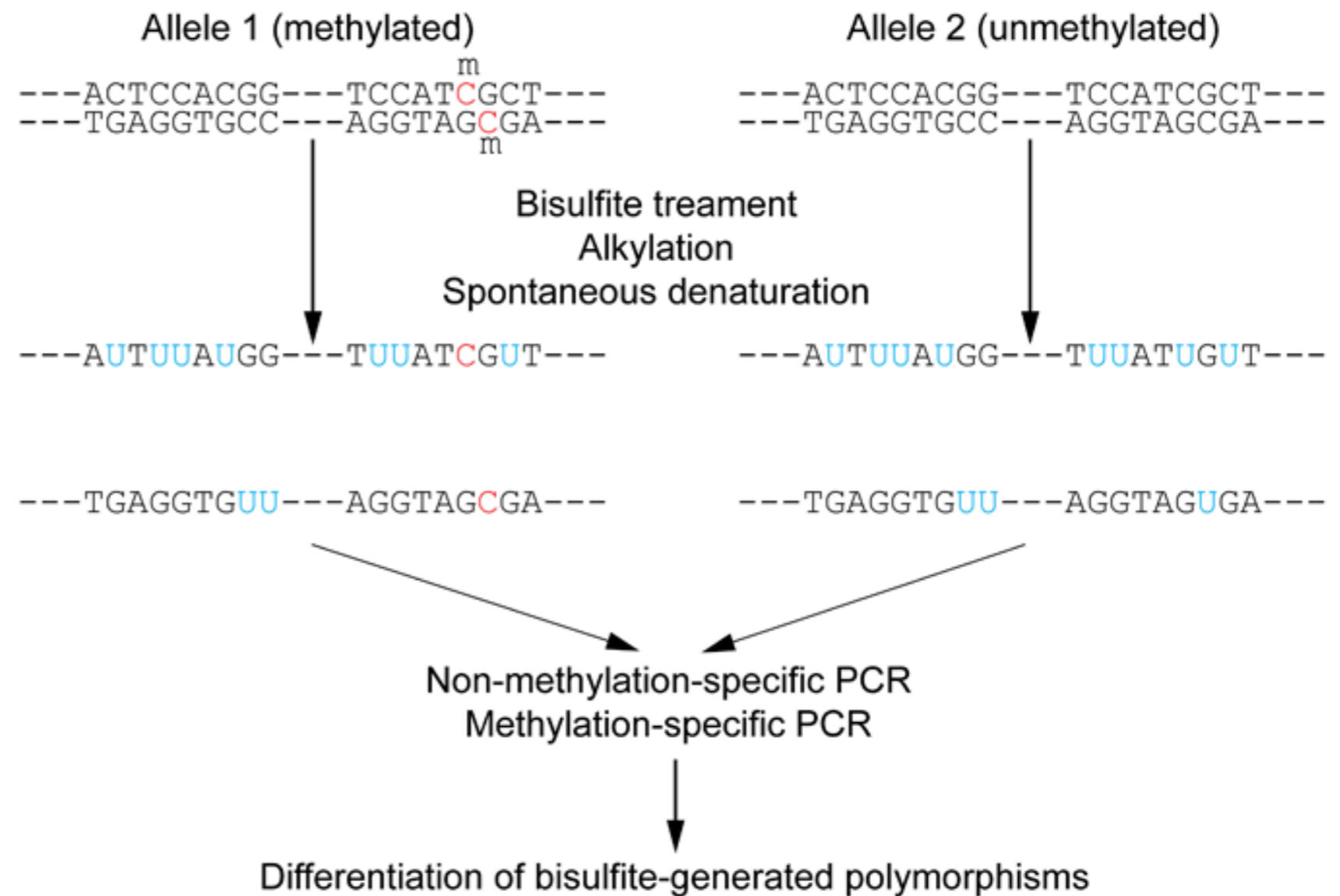
There is a huge diversity of reduced representation approaches



Bisulphite Sequencing

Unmethylated cytosines are converted to **U**racil

Methylated **C**pG sites are unchanged and are detected as polymorphisms



How to choose?

The different technologies and methodologies have different pros and cons

What you use will obviously be informed by budget, but the biological question should also drive your choice

How to choose?

For example,

If you wanted to estimate demographic history from the distribution of allele frequencies, a reduced representation method might suffice to obtain an estimate of the site frequency spectrum

Or, if you want to perform a genome scan, looking at how haplotype frequencies varied among populations, you'd probably need deeper, whole genome information - it all depends on the questions you are tackling

Further reading

PDFs are available on the GitHub page for this topic:

Andrews, K. R., Good, J. M., Miller, M. R., Luikart, G., & Hohenlohe, P. A. (2016). Harnessing the power of RADseq for ecological and evolutionary genomics. *Nature Reviews Genetics*, 17(2), 81.

Peterson, B. K., Weber, J. N., Kay, E. H., Fisher, H. S., & Hoekstra, H. E. (2012). Double digest RADseq: an inexpensive method for de novo SNP discovery and genotyping in model and non-model species. *PloS one*, 7(5), e37135.

Shendure, J., Balasubramanian, S., Church, G. M., Gilbert, W., Rogers, J., Schloss, J. A., & Waterston, R. H. (2017). DNA sequencing at 40: past, present and future. *Nature*, 550(7676), 345-353.