

# Fast and Accurate cDNA Mapping and Splice Site Identification

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Abstract: Mapping and alignment of cDNA sequences containing splice sites is an algorithmically and computationally challenging task. Most recently developed spliced aligners are designed for mapping short reads and sacrifice sensitivity for increased performance. We present *mesalina*, a highly accurate spliced aligner, that can also be used to detect novel non-canonical splice sites and whose performance is more robust with respect to increasing read length. *Mesalina* utilizes the seed-extend strategy, combining fast retrieval of maximal exact matches with a sensitive *sandwich dynamic programming* algorithm. Preliminary results indicate that *mesalina* is accurate and very fast, especially for mapping longer reads. In particular, it is more than ten times faster than mappers with a comparable accuracy. *Mesalina* is available from <https://github.ugent.be/ComputationalBiology/mesalina>.

## 1 INTRODUCTION

The analysis of the transcriptome is a central part of biology and requires the analysis of large amounts of cDNA reads, such as produced by RNA-seq experiments. Evolution in sequencing technology producing these reads has opened the door for new and larger experiments, but requires bioinformatics to continuously adapt to larger input datasets and changes in the features of the reads, including differences in read length and sequencing errors.

Mapping and alignment of these sequencing reads against a reference genome is often a first and important step in the analysis pipeline. In addition to the computational challenges faced by standard DNA read mapping, tools for mapping cDNA data from eukaryotic genomes have to cope with large gaps in the alignment caused by introns. Spliced aligners have to find the exact location of the boundary between introns and exons, called splice sites. In most cases, splice sites are either surrounded by GT-AG dinucleotides (canonical splice sites) or less frequently by GC-AG or AT-AC dinucleotides (semi-canonical

splice-sites). In rare cases, however, splice sites are non-canonical, meaning that they are not surrounded by any of the previous boundaries.

Depending on the algorithmic strategy employed, read mappers that deal with spliced alignment can be divided into two categories (Garber et al., 2011). *Exon-first* mappers first align reads without taking possible splice sites into account. Reads mapped this way provide a rough map of all the exons of the reference sequence. The unmapped reads are split into shorter segments, which are mapped independently. Finally, connections between the mapped segments are searched to identify the exact splice site locations. Examples of exon-first mappers are TopHat (Trapnell et al., 2009), TopHat2 (Kim et al., 2013), MapSplice (Wang et al., 2010), SpliceMap (Au et al., 2010) and SOApsplice (Huang et al., 2011). The second major strategy for spliced alignment is *seed-extend*. This approach first filters the reference sequence to smaller candidate mapping regions using short matches between read and reference, called seeds. Seeds can be extended into alignments, can be chained together to form gapped alignments, or can

be used to identify candidate alignment regions that are explored using more exhaustive methods based on dynamic programming. This strategy is used, among others, by GMAP (Wu and Watanabe, 2005), QPALMA (De Bona et al., 2008), GSNAP (Wu and Nacu, 2010), and STAR (Dobin et al., 2013). In addition to the previous categories, spliced aligners are usually also optimized for a specific type of input data. Most recent aligners focus on short RNA-seq reads, whereas GMAP, for example, focuses more on longer cDNA and EST sequences.

In general, spliced aligners using the seed-extend approach are several times slower than their competitors using the exon-first strategy. Exon-first approaches are, however, known to miss spliced alignments that also map to the genome contiguously (Garber et al., 2011). Furthermore, many aligners are designed for mapping very short reads or only allow few sequence errors between read and genome. Moreover, many novel spliced aligners are not able to detect rare non-canonical splice sites. In contrast, mappers that overcome these shortcomings tend to be much slower than current short read spliced aligners.

We present *mesalina*, a seed-extend spliced aligner that is designed to achieve a high performance on long spliced reads, while maintaining a high accuracy. The mapper uses techniques from long read mappers for unspliced reads to speed up the initial seed finding stage of the algorithm. The extend stage contains powerful dynamic programming algorithms introduced by GMAP to achieve high accuracy in detecting the exact splice site locations. Furthermore, unlike many other novel spliced aligners, *mesalina* is also able to detect non-canonical splice sites. Preliminary testing indicates that the current version of *mesalina* is more than five times faster than TopHat2 for long reads, while maintaining an accuracy that is comparable to that of GMAP.

## 2 METHODS

Mesalina is based on the seed-extend heuristic, which is widely used among read mappers. The seed-extend strategy consists of first finding short matches between read and reference genome using an efficient index structure. The seeds are utilized to prune the alignment search space to regions that are close in size to the length of an alignment. Full alignments between read and these candidate regions are calculated in a final extension stage.

Mesalina makes use of maximal exact matches (MEMs) as seeds of the alignment. For finding MEMs between read and reference sequences, the

essaMEM program is used (Vyverman et al., 2013). Subsequently, candidate regions are formed through clustering of the MEMs. In the final stage of the algorithm, a collinear chain of MEMs forms a gapped alignment within a candidate region. The gaps between seeds are filled using dynamic programming. Gaps spanning an intron are detected using a special form of dynamic programming, called *sandwich dynamic programming*, which was introduced by GMAP (Wu and Watanabe, 2005). The various stages of the algorithm are discussed in more detail in the next sections.

### 2.1 Index

Index structures are commonly used in bioinformatics to speed up searches in large sequence datasets. This speed-up comes at the cost of a high memory footprint. As a result, the choice of index structure can greatly affect the performance of the algorithm. Most spliced aligners make use of either hash tables or compressed full-text index structures, such as the FM-index.

The essaMEM algorithm, incorporated into *mesalina*, makes use of an enhanced sparse suffix array (ESSA) index structure (Vyverman et al., 2013). At the base of this index structure lies the suffix array index structure (Manber and Myers, 1993), which stores the lexicographical ordering of all suffixes of a sequence. Sparse suffix arrays index only one in  $s$  consecutive suffixes, with  $s$  the sparseness factor. The sparseness factor can be set to obtain different memory-time trade-offs for tools utilizing the index. Similar to enhanced suffix arrays (Abouelhoda et al., 2004), sparse suffix arrays can be enhanced with auxiliary data structures to simulate traversals on virtual suffix trees (Vyverman et al., 2013).

### 2.2 Seed

The first stage in aligning a read is the identification of subsequence matches between read and reference sequences, called *seeds*. Ideally, seeds should be large enough to capture as much of the local similarity between read and reference, but should also be abundant enough to not miss potential candidate alignment regions.

Mesalina uses maximal exact matches (MEMs) as seeds. An exact match  $(s, q, \ell)$  between two sequences  $S$  and  $Q$  is a common subsequence of length  $\ell$  at positions  $S[s..s + \ell]$  and  $Q[q..q + \ell]$ . Exact matches are maximal when the subsequences can not be extended to the left or right without introducing a mismatch. In practice, only MEMs of a given minimum

length are used, as the number of short (even single nucleotide) matches that fit the definition is very high, but less informative than the longer matches.

The *essaMEM* MEM-finding algorithm is very fast in practice (Vyverman et al., 2013). In essence, the algorithm consists of two stages, which are executed for every read suffix. In a first stage, a read suffix is matched against the *ESSA* index until a mismatch occurs, resulting in matches that are right maximal. In the second stage of the algorithm, left maximality of a right maximal match is verified by just comparing the characters preceding the match. In practice, the algorithm combines the index traversal for several read suffixes and also contains several techniques to speed up matching of a single suffix. A detailed description of the MEM-finding algorithm can be found in (Vyverman et al., 2013). The minimum MEM-length can be set by the user and optimal values depend on genome size. Although the use of the *ESSA* index limits this minimum length to values larger than the sparseness of the index, this does not exclude useful values in practice. To further limit the number of seeds, *mesalina* can also restrict the set of seeds to the longest MEMs sharing the same starting position in the sequencing read.

### 2.3 Cluster

The set of seeds produced in the previous stage of the algorithm are divided into clusters of seeds that are relatively close to each other and form a collinear chain. Each cluster represents a genomic region in which the read can have a good alignment.

Currently, *mesalina* uses a fast greedy chaining approach. The MEMs are first sorted by reference offset, after which the sorted list of MEMs is processed from left to right. Clusters are formed by consecutive seeds in the sorted list that (i) are not separated more than the user-set maximum intron size in the reference, (ii) do not overlap in the reference and (iii) have a certain user-set maximum overlap in the read.

For all clusters obtained by the above algorithm, the percentage of bases in the read that are covered by seeds in the cluster is calculated. Only clusters with a high enough coverage percentage are extended. This filter removes many single-seed clusters and limits the number of clusters that are extended to only a few in practice.

### 2.4 Extend

The extension of a candidate region starts from the gapped alignment formed by the collinear chain of seeds contained within the current cluster. In this

gapped alignment, seeds represent long sequences of matches between read and reference. Gaps between two consecutive seeds can either result from differences within the exonic sequence or span an intron. All gaps are resolved using different dynamic programming routines, similar to the types used in *GMAP* (Wu and Watanabe, 2005). The chosen algorithm depends on the difference between the length of the distance between the two seeds in the reference sequence,  $gap_s$ , and the gap between the seeds in the query read  $gap_q$ .

If the difference between  $gap_s$  and  $gap_q$  is smaller than a given minimum intron length, a basic global banded alignment is performed over the region defined by the gap between the seeds.

Spliced alignment is performed in the event that  $gap_s - gap_q$  is larger than the minimum intron size. This case is handled using *sandwich dynamic programming*, which was introduced by *GMAP* (Wu and Watanabe, 2005) and discussed in detail below.

The converse case, in which  $gap_q$  is far greater than  $gap_s$ , is also handled by *sandwich dynamic programming*. The extra distance in the read is then covered by a single long insertion.

Finally, gaps between the seeds at the ends of the chain and the start/end of the read are handled using standard semi-global alignment. As a result, no introns can be found that are not surrounded by seeds on both sides of the intron, which is a known limitation of the seed-extend strategy.

#### 2.4.1 Sandwich Dynamic Programming

To identify intron boundaries, *mesalina* uses *sandwich dynamic programming* in a region between two seeds in a candidate region. Performing a standard variant of dynamic programming becomes infeasible in case this region spans an intron, as the intron itself can span several thousand nucleotides. In contrast, *sandwich dynamic programming* consists of filling two smaller dynamic programming matrices and retrieving splice site locations using a combination of the scores in both matrices.

The *sandwich dynamic programming* algorithm is illustrated in Figure 1. The figure depicts a situation where two consecutive seeds are separated by a small gap  $gap_q$  in the read  $Q$  and a large gap  $gap_s$  in the reference sequence  $S$ .

The algorithm first performs standard banded dynamic programming between the  $gap_q$  region in the query and two regions of similar size  $gap_s$  on the left and right end of the reference gap. To allow for indels and some flexibility in alignment,  $gap_s$  is a few bases longer than  $gap_q$  and both gaps include a few bases of the seeds, as depicted by the small overlap of the gap

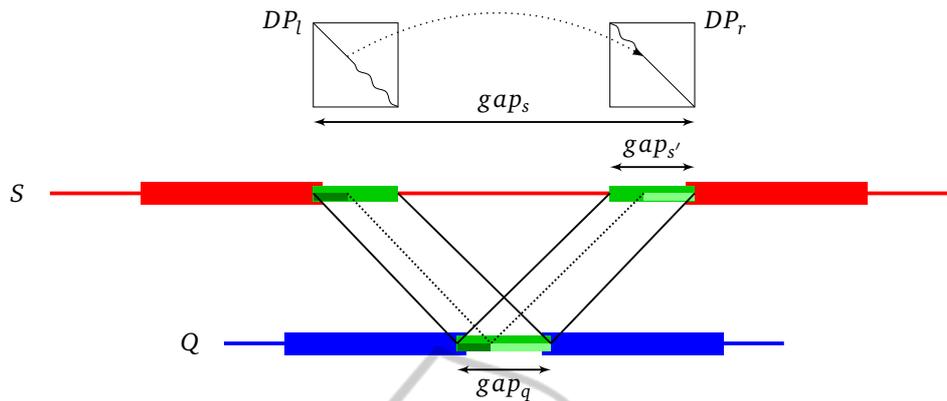


Figure 1: Illustration of sandwich dynamic programming between two seeds in a candidate region. The seeds on the reference sequence  $S$  are separated by an intron, whereas the distance  $gap_q$  in the read  $Q$  is much smaller.  $DP_l$  and  $DP_r$  represent two dynamic programming matrices that are computed and have dimension  $gap_{s'} \times gap_q$ . Location of the exon-intron boundaries is decided using a combination of the alignment scores in both matrices. The full alignment consists of traces in  $DP_l$ ,  $DP_r$  and the intron gap indicated by the dotted line between the two matrices.

regions and the seeds in Figure 1. Also note that the matrices  $DP_l$  and  $DP_r$  are filled from opposite corners due to opposite alignment anchor points.

To find the exact location of the splice site, each position in  $gap_q$  is tested and receives a score. At the position with the highest score an intron is inserted. The score for a position is the sum of three terms: (i) the maximum score of that position (row) in  $DP_l$ , (ii) the maximum score of the next position (row) in  $DP_r$  and (iii) a bonus if the position would result in a canonical or semi-canonical splice site.

Although this method promotes canonical and semi-canonical splice sites, it is also able to detect non-canonical splice sites if no canonical splice sites are located within the region where dynamic programming is performed or if the score for a possible non-canonical splice site is much higher than possible canonical splice sites within the same region.

### 3 RESULTS

Mesalina is written in C++ and is open source (BSD license). To validate the potential of our approach, we ran the current implementation of mesalina on several simulated read datasets and compared the performance and accuracy results against GMAP (Wu and Watanabe, 2005) (v2013-08-19) and TopHat2 (Kim et al., 2013) (v2.0.9).

Reads were simulated from *Arabidopsis thaliana* (TAIR10, using TAIR10\_exon\_20101028), using the RNASeqReadSimulator program (Li, 2012). Three datasets were produced with varying read lengths of 75bp, 200bp and 500bp. Each dataset contained 100.000 reads with uniform expression profile and

Table 1: Performance and accuracy of spliced aligners on three read datasets of 100.000 reads, simulated from *A. thaliana*. Each column represents a dataset with different read length. Execution time is measured in seconds and accuracy in percentage of correctly mapped reads.

dataset	75bp	200bp	500bp
	run time (s)		
mesalina	35	41	52
GMAP	459	849	1532
TopHat2	23	76	240
	correctly mapped reads (%)		
mesalina	84.4	76.9	62.1
GMAP	85.8	76.1	63.6
TopHat2	83.6	70.1	52.4

simulated substitution errors. An error rate of 5% was used, which is consistent with PacBio CCS (consensus sequence) data (Roberts et al., 2013). All tests were run on a single core of a Dell PowerEdge R610 server with Intel Xeon processor at clock speed 3.07GHz and 48GB RAM running Debian 7.2 and all tools were run using a single thread and with default parameter settings.

Test results are summarized in Table 1. Performance was measured as the run time of the programs, excluding index construction time, as this is independent of the size of the read data set. Accuracy results show the percentage of correctly mapped reads. A read is mapped correctly if the mapper returns an alignment that maps the read to the correct simulated mapping position and whose CIGAR-string correctly identifies the intron boundaries set by the gene annotation data.

Table 1 clearly shows the detrimental impact of read length on both the accuracy and performance

of all tested mappers. This can be explained by an increased number of reads containing (multiple) introns, especially when reads are longer than the average exon length (250bp for *A. thaliana*).

A comparison between mesalina and GMAP is interesting as both seed-extend mappers share several algorithmic techniques. GMAP is the most accurate among all tested spliced aligners, but its run time is much higher than that of the other mappers. Although mesalina is generally less accurate than GMAP, the difference in accuracy is relatively small. For reads of length 200bp, we even report a slightly higher accuracy, although the absolute difference in mapped reads is small due to the size of the datasets.

TopHat2 is known to be very fast and accurate for short reads, which is also illustrated by the results of the 75bp dataset in Table 1. Compared to the other read mappers, however, its accuracy drops significantly for longer reads and its performance drops ten-fold. Although mesalina is slower than TopHat2 for shorter reads, it becomes more than four times faster than TopHat2 for longer reads, while maintaining a much higher accuracy.

Overall, these preliminary experimental results indicate that our approach achieves a new and interesting performance-accuracy trade-off, especially for longer reads.

## 4 DISCUSSION

Many novel spliced aligners are very fast and accurate for mapping short RNA-seq reads. They are, however, not designed to handle longer reads and few are able to detect non-canonical splice sites. In contrast, mappers designed to map ESTs and longer cDNA sequences have a much lower throughput than current short read mappers. Our goal was to bridge this gap by combining techniques from long DNA read mapping algorithms and sensitive alignment procedures from GMAP in a novel seed-extend spliced aligner mesalina.

From an algorithmic perspective, mesalina demonstrates a promising combination of tried-and-tested techniques. As a result, the algorithm can either be seen as a speed-boost for seed-extend algorithms, such as GMAP, or as technique to provide spliced alignment support to long read mappers. To the best of our knowledge, the only algorithm containing a similar combination of techniques is part of recent versions of the segemehl read mapper (Hoffmann et al., 2009). This algorithm uses a combination of an enhanced suffix array for near-exact matching, seed chaining and *split alignment*, which is similar to

sandwich dynamic programming.

The index used by the algorithm for the seed-finding stage is an enhanced sparse suffix array. This index structure is related to other suffix array index structures, but the use of this variant in a spliced aligner is novel. This index structure requires  $9n/s + n$  bytes of memory, with  $n$  the length of the reference genome and  $s$  the sparseness factor. Although this is still high compared to other full-text index structures (Vyverman et al., 2012), the constant term  $n$  could further be lowered by 2 bit encoding the reference sequence. Furthermore, the memory-time trade-off of the seed-finding stage can be tuned by changing the sparseness factor (Vyverman et al., 2013). In practice, mesalina requires 1.2GB of memory for  $s = 1$ , and only 250MB for  $s = 9$ , which is lower than the index size of GMAP, but higher than that of TopHat2. Unlike TopHat2, the Memory consumption of mesalina is independent of the size of the read data set. It is, however, limited to reference genomes of 4 gigabases due to the use of pointers of 32-bit to positions in the genome.

The ESSA index structure also allows fast finding of maximal exact matches (Vyverman et al., 2013). MEMs are variable length seeds that can contain more information than short fixed-length seeds and have already successfully been used in long read mapping (Liu and Schmidt, 2012). Based on the seeds found, candidate alignment regions are identified using a greedy clustering algorithm and extension of those regions is determined by the percentage of the read covered by seeds. Although greedy, this approach is usually capable of finding the correct mapping location. The algorithm still could be improved by, for example, exploring more than a single alignment per candidate region. Finally, the chain of seeds is extended into a full alignment using a similar sandwich dynamic programming strategy as used by GMAP, although somewhat simplified.

Preliminary experimental results indicate that mesalina attains the goals that were set and achieves a new and interesting trade-off between performance and accuracy. It is much faster than GMAP in all test cases, while being only slightly less accurate. It is, however, much more accurate than TopHat2. Although TopHat2 remains faster for shorter reads, mesalina performs better for longer reads. We should remark that these tests are still preliminary and performed on a small dataset. Furthermore, the low accuracy of TopHat2 could be alleviated by tuning command line parameters.

Although the current version of mesalina already shows promising results, the algorithm can still be improved to obtain a higher accuracy for reads that are

more difficult to map and the implementation could still be improved to obtain higher overall performance and a lower memory footprint.

Within a candidate region, a gapped alignment is first build using a chain of the seeds found within this region. The greedy chaining algorithm is currently the major source of miss-alignments and could be replaced by an optimal collinear chaining algorithm (Abouelhoda, 2007). Other causes of misalignments include failure to detect splice sites at the ends of reads and failure to differentiate two consecutive introns separated by an exon smaller than the minimum seed length.

The run time could be further decreased by selecting good settings for parameters, such as minimum seed length, but also by, for example, using a bit-parallel dynamic programming implementation in the extension stage. The memory footprint of the index could further be reduced by bit-encoding the reference sequence.

In addition to algorithmic improvements, more rigorous tests need to be performed on large and varied data sets and experimental results need to be compared to a larger set of spliced aligners, using different parameter settings.

Finally, the current implementation of mesalina still lacks some of the features other spliced aligners support, including specific algorithms for the detection of micro-exons and alternative splicing, and paired-end read mapping. We also acknowledge the need for clear and intuitive command line options and good portability of the tool.

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