Global analysis of transcription start sites in the new ovine reference genome (*Oar rambouillet v1.0*)

Mazdak Salavati[1*], Alex Caulton[2,3*], Richard Clark[4], Iveta Gazova[1,5], Timothy P. L. Smith[6], Kim C. Worley[7], Noelle E. Cockett[8], Alan L. Archibald[1], Shannon M. Clarke[2], Brenda M. Murdoch[9], Emily L. Clark[1§] on behalf of The Ovine FAANG Project Consortium

[1]The Roslin Institute and Royal (Dick) School of Veterinary Studies, The University of Edinburgh, Edinburgh, UK
[2]AgResearch, Invermay Agricultural Centre, Mosgiel, New Zealand
[3]University of Otago, Dunedin, New Zealand
[4]Genetics Core, Edinburgh Clinical Research Facility, The University of Edinburgh, Edinburgh, UK
[5]MRC Human Genetics Unit, The University of Edinburgh, Edinburgh, UK
[6]USDA, Agricultural Research Service, USMARC, Clay Center, Nebraska, USA
[7]Baylor College of Medicine, Houston, Texas, USA
[8]Utah State University, Logan, Utah, USA
[9]University of Idaho, Moscow, Idaho, USA

*These two authors contributed equally to the work
[§]Corresponding author: emily.clark@roslin.ed.ac.uk

Abstract

The overall aim of the Ovine FAANG project is to provide a comprehensive annotation of the new highly contiguous sheep reference genome sequence (*Oar rambouillet v1.0)*. Mapping of transcription start sites (TSS) is a key first step in understanding transcript regulation and diversity. Using 56 tissue samples collected from the reference ewe Benz2616 we have performed a global analysis of TSS and TSS-Enhancer clusters using Cap Analysis Gene Expression (CAGE) sequencing. CAGE measures RNA expression by 5' cap-trapping and has been specifically designed to allow the characterization of TSS within promoters to single-nucleotide resolution. We have adapted an analysis pipeline that uses TagDust2 for clean-up and trimming, Bowtie2 for mapping, CAGEfightR for clustering and the Integrative Genomics Viewer (IGV) for visualization. Mapping of CAGE tags indicated that the expression levels of CAGE tag clusters varied across tissues. Expression profiles across tissues were validated using corresponding polyA+ mRNA-Seq data from the same samples. After removal of CAGE tags with < 10 read counts, 39.3% of TSS overlapped with 5' ends of 31,113 transcripts that had been previously annotated by NCBI (out of a total of 56,308 from the NCBI annotation). For 25,195 of the transcripts, previously annotated by NCBI, no TSS meeting stringent criteria were identified. A further 14.7% of TSS mapped to within 50bp of annotated promoter regions. Intersecting these predicted TSS regions with annotated promoter regions (±50bp) revealed 46% of the predicted TSS were 'novel' and previously un-annotated. Using whole genome bisulphite sequencing data from the same tissues we were able to determine that a proportion of these 'novel' TSS were hypo-methylated (32.2%) indicating that they are likely to be reproducible rather than 'noise'. This global analysis of TSS in sheep will significantly enhance the annotation of gene models in the new ovine reference assembly. Our analyses provide one of the highest resolution annotations of transcript regulation and diversity in a livestock species to date.

Key words: Ovine, TSS, CAGE-Seq, WGBS, promotor, enhancer, RNA, transcriptome, FAANG, methylation, mRNA-Seq

Introduction

The Functional Annotation of Animal Genomes (FAANG) consortium is a concerted international effort to use molecular assays, developed during the Human ENCODE project (Birney et al., 2007), to annotate the majority of functional elements in the genomes of domesticated animals (Andersson et al., 2015; Giuffra and Tuggle, 2019). Towards this aim the overarching goal of the Ovine FAANG project (Murdoch, 2019) is to provide a comprehensive annotation of the new highly contiguous reference genome for sheep, *Oar rambouillet v1.0* (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/assembly/GCF_002742125.1/). The Ovine FAANG project is developing a deep and robust dataset of expressed elements and regulatory features in the sheep genome as a resource for the livestock genomics community. Here we describe a global analysis of transcription start sites (TSS) using Cap Analysis Gene Expression (CAGE) sequencing.

CAGE measures RNA expression by 5' cap-trapping to identify the 5' ends of both polyadenylated and non-polyadenylated RNAs including lncRNAs and miRNAs, and has been specifically designed to allow the characterization of TSS within promoters to single-nucleotide resolution (Takahashi et al., 2012). By using 5'-Cap capture we avoid transcripts that have been 5' degraded. Conventional RNA-Seq and cDNA datasets can be 'contaminated' with such degradation products and data from transcripts where first strand cDNA synthesis was incomplete. These 'contaminants' can give rise to erroneous transcript / gene models with false 5' ends. The level of resolution provided by CAGE allows investigation of the regulatory inputs driving transcript expression, and construction of transcriptional networks to study, for example, the genetic basis for disease susceptibility (Baillie et al., 2017) or for systematic analysis of transcription start sites through development (Lizio et al., 2017). Using CAGE sequencing technology, the FANTOM5 consortium generated a comprehensive annotation of TSS for the human genome, which included the major primary cell and tissue types (Forrest et al., 2014a).

The goal of this study was to annotate TSS and TSS-Enhancer clusters in the ovine genome (*Oar rambouillet v1.0*). Our approach was to perform CAGE analysis on 55 tissues and one type of primary immune cell (alveolar macrophages). Tissues representing all the major organ systems were collected from Benz2616, the Rambouillet ewe used to generate the *Oar rambouillet v1.0* reference assembly. CAGE tags for each tissue sample clustered with a high level of specificity according to their expression profiles as measured by RNA-Seq. Mapping of CAGE tags indicated that a large proportion of detected TSS did not overlap with the current

annotated 5' end of transcripts. The reproducibility of these 'novel' TSS was tested
using whole genome DNA methylation profiles from a subset of the same tissues.

DNA methylation plays a key role in the regulation of gene expression and the
maintenance of genome stability (Ibeagha-Awemu and Zhao, 2015), and is the most
highly studied epigenetic mark. In mammalian species, DNA methylation occurs
primarily at cytosine-phosphate-guanine dinucleotides (CpG) and to a lesser extent at
CHH and CHG sites (where C = Cytosine; H = Adenine, Guanine, or Thymine; and
G = Guanine) (An et al., 2018). Generally, DNA methylation in the promoter region of
genes represses transcription, inhibiting elongation by transcriptional machinery.
Methylation over TSS blocks transcription initiation; while, conversely, methylation
within gene bodies stimulates elongation and influences alternative splicing of
transcripts (Jones, 2012; Lev Maor et al., 2015; An et al., 2018). Using DNA
methylation profiles, we were able to determine the proportion of 'novel' TSS in our
dataset that were likely true signals of transcription initiation based on a hypo-
methylated state rather than being an artefact of CAGE-sequencing.

We provide the annotation of TSS in the ovine genome as tracks in a genome
browser via the Track Hub Registry and visualise these in the R package GViz,
ensuring the data is accessible and useable to the livestock genomics community. The
global analysis of TSS we present here will significantly enhance the annotation of
gene models in the new ovine reference assembly demonstrating the utility of the
datasets generated by the Ovine FAANG project and providing a foundation for future
work.
118
119

Methods

Animals

Tissues were collected from an adult female Rambouillet sheep at the Utah Veterinary

Diagnostic Laboratory on April 29, 2016. At the time of sample collection Benz2616

was approximately 6 years of age and after a thorough veterinary examination

confirmed to be healthy. Benz 2616 was donated to the project by the USDA. Sample

collection methods were planned and tested over 15 months in 2015 to 2016, a

description of these is available via the FAANG Data Coordination Centre

https://data.faang.org/api/fire_api/samples/USU_SOP_Ovine_Benz2616_Tissue_Coll

ection_20160426.pdf .

Sample collection

Necropsy of Benz2616 was performed by a veterinarian to ensure proper identification

of tissues, and a team of scientists on hand provided efficient and rapid transfer of

tissue sections to containers which were snap frozen in liquid nitrogen prior to transfer

to -80°C for long-term storage. Alveolar macrophages were collected by

bronchoalveolar lavage as described in (Cordier et al., 1990). Details of all 100

samples collected from Benz2616 are included in the BioSamples database under

submission GSB-7268, group accession number SAMEG329607

(https://www.ebi.ac.uk/biosamples/samples/SAMEG329607) and associated

information is recorded according to FAANG metadata specifications (Harrison et al.,

2018). The FAANG assays, as described below, were generated from a subset of

tissues for CAGE (56 tissues), polyA+ mRNA-Seq (58 tissues) and WGBS (8 tissues)

(Figure 1).

146
147

Figure 1. FAANG assays (CAGE, WGBS and mRNA-Seq) performed on each tissue from Benz2616.

CAGE Library Preparation and Analysis

RNA Isolation for CAGE library preparation

Frozen tissues (60-100mg per sample) were homogenised by grinding with a mortar and pestle on dry ice and RNA was isolated using TRIzol Reagent (Invitrogen)

according to the manufacturer's instructions. After RNA isolation 10μg of RNA per
sample was treated with DNase I (NEB) then column purified using a RNeasy MinElute
kit (Qiagen), according to the manufacturer's instructions. Full details of the RNA
extraction protocol are available via the FAANG Data Coordination
Centre   https://data.faang.org/api/fire_api/assays/USDA_SOP_RNA_Extraction_Fro
m_Tissue_20180626.pdf . Each RNA sample was run on an Agilent BioAnalyzer to
ensure RNA integrity was sufficiently high (RIN^e>6). Details of RNA purity metrics for
each sample are included in Supplementary Table 1. RNA samples were then stored
at -80°C for downstream analysis.
165

CAGE library preparation and sequencing
CAGE libraries were prepared for each sample as described in (Takahashi et al., 2012)
from a starting quantity of 5μg of DNase treated total RNA. Random primers were used
to ensure conversion of all 5' cap-trapping RNAs according to (Takahashi et al., 2012).
The full protocol is available via the FAANG Data Coordination Centre
https://data.faang.org/api/fire_api/assays/ROSLIN_SOP_CAGE-library-
preparation_20190903.pdf. Libraries were prepared in batches of eight and pooled.
Sequencing was performed on the Illumina HiSeq 2500 platform by multiplexing 8
samples on one lane to generate approximately 20 million 50bp single-end reads per
sample. Eight of the available fifteen 5' linker barcodes from (Takahashi et al., 2012)
were used for multiplexing: ACG, GAT, CTT, ATG, GTA, GCC, TAG and TGG. In total
8 separate library pools were generated and spread across two HiSeq 2500 flow cells.
Details of barcodes assigned to each sample and pool IDs are included in
Supplementary Table 1.
180

Processing and mapping of CAGE libraries
All sequence data were processed using in house scripting (bash and R) on the
University of Edinburgh high performance computing facility (Edinburgh, 2020). The
analysis protocol for CAGE is available
via https://data.faang.org/api/fire_api/analysis/ROSLIN_SOP_CAGE_analysis_pipeli
ne_20191029.pdf and summarised in Figure 2. To de-multiplex the data we used the
FastX toolkit version 0.014 (Hannon Lab, 2017) for short read pre-processing. We then
used TagDust2 v.2.33 (Lassmann, 2015) to extract mappable reads from the raw data
and for read clean-up to remove the *EcoP1* site and barcode, according to the
recommendations of the FANTOM5 consortium e.g. (Bertin et al., 2017). This process
resulted in cleaned reads approximately 27nt in length (hereafter referred to as CAGE

tags) which were mapped to the Rambouillet Benz2616 genome available from NCBI
(*Oar rambouillet v1.0* GCA_002742125.1) using Bowtie2 v.2.3.5.1 in --very-sensitive
mode equivalent to options *-D 20 -R 3 -N 0 -L 20 -i S,1,0.50* (Langmead and Salzberg,
2012). Multi-mapped reads were identified using Bowtie2 v.2.3.5.1 in --very-sensitive
mode and excluded from the rest of the analysis. The mapped BAM files were then
processed for base pair resolution strand specific read counts using bedtools v.2.29.0
(Quinlan and Hall, 2010). Metrics for the attrition of raw reads at each stage of the
analysis pipeline are included in Supplementary File 1, Section 1.1. In order for the
bedGraph files to be used in the CAGEfightR package they were converted to bigWig
format using UCSCs tool BedGraphToBigWig (Kent et al., 2010).

202
Figure 2. Workflow of the analysis pipeline and respective tools used for CAGE
sequence data analysis

Normalisation and mapping of CAGE tags
For normalisation and clustering of CAGE tags (as CAGE Tags-Per-Million Mapped:
CTPM) we used the software package CAGEfightR v.1.5.1 (Thodberg and Sandelin,
2019). The normalisation was performed by dividing CAGE tag counts in each
predicted cluster by the total mapped CAGE tags in the sample, multiplied by 1.0e6.
To perform these analyses we created a custom BSgenome object (a container of the

genomic sequence) for sheep from *Oar rambouillet v1.0* using the BSgenome
Bioconductor package v.1.53.1 (Pages, 2020). Distribution metrics of CAGE tags
across the genome were annotated and analysed using the TxDB transcript ID
assignment and Genomic Features package v.1.36.4 (Lawrence et al., 2013). The
TxDB object was created using the NCBI gff3 gene annotation file from NCBI *Oar*
rambouillet v1.0 GCA_002742125.1 (*GCF_002742125.1_Oar rambouillet v1.0*
_genomic.gff release 103).
219
Clustering of CAGE tags
To annotate TSS in the *Oar rambouillet v1.0* genome assembly we first generated
expression read counts for each tag (bp resolution). Tags with < 10 read counts were
removed first then any tags that were not present in at least 37/56 tissues (i.e. two
thirds of the tissues) were also removed. This conservative representation threshold
was introduced to ensure CAGE tags included in downstream analysis were
reproducible. In the absence of additional biological replicates, we based this on the
assumption that a CAGE tag was more likely to be reproducible if it was shared across
multiple tissues. However, it should be noted that this method would reduce sensitivity
to putative highly tissue-specific TSS and this is discussed later. Gene annotation from
the NCBI's GTF file was used to validate the coordinates of predicted CAGE clusters
(i.e. residing within or outside the promoter of annotated genes). Five thresholds for
representation, of CAGE tags (excluding intergenic and intronic tags) across tissues,
were compared (1 tissue, 5 tissues, 1/3rd of the tissues, half of the tissues, 2/3rds of the
tissues and all of the tissues). The proportion of CAGE tag clusters within (tagged by
unique gene IDs) or outside the promoter region (untagged) was used to compare
each threshold. Highly stringent filtering (56/56 representation) found CAGE tag
clusters associated with 2,949 genes (out of 30,862 genes annotated by NCBI)
representing putative TSS for genes expressed in all 56 tissues. A reduction of the
threshold to 2/3rds (37/56 tissues) resulted in 13,912 genes (31,113 transcripts)
associated with CAGE tag clusters. Reducing the threshold further to 1/3rd of tissues
resulted in a high proportion of CAGE tag clusters that were not associated with genes
('untagged') (41.6%) and 18,005 associated with genes (39,458 transcripts). According
to this criterion we selected the 2/3rds threshold. Although highly stringent this provided
only the highest confidence TSS tag clusters, associated with widely expressed genes
and widely used promotors, for the analysis of the dataset we present here. Further
details of this comparison are included in Supplementary File 1 Section 1.2.
TSS expression profiles (as CTPM) were then regenerated for each tissue
using the CAGEfightR v. 1.5.1 quickTSS, quickEnhancers and findLinks functions

(Thodberg and Sandelin, 2019). The CAGE tags clustered A) uni-directionally
(according to the sense or anti-sense flag of the mapped CAGE tag) into predicted
TSS and B) bi-directionally, using the TSS-Enhancer detection algorithm from
CAGEfightR (Thodberg and Sandelin, 2019), into correlated TSS and enhancer (TSS-
Enhancer) clusters. Bi-directional (TSS-Enhancer) clusters are defined as clusters of
CAGE tags that are located on the opposing strand within 400 bp-1000bp proximity of
the centre of a promoter (Thodberg and Sandelin, 2019). The bi-directional clusters
outside of this range were excluded from this analysis according to the previously
described method in (Thodberg et al., 2019). The concept of uni-directional and bi-
directional clustering is illustrated in Figure 3.

Figure 3. Schematic representation of the two clustering algorithms used in the
CAGEfightR package for TSS (uni-directional) and TSS-Enhancer (bi-directional)
clustering.

Identification of shared TSS or TSS-enhancer clusters across tissues
TSS or TSS-Enhancer clusters that were shared across tissues, were identified by
investigating the CTPM expression profile of each of the tissues using correlation
based and mutual information (MI) distance matrices (Priness et al., 2007; Reshef et
al., 2018). This method of MI based clustering tolerates missingness and outlier-
induced grouping errors in gene expression profiles (Priness et al., 2007). Using this
method, we assumed that the CTPM expression profile, for each cluster, could vary
across tissues. However, for a predicted TSS or TSS-Enhancer cluster to be
considered high-confidence and associated with widely expressed genes and widely

used promotors, it must be present in at least two thirds of the tissues (37/56) in the
dataset.
275
276 Identification of tissue-specific TSS or TSS-enhancer clusters
The 2/3^{rds} representation threshold applied above would remove all tissue-specific
CAGE tag clusters. To overcome this, a rerun of the clustering algorithm was
performed with the 2/3^{rds} representation threshold removed. Tissue-specific uni-
directional TSS clusters that were only present in 1/56 tissues were identified by
filtering for CAGE tags with >10 expressed counts to create a data frame. The data
frame was then filtered tissue-by-tissue to only retain uni-directional TSS clusters
present in each tissue separately. This process was then repeated for the TSS-
Enhancer clusters.
285
286 Annotation of 'novel' TSS in the ovine genome
We expected given the diversity of tissues sampled that we would detect a significant
number of 'novel', previously unannotated TSS. The CAGE tag uni-directional clusters
(TSS) were annotated using the mergeByOverlay function of the GenomicFeatures
package in R and the custom TxDB object as following:
mergeByOverlaps(subject = TSS, query = promoters(txdb, upstream = 25,
downstream = 25, use.names = T,c("tx_name", "GENEID")), maxgap = 25, type =
"any"). The TxDB object calculates the range of the promoter based on the 5'UTR and
first CDS codon coordinates. In each tissue any putative TSS region within 50bp range
of the promoter coordinate of a gene model was considered 'annotated'. In addition,
we expanded this range to 400bp to determine whether this would identify significantly
more unannotated TSS further from the promoter. A reverse sub setting of the 50bp
window region was performed as follows: *subsetByOverlaps(x = TSS ,ranges =*
annotated, invert = TRUE). These regions were considered 'novel' TSS previously
unannotated in the assembly. This process was repeated for every tissue separately
(n=56).
302
303 Comparative analysis of WGBS and CAGE Data
304
305 Preparation of genomic DNA from tissue
306 Extraction of DNA for bisulphite sequencing was performed using
307 phenol:chloroform:isoamyl alcohol method. Briefly, approximately 1 g frozen tissue
308 was pulverized and resuspended in 2.26ml of digestion buffer (10 mM Tris-HCl, 400
309 mM NaCl, 2 mM EDTA, pH 8.0) with 200 µl of SDS 10% and 60µl RnaseA (10 mg/ml)

(Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA) RNA degradation proceeded for one hour at 37°C with gentle shaking. Next, 25 µl of proteinase K (20 mg/ml) (Sigma-Aldrich) was added to the suspension and incubated overnight (approximately 16 hours) at 37°C with gentle shaking. The viscous lysate was transferred to a 2ml Phase Lock tube (VWR, Radnor, PA) and extracted twice with Tris-HCl-saturated phenol:chloroform:isoamyl alcohol (25:24:1) pH 8.0, followed by extraction with 2.5ml chloroform. The DNA was precipitated by addition of 5.5 ml of 100% ethanol and 250 µl of 3M Sodium Acetate to the aqueous phase in a 15 ml conical tube, mixed by gentle inversion until the DNA became visible. The DNA was removed with a bent Pastuer pipette hook, washed in 5 ml 70% cold ethanol, air dried then resuspended in 250 µl – 1 ml of 1X TE and stored at −20°C until use. DNA concentration was quantified fluorometrically on the Qubit® 3.0 Fluorometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, United States) using the Qubit dsDNA HS Assay Kit. The purity of the extractions was determined via 260/280 and 260/230 ratios measured on the NanoDrop 8000 (Thermo Fisher Scientific) and DNA integrity was assessed by 1% agarose gel electrophoresis. The protocol is available via the FAANG Data Coordination Centre https://data.faang.org/api/fire_api/assays/USDA_SOP_DNA_Extraction_From_Whole BloodandLiver_20200611.pdf.

Whole Genome Bisulphite Conversion and Sequencing
Library preparation and sequencing of seven tissues and 1 cell type (Figure 1), selected to include a representative from all major organ systems, were performed by The Garvan Institute of Medical Research, Darlinghurst, Sydney, New South Wales. Un-methylated lambda DNA was added at 0.5% of the total sample DNA concentration prior to bisulphite conversion as a conversion efficiency control. DNA conversion was carried out using the EZ DNA Methylation-Gold Kit (Zymo Research, CA, USA) following the manufacturer's instructions. The Accel-NGS Methyl-seq DNA kit (Swift Biosciences, MI, USA) for single indexing, was used to prepare the libraries, following the manufacturer's instructions. Libraries were pooled together and sequenced across 6 lanes of a flow-cell on an Illumina HiSeq X platform using paired end chemistry for 150 bp reads (min 10X coverage). The protocol is available via FAANG Data Coordination Centre https://data.faang.org/api/fire_api/assays/AGR_SOP_WGBS_AgR_Libary_prep_202 00610.pdf

WGBS data processing
Paired end Illumina WGBS sequence data were processed and analysed using in house scripting (bash and R) and a range of purpose-built bioinformatics tools on the

AgResearch and University of Edinburgh high performance computing facilities. The analysis protocol for WGBS is available via the FAANG Data Coordination Centre https://data.faang.org/api/fire_api/analysis/AGR_SOP_WGBS_AgR_data_an alysis_20200610.pdf and summarised below.

Briefly, FASTQ files for each sample, run across multiple lanes were merged together. TrimGalore v. 0.5.0. (https://github.com/FelixKrueger/TrimGalore) was used to trim raw reads to remove adapter oligos, poor quality bases (phred score less than 20) and the low complexity sequence tag introduced during Accel-NGS Methyl-seq DNA kit library preparation as follows: *trim_galore -q 20 --fastqc --paired --clip_R2 18 --three_prime_clip_R1 18 --retain_unpaired –o Trim_out INPUT_R1.fq.gz INPUT_R2.fq.gz*

A bisulphite-sequencing amenable reference genome was built using the *Oar rambouillet v1.0*, GenBank Accession number: GCA_002742125.1 genome with the BSSeeker2 script *bs_seeker2-build.py* using bowtie v2.3.4.3 (Langmead and Salzberg, 2012). and default parameters. The Enterobacteria phage lambda genome available from NCBI (Accession number: NC_001416) was added to the Oar rambouillet *v1.0* genome as an extra chromosome to enable alignment of the unmethylated lambda DNA conversion control reads. Paired-end, trimmed reads were aligned to the reference genome using the BSSeeker2 script *bs_seeker2-align.py* and bowtie v2.3.4.3 (Langmead and Salzberg, 2012) allowing four mismatches (-m 4). Aligned bam files were sorted with samtools v1.6 (Li et al., 2009) and duplicate reads were removed with picard tools v2.17.11 (https://broadinstitute.github.io/picard/) MarkDuplicates function.

Deduplicated bam files were used to call DNA methylation levels using the "bam2cgmap" function within CGmaptools (Guo et al., 2018) with default options to generate ATCGmap and CGmap files for each sample. The ATCGmap file format summarises mapping information for all covered nucleotides on both strands, and is specifically designed for BS-seq data; whilst the CGmap format is a more condensed summary providing sequence context and estimated methylation levels at any covered cytosine in the reference genome.

Hyper-methylated and hypo-methylated regions were determined for each sample using methpipe v3.4.3 (Song et al., 2013). Specifically, CGmap files for each sample were reformatted for the methpipe v3.4.3 workflow using custom awk scripts. The methpipe symmetric-cpgs program was used to merge individual methylation levels at symmetric CpG pairs. Hypo-methylated and hyper-methylated regions were determined using the hmr program within methpipe, which uses a hidden Markov

model (HMM) using a Beta-Binomial distribution to describe methylation levels at individual CpG sites, accounting for the read coverage at each site.

Visualisation of the individual CpG site methylation levels with a minimum read depth cut-off of 10x coverage was done using Gviz package v.1.28.3 (Hahne and Ivanek, 2016).

Comparative analysis of annotated and 'novel' TSS with WGBS methylation information

We expected that reproducible TSS, either annotated or novel, would overlap with hypo-methylated regions of the genome (Yamashita et al., 2005; Yagi et al., 2008). To test whether this was true for those identified in our analysis, both annotated and novel TSS from the CAGE BED tracks were intersected with WGBS hypo methylation profiles using bedtools v.2.29.2 (Quinlan and Hall, 2010) and the following script: *bedtools intersect -b WGBS_HypoCpG.bed -a Novel_or_ Annotated.bed > Novel_or_annotated_HypoCpG.bed.* Any annotated and novel TSS (within a ±50bp window of the promoter) that intersected hypomethylated regions of DNA in each tissue, were verified as reproducible TSS and the remainder as 'noise'. The overlay of these regions was visualised as a genomic track using the Gviz package v.1.28.3 (Hahne and Ivanek, 2016).

Visualisation of the annotated TSS, mRNA-Seq and WGBS tracks in the ovine genome

In order to confirm the simultaneous expression of mRNA, CAGE tags corresponding to an active TSS and a hypomethylated region of DNA, a genomic track on which all three datasets could be visualised was generated. This visualisation consists of the following tracks: 1) Uni-directional CAGE tag clusters (TSS) 2) Bi-directional CAGE tag clusters (TSS-Enhancers), 3) WGBS hypomethylation score (bp resolution), 4) Transcript level expression (mRNA-Seq [TPM]), 5) The transcript models, and 6) The gene model. Areas of the genome where TSS or TSS-Enhancer regions overlapped regions with a high hypomethylation score, within 5' end of an actively expressing transcript (TPM score), were considered reproducible TSS for that tissue. This process was performed using eight tissues with matching mRNA-Seq, CAGE and WGBS sequence data. The Gviz package v.1.28.3 was used to visualise these tracks (Hahne and Ivanek, 2016).

Validation of tissue-specific expression profiles

mRNA-Sequencing

Total RNA for mRNA-Seq from 32 tissues (Figure 1) was prepared, as above for the CAGE samples, by USMARC, and for 26 tissues by Baylor College of Medicine (BCM) using the MagMAX mirVana total RNA isolation kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, United States) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Paired end polyA selected mRNA-Seq libraries were prepared and sequenced on an Illumina NextSeq500 at USMARC or the Ilumina HiSeq2000 at BCM using the Illumina Tru-Seq Stranded mRNA Library Preparation Kit. For each tissue a set of expression estimates, as transcripts per million (TPM), were obtained using the transcript quantification tool Kallisto v0.43.0 (Bray et al., 2016). The mRNA-Seq analysis pipeline is accessible via the FAANG Data Coordination Centre https://data.faang.org/api/fire_api/analysis/ROSLIN_SOP_RNA-Seq_analysis_pipeline_20200610.pdf. A pairwise distance matrix (multiple correlation coefficient based) was produced using MI values for all tissues and a dendrogram of tissues was created in order to visualise grouping patterns of tissues with similar mRNA expression profiles, and for comparison with the CAGE dataset.

Comparative analysis of tissue-specific expression profiles using information from CAGE and mRNA-Seq

We assessed whether TSS expression profiles from the CAGE dataset were biologically meaningful using the mutual information (MI) sharing algorithm (Joe, 1989). Tissues with the same function and physiology should have similar TSS expression profiles. The CTPM expression level was binned (n=10) using the bioDist package v.1.56.0 (Ding et al., 2012) and mutual information (MI) for each pair of tissue samples was calculated as in (Joe 1989). :

$$\delta = (1 - \exp(-2 \times \delta))^{0.5}$$

$$MI\ distance = 1 - \delta$$

A pairwise distance matrix (multiple correlation coefficient based) was produced using MI values for all tissues and a dendrogram of tissues created to visualise grouping patterns of tissues with similar TSS expression profiles. If the expression profiles were meaningful then tissues with similar function and physiology would group together in clades within the dendrogram. These tissue specific groupings were then further validated by comparison with mRNA-Seq data for the same samples, using the MI sharing algorithm and dendrogram approach.

Results

Library size and annotation metrics

The mean CAGE library depth based on uniquely mapped CAGE reads was 4,862,957

reads. A detailed explanation of the attrition of reads at each stage of the analysis

pipeline is included in Supplementary File 1, Section 1.1. Library depth varied across

tissues. Tissues with low depth were not related to any specific barcodes and were

evenly spread over the two sequencing runs (Supplemental Table S1, Supplementary

Figure S1), suggesting random variation rather than systematic differences due to

specific barcodes or sequencing runs. The RIN^e values were also consistently >7 for

all tissues with low counts, indicating RNA integrity was also unlikely to be affecting

library depth. Differences in tag numbers are therefore more likely to relate to variation

in efficiency between individual libraries or tissue-specific differences related to the

physiology of the tissue.

CAGE tag clustering and annotation by genomic regions

We used a newly developed software package to annotate TSS in the Rambouillet

Benz2616 genome (Thodberg and Sandelin, 2019; Thodberg et al., 2019) which

clustered the CAGE tags as A) uni-directionally into predicted TSS or B) bi-directionally

into correlated TSS and enhancer (TSS-Enhancer) clusters (Figure 3). The clustered

CAGE tags were filtered to remove any clusters with a minimum expression level of

<10 tag counts. The mean (±SD) and median number of tissues per cluster was 3.68

± 4.78 and 2, respectively. Application of the 2/3^{rds} representation criteria (i.e. a

minimum of 37/56 tissues had to express the tag cluster) and filtering out of tag clusters

with <10 TPM resulted in an average of 8,219 uni-directional TSS clusters, from a total

of 5,450,864 (pre-filtering), for downstream analysis. A detailed description of the

cluster metrics at each stage of filtering is included in Supplementary File 1 Sections

1.1. and 1.3. Although direct comparisons are difficult due to differences in

methodology and the relative 'completeness' of the reference annotation used the level

of retained CAGE sequencing datasets (0.5% retained clusters with 2/3^{rds} tissue

representation) is somewhat lower than reported for other mammalian promoter-level

expression atlas projects. In the FANTOM5 project, for example, approximately 5% of

clusters were retained (Forrest et al., 2014a). To further validate the 2/3^{rds} tissue

representation criteria we chose we also investigated the number of transcripts

captured in the poly-A enriched mRNA-Seq dataset. Poly-A enriched mRNA-Seq data

was available for 52 matching tissues and captured a smaller number of transcripts

(n=32,852) with TPM>10 in comparison to CAGE CTPM>10 (n=53,507). Direct

comparison of expression for CAGE tags (27nt) and paired end RNA-Seq (75nt) reads
could result in technology dependent bias. Taking this into consideration the CAGE
dataset with the 2/3^{rds} representation criteria applied provided annotation for 31,113
transcripts with minimum CPTM>10. When the same criteria was applied to the mRNA-
Seq dataset only 3,908 transcripts with TPM>10 were annotated. The expression (as
TPM) of transcripts for each tissue and the TPM threshold metrics are included in
Supplementary file1 and Supplementary Table 4.

Bi-directional TSS-enhancer clusters were far fewer in number, although
retention was higher with over 23% meeting the same 2/3^{rds} representation criteria 741
from a total of 3,131. Though fewer in number these bi-directional (including TSS-
enhancer) clusters are functionally important in the regulation of expression of their
target genes (Andersson et al., 2014; Thodberg and Sandelin, 2019), consistent with
finding them in over 2/3^{rds} of tissues. The co-expression of leading enhancer RNA
(eRNA) which is captured by CAGE sequencing can provide a map to enhancer
families in the genome and the genes under their regulation (Andersson et al., 2014).

The locations of both uni-directional TSS and bi-directional TSS-enhancer
clusters were identified in *Oar rambouillet v1.0* and the proportion of TSS clusters
located within or near annotated gene features was estimated (Figure 4). The custom
BSgenome and TxDB objects created from the GFF3 file format provide detailed
calculated coordinates for the following sections: intergenic (>1000bp before 5'UTR or
after the end of 3'UTR), proximal (1000bp upstream of the 5'UTR), promoter (±100bp
from 5'UTR) and the standard gene model (5'UTR, exon, intron and 3'UTR). The
genomic region class with the highest number of unidirectional clusters (39.25%) was
the promoter regions (±100bp from 5'UTR) (Figure 4A), with a relatively even
distribution within the other regions of the genome, including 6% mapping proximally
to the 5'UTR. The majority of bi-directional TSS-enhancer clusters were also located
in promoter regions (70.1%) with a smaller proportion (25.6%) located in proximal
regions (Figure 4B). The lack of bi-directional TSS-enhancer clusters in other regions
is a consequence of the operation of the CAGEfightR algorithm, which only considers
bi-directional clusters within a 400-1000bp window of a TSS CAGE tag cluster
(Thodberg and Sandelin, 2019; Thodberg et al., 2019). This approach also reduced
the total count compared to unidirectional clusters (28,148 uni-directional clusters
relative to 741 bidirectional TSS-enhancer clusters across tissues) (Thodberg et al.,
2019).

Figure 4. The genomic region distribution of CAGE tag clusters mapped against Oar rambouillet v1.0 assembly and gene annotation. The counts were averaged across tissues. A) Uni-directional TSS clusters with the highest proportion in promoter region (±100bp of the 5'UTR beginning at the [TSS]). B) Bi-directional TSS-enhancer clusters with the highest proportion in the proximal region (1000bp upstream of the 5'UTR beginning at the [TSS]).

Capturing metrics of CAGE tag clusters per gene

During the clustering process we also determined the proportion of annotated genes and transcripts in the Oar rambouillet v1.0 NCBI annotation that we did not capture using our dataset. When the 2/3[rds] representation filtering criteria was applied 44.7% of transcripts (25,195) and 54.6% of genes (16,950) were not captured by our CAGE TSS clusters. When the 2/3[rds] representation filtering criteria was removed, and presence of the CAGE tag in only one tissue out of 56 considered sufficient, the proportion that we didn't capture was reduced to 7% of genes and 5% of transcripts. To investigate whether some genes posessed multiple putative TSS we also estimated the number of CAGE TSS clusters per gene. The median and also the highest frequency of TSS cluster per gene was 1 (mean 1.8) (13,912 genes / 31,3113 transcripts annotated using our dataset), indicating that the vast majority of genes annotated in the Oar rambouillet v1.0 reference genome have only one TSS, and genes with more than five TSS were rare (Supplementary figure S5 and Supplementary Table 5).

Distribution of CAGE tag clusters in *Oar rambouillet v1.0* relative to *Oar_v3.1*

The new reference sheep genome assembly (Oar rambouillet v1.0) is more contiguous than the earlier draft genome sequence Oar_v3.1 (Jiang et al., 2014) with contig N50 values of 2,572,683 bp and 40,376 bp, respectively and would be expected to provide

a better template for annotation of gene models and other genomic features. As a
proxy for testing this assumption we investigated how mapped CAGE tag clusters were
distributed across the two genome assemblies (Supplemental Figure S2). The
percentage of uni-directional CAGE tag clusters mapping to intergenic regions, which
usually occurs due to missing gene model information, was greater for *Oar_v3.1*
(33.9%) relative to *Oar rambouillet v1.0* (8%). The percentage of uni-directional CAGE
tag clusters mapping to annotated promoter regions was greater for *Oar rambouillet*
v1.0 (39.25%) compared to *Oar_v3.1* (14.94%), indicating the proportion of accurate
gene models in *Oar rambouillet v1.0* was greater. Of the 28,148 unidirectional TSS
clusters mapped to *Oar rambouillet v1.0,* 87.74% mapped to 13,868 unique genes
(31,729 transcripts). In comparison, of the 23,829 unidirectional TSS clusters mapped
to *Oar_v3.1,* 49.1% mapped to 6,549 genes (9,914 transcripts). A larger number of
TSS-Enhancer CAGE clusters were detected in *Oar_v3.1* (1121) in comparison to *Oar*
rambouillet v1.0 (741) mapping to 1371 and 2598 unique genes, respectively. A
detailed comparison of mapping of the CAGE tags to the two reference assemblies is
included in Supplementary File 1, Sections 2 and 3.
572

Mapping of CAGE tags shared across all tissue samples
Correlation-based and mutual information (MI) distance matrices were used to
evaluate the occurrence of TSS and enhancer TSS across tissues. The mean ± SD
number of tissues in which each cluster passing the 2/3^{rds} criteria (expressed in 37/56
tissues) was (47.73 ± 6.03). Uni-directional TSS clusters (n=28,148 TSS regions) that
were shared across tissues and detected in at least 37/56 tissues are visualised in
Figure 5. Each chord in Figure 5 represents the presence of an expressed
unidirectional TSS cluster shared across tissues. The majority of the unidirectional TSS
that were shared across tissues mapped to promoters (39.25%) and were shared
evenly across the tissues sampled (Figure 5). Some tissues e.g. mammary gland,
pituitary gland and urinary bladder had more uni-directional TSS mapping to intergenic
regions, which might indicate evidence of alternative splicing or differential TSS usage
across tissues (Figure 5). Alternative splicing events and differential TSS usage,
captured by CAGE, are often not included in the reference gene prediction models
(Berger et al., 2019).

Figure 5. Chord diagram of expression level (TPM) of CAGE tag clusters (uni-
directional TSS) across all the tissues collected from Benz2616. Shared CAGE tag
clusters are common to at least 2/3^{rds} of the tissues (37/56).

Bi-directional TSS-Enhancer CAGE clusters were far fewer in number but were
shared in a similar pattern across tissues as the uni-directional TSS clusters (Figure
6). The majority (70.1%) of the TSS-Enhancer clusters mapped to promoters (n=520)
while 25.6% mapped to 'proximal' regions as expected according to the 400bp-1000bp
detection window for TSS-Enhancer clusters from the centre of the promoter (Figure
6). For some tissues including abomasum, spleen and heart right atrium the proportion
of bi-directional TSS-Enhancer clusters mapping to proximal regions was greater
indicating more enhancer families could be present within these tissues (Figure 6).

Figure 6. Chord diagram of expression level (TPM) of CAGE tag clusters (bi-
directional TSS-Enhancer) across all the tissues collected from Benz2616. CAGE tag
clusters expressed (>10 CTPM) by at least 2/3^{rds} of the tissues (37/56).

Mapping of tissue-specific CAGE tags

The application of the 2/3^{rds} criteria provided a high level of confidence in assigning
TSS and TSS enhancer elements, but eliminated the ability to observe potential tissue-
specific CAGE tags or TSS clusters. Tissue-specific tags, i.e. those observed in only
one of the 56 tissues, were examined to evaluate the ability to distinguish tissue-
specific clusters from the background. A total of 3,228,425 tags were observed in only
one tissue, and a much higher proportion (80.0%) of these tags mapped to intergenic
and intronic regions compared to tags found across tissues, suggesting they do not
represent true TSS (Supplementary Table 2). Only 0.8% of the tissue-specific CAGE
tag clusters mapped to promoter or proximal regions (Supplementary Table 2). The
caecum (n=1554), cerebellum (n=601) and longisimus dorsi muscle (n=477) had the
highest number of tissues-specific predicted unidirectional TSS. The greatest number
of expressed TSS (>1 CTPM) were detected in ceberellum (84/601) as shown in
Supplementary Figure S3A. However, the expression level of tissue-specific CAGE

tag clusters was very low (<2 CTPM), which combined with the small sample size (n=1)
for each tissue, meant that analysis of tissue-specific TSS was not particularly
meaningful using this dataset. The analysis was repeated for tissue specific TSS-
Enhancer clusters which is detailed in Supplementary Figure S3B.
625

Proportion of 'novel' TSS within the CAGE dataset for each tissue
CAGE tag clusters were annotated initially using the *Oar rambouillet v1.0* gene models
from NCBI. A tissue-by-tissue annotation was performed using the same gene models
to identify any CAGE tag clusters within a 50bp window of the promoter boundaries of
every gene. From a total of 23,994 ± 518 TSS (the average number of TSS per tissue
± SE) we found 11,349 ± 170 (49.8% ± 0.01) were located within 50bp of the promoter.
The CAGE tag clusters were annotated using the NCBI *Oar rambouillet v1.0* GFF3
gene track file (version 103) and a TxDB object created in the GenomicFeatures
package (version 1.36.4) in R. CAGE tag clusters within 50bp (short range) or 400bp
(long range) of the promoter were defined as annotated. Supplementary File 2 includes
BED files for these CAGE tag clusters. The percentage of 'novel' previously un-
annotated, but likely to be reproducible, CAGE tag clusters for each tissue within 50bp
(short range) and 400bp (long range) from the promoter are detailed in Table 1.
639

Table 1: The total number and percentage of 'novel' CAGE tag clusters for each tissue
within 50bp (short range) and 400bp (long range) from the promoter. Total number
represents the number of CAGE tag clusters (from the total of 28,148) that are present
in   each   of   the   56   tissues.
The clusters for each tissue were then annotated by proximity to promoter regions
either 50bp or 400 bp (the later includes the count of the former). The % Novel
represents the count of the clusters falling outside of 400bp vicinity of any current
promoter region.
648

Tissue	% Novel	Clusters within 50bp	Clusters within 400bp	Total
Abomasum	49.38	8,161	8,688	16,584
Abomasum pylorus	49.89	12,339	13,074	25,963
Adipose subcutaneous	51.74	12,336	13,074	26,970
Adrenal cortex	51.79	12,285	13,019	26,859
Adrenal medulla	52.86	11,520	12,210	25,604
Alveolar macrophages	51.19	12,008	12,731	25,845
Caudal vena cava	37.75	10,937	11,578	18,179

Cecum	51.68	12,070	12,801	26,261
Cerebellum	48.59	8,393	8,936	16,796
Cerebral cortex	51.19	12,199	12,917	26,327
Descending colon	51.80	11,830	12,539	25,810
Diaphragm	52.53	10,367	11,016	22,733
Duodenum	52.34	11,243	11,932	24,620
Esophagus	49.90	10,016	10,625	20,741
Gall bladder	47.78	11,870	12,578	23,852
Heart atrioventricular valve left	50.90	12,268	13,000	26,330
Heart right atrium	52.96	10,996	11,666	24,444
Heart right ventricle	50.47	12,260	12,987	26,082
Hippocampus	53.40	12,142	12,878	27,451
Hypothalamus	52.7	11105	11786	24527
Ileum	52.45	12,352	13,094	27,411
Jejunum	31.67	10,810	11,418	16,361
Kidney cortex	52.04	12,317	13,057	27,076
Kidney medulla	51.07	10,946	11,618	23,365
Liver	49.35	12,255	12,981	25,459
Lung	52.91	11,644	12,339	25,995
Lymph node mesenteric	46.34	12,132	12,838	23,742
Lymph node prescapular	53.56	11,533	12,228	26,096
Mammary gland	49.75	10,048	10,688	20,774
Omasum	39.89	9,167	9,708	15,692
Ovary	50.79	12,334	13,073	26,434
Oviduct	53.29	11,563	12,260	25,957
Parathyroid gland	53.5	11577	12272	26231
Payer's patch	52.41	11,881	12,578	26,240
Pituitary gland	47.25	6,918	7,362	13,400
Pons	40.69	11,622	12,296	20,506
Rectum	53.55	12,002	12,723	27,192
Reticulum	53.39	12,185	12,911	27,589
Retina	53.54	11,805	12,537	26,691
Rumen atrium	50.69	12,335	13,077	26,363
Rumen ventral	40.20	7,109	7,567	12,165
Skeletal muscle biceps femoris	50.23	12,151	12,872	25,715
Skeletal muscle longissimus dorsi	53.67	11,356	12,060	25,748
Skeletal Muscle semimembranosus	51.15	12,262	12,993	26,471
Skin non haired	52.4	11907	12629	26337

Spinal cord cervical	51.47	11,376	12,050	24,508
Spiral colon	53.25	11,937	12,662	26,813
Spleen	53.46	12,161	12,892	27,568
Thalamus	41.61	11,426	12,079	20,404
Thyroid gland	53.6	11894	12615	27012
Tongue	39.57	9,639	10,244	16,512
Tonsil palatine	46.57	12,178	12,875	23,978
Urethra	52.76	11,387	12,087	25,292
Urinary bladder	51.68	11,163	11,840	24,174
Uterus caruncle	48.33	12,199	12,917	24,857
Vagina	52.30	11,600	12,300	25,543
Average	**49.80**	**11,349**	**12,032**	**23,994**

Comparative analysis of CAGE and WGBS to validate 'novel' TSS

True TSS and TSS enhancer elements are very likely to be associated with areas of hypomethylation (Yamashita et al., 2005, Yagi et al, 2008). The assessment of hypomethylation of regions where "novel" TSS were identified thus provides a means to support or question their designation as true TSS. The methylation status of putative TSS regions for eight of the tissues used for CAGE analysis was examined at single nucleotide resolution using WGBS. Each WGBS library was pooled prior to sequencing and multiplexed across eight lanes of the HiSeq X 10 platform. Following trimming of the raw reads, the sequenced libraries produced an average of 103 Gbp of clean data. The average mapping rate of the reads was 78.8%. A small proportion (8.5%) of mapped reads were identified as PCR or optical duplicates and were removed prior to downstream analysis. The average read depth of the filtered libraries was 20x coverage (Supplementary Table S3). Only cytosines with a minimum of ten reads were retained for the subsequent comparative analysis with CAGE data to ensure a high level of confidence in the methylation level estimates, as per published recommendations (Doherty and Couldrey, 2014; Ziller et al., 2015). We would expect that reproducible TSS, either annotated or novel, would overlap with hypo-methylated regions of the genome (Yamashita et al., 2005; Yagi et al., 2008). Comparative analysis of the CAGE data with the WGBS methylation levels from eight tissues from Benz2616 was used to investigate methylation levels at the TSS in comparison to gene body and UTR regions. For the majority of genes, the methylation level was much lower around the transcriptionally active TSS or regulatory enhancer candidate regions compared to the gene body (e.g. for gene *IRF2BP2* Figure 7). We overlaid the WGBS hypomethylated regions and the CAGE uni-directional TSS clusters (annotated and 'novel') within 50bp of the promoter. For the eight matching tissues 88.7% of the

675 annotated TSS clusters and 32.2% of the 'novel' TSS were hypomethylated (Figure 8).
676 The combined evidence of the hypomethylation and TSS support the conclusion that
677 32.2% are in fact novel TSS clusters, whereas 67.8% of the novel TSS clusters lack
678 this confirmation.

680
681 *Figure 7. Overlay of CAGE, RNA-Seq and WGBS data tracks centred using the*
682 *genomic coordinates of genes IRF2BP2 and ARID4B. A) Shows a hypomethylated*
683 *area overlapping multiple uni and bi-directional CAGE tag clusters at 5'UTR of*
684 *IRF2BP2. B) Predicted CAGE tag clusters with no verifying hypomethylation island*
685 *within the middle of ARID4B gene, which are likely to be 'noise'.*

B

Tissue	Annotated + HypoCpG	Annotated w/o	Novel + HypoCpG	Novel w/o
Alveolar_Macrophages	90%	10%	33%	67%
Cerebellum	91%	9%	35%	65%
Cerebral_Cortex	89%	11%	35%	65%
Lung	88%	12%	28%	72%
Ovary	89%	11%	35%	65%
Rumen_atrium	87%	13%	32%	68%
Skeletal_Muscle_biceps_femoris	89%	11%	32%	68%
Skeletal_Muscle_longissimus_dorsi	86%	14%	27%	73%

Figure 8: Numbers of CAGE TSS that were hypomethylated according to the WGBS

data to distinguish between 'novel' reproducible (+HypoCpG) TSS and 'noise' (w/o).

A) Shows the distribution of CAGE clusters as novel and annotated with or without

HypoCpG. B) Percentage of CAGE clusters in each categories for each of the eight

tissues.

Validation of tissue expression profiles using mRNA-Seq

The tissue samples from Benz2616 were collected for the purpose of annotating her

genome and as such N=1 in all cases. As an alternative strategy to having multiple

biological replicates we validated the expression profiles for each tissue by comparing

the CAGE data (CTPM) and mRNA-Seq (TPM) in 52 matching tissues. The transcript

expression TPM was significantly correlated with the CAGE tag cluster CTPM values

(correlation coefficient 0.19, Pearson *p* value < 1.0e-08) and visualised as a heatmap

(Supplementary Figure S4).

The similarity of tissue expression profiles for the uni-directional TSS clusters
was estimated in order to determine if tissues with similar physiology and function
formed distinct groups as expected. Similarity (distance) analysis showed a partial
grouping based on tissue type and organ system as shown in Figure 9A.
Physiologically similar tissues including nervous system and muscle tissues grouped
closely together. This grouping was also present in the mRNA-Seq data from tissue
matched samples Figure 9B, indicating good correlation between the two datasets.
Similar groupings based on organ system and tissue type were observed for multiple
tissues and cell-types generated for the sheep gene expression atlas using mRNA-
Seq (Clark et al. 2017).

Figure 9. The network analysis of tissue TSS and gene expression profiles in 52

matched samples from Benz1626. The clustering algorithm was based on MI distance

of each tissue given the expressed A) mRNA-Seq transcript level TPM and B) CAGE

tag clusters (TSSs).

Comparative visualisation of the datasets

An interactive visualisation interface was developed in order to make these datasets accessible and useable for the livestock genomics community. The genomic browser incorporates the bp resolution hypomethylation data, the CTPM expression of TSS and TSS-Enhancer regions and the mRNA-Seq TPM expression at transcript level. These tracks are also overlaid using the coordinates provided by the TxDB objects for transcripts and gene models as shown in Figure 10. This form of overlaid view allows for confirmation of transcript expression and the exact coordinate of the corresponding TSS in each tissue. For validation purposes the promoter region should be under a hypo-methylated CpG island on the DNA track for a proportion of actively transcribed gene in each tissue. The detailed bigBED format tracks for all the tissues are available at https://trackhubregistry.org/search/view_trackhub/TW3SmXMBjGhbrAAjJGTU ; https://data.faang.org/api/fire_api/trackhubregistry/hub.txt.

These visualisation tools were used to identify any co-expressed enhancers within the proximity of a TSS. We were able to identify 741 TSS-Enhancer clusters across the 56 tissues. An example of these bi-directional clusters is shown in Figure 10 as a pink line. The pairwise CTPM levels of co-expression of the bi-directional clusters and those of the uni-directional TSS clusters were compared using the Kendal correlation function in CAGEfightR (Thodberg and Sandelin, 2019). There were 5,383 significant co-expression pairs between uni-directional clusters (28,148) and bi-directional clusters (741). An example of a co-expressed TSS-enhancer is shown in Figure 10 as a black line connecting the significant start positions of the co-expression pairs.

The co-expression range of bi-directional clusters, in some cases, can span beyond the 10Kbp distance, as shown in the *IK* gene example (Figure 10). The expression of enhancer RNA (eRNA) with the promoter expression level of their target genes has been reported before (Tippens et al., 2018). This layer of annotation provides a foundation for enhancer target mapping in the sheep genome. The detailed list and annotated target transcripts of these co-expression clusters can be found in Supplementary File 2.

Figure 10. Long range correlation of single enhancer site with multiple promotors of

several genes. The track shows the significant correlation of a leading/primary

enhancer site highly co-expressed with several TSS sites of different genes in a

relatively long coding frame (± 10,000Kb). The 3rd track from the top also shows the

level of methylation at CpG sites at DNA level of Benz2616 overlaying the same

coordinates of the IK gene and ±10Kbp.

 FANTOM5 mammalian and avian CAGE TSS atlases

The FANTOM5 project also used CAGE to annotate TSSs in mammalian

genomes (Andersson et al., 2014; Forrest et al., 2014b; Imada et al., 2020). The

FANTOM5 data release contained putative TSSs for human, mouse, chicken, rhesus

monkey and dog (https://fantom.gsc.riken.jp/5/data/). We performed a comparative

analysis of the number of TSSs captured by these datasets with the CAGE dataset we

generated for sheep (Table 2 , Supplementary Table 6).

Table 2: Metrics comparison of CAGE atlases from 7 species. The total number of

TSSs identified using CAGE methodology and the number of corresponding genes.

Data for all the species other than sheep was accessed via the FANTOM5 data portal.

Species	Genome	TSSs	Genes
Human	hg38	209,911	31,184
Mouse	mm10	164,672	30,501
Chicken	galGal5	32,015	7,759
Sheep	Oar rambouillet v1.0	28,148	13,912
Rhesus Monkey	rheMac8	25,869	8,047
Dog	canFam3	23,147	5,288

768 The number of genes annotated by CAGE uni-directional TSS clusters in this study

769 was greater than chicken, rhesus monkey and dog produced as part of FANTOM5

770 project, however TSS annotation for sheep was still consistently less robust than for

771 murine and human genomes.

Discussion

High-quality reference genomes are now available for many farmed animal species including domestic sheep (*Ovis aries*). The earlier draft genome sequence (Jiang et al., 2014) has been superseded by a more contiguous genome assembly (*Oar rambouillet v1.0* https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/assembly/GCF_002742125.1/). Annotation of this genome sequence, however, is currently limited to gene and transcript models. There is a lack of information on regulatory sequences and the complexity of the transcriptome is underestimated. For example, promoters and TSS are not well-annotated and alternative promoters and transcripts are poorly characterised. The overall aim of the Ovine FAANG project was to provide a comprehensive annotation of *Oar rambouillet v1.0*. To contribute to this aim we generated a high-resolution global annotation of transcription start sites (TSS) for sheep. After removal, of CAGE tags with < 10 read counts, 39.3% of TSS overlapped with 5' ends of transcripts, as annotated previously by NCBI. A further 14.7% mapped to within 50bp of annotated promoter regions. Intersecting these predicted TSS regions with annotated promoter regions ($\pm$50bp) revealed 46% of the predicted TSS were 'novel' and previously un-annotated. Using whole genome bisulphite sequencing data from the same tissues we were able to determine that a proportion of these 'novel' TSS were hypo-methylated (32.2%) indicating that they are likely to be reproducible rather than 'noise'. The number of NCBI transcript/gene models for which there was no associated CAGE tag cluster was relatively small (7%) when we removed the strict filtering criteria, indicating the usefulness of CAGE data for genome annotation. However, the 'noisy' nature of CAGE data, proportion of multi-mappers and duplicated reads, resulted in a considerable attrition of raw reads. We also chose to use strict filtration criteria, requiring the CAGE tags to be present in 2/3^{rds} of tissues. This resulted in a relatively modest number of high confidence CAGE clusters. This strict filtering could be relaxed for future analysis of the data. The global annotation of TSS in sheep we present will significantly enhance the annotation of gene models in the new ovine reference assembly (*Oar rambouillet v1.0*).

The quality of the annotation of reference genomes for livestock species is improving rapidly with reductions in the cost of sequencing and generation of new datasets from multiple different functional assays (Giuffra and Tuggle, 2019). *Oar rambouillet v1.0* superseded the Texel reference assembly (*Oar_v3.1*), which was released in 2014 (Jiang et al., 2014). *Oar_v3.1* is still widely utilised by the sheep genomics community and the Ensembl annotation (https://www.ensembl.org/Ovis_aries/Info/Index) also includes sequence variation

information. We compared how mapped CAGE tag clusters were distributed across

genomic features in *Oar rambouillet v1.0* and *Oar_v3.1* (Jiang et al., 2014) and found

that the proportion of CAGE tag clusters mapping to promoter regions was greater for

Oar rambouillet v1.0 (39%) than *Oar_v3.1* (15%). This may be because *Oar_v3.1* was

built using short read technology (Jiang et al., 2014), which had a significant bias to

GC rich regions, and therefore did not robustly capture the 5' ends of many genes

(Chen et al., 2013). In comparison, the *Oar rambouillet v1.0* assembly was generated

using long read technology, that dramatically improves the ease of assembly resulting

in increased contiguity (Contig N50: *Oar_v3.1* 0.07Mb and *Oar rambouillet v1.0*

2.57Mb). Other recent high quality reference genome assemblies for livestock, e.g.

goat (Bickhart et al., 2017; Worley, 2017) and water buffalo (Low et al., 2019), have

been built using long read sequencing technology in combination with optical mapping

for scaffolding.

Highly annotated genomes are powerful tools that can help us to understand

the mechanisms underlying complex traits in livestock (Georges et al., 2018; Giuffra

and Tuggle, 2019) and mitigate future challenges to food production (Rexroad et al.,

2019). GWAS results, for example, can be integrated with functional annotation

information to identify causal variants enriched in trait-linked tissues or cell types

(reviewed in (Cano-Gamez and Trynka, 2020)). Using enrichment analysis (Finucane

et al., 2018) showed that heritable disease associated variants from GWAS were

enriched in enhancer regions in relevant tissues and cell types in humans. The TSS

and TSS-enhancer clusters identified in this study could be utilised in a similar way for

SNP enrichment analysis of GWAS variants in sheep. Using ChIP-Seq data (Naval-

Sanchez et al., 2018) found that selective sweeps were significantly enriched for

proximal regulatory elements to protein coding genes and genome features associated

with active transcription. A high quality set of variants for sheep, generated using whole

genome sequencing information for hundreds of animals across multiple breeds, is

available through (Sheep Genomes Database, 2020). This dataset could be used to

identify functional SNPs enriched in the TSS and TSS-enhancer clusters for multiple

tissues and cell types that we have annotated in the *Oar rambouillet v1.0* assembly.

High throughput functional screens using gene editing technologies, are now possible

to validate these functional variants (reviewed in (Tait-Burkard et al., 2018)). New iPSC

lines for livestock species also now offer the potential to do this in relevant cell types

(Ogorevc et al., 2016).

Our high-resolution atlas of TSS complements other available large-scale

RNA-Seq datasets for sheep e.g. (Clark et al., 2017). The analysis we present here

includes tissues representing all major organ systems. However, we were unable to

generate CAGE libraries for a small number of difficult to collect or problematic tissues,
and as such may have missed transcripts specific to these tissues. We were also only
able to generate CAGE libraries from one isolated cell type, alveolar macrophages. As
demonstrated by the FANTOM5 (Forrest et al., 2014a) and ENCODE (Birney et al.,
2007) and FragENCODE (Foissac et al., 2019) projects, including a diversity of
immune cell types, in both activated and inactivated states, in future work would
capture additional transcriptional diversity. New technologies, such as single cell
sequencing, will allow annotation of cell-specific expressed and regulatory regions of
the genome at unprecedented resolution (Papatheodorou et al., 2019). C1 CAGE now
offers the opportunity to detect TSS and enhancer activity at single-cell resolution
(Kouno et al., 2019).

We have also generated full-length transcript information using the Iso-Seq
method, for a small subset of tissues from Benz2616. Integrating mRNA-Seq and Iso-
Seq datasets has been used successfully to improve the annotation of the pig genome
(Beiki et al., 2019). By merging the Iso-Seq data with the CAGE and mRNA-Seq
datasets we will be able to measure differential transcript usage across tissues and
improve the resolution of the *Oar rambouillet v1.0* transcriptome further. Our analysis
indicated that while the vast majority of transcripts had one TSS, some genes had
multiple putative TSS which could be validated with the additional resolution provided
by the Iso-Seq data. As such the study we present here represents just the first step
in demonstrating the power and utility of the different datasets generated for the Ovine
FAANG project, which will provide one of the highest resolution annotations of
transcript regulation and diversity in a livestock species to date.

Acknowledgements
The authors would like to thank the Human Genome Sequencing Center staff for the
Oar rambouillet v1.0 reference genome assembly and for long-read and short read
mRNA and miRNA sequencing. HGSC contributors include the genome assembly and
analysis team of Y. Liu, R.A. Harris, X. Qin, led by K. Worley and production team
members including M-C Gingras and L. Perez for RNA and DNA preparation, V. Vee,
Y. Han. V. Korchina, S. Dugan-Perez for sequencing, Q. Meng, H. Doddapaneni, M.
Wang for library production, the system support and LIMs teams, D. M. Muzny the
HGSC Director of Operations, R. A. Gibbs the HGSC Director. We thank S. Sullivan
and I. Liachko of Phase Genomics for PGA genome scaffolding.
We would also like to thank William Thompson for isolation of RNA and Jacky
Carnahan for isolation of DNA at USMARC. The authors are grateful to Lucas Lefevre,
Rachel Young and Heather Finlayson for performing the initial optimisation to establish

the CAGE protocol at the Roslin Institute and Sara Clohisey and Lee Murphy for advice
on data analysis and assistance in establishing the protocol at the Edinburgh Clinical
Research Facility. CAGE libraries were sequenced at the Centre for Genomic
Research, University of Liverpool. The authors are also grateful for the support of the
FAANG Data Coordination Centre (http://data.faang.org) in the upload and archiving
of the sample data and metadata, and hosting of the genome tracks.

Furthermore, we would like to thank the tissue collection design team; Noelle
Cockett and Kim Worley, who coordinated the team, James Kijas, Brian Dalrymple,
Tracy Hadfield, Kara Thornton, Tom Baldwin, Shuna Jones, Bob Lee, Sue Hauver,
Christy Kelley, Jessica Eisenhauer, Mike Heaton, William Thompson, Timothy Smith,
Stephen White, Michelle Mousel, Alisha Massa; Brian Sayre and Brenda Murdoch who
all contributed in planning and designing the collection. Additionally, we would like to
thank all those that contributed to the FAANG tissue collection at USU: Noelle Cockett,
Tracy Hadfield, Tom Baldwin, Rusty Stott, Arnaud Van Wettere, Holly Mason,
Jaqueline LaRose, Dave Forrester, Corey Wareham, Sarah Behunin, Kara Thornton,
Gordon Hullinger (VMES), Alisha Massa, Maria Herndon, Brenda Murdoch, Brian
Sayre, Caylee Birge, Codie Durfee, Michelle R. Mousel, Rachael Christianson, Nicole
Ineck, Angie Robinson, Dallin Wengert, Kerry Rood, Erica Moscoso, Rickie Warr,
Dustin Kinney, Abbey Benninghoff, Sumira Phatak, Kevin Contreras, Braden
Abercrombie, Misha Regouski.
This manuscript has been released as a pre-print at bioRxiv, (Salavati et al., 2020).
906

Ethics Statement
All protocols were approved by the animal care and use in accordance with Utah State
University. IACUC approval: #2826, expiration date 21st of February 2021.

Data Availability
All the raw sequence data and analysis BAM files for this study are publicly available
via the OAR_USU_Benz2616 NCBI BioProject:
https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/bioproject/PRJNA414087 and via the European
Nucleotide Archive (ENA): https://www.ebi.ac.uk/ena/browser/view/PRJEB34864
(CAGE), https://www.ebi.ac.uk/ena/data/view/PRJEB35292 (mRNA-Seq) and
http://www.ebi.ac.uk/ena/data/view/PRJEB39178 (WGBS). Details of all 100 samples
collected from Benz 2616 are included in the BioSamples database under submission
GSB-7268, group accession number SAMEG329607
(https://www.ebi.ac.uk/biosamples/samples/SAMEG329607). The datasets are
accessible via the FAANG data portal and were submitted according to FAANG sample

and experimental metadata requirements (Harrison et al., 2018). Oar rambouillet v1.0 is now available on the Ensembl Genome Browser http://www.ensembl.org/Ovis_aries_rambouillet/Info/Index.

Author Contributions

RC and IG performed CAGE library, optimisation, preparation and sequencing. MS performed all bioinformatic and data analyses, with the exception of the WGBS data, which was analysed by AC. MS and AC generated the GViz tracks. TPLS coordinated generation of the mRNA-Seq data at US-MARC. KCW coordinated generation of the Oar Rambouillet v1.0 reference assembly and mRNA-Seq data at BCM. SMC coordinated the generation and analysis of the WGBS with AC. ELC and ALA coordinated the CAGE components of the study. NEC and KCW planned and coordinated the sample collection at USU. BMM is coordinator of the Ovine FAANG project with ALA, SNW, BPD, JWK, RB, NEC, SMC, KCW, ELC and TPLS who designed the overall project and acquired the funding to support the work. ELC wrote the manuscript with MS and AC. All authors contributed to editing and approved the final version of the manuscript.

Conflict of Interest

The authors declare that the research was conducted in the absence of any commercial or financial relationships that could be construed as a potential conflict of interest.

Code Availability

All the code base for the analytical pipeline in this study are available at https://msalavat@bitbucket.org/msalavat/rnaseqwrap_public.git for RNA-Seq analysis, https://msalavat@bitbucket.org/msalavat/cagewrap_public.git for the CAGE mapping, annotation and metrics pipeline and https://msalavat@bitbucket.org/caultona/wgbswrap_public.git for WGBS pipeline.

Funding

This work was supported by National Institute of Food and Agriculture, U.S. Department of Agriculture awards USDA-NIFA-2017-67016-26301 and USDA-NIFA-2013-67015-21228. Sample collection was funded by NRSP-8 Sheep Genome Coordinator Funding, Project UTA-1172. ELC, ALA and MS were partially supported by Institute Strategic Program grants awarded to the Roslin Institute 'Farm Animal

Genomics' (BBS/E/D/2021550) and 'Prediction of genes and regulatory elements in
farm animal genomes' (BBS/E/D/10002070). ELC is supported by a University of
Edinburgh Chancellors Fellowship. The Edinburgh Clinical Research Facility is funded
by the Wellcome Trust. AC was supported by the University of Otago PhD scholarship
and granted the Marjorie McCallum travel award to visit the Roslin Institute, her PhD
research is funded by NZ MBIE C10X1906. TPLS was supported by USDA-ARS
Project No. 3040-31000-100-00D. The funders had no role in study design, data
collection and analysis, decision to publish, or preparation of the manuscript.

Members of the Ovine FAANG Project Consortium (listed by institution)

Brenda Murdoch (University of Idaho)

Kimberly M Davenport (University of Idaho)

Stephen White (USDA, ARS, Washington State University)

Michelle Mousel (USDA, ARS ADRC)

Alisha Massa (Washington State University)

Kim Worley (Baylor College of Medicine)

Alan Archibald (The Roslin Institute, University of Edinburgh)

Emily Clark (The Roslin Institute, University of Edinburgh)

Brian Dalrymple (University of Western Australia)

James Kijas (CSIRO)

Shannon Clarke (AgResearch)

Rudiger Brauning (AgResearch)

Timothy Smith (USDA, ARS MARC)

Tracey Hadfield (Utah State University)

Noelle Cockett (Utah State University)

References

An, X., Ma, H., Han, P., Zhu, C., Cao, B., and Bai, Y. (2018). Genome-wide
differences in DNA methylation changes in caprine ovaries between oestrous
and dioestrous phases. *J. Anim. Sci. Biotechnol.* doi:10.1186/s40104-018-0301-
x.

Andersson, L., Archibald, A. L., Bottema, C. D., Brauning, R., Burgess, S. C., Burt, D.
W., et al. (2015). Coordinated international action to accelerate genome-to-
phenome with FAANG, the Functional Annotation of Animal Genomes project.
Genome Biol. 16, 57. doi:10.1186/s13059-015-0622-4.

Andersson, R., Gebhard, C., Miguel-Escalada, I., Hoof, I., Bornholdt, J., Boyd, M., et
al. (2014). An atlas of active enhancers across human cell types and tissues.
Nature 507, 455–461. doi:10.1038/nature12787.

Baillie, J. K., Arner, E., Daub, C., De Hoon, M., Itoh, M., Kawaji, H., et al. (2017).
Analysis of the human monocyte-derived macrophage transcriptome and
response to lipopolysaccharide provides new insights into genetic aetiology of
inflammatory bowel disease. *PLOS Genet.* 13, e1006641.

Beiki, H., Liu, H., Huang, J., Manchanda, N., Nonneman, D., Smith, T. P. L., et al.
(2019). Improved annotation of the domestic pig genome through integration of
Iso-Seq and RNA-seq data. *BMC Genomics* 20, 344. doi:10.1186/s12864-019-
5709-y.

Berger, M. R., Alvarado, R., and Kiss, D. L. (2019). mRNA 5′ ends targeted by
cytoplasmic recapping cluster at CAGE tags and select transcripts are
alternatively spliced. *FEBS Lett.* 593, 670–679. doi:10.1002/1873-3468.13349.

Bertin, N., Mendez, M., Hasegawa, A., Lizio, M., Abugessaisa, I., Severin, J., et al.
(2017). Linking FANTOM5 CAGE peaks to annotations with CAGEscan. *Sci.*
Data 4, 170147. doi:10.1038/sdata.2017.147.

Bickhart, D. M., Rosen, B. D., Koren, S., Sayre, B. L., Hastie, A. R., Chan, S., et al.
(2017). Single-molecule sequencing and chromatin conformation capture enable
de novo reference assembly of the domestic goat genome. *Nat. Genet.* 49,
643–650. doi:10.1038/ng.3802.

Birney, E., Stamatoyannopoulos, J. A., Dutta, A., Guigó, R., Gingeras, T. R.,
Margulies, E. H., et al. (2007). Identification and analysis of functional elements
in 1% of the human genome by the ENCODE pilot project. *Nature* 447, 799–
816. doi:10.1038/nature05874.

Bray, N. L., Pimentel, H., Melsted, P., and Pachter, L. (2016). Near-optimal
probabilistic RNA-seq quantification. *Nat. Biotechnol.* 34, 525–527.
doi:10.1038/nbt.3519.

Cano-Gamez, E., and Trynka, G. (2020). From GWAS to Function: Using Functional
Genomics to Identify the Mechanisms Underlying Complex Diseases. *Front.*
Genet. 11, 424.

Chen, Y.-C., Liu, T., Yu, C.-H., Chiang, T.-Y., and Hwang, C.-C. (2013). Effects of
GC Bias in Next-Generation-Sequencing Data on De Novo Genome Assembly.
PLoS One 8, e62856.

Clark, E. L., Bush, S. J., McCulloch, M. E. B., Farquhar, I. L., Young, R., Lefevre, L.,
et al. (2017). A high resolution atlas of gene expression in the domestic sheep
(Ovis aries). *PLOS Genet.* 13, e1006997.

Cordier, G., Cozon, G., Greenland, T., Rocher, F., Guiguen, F., Guerret, S., et al.
(1990). In vivo activation of alveolar macrophages in ovine lentivirus infection.
Clin. Immunol. Immunopathol. 55, 355–367. doi:https://doi.org/10.1016/0090-
1229(90)90124-9.

Ding, B., Gentleman, R., and Carey, V. (2012). bioDist: Different distance measures.
R package version 1.28.0. Available at:
https://www.bioconductor.org/packages/release/bioc/html/bioDist.html.

Doherty, R., and Couldrey, C. (2014). Exploring genome wide bisulfite sequencing for
DNA methylation analysis in livestock: A technical assessment. *Front. Genet.*
doi:10.3389/fgene.2014.00126.

Edinburgh, U. of (2020). Edinburgh Compute and Data Facility. Available at:
https://www.ed.ac.uk/is/research-computing-service [Accessed July 6, 2020].

Finucane, H. K., Reshef, Y. A., Anttila, V., Slowikowski, K., Gusev, A., Byrnes, A., et
al. (2018). Heritability enrichment of specifically expressed genes identifies
disease-relevant tissues and cell types. *Nat. Genet.* 50, 621–629.
doi:10.1038/s41588-018-0081-4.

Foissac, S., Djebali, S., Munyard, K., Vialaneix, N., Rau, A., Muret, K., et al. (2019).
Multi-species annotation of transcriptome and chromatin structure in
domesticated animals. *BMC Biol.* 17, 108. doi:10.1186/s12915-019-0726-5.

Forrest, A. R. R., Kawaji, H., Rehli, M., Baillie, J. K., De Hoon, M. J. L., Haberle, V.,
et al. (2014a). A promoter-level mammalian expression atlas. *Nature* 507, 462–
470. doi:10.1038/nature13182.

Forrest, A. R. R., Kawaji, H., Rehli, M., Baillie, J. K., De Hoon, M. J. L., Haberle, V.,
et al. (2014b). A promoter-level mammalian expression atlas. *Nature* 507, 462–
470. doi:10.1038/nature13182.

Georges, M., Charlier, C., and Hayes, B. (2018). Harnessing genomic information for
livestock improvement. *Nat. Rev. Genet.* 20, 1. doi:10.1038/s41576-018-0082-2.

Giuffra, E., and Tuggle, C. K. (2019). Functional Annotation of Animal Genomes

(FAANG): Current Achievements and Roadmap. *Annu. Rev. Anim. Biosci.* 7,
65–88. doi:10.1146/annurev-animal-020518-114913.

Guo, W., Zhu, P., Pellegrini, M., Zhang, M. Q., Wang, X., and Ni, Z. (2018).
CGmapTools improves the precision of heterozygous SNV calls and supports
allele-specific methylation detection and visualization in bisulfite-sequencing
data. *Bioinformatics* 34, 381–387. doi:10.1093/bioinformatics/btx595.

Hahne, F., and Ivanek, R. (2016). "Visualizing Genomic Data Using Gviz and
Bioconductor BT - Statistical Genomics: Methods and Protocols," in, eds. E.
Mathé and S. Davis (New York, NY: Springer New York), 335–351.
doi:10.1007/978-1-4939-3578-9_16.

Hannon Lab (2017). FASTX-Toolkit FASTQ/A short reads pre-processing tools.
Available at: http://hannonlab.cshl.edu/fastx_toolkit/ [Accessed July 6, 2020].

Harrison, P. W., Fan, J., Richardson, D., Clarke, L., Zerbino, D., Cochrane, G., et al.
(2018). FAANG, establishing metadata standards, validation and best practices
for the farmed and companion animal community. *Anim. Genet.* 49, 520–526.
doi:10.1111/age.12736.

Ibeagha-Awemu, E. M., and Zhao, X. (2015). Epigenetic marks: Regulators of
livestock phenotypes and conceivable sources of missing variation in livestock
improvement programs. *Front. Genet.* doi:10.3389/fgene.2015.00302.

Imada, E. L., Sanchez, D. F., Collado-Torres, L., Wilks, C., Matam, T., Dinalankara,
W., et al. (2020). Recounting the FANTOM CAGE–Associated Transcriptome.
Genome Res. 30, gr.254656.119. doi:10.1101/gr.254656.119.

Jiang, Y., Xie, M., Chen, W., Talbot, R., Maddox, J. F., Faraut, T., et al. (2014). The
sheep genome illuminates biology of the rumen and lipid metabolism. *Science*
344, 1168–1173. doi:10.1126/science.1252806.

Joe, H. (1989). Relative Entropy Measures of Multivariate Dependence. *J. Am. Stat.*
Assoc. 84, 157–164. doi:10.1080/01621459.1989.10478751.

Jones, P. A. (2012). Functions of DNA methylation: Islands, start sites, gene bodies
and beyond. *Nat. Rev. Genet.* doi:10.1038/nrg3230.

Kent, W. J., Zweig, A. S., Barber, G., Hinrichs, A. S., and Karolchik, D. (2010).
BigWig and BigBed: enabling browsing of large distributed datasets.
Bioinformatics 26, 2204–2207. doi:10.1093/bioinformatics/btq351.

Kouno, T., Moody, J., Kwon, A. T.-J., Shibayama, Y., Kato, S., Huang, Y., et al.
(2019). C1 CAGE detects transcription start sites and enhancer activity at
single-cell resolution. *Nat. Commun.* 10, 360. doi:10.1038/s41467-018-08126-5.

Langmead, B., and Salzberg, S. L. (2012). Fast gapped-read alignment with Bowtie
2. *Nat. Methods* 9, 357–359. doi:10.1038/nmeth.1923.

Lassmann, T. (2015). TagDust2: a generic method to extract reads from sequencing
data. *BMC Bioinformatics* 16, 24. doi:10.1186/s12859-015-0454-y.

Lawrence, M., Huber, W., Pagès, H., Aboyoun, P., Carlson, M., Gentleman, R., et al.
(2013). Software for computing and annotating genomic ranges. *PLoS Comput.*
Biol. 9, e1003118–e1003118. doi:10.1371/journal.pcbi.1003118.

Lev Maor, G., Yearim, A., and Ast, G. (2015). The alternative role of DNA methylation
in splicing regulation. *Trends Genet.* doi:10.1016/j.tig.2015.03.002.

Li, H., Handsaker, B., Wysoker, A., Fennell, T., Ruan, J., Homer, N., et al. (2009).
The Sequence Alignment/Map format and SAMtools. *Bioinformatics* 25, 2078–
2079. doi:10.1093/bioinformatics/btp352.

Lizio, M., Deviatiiarov, R., Nagai, H., Galan, L., Arner, E., Itoh, M., et al. (2017).
Systematic analysis of transcription start sites in avian development. *PLOS Biol.*
15, e2002887.

Low, W. Y., Tearle, R., Bickhart, D. M., Rosen, B. D., Kingan, S. B., Swale, T., et al.
(2019). Chromosome-level assembly of the water buffalo genome surpasses
human and goat genomes in sequence contiguity. *Nat. Commun.* 10, 260.
doi:10.1038/s41467-018-08260-0.

Murdoch, B. M. (2019). The functional annotation of the sheep genome project. *J.*
Anim. Sci. 97, 16.

Naval-Sanchez, M., Nguyen, Q., McWilliam, S., Porto-Neto, L. R., Tellam, R.,
Vuocolo, T., et al. (2018). Sheep genome functional annotation reveals proximal
regulatory elements contributed to the evolution of modern breeds. *Nat.*
Commun. 9, 859. doi:10.1038/s41467-017-02809-1.

Ogorevc, J., Orehek, S., and Dovč, P. (2016). Cellular reprogramming in farm
animals: an overview of iPSC generation in the mammalian farm animal
species. *J. Anim. Sci. Biotechnol.* 7, 10. doi:10.1186/s40104-016-0070-3.

Pages, H. (2020). BSgenome: Software infrastructure for efficient representation of
full genomes and their SNPs. R package version 1.56.0.

Papatheodorou, I., Moreno, P., Manning, J., Fuentes, A. M.-P., George, N., Fexova,
S., et al. (2019). Expression Atlas update: from tissues to single cells. *Nucleic*
Acids Res. 48, D77–D83. doi:10.1093/nar/gkz947.

Priness, I., Maimon, O., and Ben-Gal, I. (2007). Evaluation of gene-expression
clustering via mutual information distance measure. *BMC Bioinformatics* 8, 111.
doi:10.1186/1471-2105-8-111.

Quinlan, A. R., and Hall, I. M. (2010). BEDTools: A flexible suite of utilities for
comparing genomic features. *Bioinformatics* 26, 841–842.
doi:10.1093/bioinformatics/btq033.

Reshef, D. N., Reshef, Y. A., Sabeti, P. C., and Mitzenmacher, M. (2018). An
empirical study of the maximal and total information coefficients and leading
measures of dependence. *Ann. Appl. Stat.* 12, 123–155. doi:10.1214/17-
AOAS1093.
Rexroad, C., Vallet, J., Matukumalli, L. K., Reecy, J., Bickhart, D., Blackburn, H., et
al. (2019). Genome to Phenome: Improving Animal Health, Production, and
Well-Being – A New USDA Blueprint for Animal Genome Research 2018–2027
. *Front. Genet.*   10, 327.
Salavati, M., Caulton, A., Clark, R., Gazova, I., L, T. P., Worley, K. C., et al. (2020).
Global analysis of transcription start sites in the new ovine reference genome
(Oar rambouillet v1.0). *bioRxiv*, 2020.07.06.189480.
doi:10.1101/2020.07.06.189480.
Sheep Genomes Database (2020). Available at: https://sheepgenomesdb.org/
[Accessed July 6, 2020].
Song, Q., Decato, B., Hong, E. E., Zhou, M., Fang, F., Qu, J., et al. (2013). A
reference methylome database and analysis pipeline to facilitate integrative and
comparative epigenomics. *PLoS One* 8, e81148–e81148.
doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0081148.
Tait-Burkard, C., Doeschl-Wilson, A., McGrew, M. J., Archibald, A. L., Sang, H. M.,
Houston, R. D., et al. (2018). Livestock 2.0 – genome editing for fitter, healthier,
and more productive farmed animals. *Genome Biol.* 19, 204.
doi:10.1186/s13059-018-1583-1.
Takahashi, H., Kato, S., Murata, M., and Carninci, P. (2012). "CAGE (Cap Analysis of
Gene Expression): A Protocol for the Detection of Promoter and Transcriptional
Networks," in *Methods in Molecular Biology*, 181–200. doi:10.1007/978-1-
61779-292-2_11.
Thodberg, M., and Sandelin, A. (2019). A step-by-step guide to analyzing CAGE data
using R/Bioconductor. *F1000Research* 8, 886.
doi:10.12688/f1000research.18456.1.
Thodberg, M., Thieffry, A., Vitting-Seerup, K., Andersson, R., and Sandelin, A.
(2019). CAGEfightR: analysis of 5′-end data using R/Bioconductor. *BMC*
Bioinformatics 20, 487. doi:10.1186/s12859-019-3029-5.
Tippens, N. D., Vihervaara, A., and Lis, J. T. (2018). Enhancer transcription: what,
where, when, and why? *Genes Dev.* 32, 1–3. doi:10.1101/GAD.311605.118.
Worley, K. C. (2017). A golden goat genome. *Nat. Genet.* 49, 485–486.
doi:10.1038/ng.3824.
Yagi, S., Hirabayashi, K., Sato, S., Li, W., Takahashi, Y., Hirakawa, T., et al. (2008).

DNA methylation profile of tissue-dependent and differentially methylated

regions (T-DMRs) in mouse promoter regions demonstrating tissue-specific

gene expression. *Genome Res.* 18, 1969–1978. doi:10.1101/gr.074070.107.

Yamashita, R., Suzuki, Y., Sugano, S., and Nakai, K. (2005). Genome-wide analysis

reveals strong correlation between CpG islands with nearby transcription start

sites of genes and their tissue specificity. *Gene* 350, 129–136.

doi:https://doi.org/10.1016/j.gene.2005.01.012.

Ziller, M. J., Hansen, K. D., Meissner, A., and Aryee, M. J. (2015). Coverage

recommendations for methylation analysis by whole-genome bisulfite

sequencing. *Nat. Methods*. doi:10.1038/nmeth.3152.

1180

1181

1182 **Figure Legends**

1183

1184 Figure 1. FAANG assays (CAGE, WGBS and mRNA-Seq) performed on each tissue

1185 from Benz2616.

1186

1187 Figure 2. Workflow of the analysis pipeline and respective tools used for CAGE

1188 sequence data analysis

1189

1190 Figure 3. Schematic representation of the two clustering algorithms used in the

1191 CAGEfightR package for TSS (uni-directional) and TSS-Enhancer (bi-directional)

1192 clustering.

1193

Figure 4. The genomic region distribution of CAGE tag clusters mapped against *Oar*

rambouillet v1.0 assembly and gene annotation. The counts were averaged across

tissues. A) Uni-directional TSS clusters with the highest proportion in promoter region

(±100bp of the 5'UTR beginning at the [TSS]). B) Bi-directional TSS-enhancer clusters

with the highest proportion in the proximal region (1000bp upstream of the 5'UTR

beginning at the [TSS]).

1200

1201 Figure 5. Chord diagram of expression level (TPM) of CAGE tag clusters (uni-

1202 directional TSS) across all the tissues collected from Benz2616. Shared CAGE tag

1203 clusters are common to at least 2/3[rds] of the tissues (37/56).

1204

1205 Figure 6. Chord diagram of expression level (TPM) of CAGE tag clusters (bi-

1206 directional TSS-Enhancer) across all the tissues collected from Benz2616. CAGE tag

1207 clusters expressed (>10 CTPM) by at least 2/3[rds] of the tissues (37/56).

1208

1209 Figure 7. Overlay of CAGE, RNA-Seq and WGBS data tracks centred using the

1210 genomic coordinates of genes *IRF2BP2 and ARID4B*. A) Shows a hypomethylated

1211 area overlapping multiple uni and bi-directional CAGE tag clusters at 5'UTR of

1212 IRF2BP2. B) Predicted CAGE tag clusters with no verifying hypomethylation island

1213 within the middle of ARID4B gene, which are likely to be 'noise'.

1214

1215 Figure 8: Numbers of CAGE TSS that were hypomethylated according to the WGBS

1216 data to distinguish between 'novel' reproducible (+HypoCpG) TSS and 'noise' (w/o).

1217 A) Shows the distribution of CAGE clusters as novel and annotated with or without

1218 HypoCpG. B) Percentage of CAGE clusters in each categories for each of the eight
1219 tissues.

1220

1221 Figure 9. The network analysis of tissue TSS and gene expression profiles in 52
1222 matched samples from Benz1626. The clustering algorithm was based on MI distance
1223 of each tissue given the expressed A) mRNA-Seq transcript level TPM and B) CAGE
1224 tag clusters (TSSs).

1225

Figure 10. Long range correlation of single enhancer site with multiple promotors of
several genes. The track shows the significant correlation of a leading/primary
enhancer site highly co-expressed with several TSS sites of different genes in a
relatively long coding frame (± 10,000Kb). The 3rd track from the top also shows the
level of methylation at CpG sites at DNA level of Benz2616 overlaying the same
coordinates of the IK gene and ±10Kbp.

1232

1233

 Supplemental Material

1236   Supplementary Figure S1. CAGE library size for each of the 56 tissues analysed.

1237

1238

1239

1240 Supplementary Figure S2. The percentage of CAGE tags mapped to each genomic

1241 region for Oar rambouillet v1.0 (A) and Oar_v3.1 (B) reference genome assemblies.

1242 The counts were averaged across tissues prior to annotation.

1243

Tissue specific CAGE tag clusters (TSS) within promoter region

1244

1245 Supplementary Figure S3A. The distribution of tissue specific TSS in 56 tissues of

1246 Benz2616. The bar shows the count of tissue specific TSS in each tissue with the

1247 proportion being expressed with CTPM >1 coloured in red.

1248

1249

1250 Supplementary Figure S3B. The distribution of tissue specific TSS-Enhancers across

1251 the 56 tissues from Benz2616. The bars show the count of tissue specific TSS in each

1252 tissue with the proportion being expressed with CTPM >1 coloured in red.

1253

1254

1255 Supplementary Figure S4. Heatmap of mRNA-Seq and CAGE expression profiles

1256 (TPM and CTPM). The correlation was calculated over 52 matched tissues and 5732

1257 transcripts-TSS expressed in all tissues.

1258

Supplementary Figure S5. Distribution of uni-directional CAGE TSS clusters per annotated gene. A) the histogram of the TSS cluster per gene B) Detailed table of TSS per gene data underlying the histogram and percentage per total TSS clusters.

Supplementary Table 1. Details of 5' linker barcodes and pool ID assigned to each tissue sample.

Supplementary Table 2. Percentage of tissue-specific CAGE tags mapping to genomic features.

Supplementary Table .3. Summary of WGBS sequencing and mapping results.

Supplementary Table 4. Comparison of mRNA-Seq dataset with matched tissues within the CAGE dataset with regards to tissue support criteria.

Supplementary Table 5. Summary of minimum tissue support calculations for TSSs per gene in each scenario. Tissue support thresholds of 1, 5, 18, 28 & 37 tissues out of total 56 were analysed.

Supplementary Table 6. Comparison of this study with other CAGE datasets available as part of the Fantom5 consortium data release.

1284   Supplementary File 1. Section 1: Attrition of raw reads at each stage of the analysis

1285   pipeline, rationale for selecting the 2/3^{rds} representation threshold for mapped CAGE

1286   tags and clustering metrics. Sections 2 and 3: detailed comparison of mapping of the

1287   CAGE tags to the two reference assemblies Oar_v3.1 and Oar rambouillet v1.0 and

1288   analysis workflow.

1289

1290   Supplementary File 2. Expression data frames from Uni-, Bi-directional, long range

1291   linked co-expression clustering and transcript level mRNA-Seq from all 56 tissues

1292   (2/3^{rds} representation rule applied).