Improved genome assembly and annotation for the rock pigeon (*Columba livia*)

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ABSTRACT

The domestic rock pigeon (*Columba livia*) is among the most widely distributed and

phenotypically diverse avian species. This species is broadly studied in ecology, genetics,

physiology, behavior, and evolutionary biology, and has recently emerged as a model for

understanding the molecular basis of anatomical diversity, the magnetic sense, and other

key aspects of avian biology. Here we report an update to the *C. livia* genome reference

assembly and gene annotation dataset. Greatly increased scaffold lengths in the updated

reference assembly, along with an updated annotation set, provide improved tools for

evolutionary and functional genetic studies of the pigeon, and for comparative avian

genomics in general.

INTRODUCTION

Intensive selective breeding of the domestic rock pigeon (*Columba livia*) has resulted in

over 350 breeds with extreme differences in morphology and behavior (Levi 1986;

Domyan and Shapiro 2017). The large phenotypic differences among different breeds

make them a useful model for studying the genetic basis of radical phenotypic changes,

which are more typically found among different species rather than within a single

species.

In genetic and genomic studies of *C. livia*, linkage analysis is important for identifying

genotypes associated with specific phenotypic traits of interest (Domyan and Shapiro

2017); however, short scaffold sizes in the Cliv_1.0 draft reference assembly (Shapiro et

al. 2013) hinder computationally-based comparative analyses. Short scaffolds also make

it more difficult to identify structural changes, such as large insertions or deletions, that

are responsible for traits of interest (Domyan et al. 2014; Kronenberg et al. 2015).

Here we present the Cliv_2.1 reference assembly and an updated gene annotation set. The

new assembly greatly improves scaffold length over the previous draft reference

assembly, and updated gene annotations show improved concordance with both

transcriptome and protein homology evidence.

MATERIALS & METHODS

Genome sequencing and assembly

Genomic DNA from a female Danish tumbler pigeon (full sibling of the male bird used

for the original Cliv_1.0 assembly (Shapiro et al. 2013)) was extracted from blood using

a modified "salting out" protocol (Miller et al. 1988; modifications from

http://www.protocol-online.org/prot/Protocols/Extraction-of-genomic-DNA-from-whole-

blood-3171.html, accessed 06 February 2018)). Blood was frozen immediately after

collection and stored at -80°C, and purified DNA was resuspended in 10 mM Tris-HCl.

The sample went through 2 freeze-thaw cycles before being used to construct the libraries

described below.

Extracted DNA was used to produce long-range sequencing libraries using the "Chicago"

method (Putnam et al. 2016) by Dovetail Genomics (Santa Cruz, CA). Two Chicago

libraries were prepared and sequenced on the Illumina HiSeq platform to a final physical

coverage (1-50 kb pairs) of 390x.

Scaffolding was performed by Dovetail Genomics using HiRise assembly software and

the Cliv_1.0 assembly as input. Briefly, Chicago reads were aligned to the input assembly

to identify and mask repetitive regions, and then a likelihood model was applied to

identify mis-joins and score prospective joins for scaffolding. The final assembly was

then filtered for length and gaps according to NCBI submission specifications.

Custom repeat library

A repeat library for *C. livia* was built by combining libraries from existing avian species

(Zhang et al. 2014a) together with repeats identified *de novo* for the Cliv_2.1 assembly.

De novo repeat identification was performed using RepeatScout (Price et al. 2005) with

default parameters (>3 copies) to generate consensus repeat sequences. Identified repeats

with greater than 90% sequence identity and a minimum overlap of 100 bp were

assembled using Sequencher (Yokouchi et al. 1993). Repeats were classified into

transposable element (TE) families using multiple lines of evidence, including homology

to known elements, presence of terminal inverted repeats (TIRs), and detection of target

site duplications (TSDs). Homology-based evidence was obtained using RepeatMasker

(Smit et al. 1996), as well as the homology module of the TE classifying tool RepClass

(Feschotte et al. 2009). RepClass was also used to identify signatures of transposable

elements (TIRs, TSDs). We then eliminated non-TE repeats (simple repeats or gene

families), using custom Perl scripts (available at https://github.com/4ureliek/ReannTE).

In our custom repeat analysis, using the script ReannTE_FilterLow.pl, consensus

sequences were labeled as simple repeats or low complexity repeats if 80% of their length

could be annotated as such by RepeatMasker (the library was masked with the option -

noint). Next using the ReannTE_Filter-mRNA.pl script, consensus sequences were

compared to RefSeq (Pruitt et al. 2007) mRNAs (as of March 7th 2016) with TBLASTX

(Altschul et al. 1990). Sequences were eliminated from the library when: (i) the e-value

of the hit was lower than 1E-10; (ii) the consensus sequence was not annotated as a TE;

and (iii) the hit was not annotated as a transposase or an unclassified protein. The script

ReannTE_MergeFasta.pl was then used to merge our library with a library combining

RepeatModeler (Smit and Hubley 2008) outputs from 45 bird species (Kapusta et al.

2017) and complemented with additional avian TE annotations (International Chicken

Genome Sequencing 2004; Warren et al. 2010; Bao et al. 2015). Merged outputs were

then manually inspected to remove redundancy, and all DNA and RTE class transposable

elements were removed and replaced with manually curated consensus sequences, which

were either newly (DNA elements) or previously generated (RTEs) (Suh et al. 2016).

Repeat landscape

We used RepeatMasker software v4.0.7 (Smit et al. 2015) and our custom library to

annotate the repeats in Cliv_2.1. RepeatMasker was run with the NCBI/RMBLAST

v2.6.0+ search engine (-e ncbi), the sensitive (-s) option, the -a option in order to obtain

the alignment file, and without RepeatMasker default libraries. We then used the

parseRM.pl script v5.7 (available at https://github.com/4ureliek/Parsing-RepeatMasker-

Outputs (Kapusta et al. 2017)), on the alignment files from Repeat Masker, with the -l

option and a substitution rate of 0.002068 substitutions per site per million years (Zhang

et al. 2014b). The script collects the percentage of divergence to the consensus for each

TE fragment, after correction for higher mutation rate at CpG sites and the Kimura 2-

Parameter divergence metric (provided in the alignment files from RepeatMasker).

The percentage of divergence to the consensus is a proxy for age (the older the TE

invasion, the more mutations will accumulate in TE fragments), to which the script

applies the substitution rate in order to split TE fragments into bins of 1 My.

Transcriptomics

RNA was extracted from adult tissues (brain, retina, subepidermis, cochlear duct, spleen,

olfactory epithelium) of the racing homer breed, and one whole embryo each of a racing

homer and a parlor roller (approximately embryonic stage 25 (Hamburger and Hamilton

1951)). RNA-seq libararies were prepared and sequenced using 100-bp paired-end

sequencing on the Illumina HiSeq 2000 platform at the Research Institute of Molecular

Pathology, Vienna (adult tissues), and the Genome Institute at Washington University, St.

Louis (embryos). RNA-seq data generated for the Cliv_1.0 annotation were also

downloaded from the NCBI public repository for *de novo* re-assembly. Accession

numbers for these public data are SRR521357 (Danish tumbler heart), SRR521358

(Danish tumbler liver), SRR521359 (Oriental frill heart), SRR521360 (Oriental frill

liver), SRR521361 (Racing homer heart), and SRR521362 (Racing homer liver).

Each FASTQ file was processed with FastQC (http://www.bioinformatics.babraham.ac.

uk/projects/fastqc/) to assess quality. When FastQC reported overrepresentation of

Illumina adapter sequences, we trimmed these sequences with fastx_clipper from the

FASTX-Toolkit (http://hannonlab.cshl.edu/fastx_toolkit/). We used FASTX-Toolkit for

two additional functions: runs of low quality bases at the start of reads were trimmed with

fastx_trimmer when necessary (quality cutoff of -Q 33), and reads were then trimmed

with fastq_quality_trimmer (-Q 33). Finally, each pair of sequence files was assembled

with Trinity (Grabherr et al. 2011) version r20131110 using the --jaccard_clip option.

Genome annotation

The pre-existing reference Gnomon (Souvorov et al. 2010) derived gene models for the

Cliv_1.0 assembly (GCA_000337935.1) were mapped onto the updated Cliv_2.1

reference assembly using direct alignment of transcript FASTA entries. This was done

using the alignment workflow of the genome annotation pipeline MAKER (Cantarel et al.

2008; Holt and Yandell 2011), which first seeds alignments using BLASTN (Altschul et

al. 1990) and then polishes the alignments around splice sites using Exonerate (Slater and

Birney 2005). Results were then filtered to remove alignments that had an overall match

of less than 90% of the original model (match is calculated as percent identity multiplied

by percent end-to-end coverage).

For final annotation, MAKER was allowed to identify *de novo* gene models that did not

overlap the aligned Gnomon models. Protein evidence sets used by MAKER included

annotated proteins from *Pterocles gutturalis* (yellow-throated sandgrouse) (Zhang et al.

2014a) and *Gallus gallus* (chicken) (International Chicken Genome Sequencing 2004)

together with all proteins from the UniProt/Swiss-Prot database (Bairoch and Apweiler

2000; UniProt 2007). The transcriptome evidence sets for MAKER included Trinity

mRNA-seq assemblies from multiple *C. livia* breeds and tissues (methods for

transcriptome assembly are described above). Gene predictions were produced within

MAKER by Augustus (Stanke and Waack 2003; Stanke et al. 2008). Augustus was

trained using 1000 Cliv_1.0 Gnomon gene models that were split using the

randomSplit.pl script into sets for training and evaluation. We followed a semi-automatic

training protocol

(https://vcru.wisc.edu/simonlab/bioinformatics/programs/augustus/docs/tutorial2015/train

ing.html, accessed 9 February 2018). Repetitive elements in the genome were identified

using the custom repeat library described above.

Linkage map construction and anchoring to current assembly

Genotyping by sequencing (GBS) data was generated, trimmed, and filtered as previously

described (Domyan et al. 2016). Reads were mapped to the Cliv_2.1 assembly using

Bowtie2 (Langmead and Salzberg 2012). Genotypes were called using Stacks (Catchen et

al. 2011), with a minimum read-depth cutoff of 10. Thresholds for automatic corrections

were set using the parameters –min_hom_seqs 10, –min_het_seqs 0.01, –max_het_seqs

0.15. Sequencing coverage and genotyping rate varied between individuals, and birds

with genotyping rates in the bottom 25% were excluded from map assembly.

Genetic map construction was performed using R/qtl v1.41-6 (www.rqtl.org) (Broman et

al. 2003). For autosomal markers, markers showing segregation distortion (Chi-square, p

< 0.01) were eliminated. Sex-linked scaffolds were assembled and ordered separately,

due to differences in segregation pattern for the Z-chromosome. Z-linked scaffolds were

identified by assessing sequence similarity and gene content between pigeon scaffolds

and the Z-chromosome of the annotated chicken genome (Ensembl Gallus_gallus-5.0).

Pairwise recombination fractions were calculated for all autosomal and Z-linked markers.

Missing data were imputed using "fill.geno" with the method "no_dbl_XO". Duplicate

markers were identified and removed. Within individual scaffolds, R/qtl functions

"droponemarker" and "calc.errorlod" were used to assess genotyping error. Markers were

removed if dropping the marker led to an increased LOD score, or if removing a non-

terminal marker led to a decrease in length of >10 cM that was not supported by physical

distance. Individual genotypes were removed if they showed with error LOD scores >5

(Lincoln and Lander 1992). Linkage groups were assembled from 2960 autosomal

markers and 232 Z-linked markers using the parameters (max.rf 0.1, min.lod 6). In the

rare instance that single scaffolds were split into multiple linkage groups, linkage groups

were merged if supported by recombination fraction data; these instances typically

reflected large physical gaps between markers on a single scaffold. Scaffolds in the same

linkage group were manually ordered based on calculated recombination fractions and

LOD scores.

To compare the linkage map to the original genome assembly (Cliv_1.0), each 90-bp

locus containing a genetic marker was parsed from the Stacks output file

"catalogXXX_tags.tsv" and queried to the Cliv_1.0 assembly using BLASTN (v2.6.0+)

with the parameters –max_target_seqs 1 –max hsps 1. 3175 of the 3192 loci (99.47%)

from the new assembly had a BLAST hit with an E-value < 4e-24 and were retained.

Assembly comparisons

FASTA files from the Cliv_2.1 and colLiv2 (Damas et al. 2017) genome assemblies were

hard masked using NCBI WindowMasker (Morgulis et al. 2006) and genome-wide

alignments were calculated with LAST (Kielbasa et al. 2011). From these alignments, a

genome-scale dotplot indicating syntenic regions was generated using SynMap (Lyons

and Freeling 2008; Lyons et al. 2008).

The colLiv2 assembly is currently unannotated. Therefore, to compare gene content

between assemblies, we estimated the number of annotated Cliv_2.1 genes absent from

colLiv2 based on gene coordinates. Based on the length of LAST alignments, we

calculated the percent of each Cliv_2.1 scaffold aligning to colLiv2. Scaffolds were

divided into four groups based on alignments: Cliv_2.1 scaffolds that did not align to

colLiv2, Cliv_2.1 scaffolds where LAST alignments to colLiv2 covered less than 50% of

the total scaffold length, Cliv_2.1 scaffolds where LAST alignments to colLiv2 covered

between 50% and 75% of the total scaffold length, and Cliv_2.1 scaffolds where LAST

alignments to colLiv2 covered 75% or more of the total scaffold length. For each of these

groups, the number of scaffolds containing genes was quantified. Many of these scaffolds

are small, and some may be missing entirely or in part from the alignment due to masking

of repetitive elements. If annotated gene coordinates from Cliv_2.1 scaffolds fell partially

or entirely within a region aligned to colLiv2, these genes were considered "present" in

colLiv2. Thus, the number of genes marked as "absent" in colLiv2 might be a

conservative estimate.

To compare the linkage map to colLiv2, each 90-bp locus containing a genetic marker

was parsed from the Stacks output file "catalogXXX_tags.tsv" and queried to the colLiv2

assembly using BLASTN (v2.6.0+) with the parameters –max_target_seqs 1 –max hsps

1.

Data availability

This Whole Genome Shotgun project has been deposited at DDBJ/ENA/GenBank under

the accession AKCR00000000. The version described in this paper is version

AKCR02000000. The Cliv_2.1 assembly, annotation, and associated data are available at

ftp://ftp.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genomes/all/GCA/000/337/935/GCA_000337935.2_Cliv_2.1.

RNA-seq data are deposited in the SRA database with the BioSample accession numbers

SAMN07417936-SAMN07417943, and sequence accessions SRR5878849-

SRR5878856. Assembly and RNA-seq data are publicly available in NCBI databases

under BioProject PRJNA167554. File S1 contains Tables S1-S7. Files S2 and S3 contain

recombination fraction data used to construct Figures 4a and 4b, respectively.

264   **RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

Genome assembly

The final Cliv_2.1 reference assembly is 1,108,534,737 base pairs in length and consists

of 15,057 scaffolds (Table 1). A total of 1,015 scaffolds contain a gene annotation.

Completion analysis of the assembly using BUSCO v2 and the odb9 Vertebrata ortholog

dataset (Simao et al. 2015) suggests that Cliv_2.1 is 72.9 (assembly) to 86.2%

(annotation) complete. These statistics are nearly identical to the Cliv_1.0 assembly

estimate of 72.3-86.4% (Table 2); therefore, we found no significant changes to

completeness between the two assemblies. The Chicago libraries and HiRise assembly

were designed to improve scaffolding of the original assembly, not to fill gaps, so we did

not expect substantial improvement to assembly completeness in Cliv_2.1. The major

improvement to the Cliv_2.1 assembly is rather an increase in scaffold length (Fig. 1a).

Overall, the N50 scaffold length increased to 14.3 megabases compared to 3.15

megabases for the previous reference assembly, a greater than 4-fold increase.

The new assembly joins scaffolds that we knew were adjacent but were separated

previously (see Table S1 for full catalog of positions of the original assembly in the new

assembly, and Table S2 for full catalog of breaks in the original assembly to form the

new assembly). For example, we previously determined that Cliv_1.0 Scaffolds 70 and

95 were joined based on genetic linkage data from a laboratory cross (Domyan et al.

2016). These two sequences are now joined into a single scaffold in the Cliv_2.1

assembly (see Table S3 for positions of genetic markers in Cliv_1.0 and Cliv_2.1). At

least one gene model (RefSeq LOC102093126), which was previously split across two

contigs, has now been unified into a single model on a single scaffold.

Repeat landscape

With our custom library, we identified 8.04% (89.1 Mb; Table S3) of the genome

assembly as repeats, which is slightly higher than the previously published estimates of

7.25% (Zhang et al. 2014b) and 7.83% (Kapusta and Suh 2017). To illustrate the

temporal dynamics of TE accumulation (see Methods), we split the amount of DNA of

each TE class by bins of 1 million years (My) (Fig. 2). This landscape shows that TE

accumulation has been consistent throughout time, with potentially some recently active

elements. This includes CR1 LINEs (part of the non-LTR fraction), which are presumed

to be inactive in most birds (Kapusta and Suh 2017), but comprise over 0.1 Mb of CR1

copies in the youngest bin (0-1 My) in the Cliv_2.1 assembly (Table S4).

Transcriptome assemblies

A total of 1,936,543 transcripts were assembled from the 14 RNA-seq data sets. Numbers

of assembled transcripts from each tissue are listed in Table S3. BUSCO analysis

indicated 85.6% completeness of the union of transcriptome assemblies compared to the

Vertebrata ortholog set.

Annotation

The updated annotation set contains 15,392 gene models encoding 18,966 transcripts

(Table 4). This represents only a minor update of the reference annotation set as 94.7% of

previous models were mapped forward nearly unmodified (90% exact match for 14,898

out of 15,724 previous gene models) and only 494 new gene models were added to the

Cliv_2.1 annotation set (Table 5).

The updated annotation set shows a modest improvement in concordance with aligned

evidence datasets from mRNA-seq and cross species protein homology evidence relative

to the Cliv_1.0 set as measured by Annotation Edit Distance (AED) (Eilbeck et al. 2009;

Holt and Yandell 2011). As a result, transcript models in the Cliv_2.1 annotation tend to

have lower AED values than the Cliv_1.0 set (Figure 2; the cumulative distribution

function (CDF) curve is shifted to the left). Lower AED values indicate greater model

concordance with aligned transcriptome and protein homology data. Furthermore, the

Cliv_2.1 dataset displays greater transcript counts in every AED bin despite having

slightly fewer transcripts overall compared to the Cliv_1.0 dataset (Table S3). The higher

bin counts indicate that lower AED values are not solely a result of removing

unsupported models from the annotation set, but rather suggest that evidence

concordance has improved overall.

Linkage map

The linkage map consists of 3192 markers assembled into 48 autosomal linkage groups

and a single Z-chromosome linkage group (Table S5. The map contains markers from

236 scaffolds. Together, these scaffolds encompass 1,048,536,443 bp, or 94.6% of the

Cliv_2.1 assembly, and include 13026 of 15392 annotated genes (84.6%). Cliv_2.1

scaffolds are strongly supported by linkage data. For 235 out of 236 scaffolds included in

the linkage map, all GBS markers mapped to that scaffold form a single contiguous block

within one linkage group (scaffold ScoHet5_252 was split between 2 linkage groups).

Additionally, within-scaffold marker order was largely supported by calculated pairwise

recombination fractions.

Comparison with colLiv2 genome assembly

Recently, Damas et al. (2017) used computational methods and universal avian bacterial

artificial chromosome (BAC) probes to achieve chromosome-level scaffolding using the

Cliv_1.0 assembly as input material. This assembly, named colLiv2 (GenBank assembly

accession GCA_001887795.1; 1,018,016,946 bp in length), is approximately 8% smaller

than the Cliv_2.1 assembly.

Based on genome-wide pairwise alignments using LAST (Kielbasa et al. 2011), a

substantial number of regions of Cliv_2.1 that do not align to colLiv2 genome contain

both unique sequence and annotated genes. Based on gene coordinates, 1184 annotated

Cliv_2.1 genes were absent from colLiv2 (Table 6).

Of the 3192 GBS makers mapped to Cliv_2.1, 2940 markers (92.1%) mapped to colLiv2

with an E-value <4e-24. Of the remaining markers, 7 mapped to colLiv2 with an E-value

>4e-24, and 245 markers (7.67%) failed to map to colLiv2 entirely. We assessed the

agreement between marker and linkage data by calculating pairwise recombination

fractions for the 2940 markers, then plotted these recombination fractions in the order in

which markers appear on the colLiv2 chromosome-level scaffolds. Overall, the marker

order largely agrees with calculated recombination fractions; however, we identified a

number of locations where pairwise recombination fractions suggest that portions of the

colLiv2 chromosomes are not ordered properly, as exemplified in Fig. 5. We also

identified 42 markers for which the location with the best sequence match in colLiv2

appears to be incorrect based on recombination fraction estimates; these markers are

summarized in Table S7.

Conclusions

The improved scaffold lengths of Cliv_2.1, as well as the updated gene model

annotations, should further empower ongoing studies to identify genes responsible for

phenotypic traits of interest and improve detection of regions under selection due to

longer scaffolds. We also expect to be able to better identify large deletions and other

structural variants responsible for specific phenotypes now that they can be more clearly

mapped to longer scaffolds. Finally, the new transcriptomic data provides tissue-specific

expression profiles for several adult tissue types and an important embryonic stage for the

morphogenesis of limbs, craniofacial structures, skin, and other tissues.

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FIGURES

534   **Figure 1.** Assembly scaffolding contiguity and scaffolding library insert size

535   distributions. (a) Scaffolding comparison between Cliv_1.0 (input scaffolds) and Cliv_2.1

536   (final scaffolds) assemblies. (b) Distribution of Dovetail Genomics "Chicago" library

537   inserts.

Figure 2. Temporal landscape of transposable elements. The amounts of DNA of each
TE class were split into bins of 1 My, shown on the x axis (see Methods). We note that
the lower detection of older elements (right of the graph) comes from a combination of
lack of detection and TE removal, and that the amount of DNA corresponding to recent
elements may be underestimated (recent copies are often collapsed in assemblies). The
"Others" category primarily includes unclassified repeats.

Evidence Support Comparison of Annotation Sets

Figure 3. Evidence support comparison of annotation sets. Annotation edit distance (AED) support for gene models in Cliv_2.1 (blue line) is improved over Cliv_1.0 (NCBI Gnomon annotation, red line).

Figure 4. Dot plot of syntenic regions between the Cliv_2.1 and colLiv2 assemblies of

the *C. livia* genome. Each segment of the X axis represents a single colLiv2 scaffold

ordered from largest (left) to smallest (right), while each segment of the Y axis represents

a scaffold of the Cliv_2.1 assembly, ordered from largest (bottom) to smallest (top).

Green dots indicate aligned regions of synteny.

Figure 5. Correspondence between genotyping data and marker order in colLiv2

and Cliv_2.1 assemblies. (a) Representative plot of pairwise recombination fractions for

GBS markers, ordered based on best alignment to colLiv2 assembly, for chromosomes

CM007527.1, CM007528.1, and CM007529.1. X and Y axes show individual markers,

ordered as they map to the colLiv2 chromosomes CM007527.1, CM007528.1, and

CM007529.1. White lines mark the boundaries between chromosomes. Yellow indicates

low pairwise recombination fraction (linked markers), while purple indicates high

pairwise recombination fraction (unlinked markers). Red arrows highlight two markers,

one mapped to chromosome CM007527.1 and one mapped to CM007529.1, for which

recombination fractions suggest that these markers should instead be located on

chromosome CM007528.1. A white bracket indicates a region on chromosome

CM007528.1 where portions of the chromosome appear to be assembled in the wrong

order. (b) Plot of pairwise recombination fractions for the Cliv_2.1 scaffolds that make

up linkage groups 3, 4, and 5. In (a), colLiv2 CM007527.1 largely corresponds to linkage

group 3, CM007528.1 to linkage group 4, and CM007529.1 to linkage group 5. White

lines mark the boundaries between individual scaffolds, with scaffold IDs indicated on

the right side.

TABLES

Table 1. Assembly statistics for Cliv_2.1

Estimated Physical Coverage	389.7x
Total Length	1,108,534,737 bp
Total scaffolds	15,057
Total scaffolds >1kb	4,062
Total scaffolds >10kb	848

Table 2. Assembly version comparison

	Cliv_1.0	Cliv_2.1
Total Length	1110.8 Mb	1110.9 Mb
N50 Length	3.15 Mb and 82 scaffolds	14.3 Mb and 17 scaffolds
N90 Length	0.618 Mb and 394 scaffolds	1.56 Mb and 113 scaffolds
Completeness Estimate	72.3-86.4%	72.9-86.2%

Table 3. Transcriptome assembly summary

SRA accession	Tissue	Breed	# assembled transcripts
SRR521357	Heart	Danish tumbler	79473
SRR521358	Liver	Danish tumbler	35691
SRR521359	Heart	Oriental frill	71078
SRR521360	Liver	Oriental frill	74180
SRR521361	Heart	racing homer	80034
SRR521362	Liver	racing homer	80642
SRR5878849	Embryo	racing homer	208682
SRR5878850	Embryo	parlor roller	344735
SRR5878851	Spleen	racing homer	156415
SRR5878852	Olfactory epithelium	racing homer	112632
SRR5878853	Subepidermis	racing homer	185484
SRR5878854	Cochlear duct	racing homer	189438
SRR5878855	Brain	racing homer	131999
SRR5878856	Retina	racing homer	186060

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Table 4. Annotation statistics for Cliv_2.1

	Genes	Transcripts
Total	15,392	18,966
match[a]	14,898	18,472
new	494	494

[a] Count that match Cliv_1.0 annotations with a value of at least 90% (match is calculated as

% identity multiplied by % end-to-end coverage)

Table 5. Annotation version comparison

	Cliv_1.0	Cliv_2.1
Total Gene Models	15,724	15,392
coding	15,022	14,683
non-coding	702	709
Total Transcripts	19,585	18,966
coding	18,569	18,148
non-coding	1016	818

Table 6. Summary of Cliv_2.1 alignment to colLiv2 chromosome-level scaffolds. Overall,

colLiv2 appears to exclude 1,184, or approximately 7.7%, of the 15,392 annotated genes from the

Cliv_2.1 assembly; this is consistent with the overall decrease in genome size.

Cliv_2.1 scaffold representation	# of scaffolds	Scaffold length range	Scaffolds with genes	# of genes	Genes in LAST alignment to colLiv2	Genes missing from LAST alignment to colLiv2
Missing	14,189	200-393,647	147	164	NA	164
≤50% aligned	251	318-2,545,801	183	506	369	137
50-75% aligned	183	581-5,717,624	251	638	550	88
≥75% aligned	434	259-94,473,889	434	14,084	13,289	795

 SUPPLEMENTAL TABLES

Table S1. Positions of Cliv_1.0 scaffolds in the Cliv_2.1 scaffolds. The table has the

following format: column 1, Cliv_2.1 scaffold name; column 2, Cliv_1.0 sequence name; column

3, starting base (zero-based) of the Cliv_1.0 sequence; column 4, ending base of the Cliv_1.0

sequence; column 5, orientation of the Cliv_1.0 sequence in the Cliv_2.1 scaffold, where (-)

indicates that the Cliv_2.1 scaffold sequence is reverse complemented relative to the Cliv_1.0

assembly; column 6, starting base (zero-based) in the Cliv_2.1 scaffold; column 7, ending base in

the Cliv_2.1 scaffold.

Table S2. Positions of breaks made in the Cliv_1.0 assembly to create the Cliv_2.1

assembly. Data fields follow the same format that is used in Supplemental Table 1.

Table S3. Summary of transposable element fragments, parsed into 1 My bins based on

substitution rate

Table S4. Summary information of repeat masking, by class and by family

Table S5. Transcript count and cumulative distribution function (CDF) binned by

Annotation Edit Distance (AED) values. AED is a modified sensitivity/specificity metric used to

compare annotation datasets to each other or to aligned transcriptome and protein homology

datasets. For calculating AED, sensitivity is defined as the fraction of a given reference

overlapping a prediction and measures false negative rates. For our purposes, the prediction is a

transcript model and the reference (or truth set) is a set of aligned transcriptome and protein

homology evidence. We calculate sensitivity using the formula $SN = |p \cap r|/|r|$; where $|p \cap r|$

represents the number overlapping nucleotides between the prediction and reference, and $|r|$

represents the total number of nucleotides in the reference. Specificity is then defined as the

fraction of a prediction overlapping a given reference, and it measures false positive rates. We

calculate specificity using the formula SP = |p∩r|/|p|. We then define concordance to be the

average of sensitivity and specificity (C = (SN+SP)/2), and AED is 1 minus the concordance (AED

= 1- C). Transcript models that have high AED values then show little concordance to aligned

experimental evidence, and models with low AED values show high concordance.

Table S6. Linkage map assembled from genotype-by-sequencing markers aligned to the

Cliv_2.1 assembly, and positions of aligned markers within the Cliv_2.1, Cliv_1.0, and

colLiv2 assemblies.

Table S7. Summary of GBS markers for which best BLAST alignment to colLiv2 is

discordant with linkage data. Columns describe marker position in the linkage map, the best

BLAST hit within the colLiv2 assembly, and the marker position in the Cliv_2.1 assembly. For

each marker, the colLiv2 chromosome to which the marker appears to be linked is also indicated.