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"TRANSCRIPTOME DISCOVERY IN EMBRYONIC STEM CELLS: A POST-GENOMIC APPROACH"

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To my family, to Manuel and particularly to my parents:

I know they are proud of me.

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Abstract

Since the publication of the human and mouse genomes, several efforts have been undertaken to elucidate not only their coding gene content, but also the full catalogue of other functional non-coding elements contained within them. During my PhD I contributed to the characterization of a novel set of 8,000 genes, prevalently non-coding, and a novel set of 20,000 enhancer elements.

In order to identify novel genes within the mouse genome we used the gene trapping approach in ES cells. Embryonic stem (ES) cells are pluripotent cells with the capacity of self-renewal and the ability to differentiate into specific cell lineages. In this work was performed the first genome-wide analysis of the mouse ES cell transcriptome using 250,000 gene trap sequence tags deposited in all available public databases. We identified >8,000 novel transcripts of which a great part revealed as non-coding, and >1,000 novel alternative and often tissues specific exons of known genes. We validate experimentally 70% of the expression of these genes and exons by RT-PCR. We isolated, within the set studied, a novel non-coding transcript that showed a highly specific pattern of expression by in situ hybridization in mouse embryos. Our analysis also shows that the genome presents gene trapping hotsposts, which correnspond to 383 known and 87 novel genes. These "hypertrapped" genes show minimal overlap with previously published expression profiles of ES cells; however, we demonstrate by real time PCR that "hypertrapped" genes are highly expressed in this cell type, letting us hypothesize that these genes could potentially contribute to the phenotype of ES cells. Thus the further studies of these genes, could help enlucidate the "stemness" transcriptional profile. Although gene trapping was initially used as an insertional mutagenesis technique, our study demonstrates its impact on the discovery of a substantial and unprecedented portion of the transcriptome.

In the second part of this work we focused our attention on conserved non-coding elements acting as enhancers. Generally speaking, non-coding regions are less conserved with respect to the protein-coding regions and their underlying syntax is not as clear. Conservation in non-coding sequence across the vertebrate subphylum has been shown to be a good predictor of regions which are involved in the regulation of the expression. Thus one way of predicting whether a DNA sequence is functionally important is the comparative analysis of orthologous non-coding regions across genomes belonging to this subphylum. In particular, in this work, using a global-local alignment on orthologous loci which takes into account the positional shuffling of regulatory regions across long evolutionary distances we identified over 20,000 vertebrate conserved elements, an order of magnitude more than previously reported. We demonstrated that 72% of these elements identified have indeed undergone to shuffling during the 450 million years separating fish from mammalian organisms. Furthermore we validated their function in vivo by testing their capability to act as enhancers when injected in zebrafish embryos and we demonstrated that more than 80% of these identified elements identified indeed act as enhancers often in a tissue specific manner.

Table of contents

Acknowledgements	5
Abstract	7
Table of contents	9
List of Figures	11
List of Tables	12
Abbreviations	13
INTRODUCTION	16
Genomic features	16
The non-coding world	18
Repetitive sequences and mobile DNA sequences	19
Tandem repeats and Micro mini macro satellite repeats	20
Pseudogenes	21
Comparative genomics of non-coding sequences	
Verification of enhancer activity <i>in vivo</i>	20
Non-coding RNA genes	29
Functional genomics	30
Using the transcriptome to annotate the genome	30
How many genes?	34
Functional genomics: characterizing gene function	35
Stem Cells as a model for transcriptome characterization	50
Aims of the thesis	40
MATERIALS AND METHODS	51
RNA extraction from ES cells	51
DNase digestion	51
cDNA transcription	51
Real Time quantitative PCR	53
Agarose gel electrophoresis	54
DNA sequence analysis	54
Isolation of DNA from agarose gels	54
Cloning of the PCR products	54
In vitro transcription	55
Precipitation of RNA	56
Quality control and quantification	57
Digoxigenin in situ hybridization	57

Obtaining zebrafish embryos	58
RESULTS	61
Background	61
Novel exons within known genes	62
Identification of Novel Transcripts	65
Expression profiling of a non-coding transcript	67
Trapping of genes correlates with their expression levels	68
Verification of shuffled conserved elements in the vertebrate lineage	71
Verifying SCE function	72
DISCUSSION	87
REFERENCES	94
Publications arising from this thesis	104
APPENDIX: PRIMERS USED	105

List of Figures

Figure 1. Re-association kinetics	_ 4
Figure 2. Fractions of different sequences in the human genome	_ 4.
Figure 3. Several transcript variants generated by different alternative splicing events	_ 4
Figure 4. Schematic representation of a nested gene.	_ 4.
Figure 5. Classes of interspersed repeats in the human genome	_ 4
Figure 6. Different modes of transposition	_ 4
Figure 7. Non-coding RNA transcripts	_ 4
Figure 8.The basic trap vectors	_ 4
Figure 9. Prediction of novel exons (1172) identified on RefSeq genes.	_ 7
Figure 10. Discovery of novel exons on known RefSeq genes	_ 7
Figure 11. Prediction of 1,997 novel genes and 6,423 novel transcripts found within known gene loci	_ 7
Figure 12. Discovery of novel genes based on trapclusters.	_ 8
Figure 13. In situ hybridization of trapcluster gene TCLG1417 on E14.5 mouse	_ 8
Figure 14. Real-time RT-PCR verification of level of expression of hypertrapped genes	_ 8
Figure 15. Shuffling categories of SCEs	_ 8
Figure 16. Expression profiles of X-Gal stained embryos.	_ 8
Figure 17. Annotation of Trap Clusters.	_ 9

List of Tables

Table 1. Verification of 40 novel exons tested by RT-PCR using RNA extract from ES cells, whole E14.5	
embryo, heart, brain and eye	76
Table 2. Results of RT-PCR verifications on ES cell RNA of 50 novel transcripts predicted to exist on the	
basis of gene trap sequence tags.	79
Table 3. List of the first 50 hypertrapped genes.	82
Table 4. Analysis of X-Gal staining in zebrafish embryos co-injected with the Hsp promoter and SCEs or	
control fragments.	86

Abbreviations

Amp	ampicilline
bp	basepair
°C	degrees Celsius
cDNA	complementary DNA
CNC	conserved non-coding
CNE	conserved non-coding element
CNG	conserved non-genic
CNS(s)	conserved non-coding sequences
CNS	central nervous system
CpG islands	cytosinephosphatidiguanosine islands
DEPC	diethylpyrocarbonate
DNA	deoxyribonucleic acid
dNTP	deoxyribonucleotide triphosphate
DTT	Dithiothreitol
E14.5	embryonic developmental day 14.5
ECR(s)	evolutionarily conserved region(s)
EDTA	ethylendiaminetetraacetic acid
ENCODE	<u>En</u> cyclopedia <u>of D</u> NA <u>e</u> lements
ES	embrionic stem
EST	expressed sequence tag
GADPH	glyceraldehydes-3-phosphate dehydrogenase
GECKO	genome-wide cell-based knockout
GSS	group support system
hES	human embrionic stem
hr(s)	hour(s)
kb	kilobase
LB	Luria Broth
LINE(s)	long interspersed element(s)
LTR(s)	long terminal repeat(s)
Μ	molar
MATRICS	Mouse Annotation Teleconference for RIKEN cDNA sequences
mg	milligrams
min	minute
miRNA	microRNA
MITE(s)	miniature inverted-repeat trasposable element(s)
ml	milliliter
mm	millimeter

mM	millimolar
mRNA	messenger RNA
ncRNA	non-coding RNA
ng	nanogram
nm	nanometer
nM	nanomolar
nt(s)	nucleotide(s)
OD	optical density
ORF	open reading frame
PBS	phosphate buffered saline
PCR	polymerase chain reaction
PFA	paraphormaldehyde
polyA	polyadenilation
RACE-PCR	rapid amplification of cDNA strands
RAGE	random activation of gene expression
rCNE	regionally-conserved element
RNA	ribonucleic acid
RNase	ribonuclease
rpm	revolution per minute
RT	room temeperature
RT-PCR	reverse transcriptease-polymerase chain reaction
SA	splice acceptor
SCE(s)	shuffled conserved element(s)
SINE(s)	short interspersed element(s)
SRP	signal recognition particle
TAE	Tris-acetate-EDTA
TCL	trapcluster
TCLG	trapcluster gene
Tris	2-amino-2-(hydroxymethyl)propane-1,3-diol
TRP	transient receptor potential
TRPM	transient receptor potential membrane
TSS	transcription start site
TU	transcriptional unit
U	unit
UCE(s)	ultra conserved element(s)
UTR(s)	untranslated region(s)
UV	ultra violet
V	Volt
V	volume
W	weigth
X-gal	5-bromo-4-chloro-3-indolyl-b-D-galactosidase
ZFIN	zebrafish information network
μσ	microgram
r0	

μl	microliter
μΜ	micromolar
μm	micron

INTRODUCTION

Genomic features

The eukaryotic genome contains several levels of complexity as demonstrated by reassociation kinetics of its denatured DNA. In fact, DNA re-association occurs in three distinct phases, and each of them represents a different component (Fig. 1). Highly repetitive DNA represents 25% of the genome, DNA that is moderately repetitive represents a further 30% and 45% of the genome hosts non-repetitive DNA. The latter is known to contain coding genes as well as many other functional elements.

Functional elements of the genome can be classified further into coding and non-coding genes, pseudogenes, enhancers repressors and insulators, microRNA and many elements which probably still escape a complete understanding. Only a small portion of the genome, about the 2-3% of the mammalian genome, encodes mRNAs that encode for proteins, and the protein-coding sequence is located within large introns or intergenic regions (see Fig. 2).

The traditional genetic definition of a gene as a segment of DNA that is able to complement a mutant phenotype has become more complex in recent years, because it has become clear that the genomic sequence alone cannot be used to infer function, without taking into account a further complexity derived from alternative splicing. The set of transcripts that is derived from the genome composes the transcriptome. While in lower eukaryotic organisms the traditional paradigm of one gene, one transcript, one protein is likely to be valid for the majority of genes, in mammals it has become evident in recent years that the transcriptome introduces a further, significant, layer of complexity.

The Fantom consortium (Carnici et al., 2005) has shown clearly that individual genomic loci can produce a moltitude of overlapping transcripts. These transcripts, identified as full-length cDNAs, can be shown computationally to form clusters of overlapping sequences. A cluster of transcripts can arise from an expressed pseudogene, and an individual locus can encode clusters from both strands. This effort has shown clearly that the transcriptome is organized on the genome in complex regions, defined as transcriptional forests, which present a high complexity of sense and anti-sense, coding and non-coding transcripts.

Importantly, it has been shown that this variability is due to the fact that approximately 63% of the genome is transcribed at least from one strand (in comparison to previous findings that only the 2% of the genome is transcribed in protein coding mRNA), and that transcriptional units contains several alternative splice variants (Fig. 3), also due to the fact that many transcripts have multiple transcription start sites as well polyadenylation sites. Thus, overall, this project has clearly shown that the transcriptome is much larger and more complex than previously thought.

Coding sequences: exons

Protein-coding regions result from several coding sequences that are interrupted by stretches of non-coding sequences that are spliced out during mRNA maturation. Exons are defined as DNA sequences found in mature mRNA while introns are segments of DNA that are cut out in the final mRNA. Interestingly, some introns contain important information (such as splice enhancers and splice silencers, as well as enhancers) and

17

sometimes can even code for other completely different genes, the so called "nested genes" (see Fig. 4).

The non-coding world

For much over 50 years, the functional portion of the genome was considered to be the one that codes for proteins and, until recently, most evolutionary studies of DNA sequences have focused completely on this translated fraction. There are many theories on the origins of non-coding DNA which suggest that the bulk of these sequences is DNA debris with no meaning (Lynch et al., 2003) and invoke random accumulation of this "junk", such as the action of selfish self-replicating elements (Orgel et al., 1980).

The idea that a wide proportion of the eukaryotic genomes contain elements conserved across evolution stems from the problem known as the "c-value paradox" where "c" stands for the total amount of DNA in the haploid genome. In fact, genome size does not correlate with organism complexity: for example, the unicellular organism *Amoeba dubia* containes approximately 200 times as much DNA as humans, while humans have about 7.5 times as much as the pufferfish *Fugu rubiprens*, although this organism has a comparable number of genes (Brenner et al., 1993). Most of the variation in genome size is due to the non-coding sequences, often very simple, repeated sequences.

The mammalian genome contains the instructions for many undiscovered nonprotein coding RNA genes. About 0.5% of the human genome is represented by pseudogenes, but a large portion consists of introns and intergenic DNA. In fact, about half of the intergenic DNA consist of several type of transposons, while the remaninig non coding portion contains other elements responsible for the expression of genes,

18

structural elements responsible for chromosome function as well as remnants of evolution, all elements which constitute the non coding world or the so called "dark matter" of the genome (Hayashikizaki et al., 2006).

Despite recent elucidation of the extent of the genome which is transcribed, there are still large regions termed "gene deserts" which occupy a significant part of the genome. These are long regions which contain no transcribed sequences and without obvious biological function (Venter et al., 2001). Some studies have shown that gene deserts can contain regulatory sequences that act at a large distance to control the expression of neighboring genes (Nobrega et al., 2003; Kimura-Yoshida et al., 2004). These include *cis*-regulatory sequences that control gene expression (enhancers, insulators other boundary elements, and sequences that anchor genomic region to specific nuclear regions)(Dorsett et al., 1999; Bell et al., 2001; Carter et al., 2002) that can usually function in an orientation and often even position independent manner (Blakwood et al., 1998) influencing the activation or the specificity of a nearby promoter. In contrast, it has been demonstrated that some gene deserts do not seem to be essential to genome function since their deletion in mouse does not seem to cause a phenotype (Russel et al., 1982; Nobrega et al., 2004). Thus, further studies will be required to elucidate the role, if any, of these regions.

Repetitive sequences and mobile DNA sequences

The human genome contains also stretches of repeated non-coding elements of various length and copy of number (identical and/or similar copies). Repetitive sequences make up at least 50% of the entire human genome. They are classified by function and dispersal pattern. These repetitive sequences are called "tandem repeats" if present as a sequence motifs lying adjacent to each other in the same block, or "interspersed repeats" if the repetitive sequences are scattered along the genome as single units flanked by

unique sequence. Although their relevance as functional elements is still unclear, even if we assumed that repeated elements do not play an important functional role, a large amount of non-coding non-repetitive DNA remains to be elucidated.

Tandem repeats and Micro mini macro satellite repeats

Tandem repeats contain successive identical repeat units. This class of elements includes satellite DNA, minisatellite and microsatellite repeats; satellite sequences are quite variable in repeat size and in array size. Microsatellites are the smallest, at a repeat size of 4 bp or less. Moreover, recently macrosatellites have been discovered which are moderately repetitive and contain tandem repeats of a larger size in some cases ORFs can be as long as 4-10kb long (Gondo et al., 1998).

Whether these sequences often as short sequences as 2-3 bps and repeated as often as thousands of times, play a functional role is still unclear. Often these sequences appear to function collectively rather than individually, and their dispensability is not an indicator of non-functionality. It is noteworthy that in the genome of *Fugu rubripes*, a highly compact vertebrate genome most repeat families found in other vertebrates are present, although in very limited copy number, sometimes as small as a single copy (Aparicio et al., 2002). Satellite DNA sequences are abundant in constitutive heterocromatine. In particular they are involved preponderantly in the organization of the centromeres, the sites in which every chromosome attach to cellular tethers and are pulled during mitosis. Moreover, minisatellites are enriched in subtelomeric regions of the chromosome.

Interspersed repeats: Transposable elements

Retroelements

One of the most common classes of repeats (\sim 35% of the genome) is that of dispersed retroelements (Jurka et al., 1998). Retrotasposones can be classified into two categories: autonomous and non-autonomous (Fig. 5). While the former encode for a protein necessary for trasposition, the latter do not encode a protein. For this reason the latter need a separate protein product encoded by another trasposon to perform their trasposition. Another classification of these transposable elements is based on the mode of trasposition (Finegan et al., 1989). The "class I mobile elements" is capable to reproduce itself using an RNA intermediate which is reversed transcribed to DNA by a reverse transcriptase enzyme encoded on intact elements (Fig. 6). It has been observed that these elements require an RNA polymerase (II or III) to be transcribed into RNA and thereafter be transposed, while the original DNA copy is preserved in the same location. Short and long interspersed elements, named SINEs and LINEs respectively, represent the majority of this class of repeats and they form a group called non-LTR elements. The remaining part of this class comprises LTR trasposons, structurally similar to integrated retroviruses, and retrogenes. Finally the elements belonging to class II move by a conservative "cut and paste mechanism", which involves the excision of the donor element is followed by its insertions elsewhere in the genome (Fig. 6).

LTR retrotrasposons

LTR retrotrasposons are remnants of endogenous retroviruses which represent 8% of the genome and are usually 7-9kb long. They contain, like the proviruses, long terminal repeats (LTR), gag, pol, and prt genes with the difference that one of the

proteins responsible for the infection, the env protein, is mutated or missing. Thus, these elements can only move within cells. The human genome contains only "evolutionary fossils" of these elements which are highly mutated and are not capable of transposition any longer.

LINEs

LINEs (long interspersed nuclear elements) are autonomous retrotrasposons. These sequences represent 21% of the human genome. In particular the most abundant in humans are Alu and the LINE-1 sequences (Lander et al., 2001). LINE-1 sequences alone comprises the 17% of the genome. The basic active element, about 6 kb long, called L1 contains two open reading frames, ORF1 and ORF2, a 5'UTR, which acts also as a promoter and a 3'UTR containing a polyadenylation signal. It is known that ORF2 is responsible for integration in the genome and that it contains an endonuclease domain as well as a reverse transcriptase domain. The function of the product of ORF1 is still unclear, it is only known that it binds to L1 mRNA. After the L1 mRNA transcription, it is transported in the cytoplasm, thus ORF1 is translated. The translation, then, is restarted to an internal ribosome entry site to translate ORF2. This process in eukaryotes occurs rarely so that only a little portion of L1 has its ORF2. Both proteins binds L1 and this complex is traslocated into the nucleus. The ORF2 acts by cutting the DNA at the target site. This process is not particularly specific, but occurs preferentially for AT rich sequences. This cut occurs unequally and generates sticky ends; thus the free 3'OH group is used by the reverse transcriptase encoded by ORF2 for the synthesis of the first cDNA strand. The mechanism of synthesis of the second cDNA strand is still unknown, but it is known that the end result is a stable integration of a double stranded L1 DNA in a new location within the genome. Thus LINEs can be considered vectors for DNA shuffling thus contributing to DNA relocation events of small fragments (such as exons and enhancers) within the genome. The L1 element is flanked by target sites for duplication which span 7-20 bps. Owing to the fact that the reverse trascriptase does not always finish transcription of the first strand, the newly formed copy is often truncated at the 5' end. Moreover, the lacking of the proofreading activity in the process leads to the introduction of several mutations within the new copy.

SINEs

SINEs (short interspersed nuclear elements) do not encode for any protein and tipically their length is shorter than 500bp. Among them the Alu elements (which derive their name derived form the identification of AluI restriction sites) represent about 11% of the human genome. These elements share a consensus of about 282bp that derives presumably from the SRP (signal recognition particle) RNA subunit (7SL RNA). Alus are transcribed by the RNA Pol III, the same enzyme which transcribes the 7SL RNA gene. Morever, Alus are capable to bind two SRP proteins (SRP9 and SRP14). It has been suggested, therefore, that Alus can bind to the ribosome machinery and that through their polyA tails they might bind nascent ORF2 proteins from LINE1 RNAs and force these proteins to induce the reverse transcription and integration of their RNA rather than LINE-1 mRNA.

Repeats may be also be responsible for epigenetic control mechanisms, or other modifications of gene activity, based on modifications of the DNA itself rather than its sequence. It has been hypothesized, for example, that a repeat-induced process involving L1 retroelements might be responsible for the X-inactivation, a process necessary to

23

maintain proper gene dosage in females who have two X-chromosomes (Neumann et al., 1995).

It can happen very rarely that a conventional cellular mRNA is subjected to reverse transcription and transposition from an enzyme deriving from L1 or other retrotrasposons in which case the gene undergoes duplication. The new copy of the gene in this case will lack of its promoter region as well as its introns, and thus in most cases will lose its function, becoming a "processed pseudogene". Processed pseudogenes are distinct from "ordinary" pseudogenes which instead derive from a duplication event of a whole genomic portion, and thus maintain their original gene structure comprising exons, introns, promoters and so on. Sometimes insertions can occur during this process disrupting the original function of the gene and causing a genetic disease.

Elements encoding Transposase

These elements belong to class II and comprise inverted repeats (10-500 bp) at their termini and encode trasposase which catalyzes trasposition. Following excision they shift elsewhere in the genome where they insert by a non-replicative mechanism. It has been shown that the human genome contains sequences originated from more than 60 different DNA transposons.

MITEs

MITEs (miniature inverted-repeat transposable elements) constitute another group of mobile elements (Feshotte et al., 2002). They have short terminal inverted repeats, and their length is comprised between 125-500 bp. They were firstly identified in plants, and subsequently observed in mosquito, zebrafish and human (Dufresne et al., 2007). Their mechanism of transposition is still unknown, but they do not appear to be autonomous. MITEs appear to be preferentially associated with genes and thus might play a significant role in generating genetic variation (Dufresne et al., 2007).

Effects of repetitive elements on gene expression

Mobile elements and repetitive elements can alter the structure of the genome and can regulate gene expression of the genome in several ways. Firstly, as previously described, transposition may disrupt functional genes. Many transposable elements have a constitutive promoter that can drive an inappropriately expression of a gene downstream. On the other hand if the promoter of the transposable element is opposite with respect to a neighbouring gene, it can initiate transcription of an RNA transcript which is complementary to the gene mRNA, and thus disrupt the endogenous expression of the gene via antisense RNA mediated silencing.

Pseudogenes

Pseudogenes belong to the set of non-coding transcripts which are less likely to have a biological role (Cheng et al., 2005; Carnici et al., 2005). The cDNA collection obtained by FANTOM3 contains several transcripts that seem to encode for proteins, but which contain a few mutations disrupting the ORF, which could be considered pseudogenes. The definition of pseudogenes has been modified over time. Initially pseudogenes were considered genomic sequences which resemble functional genes, but which for some reason have been inactivated. As noted earlier, some derive from the insertion of mobile elements within open reading frames (ORFs) of functional genes, while others are the result of "processed genes", i.e. the sequence indicates that probably a retrotranscription event has taken place (with RNA being used as a template to make DNA) and has resulted in the re-integration of the generated DNA within the genome. While the common view is that most pseudogenes do not perform a clear biological function but are, rather, evolutionary fossils, recent findings indicate that some are clearly functional (Hirotsune et al., 2003; Zheng et al., 2005), by binding transcription factors and impeding them from being involved in the activation of gene expression.

Comparative genomics of non coding sequences

One of the aims of genomics is try to understand how genomes are organized and in particular which sequences are involved in the complex mechanisms involved in the regulation of gene expression. The sequencing of a large number of genomes, in particular within the chordate subphylum, has lead to the utilization of comparative genomics techniques. The basic principle of comparative genomics is that of identifying portions of the genome whose sequence has changed significantly less than expected during evolution, indicating potential functional constraints and thus enabling us to distinguish potentially functional non-coding DNA from junk DNA. Generally speaking non-coding regions are less conserved than protein-coding genes. However, the first large scale comparative genomics analysis, which was done when the first draft of the mouse genome had become available, showed clearly that protein-coding sequences only account for approximately a fifth of the total amount the genome which is subject to purifying selection (International Mouse Genome Consortium, 2002), thus implying that a relatively relatively large amount of non-coding DNA is likely to be functional. These segments of highly conserved elements are usually embedded among large dissimilar segments producing a mosaic picture of genomic conservation.

Studies of small genomic regions had demonstrated the possibility to identify putative genes as well as regulatory elements looking at cross-species conservation already prior

26

to the first drafts of entire genomes (O'Brien et al., 1999; Ansari-Lari et al., 1998). Comparative analysis between mouse and human genomes suggested that 5% of genomic DNA is under active selection which is likely to be associated with a functional role (Waterson et al., 2002). Many of these conserved regions correspond to protein coding exons, while the remaining sequences, generally called "conserved non-genic sequences" (CNG) or "conserved non-coding sequences" (CNS) (Hardison et al., 2000) seem to be involved in important regulatory activities (Dermitzakis et al., 2006). The latter constitute a significant portion of non-coding DNA and have become the focus of deeper investigations recently. Intriguingly it has been shown that CNSs represent only a subset of regulatory elements and at the same time only a subset of them are regulatory elements (Nobrega et al., 2003). In fact, only a fraction of these sequences can be associated with transcriptional regulation, such as enhancers (Nobrega et al., 2003; Bejerano et al., 2004), while it is not clear whether the rest of them bear a biological function. Supporting the notion that not all of these are directly related to the regulation of transcription of specific genes, it has also been observed that they are scattered along the genome independently of gene density (Dermitzakis et al., 2004; Dermitzakis et al., 2005).

Evolutionarily conserved regions (ECRs) are found both in coding and non-coding regions and have been identified computationally comparing two mammalian genomes such as mouse and human and using a window of length 70-100 bp and a threshold of percentage identity ranging from 70% conservation (Loots et al., 2000; Dermitzakis et al., 2003) to complete identity. Comparisons of the human genome against the genomes of distantly related vertebrates, moreover, have revealed an abundance of highly conserved non-coding elements (CNEs) (Boffelli et al., 2005; McEwen et al., 2006). Interestingly, a

27

property of human CNEs is that they cluster in genomic regions containing transcription factors and genes involved in the regulation of development (Bejerano et al., 2004; Woolfe et al., 2005; Vavuri et al., 2006).

Although non coding sequences generally lack sequence conservation among divergent species (Thomas et al., 2003), comparisons between human and the Japanese pufferfish (*Fugu rubripens*) show that those non-coding elements which do present significant sequence conservation often also play a role *in vivo* (Marshall et al., 1994; Rowich et al., 1998; Kammandel et al., 1999; Bagheri-Fam et al., 2001; Ghanem et al., 2003; Lettice et al., 2003; Nobrega et al., 2003; Santagati et al., 2003; Spitz et al., 2003; Kimura-Yoshida et al., 2004). The common ancestor shared by both *Fugu* and human lived about 450 million years ago (Kumar et al., 1998), implying that sequences which show significant conservation between these two species, including non-coding sequences, are highly likely to play a role in vertebrate life.

Verification of enhancer activity in vivo

A general strategy to test whether non-coding regulatory sequences are functionally relevant involves assaying their ability to up-regulate (or down-regulate) reporter genes *in vivo*. "Enhancer" assays using transgenic animals, especially in the case of transgenic mice, are very slow, costly and laborious, but have so far been one of the main sources of data on the function of non-coding DNA around, in particular for developmental genes (Nobrega et al., 2003, Pennacchio et al., 2006). In recent years an alternative approach has emerged, which has proven to be very useful to tackle this issue, which uses transient expression assays in zebrafish (*Brachidanio rerio*) embryos obtained by co-injection the candidate enhancer sequence with a promoter/reporter construct in the fish (Muller et al., 1997; Muller et al., 1999; Dikmeis et al., 2004). The zebrafish model presents on the one

hand a divergent genome suitable, although challenging, for comparative genomics analysis and on the other hand it is an extremely tractable experimental system. The experimental advantages are represented by the fact that a large number of fertilized eggs are available and easily modified by micro-injection, that the developing embryos are transparent and contain many easily identifiable cells, and finally that the detailed anatomical, physiological and developmental properties are known for many of these cells. Although the pattern obtained in this transient expression assays are mosaic, it is feasible to screen hundreds of individuals embryos at the same time, thus collating mosaic patterns into a final compound image.

Non-coding RNA genes

For several years molecular biology was based on the central dogma that stated that genetic information stored in DNA is transferred into RNA through transcription and is then finally decoded by translation of RNA into proteins. In this view RNA molecules played a passive role of mere messengers. Today it is well established that RNAs can play much more active roles within a cell and that several classes of RNA molecules exist which serve a function without encoding a protein message (Fig 7). RNAs can be thus divided into two main classes: messenger RNAs which are destined to be translated into proteins, and non-coding RNA (ncRNA), many of which are not well characterized yet, but which can be broadly classified as such because they generally do not encode for a protein. Non-coding RNA (ncRNA) transcripts are can play a multitude of roles, have their own structure and act as regulatory and/or catalytic molecules. Although the FANTOM3 project estimated that at least about 28,000 ncRNAs exist in mouse (Liu et al., 2006) the total number of ncRNA genes present in the mammalian genome is far from clear, let alone their function. It has been observed that a large portion of ncRNA transcripts have introns (Ota et al., 2004), which raises the possibility that the primary transcript could be inactive and the subsequent cleavage and splicing maybe required to generate an active RNA molecule. The nature of these molecules is quite variable (small or multicopy), and their conservation across genomes is rather poor, thus it is complex to detect them and annotate them appropriately. The size of ncRNA molecules is also extremely variable from some as small as 22-25 nucleotides (which is the case for miRNAs) to thousands of nucleotides (such as ncRNA involved in silencing) (Hutvagner et al., 2002). The processes in which they have been shown to be involved are wide, from transcriptional and post-translational regulation, to chromosome replication, mRNA stability, protein degradation and so on (Hutvagner et al., 2002; Brandl et al., 2002). Thus it is an entire new world, likely to be at least as complex as that of proteins, which awaits to be discovered.

Functional genomics

Using the transcriptome to annotate the genome

Once the sequence of several mammalian genomes was completed unitil annotation tasks focused on the annotation of genes within the sequence, initially relying on mapping protein and cDNA sequences of known genes (which had be cloned in the past 50 years individually) and cDNA or EST sequences, as well as any other genes which could be predicted either by sequence similarity (for orthologs and paralogs in particular) or by *ab initio* gene prediction, which is based largely on the basic properties of coding genes (such as 3rd codon position degeneracy, ORF detection and hexamer statistics). As genome annotation developed so did genome browsers such as Ensembl (http://www.ensembl.org/), the UCSC genome browser at the University of California at Santa Cruz (http//: genome.ucsc.edu), as well as the browser present at the National Center for Biothechnology information (http//: www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov). These browsers are user friendly and allow users to scroll along the chromosome and zoom in or out to any scale, and display information at several levels of detail.

Although these initial approaches were incredibly useful to provide a first annotation "map" of the genome (and they are still valid and utilized now) it quickly became apparent that a good annotation was heavily reliant on the datasets that were used to produce it and thus strong efforts were put in place to produce larger and more diverse datasets exploring the full functional potential of the genome.

One of the widely tackled issue in an attempt to provide deeper functional annotation of the genome was that of characterizing comprehensively the transcriptome. The first approach which had a deep impact in this sense was the high throughput sequencing of cDNA ends (ESTs). The UniGene project (<u>http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/UniGene</u>) for example, assembled into clusters all available EST sequences creating a public database which, on the one hand was integrated in genome annotation pipelines, and on the other hand became a resource in its own right which can provide information, for example, on the relative tissue distribution of each cluster, yielding hints on the potential expression of a novel gene. An inherent disadvantage of this method is represented by the fact that while abundant transcripts have been sequenced thousands of times, many rare transcripts are completely absent from these EST databases, in particular those which are expressed only in very specific cell types, and are therefore very rare in whole tissue/organ libraries.

A similar approach has been developed based on the isolation and the sequencing of full-length cDNAs. The RIKEN Mouse Gene Encyclopedia Project, amongst others, has adopted this approach in a systematic manner providing a comprehensive dataset for the eukaryotic transcriptome. The RIKEN group used several complementary techniques to produce full-length cDNAs (Carnici et al., 2003). These techniques required (1) a novel reverse transcriptase reaction, (2) a novel 5'capture technology, (3) novel approaches to normalize and subtract cDNA libraries. Furthermore in order to fully annotate all the collected cDNAs, as well as to perform in-depth follow-up studies on the dataset an international consortium called FANTOM was put together. Initially, the consortium produced the FANTOM1 collection comprising about 21.076 cDNAs, and developed a simple web-based annotation interface for this dataset (Kawai et al., 2001). Already within the first collection it was observed that there was some redundancy in the set of cDNAs obtained (i.e. some clones were picked with different, but overlapping sequences). One of the causes identified was the high level of 3' end variation (due to alternative polyadenilation/termination signals) in mammalian mRNAs. In this first round of the project a large number of clones remained "unclassified" because their annotation was not very clear at the time (due to the lack of an ORF, etc). The project was thus extended to shed further light on the data obtained. During Fantom2 an interface was created that became an all-online annotation system from remote sites via the Internet, through the "Mouse Annotation Teleconference for RIKEN cDNAs Sequences" (MATRICS). In this way, the knowledge of the mouse transcriptome was considerably extended, however the cDNAs collected still covered only half of all the genes predicted in the genome. Finally the collection was expanded utilizing a much larger number of tissues and cell lines as RNA sources in the third round of the project, Fantom3. Fantom3 was a major turning point for the project, as it became apparent that approximately half of the genome is transcribed into non coding transcripts, and that the genome is organized into transcriptional forests (TFs) comprising a multitude of coding and non-coding, sense and antisense transcriptional units (TU) and transcriptional deserts, which lack any evidence of transcription (Carnici et al, 2005).

Interestingly, FANTOM3 also deployed several techniques complementary to the mere identification of full-length cDNAs, such as CAGE, a technique aimed at obtaining the first 20 nucleotides of all transcripts screened, which are then concatenated, much like in SAGE, and sequenced, thus enabling fast and cheap sequencing of a very large number of transcription start sites, yielding novel information on the usage and frequency of transcription start sites in the mammalian transcriptome. This and other complementary techniques used in Fantom3 clearly demonstrated that both transcriptional start sites (TSSs) and transcriptional termination sites exceeded the number of Transcriptional Units identified, thus underlining that the usage of alternative start and termination sites is yet another form of complexity embedded in the mammalian genome, despite the fact that the number of genes is that is very similar across vertebrates.

The data obtained in recent years on transcriptional start sites allowed the development of novel algorithms aimed at transcription start site detection, such as EPONINE, a program which aims to predict the exact location of the transcriptional start site (TSSs) (Down et al., 2002) for a subset of genes. The TSS model utilized corresponds to the observation that promoters are often associated to CpG islands, as well

as specific motifs such as the TATAAA motif tightly distributed at position -30 relative to the transcription start site.

As described earlier, it is now clear that a large part of the genome bears functional elements that escape the well-known rules of protein coding genes and often also those of transcription as a whole. Thus a recent project was developed to tackle this specific question, the ENCODE (Encyclopedia of DNA Elements) Pilot Project (The ENCODE Project Consortium 2004, 2007). The aim of the project is the mapping of all the varieties of features present in the genome, such as genes, promoters, enhancers, silencers or repressors, exons, replication origins and termination sites, as well as chromatin modifications, methylation sites, conserved sequences, etc. The ENCODE project provided the identification of novel TSSs as well as the arrangement of regulatory sequences and binding sites for transcription factors around TSSs (Denoeud et al., 2007, Trinklein et al., 2007; Xi et al., 2007; Zhang et al., 2007).

How many genes?

Although the sequence of the human genome can be considered virtually complete, several debates have developed on the definitive catalogue of the genes that it contains. In fact, the rapid completion and the public release of the mouse and human genomes has led to a decrease of the number of genes predicted in the mammalian genome (Waterson et al., 2002). The Human Genome Sequencing Consortium estimates that the actual number of human genes is comprised between 20,000 and 25,000, strikingly lower than the early estimates of far more than 30,000 (Lander et al., 2001). For a long time the total number of genes has been a matter of debate; early estimates ranged from 28,000 to 120,000 genes, based on expressed sequence tag (EST) clustering (Ewing et al., 2000; Liang et al., 2000). Today, thanks in part also to the Fantom3 project these large

INTRODUCTION

discrepancies have been understood to arise from the distinction between loci (which are approximately 20,000) and the transcriptional forests contained within them (which contain over 100,000 transcripts), and the overall complexity attributed to coding and non-coding transcripts, alternative splicing, alternative transcription start sites, etc. Before a large number of full-length cDNA sequences became available, each appeared as a distinct entity, rather than as a part of a complex transcriptional forest, thus impacting erroneously gene counts.

Functional genomics: characterizing gene function

The massive increase in sequencing projects allowed to rapidly expand the realm of both cDNA and genomic DNA information. It quickly created a gap, however, between the rapid discovery of genes and the slow process of actually identifying their function both within a physiological as well as, importantly, a pathological context. Thus, it became crucial to tackle this information gap and, to this end, scientists developed novel functional genomics strategies to develop experiments designed to discover and characterize the function of novel genes in a reasonably high throughput manner.

Several strategies were thus devised to identify, isolate and characterize genes by disrupting their function and observing the phenotypes induced. Some of the techniques developed are enhancer and promoter traps (Friedrich et al, 1991), gene traps, random activation of gene expression experiments (RAGE) as well as genome-wide cell-based knockout (GECKO). Finally, owing to gene-targeting techniques, transgenic mice have also proven crucial for the understanding and evaluation of gene function as well as to develop models of human disease based on specific single or multiple gene knock-outs.

Gene trapping

High-throughput gene trapping is a random approach for inducing insertional mutations within the genome; in recent years, this technique has become very important to study development exploiting the use of embryonic stem (ES) cells in vitro and *in vivo*. The principle behind gene trapping is essentially the random insertion of a DNA vector designed so that if the insertion happens within an existing gene locus its activation is detected via a reporter gene embedded in the vector. Gene trap vectors simultaneously inactivate and report the expression of the trapped gene at the insertion site, as well as providing a DNA tag for the rapid identification of the disrupted gene.

Three main types of entrapment vectors have been described: (1) enhancer trap vectors, which have to be integrated near an endogenous enhancer in order to activate the reporter gene that is fused to a minimal promoter (Bellen et al., 1996) (2) gene trap vectors, which need to integrate within an already actively transcribed gene in order to work and (3) promoter trap vectors which also need to integrated within an existing gene, but since the vector bears also a promoter, the gene does not necessarily need to be active. The principal element of all gene trapping vectors is a gene trapping cassette consisting of a reporter gene and/or a selectable marker gene flanked by an upstream 3' splice site (splice acceptor (SA)) and a downstream transcriptional termination sequence (polyadenylation sequence (polyA)). When inserted within the intron of an expressed gene, the gene trap cassette is transcribed from the endogenous promoter in the form of a fusion transcript in which the exon(s) upstream of the insertion site is spliced with the reporter/selectable marker gene. Since transcription is terminated prematurely at the polyadenylation site contained within the vector, the processed fusion transcript encodes a truncated and non-functional version of the cellular protein as well as the
reporter/selectable marker (Stanford et al, 2001). When gene traps are introduced into ES cells, they integrate more or less randomly across the genome, although some preferential trapping events are known to occur (Durick et al, 1999; Skarnes et al, 1992; Skarnes et al, 1995; Von Melchner et al, 1992). Antibiotic resistant ES cell colonies are easily selected and expanded in vitro, and clonal cells can be isolated for injection into mouse blastocysts or differentiation in vitro. Expression of the gene trap is assayed for reporter gene expression (e.g. β -galactosidase activity), and staining is indicative of an insertion event. The transgene is only activated when it integrates correctly within a transcriptional unit; however it is known that some translation fusions (frameshifts) inactivate the reporter activity or may target the translated proteins into subcellular location where reporter activity is not easily detectable.

The possibility of developing mice derived from these "trapped" ES cell lines have permitted the identification of many novel developmentally regulated genes with specific spatio-temporal expression patterns as well as a better characterization of known genes. By selecting for the activation of the reporter gene in cell culture, the rate of gene disruption in recovered clones approaches 100%, and the random insertion of exogenous DNA into single sites in mammalian genome (gene trapping) provides a genome-wide strategy for functional genomics. ES cell cultures thus provide a simple model system for studying the genetic pathways that regulate embryonic tissue development and permit high-through-put screening of clones for tissue restricted gene trap expression (Bonaldo et al, 1998).

Stem Cells as a model for transcriptome characterization

Embryonic stem cells can be maintained in culture as totipotent cells (i.e. cells that can give rise to all type of cell lineages) under appropriate growth conditions and can be easily genetically altered. ES cells are one of the richest sources of transcriptional diversity; in fact they are known to express (at low levels) the majority (60%) of known genes, probably in relation to their pluripotent state, as though many genes were ready to be upregulated depending on which differentiation stage is undertaken. On the other hand these cells are also known to have a set of genes expressed at significant levels which are likely to be responsible for their "stemness" phenotype. The recent advances made by Fantom3, furthermore suggest that probably many other unique transcripts, either entirely novel, or derived from splice variants of known ones, are likely to be also involved and probably remain to be identified.

It is worth noting also that although the sequence tags obtained from trapping experiments in ES cells are similar in quality to ESTs (i.e. short, single pass, low quality reads of sequence in most cases much shorter than the transcript they are derived from), they are quite different in nature. ESTs derive from cDNAs and have therefore specific biases attached to the method utilized to obtain them. For example they are usually only 5' and 3' ends of full-length transcripts, and their detection is highly dependent on transcriptional levels. Sequence tags derived from gene trapping experiments are only in part dependent on transcriptional levels (since some vector are able to trap genes that are not expressed in ES cells), and derive directly from a genomic integration of the vector. Interestingly, several preferred integration sites, or "hot spots" have been observed (Hansen et al., 2003). Moreover, it has been demonstrated that these gene trap hot spots

are not sequence specific and are not related to gene size, suggesting that they are defined by secondary chromatin structure (Hansen et al., 2003).

Bioinformatics-based approaches have accelerated the evaluation of mutant clones (originated by gene trap, RAGE and GECKO experiments) leading to the rapid identification of informative cell lines on an unprecedented scale. The combination of this resource with other large-scale approaches including bioinformatics, expression profiling and in situ hybridizations just to name a few, is a powerful tool which enables to quickly provide some hypothesis with regards to the specific biological process or disease state with which a novel gene might be associated, thus providing a clue for further testing. For example, a sequence tagged gene-trap library of > 270,000 mouse ES cell clones has recently been developed and has been employed together with a functional screen of knock-out mice to identify genes regulating blood pressure (Friedel et al., 2005) (e.g., http://baygenomics.ucsf.edu/overview/welcome.html). Efforts are also underway to make ES cell lines with gene traps freely available for researchers so that transgenic mice containing a potential gene of interest can be made to further understand the role of specific genes in development and disease (Skarnes et al., 2004).

Aims of the thesis

The completion of the sequencing and annotation of the mouse genome (Waterson et al., 2002) suggested that the understanding of the number and the function of most genes in the genome would be accomplished swiftly. Recently the FANTOM Consortium has demonstrated quite evidently that the annotation of the genome is far from being completed. Quite on the contrary Fantom has demonstrated that the genome is organized into transcriptional forests, that present a complex array of sense and anti-sense, coding and non-coding transcripts (Carnici et al., 2005) and that we only begin to understand the multi-dimensional complexity which is overlaid on the mono-dimensional layer of DNA sequence.

In our study we have used data derived from a gene trapping approach in mouse ES cells to re-annotate the mouse genome as well as shed light on gene trapping hot spots. Stem cells express a large number of transcripts at low levels, which are "dormant" ready to be activated upon differentiation. They also express a set of genes, some of which have still unknown function, at significant levels, likely to be involved in maintaining the "stemness" state (Boheler et al., 2003). Althrough gene trapping is not a novel resource, it has not been used extensively in the context of genome annotation, and with this work we demonstrate that it is indeed a very significant source of data to identify novel novel features of the mouse genome as well as to characterize further the genes involved in the "stemness" phenotype.

In the second part of this work we investigated the function of specific non coding elements that shows a conservation across divergent organism. We found that the majority of these elements undergo shuffling across evolution (thus they were called shuffled conserved elements, SCEs) and we prove that the majority of them act successfully as enhancers *in vivo*.



Figure 1. Re-association kinetics.



Figure 2. Fractions of different sequences in the human genome.



Figure 3. Several transcript variants generated by different alternative splicing events.



Figure 4. Schematic representation of a nested gene.

The gene is in the same direction of the gene X but is completely contained within its introns.



Figure 5. Classes of interspersed repeats in the human genome.

Blue rectangle: promoter; red block: LTR (long terminal repeat); triangle: short terminal repeat.



Figure 6. Different modes of transposition.

The class I mobile elements (non-LTR elements) uses an RNA intermediate to reproduce itself (shown on the left panel). The class II mobile elements move by a conservative "cut and paste" mechanism (shown on the right panel).



Figure 7. Non-coding RNA transcripts.

Micro RNAs and antisense RNAs are underestimated. Other non-coding RNAs are not present. (Taken from Human Molecular Genetics 3/e).



Figure 8. The basic trap vectors.

Enhancer-, gene-, and promoter-trap vectors contain a LacZ reporter gene and a neomycin resistance gene (neo) that is driven by an autonomous promoter, are shown trapping an endogenous gene "X". Integration of the trap vectors into the ES cell genome will lead to neomycin selection whether the insertion has occurred inter or intragenically. A) The enhancer trap vector contains a truncated heat-shock inducible

minimum(hsp68)promoter upstream of LacZ. The insertion of the vector close to the enhancer of the gene X will lead to the transcription and translation of the LacZ reporter when the enhancer of gene X is activated. B) The pGT4.5gene-trap vector contains a splice acceptor (SA) site immediately upstream of a promoter less LacZ gene. Its integration in an intron leads to a fusion transcript generated from the upstream exon of gene X and LacZ upon transcriptional activation of gene X. C) The promoter-trap vector needs to be inserted into the coding sequence of gene X to activate transcription of the LacZ. On activation of gene X, a fusion transcript and protein between the upstream gene X sequence and LacZ will be generated.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

RNA extraction from ES cells

RNA was extracted from ES cells using the Trizol reagent (Invitrogen). Cells were plated on 100 mm dishes. 48hrs later cells were washed with PBS. After washing the cells were resuspended in 1 ml Trizol reagent. The samples were maintained at room temperature for 3 minutes. 0.2ml of chloroform/ml Trio, were added, the samples were mixed gently, and they were maintained for 10 minutes at room temperature. The resulting solution was centrifuged at 14,000 rpm for 15 minutes at 4°C. The supernatant was discarded and the pellets were washed with 1 ml 75% ethanol. After washing the samples were air dried for about 10 minutes. The pellets were than resuspended in proper amount of DEPC treated water.

DNase digestion

The RNA samples were treated with 10 U DNase I (Ambion) per ml RNA sample at 37°C for 30 minutes. The digested samples were treated with a DNase. RNA was then checked on 0.8% agarose gel and quantified by measuring the absorbance at 260 nm. An absorbance of 1 unit at 260 nm corresponds to 40 μ g of RNA per μ l.

cDNA transcription

cDNA synthesis was performed using the SuperScriptTM First-Strand Synthesis System for RT-PCR (Invitrogen). cDNA syntesis was performed using random hexamers as follows:

RNA 1µg

Random hexamers 0,5µl

10mM dNTP mix 1 µl

DEPC-treated water to 10 µl

Each sample was incubated at 65°C for 5 min and incubated on ice for 1 min.

Then 9 ml of the following reaction mixture were added to each sample:

10X RT buffer2 μl25mM MgCl24 μl0.1M DTT2 μlRNase inhibitor1 μl

Samples were incubated at 25 °C for 2 min, and then 1 ml of SuperscriptTM II RT was added to each tube. Samples were then treated as follows:

42°C for 50 min

70°C for 15 min

Samples were then chilled on ice and treated with 1 ml of RNaseH at 37 °C for 20 min.

The cDNA synthesized in this manner was used as template in PCR experiments.

The PCR mixture was prepared as follows:

- Buffer10X 5µl
- MgCl₂ 25 mM 3μ l
- dNTPs 5 mM 2µl
- Primer Fw 10 µM 2µl
- Primer Rv 10 µM 2µl
- Takara la Taq (~ 5 U) $0,4 \ \mu l$

RNA (50 ng – 100 ng)

Add sterile H_2O to a final volume of 50µl.

Program

65 °C for 10 min
95 °C for 1min
58 °C for 1min
72 °C for 1min

repeat for 35 cycles steps from 2 to 4.

5. 72 °C for 7min

6. 42 °C for 60min

7. 70 °C for 15min.

Analyse the PCR product by gel electrophoresys.

Real Time quantitative PCR

A 2x PCR supermix from Bio-Rad (iQTM SYBR[®] Green supermix) containing Taq DNA polymerase (iTaqTM polymerase), MgCl2, dNTPs, SYBR[®] Green, and fluorescein was used. Primers were added to the reaction mix at a final concentration of 400 nM. 1 micro g of total RNA purified from ES cells and DNase digested was reverse transcribed as previously described. The cDNA was added at a dilution of 1:3. For each sample, three distinct amplifications were carried out in parallel. The real-time quantitative RT-PCR was performed using an iCycler iQ system (BioRad). Cycling conditions were: 3 min at 95° followed by 40 cycles of 10 sec at 95°, 30 sec at 60° and 45 sec at 72°. The fluorescence data used for quantization were collected at the end of each 72°C step, and the treshold cycle (ct) was automatically determined using the accompanying iCycler iQ software by calculating the second derivative of each trace and looking for the point at maximum curvature. GAPDH was used as a reference gene.

Agarose gel electrophoresis

Agarose gels (1 % w/v in TAE; 40 mM Tris-acetate pH 7.5, 2 mM EDTA) were prepared and supplemented with ethidium bromide (ca. 1 μ g/ml). The percentage of agarose in gels was determined depending on the size of the DNA fragments to be resolved. Gels were generally run at 120 V in 1x TAE buffer, and DNA was visualised on a UV transilluminator.

DNA sequence analysis

For DNA sequence analysis, 100 ng of the PCR products were air dried and sent for sequencing.

Isolation of DNA from agarose gels

Following agarose gel electrophoresis, DNA gel slices were excised under UV light. DNA was extracted from these gel slices using Qiaquick columns (Qiagen) following the gel extraction protocol supplied by the manufacturer. Purified DNA was eluted from the columns using 30-50 µl of deionized water.

Cloning of the PCR products

2ml of the PCR product was added at the following mixture:

1ml of TOPO salt solution

0.25 ml TOPO vector

2.75 ml sterile water

The mixture was incubated for 30 minutes at room temperature. During this step an aliquote of competent XL1 blue bacteria (strain suitable for blue/white screening) was thawed on ice. The TOPO ligation was chilled on ice for 5 minutes, then 4 μ l of this

ligation was transformed by heat shock into competent cells. The transformation was

spread on to LB + amp plate.

In vitro transcriptionMaterials

- DNA template (purified PCR product or linearized plasmid)
- DIG RNA Labelling Mix (Roche)
- Ribonuclease inhibitor (Fermentas)
- RNA polymerases

Sp6 (New England Biolabs)

T7 (New England Biolabs)

T3 (Stratagene)

- 10x transcription buffer (supplied with the RNA polymerase enzyme)
- DNase I, RNase-free (Roche)
- 1.5ml safe-lock, RNase-, DNase-, ATPase-free microtubes (Eppendorf

Biopur)

- 0.3M MgCl₂ (it is practical to prepare a 3M stock solution and dilute 1:10

before using)

- 4M NH₄Ac, autoclaved (keep at -20° C)
- 100% Ethanol (keep at -20° C)
- 70% Ethanol (keep at -20° C)
- DEPC-treated water

In vitro transcription

The following mixture was prepared per reaction:

 $20 \ \mu l \ of \ DEPC$ treated water

2 µl of 10x transcription buffer

2 µl of 10x DIG RNA labelling mix

1 µl RNase inhibitor

1 µl RNA polymerase (T7 or SP6)

1µg of linearized DNA plasmid.

Samples were incubated at 37°C for 2.5 hrs. In the meantime, the Stop Solution was prepared as follows:

16.4 µl of DEPC-treated water

1.6 µl of MgCl₂ (0.3 M)

2.0 μ l of DNase I (10 U/ μ l)

1µl Stop Solution was added per reaction. This aids to stop the IVT and remove the DNA template.

Samples were incubated at 37°C for 15 min.

Precipitation of RNA

To precipitate the RNA 72 μ l ice-cold NH₄Ac (4 M, autoclaved) and 470 μ l ice-cold 100% EtOH were added.

Samples were placed at -80° C for 20 min, than centrifuged at max. speed in a table-top microcentrifuge (e.g. 13,000 rpm) at 4°C for 20 min. Supernatant was removed carefully making sure not to disturb the pellet. The pellet was washed with 640 µl 70% EtOH, then centrifuged at maximum speed at 4°C for 20 min. Then the supernatant was removed carefully. The pellet was dried in a vacuum centrifuge for approx. 6 min to eliminate ethanol residue which may interfere in later reactions.

The pellet was re-suspended with 22 μ l DEPC- H₂O shaking (in horizontal shaker) at 1150 rpm for 15 min (room temperature).

Quality control and quantification

Samples were checked on a 1% agarose gel. 1 μ l riboprobe was added at 4.0 μ l DEPC-H₂O and denatured for 5 min at 70°C.

The samples were chilled on ice for 3 min, and 1 μ l 6x loading buffer was added to each sample. Then samples were loaded on a 1% agarose gel and an electrophoresis was run. 1 μ l of probe was diluted 1:100 (in Tris-buffer) and its concentration was determined using a spectrophotometer (A_{260/280}).

 $[ng/\mu l] = (A_{260})x(dilution factor)x(40)$. Concentrations between $500 - 850ng/\mu l$ are usual.

Prior to using for *in-situ* hybridization, riboprobes are further diluted to a concentration of

 $30 \text{ ng/}\mu\text{l}$ in hybridization-mix and stored at -20°C for a maximum of 2 months.

Digoxigenin in situ hybridization

Preparation of tissues:

Wash the embryos in cold PBS, then transfer to fresh 4% paraformaldehyde/PBS at 4°C over night. Then transfer to 30% sucrose /PBS until they reach the bottom of the solution. Transfer embryos to a mixture of 30% sucrose/PBS and OCT at a 1:1 ratio agitating gently for 2 hrs at RT. Trasfer embryos to chilled OCT and freeze on dry ice. Store the sample at -80°C.

Preparation of sections:

10µm cryosections were collected on superfrost plus slides, the section were dried overnight at RT, and used the next day.

Pretreatment and hybridization:

Fix in fresh 4% PFA at RT for 15 min. Wash in PBTfor 5 min at RT. Bleach with 6% H_2O_2 /PBT for 5 min at RT. Wash 3x PBT at RT for 5 min. Add 1 µg/ml proteinase K/PBT for 15 min at RT, then wash the embryos sections with fresh 2 mg/ml lysine /PBT for 10

min at RT. Wash 3x PBT. Prehybridize at 65°C for 1 hr. Hyb at 65°C overnight in closed containers.

Replace the slides in prewarmed (at 65°C) the sol1 (phormammehyde 50%/SSC/ SDS) for 15 min at 65°C. Repeat the wash in sol3 for 3 times. Wash in TBST for 10 min at RT.

Block in 10% sheep serum/MABT for 1hr at RT. Incubate with anti-digoxigenin antibody (1:2000) in 1% sheep serum/MABT at 4°C overnight.

The morning after wash for 4 times in TBST for 15 min at RT. Then wash with NTMT at RT for 10 min. Incubate with NBT/X-phos in NTMT in the dark looking at the signal. Wash twice with NTMT at RT for 10 min. Then wash in PBS1X at RT for 5 min for two times. Put the samples in 4% PFA for 30 min a RT. Finally wash for 5 min in PBS1X. Repeat the washing. Section were mounted using Glycerol 70%/PBS and examined with an Axioplan microscope (Zeiss) equipped with an Axiocam CCD camera and Axiovision digital imaging software (Zeiss).

Obtaining zebrafish embryos Natural cross fish

The afternoon before the cross set up fishes. Place a smaller plastic container with a mesh bottom into a larger container. Add fish water to cover for some inches of water the mesh. Transfer a pair of fishes into the container. After the light comes on wait a bit and then cross the fishes. The onset of light is a major stimulus for zebrafish to breed. Collect the eggs from the bottom container. After the egg collection, separate the embryos and wash them in a Petri dish. The fish may lay a larger number of eggs comprised between 30-50 eggs.

Removing the chorion

Transfer the embryos using a plastic pipette. The embryos are still in their chorions. The chorions removal occurs pretreating the embryos with 0.5 ml of a 10 mg/ml pronase in water for 1min in a Petri dish. It's important watching the embryos. As soon as their chorions start to bubble change Petri dish. Stir gently. Thus, when the first 3-5 embryos are released from their chorion decant the content into a 500 ml backer filled with fish water. Now the embryos are extremely fragile. Repeat the washing for two times.

Once chorion is removed put the embryos using a plastic pipette in agar coated Petri dishes cause the embryo have to stay away from water and plastic surface cause they could explode.

Preparation of the injection solution

Purify PCR fragments using the Qiagen PCR purification kit. Run a 1% agarose gel and quantify the PCR products. The injection solution have to contain 1/10vol of phenol red DNA fragments at a concentration of 50 ng/ μ l reaching a range of 5 to 1molar ratio with the HSP LacZ fragment.

Centrifuge for 2 min at maximum speed the injetion solution in filter column contained into a sterile eppendorf tube to remove particle debris that could block injection needles.

Microinjection of early embryos (1-2 cell stage)

Use a needle puller to prepare glass microcapillary needles.

Add 1 μ l of injection solution using a pipette in microfilament containing needles.

Set presure conditions for injection: Pressure 10-200 psi, time: 0.3 ms.

Place embryos in agarose plate in 10 Hank's solution under the stereomicroscope.

Place needles into the embryo without shaking. Inject a drop with a diameter approximately 1/10th of the diameter of the animal pole of the embryo. For injection use a pedal (Narishige Harvard Scientific).

Put the embryos at 28°C to let them to develop. After 4 hrs look at the embryos and remove the ones that develop abnormally.

LacZ staining

After 24 hrs place the embryos into a 24 well plate in Hank's buffer. Then replace the Hank's buffer with a BT-Fix and let the embryos stay at 4°C in BT-Fix for 4 hrs. Then wash 3-5 times. Wash for 5 min with the Staining Buffer. Use 1 ml Staining Buffer + 5μ l 8% X-Gal in DMSO for the staining. Wash the embryos for 3 times with PBS/ 0.02% NP40. Fix over night with BT-Fix at 4°C.Wash them again in PBS/ 0.02% NP40. Draw the expression maps.

RESULTS

Background

One of the aims of this thesis was the identification of novel genes using gene trapping as a novel approach to re-annotate the mouse genome.

To start identifying novel genes 249,827 traps were collected from several public and private gene trapping projects found within the GSS section of GenBank. Among these sequence tags, 95.2%, defined as "mRNA traps", were obtained by 5'- or 3'-RACE-PCR of the fusion transcript between the reporter gene and the endogenous gene while remaining sequences, named "genomic traps", revealed the exact genomic insertion site because the sequence was obtained by inverse-PCR.

These sequence tags were mapped to the genome using a stringent pipeline. This analysis showed that while 65% of them found a clear localization in the genome, 26% presented an ambiguous mapping that maybe due to the poor quality of the sequences, and the remaining 9% did not find any mach in the genome. In fact in most of the cases (43%) traps had a sequence length shorter than 50 nucleotides, making it difficult to assign them to an exact genome location. Other reasons that explain the lack of mapping for the remaining 5% of traps are the presence of spurious sequences in the data set as well as genome coverage issues.

Traps were subsequently assembled on the basis sequence overlap: if two traps overlapped on the same strand of a chromosome by at least one base pair, they were put together in a cluster (named hereon "trapclusters"). About 12,509 traps indicated spliced

transcripts and were used to verify the presence of canonical splice site junctions in order to have some indication of the existence of a putative gene.

In order to investigate if these sequence tags are able to detect novel genes they were compared with available collections of transcribed sequences, such as FANTOM3, based on full-length cDNAs (Carnici et al., 2005), and Unigene, which is based on clusters of EST sequences (Schuler et al., 1997). Interestingly trapclusters presented the highest proportion (40%) of unique sequences among the three data sets. This result suggests that the ES cell transcriptome might contain additional information, e.g. molecular features specific to their totipotency state, which are quite different from those obtained by FANTOM3 and Unigene in different tissues and cells. Comparing our dataset to the RefSeq database we observed that 44% of the trapclusters overlapped with a known RefSeq gene. Moreover, among those which do not overlap RefSeq, 9% overlapped with genes predicted by Ensembl but not found in RefSeq, a further 7% with cDNAs identified by Fantom3 and not present in Ensembl, and finally a further 2% with EST clusters contained in Unigene but nor present in the above datasets. Overall 38% of the trapclusters identified indicate novel putative features of the transcriptome that have never been annotated before.

Novel exons within known genes

Having mapped our dataset to the genome, and having identified a subset which did not overlap known gene databases we investigated whether this dataset was in fact adding novel putative exons to currently annotated RefSeq genes, which would better refine their currently annotated structure, taking into account that RefSeq contains curated gene structures which have been verified experimentally. We therefore investigated trapcluster sequences showing a partial overlap with current RefSeq gene structures that could indicate novel potential exons. The analysis identified internal exons, as well as 5' and 3' exons on 830 RefSeq genes (Fig. 9). In order to verify the existence of these candidate exons, we chose 40 of these and we performed RT-PCR experiments using as template ES cell RNA to verify the expression of these exon.

In these experiments we decided to project a primer on a candidate exon and a primer on the closest exon belonging to the annotated gene. We confirmed the existence of the predicted exons in 40% of the cases. Furthermore we verified if these novel exons were specifically expressed in ES cells or whether they could constitute alternatively spliced exons which would occur only in specific tissues. For this reason we performed the same RT-PCR analysis using total RNA extracts from several mouse tissues, i.e. adult brain, eye, heart, and whole embryo at 14.5 days of development (E14.5). This additional verification confirmed that indeed these exons presented complex patterns of splicing, but also showed that some exons which are trapped in gene trapping experiments are not necessarily expressed at detectable levels in ES cells. This additional verification confirmed as expressed a further 30% of the exons predicted. Thus the compound result of these verifications, taking all tested tissues into account, yields an overall success rate of 70% (Table1). Table 1 shows all the exons which were tested by RT-PCR across different RNA samples. This test allowed us to group exons in different categories depending on their expression pattern. Exons which were found to be expressed only in ES cells were named "ES-only", those which were expressed in all tissues tested were named "ubiquitous", those which showed a complex on-off pattern of expression and different amplification products of several lengths depending on the RNA used were named "complex". Finally the category named "ES-absent" comprises 12 exons which could not be detected in ES cells. Six of these exons were trapped using a polyA-type vector which is able to trap genes even if they are not transcribed in ES cells, and the other six were trapped by an SAbgeo-type vector, thus they are probably expressed at very low levels in ES cells and are up-regulated upon differentiation. The last group was named "absent" as it contains exons which could not be verified in any of the RNAs tested. We cannot exclude that these exons could be real and could be expressed in tissues/stages which we did not test These data taken together demonstrates that gene trapping is able to capture both expressed and non-expressed genes, depending on the type of vector used. Figure 10 shows some examples of known genes to which our analysis added novel exons. For example, an alternative 5'UTR exon was added to the known Ncapg2 gene (Fig. 10 A), which shows a complex expression pattern, since it appears to yield several splicing variants depending on the RNA sample used. Similarly trapcluster TCL606 (Fig. 10 B) indicates a new 5'UTR exon within the Niban gene, which is expressed in a stage specific manner, as a clear band can be observed in ES cells and in whole embryo, while in other tissues it is not possible detect any signal.

In the case of trapcluster TCL195 (Fig. 10 C), we verified the addition of a novel internal exon between exon 3 and exon 4 of the known gene Nol1 and it was found to be expressed in all samples tested, giving always the same product length. This suggests that there is an alternative transcript of Nol1 containing this novel exon that had not been observed before. On the contrary, the addition of a new exon to the Inpp5d gene occurs only in ES cells among the samples tested, suggesting that this alternative transcript could, perhaps, have a specific role in ES cells.

A further group of exons tested fell in the 3'UTR of known genes (Fig. 10 E, F). The TCL10445 cluster (Fig. 10 E) seems to add a 3'UTR exon to the Rhebl1 gene. However, when sequencing this alternative product we realized that the resulting transcript, which does include this novel exon, skips the last two exons of the gene in all RNA samples, except in whole embryo. Finally we also show the addition of a 3'UTR exon to the Bcl7c gene. This exon is expressed only in ES cells and is located quite far, at a distance of 30 kb from the last known exon of the gene.

Identification of Novel Transcripts

We observed that a large number of trapclusters (~66%) did not overlap with other clusters or known genes, so it was difficult hypotesize the start and the end of a putative gene embedding the trapcluster. Thus we used CpG islands and transcription start sites (TSS) predicted by Eponine (Down et al., 2002) to define potential gene boundaries around trapclusters, to reduce this large data set into a lower potential number of novel genes. In this way, it was possible to group adjacent (but not overlapping) trapclusters into a set of about 8,420 novel transcripts classified into 1,997 "novel genes" (found in regions between CpG islands whithout any annotation) and 6,423 "novel transcripts" located within known transcriptional forests (Fig. 11). About 1,333 are "nested", that means that these gene are in the same direction of a known transcript within the locus but are completely contained within its introns, while 792 were considered putative "antisense transcripts" because they have an orientation that is opposite with respect to a known transcript.

We choose 80 random transcripts (1%) from this reduced dataset and we proceeded to verify their existence as well as that of all of the exons contained within them by RT- PCR experiments. We found that 71% of these genes (57/80) are expressed in ES cells (Table 2), and we also confirmed that 50% of their exons are expressed in ES cells. As a negative control we performed 10 RT-PCRs using 20 existing trap primers assorted randomly while as a positive control we performed a similar analysis using primers for trap TCLG4070. While the positive control was confirmed, all other primers gave negative results.

Fig. 12 A shows an example of the results obtained, indicating the TCLG1417 transcript, which lacks an ORF, thus probably a non-coding gene. Interestingly, this novel transcript was identified to be in opposite orientation and partial overlap with respect to the known gene *Trpm3*, indicating a potential regulatory role. This new non-coding gene was predicted to have 10 exons and our RT-PCRs confirmed 7 out of 10 of these exons as truly expressed in ES cells.

Another predicted transcript which was found in reverse orientation with respect to a known gene is TCLG1647. In this case, the predicted gene is actually larger than the known gene (Tcf15) which is fully contained within one of its introns. This gene also appeared to contain 7 exons, but the PCR analysis showed that among the predicted exons two proximal exons form, in reality, one larger exon. Moreover, the sequence data brought about the addition of yet another exon that was not present in the trap collection as well as two separately expressed exons that could not be linked to this transcript.

TCLG400 (Fig. 12 C) is found in opposite orientation and partial overlap to the *Ngfr* gene. It is composed by 4 exons, which were all confirmed by RT-PCR. TCLG1753 (Fig. 12 D) is a single gene, antisense to the *Prkci* gene, in which we confirmed 3 out of 5 predicted exons. We also confirmed all five exons predicted for the TCLG2423, three of

which show a partial overlap with the *1110032016Rik* gene. Finally Fig. 12 E shows the TCLG4470 gene, which contains 3 exons and is found in opposite direction and fully contained (i.e. nested) within the intron of the *Oprd1* gene.

Expression profiling of a non-coding transcript.

In order to verify further the expression of non-coding transcripts within our data set, we performed an in situ hybridization of one of the transcripts verified by RT-PCR, TCLG1417, the non-coding gene antisense of *Trpm3* described above (Fig. 12 A), on a mouse embryo at 14.5 days of development. This developmental stage is very representative because it represents an interesting temporary window in which a large number of genes are expressed. The results from the *in situ* hybridization indicated a very specific pattern of expression in the inner ear (choclea and vestibules), in the choroid plexus and in the eye (Fig. 13). The same expression pattern was obtained in E12.5 embryos and in P0 mouse (data not shown).

These data led us to hypotesize that this novel transcript could act as antisense regulating the mRNA stability of the *Trpm3* gene. *Trpm3* is a poorly understood member of the large family of transient receptor potential (TRP) ion channels. In literature five splice variants have been reported. In situ hybridization experiments conducted on this gene showed that *Trpm3* is expressed in several regions of the mouse brain such as the dentate gyrus, the intermediate lateral septal nuclei, the indusium griseum, and the tenia tencta (Oberwinkler et al., 2005) and northern blot analysis confirmed expression also in the eye. Interestingly, strongest expression was observed in epithelial cells of the choroids plexus. Further experiments will be focused on understanding the function of

this novel gene, its possible role in the auditory pathways as well as its potential interactions with the *Trpm3* gene.

Trapping of genes correlates with their expression levels

Although the majority of genes is trapped only once or very few times, a small subset of genes is trapped hundreds of times. Therefore we decided to investigate whether this subset of genes also displays significantly higher levels of expression in ES cells. One factor that could theoretically influence the rate of insertion and thus that of trapping events, is the accessibility of the chromatin of the genomic region. For this reason, gene which are involved in transcriptional pathways, for example, could be reached more easily by DNA vectors used for mutagenesis. These regions are considered "gene trapping hot spots". These regions have been observed before but have never been investigated in further detail (Hansen et al., 2003). The distribution of these regions across the genome appears to be random and uniform. Another factor that could influence the rate of gene trapping is the overall size of the gene locus because the more space is available for insertion of the vector, the more likely the event is to occur. Thus we ranked genes and trapclusters according to the number of trapping events and normalized the dataset for overall locus size in order to identify genes that are likely to be trapped at high rates due to their expression levels. In this manner we selected 383 genes which we defined as being "hypertrapped". The first 50 genes are shown in Table 3. This number represents less than 5% of all the genes trapped but contains more than 20% of all gene traps sequenced.

To test if hypertrapped genes indicate genes that are highly expressed in ES cells, we performed a real-time PCR experiment. We chose 10 genes form the hypertrapped gene list and, as a control, we also chose randomly 10 genes that were trapped once (the median rate of trapping). Moreover we compared the expression levels obtained for these genes in ES cells to the Oct4 gene, a well known marker of these cells (Niwa et al., 2000). The results show that 80% of the hypertrapped genes we tested were expressed at levels significantly higher than the control set and also that these levels of expression were comparable to those of *Oct4* (Fig. 14). These data confirmed that this set of genes is significantly expressed in ES cells at levels similar to those of a gene which is known to play an important role in these cells. A comparison with other previously published datasets of expression profiling in ES cells revealed remarkably low overlap. Among the genes tested, only one, *Scpep1*, is present in two of three previously published data sets. This is a serine carboxilpeptidase which takes part in the activation of other proteins after a proteolitic cut. Immunohistochemical studies on this protein showed that *Scpep1*, while in the embryo, is expressed in endothelial cells (Lee et al., 2006).

Another hypertrapped gene is *Mshi2h* (Musashi homolog 2). It has been shown recently that this gene is involved in the maintenance of ES cell identity (Siddal et al., 2006) although it is not found to be significantly expressed in expression profiling studies published until now. Other hypertrapped genes all appear to be involved in early development. They include: *Erdr1* (erythroid differentiation regulator 1), which is known to be higly expressed in the early phases of erythroid lineage development and in cephalic mesenchyme development, just like *klf9* (Krueppel like factor 9) (Martin et al., 2001); *Gabarapl2* (GABA receptor associated protein like 2) is highly expressed in the early developmental stages of the neural tube and the notochord (Liang et al., 2004); *Rbpms*

(RNA-binding protein with multiple splicing) is involved in heart development (Gerber et al., 1999) and *Cfdp1* (Craniofacial development protein 1) in craniofacial development (Mukhopadhyay et al., 2006). Other hypertrapped genes are involved in chromatin remodeling, such as *Cbx5* (Chromobx protein homolog 5) (Yamaguchi et al., 1998), in protein folding, such as *Pfdn1* (prefoldin 1) (Zako et al., 2005) or in ubiquitination pathways, such as *Ube2r2* (ubiquitin-conjugating enzyme E2R2) (Semplici et al., 2002).

These results suggest that hypertrapped genes constitute a novel set of genes that are expressed at significant levels in ES cells and might be relevant to clarify further mechanisms that characterize these cells.

Verification of shuffled conserved elements in the vertebrate lineage

In the second part of this work we investigated *in vivo* the function of shuffled conserved non-coding elements. These elements, conserved across the vertebrates, were identified using a combination of different tools. Firstly, orthologous loci from four mammalian genomes were used to identify "rCNEs", i.e. regionally-conserved elements. Subsequently, these rCNEs were compared with orthologous loci in fishes to investigate if the conservation was also extended in these organisms. In this way, we identified shuffled conserved elements (SCEs), i.e. regions of the mouse genome conserved in the Takifugu rubripes orthologous locus with 40bp length and 60% conservation. Thus 21,427 non-redundant, non-genic, shuffled conserved elements were found in 30% of the genes analyzed (2,911). Only 28% mantained the same orientation and the same position with respect to the gene and were name "collinear", while the remaining SCEs were shuffled, i.e. have either changed orientation or position or both between the mouse and fugu genome during the evolutionary time separating these two organisms (Fig. 15). We further proved that the extent of shuffling observed was not due to an assembly artifact by verifying the collinearity independently in two fish genomes (Fugu and Tetraodon). Moreover we showed that conserved elements are significantly more often collinear in the 500bp window adjacent to the TSS of the gene as compared to any other analyzed region, probably owing to elements which are position and orientation constrained in the core promoter region.

Verifying SCE function

To investigate a putative function for the SCEs identified, we performed an overlap analysis with 98 known mouse enhancer elements annotated in Genbank. The overlap of SCEs was compared with the overlap of two other datasets of conserved non-coding sequences which show conservation in fishes. Interestingly, we showed that the SCEs dataset overlapped with 18 known enhancers while the CNE and UCE datasets overlapped with only 1 and 2 known enhancers respectively.

To corroborate these findings and validate the enhancer activity of these SCEs, we screened these elements in zebrafish embryos. Thus, DNA fragments amplified from the fugu genome were purified and than co-injected using a construct containing the *shh* (sonic hedgehog) promoter and *LacZ* as a reporter gene. The co-injection was performed into zebrafish embryos at the early stages of development (1-2 cell stage) and after 24 hrs of development *LacZ* expression was observed. We counted about 60 embryos for each injected DNA fragment. We tested 27 fragments, 4 of which overlapping with known mouse enhancers that have never been tested in fish before. The remaining 23 did not overlap to any known feature.

We also injected, as a control, 12 non-coding, non-repeated and non-conserved fragments, 9 of them were from the same genes from which SCEs have been chosen while the remaining 3 were from random genes. As previously reported, this type of analysis is characterized by significant mosaicism of the expression of the transgene (Westerfield et al., 1992). To obtain an expression profile of the enhancer activity, we counted the number of cells stained for X-gal and we annotated the position of the expression maps represent a composite overview of the *LacZ* positive cells of all embryos tested. We

72
found that, when compared to the embryos injected with only the hsp lacZ construct, 22 out of the 27 fragments tested showed a clear enhancer activity, 3 fragments out of the 4 known mouse enhancers conserved in fish also act as enhancers in fish. Interestingly, we observed that the enhancer effect for each of the fragments tested was tissue specific, not generalized.

We also examined expression data from the Zebrafish Information Network (ZFIN) to compare the results obtained with the expression pattern of the genes neighboring the elements tested. Interestingly, several SCEs belonging to a single gene locus showed similar tissue specific activity. For example, we tested 4 different fragments belonging to the etsl locus. For all these fragments we observed a high specificity for blood precursors (see Fig. 16, SCE 1646). This finding corresponds with previously reported data which show that *ets1* is expressed in the venous and artherial system. Moreover, both fragments tested from the zfmpm2 locus (fog2, Walton et al., 2006) showed specific enhancer activity in the CNS, in line with the expression of both fog2 paralogs that is brain specific (Walton et al., 2006). The fragment tested for the mab-21-like genes had specific enhancer activity in the CNS and in the eye (SCE 4939). This expression mirrors the pattern previously observed in the brain, eye and neurons (Kudoh et al., 2001; Kudoh et al., 2001b). SCEs from *pax6* and *hmx3* genes showed enhancement specific to the CNS, which also corresponds to previously reported expression patterns for these genes (Sprague et al., 2003). An SCE located in the *jag1b* locus showed specific expression in the CNS and in the eye. This result is only partially in line with the reported expression of this gene, which is reported to be expressed in the rostral end of the pronephric duct, nephron primordia, and in the region extending from the optic vesicle to the eye (Zecchin et al., 2005). Moreover, we identified novel enhancer activity for the SCEs neighbouring *lmx1b1*, which showed CNS specificity, and SCEs found within *mapkap1*, *tmeff2* and *3110004L20Rik* (producing integral membrane protein) and *elmo1* (associated with cytoskeleton), which showed strong generalized or tissue specific activity. For these genes there was no comparable expression data. In contrast only 2 of 12 (about 17%) of the control elements showed significant enhancement of *LacZ* activity (Table 4).



Figure 9. Prediction of novel exons (1172) identified on RefSeq genes.

The hypotetical exons are primarly external exons (785), as well as 5' exons (260) and 3' exons (127).

	5' exons	Internal exons	3' exons
ES-only	-	Inpp5d	NM_013842
ES-absent	Inpp4a, Dpm3, Itsn1, 8430423A01Rik	Abcc1, Eng, Rnf111, Pip5k1a, 4931406l20Rik, Lasp1, Eif2ak3	9630015D15Rik
Ubiquitous	Nlgn3, Luzp5	-	Rhebl1, D630023F18Rik, Srgap2, Armcx1
Complex	Niban	1110034C04Rik, Nol5, Anp32b, Slc6a6, Adck5, A930010l20Rik	Bcl7c
Absent	Rps21, Ssr2, D14Ertd668e	Dnmbp, Adam23, Prkar2a, Dlgh3, Sec14l1, Aspscr1	Srl, Tusc3, Tspan14

Table 1. Verification of 40 novel exons tested by RT-PCR using RNA extract fromES cells, whole E14.5 embryo, heart, brain and eye.

The table indicates exons which were found only in ES cell RNA as "ES only", those that were absent in ES cell RNA but present in all other tissue as "ES-absent", those that were detected in all RNAs tested as "ubiquitous", those that showed complex on / off patterns and different products in the RNAs tested as "complex", and those that could not be detected in any of the RNAs tested as "absent".

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Figure 10. Discovery of novel exons on known RefSeq genes.

The figure shows six samples of RefSeq genes to which were added novel exons using gene trap data, as well as images of the RT-PCR results in several tissue RNA and in ES cells RNA.



Figure 11. Prediction of 1,997 novel genes and 6,423 novel transcripts found within known gene loci.

1,333 novel genes are nested while 792 putative antisense.

	Confirmed	Not Confirmed
Nested	TCLG4845(2310001H13Rik), TCLG4470(Oprd1),	TCLG4185(Capn1)
TCLG(gene)	TCLG4400(Akap2), TCLG4020(Kng2),	
	TCLG3643(Spred2)	
Antisense	TCLG1647(Tcf15), TCLG400(Ngfr),	TCLG81(Gsta3), TCLG2356(Ddx47),
TCLG(gene)	TCLG3471(Slc25a5), TCLG1753(Prkci),	TCLG2266(Spr), TCLG1688(Pag1),
	TCLG947(Myo10), TCLG330(Myo1g),	TCLG1004(Ankrd33, Acvrl1)
	TCLG2538(1700016D06Rik), TCLG2221(Bcl7b),	
	TCLG1581(Slc27a4, 2900073H19Rik),	
	TCLG869(Slc1a3), TCLG486(Myo15, Drg2,	
	4933439F18Rik), TCLG2810(A230098A12Rik),	
	TCLG2486(Alpk3, NP_001004184.1),	
	TCLG2005(D030015G18Rik), TCLG1928(Arpm2),	
	TCLG1590(NM_007494)	
Novel	TCLG2660(Chr8:88.23), TCLG2423(Chr7:120.93),	TCLG978(Chr15:84.69), TCLG455(Chr11:3.18),
TCLG(Chr:Mb)	TCLG2034(Chr4:147.31), TCLG724(Chr13:110.15),	TCLG2847(Chr9:120.76), TCLG1777(Chr3:89.95),
	TCLG2616(Chr8:121.21), TCLG2519(Chr7:121.53),	TCLG1520(Chr2:103.51), TCLG1450(Chr19:52.61),
	TCLG2033(Chr4:147.22), TCLG1131(Chr17:45.44),	TCLG1259(Chr18:36.46), TCLG1205(Chr17:45.52),
	TCLG757(Chr13:90.82), TCLG467(Chr11:25.95),	TCLG1113(Chzr17:25.43)
	TCLG2808(Chr9:72.74), TCLG2022(Chr4:140.16),	
	TCLG1541(Chr2:152.95), TCLG1153(Chr17:77.79)	

Table 2. Results of RT-PCR verifications on ES cell RNA of 50 novel transcripts predicted to exist on the basis of gene trap sequence tags.

The table separates genes that were confirmed from those that were not confirmed. Moreover it separates transcripts that were found nested within known genes, antisense on known genes, as well other strand alone transcripts shown as novel.

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Figure 12. Discovery of novel genes based on trapclusters.

Schematic representation of six samples of novel multi exon genes predicted using gene trap data and available CpG islands and Eponine transcription start site annotation, verified by RT-PCR on ES cell RNA.



Figure 13. In situ hybridization of trapcluster gene TCLG1417 on E14.5 mouse.

This gene shows an highly specific signal within the III (C) and IV (D) ventricle of the choroids plexus, and in the eye (E, F) in the inner ear (cochlea G, H).

Refseq_ID	Gene	Genomic localization	Description	Trap (n)
NM_133362	Erdr1	ChrNT_051172:6351-7878 (-)	erythroid differentiation regulator 1	707
NM_054043	Msi2h	Chr11:88067453-88539178 (-)	Musashi homolog 2 (Drosophila)	419
NM_026027	Pfdn1	Chr18:36627482-36678298 (-)	prefoldin 1	323
NM 011801	Cfdp1	Chr8:111066063-111151900 (-)	craniofacial development protein 1	270
NM_008850	Pitpna	Chr11:75313766-75354436 (+)	phosphatidylinositol transfer protein,	404
NM_007626	Cbx5	Chr15:103258715-103303122 (-)	chromobox homolog 5 (Drosophila HP1a)	446
NP_062707	Rbpms	Chr8:32588246-32735409 (-)	RNA binding protein gene with multiple splicing	449
NM_010638	K1f9	Chr19:22379148-22404833 (+)	Kruppel-like factor 9	162
NM_029023	Scpep1	Chr11:88745108-88776520 (-)	serine carboxypeptidase 1	203
NM_026275	Ube2r2	Chr4:41274873-41332222 (+)	ubiquitin-conjugating enzyme E2R 2	150
NM_026693	Gabarapl2	Chr8:111238427-111253087 (+)	gamma-aminobutyric acid (GABA-A) receptor-associated protein-like 2	224
NM_033327	Zfp423	Chr8:86945303-87244633 (-)	zinc finger protein 423	239
NM_194059	Nanos3	Chr8:83436801-83439620 (-)	nanos homolog 3 (Drosophila)	286
NM_009980	Ctbp2	Chr7:127353899-127489680 (-)	C-terminal binding protein 2	189
NM_013482	Btk	ChrX:128087275-128128084 (-)	Bruton agammaglobulinemia tyrosine kinase	431
NM_018810	Mkrn1	Chr6:39533207-39555818 (-)	makorin, ring finger protein, 1	164
NM_026391	Ppp2r2d	Chr7:133232602-133269297 (+)	protein phosphatase 2, regulatory subunit B, delta isoform	171
NM_007632	Cend3	Chr17:45023592-45118144 (+)	cyclin D3	216
NM_025927	Mrpl45	Chr11:97136944-97151008 (+)	mitochondrial ribosomal protein L45	145
NM_008034	Folr1	Chr7:95964456-95976886 (-)	folate receptor 1 (adult)	164
NP_035727	Tjp2	Chr19:23332680-23378444 (-)	tight junction protein 2	266
NM_145510	Rabif	Chr1:134344924-134358149 (+)	RAB interacting factor	135
NM_198417	C030039L03R	Chr7:23067546-23081244 (+)	RIKEN cDNA C030039L03 gene (C030039L03Rik), mRNA	64
NM_013625	Pafah1b1	Chr11:74399611-74450329 (-)	platelet-activating factor acetylhydrolase, isoform 1b, beta1	160
NM_009456	Ube213	Chr16:15923030-15972516 (-)	ubiquitin-conjugating enzyme E2L 3	255
NM_001003918	Usp7	Chr16:8364074-8464206 (-)	ubiquitin specific protease 7	299
NM_023197	2310008H09R	Chr7:112719648-112732117 (-)	RIKEN cDNA 2310008H09 gene (2310008H09Rik), mRNA	149
NM_145823	Pitpnc1	Chr11:107032524-107158727 (-)	phosphatidylinositol transfer protein, cytoplasmic 1	226
NM_026615	2900073H19R	Chr2:29759552-29777159 (+)	RIKEN cDNA 2900073H19 gene (2900073H19Rik), mRNA	128
NM_027230	Prkcbp1	Chr2:165242023-165353684 (-)	protein kinase C binding protein 1	351
NM_016786	Hip2	Chr5:64339101-64400758 (+)	huntingtin interacting protein 2	121
NM_183278	2200001115Ri	Chr14:32488464-32491975 (-)	RIKEN cDNA 2200001115 gene (2200001115Rik), mRNA	151
NM_008692	Nfyc	Chr4:119779884-119848112 (-)	nuclear transcription factor-Y gamma	197
NP_031523	Atfl	Chr15:100285518-100317872 (+)	activating transcription factor 1	185
NM_026532	Nutf2	Chr8:105156480-105176250 (+)	nuclear transport factor 2	96
NM_008942	Npepps	Chr11:97028021-97101651 (-)	aminopeptidase puromycin sensitive	158
NM_009642	Agtrap	Chr4:146569424-146580366 (-)	angiotensin II, type I receptor- associated protein	102
NM_007792	Csrp2	Chr10:110543028-110562471 (+)	cysteine and glycine-rich protein 2	113
NM_175294	8430423A01R	Chr1:131762352-131784791 (+)	Nuclear ubiquitous casein and cyclin- dependent kinases substrate (JC7).	99
NM_144787	Jmjd2c	Chr4:73303717-73467081 (+)	jumonji domain containing 2C	185
NM_016802	Rhoa	Chr9:108375967-108407598 (+)	ras homolog gene family, member A	97
NM_148934	Gtrgeo22	Chr10:79791798-79798648 (+)	gene trap ROSA b-geo 22	94
NM_009864	Cdh1	Chr8:105899006-105965884 (+)	cadherin 1	190
NM_008602	Miz1	Chr18:77186924-77275519 (+)	Msx-interacting-zinc finger	143
NM_013827	Mtf2	Chr5:107136124-107178719 (+)	metal response element binding transcription factor 2	223
NM_013512	Epb4.114a	Chr18:34019351-34229942 (-)	erythrocyte protein band 4.1-like 4a	179
NM_145441	Ubxd4	Chr12:4054764-4083225 (-)	UBX domain containing 4	133
NM_020600	Rps14	Chr18:60999976-61003871 (+)	ribosomal protein S14	82
NM_172860	Cbfa2t2h	Chr2:153893456-153996294 (+)	core-binding factor, runt domain, alpha subunit 2, translocated to, 2 homolog (human)	127
NM_021878	Jarid2	Chr13:44305483-44495794 (+)	jumonji, AT rich interactive domain 2	146

Table 3. List of the first 50 hypertrapped genes.

For each gene it has been reported the identificative RefSeq, name, genomic localization, description, number of gene trapping experiments.

QuickTime™ and a TIFF (LZW) decompressor are needed to see this picture.

Figure 14. Real-time RT-PCR verification of level of expression of hypertrapped genes.

The bar chart shows the levels of expressions of 10 hypertrapped genes (in red) and 10 genes trapped 1 or 2 times. 80% of hypertrapped genes are expressed at significantly higher levels than genes trapped at the median rate of 1 trap per gene.



Figure 15. Shuffling categories of SCEs.

SCEs are categorized basing on their change in location and orientation in *Fugu rubiprens* with respect to their location and orientation in mouse locus. A) Collinear SCEs: elements that have not undergone any change in location or orientation within the entire gene locus. B) Reversed SCEs: elements that have changed their orientation in the fish locus with respect to the mouse locus, but have remained in the same portion of the locus. C) Moved SCEs: elements that have moved between the pre-gene, post-gene and intronic portion of the locus. D) Moved-reversed SCEs: elements that have undergone both of the above changes.



Figure 16. Expression profiles of X-Gal stained embryos.

A/B/C/D/E/F. Expression profiles of 1 day old X-Gal stained zebrafish embryos. Each expression map represents a composite overview of the LacZ positive cells of 65-175 embryos. Gene names and fragment/SCE are shown.

gene	name	SCE length (bp)	Enhancer	n. of embryos	cells	muscle	notochor d	CNS	еуе	ear	vessels	other
no	lacZ		neg	161	40	p-value	p-value	p-value	p-value	p-value	p-value	p-value
Shh	ArC		pos	96	242		8.48E-07					
Shh	12058	45	у	139	69	6.86E-09						
Otx2	13988	51	у	111	93	0.6444		0.006269	0.5536	0.3155		
Gata3	15402	40	у	107	103			0.398	0.5764	0.1906		1
Ets	8744	40	у	105	180			0.002593			4.78E-	
Ets	8745	46	Y	133	210			0.1558	0.6015	0.3619	2.15E- 06	
Ets	8726	41	Y	159	345			0.05534	0.6131	0.1485	2.08E- 06	
Ets	8728	48	Y	149	176			0.0444	0.129	0.0792 4	1.31E- 05	
Pax2b	31027	39	Y	149	105			0.002374	0.06327	0.1902		
Pax6a	15696	33	Y	133	122			8.21E-06	0.3343	0.0126 8		
Pax3	24781	42	N	124	67	0.02982		0.5287	1			
Zfpm2	23818	48	Y	140	119			1.49E-06	0.01296	1		
Zfpm2	23838	48	Y	131	148			0.000357	0.04369	0.1231		
Tmeff2	26014	48	N	164	125			0.7654	02301	0.3371		0.2801
Tmeff2	26015	38	Y	120	159	0.001035		0.303	0.2088			
Tmeff2	26016	51	Y	109	148			0.000630 a	0.0149	0.5862		
Jag1b	16407	37	N	136	98	1		0.1849	1	1		
Jag1b	16408	55	Y	142	109			5.45E-08	0.006524	0.3245		
Jag1b	16409	44	N	106	54	1		0.5088	1	0.5058		
Mapkap1	17058	37	Y	143	295	0.6825		0.05292	0.3788	0.6065		1
Mapkap1	17059	42	Y	136	171	0.6686		0.004037	0.5973	0.077	0.5197	
2 Manzii	23001	39	Y	142	317			1.24E-07	0.004985	0.2339		
2	23002	37	Y	155	122			7.85E-08	0.004138			
Hmx3	11669	150	Y	165	136			0.001029	0.07062	0.0142 3		
Lmx1b	17027	300	Y	116	105			0.00762	0.1876	1		
3110004 L	5803	45	N	65	16	0.2929						1
3110004 L	5802	39	Y	122	320	0.1874	0.01209					
Elmo1	6026	45	Y	103	76	0.007132	0.6848					
Ets	11216		N	104	74	1						0.6954
Gata3	3255		N	174	110	0.04481		0.281	0.5739	0.0216 3		
1300007 F	2797		N	157	115							
Tmeff2	198		N	145	23	0.7448		0.6597		0.3651		
2	909		N	165	92	0.06359		1	1	1		
3110004 L	410		N	107	23							0,0198
Elmo1	10157		N	146	38	0.287	0.8126					
Shh	11271		N	165	83	3.34E-07		1	1	1		
Impact	5990		N	150	101	0.6496		0.2754		0.0622		
UbI7	268		N	117	644	0.000332 5		7.15E-11	0,02555	0.6197		
Lmx1b	11767		Y	116	15	0.2743				0.0707		1
Irx3	5945		N	03	15	0 03038						

Table 4. Analysis of X-Gal staining in zebrafish embryos co-injected with the Hsppromoter and SCEs or control fragments.

For each DNA fragment tested the following information is given: from left to right: the gene locus in which the DNA fragment is found, the size of the SCE, summary about the potentially enhancer function of the element (Y=yes, N=not), the number of embryos injected, the p-value indicating the significance of the number of cells observed in the frangment tested versus the LacZ: Hsp control for each tissue.

DISCUSSION

It might surprising that about six years after the first draft of the human genome (Venter et al., 2001; Lander et al., 2001) and three years after the announcement of the completion of the genome sequence (International Human Genome Sequencing Consortium, 2004) we still do not have a complete set of all the genes that are encoded by the human genome. This is due to the ease with which sequence data is collected, and the difficulty in obtaining functional data in a similarly high throughput manner. It is for this reason that the functional characterization of every single gene within the mammalian genome is one of the major aims of the post-genomic era. Thus, in recent years, the interest in tools that enable genome-wide mutagenesis in a streamlined manner has increased significantly.

Among the available approaches used to identify and characterize novel genes, gene trapping in mouse ES cells has emerged as a powerful tool which enables analysis of mammalian gene function in a post-genomic era. The application of this technique in a genome-wide manner should allow the identification of most, if not all, active transcripts in the genome of ES cells and thus it was chosen as an innovative tool for genome annotation.

In our study, starting with a large data set of all available sequences derived from gene trapping experiments we investigated if they allowed us to decipher the ES cell transcriptome, as well as the mouse genome at a wider level. Notably, we found that 38% of trapclusters cannot be mapped to genomic regions previously annotated by other existing databases such as RefSeq, Ensembl, Fantom or Unigene (Fig. 17).

87

Moreover, we observed a richness in alternative splicing for 5' and 3' exons. Interestingly, using gene trapping, we refine the structure of existing known genes adding novel exons. The reason why we added a larger number of internal exons with respect to external ones may depend on the fact that this technique usually provides sequences from integration events which occur within introns. By RT-PCR experiments we were able to validate that 70% of these candidate exons are really expressed, and that often they exhibit a tissue specific pattern of expression. The identification of new exons on genes coming from a well-annotated database such as RefSeq stresses the incomplete annotation of these genes. These findings are in line with the fact that even though only a small portion of human genes is known to be lacking from computational predictions, the exact genomic structure of these genes seems to be correct only for approximately 50% of them.

We demonstrated with our findings that 40% of the exons that were added can be detected in ES cells, while a further 30% are expressed in a tissue specific manner and are not detectable in ES cells as was verified by testing four additional RNA sources. Thus it is reasonable hypothesize that a higher proportion of our novel exons could be verified if we investigated more developmental stages and tissues. Moreover, these results suggest that genes which are successfully trapped in ES cells are often expressed at very low levels in these cells, while in other tissues they could be expressed at higher levels thus, showing a specific pattern linked to specific tissues, stages and cell types upon differentiation.

The fact that gene trapping in ES cells could reveal a higher number of novel genes than it had been shown before using cDNA and EST based approaches is probably due to

88

the different levels of expression. Probably these genes are expressed at high levels at specific time points and in cell types (such as ES cells) that have not been used to produce libraries for EST collection.

RT-PCR, real-time PCR, in situ hybridization, as well as computational approaches (multispecies alignments, comparison with tiling array data) were employed to demonstrate that the 65% of our trapclusters correspond to novel genes which are truly expressed in ES cells. Particularly, the specific expression profile showed by in situ hybridization on the TCLG1417 predicted gene within the auditory pathway was interesting taking into consideration that it is a novel non-coding gene that does not fall in the much studied microRNA category.

It is well known that ES cells express a wide number of genes at basal level and a few hundreds genes at high levels (Sharov et al., 2003). One can therefore assume that highly expressed genes might be easier to identify using gene trapping techniques. Several studies indicated that the genome presents specific regions that are hot spots for this technique. In our work we demonstrated by real time PCR experiments that these hotspot regions correspond to genes which are significantly expressed in ES cells and that their expression levels are comparable to Oct4 gene, a well known ES cell marker. Hypertrapped and trapped categories both contain genes that are related to basic molecular functions of the cell, such as transcription, translation and degradation of proteins. Hypertrapped genes show a balanced subselection of the same types of genes. Interestingly the latter dataset includes some factors that are involved in the early stages of development such as Erdr1, Klf9, Gabarapl2, Rbpms, Cfdp1. These factors might be highly expressed in pluripotent cells to be "ready to go" once these cells differentiate into a specific fate (i.e. cell type). It could be hypothesized that their expression might be under the control of transcription factors which are known to guarantee the maintenance of pluripotency in the germinal cell, such as for example Oct4, Nanog, Sox2 and STAT3.

A comparative analysis of hypertrapped genes against already known sets of genes involved in the "stemness profile", derived from expression profiling experiments (Vogel et al., 2003) showed a remarkably low overlap. In particular it is striking that genes belonging to our set of hypertrapped genes, which are expressed at significantly higher levels than "normally trapped" genes (as demonstrated by real-time PCR) are not present in the datasets published. This result, together with that obtained on Oct4, suggests that hypertrapped genes might identify a set of genes whose expression is tightly controlled, as it is for Oct4, and which could thus be difficult to identify by expression profiling, while playing an important role in the biology of these cells.

Our data taken together indicates clearly that gene trapping in ES cells holds high value for biology and that its utility extends far beyond its use as a mere mutagenesis tool. We demonstrated that thousands of novel genes and transcripts exist which had never been annotated; thus we can conclude that gene-trap mutagenesis is an efficient approach for annotating and dissecting the function of mammalian genes.

Another fascinating challenge of the post genomic era is that of understanding the intricate processes of gene regulation in vertebrates. Comparative genomics is one of the approaches commonly used to identify non-coding regions of the genome which are conserved across evolution and which might play a role in the process of gene regulation. In order to define novel putative regulatory elements in the vertebrate genome we focused our attention on the conservation of non-coding elements between fish and

90

mammalian genomes. We hypothesized that over such long evolutionary distances, over which entire genes are known to shuffle, non-coding elements should shuffle at even greater extent given that their function is often position and orientation indipendent. Thus we developed a pipeline using the CHAOS algorithm for detecting conserved elements which could have shuffled across evolution and we then proceeded to test a subset of them (as well as a set of matched negative controls) using an enhancer assay in zebrafish to investigate their functionality.

Using a restricted set of candidate non-coding regulatory sequences identified by comparative analysis we were able to demonstrate their *cis*-acting regulatory activity in transgenic zebrafish. We demonstrated by co-injection the enhancer activity of the majority (80%) of the elements identified. We followed the expression profile of each fragment in 24hrs old co-injected embryos. As a positive control ArC expression was verified in the notochord as previously reported. The fact that these elements are well conserved in *Fugu*, demonstrates that the expression regulation of expression of genes involved in development is conserved. The transient expression of these elements in zebrafish showed an interesting tissue specific pattern for most of them, and where the pattern of the neighbouring gene was known the pattern produced by the patter was often similar. Notably, our data demonstrated that 80% of the elements tested do enhance transcription in vivo as compared to a single element in the control set of fragments, and that most drive tissue specific expression of a minimal promoter.

Taken together our data demonstrates that the combination of a comparative genomics approach and functional screening is able to produce a large data set that will be useful for further investigation helping to expand the understanding of the genome and

91

understanding the intricate mechanisms of gene regulation, taking into account novel and as yet not very well understood players such as those hiding in the non-coding realms of the genome.



Figure 17. Annotation of Trap Clusters.

Pie chart showing the annotation of genomic regions mapped by trapclusters, indicating that 38% of the trapclusters analyzed cannot be mapped to regions of the genome which have already been annotated with gene structures by RefSeq, Ensembl, Fantom or UniGene.

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Publications arising from this thesis

Roma G.¹, Cobellis G.¹, **Claudiani P.¹**, Maione F., Cruz P., Tripoli G., Sadiello M. Peluso I. and Stupka E. A novel view of the transcriptome revealed from gene trapping in mouse embryonic stem cells. Genome Research, 2007.

¹ These authors equally contributed at the work.

Sanges R., Kalmar E., **Claudiani P.**, D'Amato M. Muller F. and Stupka E. Shuffling of cis-regulatory elements is a pervasive feature of the vertebrate lineage. Genome Biology, 2006.

APPENDIX: PRIMERS USED

Primers used to amplify novel	
transcripts	
forward_name	forward_seq
FP81.1.2	GAGCCCTGCTGTGGGTGAAGAACT
FP81.1.2	GAGCCCTGCTGTGGGTGAAGAACT
FP81.2.2	TTGTTCCAGAAGGAGGCACAGTCC
FP330.1.1	CACGTCACATCACTGCTCCCAACT
FP330.1.1	CACGTCACATCACTGCTCCCAACT
FP330.2.2	GAGGGGTTCTTGCCTGTTTGTGTG
FP330.2.2	GAGGGGTTCTTGCCTGTTTGTGTG
FP400.1.2	TGGGAAGTTGAGCAGGAAACTCCA
FP400.1.2	TGGGAAGTTGAGCAGGAAACTCCA
FP400.2.2	GTCCTGGTCCCAAGACCTCAGCTT
FP400.2.2	GTCCTGGTCCCAAGACCTCAGCTT
FP455.1.2	GCCTACTGCCTCGTTCCCAGTTTC
FP455.1.2	GCCTACTGCCTCGTTCCCAGTTTC
FP455.2.4	AGCCCAGAGAGACAGACCGACAAG
FP467.1.1	TTGCTGCGGAGTGTCTCTGAATTG
FP467.1.1	TTGCTGCGGAGTGTCTCTGAATTG
FP467.1.1	TTGCTGCGGAGTGTCTCTGAATTG
FP467.2.1	ATTTGAAGCTGCCCCTCAAAGGAA
FP467.2.1	ATTTGAAGCTGCCCCTCAAAGGAA
FP467.2.1	ATTTGAAGCTGCCCCTCAAAGGAA
FP467.3.1	CCCTAGTTGCCCAGAAATTGCAGA
FP467.3.1	CCCTAGTTGCCCAGAAATTGCAGA
FP486.1.2	TCAGGGCATGGAGCAAATCTTCTG
FP486.1.2	TCAGGGCATGGAGCAAATCTTCTG
FP486.1.2	TCAGGGCATGGAGCAAATCTTCTG
FP486.2.2	TTCGTGCTTGAGATGCAGAGGGTA
FP486.2.2	TTCGTGCTTGAGATGCAGAGGGTA
FP486.2.2	TTCGTGCTTGAGATGCAGAGGGTA
FP486.3.2	CCCATGTCTTGTGGGGGACAAAGAG
FP486.3.2	CCCATGTCTTGTGGGGGACAAAGAG
FP724.1.1	CCTCTCGGAAAAAGGGTCAACTGG
FP724.1.1	CCTCTCGGAAAAAGGGTCAACTGG
FP724.2.2	CAGCCTGCTAGGATGCCTCTGTTG
FP724.2.2	CAGCCTGCTAGGATGCCTCTGTTG
FP757.1.3	ATCCCTGAGGAGCTGACGGTGAAC
FP757.1.3	ATCCCTGAGGAGCTGACGGTGAAC

FP757.2.3	GTGCTTTGTTTCGCAGGCATTTTC
FP757.2.3	GTGCTTTGTTTCGCAGGCATTTTC
FP869.1.1	AGCCAGCTTCTCTCACCACTTGGA
FP869.1.1	AGCCAGCTTCTCTCACCACTTGGA
FP869.2.2	ACCGTGGATGAGGAGATCGATGAA
FP947.1.2	CCCTAAGCGAACCTTGGAGAATGC
FP947.1.2	CCCTAAGCGAACCTTGGAGAATGC
FP947.2.3	CCATTGAGCCACCATCCACATACA
FP947.2.3	CCATTGAGCCACCATCCACATACA
FP978.1.3	AAGGAGAAAGCCCACTTCCTCGAA
FP978.1.3	AAGGAGAAAGCCCACTTCCTCGAA
FP978.2.2	ACAGCCTGGGAAAATGGAGATGCT
FP1004.1.3	GGAGCCGGTGACACTGAATAGCAC
FP1004.1.3	GGAGCCGGTGACACTGAATAGCAC
FP1004.1.3	GGAGCCGGTGACACTGAATAGCAC
FP1004.2.2	GCACAAGGGTGGCTGATTCAAGAC
FP1004.2.2	GCACAAGGGTGGCTGATTCAAGAC
FP1004.2.2	GCACAAGGGTGGCTGATTCAAGAC
FP1004.3.1	CCTCACCATATCGGCCCTTTCCTA
FP1004.3.1	CCTCACCATATCGGCCCTTTCCTA
FP1004.3.1	CCTCACCATATCGGCCCTTTCCTA
FP1113.1.2	CAGTTGTCTGATGGGGGGACTGAGA
FP1113.1.2	CAGTTGTCTGATGGGGGGACTGAGA
FP1113.1.2	CAGTTGTCTGATGGGGGGACTGAGA
FP1113.2.1	TGCTGTTAACTAATGGGCCCTCCA
FP1113.2.1	TGCTGTTAACTAATGGGCCCTCCA
FP1113.2.1	TGCTGTTAACTAATGGGCCCTCCA
FP1113.3.1	ATATGGCTGCTCCACTTCCCCAGT
FP1113.3.1	ATATGGCTGCTCCACTTCCCCAGT
FP1131.1.1	TGAGGCAATTCAGGGGAGAAAACA
FP1131.1.1	TGAGGCAATTCAGGGGAGAAAACA
FP1131.2.2	CACCCCTCCCAGCCTTAGAGAAGA
FP1153.1.1	ACGGAAACTGGCATCTGCAAGAAA
FP1153.1.1	ACGGAAACTGGCATCTGCAAGAAA
FP1153.2.3	GAACAAGCCAAAACCCTGGGAGAG
FP1153.2.3	GAACAAGCCAAAACCCTGGGAGAG
FP1205.1.1	CTTGGGGTGGAGCACGAATGTAAG
FP1259.1.1	TCCTTGCTACCCCGGATTTCATTC
FP1259.1.1	TCCTTGCTACCCCGGATTTCATTC
FP1259.2.1	TGACGTGGGAGAGAATGTGAGTGC
FP1450.1.4	CGCGATGCTGTTCCTGTGATTCT
FP1450.1.4	CGCGATGCTGTTCCTGTGATTCT
FP1450.2.1	GTTTCTCACGAGATGCTGCCCTTC

FP1520.1.3	TTCCTGCTCCACATGGTGTTTCTG
FP1520.1.3	TTCCTGCTCCACATGGTGTTTCTG
FP1520.2.3	TTGACTCAGGTGAGGGCCTAGGTG
FP1520.2.3	TTGACTCAGGTGAGGGCCTAGGTG
FP1541.1.2	GTCATCAGCTTCGTGACTGGGTGA
FP1541.1.2	GTCATCAGCTTCGTGACTGGGTGA
FP1541.2.4	GGACCACCAGTGGATTCCCTCTGT
FP1581.1.5	CGGCTTTGGAAATACGAACTTGGA
FP1581.1.5	CGGCTTTGGAAATACGAACTTGGA
FP1581.1.5	CGGCTTTGGAAATACGAACTTGGA
FP1581.2.2	TGGGTCACATATCTGGGGAGGTGT
FP1581.2.2	TGGGTCACATATCTGGGGAGGTGT
FP1581.2.2	TGGGTCACATATCTGGGGAGGTGT
FP1581.3.1	CCCTTCTGATAGCATCTTCCTCTGA
FP1581.3.1	CCCTTCTGATAGCATCTTCCTCTGA
FP1590.1.1	TCAGCTAATGGCATAGGGCTTCCA
FP1590.1.1	TCAGCTAATGGCATAGGGCTTCCA
FP1590.2.4	AAAAGCCCGATCACCACAGCTTCT
FP1647.1.1	AAGGACTCGAACCAGCGAATCCAG
FP1647.2.1	CACGTCAGTTTGGCTTCATTGTGC
FP1647.3.5	TTTGGACACCACAAAGGTGATGC
FP1647.3.5	TTTGGACACCACAAGGTGATGC
FP1647.3.5	TTTGGACACCACAAAGGTGATGC
FP1647.3.5	TTTGGACACCACAAAGGTGATGC
FP1647.4.4	GGGTCATCTCTTCCAATCCAGTGC
FP1647.4.4	GGGTCATCTCTTCCAATCCAGTGC
FP1647.4.4	GGGTCATCTCTTCCAATCCAGTGC
FP1688.1.1	CACTCAGCTTTCTACGGCCCCTCT
FP1688.1.1	CACTCAGCTTTCTACGGCCCCTCT
FP1688.2.1	TGACCAACGGAAGGAGGAACACAT
FP1753.1.1	TCCGCAGCACTTCCCATCTGTTAT
FP1753.1.1	TCCGCAGCACTTCCCATCTGTTAT
FP1753.1.1	TCCGCAGCACTTCCCATCTGTTAT
FP1753.2.3	TGCCTGTGCAGTCCTTACTCAACG
FP1753.2.3	TGCCTGTGCAGTCCTTACTCAACG
FP1753.2.3	TGCCTGTGCAGTCCTTACTCAACG
FP1753.3.2	AGTGTGCCTTGTGCTGTTGTCCAG

FP1753.3.2	AGTGTGCCTTGTGCTGTTGTCCAG
FP1777.1.2	GCACTGAAAGCCCCTGATTGAAGA
FP1777.1.2	GCACTGAAAGCCCCTGATTGAAGA
FP1777.2.2	AAGCCGAGTATTGTGGGTGTGGAA
FP1928.1.1	GTTCAGGTGAGCCGAGAGCAGTGT
FP1928.1.1	GTTCAGGTGAGCCGAGAGCAGTGT
FP1928.2.1	TGGGATGTTGCTTGATGACACCAC
FP1928.2.1	TGGGATGTTGCTTGATGACACCAC
FP2005.1.2	CGTGGCTCCCTCTACCAATTCTCC
FP2005.1.2	CGTGGCTCCCTCTACCAATTCTCC
FP2005.2.1	AGCCATCCAGTAAGGGTTCCAAGC
FP2005.2.1	AGCCATCCAGTAAGGGTTCCAAGC
FP2022.1.2	GACCACAGCCTCCATTCACCATTC
FP2022.1.2	GACCACAGCCTCCATTCACCATTC
FP2022.2.1	CTCTCCGAGGCTTTGGGCTACAGT
FP2033.1.2	GGGACCAAGAACCACAGACCTCCT
FP2033.1.2	GGGACCAAGAACCACAGACCTCCT
FP2033.1.2	GGGACCAAGAACCACAGACCTCCT
FP2033.2.1	GCTGAGGGGGAGAAACGCGAAATTA
FP2033.2.1	GCTGAGGGGGAGAAACGCGAAATTA
FP2033.2.1	GCTGAGGGGGAGAAACGCGAAATTA
FP2033.3.1	AGAAACTGGGCGGTCTGAGTCTCC
FP2033.3.1	AGAAACTGGGCGGTCTGAGTCTCC
FP2033.3.1	AGAAACTGGGCGGTCTGAGTCTCC
FP2034.1.1	TGTGAGCCTCGCCCTGCTAAATAA
FP2034.2.2	CGCAGATGATGATTGTGGACCTGT
FP2034.3.1	TACTTGCACACCCAAGTCCAGTGC
FP2034.4.2	GATTCCGCACTGGCAGAGAACCT
FP2221.1.1	GGAACAAGAAGATGGTGCGACGAC
FP2221.1.1	GGAACAAGAAGATGGTGCGACGAC
FP2221.2.1	AGAATCTCTTCAAGGGCGGAGCAC
FP2266.1.2	TCAAGCAATGGATGTGGATTTACCC
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FP2266.1.2	TCAAGCAATGGATGTGGATTTACCC
FP2266.2.1	CAGACGTGAGCTGTAGCCGGACTT
FP2266.2.1	CAGACGTGAGCTGTAGCCGGACTT
FP2356.1.1	CGTGCTGGGAAATGTAGGCGATTA
FP2356.1.1	CGTGCTGGGAAATGTAGGCGATTA
FP2356.2.1	TGCTCATTCTGATCGGATGTGTCC
FP2423.1.2	AAACTCAGAAGTGGGCCCCAAGAA
FP2423.1.2	AAACTCAGAAGTGGGCCCCAAGAA
FP2423.1.2	AAACTCAGAAGTGGGCCCCAAGAA
FP2423.2.3	TGGAACCAGAACAGCAAAGCCAAA
FP2423.2.3	TGGAACCAGAACAGCAAAGCCAAA
FP2423.2.3	TGGAACCAGAACAGCAAAGCCAAA
FP2423.3.2	CTGCGTGCAAAAAGGAGAGTGACA
FP2423.3.2	CTGCGTGCAAAAAGGAGAGTGACA
FP2486.1.2	CAGCCTGTGAATGAGGTGGACCAT
FP2519.1.1	CCGGAGGGTAGGGGGGTAATCTCAT
FP2519.1.1	CCGGAGGGTAGGGGGGTAATCTCAT
FP2519.2.1	CTTGCAGATCAGAACGGACCCTGT
FP2538.1.3	CATGACATGGTACCTGCCTCTGGA
FP2538.1.3	CATGACATGGTACCTGCCTCTGGA
FP2538.1.3	CATGACATGGTACCTGCCTCTGGA
FP2538.2.3	TGCTGAAAGAATGCACCCTGACAA
FP2538.2.3	TGCTGAAAGAATGCACCCTGACAA
FP2538.2.3	TGCTGAAAGAATGCACCCTGACAA
FP2538.3.2	CATGTCACCACCCAAATGCTTGTC
FP2538.3.2	CATGTCACCACCCAAATGCTTGTC
FP2538.3.2	CATGTCACCACCCAAATGCTTGTC
FP2616.1.1	GCTGACTGCTAACCACCTTCACCA
FP2616.1.1	GCTGACTGCTAACCACCTTCACCA
FP2616.2.2	TGAGGCATCATTTTAGGCCACAGG
FP2660.1.2	GGAGTCCCTGGGGTTAAGAGGACA
FP2660.1.2	GGAGTCCCTGGGGTTAAGAGGACA
FP2660.1.2	GGAGTCCCTGGGGTTAAGAGGACA
FP2660.2.4	TGGATAAAGCTCCGATTCCTGCTG
FP2660.2.4	TGGATAAAGCTCCGATTCCTGCTG
FP2660.2.4	TGGATAAAGCTCCGATTCCTGCTG
FP2660.3.1	ATATCACAAAGCGTGCAGGCCAAG
FP2660.3.1	ATATCACAAAGCGTGCAGGCCAAG
FP2808.1.4	TTAAATTCGGGGGCCGGTACACTTG
FP2808.1.4	TTAAATTCGGGGGCCGGTACACTTG
FP2808.2.1	ACCACTTGCACATTGAGGGGAAGA
FP2810.1.1	CCATGGTGATTGCCCCTAGAAACA

FP2810.1.1	CCATGGTGATTGCCCCTAGAAACA
FP2810.2.1	TGACTGTCAGTGGAACAGCCAACC
FP2847.1.2	CAGAAGCCACAGGATCCCAGATTG
FP3471.1.2	TCTGGTGCTGATGAGATGGCTCTG
FP3471.1.2	TCTGGTGCTGATGAGATGGCTCTG
FP3471.1.2	TCTGGTGCTGATGAGATGGCTCTG
FP3471.2.3	ACTGTGCTGGCTGGAAACCACTTC
FP3471.2.3	ACTGTGCTGGCTGGAAACCACTTC
FP3471.2.3	ACTGTGCTGGCTGGAAACCACTTC
FP3471.3.1	TGCTTTGGGTAATGTCCGTTCTGG
FP3471.3.1	TGCTTTGGGTAATGTCCGTTCTGG
FP3643.1.2	TCGGCTTCTCACCGTGTTTGACTT
FP3643.1.2	TCGGCTTCTCACCGTGTTTGACTT
FP3643.2.3	GAGCACACATCCTCCACAGGACAA
FP3643.2.3	GAGCACACATCCTCCACAGGACAA
FP4020.1.1	ATCCAGAGGACCGTGCAACAAAAA
FP4185.1.2	GACAAGCCGGACATAGGGGAAATC
FP4400.1.1	TCAGCCTTTGCAGCGGAGAAAGTA
FP4400.1.1	TCAGCCTTTGCAGCGGAGAAAGTA
FP4400.2.3	CACTGCGGAGACCACTTCTTGTCC
FP4470.1.3	GGAGAGTGGAAAGGGCCTTCATGT
FP4470.1.3	GGAGAGTGGAAAGGGCCTTCATGT
FP4470.2.2	GCCCTGATTTGAGCCCTTCAGTCT
FP4845.1.3	GCCATGTGCTTACGCAGACAGGTT
FP4845.1.3	GCCATGTGCTTACGCAGACAGGTT
FP4845.2.1	CACAGGCCAACTTCTGCTTTACCG
RP81.2.2	GGACTGTGCCTCCTTCTGGAACAA
RP81.3.3	ACTGAGGGCCTTTTTGATGCCAAC
RP81.3.3	ACTGAGGGCCTTTTTGATGCCAAC
RP330.3.4	GGCTGTCCTGCTCTACCCGGATTA
RP330.4.1	TTCATGGTTTTCCTGGCGATCTGT
RP330.3.4	GGCTGTCCTGCTCTACCCGGATTA
RP330.4.1	TTCATGGTTTTCCTGGCGATCTGT
RP400.3.2	AGGCCCTTCCCTTGAGACTCTGTG
RP400.4.2	CAGTCCTAGCTGAGGATGGGGACA
RP400.3.2	AGGCCCTTCCCTTGAGACTCTGTG
RP400.4.2	CAGTCCTAGCTGAGGATGGGGACA
RP455.2.1	TGTCGGTCTGTCTCTCTGGGCTTC
RP455.3.1	AGGTGGGCTTTTGTCAAGGATGGT
RP455.3.1	AGGTGGGCTTTTGTCAAGGATGGT
RP467.3.5	TTCTGCAATTTCTGGGCAACTAGGG
RP467.4.2	ATGGCACCAGGTCAATAAGGTTGC
RP467.5.1	TCCTGGAAATGTGCAGATGGATTG

RP467.3.5	TTCTGCAATTTCTGGGCAACTAGGG
RP467.4.2	ATGGCACCAGGTCAATAAGGTTGC
RP467.5.1	TCCTGGAAATGTGCAGATGGATTG
RP467.4.2	ATGGCACCAGGTCAATAAGGTTGC
RP467.5.1	TCCTGGAAATGTGCAGATGGATTG
RP486.3.5	CAAGACATGGGGGGACAAAGAACGA
RP486.4.1	CAGCCTCAGCATTTCCTGGTCTGT
RP486.5.1	CCCTCCCTGAGCTGTTAGGTCCTG
RP486.3.5	CAAGACATGGGGGGACAAAGAACGA
RP486.4.1	CAGCCTCAGCATTTCCTGGTCTGT
RP486.5.1	CCCTCCCTGAGCTGTTAGGTCCTG
RP486.4.1	CAGCCTCAGCATTTCCTGGTCTGT
RP486.5.1	CCCTCCCTGAGCTGTTAGGTCCTG
RP724.3.1	CGGGCCATGTCTTACTGTCGATGT
RP724.4.1	ACCCAGCTTCGTTCTCCTATGCTG
RP724.3.1	CGGGCCATGTCTTACTGTCGATGT
RP724.4.1	ACCCAGCTTCGTTCTCCTATGCTG
RP757.3.1	TGAGCTAGAAGGGACCCATGGACA
RP757.4.4	CTGGCTTCGCCTTCAGCTTTGTAA
RP757.3.1	TGAGCTAGAAGGGACCCATGGACA
RP757.4.4	CTGGCTTCGCCTTCAGCTTTGTAA
RP869.2.1	TGCGTGTCCCGAGAATAGAAAGGA
RP869.3.1	AAGGCCTAGGCAGGAAGGCAATTT
RP869.3.1	AAGGCCTAGGCAGGAAGGCAATTT
RP947.3.1	CTGTCAGCTCGCAGTTCAAGGTCA
RP947.4.2	CTGCTTGCCCACTCTATGGTCGTT
RP947.3.1	CTGTCAGCTCGCAGTTCAAGGTCA
RP947.4.2	CTGCTTGCCCACTCTATGGTCGTT
RP978.2.1	AGCATCTCCATTTTCCCAGGCTGT
RP978.3.3	TGTCACTGCACGTTTACAGCAGCA
RP978.3.3	TGTCACTGCACGTTTACAGCAGCA
RP1004.4.1	GGCTTTCCAGATCCAGTGTGAGGA
RP1004.5.2	TGTAAGCCCCTGAGTTAGGCAGCA
RP1004.6.3	GTCAAGACTCCCTCCGCCTTAGGA
RP1004.4.1	GGCTTTCCAGATCCAGTGTGAGGA
RP1004.5.2	TGTAAGCCCCTGAGTTAGGCAGCA
RP1004.6.3	GTCAAGACTCCCTCCGCCTTAGGA
RP1004.4.1	GGCTTTCCAGATCCAGTGTGAGGA
RP1004.5.2	TGTAAGCCCCTGAGTTAGGCAGCA
RP1004.6.3	GTCAAGACTCCCTCCGCCTTAGGA
RP1113.3.2	GCTCAGAGCCCGTTCCTGGTTTAG
RP1113.4.1	TGTCCGGAAAGGTTTTCTCCTGGT
RP1113.5.1	AAGACATCACCAGGCAGCATCTCA

RP1113.3.2	GCTCAGAGCCCGTTCCTGGTTTAG
RP1113.4.1	TGTCCGGAAAGGTTTTCTCCTGGT
RP1113.5.1	AAGACATCACCAGGCAGCATCTCA
RP1113.4.1	TGTCCGGAAAGGTTTTCTCCTGGT
RP1113.5.1	AAGACATCACCAGGCAGCATCTCA
RP1131.2.3	CGAGAATCTGCAGCTGTGTCAGGA
RP1131.3.1	TTTTTCACCGCTCTGGAAGATGGA
RP1131.3.1	TTTTTCACCGCTCTGGAAGATGGA
RP1153.3.2	GCCCGACATTAATCCGCAGTCTTT
RP1153.4.1	AAACCTTAGGGCCAAGCGGAGACT
RP1153.3.2	GCCCGACATTAATCCGCAGTCTTT
RP1153.4.1	AAACCTTAGGGCCAAGCGGAGACT
RP1205.2.4	CTTGGTCCAGCCATGGCAAACTTA
RP1259.2.1	GCACTCACATTCTCTCCCACGTCA
RP1259.3.1	GCAATTCAAAGGAATGACCCAGCTC
RP1259.3.1	GCAATTCAAAGGAATGACCCAGCTC
RP1450.2.1	TGAAGGGCAGCATCTCGTGAGAAA
RP1450.3.1	CTGCCGTTTAAACTGTGCATCGTG
RP1450.3.1	CTGCCGTTTAAACTGTGCATCGTG
RP1520.3.2	ACTCTTGGTGGGAGCAGGTGGTTT
RP1520.4.2	CTGGACACCCAGTGCATGAGGAT
RP1520.3.2	ACTCTTGGTGGGAGCAGGTGGTTT
RP1520.4.2	CTGGACACCCAGTGCATGAGGAT
RP1541.2.1	CACAGAGGGAATCCACTGGTGGTC
RP1541.3.1	TGTTGTGGCCACTGGCTTGTTAGA
RP1541.3.1	TGTTGTGGCCACTGGCTTGTTAGA
RP1581.3.1	GAGGAAGATGCTATCAGAAGGGTTGA
RP1581.4.1	GGAGGTGCTGTTGAGGTCGTCAGT
RP1581.5.3	GTCACCAGTCCTATGTCCCCACGA
RP1581.3.1	GAGGAAGATGCTATCAGAAGGGTTGA
RP1581.4.1	GGAGGTGCTGTTGAGGTCGTCAGT
RP1581.5.3	GTCACCAGTCCTATGTCCCCACGA
RP1581.4.1	GGAGGTGCTGTTGAGGTCGTCAGT
RP1581.5.3	GTCACCAGTCCTATGTCCCCACGA
RP1590.2.4	AGAAGCTGTGGTGATCGGGCTTTT
RP1590.3.1	CTCACTGCACAAACAGCGAGTGGT
RP1590.3.1	CTCACTGCACAAACAGCGAGTGGT
RP1647.4.1	AAGCCAAAGACACCAGGGTGTTGA
RP1647.5.2	CTGTGTGATCCAGGGTGGGTGTCT
RP1647.6.2	GAATTCCCCGTCTTGACAATGCAC
RP1647.7.1	AGCACATTAGCAGGTCAACCAGGA
RP1647.4.1	AAGCCAAAGACACCAGGGTGTTGA
RP1647.5.2	CTGTGTGATCCAGGGTGGGTGTCT

RP1647.6.2	GAATTCCCCGTCTTGACAATGCAC
RP1647.7.1	AGCACATTAGCAGGTCAACCAGGA
RP1647.4.1	AAGCCAAAGACACCAGGGTGTTGA
RP1647.5.2	CTGTGTGATCCAGGGTGGGTGTCT
RP1647.6.2	GAATTCCCCGTCTTGACAATGCAC
RP1647.7.1	AGCACATTAGCAGGTCAACCAGGA
RP1647.5.2	CTGTGTGATCCAGGGTGGGTGTCT
RP1647.6.2	GAATTCCCCGTCTTGACAATGCAC
RP1647.7.1	AGCACATTAGCAGGTCAACCAGGA
RP1688.2.1	GGACATGTGTTCCTCCTTCCGTTG
RP1688.3.2	GGGTTGGGTCTGGCGTCTAGTTTC
RP1688.3.2	GGGTTGGGTCTGGCGTCTAGTTTC
RP1753.3.2	CTGGACAACAGCACAAGGCACACT
RP1753.4.1	CACGTTTGTGTGCCATTGGAGAAG
RP1753.5.3	CACGGGGTGAAGAGGAGAGTGTGT
RP1753.3.2	CTGGACAACAGCACAAGGCACACT
RP1753.4.1	CACGTTTGTGTGCCATTGGAGAAG
RP1753.5.3	CACGGGGTGAAGAGGAGAGTGTGT
RP1753.4.1	CACGTTTGTGTGCCATTGGAGAAG
RP1753.5.3	CACGGGGTGAAGAGGAGAGTGTGT
RP1777.2.1	TCCACACCCACAATACTCGGCTTT
RP1777.3.1	TGATGTCTGGAGGAGTGCCATCAG
RP1777.3.1	TGATGTCTGGAGGAGTGCCATCAG
RP1928.3.3	ACTGCGCTTCTCGAGTTTCACACC
RP1928.4.4	GCTTGAGCTTGCACCAAGTTGCTC
RP1928.3.3	ACTGCGCTTCTCGAGTTTCACACC
RP1928.4.4	GCTTGAGCTTGCACCAAGTTGCTC
RP2005.3.2	TGTGGGCAGTAGGAAAGGCAGAAC
RP2005.4.2	CCACAGAGGGGCTCACGGTAATGAA
RP2005.3.2	TGTGGGCAGTAGGAAAGGCAGAAC
RP2005.4.2	CCACAGAGGGGCTCACGGTAATGAA
RP2022.2.1	ACTGTAGCCCAAAGCCTCGGAGAG
RP2022.3.2	TGTCCGGTTTGATCATTGCTGTGT
RP2022.3.2	TGTCCGGTTTGATCATTGCTGTGT
RP2033.4.1	TATTCAGGTGGAGTGCAACGTGGA
RP2033.5.4	GACCGAGAGACGCTTGGTTGAAGA
RP2033.6.3	GAGTCCGGAGATGGGAACAACACA
RP2033.4.1	TATTCAGGTGGAGTGCAACGTGGA
RP2033.5.4	GACCGAGAGACGCTTGGTTGAAGA
RP2033.6.3	GAGTCCGGAGATGGGAACAACACA
RP2033.4.1	TATTCAGGTGGAGTGCAACGTGGA
RP2033.5.4	GACCGAGAGACGCTTGGTTGAAGA
RP2033.6.3	GAGTCCGGAGATGGGAACAACACA

RP2034.5.2	GGCCAGGTTCCTCTCTGTGCTTCT
RP2034.6.4	GCAGGGATTTGGAAGGATGTCTGA
RP2034.7.2	GGTGACCTGAAGATCAGGCAGGAG
RP2034.8.1	GGGGAAATACAGAGCCCCATCTGA
RP2034.5.2	GGCCAGGTTCCTCTCTGTGCTTCT
RP2034.6.4	GCAGGGATTTGGAAGGATGTCTGA
RP2034.7.2	GGTGACCTGAAGATCAGGCAGGAG
RP2034.8.1	GGGGAAATACAGAGCCCCATCTGA
RP2034.5.2	GGCCAGGTTCCTCTCTGTGCTTCT
RP2034.6.4	GCAGGGATTTGGAAGGATGTCTGA
RP2034.7.2	GGTGACCTGAAGATCAGGCAGGAG
RP2034.8.1	GGGGAAATACAGAGCCCCATCTGA
RP2034.5.2	GGCCAGGTTCCTCTCTGTGCTTCT
RP2034.6.4	GCAGGGATTTGGAAGGATGTCTGA
RP2034.7.2	GGTGACCTGAAGATCAGGCAGGAG
RP2034.8.1	GGGGAAATACAGAGCCCCATCTGA
RP2221.2.2	CCGCCCTTGAAGAGATTCTGTGTG
RP2221.3.2	GCGGAGGGAGGGAGCTTTATCTTT
RP2221.3.2	GCGGAGGGAGGGAGCTTTATCTTT
RP2266.3.2	TCGCAGTCTGGGGGGAATAAACTCA
RP2266.4.1	TGTGTCCAAAAGTCCAGGTGTCCA
RP2266.3.2	TCGCAGTCTGGGGGGAATAAACTCA
RP2266.4.1	TGTGTCCAAAAGTCCAGGTGTCCA
RP2356.2.2	CCGATCAGAATGAGCAGTCCATGA
RP2356.3.2	GCATCAAACATTCACGGATGTCCA
RP2356.3.2	GCATCAAACATTCACGGATGTCCA
RP2423.3.1	CCAAACATTCCAAGCCAAGATCCA
RP2423.4.1	AGTTCCTGGCTCCGTGCCTTATGT
RP2423.5.2	AAGTGTGTCGGCTAGGGGATCCTG
RP2423.3.1	CCAAACATTCCAAGCCAAGATCCA
RP2423.4.1	AGTTCCTGGCTCCGTGCCTTATGT
RP2423.5.2	AAGTGTGTCGGCTAGGGGATCCTG
RP2423.4.1	AGTTCCTGGCTCCGTGCCTTATGT
RP2423.5.2	AAGTGTGTCGGCTAGGGGATCCTG
RP2486.2.1	AGAGCTTACTCCACCTGCCGTCCT
RP2519.2.2	TTCGGCCTCCGAAGTTCTCCCTAT
RP2519.3.1	TGCTTGGTCAGTCAGCCTCCCTTA
RP2519.3.1	TGCTTGGTCAGTCAGCCTCCCTTA
RP2538.4.1	ATTGTTCCGAGCCATGCAGATGAG
RP2538.5.4	CAGGCTCACGGACTGCATTGTTTT
RP2538.6.4	TCCCACGCAGTGTGTCCTAGTGAA
RP2538.4.1	ATTGTTCCGAGCCATGCAGATGAG
RP2538.5.4	CAGGCTCACGGACTGCATTGTTTT

RP2538.6.4	TCCCACGCAGTGTGTCCTAGTGAA
RP2538.4.1	ATTGTTCCGAGCCATGCAGATGAG
RP2538.5.4	CAGGCTCACGGACTGCATTGTTTT
RP2538.6.4	TCCCACGCAGTGTGTCCTAGTGAA
RP2616.2.4	GGTTCCTTTGGCCGATGTCTTCAT
RP2616.3.1	GTGCAGCGATAAATGAGGGACGAC
RP2616.3.1	GTGCAGCGATAAATGAGGGACGAC
RP2660.3.1	GAAGTTCATTGGCCCACACCTGAG
RP2660.4.4	GCTCCATGAGTGCTCCATGATGTG
RP2660.5.3	CACAAAGGGTGTCCAAGGTTCCAG
RP2660.3.1	GAAGTTCATTGGCCCACACCTGAG
RP2660.4.4	GCTCCATGAGTGCTCCATGATGTG
RP2660.5.3	CACAAAGGGTGTCCAAGGTTCCAG
RP2660.4.4	GCTCCATGAGTGCTCCATGATGTG
RP2660.5.3	CACAAAGGGTGTCCAAGGTTCCAG
RP2808.2.1	TCTTCCCCTCAATGTGCAAGTGGT
RP2808.3.1	AGAAACCCTGGCAAGAGGACAAGG
RP2808.3.1	AGAAACCCTGGCAAGAGGACAAGG
RP2810.2.2	ATTGGGTTGGCTGTTCCACTGACA
RP2810.3.4	TGCTTTGGGTGTGAGGTTGGACTT
RP2810.3.4	TGCTTTGGGTGTGAGGTTGGACTT
RP2847.2.5	GAAAGGCTCATGGGCATTGAACAC
RP3471.3.1	CCAGAACGGACATTACCCAAAGCA
RP3471.4.2	GCCAGAATACAGGTCAGCCTGTGC
RP3471.5.3	ATGATGATGCAGTCTGGACGCAAA
RP3471.3.1	CCAGAACGGACATTACCCAAAGCA
RP3471.4.2	GCCAGAATACAGGTCAGCCTGTGC
RP3471.5.3	ATGATGATGCAGTCTGGACGCAAA
RP3471.4.2	GCCAGAATACAGGTCAGCCTGTGC
RP3471.5.3	ATGATGATGCAGTCTGGACGCAAA
RP3643.3.1	CAGGTCAGGTCAGAACGGAGGCTA
RP3643.4.1	GTATGCCAGGCGCTATACGCAAGA
RP3643.3.1	CAGGTCAGGTCAGAACGGAGGCTA
RP3643.4.1	GTATGCCAGGCGCTATACGCAAGA
RP4020.2.4	TCCGGCTGATGATGAACTGATTGA
RP4185.2.2	CTTGTGGCTCGGGTCCATCTTACA
RP4400.2.2	GGACAAGAAGTGGTCTCCGCAGTG
RP4400.3.3	CGACATGGCTCTGGGCATATGTT
RP4400.3.3	CGACATGGCTCTGGGCATATGTT
RP4470.2.3	GAGCCACAGACTGAAGGGCTCAAA
RP4470.3.1	CTTCCTTGGATGGAGATCGGGTGT
RP4470.3.1	CTTCCTTGGATGGAGATCGGGTGT
RP4845.2.1	CGGTAAAGCAGAAGTTGGCCTGTG

RP4845.3.2	AGCTCAAGCATGGCGGTTATGATG
RP4845.3.2	AGCTCAAGCATGGCGGTTATGATG

Primers used to amplify novel 3' exons on RefSeq genes

RP1785.1.1	GAGGCACGTCCTAATCCACACTGG
RP657.1.1	AGATGGAGGGTGTCCCGACTTCTC
RP1576.1.4	GTGAGGCTCTTTTGGGGGACATCAC
RP2518.1.1	ACACATCGGACACCTTGTGCCTTT
RP3522.1.1	AGAGCGGTAATGCAGCTGAACTCG
RP4906.1.3	AGTGAGGCACGCAGAAATCCAGTT
RP5032.1.1	GGGTCGAGGATTTTTAGGGATGGA
RP688.1.3	ACATCCTAAGCGCTGGTTCCCCTA
RP1778.1.1	ACAGAACCCCGTGGAGTACAAGCA
RP1600.1.3	TGTTCTTCCGTAGGGCACCTCAGT
forward	forward_seq
FPENSMUSG0000001281.15.1	GTGCGATCACAACCACTGTCAACC
FPENSMUSG0000020839.13.1	ATGCCAGGGAGCCAATAAAGATGC
FPENSMUSG0000022148.21.3	TCTGCTCTGTTCATTCCACTGTGC
FPENSMUSG0000025035.6.4	CCGGGAGCTAGAGTCAGCCCTAGA
FPENSMUSG0000028982.11.2	TACCTGCTGGGAGAGCGTGCTTAG
FPENSMUSG0000032175.23.1	TTACTCTGCCTGGAAACCCCACCT
FPENSMUSG0000032491.5.3	AGATCCGGCCACTTCATGTTCCTT
FPENSMUSG0000033983.7.1	ATAGAGCATCTCGCCCATTCCACA
FPENSMUSG00000037525.2.3	GGATGGAGTTAGCGTGCTGTTTCG
FPENSMUSG0000038725.78.1	GTTCGTGTGGGATTCACGACCCTTC

Primers used to amplify novel 5' exons on Ref Seq genes

FP3061.1.1	GCCTGACCCACAGACCAACTGACT
FP1653.1.2	GCAGGTGAACAATCGTTGTGATCG
FP2779.1.2	GGGGAATGGAAGCAGTCCTAGGTG
FP864.1.1	CGGGGCTTACCTGAAGCTATGGAG
FP4957.1.3	AGGTGACAGTGGAACCTGCAGACC
FP4297.1.1	CCTTCAGCCCAAATGCTTGTCATC
FP497.1.3	CCCCTGAATTCCAAGTGTGGTCTC
FP1577.1.2	AGGACCAGGGAAACGAACCTACCC
FP4957.1.3	AGGTGACAGTGGAACCTGCAGACC
FP3572.1.1	GCAGTCTCCTTCCATCCATCGTTC
RPENSMUSG00000053819.1.1	TTCCGAGCTCCTCAAAGAGCTGAT
RPENSMUSG0000064210.1.2	GTCTCCATCCTCATCGTCGTCCTC
RPENSMUSG0000039483.1.3	TTCCGCACCGGAAGTTATCCTACC
RPENSMUSG0000032782.1.1	GAACGGTTAAAAGCGGATGTGCAA
RPENSMUSG0000032733.1.1	AATCATAGAGGGCTCGGCCTTTCA
RPENSMUSG0000030965.1.1	GAAGGTGTAGCCCGAAATGGAAGC

RPENSMUSG0000055053.1.1	GATGAACGGGTGGAACTCATCCTG
RPENSMUSG0000054263.1.1	CAGGAGGGTCAGAGCTGACAGGAG
RPENSMUSG0000032733.1.1	AATCATAGAGGGCTCGGCCTTTCA
RPENSMUSG0000029195.1.5	TGCCAAGCAACAAGGTAAGGGTTG

Primers used to amplify internal exons on RefSeq genes

FP195.4.5	CCAACAGCCTAATGCTGAAGCACA
FP234.3.1	GGCCCTGAACAGAAAACCTGGAAG
FP355.4.1	AGTCCCTGGGCATTCCTCAGAAAA
FP6974.3.1	TGTGTGGAGCACCATACCTACCACA
FP4224.1.1	CCCGGAACCATGAACCCTAACTGT
FP4533.1.1	TGCAAAAATACCAGTCCCCAGTGC
FP4591.3.3	TCTCAGCCATTTTGCACAGACCAG
FP10649.3.3	TCGTAGCCCTACTCTGTGCCCTTG
FP14909.2.3	CCTTGAGACCACGTCTCTGCTTCC
FP15423.2.2	TCCAGGAAACAGATCCTCGACTGG
FP15030.2.1	AATGTTCACTCACACCGGGCAGTT
FP18233.4.1	CTTCGGTCCCTTTAGCCGTTCTTG
FP19324.1.4	TTCGGAGGTCTGGACAGACTAGCA
FP20705.2.1	TGGCAGCAAAAATTCCCTTCTGA
FP23834.3.1	TAGGCACCATCTTGTAGCCCTGGA
FP29245.3.2	GGTTCATCCCAAAACTGATGAGCA
FP29854.3.2	AGAAGCCTCCTTCACTCCCCAGGT
FP9538.2.3	GCTGCGACTTGCAGTCGATGGTAT
FP31215.3.1	CTGTGAAGTTCCATGCCAGGACAG
FP23698.1.1	ATGGGAAAAAGCAGTGGGATTTGG
RP195.5.2	TTAGCATCAGCGACAGCCAGAGGT
RP234.4.1	TCTGCTTCCCGTCTTCATAGTGGA
RP355.5.3	CCACTCTTCCTTCATGGGTGCAAG
RP6974.4.1	TTGGAGATCATGGAAGTGGCTCGT
RP4224.2.2	AACTTTGCCCACACCCAGGTCTCT
RP4533.2.1	CTTGGCTCTAACACAGCAGCAGCA
RP4591.4.1	CTATGGGCCTCGATGCATGATCTC
RP10649.4.1	ACCTGATTCGCTGGCGTAGAGATG
RP14909.3.1	ACCTGGGGAGGAACACACTTTCCA
RP15423.3.2	GATACCATGCAGTGCAAAGCACCT
RP15030.3.2	TAAGCTGTGTGCAGTCTGAAGCAA
RP18233.5.1	GAGTGTACCCTGCCGGCTTCTTCT
RP19324.2.4	TTAGAAGGGCTTTGGGGGGATGGTT
RP20705.3.1	CCTAGGAAGCGAGGGGTCTGGTTC
RP23834.4.1	TCGATCTTGCTGGACCACTTCTCC
RP29245.4.2	GCATGTTTCCTCTTCCGTTCGAAAA
RP29854.4.3	TCTGTCTGTCAGCCATCAACAGCA

RP9538.3.1	CGCTGAGAGACACCATCACAAAGC
RP31215.4.5	GTATGCTGTTCTCCTGGGCCATGT
RP23698.2.1	AGGCACAGCTGTAGGTTGGTTTCG

Primers on hypertrapped genes FPE577769 GCCATACACCATGGATGCGTTC FPE141136 FPE214933 FPE110463 FPE277766 FPE352331 FPE250850 FPE106542 FPE295390 FPE214915 **RPE577768** RPE511104 RPE392401 RPE396136 RPE127477 RPE582536 RPE362649 RPE264351 RPE295384 RPE214916 Primers on trapped RefSeq NP_808265.1 Cklfsf5 Gcnt3 Cbr1 Ly6g6c Zik1 Gprc5b Egr1 Tceal1 2610319K07Rik RPE365971 RPE320895 RPE217909 RPE253497 RPE141753

RPE198304

GCACACCTTACGGACACGGAGA GGCCATCCATAACCGAGGGAAA ACTAGCGCCACCGCCCTTTCT TTGGACAGGCGCATGGTTAAGG CGGCAAAGCCGAGAAGGAGAAC CCCTACAGTGGCTGTGGGGAAAGTC GCTTCCGACATGATGGTTCTCCTG GATGACCCGCAGAGTGGAGAGC TGGAATCCGCGAAGATCAGAGC AGCAAATCCGGGGGTAGCCTCTG GCTGGTTGTGAATTACTTCCTTGG CTGCCTGTGGTCCACTCGATCC GAAGATGGCCTGCCACTCAGGA CCAAGTTCTTCTCAGGTTCCCAAG GGGCTTGATGTCCAGAGGCAGA CTGGCCACGTGCAGGGAAAG CCAGCAGCCATCTTTCCTCCGTA GGTGTTGGGGCTCATTAAGCAGTGA TGTCAACAATCTGAGAGCCCGAGA

CACCAGCACCATCAGCCCATTT ACCAGCGCTTCGATAGGCTCAA CTCCACATCACTCACGGCGTTG AATACGGAGGCCTGGACGTGCT TCCTGTTGCTCACCCTGTCTGC TGCAGAAATGGATATGGCCCTCA CCAGTGCACCGTTCAGAAGCAA GGAGCCGAGCGAACAACCCTAT CCTTGATCGAGAAGGAAAGCAGAA CGCCGTACTTGCAGGAAAGCAG AGACCCATCACATCGGCAAGGA GCAGCAAAGGAGACCACCAGGA CATCAAGCCTTGCCCAGCAGAG TTGAATGTGGAAGGGGGGTGTCG ACAGCCCAGCACAGGGACTTTG TCTCCATTCTTCATGGGAGAAGCAA

RPE410397	GTGTGAGATGGCGGAGCAGTTG
RPE433523	TCGTCTCCACCATCGCCTTCTC
RPE389668	CTCTTCATTTTCACTGCGCGTGTT
RPE177331	CGGGAATACCACTTGTTCCTGGAC

Primers used to amplify fragments te	ested in zebrafish
2894F	CAAATGACAGACGCACCTAAG
2894R	TTCTCTTTGTGGTCCCTGCT
2755F	GGTATCTGTGCGCCTTTTCT
2755R	CAGATTTGAATTTGCAGCGA
2756F	CGCAGATGAAATTGGACAGA
2756R	GACAGGACATCAGGACAGGC
1645F	GGGATGTGTTCTCCATGCTT
1645R	CAATACAATGACGGAGAGGG
1646F	CCGATTCTCCCATCAGTTCA
1646R	CTGTAGTGGGGGCAACAGGAG
1652F	ACATTCAGAAGAGCCAGCGT
1652R	GCAGCCATAGTTCCCAGTCT
1653F	AGCCTAAACACACCACCTCG
1653R	CGTGAGAAAATGGCTGACGTA
1653IF	GTCCCGGTACACAACAAGGA
1553IR	GACATTCTGGAACCCTCCAA
333F	AACCACGAGTGAAACTCGGA
333R	CATTCAGCCTGGCTCTCTGT
1194F	TGACACAACGGGAAACTACA
1194R	GAACTGGGAAGTGTGCAAGG
2598F	ATACCCCTGGGTTAAAAGGC
2598R	GCTGCTGAACAGCGGTAAGT
2598IF	TGCACCTCTGATTGAGGAGTT
2598IR	CCCCTGTCTTTATGAGATAACCA
44F	CACGTGTTGTGCTTGTTTCC
44R	TCCTTTACCTTCCAACCCTG
45F	CCCTAGGAGGGGGTCTCAGTAG
45R	ATGCTTCCATCTGCTGGTCT
691F	GCATACAGTCGCCCAAACTC
691R	ACGCTTAGGTATCAGCGGAG
692F	GCTTGTTGACGGAGTGGTTC
692R	CAGAACGCTGCTTTGTGAGA
1050F	TAGCCTGATGGCCATTAACA
1050R	GGAAACTTACATTCGCTCCC
1051F	AGATAGCACAGGCCAGATGAA
1051R	GGAGCGATAAAAAGATGAGCA

TGGGGAGAAACAATGTAGGC	
GAAACCCTCCTCCATGATCC	
AAGACTCTTTTGGTGGCCTCT	
TCAAGAGGGTGATGGTCTCTG	
ATCCAATTTGGCTGATCCTG	
TGTTGTCTGACGCTCAATGC	
GTGCGCTCATTACCAGCTCT	
GGAGTACAAGTGCAACTGCC	
TTAGGCACTGGGGACAGAGT	
TTGATGGTGGTTGCATTTTG	
GTGAGGCAGGCTTGGTTAAG	
AAGTCTCCTGGAGCCATCTTC	
GGTGGTTTTTCCCTGACTGAG	
TGGCAGTCTAGAGCCACCAT	
GGGCAATATCAGAGCGAGAC	
CCCTCAAATGTTCCTGTTCG	
TGGCTTTTGTCCATTCTGTG	
ATCCCTAACCCAACATTCTGT	
GTCACCCGCTGTTATGATTG	
GTTCTGCCCACGACTGATCT	
Primer used to amplify negative controls fragments	
TCTGCTTACAGATGCTGGCT	
CCCATAATGGACACCCTCTG	
GGTGGTCGGCTGTAAAAAGA	
TGCTTAGTTTGTGTCGGTGG	
GTGTGTCATCCTCATCCACG	
GGAAGCCTTTTTACCCCAGA	

VC112101	
VC3255F	CCCATAATGGACACCCTCTG
VC2797F	GGTGGTCGGCTGTAAAAAGA
VC198F	TGCTTAGTTTGTGTCGGTGG
VC909F	GTGTGTCATCCTCATCCACG
VC410F	GGAAGCCTTTTTACCCCAGA
VC10157F	TTGGAGATCAGATCACAGGG
VC11271F	GCCGTTGCGTTTTATTTAGC
VC5990F	CAGTGTTGCAGGCAGAAGAA
VC268F	TCTTCTTTCCGTCGAACTGG
VC11767F	CCTTTCATACGTCGCTCGAT
VC5945F	GTCCGCGAGTGCAATAAATC
VC11216R	CTCGTAAAGGGTGTGGTGTG
VC3255R	GTTCTGGACGCATCAGGATT
VC2797R	CGGTGGTCCCTATCTGAGTC
VC198R	TCCTCCATTTTGTTTGGTCC
VC909R	CATTCCATGATGGTGCTCTG
VC410R	TCATATCCAAACCCGAGGAG
VC10157R	CGATGGATGAATCAGCAAGA
VC11271R	CAGCTGCTAAGGATCATGGG
VC5990R	CAAGGGAACACGGGGTATTA

TCCGGATGATGGTGTTACAG
CGTGTTGCCTAAACACAACC
TGCAGAGGTCACAGAAATGC

Primer used to amplify positive controls fragments VF17653F CTGTCGGTCAGACTCCAACA VF17654F AGTTCACCTGGTGTGCTGAA VF17655F CATCAGTGACACATGGCGTT GGCCCCATAAAGGTTCATTC VF17656F GTGTGGTGACTCAGCCATGT VF5490F VF5491F GCCATTGATTCCCTCCAGAC VF5492F GTTTAGCTCCAGCCCTGATG CCAATATTTCCCATCAGCCT FF6026F GTGTCGACTCGAGGTGAAGA FF12058F FF12057F ACACGCTTCCTGGAGATGAC GACGTCACCGTGGAATTGTC FF28050F VF17653R CAGCAATGGAAGCAGTGAGA VF17654R AGCCATTTCTTTCGTTACGG VF17655R GGAAGGAAACTGTGGGAATG VF17656R CCCTCCATAAAACAGCTCACA VF5490R GGACAACTGGGATTGTGGTT VF5491R GGAAGGGAATTTTGGCACTT VF5492R GAGCACTAACCTCGACAGGC FF6026R GCACGCGTCACAATGTCTTA FF12058R GCTTGAATCGAGGTCTCAGC FF12057R CTGAAGACAGACTCCGTCCC AATTAGGCCGAAGGGGTAAG FF28050R