

SeaBase: a multispecies transcriptomic resource and platform for gene network inference

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ABSTRACT

Marine and aquatic animals are extraordinarily useful as models for identifying mechanisms of development and evolution, regeneration, resistance to cancer, longevity and symbiosis, among many other areas of research. This is due to the great diversity of these organisms and their wide-ranging capabilities. Genomics tools are essential for taking advantage of these “free lessons” of nature. However, genomics and transcriptomics are challenging in emerging model systems. Here, we present SeaBase, a tool for helping to meet these needs. Specifically, SeaBase provides a platform for sharing and searching transcriptome data. More importantly, SeaBase will support a growing number of tools for inferring gene network mechanisms. The first dataset available on SeaBase is a developmental transcriptome profile of the sea anemone *Nematostella vectensis* (Anthozoa, Cnidaria). Additional datasets are currently being prepared and we are aiming to expand SeaBase to include user-supplied data for any number of marine and aquatic organisms, thereby supporting many potentially new models for gene network studies. SeaBase can be accessed online at: <http://seabase.core.cli.mbl.edu>.

INTRODUCTION

Newly developed sequencing techniques such as next-generation sequencing, which allow sampling of the entire transcriptome, are currently reducing the “barriers to entry” for complex systems in any number of new model organisms (Ekblom and Galindo 2011). These techniques allow researchers for the first time to acquire data on an appropriate scale. However, the handling and analyses of these datasets remains challenging.

Why Marine Models?

The sea provides an abundance of diverse organisms suitable as models for addressing many diverse questions in life science. One of the best-studied marine organisms is the sea urchin, which has been used as a model for developmental biology for over 100 years (McClay 2011). Sea urchins have come to represent one of the pioneering models for the application of functional genomics to determine the gene regulatory network (GRN) for embryogenesis (Davidson et al. 2002; Davidson 2010). The features that have made the sea urchin an excellent model – e.g., easy to control fertilization, synchronized cultures in simple conditions that are easy to follow, and simple gene delivery by microinjection. (McClay 2011) – are shared by many aquatic animals.

Aquatic organisms hold promise as new models for several biomedically relevant fields, such as regeneration, cancer research, and aging. Marine organisms like starfish and sea cucumbers will greatly complement our understanding of regenerative processes (Lawrence 1991; García-Arrarás et al. 1998; García-Arrarás et al. 1999; Hernroth et al. 2010; Mashanov et al. 2012; Sun et al. 2013). Sea cucumbers extrude their viscera as a defense mechanism, followed by major regenerative organogenesis within a few weeks (García-Arrarás et al. 1998; García-Arrarás et al. 1999). Starfish can

regenerate lost arms, and some are even capable of regenerating the entire body from just one arm, using this as a defense mechanism or even to reproduce asexually via fission (Mladenov et al. 1986; Carneveli 2006; Hernroth et al. 2010). Other marine organisms such as annelids and the lamprey also exhibit impressive regenerative capabilities (Bely 2006). Lampreys are the only vertebrate known to achieve full functional recovery following injury to the spinal cord (Selzer 1978; Lurie and Selzer 1991; Bloom and Morgan 2011; Lau et al. 2013; Zhang et al. 2013), although, interestingly, not all neurons survive the injury (Barreiro-Iglesias and Shifman 2012; Busch and Morgan 2012). The study of these organisms can greatly complement biomedical understanding of regenerative processes.

Amphibians like axolotl and newt are excellent models for controlled studies of the resistance to cancer; see overview by Oviedo and Beane (2009). In lentectomized eyes of newt only the dorsal iris regenerates the new lens, while simultaneously the ventral iris, which is incapable of regeneration, forms tumors when carcinogenic chemicals are applied during regeneration (Okamoto 1997). Thus, amphibian models illustrate perfectly the well-known nexus between regeneration, development and cancer biology (Waddington 1935), with cancer-resistance in amphibians being linked directly to regenerative processes and potential (Brockes 1998).

Marine organisms might also offer new avenues in aging research. Classical aging models that have been used to map out important genes and pathways are *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*, *Caenorhabditis elegans*, and *Drosophila melanogaster* (Guarente and Kenyon 2000; Kennedy 2008; Austad 2009). While these examples have a short lifespan, other animals (including a large number of marine species) offer excellent models of longevity (Bodnar 2009). Several species of non-colonial marine invertebrates can live for more than 100 years, and some of these grow and reproduce during their entire life (Bodnar 2009). Studying these animals may reveal new and efficient strategies to understand and slow down aging (Bodnar 2009). In some cases, e.g., as in asexually reproducing *Hydra vulgaris*,

there seem to be a lack of aging mechanisms entirely; thus, longevity is extreme (Martínez 1998). The oldest recorded non-colonial animal is a marine organism: *Arctica islandica*, the ocean quahog clam, which was 405 years old when it was collected (Wanamaker et al. 2008). In fact, the lifespan varies widely among bivalves and even closely related species differ markedly. While the scallop *Argopecten irradians* has a lifespan of only 18 – 22 months, the closely related *Argopecten purpuratus* lives for up to 7 years (Estabrooks 2007). Future studies on length of the telomere, stem-cell function, and the response to reactive oxygen species or pathways regulating specific factors such as sirtuins, offer points of comparison with mammalian studies. There also are discovery-efforts designed to identify novel factors and pathways that regulate longevity.

The use of marine models in evolutionary developmental biology (evo-devo)

While biomedical research still focuses on a small number of model organisms and is only now beginning to slowly include new model systems, *evo-devo* researchers have begun to increase the number of model species dramatically – and in fact many of those new models are marine organisms. *Evo-devo* research began to rise in the 1980s, when the *Hox* gene family was discovered and researchers realized that the same regulatory genes were shared across all major metazoan taxa and that developmental data could contain a strong and marked evolutionary signal (Raff 2000). At the center of *evo-devo* is the attempt to understand the molecular basis for differences in the organization of animal body plans and the origin of novel structures (Müller 2007; Martindale and Hejnol 2009). Non-bilaterian animals such as sponges, ctenophores and cnidarians are of particular interest (Miller 2009) and all of them are aquatic, predominantly marine, organisms. A selection of emerging non-bilaterian *evo-devo* model systems is listed in Table 1.

Evo-devo research also began to expand the focus from ecdysozoans (fly and *Caenorhabditis elegans*) and deuterostomes (mice, frogs and fish) to the third major but yet understudied bilaterian taxon – the

Lophotrochozoa – to study the origin of segmentation, sense organs and the centralized nervous system. Lophotrochozoans include several taxa with spiral cleavage such as mollusks, annelids, nemerteans and planarians and other taxa such as bryozoans, brachiopods and phoronids (Tessmar-Raible and Arendt 2003; Dunn et al. 2008; Helmkamp et al. 2008). Examples of emerging lophotrochozoan models are summarized in Table 1. New marine deuterostomes and ecdysozoan models begin to complement our views on animal evolution and Table 1 provides a small selection of new model species.

While *evo-devo* is paving the way for a broad selection of new model organisms, far more examples motivating research into new model systems, especially marine animals, abound. One example is the development of the sea anemone *Aiptasia* as a model for symbiotic and commensal relationships (Sunagawa et al. 2009; Lehnert et al. 2012). Other examples are cuttlefish, squid, and *Octopus* as new models of neurophysiology and complex behaviors, such as learning and camouflage (Fiorito and Scotto 1992; Williamson and Chrachri 2004; Mähger et al. 2009; Chiao et al. 2011).

The enabling technology of genomics

Functional genomics opens avenues of research into many organisms, promising valuable insight into any number of areas of biomedical and basic research. RNA-seq and targeted genetic perturbations provide key tools for interrogating complex systems (Ozsolak and Milos 2011). This set of advanced technologies will provide new insights into the transcriptional regulatory network underlying processes like the regulation of development and growth, longevity and regeneration. Importantly, these techniques can be applied with relatively few restrictions. Thus, the acquisition of data on the appropriate scale is in many cases not limiting. The bottleneck, however, is in interpreting the vast amount of data generated (Zhang et al. 2012). This problem is especially limiting in non-model or emerging-model organisms.

Here, we introduce **SeaBase**, a web resource for transcriptomic data for aquatic animals. Our first goal is to enable more effective sharing of data to open new avenues for collaboration and for analysis of data. Our second goal is to support tools for analyzing transcriptomic data to determine testable models of the transcriptional regulatory network. Finally, we will briefly compare SeaBase with other databases. The first dataset on SeaBase is a developmental RNA-seq time series of the sea anemone *Nematostella vectensis*, a non-bilaterian species. Similar datasets for other species are currently being processed and will be available in the near future.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

Culture and spawning of Nematostella

Nematostella vectensis was cultured as previously described (Darling et al. 2005; Genikhovich and Technau 2009a; Stefanik et al. 2013). Animals were kept in the dark at 17°C. Spawning was induced by exposure to 9 hours of bright light in combination with a heat-shock (25°C). Male and female animals were kept separated to control for time of fertilization. All samples were collected in one synchronized spawning of several males and females and all eggs were fertilized synchronously. After fertilization the eggs were washed with 2% cystein solution (pH 7.4) for 7 minutes followed by 3 washes with sterile filtered 50% natural seawater. The eggs and embryos were kept at an ambient temperature of 17°C ± 0.5°C.

Collection of samples, extraction of mRNA, preparation and sequencing of the libraries

For each sample, 300 embryos were counted and collected. Sampling began with unfertilized eggs (0 h), and was continued at 1h-intervals until 19 h. Eggs for the 0 h time-point were not fertilized before removing the gelatinous mass. For most samplings, 2 samples (A and B) were collected. Samples for the same time-point were always collected within 10 min of each other. Only one sample per time-

point was available from 3h to 10h. The collected eggs and embryos respectively were centrifuged at 2000 rpm for 30sec, supernatant water removed, and 300 µl lysis buffer, supplied by the Dynabead kit (Invitrogen), added. The tissue was homogenized with a pestle. The samples were stored in lysis buffer at -80°C. The libraries were prepared as described previously (Tulin et al. 2013). The libraries underwent paired-end sequencing with 100bp read length on an Illumina HighSeq 1000. The raw data are available at WHOAS (Woods Hole open access server), doi: 10.1575/1912/5981.

Analyses of bioinformatics

After trimming and removing reads of low quality, ribosomal RNA and other contaminating RNAs as described in Tulin et al. (2013) using Bowtie 2.00-beta6 (Langmead et al. 2009), the reads were mapped against a *Nematostella* reference transcriptome (Tulin et al. 2013). Fragments per kilobase of exon per million fragments mapped (FPKM) values were determined using RSEM (Li and Dewey 2011) and further quantified based on the known concentration of the ERCC controls. Finally the number of molecules per embryo was determined and plotted over time as described in Tulin et al. (2013).

Database

SeaBase is a web-application. It is built using a variety of Open Source technologies. The code of SeaBase itself is licensed under the open-source MIT license and is freely available for study or reuse. Changes to the code are tracked in a code repository using the revision control system Git (<http://git-scm.com>) and the code is publicly available at <https://github.com/EOL/seabase>. Transcript sequences, results of the regression analysis, and information about orthology are stored using a MySQL relational database. The Graphical User Interface of the web application is created using the Sinatra framework written in Ruby. Several open-source libraries are used for communication between the database and the web front end.

The integrated graphs of the data are generated by Google Charts (<https://developers.google.com/chart/>), a proprietary JavaScript graphing library with a freely available API (application programming interface), as well as the open source D3.js library (<http://d3js.org/>). Network graph analysis is performed using the Gephi API (<http://gephi.org>). Blast searches against stored data are performed with code from [wwwblast](http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/staff/tao/URLAPI/wwwblast/) (<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/staff/tao/URLAPI/wwwblast/>) (Altschul et al. 1990; Altschul et al. 1997; Schäffer et al. 2001). SeaBase is served using the Nginx web server and Unicorn application server on an Ubuntu Linux machine.

RESULTS

The sea anemone *Nematostella vectensis* is the first organism hosted by SeaBase

SeaBase is available online at: <http://seabase.core.cli.mbl.edu> (Fig. 1). SeaBase can accommodate transcriptome data for any number of aquatic animals. For the pilot, we have used data from the starlet sea anemone, *Nematostella vectensis*, an emerging model system for development, evolution, genomics, regeneration, and ecology (Darling et al. 2005; Genikhovich and Technau 2009b; Gilmore et al. 2013; Stefanik et al. 2013). The sampling methods and data analyses for this test-case dataset are described in the material and methods section. Notably, these data were collected as part of a high-resolution time-series with 20 time-points, one sample per hour from fertilization to the onset of gastrulation. A primary function of SeaBase is visualizing time-series expression plots.

Sharing and searching of genes

A primary goal of SeaBase is to provide a platform for sharing and searching transcriptome data. SeaBase can be searched by UniProt accession number, gene annotation, or protein name (Fig. 2). For example 'polymerase alpha', 'P17918' and 'Pcna' are all valid searches. An autofill function helps users rapidly identify genes of interest (Fig. 2). SeaBase annotations are currently based on hits in

UniProt databases. User-supplied datasets may also use UniProt annotations or annotations from genome projects or other user-supplied annotation files.

SeaBase can be searched by BLAST

SeaBase locally runs NCBI BLAST (Basic Local Alignment Search Tool) to search all comp_IDs stored on SeaBase (Fig. 3). Each comp_ID identifies a unique sequence that has been assembled by Trinity (Grabherr et al. 2011), representing transcripts or splice variants of transcripts and transcript fragments. The BLAST function allows searching of the entire dataset and the ability to identify orthologs, paralogs, and splice variants of particular genes of interest.

SeaBase searches, whether via BLAST or a specific search term, return the developmental transcription level profile (number of molecules per embryo over developmental time) for any query, as well as all assembled sequences associated with that gene in FASTA format (Fig. 4).

Plotting functions

The second set of functions supported by SeaBase consists of basic plotting tools. As the current datasets represent the collection of RNA-seq samples as a developmental time-series, the main purpose in the current release is to generate temporal expression plots. Thus, the expression levels of a gene of interest may be plotted over time (Fig. 4).

Cluster analysis

The main goal for SeaBase is to facilitate analysis of gene network. Identifying genes with similar temporal profiles of expression can provide insight into the transcriptional regulatory network. For example, such profiles could indicate waves of zygotic gene activation.

SeaBase offers a clustering method based on a cosine similarity metric to determine sets or “clusters” of genes with similar expression profiles. The cosine similarity metric works as follows: Each gene within a time-series dataset is represented by a vector in N-dimensional space. N is the number of dimensions depending on the number of time-intervals in the time-series. For the *Nematostella vectensis* time-series, 20 time-points were collected; thus, a 19-dimensional space is used to analyze the data. For each gene, the change in expression over each sampling-interval are represented by the corresponding coordinate of the associated vector in multi-dimensional space. We collected *Nematostella* samples every hour. Therefore, our sampling interval is one hour and changes in level of gene expression over each one-hour interval are represented by their position within the 19-dimensional space. The cosine is determined for the angle between two vectors of the multi-dimensional space for all possible pairs of gene. Genes then are grouped, based on similar changes over time. Note that the cosine measure does not take the magnitude of the vector into account, but only the orientation. This implicitly introduces a normalization step, which is certainly desirable when dealing with a transcriptomic dataset, since the expressions of two transcripts can easily differ by orders of magnitude. A beta-version of this tool is currently online and a clustering dataset with 0 h offset and 99.5% similarity is currently available under “Export”. This dataset can be exported and viewed using Gephi.

There are a number of advantages to clustering by this algorithm. First, it allows the generation of a pairwise correlation matrix for a window of expression. In addition, it allows for computing a pairwise correlation matrix that incorporates delays. A one-hour difference in time between windows may be informative for network inference. These values may be used to compute Granger causality (Granger 1988), to identify those pairs of gene that are correlated with a delay in time. A clustering dataset with 1 h offset and 99% similarity can be downloaded from SeaBase.

Network inference

As mentioned previously, SeaBase uses cosine similarity to evaluate pairwise correlations between every pair of genes, including different time-windows and with an option for delay. These data can be represented in graphical form, wherein the nodes of the network are the genes, and the edge connecting any two nodes represent the strength of the correlation between those two genes. Thus, these data can be used to infer a correlation network. SeaBase provides for the export of these data in an XML file for use with network graphing tools, such as Gephi (Bastian et al. 2009) or Cytoscape (Shannon et al. 2003; Smoot et al. 2011). As mentioned above, two example datasets are currently available for download.

SeaBase can host additional datasets

In addition to the *Nematostella* expression profile, SeaBase is open to host data from other animals and we are currently preparing to upload additional datasets. Users wishing to upload their own data should follow directions on SeaBase to contact the maintainers of the site.

DISCUSSION

SeaBase is an online database (<http://seabase.core.cli.mbl.edu>) that hosts transcriptomic datasets for aquatic animals. SeaBase offers various tools to share, search, and analyze transcriptomic data and to support studies of gene regulatory network in non-model and emerging-model organisms.

The first dataset on SeaBase is a high-density developmental RNA-seq time course of the sea anemone *Nematostella vectensis*, covering developmental stages in one-hour intervals starting from unfertilized eggs and extending to the onset of gastrulation. To our knowledge, this is the first time transcriptional profiling has been done at such high density for an emerging model organism. We are currently

preparing to add four more transcriptional profiling datasets for other marine invertebrates into SeaBase.

The transcriptome of *Edwardsiella lineata*, a parasitic anemone and the sister species of *Nematostella vectensis* has recently been sequenced and is available on EdwardsiellaBase (Stefanik et al. 2014). EdwardsiellaBase offers a number of helpful search and browsing functions as well as the possibility for users to submit entries (Stefanik et al. 2014). While EdwardsiellaBase focuses on only one species, SeaBase is designed to host several species and will offer a comprehensive toolset to analyze transcriptomic datasets and infer gene interactions.

Next-generation sequencing has revolutionized transcriptomics since this technique was released in 2008 (Mortazavi et al. 2008; Sultan et al. 2008; Wilhelm et al. 2008). *De novo* transcriptome approaches became a particularly viable option for organisms without a reference genome or that have a poorly assembled genome (McGettigan 2013). Among animals without a sequenced reference genome are a large number of emerging marine model systems, many of which are listed in Table 1. Next-generation sequencing is therefore especially valuable for broadening biological sampling and extending the list of systems from the “big five” model species (*Drosophila melanogaster*, *Caenorhabditis elegans*, *Xenopus*, *Danio rerio*, and *Mus musculus*) to multiple species, each particularly suitable for a specific biological question.

However, the amount of data next-generation sequencing creates has also caused problems for the management and storage of data (McGettigan 2013). SeaBase addresses this problem and offers a place to host, manage, and analyze RNAseq datasets for several species.

Online resources and databases have become incredibly valuable over the past three decades. Huge genomic databases like GenBank, launched in 1986 (Bilofsky et al. 1986; Bilofsky and Christian 1988)

and Ensembl, launched in 2000 (Butler 2000; Hubbard and Birney 2000) as well as databases focused on one or a few closely related species like Flybase, launched in 1994 (Ashburner and Drysdale 1994; Consortium 1994) and Wormbase, launched in 2001 (Stein et al. 2001), are part of every researcher's daily work. These databases are essential to host, store, find, share, and manage the large amount of data produced by the research community. The number of databases has been growing dramatically, reflecting a lasting demand. In March 2014, the Nucleic Acid Database collection included 1552 databases, including 58 new databases released in 2013 (Fernández-Suárez et al. 2014).

The main role of online databases is to make large datasets accessible to the research community (Baxevanis 2003) and sequencing efforts, such as the developmental transcriptome profile of *Nematostella*, will only be successful if the resulting data are available to the research community. Most importantly, online databases have to be easily searched and entries must be retrievable in a suitable, meaningful format (Baxevanis 2003).

SeaBase addresses these issues and aims to be the first database that provides the possibility to store, browse, and analyze RNA-seq datasets for aquatic non-model animal systems all within one platform.

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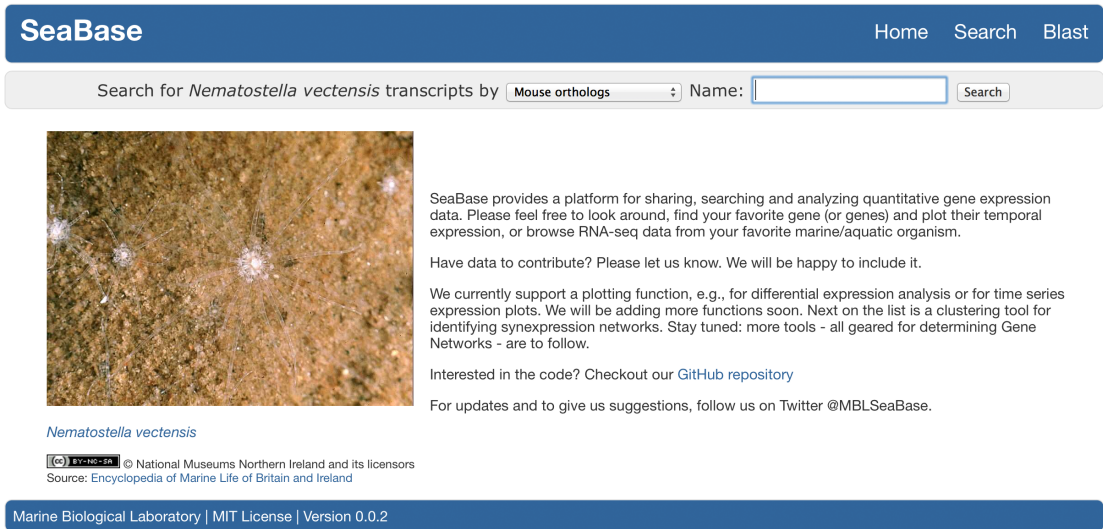


Fig. 1: SeaBase is a new online database that is currently hosting a developmental RNA-seq time-series for *Nematostella vectensis*. It can be accessed at: <http://seabase.core.cli.mbl.edu>. SeaBase can be searched by gene name or via BLAST.

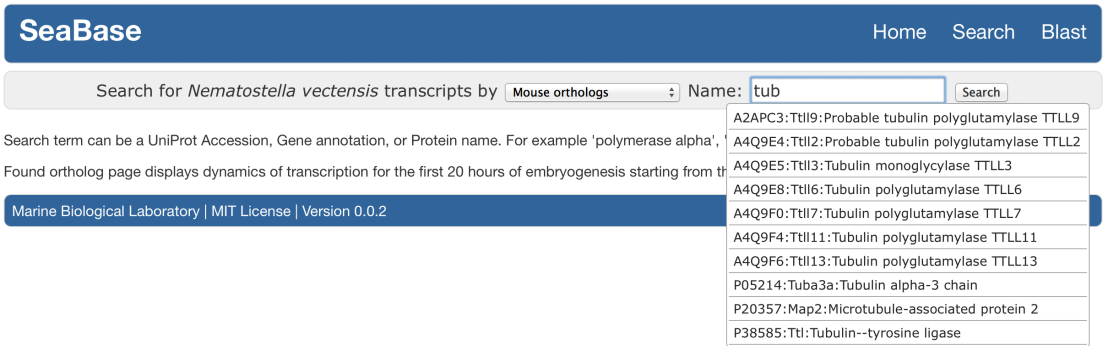


Fig. 2: SeaBase can be searched via a search terms such as protein names, UniProt Accession number or gene annotation. An autofill function helps to identify available candidates.

Search for *Nematostella vectensis* transcripts by Name:

BLASTN 2.2.26 [Sep-21-2011]

Reference:

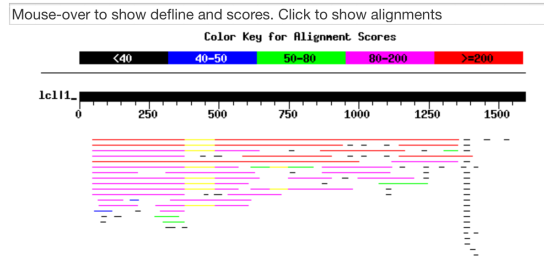
Altschul, Stephen F., Thomas L. Madden, Alejandro A. Schäffer, Jinghui Zhang, Zheng Zhang, Webb Miller, and David J. Lipman (1997), "Gapped BLAST and PSI-BLAST: a new generation of protein database search programs", *Nucleic Acids Res.* 25:3389-3402.

Database: nematostella_vectensis_transcriptome
120,003 sequences; 74,730,635 total letters

Query=

(1593 letters)

Distribution of 98 Blast Hits on the Query Sequence



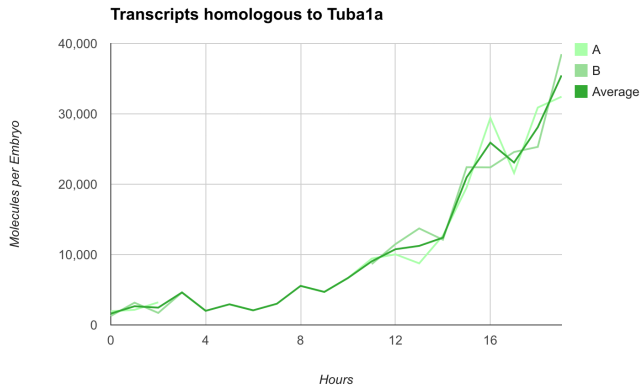
Sequences producing significant alignments:	Score (bits)	E Value
NVT-comp877_c0_seq1	872	0.0
NVT-comp877_c0_seq2	394	e-108
NVT-comp33_c0_seq10	331	2e-89
NVT-comp33_c0_seq9	327	3e-88
NVT-comp14036_c0_seq1	319	7e-86
NVT-comp33_c0_seq8	270	6e-71
NVT-comp33_c0_seq7	252	1e-65
NVT-comp33_c0_seq5	196	7e-49
NVT-comp33_c0_seq3	196	7e-49
NVT-comp33_c0_seq1	196	7e-49
NVT-comp3540_c0_seq2	176	6e-43
NVT-comp877_c0_seq3	170	4e-41
NVT-comp33_c0_seq6	170	4e-41
NVT-comp33_c0_seq4	170	4e-41
NVT-comp33_c0_seq2	170	4e-41

Fig. 3: SeaBase can be searched by BLAST. BLAST may be used to identify different orthologs, paralogs or splice variants of any given gene. Each BLAST hit (the list of comp_IDs shown in blue on the bottom left) can be activated and will return the temporal expression profile of that comp_ID.

Search for *Nematostella vectensis* transcripts by Name:

***Nematostella vectensis* transcripts homologous to the mouse ortholog Tuba1a**

Mouse Ortholog: Tuba1a
 UniProt Outlink: P68369: Tubulin alpha-1A chain



Hours	A	B	Average
0	1946.27	1277.94	1612.11
1	2148.66	3169.42	2659.04
2	3217.25	1710.06	2463.66
3	N/A	4620.75	4620.75
4	N/A	2010.53	2010.53
5	2935.56	N/A	2935.56
6	2077.68	N/A	2077.68
7	N/A	3014.38	3014.38
8	5553.41	N/A	5553.41
9	4694.82	N/A	4694.82
10	6680.03	N/A	6680.03
11	9433.48	8653.25	9043.37
12	10035.76	11489.32	10762.54
13	8755.59	13718.92	11237.26
14	12691.33	12112.56	12401.95
15	19535.61	22420.34	20977.97
16	29420.66	22395.14	25907.9
17	21588.53	24580.87	23084.7
18	30899.84	25306.14	28102.99
19	32440.72	38491.26	35465.99

Transcripts

comp877_c0_seq1

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>comp877_c0_seq1
TCAAGACGCTTCAATCCAAATATTTAGTGTGACGCTTGAATTAACCAATTAGAGCGTCGTAATAGTGGACAAAAGACAATTAGCATAACGAATCATATTTACACGCCACCCAGTCAC
GAGGTGAGTCATTTTCAGCTTGCACCCAATACTGTAGAGAGATCGTAACCTTCTACTACAGTTCGGAGCACTCCATTTACAGTTTATATCCAAATCTCCTTCGAAATCAACCAACT
AATACAAATGCGTGTAGTGTATCTCTATCCACGTTGGACAAGCGGTGTGCAGATTGGCAACCGCTGTTGGAGTTGTACTGCCTCGAAACCGGAATTCAGCCCGATGGCCAGAT
GCCGAGCGACAAGACGATCGGTGGCCGGCGATGACTCGTTCAACACTTCTTTAGCGGAGACCGCGCTGGAAAGCACGTCGCCAGAGCTGTCTTTGTTGATTAGAGCCAAACAGTA
GTCGATGAGGTTCCGACTGGAACTACCCCGAGCTTTCCACCCCTGAGCAACTTATCACTGGCAAGAGGATGCTGCTAACCACTACGCCCGTGGACACTACACTGTGGAAAG
AGTTGATCGATCTGGTGTGACAGAATCCGTAACCTGGCCGATCAATGACTGGTCTTCAAGTTCTCTGATCTTCCATTCTTTCCGTTGGTGGCACGGGATCTGGATTCTCCTC
ACTGTTGATGGAAGCTGTCTGTGTGACTACGGAAGAAATCCAAGTGGAGTTTGCCTCTACCCAGCTCCTCAGATCTCCACCGTGTGGTTGAGCCCTACCACTCCATCTCTG
ACCACCCACACAACCTGGAGCACTGACTGTGCCTTCATGGTAGACAACGAGGCCATCTATGACATCTGCCGTGCAACCTGGACATAGAAAGACCCACTACACCAACTGA
ACCGCTGATTTGGCCAGATCGTGTCTCCTCACTGCTCCTCGCGCTTTGATGTTGCCCTGAATGGTCTGACTGAGTTCAGACCAACTTTGGTCCCTACCCCTGATCCA
CTTCCCTTAGCCACCTATGCCCCAGTCATCTCTGCTGAGAAGGCCATACCACGAGCAACTGAGTGTGGTGGATCACAATGCTGCAATGCTGCTTTGAGCCGCAACCAAGATGGTGA
TGTGACCCAGCTCATGGCAAGTACATGGCTGTCTGCTTTACCGTGGTGTGTTGCCCAAGGATGTCATGCTGCAATGCTGCAATGCTGCAATGCTGCAATGCTGCAATGCTGCAAT
TCGTTGACTGTGCCCCACTGGATTCAAGGTCCGCACTCACTACCAGCCACTACTGTTGCTCCCTGGCCGTTGACCTGGCCAAGTGGACGCTGCGGTGTGCATGTTGAGTAACAC
CACAGCCATCGCTGAGGCTGGGCTCGTCTGGATCACAAAGTTGATCTGATGTACGCCAAGCTGCTTTGCTCCACTGGTATGTTGGTGGAGGTATGGAGGAAGGAGATTTCTCT
GAGGCTCGTGGATCTGGCAGCTTGTAGAAGATTACGAGGAGTCCGTTGTTGACAGTGTGAGG
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comp14036_c0_seq1

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>comp14036_c0_seq1
GTAGAGCAGACAGCAGGCCATGTGCTTCCGTGACGTGGGTACACTTAACCATCTGGTTAGCGGGTTCGAAGCAGGCATTGGTATCTCGGCAACAGTGTGCTCATGGTAA
GCTTCTCAGCTGAGATGACAGGGCCATAGTAAACCAATGGAAATGGATACGTTGGGTATGGCAACAGTTGGTCTGGAATTCAGTGTGATCAACCTTTAAGCGCCATCAAAAC
GAAGGCTGGCCGTTGAGGAAACGATTTACCAATGATCTGTCAAGTTGGTGAATTTGGCCGCTCTATGCTCAAATACGGCCACAATATCATAGATGGCTCGTTGTC
GACCATAAAGCCGACGTAGATGCTCCAAGTGGTATGAGTGTCAAGATGGAATTTACCGCTCAACAACCGGCAGTAGAGACTGTGGTCTGGGTAGACGGCAAAATTCGAGC
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Fig. 4: SeaBase can show the expression profile of a transcript or a particular comp_ID in a graph over time. The image shows the expression of transcripts homologous to *tubulin a 1a* from 0 hours post fertilization (hpf) to 19 hpf with the number of transcripts per embryo (on the Y-axis) over time (X-axis). The data points are also represented in a table (on the right). All comp_IDs that contribute to the total number of transcripts per embryo are listed with name and sequence underneath the graph.

Table 1. A selection of marine *evo-devo* model systems. This list focuses on non-bilaterian and lophotrochozoan systems but also include some representatives of deuterostomes and ecdysozoans. Datasets of species in bold and underlined are already available on SeaBase. Datasets of species in bold are currently being processed to upload them to SeaBase.

NON-BILATERIAN MODELS		
Porifera (sponge)		
Homoscleromorpha	<i>Oscarella lobularis</i>	(Ereskovsky et al. 2009)
Demosponge	<i>Amphimedon queenslandica</i>	(Gauthier and Degnan 2008; Adamska et al. 2010; Adamska et al. 2011)
Ctenophora (comb jelly)		
	<i>Mnemiopsis leydii</i>	(Pang and Martindale 2008; Fischer et al. 2014)
	<i>Beroe ovata</i>	(Pang and Martindale 2008)
	<i>Pleurobrachia pileus</i>	(Pang and Martindale 2008)
Cnidaria		
Anthozoa	<u><i>Nematostella vectensis</i></u>	(Darling et al. 2005; Genikhovich and Technau 2009b; Fischer et al. 2013; Stefanik et al. 2013; Wolenski et al. 2013)
	<i>Edwardsiella lineata</i>	(Reitzel et al. 2009; Stefanik et al. 2014)
	<i>Acropora millepora</i>	(Miller and Ball 2000)
Hydrozoa	<i>Hydra vulgaris</i>	(Galliot and Schmid 2002; Steele 2002; Bosch 2009)
	<i>Hydra magnipapillata</i>	(Galliot and Schmid 2002; Steele 2002; Bosch 2009)
	<i>Hydractinia echinata</i>	(Frank et al. 2001; Galliot and Schmid 2002)
	<i>Podocoryne carnea</i>	(Masuda-Nakagawa et al. 2000; Galliot and Schmid 2002)
	<i>Clytia hemispherica</i>	(Houliston et al. 2010)
Cubozoa	<i>Tripedalia cystophora</i>	(Piatigorsky and Kozmik 2004)
Scyphozoa	<i>Aurelia</i> sp.	(Yuan et al. 2008)
BILATERIAN MODELS		
LOPHOTROCHOZOA		
Annelida	<i>Platynereis dumerilii</i>	(Arendt et al. 2002; Raible et al. 2005; Schneider and Bowerman 2007; Dray et al. 2010; Fischer et al. 2010)
	<i>Capitella teleta</i>	(Tsutsumi and Kikuchi 1984; Dill et al. 2007; Meyer and Seaver 2009; Meyer and Seaver 2010)
	<i>Hydroidis elegans</i>	(McDougall et al. 2008)
Gastropoda	<i>Crepidula fornicata</i>	(Hejnol et al. 2007; Henry and Perry 2008; Henry et al. 2010; Lyons et al. 2012)
	<i>Lottia gigantea</i>	(Grande and Patel 2009)
	<i>Ilyanassa obsoleta</i>	(Sweet 1998; Lambert and Nagy 2001; Dickinson and Croll 2003; Goulding 2009; Lambert 2009)
	<i>Patella vulgata</i>	(Damen 1996; Damen and Dictus 1996; Dictus and Damen 1997; Lartillot et al. 2002)
Cephalopoda	<i>Sepia officinalis</i>	(Grimaldi et al. 2008; Bassaglia et al. 2013)
Bivalvia	<i>Mytilus</i>	(Bierne et al. 2002; Dyachuk and Odintsova 2009)
Scaphopoda	<i>Antalis entails</i>	(Wanninger and Haszprunar 2002; Gonzales et al. 2007)
Polyplacophora	<i>Mopalia muscosa</i>	(Friedrich et al. 2002; Haszprunar et al. 2002)
	<i>Chiton olivaceus</i>	(Haszprunar et al. 2002)
Nemertini	<i>Cerebratulus lacteus</i>	(Henry and Martindale 1998; Jondelius et al. 2004)
	<i>Nemertoderma westbladi</i>	(Henry and Martindale 1998; Jondelius et al. 2004)
Platyhelminths	<i>Maritigrella crozieri</i>	(Rawlinson 2010; Lapraz et al. 2013)

Bryozoa	<i>Membranipora membranacea</i>	(Gruhl 2010)
Brachiopoda	<i>Terebratalia transversa</i>	(Freeman 1993; Altenburger and Wanninger 2009)
	<i>Crania anomala</i>	(Nielsen 1991; Freeman 2000)
Phoronida	<i>Phoronis vancoverensis</i>	(Freeman and Martindale 2002; Santagata 2004)
Acoela	<i>Neochildia fusca</i>	(Boyer et al. 1996; Henry et al. 2000)
	<i>Symsagittifera roscoffensis</i>	(Semmler et al. 2008)
	<i>Convolutriloba longifissura</i>	(Hejnol and Martindale 2008; Sikes and Bely 2008; Hejnol and Martindale 2009)
DEUTEROSTOMIA		
Urochordata	<i>Ciona intestinalis</i>	(Satoh 2003; Kumano and Nishida 2007)
	<i>Oikopleura dioica</i>	(Stach et al. 2008)
Echinoderms		
Asteroida	<i>Patiria miniata</i>	(Hinman and Davidson 2007; Hinman et al. 2007; Yankura et al. 2010)
Echinoida	<i>Strongylocentrotus purpuratus</i>	(Davidson et al. 1998; Angerer and Angerer 2003; McClay 2011)
	<i>Heliocidaris erythrogramma</i>	(Wray and Raff 1990; Raff 1992)
Holothuria	<i>Stichopus japonicus</i>	(Nakano et al. 2006)
Hemichordata	<i>Saccoglossus kowalevskii</i>	(Lowe et al. 2003; Gerhart et al. 2005; Lowe et al. 2006)
	<i>Ptychodera flava</i>	(Tagawa et al. 1998; Peterson et al. 1999; Tagawa et al. 2001)
Cephalo-chordata	<i>Branchiostoma floridae</i>	(Holland et al. 1992; Holland et al. 1994; Moret et al. 2004; Bertrand and Escriva 2011; Vopalensky et al. 2012)
	<i>Branchiostoma lanceolatum</i>	(Bertrand and Escriva 2011; Oulion et al. 2012)
ECDYSOZOA		
Crustacea	<i>Artemia salina</i>	(Blanchard 1986; Harzsch and Glötzner 2002; Wildt and Harzsch 2002; Copf et al. 2003)
Nematoda	<i>Enoplus brevis</i>	(Voronov and Panchin 1998; Sommer 2000)
Priapulida	<i>Priapulidus caudatus</i>	(Wennberg et al. 2008)