

1 **Title:**

2 **Greengenes: Chimera-checked 16S rRNA gene database and workbench compatible**  
3 **with ARB**

4 **Authors:**5 DeSantis, T.Z.<sup>1</sup>6 Hugenholtz, P.<sup>2</sup>7 Larsen, N.<sup>3</sup>8 Rojas, M.<sup>4</sup>9 Brodie, E.L.<sup>1</sup>10 Keller, K.<sup>5</sup>11 Huber, T.<sup>6</sup>12 Dalevi, D.<sup>7</sup>13 Hu, P.<sup>1</sup>14 Andersen, G.L.<sup>1</sup>

15

16 <sup>1</sup>Center for Environmental Biotechnology

17 Lawrence Berkeley National Laboratory

18 1 Cyclotron Road, Mail Stop 70A-3317

19 Berkeley, CA 94720

20 USA

21 <sup>2</sup>Microbial Ecology Program

22 DOE Joint Genome Institute

23 2800 Mitchell Drive Bldg 400-404

24 Walnut Creek, CA 94598

25 USA

26 <sup>3</sup>Danish Genome Institute

27 Gustav Wieds vej 10 C

28 DK-8000 Aarhus C

29 Denmark

30 <sup>4</sup>Department of Bioinformatics

31 Baylor University

32 P.O. Box 97356, 1311 S. 5th St.

33 Waco, TX 76798-7356

34 USA

35 <sup>5</sup>Department of Bioengineering

36 University of California

37 Berkeley, CA 94720

38 USA

39 <sup>6</sup>Departments of Biochemistry and Mathematics

40 The University of Queensland

41 Brisbane Qld 4072

42 Australia

43 <sup>7</sup>Department of Computer Science

44 Chalmers University of Technology

1 SE-412 96  
2 Göteborg, Sweden

3  
4 To whom correspondence should be addressed:  
5 GLAndersen@lbl.gov

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7  
8 Abstract

9 A 16S rRNA gene database (<http://greengenes.lbl.gov>) addresses limitations of public  
10 repositories by providing chimera-screening, standard alignments and taxonomic  
11 classification using multiple published taxonomies. It was revealed that incongruent  
12 taxonomic nomenclature exists among curators even at the phylum-level. Putative  
13 chimeras were identified in 3% of environmental sequences and 0.2% of records derived  
14 from isolates. Environmental sequences were classified into 100 phylum-level lineages  
15 within the Archaea and Bacteria.

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2 Comparative analysis of 16S small sub-unit rRNA genes (hereafter abbreviated as  
3 16S) is commonly applied to survey the constituents of microbial communities (4, 13, 23,  
4 24), to infer bacterial and archaeal evolution (14, 19), and to design monitoring and  
5 analysis tools such as microarrays (5, 10, 17, 20, 29, 30). Because the production rate of  
6 16S sequence records from uncultured organisms now exceeds that from their cultured  
7 counterparts, taxonomic placement of sequences lags behind. In fact, 43% of full-length  
8 16S records in GenBank are amalgamated into pseudo-divisions “environmental  
9 samples” or “unclassified”. Annotation styles are inconsistent creating barriers for  
10 computational categorization of biological sources. Furthermore, since rRNA genes from  
11 environmental DNA are usually PCR amplified, it is suspected that many clandestine  
12 chimeric sequences are intercalated into the public databases. From a small sample of  
13 1,399 sequence records from known phyla, it was estimated that 3% of the public data  
14 might contain chimeras (2). The permeation of these poor quality data along with barriers  
15 in exchanging nomenclature have led to several conflicting taxonomies. The probability  
16 of mistakenly adopting a chimeric sequence in a phylogenetic inference or as a reference  
17 for probe/primer design is rising noticeably. Lastly, ARB (21) database administration  
18 needs to be streamlined for those who maintain 16S collections on their local computers.

19 Greengenes addresses these concerns by providing four features: a standardized  
20 set of descriptive fields, taxonomic assignment, chimera screening and ARB  
21 compatibility. Heuristics are used to consider the author’s annotations and categorize  
22 each source as a named or unnamed isolate, an unnamed symbiont, or an uncultured  
23 organism. Other standard descriptors include sequence quality measurements, authors,

1 and a “study\_id” that links all the records associated with a project. Greengenes  
2 maintains a consistent multiple sequence alignment of both archaeal and bacterial 16S  
3 genes to facilitate taxonomic placement. Taxonomy proposed by independent curators  
4 (NCBI, RDP (Bergey’s) (7), Wolfgang Ludwig (21), Phil Hugenholtz (16) and Norm  
5 Pace (23)) is tracked to promote user awareness of several estimations of phylogenetic  
6 descent allowing a balanced approach to node nomenclature when generating  
7 dendrograms. Comprehensive chimera assessment is a distinguishing characteristic of the  
8 Greengenes data assembly process. Each sequence is scored for chimeric potential, a  
9 break point is estimated and parent sequences are identified. Furthermore, since  
10 biologists often collect and visualize 16S relationships using the freely available ARB  
11 software, Greengenes simplifies the chore of keeping a research group’s private ARB  
12 database current by providing standardized alignments and an import filter  
13 (greengenes.ift) that imports the alignment and other standardized fields from 16S  
14 records vetted weekly from GenBank.

15       To exemplify the utility of the Greengenes data assembly process, and to  
16 interrogate the validity of prokaryotic candidate phyla, we aligned and chimera-checked  
17 over 90,000 public 16S sequences. Taxonomic classifications were applied from the  
18 major curators where available. Sequence data were imported from NCBI for complete  
19 or nearly complete gene sequences (>1250 nt in length) deposited as of April 2, 2006.  
20 Alignment of both archaeal and bacterial sequences was performed with the NAST  
21 aligner (8) against a “Core Set” of templates selected from a phylogenetically broad  
22 collection (16). The resulting multiple sequence alignment (MSA) was formatted so that  
23 each sequence occupies a consistent 7,682 characters or 4,182 characters, the later

1 enabling compatibility with RDP v8.1(22) alignments. Both these formats were concise  
2 enough for browsing in common MSA graphical interfaces such as ClustalX(28),  
3 MEGA(18) and the platform independent Jalview(6) as well as ARB. Other standard  
4 expansions such as the >20,000-character Ludwig alignment will be an alternate format  
5 available in future releases to give maximum flexibility to researchers.

6 For high-throughput chimera screening of the aligned sequences, the program  
7 Bellerophon (15) was used with two modifications. First, the algorithm was modified to  
8 reduce the number of potential parents considered in the partial trees allowing run time to  
9 scale linearly rather than logarithmically with the count of candidate sequences in a  
10 collection. Secondly, a new metric was implemented that weights the likelihood of a  
11 sequence being chimeric according to the similarity of the parent sequences. The more  
12 distantly related the parent sequences are to each other relative to their divergence from  
13 the candidate chimeric sequence, the greater the likelihood that the inferred chimera is  
14 real. The metric, called the divergence ratio, uses the average sequence identity between  
15 the two fragments of the candidate and their corresponding parent sequences as the  
16 numerator, and the sequence identity between the parent sequences as the denominator.  
17 All calculations were restricted to 1,287 conserved columns of aligned characters using a  
18 300 base pair window on either side of the most likely break point. A divergence ratio >  
19 1.1 and both fragment-to-parent similarities > 90% was required for classifying  
20 sequences as putatively chimeric.

21 Taxonomy was linked to each record by various methods. NCBI and RDP  
22 taxonomic nomenclature were extracted directly from the respective GenBank-formatted  
23 records. The Pace and Ludwig annotations were exported from curated ARB databases.

1 The Hugenholtz taxonomy was also derived from a curated ARB database in which tree  
2 topologies had been verified using RAxML-VI (27) for maximum likelihood inference.  
3 The general time reversible model of evolution (GTR) was applied together with  
4 optimization of substitution rates and site-specific rates according to a gamma  
5 distribution. Different search algorithms were considered depending on the run-time of  
6 the standard hill-climb (SHC) search method. If running in less than 8 hours, simulating  
7 annealing (SA) was processed with the default starting temperature and a termination  
8 time set to approximately 24 hours. If SA was not used and SHC terminated within 24  
9 hours, SHC was used. Further, the rapid hill-climb (RHC) was used in all other cases  
10 when its running time was less than 24 hours. If RHC did not terminate within the set  
11 limit, the number of taxa was reduced. After 100 bootstrap replications, a consensus tree  
12 was calculated using Consense (12) and imported into ARB. This database  
13 (greengenes.arb) is available for download through Greengenes and is updated  
14 periodically.

15         Of the 90,000 NCBI records analyzed, 54% were derived from uncultured  
16 organisms, the majority of which have been deposited over the last five years (Figure 1).  
17 Only three studies have submitted greater than one thousand full-length clones, however,  
18 we expect the number of large 16S surveys to rise due to the availability and falling cost  
19 of high throughput sequencing. Bellerophon detection of putative chimeras in 3% of the  
20 sequences from uncultured organisms was not unexpected considering initial estimates  
21 (2). Surprisingly, 0.2% of sequences derived from pure cultures were also determined to  
22 be putative chimeras. Multiple distinct 16S rRNA genes have been encountered when  
23 creating clone libraries from colonies assumed to be pure cultures prepared from

1 numerous third party sources (Colleen Cavanaugh, personal communication). There is a  
2 possibility that isolated colonies contain symbiotic bacteria which increase PCR template  
3 complexity enabling chimera formation. In addition, thousands of full-length, 16S-  
4 annotated GenBank records only partially aligned using NAST. Future versions of  
5 NAST could be altered to allow alignment extensions across regions of low template  
6 similarity or to allow candidates to be aligned in sections using divergent templates. Both  
7 of these options may allow a greater abundance of chimeric data to be imported into  
8 Greengenes, but, perhaps, would capture novel phyla from the public repositories.  
9 Alternately, manually aligned sequences from novel phyla can be offered from the user  
10 community for recruitment to the Core Set advocating periodic re-evaluation of the  
11 partially aligned set.

12         Discovery of chimeras in 16S data collections is crucial if the data set will be a  
13 foundation for applied bioinformatics. They pose a fundamental problem when used as  
14 templates with probe selection software, a growing concern with the recent increase in  
15 16S microarray probe development (3, 8, 11). The 15 to 30 bases surrounding the  
16 chimeric break-point can appear sufficiently unique from all other records in a database  
17 causing a probe selection algorithm to justifiably identify this region as a target's  
18 signature and suggest complementary probes to be synthesized. These probes would  
19 appear highly valuable considering their minimal mis-hybridization potential, but, in fact,  
20 they would rarely be useful since they target non-existent organisms. Chimera test results  
21 from Greengenes allow greater control over input to probe selection software, will aid in  
22 avoiding artificial T-RFLP pattern predictions from the ARB-compatible TRF-CUT (25)  
23 and can increase the accuracy of sampling rarefaction curves (26).

1           The fraction of putative chimeras within the deposited sequences from an  
2 individual study varies from none to over 20% (Figure 1) suggesting that chimera  
3 screening is still not being uniformly applied by sequence generators. The problem is  
4 exacerbated in sparsely populated candidate phyla. For instance, bacterial phyla, ‘SAM’,  
5 and ‘5’ and the class GN4 (Proteobacteria) may require re-evaluation. Likewise the  
6 genera *Tistrella*, *Caldotoga*, *Dehalobacterium* and *Desulfovermiculus* are currently  
7 anchored by sequences with evidence of chimeric composition. Additional sequences  
8 could lead to the empirical rejection of certain classifications or may aid in defining the  
9 true breadth of sequence variation for these taxa.

10           Comparison of five different taxonomies uncovered a surprisingly large disparity  
11 between expert curators. Loosely interpreting “phyla” to be any labeled grouping or  
12 division immediately subordinate to the domains Archaea or Bacteria, the five curations  
13 were compared in a Venn diagram (Figure 2). The main source of the disparity arises  
14 from discordant naming of novel candidate phyla, or absence of names for candidate  
15 phyla. For example Pace and Hugenholtz have independently named over a dozen  
16 phylum-level lineages, many of which are the same lineages, and RDP has not named any  
17 of these lineages. This is a consequence of the huge number of environmental sequences  
18 in the public databases and frequent redundant naming of environmental lineages in the  
19 literature. We hope that making multiple taxonomic classifications available through  
20 Greengenes will aid in standardizing classification, particularly classification of  
21 environmental lineages.

22           Greengenes is also a functional workbench to assist in analysis of user-generated  
23 16S rRNA gene sequences. Batches of sequencing reads can be uploaded for quality-



1 based trimming and creation of multiple sequence alignments (9). Three types of non-  
2 MSA similarity searches are also available; seed extension by BLAST (1), similarity  
3 based on shared 7-mers by a tool entitled “Simrank”, or direct degenerative pattern match  
4 for probe/primer evaluation. Results are displayed using user-preferred taxonomic  
5 nomenclature and can be saved between sessions.

6 In summary, Greengenes offers annotated, chimera-checked, full-length 16S  
7 rRNA gene sequences in standard alignment formats. The relational database links  
8 taxonomies from multiple curators and multiple sequences from a single study. It was  
9 revealed that incongruent taxonomic nomenclature exists among curators even at the  
10 phylum-level. Bellerophon found putative chimeras in sequences derived from both  
11 uncultured and isolated organisms. The data set can be compared to user-provided  
12 sequences via web interface or can be imported directly into ARB for advanced analyses.  
13 We anticipate that Greengenes will be valuable to researchers conducting environmental  
14 surveys and in 16S rRNA microarray design.

15 In the immediate future, we plan to develop and implement a number of  
16 community curation tools. This will allow the user community to actively participate in  
17 improving the quality of the Greengenes database and ensure that time-consuming  
18 manual improvements of sequence and sequence-associated data including taxonomic  
19 corrections are propagated for the benefit of the whole community. Specifically five  
20 curation tools are in development that should capture manual improvements: 1)  
21 improvements in individual sequence alignments, 2) manual verification of putative  
22 chimeras, 3) recruitment of novel lineages to the Core Set, 4) corrections in the  
23 Greengenes description (the abbreviated description of the record usually taking the form

1 [habitat] clone [clone name] for environmental sequences), and 5) updating taxonomic  
2 group names. One of the main challenges in the implementation of these tools will be to  
3 ensure that only high quality manual edits are incorporated into Greengenes. For  
4 example, for a suggested alignment alteration, the submitted sequence must a) match the  
5 existing sequence, b) preserve the location of highly conserved positions in the 16S  
6 rRNA gene and c) record the curator information as part of the update transaction. We  
7 recognize a desire on the part of many users to contribute to a distributed curation effort  
8 and we hope that Greengenes will become a resource to facilitate this aim.

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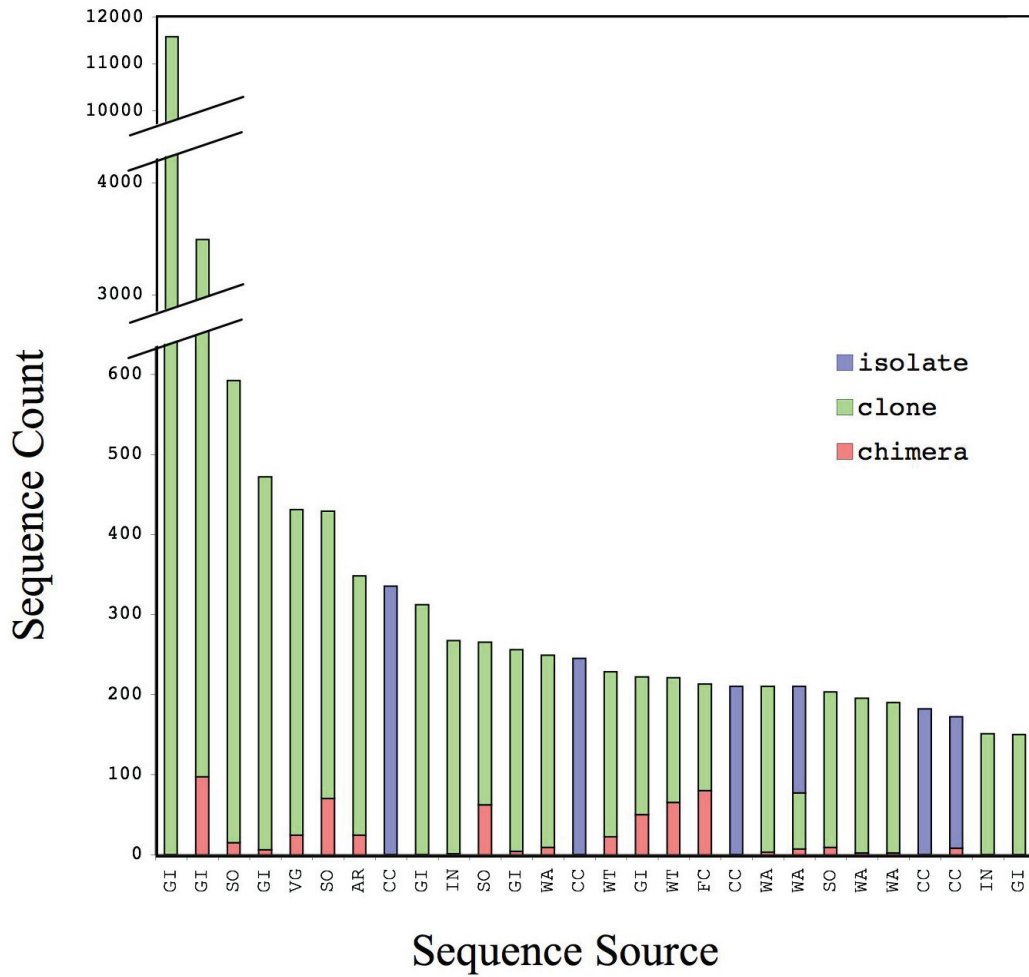
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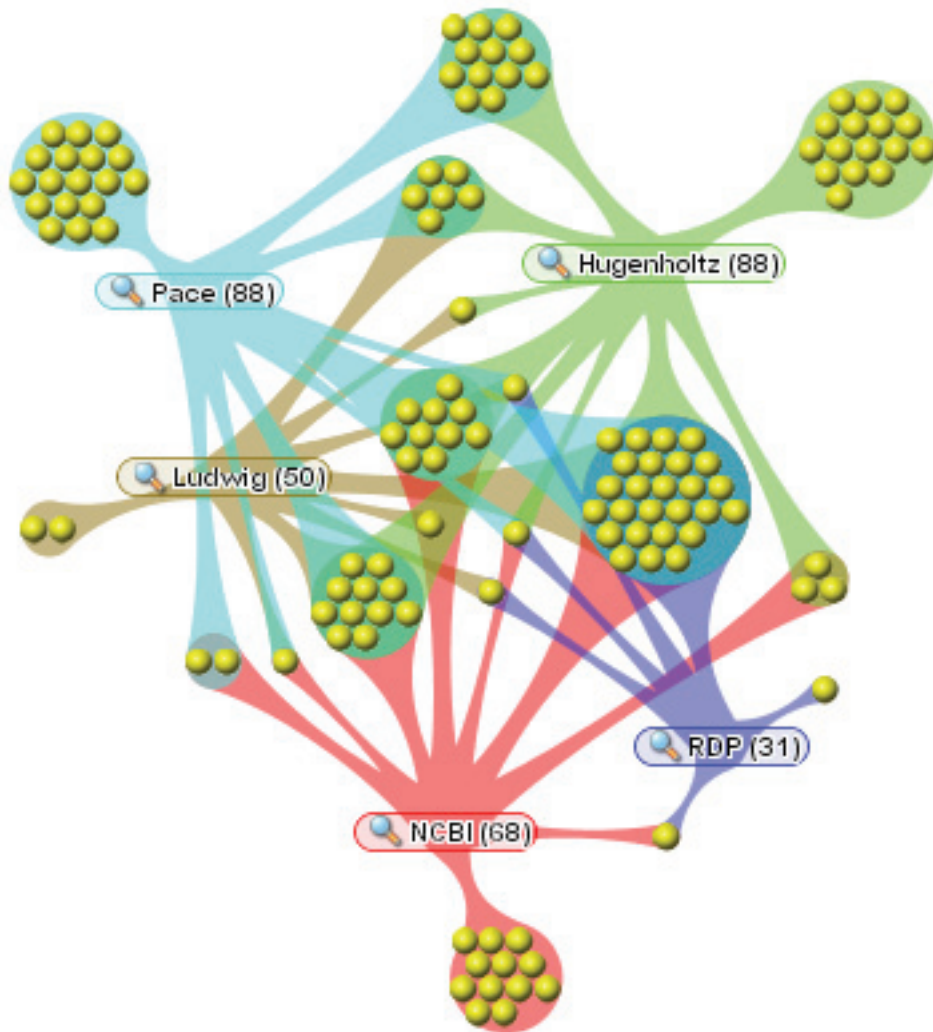
Figure 1. 16S rRNA gene sequencing projects producing over 200 full-length records. All projects were submitted to GenBank between October 2000 and February 2006. Sequences were generated from gastrointestinal (GI), soil (SO), vaginal (VG), aerosol (AR), culture collection (CC), insect (IN), water (WA), waste treatment (WT) or fecal (FC) sources as labeled on the x-axis and. Projects are ordered by sequence count.



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Figure 2. Phyla-level nomenclature shared among independent curators represented as a five-way Venn diagram. Yellow spheres represent the 126 Phyla or Candidate Division names encountered in at least one of the five taxonomy systems (Pace, Hugenholtz, Ludwig, RDP, or NCBI). Numbers in parentheses are the count of Phyla or Candidate Division names recognized by an individual curator. Clusters of yellow spheres connected by more than one colored web symbolize names recognized by multiple curators. Image rendered by AutoFocus software (Aduna B.V., The Netherlands). A complete table of phyla-level nomenclature comparisons is available at: <http://greengenes.lbl.gov/TaxCompare>.



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