



Using False Discovery Rates to Benchmark SNP-callers in next-generation sequencing projects

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Sequence alignments form the basis for many comparative and population genomic studies. Alignment tools provide a range of accuracies dependent on the divergence between the sequences and the alignment methods. Despite widespread use, there is no standard method for assessing the accuracy of a dataset and alignment strategy after resequencing. We present a framework and tool for determining the overall accuracies of an input read dataset, alignment and SNP-calling method providing an isolate in that dataset has a corresponding, or closely related reference sequence available. In addition to this tool for comparing False Discovery Rates (FDR), we include a method for determining homozygous and heterozygous positions from an alignment using binomial probabilities for an expected error rate. We benchmark this method against other SNP callers using our FDR method with three fungal genomes, finding that it was able achieve a high level of accuracy. These tools are available at <http://cfdr.sourceforge.net/>.

Sources of error within next-generation sequencing (NGS) projects can result in poorly resolved genotypes^{1–3}. Without an assessment of the false discovery rate (FDR) for genome or transcriptome projects, misaligned reads and inaccurate base calls can go unnoticed thereby propagating into SNP discovery. From the onset, datasets comprising sequenced fragments (reads) can harbor a range of potential sequencing errors such as PCR amplification bias in Illumina data⁴, polyclonal errors in SOLiD data⁵ and homopolymers in 454 data⁶. Despite a general trend towards higher success rate at correctly deciphering bases in reads, individual runs can still harbor unexpected levels of error from low quality DNA extractions or library preparations.

In addition to read-quality, an arguably more substantial source of error arises during read-alignment⁷, the process whereby sequenced reads are mapped to a closely related reference genome. This is the first and most fundamental analysis undertaken once the DNA sequence has been produced⁸. Alignments are often preferable to *de novo* assemblies due to increased speed and reduced memory requirements. Given a low read-depth or highly heterogeneous sequence, alignments may also recover more genetic data than assembling without a reference due to current limitations in assembly algorithms⁹. As is true for *de novo* assemblies, the accuracy of alignments varies considerably depending on the software and its parameters used¹⁰, the type and size of the dataset and the amount of erroneous base calls. Further, alignments are also affected by the genetic distance between reference and newly sequenced genomes.

Most alignment tools score the placement of a read based on the uniqueness of its match. For example, BWA¹¹ and Bowtie¹² are frequently used alignment tools that are based on indexing a reference sequence using a Burrows-Wheeler transformation (BWT)¹³. These tools can align in base (Illumina, 454, Ion Torrent, PacBio) or color space (SOLiD) using a combination of base and alignment mapping quality scores to determine the correct positions of reads and assigning a genotype, whilst ignoring reads containing low quality base calls or low mapping scores. The alignment tool SHRiMP¹⁴ is tailored to the platform specific biases in the color-space format of ABI SOLiD reads, using a different set of algorithms to resolve consecutive single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) or miscalled bases, which 'base-space' aligners would unsuccessfully determine. Many other examples of short-read alignment tools such as Maq¹⁵, SOAP¹⁶ and Zoom¹⁷ are available and may be preferential given specific experimental requirements such as speed, accuracy or additional features¹⁸.

Pre-processing reads prior to alignment by removing low quality reads or 3' ends is a common initial step to improve alignment accuracy. Sequencing errors can also be detected and removed during the pre-processing of reads using software such as Quake¹⁹ or EDAR²⁰, which search the datasets for subsequences that occur in low frequency, and therefore likely to be due to sequencing error. Some experiments may also only consider unique



present within this NGS dataset, often at greater frequencies towards the 3' ends of reads. Trimming the reads only achieved an improvement in the number of true positive and false positives with the *Bd* JEL423 reads, and conversely reduced both the number of false and true positives in the *P. triticina* and *S. cerevisiae* datasets. The variation between each of these datasets demonstrates the importance of assessing quality control as a preliminary step for resequencing projects.

To demonstrate how alignment and SNP-calling varied, we compared combinations of methods and parameters on the *Bd* JEL423 SOLiD 30-mer dataset (Fig. 2B). Owing primarily to the high levels of sequencing errors, even after removing low quality 3' ends, none of the tested methods called > 73% true positives SNPs or < 5% false positive SNPs. The alignment program SHRiMP, which is specifically designed for the 'color-space' reads of SOLiD sequencing aligned 60% of the *Bd* reads and 70% after trimming to 30 mers, compared with BWA that aligned just 9% full length and 41% 30 mers. Despite the differences in the output alignment depth between the two programs, BWA (with the *Bd* 30 mers) resulted in a greater number of true positives and approximately equal number of false positives than SHRiMP called using either read length and any of the SNP-calling methods we tested. This comparison shows

that BWA is a more appropriate tool for this particular dataset. The comparably low false discovery rate and number of reads aligned by BWA on the SOLiD *Bd* dataset was not found to the same extent in the Illumina *Sc* and *Pt* datasets, where > 59% full-length reads and > 68% trimmed reads were aligned to their reference sequence. For heterozygous base-calls, GATK2 had the greatest accuracy of any of the methods tested with 86.78% true positives and remarkably not a single false positive.

A comparison of the FDR for SNPs achieved by the alignment program BWA and the SNP calling method presented here (BiSCaP) using default settings on the *Bd* 30-mer dataset revealed 6582/12458 (52.83%) true positives and 494 (6.98%) false positive SNPs that were covered \geq minimum required depth (MD). This result is a considerably preferable outcome compared to using SAM/Bcftools for SNP-calling (as shown in Fig. 2B), whilst the UnifiedGenotyper of GATK performed competitively in terms of specificity at a small expense in sensitivity compared with one of the tested settings of BiSCaP (MD 4). This variation of FDR demonstrates the importance of comparing candidate tools for a given study. Of the false positives called by BiSCaP, 328 were identified when aligning to the non-modified reference genome (351 total), and 321/328 were covered by 100% uniquely aligned reads, suggesting that they may be real

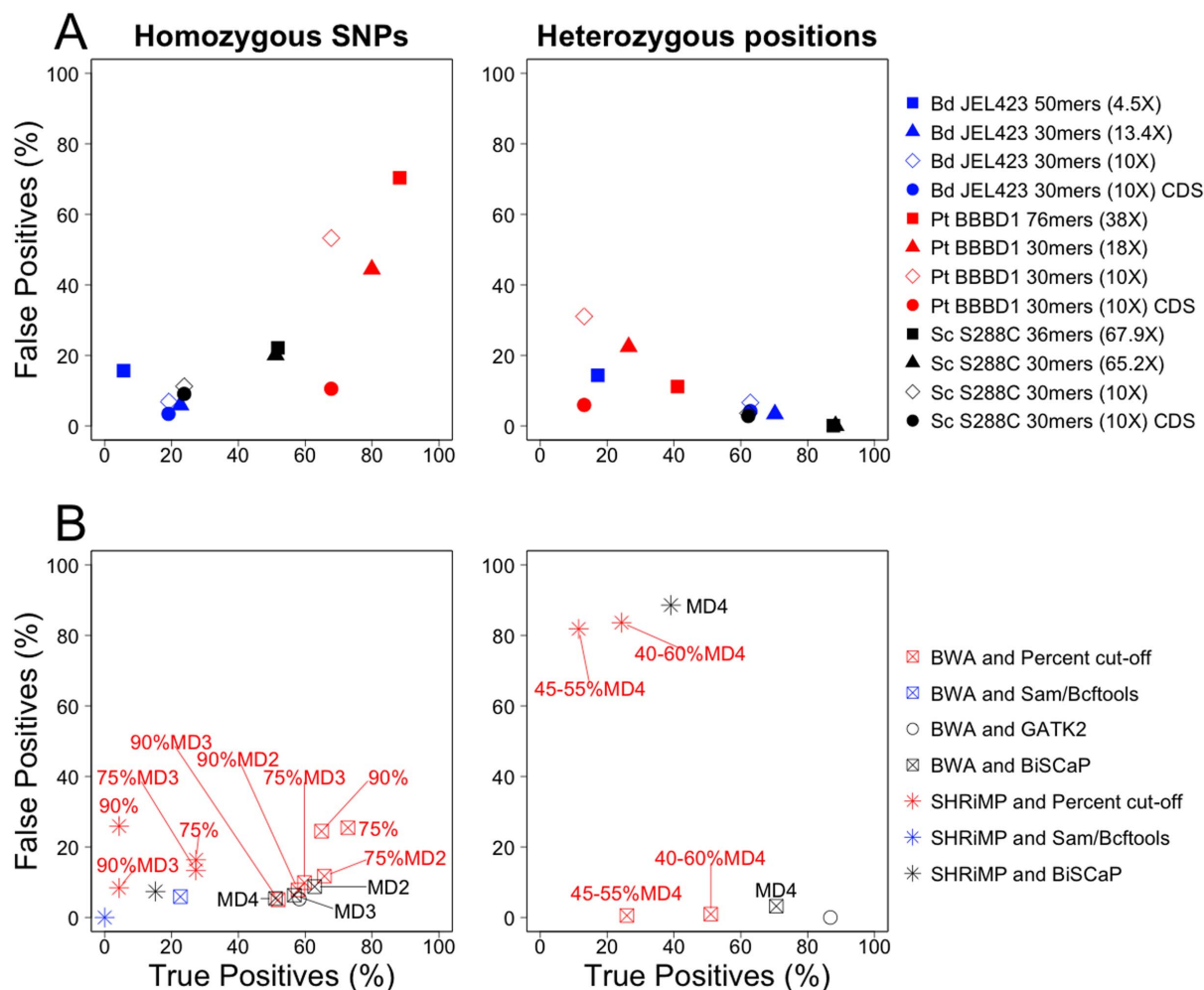


Figure 2 | False discovery rates for variants were ascertained using cFDR for three fungal NGS datasets. (A) Dataset-specific error rates were identified for both homozygous SNPs and heterozygous positions after alignment with BWA and calling SNPs using SAM/BCFtools with default settings, which persisted after trimming to 30 mers, aligning random 10× deep subsets of aligned reads, and only considering SNPs that fell over CDS regions thereby reducing genome size as a factor. (B) Combinations of alignments and SNP-calling methods resulted in different accuracies from the *Bd* JEL423 30-mer NGS dataset. Experimenting with a variety of methods can therefore reveal the most suitable method for a given dataset based on these metrics of accuracy. Sam/Bcftools only takes the strongest non-reference allele so was not included in the assessment of heterozygous accuracy. Parameters include the percent cut-off for inclusion as a SNP or heterozygous base and minimum depth (MD).



genetic changes occurring between the separate batches of isolate *Bd* JEL423, or genuine mistakes in the reference genome.

The remaining 45.83% of modified positions in *Bd* that were not identified, consisted of 98.5% that were uncovered by the minimum depth, 1.47% called as heterozygous or ambiguous if haploid setting is used, and a single incorrectly called homozygous SNP. Of the 84 bases that were incorrectly identified as heterozygous, 83 sites correctly called the modified base but also inferred the presence of the reference allele and one consisted of the reference base and a deletion. None of these false positives were identified without first modifying the reference for cFDR, which may suggest they arise from misaligned reads. These results demonstrate that by far the greatest impact on alignment/SNP-calling error on the *Bd* 13.4× deep dataset arises from lack of coverage. Surprisingly however, the *S. cerevisiae* 67.9× deep dataset (Fig. 1A) also revealed a similar situation where 1920/1929 of the false negatives were due to below required depth compared to the remaining 9 that were incorrectly called as heterozygous positions.

To explain this pattern of enrichment for uncovered polymorphic sites (*Bd* and *S. cerevisiae* had 98.4% and >99.9% CDS covered respectively, compared to 45.8% and 15.7% of the introduced mutations within the CDS), we compared the distances between the introduced SNPs (Fig. 3A). Firstly, we found that *Sc* and *Pt* tended to have more closely associated introduced mutations (both had 19% occurring within 20 nt of each other) than *Bd* (only 2% within 20 nt). In terms of number of contigs and genes, number and average length of exons, and length of coding and introns sequence, *Bd* is situated between *Pt* and *Sc*. However, a clear difference is found in the number of genes selected by IRMS for introducing mutations in: 953, 1976 and 5701 for *Sc*, *Pt* and *Bd* respectively, which could be caused by one or more computational or biological differences such as differing numbers of genes specified with overlapping exons or splice variants specified in the feature file, which IRMS excludes. In any case, the difference in the number of modified genes likely explains the difference in distance between mutations. Despite this, false negatives were predominately more closely associated in *Bd* and *Pt*, whilst false negatives in *Sc* appeared to not be so clearly correlated with distance from other mutations.

We also looked at minimum depth cut-off points for different numbers of reads agreeing or disagreeing for a particular base, a parameter often taken into account by mutation callers, but compounded by variable depths over each of base in the genome. To

examine this issue, we looked at the depth of read coverage over false positives and false negatives called using the percent cut-off methods and BiSCaP, which uses the depth-dependent cut-offs (Fig. 3B). As expected, homozygous erroneous base calls using either BiSCaP or percent cut-off methods were more frequently called over lower read depth positions in the alignment. BiSCaP achieved fewer false positive/negatives over the lowest read depths for *Bd* and *Sc*, and also over bases covered by more than 5 reads. The dataset *Pt* had fewest false base calls with the 90% cut-off method, which again highlights that different algorithms are suitable for different datasets, and only after testing them for FDR could you be certain of the success rate, or determine the most appropriate method.

Discussion

The rapid rate of increase in large-scale population studies using genome resequencing for SNP detection necessitates the development of improved tools to assess the quality of resequencing projects. Here we describe the development and efficacy of two such tools. We have tested the comparison of false discovery rate (cFDR) and Binomial SNP Caller from pileup (BiSCaP) scripts on sequence data from fungal genomes from three separate phyla: *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* S288C (Ascomycota), *Batrachochytrium dendrobatidis* (*Bd*) JEL423 (Chytridiomycota) and *Puccinia triticina* race 1 isolate 1-1 (Basidiomycota). These fungal genomes were chosen to represent a range of genome sizes and structures in terms of introns numbers, repeat richness and sequence heterogeneity. These methods can be applied to any resequencing study regardless of taxon. A large number of similar alignment, SNP-calling tools or pre-processing methods could have also been tested using these FDR scripts in addition to those we have tested here (BWA¹¹, SHRiMP¹⁴, GATK²², SAMTools²³).

To identify the factors involved in the FDR variation between the three datasets composed of equal alignment depth, length, and modified genetic distance to its reference sequence, we extracted the positions corresponding to true and false positives. A large amount of variation between datasets, alignments, and SNP calling accuracy was identified using these tools, and was used to identify the most suitable combination of methods to accurately detect variants. Similar approaches to the generalised tools we present here have already been used by a number of NGS projects^{28,29}, and facilitated by the release of these packages, a wider range of projects could also make use of either, or both cFDR and BiSCaP. Each combination of

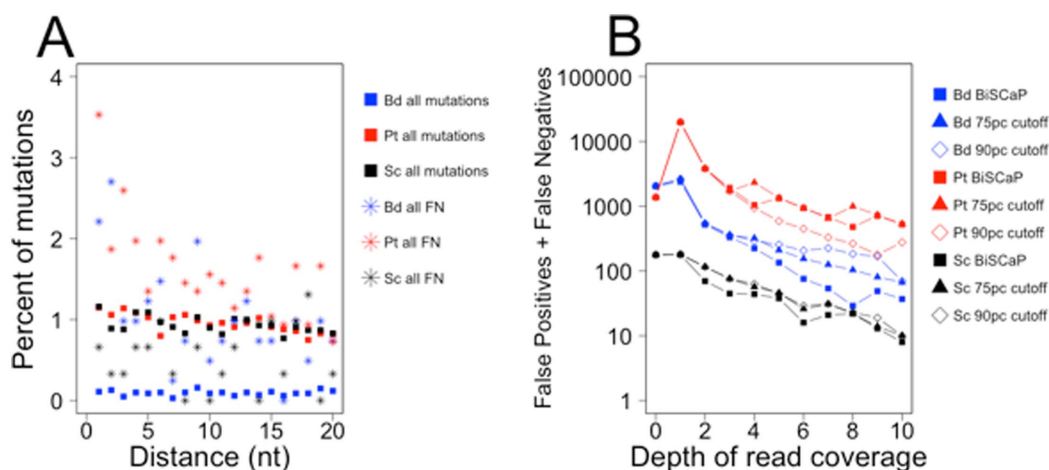


Figure 3 | Erroneous base calls (homozygous SNPs) from BiSCaP and percent cutoff methods were compared for proximity and depth of read coverage using full dataset 30 mer *Bd*, *Sc* and *Pt* reads. (A) False negatives were predominantly more closely associated for all 3 datasets (SNPs called with BiSCaP). False negatives were almost entirely caused by lack of coverage in each of these datasets demonstrating the most divergent part of each of the genomes is the most poorly resolved. (B) Homozygous errors were more frequently called over lower depth regions using strict cut-off methods than with BiSCaP.



methods performed differently on the *Bd* JEL423 genome with one simulated divergence rate, and from this test we could decide a single set of methods and parameters that performed optimally. However, FDR validation and SNP-calling should be readdressed for every new dataset. For example, GATK would be most suitably benchmarked against a dataset for which a training set of known variation is available. However, even without variant quality score recalibration, GATK performed well on the fungal JEL423 genome, in particular over bi-allelic heterozygotes.

Alternative methods for assessing homozygous variants that rely largely on simulated reads²¹ or cross checking databases of polymorphisms³⁰ to determine FDR would have less power than our method in terms of realistic read and alignment error, or relying on resources that harbour their own sources of error. The alignment tool Maq¹⁵ includes a command for introducing mutations into a reference sequence, with the intent of assessing alignment accuracy from simulating reads. Our method is able to make use of and assess real read data, which can harbor any number of platform or non-platform specific errors that may influence ability to call SNPs, in contrast to simulated reads or use of databases. This feature makes our method the only currently available technique to simultaneously assess the quality of data generated and the quality of methods used to analyze those data.

BiSCaP has been designed for variant-calling across haploid, diploid or triploid sequences, with corresponding binomial probabilities provided. In its current form, BiSCaP takes longer than the other assessed SNP-callers to complete: roughly one hour on a desktop computer on a modestly sized genome and dataset (the 13.4× *Bd* dataset to the 23 Mb genome), which is likely to persist until scripts are converted into a lower level programming language. The FDR method is also able to verify heterozygous alleles called by either GATK or BiSCaP using simulated reads, and the cFDR scripts finish running within a few minutes using the output from either of these (and SAMTools) SNP-calling tools. BiSCaP is able to call polymorphisms from standard input and output formats, making it a versatile tool for projects utilising these formats. We have not assessed how quality scores could be used to improve accuracy of those SNP-calls although both GATK and BiSCaP are able to filter potential SNPs based on these scores, so could be incorporated into the analysis.

Each of the methods presented here rely on a reference genome strain that is both high quality in terms of accurately assembled and with correct base calls, and has few discrepancies to the consensus (resequenced) isolate. For example, more distantly related isolates (reference and consensus) will result in a greater number of 'false positives' called by cFDR. Furthermore, if the reference sequence is poorly resolved (missing sequence or low quality or repetitive areas), the method may identify genuine polymorphisms that will also be considered false positives. This limitation can be partially resolved using a separate quality control measure for those false positives using either quality scores or called without first modifying the reference.

We found the ideas for, and implementation for SNP-calling based on cumulative binomial probabilities a suitable method for determining polymorphisms from an alignment. We tested both of these methods on three unique fungal pathogens, each of which are thought to be predominantly diploid, and therefore had both homozygous and heterozygous polymorphic positions called, which we found homozygous polymorphisms using the cFDR scripts to have a high level of accuracy. Either or both of these tools could be used with any other sequenced panel of diploid or haploid isolates to gauge the accuracy of alignment and SNP-calling.

Methods

The genome sequence and feature files for *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* S288C were downloaded from the SGD on 31.3.11 (<http://www.yeastgenome.org/>). Genomes of *Puccinia triticina* race 1 isolate 1-1 and *Batrachochytrium dendrobatidis* (*Bd*) JEL423

were downloaded from the Broad Institute (<http://www.broadinstitute.org/>). Illumina reads were obtained from the Short Read Archive under accessions SRR003681 and SRA009871 for *S. cerevisiae* S288C and *P. triticina* respectively. We previously resequenced the genome of *Bd* JEL423²⁹ using SOLiD, which is available for download in the Short Read Archive under accession SRA030504. Genome sequences were modified by randomly choosing and modifying 1 nt/Kb within the coding sequence (CDS) using a script that is part of the toolset (Introduce Random Mutation into Sequence; IRMS.pl).

SRA files were converted to FASTQ and aligned to their modified reference genome sequences using BWA v0.5.9¹¹ with default parameters and SHRiMP v2¹¹ with an 80% identity threshold for read alignment. Pileups were made using SAMTools v0.1.18²³ and polymorphisms called using the mpileup command piped to Bcftools v0.1.17-dev and filtered using vcfutils.pl with default parameters. In order to assess heterozygous variants, we randomly chose and modified 1 nt/Kb within the CDS using the "HET" setting of IRMS.pl, which first generates a duplicate (homologous) genome. We then simulated single-end reads from these modified sequences to the same depth as the 'real' data using simLibrary and simNGS (<http://www.ebi.ac.uk/goldman-srv/simNGS/>) using the default runfile (s_3_4x), which describes how "noise and cluster intensities are distributed in a real run of an Illumina machine", and aligned those reads to the non-modified reference genomes.

The Genome Analysis Toolkit (GATK) v2.1-9²² was assessed according to the "Best Practice Variant Detection with the GATK v4, for release 2.0" detailed on the Broad Institute website. Briefly, Picard Tools v1.68 (<http://picard.sourceforge.net>) was first used for marking duplicates. Indel-realignment was performed using the GATK2 RealignerTargetCreator and IndelRealigner tools. Next, the UnifiedGenotyper was used to output raw variants that were used for base quality score recalibration (BaseRecalibrator and PrintReads). The UnifiedGenotyper was then assessed using default parameters on the new BAM file. Without a training dataset, variant recalibration is still considered experimental, so this step was left out for each of the three fungal genomes. Percent cut-offs with variable minimum read-depths and using the Binomial SNP caller from Pileup (BiSCaP) v0.11 (presented here) were also used to call polymorphisms. Each alignment/SNP-calling combination was assessed for accuracy using the Comparison of False Discovery Rate script (cFDR).

BiSCaP is based on the binomial expectations for the number of reads agreeing with a reference base over a given locus. These expectations allow for polymorphisms to be called with different levels of leniency for sequencing errors dependent on the depth of read coverage and for heterozygous positions to be called without a bias for the read depth. Briefly, an expected alignment and base calling error rate (e.g. 0.1 or 0.01) is used to generate a list of binomial probabilities p for sequencing and aligning k number of correct bases, given a read depth of n (number of trials) or f ($k; n, p$). The probability a base is homozygous (h^1) can be considered as $P(1 - \text{error rate})$. In a diploid, the probability of a heterozygous base (h^2) can be considered as $P((h^1/2) + ((\text{error rate} * 0.5)))$, where half the sequencing or alignment 'errors' are now specifying the two correct bases. Equally, a heterozygous allele in a triploid sequence (h^3) can be considered as either $P((h^1/3) + ((\text{error rate} * 0.25)))$ or $P((h^1/3) * 2) + ((\text{error rate} * 0.5))$. From these, a cumulative h^1 probability for the lower tail can be calculated (ch^1) in addition to the minimum values found from the cumulative h^2 or h^3 upper tail and the cumulative h^2 or h^3 lower tail (ch^2 and ch^3 respectively). Binomial values are generated by the script GBiD.pl (Generate Binomial Distributions) and stored in a lookup table. Pre-calculated tables for error rates of 0.1 and 0.01 up to a read depth of five hundred are provided in the current version. BiSCaP then uses one such look up table to infer the most probable consensus nucleotides from the alignment.

Briefly, the algorithm for determining the consensus sequence is to tally each of the four possible aligned bases, each of which needs to be \geq the minimum read depth to be considered a consensus allele. The most common base is considered homozygous where $ch^1 \geq \text{error rate}$ and $ch^1 > ch^2$. The most common and 2nd most common base are considered heterozygous where $ch^2 \geq \text{error rate}$ and $ch^2 > ch^1$ for both bases. A triploid heterozygous site is considered when the ch^3 for each of the three most common bases $\geq \text{error rate}$. Indels are treated separately but using the same criteria and sub routine.

BiSCaP by default provides details of polymorphic sites in Variant Call Format (VCF)³¹ and can also output pileup lines into separate files based on the identified mutation-type. Other optional parameters include different lookup table based on error rate, minimum read depth, ploidy, stringency for heterozygous SNP calling, and a Phred quality score filter. If the read depth is greater than the lookup table depth (default 500 for error rates 0.1 and 0.01), reads up to the maximum lookup table depth can be used to determine the genotype (default), or printed to a separate file named 'outside-distribution'. The cFDR script considers Percent True Positive (TP) homozygous SNPs as $((N^\circ \text{ TP hom. SNPs}/N^\circ \text{ Introduced mutations}) \times 100)$ and the Percent False Positive (FP) homozygous SNPs as $((N^\circ \text{ FP hom. SNPs}/(N^\circ \text{ TP and FP hom. SNPs})) \times 100)$.

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Author contributions

R.A.F., D.A.H. and M.C.F. wrote the main manuscript text. R.A.F. prepared the figures. R.A.F., D.M. and D.J.S. conceived of the study.

Additional information

Competing financial interests: The authors declare no competing financial interests.

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