

1 **COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF *LACTOBACILLUS PLANTARUM* WCFS1**  
2 **TRANSCRIPTOMES USING DNA MICROARRAY AND NEXT GENERATION**  
3 **SEQUENCING TECHNOLOGIES**

4

5 **Running Title: Comparison of transcriptomic technologies for bacteria**

6

7 Milkha M. Leimena<sup>a,b</sup>, Michiel W.W. Wels<sup>a,e</sup>, Roger S. Bongers<sup>e</sup>, Eddy J. Smid<sup>a,c</sup>, Erwin G. Zoetendal<sup>a,b</sup>,  
8 and Michiel Kleerebezem<sup>a,b,d,e#</sup>

9

10 *TI Food and Nutrition (TIFN), P.O. Box 557, 6700 AN Wageningen, the Netherlands<sup>a</sup>; Laboratory of*  
11 *Microbiology<sup>b</sup>, Laboratory of Food Microbiology<sup>c</sup>, and Host-Microbe Interactomics Group<sup>d</sup>, Wageningen*  
12 *University, Dreijenplein 10, 6703 HB, Wageningen, the Netherlands; NIZO Food Research B.V., P.O. Box*  
13 *20, 6710 BA, Ede, the Netherlands<sup>e</sup>*

14

15 <sup>#</sup> Correspondent footnote. Mailing address: NIZO Food Research B.V., P.O. Box 20, 6710 BA, Ede, the  
16 Netherlands. Phone: +31318659 629. Fax: +31318650400. E-mail: [michiel.kleerebezem@nizo.nl](mailto:michiel.kleerebezem@nizo.nl)

17 **Abstract**

18 RNA sequencing is starting to compete with the use of DNA microarrays for transcription  
19 analysis in eukaryotes as well as in prokaryotes. Application of RNA sequencing in  
20 prokaryotes requires additional steps in the RNA preparation procedure to increase the  
21 relative abundance of mRNA and cannot employ the poly-T primed approach in cDNA  
22 synthesis. In this study, we aimed to validate the use of RNA sequencing (direct cDNA  
23 sequencing and 3'-UTR sequencing) using *Lactobacillus plantarum* WCFS1 as a model  
24 organism, employing its established microarray platform as a reference. Limited impact  
25 of mRNA enrichment on genome-wide transcript quantification was observed, and  
26 comparative transcriptome analyses were performed for *L. plantarum* WCFS1 grown in  
27 two different laboratory media. Microarray analyses and both RNA sequencing methods  
28 resulted in similar depth of analysis and generated similar fold-change ratio of  
29 differentially expressed genes. The highest overall correlation was found between  
30 microarray and direct cDNA sequencing derived transcriptomes, while the 3'-UTR  
31 sequencing derived transcriptome appeared to deviate most. Overall, a high similarity  
32 between patterns of transcript abundance and fold-change levels of differentially  
33 expressed genes was detected by all three methods, indicating that the biological  
34 conclusions drawn from the transcriptome-data were consistent between the three  
35 technologies.

36 **Introduction**

37 Understanding the influence of environmental conditions on genome-wide gene  
38 expression levels requires accurate quantification of all expressed (m)RNAs. Microarrays  
39 provide an effective method for analysis of thousands of transcripts in a parallel manner,  
40 and allow measurement of the genome wide transcriptome of an organism in a single  
41 experiment (12, 51). It is especially suited for the transcriptome comparison of two  
42 biological conditions (34). However, background and saturation problems (42), and low  
43 reproducibility of results between laboratories (16) during microarray analyses could  
44 limit the usage of microarray for transcriptome interpretation.

45 The rapid development of next generation sequencing (NGS) technology for  
46 transcriptome analysis, which is known as RNA sequencing, is promoting the use of this  
47 method as a replacement for DNA microarrays. RNA sequencing using NGS technology  
48 has the advantage of low per-base costs through massive parallel *de novo* sequencing.  
49 This is starting to make RNA sequencing a cost effective alternative for transcriptome  
50 analysis, which is especially suited for samples from biological material with an unknown  
51 genetic content. RNA sequencing enables the direct determination of the identity and  
52 abundance of a transcript, which facilitates the identification of novel transcripts (4, 24)  
53 and allows the detection of rare transcripts at considerable sequencing depth (43). The  
54 RNA sequencing approach was initially described for eukaryotic cells, such as yeast (26),  
55 mouse embryonic stem cells and embryoid bodies (6), human cell lines (36), and plants  
56 (11, 42). The main principle of RNA sequencing in eukaryote cells includes the selective  
57 conversion of mRNA into double stranded (ds) cDNA fragments by poly-T (or random)  
58 primed reverse transcription and strand duplication, followed by direct sequencing of the  
59 ds cDNA and quantitative mapping of the identified reads to the genome to estimate the

60 level of gene expression (21, 46). To assess the robustness of the RNA sequencing  
61 methodology compared to microarrays, several studies were conducted using RNA of  
62 eukaryote cells, such as human liver and kidney (22), and mouse hippocampi (37). These  
63 comparative studies revealed a good correlation between the level of transcripts measured  
64 by microarrays and RNA sequencing. Moreover, these studies favored RNA-sequencing  
65 in terms of its higher reproducibility, and higher accuracy of detection of the fold-change  
66 in expression level (22, 37). However, these conclusions were contradicted by a well-  
67 defined study that used synthetic RNA samples and demonstrated that microarray  
68 quantification correlated better with actual transcript levels and was more sensitive as  
69 compared to RNA sequencing, while both methods performed equally well with respect  
70 to reproducibility and relative transcript ratio determination (47). In addition to the  
71 expressed sequence tag (EST) sequencing, an alternative sequencing based transcriptome  
72 approach was described by Eveland *et al* (11), in which the 3'-untranslated region (3'-  
73 UTR) of mRNAs in *Zea mays* was sequenced. This 3'-UTR sequencing method offers the  
74 possibility to determine differential expression between closely related genes. To date, no  
75 studies have been reported that assess the robustness of 3'-UTR sequencing for  
76 transcriptome analysis or its comparison to alternative transcriptome analysis methods.  
77 Although RNA sequencing technologies have been implemented and validated in  
78 eukaryotes, it is still quite challenging to employ these methods for prokaryote  
79 transcription analysis. This is not surprising since the prokaryote RNA pool contains a  
80 high amount of rRNA and tRNA, which may constitute more than 95% of the total RNA  
81 (31), while selective reverse transcription of mRNA by poly-T priming is not possible (9,  
82 42). Moreover, prokaryote transcriptional profiles are considered to be much more  
83 dynamically regulated and less stable as compared to those of eukaryotes. To increase the

84 relative abundance of mRNA in total prokaryote RNA material, several methods have  
85 been developed, including rRNA capture, selective degradation of processed RNA,  
86 selective poly-adenylation of mRNA, and antibody capture of subsets of mRNAs that  
87 interact with Hfq proteins (32). Due to the lack of a poly-A tail in prokaryote mRNA,  
88 alternative priming approaches during reverse transcription (RT) are commonly based on  
89 random oligonucleotide priming (hexamers or longer), and sometimes employ  
90 multiplexed gene specific oligonucleotides (28, 50), or a combination with gene specific  
91 priming of the 5'-end RNA-seq (48). Alternatively, oligo-dT priming can be employed  
92 following artificial poly-adenylation of mRNAs (13). The development of mRNA  
93 enrichment and priming methods allowed the successful use of RNA sequencing  
94 approaches for the investigation of transcriptome changes under different growth  
95 conditions of *Burkholderia cenocepacia* (50) and *Bacillus anthracis* (28).

96 In this study, we aimed to validate the use of different RNA sequencing techniques using  
97 a model prokaryote organism, while employing an established microarray platform as a  
98 reference. The transcriptomes of *Lactobacillus plantarum* WCFS1 (grown in two  
99 different laboratory media) were compared using custom-made oligonucleotide  
100 microarrays and RNA sequencing approaches. The microarray was also employed to  
101 evaluate the impact on the transcriptome of mRNA enrichment by RNA capture methods.

102 This study includes the comparison of two RNA sequencing approaches, direct cDNA-  
103 and 3'-UTR cDNA- sequencing to evaluate their applicability in prokaryote  
104 transcriptome analyses. Our analyses show that the depth of analysis for both RNA  
105 sequencing methodologies was similar to that observed for the microarray, leading to a  
106 coverage of >95% of all genes encoded in the *L. plantarum* WCFS1 genome. The best  
107 transcriptome correlation was found between microarray and direct cDNA sequencing

108 analyses, while the 3'-UTR sequencing method appeared to deviate most. Overall,  
109 patterns of transcript abundance and fold-change levels of differentially expressed genes  
110 were similar for all three methods.

111 **Materials and Methods**

112 ***Bacterial Strain and Growth Conditions***

113 *L. plantarum* WCFS1 (19) was grown in chemically defined medium (CDM) (39) and de  
114 Man Rogosa Sharpe (MRS) medium (8) at 37°C without agitation. Cells were harvested  
115 by centrifugation for 10 minutes at 4570×g and 4°C using a Heraeus Multifuge 3 S-R  
116 Centrifuge (DJB Labcare Ltd., England), at an optical density (OD<sub>600</sub>) of approximately  
117 1.0, which corresponds to the mid-logarithmic phase of growth for both media.

118

119 ***Total RNA isolation and mRNA enrichment***

120 Total RNA was extracted from the cell pellets according to the Macaloid based RNA  
121 isolation protocol (52). Extraction was followed by RNA purification using the RNAeasy  
122 mini kit (Qiagen, USA), including an on-column DNaseI (Roche, Germany) treatment as  
123 described previously (52). Enrichment of mRNA was performed by the selective removal  
124 of 16S and 23S rRNA using oligonucleotide-probes attached to magnetic beads according  
125 to the manufacturer's protocol (MICROBExpress™, Ambion, Applied Biosystem,  
126 Nieuwerkerk a/d IJssel, The Netherlands) (44). Total RNA and enriched mRNA yields  
127 were quantified spectrophotometrically (NanoDrop 1000; Nanodrop Technologies,  
128 Wilmington, USA) and total RNA quality was assessed by microfluidics-based  
129 electrophoresis system (Experion RNA Stdsens, Biorad Laboratories Inc., USA).

130

131 ***DNA Microarray based transcriptome analysis***

132 The microarray used was a custom designed *L. plantarum* WCFS1, 8×15-K Agilent  
133 oligonucleotide microarray (GPL13984), containing (maximally) three different probes  
134 per annotated gene that were spotted in duplicate (30). Both total RNA and enriched

135 mRNA were subjected to cDNA synthesis using a random nonamer primed approach as  
136 has been described before (33). Cy3- and Cy5-labeled cDNAs were prepared using a  
137 Cyscribe postlabeling kit (Amersham Biosciences, United Kingdom) according to the  
138 manufacturer's protocol. Cy5/Cy3 dye swaps were performed for the cDNA samples  
139 according to the scheme in Figure 1. Labeled cDNA mixtures were subsequently  
140 concentrated in a Hetovac VR-1 (Heto Lab Equipment A/S, Birkerod, Denmark) to a  
141 final volume of 25 $\mu$ l (if needed), incubated at 98°C for 3 minutes, and cooled at room  
142 temperature for 5 minutes. After addition of 25 $\mu$ l 2 $\times$ GEX HI-RPM hybridization buffer  
143 (Agilent technologies, Palo Alto, Ca, USA), 40 $\mu$ l of each mixture was applied on an  
144 Agilent 8 $\times$ 15K array (Agilent technologies, Palo Alto, Ca, USA). Hybridization and  
145 scanning of the microarray slides were performed as described previously (23). Slides  
146 were scanned with a ScanArray Express 4000 scanner (Perkin Elmer, Wellesley, MA),  
147 and the image was analyzed and processed using the ImaGene Version 7.5 software  
148 (BioDiscovery Inc., Marina Del Rey, CA, USA). Both total RNA and mRNA enriched  
149 datasets were normalized and corrected by local fitting of an M-A plot applying the  
150 Lowess algorithm (49) and interslide scaling, as available in MicroPrep (41) and different  
151 transcriptomes were compared using CyberT (3), taking into account the dye swaps of  
152 each of the conditions as described previously (23). The microarray data have been  
153 deposited in NCBI's Gene Expression Omnibus (10) and are accessible through GEO  
154 series accession number GSE35754.

155

#### 156 ***RNA sequencing based transcriptome analysis***

157 Double stranded cDNA was synthesized using enriched mRNA of CDM or MRS grown  
158 *L. plantarum* WCFS1 using the SuperScript<sup>TM</sup> Double Stranded cDNA Synthesis kit



159 (Invitrogen, 11917-010), with the addition of SuperScript™ III Reverse Transcriptase  
160 (Invitrogen, 18080-044) and random primers (Invitrogen, 48190-011) as described  
161 previously (50). This was followed by RNase A (Roche, Germany) treatment, phenol-  
162 chloroform extraction, and ethanol precipitation. Double stranded cDNA was quantified  
163 using the NanoDrop 1000 spectrophotometer (Nanodrop Technologies, Wilmington,  
164 USA), and the quantity and purity were verified by GATC Biotech using an Agilent 2100  
165 Bioanalyzer (Agilent technologies Inc., Waldbronn, Germany). Sequencing libraries were  
166 constructed from double stranded cDNA samples according to the Illumina Genome  
167 Analyzer II protocol (46), followed by direct cDNA sequencing (GATC Biotech,  
168 Konstanz, Germany). In addition, enriched mRNA samples of *L. plantarum* WCFS1 of  
169 both CDM and in MRS were used for 3'-UTR library preparation. To this end the  
170 enriched mRNA samples were poly(A)-tailed using poly(A) polymerase, treated with  
171 tobacco acid pyrophosphatase (TAP), and ligated at the 5'-end to an RNA adaptor  
172 (GATC Biotech, Konstanz, Germany). First-strand cDNA synthesis was performed using  
173 an oligo(dT)-adaptor primer and M-MLV H-reverse transcriptase. The resulting cDNAs  
174 were PCR-amplified to 20-30 ng/μl in 18 cycles using a high fidelity DNA polymerase.  
175 PCR products were purified using the NucleoSpin Extract II kit (MACHEREY-NAGEL  
176 GmbH & Co. KG., Germany) and were examined using Shimadzu MultiNA microchip  
177 electrophoresis system (Shimadzu Corporation, Japan). Both direct cDNA and 3'-UTR  
178 sequencing were performed simultaneously using a single flow cell of the Illumina  
179 Genome Analyzer II (GATC Biotech, Konstanz, Germany) at 8 pM concentration.  
180 Sequence data were cleaned for the poly-A (for 3'-UTR sequencing only) and low  
181 complexity regions using seqclean (<http://compbio.dfci.harvard.edu/tgi/software/>), with a  
182 length threshold of 20. Mapping and quantification of the cleaned sequences to an *in*

183 *silico* transcriptome reference was performed by GATC Biotech. The cDNA reference  
184 was created using the annotation of *L. plantarum* WCFS1 genome obtained from UCSC  
185 Genome Bioinformatics (<http://genome.ucsc.edu>). To map the 3'-UTR derived  
186 sequences to the appropriate gene specific transcripts, additional mappings of 100 bps,  
187 200 bps and 300 bps 3'-extended transcriptional unit predictions were employed (45).  
188 These multiple mappings were performed to increase the frequency of read assignments  
189 to genes, because the position of a 3'-UTR at the end of a transcript in *L. plantarum*  
190 WCFS1 is unknown. Visualization of the mapped transcript was performed using the  
191 UCSC Genome Browser (<http://microbes.ucsc.edu>).

192

193 ***Comparative data analyses of direct cDNA sequencing versus 3'-UTR sequencing and***  
194 ***microarray versus both RNA sequencings***

195 The signal intensity data obtained by microarrays and the number of read counts of direct  
196 cDNA and 3'-UTR sequencings were quantile normalized (5) using the CLC-Bio  
197 Genomic Workbench software (<http://www.clcbio.com/>) to adjust the data range.  
198 Normalized read counts of direct cDNA sequencing were plotted against those of the 3'-  
199 UTR sequencing using a scatter plot to investigate the reads distribution between the two  
200 datasets. Rank based analysis using Spearman correlation coefficient was applied to  
201 investigate the correlation between two sequencing techniques for CDM and MRS culture  
202 derived RNA samples. For the comparison with the microarray, which was utilized as the  
203 benchmark technology, normalized microarray signal intensities were used for the  
204 comparison of the normalized read counts from both RNA sequencing techniques using  
205 Spearman correlation analysis. Analysis of the differentially expressed genes (DEG)  
206 based on log<sub>2</sub> fold change ratio of CDM/MRS between microarray and both RNA

207 sequencing techniques was performed using a parametric method, Pearson correlation;  
208 assuming that the relative expression of the DEG should be conserved within all  
209 techniques irrespective of the difference in absolute gene expression values or the varying  
210 dynamic range of the different techniques. Only those genes that showed >2-fold absolute  
211 fold change ratio for all techniques and displayed significant (FDR-adjusted  $P$ -values <  
212 0.05) differential expression according to the microarray analysis were used. Spearman  
213 and Pearson correlation analyses were performed using the PASW Statistic 17.0 software  
214 suite (SPSS Inc., Chicago, USA).

215 **Results and Discussion**

216 *Microarray transcript profiles for total RNA and mRNA samples*

217 In this study, *L. plantarum* WCFS1 were grown in two laboratory media (CDM or MRS)  
218 to represent different environmental conditions. Microarray analysis was performed using  
219 both total RNA and enriched mRNA samples. The effect of mRNA enrichment on the  
220 transcriptome profile was evaluated by comparing normalized signal intensities per gene  
221 in the total RNA versus mRNA enriched transcriptome datasets by Spearman correlation  
222 analysis. A highly similar ranking of gene expression values in total RNA versus mRNA  
223 enriched samples was detected, as illustrated by the high Spearman correlation  
224 coefficients of 0.957 ( $p < 0.01$ ) and 0.953 ( $p < 0.01$ ) for the RNA samples derived from  
225 CDM and MRS grown cultures, respectively. Only 81 genes were differentially  
226 quantified with FDR-adjusted p-values  $< 0.05$  when comparing total RNA versus enriched  
227 mRNA samples for both growth conditions (Figure 2), indicating that mRNA enrichment  
228 has only a limited impact on overall transcript quantification. Notably, of these 81 genes,  
229 60 were differentially quantified in the RNA samples from both growth conditions and  
230 were consistently observed at a higher level in the mRNA enriched sample, suggesting  
231 that the enrichment procedure selectively and consistently enriches a small but specific  
232 RNA subset. Their fold change ratio generally varied from 2- to 10-fold and in the few  
233 cases where the fold-change exceeded a factor of 10 the genes were among the very  
234 lowly expressed within the dataset. The majority of these differentially quantified genes  
235 were related to hypothetical protein functions (Figure 3). In addition, the limitation of the  
236 mRNA enrichment method used (MICROBExpress™, Ambion), which does not target  
237 tRNA removal, resulted in differential quantification of some tRNAs in the mRNA  
238 enriched fraction (17).

239 Variation in gene expression level caused by the different growth conditions (CDM  
240 versus MRS) was observed for a total of 207 genes (FDR-adjusted p-values <0.05) from  
241 both total RNA and mRNA enriched analyses. Of these 207 genes, 180 genes were shared  
242 between the differential genes identified in the total RNA and mRNA enriched samples,  
243 of which 178 showed conserved up- or down-regulation as a consequence of the  
244 difference in growth medium (Figure 2). Average linkage hierarchical clustering with  
245 Pearson correlation distance (35) confirmed a more pronounced separation of CDM and  
246 MRS profiles relative to the separation seen for total RNA versus mRNA enrichment  
247 profiles (Figure 3).

248 This finding shows that the transcriptome variation caused by different growth conditions  
249 exceeds the variation caused by enrichment procedure, indicating that mRNA enrichment  
250 will only have a limited impact on the biological interpretation of transcriptome data,  
251 which is validated for a well-defined culture under well-defined conditions, with the  
252 anticipation towards similar performance in the complex ecosystems. The genes  
253 displaying significant differential expression in cultures grown on CDM compared to  
254 MRS predominantly belonged to specific functional categories that appear to reflect the  
255 different medium composition, such as transport and binding proteins (in particular for  
256 amino acid, peptides and amines), amino acid biosynthesis (in particular for histidine and  
257 aspartate), energy metabolism, and synthesis of purines, pyrimidines, nucleosides and  
258 nucleotides (Figure 3; Figure S1). The limited amount of nucleotides (18) and specific  
259 amino acids available in CDM relative to MRS apparently requires an alternative pallet of  
260 transport functions to import those components, which could consistently be concluded  
261 from the arrays irrespective of the RNA source (enriched mRNA versus total RNA) used.  
262

263 ***RNA Sequencing based Transcriptome Analysis: direct cDNA sequencing versus 3'-***

264 ***UTR sequencing***

265 Direct cDNA sequencing and 3'-UTR sequencing were performed using mRNA enriched  
266 samples of *L. plantarum* WCFS1 grown in CDM or MRS. The number of sequence reads  
267 recovered varied between 17.5 to 28.1 million per sample (Table S1) with an average  
268 trimmed length of 36bp. Of all sequence reads obtained, 93 to 98% could be assigned to  
269 the *L. plantarum* WCFS1 genome. Sequence reads that could be mapped to the genome  
270 were subsequently aligned to the coding sequences (CDS) based on the current annotation  
271 of protein encoding genes of *L. plantarum* WCFS1 (19). The majority of the direct cDNA  
272 sequencing reads that mapped to the genome could be aligned to the CDS (14.6 to 18.5  
273 million). In contrast, the sequences obtained by 3'-UTR sequencing mapped with much  
274 lower frequency to the CDS (<20%) (Table S1). A possible explanation for the strongly  
275 reduced CDS-mapping of the short reads (~36bp) obtained by 3'-UTR sequencing is most  
276 probably due to the preferential sequencing of the genetic regions downstream of the  
277 protein coding region that is intrinsic to this method. Unfortunately, there is no accurate  
278 prediction of the 3'-end of the transcript sequences for the *L. plantarum* genome. To  
279 overcome the low CDS mapping, an *in silico* approach was chosen that included a step-  
280 wise 3'-extension of the CDS with 100bp, 200bp and 300bp. *In silico* predictions  
281 indicated that approximately 75% of the predicted terminator sequences in the *L.*  
282 *plantarum* WCFS1 genome were encompassed within the 100bp extension (7), while an  
283 additional 12% and 6% of the predicted terminators were encountered within the 200bp  
284 and 300bp extended 3'-UTRs, respectively (Figure S2). Analogously, *in silico* 3'-  
285 extension of the CDS of the *L. plantarum* WCFS1 genome by 100bp enabled an 80% and  
286 130% increase in the gene-specific mapping of the CDM and MRS 3'-UTR transcript

287 sequence datasets, respectively. Notably, larger 3'-extension of the gene sequences with  
288 200bp and 300bp led to significantly smaller increases of CDS-specific transcript  
289 mapping (~25% and ~30%, respectively), supporting the prediction that 75% of the  
290 terminators within the first 100 bases downstream of the CDS (Figure S2A). Moreover,  
291 200bp and 300bp 3'-extension of gene sequences included a significantly higher fraction  
292 of the transcript sequences that were erroneously mapped to downstream genes, which is  
293 a consequence of the overlap of these extensions with downstream genes (Figure S2B).  
294 Based on these analyses, 100bp 3'-extensions were incorporated in the gene specific  
295 mapping of 3'-UTR transcript sequence mapping to the *L. plantarum* WCFS1 genome,  
296 which improved the number of reads mapped to the CDS from below 20% to  
297 approximately 35%.

298 As anticipated, the distribution of the mapped sequences to the protein encoding CDS  
299 was markedly different between direct cDNA sequencing and 3'-UTR sequencing. While  
300 the reads obtained from 3'-UTR sequencing predominantly mapped at the 3'-end of the  
301 (extended) genes (Table S2), the reads obtained from direct cDNA sequencing appeared  
302 to distribute relatively equally over the entire CDS. Many prokaryotic genes are  
303 transcribed in operons that generate polycistronic transcripts that cover several genes,  
304 which are commonly functionally related (20, 45). Analogously, most of the 3'-UTR  
305 sequence datasets (~70%) consistently mapped to the last gene of such polycistronic  
306 transcripts (Figure 4). This indicates that accurate functional interpretation of 3'-UTR  
307 sequence datasets requires the correct prediction of transcriptional units (including  
308 operons) to precisely encompass all functions expressed.

309 Both sequencing techniques showed comparable transcript coverage, where > 95% of all  
310 annotated genes (3135 genes) of the *L. plantarum* WCFS1 genome were at least covered

311 by a single sequence read. Similar read distribution was observed for direct cDNA  
312 sequencing and 3'-UTR sequencing (similar proportion between the area above and  
313 below the continuous line; figure 5), which indicates similar gene expression patterns.  
314 Notably, several genes were apparently overestimated by 3'-UTR sequencing, (upper left  
315 area of figure 5), which may be due to either a technical artefact by the application of  
316 poly-A tail, an artefact in the data interpretation by 100bp extension of the mapping, or  
317 the existence of some internal promoters (7).

318

319 ***RNA sequencing validation by comparative analysis with the Microarray-derived***  
320 ***transcriptomes***

321 Since microarrays can be considered as an 'established' transcriptome methodology, the  
322 data obtained from the microarrays were employed as a reference to evaluate the overall  
323 validity of direct cDNA and 3'-UTR sequencing. Only the genes that gave a value for all  
324 methods (2962 genes) were used for comparison of the transcriptomes obtained by  
325 microarray and direct cDNA or 3'-UTR sequencing. Normalized signal intensity values  
326 per gene obtained by microarray analysis were plotted against normalized CDS-read  
327 assignment frequencies derived from both RNA sequencing methods.

328 Both microarray and RNA sequencing transcriptome datasets were normalized using  
329 quantile normalization, as a quick and simple method to create an even distribution of  
330 microarray probe intensities and RNA sequencing read counts (5). Additional  
331 normalization approaches, such as RPKM (reads per kilobase of exon model per million  
332 mapped reads) (25) or FPKM (fragments per kilobase of transcript per million fragments  
333 mapped) (40) approach, which take into consideration the influence of transcript length  
334 towards the gene expression quantification of RNA sequencing reads, could give more



335 accurate gene expression quantification, especially of direct cDNA sequencing. Although  
336 overall transcriptome comparisons was done without considering the transcript length,  
337 high comparability was shown between microarray and direct cDNA sequencing as well  
338 as between microarray and 3'-UTR sequencing (Figure 6).

339 Direct cDNA sequencing displayed a higher correlation to the microarray as compared to  
340 the 3'-UTR (Figure 6). This was especially apparent in transcripts with relatively high 3'-  
341 UTR sequencing assignments compared to the array signal intensity (upper left area of  
342 figures 6C and 6D). These results indicate that direct cDNA sequencing generates  
343 transcriptome results that resemble those obtained by microarray transcriptome profiling,  
344 and that 3'-UTR appears to estimated expression levels are higher for subsets of genes as  
345 compared to the other two methods. These conclusions were also supported by rank based  
346 Spearman correlation analysis, showing higher correlation values between microarray and  
347 direct cDNA sequencing datasets (CDM: 0.835 [p<0.01] and 0.762 [p<0.01]; MRS: 0.881  
348 [p<0.01] and 0.707 [p<0.01], for direct cDNA sequencing and 3'-UTR sequencing,  
349 respectively).

350 The application of 3'-UTR sequencing as a method for prokaryote transcriptome analysis  
351 has not yet been well established and may require additional normalization or processing  
352 steps to obtain an appropriate quantitative representation of the transcript levels that can  
353 be compared with microarray derived transcriptome datasets. To evaluate whether the  
354 lower correlation between 3'-UTR sequencing and array-based transcript datasets was  
355 caused by a biased positioning of the sequence reads within an operon, the expression  
356 values of the last genes in operons was also assigned to each upstream encoded gene  
357 within the same predicted operon. However, this data transformation step to  
358 accommodate polycistronic operon transcript in the 3'-UTR data did not improve the

359 correlation with the array derived datasets (data not shown). This may suggest that the  
360 lower correlation of these datasets may arise from a bias in the 3'-UTR extension or  
361 sequencing technology employed.

362 The most relevant comparative analysis of the three methods employed here undoubtedly  
363 relates to the comparisons of the biological conclusions they may generate. To this end,  
364 the ability of the three technologies to consistently identify the same genes (1, 22) that are  
365 differentially expressed (DEG) when comparing growth on CDM and MRS. The  
366 sequence-based transcriptome quantification was determined by the ratio of sequence  
367 reads assigned to a gene in CDM and MRS obtained datasets, while the differential  
368 expression per gene in the microarray dataset was calculated using CyberT (3). In total,  
369 538 DEG with an expression fold-change  $>2$  were detected within the DNA microarray;  
370 while 442 and 466 DEG with an expression fold-change  $>2$  were detected by direct  
371 cDNA sequencing and 3'-UTR sequencing, respectively. Among the latter groups of  
372 genes, 233 and 204 DEG were shared between the microarray-based analysis and direct  
373 cDNA sequencing and 3'-UTR sequencing, respectively. Moreover, 172 genes were  
374 identified to have absolute fold change  $>2$  for all techniques with the same up- or down-  
375 regulation pattern; among which 152 genes were considered to be significantly  
376 differentially expressed according to the DNA microarray technology ( $FDR < 0.05$ ) that  
377 was used as the reference technology. Thereby, this comparative analysis of differentially  
378 expressed genes establishes a good consistency of the biological outcomes generated by  
379 the three transcriptome technologies, characterized by similar fold-change of expression  
380 for most shared DEG. Heat map analysis of the differential expression data confirmed  
381 that 3'-UTR sequencing deviates slightly more from the microarray than direct cDNA  
382 sequencing (Figure 7). This is also reflected by the somewhat lower Pearson correlation

383 when comparing the microarray with 3'-UTR-sequencing (0.852;  $p < 0.01$ ) relative to the  
384 comparison of the microarray with the direct cDNA sequencing (0.897;  $p < 0.01$ ). Notably,  
385 the highest Pearson correlation was obtained of the two sequencing based technologies  
386 (0.951;  $p < 0.01$ ), which might be due to the saturated hybridization-signals in the array  
387 datasets (Figure S3) (14).

388 Since this analysis of DEG was performed taking microarray data as a reference, DEG  
389 that display differential expression only according to the transcriptome sequencing  
390 analyses may have been missed. DEG analysis of the direct cDNA and 3'-UTR  
391 sequencing datasets revealed 50 additional genes with a differential expression value  $> 2$   
392 in both sequencing based datasets. Of these genes, 40 appeared not to reach significance  
393 of regulation in the array dataset ( $FDR > 0.05$ ), but displayed conserved direction of  
394 differential expression according the array analyses, albeit it with  $< 2$  absolute fold  
395 change ratio. Moreover, many of the probes associated with 36 of these 40 genes revealed  
396 saturated hybridization-signals in the array datasets (Figure S3), suggesting that they were  
397 inaccurately measured by the array due to falling outside the dynamic range of the array  
398 technology (14). This observation implies that RNA sequencing may exceed the depth of  
399 analysis in comparison to the 'traditional' array technologies, especially for genes that are  
400 expressed at a high level.

401 Unlike microarray data, RNA sequencing count data is generally not well represented as  
402 continues distribution (27). Therefore, normalization procedure which are successfully  
403 applied for microarray data, might not be optimal for RNA sequencing dataset. Data  
404 normalization based on parametric approaches was implemented in several analyses  
405 platforms, such as edgeR (29), baySeq (15), and DESeq (2), which allow lowering of  
406 both biological and technical variability of replicated count data. Moreover, non-

407 parametric approaches, like the noise modeling employed in NOISeq, allow the  
408 evaluation of low expression counts without any needs of replicates (38). Overall, it is  
409 very encouraging that the data presented establish that the three transcriptome methods  
410 generate a very similar biological view of the transcriptional behavior of a well-defined  
411 culture under well-defined conditions.

412

413 **Concluding remarks and outlook towards undefined ecosystem metatranscriptome**  
414 **sequencing**

415 The present study provides a validation of RNA sequencing techniques in prokaryotes,  
416 using a well-studied bacterium under well-defined conditions and employing DNA  
417 microarray technology as the reference transcriptome-methodology. Such validation of  
418 sequence based transcriptomics methodology is required to confidently apply sequence  
419 based transcriptome methods in samples derived from complex microbial communities  
420 with unknown composition and that live in poorly defined growth conditions. Such  
421 ecosystem meta-transcriptomic analyses cannot be performed using DNA microarrays  
422 due to sequence variations among the coding capacities among (close) relatives of similar  
423 phylogenetic origin, which makes quantification of transcripts on basis of hybridization  
424 signals highly unreliable. This study also demonstrates that 3'-UTR sequencing is  
425 complicated by the processing of the sequence data that do not map to coding regions of  
426 genes, and therefore can be anticipated to present considerable uncertainties during  
427 biological (genes and functions) interpretation of 3'-UTR RNA sequencing datasets  
428 obtained from complex microbial communities with an unknown genetic content. Taken  
429 together the results presented in this study indicate that direct cDNA sequencing  
430 technology is a promising approach for the generation of meta-transcriptome datasets of

431 an unknown microbial community that offers good possibilities for biological  
432 interpretation taking a set of representative microbial genomes as a mapping platform.

433 **Acknowledgement**

434 The authors would like to thank Yadhu Kumar and Nastasja Trunk of GATC-Biotech  
435 (Konstanz, Germany) for assistance in providing the bioinformatics support and  
436 additional information regarding the RNA sequencing procedures. This project was  
437 supported by the Netherlands Bioinformatics Centre (NBIC).

438 **Reference**

- 439 1. **Agarwal, A., D. Koppstein, J. Rozowsky, A. Sboner, L. Habegger, L. W.**  
440 **Hillier, R. Sasidharan, V. Reinke, R. H. Waterston, and M. Gerstein.** 2010.  
441 Comparison and calibration of transcriptome data from RNA-Seq and tiling  
442 arrays. *BMC Genomics* **11**:383-399.
- 443 2. **Anders, S., and W. Huber.** 2010. Differential expression analysis for sequence  
444 count data. *Genome biology* **11**:R106.
- 445 3. **Baldi, P., and A. D. Long.** 2001. A Bayesian framework for the analysis of  
446 microarray expression data: regularized t -test and statistical inferences of gene  
447 changes. *Bioinformatics (Oxford, England)* **17**:509-519.
- 448 4. **Bloom, J. S., Z. Khan, L. Kruglyak, M. Singh, and A. A. Caudy.** 2009.  
449 Measuring differential gene expression by short read sequencing: quantitative  
450 comparison to 2-channel gene expression microarrays. *BMC Genomics* **10**:221-  
451 231.
- 452 5. **Bolstad, B. M., R. A. Irizarry, M. Astrand, and T. P. Speed.** 2003. A  
453 comparison of normalization methods for high density oligonucleotide array data  
454 based on variance and bias. *Bioinformatics (Oxford, England)* **19**:185-193.
- 455 6. **Cloonan, N., A. R. R. Forrest, G. Kolle, B. B. A. Gardiner, G. J. Faulkner, M.**  
456 **K. Brown, D. F. Taylor, A. L. Steptoe, S. Wani, G. Bethel, A. J. Robertson, A.**  
457 **C. Perkins, S. J. Bruce, C. C. Lee, S. S. Ranade, H. E. Peckham, J. M.**  
458 **Manning, K. J. McKernan, and S. M. Grimmond.** 2008. Stem cell  
459 transcriptome profiling via massive-scale mRNA sequencing. *Nature Methods*  
460 **5**:613-619.

- 461 7. **de Hoon, M. J. L., Y. Makita, K. Nakai, and S. Miyano.** 2005. Prediction of  
462 transcriptional terminators in *Bacillus subtilis* and related species. PLoS  
463 computational biology **1**:e25.
- 464 8. **De Man, J. C., M. Rogosa, and M. E. Sharpe.** 1960. A Medium for the  
465 cultivation of Lactobacilli. Journal of Applied Microbiology **23**:130-135.
- 466 9. **Deutscher, M. P.** 2006. Degradation of RNA in bacteria: comparison of mRNA  
467 and stable RNA. Nucleic Acids Res **34**:659-666.
- 468 10. **Edgar, R., M. Domrachev, and A. E. Lash.** 2002. Gene Expression Omnibus:  
469 NCBI gene expression and hybridization array data repository. Nucleic acids  
470 research **30**:207-210.
- 471 11. **Eveland, A. L., D. R. McCarty, and K. E. Koch.** 2008. Transcript profiling by  
472 3'-untranslated region sequencing resolves expression of gene families. Plant  
473 Physiol **146**:32-44.
- 474 12. **Everett, K. R., J. Rees-George, I. P. S. Pushparajah, B. J. Janssen, and Z.**  
475 **Luo.** 2010. Advantages and disadvantages of microarrays to study microbial  
476 population dynamics - a minireview. New Zealand Plant Protection **63**:1-6.
- 477 13. **Frias-Lopez, J., Y. Shi, G. W. Tyson, M. L. Coleman, S. C. Schuster, S. W.**  
478 **Chisholm, and E. F. Delong.** 2008. Microbial community gene expression in  
479 ocean surface waters. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the  
480 United States of America **105**:3805-3810.
- 481 14. **Garcia de la Nava, J., S. van Hijum, and O. Trelles.** 2004. Saturation and  
482 quantization reduction in microarray experiments using two scans at different  
483 sensitivities. Stat Appl Genet Mol Biol **3**:1-16.



- 484 15. **Hardcastle, T. J., and K. A. Kelly.** 2010. baySeq: empirical Bayesian methods  
485 for identifying differential expression in sequence count data. BMC  
486 Bioinformatics **11**:422.
- 487 16. **Irizarry, R. A., D. Warren, F. Spencer, I. F. Kim, S. Biswal, B. C. Frank, E.**  
488 **Gabrielson, J. G. N. Garcia, J. Geoghegan, G. Germino, C. Griffin, S. C.**  
489 **Hilmer, E. Hoffman, A. E. Jedlicka, E. Kawasaki, F. Martinez-Murillo, L.**  
490 **Morsberger, H. Lee, D. Petersen, J. Quackenbush, A. Scott, M. Wilson, Y.**  
491 **Yang, S. Q. Ye, and W. Yu.** 2005. Multiple-laboratory comparison of microarray  
492 platforms. Nature Methods **2**:345-350.
- 493 17. **Kang, Y., M. H. Norris, J. Zarzycki-Siek, W. C. Nierman, S. P. Donachie,**  
494 **and T. T. Hoang.** 2011. Transcript amplification from single bacterium for  
495 transcriptome analysis. Genome Research **21**:925-935.
- 496 18. **Kilstrup, M., K. Hammer, P. Ruhdal Jensen, and J. Martinussen.** 2005.  
497 Nucleotide metabolism and its control in lactic acid bacteria. FEMS Microbiol  
498 Rev **29**:555-590.
- 499 19. **Kleerebezem, M., J. Boekhorst, R. van Kranenburg, D. Molenaar, O. P.**  
500 **Kuipers, R. Leer, R. Tarchini, S. A. Peters, H. M. Sandbrink, M. W. Fiers,**  
501 **W. Stiekema, R. M. Lankhorst, P. A. Bron, S. M. Hoffer, M. N. Groot, R.**  
502 **Kerkhoven, M. de Vries, B. Ursing, W. M. de Vos, and R. J. Siezen.** 2003.  
503 Complete genome sequence of *Lactobacillus plantarum* WCFS1. Proc Natl Acad  
504 Sci U S A **100**:1990-1995.
- 505 20. **Kozak, M.** 1983. Comparison of initiation of protein synthesis in procaryotes,  
506 eucaryotes, and organelles. Microbiol Rev **47**:1-45.

- 507 21. **Li, B., V. Ruotti, R. M. Stewart, J. A. Thomson, and C. N. Dewey.** 2010.  
508 RNA-Seq gene expression estimation with read mapping uncertainty.  
509 Bioinformatics (Oxford, England) **26**:493-500.
- 510 22. **Marioni, J. C., C. E. Mason, S. M. Mane, M. Stephens, and Y. Gilad.** 2008.  
511 RNA-seq: an assessment of technical reproducibility and comparison with gene  
512 expression arrays. Genome Research **18**:1509-1517.
- 513 23. **Meijerink, M., S. van Hemert, N. Taverne, M. Wels, P. de Vos, P. A. Bron, H.**  
514 **F. Savelkoul, J. van Bilsen, M. Kleerebezem, and J. M. Wells.** 2010.  
515 Identification of genetic loci in *Lactobacillus plantarum* that modulate the  
516 immune response of dendritic cells using comparative genome hybridization.  
517 PLoS One **5**:e10632.
- 518 24. **Morozova, O., M. Hirst, and M. A. Marra.** 2009. Applications of new  
519 sequencing technologies for transcriptome analysis. Annu Rev Genomics Hum  
520 Genet **10**:135-151.
- 521 25. **Mortazavi, A., B. A. Williams, K. McCue, L. Schaeffer, and B. Wold.** 2008.  
522 Mapping and quantifying mammalian transcriptomes by RNA-Seq. Nat Methods  
523 **5**:621-628.
- 524 26. **Nagalakshmi, U., Z. Wang, K. Waern, C. Shou, D. Raha, M. Gerstein, and**  
525 **M. Snyder.** 2008. The transcriptional landscape of the yeast genome defined by  
526 RNA sequencing. Science (New York, N Y ) **320**:1344-1349.
- 527 27. **Oshlack, A., M. D. Robinson, and M. D. Young.** 2010. From RNA-seq reads to  
528 differential expression results. Genome biology **11**:220.

- 529 28. **Passalacqua, K. D., A. Varadarajan, B. D. Ondov, D. T. Okou, M. E. Zwick,**  
530 **and N. H. Bergman.** 2009. Structure and complexity of a bacterial transcriptome.  
531 *J Bacteriol* **191**:3203-3211.
- 532 29. **Robinson, M. D., D. J. McCarthy, and G. K. Smyth.** 2010. edgeR: a  
533 Bioconductor package for differential expression analysis of digital gene  
534 expression data. *Bioinformatics (Oxford, England)* **26**:139-140.
- 535 30. **Serrano, L. M., D. Molenaar, M. Wels, B. Teusink, P. A. Bron, W. M. de Vos,**  
536 **and E. J. Smid.** 2007. Thioredoxin reductase is a key factor in the oxidative stress  
537 response of *Lactobacillus plantarum* WCFS1. *Microbial Cell Factories* **6**:29.
- 538 31. **Siezen, R. J., G. Wilson, and T. Todt.** 2010. Prokaryotic whole-transcriptome  
539 analysis: deep sequencing and tiling arrays. *Microbial Biotechnology* **3**:125-130.
- 540 32. **Sorek, R., and P. Cossart.** 2010. Prokaryotic transcriptomics: a new view on  
541 regulation, physiology and pathogenicity. *Nature reviews Genetics* **11**:9-16.
- 542 33. **Stevens, M. J. A., D. Molenaar, A. de Jong, W. M. De Vos, and M.**  
543 **Kleerebezem.** 2010. sigma54-Mediated control of the mannose  
544 phosphotransferase system in *Lactobacillus plantarum* impacts on carbohydrate  
545 metabolism. *Microbiology (Reading, England)* **156**:695-707.
- 546 34. **Stoughton, R. B.** 2005. Applications of DNA microarrays in biology. *Annu Rev*  
547 *Biochem* **74**:53-82.
- 548 35. **Sturn, A., J. Quackenbush, and Z. Trajanoski.** 2002. Genesis: cluster analysis  
549 of microarray data. *Bioinformatics (Oxford, England)* **18**:207-208.
- 550 36. **Sultan, M., M. H. Schulz, H. Richard, A. Magen, A. Klingenhoff, M. Scherf,**  
551 **M. Seifert, T. Borodina, A. Soldatov, D. Parkhomchuk, D. Schmidt, S.**  
552 **O'Keeffe, S. Haas, M. Vingron, H. Lehrach, and M.-L. Yaspo.** 2008. A global

- 553 view of gene activity and alternative splicing by deep sequencing of the human  
554 transcriptome. *Science (New York, N Y )* **321**:956-960.
- 555 37. **t Hoen, P. A., Y. Ariyurek, H. H. Thygesen, E. Vreugdenhil, R. H. Vossen, R.**  
556 **X. de Menezes, J. M. Boer, G. J. van Ommen, and J. T. den Dunnen.** 2008.  
557 Deep sequencing-based expression analysis shows major advances in robustness,  
558 resolution and inter-lab portability over five microarray platforms. *Nucleic Acids*  
559 *Res* **36**:e141.
- 560 38. **Tarazona, S., F. Garcia-Alcalde, J. Dopazo, A. Ferrer, and A. Conesa.** 2011.  
561 Differential expression in RNA-seq: a matter of depth. *Genome Research*  
562 **21**:2213-2223.
- 563 39. **Teusink, B., F. H. van Enkevort, C. Francke, A. Wiersma, A. Wegkamp, E.**  
564 **J. Smid, and R. J. Siezen.** 2005. In silico reconstruction of the metabolic  
565 pathways of *Lactobacillus plantarum*: comparing predictions of nutrient  
566 requirements with those from growth experiments. *Appl Environ Microbiol*  
567 **71**:7253-7262.
- 568 40. **Trapnell, C., A. Roberts, L. Goff, G. Pertea, D. Kim, D. R. Kelley, H.**  
569 **Pimentel, S. L. Salzberg, J. L. Rinn, and L. Pachter.** 2012. Differential gene  
570 and transcript expression analysis of RNA-seq experiments with TopHat and  
571 Cufflinks. *Nature Protocols* **7**:562-578.
- 572 41. **van Hijum, S. A. F. T., J. Garcia de la Nava, O. Trelles, J. Kok, and O. P.**  
573 **Kuipers.** 2003. MicroPreP: a cDNA microarray data pre-processing framework.  
574 *Appl Bioinformatics* **2**:241-244.
- 575 42. **van Vliet, A. H.** 2009. Next generation sequencing of microbial transcriptomes:  
576 challenges and opportunities. *FEMS Microbiol Lett* **302**:1-7.

- 577 43. **Wang, Z., M. Gerstein, and M. Snyder.** 2009. RNA-Seq: a revolutionary tool  
578 for transcriptomics. *Nature reviews Genetics* **10**:57-63.
- 579 44. **Warnecke, F., and M. Hess.** 2009. A perspective: metatranscriptomics as a tool  
580 for the discovery of novel biocatalysts. *J Biotechnol* **142**:91-95.
- 581 45. **Wels, M. W. W.** 2008. Unraveling the regulatory network of *Lactobacillus*  
582 *plantarum* WCFS1. Wageningen University, Wageningen.
- 583 46. **Wilhelm, B. T., and J. R. Landry.** 2009. RNA-Seq-quantitative measurement of  
584 expression through massively parallel RNA-sequencing. *Methods* **48**:249-257.
- 585 47. **Willenbrock, H., J. Salomon, R. Sokilde, K. B. Barken, T. N. Hansen, F. C.**  
586 **Nielsen, S. Moller, and T. Litman.** 2009. Quantitative miRNA expression  
587 analysis: comparing microarrays with next-generation sequencing. *Rna* **15**:2028-  
588 2034.
- 589 48. **Wurtzel, O., R. Sapra, F. Chen, Y. Zhu, B. A. Simmons, and R. Sorek.** 2010.  
590 A single-base resolution map of an archaeal transcriptome. *Genome Research*  
591 **20**:133-141.
- 592 49. **Yang, Y. H., S. Dudoit, P. Luu, D. M. Lin, V. Peng, J. Ngai, and T. P. Speed.**  
593 2002. Normalization for cDNA microarray data: a robust composite method  
594 addressing single and multiple slide systematic variation. *Nucleic acids research*  
595 **30**:e15.
- 596 50. **Yoder-Himes, D. R., P. S. Chain, Y. Zhu, O. Wurtzel, E. M. Rubin, J. M.**  
597 **Tiedje, and R. Sorek.** 2009. Mapping the *Burkholderia cenocepacia* niche  
598 response via high-throughput sequencing. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* **106**:3976-  
599 3981.

- 600 51. **Zhou, J., and D. K. Thompson.** 2002. Challenges in applying microarrays to  
601 environmental studies. *Current Opinion in Biotechnology* **13**:204-207.
- 602 52. **Zoetendal, E. G., C. C. G. M. Booiijink, E. S. Klaassens, H. G. H. J. Heilig, M.**  
603 **Kleerebezem, H. Smidt, and W. M. de Vos.** 2006. Isolation of RNA from  
604 bacterial samples of the human gastrointestinal tract. *Nature Protocols* **1**:954-959.

605 **List of Figures**

606

607 **FIG 1** Hybridization scheme of total RNA and enriched mRNA of *L. plantarum* WCFS1  
608 grown in CDM and MRS. Each arrow represents a single hybridization. Samples at the  
609 base of the arrow were labeled with Cy3 label and samples at the arrowhead with Cy5.

610

611 **FIG 2** Venn diagram showing the number of up-regulated/down-regulated/oppositely  
612 regulated genes in the enriched mRNA sample obtained from CDM and MRS grown  
613 bacterial cells (panel A) or in the RNA obtained from CDM growing cells, either total  
614 RNA or after mRNA enrichment (panel B).

615

616 **FIG 3** Cluster analysis of 240 genes; 60 of total RNA vs. mRNA enrichment and 180 of  
617 CDM vs. MRS; with >2-fold change and FDR-adjusted *P*-values < 0.05) of *L. plantarum*  
618 WCFS1. Functional categories enriched with the gene datasets in different growth  
619 conditions are indicated with continuous lines, while dotted lines indicate clusters of  
620 genes that displayed differential quantification due to the mRNA enrichment procedure.  
621 A very similar clustering results were also obtained when the complete transcriptome  
622 datasets were used (data not shown).

623

624 **FIG 4** Mapping of *L. plantarum* WCFS1 transcripts from direct cDNA sequencing and  
625 3'-UTR sequencing of MRS and CDM grown cultures based on a predicted  
626 transcriptional unit (38). Scaling differences of the Y-axis range are indicative for the up-  
627 regulated transcription level observed in cells obtained from CDM grown cultures.

628

629 **FIG 5** Comparison of normalized signal intensity between direct cDNA sequencing and  
630 3'-UTR sequencing, for bacteria grown in CDM (Spearman: 0.686;  $p < 0.01$ ) and MRS  
631 (Spearman: 0.678;  $p < 0.01$ ) growth.

632

633 **FIG 6** Comparison between normalized signal intensity level of microarray and  
634 normalized read counts of direct cDNA sequencing (A and B) and 3'-UTR sequencing (C  
635 and D) in transcriptome datasets from bacteria grown in CDM and MRS.

636

637 **FIG 7** Comparison of 152 transcript levels (40 down-regulated in CDM and 112 up-  
638 regulated in CDM) that consistently were classified among the DEG gene sets,  
639 determined by microarray transcriptomes, or direct cDNA and 3'-UTR transcriptome  
640 sequencing. Data are sorted according to their fold-change within the reference datasets  
641 (DNA microarray technology).















