A peer-reviewed version of this preprint was published in PeerJ on 22 May 2014.

<u>View the peer-reviewed version</u> (peerj.com/articles/396), which is the preferred citable publication unless you specifically need to cite this preprint.

Balakrishnan CN, Mukai M, Gonser RA, Wingfield JC, London SE, Tuttle EM, Clayton DF. 2014. Brain transcriptome sequencing and assembly of three songbird model systems for the study of social behavior. PeerJ 2:e396 <u>https://doi.org/10.7717/peerj.396</u>

Brain transcriptome sequencing and assembly of three songbird model systems for the study of social behavior

Christopher N Balakrishnan, Motoko Mukai, Rusty A Gonser, John C Wingfield, Sarah E London, Elaina M Tuttle, David F Clayton

Emberizid sparrows (emberizidae) have played a prominent role in the study of avian vocal communication and social behavior. We present here brain transcriptomes for three emberizid model systems, song sparrow *Melospiza melodia*, white-throated sparrow *Zonotrichia albicollis*, and Gambel's white-crowned sparrow *Zonotrichia leucophrys gambelii*. Each of the assemblies covered fully or in part, over 89% of the previously annotated protein coding genes in the zebra finch *Taeniopygia guttata*, with 16,846, 15,805, and 16,646 unique BLAST hits in song, white-throated and white-crowned sparrows, respectively. As in previous studies, we find tissue of origin (auditory forebrain versus hypothalamus and whole brain) as a primary determinant of overall expression profile. We also demonstrate the successful isolation of RNA and RNA-sequencing from *post-mortem* samples from building strikes and suggest that such an approach could be useful when traditional sampling opportunities are limited. These transcriptomes will be an important resource for the study of social behavior in birds and for data driven annotation of forthcoming whole genome sequences for these and other bird species.

Brain transcriptome sequencing and assembly of three songbird model systems for the study of social behavior

3

4

Christopher N. Balakrishnan^{1,*}, Motoko Mukai^{2,3}, Rusty A. Gonser,⁴ John C. Wingfield³,

5 Sarah E. London⁵, Elaina M. Tuttle⁴, and David F. Clayton⁶

6

⁷ ¹Department of Biology, East Carolina University, Greenville, North Carolina, USA

- 8 ² Department of Food Science, College of Agriculture and Life Sciences, Cornell
- 9 University, Ithaca, New York, USA
- ³Department of Neurobiology, Physiology and Behavior, University of California, Davis,
- 11 California, USA
- ⁴Department of Biology and The Center for Genomic Advocacy (TCGA), Indiana State
- 13 University, Terre Haute, Indiana, USA
- ⁵Department of Psychology, University of Chicago, Chicago, Illinois, USA
- ⁶ Division of Biological & Experimental Psychology, School of Biological and Chemical
- 16 Sciences, Queen Mary University of London, London, UK
- 17
- 18 *Author for correspondence:
- 19 Christopher N. Balakrishnan
- 20 East Carolina University
- 21 Howell Science Complex
- 22 Greenville, NC 27858
- 23 <u>balakrishnanc@ecu.edu</u>
- 24 252 328 2910

26 Introduction

27 The comparative method, broadly speaking, is a powerful approach for 28 understanding adaptations including behavior and central control of physiological 29 responses to environmental change. Natural variation in behavior among species has been 30 used in various taxonomic groups to begin to unravel the molecular underpinnings of 31 animal social behavior. Among these comparative studies of behavior, different strategies 32 and technologies have been deployed in order to gain an understanding of the proximate 33 mechanisms at play. For example, experimental hormonal manipulations and gene sequence comparisons in different species of *Microtus* voles led to insights into the 34 35 mechanisms of parental care (Young et al. 1999). Similarly, quantitative trait locus 36 (QTL) mapping studies have recently revealed the genetic architecture of burrowing 37 behavior in *Peromyscus* mice (Weber et al. 2013). Phylogenetic analyses of rates of 38 molecular evolution based on transcriptomes in eusocial and solitary bees has also led to 39 insights into potential underpinnings of social behavior variation (Woodard et al. 2011). 40 Songbirds, or oscine passerines, comprise roughly half of avian diversity and also 41 serve as important models for the study of social behavior. Arguably the most prominent 42 of the songbird species for behavioral research is the zebra finch *Taeniopygia guttata*, 43 which now boasts a full suite of genomic and molecular tools including a complete 44 genome sequence (Warren et al. 2010), RNA-seq based mRNA (Warren et al. 2010; 45 Balakrishnan et al. 2012), microRNA data (Gunaratne et al. 2011; Luo et al. 2012), 46 transgenics (Agate et al. 2009) and cell lines (Itoh & Arnold 2011; Balakrishnan et al. 47 2012). A key strength of songbirds as a model system, however, has always been the

25

behavioral complexity and diversity of songbirds as a group (Beecher & Brenowitz
2005; Brenowitz & Beecher 2005; Clayton et al. 2009).

50 Among songbirds, many comparative neurobiological studies have focused on three 51 species of new world sparrows (emberizidae). Before the zebra finch assumed its role as 52 a model system for vocal learning, Peter Marler and colleagues had demonstrated age-53 limited song learning and cultural transmission of song dialects in the white-crowned 54 sparrow, Zonotrichia leucophrys (Marler & Tamura 1964). There is also a striking 55 behavioral polymorphism in which some subspecies, such as Gambel's white-crowned 56 sparrow Z. l. gambelii, are migratory, living in large non-territorial flocks during non-57 breeding seasons, whereas other subspecies are non-migratory and are territorial 58 throughout the year (DeWolfe et al. 1989). White-throated sparrows Zonotrichia 59 *albicollis* also show polymorphism in behavior but in this case, the polymorphism is 60 known to be caused by a large chromosomal rearrangement on chromosome 2 61 (Thorneycroft 1966; Thorneycroft 1975). Tan morph individuals are homozygotic for the 62 metacentric form of the chromosome whereas white morphs are almost always 63 heterozygous. In addition to coloration, the two morphs differ in a suite of behaviors 64 including increased aggression and promiscuity and decreased parental care in birds of 65 the white morph (Knapton and Falls 1983, Collins & Houtman 1999; Tuttle 2003). Male 66 song sparrows *Melospiza melodia* are distinctive in that they are territorial during both 67 the breeding season (summer) and much of the non-breeding season (autumn and winter) 68 (Wingfield & Hahn 1994; Mukai et al. 2009). Different hormonal mechanisms, however, 69 appear to underlie this similar behavioral phenotype with increased plasma testosterone 70 levels driving intensity and persistence of aggression during breeding, but not at other

times of year (Wingfield 1994; Wingfield & Soma 2002). With this comparative
perspective in mind, we have generated brain transcriptomes for these three historically
important emberizid songbird models for the study of social behavior: white-throated
sparrow, Gambel's white-crowned sparrow, and song sparrow.

75

76 **Methods**

77 Sample Collection

Samples for each of the three species were collected for diverse research purposes of the laboratories involved, so sampling strategy for each species was unique. Animal procedures were approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committees of the University of California, Davis (protocol 07-13208) and the University of Illinois (protocol 11062) and were conducted in accordance with the NIH Guide for the Principles of Animal Care.

84 *White-throated Sparrow*: During migration, white-throated sparrows and other birds are 85 often killed in collisions with buildings. We took advantage of this unfortunate fact by 86 collecting birds opportunistically following night migration and collision into McCormick 87 Place, Chicago, IL. Birds that had been killed overnight were collected first thing in the 88 morning beginning at dawn by David Willard, Collection Manager - Birds, Field Museum of 89 Natural History, Chicago, IL. Specimens used in this study were collected during the spring 90 migration in 2010. Each specimen was immediately vouchered at the Field Museum where 91 measurements were taken and they were dissected to determine their sex. Whole brain tissue 92 was stored in RNA-later (Ambion). Prior to analysis we determined the morph of each sampled 93 bird using a modification of Michopoulous et al. (2007). For sequencing we used the brains

from 6 males, 3 white and 3 tan.

95 White-crowned sparrow: Gambelii's white-crowned sparrows (Zonotrichia 96 *leucophrys gambelii*) were captured within the University of California, Davis campus in 97 February 2008, using seed baited Potter traps, and their sexes were identified using 98 published PCR methods (Griffiths et al. 1998). After two weeks of acclimation in 99 captivity, males (n=12) were anesthetized with isoflurane, decapitated and whole 100 hypothalamus was collected, and immediately frozen in liquid nitrogen. Fieldwork in 101 California was conducted under US Fish and Wildlife permit (MB713321-0) and State of 102 California permit (SC-004400). 103 *Song sparrow*: Seven male birds were captured in the field using song playbacks

104 from behind a mist net. All the birds were captured between July and August 2011, from 105 two locations in central Illinois: "Phillips Tract" (40 07' 54.74" N 88 08' 39.66" W) and 106 Vermillion River Observatory (40 03' 50.79" N 87 33' 30.30" W). Immediately upon 107 removal from the mist net, birds were decapitated. We then dissected auditory forebrain 108 tissue (auditory lobule, or AL) which is a composite brain area including the caudomedial 109 nidopallium (NCM), caudomedial mesopallium (CMM) and Field L and froze the 110 specimens on dry ice. Flat skins of collected song sparrows have been accessioned in the 111 Illinois Natural History Survey, Urbana Illinois. Fieldwork in Illinois was conducted 112 under US Fish and Wildlife Service Permit SCCL-41077A.

113

114 RNA Extraction, Library Preparation and Sequencing

115 *White-throated Sparrow and Song Sparrow*: In order to broadly describe the brain-

116 expressed transcriptome of the White-throated sparrow, we extracted RNA from whole

117	brain. We homogenized the entire brain in Tri-Reagent (Molecular Research Company)
118	for RNA purification and extracted total RNA following manufacturers instructions.
119	Total RNA was then DNase treated (Qiagen, Valencia CA) to remove any genomic DNA
120	contamination, and the resulting RNA was further purified using Qiagen RNeasy
121	columns. We assessed the purified total RNA for quality using an Agilent Bioanalyzer
122	(Fig. 1). Library preparation and sequencing were done at the University of Illinois Roy
123	J. Carver Biotechnology Center. Library preparation was done using Illumina TruSeq
124	RNA Sample Prep Kit and manufacturer's protocols (Illumina, San Diego, CA). The six
125	libraries were pooled in equimolar concentration and the pool was quantitated by qPCR.
126	Sequencing was done in a single lane of an Illumina HiSeq 2000 using a TruSeq SBS
127	sequencing kit version 3 and analyzed with Casava 1.8.2. The same basic procedure was
128	used to sequence the song sparrow except for the fact that RNA was extracted from the
129	dissected AL (rather than whole brain) tissue, and that samples from seven individuals
130	were run in a single lane of paired end (rather than single end) sequencing.
131	White-crowned Sparrow: Total RNA was extracted from each hypothalamus using
132	TRIzol reagent (Life Technologies, Carlsbad, CA) followed by RNA cleanup using
133	Qiagen RNeasy Mini Kits. RNA samples were then pooled and run on Bioanalyzer for
134	quality control (RIN = 8.5). This pooled RNA sample was used to generate a mRNA-seq
135	library of 400 bp size with a mRNA-seq sample prep kit following manufacturer's
136	protocol with slight modifications. Briefly, mRNA was isolated using oligo(dT),
137	fragmented using divalent cations under elevated temperature, reverse transcribed into
138	cDNA using random primers, modified and ligated with adapters. The resulting cDNA
139	was run on an agarose gel, a band was excised at 400 bp and enriched with PCR. The

140 final library was validated using the Bioanalyzer and confirmed a distinct band at

141 approximately 400 bp. Pair-end sequencing (100bp x 2) was performed by the Genome

142 Center DNA Technologies Core at the University of California, Davis, using an Illumina

143 HiSeq 2500.

144

145 Transcriptome Assembly, Annotation and Assessment

146 We checked overall sequence quality using FastQC

147 (<u>http://www.bioinformatics.babraham.ac.uk/projects/fastqc/</u>) and trimmed reads using

148 ConDeTriV2.2 (Smeds & Kunstner 2011). We used default settings for trimming except

149 for the high quality (hq) threshold which was set to 20 and lfrac, the maximum fraction of

reads with quality < 10, which was set to 0.2. The lfrac parameter allows for trimming,

151 rather than complete removal, of reads with low quality ends.

We used the Trinity (version r20131110) assembler (Grabherr et al. 2011) to generate *de novo* assemblies for each species. For white throated sparrow we assembled the reads for the two color morphs both separately and combined. Assembling the reads

separately was reasonable given evidence of sequence divergence within the inversion

156 (Thomas et al. 2008) and assembling the reads together was reasonable to improve

157 coverage outside such areas. We used default settings in Trinity besides those specific to

158 our computing system (memory allocation, etc.). We used TransDecoder (included in the

159 Trinity package) to identify open reading frames (ORFs) in our predicted transcripts.

160 We assessed the quality our assembly by estimating N50 and average transcript

161 length. The shortcomings of such metrics for transcriptome assessment have been

described (O'Neil and Emrich 2013) and we use it primarily to enable comparison with

previously published studies. Therefore, we also assessed 5' to 3' gene model coverage 163 164 relative to annotated zebra finch genes (see details below) and quantified the number of 165 transcripts containing both start and stop codons using the annotation information 166 provided by TransDecoder ("type:complete" in the fastq header). 167 We used BLAST (Altschul et al. 1990) searches against a database of Ensembl 168 (release 74) zebra finch transcripts to annotate our ORF-containing transcripts. 169 Functional description of annotated transcripts was conducted using Gene Ontology, and 170 statistical over and under representation was tested using CORNA software (Wu & 171 Watson 2009) and Fisher's Exact Tests with p values adjusted for multiple testing 172 (Benjamini & Hochberg 1995). For each assembly we tested our identified set of putative 173 zebra finch orthologs relative to the full population of Ensembl transcripts.

174

175 Gene Expression and Read-Mapping Profiling

176 In order to compare read mapping and gene expression profiles across libraries, we 177 mapped RNA-seq reads to the zebra finch whole genome assembly (2.3.4) using Stampy 178 (Lunter & Goodson 2011) a read mapper tailored for divergent reads relative to the 179 reference genome. We mapped reads for six individual white-throated sparrows, three 180 song sparrows, and the pooled white-crowned sparrow using default settings but with the 181 substitution rate set to 0.05 to accommodate sequence divergence. In addition, we 182 mapped reads from previously published zebra finch auditory forebrain reads 183 (Balakrishnan et al. 2012, GenBank Accession: SRX493920- SRX493922) using 184 substitution rate = 0.01. The zebra finch data comprised three pools of 10 individuals 185 each that had been collected on an Illumina Genome Analyser rather than HiSeq, and

186 processed with Illumina pipeline 1.6 rather than 1.8.

187 To quantify gene expression, we used htseq-count (Anders et al. 2014) and tallied 188 reads relative to Ensembl gene models. Read counts were normalized using the 189 regularized log transformation in DE-Seq2 (Anders & Huber 2010). Expression profiles 190 were then visualized by Euclidean distance based clustering and principal components 191 analysis (PCA) using heatmap.2 in the gplots R package, and the plotPCA function in 192 DE-Seq2. We then also used the geneBody.py script within the RseqC package (Wang et 193 al. 2012) to describe read coverage across gene models and to test specifically for a 3' 194 bias in transcript coverage in *post-mortem* samples.

195

196 **Results & Discussion**

197 RNA extraction and sequencing

198 Despite collecting tissues for the white-throated sparrow opportunistically from 199 building strikes, we were able to extract reasonably high quality RNA from all samples 200 (Fig. 1). From a total of twelve samples, we selected a set of six (three per morph) with 201 Bioanalyzer RNA integrity numbers (RIN) above 7 (10-083 (7.2), 10-092 (7.2), 10-093 202 (7.7) and 10-118 (8.5), 10-124 (8.0) and 10-308 (7.9). Samples for sequencing were also 203 chosen such that tan and white morphs were collected at the same time of year (spring 204 migration 2010). A consequence of this was that the chosen tan morph samples had 205 higher average RINs than the white morph samples did. All of our RNA from the other 206 two species were of good quality and met Illumina's standard QC benchmark of RIN > 8. 207 All of our sequencing runs yielded high quality sequence data and after fairly stringent 208 trimming, we retained over 89% of the initial nucleotides sequenced (Table 1). Raw RNA 209 seq reads have been deposited to the GenBank Short Read Archive under accession

210 numbers SRX342288-SRX342293, SRX493875- SRX493882, and SRX493919.

211

212 Transcriptome Assembly and Annotation

213 In all of the assemblies we had a large number of transcripts (> 95,000) and open 214 reading frame (ORF) containing transcripts (>54,000), exceeding the likely number of 215 coding genes. These transcripts reflect a combination of partial transcripts, alternative 216 isoforms, allelic variants, and noncoding transcripts. We were able to generate high 217 quality transcriptomes based on N50 and average transcript length (Table 2). N50s for the 218 assemblies ranged from 1,942 for the white morphed white-throated sparrow to 4,072 for 219 the song sparrow. For the song sparrow, this is an improvement over a recent 454-based 220 transcriptome (N50=482; Srivastava et al. 2012). As expected, N50 in general improved 221 with increased sequencing depth (with paired end data sets benefitting from both the 222 reads being paired and having more reads). One exception to this rule was in the white-223 throated sparrow, where combining reads from the two morphs actually generated a 224 worse assembly in terms of N50 relative to the "Tan morph only" assembly. Tan morph 225 individuals are homozygous for a large structural polymorphism spanning much of 226 chromosome 2 whereas white morph individuals are heterozygous. Recombination within 227 the inversion is suppressed, allowing genetic divergence in this region (Thomas et al. 228 2008), and potentially explaining the drop in N50. For the purposes of annotation of the 229 white-throated sparrow we therefore used the two morph-specific assemblies, merging 230 them after the assembly process.

231

Although N50s were generally high, the white-throated sparrow assemblies, which

were based on smaller, single-end datasets and *post-mortem* samples, had the lowest
scores. This effect was even more dramatic when assemblies were assessed in terms of
the number of complete transcripts possessing both a start and stop codon. Whitecrowned, song, and white-throated sparrow transcriptomes contained 115,515, 79,451,

and 24,388 complete transcripts, respectively (Table 2).

For white-throated sparrow we were able to find predicted transcripts with significant blast hits to 15,805 zebra finch genes (89% of Ensembl annotated zebra finch genes), whereas for song sparrow we found 16,846 (94%) and White-crowned sparrow 16,646 (93%). Therefore, in terms of unique BLAST hits, the song and white-crowned assemblies were also better than that of the white-throated sparrows. All three assemblies, however, cover a large proportion of known genes and represent an improvement of over recent 454-based bird transcriptomes (e.g., violet-eared waxbill, 11,084 genes,

244 Balakrishnan et al. 2013).

245 Gene Ontology (GO) representation in the three datasets overlapped greatly with 246 eight GO categories significantly enriched and six categories underrepresented across all 247 three species' datasets (Table 2). Gene Ontology categories "cytoplasm", "intracellular', 248 "mitochondrion", "nucleic acid binding", "nucleolus", "protein binding", "protein 249 phosphorylation" and "transferase activity" were enriched across all the three libraries. 250 By contrast, "cytokine activity", "DNA integration", "extracellular region", "hormone 251 activity", "immune response" and MCH Class I protein complex" were also all under-252 represented, reflecting in part the well-described pattern of limited immune activity, or 253 "immune privilege" in the brain (Galea et al. 2007). As in previous studies of avian brain 254 gene expression, however, we did see some evidence of expression of the MHC Class I

255 gene itself (Ekblom et al. 2010; Balakrishnan et al. 2013).

256 The white-throated sparrow yielded a larger number of statistically over- (29) and 257 under-represented (47) GO categories in its transcriptome as compared to song sparrow 258 (10 over- and 10 under-represented categories) and white-crowned sparrows (19 over-259 and 14 under-represented). All of the categories that were significantly enriched in white-260 throated sparrows trended in the same direction in all three species although some did not 261 show statistical significance in other two species (often bordered on significance in all three). This set of GO terms included "olfactory receptor activity" (where 262 263 observed/expected were 165/150 in white-throated sparrows, 165/156 in song sparrow, 264 and 165/158 in white-crowned sparrow) out of a total of 168 annotated genes. This was 265 notable as a previous 454-based whole brain transcriptome of another songbird did not 266 detect any olfactory receptor genes at all (Balakrishnan et al. 2013). The detection of 267 such genes here suggests that the increased sequencing depth provided by the Illumina 268 platform has aided in this regard. Despite the generally tissue-restricted distribution of 269 olfactory receptor expression, we were able to pick up these genes in all of our tissue 270 samples irrespective of the brain region targeted. High depth RNA-sequencing data 271 including those presented here will therefore be useful for annotating these diverse 272 olfactory receptor transcripts. 273 Thirteen GO categories were significantly under-represented in white-throated 274 sparrows but not in either of the other two sparrows (Table 3). Among these categories,

there appeared to be a qualitative difference in gene expression and resultant GO

276 representation. Gene ontology categories associated with brain function (visual function,

277 G-protein coupled receptor activity, and neurotransmitter transport) were all under-

represented in white-throated sparrow but not the others. This difference in GO category
representation likely reflects the fact that RNA was preserved *post-mortem*. Alternatively,
the difference could be attributed either to differences in brain region (whole brain versus
forebrain) or physiological condition (spring migration versus breeding condition versus
captive/wintering).

283

284 *Expression profiling relative to zebra finch gene models*

Using the Stampy read mapper we were able to map between 82% and 94% of sparrow and zebra finch reads to the zebra finch genome. White-throated sparrow reads mapped at a lower rate (average = 84% of reads mapped) than the white-crowned sparrow (93%) and zebra finch (93%) data. Among the reads that did map to the genome, however, all of the species showed a similar profile, with a large proportion of reads (53.2 + 3.6%) mapping outside of currently defined zebra finch genes and suggesting extensive transcription outside of known genes.

292 As in previous analyses of coordinated microarray studies in songbirds (Replogle et 293 al. 2008; Drnevich et al. 2012), we find a major effect of brain region on overall 294 expression profile. Clustering of normalized expression profiles revealed that samples 295 taken from the auditory forebrain, those from song sparrow and previously published 296 zebra finch data, clustered closely together (Fig. 3). After the two auditory forebrain 297 samples, the next most similar in profile was from the white-crowned sparrow 298 hypothalamus, another forebrain region. Tissue of origin therefore appears to have a 299 major effect of overall expression profile overriding the expected biological effects of 300 phylogeny and the technical effects sequencing platform and lab-specific protocols (see

301 above). If phylogeny were the dominant contributor to expression profile, white-crowned 302 and white-throated sparrows would be most similar, with zebra finch forming the most 303 divergent lineage. The six whole brain white-throated sparrow libraries were the most 304 divergent in profile, suggesting that inclusion of non-forebrain yielded altered expression 305 for a large number of genes. We did not conduct statistical tests of differential gene 306 expression due to multiple confounding variables, namely tissue, sequencing platform, 307 and independent tissue collection and library preparation. Both euclidean distance-based 308 clustering and PCA also highlight the fact that zebra finches, which were sacrificed in 309 captivity and sequenced in pools of ten had much reduced variance in expression profile 310 relative to our non-pooled, field-collected white-throated sparrow and song sparrow 311 samples.

312 Based on read mapping to the zebra finch we were also able to assess coverage of 313 annotated genes. This was important given our *post-mortem* sampling of white-throated 314 sparrows. RNA quality as measured by RIN was only slightly lower in white-throated 315 sparrow samples and we found that 3' bias was similar across all of our samples 316 including those collected *post-mortem* (Fig. 2). This finding suggests that RNA 317 degradation in these samples may not be the primary factor associated with the lower 318 assembly metrics in the white-throated sparrow assembly. Rather, it's likely that the 319 smaller single-end dataset used for the white-throated sparrow reduced our power for 320 transcript assembly.

Cheviron et al. (2011) documented the time course of RNA degradation *post- mortem*, and also suggest that such samples can provide a useful source of RNA, even
 though such specimens are often overlooked. Similarly, a recent RNA-sequencing study

of pinnipeds successfully used *post-mortem* samples (Hoffman et al. 2013). Although clearly not an ideal strategy for studies aimed at quantifying gene expression, the use of recently *post-mortem* samples is viable strategy for initial transcriptome description, and in our study gave access to a large portion of the transcriptome. This approach could be particularly useful for rare species where collection of fresh specimens is impossible.

330 Conclusion

329

331 Transcriptome assemblies are a valuable resource, particularly for species without 332 reference genomes, providing access to a large proportion of the coding and noncoding 333 expressed genome. For taxa with genomes, or with genomes in progress, transcriptome 334 data provides empirical (as opposed to model based) information on transcript structures 335 including alternative isoforms that are not well-annotated in most species. We have 336 presented here neuro-transcriptomic data for three important model species for the study 337 of social behavior and neurobiology building on a growing body of such data (e.g., 338 Balakrishnan et al. 2013, MacManes & Lacey 2012; Moghadam et al. 2013).

339

340 Acknowledgments

341 Thanks to Matt MacManes for helpful feedback on the preprint version of this paper.

- 342 David Willard (Collection Manager Birds, Field Museum of Natural History, Chicago,
- 343 IL) collected and provided access to white-throated sparrow tissues used in this study.
- 344 Antonio Celis Murillo provided invaluable assistance with fieldwork on song sparrows in
- 345 Illinois.
- 346

Figure 1. Bioanalyzer gel image showing RNA extracted from 12 white-throated
sparrows sampled *post-mortem*. RNA integrity numbers (RIN) are given at the bottom
and ranged from 6.4 to 8.5. Samples chosen for sequencing are indicated by tan and white
circles, representing tan and white morph sparrows, respectively.

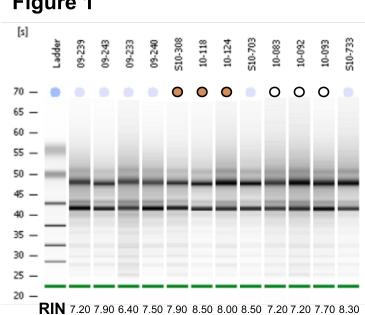


Figure 1

351

359

360

361

362

363

364

365

366

367

368

369

Figure 2. A) Hierarchical clustering and B) Principal components analysis of expression profiles for six white-throated sparrow (WTSP), three song sparrow (SOSP), three zebra finch (ZF) and one white-crowned sparrow libraries. Libraries derived from auditory lobule (AL) tissue cluster (SOSP and ZF) to the exclusion of the others. White-throated sparrow samples, taken from whole brain (rather than forebrain as the other samples are) show divergent and variable profiles. Zebra Finch (ZF) samples collected in captivity and generated from pools of 10 individuals, show much reduced sample variability.

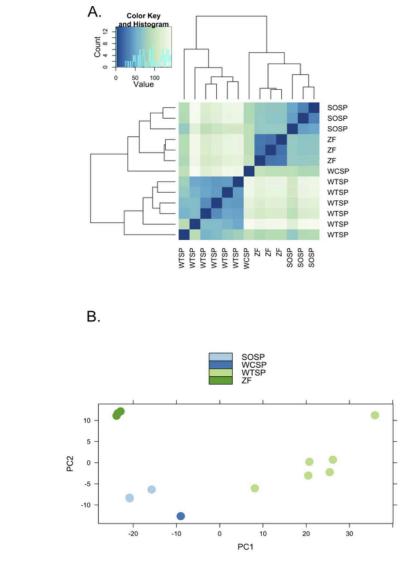
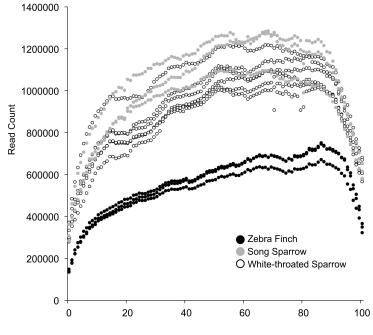


Figure 3. Gene model coverage across all genes based on mapping of reads to the zebra
finch genome. Samples collected *post-mortem* from white-throated sparrow show a
similar gene coverage profile to freshly collected samples. Zebra finch data included
fewer total reads, explaining the lower depth across genes.



Gene Body Coverage (5' > 3')

374

375

Species	Reads Before	Bases Before	Paired Reads After	Paired Read Bases After	Single Reads After	Single Read Bases After
WTSP-Tan	99,374,744	9,937,474,400	NA	NA	97,162,587	9,014,814,467
WTSP-White	97,605,312	9,760,531,200	NA	NA	95,347,015	8,779,352,471
SOSP- Paired	271,249,550	27,124,855,000	245,289,038	23,613,455,033	11,228,223	992,474,010
WCSP- Paired	160,229,712	16,022,971,200	153,636,836	14,171,465,431	2,871,235	213,815,184

Table 1. Raw number of reads and bases before and after trimming with ConDeTri.

Table 2. Tissue of origin, pool size, assembly statistics (N50, average transcript length, number of transcripts) and annotation description (number of zebra finch genes with significant BLAST hit) for whole assembly and open reading frame (ORF) containing transcripts. "Complete Transcripts" are those containing both a start and stop codon. We used the individual tan and white morph assemblies in the subsequent BLAST search and annotation which yielded 15,805 genes.

Species	Tissue	pool size	N50	Mean Length	# Transcripts	# ORF	Complete Transcripts	ZF genes
WTSP-Tan	Whole Brain	3	2,557	1,119	116,894	54,868	22,799	-
WTSP-White	Whole Brain	3	1,942	960	95,129	37,910	11,855	-
WTSP-Both	Whole Brain	6	2,284	982	149,184	58,284	24,388	15,805
SOSP	Auditory Forebrain	7	4,072	1,416	276,670	133,740	79,451	16,864
WCSP	Hypothalamus	12	3,415	1,591	307,617	206,926	115,515	16,646

Table 3. Gene Ontology categories significantly A) over- and B) under-represented in song (SOSP), white-crowned (WCSP) and white-throated (WTSP) sparrows (observed/ expected, FDR adjusted Fisher's Exact Test, p < 0.05).

Α.

GO Category	SOSP	WCSP	WTSP
cytoplasm	1810/1739	1793/1718	1751/1650
intracellular	1629/1575	1632/1555	1577/1494
mitochondrion	790/753	788/744	781/715
nucleic acid binding	935/903	935/892	900/857
nucleolus	244/231	243/229	241/220
protein binding	5298/5218	5258/5154	5037/4951
protein phosphorylation	558/539	558/532	542/511
transferase activity, transferring phosphorous containing groups	538/519	538/513	522/493

Β.

GO Category	SOSP	WCSP	WTSP
cytokine activity	43/58	40/58	37/55
DNA integration	8/13	7/13	4/12
extracellular region	263/320	264/316	238/303
hormone activity	31/43	32/43	26/41
immune response	68/88	61/87	57/84
MHC Class I protein complex	3/8	2/7	2/7

Table 4. GO terms underrepresented in *post-mortem* white-throated sparrow samples (observed/expected, adjusted p < 0.01), but not in song sparrow and white-crowned sparrow (adjusted p > 0.05).

GO Category	WTSP	WCSP	SOSP
photoreceptor activity	3/12	10/13	9/13
protein-chromophore linkage	3/12	10/13	9/13
visual perception	7/18	16/19	15/19
response to stimulus	7/17	14/18	13/18
G-protein coupled receptor activity	345/381	391/397	389/402
G-protein coupled purinergic nucleotide receptor activity	11/21	18/22	18/23
G-protein coupled purinergic nucleotide receptor signaling pathway	11/21	18/22	18/23
transporter activity	136/157	153/164	157/166
receptor activity	497/532	552/554	551/561
G-protein coupled receptor signaling pathway	463/496	513/517	514/523
integral to membrane	1564/1617	1683/1687	1692/1704
neurotransmitter transport	16/24	23/25	21/25

382

383 References384

- 385 Agate RJ, Scott BB, Haripal B, Lois C, Nottebohm F (2009) Transgenic songbirds offer
- an opportunity to develop a genetic model for vocal learning. *Proceedings of the*
- 387 *National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America*, **106**, 17963–17967.
- 388 Altschul SF, Gish W, Miller W, Myers EW, LIPMAN DJ (1990) Basic local alignment
- search tool. *Journal of Molecular Biology*, **215**, 403–410.
- 390 Anders S, Huber W (2010) Differential expression analysis for sequence count data.
- 391 *Genome Biology*, **11**, R106.
- Anders S, Pyl PT, Huber W (2014) *HTSeq A Python framework to work with high- throughput sequencing data. bioRxiv preprint.*
- 394 Balakrishnan CN, Lin Y-C, London SE, Clayton DF (2012) RNA-seq transcriptome
- analysis of male and female zebra finch cell lines. *Genomics*, **100**, 363–369.
- 396 Balakrishnan C, N., Chapus C, Brewer M, S., Clayton D, F. (2013) Brain transcriptome
- 397 of the violet-eared waxbill *Uraeginthus granatina* and recent evolution in the songbird
- 398 genome. *Open Biology*, **3**, 130063.
- Beecher MD, Brenowitz EA (2005) Functional aspects of song learning in songbirds.
- 400 *Trends in Ecology & Evolution*, **20**, 143–149.
- 401 Benjamini Y, Hochberg Y (1995) Controlling the false discovery rate a practical and
- 402 powerful approach to multiple testing. *Journal of the Royal Statistical Society Series*
- 403 *B-Methodological*, **57**, 289–300.
- 404 Brenowitz EA, Beecher MD (2005) Song learning in birds: diversity and plasticity,
- 405 opportunities and challenges. *Trends in Neurosciences* **28**, 127–132.

406	Cheviron ZA, Carling MD, Brumfield RT (2011) Effects of postmortem interval and
407	preservation method on rna isolated from field-preserved avian tissues. Condor, 113,
408	483–489.

409 Clayton D, F., Balakrishnan C, N., London S, E. (2009) Integrating Genomes, Brain and

410 Behavior in the Study of Songbirds. *Current Biology*, **19**, R865–R873.

411 Collins CE, Houtman AM (1999) Tan and white color morphs of White-throated

412 Sparrows differ in their non-song vocal responses to territorial intrusion. *Condor*, 101,
413 842–845.

414 DeWolfe BB, Baptista LF, Petrinovich L (1989) Song development and territory

establishment in Nuttals White-Crowned Sparrows. *Condor*, **91**, 397–407.

416 Drnevich J, Replogle KL, Lovell P et al. (2012) Impact of experience-dependent and -

417 independent factors on gene expression in songbird brain. *Proceedings of the National*

418 *Academy of Sciences of the United States of America*, **109**, 17245–17252.

- 419 Ekblom R, Balakrishnan C, N., Burke T, Slate J (2010) Digital gene expression analysis
- 420 of the zebra finch genome. *BMC Genomics*, **11**, 219.
- 421 Galea I, Bechmann I, Perry VH (2007) What is immune privilege (not)? Trends in
- 422 *Immunology*, **28**, 12–18.
- 423 Goodson JL, Kelly AM, Kingsbury MA, Thompson RR (2012) An aggression-specific
- 424 cell type in the anterior hypothalamus of finches. *Proceedings of the National*
- 425 *Academy of Sciences of the United States of America*, **109**, 13847–13852.
- 426 Goodson JL, Wang YW (2006) Valence-sensitive neurons exhibit divergent functional
- 427 profiles in gregarious and asocial species. *Proceedings of the National Academy of*

PeerJ PrePrints

- 428 Sciences of the United States of America, **103**, 17013–17017.
- 429 Grabherr MG, Haas BJ, Yassour M et al. (2011) Full-length transcriptome assembly from
- 430 RNA-Seq data without a reference genome. *Nature Biotechnology*, **29**, 644–U130.
- 431 Griffiths R, Double MC, Orr K, Dawson RJG (1998) A DNA test to sex most birds.
- 432 *Molecular Ecology*, **7**, 1071–1075.
- 433 Gunaratne PH, Lin YC, Benham AL et al. (2011) Song exposure regulates known and
- 434 novel microRNAs in the zebra finch auditory forebrain. *BMC Genomics*, **12**, 277.
- 435 Hoffman JI, Thorne MAS, Trathan PN, Forcada J (2013) Transcriptome of the dead:
- characterisation of immune genes and marker development from necropsy samples in
 a free-ranging marine mammal. *BMC Genomics*, 14, 52.
- 438 Itoh Y, Arnold AP (2011) Zebra finch cell lines from naturally occurring tumors. *In Vitro*439 *Cellular & Developmental Biology-Animal*, 47, 280–282.
- 440 Knapton, R.W. & Falls, J.B. 1983. Differences in parental contribution among pair types
- in the polymorphic white-throated sparrow. *Canadian Journal of Zoology*. 61: 12881292.
- 443 Lunter G, Goodson M (2011) Stampy: A statistical algorithm for sensitive and fast
- 444 mapping of Illumina sequence reads. *Genome Research*, **21**, 936–939.
- 445 Luo GZ, Hafner M, Shi ZM et al. (2012) Genome-wide annotation and analysis of zebra
- finch microRNA repertoire reveal sex-biased expression. *BMC Genomics*, **13**, 727.
- 447 MacManes MD, Lacey EA (2012) The Social Brain: Transcriptome Assembly and
- 448 Characterization of the Hippocampus from a Social Subterranean Rodent, the Colonial
- 449 Tuco-Tuco (Ctenomys sociabilis). *PLoS One*, 7, e45524.

PeerJ PrePrints

- 450 Marler P, Tamura M (1964) Culturally transmitted patterns of vocal behavior in
- 451 sparrows. *Science*, **146**, 1483–148.
- 452 Michopoulos, V. Maney, D.L., Morehouse, C.B. & Thomas, J.W. 2007. A genotyping
- 453 assay to determine plumage morph in the White-throated Sparrow (Zonotrichia
- 454 *albicollis*). *The Auk* 124 No. 4 1330-1335.
- 455 Moghadam HK, Harrison PW, Zachar G, Szekely T, Mank JE (2013) The plover
- 456 neurotranscriptome assembly: transcriptomic analysis in an ecological model species
- 457 without a reference genome. *Molecular Ecology Resources*, **13**, 696–705.
- 458 Mukai M, Replogle K, Drnevich J et al. (2009) Seasonal Differences of Gene Expression
- 459 Profiles in Song Sparrow (*Melospiza melodia*) Hypothalamus in Relation to Territorial
 460 Aggression. *PLoS One*, 4, e8182.
- 461 O'Neil ST, Emrich SJ (2013) Assessing *De Novo* transcriptome assembly metrics for
 462 consistency and utility. *BMC Genomics*, 14, 465.
- 463 Replogle K, Arnold AP, Ball GF et al. (2008) The Songbird Neurogenomics (SoNG)
- 464 Initiative: Community-based tools and strategies for study of brain gene function and
- 465 evolution. *BMC Genomics*, **9**, 131.
- 466 Smeds L, Kunstner A (2011) CONDETRI A Content Dependent Read Trimmer for
- 467 Illumina Data. *PLoS One*, **6**, e26314.
- 468 Srivastava A, Winker K, Shaw TI, Jones KL, Glenn TC (2012) Transcriptome Analysis
- 469 of a North American Songbird, *Melospiza melodia*. DNA Research, **19**, 325–333.
- 470 Thomas J, W., Caceres M, Lowman J, J. et al. (2008) The chromosomal polymorphism
- 471 linked to variation in social behavior in the white-throated sparrow (*Zonotrichia*

- 472 *albicollis*) is a complex rearrangement and suppressor of recombination. *GENETICS*,
- **179**, 1455–1468.
- 474 Thorneycroft HB (1966) Chromosomal polymorphism in white-throated sparrow
- 475 Zonotrichia albicollis (Gmelin). Science, **154**, 1571–157.
- 476 Thorneycroft HB (1975) Cytogenetic study of white-throated sparrow, Zonotrichia
- 477 *albicollis* (Gmelin). *Evolution*, **29**, 611–621.
- 478 Tuttle EM (2003) Alternative reproductive strategies in the white-throated sparrow:
- behavioral and genetic evidence. *Behavioral Ecology*, **14**, 425–432.
- 480 Wang L, Wang S, Li W (2012) RSeQC: quality control of RNA-seq experiments.
- 481 *Bioinformatics*, **28**, 2184–2185.
- Warren W, C., Clayton D, F., Ellegren H et al. (2010) The genome of a songbird. *Nature*,
 483 464, 757–762.
- 484 Weber JN, Peterson BK, Hoekstra HE (2013) Discrete genetic modules are responsible
- for complex burrow evolution in *Peromyscus* mice. *Nature*, **493**, 402–U145.
- 486 Wingfield JC (1994) Regulation of territorial behavior in the sedentary song sparrow,
- 487 *Melospiza melodia morphna. Hormones and Behavior*, **28**, 1–15.
- 488 Wingfield JC, Hahn TP (1994) Testosterone and territorial behavior in sedentary and
- 489 migratory sparrows. *Animal Behaviour*, **47**, 77–89.
- 490 Wingfield JC, Soma KK (2002) Spring and autumn territoriality in song sparrows: Same
- 491 behavior, different mechanisms? *Integrative and Comparative Biology*, **42**, 11–20.
- 492 Woodard SH, Fischman BJ, Venkat A et al. (2011) Genes involved in convergent
- 493 evolution of eusociality in bees. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of*

- 494 *the United States of America*, **108**, 7472–7477.
- 495 Wu X, Watson M (2009) CORNA: testing gene lists for regulation by microRNAs.
- 496 *Bioinformatics*, **25**, 832–833.
- 497 Young LJ, Nilsen R, Waymire KG, MacGregor GR, Insel TR (1999) Increased affiliative
- 498 response to vasopressin in mice expressing the V-1a receptor from a monogamous
- 499 vole. *Nature*, **400**, 766–768.