Shannon entropy as a metric for conditional gene expression in *Neurospora crassa*

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Abstract

*Neurospora crassa* has been an important model organism for molecular biology and genetics for over 60 years. *Neurospora crassa* has a complex life cycle, with over 28 distinct cell types and is capable of transcriptional responses to many environmental conditions including nutrient availability, temperature, and light. To quantify variation in *N. crassa* gene expression, we analyzed public expression data from 97 conditions and calculated the Shannon Entropy value for *Neurospora*’s approximately 11,000 genes. Entropy values can be used to estimate the variability in expression for a single gene over a range of conditions and be used to classify individual genes as constitutive or condition-specific. Shannon entropy has previously been used measure the degree of tissue specificity of multicellular plant or animal genes. We use this metric here to measure variable gene expression in a microbe and provide this information as a resource for the *N. crassa* research community. Finally, we demonstrate the utility of this approach by using entropy values to identify genes with constitutive expression across a wide range of conditions and to identify genes that are activated exclusively during sexual development.

Keywords: Shannon entropy; R; conditional gene expression; *Neurospora*

Introduction

Across conditions, individual genes can display expression patterns that can range from conditional to constitutive. When performing quantitative reverse transcription PCR (qRT-PCR), it is crucial to identify constitutively expressed genes for experimental normalization (Huggett et al. 2005). Conversely, highly regulated, condition-specific gene promoters are often used in molecular biology to drive conditional expression of a gene under investigation (e.g., an essential gene) or to control expression of reporter genes in certain cell types or environmental conditions (e.g., a gene encoding a fluorescent protein) (Giles et al. 1985; Hurley et al. 2012; Lamb et al. 2013). Moreover, identification of genes that are exclusively expressed during a condition or cell type of interest can reveal genes that are functionally important. Such genes or promoters are often identified by examining gene expression across just a handful of experimental conditions; however, with the increase in publicly available transcriptomics data, it is possible to quantify variation in gene expression across many conditions for a given organism.

In 1963, Claude Shannon laid the basis for information theory and described the unit known as Shannon entropy (Shannon 1997). A simplistic definition of Shannon entropy is that it describes the amount of information a variable can hold (Vajapeyam 2014). In our case, a variable is a gene, and the information is the collection of expression values from different conditions. If a gene is classified as having low entropy, then the expression values would be generally consistent across different conditions or possess a low amount of information. Instead, if a gene is classified as having high entropy, then the expression of this gene would be highly variable across different conditions and contain a high amount of information.

Since entropy describes information contained in a variable, there are a number of uses for such a metric. Previous studies have used entropy to investigate cell and tissue-specific expression of genes (Schug et al. 2005), identify potential therapeutic targets (Fuhrman et al. 2000), characterize periodicity in gene expression (Langmead et al. 2002), identify cancerous tissue samples (van Wieringen and van der Vaart 2011), and make genomic comparisons (Machado 2012). Studies using entropy have been carried out in human cell lines (Heintzman et al. 2009), mouse (Schug et al. 2005), plants (Zhang et al. 2006), yeast (Lazon et al. 2006), bacteria, phage, and metagenomes (Akhter et al. 2013) but not yet in filamentous fungi.

*Neurospora crassa* has a 43 Mb genome encoding approximately ~11,000 genes (Galagan et al. 2003; Borkovich et al. 2004). There is a whole-genome knockout collection, and genetic, genomic, and epigenetic studies have been carried out with this organism for more than 100 years (Colot et al. 2006). Indeed, *N. crassa* has been used as a model organism for epigenetics, testing fungal enzymes for biomass degradation, and circadian clock studies (Dunlap et al. 2007; Tian et al. 2009; Aramayo and Selker 2013). As a resource for *N. crassa* researchers, we generated an entropy value for most genes in the *N. crassa* genome using publicly available RNA-seq data, and we validated this approach using previously published lists of housekeeping or inducible genes. This resource has a number of useful applications for the *N. crassa* community.
Materials and methods

Public data collection

Entropy calculations were made for all genes in the N. crassa genome using public RNA-seq data sets (97 conditions from a total of 173 separate sets including replicates; Supplementary Table S1).

Data analysis

**Mapping, transcripts per million, and entropy calculations:**

HiSat2 (version 2.1.0) (Kim et al. 2019) was used to map all of the sequence read archive (SRA) accessions to the NC12 genome (NCBI assembly: GCA_000182925.2) using appropriate parameters specific for paired or single-end sequence reads (with parameters –RNA-strandness RF or R) to produce bam files, which were then sorted and indexed using SAMtools (version 1.3) (Li et al. 2009). If experiments contain replicates, the replicate bam files were merged together before obtaining counts with featureCounts from Subread (version 1.6.2) (Liao et al. 2014). FeatureCounts was used with parameters -T exon to generate all counts at the gene level. Counts were imported into R where we obtained transcripts per million (TPM) using the function calculateTPM from the R package scater (McCarthy et al. 2017). This package takes in feature-level (in our case, gene level) counts and gene lengths and outputs the TPM values for each gene. TPM values were then used to calculate the Shannon entropy using the R package BioQC (Zhang et al. 2017). The function entropySpecificity was used to calculate the entropy values for all genes in the genome. To examine specific genes sets, we converted from NCU accession numbers to gene identifiers from NCBI Genome Assembly NC12 (GCA_000182925.2) and plotted the kernel density estimation numbers to gene identifiers from NCBI Genome Assembly NC12 (GCA_000182925.2) and plotted the kernel density estimation (KDE) with rug plots.

Data availability

All supplementary tables have been uploaded to Figshare (https://doi.org/10.25387/g3.13634993). Supplementary Table S1 contains SRA accession numbers, short descriptions, total reads, and mapped reads for each public data set used. Calculated entropy values for all N. crassa genes are listed in Supplementary Table S2. Supplementary Table S3 contains all genes for which we were unable to calculate their entropy due to 0 counts in all conditions. Underlying data used to generate heatmaps in Figures 2 and 3 with entropy values and NCU accessions are included in Supplementary Table S4. Lists of all N. crassa genes used to benchmark the entropy values and generate panels in Figures 2 and 3 are included in Supplementary Table S5. Heatmap column descriptions and their respective categories assigned are listed in Supplementary Table S6. Code used to generate the data in this manuscript is available through github (https://github.com/ajcourtney/entropy).

Supplementary material is available at https://doi.org/10.25387/g3.13634993.

Results

Shannon entropy values are useful in measuring the amount of variation in expression levels across different tissues or growth conditions. In order to calculate Shannon entropy values for all N. crassa genes, we first compiled a list of available RNA-seq data sets present in the NCBI SRA (Supplementary Table S1). We selected datasets that were generated with the wild-type Oak Ridge strain background, but we used both mating types. To calculate accurate entropy values, we needed to gather many observations of gene expression across different conditions. We searched the SRA database (Leitonen et al. 2011) for N. crassa RNA-sequencing entries that were processed at different developmental stages or grown under different conditions. In total, we gathered 173 accessions, which represent 97 developmental or growth conditions. We then developed a pipeline to generate entropy values for each gene (Figure 1A). Calculated entropy values are available in Supplementary Table S2. We first mapped to the NC12 N. crassa genome using HiSat2 (Kim et al. 2019) to generate bam files. The bam files were then used to generate read counts for each gene in each condition using featureCounts (Liao et al. 2014), which assigns reads to genomic features. Once the count file was created, we calculated normalized expression values using the TPM normalization method to create a matrix of normalized expression values for all genes in all conditions. We then used this expression matrix to calculate the Shannon entropy value for each gene (Zhang et al. 2017). This generated entropy values for 10,300 out of 10,398 genes. The remaining 98 genes had 0 read counts in all conditions, so we were unable to calculate entropy. Out of the 98 genes with 0 read counts, 42 are hypothetical protein-coding genes, 10 are protein coding with an annotation, and the remaining 46 code for rRNA, tRNA, or ncRNAs (Supplementary Table S3). Our final entropy values range from 0.056 to 6.599. Seventy percent of the genes in the genome possess low entropy values between 0.05 and 1 (7180/10,300) (Figure 1B). These values include the constitutively expressed genes in the genome. Entropy values above one represent only 30% of the genome (3120/10,300), corresponding to genes with more condition-specific expression patterns.
Validation of entropy as a measure of gene expression variation in N. crassa

In order to determine if entropy values are a reliable predictor of expression variability in a microbe, we examined the entropy values generated here for published gene sets expected to be enriched for constitutively expressed genes, or conversely, for gene sets expected to contain genes with highly condition-specific expression patterns. If entropy value is a reliable measure of gene expression variation across conditions, housekeeping genes should be enriched for genes with low entropy values,
whereas sets of conditionally induced genes are expected to be enriched for high entropy values. Two previous studies identified genes useful for RT-qPCR controls in *N. crassa*. One of which published a list of 38 genes classified as “housekeeping genes” based on previously generated microarray and RNA-seq datasets under three different conditions (quinic acid (QA) induction, circadian expression profiling, and light response) (Hurley et al. 2015), and the other study identified four genes by using previous transcriptomic studies and genes used in related organisms to generate candidates that were validated by quantitative PCR under different conditions (Cusick et al. 2014) (Supplementary Table S1). To visualize the distribution of entropy values in this set of 42 genes, we generated a heatmap for each dataset.
“housekeeping” genes, we plotted a KDE of entropy values (Figure 2A). The KDE is a smoothed version of a histogram estimated from the underlying data. As expected, the highest density of data points in the housekeeping data set is around 0.25 (low entropy) and the density falls sharply around 0.75 (Figure 2A). Two genes in this set possess entropy values above 1.6 and they encode an exo-beta-1,3-glucanase and a UDP-glucose dehydrogenase. We plotted a heatmap depicting TPM values for each gene in each condition with genes ranked by entropy values from low to high (top to bottom) (Figure 2B and Supplementary Table S4). Genes with higher entropy values showed significant induction of gene expression under certain conditions, whereas genes with low entropy values displayed consistent expression values across all conditions. In particular, the two genes with high entropy values showed marked induction under certain conditions. Thus, these data highlight the value of performing a comprehensive analysis of conditional gene expression when selecting constitutive control genes.

We further validated the use of entropy as a measure for constitutive gene expression by using the same approach with a published list of 2624 genes involved in transcription and translation (Supplementary Table S1), reasoning that genes involved in these essential processes would be expressed at similar levels in all 93 conditions we investigated (Benz et al. 2014). The distribution of entropy values for transcription and translation genes resembles the distribution of entropy values for housekeeping genes where the highest density is concentrated at the low end of entropy values (Figure 2C). Many of the genes that possess entropy values above 1.6 are either hypothetical proteins or genes associated with cellular transport or metabolism. We again examined the TPM values for each gene in this set in a heatmap ranked by entropy from low to high and again find mostly steady expression across conditions (Figure 2D and Supplementary Table S4).

We next asked if higher entropy values were associated with conditionally expressed genes. The highest entropy values imply that a gene must only be expressed under specific conditions and may only show expression in one or a few of the conditions in the entire RNA-seq dataset. To confirm that higher entropy values were indeed associated with condition- or tissue-specific gene expression, we created KDE plots for 513 genes induced by light (Figure 3A and Supplementary Table S1) and 3259 genes that have expression changes during sexual development (Figure 3C and Supplementary Table S1) (Wang et al. 2014; Wu et al. 2014). In both cases, there is a shift in distribution of entropy values toward higher entropy values compared to “housekeeping” or “transcription and translation” genes. We examined TPM values for each gene in each condition using a heatmap ranked by entropy values from low to high (top to bottom) and find that a majority of genes in each gene set show variable expression across conditions, as expected (Figure 3, B and D and Supplementary Table S4). Genes that have regulation changes during perithecial (sexual) development also show a shift to the right, but with retention of more low entropy genes than in the light-induced gene set (Figure 3C). Plotting the TPM values in an entropy ranked heatmap shows that approximately half of these genes are highly expressed across many conditions and half are variably expressed, corresponding to genes with lower entropy values in the density plot (Figure 3D and Supplementary Table S4). This implies that half of these genes are not specific to sexual or vegetative cell types even though they show transcriptional changes throughout development (Wang et al. 2014).

As a final confirmation that entropy can be used as a reliable metric to assess the variation or lack of variation in gene expression levels across many conditions, we plotted the expression levels of 100 genes with the highest entropy values and 100 genes with the lowest entropy values. We took the log2 TPM values for all conditions (columns) and plotted them for each gene in a heatmap for both the top and bottom 100 genes. As expected, genes with the lowest entropy values show mostly uniform expression across all conditions (Figure 4A), and genes in the high entropy group displayed highly variable and condition-specific expression (Figure 4B). Together, these data demonstrate that entropy is an effective tool for measuring variation in gene expression levels in a filamentous fungus.

**Discussion**

The information and code generated in the course of this study could prove useful in a number of ways. First, identifying genes that are induced in a certain condition and display a high entropy value will help identify genes that are condition-specific. In addition, examining entropy values for individual genes can be a useful approach for finding new inducible promoters to use for genetic studies. Condition-specific expressed genes are good starting targets to test for this purpose. The entropy metric determined here can also be used to confirm constitutive expression of genes chosen as controls for RT-PCR. In examining the housekeeping genes from previously published studies it is clear that not all will function as good controls under all conditions, a limitation that was discussed by Hurley et al. (2015). We combined all of their housekeeping genes together, whereas they had them divided into housekeeping genes usable for different conditions in qRT-PCR (QA induction, light response studies, and circadian experiments). Here we can choose genes that will work across all conditions (provided the conditions were represented in the initial dataset). Our approach provides a quantitative metric that can be applied to identify condition-specific genes, as opposed to investigating individual datasets or using controls from previous studies, which may not perform as expected. In addition, this methodology is scalable; the initial inclusion of more conditions will only increase the robustness of the metric produced. As more data are published, more datasets can be incorporated. This approach can be used across other fungi in addition to N. crassa, provided there are sufficient RNA-seq data publicly available.

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**Conflicts of interest** None declared.
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