

Review: Long non-coding RNA in livestock

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Less than 2% of mammalian genomes code for proteins, but 'the majority of its bases can be found in primary transcripts' – a phenomenon termed the pervasive transcription, which was first reported in 2007. Even though most of the transcripts do not code for proteins, they play a variety of biological functions, with regulation of gene expression appearing as the most common one. Those transcripts are divided into two groups based on their length: small non-coding RNAs, which are maximally 200 bp long, and long non-coding RNAs (**IncRNA**s), which are longer than 200 nucleotides. The advances in next-generation sequencing methods provided a new possibility of investigating the full set of RNA molecules in the cell. In this review, we summarized the current state of knowledge on lncRNAs in three major livestock species – Sus scrofa, Bos taurus and Gallus gallus, based on the literature and the content of biological databases. In the NONCODE database, the largest number of identified lncRNA transcripts is available for pigs, but cattle have the largest number of lncRNA genes. Poultry is represented by less than a half of records. Genomic annotation of lncRNAs showed that the majority of them are assigned to introns (pig, poultry) or intergenic (cattle). The comparison with well-annotated human and mouse genomes indicates that such annotation is a result of lack of proper lncRNA annotation data. Since lncRNAs play an important role in genomic studies, their characterization in farm animals' genomes is critical in bridging the gap between genotype and phenotype.

Keywords: cattle, genomic annotation, non-coding transcripts, pig, poultry

Implications

Long non-coding RNAs are common transcripts existing in genomes, including those of livestock. An individual transcriptome contains more long non-coding RNAs than messenger RNA molecules. Our literature review shows significant impact of long non-coding RNAs on a variety of phenotypes relevant to livestock production and welfare, which is exhibited by the role of long non-coding RNAs as modifiers of the expression of protein-coding genes. In humans, long non-coding RNAs exist which act as disease biomarkers what can also be anticipated for livestock. The better understanding of individual- and tissuespecific variability in long non-coding RNAs expression is important for more precise exploitation of genetic variation of livestock phenotypes.

Introduction

Beginning from the discovery of transfer RNA (**tRNA**) and ribosomal RNA (**rRNA**) in the 1950s, non-coding RNAs (**ncRNA**s) with biological roles have been known for some 60 years (Palazzo and Lee 2015). Recent advances in next-generation sequencing methods have been proving

new possibilities of investigating the full set of RNA molecules in genomes and have led to the increase in the number of studies carried out on RNA. Specifically, RNA-seg is a technique used for a whole transcriptome sequencing which, together with computational methods, allows for transcriptome reconstructing and the quantification of gene expression. The method overcomes shortcomings of microarray technology by offering a more comprehensive coverage of whole transcriptomes, and it is not limited to known sequences (Uchida et al., 2017). Therefore, RNA-seq offers a remarkable opportunity to genome-wide annotation and characterization of long non-coding RNAs (IncRNAs) (Xiao et al., 2018). According to recent knowledge, less than 2% of the genome codes for proteins, but 'the majority of its bases can be found in primary transcripts' - a phenomenon termed the pervasive transcription, which was first reported by the ENCODE Project Consortium (2007). Recently, Lee et al. (2018) stated that only 1~2% of the genome has a protein-coding potential, while the reminder forms ncRNA molecules. Because of typically low expression levels (comparing to protein-coding transcripts), they are described as 'transcription noise' (Ma et al., 2013).

Non-coding RNA is classified into two groups: short and long non-coding RNA (Nie *et al.*, 2012). Transcripts shorter than 200 nucleotides are termed small non-coding RNA

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and include Piwi-interacting RNA, small interfering RNA, microRNA (**miRNA**), rRNA, tRNA, small nucleolar RNA and small nuclear RNA (Storz, 2002). Transcripts longer than 200 nucleotides are classified as lncRNAs among which lncRNAs that located in-between genes are termed long intergenic non-coding RNA (**lincRNA**) (Wang and Chang, 2011; Zheng *et al.*, 2018).

In livestock, genome-wide association studies based on single-nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) led to the identification of many mutations causal for the phenotypes of commercial interest, still most of the significant SNPs fall into genomic regions not covered by genic DNA (Goddard et al., 2016; www.animalgenome.org/QTLdb/). However, despite this large number of significant SNPs identified, their joint effects do not account for all of the phenotypic variations observed in traits routinely measured in livestock - the phenomenon called 'missing heritability' first introduced into human genetics by Manolio et al. (2009). Since IncRNA may be one of the potential causes of missing heritability, it is of interest for livestock genomics. Therefore, the aim of our study was to characterize the current state of knowledge on IncRNA in three major species of farm animals: Bos taurus, Sus scrofa and Gallus gallus.

Long non-coding RNA detection workflow

Given a raw RNA-seq data, a typical workflow for the identification and annotation of lncRNAs is composed of two major parts – a part which is common to processing all RNA-seq data and a part dedicated to lncRNA.

In the common part, the first step (1a) involves generation of a control report for sequence quality, which is typically done using the FastQC software (Andrews et al., 2010). In the second step (2a), raw sequence reads are pre-processed by filtering out contaminations from sequencing adapters and by removing or trimming low-quality reads. The minimum threshold for read quality score is usually set to 20 (Wu et al., 2018). The Trimmomatic software (Bolger et al., 2014) is a popular tool for pre-processing of raw RNA-seq data. In the next step (3a), cleaned sequences are mapped to the reference genome with the most commonly used software tools being: Tophat (Trapnell et al., 2009), Tophat2 (Kim et al., 2013), Bowtie2 (Langmead and Salzberg 2012) or HISAT2 (Kim et al., 2015). Finally in the last step (4a), assembling of the uniquely mapped sequence reads into transcripts is most often done by Cufflinks (Trapnell et al., 2010) or StringTie (Pertea et al., 2015).

In order to proceed with the analysis specific to IncRNA, several transcript filtration steps are to be pre-imposed on the annotated RNA-seq data. The first step (1b) is to identify only novel transcripts, which do not correspond to the proteincoding part of the genome and do not represent previously annotated IncRNAs. It is most often performed using the Cuffcompare function of Cufflinks, which classifies all the available assembled transcripts based on their annotation to the pre-specified reference genome in the GFF format. Transcripts classified as 'A transfrag falling entirely within a reference intron', 'Unknown, intergenic transcript' or then selected for downstream analysis. The genomic annotation of IncRNA in livestock is still very scarce as compared to human or mouse genomes; therefore, for livestock species, a much larger number of novel IncRNA transcripts is expected than for humans. Such potential candidate sequences for IncRNA are then subjected to several filtering steps (2b), which can differ depending on the analytic approach. The most important filtering steps comprise (i) filtering by length - removing transcripts shorter than 200 bp and transcripts longer than 10 000 bp containing a single exon, (ii) filtering by sequence content - removing transcripts overlapping with repeat or low complexity regions defined in the reference genome assembly (note, that for livestock genomes, this information is still limited), (iii) filtering by expression level - removing extremely high and extremely low expressed transcripts using the FPKM measure (fragments per kilo base of transcript per million mapped reads) to quantify the expression level; removal thresholds can either be arbitrarily chosen or estimated dynamically from the available data and (iv) filtering by protein-coding potential - various approaches involving removing transcripts containing known protein-coding domains using, for example, Transeq (El-Gebali et al., 2019) or HMMER (Eddy et al., 2011; Finn et al., 2011) software; removing transcripts with a significant hit in the Pfam database using, for example, PfamScan software (Bateman et al., 2002; Finn et al., 2014); removing transcripts, which products show similarity to known proteins from the RefSeq non-redundant protein database or the UniRef90 database (Suzek et al., 2015) using BLASTX (Altschul et al., 1990); removing transcripts based on their protein-coding potential level estimated, for example, by Coding Potential Calculator (CPC) (Kong et al., 2007), Coding Potential Assessment Tool (CPAT) (Wang et al., 2013), Coding Non-Coding Index (CNCI) software (Sun et al., 2013) or predictor of Long non-coding RNAs and mEssenger RNAs based on an improved K-mer scheme (PLEK) (Li et al., 2014). The next step (3b) comprises merging of the RNA-seg data corresponding to novel IncRNAs, defined by the above workflow, and the known IncRNAs with positions defined in databases such as the ALDB (Li et al., 2015) or the NONCODE. Note that various authors apply different thresholds for the percent of sequence identity and the percent of length of the aligned sequence to call IncRNAs. The final downstream analysis (4b) of the combined data sets depends on the experimental hypothesis and on the underlying experimental design. Most typically, it involves (i) the comparison of IncRNA expression levels between experimental conditions using, for example, DESeq2 software (Love et al., 2014), (ii) identification of target genes of differentially expressed IncRNAs, which can either be done by a dedicated software, for example, LncTar (Li et al., 2015), by considering the physical proximity between a IncRNA and a protein-coding gene, or by considering high correlations between the expression level of a lncRNA and an messenger RNA (**mRNA**), and (iii) the functional annotation of target genes to metabolic pathways and/or gene ontologies using, for example, DAVID (Huang et al., 2009), KOBAS (Xie et al., 2011) programs, or the in-house tools provided by annotation databases,

'Exonic overlap with reference on the opposite strand' are

Long noncoding RNA annotation, function, detection

for example, the Gene Ontology database enrichment analysis tool (geneontology.org; Eilbeck *et al.*, 2005) or the Reactome database analysis tool (reactome.org).

Function of long non-coding RNA

As it can be seen from the number of IncRNA genes or transcripts listed in Tables 1 to 3, there are more IncRNAs than mRNA molecules transcribed from a DNA template. Moreover, IncRNAs can be identified within various cell compartments, such as nucleus, nucleolus, cytoplasm and mitochondria. This reflects the variety of functions which they exhibit on cell metabolism. Technically, IncRNAs functions are related to (i) transcription through either chromatin modifications by interaction with enzymes or through interactions with transcriptional machinery proteins and miRNAs; (ii) post-transcriptional regulations of mRNA molecules, such as capping, alternative splicing, editing, transport, translation, degradation and stability; and (iii) epigenetic

 Table 1
 Recent (since 2016) studies on long non-coding RNA (IncRNA), including long intergenic non-coding RNA (lincRNA), in Sus scrofa on a genome-wide scale

Study	DOL	Number of IncRNA genes/IncRNA transcripts detections	Number of analyzed	Analyzad tissues
		detections	manadais/sampies	Analyzea lissues
Chen <i>et al.</i> (2019)	10.3389/fgene.2019.00196	1078	36	Longissimus dorsi muscle and
		(lincRNA)		subcutaneous fat
Fang <i>et al.</i> (2019)	10.7717/peerj.6577	13 520	One type of cell	IPEC-J2 Cell line cultivated DMEM-F12 medium supplemented with 5% FBS
Kumar <i>et al.</i> (<mark>2019</mark>)	10.1016/j.gene.2019.04.014	6808	16	Back fat
Shi <i>et al.</i> (2019)	10.3389/fgene.2019.00160	252 (lincRNA)	20	Adipose tissue
Yang <i>et al.</i> (2019)	10.3389/fgene.2019.00409	4456	9	Pineal gland
Wang <i>et al.</i> (2019b)	10.1111/age.12849	3827	6	Ovary
Che <i>et al.</i> (2018)	10.1371/journal.pone.0193552	15 040	6	Spleen
Jin <i>et al.</i> (2018)	10.3390/genes9090443	19 310	6	Lung
Kern <i>et al.</i> (2018)	10.1186/s12864-018-5037-7	14 429	2	Adipose, cerebellum, cortex, hypothalamus, liver, lung, muscle and spleen
Li <i>et al.</i> (2018)	10.2217/epi-2017-0117	713	3	Liver
Liang <i>et al.</i> (2018)	10.1111/age.12720	53 468	Database	Various tissues
Liu <i>et al.</i> (2018)	10.3390/ijms19061722	2076	8	Ovary
Miao <i>et al.</i> (2018)	10.1016/j.bbrc.2018.06.028	4910	6	Adipose
Shen <i>et al.</i> (2018)	10.1159/000494794	3368	16	Liver
Yan <i>et al.</i> (2018)	10.7717/peerj.5997	2144	15	Spleen
Zhao <i>et al.</i> (2018)	10.2217/epi-2017-0149	18 676	9	33 tissues
Zou <i>et al.</i> (2018)	10.3389/fgene.2018.00102	1032	12	Muscle
Gao <i>et al.</i> (2017)	10.2527/jas2016.1297	5153 (novel)	21	Muscle
Sun <i>et al.</i> (2017)	10.2527/ias.2016.0867	5566	10	Muscle
	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	(differentially expressed)		
Weng <i>et al.</i> (2017)	10.1186/s12864-017-3907-z	343	6	Adipose
Weng <i>et al.</i> (2017)	10.1016/j.ygeno.2017.07.001	15 528		Testis
Yang <i>et al.</i> (2017)	10.1155/2017/6152582	2139 (novel)	>16	Heart, kidney, liver, lung, muscle, small intestine, spleen and stomach
Yu <i>et al.</i> (2017)	10.18632/oncotarget.18269	4868	6	Fat, liver and muscle
Xing <i>et al.</i> (2017)	10.1111/asj.12777	8946	6	Muscle
Zou <i>et al.</i> (2017a)	10.1038/s41598-017-07998-9	323 (lincRNA)	6	Muscle
Zou <i>et al.</i> (2017b)	10.3390/genes8080203	759 (lincRNA)	6	Muscle
Li <i>et al.</i> (2016a)	10.1038/srep38333	7618 (novel lincRNA)	5	Abdominal fat, embryo, endometrium, heart, kidney, liver, lung and muscle
Ran <i>et al.</i> (2016)	10.1095/biolreprod.115.136911	, 752	6	Testis
Shen <i>et al.</i> (2016)	10.3390/genes7070034	1018	6	Thyroid gland
Wang <i>et al.</i> (2016)	10.1038/srep20238	2805	12	Endometrium

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 Table 2
 Recent (since 2016) studies on long non-coding RNA (IncRNA), including long intergenic non-coding RNA (lincRNA), in Bos taurus on a genome-wide scale

		Number of IncRNA genes/IncRNA transcripts	Number of analyzed	
Study	DOI	detections	individuals/samples	Analyzed tissues
Choi <i>et al.</i> (2019)	10.1080/19768354.2018.1512522	304	9	Skeleton muscle and adipose tissues
Gao et al. (2019)	10.3389/fgene.2019.00646	23 735	6	Testis
Wang <i>et al.</i> (2019a)	10.1038/s41598-018-38462-x	11 561	6	Sperm
Zeng <i>et al.</i> (2019)	10.3168/jds.2019-16257	3481	24	Milk exosomes
			Samples from different lactation periods	
Cai <i>et al.</i> (2018)	10.3389/fgene.2018.00281	6450	6	Mammary gland
Ibeagha-Awemu	10.3390/genes9030142	1568	32	lleum,
<i>et al.</i> (<mark>2018</mark> a)		4243		rumen
Ibeagha-Awemu et al. (2018b)	10.3390/ijms19113610	4995	12	Mammary gland
Kern <i>et al.</i> (2018)	10.1186/s12864-018-5037-7	7235	2	Adipose, cerebellum, cortex, hypothalamus, liver, lung, muscle and spleen
Li <i>et al.</i> (<mark>2018</mark>)	10.1016/j.omtn.2018.07.003	13 580	3 fetuses	Heart, spleen, kidney, liver, lung,
			3 adults	stomach, small intestine and muscle
Weikard <i>et al.</i> (2018)	10.18632/oncotarget.24898	1042	12	Jejunum mucosa
Yang <i>et al.</i> (2018)	10.1186/s12864-018-4974-5	3746	8	Mammary gland
		(differentially		
		expressed)		
Zheng <i>et al.</i> (2018)	10.3168/jds.2018-14900	1181	4	Mammary gland
Liu <i>et al.</i> (2017)	10.1111/age.12539	7188	3	Muscle
Ma <i>et al.</i> (2017)	10.1016/j.rvsc.2017.09.020	1236	2	Cell lines
Tong <i>et al.</i> (2017)	10.1186/s12864-017-3858-4	184	5	Mammary gland
		(lincRNA)		

modifications manifested by the regulation of imprinting (Bhat and Jones 2016; Fernandes et al., 2019). On the organism level, IncRNAs are known to be abnormally expressed in many diseases with the most predominant influence on cancer and viral infections thereby playing a role of biomarkers. A practical example of IncRNA being a biomarker in human cancers is HOTAIR, whose overexpression results in development and metastases of several cancer types in humans (Lorenzi et al., 2019). In the healthy physiological state, IncRNAs play a role in organ differentiation during embryogenesis (Grote and Herrmann, 2015) as well as in the process of aging (Xing et al., 2017). Most of the applications related to livestock investigate the functional annotation of IncRNAs, manifested by Gene Ontologies (GO) and KEGG pathways assigned to their target genes. These functions however are strongly related to the experimental design applied in each particular study and thus not of a universal nature. For example, in a recent study on pigs, Chen et al. (2019) applied the DAVID software to constructed clusters composed of GO terms and KEGG pathways characteristic for genes, which were targets of IncRNAs differentially expressed in relation to growth performance. In addition, You et al. (2019) applied the DAVID software for functional clustering of GO term and KEGG pathways related to target genes of IncRNAs differentially expressed in white leghorn chicken infected by the Marek's disease virus and in a control, healthy group. In cattle, an example of functional annotation is the study of Gao *et al.* (2019). Using KOBAS, the authors tested a functional enrichment in GO terms and KEGG pathways of genes targeted by IncRNAs differentially expressed in two developmental stages of testis.

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Sus scrofa. Among livestock, the largest number of identified lncRNA transcripts is available for pigs' genomes, amounting to 29 585 transcripts in the NONCODE 5.0 database (Zhao *et al.*, 2015). Moreover, Liang *et al.* (2018) developed the Pig LncRNANet database (Inc.rnanet.org), which stores authors' own IncRNA discoveries, as well as results from other published studies. Although not fully mature, the database provides valuable bioinformatic functions, such as sequence BLAST, IncRNA sequence visualization including overlaps with QTL and SNV positions, as well as the visualization of transcript expression levels in various tissues. Currently, the Pig LncRNANet database contains 53 468 IncRNA records and is thereby the most comprehensive pig IncRNA catalog.

Most of the studies carried out on pigs are logically related to differential expression of all IncRNAs or only lincRNAs for

Table 3 Recent (since 2016) studies on long non-coding RNA (IncRNA), including long intergenic non-coding RNA (lincRNA), in Gallus gallus on a genome-wide scale

C+udu	DOI	Number of IncRNA genes/IncRNA transcripts	Number of analyzed individuals/	Analyzed ticcues
Study	DOI	uelections	samples	Analyzeu lissues
Yin <i>et al</i> . (<mark>2020</mark>)	10.1016/j.ygeno.2019.02.003	6832	40	Ovary, magnum, isthmus and uterus
Li <i>et al.</i> (2019)	10.1371/journal.one.0215006	4404	6	Breast muscle tissue
Xu <i>et al.</i> (<mark>2019</mark>)	10.3382/ps/pez434	4127	3	Liver
You <i>et al.</i> (2019)	10.1186/s12864-019-5625-1	2819	17	Spleen
Adetula et al. (2018)	10.1038/s41598-018-31301-z	9977	14	Uterovaginal junction
Hong <i>et al.</i> (2018)	10.3390/ijms19082359	6900	1	Breast, bone marrow, cerebellum, cerebrum, comb, eye, fascia, gall bladder, gizzard, heart, immature egg, kidney, liver, lung, mature egg, pancreas, skin, shank, spleen and uterus
Kern <i>et al.</i> (2018)	10.1186/s12864-018-5037-7	9393	2	Adipose, cerebellum, cortex, hypothalamus, liver, lung, muscle and spleen
Li <i>et al.</i> (<mark>2018</mark>)	10.3390/genes9010034	2484	3	Muscle
Liu <i>et al.</i> (<mark>2018</mark>)	10.1038/s41598-018-25103-6	959	12	Ovary
		(Differentially		
		expressed)		
Peng <i>et al.</i> (2018)	10.1016/j.ygeno.2018.09.012	8691	10	Ovary
Ren <i>et al.</i> (<mark>2018</mark> b)	10.1139/gen-2017-0114	9343	12	Skeletal muscle
Ren <i>et al.</i> (2018a)	10.1186/s12864-018-4754-2	1376	6	Trachea
Wu <i>et al.</i> (2018)	10.1186/s12864-018-4891-7	2220	25	Liver
Xu et al. (2018)	10.1186/s12864-018-5301-x	39 907	21	Cerebrum
Cao <i>et al.</i> (2017)	10.18632/oncotarget.14971	15 412	60	Vein and skin
Liu <i>et al.</i> (2017)	10.1038/s41598-017-08738-9	2597	6	Testis
Kuo <i>et al.</i> (2017)	10.1186/s12864-017-3691-9	> 20 000	9	Brain and embryo
Muret <i>et al.</i> (2017)	10.1186/s12/11-016-02/5-0	2193	16	Liver and adipose
Qiu <i>et al.</i> (2017)	10.1016/j.dci.2017.06.015	4804	2	CEF: chicken embryo fibroblastst, HD11:
		475.4	Cell lines	macrophage cell line
Wang <i>et al.</i> (2017b)	10.1186/s12862-017-1036-6	4754	821	Multiple
7	10 1271 //	25 425	Transcriptomes	te te service a deserve a deserve te service a
Zhang <i>et al.</i> (2017a)	10.13/1/journal.pone.0172389	25 435	12	Intramuscular preadipocytes
Znang <i>et al.</i> (2017b)	10.1534/g3.116.037069	27 023	12	Preadipocytes from abdominal adipose tissue

traits included into the selection goal of most breeds. These comprise growth performance expressed by analyzing transcription in muscle tissue either in comparison to other tissues (Chen et al., 2019), in comparison between animal groups (Zou et al., 2017a), between breeds with different growth performance characteristics (Gao et al., 2017; Sun et al., 2017; Yu et al., 2017) or between different developmental stages (Zou et al., 2018). In the context of growth performance, the expression in other tissues has also been considered - intramuscular adipose tissue (Miao et al., 2018) or back fat tissue (Chen et al., 2019; Kumar et al., 2019). Besides growth performance, meat quality is also an important meat production trait, for which the expression of lincRNA has recently been considered, for example, by Zou et al. (2017b). Some studies analyzed the impact of testosterone deficiency on the expression of IncRNAs, either by comparing intact and castrated males (Xing et al., 2017; Wang et al., 2017a) or different male developmental stages (Ran et al., 2016; Sun et al., 2017). Apart from production, IncRNA expression was also assessed for traits related to female reproduction by the comparison of expression in

different developmental stages of ovaries (Liu *et al.*, 2018; Wang *et al.*, 2019b) or in endometrium of pregnant and non-pregnant females (Wang *et al.*, 2016). Other experimental designs were devoted to the analysis of expression in specific organs, such as spleen (Chen *et al.*, 2019; Yan *et al.*, 2018) in the context of resistance against pathogenic infections, pineal (Yang *et al.*, 2019), liver (Li *et al.*, 2018) or lung (Jin *et al.*, 2018). Profiles of IncRNA expression in disease were considered for porcine circovirus-associated disease by Fang *et al.* (2019) and for intrauterine growth restriction by Shen *et al.* (2018). Moreover, instead of inter-group expression comparisons, some studies focused on identification and genomic annotation of IncRNAs in various tissues (Li *et al.*, 2016a; Liu *et al.*, 2017; Yang *et al.*, 2017; Zhao *et al.*, 2018).

The most recent studies on IncRNA detection in *Sus scrofa* conducted on a genome-wide scale are summarised in Table 1.

Bos taurus. Although less lncRNA transcripts have been identified for cattle than for pigs, the former is the livestock species with the largest number of lncRNA genes

(22 227 in NONCODE 5.0). The first genome-wide catalog of bovine intergenic IncRNAs was provided by the study of Huang et al. (2012) who identified 449 lncRNAs located in 405 intergenic regions, using public bovine-specific expressed sequence tag sequences. After that, the majority of studies of IncRNAs were related to their expression in the mammary gland (e.g., Caj et al., 2018; Yang et al., 2018; Ibeagha-Awemu et al., 2018b) or milk exosomes (Zeng et al., 2019) in relation to dairy production. In addition, the role of IncRNAs in beef production was addressed by assessing the expression in *longissimus thoraci* by Billerey et al. (2014), as well as in muscles and adipose tissues by Choi et al. (2019). Long non-coding transcriptome of male reproduction traits was analyzed by Wang et al. (2019a) in sperm samples with divergent motility as well as by Gao et al. (2019) in different testis development stages. Among other phenotypes, Weikard et al. (2013) focused on IncRNA expression in pigmented and non-pigmented bovine skin samples, Weikard et al. (2018) - on IncRNA expression dependent on energy metabolism associated with different diets and Ibeagha-Awemu et al. (2018a) – on IncRNA expression in ileum and rumen during different developmental stages. A comprehensive genome-wide annotation of IncRNA expressed in 18 tissues was presented by Koufariotis et al. (2015).

The most recent studies on IncRNA detection in *Bos taurus* conducted on a genome-wide scope are summarized in Table 2.

Gallus gallus. With 12 850 lncRNA transcripts, corresponding to 9527 genes, poultry is represented by less than half of the number of records in the NONCODE database than the above-mentioned mammalian livestock species. However, Kou *et al.* (2017) comparing the complexity of human and chicken transcriptomes suggested that chicken transcriptome is similar in complexity to the human transcriptome.

During the last few years, the chicken genome has been intensively investigated in the context of IncRNA. Since meat performance is one of the economically most important polutry phenotypes, a large number of studies relate to the expression of IncRNA in tissues related to growth: muscle (Li et al., 2016b; Cai et al., 2017; Ren et al., 2017; Li et al., 2018; Ren et al., 2018a), adipose tissue (Muret et al., 2017; Zhang et al., 2017a and 2017b) as well as to meat guality (e.g., Li *et al.*, 2019). The influence of lncRNA on egg laying performance was analyzed by Peng et al. (2018). Another economically important one in poultry group of traits is immune response. In the context of IncRNA expression, it was analyzed by Qiu et al. (2017) and Hu et al. (2018) for the resistance to the Avian leukosis virus J, by Ren et al. (2018b) for the resistance to *Cryptosporidium baileyi*. Long non-coding RNA expression changes in the presence of selenium deficiency were addressed by Fan et al. (2017) and Cao et al. (2017). Fertility was studied in the context of female reproduction by Liu et al. (2018) and Yin et al. (2020) for ovary, by Adetula et al. (2018) for uterovaginal tissue as well as by Yin et al. (2020) for oviduct. Male reproduction traits were assessed by IncRNA expression study in

sperm with differential motility (Liu *et al.*, 2017). In addition, IncRNA expression study exists, which focused on the development of specific organs, such as liver (Muret *et al.*, 2017; Wu *et al.*, 2018; Xu *et al.*, 2019), brain (Xu *et al.* 2018) and ovary (Liu *et al.*, 2018). Other recently analyzed phenotypes comprise IncRNA expression landscape related to chicken domestication addressed by Wang *et al.* (2017b) as well as the expression related to feathers and skin black color studied by Hong *et al.* (2018).

The most recent studies on lncRNA detection in *Gallus gallus* conducted on a genome-wide scope are summarized in Table 3.

Genomic annotation of long non-coding RNAs

One of the most complete and therefore most widely used databases that store lncRNAs is the NONCODE. It provides the collection and annotation of ncRNAs, especially lncRNAs, in 17 species, including livestock. The current version of the NONCODE (5.0) contains 548 640 transcripts, identified either by the RNA-seq, expression microarrays, or based on the literature. Yet, the database is far from complete while most of the studies listed in Tables 1 to 3 report a very large number of novel lncRNAs. For instance, Kern *et al.* (2018) reported that only 18.3% of pig, 1.7% of cattle and 5.7% of poultry lncRNA transcripts from the NONCODE database overlapped with transcripts detected in their analysis.

We annotated IncRNAs of five species from the NONCODE database (accessed on 20 November 2019) using the Variant Effect Predictor software (McLaren et al., 2010). 51 453 IncRNA genes were annotated to the Sscrofa11.1 (Warr et al., 2019; accessed from www.ensembl.org/Sus_scrofa on 20 November 2019 with the corresponding Ensembl ID GCA_ 000003025.6) reference genome, 25 683 IncRNA genes were annotated to the ARS-UCD1.2 reference genome of Bos taurus (Shamimuzzaman et al., 2020; accessed from www.ensembl.org/Bos_taurus on 20 November 2019 with the corresponding Ensembl ID GCA_002263795.2) and 22 843 IncRNA genes were annotated to the GRCg6a reference genome of *Gallus gallus* (accessed from www.ensembl. org/Gallus gallus on 20 November 2019 with the corresponding Ensembl ID GCA_000002315.5). These livestock annotations were compared to the well-annotated mouse GRCm38 (318 287 IncRNA genes) and human GRCh38 (616 532 IncRNA genes) genomes. Since genomic coordinates of IncRNAs were defined in relation to different versions of reference genomes, we converted them to the most current assembly of each species using the liftOver software (Kent et al., 2002). Species-specific annotations are visualized in Figure 1. The distribution pattern of IncRNA for Homo sapiens and Mus musculus is very similar. The observed difference between those two species and the livestock species demonstrates the incompleteness of the annotation of IncRNA in livestock. Precisely, a more complete annotation of the IncRNA in humans and mice is manifested by the fact that the categories representing the actual proper annotation for IncRNA (non-coding transcript exon variant, non-coding transcript variant and regulatory region variant)

Long noncoding RNA annotation, function, detection



Figure 1 Genomic annotation of long non-coding RNA genes from the NONCODE database for (a) human (*Homo sapiens*), (b) mouse (*Mus musculus*), (c) cattle (*Bos taurus*), (d) poultry (*Gallus gallus*) and (e) pig (*Sus scrofa*). UTR = Untranslated Transcribed Region.

make up 39.35% of all annotations in *Homo sapiens* and 43.84% in *Mus musculus*, but only 13.90% in *Sus scrofa*, 12.54% in *Gallus gallus* and as little as 3.14% in *Bos taurus*. In livestock, the missing ncRNA annotation seems to be predominantly assigned to intergenic and intron sequences.

Conclusions

The above-mentioned studies demonstrate that lncRNAs play important roles not only in the regulation of gene expression (as it was originally emphasized, see e.g., the earlier review of Mercer *et al.*, 2009), but also in numerous other aspects of normal physiology and diseases. Compared to the number of transcripts for model organisms (*Homo sapiens* and *Mus musculus*), livestock has a relatively small number of deposited transcripts in biological databases; therefore, the main course of future research is to further improve the annotation of the non-coding part of livestock genomes. The major challenge associated with lncRNA analysis is a poor accuracy of transcript detection, which involves many data filtration stages. Since the identification workflows of lncRNAs detection change dynamically, there is a great need for defining standardized pipelines. The problem is demonstrated by a typically very large number of 'novel' transcripts reported by each study. As already mentioned above, Kern *et al.* (2018) reported a very low overlap between the NONCODE database and

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transcripts detected in their analysis. Koufariotis et al. (2015) validated 87.47% of IncRNAs expressed in liver based on samples from the same individual, but validation across animals was much lower - 55.27% of validated lncRNAs in blood. Of course, the problem with low detection accuracy is typical for all highthroughput technologies, but in the case of IncRNA detection, it is enhanced by the fact that the expression levels of IncRNAs are typically low. We need to bear in mind that such low repeatability of IncRNA detection is not necessarily always associated with false-positive or false-negative detections. The expression of IncRNA genes is not only low but also extremely tissue-specific (see e.g., graphical summary offered by the Pig LncRNANet database), related to physiological state of the individual. Moreover, since 2018, studies demonstrating a regulation of IncRNA expression by gut microbiota have emerged (Dempsey et al., 2018; Li and Cui, 2018), adding a new insight into the complexity of the transcriptome landscape.

Today's trend is to receive economic efficiency, by fully exploiting the genetic information. That is why it is important to gain knowledge on all mechanisms controlling gene expression, such as lncRNA molecules.

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Conflict of interest

None.

Ethics statement

Not applicable.

Software and data repository resources

None of the data was deposited in an official repository.

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