

¹ NAVIP: Unraveling the Influence of ² Neighboring Small Sequence Variants ³ on Functional Impact Prediction

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¹⁸

19 Abstract

20 Once a suitable reference sequence has been generated, intraspecific variation is often assessed
21 by re-sequencing. Variant calling processes can reveal all differences between strains,
22 accessions, genotypes, or individuals. These variants can be enriched with predictions about their
23 functional implications based on available structural annotations, i.e. gene models. Although
24 these functional impact predictions on a per-variant basis are often accurate, some challenging
25 cases require the simultaneous incorporation of multiple adjacent variants into this prediction
26 process. Examples include neighboring variants which modify each other's functional impact. The
27 Neighborhood-Aware Variant Impact Predictor (NAVIP) considers all variants within a given
28 protein coding sequence when predicting the effect. As a proof of concept, variants between the
29 *Arabidopsis thaliana* accessions Columbia-0 and Niederzenz-1 were annotated. NAVIP is freely
30 available on GitHub (<https://github.com/bpucker/NAVIP>) and accessible through a web server
31 (<https://pbb-tools.de>).

32

33 Author Summary

34 Intraspecific variation gains increasing relevance as reference genome sequences are available
35 for many investigated (plant) species. Understanding the effects of sequence variants between
36 individuals of a population is a challenge. SnpEff (Cingolani et al., 2012) is the current standard
37 tool for predicting the functional impact of sequence variants, but only considers one sequence
38 variant at a time. We developed NAVIP to properly handle cases in which multiple sequence
39 variants cluster together and influence each other's functional impact. A comparison of two
40 *Arabidopsis thaliana* accessions demonstrates the importance of considering multiple sequence
41 variants simultaneously for the prediction of changes in encoded proteins. NAVIP is universally

42 applicable to any organism for which the relevant sequence information and structural annotation
43 is available. All underlying code is freely available on GitHub and we operate a web server for
44 users' convenience.

45

46

47 **Keywords:** sequence variants, variant annotation, SNPs, SNVs, InDels, mutations

48

49

50 Introduction

51 Re-sequencing projects examining many individuals or accessions of a species [1–4], are
52 becoming increasingly important in plant research. Approaches similar to genome-wide
53 association studies (GWAS) which are based on mapping-by-sequencing (MBS) are frequently
54 applied in a wide range of crop species [5–8]. They are boosted by a rapidly increasing availability
55 of high-quality reference genome sequences for crops [9–13], technological advances in long-
56 read sequencing [14], and low sequencing costs [15,16]. *De novo* assemblies are still beneficial
57 for the detection of large structural variants [17–22] and especially to reveal novel sequences
58 [18,19,21,23], but the reliable detection of modifying single nucleotide variants (SNVs) can be
59 achieved based on (short) read mappings. Well established tools for the small sequence variant
60 discovery in plants are BMA MEM and GATK [24–27]. In recent years, long-read sequencing is
61 gaining popularity in studies exploring the intraspecific diversity, as more sequence variants can
62 be detected in previously inaccessible genomic regions [28,29]. One of the most frequently used
63 tools for long read mapping is minimap2 [30] that can handle both relevant technologies, Pacific
64 Biosciences and Oxford Nanopore Technologies, well. Hundreds of dedicated variant calling tools
65 have been developed to harness the specific potential and to cope with challenges that come with

66 long reads. Famous tools for the discovery of SNVs based on long reads are Longshot [31], SVIM-
67 asm [32], and Sniffles2 [33]. One advantage of long reads is the ability to assign small sequence
68 variants to different haplotypes.

69

70 Once identified, the annotation of sequence variants is performed by predicting their functional
71 implications based on the available gene models (structural annotation). Leading tools such as
72 ANNOVAR [34], VEP [35], and SnpEff [36] currently perform this prediction efficiently by focusing
73 on a single variant at a time. An impact prediction facilitates the identification of targets for post-
74 GWAS analyses and can lead to the identification of small sequence variants that form the
75 molecular basis of commercially relevant phenotypic differences [7,37,38]. Although the effect
76 prediction for single variants is computationally efficient and usually correct, there are challenging
77 cases in which predictions based on a single variant alone cannot be accurate. (1) Multiple InDels
78 could either lead to frameshifts or they could compensate for each other's effect leaving the
79 sequence with minimal modifications [39–41] and (2) two SNVs occurring in the same codon could
80 lead to a different amino acid substitution compared to the apparent effects resulting from an
81 isolated analysis of each of these SNVs. It is important to note that SNVs and InDels can also
82 influence each other's effects.

83

84 Here we present a computational tool for accurately predicting the combined effect of phased
85 variants on annotated coding sequences. The Neighborhood-Aware Variant Impact Predictor
86 (NAVIP) was developed to investigate large variant data sets of plant re-sequencing projects, but
87 is not limited to the annotation of variants in plants. As a proof of concept, NAVIP was used to
88 identify cases between the *A. thaliana* accessions Columbia-0 (Col-0) and Niederzenz-1 (Nd-1)
89 where an accurate impact prediction needs to consider multiple variants at a time.

90

91 Results

92 Features of NAVIP

93 NAVIP predicts the functional impact of sequence variants by considering all sequence variants
94 affecting the coding sequence of a gene simultaneously. Users need to supply a set of sequence
95 variants (VCF), a reference genome sequence (FASTA), and a structural annotation (GFF3).
96 NAVIP returns an annotated VCF file and FASTA files with corrected coding and polypeptide
97 sequences. If phased sequence variants are provided in the VCF file, NAVIP performs separate
98 analyses for the different haplotypes.

99 NAVIP can be retrieved from a GitHub repository (<https://github.com/bpucker/NAVIP>) and is
100 executable without installation. Additionally, NAVIP is also available free of charge through a web
101 server (<https://pbb-tools.de/NAVIP>). This makes NAVIP accessible to a wide range of users and
102 applicable to data sets of various sizes. Uploaded files are used only for the intended analysis and
103 are deleted 48 hours after offering the results for download. The web server is able to send
104 notification emails upon completion of a job, which can serve as documentation and facilitate the
105 analysis of large data sets.

106 Relevance of NAVIP for prediction of premature stop codons

107 Running NAVIP on an *A. thaliana* Nd-1 data set with 644,261 SNVs (S1 File, S2 File) took about 5
108 minutes on a single core with a peak memory usage of about 3 GB RAM. To the best of our
109 knowledge, SnpEff is the most frequently used tool for the annotation of variants and is also
110 universally applicable. Therefore, the NAVIP output was compared with the SnpEff predictions
111 generated for the same data set and structural annotation. The results are largely congruent, but
112 interesting cases for comparison are predictions of premature stop codons, as these may have

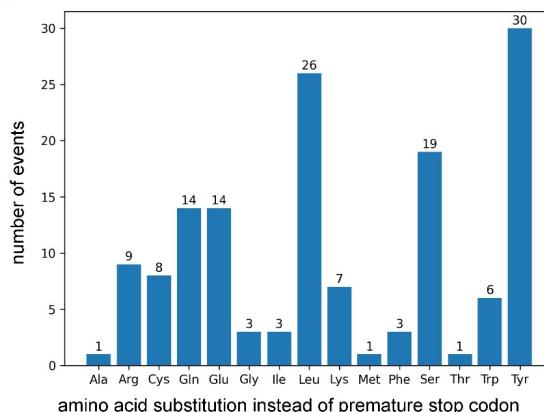
113 severe biological consequences. While a single SNV would cause a premature stop codon, the
114 simultaneous presence of two SNVs can result in an amino acid encoding codon (**Figure 1a**). Of
115 600 premature stop codons predicted by SnpEff, 144 were identified as amino acid substitutions
116 when considering multiple SNVs in the same codon via NAVIP (**Figure 1b**). Given the total of 600
117 predicted premature stop codons in this Nd-1 data set, 24% were false positive predictions.
118 NAVIP revealed that tyrosine frequently occurs instead of a premature stop codon because the
119 tyrosine codons are very similar to two of the three stop codons. There are also 17 additional
120 premature stop codons predicted by NAVIP, which are the consequence of two sequence variants
121 affecting the same codon. Despite the surprisingly large difference between the SnpEff and
122 NAVIP results when it comes to predicting premature stop codons, the differences in affected
123 genes are smaller. Many genes with a predicted premature stop codon have multiple downstream
124 premature stop codons. While the prediction of an individual premature stop codon might be
125 wrong for a certain position, the gene can still be correctly identified by both tools as harboring
126 premature stop codons if additional ones occur further downstream (S3 File). If a premature stop
127 codon results in a loss-of-function event, the accumulation of additional variants is likely due to a
128 lack of purifying selection. To support the assumption that genes with premature stop codons lost
129 their function, the rate of amino acid changing variants in these genes was compared to all other
130 genes (**Figure 1c**, **Figure 1d**). The number of variants changing amino acids (aa_N) to those
131 resulting in the same amino acid (aa_S) was calculated for all genes (aa_N/aa_S). A significantly higher
132 proportion of amino acid changing variants was observed in genes with predicted premature stop
133 codons compared to all other genes (Mann-Whitney U test, $p\text{-value}=10^{-161}$). Premature stop
134 codons might frequently appear in genes undergoing pseudogenization that are barely
135 expressed, as purifying selection would be weak or even absent in these cases. Therefore, we
136 investigated the expression of genes with premature stop codons in *A. thaliana*. A comparison of
137 the average expression of genes with a premature stop codon against all other protein encoding

138 genes (**Figure 1e, Figure 1f**) revealed a significantly lower expression of genes with premature
139 stop codons (Mann-Whitney U test, p-value=10⁻⁷⁰).
140

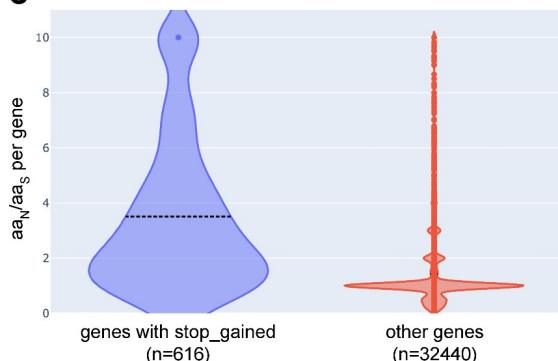
a

wild type: GAT TCA **AGA** AGA ATG
peptide: D S R R M
variant 1: GAT TCA **TGA** AGA ATG (STOP)
peptide: D S * R M
variant 2: GAT TCA **AGC** AGA ATG (amino acid substitution)
peptide: D S **S** R M
combined: GAT TCA **TGC** AGA ATG (amino acid substitution)
peptide: D S **C** R M

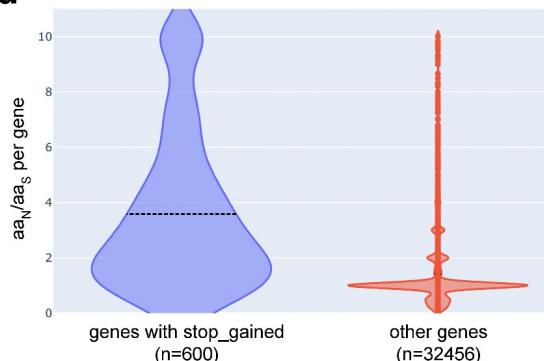
b



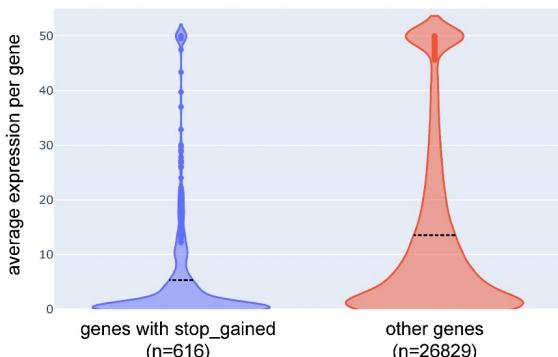
c



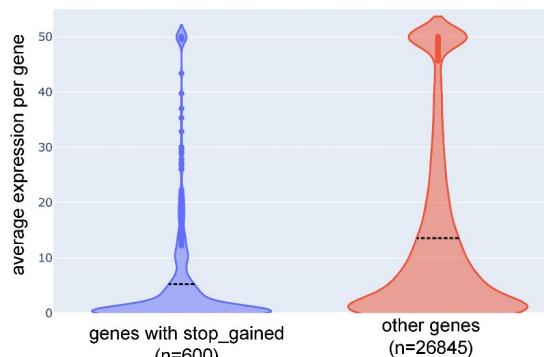
d



e



f



141

142 **Figure 1:** (a) This illustration shows the concept of two SNVs affecting the same codon resulting
143 in different prediction outcomes. (b) Second site variants within the same codon turn premature

144 stop codons predicted by SnpEff into amino acid substitutions. In 144 cases, premature stop
145 codons are substitutions by the respective amino acids. (c) The proportion of amino acid
146 changing variants is significantly higher in genes with premature stop codons predicted by
147 NAVIP (blue) compared to all other genes (red). aa_N is the number of variants changing an
148 amino acid residue and aa_S is the number of variants resulting in the same amino acid residue.
149 (d) The proportion of amino acid changing variants is significantly higher in genes with
150 premature stop codons predicted by SnpEff (blue) compared to all other genes (red). Data
151 underlying these visualizations are available in S3 File. (e) Comparison of the average
152 expression of genes with a premature stop codon predicted by NAVIP against all other protein
153 encoding genes with available expression data. (f) Comparison of the average expression of
154 genes with a premature stop codon predicted by SnpEff against all other protein encoding
155 genes with available expression data.

156

157 To demonstrate the scalability of NAVIP, we processed 200 samples from the 1135 accession
158 comparison study [1]. On average, an accession harbored 498 cases of stop codons predicted
159 by SnpEff were classified as amino acid substitutions by NAVIP (S4 File).

160

161 While premature stop codons are probably the most severe changes, we also explored the
162 influence of neighboring SNVs on amino acid substitutions between Col-0 and Nd-1. A total of
163 50,122 amino acid substitution predictions were analyzed including cases in which one of the
164 annotation tools predicts no change of the amino acid. Predictions of NAVIP and SnpEff were
165 congruent in 46,680 cases (93.1%) and differed in 3442 cases (6.9%) (S5 File).

166

167 Role of compensating InDels (cInDels)

168 InDels can compensate for each others' frameshift when occurring together in the same
169 haplophase (**Figure 2a**). While the first InDel can alter the reading frame, the second one could
170 revert the reading frame back to the original one, thus resulting in only a few altered codons
171 enclosed by the two events. Since premature stop codons can emerge in the novel codons
172 following the first frameshift, the distance between such InDels is expected to be very small. An
173 analysis of the distance distribution of the InDels between Nd-1 and Col-0 (S6 File) revealed
174 that most compensating InDels (cInDels) occur within a very short distance of 2-8 bp (**Figure**
175 **2b**). Multiples of three are more frequent than other distances of a similar size, which might be
176 connected to the length of codons. Since *A. thaliana* is considered highly homozygous, we
177 assume that all identified sequence variants are located in the same haplophase.

178

a

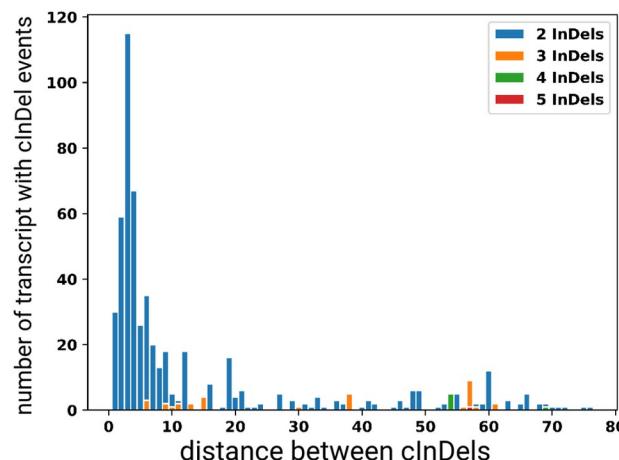
wild type: GTG TAT CTG CGC ATT
peptide: V Y L R I

variant 1: GTG TAT **ACT** GCG CAT T (frameshift)
peptide: V Y **T A H**

variant 2: GTG TAT CTG **CGC** GCA TT (frameshift)
peptide: V Y L **R A**

combined: GTG TAT **ACT** **GCG CGC** ATT
peptide: V Y **L A R I**

b



179

180 **Figure 2:** (a) Theoretical concept of two InDels compensating each others' frameshift. The first
181 insertion changes the reading frame, while the second insertion shifts the reading frame back to
182 the original one. While each individual variant would suggest a loss-of-function due to a
183 frameshift mutation, the combination of both results in 'only' two additional amino acids in the
184 gene product. (b) Distribution of distances between compensating InDels (cInDels). As the

185 second InDel can compensate for the frameshift caused by the upstream InDel, distances
186 between such cInDels are short and frequently multiples of three. In total, 484 genes were
187 identified to contain cInDels in the Nd-1 data set.
188
189

190 Discussion

191 This study demonstrates features of NAVIP by utilizing a previously generated set of high
192 confidence sequence variants [26]. There is always a trade-off between sensitivity and
193 specificity in the variant calling process [26,42] (see S1 File for details). The benchmarking of
194 NAVIP is conducted by comparing it with SnpEff, which controls for the quality of the sequence
195 variant dataset to minimize its impact on the results. As an additional validation of the outcome,
196 NAVIP results were analyzed for additional amino acid substitutions in genes with premature
197 stop codons. The frequency of such variants was higher in genes with premature stop codons
198 compared to others suggesting a lack of purification selection in these genes which could point
199 to pseudogenization. The comparison against all other genes also clearly revealed the
200 increased frequency of amino acid substitutions in genes with premature stop codons.
201 Additionally, a low expression of genes with premature stop codons compared to other genes
202 suggests a pseudogenization. In summary, the properties observed for genes with premature
203 stop codons match the expectations thus supporting the biological validity of the data set.
204
205 One motivation for the development of NAVIP was to fill a gap that exists between variant
206 calling and variant annotation software. Variant calling involves the identification of genetic
207 variants from raw sequencing data. This process typically features algorithms that analyze read
208 alignments and uses statistical models to detect variants. Variant callers such as GATK [60]

209 produce VCF files containing potential genetic variants. Variant annotation, on the other hand,
210 assigns functional relevance to identified variants. This step requires databases and algorithms
211 to provide additional information about each variant. Annotation tools such as ANNOVAR [34],
212 VEP [35], or SnpEff [36] process VCF files previously generated by callers, rather than
213 performing the variant calling themselves, thus losing access to the original read information.
214 The separation between these two steps is due to technical and conceptual differences and
215 serves several purposes. First, a separation of concerns: Variant calling focuses on the
216 detection of variations, while annotation concentrates on the interpretation of those variants,
217 allowing for specialized optimization of each step without complicating the other. Second,
218 computational efficiency: Calling variants requires processing raw sequencing data, which can
219 be computationally intensive. A streaming application would need to stop processing and
220 accumulate all variants until there is complete gene information before annotating, which can be
221 challenging in terms of memory usage, especially for large genes or when dealing with many
222 samples simultaneously. Thus, separating the annotation step from the initial variant calling
223 allows for a more efficient use of computational resources. Third, data flow and scalability: By
224 separating calling and annotation, researchers can perform these steps independently, allowing
225 for parallel processing and easier scaling of analysis pipelines. The VCF format used in variant
226 calling is optimized for documenting detected variants, while other annotation formats are better
227 suited for downstream analysis.

228

229 We developed NAVIP to simultaneously assess the impact of all neighboring sequence variants
230 in protein encoding sequences and to be universally applicable. The described cases in the
231 comparison of two *A. thaliana* accessions demonstrate the necessity to have such a tool at
232 hand. NAVIP revealed the presence of second site mutations that compensate for other
233 variants, e.g. turning a presumed premature stop codon into an amino acid substitution or vice
234 versa. Another example are frameshifts resulting from InDels that are compensated by

235 downstream InDels, which shift the reading frame back to the original pattern. Neglecting these
236 interactions of sequence variants during the functional impact prediction can lead to mis-
237 annotation. While NAVIP was developed to accurately predict changes in the polypeptide
238 sequence based on DNA sequence variants, downstream tools are needed to predict
239 consequences of these changes on the function of proteins. Tools like SIFT [43], PolyPhen-2
240 [44], or SNAP2 [45] could be applied for this next step. Many computational tools for the
241 assessment of DNA sequence variant impact focus on human data sets [46–49]. The objective
242 is often to identify pathogenic variants [43,50]. Universally applicable tools like SnpEff [36],
243 which are also suitable to analyze plant data sets, predict the impact of isolated sequence
244 variants. The purpose of NAVIP is to offer novel functionalities to the plant science community
245 and other communities working on non-model organisms. NAVIP could boost the power of re-
246 sequencing studies by opening up the field of compensating or in general mutually influencing
247 variants. Such variants have the potential to reveal new insights into patterns of molecular
248 evolution and especially co-evolution of sites. The consideration of multiple variants during the
249 effect prediction could reveal novel targets in GWAS-like approaches. The availability through a
250 web server enables a large community of scientists without computational skills to benefit from
251 NAVIP.

252

253 The remaining challenge is now the reliable detection of sequence variants prior to the
254 application of NAVIP. A range of tools is available for the mapping of short reads and the
255 following identification of sequence variants [26]. There is also rapid progress in the
256 development of long read mapping tools [51,52] and the subsequent variant identification [53–
257 56]. For heterozygous and polyploid species, phasing of these variants is another task that
258 needs to be addressed in the future. Variant callers could directly report multiple SNVs of one
259 haplotype as one MNV by collapsing the individual variants. In contrast to variant callers,
260 variant annotators do not have access to the aligned reads and cannot infer this information.

261 The correct prediction of functional implications relies on the correct assignment of variants to
262 respective haplophases. If provided with accurately phased variants, NAVIP can perform
263 predictions for highly heterozygous and even polyploid species. Previous studies demonstrated
264 that sequence variants might only affect individual isoforms in a negative way [50]. NAVIP
265 analyzes all annotated transcript isoforms and would be able to discover such cases. Currently,
266 a major limitation is the lack of isoform-resolved annotation for non-model plant species. Given
267 the rapid progress in long read sequencing [14,57,58], it is likely that highly accurate structural
268 annotation will become available for most plant species in the next few years.

269

270 Materials and Methods

271 Implementation of the Neighborhood-Aware Variant Impact 272 Predictor (NAVIP)

273 The Neighborhood-Aware Variant Impact Predictor (NAVIP) (<https://github.com/bpucker/NAVIP>)
274 has been implemented in Python3. NAVIP requires a VCF file containing sequence variants, a
275 FASTA file containing the reference sequence, and a GFF3 file containing the structural
276 annotation (gene models) as input. The variants provided must be homozygous or in a phased
277 state to allow an accurate impact prediction per allele. If no information about the phasing is
278 provided, all variants are assumed to be in the same haplophase. Effects on all annotated
279 transcripts are evaluated per gene by taking into account the presence of all given variants
280 simultaneously. NAVIP consists of three modules: VCF preprocessing, the NAVIP main program,
281 and a simple first analysis (SFA) of the generated annotation. The first module is designed to
282 preprocess VCF files line-by-line to check for multiallelic variants, i.e. variants with more than one

283 alternative allele at a given position, split them into two separate entries, and convert them into
284 one of three categories: substitution, insertion, or deletion. This process is crucial, as it allows for a
285 clearer representation, facilitating further analysis and interpretation. The preprocessing also
286 removes conflicting data entries and logs warnings and potential errors, such as identical bases,
287 to ensure that any encountered discrepancies are documented for review. The second module is
288 designed to validate genetic variants against transcript sequences, with a particular focus on
289 insertions and deletions, to ensure that the variants align correctly with the reference and match
290 the corresponding sequences in the transcript. NAVIP generates a new VCF file with an additional
291 annotation field and additional report files. One annotation string in the VCF output file matches
292 the SnpEff result format, but also has a NAVIP-specific string with additional information (see the
293 manual for details: <https://github.com/bpucker/NAVIP/wiki>). NAVIP also produces FASTA files
294 with sequences harboring all variants. NAVIP enhances the VCF files by incorporating additional
295 information about the variants, including their effects on coding sequences (CDS), codon
296 changes, and amino acid alterations. This allows users to identify variants with a potential impact
297 on protein function, providing researchers with deeper insight into the effects of genetic variation.
298 Frameshift mutations can occur when the number of nucleotides inserted or deleted is not a
299 multiple of three, altering the downstream amino acid sequence. The third module serves as a
300 primary interface for identifying compensating insertions and deletions (cInDels) within a given
301 VCF file, categorizing them based on their effect on the reading frame, and generating output files
302 summarizing the findings. It also includes functionality to visualize the number of InDels across
303 transcripts through bar plots, facilitating interpretation of the results. The automatic assessment of
304 complementing InDels reveals the relevance of simultaneously considering all InDels within a
305 coding sequence when predicting their impact. All NAVIP scripts can be downloaded from the
306 above-mentioned GitHub repository and do not require the installation of any dependencies other
307 than the Python packages. NAVIP is also available through a web server

308 (<https://pbb-tools.de/NAVIP>) free of charge. Files are kept confidential and will be deleted 48 h
309 after offering the results for download.

310 Identification and validation of sequence variants

311 Illumina sequencing reads of *A. thaliana* Nd-1 [17] were mapped to the *A. thaliana* Col-0 reference
312 genome sequence (TAIR10) [59] via BWA MEM v.0.7.13 [24] using the –m option to avoid
313 spurious hits. Variant calling was performed via GATK v3.8 [60] based on the developers'
314 recommendation. This combination of BWA MEM and GATK was previously identified as a
315 reliable approach for this particular data set [26]. All processes were wrapped into Python scripts
316 (https://github.com/bpucker/variant_calling) to facilitate automatic execution on a high-
317 performance compute cluster. An initial variant set was generated based on hard filtering criteria
318 recommended by the GATK developers. The two following variant calling runs considered the set
319 of surviving variants from the previous round as the gold standard to avoid the need for hard
320 filtering.

321 Since a high-quality genome sequence assembly of Nd-1 was previously generated [18], we
322 harnessed this sequence to validate all variants identified by short-read mapping. From the start of
323 each chromosome sequence, variants sorted by genomic position were successively tested by
324 taking the upstream sequence from Col-0, modifying it according to all upstream *bona fide*
325 variants, and searching for it in the Nd-1 assembly (S7 File). Variants were admitted to the
326 following analysis if the assembly supported them. This consecutive inspection of all variants
327 enabled a reliable removal of false positives, leading to a set of high-confidence variants. The
328 genome-wide distribution of the sequence variants was assessed using a previously developed
329 Python script [17].

330 An independent confirmation of randomly selected sequence variants was performed using
331 Sanger sequencing. *A. thaliana* Nd-1 plants were grown as previously described [17] to extract

332 DNA from leaf tissue using a cetyltrimethylammonium bromide (CTAB)-based method [61].
333 Oligonucleotides flanking the regions that harbor the variants of interest were designed manually
334 (S8 File). Amplification via PCR, analysis of PCR products via agarose gel electrophoresis,
335 purification of PCR products, Sanger sequencing, and evaluation of results were following
336 previously established protocols [62].

337 Comparison of NAVIP and SnpEff stop gain prediction

338 To the best of our knowledge, SnpEff [36] is the most widely used tool for predicting the effects of
339 sequence variants, thus it was selected for comparison. NAVIP can only provide more accurate
340 effect predictions if multiple sequence variants interfere, e.g. if multiple SNVs are located within
341 the same codon. Otherwise, the predictions of NAVIP and SnpEff would be the same.
342 Consequently, the following comparison focuses only on cases of multiple sequence variants that
343 might interfere with each other.

344 SnpEff v4.1f [36] was applied with default parameters to the *A. thaliana* Nd-1 variant data set to
345 predict the effects of SNVs based on the Araport11 [63] structural annotation of the TAIR10
346 genome sequence of *A. thaliana* Columbia-0. NAVIP was also applied to the same data set for
347 benchmarking. Predictions of premature stop codons were compared between NAVIP and SnpEff
348 results, as these cases have the potential to show biologically important differences. This analysis
349 was performed exclusively on SNVs to avoid the influence of frameshifts that would be caused by
350 InDels. Only the most upstream predicted premature stop codon within any gene was considered
351 in this analysis. To support the loss of function of the affected genes, the frequency of amino acid
352 changing variants (aa_N) was compared to the number of variants that did not alter the encoded
353 amino acid (aa_S). This ratio was compared between genes with premature stop codons and all
354 other genes, expecting a higher ratio of variants that change the encoded amino acids if the gene
355 undergoes pseudogenization. The Python package plotly was used to visualize these data

356 distributions in violin plots. A pseudocount was added to both aa_N and aa_S to enable the ratio
357 calculation in case when aa_S would be 0. aa_N/aa_S ratios greater than 10 were set to this maximum
358 value to enable visualization. A Mann-Withney U test was performed using Python to test for
359 significant differences between the two groups. When genes with a premature stop codon
360 undergo pseudogenization, they may show lower than average gene expression. Therefore, a
361 comparison of the expression of genes with a premature stop codon against all other protein-
362 coding genes was performed. A previously compiled count table based on all publicly available
363 paired-end RNA-seq data sets of *A. thaliana* [64] was harnessed for this analysis. Differences
364 were visualized using the Python package plotly as described above, with the expression values
365 clipped at 50 to enable an informative visualization. All Python scripts developed for these
366 analyses are freely available on GitHub (https://github.com/bpucker/variant_calling).

367 Assessment of compensating InDels (cInDels)

368 An independent analysis of insertions/deletions (InDels) was performed by NAVIP to understand
369 the relevance of considering all InDels within a CDS simultaneously. Transcripts with predicted
370 frameshifts were analyzed to identify downstream insertions/deletions which are compensating
371 each other's effect, i.e. the second frameshift is reverting an upstream frameshift. The distance
372 between these events was analyzed by NAVIP and is included in the standard output. This
373 analysis is not restricted to pairs of cInDels, but can also handle multiple InDels compensating
374 each other's frameshifts.

375

376 Availability and requirements

377 Project name: NAVIP

378 Project homepage: <https://github.com/bpucker/NAVIP>

379 Operating system(s): Linux (website is platform independent)

380 Programming language: Python3

381 Other requirements: Python3

382 License: GNU General Public License v3.0

383 RRID: SCR_024838

384 Data availability

385 The data sets supporting the results of this article are publicly available or included within the
386 article and its additional files. Python scripts developed and applied for this study are available
387 on GitHub: <https://github.com/bpucker/NAVIP> (<https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.10613052>) and
388 https://github.com/bpucker/variant_calling (<https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.10613055>).

389

390 Declarations

391 Authors' contributions

392 BP designed the research. JSB wrote the NAVIP code. AR updated the NAVIP code and added
393 NAVIP to the pbb-tools web server. JSB, DH, and BP conducted bioinformatics analyses. DH
394 and BP performed the experimental validation. JSB, AR, and BP wrote the manuscript. All
395 authors read and approved the final version of the manuscript and agreed to its submission.

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398 Competing Interests

399 JSB, AR, and DH have no competing interests. BP is head of the technology transfer center
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608 Supporting Information

609 **S1 File:** Detailed description of the variant calling process, the validation process, and the
610 resulting sequence variant data set.

611 **S2 File:** VCF file containing SNVs between Nd-1 and Col-0.

612 **S3 File:** Detailed information about premature stop codons predicted by NAVIP and/or SnpEff.

613 **S4 File:** Differences in the effect prediction between SnpEff and NAVIP for 200 accessions of
614 the 1,135 *Arabidopsis thaliana* accession resequencing project.

615 **S5 File:** Comparison of SnpEff and NAVIP prediction differences between Col-0 and Nd-1. The
616 table lists matches and differences for each possible amino acid substitution type.

617 **S6 File:** VCF file containing InDels between Nd-1 and Col-0.

618 **S7 File:** Schematic illustration of the variant validation process.

619 **S8 File:** FASTA file containing oligonucleotide sequences used for the generation and
620 sequencing of amplicons to validate randomly selected sequence variants.

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