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The companion dog: a powerful model for understanding somatic mutation,
disease and aging

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Abstract

The Domesticated Dog: An Unexpected and Powerful Tool for Aging Research

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This dissertation discusses the significance and importance of utilizing the domesticated dog as both a resource for large data and genomic analysis. I first reviewed the uses of canine data, outlining the advantages and disadvantages of various datasets for research. I next utilized Duplex Sequencing technology to identify rare mutations in healthy dogs. I also investigated the age-related presence of mutational signatures based on the Catalog of Somatic Mutations in Cancer (COSMIC). This dissertation will help the reader understand the potential of the companion dog model in general, as well as the usefulness of new technologies in DNA sequencing to understand aging.

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DEDICATION

I would like to dedicate this dissertation to my late father, Brian Paynter, whose spirit reminded me to keep fighting for this degree and my dog, Honey, whose loving nature and emotional support got me through the hardest days in the past 6 years.

Chapter 1. INTRODUCTION

1.1 THE DOMESTICATED DOG AS A MODEL

The domesticated dog (*Canis lupus familiaris*) is generally known as a much beloved companion to human beings. There is a rich literature on the domestication of the dog, and many potential hypotheses for why humans and wolves developed such a bond, and how wolves eventually became the pets that we adore so much. Specifically, Galibert defined domestication as a long process where humans have crossed individuals with desirable behavioral and physiological traits to create new offspring that possess those traits, isolated from wild populations (Galibert et al., 2011). In dogs, these factors along with reproductive isolation, artificial selection, founder effects, bottlenecks and inbreeding have allowed for traits to become fixed within breeds (Frantz et al., 2020). Dogs are known as the first domesticated animal species, and early evidence of their existence dates back as far as 33,000 years ago (Freedman et al., 2014; Perri et al., 2021). It is unknown what exactly caused the desire to domesticate the dog. A leading hypothesis is that humans may have bonded with wolves due to the protection and safety they provided. Others hypothesize that dogs may have been scavengers, following the scraps of nomadic humans (Galibert et al., 2011). Li hypothesized that during domestication, dogs developed enhanced excitatory synaptic plasticity, allowing for a closer relationship with humans (Li et al., 2014). Regardless of the selective forces that ultimately led to dog domestication, the genetics of the dog remain fascinating to scientists.

Dogs are the most phenotypically diverse animal species on the planet (Wayne & vonHoldt, 2012). This has been driven in part by the human desire to create this diversity. Specifically, during the Medieval and Renaissance periods and the last 200 years, there

was a significant effort to cross dogs of different types, eventually leading to the creation of distinctive breeds (Galibert et al., 2011). Currently, over 400 breeds exist worldwide (Wilcox & Walkowicz, 1995). The strong selective pressure of domestication created breeds that varied greatly in size, shape, color, and behavior. Additionally, breeds vary in functionality; many breeds are known to perform certain behavioral tasks such as hunting, herding, and guarding, and to provide emotional and physical support.

Recent advances in genomic sequencing have allowed us to further understand the evolutionary history and genetic variation of the dog. Previously, molecular work on dogs consisted primarily of mitochondrial DNA analysis (Villa et al., 1999, Leonard et al., 2002). Further efforts to understand dog diversification and domestication used genome wide SNP and haplotype data analysis (Vonholdt et al., 2010). Additionally, a foundational study in understanding the genetics of breeds genotyped microsatellites on purebred dogs across 85 breeds. It was found that breeds had distinct microsatellite genotypes, and that within breeds, there was considerable genetic homogeneity (Parker et al., 2004). Genetic diversity between dog breeds is significantly greater than genetic diversity within dog breeds (Lindblad-Toh et al., 2005; Parker, 2012). Several studies have shown that morphological variation between breeds can be further understood through genome wide association studies (GWAS) (Karlsson et al., 2007 ; Sutter et al., 2007; Cadieu et al., 2009). Additionally, recent studies have shown that dog breeds vary greatly in disease risk and longevity (Michell, 1999; Proschowsky et al., 2003; Fleming et al., 2011; Vaysse et al., 2011; Jimenez, 2016; Wiles et al., 2017). For example, some dog breeds live twice as long as other dog breeds (Lewis et al., 2018; Yordy et al., 2020). Given the enormous variation in disease risk (Fleming et al., 2011), longevity (

Lewis et al., 2018) and rate of aging (Kraus et al., 2013) among breeds, dogs provide an ideal model to better understand the underlying genetics of pathogenesis.

The domesticated dog is a valuable model for research not only due to the fascinating variation in phenotype and genotype observed, but also because it addresses some of the limitations of alternate models. Most aging research is currently done with organisms housed in the lab, including yeast, nematode worms, fruit flies and rodents (Fontana et al., 2010). Unlike these species, dogs are longer lived, and could provide a powerful tool to understand the biology of aging (Ruple et al., 2022). Similar to humans, dog mortality increases exponentially with age (Hoffman et al., 2018). While dogs live longer than traditional laboratory model organisms, they live shorter than humans, making them a great resource to see patterns of aging that might take decades to observe in humans (Kraus et al., 2013). Additionally, environmental factors such as pollution have been proven to be associated with accelerated aging (Schmidt, 2019), but it is nearly impossible to replicate the same environment to which humans are exposed in a laboratory environment. Therefore, having a model organism exposed to the same environment as humans offers a more meaningful comparison to the human experience. Unlike many model organisms, dogs suffer from many of the same naturally occurring age-related diseases that humans experience with age (Hoffman et al., 2018). This includes cancer, renal disease, endocrine disease, obesity, cognitive decline and cancer (Hoffman et al., 2018). As mentioned earlier, the unique genetic architecture of breeds allows scientists to study the underlying genetic drivers of disease and aging. Lastly, dogs have a healthcare system that is second only to humans in its sophistication (Ruple et al., 2022). This allows researchers to obtain extensive longitudinal health and longevity

data in dogs (Ruple et al., 2022). The importance of these datasets and their potential for groundbreaking research is outlined in chapter 1.

1.2 AGING AND CANCER IN DOGS

Arguably, one of the most relevant uses for the dog model is in understanding aging and cancer. Risk of disease diagnosis and mortality increases exponentially with age in dogs (Kraus et al., 2013). Some dogs age quite differently, with breeds like the Great Dane living just 6 years, to the Chihuahua who can live to 15 years of age (Fleming et al., 2011). One current open-data long-term study of dogs is the Dog Aging Project, which will follow tens of thousands of individuals (Creevy et al., 2022).

As in humans, age in dogs is the most significant risk factor for cancer, and cancer is the greatest cause of mortality in dogs (Schiffman & Breen, 2015). Each year, about 80,000 cases of lymphoma will be diagnosed in humans. Roughly the same number of cases will be diagnosed in dogs, with pathology strikingly similar to human Non-Hodgkin's Lymphoma (NHL) (Zandvliet, 2016). Canine lymphoma is nearly histologically indistinguishable from human lymphoma, and the cancer in both species responds similarly to the same types of treatment (Teske 1994). Additionally, human NHL and canine lymphoma have shared molecular aberrations and genetic commonalities (Daisuke et al., 2014). Breeds vary tremendously in the risk of lymphoma and other hematological cancers. The among-breed variation in lymphoma risk is exemplified by studies showing that Boxers have a 40-fold increase in cancer risk relative to Pomeranians (Priester & McKay, 1980). While some breeds are almost never diagnosed with lymphoma, in others, over 30% of all individuals will die of the disease (American Kennel Club). Diagnosis is costly for pet owners, and by the time lymphoma is diagnosed

in a dog, the median survival time is just 10-14 months (Zandvliet, 2016). If we could detect individuals at high risk of lymphoma before they get the disease, and diagnose individuals with the disease earlier, we could have a large positive impact on disease outcome, saving lives and health care costs.

1.3 SEQUENCING TECHNOLOGIES TO IDENTIFY SOMATIC MUTATION

Cancer is a genetic disease that is caused largely by nonsynonymous somatic DNA mutations in tumor suppressor genes or oncogenes (Loeb, 2016). Interestingly, mutation rate is generally higher in the somatic tissue than the germline, and accumulation of mutations is associated with cancer (Loeb, 2016). Individuals with hereditary cancers have a germline, inherited genetic variant that predisposes them to higher frequency of somatic mutation. Somatic mutations are also believed to play a role in aging. Due to current technologies, genomic variants in dog DNA can be identified, and individual tumors can be assessed for the presence of somatic mutations (Schiffman & Breen, 2015). While there have been efforts to detect disease associated mutations in dogs, little has been done to enhance early detection of these mutations. Previous studies rely on next generation sequencing of tumor tissues (Modiano et al., 2005; Karlsson et al., 2013 ; Karyadi et al., 2013; Elvers et al., 2015; Tonomura et al., 2015; Tarone et al., 2019). The goal of these prior studies is to identify high frequency cancer-mutations in dog tumors. However, previous studies have shown that mutations can exist in healthy humans and increase with age (Jaiswal et al., 2014, Kakiuchi & Ogawa, 2021). In contrast to standard NGS, the technology that we use here, Duplex Sequencing, can potentially detect the somatic mutations that may be associated with disease in healthy dogs.

1.4 SUMMARY

This dissertation initially sought to understand the differences in disease risk of lymphoma by looking at precancerous mutations in healthy dogs. Using Duplex Sequencing technology, we discovered a wealth of evidence that somatic mutations are increasing with age in several target genes. While we did not find evidence that the mutation frequencies observed were breed specific or risk specific, we saw a strong signal of aging, and decided to focus the bulk of this dissertation on patterns of aging seen through somatic mutation in dog young to old. We hope that the research here will lay the foundation for further work to be done on the impact of somatic mutations on cancer risk.

Chapter 2. VETERINARY BIG DATA

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2.1 INTRODUCTION

The era of big data has opened up many new opportunities in preventive care, chronic disease management, and treatment optimization. It has also allowed for a new model of medicine to be employed, that of personalized or precision medicine. In this model of human healthcare, decisions about medical interventions and other treatments are tailored to an individual patient based upon their predicted risk of developing disease or their predicted response to therapy (Grossglauser & Saner, 2014). This has been enabled primarily through the adoption of electronic health record systems by healthcare providers which allow for the construction of detailed longitudinal data about large populations of patients over long periods of time. These data frameworks can be interrogated to discover the combinations of risk factors that lead to disease outcomes and deliver personalized disease risk profiles for individual patients (Chawla & Davis, 2013).

Data-related problems in human healthcare such as data integration, wrangling, ease of use, and interpretability are similar to those encountered in other domains. However, there are a number of domain-specific challenges encountered in human healthcare disciplines that are unique to these data frameworks. One example of this is the use of unstructured data, such as patient notes and interpretations of diagnostic tests, which contain rich information that can provide valuable insights at both the individual patient and population levels, but the heterogeneity, variability, and diversity of these data make it difficult to access if analyzed in a controlled manner (Adnan et al., 2020). Another challenge lies in the issues of privacy and security in human healthcare which have drawn significant attention in recent years, but are especially important in

healthcare settings because of concerns related to the introduction of the HIPAA Privacy Act which declared medical information, including electronic medical records, to be protected health information covered under the Privacy Rule (Sirilla et al., 2006; Sun et al., 2020). In fact, the sheer magnitude of the size of medical big data has increased to such a level that new storage technology systems have been developed to capture, manage, and process big data; but issues with privacy control, technical vulnerabilities, security for authorization and verification, data management, and confidentiality still exist (Gupta & Rohil, 2020).

Many of these challenges surrounding medical data and use are avoided in the field of veterinary medical big data, as veterinary patient records are not considered protected health information and are thus not included in the Privacy Rule. However, naturally occurring diseases in companion animals are often similar, if not identical, to human diseases in terms of disease etiology, progression, and treatment response (Kol et al., 2015). Dogs, in particular, provide an ideal model for translational medicine as they have the most phenotypic diversity and known naturally occurring diseases of all land mammals other than humans (Starkey et al., 2005). Among those diseases, we have identified more than 400 inherited disorders in dogs that are relevant to humans which is likely due to the fact that we share ~650 Mb of ancestral genetic sequence with our dog companions (Rowell et al., 2011). In addition, dogs share both our physical and chemical environments and live in more than 63 million households in the United States (American Pet Products Association, 2020). Disease outcomes as varied as cancer (e.g. lymphoma, osteosarcoma), osteoarthritis, spinal cord disorders (e.g. thoracolumbar intervertebral disk herniation, spina bifida), eye disorders (e.g.

keratoconjunctivitis sicca), cardiomyopathies (e.g. dilated and hypertrophic cardiomyopathies), and infections – including those caused by antimicrobial resistant organisms – are all shared by our dog companions (Kol et al., 2015; McEwen & Collignon, 2018). Furthermore, the healthcare system for dogs in the United States is sophisticated and over \$40 billion is spent annually on dog health care, second only to the level of healthcare received by humans (American Veterinary Medical Association, 2018; Patterson, 2000).

Thus, veterinary medical big data may very well represent an underutilized resource in medical research. Using data derived from dogs whose owners are seeking medical care for naturally occurring diseases may also have lesser ethical concerns than research involving animals in which the disease of interest is induced (Kol et al., 2015). However, despite the reduced concerns related to privacy and security, accessing veterinary medical big data is not without challenges. In this review we will describe the veterinary medical data sources available for research as well as the opportunities and challenges related to each.

2.2 DATA SOURCES FOR COMPANION ANIMAL HEALTH INFORMATION

There are several sources of veterinary medical big data related to companion animal health information that have been utilized for research purposes. The majority of these data sources are comprised of medical records from either primary medical care centers or referral hospitals. Another data source for animal health information comes from animal insurance companies, which typically track medical claim data on privately owned animals. In the United States, approximately 2.5 million pets were insured in 2019, which was a growth of 16.7% over the total number of pets insured in the prior

year, but still only represented about 2.5% of the total pet population in the US (North American Pet Health Insurance Association). Insurance coverage rates for companion animals in the United Kingdom are approximately 25% of the total population and it is estimated that 90% of the dog population in Sweden are covered by an insurance policy (Veterinary Information Network). Other datasets have been constructed specifically for research purposes and therefore often only include animals that meet explicit inclusion criteria, but might still be useful for translational research.

2.2.1 *Medical Record Datasets*

One of the largest veterinary practices in the world is Banfield Pet Hospital, a privately-owned company that consists of more than 1,000 individual clinics. As of 2019, Banfield Pet Hospital had collected clinical data from more than 2.5 million dogs from 43 states in the US (2019). All Banfield hospitals use a single proprietary medical record software system to upload and centrally store electronic information related to the companion animals seen in individual hospital locations. These records include information such as laboratory test results, physical examination findings, diagnoses, treatments, procedures performed, and demographic information about the dog patients and their owners (Plant et al., 2011). In addition, these data include geocoded information about the home locations of the animals seen at Banfield hospitals. This has allowed researchers to pair electronic record data with existing ecological data to monitor infectious disease spread in animals in the U.S. (Glickman et al., 2006).

One drawback of utilizing Banfield medical data for translational medicine analyses is that these data do not consistently contain behavioral information such as type and quantity of outdoor activities undertaken, exercise history, diet composition,

and temperament of the pet (Raghavan et al., 2007). Diagnoses contained in the dataset may include both those suspected by the veterinarian and those with diagnostic test confirmation (Plant et al., 2011). However, the large number of pets with diagnoses and veterinarians employed at these clinics minimize the risk of systematic misclassification errors occurring. Perhaps most importantly, these data are owned by Banfield Pet Hospital and access to these data appear to be limited.

Another source of veterinary health information is the Veterinary Medical Database (VMDB), the oldest companion animal health database in the United States which provides veterinary medical datasets to researchers at little or no cost. This database was started in 1964 by the National Cancer Institute and includes patient data contributed from 26 university teaching hospitals in the United States and Canada, and contains over 7 million records from all species (The Veterinary Medical Databases). The VMDB diagnoses data was originally coded using the Standard Nomenclature of Veterinary Diseases and Operations (SNVDO), but has been coded in Systematized Nomenclature of Medicine- Clinical Terminology (SNOMED CT) since 1996 (The Veterinary Medical Databases). It is important to note that this hierarchical coding structure was originally created for diagnoses in human patients rather than veterinary patients, but use of these coding systems allows for searches to be conducted in either broad disease categories or using only specific diagnoses (Bartlett, 2010).

A limitation of this dataset is the narrow availability of information related to each medical record as only a coded abstract from each patient hospital visit is included in the dataset. Data contained is limited to: the institution where the animal was seen, the species and breed of the animal, signalment (age, weight, sex), hospital discharge date,

patient number (as assigned by the hospital), if the hospital visit was the first or a recheck appointment for a previously diagnosed condition, diagnoses, and the postal code of the client (The Veterinary Medical Databases). Additionally, disease prevalence estimates derived from this dataset are likely influenced by referral bias as veterinary teaching hospitals provide highly specialized and advanced animal care and so the underlying population from which the VMDB data is derived is biased towards sick animals and more serious and rare diseases are overrepresented in this database (Bartlett, 2010).

The Veterinary Companion Animal Surveillance System (VetCompass), which began collecting clinical data from primary practices in the United Kingdom in 2009, now holds data on more than 15 million animals collected from over 1,800 veterinary practices across the U.K., nearly a third of all U.K. veterinary practices (Radford et al., 2010). VetCompass began collecting clinical data in Australia in 2016 and pilot projects are being completed in Spain, Germany, and New Zealand. These data are actively collected and considered to be more representative of the general pet population than are data collected only from referral hospitals and geographic and temporal information are included which allows for analyses of disease trends over both space and time (Small Animal Veterinary Surveillance Network, The Veterinary Companion Animal Surveillance System Overview).

Clinical data from each participating practice are uploaded automatically to the VetCompass database and requires no additional work on the part of the hospital staff or veterinarians (The Veterinary Companion Animal Surveillance System Overview). Extraction of these data has not yet been fully automated though, which can result in

data access limitations. Another limitation is that these data do not include behavioral, environmental, or dietary information about these patients, all of which can be important factors in the etiology of disease. Open access VetCompass data are available through request, though typically only for use in academic settings (Radford et al., 2010).

2.2.2 *Insurance Datasets*

Data collected by veterinary medical insurance providers can be used as a secondary data source for translational analyses. One of the biggest advantages of insurance datasets is that they are large and high statistical power can be achieved for many types of analyses. These types of datasets include varying amounts of information about the total population of insured pets included in the dataset, but uniformly include detailed address information about individual owners. This allows for more robust interpretations about the impact of geographic factors on health outcomes to be made than might be possible using only medical records (McGreevy et al., 2017). However, the coding system used by individual insurance companies may allow for only one diagnostic code to be entered for each veterinary visit which can result in a reduction of data completeness (McGreevy et al., 2017). In addition, these datasets may not distinguish between death from natural causes and death from euthanasia, which should be considered when constructing time to event analyses (O'Neill et al., 2014).

Two well-established insurance databases, one from the U.K. and one from Sweden, have been utilized for epidemiological research on the causes of morbidity and mortality in insured dog populations (Egenvall et al., 2009; O'Neill et al., 2014). The dogs in the U.K. insurance dataset were thought to differ from the total population of

dogs in the U.K. in that the insurance population had overrepresentation of younger and purebred dogs (Egenvall et al., 2009). There was also a lack of histologic confirmation of some disease diagnoses noted by the investigators (Egenvall et al., 2009).

The Swedish insurance dataset has been validated and shown to have adequate agreement with medical records obtained from veterinary practices that provided medical care to the animals included in the dataset (Bonnett et al., 2005). The large proportion of dogs covered by insurance policies in Sweden is a benefit in that the insurance datasets are likely more representative of the total dog population in the country than the datasets available in the U.S. and the U.K. thereby increasing the external validity of research conducted using this population of dogs. The Swedish dataset held by the insurance company Agria has been utilized by several research teams over many decades, too, so there is a long record of open access to these data which may now provide insights into changes in disease trends over time that would not be identifiable in other datasets.

2.2.3 *Research Datasets*

Other datasets have been constructed to investigate health and disease trends in particular populations of dogs. One such dataset is part of the Golden Retriever Lifetime Study (GRLS), a prospective study restricted to a single cohort of approximately 3,000 Golden retriever dogs located throughout the U.S. Despite the limitations created by the small number of individual animals included in this dataset, there are some significant benefits to using these data for translational studies. For instance, these data were collected longitudinally and at regular intervals and the dataset contains information on not only the health of animals collected directly from their veterinarian and including

laboratory values, but also extensive environmental and behavioral health data collected from their owners (Dobson et al., 2002). Despite the burden placed on owners to track and report data about their dogs, this work has had a high level of study compliance and has resulted in a robust dataset that includes information about individual dogs from the time of enrollment at less than 2 years of age until their death (Egenvall et al., 1998).

An added advantage to GRLS is that biological samples have been collected from these dogs on at least an annual basis (Dobson et al., 2002). These samples include whole blood, serum, urine, hair and toenail clippings, feces, and tissue samples all of which were stored in a biobank at the time of collection and are available for interrogation by investigators (Dobson et al., 2002). These samples offer a unique opportunity to investigate environmental exposures over the lifetime of the dogs and their relationships to multiple disease outcomes, which could lead to insights that will benefit both animal and human health.

Another research platform, Dogslife, is collecting data directly from owners about the health and lifestyle of their U.K. Kennel Club registered Labrador retrievers (Guy et al., 2015). The study population is restricted to purebred Labrador retriever dogs born on or after January 1, 2010 and all data collection is performed using a website interface (Guy et al., 2015). Owners of enrolled dogs are requested to complete a questionnaire about their dog's health and welfare monthly for the first year of the dog's life and at 3 month intervals thereafter and the compliance with questionnaire requirements is reasonably high, with nearly 80% of the data entries being complete at the time of the first descriptive evaluation of the cohort (Guy et al., 2015). By December

31, 2013 there were more than 4,000 dogs included in this dataset and enrollment is ongoing (Ruple et al., 2021).

2.3 THE DOG AGING PROJECT

A long-term longitudinal study of companion dogs, the Dog Aging Project (DAP), was initiated in 2019 with the express purpose of collecting data that could be used in translational medical research. Dogs of any breed, size, and age are eligible for participation in DAP, though enrollment is currently limited to the 50 U.S. states. This project is an Open Science study and investigators unaffiliated with the project are able to access these data as well as propose ancillary studies that can build upon the foundation created by the DAP team. It is anticipated that the total number of dogs enrolled in this project will exceed 100,000 as enrollment is ongoing and there is no limit to the total number of participants that will be included in the project. Thus, this dataset represents the largest primary data source of health information in dogs collected explicitly for use in translational medical research.

2.3.1 *Health and Life Experience Survey*

Comprehensive information about the dog's health and environment is collected at the time of enrollment in the study through the Health and Life Experience Survey (HLES). This survey is administered through an online portal and is separated into ten sections. Data collected through this instrument includes detailed information about the dog's breed, age, sex, neuter status, behavior, diet, use of medications, types and amount of physical activity, the indoor and outdoor environments the dog is regularly exposed to, and the dog's comprehensive health history. The initial HLES data is

considered the baseline dataset for each participant in the project. HLES data is updated annually in order to identify changes related to either the dog or their environment as well as collect information about any new medical diagnoses made within the previous year.

2.3.2 *Other Types of Data Collected*

In addition to the HLES data, all participants are asked to upload copies of the dog participant's electronic medical record. These records can be used to validate information provided by human participants about their dog's overall health, specific diagnoses reported, and demographic information. In addition, laboratory values and other items of research interest may be extracted from the medical records and used to help inform specific research objectives.

Approximately 10,000 dogs included in DAP will have whole genome DNA sequencing (WGS) performed. This will add tremendous value to this dataset as genome wide association studies (GWAS) performed in dog populations have been shown to be able to identify functional variants associated with specific morphologic traits as well as disease risk and dog behavior (Clements et al., 2013). WGS has also been utilized to identify rare hereditary diseases in dogs as well as isolate variants located in orthologs of human cancer susceptibility genes (Clements et al., 2013; Plassais et al., 2019; Pugh et al., 2015; Woolley et al., 2020).

Approximately 1,500 of the dogs that have whole genome sequencing data collected will also have information related their metabolome, methylome, microbiome, and rest/activity cycles collected and included in the dataset. Five hundred of these dogs will also have physical examinations and diagnostic testing performed by

veterinary cardiologists and results from echocardiogram, electrocardiogram, and blood pressure measurement tests will be included in the DAP dataset.

These additional data inputs, sequencing, and physiologic measurements will enrich the data available for translational research using these subsets of DAP dogs. Ancillary studies conducted using other DAP dogs may further supplement the data available in the dataset in the future. These ancillary studies will likely be focused on specific research questions and the additional data available will be dependent upon the needs of the investigators.

2.4 THE FUTURE OF COMPANION ANIMAL HEALTH DATA COLLECTION

The increasing frequency with which companion dogs are being used to study disease outcomes highlights the importance of medical data collected within this population. Each of the datasets described herein provide valuable resources for research. However, use of large-scale epidemiological studies in which data is collected longitudinally is ideal for this work as these data allow for temporal analyses to be conducted and for incidence and prevalence of diseases to be estimated.

Secondary datasets, like those belonging to insurance companies, are useful for this work but primary datasets do offer some advantages. Because these datasets are constructed with the explicit intent to utilize data for research purposes there are often both subjective and objective measurements included in the same dataset. This helps to give a more complete understanding of the dog's health than does data related only to illness (e.g., insurance claims data). Additionally, the increased amount of data collected related to the dog's environment and potential environmental risk exposures is increased in primary datasets.

Collection of health data across multiple breeds of dogs is ideal in that the increased genetic heterogeneity in a more outbred population of dogs will allow for identification of genes related to a greater number of disease outcomes. In datasets where genomic sequencing is not included, individual dog breeds can be utilized as a proxy for specific genetic information. In these cases, outcomes with varying prevalence in different breeds of dogs can be identified as having a potential genetic or heritable component to the disease etiology.

The initiation of dog health studies, such as DAP, mark a turning point in the utilization of dogs as a model for human health and disease. These large-scale datasets constructed with the express intent to understand the biological and environmental determinants of health and disease in companion dog populations in order to apply those findings to other species will become increasingly valuable to medical research as the datasets grow in terms of content and population.

2.5 CONCLUSIONS

Use of medical data collected in dog populations will continue to be a rich source of information that can be used to inform our understanding health, longevity, and disease outcomes.

Chapter 3. CANINE SOMATIC MUTATIONS AND AGING USING DUPLEX SEQUENCING

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Aging is defined as the age-related loss of function in an individual with time. Mutations are at the center of most basic evolutionary theories of aging. Our understanding of mutations initially started with early theories of germline mutation. Mutations in the germline allow for genetic diversity which propels evolution through natural selection. Thus, evolutionary change would not be possible without mutation (Baer et al., 2007), (Lynch et al., 2016). But mutation is not only central to adaptation. It is also thought to be central to the deleterious phenotypes associated with aging. The first widely accepted evolutionary theory of aging was put forward by Sir Peter Medawar. Medawar's mutation accumulation hypothesis states that early in life, selection gets rid of harmful mutations, but that later in life the strength of selection declines, such that late-acting deleterious mutations cannot be purged, and over evolutionary time, these damaging mutations will rise in frequency (Turan et al., 2019). A few years later, Williams further expanded on this by presenting his antagonistic pleiotropy theory. He hypothesized that an allele that is detrimental late in life might actually be favored by selection if it has pleiotropic effects that are beneficial early in life (hence, 'antagonistic') (Williams, 1957). Williams' theory further explains why the aging phenotype may be associated with loss of function. A trait essential to the early fitness of the organism can, with age, become deleterious later in life. These two earlier theories on germline mutations focus on the origins in aging over evolutionary time. But

in later work, scientists focused on the damage that somatic mutations might cause to tissues, and the entire organism, over a lifetime. It is this concept of somatic mutations that stimulated the work that we will discuss here.

Not long after the work of Medawar and Williams, Leslie Orgel suggested that molecular damage might provide the specific mechanism of aging (Orgel, 1963). He proposed the error catastrophe theory of aging, which argues that aging is due to the errors that exist in protein synthesis. Orgel stated that the mistakes that occur in protein translation lead to an accumulation/cascade of errors with age, which eventually leads to illness and mortality. Orgel's theory hypothesized that errors post translation were the cause of aging. While Williams and Medawar previous work focused entirely on germline mutations that are passed from generation to generation, and so exist in every single cell in the body, Orgel turned his attention to errors that occur within the lifetime of an organism, in somatic tissue. This laid the groundwork for later understanding of decreased maintenance of somatic tissue with age. Somatic mutations are not passed along to the next generation, and the focal point of this chapter.

Thomas Kirkwood was later inspired by Orgel's general idea of somatic damage accumulation, but from the perspective of DNA damage and mutation, not protein. One proposed reason why somatic mutations persist is that there are evolutionary limitations to the maintenance of the soma (Kirkwood, 1977). Kirkwood developed the disposable soma theory to apply evolutionary genetics to Orgel's previous hypothesis. It states that organisms have an evolutionary trade-off between the energy that can be divided between growth, reproduction and DNA repair and maintenance. Organisms will not invest in maintaining the soma endlessly at the cost of reproduction, because an

organism only has a limited amount of resources to allocate to its various cellular processes (Kirkwood, 1977). Too much of an investment in one of these variables can lead to detrimental effects to another. Thus, Kirkwood would argue that somatic mutations persist despite mechanisms for DNA repair because too much somatic maintenance would sacrifice the organism's ability to grow and reproduce. This could explain how, unlike with germline mutations, somatic mutations are not under as much selective pressure, especially if they occur late in life. Rather, there is a vested interest in somatic maintenance only to the extent that it promotes the fitness of the germline (Kirkwood, 1977). Therefore, even though individuals have mechanisms for repairing DNA damage, starting from the age of reproduction, the strength of selection will decline, and somatic mutations should increase in frequency. This may explain why somatic mutations occur and accumulate in higher frequency than germline mutations (Lynch, 2010).

Additionally, young individuals have mechanisms to avoid the effects of DNA damage such as cellular senescence and apoptosis, but these mechanisms can be detrimental later in life because of their impact on tissue functionality (Campisi, 2008, Coppe, 2010 #212). Reflecting on early hypotheses about germline mutation and later work on somatic mutations, it is clear that age impacts the regulation of healthy function of a trait, and that an older individual will be more susceptible to dysregulation of cellular function. These theories of aging, in concordance with our knowledge of somatic mutation theory and disease, underscore the need for greater understanding the relationship between somatic mutation frequency and longevity.

Somatic mutations are thought to play a major role in aging and age-related disease (Kennedy et al., 2012). However, we need more effort to understand the degree to which variation in somatic mutation might explain variation in aging and disease risk among individuals. It is known that some diseases of early aging such as progeroid syndromes are caused by inherited germline mutations that lead to increased somatic mutation (Vijg & Suh, 2013). These syndromes are characterized by premature symptoms of normal aging, as exemplified by Werner's syndrome (Goto, 1997). Studies have also shown that the aging phenotype is promoted by random events such as somatic DNA damage and mutation (Kenyon, 2010). This study investigates how somatic mutation frequency changes with age, in a new and informative model organism: dogs.

Traditional model organisms such as rats and mice have limitations and caveats when studying aging and disease, mainly because they do not have the same naturally occurring diseases as humans (Hoffman et al., 2018). Thus, we decided to utilize the canine model as a tool to better understand somatic variation with aging. Dogs allow a novel opportunity for scientists to investigate diseases and aging (Ruple et al., 2022). They are exposed to the same environment as humans and have many of the same naturally occurring diseases and extensive veterinary healthcare records (Hoffman et al., 2018). Dogs also age faster than humans (7-10x) and they live shorter, meaning that the effects of aging can be investigated in a more realistic timeframe (Hoffman et al., 2018). These factors make dogs a powerful tool to better understand the biology of aging and enable translational research.

Although domesticated dogs have existed for many thousands of years (Boyko, 2011), most of the among-breed variation has been shaped over the last 200 years. During this time, humans have artificially selected for specific behavioral and morphological traits (Lindblad-Toh et al., 2005). Dogs have more phenotypic variation than any other animal species, for example in size and behavior (Boyko et al., 2010). At the same time, this process of domestication has led to extreme variation in life expectancy and disease risk among breeds (Fleming et al., 2011 ; Kraus et al., 2013; Marsden et al., 2016 ; Rowell et al., 2011). Though unintentional, this breed-specific variation in disease risk makes it possible for us to assess the genetic underpinnings of canine disease and lifespan. In particular, the unique genetics of the dog has enabled us to identify many of the genetic variants associated with cancer, which is a leading cause of death in dog populations (e.g., Karlsson et al., 2013). This variation can also help us explore a key underlying genetic cause of disease in dogs and other species: age. As previous work suggests, the unique genetic architecture of dog breeds provides us with the ability to explore the underlying mechanisms that set the stage for the onset of disease (Davis & Ostrander, 2014).

We wanted to target early somatic mutations to see how they change with age in the blood of healthy dogs. Detecting these somatic mutations in healthy tissue has proven to be difficult because of how rare these mutations are (Vijg & Dong, 2020). When mutations are at low frequency the noise in sequencing is much greater than the signal, which leads to an overwhelming amount of false positives. However, cancer-linked mutations have been previously reported in blood in a subset of elderly individuals without cancer, a phenomenon referred to as clonal hematopoiesis of

indeterminant potential (CHIP) (Genovese et al., 2014; Jaiswal et al., 2014; Steensma et al., 2015; Xie et al., 2014). In one previous study of mutations associated with hematological malignancies in humans, detectable somatic mutations were found in young healthy individuals and then rose in frequency with age (Jaiswal et al., 2014). These studies were performed with conventional Next Generation Sequencing (NGS) workflows, which limits the practical detection of mutations to $\geq 2-5\%$. These modern sequencing platforms have an error rate on the order of ~ 1 in 500. However, the initial frequency of cancer mutations in healthy people will be low (Kakiuchi & Ogawa, 2021). To address this discrepancy, we utilized Duplex Sequencing (Kennedy et al., 2014; Schmitt et al., 2012) to identify somatic mutations in dogs. We relied on this more sensitive and accurate sequencing technology to filter out the noise of sequencing error which would overwhelm the underlying signal of rare but potentially pathogenic mutations, and results in an almost certain overestimation of the prevalence of these mutations (Salk et al., 2018). It is currently the most accurate sequencing method available and provides the ability to detect mutations at frequencies $< 10^{-7}$, two orders of magnitude lower than other high accuracy sequencing methods (Salk et al., 2018). This technique has been used to study mutations in multiple human tissues, including ovarian, breast, and cervical tissues of healthy people (Ahn et al., 2015; Krimmel et al., 2016; Salk et al., 2019). Prior studies using Duplex Sequencing have detected low frequency mutations in cancer driver genes and age-related clonal expansions in human samples (Matas et al., 2022, Ghezelayagh et al., 2022)

Although we are not focused primarily on disease, rather aging and somatic mutation, our ability to successfully use this technology to detect rare somatic mutations

in healthy dogs will pave the way for future studies to investigate how those mutations may impact disease risk. Clonal expansions have been proven to be associated with cancer driver mutations, even in non-cancerous tissue (Kakiuchi & Ogawa, 2021). Thus, we targeted multiple cancer-associated targets in our gene panel. Arguably, we could have chosen any genes to assess aging, but since our initial efforts were to identify differences in disease risk, we proceeded accordingly. Results from this work will bring us an important step closer to developing the dog as a powerful model to understand somatic mutations and aging.

We used Duplex Sequencing to quantify rare de novo somatic mutations in dog blood (Kennedy et al., 2014; Schmitt et al., 2015). We hypothesized that mutation frequency would increase with age. Previous studies have observed increased mutation frequency with age in human peripheral blood (Akiyama et al., 1995; Grist et al., 1992; Trainor et al., 1984). Additionally, previous Duplex Sequencing studies have found increased mutation frequency with age in mtDNA (Kennedy et al., 2013) and DNA in various organs (Salk et al., 2017). We investigate whether other variables such as breed, gene, and sex impact mutation frequency at different ages. While this paper is focused on aging rather than cancer, age is a risk factor for cancer and we sought to identify how mutations in cancer genes were changing over time, to identify the earliest stages of selected mutation. Lastly, we sought to investigate if there was evidence of an aging signature in dogs similar to the mutational signature that we see in human COSMIC data (Catalog of Somatic Mutations in Cancer (Alexandrov et al., 2018; Alexandrov et al., 2013; Alexandrov & Stratton, 2014). Testing this hypothesis allowed us not only to see if not only the presence and accumulation of mutations has increased

with age, but also to ask if there are age-related trends in the processes that underlie mutagenesis. This study tested the general hypothesis that somatic mutations, as measured by Duplex Sequencing, show an increase with age. We also hypothesized that genes associated with cancer might show relatively strong associations with age, due to positive selection on non-synonymous mutations, compared to genes not associated with cancer. Finally, we hypothesized that dogs would recapitulate the specific signature of mutations observed with age in humans such as SBS1 and SBS5. We assess the age-related impact of somatic mutation in a non-human model with a new sequencing technology that will allow us to better understand the accumulation of mutations in healthy individuals with age.

3.2 METHODS

3.2.1 *Source Population*

Our target population focused on eight dog breeds, including 20 Golden Retrievers, 12 Labrador Retrievers, 22 Boxers, 11 Samoyeds, 17 Alaskan Malamutes, 13 German Shepherds and 14 Dalmatians, ages 6 months to 15 years old. Body size can contribute significantly to differences in disease risk and longevity in canines (Yordy et al., 2020). Thus, we selected breeds that have relatively similar same body size and lifespan. The average lifespan for these breeds is about 10-13 years (Kraus et al., 2023). We had 50 males and 58 females, as well as one individual where sex was not recorded. This included 31 fixed and 26 intact females, as well as one where status was not recorded. This also included 21 fixed and 26 intact males, as well as three where status was not recorded.

We only recruited dogs who were healthy as far as the owners were aware. Dog owners were recruited through social media, dog shows, veterinary clinics, and dog social venues (play parks, dog-friendly businesses) in Washington, Oregon, Florida, Colorado and Idaho. Collection occurred over the course of 18 months. Advertisements were placed in vet clinics and through clinic email to owners of the target breeds, through social media, word of mouth, and direct contact by business owners. Additionally, several local and national breed clubs put out announcements to their membership, who in turn reached out to our team to volunteer. All the work described here was carried out under University of Washington IACUC approval (PROTO201600009 : 4359-02: Healthy Aging in Companion Dogs, approved 2019/03/05, refer to supplement to see IACUC and consent form).

3.2.2 *Blood Sample Collection and Quality Control*

After recruitment, blood was drawn by licensed veterinarians or veterinary technicians on site. Blood was collected one time from a peripheral vein (cephalic, jugular or saphenous according to phlebotomist preference) of each unsedated dog using a needle and syringe. About 10mL of blood was collected for each dog and stored in EDTA on ice for up to 48 hours. Samples were prepared as they arrived in the lab, with most samples delivered within a few hours of collection and few samples received within 24-48 hours of collection. Prior to the start of the bulk of our collection, as quality control to determine whether delivery time impacted DNA quality, blood was prepared (as described in the next section) at both 24 and 48 hours from blood collection time. The samples were then tested for DNA quality using Agilent 4200 Genomic TapeStation

tapes. Our results showed that blood taken from both time periods had quality DNA (DIN scores >9).

3.2.3 *DNA Isolation and Sample Preparation*

After collection, all blood samples were delivered to the Promislow lab at the University of Washington on ice and kept at 4° C. Upon receipt, samples were centrifuged in SepMate-15 tubes with Lymphoprep density gradient medium according to manufacturer's protocols (StemCell Technologies) to isolate peripheral blood mononuclear cells. Cells were washed 2 times in 2% FBS-PBS solution in 15mL conical tubes. We counted the extracted cells in a hemocytometer and considered a minimum of 1 million cells/mL sufficient to proceed with DNA extraction. DNA isolation was performed by adding about 2 million cells (or 2mL) to spin columns using the Zymo Quick-DNA/RNA Microprep Plus Kit D7005 (Zymo Research, Lot ZRC204206). DNA was quantified using Qubit dsDNA HS Assay Kit (ThermoFisher Scientific, Lot Q32854).

3.2.4 *Probe Design*

We sought to identify somatic mutations in each of seven genes, including *PTEN*, *EZH2*, *FBXW7*, *POT1*, *TRAF3*, *SETD2*, *KRAS*, and *RHO* (See Supplementary Table 1). All genes were selected because of their previous mention in the literature in relation to dog and human lymphoma which was the initial disease we were looking to investigate before we decided to have this paper focus on aging (Morin et al., 2010, McDonald et al., 2018, Smith et al., 2020, Fanelli et al., 2022, Coyle et al., 2022). *RHO* was selected as a control gene as it should not be selected for after the development of the eye. For each gene, we designed probes targeting the coding exons, using the CanFam3.1 dog

genome assembly (Integrated DNA Technologies, 2022), making a total of 289 probes (Supplementary Table 1). These probes (~29kb gene panel) were pooled at a concentration of 0.75pmol/ μ L in TE.

3.2.5 *Library Preparation*

To prepare libraries for each sample, 500ng of genomic DNA were prepared using the commercially available Duplex Sequencing Kit (TwinStrand Biosciences, Seattle, WA), following manufacturer's instructions. Sonication, end-repair, A-tailing and ligation to Duplex Adapters were performed. After PCR, a capture was performed with two consecutive hybridizations of our probe panel. We used the Agilent 4200 TapeStation with HS D1000 tapes for library fragment size confirmation. DNA quantification of libraries was performed with Qubit dsDNA HS Assay kit (ThermoFisher Scientific).

3.2.6 *Sequencing*

Indexed libraries were pooled and sequenced on an Illumina NovaSeq6000 with 150 paired-end reads at Azenta Life Sciences (South Plainfield, NJ) and UW Medicine Virology (Seattle, WA). Approximately 80,000,000 read-pairs were allocated per sample. Sequencing reads were processed using Duplex Sequencing pipeline for error correction (v2.1.3); [GitHub - Kennedy-Lab-UW/Duplex-Seq-Pipeline: A standalone end-to-end data analysis pipeline for Duplex Sequencing](#)) and analyzed as described previously (Kennedy et al., 2014). VariantCall Format (VCF) files were converted to MAF files, which were then post processed with R version 4.1.2.

3.2.7 *Mutational Analysis*

For each sample, mutation frequency was calculated by dividing the number mutations in that sample by the total number of Duplex nucleotides sequenced. Mutation burden was calculated by summing the number of mutant duplex reads at that site and dividing by the total number of Duplex nucleotides sequenced at that site. Each duplex read corresponds to an original DNA molecule and thus mutation burden informs about the number of different mutations identified as well as the size of the clones. Large clones were defined as clones which had 2 or more duplex reads, and large clone mutation frequency was calculated by dividing the number of mutations present as large clones by the number of nucleotides sequenced. SNPs were filtered by removing variants with a variant allele frequency higher than 0.4. Our target for mean coding depth per dog was 6,000x, and all samples met this target except nine which were excluded. Single mutations with a depth below 1000x were also excluded from our analysis. Mutational analysis was performed in R (version 4.2.0) and packages used are listed in Supplementary Table 3.

3.2.8 *Mutational Signature analysis*

To test for the presence of specific mutational signatures, we first queried human Catalogue of Somatic Mutations in Cancer (COSMIC) data (Tate et al., 2019) (v95, accessed on May 15th, 2023). Mutational signature analysis was performed with SigFit (Kucab et al., 2019). Our methods were adapted from previous literature, with the following changes: (1) Instead of just looking for COSMIC SBS1, we also looked for SBS5 as another age-related signature, and (2) Our list of contexts incorporated the number of duplex reads covering each context, instead of merely the number of

positions in the target region of CanFam3 that covered each context (Cagan et al., 2022). Specifically, we selected SBS1 and SBS5 because of their known association to with aging (Alexandrov et al., 2015).

3.2.9 *Statistical Analysis*

When looking at single predictors, we used non-parametric models, which do not make any assumptions about the nature of the frequency distributions of the data. For cases where we wanted to explore multiple predictors there is not a non-parametric option, and so we used linear regression models. I was interested in comparing models with age, gene and breed and the interactions between these variables so all of these models went into the common framework of a linear regression. We analyzed the effect of age, gene, breed, sex and intact status on mutation frequency and mutation burden using general linear models. Total mutation frequency and mutation burden were square-root transformed to allow the data to satisfy the assumptions of normality needed in our model. Tests for specific genes or specific mutation types were done with a Spearman's correlation. Some of our measures of mutation frequency were zero inflated including those for *KRAS*, *PTEN* and for large clone data. In these cases, we converted clone frequency to a binary 'presence/absence' variable, treating any non-zero mutation frequencies as having values of 1 (i.e., mutations present), and applied logistic regression. All multiple comparison data was corrected using the Bonferroni correction method.

3.3 RESULTS

3.3.1 *Sample Sequencing Data*

Blood was collected from 109 dogs and DNA was extracted from peripheral blood monocytes. In total we analyzed genomic data from 19 Golden Retrievers, 12 Labrador Retrievers, 21 Boxers, 11 Samoyeds, 10 Alaskan Malamutes, 13 German Shepherds and 14 Dalmatians. PBMC DNA was analyzed with Duplex Sequencing using a panel of 8 genes (see section 3.2.4 in Methods). After filtering out samples with a sequencing depth lower than 6000x, 9 dogs were removed from our data. In total, data was comprised of 100 dogs, with an average depth of 11030x (± 2017.7 S.D.), (absolute minimum 6157x, maximum 15252x) (Figure 1).

3.3.2 *Effect of Age on Mutation Frequency and Mutation Burden*

Across all genes and all dogs, the mean coding mutation frequency was 1.8×10^{-7} ($\pm 7.4 \times 10^{-8}$ S.D.) across all samples. The mean coding mutation burden was 2.06×10^{-7} ($\pm 1.34 \times 10^{-7}$) across all samples. We next determined the effect of age on mutation frequency and mutation burden. After square-root transforming MF and MB to meet the assumptions of normality essential for a linear model, we found that both coding mutation frequency and coding mutation burden increased significantly with age ($F_{1,98} = 18.39$, $P < 4.2 \times 10^{-5}$; $F_{1,98} = 18.68$, $P < 3.7 \times 10^{-5}$, respectively) (Figure 2). For non-coding sequences, mutation frequency increased significantly with age ($F_{1,98} = 4.17$, $P = .044$) (Supplementary Figure 2).

We next sought to determine if the effects of age on mutation frequency and burden differed among genes and among breeds. We first examined the effect of breed.

In a linear model that included effects of age, breed, and the interaction between the two on coding mutation frequency, neither breed nor age-by-breed interaction were significant ($P > 0.05$) (Figure 3). For the specific breeds examined here, we do not see differences in mean mutation among breeds, nor do we detect variation in the rate at which mutations accumulate with age.

We next asked if mutation rates differ among genes. We first removed KRAS and PTEN, as the mutation frequency in these genes was considerably lower than in all other genes, with large numbers of zeros (see above). In a linear model that included age, gene and the interaction between the two, we found significant differences in mutation frequency among genes ($F_{5,581} = 7.04$, $P = 2.1 \times 10^{-6}$), but no evidence in support of an interaction effect, testing the hypothesis that the effect of age on mutation frequency differed among genes ($F_{5,576} = 7.04$, $P > 0.05$). Next, we performed a Spearman's correlation to look at our data from specific genes. Figure 4a shows a significant effect of age on four of the eight genes we examined, with our raw p-values including *EZH2* (Spearman's $\rho = 0.35$, $P = 0.00033$), *FBXW7* (Spearman's $\rho = 0.29$, $P = 0.0034$), *SETD2* (Spearman's $\rho = 0.26$, $P = 0.0088$) and *TRAF3* (Spearman's $\rho = 0.36$, $P = 0.00027$). These trends were significant even after multiple comparison correction for the 6 genes. Similarly, for mutation burden we observed a significant effect of gene ($F_{5,581} = 5.16$, $P < 0.0001$) but did not observe a significant age-by-gene interaction was not ($F_{5,576} = 1.196$, $P > 0.05$).

To address the large number of 0 values in PTEN and KRAS, we carried out a logistic regression to examine the effects of age in the presence of mutations. We found that mutation presence in KRAS increased with age ($z = 2.1$, $P = 0.037$), while age did

not have a significant effect on PTEN mutations ($z = 0.02$, $P > 0.05$) (Figure 4b). Finally, we asked whether the load of mutations varied by sex or sterilization status in this population. Neither factor influenced either mutation frequency or mutation burden ($P > 0.05$ in all cases).

3.3.3 *Large Clone Mutation Analysis*

To better understand clonal expansion of our mutations, we next wanted to test how the presence of large clones (mutations with 2 or more reads) changed with age. Large clones were relatively rare, such that for most genes, most individuals had a value of 0. Accordingly, we used a logistic regression model to test for the effect of age on presence of large clones. We found that large clone mutation presence increased significantly with age ($z = 2.56$, $P = 0.011$) (Figure 5a). An ANOVA of the logistic model of age and gene showed a significant difference among genes in the mean level of large clones ($F_{7,779} = 4.1$, $P = 0.0002$), although there was not a significant gene-by-age interaction ($F_{7,772} = 1.75$, $P > 0.05$) (Figure 5b).

3.3.4 *Mutation Type Analysis*

We categorized coding mutations into five mutation types, including indel, missense, nonsense, silent and splice site mutations. We then compared the different types of mutations among three distinct age bins of dogs, including young (less than 4 years old), adolescent (greater than 4 or equal to 8 years), and adult (8 years or older) (Figure 6a). We also visualized proportion of different mutation types across different breeds by age bracket (Supplementary Figure 3). Figure 6b shows the proportion of mutation type by gene. To test for differences among genes in the distribution of

mutation types, we performed a Fisher's exact test. The relative frequency of different mutation types was significantly more different among genes than we would expect by chance ($P = 0.0005$) (See Supplementary Figure 4).

We sought to determine which, if any, mutation types increased with age. We created a vector for mutation type frequency that included the total sum of that mutation type in that individual, divided by the total nucleotides sequenced. Figure 6c shows the distribution of mutation frequency data by mutation type. Using a general linear model, we found that the frequency of all mutation types increased significantly with age (Figure 6d). Indels were most significantly increasing with age (Spearman's $\rho = 0.4$, $P = 3.5 \times 10^{-5}$) followed by: silent mutations (Spearman's $\rho = 0.37$, $P = 0.00014$), missense mutations (Spearman's $\rho = 0.33$, $P = 0.00078$), splice site mutations (Spearman's $\rho = 0.3$, $P = 0.0022$), and nonsense mutations (Spearman's $\rho = 0.25$, $p = 0.014$). These data were significant even after multiple comparison correction.

3.3.5 *Mutational Signature Analysis*

Next, we wanted to look at the effect of age on mutational spectra and mutational signatures. Figure 7a shows the normalized frequency of mutations by spectra (by trinucleotide context), organized by age bracket. Visual inspection of this figure highlighted a particularly strong pattern of mutations, including C→T mutations, resembling a mutational signature known as SBS1 which is caused by the spontaneous deamination of 5-methylcytosine (COSMIC). We next looked at how mutation spectra changed with age using Spearman's correlation and found that three of the mutation spectra increased significantly with age including C→T ($\rho = 0.63$, $P = 2.9 \times 10^{-12}$), T→A ($\rho = 0.37$, $P = 6 \times 10^{-4}$) and T→C ($\rho = 0.42$, $p = 4.7 \times 10^{-5}$). We extracted two signatures

from our mutational data (coding and non-coding) including of SBS1 and SBS5 which are both known clock-like signatures (Alexandrov et al., 2015). We found that both SBS1 and SBS5 mutations signatures increased with age in both mutation count ($F_{2,215} = 36.86$, $P = 1.99 \times 10^{-8}$) and proportion ($F_{2,215} = 3.4$, $P = 0.00083$) respectively (Figure 7c).

3.4 DISCUSSION

Duplex Sequencing is highly sensitive and thus able to detect low frequency somatic mutations in healthy individuals (Kennedy et al., 2014; Schmitt et al., 2012). This technology has the potential to help scientists better investigate and identify extremely rare somatic mutations. Through studying how these mutations change with age, we could potentially better understand their association with disease risk, predisposition and preventative medicine.

This study varies from others that utilize Duplex Sequencing in that we used the DNA from dog peripheral blood monocytes. As mentioned earlier, dogs provide a powerful tool to better understand aging and somatic mutation. These mutational patterns may take decades to pick up on in humans, with differences not being as clear or distinct human to human as they would be when comparing individuals in different breeds. The reasons for this are due to the genetic similarity within breeds, as well as the short lifespan of a canine versus a human. Thus, the identification of aging-related increase in mutations in dogs could later be investigated in human populations to help us understand the genetics of aging.

Modern sequencing efforts have changed the way scientists measure somatic mutations. Before large-scale gene sequencing began, somatic mutations were hard to

detect unless they had significantly clonally expanded. Thus, identifying mutations in healthy tissue was a difficult task. Duplex Sequencing has improved our ability to detect somatic mutations in healthy tissue that otherwise would be lost in the noise of standard NGS sequencing, as explained above.

One of the most profound results of this study shows that mutation frequency increases significantly with age. Our data also show that mutation burden and the presence of large clones is increasing with age. This is consistent with previous studies that show evidence of clonal expansion in healthy tissues (Kakiuchi & Ogawa, 2021). Though some genes have a higher baseline mutation frequency, our cross-sectional data are consistent with a model that mutations in different genes accumulate at a constant rate, however no one gene is accumulating mutations faster. Additionally, there is not sufficient evidence to suggest that there are breed-specific differences in mutation rates in the genes investigated. Initially, this study sought to investigate whether there were breed-specific differences in the rate of mutation of these genes. We had hypothesized that the cancer risk differences that are recorded/known for these breeds could potentially be explained by differences in mutation accumulation in our selected genes. Our data, however, do not support this hypothesis. It is possible that other genes that are associated with lymphoma could be selected. Initially, RHO was selected as our control gene because we do not expect there to be selection for it to change with age, as it usually functions early in the development of the eye. Our data show the frequency of mutations in RHO increase with age, which is consistent with the idea that the mutation frequency increases with age even in genes that are not oncogenes or tumor suppressor genes.

Even though certain breeds and certain genes may be more mutated than others we do not have enough evidence to suggest that mutations are accrued faster in some breeds or some genes. Thus, no breed or gene is accumulating mutations faster than another. However, it is important to note that our dogs were mostly above the age of 1, except for two dogs aged 0.50 and 0.88 years. Dog biologists suggest that by the age of one year, most dogs are already adults (Da Costa et al., 2022). It is possible that during the first year of a dog's life, there are certain patterns in mutation accumulation across these genes and breeds that we are unable to detect in dogs mostly above the age of one. Future studies should focus on mutation phenomena in very young dogs under the age of one. Expanding the age range would be particularly informative for studies assessing underlying genetic factors that contribute to differences in disease risk in dogs.

Our data not only showed that total coding mutation frequency increases significantly with age, but also that certain mutation types increase significantly with age, most notably C→T mutations. These mutations occur at CpG sites, and are known to be associated with aging. C→T mutations are highly associated with aging and various mutational signatures (Alexandrov et al., 2013). Previous papers have suggested that the mutagenic exposures and certain abnormal cell processes can be detected through the analysis of mutational signatures (Alexandrov et al., 2015; Alexandrov et al., 2018; Alexandrov et al., 2013; Alexandrov & Stratton, 2014). Mutational signature analysis allows us to analyze the biological processes that caused these somatic mutations. Thus, a mutational signature can explain the underlying molecular process that led to the mutation. Mutational signature analysis allows us to

identify these signatures in our mutational data (Alexandrov et al., 2013). We investigated the presence of SBS1 and SBS5, both mutational signatures that are characterized as “clock-like signatures” in the COSMIC database (Alexandrov et al., 2015). Mutations with these signatures are associated with age, and many cancers. We saw an increase with age in SBS1, which is known as the clock-like signature of aging associated with deamination of 5-methylcytosine, and an increase in SBS5 which is also categorized as age-associated, though the underlying molecular change is unknown. It is however important to note that while dogs and humans have highly orthologous genomes, COSMIC data are based on analysis of human cancers.

Ongoing efforts to characterize and sequence canine cancers will undoubtedly lead to more comprehensive canine cancer databases and a better understanding of mutational signatures, enabling more in-depth analysis of the underlying cause of mutagenesis in dogs. Additionally, most signature decomposition analysis occurs on whole genome or whole exome data, not targeted genes as we used in this study. Our use of a very limited panel of genes is due to the high sequencing demands of Duplex Sequencing. A main requirement to perform mutational signature analysis is a large number of mutations per sample (>200) (Koh et al., 2021). While our study with Duplex Sequencing identified an average of about 61 mutations per sample, those mutations corresponded to a very small portion of the dog genome (approximately 29KB of the 2.4GB dog genome). To properly determine the mutational signatures involved it is critical to consider the sequence composition and the selective effects operating in the target genes. Additional computational efforts are needed. In short, future research efforts could significantly improve the analysis and interpretation of signatures by

targeting more mutations and relying on mutational signatures previously identified in the dog. Mutational signature analysis is particularly relevant to our dog model, as dogs are exposed to the same environments as humans and there are many signatures that explain/encode environmental mutagens. The investigation of mutational signatures in dogs could shed light on environmental determinants of cancer as well as other processes associated with disease risk.

There are numerous potential caveats to the work we have presented here. First, the analysis we present here is based on a cross-sectional cohort. Longitudinal study of the same individuals throughout the course of their lifespan would provide a more powerful way to investigate mutation accumulation. This is because it is likely that different individuals start out with a different baseline mutation count, which may change with age differently from another individual. By using cross-sectional data we are assuming that individuals in the same breed age similarly, thus relying on the homogeneity of individuals in the same breed when comparing young dogs to older dogs. It would be much better to do a longitudinal study where we follow individuals over their entire lifespan. We also have no way of knowing if the dogs we studied will eventually get sick, which would be possible with longitudinal data. Additionally, there is no way to know what potentially mutagenic exposures different individuals have been subject to that may make some individuals in the same breed have completely different mutational backgrounds, as mutagenic exposure data are unavailable. Also, we rely on the owner's reporting of the dog's health. The individuals in the study could have cancer or precancer that is not yet detected. This would be particularly informative for studies

assessing underlying genetic factors that contribute to differences in disease risk in dogs.

It is possible that the differences in mutation accumulation that explain variation in disease risk are caused by other genes, non-mutational processes (ie: epigenetic), or are clearer when comparing other breeds or younger dogs. The breeds we selected are of similar size (relative to the huge range observed in the species) and have relatively similar life expectancies (though they do differ considerably in frequency of at least some kinds of cancer). Future studies will benefit from analyzing somatic mutations in dogs of very different life expectancies, to test the idea that shorter-lived dogs might have higher rates of accumulation of somatic mutations as was done in Cagan et al., 2022. If so, it would be an excellent opportunity to identify the mechanisms that might underlie this variation. Next, it is possible that with these sample sizes, we don't have sufficient power to detect subtle differences in rate of mutation accumulation across breeds or genes. Future studies should investigate these potential underlying mechanisms of somatic mutation accumulation. And finally, the power of Duplex Sequencing lies in part in our ability to sequence a single gene at extreme depth. The trade-off is that we are only able to analyze a handful of genes. Other genes in the genome might show clear among-breed differences in mutation frequency. Our initial goal, as stated above, was to assess risk differences in lymphoma, and so our target genes were selected because of their association with cancer. Future studies should look at other target genes associated with aging and more neutral areas of the genome, to get a better understanding of age-related mutational patterns and selection.

This project incorporated a new technology and a new non-human model to better understand somatic mutations and how they change with age. This paper marks the first of what are likely many to come that investigate mutations in dogs using Duplex Sequencing methods. We are confident that future research will help scientists answer some of the most long-awaited questions about mutational processes, predisposition and translational models.

3.5 FIGURES

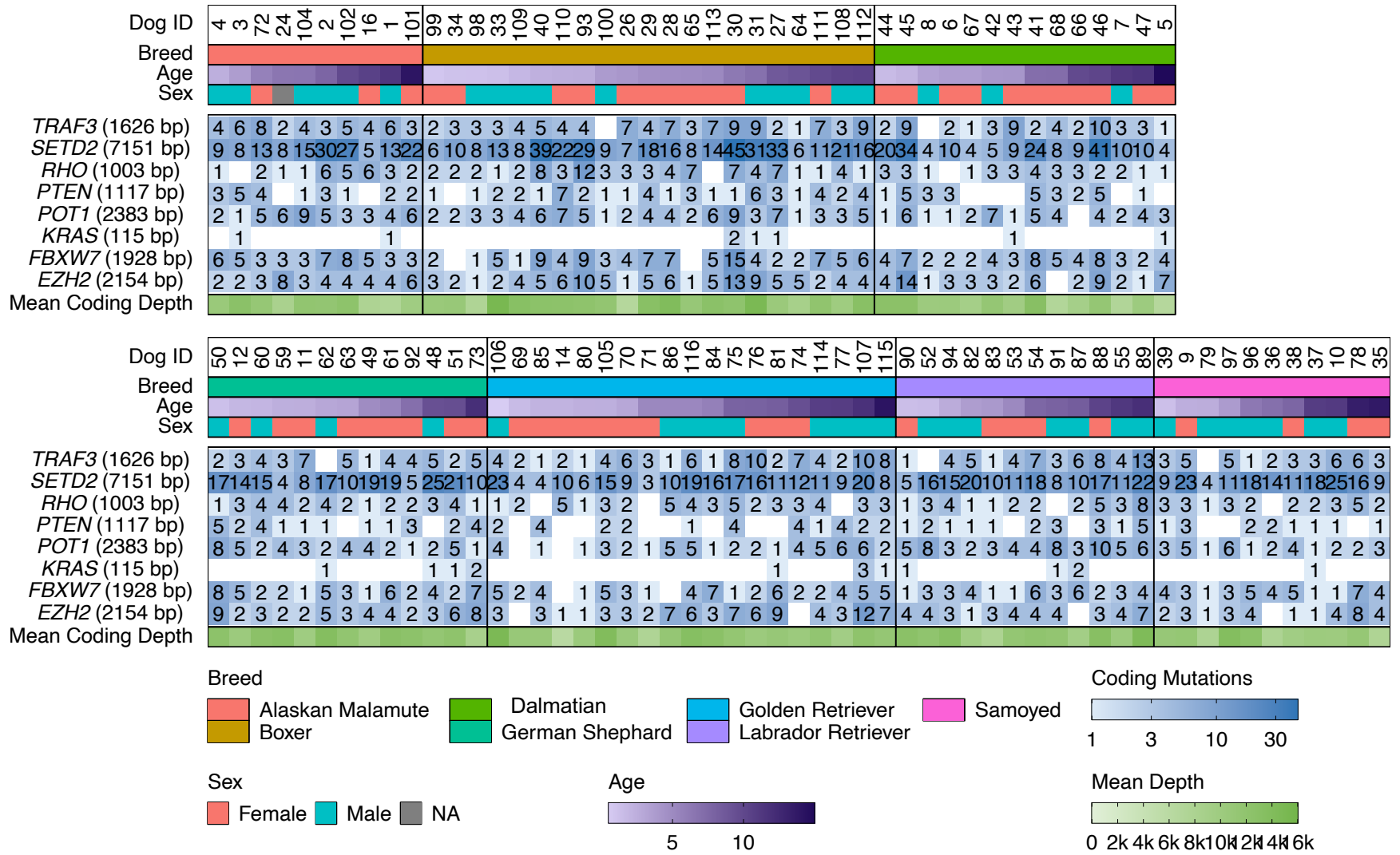


Figure 1. Demographic information and basic sequencing data for 109 dogs. Individual dog information including breed, age and sex, including sequencing data. Lower portions of the figure show per-gene mutation count and homogeneity of duplex sequencing depth across sampled individual.

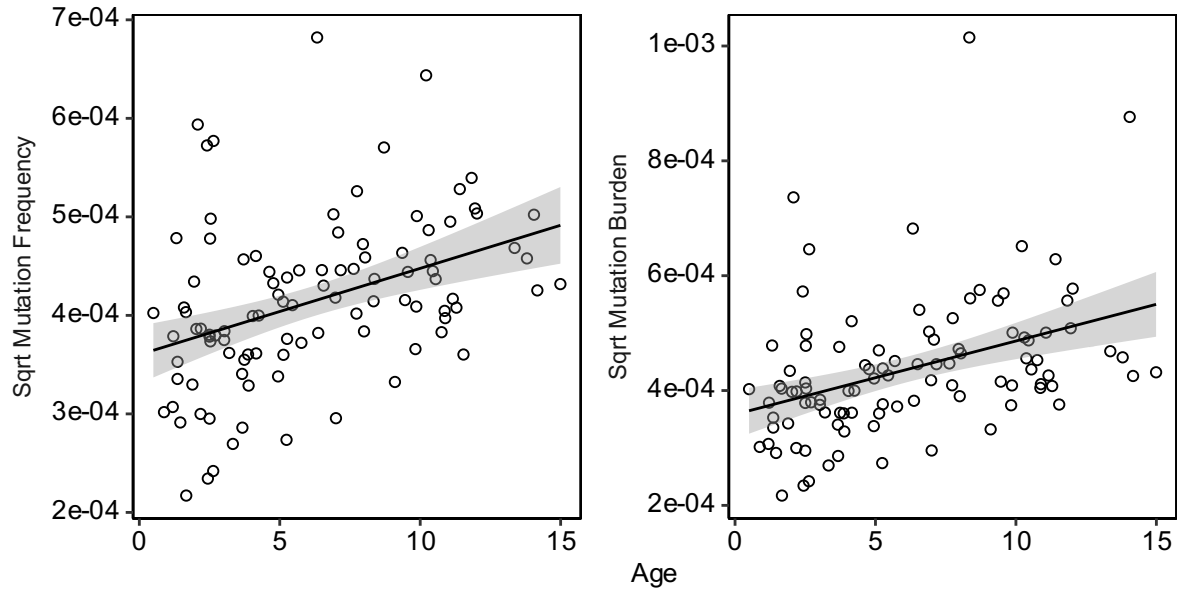


Figure 2. Coding mutation frequency and mutation burden by age in 109 dogs.

There is an age-related increase in both coding mutation frequency ($F_{1,98} = 18.39$, $P < 4.2 \times 10^{-5}$) and coding mutation burden ($F_{1,98} = 18.68$, $P < 3.7 \times 10^{-5}$).

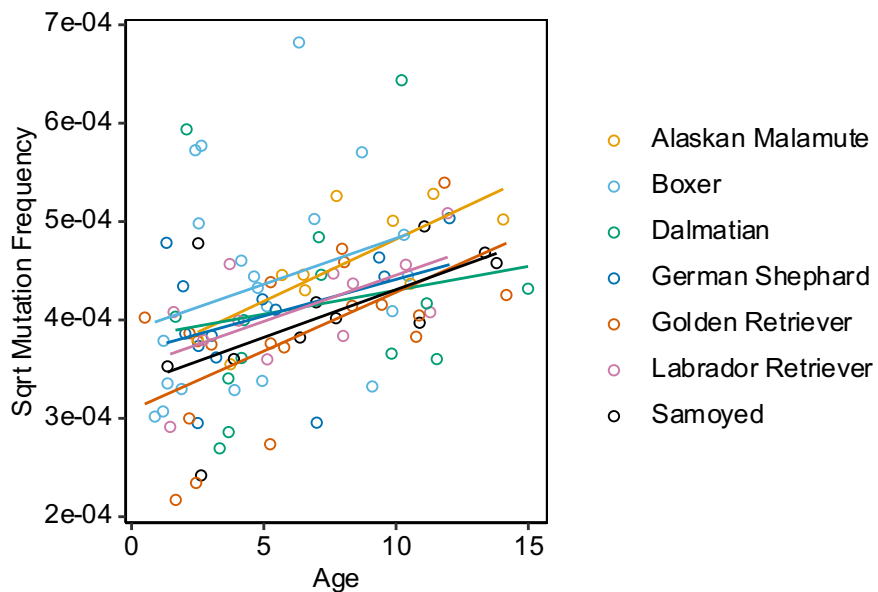


Figure 3. Effect of breed on mutation frequency.

There is effect of age on coding mutation frequency, but we see no effect of breed ($F_{6,86} = 1.53$, $P > 0.05$) or breed-by-age interaction ($F_{6,86} = 1.53$, $P > 0.05$).

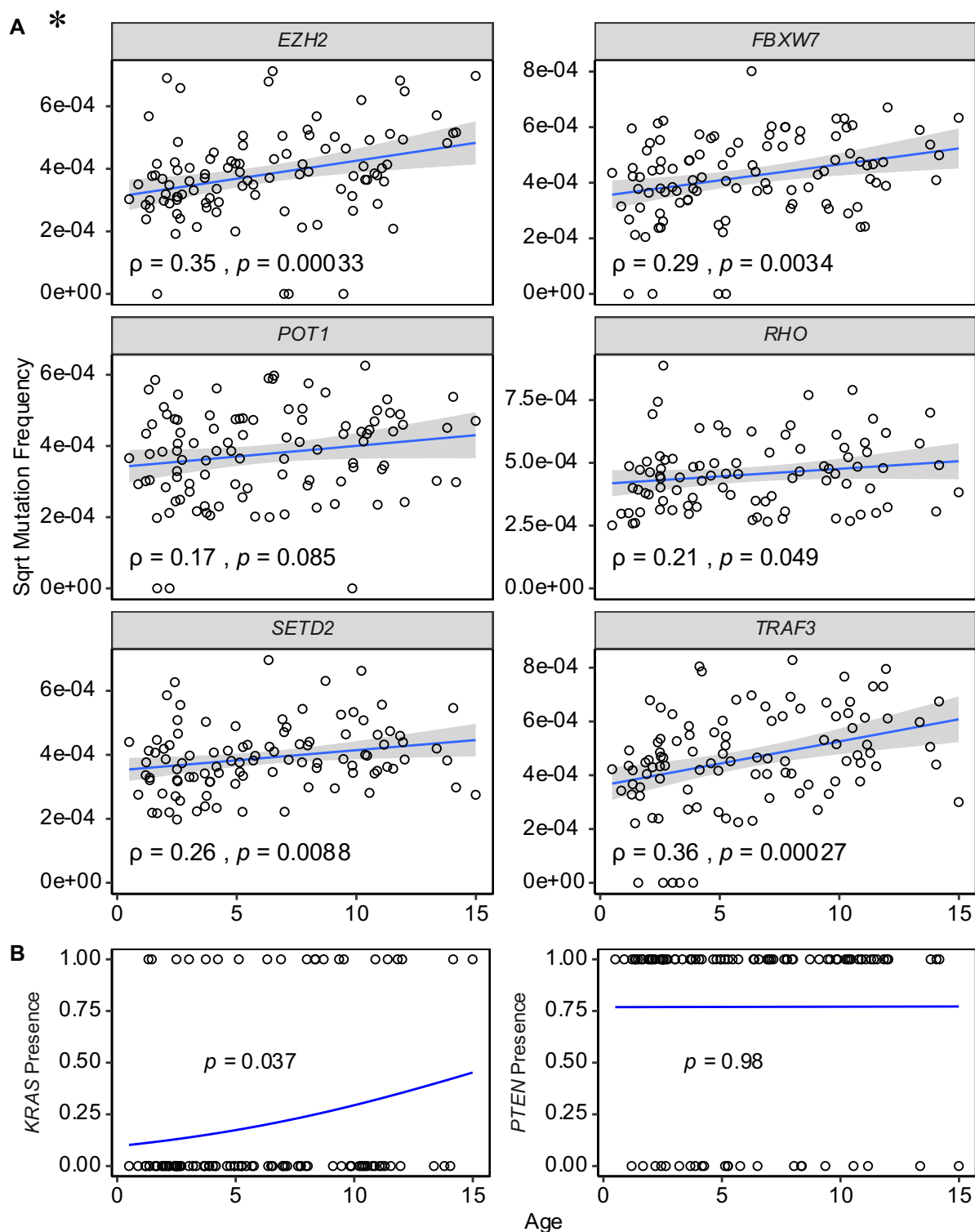


Figure 4. Effect of gene on mutation frequency with age.

A) For each gene, the linear regression of mutation frequency by age is shown. KRAS and PTEN data contained many zeros and were treated as qualitative variables (see panel B). B) Logistic regression of KRAS and PTEN showed that the mutations in both genes significantly increase with age. ($z = 2.1$, $P = 0.04$) and ($z = 0.02$, $P > 0.05$), respectively.

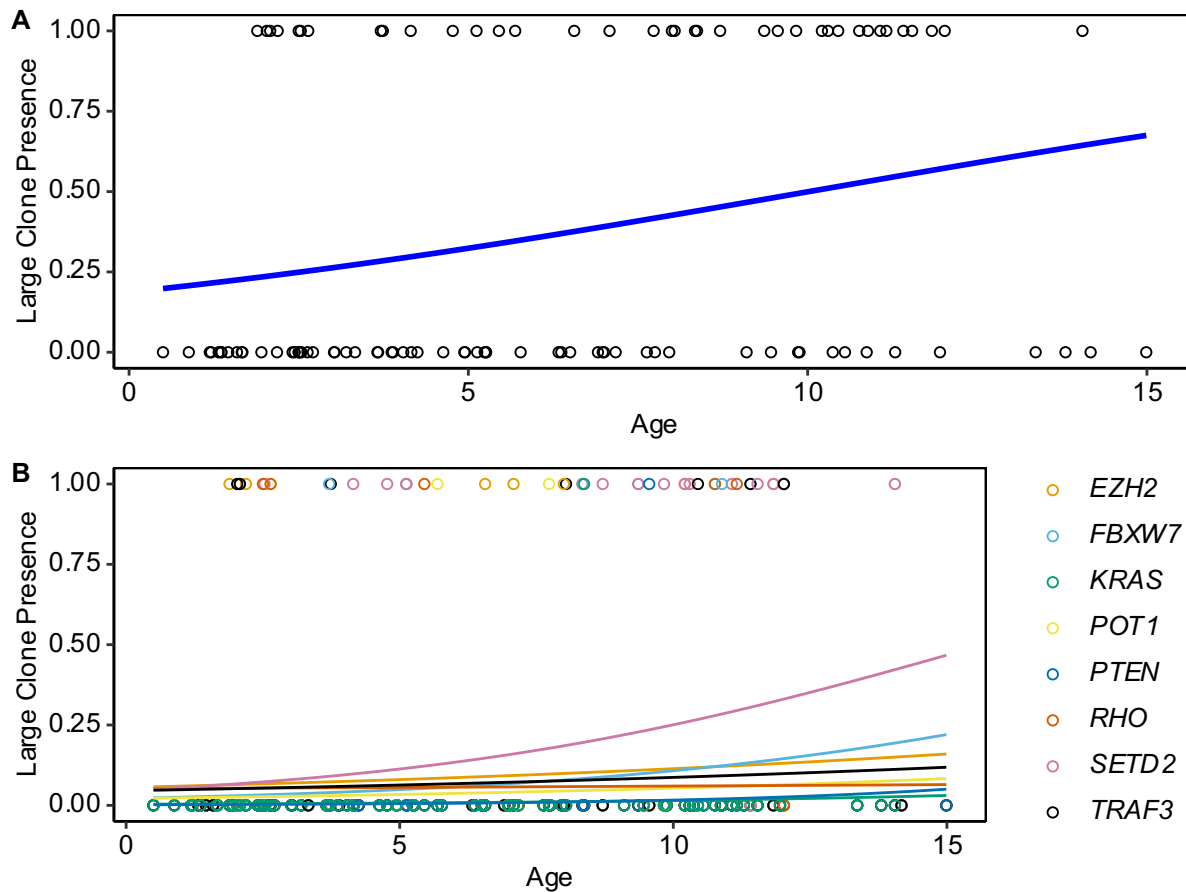


Figure 5. Logistic model of presence of large clone mutation frequency and age.

A) Large clone mutation presence increases significantly with age ($z = 2.56$, $P = 0.011$). B) There is also a significant effect of gene on mutation frequency ($F_{7,779} = 4.1$, $P = 0.0002$), but there is no significant age by gene interaction ($F_{7,772} = 1.75$, $P > 0.05$).

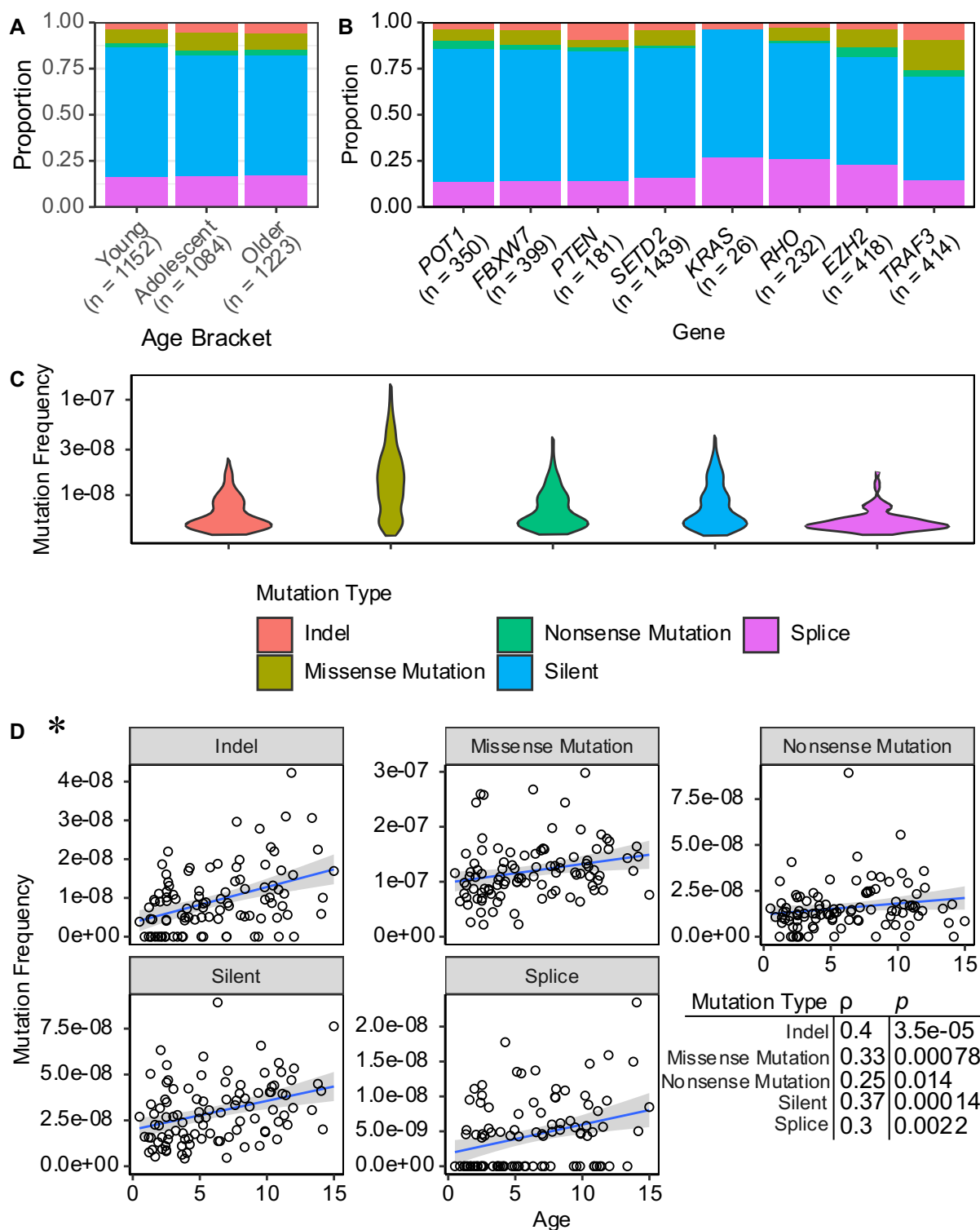


Figure 6. Mutation type analysis.

A) Mutation type by age bracket: young (0-4), adolescent (>4-8) and older (>8). B) Mutation type distribution by gene. The relative frequency of different mutation types was significantly more different among genes than we would expect by chance ($P = 0.0005$). C) Different mutation types have varying frequencies and distributions. D) All mutation types increase significantly with age.

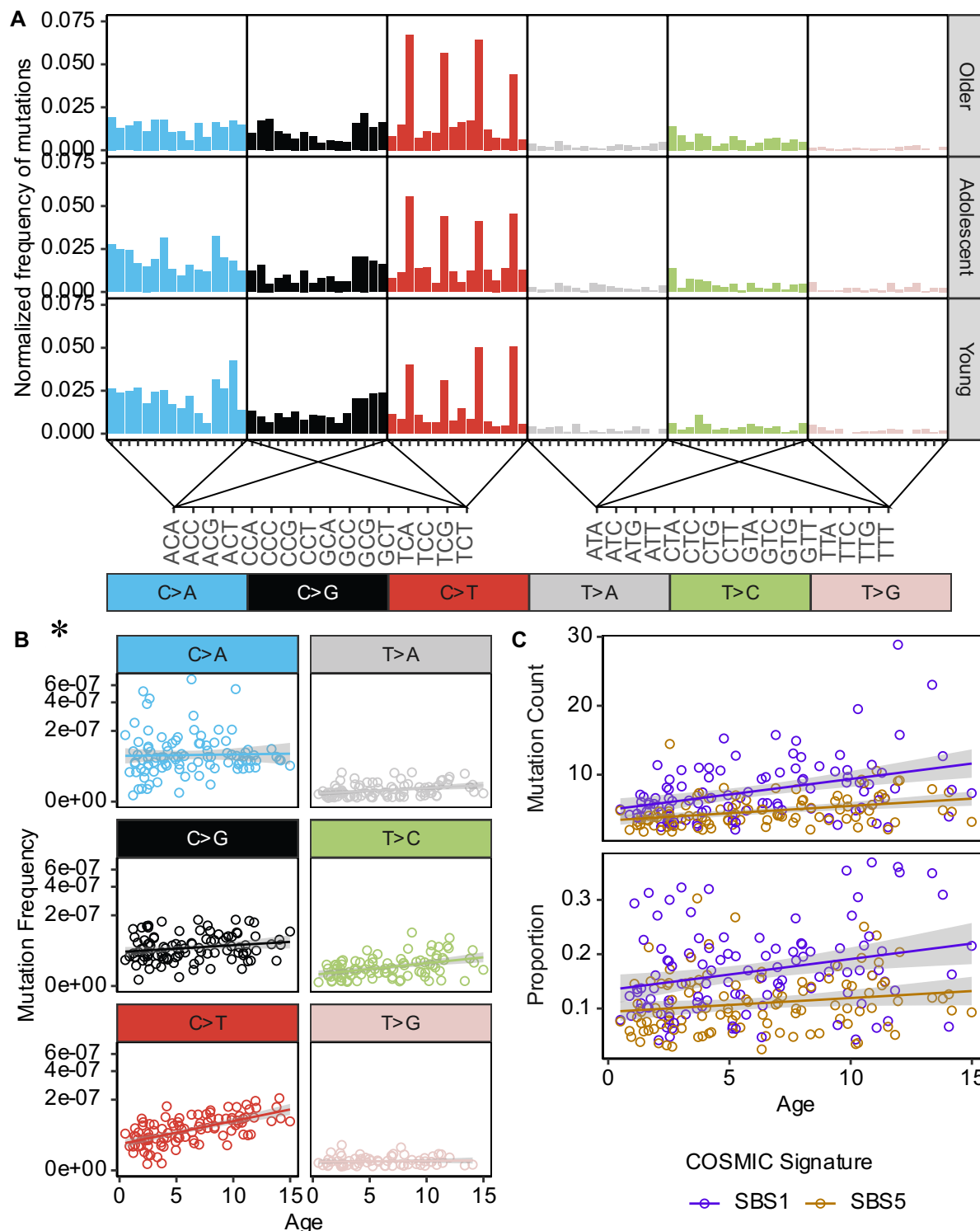
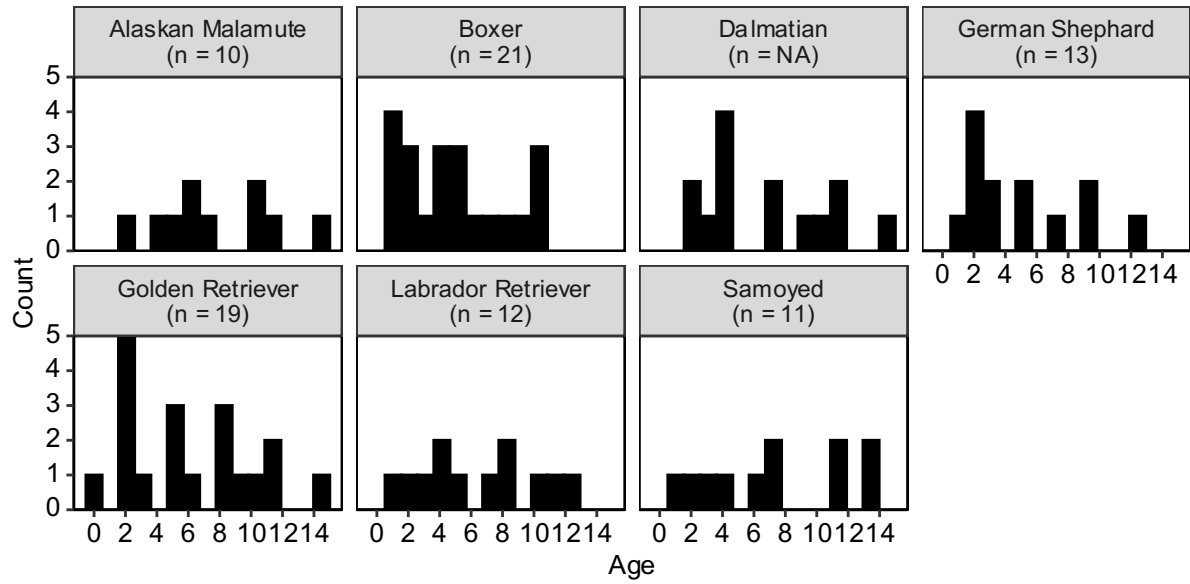


Figure 7. Mutational spectra and mutational signature analysis.

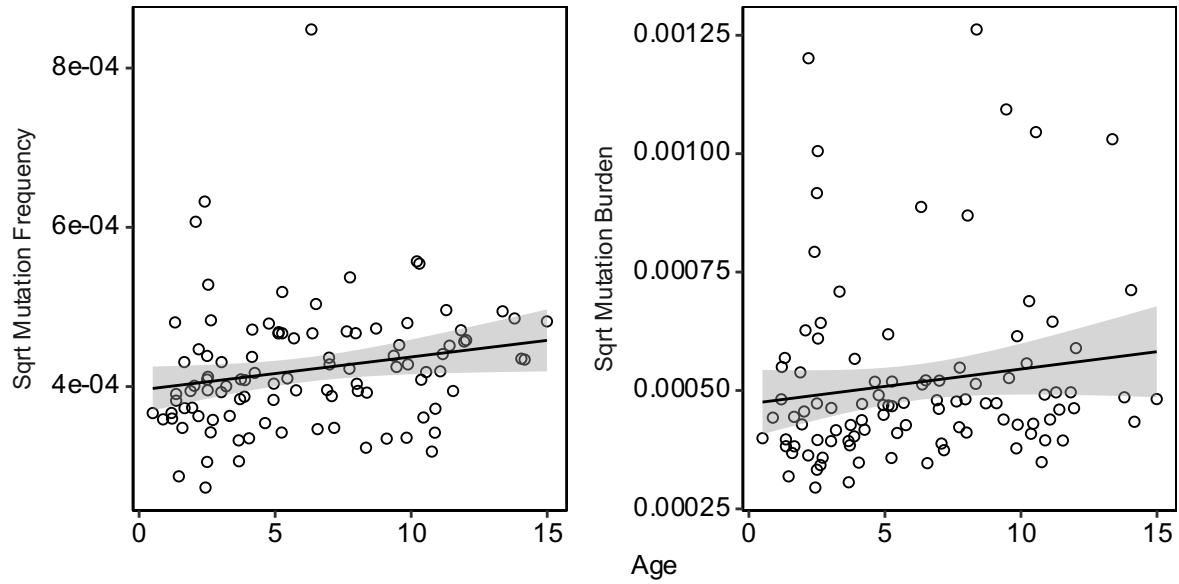
A) The normalized frequency of mutations each spectra for each trinucleotide context by age bracket. B) The increase in mutation frequency with age varies by spectra. C>T, T>A and T>C mutations are significantly increasing with age. C) Both SBS1 and SBS5 mutational signatures increase with age both in ($F_{2,215} = 36.86$, $P = 1.99 \times 10^{-8}$) and proportion ($F_{2,215} = 3.4$, $P = 0.00083$).

3.6 SUPPLEMENTARY FIGURES



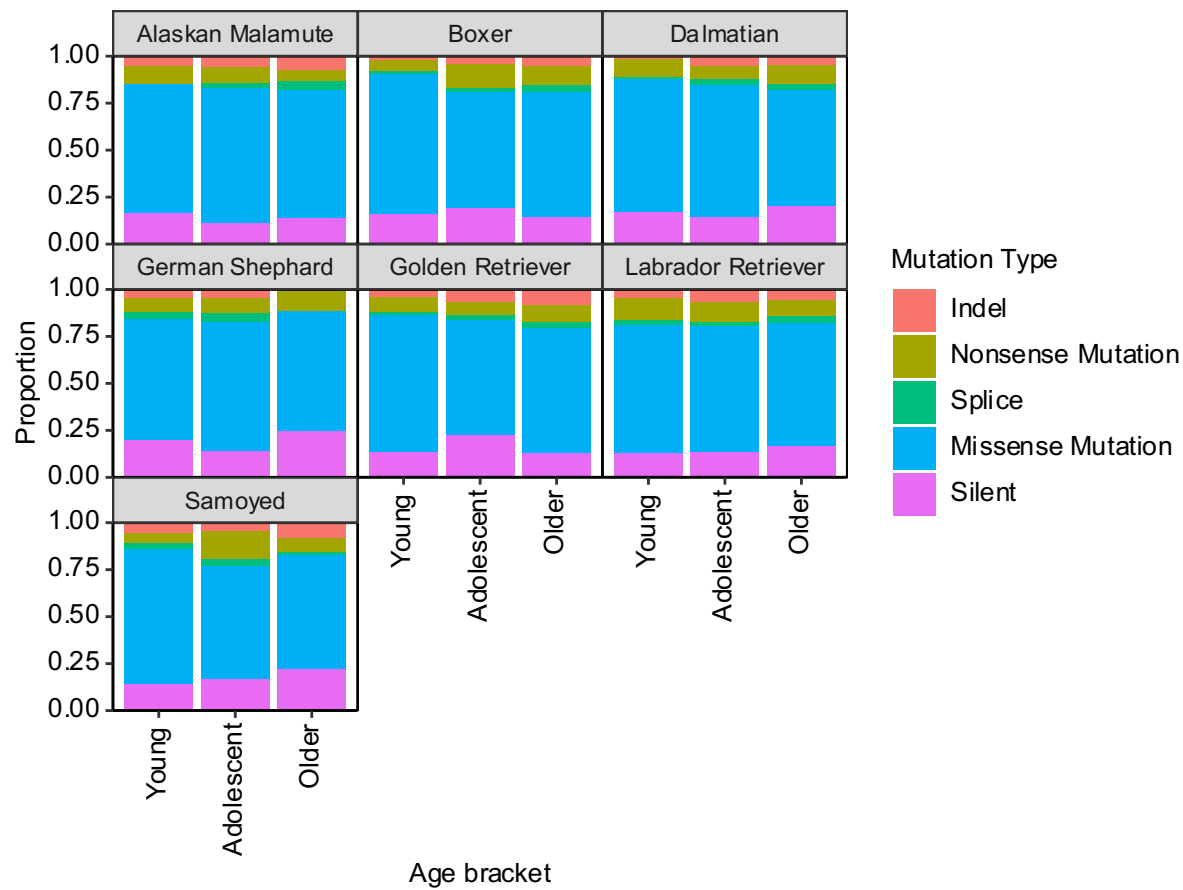
Supplementary Figure 5. Age distributions

Age histograms for study cohort, showing the distribution of ages from 6 months to 15 years old in seven different dog breeds.



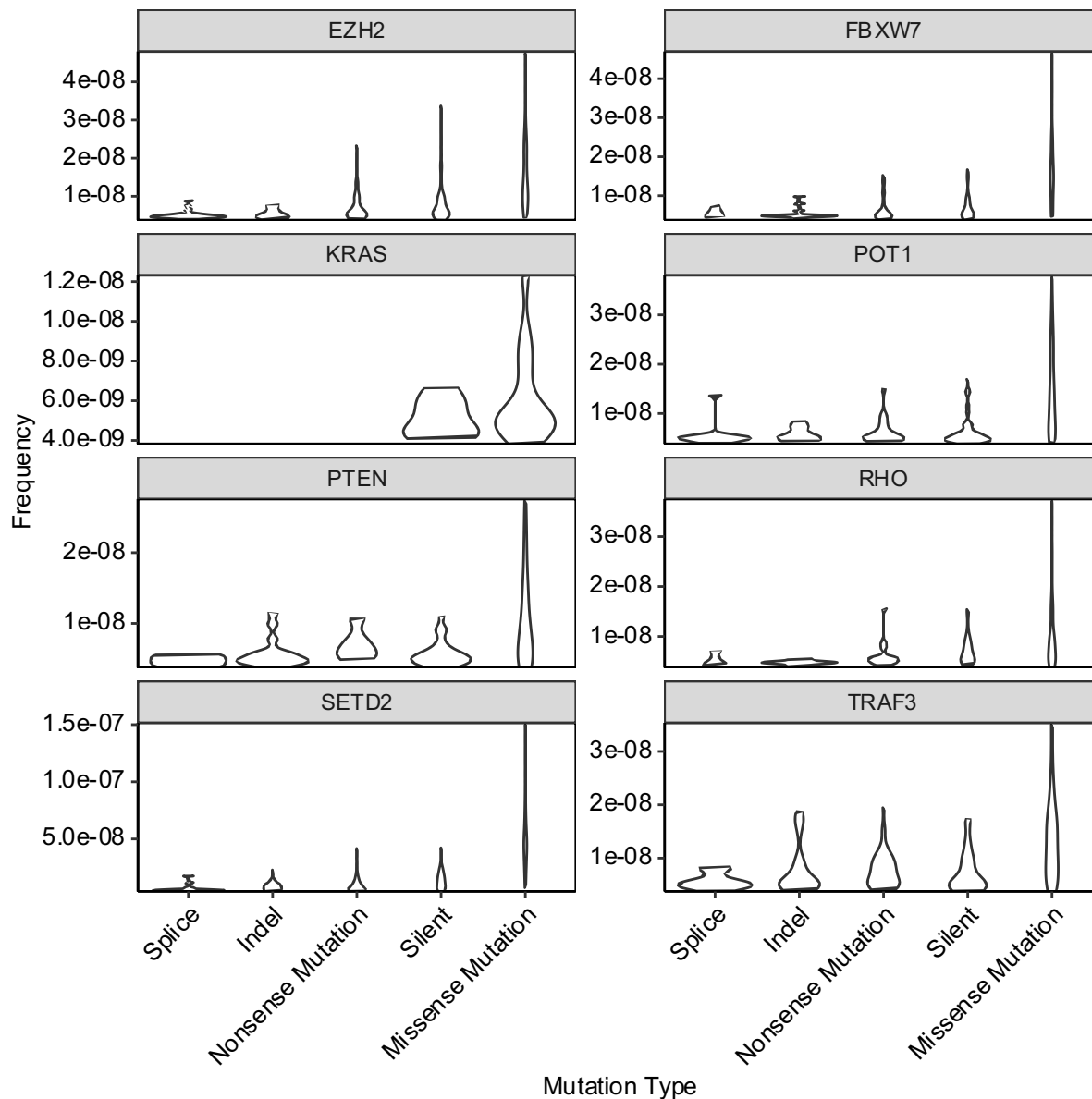
Supplementary Figure 6. Non-coding mutation frequency and mutation burden.

Mutation frequency increased significantly with age ($F_{1,98} = 4.17$, $P = .044$), and mutation burden was not significantly associated with age ($F_{1,98} = 2.13$, $P > 0.05$).



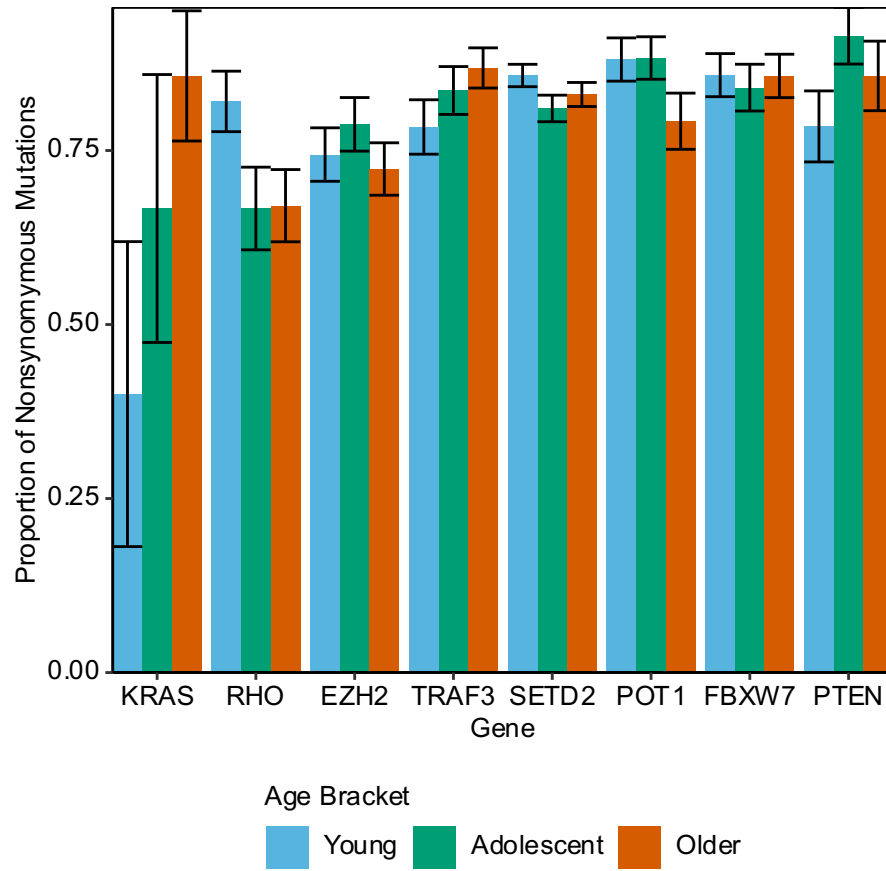
Supplementary Figure 7. Mutation type by breed by age bracket.

Proportion of mutation types in our 7 dog breeds, organized by age bracket.



Supplementary Figure 8. Mutation types by gene.

Fisher's test showed that the relative frequency of different mutation types was significantly more different among genes than we would expect by chance using a Fisher's exact test ($P = 0.0005$).



Supplementary Figure 9. Proportion of non-synonymous mutations by gene by age bracket.

3.7 TABLES

Table 1. Probe Designs

Gene	Exon	Probe	Chromosome	Start	Stop	Seq
TRAF3	2	1	chr8	70761798	70761918	AAATGGAGTCAAGTAAAAAGATGGACTCCCCCGGCACACTGCAG ACTAACCACCCGCTAAAGCTGCACCCTGATCGCAGCGCCGGGAC GTCCATTTTCGTCCCCGAACAAGGAGGTTACA
TRAF3	2	2	chr8	70761918	70762038	AAGAAAGGTTTGTGAAGACCGTGGAGGACAAGTACAAGTGTGAG AAGTGCCGCCTGGTGCTGTGTAACCCGAAGCAGACTGAGTGTGG ACACCGGTTCTGTGAGACCTGCATGGCTGCCG
TRAF3	3	1	chr8	70763943	70764063	CGTGGCCGCAGCTCCAGTGAACACAGGACTTCTGCTGTCAGTAG AACCCCACTTACTGATGTCTTTATTGTGTGTTTTCCCCTCAGCTCC TCAAGCCCAAAATGCACTGCGTGTCAAGAA
TRAF3	3	2	chr8	70764003	70764123	GTCTTTATTGTGTGTTTTCCCCTCAGCTCCTCAAGCCCAAAATGC ACTGCGTGTCAAGAAAGCATCATTAAAGATAAGGTATTCTTGGGG TTTTAATAAATGACCTTGTCCAATGCTTCA
TRAF3	3	3	chr8	70764063	70764183	AGCATCATTAAAGATAAGGTATTCTTGGGGTTTTAATAAATGACCT TGTCCAATGCTTCAGTCATCCGTGGCACACGGTTTGCACCCAGT GCTCTGAGCCGGCTCTGATGGTATCTCGGG
TRAF3	4	1	chr8	70766844	70766964	TGTGGAGATTAAGAAACATTAATCCTCTGAAATAACTGTCTTCCCA TTTCAGGTGTTTAAGGATAATTGCTGCAAGAGAGAAATTCTAGCT CTTCAGATCTATTGCAGGAATGAAGGTGG
TRAF3	4	2	chr8	70766964	70767084	AGGCTGCACAGAGCAGTTGACACTGGGACACCTACTGGTACGTC CTGGGAACCATGCTCCTTGCTTACCATAAGAAATATGACTCCTTG GGGTGCCTGGGTGGCTTAGTCAGTTTAGTGT
TRAF3	5	1	chr8	70767830	70767950	AGCTTTGAAGTGTGTTTGTGTTTACAGGTGCATTTAAGAACGATTGC CAGTTTGAAGAGCTTTCGTGTGTCCGTGCTGACTGCAAAGAAAAA GTGTTGCGAAGAGACCTGCGTGACCATGTA
TRAF3	5	2	chr8	70767950	70768070	GAAAAGGCTTGCAAGTACCGAGAGGCCACATGCCCCCACTGTAA AAGTCAGGTCCCAGATGATCACACTGCAGGTGCGCTCCCCCCCCC CTCCCAGTCACCCCTACTTGCTGCTCAGTCCA
TRAF3	6	1	chr8	70773932	70774052	TCCTTTGGGTTTTTCGTGGTGACATTGAAGATACTGATAGAGCCTG AAGGGAGATGGGTTTTATGTCCCAAAGTTGATGACACTTTCTTCT TTTCCTCCAGAAACATGAAGACACTGAGTG
TRAF3	6	2	chr8	70773992	70774112	TATGTCCCAAAGTTGATGACACTTTCTTCTTTTCCCTCCAGAAACAT GAAGACACTGAGTGTCCCTGTGTGGTGGTGTCTGCCCCCATAA GTGCAGTGTCCAGACCCTTCTAAGGAGTGA
TRAF3	6	3	chr8	70774052	70774172	TCCCTGTGTGGTGGTGTCTGCCCCATAAGTGCAGTGTCCAGA CCCTTCTAAGGAGTGAGGTAAGGAGCATTGCCAGGGCCTGTTGA GGAGTTAGTGATGTCTTAGGACTAGCATGCA

Gene	Exon	Probe	Chromosome	Start	Stop	Seq
TRAF3	7	1	chr8	70776715	70776835	GTGACAGTACAAACCAGATGCTCTCTGTGCCCTTAATATGTTTGA ACATTTTCATGCAGACGCTTGTGCCACAACCTCACGTCTCTTTCCC GTTGCAGTTGAGTGCACACTTGTGAGAGTG
TRAF3	7	2	chr8	70776775	70776895	CGCTTGTGCCACAACCTCACGTCTCTTTCCCGTTGCAGTTGAGTGC ACACTTGTGAGAGTGTGTCAATGCCCCCAGCACCTGTAGTTTTAA GCGCTATGGCTGCGTTTTTTCAGGTGAGTAT
TRAF3	7	3	chr8	70776835	70776955	TGTCAATGCCCCCAGCACCTGTAGTTTTAAGCGCTATGGCTGCGT TTTTCAGGTGAGTATCCAACATTTGTCTTCCCAGTCACTGACATT CTGCCATGAGAGAAAAGTTACTATCTTAAC
TRAF3	8	1	chr8	70778498	70778618	TGTAATGGAATGAGGTCAGCTTAATGCACTACATCTCTTCTCGCA GGGGACAAACCAGCAGATAAAGGCCCATGAGGCCAGCTCCGCA GTGCAGCACGTCAACTTACTGAAAGAGTGGAG
TRAF3	8	2	chr8	70778618	70778738	TAACTCTCTGGAGAAAAAGGTACACCATGCTGCTTCTGCTTTTG TTGGCTCTTAATAATTTCTTCAAATTATTTAAAGAAGAATATATTTT TTATAGTTACTAGTGGATTTGGATAAAA
TRAF3	9	1	chr8	70782904	70783024	TATTTTCCAGGTTTCTTGCTACAGAATGAAAGCGTAGAAAAAAA CAAGAGCATACAAAGTTTGCACAATCAGATATGTAGCTTTGAAATT GAAATTGAGAGACAAAAAGAAATGCTTCG
TRAF3	9	2	chr8	70783024	70783144	AAATAATGAATCCAAAATACTTCATTTGCAGGTAAGAAGTTTAAGA CTATGGCTGGATCAAAGGGTCGAGGAGCATGTCTGTGTTCTCCT TTTGGGTATTCTCAGTGAGCTGTTTGAGCA
TRAF3	10	1	chr8	70787980	70788100	GCCTTTCTGATGCCTTTGATCTGGAAGCGAGTAATAGACAGCCAG GCAGAGAAACTGAAAGAGCTGGACAAAGAGATCCGCCCTTCCG GCAGAACTGGGAAGAAGCAGACAGCATGAAG
TRAF3	10	2	chr8	70788100	70788220	AGCAGCGTGGAGTCCCTCCAGAACCGAGTGACCGAGCTGGAGA GCGTGGACAAGAGTGCAGGGCAGGCGGCTCGGAACACAGGTGG GGGCTGCAGGGGCAGCGTGGGGAGGCCTAGGAGG
TRAF3	11	1	chr8	70789027	70789147	GACACTTACGGGCCCTCCACCGTCTGTCTCTCCTCACCCACGGC AGGCTTGCTGGAGTCCCAGCTGAGCCGGCACGACCAGATGCTG AGCGTCCATGACATCCGCCTGGCCGACATGGAC
TRAF3	11	2	chr8	70789147	70789267	CTGCGCTTCCAGGTCCCTGGAGACCGCCAGCTACAACGGCGTGCT GATTTGGAAGATCCGAGATTACAAGCGGCCGAAGCAGGAAGCCG TCATGGGGAAGACCCTGTCTCTTTACAGCCAG
TRAF3	11	3	chr8	70789267	70789387	CCTTTCTACACGGGCTATTTTGGCTATAAGATGTGTGCCAGGGTC TACCTGAACGGGGACGGCATGGGGAAGGGGACGCACTTGTGCG TGTTTTTGTGATTATGCGTGGAGAGTATGAT
TRAF3	11	4	chr8	70789387	70789507	GCTCTGCTTCTTGGCCATTCAAGCAGAAAGTGACGCTCATGCTC ATGGATCAGGGGTCTCTCGGCGTCACCTGGGAGATGCGTTCAA GCCGGACCCCAACAGCAGCAGCTTCAAGAAG

Gene	Exon	Probe	Chromosome	Start	Stop	Seq
TRAF3	11	5	chr8	70789507	70789627	CCCACCGGGGAGATGAATATTGCCTCTGGCTGCCCAGTGTTTCGT GGCTCAAACGTGTGCTAGAAAACGGGACATATATTAAGATGATAC CATTTTTATTAAGTCATAGTGGATACTTCG
TRAF3	11	6	chr8	70789627	70789747	GATCTGCCCGACCCCTGACCGGTCACTGGGGAGGTGGATTGAG CAGAAGGCATCTCCTCTGGGGGGTTGAACCGGCTGTCTCCACC GAGGTCCTCGCGCTCAGAAAAGGACCTTGTGGA
TP63	1	1	chr5	32565055	32565175	CAGCACCCACACTCCCTTCCCAGGAGCTGCGATGCAAGAGCCAC AGTCAGAGCTCAATATCGACCCCCCTCTGAGCCAGGAGACATTTT CAGAATTGTGGAACCTGTAAGTGGAGGGCAG
TP62	2	1	chr5	32564808	32564928	CATCTTCCAGGCTTCCCTGAAAACAATGTTCTGGTAAGGACTGGGT GTGGGGAGGTCCAGGGCGGGGGTTGGGAGCTGGGGACCTAGG GACCTGACCTTGACTCTGGTCTCGCCCCCTAC
TP61	3	1	chr5	32564689	32564809	CAGTCTTCGGAGCTGTGCCCAGCAGTGGATGAGCTGCTGCTCCC AGAGAGCGTCGTGAACTGGCTAGACGAAGACTCAGATGATGCTC CCAGGATGCCAGCCACTTCTGCCCCACAGCC
TP60	3	2	chr5	32564567	32564687	TGGACCGGCCCCCTCCTGGCCCTATCATCCTCTGTCCCTTCCC CGAAGACCTACCCTGGCACCTATGGGTTCCGTTTGGGGTTCCTG CATTCCGGGACAGCCAAGTCTGTTACTTGGAC
TP59	4	1	chr5	32563905	32564025	AAGACCTGCCCCGTGCAGCTGTGGGTGAGCTCCCCACCCCCAC CCAATACCTGCGTCCGCGCTATGGCCATCTATAAGAAGTCGGAG TTCGTGACCGAGGTTGTGCGGCGCTGCCCCAC
TP58	5	1	chr5	32563683	32563803	CTCTTAGGTCTTGCCCCCTCCTCAGCATCTCATCCGAGTGAAGG AAATTTGCGGGCCAAGTACCTGGACGACAGAAACACTTTTCGACA CAGTGTGGTGGTGCCTTATGAGCCACCCGAG
TP57	6	1	chr5	32563351	32563471	TCTACCTCAGGTTGGCTCTGACTATACCACCATCCACTACAATA CATGTGTAACAGTTCCTGCATGGGAGGCATGAACCGGCGGCCCA TCCTCACTATCATCACCCCTGGAAGACTCCAG
TP56	7	1	chr5	32562962	32563082	TGCTGGGACGCAACAGCTTTGAGGTACGCGTTTGTGCCTGTCCC GGGAGAGACCGCCGACTGAGGAGGAGAATTTCCACAAGAAGG GGGAGCCTTGTCTGAGCCACCCCCGGGAGTA
TP55	8	1	chr5	32562572	32562692	TGTCTTTTCCCTCCTCTTTTCCCAGCACTGCCTCCCAGCACCAGC TCCTCTCCCCCGCAAAAAGAAGAAGCCACTAGATGGAGAATATTC ACCCTTCAGGTACCAAGGCTGGGAGGAACA
TP54	9	1	chr5	32562105	32562225	ACTGCCACAGATCCGTGGGCGTGAACGCTATGAGATGTTTCAGGA ATCTGAATGAAGCCTTGGAGCTGAAGGATGCCAGAGTGGAAG GAGCCAGGGGGAAGCAGGGCTCACTCCAGGTG
TP53	10	1	chr5	32561387	32561507	CCACCTTGTGTCCCCAACAGCCACCTGAAGGCAAAGAAGGGGCA ATCTACCTCTCGCCATAAAAACTGATGTTCAAGAGAGAAGGGCC CGACTCAGACTGACTTCCCCTGCTTCCTGTC

Gene	Exon	Probe	Chromosome	Start	Stop	Seq
SETD2	1	1	chr20	41675503	41675623	GCGGCCTCCTCCCCTCCCCTCCCCTCCCCTCCCCTCCTTGCGCGC GTCGCCCTGCCGCGGGGAGGGGGCTCGCGTCGCCGCTCCAG CCGCTCCCGATGAAGCAGCTGCCGCCGCAGCCAC
SETD2	1	2	chr20	41675563	41675683	GAGGGGGCTCGCGTCGCCGCTCCAGCCGCTCCCGATGAAGCA GCTGCCGCCGCAGCCACCTCCGAAAATGGGGGATTTCTACGACC CCGAGCACCCGACCCCTGAGTAAGTATCTGCTC
SETD2	1	3	chr20	41675623	41675743	CTCCGAAAATGGGGGATTTCTACGACCCCGAGCACCCGACCCCT GAGTAAGTATCTGCTCCGCGGCTCCCCGCGGCCGCCCTCGGCC CGAGCCCGGAGCCCCGAGGGTGGCGCGTCCTGA
SETD2	2	1	chr20	41707723	41707843	TTGTAGGCATCCTAGATTTTAATAAAAACAACCTTTGATTTCAATTG GTTTTAAGTATTTATGATTTCTGTTTACTCTTTTGCATGCTTTCTTG GCTGGATGGCAATAGAGAAGAAGAAAA
SETD2	2	2	chr20	41707783	41707903	TGATTTCTGTTTACTCTTTTGCATGCTTTCTTGGCTGGATGGCAAT AGAGAAGAAGAAAATGAGGTAAGTATCACTTAAGTATTTTTCAG TAATTATTGGACTAAAAACTCAAATTTT
SETD2	2	3	chr20	41707843	41707963	TGAGGTAAGTATCACTTAAGTATTTTTCAGTAATTATTGGACTAA AAACTCAAATTTTGGGGGTGGGTGGCTCAGTTGGTTAAGTGTCC AGCACTTGATTTTGGCTCAGGTCATGATC
SETD2	3	1	chr20	41709777	41709897	CTTGTTTTGTTCAATTTATAGGCAAAGATTGAAAATGTGCAGAAAAC AGGTTTCATCAAAGGACCAATGTTCAAAGGTGTTGCTTCTAGTCG ATTTTTACCAAAGGCACCAAGACAAAAG
SETD2	3	2	chr20	41709897	41710017	TTAACTTGAGGAACAGGGACGACAGAAGGTGTCTTTTCAGCTTC AGCCTTACAAAGAAAACCTTGCAGAACAGGTTTCTGACTGCACTT GGCAATGAAAAGCAAATGATACTCCAACT
SETD2	3	3	chr20	41710017	41710137	CCCCCGCTGGACCTCTTCAAGTAGACTTGACCCCTAAAATTAATA TGGACATTGGAGATACCTTATCTACTACAGAAGAATCTTCCCCAC CAAATCAAGGGTAGAATTGGGCAAATTC
SETD2	3	4	chr20	41710137	41710257	ATTTTAAGAAACATCTGCTTCATGTGACATCCAGACCACTGCTGA CTACTGCCACAGCAGTGGCATCTCCATCACCTCCCGTAGTACCG TTACCAGCAGTCATAGCAGAATCAACAACCTG
SETD2	3	5	chr20	41710257	41710377	TAGACTCACCACCCTCATCTCCACCTCCACCACCTCCACCTCCCC AGGCCACAATACCCTCACCACCAGCACCAGTAACAGAGCCAGTG GCCTTGCCACATGCATCAATCCCAGTTCTGA
SETD2	3	6	chr20	41710377	41710497	TGACAGCACCAGTAGATGTAGCAGCTAGAGCACTGAAGGAACCA CCCATTACAACCTGTACCAGAATCTTACAGAAGTGGACACTAAGCAG GATGCTATATCTAATAGTTTCAGAAGAACA
SETD2	3	7	chr20	41710497	41710617	TAACTCAAATTTGAATGAGCAAGTAGATACTCCCTCACAAAAG AAGATTTCCATATTGGGAAGGAAGAAGAAATTCAGATAGTTCTA AGAGTAATCTGGGCTCTAAAAAACAGGTT

Gene	Exon	Probe	Chromosome	Start	Stop	Seq
SETD2	3	8	chr20	41710617	41710737	CTAAGAAGAAATCCTCACAAATCTGAAGGCACCTTTCTTGCTTCAG AATCTGATGAAGATTCTGTACGGACTTCCTCAAAGTCAAAGATCAC ATGATTTAAAATTTTCAACAGGCATTGAAA
SETD2	3	9	chr20	41710737	41710857	AGGAAAGAGATTCAAAAAAGAGCTTAGCACCTTTAAAAAGTGAGG ATTTAGGGAAATCTTCACGATCTAAAACAGAGAGAGATGATAAAT ATTTTAGCTACTCAAACTTGAAAGAGATA
SETD2	3	10	chr20	41710857	41710977	CTCGGTATATATCTTCTCGATGTAGATCAGAGAGAGAGCGAAGG CGGAGCAGATCTCGTTCTAGATCTGACAGAGGCTCCAGAACTAG TTTATCCTATTCCCGGTCCGGAACGATCCCATT
SETD2	3	11	chr20	41710977	41711097	ATTACGACTCTGATCGTCGCTACCATAGGAGTTCACCTTATCGAG AGAGGGCACGCTATTCCCGGCCGTATACAGATAACAGAGCTCGA GAGAGTTCTGACTCAGAAGAGGAGTATAAGA
SETD2	3	12	chr20	41711097	41711217	AGACCTATTCAAGGCGTACCTCCTCTCATTCTTTCTTTACAGAG ACCTAAGGACATCATCATCCTATTCTAAATCTGATCGGGACTGCA AAACTGAGTCCTCTTACTTGGAGATGGAGA
SETD2	3	13	chr20	41711217	41711337	AGAGAGGAAAGTATTCTTCTAAACTAGAAAGAGAATCCAAAAGGA CTTCAGAAAGTGAAGCAATGAAAAGATGTTGTA CTCCCCTAATG AACTGGGATTCCGACGGGGGTCGTCCTATT
SETD2	3	14	chr20	41711337	41711457	CCAAGCATGATAACAGTGCTTCCCGTTATAAATCTGCCCTTTCAA AATCTATATCCAAGTCTGATAAATTTAAAATTTCTTTCTGTTGTACA GAATTAATGAGGAAATCAAACCGTCTC
SETD2	3	15	chr20	41711457	41711577	ATTCTTTTAATTTACAGGCTCCTTGTTCAAAGGTAGTGAATTAAG AATGATTAGTAAAATTCCTGAAAGAGAAAAGACTGGATCTCCATC TCCATCAAATCGATTAATGATTCACCTA
SETD2	3	16	chr20	41711577	41711697	CTTTTAAAAAGCTAGATGAATCCCTTATTTTTAAATCTGAATTTATA GGACATGATAGCCATGATAGTATTAAGGAATTAGACTCTTTATCTA AAGCAAAGAATGATCAATTAAGAAGTT
SETD2	3	17	chr20	41711697	41711817	ATTGTCCCATAGAATTAATATAAATGGATCTCCTGGGGCAGAAT CTGATTTGGCAACATTTTGCACCTTCTAAAAGTACTGTTTGGAT GTCTTCTGATGACAGTGTGACTGGATCGG
SETD2	3	18	chr20	41711817	41711937	AGGTATCCCCTTTGGTCAAAGCATGCATGCTTCCATCAAATGGAT TTCAGAATATCAGTAGATGTAAAGAGAAAGACTTGGATGATACTT GCATGCTGCATAGTAAGTCAGGAAGCCCAT
SETD2	3	19	chr20	41711937	41712057	TTAGAGAAGCAGAACCTCCGGTATCGCCACACCAAGATAAACTCA TGTCTTTGCCAGTTATGACTATAGATTATCCAAAACCGTAATTA AGAACCAGTTGATATGACAGTTTCTTGCT
SETD2	3	20	chr20	41712057	41712177	GTAAAACCAAAGATTTCAGATATATACTGTACTTCAAATGACAACCC TTCTTTGCATCATTCTGAAGCTGAAAAGATTGAGCCTTCAGTTATG AAGATTTCTTCAAATAGCTTTATGAATG

Gene	Exon	Probe	Chromosome	Start	Stop	Seq
SETD2	3	21	chr20	41712177	41712297	TGCATTTGAAATCAAAAACAGTAATATGTGATAACAGAACTCTGAC AGATCAGCACTCAAAATTTGCATGTGAAGAATATAAACAGAGTGT TGGTAGCACTAGTTCAGCTGCTGTTAATC
SETD2	3	22	chr20	41712297	41712417	ATTTTCGATAATTTATATCAACCTATAGAGAGTTCAGGCATTGCTTC ATCTCTTCAGAGTCTCCACCAGGAATAAAAGTGGACAGTTTGAC TCTCCTGCAATGTGGAGAGAACACCTCTC
SETD2	3	23	chr20	41712417	41712537	CAGTTTTGGATGCTGTGCTGAAGAGTAAAAGTTCAGAGTTTTTAA AGCTTGCAGAGAAAAGAAACAGTAGAAGTAGGTAGCGGCCTTCTC GATTCAGGAAGGGGATTTGCTTCTTGGGAAA
SETD2	3	24	chr20	41712537	41712657	ATAGGCATAATAATGGGTTATCTGGGAAAGGTGTGCAAGAGGTTT AAGAAGAAGGGAATTCCTTATTACCTGATAGAAGAGGAAGATCAG AAATCTCTTTAGATGAAGAAGGAGGAAGAG
SETD2	3	25	chr20	41712657	41712777	GACATGCACATACTTCTGATGATTGAGAAGTTGATTTTTCTTCTTG TGACTTGAATTTAACCATGGAAGACAGCGATGGTGTAAACATATAC CTTAAAATGTGACGATGTGGTCATGCCT
SETD2	3	26	chr20	41712777	41712897	CAGAGATTGTATCTACTGTCCATGAAGATTATTCTGGTTCTTCTGA AAGTTCAAGTGATGAAAAGTACTCTGAAGATACAGATTCTGATGA TAGCAGTATTCCAAGAAACCGTCTTCAGT
SETD2	3	27	chr20	41712897	41713017	CTGTTGTGGTAGTGCCAAAGAATTCTACTTTGCCCATGGAAGAAA CGAGTCCTTGTCTTCTCGGAGCAGTCAGAGTTACAGACACTATT CTGACCACTGGGAAGATGAGAGATTGGAGT
SETD2	3	28	chr20	41713017	41713137	CAAGGAGACATTCATATGAGGAAAAATTTGAGAGTGTAGCAAGTA AACCTGTTCTCAAACCGAGAAGTTCTTCCATCATAAAGGGACAG AGAAAAATCTGGAAGTTTCTTTCACACAGC
SETD2	3	29	chr20	41713137	41713257	CCAGCAGAAAACAAATAGATAACCACCTGTCTGAAATGGCTCATC CTCAGAGTGATGGGGTTGATAGTACAAGTCATACAGATGTGAAAT CTGACTTTCTAGGTATCCAAATTCTGAGG
SETD2	3	30	chr20	41713257	41713377	AAACCACAAAAGCCAAAATAGTTTCTAGGCAGCAAGAAGAGCTGC CAGTTTATTCTTCTGATGATTTTGAGGATGTCCCAAATAAGTCTCG GCAACAAATCACTTTCCTAACAGGCCAG
SETD2	3	31	chr20	41713377	41713497	ATAGTAGACTGGGAAAAACAGAGTTGAGTTTTTCTTCTTCTTGTG AGCTCTCCCGAGTGGATGGTTTCCACTCATCAGAAGAGCTCAGA AACCTAGGGTGGGAATTCTCTCAACAAGAAA
SETD2	3	32	chr20	41713497	41713617	AGCCTACTACCACATATCAGCAACCTGACAGCAGCTATGGAGCC TGCGGTGGACACAAGTATCAGCAAAGTGCAGAACATTATGGCGG GACACGGAATTACTGGCAAGGCAATGGCTACT
SETD2	3	33	chr20	41713617	41713737	GGGATCCAAGATCAGCAAGTAGACCTCCTGGAACCTGGGTTGTA TATGATCGAATTC AAGGGCAGGTACCAGATTCCTTAACAGATGAT CGTGAAGAGGAGGAGAATTGGGATCAACGTG

Gene	Exon	Probe	Chromosome	Start	Stop	Seq
SETD2	3	34	chr20	41713737	41713857	GAGGATCTCATTTCCTCAAGCCAGTCCAATAAATTTTCTATCCCT TCAGAAGGACAAGGGGTGTCAGTCAAGCACCTGAAATAAGCAGCA ATTCCATTAAGGACTCTTTATCTATGAACG
SETD2	3	35	chr20	41713857	41713977	AAAAGAAGGATCTTTCAAAAAAGCTTAGAAAAAATGATATGAAAGA TAGAGGGCCTCCTAAAAAAGGAGACAGGAATTGGAGAGTGATT CTGAAAGTGATGGTGAACCTTCAGGACAGAA
SETD2	3	36	chr20	41713977	41714097	AGAAAGTTCGAGTGGCGGTGGAGCAGGGGAAACGGCAGTGCC CCTAGGCTCAGCACTGGTTGGGCCTTCTTGTGTCATGGAGGACT TCAGGGACCCACAGCGATGGAAAGAATGTGCCA
SETD2	3	37	chr20	41714097	41714217	AGCAAGGGAAGATGCCTTGTTACTTTGATCTGATTGAAGAAAATG TTTATTTAACAGAAAGGTAAGTTTGCCTAATACTTTTCCAACAAAT TTTAACCACTTTTGTAAAGAAAATTAGC
SETD2	3	38	chr20	41714217	41714337	TTTCAACAGTTTGGAAATATATGAAGTCAATAGTTCATATTAGTTTT GTGATAAGATATACATTAATAAAAAAATCTAAAAAGTATTTACCTATTT AGATCATGTCATGGTGCCTTCCCTCG
SETD2	4	1	chr20	41717650	41717770	TACTAGAAAGAAGAATAAATCCCATCGGGATATTAAGCGAATGCA GTGTGAGTGACACCTCTTCTAAAGATGAAAGAGCTCAAGGTGA AATAGCATGTGGGGAAGATTGTCTTAATCG
SETD2	4	2	chr20	41717770	41717890	TCTCCTCATGATTGAATGGTAAGTAAATTAATGCTCTCATTTTG CTCAATTGTTCTATTAATGTCTCAAATAGTAAAAAGAATTAGTA ATGGGTCAGAATTTAACTTTTCTCCTTC
SETD2	5	1	chr20	41719089	41719209	TCAGTTCCTTCGGTGTCCAATGGGGATTATTGTTCCAATAGAC GATTTTCAGAGAAAGCAGCACGCAGATGTGGAAGTCATACTCACA GAAAAGAAAGGCTGGGGCTTGAGAGCTGCCA
SETD2	5	2	chr20	41719209	41719329	AAGACCTTCCTTCGTAAGTTATGTTTTAATCATCTTTCCTTCATTT TTGTGTTGTTGAAGTTGGTTAGCTACATAGGAAAATAATGTGTCT GTTATACTGAAGTTTAATAATGATGATT
SETD2	6	1	chr20	41720885	41721005	TGTGTTTTCTATATAGCTCCTAGGCAGGAAGTGCTATTGTTTCCCT TTTGTTTTGCTAGGAACACCTTCGTCCTAGAATATTGTGGAGAAG TACTTGATCATAAAGAGTTTAAAGCCCGG
SETD2	6	2	chr20	41720945	41721065	AACACCTTCGTCCTAGAATATTGTGGAGAAGTACTTGATCATAAA GAGTTTAAAGCCCGGTAAGGAGTATGCACGAAACAAAAACAT CCACTACTATTTTCATGGCCCTGAAGAATGAT
SETD2	6	3	chr20	41721005	41721125	GTAAAGGAGTATGCACGAAACAAAAACATCCACTACTATTTTCATG GCCCTGAAGAATGATGAGGTGAGCAGTGTGAATGTGTTTGCTTT GAAACAGATCTGGAGGGATCCCTGGGTGGCG
SETD2	7	1	chr20	41722064	41722184	GAGGATGTAGGTCATACATTTGCCTAATGCTTCTCCTTTGCAACA CATACATGTATTTTGAGATCTCATTTTTAATTCTTAAATGGTCCTTT TCCCCAGATAATAGATGCCACCCAGAAA

Gene	Exon	Probe	Chromosome	Start	Stop	Seq
SETD2	7	2	chr20	41722124	41722244	AGATCTCATTTTTAATTCTTAAATGGTCCTTTTCCCAGATAATAG ATGCCACCCAGAAAGGAACTGCTCTCGTTTCATGAATCACAGCT GTGAACCAAAGTGTGAGACTCAAAAAGTA
SETD2	7	3	chr20	41722184	41722304	GGAACTGCTCTCGTTTCATGAATCACAGCTGTGAACCAAAGTGT GAGACTCAAAAAGTAAGTTGAGGTACATTTAGAGTTTGGGATACC TTGTTCAAATTGCTGTTCTTTTAATTTTA
SETD2	8	1	chr20	41723805	41723925	ATGATGATCTTTAAAGAAAAACAGATTAATCAGTTACTAATTTCTTT TCTTTTAAAAACAACATTTTCAGTGGACTGTGAACGGACAAGTGGAG AGTCGGGTTTTTTACCACCAAAGTGGTT
SETD2	8	2	chr20	41723865	41723985	ACATTTTCAGTGGACTGTGAACGGACAAGTGGAGTCCGGGTTTTTT ACCACCAAAGTGGTTCCTTCAGGCTCAGAGTTAACATTTGACTAT CAGTTCCAAAGATATGGGTGAGTTTTGTTT
SETD2	8	3	chr20	41723925	41724045	CCTTCAGGCTCAGAGTTAACATTTGACTATCAGTTCCAAAGATAT GGGTGAGTTTTGTTTTATTCTGTTTTGCTGCTTCTAATGGGGAAA TGGACTGTTTCAGATATAAAGATTTAAGAC
SETD2	9	1	chr20	41726907	41727027	CAGAAAAGAAGCTCAGAAATGTTTCTGTGGGTGAGTAACTGCC GAGGTTACCTGGGAGGAGAGAACAGAGTCAGTATCAGAGCAGCA GGAGGAAAAATGAAGAAGGAGCGATCCCGTAA
SETD2	9	2	chr20	41727027	41727147	GAAGGATTCAGTAAGTGTTCATCTTTTCTTTCAACTTTTACCATA AATGTTTTAAGAAGGGAAGTAGCTTTTCTGACTGAAATTTGAAAAG TCAGACTACAGCCAGAGAAAGTCAGGAT
SETD2	10	1	chr20	41735430	41735550	ATGGCAGGTAGATGGGGAGCTAGAAGCTCTGATGGAGAATGGTG AGGGTCTCTCTGATAAAAACCAGGTGCTCAGCTTATCCCGGCTAA TGGTTAGAATTGAAACTTTGGAACAGAACT
SETD2	10	2	chr20	41735550	41735670	TACGTGTCTTGAACCTTATACAGGTGAGCTCTTTGATGTTAATTTAT TTTTGATTTCTGAATTTGAGGTGGGGCATTGAAAGTACAATCTAG AATGATGATGACAGAAGGTTACTTCTGAG
SETD2	11	1	chr20	41736415	41736535	ATTGCCACCCGACCCCGATATCCTGCATCCTGCTTCC CTTCTGCATGGAAGAATACACATTCACAATCTTGCCTGAAGTCT TTTCTGGAACGTCATGGGCTCTCATTGTTAT
SETD2	11	2	chr20	41736475	41736595	ATACACATTCACAATCTTGCCTGAAGTCTTTTCTGGAACGTCATG GGCTCTCATTGTTATGGATCTGGATGGCAGAAGTGGTGGTGGC CGGGAAGTAACCAGAAGCTTCAGGAAGAGG
SETD2	11	3	chr20	41736535	41736655	GGATCTGGATGGCAGAAGTGGTGGTGGCAGGAAAGTAACCAG AAGCTTCAGGAAGAGGTTAGTCAGTTCAATTTCACTTGCCTATTT CCTAAAAGTCTATATAGATTGCTTAGGTT
SETD2	12	1	chr20	41737881	41738001	GTGATTATTTTTTTTTATTTTGTTTAATCAGATTATAAAGACTTTGG AACACTTACCCATTCTACTAAAAATATGTTGGAAGAAAGCAAAGT ACTTCCAATTATTCAACGCTGGTCTCA

Gene	Exon	Probe	Chromosome	Start	Stop	Seq
SETD2	12	2	chr20	41738001	41738121	GACCAAACTGCCATTCCTCAGTTGAGTGAAGGAGATGGGTATTC AAGTGAGAATACGTCACGTGCTCACACACCACTCAACACACCTGA TCCTTCCACCAAGCTGAGCACAGAAGCTGA
SETD2	12	3	chr20	41738121	41738241	CACAGACACCCCAAGAAGCTCATGTTTCGCAGACTTAAAATTAT AAGTAAAATAGCATGGACAGTGCAATCTCTGATGCTACCAAGTGA GCTGGAAGGCAAAGATGGCAAGGAGGACCT
SETD2	12	4	chr20	41738241	41738361	TGACCAGTTAGAAAACGTCCCTATAGAGGAAGAGGAAGAGTTAC AGTCACAACAGCTACTCACACAACAGCTACCTGAATCTAAAGTTG AGAGTAAAATCACTGTGGAAGCCAGTAAGCT
SETD2	12	5	chr20	41738361	41738481	ACCCACAACACTGAACCAGAGGCTGACACTGAAATAGAGCCCAAAG AGGGCAATGGCACGAAACTGGAAGAAACCATTGCTGAGGAAACC CCATCCCAAGATGAAGAGGAGGGTGTATCTGA
SETD2	12	6	chr20	41738481	41738601	TGTGGAGAGTGAGAGGAGCCAGGAACAGCCAGATAAAACAGTAG ATATAAGTGATTTGGCCACCAAGCTCCTGGATAGTTGAAAGACC TAAAGGTAAGAAAACATTTTTGTTTTAACCT
SETD2	13	1	chr20	41759911	41760031	GTTGCCATGTGAAATTAAGCAGCTTCAACACAATCTCTGCTTCTA CTCCACACCAATAACCCCTTCTTTGGTTTTATTTTTCCAGGAGGTGT ATCGAATTCCAAAGAAAAGTCAAACCTGAA
SETD2	13	2	chr20	41759971	41760091	CCTTCTCTTGGTTTTATTTTTCCAGGAGGTGTATCGAATTCCAAAGA AAAGTCAAACACTGAAAAGGAGAACAAGTAGGTATTCAGAGGTAC TCTGTGTATATGGCTTTACAAATACTCTT
SETD2	13	3	chr20	41760031	41760151	AAGGAGAACAAGTAGGTATTCAGAGGTACTCTGTGTATATGGC TTTACAAATACTCTTTTGGAAATATGCAGAGGTAAATGATATGAAC TTTAGCAGACAGTATGTAATTAGGTAAAT
SETD2	14	1	chr20	41762861	41762981	CAAGTAAATTTTTAAAAACCCTTTTCCCTTAGTAACTGAACGAGGA AGGGATGCTGTTGGCTTCAGAGATCAAACAGCTGCCCCAAAGAC TCCTAACAGGTCAAGAGAGAGAGACCCAGA
SETD2	14	2	chr20	41762981	41763101	CAAGCAAACACTCAAATAAAGAGAAAAGGAAACGAAGGGGCTCTC TCTCACCACCTTCTTCTGCCTATGAGAGGGGAACAAAAGGCCA GATGACAGGTAAGTGGCCTGTGTGAGTTATCT
SETD2	15	1	chr20	41768925	41769045	GAACATTTGTGATGCTCTTCTATTTTTCTTTCTAGATATGATACAC CAACTTCTAAAAAGAAAGTACGAATTAAGATCGCAATAAACTTTC TACAGAGGAGCGTCGGAAGTTGTTTGAG
SETD2	15	2	chr20	41769045	41769165	CAAGAGGTGGCTCAGCGGGAGGCTCAGAAACAACAGCAGCAGA TGCAGACCCTGGGAATGACGTCTCCACTGCCCTATGACTCTCTT GGCTACAATGCCCTCATCACCCCTTCGCTGGC
SETD2	15	3	chr20	41769165	41769285	TACCCACCAGGTTATCCCATGCAGGCCTATGTGGATCCCAGCAA CCCTAATGCTGGAAGGTGCTCCTCCCCACACCAGCATGGACC CCGTGTGTTCTCCTGCTCCTTACGATCATTCT

Gene	Exon	Probe	Chromosome	Start	Stop	Seq
SETD2	15	4	chr20	41769285	41769405	CAACCCTTGGTGGGACATTCTACAGAACCCTTGCTGCCCTCC ACCTGTGCCAGTGGTGCCACATGTGGCAGCCCCTGTGGAAGTTT CCAGTTCACAGTATGTGGCCAAAATGATGGT
SETD2	15	5	chr20	41769405	41769525	GTGGTACACCAAGACTCCAGCGTCACTGTCTTGCCAGTGCCAGC CCCAGGCCAGTCCAAGGACAAAATTATGGTGTGGGATTCAA CCAACAGTCTGTCAAGTGTCCAGCAGCAGTAT
SETD2	15	6	chr20	41769525	41769645	TCTCCTGCACAGTCTCAAGCAACCATATATTATCAAGGACAACT TGTCCTCACTGTCTATGGTGTGACATCACCCCTATTCACAGACA CCACCAATTGTACAGGTAATAATTTTGGT
SETD2	16	1	chr20	41776205	41776325	CTTTTAGAGTTATGCCAGCCAAGTCTCCAGTACATCCAGGGACA ACAGATTTTACAGCTCATCCACAAGGAGTGGTGGTCCAGCCAG CCACGGCCGTGACGACAATAGTCGCGCCAGG
SETD2	16	2	chr20	41776325	41776445	GCAGCCTCAGCCCTTACAGCCAGTAAGAAATTTCCGTTAAAATGT TCATTGGCTGTGTATCTCATCTTTAGAAGTTACTTTTGGTTTTGG GCTTTTTTTTTTTTCCACTTTGTTTTTA
SETD2	17	1	chr20	41778557	41778677	TTCTTTTTAGCCTGAAATGGTAGTGACAAATAATCTTCTGGATCTG CCACCCCTTCTCCTCCCAAACCAAAAACCATTGTCTTACCTCCC AACTGGAAGACAGCCCAGATCCAGAAGG
SETD2	17	2	chr20	41778677	41778797	GAAGATTTACTACTACCATGTGATCACAAGGTAAGAAGGGCTGTG TGGGCATCCTAAGTCAGCTTTCAGTTGGTCAAAGAAGCTGCCATC ATAAGGGGAGATTTCTGAATATTGGCTTGG
SETD2	18	1	chr20	41780979	41781099	CCTGTGCCAGAGTTCTCTGTTTTCTGGCCATGACTGTGTGGCTCT TCTTAACCTTCTTCTAGGCAGACTCAGTGGGATCCTCCTACTTGG GAAAGCCCAGGAGATGATGCCAGCCTTGAG
SETD2	18	2	chr20	41781039	41781159	AGGCAGACTCAGTGGGATCCTCCTACTTGGGAAAGCCCAGGAGA TGATGCCAGCCTTGAGCATGAAGCTGAGATGGACCTGGGAACCC CAACATATGATGAAAATCCCATGAAGGTGAGT
SETD2	18	3	chr20	41781099	41781219	CATGAAGCTGAGATGGACCTGGGAACCCCAACATATGATGAAAA TCCCATGAAGGTGAGTGTGGCTTACACGTATTTCTGATCATTTG GGACTCTGTGCTCTGTCAATTTCTGGGCCA
SETD2	19	1	chr20	41797489	41797609	GTGTCCCATCTGGGGGAAAGAAAGGAAGTTTTGGAAGAGCAGG GCATCACTGACCTGACCTCTTATGCCAGCACTGTTTGTCTTTCTTT GCATTTCTAGACCTCAAAAAGCCTAAGAC
SETD2	19	2	chr20	41797549	41797669	CTCTTATGCCAGCACTGTTTGTCTTTCTTTGCAATTTCTAGACCTCA AAAAAGCCTAAGACAGCAGAAGCAGACACCTCCAGTGAAGTGGC TAAGAAAAGCAAAGAAGTATTCAGAAAAGA
SETD2	19	3	chr20	41797609	41797729	AGCAGAAGCAGACACCTCCAGTGAAGTGGCTAAGAAAAGCAAAG AAGTATTCAGAAAAGAGGTAAGTTTTGGTGGGTATGGGCCCTAA GCTCTGCAGGCTCAAGCCTAAGCCCTTTCTTT

Gene	Exon	Probe	Chromosome	Start	Stop	Seq
SETD2	20	1	chr20	41799355	41799475	CTCATTATTTCTCAGTGCAATCCTTTGCCCTCTCCGGACTTCTG AGTAGTATGTGCTCTTTCTCCCACCTACAGATGTCCCAGTTCATC GTCCAGTGCCTGAACCCCTTACCGGAAACCT
SETD2	20	2	chr20	41799415	41799535	TTCTCCCACCTACAGATGTCCCAGTTCATCGTCCAGTGCCTGAAC CCTTACCGGAAACCTGACTGCAAGGTGGGAAGAATCACCACAAC AGAAGACTTCAAACACCTGGCTCGCAAGGTA
SETD2	20	3	chr20	41799475	41799595	GACTGCAAGGTGGGAAGAATCACCACAACAGAAGACTTCAAACA CCTGGCTCGCAAGGTATCCCTCTGTTCTGAAGATGTTCTGGGCA AACCATGTACCTTTCGTCTAGAAAGTGGGT
SETD2	21	1	chr20	41799802	41799922	CTGGCCTTAACCCCTGAAATCCTTTCCACTCTGGTCTCTCTTCCT GTGTCCTGGACAGCTGACGCACGGCGTTATGAATAAGGAGCTGA AGTACTGTAAGAACCCTGAGGACCTGGAGTG
SETD2	21	2	chr20	41799922	41800042	CAATGAGAATGTGAAACACAAAACCAAGGAGTATATTAAGAAGTA CATGCAGAAGTTTGGGGCTGTGTACAAACCCAAAGAGGACACTG AATTAGAGTGACTTGTGGGGCCAGGGTGGGA
RHO	5	1	chr20	5632085	5632205	TGGCTGGGGGTAGGTGTAGGGAATGGGAGACTCCTACAATCGG CCGTAGAGTCCTTGGCAGGGCTTAGGCCGGTGCCACCTGGCTG GTCTCCGTCTTGGAGGCGCTGGCAGAGGCCTCGT
RHO	5	2	chr20	5632145	5632265	GGGCTTAGGCCGGTGCCACCTGGCTGGTCTCCGTCTTGGAGGC GCTGGCAGAGGCCTCGTCGTCACCCAGTGGGTTCTTGCCACAGC AGAGGGTGGTGATCATGCAGTTCCGGAAGTGGGA
RHO	5	3	chr20	5632205	5632325	CGTCACCCAGTGGGTTCTTGCCACAGCAGAGGGTGGTGATCATG CAGTTCCGGAAGTGGGAAGGCAAGGGATATGAGTCAGGGTCAGG GTCCACTAAAAGTGTGTGTAGCAAAGTGGGGTG
RHO	4	1	chr20	5633105	5633225	CTGCTTGTTTCATCATGATATAGATGACAGGGTGTAGATGGAGGA GGACTTGGCGAAGAACGCTGGGAGGGTCATGAAGATGGGGCCA AAGTCGGAGCCCTGGTGGGTGAAGATGTAGAA
RHO	4	2	chr20	5633226	5633346	GCCACACTGGCATAGGGCACCCAGCAGATCAGGAAAGCGATGA CCATGATGATGACCATGCGGGTGACCTCCTTTTCAGCCTTCTGG GTGGTGGCCGATTCTGCTGCTGGGCAGCTGCC
RHO	3	1	chr20	5633430	5633550	AGCACAAGGATCATACCTCCTTACTGTGAAGACGAGCTGTCCAT AGCAGAAGAATATGACAATCATGGGGATGGCGAAGTGGACCACG AACATGTAGATGACGAAGGACTCATTGTTGA
RHO	3	2	chr20	5633551	5633671	TTCTGGCTTGGAGTGTGTAGTAGTCGATCCACATGAGCACTGCAT GCCCTCTGGGATGTACCTGAGCACCAGAGGGGAGTGAGACAGG AGAGGGTGTAAAGGGAGACCCACGCGTGAAGGA
RHO	2	1	chr20	5634870	5634990	CTCTTTTGCTCAGTGCCATTACCTGGACCAGCCAGCGAGGGGGG GTGCCGCACAGGCCAGCGCCATGACCCAGGTGAAGGCGACGCC CATGATGGCATGGTTCTCCCCAAAACGGAAGTT

Gene	Exon	Probe	Chromosome	Start	Stop	Seq
RHO	2	2	chr20	5634991	5635111	CTCATGGGCTTACACACCACCACGTACCGCTCAATGGCCAGGAC CACCAAAGACCACAGGGCAATTTACCTGCAAGGCAGTCAGGGA CTGATCAGTCAACACACCACCTACCTGGACCC
RHO	1	1	chr20	5637044	5637164	GCCCAGTGTGGCAAAGAAGCCCTCCACATTGCATCCTGTGGGCC CGAAGACAAAGTATCCATGCAGAGAGGTGTAGAGGGTGGTGGTG AAGCCACCGAAGACCATGAAGAGGTCAGCCAC
RHO	1	2	chr20	5637165	5637285	GCCAGGTTGAGCAGGATGTAGTTGAGAGGTGTACGCAGCTTCTT GTGCTGGACTGTGACGTAGAGCGTGAGGAAGTTGATGGGGAAG CCGAGCACGATCAGCAGAAACATGTAGGCAGCC
RHO	1	3	chr20	5637286	5637406	GCATGGAGAACTGCCATGGCTCAGCCAGGTAGTACTGTGGGTAC TCGAAGGGGCTGCGCACACACCCGTCTTGTGGAGAAGGGCA CGTAGAAGTTCGGGCCCTCCGTCCCCTTCATGG
PTEN	1	1	chr26	37853085	37853205	ACATGTATATGTTAGTTTGCATTGTTGTATATTTTCAGACATTTCTT AACTTAAGTACTCAGATATTTATCCCAACATTATTGCTATGGGGTT TCCTGCAGAAAGACTTGAAGGCGTATA
PTEN	1	2	chr26	37853205	37853325	CAGGAACAATATTGATGATGTAGTAAGGTAAGAACTATTATTTTCT GTTTCAAATATTGATGTATTCATGCTGTATTTTCATTTAGAGAAGA TTTCTAAATCGTGGAAAATGATGACTA
PTEN	2	1	chr26	37878188	37878308	TTTCTCAATAGTATAAATGTAATTTCAAATGTTAGCTCATTTTTGTT AATGGTGGCTTTTTGTTTGTGTTTTGTTTTAAGTTTTTGGATTG AAAGCATAAAAACCATTACAAGATAT
PTEN	2	2	chr26	37878248	37878368	TGTTTGTGTTGTTTTGTTTTAAGGTTTTTGGATTCAAAGCATAAAAAC CATTACAAGATATACAATCTGTAAGTATGTTTTTATTTGTATGCTT GCAAATATCTTCTAAAATAACTATTA
PTEN	2	3	chr26	37878308	37878428	ACAATCTGTAAGTATGTTTTTATTTGTATGCTTGCAAATATCTTCT AAAATAACTATTAAGTGAAAGTTATTTCTTGTAGAATCAGGTAGA GTTAAAGATACATTTTAAACAGAATTGT
PTEN	3	1	chr26	37883981	37884101	ATTAAAACAGTTCAGAAAATGTTTGTTACTTTTTTTTGGCCAGTGCA AAAAATAACTAGGTACATTTAACTTTTCTTTTAGGTGTGCTGAA AGACATTATGATACCGCCAAATTTAACT
PTEN	3	2	chr26	37884041	37884161	CACATTTAACTTTTCTTTTAGGTGTGCTGAAAGACATTATGATAC CGCCAAATTTAACTGCAGAGGTAGGTATTAAGTCTGAGTAATGT ATTATGTTATATAACTTAAAACCAGTACA
PTEN	3	3	chr26	37884101	37884221	GCAGAGGTAGGTATTAAGTCTGAGTAATGTATTATGTTATATAAC TTAAAACCAGTACACTAAATCTTAACAGTCATAGCAGTAATGAATA ATCTCAATTATTAAGTGAGGTAATAAAA
PTEN	4	1	chr26	37885930	37886050	TTTAATAAACAGTTCAGGAAAGACTTTTTTCTAATTCTGAGGTTAT CTTTTTACCACAGTTGCACAGTATCCTTTTGAAGACCATAATCCAC CACAGCTAGAACTTATCAAACCCTTTTG

Gene	Exon	Probe	Chromosome	Start	Stop	Seq
PTEN	4	2	chr26	37886050	37886170	TGAAGATCTTGACCAATGGCTAAGTGAAGATGACAATCATGTTGC AGCAATTCCTGTAAGCTGGAAAGGGACGAACTGGTGTAAATGAT TTGTGCATATTTATTACATCGGGGCAAATT
PTEN	4	3	chr26	37886170	37886290	TCTAAAGGCACAAGAGGCCCTAGATTTCTATGGGGAAGTAAGGA CCAGAGACAAAAGGTAAGTTATATTTGATTTTTTTCTTTCTTTTT TTTCTTTCTTGGAGAATTTATTGGAAAAC
PTEN	5	1	chr26	37900543	37900663	CTGTCCACCAGGGAGTAACTATCCCAGTCAGAGGCGCTATGTG TATTATTATAGCTACCTGTTAAAGAATCATCTGGATTATAGACCAG TGGCACTGTTGTTTACAAGATGATGTTTG
PTEN	5	2	chr26	37900663	37900783	AACTATTCCAATGTTCAAGTGGCGGAAGTTGCAGTAAGTGCTCTA AATTTTCATCCTTCCAGTACATGGAACACTTTTCTAGACATATCTA GAAGTTTACATTAATAATTTAGAAAAGAAAT
PTEN	6	1	chr26	37906294	37906414	CTAACGTGTATTTAACCGTGCAGATCCTCAGTTTGTGGTCTGCCA GCTAAAGGTGAAGATCTATTCCTCCAATTCAGGACCCACACGACG GGAAGACAAGTTCATGTACTTTGAGTTCCC
PTEN	6	2	chr26	37906414	37906534	TCAGCCATTGCCTGTGTGCGGTGACATCAAAGTAGAGTTCTTCCA CAAACAGAACAAGATGCTAAAAAAGGTTTGTACTTTTATTGGGAA CAATATCCCAAATCACTGTATTTTGTATAG
PTEN	7	1	chr26	37909842	37909962	ATATGTTTTCTTCTTTAAAAACAATTTAAAATTTGTCTTTTTTTTTT AAAGGACAAAATGTTTCACTTTTGGGTAAACACATTCTTCATACCA GGACCAGAGGAAAACCTCAGAAAAAGT
PTEN	7	2	chr26	37909962	37910082	AGAAAATGGAAGTCTATGTGATCAAGAAATTGATAGTATTTGCAG TATAGAACGTGCAGATAATGACAAGGAATATCTAGTACTCACTTTA ACAAAAAATGATCTCGACAAAGCAAATAA
PTEN	7	3	chr26	37910082	37910202	AGACAAGGCCAACCGATATTTTTCTCAAATTTTAAGGTCGGTTA AAGAAATTTTAAGGAAGTGGTGGGTGGCTCTTTGTGTGTGTGTGG GGCGGGGTTTAGGTGTCTAGCTGGTGAAGG
PTEN	8	1	chr26	37912883	37913003	TTCCATTTAACTTTGCCTTTTTTCTCTAGGTGAAGCTGTACTTC ACAAAACTGTAGAGGAGCCATCAAACCCGGAGGCTAGCAGTTC AACTTCTGTGACGCCAGATGTTAGTGACAA
PTEN	8	2	chr26	37913003	37913123	TGAACCTGATCATTATAGATATTCTGACACCACTGACTCTGACCC AGAGAATGAACCCTTTGATGAAGATCAGCACACACAAATCACAAA AGTCTGAATTTTTTTAATCAAGAGGGATA
POT1	2	1	chr14	10988226	10988346	AGCAGCAGGCTGTCAACTTCTAATTGAATTTGCTTTTCGACAATA TTTTGAAGCAGATCTGATATGCCACTTGAATTAATAAAAAGAAGTGA ATGGAGTACCTGAGGTTGAGCTGCTAGGT
POT1	2	2	chr14	10988286	10988406	GATATGCCACTTGAATTAATAAAAAGAAGTGAATGGAGTACCTGAG GTTGAGCTGCTAGGTGAATTAACAAAGTAGAGTTCAAGTCTCTA CAACCAGGTTGTGATTATAGCAAGAAATAT

Gene	Exon	Probe	Chromosome	Start	Stop	Seq
POT1	2	3	chr14	10988346	10988466	GAATTAACAAAGTAGAGTTCAGGTCTCTACAACCAGGTTGTGAT TATAGCAAGAAATATATCCAGGTAAGAATTTTCATAACTCCGAATG CTTTTTTTTTCTTCCAAAAGAAATGCTCA
POT1	3	1	chr14	10997222	10997342	TTGCTTTTAAAATAGTTATTCCAATTTTAACCTATCTCTTGGTGTG TGAGAAGCTCTTTTGGGTTTTCTGTATAACCATTTTTCTCTCATTTT AGGGAAAACTTTCACTTATTTCTTCT
POT1	3	2	chr14	10997282	10997402	TGGGTTTTCTGTATAACCATTTTTCTCTCATTTTAGGGAAAACTTT CACTTATTTCTTCTTTAACTTATGGTGGAACAGAACAGCTGTTTT GAAGATTGCACTACAAGGTATACAATAT
POT1	3	3	chr14	10997342	10997462	TTAACTTATGGTGGAAACAGAACAGCTGTTTTGAAGATTGCACTA CAAGGTATACAATATAATAAGACCATTTCTGCTTACCTTTTGCTT ATAATCTACAGATGGATAACTTAATATGT
POT1	4	1	chr14	11000574	11000694	TTGTGTGTCTTAACTGAATCTAATTAGTGTTTTTCTGTATGTGTG TTTTTCTCCTAGAACAAGAAAATTCAAATTCAGACACCAACACAG TCAAATGTACTATTTTTGGAAAATTAGC
POT1	4	2	chr14	11000634	11000754	ACAAGAAAATTCAAATTCAGACACCAACAGTCAATGTACTATTT TTTGAAAATTAGCAAAGGACTGTGCAAAGTTTTCTATGAAGGG GTAAATTACTTTTCATGTTACTTTGTTTTA
POT1	4	3	chr14	11000694	11000814	AAAGGACTGTGCAAAGTTTTCTATGAAGGGGTAAATTACTTTTCAT GTTACTTTGTTTTAGGAATATATTTAAAATTATAGATGCTATATTCA TCCTATAGATCTTTTTTTGTTTGGTTT
POT1	5	1	chr14	11011501	11011621	TTATATACATTCAGAATTACAAATATTTTGATGATTTAAAACCACTT TTTCCTATGTAGGACACCATTGCAGTGGCTGGATTTGCTGTCTTG TCAGCATCTTCATCTACAAGCAGAGATG
POT1	5	2	chr14	11011561	11011681	ACACCATTGCAGTGGCTGGATTTGCTGTCTTGTGAGCATCTTCAT CTACAAGCAGAGATGGTAAACATTGTTATTTTTGAAAGCATTGGA GACTTCAAATCAACTGTTTATGTAAGTA
POT1	5	3	chr14	11011621	11011741	GTAAACATTGTTTATTTTTGAAAGCATTGAGGACTTCAAATCAAC TGTTTTATGTAAGTATGTAACTTTTAGTCCAATCATATGGTTTTAATG AGTTAAGGGGATGGAATAGTATTTCTG
POT1	6	1	chr14	11012367	11012487	TCAAATTGTTTAGGTGCAATTAACGCTGTGAATCACAGTGGAGG TTGTTTATATACAAGTTAATGCTCTTATTTGTTTTCAGGTTTATGT TAAATCTGTAAGAGATTTTTCTGCAGAA
POT1	6	2	chr14	11012427	11012547	TTAATGCTCTTATTTGTTTTCAGGTTTATGTTAAATCTGTAAGAGA TTTTTCTGCAGAATCAATGTCTTTGGTAAGATGATACTCAATTTTA ATTGGAAATATGCACACACGCGCACAC
POT1	6	3	chr14	11012487	11012607	TCAATGTCTTTGGTAAGATGATACTCAATTTTAATTGGAAATATGC ACACACGCGCACACGTAAGATACACACATGTATGTACATACATA TATATTTGATCCGCTTTATAGACTCATTT

Gene	Exon	Probe	Chromosome	Start	Stop	Seq
POT1	7	1	chr14	11014524	11014644	ACATTATTCTAAAATGTAAATACTTAGTATTGATATATTCACTGGCT TCTCTTTCTTAGGTTCCAACAACACACTATATATACACCCCTGA ATCAACTTAAGGGTGGCACAGTCGTCA
POT1	7	2	chr14	11014584	11014704	TTCCAACAACACACTATATATACACCCCTGAATCAACTTAAGGG TGGCACAGTCGTCAATGTCTATGGTGTTGTGAAGTTCTTTAAGCC TCCATATCTAAGCAAAGGAAGTGGTAGGT
POT1	7	3	chr14	11014644	11014764	ATGTCTATGGTGTTGTGAAGTTCTTTAAGCCTCCATATCTAAGCAA AGGAACTGGTAGGTATTAATAATTGGTAAAGATTTTGATGGGCTGG AACTGATTTATTGGTTTCAGAAACATACT
POT1	8	1	chr14	11030199	11030319	TCCAGATTATTGCTCAGTTGTAACAATTGTGGACCAGACAAATGT AAAGCTAACCTGCATGCTCTTTAGTGGAATTAATGAAGCCCTTCC AATAATTTATAAAAATGGAGATATTGTTTCG
POT1	8	2	chr14	11030319	11030439	CTTTCACAGGCTGAAGGTATAGTTCATACTATCTAGAACTTATCTG TTTGAAGAGAACTCTATTTTTCATAACTAGTTAGCACTAATTAT GTGGTACTGTGGTAGAACATGACATC
POT1	9	1	chr14	11033511	11033631	TTTCTGCTCTGCCCAACTTTCTTAGATCCAAGTATATAAAAATGAA ACTCAAGGTATCACCAGCTCTGGCTTTGCATCTTTGACATTTGAG GGGACTTTGGGAGCTCCTGTCATACCTCG
POT1	9	2	chr14	11033631	11033751	TACTTCAAGCAAGTATTTTAACTTCACTGCTGAGGACCAGAAAAT GGTAGAAGCTTTACGTGTTTGGGCATCTACTCATATTTACCTTCT TCAACATTAGTAAAATTGTGTGATGTTCA
POT1	9	3	chr14	11033751	11033871	ACCATTGCAGTATTTTGACCTGACTTGTGAGCTCTTGGGCAAAGC AGAAGTGGATGGAGCATCATTTCTTTTAAAGGTAGGTATTTTAAAT GCTTTAAGTTGTAAGTTAACACCACCTAC
POT1	10	1	chr14	11037754	11037874	TCTACTCTGTTATGGCAGGTATGGGATGGCACCAGGACCCCGTT CCCATCATGGAGAGTCTTAATACAAGACCTTGTACTTGAAGGAGA TTTAAGTCATATCCATCGGCTGCAGAATCTG
POT1	10	2	chr14	11037874	11037994	ACAGTGGACATTTTAGTCTATGATAATCATGTTCAAGTGGCAAAT CTCTAAAGGTGATGTTGGTAGCAAATGTTTGCTCTTTTTTTTTTTTT TTTTTTTATTTTATTTATGATAGGCAC
POT1	11	1	chr14	11043257	11043377	TAAATAATAAATAATGATTTTTTAGGTTGGAAGCTTTCTTAGAATTT ATAGCCTCCATACCAAACCTTCAGTCACTGAATTCAGAGAACCAGG CAACGTTGTTAGCTCTAGAGTTTCATCT
POT1	11	2	chr14	11043377	11043497	CCATGGGGGTACCAGTTACGGCCGGGGAATCAGAGTCTTGCCA GAGAGTAACTCTGATGTGGATCAACTGAAAAAGTAAGCATATCAT ATGCCTATTTAGAAAATTTCAAATAAGGTATTA
POT1	12	1	chr14	11044464	11044584	ACTAGTCATATTGACTATTTTATGCAATTTGATGTGAAATTATGTT TTTCAATTACAGGGTTTTAGAATCTGCAGATTTGACAGCCAGTCA GTGTTCCGATGCTATATGTCATTCAGAA

Gene	Exon	Probe	Chromosome	Start	Stop	Seq
POT1	12	2	chr14	11044524	11044644	GTTTTAGAATCTGCAGATTTGACAGCCAGTCAGTGTTCCGATGCT ATATGTCATTCCAGAACAGGAGGACAGCCTTCGGACTCTTTTCGAGT AAGGACAGTGTTTAATGTTAACGGTTTAAT
POT1	12	3	chr14	11044584	11044704	CAGGAGGACAGCCTTCGGACTCTTTTCGAGTAAGGACAGTGTTTA ATGTTAACGGTTTAATCTTTGCTAAGTAAAATGGCTTTATCAGTAT TCTCTTTTTTAATACTTTCCCTATCTCTGCC
POT1	13	1	chr14	11048884	11049004	AGTTCCTGTCAGCAATTTTTTCAGTGCTACATGGAATTTTTAACGGA TTTTAAAATTGTTTAATTCTTTTTCCCTTCTCCTTCGTGTAGGCTCT GGATCAGTATCACTGTATGAAATAGAA
POT1	13	2	chr14	11048944	11049064	AATTCTTTTTCCCTTCTCCTTCGTGTAGGCTCTGGATCAGTATCAC TGTATGAAATAGAAAGATGTCAGCAACTATCAGCTACAAGTAAGA TCAGTTCATTTTTAAAATATGAGTGTGAT
POT1	13	3	chr14	11049004	11049124	AGATGTCAGCAACTATCAGCTACAAGTAAGATCAGTTCATTTTTAA AATATGAGTGTGATAGTGTGCATAATAAAAATTGTCTTACCAACTAA TTTGTTCCCTATCTAATATTGAGAGCAGA
POT1	14	1	chr14	11051255	11051375	TCTAAAATTCTTTTTAAGTACTTACAGATCATCAGTATTTGGAGAA AACCCCAATATGTAATTTTTGAAACAAAAAGCTCCTCAGCAGTAT CGTATCCGAGCCAAATTAAGGTCATATA
POT1	14	2	chr14	11051375	11051495	AGCCCAGAAGACTCTTTCAGTCTGTTAACTCCATTGTCCTAAAT GTCATGCACTGTAAGTATTTTCTGTAATAAAACAAAAGTTTTTATTT CATAATATTTATGCTTTCTTATATATCA
POT1	15	1	chr14	11052916	11053036	AGTTTATACCAATTGTTTTGATTTTCGTCATTGATGATTTTAGGCA AGAAGTTCCACATGAGGGTGATATGGATATAATTTTACAAGAGGG TGCAAGTAAGACCCCAGATACCAAACACTAC
POT1	15	2	chr14	11053036	11053156	AAAATACATCATTATATGATTCAAAAATGTGGACCACTACAGATCA AGGAGAACGAAATGTGGCTGTTTCAATTTTGTAATAATAATGGTATT CTTCCACTTTCAAGTGACTGTCTGATTT
POT1	15	3	chr14	11053156	11053276	TGATAGAAGGTATTTAAATTAATGTTTTATTAGAATACAGCTTTTGT CTATGTCCTTTCTTTGATTAATGATCATTAAATATATTTTAGGGCAAC CTAGGACAATTCGATAAAAATGGAATA
POT1	16	1	chr14	11056487	11056607	GTTAATAGGAGGTACACTCAGTGAATCTGCAAACCTCGCAGACAA GTTTCATAGTGTAATTCCTGTGAGATCTGGCCATGAAGACCTGGA AGTCCTTGATCTTTCAGCACCATTCCCTTAT
POT1	16	2	chr14	11056607	11056727	ACAAGGGAAAATTCATCACTATGGGTATGCTTTCAAATCTGAGAA TTTTGAGAATTAATAACTGCATAGAAATAACTTTTTATTACTTTATCC CACTAGTTGCTGTATATTCAATGGATAC
POT1	17	1	chr14	11059564	11059684	ATAATAAATGAGTTATAATAATTATTTTTAAATGCCTGTGGTTTTTT TCTATCATTAATTTTCAGATGTAACAATGTTCTACTTTGAGACCAA TTCAAAAATCTAAATTCCTGGTTGATA

Gene	Exon	Probe	Chromosome	Start	Stop	Seq
POT1	17	2	chr14	11059624	11059744	TCAGATGTAAACAATGTTCTACTTTGAGACCAATTCAAATCTAAA TTCCCTGGTTGATAAACACAATGGATTCCATCTTCTGTGGCTGA AGGTGAGCTAAATTTGTGTGTCGTGCAAC
POT1	17	3	chr14	11059684	11059804	AAACACAATGGATTCCATCTTCTGTGGCTGAAGGTGAGCTAAATT TGTGTGTCGTGCAACTGTGACCTCACTGATTATTTTCAGTGTTT GTGGGTATAATAAACCGGAGCAAAGACTG
POT1	18	1	chr14	11061680	11061800	CATAAGACAATTTTTACTTCACTTTGATTATAAGGAATAGAAGATT CACATAGTTTGATCTTTTTTCCCTTCACTAGTACTGGGTATTGTA CCCCTTCAACATGTGTTTGAATGACAT
POT1	18	2	chr14	11061740	11061860	TTTTTTTCCCTTCACTAGTACTGGGTATTGTACCCCTTCAACATGT GTTTGAATGACATTTACTCTTGATGATGGAACAGGAGTATTGGA AGCTTATCTCATGGATTCTGTAAGTAACA
POT1	18	3	chr14	11061800	11061920	TTACTCTTGATGATGGAACAGGAGTATTGGAAGCTTATCTCATGG ATTCTGTAAGTAACAGAGTTGGTATAGGTATTTATAACAAAAAAA AATTTTTTAAATTCTAATGTATGATTC
POT1	19	1	chr14	11063716	11063836	TCAAATAAATAAAATCTTCAAAAAATAAAAAAGATTAATTTCTTT TTTCTCTAAATTTTTTCAAGGACAAATTCTTCCAGATCCCAGCAT CAGAAATCCTCATCAATGATGACCTTC
POT1	19	2	chr14	11063776	11063896	TTTTCAAGGACAAATTCTTCCAGATCCCAGCATCAGAAATCCTCAT CAATGATGACCTTCAGCAGAGTATGGATTGATCATGGATATGTT TTGTCCTTCAGGAATAAAAAATTGGTAGGC
POT1	19	3	chr14	11063836	11063956	AGCAGAGTATGGATTGATCATGGATATGTTTTGTCCTTCAGGAA TAAAAATTGGTAGGCAATAATTTTTAACATTCATTCTTTTTTTGA AACAGTACTTGACATGTATCTAATATGT
POT1	20	1	chr14	11066241	11066361	TTTCAGAGATACTTGTTAACGTTAACAGTTAAATAACTTTTTTTTT TCTCATTGTAGATGCATATCCATGGTTGGAATGCTTCATCAAGTC GTATAATGTCACAAGTGAACAGAGCA
POT1	20	2	chr14	11066301	11066421	TGCATATCCATGGTTGGAATGCTTCATCAAGTCGTATAATGTCAC AAGTGGAACAGAGCAGCAAATTTGCTATCAGATTTTTGACACCAC AGTTGCAGAAGATATAATCTAATATTGTCA
POT1	20	3	chr14	11066361	11066481	GCAAATTTGCTATCAGATTTTTGACACCACAGTTGCAGAAGATATA ATCTAATATTGTCATTTAGCTTAGCATATGAAAATATTATAATTTT AGAAAACATAATTTTCTGTGAGATTGT
KRAS	1	1	chr27	22261655	22261775	AAAGGTGTTGATAGAGTGGGTTATACTAACCTCATGTTCTAATTTA TATTAACCACATGTTCTAATTGAGTTACATTTTCATTATTTTTATTA TAAGGCCTGCTGAAAATGACTGAATAT
KRAS	1	2	chr27	22261715	22261835	TCTAATTGAGTTACATTTTCATTATTTTTATTATAAGGCCTGCTGAA AATGACTGAATATAAACTTGTGGTAGTTGGAGCTGGTGCCGTAG GCAAGAGTGCCTTGACGATACAGCTAATT

Gene	Exon	Probe	Chromosome	Start	Stop	Seq
KRAS	1	3	chr27	22261775	22261895	AAACTTGTGGTAGTTGGAGCTGGTGGCGTAGGCAAGAGTGCCTT GACGATACAGCTAATTCAGAATCACTTTGTGGATGAATATGATCC TACAATAGAGGTAAATTTTGTTTAATATTA
FBXW7	12	1	chr15	50189250	50189370	GCAGGGAGTATATCGTCTACACATTTGGACAAATTTGTCTTTTCT GCTCTTCACTTCATGTCCACATCAAAGTCCAGCACCAGCAGCTTG GTTTCCTCAGTCCCATTCCGACTCCCAACT
FBXW7	12	2	chr15	50189370	50189490	GCACACACCAGCTTTGTGTTTGAGGCTCTGATCCGCCACACGAC TCCCCCACTCCCCCACTCTCCAATGTGACTAGGTTTCGAATAAA TTCACCCGTTTTCAAGTCCCATAGTTTTACA
FBXW7	12	3	chr15	50189490	50189610	GTTCCATCATCTGAGCTGGTAATTACAAAGTTCTTGTTGAACTGTA AACAGGTCACAGCACTCTGATGCTTGTTAGGACCTAGGCCAAAAC CAAAGGAATTC AATTACTGGTTAGAAATCA
FBXW7	11	1	chr15	50190660	50190780	CAAGACTTACCTTGCAATGTTTGTAACACTGTCCTGTTTTGATAT CCCAGATTTTAACTGTAGAATCTGCATTCCCAGAGACAAGAATAT TGTCTTTGAGTTCCATTCCACTTGTTAAC
FBXW7	11	2	chr15	50190780	50190900	GACTGGTGTCTGTTAACGTGTGAATGCAATTCCTGTCTCCACA TCCCACACTCGGATTGATGTATCAAGAGATCCACTCACCACATGG ATGCCATCAAACCTGCAACAGACACAGCATA
FBXW7	10	1	chr15	50192364	50192484	GGATCCCTTACCTGTAATGAATAGACTCTATTAGTATGCCCTGC AACGTGTGTAGACAGGTCTCGGTCTCCGGATCCCACACCTTCAC CATAAAATCATATGCTCCACTAACAACCCTC
FBXW7	10	2	chr15	50192484	50192604	CTGCCATCATACTGAACACAGCGGACTGCTGCTACATGACCCAT CAAAACATGTAAACACTGGCCTGTCTCAATATCCCAAACCCTAAG AGTGGCATCTCGAGAACCGCTAACAACCTCTG
FBXW7	9	1	chr15	50194539	50194659	AATTCCCAACCATTACAGGATTTTCCCTTACCTTTTTTTCATGGAGA TGCATACAGCGGACAGTGGAAGTATGCCCATATAAGGTATGTATA CATTCCCAGTCTCTGCATTCCACACTTT
FBXW7	9	2	chr15	50194659	50194779	TAGAGTCCGATCTGTAGATCCACTAATGATGATATTGTCTCTCATC TGTGATGACCATACTCCACCTGTGTGTCCCACTAATGTTCTCAGA CACTGGAAAAACACTTAAGATGATTACTT
FBXW7	8	1	chr15	50195903	50196023	TTCCCTGATTGATCCATGCAAAAACATAAACA AAAATGGGAAGTAT AGAAAGAAGTATGCTTACTTTGCCTGTGACTGCTGACCAAACCTTT TAAAGTGTGTCATCAGAACCCTA AACTAT
FBXW7	8	2	chr15	50195963	50196083	TACTTTGCCTGTGACTGCTGACCAAACCTTTTAAAGTGTGTCATCA GAACCACTAACTATTCGGTTACCACAAAACCTGTAAGCATGTGATC ACATGATCATCATGTCCTTTCAGAACCTA
FBXW7	8	3	chr15	50196023	50196143	TCGGTTACCACAAAACCTGTAAGCATGTGATCACATGATCATCATG TCCTTTCAGAACCTACAAGATAAATGTACAGATTAGAAATATGTTA TTAAATTATATTTCTTAAAATACTGGTAA

Gene	Exon	Probe	Chromosome	Start	Stop	Seq
FBXW7	7	1	chr15	50197239	50197359	TCAGTTACCTTAGGAGATTTGAGTTCTCCTCGCCTCCAGTTAGTA TCAATTCTATGCTGTCTGATGTATGCACTTTTCCATGGACTGTGTA TGAAACCTGGTTTTATTACTTTTTCTTCTC
FBXW7	7	2	chr15	50197359	50197479	TTGATGTGCAATGGTTCATCAATACCTGAAATTTTAAAGAGTCACC AATAGTAAAAATTACACATTTTATAATATATCTCATTTTCCCCTATG CTCAAACCACTGAAATACAGGACATT
FBXW7	6	1	chr15	50199853	50199973	CAGAATCATTTTGCTTTTTCAAAGTATAAAAAATTTTCTCTTTGTGAT TTTGAACCTTACCCTCTTCTTTGCATTTCTCTCTCCAGAGAAGGTT GTCTTCAGCCAAAATTCTCCAGTAGCG
FBXW7	6	2	chr15	50199913	50200033	CTCTTCTTTGCATTTCTCTCTCCAGAGAAGGTTGTCTTCAGCCAAA ATTCTCCAGTAGCGACACGTCTGAGCCGCTTGTAGCAGGTCTTT GGTTCCAGGAATGAAAGCACATAAAGTGC
FBXW7	6	3	chr15	50199973	50200093	ACACGTCTGAGCCGCTTGTAGCAGGTCTTTGGTTCCAGGAATG AAAGCACATAAAGTGCCAGCTATGAAAAGGAAAAAAGCATAGTAT ACTCATATTTTAAATATATACTTATTTAACA
FBXW7	5	1	chr15	50204890	50205010	GGATGAAAAATATAATTGATAATCCTTACCTCTTTAGGGAGCAAG GAAATGAAGTCTCGTTGAAACTGGGGTTCTATCACTTGCATCATA TGTTTTACTTGGTTGGTTCACAACATCA
FBXW7	5	2	chr15	50205010	50205130	ATAAGCTCATCTAAAGCAAGCAATTTCTCTGGTCCACTCCAGCTC TATGAAAAAGGAAGTAGAAATTTTTAGTATTTTAAACAGATGCTCAA ATTACAAACTCATAAAGGAAAAACCACAT
FBXW7	4	1	chr15	50214599	50214719	TTCAAGTACTGTGTTTAGACATGTCACCTGAAACATTTTCAGCCAT TCCTGGAGGCCTGTAGGTGGTTGGACAGATGTAATTCGGCGTCG TTGCTGCCCTTGGCCATTGGCTGCTCTCAG
FBXW7	4	2	chr15	50214719	50214839	GTCTCCAAAAGTTGTTGGTGTGCTGAACATGGTACAAGCCCAGT GGTACTACAAAAAACAACAAAAAACAACAAAAAACAACAAAAA AACAAACCCACAAGAGTGGAACAGAGAT
FBXW7	3	1	chr15	50217939	50218059	TTTGAATCATCACTTCTTTAAAGAAACATAAGAATAATAAGAGAA TTAATTATTATACTCAGTATTACCTTGTGTATTCTGAGACTTTGCAT GGTTTCTTTCCCAAAGAAAAAGAGCGG
FBXW7	3	2	chr15	50217999	50218119	CAGTATTACCTTGTGTATTCTGAGACTTTGCATGGTTTCTTTCCCA AAGAAAAAGAGCGGACCTCAGAACCATGGTCCAATTTTCTTTTCA TCTATAAGGTAAAGCAAATAAGATAGGTT
FBXW7	3	3	chr15	50218059	50218179	ACCTCAGAACCATGGTCCAATTTTCTTTTCATCTATAAGGTAAAGC AAATAAGATAGGTTTAAAAAAGTACCTGTCCCAACTACTAA ATCTTAACATATGCATTGGCAATACTGA
FBXW7	2	1	chr15	50281778	50281898	TTTGTGTCTTTGTATAGAATGGGGAGGAGAGTTGGTGAATAGGC AGGTCCACGATACTAGTGGAGTTTGTGACACTGTTACTATGTGTA TGGTCATCTTCCCTGCTACTGTCTCATCAGAT

Gene	Exon	Probe	Chromosome	Start	Stop	Seq
FBXW7	2	2	chr15	50281898	50282018	TGATCAAATCATCACTCTCCTGGTCCATTTCTCTTCTTCTTCAT CCTCCTCATCTTGTTCCACCAGCATGTTCTTCATCTTCTTCTTGCTC TTCTTGGTTTTCTGAGGAGTCCTCATCT
FBXW7	2	3	chr15	50282018	50282138	ACCGAAATGAATCGATTATTGTTTTCTTCAAATGTCCTTGCTGGG AATCATTTTGGTCTCCAGGTCTAGGTTCTGCTCCGACGACTTCAC CATTCTTGACAGTGTGCTCCTCCTCTTGT
FBXW7	2	4	chr15	50282138	50282258	TGTCTGAGCTGTTGCTGCTGTTGCTGCTGCTGCTGTTCCCTCCTCT ACCACACGATTCATCTGTTCCCTCATCTGCCTGGCTTGAGGAAGG GTTACCTCTCAGAGAGCCTCCAGTTCGTCGT
FBXW7	2	5	chr15	50282258	50282378	CGTTTGCTGCCCACAGAGAGCAGTTCCTGATTCATTTCCAAAAGC CAGCTTGCTACTTCTTGGACCTTGGCTAGACTATCAGAAGATGCA AAGGATTTACATTCTGTAGGGAAAAATGA
EZH2	3	1	chr16	1953097	1953217	AGTATGTTTAGTTCCAATCGTCAGAAAATTTGGAAAGAACGGAA ATCTTAAACCAAGAATGGAAACAGCGAAGGATACAGCCTGTGCA CATCCTGACTTCTGTGAGCTCATTGCGCGGG
EZH2	3	2	chr16	1953157	1953277	TGGAAACAGCGAAGGATACAGCCTGTGCACATCCTGACTTCTGT GAGCTCATTGCGCGGGACCAGGGAGGTTGGTTAACTCACGCACT GTAGTAATTATCGGTGCATTCTGGTGTGTTGCT
EZH2	3	3	chr16	1953217	1953337	ACCAGGGAGGTTGGTTAACTCACGCACTGTAGTAATTATCGGTG CATTCTGGTGTGTTGCTCTTGCAATGTTGGTTGGTTATTGATAGGA AGTCATTCACCTCAGGATGTCCGTCTTTTTA
EZH2	4	1	chr16	1961697	1961817	GTGTGTTAATTTCTTCCCTTCCCTGCAGGCCATTACCTGCTCTT CCCTCTACGATTTTCCATAACACAGTTTTTACTTGGAACCAGCCTT CTGCCAAGAGTCTCAGTTTGGTTGTGTA
EZH2	4	2	chr16	1961817	1961937	CTCCTACAACACTATTTTTGGCTTGACTTCCCTCTCCAGCTCCCA GTGGTCCAGCCACACAGTCGCCTATTGTACCAGCTGGTTGATGT AAGTCTATCCATCCTCAGAGGAACCCGGTT
EZH2	5	1	chr16	1965306	1965426	TACCACTTGAGGTTGTCCTTTTATTCTTATGAGTCAATTTTATTTGT TTCTGTTCTAGTGTTTCAGTGACCAGTGACTTGGATTTTCCAACAC AAGTCATCCCATTAAAGACTCTGAATGC
EZH2	5	2	chr16	1965426	1965546	GGTTGCTTCAGTACCATAATGTATTCTTGGTCTCCCCTTCAGCA GAATTTTATGGTATGTACATCTGTGATCTGCTTACTTTATTATCAC TTATTTTAAATAAAAACACACTTTTCTTGT
EZH2	6	1	chr16	1968623	1968743	GATTTAAAAATATTTTGATACTTCAGATTAACCTTGCTTTTAAATA TGTTTATTTTATAGGTGGAAGATGAAACTGTTTTACATAACATTCCG TATATGGGGGATGAAGTTTTAGATCAG
EZH2	6	2	chr16	1968683	1968803	GTGGAAGATGAAACTGTTTTACATAACATTCCGTATATGGGGGAT GAAGTTTTAGATCAGGATGGGACTTTCATTGAAGAATAATAAAA AATTATGATGGAAAAGTACATGGGGATAGA

Gene	Exon	Probe	Chromosome	Start	Stop	Seq
EZH2	6	3	chr16	1968743	1968863	GATGGGACTTTTCATTGAAGAATAATAAAAAATTATGATGGAAAA GTACATGGGGATAGAGGTGAGCCCTGTGTTTATTCTCTTCAAAAA AGGGGCCAAAGAATTGAAAGATATTTTGAA
EZH2	7	1	chr16	1969602	1969722	TGAATTTTCAAGATGTGGGTTTATAAATGATGAAATTTTTGTGGAGT TGGTGAATGCTCTTGGTCAATACAATGATGATGATGATGATGATG ATGGAGATGATCCTGATGAAAGAGAAGAA
EZH2	7	2	chr16	1969722	1969842	AAACAGAAAGATCTAGAGGAGAACAGAGATGGTATGTCTGTTTAT CAGGTTTGTGTGTAGCCTTGACAGCATTTTTTCAAAAACAAAAATC ACAACTGTTATTAATTCCTTCTTTCTCT
EZH2	8	1	chr16	1970655	1970775	GTGGTTGCATGGAGAAGGAAGGTTTGAAAATTGTTTGCTTTTCAT CTTTTTCCCTTTCATATTTCCCATTTAGATAAAGAAAGCCGCC ACCTCGGAAATTTCTTCTGATAAAATTT
EZH2	8	2	chr16	1970715	1970835	TATTTCCCATTTAGATAAAGAAAGCCGCCACCTCGGAAATTTCT CTTCTGATAAAATTTTGAAGCCATTTCTCAATGTTTCCAGATAA GGCACAGCAGAAGAATAAAGGAAAAGT
EZH2	8	3	chr16	1970775	1970895	TTGAAGCCATTTCTCAATGTTTCCAGATAAGGGCACAGCAGAAG AACTAAAGGAAAAGTAAGAGTTGTTCTTTTGAGGCAATCTTGCCT TGTATGGTATGTTAGCTCAGCATTGCGGTT
EZH2	9	1	chr16	1971322	1971442	CGTTTTTCTTGGTCAATGTCAGGTATAAAGAGCTCACCGAGCAGC AGCTCCCAGGTGCGCTTCTCCTGAATGTACCCCGAACATCGAT GGACCAAATGCTAAATCTGTTCCAGAGGGAGC
EZH2	9	2	chr16	1971442	1971562	AAAGCTTGCATTCATTTACATCGCTTTTCTGTAGGCGATGTTTTAA ATATGACTGCTTCTACATCGTAAGTGCAGTTATTGTACGTTTTCT TTTTCTATCTTTGTTGTGGAATTATGTC
EZH2	10	1	chr16	1979980	1980100	GGCTTTTTCCACTGAACTGTGGAGATGAAAAAGTAAATATAATTA TACATGGATGTTTTCTGTTTATTTTGCAGCATTTCATGCAACACCC AATACTTACAAGCGGAAGAACACAGAAA
EZH2	10	2	chr16	1980040	1980160	CTGTTTATTTTGCAGCATTTTCATGCAACACCCAATACTTACAAGCG GAAGAACACAGAAACCGCTCTAGACAACAACCTTGTGGACCAC AGTGTACCAGCACTTGGTAAGCTCGGGTG
EZH2	10	3	chr16	1980100	1980220	CCGCTCTAGACAACAACCTTGTGGACCACAGTGTACCAGCACT TGGTAAGCTCGGGTGCTGCGTGATCCAGAGGGCATTGAGGAGT TTTGTGGTGAAGTGTGGCGAGGTCCATGAAG
EZH2	11	1	chr16	1981573	1981693	GAGGGAGCAAAGGAGTTTTCGGCTGCCCTCACTGCCGAGCGCA TCAAGACCCCGCCCAAGCGGCCCGGCCGCGCAGGAGAGGCC GGCTTCCCAACAATAGCAGCCGGCCAGCACCCCC
EZH2	11	2	chr16	1981693	1981813	ACCATTAATGTGCTGGAGTCCAAGGACACGGACAGTGACAGGGA AGCGGGGACTGAGACGGGCGGGGAGAACAACGATAAGGAGGAG GAGGAGAAGAAGGACGAGACCTCCAGCTCCTCG

Gene	Exon	Probe	Chromosome	Start	Stop	Seq
EZH2	12	1	chr16	1982496	1982616	CCAGTGCTTCACTTTGGTTTTCCAGAAGCAAATTCTCGGTGTCAA ACGCCAATAAAGATGAAGCCAAACATTGAGCCTCCCGAGAACGT GGAGTGGAGCGGCGCTGAGGCCTCCATGTTT
EZH2	12	2	chr16	1982616	1982736	CGGGTGCTCATCGGTACCTACTATGACAATTTCTGTGCCATTGCC AGGCTCATCGGGACCAAGACTTGTGCGCAGGTGAGCATGTCTGA CACCGCAGTTTGAGAGCTTGAGATGGGGGAT
EZH2	13	1	chr16	1982985	1983105	CAGCAGGGGCGGGTCTGGGGCGCTTTGCCGGAGCTGCCAGTGC TCACAGCCCTGTGACCACACCTCTTGTTAGGTGTATGAGTTCCTG GTCAAAGAATCGAGTATCATTGCTCCAGCCCC
EZH2	13	2	chr16	1983045	1983165	CACCTCTTGTTAGGTGTATGAGTTCCTGTCAAAGAATCGAGTAT CATTGCTCCAGCCCCGCGGAGGACGTGGACACCCCCCAAGG AAGAAGAAGAGGAAACACCGGTAAGGCTGGGT
EZH2	13	3	chr16	1983105	1983225	GGCCGAGGACGTGGACACCCCCCAAGGAAGAAGAGGAAA CACCGGTAAGGCTGGGTGGCTTCTGCTGTGGGTTGGATG CCAGAGTCATGTGGCCGCACACGCTCGCTCGCCA
EZH2	14	1	chr16	1984305	1984425	CGCAGGCAGCTTCTGTTGGTTTTGTGCCGTGACCCGACTCCTTA GCCTCACAAGGATGGCTTCTGTTTTGTGCTTGCAGGTTGTGGG CGGCACACTGCAGAAAGATACAGCTGAAAAAG
EZH2	14	2	chr16	1984365	1984485	TTCTGTTTTGTGCTTGCAGGTTGTGGGCGGCACACTGCAGAAA GATACAGCTGAAAAAGGTTAGCATCCTCCGTTTATAATTAECTT AAAAATGCCTGCTCATTTGTTTGAGAATAGT
EZH2	14	3	chr16	1984425	1984545	GGTTAGCATCCTCCGTTTATAATTAECTTAAAAATGCCTGCTCATT TGTTTGAGAATAGTAACTGGATTAGCGTTTGGGATGTTCTGATGT AATTGACTTCAGTACCCGAAGCCCATTTA
EZH2	15	1	chr16	1984739	1984859	ATTCGCGGGCGTCGTGTTCCCTCGCCTCTGGATTGACCCGCGCT GCTCTCCTTCCGCAGACGGCTCCTCTAACCACGTTTACAACATC AACCTGTGACCATCCACGGCAGCCTTGTGA
EZH2	15	2	chr16	1984799	1984919	CGGCTCCTCTAACCACGTTTACAACATCAACCCTGTGACCATCC ACGGCAGCCTTGTGACAGTTCGTGCCCTTGTGTGATAGCACAAA ATTTTTGTGAGAAGTTTTGTCAATGTAGCTC
EZH2	15	3	chr16	1984859	1984979	CAGTTCGTGCCCTTGTGTGATAGCACAAAATTTTTGTGAGAAGTT TTGTCAATGTAGCTCAGAGTGTAAGTATTTTGGTTTTGATGACTTGT GTGAGTTCCTGTTTTATTTATTTATTTAT
EZH2	16	1	chr16	1985613	1985733	CCCGCCTGAGGACCACCTGTCCCTGAAGGTCAAACCGCTTTC CTGGGTGCCGCTGCAAAGCGCAGTGCAACACGAAGCAGTGCCC GTGCTACCTGGCCGTGCGCGAGTGCGACCCCGA
EZH2	16	2	chr16	1985733	1985853	CCTGTGCCTCACGTGCGGCGCCGCGGACACTGGGACAGCAAG AACGTGTCTGCAAGAACTGCAGCATCCAGCGCGCTCCAAGAA GGTACGCACCGCCCCACTGGCTGGGGGCGGGGC

Gene	Exon	Probe	Chromosome	Start	Stop	Seq
EZH2	17	1	chr16	1987210	1987330	CTGGGCTGTCACGTAGCTAACTCTCCGTCTTTGCTCTCCTTCGGT GATGCGATTGTGTGCGTTTCCTTCTCTAGCACTTGCTGCTGGCAC CGTCTGACGTGGCAGGCTGGGGGATTTTCA
EZH2	17	2	chr16	1987270	1987390	GTTTCCTTCTCTAGCACTTGCTGCTGGCACCGTCTGACGTGGCA GGCTGGGGGATTTTCATCAAAGACCCTGTGCAGAAAAATGAATTC ATCTCGGAGTACTGTGGAGAGGTAAGGCAGG
EZH2	17	3	chr16	1987330	1987450	TCAAAGACCCTGTGCAGAAAAATGAATTCATCTCGGAGTACTGTG GAGAGGTAAGGCAGGGGACCCAGCCCCGGGCGGCCGCCAC GTACGAACCACATGGGTTCCGGGGTGTGCTGTG
EZH2	18	1	chr16	1987880	1988000	AGCAACACCAGCCGTAGGGACCATTCTGTTGGGGTTCCTCATGGG GGTCTGAGGTTGTCTGATCACCTGATCCAGGTCTTGTCTCTGC CTATCTTTTTAGATTATTTCTCAAGATGAAG
EZH2	18	2	chr16	1987940	1988060	GATCACCTGATCCAGGTCTTGTCTCTGCCTATCTTTTTAGATTAT TTCTCAAGATGAAGCAGACAGAAGAGGGAAAGTCTACGATAAATA CATGTGCAGCTTTCTCTTCAACTTGAACA
EZH2	18	3	chr16	1988000	1988120	CAGACAGAAGAGGGAAAGTCTACGATAAATACATGTGCAGCTTTC TCTTCAACTTGAACAATGGTACGTTTGACTTGGGGGCCCCCGGG ACGCATCGAGGAGCCCCTTCTCCTTATGAGC
EZH2	19	1	chr16	1988610	1988730	ATTGTCAGAACTTTGTGTTTACAGACCTAGGACTGAACCTATTCA CTGGACTATACTTACTTTTTCTTCTTTTTAGATTTTGTGGTGGATG CAACCCGCAAGGGTAACAAAATTCGTTTT
EZH2	19	2	chr16	1988670	1988790	TTTTTCTTCTTTTTAGATTTTGTGGTGGATGCAACCCGCAAGGGTA ACAAAATTCGTTTTGCAAATCACTCAGTAAATCCAACTGCTATGC AAAAGGTAGGTGCCGATGAAGTCCGAAT
EZH2	19	3	chr16	1988730	1988850	GCAAATCACTCAGTAAATCCAACTGCTATGCAAAGGTAGGTGC CGATGAAGTCCGAATCCCCAACAGAACTGCTTGCAGACCAGGGA GGGGGACTGGAGCAGCCTGGGACTGACGTG
EZH2	20	1	chr16	1988840	1988960	GACTGACGTGGACTTTGTGCGTGAGTCAGGTCTTCCCCGTGGCC TGCTTTCATCCAACACTACTGATACTGTGTCTCTCTCCAGTTATG ATGGTTAACGGCGATCACAGGATAGGGATT
EZH2	20	2	chr16	1988900	1989020	ACTGATACTGTGTCTCTCTCTCCAGTTATGATGGTTAACGGCGAT CACAGGATAGGGATTTTGTGTAAGAGAGCCATCCAGACCGGTGA AGAGCTGTTTTTTGATTACAGGTTGGTAACA
EZH2	20	3	chr16	1988960	1989080	TTTGCTAAGAGAGCCATCCAGACCGGTGAAGAGCTGTTTTTTGAT TACAGGTTGGTAACAGCATATTTCTGTGTGACCTGAGGGCTTCAT CTTCTGGACTCTGGGCTGTGGACAAAGGC
EZH2	21	1	chr16	1991574	1991694	GTTTTAACACACACGCTGAGCGGAGCGGCTTGGTTGTGTGGGTC TCCCCCTGTGCTGGATGCTCACTCATTCTTTTTCTGCTGTTTTC AGATACAGCCAGGCTGATGCCCTGAAGTACG

Gene	Exon	Probe	Chromosome	Start	Stop	Seq
EZH2	21	2	chr16	1991634	1991754	GCTCACTCATTCTTTTTCTGCTGTTTCAGATACAGCCAGGCTG ATGCCCTGAAGTACGTGGGCATCGAAAGAGAGATGGAAATCCCT TGACGTCTGCTACCTCTTCCTCCCCCTCCTC
EZH2	21	3	chr16	1991694	1991814	TGGGCATCGAAAGAGAGATGGAAATCCCTTGACGTCTGCTACCT CTTCCTCCCCCTCCTCTTTCTGGAACAGCTGCCTTAGCTTCAGG AACCTCGAGTACTGTGGGCAATTTAGAAAA

Table 2. Dog Information

Sample	Breed	Age	Age Bracket	Sex	Coding Mutations	Non-coding Mutations	Coding Depth	NTs
AKC4	Alaskan Malamute	2.5	Young	Male	27	31	10691.9012	186648520
AKC3	Alaskan Malamute	3.74	Young	Male	28	33	12724.0464	222250918
AKC72	Alaskan Malamute	5.69	Adolescent	Female	39	34	11233.5814	196329303
AKC24	Alaskan Malamute	6.5	Adolescent	NA	29	28	8352.40844	145824699
AKC104	Alaskan Malamute	6.56	Adolescent	Male	38	21	11758.5547	205339641
AKC2	Alaskan Malamute	7.75	Adolescent	Male	56	48	11588.7495	202385922
AKC102	Alaskan Malamute	9.88	Older	Male	54	34	12329.9825	215318485
AKC16	Alaskan Malamute	10.55	Older	Female	26	20	7806.35484	136267730
AKC1	Alaskan Malamute	11.41	Older	Male	36	27	7388.95866	129040774
AKC101	Alaskan Malamute	14.05	Older	Female	43	28	9769.25271	170522306
AKC99	Boxer	0.88	Young	Female	17	23	10680.1924	186657722
AKC34	Boxer	1.19	Young	Female	18	18	10927.2654	190975818
AKC98	Boxer	1.21	Young	Male	19	15	7576.62265	132416634
AKC33	Boxer	1.36	Young	Male	30	32	15252.5251	266568382
AKC109	Boxer	1.89	Young	Male	25	29	13154.2797	229897347
AKC40	Boxer	2.41	Young	Male	72	63	12569.9449	219684927
AKC110	Boxer	2.54	Young	Female	54	45	12451.2997	217611365
AKC93	Boxer	2.64	Young	Female	71	39	12200.6404	213230592
AKC100	Boxer	3.89	Young	Male	22	28	11649.8404	203604260
AKC26	Boxer	4.15	Adolescent	Female	25	16	6751.97746	118004310
AKC29	Boxer	4.63	Adolescent	Female	45	21	13051.0699	228093549
AKC28	Boxer	4.77	Adolescent	Female	46	43	14062.449	245769421
AKC65	Boxer	4.94	Adolescent	Female	22	22	11016.2412	192530847
AKC113	Boxer	5.12	Adolescent	Female	38	37	12693.1097	221837478
AKC30	Boxer	6.33	Adolescent	Female	99	117	12175.6031	212793016
AKC31	Boxer	6.91	Adolescent	Male	66	32	14950.2884	261286191

Sample	Breed	Age	Age Bracket	Sex	Coding Mutations	Non-coding Mutations	Coding Depth	NTs
AKC27	Boxer	8.71	Older	Male	60	31	10550.6063	184392946
AKC64	Boxer	9.1	Older	Male	17	14	8804.39921	153874485
AKC111	Boxer	9.86	Older	Female	35	39	11976.4948	209313200
AKC108	Boxer	10.3	Older	Male	41	35	9922.01644	173208641
AKC112	Boxer	10.45	Older	Male	45	24	13009.4302	227365811
AKC44	Dalmatian	1.66	Young	Female	36	31	12666.0422	221364420
AKC45	Dalmatian	2.08	Young	Female	78	60	12661.2288	221280296
AKC8	Dalmatian	3.33	Young	Male	13	21	10241.1745	178985007
AKC6	Dalmatian	3.66	Young	Female	21	15	10359.783	181057927
AKC67	Dalmatian	3.67	Young	Female	13	11	9103.2497	158915430
AKC42	Dalmatian	4.16	Adolescent	Male	26	31	11392.4537	199105914
AKC43	Dalmatian	4.25	Adolescent	Female	27	19	9667.21761	168905626
AKC41	Dalmatian	7.08	Adolescent	Female	54	29	13181.5076	230373208
AKC68	Dalmatian	7.17	Adolescent	Female	25	13	7198.89416	125757482
AKC66	Dalmatian	9.83	Older	Female	21	15	8981.02907	156961445
AKC46	Dalmatian	10.21	Older	Female	82	39	11334.7989	197928259
AKC7	Dalmatian	11.16	Older	Male	22	28	7245.01144	126621065
AKC47	Dalmatian	11.54	Older	Female	23	22	10140.1311	177219072
AKC5	Dalmatian	14.99	Older	Female	22	21	6757.13981	118020204
AKC50	German Shephard	1.32	Young	Male	50	35	12510.2727	218466893
AKC12	German Shephard	1.95	Young	Female	34	19	10319.5398	180282361
AKC60	German Shephard	2.03	Young	Male	33	24	12668.8862	221236760
AKC59	German Shephard	2.5	Young	Female	20	16	13142.9268	229528074
AKC11	German Shephard	2.53	Young	Female	24	20	9854.50407	171961096
AKC62	German Shephard	3.03	Young	Male	35	32	13596.0361	237441174
AKC63	German Shephard	3.2	Young	Female	27	25	11807.6491	206196976
AKC49	German Shephard	4.95	Adolescent	Female	30	17	9696.72338	169275700

Sample	Breed	Age	Age Bracket	Sex	Coding Mutations	Non-coding Mutations	Coding Depth	NTs
AKC61	German Shephard	5.45	Adolescent	Female	38	27	12920.865	225637065
AKC92	German Shephard	7	Adolescent	Female	19	27	12450.4304	217421866
AKC48	German Shephard	9.36	Older	Male	43	27	11463.3316	200172696
AKC51	German Shephard	9.56	Older	Female	42	31	12195.2594	212965815
AKC73	German Shephard	12.02	Older	Female	38	26	8587.915	149936408
AKC106	Golden Retriever	0.5	Young	Male	42	27	14840.4552	259366635
AKC69	Golden Retriever	1.67	Young	Female	9	20	10935.1863	190950224
AKC85	Golden Retriever	2.18	Young	Female	17	19	10814.4311	189003813
AKC14	Golden Retriever	2.19	Young	Female	16	13	6156.93999	107112285
AKC80	Golden Retriever	2.44	Young	Female	10	12	10438.7389	182093362
AKC105	Golden Retriever	2.5	Young	Female	35	33	13994.3406	244397164
AKC70	Golden Retriever	3.02	Young	Female	26	22	10588.8655	184892180
AKC71	Golden Retriever	5.24	Adolescent	Female	10	11	7651.18579	133513192
AKC116	Golden Retriever	5.26	Adolescent	Male	45	37	13396.2428	234126135
AKC86	Golden Retriever	5.26	Adolescent	Male	28	33	11344.8802	197888745
AKC84	Golden Retriever	5.77	Adolescent	Male	31	24	12818.4669	223861706
AKC75	Golden Retriever	7.96	Adolescent	Male	45	32	11551.0876	201693540
AKC76	Golden Retriever	8.04	Older	Female	38	21	10339.3145	180514092
AKC81	Golden Retriever	8.34	Older	Female	33	17	11015.5646	192243633
AKC74	Golden Retriever	9.46	Older	Female	31	27	10283.0751	179563057
AKC114	Golden Retriever	10.76	Older	Male	30	15	11717.0306	204614505
AKC77	Golden Retriever	10.87	Older	Male	27	16	9448.12314	164964230
AKC107	Golden Retriever	11.83	Older	Male	62	36	12188.0397	213010370
AKC115	Golden Retriever	14.17	Older	Male	36	27	11385.1563	198978377
AKC90	Labrador Retriever	1.46	Young	Female	19	13	12814.1956	223953697
AKC52	Labrador Retriever	1.59	Young	Male	35	17	12030.1317	210250611
AKC94	Labrador Retriever	2.71	Young	Male	33	19	13107.8865	229086533

Sample	Breed	Age	Age Bracket	Sex	Coding Mutations	Non-coding Mutations	Coding Depth	NTs
AKC82	Labrador Retriever	3.71	Young	Male	35	19	9638.05758	167711840
AKC83	Labrador Retriever	4.04	Adolescent	Female	22	13	7908.04717	137963791
AKC53	Labrador Retriever	5.13	Adolescent	Female	26	31	11481.8453	200668211
AKC54	Labrador Retriever	7.63	Adolescent	Female	42	31	12019.1689	210059015
AKC91	Labrador Retriever	8	Adolescent	Male	30	26	11664.8282	203714560
AKC87	Labrador Retriever	8.37	Older	Male	31	20	9295.4068	162325689
AKC88	Labrador Retriever	10.37	Older	Female	48	26	13210.4334	230720220
AKC55	Labrador Retriever	11.29	Older	Male	30	28	10319.8069	180359266
AKC89	Labrador Retriever	11.95	Older	Male	65	38	14383.1702	251374665
AKC39	Samoyed	1.36	Young	Male	24	19	11040.5243	192789635
AKC9	Samoyed	2.52	Young	Female	45	23	11281.876	197015400
AKC79	Samoyed	2.63	Young	Male	8	13	7824.50839	136608092
AKC97	Samoyed	3.87	Young	Male	31	24	13676.561	238847461
AKC96	Samoyed	6.37	Adolescent	Male	32	34	12548.302	219143546
AKC36	Samoyed	6.98	Adolescent	Male	24	17	7869.24285	137389111
AKC38	Samoyed	7.73	Adolescent	Female	27	21	9579.0646	167250468
AKC37	Samoyed	10.89	Older	Male	28	16	10167.5814	177495469
AKC10	Samoyed	11.07	Older	Male	43	21	10047.3486	175426707
AKC78	Samoyed	13.36	Older	Female	43	38	11222.9841	195964526
AKC35	Samoyed	13.8	Older	Female	28	22	7652.44275	133588693

Table 3. R Package Citations

Package	Version	Citation
base	4.3.0	R Core Team (2023). <i>_R: A Language and Environment for Statistical Computing_</i> . R Foundation for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria. < https://www.R-project.org/ >.
ggpubr	0.6.0	Kassambara A (2023). <i>_ggpubr: 'ggplot2' Based Publication Ready Plots_</i> . R package version 0.6.0, < https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=ggpubr >.
cowplot	1.1.1	Wilke C (2020). <i>_cowplot: Streamlined Plot Theme and Plot Annotations for 'ggplot2'_</i> . R package version 1.1.1, < https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=cowplot >.
ggbeeswarm	0.7.2	Clarke E, Sherrill-Mix S, Dawson C (2023). <i>_ggbeeswarm: Categorical Scatter (Violin Point) Plots_</i> . R package version 0.7.2, < https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=ggbeeswarm >.
tidyquant	1.0.7	Dancho M, Vaughan D (2023). <i>_tidyquant: Tidy Quantitative Financial Analysis_</i> . R package version 1.0.7, < https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=tidyquant >.
scales	1.2.1	Wickham H, Seidel D (2022). <i>_scales: Scale Functions for Visualization_</i> . R package version 1.2.1, < https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=scales >.
ggpmisc	0.5.2	Aphalo P (2022). <i>_ggpmisc: Miscellaneous Extensions to 'ggplot2'_</i> . R package version 0.5.2, < https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=ggpmisc >.
reshape2	1.4.4	Wickham H (2007). „Reshaping Data with the reshape Package.“ <i>_Journal of Statistical Software_</i> , *21*(12), 1-20. < http://www.jstatsoft.org/v21/i12/ >.
ggtext	0.1.2	Wilke C, Wiernik B (2022). <i>_ggtext: Improved Text Rendering Support for 'ggplot2'_</i> . R package version 0.1.2, < https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=ggtext >.
janitor	2.2.0	Firke S (2023). <i>_janitor: Simple Tools for Examining and Cleaning Dirty Data_</i> . R package version 2.2.0, < https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=janitor >.
sigfit	2.2	Gori K, Baez-Ortega A (2018). „sigfit: flexible Bayesian inference of mutational signatures.“ <i>_bioRxiv_</i> , 372896. doi:10.1101/372896 < https://doi.org/10.1101/372896 >.
gsubfn	0.7	Grothendieck G (2018). <i>_gsubfn: Utilities for Strings and Function Arguments_</i> . R package version 0.7, < https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=gsubfn >.

Package	Version	Citation
broom	1.0.4	Robinson D, Hayes A, Couch S (2023). <code>_broom</code> : Convert Statistical Objects into Tidy Tibbles_. R package version 1.0.4, < https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=broom >.
conflicted	1.2.0	Wickham H (2023). <code>_conflicted</code> : An Alternative Conflict Resolution Strategy_. R package version 1.2.0, < https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=conflicted >.
cli	3.6.1	Csardi G (2023). <code>_cli</code> : Helpers for Developing Command Line Interfaces_. R package version 3.6.1, < https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=cli >.
dbplyr	2.3.2	Wickham H, Girlich M, Ruiz E (2023). <code>_dbplyr</code> : A 'dplyr' Back End for Databases_. R package version 2.3.2, < https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=dbplyr >.
dplyr	1.1.2	Wickham H, François R, Henry L, Müller K, Vaughan D (2023). <code>_dplyr</code> : A Grammar of Data Manipulation_. R package version 1.1.2, < https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=dplyr >.
dtplyr	1.3.1	Wickham H, Girlich M, Fairbanks M, Dickerson R (2023). <code>_dtplyr</code> : Data Table Back-End for 'dplyr'_. R package version 1.3.1, < https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=dtplyr >.
forcats	1.0.0	Wickham H (2023). <code>_forcats</code> : Tools for Working with Categorical Variables (Factors)_. R package version 1.0.0, < https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=forcats >.
ggplot2	3.4.2	Wickham H (2016). <code>_ggplot2</code> : Elegant Graphics for Data Analysis_. Springer-Verlag New York. ISBN 978-3-319-24277-4, < https://ggplot2.tidyverse.org >.
googledrive	2.1.0	D'Agostino McGowan L, Bryan J (2023). <code>_googledrive</code> : An Interface to Google Drive_. R package version 2.1.0, < https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=googledrive >.
googlesheets4	1.1.0	Bryan J (2023). <code>_googlesheets4</code> : Access Google Sheets using the Sheets API V4_. R package version 1.1.0, < https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=googlesheets4 >.
haven	2.5.2	Wickham H, Miller E, Smith D (2023). <code>_haven</code> : Import and Export 'SPSS', 'Stata' and 'SAS' Files_. R package version 2.5.2, < https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=haven >.
hms	1.1.3	Müller K (2023). <code>_hms</code> : Pretty Time of Day_. R package version 1.1.3, < https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=hms >.
httr	1.4.6	Wickham H (2023). <code>_httr</code> : Tools for Working with URLs and HTTP_. R package version 1.4.6, < https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=httr >.

Package	Version	Citation
jsonlite	1.8.4	Ooms J (2014). 'The jsonlite Package: A Practical and Consistent Mapping Between JSON Data and R Objects.' <i>arXiv:1403.2805 [stat.CO]</i> . < https://arxiv.org/abs/1403.2805 >.
lubridate	1.9.2	Grolemund G, Wickham H (2011). 'Dates and Times Made Easy with lubridate.' <i>Journal of Statistical Software</i> , 40(3), 1-25. < https://www.jstatsoft.org/v40/i03/ >.
magrittr	2.0.3	Bache S, Wickham H (2022). <i>magrittr</i> : A Forward-Pipe Operator for R. R package version 2.0.3, < https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=magrittr >.
modelr	0.1.11	Wickham H (2023). <i>modelr</i> : Modelling Functions that Work with the Pipe. R package version 0.1.11, < https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=modelr >.
pillar	1.9.0	Müller K, Wickham H (2023). <i>pillar</i> : Coloured Formatting for Columns. R package version 1.9.0, < https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=pillar >.
purrr	1.0.1	Wickham H, Henry L (2023). <i>purrr</i> : Functional Programming Tools. R package version 1.0.1, < https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=purrr >.
ragg	1.2.5	Pedersen T, Shemanarev M (2023). <i>ragg</i> : Graphic Devices Based on AGG. R package version 1.2.5, < https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=ragg >.
readr	2.1.4	Wickham H, Hester J, Bryan J (2023). <i>readr</i> : Read Rectangular Text Data. R package version 2.1.4, < https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=readr >.
readxl	1.4.2	Wickham H, Bryan J (2023). <i>readxl</i> : Read Excel Files. R package version 1.4.2, < https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=readxl >.
reprex	2.0.2	Bryan J, Hester J, Robinson D, Wickham H, Dervieux C (2022). <i>reprex</i> : Prepare Reproducible Example Code via the Clipboard. R package version 2.0.2, < https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=reprex >.
rlang	1.1.1	Henry L, Wickham H (2023). <i>rlang</i> : Functions for Base Types and Core R and 'Tidyverse' Features. R package version 1.1.1, < https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=rlang >.
rstudioapi	0.14	Ushey K, Allaire J, Wickham H, Ritchie G (2022). <i>rstudioapi</i> : Safely Access the RStudio API. R package version 0.14, < https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=rstudioapi >.
rvest	1.0.3	Wickham H (2022). <i>rvest</i> : Easily Harvest (Scrape) Web Pages. R package version 1.0.3, < https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=rvest >.

Package	Version	Citation
stringr	1.5.0	Wickham H (2022). <code>_stringr</code> : Simple, Consistent Wrappers for Common String Operations_. R package version 1.5.0, < https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=stringr >.
tibble	3.2.1	Müller K, Wickham H (2023). <code>_tibble</code> : Simple Data Frames_. R package version 3.2.1, < https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=tibble >.
tidyr	1.3.0	Wickham H, Vaughan D, Girlich M (2023). <code>_tidyr</code> : Tidy Messy Data_. R package version 1.3.0, < https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=tidyr >.
xml2	1.3.4	Wickham H, Hester J, Ooms J (2023). <code>_xml2</code> : Parse XML_. R package version 1.3.4, < https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=xml2 >.
tidyverse	2.0.0	Wickham H, Averick M, Bryan J, Chang W, McGowan LD, François R, Golemund G, Hayes A, Henry L, Hester J, Kuhn M, Pedersen TL, Miller E, Bache SM, Müller K, Ooms J, Robinson D, Seidel DP, Spinu V, Takahashi K, Vaughan D, Wilke C, Woo K, Yutani H (2019). „Welcome to the tidyverse.“ <code>_Journal of Open Source Software_</code> , 4(43), 1686. doi:10.21105/joss.01686 < https://doi.org/10.21105/joss.01686 >.

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VITA

Ashley Paynter was born and raised in New York City. Growing up, Ashley always loved animals, plants, the rainforest, and asking questions about the world. In high school, Ashley participated in a research internship for students at the American Museum of Natural History, which was where her love for research began. Ashley attended Binghamton University in 2012, where she studied Lyme disease and completed a Bachelor of Science in Biology. Ashley also continued to spend summers working at the American Museum of Natural History where she studied the genetics of a contagious cancer in bivalves.

In 2017, Ashley started a doctoral degree at the University of Washington, in the department of Biology. She soon joined the lab of Daniel Promislow, who leads the Dog Aging Project. Ashley spent her years in graduate school studying comparative oncology, cancer genetics, and evolutionary genetics. In 2020, Ashley started her own podcast called Decolonizing Science.