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HiTE, an Ensemble Method for High-Precision Transposable Element Annotation

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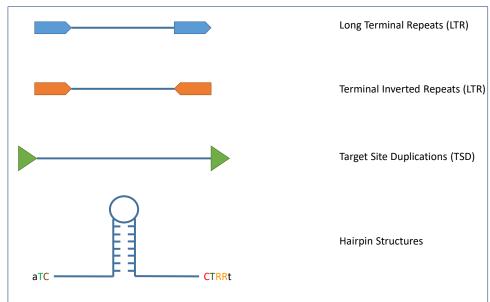
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Abstract

Background: Text for this section. **Results:** Text for this section. **Conclusions:** Text for this section. **Keywords:** sample; article; author

Background

Text and results for this section, as per the individual journal's instructions for authors.



 $\begin{tabular}{ll} \textbf{Figure 1} Examples of commonly used TE structural features for detection. The LTR, TIR, TSD, and hairpin structures are used to identify LTR elements, class II elements, and Helitrons, respectively. \\ \end{tabular}$

Results

In eukaryotic genomes, transposable elements (TEs) exist widely in the form of both full-length (structurally intact) and fragmented sequences. An ideal library should contain only full-length models of all significantly distinct TEs that have left copies in the genome [1], which are then used to detect fragmented and divergent TE sequences that are hard to recognize using structural features. However, compared

Hu and Wang Page 2 of 17

with the limited number of full-length TE sequences, fragmented sequences are more abundant and comprise the majority of TE, creating a challenge for algorithms to find the true ends of the TEs.

The identification methods based on sequence repeatedness tend to produce more fragmented TE sequences, and their sequence boundaries are often approximate, which still need extensive editing before they can be accepted in curated databases such as Dfam or Repbase. For example, the majority of TE models in Dfam come from libraries generated by RepeatModeler, and the great majority of Dfam submissions are currently housed in a non-curated section[2]. Structure-based methods can clearly define the boundaries of the TE structure, but always with a high number of false positives.

To evaluate the performance of different TE identification methods, a high diversity of benchmarking approaches has been proposed, which is a barrier to both the understanding of the true performance of a method and the competitive em of methods. For example, many em methods promote getting the higher copy number of TE, the higher number of models generated, the longer sequences of output, and the higher N50 of the library, which does not take into account the quality of the dataset produced[1].

An ideal method of em should be able to consider both the integrity of TE sequences and the false-positive rate of the TE library. To solve this problem, we take the em methods from the latest study, EDTA[3] and RepeatModeler2[4], which could produce ten metrics including Sensitivity, Specificity, Accuracy, Precision, FDR, F1, Perfect, Good, Present, and Not-found. By combining the two complementary em methods, we can accurately evaluate the integrity of TE families and the false-positive rate of the whole TE library.

Selecting benchmarking model species

Despite the universality and importance of TEs in genomes, except for a few model species, the annotation and research of TEs in other species are still poor. In this benchmarking, we mainly focus on 4 typical species: Oryza sativa, Caenorhabditis briggsae, Drosophila melanogaster, and Danio rerio, whose TE libraries are well studied and preserved. These four species cover genomes of different sizes as well as different TE landscapes. The smallest genome, the C. briggsae genome, is dominated by DNA transposons; the D. melanogaster genome is primarily composed of LTR and LINE transposons; the proportion of LTR and DNA transposons on Oryza sativa was close, along with a medium-sized genome; and the largest genome, the D. rerio genome, comprises the majority of DNA transposons but also some LTR transposons.

Repbase Update (RU) is a database of representative repeat sequences in eukaryotic genomes that has a long history of TE discovery and annotation since 1992[5]. RU has long been used as a manually curated reference database for nearly all eukaryotic genome sequence analyses. Here, we used TE libraries from RepBase26.05 as the gold standard for all species. The RepBase libraries were then used to annotate the genomes for both structurally intact and fragmented TE sequences, which comprised 47.81% of the O. sativa genome, 15.83% of the C. briggsae genome, 20.28% of the D. melanogaster genome, and 57.36% of the D. rerio genome, respectively (Tables 1, 2, 3, and 5). Hu and Wang Page 3 of 17

Table 1 TE content in the O. sativa (Oryza sativa Japonica Group "assembly IRGSP-1.0") genome.

	Class	RepBase26.05	Number of elements	Total (%)
LTR	Class I	88.4 Mb	46595	23.61
Non-LTR	Class I	5.7 Mb	13381	1.51
TIR	Class II	67.7 Mb	230281	18.09
Helitron	Class II	17.2 Mb	66469	4.60
Total	-	179.0 Mb	356726	47.81

Table 2 TE content in the C. briggsae (Caenorhabditis briggsae "assembly CB4") genome.

	Class	RepBase26.05	Number of elements	Total (%)
LTR	Class I	0.2 Mb	234	0.2
Non-LTR	Class I	0.9 Mb	3085	0.59
TIR	Class II	14.5 Mb	68146	13.41
Helitron	Class II	1.8 Mb	8509	1.63
Total	-	17.4 Mb	79974	15.83

Table 3 TE content in the D. melanogaster (Drosophila melanogaster "assembly Release 6 plus ISO1 MT") genome.

	Class	RepBase26.05	Number of elements	Total (%)
LTR	Class I	19.9 Mb	21050	11.78
Non-LTR	Class I	10.8 Mb	15428	6.37
TIR	Class II	2.6 Mb	6204	1.53
Helitron	Class II	1.0 Mb	4822	0.60
Total	-	34.2 Mb	47504	20.28

Table 4 TE content in the D. rerio (Danio rerio "assembly GRCz11") genome.

	Class	RepBase26.05	Number of elements	Total (%)
LTR	Class I	119.0 Mb	296556	7.09
Non-LTR	Class I	74.3 Mb	215393	4.42
TIR	Class II	719.4 Mb	3372500	42.84
Helitron	Class II	50.5 Mb	178913	3.01
Total	-	963.2 Mb	4063362	57.36

Setting up benchmarking methods for TE library evaluation

To fairly and comprehensively measure the quality of TE libraries generated by different TE identification tools, we use the benchmarking methods from the latest study, EDTA and RepeatModeler2. For convenience, we hereafter refer to the benchmarking methods of EDTA and RepeatModeler2 as BM_EDTA and BM_RM2, respectively.

As shown in Fig. 2A, the BM_EDTA evaluates the performance of various tools by annotating the genome with the gold standard TE library and the tested TE library generated by these tools. Based on the total number of genomic DNA bases, six metrics, including sensitivity, specificity, accuracy, precision, FDR, and F1, are used to characterize the annotation performance of the tested library[3]. The BM_EDTA can display detailed metrics, including the rates of false positives, which are common in many TE identification methods. However, it cannot reflect the integrity of the TE models. All general repeat identification programs, even those with many fragments and unclear boundaries, still performed well in benchmarking[3]. For ex-

Hu and Wang Page 4 of 17

ample, while a 1 kbp intact TE sequence and ten 100 bp fragments may obtain the same performance, the former is obviously more valuable in terms of TE integrity and biological significance.

As shown in Fig. 2B, the BM_RM2 aligns the tested TE library with the gold standard library and divides the gold standard sequences into four levels: "Perfect", "Good", "Present", and "Not_found". "Perfect" families are those for which one sequence in the tested library matches with >95% sequence similarity and >95% length coverage to a family consensus in the gold standard library. "Good" families are those in which multiple overlapping sequences in the tested library match with >95% similarity and >95% coverage to the curated consensus. A family is considered "present" if one or multiple library sequences align with >80% similarity and >80% coverage to the reference consensus sequence. Below these thresholds, a family is considered "not found" [4]. The BM_RM2 takes the integrity of the sequence into consideration. Intact TE models usually get a perfect level, while fragments can only get a good, present, or even not found level. However, it cannot display the rate of false positives in the tested TE library. By combining the two complementary benchmarking methods, we can accurately evaluate the integrity of TE models and the rate of false positives in the whole TE library.

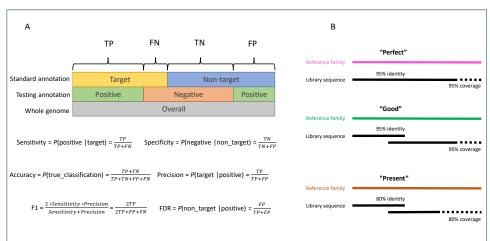


Figure 2 Schematic representation of benchmarking methods. A. EDTA benchmarking methods. B. RepeatModeler2 benchmarking methods.

Comparison of general-purpose repeat annotators

We compared HiTE with the other three mainstream general-purpose repeat annotators, including RepeatScout, EDTA, and RepeatModeler2. Among them, EDTA is the best annotation tool based on structure, and RepeatModeler2 is the pipeline with the best overall performance. RepeatScout was originally used to identify repetitive sequences, and its algorithm characteristics tend to find highly consistent repetitive regions, such as duplicates or the youngest TE families. For older and more divergent TEs, many fragments are often generated. RepeatModeler, the old version of RepeatModeler2, uses RECON and RepeatScout for de novo TE identification. Although RECON uses the single linkage clustering algorithm to generate TE sequences based on overlapping alignments, accurate clustering of these alignments is

Hu and Wang Page 5 of 17

challenging due to the high fragmentation and mosaicism present in TE families[1]. Therefore, the structurally intact TE models generated by RepeatModeler are not satisfactory (a low number of "perfect" models). To solve this problem, Repeat-Modeler2 adds the LTR_retriever module to the RepeatModeler, which generates structurally intact LTR transposons and greatly increase the number of "Perfect" in the results[4].

The results of BM_RM2 are shown in Fig. 3A. Among these methods, we found that RepeatModeler2 is stable on all datasets; the performance of EDTA is unstable, obtaining a high number of perfect models on the TE-rich genomes (Tables 1 and 5) but a low number on the other genomes. At the same time, the number of presents is significantly higher than that of other tools, indicating that its results contain many fragments. RepeatScout obtained more perfect sequences on C. briggsae, indicating that the majority of TE in the C. briggsae genome are relatively young, while in other species, it obtained the minimum number of perfect sequences. Since it cannot process more than 1 GB of genomes, it has no results for D. rerio. HiTE has the highest number of perfect TE models than other tools on all datasets and a smaller number of good and present TE models, which shows that HiTE can recognize more structurally intact TE models and fewer fragments; we found that all tools have quite a few "Not_Found" TE models, and we discussed in Section Discussion.

The benchmarking results using BM_EDTA are shown in Fig. 3B. We noticed that RepeatScout and RepeatModeler2 both achieved a consistent high performance, which verified that "all general repeat identification programs, which depend on sequence repeats, performed well" as described in the EDTA[3]. The greatest advantage of the BM_EDTA is that it can intuitively describe the false positive rate of the TE library, but it cannot reflect the integrity of the TE models. For example, in O. sativa and D. melanogaster, RepeatScout has the lowest number of perfect TE models, indicating that there are a large number of fragments, but it has a high BM_EDTA performance. However, we noticed that on all datasets, HiTE shows significantly higher precision performance, including precision, specificity, and accuracy, which indicates that HiTE can identify TE more accurately. Like the structure-based method EDTA, HiTE achieves a similar low sensitivity, which does not mean that HiTE recognizes fewer TE models than RepeatScout and RepeatModeler2. On the contrary, HiTE obtains more perfect TE models and fewer not_found TE models from the BM_RM2 results. Since the BM_EDTA is based on base statistics, some false-positive sequences with short length can be well aligned to the true TEs, resulting in falsely high sensitivity but significantly low precision. Each TE sequence in HiTE has complete structural characteristics and copy verification (at least two full-length copies exist, and the region outside the TE copy boundary has no homology), which leads to high precision and somewhat lower sensitivity. The reason that RepeatScout and RepeatModeler2 can obtain higher sensitivity is that they identify TE based on the repeatedness of the sequence, so many short and incomplete TE models will also be identified, which are filtered out in HiTE.

Hu and Wang Page 6 of 17

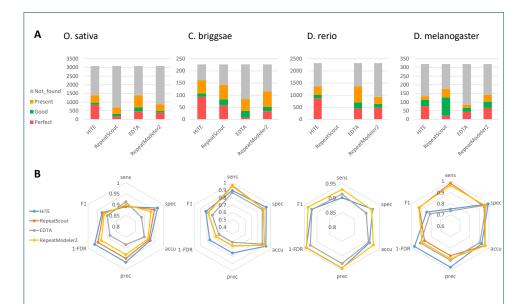


Figure 3 Performance of general-purpose repeat annotators. A the performance based on benckmarking method of RepeatModeler2 and B the performance based on benckmarking method of EDTA.

Table 5 TE content in the D. rerio (Danio rerio "assembly GRCz11") genome.

	Class	RepBase26.05	Number of elements	Total (%)
LTR	Class I	119.0 Mb	296556	7.09
Non-LTR	Class I	74.3 Mb	215393	4.42
TIR	Class II	719.4 Mb	3372500	42.84
Helitron	Class II	50.5 Mb	178913	3.01
Total	-	963.2 Mb	4063362	57.36

Table 6 Details of performance among general-purpose repeat annotators based on O. sativa.

Tools		EDTA evaluation							RepeatModeler2 evaluation		
	Sensitivity	Specificity	Accuracy	Precision	FDR	F1	Perfect	Good	Present	t Not_found	
HiTE	0.8897	0.9686	0.9295	0.9653	0.0347	0.9260	858	106	430	1690	
RepeatScout	0.8940	0.9514	0.9230	0.9476	0.0524	0.9200	173	149	375	2387	
EDTA	0.9131	0.8831	0.8979	0.8840	0.1160	0.8983	464	225	709	1686	
RepeatModeler2	0.8993	0.9336	0.9166	0.9299	0.0701	0.9144	385	94	394	2211	

Table 7 Details of performance among general-purpose repeat annotators based on C. briggsae.

Tools		TA evalu	RepeatModeler2 evaluation							
	Sensitivity	Specificity	Accuracy	Precision	FDR	F1	Perfect	Good	Present	t Not_found
HiTE	0.8926	0.9323	0.9247	0.7550	0.24500	.8181	93	14	55	65
RepeatScout	0.9616	0.8875	0.9011	0.6583	0.34170	.7815	58	25	59	85
EDTA	0.8656	0.8690	0.8683	0.6115	0.38850	.7167	8	27	49	143
RepeatModeler2	0.9519	0.8876	0.8995	0.6576	0.34240	.7778	34	17	64	112

Comparison of TIR annotators

TIR TEs, which belong to class II TEs, are ancient TEs found in almost all eukaryotes. They are flanked by characteristic terminal inverted repeat sequences (TIRs), usually presenting in low to moderate numbers[6]. TIR TEs may contribute to Hu and Wang Page 7 of 17

Table 8 Details of performance among general-purpose repeat annotators based on D. rerio.

Tools	EDTA evaluation						RepeatModeler2 evaluation			
	Sensitivity	Specificity	Accuracy	Precision	FDR	F1	Perfect	Good	Presen	t Not_found
HiTE	0.9012	0.9213	0.9094	0.9430	0.05700	.9216	868	147	347	960
RepeatScout	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
EDTA	0.9134	0.8955	0.9061	0.9268	0.07320	.9201	453	252	659	958
RepeatModeler2	0.9297	0.9180	0.9249	0.9421	0.05790	.9359	480	159	294	1389

Table 9 Details of performance among general-purpose repeat annotators based on D. melanogaster.

Tools		EDTA evaluation						RepeatModeler2 evaluation		
	Sensitivity	Specificity	Accuracy	Precision	FDR	F1	Perfect	Good	Presen	t Not_found
HiTE	0.7491	0.9917	0.9243	0.9718	0.02820	.8461	77	36	21	186
RepeatScout	0.9824	0.9493	0.9577	0.8685	0.13150	.9220	21	106	49	144
EDTA	0.7322	0.9721	0.9046	0.9113	0.08870	.8120	43	23	19	235
RepeatModeler2	0.9614	0.9613	0.9613	0.8956	0.10440	.9273	66	36	39	179

genome evolution by generating allelic diversity, inducing structural variation, and regulating gene expression[7]. TIR TEs are divided into nine known superfamilies by the distinguished TIR sequences and the TSD size (usually 2–11 bp). However, due to the short terminal inverted repeat sequences, TIR TE identification and annotation are quite challenging. For example, members of the hAT superfamily have TSDs of 8 bp and relatively short TIRs of 5–27 bp[8].

Many tools have been designed for their identification, such as IRF[9], TIRvish[10], TIR-Learner[7], and GRF[11], which identify TIR elements by structural signals and are comprehensively evaluated in EDTA. Unfortunately, due to the short structural characteristics of TIR, these methods discover a high number of false positives. For example, the IRF and GRF-TIR produce a large number of candidates, with 4.7 GB and 630 GB (13x–1684x the size of the 374 MB rice genome, respectively) of raw TIR candidate sequences. Among these tools, the TIR module (GRF and TIR-learner) of EDTA has demonstrated great promise for structural annotation and achieved higher performance than other tools[3]. However, it is far from high-precision TIR identification. To solve this problem, we developed a new method to achieve high-precision TIR TE identification (see the "Methods" section).

As shown in Fig. 4, according to the benchmarking results of the BM_RM2, our method can identify more perfect TE models, while the number of good and present models is lower. According to the benchmarking results of the BM_EDTA, our method has higher sensitivity, specificity, accuracy, precision, F1, and a lower FDR than EDTA. These two benchmarking methods both demonstrate that our method can achieve high-precision identification of TIR TEs.

We have observed that some new TIR elements have been found, which differ significantly from those in Repbase and are distinguished by the 80% principle[6]. Through careful inspection, we found that these new TIR elements have a complete TIR and TSD structure, and the boundaries between their copies are clear. Notably, most of them have low copy numbers (Fig. 5). At the same time, nearly half of the sequences in the new DNA TIRs have more than 3 copies (Fig. 5), suggesting that these are like real TEs that were not included in the Repbase library due to their low

Hu and Wang Page 8 of 17

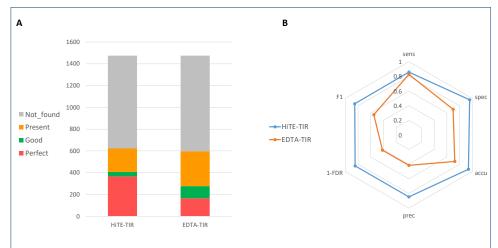


Figure 4 Performance of TIR annotators. A the performance based on benckmarking method of RepeatModeler2 and B the performance based on benckmarking method of EDTA.

Table 10 Details of performance among all types of TE annotators based on O. sativa.

TE class	Tools	EDTA evaluation						RepeatModeler2 evaluation			
I L Class	10013	Sens	Spec	Accu	Prec	FDR	F1	Perfect	tGood	Present	Not_found
TIR	EDTA-TIR	0.8274	0.6989	0.7253	0.4149	0.58510	.5526	165	112	320	877
THE	HiTE-TIR	0.8607	0.9591	0.9391	0.8431	0.15690	.8518	374	39	217	844
	EAHelitron	0.2666	0.9983	0.9135	0.9536	0.04640	.4167	0	0	0	310
Helitron	EDTA- HelitronScanner	0.8930	0.6259	0.6509	0.1982	0.80180	.3244	4	30	54	222
	HiTE-Helitron	0.7040	0.9703	0.9438	0.7240	0.27610	.7138	35	14	21	240
	LTRharvest	0.9420	0.8269	0.8548	0.6356	0.36440	.7590	395	56	105	549
LTR	LTR_FINDER	0.9676	0.8601	0.8860	0.6874	0.31260	.8038	493	68	117	427
	LTR_retriever	0.96040	0.9456	0.9491	0.8491	0.15090	.9013	417	46	172	470
Non-LTR	Non_LTR_library	0.73020	0.9879	0.9819	0.5883	0.41170	.6516	77	3	21	48
	HiTE-Non-LTR	0.6519	0.9999	0.9916	0.9906	0.00940	.7863	24	0	21	104

number of copies. In addition, we recognize that some TIR TEs have TIRs similar to the known TIRs in Repbase (Fig. 5), which are likely to be non-autonomous TIR TEs.

Comparison of Helitron annotators

Helitrons are a subclass of DNA transposons, which replicate through the rolling circle mechanism. When replicating themselves, only the single strand of DNA is broken, and no TSD is generated, which is different from the other TEs. The Helitron transposon has a 5'-TC...-CTRR-3' conserved structure, where R refers to purine, A or G, and there is a short hairpin structure about 10 bp upstream of the 3' end. Helitrons mostly transition into host AT target sites, resulting in flanking 5'-A and 3'-T nucleus[12]. The weak structural signals of Helitrons make identification of these elements particularly challenging.

To date, there are only two tools, HelitronScanner and EAHelitron, that can produce useful Helitron predictions. HelitronScanner[13] identifies the sequence patterns in Helitron transposons using the local combinational variable (LCV) algorithm, which produced a large number of candidate sequences, most of which are

Hu and Wang Page 9 of 17

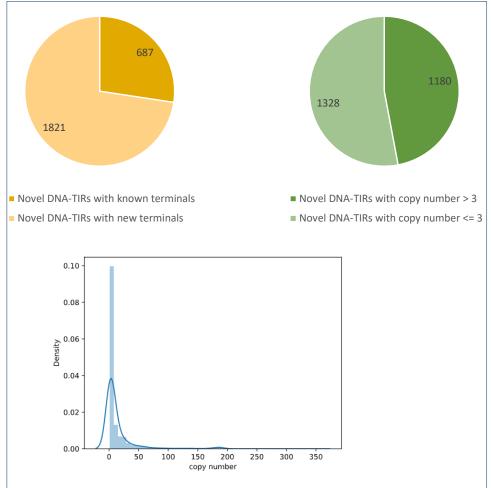


Figure 5 Characteristic of novel TIR elements identified by HiTE. A the number of novel TIR elements with different types of terminals; B the ratio of copy numbers > 3 and <= 3; and C the distribution of copy numbers of TIR elements identified by HiTE.

false positives. For example, 52 MB of raw candidate sequences cover 13.9% of the rice genome, which obviously exceeds the real coverage. EDTA filters the results of HelitronScanner, greatly improving its specificity and accuracy without reducing its sensitivity[3]. Nevertheless, the precision of the Helitron identification module of EDTA is still very low (Fig), which is far from satisfactory.

We also test the other tool, EAHelitron, which identifies Helitrons based on the conservative structure traits using regular expression (RE), such as the 5' terminal with TC, the 3' terminal with CTAGt, and a GC-rich hairpin loop before 2–10 nt of CTAG. The performance of EAHelitron is primarily determined by the predefined patterns of hairpin loop regular expressions. We observed that it lost some of the hairpin loop patterns of real Helitrons. For example, many real Helitrons in C. briggsae cannot be discovered until we manually add a new pattern of haripin loop "[GC]4". EAHelitron specifies a "-u" parameter to search all possible 5'-TC upstream of CTAGt-3', and it is hard to know the real 5' end of Helitron. We take the first 5'-TC closest to CTAGt-3' as the 5' end of candidate Helitrons, which leads to extremely short sequences with only 87 bp average length and 44 candi-

Hu and Wang Page 10 of 17

dates in rice. The short candidate sequences produce the highest precision but the lowest sensitivity (Fig. 6B). Moreover, it cannot identify any gold standard models according to the BM_RM2 (Fig. 6A).

To discover the intact Helitron elements, we have developed a new Helitron identification method, which is a further usage of the coarse boundary TE candidates output by the FMEA algorithm. EAHelitron is used to locate the accurate 3'-CTRR and the hairpin loop structure in candidate TE sequences. The 5'-TC closest to the coarse boundary is selected as the true end. To control the false discovery of the candidate Helitrons, we filtered out the candidates that were not inserted into AT target sites. Finally, the TE copy-based filtering method for region homology outside the boundaries is used to obtain confident candidates (see the "Methods" section).

The experimental results show that our Helitron identification method has the highest performance (Fig. 6), which is superior to EDTA with significantly higher precision, specificity, and accuracy. Compared with the pure EAHelitron method, we have greatly improved the sensitivity and F1 value. We infer that our sensitivity would be greatly improved once EAHelitron can include a more comprehensive hairpin loop pattern. At the same time, we identify more perfect Helitrons in the gold standard dataset. However, we do notice that our results are still affected by false positives, which indicates that our method has potential for improvement.

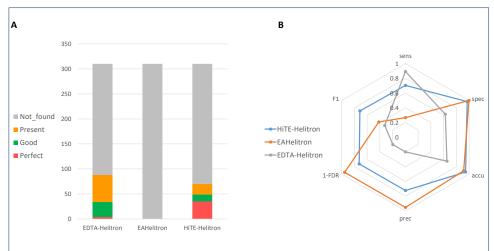


Figure 6 Performance of Helitron annotators. A the performance based on benckmarking method of RepeatModeler2 and B the performance based on benckmarking method of EDTA.

Comparison of LTR annotators

Long terminal repeat retrotransposons (LTR-RTs) (Fig. 7) have a well-conserved structure and are prevalent in plant genomes. There are many tools dedicated to the de novo identification of LTR-RTs, including MGEScan3[14], GRF, LTR_STRUC[15], LTR_FINDER[16], LTRharvest[17], LtrDetector[18], and LTR_retriever[19]. It is worth noting that LTR_retriever was designed as a stringent filtering method for raw results from other LTR tools and does not have its own search engine. We benchmarked the three best existing LTR de novo identification tools, LTR_FINDER, LTRharvest and LTR_retriever (using the output of LTR_FINDER and LTRharvest as input), and found that LTR_FINDER and

Hu and Wang Page 11 of 17

LTRharvest achieve higher sensitivity but lower precision, whereas LTR_retriever significantly improves the precision while maintaining the same sensitivity. The LTR_retriever was integrated into a variety of TE detection pipelines, including EDTA and RepeatModeler2, and greatly improved the accuracy of their LTR identification. Although LTR_retriever loses some perfect models, it is still the best LTR identification method at present. Therefore, we integrated LTR_retriever into HiTE.

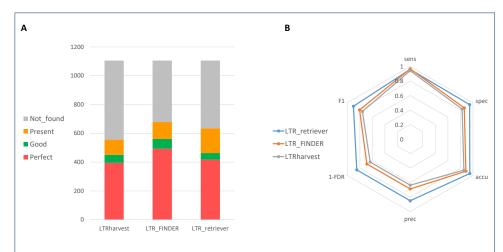


Figure 7 Performance of LTR annotators. A the performance based on benckmarking method of RepeatModeler2 and B the performance based on benckmarking method of EDTA.

Comparison of Non-LTR annotators

Non-LTR retrotransposons include two types of TE: LINEs and SINEs[20]. LINEs, which lack LTRs flanking both ends, can reach several kilobases in length. Although the presence of RT and nuclease in the pol ORF of LINEs seems to provide a confident basis for their identification, there is not a database dedicated to their curation. Worsely, the truncated 5' ends, resulting from the premature termination of reverse transcription, make them difficult to discover. SINEs, on the other hand, are much shorter (80–500 bp)[6]. They do not encode any reverse transcriptase protein and rely on other TEs to transition, especially LINEs[21]. The weak signals of non-LTR retrotransposons make them quite challenging to identify[22].

To accurately identify non-LTR retrotransposons, we have developed a homology-based TE searching module, named HiTE-Non-LTR. HiTE-Non-LTR extracts LINEs and SINES consensus sequences from the Dfam library to form a non-LTR library, which is then used to search for confident candidate sequences based on the coast boundary TE candidates output by the FMEA algorithm. To benchmark the performance of the homology-based TE searching module, we use the non-LTR library to search confident candidates in the assembly based on the same parameter as the competing evaluation, called Assembly-Non-LTR. Although HiTE-Non-LTR sacrificed a little sensitivity, it achieved nearly 100% precision.

Influence of parameter changes on results

To understand how the parameters in HiTE affect the results, we selected the four most important parameters for testing: k_num, freq_threshold, chunk_size, and flank-

Hu and Wang Page 12 of 17

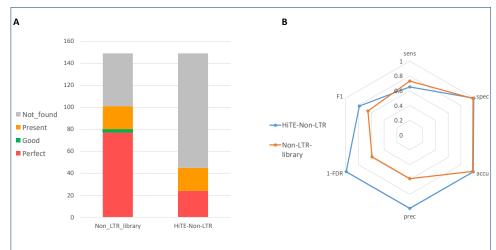


Figure 8 Performance of Non-LTR annotators. A the performance based on benckmarking method of RepeatModeler2 and B the performance based on benckmarking method of EDTA.

ing_len. The k_num is the size of k-mer, the freq_threshold refers to the frequency threshold of k-mer, the chunk_size refers to cutting the genome into blocks of the same size, and the flanking_len is used to extend the candidate TEs identified by FMEA to search the valid TSD. These parameters have no effect on the results of LTR elements, which are discovered by LTR_retriever. Therefore, we chose C. briggsae as the test species, whose genome only contains a small number of LTR elements.

As shown in Fig. 9A, the smallest k_num (such as 11) will mark the most parts of the genome as repeat regions, which cannot effectively distinguish TE from non-TE, resulting in low sensitivity and precision. Large k_num will lose part of the true TE (lower sensitivity), but the sequences it identifies are more likely to be true TE (higher precision). Moderate k_num (such as 31) achieves a balance between sensitivity and precision, the highest F1 value. When k_num exceeds 41, we observe a significant drop in the number of perfect models. As shown in Fig. 9B, with the freq_threshold increased, all metrics except precision decreased significantly, which indicates that the higher the frequency of k-mer in the sequence, the more likely the sequence is to be a real TE. As shown in Fig. 9C, genome slicing will result in the loss of some low copy and scattered TE, reducing the sensitivity of the results significantly. The smaller the cut, the more TE will be lost. As shown in Fig. 9D, when flanking len is set to 0, the number of sensitivities and perfect models is very low, which indicates that most of the TE we identify in the FMEA algorithm have coarse boundaries. The real boundary of most TE can already be included when flanking len is set to 10, indicating that the error between the rough boundary in FMEA and the real boundary is not large. The metrics tend to be stable after flanking_len is set to 40.

Discussion

Thanks to decades of manual annotation results, we have obtained a highly reliable TE library for a limited number of species. With the development of third-generation (long-read) sequencing technology, repetitive regions in the genome can be crossed,

Hu and Wang Page 13 of 17

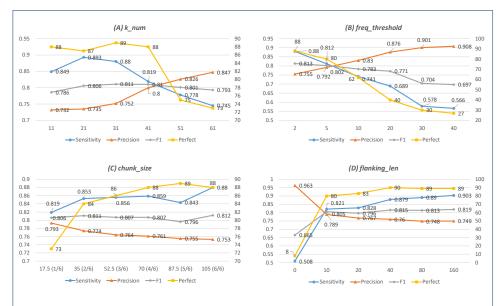


Figure 9 Influence of parameter changes on results. A influence of k_num parameter on results; B influence of freq_threshold parameter on results; C influence of chunk_size parameter on results; and D influence of flanking_len parameter on results.

greatly improving the quality of genome assembly. While quantities of high-quality genome assemblies are being generated, an automated and high-precision TE annotation tool is urgently needed for these newly assembled genomes. To solve this problem, we have developed an ensemble method for high-precision transposable element annotation, known as HiTE, which has performed extensive benchmarking on four model species and achieved higher metrics and restored more perfect gold standard sequences compared with other tools.

The identification of TEs requires intensive and sensitive sequence alignments, which is a computationally demanding task. HiTE uses k-mer coverage to reduce computation. Unlike the traditional k-mer-based seed expansion method, RepeatScout, HiTE uses low-frequency k-mer to determine candidate repeat areas, which reduces the number of sequence alignments and speeds up subsequent computation.

The TE-derived sequences in the genome accumulate variations over time, making their discovery and characterization challenging for the TE annotation methods. As time goes by, TEs are often accompanied by a large number of deletion and insertion variations when replicating and copying themselves. At the same time, their insertion sites on the genome are usually random, leading to complex sequence patterns of TE in the genome, such as nested TE structures, making accurate TE identification and annotation extremely difficult. It is easy for a complete TE sequence to generate multi-segment alignment due to the influence of divergence and nested TE during its evolution. The pairwise alignment-based identification methods, such as RECON, may identify a complete TE model as multiple pieces without edges connected and generate multiple TE models using the single linkage clustering algorithm. We have designed an alignment expansion method with fault tolerance that can easily cross the large gaps caused by insertion, deletion, and nested TE and retain the complete TE structure as much as possible.

Hu and Wang Page 14 of 17

Although it is important to accurately identify the structures and boundaries of TEs, repeatedness-based methods, such as RepeatModeler[23], always obtain uncertain boundaries, and intensive manual repairs are required to enable them to be saved in the cured library[1]. HiTE first used the sensitive sequence alignment information to determine the coarse boundaries of TEs based on the fault-tolerant alignment expansion method. Then, the coarse boundaries are flanked to search for valid TSD and terminal motifs. Finally, a reliable false-positive filtering method is developed to get confident TEs with multiple intact copies and clear TE boundaries.

Although HiTE can achieve high-precision TE identification and annotation, we do observe some losses of real TIR TEs, which are mainly caused by the following reasons: (i) Repbase contains a large number of single-copy sequences, even zerocopy sequences. To ensure the high reliability of identified transposons, we filtered single-copy TEs, which require high homology with known transposons or TE proteins to identify. For zero-copy sequences, it is possible that these sequences come from multiple genomes of the same species, such as different types of rice, which we cannot identify based on a single genome, or they are from degraded nested TE, and there are no other full-length copies of these sequences in the genome. Our method needs at least two full-length copies to determine whether a sequence is a true transposon, so we have left out most of the single-copy and zero-copy sequences. (ii) Some transposons do not have consistent TSD or even any TSD. To achieve high-precision identification, we identify LTR and TIR TEs by TSD, so those TEs that do not have consistent TSD are filtered out. Highly divergent terminal inverted sequences (identity less than 0.7) and the candidate TEs with accidental sequence homology outside the boundary, which is similar to many false positive patterns, are also filtered out. We discover some lost real TIRs by manually reviewing FMEA results. These TIRs are filtered out for various reasons, such as the lack of a consistent TSD and the big divergence in the first 5-bp of the TIRs. This further proves the effectiveness of the FMEA method. At the same time, a more accurate and comprehensive filtering method helps to find more real TIRs.

We found that the identification of TEs with weak structural characteristics, such as Helitron and non-LTR elements, is very challenging. Although we have greatly improved the identification performance of Helitron, there is still potential for improvement. For example, a more comprehensive hairpin loop pattern will significantly improve the sensitivity.

To date, due to the truncated 5' ends of LINEs, there is no method to identify LINEs based on the structure method. A few tools designed for identification of SINEs, which suffer from the high false positives and low sensitivity. To achieve high-precision non-LTR element annotation, we developed a homology-based TE searching method, which improves precision by nearly 100%. However, we do lose some true non-LTR elements, and the structure-based identification methods of LINEs are needed, which is also the direction of our future efforts.

Conclusions

The rapid development of sequencing technology enables us to obtain a more reliable genome assembly. The TE library generated by an inaccurate TE identification tool will contain many errors, which will be propagated during the whole-genome

Hu and Wang Page 15 of 17

annotation process. HiTE makes full use of the strengths and weaknesses of existing methods, including ensemble methods of many types, and can comprehensively and accurately identify and annotate TEs in assembly. By benchmarking on four model species with different TE landscapes, we prove that HiTE can achieve higher accuracy and restore more perfect gold standard TE models, which can be fully applied to any new sequencing genome assembly.

Methods

Text and results for this section, as per the individual journal's instructions for authors

In this section we examine the growth rate of the mean of Z_0 , Z_1 and Z_2 . In addition, we examine a common modeling assumption and note the importance of considering the tails of the extinction time T_x in studies of escape dynamics. We will first consider the expected resistant population at vT_x for some v > 0, (and temporarily assume $\alpha = 0$)

$$E[Z_1(vT_x)] = \int_0^{v \wedge 1} Z_0(uT_x) \exp(\lambda_1) du.$$

If we assume that sensitive cells follow a deterministic decay $Z_0(t) = xe^{\lambda_0 t}$ and approximate their extinction time as $T_x \approx -\frac{1}{\lambda_0} \log x$, then we can heuristically estimate the expected value as

$$E[Z_1(vT_x)]$$

$$= \frac{\mu}{r} \log x \int_0^{v \wedge 1} x^{1-u} x^{(\lambda_1/r)(v-u)} du.$$
(1)

Supplementary information

Supplementary information accompanies this paper at

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Abbreviations

Text for this section...

Availability of data and materials

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Not applicable.

Competing interests

The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

Consent for publication

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Authors' contributions

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Hu and Wang Page 16 of 17

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Figures

Hu and Wang Page 17 of 17

Figure 11 Sample figure title

Table 11 Sample table title. This is where the description of the table should go

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Tables

Additional Files

Additional file 1 — Sample additional file title

Additional file descriptions text (including details of how to view the file, if it is in a non-standard format or the file extension). This might refer to a multi-page table or a figure.

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