

Ense-i6mA: Identification of DNA N⁶-Methyladenine Sites Using XGB-RFE Feature Selection and Ensemble Machine Learning

Xueqiang Fan, Bing Lin, Jun Hu, and Zhongyi Guo 

Abstract—DNA N⁶-methyladenine (6mA) is an important epigenetic modification that plays a vital role in various cellular processes. Accurate identification of the 6mA sites is fundamental to elucidate the biological functions and mechanisms of modification. However, experimental methods for detecting 6mA sites are high-priced and time-consuming. In this study, we propose a novel computational method, called Ense-i6mA, to predict 6mA sites. Firstly, five encoding schemes, i.e., one-hot encoding, gcContent, Z-Curve, K-mer nucleotide frequency, and K-mer nucleotide frequency with gap, are employed to extract DNA sequence features. Secondly, eXtreme gradient boosting coupled with recursive feature elimination is applied to remove noisy features for avoiding over-fitting, reducing computing time and complexity. Then, the best subset of features is fed into base-classifiers composed of Extra Trees, eXtreme Gradient Boosting, Light Gradient Boosting Machine, and Support Vector Machine. Finally, to minimize generalization errors, the prediction probabilities of the base-classifiers are aggregated by averaging for inferring the final 6mA sites results. We conduct experiments on two species, i.e., *Arabidopsis thaliana* and *Drosophila melanogaster*, to compare the performance of Ense-i6mA against the recent 6mA sites prediction methods. The experimental results demonstrate that the proposed Ense-i6mA achieves area under the receiver operating characteristic curve values of 0.967 and 0.968, accuracies of 91.4% and 92.0%, and Mathew's correlation coefficient values of 0.829 and 0.842 on two benchmark datasets, respectively, and outperforms several existing state-of-the-art methods.

Index Terms—DNA N⁶-methyladenine sites, sequence-based encoding, bioinformatics, feature selection, ensemble learning.

I. INTRODUCTION

DNA N⁶-methyladenine (6mA) refers to the modification of introducing a methyl (CH₃) group to the sixth position of an adenine ring catalyzed by DNA methyltransferases [1], [2],

Manuscript received 20 November 2022; accepted 24 June 2024. This work was supported by the National Natural Science Foundation of China under Grant 61775050 and Grant 61902352. (Corresponding authors: Jun Hu; Zhongyi Guo.)

Xueqiang Fan, Bing Lin, and Zhongyi Guo are with the School of Computer and Information, Hefei University of Technology, Hefei 230009, China (e-mail: fanxueqiang2022b@163.com; linbing2021s@163.com; guozhongyi@hfut.edu.cn).

Jun Hu is with the College of Information Engineering, Zhejiang University of Technology, Hangzhou 310023, China (e-mail: hujunum@zjut.edu.cn).

This article has supplementary downloadable material available at <https://doi.org/10.1109/TCBB.2024.3421228>, provided by the authors.

Digital Object Identifier 10.1109/TCBB.2024.3421228

[3], [4]. 6mA is an important epigenetic modification that does not change the DNA segment but could alter the role of DNA molecules. It plays a crucial role in a wide variety of biological processes, such as gene expression regulation, regulating gene transcription, DNA repair and replication, cell division and differentiation, and etc [2], [4], [5], [6], [7]. However, these biological function of 6mA in eukaryotes, especially higher eukaryotes, remain largely unclear due to the distribution patterns of 6mA are rather species-specific which result in diverse functional roles [8]. Locating genomic 6mA distributions is fundamental for the elucidation of potential biological functions of DNA 6mA modification.

Accurate identification of 6mA sites in the genome is the most important step to facilitate the characterization of 6mA distribution patterns and further functional analysis. To this end, a number of experimental methods are applied to detect 6mA sites of DNA, e.g., methylated DNA immunoprecipitation sequencing [9], liquid chromatography coupled with tandem mass spectrometry [10], and single-molecule real-time sequencing [11]. However, these methods are time-consuming and laborious. Due to the important of 6mA and the difficulty in experimentally identifying 6mA sites, together with the fact that a large amount of unannotated DNA sequences have quickly accumulated, the development of computational methods for the fast prediction of 6mA sites solely from DNA sequence has become a hot topic in bioinformatics.

Extracting effective features from DNA sequences is considered the most important step in developing accurate computational methods to predict 6mA sites. During the recent years, a series of computational methods have emerged for predicting 6mA sites. According to feature attributes being extracted from sequence, the features used by the existing identification of 6mA sites methods can be roughly divided into three categories, i.e., physicochemical properties [12], [13], sequence information [14], [15], and evolutionary information [16], [17]. Most current methods, e.g., SpineNet-6mA [18], iDNA6mA (5-step rule) [19], Deep6mA [20], LA6mA [21], AL6mA [21], and I-DNAN6mA, solely utilize one-hot encoding (OHE) to extract sequence information for predicting 6mA sites. Unlike these methods, i6mA-vote [22] introduces one-hot encoding method for dinucleotides (One-hot2) to extract sequence information for the first time. i6mA-DNC [23] uses dinucleotide representation method to extract sequence information. To our

knowledge, i6mA-Pred [24] is the first computational method of 6mA sites identification that uses chemical properties with respect to amino/keto bases, strong/weak hydrogen bond, and ring structures (RFHC), and position-specific nucleotide frequencies (PPNF) to obtain physicochemical properties and sequence information in DNA sequence, respectively. Besides RFHC, i6mA-stack [25] also utilizes Dinucleotide Physicochemical Properties (DPCP), Trinucleotide Physicochemical Properties (TPCP), and Electron-Ion-Interaction Pseudo Potentials of Nucleotides (EIIP), and one-hot encoding (OHE) to dig out physicochemical properties and sequence information, respectively. To extract evolutionary information from sequences, MM-6mA-Pred [16] uses a 1st-order Markov model (MM) that indicates the transition probability between adjacent nucleotides for identifying 6mA sites. In addition to choosing an appropriate feature extraction scheme, another key factor for success of 6mA sites identification is the choice of classification algorithms.

Appropriate classification algorithms can speed up training and efficiently learn the relationship between features and labels. A wide variety of machine learning algorithms are used to predict 6mA sites, such as Support Vector Machine (SVM) [26], eXtreme Gradient Boosting (XGB) [27], Logistic Regression (LR) [28], Bagging [29], Random Forest (RF) [30], Fully-Connected Neural Networks (FCN) [31], Convolutional Neural Networks (CNN) [32], Bidirectional Long Short-Term Memory Recurrent Neural Networks (BiLSTM) [33], and etc. i6mA-Pred [24] combines the SVM classifier with RFHC and PPNF to learn 6mA sites prediction model. It is observed that i6mA-Pred reaches an accuracy of 83.13% in the jackknife test on the rice genome. Unlike i6mA-Pred, i6mA-DNC [23] and iDNA6mA (5-step rule) [19] use CNN and FCN to predict 6mA sites. i6mA-DNC and iDNA6mA (5-step rule) obtain 86.64% and 88.60% of accuracy on the rice genome. In Deep6mA [20], OHE is fed into an ensemble of three neural network units, i.e., CNN, BiLSTM, and FCN, to train the prediction model of 6mA sites and Deep6mA accurately predicts 6mA sites. In LA6mA and AL6mA [21], BiLSTM and self-attention mechanism are used to capture discriminative information from OHE for predicting 6mA sites. The accuracies of LA6mA and AL6mA reach 91.5% and 87.8%, and 90.9% and 88.4% in the *Drosophila melanogaster* and *Arabidopsis thaliana* genome, respectively. Nevertheless, despite the efficiency and accuracy achieved, the running speed and performance of 6mA sites prediction methods remain room for further improvements.

(i) The influence of DNA sequence features on 6mA sites prediction is not fully elucidated. It is still improved in 6mA sites prediction by extracting features based on DNA sequences. (ii) By revisiting existing 6mA sites identification methods, it was found that all of them employ fused feature generated in series with multiple single-view features directly as input of the machine learning algorithms. Although the usage of single-view feature or fused multi-view features can fully represent the information contained in the DNA sequence, in most of the cases it introduces redundant or irrelevant information inevitably that will seriously reduce the efficiency of 6mA prediction model. Hence, eliminating noise in the feature is also an important

step in the process of 6mA sites identification. (iii) Facing the avalanche of new DNA sequences produced in the post-genomic era, choosing an effective classifier is also a major challenge for researchers.

To address the important issues mentioned above, in this study, we propose a novel 6mA sites prediction method, termed Ense-i6mA. Firstly, two benchmark datasets are collected and each DNA sequence is encoded into OHE, K-mer nucleotide frequency (KNF) [34], gcContent [35], [36], Z-Curve [37], [38], and K-mer nucleotide frequency with gaps (KNFG) [15]. Compared to the single-view feature, the fusion feature can obtain more comprehensive DNA information. Secondly, the XGB coupled with recursive feature elimination (XGB-RFE) is applied to 6mA sites prediction to remove noisy features for avoiding over-fitting, reducing computing time and complexity. Finally, an ensemble classifier consisting of two stages is used as the final classifier. In the first phase, four base-classifiers, i.e., Extra Trees (ET), SVM, XGB, and Light Gradient Boosting Machine (LGBM), are selected from thirteen machine-learning algorithms for the first time. In the second phase, to minimize generalization errors, the prediction probabilities of the base-classifiers are aggregated by averaging for inferring the final 6mA sites results. We conduct experiments on two benchmark datasets to compare the performance of Ense-i6mA against the recent 6mA sites prediction methods. Benchmarking results demonstrate that Ense-i6mA yields substantial performance achieve over previous methods, highlighting its promising potential in solving the 6mA sites prediction problem. Finally, based on the proposed Ense-i6mA, we implement a new standalone-version predictor for predicting 6mA sites, which is freely available at <https://github.com/XueQiangFan/Ense-i6mA> for academic use.

II. MATERIALS AND METHODS

A. Benchmark Datasets

To evaluate the performance of our proposed I-DNAN6mA, in this study, we chose two well-known datasets contained the DNA 6mA sites data for two species i.e., *Arabidopsis thaliana* and *Drosophila melanogaster*, which are previously employed to assess the 6mA sites prediction models in the recently published studies [21], [34] as the benchmark datasets. These raw DNA data of *Arabidopsis thaliana* and *Drosophila melanogaster* are collected from the PacBio public database [35]. For each organism, Zhang et al. randomly divides it into the training and independent testing subset at a ratio of 9:1. The number of positive and negative samples is the same for each subset. For more detailed information on the dataset construction, please refer to [21], [34]. All the datasets can be downloaded from <https://github.com/XueQiangFan/Ense-i6mA>. Finally, the number of samples included in each dataset is shown in Supplemental Table S1.

B. Feature Extraction

Extracting effective features from DNA sequences which contain significant discriminatory information is considered the

most important step in developing accurate computational methods to predict 6mA sites. To encode the DNA sequences into vectors recognized by machine-learning, given a DNA sequence with 41-nt, five encoding schemes, i.e., OHE, gcContent [36], [37], Z-Curve [38], [39], KNF [40], and KNFG [15], are used to extract DNA sequence features:

- Every DNA sequence transformed into a 41×4 matrix (total 164 elements) after one-hot coding.
- Generally, DNAs with high gcContent scores are more stable than DNA with low gcContent scores. gcContent calculated by:

$$\text{gcContent} = \frac{\sum_i^L C + \sum_i^L G}{\sum_i^L A + \sum_i^L C + \sum_i^L G + \sum_i^L T} \quad (1)$$

- Z-Curve theory is often used in genomic sequence analysis. Each sequence is represented by three elements. It is defined as following:

$$\text{Z - Curve} = [x, y, z] \quad (2)$$

$$\begin{cases} x = (\sum_i^L A + \sum_i^L G) - (\sum_i^L C + \sum_i^L T) \\ y = (\sum_i^L A + \sum_i^L C) - (\sum_i^L G + \sum_i^L T) \\ z = (\sum_i^L A + \sum_i^L T) - (\sum_i^L G + \sum_i^L C) \end{cases} \quad (3)$$

- KNF (total 84 elements), which reflects the sequence background differences between the 6mA sites and non-6mA sites, used to calculate the frequencies of adjacent nucleotides in the DNA sequence. In this study, K values are set 1, 2, and 3.
- KNFG (total 720 elements) generated by PyFeat tool [15], a python-based feature generation tool for DNA, RNA and protein sequences.

The detail steps of generating the above descriptors are described in Supplementary Text S1.

C. Feature Selection Using XGB-RFE

A pre-requisite in developing powerful computational models for 6mA sites prediction is to extract sufficient discriminative features to construct accurate models. By visiting existing 6mA sites prediction methods, most of the methods use a variety of coding strategies to generate more DNA features that in most of the cases introduce redundant or irrelevant information inevitably, and at the same time produce feature sparsity problem. Therefore, it will eventually result in over-fitting issue and reducing the generalization capacity of the prediction model. Feature selection which can enhance the performance of the prediction by selecting optimum features, is one of the effective techniques in diverse domains, e.g., pattern recognition, machine learning, and bioinformatics, to remove the noisy information from the actual data.

To find out which features are most suitable to identify 6mA sites, the eXtreme Gradient Boosting (XGB), coupled with recursive feature elimination (RFE) algorithm, is employed to score different meta features and select the optimal meta features

to construct the best subset of features (BFS). In this study, XGB and RFE (XGB-RFE) are combined for the first time in the field of 6mA sites identification. Specifically, BFS can be constructed with the following three steps [27], [41]:

Step 1: Sequence-based Feature Encoding

Given a DNA sequence with 41 nucleotides, five encoding schemes, i.e., ONE, gcContent, Z-Curve, KNF, and KNFG, are used to encode 164, 1, 3, 84, and 720-dimensional vectors, respectively. The five types of features are fused to engender a new feature group, which consists of a total of 972-dimensional features for each sequence. The fused feature groups and labels for all sequence constitute a sample dataset \mathcal{D} :

$$\mathcal{D} = \{(\xi^1, \eta^1), (\xi^2, \eta^2), \dots, (\xi^n, \eta^n)\} \quad (4)$$

where n is the total number of samples; the element

$$(\xi^i, \eta^i) = [x_1^i, x_2^i, \dots, x_j^i, \dots, x_{972}^i, y^i] \quad (5)$$

means that the i -th DNA sequence contains 972 features and a label y^i .

Step 2: Feature Importance Ranking and Elimination of Junk Features

A tree ensemble model, i.e., XGB, uses M additive functions to predict the 6mA sites.

$$\tilde{y}^i = \sum_{m=1}^M f_m(\xi^i) \quad (6)$$

where $f_m(\xi^i)$ denotes the importance score of i -th feature vector on m -th tree. Thus, the objective function can be expressed as:

$$O(\emptyset) = \sum_i o(\tilde{y}^i, y^i) + \gamma \quad (7)$$

where $o(\tilde{y}^i, y^i)$ means the loss between the predicted and ground truth values; $\gamma = \sum_m \omega(f_m)$, $\omega(\cdot)$ controls the complexity of the model. Then, the objective function becomes as follows after one iteration generate a tree:

$$O(\emptyset)_{(t)} = \sum_i o\left[\left(\tilde{y}_{(t-1)}^i + f_{(t)}(\xi^i)\right), y^i\right] + \gamma \quad (8)$$

where $\tilde{y}_{(t-1)}^i + f_{(t)}(\xi^i)$ represents the predicted value of t -th iteration. Assuming that the $m-1$ -th tree weight is known while producing the m -th tree.

$$O_{(t)} = \sum_{i=1}^T \left[o\left(\tilde{y}_{(t-1)}^i, y^i\right) + \delta_i f_{(t)}(\xi^i) + \frac{1}{2} \mu_i f_{(t)}^2(\xi^i) \right] + \gamma \quad (9)$$

where $O_{(t)}$ is the objective function; δ_i and μ_i mean the first- and second-order statistics of the loss function, respectively. Obtaining the importance ranking of features, the lowest scoring features are eliminated using RFE from the current feature space and the remaining features are used as the feature dataset \mathcal{D}^* for the next iteration.

Step 3: Iterative Optimization

Repeating step 2, the final BFS contained the 80-dimensional most important features is selected from the fused feature group for each sequence.

274 *D. Architecture of Ense-i6mA*

275 Machine learning, especially the ensemble learning has recently been proven to be a fascinating algorithm and successfully applied in a wide variety of computational bioinformatics domains, such as DNA-binding protein [42], ncRNA-protein interactions [43], protein-protein interactions [44], and etc. Ensemble learning combines multiple classifiers and uses a certain rule to integrate a series of learner results to obtain better results than the single classifier. In this study, an ensemble classifier, termed Ense-i6mA, is established to predict 6mA sites. Framework of Ense-i6mA mainly consists of two-phase, including the first stage base-classifier learning and the second stage integrated predicted probabilities.

287 Considering the different feature learning spaces and class recognition capabilities of different machine learning algorithms, this study expects to choose excellent base classifiers to train the prediction model for identifying 6mA sites. In the first phase, thirteen machine-learning algorithms, Logistic Regression (LR), K-nearest neighbor (KNN), decision tree (DT), Gaussian NB (NB), Bagging, Random Forest (RF), AdaBoost (AB), Gradient Boosting (GB), Linear Discriminant Analysis (LDA), Extra Trees (ET), eXtreme Gradient Boosting (XGB), Light Gradient Boosting Machine (LGBM), and Support Vector Machine (SVM), are investigated by contrast experiments to select base-classifiers. These machine learning-based classifiers are implemented and tuned using the Scikit-learn Python library [45]. By comparing the prediction performance of thirteen machine-learning algorithms on the derived data set BFS of the training data set over five-fold cross-validation tests, SVM, XGB, LGBM, and ET are used as base-classifiers. In the second phase, to minimize generalization errors, the prediction probabilities of the base-classifiers are aggregated by averaging to obtain the final 6mA sites probability. Ense-i6mA can mine the essential discrimination features that characterize DNA 6mA sites through ensemble learning, and its prediction performance is superior to that of the individual classifier. The detailed flow of the Ense-i6mA algorithm is presented in the three steps in Algorithm 1.

312 *E. Model Construction*

313 In this study, a novel method is proposed, called Ense-i6mA, for identifying 6mA sites. The flow chart is shown in Fig. 1. All 314 experiments are performed on Windows Server 10 Inter Core 315 i7-9750H CPU @2.60 Hz, 16.0 GB of RAM, and Python 3.7 316 programming. The detailed steps of Ense-i6mA are described 317 as follows:

- 318 1) Collecting two benchmark 6mA sites datasets from previous 319 literatures.
- 320 2) Five encoding schemes, i.e., OHE, KNF, Z-Curve, gc- 321 Content, and KNFG, are applied to extract DNA feature 322 for given DNA sequence with-41nts. Experimental results 323 show that the fused feature could extract complementary 324 and representative information compared with the single 325 feature.
- 326 3) XGB-RFE is utilized to remove noisy features for avoiding 327 over-fitting, speed up training, reducing computing

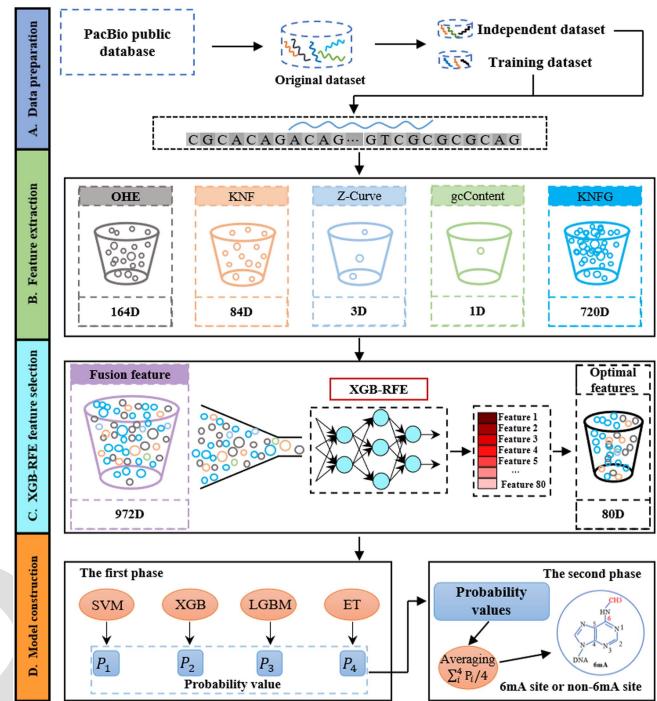


Fig. 1. The overall flow for identifying 6mA sites by Ense-i6mA. (A) Data preparation. (B) Feature extraction. (C) XGB-RFE feature selection. (D) Model construction.

Algorithm 1: Ense-i6mA Algorithm.

Input: Dataset $D = \{(X_1, Y_1), (X_2, Y_2), \dots, (X_n, Y_n)\}$;
Feature selection FS = XGB-RFE;
Base-classifiers $c_1 = \text{SVM}$, $c_2 = \text{XGB}$, $c_3 = \text{LGBM}$, $c_4 = \text{ET}$.

Output: ensemble classifier C

```

1:  $D^* = \emptyset$ ;
2: Step 1: construct the best subset of features
3: for  $i = 1, 2, 3, \dots, n$  do
4:    $X'_i = \text{FS}(X_i, Y_i)$ ;
5: end for
6:  $D^* = \{(X'_1, Y_1), (X'_2, Y_2), \dots, (X'_n, Y_n)\}$ ;
7: Step 2: train the base-classifiers
8: for  $t = 1, 2, 3, 4$  do
9:    $h_t = c_t(D^*)$ ;
10: end for
11:  $H = \{h_1(x), h_2(x), h_3(x), h_4(x)\}$ ;
12: Step 3: aggregate results by averaging
13:  $C = \sum_t^4 h_t / 4$ ;
14: return C

```

time and complexity. The performance of XGB-RFE with other feature selection methods, i.e., Principal Component Analysis (PCA) [46], SVM-RFE [47], LR-RFE [48], RF-RFE [49], and AB-RFE, is also evaluated by Sn, Sp, ACC, MCC, and auROC.

- 329 4) SVM, XGB, LGBM, and ET, algorithms are stacked to 330 build up base-classifiers. The BFS generated by steps (3) 331 are fed into the base-classifiers and the output the 6mA 332

333
334
335
336

site probabilities of the base-classifiers are aggregated by averaging for concluding the final results.

- 5) The effectiveness of Ense-i6mA is validated on two benchmark datasets. The performance of Ense-i6mA with other compared methods, i.e., SVM, XGB, LGBM, ET, GB, DeepM6A, i6mA-DNC, iDNA6mA, 3-mer-LR, LA6mA, and AL6mA, is assessed on the independent testing datasets using Sn, Sp, ACC, MCC, and auROC.

345 F. Evaluation Metrics

346 In this study, the performance of the proposed method is
 347 assessed by using the following four classical evaluation indexes
 348 of binary classification, namely sensitivity (Sn), specificity (Sp),
 349 accuracy (ACC) and Mathew's correlation coefficient (MCC),
 350 which are respectively expressed as follows:

$$351 \quad \text{Sn} = 1 - \frac{\alpha_{-}^{+}}{\alpha_{+}^{+}} \quad (10)$$

$$352 \quad \text{Sp} = 1 - \frac{\alpha_{-}^{-}}{\alpha_{+}^{-}} \quad (11)$$

$$353 \quad \text{ACC} = 1 - \frac{\alpha_{-}^{+} + \alpha_{+}^{-}}{\alpha_{+}^{+} + \alpha_{-}^{-}} \quad (12)$$

$$354 \quad \text{MCC} = \frac{1 - \frac{\alpha_{-}^{+} + \alpha_{+}^{-}}{\alpha_{+}^{+} + \alpha_{-}^{-}}}{\sqrt{\left(1 + \frac{\alpha_{-}^{-} - \alpha_{+}^{+}}{\alpha_{+}^{+}}\right)\left(1 + \frac{\alpha_{-}^{+} - \alpha_{+}^{-}}{\alpha_{+}^{-}}\right)}} \quad (13)$$

355 where α_{+}^{+} (i.e., true positive) is the total number of 6mA sites,
 356 α_{-}^{+} is the number of 6mA sites incorrectly predicted as non-6mA
 357 sites, α_{-}^{-} is the total number of non-6mA sites, α_{+}^{-} is the number
 358 of non-6mA sites incorrectly predicted as 6mA sites. MCC
 359 measures the correlation between the expected class and the
 360 predicted class. The MCC measure ranges from -1 to 1 , and the
 361 other three evaluation measures range between 0 to 1 . Further-
 362 more, this study also uses the receiver operating characteristic
 363 (ROC) curve evaluate the performance of the proposed method.
 The area under the ROC curve (auROC) is a comprehensive
 indicator of the performance quality of a binary classifier. The
 value 0.5 of auROC is equivalent to random prediction, while 1
 of auROC means a perfect one.

364 III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

365 A Performance Comparison of Different Features

366 In this section, the discriminative performances of the five
 367 sequence-based features and one combination feature of them,
 368 i.e., OHE, KNF, Z-Curve, gcContent, KNFG, and the fusion
 369 feature, are investigated. Three commonly individual machine
 370 learning algorithms, i.e., Logistic Regression (LR), K-nearest
 371 neighbor (KNN), and Random Forest (RF), are used to assess
 372 each feature by performing five-fold cross-validation tests on
 373 the training datasets of *Arabidopsis thaliana* and *Drosophila*
 374 *melanogaster*, respectively. Among them, the number of LR
 375 iterations is 500 , the neighbors of the KNN method are set as
 376 7 , and RF sets the number of base decision trees to 500 and
 377 the maximum learning depth to 10 . Table I summarizes the

discriminative average performance results of these features.
 Supplemental Figs. S1 and S2 demonstrate ROC curves of LR,
 KNN, and RF algorithms with different features on *A.thaliana*
 and *D.melanogaster*, respectively.

From Table I and Figs. S1 and S2, we can easily find that
 the fusion feature consistently outperforms other five individual
 features, i.e., OHE, KNF, Z-Curve, gcContent, and KNFG
 concerning the five evaluation indexes. Taking the results of
 the LR algorithm on training dataset *A.thaliana* as example,
 the Sn, Sp, ACC, MCC, and auROC of the fusion feature are
 0.871 , 0.876 , 0.873 , 0.746 , and 0.939 , respectively, which are
 2.60% , 4.16% , 3.31% , 7.96% , and 3.00% higher than those of
 the second-best feature, i.e., OHE, respectively. Furthermore,
 Table I also provides performance comparison of different fea-
 tures in terms of Sn under the fixed Sp (i.e., 0.8 and 0.9). It can
 be also observed that the fusion feature performed best under
 fixed Sp in most cases, followed by OHE. These experimental
 results demonstrate that the five single-view features contain
 complementary information.

397 B. Performance Comparison of Different Feature Selection 398 Methods

Choosing one appropriate feature selection method can re-
 move the noise while reducing the feature dimension and select-
 ing the optimal features. In this study, the discriminative per-
 formances of six feature selection methods, i.e., PCA, SVM-RFE,
 LR-RFE, RF-RFE, AB-RFE, and XGB-RFE, are investigated
 by observing the performances of LR, KNN, and RF algorithms
 again on training datasets over five-fold cross-validation tests.
 The optimal features of these feature selection methods with
 default parameters are set to 100 . The prediction results are
 shown in Table II. Supplemental Figs. S3 and S4 illustrate
 ROC curves of LR, KNN, and RF algorithms with different
 feature selection methods on the training datasets over five-fold
 cross-validation tests, respectively.

Table II shows that the performance of XGB-RFE is superior
 to that of the other five feature selection methods. Specifically,
 XGB-RFE with LR, KNN, and RF gains the highest MCC
 and auROC values, which are two overall measurements of
 the quality of the binary classification, among all feature se-
 lection methods on each training dataset. Taking the results of
 XGB-RFE with KNN on the training dataset of *A.thaliana* as
 an example, XGB-RFE achieves 127.96% and 32.11% , 7.14%
 and 1.96% , 8.85% and 1.85% , 7.91% and 2.40% , and 15.21%
 and 4.45% average enhancements of MCC and auROC values,
 respectively, compared to the other five feature selection meth-
 ods, i.e., PCA, SVM-RFE, LR-RFE, RF-RFE, and AB-RFE.
 In addition, XGB-RFE shares the highest Sn, Sp, ACC, Sn
 ($Sp = 0.8$), and Sn ($Sp = 0.9$) values. The numerous experi-
 mental results shown in Table II and Figs. S3 and S4 indicate
 that the performance is indeed enhanced after applying feature
 selection.

429 C. Selection of Base Classifiers

To determine the most suitable base classifiers, we evaluate
 the performance of 13 machine learning classifiers (i.e., LR,

TABLE I
PERFORMANCE COMPARISON OF DIFFERENT FEATURES ON THE TRAINING DATASETS OVER FIVE-FOLD CROSS-VALIDATION TESTS USING THE LR, KNN, AND RF ALGORITHMS

Training dataset	Method	Feature	Sn ^a	Sp ^a	ACC ^a	MCC ^a	auROC ^a	Sn ^b	Sn ^c
Arabidopsis thaliana	LR	OHE	0.849	0.841	0.845	0.691	0.912	0.781	0.873
		KNF	0.676	0.750	0.713	0.428	0.785	0.447	0.613
		Z-Curve	0.644	0.641	0.643	0.286	0.703	0.313	0.469
		gcContent	0.659	0.634	0.646	0.294	0.695	0.287	0.464
		KNFG	0.731	0.788	0.759	0.519	0.838	0.566	0.717
		Fusion	0.871	0.876	0.873	0.746	0.939	0.913	0.845
	KNN	OHE	0.871	0.693	0.783	0.574	0.854	0.630	0.747
		KNF	0.652	0.716	0.684	0.370	0.745	0.395	0.556
		Z-Curve	0.594	0.652	0.623	0.247	0.659	0.244	0.412
		gcContent	0.661	0.554	0.608	0.216	0.647	0.222	0.398
		KNFG	0.662	0.755	0.708	0.419	0.755	0.446	0.602
		Fusion	0.808	0.743	0.776	0.552	0.849	0.743	0.582
	RF	OHE	0.826	0.824	0.825	0.650	0.882	0.679	0.835
		KNF	0.729	0.723	0.726	0.452	0.794	0.461	0.641
		Z-Curve	0.656	0.641	0.648	0.297	0.707	0.312	0.482
		gcContent	0.659	0.634	0.646	0.293	0.695	0.288	0.464
		KNFG	0.745	0.748	0.747	0.493	0.819	0.530	0.682
		Fusion	0.824	0.869	0.846	0.694	0.922	0.869	0.792
Drosophila melanogaster	LR	OHE	0.836	0.871	0.853	0.708	0.923	0.794	0.898
		KNF	0.669	0.715	0.692	0.384	0.754	0.382	0.559
		Z-Curve	0.600	0.636	0.617	0.236	0.664	0.240	0.382
		gcContent	0.591	0.518	0.555	0.109	0.587	0.164	0.288
		KNFG	0.735	0.773	0.754	0.509	0.835	0.520	0.699
		Fusion	0.880	0.891	0.885	0.771	0.948	0.873	0.929
	KNN	OHE	0.798	0.800	0.799	0.699	0.829	0.400	0.798
		KNF	0.701	0.599	0.651	0.302	0.698	0.307	0.463
		Z-Curve	0.573	0.593	0.583	0.166	0.613	0.167	0.317
		gcContent	0.394	0.624	0.507	0.018	0.533	0.124	0.228
		KNFG	0.749	0.589	0.670	0.343	0.737	0.361	0.517
		Fusion	0.886	0.587	0.738	0.500	0.836	0.541	0.712
	RF	OHE	0.677	0.937	0.805	0.634	0.868	0.705	0.783
		KNF	0.682	0.713	0.698	0.400	0.773	0.436	0.593
		Z-Curve	0.624	0.615	0.619	0.239	0.662	0.233	0.392
		gcContent	0.588	0.527	0.558	0.116	0.586	0.154	0.301
		KNFG	0.721	0.730	0.725	0.451	0.806	0.495	0.637
		Fusion	0.826	0.925	0.876	0.755	0.942	0.847	0.917

^a Results computed with prediction cutoff threshold value set as 0.5.

^b Results computed with the fixed specificity at 0.9.

^c Results computed with the fixed specificity at 0.8.

KNN, RF, Decision Tree (DT), Gaussian NB (NB), Bagging, AdaBoost (AB), Gradient Boosting (GB), Linear Discriminant Analysis (LDA), Extra Trees (ET), eXtreme Gradient Boosting (XGB), Light Gradient Boosting Machine (LGBM), and Support Vector Machine (SVM)) on the training datasets over five-fold cross-validation tests. The parameter of 13 machine learning classifiers are as follows, i.e., the number of iterations of LR, XGB, and LGBM is 500; the closest neighbor of KNN is 5; ET and RF set the number of base decision trees to 500 and the maximum learning depth to 10; SVM uses the RBF kernel function; the ‘n_estimators’ of AB, Bagging, AB, GB, XGB, and LGBM are all set as 500; DT, LDA, and NB use default parameters. These classifiers are implemented using the Scikit-learn Python library [45]. Table III demonstrates the

prediction results of 13 classifiers on the training datasets over five-fold cross-validation tests. The ROC curves can be seen in Fig. 2.

According to the MCC and auROC values listed in Table III and the ROC curves presented in Fig. 2, we can find that the five top-ranked classifiers are ET, XGB, LGBM, SVM, and GB, respectively. Concretely, the ET acts as the best performer followed by XGB, LGBM, SVM, and GB. ET is the only classifier to obtain $MCC > 0.78$ and $auROC > 0.95$ on both training datasets. It is noted that LGBM gains comparable performance to XGB in terms of MCC and auROC values. The MCC and auROC values of XGB and LGBM classifiers both exceed 0.76 and 0.947, respectively. Furthermore, we observe that the MCC and auROC values of SVM are 1.94%

TABLE II
PERFORMANCE COMPARISON OF DIFFERENT FEATURE SELECTION METHODS ON THE TRAINING DATASETS OVER FIVE-FOLD CROSS-VALIDATION TESTS USING THE LR, KNN, AND RF ALGORITHM

Training dataset	Method	Feature selection method	Sn ^a	Sp ^a	ACC ^a	MCC ^a	auROC ^a	Sn ^b	Sn ^c
Arabidopsis thaliana	LR	-	0.871	0.876	0.873	0.746	0.939	0.913	0.845
		PCA	0.673	0.683	0.678	0.357	0.743	0.381	0.549
		SVM-RFE	0.849	0.869	0.859	0.719	0.928	0.827	0.896
		LR-RFE	0.851	0.872	0.861	0.723	0.923	0.823	0.891
		RF-RFE	0.843	0.856	0.850	0.700	0.921	0.814	0.878
		AB-RFE	0.854	0.866	0.860	0.721	0.927	0.817	0.892
		XGB-RFE	0.854	0.870	0.862	0.736	0.930	0.824	0.893
	KNN	-	0.808	0.743	0.776	0.552	0.849	0.743	0.582
		PCA	0.498	0.814	0.655	0.329	0.710	0.356	0.513
		SVM-RFE	0.896	0.800	0.848	0.700	0.920	0.806	0.896
		LR-RFE	0.903	0.778	0.842	0.689	0.921	0.808	0.891
		RF-RFE	0.869	0.825	0.847	0.695	0.916	0.805	0.879
		AB-RFE	0.861	0.788	0.825	0.651	0.898	0.740	0.849
		XGB-RFE	0.911	0.832	0.872	0.750	0.938	0.832	0.911
Drosophila melanogaster	RF	-	0.824	0.869	0.846	0.694	0.922	0.869	0.792
		PCA	0.703	0.713	0.708	0.416	0.775	0.433	0.599
		SVM-RFE	0.834	0.910	0.872	0.746	0.938	0.847	0.904
		LR-RFE	0.837	0.909	0.871	0.748	0.938	0.844	0.900
		RF-RFE	0.823	0.906	0.864	0.732	0.934	0.827	0.889
		AB-RFE	0.823	0.910	0.871	0.744	0.937	0.843	0.904
		XGB-RFE	0.834	0.927	0.881	0.764	0.944	0.859	0.912
	LR	-	0.880	0.891	0.885	0.771	0.948	0.873	0.929
		PCA	0.624	0.590	0.606	0.212	0.655	0.240	0.398
		SVM-RFE	0.871	0.879	0.875	0.751	0.944	0.852	0.922
		LR-RFE	0.878	0.893	0.885	0.771	0.946	0.869	0.926
		RF-RFE	0.870	0.885	0.877	0.755	0.943	0.856	0.920
		AB-RFE	0.862	0.869	0.865	0.732	0.935	0.837	0.905
		XGB-RFE	0.893	0.900	0.889	0.777	0.950	0.872	0.933
	KNN	-	0.886	0.587	0.738	0.500	0.836	0.541	0.712
		PCA	0.460	0.741	0.598	0.208	0.646	0.227	0.377
		SVM-RFE	0.911	0.794	0.853	0.711	0.926	0.829	0.908
		LR-RFE	0.920	0.777	0.850	0.706	0.911	0.817	0.902
		RF-RFE	0.912	0.784	0.849	0.703	0.928	0.826	0.904
		AB-RFE	0.903	0.664	0.785	0.585	0.859	0.651	0.781
		XGB-RFE	0.932	0.773	0.853	0.716	0.932	0.850	0.932
	RF	-	0.826	0.925	0.876	0.755	0.942	0.847	0.917
		PCA	0.602	0.662	0.631	0.263	0.692	0.275	0.454
		SVM-RFE	0.852	0.927	0.889	0.780	0.951	0.882	0.934
		LR-RFE	0.844	0.910	0.877	0.756	0.942	0.855	0.910
		RF-RFE	0.853	0.933	0.893	0.788	0.950	0.888	0.933
		AB-RFE	0.838	0.893	0.865	0.732	0.936	0.832	0.905
		XGB-RFE	0.861	0.941	0.900	0.804	0.957	0.903	0.941

- means results computed without using feature selection methods.

^a Results computed with prediction cutoff threshold value set as 0.5.

^b Results computed with the fixed specificity at 0.9.

^c Results computed with the fixed specificity at 0.8.

and 0.63%, 2.21% and 0.58% average lower than, respectively, the corresponding values achieved by XGB and LGBM on both training datasets. By revisiting Table III, it is apparent that the Sp values reached by these five classifiers are largely more than the Sn values they achieve. The reason for this is that they predict too many false negatives. Thus, ET, XGB, LGBM, SVM, and GB are provisionally selected as the base classifiers.

To further analyze the combined performance of these 13 machine learning classifiers, we rank these methods using the sum of Z-scores of all evaluation indexes. Fig. 3(a) and (b) show the comprehensive performance of all methods in the A.thaliana and D.melanogaster genome, respectively. It can be found that the comprehensive performance of ET is the best among all methods in both A.thaliana and D.melanogaster genomes, followed by XGB, LGBM, SVM, and GB.

TABLE III
PERFORMANCE COMPARISON OF DIFFERENT MACHINE LEARNING ALGORITHMS ON THE TRAINING DATASETS OVER FIVE-FOLD CROSS-VALIDATION TESTS

Training dataset	Method	Sn ^a	Sp ^a	ACC ^a	MCC ^a	auROC ^a	Sn ^b	Sn ^c
Arabidopsis thaliana	LR	0.848	0.863	0.855	0.710	0.923	0.818	0.891
	KNN	0.896	0.801	0.849	0.701	0.906	0.791	0.896
	DT	0.836	0.825	0.831	0.661	0.831	0.478	0.841
	NB	0.787	0.853	0.820	0.642	0.892	0.728	0.833
	Bagging	0.849	0.875	0.862	0.725	0.923	0.819	0.891
	RF	0.816	0.870	0.843	0.687	0.911	0.774	0.864
	AB	0.856	0.846	0.851	0.703	0.922	0.804	0.885
	LDA	0.848	0.862	0.855	0.711	0.922	0.817	0.886
	SVM	0.849	0.908	0.878	0.758	0.941	0.858	0.911
	XGB	0.853	0.913	0.883	0.767	0.947	0.865	0.921
	LGBM	0.855	0.918	0.886	0.774	0.947	0.872	0.919
	ET	0.853	0.928	0.890	0.783	0.951	0.882	0.926
Drosophila melanogaster	GB	0.841	0.883	0.862	0.724	0.928	0.827	0.879
	LR	0.875	0.887	0.881	0.762	0.946	0.861	0.928
	KNN	0.924	0.794	0.859	0.725	0.916	0.823	0.918
	DT	0.850	0.834	0.842	0.685	0.842	0.512	0.855
	NB	0.810	0.896	0.853	0.709	0.920	0.801	0.881
	Bagging	0.876	0.895	0.886	0.772	0.937	0.870	0.916
	RF	0.822	0.880	0.851	0.703	0.920	0.796	0.879
	AB	0.877	0.872	0.874	0.750	0.943	0.848	0.918
	LDA	0.868	0.885	0.876	0.754	0.946	0.859	0.927
	SVM	0.867	0.925	0.895	0.791	0.955	0.886	0.937
	XGB	0.883	0.929	0.906	0.813	0.961	0.906	0.946
	LGBM	0.877	0.932	0.904	0.810	0.960	0.902	0.945
	ET	0.868	0.952	0.910	0.822	0.961	0.909	0.944
	GB	0.873	0.907	0.890	0.781	0.949	0.879	0.922

^a Results computed with prediction cutoff threshold value set as 0.5.

^b Results computed with the fixed specificity at 0.9.

^c Results computed with the fixed specificity at 0.8.

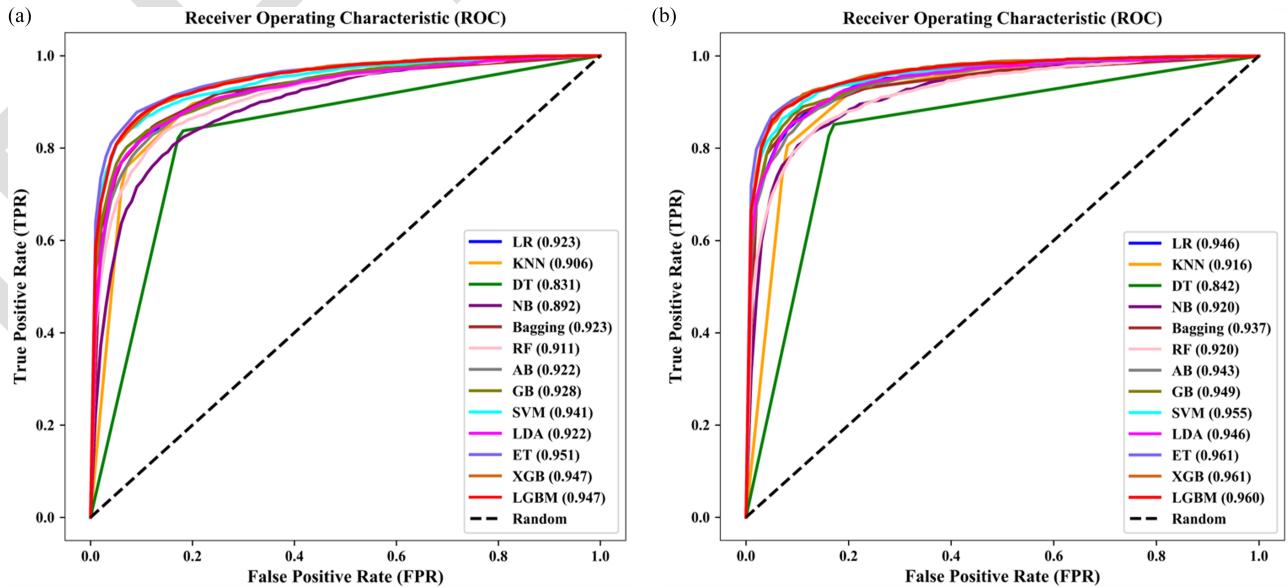


Fig. 2. ROC curves of different machine learning classifiers on the training datasets over five-fold cross-validation tests: (a) A.thaliana and (b) D.melanogaster.

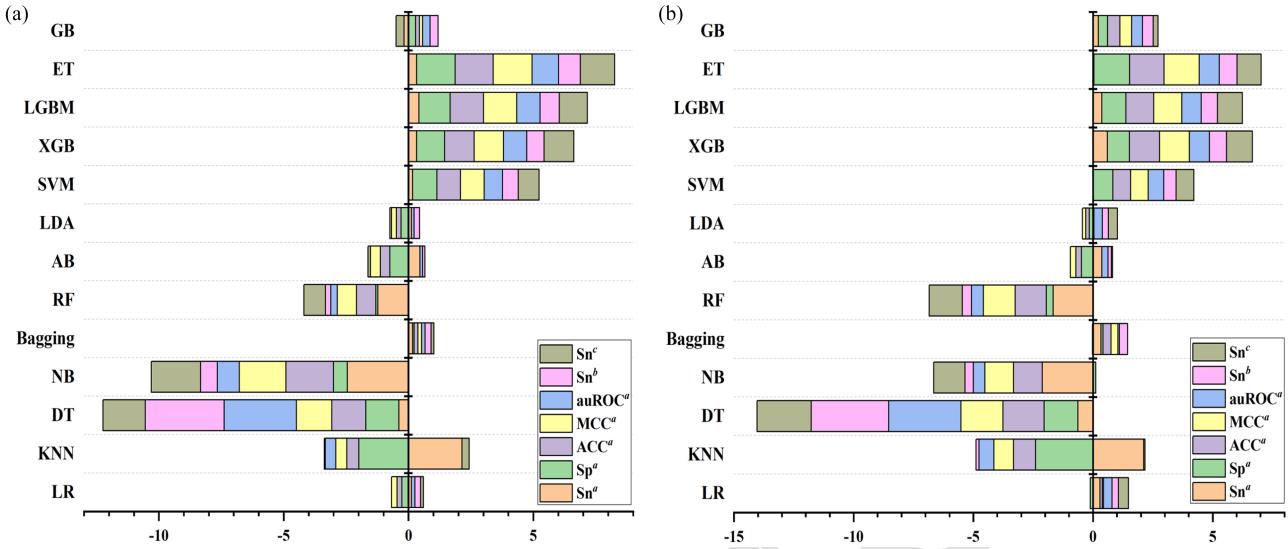


Fig. 3. Ranking of various classifiers in the global performance evaluation. (a) and (b) are ranked according to the sum of the Z-scores of all the evaluation indexes on the *A.thaliana* and *D.melanogaster*, respectively.

476 D. Integrated Classifiers With Averaging Strategy

477 To minimize the generalization error and enhance the
 478 performance of 6mA prediction, on the basis of subsection
 479 ‘Selection of base classifiers’, we empirically examine the
 480 predictive performance of single and ensemble classifiers
 481 on both training datasets over five-fold cross-validation
 482 tests. In the present subsection, two ensemble learning
 483 schemes, i.e., averaging and voting strategies, are considered
 484 to combine five base classifiers, i.e., ET, XGB, LGBM,
 485 SVM, and GB. Note that, the five individual classifiers
 486 should be first combined according to the priority of their
 487 overall performance, then each combiner is integrated by
 488 averaging or voting strategies. Hence, here, the performance
 489 of six integrated classifiers, i.e., ET+XGB+Averaging,
 490 ET+XGB+LGBM+Voting, ET+XGB+LGBM+Averaging,
 491 ET+XGB+LGBM+SVM+Averaging,
 492 ET+XGB+LGBM+SVM+GB+Voting, and
 493 ET+XGB+LGBM+SVM+GB+Averaging, are researched.
 494 For ease of description, these six integrated classifiers mentioned
 495 above are named Averaging2, Voting3, Averaging3, Averaging4,
 496 Voting5, and Averaging5, respectively. Table IV summarizes
 497 the compared results and Supplemental Fig. S5 displays the
 498 ROC curves of different classifiers.

499 From Table IV and Fig. S5, it is clear that the performance of
 500 Averaging4 is superior to that of the other single and integrated
 501 classifiers. In detail, by observing Table IV, we can easily find
 502 that, out of four averaging strategy-based classifiers, Averaging4
 503 acts as the best performer followed by Averaging2, Averaging3,
 504 and Averaging5. For example, compared with Averaging2, the
 505 second-best classifier from the viewpoint of ACC, MCC, and
 506 auROC values, Averaging4 achieves average 0.28%, 0.56%, and
 507 0.52% improvements in ACC, MCC, and auROC values on both
 508 training datasets. In addition, among two voting strategy-based
 509 classifiers, i.e., Voting3 and Voting5, the classifier Voting3 shows

510 excellent prediction performance. For the classifier Voting3,
 511 the prediction accuracy value is 0.894, MCC value is 0.793,
 512 and auROC values is 0.954. Although the overall prediction
 513 performance of the Voting5 is slightly lower than that of Voting3,
 514 Voting5 achieves a better Sn value on the training dataset
 515 *Drosophila melanogaster*. It has not escaped from our notice
 516 that the performance of the averaging strategy-based classifiers
 517 is consistently higher than that of the voting strategy-based
 518 classifiers. Meanwhile, Averaging4 achieves the highest MCC
 519 and auROC values. However, when base-classifier GB is added
 520 to Averaging4, the overall prediction performance of 6mA sites
 521 (i.e., Voting5 and Averaging5) drops. We also rank the methods
 522 by using the sum of the Z-scores of global metrics to analyze
 523 the comprehensive performance of various 6mA sites predic-
 524 tion methods. It can be found that Averaging4 has the best
 525 comprehensive performance in both *A.thaliana* Fig. 4(a) and *D.*
 526 *melanogaster* Fig. 4(b) genomes. Therefore, Averaging4, i.e.,
 527 ET+XGB+LGBM+SVM+Averaging, is employed as the final
 528 model of Ense-i6mA.

529 E. Comparison With Existing 6mA Sites Identification 530 Methods

531 The purpose of this section is to experimentally demonstrate
 532 the efficacy of the proposed Ense-i6mA by comparing it with
 533 other recently state-of-the-art 6mA sites prediction methods on
 534 both independent testing datasets, including DeepM6A [34],
 535 i6mA-DNC [23], iDNA6mA (5-step rule) [19], 3-mer-LR [21],
 536 LA6mA, and AL6mA [21]. For an objective and fair com-
 537 parison, all the methods use the same training datasets and
 538 independent testing datasets. The attributes of the feature used by
 539 the existing methods mentioned in the introduction section can
 540 be generally categorized into three major groups, i.e., physico-
 541 chemical properties, sequence information, and evolutionary in-
 542 formation. Here, DeepM6A, iDNA6mA (5-step rule), LA6mA,

TABLE IV
PERFORMANCE COMPARISON OF DIFFERENT METHODS ON THE TRAINING DATASETS OVER FIVE-FOLD CROSS-VALIDATION TESTS

Training dataset	Method	Sn ^a	Sp ^a	ACC ^a	MCC ^a	auROC ^a	Sn ^b	Sn ^c
Arabidopsis thaliana	ET	0.853	0.928	0.890	0.783	0.951	0.882	0.926
	XGB	0.853	0.913	0.883	0.767	0.947	0.865	0.921
	LGBM	0.855	0.918	0.886	0.774	0.947	0.872	0.919
	SVM	0.849	0.908	0.878	0.758	0.941	0.858	0.911
	GB	0.841	0.883	0.862	0.724	0.928	0.827	0.879
	Averaging2 ^d	0.866	0.924	0.894	0.793	0.954	0.886	0.933
	Voting3 ^e	0.859	0.918	0.888	0.778	0.949	0.873	0.923
	Averaging3 ^f	0.865	0.917	0.891	0.785	0.956	0.887	0.927
	Averaging4 ^g	0.870	0.925	0.897	0.796	0.961	0.890	0.935
	Voting5 ^h	0.858	0.911	0.884	0.769	0.946	0.866	0.919
	Averaging5 ⁱ	0.858	0.912	0.885	0.772	0.951	0.875	0.925
	ET	0.868	0.952	0.910	0.822	0.961	0.909	0.944
Drosophila melanogaster	XGB	0.883	0.929	0.906	0.813	0.961	0.906	0.946
	LGBM	0.877	0.932	0.904	0.810	0.960	0.902	0.945
	SVM	0.867	0.925	0.895	0.791	0.955	0.886	0.937
	GB	0.873	0.907	0.890	0.781	0.949	0.879	0.922
	Averaging2 ^d	0.887	0.938	0.913	0.826	0.963	0.918	0.949
	Voting3 ^e	0.879	0.935	0.907	0.816	0.961	0.911	0.948
	Averaging3 ^f	0.885	0.939	0.912	0.825	0.963	0.918	0.948
	Averaging4 ^g	0.889	0.943	0.915	0.832	0.966	0.917	0.950
	Voting5 ^h	0.882	0.929	0.906	0.813	0.960	0.907	0.944
	Averaging5 ⁱ	0.885	0.934	0.909	0.821	0.962	0.911	0.949

^a Results computed with prediction cutoff threshold value set as 0.5.

^b Results computed with the fixed specificity at 0.9.

^c Results computed with the fixed specificity at 0.8.

^d Results computed by integrating ET and XGB with averaging strategy.

^e Results computed by integrating ET, XGB, and LGBM with averaging strategy.

^f Results computed integrating ET, XGB, and LGBM with voting strategy.

^g Results computed integrating ET, XGB, LGBM, and SVM with averaging strategy.

^h Results computed integrating ET, XGB, LGBM, SVM, and GB with voting strategy.

ⁱ Results computed integrating ET, XGB, LGBM, SVM, and GB with averaging strategy.

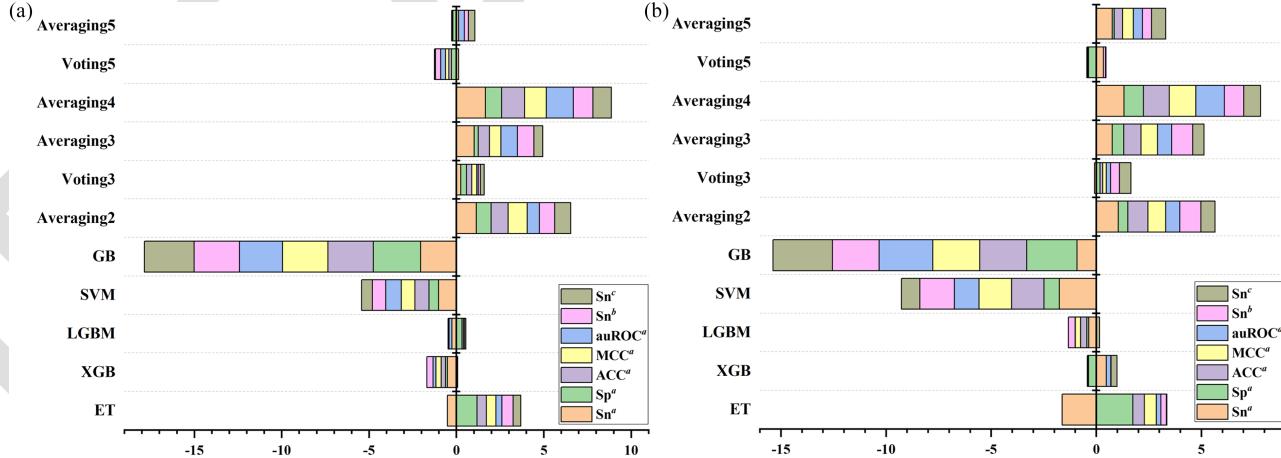


Fig. 4. Ranking of the methods in the global performance evaluation. (a) and (b) are ranked according to the sum of the Z-scores of all the evaluation metrics on the *A. thaliana* and *D. melanogaster*, respectively.

and AL6mA use OHE to identify 6mA sites; i6mA-DNC and 3-mer-LR predict 6mA sites in the DNA sequences based on dinucleotide components and 3-mer nucleotide frequency, respectively. Unlike these methods, Ense-i6mA incorporates OHE, KNF, Z-Curve, gcContent, KNFG, and XGB-RFE feature selection method for identifying 6mA sites. Table V and Fig. S6

summarize the performance compared results of the seven 6mA sites prediction methods on both independent testing datasets.

As described in Table V, we can see that DeepM6A has better prediction results for the 6mA sites in DNA for the existing prediction methods. The Sn, Sp, ACC, MCC, and auROC values are 0.894, 0.931, 0.826, and 0.966, 0.901, 0.939,

TABLE V
PERFORMANCE COMPARISON BETWEEN THE PROPOSED ENSE-I6MA AND OTHER EXISTING METHODS FOR IDENTIFYING 6mA SITES ON THE INDEPENDENT TESTING DATASETS

Testing dataset	Method	Sn ^a	Sp ^a	ACC ^a	MCC ^a	auROC ^a	Sn ^b	Sn ^c
Arabidopsis thaliana	DeepM6A *	0.894	0.931	0.913	0.826	0.966	0.920	0.956
	i6mA-DNC *	0.846	0.909	0.878	0.757	0.944	0.853	0.912
	iDNA6mA *. [#]	0.843	0.889	0.866	0.733	0.932	0.833	0.902
	3-mer-LR *	0.669	0.728	0.699	0.397	0.773	0.411	0.577
	LA6mA *	0.899	0.917	0.909	0.817	0.962	0.912	0.948
	AL6mA *	0.862	0.905	0.884	0.768	0.945	0.867	0.927
	Ense-i6mA	0.899	0.930	0.914	0.829	0.967	0.919	0.951
Drosophila melanogaster	DeepM6A *	0.901	0.939	0.920	0.841	0.969	0.930	0.959
	i6mA-DNC *	0.869	0.917	0.893	0.787	0.947	0.878	0.916
	iDNA6mA *. [#]	0.883	0.843	0.863	0.727	0.937	0.846	0.904
	3-mer-LR *	0.68	0.702	0.691	0.383	0.753	0.347	0.558
	LA6mA *	0.909	0.915	0.912	0.824	0.966	0.921	0.955
	AL6mA *	0.84	0.916	0.878	0.758	0.941	0.848	0.92
	Ense-i6mA	0.902	0.940	0.920	0.842	0.968	0.921	0.949

^a Results computed with prediction cutoff threshold value set as 0.5.^b Results computed with the fixed specificity at 0.9.^c Results computed with the fixed specificity at 0.8.

*Results excerpted from [21].

[#]iDNA6mA stands for iDNA6mA (5-step rule).

555 0.920, 0.841, and 0.969, respectively, on the independent testing
556 datasets *Arabidopsis thaliana* and *Drosophila melanogaster*. As
557 expected, the 3-mer-LR, which is developed based on individual
558 classifier LR algorithm, gained the lowest prediction perfor-
559 mance in terms of five evaluation indexes. However, the novel
560 method Ense-i6mA proposed in this study achieves comparable
561 recognition performance as DeepM6A, and even superior to
562 DeepM6A in certain evaluation indices. Taking the results of
563 the proposed Ense-i6mA methods on the independent testing
564 dataset *Arabidopsis thaliana* as an example, Ense-i6mA achieves
565 the highest Sp, ACC, MCC, auROC values except Sn. Especially,
566 the MCC and auROC, which are two most important indexes to
567 assess the overall performance of the 6mA prediction methods,
568 of Ense-i6mA are 0.829 and 0.967, which are 0.36% and 0.10%,
569 9.51% and 2.44%, 13.10% and 3.76%, 108.82% and 25.10%,
570 1.47% and 0.52%, and 7.94% and 2.33% higher than DeepM6A,
571 i6mA-DNC, iDNA6mA (5-step rule), 3-mer-LR, LA6mA, and
572 AL6mA, respectively. Furthermore, Table V also provides per-
573 formance comparison of different methods in terms of Sn under
574 the fixed Sp (i.e., 0.8 and 0.9). For two independent testing
575 datasets, it is easy to find that DeepM6A performs best under
576 fixed Sp followed by Ense-i6mA.

577 By revisiting Table V, it is noteworthy that although five
578 deep learning-based methods, i.e., DeepM6A, i6mA-DNC,
579 iDNA6mA (5-step rule), LA6mA, and AL6mA, obtain good
580 performance, the proposed Ense-i6mA is the solely ensemble
581 learning-based approach that achieves Sn>0.899, ACC>0.914,
582 MCC>0.829 and auROC>0.967 on both model organisms. In
583 addition, we also observe that DeepM6A, iDNA6mA (5-step
584 rule), LA6mA and AL6mA, and i6mA-DNC use 164 = (41
585 × 4) and 640 = (40 × 16) meta-features, respectively, whereas
586 the proposed Ense-i6mA only utilizes 80 meta-features (48.78%
587 of DeepM6A, iDNA6mA (5-step rule), LA6mA and AL6mA,
588 and 12.5% of i6mA-DNC). This may portend that Ense-i6mA
589 can achieve performance comparable to or even higher than

DeepM6A with less computation time and complexity. In sum-
590 mary, these results further validate the effectiveness and robust-
591 ness of Ense-i6mA, indicating that Ense-i6mA is a powerful
592 prediction method.

IV. CONCLUSION

Accurate identification of 6mA sites in DNA is crucial to
595 elucidate the function of 6mA epigenetic modification. In this
596 study, a new calculational method, called Ense-i6mA, is im-
597 plemented for predicting 6mA sites in DNA. Experimental
598 results have demonstrated that Ense-i6mA outperforms other
599 existing state-of-the-art prediction methods, i.e., DeepM6A,
600 i6mA-DNC, iDNA6mA (5-step rule), 3-mer-LR, LA6mA, and
601 AL6mA. The superior performance of the proposed Ense-i6mA
602 is primarily due to the following three aspects. Firstly, five
603 discriminative feature sources, i.e., OHE, KNF, Z-Curve,
604 gc-Content, and KNFG, are employed to extract more discrimi-
605 native information from the data sets. Secondly, XGB-RFE is
606 employed to remove noisy features while reducing computing
607 time and complexity. Finally, the proposed Ense-i6mA leverages
608 ensemble learning to further improve predictive performance of
609 6mA sites.

Despite its good performance, the proposed Ense-i6mA still
610 has potential disadvantages and room for improvement. For
611 instance, the feature representations used in this study should
612 hardly adequately represent the identifiability of the 6mA sites
613 data. Our further research work comprises the following four
614 directions to further enhance the prediction efficacy of 6mA
615 sites: (1) designing high discriminative feature source; (2) de-
616 veloping an excellent feature selection tool; (3) designing a
617 more accurate method by combining Ense-i6mA and other
618 state-of-the-art 6mA sites prediction methods; (4) establishing
619 a user-friendly web-server to help potential researchers and
620 end-users of Ense-i6mA. Finally, we believe that Ense-i6mA
621

will be exploited as a useful tool to accelerate the progress of DNA function detection and understanding.

625

REFERENCES

- [1] G.-Z. Luo et al., "Characterization of eukaryotic DNA N6-methyladenine by a highly sensitive restriction enzyme-assisted sequencing," *Nat. Commun.*, vol. 7, no. 1, pp. 1–6, 2016.
- [2] G.-Z. Luo, M. A. Blanco, E. L. Greer, C. He, and Y. Shi, "DNA N6-methyladenine: A new epigenetic mark in eukaryotes?," *Nat. Rev. Mol. Cell Biol.*, vol. 16, no. 12, pp. 705–710, 2015.
- [3] T. P. Wu et al., "DNA methylation on N6-adenine in mammalian embryonic stem cells," *Nature*, vol. 532, no. 7599, pp. 329–333, 2016, doi: [10.1038/nature17640](https://doi.org/10.1038/nature17640).
- [4] G. Zhang et al., "N6-methyladenine DNA modification in Drosophila," *Cell*, vol. 161, no. 4, pp. 893–906, 2015.
- [5] K.-J. Wu, "The epigenetic roles of DNA N6-methyladenine (6mA) modification in eukaryotes," *Cancer Lett.*, vol. 494, pp. 40–46, 2020.
- [6] K. Vasu and V. Nagaraja, "Diverse functions of restriction-modification systems in addition to cellular defense," *Microbiol. Mol. Biol. Rev.*, vol. 77, no. 1, pp. 53–72, 2013.
- [7] Z. Liang et al., "DNA N6-adenine methylation in *Arabidopsis thaliana*," *Dev. Cell*, vol. 45, no. 3, pp. 406–416.e3, 2018.
- [8] J. Liu et al., "Abundant DNA 6mA methylation during early embryogenesis of zebrafish and pig," *Nat. Commun.*, vol. 7, no. 1, pp. 1–7, 2016.
- [9] K. R. Pomraning, K. M. Smith, and M. Freitag, "Genome-wide high throughput analysis of DNA methylation in eukaryotes," *Methods*, vol. 47, no. 3, pp. 142–150, 2009.
- [10] S. Frelon, T. Douki, J.-L. Ravanat, J.-P. Pouget, C. Tornabene, and J. Cadet, "High-performance liquid chromatography— tandem mass spectrometry measurement of radiation-induced base damage to isolated and cellular DNA," *Chem. Res. Toxicol.*, vol. 13, no. 10, pp. 1002–1010, 2000.
- [11] B. A. Flusberg et al., "Direct detection of DNA methylation during single-molecule, real-time sequencing," *Nat. Methods*, vol. 7, no. 6, pp. 461–465, 2010.
- [12] B. Liu, F. Liu, L. Fang, X. Wang, and K.-C. Chou, "repDNA: A Python package to generate various modes of feature vectors for DNA sequences by incorporating user-defined physicochemical properties and sequence-order effects," *Bioinformatics*, vol. 31, no. 8, pp. 1307–1309, 2015.
- [13] P. Feng, W. Chen, and H. Lin, "Prediction of CpG island methylation status by integrating DNA physicochemical properties," *Genomics*, vol. 104, no. 4, pp. 229–233, 2014.
- [14] W. Chen, X. Zhang, J. Brooker, H. Lin, L. Zhang, and K.-C. Chou, "PseKNC-General: A cross-platform package for generating various modes of pseudo nucleotide compositions," *Bioinformatics*, vol. 31, no. 1, pp. 119–120, 2015.
- [15] R. Muhammod, S. Ahmed, D. Md Farid, S. Shatabda, A. Sharma, and A. Dehzangi, "PyFeat: A Python-based effective feature generation tool for DNA, RNA and protein sequences," *Bioinformatics*, vol. 35, no. 19, pp. 3831–3833, 2019.
- [16] C. Pian, G. Zhang, F. Li, and X. Fan, "MM-6mA_Pred: Identifying DNA N6-methyladenine sites based on Markov model," *Bioinformatics*, vol. 36, no. 2, pp. 388–392, Jan. 15, 2020, doi: [10.1093/bioinformatics/btz556](https://doi.org/10.1093/bioinformatics/btz556).
- [17] D. A. Filatov, "ProSeq: A software for preparation and evolutionary analysis of DNA sequence data sets," *Mol. Ecol. Notes*, vol. 2, no. 4, pp. 621–624, 2002.
- [18] Z. Abbas, H. Tayara, and K. to Chong, "SpineNet-6mA: A novel deep learning tool for predicting DNA N6-methyladenine sites in genomes," *IEEE Access*, vol. 8, pp. 201450–201457, 2020.
- [19] M. Tahir, H. Tayara, and K. T. Chong, "iDNA6mA (5-step rule): Identification of DNA N6-methyladenine sites in the rice genome by intelligent computational model via Chou's 5-step rule," *Chemometrics Intell. Lab. Syst.*, vol. 189, pp. 96–101, 2019.
- [20] Z. Li et al., "Deep6mA: A deep learning framework for exploring similar patterns in DNA N6-methyladenine sites across different species," *PLoS Comput. Biol.*, vol. 17, no. 2, 2021, Art. no. e1008767.
- [21] Y. Zhang et al., "Leveraging the attention mechanism to improve the identification of DNA N6-methyladenine sites," *Brief. Bioinf.*, vol. 22, 2021, Art. no. bbab351.
- [22] Z. Teng et al., "i6mA-Vote: Cross-species identification of DNA N6-methyladenine sites in plant genomes based on ensemble learning with voting," *Front. Plant Sci.*, vol. 13, pp. 845835–845835, 2022.
- [23] S. Park, A. Wahab, I. Nazari, J. H. Ryu, and K. T. Chong, "i6mA-DNC: Prediction of DNA N6-Methyladenosine sites in rice genome based on dinucleotide representation using deep learning," *Chemometrics Intell. Lab. Syst.*, vol. 204, 2020, Art. no. 104102.
- [24] W. Chen, H. Lv, F. Nie, and H. Lin, "i6mA-Pred: Identifying DNA N6-methyladenine sites in the rice genome," *Bioinformatics*, vol. 35, no. 16, pp. 2796–2800, 2019.
- [25] J. Khanal, D. Y. Lim, H. Tayara, and K. T. Chong, "i6mA-stack: A stacking ensemble-based computational prediction of DNA N6-methyladenine (6mA) sites in the rosaceae genome," *Genomics*, vol. 113, no. 1, pp. 582–592, 2021.
- [26] M. A. Hearst, S. T. Dumais, E. Osuna, J. Platt, and B. Scholkopf, "Support vector machines," *IEEE Intell. Syst. Their Appl.*, vol. 13, no. 4, pp. 18–28, Jul./Aug. 1998.
- [27] T. Chen et al., "Xgboost: Extreme gradient boosting," *R Package Version 0.4-2*, vol. 1, no. 4, pp. 1–4, 2015.
- [28] D. W. Hosmer, T. Hosmer, S. L. Cessie, and S. Lemeshow, "A comparison of goodness-of-fit tests for the logistic regression model," *Statist. Med.*, vol. 16, no. 9, pp. 965–980, 1997.
- [29] L. Breiman, "Bagging predictors," *Mach. Learn.*, vol. 24, no. 2, pp. 123–140, 1996.
- [30] Y. Qi, "Random forest for bioinformatics," in *Ensemble Machine Learning*. Berlin, Germany: Springer, 2012, pp. 307–323.
- [31] M. Iliadis, L. Spinoulas, and A. K. Katsaggelos, "Deep fully-connected networks for video compressive sensing," *Digit. Signal Process*, vol. 72, pp. 9–18, 2018.
- [32] S. Albawi, T. A. Mohammed, and S. Al-Zawi, "Understanding of a convolutional neural network," in *Proc. Int. Conf. Eng. Technol.*, 2017, pp. 1–6.
- [33] S. Hochreiter and J. Schmidhuber, "Long short-term memory," *Neural Comput.*, vol. 9, no. 8, pp. 1735–1780, Nov. 15, 1997, doi: [10.1162/neco.1997.9.8.1735](https://doi.org/10.1162/neco.1997.9.8.1735).
- [34] F. Tan et al., "Elucidation of DNA methylation on N6-adenine with deep learning," *Nat. Mach. Intell.*, vol. 2, no. 8, pp. 466–475, 2020.
- [35] K. E. Kim et al., "Long-read, whole-genome shotgun sequence data for five model organisms," *Sci. Data*, vol. 1, 2014, Art. no. 140045, doi: [10.1038/sdata.2014.45](https://doi.org/10.1038/sdata.2014.45).
- [36] Y. Benjamini and T. P. Speed, "Summarizing and correcting the GC content bias in high-throughput sequencing," *Nucleic Acids Res.*, vol. 40, no. 10, pp. e72–e72, 2012.
- [37] F. Hildebrand, A. Meyer, and A. Eyre-Walker, "Evidence of selection upon genomic GC-content in bacteria," *PLoS Genet.*, vol. 6, no. 9, 2010, Art. no. e1001107.
- [38] R. Zhang and C.-T. Zhang, "A brief review: The z-curve theory and its application in genome analysis," *Curr. Genomic.*, vol. 15, no. 2, pp. 78–94, 2014.
- [39] C.-T. Zhang, R. Zhang, and H.-Y. Ou, "The Z curve database: A graphic representation of genome sequences," *Bioinformatics*, vol. 19, no. 5, pp. 593–599, 2003.
- [40] Y. Zhang et al., "StackRAM: A cross-species method for identifying RNA N6-methyladenosine sites based on stacked ensemble," *Chemometrics Intell. Lab. Syst.*, vol. 222, 2022, Art. no. 104495.
- [41] Q. Zhang, P. Liu, X. Wang, Y. Zhang, Y. Han, and B. Yu, "StackPDB: Predicting DNA-binding proteins based on XGB-RFE feature optimization and stacked ensemble classifier," *Appl. Soft Comput.*, vol. 99, 2021, Art. no. 106921.
- [42] J. Hu, Y.-S. Bai, L.-L. Zheng, N.-X. Jia, D.-J. Yu, and G. Zhang, "Protein-DNA binding residue prediction via bagging strategy and sequence-based cube-format feature," *IEEE/ACM Trans. Comput. Biol. Bioinf.*, vol. 19, no. 6, pp. 3635–3645, Nov./Dec. 2022.
- [43] H.-C. Yi, Z.-H. You, M.-N. Wang, Z.-H. Guo, Y.-B. Wang, and J.-R. Zhou, "RPI-SE: A stacking ensemble learning framework for ncRNA-protein interactions prediction using sequence information," *BMC Bioinf.*, vol. 21, no. 1, pp. 1–10, 2020.
- [44] Z.-H. You, W.-Z. Huang, S. Zhang, Y.-A. Huang, C.-Q. Yu, and L.-P. Li, "An efficient ensemble learning approach for predicting protein-protein interactions by integrating protein primary sequence and evolutionary information," *IEEE/ACM Trans. Comput. Biol. Bioinf.*, vol. 16, no. 3, pp. 809–817, May/Jun. 2018.
- [45] F. Pedregosa et al., "Scikit-learn: Machine learning in Python," *J. Mach. Learn. Res.*, vol. 12, pp. 2825–2830, 2011.
- [46] H. Abdi and L. J. Williams, "Principal component analysis," *Wiley Interdiscip. Rev. Comput. Statist.*, vol. 2, no. 4, pp. 433–459, 2010.
- [47] H. Sanz, C. Valim, E. Vegas, J. M. Oller, and F. Reverter, "SVM-RFE: Selection and visualization of the most relevant features through non-linear kernels," *BMC Bioinf.*, vol. 19, no. 1, pp. 1–18, 2018.

695
696
697
698
699
700
701
702
703
704
705
706
707
708
709
710
711
712
713
714
715
716
717
718
719
720
721
722
723
724
725
726
727
728
729
730
731
732
733
734
735
736
737
738
739
740
741
742
743
744
745
746
747
748
749
750
751
752
753
754
755
756
757
758
759
760
761
762
763
764
765
766
767
768
769
770

- 771 [48] J. Augustine and A. Jereesh, "Blood-based DNA methylation marker
772 identification for Parkinson's Disease prediction," in *Proc. Int. Conf. Innov.*
773 *Comput. Commun.*, 2022, pp. 777–784.
774 [49] Q. Chen, Z. Meng, X. Liu, Q. Jin, and R. Su, "Decision variants for the
775 automatic determination of optimal feature subset in RF-RFE," *Genes*,
776 vol. 9, no. 6, 2018, Art. no. 301.



Xueqiang Fan is currently working toward the PhD degree with the School of Computer Science and Information Engineering, Hefei University of Technology, Hefei, China. His current research interests include pattern recognition and polarization imaging.



Bing Lin received the BE degree in communication engineering from the Hefei University of Technology, Hefei, China, in 2021. She is currently working toward the master's degree with the Advanced Electromagnetic Function Laboratory (AEMFLab), Hefei University of Technology. Her research interests include polarization imaging and deep learning.



mining and bioinformatics.

Jun Hu received the BS degree in computer science from Anhui Normal University, in 2011, and the PhD degree from the School of Computer Science and Engineering, Nanjing University of Science and Technology, in 2018, and a member of Pattern Recognition and Bioinformatics Group, led by professor Dong-Jun Yu. From 2016 to 2017, he acted as a visiting student with the University of Michigan (Ann Arbor) in USA. He is currently a teacher with the College of Information Engineering, Zhejiang University of Technology. His current interests include pattern recognition, data

791
792
793
794
795
796
797
798
799
800
801
802
803



Zhongyi Guo received the bachelor's degree from the Department of Physics, Harbin Institute of Technology, in 2003, and the master's and doctoral degrees from the Harbin Institute of Technology, in 2005 and 2008, respectively. From 2008 to 2009, he worked as an assistant professor with the Department of Physics, Harbin Institute of Technology. Then he moved to Hanyang University (Korea) and worked as a postdoctor for 2 years. In 2011, he continued to move to HongKong Polytechnic University as a postdoctor for 6 months. In the end of 2011, he joined in and worked as a full professor with the School of Computer and Information, Hefei University of Technology. Now, he focus his research interests include fields of polarization information processing, advanced optical communication, OAM antenna, manipulation of optical fields, and nanophotonics.

804
805
806
807
808
809
810
811
812
813
814
815
816
817
818
819