1 Rephine.r: a pipeline for correcting gene calls and

2 clusters to improve phage pangenomes and

3 phylogenies

4

5 Jason W. Shapiro¹, Catherine Putonti^{1,2,3}

6

7 ¹ Department of Biology, Loyola University Chicago, Chicago, Illinois, USA

- 8 ² Department of Microbiology and Immunology, Stritch School of Medicine, Loyola University
- 9 Chicago, Maywood, Illinois, USA
- 10 ³ Bioinformatics Program, Loyola University Chicago, Chicago, Illinois, USA
- 11
- 12
- 13 Corresponding Author:
- 14 Jason Shapiro¹
- 15 1032 W Sheridan Rd, Chicago, IL, 60660, USA
- 16 Email address: jshapiro2@luc.edu
- 17

18 Abstract

Background. A pangenome is the collection of all genes found in a set of related genomes. For microbes, these genomes are often different strains of the same species, and the pangenome offers a means to compare gene content variation with differences in phenotypes, ecology, and

- 22 phylogenetic relatedness. Though most frequently applied to bacteria, there is growing interest
- in adapting pangenome analysis to bacteriophages. However, working with phage genomes
- 24 presents new challenges. First, most phage families are under-sampled, and homologous
- 25 genes in related viruses can be difficult to identify. Second, homing endonucleases and intron-
- 26 like sequences may be present, resulting in fragmented gene calls. Each of these issues can
- 27 reduce the accuracy of standard pangenome analysis tools.
- 28 Methods. We developed an R pipeline called Rephine.r that takes as input the gene clusters
- 29 produced by an initial pangenomics workflow. Rephine.r then proceeds in two primary steps.
- 30 First, it identifies three common causes of fragmented gene calls: 1) indels creating early stop
- 31 codons and new start codons; 2) interruption by a selfish genetic element; and 3) splitting at the
- 32 ends of the reported genome. Fragmented genes are then fused to create new sequence

33 alignments. In tandem, Rephine.r searches for distant homologs separated into different gene

34 families using Hidden Markov Models. Significant hits are used to merge families into larger

35 clusters. A final round of fragment identification is then run, and results may be used to infer

36 single-copy core genomes and phylogenetic trees.

37 **Results.** We applied Rephine.r to three well-studied phage groups: the Tevenvirinae (e.g. T4),

the Studiervirinae (e.g. T7), and the Pbunaviruses (e.g. PB1). In each case, Rephine.r

39 recovered additional members of the single-copy core genome and increased the overall

40 bootstrap support of the phylogeny. The Rephine.r pipeline is provided through GitHub

41 (<u>https://www.github.com/coevoeco/Rephine.r</u>) as a single script for automated analysis and with

42 utility functions and a walkthrough for researchers with specific use cases for each type of43 correction.

44

45 Introduction

46 A pangenome is the collection of all genes found in a set of related genomes (Tettelin et al.,

47 2005; Vernikos et al., 2015). These genomes might be different strains of the same species or

taken from the same genus or higher taxonomic level. Pangenomes are useful, because they

49 allow one to compare gene content variation to differences in phenotypes, ecology, and

50 evolutionary history. For instance, by mapping gene content of potential pathogens onto a

51 phylogeny and contrasting clade-specific genes with differences in reported strain virulence, the

52 pangenome can help reveal how these genes relate to pathogenicity while placing them in an

evolutionary context (e.g. (Hurtado et al., 2018; Wyres et al., 2019)). Pangenomes have also
been used to describe which functions are conserved among members of bacterial taxa in

55 different environments (e.g. (Zhang & Sievert, 2014)).

56 Pangenome analysis is most commonly applied to bacteria. Due to the explosion of data 57 from metagenomes and microbiome studies, many bacterial taxa are well-sampled and can be 58 associated with large sets of ecological or health-related metadata. Additionally, multiple 59 software packages are available that facilitate automated inference of bacterial pangenomes, 60 such as Anvi'o (Eren et al., 2015) and Roary (Page et al., 2015).

A typical pangenome analysis pipeline starts with two main steps: gene prediction and gene clustering. Often, workflows also include subsequent steps for function prediction, sequence alignment, and core gene identification. The accuracy of the two primary steps of inferring a pangenome is paramount. If a gene caller ignores an open reading frame (ORF) or inaccurately returns the end position of the ORF, genes may be truncated or merged. Errors in clustering—the process of placing related sequences into gene families—can include grouping unrelated genes or failing to place homologs in the same cluster. Together, these errors in gene
calling and clustering may significantly impact identification of the "single-copy core genome"
(SCG). The SCG is commonly used as the basis for phylogenetic inference, and excluding
genes can mean missing important sequence variation and building less informative trees.

71 There is growing interest in applying pangenomic and phylogenomic workflows to 72 bacteriophages (e.g. (Edwards et al., 2019; Bellas et al., 2020)). Just as the deluge of 73 metagenomic data has expanded bacterial comparative genomics, thousands of phage 74 genomes are now published every year (Roux et al., 2019; Dion, Oechslin & Moineau, 2020). 75 Because no single gene is conserved among all phage genomes, gene content profiles and 76 gene sharing networks have become standard tools in virus taxonomy for identifying and 77 comparing related viruses (Bolduc et al., 2017; Shapiro & Putonti, 2018). In the process, 78 pangenomics has become an intrinsic component of phage bioinformatics.

79 Many of the potential sources of error for bacterial pangenome analysis are amplified 80 when studying phages. First, phages are under-sampled despite regular publication of new 81 genomes and identification of prophages within bacterial genomes (Dion, Oechslin & Moineau, 82 2020). Isolation, even of better-sampled groups through dedicated programs like SEA-PHAGES 83 continues to discover novel viruses with genes lacking obvious homology to any known 84 sequence (Pope et al., 2015). As a result, we often try to compare virus genomes that are more 85 distantly related than expected for most pangenomic workflows. This can make it difficult to 86 recognize homologs between phage genomes that have low sequence identity. Further, many 87 phages include intron-like sequences and homing endonucleases (Belfort, 1990; Stoddard, 88 2005). These selfish genetic elements interrupt genes and cause fragmented gene calls during 89 annotation. Thus, the two main tasks of a pangenome analysis—gene identification and gene 90 clustering—are more error-prone with phages than with bacteria.

91 Here, we describe a pipeline implemented in R, Rephine.r, for identifying and correcting 92 common errors in the initial gene clusters and gene calls returned by pangenomic workflows. 93 Given the results from a traditional pangenome analysis, Rephine.r: 1) merges gene clusters 94 using Hidden Markov Models (HMMs) and 2) identifies fragmented gene calls to avoid the 95 overprediction of paralogs and to improve sequence alignments. Each of the steps in Rephine.r 96 can also be run separately for individual use cases that require only cluster merging or 97 defragmentation. We demonstrate the value of Rephine.r using three phage taxa: the 98 Tevenvirinae (e.g. T4), the Studiervirinae (e.g. T7), and the Pbunaviruses (e.g. PB1). These 99 virus groups represent a range of genome sizes and sampling depth, and each has at least 30 100 members with a RefSeg assembly. We show that correcting errors in gene cluster and gene

- 101 fragmentation increases the size of the SCG in each case and enables inference of better-
- 102 supported phylogenies. The tool is available through GitHub as a command line R script
- 103 (https://www.github.com/coevoeco/Rephine.r) and includes utility scripts for returning the single-
- 104 copy core genes and classifying the causes of gene fragmentation events.
- 105

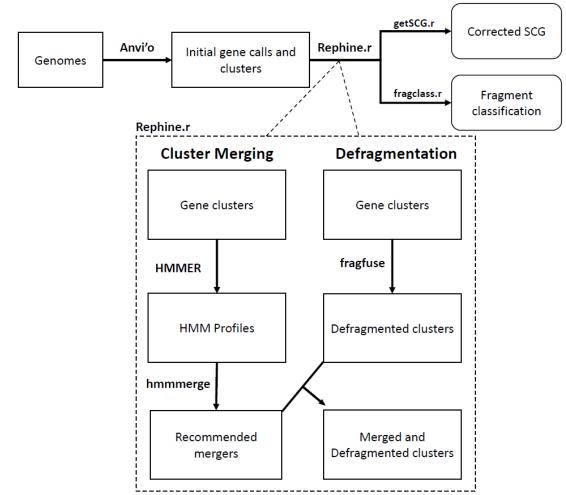
106 Materials & Methods

107 Overview of the pipeline

- The Rephine.r pipeline (summarized in *Fig. 1*) assumes the researcher has already completed a
 workflow for predicting gene clusters in a pangenome, such as the combination of blastp
 (Altschul et al., 1990) and MCL (Enright, Van Dongen & Ouzounis, 2002) implemented by Anvi'o
 (Eren et al., 2015) and other programs (e.g. vConTACT (Bolduc et al., 2017) and Roary (Page
 et al., 2015)). In what follows, we use Anvi'o as the basis for initial pangenomes, as Anvi'o is
 both a popular tool for bacterial pangenomes and includes several useful commands for
 facilitating our corrections. Future updates will expand Rephine.r's compatibility with other tools.
- Following initial gene clustering, the Rephine.r pipeline: 1) identifies and merges gene clusters containing distantly related homologs using HMMs, and 2) identifies fragmented gene calls that can be fused for the purpose of SCG inference and generating phylogenies. By
- default, Rephine.r will first run the cluster merging and defragmentation steps in tandem,
- 119 produce a set of new clusters that combine the results of these corrections, and will then run a
- second round of defragmentation to identify any new cases that emerge due to the prior steps.
- 121 Command line options are also offered for users that wish to run the HMM merging or fragment
- 122 fusion steps individually. In addition to the main pipeline, we include two complementary scripts:
- 123 getSCG.r, returns the single-copy core genes and a concatenated alignment file for
- 124 phylogenetics; fragclass.r categorizes the likely events that led to fragmented gene calls.
- 125

126 Merging gene families with HMMs

Gene clustering based on sequence similarity relies on threshold criteria for defining when two sequences are related and for clustering related sequences into groups. In Anvi'o, the default identity heuristic is defined by the "minbit" score, the ratio of the BLAST bit score between two sequences and the minimum bit score from blasting each sequence against itself. This metric generally performs well, and for bacteria, where homologs are typically over 50% identical, it is especially successful. For phages, however, this approach can miss more distant homologs. Even using a 35% amino acid identity threshold (Cresawn et al., 2011; Shapiro & Putonti, 2018),



134 **Figure 1.** Flowchart of the Rephine.r pipeline.

we may miss cases that only appear related when viewing alignments or comparing phage
genes by structure or synteny. Unfortunately, it is not as simple as specifying a lower minbit
threshold, since doing so will also increase the number of unrelated genes that are clustered
together erroneously.

139 Given the initial gene clusters returned by Anvi'o, Rephine, r builds separate HMM 140 profiles for each cluster using the hmmbuild function from HMMER (Eddy, 1998) and converts 141 the concatenated HMM profiles into a database with hmmpress. The script then uses hmmscan 142 to compare every original gene call against each HMM profile. This step is expected to be more 143 sensitive for recognizing distant homologs than the initial blastp, as the HMM profiles make use 144 of variation from multiple members of the same cluster. Significant hits are then defined as 145 follows: for each original gene cluster, the "minimum self-bit" (or "selfbit") score is recorded as 146 the minimum of the bit scores for each of the gene calls that was initially assigned to that cluster 147 by MCL. This selfbit score then serves as a profile-specific significance threshold. Any gene call

148 that was originally assigned to another cluster but has a bit score greater than this value is then 149 used to establish a putative connection between gene clusters. We also include the option of 150 specifying an absolute minimum bit score as an additional criterion. These connections are 151 recorded in the form of a network edgelist linking gene calls to gene clusters. Next, this edgelist 152 is relabeled to define edges between the original gene clusters that share putative homologs. 153 Finally, this edgelist is used to generate a network with the R (R Core Team, 2013) package 154 igraph (Csardi, Nepusz & Others, 2006), and the connected components are returned with the 155 function components(). The result defines sets of the original gene clusters that are suitable for 156 merging into a single, larger cluster.

157

158 Identifying fragmented gene calls

159 To find fragmented genes, Rephine.r first identifies every gene cluster that includes at least two 160 sequences from the same genome. These sequences may represent true duplicates or 161 paralogs, or they may be separate pieces of the same original sequence that have been split by 162 one of several processes, including: a frameshift due to an indel, insertion of a selfish genetic 163 element, or being artificially split across the ends of the genome when it was reported to 164 GenBank. This third case may also arise as an artifact of the two other mechanisms. For any of 165 these scenarios, the two pieces of the gene will be notable in two ways: 1) they will align with 166 separate parts of the gene in a multiple sequence alignment, with one piece corresponding to 167 an N-terminal fragment, and the other to the C-terminus; 2) they should have lower sequence 168 similarity to each other than to the average comparison with other sequences in the multiple 169 sequence alignment. Fig. 2a illustrates how a fragmented gene may appear in an alignment.

Given clusters with potential fragments, every gene call within an affected cluster is compared using blastp to every other gene call in the same cluster. For the two focal gene calls from a potential fragmented gene, the bit score from their blast alignment is compared to the mean bit score for other blast results within the gene cluster. We defined the ratio of this pairwise blast to the cluster average as the "relative bit" (or "relbit"). Mathematically, for potential fragments A and B within a gene cluster G, this is defined as:

177
$$relbit(A,B) = \frac{bit(A,B)}{\overline{bit}(A,G)}, relbit(B,A) = \frac{bit(B,A)}{\overline{bit}(B,G)}$$
 Eqn. 1

- 178
- 179
- 180

A >NC 007810 79

MTAKYYSPDDLVTPQEFADPQFAAINQKRFDLYIDLRVQGYSSWRVFRAIWGEEHMDGPA
QARIFAMESNPYYRKQFKAKLNATRTSDLWNPKTALHELLQ <mark>MVRDPTVKDSSRLSAIKEL</mark>
NVLAEITFVDESGKTRVGRGLADFYASEAEAQTATVAAAAEANGYVQDGEEGDFPSPTPE
PTEEDRANPIQT
>NC 041902 47
-MTKFYSPDDLVTPQEFADPHFAAINQKRFDLYIDLRVQGYSSWRVFRAIWGEEHMDGPA
QARIFAMESNPYYRKQFKAKLNATKRPICGIQRRRST
PSRTPA
VCRPSRN
>NC 041902 46
MVRDPTVKDSSRLSAIKEL
NVLAEITFVDESGKTRIGRGLADFYASEAEAQTATVAAAAEANSYVPEGEEGDFPSPTPE
PTEEDRANPI

В

>NC_007810_79 MTAKYYSPDDLVTPQEFADPQFAAINQKRFDLYIDLRVQGYSSWRVFRAIWGEEHMDGPA QARIFAMESNPYYRKQFKAKLNATR -----TSDLWN-----PKTALHELLQ MVRDPTVKDSSRLSAIKELNVLAEITFVDESGKTRVGRGLADFYASEAEAQTATVAAAAE ANGYVQDGEEGDFPSPTPEPTEEDRANPIQT >NC_041902_47:46 -MTKFYSPDDLVTPQEFADPHFAAINQKRFDLYIDLRVQGYSSWRVFRAIWGEEHMDGPA QARIFAMESNPYYRKQFKAKLNATKRPICGIQRRRSTNSSKWFVTPPSRTPAVCRPSRN MVRDPTVKDSSRLSAIKELNVLAEITFVDESGKTRIGRGLADFYASEAEAQTATVAAAAE ANSYVPEGEEGDFPSPTPEPTEEDRANPI --

Figure 2. Fragmented gene calls can be identified from alignments. (A) An original multiple sequence

alignment where the gene from NC_041902 has been split into two fragments by an indel. (B) The

183 corrected alignment following Rephine.r. Highlighted colors are used to indicate regions of each fragment

184 and where they correspond within an intact homolog.

185 where the overbar refers to the mean. The maximum of these relbit values is then used as a

186 criterion for judging similarity between A and B. If this value is below a chosen threshold, the

187 ORFs are considered to be sufficiently dissimilar.

188 Rephine.r also compares the extent of overlap within the alignment space between each 189 potential paralog. This step is needed, because dissimilar gene fragments may still have 190 overlaps in the alignment due to alignment errors or if the original fragmentation event was 191 caused by a short duplication. To quantify this overlap, the "percent overlap" is calculated as the 192 size of the ORFs' intersection within the alignment divided by the number of unique, aligned

193 positions between the two sequences. In mathematical terms, for a gene with potential

194 fragments A and B, we define:

195

196 Percent Overlap =
$$\frac{|A \cap B|}{|A \cup B|}$$

Eqn.2

197

where the size terms are based solely on the aligned positions within the multiple sequencealignment.

200 Ultimately, sequence pairs with low relative bit scores ("relbit") and low percent overlaps 201 ("percoverlap") are the likeliest to fit our expectations of a fragmented gene call. In practice, we 202 implemented default parameters for these criteria of 0.25 for "relbit" and 0.25 for "percoverlap." 203 These choices are based on plotting values of each parameter (Supplemental Fig. 1) from the 204 test cases described below and identifying a set of points that weakly cluster together in the 205 graph. When checked manually, each of these genes appeared to correspond to fragmented 206 calls, whereas nearby points in the graph included potential errors. These parameters can be 207 adjusted at the command line, and we would encourage others to visually inspect their 208 alignments.

209 Once fragmented genes are identified, a new FASTA file is created in which the original 210 pieces of the full-length gene are artificially spliced (or "fused") into a single gene call. To 211 preserve the original event that separated the sequences, the script inserts an "X" between the 212 two pieces of the gene. New alignments are then made with MUSCLE (Edgar, 2004) for each 213 affected gene cluster, with these X's imposing a gap in the alignment (see Fig. 2b for an 214 illustration of this step). If desired, the user can then use the additional script, getSCG.r, to 215 return a list of the single-copy core gene clusters, along with a concatenated alignment file that 216 is suitable for phylogenetics. The script, fragclass.r, can also be used to obtain a table 217 summarizing predicted causes for each type of fragment based on the separation between the 218 original gene calls.

219

220 Virus genomic data

221 Phages in the subfamily Studiervirinae (family Autographiviridae), the subfamily Tevenvirinae 222 (family Myoviridae), and the genus Pbunavirus (family Myoviridae) were chosen as well-studied 223 examples for testing Rephine.r. We downloaded all available RefSeg genomes from each of 224 these taxa from the National Center for Biotechnology Information's (NCBI) genome browser (as 225 of February 2021). This data set included 145 Studierviruses, 127 Tevenviruses, and 38 226 Pbunaviruses (a full list of accessions is included in Supplemental Table 1). The Studiervirinae 227 (e.g. phages T3 and T7) and the Tevenvirinae (e.g. phage T4) are among the best-studied 228 phage subfamilies and include characterized examples of introns and homing endonucleases 229 (Chu et al., 1986; Belle, Landthaler & Shub, 2002; Bonocora & Shub, 2004; Petrov, Ratnayaka 230 & Karam, 2010). These features made these two subfamilies ideal for testing methods for

231 identifying distant homologs and fragmented gene calls. The Pbunaviruses were chosen due to

the relatively large number of available genomes at the genus level, offering a less diverse

- 233 contrast to the other phage groups.
- 234

235 Initial pangenome workflow with Anvi'o

236 We built an initial pangenome for each phage group using Anvi'o v6.2 (Eren et al., 2015)

237 following the standard pangenomics workflow (https://merenlab.org/2016/11/08/pangenomics-

238 <u>v2/</u>) with the "--use-ncbi-blast" flag for the anvi-pan-genome command. Due to the large genetic

- diversity of phages, we set the minbit threshold to 0.35, based on prior work (Cresawn et al.,
- 240 2011; Shapiro & Putonti, 2018).
- 241

242 Phylogenetics

243 Maximum likelihood phylogenies were estimated using IQTREE v2.0.3 (Nguyen et al., 2015)

with ModelFinder (Kalyaanamoorthy et al., 2017) to automate choosing the optimal substitution

245 model for each tree. For each of the three virus groups, trees were built based on concatenated

246 alignments for the original SCGs and again following Rephine.r using the expanded SCGs. Tree

summary statistics were computed in R using the ape package (Paradis, Claude & Strimmer,

248 2004) and drawn using ggtree (Yu et al., 2017).

249

250 Code Availability

All code for this work is provided on GitHub (<u>https://github.com/coevoeco/Rephine.r</u>). The code includes a walkthrough for running Rephine.r following a standard Anvi'o workflow, as well as utility scripts, getSCG.r and fragclass.r, that provide additional output of the SCG genes and predicted causes of fragmentation events.

255

256 **Results**

257 To test the Rephine.r pipeline, we downloaded all available RefSeq genomes for the

258 Studiervirinae, Tevenvirinae, and Pbunaviruses from NCBI. We then followed the standard

- 259 pangenomic workflow for Anvi'o to facilitate initial MCL clustering based on blastp scores.
- 260 Results and basic information about these taxa are summarized in *Table 1*. Across all

261 Studierviruses, there were only 12 core genes, of which three were single-copy. Tevenviruses

- included 27 core genes (13 single-copy), and the Pbunaviruses had 28 core genes (19 single-
- 263 copy).

Number of genomes14512730Mean genome size39696174775660068Initial gene calls6956354363540Initial gene clusters5584067195Initial core genes122728Initial SCG size31319New clusters after merging16642Clusters involved in a merger6327055Biggest merger73033Core genes after merging143728SCG size after merging149917SCG size after fusion and merge82226Additional fusions after merge171New core genes after final fusion000Total SCG gain597Mean tree support before77.1487.2463.6Mean tree support after90.5593.4469.57		Studiervirinae	Tevenvirinae	Pbunaviruses
Initial gene calls6956354363540Initial gene clusters5584067195Initial core genes122728Initial SCG size31319New clusters after merging16642Clusters involved in a merger632705Biggest merger7303Core genes after merging143728SCG size after merging31319Gene clusters with a fusion149917SCG size after fusion and merge82226Additional fusions after merge171New core genes after final fusion000Total SCG gain597Mean tree support before77.1487.2463.6	Number of genomes	145	127	30
Initial gene clusters5584067195Initial core genes122728Initial SCG size31319New clusters after merging16642Clusters involved in a merger632705Biggest merger7303Core genes after merging143728SCG size after merging31319Gene clusters with a fusion149917SCG size after fusion and merge82226Additional fusions after merge171New core genes after final fusion000Total SCG gain597Mean tree support before77.1487.2463.6	Mean genome size	39696	174775	66068
Initial core genes122728Initial SCG size31319New clusters after merging16642Clusters involved in a merger632705Biggest merger7303Core genes after merging143728SCG size after merging31319Gene clusters with a fusion149917SCG size after fusion and merge82226Additional fusions after merge171New core genes after final fusion000Total SCG gain597Mean tree support before77.1487.2463.6	Initial gene calls	6956	35436	3540
Initial SCG size31319New clusters after merging16642Clusters involved in a merger632705Biggest merger7303Core genes after merging143728SCG size after merging31319Gene clusters with a fusion149917SCG size after fusion and merge82226Additional fusions after merge171New core genes after final fusion000Total SCG gain597Mean tree support before77.1487.2463.6	Initial gene clusters	558	4067	195
New clusters after merging16642Clusters involved in a merger632705Biggest merger7303Core genes after merging143728SCG size after merging149917Gene clusters with a fusion149917SCG size after fusion and merge82226Additional fusions after merge171New core genes after final fusion000Total SCG gain597Mean tree support before77.1487.2463.6	Initial core genes	12	27	28
Clusters involved in a merger632705Biggest merger7303Core genes after merging143728SCG size after merging31319Gene clusters with a fusion149917SCG size after fusion and merge82226Additional fusions after merge171New core genes after final fusion000Total SCG gain597Mean tree support before77.1487.2463.6	Initial SCG size	3	13	19
Biggest merger7303Core genes after merging143728SCG size after merging31319Gene clusters with a fusion149917SCG size after fusion and merge82226Additional fusions after merge171New core genes after final fusion000Total SCG gain597Mean tree support before77.1487.2463.6	New clusters after merging	16	64	2
Core genes after merging143728SCG size after merging31319Gene clusters with a fusion149917SCG size after fusion and merge82226Additional fusions after merge171New core genes after final fusion000Total SCG gain597Mean tree support before77.1487.2463.6	Clusters involved in a merger	63	270	5
SCG size after merging31319Gene clusters with a fusion149917SCG size after fusion and merge82226Additional fusions after merge171New core genes after final fusion000Total SCG gain597Mean tree support before77.1487.2463.6	Biggest merger	7	30	3
Gene clusters with a fusion149917SCG size after fusion and merge82226Additional fusions after merge171New core genes after final fusion000Total SCG gain597Mean tree support before77.1487.2463.6	Core genes after merging	14	37	28
SCG size after fusion and merge82226Additional fusions after merge171New core genes after final fusion000Total SCG gain597Mean tree support before77.1487.2463.6	SCG size after merging	3	13	19
Additional fusions after merge171New core genes after final fusion000Total SCG gain597Mean tree support before77.1487.2463.6	Gene clusters with a fusion	14	99	17
New core genes after final fusion00Total SCG gain59Mean tree support before77.1487.24	SCG size after fusion and merge	8	22	26
Total SCG gain 5 9 7 Mean tree support before 77.14 87.24 63.6	Additional fusions after merge	1	7	1
Mean tree support before 77.14 87.24 63.6	New core genes after final fusion	0	0	0
	Total SCG gain	5	9	7
Mean tree support after 90.55 93.44 69.57	Mean tree support before	77.14	87.24	63.6
	Mean tree support after	90.55	93.44	69.57

264Table 1: Summary of results of running Rephine.r for each phage group

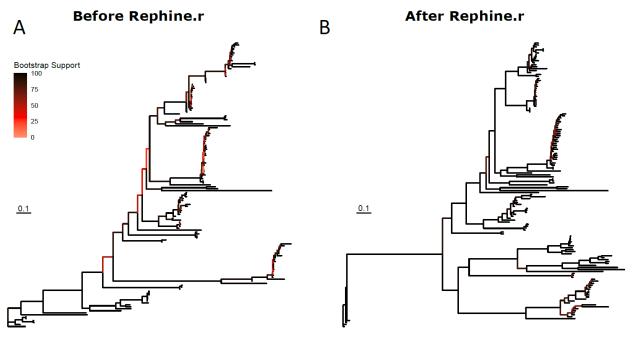
265

266

We ran Rephine.r with default settings, which first predicts fragmented gene calls within each gene cluster. In tandem, it identifies related gene clusters using HMMs. It then combines the results from these steps to produce new merged clusters with corrections for fragmented genes. Last, it runs a second defragmentation step to identify instances where fragmented gene calls were originally split into separate gene clusters. We examined results to see how the core genome changed after each step and how the final SCG affected phylogenetic inference.

273 The initial HMM merging step resulted in two additional core genes for Studierviruses 274 and 10 additional core genes for Tevenviruses but no new single-copy core genes for any of the 275 virus groups. Notably, several mergers involved more than two gene clusters. In one case for 276 the Tevenvirinae, 30 separate gene clusters were merged, corresponding to the phage tail fiber. 277 Defragmenting gene calls expanded the SCG for each taxon, increasing the Studiervirinae SCG 278 to 8 genes, the Tevenvirinae to 22 genes, and the Pbunaviruses to 26 genes (all but two of the 279 Pbunavirus core genes). The final round of defragmentation identified additional fragmented 280 genes but no additional core genes.

We then built phylogenies for each taxon with the original SCGs and with expanded SCGs following Rephine.r. With only three single-copy core genes, the initial Studiervirinae tree contained multiple unresolved polytomies and branches with poor support (*Fig. 3a*). The



284

Figure 3. Studiervirinae phylogeny before (A) and after (B) using Rephine.r to correct the SCG.
Bootstrap support is shown by coloring branches preceding nodes, with low support (from 0 to
70) ranging from white to red. Increasing the size of the SCG reduced the number of lowsupport branches.

289 updated tree based on eight genes had improved overall bootstrap support and displayed greater resolution of closely related genomes (Fig. 3b). Trees for the Tevenvirinae and 290 291 Pbunaviruses (Supplemental Fig. 2) also had improved bootstrap support. In the case of the 292 Pbunaviruses, the tree remains poorly resolved with very short branches, despite being built 293 from the most genes, as there was insufficient variation among the viruses from this genus. 294 Last, we checked the results from gene call defragmentation for known instances of 295 introns and homing endonucleases in the Studiervirinae and Tevenvirinae. These include 296 interruptions to DNA polymerase in members of Studiervirinae (Bonocora & Shub, 2004) and 297 Tevenvirinae (Petrov, Ratnayaka & Karam, 2010) and thymidylate synthase in T4 (Chu et al., 298 1986). After running Rephine.r, we identified a single-copy core gene that corresponded to each 299 gene of interest. In each case, inclusion in the SCG was only possible after fragment 300 identification.

301

302 **Discussion**

303 We describe Rephine.r, a pipeline for improving results of phage pangenome analysis by

merging gene clusters containing distant homologs and correcting gene calls that have been
fragmented or interrupted by selfish genetic elements. Using the Tevenvirinae, Studiervirinae,
and Pbunaviruses as test cases, we show how this process expands the putative SCG for each
group, enabling more accurate estimates of gene conservation. For the Tevenvirinae and
Studiervirinae, this also improved the quality of the phylogenies, whereas for Pbunaviruses
there was still insufficient variation among the genomes to produce a reliable tree.

310 The present work provides a first step for expanding the usage of phylogenetics with 311 diverse phage genomes. A key concept that we include (which we took advantage of using 312 manual corrections previously (Shapiro & Putonti, 2020)) is the use of artificially spliced 313 sequences following the identification of interrupted genes. This type of correction is 314 unsurprising when working with eukaryotic exons, but it is generally ignored with microbes, 315 because we often fail to appreciate that intron-like sequences are common features of many 316 phages. Biologically, it is uncertain how often these interrupted genes remain functional or if the 317 separated ORFs correspond to separate functions. However, several studies report fully 318 functional, single protein products for phage genes separated by introns (Belfort, 1990) or 319 inteins (Kelley et al., 2016), as well as at least one case where a gene split by a homing 320 endonuclease remains active (Friedrich et al., 2007). Though these ORFs may be interrupted by 321 over 1000 nucleotides, these interruptions likely correspond to a single mutational event, and 322 the ORFs should still be treated as a single gene when reconstructing the SCG and an 323 associated phylogeny. In both the Studiervirinae and the Tevenvirinae, our approach accurately 324 recognized known homing endonucleases and introns. How these interrupted genes are 325 interpreted in functional genomics studies is an important question, and these fragmented 326 genes should be treated with additional care when reporting the functional repertoire of 327 genomes.

328 It is important to note that we have focused our application of Rephine.r on test cases 329 involving single-contig, RefSeq assemblies. In the case of draft genome assemblies comprised 330 of multiple contigs (less common for phages under 100 kb), we expect to observe instances 331 where a gene call is separated into different ORFs on different contigs. These errors will result 332 in overestimating gene content and incorrect predictions of paralogous sequences. Similar 333 issues have been noted to cause errors in the analysis of gene content evolution in eukaryotes 334 (Denton et al., 2014). The current implementation of gene defragmentation in Rephine.r should 335 successfully resolve many of these mistakes, and it may offer a future approach for 336 consolidating contigs in assemblies. For instance, suppose a gene is split by a transposase that 337 includes short palindromic repeats. These regions are difficult to assemble with short reads and

may lead to one contig ending with half of the original gene, while a second contig starts with
the transposase and the remainder of the gene. Scaffolding these contigs can be challenging,
but by recognizing gene fragments, it may be possible to resolve the assembly.

Last, bacterial pangenome workflows typically do not account for specific issues that may arise for prophage regions, such as errors in clustering and gene fragmentation that we observe in the genomes of phage isolates. Our expectation is that these same errors will affect prophages, and future work will need to consider how these issues may impact the accuracy of bacterial pangenomes. Moreover, bacterial genes themselves can be interrupted by mobile genetic elements (in addition to prophages), and Rephine.r should offer a novel approach for identifying these events.

348

349 Conclusions

The Rephine.r pipeline offers an efficient means to identify and correct errors in phage pangenomes caused by incomplete gene clustering and fragmented gene calls. Correcting these errors, in particular for cases of genes interrupted by selfish genetic elements, increases the size of the SCG in each of our test cases. These corrections provide more genetic variation for improved phylogenetic inference and are especially useful for large, diverse phage groups where standard methods produce limited core genomes and poorly resolved phylogenies.

356

357 Acknowledgements

- We are grateful to the members of the Putonti Lab for feedback on this work.
- 359

360 Funding

- 361 This work was supported by NSF (1661357 to C.P.).
- 362

363 Supplemental Figure Captions

- 364 Supplemental Figure 1. Relationship between pairwise overlap of aligned positions and
- 365 relative bit scores of potential paralogs. Red dots correspond to cases with both low overlap and
- 366 low sequence identity, indicating the likeliest fragmented gene calls.
- 367 Supplemental Figure 2. Phylogenies of Pbunaviruses (A, B) and Tevenvirinae (C, D) before
- 368 and after Rephine.r. (A) and (C) are before Rephine.r; (B) and (D) after. Note: an outlier genome

- 369 (NC_009015) was dropped from the Pbunavirus trees to enable visualization of the extremely
- 370 short branches. Bootstrap support is shown by coloring branches preceding nodes, with low
- support (from 0 to 70) ranging from white to red.
- 372

373 **References**

- Altschul SF, Gish W, Miller W, Myers EW, Lipman DJ. 1990. Basic local alignment search tool.
- 375 Journal of molecular biology 215:403–410.
- 376 Belfort M. 1990. Phage T4 introns: self-splicing and mobility. *Annual review of genetics* 24:363–
- 377 385.
- 378 Bellas CM, Schroeder DC, Edwards A, Barker G, Anesio AM. 2020. Flexible genes establish
- widespread bacteriophage pan-genomes in cryoconite hole ecosystems. *Nature communications* 11:4403.
- 381 Belle A, Landthaler M, Shub DA. 2002. Intronless homing: site-specific endonuclease SegF of
- bacteriophage T4 mediates localized marker exclusion analogous to homing
 endonucleases of group I introns. *Genes & development* 16:351–362.
- Bolduc B, Jang HB, Doulcier G, You Z-Q, Roux S, Sullivan MB. 2017. vConTACT: an iVirus tool
- to classify double-stranded DNA viruses that infect Archaea and Bacteria. *PeerJ*5:e3243.
- Bonocora RP, Shub DA. 2004. A self-splicing group I intron in DNA polymerase genes of T7-like
 bacteriophages. *Journal of bacteriology* 186:8153–8155.
- 389 Chu FK, Maley GF, West DK, Belfort M, Maley F. 1986. Characterization of the intron in the
- phage T4 thymidylate synthase gene and evidence for its self-excision from the primary
 transcript. *Cell* 45:157–166.
- 392 Cresawn SG, Bogel M, Day N, Jacobs-Sera D, Hendrix RW, Hatfull GF. 2011. Phamerator: a
- bioinformatic tool for comparative bacteriophage genomics. *BMC bioinformatics* 12:395.

- Csardi G, Nepusz T, Others. 2006. The igraph software package for complex network research.
 InterJournal, complex systems 1695:1–9.
- 396 Denton JF, Lugo-Martinez J, Tucker AE, Schrider DR, Warren WC, Hahn MW. 2014. Extensive
- 397 error in the number of genes inferred from draft genome assemblies. *PLoS*
- 398 *computational biology* 10:e1003998.
- 399 Dion MB, Oechslin F, Moineau S. 2020. Phage diversity, genomics and phylogeny. *Nature*
- 400 reviews. Microbiology 18:125–138.
- 401 Eddy SR. 1998. Profile hidden Markov models. *Bioinformatics* 14:755–763.
- 402 Edgar RC. 2004. MUSCLE: multiple sequence alignment with high accuracy and high
- 403 throughput. *Nucleic acids research* 32:1792–1797.
- 404 Edwards RA, Vega AA, Norman HM, Ohaeri M, Levi K, Dinsdale EA, Cinek O, Aziz RK, McNair
- 405 K, Barr JJ, Bibby K, Brouns SJJ, Cazares A, de Jonge PA, Desnues C, Díaz Muñoz SL,
- 406 Fineran PC, Kurilshikov A, Lavigne R, Mazankova K, McCarthy DT, Nobrega FL, Reyes
- 407 Muñoz A, Tapia G, Trefault N, Tyakht AV, Vinuesa P, Wagemans J, Zhernakova A,
- 408 Aarestrup FM, Ahmadov G, Alassaf A, Anton J, Asangba A, Billings EK, Cantu VA,
- 409 Carlton JM, Cazares D, Cho G-S, Condeff T, Cortés P, Cranfield M, Cuevas DA, De la
- 410 Iglesia R, Decewicz P, Doane MP, Dominy NJ, Dziewit L, Elwasila BM, Eren AM, Franz
- 411 C, Fu J, Garcia-Aljaro C, Ghedin E, Gulino KM, Haggerty JM, Head SR, Hendriksen RS,
- 412 Hill C, Hyöty H, Ilina EN, Irwin MT, Jeffries TC, Jofre J, Junge RE, Kelley ST, Khan
- 413 Mirzaei M, Kowalewski M, Kumaresan D, Leigh SR, Lipson D, Lisitsyna ES, Llagostera
- 414 M, Maritz JM, Marr LC, McCann A, Molshanski-Mor S, Monteiro S, Moreira-Grez B,
- 415 Morris M, Mugisha L, Muniesa M, Neve H, Nguyen N-P, Nigro OD, Nilsson AS,
- 416 O'Connell T, Odeh R, Oliver A, Piuri M, Prussin AJ Ii, Qimron U, Quan Z-X, Rainetova P,
- 417 Ramírez-Rojas A, Raya R, Reasor K, Rice GAO, Rossi A, Santos R, Shimashita J,
- 418 Stachler EN, Stene LC, Strain R, Stumpf R, Torres PJ, Twaddle A, Ugochi Ibekwe M,
- 419 Villagra N, Wandro S, White B, Whiteley A, Whiteson KL, Wijmenga C, Zambrano MM,

420	Zschach H, Dutilh BE. 2019. Global phylogeography and ancient evolution of the
421	widespread human gut virus crAssphage. Nature microbiology 4:1727–1736.
422	Enright AJ, Van Dongen S, Ouzounis CA. 2002. An efficient algorithm for large-scale detection
423	of protein families. Nucleic acids research 30:1575–1584.
424	Eren AM, Esen ÖC, Quince C, Vineis JH, Morrison HG, Sogin ML, Delmont TO. 2015. Anvi'o:
425	an advanced analysis and visualization platform for 'omics data. PeerJ 3:e1319.
426	Friedrich NC, Torrents E, Gibb EA, Sahlin M, Sjöberg B-M, Edgell DR. 2007. Insertion of a
427	homing endonuclease creates a genes-in-pieces ribonucleotide reductase that retains
428	function. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of
429	America 104:6176–6181.
430	Hurtado R, Carhuaricra D, Soares S, Viana MVC, Azevedo V, Maturrano L, Aburjaile F. 2018.
431	Pan-genomic approach shows insight of genetic divergence and pathogenic-adaptation
432	of Pasteurella multocida. Gene 670:193–206.
433	Kalyaanamoorthy S, Minh BQ, Wong TKF, von Haeseler A, Jermiin LS. 2017. ModelFinder: fast
434	model selection for accurate phylogenetic estimates. Nature methods 14:587–589.
435	Kelley DS, Lennon CW, SEA-PHAGES, Belfort M, Novikova O. 2016. Mycobacteriophages as
436	Incubators for Intein Dissemination and Evolution. <i>mBio</i> 7. DOI: 10.1128/mBio.01537-16.
437	Nguyen L-T, Schmidt HA, von Haeseler A, Minh BQ. 2015. IQ-TREE: a fast and effective
438	stochastic algorithm for estimating maximum-likelihood phylogenies. Molecular biology
439	and evolution 32:268–274.
440	Page AJ, Cummins CA, Hunt M, Wong VK, Reuter S, Holden MTG, Fookes M, Falush D, Keane
441	JA, Parkhill J. 2015. Roary: rapid large-scale prokaryote pan genome analysis.
442	Bioinformatics 31:3691–3693.
443	Paradis E, Claude J, Strimmer K. 2004. APE: Analyses of Phylogenetics and Evolution in R
444	language. Bioinformatics 20:289–290.

445	Petrov VM, Ratnayaka S, Karam JD. 2010. Genetic insertions and diversification of the PolB-
446	type DNA polymerase (gp43) of T4-related phages. Journal of molecular biology
447	395:457–474.
448	Pope WH, Bowman CA, Russell DA, Jacobs-Sera D, Asai DJ, Cresawn SG, Jacobs WR,
449	Hendrix RW, Lawrence JG, Hatfull GF, Science Education Alliance Phage Hunters
450	Advancing Genomics and Evolutionary Science, Phage Hunters Integrating Research
451	and Education, Mycobacterial Genetics Course. 2015. Whole genome comparison of a
452	large collection of mycobacteriophages reveals a continuum of phage genetic diversity.
453	<i>eLife</i> 4:e06416.
454	R Core Team. 2013. R: A language and environment for statistical computing.
455	Roux S, Adriaenssens EM, Dutilh BE, Koonin EV, Kropinski AM, Krupovic M, Kuhn JH, Lavigne
456	R, Brister JR, Varsani A, Amid C, Aziz RK, Bordenstein SR, Bork P, Breitbart M,
457	Cochrane GR, Daly RA, Desnues C, Duhaime MB, Emerson JB, Enault F, Fuhrman JA,
458	Hingamp P, Hugenholtz P, Hurwitz BL, Ivanova NN, Labonté JM, Lee K-B, Malmstrom
459	RR, Martinez-Garcia M, Mizrachi IK, Ogata H, Páez-Espino D, Petit M-A, Putonti C,
460	Rattei T, Reyes A, Rodriguez-Valera F, Rosario K, Schriml L, Schulz F, Steward GF,
461	Sullivan MB, Sunagawa S, Suttle CA, Temperton B, Tringe SG, Thurber RV, Webster
462	NS, Whiteson KL, Wilhelm SW, Wommack KE, Woyke T, Wrighton KC, Yilmaz P,
463	Yoshida T, Young MJ, Yutin N, Allen LZ, Kyrpides NC, Eloe-Fadrosh EA. 2019.
464	Minimum Information about an Uncultivated Virus Genome (MIUViG). Nature
465	biotechnology 37:29–37.
466	Shapiro JW, Putonti C. 2018. Gene Co-occurrence Networks Reflect Bacteriophage Ecology
467	and Evolution. <i>mBio</i> 9. DOI: 10.1128/mBio.01870-17.
468	Shapiro JW, Putonti C. 2020. UPΦ phages, a new group of filamentous phages found in several
469	members of Enterobacteriales. Virus evolution 6:veaa030.

470 Stoddard BL. 2005. Homing endonuclease structure and function. *Quarterly reviews of*471 *biophysics* 38:49–95.

472	Tettelin H, Masignani V, Cieslewicz MJ, Donati C, Medini D, Ward NL, Angiuoli SV, Crabtree J,
473	Jones AL, Scott Durkin A, DeBoy RT, Davidsen TM, Mora M, Scarselli M, Ros IM y.,
474	Peterson JD, Hauser CR, Sundaram JP, Nelson WC, Madupu R, Brinkac LM, Dodson
475	RJ, Rosovitz MJ, Sullivan SA, Daugherty SC, Haft DH, Selengut J, Gwinn ML, Zhou L,
476	Zafar N, Khouri H, Radune D, Dimitrov G, Watkins K, O'Connor KJB, Smith S, Utterback
477	TR, White O, Rubens CE, Grandi G, Madoff LC, Kasper DL, Telford JL, Wessels MR,
478	Rappuoli R, Fraser CM. 2005. Genome analysis of multiple pathogenic isolates of
479	Streptococcus agalactiae: Implications for the microbial "pan-genome." Proceedings of
480	the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America 102:13950–13955.
481	Vernikos G, Medini D, Riley DR, Tettelin H. 2015. Ten years of pan-genome analyses. Current
482	opinion in microbiology 23:148–154.
483	Wyres KL, Wick RR, Judd LM, Froumine R, Tokolyi A, Gorrie CL, Lam MMC, Duchêne S,
484	Jenney A, Holt KE. 2019. Distinct evolutionary dynamics of horizontal gene transfer in
485	drug resistant and virulent clones of Klebsiella pneumoniae. PLoS genetics
486	15:e1008114.
487	Yu G, Smith DK, Zhu H, Guan Y, Lam TT. 2017. Ggtree : An r package for visualization and
488	annotation of phylogenetic trees with their covariates and other associated data.
489	Methods in ecology and evolution / British Ecological Society 8:28–36.
490	Zhang Y, Sievert SM. 2014. Pan-genome analyses identify lineage- and niche-specific markers

of evolution and adaptation in Epsilonproteobacteria. Frontiers in microbiology 5:110.

491