

1 Comparing Genomic and Epigenomic
2 Features across Species Using the
3 WashU Comparative Epigenome
4 Browser

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14

15 Abstract

16 Genome browsers have become an intuitive and critical tool to visualize and analyze genomic
17 features and data. Conventional genome browsers display data/annotations on a single
18 reference genome/assembly; there are also genomic alignment viewer/browsers that help users
19 visualize alignment, mismatch, and rearrangement between syntenic regions. However, there is
20 a growing need for a comparative epigenome browser that can display genomic and epigenomic
21 datasets across different species and enable users to compare them between syntenic regions.
22 Here, we present the WashU Comparative Epigenome Browser
23 (<http://comparativegateway.wustl.edu>). It allows users to load functional genomic
24 datasets/annotations mapped to different genomes and display them over syntenic regions
25 simultaneously. The browser also displays genetic differences between the genomes from
26 single nucleotide variants (SNVs) to structural variants (SVs) to visualize the association
27 between epigenomic differences and genetic differences. Instead of anchoring all datasets to
28 the reference genome coordinates, it creates independent coordinates of different genome
29 assemblies to faithfully present features and data mapped to different genomes. It uses a
30 simple, intuitive genome-align track to illustrate the syntenic relationship between different
31 species. It extends the widely used WashU Epigenome Browser infrastructure and can be
32 expanded to support multiple species. This new browser function will greatly facilitate
33 comparative genomic/epigenomic research, as well as support the recent growing needs to
34 directly compare and benchmark the T2T CHM13 assembly and other human genome
35 assemblies.

36

37 Introduction

38 To meet the need to visualize genomic sequences and features at different scales in the
39 genomic era, scientists developed genome browser/viewers to help interpret genomes. The
40 UCSC Genome Browser, equipped with comprehensive annotations and intuitive navigation,
41 gained widespread popularity in the community (Kent et al. 2002; Lee et al. 2022). In addition to
42 the UCSC Genome Browser, there are multiple other tools available to visualize genomes each
43 with its own advantages and focuses (e.g., Ensembl (Fernández-Suárez and Schuster 2010;
44 Cunningham et al. 2022), GBrowse (Stein et al. 2002), WashU Epigenome Browser (Li et al.
45 2019, 2022; Zhou et al. 2011), IGV (Robinson et al. 2011, 2022), and JBrowse (Buels et al.
46 2016; Diesh et al. 2022)).

47 With sharply decreasing sequencing cost, many more genomes of different species become
48 available, and there is an increased effort around the world to systematically sequence a wide
49 variety of organisms (Rhie et al. 2021; Feng et al. 2020; Teeling et al. 2018). The advancement
50 in sequencing technology also promoted many functional genomic assays, which enabled
51 functional annotation of genomic regions (ENCODE Project Consortium 2012; Roadmap
52 Epigenomics Consortium et al. 2015; Dekker et al. 2017; Bujold et al. 2016). Based on whole
53 genome alignment between species, orthologous regions can be directly compared, and
54 insights on conservation and adaptation of genomic features can be drawn. Comparative
55 genomics thus has become an important tool to decipher genomic code (Alföldi and Lindblad-
56 Toh 2013). Comparative epigenomics, which compares the epigenomic features of orthologous
57 regions of multiple species, is also gaining popularity (Xiao et al. 2012; Prescott et al. 2015;
58 Zhou et al. 2017; Modzelewski et al. 2021).

59 Starting from Miropeats, various visualization tools have been developed to display regional
60 orthologous relationship between species (Parsons 1995; Guy et al. 2010; Sullivan et al. 2011;
61 Goel and Schneeberger 2022; Vollger 2022; dporubsky 2021). These tools provide a variety of

62 comparative features. The gEVAL Browser was designed for genome assembly quality
63 evaluation and can be used to visualize and compare genome assemblies (Chow et al. 2016).
64 Nguyen et al. developed comparative assembly hubs using UCSC Genome Browser's
65 framework (Nguyen et al. 2014). It utilizes snake track to show multiple query assemblies
66 aligned to a target assembly, and annotations mapped to query assemblies can also be
67 displayed with an automatic "liftOver". JBrowse2 v1.6.4 also starts to support cross-species
68 comparison in synteny views (Buels et al. 2016; Diesh et al. 2022). CEpBrowser was developed
69 to compare epigenomic datasets between human, mouse, and pig based on the UCSC Genome
70 Browser framework in a gene-centric manner (Cao and Zhong 2013). It organizes linear
71 representation of different species in different windows parallelly. By displaying different species
72 in different windows, CEpBrowser can be implemented relatively easily without breaking the
73 continuity of each genome. However, it only marks syntenic regions using the same color
74 scheme but does not connect syntenic regions from different species or display any genetic
75 differences. In addition, only comparisons between human (hg19), mouse (mm9) and pig
76 (susScr2) are supported. Despite being the first comparative epigenome browser, it has not
77 been widely used by the scientific community.

78 The WashU Epigenome Browser was developed in 2010 to host and display massive
79 epigenomics datasets (Zhou et al. 2011; Li et al. 2019, 2022). It hosts datasets generated from
80 Roadmap Epigenomics Project (Roadmap Epigenomics Consortium et al. 2015), ENCyclopedia
81 Of DNA Elements (ENCODE) (ENCODE Project Consortium 2012), International Human
82 Epigenome Consortium (IHEC) (Bujold et al. 2016), The Cancer Genome Atlas (TCGA) (Hutter
83 and Zenklusen 2018), Toxicant Exposures and Responses by Genomic and Epigenomic
84 Regulators of Transcription (TaRGET) (Wang et al. 2018), and 4D Nucleome Project (4DN)
85 (Dekker et al. 2017). We recently refactored the browser and vastly improved its performance
86 (Li et al. 2019, 2022).

87 Build upon the WashU Epigenome Browser, we developed the WashU Comparative Epigenome
88 Browser based on four principles: 1, each assembly uses its own coordinates to anchor
89 annotation and datasets mapped to it; 2, orthologous relationship and genetic variations
90 between assemblies are intuitively illustrated; 3, adaptable to display any whole genome
91 alignment at different scales and resolution; 4, inherits all features of modern genome browsers
92 to facilitate user experience. Here we present the WashU Comparative Epigenome Browser to
93 address the needs to navigate multiple genomes at once and visualize comparative
94 genomics/epigenomics data.

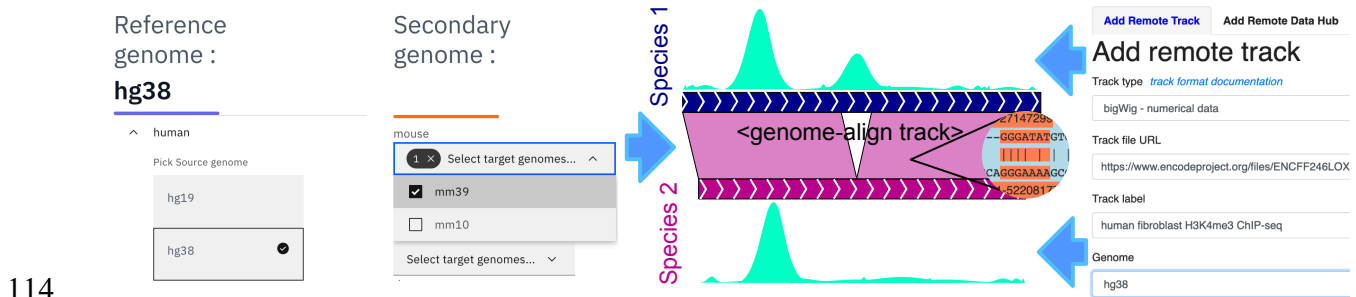
95 Results

96 The genome-align track connects syntenic regions of two genome 97 assemblies

98 The foundation that enables comparative genome browsing is the alignment between genome
99 assemblies. We developed a new track type called “genome-align track” which contains
100 genome-wide syntenic relationship between the reference (target) genome and the secondary
101 (query) genome at base-pair resolution. The genome-align track file can be constructed from
102 standard chained alignment AXT files (Schwartz et al. 2003) using customized tools we
103 developed.

104 We created a comparative epigenome gateway to help organize and facilitate the selection and
105 display of curated genome-align tracks (<http://comparativegateway.wustl.edu/>). Using this
106 gateway, the users first select the reference assembly. When one reference genome is
107 selected, all the available genome-align tracks will be populated as a list of secondary genomes
108 (Fig. 1). Then the user can select one or more genome-align tracks anchored to the reference
109 genome, save the selection, and open a new WashU Epigenome Browser window with all the

110 selected genome-align tracks. With genome-align tracks loaded, the user can then use the
111 browser's web interface to load available annotations (Tracks -> Annotation Tracks), public data
112 (Tracks -> Public Data Hubs), or user's own data (Tracks -> Remote/Local Tracks) on the
113 browser mapped to either reference genome or any of the loaded secondary genomes (Fig. 1).

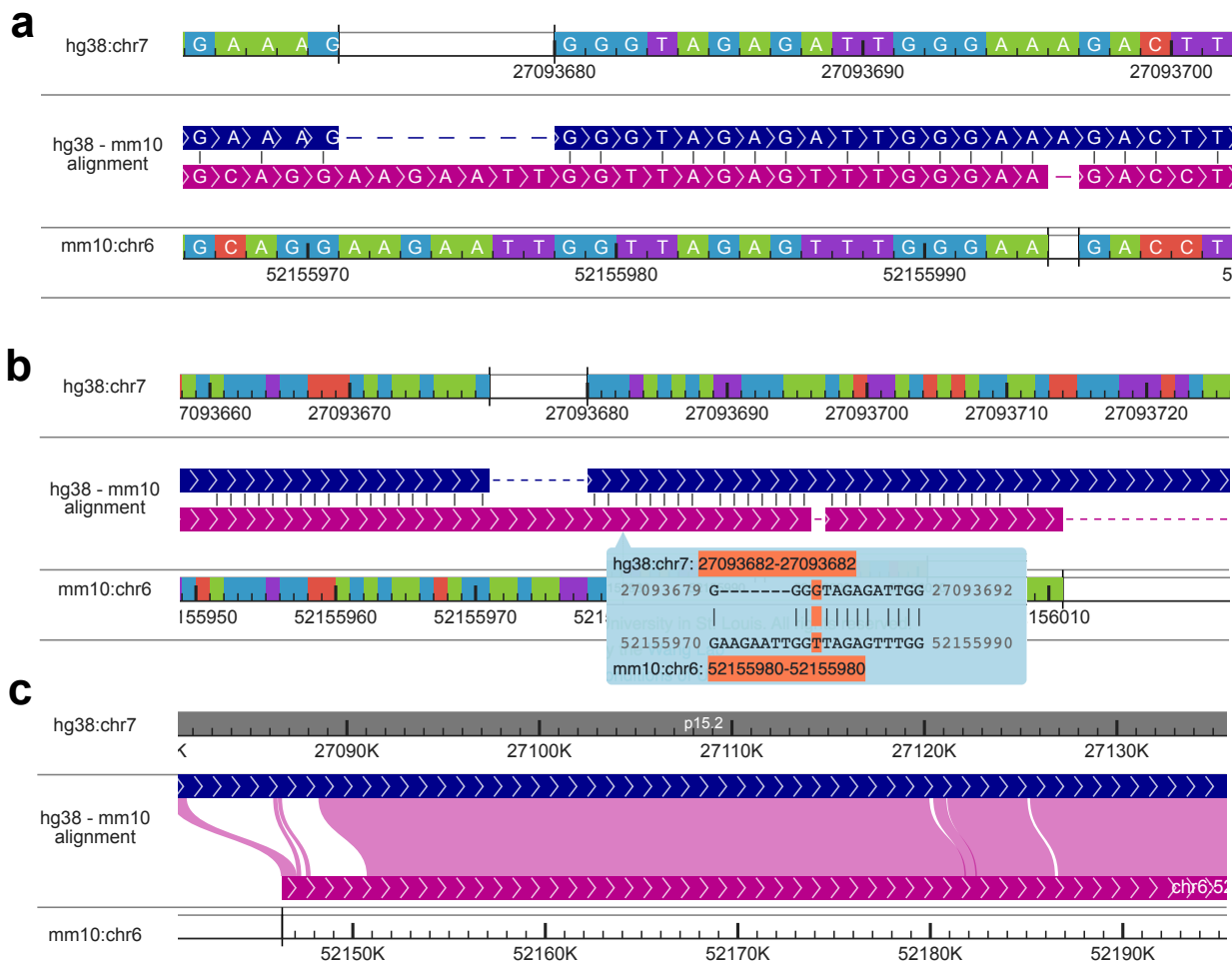


115 **Figure 1:**

116 The web user interface of the WashU Comparative Epigenome Browser. Genome-align track
117 selector web interface is shown on the left. After selecting desired alignment tracks, the user will
118 be redirected to the main WashU Epigenome Browser. At last, the user can load data and
119 annotations to either reference or secondary genomes on the main browser site.

120

121 The genome-align track supports comprehensive, multi-resolution genome alignment display. At
122 the finest resolution, orthologous coordinates from query genomes are vertically aligned and
123 anchored to the reference genome. Detailed whole-genome alignment at the single nucleotide
124 resolution is displayed in the genome-align track, enabling users to navigate and examine the
125 genetic differences between the query genome and the reference genome. It is straightforward
126 to visualize single-nucleotide variations (SNVs) and short insertion/deletions (indels) between
127 the two genome assemblies (Fig. 2a).



128

129 Figure 2:

130 Display genome alignment using the WashU Comparative Epigenome Browser. a: Displaying
 131 hg38-mm10 blastz alignment at the nucleotide level with > 10 pixels per nucleotide. Sequence
 132 strand in the alignment is illustrated using arrows. Syntenic nucleotides from hg38 and mm10
 133 are vertically aligned with gaps inserted. Same nucleotides are illustrated by a short vertical line.
 134 b: Displaying hg38-mm10 alignment between 0.1 pixels per nucleotide and 10 pixels per
 135 nucleotide. The alignment is organized the same as panel A without displaying nucleotides
 136 within the alignment. Alignments at nucleotide resolution are visible in the cursor tip hover box
 137 and the nucleotide alignment under the cursor is highlighted in orange (G - T). c: Displaying
 138 alignment with > 10 nucleotides per pixel. Both hg38 and mm10 genomes are continuously
 139 displayed without gaps. Syntenic regions are connected using Bezier curves.

140

141 Users can pan and zoom on the genome-align track using the tools bar on top of the displayed
142 window in a similar fashion as they operate on any other browser track types. When the number
143 of nucleotides within a browser window exceeds the available pixels to display each nucleotide
144 clearly (10 pixels per nucleotide), the browser stops displaying individual nucleotides within the
145 alignment. Instead, it would display a 20-bp alignment in a floating box next to the cursor when
146 the user mouses over the genome-align track (Fig. 2b). This feature helps users to visualize a
147 larger aligned region without missing the base-pair resolution information in the alignment.
148 Vertically aligning and anchoring query genomes to the reference genome is a straightforward
149 and convenient way to display SNVs and small indels between query and reference genomes.
150 However, it is insufficient to show any large, more complexed structural variations (SVs)
151 between species. The WashU Comparative Epigenome Browser displays both the reference
152 and query genomes in a linear manner and connect syntenic regions using Bezier curves if the
153 browser window contains a long genomic alignment (more than 10 bases per pixel) (Fig. 2c). By
154 doing so, large scale genetic variations can be directly visualized in the browser. Since both
155 genomes are continuously and co-linearly displayed, epigenomic features are also displayed in
156 full without sudden truncation.

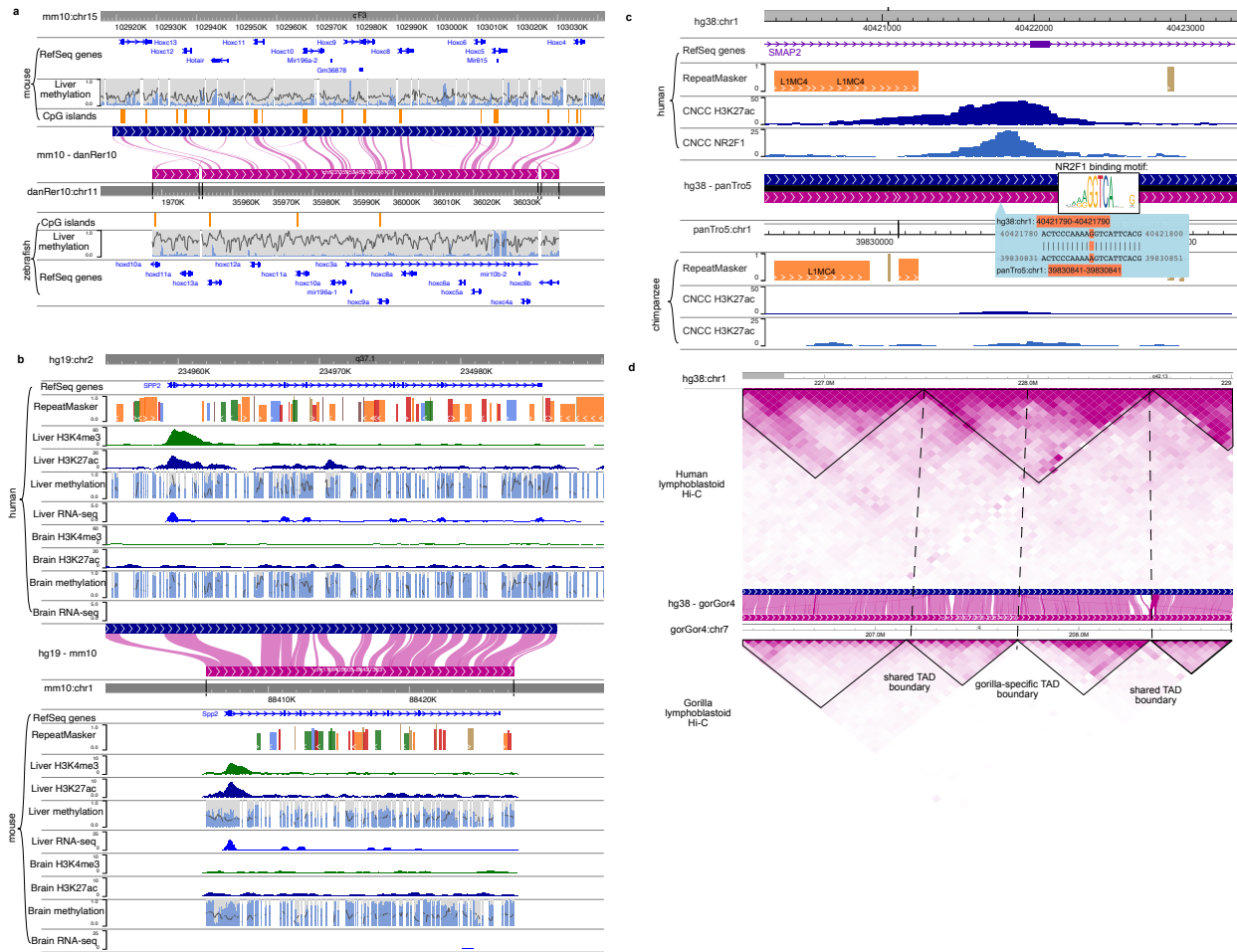
157

158 Using the WashU Comparative Epigenome Browser to compare 159 epigenomic features between species

160 The genome-align track is more than just a visualization tool to display pairwise whole-genome
161 alignments. After loading the genome-align track onto the browser, users can load annotations
162 and datasets mapped to the secondary genome in the browser and compare them with those
163 mapped to the reference genome. With this feature, the browser connects annotations and
164 datasets from different genomes together using their syntenic relationship in the same window.

165 While users navigate the reference genome, the browser retrieves syntenic coordinates from
166 other genomes and fetches all the loaded tracks.

167 We can use the browser to characterize deeply conserved epigenomic marks. In Fig. 3a the
168 browser displays deeply conserved CpG methylation in liver between mouse and zebrafish
169 using methylC tracks (Yue et al. 2014; Yang et al. 2020; Zhou et al. 2014). By displaying the
170 Hox C gene cluster from both mouse and zebrafish reference genomes and their syntenic
171 relationship, we can appreciate that only a small fraction of their genomic sequences can be
172 aligned with each other after hundreds of million years of independent evolution, recapitulating
173 the discovery made by Zhang et al. (Zhang et al. 2016). Even conserved CpG islands between
174 these two species are sparse. However, except for a few species-specific transposable
175 elements, the CpG sites are hypomethylated in the region in both species. Despite limited
176 sequence conservation, the apparent epigenomic conservation suggests deeply conserved
177 regulatory pattern in the region.



178

179 **Figure 3:**

180 Compare epigenomes between species. a: The DNA methylation status of Hox C gene cluster
181 is conserved between mouse and zebrafish. Mouse and zebrafish DNA methylomes were
182 characterized by Zhang et al. Mouse and zebrafish reference genome (mm10 and danRer7) are
183 shown back-to-back anchored by the mouse-zebrafish genome-align track along with their
184 gene, repeat, and CpG Island annotations. Liver DNA methylome data from Zhang et al. using
185 Enhanced Reduced Representation Bisulfite Sequencing (ERRBS) (Zhang et al. 2016) is
186 displayed. b: H3K4me3 and H3K27ac ChIP-seq, WGBS and RNA-seq of brain and liver
187 samples from both human and mouse of SPP2/Spp2 gene are displayed using the WashU
188 Comparative Epigenome Browser. Both DNA methylation level and read depth are illustrated in
189 the MethyIC track. c: Lineage-specific epigenomic innovation. H3K27ac, NR2F1 ChIP-seq data
190 from both human and chimpanzee CNCC in SMAP2 gene regions were plotted in the WashU
191 Comparative Epigenome Browser. A human-specific NR2F1 and H3K27ac peak suggests a
192 putative human-specific enhancer in this region. The putative enhancer is associated with a

193 human-specific NR2F1 binding motif. d: 3D genome structure differences between species.
194 Human lymphoblastoid Hi-C contact map mapped to hg38 and gorilla lymphoblastoid Hi-C data
195 mapped to gorGor4 were compared by anchoring to the human-gorilla alignment track.
196
197 Epigenomic modifications underlie tissue specificity. It has been shown before that the tissue-
198 specific epigenomic patterns are often conserved between species (Zhou et al. 2017). The
199 comparative browser makes it intuitive to examine the conservation pattern of tissue-specific
200 gene activities. Fig. 3b illustrates the conserved liver-specific expression and epigenome
201 landscape of gene Secreted Phosphoprotein 2 (SPP2) between human and mouse. Epigenomic
202 data, including Whole-Genome Bisulfite Sequencing (WGBS), H3K4me3 ChIP-seq, H3K27ac
203 ChIP-seq, and RNA-seq data of liver and brain from ENCODE and mouse ENCODE are
204 displayed on the respective reference genomes in the comparative browser (ENCODE Project
205 Consortium 2012; Yue et al. 2014) spanning the syntenic region around human SPP2 gene and
206 its orthologous mouse Spp2 gene (Fig. 3b). Both species share the pattern of liver-specific
207 active histone marks, low DNA methylation and high RNA expression, as well as lack of active
208 histone/expression and high DNA methylation in the brain, indicating epigenetic conservation.
209
210 In addition to showcasing conserved features, the browser is equally effective at visualizing
211 lineage-specific epigenomic features. Fig. 3c displays H3K27ac and transcription factor NR2F1
212 ChIP-seq data from iPSC-derived Cranial Neural Crest Cells (CNCC) of both human and
213 chimpanzee (Prescott et al. 2015). This region contains a putative human-specific enhancer,
214 defined by the co-occurrence of NR2F1-binding and H3K27ac peak in the intron of SMAP2
215 gene. The epigenomic signature suggests that this is either a human-gain or chimpanzee-loss
216 of a putative CNCC enhancer. Zooming in to examine the alignment at base level, we identified
217 a single nucleotide difference between human and chimpanzee that maps to a high information
218 content position in the NR2F motif, potentially explaining the enhancer gain or loss. This

219 example demonstrates that our browser can be used to associate epigenomic differences
220 between species with their genetic differences.

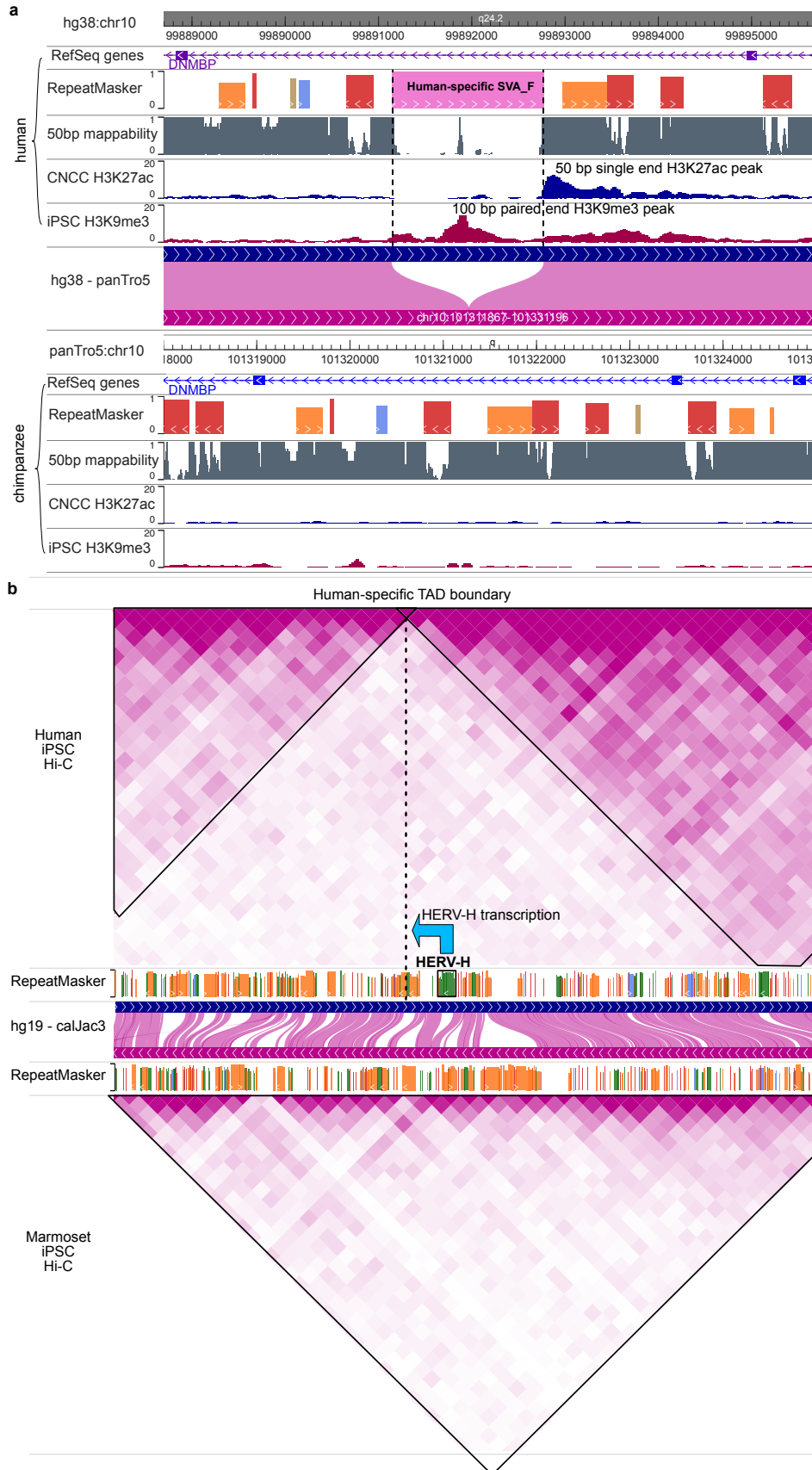
221
222 The comparative browser also supports visualization and comparison of long-range chromatin
223 interaction data across different genomes, thus facilitating the studies of 3D genome evolution
224 (Vietri Rudan et al. 2015). Fig. 3d directly compares the 3D genome structure between human
225 and gorilla in the human chr1 q42.13 region. Hi-C data from lymphoblastoid cells of human and
226 gorilla reveals several conserved TADs. Interestingly, one TAD in human is split into two
227 different TADs in the gorilla. This observation using the comparative browser recapitulated
228 insights from Yang et al. (Yang et al. 2019).

229

230 Visualizing the relationship between genomic variation and 231 epigenomic variation

232 There has been a growing interest in understanding the relationship between genetic variation
233 and epigenetic variation. We have already demonstrated using the browser to display the
234 association between epigenomic changes with a SNP (Fig. 3c). Recently we characterized
235 structural variations (SVs) between human and chimpanzee and their impact on the epigenome
236 (Zhuo et al. 2020). Fig. 4a illustrates an interesting case of human-specific TE-derived putative
237 enhancer. In this comparative browser view, investigators can easily and intuitively compare a
238 species-specific TE insertion and its associated epigenomic modification. Here, a human-
239 specific retrotransposon SVA_F appears in the intron of the DNMBP gene. The sequence of this
240 SVA_F element is highly repetitive, thus it exhibits low mappability scores (average 50bp score
241 <0.05) indicating that short sequencing reads derived from this element may not be uniquely
242 mapped back (Derrien et al. 2012). Indeed, a cranial neural crest cell (CNCC) H3K27ac ChIP-

243 seq dataset (sequenced using 50 bp reads) does not contain signal within the SVA_F element
244 but reveals a peak at the 3' boundary of the element. Further analysis suggests that this
245 boundary peak reflects enhancer signals from within this SVA_F element (Zhuo et al. 2020). In
246 contrast, an iPSC H3K9me3 ChIP-seq dataset (sequenced using 100 bp paired-end reads) is
247 able to uniquely reveal an enrichment peak over this SVA_F element, indicating the deployment
248 of repressive chromatin onto this newly inserted retrotransposon in iPSC (Zhuo et al. 2020). The
249 parallelly displayed chimpanzee genome and corresponding epigenomic datasets illustrate the
250 lack of this specific SVA_F insertion and absent of respective epigenomic marks. This direct
251 visual comparison of the retrotransposon insertion and epigenomic changes between the two
252 species recapitulates the discovery of a tissue-specific enhancer derived from a human-specific
253 retrotransposon insertion.



255 Figure 4:

256 Connecting epigenomic changes with genomic changes using the WashU Comparative
257 Epigenome Browser. a: RefSeq Genes, repeatMasker and 50bp mappability annotations along
258 with H3K27ac ChIP-seq data from Cranial neural crest cell (CNCC) and H3K9me3 ChIP-seq
259 data from iPSC in both human and chimpanzee were plotted in DNMBP gene region. The
260 H3K9me3 peak in the human-specific SVA insertion indicates epigenomic repression of this
261 element in iPSC and the human-specific H3K27ac and NR2F1 peak indicates the creation of a
262 putative new CNCC enhancer in the human-lineage. b: Human-specific HERV-H expression is
263 correlated with a new TAD boundary in iPSC in the human genome compared with the
264 marmoset genome.

265

266 Zhang et al. demonstrated that the expression of HERV-H is associated with new TAD
267 boundaries in primates (Zhang et al. 2019). This association can be easily appreciated in a
268 comparative browser view. In Fig. 4b Hi-C maps of human iPSC and marmoset iPSC can be
269 directly compared in the context of their genome alignment. In the human genome, an HERV-H
270 insertion is associated with a human-specific TAD boundary reflected by the Hi-C contact map,
271 which is absent in the marmoset genome (Fig. 4b). It is notable that the TAD boundary is ~20kb
272 downstream of the HERV-H insertion in the human genome, suggesting it is the expression
273 instead of the presence of binding motif in the HERV-H that contributes to the TAD boundary.
274 These examples demonstrate that the WashU Comparative Epigenome Browser can be used to
275 directly compare genomic datasets across species and visualize the association with genetic
276 changes.

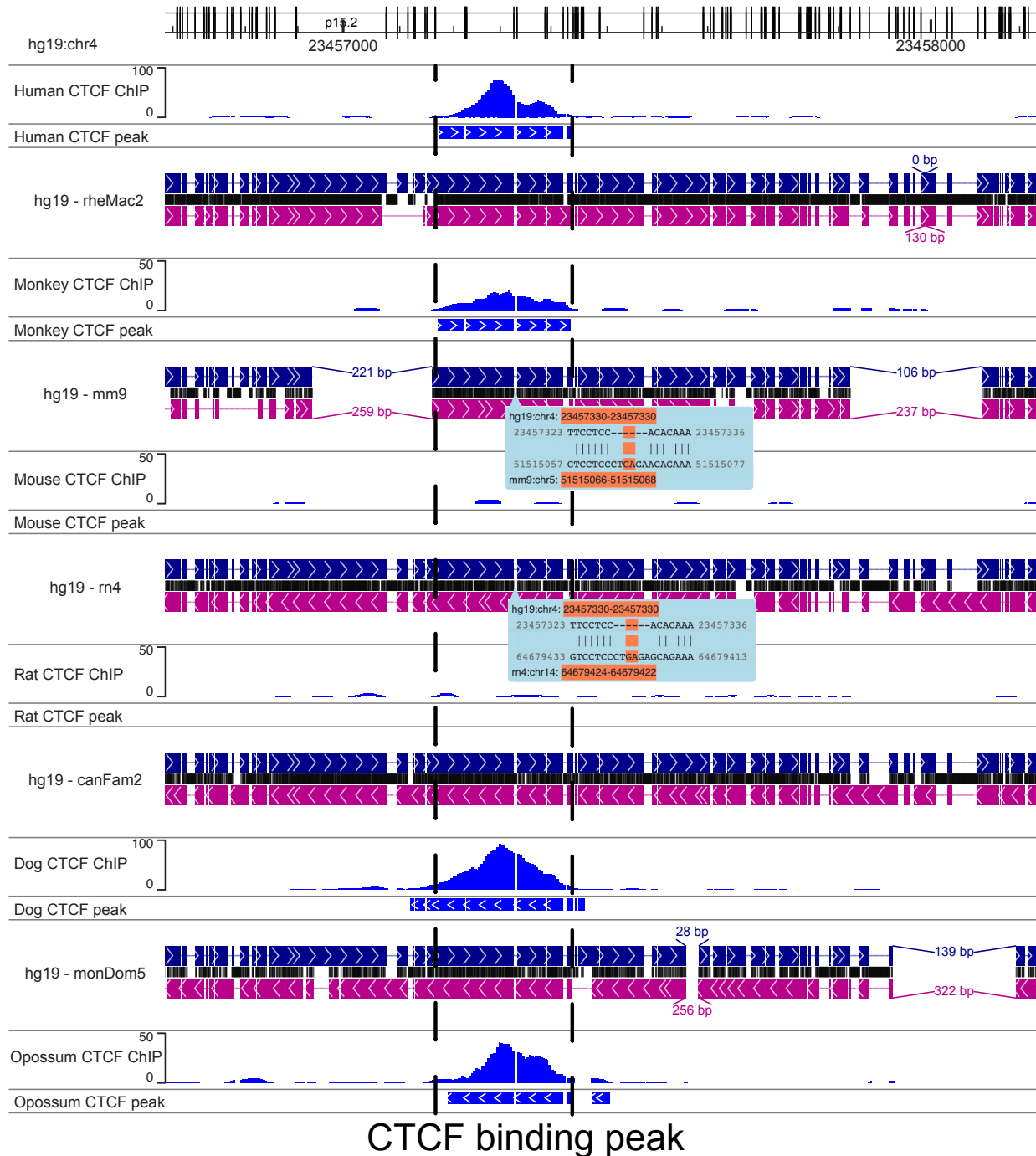
277

278 Displaying genome annotations and datasets from multiple 279 species using the WashU Comparative Epigenome Browser

280 A natural extension of the pairwise comparison functions is to support comparison among
281 multiple species. Conceptually, this extension is equivalent to visualizing genomic data aligned
282 to a multiple genome alignment across species. Practically, we use multiple genome-align
283 tracks to anchor the visualization to the same reference genome, thus enabling an intuitive
284 comparison of genomic data across orthologous regions of multiple species.

285 We use CTCF turnover events characterized in Schmidt et. al. and Choudhary et. al. (Schmidt
286 et al. 2012; Choudhary et al. 2020) to illustrate the comparative analysis across multiple
287 genomes.

288 Schmidt et. al. characterized the CTCF binding sites of six mammalian species (human,
289 macaque, mouse, rat, dog and opossum) and identified thousands of conserved as well as
290 lineage-specific, retrotransposon-derived CTCF binding sites (Schmidt et al. 2012). We display
291 both CTCF ChIP-seq data and called CTCF binding peaks of the six species from this study
292 using the WashU Comparative Epigenome Browser, anchored on the human reference genome
293 hg19. (Fig. 5). This allows direct comparison of CTCF binding across species along with genetic
294 changes in each lineage.



295

296

Figure 5:

297

Using the WashU Comparative Epigenome Browser to visualize and compare the CTCF binding

298

sites from six mammals. Genes, repeats, CTCF ChIP-seq and input from human (hg19), rhesus

299

macaque (rheMac2), mouse (mm9), rat (rn4), dog (canFam2) and opossum (monDom5) were

300

displayed on the browser. Human reference genome hg19 was used as the reference genome

301

and all the other species were anchored to their orthologous region from hg19 using whole

302 genome alignments. A: hg19: chr4:23456625-23458090 region shows a conserved CTCF
303 binding peak in the orthologous loci in all mammal genomes except the two rodents, indicates a
304 rodent-specific loss of a conserved CTCF binding site. The loss of CTCF binding is also
305 coincided with a rodent-specific 6bp insertion.

306

307 Fig. 5 highlights the loss of a conserved CTCF binding sites in rodents (Fig. 5). All genome
308 assemblies are vertically aligned, and interruptions are introduced in the tracks when gaps
309 occur in either reference or secondary genomes. In contrast to the other four genomes, mouse
310 and rat do not display a CTCF binding peak in this region, and this event is associated with a
311 rodent-specific 6 bp insertion in the ortholog site of the CTCF site conserved in the other four
312 species. Again, the WashU Comparative Epigenome Browser makes it intuitive to display and
313 identify associations between genetic changes and epigenomic changes across multiple
314 species.

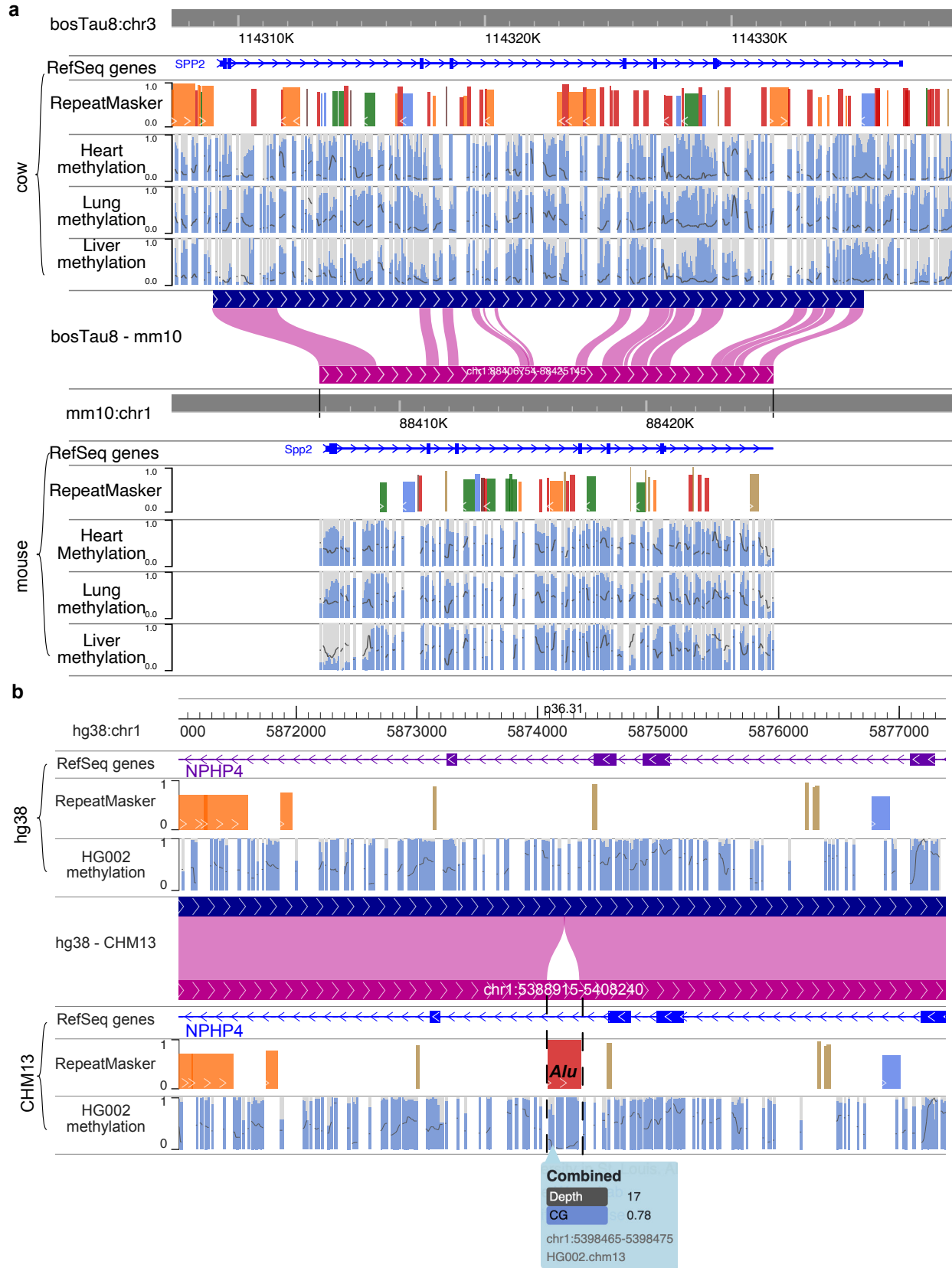
315

316 Extending comparative genomic analysis to non-model organisms 317 and new assemblies

318 The WashU Comparative Epigenome Browser is built on an actively maintained and
319 expandable platform. New genomes are routinely added to the browser to serve scientists
320 around the world. The browser engineers respond to new comments and feature request
321 (including request for new genomes) on the browser GitHub repository frequently
322 (<https://github.com/lidaof/eg-react/issues>). We also documented how to add new genomes to
323 the browser for a local environment for advanced users with JavaScript background
324 (<https://epigenomegateway.readthedocs.io/en/latest/add.html>).

325 Using this flexible framework, we created multiple non-model organism reference genomes in
326 our browser. For example, we created reference cattle genome UMD_3.1.1/bosTau8, and

327 generated bosTau8-mm10 genome-align track using bosTau8 as the reference genome. Fig. 6a
328 displays a direct comparison of DNA methylation patterns between cattle and mouse across
329 heart, lung and liver (Liu et al. 2020; Zhou et al. 2020). We display the methylation pattern of
330 liver-specific gene Spp2 promoter in the comparative browser, and we can see the tissue-
331 specific methylation pattern is conserved between mouse and cow (Fig. 6a). Thus, the
332 application of the WashU Comparative Epigenome Browser can easily extend beyond traditional
333 model organisms.



335 Figure 6:

336 a: Create a cattle-mouse comparative browser view and use it to compare DNA methylation in
337 heart, lung and liver between cow and mouse. RefSeq genes, repeatMasker tracks along with
338 DNA methylation status of heart, lung and liver tissues from both cow and mouse were plotted
339 on the Comparative Epigenome Browser. b: Utilizing the browser to compare the difference
340 between hg38 and CHM13 and how it may affect genomic analysis. The same HG002 WGBS
341 data was mapped to hg38 and CHM13, respectively. The DNA methylation difference by either
342 genome is minimum across most of the genomic region, but an *Alu* insertion is only presents in
343 the CHM13 reference, and the hypermethylation of this *Alu* element can only be assessed using
344 the CHM13 reference.

345

346 Finally, the comparative browser also fulfills a growing need in the field to compare and
347 benchmark the performance of different human genome assemblies (Aganezov et al. 2022).
348 The recent release of the T2T CHM13 genome assembly as well as multiple alternative human
349 genome assemblies from the Human Pangenome Reference Consortium (Cheng et al. 2021;
350 Ebert et al. 2021; Jarvis et al. 2022; Wang et al. 2022; Garg et al. 2021; Porubsky et al. 2021)
351 represents a major improvement for genomics, but the impact of analyzing functional genomics
352 data using different genome assemblies remains to be evaluated. Our Browser support direct
353 visualization of such evaluations. We mapped the public HG002 WGBS data (Baid et al. 2020)
354 to both hg38 and CHM13 reference genomes, and in Fig. 6b we illustrate an *Alu* insertion
355 present in CHM13 but absent in hg38. In this case, the presence and hypermethylation of the
356 *Alu* in HG002 is only visible when the reads were mapped to the CHM13 reference genome
357 (Foon et al. 2021; Nurk et al. 2021). Therefore, the WashU Comparative Epigenome Browser
358 provides a near-term, conventional visualization of differential mapping results before the
359 maturation of pangenome graph mapping and subsequent visualization (Miga and Wang 2021;
360 Wang et al. 2022; Liao et al. 2022; Hickey et al. 2022; Guarracino et al. 2021).

361

362

363 Discussion

364 Here we present the WashU Comparative Epigenome Browser to visualize comparative
365 genomic/epigenomic features. The browser functions may help scientists interested in
366 comparative genomics/epigenomics to examine their regions of interest and produce publication
367 quality browser views to showcase their findings. In addition to a growing number of genomes,
368 genome-align tracks, and genomics datasets we currently host, users can build and host their
369 own comparative browser with customized species and genome builds. It enables scientists,
370 especially those working on non-model organisms, to visualize and compare genomic and
371 epigenomic features of different species.

372

373 The comparative features are fundamentally enabled by the genome-align track, a pairwise
374 genomic alignment track derived from AXT format (Schwartz et al. 2003). Comparison across
375 multiple genomes is achieved by using multiple genome-align tracks anchoring to the same
376 reference genome. While it is possible to generalize the comparative functions based on a multi-
377 genome alignment, the pairwise comparison is more technically practical and intuitive on a two-
378 dimension computer screen. We envision continued exploration of advanced web technologies
379 to further enhance the performance of multi-genome comparison.

380 Acknowledgement

381 We want to thank Jian Ma, Yang Yang from Carnegie Mellon University for providing the human
382 and chimpanzee Hi-C dataset.

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