

Statistical analysis of GC-biased gene conversion and recombination hotspots in eukaryotic genomes: a phylogenetic hidden Markov model-based approach

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ABSTRACT

Genetic recombination in eukaryotes can occur with or without crossover, where the latter event is referred to as gene conversion. New discoveries in the genomic and post-genomic era have shed new light into the complex interplay between recombination and other evolutionary processes such as point mutations. In particular, G/C content of genomic regions can increase over evolutionary time due to recombination in the form of gene conversion – a phenomenon known as GC-biased gene conversion (gBGC) – and gBGC is increasingly appreciated as serving an important role in genome evolution throughout the eukaryotic Tree of life. These findings have largely relied on computational advances for analyzing recombinant sequences for indirect signatures of gBGC. However, deeper insights into the functional and evolutionary significance of gBGC require a unified framework that accounts for variable-across-sites recombination and point mutation processes.

In this study, we introduce PHYNCH (or “PHYlogeNetiC-HMM for analyzing gBGC and recombination hotspots”). PHYNCH utilizes a statistical model that combines a hidden Markov model to capture local genealogical variation due to recombination and gene conversion with a finite-sites model of sequence evolution along a local genealogy. Inference and learning under the new model is used to detect and analyze local patterns of gBGC and recombination hotspots within genomic sequences. We validate the performance of PHYNCH using simulated benchmarking data. Furthermore, we use PHYNCH to create a new genomic map of gBGC and recombination in rice.

CCS CONCEPTS

• **Applied computing** → *Computational genomics; Computational biology; Molecular sequence analysis; Molecular evolution; Computational genomics; Bioinformatics; Population genetics.*

KEYWORDS

recombination, GC-biased gene conversion, phylogeny, phylogenetic, hidden Markov model, rice

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INTRODUCTION

In eukaryotes, meiotic recombination can occur either with or without crossover between recombining chromosomes. Following the terminology used by [15], we refer to the former as a recombination event and the latter as a gene conversion event; both are understood to have played central roles in the evolution of eukaryotic genomes.

The spatial distribution of recombination and gene conversion events varies locally within genomes and can be concentrated in genomic regions with up to multiple orders of magnitude higher recombination rate compared to surrounding regions [19]. In humans, for example, around 80% of all recombination breakpoints are concentrated in less than 15% of the genome [4].

Recombination can also strongly affect base composition and substitution processes, as in the case of GC-biased gene conversion (gBGC) where G/C-content of recombining DNA regions increases over evolutionary time due to gene conversion during recombination [9, 12]. Prior systematic studies have provided evidence of gBGC in animals [22, 23, 29] and plants [8]. For example, Muyle et al. [28] found that gBGC affects the GC content of third codon positions and intronic regions in grass genomes. The studies indicate that the interplay of gBGC with other evolutionary forces has shaped important eukaryotic genomic features including local recombination breakpoint distributions, the ancestral tract landscape, and local base composition heterogeneity. The studies also provide mechanistic insights into the functional consequences of gBGC on key cellular processes including transcription and translation. For example, evidence suggests that gBGC biases tRNA abundance [13] and can play functional role in elevating point mutation rates [20].

Advances in high-throughput biomolecular sequencing and the resulting explosion of large-scale genomic and other -omics data [26, 34] have enhanced efforts to comprehensively study gBGC across a diverse range of organisms. These studies have also relied on computational and statistical approaches to detect and analyze genomic signatures left by the evolutionary processes under study. Many of these methods were originally developed for analyzing recombinant sequences and related biomolecular sequence analysis

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tasks without necessarily focusing on gBGC [6, 7, 17, 18, 24, 25]. But the complex interplay of recombination and mutation processes is inherent to gBGC, and joint analysis within a single unified framework may yield insights that may be inaccessible when reasoning about one in isolation of the other. A well-known example is the confounding effect that gBGC has upon traditional approaches for inferring bio-molecular signatures of adaptive evolution (e.g., substitution rate-based analysis) [3]. One of the few methods available for model based analysis of gBGC in genomic sequences is the method of Capra et al. [3]. The method has the advantage of also analyzing evolutionary conservation alongside gBGC, but is defined for a fixed 4-taxon phylogeny.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

To address this gap, we introduce PHYNCH (or “PHYlogeNetiC-HMM for analyzing gBGC and recombination hotspots”), a phylogenetic hidden Markov model-based framework for detecting and analyzing genomic patterns of gBGC and recombination hotspots in eukaryotic genomes. The framework utilizes a combined statistical model for analyzing recombination and mutation processes that jointly vary across sites. The framework is well-suited to fine-scale mapping and is not restricted to a specific number of taxa (i.e., groups of organisms under study) or fixed phylogenetic hypothesis.

The contributions of our study are summarized as follows. First, the new PHYNCH framework accounts for linked variation across sites for recombination and mutation processes. The framework adopts an explicit phylogenetic model to compare and analyze biomolecular sequences. Second, PHYNCH is a general phylogenetic-HMM framework that is well-suited to fine-scale mapping. In theory, the framework will support analysis of inputs with an arbitrary number of taxa (although see Discussion for additional practical considerations). Finally, we apply the PHYNCH framework to an empirical rice genomic sequence dataset. The analysis provides a new high-resolution map of gBGC and recombination hotspots in the rice genome.

Problem definition

For the purposes of clarity, we begin by defining a special case of the computational problem addressed in our study. (The full computational problem is defined in a subsequent subsection.) Let G be a set of aligned genomes $g_1, g_2, \dots, g_n$, each of length k , and the multiple sequence alignment A with dimension $n \times k$ has rows consisting of the genomes and columns consisting of aligned sites. Let A_z be the z^{th} site in the alignment, which corresponds to the z^{th} column in the matrix. Every site A_z has evolved under a local genealogy (i.e., evolutionary history of a site). Note that recombination can cause local genealogies to vary across different sites – both in terms of topology and branch length. Hotspots evolved under recombination and point mutation processes with higher evolutionary rates and/or different base frequency distributions compared to background regions, and local genealogies in the former can be expected to exhibit greater local variation compared to the latter.

Let $\Delta(n)$ be the set of all unrooted binary tree topologies on n leaves. Let $T_b(n)$ be the set of $|\Delta(n)|$ unrooted binary trees on n leaves, each of which a distinct topology from $\Delta(n)$ and branch

lengths ℓ_b . The set of trees $T_b(n)$ are used to model local genealogies of sites in “background” regions of A that evolved under a baseline evolutionary model. Note that any tree $t \in T_b(n)$ could be the local genealogy of a given site A_z – i.e., $P(A_z|t, \theta_b) \geq 0$ where θ_b corresponds to the parameters of a finite-sites substitution model in background regions (e.g., the general-time reversible model (GTR) [33] or nested models such as the HKY85 model [14]). Local genealogies can change along the genome with different rates due to the existence of hotspots. Let $T_h(n)$ be the set of $|\Delta(n)|$ trees, each with a distinct topology from $\Delta(n)$ but with different branch lengths ℓ_h . Together with a different substitution model θ_h , the set of trees $T_h(n)$ are used to model local genealogies in “hotspot” regions of A that evolved under a non-baseline evolutionary model; the hotspot model captures local genealogical discordance and local base composition bias that are generated by GC-biased gene conversion and recombination hotspots. Given a genomic sequence alignment A , local trees $T_b(n) \cup T_h(n)$, and the substitution model instances θ_b and θ_h , we define a sequence of n random variable q_z , each of which takes on an ordered pair of values $(x, y) \in (T_b(n) \times \{\theta_b\}) \cup (T_h(n) \times \{\theta_h\})$. We then define the computational problem as follows.

- **Input:** A genomic sequence alignment A consisting of n aligned sequences and k sites.
- **Output:** For each site $1 \leq z \leq k$, the per-site hotspot probability

$$P(q_z = (x, y)|A, \theta)$$

where $(x, y) \in (T_b(n) \times \{\theta_b\}) \cup (T_h(n) \times \{\theta_h\})$ and the PHYNCH model instance θ includes a set of local tree models $T_b(n)$ and $T_h(n)$, and substitution model instances θ_b and θ_h .

The solution to this problem includes statistical inference of hotspot regions within the input genomic sequences. The site A_z is located in a hotspot region when $q_z = (x, y)$ where $x \in T_h(n)$ and $y = \theta_h$ and in a background region otherwise. The problem outputs also provide fine-scale annotation of recombination breakpoints and local recombination and substitution model variation (including GC-content variation) down to single-site resolution. Note that the problem addresses soft inference since q_z is a random variable and every ordered pair (x, y) has (possibly non-zero) probability $P(q_z = (x, y)|A)$.

PHYNCH model

PHYNCH utilizes a phylogenetic hidden Markov model (HMM) to analyze genomic signatures of GC-biased gene conversion and recombination hotspots within the set of input sequences. To facilitate discussion, we begin by considering a special case where the input involves $n = 4$ taxa and one genomic sequence is sampled per taxon (i.e., group of organisms under study); otherwise, no restrictions are placed on sample relatedness and an out-group is not needed. Furthermore, we restrict our discussion to the above two-class problem where genomic regions fall into either background or hotspot categories. (See the following subsection for a more general formulation of the PHYNCH model.)

In this case, the number of all possible unrooted binary tree topologies for genomes is $|\Delta(n)| = 3$, and the PHYNCH model would include a total of $1 + 2|\Delta(n)| = 7$ states: a start state s_0 , and six additional states. The latter consists of background states b_i

for $1 \leq i \leq 3$ – each corresponding to one of the three possible local gene tree topologies that can appear in a background genomic region – and hotspot states h_i for $1 \leq i \leq 3$ similarly for hotspot regions. Let $g(b_i)$ be the distinct gene tree topology associated with background state b_i ; the state b_i includes a local gene tree model that consists of both the topology $g(b_i)$ and a set of branch lengths $\ell(b_i)$. Each hotspot state h_i includes a local gene tree model with topology $g(h_i)$ and branch lengths $\ell(h_i)$ similarly. The resulting set of states is shown in Figure 1. Note that each distinct topology appears twice in the model – once in a background state and once in a hotspot state – but possibly with differing branch lengths in the two different states in which it appears.

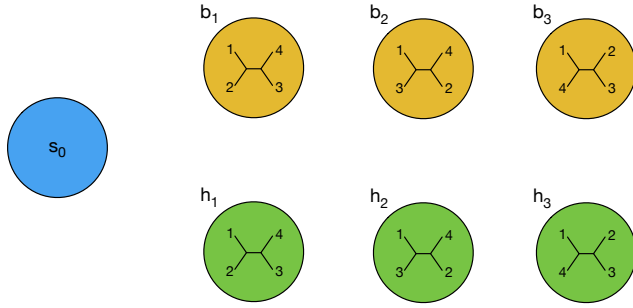


Figure 1: Illustration of PHYNCH model states. The top row consists of states b_i for $1 \leq i \leq 3$ that correspond to local genealogies – each having a distinct unrooted topology – that are observed in background genomic regions. The bottom row consists of states h_i that similarly correspond to hotspot regions. The model also includes a start state s_0 . To simplify the illustration, transitions and model parameters are not shown (see Methods for more details).

Based on the row/column arrangement of states in Figure 1’s illustration, “within-row” transitions between different b states correspond to topological discordance of local genealogies across recombination breakpoints within a background genomic region; within-row transitions between different h states correspond to recombination breakpoints within a hotspot region similarly. “Across-row” transitions from a b state to an h state or vice versa correspond to background and hotspot region boundaries.

The PHYNCH model includes the following transition, initial state, and emission probabilities and parameters. Similar to the HMM proposed by Westesson and Holmes [36], the within-row transition probability parameter ϵ_b accounts for the level of local topological discordance due to recombination in background regions; lower parameter values are correlated with increased recombination breakpoint frequency. Transitions from a given state to a different state in the background row of states occur with equal probability. Within-row transition probabilities for hotspot regions and the probability parameter ϵ_h are defined similarly. The within-row transition probability parameters are specified such that $1 - \epsilon_h \geq 1 - \epsilon_b$ WLOG. Across-row transition probabilities are parameterized by a switching parameter γ . The switching parameter

accounts for local variation in substitution and recombination processes and is correlated with the frequency of background/hotspot-delineating breakpoints. Transitions from a given state in one row to any other state in a different row occur with equal probability. Transitions from the start state s_0 to any other state occur with equal probability as well. For convenience, we define the following probabilities where $1 \leq i \leq 3$ and $1 \leq j \leq 3$:

$$\begin{aligned} f_{s_0} &= \frac{1}{2|\Delta(n)|} \\ f_{b_i} &= f_{h_i} = \frac{1}{|\Delta(n)|} \\ \delta(b_i, b_j) &= \begin{cases} \frac{1-\epsilon_b}{|\Delta(n)|-1} & \text{if } i \neq j \\ \epsilon_b & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \\ \delta(h_i, h_j) &= \begin{cases} \frac{1-\epsilon_h}{|\Delta(n)|-1} & \text{if } i \neq j \\ \epsilon_h & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \\ t_{b_i, b_j} &= (1 - \gamma)\delta(b_i, b_j) \\ t_{h_i, h_j} &= (1 - \gamma)\delta(h_i, h_j) \end{aligned}$$

The transition probability matrix is then specified as follows, with rows labeled by the states $s_0, b_1, b_2, b_3, h_1, h_2, h_3$ from top to bottom, columns labeled from left to right similarly, and each cell containing the probability of transitioning from a row’s corresponding state to a column’s corresponding state:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & f_{s_0} & f_{s_0} & f_{s_0} & f_{s_0} & f_{s_0} & f_{s_0} \\ 0 & t_{b_1, b_1} & t_{b_1, b_2} & t_{b_1, b_3} & \gamma f_{h_1} & \gamma f_{h_2} & \gamma f_{h_3} \\ 0 & t_{b_2, b_1} & t_{b_2, b_2} & t_{b_2, b_3} & \gamma f_{h_1} & \gamma f_{h_2} & \gamma f_{h_3} \\ 0 & t_{b_3, b_1} & t_{b_3, b_2} & t_{b_3, b_3} & \gamma f_{h_1} & \gamma f_{h_2} & \gamma f_{h_3} \\ 0 & \gamma f_{b_1} & \gamma f_{b_2} & \gamma f_{b_3} & t_{h_1, h_1} & t_{h_1, h_2} & t_{h_1, h_3} \\ 0 & \gamma f_{b_1} & \gamma f_{b_2} & \gamma f_{b_3} & t_{h_2, h_1} & t_{h_2, h_2} & t_{h_2, h_3} \\ 0 & \gamma f_{b_1} & \gamma f_{b_2} & \gamma f_{b_3} & t_{h_3, h_1} & t_{h_3, h_2} & t_{h_3, h_3} \end{bmatrix} \quad (1)$$

The initial state of the PHYNCH model is always the start state s_0 .

An individual state b_i for $1 \leq i \leq 3$ in a background region emits a site pattern A_z for $1 \leq z \leq k$ according to an emission probability $P(A_z | g(b_i), \ell(b_i), \theta_b)$ under the site’s local genealogy model with tree topology $g(b_i)$, branch lengths $\ell(b_i)$, and substitution model θ_b . Emission probabilities are defined similarly for each hotspot state h_i . Under the finite-sites substitution models in this study, the emission probability of a site pattern at a given state can be efficiently calculated using dynamic programming, as in the peeling algorithm used in traditional phylogenetic MLE [10, 11]. Our experiments utilize the HKY85 model of nucleotide substitution [14], and the GTR model [33] and other nested models are readily substituted.

We also adopt a modeling choice that is intended to reduce model complexity, improve learning, and mitigate overfitting. Branch lengths in background state b_i for $1 \leq i \leq 3$ are shared with hotspot state h_i and scaled by scaling factor parameter β such that $\ell(h_i) = \beta \ell(b_i)$. The scaling parameter β therefore controls the relative evolutionary divergence of background versus hotspot regions.

Likelihood calculations under a fixed PHYNCH model instance and posterior decoding can be performed efficiently using dynamic programming in the form of the peeling algorithm for emission

probability calculations and the forward and backward algorithms [30]. PHYNCH model parameters are learned using statistical optimization under the maximum likelihood criterion. A variety of heuristics are commonly used to address this computationally difficult problem [30]. We utilize a hill-climbing algorithm coupled with Brent's method for univariate optimization [2] in our experiments. Statistical inference is addressed using a modified posterior decoding algorithm. The algorithm annotates each site A_z with the probability $\sum_{(x,y) \in (T_h(n) \times \{\theta_h\})} P(q_z = (x, y) | A, \theta)$ that it falls within a hotspot region.

Finally, our simulation study included model selection experiments that coupled PHYNCH inference and learning with a likelihood ratio test (LRT). Two nested models were evaluated in each test: an alternative model that consisted of a standard PHYNCH model (i.e., a PHYNCH model that includes both background and hotspot states) and a null model that consisted only of background states. The alternative model includes eight additional parameters compared to the null model: ϵ_h , γ , β , and θ_h , where the HKY model used for the latter contributes four base frequency parameters and one substitution rate parameter. Both models were fitted using MLE in a manner identical to the other PHYNCH analyses in our study.

General problem formulation and model

The PHYNCH model and framework is readily extended to more general inputs. First, inputs with n sequences require $\Delta(n)$ to consist of the set of all binary tree topologies on n taxa, and the number of states in a row will equal $|\Delta(n)|$. Furthermore, the PHYNCH model can be extended to handle $r > 2$ classes of recombination and substitution models beyond the background/hotspot models considered in our study; the PHYNCH model extensions will create a corresponding row of states for each of the r rate classes, along with “within-row” and “between-row” transitions and associated parameters analogous to the simpler formulation above. In this study, we focus on two-class background/hotspot model where $r = 2$.

Simulation study

We used msHOT [16] to simulate local coalescent histories under an extended multi-species coalescent model that incorporated hotspots, where the latter exhibited elevated recombination, mutations, and GC content bias relative to background regions. Note that PHYNCH's phylogenetic HMM makes use of a sequentially Markovian approximation for both the coalescent-with-recombination model and related gene conversion models [15, 37, 38], and the msHOT simulations utilize the latter full models. Each simulation sampled 4 or 5 individuals from a panmictic population. Either 0, 1 or 2 hotspots were simulated per dataset, where the one-hotspot simulations utilized fixed placement between 2000 and 4000 bp and the two-hotspot simulations utilized fixed placements between 1000 and 3000 bp and between 4000 and 4500 bp. The scaled recombination rate ρ in background and hotspot regions was set to 5.0 and 50.0, respectively. The scaled mutation rate θ in background and hotspot regions was set to 1.0 and 10.0, respectively. Coalescent times were converted into branch lengths under finite-sites substitution model (see equation 3.1 from [15]).

Then, seq-gen [31] was used to simulate sequence evolution on the local gene tree corresponding to each local coalescent history; sequence evolution proceeded under finite-sites substitution model. Our study utilized the HKY85 model [14] for the latter. The substitution model parameter values for background and GC-biased hotspot regions were based on empirical analyses of the rice genomic sequence dataset in our study (see below for dataset details). First, the GC content histogram for annotated genes was used to assess the bimodal nature of base composition bias in the rice genome. The assessment was used to partition genes into two GC content categories – either high or low – based on a visually assessed fixed threshold. For each of the two sets of genes – low and high – RAxML [35] was used to perform concatenated phylogenetic MLE under the HKY model; the estimated substitution rates and base frequencies were used in the seq-gen simulations of background and hotspot regions, respectively. The resulting background model instance consisted of base frequencies $\pi_A = 0.267$, $\pi_G = 0.213$, $\pi_C = 0.200$, $\pi_T = 0.320$ and a transition/transversion rate of 1.855; the hotspot model instance consisted of base frequencies $\pi_A = 0.162$, $\pi_G = 0.341$, $\pi_C = 0.347$, $\pi_T = 0.150$ and a transition/transversion rate of 2.058. The total simulated sequence length of each 4-taxon and 5-taxon dataset were 5 kb and 2 kb, respectively.

For each model condition, the simulation procedure was repeated to obtain 20 replicate datasets. Model condition parameters and summary statistics for simulated datasets are shown in Table 1.

PHYNCH's performance on the simulated benchmarking data was assessed using multiple performance criteria. A modified posterior decoding was used to perform statistical inference (see above). We evaluated type I and type II error by comparing PHYNCH's soft inference that a site is located within a hotspot region versus ground truth (i.e., the true hotspot location(s)): the type I and type II error comparisons were based on receiver operating character (ROC) curves, precision-recall (PR) curves, area under ROC curve (ROC-AUC), and area under PR curve (PR-AUC). A true positive is a site that has PHYNCH posterior decoding probability above a fixed threshold and is actually located within a true hotspot region, a true negative is a site that has PHYNCH posterior decoding probability below a fixed threshold and is located outside of any true hotspot region, a false positive is a site that has PHYNCH posterior decoding probability above a fixed threshold but is located outside of any true hotspot region, and a false negative is a site that has PHYNCH posterior decoding probability below a fixed threshold but is located within a true hotspot region; varying the threshold yields different points along the ROC and PR curves. We also assessed PHYNCH's computational runtime and peak main memory usage.

Rice genomic sequence dataset analysis

We used PHYNCH to analyze an empirical dataset that consisted of whole genome sequence data for two rice subspecies – *Oryza sativa japonica* and *O. s. indica* – and two sister species – *O. rufipogon* and *O. nivara*. We downloaded whole-genome sequences and gene annotations from Ensembl Plants [5]. The accessions for the *O. s. japonica*

Table 1: Simulation study: model condition parameters and summary statistics for simulations involving recombination. The model condition parameters consists of the number of taxa (“Num taxa”), the simulated sequence length (bp), the scaled recombination rate for background and hotspot regions (“Scaled recomb rate bkgd:hot”), the scaled mutation rate for background and hotspot regions (“Scaled mut rate bkgd:hot”), and the number of hotspot regions and their location(s) (“Num hotspot(s)” and “Hotspot location(s)”, respectively). We also report the average normalized Hamming distance of the simulated MSA for each replicate dataset (“ANHD”) and the average recombination breakpoint frequency normalized by sequence length (“Recomb bkpt freq”) ($n = 20$).

Model condition	Num taxa	Sequence length (bp)	Scaled recomb rate bkgd:hot	Scaled mut rate bkgd:hot	Num hotspot(s)	Hotspot location(s)	ANHD	Recomb bkpt freq
4.R.0	4	5000	5:NA	1:NA	0	NA	0.6502	0.0047
4.R.1	4	5000	5:50	1:10	1	[2000,4000]	0.6760	0.0219
4.R.2	4	5000	5:50	1:10	2	[1000,3000],[4000,4500]	0.6782	0.0248
5.R.0	5	2000	5:NA	1:NA	0	NA	0.6303	0.0053
5.R.1	5	2000	5:50	1:10	1	[500,1300]	0.6654	0.0226
5.R.2	5	2000	5:50	1:10	2	[500,1200],[1500,1800]	0.6727	0.0275

Table 2: Simulation study: model condition parameters for simulations involving gene conversion. Figure layout and description are identical to Table 1, other than an additional parameter contributed by the model of gene conversion: mean gene conversion tract length (“Mean GC tract length (bp)”).

Model condition	Num taxa	Sequence length (bp)	Scaled recomb rate bkgd:hot	Scaled mut rate bkgd:hot	Num hotspot(s)	Hotspot location(s)	Mean GC tract length (bp)
4.G.0	4	5000	5:NA	1:NA	0	NA	50
4.G.1	4	5000	5:50	1:10	1	[2000,4000]	50
4.G.2	4	5000	5:50	1:10	2	[1000,3000], [4000,4500]	50

IRGSP-1.0 assembly, the *O. s. indica* ASM465v1 assembly, the *O. rufipogon* OR_W1943 assembly, and the *O. nivara* Oryza_nivara_v1.0 assembly are GCA_001433935.1, GCA_000004655.2, GCA_000817225.1, and GCA_000576065.1, respectively. MAFFT with default settings was used to align gene sequences for each gene. For each chromosome, SNP positions in gene MSAs were concatenated and analyzed using PHYNCH. Summary statistics for the empirical dataset are shown in Table 3. Model condition parameters were estimated from the SNP MSAs using the same optimization procedures that were used elsewhere in our study. Soft inference was performed using modified posterior decoding in a manner identical to the simulation study.

Software and data

An open-source software implementation of the PHYNCH framework and the data used in our study are publicly available under permissive copyleft open licenses at https://gitlab.msu.edu/liulab/gBGC_Phylo_HMM.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Simulation study

We began by assessing PHYNCH’s performance in terms of type I and II error of its modified posterior decoding-based inference (i.e., the probability that a site is located within a hotspot region).

Across all of the model conditions in our study, PHYNCH’s inference resulted in receiver operating characteristic (ROC) curves and precision-recall (PR) curves with greater than 0.999 area-under-curve (AUC) on average (Table 4). PHYNCH yielded average accuracy greater than 0.99 on the one- and two-hotspot models conditions with recombination, based on a stringent classification threshold of posterior decoding probability greater than 0.95; accuracy on the model conditions with gene conversion were greater than 0.945 on average. Base frequencies for the background and hotspot substitution models θ_b and θ_h were estimated with error less than 0.005 (Supplementary Tables S1 and S2).

In all of the non-hotspot model conditions in our study, LRT-based model selection consistently avoided rejecting the non-hotspot null model when compared against the PHYNCH alternative model. Median and minimum corrected q-values are listed in Supplementary Table S3 ($n = 20$), and none were statistically significant ($\alpha = 0.05$). LRT-based model selection was similarly effective on the one- and two-hotspot model conditions in our study. All tests returned statistically significant q-values ($\alpha = 0.05$) and the non-hotspot null model was rejected in favor of the PHYNCH alternative model in all cases.

Runtime and main memory usage for PHYNCH analyses are shown in Figure 2. On average, PHYNCH required at most 3 hours and just over 200 MiB to complete analysis of each four-taxon

Table 3: Empirical study: rice genomic sequence dataset statistics. Rice whole-genome sequence (WGS) data was downloaded from Ensembl Plants [5]; total WGS length for each chromosome is shown (“Length (bp)”). Annotated genes were then aligned and concatenated; the number of SNPs, average normalized Hamming distance, and percentage of cells consisting of indels in the concatenated alignment matrix (“Concatenated MSA”) is reported (“Num SNPs”, “ANHD”, and “Gappiness”, respectively).

Chromosome	Length (bp)	Concatenated MSA		
		Num SNPs	ANHD	Gappiness
1	13401096	122210	0.285	0.281
2	10307950	60632	0.280	0.272
3	10712212	70737	0.263	0.255
4	7941634	73186	0.298	0.288
5	6952511	46830	0.260	0.252
6	6540066	41423	0.265	0.259
7	6412536	49462	0.289	0.291
8	5943838	42428	0.282	0.275
9	4249722	29209	0.270	0.267
10	4456037	65809	0.308	0.294
11	4031078	48072	0.325	0.331
12	3504895	26023	0.279	0.275

dataset. PHYNCH’s computational runtime requirements greatly increased on the five-taxon datasets, however – a difference of nearly two orders of magnitude – although its memory usage remained the same. We attribute the increased runtime to the computational difficulty of learning PHYNCH’s model. Learning is addressed using model likelihood maximization, which is already known to be computationally difficult for the statistical models that are integrated into PHYNCH’s phylogenetic HMM [30, 32]. Furthermore, the number of states required for the general formulation of PHYNCH’s model will rapidly grow as the number of input sequences increases, and runtime and main memory usage will increase as well. (Below, we discuss a promising algorithmic approach for addressing anticipated scalability challenges.)

Rice genomic sequence dataset analysis

PHYNCH was used to detect genomic signatures of GC-biased gene conversion and recombination hotspots in rice and two sister species. The resulting fine-scale genomic map is shown in Figure 3. Putative genomic regions exhibiting GC-biased gene conversion and recombination were detected in all 12 chromosomes in the rice genome. Longest regions with high posterior decoding probability appeared around coordinates ~27 Mb to ~28 Mb in chromosome 7 and around coordinates ~17 Mb to ~18 Mb in chromosome 12. Some chromosomes contained more such regions relative to other chromosomes, with the largest number appearing in chromosomes 3, 7, 1, 2, 4, 6, and 12. Genes within PHYNCH-inferred posterior decoding probability above a high threshold are listed in Supplementary Table S4. Panther [27] analysis identified subsets of genes in the gene list that had Gene Ontology (GO) term enrichment (Table 5). Further investigation is needed to test specific molecular hypotheses that have been generated by PHYNCH analysis.

We note that there are several important differences between the empirical study and simulation study. First, the sequence lengths in the empirical study datasets are greater than in the simulation study datasets by 1 to 2 orders of magnitude. PHYNCH inference and

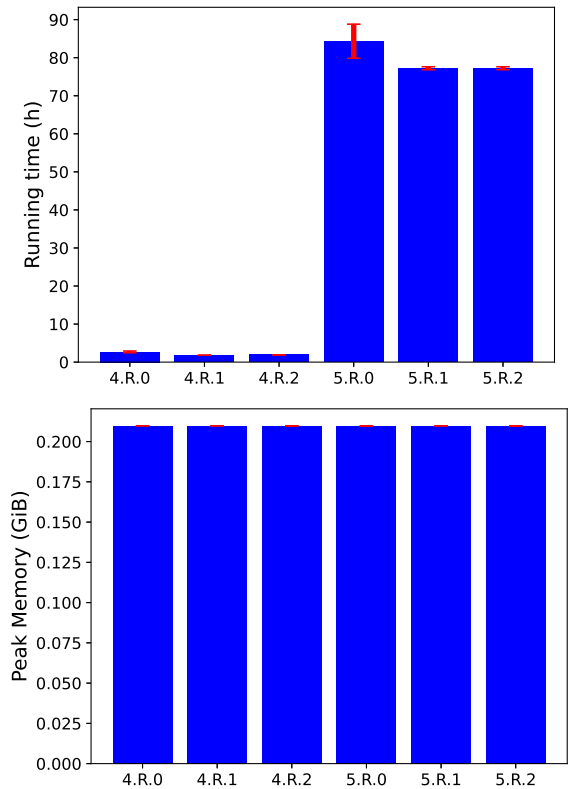


Figure 2: Simulation study: runtime (h) and main memory usage (GiB) of PHYNCH analyses. Average runtime and peak memory usage are reported for simulation conditions with recombination; standard error bars are also shown ($n = 20$).

learning remained tractable on the larger datasets in our empirical

Table 4: Simulation study: type I and type II error of PHYNCH inference. A modified posterior decoding calculation was used to perform soft inference (see Methods section for details). Type I and type II error was assessed based on three calculations: area under receiver operating characteristic curve (ROC-AUC), area under precision-recall curve (PR-AUC), and accuracy based on hard classification with a fixed probability threshold of 0.95; for each calculation, an average across all replicates in a model condition is shown ($n = 20$). Only accuracy is reported for the zero-hotspot model conditions since all sites are background and multiple classes are needed for ROC and PR curves to be well-defined.

Model condition	ROC-AUC	PR-AUC	Accuracy
4.R.0			0.9501
4.R.1	0.9999	0.9999	0.9971
4.R.2	0.9999	0.9999	0.9954
4.G.0			1.000
4.G.1	0.9996	0.9995	0.9461
4.G.2	0.9998	0.9998	0.9486
5.R.0			0.9682
5.R.1	0.9999	0.9999	0.9968
5.R.2	0.9999	0.9999	0.9935

study. Second, the genomic sequences in our simulation study arose through the complex interplay of different evolutionary processes including point mutations, recombination and gene conversion, gBGC, and others. The simulation conditions in our study capture a subset of these processes. Third, empirical genomes include structural and functional features that are not directly captured in our simulations. Finally, the empirical data in our study were obtained using next-generation sequencing. Real-world data acquisition and sequencing can introduce non-negligible error upstream of biomolecular sequence analysis.

CONCLUSION

In this study, we introduced PHYNCH, a new phylogenetic HMM framework for analyzing genomic patterns of gBGC and recombination hotspots. We conducted simulation experiments to evaluate PHYNCH’s performance. PHYNCH returned type I and type II error that was largely robust to the range of evolutionary scenarios explored in our simulations, but a primary bottleneck was scalability based on the number of input sequences. We anticipate that larger and more divergent datasets may reveal further performance bottlenecks; future algorithmic enhancements can boost PHYNCH’s scalability (see below).

We conclude with directions for future research. First, other evolutionary processes can also cause local genealogical discordance, particularly genetic drift and incomplete lineage sorting. As in related HMM frameworks [7, 17, 24, 25], the PHYNCH model can be augmented with coalescent model-based extensions to account for the latter. Second, we note that not all local genealogies are equally likely, and some may have low or trivial probability. This insight can be exploited to perform model reduction as an approximation technique [39]. We hypothesize that adapting these techniques to the PHYNCH framework will improve computational runtime and main memory usage by orders of magnitude. Finally, appropriate extensions to the PHYNCH model would allow inference that distinguishes between crossover events, gene conversion events, and combinations of both. Our future work aims to explore alternate

transition models for distinguishing between recombination outcomes – either with or without crossover. As a proxy, convolutional neural networks [21] may be able to distinguish between local tract length distributions left by the two processes as different classes of local motifs.

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Table 5: Functional categorization of PHYNCH-flagged genes in the empirical rice genomic sequence dataset. Panther [27] was used to analyze the list of genes for Gene Ontology (GO) process category enrichment. The first column contains the name of the GO biological process category; the second contains the number of genes in the reference *O. s. japonica* genome that map to the GO category; the third contains the number of PHYNCH-flagged genes that map to the GO category; the fourth contains the expected number of genes in the gene list for the category; the fifth shows the fold enrichment of the PHYNCH-flagged genes over expectation; the sixth column is the uncorrected p-value as determined by Fisher's exact test; and the last column is the corrected q-value as calculated by Benjamini and Hochberg [1]'s multiple test correction. The table lists results with statistically significant corrected q-value ($\alpha = 0.05$) in order of highest fold enrichment first.

GO Biological Process Category	Reference Genome Num. Genes	PHYNCH-flagged Genes				
		Num. Genes	Expected Num. Genes	Fold Enrich.	Uncorrected p-value	Corrected q-value
Xenobiotic transport	50	4	0.19	21.56	4.93E-3	2.36E-2
RNA metabolic process	1387	16	5.15	3.11	7.01E-5	2.80E-2
Nucleic acid metabolic process	1818	19	6.75	2.82	5.32E-5	2.32E-2
Macromolecule metabolic process	6456	49	23.96	2.05	6.05E-7	4.84E-4
Cellular macromolecule metabolic process	5009	36	18.59	1.94	1.00E-4	3.70E-2
Cellular metabolic process	8398	58	31.16	1.86	1.07E-6	7.30E-4
Organic substance metabolic process	8869	61	32.91	1.85	3.92E-7	4.70E-4
Primary metabolic process	8347	57	30.97	1.84	1.72E-6	1.03E-3
Metabolic process	9757	66	36.20	1.82	2.04E-7	3.26E-4
Nitrogen compound metabolic process	7038	47	26.12	1.80	3.82E-5	2.03E-2
Cellular process	12114	75	44.95	1.67	5.98E-7	5.74E-4
Biological_process	16117	95	59.80	1.59	2.82E-8	6.77E-5
Unclassified	27542	67	102.20	0.66	2.82E-8	1.35E-4

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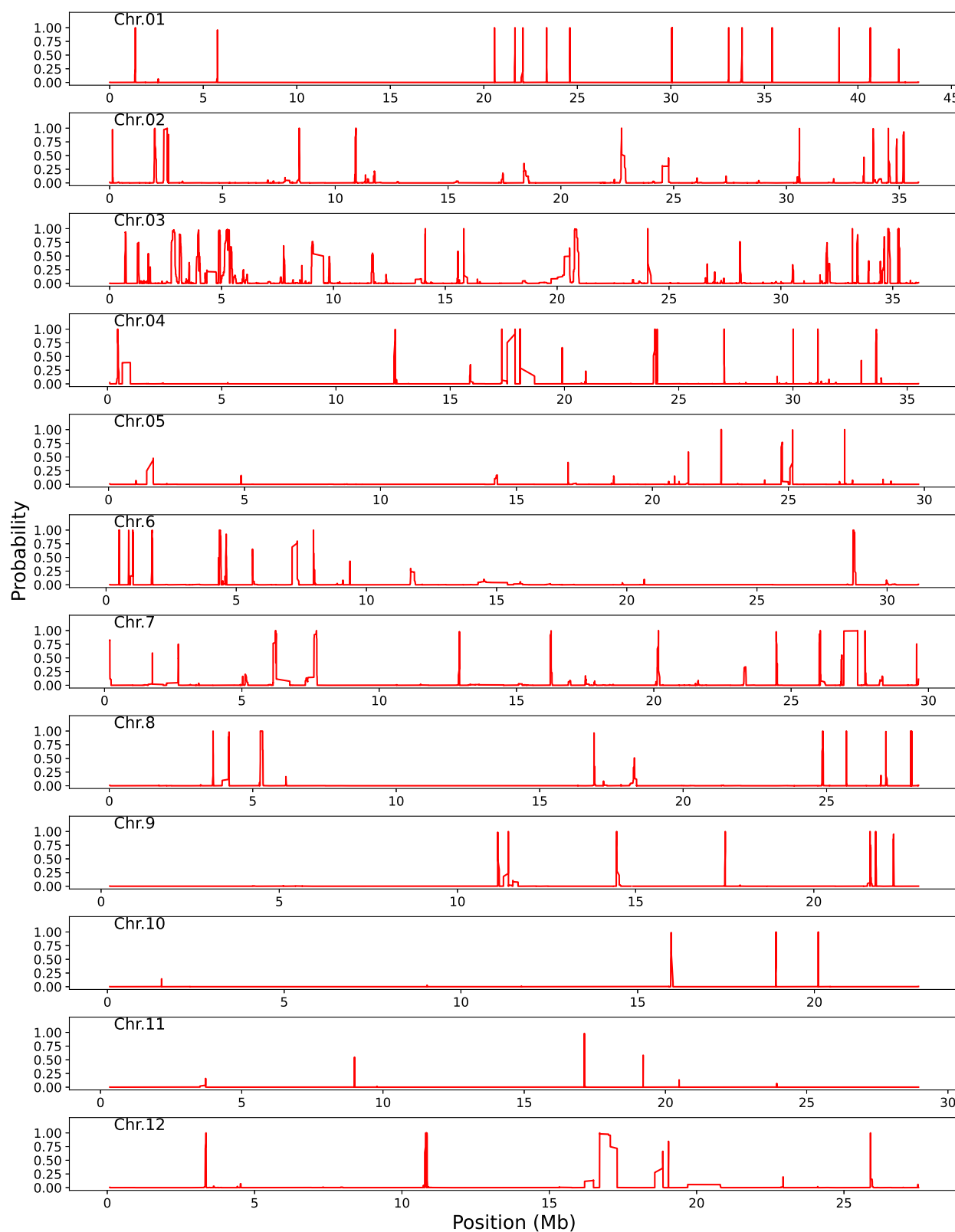


Figure 3: Empirical study: a PHYNCH-inferred genomic map of gBGC and recombination hotspots in rice. A modified posterior decoding was used to infer the probability that a site was contained within a gBGC and recombination hotspot (see Methods for details). Genome coordinates are based on the IRGSP-1.0 *O. s. japonica* reference genome.