Anchor points for genome alignment based on 
*Filtered Spaced Word Matches*

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**Abstract**

Alignment of large genomic sequences is a fundamental task in computational genome analysis. Most methods for genomic alignment use high-scoring local alignments as *anchor points* to reduce the search space of the alignment procedure. Speed and quality of these methods therefore depend on the underlying anchor points. Herein, we propose to use *Filtered Spaced Word Matches* to calculate anchor points for genome alignment. To evaluate this approach, we used these anchor points in the widely used alignment pipeline *Mugsy*. For distantly related sequence sets, we could substantially improve the quality of alignments produced by *Mugsy*.

**Introduction**

Sequence comparison is one of the most fundamental tasks in computational biology. Here, a basic task is to *align* two or several DNA or protein sequences – either *globally*, over their entire length, or *locally*, by restricting the alignment to a single region of homology. Standard approaches to sequence alignment assume that the input sequences derived from a common ancestral sequence, and that evolutionary events are limited to substitutions, insertions and deletions of single residues or small sequence segments. In this case, sequence homologies can be represented by *global sequence alignments*,

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that is by inserting *gap characters* into the sequences such that evolutionarily related sequence positions are arranged on top of each other. Under most scoring schemes, calculating an *optimal* alignment of two sequences takes time proportional to the product of their lengths and is therefore limited to rather short sequences [42, 47, 24, 37, 22].

With the rapidly increasing number of partially or fully sequenced genomes, alignment of *genomic* sequences has become an important field of research in bioinformatics, see [23] for a recent review and evaluation of some of the most popular approaches. Here, the first challenge is the sheer size of the input sequence that makes it impossible to use traditional algorithms with quadratic run time. The second challenge is that related genomes often share *multiple* regions of local sequence homology, interrupted by non-conserved parts of the sequence where no significant similarities can be detected. This means that neither *global* nor *local* alignment methods can properly represent the homologies between whole genomes. Finally, evolutionary events such as duplications and large-scale rearrangements must be taken into account. Since it is not possible, in general, to represent homologies among genomes in one single alignment, advanced genome aligners return alignments of so-called *Locally Collinear Blocks*, i.e. blocks of segments of the input sequences that contain the same genes in the same relative order.

Since the late Nineteen Nineties, major efforts have been made to address the problem of genome alignment, and many approaches have been published. One of the first multiple-alignment programs that was applied to genomic sequences was *DIALIGN* [38, 40]. This program composes multiple alignments from chains of local pairwise alignments, and it does not penalize gaps; it is therefore able to align sequences where local homologies are separated by long non-homologous segments. The program has been applied, for example, to identify small non-coding functional elements in genomic sequences [3, 12]. However, the program was initially not designed for large genomic sequences, and it is limited to sequences up to around 10 kb. Moreover, *DIALIGN* is not able to deal with duplications, rearrangements and homologies on inverse strands of genomes.

To align longer sequences, most programs for genomic alignment rely on some sort of *anchoring* [30, 59]. In a first step, they use a fast method for local alignment to identify high-scoring local homologies, so-called *anchor points*. Next, chains of such local alignments are calculated and, finally, sequence segments between the chained high-scoring local alignments are aligned with a slower but more sensitive alignment method. For multiple sequence sets, anchor points can be defined either between pairs of sequences or between several or all of the input sequences. A pioneering tool to find
anchor points for genomic alignment was \textit{MUMmer} \cite{18}; the current version of the program \cite{32} is considered the state-of-the-art in alignment anchoring. \textit{MUMmer} uses \textit{maximal unique matches} as pairwise anchor points to align genomic sequences or protein sequences. By contrast, \textit{MGA} \cite{28} is a tool for \textit{multiple} alignment of genomic sequences that uses \textit{maximal exact matches} between \textit{all} sequences within a given sequence set. Both \textit{MUMmer} and \textit{MGA} use \textit{suffix trees} \cite{31} to rapidly identify pairs or blocks of identical words, one word from each of the sequences, that are then used as anchor points. Both programs are able to align entire bacterial genomes, \textit{MUMmer} was also used in the \textit{A. thaliana} genome project \cite{48}. However, since the probability of homologous exact matches rapidly decreases with increasing divergence, they are most useful to compare closely related genomes, such as different strains of \textit{E. coli}.

Other approaches to genome alignment are \textit{OWEN} \cite{43}, \textit{AVID} \cite{7}, \textit{MAVID} \cite{8}, \textit{LAGAN} and \textit{Multi-LAGAN} \cite{10}, the \textit{VISTA} \textit{genome pipeline} \cite{21}, \textit{TBA} \cite{5} and \textit{Mauve} \cite{15}, see \cite{19, 4} for a review. All of these methods are based on alignment anchoring, and most of them are able to deal with duplications and genome rearrangements. Some methods for genomic alignments are based on \textit{statistical} properties of the sequences \cite{6, 15}. Other methods are based on \textit{graphs}, for example on \textit{A-Bruijn graphs} \cite{45} or on \textit{cactus graphs} \cite{44}. A further development of \textit{Mauve} called \textit{progressiveMauve} uses palindromic \textit{spaced seeds} instead of exact word matches as anchor points \cite{16}. That is, for a given binary pattern of length $\ell$ representing \textit{match} and \textit{don’t-care} positions, one searches for a set of $\ell$-mers, one $\ell$-mer from each of the input sequences, such that all $\ell$-mers have matching nucleotides at the \textit{match} positions. At the \textit{don’t-care} positions, mismatches are allowed. Palindromic patterns are used to cover both strands of the input sequences. Spaced seeds are used in database searching \cite{36, 17} and alignment-free sequence comparison \cite{33} since they have been shown to lead to better results than contiguous word matches.

\textit{Mugsy} \cite{2} is a popular software pipeline for multiple whole-genome alignment. In a first step, this program uses \textit{Nucmer} \cite{32} to construct all pairwise alignments of the input sequences. \textit{Nucmer}, in turn, uses \textit{MUMmer} to find exact unique word matches which are used as alignment anchor points. An \textit{alignment graph} is constructed from these pairwise alignments using the \textit{SeqAn} software \cite{20}, and \textit{Locally Collinear Blocks} are constructed. Finally, a multiple alignment is calculated using \textit{SeqAn::TCoffee} \cite{46}. \textit{Mugsy} has been designed to align closely related genomes, such as different strains of a bacterium. Here, it produces alignments of high quality. On more distantly related genomes, however, the program is often outperformed by other mul-
ultiple genome aligners [23].

Finding anchor points is the most important step in whole-genome sequence alignment. Here, a trade-off between speed, sensitivity and precision is necessary. A sufficient number of anchor points is required in order to reduce the search space and thereby the run time for the subsequent, more sensitive alignment routine. Wrongly chosen anchor points, on the other hand, can substantially deteriorate the quality of the final output alignment. If spurious similarities are used as anchor points, this not only results in non-homologous parts of the sequences being aligned. Wrong anchor points may also prevent the program from aligning biologically relevant, true homologies since aligning them may be incompatible with the selected anchors. Also, if the number of anchor points is too large, finding optimal chains of anchor points can become computationally expensive.

In this paper, we propose a novel algorithm to find pairwise anchor points for genomic alignments that is based on the Filtered Spaced Word Matches (FSWM) idea that we previously introduced [34]. Anchor points are calculated using a hit-and-extend approach where high-scoring spaced-word matches are used as seeds: for an underlying binary pattern of length \( \ell \) representing match and don’t care positions, we rapidly identify spaced-word matches, i.e. length-\( \ell \) segment pairs from the input sequences with matching nucleotides at the match positions but with possible mismatches at the don’t care positions. For each spaced-word match, we then calculate a similarity score considering all aligned positions — including the don’t-care positions —, and we keep only those spaced-word matches that have a score above a certain threshold. These segment pairs are then extended to locally-maximal gap-free alignments, similar as in BLAST [1]. To evaluate our anchoring approach, we used the Mugsy pipeline using our software in the initial step, to find anchor points. For closely related input sequences, the quality of the resulting alignments is comparable to the original version of Mugsy where exact word matches are used for anchoring. Our approach is far superior, however, if distal sequences are to be aligned, where most other alignment approaches either fail to produce alignments or require an unacceptable amount of time.

Through our web site, we provide the adapted Mugsy pipeline with our anchoring approach as a pipeline for genome-sequence alignment that can be readily installed. A standalone version of our spaced-words software is provided as well, such that developers can integrate it into their own sequence-analysis pipelines.
Filtered Spaced Word Matches

For a sequence $S$ of length $L$ over an alphabet $\Sigma$ and $0 < i \leq L$, $S[i]$ denotes the $i$-th symbol of $S$. For integers $w \leq \ell$ and weight $w$ is a word over $\{0, 1\}$ of length $\ell$ such that there are exactly $w$ indices $i$ with $P[i] = 1$. These positions are called match positions, while positions $i$ with $P[i] = 0$ are called don’t-care positions. A spaced word with respect to a pattern $P$ is a word $w$ over $\Sigma \cup \{\ast\}$ where ‘$\ast$’ is a wildcard character not contained in $\Sigma$, and $w[k] = \ast$ holds if and only if $k$ is a don’t-care position, i.e. if $P[k] = 0$, see also \[33, 29\]. A spaced word $w$ with respect to a pattern $P$ occurs in a sequence $S$ at position $i$ if $S[i+k-1] = w[k]$ for all match positions $k$ of the pattern $P$.

For sequences $S_1$ and $S_2$ with lengths $L_1$ and $L_2$, respectively and a pattern $P$ of length $\ell$, and $1 \leq i \leq L_1 - \ell + 1, 1 \leq j \leq L_2 - \ell + 1$, we say that there is spaced-word match between $S_1$ and $S_2$ at $(i, j)$ with respect to $P$ if the spaced words at $i$ in $S_1$ and at $j$ in $S_2$ are identical - in other words, if for all match positions $k$ in $P$, one has

$$S_1[i+k-1] = S_2[j+k-1].$$

Below is a spaced-word match between two DNA sequences $S_1$ and $S_2$ at $(5, 2)$ with respect to the pattern $P = 1100101$:

$S_1$:

$G$ $C$ $T$ $G$ $T$ $A$ $T$ $A$ $C$ $G$ $T$ $C$

$S_2$:

$S$ $T$ $A$ $C$ $A$ $C$ $T$ $T$ $A$ $T$

$P$:

1 1 0 0 1 0 1

Indeed, the spaced word ‘TA $\ast\ast C \ast T$’ occurs at positions 5 in $S_1$ and at position 2 in $S_2$.

Herein, we propose to use spaced-word matches as a first step to calculate anchor points for pairwise alignment. We therefore need some criterion to distinguish between spaced-word matches representing true homologies and random background matches. In a previous paper, we used spaced-word matches to estimate phylogenetic distances between genomic sequences \[34\]. To this end, we first identified all spaced-word matches with respect to a given pattern $P$. To remove spurious random spaced-word matches, we applied a simple filtering procedure: using a nucleotide substitution matrix \[13\], we calculated for each spaced-word match the sum scores of all aligned pairs of nucleotides (including match and don’t-care positions), and we removed all spaced-word matches with a score below zero.

A graphical representation of the spaced-word matches between two sequences shows that this procedure can clearly separate random spaced-word

\[5\]
Figure 1: *Spaced-words histogram* for a comparison of two bacterial genomes, *Phaeobacter gallaeciensis* 2.10 and *Rhodobacterales bacterium Y4I*. All possible spaced-word matches with respect to a given binary pattern $P$ are identified, and their scores are calculated as explained in the main text. The number of spaced-word matches with a score $s$ is plotted against $s$. Two peaks are visible, an approximately normally distributed peak for background spaced-word matches, and a more complex peak for spaced-word matches representing homologies. With a cut-off value of zero, background and homologous spaced-word matches can be reliably separated.

matches from true homologies. If we plot for each possible score value $s$ the number of spaced-word matches with score $s$, we obtain a bimodal distribution with one peak for random matches and a second peak for homologies. We call such a plot a *spaced-words histogram*. For simulated sequence pairs under a simple model of evolution, both peaks are normally distributed. For real-world sequences, the random peak is still normally distributed, but the ‘homologous’ peak is more complex, see Figure 1. Even so, using a cut-off value of zero can clearly distinguish between random matches and true homologies. More examples for *spaced-words histograms* are given in [34].

Our approach to find anchor points for pairwise genomic alignment is as follows. For given parameters $\ell$ and $w$, we first calculate a binary pattern
with length $\ell$ and weight (number of match positions) $w$ using our recently developed software rasbhari [25]. We then identify all spaced-word matches with respect to $P$. To find homologies even for distantly related sequences, we use patterns with a low weight; by default, we use a weight of $w = 10$. On the other hand, we use a large number of don’t-care positions, since this makes it easier to distinguish true homologies from random spaced-word matches. By default, we use a pattern length of $\ell = 110$, so our patterns contain 10 match positions and 100 don’t-care positions; we use the following nucleotide substitution matrix described in [13]:

\[
\begin{array}{c|cccc}
  & A & C & G & T \\
\hline
A & 91 & -114 & -31 & -123 \\
C & 100 & -125 & -31 & \\
G & 100 & -114 & & \\
T & & & & 91 \\
\end{array}
\]

Based on this matrix, we calculate the score of each spaced-word match as the sum of the substitution scores of all aligned pairs of nucleotides. We then discard all spaced-word matches with a score below zero.

Next, we extend the identified spaced-word matches in both directions without gaps. As the starting point for this extension, we do not use the full spaced-word matches, but their mid points. The reason for this is that, with our long patterns, even a high-scoring spaced-word match may not represent sequence homologies over its entire length. It often occurs that some part of a spaced-word alignes homologous nucleotides, but another part extends into non-homologous regions of the sequences. There is a high probability, however, that the mid point of a long, high-scoring spaced-word match is located within a region of true homology. Finally, we use the produced ‘extended’ gap-free alignments as anchor points for alignment.

**Evaluation**

To evaluate Filtered Spaced Word Matches (FSWM) and to compare it to the state-of-the-art approach to alignment anchoring, we used the Mugsy software system. As mentioned above, the original Mugsy uses MUMmer to find pairwise anchor points. We replaced MUMmer in the Mugsy pipeline by our FSWM-based anchor points and evaluated the resulting multiple alignments. In addition, we compared these alignments to alignments produced by the multiple genome aligner Cactus [44]. Cactus is known to be one of the best existing tools for multiple genome alignment; it performed excellent
in the Alignathon study [23]. To measure the performance of the compared methods, we used simulated genomic sequences as well as three sets of real genomes. To make MUMmer directly comparable to FSWM, we used a minimum length of 10 nt for maximum unique matches, corresponding to the default weight (sum of match positions) used in Spaced Words. Note that, by default, MUMmer uses a minimum length of 15 nt. With this default value, however, we obtained alignments of much lower quality. The Cactus tool was run with default values.

Simulated genome sequences

To simulate genomic sequences, we used the Artificial Life Framework (ALF) developed by Dalquen et al. [14]. ALF evolves gene sequences based on a probabilistic model along a randomly generated tree, starting with an ancestral gene. During this process evolutionary events are logged such that the true MSA is known for each simulated gene family. This true MSA can then be used as reference to assess the quality of automatically generated alignments.

We generated a series of 14 data sets, each containing 30 simulated ‘genomes’, with increasing mutation rates for the different data sets. For all other parameters in ALF, we used the default settings. In each data set, there are 750 simulated gene families such that one gene from each gene family is present in each of the 30 simulated genomes. Thus, each of the ‘genomes’ contains the same set of 750 genes. We varied the mutation rates between an average of 0.1013 substitutions per position for the first data set to an average of 0.8349 substitutions per position for the 14th data set. The maximal pairwise distances between all pairs of sequences within one data set ranges from 0.1640 for the first to 1.0923 for the 14th data set. The simulated genes have an average length of about 1500 bp, summing up to a total size of about 32 MB per data set.

To assess the quality of the produced alignments, we calculated recall and precision values in the usual way. If, for one given data set, $S$ is the set of all positions in the 30 simulated genomes, we denote by $A \subset S^2$ the set of all pairs of positions aligned by the alignment that is to be evaluated while $R \subset S^2$ denotes the set of all pairs of positions aligned in the reference alignment. recall and precision are then defined as

$$\text{recall} = \frac{|A \cap R|}{|R|}, \quad \text{precision} = \frac{|A \cap R|}{|A|} \quad (1)$$

The harmonic mean of recall and precision is called the balanced F-score and
is often used as an overall measure of accuracy; it is thus defined as

\[ F_{\text{score}} = 2 \times \frac{\text{precision} \times \text{recall}}{\text{precision} + \text{recall}} \]

To estimate these three values, we used the tool \textit{mafComparator} which was also used in the \textit{Alignathon} study [23]. Since it is impractical to consider the entire set \( S^2 \) of pairs of positions of the test sequences, we sampled 10 million pairs of positions for each data set. This corresponds to the evaluation procedure used in \textit{Alignathon}.

For the simulated sequence sets, their \textit{precision} and \textit{recall} values are shown in Figure 2. For data sets with smaller mutation rates, alignments obtained with \textit{FSWM} are only slightly better than those obtained with \textit{MUMmer}. However, if the mutation rate increases, our spaced-words approach substantially outperforms the original version of \textit{Mugsy} where exact word matches are used to find anchor points. Not only more homologies are detected but also the \textit{precision} is slightly higher if \textit{Filtered Spaced Word Matches} is used instead of \textit{MUMmer}.

**Real-world genome sequences**

For real-world genome families, it is usually not possible to calculate the \textit{precision} of MSA programs because it is, in general, not known which sequence positions exactly are homologous to each other and which ones are not. If there are \textit{core blocks} of the sequences for which the biologically correct alignment is known, at least the \textit{recall} can be calculated for these core blocks. For most genome sequences, however, no such core blocks are available. To evaluate \textit{Mugsy}, the authors of the program used the number of \textit{core columns} of the produced alignments as a criterion for alignment quality [2]. Here, a \textit{core column} is defined as a column that does not contain gaps, \textit{i.e.} a column that aligns nucleotides from all of the input sequences. In addition, the authors of \textit{Mugsy} used the \textit{number of pairs of aligned positions} of the aligned sequences as an indicator of alignment quality. In this paper, we are using the same criteria to evaluate multiple alignments of real-world genomes.

As a first real-word example, we used a set of 29 \textit{E.coli/Shigella} genomes that has already been used in the original \textit{Mugsy} paper, see \textit{supplementary material} for details; these sequences have also been used to evaluate alignment-free methods [26, 49, 41]. The total size of this data set is about 141 MB. As a second test set, we used another prokaryotic data set which consists of 32 complete \textit{Roseobacter} genomes (details in the \textit{supplementary material}).
Figure 2: Recall and Precision of Mugsy with anchor points from Filtered Spaced Word Matches (FSWM) and MUMmer, respectively, and of Cactus on simulated genomic sequences generated with ALF, see main text for details. FSWM was used with the default weight $w = 10$, i.e. with 10 match positions in the underlying pattern. In addition, we ran FSWM with $w = 8$.

material). This data set was used to assess the performance on more distantly related organisms than the E.coli/Shigella strains. The total size of these data set is about 135 MB. To test our approach on eukaryotic genomes, we used as a third test case a set of nine fungal genomes, namely Coprinopsis
Figure 3: F-Score of Mugsy with anchor points from Filtered Spaced Word Matches and MUMmer, respectively, and of Cactus on simulated genomic sequences generated with ALF.

cinerea, Neurospora crassa, Aspergillus terreus, Aspergillus nidulans, Histoplasma capsulatum, Paracoccidioides brasiliensis, Saccharomyces cerevisiae, Schizosaccharomyces pombe and Ustilago maydis (genbank accession numbers are given in the supplementary material). The total size of this third data set is about 253 MB. The results of Mugsy with MUMmer and FSWM for the three real-world data sets are shown in Table 1, together with the results obtained with Cactus. In addition to the number of core columns and the number of aligned pairs of positions, the table contains the number of core Locally Collinear Blocks, i.e. the number of Locally Collinear Blocks involving all of the input sequences, and the total number of Locally Collinear Blocks returned by the alignment programs.

Program run time
Table 2 reports the program run times of Mugsy with FSWM, Mugsy with MUMmer and Cactus on the above three real-world sequence sets. In addition, the table contains the run times for FSWM and MUMmer alone.
Table 1: Multiple alignments of 29 *E.coli/Shigella* genomes, 32 *Roseobacter* genomes and 9 fungal genomes, calculated with *Mugsy* using anchor points from our spaced-words approach and from *MUMs*, respectively, and with *Cactus*. The first column contains the number of core columns, i.e. the number of columns in the multiple alignment that do not contain gaps; the second column contains the total number of aligned pairs of positions in the alignment. The third column contains the number of core Locally Collinear Blocks (LCBs) i.e. the number of LCBs that involve all of the aligned genomes (‘core LCBs’), while the last column contains the total number of LCBs.

|                       | # core LCBs | # aligned pairs   | # core col. | # LCBs |
|-----------------------|-------------|------------------|-------------|--------|
| **29 E.coli/Shigella genomes** |             |                  |             |        |
| *Mugsy + MUMmer*      | 539         | 1.61E+09         | 2,827,115   | 4,138  |
| *Mugsy + FSWM*        | 664         | 1.63E+09         | 2,867,432   | 5,906  |
| *Cactus*              | 20,163      | 1.48E+09         | 2,663,750   | 56,592 |
| **32 Roseobacter genomes** |             |                  |             |        |
| *Mugsy + MUMmer*      | 39          | 3.63E+08         | 13,654      | 13,501 |
| *Mugsy + FSWM*        | 859         | 7.15E+08         | 824,054     | 30,836 |
| *Cactus*              | 5,984       | 4.95E+08         | 280,085     | 337,320|
| **9 fungal genomes**  |             |                  |             |        |
| *Mugsy + MUMmer*      | 9           | 5.88E+06         | 2,097       | 4,252  |
| *Mugsy + FSWM*        | 2,590       | 1.18E+08         | 718,176     | 89,555 |
| *Cactus*              | 31,589      | 1.33E+08         | 828,680     | 848,242|

1 Discussion

In this paper, we proposed a novel approach to calculate anchor points for genome alignment. Finding suitable anchor points is a critical step in all methods for genome alignment, since the selected anchor points determine which regions of the sequences can be aligned to each other in the final alignment. A sufficient number of anchor points is necessary to keep the search space and run time of the main alignment procedure manageable, so sensitive methods are needed to find anchor points. Wrongly selected anchor points, on the other hand, can seriously deteriorate the quality of the final alignments, so anchoring procedures must also be highly specific.

Earlier approaches to genomic alignment used exact word matches as anchor points [18, 28], since such matches can be easily found using suffix trees and related indexing structures. These approaches are limited, however, to
situations where closely related genomes are to be aligned, for example different strains of a bacterium. In modern approaches to database searching, spaced seeds are used to find potential sequence homologies [35, 27, 11]. Here, binary patterns of match and don’t care positions are used, and two sequence segments of the corresponding length are considered to match if identical residues are aligned at the match positions, while mismatches are allowed at the don’t care positions. Such pattern-based approaches are more sensitive than previous methods that relied on exact word matches.

We previously proposed to apply the ‘spaced-seeds’ idea to alignment-free sequence comparison, by replacing contiguous words by so-called spaced words, i.e. by words that contain wildcard characters at certain pre-defined positions [33]. More recently, we introduced filtered spaced word matches [34] to estimate phylogenetic distances between genome sequences. In the latter approach, we first identify spaced-word matches using relatively long patterns with only few match positions. For the identified matching segments, we then look at all aligned pairs of nucleotides, including the ones at the don’t-care positions, and we discard spaced-word matches if the overall degree of similarity between the two segments is below a threshold. Phylogenetic distances can be estimated based on the aligned nucleotides at the don’t-care positions of the remaining spaced-word matches. We showed that this procedure is fast and highly sensitive, and it can reliably distinguish between true homologies and spurious sequence similarities.

In the present study, we used filtered spaced word matches to calculate high-quality anchor points for genomic sequence alignment. Instead of using spaced-word matches directly as anchor points, we extend them into both directions, similar to the hit-and-extend approach to database searching. To evaluate these anchor points, we integrated them into the popular genome-alignment pipeline Mugsy. Test runs on simulated genome sequences show that, for closely related sequences, Mugsy produces alignments of high qual-

|          | E.coli/Shigella | Roseobacter | fungal genomes |
|----------|----------------|-------------|---------------|
| FSWM     | 59             | 83          | 110           |
| FSWM + Mugsy | 638          | 6428        | 1488          |
| MUMmer   | 73             | 63          | 43            |
| MUMmer + Mugsy | 286         | 1099        | 63            |
| Cactus   | 714            | 1775        | 775           |

Table 2: Run time in minutes for three different multiple genome-alignment methods applied to the three test data sets that we used in our program evaluation.
ity with both types of anchor points. For more distantly related sequences, however, the recall values of the program drop dramatically if anchor points are calculated with MUMmer while, with our spaced-word matches, one observes recall values close to 100% for distances up to around 0.7 substitutions per position.

For real-world genomes, it is more difficult to evaluate the performance of genome aligners since there is only limited information available on which positions are homologous to each other and which ones are not. Angiuoli and Salzberg [2] therefore used the number of aligned pairs of positions as an indicator of alignment quality, together with the size of the ‘core alignment’, i.e. the number of alignments columns that do not contain gaps. At first glance, these criteria might seem questionable; it would be trivial to maximize these values, simply by aligning sequences without internal gaps, by adding gaps only at the ends of the shorter sequences. However, as shown in Figure 2 all MSA programs in our study have high precision values, i.e. positions aligned by these programs are likely to be true homologs. In this situation, the number of aligned position pairs and size of the ‘core alignment’ can be considered as a proxy for the recall of the applied methods i.e. the proportion of homologies that are correctly aligned.

For distantly related sequence sets, the total run time of Mugsy is much higher with our FSWM anchoring approach than with MUMmer. One reason for the increased run time with FSWM is the fact that, with spaced-words, far more Locally Collinear Blocks are detected, than if exact word matches are used as anchor points, especially for distantly related sequences where exact word matching is not very sensitive. One possible solution for this issue would be to apply user-defined threshold values for the total number of returned Locally Collinear Blocks or for their similarity scores, to reduce the run time of the final alignment procedure for large genomic sequences.

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