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2   # Regulatory genome annotation of 33 insect species
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4   Hasiba Asma[1], Ellen Tieke[2], Kevin D. Deem[2§], Jabale Rahmat[2], Tiffany Dong[1], Xinbo Huang[1],
5   Yoshinori Tomoyasu[2] and Marc S. Halfon[1,3,4,5,*]
6
7   [1]Program in Genetics, Genomics, and Bioinformatics, University at Buffalo-State University of
8   New York, Buffalo NY 14203
9
10   [2]Department of Biology, Miami University, Oxford OH 45056
11
12   [3]Department of Biochemistry, University at Buffalo-State University of New York, Buffalo NY
13   14203
14
15   [4]Department of Biomedical Informatics, University at Buffalo-State University of New York,
16   Buffalo NY 14203
17
18   [5]Department of Biological Sciences, University at Buffalo-State University of New York,
19   Buffalo NY 14260
20
21
22
23
24   *Author for Correspondence at:
25
26   Jacobs School of Medicine and Biomedical Sciences
27   University at Buffalo
28   955 Main St.
29   Room 5128
30   Buffalo, NY 14203
31
32   716-829-3126
33
34   mshalfon@buffalo.edu
35
36
37
38   [§]Present address:
39   Department of Biology
40   University of Rochester
41   Rochester, NY 14627
42

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ABSTRACT

Annotation of newly-sequenced genomes frequently includes genes, but rarely covers important

non-coding genomic features such as the *cis*-regulatory modules—e.g., enhancers and

silencers—that regulate gene expression. Here, we begin to remedy this situation by developing

a workflow for rapid initial annotation of insect regulatory sequences, and provide a searchable

database resource with enhancer predictions for 33 genomes. Using our previously-developed

SCRMshaw computational enhancer prediction method, we predict over 2.8 million regulatory

sequences along with the tissues where they are expected to be active, in a set of insect species

ranging over 360 million years of evolution. Extensive analysis and validation of the data

provides several lines of evidence suggesting that we achieve a high true-positive rate for

enhancer prediction. One, we show that our predictions target specific loci, rather than random

genomic locations. Two, we predict enhancers in orthologous loci across a diverged set of

species to a significantly higher degree than random expectation would allow. Three, we

demonstrate that our predictions are highly enriched for regions of accessible chromatin. Four,

we achieve a validation rate in excess of 70% using in vivo reporter gene assays. As we continue

to annotate both new tissues and new species, our regulatory annotation resource will provide a

rich source of data for the research community and will have utility for both small-scale (single

gene, single species) and large-scale (many genes, many species) studies of gene regulation. In

particular, the ability to search for functionally-related regulatory elements in orthologous loci

should greatly facilitate studies of enhancer evolution even among distantly related species.

INTRODUCTION

The past two decades have witnessed an explosive rise in sequenced metazoan genomes, from a mere handful in the first few years of the century to over 8,000 today (ref. 1; accessed 16 January 2024). This impressive statistic, however, masks the reality that these genomes exist in various stages of completion. Fewer than 30% of these genomes are assembled at the chromosome level, and only 28% of those have a comprehensive annotation (1). Moreover, almost none of the genome annotations include regulatory sequences (also referred to as *cis*-regulatory modules, or CRMs) such as enhancers and silencers. This is unfortunate, as CRMs comprise a significant percentage of the genome, and knowledge of these sequences is expected to have value comparable to that of knowing the protein-coding genes. Characterizing CRMs is critical for understanding mechanisms of gene regulation and the organization of gene regulatory networks. Moreover, the role of regulatory mutations is increasingly recognized as a driver of both evolution and disease (2-6).

One reason for the overall dearth of regulatory annotations is that, historically, large-scale CRM discovery has been difficult and both resource and labor intensive (7). For much of the last four decades, CRMs could only be identified through painstaking, low-throughput experimental assays. Although in recent years high-throughput empirical and computational CRM discovery methods have been developed, the various different methods frequently show limited agreement (8-10), with the result that comprehensive CRM annotation across all cell types and life-cycle stages has remained a challenge for all but the most exhaustively studied model organisms. The problem is particularly acute for the insects. Insects represent a species-rich class—they constitute somewhere between 65%-90% of all animal species (11, 12)—and have major impacts

on human health and agriculture. The early radiation of the insects, coupled with typically short

generation times, means that most of the relevant biomedically and agriculturally important

species share little non-coding sequence conservation with each other or with the principal insect

model species, *Drosophila melanogaster*. Thus, common sequence-homology based CRM

discovery approaches are of little use in providing regulatory insights into these species, and

knowledge transfers poorly from one species to another. Furthermore, many insects have a

complex and varied life cycle, making it particularly important—yet onerous—to assay for CRM

function at multiple stages.

We previously developed a powerful computational method, SCRMshaw ("Supervised *Cis*-

Regulatory Module prediction"), for accurate prediction of CRMs, particularly enhancers (13-

15). (Although we expect SCRMshaw to be adept at finding multiple CRM types, our validation

efforts to date have focused solely on enhancers.) SCRMshaw requires only a sequenced genome

and a "training set" of some 15-30 known enhancers that regulate a common pattern of gene

expression (e.g., midgut expression) and relies on the idea that enhancers with similar function

will have similar sequence characteristics, not possible to detect by eye or by traditional

alignment methods, but identifiable using machine-learning. Although not universally true, this

assumption is robust enough to allow effective enhancer discovery without requiring knowledge

of transcription factor binding sites or of the expression patterns of the genes being regulated.

Importantly, we have shown that we can leverage the wealth of existing *D. melanogaster*

enhancer data (16) to train models for *cross-species* supervised enhancer discovery in diverged

(160-345 million years (MY)) insect species—including flies, mosquitoes, beetles, bees, and

wasps—despite a virtually complete lack of observable alignment at the non-coding sequence

level (17-20).

Here, we use SCRMshaw to undertake an initial regulatory annotation of 33 individual insect

genomes, using a collection of 48 training sets composed of experimentally validated *D.*

melanogaster enhancers. These species are spread across five orders spanning over 360 MY of

evolution, and represent roughly 10% of annotated insect species with scaffold-level or better

assembly. Annotated predicted enhancers are provided in a searchable database that allows

querying by species, tissue/cell type, or potential target gene. A series of simulations as well as *in*

silico and *in vivo* validation experiments demonstrate the effectiveness of our approach and place

an upper bound on false positive prediction rates. Our results represent the first release of a rich

insect regulatory genome annotation resource, which will continue to grow and annotate insect

regulatory genomes in parallel with the sequencing of new insect genomes.

RESULTS

We previously demonstrated that SCRMshaw is remarkably effective at predicting enhancers

across the entire ~345 MY range of the holometabolous insects, using training data derived

solely from *D. melanogaster* (17, 19). SCRMshaw (Fig. 1A) uses training sets composed of

known enhancers defined by a common functional characterization (e.g. "nervous system,"

"wing disc") to build a statistical model that captures their short DNA subsequence (kmer) count

distribution. This kmer distribution is then compared to that of a set of non-enhancer

"background" sequences in a machine-learning framework. The kmers likely serve as proxies for

the unknown transcription factor binding sites, but these sites themselves, even when known, are

not explicitly used by the algorithm. The trained model is then used to score overlapping

sequence windows in the genome, and the highest-scoring windows are output as predicted

enhancers (13, 14, 21). When searching the genomes of the mosquitoes *Anopheles gambiae* and

Aedes aegypti, the red flour beetle *Tribolium castaneum,* the honey bee *Apis mellifera,* and the

wasp *Nasonia vitripennis,* SCRMshaw successfully predicted enhancers in a cross-species

fashion with an approximately 75% prediction success rate, based on reporter gene assays in

xenotransgenic *D. melanogaster* (chosen as a pragmatic transgene host species) and comparison

to already-identified enhancers in the other species (17-20). These results suggest that there are

significant, albeit hidden, homologies governing the sequence characteristics of insect enhancers,

at least for those involved in a substantial number of gene regulatory networks, and motivated us

to apply SCRMshaw to a large and diverse set of sequenced insect genomes.

A cross-species SCRMshaw pipeline

To facilitate application of SCRMshaw to large numbers of newly-sequenced genomes, we

developed a detailed workflow to ensure proper formatting of input genomes, rapid prediction of

tissue-specific enhancer sequences, evaluation of results, and annotation of loci with information

drawn from the respective orthologous regions in the richly-investigated *D. melanogaster*

genome (Fig. 1B; see Methods). The workflow consists of four major steps:

Preflight: SCRMshaw requires two input files for each genome: a FASTA-formatted file of the

genome sequence itself, and a GFFv3-formatted file of the genome annotation. The genome file

is masked for tandem repeats using Tandem Repeat Finder (22). *Preflight* validates the formats

of these files and produces a comprehensive log file that highlights any issues along with basic

information such as the number of chromosomes/scaffolds and their sizes, data types present in

the annotation (e.g., 'gene', 'exon', 'ncRNA', etc.), and average intergenic distances. *Preflight*

also provides a sample output of the SCRMshaw-generated 'gene' and 'exon' files. This feature

allows users to identify any discrepancies or errors stemming from the input files and to reformat

these files as needed before running SCRMshaw. Any minor scaffolds that are not annotated as

containing genes are discarded.

SCRMshaw: SCRMshaw is run as previously described (15), using the "HD" variant (21).

Post-processing: The raw SCRMshaw output is post-processed to determine the final set of

predicted enhancers. The original post-processing procedure described in (21) had a tendency to

predict enhancers skewed toward long lengths (median ~ 1100 bp). We have revised that method

here (see Methods) to yield predictions of more compact size (median 750 bp), which is more in

keeping with empirically characterized enhancer lengths (23).

Orthology mapping: As a final step, we map all putative target genes in the SCRMshaw output to

their *D. melanogaster* orthologs (if an ortholog exists) using a custom pipeline incorporating the

Orthologer software from the Zdobnov lab (24) (see Methods). We use *D. melanogaster* as it has

by far the most comprehensive gene annotation of the insects and thus provides the most detailed

functional information for each gene. Mapping the genes from each species to a common

ortholog allows us to assess whether we have obtained predicted enhancers in orthologous loci

within the various species on which we have run SCRMshaw. The orthology mapping step

requires that a set of predicted proteins is present as part of the existing genome annotation.

Annotation of 33 insect genomes

We ran our annotation pipeline on an initial set of 33 genomes (additional genome annotation is

ongoing). These initial genomes were chosen based on availability and to sample broadly among

the holometabolous insect orders and the Hemiptera (Fig 2A; Table 1). For each genome, we ran

SCRMshaw using a collection of 48 training sets (Supplemental Table S1) and all three

SCRMshaw scoring methods ("IMM," "hexMCD", "PAC-rc"; (13, 14)). For fifteen species

where a protein annotation was available, we assigned *D. melanogaster* orthologs to each

predicted locus, with an average of 54% (range 38-82%) of genes in a given species having a *D.*

melanogaster ortholog (Fig. 2B).

Collectively, we predicted a total of 2,873,192 enhancers in these 33 species, with each species

having on average approximately 87,000 predictions (Supplemental Table S2) (Fig. 2C). (As

some enhancers are predicted by multiple scoring methods, or from more than one training set,

the number of unique sequences is lower at 1,164,354; see gray bars in Fig. 2C.) The median

length of the predicted enhancers across all species was 750 bp (mean 695, range 490-32500 bp).

However, we noted the presence of a small number—2642, < 0.1% of the total—of unusually

large regions (> 2000 bp), the bulk of which were confined to just a few genomes (Supplemental

Fig. S1). We therefore discarded any predictions with length greater than 1.5 times the

interquartile range of the complete prediction set and re-evaluated the size distribution. This

resulted in a median size of 740 bp with a mean of 676 bp and a range of 490-1120 bp, indicating

that the overall impact of these outlier sequences is minimal (Fig. 2D). Inspection of the

excessively large elements revealed that they result from SCRMshaw predictions that lie

immediately adjacent to each other (without gaps) and have similar SCRMshaw scores, which

thus become merged into one broad predicted element. Preliminary analysis suggests that these

regions result from insufficient masking of tandem repeat regions and/or genome assembly

errors, although other causes, such as extremely enhancer-dense "superenhancer" regions

(reviewed by 25), cannot entirely be ruled out.

Many loci contain multiple enhancer predictions

We have noted in the past that SCRMshaw often predicts multiple enhancers in a single locus

(e.g. 26). This is consistent with the concept of "shadow enhancers," sets of multiple redundant

or semi-redundant enhancers regulating the same gene (reviewed by 27). On the other hand, if

SCRMshaw is predicting enhancers with low specificity (i.e., largely at random), it is instead

possible that larger loci may just accumulate a high number of predictions simply due to their

greater length.

To distinguish between these possibilities, we conducted simulations on three representative

genomes (*D. melanogaster, C. pipiens,* and *A. aegypti*), each with a different average intergenic

region size chosen to represent small, medium and large genomes respectively (average sizes 610

bp, 5,274.5 bp, and 14,641 bp; see Methods). We randomized the location of SCRMshaw

predictions across the non-coding component of each genome and compared the randomized

results to our SCRMshaw output. We found that, for a subset of loci, the number of real

SCRMshaw predictions per locus was consistently higher than the number obtained at random

(Supplemental Table S3). For example, using the *mapping1.visceral_mesoderm* training set,

4.6% (15/328) of *D. melanogaster* loci containing one or more SCRMshaw predictions had a

significantly ($P<0.001$) larger number of predictions/locus than expected, 1.5% (10/658) of *C.*

pipiens loci had more predictions than expected, and 1% (3/299) of *A. aegypti* loci had excess

predicted enhancers (Supplemental Table S3). Similarly, for the *mapping2.ectoderm* training set,

7.6%, 1.5%, and 11% of loci in the three species, respectively, had a significantly ($P<0.001$)

greater than expected number of predictions per locus (Supplemental Table S3). Averaged over

all training sets, 3-4% of loci with predictions had significantly more than expected by chance

(mean values: 3.0% for *D. melanogaster*, 3.0% for *C. pipiens*, and 3.7% for *A. aegypti*;

maximum values: 10.2% for *D. melanogaster,* 9.3% for *C. pipiens*, and 11.6% for *A. aegypti*).

Only very few training sets did not have any loci with significantly more enhancers than

expected (1 set in *A. aegypti,* 1 in *C. pipiens* and 8 in *D. melanogaster*; Supplemental Table S3).

To further ensure that these results were not influenced by locus size, we binned the loci by

length and assessed the numbers of real versus simulated predictions/locus for each bin. The

binned results were similar to the results using all loci, i.e., the number of SCRMshaw

predictions/locus (Fig. 3, blue boxplots) was consistently higher than the number obtained via

randomization (Fig. 3, pink boxplots). Results were also similar when comparing predictions

only at intergenic versus only at intronic positions (Supplemental Table S3). These results

suggest that SCRMshaw is not predicting enhancers randomly throughout the genome, but rather

is identifying multiple related "shadow" enhancers in a subset of loci. Consistent with this

interpretation, functional tests of the full set of predicted enhancers in several *D. melanogaster*

loci has confirmed that many of the predictions act as functionally similar enhancers (T.

Williams, personal communication).

SCRMshaw predicts enhancers in orthologous loci across species

A major premise underlying cross-species applications of SCRMshaw is that conserved

regulatory strategies should allow for a model trained on enhancers in one species to predict for

similar enhancers in another species. We reasoned that at least some of the time, this should lead

to identification of enhancers in orthologous loci, as orthologous genes are frequently involved in

similar biological pathways and developmental regulatory networks (3). Indeed, we previously

showed that SCRMshaw was able to predict enhancers in several orthologous loci, for instance

those for the *single-minded* locus in *D. melanogaster, A. gambiae,* and *A. mellifera,* and the

wingless locus in *D. melanogaster, A. mellifera,* and *T. castaneum* (17). To test whether this is

generally true, we used the fifteen species with mapped *D. melanogaster* orthologs (plus *D.*

melanogaster itself), and all 48 of our training sets, to compare the number of SCRMshaw-based

versus random predictions obtained in common (orthologous) loci.

We observed a substantial reduction in the number of orthologous loci with predictions in

common as we moved from considering a set of ten to the full set of all sixteen species (average

number of common loci over all 48 training sets: 70.7 (10 species) > 39.4. > 19.8 > 9.14 > 4.12 >

1.6 > 0.6 (16 species) out of an average number of 640 predictions with mapped orthologs) (Fig.

4A, Supplemental Table S4a). This rapid decline is likely due to a variety of factors, including

differences in taxonomic order (e.g., Diptera vs. Hymenoptera), the quality and degree of

ortholog data for each species, and the quality of annotation for each species, all of which likely

lead to an underestimation of the true numbers of common loci in our data (see Discussion). We

simulated SCRMshaw predictions for all sixteen species by randomizing the SCRMshaw results

and compared the number of common loci between the simulated and real data for combinations

of ten to sixteen species. The number of common loci among the real SCRMshaw predictions

was consistently significantly higher than the number of common loci observed in the simulated

data ($P< 0.05$; Fig. 4B and Supplemental Table S4). In particular, when evaluating between 10

and 12 species (data for 14-16 species are not reliable due to the very small number of observed

loci in common) only a single training set, *adult_PNS*, did not have a significant

overrepresentation of common loci (Supplemental Table S4c). We also examined the fold

enrichment, i.e., the extent to which the true number was in excess of the simulated number, and

found that on average there were greater than 2.4x more predictions in common loci than

expected, when considering groups of 10-12 species; almost all training sets had a fold

enrichment >1.5x (Fig. 4C, Supplemental Table S4d). These results strongly suggest that

SCRMshaw is successfully finding sets of conserved (or convergent) enhancers, as it is

predicting sequences in orthologous loci in a training-set specific manner across multiple species

significantly more often than can be accounted for by chance.

SCRMshaw predictions correlate with regions of accessible chromatin

Active enhancers are frequently found in regions of accessible chromatin, as assayed by methods

such as DNAse-seq, FAIRE-seq (Formaldehyde-Assisted Isolation of Regulatory Elements with

sequencing), and ATAC-seq (Assay for Transposase-Accessible Chromatin by sequencing)(28-

30). We confirmed previously that FAIRE-predicted and SCRMshaw-predicted enhancers in *T.*

castaneum have a high (>79%) degree of overlap (18). To determine whether a similar

correlation exists for other species, we compared our SCRMshaw predictions with available

FAIRE-seq and ATAC-seq data for seven species: *D. melanogaster, T. castaneum, A. gambiae,*

Danaus plexippus, Vanessa cardui, Junonia coenia, and *Heliconius himera*. These comparisons

are imperfect, as the tissues used to obtain the chromatin data do not precisely correspond to the

training sequences used for SCRMshaw. Nevertheless, in the majority of cases where we were

able to establish a rough match between the tissues, we observed significant overlap between the

two methods of enhancer detection. For example, in *D. melanogaster*, 40% of SCRMshaw

predictions using the *blastoderm.mapping1* training set overlapped ATAC-seq peaks obtained

from blastoderm embryos (*P*<4.15e-112, fold enrichment 2.98) (31)(Table 2 row 2). Similarly,

35% and 41% of SCRMshaw predictions from the *mappng2.wing* and *haltere_disc* sets

overlapped FAIRE data that included wing and haltere cells (32)(*P*<4.6e-117 and 1.5e-102, fold

enrichment of 3.29 and 2.98)(Table 2, rows 1, 3). In the mosquito *A. gambiae*, we compared

SCRMshaw predictions from the *embryonic_midgut* and *mapping1.salivary* training sets to

ATAC-seq data from adult midgut and salivary tissues, observing overlaps of 40% and 37%

respectively (*P*<1.5e-102 and 2.15e-93, fold enrichment of 3.45 and 3.22;)(Table 2, rows 9, 10).

When comparing our SCRMshaw predictions from the *mapping2.wing* set to ATAC-seq data for

larval wing tissue in the butterflies *D. plexippus* and *H. himera*, we observed overlaps of 60%

and 68% (*P*<5.59e-19 and *P*<9.92e-25, fold enrichment of 1.99, 1.66;)(Table 2, rows 11,

12)(33). The butterflies *J. coenia* and *V. cardui* are exceptions; intriguingly, they show a

depletion in SCRMshaw predictions compared to expectation (Table 2, rows 13, 14). Whether

this is due to a mismatch in the data used for comparison, the state of the genome assemblies for

these two draft genomes, or some other failure of SCRMshaw to perform strongly on these

species remains to be determined. Overall, the highly significant overlap we observe between

SCRMshaw predictions and open chromatin regions in most species and tissues provides further

strong evidence that SCRMshaw is effectively predicting enhancers across a broad range of

genomes.

Reporter gene analysis demonstrates that SCRMshaw predictions are functional enhancers

As a concrete test of our ability to use SCRMshaw to predict functional enhancers, we assayed a

subset of SCRMshaw predictions by reporter gene analysis in transgenic *D. melanogaster*. Our

previous studies have shown a high success rate for such assays, ranging from 65% through

>80%, depending on the species and training sets used (13, 14, 17, 19, 20).

We focused our *in vivo* validation experiments on SCRMshaw predictions made using the

mapping2.wing, haltere_disc, and *disc.mapping2* training sets and a set of four species we had

previously shown to be amenable to SCRMshaw prediction*: D. melanogaster, A. aegypti, T.*

castaneum, and *A. mellifera*. The imaginal discs are well-established tissues for investigating

gene regulation in *D. melanogaster*, and the chosen training sets all gave significant results in the

open-chromatin comparisons discussed above. We selected six sets of putative enhancers for

testing (Table 3, Table 4). For the first three sets, we selected sequences where we had

predictions in each of the orthologous loci for *D. melanogaster, T. castaneum,* and *A. mellifera*

(*A. aegypti* was not considered for these sets), and where the *D. melanogaster* prediction mapped

near a gene expressed in the wing imaginal discs (Fig. 5). These predictions were conducted

using SCRMshaw's IMM scoring method only, with post-processing performed using the

original method described in (21), and the Amel_4.5 version of the *A. mellifera* genome. For the

second three sets, we chose sequences where we had predictions in orthologous loci for at least

three of the four species and where the *D. melanogaster* sequence had previously been tested in a

reporter gene assay and was known to be active in the relevant imaginal discs (Fig. 5). Imposing

this latter criterion allowed us to leverage existing knowledge and reduce the necessary amount

of *in vivo* testing for each set of predictions, enabling us to test a larger set of sequences overall.

For this second set of three, we used all three SCRMshaw scoring methods with a revised post-

processing algorithm (see Methods), and the Amel_Hav3.1 *A. mellifera* genome. For all six sets,

predictions were chosen for testing based on high SCRMshaw scores and overlap with open-

chromatin data (where available). We also considered the position of each prediction within the

locus (i.e., first intron, downstream intergenic region, etc.), favoring sequences where position

was maintained among the orthologs. Selected sequences were cloned into a cross-species

compatible reporter vector (Deem et al., *submitted*)(18), and reporter gene activity was

visualized either directly or by using the lineage tracing system G-TRACE (34). In the latter,

enhancer activity is visualized through two reporters; the first reporter visualizes the direct

enhancer activity while expression of the second reporter is induced and maintained in all cells

that descend from a cell in which the enhancer is initially active, even if activity subsequently

shuts off.

ex

The *expanded (ex)* gene plays a crucial role in tissue growth control, including wings (35-37).

There was a single prediction in the *D. melanogaster ex* locus, *Dm_ex_20p0*, which falls within

an open chromatin region of the third intron (Supplemental Fig. S2), and which comprises an

untested subsequence of a longer sequence that acts as an imaginal disc enhancer (Fig. 5B; (37)).

This sequence drove reporter activity in the wing, leg, and antennal discs (Fig. 6A). The *T.*

castaneum genome also had only one prediction for the *ex* locus, *Tc_ex_9p0*, which overlaps

well with a FAIRE-seq peak (Supplemental Fig. S2) within the second intron. Although no

imaginal disc activity was observed (Fig. 6B), *Tc_ex_9p0*-driven reporter gene expression was

observed during late pupal stages in the legs (Supplemental Fig. S4G). The *A. mellifera* genome

(v4.5) had one prediction, *Am_ex_20p3*, within the fourth intron of the *ex* locus (Supplemental

Fig. S2; however, note that subsequent prediction using the updated Amel_Hav3.1 genome and

revised SCRMshaw post-processing yielded additional predictions in this locus). *Am_ex_20p3*

drove active but variable expression in both the pouch and notum regions of the wing imaginal

disc (Fig. 6C). Although often significantly limited to a small number of cells, the pouch

expression of *Am_ex_20p3* was similar in pattern to that seen with *Dm_ex_20p0* (cf. Fig. 6A).

Weak and inconsistent expression in the pouch region of the haltere discs was also observed. In

addition, *Am_ex_20p3* drove expression in the leg discs (Fig. 6C).

klu

Klumpfuss (klu) encodes a zinc finger protein important for proper tissue specification and

differentiation (38). The *D. melanogaster* genome had three predictions for the *klu* locus

(Supplemental Fig. S2). We selected *Dm_klu_16p1*, which overlaps a region of open chromatin

within the second intron present in most imaginal discs (most distinct in the T3 leg disc;

Supplemental Fig. S2). *Dm_klu_16p1* drove active expression in the notum regions of the wing

and haltere discs and in the leg discs (Fig. 6D). *Tc_klu_8p6* was the only prediction for the *T.*

castaneum klu locus. It falls within the second intron, similar to *D. melanogaster's klu* prediction

Dm_klu_161p1 (Supplemental Fig. S2), but lacked enhancer activity (Fig. 6E). *A. mellifera* had

only one prediction for the *klu* locus (*Am_klu_20p2*) (Supplemental Fig. S2). We included this

prediction for validation even though its location in the third intron does not match with that in

the other two species. *Am_klu_20p2* drove weak expression in the most proximal part of the leg

discs (Fig. 6F, arrows), but no activity was observed in the other imaginal discs. (Note that

additional predictions were subsequently produced with our revised post-processing algorithm

and the updated Amel_Hav3.1 genome, for both the *T. castaneum* and *A. mellifera klu* loci).

ush

Our final choice from our first set for *in vivo* validation was *u-shaped* (*ush*), which encodes a

transcription factor with described imaginal disc expression (39-41). The *D. melanogaster*

genome had two predictions for the *ush* locus (three when using the updated post-processing

algorithm) (Supplemental Fig. S2). We tested *Dm_ush_16p4*, but did not observe any larval disc

activity (Fig. 6G). *Tc_ush_6p8* and *Am_ush_20p8* were the only predictions for *T. castaneum* and

A. mellifera, respectively, both located in the second intron (again, additional predictions are

found using updated methods and genome versions). *Tc_ush_6p8* had expression in the wing disc

as well as weak activity in the peripodial membrane of the eye-antennal disc (Fig. 6H,

Supplemental Fig. S4K). *Am_ush_20p8* displayed active expression in the peripodial membrane

surrounding the eye disc, as well as in a single cell, or small subset of cells, located at the center

of each leg disc (Fig. 6I, arrows).

hth

SCRMshaw predicted ten enhancers in the locus of the *D. melanogaster* Hox cofactor

homothorax (*hth*). One of the two top-scoring predictions, *Dm_hth_30p1*, located in the fifth

intron, overlapped the known *hth_GMR46D04* enhancer, which has activity in all of the larval

imaginal discs (Fig. 5F, Supplemental Fig. S3)(42). *A. aegypti* had a single prediction in the

orthologous *hth* locus, *Aa_hth_35p9*, located in the first intron (Supplemental Fig. S3). This

sequence failed to display activity in imaginal discs (Fig. 7A).

T. castaneum had 23 *hth*-locus predictions. We selected a high-scoring (albeit not the highest-

scoring) sequence, *Tc_hth_15p5*, due to the similarity of its position to that of the *D.*

melanogaster enhancer—in the fifth intron—and overlapping FAIRE peak (Supplemental Fig.

S3)(18). The *Tc_hth_15p5* reporter showed activity in the presumptive notum region of the wing

disc and in the proximal region of the leg discs, resembling both the endogenous *D.*

melanogaster hth expression pattern and that of the *GMR46D04* enhancer (Fig. 7B, cf. Fig. 5F).

No enhancer activity was observed in the haltere or eye-antennal discs (Fig. 7B). In the pupal

stage, *Tc_hth_15p5* exhibited active expression along the thorax, corresponding to adult *hth*

expression in *D. melanogaster* (Supplemental Fig. S4I, arrows) (43). No *hth* predictions were

obtained for *A. mellifera*.

Ubx

The classic homeotic gene *Ultrabithorax* (*Ubx*) regulates tissue identity in the thoracic and

abdominal segments (44). Of six SCRMshaw predictions in the *D. melanogaster Ubx* locus, we

noted that one, *Dm_Ubx_36p1*, overlaps a cluster of known enhancers in the third intron centered

on *Ubx_GMR39A02* and *Ubx_abx6.8* (Supplemental Fig. S3). *Ubx_GMR39A02* mirrors the

haltere activity of *Ubx*, but also displays ectopic activity in the pouch and notum regions of the

wing disc (Fig. 5H)(42). Similarly, *Ubx_abx6.8* also drives both native and ectopic expression in

the imaginal discs (45).

There were eight predictions in the *Ubx* locus of the *A. aegypti* genome (Supplemental Fig. S3).

We selected sequence *Aa_Ubx_26p0*, as it was both the highest scoring prediction and was in the

third intron, similar to its putative *D. melanogaster* counterparts. Although direct reporter

expression from *Aa_Ubx_26p0* was too weak to observe directly, use of the lineage-tracing G-

TRACE system confirmed widespread activity in all leg discs (Fig. 7C).

We chose two *T. castaneum* sequences for testing, out of ten predictions: *Tc_Ubx_17p4*, which

overlapped well with an accessible chromatin region in the third thoracic epidermal tissue and

the central nervous system (18), and *Tc_Ubx_19p9*, which had the highest local prediction score

but only overlapped with a chromatin region accessible predominantly during early

embryogenesis (Supplemental Fig. S3). *Tc_Ubx_17p4* displayed activity in all three leg discs

(Fig. 7D). The expression in T2 and T3 leg discs corresponds to endogenous *Ubx* expression,

whereas T1 leg disc expression appears to be ectopic. *Tc_Ubx_19p9,* predicted using the

"haltere" training set, did not drive clear expression in the haltere disc but did drive G-TRACE

expression in the wing disc in the adepithelial adult myoblast cells, as well as direct reporter

expression in the peripodial membrane of the eye disc. Very limited expression was also

observed in the leg discs when using G-TRACE (Fig. 7E, Supplemental Fig. S4J).

The *A. mellifera* genome had eleven predictions at the *Ubx* locus (Supplemental Fig. S3).

Am_Ubx_37p2 was chosen based on a high SCRMshaw score, although it falls within the fourth,

rather than the third, intron. *Am_Ubx_0p39*, on the other hand, was in the corresponding third

intron location. *Am_Ubx_0p39* had activity in the pouch region of the wing and haltere discs, as

well as in the proximal region of leg discs (Fig. 7F). *Am_Ubx_37p2* drove expression in specific

portions of the wing and haltere discs (Fig. 7G). Although *Ubx* is not expressed in the *D.*

melanogaster wing disc (i.e., the forewing of the fly), wing activity has been observed previously

with tested *Ubx* enhancer fragments (e.g. 42). Moreover, *Ubx* is expressed in both the forewing

and hindwing discs in honeybees, making the reporter expression we observed driven by the two

predicted *A. mellifera* enhancers consistent with their potential native activities (46).

psq

We chose *pipsqueak* (*psq*), a transcription factor involved in Polycomb group gene silencing

(47), and its orthologous loci as the final targets for enhancer validation. There were four

predicted *psq* enhancers in *D. melanogaster*, one of which, *Dm_psq_25p6,* overlaps known

enhancer *psq_GMR41E12* (Supplemental Fig. S3). This enhancer is located within the second

psq intron and drives expression in all imaginal discs (Fig. 5J)(42). The *A. aegypti* genome had

four predictions for the *psq* locus (Supplemental Fig. S3); we chose *Aa_psq_21p5*, located in the

second intron and with the highest local SCRMshaw score, for validation (Supplemental Fig.

S3). However, *Aa_psq_21p5* did not have observable imaginal disc expression (Fig. 7H).

T. castaneum had only two predictions for the *psq* locus, both within the third intron

(Supplemental Fig. S3). *Tc_psq_19p7*, which was chosen for validation due to its higher score,

drove expression in the eye and leg discs (Fig. 7I).

From the *A. mellifera* genome, we selected the only prediction for the *psq* locus, *Am_psq_29p2*

(Supplemental Fig. S3). *Am_psq_29p2* reporter activity was negative in all tissues assayed (Fig.

7J).

Embryonic activity:

Although our SCRMshaw predictions were targeted toward imaginal disc activity, activity was

also observed in embryos for many of the reporter lines (Supplemental Fig. S5). Analysis of this

activity was complicated by the fact that our reporter vectors, while not having any basal activity

in imaginal discs (Supplemental Fig. S4, A-E), displayed reporter gene expression in several

tissues including hemocytes, caudal visceral mesoderm, and the proventriculus, even in the

absence of a putative enhancer sequence (Supplemental Fig. S5A-D). In those lines that had

reporter gene expression in other tissues (Supplemental Fig. S5I-S, X, Y), most of that

expression was not clearly associated with the expected endogenous expression of the predicted

target gene, although the complex embryonic expression patterns of these genes makes a

definitive assessment difficult. Moreover, for most of the species, we do not currently know the

expression patterns of either the gene in its native species (as opposed to the expression of its

Drosophila ortholog), or the expression patterns of other nearby potential target genes. Further

analysis, including additional control experiments, use of different reporter vectors, and

assessment of gene expression patterns in each of the relevant species will be necessary before

drawing final conclusions as to embryonic enhancer activity.

An insect regulatory annotation resource

Taken together, the results from our simulations, our comparisons to open chromatin regions, and

our *in vivo* validation experiments demonstrate that SCRMshaw is remarkably effective at

predicting regulatory sequences across a wide range of insect species. To facilitate access to our

SCRMshaw-based regulatory annotations, we created a database with the results from our

predictions using all training sets and all completed species. This database, which is freely

accessible as part of the REDfly insect regulatory annotation site (16), contains processed final

prediction data and can be searched and filtered by gene, *D. melanogaster* ortholog, training set,

enhancer location, and various other criteria. We will continue to add to this database as

additional species and training sets are run through our annotation pipeline.

DISCUSSION

The resource we introduce here is part of an ongoing effort to provide an initial regulatory

annotation for all sequenced insects. These annotations are not complete, as we currently lack

well-curated training sets for many tissues, including key embryonic tissues such as the central

nervous system and many non-embryonic tissues. We aim to generate the necessary additional

training sets over time, and add these new annotations to those presented here, along with

comprehensive annotation for additional species. As a predictive pipeline, SCRMshaw is subject

to the usual tradeoffs of sensitivity versus specificity in generating results. Sensitivity is difficult

to assess, as there is no "complete" known set of enhancers for any organism, and it is currently

impossible to make an accurate estimate of what the yield should be for any of our training

models. Similarly, without comprehensive *in vivo* testing using multiple conditions and methods,

an accurate false-positive rate cannot be computed. However, we presented here several lines of

evidence demonstrating that true positives significantly outweigh false positives: we non-

randomly predict multiple enhancers for specific subsets of loci; we predict enhancers in

orthologous loci at a rate significantly higher than random expectation; our predictions are highly

enriched for regions of accessible chromatin; and we achieve a high rate of validation using *in*

vivo reporter gene assays.

Validation success rates

The results from the *in vivo* validation experiments are summarized in Table 5. Overall, 17/22

(77%) of tested sequences revealed imaginal disc activity, consistent with our previous

SCRMshaw success rates. 59% of these (10/17), or 45% of the total (10/22), had the correct

target specificity of wing and/or haltere discs. This is again consistent with previous SCRMshaw

experience, which shows that functional enhancers are predicted at a higher success rate than

enhancers with specific targeted activity (13, 14).

These numbers may in fact underestimate the success rate of our predictions, for several reasons.

One, all of the testing was performed in transgenic *D. melanogaster*, despite the putative

enhancers being from three additional species. Reduced efficiency of certain transcription factor

or cofactor binding, reduced enhancer-promoter compatibility, or other species-specific

differences may lead to elevated false negative results. Two, predictions for *ex, klu*, and *ush* were

made using a less-effective SCRMshaw post-processing algorithm and, for *A. mellifera*, a less-

complete genome build. This may have led to suboptimal candidate enhancer selection. Three, it

is possible that some of our predicted enhancers act as silencers rather than enhancers. Silencers,

which attenuate rather than promote gene expression, are less well understood than enhancers,

but in at least some instances have identical sequence characteristics (and in fact can act

simultaneously as enhancers in some tissues and silencers in others) (48, 49). Our reporter gene

assay was not designed to detect silencers, which would therefore appear as false-positive

predictions. Indeed, an intriguing possibility is that some of our sequences that had reporter gene

activity in non-targeted discs (e.g., leg discs) act as enhancers in those tissues but as silencers in

the targeted wing discs. Alternatively, identified enhancers that drove expression in multiple

imaginal discs may simply represent pleiotropic enhancers. Enhancer pleiotropy is not

uncommon (50, 51), and moreover, there is overlap in the enhancer content of our training sets

for the various discs. There are many gene expression and developmental similarities among the

discs, and likely significant regulatory overlap; chromatin profiling experiments have found that

wing, leg, and eye discs share the majority of their regions of accessible chromatin (18, 32).

Additional experiments will be necessary to distinguish between pleiotropic enhancers, dual-

function silencers/enhancers, and other possibilities.

Redundant enhancers

Almost all of our training sets predicted multiple enhancers in certain loci at rates exceeding

random expectation, consistent with the noted prevalence of redundant or "shadow" enhancers in

numerous plant and animal species (reviewed by 27). The few training sets that did not may

reflect types of tissues or regulatory processes for which having shadow enhancers is unusual, or

may be indicative of poorly-performing training sets. Indeed, the sole training set that did not

suggest the presence of shadow enhancers in either mosquito species, *adult_PNS*, also performed

poorly by other metrics, such as failing to produce predictions in common over multiple species

and scoring "poor" using our *pCRM_eval* training set evaluation tool (21).

Although the evolutionary origins of shadow enhancers are not well understood, several studies

suggest that at least one important contribution of shadow enhancers is to provide phenotypic

robustness during development, particularly during stress conditions (52-57). In some cases, a

mechanistic basis for this robustness has been suggested by the finding that different groups of

transcription factors act on individual members of a shadow enhancer set (58, 59). Further

support for this idea can be found in the fact that shadow enhancers appear to have limited

sequence similarity (58, 60). However, our successes with SCRMshaw have demonstrated that

enhancers can have little overt sequence similarity but still rely on the same underlying

subsequence (and presumably, transcription factor binding) model. As the potential shadow

enhancers we identify are predicted using the same training set, they are likely to be functioning

using similar, rather than independent, regulatory mechanisms. Thus, shadow enhancers appear

to come in at least two flavors: those that use similar mechanisms, such as those identified here,

and those that use different mechanisms, such as the *Krüppel* enhancers studied by (58).

Enhancer evolution at large divergence distances

SCRMshaw's ability to find putatively "orthologous" enhancers—i.e., enhancers in orthologous

loci predicted using the same regulatory model—not only substantiates the non-random nature of

our prediction approach, but also opens the door to exciting studies of enhancer evolution over

large divergence ranges. We previously illustrated the power of such an approach with an

analysis of a small number of enhancers in just 2-3 highly diverged species (17). However, the

greatly increased number of species for which we now have regulatory predictions should allow

us to follow the evolution of specific enhancers over their entire divergence range. Although the

number of common loci tails off rapidly as the number of species considered increases, we

suspect that this small (albeit statistically significant) number understates the true results. For

one, only a limited number of species have been evaluated for common predictions so far, and

these are not evenly distributed along the phylogenetic spectrum of sequenced species. Also, our

analysis depends wholly on the presence of recognized *D. melanogaster* orthologous genes to

define the common loci. This in turn is dependent on several factors, including the sensitivity

and accuracy of our ortholog-calling pipeline, the reliability of the protein annotations we use in

that pipeline, and on accurate target gene assignments. Each of these has known sources of error.

For example, our ortholog-calling pipeline currently does not disambiguate multiple paralogs

(see Methods), and ortholog detection has been shown to be sensitive to the method used for

generating protein annotation, in particular when different annotation methods have been applied

to different species in the comparison (61). Moreover, our target gene assignments are presently

based solely on closest-gene relationships, a method which is known to mis-assign a fair number

of enhancer-gene target pairings (e.g. 62, 63, 64) and which does not take into account

complexities in genome architecture such as nested genes, long non-coding RNAs, promoter

competition, and the like (which are common in *D. melanogaster*, e.g. 65, 66). Developing

effective and scalable solutions to these issues will be an important goal for future work.

As the number of species in our prediction database with fully mapped orthologs grows, it will

become possible to ask increasingly sophisticated questions about the nature of enhancer

evolution. For instance, we will be able to determine whether the numbers of putatively

orthologous enhancer predictions follow phylogenetic relationships and degree of sequence

divergence, and whether certain loci are only found in common for specific groups of species.

Also in need of further investigation will be to determine whether sets of common enhancers are

restricted to certain functional Gene Ontology categories, and how this might vary with

phylogenetic grouping.

Ongoing regulatory annotation

While effective, SCRMshaw still has various limitations and aspects in need of improvement.

Errors in genome assembly and insufficient repeat masking both appear to contribute to overly

long predictions (multiple kilobases) that are unlikely to represent individual single enhancers

(HA and MSH, unpublished observations). Poor assembly, while not having major effects on

SCRMshaw overall, can significantly affect results at specific loci, as can inaccurate gene

annotation (21). Also requiring further investigation is how to best combine and weight the

scores from the three individual SCRMshaw scoring methods of IMM, hexMCD, and PAC-rc.

Individual SCRMshaw predictions should therefore be treated as just that—predictions—and

appropriate validation experiments are recommended for any sequences of interest. The

regulatory annotations presented here represent initial "1.0" versions of the regulatory genome.

Like all genome annotations, these will continue to be revised as updated models become

available, including addition of new training sets, confidence scores based on validation

experiments, and improved genome builds. Nevertheless, the enrichment scores from our *in*

silico experiments and the true-positive rates from our *in vivo* reporter gene experiments suggest

that overall, true positive rates for most training sets are between 50-85%, with most likely

having success rates exceeding 70%. Note that even this lower bound of a 50% true positive rate

means that one out of every two predictions is correct—a more than acceptable rate to encourage

follow-up experiments for predicted enhancers in organisms of interest. The catalog of predicted

enhancers we introduce here, spanning 33 insect species and growing, should thus be useful

resource for both large-scale and small-scale studies of the insect regulatory genome.

METHODS

Datasets

Sequence and annotation for *D. melanogaster* were obtained from FlyBase (67). For other

species, wherever possible, genome sequence (FASTA) and annotation (GFF) files were

downloaded from NCBI at www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/datasets. Otherwise, the genome sequences

and annotations were obtained from the primary literature or directly from the data generators

(see Table 1 for references). Version numbers for genomes and annotations are provided in Table

1.

SCRMshaw

A detailed SCRMshaw protocol can be found at Asma et al., 2024 (*in preparation*). Genome

files were masked using Tandem Repeat Finder (22) using parameters 2 7 7 80 10 50 500 -m -h.

Genome and annotation files were then assessed using our *preflight* script. Any sequence

scaffolds not containing annotated genes were removed before passing the genome sequence to

the main SCRMshaw program. SCRMshaw was run using the "HD" default settings as described

in Asma and Halfon (21). SCRMshaw can be downloaded at

https://github.com/HalfonLab/SCRMshaw_HD.

Postprocessing

The top 5000 hits were extracted using scripts *Generate_top_N_SCRM-hits.pl* and

concatenatenatingOffsetResults.sh and passed to *postProcessingScrmshawPipeline.py* with *-num*

= "5000" and *-topN* = "Median." Post-processing was performed essentially as previously

described (15), with the following modifications (Supplemental Fig. S6): before evaluating each

10 bp region, scores from each of the 25 individual SCRMshaw instances were assessed and any

500 bp window whose score was below the value of the 5000th ranked score was eliminated by

having its score reset to zero (Supplemental Fig. S6B). The "elbow" point of the SCRMshaw

score curve of the 5000 top scores from each instance was then determined (Fig. S6C), and any

scores below the elbow point were reset to zero (Supplemental Fig. S6D; gray boxes). Only after

these two rounds of score evaluation were all windows grouped together (Fig. S6E, F) and

subjected to peak calling on 10 bp intervals (Fig. S6G). Final "top predictions" were then any

peaks with an amplitude above the selected amplitude threshold (elbow point of amplitude curve,

represented by a red dot in Supplemental Fig. S6H), following the peak-calling step. See (21)

and Asma et al. 2024 (*in preparation*) for details.

All scripts are available at https://github.com/HalfonLab/.

Orthology mapping

The final SCRMshaw output from the above steps was used as input to our orthology mapping

pipeline. For each species, a FASTA-formatted file of all annotated proteins was downloaded

from NCBI (www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/datasets). The annotated proteins from *D. melanogaster* plus

each individual other species were used as input to *Orthologer* (24) to obtain the *Drosophila*

ortholog for each protein (when existing). Our approach was designed to be minimally restrictive

in that we did not enforce a one-to-one ortholog mapping; in cases of likely paralogs, we

considered all of the paralogs as a potential result. Details on the orthology mapping protocol can

be found in Asma et al. 2024 (*in preparation*).

Evaluating the number of predictions per locus

For each training set, BEDTools "merge" was used to remove any overlapping predictions (68).

The results were then permuted 1000 times using BEDTools "shuffle", with coding regions

excluded. BEDTools "closest" was used to assign upstream and downstream flanking genes to

each of the permuted predictions, with the following parameters: the '-io' flag was enabled to

ignore any overlaps between predictions and genes, and '-D ref -id' and '-D ref -iu' were used to

obtain the closest 5' and 3' genes (with respect to chromosome coordinates), respectively. A

custom Python script, *checkSameLocus_ForSimulations.py* (located at

https://github.com/HalfonLab/UtilityPrograms/blob/master/checkSameLocus_ForSimulations.py

) was used to calculate the number of predictions per locus for both the real and permuted results.

For this purpose, "locus" was defined as the entire region between the left and right flanking

genes for each SCRMshaw prediction; that is, for each prediction we take the region between the

3' end of the upstream gene and the transcription start site of the downstream gene. If a

prediction is within an intron, we define the locus as the entire span of the enclosing gene. If a

prediction overlaps two genes, the locus is considered to be the entire span of the two genes.

Average intergenic region sizes for the genomes were estimated using the distances between

neighboring genes, discarding any nested or overlapping gene pairs, as provided by the

SCRMshaw *preflight* script.

Significance was assessed by calculating the empirical *P*-value, defined as the number of real

loci with a number of predictions greater than the maximum number obtained from the 1000

simulations, for each locus containing at least one SCRMshaw prediction.

Evaluating the number of predictions in common across species

To determine the expected number of common predictions—i.e., predictions in orthologous

loci—across species, we utilized SCRMshaw predictions for 16 species. Each set of predictions

was sorted, merged, permuted, and mapped to new loci as described above for "Evaluating the

number of predictions per locus." The permuted predictions were used as input for the script

"*checkSameLocus_ForSimulations_crossSpecies.py*" (located at

https://github.com/HalfonLab/UtilityPrograms/blob/master/checkSameLocus_ForSimulations_cr

ossSpecies.py). This script identifies the *Drosophila* orthologs of the nearest flanking genes for

each species and calculates the number of common loci flanking the simulated SCRMshaw

predictions for 5, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, and 16 species. For each species, the process was

repeated for a total of 360 permutations. The mean and standard deviation of the permuted

results were then used to calculate a *z*-score for each training set. We considered training sets

with z-score $\geq$ 1.645 to be significant (*P*<0.05, not corrected for multiple testing).

Overlap between SCRMshaw predictions and open chromatin regions

Open chromatin data were obtained from the following sources:

D. melanogaster : Data for *D. melanogaster* were downloaded from GEO and consisted of

ATAC-seq and FAIRE-seq data from accessions GSE101827 , GSE38727 and GSE118240.

These assays were performed using blastoderm embryos, eye-antennal discs, wing discs, haltere

discs, leg discs, third instar central nervous system, and wing, leg, and haltere pharate

appendages (31, 32, 69).

T. castaneum: FAIRE-seq data for three stages of embryogenesis, larval central nervous system,

and larval second and third thoracic epidermal tissues were downloaded from GEO

(GSE104495)(18). The FAIRE profiles were remapped to the version 5.2 of the *T. castaneum*

genome (Tcas5.2) for this study. The remapped FAIRE profiles are available on iBeetle-Base

(https://ibeetle-base.uni-goettingen.de/)(70).

A. gambiae: ATAC-seq data for adult midgut and salivary gland were downloaded from GEO

(GSE152924)(71).

D. plexippus, J. coenia, H. himera, and V. cardui: ATAC-seq data for larval forewing and

hindwing tissues at stage M5 were provided by Anyi Mazo-Vargas and Robert Reed (33).

The overlap between SCRMshaw predictions and open chromatin regions was determined using

BEDTools "intersect" with parameters -wa -u -f 0.1 such that sequences needed to overlap at

least 10% of their length and were considered a single overlap in the event that more than one

open chromatin peak overlapped a prediction.

To assess significance, the SCRMshaw predictions were permuted 500 times using BEDTools

"shuffle" and the overlaps with open chromatin regions assessed as above. The mean and

standard deviation of the permuted results were then used to calculate a z-score for each training

set.

We also calculated a "fold enrichment" score by dividing the observed number of overlapping

regions by the expected number, to provide a sense of effect size in addition to statistical

significance.

Reporter constructs and transgenic *Drosophila*

Sequences for reporter gene analysis, including attL1 and attL2 sites, were synthesized *de novo*

and cloned into pUC57 Kan-r (GenScript, Piscataway NJ) as entry vectors suitable for Gateway

cloning (72). Gateway LR recombination was then used to move the sequences into

piggyPhiGUGd (*hth, Ubx,* and *psq* lines) and piggyPhiGUGd-TomatoI (*ex, klu,* and *ush* lines)

(Deem et al., *submitted*). Transgenic flies were generated by BestGene (Chino Hills, CA) using

PhiC31 recombination and the attP2 third chromosome insertion site. piggyPhiGUGd lines were

subsequently crossed to G-TRACE for visualizing enhancer activities (34).

For each construct, imaginal discs from at least six larvae were dissected and mounted for direct

fluorescence visualization using a Zeiss Axio Imager M2 microscope with ApoTome 2. Embryos

were fixed and stained using standard *Drosophila* methods using anti-dsRed (Clontech) and

visualized using the ABC-HRP kit (VectorLabs, Newark CA).

Database implementation

The SCRMshaw results database is implemented as part of REDfly (16), a MariaDB-based

database hosted on a private OpenStack cloud infrastructure maintained by the University at

Buffalo Center for Computational Research. As part of an ongoing transition of REDfly to a

more modern software architecture, backend functions are implemented in Node.JS and Python,

while frontend components utilize React.JS and Next.js. GraphQL is used as the query language.

REDfly is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-NoDerivatives

License v4 International (CC BY-NC-ND 4.0) and its underlying source code under a GNU

General Public License v3 (GNU GPL 3.0).

Image credits

The insect silhouettes in Table 5 were obtained from The Noun Project (thenounproject.com),

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 FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure 1: The SCRMshaw method and analysis pipeline. (A) Supervised motif-blind CRM

discovery (SCRMshaw). (a) SCRMshaw uses a training set of known *D. melanogaster* enhancers

("training sequences"), drawn from REDfly, that are defined by common functional

characterization, and a 10-fold larger background set of similarly sized common functional

characterization, non-enhancer sequences ("background sequences"). (b) The short DNA

subsequence (*kmer*) count distributions of these sequences are then used to train a statistical

model. The trained model (c) is used to score overlapping windows in the "target genome." (d)

High-scoring regions are predicted to be functional regulatory sequences (asterisks). Figure

adapted from (73). (B) The workflow used for the regulatory genome annotation described in this

paper. The left side shows pre-processing steps, the right side, post-processing. Input to

SCRMshaw consists of the genome sequence and gene annotation. A protein sequence

annotation is supplied later for the orthology mapping step. Final results are made available as

part of the REDfly regulatory annotation knowledgebase.

Figure 2: Annotation of 33 insect genomes. (A) Genomes from five insect orders were

annotated in this study (more are ongoing). (B) Percentage of genes with *Drosophila* orthologs as

mapped via our orthology pipeline (see Methods), for the 15 mapped species. For complete

species names, see Table 1. (C) Total SCRMshaw predictions for each species. For each species,

the lefthand column shows cumulative results for each SCRMshaw sub-method summed over

each of the 48 training sets. The righthand column shows the number of unique predictions after

merging overlapping predictions from both sub-methods and training sets. Species are displayed

alphabetically by taxonomic order. (D) Size distribution of SCRMshaw predictions, prior to

merging overlapping predictions but after removing outlier predictions > 2 kb in length. Species

are ordered identically to panel C.

Figure 3: SCRMshaw makes multiple predictions per locus. The number of SCRMshaw

predictions per locus (y-axis) are shown as boxplots for loci falling within the given size ranges

(x-axis). Black boxes cover the 25th-75th percentiles, bars indicate median values and dots

indicate values exceeding 1.5 times the interquartile range (boxes are not visible for all bins due

to very low degrees of variation). Values in pink represent expected values drawn from

randomization, while values in blue represent observed values from SCRMshaw. All values are

from results with the training set "mapping1.visceral_mesoderm"; results from other training sets

were similar (see Supplemental Table S3). Shown are results from the genomes of (A) *D.*

melanogaster, (B) *C. pipiens*, and (C) *A. aegypti* representing small, medium, and large

genomes, respectively.

Figure 4: SCRMshaw predicts CRMs in orthologous loci across species. (A) The number of

loci in common that contain at least one SCRMshaw prediction, for 10 or more species. (B) *z*-

scores demonstrating that the number of loci in common with one or more SCRMshaw

predictions is significantly higher than expectation, based on 360 randomizations. The small

number of common predictions for 14-16 species make these statistics unreliable. Dotted lines

indicate *z*-score values representing significance at the (unadjusted) *P*<0.005 and *P*<0.05 levels.

(C) Fold enrichment values illustrating the excess of loci in common with one or more

SCRMshaw predictions compared to expectation. Dotted line shows 1.5x enrichment.

Figure 5: Previously described gene expression and enhancer activity for select *D.*

***melanogaster* sequences predicted by SCRMshaw.** The lefthand column shows native *D.*

melanogaster gene expression in imaginal discs (green), while the righthand column shows

described enhancer activity (magenta). Gray shading indicates that expression has not been

described. Moving clockwise from the left side of each panel are the wing, haltere, leg, and eye-

antennal discs. The enhancers whose activities are described in the table are: (B) *ex_BCDE* (37),

(F) *hth_GMR46D04* (42), (H) *Ubx_GMR39A02* (42), (J) *psq_GMR41E12* (42).

Figure 6: Reporter gene expression for tested *ex*, *klu*, and *ush* predicted enhancer

sequences. Each row shows expression for the indicated construct in (i) wing discs, (ii) haltere

discs, (iii) T1 (prothoracic) leg discs, (iv) T2 (mesothoracic) leg discs, (v) T3 (metathoracic) leg

discs, and (vi) eye-antennal discs (with eye portion to the left). Enhancer activities were

visualized by UAS-tdTomato that was included in the reporter construct. Scale bar is 50 μm for

each column.

Figure 7: Reporter gene expression for tested *hth*, *Ubx*, and *psq* predicted enhancer

sequences. Each row shows expression for the indicated construct in (i) wing discs, (ii) haltere

discs, (iii) T1 (prothoracic) leg discs, (iv) T2 (mesothoracic) leg discs, (v) T3 (metathoracic) leg

discs, and (vi) eye-antennal discs (with eye portion to the left). Enhancer activities were detected

by the G-TRACE system; magenta represents direct enhancer activity detected by dsRed

expression, while green indicates lineage-based GFP expression. Scale bar is 50 μm for each

column.

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842 **Table 1:** Species used in this study

Scientific name	common name	Order	Assembly version/ Annotation version	link/URL for assembly information
Acyrthosiphon pisum	pea aphid	Hemiptera	racon and v3_wdel	Courtesy Jennifer Brisson (University of Rochester)
Aedes aegypti	yellow fever mosquito	Diptera	L5.2	https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/datasets/taxonomy/7159/
Agrilus planipennis	emerald ash borer	Coleoptera	Apla_2.0	https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/datasets/taxonomy/224129/
Anopheles gambiae	African malaria mosquito	Diptera	P4.9	https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/datasets/taxonomy/7165/
Aphis gossypii	cotton aphid/melon aphid	Hemiptera	ASM401081v2	https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/datasets/taxonomy/80765/
Apis mellifera	honey bee	Hymenoptera	HAv3.1	https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/datasets/taxonomy/7460/
Atta cephalotes	leafcutter ant	Hymenoptera	A.ceph_1.0	https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/datasets/taxonomy/12957/
Atta colombica	leafcutter ant	Hymenoptera	Acol1.0	https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/datasets/taxonomy/520822/
Bombyx mori	silkworm	Lepidoptera	ASM15162v1	http://ensembl.lepbase.org/Bombyx_mori_asm15162v1/Info/Index
Cimex lectularius	bed bug	Hemiptera	Clec_2.1	https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/datasets/taxonomy/79782/
Culex pipiens pallens	Northern house mosquito	Diptera	TS_Cpip_V1	https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/datasets/taxonomy/42434/
Culex quinquefasciatus	Southern house mosquito	Diptera	VIPSU_Cqui_1.0_pri_paternal	https://academic.oup.com/gbe/article/13/3/evab005/6121099
Danaus plexippus	monarch butterfly	Lepidoptera	v3	http://ensembl.lepbase.org/Danaus_plexippus_v3/Info/Index
Drosophila ananassae	fruit fly	Diptera	caf1	http://ftp.flybase.net/genomes/Drosophila_ananassae/
Drosophila melanogaster	fruit fly	Diptera	r6 1.8	https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/datasets/taxonomy/7227/
Drosophila mojavensis	fruit fly	Diptera	caf1	https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/assembly/GCF_000005175.2/
Drosophila pseudoobscura	fruit fly	Diptera	r3	http://ftp.flybase.net/genomes/Drosophila_pseudoobscura/dpse_r3.03_FB2015_01/

Formica exsecta	wood ant	Hymenoptera	ASM365146 v1	https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/datasets/genome/GCF_003651465.1/
Heliconius erato	red postman butterfly	Lepidoptera	v1	http://ensembl.lepbase.org/Heliconius_erato_lativitta_v1/Info/Index
Heliconius melpomene	postman butterfly	Lepidoptera	Hmel2	http://ensembl.lepbase.org/Heliconius_melpomene_melpomene_hmel2/Info/Index
Heliconius himera	false postman butterfly	Lepidoptera	Hed.V1	Courtesy Robert Reed (Cornell University)
Junonia coenia	common buckeye butterfly	Lepidoptera	JC v1.0	Courtesy Robert Reed (Cornell University)
Leptinotarsa decemlineata	Colorado potato beetle	Coleoptera	Ldec_2.0	https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/datasets/taxonomy/7539/
Manduca sexta	tobacco hornworm	Lepidoptera	v1.0	http://ensembl.lepbase.org/Manduca_sexta_msex1/Info/Index
Nezara viridula	southern green stink bug	Hemiptera		https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/datasets/taxonomy/85310/
Nasonia vitripennis	jewel wasp	Hymenoptera	Psr_1.1	https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/datasets/taxonomy/7425/
Onthophagus taurus	dung beetle	Coleoptera	Otau_2.0	https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/datasets/taxonomy/166361/
Pseudoatta argentina	leafcutter ant	Hymenoptera	ASM176075 2v1	https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/datasets/taxonomy/621737/
Stomoxys calcitrans	stable fly	Diptera	Stomoxys_calcitrans-1.0.1	https://bmcbiol.biomedcentral.com/articles/10.1186/s12915-021-00975-9?sap-outbound-id=DB0B95C63ABC56834FFE23B3C176FAE498F3D66E&utm_source=hybris-campaign&utm_medium=email&utm_campaign=000_MKQ5584_0000012067_BMCF_AWA_MK01_GL_12915_eToc_Apr21_CTRL&utm_content=EN_internal_24671_20210419&mkt-key=42010A0557EB1EDA9CFC80777B53EE6F
Tribolium castaneum	red flour beetle	Coleoptera	r5.2	https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/datasets/taxonomy/7070/
Trichoplusia ni	cabbage looper	Lepidoptera	tn1	https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/datasets/taxonomy/7111/
Vanessa cardui	painted lady butterfly	Lepidoptera	Vcar_v1	Courtesy Robert Reed (Cornell University)
Nebria riversi	ground beetle	Coleoptera	v1	https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/abs/10.1111/1755-0998.13409

Table 2: Overlap of SCRMshaw predictions with FAIRE-seq and ATAC-seq peaks

Species	Training Set	Profiled Tissue	Overlap (real)	Overlap (random)	s.d.[a]	Z-score	FE[b]
D. melanogaster	haltere_disc	wing, leg, and haltere third instar discs and pharate appendages; eye-antennal disc; third instar CNS	41.82%	14.02%	10.65	21.53	2.98
D. melanogaster	blastoderm.mapping1	blastoderm	40.99%	13.86%	12.35	22.56	2.96
D. melanogaster	mapping2.wing	wing, leg, and haltere third instar discs and pharate appendages; eye-antennal disc; third instar CNS	35.14%	10.69%	10.19	23.01	3.29
T. castaneum	mapping2.wing	embryo, larval thoracic epidermis, larval brain	85.58%	26.18%	10.98	28.88	3.27
T. castaneum	mapping2.ectoderm	embryo, larval thoracic epidermis, larval brain	81.68%	25.48%	12.48	26.29	3.21
T. castaneum	mapping1.ventral_ectoderm	embryo, larval thoracic epidermis, larval brain	81.17%	24.76%	12.56	33.87	3.28
T. castaneum	mapping1.dorsal_ectoderm	embryo, larval thoracic epidermis, larval brain	71.15%	24.69%	12.64	24.07	2.88
T. castaneum	mapping1.ectoderm	embryo, larval thoracic epidermis, larval brain	69.53%	24.66%	11.92	22.35	2.82
A. gambiae	embryonic_midgut	adult midgut, salivary_gland	40.20%	11.66%	7.90	21.56	3.45
A. gambiae	mapping1.salivary_gland	adult midgut, salivary_gland	36.76%	11.43%	8.52	20.55	3.22
D. plexippus	mapping2.wing	larval forewing, hindwing, head	60.43%	30.35%	6.30	8.93	1.99
H. himera	mapping2.wing	larval forewing, hindwing, head	68.34%	41.10%	8.97	10.27	1.66
J. coenia	mapping2.wing	larval forewing, hindwing, head	3.06%	34.91%	8.52	-12.22	0.09
V. cardui	mapping2.wing	larval forewing, hindwing, head	15.46%	36.01%	8.01	-7.13	0.43

847   [a]s.d., standard deviation
848   [b]FE, fold enrichment
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850   **Table 3:** Gene loci chosen for *in vivo* validation
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	D. melanogaster			T. castaneum		A. mellifera	A. aegypti
name	symbol	FlyBaseID	RefSeq	iBeetleBase	RefSeq		VectorBase
expanded	*ex*	FBgn0004583	*gene-LOC657053*	TC012545	*gene-LOC551519*		AAEL001437
u-shaped	*ush*	FBgn0003963	*gene-LOC659918*	TC013689	*gene-LOC100577801*		AAEL020615
klumpfuss	*klu*	FBgn0013469	*gene-LOC103312803*	TC002783	*gene-LOC100577692*		AAEL013544
homothorax	*hth*	FBgn0001235	*gene-Hth*	TC008629	*gene-LOC552079*		AAEL011643
pipsqueak	*psq*	FBgn0263102	*gene-LOC660343*	TC003349	*gene-psq*		AAEL021255
Ultrabithorax	*Ubx*	FBgn0003944	*gene-Ubx*	TC000903	*gene-ubx*		AAEL014032

Table 4: SCRMshaw predictions chosen for *in vivo* validation

	Coordinates	Max. score	Training set(s)	Method
Set 1				
T. castaneum				
Tc_ex_9p0	NC_007424.3:11221530..11222170	9.04	mapping2.wing	imm
Tc_ush_6p8	NC_007420.3:5968840..5969370	6.84	haltere_disc	imm
Tc_klu_8p6	NC_007418.3:10416700..10417300	8.59	mapping2.wing	imm
D. melanogaster				
Dm_ex_20p0	2L:442110..442810	20.04	mapping2.wing	imm
Dm_klu_16p1	3L:10991040..10991700	16.06	mapping2.wing	imm
Dm_ush_16p4	2L:531250..532060	16.40	mapping2.wing	imm
A. mellifera				
Am_ex_20p3	NC_007075.3:7545750..7546440	20.36	mapping2.wing	imm
Am_klu_20p2	NC_007070.3:720220..720870	20.25	mapping2.wing	imm
Am_ush_20p8	NC_007080.3:10609550..10610200	20.80	haltere_disc	imm
Set 2				
T. castaneum				
Tc_hth_15p5	NC_007422.5:13408990..13409850	15.52	mapping2.wing	hexmcd,imm,pac
Tc_psq_19p7	NC_007418.3:1805000..1806250	19.71	haltere_disc, mapping2.wing	hexmcd,imm,pac
Tc_Ubx_19p9	NC_007417.3:8137250..8138000	19.32	haltere_disc	hexmcd
Tc_Ubx_17p4	NC_007417.3:8153250..8154030	19.95	mapping2.wing	hexmcd,imm
A. aegypti				
Aa_hth_35p9	1:149733960..149734710	35.96	mapping2.wing	imm
Aa_psq_21p5	2:228190750..228191640	21.50	disc.mapping2	hexmcd,imm
Aa_Ubx_26p0	1:309747490..309748390	26.08	mapping2.wing	imm
A. mellifera				
Am_psq_29p2	NC_007078.3:10712000..10712750	29.26	mapping2.wing	hexmcd
Am_Ubx_37p2	NC_007085.3:2921250..2922250	37.18	haltere_disc, mapping2.wing	hexmcd,imm
Am_Ubx_0p39	NC_007085.3:2967750..2968250	0.39	mapping2.wing	pac

858 **Table 5:** Summary of *in vivo* validation results

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	targeted disc				non-targeted disc			
ex	🪰	🪲	🐝		🪰	🪲	🐝	
klu	🪰	🪲	🐝		🪰	🪲	🐝	
ush	🪰	🪲	🐝		🪰	🪲	🐝	
hth	🪰	🪲		🦟	🪰	🪲		🦟
Ubx	🪰	🪲	🐝	🦟	🪰	🪲	🐝	🦟
Ubx		🪲	🐝			🪲	🐝	
psq	🪰	🪲	🐝	🦟	🪰	🪲	🐝	🦟

Results are shown for *D. melanogaster, T. castaneum, A. mellifera,* and *A. aegypti.* Black, positive for expression; grey, negative for expression; blue, expression observed in pupae but not in larvae.

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SUPPORTING INFORMATION:

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S1 Text: Legends for Supplemental Figures

S1 Figure: Lengths of predicted enhancers, including long outliers

S2 Figure: Open chromatin data for predictions in the *ex, klu,* and *ush* loci

S3 Figure: Open chromatin data for predictions in the *hth, Ubx,* and *psq* loci

S4 Figure: Additional expression observed in selected transgenic reporter lines

S5 Figure: Reporter gene expression observed in embryos

S6 Figure: Revised post-processing method used for SCRMshaw

S1 Table: SCRMshaw training sets used in this study

S2 Table: Number of predicted enhancers for each species, by method

S3 Table: Real and simulated predictions per locus

S4 Table: Real and simulated counts of predictions in orthologous loci

S5 Table: Primers and sequences used for *in vivo* validation

A

(a) Training sequences   Background sequences

(b) *get k-mers*

CGGAATCACCACTGGATG

CGGAA   ACCAC
GGAAT   CCACT
GAATC   CACTT
AATCA   ACTGG
ATCAC   CTGGA
TCACC   TGGAT
CACCA   GGATG

(c) *get scores*

Score(*S*) = log(Pr(*S*|model*_{training}*)/Pr(*S*|model*_{bkg}*))

(d) *search genome*

B

Genome Annotation (GFFv3)   Genome Sequence (FASTA)

Preflight

Preflight Log

chr/scaffold has genes? → NO → Remove unwanted scaffolds

YES

Mask tandem repeats → Run SCRMshaw

Post-process

Merge predictions

Get orthologs ← Protein Sequences (FASTA)

Final Predictions

RED FLY

A

■ Hemiptera	
■ Hymenoptera	
■ Coleoptera	
■ Lepidoptera	
■ Diptera	

B

■ Fly Orthologs ■ No Fly Orthologs

A.mel A.cep N.vit A.pla L.dec O.tau T.cas D.ple H.him J.coe A.aeg A.gam C.pip C.qui S.cal

C

■ hexMCD
■ IMM
■ pacRC
■ merged

Hemiptera   Hymenoptera   Coleoptera   Lepidoptera   Diptera

D

A

B

C

Gene expression Known enhancer activity

described *Drosophila* gene expression

reporter gene expression

gene expression not described

	wing disc	haltere disc	T1 leg disc	T2 leg disc	T3 leg disc	eye-antennal disc

	wing disc	haltere disc	T1 leg disc	T2 leg disc	T3 leg disc	eye-antennal disc

A *Aa_hth_35p9*   i ii iii iv v vi

B *Tc_hth_15p5*

C *Aa_Ubx_26p0*

D *Tc_Ubx_17p4*

E *Tc_Ubx_19p9*

F *Am_Ubx_0p39*

G *Am_Ubx_37p2*

H *Aa_psq_21p5*

I *Tc_psq_19p7*

J *Am_psq_29p2*