# AEGIS: an annotation extraction and genomic integration resource

**David Navarro-Payá**[1*], **Antonio Santiago**[1*], **Amandine Velt**[2], **Marco Moretto**[3],
**Camille Rustenholz**[2], **José Tomás Matus**[1+]

[1] Institute for Integrative Systems Biology (I[2]SysBio, UV-CSIC), Valencia, Spain

[2] INRAE-Université de Strasbourg, SVQV, 68000 Colmar, France

[3] Unit of Digital Agriculture, Research and Innovation Centre, Fondazione Edmund Mach Via E. Mach 1, 38098 San Michele all'Adige, Italy

[*] **First authors**

[+] **Corresponding author**

## Abstract

**Motivation:** Genome annotation files (GFF3/GTF) are the standard for storing genomic feature data, yet their flexibility often results in formatting inconsistencies that create bottlenecks for downstream bioinformatics analyses. A robust, unified framework is required to parse, standardise, and validate these files to ensure interoperability and facilitate complex comparative genomic tasks.

**Results:** We present AEGIS (Annotation Extraction and Genomic Integration Suite), a comprehensive toolkit designed to parse, correct, and standardise genome annotations. Beyond quality control, AEGIS provides advanced modules for flexible feature extraction (e.g. coding sequences, promoters) and comparative genomic analysis. Uniquely, it integrates multiple lines of evidence, including sequence homology, synteny, and coordinate-based lift-overs, to assess gene model correspondence and infer orthology. We demonstrate the utility of AEGIS by quantifying complex structural changes between Arabidopsis annotation versions and identifying high-confidence orthologues across diverse plant genomes.

**Availability and Implementation:** AEGIS is implemented in Python. Source code and documentation are freely available under the GPL-3 license at {{https://github.com/Tomsbiolab/aegis}} and as a Docker container at

{{https://hub.docker.com/r/tomsbiolab/aegis}}. The package is also available on PyPI

(pip install aegis-bio).

**Contact:** tomas.matus@uv.es

**Supplementary information:** Supplementary data are available at Bioinformatics

online.

**Introduction**

The efficient representation and description of genomic feature annotations are

fundamental requirements in modern bioinformatics. Standardised and reliable

genome annotations are essential to accurately interpret gene evolution, expression,

and regulation across species. While several related specifications exist, such as the

more restrictive Gene Transfer Format (GTF), the General Feature Format version 3

(GFF3) has become the standard for genome annotation exchange since its release

in 2004, underpinning widely used annotation pipelines, such as MAKER (Cantarel

et al., 2008) and BREAKER (Gabriel et al., 2024), as well as genome browsers such

as IGV (Robinson et al., 2011) and JBrowse (Buels et al., 2016). This format has

been integrated into most tools requiring genome annotation data as input. It

consists of nine tab-delimited columns, with the ninth column, 'attributes', containing

a semicolon-separated list of tag-value pairs. These define the relationships between

features, for example, by linking exons to a parent transcript using 'ID' and 'Parent'

tags in a hierarchical structure representing the complex organisation of genes and

their products.

Despite the existence of a formal specification, the flexibility of the GFF3 format has

led to a lack of strict adherence, which has become a significant obstacle for

standardised downstream processing. Annotation files vary across organisms,

frequently exhibiting inconsistencies due to the use of different source software

packages or notation criteria. These discrepancies can range from simple formatting

errors to more complex structural problems, hindering fundamental tasks like

extracting coding sequences (CDS) for translation, calculating basic annotation

statistics, or isolating promoter regions for the inspection of regulatory elements.

Common issues include missing features, incorrect or inconsistent feature

coordinates, improper strand orientation and incorrectly calculated phase information

(in the case of coding sequences). While certain tags like 'ID' and 'Parent' have

predefined meanings, different annotation providers often use non-standard tags or

model the same data with different notation styles. For instance, the hierarchical

relationship between an exon and its parent gene can be represented differently

across major databases like Ensembl, RefSeq and GENCODE, complicating the

parsing process required to trace a feature's lineage. This variability often results in

files where child features reference parent IDs that do not exist, leading to parsing

errors in downstream applications. Many analysis tools rely on a consistent GFF

structure as input, and inconsistent or poorly formatted files can lead to a variety of

errors, from outright tool failure to more subtle and potentially misleading

misinterpretations of the data. Such inconsistencies force users to develop *ad hoc*,

and often brittle, scripts tailored to specific file sources.

Here, we introduce AEGIS (Annotation Extraction and Genomic Integration Suite), a

tool capable of parsing and standardising GFF files from various sources to ensure

their interoperability and the reliability of subsequent bioinformatic analyses. AEGIS's

dual-layer design provides a powerful command-line interface (CLI) for end-users,

while also allowing the use of its functionalities as a versatile Python library, making

it also a foundational component for developers building custom analysis pipelines or

other bioinformatics software that requires reliable handling of genomic annotations.

To showcase AEGIS's capabilities, we have developed a range of different CLI

modules for downstream analyses, including simple tasks such as calculating

annotation statistics and extracting feature sequences, comparable to functionalities

found in AGAT (Dainat, 2022), gffread (Pertea & Pertea, 2020), or gffutils, but also

more complex comparative genomics studies. The toolkit integrates workflows for

analysing gene correspondence between annotation versions in the same assembly,

and for assessing orthology by combining gene model overlaps via tools like Liftoff

and LiftOn with additional approaches such as reciprocal BLAST searches,

OrthoFinder clustering and synteny-based analyses with MCscan, thus creating a

unified solution for annotation quality control and biological inquiry.

**Implementation**

The AEGIS toolkit comprises a suite of modular CLI tools designed to address

distinct tasks in genome annotation processing and analysis. Its broad operating

system (OS) compatibility is due to its full Python implementation. Each tool

command follows the ***aegis-{tool}*** format and can be called from a terminal as long

as installation requirements are satisfied. All of the CLI tools make use of a set of

purpose-built Python classes (Supplementary Figure S1) providing a solid framework

for custom-made genome annotation functionalities as well as facilitating future

AEGIS updates.

To systematically present the breadth of the current capabilities (Figure 1), we first

describe the core utilities for foundational file manipulation, standardisation and data

integration. Subsequently, we detail the modules for annotation exploration, which

enable quantitative summarisation and flexible data subsetting. Finally, we present

the advanced analytical modules designed for downstream biological discovery,

including tools for comparative genomics and annotation comparison.

**Figure 1: Overview of AEGIS package commands.** A range of commands require
annotation file(s) as input, while others simply require the assembly files. Functionalities
such as sequence extraction and orthology analysis require both genome annotation and
assembly file(s).

<u>Pre-processing and standardisation of genome annotation and assembly files</u>

AEGIS has been equipped with a set of general tools to deal with common pre-

processing needs and further downstream analyses. These tools provide a flexible

framework for managing and standardising genome annotations for a variety of

downstream applications.

The **reformat** tool converts annotation files between GTF and GFF formats to
ensure compatibility with external software. All AEGIS tools are GTF and GFF
compatible so inputs can interchangeably follow either file format (i.e. the input
format is automatically determined based on file content).

The **tidy** command has been implemented as a standardising and error-correcting
tool that can generate features if they do not exist (e.g. untranslated regions or
exons). It can also polish parent-referencing, feature coordinates and phase values,
while providing a set of options to customise output GFFs such as filtering for a
particular biotype or whether to include untranslated regions (UTRs) in the output
file. Whilst the standard exon format style for a GFF should involve the use of the
'parent' attributes wherever transcripts share the same exon, some GFF styles add
all exon entries below each transcript regardless of repetition. AEGIS can accept
both input formats and the **tidy** command can be used to choose which output style
is chosen for exons, in order to fulfil external tool requirements. Similarly, parameters
to choose the style of CDS entry ids are also provided.

The **merge** tool can combine any number of annotation files together whilst
preventing id clashes and offering control over redundancy removal within the same
loci through coordinate overlap parameters. Conversely, to reduce annotation size,
AEGIS offers **prune** and **subset**. **Prune** accepts lists of ids to remove, transcript or
gene based, and solves derived parent and subfeature issues. **Subset** has been
designed to help testing and debugging efforts by generating custom, lighter
versions of annotation files with corresponding subsetting of their FASTA formatted
genome, thus reducing unnecessary workloads.

The **rename** tool provides highly customisable modification of feature identifiers
(gene, transcript, etc.). This includes removing or adding prefixes/suffixes,
standardising transcript ID styles, or configuring new identifier structures for updated
releases. In addition, the **symbols** tool allows users to append or replace gene
symbols within an annotation file.

The **tidy-genome** tool provides similar functionality to **rename** and **tidy**, but it is
applied to genome assembly files. Non-chromosomal level scaffolds or organelles

can be selectively removed. Moreover, it allows FASTA feature renaming and
optional synchronisation of changes in a matching annotation file.

<u>Annotation summary report and targeted feature extraction</u>

The **extract** command can output multiple types of genomic features, including
whole genes, CDSs, their translated protein sequences and putative promoter
regions. The handling of RNA features takes a more sophisticated approach allowing
precise export of all annotated transcripts or filtering for specific biotypes. For
example, users can isolate only messenger RNAs (mRNAs) for expression
quantification from poly(A)-selected libraries (e.g. to be used with pseudo-aligners
like Salmon or Kallisto), or they can extract specific classes of non-coding RNAs
(ncRNAs), such as long non-coding RNAs (lncRNAs) or microRNAs (miRNAs), for
studies focusing on non-coding gene function.

Beyond custom feature selection, users can control the inclusion of isoforms through
distinct extraction modes (Figure 2). For instance, it can retrieve either all annotated
variants for a given gene ("all" mode) or only a single, canonical representative,
defined by default as the longest isoform ("main" mode). This is particularly useful for
generating non-redundant datasets for comparative genomics or functional
annotation. Furthermore, the tool provides specialised parameters to generate
unique sets of protein or CDS sequences, either on a per-gene basis (to study
protein diversity from a single locus) or across the entire genome (to create a non-
redundant proteome database).

**Figure 2. Schematic representation of the sequence extraction modes in *extract*.** The figure illustrates the four modes available, via the '*--mode*' argument, to control the filtering of transcript and protein sequences. The example depicts two genes: gene 1 produces two distinct protein isoforms from its three transcripts, while gene 2 produces the same protein isoform as gene 1 from one transcript. "Main" selects a primary transcript for each gene (defined by default as the one with the longest CDS); "All" extracts all annotated protein products for each gene, without any filtering; "Unique" applies a global filter, extracting only one representative unique protein sequence found across the entire dataset, effectively removing all protein redundancy within and between genes; "Unique per gene", identifies all unique protein isoforms for each gene. Coloured boxes represent exons (CDS darker, UTRs lighter) and lines represent introns. The shaded background highlights the protein sequence output for each mode.

In the case of promoter extraction, users are not limited to a standard definition of a fixed-length region upstream of the transcription start site (TSS). The tool also allows for the extraction of regions upstream of the translation start codon (ATG), and a hybrid option which extracts the region upstream of the TSS plus the entire 5' UTR up to the ATG (in case it is annotated). These options are particularly useful in the case of studying regulatory elements when UTRs are poorly annotated (Figure 3).

**Figure 3. Illustration of promoter extraction strategies implemented in *extract*.** Three
different modes for promoter definition are supported when using the '*--promoter-type*'
option: (Top) "Standard": Extracts a fixed-length region (2 kb by default) upstream of the
TSS. (Middle) "Upstream ATG": Extracts the region upstream of the ATG. (Bottom)
"Standard plus up to ATG": Combines the standard TSS-based promoter with the additional
sequence between the TSS and the ATG, thereby including potential 5' UTR elements and
introns. Blue boxes represent exons (CDS darker, UTRs lighter) and lines represent introns.
The highlighted yellow area depicts the extracted promoter sequence.

Finally, this tool provides extensive customisation of the output FASTA headers to

facilitate data management and integration with other software. For example, users

can choose to label all output sequences (e.g. transcripts, proteins) with their parent

gene ID, which simplifies mapping results back to the gene level. An optional

verbose output can also append genomic coordinates and other metadata directly to

the sequence headers, ensuring full traceability of the extracted features.

Comparative and functional analysis of genome annotations

*Detecting and quantifying feature overlaps*

To identify spatial overlaps between features, the **overlap** command includes a

method where the algorithm operates in two primary modes: (1) detecting overlaps

between features within a single genome annotation file (intra-annotation), and (2)

comparing features between two different annotation files (inter-annotation). A

fundamental prerequisite for inter-annotation comparison is that both annotation files

must share the same genome assembly, ensuring a common coordinate system.

This is feasible when the annotations are different annotation versions of the same

genome assembly, but for other cases, the use of external tools such as Liftoff

(Shumate & Salzberg, 2021) or LiftOn (Chao et al., 2024) in advance is

recommended. Alternatively, the **orthology** CLI described below may be more

appropriate.

For each pair of potentially overlapping genes, the algorithm performs a hierarchical

analysis to quantify the extent of the overlap at multiple feature levels (gene, exon

and CDS). All of the calculated metrics take into account both query and target

overlap percentages so that 100% is only achievable if the set of coordinates

compared is exactly the same.

-   Gene-level overlap: The initial overlap is calculated based on the full genomic

span of the two genes (from start to end coordinates). The number of

overlapping base pairs (bp) is determined and expressed as a percentage of

the total length of the query gene and the target gene, respectively. The

relative strand orientation (same or opposite strand) is also recorded.

$$minGeneOverlap = \min\left(\frac{overlap(g_1, g_2)}{g_{1Length}}, \frac{overlap(g_1, g_2)}{g_{2Length}}\right) \times 100$$

-   Exon-level overlap: For a more in-depth analysis, the algorithm assesses

overlap at the exon level. It compares all possible transcript pairs between the

two genes. For each transcript pair, it calculates the cumulative length of all

overlapping exonic regions. The maximum cumulative overlap value found

among all transcript pairs is retained as the representative exon-level overlap.

This value is then normalised against the total exon-spanned length of the two

transcripts that produced this maximal overlap.

$$minTranscriptOverlap = \min\left(\frac{\max(overlap(g_{1Tn}, g_{2Tn}, \ldots))}{g_{1TnLength}}, \frac{\max(overlap(g_{1Tn}, g_{2Tn}, \ldots))}{g_{2TnLength}}\right) \times 100$$

232    -   CDS-level overlap: A similar procedure is applied to the CDSs. The algorithm

233        identifies the transcript pair that yields the maximum cumulative overlap

234        between their respective CDS segments. This value is subsequently

235        expressed as a percentage of the total CDS length for each of the

236        corresponding transcripts.

$$minCDSOverlap = \min\left(\frac{\max(overlap(g_{1Cn}, g_{2Cn}, \ldots))}{g_{1CnLength}}, \frac{\max(overlap(g_{1Cn}, g_{2Cn}, \ldots))}{g_{2CnLength}}\right) \times 100$$

To systematically assess the structural conservation between query gene
annotations and their mapped targets, we developed a custom hierarchical scoring
system (Supplementary Table S1). This system quantifies the degree of overlap by
prioritising the most functionally significant regions of a gene. For each query-target
pair, the algorithm first attempts to calculate the minimum reciprocal overlap at CDS
level. If a pair does not share overlapping CDS features (or if one of the genes is
non-coding), the comparison proceeds to evaluate overlap at the exon level. If no
exon overlap is found, the system finally assesses the overlap of the full gene loci
(this only happens with intron-nested genes or genes with no annotated transcripts).
This hierarchical approach yields a single overlap score from 0 to 11, where higher
scores reflect greater structural identity (e.g. a score of 11 depicts a 100% reciprocal
CDS overlap).

The algorithm also integrates pre-existing synteny information for inter-annotation
comparisons, should the original annotation file, for a lifted over or transferred
annotation, be provided. If a gene involved in an overlap maintains the same
immediate neighbouring genes after lift-over, this status is recorded along with the
overlap data. All gene overlaps can be exported in tabular format for manual
inspection.

*Orthology*

Whilst **overlap** focuses on comparing annotation files associated with the same
genome, **orthology** is designed to extensively compare annotations associated with
different genomes. The outputs of multiple tools (internal and external) are integrated
into an automated pipeline designed to generate a set of orthologues sorted into
several confidence tiers.

The approach combines four complementary lines of evidence:

1. Sequence homology: the fast protein aligner DIAMOND performs reciprocal
sequence searches (Buchfink et al., 2015), processing the results to identify
BLAST results above a certain coverage (≥30% by default) and an e-value
(≤$1\times10^{-5}$ by default) threshold. These hits are then used to determine
reciprocal best hits (RBHs), reciprocal best BLAST hits (RBBHs) and the

remaining results which will be only forward (fw) or reverse (rv) results
depending on which annotation is considered the 'query'. An additional
identity (≥30% by default) filter for single BLAST hits (fw or rv) is also used.
The threshold values are fully adjustable.

2. Synteny and collinearity: to incorporate genomic context, AEGIS uses the
JCVI toolkit's MCscan modules (Tang et al., 2024). By analysing the relative
order of genes between two genomes, it identifies conserved syntenic blocks.
Orthologue pairs found within these blocks receive additional support, as their
relationship is preserved by both sequence similarity and genomic location.

3. Annotation lift-over and overlap analysis: AEGIS integrates annotation
transfer tools like Liftoff (Shumate & Salzberg, 2021) and LiftOn (Chao et al.,
2024) to project gene models from a source genome to a target genome.
Uniquely, AEGIS then applies its native spatial overlap algorithm to the
transferred annotations and filters overlap results using an **overlap** score
threshold of ≥6.

4. Multi-species orthogroup inference: To incorporate phylogenetic and
evolutionary information, AEGIS performs a full OrthoFinder analysis (Emms
& Kelly, 2019). It extracts the primary proteome for each input species
annotation, runs the OrthoFinder pipeline to cluster genes into orthogroups,
and integrates the resulting pairwise orthologues from the OrthoFinder
analysis into its final summary.

As output, AEGIS consolidates all sources of evidence into a single and easy-to-
parse summary table with a confidence score for each putative orthologue pair. The
scoring is hierarchical, where pairs classified as high confidence are primarily
defined by strong evidence from lift-over based mapping, requiring a positional
overlap score of ≥ 7 from either Liftoff or LiftOn (Supplementary Table S2). Pairs
lacking this positional evidence are designated as medium confidence, provided they
are supported by the combination of being an RBH and part of a syntenic block
identified by MCscan, as well as pairs identified as RBBH alone. All other pairs
identified through less stringent criteria are categorised as lower confidence,
involving relationships supported by only one of the primary methods (e.g. an RBH
without syntenic confirmation).

## Results

*Comparative analysis of consistency and divergence in Arabidopsis genome annotations*

To showcase AEGIS's capabilities in comparative genomics, firstly for evaluating the consistency and evolution of gene models across annotation versions within the same genome, we performed an intra-species overlap analysis between TAIR10 and Araport11 (Cheng et al., 2017; Lamesch et al., 2012). Both annotation sets are built on the latest *Arabidopsis thaliana* TAIR10 genome assembly, allowing direct comparison of feature coordinates. Using the **overlap** tool, we quantified the similarity between gene models in these two major *A. thaliana* annotations (Supplementary Table S3). This analysis revealed genes with conserved structural definitions across versions, as well as those showing substantial changes in their models, including structural modifications and, in some cases, changes in gene identifiers.

The initial gene-level overlap analysis revealed a high degree of concordance for the majority of Araport11 genes (31,733 with a ≥10 overlap score). This is expected for two annotations of the same genome, where genes retain their original identifier in both TAIR10 and Araport11 but where some of them may show differences in their genomic span or exonic structure. Conversely, the overlap analysis also captured cases where a single gene from the older TAIR10 annotation splits into multiple gene models in Araport11. This fragmentation often indicates a re-evaluation of gene boundaries based on improved prediction algorithms or the incorporation of additional transcriptomic evidence, where a previously annotated single locus is now recognised as two or more distinct genes. For instance, the gene ID *AT2G52240* in TAIR10 was found to have a partial overlap with *AT2G52240* and *AT2G52245* in Araport11, with the latter being a small transcript variant coming from the previous model (Figure 4A). The opposite scenario (i.e., gene merge cases), was also observed, where two or more distinct TAIR10 genes were reported to overlap significantly with a single, larger Araport11 gene (e.g. *AT1G27595*) (Figure 4B). This analysis allows users to track structural gene model changes over annotation updates, which are not always provided in such a level of detail.

A

B

**Figure 4. Annotation version differences as detected by _overlap_.** Views of different regions in chromosome 1 in Jbrowse2, with examples of gene model changes between Araport11 (top track in each panel) and TAIR10 (bottom track) structural annotations (Arabidopsis thaliana TAIR10 genome assembly). **(A)** Example of a gene model split. The TAIR10 annotation identified a single long gene, _AT1G52240_, whereas Araport11 resolved this as two distinct genes: a redefined and shorter _AT1G52240_, and a new gene model; _AT1G52245_. **(B)** Example of a gene model merge. In the TAIR10 annotation, this locus contained two separate genes, _AT1G27590_ and _AT1G27595_. The updated Araport11 annotation merged these into a single, longer gene model, _AT1G27595_. In both panels, boxes represent exons (CDSs in yellow and UTRs in blue) and black horizontal lines represent introns.

_Orthology between grapevine, tomato and Arabidopsis genomes_

Furthermore, to demonstrate the utility of AEGIS in an inter-species context, we compared genome annotations from _Arabidopsis thaliana_, tomato (_Solanum lycopersicum_) and grapevine (_Vitis vinifera_). This cross-species comparison enabled the identification of conserved orthologues and highlighted structural differences in their gene models.

The annotations and assemblies of grapevine (annotation v5.1, assembly T2T.v5; Shi et al., 2023), tomato (annotation ITAG4.0, assembly ITAG4; Hosmani et al., 2019) and Arabidopsis (annotation Araport11, assembly TAIR10; Lamesch et al., 2012) were compared with **orthology** resulting in a list of associated gene ID pairs

between annotations, supporting evidence details and a qualitative summary score.
This process resulted in a comprehensive list of orthologous gene pairs, each with all
of the supporting evidence details and a qualitative summary score (Figure 5A).
More than half of the genes of each genome, between the three species compared,
had at least one orthologue in each pairwise comparison. For instance, 23,978
Arabidopsis genes had at least one orthologue in tomato when looking at the
combined results from all tools. This combined value is higher than any of the
individual metrics, supporting the benefit of the approach (Figure 5B). The
Arabidopsis (Araport11) and tomato (ITAG4.0) comparison shows a degree of
overlap amongst individual **orthology** tool results (Figure 5C). The greatest set
(5,411 genes) corresponds to the shared findings of MCscan ('anchors' and
'last_filtered'), RBBH and OrthoFinder, suggesting that the output of these tools is
highly concordant. Nevertheless, individual tool results also manage to uniquely
detect orthologues for a considerable number of genes (e.g. 2,360 genes are
singularly detected by RBHs), demonstrating that each tool can contribute to the final
combined result.

The output table with the default **orthology** command shown in Figure 5 results in
over 900,000 orthologue gene-pairs. The same tool can be used with a different
parameter to produce a lighter output (Supplementary Table S4). In this case,
~125,000 orthologue gene-pairs were identified, which still manages to find
orthologue matches for a sizeable portion of annotated genes (e.g. more than 50%
for both Arabidopsis and tomato). This drop mainly affects the lower-confidence
orthologues (Supplementary Figure S2A) and there is still a benefit in combining the
different results of each tool (Supplementary Figure S2B).

**A** *RBHs and Fw/Rv Blasts Included*

| gene_id_A | gene_id_B | score | summary_score |
|---|---|---|---|
| AT1G01170 | Solyc10g080190.1 (ITAG4.1, tomato) | **rev_lifton_aegis** [10], **mcscan_last_filtered** [137], **Rbbh** [evalue=1.06e-37/6.57e-38, norm_bitscore=1.4/1.6, coverage=86.9/94.8, identity=69.9/69.9], **orthofinder** [OG0002865] | high |
| AT1G01170 | Vitvi05_01chr08g23980 (T2T_v5.1, grapevine) | **mcscan_last_filtered** [157], **rbbh** [evalue=2.38e-34/1.1e-34, norm_bitscore=1.5/0.1, coverage=90.5/8.9, identity=73.7/73.7], **orthofinder** [OG0002865] | medium |
| AT1G01170 | Solyc04g150111.1 (ITAG4.1, tomato) | **mcscan_last_filtered** [124], **orthofinder** [OG0002865] | lower |

Orthology Summary Score
- High
- Meidium
- Lower
- None

**B**

| Comparison | Litfoff (aegis-overlaps) | BLAST (only fw or rv) | LitfOn (aegis-overlaps) | RBH | MCscan (anchors) | RBBH | OrthoFinder | MCscan (last filtered) | None | *Aegis-orthology (all tools combined)* |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Araport11_ITAG4_0 | 1,044 | 1,240 | 4,381 | 9,733 | 11,234 | 12,324 | 17,173 | 18,459 | 14,112 | **23,978** |
| Araport11_T2T_v5_1 | 1,303 | 1,292 | 4,971 | 9,587 | 12,775 | 12,688 | 17,446 | 18,860 | 13,750 | **24,340** |
| ITAG4_0_Araport11 | 1,127 | 3,953 | 4,193 | 10,741 | 10,674 | 12,324 | 17,872 | 18,034 | 6,184 | **27,891** |
| ITAG4_0_T2T_v5_1 | 3,411 | 3,538 | 8,565 | 10,940 | 13,526 | 13,371 | 19,701 | 19,714 | 5,380 | **28,695** |
| T2T_v5_1_Araport11 | 1,306 | 4,170 | 4,707 | 9,365 | 10,561 | 12,688 | 18,127 | 16,479 | 19,765 | **28,206** |
| T2T_v5_1_ITAG4_0 | 3,308 | 4,016 | 8,185 | 10,065 | 12,014 | 13,371 | 20,327 | 17,720 | 18,645 | **29,326** |

**C**

**Figure 5. Overview and performance of the *orthology* tool.** Used command: "*aegis-*
*orthology Araport11_GFF3_genes_transposons.20250813.gff ITAG4.0.gff3*
*5.1_on_T2T_ref.gff3 –annotation-names Araport11,ITAG4_0,T2T_v5_1 --group-names*
*Arabidopsis,Tomato,Grapevine –genome-files*
*TAIR10_genome.fasta,S_lycopersicum_chromosomes.4.00.fa,T2T_ref.fasta*". The reported
counts represent the number of genes in a query annotation that have at least one
orthologue identified in the target annotation. **(A)** Summary of identified orthologues for
Arabidopsis, tomato, and grapevine genes. The stacked bar chart (left) shows, for each
annotation, how its genes are distributed according to whether an orthologue is present in
the target species and, if so, the confidence of the best-supported orthologue. These
qualitative levels are based on the combined results of individual tools, as shown for gene
*AT1G01170* on the right. **(B)** Orthologue counts per tool result for each query annotation
when compared to different target species. The combined results represent an improvement
over individual tools in the number of genes with at least one orthologue. **(C)** UpSet plot
illustrates the intersections of orthologue predictions among different methods for the
Arabidopsis (Araport11) versus tomato (ITAG4.0) comparison. The vertical bars represent
the number of genes with detected orthologues in each intersection (indicated by connected
dots), while the horizontal bars on the left show the total number of genes with at least one
orthologue identified by each method.

**Discussion**

Implemented in Python, AEGIS provides both a powerful command-line interface for
pipeline integration and an object-oriented library for custom script development,
offering a flexibility absent in tools designed for one or a few tasks. It incorporates
functionalities found across several tools, including robust file parsing, format
conversion, filtering, and statistical reporting, matching the feature sets of mature
tools like AGAT. The analysis of genome annotation files is supported by a diverse
software range, which can be broadly categorised into comprehensive command-line
toolkits (e.g. AGAT, GenomeTools), specialised utilities (e.g. GffCompare,
TransDecoder), and programmatic libraries (e.g. gffutils). While established toolkits
provide several functionalities for genome annotation handling, this new package
offers an advantage in terms of parsing capabilities, being able to process complex
annotation files that cause other tools to fail. For instance, widely used annotations
such as that of *Arabidopsis thaliana* contain features with extremely long attribute
lines, which are known to cause parsing errors in tools like AGAT. AEGIS is
specifically engineered to handle such edge cases, with a codebase designed for
robustness and modular reuse. Python was selected as the implementation
language to maximise these attributes, favouring maintainability and flexible data
handling over the performance optimisations typical of lower-level languages.

AEGIS includes several high-level analytical capabilities not found in other examined

software (Supplementary Table S5). It provides modules for identifying a gene's

main isoform, extracting a range of sequences, manipulating FASTA files together

with their corresponding annotation files, detecting overlaps between features, and

comprehensive orthology analysis. We showed that we were able to quantify and

categorise intra-species changes between annotation versions using the **_overlap_**

command. It generated a detailed and up-to-date table of gene model

correspondences, extending beyond a static list of obsolete identifiers (such as the

ones provided in Araport11; Cheng et al., 2017), where users can inspect and trace

gene model differences between annotation releases.

Moreover, AEGIS can be used to compare annotation files from different genome

assemblies, addressing a complex comparative orthology analysis that lies beyond

the scope of existing tools like GffCompare (Pertea & Pertea, 2020). This **_orthology_**

tool could be used to study genome evolution and even assist in the identification of

core and dispensable genes when dealing with pangenomes. We found grapevine

orthologues for 24,350 tomato genes and tomato orthologues for 24,099 grapevine

genes, a substantial increase over previous studies, which reported 16,454 and

15,631 orthology relationships in tomato and grapevine, respectively (Ambrosino et

al., 2018). By also providing medium and lower confidence orthologues, we highlight

the ability to extract more comprehensive evolutionary signals from genome

annotations, providing a stronger basis for comparative genomics and functional

inference.

While the example use-cases focus on plant genomes, we expect that these tools

will be broadly applicable to the analysis of animal and other eukaryotic genomes as

well. We anticipate that AEGIS will be a valuable framework as it unifies essential

manipulation tasks in genome annotation around a flexible object-oriented core from

which further functionalities can be reliably developed.

**Availability and requirements**

AEGIS is available under the GPL-3 open-source license. The version of the

package associated with this work is distributed as a Python package in the Python

Package Index as aegis-bio (https://pypi.org/project/aegis-bio/). The source code,

along with installation and implementation instructions, is also available at GitHub (https://github.com/Tomsbiolab/aegis). A readme file is included for a comprehensive description of its features and their execution. AEGIS is also available as a containerised CLI along with other tools required for some functionalities, available as a Docker Image at Docker Hub (https://hub.docker.com/r/tomsbiolab/aegis). The package is OS independent.

**Acknowledgements**

This work was supported by the grants Valinet (PID2021-128865NB-I00) and Metacell (PID2024-163039NB-I00) awarded to J.T.M. from the Ministerio de Ciencia, Innovación y Universidades (MCIU, Spain), Agencia Estatal de Investigación (AEI, Spain), and Fondo Europeo de Desarrollo Regional (FEDER, European Union), and to the PROMETEO grant (PROMETEO/2021/056) awarded to J.T.M. and its associated doctoral grant (PROMETEO/2021/056-01) granted to A.S., by the Generalitat Valenciana (GVA). Further support was provided by the Grapedia COST innovators grant (IG17111) awarded to J.T.M. and C.R. This research also received a grant (IEC-BG1-2023-4), awarded to J.T.M., from the Institute for Catalan Studies (IEC) within the framework of the first call for biogenome (genomics of biodiversity) research grants. Testing and debugging was carried out on the HPC cluster Garnatxa at the Institute for Integrative Systems Biology (I$^2$SysBio).

## References

**References**

Ambrosino, L., Ruggieri, V., Bostan, H., Miralto, M., Vitulo, N., Zouine, M., Barone,

A., Bouzayen, M., Frusciante, L., Pezzotti, M., Valle, G., & Chiusano, M. L. (2018).

Multilevel comparative bioinformatics to investigate evolutionary relationships and

specificities in gene annotations: An example for tomato and grapevine. BMC

Bioinformatics, 19(S15), 435. https://doi.org/10.1186/s12859-018-2420-y

Buchfink, B., Xie, C., & Huson, D. H. (2015). Fast and sensitive protein alignment

using DIAMOND. Nature Methods, 12(1), 59–60. https://doi.org/10.1038/nmeth.3176

Buels, R., Yao, E., Diesh, C. M., Hayes, R. D., Munoz-Torres, M., Helt, G.,

Goodstein, D. M., Elsik, C. G., Lewis, S. E., Stein, L., & Holmes, I. H. (2016).

JBrowse: A dynamic web platform for genome visualization and analysis. Genome

Biology, 17(1), 66. https://doi.org/10.1186/s13059-016-0924-1

Cantarel, B. L., Korf, I., Robb, S. M. C., Parra, G., Ross, E., Moore, B., Holt, C.,

Sánchez Alvarado, A., & Yandell, M. (2008). MAKER: An easy-to-use annotation

pipeline designed for emerging model organism genomes. Genome Research, 18(1),

188–196. https://doi.org/10.1101/gr.6743907

Chao, K.-H., Heinz, J. M., Hoh, C., Mao, A., Shumate, A., Pertea, M., & Salzberg, S.

L. (2024). Combining DNA and protein alignments to improve genome annotation

with LiftOn. Genome Research, genome;gr.279620.124v2.

https://doi.org/10.1101/gr.279620.124

Cheng, C., Krishnakumar, V., Chan, A. P., Thibaud-Nissen, F., Schobel, S., & Town,

C. D. (2017). Araport11: A complete reannotation of the Arabidopsis thaliana

reference genome. The Plant Journal, 89(4), 789–804.

https://doi.org/10.1111/tpj.13415

Dainat, J. (2022, January). Another Gtf/Gff Analysis Toolkit (AGAT): Resolve

interoperability issues and accomplish more with your annotations. Plant and Animal

Genome XXIX Conference, San Diego, California, United States.

https://github.com/NBISweden/AGAT

Emms, D. M., & Kelly, S. (2019). OrthoFinder: Phylogenetic orthology inference for

comparative genomics. Genome Biology, 20(1), 238. https://doi.org/10.1186/s13059-

019-1832-y

Gabriel, L., Brůna, T., Hoff, K. J., Ebel, M., Lomsadze, A., Borodovsky, M., & Stanke,

M. (2024). BRAKER3: Fully automated genome annotation using RNA-seq and

protein evidence with GeneMark-ETP, AUGUSTUS, and TSEBRA. Genome

Research, 34(5), 769–777. https://doi.org/10.1101/gr.278090.123

Hosmani, P. S., Flores-Gonzalez, M., Van De Geest, H., Maumus, F., Bakker, L. V.,

Schijlen, E., Van Haarst, J., Cordewener, J., Sanchez-Perez, G., Peters, S., Fei, Z.,

Giovannoni, J. J., Mueller, L. A., & Saha, S. (2019). An improved de novo assembly

and annotation of the tomato reference genome using single-molecule sequencing,

Hi-C proximity ligation and optical maps. Genomics. https://doi.org/10.1101/767764

Lamesch, P., Berardini, T. Z., Li, D., Swarbreck, D., Wilks, C., Sasidharan, R.,

Muller, R., Dreher, K., Alexander, D. L., Garcia-Hernandez, M., Karthikeyan, A. S.,

Lee, C. H., Nelson, W. D., Ploetz, L., Singh, S., Wensel, A., & Huala, E. (2012). The

Arabidopsis Information Resource (TAIR): Improved gene annotation and new tools.

Nucleic Acids Research, 40(D1), D1202–D1210. https://doi.org/10.1093/nar/gkr1090

Pertea, G., & Pertea, M. (2020). GFF Utilities: GffRead and GffCompare.

F1000Research, 9, 304. https://doi.org/10.12688/f1000research.23297.1

Robinson, J. T., Thorvaldsdóttir, H., Winckler, W., Guttman, M., Lander, E. S., Getz,

G., & Mesirov, J. P. (2011). Integrative genomics viewer. Nature Biotechnology,

29(1), 24–26. https://doi.org/10.1038/nbt.1754

Shi, X., Cao, S., Wang, X., Huang, S., Wang, Y., Liu, Z., Liu, W., Leng, X., Peng, Y.,

Wang, N., Wang, Y., Ma, Z., Xu, X., Zhang, F., Xue, H., Zhong, H., Wang, Y., Zhang,

K., Velt, A., … Zhou, Y. (2023). The complete reference genome for grapevine ( Vitis

vinifera L.) genetics and breeding. Horticulture Research, 10(5), Article 5.

https://doi.org/10.1093/hr/uhad061

Shumate, A., & Salzberg, S. L. (2021). Liftoff: Accurate mapping of gene

annotations. Bioinformatics, 37(12), 1639–1643.

https://doi.org/10.1093/bioinformatics/btaa1016

Tang, H., Krishnakumar, V., Zeng, X., Xu, Z., Taranto, A., Lomas, J. S., Zhang, Y.,

Huang, Y., Wang, Y., Yim, W. C., Zhang, J., & Zhang, X. (2024). JCVI: A versatile

toolkit for comparative genomics analysis. iMeta, 3(4), e211.

https://doi.org/10.1002/imt2.211

**Supplementary Figure S1: UML diagram of AEGIS Python classes and their attributes.** Custom classes have been made for each
annotation feature and wherever useful inheritance has been used to ensure code efficiency and reliability. All of the classes have been
exposed at the top level of the package so they can be directly imported in Python, i.e. '*from aegis import Annotation*' without having to know
the specific module where the class is located. A detailed UML diagram including class methods can be found in the package's main page
(https://github.com/Tomsbiolab/aegis)

**A**

*RBHs and Fw/Rv Blasts skipped*

**B**

| Comparison | MCscan (last filtered) | MCscan (anchors) | RBBH | Litfoff (aegis-overlaps) | LitfOn (aegis-overlaps) | OrthoFinder | None | *Aegis-orthology* (all tools combined except RBH and single blasts) | TOTAL Genes in Annotation |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Araport11_ITAG4_0 | 18,474 | 11,242 | 12,324 | 1,044 | 4,912 | 17,172 | 17,013 | 21,077 | 38,090 |
| Araport11_T2T_v5_1 | 18,881 | 12,781 | 12,688 | 1,303 | 5,399 | 17,447 | 16,586 | 21,504 | 38,090 |
| ITAG4_0_Araport11 | 18,060 | 10,680 | 12,324 | 1,127 | 4,776 | 17,873 | 11,957 | 22,118 | 34,075 |
| ITAG4_0_T2T_v5_1 | 19,751 | 13,537 | 13,371 | 3,411 | 9,205 | 19,707 | 9,725 | 24,350 | 34,075 |
| T2T_v5_1_Araport11 | 16,518 | 10,569 | 12,688 | 1,306 | 5,171 | 18,122 | 26,022 | 21,949 | 47,971 |
| T2T_v5_1_ITAG4_0 | 17,824 | 12,024 | 13,371 | 3,309 | 8,794 | 20,316 | 23,872 | 24,099 | 47,971 |

**Supplementary Figure S2. Results of *orthology* tool skipping secondary reciprocal
and single forward or reverse BLAST hits.** The ***orthology*** tool can be run with the '--
*skip_rbhs*' option to obtain a smaller output table that nevertheless still manages to detect
orthologues for many genes. The exact output of this ***orthology*** is included in
Supplementary Table S4. **(A)** The number of genes with no detected orthologues is greater
in this case than with the default options (Figure 5A). **(B)** The combined results of ***orthology***
report more genes with at least one orthologue when compared to individual tool results.