LinearTurboFold: Fast Folding and Alignment for RNA Homologs with Applications to Coronavirus

Sizhen Li,¹ He Zhang,² Liang Zhang,^{2,1} Kaibo Liu,^{2,1} Boxiang Liu,² David H. Mathews,^{3,4,5*} Liang Huang^{1,2*}

 ¹School of Electrical Engineering & Computer Science, Oregon State University, Corvallis, OR 97330, USA
 ²Baidu Research USA, Sunnyvale, CA 94089, USA
 ³Department of Biochemistry & Biophysics, ⁴Center for RNA Biology,
 ⁵Department of Biostatistics & Computational Biology,
 University of Rochester Medical Center, Rochester, NY 14642, USA

*To whom correspondence should be addressed; E-mail: David_Mathews@urmc.rochester.edu, liang.huang.sh@gmail.com.

As the COVID-19 outbreak spreads, there is a growing need for an efficient tool to identify conserved RNA structures as critical targets for diagnostics and therapeutics. To address this need, we present LinearTurboFold, an algorithm that scales *linearly* with sequence length, to predict conserved structures for a set of unaligned RNA homologs. LinearTurboFold uses the same iterative refinement of structures and alignments as TurboFold, but is substantially faster than previous methods and can fold full-length coronavirus genomes without constraints on base-pairing distance. It also significantly improves structure prediction accuracy and achieves comparable alignment accuracy. On SARS-CoV-2 genomes, LinearTurboFold identifies not only conserved structures but also accessible and conserved regions as potential targets for designing efficient small-molecule drugs, antisense oligonucleotides, siRNAs, CRISPR-Cas13 gRNAs and RT-PCR primers.

1 Introduction

² RNAs play important roles in many cellular processes ($\boxed{1}$, $\boxed{2}$). To maintain their functions, secondary ³ structures of RNA homologs are conserved across evolution ($\boxed{3}$, $\boxed{4}$, $\boxed{5}$). These conserved structures ⁴ provide critical targets for diagnostics and treatments. Thus, there is a need for developing fast and ⁵ accurate computational methods to identify structurally conserved regions.

Commonly, conserved structures involve compensatory base pair changes, where two positions 6 in primary sequences mutate across evolution and still conserve a base pair, for instance, an AU or a 7 CG pair replaces a GC pair in homologous sequences. These compensatory changes provide strong 8 evidence for evolutionarily conserved structures (6,7,8,9,10). Meanwhile, they make it harder to align 9 sequences when structures are unknown. To solve this issue, Sankoff proposed a dynamic algorithm 10 that simultaneously predicts structures and a structural alignment for two or more sequences (ΠI) . 11 The major limitation of this approach is that the algorithm runs in $O(n^{3k})$ against k sequences with 12 the average sequence length n. Several software packages provide implementations of the Sankoff 13 algorithm (12) 13, 14, 15, 16, 17) that use simplifications to reduce runtime,¹ 14

As an alternative, TurboFold II (18), an extension of TurboFold (19), provides a more computa-15 tionally efficient method to align and fold sequences. Taking multiple unaligned sequences as input, 16 TurboFold II iteratively refines alignments and structure predictions so that they conform more closely 17 to each other and converge on conserved structures. TurboFold II is significantly more accurate than 18 other methods (12, 14, 20, 21, 22) when tested on RNA families with known structures and alignments. 19 However, the cubic runtime and quadratic memory usage of TurboFold II prevent it from scaling 20 to longer sequences such as full-length SARS-CoV-2 genomes which contain \sim 30,000 nucleotides; 21 in fact, no joint-align-and-fold methods can scale to these genomes which are the longest among 22 RNA viruses. As a (not very principled) workaround, most existing efforts for modeling SARS-23 CoV-2 structures (23, 24, 25, 26, 27, 28) resort to local folding methods (29, 30) with sliding windows 24 plus a limited pairing distance, abandoning all non-local interactions, and only consider one SARS-25

¹Besides these joint-fold-and-align algorithms, there exist two alternative approaches to homologous folding: *align-then-fold* and *fold-then-align*; see Fig. S1 for details.

²⁶ CoV-2 genome (Fig. [B–C), ignoring homology signals. To address this challenge, we design a ²⁷ linearized version of TurboFold II, *LinearTurboFold* (Fig. [A), which is a global homologous folding ²⁸ algorithm that scale linearly with sequence length. This linear runtime makes it the first joint-fold-²⁹ and-align algorithm to scale to full-length coronavirus genomes without any constraints on window ³⁰ size or pairing distance, taking about 13 hours to analyze a group of 25 SARS-CoV homologs. It also ³¹ leads to significant improvement on secondary structure prediction accuracy as well as an alignment ³² accuracy comparable to or higher than all benchmarks.

Over a group of 25 SARS-CoV-2 and SARS-related homologous genomes, LinearTurboFold pre-33 dictions are close to the canonical structures (31) and structures modeled with the aid of experimental 34 data (24, 25, 26) for several well-studied regions. Thanks to global rather than local folding, Lin-35 earTurboFold discovers a long-range interaction involving 5' and 3' UTRs (~29,800 nt apart), which 36 is consistent with recent purely experimental work (27), and yet is out of reach for local folding meth-37 ods used by existing studies (Fig. **TB**–C). In short, our *in silico* method of folding multiple homologs 38 can achieve results similar to, and sometimes more accurate than, experimentally-guided models for 39 one genome. Moreover, LinearTurboFold identifies conserved structures supported by compensatory 40 mutations, which are potential targets for small molecule drugs (32) and antisense oligonucleotides 41 (ASOs) (28). We further identify regions that are (a) sequence-level conserved, (b) at least 15 nt long, 42 and (c) accessible (i.e., likely to be completely unpaired) as potential targets for ASOs $(\overline{33})$, small 43 interfering RNA (siRNA) (34), CRISPR-Cas13 guide RNA (gRNA) (35) and reverse transcription 44 polymerase chain reaction (RT-PCR) primers (36). 45

LinearTurboFold is a general technique that can also be applied to other RNA viruses (e.g., influenza, Ebola, HIV, Zika, etc.) for full-length genome studies.

48 **Results**

The framework of LinearTurboFold has two major aspects (Fig. 1A): linearized structure-aware pairwise alignment estimation (module 1); and linearized homolog-aware structure prediction (module 2).
LinearTurboFold iteratively refines alignments and structure predictions, specifically, updating pair-

wise alignment probabilities by incorporating predicted base-pairing probabilities (from module **2**) to form structural alignments, and modifying base-pairing probabilities for each sequence by integrating the structural information from homologous sequences via the estimated alignment probabilities (from module **1**) to detect conserved structures. After several iterations, LinearTurboFold generates the final multiple sequence alignment (MSA) based on the latest pairwise alignment probabilities (module **3**) and predicts secondary structures using the latest pairing probabilities (module **4**).

LinearTurboFold achieves linear time regarding sequence length with two major linearized mod-58 ules: our recent work LinearPartition (37) (Fig. 1A module 2), which approximates the RNA partition 59 function ($\overline{38}$) and base pairing probabilities in linear time, and a novel algorithm LinearAlignment 60 (module 1). LinearAlignment aligns two sequences by Hidden Markov Model (HMM) in linear 61 time by applying the same beam search heuristic (39) used by LinearPartition. Finally, LinearTur-62 boFold assembles the secondary structure from the final base pairing probabilities using an accurate 63 and linear-time method named ThreshKnot ($\overline{40}$) (module 4). LinearTurboFold also integrates a linear-64 time stochastic sampling algorithm named LinearSampling $(\overline{41})$ (module 5), which can independently 65 sample structures according to the homolog-aware partition functions and then calculate the probabil-66 ity of being unpaired for regions, which is an important property in siRNA sequence design $(\overline{34})$. So 67 overall, the end-to-end runtime of LinearTurboFold scales linearly with sequence length (see Meth-68 ods for more details). 69

70 Scalability and Accuracy

To evaluate the efficiency of LinearTurboFold against the sequence length, we collected a dataset consisting of seven families of RNAs with sequence length ranging from 210 *nt* to 30,000 *nt*, including five families from the RNAstralign dataset plus 23S ribosomal RNA, HIV and SARS-CoV genomes, and each family has five homologous sequences (see **Methods** for more details). Fig. 2A compares the running times of LinearTurboFold with TurboFold II and two Sankoff-style simultaneous folding and alignment algorithms, LocARNA and MXSCARNA. Clearly, LinearTurboFold scales linearly with sequence length *n*, and is substantially faster than other benchmarks which scale superlinearly. The

linearization in LinearTurboFold brought orders of magnitude speedup over the cubic-time TurboFold 78 II, taking only 12 minutes on the HIV family (average length 9,686 nt) while TurboFold II takes 3.1 79 days ($372 \times$ speedup). More importantly, LinearTurboFold takes only 40 minutes on five SARS-CoV 80 sequences while all other benchmarks fail to scale. Regarding the memory usage (Fig. 2B), Lin-81 earTurboFold costs linear memory space with sequence length, while other benchmarks use quadratic 82 or more memory. In Fig. 2C–D, we also demonstrate that the runtime and memory usage against the 83 number of homologs ($k = 5 \sim 20$), using homologs of 16S rRNAs about 1,500 nt in length. The 84 apparent complexity against the group size of LinearTurboFold is higher than TurboFold II because 85 the cubic-time partition function calculation, which dominates the runtime of TurboFold II, has been 86 linearized in LinearTurboFold by LinearPartition (Fig. S5C). 87

We next compare the accuracies of predicted secondary structures and MSAs between LinearTurboFold and several benchmark methods. Besides Sankoff-style LocARNA and MXSCARNA, we also consider three types of negative controls: (a) single sequence folding (partition function-based): Vienna RNAfold (*30*) (-p mode) and LinearPartition; (b) sequence-only alignment: MAFFT (*21*) and LinearAlignment (a standalone version without structural information); and (c) an align-then-fold method that predicts consensus structures from MSAs (Fig. <u>S1</u>): MAFFT + RNAalifold (*20*).

For secondary structure prediction, LinearTurboFold, TurboFold II and LocARNA achieve higher 94 F1 scores than single sequence folding methods (Vienna RNAfold and LinearPartition) (Fig. 2E), 95 which demonstrates folding with homology information performs better than folding sequences sepa-96 rately. Overall, LinearTurboFold performs significantly better than all the other benchmarks on struc-97 ture prediction. For the accuracy of MSAs (Fig. 2F), the structural alignments from LinearTurboFold 98 obtain higher accuracies than sequence-only alignments (LinearAlignment and MAFFT) on all four 99 families, especially for families with low sequence identity. On average, LinearTurboFold performs 100 comparably with TurboFold II and significantly better than other benchmarks on alignments. We also 101 note that the structure prediction accuracy of the align-then-fold approach (MAFFT + RNAalifold) 102 depends heavily on the alignment accuracy, and is the worst when the sequence identity is low (e.g., 103 SRP RNA) and the best when the sequence identity is high (e.g., 16S rRNA) (Fig. 2E–F). 104

Highly Conserved Structures in SARS-CoV-2 and SARS-related Betacoron aviruses

RNA sequences with conserved secondary structures play vital biological roles and provide potential targets. The current COVID-19 outbreak raises an emergent requirement of identifying potential targets for diagnostics and therapeutics. Given the strong scalability and high accuracy, we used LinearTurboFold on a group of full-length SARS-CoV-2 and SARS-related (SARSr) genomes to obtain global structures and identify highly conserved structural regions.

We used a greedy algorithm to select the 16 most diverse genomes from all the valid SARS-CoV-2 genomes submitted to the Global Initiative on Sharing Avian Influenza Data (GISAID) (42) up to December 2020 (**Methods**). We further extended the group by adding 9 SARS-related homologous genomes (5 human SARS-CoV-1 and 4 bat coronaviruses). In total, we built a dataset of 25 fulllength genomes consisting of 16 SARS-CoV-2 and 9 SARS-related sequences (Tab. <u>S2</u>). The average pairwise sequence identities of the 16 SARS-CoV-2 and the total 25 genomes are 99.9% and 89.6%, respectively. LinearTurboFold takes about 13 hours and 43 GB on the 25 genomes.

To evaluate the reliability of LinearTurboFold predictions, we first compare them with the Hus-119 ton et al.'s SHAPE-guided models (24) for regions with well-characterized structures across betacoro-120 naviruses. For the extended 5' and 3' untranslated regions (UTRs), LinearTurboFold's predictions are 121 close to the SHAPE-guided structures (Fig. 3A–B), i.e., both identify the stem-loops (SLs) 1–2 and 122 4–7 in the extended 5' UTR, and the bulged stem-loop (BSL), SL1, and a long bulge stem for the 123 hypervariable region (HVR) including the stem-loop II-like motif (S2M) in the 3' UTR. Interestingly, 124 in our model, the high unpaired probability of the stem in the SL4b indicates the possibility of being 125 single-stranded as an alternative structure, which is supported by experimental studies (28, 25). In 126 addition, the compensatory mutations LinearTurboFold found in UTRs strongly support the evolu-127 tionary conservation of structures (Fig. 3A). 128

The most important difference between LinearTurboFold's prediction and Huston *et al.*'s experimentallyguided model is that LinearTurboFold discovers an end-to-end interaction (29.8 kilobases apart) between the 5' UTR (SL3, 60-82 *nt*) and the 3' UTR (final region, 29845-29868 *nt*), which fold locally

by themselves in Huston et al.'s model. Interestingly, this 5'-3' interaction matches exactly with the 132 one discovered by the purely experimental work of Ziv *et al.* (43) using the COMRADES technique 133 to capture long-range base-pairing interactions (Fig. 3C). These end-to-end interactions have been 134 well established by theoretical and experimental studies (44, 45, 46) to be common in natural RNAs, 135 but are far beyond the reaches of local folding methods used in existing studies on SARS-CoV-2 sec-136 ondary structures (24, 25, 26, 27). By contrast, LinearTurboFold predicts secondary structures globally 137 without any limit on window size or base-pairing distance, enabling it to discover long-distance in-138 teractions across the whole genome. The similarity between our predictions and the experimental 139 work shows that our in silico method of folding multiple homologs can achieve results similar to, 140 if not more accurate than, those experimentally-guided single-genome prediction. We also observed 141 that LinearPartition, as a single sequence folding method, can also predict a long-range interaction 142 between 5' and 3' UTRs, but it involves SL2 instead of SL3 of the 5' UTR (Fig. 3A), which indi-143 cates that the homologous information assists to adjust the positions of base pairs to be conserved in 144 LinearTurboFold. Additionally, the align-then-fold approach (MAFFT + RNAalifold) fails to predict 145 such long-range interactions (Fig. S6B). 146

The frameshifting stimulation element (FSE) is another well-characterized region. For an ex-147 tended FSE region, the LinearTurboFold prediction consists of two substructures (Fig. 4A): the 5' 148 part includes an attenuator hairpin and a stem, which are connected by a long internal loop (16 nt) 149 including the slippery site, and the 3' part includes three stem loops. We observe that our predicted 150 structure of the 5' part is consistent with experimentally-guided models (24, 25, 27) (Fig. 4B–D). In 151 the attenuator hairpin, the small internal loop motif (UU) was previously selected as a small molecule 152 binder which stabilizes the folded state of the attenuator hairpin and impairs frameshifting (32). For 153 the long internal loop including the slippery site, we will show in the next section that it is both highly 154 accessible and conserved (Fig. 5), which makes it a perfect candidate for drug design. For the 3' re-155 gion of the FSE, LinearTurboFold successfully predicts stems 1-2 (but misses stem 3) of the canonical 156 three-stem pseudoknot (37) (Fig. 4E). Our prediction is closer to the canonical structure compared to 157 the experimentally-guided models (24, 25, 27) (Fig. 4B–D); one such model (Fig. 4B) identified the 158

pseudoknot (stem 3) but with an open stem 2. Note that all these experimentally-guided models for 159 the FSE region were estimated for specific local regions. As a result, the models are sensitive to the 160 context and region boundaries (27, 24, 47) (see Fig. S7D–F for alternative structures of Fig. 4B–D 161 with different regions). LinearTurboFold, by contrast, does not suffer from this problem by virtue of 162 global folding without local windows. Besides SARS-CoV-2, we notice that the estimated structure 163 of the SARS-CoV-1 reference sequence (Fig. 4F) from LinearTurboFold is similar to SARS-CoV-2 164 (Fig. 4A), which is consistent with the observation that the structure of the FSE region is highly con-165 served among betacoronaviruses (37). Finally, as negative controls, both the single sequence folding 166 algorithm (LinearPartition in Fig. 4G) and the align-then-fold method (RNAalifold in Fig. S7G) pre-167 dict quite different structures compared with the LinearTurboFold prediction (Fig. 4A) (39%/61% of 168 pairs from the LinearTurboFold model are not found by LinearPartition/RNAalifold, respectively). 169

In addition to the well-studied UTRs and FSE regions, LinearTurboFold discovers 50 conserved structures with identical structures among 25 genomes, and 26 regions are novel compared to previous studies (23, 24) (Fig. 4H and Tab. 54), which might be potential targets for small-molecule drugs (32) and antisense oligonucleotides (28, 48). LinearTurboFold also recovers fully conserved base pairs with compensatory mutations (Tab. 53), which imply highly conserved structural regions whose functions might not have been explored.

Highly Accessible and Conserved Regions in SARS-CoV-2 and SARS-related Betacoronaviruses

Studies show that the siRNA silencing efficiency, ASOs inhibitory efficacy, CRISPR-Cas13 knockdown efficiency and RT-PCR testing efficiency all correlate with the target *accessibility* (34, 35, 36, 49), which is the probability of a target site being fully unpaired. To get unstructured regions, Rangan *et al.* (23) imposed a threshold on unpaired probabilities of each position, which is not a truly correct method because the unpaired probabilities are dependent. By contrast, the widely-used stochastic sampling algorithm (50, 41) builds a representative ensemble of structures by sampling independent secondary structures according to their probabilities in the Boltzmann distribution. Thus the acces-

sibility for a region can be approximated as the fraction of sampled structures in which the region is single-stranded. LinearTurboFold utilized LinearSampling (47) to generate 10,000 independent structures for each genome according to the modified partition functions after the iterative refinement (Fig. []A module 5), and calculated accessibilities for regions at least 15 *nt* long. We then identify *accessible regions* with at least 0.5 accessibility among all 16 SARS-CoV-2 genomes (Fig. 5]A–B).

In addition to accessibility, sequence conservation is another critical aspect for efficient therapeu-190 tic and diagnostic target sites. We further identify accessible and conserved regions that are not only 191 structurally accessible among SARS-CoV-2 genomes, but also fully conserved among SARS-CoV-2 192 genomes with at most one mutation at each position across SARS-related genomes (Fig. 5C). These 193 regions are less likely to accumulate mutations in the future. Finally, we identified 35 accessible and 194 conserved regions (Fig. 5G and Tab. 5). Because the nucleotide content and specificity are also key 195 factors influencing siRNA efficient (57), we searched BLAST against the human mRNA dataset for 196 these regions and calculated the GC content (Tab. <u>S5</u>). Among these regions, region 16 corresponds 197 to the internal loop containing the slippery site in the extended FSE region, and it is conserved at 198 both structural and sequence levels (Fig. 5D and 5H). Region 29 in the ORF3a gene is fully con-199 served among all the 25 genomes with average accessibility 0.936 (Fig. 5D). Besides SARS-CoV-2 200 genomes, the SARS-related genomes such as the SARS-CoV-1 reference sequence (NC_004718.3) 201 and a bat coronavirus (BCoV, MG772934.1) also form similar structures around the slippery site 202 (Fig. 5A). To investigate if the the mutations are sensitive to the sampled SARS-CoV-2 genomes, we 203 further checked the conservation of these regions among a dataset including 257,672 valid genomes 204 submitted to GISAID up to December 2020, and most of these regions are still highly conserved² 205 (Tab. S5). The mutations of new lineages of SARS-CoV-2 in South African, Brazil³ and India⁴ are 206 outside of these predicted regions, which implies that the sequence conservation constraint imposed 207 on SARS-related genomes is helpful in selecting evolutionarily conserved regions. 208

²⁰⁹ We also designed a negative control by analyzing the SARS-CoV-2 reference sequence alone,

²the fraction of valid genomes in which the whole region is identical.

³https://www.cdc.gov/coronavirus/2019-ncov/more/science-and-research/scientific-brief-emerging-variants.html

⁴https://www.cdc.gov/coronavirus/2019-ncov/variants/variant-info.html

which can also obtain some accessible regions. However, these regions are not structurally conserved 210 among the other 15 SARS-CoV-2 genomes, resulting in vastly different accessibilities, except for one 211 region in the M gene (Tab. S6). The reason behind this is that even with a high sequence identity (over 212 99.9%), single sequence folding algorithms still predict greatly dissimilar structures for the SARS-213 CoV-2 genomes (Fig. 5E–F). Both regions (in nsp11 and N genes) are fully conserved among the 214 16 SARS-CoV-2 genomes, yet they still fold into vastly different structures due to mutations outside 215 the regions; as a result, the accessibilities are either low (nsp11) or in a wide range (N) (Fig. 5D). 216 Conversely, addressing this by folding each sequence with proclivity of base pairing inferred from all 217 homologous sequences, LinearTurboFold structure predictions are more consistent with each other 218 and thus can detect conserved structures (Fig. 5A-B). 219

220 Summary

We have presented LinearTurboFold, an end-to-end linear-time algorithm for structural alignment and conserved structure prediction of RNA homologs, which is the first joint-fold-and-align algorithm to scale to full-length SARS-CoV-2 genomes without imposing any constraints on base-pairing distance. We also demonstrate that LinearTurboFold leads to significant improvement on secondary structure prediction accuracy as well as an alignment accuracy comparable to or higher than all benchmarks.

Unlike existing work using local folding workarounds, LinearTurboFold enables unprecedented 226 global structural analysis on the SARS-CoV-2 genomes; in particular, it can capture long-range in-227 teractions, especially the one between 5' and 3' UTRs across the whole genome, which matches 228 perfectly with a recent purely experiment work. Over a group of 25 SARS-CoV-2 and SARS-related 229 homologs, LinearTurboFold identifies not only conserved structures supported by compensatory mu-230 tations and experimental studies, but also accessible and conserved regions as vital targets for design-231 ing efficient small-molecule drugs, siRNAs, ASOs, CRISPR-Cas13 gRNAs and RT-PCR primers. 232 LinearTurboFold is widely applicable to the analysis of other RNA viruses (influenza, Ebola, HIV, 233 Zika, etc.) and full-length genome analysis. 234

References

- 1. S. R. Eddy., Nature Reviews Genetics 2, 919 (2001).
- 2. J. A. Doudna, T. R. Cech, Nature 418, 222 (2002).
- 3. E. P. Nawrocki, S. R. Eddy, *Bioinformatics* 29, 2933 (2013).
- 4. E. A. Brown, H. Zhang, L.-H. Ping, S. M. Lemon, Nucleic Acids Research 20, 5041 (1992).
- 5. J. Ritz, J. S. Martin, A. Laederach, *PLoS Computational Biology* 9, e1003152 (2013).
- 6. E. Rivas, J. Clements, S. R. Eddy, Bioinformatics 36, 3072 (2020).
- 7. R. W. Holley, et al., Science pp. 1462–1465 (1965).
- 8. H. F. Noller, et al., Nucleic Acids Research 9, 6167 (1981).
- 9. N. R. Pace, D. K. Smith, G. J. Olsen, B. D. James, Gene 82, 65 (1989).
- 10. K. Williams, D. Bartel, RNA 2, 1306 (1996).
- 11. D. Sankoff, SIAM Journal on Applied Mathematics 45, 810-(1985).
- S. Will, K. Reiche, I. L. Hofacker, P. F. Stadler, R. Backofen, *PLoS Computational Biology* 3, e65 (2007).
- 13. J. H. Havgaard, E. Torarinsson, J. Gorodkin, PLoS Computational Biology 3, 1896–1908 (2007).
- 14. Y. Tabei, H. Kiryu, T. Kin, K. Asai, BMC Bioinformatics 9, 33 (2008).
- 15. Z. Xu, D. H. Mathews, Bioinformatics 27, 626 (2011).
- 16. D. H. Mathews, D. H. Turner, Journal of Molecular Biology 317, 191 (2002).
- 17. K. Sato, Y. Kato, T. Akutsu, K. Asai, Y. Sakakibara, Bioinformatics 28, 3218 (2012).
- 18. Z. Tan, Y. Fu, G. Sharma, D. H. Mathews, Nucleic Acids Research 45, 11570 (2017).

- 19. A. O. Harmanci, G. Sharma, D. H. Mathews, BMC Bioinformatics 12, 108 (2011).
- 20. S. H. Bernhart, I. L. Hofacker, S. Will, A. R. Gruber, P. F. Stadler, *BMC Bioinformatics* 9, 1 (2008).
- 21. K. Katoh, D. M. Standley, Molecular Biology and Evolution 30, 772 (2013).
- 22. C. B. Do, M. S. Mahabhashyam, M. Brudno, S. Batzoglou, Genome Research 15, 330 (2005).
- 23. R. Rangan, et al., RNA 26, 937 (2020).
- 24. N. C. Huston, et al., Molecular cell 81, 584 (2021).
- 25. I. Manfredonia, et al., Nucleic Acids Research 48, 12436 (2020).
- 26. C. Iserman, et al., Molecular cell 80, 1078 (2020).
- 27. T. C. Lan, et al., BioRxiv (2020).
- 28. L. Sun, et al., Cell 184, 1865 (2021).
- 29. J. S. Reuter, D. H. Mathews, BMC Bioinformatics 11, 1 (2010).
- 30. R. Lorenz, et al., Algorithms for Molecular Biology 6, 1 (2011).
- 31. J. A. Kelly, et al., Journal of Biological Chemistry 295, 10741 (2020).
- 32. H. S. Haniff, et al., ACS Central Science 6, 1713 (2020).
- 33. Z. J. Lu, D. H. Mathews, Nucleic Acids Research 36, 3738 (2008).
- S. Schubert, A. Grünweller, V. A. Erdmann, J. Kurreck, *Journal of Molecular Biology* 348, 883 (2005).
- 35. O. O. Abudayyeh, et al., Nature 550, 280 (2017).
- 36. I. Peters, C. Helps, E. Hall, M. Day, Journal of Immunological Methods 286, 203 (2004).

- 37. H. Zhang, L. Zhang, D. H. Mathews, L. Huang, Bioinformatics 36, i258 (2020).
- 38. J. S. McCaskill, Biopolymers 29, 11105 (1990).
- 39. L. Huang, K. Sagae, Proceedings of ACL 2010 (ACL, Uppsala, Sweden, 2010), p. 1077–1086.
- 40. L. Zhang, H. Zhang, D. H. Mathews, L. Huang, BioRxiv (2019).
- 41. H. Zhang, L. Zhang, S. Li, D. Mathews, L. Huang, BioRxiv (2020).
- 42. S. Elbe, G. Buckland-Merrett, *Global Challenges* 1, 33 (2017).
- 43. O. Ziv, et al., Molecular cell 80, 1067 (2020).
- 44. M. G. Seetin, D. H. Mathews, Bacterial Regulatory RNA (Springer, 2012), pp. 99–122.
- 45. T. J. Li, C. M. Reidys, Bulletin of Mathematical Biology 80, 1514 (2018).
- 46. W.-J. C. Lai, et al., Nature Communications 9, 1 (2018).
- 47. R. Rangan, et al., Nucleic Acids Research 49, 3092 (2021).
- 48. V. Lulla, et al., BioRxiv pp. 2020–09 (2021).
- 49. Z. J. Lu, D. H. Mathews, Nucleic Acids Research 36, 640 (2008).
- 50. Y. Ding, C. E. Lawrence, Nucleic Acids Research 31, 7280 (2003).
- 51. E. Fakhr, F. Zare, L. Teimoori-Toolabi, Cancer gene therapy 23, 73 (2016).
- 52. A. O. Harmanci, G. Sharma, D. H. Mathews, BMC Bioinformatics 8, 130 (2007).
- 53. R. Durbin, S. R. Eddy, A. Krogh, G. Mitchison, *Biological sequence analysis: probabilistic models of proteins and nucleic acids* (Cambridge University Press, 1998).
- 54. I. L. Hofacker, S. H. Bernhart, P. F. Stadler, Bioinformatics 20, 2222 (2004).
- 55. S. Bellaousov, D. H. Mathews, RNA 16, 1870 (2010).

- 56. J. J. Cannone, et al., BMC Bioinformatics 3, 2 (2002).
- 57. C. Ceraolo, F. M. Giorgi, Journal of Medical Virology 92, 522 (2020).
- 58. Y. Tabei, K. Tsuda, T. Kin, K. Asai, Bioinformatics 22, 1723 (2006).
- 59. N. Aghaeepour, H. H. Hoos, BMC Bioinformatics 14, 139 (2013).
- 60. F. Wu, et al., Nature 579, 265 (2020).
- 61. R. Madhugiri, M. Fricke, M. Marz, J. Ziebuhr, *Advances in Virus Research* (Elsevier, 2016), vol. 96, pp. 127–163.
- E. Van Den Born, C. C. Posthuma, A. P. Gultyaev, E. J. Snijder, *Journal of Virology* 79, 6312 (2005).
- 63. E. P. Plant, J. D. Dinman, Frontiers in Bioscience: A Journal and Virtual Library 13, 4873 (2008).
- 64. S. J. Goebel, B. Hsue, T. F. Dombrowski, P. S. Masters, Journal of Virology 78, 669 (2004).
- S. J. Goebel, T. B. Miller, C. J. Bennett, K. A. Bernard, P. S. Masters, *Journal of Virology* 81, 1274 (2007).
- 66. P. Liu, D. Yang, K. Carter, F. Masud, J. L. Leibowitz, Virology 443, 40 (2013).
- 67. M. P. Robertson, et al., PLoS Biology 3, e5 (2004).
- 68. P. P. Gardner, R. Giegerich, BMC Bioinformatics 5, 1 (2004).
- M. Hochsmann, T. Toller, R. Giegerich, S. Kurtz, Computational Systems Bioinformatics. CSB2003. Proceedings of the 2003 IEEE Bioinformatics Conference. CSB2003 (IEEE, 2003), pp. 159–168.
- 70. D. H. Mathews, RNA 10, 1178 (2004).

Acknowledgments

Authors contributions: L.H. and D.H.M. conceived the idea and directed the project. S.L., H.Z., L.H., and D.H.M. designed the algorithm; S.L. implemented it. D.H.M. guided the evaluation that S.L. and L.Z. carried out. S.L. and H.Z. wrote the manuscript; L.H., and D.H.M. revised it. L.K. made the webserver. B.L. guided the SARS-CoV-2 experiment.

Competing interests: The authors declare no conflict of interest.

Figures



Figure 1: A: The LinearTurboFold framework. Like TurboFold, LinearTurboFold also takes multiple unaligned homologous sequences as input and then outputs a multiple sequence alignment and structures for each sequence, but unlike TurboFold, it employs two linearizations to ensure linear runtime: a *linearized* alignment computation (module 1) to predict posterior co-incidence probabilities (red squares) for all pairs of sequences and a *linearized* partition function computation (module 2) to estimate base-pairing probabilities (yellow triangles) for all the sequences. These two modules take advantage of information from each other and iteratively refine predictions (see Fig. S2 for details). After several iterations, module 3 generates the final multiple sequence alignments, and module 4 predicts secondary structures. Module 5 is an optional output to stochastically sample structures. B-C: Most prior studies (expect for a purely experimental work by Ziv et al.) used local folding methods with limited window size and maximum pairing distance. **B** shows the local folding of the SARS-CoV-2 genome by Huston *et al.* Some work also used homologous sequences to identify conserved structures, but they only predicted structures for one genome and utilized sequence alignments to extract mutations. By contrast, LinearTurboFold is a global folding method without any limitations on sequence length or paring distance, and it jointly folds and aligns homologs to obtain conserved structures. Consequently, LinearTurboFold can capture long-range interactions even across the whole genome (the long arc in **B**, Fig. 3).



Figure 2: End-to-end Scalability and Accuracy Comparisons. A-B: End-to-end runtime and memory usage comparisons between benchmarks and LinearTurboFold against the sequence length. C-D: End-to-end runtime and memory usage comparisons against the group size. LinearTurboFold is the first joint-fold-and-align algorithm to scale to full-length coronavirus genomes (\sim 30,000 *nt*) due to linear runtime. **E-F**: The F1 accuracy scores of the structure prediction and multiple sequence alignment (see Tab. S1 for more details). LocARNA and MXSCARNA are Sankoff-style simultaneous folding and alignment algorithms for homologous sequences. As negative controls, LinearPartition and Vienna RNAfold predicted structures for each sequence separately; LinearAlignment and MAFFT generated sequence-level alignments; RNAalifold folded pre-aligned sequences (e.g., from MAFFT) and predicted conserved structures. Statistical significances (two-tailed permutation test) between the benchmarks and LinearTurboFold are marked with one star (\star) on the top of the corresponding bars if p < 0.05 or two stars (*) if p < 0.01. The benchmarks whose accuracies are significantly lower than LinearTurboFold are annotated with black stars, while benchmarks higher than LinearTurboFold are marked with dark red stars. Overall, on structure prediction, LinearTurboFold achieves significantly higher accuracy than all evaluated benchmarks, and on multiple sequence alignment, it achieves accuracies comparable to TurboFold II and significantly higher than other methods (See Tab. S1 for detailed accuracies).

bioRxiv preprint doi: https://doi.org/10.1101/2020.11.23.393488; this version posted June 24, 2021. The copyright holder for this preprint (which was not certified by peer review) is the author/funder, who has granted bioRxiv a license to display the preprint in perpetuity. It is made available under aCC-BY-NC-ND 4.0 International license.



Figure 3: Secondary structures predictions of SARS-CoV-2 extended 5' and 3' UTRs. A: LinearTurboFold prediction. The nucleotides and base pairs are colored by unpaired probabilities and basepairing probabilities, respectively. The compensatory mutations extracted by LinearTurboFold are annotated with alternative pairs in red boxes (see Tab. S3 for more fully conserved pairs with covariational changes). B: SHAPE-guided model by Huston *et al.* (24) (window size 3000 *nt* sliding by 300 nt with maximum pairing distance 500 nt). The nucleotides are colored by SHAPE reactivities. Dash boxes circle the different structures between A and B. Our model is close to Huston *et al.*'s, but the major difference is that LinearTurboFold predicts the end-to-end pairs involving 5' and 3' UTRs (solid box in A), which is *exactly* the same interaction detected by Ziv *et al.* using the COMRADES experimental technique $(\overline{43})$ (C). Such long-range interactions cannot be captured by the local folding methods used by prior experimentally-guided models (Fig. 1B). The similarity between models A and B as well as the exact agreement between A and C show that our *in silico* method of folding multiple homologs can achieve results similar to, if not more accurate than, experimentally-guided singlegenome prediction. As negative controls (Fig. S6), the align-then-fold (RNAalifold) method cannot predict such long-range interactions. Although the single sequence folding algorithm (LinearPartition) predicts a long-range 5'-3' interaction, the positions are not the same as the LinearTurboFold

bioRxiv preprint doi: https://doi.org/10.1101/2020.11.23.393488; this version posted June 24, 2021. The copyright holder for this preprint (which was not certified by peer review) is the author/funder, who has granted bioRxiv a license to display the preprint in perpetuity. It is made available under aCC-BY-NC-ND 4.0 International license.



Figure 4: **A–D**: Secondary structure predictions of SARS-CoV-2 extended frameshifting stimulation element (FSE) region (13425–13545 *nt*). **A**: LinearTurboFold prediction. **B–D**: Experimentallyguided predictions from the literature (24,27,25), which are sensitive to the context and region boundaries due to the use of local folding methods (Fig. S7). **E**: The canonical pseudoknot structure by the comparative analysis between SARS-CoV-1 and SARS-CoV-2 genomes (37). For the 5' region of the FSE shown in dotted boxes (attenuator hairpin, internal loop with slippery site, and a stem), the LinearTurboFold prediction (A) is consistent with B–D; for the 3' region of the FSE shown in dashed boxes, our prediction (predicting stems 1–2 but missing 3) is closer to the canonical structure in E compared to B–D. **F**: LinearTurboFold prediction on SARS-CoV-1. **G**: Single sequence folding algorithm (LinearPartition) prediction on SARS-CoV-2, which is quite different from LinearTurboFold's. As another negative control, the align-then-fold method (RNAalifold) predicts a rather dissimilar structure (Fig. S7G). **H**: Five examples from 59 fully conserved structures among 25 genomes (see Tab. S4 for details), 26 of which are novel compared with prior work (23, 24).





Figure 5: An illustration of accessible and conserved regions that LinearTurboFold identifies. A–B: Identified structurally-conserved accessible regions by LinearTurboFold with the help of considering alignment and folding simultaneously. The regions at least 15 nt long with accessibility of at least 0.5 among all the 16 SARS-CoV-2 genomes are shaded on blue background. Structures are encoded in dot-bracket notation. "(" and ")" indicates nucleotides pairing in the 3' and 5' direction, respectively. ·· ·· indicates an unpaired nucleotide. The positions with mutations compared to the SARS-CoV-2 reference sequence among three different subfamilies (SARS-CoV-2, SARS-CoV-1 and BCoV) are underlined. C: Accessible and conserved regions are not only *accessible* among SARS-CoV-2 genomes (pink circle) but also *conserved* (at sequence level) among both SARS-CoV-2 and SARSrelated genomes (green circle). D: Three examples out of 35 accessible and conserved regions found by LinearTurboFold. Region 16 and Region 32 correspond to the accessible regions in A and B, respectively. Region 16 is also the long internal loop including the slippery site in the FSE region (**H**). Region 29 is fully conserved among all 25 genomes. E-F: Single sequence folding algorithms predict greatly different structures even if the sequence identities are high (grey boxes). These two regions, fully conserved among SARS-CoV-2 genomes, still fold into different structures due to mutations outside the regions. G: The positions of these 35 regions (red bars) across the whole genome (see Tab. **S5** for more details). All the accessible and conserved regions are potential targets for siRNAs, ASOs, CRISPR-Cas13 gRNAs and RT-PCR primers.