

1 **Title:** Comparative analysis of gene prediction tools for viral genome annotation.

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10

11 **Abstract**

12 The number of newly available viral genomes and metagenomes has increased exponentially since the
13 development of high throughput sequencing platforms and genome analysis tools. Bioinformatic
14 annotation pipelines are largely based on open reading frame (ORF) calling software, which identifies genes
15 independently of the sequence taxonomical background. Although ORF-calling programs provide a rapid
16 genome annotation, they can misidentify ORFs and start codons; errors that might be perpetuated and
17 propagated over time. This study evaluated the performance of multiple ORF-calling programs for viral
18 genome annotation against the complete RefSeq viral database. Programs outputs varied when considering
19 the viral nucleic acid type versus the viral host. According to the number of ORFs, Prodigal and
20 Metaprodigal were the most accurate programs for DNA viruses, while FragGeneScan and Prodigal
21 generated the most accurate outputs for RNA viruses. Similarly, Prodigal outperformed the benchmark for
22 viruses infecting prokaryotes, and GLIMMER and GeneMarkS produced the most accurate annotations for
23 viruses infecting eukaryotes. When the coordinates of the ORFs were considered, Prodigal scored high for
24 all scenarios except for RNA viruses, where GeneMarkS generated the most reliable results. Overall, the
25 quality of the coordinates predicted for RNA viruses was poorer than for DNA viruses, suggesting the need
26 for improved ORF-calling programs to deal with RNA viruses. Moreover, none of the ORF-calling programs
27 reached 90% accuracy for annotation of DNA viruses. Any automatic annotation can still be improved by
28 manual curation, especially when the presence of ORFs is validated with wet-lab experiments. However,
29 our evaluation of the current ORF-calling programs is expected to be useful for the improvement of viral

30 genome annotation pipelines and highlights the need for more expression data to improve the rigor of
31 reference genomes.

32 Keywords: Virus; Bacteriophage; Genome Annotation; Gene Prediction; Open Reading Frame

33

34 **Introduction**

35 The field of viromics—the characterization of viral communities and populations (viromes) in a given
36 environmental niche (1)—is rapidly evolving along with the increasing discovery and characterization of
37 new viruses across all domains of life (2,3). The development of sequencing technologies, the associated
38 reduction in costs and increased throughput, has made high quality viral metagenomic studies possible (4).
39 As a result, the number of new sequenced virus and phage genomes is expanding at an impressive rate
40 (5,6), arguably without the concomitant improvement in appropriate bioinformatic tools required to
41 examine viral contigs and genomes (7) or to address the number of viral sequences that share little or no
42 homology to any genes of predictable function (uncultivated virus genomes) (6).

43 New viruses are usually annotated using *de novo* genome annotation pipelines such as RAST (8), Prokka (9),
44 VIGA (10), and Cenote-Taker 2 (11). All these bioinformatic tools strongly rely on open reading frame (ORF)
45 calling software, such as GLIMMER (12), the GeneMark family of programs (13-15) and Prodigal (16), which
46 are the most commonly used programs. These ORF-calling programs identify genes and their start codons
47 without considering the taxonomical background of the sequence. Although most of these programs were
48 designed for bacterial genome analysis, they have also been used to rapidly annotate complete viral
49 genomes. However, this approach can produce poorly optimized results. For instance non-coding ORFs
50 might be misidentified as coding ORFs, real ORFs might be missed, or start codons misidentified (17). This
51 problem is particularly relevant as the annotation of new viruses relies on previous annotations of similar
52 viruses, resulting in the perpetuation and propagation of annotation errors over time (5).

53 Recent benchmarking exercises have evaluated the performance of multiple ORF-calling programs for
54 temperate bacteriophage annotation (5,18). However, these investigations relied solely on the genomes of
55 temperate phages whose genes were known empirically. Salisbury and Tsourkas (2019) only considered
56 sequences of *Escherichia* virus Lambda and *Mycobacterium* virus Patience (5), whereas Lazeroff *et al* (2021)
57 performed benchmarking using a total of eight virus genomes, including the aforementioned Lambda and
58 Patience (18); yet, the sample size was smaller than the estimated sample size required for the complete
59 collection of sequenced viral genomes. In fact, when considering all complete bacteriophage genome
60 sequences present in the NCBI Reference Sequence Database (RefSeq), (4,166 at the time of writing) the

61 estimated minimum sample size was 352 (95% confidence interval; 5% error margin) or 3,331 (99%
62 confidence interval; 1% error margin). Similarly, for all complete virus genome sequences reported in
63 RefSeq (13,778 at the time of writing), the estimated minimum sample size was 374 (95% confidence
64 interval; 5% margin of error) or 7,538 (99% confidence interval; 1% error margin) (19).

65 This study evaluates the performance of multiple ORF-calling programs for viral genome annotation using
66 the whole RefSeq viral database (20). To assess the impact of ORF misidentification, several factors were
67 considered: A false ORF might be treated as a coding sequence, a true ORF might be lost during the
68 bioinformatic prediction process, or the location of start codons was incorrect during the ORF prediction
69 process. The number of ORFs and their coordinates were considered. Unfortunately, despite their
70 importance in viral biology, this benchmarking exercise was not able to include non-coding RNA elements,
71 which have only recently been annotated in viruses (21,22). Rigorous and regular evaluation of such
72 systems in this way is fundamental to the evolution of viral genome annotation pipelines that can keep
73 pace with the ever-increasing volume of virus sequence data.

74

75 **Material and methods**

76 *Benchmark creation: database and ORF-calling programs*

77 The RefSeq viral database (20) was used as a gold standard to evaluate the performance of the different
78 ORF calling programs. The RefSeq collection provides a curated, non-redundant, stable database for
79 annotated reference genomes of viruses, microbes, organelles, and eukaryotic organisms (23). At the time
80 of writing, RefSeq contained 13,778 sequences, of which only 8,267 sequences were complete genomes,
81 9,505 belonged to viruses infecting eukaryotic host cells, 4,166 belonged to bacteriophages (including 10
82 sequences of Mollicutes bacteriophages) and 107 were identified as viruses infecting archaeal host cells.

83 All 13,778 viral genome sequences from RefSeq were submitted to Prodigal v. 2.6.3 (16), GLIMMER v. 3.02
84 (12), GeneMarkS v. 4.32 (14), PHANOTATE v. 1.5.0 (24), Metaprodigal v. 2.6.3 (25), FragGeneScan v. 1.31
85 (26), MetaGeneAnnotator (MGA) (27), and AUGUSTUS v. 3.4.0 (28). Prodigal, GLIMMER and GeneMarkS are
86 the most commonly used ORF-calling programs for prokaryotic genomes, being the most critical step for
87 the majority of the *de novo* bioinformatics pipelines (8,9,29). PHANOTATE was included because it was
88 specifically designed for bacteriophage genome annotation (24). Metaprodigal, FragGeneScan and MGA are
89 particularly useful for metagenomics and metaviromics datasets as they have been optimized for gene
90 identification in highly fragmented assemblies (especially for contigs less than 20,000 bp long) (25-27). All
91 programs were run using the same parameters, focusing especially on the use of the NCBI genetic code 11

92 (“Bacterial, Archaeal and Plant Plastid Code”) for archaeal viruses and non-Mollicutes bacteriophages, 4
93 (“Mold, Protozoan, and Coelenterate Mitochondrial Code and Mycoplasma/Spiroplasma Code”) for
94 Mollicutes phages, and 1 (“Standard Genetic Code”) for eukaryotic viruses. In the case of AUGUSTUS, the
95 in-built models for *Staphylococcus aureus*, *Escherichia coli* and *Homo sapiens* and default parameters were
96 considered for ORF calling. All program outputs were processed using customized Python 3 scripts to
97 retrieve the number of genes and the coordinates of these ORFs.

98

99 *Statistical analyses*

100 To evaluate each ORF-calling program, two different analyses were performed: i) coding sequence number
101 prediction, and ii) coding sequence coordinate prediction. First, linear models were used to infer the
102 accuracy or trueness, defined as the proximity of the retrieved number of viral ORFs from every program to
103 the expected number of viral ORFs according to those described in RefSeq for the same virus. Linear models
104 also considered the precision (measurement of the deviation between the retrieved number of viral ORFs
105 for every program and the expected value from the linear model) of the ORF-calling programs in
106 determining the number of viral coding sequences compared to the reference database. All linear models
107 were forced to have intercept zero. The slope was used as a measure of accuracy, while the coefficient of
108 determination (R^2) was used to measure the precision. Secondly, the prediction quality of the coordinates
109 of the viral coding sequences was evaluated by the F1 score or Sørensen-Dice coefficient, where the
110 precision and sensitivity was defined as:

$$F_1 \text{ Score} = \frac{2 \times TP}{(2 \times TP + FP + FN)}$$
$$\text{Precision} = \frac{TP}{(TP + FP)}$$
$$\text{Sensitivity} = \frac{TP}{(TP + FN)}$$

111

112 TP indicates the number of true positives (ORFs for which coordinates were exactly the same in both the
113 output file and the reference), FP the number of false positives (ORFs for which coordinates appeared only
114 in the output file) and FN the number of false negatives (ORFs for which coordinates appeared in the
115 reference and were missed in the output file) (17). False Discovery Rate (FDR) and False Negative Rate
116 (FNR) were considered to measure the type I (false coordinates were considered as true coordinates) and
117 the type II (true coordinates were considered as false coordinates) errors. All statistical analyses were
118 performed in R. v. 4.1.0 (30).

119

120 *Data availability/Novel Programs, Software, Algorithms*

121 All Python 3 and R scripts are freely available under the GNU General Public License v. 3.0 at

122 https://github.com/EGTortuero/Benchmarking_ORF_calling_programs_in_viral_genomes

123

124 **Results**

125 The outputs from each annotation program were evaluated according to two different parameters: (1)

126 number of coding sequences and, (2) coordinates of coding sequences.

127

128 *Coding Sequence Number Prediction*

129 Firstly, the accuracy and the precision of the number of viral coding sequences were estimated using linear
130 models. Accuracy was measured by the slope, and precision was measured according to the R^2 of the

131 regression model. In a general overview, the programs delivered different estimates of the number of

132 coding sequences (Table 1). PHANOTATE, Prodigal and Metaprodigal overestimated the number of ORFs by

133 30.69%, 1.59% and 1.00% respectively, while the remaining programs tended to underestimate the number

134 of ORFs—the median percentage of underestimation was $26.95\% \pm 28.95\%$. Despite such observation,

135 Prodigal and Metaprodigal showed the most accurate predictions, being closest to the ideal accuracy of

136 100.00% (Fig. 1A). However, MGA, Prodigal and FragGeneScan were the three most precise programs

137 according to their coefficients of determination (96.32%, 95.65% and 95.59%, respectively; Table 1). When

138 compared according to host domain, similar results were found for all scenarios tested (Figs. 1B-D).

139 Prodigal outperformed the accuracy test for viruses infecting archaea and bacteria (96.61% and 99.56%,

140 respectively), while GLIMMER and GeneMarkS were the most accurate ORF callers for viruses infecting

141 eukaryotes (99.36% and 97.82%, respectively; Table 1). Finally, when considering the viral nucleic acid, all

142 programs predicted differences in the number of coding sequences (Figs. 1E-F). In fact, while for double-

143 stranded (ds-) and single-stranded (ss-) DNA viruses the most accurate programs were Prodigal (101.59%)

144 and Metaprodigal (101.01%); FragGeneScan (99.62% accuracy and 88.06% precision) and Prodigal (99.01%

145 accuracy and 87.65% precision) generated the most accurate and precise results for ds- and ss-RNA viruses

146 (Table 1).

147

148 *Coding Sequence Coordinate prediction*

149 Secondly, to predict the quality of the coordinates of the viral coding sequences, F1 score, a measure that
150 combines precision and sensitivity, was considered. Additionally, FDR and FNR were examined to evaluate
151 the occurrence of false positives (i.e., false coordinates considered as true; type I error) and false negatives
152 (i.e., true coordinates considered as false; type II error). Prodigal scored highly for all tests according to the
153 F1 score (General: 83.26%; Viruses infecting Archaea: 80.02%; Bacteriophages: 86.25%; Viruses infecting
154 Eukaryotes: 70.86%; ds- and ss-DNA viruses: 83.92%) except when analyzing RNA virus genomes (59.51%),
155 where GeneMarkS obtained the best F1 score (60.84%), followed by Prodigal (59.51%) and Glimmer
156 (56.60%). In contrast, for ds- and ss-DNA viruses, Prodigal (83.92%) generated the best results based on the
157 F1 score, followed by Metaprodigal (81.91%) and MGA (80.60%). For both viruses infecting eukaryotes and
158 bacteria, the highest FDR and FNR was associated with AUGUSTUS (median FDR [Viruses infecting
159 eukaryotes]: 63.71 % \pm 5.77 %; median FDR [Bacteriophages]: 29.40 % \pm 33.14 %; median FNR [Viruses
160 infecting eukaryotes]: 75.90 % \pm 25.04 %; median FNR [Bacteriophages]: 44.77 % \pm 0.50 %). Interestingly,
161 the performance of the different ORF-calling programs to predict the quality of the coordinates in RNA virus
162 genomes was very poor (median F1 score: 47.44% \pm 46.92%; median precision: 45.05% \pm 40.54%; median
163 sensitivity: 52.46% \pm 35.17%) compared to that in DNA viruses (median F1 score: 66.50% \pm 43.59%; median
164 precision: 75.19% \pm 27.42%; median sensitivity: 63.69% \pm 56.71%). In fact, GeneMarkS was more precise
165 (64.26%) than other ORF-calling programs, including Prodigal (57.17%), for the prediction of the
166 coordinates in RNA viruses. Overall, for all tests, the most sensitive ORF-calling program was Prodigal (Table
167 2).

168

169 Discussion

170 In this study, we evaluated the performance of multiple ORF-calling programs for viral genome annotation
171 based on the number of ORFs and their coordinates. According to our results, we found that viral gene
172 predictions must be analyzed not considering the target host, but which nucleic acids the virus harbors. In
173 fact, the differences in the performance of each program were more evident between ds- and ss-DNA
174 viruses and ds- and ss-RNA viruses than among viruses infecting archaea, bacteriophages and viruses
175 infecting eukaryotes.

176 We found that the performance of these ORF-calling programs was very poor for ds- and ss-RNA viruses,
177 with GeneMarkS being the program that reached the highest F1 score, followed by Prodigal and Glimmer.
178 This observation suggests the need for improvement for ORF calling programs to be able to deal with ds-
179 and ss-RNA viruses, regardless of whether they are viruses infecting eukaryotes or prokaryotes. However,
180 the vast majority of reported ds- and ss-RNA viruses infect eukaryotic organisms, driving the development

181 of closed-reference homology-based bioinformatic tools, such as FLAN for influenza viruses (31), VIGOR for
182 RNA viruses (32), ViPR and VAPID for human viruses (33,34), and VADR for non-flu viruses (35). Others have
183 been developed for ss-DNA viruses, such as PuMA for papillomaviruses (36). The decision to develop and
184 use a closed-reference homology-based method implies that the original viral references must be
185 exceptionally well annotated. In this context, RNA and ss-DNA viruses harbor complex gene features with
186 transcriptional and translational exceptions such as gene overlapping and alternative splicing, which are
187 normally missed in most genome annotations (37,38). Additionally, from the perspective of bacteriophages,
188 there is a considerable volume of ‘dark matter’ comprising poorly defined ORFs and genes of unknown
189 function and there are very few examples of exceptionally well-annotated phage genomes (39). All these
190 observations represent a major challenge for accurate and precise ORF-calling and gene annotation
191 programs.

192 Considering the performance of the same programs applied to genome sequences from ds- and ss-DNA
193 viruses, F1 scores were much higher than from RNA viruses. Prodigal reached the highest F1 score, followed
194 by Metaprodigal and MGA. A potential explanation for this observation is the use of Prokka—a fast, *de*
195 *novo* prokaryotic genome annotation pipeline—for the genome annotation of giant viruses, bacteriophages
196 and viruses of Archaea, because this pipeline relies on Prodigal for the ORF calling process (9). Surprisingly,
197 these results are not consistent with previously reported benchmarks, where MGA systematically
198 generated less false positives than other ORF-calling programs (18) and GeneMarkS achieved the highest
199 accuracy for the automatic gene identification for temperate phages due to the fewest number of false
200 negatives and false positives (5). Nevertheless, no benchmarking has previously reported for the
201 annotation of non-temperate lytic bacteriophage genomes, which are considered as an alternative to
202 antibiotics to rapidly kill bacterial pathogens (“phage therapy”) (40). Additionally, it is important to note
203 that none of the ORF-calling programs reached 90% accuracy for ds- and ss-DNA viruses, which is
204 concordant with a previous benchmarking exercise (5). For this reason, several authors proposed the use of
205 multiple ORF-calling programs to identify all viral genes (5,18,41). In such a way, it would be recommended
206 to review the output of bioinformatic ORF prediction tools and manually interpret their findings (17,18,41),
207 even though manual curation of an annotated genome is a time- and labor-intensive process. Of course,
208 the ideal would be the manual curation of viral genomes, validated by wet-lab experiments to confirm the
209 presence of these ORFs, as happens with RNA viruses, where the ORFs are characterized empirically via
210 cDNA-gDNA hybridization (42-46) or using RNA-seq experiments (47-50). In the meantime, our evaluation
211 of the current bioinformatic tools provides benchmarking to inform decisions about the most appropriate
212 analysis pipelines for a given subject and highlights the need for more expression data to improve the rigor
213 of reference genomes.

214

215 **Data availability**

216 All Python 3 and R scripts used for this study are available at Github:

217 https://github.com/EGTortuero/Benchmarking_ORF_calling_programs_in_viral_genomes

218

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222

223 **Conflict of Interest Disclosure**

224 The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

225

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229

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351

352 **Figure/Table legends**

353

354 **Figure 1.** Correlation between the expected and observed number of coding sequences when considering
355 (A) all known viral sequences, (B) viruses infecting archaea, (C) bacteriophages, (D) viruses infecting
356 eukaryotes, (E) ds- and ss-DNA viruses, and (F) ds- and ss-RNA viruses. Dotted line is a 1:1 line.

357 **Table 1.** Accuracy and precision in the number of coding sequences

358 **Table 2.** Accuracy, precision and sensitivity of the different programs. False Discovery Rate (FDR) and False
359 Negative Ratio (FNR) are used to describe errors in the precision and sensitivity.

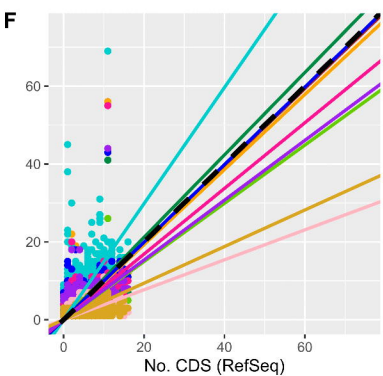
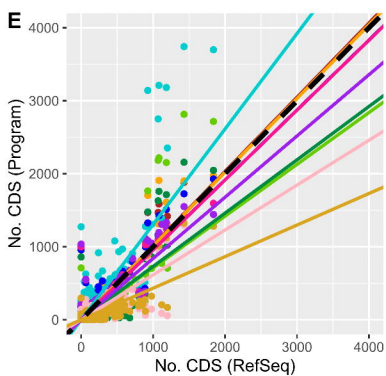
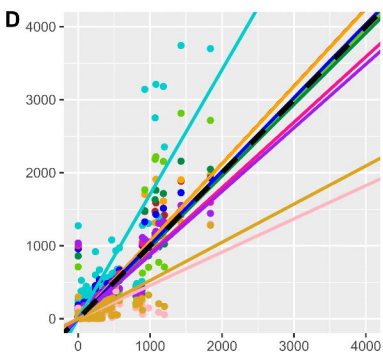
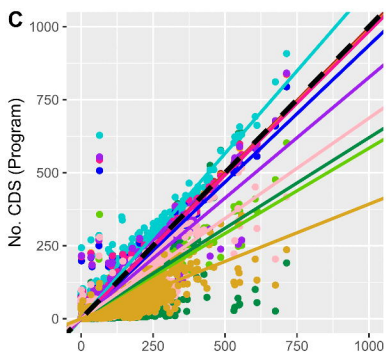
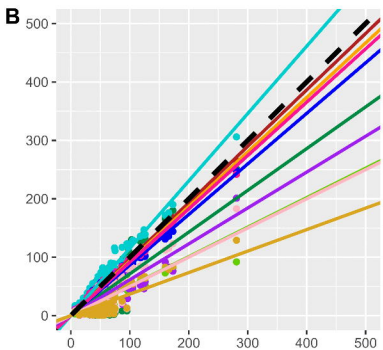
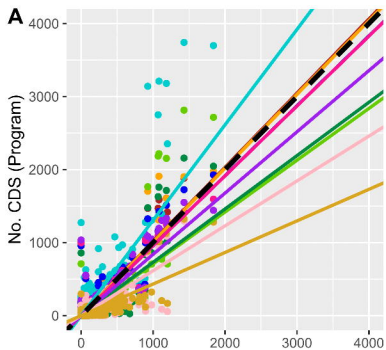


Table 1. Accuracy and precision in the number of coding sequences

Case (number of sequences)	Program	Accuracy (Slope)	Precision (R^2)
All viruses (13,778)	PRODIGAL	1.01587	0.9565
	METAPRODIGAL	1.01004	0.9506
	GLIMMER	0.70951	0.7423
	GeneMarkS	0.73051	0.7315
	PHANOTATE	1.30686	0.855
	MGA	0.9571	0.9632
	FragGeneScan	0.95786	0.9559
	AUGUSTUS (<i>S. aureus</i>)	0.83911	0.8969
	AUGUSTUS (<i>E. coli</i>)	0.61472	0.8377
	AUGUSTUS (<i>H. sapiens</i>)	0.43244	0.7892
Viruses infecting archaeal hosts (107)	PRODIGAL	0.96607	0.997
	METAPRODIGAL	0.9337	0.995
	GLIMMER	0.50471	0.9138
	GeneMarkS	0.71465	0.7085
	PHANOTATE	1.15295	0.9899
	MGA	0.9133	0.9949
	FragGeneScan	0.86562	0.9933
	AUGUSTUS (<i>S. aureus</i>)	0.61412	0.8888
	AUGUSTUS (<i>E. coli</i>)	0.4999	0.7508
	AUGUSTUS (<i>H. sapiens</i>)	0.36808	0.7855
Bacteriophages (4,166)	PRODIGAL	0.99555	0.9897
	METAPRODIGAL	0.98786	0.9895
	GLIMMER	0.5837	0.9386
	GeneMarkS	0.61961	0.6906
	PHANOTATE	1.13126	0.9862
	MGA	0.98438	0.9894
	FragGeneScan	0.93567	0.9877
	AUGUSTUS (<i>S. aureus</i>)	0.8262	0.9112
	AUGUSTUS (<i>E. coli</i>)	0.68659	0.9232
	AUGUSTUS (<i>H. sapiens</i>)	0.39223	0.8675
Viruses infecting eukaryotic hosts (9,505)	PRODIGAL	1.06201	0.8993
	METAPRODIGAL	1.06079	0.8857
	GLIMMER	0.99358	0.7113
	GeneMarkS	0.97815	0.8566
	PHANOTATE	1.70524	0.8109
	MGA	0.897	0.9041
	FragGeneScan	1.0089	0.903

	AUGUSTUS (<i>S. aureus</i>)	0.87165	0.8721
	AUGUSTUS (<i>E. coli</i>)	0.45585	0.6494
	AUGUSTUS (<i>H. sapiens</i>)	0.52323	0.7378
ds- and ss-DNA viruses (7,564)	PRODIGAL	1.01588	0.9565
	METAPRODIGAL	1.01007	0.9507
	GLIMMER	0.70949	0.7422
	GeneMarkS	0.73032	0.7315
	PHANOTATE	1.30676	0.8551
	MGA	0.95717	0.9633
	FragGeneScan	0.95784	0.9559
	AUGUSTUS (<i>S. aureus</i>)	0.83915	0.897
	AUGUSTUS (<i>E. coli</i>)	0.61482	0.8378
	AUGUSTUS (<i>H. sapiens</i>)	0.43242	0.7892
	ds- and ss-RNA viruses (6,214)	PRODIGAL	0.99008
METAPRODIGAL		0.96462	0.8703
GLIMMER		0.74766	0.8785
GeneMarkS		1.05858	0.8735
PHANOTATE		1.4917	0.7337
MGA		0.84354	0.811
FragGeneScan		0.99624	0.8806
AUGUSTUS (<i>S. aureus</i>)		0.76804	0.804
AUGUSTUS (<i>E. coli</i>)		0.3849	0.6401
AUGUSTUS (<i>H. sapiens</i>)		0.46998	0.7512

Table 2. Accuracy, precision and sensitivity of the different programs. False Discovery Rate (FDR) and False Negative Ratio (FNR) are used to describe errors in the precision and sensitivity.

Case	Program	F1 Score	Precision	Sensitivity	FDR (Type I Error)	FNR (Type II Error)
All viruses (13,778)	PRODIGAL	0.83261	0.826357	0.838958	0.1736427	0.1610417
	METAPRODIGAL	0.810869	0.809406	0.812337	0.1905945	0.1876629
	GLIMMER	0.374514	0.491625	0.302464	0.5083751	0.6975363
	GeneMarkS	0.631786	0.747125	0.547296	0.2528753	0.4527039
	PHANOTATE	0.689996	0.621607	0.775294	0.3783932	0.224706
	MGA	0.793599	0.80448	0.783008	0.1955204	0.2169917
	FragGeneScan	0.736218	0.750778	0.722212	0.2492221	0.2777881
	AUGUSTUS (<i>S. aureus</i>)	0.564699	0.638428	0.506236	0.3615724	0.4937641
	AUGUSTUS (<i>E. coli</i>)	0.585615	0.74484	0.482475	0.2551597	0.5175248
	AUGUSTUS (<i>H. sapiens</i>)	0.226037	0.375398	0.161701	0.6246025	0.8382995
Viruses infecting archaeal hosts (107)	PRODIGAL	0.800237	0.810463	0.790266	0.1895369	0.2097341
	METAPRODIGAL	0.794029	0.815076	0.774043	0.1849243	0.2259575
	GLIMMER	0.357097	0.501361	0.277304	0.4986393	0.7226961
	GeneMarkS	0.501389	0.693763	0.392541	0.3062371	0.6074594
	PHANOTATE	0.709301	0.654914	0.773541	0.3450864	0.2264593
	MGA	0.760603	0.793423	0.73039	0.206577	0.2696103
	FragGeneScan	0.709419	0.759985	0.665161	0.2400153	0.3348386
	AUGUSTUS (<i>S. aureus</i>)	0.494197	0.636676	0.403827	0.3633236	0.5961732
	AUGUSTUS (<i>E. coli</i>)	0.38442	0.677612	0.268322	0.3223881	0.7316785
	AUGUSTUS (<i>H. sapiens</i>)	0.183524	0.396226	0.119418	0.6037736	0.880582
Bacteriophages (4,166)	PRODIGAL	0.86248	0.862814	0.862146	0.1371862	0.1378536
	METAPRODIGAL	0.854597	0.858627	0.850606	0.1413734	0.1493944
	GLIMMER	0.347614	0.479301	0.272693	0.5206993	0.7273071
	GeneMarkS	0.623633	0.760117	0.528702	0.2398835	0.471298
	PHANOTATE	0.730571	0.683264	0.784917	0.3167362	0.2150832

	MGA	0.851837	0.858461	0.845315	0.1415395	0.1546852
	FragGeneScan	0.58717	0.563444	0.612983	0.4365558	0.3870173
	AUGUSTUS (<i>S. aureus</i>)	0.61974	0.706003	0.552262	0.2939968	0.4477382
	AUGUSTUS (<i>E. coli</i>)	0.652832	0.795405	0.553601	0.2045954	0.4463986
	AUGUSTUS (<i>H. sapiens</i>)	0.204648	0.350757	0.144469	0.6492429	0.8555311
Viruses infecting eukaryotic hosts (9,505)	PRODIGAL	0.708596	0.679842	0.739891	0.3201583	0.2601094
	METAPRODIGAL	0.626137	0.607279	0.646203	0.3927206	0.353797
	GLIMMER	0.477917	0.528893	0.435904	0.4711074	0.5640963
	GeneMarkS	0.670447	0.705276	0.638897	0.2947242	0.3611032
	PHANOTATE	0.539783	0.427922	0.730823	0.572078	0.2691773
	MGA	0.531444	0.552519	0.511917	0.4474812	0.4880828
	FragGeneScan	0.58717	0.563444	0.612983	0.4365558	0.3870173
	AUGUSTUS (<i>S. aureus</i>)	0.333522	0.36286	0.308572	0.6371399	0.6914276
	AUGUSTUS (<i>E. coli</i>)	0.208491	0.347304	0.148956	0.6526962	0.8510445
	AUGUSTUS (<i>H. sapiens</i>)	0.316537	0.460972	0.24102	0.5390285	0.7589803
ds- and ss-DNA viruses (7,564)	PRODIGAL	0.839228	0.833695	0.844835	0.1663046	0.1551654
	METAPRODIGAL	0.819136	0.818105	0.82017	0.1818955	0.1798304
	GLIMMER	0.3686	0.487136	0.296461	0.512864	0.7035386
	GeneMarkS	0.632476	0.750597	0.546477	0.249403	0.4535226
	PHANOTATE	0.697426	0.631266	0.779078	0.3687341	0.2209217
	MGA	0.806025	0.817158	0.795191	0.1828416	0.2048086
	FragGeneScan	0.742858	0.758995	0.727393	0.2410054	0.2726066
	AUGUSTUS (<i>S. aureus</i>)	0.570832	0.64644	0.511059	0.3535598	0.4889415
	AUGUSTUS (<i>E. coli</i>)	0.59314	0.753229	0.489172	0.2467711	0.5108278
	AUGUSTUS (<i>H. sapiens</i>)	0.22311	0.373769	0.159014	0.626231	0.8409861
ds- and ss-RNA viruses (6,214)	PRODIGAL	0.595122	0.571708	0.620536	0.4282921	0.3794643
	METAPRODIGAL	0.509863	0.499019	0.521189	0.5009811	0.4788114
	GLIMMER	0.566089	0.610232	0.527901	0.3897682	0.4720989
	GeneMarkS	0.608441	0.642596	0.577734	0.3574045	0.4222661

PHANOTATE	0.44324	0.345423	0.618343	0.6545772	0.3816568
MGA	0.333493	0.336816	0.330236	0.6631838	0.6697644
FragGeneScan	0.505519	0.483528	0.529606	0.5164718	0.4703945
AUGUSTUS (<i>S. aureus</i>)	0.341925	0.364488	0.321993	0.6355116	0.6780069
AUGUSTUS (<i>E. coli</i>)	0.121928	0.171686	0.094531	0.8283145	0.9054692
AUGUSTUS (<i>H. sapiens</i>)	0.324541	0.417475	0.265449	0.5825254	0.734551