

DeepMethylation: A deep learning based framework with GloVe and transformer encoder for DNA methylation prediction

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ABSTRACT

DNA methylation is a crucial topic in bioinformatics research. Traditional wet experiments are usually time-consuming and expensive. In contrast, machine learning offers an efficient and novel approach. In this study, we propose DeepMethylation, a novel methylation predictor with deep learning. Specifically, the DNA sequence is encoded with word embedding and GloVe in the first step. After that, dilated convolution and transformer encode modules are utilized to extract the features. Finally, full connection and softmax operations are applied to predict the methylation sites. The proposed model achieves an accuracy of 97.9% on the 5mC dataset, which outperforms state-of-the-art models. Furthermore, our predictor exhibits good generalization ability as it achieves an accuracy of 95.8% on the m1A dataset. To ease access for other researchers, our code is publicly available at <https://github.com/sb111169/tf-5mc>.

Subjects Bioinformatics, Computational Science, Data Mining and Machine Learning

Keywords DNA methylation, word vector model, deep learning, transformer, site prediction

INTRODUCTION

Epigenetics is first introduced to study the heritable changes in the regulation of gene expression without altering the nucleotide sequence of DNA. Advancements in life sciences have led to constant updates to the definition of epigenetics. Researchers have discovered various epigenetic mechanisms, including protein acetylation and methylation (Zhang et al., 2020a). Currently, N⁶-methyladenine (6mA), N⁴-methylcytosine (4mC) and 5-methylcytosine (5mC) are the three most widely studied types of DNA methylation. Take 5mC as an example, it commonly appears on the fifth carbon atom of cytosine in the DNA sequence's CpG dinucleotides. DNA methyltransferase transfers the methyl (-CH₃) group from S-AdenosylMethionine (SAM) to the fifth carbon atom of cytosine (Adampourezare et al., 2021).

Studies have indicated the possible negative impact on organisms of abnormal DNA methylation. Firstly, DNA methylation can affect the level of gene expression, and even lead to gene silencing or abnormal expression (Ehrlich, 2003). For example, DNA methylation can change the conformation of chromatin, thus affecting chromatin accessibility and gene expression. In addition, the risk of gene mutations is positively correlated with DNA methylation (De Bont and Van Larebeke, 2004). Methylation sites are prone to be damaged in the process of replication and repair of DNA. If they are not repaired correctly, it may lead to loss of DNA or accumulation of mutations. Moreover, the same is true of the occurrence and development of cancer (Xu et al., 2011; Chowdhury et al., 2011; Lu et al., 2012; Koivunen et al., 2012). Some cancer cells have aberrant methylation of genes involved in important cellular life processes such as cell growth, differentiation and apoptosis, suggesting that DNA methylation may promote tumor initiation and progression. For instance, mutations in IDH1/2 produce the oncogenic metabolite 2-HG, which results in increased DNA methylation at the cellular level. This alteration affects gene expression and leads to cancer. Finally, embryonic development and adult diseases are also

45 associated with DNA methylation(Jin et al., 2008; Tatton-Brown et al., 2014; Baets et al., 2015). DNA
46 methylation plays an important role in embryonic development, and abnormal methylation may cause
47 birth defects or abnormal development. The status of three functional protein families in the epigenetic
48 system (write, reader, eraser), and their associated genes' genetic variation can cause diseases (e.g., autism,
49 blood disease) by affecting overall cell-level epigenetics. Therefore, DNA methylation plays an important
50 role in gene expression regulation and chromatin structure variation, and the detection of methylation is
51 of great importance.

52 Current methods for methylation detection include wet experiments, traditional machine learning meth-
53 ods, and deep learning methods. Wet experiments conduct molecular biology tests to distinguish between
54 methylation and demethylation in DNA samples. This typically involves bisulfite treatment(Smallwood
55 et al., 2014; Kernaleguen et al., 2018), enzymatic digestion, and chromatin immunoprecipitation. Follow-
56 ing bisulfite treatment, methylated cytosine is oxidized and transformed to unmethylated uracil, whereas
57 unmethylated cytosine remains unchanged, and the difference indicates methylation.

58 Traditional machine learning methods generally consist of three key steps: data processing, fea-
59 ture extraction, and classification, which are all designed based on the experience of the researchers.
60 Commonly-used features include physical, statistical, and sequence annotation features such as base
61 frequencies, G+C content, length, repetitive sequences, RNA elements, and protein binding sites (Fang
62 et al., 2006; Zhang et al., 2015). Based on the features, classification algorithms like logistic regression,
63 support vector machines, or decision trees are used to identify the methylation sites.

64 In contrast, deep learning methods are more straightforward. Instead of manually specifying the feature
65 extractor and classifier, researchers only need to design the deep neural networks, which automatically
66 extract features and predict methylation results from DNA sequences. Furthermore, driven by datasets
67 with a large number of samples, deep learning can extract more essential features than manually designed
68 ones. For instance, the DNA module and the CpG module of the DeepCpG model(Angermueller et al.,
69 2017) can predict the relationship between DNA sequences and their methylation status, as well as the
70 relationship between adjacent CpG sites within a single cell or across cells.

71 In general, wet experiments achieve high accuracy, but they only predict a small number of DNA
72 methylation sites. In addition, conducting wet experiments requires not only great cost and time, but also
73 professional knowledge in biology, and these factors make it difficult to be widely applied. Traditional
74 machine learning needs specified feature design, which also requires professional experience and extensive
75 tests to find good feature descriptors. In contrast, deep learning methods can automatically learn the most
76 relevant features without specifying them in advance, and can handle large datasets and high-dimensional
77 data.

78 However, although deep learning methods provide new insights to detect DNA methylation, they still
79 face challenges. On the one hand, convolutional neural networks (CNNs) can extract features for DNA,
80 but they are not sensitive to 1D sequential data. On the other hand, recurrent neural networks (RNNs)
81 are more suitable for feature extraction of sequential signals, but they do not perform well in learning
82 remote relationship. Moreover, conducting large-scale parallel computation is challenging due to RNN's
83 structure. In addition, the current DNA encoding methods, one-hot and word embedding, emphasize local
84 information and ignore global relationship.

85 To solve these problems, in this paper, we propose DeepMethylation, a novel deep-learning based
86 scheme to predict DNA methylation sites. The contribution of this paper is as the following. Firstly,
87 with word embedding and GloVe, we propose a novel DNA encoding method. This new representation
88 format improves the ability in modeling the relationship between DNA sub-sequences. Secondly, dilated
89 convolution and transform encoder are incorporated to better extract both local and global features,
90 especially the relationship between DNA sequences far from each other. Last but not least, dense full
91 connections are used to predict the methylation status of each site. Experimental results demonstrate that
92 the accuracy of the proposed method reaches 97.9%, which outperforms other state-of-the-art methods.

93 RELATED WORKS

94 Wet experiments

95 Genome-wide single nucleotide resolution (GWGSR) typically requires wet experiments to be realized.
96 Currently, the main approaches for achieving GWGSR include whole-genome bisulfite sequencing
97 (WGBS), reduced representation bisulfite sequencing (RRBS), and DNA methylation chip.

98 WGBS (Smallwood et al., 2014; Kernaleguen et al., 2018) is a high-resolution and comprehensive
99 method for full-genome sequencing via bisulfite treatment, which converts unmethylated cytosine to
100 uracil, but does not convert methylated cytosine. Methylation status of individual cytosines can be
101 determined at the single nucleotide level by comparing the DNA sequences with and without bisulfite
102 treatment. RRBS(Guo et al., 2013; Farlik et al., 2015; Hou et al., 2016) is a cost-effective alternative to
103 WGBS and involves sequencing the CpG-rich subset of the genome. RRBS reduces the requirement for
104 sequence depth to cover the entire genome and still provides single nucleotide resolution at CpG sites.
105 DNA methylation chips(Morris et al., 2014) represent microarray-based platforms that simultaneously
106 detect DNA methylation levels among thousands of CpG sites in the genome. These chips contain probes
107 that are specific to methylated or unmethylated CpG sites, and the intensity of the signal from each probe
108 indicates the site's methylation level.

109 Although wet experiments produce accurate prediction results, it needs great financial cost and time,
110 as well as professional biology knowledge, which is inefficient in implementation.

111 **Traditional machine learning methods**

112 With the rapid advancement in automatic DNA sequencing technology, huge amount of DNA sequences
113 are obtained, promoting the analysis of DNA data. Traditional machine learning methods involve two
114 steps. Firstly, manually designed DNA features are proposed. After that, with these features, machine
115 learning classification algorithms are utilized to predict the methylation. Stevens et al.(Stevens et al.,
116 2013) integrated the features from chromatin immunoprecipitation sequencing and methylation-sensitive
117 restriction enzyme sequencing, and predicted the methylation status of CpG sites in the human genome
118 by using a conditional random field model. Zhang et al. (Zhang et al., 2015)utilized various features,
119 including methylation markers, genomic locations, and regulatory factors, to design a methylation
120 prediction model with a random forest classifier. Fang et al.(Fang et al., 2006) developed a CpG island
121 methylation prediction tool called MethCGI using CpG island data from the human brain. This model
122 takes input features such as CpG ratio, GC content, TpG frequency and transcription factor binding site
123 distribution, and employs a support vector machine as a classifier.

124 Machine learning methods have demonstrated higher efficiency and lower costs than wet experiments.
125 However, the performance of machine learning models is limited by the manual selection of feature
126 descriptors and classifiers, which relies on the experience of the researchers.

127 **Deep learning methods**

128 In recent years, with the rapid development of neural networks, deep learning methods have been applied
129 to DNA methylation prediction(Routhier and Mozziconacci, 2022). Deep learning automatically extracts
130 features and is free from tedious feature engineering, allowing an end-to-end model to be constructed for
131 feature extraction and classification. Deep learning methods, including convolutional neural networks
132 (CNN) and recurrent neural networks (RNN), have been proven to perform well in predicting DNA
133 methylation sites.

134 Angermueller et al. proposed the DeepCpG model(Angermueller et al., 2017). The model consists
135 of DNA module, CpG module and joint module. The DNA module involves two convolutional layers
136 and a pooling layer to identify correlations between DNA sequence patterns and methylation status. The
137 CpG module employs a bidirectional gated recurrent network to identify correlations between adjacent
138 CpG sites. The joint module learns the interaction between the DNA and CpG modules to predict
139 the methylation status in all cells. Tian et al. proposed MRCNN(Tian et al., 2019), which used the
140 correlation between DNA sequence patterns and methylation levels to predict the methylation of the
141 CpG site at single base resolution. The model used one-hot encoding, convolution, pooling and fully
142 connected layers to output the predicted value. With a continuous loss function, MRCNN achieves smooth
143 regression of methylation values, and produces more accurate results than the DeepCpG model. Zhou
144 et al. built a RNN-based DNA methylation prediction model(Zhou, 2020), this model first converts the
145 raw DNA sequence into matrix data through one-hot encoding, and then sends it to the RNN model for
146 feature extraction and methylation prediction. The results have shown that RNNs are more suitable for
147 handling sequence data and extracting hidden temporal features from the sequence than CNNs. Cheng
148 et al. proposed iPromoter-5mC(Cheng et al., 2021), believing that DNA chemical properties can affect
149 its genetic traits. To address this issue, they combined one-hot encoding with deoxyribonucleic acid
150 nucleotide properties and their frequency (DPF) to generate a composite feature set. They then used a
151 deep neural network to process the composite feature set for identifying methylation modification sites in

152 promoters. Tran et al. considered that the DNA sequence can be regarded as a distinct linguistic system,
 153 and they proposed an efficient encoding method to identify 5-methylcytosine sites. By embedding k-mers,
 154 they transformed the DNA sequence into ‘sentences’, and then generate the feature vector of the DNA
 155 sequence(Tran et al., 2021) with k-mers representation. Then, the feature vectors were separately sent to
 156 xgboost, random forest, deep forest and deep feedforward neural network. The final results showed that
 157 the performance of this model was better than iPromoter-5mC.

158 In general, deep neural networks have better learning abilities than traditional learning methods, and
 159 thus produce more accurate results. Nevertheless, CNNs and RNNs still encounter challenges in encoding
 160 feature representations and efficiently extracting global long-distance features, and further research is
 161 desired.

162 MATERIALS AND METHODS

163 The Overall Framework

164 As shown in figure 1, the proposed DeepMethylation has 3 modules, which are data processing module,
 165 feature extraction module and classification module. First, in data processing module, the one-dimensional
 166 DNA sequence is segmented and converted to a 39×300 matrix with word embedding and GloVe. After
 167 that, the feature extraction module utilizes transformer encoder and dilated convolution to extract global
 168 and local features. Finally, with the extracted features, the classification module predicts the methylation
 169 state of each site of the DNA sequence.

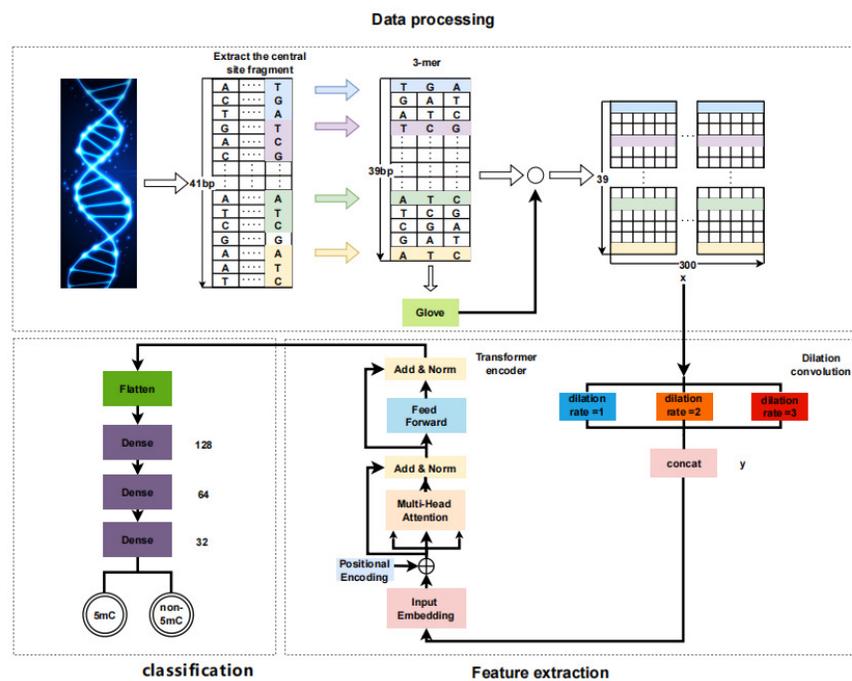


Figure 1. The overall framework of DeepMethylation.

170 Data processing

171 As a long sequence, DNA is not conducive to presenting the relationship among different fragments.
 172 Therefore, the first step is to convert one-dimensional DNA sequences to a group of short fragments.
 173 Although one-hot encoding(Abbas et al., 2021) can represent each base of DNA as a binary bit, it cannot
 174 provide the sequence orders or measure the distance(Huang et al., 2021) between related words. In this
 175 paper, word embedding and GloVe algorithm are used to better model the relationship in DNA sequences.

176 By following the rule of WGBS, the golden standard of methylation detection, DNA sequences are
 177 cropped into 41 bp segments. As shown in figure 2, a 3-bp window slides over a segment and produces a
 178 series of 3-mer sub-sequences. As a result, a 41bp DNA sequence is converted to a 39×3 3-mer matrix.

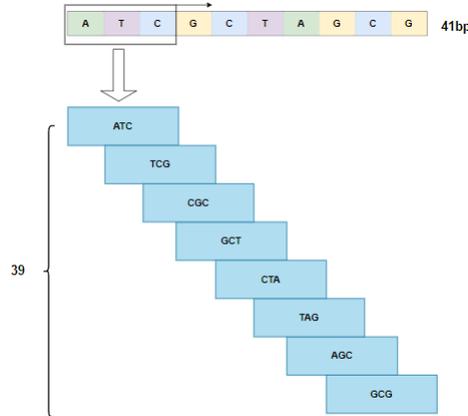


Figure 2. 3-mer sub-sequences.

DNA 3-mer sub-sequences			
ACG	CGG	ATC	ATG
ACG	ATG	CGG	ATC
ACG	ATC	ATG	CGG

counts	ACG	ATG	CGG	ATC
ACG	0	1	1	1
ATG	1	0	2	2
CGG	1	2	0	2
ATC	1	2	2	0

Figure 3. Co-occurrence matrix.

179 To explore the relationship between these 3-mer fragments, GloVe (Jeffrey Pennington and Manning, 2014; Wang et al., 2022), a word embedding model based on global vectors, is utilized. It first checks
 180 the context of neighboring 3-mer fragments and obtains a co-occurrence matrix. Figure 3 depicts an
 181 example of the co-occurrence matrix for three four-word sentences. Take the combination of ‘CGG-ATC’
 182 as an example, it happens twice that ‘CGG’ appears before ‘ATC’, and the corresponding intersection
 183 with the row index ‘CGG’ and the column index ‘ATC’ is valued at two, which is marked in pink in the
 184 co-occurrence matrix for better illustration. Mathematically, the co-occurrence matrix is notated as X ,
 185 and $X_{i,j}$ represents the frequency of word j appearing after i . In this way, the example in figure 3 can also
 186 be noted as $X_{CGG,ATC} = 2$. Moreover, it is noteworthy that the matrix is symmetric about the diagonal
 187 line, and the elements in the upper-right of the matrix are computed and copied to the lower-left.
 188

In figure 3, the co-occurrence matrix only indicates the relationship of three sub-sequences, and in order to model the relationship for all sub-sequences, GloVe algorithm traverses the entire corpus and derives a global word vector dictionary through inner product operation and translation transformation of words (Cochez et al., 2017; Liu et al., 2019a), which makes the mapping values equal or approximate to the co-occurrence probability of words. To be specific, an energy function J is defined as

$$J = \sum_{i,j=1}^N f(X_{i,j}) \left[V_i^T \tilde{V}_j + b_i + b_j - \log(X_{i,j}) \right]^2 \quad (1)$$

where b_i and b_j are offsets, and N is the total number of words. V_i represent the word vector in the global dictionary to be obtained, \tilde{V}_j is the separate context vector that help solving V_i . Since J is a convex function, V_i can be solve via optimization algorithms such as gradient descent. In addition, the weighting factor $f(X_{i,j})$ is defined as

$$f(X_{i,j}) = \begin{cases} \left[\frac{X_{i,j}}{T_X} \right]^\alpha & \text{if } X_{i,j} < T_X \\ 1 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad (2)$$

189 where T_X is a threshold. With truncation and non-linear mapping, the weighting factor can retain crucial
 190 information in the co-occurrence count while also eliminating noise and irregular co-occurrence. In
 191 very special cases, $f(X_{i,j})$ equals to 1 only when two words are semantically similar and locate closely
 192 to each together in the vector space. α is set to 0.75, which enables the model to achieves quite good
 193 performances as has been proved in (Jeffrey Pennington and Manning, 2014).

194 In implementation, the length of V_i is set to 300 for each valid vector word. Once all word vectors V_i
 195 are obtained, each 3-mer word can be represented by the corresponding word vector. As a result, the 39
 196 3-mer words in figure 1 can be presented with a 39×300 encoding vector matrix.

197 Feature extraction

198 After data processing, the 39×300 word vector matrix is used for feature extraction. To be specific, this
199 matrix is regarded as a word vector embedding layer that utilized as input for the feature extraction
200 module, which utilizes dilated convolution and transformer encoder as shown in figure 1.

201 On the one hand, to enlarge the receptive field while keep low computational complexity(Liu et al.,
202 2019b; Yuan et al., 2019), dilated convolution is utilized. As shown in figure 4, in dilated convolution, the
203 filter is expanded by inserting zeros between its values. This effectively increases the receptive field of
204 the filter without increasing the number of parameters, allowing it to capture larger spatial structures and
205 longer-term dependencies of the input. In this study, three branches with dilation rates of 1, 2, and 3 are
206 used, followed by features concatenation, producing feature of contextual information at different scales.

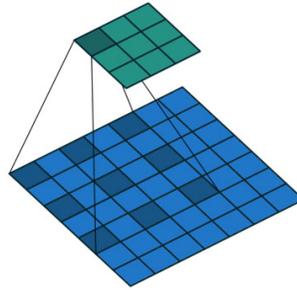


Figure 4. Dilated convolution.

207 On the other hand, followed by dilated convolution, a transformer encoder is used to extract the global
208 relationship in the spliced features and the long-term dependency relationship between elements in the
209 sequence(Khan et al., 2022). As shown in figure 5, based on the transformer encoder, which consists of
210 input embedding, multi-head attention, add&norm, and feed forward, we incorporate positional encoding
211 into the module. Positional encoding is an important property for sequential signals, take the 39 DNA
212 fragments shown in figure 2 as an example, if their positions or arrangement orders are changed, they will
213 form a new DNA sequence that is totally different. Therefore, with positional encoding, word orders can
214 be introduced to distinguish between DNA sequences.

215 Another important mechanism in the transformer encoder is the multi-head attention (MHA), which
216 computes the relative importance between different positions in the input sequence so as to provide better
217 input feature representation for the subsequent feed forward network. Figure 6 depicts the framework of
218 MHA. The input features, which are in the form of 3D tensors, are copied multiple times. For each feature,
219 a weighting factor is calculated with the self-attention mechanism, with which the weighted summation of
220 the input features are calculated. MHA can map the input features to multiple sub-spaces, and improves
221 the model's understanding of the input sequence with feature extraction, attention calculation and feature
222 concatenation. Furthermore, each head in MHA works independently, thus expanding the decision space
223 of the model and enabling better decisions while mitigating over-fitting.

224 Finally, after the operation of 'addition and normalization (Add&Norm)', the transformer produces
225 the features of the gene, which are used for classification.

226 Classification

227 As shown in figure 2, the features extracted by the encoder are finally sent to the classifier to predict the
228 sites of methylation. The classifier has three fully connected layers with dropout. The dimensions of the
229 three fully connected layer are 128, 64 and 32, respectively. Finally, a Sigmoid activation function is used
230 to report whether a site is 5mc or non-5mc. In addition, the categorical cross-entropy loss is adopted to
231 train the network.

232 RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

233 Dataset

In learning-based methods, the dataset is of fundamental importance. In this study, we use the Cancer
Cell Line Encyclopedia (CCLE) dataset proposed by Zhang et al.(Zhang et al., 2020b), where 5mC

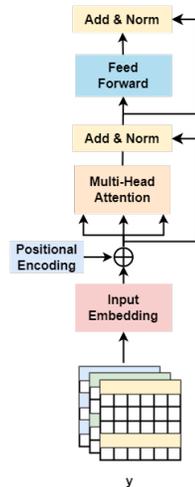


Figure 5. Transformer Encoder.

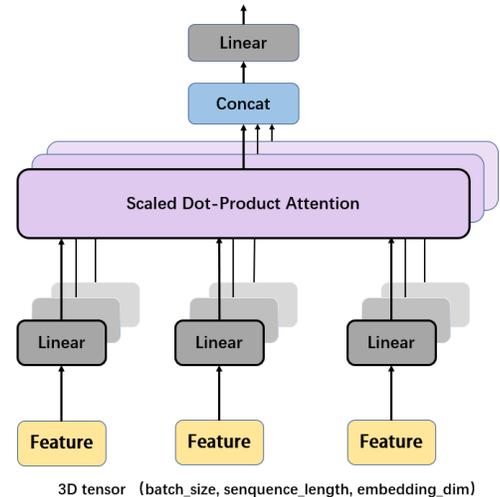


Figure 6. Multi-head Attention

modification sites of various cancer cell lines are processed by simplified RRBS experiment. Especially, we focus on investigating the distribution of 5mC sites in small cell lung cancer (SCLC)(Barretina et al., 2012; Li et al., 2019). DNA fragments with 'C' locating in the center are extracted and notated as

$$E_{(\delta)}(C) = E_{-(\delta)} E_{-(\delta-1)} \cdots E_{-(1)} C E_{+(1)} \cdots E_{+(\delta-1)} E_{+(\delta)} \quad (3)$$

234 where for each site $E \in \{A, T, G, C\}$. In implementation, by following the rule of WGBS, δ is set to 20,
 235 and each fragment has 41 sites. In this way, a total of 93000 DNA fragments are obtained, including
 236 65000 methylation-positive samples and 865000 negative ones. As shown in table 1 and figure 7, the ratio
 237 between the negative and positive samples is about 13.3, which coincides with the distribution of 5mC in
 238 real cases.

239 The experiment is conducted on a server with an Intel(R) Core(TM) i9-10900F CPU, a 64GB RAM,
 240 and an NVIDIA GeForce RTX 3090 GPU. The software is programmed with Python 3.7, Keras-nightly
 241 2.8, and tf-nightly-gpu 2.8.0.

Table 1. The information of the experimental datasets.

Dataset	Positive Sample	Negative Sample
Training Dataset	52000	692000
Testing Dataset	13000	173000
Total	65000	865000

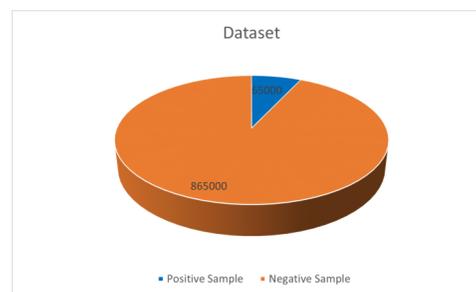


Figure 7. Proportion of positive and negative samples

242 Performance Evaluation

243 The model is trained and tested with the aforementioned dataset. According to the test results, e.g. the
 244 numbers of true negative (TN), false negative (FN), true positive (TP), and false positive (FP) samples,
 245 the following indexes are computed to evaluate the performance of the model.

- Sensitivity (Sen) refers to the ratio of correctly predicted positive samples to all positive samples.

$$Sen = \frac{TP}{TP + FN} \quad (4)$$

- Specificity (Spe) refers to the ratio of correctly predicted negative samples to all negative samples.

$$Spe = \frac{TN}{TN + FP} \quad (5)$$

- Accuracy (Acc) refers to the ratio of correctly classified samples, both positive and negative, to all tested samples.

$$Acc = \frac{TP + TN}{TP + TN + FP + FN} \quad (6)$$

- Matthews Correlation Coefficient (Mcc) considers the joint relationship between TP, TN, FP and FN, and comprehensively evaluates the consistency between the predicted results and the ground truth.

$$Mcc = \frac{TP \times (TN) - FP \times (FN)}{\sqrt{(TP + FP) \times (TP + FN) \times (TN + FP) \times (TN + FN)}} \quad (7)$$

- 246 • Area Under the Curve (AUC) compares the performance of different models by calculating the area
 247 under the Receiver Operating Characteristic (ROC) curve, and larger value indicates higher degree
 248 of authenticity.

249 Performance Comparison with SOTA Methods

250 Three state-of-the-art (SOTA) methylation prediction methods, iPromoter-5mC(Cheng et al., 2021), 5mC-
 251 Pred(Tran et al., 2021) and BiLSTM-5mC(Zhang et al., 2020b), are compared with our model. In order
 252 to make a fair comparison, all models are trained with the aforementioned dataset, and are subjected to
 253 5-fold cross-validation. Table 2 presents the technique features, including encoding, feature extraction,
 254 and classification of the methods.

Table 2. Summary of existing tools for 5mC sites prediction in genome-wide DNA promoters.

Method	Encoding	Feature Extraction and Classification
iPromoter-5mC	One-hot	Deep neural network
5mC-Pred	K-mers	XGBoost
BiLSTM-5mC	One-hot and NPF	BiLSTM
Our model	GloVe	Digital convolution and transformer encoder

255 As shown in figures 8-12, our model performs the best in terms of Spe, Acc, Mcc, and Auc, indicating
 256 that our model can get more essential features and the classifier is also more accurate. Our model
 257 adopts encoding technique, including word embedding and GloVe, and transformer feature extraction, as
 258 well as dilated convolution. These techniques improves the ability in modeling the relationship among
 259 sub-sequences, which also benefits the accurate classification of methylation for the gene sites.

260 We also noticed that, in terms of ‘Sen’, the proposed framework is slightly lower than iPromoter-5mC
 261 and 5mC-Pred, the reason is that the our method focus on making reliable predictions, or in other words,
 262 our model is trend to classify a positive sample as ‘negative’ if it is not that confident. As a result, ‘TP’
 263 becomes slightly smaller and ‘FN’ is larger than the ground truth. Although this reduces the value of
 264 ‘Sen’, it provides more reliable judgement for ‘TP’. On the other hand, it should be noticed that, in terms
 265 of the overall accuracy ‘Acc’ that takes all tested samples involved, the proposed method reaches 0.979,
 266 which is about 5% higher than the sub-optimal method BiLSTM-5mC.

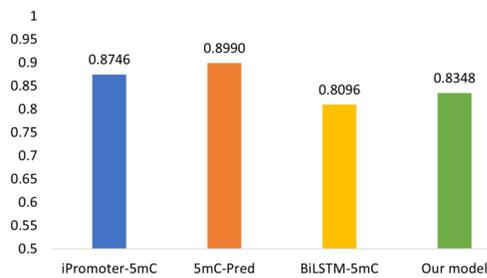


Figure 8. Sen comparison.

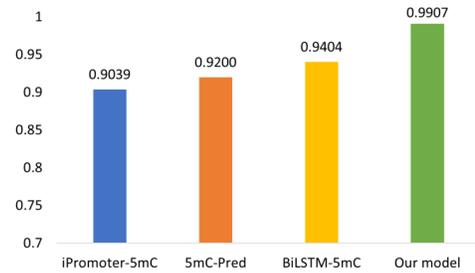


Figure 9. Spe comparison.

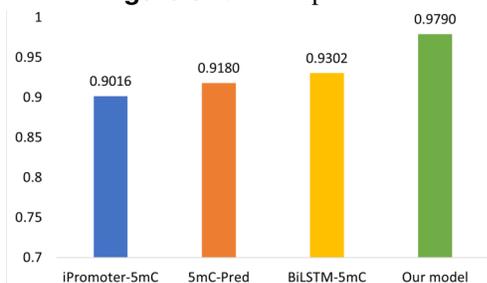


Figure 10. Acc comparison.

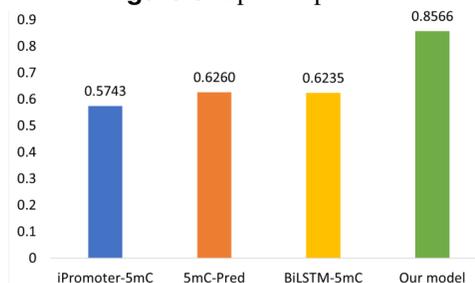


Figure 11. Mcc comparison.

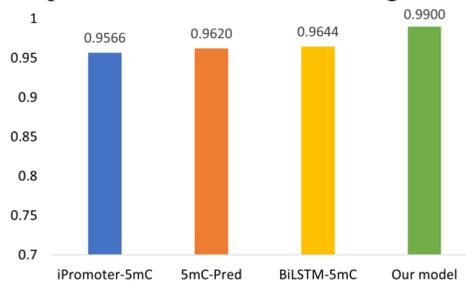


Figure 12. Auc comparison.

267 Influence of encoding methods

268 Encoding methods have a significant impact on the model's performance. In addition to the word
 269 embedding and GloVe encoding used in this paper, one-hot encoding(Vinyals et al., 2016) is also widely
 270 utilized. To verify the superiority of GloVe, we replace the encoding method in figure 1 with one-hot
 271 encoding, and compare the performance with the five quality indexes as shown in figure 13. It can be
 272 noticed that, both methods produce satisfactory results, but GloVe still performs better than one-hot
 273 encoding.

274 To be specific, for Spe, Acc and Auc, the performance of the methods are similar with index
 275 values above 0.97. For the other two indexes, Sen and Mcc, GloVe encoding achieves significant
 276 performance improvement over one-hot encoding. The reason is that one-hot encoding only provides
 277 the simplest mapping of the four bases A, T, C, and G, resulting in low-dimensional representation of
 278 DNA, while GloVe incorporates sliced DNA fragments, and thus better represents the relationship among
 279 sub-sequences. Therefore, GloVe encoding exhibits better ability to identify positive examples, as well as
 280 higher correlation between the predictions and the ground truth.

281 Influence of feature extraction methods

282 In addition to encoding, feature extraction methods also greatly affect the methylation detection results.
 283 The long short term memory (LSTM)(Yu et al., 2019) is widely used to extract features for 1D sequence,
 284 so a comparison is made between LSTM and the proposed Transform encoder. As shown in figure 14, it
 285 can be seen that the transformer encoder achieves better performance than LSTM in terms of Sen, Mcc
 286 and Auc. The reason is that, as a recurrent neural network, LSTM relies on memory units to transmit
 287 information when dealing with long sequences. However, as the sequence grows longer, the information

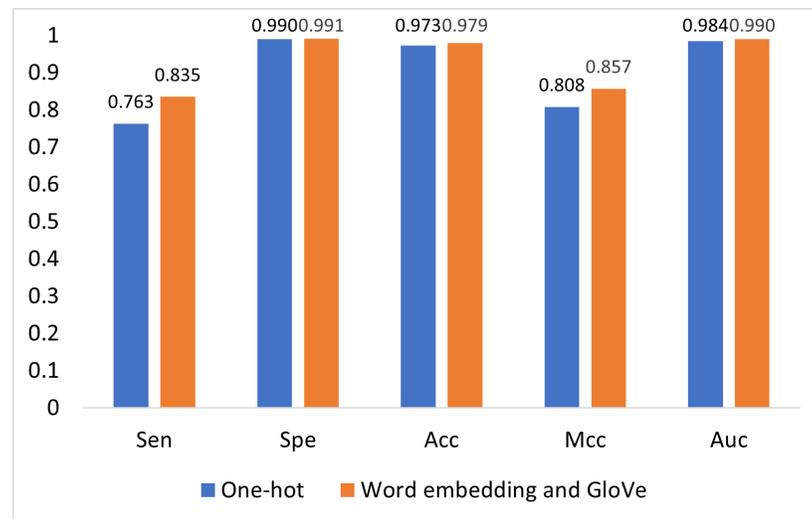


Figure 13. Performance comparison of feature encoding methods for the prediction of 5mC sites.

288 transmission becomes weaker in the network, which impairs the ability of long-term modeling. In
 289 comparison, the transformer encoder utilizes the multi-head attention mechanism, which directly model
 290 the relationship between input signals without relying on the context, and thus better deal with long
 291 sequence data.

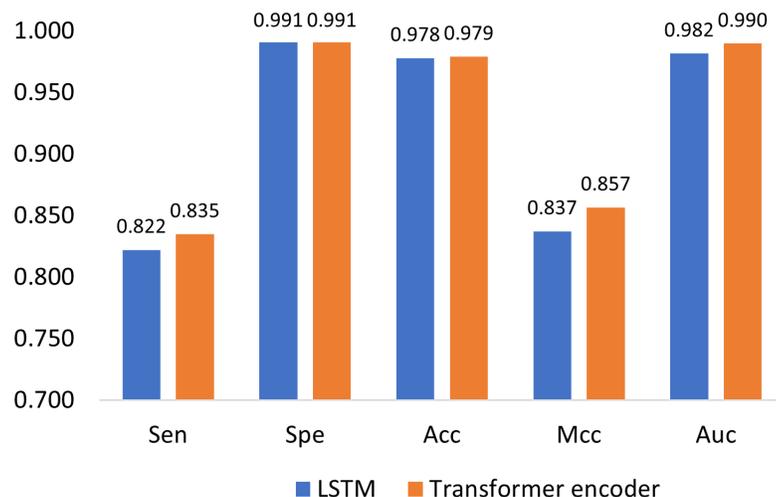


Figure 14. Performance Evaluation of Different Feature Extraction Methods.

292 **Generality on m1A data**

293 We also test the generalization performance of the proposed method when extending to other types of
 294 DNA data. For example, in figures 15-16, the proposed model is tested with m1A data of the EMDLP
 295 dataset (Wang et al., 2022). It can be noticed that, the network converges after 12 epoches, and the
 296 accuracy reaches 95.8%. This demonstrates that the proposed method has good generation ability and is
 297 promising to be applied to different DNA data.

298 **CONCLUSIONS**

299 After analyzing existing research and extensively comparing experimental performance, the proposed
 300 DeepMethylation is proved to be an effective method for identifying DNA methylation sites. Word embed-
 301 ding and GloVe can effectively describe the features of DNA sequences and reveal hidden relationships

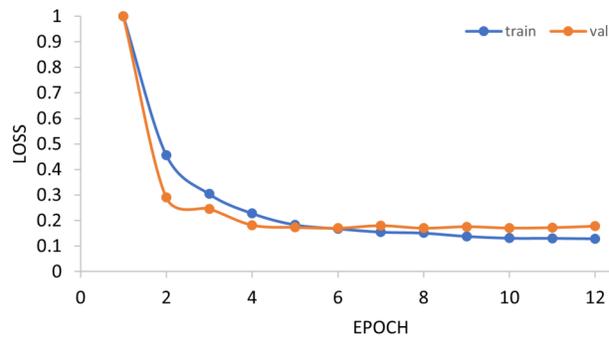


Figure 15. Training Progress of training and testing data sets.

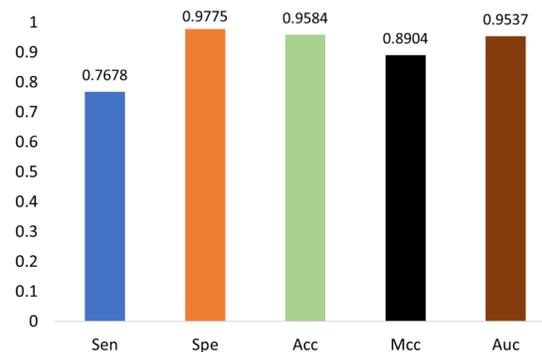


Figure 16. Performance on m1A dataset.

302 between sub-sequences. In addition, the feature extraction module, including the transformer encoder
 303 and the dilated convolution, can better extract local and global features of DNA sequences. Experiments
 304 demonstrated that the proposed framework, as well as the specified tools, achieves accurate methylation
 305 detection, with the accuracy reaching 97.9%, and can be applied to m1A data. In the future, we will
 306 consider using this model for the recognition of 4mC and 6mA.

307 Although excellent research has been done by previous researchers in this field and they have provided
 308 theoretical and experimental support for our research, there is still room for improvement, such as
 309 developing unsupervised learning methylation detection approaches without the ground truth labels,
 310 which are commonly obtained via expensive and labor-intensive wet experiments.

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318 Author Contributions

319 Zhe Wang conceived and designed the experiments, performed the experiments, prepared figures and
 320 tables, authored or reviewed drafts of the paper.

321 Sen Xiang conceived and designed the experiments, prepared figures and tables, authored or reviewed
 322 drafts of the paper, and approved the final draft.

323 Chao Zhou conceived and designed the experiments, analyzed the data, authored or reviewed drafts of
 324 the paper, and approved the final draft.

325 Qing Xu analyzed the data, authored or reviewed drafts of the paper, and approved the final draft.

326 Data availability

327 The following information was supplied regarding data availability:
328 Raw data is available at GitHub: <https://github.com/sb111169/tf-5mc/tree/main/shuju>
329 Code is also available at GitHub: <https://github.com/sb111169/tf-5mc/tree/main>

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