

# Comparative genomics of Tandem Repeat variation in apes

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## Abstract

Tandem repeats (TRs) are highly mutable DNA elements that comprise nearly 8% of the human genome and influence gene regulation, protein coding, and disease. Despite their functional importance, our understanding of TR evolution remains limited, as their repetitive nature has hindered accurate sequencing, annotation, and cross-species comparison. As a result, we lack a population-aware evolutionary framework to quantify TR conservation, divergence, and mutational dynamics across species. Here, using telomere-to-telomere (T2T) reference genomes for seven ape species and population-scale long reads for humans and chimpanzees, we generated a comprehensive comparative catalog of STRs and VNTRs. We identified over 3 million TR loci per ape genome and nearly 2 million homologous loci between humans and chimpanzees. TR diversity and conservation are strongly structured by genomic context, with coding and untranslated regions exhibiting reduced polymorphism and divergence, while intronic and intergenic regions show elevated variability. Heterozygosity varies systematically across species, motif lengths, and functional categories, and mutation rates show strong concordance between indirect and pedigree-based estimates. Using a divergence-diversity ratio framework, we identified TRs under extreme evolutionary regimes that are enriched in genes involved in nervous system development, synaptic function, and cell signaling. Together, these results establish a population and species-resolved framework for studying TR evolution and interpreting TR variation in functional contexts.

33 **Main**

34 Tandem repeats (TRs) are ubiquitous across metazoans and account for nearly 8% of the  
35 human genome (Nurk et al., 2022). Their repetitive structure makes them prone to replication  
36 slippage, leading to mutation rates that are orders of magnitude higher than single-nucleotide  
37 variants, or SNVs (Fan & Chu, 2007). Tandem repeat variants (TRVs) are more likely than point  
38 mutations to impact functional traits, and human medical genetics has repeatedly demonstrated  
39 their impact on development and disease, from neurodegeneration to cancer (Erwin et al., 2023;  
40 Schloissnig et al., 2024; Song et al., 2018). These properties make TRs strong candidates as  
41 evolutionary fuel for rapid adaptation (Gymrek, 2017; Horton et al., 2023; Y. Huang et al., 2025).

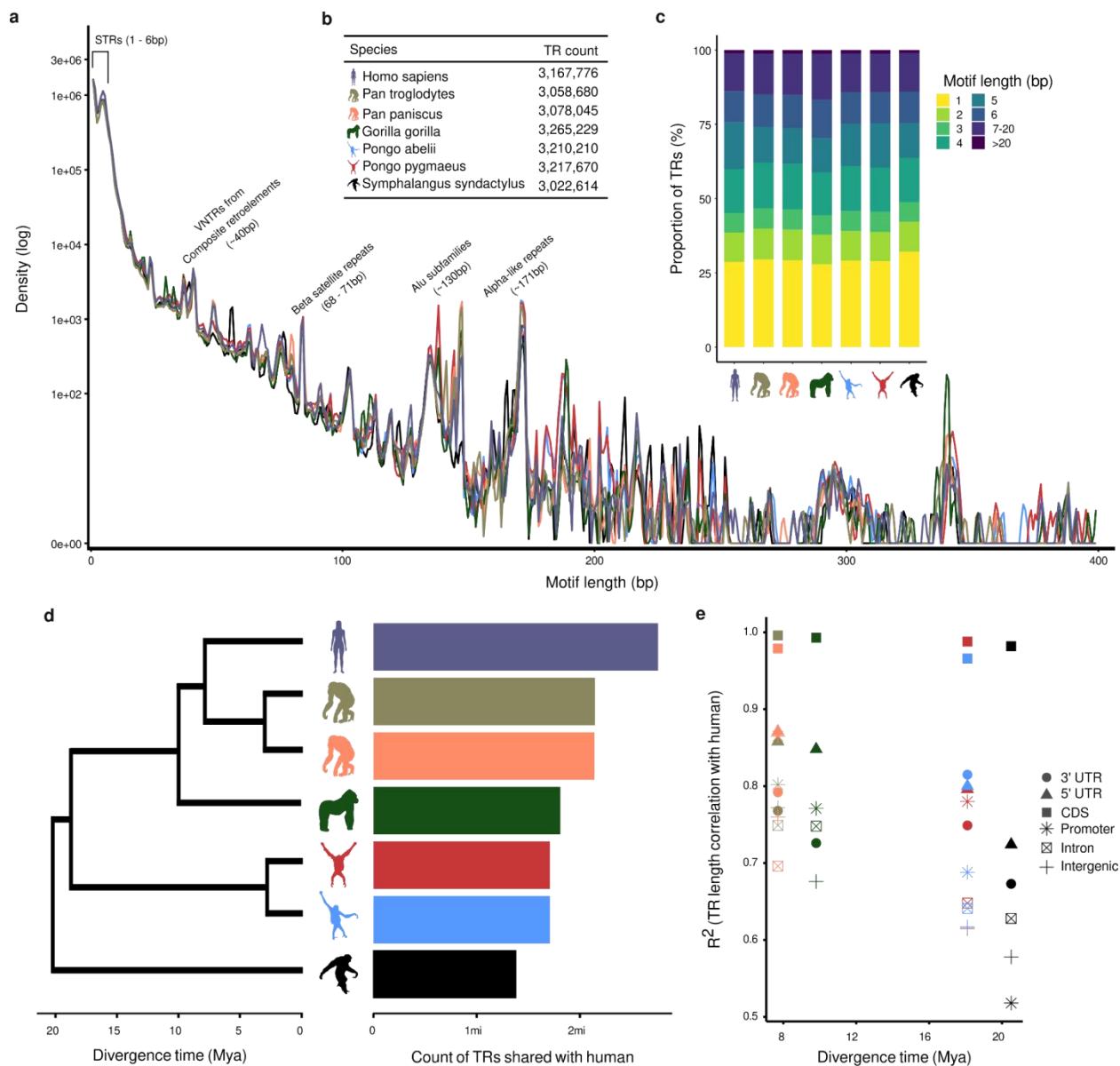
42 Hypotheses of the adaptive role of TRs have circulated for decades, and evidence has  
43 long pointed to their evolutionary significance (Chavali et al., 2017; Fondon & Garner, 2004;  
44 Vinces et al., 2009; Zhou et al., 2014). Yet, technical limitations in sequencing and genotyping  
45 long repetitive DNA have hindered systematic evaluation across species. This landscape has now  
46 shifted. Advances in long-read sequencing and telomere-to-telomere (T2T) assemblies resolved  
47 previously inaccessible repeat regions (Jarvis et al., 2022; Nurk et al., 2022) and are  
48 fundamentally reshaping our understanding of genome architecture and structural variation  
49 (Rocha et al., 2024). As a result, evolutionary TR studies continue to emerge. Human-specific  
50 TRs and TR expansions have been linked to differential gene expression and enhancer activity  
51 during primate evolution, particularly in the brain, highlighting their potential contribution to  
52 lineage-specific phenotypes (Kim et al., 2019; Liu & Tian, 2025; Sulovari et al., 2019). Still, we  
53 lack a framework that leverages long-read TR genotypes both between and within species, an  
54 approach that has proven transformative in SNP-based evolutionary studies (Leffler et al., 2013;  
55 Prado-Martinez et al., 2013). Thus, understanding how these repetitive regions evolve provides  
56 insight into the molecular processes underlying the emergence of lineage-specific traits.

57 Here, we leveraged T2T reference assemblies and long-read, assembly-level sequencing  
58 data, including newly sequenced chimpanzee genomes (Rocha et al. *in prep*), to chart the  
59 genomic landscape of TRs across seven ape genomes. We identified hundreds of thousands of  
60 homologous TR loci between humans and non-human apes, revealing broad patterns of TR  
61 retention and constraint across the evolutionary timescale that mirror the ape phylogeny. To  
62 capture the intraspecific diversity and better understand the evolutionary dynamics at play, we  
63 next examined assembly-level population data from 46 humans and 23 chimpanzees.

64

65 **Species-specific TR catalogs, homology to humans, and genomic distribution**

66 TR motif length distributions and catalog sizes were largely similar across all seven  
67 species (Figure 1a and b). Among short motif sizes (< 7 bp), mononucleotide repeats were the  
68 most abundant, while trinucleotides were the least abundant, consistent with previous studies  
69 (Sharma & Sowpati, 2025; Srivastava et al., 2019; Verbiest et al., 2023). Notably,  
70 hexanucleotide repeats were abundant in Sharma & Sowpati (2025) and Srivastava et al. (2019)  
71 but were strongly depleted in Verbiest et al. (2023), whereas we observed a mild reduction in  
72 hexanucleotides (Figure 1c). These discrepancies in motif length distribution between studies  
73 likely stem from differences in TR identification and filtering parameters. For instance, other  
74 studies have focused on perfect repeats, with 100% sequence constancy (Srivastava et al., 2019;  
75 Verbiest et al., 2023), or nearly perfect repeats, with  $\geq 90\%$  constancy (Sharma & Sowpati, 2025).  
76 In contrast, our analysis allowed for lower constancy ( $> 60\%$ ). This approach generates a more  
77 inclusive TR catalog and may capture more variable repeats that stricter thresholds would have  
78 excluded. Motifs larger than 20 bp were considerably less common and have not been  
79 systematically explored in prior studies. Nonetheless, we observe distinct peaks in large motif  
80 sizes. When queried in the Dfam database, these motifs matched known repetitive elements,  
81 including Alu elements and VNTRs embedded within composite retrotransposons (Figure 1a).  
82 The GC content of TR motifs also varied with motif lengths, but showed broadly consistent  
83 patterns across species (Extended Figure 2). Mononucleotide repeats were almost exclusively  
84 A/T, resulting in GC content below 1%. In contrast, motifs 2-20 bp in length averaged  $\sim 30\%$   
85 GC content, increasing to  $\sim 50\%$  in motifs  $> 20$  bp.



86  
87 **Figure 1. Tandem repeats across T2T ape genomes.** a) Density plot showing the distribution of TRs by  
88 motif length across ape genomes. Labeled peaks indicate TRs with motif lengths >20 bp that show strong  
89 matches to entries in the Dfam database. b) Table with TR count per species. c) Stacked barplot showing  
90 the proportional distribution of TR motif lengths across seven telomere-to-telomere (T2T) ape genomes. d)  
91 Phylogenetic tree of the seven ape genomes with a barplot showing each species' number of homologous  
92 TRs with humans. The top bar represents the total number of TRs identified in the human genome. e)  
93 Scatterplot showing the relationship between divergence time (in millions of years) and the coefficient of  
94 determination ( $R^2$ ) for reference TR length comparisons between humans and each ape species.  
95

96 The abundance of homologous TRs between the human and each of the non-human T2T  
97 ape genomes reflects the phylogenetic distances, with the *Pan* genus—our closest living relatives,  
98 sharing a common ancestor with humans approximately 7.7 Mya (Shao et al., 2023)—retaining  
99 the largest overlap (Figure 1d). Comparison of TR length between species, after removing

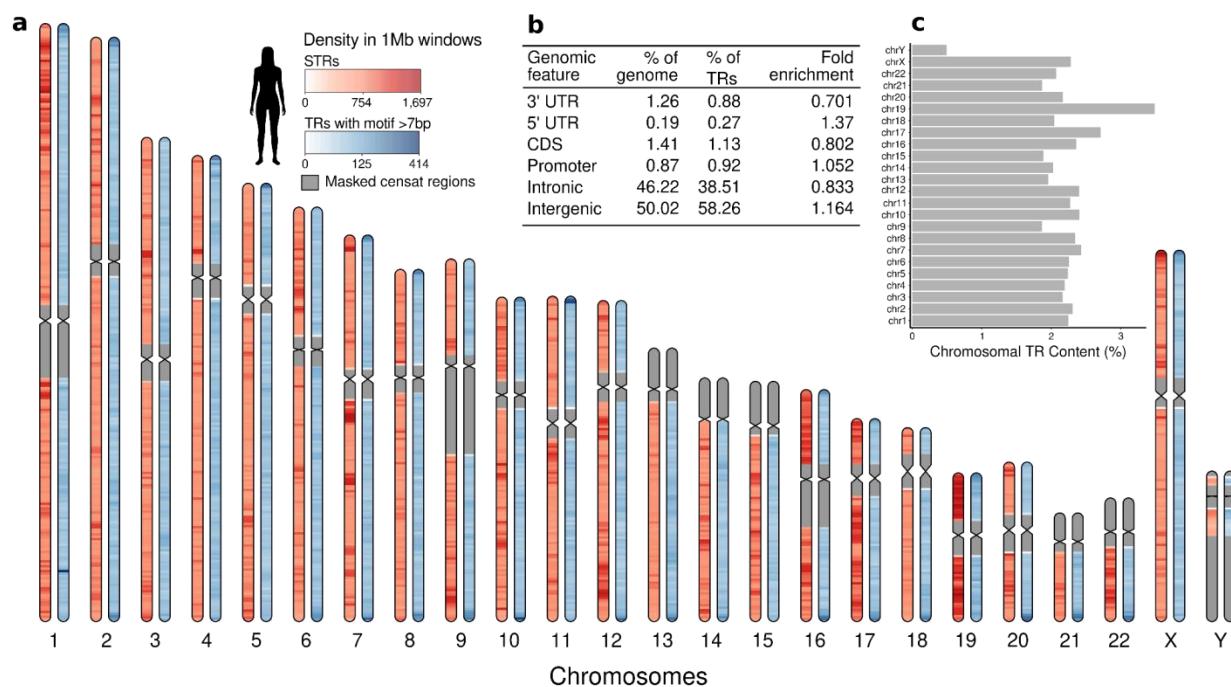
100 centromere regions, reveals high conservation among TRs located within coding sequence (CDS)  
101 and 5' untranslated regions (UTRs) (Figures 1e and Extended Figure 3). Levels of conservation  
102 also followed the ape phylogeny, with correlations between homologous TR lengths decreasing  
103 as the time since the most recent common ancestor (TMRCM) increased. This trend is especially  
104 pronounced for TRs in promoters, introns, and intergenic regions, indicating reduced constraint  
105 compared to TRs in coding sequences and UTRs. Indeed, other studies have found that most  
106 protein-coding TRs are deeply conserved across mammals, with some extending across  
107 vertebrates and even to the base of eukaryotes (Schaper et al., 2014). This indicates that  
108 maintenance of TR length in coding regions may be crucial for functional protein structure  
109 (Madsen et al., 2008; Usdin, 2008) and in 5' UTRs to maintain translational regulation  
110 (Churbanov, 2005) and RNA structural elements (Byeon et al., 2021a). Variants in UTRs are  
111 known to disrupt transcription initiation and, in some cases, contribute to disease (Wieder et al.,  
112 2025).

113 Next, we estimated TR density across chromosomes in 1Mb windows for all species  
114 (Figure 2 and Extended Figure 4). Short tandem repeats (STRs, motifs of 1-6 bp) were generally  
115 uniformly distributed along the chromosome lengths. Chromosome 19 had the highest proportion  
116 of TRs relative to its length, followed by chromosome 17 (Figure 2a and c), a pattern consistent  
117 with previous reports (Grimwood et al., 2004; Subramanian et al., 2003). Although chromosome  
118 Y is known to harbor extensive repetitive regions, the majority consists of satellite repeats (Rhie  
119 et al., 2023), which were excluded during the catalog filtering. Thus, chromosome Y shows the  
120 lowest density of non-cenSat TRs. Repeats with motifs  $\leq 7$  bp showed elevated density in human  
121 telomeres (Figure 2a), consistent with reports of VNTR enrichment in the telomeres, particularly  
122 those with motifs  $\leq 15$  bp (Linthorst et al., 2020). In non-human primates, distinctive repeat  
123 structures have been described at chromosome ends, which are absent in human chromosomes:  
124 siamang gibbons harbor telomeric alpha satellites (Koga et al., 2012), while gorillas and certain  
125 chromosomes of chimpanzees and bonobos contain StSat (Ahmad et al., 2020). Because these  
126 repeat classes were filtered out from the catalogs, they are absent from the ideogram density  
127 plots for these species (Extended Figure 4a and f).

128 Considering their representation in different genomic elements, TRs were depleted in  
129 introns, 3' UTR, and coding regions, while being enriched in intergenic and 5' UTR regions  
130 (Figure 2b). When stratified by motif length, distinct distributions emerged across genomic

131 features (Extended Figure 5, Supplemental Table S1). Mono and dinucleotide repeats were  
132 strongly depleted in coding regions (0.01 and 0.05-fold, respectively), while repeats with motif  
133 lengths in multiples of three were overrepresented: for instance, tri and hexanucleotide repeats  
134 showed 5.2-fold and 2.7-fold enrichment, respectively. This pattern reflects the coding-frame  
135 constraint, where expansions or contractions in multiples of three preserve the reading frame and  
136 are therefore tolerated (Srivastava et al., 2019; Subramanian et al., 2003). A similar trend was  
137 observed in the 5' UTRs, which also showed depletion in monomers and dimers (0.1 and 0.3-  
138 fold), and enrichment of trimers (4.3-fold enrichment), a trend also observed in a large STR  
139 population panel (Huang et al., 2025).

140



141

142 Figure 2. **Genomic TR distribution in CHM13.** a) Ideogram of the human CHM13 genome showing the  
143 density of short tandem repeats (STRs) and TRs with motif length >7 bp across non-overlapping 1 Mb  
144 windows. Repeat density is plotted along each chromosome. b) Table showing the distribution of TRs  
145 across major annotated genomic elements and fold-enrichment indicating the magnitude of deviation of  
146 TR distribution from genome expectation for each feature. FDR-corrected p-values < 1e-16 for all  
147 comparisons. c) Barplot showing the proportion of each chromosome contained in TRs based on the  
148 CHM13 genome.

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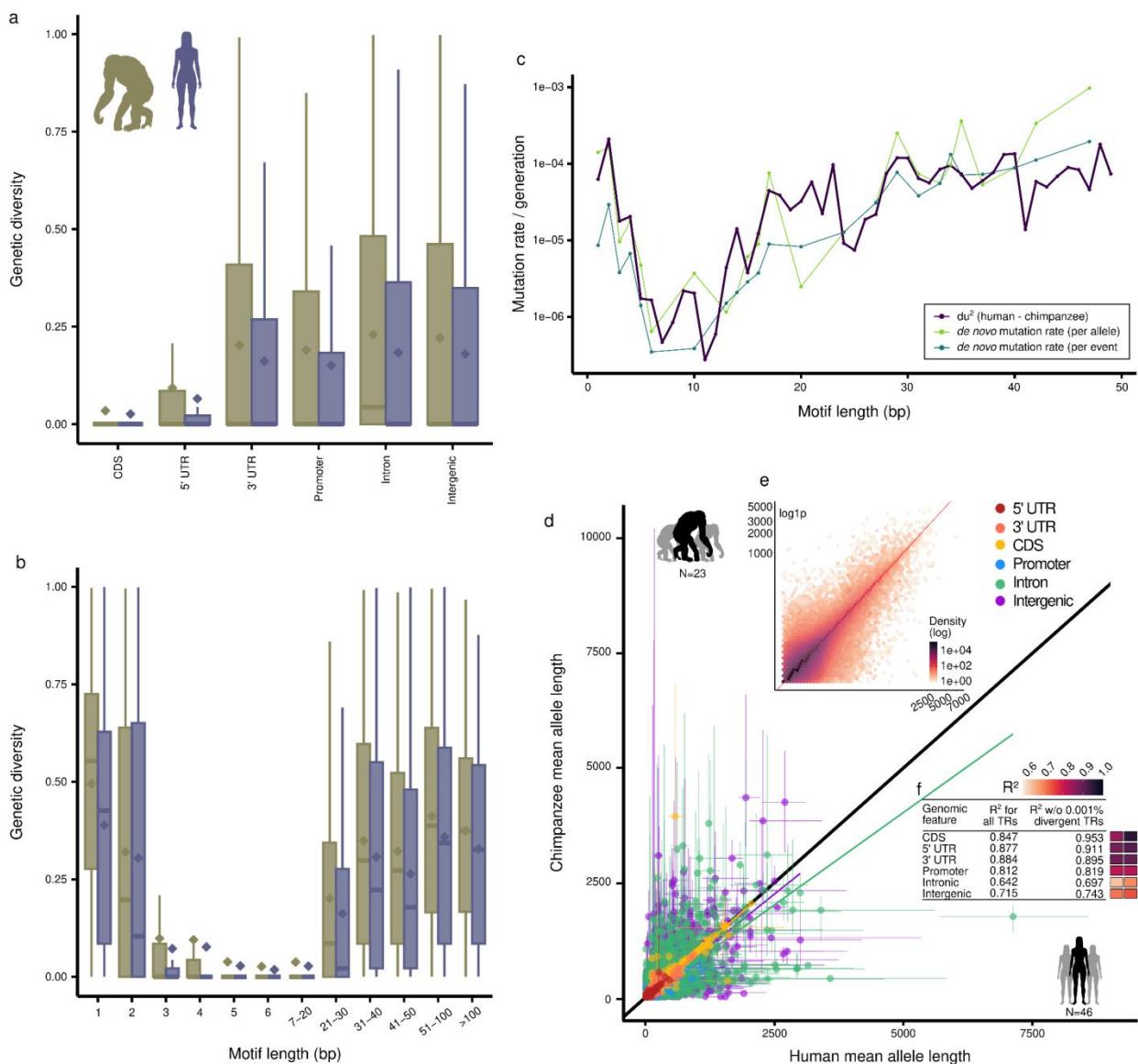
## 150 TR genotypes and length variation

151 After QC and filtering (see Methods), we identified 1,905,903 homologous TRs between

152 humans and chimpanzees. Chimpanzees showed higher TR heterozygosity than humans across  
153 all genomic features (Figure 3a), consistent with long-standing evidence that humans harbor  
154 lower overall genetic diversity (Li & Sadler, 1991; Prado-Martinez et al., 2013). In both species,  
155 heterozygosity was reduced in coding regions and 5' UTRs, likely due to stronger functional  
156 constraints. This pattern aligns with previous observations that coding TRs are both rarer and  
157 less polymorphic than those in noncoding regions (Huang et al., 2016; Press et al., 2018;  
158 Rockman & Wray, 2002; Willems et al., 2014).

159 Heterozygosity was also variable across motif lengths, highest for mono- and  
160 dinucleotides, then steadily decreased up to motifs of 20 bp, before increasing again for larger  
161 motifs (Figure 3b). A similar decrease in diversity with increasing motif size was reported by  
162 Jam et al., n.d., thought their analysis, limited to motifs  $\leq 6$  bp, missed the rise in heterozygosity  
163 at larger motifs. This overall trend holds across genomic features, except for coding regions,  
164 which have low heterozygosity also for mono and dinucleotide repeats (Extended Figure 6). This  
165 deviation from the overall trend showcase that TRs in coding regions have depleted variability  
166 even when harboring motif lengths known to have elevated mutation rates (Fan & Chu, 2007).

167 Next, we estimated per-generation mutation rates using Goldstein's genetic distance  
168 ( $du^2$ ) framework under the stepwise mutation model (Goldstein et al., 1995) and compared  
169 these indirect estimates with direct *de novo* mutation rates from human trio-based data (Porubsky  
170 et al., 2025). The approaches were highly concordant (Figure 3c), showing higher mutation rates  
171 at mono- and dinucleotide TRs, with a subsequent increase that plateaued near 20 bp. The  
172 subsequent rise in diversity among longer motifs suggests a shift in the dominant mutational  
173 process, potentially from replication slippage in short motifs to recombination or gene  
174 conversion-associated mechanisms for longer arrays (Lai, 2003). These mutation rate patterns  
175 closely mirror our heterozygosity estimates across motif lengths (Figure 3a-c), underscoring how  
176 mutational dynamics shape both standing variation and *de novo* changes across motif lengths and  
177 genomic features.



178

179 **Figure 3. Comparative analyses of homologous TRs between humans and chimpanzees.** Expected  
180 heterozygosity a) across different genomic features and b) across motif lengths. c) Estimates of mutation  
181 rate across motif lengths. d) Scatterplot of mean TR allele lengths between humans (x-axis) and  
182 chimpanzees (y-axis) for TRs shared between species, grouped by genomic feature. Each point represents  
183 a single TR locus, with color indicating the genomic annotation in the CHM13 genome. Error bars  
184 represent the 90th percentile of the length distribution in each species. e) Heatmap of the same TR loci  
185 showing the joint distribution of human and chimpanzee mean allele lengths. Color intensity reflects the  
186 density of TRs within each bin (50 bins), highlighting regions of agreement and divergence in TR length  
187 between species. e) Correlation between human and chimpanzee TR length grouped by genomic feature.  
188

189 Of the 1,905,903 TRs shared between the two species, 1,033,666 (54.2%) were invariant  
190 (iTRs), i.e. monomorphic across samples, and the remaining 872,237 (45.7%) were variable  
191 (TRVs). Across genomic features, the largest discrepancy between iTR and TRV proportions

192 was observed in coding and 5' UTRs (Extended Figure 7a). 89.7% of coding TRs were invariant,  
193 reflecting known functional constraint. Strikingly, 74.2% of 5' UTR TRs were also invariant,  
194 compared to roughly 55% and 50% of 3' UTR and intronic TRs, respectively. This unexpected  
195 degree of constraint in 5' UTRs is consistent with emerging evidence for extreme evolutionary  
196 conservation in subsets of vertebrate 5' UTRs, which is linked to RNA-mediated translational  
197 control (Byeon et al., 2021). iTRs also tend to have larger motif sizes than TRVs (Extended  
198 Figure 7b). The majority of homologous TRs were short—62.1% below the mean allele length in  
199 both species (~22 bp)—and showed high length correlation between species (Figure 3d-e), which  
200 was stronger in coding and UTR regions (Figure 3a and d), confirming reference length results  
201 (Extended Figure 1e). This strong cross-species concordance in TR lengths mirrors patterns from  
202 assembly-level comparisons of single human and chimpanzee genomes that reported only a 0.02  
203 bp difference in orthologous STRs between the two species (Kronenberg et al., 2018). Within-  
204 species, TRs with species-specific expansions also exhibited elevated variation in the species  
205 where the expansion occurred (Extended Figure 8), reflecting an increased mutational potential  
206 of longer arrays. This is consistent with recombination-mediated mutation events capable of  
207 generating extensive repeat gains that exceed the scale expected from replication slippage alone  
208 (Li et al., 2002; Richard & Pâques, 2000). Thus, expansions contribute both to between-species  
209 divergence and within-species polymorphism.

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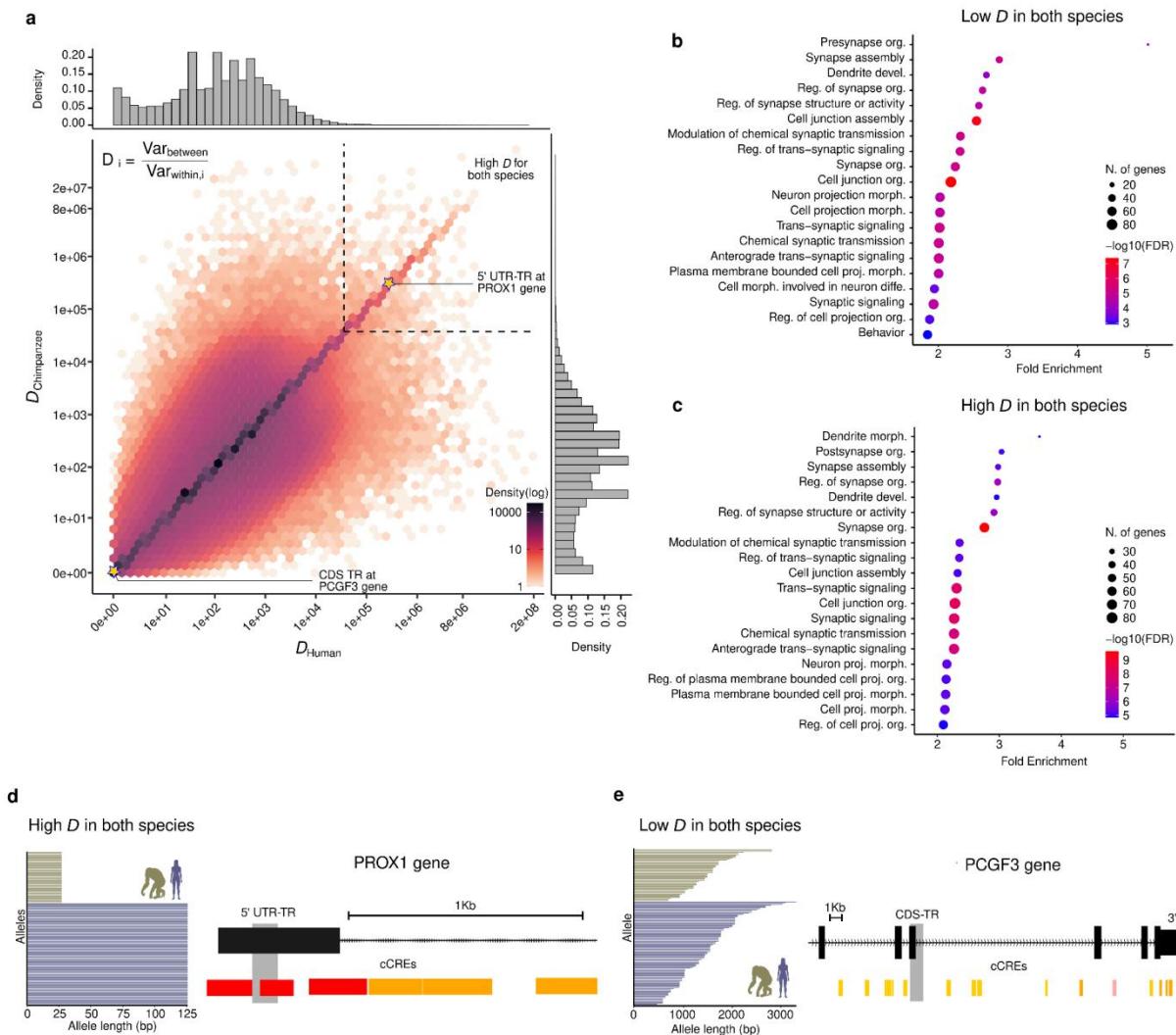
## 211 **Divergence-diversity ratio and functional context of extreme TRs**

212 We calculated the divergence-diversity ratio ( $D$ ) for all TRVs in humans and  
213 chimpanzees to identify loci with extreme patterns of divergence between species relative to  
214 within-species variation.  $D$  values were highly correlated between species (Figure 4a), indicating  
215 that the majority of TRVs are subject to similar mutational dynamics and selective pressures  
216 between humans and chimpanzees. To explore the selective regimes leading to these patterns, we  
217 focused on the 3 types of genic TRVs: those with strong signatures of divergent selection in both  
218 species (high  $D$ ), those with strong signatures of divergence in a single species (high  $D_{\text{human}}$   
219 or high  $D_{\text{chimp}}$ ) and those with strong signatures of balancing selection in both species (low  $D$ )  
220 (Supplemental Table S2). Across categories, genic TRVs with signatures of divergent selection  
221 were longer and with larger motifs (Wilcoxon rank-sum test, FDR-adjusted  $p < 0.0001$ ;  
222 Extended Figure 9a-d). While genic TRVs with signatures of balancing selection were also

223 longer than background TRVs (Wilcoxon rank-sum test, FDR-adjusted  $p < 0.001$ ), no significant  
224 difference was observed for motif length (Wilcoxon rank-sum test, FDR-adjusted  $p = 0.523$ ).  
225 Highly divergent TRVs also display higher GC content when compared to a set of background  
226 TRVs with the same TR length and motif length distribution (Wilcoxon rank-sum test, FDR-  
227 adjusted  $p < 0.0001$ ) and a high proportion is located in coding regions (Extended Figure 9e).

228 To investigate the biological processes associated with TRVs with extreme divergence  
229 and diversity, we performed Gene Ontology (GO) enrichment analysis on the genes intersecting  
230 the top 1,000 genic TRVs from each category. Despite their contrasting evolutionary patterns,  
231 genes containing TRVs with either extreme divergence or diversity showed enrichment for  
232 biological process GO terms involved in similar pathways. While TR-containing genes are  
233 modestly enriched for broad developmental processes, primarily involving cellular component  
234 organization and anatomical structure morphogenesis, relative to the set of human genes (~1.2-  
235 fold; Extended Figure 10), genes with TRVs in the top ratio categories show >2-fold enrichment  
236 relative to all TR genes, converging on more specific pathways underlying nervous system  
237 development, synaptic organization and cell signaling (Figure 4b and c).

238



239

240 **Figure 4. Divergence–diversity landscapes of tandem repeats in humans and chimpanzees.** a) Heatmap showing the joint distribution of TR Divergence-Diversity Ratios ( $D$ ) in humans and chimpanzees. Marginal histograms display the distribution of ratios for each species. Black dashed line shows the boundaries of high  $D$  in both species. Stars indicate example TRs belonging to extreme ratio categories in both species. b-c) Gene Ontology enrichment analysis for Biological Processes terms associated with genes intersecting the top 1,000 genic TRs with b) low  $D$  in both species and c) high  $D$  in both species. The set of all TR containing genes was used as background. d-e) Genomic location and allele length distribution for two example TRs classified as d) low  $D$  in both species and e) high  $D$  in both species. Grey vertical bars represent TR location. Candidate cis-regulatory elements (cCREs) indicate promoter-like signature (red), proximal (orange) and distal (yellow) enhancer-like signature, and DNase-H3K4me3 elements (pink).

251

252 The ten genic TRVs with the strongest signature for divergence (high  $D$ ) are located in  
 253 introns of functionally diverse genes, spanning roles in neural and sensory systems, epithelial  
 254 integrity, and signal transduction (Supplemental Table S3). Among non-intronic TRVs within

255 the top 1,000 candidates, 13 of the 32 genes harboring TRVs in their CDS regions belonged to  
256 zinc-finger (ZNF) genes, a large and functionally diverse group involved in essential molecular  
257 processes, including transcriptional regulation, DNA repair, and cell migration (Cassandri et al.,  
258 2017). Several ZNFs are known to undergo rapid lineage-specific divergence and positive  
259 selection on DNA-binding domains between humans and chimpanzees (Jovanovic et al., 2021;  
260 Nowick et al., 2011), consistent with the high interspecies TRV divergence we observe. A  
261 compelling candidate is a TRV in the 5' UTR of PROX1, which exhibits pronounced between-  
262 species differences in mean allele length and is simultaneously highly homogeneous within each  
263 species (Figure 4e). PROX1 encodes a homeobox transcription factor essential for embryonic  
264 tissue development in mammals, including the formation of the central nervous system, eyes and  
265 the lymphatic system (Elsir et al., 2012).

266 Focusing on the 10 most extreme TRV candidates with an excess of diversity compared  
267 to divergence (low  $D$ ), we recovered candidates located in genes related to immune function  
268 (Supplemental Table S3). Among them are PRKCE, which contributes to innate immune  
269 activation, with knockout mice showing impaired inflammatory responses and increased  
270 susceptibility to infections (Altman & Kong, 2016), XRCC4, a core DNA-repair factor required  
271 for B-cells to switch antibody classes (Soulas-Sprauel et al., 2007), and CALCR, a calcitonin  
272 receptor involved in bone metabolism with emerging roles in modulating inflammatory response  
273 and immune-associated signaling (Maleitzke et al., 2022; Wang et al., 2024). Considering non-  
274 intronic candidates in the top 1,000 low  $D$  category, we examined the TRV in the CDS region of  
275 PCGF3, which acts primarily as a transcriptional activator required for mesodermal  
276 differentiation (Zhao et al., 2017), also contributing to antiviral immunity by promoting  
277 interferon-responsive gene transcription (Da et al., 2024). This TRV shows high within-species  
278 diversity, with nearly every allele unique (Figure 4d). This extreme example of TRV diversity is  
279 consistent with the elevated SNP diversity observed in innate immune genes under balancing  
280 selection (Bitarello et al., 2018; Ferrer-Admetlla et al., 2008), suggesting that balancing selection  
281 related to immune response may act on this repeat.

282 We also consider TRVs with a high  $D$  in only one species, that is, where divergence is  
283 high compared to a low diversity in one species, but not compared to a higher diversity in the  
284 other species. This pattern may be consistent with either active directional selection or elevated  
285 mutation rate in the species with higher TRV diversity. Such genic TRVs with high  $D_{\text{chimp}}$ ,

286 indicating high divergence between species with higher diversity in humans, were largely  
287 enriched for pathways associated with cell morphogenesis and nervous system development,  
288 particularly neurogenesis (Extended Figure 11a). The 10 highest-ranked genic TRVs are in  
289 introns of genes involved in cell signaling and intracellular trafficking, with many showing  
290 activity specifically in the brain (Supplemental Table S4). Among these genes are ADARB2,  
291 exclusively expressed in brain cells (Rodriguez De Los Santos et al., 2024), and DLGAP2,  
292 highly expressed in the striatum and associated with multiple brain disorders (Rasmussen et al.,  
293 2017). Considering non-intronic TRVs, one notable example is the VNTR located in the CDS  
294 region of MUC7, whose repeat copy-number polymorphism exhibits lineage-specific selective  
295 pressures tied to mucosal innate immunity (Xu et al., 2016). This study detected signatures of  
296 positive selection acting on MUC7 in the primate lineage compared to other mammals, based on  
297 analyses of non-repetitive coding region of the gene. In our dataset, this VNTR shows human-  
298 specific expansion and reduced within-species variation in chimpanzees, suggesting continued  
299 lineage-specific constraint or adaptation in this locus.

300 In contrast, high *D\_human* TRVs, which are diverged between species with high  
301 chimpanzee diversity, showed significant GO enrichment for a single Biological Process  
302 pathway related to cell-cell adhesion. We further explored Cellular Component enrichment for  
303 these candidates, revealing a strong localization bias in neuronal synaptic compartments,  
304 particularly membrane-associated protein complexes within dendritic regions of neurons  
305 (Extended Figure 11b). The 10 highest-ranked genic TRVs are also located in introns, with gene  
306 function ranging RNA processing, cell signaling and cytoskeletal organization, with some  
307 showing brain-specific activity (Supplemental Table S4). Coding TRVs in this category include  
308 two associated with ZDHHC7, which regulates brain development and plasticity (Kerkenberg et  
309 al., 2021), and RTTN, required for embryonic axial rotation and successful organogenesis (Faisst  
310 et al., 2002).

311

### 312 **Differential gene expression and TR divergence**

313 Using RNA-seq expression data from Brawand et al., (2011), we analyzed 7,050  
314 orthologous genes expressed in humans and chimpanzees across six tissues (brain, cerebellum,  
315 heart, kidney, liver and testis). While genes harboring TRVs in their promoters did not have  
316 generally greater expression divergence (Wilcoxon rank-sum test, FDR-adjusted  $p > 0.05$  across

317 all tissues), we did find a significant but weak correlation between gene expression divergence  
318 and average divergence of TRV allele lengths (Pearson's  $r = 0.02$ , FDR-adjusted  $p = 2.2e-16$ ;  
319 Extended Figure 12). This suggests that is not merely the presence of TRs that influences gene  
320 expression and divergence, but the variation in repeat length. Experimental studies in yeast  
321 indicate that TRs can modulate transcription in a non-linear, length-dependent manner, with  
322 optimal repeat lengths maximizing expression (Vinces et al., 2009). In humans, this trend is  
323 supported by fine-mapped eSTRs (FM-eSTRs), STRs statistically prioritized as causal for gene  
324 expression (Fotsing et al., 2019). FM-eSTRS show no consistent tendency for TR length to  
325 increase or decrease gene expression. Thus, divergence in repeat length is expected to translate  
326 into heterogeneous effects across loci, yielding subtle genome-wise associations.

327 Standard *limma* analysis (see Methods) identified 4,125 differentially expressed (DE)  
328 genes between humans and chimpanzees, 2,046 of which contained at least one TRV, but TRVs  
329 were not overrepresented among DE genes (Odds ratio = 0.84,  $p = 0.987$ ). We next explored  
330 whether DE genes are enriched for TRVs previously associated with gene expression (eTRs),  
331 including FM-eSTRs (Fotsing et al., 2019) and expression-associated VNTRs (eVNTRs)  
332 (Eslami Rasekh et al., 2021). Consistently, DE genes were significantly more likely to harbor  
333 eTRs than non-DE genes (Odds ratio = 1.45,  $p = 0.012$ ). Among these, 303 DE genes contained  
334 TRVs in the top  $D$  ratio categories, but no enrichment was observed (Odds ratio = 0.99,  $p =$   
335 0.518). Thus, differential expression between humans and chimpanzees is not broadly associated  
336 with TR variation. Instead, DE genes are preferentially enriched for TRs with prior evidence of  
337 regulatory function, highlighting a specific, rather than global, role of expression-associated  
338 repeats.

339

## 340 **Discussion**

341 Here, we present a comprehensive survey of TR variation across apes and highlight how  
342 mutational processes and selective pressures jointly shape repeat diversity and divergence. By  
343 integrating population-level long-read data for humans and chimpanzees, we achieved high-  
344 confidence genotyping of long TRs, extending the accessible spectrum of TR variation beyond  
345 what has been captured by short-read datasets. This design enabled not only characterization of  
346 genomic patterns of TR variation but also identification of locus-specific deviations in diversity-  
347 divergence ratios, providing insights into the selective forces shaping TR landscape in humans

348 and chimpanzees.

349 TR diversity and divergence bear strong signatures of stabilizing selection, particularly  
350 for functional variation. TRs in regions with strong functional constraints exhibit depleted  
351 polymorphism within species and reduced interspecies divergence. Constraint is also evident in  
352 5' UTRs, consistent with vertebrate conservation in these regulatory regions (Byeon et al., 2021),  
353 suggesting that purifying selection extends beyond coding sequences. By contrast, intergenic,  
354 intronic, and to some extent promoter regions, harbor more dynamic TR landscapes, generating  
355 novel alleles that may contribute to species-specific traits (Press et al., 2018). This continuum,  
356 from constraint to flexible, mirrors patterns observed for other classes of genomic variants,  
357 including SNPs and indels (Yu et al., 2015). Mutational dynamics also vary across TRs, and  
358 mirrors patterns of standing genetic variation. Heterozygosity and mutation rates vary  
359 systematically with motif length, highest for mono- and dinucleotide repeats, then declining for  
360 intermediate length motifs before rising again in longer arrays. This pattern suggest that motif-  
361 dependent mutational mechanisms, potentially from strong replication slippage in short motifs to  
362 recombination or gene conversion-associated events in longer arrays, shape both standing  
363 variation and interspecies divergence across the genome.

364 TRVs at extremes of the diversity-divergence ratio, despite differing in motif properties  
365 and genomic context, converged functionally. In coding regions, highly divergent TRs were  
366 consistently observed in zinc finger genes, a family with documented lineage-specific positive  
367 selection, whereas highly diverse TRVs were enriched in immune-related genes, reflecting the  
368 well-established role of balancing selection in immunity (Minias & Vinkler, 2022). Nonetheless,  
369 both categories were enriched in genes involved in nervous system development, cell signalling,  
370 and synaptic processes, aligning with prior links between TR variation and human  
371 neurodevelopment and neurological disorders (Cui et al., 2025; Gymrek et al., 2016; Xiao et al.,  
372 2022). Further, genes containing expression-associated TRs (Eslami Rasekh et al., 2021; Fotsing  
373 et al., 2019) were more likely to be differentially expressed between humans and chimpanzees.  
374 Although overall TRV presence or extreme repeat divergence alone did not predict differential  
375 expression, divergence in TR length showed a weak but significant association with expression  
376 divergence, supporting the modulatory “tuning knob” model (King et al., 1997) in which TR  
377 variation influences regulatory evolution, likely on a context dependent manner (Fotsing et al.,  
378 2019).

379 A key limitation of our analysis is the lack of population-scale TR genotypes for non-  
380 human apes beyond chimpanzees. While T2T assemblies enable high-confidence,  
381 comprehensive catalog construction and homology inference across species, estimates of within-  
382 species diversity, mutation rate, and divergence-diversity ratios remain restricted to humans and  
383 chimpanzees. Future long-read population datasets from other apes will be essential to determine  
384 whether the patterns observed here generalize across the ape phylogeny.

385 Altogether, our findings show that TR evolution reflects a balance between mutational  
386 dynamics and selective constraint that is strongly modulated by genomic and functional context.  
387 TRs in constrained regions, such as coding sequences or regulatory elements of essential genes,  
388 are stabilized by purifying selection, whereas TRs in regions with more permissive constraints,  
389 such as in immune-related loci, exhibit elevated diversity. Over evolutionary timescales, this  
390 interplay between stability and flexibility produces a heterogeneous landscape of conserved and  
391 divergent TRs, preserving genomic integrity while simultaneously generating substrate for  
392 adaptive change. By integrating population-scale long-read data with T2T reference assemblies,  
393 our study underscores the role of TRs as pervasive and dynamic components of genome  
394 evolution, shaping both functional constraint and evolutionary innovation across apes.

395

## 396 METHODS

### 397 Creating TR reference catalogs

398 The reference dataset comprises T2T genomes from seven ape species (Fig. 1b), obtained  
399 from the Telomere-to-Telomere Consortium (Nurk et al., 2022; Yoo et al., 2024). These  
400 genomes were generated using long-read, high-coverage PacBio HiFi sequencing (>50x) and  
401 Oxford Nanopore ultra-long reads (100 kb+ and >30x). We used the TRACK pipeline (Adam et  
402 al., 2024) to generate TR catalogs for each species from the T2T reference genomes. Specifically,  
403 TRs were identified using the Tandem Repeat Finder (Benson, 1999) and filtered based on total  
404 repeat length (<10 Kbp), copy number (>2.5), and constancy score, i.e., the percentage of  
405 matches between adjacent copies (>60%). Overlapping repeats were resolved by retaining the  
406 shortest motif, and motifs were normalized to their minimal repeat unit. Finally, we queried our  
407 catalog against the Dfam database to identify instances where TRs intersect known repetitive  
408 element families (Hubley et al., 2016).

409 After this initial characterization of the catalogs, we applied additional filtering to

410 exclude centromeric regions and regions containing alpha satellite DNA (cenSat) and  
411 subterminal satellites (StSat). Annotations were obtained from the CHM13 and T2T-Primate  
412 Consortium to identify and remove complex high-order repeat (HOR)-rich regions before  
413 homology assessment and length comparisons. We then characterize each TR according to its  
414 location within annotated genomic features in the CHM13 reference genome, i.e 3' UTRs,  
415 5'UTRs, CDS, promoters, and introns. This step was performed using only the APPRIS principal  
416 isoform of each transcript (Rodriguez et al., 2013). A detailed description of the catalog creation  
417 is available in the Supplemental Material.

418

#### 419 **Identifying homologous TRs**

420 The TRACK pipeline (Adam et al., 2024) was also used to identify homologous TRs  
421 between species. Briefly, TRACK utilizes chain files, which contain the longest and highest-  
422 scoring synthetic regions in a pairwise whole-genome alignment, to convert the TR genomic  
423 locations from one species' assembly to another using the UCSC Liftover tool (Hinrichs, 2006).  
424 To avoid biases in the homology detection process, TRACK lifts the TR catalogs bidirectionally,  
425 with the two genomes of interest serving as both target and query. The lists are compared to the  
426 target species' original TR catalog to confirm that the target species has a TR locus in the  
427 homologous regions. In this step, we retained loci with at least 10% overlap between putative  
428 homologous TR and the reference TR. Their sequence identity was then examined by pairwise  
429 alignment of the motifs from every shared TR, retaining those with a minimum alignment score  
430 of 95% or higher. A detailed description of the homology assessment is available in the  
431 Supplemental Material.

432

#### 433 **Determining TR genotypes**

434 We genotyped the homologous TRs using long-read PacBio HiFi sequence data from 46  
435 humans in the Human Pangenome Research Consortium (HPRC) (Liao et al., 2023) and 23  
436 newly sequenced chimpanzee genomes (Rocha et al. *in prep*) using the Tandem Repeat  
437 Genotyping Tool implemented in the TRACK pipeline (Adam et al., 2024). The merged  
438 multisample VCF was filtered for missing data (--max-missing 1), minimum allele spanning  
439 depth (>3), and allele constancy score (>0.6). Loci with lengths < 11 bp were removed from  
440 further analyses.

441           Genetic diversity per locus, also referred to as expected heterozygosity ( $H_s$ ), was  
442           computed as

$$H_s = 1 - \sum_{i=1}^k p_i^2$$

443           where  $k$  is the number of alleles at a locus, and  $p_i$  is the frequency of the  $i^{th}$  allele across all  
444           samples.

445           Per-locus mutation rates were estimated using the Goldstein genetic distance  
446           ( $du^2$ ) framework under the stepwise mutation model. This distance quantifies allele size  
447           divergence between species while correcting for within-species variance, defined as

$$du^2 = ASD - (V_h + V_c),$$

448           where ASD represents the average square difference in allele copy number between species, and  
449            $V_h$  and  $V_c$  denote the within-species variances for each species. The ASD term was computed  
450           as

$$ASD = \sum_i \sum_j (a_i - a_j)^2 p_i q_j$$

451  
452           where  $a_i$  and  $a_j$  are allele copy numbers in humans and chimpanzees, and  $p_i$  and  $q_j$  are their  
453           corresponding allele frequencies. Within-species variances ( $V_h$ ,  $V_c$ ) were estimated  
454           analogously using allele frequencies within each species.

455           Under the stepwise mutation model, the expected value of  $du^2$  increases linearly with  
456           the mutation rate ( $\mu$ ) and the divergence time ( $t$ ). We therefore estimated per-generation mutation  
457           rates as

$$\mu = \frac{du^2}{t_{total}},$$

459           where  $t_{total}$  is the sum of the human and chimpanzee branch lengths. We assumed branch  
460           lengths of 6.2 million years for each lineage and generation times of 28 years for humans and 25  
461           years for chimpanzees, yielding a total of approximately  $t_{total} = 4.6 \times 10^5$  generations.

462

### 463           **TR allele length variability**

464           To investigate the relationship between TR lengths in humans and chimpanzees across  
465           different genomic contexts, we performed linear regression analyses stratified by the annotated

466 genomic features. For each category, we modeled chimpanzee TR length as a function of human  
467 TR length. The coefficient of determination ( $R^2$ ) was computed to assess the strength of the  
468 linear relationship. Then, TRs were initially classified based on their degree of conservation  
469 across and within species. Loci with no allele length variation across all individuals were defined  
470 as *invariant* (iTR), while the remaining were classified as *variable* (TRV). TRVs were then used  
471 to compute Divergence-diversity ratios ( $D$ ).

472

### 473 **Divergence-diversity ratio ( $D$ )**

474 To assess the relationship between a TR's divergence and diversity, we define the per  
475 locus Divergence-diversity ratio ( $D$ ) as the ratio of between-species to within-species variance in  
476 allele length, computed separately for each species:

$$D_i = \frac{Var_{between}}{Var_{within,i}}$$

477 where between-species variance for each TR was defined as the weighted squared difference  
478 between each species-specific mean length and the overall mean length across both species:

$$Var_{between} = \sum_{i=1}^2 n_i (\underline{x}_i - \underline{x})^2, \quad \underline{x} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^2 n_i \underline{x}_i}{\sum_{i=1}^2 n_i}$$

479 where  $n_i$  is the number of alleles in species  $i$ , and  $\underline{x}$  is the overall mean length across both  
480 species.

481 To identify TRs with extreme  $D_i$  values, we ranked all variable TRs independently for  
482 humans and chimpanzees. TRs with high  $D_i$  in both species were defined as the top 1,000 loci in  
483 each species, while TRs with low  $D_i$  in both species were defined as the bottom 1,000 loci after  
484 excluding repeats with within-species variance below 1. We implemented this threshold as a  
485 conservative noise floor in order to eliminate small TRs with low variance that produce small  
486 ratios that are likely not biologically relevant (Extended Figure 1). Species-specific extremes  
487 were defined as TRs exhibiting the greatest deviation from the diagonal in the human-  
488 chimpanzee  $D$  comparison. The top 1,000 TRs with the largest deviation were selected for each  
489 species, representing loci with pronounced divergence relative to diversity in a single lineage.  
490 This classification yielded four categories of TRs for downstream analyses: high  $D$  in both  
491 species, low  $D$  in both species, high  $D$  in humans, and high  $D$  in chimpanzees. Within each  
492 category, TRs were characterized with respect to genomic features, GC content, heterozygosity,

493 and motif length to identify features associated with conserved versus highly variable repeats.

494

#### 495 **Gene ontology enrichment analysis and gene expression data**

496 We performed Gene Ontology (GO) enrichment analysis to test whether genes containing  
497 TRs with extreme ratio ( $D$ ) signatures were associated with specific Biological Processes terms.  
498 We selected the genes intersecting the top 1,000 TRs within each ratio category as the gene sets  
499 to be tested for enrichment using the full set of genes intersecting TRs as the background.  
500 Analyses were conducted in ShinyGO v.0.82 (Ge et al., 2020) with a minimum pathway size of  
501 15 and maximum pathway size of 1,000 genes. Significance was assessed using the false  
502 discovery rate (FDR), and only pathways with FDR-corrected  $p < 0.01$  were considered enriched.

503 Gene expression data was obtained from Brawand et al., (2011), which provides  
504 normalized RPKM (reads per kilobase of exon per million mapped reads) values for six tissues  
505 (brain, cerebellum, heart, kidney, liver, and testis) from humans and chimpanzees. To reduce  
506 noise from lowly expressed genes, we applied a threshold of  $RPKM > 1$  in at least one individual  
507 for each tissue and species. Differential expression (DE) between species was assessed per tissue  
508 *limma* (Ritchie et al., 2015) on log-transformed RPKM values, with empirical Bayes moderation  
509 of gene-wise standard errors. Genes with FDR-adjusted  $p$ -values  $< 0.05$  were considered DE. TR  
510 length divergence was quantified as the log2 fold change of mean allele length per locus and  
511 compared to gene expression divergence using Pearson's correlation. To focus on genes  
512 containing TRs known to be associated with expression (eTRs), we retained those associated  
513 with fine-mapped expression STR (Fotsing et al., 2019) and expression-associated VNTRs  
514 (Eslami Rasekh et al., 2021).

515

#### 516 **Data availability**

517 Code used for this project is available at [https://github.com/caroladam/tr\\_analysis/tree/main](https://github.com/caroladam/tr_analysis/tree/main)

518

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523

524 **Supplemental Tables**

525

526 Supplemental Table S1 - Results of  $\chi^2$  enrichment tests for motif length distributions across  
527 genomic features. Shown are observed and expected TR counts, standardized residuals, p-values  
528 (raw and FDR-corrected), fold enrichment, and enrichment status relative to expectation  
529 (enriched or depleted).

530

531 Supplemental Table S2 - Description of genic Tandem Repeat Variants (TRVs) with the top  
532 1,000 highest-ranked ratio categories.

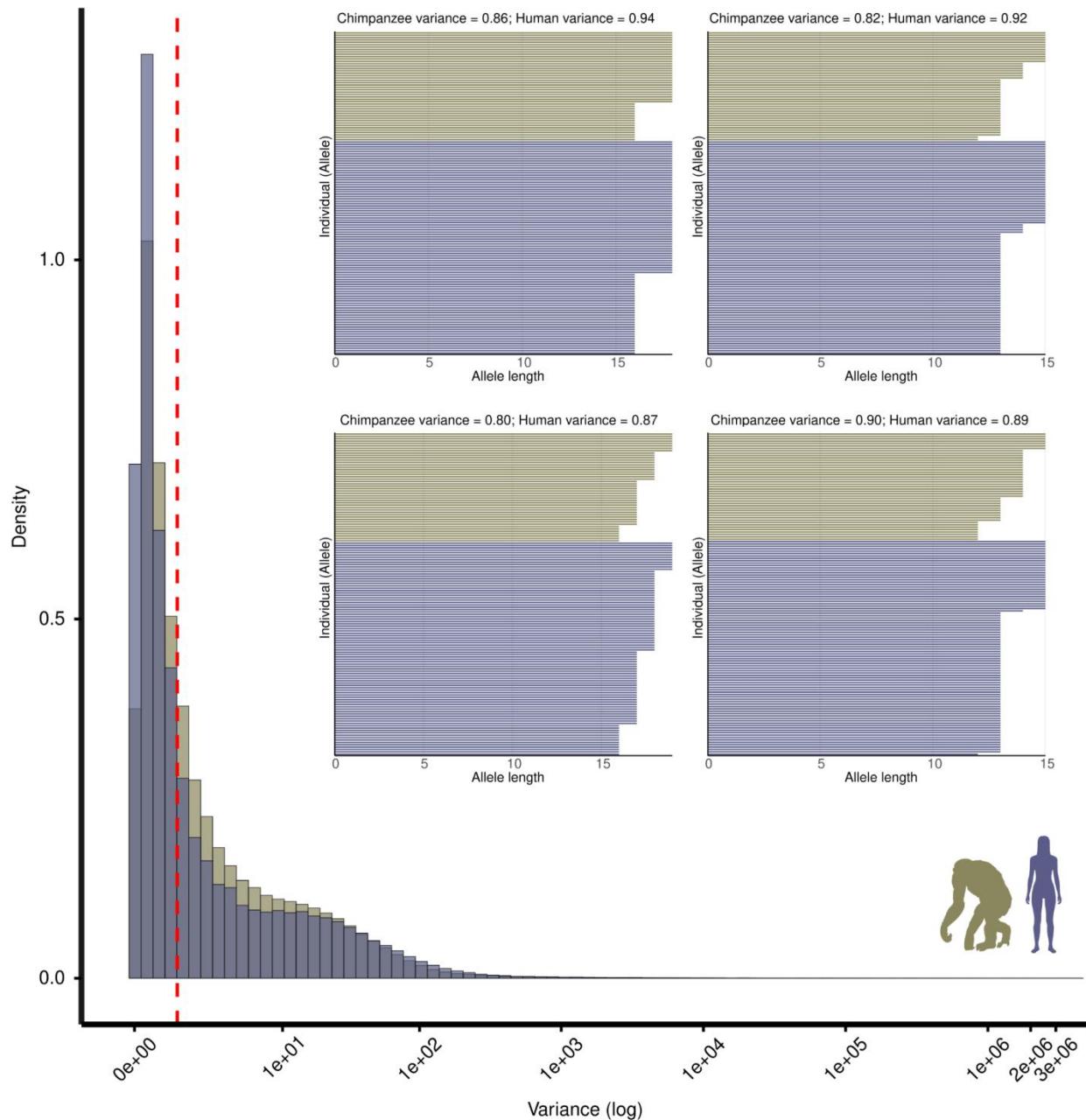
533

534 Supplemental Table S3. Description of genes harboring the top 10 highest-ranked TRVs in the  
535 high and low Divergence-Diversity Ratio categories.

536

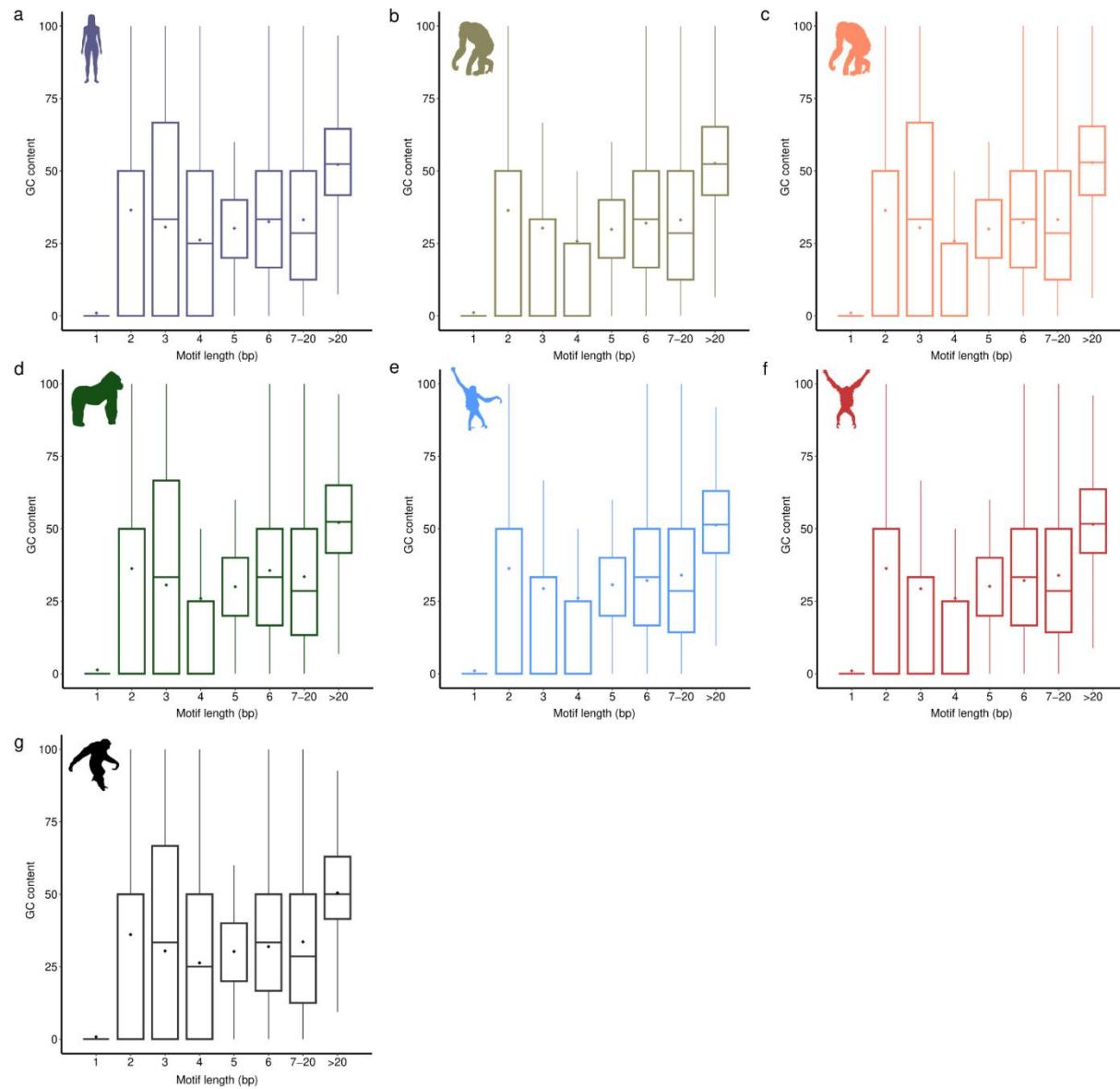
537 Supplemental Table S4 - Description of genes harboring the top 10 highest-ranked TRVs in the  
538 high Divergence-Diversity Ratio categories in a single species.

539 **Extended Figures**



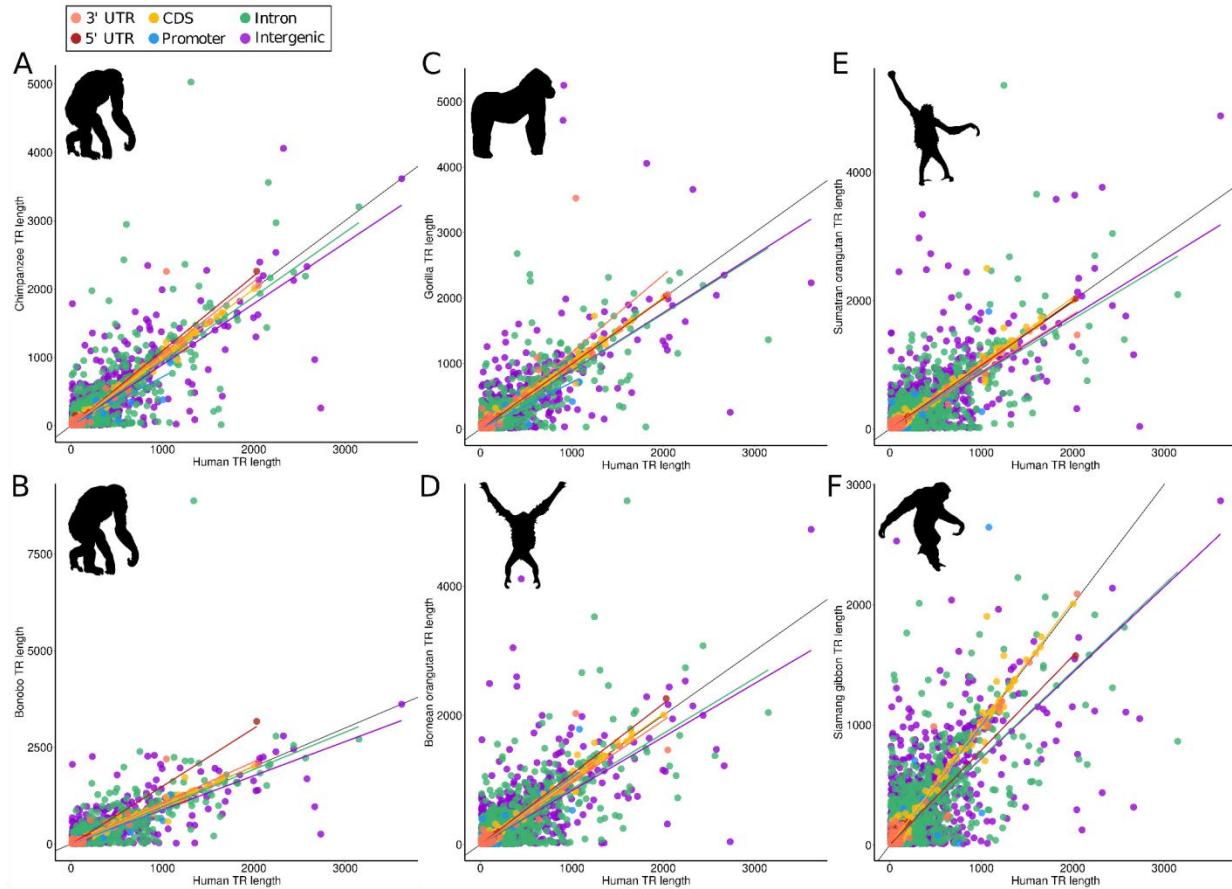
540

541 Extended Figure 1 - Histogram showing the distribution of non-zero within-species TR variance across  
542 humans and chimpanzees. The vertical line indicates the implemented threshold (minimum variance = 1),  
543 used to exclude loci with low variance that produce small ratios that are likely not biologically relevant.  
544 Inset barplots show four examples of the allele-length distributions of TRVs with within-species variance  
545 near but below 1.

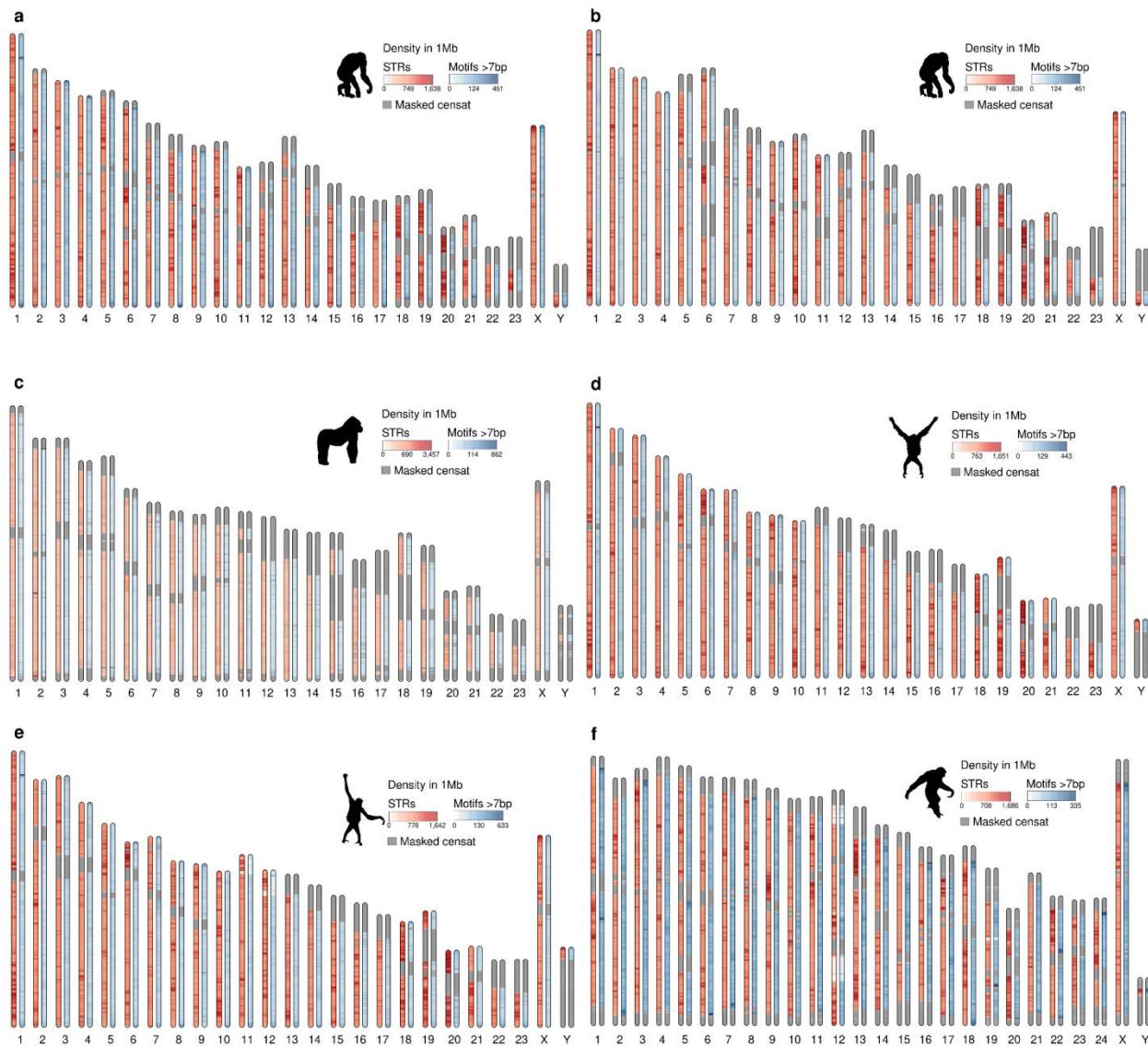


546

547 Extended Figure 2 - Boxplot showing the GC content of TR motifs across motif lengths for a) *Homo*  
548 *sapiens*, b) *Pan troglodytes*, c) *Pan paniscus*, d) *Gorilla gorilla*, e) *Pongo pygmaeus*, f) *Pongo abelii*, and  
549 g) *Sympalangus syndactylus*.

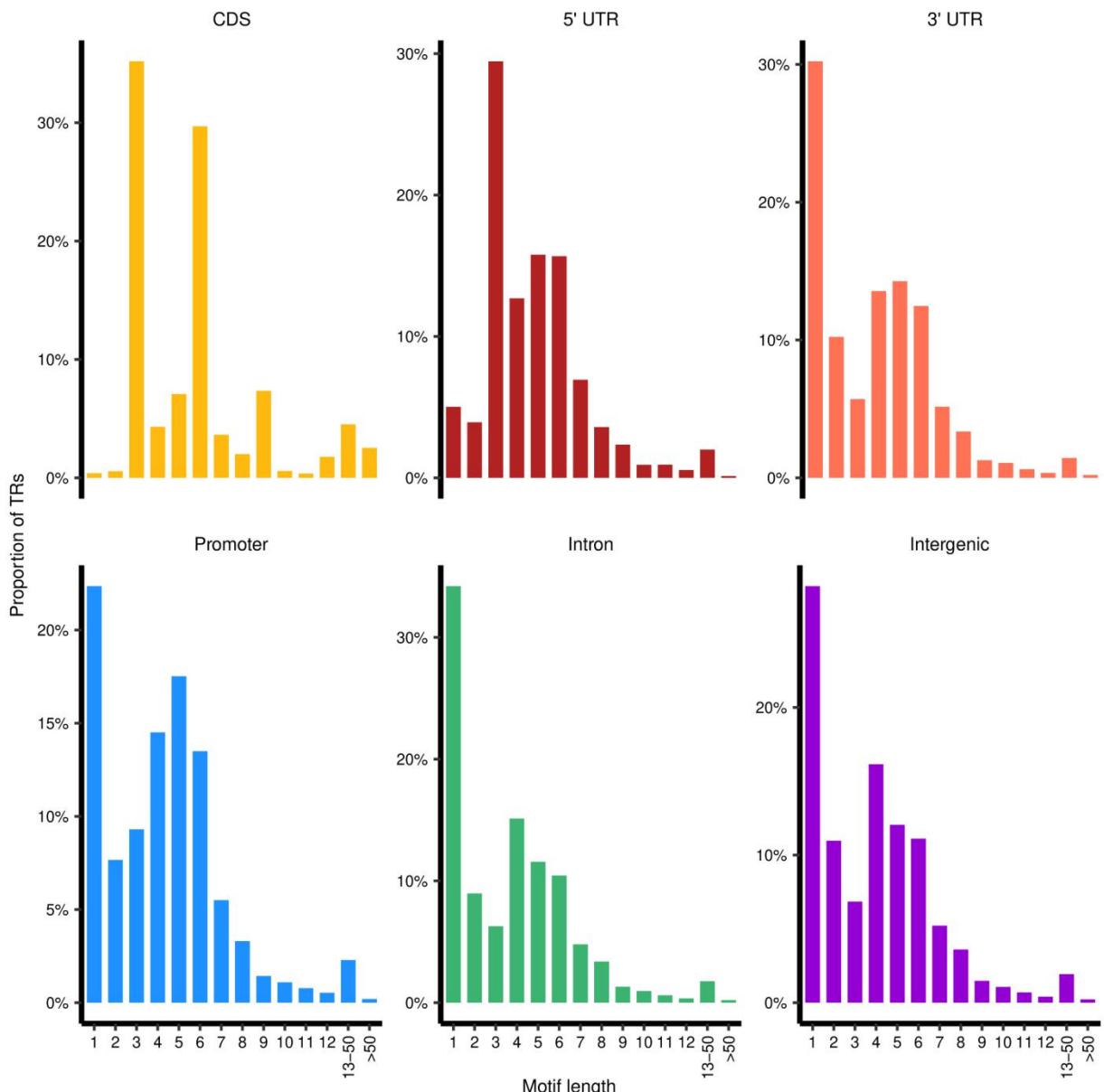


550  
551 Extended Figure 3 -Scatterplot of reference tandem repeat (TR) length between humans (x-axis)  
552 and remaining T2T ape species (y-axis). Each point represents a single TR locus, with color indicating the  
553 genomic annotation in the CHM13 genome. a) *Pan troglodytes*, b) *Pan paniscus*, c) *Gorilla gorilla*, d)  
554 *Pongo pygmaeus*, e) *Pongo abelii*, and f) *Sympalangus syndactylus*.



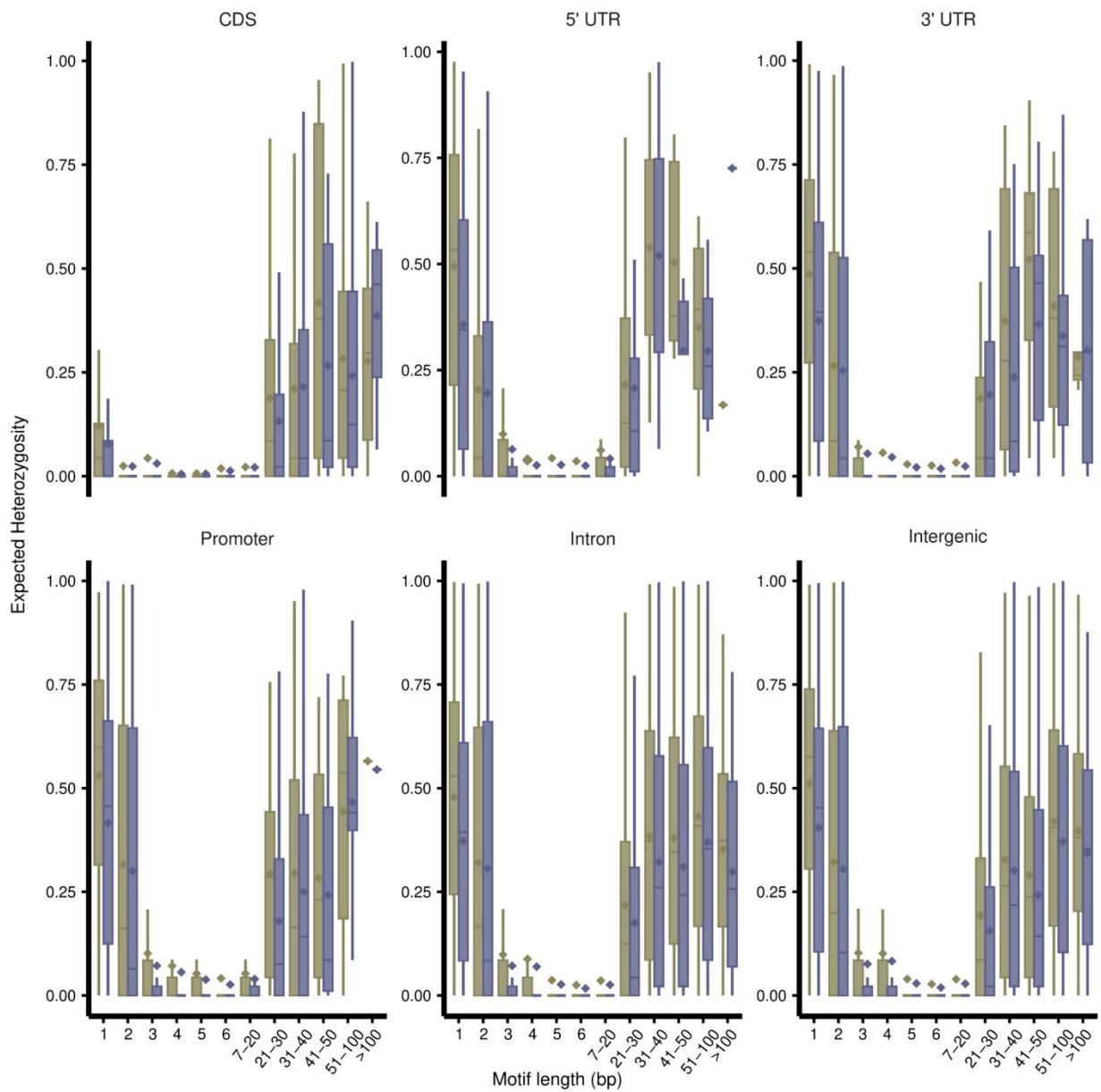
555

556 Extended Figure 4 - Ideogram of the non-human T2T genomes showing the density of short tandem  
 557 repeats (STRs) in red and TRs with motif length >7 bp in blue across non-overlapping 1 Mb windows.  
 558 Repeat density is plotted along each chromosome. TR densities are shown for a) *Pan troglodytes*, b)  
 559 *Pan paniscus*, c) *Gorilla gorilla*, d) *Pongo pygmaeus*, e) *Pongo abelii*, and f) *Sympalangus syndactylus*.



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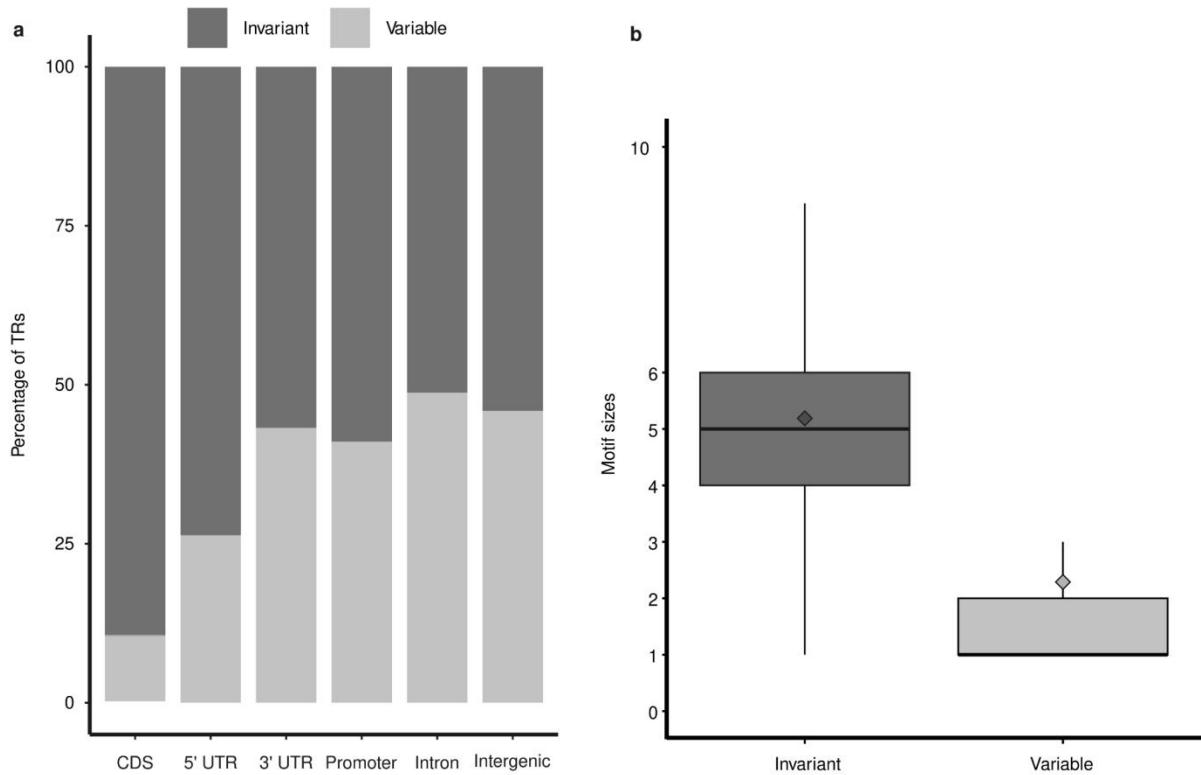
Extended Figure 5 - Barplots showing the proportional distribution of TR motif lengths across genomic features in the CHM13 reference genome.



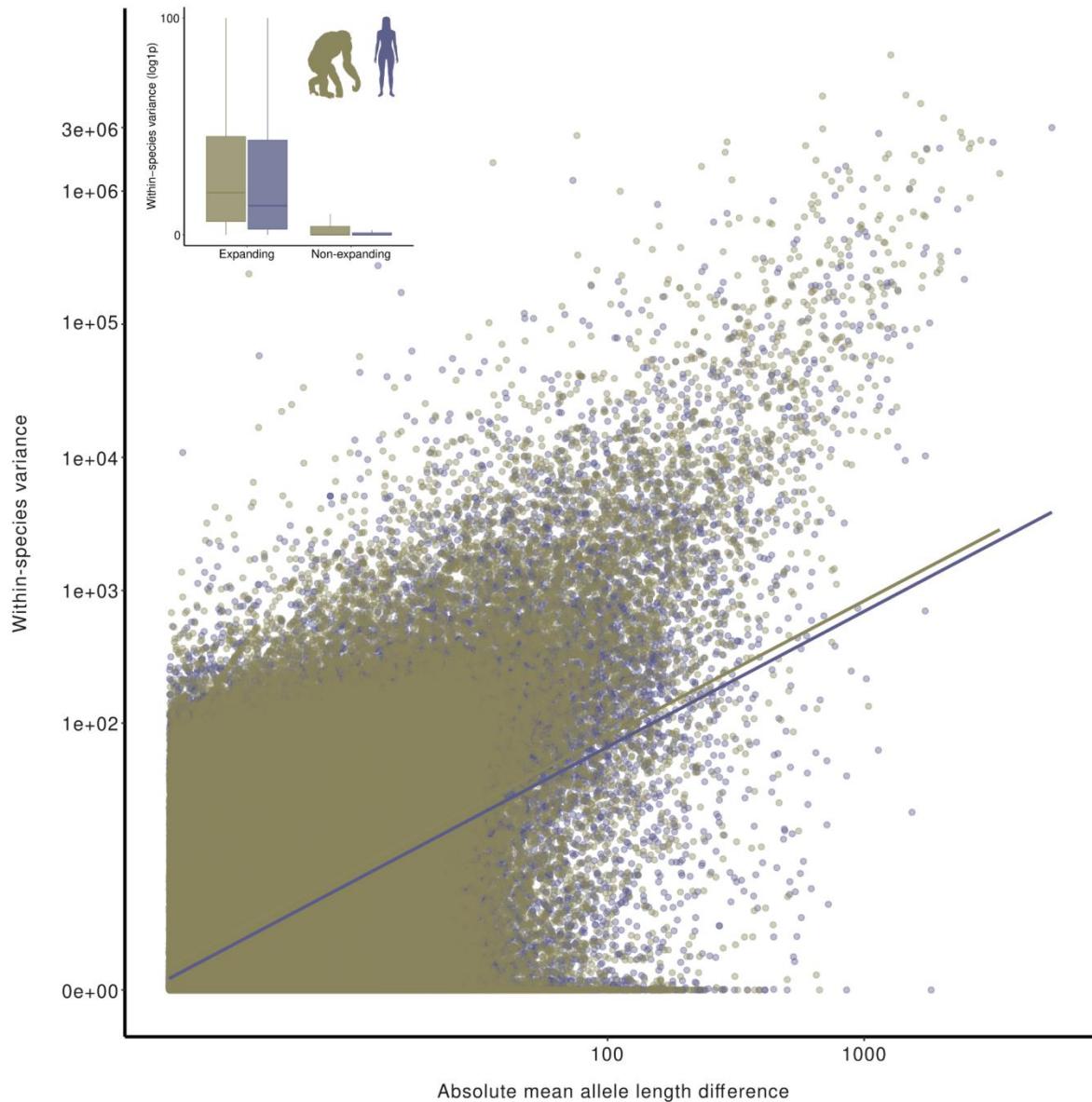
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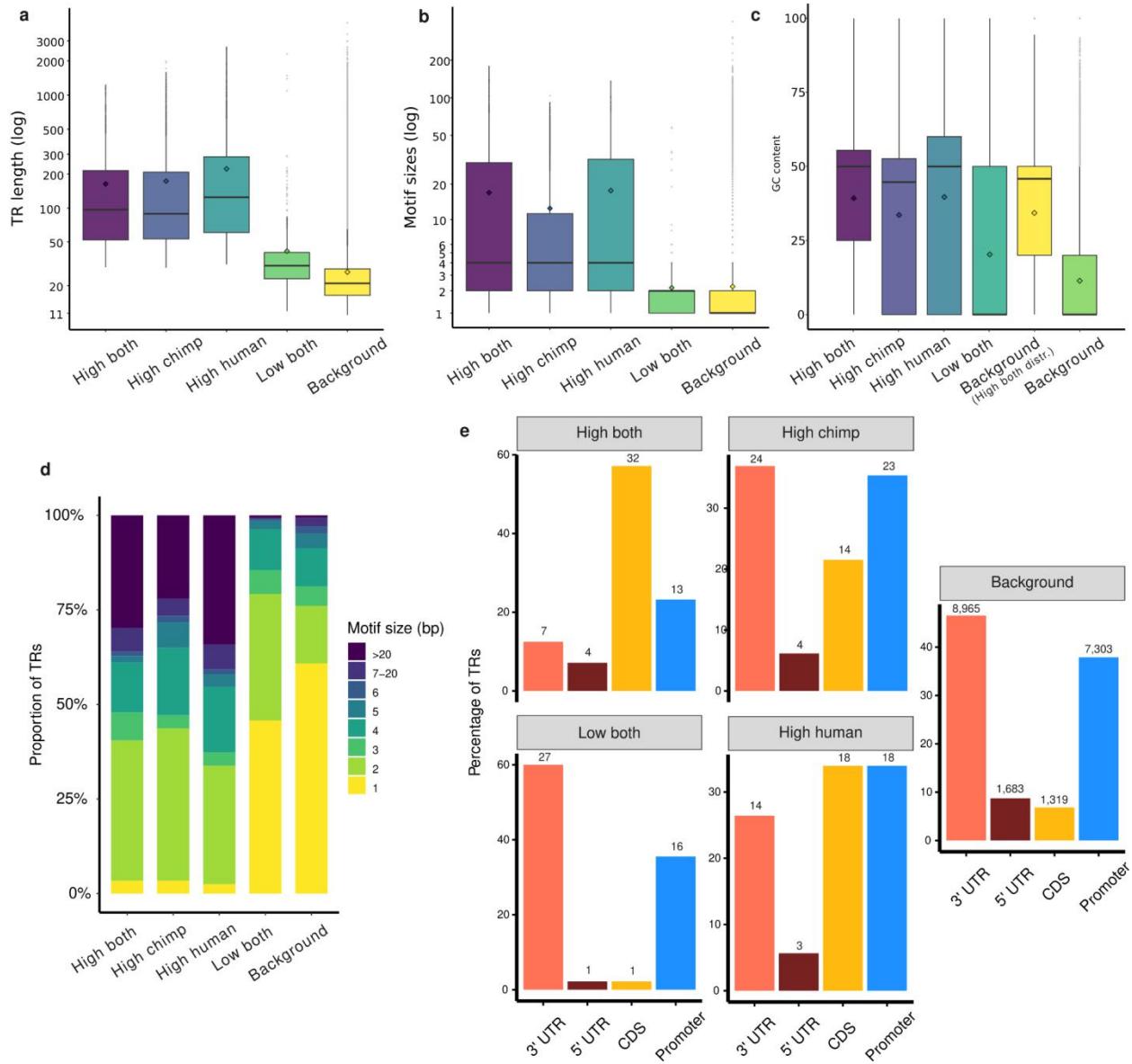
565 Extended Figure 6 - Expected heterozygosity of TRs shared between humans (purple) and chimpanzees (green) across genomic features, stratified by motif lengths.



566  
567 Extended Figure 7 - a) Barplots showing the percentage of invariant and variable TRs within each  
568 genomic feature. b) Boxplot showing the distribution of motif lengths across invariant and variable TRs.  
569 Outliers are omitted for clarity.

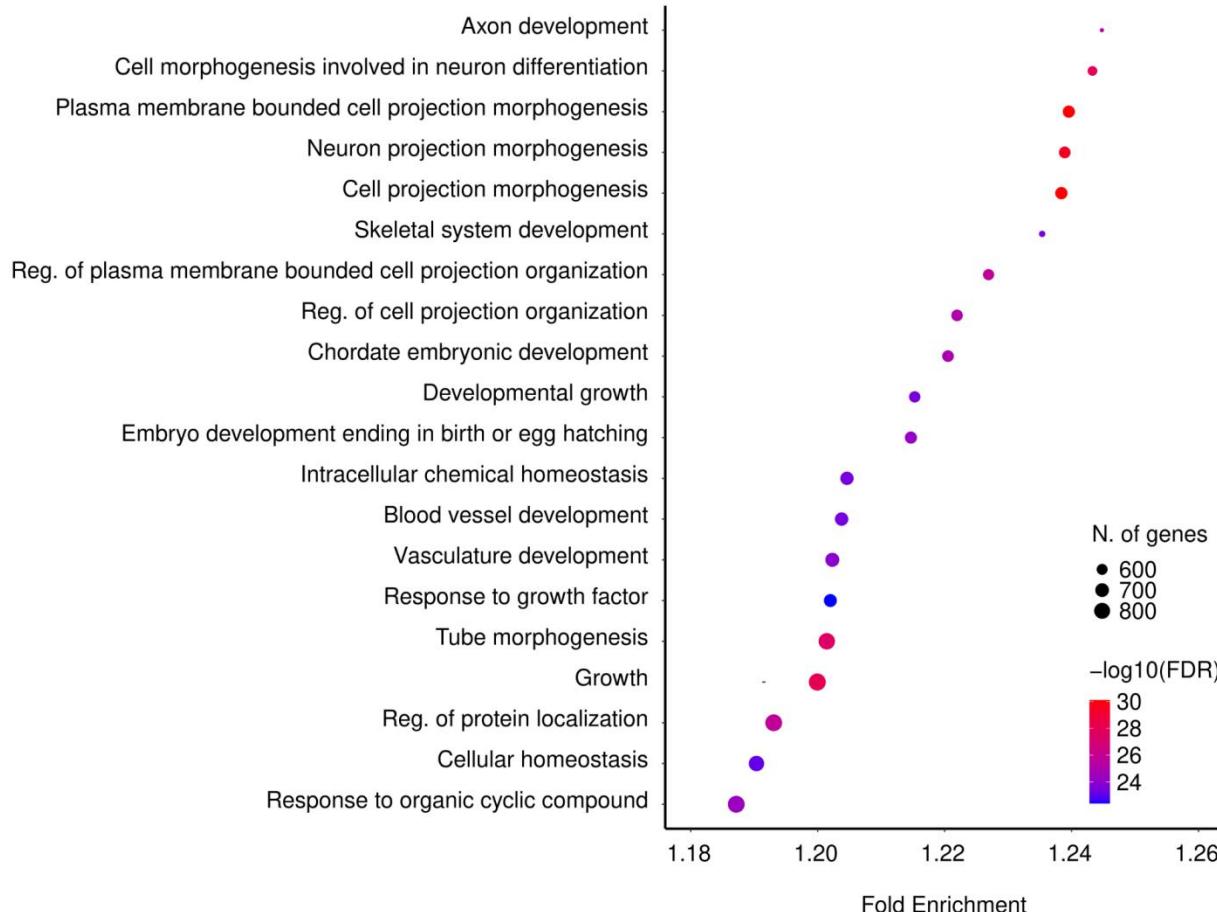


570  
571 Extended Figure 8 - Scatterplot showing within-species variance versus absolute difference in mean allele  
572 length between humans and chimpanzees. The inset boxplot shows within-species variance, grouped by  
573 expansion status, for each species. Outliers are omitted for clarity.

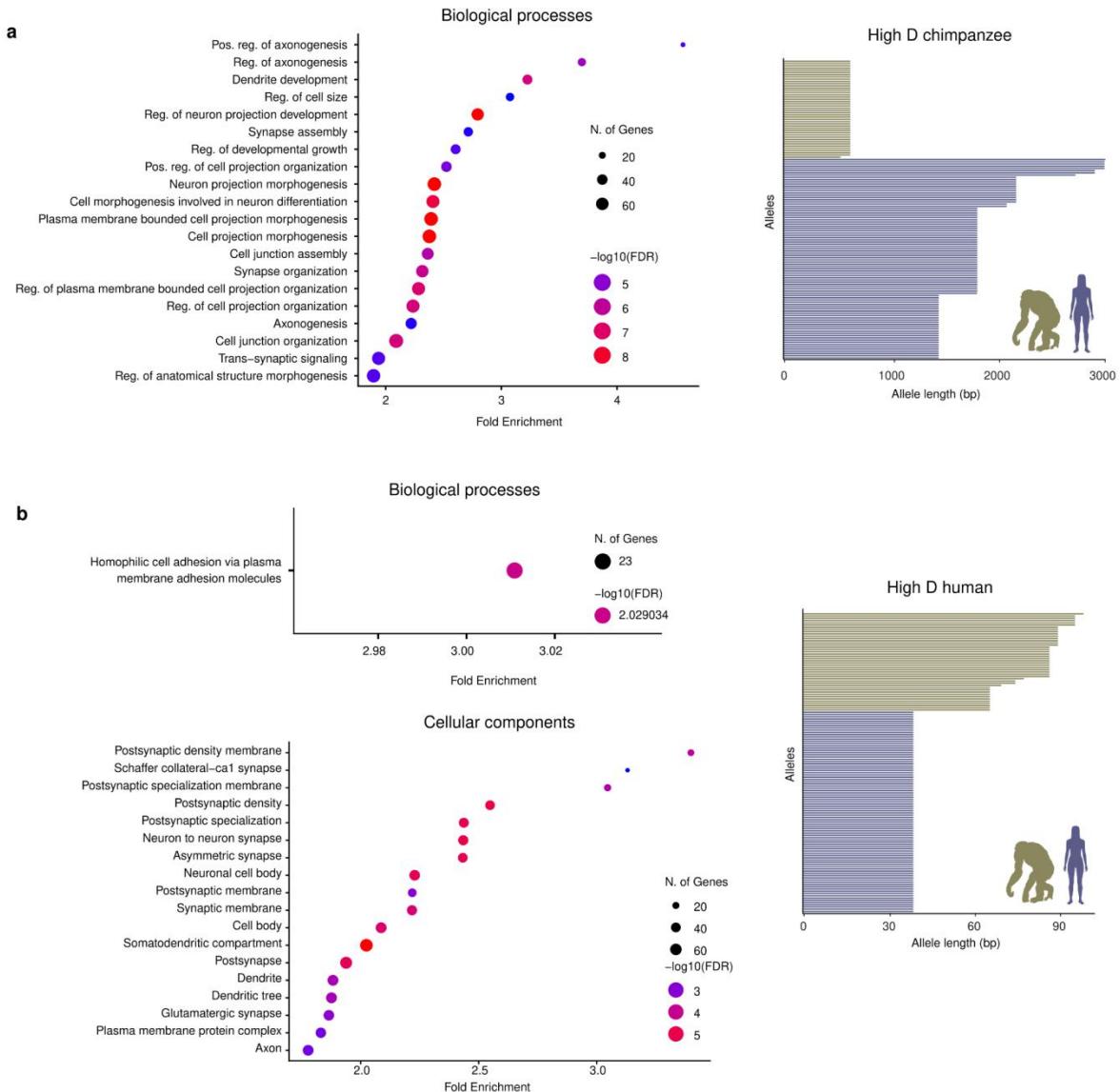


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575

576 Extended Figure 9 - Boxplots showing the distribution of a) TR lengths, b) motif sizes, and c) GC content  
577 across D categories. d) Stacked barplot showing the proportion of TRs with different motif sizes across D  
578 categories, and e) Barplots showing the proportion of genic, non-intronic TRs within each D category  
579 made up by different genomic features.

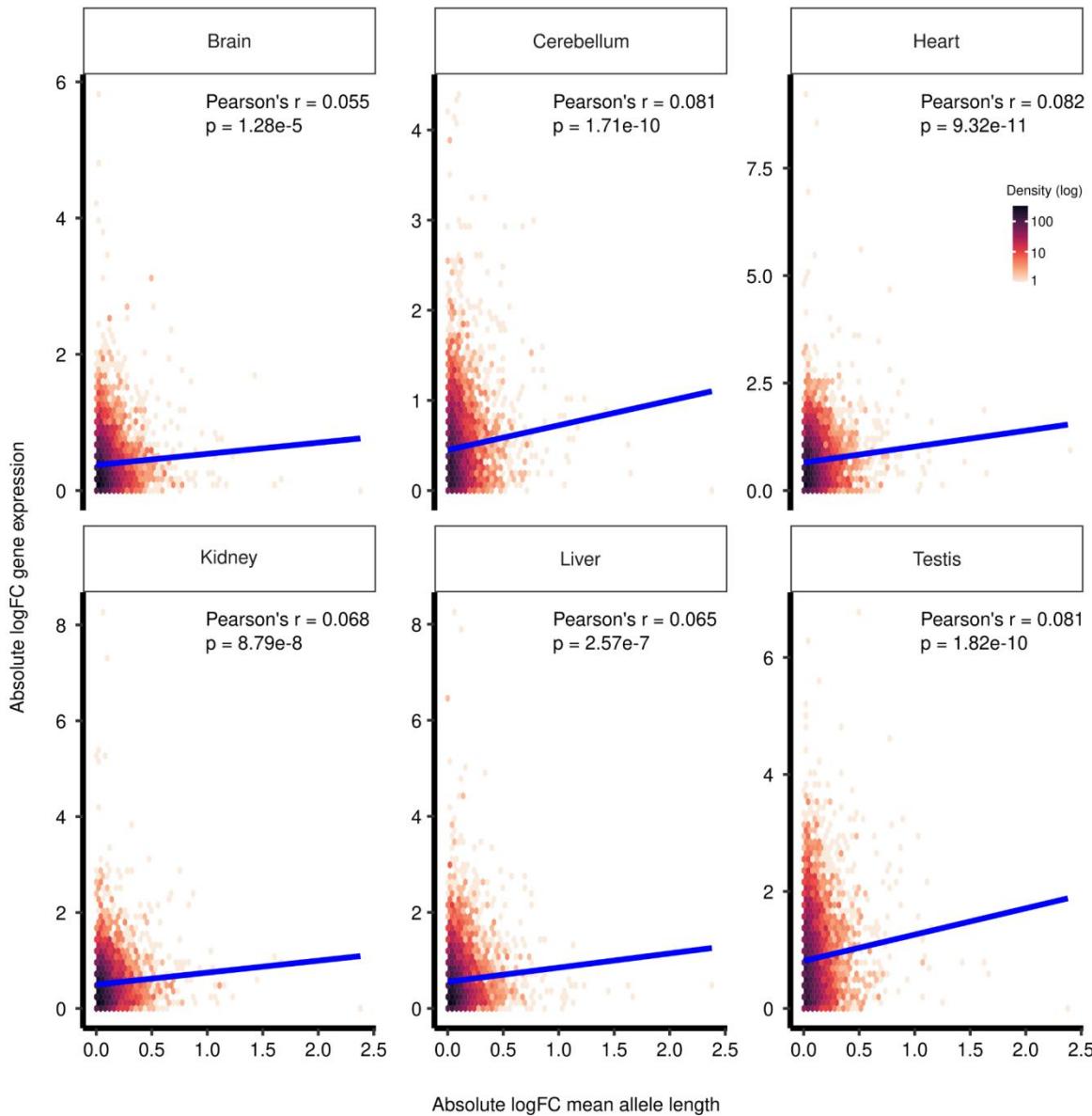


580  
581 Extended Figure 10 - Gene Ontology enrichment analysis for Biological Processes terms associated with  
582 genes containing Tandem Repeats (TRs) using the whole set of human genes as background.



583  
584  
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Extended Figure 11 - Gene Ontology enrichment analysis for Biological Processes terms associated with genes intersecting the top 1,000 genic TRs with a) high chimpanzee  $D$  and b) high human  $D$ , which also includes enrichment for Cellular Components. Includes allele length distribution for one representative TR in each category.



587  
588 Extended Figure 12 - Hexbin plot showing the correlation between absolute log fold change in mean TR  
589 allele length across genes (x-axis) and absolute log fold change in gene expression (y-axis) across  
590 multiple tissues.  
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