Variable presence of the inverted repeat and plastome stability in Erodium

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• **Background and Aims** Several unrelated lineages such as plastids, viruses and plasmids, have converged on quadripartite genomes of similar size with large and small single copy regions and a large inverted repeat (IR). Except for *Erodium* (Geraniaceae), saguaro cactus and some legumes, the plastomes of all photosynthetic angio-sperms display this structure. The functional significance of the IR is not understood and *Erodium* provides a system to examine the role of the IR in the long-term stability of these genomes. We compared the degree of genomic rearrangement in plastomes of *Erodium* that differ in the presence and absence of the IR.

• **Methods** We sequenced 17 new *Erodium* plastomes. Using 454, Illumina, PacBio and Sanger sequences, 16 genomes were assembled and categorized along with one incomplete and two previously published *Erodium* plastomes. We conducted phylogenetic analyses among these species using a dataset of 19 protein-coding genes and determined if significantly higher evolutionary rates had caused the long branch seen previously in phylogenetic reconstructions within the genus. Bioinformatic comparisons were also performed to evaluate plastome evolution across the genus.

• Key Results *Erodium* plastomes fell into four types (Type 1–4) that differ in their substitution rates, short dispersed repeat content and degree of genomic rearrangement, gene and intron content and GC content. Type 4 plastomes had significantly higher rates of synonymous substitutions (dS) for all genes and for 14 of the 19 genes non-synonymous substitutions (dN) were significantly accelerated. We evaluated the evidence for a single IR loss in *Erodium* and in doing so discovered that Type 4 plastomes contain a novel IR.

• **Conclusions** The presence or absence of the IR does not affect plastome stability in *Erodium*. Rather, the overall repeat content shows a negative correlation with genome stability, a pattern in agreement with other angiosperm groups and recent findings on genome stability in bacterial endosymbionts.

Key words: chloroplast, plastome, inverted repeat, repeated sequences, inversions, genome evolution, Geraniaceae, *Erodium*.

INTRODUCTION

The majority of flowering plants harbour plastid genomes (plastomes) with a nearly identical gene complement, gene order and quadripartite structure (Bock, 2007; Ruhlman and Jansen, 2014). This structure includes a large [usually \sim 25-kilobase (kb)] recombinogenic inverted repeat (IR) that gives rise to isomers differing in the relative orientation of their single copy regions, termed the large and small single copy regions (LSC and SSC, respectively) (Palmer, 1983). Expansion and contraction of the IR presumably occur through illegitimate recombination between opposite junctions of the IR and single copy regions (Goulding et al., 1996), resulting in some variation in IR gene content in particular lineages. With the exception of Monsonia speciosa (Geraniaceae), the only known example among autotrophic angiosperms to lack a portion of the ribosomal operon (Guisinger et al., 2011), the IR always contains this feature in its entirety. In some algal plastomes, the IR comprises the ribosomal operon exclusively (Yamada, 1991).

Although most photosynthetic angiosperms contain the IR, early restriction fragment mapping studies identified two

independent lineages in which one repeat copy had been lost (Downie and Palmer, 1992): the genus *Erodium* (Geraniaceae) and a large clade within legumes (Fabaceae) (Palmer *et al.*, 1987; Downie and Palmer, 1992) subsequently termed the IR Lacking Clade (IRLC; Wojciechowski *et al.*, 2004). The IR losses in *Erodium* and legumes left no clear indicators of illegitimate recombination such as homology on both sides of the tract that underwent gene conversion, or at least none remains, as neither loss is recent. The increasing availability of plastome sequences from diverse lineages may reveal, as it has for the saguaro cactus (*Carnegiea gigantea*), more cases of IR loss (Sanderson *et al.*, 2015).

The geranium family (Geraniaceae) is an interesting study system for IR evolution because it contains not only one of the three autotrophic angiosperm lineages lacking the IR (*Erodium*) but also the lineage with the largest known IR (*Pelargonium*) as well as the only autotrophic group in which the IR has contracted such that it does not contain the entire ribosomal operon (*Monsonia*) (Blazier *et al.*, 2011; Guisinger *et al.*, 2011). As the inferred ancestral plastome organization for Geraniaceae includes a relatively normal IR in terms of size and content, these

large and lineage-specific fluctuations likely occurred independently in each genus (Weng *et al.*, 2014). Given the rarity of plastome rearrangement across angiosperms it is tempting to speculate that the rearrangements in the major genera of Geraniaceae, although independent and different in outcome, share an underlying mechanism (Guisinger *et al.*, 2008, 2011) such as reduced efficacy of plastid DNA repair or of cellular machinery maintaining the structural integrity of these genomes (Marechal and Brisson, 2010; Tremblay-Belzile *et al.*, 2015; Zhang *et al.*, 2016).

Conservation of the IR across angiosperms and its presence in many other land plant and algal lineages suggest it has some functional importance. Several functions for the IR have been suggested, including replication initiation (Heinhorst and Cannon, 1993), stabilization of the plastome (Palmer and Thompson, 1982; Hirao et al., 2008) and conservation of genes encoding the translational machinery (Palmer and Thompson, 1982), as genes in the IR have been shown to evolve approximately three-fold more slowly than those in the single-copy regions (Wolfe et al., 1987; Perry and Wolfe, 2002; Zhu et al., 2016). The early observation that legumes lacking the IR have undergone more frequent genomic rearrangement than those retaining the IR led to the hypothesis that the IR functioned to stabilize the plastome (Palmer and Thompson, 1982). Indeed, sequencing of the highly rearranged plastome of Erodium texanum seemed to lend further support for this hypothesis (Guisinger et al., 2011).

Phylogenetic reconstructions (Fiz et al., 2006) parsed the Erodium lineage into two highly supported major clades, Clade I and Clade II. Among the unusual features of the E. texanum (Clade I) plastome was the loss and/or divergences of some canonical plastid genes (Guisinger et al., 2011). While the genes encoding the NADH dehydrogenase (NDHA-K; NDH) were found intact, PCR surveys indicated that nested within Erodium Clade I was a lineage that lacked the entire suite of NDH genes: the so-called long branch clade (LBC; Blazier et al., 2011). Indeed it appeared that these IR-lacking, dispersed repeat-rich plastomes had been destabilized relative to other photosynthetic angiosperms. However, sequencing of plastomes from Erodium carvifolium (Blazier et al., 2011), a representative of Clade II, and California (Weng et al., 2014), the monotypic genus sister to Erodium, did not support the notion of IR mediated genome stabilization. The California macrophylla plastome (IR \sim 22.3 kb) shows a single unique inversion relative to the inferred ancestral gene order for Geraniaceae (Weng et al., 2014). Erodium carvifolium, despite having lost one IR copy, differs from C. macrophylla by just two inversions. The high level of synteny between these two plastomes demonstrates that the extensive rearrangement in all major genera within Geraniaceae has occurred separately and that the presence of the IR appears neither necessary nor sufficient to stabilize gene order. In fact, next to C. macrophylla, the IR-lacking Erodium plastomes from Clade II (including E. carvifolium) are among the least rearranged in the family. Conversely, the great expansion of the IR in *Pelargonium* \times *hortorum* may have mediated the severe genomic rearrangements seen in this species (Chumley et al., 2006; Guisinger et al., 2011; Weng et al., 2014).

An alternative hypothesis is that the IR may play an important role in replication initiation. The primary origins of replication lie within the IR of *Nicotiana tabacum*, *Oenothera*, *Zea* mays and several algal plastomes (Kunnimalaiyaan and Nielsen, 1997; Krishnan and Rao, 2009). Similarly, the quadripartite structure of an IR separated by two single copy regions has been found in herpes simplex virus 1 (Lehman and Boehmer, 1999; Okamoto et al., 2011) and in the 2-micron circular plasmids of Saccharomyces cerevisiae (Broach and Volkert, 1991). This structure is inferred to have evolved independently several times in herpes viruses (Davison, 1998; Davison et al., 2005). These genomes are all present as multiple isomers differing in the relative orientation of the single copy regions to the IRs, a signature of double rolling circle replication initiated by recombination between inverted repeats (Okamoto et al., 2011). The functional significance of double rolling circle amplification is unknown, as replication is not perceptibly impaired in IRLC legumes and Erodium plastids, and herpes virus genomes with IRs disrupted through insertional mutagenesis were capable of independent replication (Jenkins and Roizman, 1986). Although the patterns of IR expansion, loss and genomic rearrangement in Geraniaceae plastomes do not support the genome stability hypothesis for IR retention, convergence on this genome architecture in a virus, a plasmid and in plastomes suggests functional significance.

In this study we focused on plastome evolution in *Erodium*. We categorized 17 complete *Erodium* plastomes into four types and describe distinct evolutionary trajectories in the two major clades of the genus. We explore evidence of a single IR loss and describe LBC (Blazier *et al.*, 2011) plastomes that contain a large IR. We analysed the branch leading to the LBC to determine whether it shows significantly higher nucleotide substitution rates than other branches in the genus. Finally, we discuss the functional significance of the IR in plastids and other genomes with a similar architecture and relate repeat content to genomic rearrangement with comparisons to recent studies of bacterial endosymbiont genomes.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Taxon sampling

The dataset consisted of 19 taxa (18 *Erodium* plus *California macrophylla*), 18 complete plastomes and one draft genome from which protein-coding genes were extracted for phylogenetic and evolutionary rate analyses (Supplementary Data Table S1). Of the 18 complete plastomes, three were previously published (Blazier *et al.*, 2011; Guisinger *et al.*, 2011; Weng *et al.*, 2014). The 16 new taxa were chosen based on a molecular phylogeny of the genus to ensure taxon sampling across the genus (Fiz *et al.*, 2006) (Supplementary Data Fig. S1). Plants were obtained from commercial sources (Geraniaceae.com and B and T World Seeds) or grown from seed provided by J. J. Aldasoro (Real Jardín Botánico de Madrid, Spain), and voucher specimens are deposited at TEX.

DNA isolation and sequencing

Three different sequencing technologies were used. Supplementary Data Table S1 itemizes the sequencing platforms used for each taxon. For pyrosequenced genomes, plastids were isolated and plastid DNA was amplified as previously

described (Jansen et al., 2005; Blazier et al., 2011). Sequencing was conducted on the 454 FLX platform at the W. M. Keck Center for Comparative and Functional Genomics at the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign. For Illumina-sequenced genomes, total genomic DNA was isolated from fresh leaf tissue using a modified version of the hexadecyltrimethylammonium bromide procedure of Doyle and Doyle (1987). Total genomic DNA was sequenced using Illumina HiSeq 2000 system at Beijing Genomics Institute Corporation or the Genome Sequence and Analysis Facility at the University of Texas at Austin. For each species, approx. 60 million 100-bp paired-end reads were generated from a sequencing library with \sim 750-bp inserts. For genomes with Pacific Biosciences (PacBio) single molecule, real-time (SMRT) sequencing data, DNA was extracted using the same protocol used for Illumina sequencing. One SMRT cell of data per species was obtained from 10-kb insert libraries at the University of Florida's Genomics Core Laboratory.

Genome assembly and annotation

Pyrosequenced genomes were assembled *de novo* in the native 454 assembler (Newbler package) under default settings as well as in MIRA v.3.4 using the 'accurate' setting (Chevreux *et al.*, 1999). Illumina data were assembled *de novo* with Velvet v.1.2.07 (Zerbino and Birney, 2008) using a range of kmer sizes from 71 to 93, with and without scaffolding enabled. Plastid contigs were identified by BLAST searches against a database of Geraniaceae plastid protein-coding genes using custom Python scripts. Nuclear and mitochondrial contigs containing plastid DNA insertions were excluded using $1000 \times$ coverage cutoff. Assembly and filtering were performed on the Lonestar Linux Cluster at the Texas Advanced Computing Center (TACC). Correction of PacBio data was done using the LSC program (Au *et al.*, 2012) and all ~60 million 100-bp pairedend Illumina reads on the Lonestar Linux Cluster at TACC.

For all data types, contigs were assembled and edited in Geneious 7.0.4 (www.biomatters.com) and annotated in DOGMA (Wyman *et al.*, 2004). Whole genome alignments were created using MAUVE v.2.3.1 (Darling *et al.*, 2010) as implemented in Geneious 7.0.4 under default settings.

Prediction of tRNA genes

Genes encoding tRNAs were predicted in DOGMA under default settings. For two tRNA genes found to be missing from some species, *trnG-GCC* and *trnV-GAC*, tRNAscan-SE (Schattner *et al.*, 2005) was used under 'cove-only' and 'organellar' parameters to verify the absence of these genes.

Rates analyses

For the 19-gene dataset, genes were extracted from DOGMA and inspected in Geneious. Genes were aligned in MAFFT (Katoh *et al.*, 2009) as implemented in Geneious, and a concatenated alignment of all 19 genes (26 985 bp; Supplementary Data Table S2) was used to generate a constraint tree in Garli (Zwickl, 2008) under default settings as implemented in

Geneious. For rates analyses, codon alignments were generated using MAFFT and the translation align function in Geneious.

Using the constraint tree (Fig. 1), plastid genes were analysed with codon-based models to quantify the rates of synonymous (d*S*) and non-synonymous (d*N*) substitution. Analyses were conducted in PAML 4.7 (Yang, 2007) using custom Python scripts on the Lonestar Linux Cluster at TACC. The F3 × 4 model was used to calculate codon frequencies, and the free-ratio model was used to compute dN/dS values. Transition/transversion and dN/dS ratios were estimated with the initial values of 2 and 0.4, respectively, consistent with other studies examining evolutionary rate heterogeneity in angiosperm organellar genomes (Sloan *et al.*, 2009; Weng *et al.*, 2012).

Likelihood ratio tests (LRTs) were conducted in HyPhy v.2.1.1 Beta for Mac (Kosakovsky Pond and Muse, 2005) to detect whether the branch leading to the clade that includes *E. absinthoides*, *E. chrysanthum*, *E. gruinum* and *E. guicciardii* (i.e. LBC) was significantly different from the other branches. The LRTs were conducted between two models, the null model with globally constrained dS shared by all branches and the alternative model with the branch leading to the LBC free from this constraint. The same setting was applied to the LRTs for dN. Because the constraint tree used for estimating rates has 34 branches, the *P*-value was multiplied by a Bonferroni correction factor of 34 to account for multiple comparisons.

Repeat analyses and genomic rearrangement estimates

Repetitive DNA was identified by BLAST search of each genome against itself using blastn under default parameters and an e-value of $1e^{-10}$. One copy of the IR was removed from genomes with an IR (C. macrophylla and three Erodium species). The number of genomic rearrangements was determined by enumeration of rearranged co-linear blocks of genes in MAUVE alignments of each genome against the unrearranged Type 2 genome of E. carvifolium. For highly rearranged genomes and those containing a novel IR the most conservative estimate possible was used. Thus for E. guttatum it was assumed that the one inversion separating it from E. texanum had occurred in E. texanum such that E. texanum had an estimated 14 gene order changes and E. guttatum an estimated 13 gene order changes. For the three Type 4 genomes with novel IRs, the IR was not counted as a genomic rearrangement. For repeat content and genomic rearrangements a Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was computed using the 'Hmisc' library in the R statistical package.

Verification of IR boundaries

Presence of the IR was verified independently for each genome. For *E. gruinum*, four sets of primers were designed to span the putative LSC/IR and SSC/IR junctions. Primer sequences are given in Supplementary Data Table S3. Sanger sequencing of PCR products was performed on an ABI 3730 platform at the core facility of the Institute of Cellular and Molecular Biology at The University of Texas at Austin. For *E. absinthoides* and *E. chrysanthum*, long, corrected PacBio reads >5kb spanning the IR/single-copy region boundaries were used to verify the assemblies.



Fig. 1. Phylogram depicting relationships among selected *Erodium* species. The maximum likelihood tree (score 70914-4940 lnL) was generated from a concatenated alignment of sequences of 19 protein-coding genes (26 985 bp) for 18 *Erodium* species and the outgroup *California macrophylla* and represents the constraint topology for rates analyses. The two major clades (*sensu* Fiz *et al.*, 2006) within the genus are labelled along with the long branch clade (LBC) and the four types of plastome characterized. The branch leading to LBC has been interrupted for concision. The number of inversions relative to *California* is given in parentheses after each species. Numerals at the nodes indicate divergence time estimates (Fiz *et al.*, 2008). The two hatched and two solid symbols (+/-) indicating IR status represent paired events that are alternatives of each other as discussed in the text. Gene and intron losses are indicated on the relevant branches. The scale bar indicates the number of substitutions per site.

Divergence time estimates

Divergence time estimates were derived from a previous study of Geraniaceae (Fiz *et al.*, 2008).

RESULTS

The dataset contained 17 completed plastomes representing the major clades in *Erodium* and outgroup *California macrophylla*

(Supplementary Data Fig. S1, Table S1). *Erodium* plastomes fell into four types (hereafter Types 1–4) that differ in their short dispersed repeat (SDR) content and degree of genomic rearrangement (Fig. 2), gene and intron content, GC content (Fig. 1, Table 1), and substitution rates. The four plastome types corresponded to their respective clades in the phylogram (Fig. 1). Among the four (Table 1), Type 1 plastomes have the highest repeat content and 13–14 gene order changes. Type 3 species were sister to Type 1 in the phylogram, although these



FIG. 2. Genomic rearrangement correlates with repetitive DNA content in *Erodium* plastomes. Repetitive DNA was identified by BLAST search of each genome against itself using blastn under default parameters and an e-value of $1e^{-10}$. One copy of the IR was removed from genomes with an IR (*C. macrophylla* and three *Erodium* species). The number of genomic rearrangements was determined by counting rearranged co-linear blocks of genes in MAUVE alignments of each genome against the unrearranged Type 2 genome of *E. carvifolium*. Coloured points represent Type 1 (pink), Type 2 (black), Type 3 (blue) and Type 4 (green) plastomes.

plastomes have much reduced repeat content and many fewer gene order changes. Type 4 plastomes represent the LBC, contain IRs, many gene order changes and lowest gene content among all types. Finally, Type 2 plastomes are characterized by the fewest gene order changes and the lowest repeat content.

Gene and intron loss

Erodium plastomes lack several canonical tRNA genes, protein-coding genes and introns. Some of these losses show homoplasy (e.g. CLPP intron 1) or show no discernible pattern. For example, it was unclear whether all Type 2 genomes encode TRNK-UUU, as the first exon was not detected in E. moschatum; however, this gene is divergent in all four genome types with no clear pattern to the loss or divergence of this gene. Overall the pattern of gene and intron loss in Erodium parallels that of genomic rearrangement, with Clade I showing greater variation than Clade II and the greatest number of losses in the LBC (Fig. 1). The uncertain status of ribosomal protein gene RPL23 in the LBC could be resolved by RNA editing. We identified three CAA codons upstream of RPL23 or in the 5' end of the first exon that could undergo C-to-U editing to produce TAA stop codons. If the CAA codon downstream of RPL23 is edited to serve as its stop codon, the resulting reading frame would be approx. 339 bp, plausible considering the 288bp RPL23 gene found in other Clade I species.

Increased GC, elevated substitution rates in Type 4 plastomes

While GC content in Types 1–3 was within the expected range for vascular plants (36–40 %; Ruhlman and Jansen, 2014), the *Erodium* Type 4 (LBC) plastomes were the highest among all sampled from across angiosperms, as high as 43 %

GC (Table 1). When calculated for the set of 19 protein-coding genes used in the evolutionary rates analysis (below), GC content remained elevated (44.0–44.1 %, Table 1). The 19-gene dataset (Supplementary Data Table S2) did not include NDH sequences, suggesting the elevation of GC content in LBC species is unrelated to the status of these GC-poor plastid genes.

The GC content of the three complete Type 4 plastomes (plus an estimate based on a concatenation of non-redundant contigs from a fourth species, *E. guiccardii*) was compared with that of 472 plastomes representing the major lineages of Viridiplantae. Only four taxa, a lycophyte and three algae, had GC content equal to or higher than the Type 4 species (Supplementary Data Table S4). A *t*-test determined whether the GC content of Type 4 plastomes was significantly different from the other 472 Viridiplantae. As the variances of the two groups were unequal, a two-sample test assuming unequal variances was conducted, and the difference between the mean GC content of the two groups was statistically significant ($P = 5.634e^{-166}$).

The clade comprising Type 4 plastomes has been called the LBC because the branch leading to this lineage was distinctly long in phylogenetic reconstructions based on nucleotide sequence data (Blazier *et al.*, 2011). We conducted a more rigorous analysis of evolutionary rates in the expanded *Erodium* dataset to test whether the branch leading to the LBC has a significantly higher nucleotide substitution rate considering codon positions. The dataset contained 19 genes (Supplementary Data Table S2), with two representatives of each functional class, all four *RPO* genes, and *MATK*, *CLPP* and *RBCL*. The branch leading to the LBC showed significant acceleration (P < 0.05) in the rate of synonymous substitutions (dN) for 14 of the 19 genes (Supplementary Data Table S2). Of the five genes for which dN was not significantly different, two were significant before a

Clade I	Typ	e 1	Ty	pe 3		Type 4 (LF	SC)			
	E. texanum	E. guttatum	E. jahandiezianum	E. crassifolium	E. gruinum	E. absinthoides	E. chrysanthum	E. guicciardii		
Size (bp)	130 812	128 510	121 692	121 393	142 208	162 618	168 946	genes only		
Protein-coding genes	75	75	75	75	64	64	49	, 64		
tRNA genes	28	28	28	28	28	28	28	28		
Introns	14	14	14	14	11	11	11	11		
GC content (%)	39.5	39.4	39.1	39.1	43.0	42.9	42.9	42.3		
GC (%) 19-gene dataset	41.9	41.8	41.7	41.6	44.1	44.0	44.1	44.0		
SDR (%)	23.09	17.61	2.61	3.244	4.56	8.55	16.24	unknown		
Estimated gene order changes ^{\dagger}	14	13	5	5	10	13	20	unknown		
IR size (bp)	du	du	du	du	25 508	45 490	47 428	unknown		
Clade II Type 2	E. carvifolium	E. cossonii	E. cygnorum	E. foetidum ssp. cheil.	E. foetidum ssp. foet.	E. manescavi	$E.\ moschatum$	E. reichardii	E. rupestre	E. trifolium
Size (bp)	116 935	121 465	121 905	116 340	115 794	116 810	119 078	117 753	116 810	123 865
Protein-coding genes	75	75	75	75	75	75	75	75	75	75
tRNAs	28	28	28	28	28	28	28	28	28	28
Introns	18	17	18	18	18	18	17	17	18	18
GC content (%)	39.0	39.2	39.2	38.9	38.9	39.1	39.1	39.2	38.9	39.3
GC (%) 19-gene dataset	41.9	41.8	41.8	41.8	41.8	41.9	41.8	41.8	41.8	41.9
SDR (%)	2.85	3.54	8.48	1.53	1.48	0.98	2.20	1.68	2.55	6.08
Estimated gene order changes [†]	0	1*	2	0	0	0	0	1*	0	7
IR size (bp)	du	du	du	du	du	du	du	du	du	du

TABLE 1. Plastid genome statistics for 18 Erodium species

*Same inversion. [†]Gene order changes were calculated relative to *C. macrophylla*. SDR, short dispersed repeats; np, not present.

conservative (Bonferroni) correction for multiple comparisons. The other three genes, *PETB*, *PSBC* and *RBCL*, have a very low rate of non-synonymous substitution such that many branches in the analysis had dN values of zero or close to zero, which may have confounded the likelihood ratio test (Supplementary Data Table S2). The concatenated dataset with 19 genes showed that the branch leading to the LBC was significantly higher in both dS and dN. This branch experienced rate acceleration with respect to dS for all genes, and dN for all but the slowest evolving genes.

Inverted repeat loss in Erodium plastomes

Loss of the IR was previously documented in two Erodium species: E. texanum (Clade I, Type 1; Guisinger et al., 2011) and E. carvifolium (Clade II, Type 2; Weng et al., 2014). Additional Erodium plastomes were compared to establish if a single loss of the IR had occurred in the genus. Among Clade I species, Type 1 and Type 3 plastomes, represented by E. texanum and E. guttatum, and E. crassifolium and E. jahandiezianum, respectively, were lacking the large repeat. Genomic features including a pseudogene of ndhA (exon 1) and a full copy of TRNI-CAU in Types 1 and 3 were detected in the alignment (Fig. 3). These genes are located at distal ends within the IR of the inferred ancestral genome for all Geraniaceae genera (Fig. 3; Weng et al., 2014). In the Type 2 genomes only small fragments of ndhA and trnI-CAU were detectable (Fig. 3). The upstream (PSBA, TRNH-GUG) and downstream (TRNL-UAG, CCSA) sequences represent single copy genes situated outside the ancestral IRa region, supporting the loss of the same IR copy in all cases.

Nucleotide identities within and between clades were calculated from the alignment in Fig. 3. *Erodium cygnorum* and *E. carvifolium* were selected to represent Type 2 plastomes for this analysis. The region comprising the *trnI-CAU* pseudogene through the beginning of *TRNL-UAG* was compared and values are reported in Fig. 3.

Identification of a novel IR in Type 4 plastomes

Assembly of those plastomes classified as Type 4 revealed the presence of a large inverted repeat (~ 25.5 to ~ 47.5 kb) that includes all four genes encoding the RNAs of the plastid ribosome. Depending on the species, the large repeat comprised a number of other genes, among them both canonical IR sequences as well as others encoded in the LSC and SSC regions in the ancestor of Geraniaceae as inferred by Weng *et al.* (2014; Fig. 4). Assembled contigs from the draft plastome of *E. guiccardii* included the IR boundaries, one of which is shown in alignment with extractions from the completed LBC plastomes (Supplementary Data Fig. S2) suggesting the presence of the novel IR in a fourth species of *Erodium*.

The presence of the IR was validated independently for the completed assemblies. For *E. gruinum*, four sets of primers (Supplementary Data Table S3) were designed to span the putative LSC/IR and SSC/IR junctions. Amplified products were Sanger sequenced and verified the predicted junctions. For *E. absinthoides* and *E. chrysanthum*, genomic DNA was submitted for PacBio sequencing. Corrected PacBio reads >5 kb

spanning all the assembled IR/single-copy region boundaries confirmed the assemblies for E. *absinthoides* and E. *chrysanthum*.

DISCUSSION

With more available sequences for comparative genomics comes the opportunity to explore variable evolutionary trajectories across taxa. Despite a high degree of overall conservation in structure and content, plastomes in a few unrelated lineages have evolved in unique ways. The molecular signatures of divergence and convergence on genome architecture may reveal common factors that have shaped the contemporary genomic landscape. We have demonstrated that in *Erodium*, as in the family, studies of plastome evolution are best conducted at the species level.

Elevated GC content and rate acceleration in Type 4 plastomes

Geraniaceae plastomes display elevated GC content (Guisinger *et al.*, 2011), but in LBC taxa it is elevated even further. In fact, LBC *Erodium* species have the highest GC content of any angiosperm plastome examined, and are surpassed by a single lycophyte and a few algal taxa (Supplementary Data Table S4). The genome-wide acceleration in both dN and dS, together with the increase in GC content seen in the four LBC species, suggests that an aberration in mutation rate and/or DNA repair may be responsible for this long branch as there is no obvious difference in habit or life history that would explain the elevated GC content, acceleration in rates of nucleotide substitution, gene and intron loss, or genomic rearrangement in this clade.

On the differential evolution of the IR in Erodium

In an effort to illuminate the IR loss thought to have occurred in the lineage leading to *Erodium*, we were surprised to identify a large IR containing the entire plastid ribosomal operon in the three completed plastomes from the LBC. The repeats range in size from ~25 to ~47 kb in length and largely contribute to size variation between plastomes in this group. Especially evident in the larger plastomes of *E. absinthioides* and *E. chrysanthum*, the so-called LSC and SSC regions are of very similar size due to the incorporation of non-canonical IR genes into the repeats in these species (Fig. 4).

With this finding we must consider whether the IR loss in *Erodium* occurred independently in two lineages or once on the branch leading to the genus, with subsequent reappearance of the IR in the LBC. The data presented in Fig. 3 clearly demonstrate that IRa was lost in Types 1–3. Furthermore the remaining sequences adjacent to the loss site indicate that, were there two losses, the SSC was in the same orientation at the time of loss in each case. Either scenario could be considered equally likely according to Occam's razor, under which the most plausible path is the one that requires the least number of assumptions. Either path would require two steps: one loss and one gain or, alternatively, two losses. IR loss presents a special case, however, as this structural change may not adhere to weighting criteria used in parsimony analyses as applied to







individual genes. If no fitness advantage (or disadvantage) were conferred by retention of the canonical quadripartite structure of the plastome then loss or gain would be equally likely to occur. While all of the genes in IRs are present in duplicate, one copy may be sufficient to support overall function of the plastid. Nonetheless, given the rarity of IR loss, it seems unlikely that this structure is neutral with regard to fitness, although the lineages where the IR has been lost do not display impaired phenotypes.

If the state of the IR was indeed neutral, then loss or retention should be stochastic. Under this assumption, the likelihood of two independent losses where the same IR copy was lost with the SSC in the same orientation would be 25 %. Among land plants. IR loss has been documented five times. Among those instances only Pinaceae has lost IRb (Wu et al., 2011). The cupressophytes (Wu et al., 2011), IRLC (Wojciechowski et al., 2004), Carnegiea gigantea (saguaro; Sanderson et al., 2015) and Erodium species have all retained IRb. This observation suggests IRa may be more dispensible than IRb, perhaps related to preservation of transcriptional units (i.e. the *RPL23* operon). In Erodium and IRLC species the 5' end of the operon, including RPL23 and RPL2, is situated within IRb. The losses in Pinaceae and cupressophytes may indeed be random as these lineages have retained different copies of the IR. It is worth noting that the leading genes of the RPL23 operon are not duplicated in the IR where present among gymnosperms (Wu et al., 2011).

Comparison of the region containing the former IR-SSC and IR-LSC boundaries (CCSA/TRNL-UAG and TRNH-GUG/ PSBA, respectively) in plastome Types 1, 2 and 3 could be offered as support for a single loss of the IR in Erodium, with greater reduction of the resulting intergenic region in Type 2. Types 1, 2 and 3 each contain pseudogenes of *ndhA* and *trnI*, although these sequences are greatly reduced in Type 2 genomes, where a region of 8 bp for ndhA and two adjacent regions of 7 and 5 bp for trnI remain (Fig. 3). However, the argument could also be made that the retention pattern in this region suggests two losses as Types 1 and 3 show much greater similarity to each other (72.7 % pairwise nucleotide identity) than to Type 2 (35.2 and 33.9 %, respectively). In an alignment of the analogous region extracted from IRLC plastomes, congeners were 91.1 % identical, which dropped to 70.0 % when more distant relatives were considered. The IRLC loss is widely accepted to have resulted from a single event at the base of the clade (Wojciechowski et al., 2004) and comparisons across different genera robustly support a single IR loss over more than 25 million years (Wojciechowski, 2003)

Loss of the IR has not destabilized the plastome in *Erodium*, nor has IR presence in the LBC stabilized those genomes. Although they share the loss of the IR, Clade II contains species with few if any unique genomic rearrangements whereas the three types of Clade I plastomes all show considerable rearrangement. Furthermore, the most highly rearranged plastomes have retained the IR [e.g. *Pelargonium*, *Geranium*, *Trachelium* (Campanulaceae), *Jasminum* (Oleaceae), *Vaccinium* and *Arbutus* (Ericaceae), and lobelioids (Campanulaceae)] (Chumley *et al.*, 2006; Lee *et al.*, 2007; Haberle *et al.*, 2008; Fajardo *et al.*, 2013; Martínez-Alberola *et al.*, 2013; Knox, 2014).

Destabilization of bacterial endosymbiont and Erodium plastid genomes

It is possible that the IR plays some role in stabilizing the plastome, but only in genomes with low repeat content. In rearranged plastomes evidence of illegitimate recombination has been detected (Ogihara et al., 2002; Maréchal et al., 2009), which is thought to underlie gene order changes and movement of the IR boundaries. When the repeat content of a plastome is very low, illegitimate recombination should be minimized. Under such conditions, intramolecular recombination could be largely confined to the IRs and genome stability would be maintained. However, once the repeat content of a plastome increases, illegitimate recombination within single copy regions or between regions flanking the IRs become more likely, causing inversions and expansion or contraction of the IR, respectively. Thus, the presence of the IR may be less important to plastome stability than the absence of other large repeats that serve as substrates for rearrangements.

The positive correlation between repeat content and genomic rearrangement (Fig. 2) is comparable with trends in genome evolution in bacterial endosymbionts. Plastid genomes resemble those of bacterial endosymbionts in some respects, which is unsurprising given that plastids descended from ancient bacterial symbionts (Sagan, 1967). The two types of genomes generally share a massive loss of genes, relatively low GC content, low repeat content and little genomic rearrangement. Proteomic constraint has been proposed to explain the paucity of DNA repair genes, and the lack of genomic rearrangement, in bacterial endosymbionts (Garcia-Gonzalez et al., 2013). In short, the larger the proteome the more DNA repair genes a bacterial genome maintains, a correlation that holds in both free-living and intracellular bacteria. The loss of DNA repair genes involved in recombination has been hypothesized to underlie the conservation of gene order among related endosymbionts over great time scales (Garcia-Gonzalez et al., 2013), although recent evidence calls this hypothesis into question (Sloan and Moran, 2013).

A key difference between plastome evolution and that of insect endosymbiont genomes is the role of recombination. As previously noted, the reduction in recombination, along with low repeat content, has been implicated in long-term genome stability in endosymbionts such as Buchnera (Tamas et al., 2002). The plastomes of Erodium and a few other unusual lineages aside, plastomes of flowering plants have remained co-linear with nearly identical gene content for well over 100 million years. However, this co-linearity has not been maintained through lack of recombination; in fact, just the opposite. The majority of angiosperm plastomes have large inverted repeats that recombine to produce distinct isomers differing in the relative orientation of the single-copy regions, and recombination is integral to both replication and repair of plastid DNA (Day and Madesis, 2007). A recent study of closely related *Portiera* whitefly endosymbiont biotypes with high-frequency genomic rearrangement but also lacking genes for recombination challenges the hypothesis that genomic stability in endosymbionts is maintained through elimination of recombination (Sloan and Moran, 2013). In both endosymbiont and plastid genomes, high repeat content may contribute to

genomic instability, suggesting that limiting recombinogenic substrates, rather than eliminating recombination per se, may favour stability. Taken together, the repeat-rich *Portiera* genomes that undergo rearrangement in the absence of recombination genes and the positive correlation between non-IR repeat content and rearrangement in *Erodium* and other plastomes support the notion of repeatmediated genomic instability regardless of the state of recombination genes.

Although the comparison between *Erodium* plastomes and endosymbiont genomes provides the insight that repetitive DNA mediates genomic rearrangement irrespective of the available pathways governing recombination, it raises the obvious question as to the origin of the repeats. How do some genomes accumulate a high proportion of repetitive DNA while others do not remains an open question. Illegitimate recombination between repeats has been implicated in many plastome rearrangements. However, it is increasingly likely that illegitimate recombination is a proximate cause, and the mechanism generating the repeats is the ultimate cause of genome rearrangement.

SUPPLEMENTARY DATA

Supplementary data are available online at www.aob.oxfordjour nals.org and consist of the following. Figure S1: a maximum-likelihood tree for *Erodium* based on the *trnL-F* spacer for 72 species, adapted from Fiz *et al.* (2006) and Blazier *et al.* (2011). Figure S2: nucleotide alignments of IR/SSC boundary in the 5' end of *ATPB* in four LBC species. Table S1: taxon sampling and accession numbers. Table S2: nineteen-gene data set used in evolutionary analyses. Table S3: PCR primers used to confirm IR boundaries in *E. gruinum*. Table S4: viridiplantae plastomes with GC content > 42 %.

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