Supplementary Figures and Tables

Supplementary Figure 1. Frequency of DTT_Mariner and DTH_Harbinger transposons relative to genes in O. sativa. Transposons in the up- and downstream regions of 21,444 genes were annotated and the cumulative occurrence plotted relative genes (e.g. the highest peak indicates that over 1,300 genes have a DNA transposon upstream of the transcription start point). The gene is shown in the center with 5,000 bp of up- and downstream region. Here, only genes longer than 2 kb were used. Thus, the center of the plot depicts the transposon frequencies of the 5' and 3' terminal 1,000 bp inside the genes.

Following page:

Supplementary Figure 2. Test for orthology for the loci containing putative transposon excisions. For this study, we manually identified 158 loci from rice chromosomes 1, 2 and 3 containing putative excisions of DNA transposons in either *O. sativa* or *O. glaberrima*. The Figure shows the positions of the compared loci on the O. sativa (Os) and O. glaberrima (Og) chromosomes. Putative orthologous loci are connected with blue lines. Loci are named after the gene closest to the polymorphic transposon. Since we aligned up to 24 kb of the putative orthologous loci, segments of 1 kb were used to map the genomic sequences back to the genomes (see methods). Each locus was assigned a score describing the percentage of 1 kb segments that mapped to its putative ortholog counterpart in the other species (orthology mapping score). The score is indicated as a small vertical box in the O. sativa chromosome. Obviously, some pf the 1 kb segments may map elsewhere in the genome because they are comprised of polymorphic TEs or repetitive sequences that can not be mapped unambiguously. However, most loci have very high scores, indicating that most parts of the 24 kb sequences of one species map unambiguously to the putative orthologous locus in the other species. Furthermore, all expect 2 loci are located in perfect colinear order along the chromosomes (see also methods).

Supplementary Figure 3. Insertion and aging of transposable elements. (**a**) Model for the molecular mechanism of a typical TE insertion. Step 1: The TE inserts into the genome by producing a staggered cut, resulting in a TE that is ligated to the genomic DNA via single-stranded segments. Step 2. The single-stranded segments are filled by DNA polymerases. Step 3. The final outcome is the newly inserted TE that is flanked by a target site duplication (TSD). (**b**) Principle of how to estimate the age of a retrotransposon. Since TSD and LTRs are repeated sequences that were produced at the time of insertion, the number of differences accumulated are proportional to the age of the element. For plants, usually a mutation rate of 1.3×10^{-8} substitutions per site per year is used. However, if TSDs are produced by an error-prone polymerase complex, they tend to differ more strongly from each other than LTRs.

Supplementary Figure 4. Distribution of sequence identities of coding sequences (CDS) of closest homologs from O. sativa and O. glaberrima.

Supplementary Figure 5. Comparison of CDS of 312 genes from O. sativa and O. glaberrima. Here, only genes that are >99.5% identical (i.e. the overall level of sequence identity of the two genomes) were considered. The high conservation of these genes indicates that they were not affected by nearby errorprone DSB repair. They also do not show significantly lower sequence conservation in the center part of the gene.

Supplementary Figure 6. Graphical representation of alignments of O. sativa and O. glaberrima genes plus 3 kb of their flanking regions (using start and end points of the predicted CDS as reference points). These were used for the identification of candidate regions that may contain TE excisions based on the number of sequence polymorphisms between O. sativa and O. glaberrima. Alignments of genes plus 3kb of their flanking sequences were analysed. The sequences of O. sativa were used as reference for the graphical display. Sequence annotation is shown at the top with exons of genes indicated as gray boxes. TE excisions are shown in red and TE insertions in blue. Inserted or excised TEs in O. glaberrima are depicted above the maps with lined pointing to the corresponding site in O. sativa. SNPs between O. sativa and O. glaberrima are indicated as red lines underneath the annotation. Underneath that track, SNP density is also visualized as a heat map in 25 bp windows. The gray bars at the bottom indicate the regions that could be aligned between O. sativa and O. glaberrima. (**a**-**c**) Examples for regions that where selected because they contain local SNP accumulations. (**d**) and (**e**) Examples for segments which served as controls and which have an overall low SNP density, similar to that of the genome-wide average.

Supplementary Figure 7. Nucleotide substitution frequencies in synonymous sites of genes. To normalize the different CDS sizes, genes were divided into 5 equally sized bins and frequencies were normalized to nucleotide substitutions per kb for each bin. The bold line inside the box is the median value, while mean values are indicated with numbers. (**a**) Comparison of 636 pairs of closest homologs from A. thaliana and B. rapa. (**b**) Comparison of 1,799 pairs of closest homologs from soybean (G. max) and poplar (P. trichocarpa). (**c**) Nucleotide substitution frequencies in synonymous sites of of 1,395 pairs of intra-genomic closest homologs in B. napus that originate from a whole genome duplication.

Supplementary Figure 8. Copy number estimates for candidate DNA transposons identified in de novo searches in the genomes of poplar (P. trichocarpa) and rice (O. sativa). As a proxy for copy numbers, each identified transposon candidates was used as a query in a blast search against its respective genome. All blast hits that were longer than 80 bp and >80% identical were considered. The x-axis shows the number of blast hits in a logarithmic scale while the y-axis shows the number of transposon candidates in each copy number range. Note that the *de novo* search in rice yielded many more elements which have on average much higher copy numbers than those in poplar.

Supplementary Figure 9. Comparative analysis of methylation data in loci containing polymorphic transposons. Numbers of methylation sites were compared in orthologous loci with and without transposons in O. sativa and O. glaberrima. For each locus, the ratio of the numbers of methylated sites was calculated. The figure shows the distribution of the Log10 of these ratios. To study the effect of transposon insertions and excisions, data from 4 kb segments spanning the transposon (blue) site were compared with data from segments covering the sequence 2,000-4,000 bp away from the transposon (red). (**a**) Datasets for transposon excisions. (**b**) Datasets for transposon insertions. Note that in both datasets the ratio of numbers for sequence with transposon/sequence without transposon are shifted towards higher values, indicating that sequence segments containing transposons tend to have more methylated sites.

Supplementary Table 1. Positions of DNA (Class 2) transposon excisions in the two rice species O. sativa and O. glaberrima. Chromsomal positions are given for O. sativa genome version6 and O. glaberrima genome version 1. OsChr: O. sativa chromosome. OsPos: base pair position on O. sativa chromsome. OgChr: O. glaberrima chromosome. OgPos: base pair position on O. glaberrima chromsome.

Supplementary Table 2. Positions of DNA (Class 2) transposon insertions in the two rice species O. sativa and O. glaberrima. Chromsomal positions are given for O. sativa genome version6 and O. glaberrima genome version 1. OsChr: O. sativa chromosome. OsPos: base pair position on O. sativa chromsome. OgChr: O. glaberrima chromosome. OgPos: base pair position on O. glaberrima chromsome.

Supplementary Table 3. Substitution rates in target site duplications of long terminal repeat (LTR) retrotransposons compared to substitution rates in LTRs.

aNumber of full-length elements with intact ends that were flanked by a target site duplication (TSD)

bTotal number of bases aligned between LTRs

^cNumber of mismatches in aligned LTR (bases for calculation of expected mismatches in TSDs.

dTotal length in bp of aligned TSDs.

^eNumber observed of mismatches in aligned TSDs

^fNumber of mismatches expected in TSD based on substitution rates in LTRs

Supplementary Table 4. Wilcoxon rank sum test on comparisons of nucleotide substitutions within rice, barley, wheat, maize and Arabidopsis genes. To normalize for the different sizes of the genes, each gene was divided into 5 equally sized bins and nucleotide substitution frequencies were normalized to substitutions/kb for each bin. Given are the P-values for comparisons of data from all gene bins with all others. P-values smaller than 0.001 were considered significant (marked with *).

^aComparison of 442 bi-directional closest homologs from O. sativa and O. glaberrima.

 b Comparison of 2,314 bi-directional closest homologs from barley (H. vulgare) and wheat (T. aestivum)

^cComparison of 428 bi-directional closest homeologs within the maize genome that originated from a wholegenome duplication (WGD).

 d Comparison of 4,133 bi-directional closest homologs from A. thaliana and A. lyrata.

^eComparison of 1,395 bi-directional closest homeologs within the Brassica napus genome that originated from a WGD.

 $^{\circ}$ Comparison of 536 bi-directional closest homologs from A. thaliana and B. rapa (the A genome of B. napus)

⁹Comparison of 1,799 bi-directional closest homologs from Glycine max and Populus trichocarpa.

Supplementary Table 5. Datasets of coding regions (CDS) used for comparative Analyses.

Supplementary Notes

Contents

1. Transposable elements and their contribution to evolution

- **2. Background on grass comparative genomics**
- **3. Methodological considerations on distinguishing transposon excisions from insertions**
- **4. Test for orthology of compared sequence segments**
- **5. Brassicaceae do not show increased mutation rates in termini of genes**
- **6. Comparative analysis of methylation states in polymorphic transposon loci**
- **7. Evaluation of evidence for transposons as the cause for increased mutation rates in genes**

Supplementary Note 1: Transposable elements and their contribution to evolution

DNA transposons can excise from the genome and re-insert elsewhere. When transposons excise, they leave double-strand breaks (DSBs) that have to be repaired by the cell. Depending on the repair pathway, this can lead to deletions and/or insertions of "filler" sequences at the site of the DSB (1-3). In most eukaryotes, non-homologous end joining (NHEJ) is the main pathway for DSB repair. Here, the broken ends are directly ligate. However, other pathways are more complex, and include single-stranded intermediates. Here, the initial step in DSB repair is the generation of 3' overhangs through exonucleases at the site of the break. Depending on the time that elapses before other repair enzymes are recruited, these 3' overhangs can be several kb in size, at least in yeast (4). The 3' overhangs can directly anneal to each other by single-strand annealing (SSA), using a few bp of micro-homology (reviewed by 5,6). This ultimately leads to a deletion of the segment between the annealing motifs. Previous studies showed that such deletions can range from a few bp (1,3) to several kb (2,3). Alternatively, a 3' overhang can invade a foreign DNA strand and use it as an intermediate template for DNA synthesis in a process called synthesis-dependent strand annealing (5-7). This leads to the introduction of a copy of the foreign

template at the DSB site. Repair is completed when the leftover single-stranded DNA segments are used as templates for the synthesis of a new second strand. Sometimes, deletions and filler insertions at the excision site can be so extensive that transposon excisions are very difficult to identify as such, thereby explaining the generally low number of identified excisions (2,3).

How much transposable elements (TEs) contribute to the evolution of genes and species is still unclear. Certainly, there have been cases where TEs contributed to major evolutionary innovations. For example the V(D)J recombination in the vertebrate immune system most likely has its origin in a transposable element (8). Additionally, there have been several studies showing that TEs can generate novel genic sequences, for example through gene retrotransposition or by providing new exons in a process called exonization (9). There are also many studies that described their influence on gene expression (example in 10). Thus, evidence for TE-driven evolutionary innovation is patchy and often anecdotal and the quantitative contribution of TEs to genome evolution is still unknown (9,10).

Supplementary Note 2: Background on grass comparative genomics

Grasses evolved from a common ancestor approximately 70 Myr ago (11). They are part of the major plant group of the monocotyledons which diverged from its "sister" group, the dicotyledons, approximately 145-300 Myr ago (12,13). Grasses provide an excellent dataset for comparative analyses because the genomes of representatives of the major clades Bambusoideae, Ehrhartoideae and Pooideae have been sequenced. This allows comparative analyses between clades, for example between the genomes of rice (14) and maize (15) as well as within clades, for example of wheat (16) and barley (17).

Most DNA transposons described to date in grasses are small non-autonomous derivatives which do not encode any proteins and which depend for their transposition on transposase enzymes that are encoded by a small number of autonomous "mother" elements (18,19). Some of the non-autonomous elements (mostly those of the DTT_Mariner and DTH_Harbinger superfamilies) are referred to as miniature

23

inverted-repeat transposable elements (MITEs, 20,21). Due to their small size they only contribute relatively little to the overall genome size and often seem to be tolerated in or near genes (18,20,21).

Supplementary Note 3: Methodological considerations on distinguishing transposon excisions from insertions

It is surprisingly difficult to identify transposon excision events in a comparative analysis. It was therefore essential to our study that we could distinguish transposon excisions from insertions with high confidence. We defined stringent criteria for an event to be classified as an excision, and preferred to discard unclear events. Previous studies showed that transposons excisions can produce a variety of patterns, including deletions and insertions of filler sequences (1,2,3,22). Since deletions and filler insertions can obscure excisions beyond recognition, or because deletions could by chance remove entire transposons, we required that at least one breakpoint of the deletion of filler insertion be within 3 bp of one end of the transposon (we considered it unlikely that a random deletion would have one of its borders so close to the end of a TE).

Furthermore, it is possible that some events we classified as insertions are in fact excisions that removed the transposon and precisely one copy of the target site. Such events were defined as "precise" excisions by Yang et al. (22). In a comparative analysis such as ours, it is impossible to distinguish precise excisions from insertion events. Interestingly, there are conflicting reports on the frequency of precise excisions. Using a heterologous system expressing the rice mPing element in Arabidposi, Yang et al. (22) reported that 25 of 30 excisions were precise. In contrast, Kikuchi et al. (23), working with the same element in rice anther cultures, found only one out of approximately 70 excision events to be precise. Also our own data suggest that the proportion of precise excisions may be small: we compared transposon polymorphisms which we classified as insertions with insertions of Gypsy retrotransposons (which can not excise). Both show similar increased mutation frequencies in their flanking regions, indicating that insertions also induce mutations in nearby sequences (which is not surprising, since the

24

insertion process also has single-stranded intermediates). Nevertheless, insertions show overall much fewer mutations in their flanking regions than events that were classified as excisions (see Figure 3; Supplementary Figure 3). From this, we conclude that our criteria indeed distinguish different types of events (i.e. excisions and insertions) and that the events we classified as insertions contain only few precise excisions.

Supplementary Note 4: Test for orthology of compared sequence segments

Because we make a major claim about the role of TEs in evolution, it is important that concerns over potential weaknesses are addressed in detail. Thus, critical factors in our methods as well as in the interpretation of the results are discussed in the following. A crucial part of our case was to make sure that indeed orthologous loci were compared. Otherwise one could argue that putative excision sites that contain many polymorphisms are simply distant paralogs of which one never actually contained a transposon. Independent mapping of the analyzed sequences back onto the genomes showed that the analyzed loci all have exactly one homolog in each of the species, with almost all putative orthologs being located in colinear positions along chromosomes (Supplementary Fig 2). Theoretically, there is also the possibility that we compare deep paralogs, where a duplicated locus was present in the rice ancestor and subsequently, one copy was deleted in one species while the second copy was deleted in the other. This is a well-known problem in multi-copy gene families (example in 24). But sequence homology of such deep paralogs usually does not extend much past the sequences of the affected genes, while we aligned segments of up to 24 kb in size. We are thus confident that the vast majority of the sequences analyzed indeed represent orthologous loci.

Supplementary Note 5: Brassicaceae do not show increased mutation rates in termini of genes

To study whether the impact of DNA transposons is a general phenomenon in plants, we compared

25

closest gene homologs in representatives of the dicotyledons which diverged from the monocotyledons about 145-300 Myr ago (12,13). We used multiple dicotyledon species, representing major lineages as well as different degrees of evolutionary distance. Brassica rapa, B. napus, Arabidopsis thaliana and A. lyrata were chosen as representatives of the Brassicaceae family. A. thaliana and A. lyrata diverged from each other approximately 10 Myr ago (see methods) while Brassica and Arabidopsis diverged approximately 32 Myr ago. Poplar (Populus trichocarpa) and soybean (Glycine max), which diverged approximately 70 Myr ago, were chosen as representatives of the Fabid clade. Interestingly, in none of the comparisons did we find increased substitution rates in terminal regions of genes (Figure 4D, Supplementary Figure 6, Supplementary Table 5), suggesting that there is no effect of DNA transposons on genes comparable to that found in grasses.

Since we found a strong association of mutation rates in grass genes with DNA transposons activity, we expected that the genomes of dicotyledons contain fewer such elements. Therefore, we performed a de novo search for DNA transposons in the A. thaliana genome (see methods), in order to assess the abundance of these elements. Interestingly, we found only 27 different types of putative transposons, which were present in a total of 330 copies in A. thaliana. Furthermore, many of these elements are only fragments, as we classified only 65 as potentially intact elements. Thus, A. thaliana contains several orders of magnitude fewer DNA transposons than the grass genomes sequenced so far [8,28]. We also performed the de novo search in the P. trichocarpa genome which is with 495 Mbp even larger than the O. sativa genome. Here, we manually examined all 31 candidate transposons that were identified in the first 2 Mbp of linkage group 1. Only two turned out to be DNA transposons that are present at moderately high copy numbers (approximately 450 and 600 copies, respectively). In contrast, the same de novo search in only 500 kb in rice yielded 53 candidates, of which 20 had over 500 copies in the genome (Supplementary Figure 7).

Supplementary Note 6: Comparative analysis of methylation states in polymorphic transposon

To study whether transposon excisions and insertions have an effect on the methylation state of the respective locus, we compared methylation data from O . sativa and O . glaberrima (see methods). Sequence segments of 4 kb spanning the polymorphic transposon in O. sativa and O. glaberrima were extracted from the chromosomes. The sequences were the aligned and positions of methylated bases compared. We we found that practically no methylation sites were conserved between the two species. Thus, overall methylation states were compared by simply counting the numbers of methylated sites in the sequences segments from the two species. The ratio of the number of methylation sites in O. sativa and O. glaberrima was then calculated for each transposon locus. For comparison, a second segment 2,000-4,000 bp downstream of the transposon was extracted. For excisions, we found a weak but significant (Wicoxon test p-value = 3.893e-05) difference in the two distributions (Supplementary Fig. 8). These data suggest that transposon excisions tend to be followed by de-methylation of the locus. For insertions the effect was weaker but still statistically significant (Wicoxon test p-value =0.008, Supplementary Fig. 8b). However, since practically no methylated sites were conserved in the two species and the loci studied, the described quantitative analysis is crude and we do not want to over-

interpret these results.

Supplementary Note 7: Evaluation of evidence for transposons as the cause for increased mutation rates

Obviously, there are other possible causes for DSBs near genes besides transposon excisions, such as toxic chemicals, radiation or template breakage or slippage during replication. Following the repair pathway described in Figure 3, this could also lead to mutations during DSB repair. However, several lines of evidence support our claim that DNA transposons are at least a major factor leading to the elevated mutation rates in CDS and regulatory regions in grasses. First, our data from sequence comparisons show empirically that sequences flanking excisions contain highly elevated numbers of nucleotide substitutions and InDels. Since DNA transposons are strongly enriched in promoter and downstream regions, it follows that these regions will be disproportionately affected. We indeed find that promoters are one average less conserved than randomly picked intergenic sequences. Second, genes from O. sativa and O. glaberrima which have the highest sequence conservation, reflecting the overall genome-wide average, do not show a substitution rate gradient. In contrast, genes that have a below average sequence conservation show the gradient. Third, genomes which contain many DNA transposons (such as grasses) all show the substitution rate gradient in genes, while those of dicotyledons (which contain much fewer DNA transposons) do not.

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