



Supplementary Information for

Ancient whale rhodopsin reconstructs dim-light vision over a major evolutionary transition: Implications for ancestral diving behaviour

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Robustness of ancestral sequence reconstructions

Codon models and posterior probability. We reconstructed the ancestral sequences using the codon-based likelihood models available in the *codeml* program of PAML4.9(1) (Supplementary Table S1, Supplementary Table S2), and a tree topology comprised of representative cetartiodactyl rhodopsin coding sequences (Supplementary Table S3). Though there were no disagreements as to the most probable sites in either ancestor across the codon models, we generally recovered higher site-by-site posterior probabilities for the best-fitting model (Clade Model D with diving class partitions(2)). All the codon models revealed at least 12 sites transitioning between Whippomorpha and Cetacea (Supplementary Fig. S2). This finding was unsurprising given cetacean rhodopsin is known to be affected by d_N/d_S -related heterogeneity(2).

For the ancestral Cetacea rhodopsin, we reconstructed the translated amino acid sequence with marginal posterior probabilities > 0.80 for all sites under the best-fitting model and 96.5% of sites were certain (posterior probability = 1.0). These results were consistent across all the codon models we tested (Supplementary Fig. S2), indicating a highly robust reconstruction. The ancestral Whippomorpha sequence reconstruction was slightly less certain. Under Clade Model D, marginal posterior probabilities were > 0.80 except for one site, V300 (0.583), and only 23.3% of sites were certain. The other codon models we tested showed similar levels of uncertainty for either V300 or I300 (posterior probabilities of 0.50 – 0.75). To determine whether the uncertainty at this site would have an effect on our experimental results, we mutated the residue in the synthesized Whippomorpha coding sequence and functionally compared the two variants. Despite the uncertainty, the identity of this site as I or V had no significant effect on λ_{\max} or retinal release $t_{1/2}$ (Supplementary Fig. S3).

Posterior distribution sampling. Even with a well-fit model, the most probable ancestral sequences using optimality-based models are known to be biased toward more frequent amino acid states in the dataset(3, 4). For example, 10 sequences randomly sampled from the posterior distribution in the reconstruction of the ancestral archosaur rhodopsin sequence showed variation when compared with the most probable sequence(3, 5). On the other hand, sampling ancestral sequences from the posterior distribution can be used to assess potential bias in ancestral protein function(6, 7). For example, in Bickelmann and colleagues(7) reconstruction of the ancestral mammal rhodopsin, a single randomly sampled sequence from the posterior distribution differed from the most probable sequence at 7 sites, yet expression experiments revealed it did not vary significantly in function from the most probable

sequence. For our dataset, we inferred ancestral sequences from weighted random samplings of our best-fitting Clade Model D posterior probability distribution(7, 8). Of 10,000 random samplings, at least 50% matched the most probable sequence for both Cetacea and Whippomorpha, a result that contrasts the archosaur and ancestral mammal rhodopsin case studies. This difference is probably a reflection of the generally high certainty of our reconstructed sequences; in the ancestral mammal sequence, for example, 8 sites were reconstructed with < 0.8 probability(7), whereas only one site in our Whippomorpha sequence (and none in the Cetacea sequence) fell below this standard.

Nucleotide and amino acid models. Though an increasing number of protein evolution studies are making use of ancestral sequence reconstruction (and less frequently ancestral protein resurrection), few provide thorough comparisons across multiple methods, and most preferentially rely on amino acid models(9, 10). The codon models in PAML use a marginal reconstruction process, which assigns the combination of nucleotide states to each node sequence on the tree that maximizes the likelihood of the node sequence by working upward from the terminal sequences(11). This approach is considered more suitable when the goal of the study is to reconstruct specific ancestor sequences in their entirety. Alternatively, joint reconstruction methods assign ancestral character states so as to maximize the global (joint) likelihood of the tree/dataset(12), and are more suitable for mapping the evolution of sites across the whole tree. Joint reconstruction methods are computationally more complex, and so are not yet available for evolutionary models that incorporate rate heterogeneity (*e.g.* gamma-distributed in nucleotide models, variable d_N/d_S in codon models)(1).

Nevertheless, to observe the consistency of our results even when using less suitable reconstruction methods, we ran our dataset through the ASR program implemented on the Datamonkey web server(13), which includes methods for joint reconstruction(12, 14), and marginal reconstruction using nucleotide models(11). We also used two amino acid-based models: marginal reconstruction using *aaml* in PAML (with the JTT and WAG amino acid matrices, applied model frequencies +F, and gamma-distributed among-site rate heterogeneity +G), and the newly available ProtASR(15), which uses a mean-field substitution model and associated PDB file (dark-state bovine rhodopsin in our case, PDB: 1U19(16)) to better account for protein structural constraints. While these methods produced results that were generally consistent with the codon models, the amino acid models disagreed at one site each in Cetacea (195) and Whippomorpha (270), and supported I300 in Whippomorpha (Supplementary Fig. S2). These results implicate the transitioning substitution K195S, but the absence of V300I and G270S.

Nevertheless, the codon models calculated very low posterior probabilities for the nucleotide substitutions underlying these alternative amino acid states (Supplementary Figures S4 – S6). We thus recommend cross-checking results with codon models, even when amino acid methods return sequences with high site-by-site posterior probabilities.

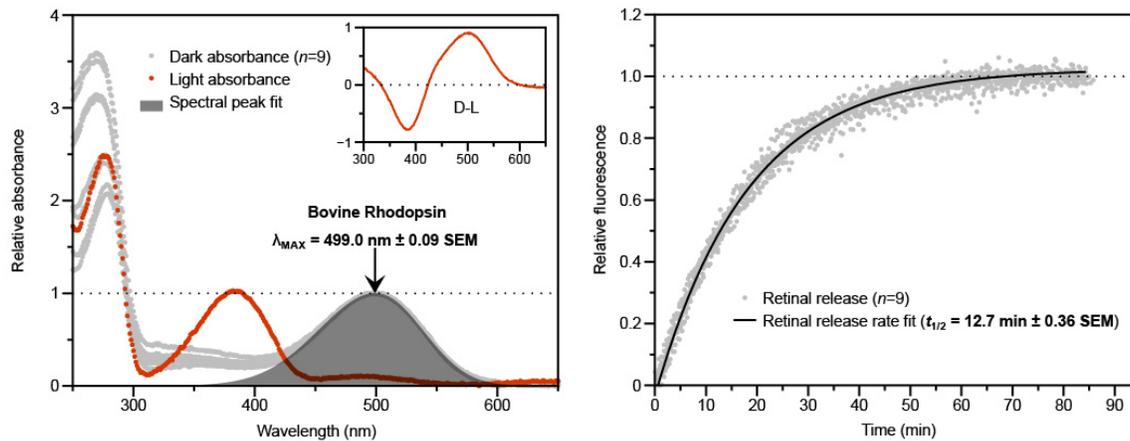


Fig. S1. Functional characteristics of bovine rhodopsin (positive control pigment). The left panel shows dark and light-activated absorption spectra, and the right panel shows light-activation fluorescence time series. The indicated λ_{max} value is the mean (\pm standard error) of estimates calculated for separately eluted samples (where n is the number of elutions per pigment). The light-activated spectral peak is 380 nm, which is characteristic of the light-activated intermediate, and the inset shows the dark-light difference spectrum. The indicated $t_{1/2}$ for retinal release is the mean (\pm standard error) of estimates calculated for separate fluorescence time series (where n is the number of time series).

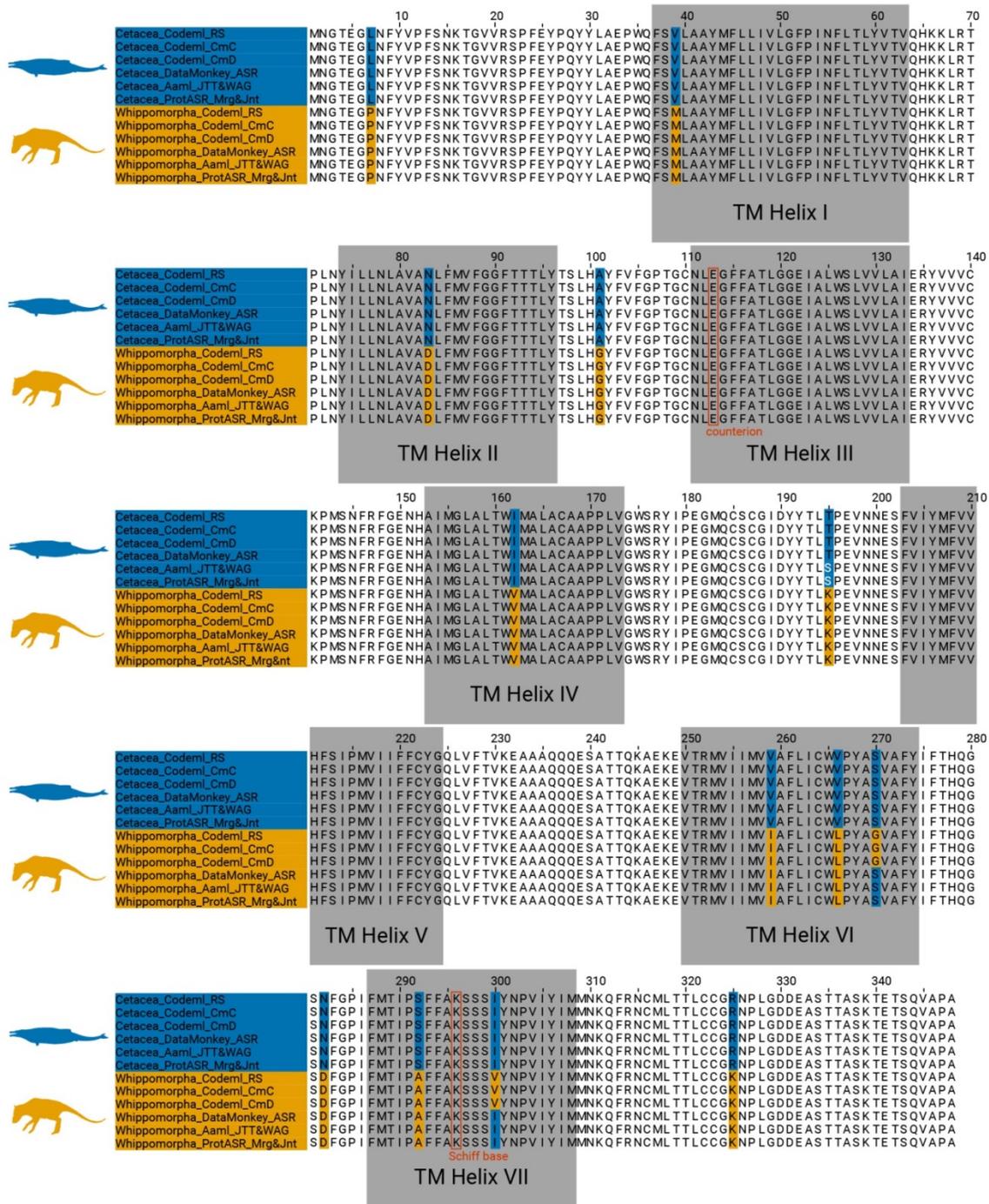


Fig. S2. Alignment of reconstructed ancestral rhodopsin amino acid sequences according to codon models (codeml), nucleotide models (DataMonkey), and amino acid models (aaml and ProtASR). Sites that transition along the branch separating the Cetacea and Whippomorpha nodes are highlighted. All the models returned sequences that were highly consistent with each other, but note the inconsistencies between codon and amino acid models at sites 195, 270, and 300.

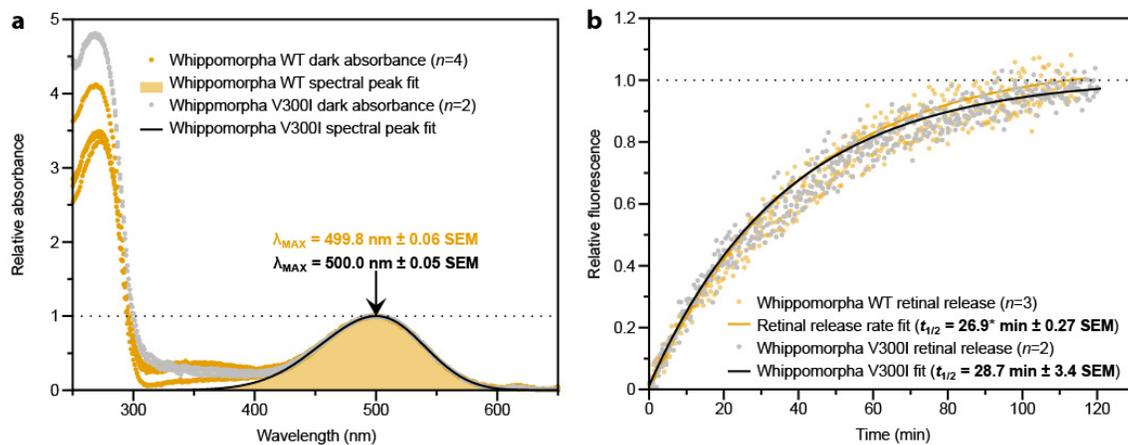


Fig. S3. The effect of uncertain site 300 on Whippomorpha rhodopsin. a, spectral tuning. **b**, retinal release. Mutating between the two most likely residues at this site (V300I) did not significantly affect either λ_{max} ($t = 2.18$, $df = 3.64$, $p = 0.102$; Welch's two-tailed t -test) or $t_{1/2}$ ($t = 0.52$, $df = 1.02$, $p = 0.694$; Welch's two-tailed t -test). *This value excludes an outlier ($t = 0.10$, $df = 1.85$, $p = 0.928$ with the outlier).

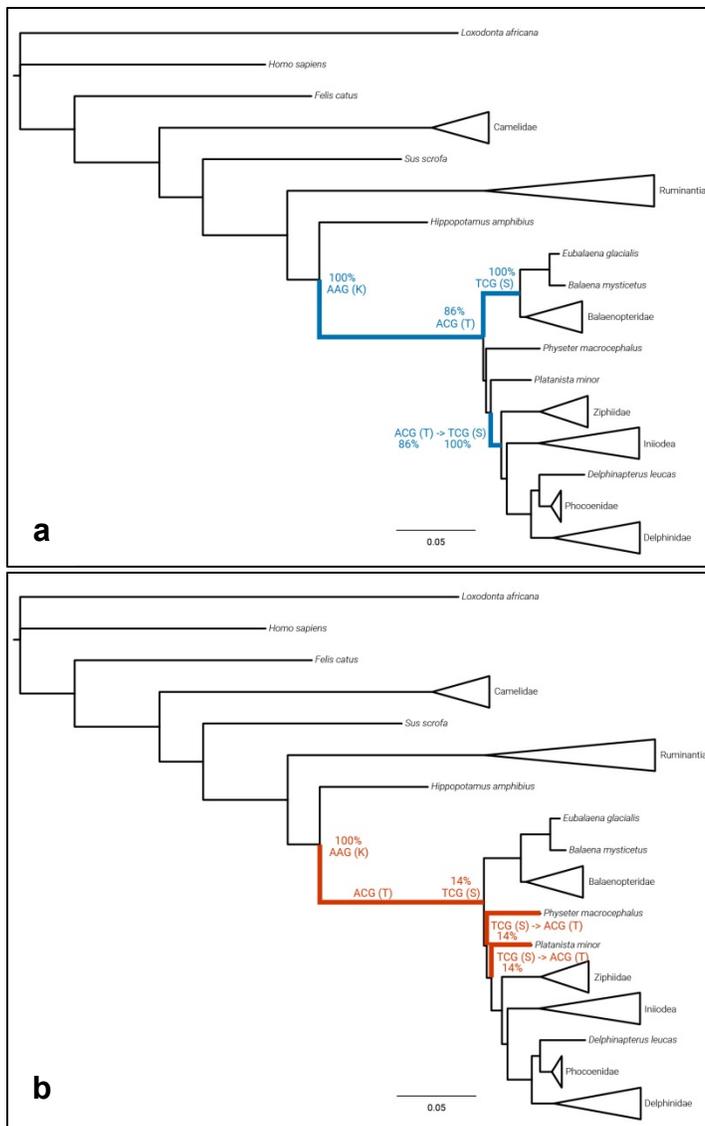


Fig. S4. Contrasting evolutionary scenarios for site 195. a, codon models. b, nucleotide substitutions implied by amino acid models. Despite high posterior probabilities (>0.95) under amino acid models, the nucleotide substitutions that would be required are both less probable and less parsimonious than the substitutions indicated by the codon models.

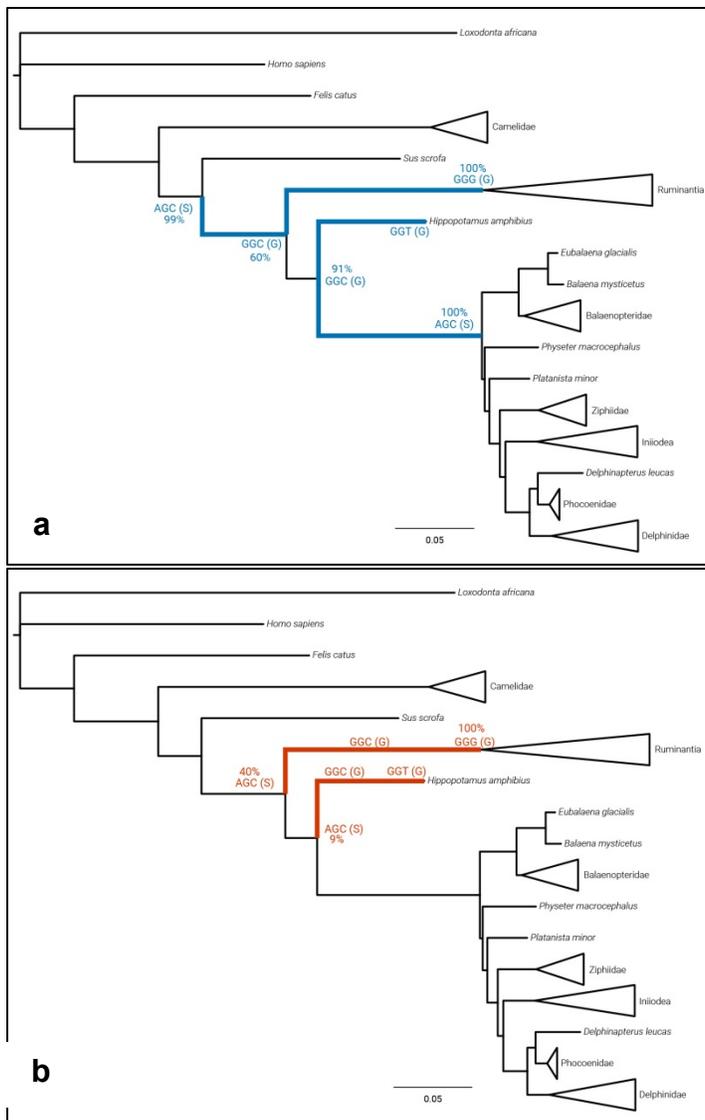


Fig. S5. Contrasting evolutionary scenarios for site 270. a, codon models. b, nucleotide substitutions implied by amino acid models. The scenario implied by the amino acid models suggests highly improbable nucleotide substitutions (e.g. 9% at the Whippomorpha node).

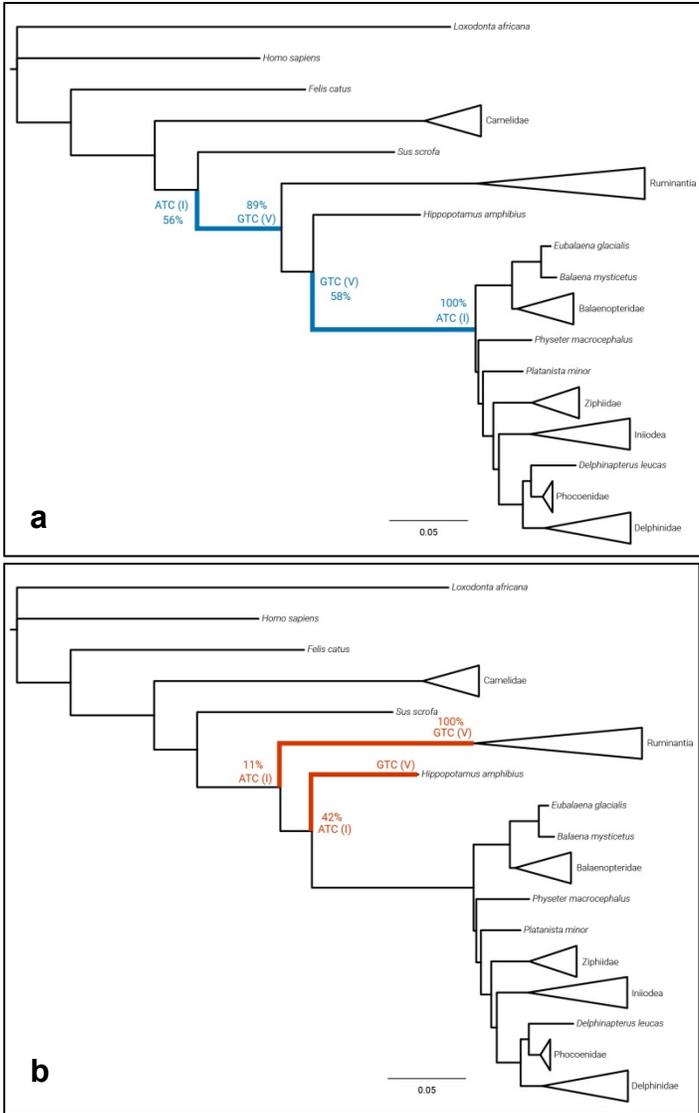


Fig. S6. Contrasting evolutionary scenarios for site 300. a, codon models. b, nucleotide substitutions implied by amino acid models. The scenario implied by the amino acid models suggests highly improbable nucleotide substitutions (e.g. 11% at the Cetruminantia node).

Supplementary Table S1. Likelihood ratio tests for random-sites models (PAML) of the cetacean *Rh1* species tree

Model	np	ln L	κ	Parameters ^a			Null	LRT	df	p	AIC	Δ AIC ^b
				ω_0/p	ω_1/q	ω_2/ω_p						
M0	71	-4884.73	4.42	0.066							9911.46	371.06
M1a	72	-4755.02	4.62	0.026 (90.9%)	1.000 (9.1%)						9654.04	113.64
M2a	74	-4755.02	4.62	0.026 (90.9%)	1.000 (5.3%)	1.000 (3.8%)	M1a	0	2	1.000	9658.04	117.64
M3	75	-4723.42	4.51	0.000 (68.9%)	0.100 (22.0%)	0.575 (9.1%)	M0	322.62	4	<u>0.000</u>	9596.84	56.44
M7	72	-4724.02	4.52	0.099	1.104						9592.04	51.64
M8a	73	-4723.18	4.53	0.109	1.475	1.000 (1.5%)					9592.36	51.96
M8	74	-4722.99	4.54	0.108	1.405	1.295 (1.0 %)	M7	2.06	2	0.357	9593.98	53.58
							M8a	0.38	1	0.538		

Note: np, number of parameters; ln L, ln likelihood; κ , transition/transversion ratio; df, degrees of freedom. ^aFor models M0-M3, the ω values for each site class ($\omega_0 - \omega_2$) are shown. For models M7-M8, p and q describe the shape of the beta distribution, and ω_p refers to the positively selected site class (with proportion in parentheses) for models M8 and M8a (where it is constrained to one). ^b Δ AIC is relative to the best-fitting codon model, Cmd (see Supplementary Table S2).

Supplementary Table S2. Likelihood ratio tests for clade models (PAML) of the cetacean *Rh1* species tree

Model ^a	np	ln L	κ	Parameters ^b			Null	LRT	df	p	AIC	ΔAIC
				ω_0	ω_1	ω_2/ω_d						
M2a_rel	74	-4725.25	4.54	0.007 (82.0%)	1.000 (2.3%)	0.309 (15.8%)					9598.50	58.10
M3	75	-4723.42	4.51	0.000 (68.9%)	0.100 (22.0%)	0.575 (9.1%)					9596.84	56.44
CmC_Null	75	-4700.53	4.57	0.009 (82.0%)	1.000 (1.2%)	B: 0.175 (15.7%) Meso: 0.751 Non-Meso: 1.000					9551.06	10.66
CmC	76	-4700.30	4.57	0.010 (83.8%)	1.000 (1.4%)	B: 0.173 (14.8%) Meso: 0.790 Non-Meso: 1.189	M2a_rel	49.90	2	<u>0.000</u>	9552.60	12.20
CmD_Null	76	-4695.89	4.56	0.009 (83.5%)	0.500 (4.1%)	B: 0.136 (12.4%) Meso: 0.953 Non-Meso: 1.000					9543.78	3.38
CmD	77	-4693.20	4.58	0.012 (84.7%)	0.500 (5.4%)	B: 0.130 (9.9%) Meso: 1.094 Non-Meso: 1.821	M3 CmD_Null	60.44 5.38	2 1	<u>0.000</u> <u>0.020</u>	9540.40	0.00

Note: np, number of parameters; ln L, ln likelihood; κ, transition/transversion ratio; df, degrees of freedom. ^aThe clade models test the set of foreground partitions that best fit the cetacean *Rh1* dataset in Dungan et al. (2016) where there was significant evidence for divergence according to foraging depth zones that distinguish mesopelagic from non-mesopelagic (epipelagic, bathypelagic) divers. ^bThe ω values for each site class ($\omega_0 - \omega_2$) are shown with their proportions in parentheses. For clade models, ω_d refers to the divergent site class.

Supplementary Table S3. Rhodopsin sequences used in ancestral sequence reconstruction

Common name	Binomen	Accession number
African elephant	<i>Loxodonta africana</i>	AY686752.1
Human	<i>Homo sapiens</i>	NM_000539.3
Domestic cat	<i>Felis catus</i>	NM_001009242.1
Bactrian camel	<i>Camelus bactrianus</i>	XM_010953086.1
Wild Bactrian camel	<i>Camelus ferus</i>	XM_006180073.1
Alpaca	<i>Vicugna pacos</i>	XM_006206787.1
Wild boar	<i>Sus scrofa</i>	NM_214221.1
Sheep	<i>Ovis aries</i>	XM_004018534.3
Tibetan antelope	<i>Pantholops hodgsonii</i>	XM_005955745.1
Goat	<i>Capra hircus</i>	XM_018066700.1
Water buffalo	<i>Bubalis bubalis</i>	XM_006078900.1
Plains bison	<i>Bison bison</i>	XM_010862448.1
Cattle	<i>Bos taurus</i>	NM_001014890.1
Hippo	<i>Hippopotamus amphibius</i>	KC676928.1
Bowhead whale	<i>Balaena mysticetus</i>	KC676921.1
N. Atlantic right whale	<i>Eubalaena glacialis</i>	JQ730751.1
Pygmy right whale	<i>Caperea marginata</i>	KC676926.1
N. Atlantic minke whale	<i>Balaenoptera acutorostrata acutorostrata</i>	KC676922.1
Blue whale	<i>Balaenoptera musculus</i>	KC676923.1
Fin whale	<i>Balaenoptera physalus</i>	KC676924.1
Sperm whale	<i>Physeter macrocephalus</i>	XM_007126220.1
South-Asian river dolphin	<i>Platanista minor</i>	KC676936.1
Sowerby's beaked whale	<i>Mesoplodon bidens</i>	AF055316.1
Baird's beaked whale	<i>Berardius bairdii</i>	KC676925.1
Cuvier's beaked whale	<i>Ziphius cavirostris</i>	KC676938.1
Yangtze river dolphin	<i>Lipotes vexillifer</i>	XM_007461564.1
Franciscana	<i>Pontoporia blainvillei</i>	KC676937.1
Amazon river dolphin	<i>Inia geoffrensis</i>	KC676929.1
Beluga	<i>Delphinapterus leucas</i>	KC676927.1
Finless porpoise	<i>Neophocaena phocaenoides</i>	KC676932.1
Harbour porpoise	<i>Phocoena phocoena</i>	KC676933.1
Dall's porpoise	<i>Phocoenoides dalli</i>	KC676934.1
Killer whale	<i>Orcinus orca</i>	XM_004284305.1
Bottlenose dolphin	<i>Tursiops truncatus</i>	AF055456.1
Pilot whale	<i>Globicephala melas</i>	AF055315.1
Common dolphin	<i>Delphinus delphis</i>	AF055314.1

Supplementary Table S4. Power analysis for protein assay sample sizes

Spectral tuning				Retinal release $t_{1/2}$			
1 nm effect	Cohen $d=3.3$	2 nm effect	Cohen $d=6.7$	4 min effect	Cohen $d=3.1$	5 min effect	Cohen $d=3.8$
n	Power	n	Power	n	Power	n	Power
2	0.4473	<u>2</u>	<u>0.8912</u>	2	0.4012	2	0.5381
<u>3</u>	<u>0.8566</u>	3	0.9999	<u>3</u>	<u>0.8014</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>0.9328</u>
4	0.9727	4	1.0000	4	0.9487	4	0.9937
5	0.9955	5	1.0000	5	0.9883	5	0.9995

Note: Cohen's d is calculated as the difference of means divided by pooled standard deviation, which we estimated as 0.3 and 1.3 for spectral tuning and retinal release respectively. These values are from bovine rhodopsin data (our positive control) in a prior publication (Morrow et al. 2017), and so provide a reasonable baseline for power analysis. Power is 1 - the type II error rate for a two-sample, two-tailed t-test given effect size (Cohen's d), type I error (0.05), and sample size (n). To detect biologically significant differences between rhodopsin samples (at least 2 nm spectral tuning and 5 min retinal release half-time), we used sample sizes of at least $n = 2$ for spectral tuning and $n = 3$ for retinal release (power at least 0.8, indicated by underlines).

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