

## **Supporting Information for**

### Origins of genome-editing excisases as illuminated by the somatic genome of the ciliate *Blepharisma*

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## Supporting Information Text

### SI Materials and Methods

#### Strains and localities

The strains used and their original isolation localities were: *Blepharisma stoltei* ATCC 30299, Lake Federsee, Germany (1); *Blepharisma stoltei* HT-IV, Aichi prefecture, Japan; *Blepharisma japonicum* R1072, from an isolate from Bangalore, India (2).

#### Cell cultivation, harvesting and cleanup

For genomic DNA isolation *B. stoltei* ATCC 30299 and HT-IV cells were cultured in Synthetic Medium for *Blepharisma* (SMB) (3) at 27°C. *Blepharismas* were fed *Chlorogonium elongatum* grown in Tris-acetate phosphate (TAP) medium (4) at room temperature. *Chlorogonium* cells were pelleted at 1500 g at room temperature for 3 minutes to remove most of the TAP medium, and resuspended in 50 mL SMB. 50 ml of dense *Chlorogonium* was used to feed 1 litre of *Blepharisma* culture once every three days.

*Blepharisma stoltei* ATCC 30299 and HT-IV cells used for RNA extraction were cultured in Lettuce medium inoculated with *Enterobacter aerogenes* and maintained at 25°C (5).

*Blepharisma* cultures were concentrated by centrifugation in pear-shaped flasks at 100 g for 2 minutes using a Hettich Rotanta 460 centrifuge with swing out buckets. Pelleted cells were washed with SMB and centrifuged again at 100 g for 2 minutes. The washed pellet was then transferred to a cylindrical tube capped with a 100 µm-pore nylon membrane at the base and immersed in SMB to filter residual algal debris from the washed cells. The cells were allowed to diffuse through the membrane overnight into the surrounding medium. The next day, the cylinder with the membrane was carefully removed while attempting to minimize dislodging any debris collected on the membrane. Cell density after harvesting was determined by cell counting under the microscope.

#### DNA isolation, library preparation and sequencing

*B. stoltei* macronuclei were isolated by sucrose gradient centrifugation (6). DNA was isolated with a Qiagen 20/G genomic-tip kit according to the manufacturer's instructions. Purified DNA from the isolated MACs was fragmented, size selected and used to prepare libraries according to standard PacBio HiFi SMRTbell protocols. The libraries were sequenced in circular consensus mode to generate HiFi reads.

Total genomic DNA from *B. stoltei* HT-IV and *B. stoltei* ATCC 30299 was isolated with the SigmaAldrich GenElute Mammalian genomic DNA kit. A sequencing library was prepared with a NEBnext FS DNA Library Prep Kit for Illumina and sequenced on an Illumina HiSeq 3000 sequencer, generating 150 bp paired-end reads.

Total genomic DNA from *B. japonicum* was isolated with the Qiagen MagAttract HMW DNA kit. A long-read PacBio sequencing library was prepared using the SMRTbell Express Template Preparation Kit 2.0 according to the manufacturers' instructions and sequenced on an PacBio Sequel platform with 1 SMRT cell. Independently, total genomic DNA from *B. japonicum* was isolated with the SigmaAldrich GenElute Mammalian genomic DNA kit and a sequencing library was prepared with the TruSeq Nano DNA Library Prep Kit (Illumina) and sequenced on an Illumina NovaSeq6000 to generate 150 bp paired-end reads.

#### Gamone 1/ Cell-Free Fluid (CFF) isolation and conjugation activity assay

*Blepharisma* is one of only two ciliate genera, along with *Euplotes* (7–10), where conjugation has been shown to be mediated through pheromone-like substances called gamones. *Blepharisma* has two mating types, distinguished by their gamone production. Mating type I cells release gamone 1, a ~30 kDa glycoprotein (11, 12); mating type II cells release gamone 2, calcium-3-(2'-

formylamino-5'-hydroxybenzoyl) lactate, a small-molecule effector (13). *Blepharisma* cells commit to conjugation when complementary mating types recognize each other's gamones, with the cells remaining paired while meiosis and then fertilization occur, and eventually new MACs begin to form.

*B. stoltei* ATCC 30299 cells were cultured and harvested and concentrated to a density of 2000 cells/mL according to the procedure described in "Cell cultivation, Harvesting and Cleanup". This concentrated cell culture was incubated overnight at 27°C. The next day, the cells were harvested, and the supernatant collected and preserved at 4°C at all times after extraction. The supernatant was then filtered through a 0.22 µm-pore filter. BSA (10 mg/mL) was added to produce the final CFF at a final BSA concentration of 0.01%.

To assess the activity of the CFF, serial dilutions of the CFF were made to obtain the gamone activity in terms of units (U) (14). The activity of the isolated CFF was 2<sup>10</sup> U.

### **Conjugation time course and RNA isolation for high-throughput sequencing**

*B. stoltei* cells for the complementary strains, ATCC 30299 and HT-IV, were cultivated and harvested by gentle centrifugation to achieve a final cell concentration of 2,000 cells/ml for each strain. Non-gamone treated ATCC 30299 (A1) and HT-IV cells (H1) were collected (time point: -3 hours). Strain ATCC 30299 cells were then treated with synthetic gamone 2 (final concentration 1.5 µg/mL) and strain HT-IV cells were treated with cell-free fluid with a gamone 1 activity of ~2<sup>10</sup> U/ml for three hours (Figure S6).

Homotypic pair formation in both cultures was checked after three hours. More than 75% of the cells in both cultures formed homotypic pairs. At this point the samples A2 (ATCC 30299) and H2 (HT-IV) were independently isolated for RNA extraction as gamone-treated control cells just before mixing. For the rest of the culture, homotypic pairs in both cultures were separated by pipetting them gently with a wide-bore pipette tip. Once all pairs had been separated, the two cultures were mixed together. This constitutes the experiment's 0-h time point. The conjugating culture was observed and samples collected for RNA isolation or cell fixation at 2 h, 6 h, 14 h, 18 h, 22 h, 26 h, 30 h and 38 h. Further details of the sample staging approach are described in (15) and (16). For each sample 7 mL of culture was harvested for RNA-extraction using Trizol. The total RNA obtained was then separated into a small RNA fraction < 200 nt and a fraction with RNA fragments > 200 nt using the Zymo RNA Clean and Concentrator-5 kit according to the manufacturer's instructions. RNA-seq libraries were prepared by BGI according to their standard protocols and sequenced on a BGISEq 500 instrument.

Separate 2 mL aliquots of cells at each time point for which RNA was extracted were concentrated by centrifuging gently at 100 rcf. 50 µL of the concentrated cells were fixed with Carnoy's fixative (ethanol:acetic acid, 6:1), stained with DAPI and imaged to determine the state of nuclear development (15).

### **Cell fixation and imaging**

*B. stoltei* cells were harvested as above ("Cell cultivation, harvesting and cleanup"), and fixed with an equal volume of "ZFAE" fixative (17), containing zinc sulfate (0.25 M, Sigma Aldrich), formalin, glacial acetic acid and ethanol (Carl Roth), freshly prepared by mixing in a ratio of 10:2:2:5. Fixed cells were pelleted (1000 g; 1 min), resuspended in 1% TritonX-100 in PHEM buffer to permeabilize (5 min; room temperature), pelleted and resuspended in 2% (w/v) formaldehyde in PHEM buffer to fix further (10 min; room temp.), then pelleted and washed twice with 3% (w/v) BSA in TBSTEM buffer (~10 min; room temp.). For indirect immunofluorescence, washed cells were incubated with primary antibody rat anti-alpha tubulin (Abcam, ab6161; 1:100 dilution in 3% w/v BSA/TBSTEM; 60 min; room temp.) then secondary antibody goat anti-rat IgG H&L labeled with AlexaFluor 488 (Abcam, ab150157, 1:500 dilution in 3% w/v BSA/TBSTEM; 20 min; room temp.). Nuclei were counterstained with DAPI (1 µg/mL) in 3% (w/v) BSA/TBSTEM. A z-stack of images was acquired using a confocal laser scanning microscope (Leica TCS SP8), equipped

with a HC PL APO 40× 1.30 Oil CS2 objective and a 1 photomultiplier tube and 3 HyD detectors, for DAPI (405 nm excitation, 420–470 nm emission) and Alexa Fluor 488 (488 nm excitation, 510–530 nm emission). Scanning was performed in sequential exposure mode. Spatial sampling was achieved according to Nyquist criteria. ImageJ (Fiji) (18) was used to adjust image contrast and brightness and overlay the DAPI and AlexaFluor 488 channels. The z-stack was temporally color-coded.

For a nuclear 3D reconstruction (Fig. 1B), cells were fixed in 1% (w/v) formaldehyde and 0.25% (w/v) glutaraldehyde. Nuclei were stained with Hoechst 33342 (Invitrogen) (5 μM in the culture media), and imaged with a confocal laser scanning microscope (Zeiss, LSM780) equipped with an LD C-Apochromat 40x/1,1 W Korr objective and a 32 channel GaAsP array detector, with 405 nm excitation and 420–470 nm emission. Spatial sampling was achieved according to Nyquist criteria. The IMARIS (Bitplane) software v8.0.2 was used for three-dimensional reconstructions and contrast adjustments.

### Genome assembly

Two MAC genome assemblies for *B. stoltei* ATCC 30299 (70× and 76× coverage) were produced with Flye (version 2.7-b1585) (19) for the two separate PacBio Sequel II libraries (independent replicates) using default parameters and the switches: --pacbio-hifi -g 45m. The approximate genome assembly size was chosen based on preliminary Illumina genome assemblies of approximately 40 Mb. Additional assemblies using the combined coverage (145×) of the two libraries were produced using either Flye version 2.7-b1585 or 2.8.1-b1676, and the same parameters. Two rounds of extension and merging were then used, first comparing the 70× and 76× assemblies to each other, then comparing the 145× assembly to the former merged assembly. Assembly graphs were all relatively simple, with few tangles to be resolved (Fig. S1A). Minimap2 (20) was used for pairwise comparison of the assemblies using the parameters: -x asm5 --frag=yes --secondary=no, and the resultant aligned sequences were visually inspected and manually merged or extended where possible using Geneious (version 2020.1.2) (21).

Visual inspection of read mapping to the combined assembly was then used to trim off contig ends where there was little correspondence between the assembly consensus and the mapped reads, which we classify as "cruft". Read mapping to cruft regions was often lower or uneven, suggestive of repeats. Alternatively, these features could be due to trace MIC sequences, or sites of alternative chromosome breakage during development which lead to sequences that are neither purely MAC nor MIC. A few contigs with similar dubious mapping of reads at internal locations, which were also clear sites of chromosome fragmentation (evident by abundant telomere-bearing reads in the vicinity) were split apart and trimmed back as for the contig ends. Telomere-bearing reads mapped to the non-trimmed region nearest to the trimmed site were then used to define contig ends, adding representative telomeric repeats from one of the underlying sequences mapped to each of the ends. The main genome assembly with gene predictions can be obtained from the European Nucleotide Archive (ENA) (PRJEB40285; accession GCA\_905310155). "Cruft" sequences are also available from the same accession.

Two separate assemblies were generated for *Blepharisma japonicum*. A genome assembly for *Blepharisma japonicum* strain R1072 was generated from Illumina reads, using SPAdes genome assembler (v3.14.0) (22). An assembly with PacBio Sequel long reads was produced with Ra (v0.2.1) (23), which uses the Overlap-Layout-Consensus paradigm. The assembly produced with Ra was more contiguous, with 268 contigs, in comparison to 1,510 contigs in the SPAdes assembly, and was chosen as the reference assembly for *Blepharisma japonicum* (ENA accession: ERR6474383).

*Condylostoma magnum* genomic reads (study accession PRJEB9019) from a previous study (24) were reassembled to improve contiguity and remove bacterial contamination. Reads were trimmed with bbdduk.sh from the BBmap package v38.22 (<https://sourceforge.net/projects/bbmap/>), using minimum PHRED quality score 2 (both ends) and k-mer trimming for Illumina adapters and Phi-X phage sequence (right end), retaining only reads

≥25 bp. Trimmed reads were error-corrected and reassembled with SPAdes v3.13.0 (22) using k-mer values 21, 33, 55, 77, 99. To identify potential contaminants, the unassembled reads were screened with phyloFlash v3.3b1 (25) against SILVA v132 (26); the coding density under the standard genetic code and prokaryotic gene model were also estimated using Prodigal v2.6.3 (27). Plotting the coverage vs. GC% of the initial assembly showed that most of the likely bacterial contigs (high prokaryotic coding density, lower coverage, presence of bacterial SSU rRNA sequences) had ≥40% GC, so we retained only contigs with <40% GC as the final *C. magnum* genome bin. The final assembly is available from the ENA bioproject PRJEB48875 (accession GCA\_920105805).

All assemblies were inspected with the quality assessment tool QUAST (28).

### Variant calling

Illumina total genomic DNA-seq libraries for *B. stoltei* strains ATCC 30299 (ENA accession: ERR6061285) and HT-IV (ERR6064674) were mapped to the ATCC 30299 reference assembly with bowtie2 v2.4.2 (29). Alignments were tagged with the MC tag (CIGAR string for mate/next segment) using samtools (30) fixmate. The BAM file was sorted and indexed, read groups were added with bamaddrg (commit 9baba65, <https://github.com/ekg/bamaddrg>), and duplicate reads were removed with Picard MarkDuplicates v2.25.1 (<http://broadinstitute.github.io/picard/>). Variants were called from the combined BAM file with freebayes v1.3.2 (31) in diploid mode, with maximum coverage 1000 (option -g). The resultant VCF file was combined and indexed with bcftools v1.12 (30), then filtered to retain only SNPs with quality score > 20, and at least one alternate allele.

### Comparison of telomere-bearing read fraction of *Blepharisma* and *Tetrahymena*

A simple regular expression search for three successive telomeric subunit repeats (“3xCCCTAACAA” for *Blepharisma*, “3xCCCCAA” for *Tetrahymena*) was used to extract and estimate the proportion of telomere-bearing reads. Visual inspections of these reads mapped with minimap2 to the respective *B. stoltei* ATCC 30299 MAC genome assembly and *T. thermophila* MAC genome assembly (32) suggested that most (> 90%) reads naively classified this way were correct. For *B. stoltei* ATCC 30299 we obtained two estimates for the two HiFi read libraries used (12.4% and 11.8% of all reads). For *T. thermophila* we combined all the deposited PacBio subreads used to generate the most recent MAC genome assembly (32), obtaining an estimate of 1.7% of all reads being telomere-bearing.

### Annotation of alternative telomere addition sites

Alternative telomere addition sites (ATASs) were annotated by mapping PacBio HiFi reads to the curated reference MAC assembly described above, using minimap2 and the following flags: -x asm20 --secondary=no --MD. We expect reads representing alternative telomere additions to have one portion mapping to the assembly (excluding telomeric regions), with the other portion containing telomeric repeats being soft-clipped in the BAM record. For each mapped read with a soft-clipped segment, we extracted the clipped sequence, and the coordinates and orientation of the clip relative to the reference. We searched for ≥ 24 bp tandem direct repeats of the telomere unit (i.e., ≥3 repeats of the 8 bp unit) in the clipped segment with NCRF v1.01.02 (33), which can detect tandem repeats in the presence of noise, e.g., from sequencing error. The orientation of the telomere sequence, the distance from the end of the telomeric repeat to the clip junction (‘gap’), and the number of telomere-bearing reads vs. total mapped reads at each junction were also recorded. Junctions with zero gap between telomere repeat and clip junction were annotated as ATASs. The above procedure was implemented in the MILTEL module of the software package BleTIES v0.1.3 (34).

MILTEL output was processed with Python scripts depending on Biopython (35), pybedtools (36), Bedtools (37), and Matplotlib (38), to summarize statistics of junction sequences and telomere permutations at ATAS junctions, and to extract genomic sequences flanking ATASs for sequence

logos. Logos were drawn with Weblogo v3.7.5 (39), with sequences oriented such that the telomere would be added on the 5' end of the ATAS junctions.

To calculate the expected minichromosome length, we assumed that ATASs were independent and identically distributed in the genome following a Poisson distribution. About  $47 \times 10^3$  ATASs were annotated, supported on average by a single read. Given a genome of 42 Mbp at 145× coverage, the expected rate of encountering an ATAS is  $47 \times 10^3 / (145 \times 42 \text{ Mbp})$ , so the distance between ATASs (i.e., the minichromosome length) is exponentially distributed with expectation  $(145 \times 42 \text{ Mbp}) / 47 \times 10^3 = 130 \text{ kbp}$ .

### RNA-seq read mapping

To permit correct mapping of tiny introns, RNA-seq data was mapped to the *B. stoltei* ATCC 30299 MAC genome using a version of HISAT2 (40) with modified source code, with the static variable `minIntronLen` in `hisat2.cpp` lowered to 9 from 20 (change available in the HISAT2 github fork: <https://github.com/Swart-lab/hisat2/>; commit hash 86527b9). HISAT2 was run with default parameters and parameters `--min-intronlen 9 --max-intronlen 500`. It should be noted that RNA-seq from timepoints in which *B. stoltei* ATCC 30299 and *B. stoltei* HT-IV cells were mixed together were only mapped to the former genome assembly, and so reads for up to three alleles may map to each of the genes in this assembly.

### Genetic code prediction

We used the program PORC (Prediction Of Reassigned Codons; available from <https://github.com/Swart-lab/PORC>), previously written to predict genetic codes in protist transcriptomes (24), to predict the *B. stoltei* genetic code. This program was used to translate the draft *B. stoltei* ATCC 30299 genome assembly in all six frames (with the standard genetic code). Like the program FACIL (41) that inspired PORC, the frequencies of amino acids in PFAM (version 34.0) protein domain profiles aligned to the six-frame translation by HMMER 3.1b2 (42) (default search parameters; domains used for prediction with conditional E-values < 1e-20), and correspondingly also to the underlying codon, were used to infer the most likely amino acid encoded by each codon (Fig. S2B).

### Gene prediction

We created a wrapper program, Intronarrator, to predict genes in *Blepharisma* and other heterotrichs, accommodating their tiny introns. Intronarrator can be downloaded and installed together with dependencies via Conda from GitHub (<https://github.com/Swart-lab/Intronarrator>). Intronarrator directly infers introns from spliced RNA-seq reads mapped by HISAT2 from the entire developmental time course we generated. RNA-seq reads densely cover almost the entire *Blepharisma* MAC genome, aside from intergenic regions, and most potential protein-coding genes (Fig. 4B). After predicting the introns and removing them to create an intron-minus genome, Intronarrator runs AUGUSTUS (version 3.3.3) using its intronless model. It then adds back the introns to the intronless gene predictions to produce the final gene predictions.

Introns are inferred from “CIGAR” string annotations in mapped RNA-seq BAM files, using the regular expression “[0-9]+M([0-9][0-9])N[0-9]+M” to select spliced reads. For intron inference we only used primary alignments with: MAPQ >= 10; just a single “N”, indicating one potential intron, per read; and at least 6 mapped bases flanking both the 5' and 3' intron boundaries (to limit spurious chance matches of a few bases that might otherwise lead to incorrect intron prediction). The most important parameters for Intronarrator are a cut-off of 0.2 for the fraction of spliced reads covering a potential intron, and a minimum of 10 or more spliced reads to call an intron. The splicing fraction cut-off was chosen based on the overall distribution of splicing (Figs. S3A-C). From our visual examination of mapped RNA-seq reads and gene predictions, values less than this were typically “cryptic” excision events (43) which remove potentially essential protein-coding sequence regions, rather than genuine introns. Intronarrator classifies an intron as sense (7389 in total, excluding alternative splicing), when the majority of reads (irrespective of splicing)

mapping to the intron are the same strand, and antisense (554 in total) when they are not. The most frequently spliced intron was chosen in rare cases of overlapping alternative intron splicing.

To eliminate spurious prediction of protein-coding genes overlapping ncRNA genes, we also incorporated ncRNA prediction in Intronator. Infernal (44) (default parameters; e-value < 1e-6) was used to predict a restricted set of conserved ncRNAs models (i.e., tRNAs, rRNAs, SRP, and spliceosomal RNAs) from RFAM 14.0 (45). These ncRNAs were hard-masked (with “N” characters) before AUGUSTUS gene prediction. Both Infernal ncRNA predictions (excluding tRNAs) and tRNA-scan SE 2.0 (46) (default parameters) tRNA predictions are annotated in the *B. stoltei* ATCC 30299 assembly deposited in the European Nucleotide Archive.

Since we found that *Blepharisma stoltei*, like *Blepharisma japonicum* (24), uses a non-standard genetic code, with UGA codon translated as tryptophan, gene predictions use the “The Mold, Protozoan, and Coelenterate Mitochondrial Code and the Mycoplasma/Spiroplasma Code (transl\_table=4)” from the NCBI genetic codes. The default AUGUSTUS gene prediction parameters override alternative (mitochondrial) start codons permitted by NCBI genetic code 4, other than ATG. So, all predicted *B. stoltei* gene coding sequences begin with ATG.

RNA-seq read mapping relative to gene predictions of Contig\_1 of *B. stoltei* ATCC 30299 was visualized with PyGenomeTracks (47).

### Assessment of genome completeness

A BUSCO (version 4.0.2) (48) analysis of the assembled MAC genomes of *B. stoltei* and *B. japonicum* was performed on the set of predicted proteins (BUSCO mode -prot) using the BUSCO Alveolata database. The completeness of the *Blepharisma* genomes was compared to the protein-level BUSCO analysis of the published genome assemblies of ciliates *T. thermophila*, *P. tetraurelia*, *S. coeruleus* and *I. multifiliis* (Fig. S2A).

### Gene annotation

Pannzer2 (49) (default parameters) and EggNog (version 2.0.1) (50) were used for gene annotation. Annotations were combined and are available from the Max Planck Society's Open Research Repository, Edmond (<https://dx.doi.org/10.17617/3.8c>). Protein domain annotations were performed using hmmscan from HMMER3 (version 3.3, Nov 2019) (42) vs. the PFAM database (Pfam-A.full, 33.0, retrieved on June 23, 2020) with default parameters.

### Gene expression analysis

Features from RNA-seq reads mapped to the *B. stoltei* ATCC 30299 MAC and MAC+IES genomes over the developmental time-course were extracted using featureCounts from the Subread package (51). Further analysis was performed using the R software environment. Genes with a total read count of less than 50 across all timepoints were filtered out of the dataset. The remaining genes were passed as a DGElist object to edgeR (52). Each time point, representing one library, was normalized for library size using the edgeR function calcNormFactors. The normalized read counts were transformed into TPM (transcripts per million) values (53, 54). The TPM-values for different genes were compared across timepoints to examine changes in gene expression. Heatmaps showing log<sub>2</sub>(TPM) changes across timepoints were plotted using the tidyverse collection of R packages (<https://www.tidyverse.org/>) and RColorBrewer (<https://rdrr.io/cran/RColorBrewer/>). Tabulated gene expression estimates together with protein annotations are available from Edmond (<https://dx.doi.org/10.17617/3.8c>).

We eschewed a shallow Gene Ontology (GO) enrichment analysis, instead favoring close scrutiny of a smaller subset of genes strongly upregulated during new MAC formation. For this, computational gene annotations in combination with BLASTP searches and examination of literature associated with homologs was used.

## Sequence visualization and analysis

Nucleotide and amino acid sequences were visualized using Geneious Prime (Biomatters Ltd.) (21). Multiple sequence alignments were performed with MAFFT version 7.450 (55, 56). Phylogenetic trees were constructed with PhyML version 3.3.20180621 (57).

## Orthogroup inference and analysis of orthogroup clusters

OrthoFinder version 2.5.2 with default parameters (i.e., using Diamond for searching, MAFFT for multiple alignment and FastTree for phylogenies) was used to define orthogroups, i.e., sets of genes descended from the last common ancestor of the chosen species. Proteomes for the following ciliate species were used: *Tetrahymena thermophila*, *Oxytricha trifallax*, *Stentor coeruleus* (data from ciliate.org (58)); *Euplotes octocarinatus* (EOGD (59)); *Paramecium tetraurelia*, *Paramecium caudatum* (data from ParameciumDB (60)); plus *Perkinsus marinus* ATCC 50983 (GenBank accession: AAXJ00000000) as a non-ciliate outgroup. Orthogroup clusters are available as Data S2, or from Edmond (<https://dx.doi.org/10.17617/3.8c>).

## Identification and correction of MIC-encoded PiggyBac homologs

We sought coding regions present within *Blepharisma* IESs to gauge the expression and type of MIC-limited genes (IES assembly and gene prediction described in Seah et al. 2022). After gene prediction within IESs with Intronator, predicted protein domains were annotated by HMMER (v3.3) (42). Several transposase families were represented in protein domains identified with coding regions of IESs. However, gene prediction within IESs was hampered by the presence of intermittent A-residues in the consensus sequence which occur due to the inaccuracy inherent in long-reads, from which the IES regions were assembled. These errors cause IES gene prediction to falter by generating inaccurate ORFs. To circumvent this, a six-frame translation of the MIC-limited genome regions was performed using a custom script, which was then used to detect PFAM domains, using HMMER and the Pfam-A database 32.0 (release 9) (61). Domain annotations for diagrams were generated with the InterproScan 5.44-79.0 pipeline (62)

Four instances of the Pfam domain DDE\_Tnp\_1\_7, characteristic of PiggyBac transposases, were detected in an initial gene prediction within *Blepharisma* IESs. The four genes corresponding to the DDE\_Tnp\_1\_7 domain had high RNA-seq coverage of combined reads from all timepoints across development. The IESs with the PiggyBac domains on Contig 17 and Contig 39 each had two ORFs with a partial DDE\_1\_7 domain, separated by a few hundred bp. Alignment of short-read MIC-enriched DNA reads mapped to the IES regions containing the putative PiggyBac homologs indicated that several A-nucleotides in the assembled IESs were insertion errors in the IES assembly, which were corrected with the short-read alignment. Open reading frames of predicted genes in these corrected regions were adjusted accordingly. The prefix “cORF” (corrected ORFs) was used to indicate the short-read corrected sequences of the PiggyMics.

Short-read MIC-enriched DNA sequences were aligned to the IES regions containing putative PiggyBac homologs with Hisat2 (2.0.0-beta) with modified source code (described in “RNA-seq read mapping”). Indel errors in the IES assembly were corrected manually, then used to predict coding regions. Pfam domains were annotated on MIC PiggyBac homologs with corrected ORFs using the InterproScan (v. 1.1.4) (63) plugin in Geneious v11.1.5 (Biomatter Ltd.). DDE\_Tnp\_1\_7 domains were detected in the corrected ORFs, which in some cases spanned IES regions lacking predicted genic regions before correction. A multiple sequence alignment of the correct MIC PiggyBac homologs with other ciliate PiggyBac-derived proteins (PGBDs) and eukaryotic PiggyBac-like elements (PBLEs) that contain the PiggyBac transposase domain DDE\_Tnp\_1\_7 (PF13843) was performed with MAFFT (v4.1) via the Geneious plugin (algorithm L-INS-i, BLOSUM62 scoring matrix, gap open penalty 1.53, offset value 0.123). A phylogenetic tree was constructed using the FastTree (v 2.1.11) plugin for Geneious (Whelan-Goldman model).



### **d<sub>N</sub>/d<sub>S</sub> estimation**

We generated pairwise coding sequence alignments of PiggyMac paralog nucleotide sequences from *P. tetraurelia* and *P. octaurelia* using MAFFT version 7.450 (56) (55) (algorithm: “auto”, scoring matrix: 200PAM/k=2, gap open penalty 1.53, offset value 0.123) using the “translation align” panel of Geneious Prime (version 2020.1.2) (21). PAML version 4.9 (64) was used to estimate d<sub>N</sub>/d<sub>S</sub> values in pairwise mode (runmode = -2, seqtype = 1, CodonFreq = 2). For *Blepharisma stoltei*, we generated pairwise coding sequence alignments of the *Blepharisma* PiggyMac homolog, BPgm (Contig\_49.g1063; BSTOLATCC\_MAC17466), with the *Blepharisma* Pgm-likes (BPgmLs) using Translation Align panel of Geneious v11.1.5 (Genetic code: *Blepharisma*, Protein alignment options: MAFFT alignment (v7.450) (56), scoring matrix: BLOSUM62, Gap open penalty: 1.53, offset value: 0.1). PAML version 4.9 was used to estimate d<sub>N</sub>/d<sub>S</sub> values in pairwise mode (runmode = -2, seqtype = 1, CodonFreq = 2).

### **Phylogenetic analysis**

Protein sequences of PBLEs were obtained from Bouallègue et al (65). Protein sequences of *Paramecium* and *Tetrahymena* Pgms and PgmLs were obtained from ParameciumDB (60) (PGM, PGMLs1-5) and ciliate.org (58) (Tpb1, Tpb2, Tpb7, LIA5), respectively. *Condylostoma* and *Blepharisma* Pgms and PgmLs were obtained from genome assemblies (accessions GCA\_920105805 and GCA\_905310155, respectively). Sequence organization and manipulation was done using Geneious (Biomatters Ltd.). The Geneious plug-in for InterProScan (62) was used to identify DDE\_Tnp\_1\_7 domains using the PFAM-A database (61). The DDE\_Tnp\_1\_7 domain and regions adjacent to it were extracted and aligned using the MAFFT plug-in (v7.450) for Geneious (56) (algorithm: L-INS-i, scoring matrix: BLOSUM62, gap opening penalty: 1.53, offset value: 0.123). Phylogenetic trees using this alignment were generated with the FastTree2 (v2.2.11) Geneious plug-in using the Whelan-Goldman model. The phylogenetic trees were visualized with FigTree (v1.4.4) (Andrew Rambaut, <http://tree.bio.ed.ac.uk/>).

### **Repeat annotation**

Interspersed repeat element families were predicted with RepeatModeler v2.0.1 (default settings, random number seed 12345) with the following dependencies: rmbblast v2.9.0+ (<http://www.repeatmasker.org/RMBlast.html>), TRF 4.09 (Benson, 1999), RECON (Bao and Eddy, 2002), RepeatScout 1.0.6 (Price et al., 2005), RepeatMasker v4.1.1 (<http://www.repeatmasker.org/RMDownload.html>). Repeat families were also classified in the pipeline by RepeatClassifier v2.0.1 through comparison against RepeatMasker’s repeat protein database and the Dfam database. Consensus sequences of the predicted repeat families, produced by RepeatModeler, were then used to annotate repeats with RepeatMasker, using rmbblast as the search engine.

Terminal inverted repeats (TIRs) of selected repeat element families were identified by aligning the consensus sequence from RepeatModeler, and/or selected full-length elements, with their respective reverse complements using MAFFT (Kato and Standley, 2013) (plugin version distributed with Geneious). TIRs from the Dfam DNA transposon termini signatures database (v1.1, [https://www.dfam.org/releases/dna\\_termini\\_1.1/dna\\_termini\\_1.1.hmm.gz](https://www.dfam.org/releases/dna_termini_1.1/dna_termini_1.1.hmm.gz)) (Storer et al., 2021) were searched with hmmsearch (HMMer v3.2.1) against the IES sequences, to identify matches to TIR signatures of major transposon subfamilies.

## SI Results

### Additional assembly considerations and inspection

Compared to assemblies of independent, replicate libraries with 70× or 76× coverage there was a modest improvement (e.g., from 86 and 89 contigs to 74) in assembly contiguity for the assemblies produced at 145× coverage (Table S2). With increasing sequence depth, reads of micronuclear origin could conceivably start linking MAC chromosomes and extending their ends, even though we depleted MIC DNA by sucrose gradient centrifugation of nuclei.

We chose to conservatively trim back the ends of most of the contigs in the assembly, and break apart a few contigs at internal sites. This was done either where the coverage locally decreased or increased and where there were extensive differences between the contig sequence and mapped reads. Some of these sequences could represent an intermediate state between fully retained and fully eliminated DNA in MACs. 1.3 Mb of such uncertain sequences (termed “cruft” in genome assembly terminology) were removed from the main assembly. No tRNA genes were predicted in the cruft sequences, nor did their removal reduce the BUSCO score for completeness of the MAC genome, which is comparable to or better than that of other ciliates (Fig. S2A). BUSCO analyses also showed that gene duplication in *Blepharisma*, though common, is lower than in *Paramecium tetraurelia* and *Stentor coeruleus* (Fig. S2A).

### Telomeres in *Blepharisma*

The basic telomere unit of *Blepharisma* is a permutation of CCCTAACA, like its heterotrich relative *Stentor coeruleus* (66) (Fig. S4D). Since a compelling candidate for a telomerase ncRNA (TERC) could not be found in either *Blepharisma* or *Stentor* using Infernal (44) and RFAM models (RF00025 - ciliate TERC; RF00024 - vertebrate TERC), it was not possible to delimit the repeat ends. Heterotrichs may use a different or very divergent ncRNA. In contrast to the extremely short (20 bp) MAC telomeres of spirotrichs like *Oxytricha* with extreme MAC genome fragmentation (67), sequenced *Blepharisma* MAC telomeres are moderately long (Fig. S4B), with a mode of 209 bp (~26 repeats of the 8 bp motif), extending to a few kilobases.

### Alternative telomere addition sites (ATASs)

Alternative telomere addition sites in the MAC genome tend to be intergenic in model ciliates like *Oxytricha trifallax* (67). In *Blepharisma*, we found more intergenic ATASs (28,309) than intragenic ones (18,396). As intergenic regions only make up 10.1 Mb of the assembly, the intergenic frequency of ATASs is about five-fold higher (2.81 per 1 kb) than intragenic frequency (0.562 per 1 kb). The presence of intragenic ATASs raises the question how the cell tolerates or deals with mRNAs encoding partial proteins transcribed from 3' truncated genes. Since the sequence data was from a clonal population, it is not possible to tell how much ATAS variability there is within individual cells. However, it is conceivable that their positional variation in single cells reflects that of the population. In this case, together with redundancy from massive DNA amplification there would likely be sufficient intact copies of every gene.

Beyond the first 2-5 bp corresponding to the junction sequences, the average base composition on the chromosome flanking ATAS junctions shows an asymmetrical bias (Fig. S4G). From position +6 onwards there is an enrichment of T to about 40% and A to 35-39%, compared to the genome-wide frequencies of 33% each. At position +19 to +23, there is a slight decrease in T to 37-39%. AT values gradually decline back to about 35% each by position +150. Correspondingly, G and C are depleted downstream of ATAS junctions, dropping to a minimum of 8.6% and 11% respectively around position +37, compared to the genome-wide average of 17% each. AT enrichment and GC depletion upstream of ATAS junctions are less pronounced.

If breakage and chromosome healing were random, we would not expect such an asymmetry. This suggests that there is a nucleotide bias, whether in the initiation of breaks, telomere addition, or in the processing of breaks before telomere addition. However, we have not yet identified any conserved motif like the 15 bp chromosome breakage site (CBS) in *Tetrahymena* (68) nor a short

10-bp sequence periodicity in base composition like in *Oxytricha trifallax* (69). Therefore, telomere addition in *B. stoltei* appears to involve base-pairing of short segments of about 2 bp between the telomere and chromosome, with a bias centered on the “CT” in the telomere unit, and an asymmetrical preference for AT-rich sequences on the chromosomal side of the junction.

The position of an ATAS junction is potentially ambiguous because the last adjoining telomere repeat can potentially be extended into the chromosomal sequence, if the chromosomal sequence at the junction contains a partial match to the telomere (Fig. S4E). The junction position that maximizes the length of the telomere sequence on a read has been termed as the “first identifiable breakpoint”, and that which maximizes the chromosomal sequence as the “last identifiable breakpoint” (70). The overlapping sequence, which could either be telomeric or chromosomal, is termed the “junction sequence”.

Most ATAS junctions in *B. stoltei* have an overlapping junction sequence, on average 2-3 bp long (Fig. S4I). This can also be observed when separate sequence logos are drawn for each of the possible telomere repeat permutations observed at the ATAS junction (Fig. S4F). Such a short overlap of a few base pairs between the telomere repeat and chromosome sequence is similar to what has been observed in other organisms, such as 3-5 bp in yeast (70) and 2-4 bp in humans (71). This is in contrast to *Tetrahymena* where telomeres are often added to sites that have no homology to the telomere sequence (72).

We hypothesized that the location of ATAS junctions in the genome might be randomly distributed and simply reflect the baseline sequence composition of the genome and/or the telomeres. To test this, we counted the frequency of 2-mers in the MAC genome (excluding telomeric regions) and in the telomere repeats, and compared them to the 2-mer frequencies observed at ATAS junctions (2 bp on chromosomal side of last identifiable breakpoints, Fig. S4H). Sequence composition of the telomeres does have a strong influence, as 2-mers that are not represented in the telomeres (AT, GC, CG, GA) are poorly represented at ATAS junctions even though they may be frequent in the genome, e.g., GA, 12.0% in genome vs. 0.36% at ATAS; AT, 10.4% vs. 1.7%. However, 2-mer frequencies at ATAS junctions do not match frequencies in the telomeres closely either. For example, the 2-mer AG is about twice as frequent at ATAS junctions as compared to telomeres, and as compared to the genome generally. Instead, the telomere permutations at ATAS junctions are not uniformly distributed; the permutation CTAACACC is the most common, followed by its adjacent permutations TAACACCC and AACACCCT (using last identifiable breakpoints, Fig. S4D). These would account for the three most common 2-mers at ATAS junctions: AG (canonical form of CT), AA, and TA.

### **Telomere-binding protein paralogs**

Despite the abundance of *Blepharisma* MAC genome telomeres, we did not detect a typical ncRNA gene corresponding to the telomerase RNA component (TERC) of the ribozyme responsible for telomere synthesis in the MAC genome. We suspect this is due to ncRNAs presenting a far greater challenge to detect than protein-coding genes and the presence of highly divergent ncRNA with insufficient similarity to the handful of taxonomically-restricted TERCs identified in oligohymenophorean and spirotrich ciliates and other eukaryotes so far.

Other than the components of telomerase, ciliates were among the first organisms where telomere-binding proteins were characterized (73). Telomere-binding protein paralogs with distinctive patterns of gene expression during development are present in some ciliate species (67, 74). *Tetrahymena thermophila* has two telomere-binding protein paralogs POT1 and POT2 (74). POT2 is upregulated during conjugation, accumulates in developing new macronuclei, and binds to chromosome breakage sites rather than telomeres (74). *Blepharisma stoltei* has five POT1 paralogs POT1.1-POT1.5 (Fig. S5C). One *B. stoltei* POT1 paralog expressed at low levels in starved (0 h) cells, POT1.4, is sharply upregulated during development, peaking when new macronuclei are forming (22 h) (Fig. S5C).

Since we were unable to identify a specific chromosome breakage signal like that of *Tetrahymena*, a future avenue to search for such a signal would be to assess the DNA-binding preferences of POT1.4 and the other *Blepharisma* POT1 paralogs. In any event, since this is one of the most highly upregulated genes in the 22-26 h time range compared to vegetative (0 h, and gamone treated cells; see “Results”, “Features of gene expression during new MAC development”), future investigation of its developmental role is warranted.

### Tiny spliceosomal introns

Like *Stentor* (66), most (82%) *Blepharisma* genes have no introns. In line with genome compactness, during our inspections we also observed numerous overlapping poly(A)-tailed RNA-seq reads on opposite strands derived from convergently transcribed gene pairs. The correlation of the lengths of different noncoding region classes (intergenic regions, introns and UTRs) can be explained by them being subject to common, neutral evolutionary processes (75).

*Blepharisma* introns are mostly (97%) 15 or 16 nucleotides (nt) long, like those of *Stentor* (Fig. S3D). Though intron reduction (7,389 introns predicted in the reference *B. stoltei* MAC genome, i.e., 0.29 introns per gene) is not as extreme as some other microbial eukaryotes, like *Giardia lamblia* (76), where almost all have been lost, both *Blepharisma* and *Stentor* have much fewer introns relative to other ciliates (e.g., intron densities of 1.6, 2.3 and 4.8 introns per gene in *Paramecium*, *Oxytricha* and *Tetrahymena*, respectively (77)) and to the putative, relatively intron-rich eukaryotic common ancestor (78), along with their extreme length reduction.

*Blepharisma* 15 nt introns possess a characteristic branch-point “A”, as would be expected in classical models of lariat formation during mRNA splicing (Fig. S3C). 16 nt introns almost invariably have an “A” at either 10 or 11 nt downstream of the donor site (i.e., only one of 499 does not, but has “A” at 9 nt), although this is not obvious in the consensus sequence logo because the position is variable (Fig. S3D). Similarly, 17 nt introns all possess “A” at 10-12 nt downstream of the donor site. Only a few intron bases, 5-8 and 12, of *Blepharisma*'s 15 nt introns are relatively unconstrained (Fig. S3C). This leaves little room for the presence of any additional regulatory elements in the mRNA or underlying DNA.

In the final gene predictions, just over 1% of predicted *Blepharisma* introns lack canonical GT-AG boundaries (62 out of 4,670 introns). Just under half of these (30) are 15 or 16 bp long and predominantly appear to represent true spliceosomal introns. The boundaries of two predicted introns with CT-AC boundaries (14 and 15 nt in length) resulted from misalignment of nucleotides in the mapped spliced reads at conventional GT-AG junctions. We found no evidence of minor spliceosomal RNAs (U11, U12, U4atac, and U6atac) using Infernal searches (E-value < 10). Thus, *Blepharisma* appears to lack a minor spliceosome and minor spliceosomal introns. As far as we are aware no minor spliceosomal introns have been reported in any ciliates. Loss of minor spliceosomal machinery and introns, relative to the eukaryotic common ancestor, may be relatively common in alveolates including ciliates (79).

The most common 5' boundaries for *Blepharisma* introns that possess a 3'-AG but lack 5'-GT are 5'-GC or 5'-GG (the latter are most often 5'-GGT; Table S9). Introns that possess a 5'-GT but lack 3'-AG typically have 3'-GG boundaries (most often 3'-AGG; Table S9). Visual inspection of the mapped RNA-seq data to the non-canonical *Blepharisma* introns and predicted coding sequences suggests that the GC-AG, GT-GG and GG-AG introns are correct, i.e., lead to prediction of complete coding sequences downstream of their locations. Lower frequency alternative splicing may occur in some cases (e.g., Fig. S3G), but these generate prematurely terminated coding sequences.

GC-AG introns are the most common alternative major spliceosomal introns in multicellular organisms (80). In *Blepharisma* such introns are most frequently 15 bp long. In contrast to GC-AG introns and conventional *Blepharisma* GT-AG introns, GG-AG and GT-GG (or GGT-AG and GT-AGG) introns are 16 bp or longer (Table S9). This suggests most of these introns evolved from conventional 15 bp GT-AG introns. It is possible that splicing of the shorter internal GT-AG

introns, instead of their longer non-canonical forms that give rise to full-length coding sequences, leads to NMD of some mRNAs, since these invariably have a premature in-frame stop codon downstream of the intron. Thus RNA-seq may underestimate the amount of splicing of the shorter forms.

### **Overcoming challenges in gene prediction due to tiny introns**

As reported in *Stentor*, splicing frequency decreases as intron length increases in *Blepharisma* (Fig. S3B). This trend is also evident in antisense introns, though weaker and more noisy due to their lower abundance (Fig. S3B). Since antisense intron splicing would be free from selective constraints imposed by protein-coding sequence translation, we suggest that the intron length distribution primarily reflects the splicing length preferences of the spliceosome. The decreased efficiency of splicing of introns longer than 15 nt, and evident inability to splice introns shorter than this, means that most intron indels may be deleterious. We therefore suggest that, like its IESs which are skewed towards shorter lengths (Seah et al. 2022), *Blepharisma*'s introns can largely be thought of as parasitic elements which bear significant potential costs. This would also be consistent with the absence of introns in most heterotrich genes, and a pronounced decrease in intron density relative to model ciliates such as *Paramecium*, *Tetrahymena* and *Oxytricha* (66).

The tiny introns of *Stentor coeruleus* previously created significant challenges for gene prediction (66) using AUGUSTUS (81). In the *Stentor* study, some predicted genes were observed to be incorrectly joined, and so were split with a custom script. Furthermore, introns of lengths other than 15 or 16 bp were attributed to genome mis-assembly (66). In our study, after adjusting AUGUSTUS parameters for tiny introns as for *Stentor* and training AUGUSTUS for gene prediction in *Blepharisma*, from visual inspection of mapped RNA-seq reads we saw that most predicted introns longer than 16 bp are incorrect. With the benefit of major technological advances in long read sequencing and considerably increased sequencing depth over the last years, the *Blepharisma* MAC genome assembly is not as prone to misassembly, and contiguity substantially improved compared to that of the draft *Stentor coeruleus* assembly. Consequently, most of the incorrect introns predicted with AUGUSTUS in *Blepharisma* were errors in gene prediction rather than mis-assembly. Additionally, numerous introns, including some of length 15 or 16 nt, were predicted in regions deeply covered by RNA-seq with no mapped reads evidencing splicing. No matter what changes we attempted to the AUGUSTUS source code in attempts to more accurately predict introns, more were incorrectly predicted than not (e.g., Table S8).

Since we obtained extensive RNA-seq data across a developmental time course which appeared to cover most genes (Fig. 3A), we chose to eliminate incorrect intron predictions, the major source of inaccuracy in *Blepharisma* gene predictions, by directly predicting introns using mapped reads. This approach, Intronarrator, runs AUGUSTUS in "intronless" prediction mode on a version of the genome with introns removed, before replacing the introns in the genes. Visual inspection of the predicted introns on Contig\_1, showed there was a marked improvement in intron prediction sensitivity from 0.75 with AUGUSTUS to 0.97 with Intronarrator, while precision improved from 0.42 to 1.00 (Table S8). In general, there is consistency between the locations of the predicted genes and RNA-seq coverage, notably including genes with introns (Fig. 3).

### **Extensive duplications of transmembrane protein genes**

A notable extended ~220 kb region encoding 53 genes belonging to a single orthologous group (orthogroup), OG0000085 is present on Contig\_1 (Fig. 3A). Four additional OG0000085 genes are present at the opposite end of Contig\_1, and 24 copies are found on other contigs, often clustered together (Fig. S1B). The DNA coverage across this region is lower (74×) than the rest of Contig\_1 (185×). Though there is uncertainty in the exact extent, given the sheer volume of reads involved, the assembled sequences certainly correspond to highly repetitive regions of the MAC genome. At the junction between the lower and higher coverage regions more than 30 HiFi reads link the two regions of coverage, and a similar number of telomere-bearing reads are in close proximity. At the junction we also observe at least two potential locations of IESs, corresponding to regions that may be partially IES/partially MDS.

Large clusters of genes from particular orthogroups can be found on additional contigs (Fig. S1B). In total 551 (2%) of predicted *B. stoltei* genes belong to the orthogroups with the largest clusters per contig. Some of the largest contiguous clusters of genes from these orthogroups are situated at the ends of contigs, suggesting they may have caused assembly breaks beyond them. One contig, split off from other connected components in the assembly graph, predominantly encodes genes from a single orthogroup (contig\_64, 43× coverage; Fig. S1B). Further increases in read length and accuracy may allow assemblers to fully resolve these in future. Curiously, all the orthogroups corresponding to the largest contiguous clusters of genes appear to be transmembrane proteins, or decayed remnants thereof.

Full-length proteins from OG0000085 (81 proteins in total) and OG0000014 (143 proteins in total) both contain a central PFAM “ANF\_receptor” domain (PF01094), annotated in the PFAM database with the description “This family includes extracellular ligand binding domains of a wide range of receptors”. Though apparently distantly related (32% amino acid identity of the consensus sequences; produced by the majority rule for each orthogroup), the full-length proteins are of similar length and align well, and thus are likely homologs. A clear C-terminal transmembrane domain comprising seven to nine alpha helices is predicted for presumed full-length versions of proteins from both ortholog groups using TMHMM2 (82). Queries of UniProt revealed that, though widely distributed among eukaryotes, among ciliates only *Stentor coeruleus* also possesses proteins with this domain classified (29 in total). BLAST searches versus the GenBank NR database detect a similar number of matches to *Stentor coeruleus* homologs (E-value < 1e-30) but none in any other ciliates. Ortholog groups OG0000018 and OG0000052 also appear to be homologous to one another (31% amino acid identity of the consensus sequences produced by the majority rule for each orthogroup). Full-length proteins from these ortholog groups possess a clear N-terminal transmembrane domain predicted by TMHMM2, composed of seven or more transmembrane helices. We also detected a central Pas domain (PF00989) in a couple of these proteins in InterProScan searches of PFAM. Ortholog group OG0000019 has a seven transmembrane C-terminal domain predicted by TMHMM2, a series of centrally located “Laminin\_G\_3” (PF13385) domains, and an N-terminal “Malectin” (PF11721) domain in some proteins.

Ciliates encode a moderately large number of protein-coding genes compared to other eukaryotes, often exceeding 25,000. Species like *Paramecium tetraurelia* which have undergone multiple whole genome duplications, may have more than 40,000 genes (83). In ciliate species like *Tetrahymena thermophila* (26,258 genes (32)), with no evidence of whole genome duplications, it has been a question as to why these species are so gene rich (84).

Segmental duplications identified in the human genome are defined as duplications > 1 kb and > 90% sequence identity (85). Little evidence for such duplications was found in the *Tetrahymena* MAC genome (84). Since the divergences of the proteins within the large clustered *Blepharisma* orthogroups are typically moderately high (e.g., < 40% amino acid identity), the duplications that led to them represent older events. Nonetheless, given their extent, it is likely that many of the duplicated genes originated from segmental duplications. Recombination of clusters of some of these genes into other genomic regions may subsequently have spread them elsewhere, and led to gradual erosion of the original locus. The OrthoFinder algorithm is specifically designed to eliminate scoring biases against shorter sequences, a significant advance over older algorithms like OrthoMCL (86). In our inspections of multiple sequence alignments of the largest orthogroups we also detected numerous genes that are clearly related to, but significantly shorter than the typical gene length of each orthogroup, thus likely representing eroding pseudogenes. Though we focused on the largest and most notable clusters of genes from the orthogroups, numerous other genes may also have arisen out of such clustered duplications.

### **Development-specific upregulation of proteins associated with DNA repair and chromatin**

A variety of different DNA repair protein genes strongly upregulated at 26 hours (Table S4; Data S3) are: a 5' Apollo exonuclease protein (BSTOLATCC\_MAC16643), whose homologs are

involved in DNA repair and telomere protection (87) (a paralog of this gene is constitutively expressed at low levels: BSTOLATCC\_MAC3725; 58.9% pairwise amino acid identity); STAG1/2 (BSTOLATCC\_MAC22820) and Rad21 (BSTOLATCC\_MAC1548) homologs, both cohesin complex components, and a Rad50 homolog (BSTOLATCC\_MAC2159), all proteins involved in DNA double-strand break repair (88, 89); a homolog of MUS81 (BSTOLATCC\_MAC21072) a protein involved in meiotic double-strand break repair in *Tetrahymena* (90); a homolog of PARP2 (Poly(ADP-ribose) polymerase-2) (BSTOLATCC\_MAC1058), a protein involved in DNA single-strand nick repair (91); a homolog (BSTOLATCC\_MAC1470) of the DNA clamp, PCNA, which is involved in DNA repair associated with DNA polymerases delta and epsilon (92, 93); two homologs (BSTOLATCC\_MAC23155 and BSTOLATCC\_MAC23646) of exodeoxyribonuclease III, a protein involved in abasic DNA base repair (94).

A dozen chromatin-related proteins are among the top 100 most strongly upregulated proteins at 26 hours (Table S4). These include a homolog (BSTOLATCC\_MAC17684) of ISWI, a core ATPase remodeler present in a range of different chromatin remodelling protein complexes in eukaryotes (95). In *Paramecium tetraurelia* the strongest developmentally upregulated ISWI homolog plays a critical role in nucleosome positioning in new MACs during genome editing (96). A few histone/histone-related proteins and HMG boxes are also strongly upregulated. Two JmjC (Jumonji C) domain-containing proteins are also highly upregulated (BSTOLATCC\_MAC23590 and BSTOLATCC\_MAC5044). BSTOLATCC\_MAC23590 is likely to be orthologous to JMJ1 of *Tetrahymena thermophila* (TTHERM\_00185640): they are reciprocal best BLASTP hits (with next best hit e-values many orders of magnitude higher), the JmjC domain occurs in a similar relative location in the two proteins, and their lengths are similar (1082 aa and 1198 aa). JMJ1 is highly upregulated during *T. thermophila* conjugation, first localizing in old MACs and later in the new MACs (97). This protein is required for H3K27me3 demethylation later in conjugation, where it is proposed to influence gene expression, including those expressed later and involved in genome editing processes, rather than heterochromatin associated with *Tetrahymena* IES excision per se (97).

### **Development-specific upregulation of proteins associated with initiation of transcription and translation**

While overarching coordination of gene regulation and protein translation are expected during ciliate development, it is not evident how this might be achieved. Among the most strongly upregulated genes at 26 hours are homologs of proteins involved in initiation of either transcription or translation, notably an eIF4E translation initiation factor homolog (BSTOLATCC\_MAC5291) and a TATA-binding protein (SPT15; BSTOLATCC\_MAC11469; Table S4). In other eukaryotes eIF4E proteins bind to m7G 5' mRNA caps permitting protein translation (98). *B. stoltei* has ten homologs of these proteins, nine of which are moderately stably expressed throughout the RNA-seq conditions examined (Data S3; workbook "eIF4e homologs"). eIF4E paralogs are also abundant in *S. coeruleus*, with thirteen homologs found by BLASTP. One of the *B. stoltei* eIF4E paralogs is more highly expressed than the rest (BSTOLATCC\_MAC25346), however this is still roughly an order of magnitude less than the development-specific paralog in all times after 2 hours post cell mixing. The pronounced upregulation of a homolog of eIF4e would be consistent with the massive amount of protein translation necessary during development. We therefore propose that translation initiation plays a critical regulatory role in protein synthesis during *Blepharisma* development, all the way through genome editing.

Regarding transcription regulation, *B. stoltei* has a constitutively expressed TATA-binding protein (BSTOLATCC\_MAC16553) which is 64.8% identical (at the amino acid level) to the developmentally upregulated paralog (BSTOLATCC\_MAC11469). *Tetrahymena thermophila* also appears to have two TATA-binding protein homologs annotated (TBP1 and TBP2; 30.5% pairwise amino acid identity) both of which are modestly upregulated during development ([http://tfgd.ihb.ac.cn/search/detail/gene/TTHERM\\_00575350](http://tfgd.ihb.ac.cn/search/detail/gene/TTHERM_00575350) and [http://tfgd.ihb.ac.cn/search/detail/gene/TTHERM\\_00082170](http://tfgd.ihb.ac.cn/search/detail/gene/TTHERM_00082170)). In *B. stoltei* we speculate that the two TATA-binding proteins may recognize distinct TATA box motifs, and thus transcription of a large, development-specific subset of proteins might be controlled by a master regulator. A

homolog of transcription initiation factor TFIID subunit 1 (TAF), the largest core component of the transcription initiation complex (99) that interacts with TATA-binding proteins (100) is encoded by the sixth most strongly upregulated gene (388×) at 26 hours (BSTOLATCC\_MAC12987). The only other TAF homolog we detected (BSTOLATCC\_MAC10371) is more weakly upregulated (12×) at 26 hours.

In *B. stoltei* an additional homolog of a protein involved in transcription elongation (SPT5; BSTOLATCC\_MAC7803) is among the most highly upregulated genes at 26 hours, and also has a constitutively expressed paralog (BSTOLATCC\_MAC18233 78.4% pairwise amino acid identity). *Paramecium tetraurelia* and *Oxytricha trifallax* both have SPT5 paralogs that appear to have been generated in separate duplication events (101), and our phylogenies suggest the *B. stoltei* paralogs duplicated independently of these two species. In *P. tetraurelia*, one of the two paralogs is specific to meiotic micronuclei, and has an expression profile that peaks earlier during development prior to meiosis and declines during new MAC formation (101). In *Oxytricha* one SPT5 paralog (SPT5a) is constitutively expressed, whereas the other (SPT5b) peaks during meiosis (102). In *Tetrahymena* the single SPT5 gene is strongly upregulated during development, peaking during meiosis ([http://tfgd.ihb.ac.cn/search/detail/gene/TTHERM\\_00028580](http://tfgd.ihb.ac.cn/search/detail/gene/TTHERM_00028580)).

### **Cysteine-rich domain of the *Blepharisma* PiggyBac homologs**

PiggyBac CRDs have been classified into three different groups and are essential for *Paramecium* IES excision (103). In *Blepharisma*, the CRD consists of five cysteine residues arranged as CxxC-CxxCxxxxH-Cxxx(Y)H (where C, H, Y and x respectively denote cysteine, histidine, tyrosine and any other residue). Two *Blepharisma* homologs possess this CRD without the penultimate tyrosine residue, while the third contains a tyrosine residue before the final histidine. This -YH feature towards the end of the CxxC-CxxCxxxxH-Cxxx(Y)H CRD is shared by all the PiggyBac homologs we found in *Condylostoma*, the bat PiggyBac-like element (PBLE) and human PiggyBac element-derived (PGBD) proteins PGBD2 and PGBD3. In contrast, PiggyBac homologs from *Paramecium* and *Tetrahymena* have a CRD with six cysteine residues arranged in the variants of the motif CxxC-CxxC-Cx{2-7}Cx{3,4}H, and group together with human PGBD4 and *Spodoptera frugiperda* PBLE (Fig. S8).

### ***Blepharisma*'s MAC genome encodes additional domesticated transposases**

Three *Blepharisma* MAC genome-encoded proteins possess PFAM domain DDE\_1 (PF03184; Fig. S9). The most common domain combinations for this domain, aside from proteins with it alone (5898 sequences; PFAM version 35), are with an N-terminal PFAM domain HTH\_Tnp\_Tc5 (PF03221) alone (2240 sequences), and both an N-terminal CENP-B\_N domain (PF04218) and central HTH\_Tnp\_Tc5 domain (1255 sequences). The CENP-B\_N domain is characteristic of numerous transposases, notably the Tigger and PogoR families (104). Though pairwise sequence identity is low amongst the *Blepharisma* DDE\_1-proteins (avg. 28.3%) in their multiple sequence alignment, the CENP-B\_N domain in one of them appears to align reasonably well to corresponding regions in the two proteins lacking this domain, suggesting it deteriorated beyond the recognition capabilities of HMMER3 and the given PFAM domain model. BLASTp matches for all three proteins in GenBank are annotated either as Jerky or Tigger homologs (Jerky transposases belong to the Tigger transposase family (104)). Given that none of the *Blepharisma* MAC DDE\_1-domain proteins appear to have a complete catalytic triad, it is unlikely they are involved in transposition or IES excision. In *Blepharisma* and numerous other organisms, DDE\_1 domains co-occur with CENPB domains. Two such proteins represent totally different proposed exaptations in mammals (centromere-binding protein) and fission yeast (regulatory protein) (105–107). Given the great evolutionary distances involved, there is no reason to expect that the *Blepharisma* homologs have either function.

Six MAC-encoded transposases containing the DDE\_3 domain (PF13358) are present in *Blepharisma*, all of which are substantially upregulated in MAC development and five of which possess the complete DDE catalytic triad (Fig. S9B). The DDE\_3 domain is characteristic of DDE transposases encoded by the Telomere-Bearing Element transposons (TBEs) of *Oxytricha*



*trifallax* (108, 109), which, despite being MIC genome-limited, are proposed to be involved in IES excision (110). DDE\_3-containing transposons, called Tec elements, are found in another spirotrichous ciliate, *Euplotes crassus*, but no role in genome editing has been established for these (111). TBEs and Tec elements do not share obvious features, other than both possessing an encoded protein belonging to the IS630-Tc1 transposase (super)-family (112). All six *Blepharisma* DDE\_3 genes have at least 150× HiFi read coverage, consistent with their presence in bona fide MAC DNA.

As judged by BLASTP searches in which most of the top hundred best matches are classified as “IS630 family” transposases, *Blepharisma* MAC-encoded DDE\_3 domain transposases are more closely related to the IS630 transposase family than to *Oxytricha* TBE transposases and *Euplotes* Tec transposases. One of the BLAST top hits is a MIC genome-encoded protein in *Oxytricha trifallax* with a DDE\_3 domain which is not a TBE transposase (GenBank accession: KEJ83017.1). IS630 transposases diverge considerably from Tc1-Mariner transposases, and hence are considered an outgroup to them (113). IS630-related transposases encoded by Anchois transposons have also been detected in the *Paramecium tetraurelia* MIC genome (114). Given that all but one of the *B. stoltei* paralogs appear to possess a complete catalytic triad, there is a possibility that they may be involved in some IES excision.

Among other ciliates with draft MAC genomes we examined, the IS1595- and MULE transposase-like domains (PFAM PF12762 and PF10551) have so far only been observed in the spirotrichs *Oxytricha* and *Stylonychia* (67, 115). DDE\_Tnp\_IS1595 domains are characteristic of the Merlin transposon superfamily and MULE is part of the Mutator transposon superfamily (116). Currently no particular functions have been demonstrated for these proteins in these ciliates, but their genes were substantially upregulated during their development (67, 117). Both transposase-like domains are found in MAC-encoded proteins in *Blepharisma* and their underlying genes are upregulated during MAC development (Figs. S9C, S10). Consistent with the notion of transposase domestication, the genes encoding DDE\_Tnp\_IS1595 and MULE proteins appear to lack flanking transposon terminal inverted repeats. Members of both IS1595 and MULE transposases also appear to have complete catalytic triads.

### **Homologs of small RNA-related proteins involved in ciliate genome editing**

Development-specific proteins responsible for small RNA (sRNA) generation and transport play an important role in ciliate genome editing (118). In ciliates such as *Paramecium* and *Tetrahymena* shorter Dicer-like proteins (Dcls) are distinguished from longer Dicer proteins (Dcrs) which possess additional N-terminal domains and produce small RNAs, notably siRNAs, involved in gene regulation (119). In the scanning model of MAC development in *Tetrahymena* and *Paramecium*, Dcls cooperate with Piwi proteins, converting long double-stranded RNA transcripts produced in the maternal MIC into “scan RNAs” (scnRNAs) (119–124). Piwi-bound scnRNAs are transported to the maternal MAC where a subtractive process takes place, leaving only scnRNAs complementary to the MIC-limited genome. The remaining scnRNAs are transported to the new, developing MAC, where they target MIC-limited regions for excision (119–124).

We found putative Dicer, Dicer-like and Piwi proteins encoded by the *B. stoltei* MAC genome (Fig. S7). The single *B. stoltei* Dicer (Dcr) protein has the characteristic N-terminal Dicer domains followed by a pair of RNase III domains (PFAM domain Ribonuclease\_3; PF00636) whereas RNase III domains alone were detected in three Dicer-like proteins (Dcl1-3). Dcl1 expression is upregulated shortly after conjugation begins and before meiosis begins; Dcl2 and Dcl3 are upregulated from meiosis onwards, peaking during anlagen formation. In *Paramecium* two Dcl's are coexpressed and cooperate to produce scnRNAs (119), and so we predict that, as for *Paramecium*, *Blepharisma* Dcl2 and Dcl3 may cooperate.

*B. stoltei* also appears to have an additional truncated Dcr homolog (881 aa), Dicer-derived protein (Dcrd), lacking the RNase III domain portion (BSTOLATCC\_MAC8391) of the complete Dicer (Fig. S7A). A short protein (690 aa) with a similar domain structure is found in *Paramecium tetraurelia* (Genbank accession: XP\_001459306.1), and, as judged from gene expression data in

ParameciumDB (60), is substantially upregulated during new MAC development. The observation of these proteins suggests that it might be possible for Dicer helicase and cleavage activities to be encoded on separate molecules. The splitting of the helicase and RNase domains is the converse of the common eukaryotic origin of Dicer from separate archaeal (helicase) and bacterial (RNase) domains (125). It is also conceivable, once they have split, that alternative helicases may substitute the original ones of helicase-less Dicer-like proteins.

In ciliates some Piwi proteins play a role in gene regulation in vegetative cells (126) while others are involved in genome editing (120, 127, 128). In *Stylonychia lemnae*, the massive upregulation of a Piwi homolog involved in genome editing allowed it to be identified by subtractive hybridization of RNA (129). The ortholog of this gene in *Stylonychia lemnae*'s close relative, *Oxytricha trifallax*, is also one of the most highly transcribed and upregulated genes (128). We found nine proteins with Piwi and PAZ domains (five of which also have ArgoL domains) in the *B. stoltei* ATCC 30299 MAC genome. Two closely related *Blepharisma* Piwi paralogs are highly upregulated during meiosis and throughout subsequent development (Fig. S7B). These two genes are both among the most highly expressed genes at 26 h (12 and 154) while the new MAC is forming.

In *Tetrahymena* and *Paramecium*, massive production of scnRNAs, generated by the Dcls and highly upregulated Piwis, initiates from meiotic nuclei. We observe a similar pattern of massive production of development-specific sRNAs during development, whose detailed analysis will be reported in conjunction with the draft *B. stoltei* ATCC 30299 MIC genome (Seah, et. al, 2022). Since *Blepharisma* species are distantly related to other ciliates whose sRNAs have been characterized, this suggests that an ancient, development-specific sRNA gene expression program may have been established in the ciliate common ancestor.

### Development-specific histone variant upregulation

Access to DNA in eukaryotes is mediated by nucleosomes and nucleosome regulation plays a central role in DNA replication, repair, transcription and recombination (130). The nucleosome is composed of four core histone proteins, H2A, H2B, H3 and H4, and is held together by electrostatic interactions between the negative charge of the phosphate backbone of DNA and the positively charged surface of the histones (131). The modification of core histones by acetylation and methylation is involved in allowing or repressing access to the DNA. Genome rearrangement in ciliates is influenced by processes that modify and regulate nucleosomes and consequently mediate the ability of IES-excision machinery to access the underlying DNA. In *Tetrahymena*, IESs, which frequently contain transposons or are derived from them, are targeted for removal by sRNA machinery that is involved in depositing methylation marks on Histone 3 Lysine 9 (H3K9) and Histone 3 Lysine 27 (H3K27), in a process akin to heterochromatin formation, except that the marked regions are excised entirely (132, 133). In *Paramecium*, a mechanism reflecting the ancient ancestral eukaryotic origins of transposon silencing by heterochromatin formation, involving H3K9- and H3K27-trimethylation (H3K27me<sub>3</sub>), represses MIC genome-encoded transposable element gene expression, and experimental elimination of these marks leads to low efficiency of IES excision and lethal outcomes when new MAC genomes are produced (134). A particular histone variant (H3.4) present in polytene DNA, was proposed to be the target of trimethylation, facilitating heterochromatinization and excision of IESs not protected by 27 nt macRNAs in the ciliate *Stylonychia* (135).

We annotated the four core histones, H2A, H2B, H3 and H4, in *B. stoltei* using the domain models from Histone DB (v2.0) (Fig. S11). We found eleven putative H2A, five H2B, eleven H3 and five H4 histone proteins. Histone H2A forms dimers with histone H2B and histone H3 forms dimers with histone H4 (136). The H2B and H4 histones are known to be more conserved in comparison to H2A and H3 across several eukaryotic lineages (136). The trend of greater diversity in homologs of H2A and H3 in other eukaryotic lineages is also preserved in *Blepharisma*, where there are twice as many H2A homologs as those of H2B and almost twice as many H3 homologs as those of H4.

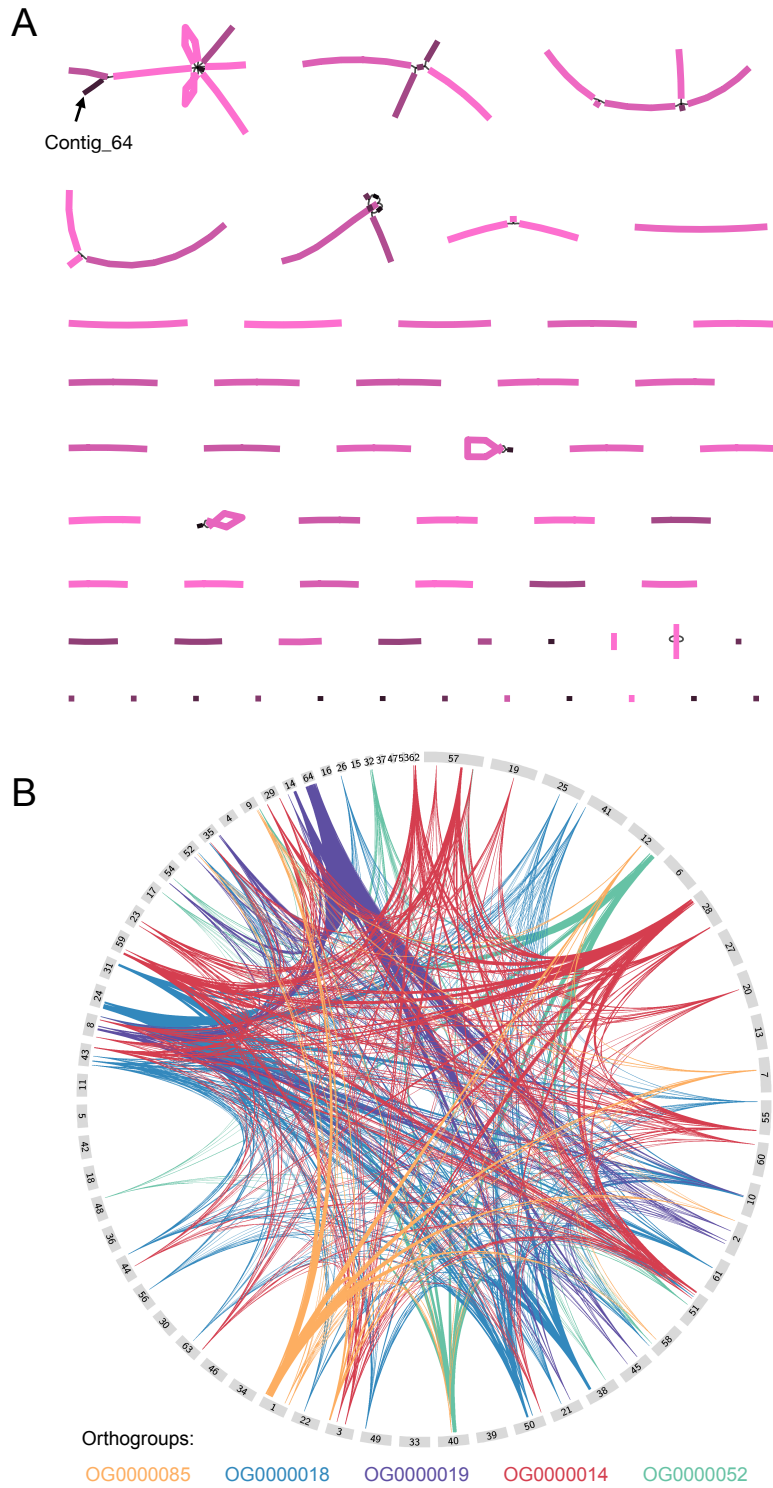
Unlike *Paramecium tetraurelia* and *Tetrahymena thermophila*, which have longer, divergent histone H3's proposed to be centromeric (137), i.e, CenH3, we did not observe such histones in *Blepharisma*. Both of the longer *Blepharisma* histone H3's have unusual N-terminal domains (VIT and VWA\_3, PF08487 and PF13768, respectively). In the PFAM database (34.0) the pairing of these two domains exclusively without any other domains represents the most common domain architectures for both. Searches of UniProt reveal that this domain pair is common in eukaryotes and bacteria, but it is not known what role they play in combination (138). Furthermore, the pair of proteins with the VIT-VWA\_3 domain pair represent the most weakly expressed histone H3 domain-containing proteins in *Blepharisma*.

Since substantial upregulation of certain histone variants occurs during development in both *Oxytricha* and *Stylonychia*, including during the period of genome editing (115, 135, 139), we examined the patterns of expression during *Blepharisma* development. Among the *Blepharisma* histones, certain candidates of three of the core histones H2A, H2B and H3 are constitutively expressed at similar levels throughout the cycle of sexual reproduction, while others are upregulated at timepoints corresponding to different stages of meiosis (6 h and 14 h timepoints) and also subsequently during new MAC development. The patterns of expression observed suggest that even the *Blepharisma* genome encodes variants that are likely to have a range of different functions, including in genome editing and likely also during DNA amplification in the developing new MAC. Histone H4, in contrast, appears to be expressed at relatively similar levels throughout conjugation. This constitutive expression of histone H4 is a characteristic shared among eukaryotes, which lack functional variants due their highly conserved constitution, a trait suggested to be favored by the greater necessity of this histone to maintain several protein-protein contacts with the other three histones (136).

#### **PiggyBac homologs in other heterotrichs, but not the oligohymenophorean, *Ichthyophthirius multifiliis***

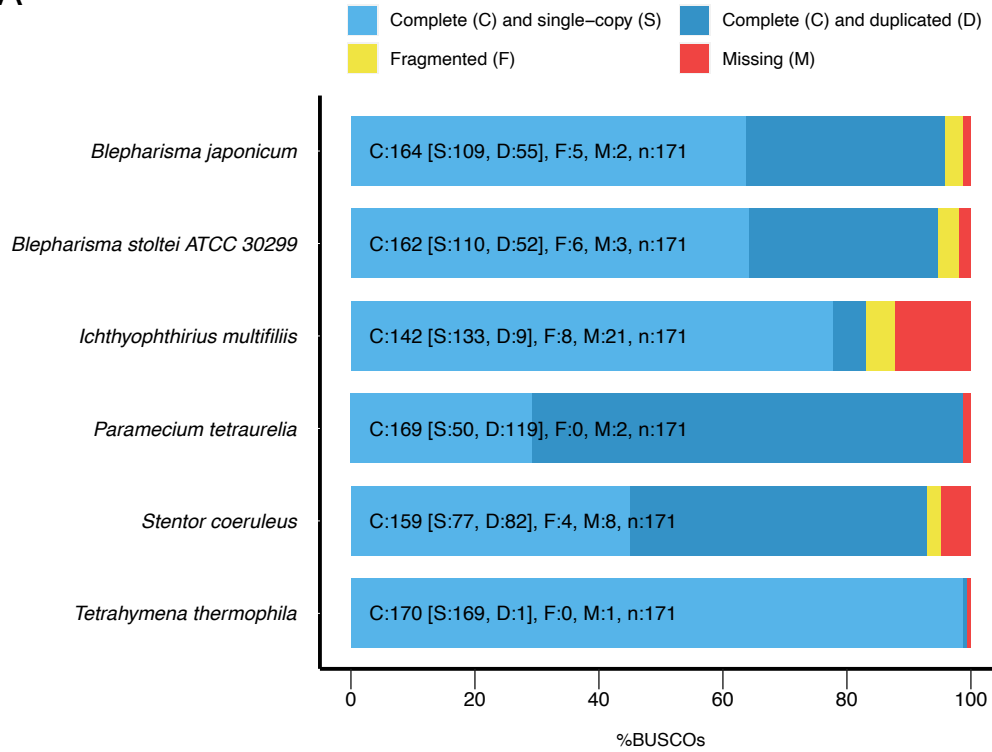
PiggyMac homologs are also present in other heterotrich ciliates but have not yet been described because of genome assembly or annotation challenges. Using BPgm as a query sequence, we found convincing homologs containing the conserved catalytic DDD-motif in a genome assembly of the heterotrichous ciliate *Condylostoma magnum* (TBLASTN e-value  $2e-24$  to  $2e-37$ ). All the *C. magnum* PiggyMac homologs have a complete DDD-catalytic triad. While we failed to detect the DDE\_Tnp\_1\_7 domain in predicted genes of the heterotrich *Stentor coeruleus*, we detected relatively weak adjacent TBLASTN matches split across two frames in its draft MAC genome (e-value  $7e-15$ ; SteCoe\_contig\_741 positions 6558-5475). After joining ORFs corresponding to this region and translating them, we obtained a more convincing DDE\_Tnp\_1\_7 match with HMMER3 (e-value  $2e-24$ ). This either corresponds to a pseudogene or a poorly assembled genomic region.

In addition, we searched for PiggyMac homologs in the MAC genome of the pathogenic oligohymenophorean ciliate *Ichthyophthirius multifiliis* (140). TBLASTN searches using the *T. thermophila* Tpb2 as a query returned no hits. A HMMER search using hmmscan with a six-frame translation of the *I. multifiliis* MAC genome against the PFAM-A database also did not return any matches with independent E-values (i-E-value) less than 1. We note that based on BUSCO analyses the *I. multifiliis* genome appears to be less complete than other ciliates we examined (Fig. S2A). So, a better genome assembly will be needed to investigate the possibility that PiggyBac homologs are encoded elsewhere in this MAC genome.

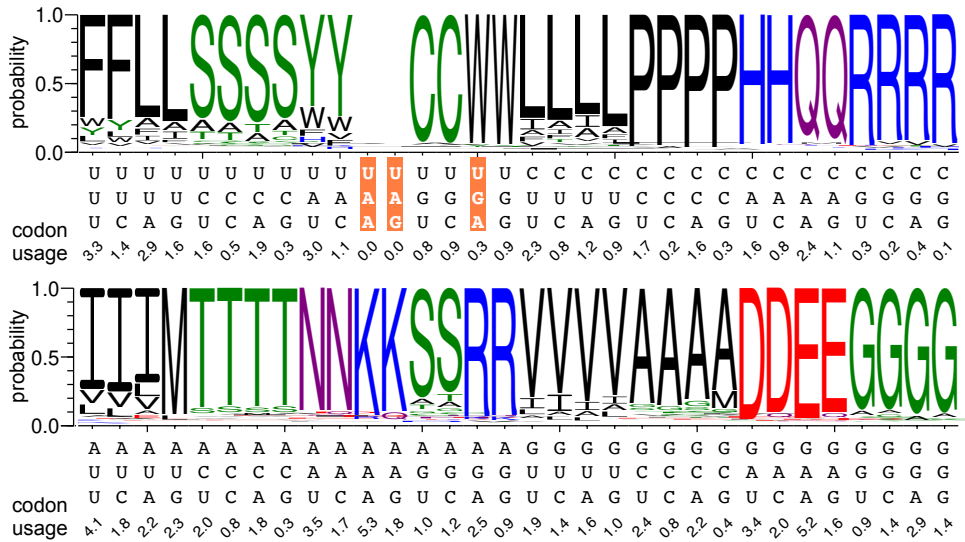


**Fig. S1.** *B. stoltei* ATCC 30299 MAC genome orthogroups and assembly graph. (A) Bandage (141) representation of Flye 2.8.1 assembly graph. Edges corresponding to contigs are colored by coverage (brightest pink = 160×, black=0×). (B) Clustered orthogroups (Data S2) in the *B. stoltei* MAC genome.

A



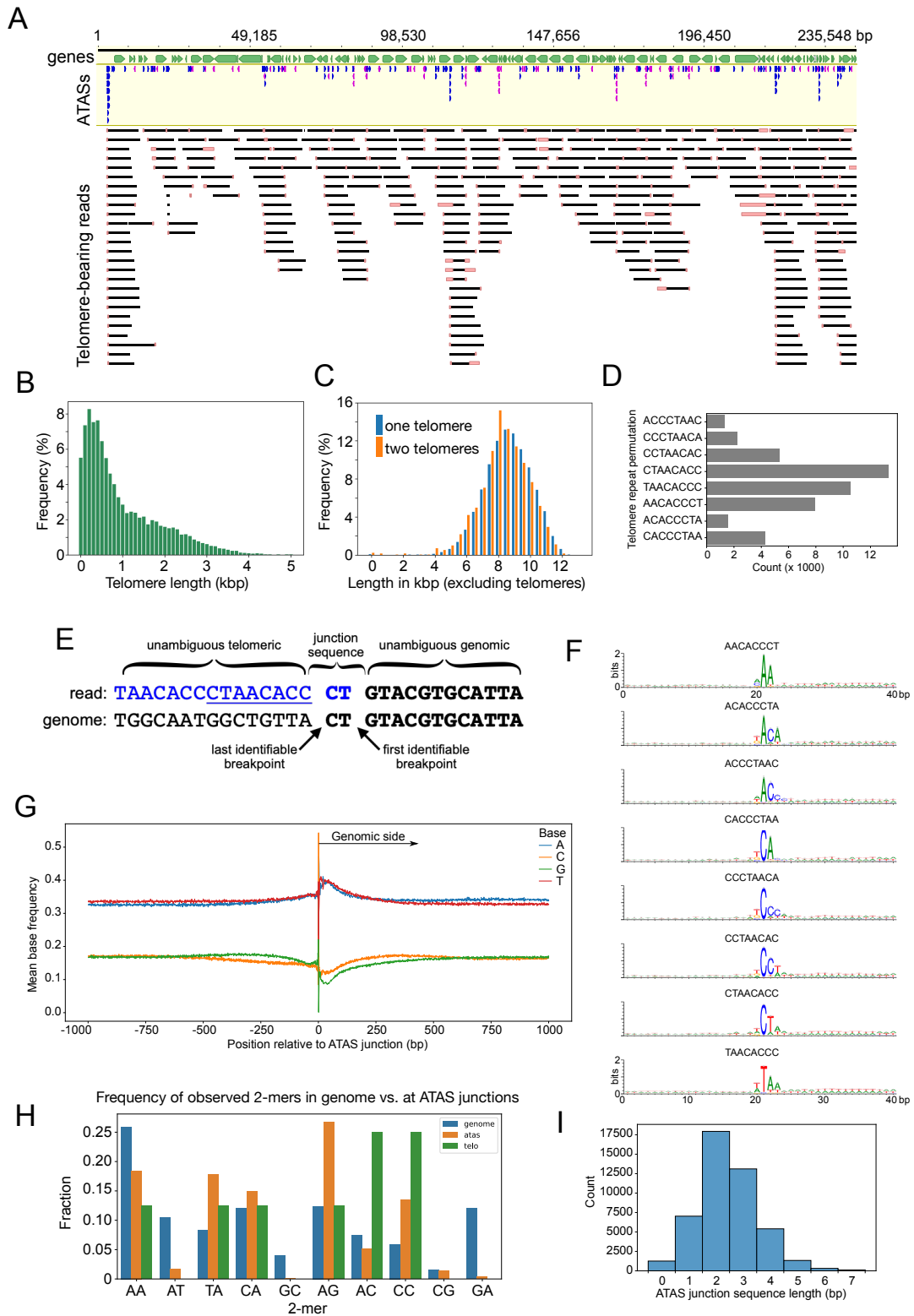
B



**Fig. S2.** Analysis of assembly completeness and genetic code. (A) Completeness of the *B. stoltei* ATCC 30299 MAC assembly was estimated by the percentage of BUSCOs found in the assembly with reference to the OrthoDB v10 alveolate database (142). The nature of the ortholog matches is indicated by characters followed by counts: C (complete orthologs) - light blue, D (duplicated orthologs) - dark blue, F (fragmented orthologs) - yellow and M (missing orthologs) - red. (B) PORC genetic code prediction for *B. stoltei* ATCC 30299 MAC genome; codons that are stops in the standard genetic code are highlighted in orange.



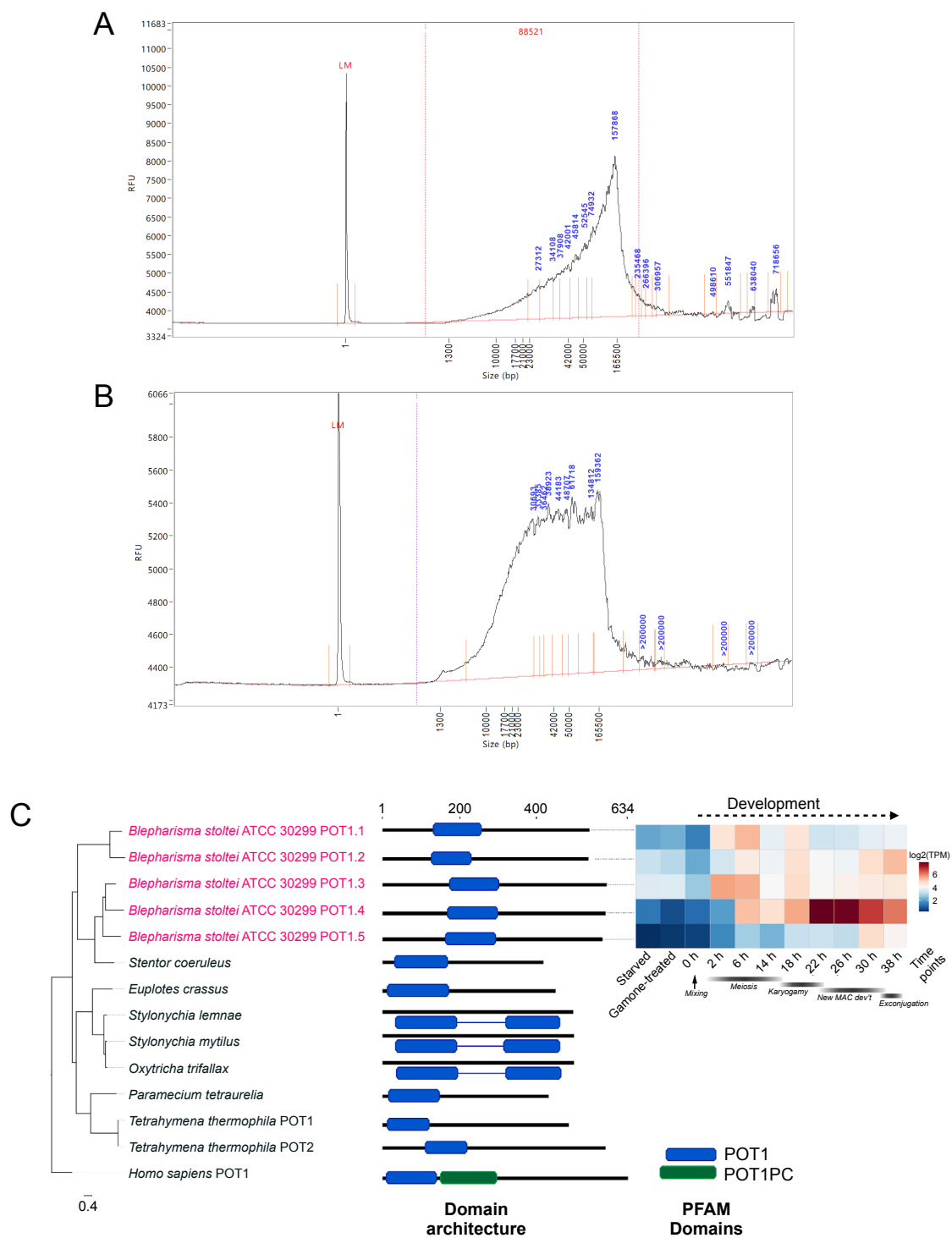
-7 or -6 (counting from the 3'-most base which is -1). The number of introns underlying the logos are indicated to the right. (G) Distribution of intron splicing fractions of introns according to intron lengths. (H) Sample of RNA-seq reads mapped to a GT-GG intron from gene BSTOLATCC\_MAC21551 (Contig\_57.g761). Translation in alternative reading frames downstream of the predicted intron leads to premature stop codons soon after the intron.



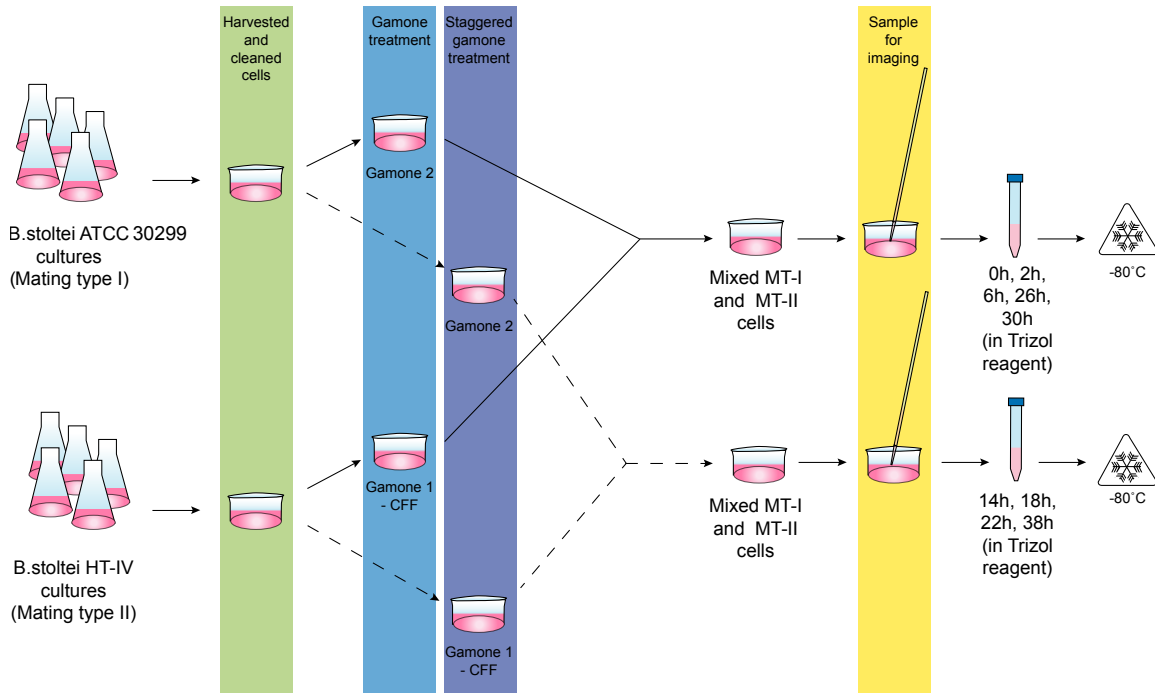
**Fig. S4.** Properties of minichromosomes, telomeres, and alternative telomere addition sites. (A) Mapping of a subset telomere-containing HiFi reads to a *B. stoltei* MAC genome contig region, with alternative telomere addition sites (ATASs) shown by blue (5') or mauve (3') arrows. Pink bars at read ends indicate soft-masking, typically of telomeric repeats. (B) Length distribution of



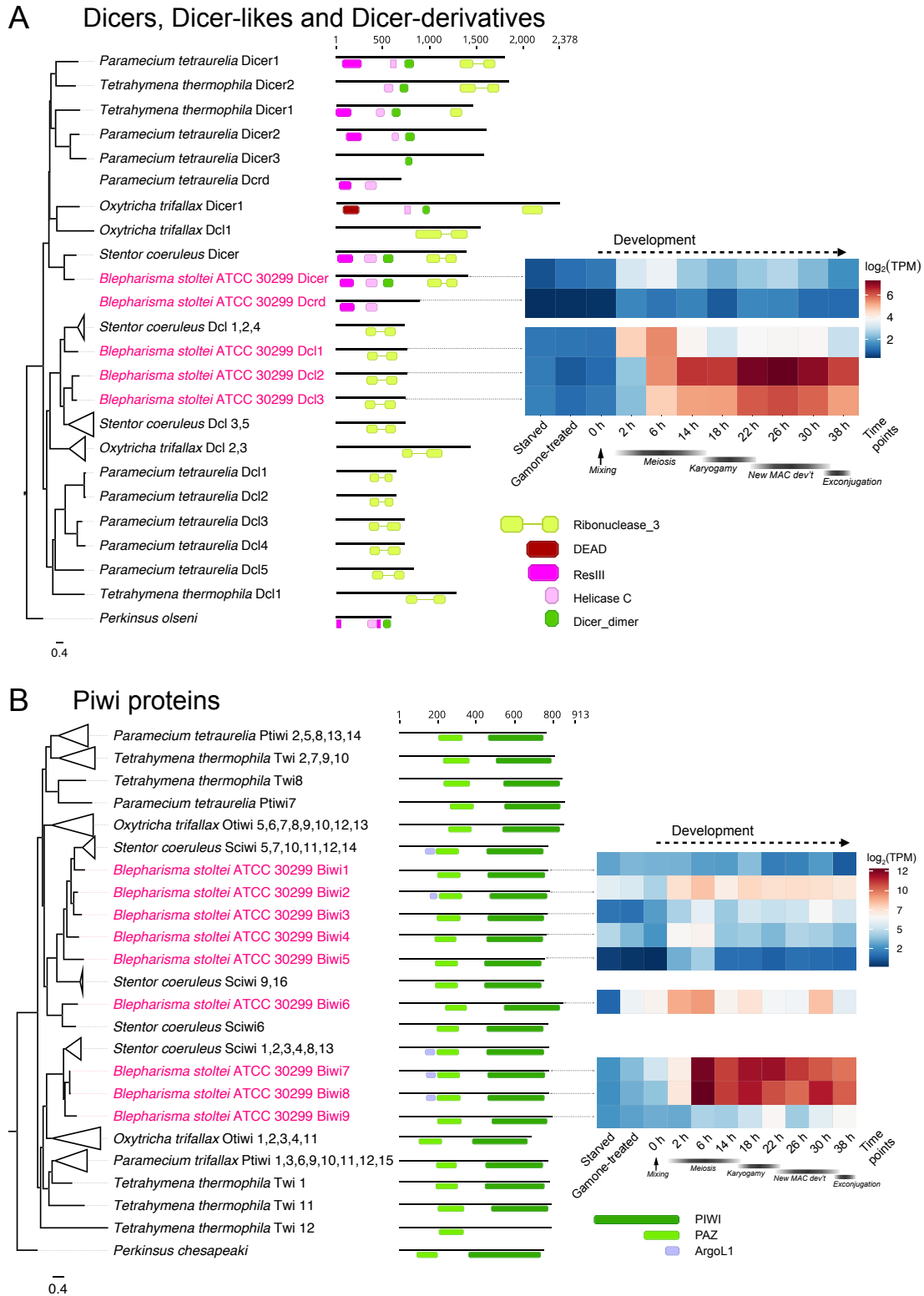
telomeres of telomere-bearing HiFi reads. (C) Length distribution of HiFi reads delimited by telomeres. (D) Counts of each telomere repeat permutation at ATAS junctions (last identifiable breakpoint). (E) Diagram of a telomere-bearing read mapped onto genome reference at an ATAS. Sequence which is ambiguously chromosomal or telomeric is “junction sequence”; junction coordinate which maximizes telomere repeat length on the read is the “first identifiable breakpoint”; the coordinate maximizing alignment length to reference is the “last identifiable breakpoint”. The last telomeric unit permutation at the last identifiable breakpoint is underlined (length 8 bp). (F) Sequence logos of chromosomal sequence at ATAS junctions, sorted by which permutation of the telomeric repeat is present (plot labels). Logos are aligned to the “last identifiable breakpoint” between positions 20 and 21; telomeric repeats on telomere-bearing reads begin to the left of the breakpoint. (G) Mean base frequencies in +/- 1 kbp flanking ATAS junctions. (H) Frequencies of 2-mers in whole genome (blue), in telomeres (green), and at ATAS junctions (chromosomal side after last identifiable breakpoint, orange). (I) Histogram of junction sequence lengths for ATASs in *B. stoltei*.



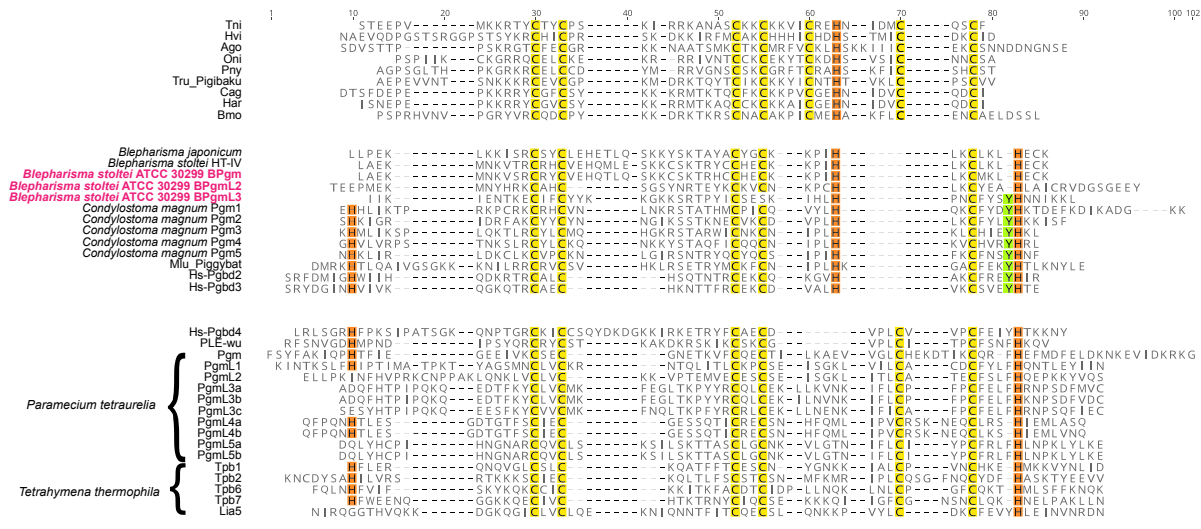
**Fig. S5.** Femto Pulse analyses of *B. stoltei* MAC DNA and POT1 phylogeny. (A) Length distribution of input MAC DNA sizes prior to fragmentation and library preparation (Femto Pulse; LM = lower maker) - replicate 1. RFU=relative fluorescent units. (B) Length distribution of input MAC DNA sizes prior to fragmentation and library preparation (Femto Pulse; LM = lower maker) - replicate 2. (C) POT1 paralog phylogeny, PFAM domain architecture, and gene expression in *Blepharisma*. Diagram elements as described in Fig. 5B.



**Fig. S6.** Experimental approach for conjugation RNA-seq time series. Complementary mating type strains of *Blepharisma stoltei* were harvested and cleaned by starving overnight. The cleaned cultures were treated in a time-staggered format, with gamones of the complementary mating type, where gamone 2 was a solution of the synthetic gamone 2 calcium salt and gamone 1 was provided as the cell-free fluid (CFF) harvested from mating-type I cells. Two sets of time-staggered gamone-treated cultures were used for the time series. Set I, indicated by the solid line, was mixed and used to observe and collect samples at 0 hours, 2 hours, 6 hours, 26 hours and 30 hours after mixing. Set II, indicated by the dashed lines, was mixed and used to observe and collect samples at 14 hours, 18 hours, 22 hours and 38 hours after mixing. Test tubes indicate Trizol samples prepared for RNA-extraction which were stored at -80 °C before processing. Cells collected for imaging were obtained shortly before the remainder were transferred into Trizol.

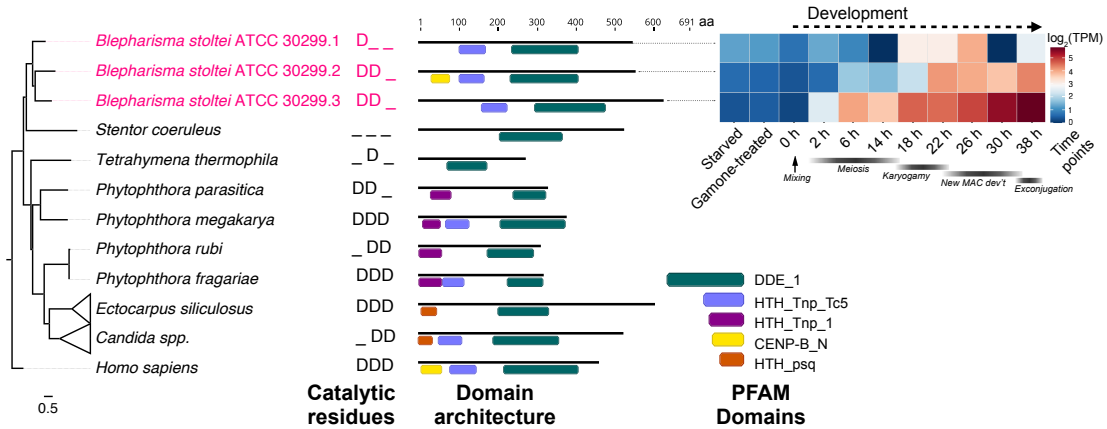


**Fig. S7.** Small RNA-related proteins in *Blepharisma stoltei* ATCC 30299. (A) ResIII, Helicase\_c and Ribonuclease\_3 domain phylogeny with PFAM domain architecture and gene expression heatmap for *Blepharisma*. (B) PIWI domain phylogeny with PFAM domain architecture and gene expression heatmap for *Blepharisma*

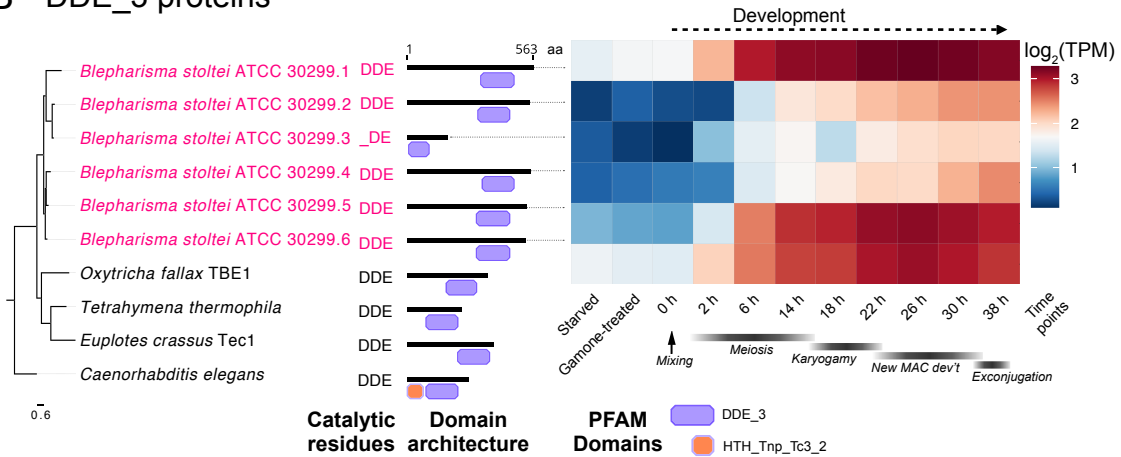


**Fig. S8.** Cysteine-rich domains of PiggyBac homologs. PBLE transposases: Ago (*Aphis gossypii*); Bmo (*Bombyx mori*); Cag (*Ctenoplosia agnata*); Har (*Helicoverpa armigera*); Hvi (*Heliothis virescens*); PB-Tni (*Trichoplosia ni*); Mlu (PiggyBat from *Myotis lucifugus*); PLE-wu (*Spodoptera frugiperda*). Domesticated PGBD transposases: Oni (*Oreochromis niloticus*); Pny (*Pundamilia nyererei*); Lia5, Tpb1, Tpb2, Tpb6 and Tpb7 (*Tetrahymena thermophila*); Pgm, PgmL1, PgmL2, PgmL3a/b/c, PgmL4a/b, PgmL5a/b (*Paramecium tetraurelia*); Tru (*Takifugu rubripes*); Pgbd2, Pgbd3 and Pgbd4 (*Homo sapiens*).

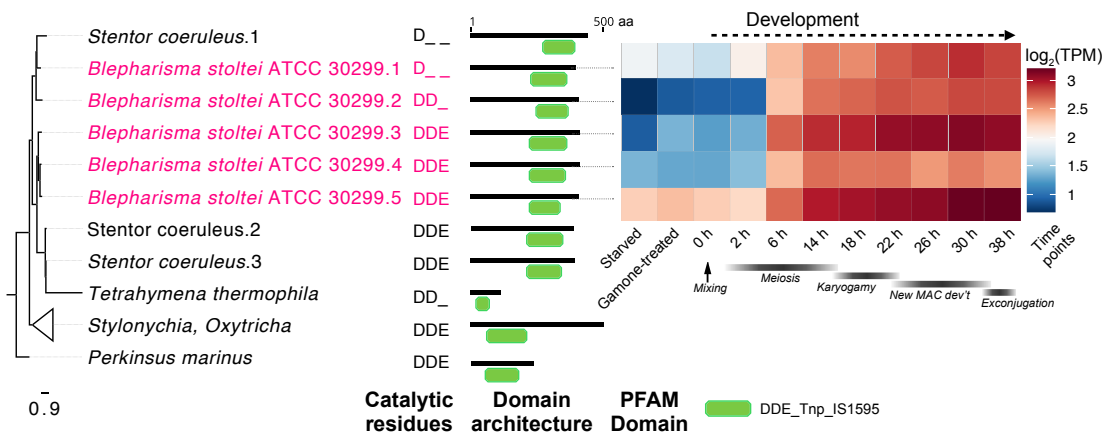
### A DDE\_1 proteins



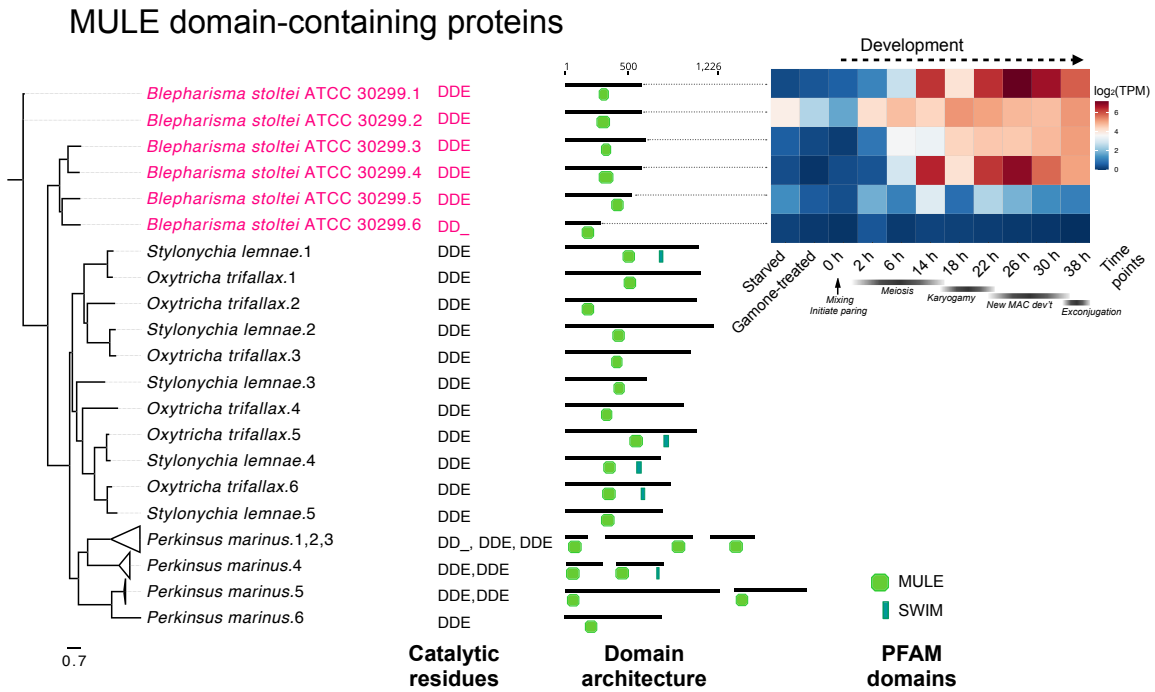
### B DDE\_3 proteins



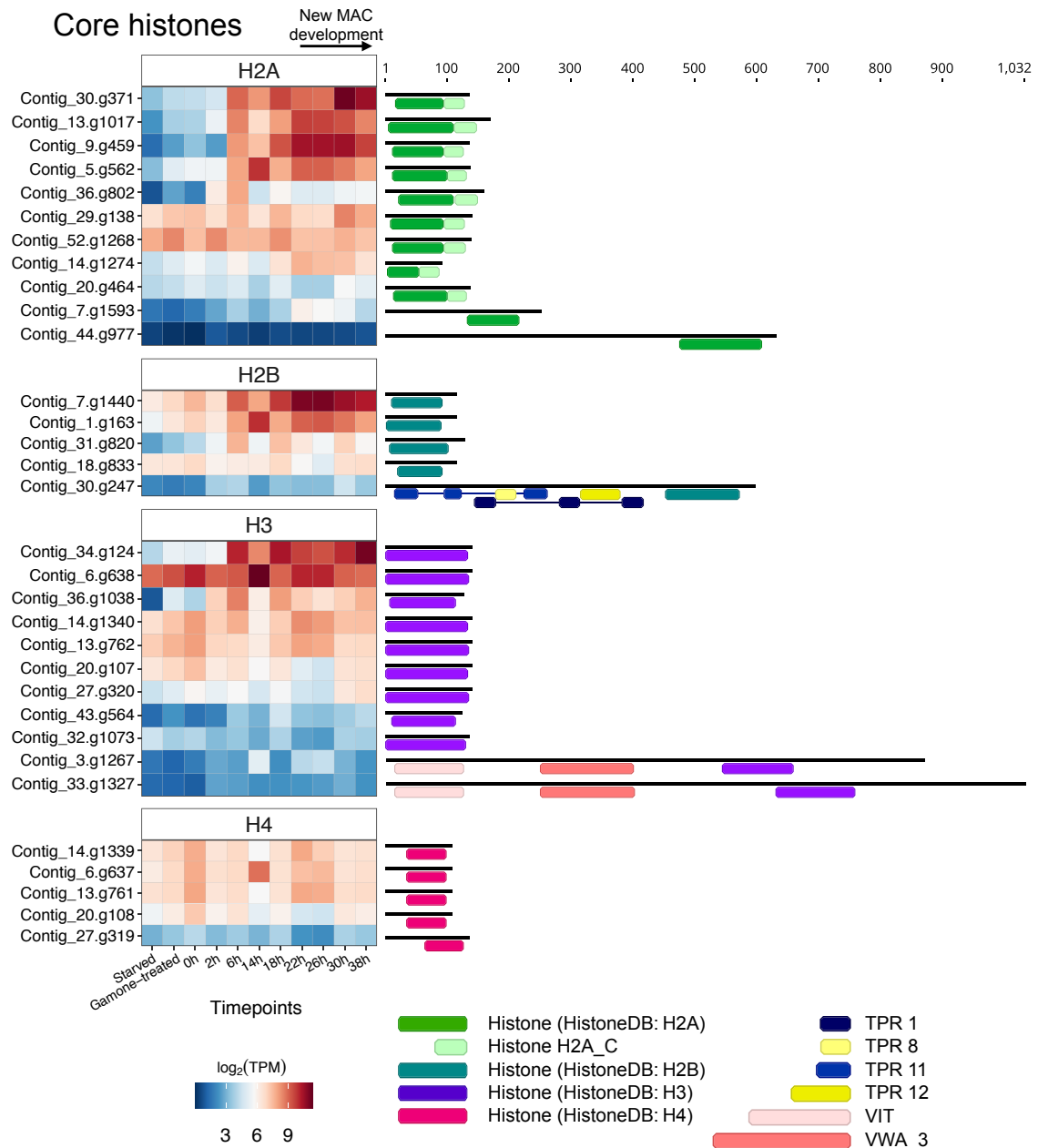
### C DDE\_Tnp\_IS1595 proteins



**Fig. S9.** DDE\_1, DDE\_3 and DDE\_Tnp\_IS1595 domain-containing proteins in *Blepharisma stoltei* ATCC 30299. (A) DDE\_1 domain phylogeny with PFAM domain architecture and gene expression heatmap for *Blepharisma*. (B) DDE\_3 domain phylogeny with PFAM domain architecture and gene expression heatmap for *Blepharisma*. (C) DDE\_Tnp\_IS1595 domain phylogeny with PFAM domain architecture and gene expression heatmap for *Blepharisma*.



**Fig. S10.** MULE domain transposases in *Blepharisma stoltei* ATCC 30299. MULE domain phylogeny with PFAM domain architecture and gene expression heatmap.



**Fig. S11.** Histones and histone-domain-containing proteins in *Blepharisma stoltei* ATCC 30299. Gene expression heatmaps are shown as in previous figures, are clustered according to major histone type as classified using HistoneDB domain models. Domains from PFAM and HistoneDB are shown to the right.



**Table S1.** Citations for genome properties from Fig. 2.

Species	Genome size (Mb)	Genome architecture	Genes (zygosity)	Codon reassignments
<i>Blepharisma stoltei</i>	41	Minichromosomes	25,726 (n)	UGA -> W
<i>Stentor coeruleus</i>	77 <sup>2</sup>	?	31,426 (?) <sup>2</sup>	Standard genetic code <sup>2</sup>
<i>Paramecium tetraurelia</i>	72 <sup>3</sup>	Chromosomes <sup>3, 4</sup>	39,642 (n) <sup>3</sup>	UAA, UAG -> Q <sup>1</sup>
<i>Tetrahymena thermophila</i>	103 <sup>5</sup>	Chromosomes <sup>6</sup>	26,258 (n) <sup>5</sup>	UAA, UAG -> Q <sup>1</sup>
<i>Euplotes octocarinatus</i>	88 <sup>7</sup>	Nanochromosomes <sup>8</sup>	29,076 (?) <sup>7</sup>	UGA -> C <sup>9</sup>
<i>Stylonychia lemnae</i>	52 <sup>10</sup>	Nanochromosomes <sup>10</sup>	15,102 (2n) <sup>10</sup>	UAA, UAG -> Q <sup>1</sup>
<i>Oxytricha trifallax</i>	50 <sup>11</sup>	Nanochromosomes <sup>11</sup>	18,400 (2n) <sup>11</sup>	UAA, UAG -> Q <sup>1</sup>
<i>Perkinsus olseni</i>	63 <sup>12</sup>	Chromosomes <sup>12</sup>	17,342 (4n) <sup>12</sup>	Standard genetic code <sup>12</sup>

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**Table S2.** Comparison of *Blepharisma stoltei* ATCC 30299 MAC genome assemblies.

<b>Assembly</b>	<b>Flye (v2.7) Replicate 1</b>	<b>Flye (v2.7) Replicate 2</b>	<b>Flye (v2.7) Combined</b>	<b>Flye (v2.8) Combined</b>	<b>Final assembly</b>
Contigs	89	86	74	72	64 (excluding mitogenome)
Mean coverage (from flye.log)	76	70	145	145	NA
%GC	33.3	33.3	33.4	32.9	33.6
Longest contig (bp)	2,036,921	1,188,116	1,541,963	1,608,201	1,514,878
Assembly size (bp)	42,701,284	43,066,385	43,062,848	42,982,242	41,464,486
N50	738,771	757,357	799,426	817,639	795,340
Two telomeres	38	37	36	16	64
One telomere	36	36	25	32	0
Zero telomeres	15	13	13	24	0









**Table S5.** Substitution rates between *Paramecium tetraurelia* PiggyMac-like genes and PiggyMac (Reference gene: PGM - PTET.51.1.G0490162).

<b>Gene abbreviation</b>	<b><i>P. tetraurelia</i> gene ID</b>	<b>d<sub>N</sub>/d<sub>S</sub></b>	<b>d<sub>N</sub></b>	<b>d<sub>S</sub></b>
PGML2	PTET.51.1.G0380073	0.0773	1.1082	14.3409
PGML3a	PTET.51.1.G0010374	0.1245	1.0335	8.3021
PGML3b	PTET.51.1.G0080308	0.0404	1.1559	28.6183
PGML3c	PTET.51.1.G0020217	0.1508	1.0885	7.216
PGML4a	PTET.51.1.G0340197	0.1161	0.9593	8.2612
PGML4b	PTET.51.1.G0480099	0.2535	1.1062	4.3641
PGML5a	PTET.51.1.G0570051	0.0141	1.1514	81.7442
PGML5b	PTET.51.1.G0510172	0.0138	1.1642	84.3893

**Table S6.** Substitution rates between *Paramecium tetraurelia* and *Paramecium octaurelia* PiggyMac and PiggyMac-likes.

Gene abbreviation	<i>P. tetraurelia</i> gene ID	<i>P. octaurelia</i> gene ID	d <sub>N</sub> /d <sub>S</sub>	d <sub>N</sub>	d <sub>S</sub>
PGM	PTET.51.1.G0490162	POCT.K8.1.G71800027 70580243	0.0234	0.0073	0.3106
PGML2	PTET.51.1.G0380073	POCT.K8.1.G71800027 70130227	0.0180	0.0045	0.2507
PGML3a	PTET.51.1.G0010374	POCT.K8.1.G71800027 70510320	0.0229	0.0082	0.3600
PGML3b	PTET.51.1.G0080308	POCT.K8.1.G71800027 70810134	0.0818	0.0245	0.2993
PGML3c	PTET.51.1.G0020217	POCT.K8.1.G71800027 70610330	0.1052	0.0365	0.3469
PGML4a	PTET.51.1.G0340197	POCT.K8.1.G71800027 70180100	0.0425	0.0139	0.3262
PGML4b	PTET.51.1.G0480099	POCT.K8.1.G71800027 70140101	0.0627	0.0153	0.2445
PGML5a	PTET.51.1.G0570051	POCT.K8.1.G71800027 70010048	0.0393	0.0110	0.2800
PGML5b	PTET.51.1.G0510172	POCT.K8.1.G71800027 69800173	0.0596	0.0123	0.2071

Observed d<sub>N</sub>/d<sub>S</sub> values for orthologous pairs of PiggyMac and PiggyMac-like proteins from *P. tetraurelia* and *P. octaurelia*.



**Table S7.** *Blepharisma* PiggyMac-like substitution rates (Reference gene: Contig\_49.g1063).

<b>Gene ID</b>	<b>ENA accession</b>	<b>d<sub>N</sub>/d<sub>S</sub></b>	<b>d<sub>N</sub></b>	<b>d<sub>S</sub></b>
Contig_3.g998	BSTOLATCC_MAC9455	0.0093	0.7106	76.4367
Contig_13.g879	BSTOLATCC_MAC2191	0.0551	0.8871	16.0867
Contig_13.g927	BSTOLATCC_MAC2239	0.0261	0.5547	21.2267
Contig_17.g391	BSTOLATCC_MAC3091	0.0087	0.8394	96.9223
Contig_17.g392	BSTOLATCC_MAC3092	0.0076	0.8195	107.6866
Contig_60.g827	BSTOLATCC_MAC23745	0.1351	0.8401	6.2209
Contig_61.g932	BSTOLATCC_MAC23855	0.0836	0.7727	9.2391
cORF_Contig_17. g3	BSTOLATCC_MIC7875	0.0765	0.653	8.5395
cORF_Contig_17. g4/5	BSTOLATCC_MIC7876 / BSTOLATCC MIC7877	0.0068	0.5852	85.9998
cORF_Contig_21. g21	BSTOLATCC_MIC14766	0.0697	0.4729	6.7874
cORF_Contig_39. g3	BSTOLATCC_MIC33289	0.2763	1.2445	4.5036
cORF_Contig_39. g3/4	BSTOLATCC_MIC33289 / BSTOLATCC_MIC33290	0.007	0.6817	97.5885

**Table S8.** Comparison of *Blepharisma stoltei* ATCC 30299 intron prediction performance.

	<b>AUGUSTUS*</b>	<b>Intronarrator**</b>
<b>True positives (TP) (real introns)</b>	45	61
<b>False positives (FP) (fake introns)</b>	62	0
<b>False negatives (FN) (missed introns)</b>	15	2
<b>Sensitivity: TP/(TP+FN)</b>	0.75	0.97
<b>Precision: TP/(TP+FP)</b>	0.42	1.00

\* Parameters/source code adjusted as for *Stentor* (66).

\*\* AUGUSTUS changes/parameters as in Ref. 66.

**Table S9.** Noncanonical introns (15 or 16 bp) in *Blepharisma stoltei* ATCC 30299.

Intron with 3 bp exon flanks	Length (bp)	Intronnarrator/ AUGUSTUS gene ID	ENA gene accession	Spliced fraction
AAGgc <del>ca</del> aatttttatttagATT	15	Contig_10.g615	BSTOLATCC_MAC443	0.827
AAGgc <del>ca</del> aactataatttagAGC	15	Contig_11.g1292	BSTOLATCC_MAC1123	0.73
CGAtatgaggtttacaaatTTA	15	Contig_36.g880	BSTOLATCC_MAC12062	0.623
AAGgc <del>ca</del> aaaatttaaataagAGC	15	Contig_43.g513	BSTOLATCC_MAC15266	0.205
CAGgc <del>ca</del> aattttttatttagAAG	15	Contig_46.g452	BSTOLATCC_MAC16844	0.335
ATGgc <del>ca</del> agctctatatagAAT	15	Contig_49.g1050	BSTOLATCC_MAC17453	0.797
TTActtctataaatacacCAA	15	Contig_54.g273	BSTOLATCC_MAC19826	0.537
AAGgc <del>ca</del> aaaaatatatagGTT	15	Contig_58.g1437	BSTOLATCC_MAC22241	0.843
GAGgc <del>ca</del> aattttttacgtagATT	15	Contig_59.g298	BSTOLATCC_MAC22578	0.691
TGAggt <del>aa</del> aattataactagGGT	16	Contig_2.g441	BSTOLATCC_MAC4446	0.54
AAGgt <del>aa</del> aatttcccagcaggAAT	16	Contig_3.g1280	BSTOLATCC_MAC9737	0.441
CCcttgctcccctcagtagTTA	16	Contig_6.g757	BSTOLATCC_MAC22759	0.477
ATGgt <del>aa</del> aactcacaattaggCTT	16	Contig_7.g1329	BSTOLATCC_MAC24915	0.283
CACgt <del>aa</del> aaatacaattaggAGT	16	Contig_12.g347	BSTOLATCC_MAC1650	0.419
TATggt <del>aa</del> aatttggtatcagGGA	16	Contig_13.g1129	BSTOLATCC_MAC2441	0.326
ATGtaatttacc <del>aa</del> atagggCTA	16	Contig_19.g1089	BSTOLATCC_MAC3792	0.867
ACAg <del>ta</del> aagatttaattaggCCT	16	Contig_19.g1253	BSTOLATCC_MAC3956	0.525
TGAg <del>ta</del> aagatacaagtaggAGG	16	Contig_21.g736	BSTOLATCC_MAC5692	0.644
AGGtaattgg <del>ca</del> aatagggATA	16	Contig_24.g464	BSTOLATCC_MAC7001	0.415
AAGgt <del>aa</del> aattacaagcaggAAA	16	Contig_25.g797	BSTOLATCC_MAC7334	0.764
CAAg <del>ta</del> aatttttcgaataggAAC	16	Contig_38.g1424	BSTOLATCC_MAC12612	0.78
AAGgt <del>aa</del> aatctctattaaggACA	16	Contig_42.g2	BSTOLATCC_MAC14754	0.602
AAGgc <del>ca</del> aattctctaggtagGAG	16	Contig_46.g332	BSTOLATCC_MAC16724	0.286
AGAggt <del>aa</del> atgcataactagGGT	16	Contig_47.g486	BSTOLATCC_MAC16883	0.648
CCAg <del>ta</del> aagtttctatttatGTC	16	Contig_55.g452	BSTOLATCC_MAC20010	0.715
AACgt <del>aa</del> aatttgtaactaggGGT	16	Contig_57.g559	BSTOLATCC_MAC21349	0.7
AAAg <del>ta</del> aagagaccattaggTTA	16	Contig_57.g761	BSTOLATCC_MAC21551	0.726
ATTggt <del>aa</del> tataggataattagGAA	16	Contig_60.g487	BSTOLATCC_MAC23405	0.376
TATacatg <del>tt</del> tttaataatTGC	16	Contig_61.g1057	BSTOLATCC_MAC23980	0.278
AGAg <del>ta</del> at <del>tt</del> tacaaataggCTA	16	Contig_63.g352	BSTOLATCC_MAC24681	0.585

Predicted introns are in lower case; flanking exons are in upper case. Different possible donor and acceptor site pairs of bases are colored. “Spliced fraction” indicates the efficiency of splicing calculated from Intronnarrator.

**Table S10.** Tree topology tests with ciliate PiggyBac homologs.

Tree	logL	deltaL	bp-RELL	p-KH	p-SH	c-ELW	p-AU
Unconstrained	-97,183.2	0	0.536 +	0.691 +	1 +	0.535 +	0.688 +
Monophyly of ALL ciliate PiggyBacs	-97,536.0	352.77	0	0	0	-2.98E-82	6.38E-59 -
Monophyly of ALL ciliate PiggyBacs + 4 non-ciliate interlopers	-97,543.7	360.49	0	0	0	-3.73E-101	7.36E-59 -
Monophyly of ciliate PiggyBacs - Tbp7 + 4 non-ciliate interlopers	-97,199.2	15.98	0.211 +	0.309 +	0.68 +	0.212 +	0.347 +
Monophyly of ciliate PiggyBacs - Tbp7 - 4 non-ciliate interlopers	-97,200.0	16.79	0.253 +	0.324 +	0.68 +	0.253 +	0.363 +

"Non-ciliate interlopers": PBLs PiggyBac-2 and PiggyBac-5 from *Chondrus crispus*, PiggyBac-1 from *Paracoccidoides brasiliensis* and PiggyBac-1 from *Mucor circinelloides*

deltaL : logL difference from the maximal log likelihood in the set.

bp-RELL : bootstrap proportion using REll method (Kishino et al. 1990).

p-KH : p-value of one-sided Kishino-Hasegawa test (1989).

p-SH : p-value of Shimodaira-Hasegawa test (2000).

c-ELW : Expected Likelihood Weight (Strimmer & Rambaut 2002).

p-AU : p-value of approximately unbiased (AU) test (Shimodaira, 2002).

Plus signs following numbers denote the 95% confidence sets.

Minus signs following numbers denote significant exclusion.

All tests performed 10,000 resamplings using the REll method.

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