TITLE

Population scale mapping of novel transposable element diversity reveals links to gene regulation and epigenomic variation

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ABSTRACT

Variation in the presence or absence of transposable element (TE) insertions is a significant source of inter-individual genetic variation. Here, we identified 23,095 TE presence/absence variants between 216 wild Arabidopsis accessions. Most variants are rare, however over two thirds of the common alleles identified were not in linkage disequilibrium with nearby SNPs, implicating TE variants as a source of missing heritability. Some TE variants were associated with altered expression of nearby genes, with potential functional consequences including decreased pathogen resistance. The majority of inter-accession DNA methylation differences were associated with nearby TE variants, indicating an important role in facilitating epigenomic variation. Examination of TE regulation following crosses between parents with differential TE content revealed that absence of individual TEs from the paternal genome is associated with DNA demethylation within maternal copies of these TEs in the embryo, suggesting parental TE variation may enable activation of previously silent TEs.

INTRODUCTION

Transposable elements (TEs) are mobile genetic elements present in nearly all studied organisms, and make up a large fraction of most eukaryotic genomes. The two classes of TEs are retrotransposons (class I elements), which transpose via an RNA intermediate requiring a reverse transcription reaction, and DNA transposons (class II elements), which transpose via either a cut-paste or, in the case of Helitrons, a rolling circle mechanism with no RNA intermediate (Wicker et al. 2007). TE activity poses significant mutagenic potential because TE insertion may disrupt essential regions of the genome, and so safeguards have evolved in order to suppress this activity. These safeguards include epigenetic transcriptional silencing mechanisms, chiefly involving the methylation of cytosine nucleotides (DNA methylation) to

produce 5-methylcytosine (mC), a mark that can signal transcriptional silencing of the

methylated locus. In *Arabidopsis thaliana* (Arabidopsis), DNA methylation occurs in three DNA

sequence contexts: mCG, mCHG, and mCHH, where H is any base but G. Establishment of

DNA methylation marks can be carried out by two distinct pathways – the RNA-directed DNA

methylation pathway guided by 24 nucleotide (nt) small RNAs (smRNAs), and the DDM1/CMT2

pathway (Zemach et al. 2013; Matzke and Mosher 2014). A major function of DNA methylation

in Arabidopsis is in the transcriptional silencing of TEs. Loss of DNA methylation due to

mutations in genes essential for DNA methylation establishment and maintenance leads to

expression of previously silent TEs, and sometimes transposition (Mirouze et al. 2009; Miura et

al. 2001; Saze et al. 2003; Lippman et al. 2004; Jeddeloh et al. 1999; Zemach et al. 2013).

TEs are thought to play an important role in evolution, not only because of the disruptive

potential of their transposition. The release of transcriptional and post-transcriptional silencing of

TEs can lead to bursts of TE activity, quickly generating new genetic diversity on which

selection may act (Vitte et al. 2014). TEs may carry regulatory information such as promoters

and transcription factor binding sites, and their mobilization may lead to the creation or

expansion of gene regulatory networks (Hénaff et al. 2014; Bolger et al. 2014; Ito et al. 2011;

Makarevitch et al. 2015). Furthermore, the transposase enzymes required and encoded by TEs

have frequently been domesticated and repurposed as endogenous proteins, such as the

DAYSLEEPER gene in Arabidopsis, derived from a hAT transposase enzyme (Bundock and

Hooykaas 2005). Clearly, the activity of TEs can have widespread and unpredictable effects on

the host genome. However, the identification of TE presence/absence variants in genomes has

remained difficult. It is challenging to identify the structural variants caused by TE mobilization

using current short-read sequencing technologies as these reads are typically mapped to a

reference genome, which has the effect of masking structural changes that may be present.

However, in terms of the number of base pairs affected, a large fraction of genetic differences

between Arabidopsis accessions appear to be due to variation in TE content (Cao et al. 2011).

Therefore identification of TE variants is essential in order to develop a more comprehensive

understanding of the genetic variation that exists between genomes, and of the consequences

of TE movement upon genome and cellular function.

The tools developed previously for identification of novel TE insertion sites have several

limitations. They either require a library of active TE sequences, cannot identify TE absence

variants, or are not designed with population studies in mind (Thung et al. 2014; Robb et al.

2013; Hénaff et al. 2015). In order to accurately map the locations of TE presence/absence

variants with respect to a reference genome, we have developed a novel algorithm, TEPID

(Transposable Element Polymorphism IDentification), which is designed for population studies.

We tested our algorithm using both simulated and real Arabidopsis sequencing data, finding that

TEPID is able to accurately identify TE presence/absence variants with respect to the Col-0

reference genome. We applied our TE analysis method to existing genome resequencing data

for 216 different wild Arabidopsis accessions, and identified widespread TE variation amongst

these accessions (Schmitz et al. 2013). The majority of these TE variants arose recently in

evolutionary times, represent novel genetic variants, and are associated with a variety of

epigenomic and transcriptional variation.

RESULTS

Computational identification of TE presence/absence variation

We developed TEPID, an analysis pipeline capable of detecting TE presence/absence variants

from paired end DNA sequencing data. TEPID integrates split and discordant read mapping

information, read mapping quality, sequencing breakpoints, as well as local variations in

sequencing coverage to identify novel TE presence/absence variants with respect to a

reference TE annotation (Figure 1A; see methods). After TE variant discovery has been

performed, TEPID then includes a second step designed for population studies. This examines

each region of the genome where there was a TE insertion identified in any member of the

group, and checks for evidence of this insertion in each member of the population. In this way,

TEPID leverages TE variant information for a group of related samples to correct false negative

calls within the group. This feature sets TEPID apart from previous similar methods for TE

variant discovery using short read data (Hénaff et al. 2015). Testing of TEPID using simulated

TE variants in the Arabidopsis genome showed that it was able to reliably detect simulated TE

variants (Figure 1B). In order to assess further the accuracy of TE variant discovery using

TEPID, we compared our predicted TE variants identified in the Landsberg *erecta* (L*er*)

accession with the *de novo* assembly reference genome created using long sequencing reads.

Previously published 100 bp paired-end L*er* genome resequencing reads (Schneeberger et al.

2011) were first analyzed using TEPID, enabling identification of 446 TE insertions and 758 TE

absence variants with respect to the Col-0 reference TE annotation (Supplementary File 1).

Reads providing evidence for these variants were then mapped to the L*er* reference genome

that was generated by *de novo* assembly using Pacific Biosciences P5-C3 chemistry with a 20

kb insert library (Chin et al. 2013), using the same alignment parameters as was used to map

reads to the Col-0 reference genome. This resulted in 98.7% of reads being aligned

concordantly to the L*er* reference, whereas 100% aligned discordantly or as split reads to the

Col-0 reference genome (Table 1). To find whether reads mapped to homologous regions in

both the Col-0 and L*er* reference genomes, we conducted a blast search (Camacho et al. 2009)

using the DNA sequence between read pair mapping locations in the L*er* genome against the

Col-0 genome, and found the top blast result for 80% of reads providing evidence for TE

insertions, and 89% of reads providing evidence for TE absence variants in L*er*, to be located

within 200 bp of the TE variant reported by TEPID. We conclude that reads providing evidence

for TE variants map discordantly or as split reads when mapped to the Col-0 reference genome,

but map concordantly to homologous regions of the L*er de novo* assembled reference genome,

indicating that structural variation is present at the sites identified by TEPID, and that this is

resolved in the *de novo* assembled genome.

127 Abundant TE positional variation among natural Arabidopsis populations

We used TEPID to analyze previously published 100 bp paired-end genome resequencing data

for 216 different wild Arabidopsis accessions (Schmitz et al. 2013), and identified 15,007 TE

insertions and 8,088 TE absence variants, totalling 23,095 unique TE variants. In most wild

accessions we identified 300-500 TE insertions (mean = 378; Figure 2 - figure supplement 1A)

and 1,000-1,500 TE absence variants (mean = 1,279; Figure 2 - figure supplement 1B), the

majority of which were shared by two or more accessions (Figure 2 - figure supplement 2). PCR

validations were performed for a random subset of 10 insertions and 10 absence variants in 14

accessions, and confirmed the high accuracy of TE variant discovery using the TEPID package,

with results similar to that observed using simulated data (Figure 1C, D). TE variants were

distributed throughout chromosome 1 in a pattern that is similar to the distribution of all Col-0

TEs, and were enriched in the pericentromeric regions (Figure 2A, figure supplement 3). This

distribution was also similar to that observed for regions of the genome previously identified as

being differentially methylated in all DNA methylation contexts (mCG, mCHG, mCHH) between

the wild accessions (population DMRs) (Schmitz et al. 2013). Furthermore, TE variants were

depleted within genes and DNase I hypersensitivity sites (Sullivan et al. 2014), while they were

enriched in gene flanking regions and within other annotated TEs or pseudogenes (Figure 2B).

We did not observe any enrichment of TE insertions within the *KNOT ENGAGED ELEMENT*

(KEE) regions (Figure 2 - figure supplement 4), indicating that these regions may not act as a

"TE sink" as has been previously proposed (Grob et al. 2014).

Among the identified TE variants, several TE superfamilies were over- or under-

represented compared to the number expected by chance given the overall genomic frequency

of different TE types (Figure 2C; Supplementary Table 1). In particular, TE variants in the

RC/Helitron superfamily were less numerous than expected, with an 11.5% depletion of

RC/Helitron elements in the set of TE variants. TEs belonging to the LTR/Gypsy superfamily

were more variable than expected, with a 7.5% enrichment in the set of TE variants. This was

unlikely to be due to a differing ability of our detection methods to identify TE variants of

different lengths, as the TE variants identified had a similar distribution of lengths as all

Arabidopsis TEs annotated in the Col-0 reference genome (Figure 2 - figure supplement 5).

These enrichments suggest that the RC/Helitron TEs have been relatively dormant in recent

evolutionary history, while the LTR/Gypsy TEs have been more active. At the family level, we

observed similar patterns of TE variant enrichment or depletion (Figure 2 - figure supplement 6;

Supplementary Table 2). As expected, this TE diversity tended to reflect the known genetic

relationships between accessions. We further examined Arabidopsis (Col-0) DNA sequencing

data from a transgenerational stress experiment to investigate the possible minimum number of

generations required for TE variants to arise (Jiang et al. 2014). We identified a single potential

TE insertion in a sample following 10 generations of single-seed descent under high salinity

stress conditions, and no TE variants in the control single-seed descent set. However, without

experimental validation it remains unclear if this represents a true variant. Therefore, we

conclude that TE variants likely arise at a rate less than 1 insertion in 30 generations.

Although thousands of TE variants were identified, it is important to classify their

relationship to other commonly identified sources of genetic variation such as single nucleotide

polymorphisms (SNPs). This comparison can determine if TE variants are often in linkage

disequilibrium with nearby SNPs, or if they are a previously unassessed source of genetic

variation between accessions unlinked to the underlying SNP-based haplotypes. To investigate

this relationship, SNPs previously identified between the wild accessions (Schmitz et al. 2013)

were compared to the presence/absence of individual TE variants. For the 7,300 testable TE

variants in the sample set with a minor allele frequency above 3%, the nearest 300 flanking

SNPs upstream and downstream of the TE insertion site were analyzed for linkage

disequilibrium (LD, r^2; Figure 2D-F; see methods). TE variants were classified as being either

'young', 'mid', or 'old' variants by comparing ranked r^2 values to flanking SNPs against the

median ranked r^2 value for all SNP-SNP comparisons to account for regional variation in LD

(Figure 2D, E). This analysis identified TE variants that were unlinked (young) or linked (old) to

SNPs forming local haplotypes, or were in an intermediate linkage state (mid) with their

surrounding haplotype. The majority (61%) of testable TE variants were largely unlinked to

nearby SNPs, and are therefore predicted to be young variants present in a few divergent

accessions (Figure 2F). In contrast, 29% of TE variants displayed high levels of linkage with

nearby SNPs, and are likely old insertions. TE variants displayed a similar chromosomal

distribution regardless of age classification (Figure 2G). Overall, this analysis revealed an

abundance of previously unexplored genetic variation that exists amongst Arabidopsis

accessions caused by the presence or absence of TEs, and illustrates the importance of

identifying TE variants to capture missing heritability alongside other genetic diversity such as

SNPs.

TE variants affect gene expression

To determine whether the TE variants identified affected nearby gene expression, we compared

the steady state transcript abundance within mature leaf tissue, between accessions with and

without TE insertions, for genes with TE variants located in the 2 kb gene upstream region, 5'

UTR, exon, intron, 3' UTR or 2 kb downstream region (Figure 3). While the steady state

transcript abundance of most genes appeared to be unaffected by the presence of a TE, 45

genes displayed significant differences in transcript abundance linked with the presence of a TE

variant, indicating a functional role for these variants in the local regulation of gene expression

(q-value < 0.001 with greater than 2-fold change in transcript abundance; Figure 3, Table 2). We

did not find any functional category enrichments in this set of differentially expressed genes. It

should be noted that rare TE variants, with a minor allele frequency less than 3%, may also be

associated with a difference in transcript abundance, but were unable to be statistically tested

due to their rarity. Future studies using larger sample sizes may be able to further examine the

frequency at which TE variants impact gene expression.

As both increases and decreases in transcript abundance of nearby genes were

observed for TE variants within each gene feature, it appears to be difficult to predict the impact

a TE variant may have on nearby gene expression. However, gene-level transcript abundance

measurements may fail to identify the potential positional effect of TE variants upon

transcription. To more closely examine changes in transcript abundance associated with TE

variants among the accessions, we inspected a subset of TE variant sites and identified TE

variants that appear to have an impact on transcriptional patterns beyond changes in total

transcript abundance. For example, the presence of a TE within an exon of *AtRLP18*

(AT2G15040) was associated with truncation of the transcripts at the TE insertion site in

accessions possessing the TE variant, as well as silencing of a downstream gene encoding a

leucine-rich repeat protein (AT2G15042) (Figure 4A-D). Both genes have significantly lower

transcript abundance in accessions containing the TE insertion ($p < 5.8 \times 10^{-10}$, Mann-Whitney U

test; Figure 4C). *AtRLP18* is reported to be involved in bacterial resistance, with the disruption

of this gene by T-DNA insertion mediated mutagenesis resulting in increased susceptibility to

the bacterial plant pathogen *Pseudomonas syringae* (Wang et al. 2008). We examined

pathogen resistance phenotype data (Aranzana et al. 2005) for accessions with and without a

TE insertion in the *AtRLP18* exon, and found that accessions containing the TE insertion were

sensitive to infection by *Pseudomonas syringae* transformed with *avrPpH3* genes at a much

higher frequency (Figure 4E). This suggests that the wild accessions identified here to contain a

TE insertion within *AtRLP18* may have an increased susceptibility to certain bacterial

pathogens.

We also observed some TE variants associated with increased expression of nearby

genes. For example, presence of a TE within the upstream region of a gene encoding a

pentatricopeptide repeat (PPR) protein (AT2G01360) was associated with higher steady state

transcript abundance of this gene (Figure 4F-H). Interestingly, transcription appeared to begin at

the TE insertion point, rather than the transcriptional start site of the gene (Figure 4F).

Accessions containing the TE insertion had significantly higher AT2G01360 transcript

abundance than the accessions without the TE insertion ($p < 1.8 \times 10^{-7}$, Mann-Whitney U test;

Figure 4H). The apparent transcriptional activation, linked with presence of a TE belonging to

the *HELITRON1* family, indicates that this element may carry sequences or other regulatory

information that has altered the expression of genes downstream of the TE insertion site.

Importantly, this variant was classified as a young TE insertion, as it is not in linkage

disequilibrium with surrounding SNPs, and therefore the associated changes in gene transcript

abundance would not be identified using only SNP data. This TE variant was also upstream of

QPT (AT2G01350), involved in NAD biosynthesis (Katoh et al. 2006), which did not show

alterations in steady state transcript abundance associated with the presence of the TE variant,

indicating a potential directionality of regulatory elements carried by the TE (Figure 4G, H).

Overall, these examples demonstrate that TE variants can have unpredictable, yet important,

effects of the expression of nearby genes, and these effects may be missed by studies focused

on genetic variation at the level of SNPs.

TE variants drive DNA methylation differences between accessions

As TEs are frequently highly methylated in Arabidopsis (Lister et al. 2008; Cokus et al. 2008;

Zhang et al. 2006; Zilberman et al. 2007), we next assessed the DNA methylation state

surrounding TE variant sites to determine whether TE variants might be responsible for some of

the differences in DNA methylation patterns previously observed between the wild accessions

(Schmitz et al. 2013). We found that 61% of the 13,485 previously reported population DMRs

were located within 1 kb of a TE variant, significantly more than expected by chance ($p < 1 \times 10^{-4}$,

, determined by resampling 10,000 times; Figure 5A). Old TE variants were more often located

close to population DMRs, with 41.5% of TE variants within 1 kb of a population DMR classified

as old, 11.5% higher than the total genomic frequency of old elements (Figure 5B). There was a

corresponding depletion of young TE variants in this set, with 48.5% being classified as young,

11.5% lower than the total genomic frequency of young TE variants. This indicates that

established TE insertions may be more important than recent TE insertions in defining DNA

methylation landscapes. Alternatively, unmethylated TEs may be preferentially lost from the

population due to selection, resulting in old TE variants being more highly methylated. DNA

methylation levels at population DMRs located within 1 kb a TE variant, henceforth termed TE-

DMRs, were positively correlated with the presence of the TE variant (Figure 5C), while DNA

methylation levels at population DMRs further than 1 kb from a TE variant did not have a

significant association with the presence/absence of the nearest TE variant. TE-DMRs were

significantly more highly methylated in accessions containing the TE, suggesting that TE

variants may facilitate changes in DNA methylation patterns between accessions (Welch's t-

test, $p < 2.2 \times 10^{-16}$; Figure 5D). Overall, this indicates that a large fraction of the population

DMRs previously identified between these accessions are associated with the presence of local

TE insertions.

We next examined levels of DNA methylation in regions flanking all TE insertions

regardless of the presence or absence of a population DMR call, and similarly found that

accessions containing a TE insertion had a highly localized enrichment in DNA methylation in all

sequence contexts (Figure 5E, F), again indicating that TE variants may play a role in shaping

DNA methylation landscapes between Arabidopsis accessions. As the increase in DNA

methylation around TE insertion sites appeared to be restricted to regions >200 bp from the

insertion site, we correlated DNA methylation levels in 200 bp regions flanking TE variants with

the presence/absence of TE variants. DNA methylation levels were positively correlated with the

presence of a TE (Figure 5G). Furthermore, DNA methylation level was more strongly

correlated with the presence of old TE variants. These results indicate that DNA methylation

patterns are influenced by the differential TE content of individual genomes, and that the DNA

methylation-dependent silencing of TE variants may lead to formation of DMRs between wild

Arabidopsis accessions. The age of TE variants also appears to be related to the DNA

methylation state surrounding the TE insertion site, with older variants being more highly

methylated, suggesting that many generations may be required before a new TE insertion

reaches a highly methylated state.

TE regulation in the germline

To explore when during development germline changes in TE content may occur, we sought to

associate TE DNA methylation dynamics during germline development and early

embryogenesis with the differential TE content we observe between the different Arabidopsis

accessions. Complex DNA methylation changes occur in the Arabidopsis germline, particularly

within TE sequences. During male germline development, the haploid microspore undergoes

asymmetric division to produce the larger vegetative cell and a smaller cell that divides once

more to produce two identical sperm cells (Figure 6A) (Kawashima and Berger 2014). Some

TEs have previously been found to become transcriptionally active and to transpose in the

vegetative cell nucleus (VN). This TE activation has been linked to an increase in 21 nt smRNAs

derived from activated TE sequences, that are thought to then be transported to the sperm cells

(Slotkin et al. 2009). In contrast, the sperm and post-meiotic microspore genomes lose DNA

methylation in the mCHH context within many TEs due to decreased DRM2 abundance but are

able to maintain TE silencing (Slotkin et al. 2009; Calarco et al. 2012). A largely distinct set of

TEs are demethylated in the mCG context in the VN compared to the microspore and sperm

cells, and are thought to be involved in epigenetic imprinting rather than TE silencing (Calarco et

al. 2012). In the female germline, the ovule contains a diploid central cell and haploid egg cell.

As in the VN, the non-generative central cell acts as a companion to the egg and expresses

DEMETER, which encodes a DNA demethylase, resulting in global DNA demethylation (Ibarra

et al. 2012). During fertilization, one sperm fertilizes the egg to form the diploid embryo, while

the other sperm fertilizes the diploid central cell to form the triploid endosperm, which supplies

nutrients to the developing embryo (Figure 6A) (Kawashima and Berger 2014). The endosperm

remains globally demethylated, while DNA methylation is gradually restored in the embryo

through RdDM (Jullien et al. 2012; Hsieh et al. 2009).

In order to determine whether these TEs that undergo DNA methylation changes in the

male germline or in the embryo and endosperm are especially active elements, we examined

both the number of unique insertions caused by these differentially methylated elements

(transposition frequency), as well as the presence/absence variability of these TEs among the

wild accessions (Figure 6B, C) (Hsieh et al. 2009; Calarco et al. 2012). We found that 68% of

TEs previously found to be demethylated in the mCHH context in Col-0 sperm and microspore

were absent from non-Col-0 accessions (Figure 6B), a much larger fraction than expected by

chance ($p < 1 \times 10^{-4}$, determined by resampling 10,000 times) (Calarco et al. 2012). In contrast,

TEs differentially methylated in the mCG context in the sperm or microspore, thought to be

involved in epigenetic imprinting, or in the mCHH context in the developing embryo (Hsieh et al.

2009), were not absent from non-Col-0 accessions significantly more often than expected ($p >$

0.09, determined by resampling 10,000 times; Figure 6B). While TEs mCG-hypomethylated in

the endosperm were absent from non-Col-0 genomes significantly more often than expected (p

< 1 x 10^{-4}, determined by resampling 10,000 times), the scale of this difference was small, with

only 30% of the TEs absent in non-Col-0 accessions. mCHH-demethylated TEs in the sperm

and microspore also had a significantly higher transposition frequency, suggesting that they

have been more active than most other TEs in the Arabidopsis genome (Figure 6C; Welch's t-

test, p < 1 x 10^{-5}). While mCHH-hypermethylated TEs in the embryo were not found to be

frequently absent from non-Col-0 accessions, these elements did show a significantly higher

transposition frequency, as did elements mCG-hypomethylated in the endosperm, indicating

that demethylation of active TEs in the germline companion cells (the VN and endosperm) may

be important in driving DNA methylation changes in the generative cells (the sperm and

embryo), perhaps acting to suppress transposition of active elements in the germline.

TEs that are demethylated in the mCHH context in the developing sperm may rely on

smRNAs in the seed for the restoration of proper DNA methylation of paternal TE sequences in

the embryo following fertilization, through RdDM (Jullien et al. 2012). These smRNAs are

thought to be maternally-derived, and are likely produced in the endosperm (Mosher et al. 2009;

Calarco et al. 2012). We sought to determine whether TEs present in only one parental genome

in an intraspecific cross would show altered levels of smRNAs targeted to these TEs, as the

absence of a TE in the maternal genome may lead to the loss of a maternally-derived smRNA

signal in the seed. Using previously published whole seed 21-24 nt smRNA data for reciprocal

crosses between Col-0 and Cvi or L*er* (Pignatta et al. 2014; Gehring et al. 2014), we examined

seed smRNA levels in TEs present in the Col-0 genome but absent from the Cvi genome for

crosses between Col-0 and Cvi, or absent from the L*er* genome for crosses between Col-0 and

L*er* (Figure 6D, direction of each cross is depicted as *female x male* on axis labels). Consistent

with previous reports, we found that smRNA levels in TEs were dependent on maternal

genotype but independent of paternal genotype, indicating that they are maternally-derived.

Furthermore, we confirmed that TEs present in only the paternal genome in a cross had

significantly lower 21-24 nt smRNA levels compared with crosses where the TE was present in

the maternal genome ($p < 1.4 \times 10^{-10}$, Mann-Whitney U test; Figure 6E). As these smRNAs are

thought to be required for TE silencing in the embryo (Jullien et al. 2012; Matzke and Mosher

2014), this may then lead to TE activation and may explain the higher transposition frequencies

we observe for TEs demethylated in the mCHH context in the sperm genome.

To test whether the absence of a TE in the maternal genome was sufficient to prevent

the re-methylation of the paternal copy of that TE following fertilization, we examined previously

published embryonic DNA methylation data within Cvi-absent TEs following reciprocal crosses

between Col-0 and Cvi (Pignatta et al. 2014) (Figure 6F). For all crosses between Col-0 and

Cvi, Cvi-absent TEs showed significantly lower mCG levels, and this is likely due to the global

reduction in mCG levels that exists in the Cvi genome rather than the absence of the TE in one

parent (Pignatta et al. 2014). Surprisingly, we found for TEs that lose mCHH in the sperm

(Calarco et al. 2012), when the TE was absent from the maternal genome (Cvi x Col-0),

embryonic mCHH levels within these TEs were not significantly different from DNA methylation

levels in the Col-0 x Col-0 cross, where the TE was present in both parents ($p > 0.04$, Mann-

Whitney U test; Figure 6F). This was contrary to the anticipated pattern, where the loss of

maternal smRNAs observed for this cross (Figure 6E) would prevent these sperm-demethylated

TEs from being re-methylated in the embryo, and may indicate that maternally-derived smRNAs

are not essential for establishing DNA methylation patterns in early embryonic development.

However, when the parents were reversed and the TE variants were present in the maternal

genome but absent from the paternal genome (Col-0 x Cvi), we found a significant reduction in

mCHH methylation for these TEs, indicating that paternal signals may be required for DNA

methylation of maternal TE sequences ($p < 5 \times 10^{-7}$, Mann-Whitney U test). To further

investigate this result, we analyzed an independent dataset containing embryonic DNA

methylation data for crosses between Col-0 and L*er*, generated at a slightly later developmental

stage (7-8 days after pollination) than the data for crosses between Col-0 and Cvi (6 days after

pollination). Within TEs absent from L*er* and demethylated in the Col-0 sperm (Ibarra et al.

2012) we found no significant difference in DNA methylation levels in any context dependent on

the parental genotypes (Figure 6 - figure supplement 1). This could indicate that embryonic DNA

methylation changes within maternal TEs, dependent upon paternal genotype, may be restricted

to early developmental time points, less than 6 days after pollination, or may be dependent on

the intraspecific cross performed.

Considering the high proportion of sperm mCHH-demethylated TEs that were found to

be absent in non-Col-0 accessions (Figure 6B), crosses between plants with differential

presence/absence of these TEs may be possible in the wild, and such crosses may lead to the

demethylation of the maternal copies of these TEs in the embryo when a paternal copy is

absent. These findings support a model for TE silencing escape facilitated by genetic

differences between parents, as the loss of DNA methylation within TEs has been shown

previously to be sufficient for transcriptional activation and transposition of demethylated TEs

(Gendrel et al. 2002; Hirochika et al. 2000; Stroud et al. 2013). Such mating situations may also

lead to the formation of stable epialleles depending of the length of time the TE sequences are

able to escape remethylation, and this may play a role in formation of the patterns of differential

DNA methylation previously observed between wild accessions (Schmitz et al. 2013).

DISCUSSION

Here, we discovered widespread differential TE content between wild Arabidopsis accessions. A

subset (32%) of TE variants with a minor allele frequency above 3% were able to be tested for

linkage with nearby SNPs. The majority of these TE variants were unlinked to surrounding

SNPs, indicating that they represent genetic variants currently overlooked in genomic studies.

We found a marked depletion of TE variants within gene bodies and DNase I hypersensitivity

sites, indicating that the more deleterious TE insertions have likely been removed from this

population through selection. Importantly, we were able to identify examples where TE variants

appear to have an effect upon gene expression, both in the disruption of transcription and in the

spreading or disruption of regulatory information leading to the transcriptional activation of

genes, indicating that these TE variants can have important consequences upon expression of

protein coding genes. Furthermore, we provide evidence that differential TE content between

genomes of wild Arabidopsis accessions underlies a large fraction of the previously reported

DNA methylation differences between accessions. Thus, the frequency of pure epialleles,

independent of underlying genetic variation, may be even more rare than previously anticipated

(Richards 2006). The level of DNA methylation changes associated with TE variants is related

to TE age, with old variants being more strongly correlated with increased DNA methylation

levels. This suggests that the methylation of new TE insertions is a gradual process that occurs

incrementally over many generations, or that unmethylated TEs are preferentially lost from the

population over time.

Identification of TE variants between Arabidopsis accessions has also enabled a closer

examination of the changes in TE smRNA and DNA methylation levels following fertilization of

intraspecific hybrids. smRNA levels in the seed appear to be dependent on maternal genome

content, as the presence of a TE in only the paternal genome of a cross is associated with

decreased levels of corresponding 21-24 nt smRNAs derived from those TEs in the seed. This

loss of smRNAs, dependent on maternal genotype, is strikingly similar to findings from studies

performed in *Drosophila melanogaster* over 3 decades ago, where maternal absence of

paternal *P* elements in a cross was found to lead to activation and frequent transposition of

these *P* elements, due to absence of maternally-derived smRNA signals needed for TE

silencing, while TE activation was not observed when the *P* elements were present in the

maternal genome (Bingham et al. 1982; Blumenstiel and Hartl 2005). This is thought to be the

underlying cause of hybrid dysgenesis, a phenotype characterised by sterility and high rates of

germline TE activity, and where the transpositions caused by active *P* elements are often lethal

to the hybrid offspring. It has been hypothesized previously that a process similar to Drosophila

hybrid dysgenesis may occur in Arabidopsis, as smRNAs in the Arabidopsis seed also appear

to be maternally-derived, and there is some prior evidence that this may be true (Martienssen

2010). Interspecific crosses between *Arabidopsis thaliana* females and *Arabidopsis arenosa*

males was observed to lead to the expression of previously silent paternal *ATHILA* TEs, thought

to be due to the presence of *ATHILA* elements in the *A. arenosa* genome that are absent from

the *A. thaliana* genome (Josefsson et al. 2006). However, the reciprocal cross is impossible to

generate due to pollination failure, constituting a fundamental limitation of this system for

studying hybrid dysgenesis. The use of wild *A. thaliana* accessions may prove more fruitful in

future experiments aiming to elucidate the processes of germline TE regulation in plants.

Surprisingly, we found that this decrease in smRNA levels targeting paternal TE

sequences was not linked to DNA demethylation of the corresponding paternal TEs in the

embryo, but instead observed an inverse relationship, where TEs absent from the paternal

genome in a cross were linked with embryonic demethylation of the maternal copy. This

indicates that maternal smRNAs are not essential for restoring the paternal patterns of DNA

methylation that are erased in the sperm, nor are they sufficient to maintain DNA methylation

within maternal TEs in the absence of paternal TE copies. As 21 nt smRNA production is greatly

increased within the pollen VN, and these smRNAs may be transported to the sperm cells

(Slotkin et al. 2009), it is possible that these paternal smRNAs remain present in the sperm

cytoplasm during fertilization. These smRNAs may play an important role in establishing early

patterns of DNA methylation in the embryo, perhaps explaining the non-reliance of paternal TE

sequences upon maternal smRNAs. This issue is somewhat complicated by the lack of embryo-

specific smRNA data, as all existing data have been generated from whole seed. If maternal

smRNAs are produced and remain in the endosperm rather than the embryo, this could further

explain the apparent reliance upon paternal silencing signals for proper establishment of DNA

methylation patterns following fertilization. Our data provides the first evidence that embryonic

TE silencing in Arabidopsis may be dependent on paternal, rather than maternal, silencing

factors.

DNA methylation changes triggered by genetic differences between parents clearly

occur in Arabidopsis, although perhaps via a different mechanism as is responsible for causing

hybrid dysgenesis in Drosophila. These DNA methylation changes that occur in the embryo may

play an important role in the formation of DNA methylation differences between wild Arabidopsis

accessions, depending on the length of time these changes are able to persist in hybrid

progeny. If the loss of DNA methylation within maternal TEs that we observe is able to persist in

hybrid plants, this may lead to the formation of stable epialleles as the demethylated TE copy is

propagated through the population. Further experiments will be required to determine the

stability of these embryonic changes in DNA methylation that occur in hybrid plants.

Alternatively, if these DNA methylation changes are limited to a small developmental window,

perhaps less than 6 days after pollination, there may only be a short period of time where TE

silencing is lost and TE activation can occur, leading to new TE insertions in the early embryo.

Overall, our results show that TE presence/absence variants between wild Arabidopsis

accessions can be linked to many DNA methylation changes previously observed in the

population, and can have important consequences upon nearby gene expression. Furthermore,

the differential TE content between parents can lead to DNA methylation changes in the early

embryo, and could lead to activation of these elements.

METHODS

TEPID development

Mapping

FASTQ files are mapped to the reference genome using the 'tepid-map' algorithm (Figure 1A).

This first calls bowtie2 (Langmead and Salzberg 2012) with the following options: '--local', '--

dovetail', '--fr', '-R5', '-N1'. Soft-clipped and unmapped reads are extracted using Samblaster

(Faust and Hall 2014), and remapped using the split read mapper Yaha (Faust and Hall 2012),

with the following options: '-L 11', '-H 2000', '-M 15', '-osh'. Split reads are extracted from the

Yaha alignment using Samblaster (Faust and Hall 2014). Alignments are then converted to bam

format, sorted, and indexed using samtools (Li et al. 2009).

TE variant discovery

The 'tepid-discover' algorithm examines mapped bam files generated by the 'tepid-map' step to

identify TE presence/absence variants with respect to the reference genome. Firstly, mean

sequencing coverage, mean library insert size, and standard deviation of the library insert size

is estimated. Discordant read pairs are then extracted, defined as mate pairs that map more

than 4 standard deviations from the mean insert size from one another, or on separate

chromosomes.

To identify TE insertions with respect to the reference genome, split read alignments are

first filtered to remove reads where the distance between split mapping loci is less than 5 kb, to

remove split reads due to small indels, or split reads with a mapping quality (MAPQ) less than 5.

Split and discordant read mapping coordinates are then intersected using pybedtools (Dale et

al. 2011; Quinlan and Hall 2010) with the Col-0 reference TE annotation, requiring 80% overlap

between TE and read mapping coordinates. To determine putative TE insertion sites, regions

are then identified that contain independent discordant read pairs aligned in an orientation

facing one another at the insertion site, with their mate pairs intersecting with the same TE

(Figure 1A). The total number of split and discordant reads intersecting the insertion site and the

TE is then calculated, and a TE insertion predicted where the combined number of reads is

greater than a threshold determined by the average sequencing depth over the whole genome

(1/10 coverage if coverage is greater than 10, otherwise a minimum of 2 reads). Alternatively, in

the absence of discordant reads mapped in orientations facing one another, the required total

number of split and discordant reads at the insertion site linked to the inserted TE is set higher,

requiring twice as many reads.

To identify TE absence variants with respect to the reference genome, split and

discordant reads separated >20 kb from one another are first removed, as 99.9% of Arabidopsis

TEs are shorter than 20 kb, and this removes split reads due to larger structural variants not

related to TE diversity (Figure 2 - figure supplement 5). Col-0 reference annotation TEs that are

located within the genomic region spanned by the split and discordant reads are then identified.

TE absence variants are predicted where at least 80% of the TE sequence is spanned by a split

or discordant read, and the sequencing depth within the spanned region is <10% the

sequencing depth of the 2 kb flanking sequence, and there are a minimum number of split and

discordant reads present, determined by the sequencing depth (1/10 coverage; Figure 1A). A

threshold of 80% TE sequence spanned by split or discordant reads is used, as opposed to

100%, to account for misannotation of TE sequence boundaries in the Col-0 reference TE

annotation, as well as TE fragments left behind by DNA TEs during cut-paste transposition (TE

footprints) that may affect the mapping of reads around annotated TE borders (Plasterk 1991).

This was found to improve TE absence detection using simulated data. Furthermore, the

coverage within the spanned region may be more than 10% that of the flanking sequence, but in

such cases twice as many split and discordant reads are required. If multiple TEs are spanned

by the split and discordant reads, and the above requirements are met, multiple TEs in the

same region can be identified as absent with respect to the reference genome. Absence

variants in non-Col-0 accessions are subsequently recategorized as TE insertions present in the

Col-0 genome but absent from a given wild accession.

TE variant refinement

Once TE insertions are identified using the 'tepid-map' and 'tepid-discover' algorithms, these

variants can be refined if multiple related samples are analysed. The 'tepid-refine' algorithm is

designed to interrogate regions of the genome in which a TE insertion was discovered in other

samples but not the sample in question, and check for evidence of that TE insertion in the

sample using lower read count thresholds compared to the 'tepid-discover' step. In this way, the

refine step leverages TE variant information for a group of related samples to reduce false

negative calls within the group. This distinguishes TEPID from other similar methods for TE

variant discovery utilizing short sequencing reads. A file containing the coordinates of each

insertion, and a list of sample names containing the TE insertion must be provided to the 'tepid-

refine' algorithm, which this can be generated using the 'merge_insertions.py' script included in

the TEPID package. Each sample is examined in regions where there was a TE insertion

identified in another sample in the group. If there is a sequencing breakpoint within this region

(no continuous read coverage spanning the region), split reads mapped to this region will be

extracted from the alignment file and their coordinates intersected with the TE reference

annotation. If there are split reads present at the variant site that are linked to the same TE as

was identified as an insertion at that location, this TE insertion is recorded in a new file as being

present in the sample in question. If there is no sequencing coverage in the queried region for a

sample, an "NA" call is made indicating that it is unknown whether the particular sample

contains the TE insertion or not.

While the above description relates specifically to use of TEPID for identification of TE variants

in Arabidopsis in this study, this method can be also applied to other species, with the only

prerequisite being the annotation of TEs in a reference genome and the availability of paired-

end DNA sequencing data.

TE variant simulation

To test the sensitivity and specificity of TEPID, 100 TE insertions (50 copy-paste transpositions,

50 cut-paste transpositions) and 100 TE absence variants were simulated in the Arabidopsis

genome using the RSVSim R package, version 1.7.2 (Bartenhagen and Dugas 2013), and

synthetic reads generated from the modified genome at various levels of sequencing coverage

using wgsim (Li et al. 2009) (https://github.com/lh3/wgsim). These reads were then used to

calculate the true positive, false positive, and false negative TE variant discovery rates for

TEPID at various sequencing depths, by running 'tepid-map' and 'tepid-discover' using the

simulated reads with the default parameters (Figure 1B).

L*er* TE analysis

Previously   published   100   bp   paired   end   sequencing   data   for   L*er*

(http://1001genomes.org/data/MPI/MPISchneeberger2011/releases/current/Ler-1/Reads/;

Schneeberger et al. 2011) was downloaded and analyzed with the TEPID package to identify

TE variants. Reads providing evidence for TE variants were then mapped to the *de novo*

assembled L*er* genome (Chin et al. 2013). To determine whether reads mapped to homologous

regions of the L*er* and Col-0 reference genome, the *de novo* assembled L*er* genome sequence

between mate pair mapping locations in L*er* were extracted, with repeats masked using

RepeatMasker with RepBase-derived libraries and the default parameters (version 4.0.5,

http://www.repeatmasker.org). A blastn search was then conducted against the Col-0 genome

using the following parameters: '-max-target-seqs 1', '-evalue 1e-6' (Camacho et al. 2009).

Coordinates of the top blast hit for each read location were then compared with the TE variant

sites identified using those reads.

Arabidopsis TE variant discovery

We ran the TEPID, including the insertion refinement step, on previously published sequencing

data for 216 different Arabidopsis populations (NCBI SRA SRA012474; Schmitz et al. 2013),

mapping to the TAIR10 reference genome and using the TAIR9 TE annotation. The '--mask'

option was also used to mask the mitochondrial and plastid genomes. We also ran TEPID using

previously published transgenerational data for salt stress and control conditions (NCBI SRA

SRP045804; Jiang et al. 2014), using the '--mask' option to mask mitochondrial and plastid

genomes, and the '--strict' option for highly related samples.

TE variant / SNP comparison

SNP information for 216 Arabidopsis accessions was obtained from the 1001 genomes data

center (http://1001genomes.org/data/Salk/releases/2013_24_01/; Schmitz et al. 2013). This was

formatted into reference (Col-0 state), alternate, or NA calls for each SNP. Accessions with both

TE variant information and SNP data were selected for analysis. Hierarchical clustering of

accessions by SNPs as well as TE variants were used to identify essentially clonal accessions,

as these would skew minor allele frequency calculations. A single representative from each

cluster of similar accessions was kept, leading to a total of 187 accessions for comparison. For

each TE variant with minor-allele-frequency greater than 3%, the nearest 300 upstream and 300

downstream SNPs with a minor-allele-frequency greater than 3% were selected. Pairwise

genotype correlations (r^2 values) for all complete cases were obtained for SNP-SNP and SNP-

TE variant states. r^2 values were then ordered by decreasing rank and a median SNP-SNP rank

value was calculated. For each of the 600 ranked surrounding positions, the number of times

the TE rank was greater than the SNP-SNP median rank was calculated as a relative 'age'

metric of TE to SNP. TE variants with less than 200 ranks over the SNP-SNP median were

classified as 'young' insertions. Mid-age TE variants had ranks between 200 and 400, while TE

variants with greater than 400 ranks above their respective SNP-SNP median value were

classified as 'old' variants.

PCR validations

Selection of accessions to be genotyped

To assess the accuracy of TE variant calls in accessions with a range of sequencing depths of

coverage, we grouped accessions into quartiles based on sequencing depth of coverage and

randomly selected a total of 14 accessions for PCR validations from these quartiles. DNA was

extracted for these accessions using Edward's extraction protocol (Edwards et al. 1991), and

purified prior to PCR using AMPure beads.

Selection of TE variants for validation and primer design

Ten TE insertion sites and 10 TE absence sites were randomly selected for validation by PCR

amplification. Only insertions and absence variants that were variable in at least two of the

fourteen accessions selected to be genotyped were considered. For insertion sites, primers

were designed to span the predicted TE insertion site. For TE absence sites, two primer sets

were designed; one primer set to span the TE, and another primer set with one primer

annealing within the TE sequence predicted to be absent, and the other primer annealing in the

flanking sequence (Figure 1C). Primer sequences were designed that did not anneal to regions

of the genome containing previously identified SNPs in any of the 216 accessions (Schmitz et

al. 2013) or small insertions and deletions, identified using lumpy-sv with the default settings

(Layer et al. 2014)(https://github.com/arq5x/lumpy-sv), had an annealing temperature close to

52ºC calculated based on nearest neighbor thermodynamics (MeltingTemp submodule in the

SeqUtils python module; Cock et al. 2009), a GC content between 40% and 60%, and contained

the same base repeated not more than four times in a row. Primers were aligned to the TAIR10

reference genome using bowtie2 (Langmead and Salzberg 2012) with the '-a' flag set to report

all alignments, and those with more than 5 mapping locations in the genome were then

removed.

PCR

PCR was performed with 10 ng of extracted, purified Arabidopsis DNA using Taq polymerase.

PCR products were analysed by agarose gel electrophoresis. Col-0 was used as a positive

control, water was added to reactions as a negative control.

mRNA analysis

Processed mRNA data for 144 wild Arabidopsis accessions were downloaded from NCBI GEO

GSE43858 (Schmitz et al. 2013). To find differential gene expression dependent on TE

presence/absence variation, we first filtered TE variants to include only those where the TE

variant was shared by at least 5 accessions with RNA data available, corresponding to a minor

allele frequency above 3%. We then grouped accessions based on TE presence/absence

variants, and performed a Mann-Whitney U test to determine differences in RNA transcript

abundance levels between the groups. We used q-value estimation to correct for multiple

testing, using the R qvalue package v2.2.2 with the following parameters: lambda = seq(0, 0.6,

0.05), smooth.df = 4 (Storey and Tibshirani 2003). Genes were defined as differentially

expressed where there was a greater than 2-fold difference in expression between the groups,

with a q-value less than 0.001. Gene ontology enrichment analysis was performed using DAVID

(https://david.ncifcrf.gov/).

DNA methylation data analysis

Processed DNA methylation data for wild Arabidopsis accessions were downloaded from NCBI

GEO GSE43857 (Schmitz et al. 2013). Weighted embryo DNA methylation data in 300 bp

windows for Col-0 crosses with Cvi 6 days after pollination were downloaded from the Dryad

Digital Repository; http://dx.doi.org/10.5061/dryad.gv536.2 (Gehring et al. 2014). Processed

embryo DNA methylation data in 50 bp windows for crosses between Col-0 and L*er* 7-8 days

after pollination were downloaded from NCBI GEO GSE38935 (Ibarra et al. 2012).

Small RNA data analysis

Normalized 21-24 nt smRNA read counts (reads per million reads mapped; RPM) in 300 bp

windows for whole seed 6 days after pollination, for reciprocal crosses between Col-0, Cvi, and

L*er* were downloaded from the Dryad Digital Repository; http://dx.doi.org/10.5061/dryad.gv536.2

(Gehring et al. 2014).

DATA ACCESS

TEPID source code can be accessed at https://github.com/ListerLab/TEPID. L*er* TE variants are

available in Supplementary File 1. TE variants identified among the 216 wild Arabidopsis

accessions resequenced by Schmitz et al. (2013) are available in Supplementary File 2.

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679   AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

680   R.L. and T.S. designed the research project. R.L. and J.B. supervised research. T.S. developed

681   and tested TEPID. J.C. performed PCR validations of TE variants. T.S. and S.R.E. performed

682   bioinformatic analysis. R.L., T.S., J.B. and S.R.E. prepared the manuscript.

684   COMPETING FINANCIAL INTERESTS

685   The authors declare no competing financial interests.

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A

FASTQ

Paired-end short reads

bowtie2
Read alignments

Unmapped and clipped reads (single end)

YAHA
Split read alignments

Mapped read pairs

ATCGCTAGCAGCATCAGCATCATTGCTGTAC

Mapped split reads

ATCGCTAGCAGCATCAGCATCATTGCTGTAC

tepid-map

tepid-discover

predicted TE insertion point

→ discordant read
— split read

R1
R1

TE insertion identification

tepid-refine

R2
TE
R2
Distal genomic DNA sequence

TE absence identification

R1
TE
R2

relative coverage 100% 0%

TE variants

B

TE insertions

■ True positives
■ False negatives
□ False positives

%
Coverage (x)

TE absences

%
Coverage (x)

C

TE absence

Ladder | Altai-5 | Ber | Do-0 | Bla-1 | Fr-2 | Gie-0 | Jl-3 | Nc-1 | Ob-0 | Seattle-0 | Tscha-1 | Utrecht | Ven-1 | Wei-0 | Col-0 | Negative
FR FI (repeated)

1.8 kb
470 bp

F 1084 bp AT4TE23545 *R*
470 bp *FI*
1.8 kb *FR*

TE insertion

Ladder | Altai-5 | Ber | Do-0 | Bla-1 | Fr-2 | Gie-0 | Jl-3 | Nc-1 | Ob-0 | Seattle-0 | Tscha-1 | Utrecht | Ven-1 | Wei-0 | Col-0 | Negative

600 bp
400 bp

F 400 bp *No insertion*
R
193 bp AT4TE57000 *Insertion*
593 bp

D

	True positives	False positives	False negatives
Absences	77.10%	9.16%	13.74%
Insertions	70.71%	9.29%	20.00%

Figure 1. Design and testing of the TE variant discovery pipeline

(A) Principle of TE variant discovery using split and discordant read mapping positions. Paired

end reads are first mapped to the reference genome using Bowtie2 (Langmead and Salzberg

2012). Soft-clipped or unmapped reads are then extracted from the alignment and re-mapped

using Yaha, a split read mapper (Faust and Hall 2012). All read alignments are then used by

TEPID to discover TE variants relative to the reference genome, in the 'tepid-discover' step.

When analyzing groups of related samples, these variants can be further refined using the

'tepid-refine' step, which examines in more detail the genomic regions where there was a TE

variant identified in another sample, and calls the same variant for the sample in question using

lower read count thresholds as compared to the 'tepid-discover' step, in order to reduce false

negative variant calls within a group of related samples.

(B) Testing of the TEPID pipeline using simulated TE variants in the Arabidopsis Col-0 genome

(TAIR10), for a range of sequencing coverage levels.

(C) PCR validation examples for TE presence/absence variant predictions. Accessions that

were predicted to contain a TE insertion or TE absence are marked in bold. For the example TE

absence variant, two primer sets were used; forward (F) and reverse (R) or internal (I).

Accessions with a TE absence will not produce the FI band and produce a shorter FR product,

with the change in size matching the size of the deleted TE. For the example TE insertion, one

primer set was used, spanning the TE insertion site. A band shift of approximately 200 bp can

be seen, corresponding to the size of the inserted TE.

(D) Summary table of PCR validation results for TE variants.

A Chromosomal distribution of TE variants

Genes
Col-0 TEs
TE variants
DMRs

Chromosome 1

Density: High / Low

B Genomic features

% containing TE insertion

DHS site, Upstream, 5' UTR, Intron, Exon, 3' UTR, Downstream, TE, Pseudogene

C Superfamily enrichments for TE variants

Enrichment (%)

DNA, DNA/En−Spm, DNA/Harbinger, DNA/HAT, DNA/Mariner, DNA/MuDR, DNA/Pogo, DNA/Tc1, LINE, LINE/L1, LTR/Copia, LTR/Gypsy, RathE1_cons, RathE2_cons, RathE3_cons, RC/Helitron, SINE, Unassigned

TE Superfamily

D Young — chr1:18816503 — 48.9 kb

Mid — chr4:5354757 — 16.2 kb

Old — chr2:9225478 — 43.7 kb

r^2: 0 — 1

E Young

r^2 value — r^2 rank — 0 to 600

Mid

Old

Median r^2 value SNP-SNP comparisons
r^2 value TE-SNP comparisons

F TE-SNP linkage

Count r^2 values

Young n=4452, Mid n=740, Old n=2108

TE ranks over SNP median

G Chromosomal distribution

Young, Mid, Old

Relative density: High / Low

Chromosome 1 position — start to end

Figure 2. Extensive novel genetic diversity uncovered by TE variant analysis

(A) Distribution of identified TE variants on chromosome 1, with distributions of all Col-0 genes,

Col-0 TEs, and population DMRs.

(B) Frequency of TE variants at different genomic features.

(C) Enrichment and depletion of TE variants categorized by TE superfamily compared to the

expected frequency due to genomic occurrence.

(D) r^2 correlation matrices for individual representative young, mid, and old TE variants.

(E) Rank order plots for individual representative young, mid, and old TE variants (matching

those shown in D). Red line indicates the median r^2 value for each rank across SNP-based

values. Blue line indicates r^2 values for TE-SNP comparisons.

(F) Histogram of the number of TE r^2 ranks (0-600) that are above the SNP-based median r^2

value for testable TE variants. TE variants with <200 ranks over the SNP median were classified

as "young" elements, as they are not yet linked to the surrounding SNPs. TE variants with 200-

400 ranks over the SNP median were classified as "mid" aged. TE variants with >400 ranks

over the SNP median were classified as "old" elements, as they were linked to the surrounding

SNPs.

(G) Chromosomal distribution of TE variants by age.

Figure 3. Differential transcript abundance associated with genic TE variant

presence/absence

Volcano plots showing transcript abundance differences for genes associated with TE insertion

variants at different positions, indicated in the plot titles. Genes with significantly different

transcript abundance in accessions with a TE insertion compared to accessions without a TE

insertion are colored blue (lower transcript abundance in accessions containing TE insertion) or

red (higher transcript abundance in accessions containing TE insertion). Vertical lines indicate

±2 fold change in FPKM.

Figure 4. Effects of TE variants on local gene expression

(A) Genome browser representation of RNA-seq data for genes *AtRLP18* (AT2G15040) and a

leucine-rich repeat family protein (AT2G15042) for all accessions containing a TE insertion

within the exon of the gene *AtRLP18*, and for a random subset of accessions not containing the

TE insertion within the exon of *AtRLP18*.

(B) Magnified view of the TE insertion variant within the *AtRLP18* exon.

(C) Boxplots comparing transcript abundance of *AtRLP18* and AT2G15042 in accessions with

and without the TE insertion in the *AtRLP18* exon. Asterisk indicates statistical significance (p <

5.8×10^{-10}; Mann-Whitney U test). Boxes represent the interquartile range (IQR) from quartile 1

to quartile 3. Boxplot upper whiskers represent the maximum value, or the upper value of the

quartile 3 plus 1.5 times the IQR (whichever is smaller). Boxplot lower whisker represents the

minimum value, or the lower value of the quartile 1 minus 1.5 times the IQR (whichever is

larger).

(D) Heatmap showing *AtRLP18* and AT2G15042 RNA-seq FPKM values for all accessions.

(E) Percentage of accessions with resistance to *Pseudomonas syringae* transformed with

different *avr* genes, for accessions containing or not containing a TE insertion in *AtRLP18*.

(F) Genome browser representation of RNA-seq data for a PPR protein-encoding gene

(AT2G01360) and *QPT* (AT2G01350), showing transcript abundance for these genes in

accessions containing a TE insertion variant in the upstream region of these genes.

(G) Heatmap representation of RNA-seq FPKM values for *QPT* and a gene encoding a PPR

protein (AT2G01360), for all accessions. Note that scales are different for the two heatmaps,

due to the higher transcript abundance of *QPT* compared to AT2G01360. Scale maximum for

AT2G01350 is 3.1×10^{5}, and for AT2G01360 is 5.9×10^{4}.

(H) Boxplots showing RNA-seq FPKM differences for *QPT* and AT2G01360 associated with

presence/absence of a TE variant in the gene upstream region. Asterisk indicates statistical

significance (p < 1.8 x 10^{-7}, Mann-Whitney U test). Boxplots were constructed as for C.

Figure 5. TE variants are associated with DNA methylation changes

(A) Distance from each population DMR to closest TE variant (red), compared with a set of

randomly selected regions of the genome, of the same size as all TE variants (blue).

(B) Density of distance measurements between population DMRs and the closest TE variant,

grouped by age classification of TE variant.

(C) Density of Pearson correlation values between DNA methylation levels at population DMRs

and the presence/absence of the nearest TE variants. Pearson correlation values for population

DMRs within 1 kb of a TE variant (TE-DMRs) are shown in red, while values for population

DMRs further than 1 kb from a TE variant (non TE-DMRs) are shown in blue.

(D) Boxplot showing DNA methylation levels at TE-DMRs for accessions containing the TE

insertion and accessions not containing the TE insertion. Asterisk indicates statistical

significance (p < 2.2 x 10^{-16}, Welch's t-test). Boxplots were constructed as for Figure 4C.

(E) DNA methylation levels in 200 bp windows ± 2 kb from TE insertion sites, for accessions

with and without the TE insertion. Heatmap is separated into in regions of the genome less than

3 Mb from a centromere (pericentromeric regions) or greater than 3 Mb from a centromere

(chromosome arms), and sorted by total DNA methylation at each locus.

(F) Average DNA methylation levels in mCG, mCHG and mCHH contexts in regions

surrounding TE insertion variant sites for pericentromeric insertions and insertions in the

euchromatic chromosome arms.

(G) Density of Pearson correlation values between DNA methylation levels in 200 bp regions

flanking TE variant sites and the presence/absence of the TE variant, separated by TE age

groups. Only TEs that were able to be assigned an age group are shown (total 7,300; minor

allele frequency >3%).

A *Arabidopsis flower*

B Frequency that differentially methylated TEs are absent from non-Col-0 genomes

Sperm cell hyper CG–DMR — 31% — p = 0.0926, n = 109

Microspore hyper CG–DMR — 28% — p = 0.2107, n = 184

Sperm cell hypo CHH–DMR — 68% — expected / observed — p <1×10⁻⁴, n = 937

Microspore hypo CHH–DMR — 68% — p <1×10⁻⁴, n = 441

Embryo hyper CHH–DMR — 27% — p = 0.1034, n = 407

Endosperm hypo CG–DMR — 30% — p <1×10⁻⁴, n = 953

C Transposition frequencies

D TEs absent in Cvi / TEs absent in L*er*

E Whole seed 21–24 nt smRNA abundance

F Embryo mC levels for sperm mCHH-demethylated TEs

Figure 6. Genetic differences between parents is associated with demethylation of transposable elements in hybrid progeny

(A) Diagram of the developing pollen, ovule, and seed. During dual fertilization, one sperm fertilizes the egg forming the embryo, while the other fertilizes the central cell to form the endosperm.

(B) Percentage of TEs differentially methylated in germline cell types that were absent in at least one non-Col-0 accession (shaded region) and expected percentage (histogram). 68% of TEs that lose mCHH in the sperm cell or microspore are absent from non-reference accessions, significantly more often than expected ($p < 1 \times 10^{-4}$, determined by resampling 10,000 times). Embryo DMRs are in comparison to aerial tissues, endosperm DMRs are in comparison to the embryo.

(C) Frequency of transposition for TEs differentially methylated in the microspore (MS), sperm cell (SC), embryo (EM) and endosperm (EN). Black triangles represent the mean number of unique TE insertion sites caused by elements in each list, asterisk indicates significance ($p < 1 \times 10^{-5}$, Welch's t-test). Boxplots were constructed as for Figure 4C.

(D) Correlation between whole seed 21-24 nt smRNA levels (normalized reads per million values in 300 bp windows; RPM) for TEs present in maternal or paternal genomes only, compared with smRNA levels in crosses where the TE is present or absent in both parental genomes. Direction of each cross is represented on axes as *female x male*. TE variants are always present in the Col-0 genome and absent in the non-Col-0 genome. R values are Pearson's correlation coefficient.

(E) Whole seed 21-24 nt smRNA abundance (RPM, as for D) in TEs absent in Cvi for crosses between Cvi and Col-0, or absent in L*er* for crosses between L*er* and Col-0. Direction of each cross is represented as *female x male* on boxplot labels. Replicates are plotted side-by-side, p-

966   values are the result of a Mann-Whitney U test using averaged replicate data. Boxplots were

967   constructed as for Figure 4C.

968   (F) Embryonic DNA methylation levels 6 days after pollination for Cvi-absent TEs that lose

969   mCHH in sperm, following reciprocal crosses between Col-0 and Cvi. Boxplots were

970   constructed as for Figure 4C.

B

Figure 2 - figure supplement 1. Number of TE presence/absence variants identified for

each wild accession.

(A) Histograms showing number of TE insertion variants identified for each accession,

separated by all TE insertions, and the different TE insertion age classes.

(B) TE absence variants as for A.

Figure 2 - figure supplement 2. Histogram showing number of accessions sharing each

TE variant identified.

 Figure 2 - figure supplement 3. Chromosomal distributions of genes, Col-0 TEs, TE

 variants and population DMRs

A

B

KEE	Chromosome	Start	Stop	TE insertions	p-value
kee1	chr1	6900000	7200000	25	0.585
kee2	chr2	4025000	4325000	49	0.306
kee3	chr3	1800000	2100000	31	0.4906
kee4	chr3	2950000	3250000	10	0.9424
kee5	chr3	16537500	16837500	82	0.0632
kee6	chr3	22375000	22675000	32	0.4785
kee7	chr4	10900000	11200000	43	0.3613
kee8	chr4	15387500	15687500	17	0.7863
kee9	chr5	4612500	4912500	18	0.7557
kee10	chr5	10162500	10462500	63	0.1857

Figure 2 - figure supplement 4. Frequency of TE insertion variants in the *KNOT* region.

(A) Number of TE insertion variants within each 300 kb *KNOT ENGAGED ELEMENT (KEE,*

vertical lines) and the number of TE insertion variants found in 10,000 randomly selected 300 kb

windows (histogram).

(B) Table showing number of TE insertion variants within each *KEE* region, and the associated

p-value determined by resampling 10,000 times.

A **Length distribution for all Arabidopsis TEs**

C **TE length density distribution**

B **TE variant length distribution**

991 **Figure 2 - figure supplement 5. Length distributions for all Col-0 TEs and TE variants**

992 (A) Histogram showing lengths of all annotated TEs in the Col-0 reference genome.

993 (B) Histogram showing lengths of all TE variants.

994 (C) Density distribution of $\log_{10}$ TE length for all Col-0 TEs (red) and TE variants (blue).

Figure 2 - figure supplement 5. TE variant enrichment and depletion for all TE families

The percentage of TE variants by TE families were compared to the percentage expected due

to the genomic frequency of elements of each TE family. Families with more TE

presence/absence variants than expected are plotted in red, indicating percentage enrichment

of those elements, while those with a lower number of TE variants than expected are plotted in

blue, indicating percentage depletion for that TE family.

Figure 6 - figure supplement 1. TE DNA methylation in embryos resulting from a Col-0 x

L*er* cross

DNA methylation levels in sperm-demethylated TEs absent from L*er* but present in Col-0.

Levels are log$_2$ fold change mC/C, for each DNA methylation context, between L*er* x Col-0 and

Col-0 x L*er* DNA methylation levels. Positive values indicate higher methylation in the L*er* x Col-

0 (*female x male*) cross, whereas negative values represent higher methylation in the Col-0 x

L*er* cross. Boxplots were constructed as for Figure 4C.

TABLES

Table 1. Mapping of paired-end reads providing evidence for TE presence/absence
variants in L*er* to Col-0 and L*er* reference genomes.

	Concordant	Discordant	Split	Unmapped	Total
Col-0 mapped	0	993	9,513	0	10,206
Ler mapped	10,073	92	34	7	10,206

1013

 Table 2. Significantly differentially expressed genes dependent on TE presence/absence.

TE insertion point	AGI	Gene name	Function	Pearson correlation	log2 fold change FPKM	p-value	q-value
Exon	AT1G28620	-	Lipase	0.27	-3.71	2.74E-06	1.73E-04
	AT1G31580	ECS1	Cell wall protein related to Xanthomonas campestris pv. campestris resistance	0.28	-2.91	9.43E-10	2.49E-07
	AT1G48820	-	Terpenoid cyclase	0.27	-2.66	1.86E-05	7.46E-04
	AT2G15040	AtRLP18	Disease resistance protein	0.49	-1.62	5.80E-10	2.42E-07
	AT2G16520	-	-	-0.53	3.07	1.76E-10	9.05E-08
	AT2G16810	-	F-box protein	-0.48	2.36	1.86E-05	7.46E-04
	AT3G19520	-	-	0.68	-2.61	9.98E-08	1.14E-05
	AT3G26230	CYP71B24	Cytochrome P450	0.53	-2.40	6.44E-13	6.63E-10
	AT3G46482	-	-	-0.48	4.46	2.05E-09	4.52E-07
	AT3G62460	-	Putative endonuclease	0.20	-2.56	9.03E-08	1.12E-05
	AT4G05500	-	F-box protein	-0.44	1.26	5.13E-06	2.66E-04
	AT4G15056	-	-	-0.60	4.63	4.25E-06	2.34E-04
	AT5G16990	-	Oxidative stress tolerance	-0.49	1.02	5.26E-06	2.66E-04
	AT5G38565	-	F-box protein	0.35	-1.84	2.13E-06	1.44E-04
	AT5G67310	CYP81G1	Cytochrome P450	0.22	-3.53	3.61E-07	3.47E-05
Intron	AT1G48820	-	Terpenoid cyclase	0.27	-2.66	1.86E-05	7.46E-04
	AT1G52710	-	Cytochrome-c oxidase activity	0.30	-2.57	8.30E-06	4.07E-04
	AT2G03913	-	Defensin-like family protein	-0.72	8.35	1.64E-17	5.06E-14
	AT3G59190	-	F-box protein	0.29	-3.39	4.13E-09	8.50E-07
	AT3G62460	-	Putative endonuclease	0.20	-2.56	9.03E-08	1.12E-05
	AT4G15056	-	-	-0.60	4.63	4.25E-06	2.34E-04
3' UTR	AT5G38565	-	F-box protein	0.35	-1.84	2.13E-06	1.44E-04
5' UTR	AT1G31580	ECS1	Cell wall protein related to Xanthomonas campestris pv. campestris resistance	0.28	-2.91	9.43E-10	2.49E-07
	AT2G16810	-	F-box protein	-0.48	2.36	1.86E-05	7.46E-04
	AT5G16990	-	Oxidative stress tolerance	-0.49	1.02	5.26E-06	2.66E-04
Upstream	AT1G48700	-	Oxidoreductase activity	-0.42	1.56	4.31E-07	3.91E-05
	AT1G61415	-	-	-0.38	1.90	8.52E-07	6.74E-05
	AT2G01360	-	PPR protein	-0.84	5.06	1.80E-07	1.80E-05
	AT2G16520	-	-	-0.53	3.07	1.76E-10	9.05E-08
	AT2G16530	PPRD2	Oxidoreductase activity	0.42	-1.01	1.05E-07	1.16E-05
	AT2G17080	-	-	-0.49	2.65	1.15E-08	1.97E-06
	AT2G25510	-	-	0.43	-2.49	2.52E-08	3.89E-06
	AT4G11290	AtPrx39	Peroxidase activity, cold	0.35	-1.43	2.15E-06	1.44E-04

			tolerance				
	AT4G15620	*CASPL1E2*	-	0.38	-1.70	3.29E-08	4.61E-06
	AT5G28010	-	Defence response	0.38	-1.76	9.69E-10	2.49E-07
	AT5G32620	-	-	-0.36	2.27	3.03E-08	4.45E-06
	AT5G38565	-	F-box protein	0.35	-1.84	2.13E-06	1.44E-04
	AT5G49500	-	Signal recognition particle	-0.41	1.62	2.29E-05	8.93E-04
	AT5G66660	-	-	-0.39	1.03	1.55E-05	7.03E-04
Downstream	AT1G02770	-	-	-0.46	1.36	3.71E-07	3.47E-05
	AT1G33930	-	GTP binding	0.55	-2.61	3.57E-15	5.51E-12
	AT1G77960	-	-	0.15	-4.51	4.22E-06	2.34E-04
	AT2G12460	-	-	0.29	-2.65	7.07E-07	5.74E-05
	AT2G16810	-	F-box protein	-0.48	2.36	1.86E-05	7.46E-04
	AT2G19400	-	Kinase	0.42	-1.54	1.40E-06	1.08E-04
	AT2G27650	-	Ubiquitin thiolesterase activity	-0.41	1.20	7.88E-06	3.93E-04
	AT3G46482	-	-	-0.48	4.46	2.05E-09	4.52E-07
	AT4G03050	*AOP3*	Glucosinolate biosynthesis	-0.38	2.39	4.82E-07	4.13E-05
	AT4G07820	-	-	0.29	-2.78	1.48E-06	1.11E-04
	AT5G16990	-	Oxidative stress tolerance	-0.49	1.02	5.26E-06	2.66E-04
	AT5G22608	-	-	0.33	-1.94	4.76E-07	4.13E-05
	AT5G23770	*AtDUF8*	-	-0.56	1.53	5.50E-07	4.59E-05
	AT5G24570	-	-	0.27	-1.01	2.43E-05	9.37E-04
	AT5G27340	-	-	-0.41	4.08	4.26E-08	5.72E-06
	AT5G35796	-	-	-0.50	1.36	7.65E-09	1.39E-06
	AT5G45840	-	Protein kinase activity	0.25	-3.22	1.51E-06	1.11E-04
	AT5G66455	-	PPR pseudogene	0.32	-1.44	1.39E-05	6.52E-04

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1017 **Supplementary Table 1. TE superfamily enrichments for TE variants**

TE superfamily	Genomic count	Variant count	Genomic frequency	Variant frequency	Enrichment (%)
DNA	1829	798	5.86E+00	3.76E-02	-2.10
DNA/En-Spm	941	933	3.02E+00	4.40E-02	1.38
DNA/Harbinger	379	339	1.22E+00	1.60E-02	0.38
DNA/HAT	1035	1109	3.32E+00	5.23E-02	1.91
DNA/Mariner	151	98	4.84E-01	4.62E-03	-0.02
DNA/MuDR	5410	3777	1.73E+01	1.78E-01	0.45
DNA/Pogo	344	127	1.10E+00	5.98E-03	-0.50
DNA/Tc1	95	37	3.05E-01	1.74E-03	-0.13
LINE	81	45	2.60E-01	2.12E-03	-0.05
LINE/L1	1366	1017	4.38E+00	4.79E-02	0.41
LTR/Copia	1781	1747	5.71E+00	8.23E-02	2.52
LTR/Gypsy	4181	4442	1.34E+01	2.09E-01	7.53
RathE1_cons	213	150	6.83E-01	7.07E-03	0.02
RathE2_cons	74	14	2.37E-01	6.60E-04	-0.17
RathE3_cons	104	72	3.33E-01	3.39E-03	0.01
RC/Helitron	12945	6372	4.15E+01	3.00E-01	-11.48
SINE	131	64	4.20E-01	3.02E-03	-0.12
Unassigned	129	80	4.14E-01	3.77E-03	-0.04

1018

 Supplementary Table 2. TE family enrichments for TE variants.

TE family	Genomic count	Variant count	Genomic frequency	Variant frequency	Enrichment (%)
ARNOLD1	39	13	1.30E-01	6.48E-04	-0.06
ARNOLD2	68	42	2.26E-01	2.09E-03	-0.02
ARNOLD3	45	38	1.49E-01	1.90E-03	0.04
ARNOLD4	23	11	7.64E-02	5.49E-04	-0.02
ARNOLDY1	237	100	7.87E-01	4.99E-03	-0.29
ARNOLDY2	288	131	9.56E-01	6.53E-03	-0.30
AT9NMU1	45	68	1.49E-01	3.39E-03	0.19
AT9TSD1	55	58	1.83E-01	2.89E-03	0.11
ATCOPIA11	26	22	8.63E-02	1.10E-03	0.02
ATCOPIA13	35	31	1.16E-01	1.55E-03	0.04
ATCOPIA24	27	9	8.97E-02	4.49E-04	-0.04
ATCOPIA28	81	57	2.69E-01	2.84E-03	0.02
ATCOPIA30	33	12	1.10E-01	5.99E-04	-0.05
ATCOPIA35	22	27	7.31E-02	1.35E-03	0.06
ATCOPIA37	32	14	1.06E-01	6.98E-04	-0.04
ATCOPIA41	39	39	1.30E-01	1.95E-03	0.07
ATCOPIA42	35	17	1.16E-01	8.48E-04	-0.03
ATCOPIA43	29	18	9.63E-02	8.98E-04	-0.01
ATCOPIA45	20	14	6.64E-02	6.98E-04	0.00
ATCOPIA49	34	32	1.13E-01	1.60E-03	0.05
ATCOPIA57	48	50	1.59E-01	2.49E-03	0.09
ATCOPIA59	20	5	6.64E-02	2.49E-04	-0.04
ATCOPIA65	34	29	1.13E-01	1.45E-03	0.03
ATCOPIA66	20	10	6.64E-02	4.99E-04	-0.02
ATCOPIA68	43	14	1.43E-01	6.98E-04	-0.07
ATCOPIA69	25	36	8.30E-02	1.80E-03	0.10
ATCOPIA75	20	19	6.64E-02	9.48E-04	0.03
ATCOPIA78	24	64	7.97E-02	3.19E-03	0.24
ATCOPIA94	39	21	1.30E-01	1.05E-03	-0.02
ATCOPIA95	72	49	2.39E-01	2.44E-03	0.01
ATDNA12T3_2	660	53	2.19E+00	2.64E-03	-1.93
ATDNA12T3A	22	12	7.31E-02	5.99E-04	-0.01
ATDNA1T9A	36	11	1.20E-01	5.49E-04	-0.06
ATDNA2T9A	48	50	1.59E-01	2.49E-03	0.09
ATDNA2T9B	26	25	8.63E-02	1.25E-03	0.04
ATDNA2T9C	242	103	8.04E-01	5.14E-03	-0.29
ATDNAI26T9	25	24	8.30E-02	1.20E-03	0.04
ATDNAI27T9A	116	150	3.85E-01	7.48E-03	0.36
ATDNAI27T9B	43	49	1.43E-01	2.44E-03	0.10
ATDNAI27T9C	108	54	3.59E-01	2.69E-03	-0.09
ATDNATA1	28	36	9.30E-02	1.80E-03	0.09
ATENSPM1	30	32	9.96E-02	1.60E-03	0.06
ATENSPM10	81	61	2.69E-01	3.04E-03	0.04

ATENSPM11	47	48	1.56E-01	2.39E-03	0.08
ATENSPM1A	77	59	2.56E-01	2.94E-03	0.04
ATENSPM2	114	88	3.79E-01	4.39E-03	0.06
ATENSPM3	98	127	3.25E-01	6.33E-03	0.31
ATENSPM4	50	99	1.66E-01	4.94E-03	0.33
ATENSPM5	111	88	3.69E-01	4.39E-03	0.07
ATENSPM6	151	112	5.01E-01	5.59E-03	0.06
ATENSPM7	74	65	2.46E-01	3.24E-03	0.08
ATENSPM9	97	150	3.22E-01	7.48E-03	0.43
ATGP1	144	168	4.78E-01	8.38E-03	0.36
ATGP10	165	151	5.48E-01	7.53E-03	0.21
ATGP2	48	97	1.59E-01	4.84E-03	0.32
ATGP2N	54	77	1.79E-01	3.84E-03	0.20
ATGP3	60	36	1.99E-01	1.80E-03	-0.02
ATGP5	86	67	2.86E-01	3.34E-03	0.05
ATGP6	25	18	8.30E-02	8.98E-04	0.01
ATGP7	47	37	1.56E-01	1.85E-03	0.03
ATGP8	92	32	3.06E-01	1.60E-03	-0.15
ATGP9B	27	22	8.97E-02	1.10E-03	0.02
ATHAT1	105	32	3.49E-01	1.60E-03	-0.19
ATHAT10	35	15	1.16E-01	7.48E-04	-0.04
ATHAT3	23	72	7.64E-02	3.59E-03	0.28
ATHAT7	20	11	6.64E-02	5.49E-04	-0.01
ATHATN1	69	18	2.29E-01	8.98E-04	-0.14
ATHATN10	48	43	1.59E-01	2.14E-03	0.06
ATHATN2	46	37	1.53E-01	1.85E-03	0.03
ATHATN3	70	20	2.32E-01	9.98E-04	-0.13
ATHATN3A	20	10	6.64E-02	4.99E-04	-0.02
ATHATN4	56	12	1.86E-01	5.99E-04	-0.13
ATHATN5	42	8	1.39E-01	3.99E-04	-0.10
ATHATN6	43	71	1.43E-01	3.54E-03	0.21
ATHATN7	71	50	2.36E-01	2.49E-03	0.01
ATHILA	198	229	6.58E-01	1.14E-02	0.48
ATHILA0_I	138	180	4.58E-01	8.98E-03	0.44
ATHILA2	413	618	1.37E+00	3.08E-02	1.71
ATHILA3	243	296	8.07E-01	1.48E-02	0.67
ATHILA4	250	265	8.30E-01	1.32E-02	0.49
ATHILA4A	310	254	1.03E+00	1.27E-02	0.24
ATHILA4B_LTR	143	234	4.75E-01	1.17E-02	0.69
ATHILA4C	206	183	6.84E-01	9.13E-03	0.23
ATHILA4D_LTR	106	47	3.52E-01	2.34E-03	-0.12
ATHILA5	131	172	4.35E-01	8.58E-03	0.42
ATHILA6A	247	331	8.20E-01	1.65E-02	0.83
ATHILA6B	134	131	4.45E-01	6.53E-03	0.21
ATHILA7	134	46	4.45E-01	2.29E-03	-0.22

ATHILA7A	31	18	1.03E-01	8.98E-04	-0.01
ATHILA8A	97	77	3.22E-01	3.84E-03	0.06
ATHILA8B	78	41	2.59E-01	2.04E-03	-0.05
ATHPOGO	25	10	8.30E-02	4.99E-04	-0.03
ATHPOGON1	174	52	5.78E-01	2.59E-03	-0.32
ATHPOGON2	27	12	8.97E-02	5.99E-04	-0.03
ATHPOGON3	118	53	3.92E-01	2.64E-03	-0.13
ATIS112A	173	122	5.75E-01	6.09E-03	0.03
ATLANTYS1	153	171	5.08E-01	8.53E-03	0.34
ATLANTYS2	179	194	5.94E-01	9.68E-03	0.37
ATLANTYS3	142	126	4.72E-01	6.28E-03	0.16
ATLINE1_1	61	70	2.03E-01	3.49E-03	0.15
ATLINE1_2	41	51	1.36E-01	2.54E-03	0.12
ATLINE1_3A	160	95	5.31E-01	4.74E-03	-0.06
ATLINE1_4	102	39	3.39E-01	1.95E-03	-0.14
ATLINE1_5	91	52	3.02E-01	2.59E-03	-0.04
ATLINE1_6	129	75	4.28E-01	3.74E-03	-0.05
ATLINE1A	289	147	9.60E-01	7.33E-03	-0.23
ATLINE2	138	146	4.58E-01	7.28E-03	0.27
ATLINEIII	196	292	6.51E-01	1.46E-02	0.81
ATMU1	59	35	1.96E-01	1.75E-03	-0.02
ATMU10	87	30	2.89E-01	1.50E-03	-0.14
ATMU11	20	11	6.64E-02	5.49E-04	-0.01
ATMU2	64	65	2.13E-01	3.24E-03	0.11
ATMU5	24	10	7.97E-02	4.99E-04	-0.03
ATMU6	26	31	8.63E-02	1.55E-03	0.07
ATMU6N1	39	20	1.30E-01	9.98E-04	-0.03
ATMU7	32	32	1.06E-01	1.60E-03	0.05
ATMUN1	107	49	3.55E-01	2.44E-03	-0.11
ATMUNX1	155	39	5.15E-01	1.95E-03	-0.32
ATN9_1	65	99	2.16E-01	4.94E-03	0.28
ATRE1	22	9	7.31E-02	4.49E-04	-0.03
ATREP1	498	390	1.65E+00	1.95E-02	0.29
ATREP10	63	51	2.09E-01	2.54E-03	0.05
ATREP10A	279	85	9.27E-01	4.24E-03	-0.50
ATREP10B	491	150	1.63E+00	7.48E-03	-0.88
ATREP10C	123	41	4.08E-01	2.04E-03	-0.20
ATREP10D	1295	489	4.30E+00	2.44E-02	-1.86
ATREP11	841	339	2.79E+00	1.69E-02	-1.10
ATREP11A	95	72	3.15E-01	3.59E-03	0.04
ATREP12	22	72	7.31E-02	3.59E-03	0.29
ATREP13	106	110	3.52E-01	5.49E-03	0.20
ATREP14	47	30	1.56E-01	1.50E-03	-0.01
ATREP15	1003	331	3.33E+00	1.65E-02	-1.68
ATREP16	47	103	1.56E-01	5.14E-03	0.36

ATREP17	34	9	1.13E-01	4.49E-04	-0.07
ATREP18	391	298	1.30E+00	1.49E-02	0.19
ATREP19	189	42	6.28E-01	2.09E-03	-0.42
ATREP2	164	306	5.45E-01	1.53E-02	0.98
ATREP2A	116	135	3.85E-01	6.73E-03	0.29
ATREP3	1439	878	4.78E+00	4.38E-02	-0.40
ATREP4	832	239	2.76E+00	1.19E-02	-1.57
ATREP5	624	237	2.07E+00	1.18E-02	-0.89
ATREP6	181	90	6.01E-01	4.49E-03	-0.15
ATREP7	164	114	5.45E-01	5.69E-03	0.02
ATREP8	75	58	2.49E-01	2.89E-03	0.04
ATREP9	201	56	6.67E-01	2.79E-03	-0.39
ATSINE2A	33	13	1.10E-01	6.48E-04	-0.04
ATSINE4	98	51	3.25E-01	2.54E-03	-0.07
ATTIR16T3A	106	71	3.52E-01	3.54E-03	0.00
ATTIRTA1	95	37	3.15E-01	1.85E-03	-0.13
ATTIRX1A	63	15	2.09E-01	7.48E-04	-0.13
ATTIRX1B	44	21	1.46E-01	1.05E-03	-0.04
ATTIRX1C	39	93	1.30E-01	4.64E-03	0.33
ATTIRX1D	28	9	9.30E-02	4.49E-04	-0.05
BOMZH1	28	45	9.30E-02	2.24E-03	0.13
BOMZH2	47	27	1.56E-01	1.35E-03	-0.02
BRODYAGA1	251	87	8.34E-01	4.34E-03	-0.40
BRODYAGA1A	586	163	1.95E+00	8.13E-03	-1.13
BRODYAGA2	525	179	1.74E+00	8.93E-03	-0.85
DT1	123	62	4.08E-01	3.09E-03	-0.10
HARBINGER	90	62	2.99E-01	3.09E-03	0.01
HELITRON1	130	124	4.32E-01	6.18E-03	0.19
HELITRON2	194	89	6.44E-01	4.44E-03	-0.20
HELITRON3	53	54	1.76E-01	2.69E-03	0.09
HELITRON4	199	79	6.61E-01	3.94E-03	-0.27
HELITRON5	56	89	1.86E-01	4.44E-03	0.26
HELITRONY1A	271	165	9.00E-01	8.23E-03	-0.08
HELITRONY1B	414	146	1.37E+00	7.28E-03	-0.65
HELITRONY1C	120	73	3.98E-01	3.64E-03	-0.03
HELITRONY1D	756	273	2.51E+00	1.36E-02	-1.15
HELITRONY1E	447	196	1.48E+00	9.78E-03	-0.51
HELITRONY2	198	73	6.58E-01	3.64E-03	-0.29
HELITRONY3	1399	646	4.65E+00	3.22E-02	-1.42
HELITRONY3A	49	92	1.63E-01	4.59E-03	0.30
LIMPET1	116	58	3.85E-01	2.89E-03	-0.10
META1	138	202	4.58E-01	1.01E-02	0.55
RathE1_cons	213	150	7.07E-01	7.48E-03	0.04
RathE2_cons	74	14	2.46E-01	6.98E-04	-0.18
RathE3_cons	104	72	3.45E-01	3.59E-03	0.01

ROMANIAT5	49	30	1.63E-01	1.50E-03	-0.01
RP1_AT	87	102	2.89E-01	5.09E-03	0.22
SIMPLEGUY1	116	155	3.85E-01	7.73E-03	0.39
SIMPLEHAT1	56	83	1.86E-01	4.14E-03	0.23
SIMPLEHAT2	73	80	2.42E-01	3.99E-03	0.16
TA11	157	49	5.21E-01	2.44E-03	-0.28
TAG1	28	2	9.30E-02	9.98E-05	-0.08
TAG2	86	127	2.86E-01	6.33E-03	0.35
TAG3N1	97	399	3.22E-01	1.99E-02	1.67
TAT1_ATH	87	117	2.89E-01	5.84E-03	0.29
TNAT1A	162	51	5.38E-01	2.54E-03	-0.28
TNAT2A	38	31	1.26E-01	1.55E-03	0.03
TSCL	81	45	2.69E-01	2.24E-03	-0.04
Unassigned	113	61	3.75E-01	3.04E-03	-0.07
VANDAL1	80	42	2.66E-01	2.09E-03	-0.06
VANDAL12	37	20	1.23E-01	9.98E-04	-0.02
VANDAL13	38	54	1.26E-01	2.69E-03	0.14
VANDAL14	25	66	8.30E-02	3.29E-03	0.25
VANDAL16	42	87	1.39E-01	4.34E-03	0.29
VANDAL17	178	128	5.91E-01	6.38E-03	0.05
VANDAL18NA	24	15	7.97E-02	7.48E-04	0.00
VANDAL1N1	52	86	1.73E-01	4.29E-03	0.26
VANDAL2	43	47	1.43E-01	2.34E-03	0.09
VANDAL20	51	56	1.69E-01	2.79E-03	0.11
VANDAL21	64	119	2.13E-01	5.94E-03	0.38
VANDAL22	48	94	1.59E-01	4.69E-03	0.31
VANDAL2N1	51	63	1.69E-01	3.14E-03	0.14
VANDAL3	177	152	5.88E-01	7.58E-03	0.17
VANDAL4	102	68	3.39E-01	3.39E-03	0.00
VANDAL5	85	56	2.82E-01	2.79E-03	0.00
VANDAL5A	56	33	1.86E-01	1.65E-03	-0.02
VANDAL6	89	95	2.96E-01	4.74E-03	0.18
VANDAL7	36	31	1.20E-01	1.55E-03	0.04
VANDAL8	123	198	4.08E-01	9.88E-03	0.58
VANDAL9	43	24	1.43E-01	1.20E-03	-0.02
VANDALNX2	37	19	1.23E-01	9.48E-04	-0.03

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