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A horizontally transferred autonomous Helitron became a full polydnavirus segment in *Cotesia vestalis*

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Abstract

Bracoviruses (BVs) and Ichnoviruses (IVs) belong to the family Polydnaviridae (PDV), which associates symbiotically with parasitoid wasps, working as vectors of virulence genes, and allowing the development of wasp larvae within hosts. One of the viral segments (c35) of *Cotesia vestalis* bracovirus (CvBV) contains an ORF that has been previously described as a helicase of unknown origin. Here we demonstrate that this gene is a Rep/Helicase from an autonomous Helitron transposable element (TE), which covers the viral segment almost entirely. This description of a PDV-Helitron fusion points to a new type of relationship between TEs and viruses. Our results also suggest that this TE underwent two consecutive horizontal transfer (HT) events: first from a Drosophila host ancestor to the genome of *C. vestalis* and its BV (CvBV), and then from *C. vestalis* to a lepidopteran host (*Bombyx mori*); the latter probably facilitated by viral segments injected during parasitization. We discuss this Helitron–BV fusion, the apparent TE exaptation by a PDV and its function, and implications for the study of wasp–host interaction and evolution.

Introduction

The family Polydnaviridae is composed of symbiotic viruses exclusively associated with more than 40,000 parasitoid wasp species from two families: Ichneumonidae and Braconidae (superfamily Ichneumonoidea). Polydnaviruses (PDVs) exist either as proviral copies in the wasp genome, or in their functional form as multiple dsDNA circles packaged into infective particles (reviewed in [1]). During wasp oviposition, PDVs are injected into the host, where they express virulence genes that alter insect physiology and allow the development of parasitoid larvae [2, 3]. PDVs are classified in two genera, Ichnovirus (IV) and Bracovirus (BV), which are in turn associated with ichneumonid and braconid wasps, respectively. Despite similarities between these two groups of viruses, they originated from independent viral integration events on each of these two wasp lineages [4].

There are more than 18,000 braconid species described to date, but some estimates point to a total number exceeding 40,000 [5]. Braconid wasps are parasitoids of a wide range of insect orders, and are one of the most successful insects used in biological control programs [6]. An important species from this family is *Cotesia vestalis*, who has been found parasitizing Lepidoptera species in various regions of Asia, Europe, Africa and the Americas [7]. Also, *C. vestalis* is one of the main parasitoids of the diamondback moth *Plutella xylostella*, which is a pest of *Brassica* plants that costs annually US$4-5

billion worldwide in crop loss and management [8]. For those reasons, *C. vestalis* has been successfully
used in numerous biological control introductions [7].

The complete genome sequencing of *Cotesia vestalis* bracovirus (CvBV) revealed 157 ORFs
distributed in 35 encapsidated segments, with most of these genes also having homologs in other BVs
[9]. In the same work, the authors noted that a segment from CvBV (CvBV_c35) encodes a protein
displaying similarity with the human Pif1 helicase, which has no sequence homology with any other
gene described in BVs. The Pif1 family is a member of the superfamily 1B helicases and is involved in
many replication related functions in eukaryotes [10]. Because all PDVs analyzed to date only express
replication genes in the calyx cells of wasps, and do not replicate in host cells [1, 11], the function of this
helicase in a CvBV encapsidated segment is worth of investigation, as noted by Chen et al. [9].

In the present work, we found that segment CvBV_c35 is almost entirely made by a rolling-circle
Helitron transposon, which has fused to the CvBV genome. Although there has been reports of
transposable elements (TE) (including Helitrons) in BV genomes (e.g. [12–16]), we describe for the first
time a case where an autonomous TE took over a viral segment. Based on our results we propose a
scenario to explain the presence of this Helitron in the virus, and suggest two consecutive horizontal
transfer (HT) events involving this TE across species from three insect orders: Diptera (oriental
Drosophila), Hymenoptera (*C. vestalis*), and Lepidoptera (*Bombyx mori*). Finally, we discuss the
conservation of the Helitron as a PDV segment, the possibility of a co-option, and its implications for the
study of HT events.

Results and Discussion

Segment c35 from *Cotesia vestalis* bracovirus is a Helitron autonomous TE

The segment c35 (CvBV_c35) (gb: HQ009558.1) from *Cotesia vestalis* bracovirus (CvBV) has
5,667 bp and contains a single ORF, described as a DNA helicase that has never been reported on PDVs
[9]. Indeed, its annotated amino acid sequence (AEE09607.1) has a C-terminal Pif1-like helicase domain
which belongs to the P-loop containing Nucleoside Triphosphate Hydrolases (P-loop_NTPase)
superfamily. Because the Pif-like domain covers only a relatively small portion of the total amino acid
sequence (< 30%) and it is absent in all known PDVs, we further investigated the identity of this protein.

We found that the N-terminal half of the protein is a Rep domain which is typical of the Rep-

Helicases (Rep/Hel) from Helitron TEs [17]. Subsequent analysis revealed the presence of all three

conserved motifs present in the Rep catalytic core [18], confirming the identity of this protein as a

Rep/Hel (Fig 1). This group of proteins presents a basic structure consisting of a N-terminal HUH

endonuclease motif (Rep) and a C-terminal helicase motif (Hel) and is used by Helitrons during their

rolling-circle (RC) transposition (reviewed in [19]).

After we determined the Rep/Hel identity of this coding sequence, we verified if the rest of the

TE was present in segment c35. By comparing CvBV_c35 and Helitron sequences retrieved from Repbase

[20] we could determine the structure of the whole element, with its 5'- and 3'-termini flanking the

Rep/Hel ORF. This Helitron, hereafter named Hel_c35, has 5,294 bp, and covers most (~ 93.4%) of the

viral segment c35. Because Hel_c35 contains an intact ORF and all the structural hallmarks of Helitrons

(see Materials and Methods), we suggest that it should be classified as an autonomous TE. Only a small

373 bp region within segment CvBV_c35, but outside the Hel_c35 sequence, lacks significant homology

with Helitrons. Moreover, we found the same 373 bp sequence (100% identity) as part of a different

CvBV segment (CvBV_c19), indicating that this sequence is probably of viral nature. This 373 bp viral

sequence does not display significant similarity with any known transposable elements or insect genome

available to date.

The analysis performed with the CENSOR tool [21] against the whole Repbase repeat library,

using Hel_c35 as a query, indicated that this element has high sequence similarity (70-97%) with

Helitrons from Diptera, especially Drosophila species (S1 Fig). Although Hel_c35 displays high sequence

identity with these Helitrons, they share less than 80% similarity in their last 30 bp at the 3'-terminus.

Therefore Hel_c35 does not belong to any described family, according to the proposed classification of

Helitrons [19].

Helitron insertions in PDV genomes have been reported before, including in CvBV [13, 15, 16]. It

is worth mentioning that some of these studies describe Helitron insertions in the genomes of *Cotesia*

plutellae and *Cotesia plutellae* bracovirus (CpBV), which are junior synonyms of *C. vestalis* and CvBV,

respectively [22]. However, these elements are non-autonomous, and display low sequence identity (<

80%) with Hel_c35, including on their terminal sequences (data not shown), thus belonging to a distinct

Helitron family.

Searching the CvBV_c35 proviral locus

There are currently two lineages of *C. vestalis* with sequenced genomes: isolate ANU101

(BioSample: SAMN03273265) from South Korea and isolate 20120220 (BioSample: SAMN04378091)
from China. In order to determine the site of Hel_c35 insertion within the proviral locus, we Blast-
searched segment CvBV_c35 in these two *C. vestalis* sequenced genomes. Both lineages retrieved only
one hit each, with > 40% query coverage and > 90% sequence identity, indicating that a single entire
copy of Hel_c35 is present in *C. vestalis*. The best hit (gb: JZSA01007369.1) corresponds to contig 7377
from isolate ANU101 and contains a Helitron copy with ~ 99.9% nucleotide identity to the Hel_c35
element present in CvBV_c35 (Fig 2). Despite the high sequence similarity, this putative CvBV_c35
proviral sequence contains two deletions, one of 136 bp (between positions 4,780-4,915 of the Hel_c35
query sequence), and another corresponding to the whole 373 bp viral sequence within segment
CvBV_c35. Thus, the similarity of this proviral copy with CvBV_c35 is limited to the Hel_c35 sequence.
Curiously, Blast searches in the genomes of both wasp lineages, using this 373 bp viral sequence as a
query, retrieved one hit (100% identity) in a locus that corresponds to CvBV_c19, only in the genome of
isolate 20120220. Hence, this 373 bp sequence appears to be absent in the isolate ANU101, even
though proviral segment CvBV_c19 (where this sequence was also found) is present in this genome.

Instead of the 373 bp viral sequence flanking its termini, this Hel_c35 copy in the *C. vestalis*
genome presents a 396 bp sequence which is tandemly repeated 6 times after the Helitron 3'-end (Fig
2). These repeats are not abundant in the *C. vestalis* genome, being present as less than 100 copies
distributed over ~ 20 short arrays containing on average four repeats. We did not find these repeats in
other hymenopteran genomes, including *Microplitis demolitor*, which belongs to the same subfamily as
C. vestalis (Microgastrinae), and currently is the closest wasp species with a sequenced genome.
Moreover, we noticed that upstream the Helitron 5'-terminus there are two long direct repeated
sequences with 376 bp each and ~ 99.5% identity, separated by 426 bp, and with similarity to BV
sequences (Fig 2 and S1 Table). Those differences prompted us to analyze the flanking regions of this
Hel_c35 copy up to several kbp upstream and downstream, to identify other possible PDV-related
sequences.

We found eight motifs that are conserved in many PDV-related sequences, including several BV
circles and proviral regions flanking segments (Fig 2 and S1 Table). Five of the eight conserved motifs are
also found within or nearby nudiviral-like genes from *Cotesia congregata* bracovirus (CcBV). Despite not
being encapsidated, these genes are involved in BV replication and production of structural viral
proteins [2, 3]. The fact that some of these motifs are found in both segment and nudiviral loci, and
others are exclusive to segment loci, might be related to their common or specific functions in BVs,

respectively. For example, common motifs could have a role in proviral replication, and specific motifs in

circle excision, encapsidation and transcription. All the conserved sequences analyzed here have an

average AT content of 71% (62.7-80%), and contain internal palindromic regions that could form hairpin

folds with variable sizes. Additionally, two of these motifs around the Hel_c35, one upstream and the

other downstream, contain long inverse repeats that could also form stem-loop structures (S2 Fig).

Similar features have been described in flanking and intermediate sequences of other BV proviral loci,

and are thought to be involved in viral replication [23, 24].

The presence of several motifs flanking this Hel_c35 in the *C. vestalis* genome suggests that this

copy was probably inserted on a proviral loci. If true, why this Hel_c35 copy is different from the one

present in the viral genome? This inconsistency might be explained if this Hel_c35 insertion does not

correspond to the main proviral CvBV_c35, but to a paralogous segment that could be either active (it

only produces a small part of c35 circles) or inactive (such as a 'pseudo-segment'). A large portion of

PDV genes found in viral segments belong to multigenic families, and segment reintegration, locus

duplication/deletion, and gene gain/loss, are common features during PDV evolution [4, 25].

Another possibility, which perhaps is more plausible, is that CvBV_c35 is polymorphic in the

different lineages used for the genome sequencing of *C. vestalis* (BioSample: SAMN03273265) and CvBV

(HQ009558.1). In addition to different CvBV_c35 segments in distinct lineages, this polymorphism could

also include lineages with no CvBV_c35 encapsidated circles. Before the work conducted by Chen et al.

[9], the CvBV (referred as CpBV) genome was partially sequenced from a wasp strain of South Korea

[26], and no circles containing a Rep/Hel gene were detected. Although this is a partial genome

sequence, the missing CvBV_c35 could be a consequence of its real absence in the CvBV particles from

this wasp strain. As we described above, the best candidate for a proviral CvBV_c35 sequence also

belongs to a wasp lineage from South Korea, in contrast to the CvBV_c35 sequence (HQ009558.1), which

is derived from a wasp strain of China. Hence, the differences between the wasp and BV genomes might

reflect a polymorphic CvBV_c35 which, depending on the lineage, exists as a proviral segment that

generates encapsidated viral circles, or as an 'ancestral' form with the Hel_c35 in a proviral region, but

not able to produce viral particles. Although the confirmation of this hypothesis of polymorphism would

require the genome sequencing of different *C. vestalis* strains and their respective BVs, it is worth

mentioning that there is evidence of significant variation between BVs from different wasp populations

of the same species [27, 28].

Rep/Hel transcripts in a lepidopteran host parasitized by *Cotesia chilonis*

The data described here so far indicate a Helitron-BV fusion. In this context, it is important to

investigate when, during the evolution of BV, this event happened. Apart from CvBV, we did not find the

Hel_c35 Rep/Hel ORF in any other PDV sequenced genome available to date, including those from two

other bracoviruses present in two *Cotesia* species: *Cotesia congregata* bracovirus (CcBV) and *Cotesia*

sesamiae bracovirus (CsBV). Although there are no other *Cotesia* sequenced genomes available, Wu et

al. [29] described the influence of *Cotesia chilonis* on its lepidopteran host *Chilo suppressalis* during

parasitization, by analyzing the transcriptome of fat body and hemocytes in the larvae of this moth. In

addition to host genes, they identified 19 unique sequences associated with PDVs, which were classified

as *Cotesia chilonis* BV (CchBV) transcripts; so we further searched for sequences similar to Hel_c35 on

their Short Read Archive (SRA) (accession: SRR651040) and Transcriptome Shotgun Assembly (TSA) (gb:

GAJS00000000) databases in order to pinpoint the approximate phylogenetic position of the Hel_c35

integration into the ancestral BV genome.

We detected ~ 70 reads with > 80% similarity, and ~ 50 reads with > 90% similarity with the

Hel_c35 ORF in the SRA, covering different regions of its sequence (Fig 3). These reads were mainly

located around two Hel_c35 ORF regions extending 223 and 608 bp, which were assembled as

Unigene42046 (gb: GAJS01040222.1), and Unigene57509 (gb: GAJS01055664.1), respectively (Fig 3).

Interestingly, searches on the genomes of *C. suppressalis* and *Amyelois transitella* (both from the

Pyraloidea superfamily) using Unigene42046 as a query retrieved sequences with only 74-85% identity.

On the other hand, the same Unigene has 99% sequence identity with the Rep/Hel ORF from CvBV_c35

(S3 Fig). The high similarity of this transcript with the CvBV segment, and its likely absence from the

genome of *C. suppressalis*, suggests that this transcript is derived from CchBV.

Based on the distribution of the Rep/Hel in the phylogeny of *Cotesia* species (Fig 4) we might

assume that a homologous bracovirus segment with a Rep/Hel gene was independently lost twice

during *Cotesia* evolution, one in the *C. congregata* and the other in the *C. sesamiae* clade [30]; or that

two independent Helitron integration events occurred, one in CvBV and the other in CchBV. The

hypothesis of two integration events involving two different Helitron families would explain the disparity

of the Hel_c35 ORF sequence similarity with Unigene42046 (99%) and Unigene57509 (71%). In this case,

both Unigenes would be part of one single ORF from a Helitron family that is distinct from Hel_c35. This

hypothesis is also supported by our date estimate of when Hel_c35 was first inserted in the *C. vestalis*

genome (< 1 mya) (see topic "Tracing an evolutionary pathway of Hel_c35 in insect genomes"), which

appears to be too recent to have happened before the divergence of the two species. Nevertheless, the

genome sequencing of *C. chilonis* and CchBV will be necessary to test (i) the identity between Hel_c35

and Unigene42046, (ii) the presence of this TE within CchBV, and (iii) the homology of this insertion with

the one found in segment CvBV_c35.

Horizontal transfer of Hel_c35 between three insect orders

To better characterize the evolution of the Helitron Hel_c35, we searched for sequences

displaying high similarity with the ORF's Rep domain from CvBV_c35 (S1 Data) in all arthropod

sequenced genomes available to date. A nucleotide alignment containing all obtained sequences is

shown in S4 Fig. We then used these sequences to construct a phylogenetic tree (Fig 5, see Materials

and Methods).

The resultant tree revealed some strikingly incongruences with the species' phylogeny (Fig 5).

Most notably, Hel_c35 from *Bombyx mori*, *Drosophila rhopaloa* and *Drosophila ficusphila* were allocated

in the same clade as the Hel_c35 from *Cotesia vestalis* bracovirus (CvBV). It is important to mention that

we did not find Hel_c35 in any other hymenopteran species, even though more than forty genomes

from this insect order were used in our search. Because the marked phylogenetic incongruences and the

extreme discontinuous or "patchy" distribution of Hel_c35 are indicative of horizontal transfer (HT)

events [31, 32], we decided to further investigate this possibility.

Another line of evidence used to evaluate the occurrence of HT is the high sequence similarity

between DNA sequences from distantly related taxa, when compared with more closely related ones

[31, 32]. We found that the nucleotide identity between Hel_c35 from CvBV, and Hel_c35 from *B. mori*,

D. rhopaloa and *D. ficusphila* sequences are ~ 99.7%, ~ 96% and ~ 94%, respectively.

For a HT event to be inferred, the species distributions also should be considered, as the

candidate taxa must overlap geographically in order to a HT event to occur [33, 34]. Thus, we classified

each taxon in the phylogeny to one of eight major geographical regions, based on their known

distributions (see Materials and Methods). The addition of this information revealed interesting aspects

that helped to explain some of the main inconsistencies found in the phylogeny (Fig 5). First, among the

ten closest taxa with Hel_c35, seven are native from eastern/southestern Asia, including the three

species that group immediately with the Hel_c35 from CvBV (*B. mori*, *D. rhopaloa* and *D. ficusphila*).

Second, the positioning of *Bactrocera dorsalis* (Tephritidae) within a well-supported clade of Drosophila

species, instead of a position closer to other tephritid fruit flies, also coincides with their common

distribution in southeastern Asia. Third, the incongruent grouping of *Calycopis cecrops* (Lepidoptera)

with *Drosophila willistoni* (Diptera), involve two species with geographic overlapping in southeastern
United States. Fourth, despite the fact that *Drosophila mojavensis* and the lepidopteran *Amyelois*
transitella belong to different insect orders, they are grouped together in a well-supported clade and
overlap geographically in southwestern United States. Thus, the geographical distribution of the
analyzed taxa supports the HT hypothesis as an explanation for at least some of the phylogenetic
incongruences, especially the one directly related to CvBV. Other incongruences outside the immediate
CvBV clade might also represent bona fide HTs; however, each of them requires a careful analysis that is
beyond the scope of the present work.

For HT events, the spatial overlapping of candidate species must be associated with at least
some degree of ecological overlapping [33, 34]. Accordingly, braconid wasps interact very closely with
several insect host orders, including lepidopteran and Drosophila species [5, 6] and as a rule, these
connections reach the cellular and even to the chromosomal level during wasp oviposition and
bracovirus infection of host cells [1]. It is noteworthy that these extremely direct interactions are not
occasional, but a fundamental part of the braconid wasps' life cycle.

In summary, our results suggest at least two HT events involving Hel_c35: one between a
Drosophila species and *C. vestalis* and another between *C. vestalis* and *B. mori*, which probably occurred
in this respective order, as indicated by the phylogeny. This hypothesis is supported by four lines of
evidence: (i) the marked incongruence between host and TE phylogeny, (ii) the patchy distribution of
this TE on the main taxa involved, (iii) the high sequence identity between Hel_c35 copies from different
insect orders, and (iv) the spatial/ecological overlap among the candidate species.

Tracing an evolutionary pathway of Hel_c35 in insect genomes

Because our constructed phylogeny with Hel_c35 sequences suggests HT events between *D.*
rhopaloa, *C. vestalis* and *B. mori*, we estimated when these events occurred using the equation for
divergence time ($T = K/2r$) on non-coding sequences (~ 750 bp) from Hel_c35 copies of these species.
We also set minimum and maximum date thresholds, supposing different evolutionary constrains acting
on these sequences (see Materials and Methods). This analysis can also help to infer the order of the
two HT events which, according to the phylogeny, appear to have occurred from *D. rhopaloa* to *C.*
vestalis (represented by CvBV), and then from *C. vestalis* to *B. mori*. The results give an approximate
date of 0.862 mya (0.574 – 1.15 mya) for the *D. rhopaloa – C. vestalis* HT, and 0.211 mya (0.141 – 0.282
mya) for the *C. vestalis – B. mori* HT.

Based on our results, we suggest the following scenario to explain the observed distribution of
Hel_c35 copies among insect genomes. The transposable element Hel_c35 belongs to a Helitron family
originally present in southeastern Asian Drosophila species and, more specifically, within the oriental
subgroup of the *Drosophila melanogaster* species group. This taxon comprises the largest number of
species with Hel_c35 copies clustering with CvBV, and displays a topology roughly coherent with the
group's phylogeny [35]. Initially, a Hel_c35 element from a Drosophila species in the *rhopaloa* subgroup
was horizontally transferred into the ancestral genome of *C. vestalis* ~ 0.862 mya, probably during
parasitization. After genome integration, Hel_c35 transposed into the CvBV proviral genome in a locus
responsible for segment production, also becoming part of the encapsidated genome of this bracovirus.
Then, a second HT event occurred ~ 0.211 mya, this time involving the transfer of Hel_c35 from *C.*
vestalis to *B. mori*, through CvBV_c35 circles (Fig 6). If after entering the proviral locus, Hel_c35 'fused'
gradually with CvBV, the observed sequence inconsistencies between CvBV_c35 from different *C.*
vestalis lineages could represent incomplete stages of this fusion on different wasp strains. In that case,
the formation of segment CvBV_c35 would have been completed after geographical divergence of the
lineages used for wasp (S. Korea) and BV (China) genome sequencing.

To hold true, the above hypothesis might require at least two assumptions that should be
addressed. First, that *C. vestalis* is or at least was until recently capable to parasitize Drosophila species,
in addition to their typical lepidopteran hosts. This hypothesis seems improbable at a first sight, because
all hosts of Microgastrinae wasps described to date are Lepidoptera larvae [5]. Indeed, the major
radiation dates for both taxa seem to coincide, reinforcing the idea that Microgastrinae have evolved as
a group of specialized Lepidoptera parasitoids [36]. On the other hand, it is also important to note the
remarkable host diversity and variability within the Braconidae family. For instance, the subfamilies
Alysiinae and Opiinae are endoparasitoids of many cyclorrhaphous Diptera, including Drosophila and
tephritid fruit flies [6, 37], and several wasp species in the Braconinae subfamily can attack both
dipteran and lepidopteran hosts, depending on the location and time of the year [38, 39]. The
Exothecinae subfamily contains parasitoids of several insect orders: for instance, *Colastes braconius* can
parasitize dipteran, lepidopteran, coleopteran and even hymenopteran species [40]. Other ecological
aspects are also relevant if we consider the host range and specificity within the *Cotesia* genus. The first
is that, even though *Plutella xylostella* is commonly described as the main host of *C. vestalis* in the
literature, this wasp is capable to parasitize a wide range of Lepidoptera families and superfamilies,
which are extremely diverse in their ecology and morphology [41, 42].

It is also worth mentioning that, although to our knowledge there is no report of *C. vestalis*

parasitization on *B. mori*, the close related species *Cotesia glomerata* can use this moth as a host [43],

and *Cotesia dictyoplocae*, which is in the same species group of these two wasps, parasitizes moths of

the Bombycoidea superfamily [44]. Additionally, the present work is not the first to report a HT between

C. vestalis and *B. mori* (e.g. [15, 45, 46]), indicating that *C. vestalis* could indeed attack this lepidopteran

species, and might also parasitize a wider variety of hosts.

Secondly, the known hosts of a parasitoid wasp do not necessarily correspond to their actual

host range, and may simply represent the commonly attacked species of which successful parasitization

is more likely to ensue. It has been suggested that unusual conditions could induce attacks outside the

suitable host range, and even result in successful parasitization of unsuitable hosts, notwithstanding

their rarity [5, 47]. It is also noteworthy that some Drosophila species phylogenetically close to *D.*

rhopaloa can be resistant to attacks from the wasp *Asobara japonica*, probably because of a long-

continued interaction with braconid parasitoids [48, 49]. Additionally, on southeast Asia, two Drosophila

species closely related to *D. rhopaloa* breed on plants that are also commonly used as food by

Lepidoptera larvae [50], which could facilitate an encounter between Cotesia wasps and unusual

dipteran hosts. Hence, it is not difficult to conceive that *Cotesia* wasps attack, and sometimes can

successfully parasitize Drosophila larvae, even if these interactions may be rare.

PDV-Helitron exaptation?

There are several reports of TE integrations in PDV (e.g. [12, 14]). Moreover, Helitrons have

already been found in the genomes of Cotesia species and in their respective PDVs, and were also

involved in HT events [13, 15, 16]. However, all these insertions represent non-autonomous short or

fragmented elements. To our knowledge, we describe the first instance of a putative autonomous

Helitron that not only integrated the PDV genome, but effectively became a viral segment.

Exaptation refers to features originally evolved for some function but that were later co-opted

for a different role [51]. Repetitive DNAs like TEs can also take part on this process [52], as revealed by

many studies in eukaryotes (recently reviewed by [53]). Although there is evidence for the role of TEs on

PDV evolution, including the exaptation of a gene apparently derived from from a retroelement

(reviewed in [54]), we report the first intact TE that appears to have been co-opted by a bracovirus. The

main reasons for this suggestion are: (i) this TE appears to be autonomous; (ii) it has conserved an intact

structure in the genome of *C. vestalis* for the last ~ 1 my, despite the low number of copies; (iii) the

element occupies almost 94% of segment CvBV_c35, which is one of the most replicated circles of this

virus [9]; (iv) it contains the only ORF in CvBV_c35, and all known PDV segments have coding sequences,

with a few exceptions [55]; (v) the CvBV_c35 portion outside Hel_c35 has only 373 bp, and does not

contain any ORF or conserved sequences found in other PDVs (apart from segment CvBV_c19). Although

it is possible that this short sequence has a functional role (e.g. as an encapsidation signal), the whole

PDV segment CvBV_c35 is essentially a Helitron. Furthermore, we found a single full copy of Hel_c35 in

the *C. vestalis* genome, even though *D. rhopaloa* and *B. mori* contain several highly similar partial copies

(data not shown). This unique arrangement for a TE in a eukaryote genome reinforces the suggestion

that segment CvBV_c35 has been kept as an intact Helitron by selective constraints.

Supposing that Hel_c35 is not just a selfish element within the CvBV genome, but also play an

active role in this bracovirus, an import question emerges: what could be the advantage of having a

Helitron in a PDV genome? We have three non-mutually excluding hypotheses to explain this question.

The first hypothesis is that this Helitron Rep/Hel was exapted by CvBV for its helicase function,

to aid the amplification of viral replication units or circles in wasp calyx cells. Most viral genes thought to

be essential for BV replication have not being identified, with a few exceptions, like a nudiviral helicase

and a fen-like flap endonuclease [4]. The Pif1 family of helicases (which include the Hel domain in

Rep/Hel proteins) and the flap endonucleases are important to process DNA secondary structures like

hairpin or fold-back substrates during replication [56, 57]. Interestingly, TA-rich inverted repeats and

other palindromic motifs capable of forming hairpins are found throughout the proviral genomes of BVs,

and probably serve as replication origins [23, 24]. Although possible, this hypothesis does not explain

why the Rep/Hel ORF is part of the CvBV encapsidated genome, as that would not be necessary for

replication in calyx cells.

The second hypothesis, is the use of the whole Helitron (with its non-coding sequences) as a

mechanism for specific segment CvBV_c35 amplification in calyx cells of wasps, which could explain why

CvBV_c35 constitutes one of the most abundant circles in CvBV, despite being a new segment. This

'auto-replication' would be useful if PDV capsids also play a role on virulence, independently of the

genes they carry. In that case, abundant segments could be selected for their ability to assemble more

capsids that are later injected into the host. This hypothesis is based on the observation that *Microplitis*

demolitor produces some BV encapsidated segments with no apparent coding sequences [55], and

several parasitoid wasp species, including braconids, use virus-like particles (VLP) with no detected PDV

sequences as virulence factors against their hosts [4, 49, 58]. In contrast to the first hypothesis, this

scenario also predicts the conservation of Hel_c35 non-coding sequences, as they would be at least

partially necessary for segment CvBV_c35 to take advantage of the Helitron rolling-circle replication

(RCR) mechanism. That is because Rep/Hel proteins recognize Helitron terminal sequence motifs to start

and finish RCR correctly [59]. Although the sequences used in our analysis display slightly higher

nucleotide conservation on coding regions in comparison with non-coding regions (data not shown), the

exact level of sequence stability necessary for Rep/Hel recognition and RCR viability of Helitrons is not

well understood.

The third hypothesis is that CvBV_c35 ORF could be used to replicate its own circle and other

CvBV circles, once within host cells. Like the second hypothesis, this explanation considers the fact that

Hel_c35 Rep/Hel is part of the BV encapsidated genome, but in this case, the Rep/Hel protein would

further amplify other CvBV genes after their injection in the host, in addition to CvBV_c35 circles. This

mechanism of circle replication in host cells could further increase the number of CvBV genes, and

therefore enhance virulence. This scenario would be particularly interesting to investigate, as all PDVs

analyzed to date only express replication genes in the calyx cells of wasps, and apparently do not

replicate after encapsidation and injection in host cells [1, 11]. Thus, the hypothesis of Hel_c35

exaptation by CvBV for some replication-related function is plausible, even though the replication of this

group of viruses is not fully understood.

In order to test the three hypotheses stressed above, more in-depth experimental assays with

parasitoid and host nucleotide sequencing will be necessary. Also, the extent and importance of the

putative Hel_c35 exaptation by CvBV could be further validated through a combination of genome and

transcriptome studies using *C. vestalis* and the associated CvBV from the same wasp strain. That is

because it is currently not possible to discard that CvBV_c35 is polymorphic within *C. vestalis* wasps

from different lineages.

Conclusion

There are several reports of TE integrations in PDVs. However, all these cases involve classical TE

insertions within PDV genomes, mostly of non-autonomous and fragmented elements. In contrast, our

study revealed an autonomous Helitron within a bracovirus segment, which is not only an integrated

copy, but a TE covering almost entirely a viral circle. The segment CvBV_c35 is effectively an intact

Helitron, and our results suggest that this TE might have been recently co-opted by CvBV, probably for

its helicase and/or rolling-circle replication function. This PDV-Helitron fusion points to a new type of

relationship between TEs and viruses. In addition, our data reinforces the idea of PDVs as effective
agents of horizontal transfer (HT), and of Helitrons as one of the TEs most commonly involved in those
events. Specifically, we reported two consecutive transfers of Hel_c35 across three insect orders.

The number of reported HT events in eukaryotes has been growing recently, although the
probability of their occurrence must be very low, as they require the presence of several biological
features and conditions. Notably, the tripartite parasitoid system composed by braconid wasps, PDVs
and hosts fulfill most of those requirements [60], being exceptional candidates for the study of HT in
eukaryotes. Indeed, there are several reports of HT events involving insect species associated with these
parasitoid systems [61]. As pointed out by Quicke [5], because the number of estimated Microgastrinae
species ranges between 16,000-40,000 and apparently, all of them have associated PDVs, this could be
the biggest known group of viruses. The future genome sequencing of more PDVs and wasp species will
help to understand the real importance of HT for the evolution of parasitoids and their hosts.
Furthermore, the investigation of events like this can contribute to ecological analyses, by revealing
potential hosts and cryptic interactions not detected in field studies.

Materials and Methods

Rep/Hel amino acid analysis

To confirm that the CvBV_c35 codes a Rep/Hel we first analyzed its amino acid sequence (AEE09607.1)
using the NCBI's conserved domain database (CDD) [62]. Rep/Hel ORF sequences were retrieved from
Repbase [20], either directly or using the CENSOR tool [21] with CvBV_c35 ORF as a query. Sequences
were then aligned using MEGA7 [63]. We determined the residues that characterize Rep domains by
visually inspecting the CvBV_c35 amino acid sequence, based on the consensus from Kapitonov and
Jurka [18] (Fig 1C).

Hel_c35 structure hallmarks

To determine the whole Helitron structure we first used the CvBV_c35 sequence as a query in a search
against the Repbase reference collection [21] (S1 Fig). After visually establishing the element's putative
boundaries, we determined its precise termini by aligning CvBV_c35 with the best results, and verified if
the sequence contained the hallmarks of Helitrons, like the insertion between AT nucleotides, the
hairpin structure close to the 3'-end, and the conserved terminal nucleotides. To further validate the TE
limits, we used the putative Helitron sequence (named Hel_c35) as a query for a Blastn search [64]

against the genome of *Cotesia vestalis* available on GenBank [65], and then used the best results,

together with their flanking sequences as a query to a second Blastn search. Both searches were

conducted using default parameters. Most results with multiple hits only display similarity with Hel_c35

sequences within the terminal nucleotides, suggesting that our defined limits for the element

encompass the whole TE.

Search for CvBV_c35 proviral locus and analysis of PDV conserved sequences

To Blast-search [64] the CvBV_c35 proviral locus, we used its sequence (HQ009558.1) as a query against

the *C. vestalis* genome on GenBank [65] using default parameters and selecting the best result based on

score, query cover and identity. We then scanned the selected contig (gb: JZSA01007369.1) searching

for sequences displaying similarity with PDV genomes and other PDV-related sequences available on

Genbank [65]. To detect structural features on the PDV-like sequences found in the selected contig, we

first used dotplots from the software Dotlet [66], followed by manual curation of sequences. Finally, the

analysis of palindromic or inverted repeat motifs, and their predicted secondary structures, were made

using the softwares mfold [67] and Palindrome analyser [68].

Transcriptome analysis of *Chilo suppressalis*

We used the Rep/Hel coding DNA sequence (CDS) of CvBV_c35 (HQ009558.1) as a query for Blastn

searches against the Short Read Archive (SRA) (SRR651040) and Transcriptome Shotgun Assembly (TSA)

(GAJS00000000) of *Chilo suppressalis* generated by Wu et al. [29]. Reads with identity > 90%, and

Unigenes with score ≥ 200 were selected. The sequences of selected Unigenes were then used as

queries for Blastn searches against genomes from all insect orders for comparison. All searches were

conducted using default parameters. The sequences from Unigene42046 and the corresponding region

from the CvBV_c35 CDS were aligned using M-coffee [69] (S3 Fig).

Search on Arthropoda genomes, alignment and phylogeny

We conducted Blastn searches [64] on all Arthropoda genomes available on GenBank [65], using a query

of 1,675 bp from the Hel_c35 Rep/Hel ORF located in the 'Rep region' and applying default parameters.

This region contains the Rep motif that is exclusive from Helitrons (S1 Data), in contrast to the 'Hel

region' and its Hel motif belonging the Pif1 family of helicases, which are involved in many cellular

processes and pervasive in eukaryotes [10]. Therefore, to avoid false positives, and because most of the

initial sampling searches using the whole ORF (4,538bp) retrieved only fragmented hits, we decided to

use a shorter query covering only the Rep region. This selected nucleotide stretch correspond to the

"Helitron_like_N" domain annotated on the NCBI's CDD [62], the rest of the catalytic core that we

manually selected using the Helitron consensus (see 'Rep/Hel amino acid analysis' above), and an

intermediate region between Rep and Hel (S1 Data). In order to include in our study only TEs from the

same family (see [70] for a hierarchical proposal for transposable elements classification), results with >

70% cover and > 80% identity were selected based on their Max score, and then aligned using MUSCLE

on MEGA7 [63]. The final alignment was formatted on Jalview [71] to be better visualized (S4 Fig).

Although we recognize that Helitrons families should be classified in a manner distinct from most DNA

TEs, due to their peculiar structure and evolutionary dynamics [19], our interest was to retrieve coding

sequences, including the ones from elements lacking their terminal 30 bp used in the mentioned

classification. For the phylogeny of aligned Rep sequences, we used MrBayes 3.2 [72] to run a mixed

analysis, which samples across the different nucleotide substitution models. The results were compared

with the phylogeny estimated using MEGA7 [63], with the Maximum Likelihood method, and using the

Tamura 3-parameter model [73], which resulted a similar branch topology (data not shown). The main

geographical distributions of the taxa included in the phylogeny were retrieved from various Web

sources.

Date estimation of HT events

For the date estimation of the HT events between *Drosophila rhopaloa*, *Cotesia vestalis* and *Bombyx*

mori, we used the equation for divergence time given by

$T = K/2r$

where T is the number of generations, K is the number of substitutions per site, and r is the rate of

nucleotide substitution, which is equal to the mutation rate (μ) for neutral mutations [74]. The

sequences used comprised the 5' and 3' non-coding flanking regions of the Hel_c35 ORF, which together

sum ~ 750 bp. The copy from CvBV was used to represent *C. vestalis*, and as a query for Blast searches in

the genomes of *D. rhopaloa* and *B. mori*. Although we used non-coding sequences flanking the Hel_c35

ORF for the analysis, assuming they evolve neutrally, the importance of these regions for Helitron

transposition are not fully understood, apart from the terminal 40 bp on each end [59]. As the selective

pressure on these sequences cannot be discarded, the assumption of neutrality should be taken

cautiously. For that reason, we used one equation ($T = K/2\mu$) for a minimum date estimation, with both

sequences evolving neutrally, and another ($T = K/\mu$) for a maximum date estimation, with only one

sequence evolving neutrally. This second equation (maximum threshold) gives the divergence time for a

single branch in the phylogeny [75], and represents the hypothetical scenario where the whole Helitron

sequence has been conserved (or 'static') since the HT events. We considered an μ value of 3.0 x 10^{-9}

mutations per generation per site per haploid genome for *D. rhopaloa*, *C. vestalis* and *B. mori*, based on

the direct measures conducted on four insect species from three different orders [76–79], and on the

possibility that insects might have the same mutation rate [79]. For alignment and estimation of

evolutionary divergence between sequences (*K*) we used MEGA7 [63]. As the *T* values are given in

number of generations, and we were interested in estimate the HT dates in millions of years (*mya*), two

averages for the number of generations per year (gen/y) were used: one for the *D. rhopaloa – C. vestalis*

(14 gen/y) and another for the *C. vestalis – B. mori* (11 gen/y) HT event. They were based on the known

estimates for each taxon: ~ 10 gen/y for the *D. melanogaster* species group [75, 80, 81, 82], ~ 18 gen/y

for Braconidae [83, 84], and ~ 4 gen/y for *B. mori* [85, 86].

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Figure Captions

Figure 1. Schematic diagram of the Helitron-containing segment c35 from *Cotesia vestalis* Bracovirus (CvBV). (A) CvBV segments are encapsidated as double-strand DNA circles. (B) Segment c35 contains an ORF (light purple) flanked by sequences similar to Helitron TEs (dark purple). This segment also has a 373 bp viral sequence (green). (C) Structural and coding features of Hel_c35. The Rep catalytic core residues are depicted in black, and the Helitron consensus Rep domain (from [18]) is shown below in grey.

Figure 2. Putative *C. vestalis* (strain ANU101) proviral locus which contains a sequence very similar (~ 99.9% identity) to Hel_c35. This region is marked by the presence of several sequences similar to other polydnaviruses (in blue), and the presence of direct and inverted repeats (black arrowheads). The asterisk denotes a PDV conserved region with a complex array of direct, inverted and tandem repeats.

Figure 3. Transcripts from the *Cotesia* parasitized host, *Chilo suppressalis* (Lepidoptera), displaying similarity with Hel_c35 regions.

Figure 4. Cotesia phylogeny with four species (in bold) from which we investigated the presence of Hel_c35 in the respective BV genomes. Presence of Hel_c35 in *C. vestalis*, and putative presence of Hel_c35 in *C. chilonis* represented by green and orange stars, respectively. Adapted from [30].

Figure 5. Phylogeny of Hel_c35 Rep domain sequences in several insect genomes. Species name colors indicate the major geographical regions in which these species are found. CvBV clade is highlighted in yellow. A list of species and accession numbers is given in S2 Table.

Figure 6. Hypothetical evolutionary history of Hel_c35. This TE was already present in the ancestor of the oriental subgroup of the *melanogaster* species group. Less than one million years ago (mya), possibly during non-specific parasitation of *Drosophila rhopaloa*, Hel_c35 was horizontally transferred to the *Cotesia vestalis* lineage. Following transpositional activity in *C. vestalis* chromosomes, Hel_c35 eventually inserted into an active proviral locus and begun being replicated and encapsidated as the segment c35. Now replicated to high copy numbers and able to infect cells, it was horizontally transferred again (< 0.3 mya) to *Bombyx mori*, a likely Lepidopteran host of *Cotesia vestalis*.

739   **Figure 1**

744   **Figure 2**

748 **Figure 3**

753 **Figure 4**

756   **Figure 5**

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