3 **Title**

4 Monotreme-specific conserved proteins derived from retroviral reverse transcriptase
5
Authors

Koichi Kitao[1], Takayuki Miyazawa[1*], So Nakagawa[2*]

Affiliations

[1]Laboratory of Virus-Host Coevolution, Institute for Frontier Life and Medical Sciences,

Kyoto University, Sakyo-ku, Kyoto 606-8507, Japan

[2]Department of Molecular Life Science, Tokai University School of Medicine, Isehara,

Kanagawa 259-1193, Japan.

*Correspondence to: takavet@infront.kyoto-u.ac.jp (T.M.) and so@tokai.ac.jp (S.N.)

Abstract

Endogenous retroviruses (ERVs) have played an essential role in the evolution of

mammals. Many ERV-derived genes are reported in the therians that are involved in

placental development. However, the contribution of the ERV-derived genes in

monotremes, which are oviparous mammals, remains to be uncovered. Here, we

conducted a comprehensive search for possible ERV-derived genes in platypus and

echidna genomes and identified three reverse transcriptase-like genes named *RTOM1*, *2*,

and *3*. They were found to be clustered in the *GRIP2* intron. Phylogenetic analysis

revealed that *RTOM1*, *2*, and *3* are strongly conserved between these species, and they

were generated by tandem duplications before the divergence of platypus and echidna.

The *RTOM* transcripts were specifically expressed in the testis, suggesting the

physiological importance of *RTOM* genes. This is the first study reporting monotreme-

specific *de novo* gene candidates derived from ERVs, which provides new insights into

the unique evolution of monotremes.

Endogenous retroviruses (ERVs) are remnants of retroviral genomes found in the host

genomes. ERVs are retroviruses that infect the host germline cells and are integrated into

the host genome (Johnson 2019). Young ERVs retain their viral open reading frames

(ORFs), but gradually lose their intact ORFs due to the accumulation of mutations.

However, proteins expressed from ERVs sometimes evolve as functional genes in the host

(Ueda et al. 2020). A typical example is the syncytin genes that are derived from ERVs.

In humans, syncytin-1 and -2 encode fusogenic proteins that are expressed in the placenta

(Mi et al. 2000; Blond et al. 2000; Blaise et al. 2003). In mice, other ERV-derived

fusogenic genes, syncytin-A and -B, are required for trophoblast cell fusion in the placenta

(Dupressoir et al. 2009; Dupressoir et al. 2011). In mammals, such various fusogenic

genes are known to be involved in placental development, which have been independently

acquired from different ERVs in different mammalian lineages. That is a representative

example of the convergent evolution (Imakawa et al. 2015). In addition, other ERV-

derived genes that does not show fusogenic activity have also been found to be expressed

in the placenta. For example, *HEMO* encoding a secreted envelope protein (Heidmann et

al. 2017) as well as *gagV1* and *pre-gagV1* genes (Boso et al. 2021) are highly expressed

in the human placenta. In contrast, it is unknown whether ERV-derived genes are co-opted

in monotremes that are egg-laying mammals. Comparative studies for the detection of

ERV-derived genes have been conducted in mammalian genomes, including the platypus

(Nakagawa and Takahashi 2016; Wang and Han 2020). However, for monotremes, only

the genome sequence of one species, the platypus, was available (OANA5), the quality

of which was limited (Warren et al. 2008). Recently, high-quality monotreme genomes of

platypus (mOrnAna1.p.v1) and echidna (mTacAcu1.pri) were sequenced using long-read

sequencing technology (Zhou et al. 2021), making it possible to search for conserved

ERV genes in monotremes. Here, we performed a comparative analysis of the genomes

of these two monotremes and found three ERV-derived genes specific to the monotreme

lineage.

To comprehensively search for ERV genes in monotremes, we extracted ORFs from the

genomes of platypus and echidna. The amino acid sequences obtained by the virtual

translation of these ORFs were used as queries for the sequence search. We used the

hidden Markov model (HMM) of the retroviral genes in the Gypsy Database 2.0 (GyDB)

(Llorens et al. 2011) as the subject of the sequence search (supplementary table S1). We

identified ORFs similar to *gag*, *pro*, *pol*, and *env* genes (fig. 1A). These ORFs are

presumed to be a mixture of (1) ORFs that are evolutionarily conserved and (2) ORFs of

young transposons that retain their ORFs. To exclude young ERV ORFs, we performed

the clustering analysis based on the amino acid sequence identity. Since young ERVs are

thought to be included in large clusters due to their mutual similarity, we removed

sequences that belonged to large clusters consisting of more than 10 sequences. Next,

using the platypus ORFs as queries, and the echidna ORFs as the subjects, we conducted

a sequence similarity search using BLASTp. We obtained nine ORF pairs with high amino

acid similarity and the same synteny between platypus and echidna (supplementary table

S2). For six out of the nine ORF pairs, we found respective homologs in the human

genome, indicating that they were either ERV genes acquired in the common mammalian

ancestor or host genes with high similarity to ERVs. Indeed, one of the six genes is

ASPRV1 that is a known ERV-derived protease gene acquired in the common ancestor of

mammals and is responsible for skin maintenance (Matsui et al. 2011). The remaining

three genes were not found in the human genome. They were located tandemly in the

intron of the *GRIP2* gene in the opposite direction (fig. 1B). All three ORFs showed high

similarity to the reverse transcriptase (RT) of spumaretrovirus in GyDB (supplementary

table S3). Therefore, we designated these genes as *RTOM* [RT-like ORF in Monotreme],

and three genes were named as *RTOM1*, *RTOM2*, and *RTOM3* in order of their location

from the 5′ direction (fig. 1B). The *RTOM* coding sequences were searched in the

genomes of six mammals, two birds, eight reptilians, and two amphibians (supplementary

table S4); however, significant hits were not obtained other than in platypus and echidna

(BLASTn: E-value < 1E-5). Therefore, the *RTOM* genes could be monotreme-specific

and originated more than 55 million years ago, the divergence time of platypus and

echidna (Zhou et al. 2021).

We found that the gene structures of *RTOM* genes in the platypus genome were annotated

in the RefSeq database (fig. 2A). *RTOM1*, *2*, and *3* genes of platypus contained two

introns in the 5′ UTR, and the entire *RTOM* ORFs are expressed as mRNA excluding a

second splicing variant of *RTOM3* that partially lost its ORF (fig. 2A). In echidna,

RTOM2 and *RTOM3* gene structures were annotated in the RefSeq transcripts; however,

RTOM1 was not annotated. By conducting transcriptome assemblies of RNA-seq data of

echidna tissues (supplementary table S5), we reconstructed the *RTOM1* transcript (fig.

2B; supplementary data S1). As a result, all echidna *RTOM* transcripts have two introns

in the 5′ UTR, which was similar to observations for platypus. According to the alignment

of the six amino acid sequences of platypus and echidna RTOM proteins, RTOM2 lacks

a region shared by RTOM1 and RTOM3, but the C-terminal region was conserved among

the RTOM proteins without insertion or deletion (fig. 2C). To investigate the tissue-

specific expression of *RTOM* genes, we analyzed the RNA-seq data of platypus and

echidna (supplementary table S5). In platypus, *RTOM1*, *2*, and *3* were commonly highly

expressed in the testis (fig. 2D). *GRIP2* was expressed not only in the testis but also in

the brain, and its expression level was lower than that of the *RTOM* genes. This suggests

that the *RTOM* expression was not a result of the *GRIP2* expression. We further

investigated the mapped reads using Interactive Genome Viewer (Thorvaldsdóttir et al.

2013). It was found that *RTOM3* showed a splicing variant with an intron in the coding

region, as shown in the RefSeq transcript (supplementary fig S1). In echidna, we found

that all *RTOM* transcripts were specifically expressed in the testis, similar to platypus.

Expression of *GRIP2* in echidna testis was also relatively low, strengthening the idea that

the *RTOM* expression is independent of *GRIP2* expression (fig. 2E). Given the higher

expression level of *RTOM2* in both platypus and echidna, this gene may play a central

role of the RTOM proteins. It is still possible that the relative expression levels of three

genes may change according to tissues and developmental stages that were not examined

in this study.

To obtain insights into the viral origin of the *RTOM* genes, we performed a BLASTp

search of the amino acid sequence of platypus RTOM1 against the NCBI virus database.

We found that retrovirus Pol proteins from various distinct lineages, namely

gammaretrovirus, deltaretrovirus, epsilonretrovirus, and spumaretrovirus, are similar to

the RTOM1 proteins (BLASTp: E-value < 1E-20). In all hits, the retroviral Pol proteins

showed high similarity to the latter half of RTOM1 (about 370-607aa). Domain search

against the Pfam database (Mistry et al. 2021) in the HMMER web service (Finn et al.

2011) revealed that the latter half of RTOM1 and RTOM3 contain RT domains (fig. 3A;

supplementary fig. S2). A phylogenetic tree was constructed from the RT regions of the

RTOM proteins and the retroviral Pol proteins (fig. 3B). The RTOM proteins appear to

be more related to class III retroviruses, including spumaviruses or spumavirus-related

MuERV-L (Llorens et al. 2009). The tree topology suggested that *RTOM1* emerged at first,

and *RTOM2* and *RTOM3* were then generated by tandem gene duplications before the

divergence of platypus and echidna (fig. 3C). In the non-RT region of RTOM1

(approximately 1-369aa), no significant hits for retroviruses were obtained (fig. 3A). We

performed a BLASTp search for all non-redundant proteins in the GenBank database for

the non-RT region of RTOM1; however, no similar proteins were found except for

RTOM2 and 3 (E-value < 0.05). Therefore, the non-RT region of the *RTOM* genes does

not seem to be derived from ERV genes or conserved host genes. Considering the

structural divergence of the non-RT region, such as deletion of RTOM2 and splicing

variant of platypus RTOM3 (fig. 2C), the RT region is a core domain of the RTOM

proteins, and the non-RT region may provide functional modifications specific to each

RTOM protein.

During the 187-million-years history after diverging from monotremes (Zhou et al. 2021),

therians have acquired many ERV genes and evolved their unique features, especially the

placenta (Imakawa and Nakagawa 2017). Our work revealed that monotremes also

domesticated ERV genes. The functional inference of the RTOM proteins is difficult as

co-opted RT genes genetically similar to the *RTOM* genes have not been reported in other

vertebrates to the best of our knowledge. One possibility is that RTOM proteins may

function as restriction factors against ERVs and retrotransposons as well as exogenous

retroviruses. For example, gag-derived *Fv1* (Best et al. 1996) and env-derived *Fv4* (Ikeda

and Sugimura 1989) inhibit retroviral infection in mice. It is possible that the RT domains

in the *RTOM* genes may compete with retroviral infection and/or retrotransposition as

antagonists. Another possibility is that RTOM proteins are involved in physiological

functions unique to monotremes. To investigate that, it would be important to clarify

which cells (viz. germ cells or somatic cells) in testis express the *RTOM* genes. Further

studies pertaining to *RTOM1*, *2*, and *3* in platypus and echidna will expand our

understanding of ERV co-option during the evolution of mammals.

159   Materials and Methods

Identification of conserved ERV genes

The platypus genome (mOrnAna1.p.v1, GCF_004115215.1) and the echidna genome

(mTacAcu1.pri, GCF_015852505.1) were used for the ERV gene screening (please see

fig. 1). The 240-nt ORF flanked by stop codons were retrieved using the getorf program

in the European Molecular Biology Open Software Suite (Rice et al. 2000). For HMM-

based sequence search, hmmscan was used (Expected threshold: 1E-5) in HMMER3

v3.2.2 (Eddy 2011). ORFs were clustered using CD-HIT v4.8.1 (Li and Godzik 2006)

with 50% amino acid identity. The sequence search for platypus ORFs against echidna

ORFs was conducted using BLASTp v2.10.0+ with an e-value < 1E-50 (Camacho et al.

2009). Hits with a bitscore > 400 were retrieved and checked the synteny was checked

using the UCSC genome browser (https://genome.ucsc.edu/index.html).

Expression analysis

RNA-seq data of platypus (20 samples from 6 tissues) (Marin et al. 2017) and echidna

(11 samples from 7 tissues) (Zhou et al. 2021) were used (supplementary file S5). Low-

quality reads were trimmed and filtered using fastp v0.19.5 with default options (Chen et

al. 2018). The filtered reads were mapped to the each reference genome using HISAT2

v2.1.0 (Pertea et al. 2016). Based on the 11 RNA-seq sequencing data mapped on the

echidna genome, we obtained the echidna *RTOM1* transcript by conducting transcriptome

assembly using Stringtie2 v2.1.6 with "--merge" option (Kovaka et al. 2019). We added

the coordinates of the echidna *RTOM1* transcript (supplementary data S1) to the RefSeq

gene coordinates. We then calculated the expression levels for 20 platypus and 11 echidna

RNA-seq samples using the Stringtie2 program with default options (Kovaka et al. 2019).

Phylogenetic analysis

Representative retroviral Pol amino acid sequences were retrieved from the GyDB

collection

(https://gydb.org/index.php/Alignment?alignment=POL_retroviridae_Biology_Direct_4

_41_2009&format=txt) (Llorens et al. 2009). A multiple alignment was generated using

MAFFT v7.487 (Katoh and Standley 2013), and poorly aligned regions were removed

using trimAl v1.4.rev15 (Capella-Gutiérrez et al. 2009). A phylogenetic tree was

constructed using IQ-TREE2 v2.0.8 (Minh et al. 2020) with 1000 replicates of ultrafast-

bootstrap (Hoang et al. 2018). The tree was visualized using FigTree v1.4.4

(http://tree.bio.ed.ac.uk/software/figtree/).

Acknowledgments

We would like to thank Editage for English language editing. This work was supported

by Grant-in-Aid for JSPS fellows 20J22607 to K.K. and JSPS KAKENHI 20K06775 and

20H03150 to T.M. and S.N. The super-computing resource was partially supported by the

NIG supercomputer at ROIS National Institute of Genetics.

References

Best S, Le Tissier P, Towers G, Stoye JP. 1996. Positional cloning of the mouse
retrovirus restriction gene Fv1. *Nature.* 382:826–829.

Blaise S, de Parseval N, Bénit L, Heidmann T. 2003. Genomewide screening for
fusogenic human endogenous retrovirus envelopes identifies syncytin 2, a gene
conserved on primate evolution. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A.* 100:13013–13018.

Blond JL, Lavillette D, Cheynet V, Bouton O, Oriol G, Chapel-Fernandes S, Mandrand
B, Mallet F, Cosset FL. 2000. An envelope glycoprotein of the human
endogenous retrovirus HERV-W is expressed in the human placenta and fuses
cells expressing the type D mammalian retrovirus receptor. *J Virol.* 74:3321–
3329.

Boso G, Fleck K, Carley S, Liu Q, Buckler-White A, Kozak CA. 2021. The oldest co-
opted gag gene of a human endogenous retrovirus shows placenta-specific
expression and is upregulated in diffuse large B-cell lymphomas. *Mol Biol Evol.*
38:5453–5471.

Camacho C, Coulouris G, Avagyan V, Ma N, Papadopoulos J, Bealer K, Madden TL.
2009. BLAST+: architecture and applications. *BMC Bioinformatics* 10:421.

Capella-Gutiérrez S, Silla-Martínez JM, Gabaldón T. 2009. trimAl: A tool for
automated alignment trimming in large-scale phylogenetic analyses.
Bioinformatics 25:1972–1973.

Chen S, Zhou Y, Chen Y, Gu J. 2018. fastp: an ultra-fast all-in-one FASTQ
preprocessor. *Bioinformatics* 34:i884–i890.

Dupressoir A, Vernochet C, Bawa O, Harper F, Pierron G, Opolon P, Heidmann T.
2009. Syncytin-A knockout mice demonstrate the critical role in placentation of a
fusogenic, endogenous retrovirus-derived, envelope gene. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U*
S A. 106:12127–12132.

Dupressoir A, Vernochet C, Harper F, Guégan J, Dessen P, Pierron G, Heidmann T.
2011. A pair of co-opted retroviral envelope syncytin genes is required for
formation of the two-layered murine placental syncytiotrophoblast. *Proc Natl*
Acad Sci U S A 108:E1164–E1173.

Eddy SR. 2011. Accelerated profile HMM Searches. *PLoS Comput Biol.* 7:e1002195.

Finn RD, Clements J, Eddy SR. 2011. HMMER web server: interactive sequence
similarity searching. *Nucleic Acids Res.* 39:W29–W37.

Heidmann O, Béguin A, Paternina J, Berthier R, Deloger M, Bawa O, Heidmann T.
2017. HEMO, an ancestral endogenous retroviral envelope protein shed in the
blood of pregnant women and expressed in pluripotent stem cells and tumors.
Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A. 114:E6642–E6651.

Hoang DT, Chernomor O, Von Haeseler A, Minh BQ, Vinh LS. 2018. UFBoot2:
Improving the ultrafast bootstrap approximation. *Mol Biol Evol.* 35:518–522.

Ikeda H, Sugimura H. 1989. Fv-4 resistance gene: a truncated endogenous murine
leukemia virus with ecotropic interference properties. *J. Virol.* 63:5405–5412.

Imakawa K, Nakagawa S. 2017. The phylogeny of placental evolution through dynamic
integrations of retrotransposons. *Prog Mol Biol Transl Sci.* 145:89–109.

Imakawa K, Nakagawa S, Miyazawa T. 2015. Baton pass hypothesis: successive
incorporation of unconserved endogenous retroviral genes for placentation during
mammalian evolution. *Genes Cells.* 20:771–788.

Johnson WE. 2019. Origins and evolutionary consequences of ancient endogenous
retroviruses. *Nat Rev Microbiol.* 17:355–370.

Katoh K, Standley DM. 2013. MAFFT multiple sequence alignment software version 7:
improvements in performance and usability. *Mol Biol Evol.* 30:772–780.

Kovaka S, Zimin A V., Pertea GM, Razaghi R, Salzberg SL, Pertea M. 2019.

Transcriptome assembly from long-read RNA-seq alignments with StringTie2.
Genome Biol. 20:278.

Li W, Godzik A. 2006. Cd-hit: a fast program for clustering and comparing large sets of
protein or nucleotide sequences. *Bioinformatics.* 22:1658–1659.

Llorens C, Muñoz-Pomer A, Bernad L, Botella H, Moya A. 2009. Network dynamics of
eukaryotic LTR retroelements beyond phylogenetic trees. *Biol Direct* 4:41.

Llorens C, Futami R, Covelli L, Domínguez-Escribá L, Viu JM, Tamarit D, Aguilar-
Rodríguez J, Vicente-Ripolles M, Fuster G, Bernet GP, et al. 2011. The Gypsy
Database (GyDB) of mobile genetic elements: release 2.0. *Nucleic Acids Res.*
39:D70–D74.

Marin R, Cortez D, Lamanna F, Pradeepa MM, Leushkin E, Julien P, Liechti A, Halbert
J, Brüning T, Mössinger K, et al. 2017. Convergent origination of a Drosophila-
like dosage compensation mechanism in a reptile lineage. *Genome Res.* 27:1974–
1987.

Matsui T, Miyamoto K, Kubo A, Kawasaki H, Ebihara T, Hata K, Tanahashi S,
Ichinose S, Imoto I, Inazawa J, et al. 2011. SASPase regulates stratum corneum
hydration through profilaggrin-to-filaggrin processing. *EMBO Mol Med.* 3:320–
333.

Mi S, Lee X, Li X, Veldman GM, Finnerty H, Racie L, LaVallie E, Tang XY, Edouard
P, Howes S, et al. 2000. Syncytin is a captive retroviral envelope protein
involved in human placental morphogenesis. *Nature* 403:785–789.

Minh BQ, Schmidt HA, Chernomor O, Schrempf D, Woodhams MD, Von Haeseler A,
Lanfear R. 2020. IQ-TREE 2: New models and efficient methods for
phylogenetic inference in the genomic era. *Mol Biol Evol.* 37:1530–1534.

Mistry J, Chuguransky S, Williams L, Qureshi M, Salazar GA, Sonnhammer ELL,
Tosatto SCE, Paladin L, Raj S, Richardson LJ, et al. 2021. Pfam: The protein
families database in 2021. *Nucleic Acids Res.* 49:D412–D419.

Nakagawa S, Takahashi MU. 2016. gEVE: a genome-based endogenous viral element
database provides comprehensive viral protein-coding sequences in mammalian
genomes. *Database.* 2016:1–8.

Pertea M, Kim D, Pertea GM, Leek JT, Salzberg SL. 2016. Transcript-level expression
analysis of RNA-seq experiments with HISAT, StringTie and Ballgown. *Nat*
Protoc. 11:1650–1667.

Rice P, Longden I, Bleasby A. 2000. EMBOSS: The European Molecular Biology Open
Software Suite. *Trends Genet.* 16:276–277.

Thorvaldsdóttir H, Robinson JT, Mesirov JP. 2013. Integrative Genomics Viewer
(IGV): high-performance genomics data visualization and exploration. *Brief*
Bioinform. 14:178–192.

Ueda MT, Kryukov K, Mitsuhashi S, Mitsuhashi H, Imanishi T, Nakagawa S. 2020.
Comprehensive genomic analysis reveals dynamic evolution of endogenous
retroviruses that code for retroviral-like protein domains. *Mob DNA* 11:29.

Wang J, Han GZ. 2020. Frequent retroviral gene co-option during the evolution of
vertebrates. *Mol Biol Evol.* 37:3232–3242.

Warren WC, Hillier LW, Marshall Graves JA, Birney E, Ponting CP, Grützner F, Belov
K, Miller W, Clarke L, Chinwalla AT, et al. 2008. Genome analysis of the
platypus reveals unique signatures of evolution. *Nature* 453:175–183.

Zhou Y, Shearwin-Whyatt L, Li J, Song Z, Hayakawa T, Stevens D, Fenelon JC, Peel
E, Cheng Y, Pajpach F, et al. 2021. Platypus and echidna genomes reveal
mammalian biology and evolution. *Nature* 592:756–762.

Figure legends

FIG. 1. Identification of *RTOM1*, *2*, and *3*. (A) Schematic representation of the in silico

screening for conserved ERV-derived genes in platypus and echidna. (B) Genomic

context of *RTOM1*, *2*, and *3*.

FIG. 2. Expression of *RTOM1*, *2*, and *3*. (A) Schematic representation of the RefSeq

transcripts of the *RTOM* genes in platypus. (B) Schematic representation of the

reconstructed *RTOM1* transcript and RefSeq transcripts of the *RTOM2* and *3* genes in

echidna. (C) Multiple alignment of the amino acid sequences of RTOM proteins. The

amino acid sequence of echidna RTOM1 was obtained from the genomic ORF.

"RTOM3A_plasypus" and "RTOM3B_platypus" are protein isoforms derived from

314 "XM_039910408.1" and "XM_029051290.2," respectively. The regions showing

315 similarity to the HMM of spumaretrovirus RT domain in GyDB are indicated in red. (D

316 and E) Tissue-specific expression of *RTOM* genes and *GRIP2* in (D) platypus and (E)

317 echidna. Normalized expression levels are presented as transcript per million (TPM).

FIG. 3. Evolution of *RTOM1*, *2*, and *3*. (A) Comparison between platypus RTOM1 and

retroviral Pol protein. Walleye epidermal hyperplasia virus 1 is represented as an example.

A region showing similarity to the Pol protein by BLASTp was designated as "RT region."

A region that did not show similarity to any retroviral genes was designated as "non-RT

region." (B) A phylogenetic tree constructed from the amino acid sequences of RT regions

of the six RTOM proteins and the retroviral Pol proteins in GyDB. The multiple alignment

326   is available in supplementary data S2. Ultrafast-bootstrap values obtained from 1000

327   times replication are shown in major branches. (C) Detailed representation of the clade

328   of the RTOM proteins shown in (B).

Supplementally FIG. S1. Screenshots of Interactive Genomic Viewer of RNA-seq reads

on the *RTOM* genes. The transcript tracks in blue lines display the coordinates from the

RefSeq GTF files. Thick blue lines indicate the coding sequences. Since there is no

corresponding RefSeq transcript for echidna *RTOM1*, its gene coordinate was manually

added from assembled transcripts in this study (Materials and Methods).

Supplementally FIG. S2. Protein domains in RTOM1, 2, and 3. The domain search was

conducted using hmmscan in HMMER web server with default options

(https://www.ebi.ac.uk/Tools/hmmer/search/hmmscan).

342