Ancestral and recent bursts of transposition shaped the massive genomes of plant pathogenic rust fungi

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Abstract

Background

Transposable elements (TEs) play a crucial role in genome evolution, influencing gene regulation, diversity, and genome architecture. Rust fungi of the order Pucciniales (Subphylum Pucciniomycotina) are the largest group of obligate biotrophic plant pathogens and harbor some of the largest and most TE-rich genomes - up to 1.2Gb - compared to other fungi. This global genomic expansion contrasts with the smaller genomes and minimal mobilome found in other Pucciniomycotina species. Despite the availability of high-quality genome assemblies, our understanding of TE dynamics in Pucciniales remains limited due to inconsistent and incomplete TE annotations.

Results

We analyzed the mobilomes of 13 Pucciniomycotina species, producing a manually curated TE library for each genome. In Pucciniales, TEs occupy 47–92% of the genome, whereas 2-36% of TEs are detected in other Pucciniomycotina genomes. The comparison of gene and TE repertoires indicates that TEs, particularly LTR-retrotransposons and TIR-DNA transposons, are the primary contributors to the genome expansion of the Pucciniales. We reconstructed the proliferation histories of TEs in the Pucciniales, combining sequence similarity, clustering, and molecular clock approaches. We highlight recent and ancient TE invasions with some LTR-Gypsy elements predating the divergence of Pucciniomycotina (~176 Mya), while most TE accumulation in Pucciniales occurred within the last 50 Mya. However, the TE invasions in the Pucciniales genomes do not seem to result from specific deficiencies in known TE-control mechanisms.

Conclusion

Our findings uncover extensive TE proliferation in Pucciniales, predominantly driven by recent LTR-Gypsy expansions. The retention of ancestral TEs and the consistently TE-rich

40   genomes observed in Pucciniales highlight TE proliferation as an ancestral genomic feature

41   in rust fungi.

42   **Keywords**: transposable elements, fungal genomics, rust fungi, plant-pathogens

BACKGROUND

Rust fungi (order Pucciniales) are ubiquitous plant pathogens that infect a wide range of vascular plants, including some of the world's most important crops and trees, such as wheat, soybean, poplar, and coffee trees [1, 2]. Epidemics caused by rust diseases can lead to significant yield losses, posing a substantial threat to global food security [2–4]. The Pucciniales are classified within the subphylum Pucciniomycotina, phylum Basidiomycota, in the Fungal Kingdom and represent the largest order of obligate biotrophic fungi, comprising over 8,000 species [5]. The Pucciniales are estimated to have emerged between 175-230 million years ago [5, 6]. Phylogenetic studies suggest that the diversification of rust fungi is closely tied to their obligate host association and coevolution, with occasional host jumps to unrelated species [7]. The obligate host association has shaped the genomic architecture of rust fungi. For instance, Pucciniales genomes show a reduced repertoire of plant cell wall-degrading enzymes, secondary metabolites, and transporter genes, typical traits of obligate biotrophic fungi [8–10]. However, Pucciniales genomes are exceptionally large, ranging from approximately 80 Mb to over 1.2 Gb [11, 12], and are expected to present even greater genome sizes [13], contrasting with the average ~46.5 Mb genome size commonly found in Basidiomycota [14]. These expanded genomes are characterized by lineage-specific multigene families, an abundance of secreted proteins encoding genes, and a high proportion of repetitive elements [8, 9, 11]. The genome size expansion observed in Pucciniales parallels other filamentous plant pathogens. For instance, several Ascomycetes and Oomycetes, such as *Blumeria graminis* and *Phytophthora infestans*, also possess large genomes exceeding 100 Mb, similarly characterized by a significant proportion of repetitive elements [15]. The high repeat content of Pucciniales genomes has posed challenges in generating high-quality genome assemblies, which are crucial for studying their organization and evolutionary dynamics.

The increasing affordability of new-generation sequencing technologies has revolutionized

the sequencing of high-quality reference genomes for numerous non-model organisms,

including species within the Pucciniales order [11, 16, 17]. The most recent genome

assemblies consist of gapless and phased chromosomes generated from dikaryotic spores

[11, 18]. Analyses of the most recent Pucciniales genomes have confirmed that transposable

elements (TEs) are major drivers of genome architecture and evolution in rust fungi [11, 17].

TEs are ubiquitous mobile DNA sequences capable of proliferating within their host

genomes. TEs are classified into two main classes based on transposition mechanisms [19].

Class I elements, or retrotransposons, replicate through an RNA intermediate, enabling their

insertion into new genomic positions. Class II elements, or DNA transposons, move either

through direct excision from double-stranded DNA or via single-strand excision followed by a

rolling-circle replication mechanism [19]. Classes are subdivided into Orders and Super-

families (SF) of TEs based on sequence structures [19]. Finally, TE copies with similar

sequences are grouped in TE families. Both classes contain autonomous elements, which

possess the machinery for independent transposition, and non-autonomous elements, which

rely on the transposition machinery of other elements to propagate [19].

TE-mediated genomic plasticity may confer significant adaptive advantages in plant-

pathogen interactions. TEs contribute to genomic plasticity by facilitating chromosomal

rearrangements, promoting compartmentalization, duplicating or deleting genes, and

influencing gene expression [20]. In the soybean rust *Phakopsora pachyrhizi*, a subset of

TEs is expressed alongside effectors during the early stages of infection, suggesting that

transposition activity may be influenced by the plant-rust interaction, as also reported in

other pathosystems [11, 21]. There is also evidence that fungal genomes have co-opted

some TEs [22]. For instance, the effector AvrK1 in the TE-rich *B. graminis* f. sp. *hordei*

genome is derived directly from a LINE retrotransposon [23]. The interplay between TE

expansion and transposition regulation is largely unknown in TE-rich fungal species,

including Pucciniales. However, these species appear to have evolved tolerant genomes

97 that can accommodate TE activity, unlike other fungal species with compact genomes [24].

98 This tolerance may play a crucial role in the adaptability of rust fungi, contributing to their

99 success as plant pathogens.

100 TE propagation can harm host genomes, and species have evolved defense mechanisms to

101 regulate TE proliferation. In fungi, TE activity is often controlled through epigenetic silencing

102 mechanisms [25, 26]. TEs are frequently associated with heterochromatin histone marks and

103 cytosine DNA methylation (5mC) [27]. Repeat-induced point mutation (RIP) is also a defense

104 mechanism that has been so far specifically found within Ascomycetes [8]. RIP inactivates

105 TEs through cytosine-to-thymine mutations and involves the DNA methyltransferases DIM2

106 and RID [25, 27, 28]. RNA interference (RNAi) adds another layer of TE control. The RNAi

107 pathway relies on three core components: Dicer, which processes double-stranded RNA into

108 small interfering RNAs (siRNAs); Argonaute, which incorporates these siRNAs to guide the

109 RNA-induced silencing complex (RISC); and RNA-dependent RNA polymerase (Rdmd),

110 which amplifies siRNAs to sustain the silencing response [29]. This pathway targets TE

111 transcripts for degradation or chromatin modifications, thereby repressing TE expression and

112 preventing transposition [30]. Despite its demonstrated importance in plants and animals,

113 RNAi-mediated TE regulation in fungi remains comparatively less studied. Comparative

114 genomic studies suggest that fungi exhibit significant diversity in their TE control

115 mechanisms, with some species retaining these pathways while others have lost them

116 through evolution [25, 27, 29].

117 The present study investigates the role of TEs in shaping Pucciniales genome architecture

118 over evolutionary timescales. We tested four key hypotheses: (i) TE invasions in Pucciniales

119 are the result of an ancestral transposition burst that has been preserved, (ii) TE invasions in

120 Pucciniales arise from species-specific independent bursts, (iii) TE proliferation reflects a

121 combination of ancestral bursts retained within the genome and recent species-specific

122 transposition events, and (iv) TE proliferation is an ancestral characteristic of

123 Pucciniomycotina evolution, which has been largely lost in other species but retained in

Pucciniales. To achieve this, we generated a comprehensive annotation and curation of

mobilomes across 13 selected Pucciniomycotina species with comparative genomic

analyses, focusing on TE diversity, abundance, and evolutionary dynamics. Additionally, we

compared gene content and patterns of multigene family expansion and contraction across

Pucciniomycotina genomes to detect potential evidence of TE control presence/absence.

RESULTS

The massive genome size of Pucciniales is determined by their extensive mobilomes

and large gene catalogs

To explore the contributors to the genome size expansion in Pucciniales, we selected a

panel of 13 Pucciniomycotina species with reference genomes comprising nine Pucciniales

species and four other Pucciniomycotina species (Fig. 1A; Table S1). We also included the

complete genomes of two *Puccinia graminis* f. sp. *tritici* strains to compare intra-specific

variation. The size of the 10 selected Pucciniales genomes ranges from 109 Mb

(*Melampsora larici-populina*) to 1.057 Gb (*P. pachyrhizi MT2006*), contrasting with the much

smaller genomes of the four other Pucciniomycotina genomes, with sizes ranging from 20

Mb (*Rhodosporidium toruloides*) to 33 Mb (*Microbotryum lychnidis-dioicae*) (Table S1; Fig.

1B). We compared gene contents and their contribution to the genome inflation of

Pucciniales. The Pucciniales display a minimum of 15,984 genes in *Melampsora americana*

and a maximum of 19,618 genes in *P. pachyrhizi*. In contrast, the gene catalogs in the other

Pucciniomycotina species range from 7,819 genes in *M. lychnidis-dioicae* to 9,854 in

Leucosporidia creatinivora (Table S1). The difference in gene numbers between Pucciniales

and other Pucciniomycotina species is significantly different (Wilcoxon test p-value < 0.05),

indicating that the genes slightly contribute to the Pucciniales genome expansion (Table S1).

The TE coverage in Pucciniales genomes ranges from 47% to 92.3% in *M. larici-populina*

and *P. pachyrhizi*, respectively (Fig. 1B; Table S1). We observed variation of the TE

coverage within the Pucciniales order and between closely related species. For instance, in
the Melampsoraceae, TE content represents 47.0% of the 109 Mb genome of *M. larici-*
populina to 83.7% of the 482 Mb genome of *Melamspora lini*. In the Pucciniaceae, TEs
covered from 49.4% of the 150 Mb genome of *Puccinia striiformis* f. sp. *tritici* to 77.3% of the
206 Mb genome of *Puccinia hordei* (Fig. 1B). In comparison, the TE coverage in the other
Pucciniomycotina ranges between 2.3% in *R. toruloides* and 36% in *L. creatinivora*.
Together, these results highlight the combined contributions of gene content and TEs to the
extensive genome size variation and inflation observed in Pucciniales, distinguishing them
from the other Pucciniomycotina species.

LTR retrotransposons are the major contributors to the extensive mobilome and
genome size expansion in the Pucciniales

To detect if TE proliferation in the Pucciniales is linked to specific elements, we further
examined the TE landscapes in the genomes of the selected Pucciniomycotina species
using REPET v3.0 followed by three rounds of manual curation to build a high-quality
Pucciniomycotina TE library. In total, we annotated 41,940 TE consensus sequences,
constituting the Pucciniomycotina TE library. TE annotation before curation detected 24,165
(57.6%) classified TE consensus sequences, 17,775 (42.4%) unclassified TE consensus
sequences, and 2,176 (5.2%) TE consensus sequences with conflictual annotations (Fig.
S1). After the first round of manual curation, we reduced the number of conflictual
annotations to 685 (1.6%) TE consensus sequences but could not resolve unclassified
annotations. Therefore, we used MCHelper [31] and improved the annotation of ~62%
(10,985) of previously unclassified TE consensus sequences (Fig. S1). We used a final step
during which we clustered all TE consensus sequences from the Pucciniomycotina TE
library to reduce redundancy and correct the remaining conflictual annotations. Our final
curated Pucciniomycotina TE library comprised 29,050 (71.96%) classified TE consensus
sequences and 11,319 (28.03%) unclassified TE consensus sequences (Tables S2-S4).

On average, the Pucciniales genomes are covered by 33.9% of Class I TEs, ranging from

15.4% (16.9 Mb) in *M. larici-populina* to 48.8% (515.8 Mb) in *P. pachyrhizi*, and 23.5% of

Class II TEs ranging from 13.2% in *M. lini* haplotype C (31.6Mb) to 31.8% in *Puccinia triticina*

haplotype A (39.3 Mb) (Fig. 2A; Table S2). By contrast, the Class I and Class II genome

coverages were drastically lower within the other Pucciniomycotina, with an average of

13.7% and 3.5%, respectively (Fig. 2A; Table S2). Class I elements represent the most

abundant elements in the Pucciniales except for the three genomes of *M. larici-populina* with

15.4% Class I (16.9 Mb), *Melampsora americana* with 18.8% Class I (21.1 Mb) and

P. striiformis f. sp. *tritici* 18.1% Class I (13.7 Mb) (Fig. 2A; Table S2). These results indicate

an important contribution of Class I elements in the genome expansions compared to the

Class II elements in six of the nine Pucciniales species.

The TE Orders content of the Pucciniales genomes predominantly comprises LTR

retrotransposons and TIR DNA transposons. LTRs represent 14.4% of the genome to 63.0%

in *M. americana* (16.2 Mb) and *M. lini* haplotype C (15.1 Mb), respectively (Fig. 2B-C; Table

S3). At the LTR super-family level, we mostly found Copia and Gypsy elements,

representing 2.9% of genome coverage (3.2 Mb in *M. larici-populina*) to 12.5% (3 Mb in *M.*

lini haplotype C) and 5.5% (6.2 Mb in *M. americana*) to 48.2% (11.6 Mb in *M. lini* haplotype

C), respectively (Fig. 2 D-E; Table S4). The non-LTR retrotransposons, such as LINE

elements, represent from 0.4% to 2.6% of the Pucciniales genomes. The non-autonomous

elements such as SINE represent less than 0.2% of the Pucciniales genomes (Tables S3

and S4). In the other Pucciniomycotina genomes, the amount of LINE covers up to 5.2% of

the genome of *M. lychnidis-dioicae* (1.4 Mb). TIRs represent most DNA transposons within

the Pucciniales genomes, with 10.2% to 28.1%, followed by non-autonomous MITE

representing 0.6% to 5.0% (Table S3). Interestingly, some TIRs super-family like CACTA,

hAT, MuDR, PIF-harbinger, and Tc1-Mariner are found only in the Pucciniales and not in the

other Pucciniomycotina (Fig. 2 D-E; Table S4). The Helitron elements cover a small

proportion of the genome, from 0.2% in *M. lini* haplotype C (6.2 Mb) to 2.6% in *P. triticina*

haplotype A (3.2 Mb). These results indicate that at the TE-Order level, the Pucciniales

display an overall similar TE landscape with a majority of LTRs and TIR elements,

suggesting ancient proliferation of TEs in the order Pucciniales. However, the variable

amount of LTR and TIR elements found between Pucciniales genomes, even at the

haplotype level, support additional bursts of transposition that occurred throughout the

evolution of the order Pucciniales.

Temporal dynamics of TE activity shaped the genome architecture of Pucciniales

We hypothesized that the proliferation of TEs observed in the Pucciniales could have

emerged through different scenarios throughout the evolution of the Pucciniomycotina. First,

we used a within genome sequence similarity-based approach to compare TEs from the

oldest insertions to the most recent insertions as follows: i) divergent TE consensus

sequences containing copies with less than 85% sequence identity, ii) intermediate TE

consensus sequences with copies of 85% to 95% sequence similarity and iii) conserved TE

consensus sequences comprising copies with more than 95% sequence identity [11, 12].

The average sequence identity of all TE consensus sequences per genome ranges from

79.0% (*R. toruloides*) to 91.9% (*M. lychnidis dioicae*). We observed 9.3-66.7% divergent (*M.*

lychnidis-dioicae and *R. toruloides*, respectively), 33.3-76.4% intermediate (*R. toruloides* and

Microbotrium intermedium, respectively), and 0.0-26.3% conserved (*R. toruloides* and *M.*

lychnidis-dioicae, respectively) TE consensus sequences in the other Pucciniomycotina (Fig.

3A-I; Table S5). Within the Pucciniales, TE consensus sequences similarity profiles revealed

29.9-66.1% divergent (*P. pachyrhizi* and *M. larici-populina*, respectively), 27.4-65.6%

intermediate (*M. americana* and *P. pachyrhizi*, respectively), and 2.6-7% conserved TE

consensus sequences (*Melampsora allii-populina* and *P. triticina*, respectively) (Fig. 3A-I;

Table S6). Among the Pucciniales genomes, we observed that LTRs and TIRs compose

most of each relative TE age category (Fig. 3A-I; Table S6). LTR elements represent 17.4-

34.2% of the divergent TEs (in *M. americana* and *P. hordei*, respectively), while TIR

elements represent 24.2-38.0% of the divergent TEs (in *P. pachyrhizi* and *M. larici-populina*,

respectively). In the conserved TEs, LTR elements represent 0.1-34.4% (in *M. larici-populina*

and *M. lini*, respectively), and TIR elements represent 7.6-33.3% (in *P. graminis f, sp, tritici*

Ug99 haplotype C and *M. larici-populina*, respectively) (Fig.3A-I; Table S6). The

heterogeneity in the composition of TEs with different relative conservation profiles (i.e.,

relative insertion ages) in the Pucciniales suggests that multiple waves of TE proliferation

occurred since the early divergence between the Pucciniales and the other

Pucciniomycotina species. The subset of highly conserved elements in all genomes also

indicates recent TE transposition events.

We further employed a clustering approach to identify TE families shared among or specific

to species within the Pucciniales order. We found no TE family shared across all the nine

Pucciniales species. However, we identified three clusters that are specific to the

Melampsoraceae and three that are specific to the Pucciniaceae (Fig. S2). These findings

suggest that the accumulation of ancient TE copies predated the divergence of the

family Melampsoraceae and the family Pucciniastraceae (58±17 million years ago,

according to Aime and McTaggart 2021 [2]) on one hand and the divergence of the

family Pucciniaceae and the family Sphaerophragmiaceae (approximately 68±17 million

years ago, according to Aime and McTaggart 2021 [2]) on the other hand. Interestingly,

the three Melampsoraceae-specific TE clusters were all TIR elements, whereas the

Pucciniaceae-specific clusters comprised two LTR retrotransposon clusters and one TRIM

cluster (Fig. S2; Tables S7 and S8). Additionally, we observed a predominance of species-

specific TE clusters, ranging from 650 clusters (3.8% of the mobilome) in *P. graminis* f. sp.

tritici 20-1 to 3,174 clusters (15.6% of the mobilome) in *P. triticina* (Fig. S2). Within these

species-specific clusters, TIR elements accounted for 3.5% of the mobilome in *M. americana*

(608 clusters) but only 0.05% (9 clusters) in *P. graminis* f. sp. *tritici* 21-0. Interestingly, we

identified haplotype-specific TE clusters in *M. lini* exhibiting 744 clusters (4.3% of its

mobilome), whereas *P. graminis* f. sp. *tritici* showed between 42 clusters in Ug99 and 45

clusters in 20-1 haplotypes (Fig. S2). These findings highlight the variation in TE composition

and specificity across species and even between haplotypes within individuals.

Finally, we retraced the evolutionary history of LTR invasion using their terminal repeats with

Kimura molecular clock estimates. Across all Pucciniales genomes, LTRs were found to

have accumulated over a broad temporal range, from 618 Mya to the present (Fig. 3J-K).

The oldest Gypsy elements were identified in *P. pachyrhizi*. 0.1% of LTRs accumulated

before 176 Mya, thus predating the divergence between the Pucciniales and the other

Pucciniomycotina. However, our analysis suggests that LTR accumulation within the

Pucciniales genomes, more particularly, spiked in the last 50 Mya, with a notable

acceleration reflecting LTR expansions occurring within the last 5 Mya (Fig. 3J-K). We also

identified two distinct proliferation profiles in the Pucciniales genomes. The first profile,

observed in *M. lini* and other Melampsoraceae species, exhibits sharp bursts of Gypsy LTR

activity, with up to 2,000 elements accumulating during specific intervals (e.g., 7-9 Mya, 6-4

Mya, and 3-2 Mya) (Fig. 3J). The second profile, characteristic of Phakopsoraceae and

Pucciniaceae species, demonstrates a more gradual accumulation of LTRs over time (Fig.

3K). These results collectively indicate that while genome inflation driven by TE invasion is a

shared feature of Pucciniales, multiple waves of proliferation have shaped their evolutionary

trajectories, reflecting diverse temporal dynamics of TE activity across lineages.

The TE invasion of the Pucciniales appears unrelated to deficiency in TE control

pathways

We investigated whether the TE invasion in Pucciniales compared to the other

Pucciniomycotina, might be due to a loss of control mechanisms. The most studied control

mechanism against TE proliferation in fungi is the induction of cytosine-to-thymine mutations

in repetitive regions through RIP mutations [25]. Using the composite RIP index, we

quantified RIP-like signatures in TE family consensus sequences in the Pucciniales and the

other Pucciniomycotina genomes. We estimated the average RIP composite index per TE

family ranging from -0.66 in *M. americana* to -0.15 in *L. creatinivora*, indicating the lack of

RIP-like signatures in TE families among the Pucciniales and the other Pucciniomycotina TE

family sequences (Table S9). Additionally, the two DNA methyltransferase genes associated

with RIP (DIM2 and RID) are absent from both the Pucciniales and the other

Pucciniomycotina genomes. We identified two other DNA methyltransferase genes DNMT5

and DNMT1 present across all Pucciniomycotina genomes, except for *P. hordei* in which we

did not find DNMT1 (Fig. S3). Finally, we investigated the presence or absence of genes

involved in the RNAi pathway, namely Argonaute, Dicer, and RNA-dependent RNA

polymerase Rdmd. We identified 25-72 (*P. hordei* and *P. triticina*) genes related to Dicer-like

genes in the Pucciniales and 25-29 Dicer-like in the other Pucciniomycotina genomes (Fig.

S4). Similarly, we identified 17-60 (*P. hordeii* and *M. lini*) Rdmd-like genes in the Pucciniales

and 12-15 Rdmd-like genes in the other Pucciniomycotina genomes (Fig. S4). We observed

a remarkable expansion of AGO1 solely in the *P. pachyrhizi* genome that displays 572

copies compared to a mean of 91 copies in the other species (Fig. S4). However, it remains

to determine whether these copies are truly functional. All Pucciniomycotina genomes,

regardless of their TE content, are equipped with genes potentially involved in TE control

through DNA methylation silencing and RNAi pathways. We conclude that the TE

proliferation observed in the Pucciniales genomes compared to the other Pucciniomycotina

is not attributable to the loss of genes involved in TE control mechanisms and related to RIP,

DNA methylation, or the RNAi pathway.

Finally, we analyzed gene family dynamics within the Pucciniomycotina subphylum to

investigate potential evidence of loss of genes that may relate to TE control mechanisms in

Pucciniales outside of the canonical mechanisms investigated above. For this, we

determined multigene families within the Pucciniomycotina using *Ustilago maydis* as an

outgroup and identified 46,545 orthogroups (Table S10). Of these, 2,830 core orthogroups

(49,535 genes) were shared across all genomes, including *U. maydis*, while 208 orthogroups

(3,666 genes) were specific to Pucciniomycotina (Table S10). We observed substantial

variation in species-specific orthogroups ranging from 73 in *M. lychnidis-dioicae* to 1,276 in

P. hordei. We identified 808 orthogroups in contraction and 15 orthogroups in expansion at

the separation of the Pucciniales and the other Pucciniomycotina (Fig S5). The 808

orthogroups in contraction in the Pucciniales (i.e., in expansion in the other

Pucciniomycotina) comprise a total of 4,523 genes, of which 39.7% (1,796 genes) are of

unknown functions (Table S11; Fig. S6). The five most represented functions within the

remaining orthogroups in contraction in the Pucciniales, include 333 genes related to

"Carbohydrate transport and metabolism", 258 genes related to "Transcription", 233 genes

related to "Chromatin structure and dynamics", 207 genes with function related to

"Secondary metabolites biosynthesis, transport and catabolism" and 197 genes related to

"Amino acid transport and metabolism" (Fig S6; Table S11). However, we identified only 15

orthogroups with a significant gene loss/gain between the Pucciniales and the other

Pucciniomycotina genomes, respectively (p-value < 0.05; Fig S7A). Two of these

orthogroups representing 58 genes, are significantly in contraction in the Pucciniales

genomes, and none display functions associated with the "Chromatin structure and

dynamics" category (Fig S7B). Based on the functional categories identified in this

comparative analysis, it remains possible that certain gene losses may be associated with

the loss of functions related to TE control among yet unidentified, functions that may belong

to the "Chromatin structure and dynamics" category.

DISCUSSION

In this study, we provide a better understanding of how TEs have profoundly shaped the

genomes of Pucciniales, contributing to their distinctive genome expansions within the

Pucciniomycotina subphylum. Our comprehensive TE annotation across 13

Pucciniomycotina genomes demonstrates that the Pucciniales possess a mobilome

landscape enriched in LTR Gypsy and TIR elements, a feature contrasting sharply with the

smaller genomes and the minimal TE contribution in other Pucciniomycotina species. Our

analyses examined four hypotheses on TE proliferation in Pucciniales and evidenced both

ancient and recent TE bursts, especially from Gypsy elements, aligning with the third

hypothesis: TE proliferation is driven by a combination of ancestral transposition bursts

retained in the genome and recent species-specific independent transposition events

throughout Pucciniales evolution. Hence, we uncover ancestral TE proliferation likely

predating the early divergent branch of the order Pucciniales, followed by further species-

specific expansions. In addition, despite the extensive TE presence, our findings indicate no

notable deficiency in known TE regulatory mechanisms in the Pucciniales genomes

compared to the other Pucciniomycotina genomes, suggesting that Pucciniales may have

rather evolved tolerance to TE proliferation or deployed other mechanisms to accommodate

their abundant presence in the genome.

The accumulation of TEs in Pucciniales is an ancestral genomic trait. Pucciniales is a

monophyletic group of species [5], all possessing inflated genomes enriched in TEs. We

identified retrotransposon copies retained in Pucciniales genomes that predate this

divergence, suggesting a long-term persistence of ancestral TEs within rust fungal genomes

[5]. This TE retention pattern is consistent with observations in previous works of rust fungal

genomes, which often harbor highly divergent, long-standing TE families [17]. Interestingly,

we did not find any TE families shared among all nine *Pucciniales* species in our panel,

suggesting that ancestral copies have diverged substantially over time. However, we

detected TE families consistently retained at the genus level, including three (LTR-unknown,

LTR-Copia, and TRIM) within the family *Pucciniaceae* and three others (TIR-Unknown, TIR-

hat, and TIR-Tc1Mariner) within the family *Melampsoraceae*. The genus-specific

conservation of certain TEs suggests that ancestral elements have been retained in distinct

subgroups, which mirrors patterns observed in other fungal species. For example, a recent

analysis of transposable element repertoires across 24 arbuscular mycorrhizal fungal

genomes revealed the persistence of ancient TEs over long evolutionary periods [32].

Likewise, in large, complex plant genomes such as wheat and maize, retrotransposons are

retained across extended timescales [33, 34]. The long-term retention of TEs across such

diverse fungal and plant lineages suggests a common pattern of TE evolutionary dynamics,

underlying their potential role in shaping their host-genome architecture.

Gypsy retrotransposons represent the largest proportion of TE content across Pucciniales

genomes, followed by *Copia* retrotransposons and TIR elements. This abundance of

retrotransposons is a common feature in other TE-rich fungal genomes, such as those of

B. graminis and *Entomophthoraceae* spp. [35, 36]. We hypothesize that ancient *Gypsy*

elements found in the order Pucciniales may have served as progenitors for more recent

lineage-specific TE expansions observed across the Pucciniales genomes. Indeed, the

dynamics of *Gypsy* element accumulation display extreme variation among Pucciniales

species. For example, we observed a burst accumulation pattern in *M. lini*, marked by a

rapid increase in *Gypsy* copies over a few million years. In contrast, species such as *P.*

pachyrhizi exhibit a more continuous pattern of *Gypsy* accumulations. We also detected

haplotype-specific TE families in the phased genomes of the two species *M. lini* and *P.*

graminis f. sp. *tritici*, indicating that TE dynamics vary not only between species but also

within the two haplotypes in dikaryotic Pucciniales. These differences suggest that *Gypsy*

elements may undergo distinct cycles of activity in each species, with some elements

remaining active and driving ongoing TE expansion while others persist as inactive remnants

within the genome. Notably, the presence of still active elements aligns with the observed

expression of certain TEs during host infection in *P. pachyrhizi* [11], further supporting the

hypothesis that active TEs may still be involved in ongoing genomic changes during

pathogen-host interactions.

TE richness is a shared genomic feature among different groups of fungi, which appears as

a trait associated with obligate parasitic and symbiotic lifestyles. Similarly to the Pucciniales,

other obligate biotrophic plant pathogens, such as *B. graminis*, the causal agent of powdery

mildew in cereals, are characterized by a high proportion of TEs [37]. Enrichment in TE

could enable rapid evolution through genomic plasticity in response to fast-evolving host

immune systems and changing environmental conditions [24]. Outside of plant pathogens,

obligate insect parasites within the fungal order Entomophthorales exhibit TE-rich genomes

[36]. TEs are reported as the main drivers for genome expansion in this clade. TE-rich

genomes extend beyond obligate parasites and represent a key feature of beneficial plant

symbionts. Arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi and ectomycorrhizal fungi exhibit substantial TE

content and expansions, although the role of these TEs in their symbiotic functions remains

scarcely understood [32, 38]. While the evolutionary pressures differ between parasitism and

symbiosis, large TE-rich genomes in both contexts may suggest that TEs could reflect an

evolutionary strategy to facilitate genome plasticity and adaptation to the host environment.

We observed no evidence of specific gene loss associated with known TE regulation

mechanisms in the Pucciniales genomes compared to other Pucciniomycotina. First, RIP-

like signatures are absent in the Pucciniomycotina subphylum which aligns with other

studies centered on basidiomycetes and with the absence of DIM2 and RID genes in

basidiomycetes [27, 39]. In addition, we found the DNA methyltransferases DNMT1 and

DNMT5 in all 13 genomes, suggesting that the whole Pucciniomycotina phylum may

possess the potential for TE silencing mediated by DNA methylation. DNMT1 and DNMT5

could play a role in the establishment and/or maintenance of cytosine DNA methylation

(5mC), as found in plants and animals [27]. In addition, Bewick et al. (2019) [27]

demonstrated that species in the Phylum Basidiomycota displayed the highest 5mC levels

across fungal genomes, with a weak correlation between 5mC levels and repeat content in

the selected species. Similarly, we identified the essential genes of the RNAi pathway in all

13 Pucciniomycotina genomes. Additionally, we confirmed the expansion of Argonaute 1

(AGO1) previously reported in *P. pachyrhizi* [11]. Most of these expanded AGO1-like genes

were described as pseudo-genes surrounded by TEs, suggesting a TE-driven inactivation of

expanded AGO1 gene members in the family. This pattern could be similar to the recent loss

of DIM2 activity found in the wheat fungal pathogen *Zymoseptoria tritici* where an expansion

of the DIM2 genes, followed by inactivation, is thought to have led to TE-derepression [40].

As our comparative genomic approach could not identify a Pucciniales-specific loss of TE

control, other approaches, such as epigenomics or small RNA sequencing, will be required

to better understand TE regulation mechanisms in rust fungi.

Despite advancements in TE annotation and the availability of high-quality rust genomes, the

absence of a standardized and comprehensive TE library for rust fungi remains a significant

obstacle in performing comparative genomics to address further evolutionary studies [41].

Manually curating TE libraries for highly repeated genomes is labor-intensive and time-

consuming. Here, we generated a three-step approach to curate TE annotations, which can

be applied to many other genomes. This curation has resolved all the conflictual annotations

and reduced the unclassified TEs from 42.4% to 16% after three rounds of manual curation.

We created a unified rust fungal TE library, enabling consistent and precise TE identification

across different rust fungal species. Still, several TE annotations remain unresolved after our

curation, mainly consisting of elements probably too degraded to be correctly classified and

nested elements. Additional manual curation efforts, supported by additional genome

assemblies from closely related species, could support the refinement of the classification of

these elements by offering more diagnostic features. As large-scale genomic projects

generate vast sequencing data, creating a unified TE library becomes increasingly crucial for

advancing our understanding of the roles of TEs in rust fungal biology and their evolution.

Expanding and refining fungal TE libraries is essential to fully capture the diversity and

dynamics of transposable elements in these genomes, enabling more precise evolutionary

and functional insights in future studies.

CONCLUSION

This study describes manually curated TE catalogs in thirteen Pucciniomycotina species and

provides a new fungal TE database. We report the genome expansions in Pucciniales are

mainly guided by TE proliferation. Our work highlights recent bursts of Gypsy LTR in

Pucciniales while the content in such elements remains relatively poor in other

Pucciniomycotina. We also describe a few conserved TEs within the Pucciniales order linked

to older proliferation events. TE accumulations do not seem to result from Pucciniales-

specific loss of TE control mechanisms. We provided new insights into Pucciniales genome

architecture and favored the hypothesis that TE proliferation is an ancestral characteristic of

the Pucciniales evolution.

METHODS

Genomic data

We selected the genomes and gene annotations of 13 Pucciniomycotina species (14

genomes) publicly available in the JGI MycoCosm database and NCBI repositories (Table

S1). We included ten genomes from the order Pucciniales, comprising four genomes from

the family Melampsoraceae (*M. allii-populina*, *M. lini*, *M. larici-populina*, and *M. americana*),

five genomes from the family Pucciniaceae (*P. graminis* f. sp. *tritici Ug99 and 21-0*, *P.*

hordei, *P. triticina*, and *P. striiformis* f. sp. *tritici*), and one genome from the family

Phakopsoraceae (*P. pachyrhizi*). Additionally, four genomes representing species from

outside the order Pucciniales but within the subphylum Pucciniomycotina were included (*L.*

creatinivora, *M. lychnidis-dioicae*, *M. intermedium*, and *R. toruloides*; Table S1). We

assessed genome assembly completeness using BUSCO (Benchmarking Universal Single-

Copy Orthologs) to ensure data quality The genome completeness was analyzed with

BUSCO v5.4.7 using the basidiomycota_odb10 marker set. These metrics provided a robust

measure of the quality and completeness of the selected genome assemblies (Table S1).

TE detection and annotation

We detected and annotated repeats in Pucciniomycotina genomes using REPET v3.0

(https://urgi.versailles.inra.fr/Tools/REPET, [33]). Repeated elements were identified and

annotated for each genome following a two-step process. First, TE families were identified

using the TEdenovo pipeline, which builds TE family sequences based on repetitive

elements detected in a 100 Mb subset of the genome. This subset-based approach was

applied to enhance workflow efficiency in highly repeated genomes, as described in [34].

Subsequently, the whole genomes were annotated with TEannot using the TE families

generated by TEdenovo. A second round of TEannot was performed as a curation step,

focusing exclusively on TE families with at least one full-length copy. For haplotype-phased

genome assemblies, TEdenovo was run separately for each haplotype (also using 100 Mb

subsets), and the resulting TE family sequences were merged before proceeding with the

TEannot steps. This approach allowed for the identification of potential haplotype-specific

TEs.

Curation of TE annotations

After the automated detection and annotation of TEs, we performed additional steps of

curations of libraries to improve the classifications of elements detected as "conflicts" and

"unclassified" TEs by REPETv3.0. First, the conflictual TE annotations were manually

curated and reassigned to the appropriate TE Class or Order based on sequence similarity,

applying a 50% similarity threshold. In parallel, we used the Manual Curator Helper tool

MCHelper [31] to address redundancy, fragmentation, false positives, and unclassified

sequences in TE libraries for each genome. Briefly, MCHelper extends consensus

sequences through iterative rounds of Blast, extract, and extend (BEE) and refines them into

subfamilies based on distance clustering. False positives are filtered out by removing

sequences with low-quality fragments or homology to multi-copy genes, and the remaining

sequences are classified through homology-based methods. We then pooled the 14 TE

libraries into a Pucciniomycotina TE library to perform an additional manual curation step by

clustering the Pucciniomycotina TE library with CD-HIT v4.8.1 [42]. We grouped TE

sequences with 80% similarity across 80% of the sequence length and re-assigned

previously unclassified TEs based on annotated TEs of the same cluster. The workflow to

generate curated TE annotations from multiple genomes combining automated detection

and curation results is available at https://github.com/Raistrawby/TE_Rust/tree/main.

TE relative insertion age

The relative age of TE insertions in the Pucciniomycotina genomes was estimated with the

similarity-based approach of REPETv3.0, as described in Lorrain et al. (2021) [43]. Briefly,

we analyzed sequence divergence between TE copies to their cognate family using the

extent of sequence similarity as a proxy to the divergence time of the TE copies within the

host genome. The TE copies were classified into three categories: i) conserved, with copies

similar up to 95% against their family, ii) intermediate, with a similarity between 85% and

95% and, iii) divergent, with similarity of copies below 85%.

Insertion age of LTR-retrotransposons

The insertion ages of LTR-retrotransposons were assessed using a molecular clock

approach, as described in Gupta et al. (2023) [11]. Full-length LTR-retrotransposons were

detected using LTRHarvest v 1.6.1 [44] with default parameters (except for -similar 90

(default 85) and -mintsd 5 (default 4)). Gypsy and Copia LTR-retrotransposons were

selected based on the annotations from the repbase_23.12 database. Each element's 3' and

5' long-terminal repeats were extracted and aligned using MAFFT v7.471 [45] to calculate

Kimura's P distances [46]. Gypsy and Copia insertion dates (T) were estimated using the

formula $T = K / 2r$, where K is the distance between the 2 LTRs and is calculated with the

Kimura 2-Parameter distance formula $-0.5*\log(1 - 2p - q) * \sqrt{(1 - 2q)}$ with p = transition

frequency and q transversion frequency and r is the fungal substitution rate of 1.05×10^{-9}

nucleotides per site per year [46].

Gene family annotations and evolution

We predicted orthologs between the 13 Pucciniomycotina genomes and the reference

U. maydis genome [23], a representative of the Ustilaginomycotina (the closest subphylum

to Pucciniomycotina within Basidiomycete), which we used as an outgroup to identify genes

restricted to the Pucciniomycotina subphylum. Orthogroup analysis was performed using the

software OrthoFinder v2.4.0 (i=2 -M MSA -S diamond -a mafft)[47] on the 14 proteomes. To

assess the gene family gains and losses throughout the Pucciniomycotina genomes, we first

needed to build a phylogenetic tree; to this end, we used the single copy orthogroups (i.e.

orthogroups containing only one protein of each species) and infer the tree with *U. maydis*

as an outgroup with Raxml and 500 bootstraps [48]. We used this rooted phylogenetic tree

and the number of genes found per family (i.e. orthogroup) to estimate rates of gene families

gains (i.e., families in expansion) and losses (i.e. families in contraction) at the species-,

genus-, family- and order-levels with CAFE v5.0 [49].

Functional gene annotations and identification of DNA methyltransferases and RNA-

induced silencing complex

We used EggNOG-mapper v2.1.12 [50] to predict functional annotations for all

Pucciniomycotina genomes. We retrieved the PFAM, KOG, KEGG, and GO annotations

from EggNOG-mapper annotations to explore the potential functions of gene families gained

or lost throughout the evolution of the Pucciniomycotina. To identify the DNMTs and the

genes involved in the RISC pathway in the 14 Pucciniomycotina genomes, we extracted the

genes with corresponding PFAM domains. For DNA methyltransferases, we selected genes

with PF00145 (C-5 cytosine-specific DNA methylase). For the RNA-induced silencing

complex, we selected genes with PF05183 (RNA dependent RNA polymerase), PF16486

(N-terminal domain of argonaute), PF22389 (Protein Dicer, dsRNA-binding domain),

PF09692 (Argonaute siRNA chaperone (ARC) complex subunit Arb1), PF22749 (Arb2

domain), PF00636 (Ribonuclease III domain), PF04992 (RNA polymerase Rpb1, domain6),

PF03871 (RNA polymerase Rpb5, N-terminal domain), PF01191 (RNA polymerase Rpb5, C-

terminal domain). We searched for characterized DNMT and RISC proteins to refine the

annotations and performed BLASTp searches on the putative Pucciniomycotina DNMT and

RISC proteins.

RIP signatures analysis

RIP-like signatures were searched by estimating the RIP composite index [25] and GC content in TE family sequences of all Pucciniomycotina genomes, as described in Feurtey et al. (2023)[51]. RIP Composite index values were calculated using the formula: (TpA/ApT) – (CpA + TpG/ApC + GpT) applied per TE family sequence. A region is considered affected by RIP if the Composite index exceeds 0 [39].

Data availability

All the data supporting the findings of this study, including TE annotations and gene functional predictions, are openly available at 10.5281/zenodo.14616359. The curated library of TE consensus sequences has been deposited in the Dfam database (https://dfam.org/home).

Code availability

The TE annotation and manual curation pipeline, as well as additional scripts used to create the results presented in this manuscript, are available in the following GitHub repository: https://github.com/Raistrawby/TE_Rust/tree/main.

Authors contributions

EC and CL wrote the manuscript. SD and EM revised the manuscript. EC, CL, and SD designed, analyzed, and interpreted the data. EM provided comparative genomics expertise and bioinformatics technical support. CL and SD contributed to the conception of the work.

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AI language model assistance

ChatGPT (developed by OpenAI) was used to refine and improve the clarity and grammar of

the text. The authors reviewed and revised all outputs to ensure accuracy and alignment

with the intended message.

ETHICS DECLARATIONS

Ethics approval and consent to participate

Not applicable.

Consent for publication

Not applicable.

Competing interests

No competing interests.

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 FIGURES LEGENDS

Fig. 1: **The phylogenetic tree and transposable element content in the**

Pucciniomycotina. A) phylogenetic tree of the 13 selected Pucciniomycotina species based

on a single-copy orthogroup from Orthofinder v2.4.0 and visualized using iTOL

(https://itol.embl.de/). The Pucciniales are represented in yellow. The category *Other*

Pucciniomycotina (blue) refers to the four species of Pucciniomycotina outside the order

Pucciniales. B) The bar plot displays the TE content across the analyzed genomes. Dark

blue bars represent the proportion of the genome covered by TEs, while light blue bars show

the total genome size (in Mb). Percentages on the right indicate the TE coverage relative to

the total genome size. Species are described as follow: Melap (*Melampsora allii-populina*),

Melli (*Melampsora lini*), Mellp (*Melampsora larici-populina*), Melam (*Melampsora*

americana), Phapa (*Phakopsora pachyrhizi*), Pucst (*Puccinia striiformis* f. sp. *tritici*), Puctr

(*Puccinia triticina*), Pucho (*Puccinia hordeii*), PucgtrUg99 (*Puccinia graminis* f. sp. *tritici*),

Micld (*Microbotryum lychnidis-dioicae*), Micin (*Microbotryum intermedium*), Leucr

(*Leucosporidia creatinivora*), Rhoto (*Rhodosporidium toruloides*).

Fig. 2: **Composition of transposable elements in Pucciniomycotina genomes.** The

stacked bar plots represent the percentage of transposable elements (TEs) annotated at the

A) Class level, B) Class I order level, and C) Class II order level for each Pucciniomycotina

genome. The n values indicate the number of distinct TE families identified in each genome.

The percentage of TE genome coverage at the super-family (SF) level for E) Class I

elements (purple) and F) Class II elements (blue).

Fig. 3: **Transposable element insertion ages.** TE families sequence identity distribution

between TE copies and the respective consensus sequences per genome: A) Mellp (*M.*

larici-populina), B) Melap (*M. allii-populina*), C) Melam (*M. americana*), D) MelliH (*M. lini*

haplotype H), E) Phapa (*P. pachyrhizi*), F) PucstA (*P. striiformis* f. sp. *tritici* haplotype A), G)

PuctrA (*P. triticina* haplotype A), H) PucgtrUg99A (*P. graminis* f. sp. *tritici* Ug99 haplotype A),

I) Pucho (*P. hordeii*). The vertical dashed lines represent the 85% and 95% mean sequence

identity percentage thresholds. J-K) Number of LTR-Gypsy elements accumulated through

time (million years ago - Mya), based on insertion age for the J) Melampsoraceae species

and I) the Pucciniaceae species.

Fig. S1: **Improvement of TE annotations through manual curation** . The proportion of

annotated TE families after REPET detection and annotation (RawR), after the first round of

curation (Postpct), after the second round of curation with MCHelper (postMC), after a third

round of curation with Pucciniomycotina-guided clustering (PostCDhit).

Fig. S2: **Shared and specific TE families between the Pucciniomycotina species.**

Numbers of TE families shared among the 14 genomes based on CDHIT clustering. The

bars on the left represent the total number of genes per species. The clusters shared among

Pucciniaceae are colored in blue and the clusters shared among Melampsoraceae are

colored in red.

Fig. S3: **TE controls involved in methylations are detected in all species**. The number of

genes involved in TE control corresponds to DNMT1 and DNMT5.

Fig. S4: **TE controls involved in RNA-induced silencing complex are detected for all**

genomes. The number of genes involved in TE control corresponds to the RNAi pathway:

Dicer-like (DCL; DCR), RNA-dependent RNA polymerase (RDP; RNT; RPAB; RPB),

Argonaute (AGO; ARB) for each genome.

Fig. S5: **Contraction and Expansion of multigene families in Pucciniomycotina.**

The phylogenetic tree of the selected Pucciniomycotina species based on single-copy

orthogroups from Orthofinder v2.4.0 and infer with Raxml (500 bootstraps) and visualized

using iTOL, rooted with *Ustilago maydis.* Numbers in purple correspond to the number of

orthogroups in contractions at each branch or node and yellow at expansions.

Fig. S6: **Contraction of Multigene Families in Pucciniales.** Functional annotation of

multigene families in contraction in Pucciniales. Genes are re-annotated by EggNOG-

mapper v2.1.12. A threshold is set to kept only species with at least 20 proteins per COG

category. COG categories correspond to: "-": no hit; B: chromatin structure and dynamics; C:

energy production and conversion;   E: amino acid transport and metabolism; G:

carbohydrate transport and metabolism; I: lipid transport and metabolism; K: transcription;

O: posttranslational modification, protein turnover, chaperones, P: inorganic ion transport

and metabolism; Q: secondary metabolites biosynthesis, transport and catabolism; S:

function unknown; T: signal transduction mechanisms.

Fig. S7: **Significant contraction and expansion of multigene families in**

Pucciniomycotina. A) The phylogenetic tree of the selected Pucciniomycotina species

based on a single-copy orthogroup from Orthofinder v2.4.0 and visualized using iTOL,

rooted with *Ustilago maydis.* Numbers in black correspond to the number of significant

orthogroups in expansion/contraction at each branch or node. B) COG category annotation

of genes involved in expansion and contraction between Pucciniales and other

Pucciniomycotina. Contraction and expansion are detected with CAFE v5.0 and orthogroups

with a *p*-value (0.05) are kept. Genes are re-annotated by EggNOG-mapper v2.1.12. The

number of genes per species and categories. COG categories functions correspond to : A:

RNA processing and modification; C: energy production and conversion;   D: cell cycle

control, cell division chromosome partitioning; G: carbohydrate transport and metabolism; I:

lipid transport and metabolism; K: transcription; L: replication recombination and repair; M:

cell wall, membrane, envelope biogenesis; N: cell motility; O: posttranslational modification,

protein turnover, chaperones, Q: secondary metabolites biosynthesis, transport and

catabolism; S: function unknown; T: signal transduction mechanisms.

Table S1: **General information of selected genomes**.

Table S2: **TE annotations at the Class level for the 14 Pucciniomycotina genomes**.

ClassAnn represents the different TE Classes (I, II, Unclassified); nbTE represents the

number of TE families in each Class; ncovP represents the percentage of genome coverage

of each TE class in the species genome; nbcopie represents the number of copies

associated with the TE family for each Class; Sumcov represents the percentage of

coverage by all the TEs per genome.

Table S3: **TE annotations at the Order level for the 14 Pucciniomycotina genomes**.

OrderAnn represents the different TE Orders; nbTE represents the number of TE families in

each Order; ncovP represents the percentage of genome coverage of each TE Order in the

species genome; nbcopie represents the number of copies associated with the TE family for

each Order; Sumcov represents the percentage of coverage by all the TEs per genome.

Table S4: **TE annotations at the Super-family level for the 14 Pucciniomycotina**

genomes. OrderAnn represents the different TE SF; nbTE represents the number of TE

families in each SF; ncovP represents the percentage of genome coverage of each TE SF in

the species genome; nbcopie represents the number of copies associated with the TE family

for each SF; Sommecov represents the percentage of coverage by all the TEs per species.

Table S5: **Average of the TE sequence identity at the Class level**. The meanID

represents the mean sequence identity (%) of individual copies to their respective TE family

consensus sequence averaged per TE class (ClassAnn).

Table S6: **Average of the TE sequence identity at the Order level**. The meanID

represents the mean sequence identity (%) of individual copies to their respective TE family

consensus sequence averaged per TE Order (OrderAnn).

Table S7: **Shared TEs within the three Melampsoraceae genomes**.

Table S8: **Shared TEs within the five Pucciniaceae genomes**.

Table S9: **RIP signature analysis**. RIP-like signatures were searched by estimating the RIP

composite index in TE families consensus sequences for each Pucciniomycotina genome

described in Feurtey et al. (2023)[51].

Table S10: **Orthogroups summary metrics of the 14 selected Pucciniomycotina**

genomes.

Table S11: **Orthogroups in contraction of the 14 selected Pucciniomycotina genomes.**

A **Percent coverage of TE family in Class**

B **Percent Coverage of TE Family in ClassI**

C **Percent Coverage of TE Family in ClassI**

D **Coverage of SF by Species**

E **Coverage of SF by Species**