Genomic rearrangements rewire chromatin contacts and drive

adaptive gene expression divergence in mammals

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Abstract

Genomic rearrangements (GRs) are pervasive in mammalian evolution, yet their contribution to adaptive trait divergence remains poorly defined. By examining 71 mammalian genomes across eight major clades, we uncovered 206 clade-specific disruptions of ancestral synteny. These rearrangements consistently localize near genes underpinning clade-specific physiological, metabolic and behavioural traits and coincided with the accelerated expression rates in the affected lineage. The disruption of otherwise syntenic chromatin contacts and the fusion of domains with contrasting epigenetic states implied that the alteration in regulatory adjacency may underlie the expression divergence. Primate-specific rearrangements exhibited signatures of selective constraint, including fixation across species, reduced recombination, elevated linkage disequilibrium, and enhanced co-expression of genes flanking rearranged loci, indicating that these genomic architectures are selectively maintained. Our observations imply that the clade-specific genomic rearrangements repeatedly reconfigured the mammalian regulatory landscape and likely served as an evolutionary substrate for lineage-specific adaptation.

Introduction

Genomes have gone through several rounds of structural rearrangements during the course of evolution. These rearrangements reshape the genome order and, therefore, may change the regulatory context of the genes. Such alterations may lead to expression divergence, of genes popularly known as chromosomal position effect(Wallrath and Elgin 1995; Elgin and Reuter 2013). Ectopic position effects can lead to diseases in human and mice(Milot et al. 1996; Kleinjan and Van Heyningen 1998). For example, translocation breakpoint between PAX6 and its downstream regulatory elements associates with Aniridia in human(Fantes et al. 1995). A genomic rearrangement at 100kb upstream to Steel(Sl) locus downregulates Mgf gene and causes sterility in female mice(Bedell et al. 1995) . Similarly breakpoints near SOX9, TWIST, and RIEG genes have association with campomelic dysplasia, Saethre-Chotzen, and Rieger syndromes respectively in human(Wirth et al. 1996; Krebs 1997; Flomen et al. 1998). Yet the evolutionary implications of chromosomal position effects remain largely under appreciated. De et al had shown that expression divergence associated with the position effects may contribute to phenotypic differences between human and chimpanzee(De et al. 2009). Bagadia et al showed that the genomic rearrangements may explain the evolutionary divergence of some brain related traits in rodents(Bagadia et al. 2019). Recently, Real et al(Real et al. 2020) identified genomic rearrangements that altered the regulatory context of gonadal gene expression governing intersexuality in moles. These studies were limited by the number of species analysed and by the context of genomic rearrangements. With the availability of large number of mammalian genomes, it is now possible to examine the phenotypic associations of genomic rearrangements in mammals. Through analysis of 71 mammalian genomes representing 8 clades, we identified 206 clade-specific long-range genomic rearrangements marking evolutionary loss of synteny. We found that the clade-specific breakpoints flanked by the genes associated with specific phenotypes of respective clades. The clade-specific breakpoints frequently disrupted the conserved enhancer-promoter communications, which coincided with the diverged expression rates of the flanking genes. Our observations implied the wide-spread adaptive significance of genomic rearrangements in mammals.

Results

By applying the strategy outlined in the Methods section, we first identified all pairwise instances of long range (>10 Mb and *trans*) genomic disruptions of synteny across 71 mammals(Figure 1). The phenogram and the Disparity-Through-Time (DTT) plots of mean GR frequencies suggested divergence of evolutionary rate of GRs in artiodactyls, cetaceans, and rodents when compared to the rates expected under Brownian Motion (BM) model (Figure 2a-b). Following the strategy given the methods section, we further identified 206 clade-specific evolutionary breakpoint regions (EBRs) engaged in loss-of-synteny (LoS) events (Figure 2c). Rodents and artiodactyls exhibited the most numbers of clade-specific loss-of-synteny (cs-LoS) events (94 and 38 respectively), which were consistent with the earlier reports (Luo et al. 2012; Kim et al. 2017). More than 90% of gene-pairs flanking clade-specific breakpoints were syntenic in the eutherian ancestor(Kim et al. 2017)*,* validating our inference of ancestrally syntenic configuration of the identified cases (Figure S1*)*

To assess if the cs-LoS EBRs position preferably near certain functional loci, we obtained the genes within and the flanking 10 genes on the either sides of cs-LoS EBRs. Gene ontology analysis yielded enrichment of clade-specific functional terms. Primates exhibited enrichment of glucocorticoid secretion (CRHR1, TAC1, CRY1 etc.), lipid transport, synaptic transmission and behaviour related terms (SHANK2, RELN, FOXP1, GIT1, KLHL1, NRG1, MAPT etc.) (Figure 3). These functions have associations with primate-specific trait divergence(Bozek et al. 2015; Muntané et al. 2015; Dunn-Fletcher et al. 2018; Spanaki et al. 2024). The genes flanking artiodactyl-specific LoS break-points were enriched with flavonoid and lipid metabolism related terms, including genes like UDP-glucuronosyltransferase 1A (UGT1A) and Fatty Acid Binding Protein 4 (FABP4) (Figure 3). These terms associate with vegetarian diet and musculoskeletal health respectively, which coincide with herbivory and relatively large body mass of artiodactyls(Jiang et al. 2014; Kawai et al. 2021). Carnivore-specific LoS exhibited enrichment of extra-cellular matrix proteins, particularly matrix metalloproteases (MMPs) (Figure 3). It is established that carnivores, unlike other mammals, have endotheliochorial placenta(Wooding and Burton 2008). Differential expression of MMPs is the hallmark of invasive placentation in carnivores(Diessler et al. 2017). We further hypothesize that enrichment and expression divergence of MMPs in carnivores may also relate to

effective wound healing in carnivores being susceptible to frequent wounds due to

predation and the territory defence. Rodents exhibited enrichment of renal filtration

related terms, aligning to their higher glomerular filtration rate, which is an adaptation

to physiological requirements in diverse habitats and dietary habits of

rodents(Dickinson et al. 2007; Benjamin et al. 2015; Bittner et al. 2021). The term

includes the genes Anillin, Glucocorticoid Induced 1 (GLCCI1), Thrombospondin

type-1 domain-containing 7A (THSD7A), Apolipoprotein L1 (APOL1) etc., which have

strong associations with renal filtration and implicate in kidney diseases(Nishibori et

al. 2011; Gbadegesin et al. 2014; Tomas et al. 2014; Pays 2021). Top enriched

genes in Chiroptera-specific LoS break-points exhibited immunity related functions,

adhering to pronounced immune tolerance in bats(Sulak et al. 2016; Jebb et al.

2020). Among others, we also observed genes like CEBPA and TNFRSF1A that are

associated with echolocation in bats(Hudson et al. 2014; Wang et al. 2019). The

cetacean break-points show weak enrichment of r-RNA processing and sterol related

functions, aligning to longevity, body mass and diverged metabolism of

cetaceans(Doherty and de Magalhães 2016; Derous et al. 2021) Afrotheria-specific

LoS showed moderate enrichment of potassium ion channels, vitamin-K metabolism,

and the blood coagulation (Figure 3). Ion transporters are linked to the cell

proliferation, cell size and cancer, the traits significantly diverged in afrotheria

clade(Savage et al. 2007). Vitamin-K is linked to the osteoblast differentiation, likely

associated with the larger body mass of afrotherians like elephant, manatee etc.

Blood coagulates faster in elephants(Lewis 1974) and the presence of blood

coagulation factors in our set might mark an adaptation against an ancient fatal

haemorrhagic disease caused by elephant endotheliotropic herpesvirus(Guntawang

et al. 2021). Similarly, perissodactyl-specific breakpoints showed moderate

enrichment of eye development and aerobic respiration, which lines up with the large

size, 350° visual field, unique motion sensitivity of horse eye(Roth and McGreevy

2025), and remarkably high aerobic respiration capacity of equine lungs(Poole and

Erickson 2011) (Figure 3).

In most clades, genes proximal to the cs-LoS breakpoints exhibited the expression

divergence from that of the phylogenetically proximal clade controlled through an

outgroup, implying the adaptive significance of genomic rearrangements (Figure 4).

The chromosomal position-effect may explain the observed expression divergence.

To test this, we first analysed the chromosomal coordinates of enhancer-promoter

pairs that exhibited evolutionarily conserved synteny. We observed non-random

accumulation of clade-specific breakpoints within enhancer-promoter spans, which

were syntenic in other clades, suggesting that the expression divergence of genes

might have been driven by the loss of proximity to their cognate enhancers (Figure

5a-b). Secondly, we assessed the position effect through analysis of chromatin

compartments. We observed that the chromatin compartments with contrasting

states (A and B) in a species tended to fuse together and subsequently exhibited a

coherent state (A or B) in the species exhibiting cs-LoS event (Figure 5c-d). This is

marked by a decrease in Kronecker's delta (Methods) of consecutive genomic bins

around breakpoints (Figure 5c). This may signify an alteration in gene expression

through the mixing of contrasting epigenetic states *via* gained proximity. We

illustrated this through an example of primate-specific genomic rearrangement near

Neurokinin-1 (TAC1), a glucocorticoid secretion and behaviour related gene. The

gene locates in the B-compartment in mouse, which gains proximity to an A-

compartment, and subsequently switches from B-to-A compartment in neuronal cells

(Figure 5d). Overall the split of enhancer-promoter synteny and gain of proximity

between A and B chromatin compartments highlight the mechanistic basis of

expression divergence of genes located near cs-LoS breakpoints.

We further exemplified a primate-specific LoS event near Corticotropin Releasing

Hormone Receptor 1 (CRHR1) gene that coordinates the autonomic, endocrine and

behavioural response to stress and depression through Hypothalamus-Pituitary-

Adrenal (HPA) axis(Jezova et al. 1999) and may also regulate the timing of

birth(Smith and Nicholson 2007). Interestingly, CRHR1 shows primate-specific

conservation of 29 amino acids of exon-6, and insertions of retroviral LINE elements

at the upstream region (Figure S2). The gene also exhibits loss of chromatin

contacts and expression divergence in primates (Figure 6a-b). We propose that the

sequence and the expression divergence of this locus may link to primates'

adaptation to stress from complex social structures(Pusey et al. 1997; Sapolsky

2021). Similarly, artiodactyl-specific LoS near UGT1A genes, which metabolizes

flavonoids commonly present in vegetarian diet, exhibited disruption of chromatin

contacts and expression divergence in artiodactyls (Figure 6c-d). UGT1A genes

have expanded copy numbers in herbivores(Kawai et al. 2021), implying

convergence of distinct molecular mechanisms underlying expression evolution of

UGT1A genes in artiodactyls.

To assess whether the clade-specific GRs are shaped by selection, we focused on

primate-specific LoS events, leveraging the available population genomic data. We

found that rearranged loci exhibit elevated linkage disequilibrium and reduced

recombination rates around primate-specific fusion points in humans, indicating tight

genetic linkage (Figure 7a-b). These rearrangements also displayed fixed genomic

adjacencies across primates (Figure 7c). In addition, genes flanking primate-specific

fusion points show stronger co-expression compared with genes near corresponding

primate-specific LoS breakpoints in a non-primate species (mouse) (Figure 7d).

Together, these patterns are consistent with the selective constraints acting on

primate-specific GRs and may extend to other clades.

Discussion

Genes are not autonomous transcriptional units within the genomic landscape but

rather operate in a highly context-dependent manner influenced by their local and

global chromatin environment. Reporter integration in proximity to enhancer

strengthens the expression, while that within lamina-associated domains attenuates

the transcriptional activity(Akhtar et al. 2013). Distinct linear and spatial positions of a

gene also confer variation to its expression noise(Chen and Zhang 2016; Singh et al.

2016). The alterations in genomic context through chromosomal rearrangements

can, therefore, influence the epigenetic and transcriptional states of the genes.

Although studied in somatic human cells and cancer tissues(Chiang et al. 2017; Xu

et al. 2022), the evolutionary dynamics of such position effects remains poorly

understood. Our observations through this study highlight that the clade-specific

long-range genomic rearrangements associate with the enrichment and expression-

divergence of genes with clade-defining traits. Interestingly, these genes have also

lost the proximity to their cognate enhancers as reflected from the splitting of

enhancer-promoter pairs, likely representing one of the possible causes of the

observed divergence of gene expression in the respective clades. The gained

proximity of chromatin domains with opposing epigenetic states further strengthens

the notion of chromosomal position effect in evolutionary context. We propose that

the alteration in regulatory context may have contributed to the expression evolution

of genes proximal to clade-specific EBRs. From our observations, it follows that

clade-specific GRs may have guided the evolution of clade-specific mammalian

phenotypes through gene expression evolution. Primate-specific fixation and tight

linkage of rearranged loci further implied the signatures of selective constraints.

The reported genomic rearrangements and the engaged loci also offer a valuable

catalogue for biomedical interpretation. Many of the reported loci also implicate in

human diseases and understanding the rewiring of their regulatory contexts could

help in genetic prioritization and devising medical strategies to intervene the mis-

regulation. Certain mammals are resistant to certain diseases, like elephant is

resistant to cancer and bats are immune tolerant to viruses. Our observations may

also help studying the regulatory contexts which are instrumental in disease

resistance and exploit that knowledge to understand disease susceptibilities in

humans.

Conclusion

Altogether, our observations suggest that clade-specific genomic rearrangements

are not merely the passive signatures of evolutionary history and speciation but are

active agents reshaping mammalian regulatory landscapes. By rewiring enhancer-

promoter contacts and shuffling chromatin compartments, these rearrangements

generate lineage-specific expression programs that coincide with the emergence of

clade-defining phenotypes. The recurrence of such events across distant

mammalian clades highlights genome topology as a pervasive, yet

underappreciated, substrate of adaptive evolution. Together, our results establish

long-range genomic rearrangements as an important evolutionary force that has

repeatedly sculpted mammalian diversity.

Methods

Genome data

We obtained the chromosomal coordinates of human orthologous genes for 18

mammalian species from Ensembl (http://www.ensembl.org). Fifty three genomes

not represented in Ensemble were obtained from DNA Zoo

(https://www.dnazoo.org/assemblies) and Bat1K Project (https://bat1k.com/). We

aligned the genome FASTA files to the human genome using

LASTAL(https://github.com/lpryszcz/last). Resulting maf files were processed

with *'last-split'* and converted to chain files using *'maf-convert'* utility

(https://github.com/lpryszcz/last). To obtain orthologous genomic coordinates, we

used the UCSC LiftOver tool (https://genome.ucsc.edu/cgi-bin/hgLiftOver). The

phylogenetic tree of the species is given in the Figure S3. The genome assembly

information is provided in Dataset S1.

Identification of clade-specific loss-of-synteny (LoS) events

To define evolutionary breakpoints of long-range genomic rearrangements, we used

a distance-based approach. For each species, we first calculated linear distances

between non-redundant all possible *cis* gene pairs. Gene pairs separated by ≤1 Mb

were considered syntenic in a given species. The corresponding intergenic distances

between orthologues of these syntenic pairs were then obtained for all other species

and their distribution was visualized as histograms using the 'hist', function in R. The

analysis revealed a bimodal distribution with two modes separated at around 10 Mb

distance. This 10 Mb threshold was, therefore, used as a threshold to define loss of

synteny events. Gene pairs that were within 1 mb distance in one species but

exceeded 10Mb in other species were categorized as *cis*-rearrangement. If the

orthologues of syntenic pairs were located on different chromosomes in another

species, they were classified as *trans*-rearrangements. To minimize noise that might

result from retro-transposition or assembly errors, we further obtained the set where

the orthologous disruption occurred with at least 3 genes on either side of the break-

point. We further calculated the inter-breakpoint distances defined as the linear

distances between gene pairs forming breakpoints across all species. The

distribution of distances suggested a distinct natural cut-off of 1.4 Mb (Figure S4),

below which the breakpoints can be considered as clustered into evolutionary break-

point region (EBRs). An EBR was identified as a clade-specific loss-of-synteny

(LoS) event if it engages in LoS events in at least 50% of the species within a given

mammalian clade, while being syntenic in most other clades (split in not more than

two species).

Phylogenetic comparative analyses of frequency of GRs

We used mean frequency of GRs for each species and perform 'phenogram'

analysis using 'phytools' and DTT analysis using 'geiger' R-packges. We assumed

Brownian Motion (BM) model to simulate (*nsim=1000*) the evolution of GR

frequencies through time. The default average squared Euclidean distance was

used as metric.

Gene Ontology analysis

For each evolutionary breakpoint region (EBR), we extracted all genes within EBR

and 10 genes upstream and downstream of both ends. These unique gene sets

were compiled for each clade. Gene ontology (GO) enrichment analysis was

performed using the ToppFun function from the ToppGene Suite

(https://toppgene.cchmc.org/) to fetch the GO Biological Process categories. P-

values were corrected using Benjamini-Hoschberg method.

Gene expression analysis

We retrieved the expression data of CRHR1 and UGT1A1 of 35 human tissues from

the TissueEnrich database(https://tissueenrich.gdcb.iastate.edu/) for tissue specific

gene enrichment analysis. To calculate expression divergence, we used tissue-wide

expression data from the Bgee database(https://www.bgee.org/). For each gene

(CRHR1 and UGT1A1), a divergence ratio was calculated as the median of across-

clade versus within-clade distances. These gene-specific ratios were compared to

the genome-wide median divergence ratios calculated across all genes.

Expression rate analysis

We used 'TreeExp' R-package(https://github.com/hr1912/TreeExp) to evaluate the

evolutionary rates of expression divergence assuming Ornstein-Uhlenbeck model

of gene expression evolution. For each clade, we assigned a test species, a

reference species and an out-group species from phylogenetically adjacent clade.

We made three distance-based bins, each comprised of 25 genes, on either side of

the break-point. Gene expression data were obtained from Liu et al(Liu et al. 2023),

which provides expression profiles for three tissues: brain, kidney, and liver for

multiple species. For co-expression analysis, 10 genes on either side of breakpoint

or the fusion point were obtained. Pearson's correlation coefficients across 26

mouse tissues (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/sra/?term=srp020526) and 55 human

tissues (https://gtexportal.org/home/) calculated for gene-sets around each reference

point. Mean matrix of individual correlation matrices were plotted for visualization.

Means of sliding windows of 3 genes along the diagonal of the correlation matrix was

used for quantitative analysis.

Enhancer-promoter contact analysis

All human enhancer-promoter (EP) pairs and their orthologues in other species,

were obtained from the dataset provided by Laverré et al(Laverré et al. 2022). The

evolutionarily conserved EP pairs were then used to analyze disruption by clade-

specific LoS events. If a conserved EP pair flanked a breakpoint unique to a clade,

the pair was considered split by the rearrangement. For clades such as Chiroptera,

Perissodactyla, Afrotheria, and the suborder Hystricomorpha, for which the enhancer

orthologs were not included in the dataset by Laverré et al, the coordinates were

lifted over using the UCSC liftOver tool (https://genome-store.ucsc.edu/). To

calculate the statistical significance of observed EP pair disruptions, we performed

bootstrap by randomizations breakpoint coordinates across the human genome 1000

times while keeping the chromosomal distribution of breakpoints same as original

set. The bootstrap-based p-values were obtained using:

$$p = \frac{1}{B}\left(1 + \sum_{b=1}^{B} (1)_{k_b > k}\right)$$

where B is the total number of bootstrap samples, k is the observed number of disrupted EP

pairs.

Hi-C analysis

We used HUGIn web browser (https://yunliweb.its.unc.edu/hugin/tutorial_page.php),

to fetch virtual 4C interaction profiles at 40 kb resolution from human Hi-C data

across relevant tissues. For mouse (mm10), .cool files were obtained from the 4D

Nucleome Data Portal (https://data.4dnucleome.org/) and virtual 4C profiles were

generated using Fit-Hi-C (https://github.com/ay-lab/fithic). We downloaded chromatin

compartment (A/B) files for both human and mouse tissues from the 4D Nucleome. Change in compartment along the genomic regions spanning the break-points was calculated using Kronecker's delta function:

$$\delta_{ij} \equiv \begin{cases} 0 & \text{for } i \neq j \\ 1 & \text{for } i = j. \end{cases}$$

If consecutive genomic bins i and j had same compartment (A-A or B-B), the function takes the value 1, and zero when i and j bins had different compartment values (A-B or B-A). We calculated the average and 95% confidence intervals of Kronecker's delta across all breakpoints for each tissue and clade (supplementary). For compact representation a global average of Kronecker's delta was plotted at 250 kb resolution around +/- 1 Mb to the break-point.

Linkage disequilibrium and recombination rates

LD scores from 1000 genomes and the recombination rates were obtained from Alkes group (https://zenodo.org/records/8182036) and Halldorsson et al(Halldorsson et al. 2019) respectively. The sliding means of these scores in 20kb bins around the reference points were plotted as a function of distance from the fusion-points.

The source of all datasets used are listed in Dataset S2.

Data availability

All data generated or analysed during this study are included in its supplementary dataset files.

Competing interest statement

The authors declare that they have no competing interests

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Figure Legends

Figure 1. Mapping long-range genomic rearrangements across mammalian lineages. (a) Schematic representation of the strategy to map long-range genomic rearrangments. The distribution plot of genomic distance between adjacent genes in a species, which were <1 Mb apart in another species. Vertical line demarcates the separation of gene-pairs by >10mb in a species. **(b)** Heatmap representation of number of pair-wise long-range genomic rearrangements between lineages

Figure 2. Phylogenetic analysis of GR frequency. (a) Phenogram of mean GR frequency across mammals. The nodes and edges are coloured clade-wise. Ancestral nodes are inferred using Maximum Likelihood approach **(b)** Clade-wise Disparity-Through-Time (DTT) plots. The observed trait variations are coloured clade-wise. The expected variations (dark grey) are simulated assuming Brownian Motion model. Light grey curves represent the 95% confidence interval of simulated variations. **(c)** Clade-specific loss of synteny (LoS) events inferred using strategy given in the Methods section. Highlighted in rectangles are the clade-specific LoS events.

Figure 3. Functional associations of synteny disruptions. Enrichment of GO Biological Process terms among genes flanking the clade-specific EBRs. We implemented Benjamini-Hochberg correction of multiple testing. FDRs on the x-axis are converted to -log10 scale. The vertical lines mark the FDRs of 0.05.

Figure 4. Gene expression evolution around clade-specific breakpoints. **(a)** Overall strategy of expression rate analysis. Three consecutive genomic bins as function of distance from the clade-specific breakpoints were taken. Each bin contained 25 genes. Expression rates of genes each bin was calculated assuming Ornstein-Uhlenbeck model of transcriptome evolution. **(b)** Lineage-specific expression rates of the genes as a function of distance from the clade-specific evolutionary break-points. Each box represents the distribution of expression divergence values of 25 genes incrementally distant from the breakpoint. A species from the nearest order or sub-order was taken as reference species, while a species

429 hierarchically outside the clade of test and the reference species was taken as

430 outgroup species. P-values were calculated using Mann-Whitney U tests.

432 **Figure 5. Chromosomal position effect associated with the clade-specific loss**

433 **of synteny**. **(a)** Enrichment of clade-specific breakpoints within and around

434 enhancer-promoter loops in the species having syntenic configuration. Loop

435 coordinates were extended either side by half of the loop length-L. **(b)** The number of

436 conserved enhancer-promoter contacts that had lost proximity through GR in a

437 clade-specific manner, superimposed onto the random null distribution obtained from

438 controlled randomized of breakpoints. P-values are calculated using bootstrap

439 method. Shown are the plots for the cumulated set and the clade-specific sets. **(c)**

440 Kronecker's δ_{ij}, signifying change in A and B compartment states of neighbouring

441 domains, as a function of distance from the break-points in primates and rodents.

442 Drop in Kronecker's delta signifies the switch in states (A-to-B or B-to-A). The three

443 plots correspond to syntenic configuration in mouse (left), distal regions (syntenic in

444 human) when juxtaposed in mouse (middle), rearranged syntenic regions in human

445 (right) respectively in case of primate-specific LoS. Similarly, for rodent-specific LoS,

446 syntenic configuration in human (left), distal juxtaposed regions in human (middle)

447 and rearranged syntenic regions in mouse (right) are plotted. **(d)** Chromatin

448 compartment states (leading Eigen vector of Hi-C contact matrix) for regions around

449 TAC1 locus, which exhibited primate-specific LoS nearby, in mouse and human

450 neuronal cells. A and B compartments are coloured as red and grey colours

451 respectively.

453 **Figure 6. Illustrative examples of clade-specific breakpoints. (a-b)** Left-panels:

454 CRHR1 and UGT1A expression values in 35 human tissues respectively. Right-

455 panels: expression divergence calculated as the Euclidean distance across tissues

456 and summarized as ratio of across-clade to within-clade distances. **(b-c)** Mouse-to-

457 human and human-to-cow synteny plots around (b) CRHR1, and (c) UGT1A gene

458 respectively. Shown below are the tracks of RefSeq non-redundant genes, H3K27ac

459 modification, and virtual 4C in relevant tissues. The clade-specific break-point

460 regions are highlighted by vertical bars. 4C reference loci are highlighted using

461 arrow-heads. Black and red curves represent observed and expected 4C signals

respectively. Green curve represents -log10 of p-values. Blue dashed line represents the p-value cut-off of 0.05. Red arcs mark the significantly frequent chromatin contacts.

Figure 7. Signatures of selective constraints. **(a)** Human LD score and **(b)** recombination rates around the fusion points resulting from primate-specific LoS events. **(c)** Distribution of number of primates exhibiting evolutionarily fixed configuration of rearranged genomic regions. **(d)** Mean co-expression of genes around primate-specific breakpoints in mouse (top panel) and around rearranged fusion points in human (middle panel). Bottom panel shows sliding means of the values around diagonal of the co-expression matrices of mouse and human. P-values were calculated using two-tailed unpaired t-tests.

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a

breakpoint

3 2 1 1 2 3

$D_{AB} = D_{AC} - D_{BC}$

Test species (A)
Reference (B)
Outgroup (C)

rate

?

1 2 3

b

Expression rate

0.359
0.0291

human
rat
pig

0.326
0.040

guinea pig
mouse
human

0.269
0.515

rat
beaver
human

0.009
0.0109

cow
minke whale
dog

0.004
0.0106

horse
cow
dog

0.198
0.089

dog
cow
human

0.009
0.0109

greater horseshoe bat
horse
pig

rock hyrax
human
Tasmanian devil

Bins of 25 genes from the breakpoints

a

- -L/2   L   +L/2
- (20bins)

b

Cumulated

Density

- Expected
- Observed

#EP pairs spanning breakpoint

Clade-wise

primates	0.001
hystricomorpha	0.061
myomorpha	0.001
rodentia	0.001
artiodactyla	0.001
perissodactyla	0.038
carnivora	0.001
chiroptera	0.014
afrotheria	0.592

#EP pairs spanning breakpoint

c

Syntenic   Juxtaposed   Rearranged

δ_{ij}

-1Mb   Breakpoint   +1Mb

d

Leading principal component

chr6:6.75-8.75 Mb

TAC1

Syntenic

chr6:6.75-7.75 Mb   chr5:144-145 Mb

TAC1

Juxtaposed

chr7:97-99 Mb

TAC1

Rearranged

a

P=8.0e-7   P=1.7e-8

LD score

Distance from
the fusion point (x10⁵ bp)

b

P=0.05   P=0.01

Recombination rate

Distance from
the fusion point (x10⁵ bp)

c

Density

Proportion fixed

d

Syntenic

Rearranged

P=0.003

Gene bins (± 10) around
breakpoint or fusion point

Figure S1. Distribution of gene-distances (#genes) between genes flanking the clade-specific breakpoints in the common ancestor of placental mammals

Figure S2. (A) Primate specific insertion of exon-6 in the CRHR1 protein. (B) Primate-specific insertion of retro-viral elements upstream to the CRHR1 gene and at the promoter of a LINC RNA.

Figure S3. Phylogenetic tree of species analyzed in the study

Figure S4. Distribution of inter-breakpoint distances across species. Vertical bar marks the cut-off of 1.4Mb