1 **Evolutionary innovation through fusion of sequences from across the tree of life**
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Abstract

Novel genes arise through multiple mechanisms, including gene duplication, gene fusion and horizontal gene transfer (HGT). While HGT has increasingly been documented in animals, the interaction of HGT with other mechanisms of novel gene formation is less well understood. We hypothesized that fusion with endogenous sequences in animal genomes might generate what we call "HGT-chimeras": genes with regions of non-metazoan and metazoan descent in the same open reading frame. To test this hypothesis, we developed a molecular phylogenetics pipeline that enables the identification of HGT-chimeras. We applied our pipeline to 319 high-quality annotated arthropod genomes and uncovered a high-confidence set of 274 HGT-chimeras corresponding to 104 independent origination events across diverse arthropods. HGT-chimeras contain intervals acquired from across the tree of life, and many likely originated via a gene duplication-based mechanism. To assess whether HGT-chimeras might be functionally important, we performed RT-PCR and Sanger sequencing of tissues from 19 arthropod species predicted to harbor HGT-chimeras in their genome. We found evidence of the expression of contiguous chimeric mRNAs for 33 of 37 tested HGT-chimeras across 17 of 19 different tested species. We also found evidence that HGT chimeras evolve under purifying selection and have acquired potentially functional domain architectures, consistent with the hypothesis that these genes are in active use and may participate in diverse biological processes. These results illuminate an underappreciated combinatorial mechanism underlying the origin of novel genes across the largest animal phylum, and suggest that interdomain sequence fusion can play important roles in animal biology and evolution.

Keywords: Molecular evolution, horizontal gene transfer, gene fusion, arthropods

Introduction

New genes have evolved on recent timescales across the tree of life (1, 2).. Some have rapidly reached fixation under the influence of strong positive selection (4, 8) and have integrated into pre-existing molecular interaction networks (10, 11). Consistent with their taxonomically restricted distribution, novel genes can contribute both to functional innovations underlying niche expansions and to tolerance of new environmental stressors (1, 2). Despite their lack of conservation, novel genes can also quickly (3) become essential for fundamental and conserved biological processes including development, courtship (12), and reproduction (1, 2, 12, 13).

The best-understood mechanism of gene birth is gene duplication, which may allow for the evolution of new function (neofunctionalization) or partitioning of ancestral function (subfunctionalization) (1, 2, 4). Additional mechanisms include exon shuffling and gene fusion, which may generate chimeric genes with portions from two different gene parents within the same genome, or fission, which splits a gene in two (5–9). Genes can also arise *de novo* from pre-existing noncoding regions (10, 11). All of these mechanisms may allow evolution to make leaps in protein structure/function space, and therefore can be functionally significant (5).

Horizontal gene transfer (HGT) is a mechanism by which organisms acquire new genes in a non-Mendelian fashion from other species (4, 12–16). HGT is widely appreciated as a fundamental force of evolution in prokaryotes, where mechanisms such as conjugation facilitate the exchange of genetic material (13). Beyond an initial burst of HGT during early stages of eukaryotic symbiogenesis, HGT was long assumed to be vanishingly rare and therefore unimportant in eukaryotic evolution (4, 12, 17). Arthropods, the phylum of animals that constitutes at least 80% of all described animal species (18), are emerging as an exception to this expectation. Horizontally acquired genes from bacteria (14–16, 19–24), viruses (15, 25–27), fungi (15, 28, 29) and even plants (15, 30) have been identified in diverse arthropods. In many cases, these genes contribute adaptive functions ranging from ecological defense (24, 30) to metabolism (29, 31). A recent

systematic screen for HGT across 218 insect genomes uncovered 741 independent HGT events,

placing the rate of HGT on par with that of other rare novel gene formation events within this

phylum (15).

Most bioinformatic work on HGT to date has focused on detection of transferred genes and

their sources, rather than their evolutionary fates or biological roles following acquisition. Whether

horizontally acquired genes retain similar gene structures and functions following transfer, or, like

other kinds of novel genes (8, 32–35), rapidly diverge from their original forms, has received less

attention than detection of the transfer phenomenon. Here we focus on gene fusion as a possible

mechanism of post-transfer divergence. We hypothesized that, as a result of the fusion of

horizontally acquired sequences with pre-existing host genome sequences, animal genomes would

contain "HGT-chimeras": genes with at least one region horizontally transferred from a non-

metazoan source in the same open reading frame as a region of ancient metazoan ancestry. To our

knowledge, no large-scale systematic screen for HGT-chimeras has been conducted in multicellular

eukaryotes, but a few examples have been identified idiosyncratically across diverse taxa (22, 36–

39). For instance, we previously attributed the origin of *oskar*, a gene required for essential

developmental processes in diverse insect species (40–43), to the formation of a HGT-chimera

between a metazoan LOTUS domain (44) and a bacterial GDSL hydrolase domain (45, 46) in the

last common ancestor of extant insects (47). In another example, a screen of 20 microbial genomes

identified 37 putative interkingdom HGT-chimeras in 11 unicellular species, but did not search for

HGT-chimeras in multicellular eukaryotes (48). Here, we present the results of a systematic

bioinformatic screen for HGT-chimeras across 319 arthropod genomes. We find evidence that

HGT-chimeric genes are not only widespread across the tree of arthropods, but also display

transcriptional and molecular evolutionary characteristics that suggest they play active roles in

organismal biology and evolution.

Results and Discussion

Development of an HGT-chimera detection pipeline

We designed a computational pipeline to search for HGT-chimeras in arthropod genomes (SI

Figure 1), which we describe in brief here and detail in SI Methods. The pipeline proceeds in

four broad phases (SI Figure 1). In the first phase, we assembled a search set of 7,702,369

protein inputs from 319 RefSeq scaffold or chromosome-level genomes (SI Table 1) across

eight arthropod classes (SI Figure 4). We clustered the initial search set to 610,348 proteins

using MMSeqs2 to promote computational efficiency (49). In the second phase, we used the

results of BLASTp (implemented in DIAMOND (50)) against the NR database (51) to perform an

initial screen for putative chimeric proteins. Non-arthropod BLASTp results were first used to

partition query proteins into intervals of potentially distinct evolutionary history using a

customized implementation of a previously described algorithm (52) (Figure 1A, SI File 1, SI

Figure 2). We hypothesized that intervals with a preponderance of hits in non-metazoan taxa

and/or lower E-values for non-metazoan than for metazoan hits were of putative HGT ancestry

(right-hand interval of Figure 1A), and that those whose lowest E-value hits were in other

metazoan taxa or had a preponderance of metazoan hits were of ancient metazoan ancestry

(left-hand interval of Figure 1A). We then subjected proteins containing at least one interval of

putative HGT ancestry and at least one interval of metazoan ancestry to a second round of

BLASTp, using each of the two types of intervals as separate queries to further examine

potential HGT and metazoan ancestry annotations from the first round of BLASTp (SI Figure

3A-B). In the third phase, we removed potential confounders of HGT inference (ankyrin repeats

and metazoan transposable elements, see SI Methods) and binned HGT-chimeras into putative

orthologous clusters using a custom approach that required all sequences in the same cluster to

have the same chimeric architecture as determined by BLASTp and hmmsearch (HMMER suite

(53). Except where otherwise indicated, downstream analyses (Figures 2-4) were performed

with a single representative sequence per orthologous cluster. In the fourth and final phase of

the pipeline, we assessed the support for HGT and metazoan ancestries of the distinct intervals

of each cluster representative using maximum likelihood phylogenetic trees (IQ-TREE (54))

(Figure 1B, SI Figure 9). To improve the sensitivity of homology detection, we constructed these

trees from the results of hmmsearch using profile hidden Markov models (HMMs) built from

arthropod BLASTp hits as queries, or from BLASTp hits directly when we could not construct

HMMs (E-value for both <1e-2, see SI Methods). We considered proteins with at least one

interval of metazoan origin, at least one interval of non-metazoan origin, and support for tree

topologies with >70% support at the relevant node (bootstrap only considered for HGT intervals,

see SI Figure 9), to be candidate HGT-chimeras: genes formed by horizontal sequence transfer

followed by in-frame fusion.

HGT-chimeras are detected across Arthropoda

Excluding possible within-genome paralogs (see SI Table 6 for copy numbers), we found

a final set of 274 HGT-chimera genes across these query genomes, corresponding to 104

independent origination events inferred by a customized orthologous clustering approach (SI

Methods). We detected HGT-chimeras across the arthropod phylogeny (Figure 1D), including

members of Chelicerata and Pancrustacea. A majority (193/319, 60.5%) of examined RefSeq

genomes had at least one HGT-chimera (Figure 1C, SI Table 3). We note that *Folsomia*

candida, the species with the greatest predicted number of HGT-chimeras, was previously

reported to harbor large numbers of non-chimeric horizontally acquired genes(21, 28, 31).

To identify the broadest range of arthropod species containing each HGT-chimera (SI

Table 4), we additionally searched for representatives of HGT-chimera ortholog groups in an

expanded set of arthropod genomes, including an additional 197 genome annotations from

GenBank (SI Table 1). We found that 81/104 orthologous groups were restricted to a single

species (Figure 1E, SI Figure 5A), suggesting a relatively recent evolutionary origin. For

orthologous groups found in more than one species, we inferred minimum evolutionary gene

ages by phylostratigraphy (55) (SI Figure 5 and SI Table 5). We detected a member of the

orthologous cluster corresponding to the gene *oskar* (cluster 1) in 181 insects spanning the

subclass Pterygota, consistent with our prior finding that *oskar* originated via chimeric HGT in or

prior to the last common ancestor of winged insects (>400 million years ago [MYA] (47)).

In contrast to the insect-specific *oskar* cluster, we found two clusters (cluster 3 and

cluster 18) whose members were found in multiple species from distantly related classes of

arthropods (Figure 1D). Cluster 18 was found exclusively in the firefly *Photinus pyralis* (order:

Coleoptera, class: Insecta) and in the mite *Oppia nitens* (order: Sarcoptiformes, class:

Arachnida), a finding that we interpret as evidence for convergent evolution of analogous HGT-

chimera architectures via independent HGT and gene fusion events (SI Figure 7). In the case of

cluster 3, molecular phylogenetic analyses suggested that its sparse phylogenetic distribution

could have arisen from the transfer of these HGT-chimeras between springtails, fungus gnats,

and mites following the formation of this gene (SI Text 1, SI Figure 7). We note that inter-

metazoan HGT, although thought to be rare (see for example 56–58), has nevertheless been

reported by other studies (31, 58–60), including among these specific groups of arthropods (31,

61). Thus, HGT appears not only to have contributed to the origination of this HGT-chimera, but

also to have contributed to its spread across species following its formation.

The youngest HGT-chimeras (clusters 20 and 21) that we dated via phylostratigraphy

(55) appeared in the congeneric microcrustaceans *Daphnia pulex* and *D. pulicaria*, but were

absent in the three other *Daphnia* genomes available at the time of writing. This suggests an

origin for this HGT-chimera as recently as 82,000 years ago in the *D. pulex-D. pulicaria*

common ancestor (62). Some genomes featured both young and old HGT-chimeras. For

example, the shrimp *Penaeus vannamei* contained one HGT-chimera (cluster 12) exclusively

found in three other congeneric species (divergence time ~83.1 MYA (63)), and another also

found in lobsters (cluster 2), tracing its origin to the last common ancestor of extant decapods

~394 MYA (63) (SI Figure 5B). Collectively, these findings suggest that HGT-chimera formation

has been an ongoing process throughout arthropod history.

HGT-chimeras are derived from diverse donor lineages

Next, we investigated the evolutionary histories of HGT-chimeras in greater detail. We

used HGT interval trees (Figure 1B) to infer donor taxa and found that the majority of HGT

intervals plausibly originated in bacterial donors (Figure 2A, SI Table 7). Among 62 sequences

of inferred bacterial ancestry, close phylogenetic relatives of 37 of them are from bacterial

genera of known arthropod symbionts (Figure 2B, SI Table 8), including the endosymbionts

Wolbachia, *Rickettsia* and *Hamiltonella*. This finding is consistent with prior reports of HGT

between pathogenic and endosymbiotic bacteria and arthropod genomes (15, 19, 23, 47).

In addition to symbiotic bacterial donors, we observed 23 putative transfers from donors

with plausible ecological associations with the recipient arthropods, including 13 cases of HGT

from arthropod-infecting viruses, one from fungi to the fungus-consuming gnat *Bradysia*

coprophila, and three from soil-dwelling bacteria to the soil-dwelling mite *Oppia nitens* (SI Table

8)*.* In all, these data are consistent with the hypothesis that close ecological associations with

food, pathogens and symbionts may provide opportunities for HGT (13, 19, 31, 38, 59).

HGT-chimeras plausibly formed via duplication-mediated gene fusion

We hypothesized that, similarly to other gene fusion events, HGT-chimera formation

might be driven by duplication events, in which a duplicated copy of a HGT and/or metazoan

sequence undergoes fusion with a sequence of the opposite ancestry (Figure 2C, SI Table 9)

(7, 48, 64, 65). This duplication-based hypothesis predicts that HGT-chimeras should have non-

chimeric within-genomic homologs ("relatives") to their HGT and/or metazoan intervals. We

searched for evidence of relatives via sequence similarity (BLASTp) and phylogenetics-based

methods, both of which yielded results consistent with this prediction. First, using BLASTp we

found that 82/104 HGT-chimeras had within-genome hits (E-value<1e-10) for at least one

constituent interval, and that 46/104 HGT-chimeras had hits for both HGT and metazoan

intervals (Figure 2D). For most intervals, phylogenetic analyses supported the presence of close

non-chimeric relatives, either within the same genome as the chimera or in the genomes of

closely related species lacking the chimera (SI Text 2, SI Figure 8, SI Table 9-10). BLASTp-

inferred HGT-chimeras additionally displayed genomic signatures consistent with gene fusion

via tandem duplication (N=26 intervals) or retroduplication (N=12 intervals), two established

mechanisms of gene birth via fusion (Figure 2E) (5, 6, 9, 64, 66). These data are consistent with

a model in which HGT-chimeras can form via horizontal transfer followed by duplication-based

gene fusion, as previously posited for a smaller number of HGT-chimeras in bacterial genomes

(48).

HGT-chimeric genes are transcribed

Multiple lines of evidence suggest that most of the HGT-chimeras that we predict based

on genome assembly and annotation data exist in their respective genomes and are expressed

as functional gene products. First, we discarded any putative HGT-chimeras from short

scaffolds or contigs <100,000 kilobases in length to reduce the potential influence of

contaminating DNA reads. Second, we observed that the HGT-ancestry intervals showed no

systematic deviation in codon use or GC content from the background of expressed transcripts

from the same genome, nor from metazoan intervals in the same protein, a pattern inconsistent

with HGT-ancestry intervals being an artifact of genomic contamination (Figure 3A-B, SI Table

11). Third, 65/104 HGT-chimeras had RNA-Seq support over the full length of their transcripts in

the RefSeq genome browser, while 93/104 HGT-chimeras had RNA-seq support over >50% of

the length of all identified HGT and metazoan intervals (SI Figure 3C, SI Table 12). Finally, we

used RT-PCR and Sanger sequencing to validate the existence of continuous mRNA transcripts

containing both predicted HGT and metazoan intervals for 37 HGT-chimeras in 19 species. We

validated expression in 89% (33/37) of examined HGT-chimeras, corresponding to 23 distinct

orthologous clusters across 17 species (SI Table 13, SI Figure 3C).

HGT-chimeras evolve under gene-wide constraint with evidence of accelerated divergence from

non-chimeric relatives

The observation that 23 of 104 HGT-chimera clusters are found in multiple, often

distantly diverged, species (SI Table 5) is consistent with their conservation as functionally

important genes. Further, all 21 of these clusters (excluding clusters 18 and 3 due to possible

non-vertical inheritance, see SI Text 1) had gene-wide dN/dS<1, and in 19 cases we could

reject a null hypothesis of neutrality (Figure 3C, SI Table 14). Leveraging fixed-site models in

which dN/dS was allowed to vary between HGT and non-HGT ancestry regions, we found

statistically significant evidence of relaxed selective constraint in codons of HGT ancestry

relative to the rest of the chimeric protein in only 14.3% (3/21) of cases (Figure 3D, SI Table 15)

(67–70). This paucity of relaxed selective constraint over the length of HGT-chimeras suggests

that these genes are functionally expressed as translated peptides, and that HGT-derived

regions contribute to the functions of these genes (65, 71, 72).

Although HGT-chimera orthologs diverge slowly from each other following their

formation, we asked whether they showed signs of rapid divergence from their non-chimeric

parents, similar to the functional divergence (neofunctionalization) observed in other novel

genes that evolved through gene duplication (5, 8, 9, 32, 35, 66). To answer this question, we

applied two-ratio dN/dS models to species- or genus-restricted HGT-chimera intervals aligned

with homologous non-chimeric sequences from the same genome ("relatives") and from related

arthropod species in the same taxonomic order (Figure 3E-F) (68–70). We found that 64.3%

(18/28) of intervals had a higher dN/dS value on the chimeric branches, while 32.1% (9/28) of

intervals had both a greater dN/dS value on chimeric branches and a statistically significant

better fit to a two-ratio model than to a single-ratio model (Figure 3E, SI Table 16). This

suggests that accelerated protein sequence evolution may be a common fate of incipient HGT-

chimeras, consistent with their acquisition of novel functions relative to non-chimeric progenitors

(6, 8, 33, 73).

HGT-chimeras are predicted to function in diverse processes

To obtain predictions of gene function, we integrated the results of BLASTp hits, domain

annotations using InterProScan (74), NCBI CD-search (75), and gene ontology annotations

generated via DeepGO-SE (76) for the HGT and metazoan intervals of each HGT-chimera

(Figure 4, SI Table 17). We found a diverse array of predicted functions, from biosynthesis to

carbohydrate metabolism and regulation of gene expression, implicated in both the metazoan

and HGT-derived intervals of HGT-chimeras. Interestingly, over one third (38/104) of HGT-

chimeras displayed putative functional similarity in their HGT- and metazoan intervals, including

eight cases in which both HGT and metazoan intervals were predicted to bind to or chemically

modify carbohydrates, and 22 cases in which both types of intervals were predicted to interact

with DNA or RNA (Figure 3, SI Table 18). Strikingly, we found two independent fusions between

metazoan C-type lectins and bacteriophage tail fiber protein genes (clusters 3 and 69), both of

which in other organisms bind to bacterial surface molecules (77, 78). We speculate that these

HGT-chimeras might function in immunological pathogen recognition. These observations,

coupled with the repeated observation of functionally coherent HGT-chimeras in other studies of

gene fusion (5, 48, 79), could mean that HGT-chimeras formed from functionally similar

components may be more likely to encode beneficial functions, contributing to their fixation and

long-term preservation under purifying selection (5).

Conclusions

Novel protein structure and function can emerge from several elementary events,

including amino acid substitutions, gene duplication, gene fusion and HGT (4). In this study, we

have shown that multiple of these elementary events can operate together in the origins of a

previously understudied class of genes that we call HGT-chimeras. In at least 104 independent

events across the history of the arthropods, HGT-chimeras evolved via the fusion of

endogenous genes of ancient metazoan ancestry with genes acquired via horizontal transfer

from non-metazoan sources. In nearly 80% (82/104) of HGT-chimeras, sequence duplication

within the host genome played a plausible role in their formation (Figure 2C-E), and many HGT-

chimeras show a signature of accelerated amino acid substitution following their birth (Figure

3F). Collectively, these findings reveal a rich post-transfer history of horizontally acquired

sequences in arthropods.

We propose that although chimeric genes of this nature have been reported rarely (22,

36–39, 47, 48) despite significant prior work on HGT (13–17, 19, 20, 23, 25–30), we were able

to uncover these HGT-chimeras by better demarcating intervals of distinct history (Figure 1A, SI

Figure 2). HGT-chimeras are unlikely to be detected by traditional HGT detection methods,

which assume a common evolutionary history throughout the length of the open reading frame.

In almost half (41/104) of HGT-chimeras, a naive interpretation of gene-wide BLASTp results via

the same criteria used to infer interval ancestry would lead to a false inference of gene-wide

metazoan ancestry (see SI Table 19). For the remaining genes, constructing a single gene tree

for genic intervals with distinct histories would be methodologically problematic and, even if it

resulted in a sensible topology, would obscure the true chimeric history of the gene. We expect

that the application of methods like the one we describe here, that allow for intragenic

phylogenetic discordance, could lead to the discovery of more HGT-chimeras, especially in

lineages with frequent HGT such as grasses and parasitic plants (80, 81), fungi (82, 83) and

prokaryotes (4, 13).

Intriguingly, a majority (81/104) of identified HGT-chimeras were found in only a single

species (Figure 1E, SI Table 4). The two species with the greatest number of species-specific

chimeras (N=8 for both *Folsomia candida* and *Eurytemora carolleeae*) are both separated from

their closest searched relatives by hundreds of millions of years (242 MYA for *Folsomia candida*

vs. *Orchesella cincta* (84); 446 MYA for *Eurytemora carolleeae* vs. *Tigriopus californicus* (85)).

We therefore speculate that at least some of the observed excess of species-specific singletons

reflects the poor genomic sampling of many arthropod lineages. We nonetheless uncover

evidence of species-specific (SI Table 4) or young (origin <20 MYA, SI Table 5) HGT-chimeras

even in densely sampled lineages such as the genus *Daphnia* and order Lepidoptera. Excesses

of species-specific genes have been reported in studies of gene birth via other mechanisms (5,

10, 15, 86), suggesting that some (though not all, see SI Table 5) newly formed genes may be

short-lived (10, 86) due to weak (10, 86, 87) or evolutionarily transient (5, 88) selective

constraint.

The biological significance of HGT has been questioned by some researchers, as many

transferred segments show evidence of pseudogenization (16, 23, 89), and significant barriers

to the transfer and functional integration of genes from divergent lineages have been posited

(12, 17, 88, 90, 91). We speculate that fusion with pre-existing gene sequences might be one

path for the integration of novel horizontally transferred sequences into pre-existing functional

networks. Multiple HGT-chimeras show signatures consistent with biological function, including

multiple lines of evidence for active transcription (SI Figure 3C, SI Tables 12-13), gene-wide

purifying selection (Figure 3C-D, SI Tables 14-15) and functionally coherent domain

architectures (Figure 4, SI Table 18). Experimental studies in diverse model systems have

demonstrated important functions for many young and species-specific genes (3, 7, 11, 34, 73,

92),. Thus, we consider it plausible that even the young HGT-chimeras detected here may play

important biological roles.

The functional predictions we generate via domain architectures and DeepGO-SE (SI

Tables 17-18) provide insights into the potential range of biological processes impacted by

HGT-chimeras, warranting experimental validation in future studies. We speculate that some

HGT-chimera intervals may have been co-opted to perform functions divergent from the

functions of their non-chimeric progenitors, given molecular signatures of post-fusion

neofunctionalization (Figure 3F). Consistent with this idea, co-option has been experimentally

shown for the HGT-derived domain of the HGT-chimeric gene *oskar*. The closest bacterial

relatives of *oskar*'s HGT-derived domain, called the OSK domain (45), are lipid hydrolases (45,

46), but in insects this domain lacks key hydrolytic residues and participates in RNA binding (45,

93, 94). At a phenotypic level, *oskar* is a core mediator of an evolutionarily novel mechanism of

germ line specification in some insects (41, 95, 96), a function apparently physiologically

removed from the likely ancestral bacterial role of its HGT-derived domain.

To conclude, our novel computational approach has revealed that fusion of horizontally

acquired sequence with endogenous ones has been widespread throughout the history of

arthropods, illustrating a previously underappreciated versatility in genomic "bricolage" (97).

Methods

Our methodology for HGT-chimera detection and downstream inference is described in brief

here and in detail in SI Methods. All BLAST searches were performed using DIAMOND

(v.2.0.15) BLASTp (68). We partitioned protein queries into intervals hits against the NR

database and an adaptation of a previously described algorithm (52). Separated intervals were

subjected to a second round of BLASTp, from which phylogenetic datasets were either directly

constructed or constructed from hmmsearch (HMMER suite v.3.3.2) results with a profile hidden

Markov model produced from arthropod BLASTp hits. Maximum likelihood phylogenies for

separated intervals were produced with IQ-TREE v.2.2.0.3 (98) from multiple sequence

alignments generated with MUSCLE v.5.1 (99) and trimAl (100). Trees were visualized with the

iTOL python API and manually inspected. dN/dS computations were performed with PAL2NAL

v.14.1(101) and PAML v.4.10.0 (68–70). HGT-chimera expression was determined

bioinformatically using the RNA-Seq tracks of the NCBI RefSeq genome browser, and

experimentally using RT-PCR and Sanger sequencing on samples of selected arthropod

species obtained as donations or collected by the authors from lab-cultured animals (SI Table

13).

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Data availability

All data required to reproduce associated figures is included in Supporting Information tables. Maximum likelihood trees for HGT and metazoan intervals of the final set of HGT-chimera orthologous groups are freely accessible in the public project "Arthropod HGT-chimera interval trees 8/27/2025" on the iTOL webserver at https://itol.embl.de/shared/rkapoor. Associated BLAST results, hmmsearch results, multiple sequence alignments, and Newick trees have been deposited at the Dryad digital repository for this study https://doi.org/10.5061/dryad.t1g1jwtdz. Scripts used to implement the HGT-chimera detection pipeline and downstream analysis are available on the github repository https://github.com/rishabhrajkapoor/Arthropod-HGT-chimeras-2025 with commit ID 80b40f0. Sanger-verified cDNA sequences have been deposited at GenBank, with accession numbers available in SI Table 13.

Author contributions

Project was conceptualized by CGE and RK. RK performed bioinformatic analyses. SP, EES and IR prepared cDNA libraries. RT-PCRs were performed by EES, ELR, CK, SG, SP, and IR. EES inspected and manually corrected Sanger sequencing results. RK, EES, and CGE wrote the manuscript and created associated figures. All authors reviewed the manuscript.

Figure 1. Identification of HGT-chimeric gene detection across Arthropoda. (A) The taxonomic distribution of BLAST hits across an example query sequence are used to hypothesize chimeric ancestry. In this hypothetical protein, the interval 1-325 amino acids are hypothesized to be of metazoan ancestry (darkest grey) because the closest non-arthropod hits are from non-arthropod metazoan taxa. The interval from 350-450 amino acids is hypothesized to be of HGT ancestry (red) because the closest hits are of non-metazoan origin. In addition to the original query sequence (dark green), secondary chimeric sequences of the same domain architecture (light green) are retrieved from other arthropods. Plots for all HGT-chimeras are available in SI File 1. **(B)** HGT and metazoan ancestries are proposed using maximum likelihood phylogenetics on hmmsearch or BLAST hits as described in SI Text 2. In this example, the results suggest an ancient metazoan ancestry for the interval spanning amino acids 1-325 (Interval 1: top tree) because the sequences from putative HGT-chimeras (green) are nested within a backbone of arthropod and non-arthropod metazoan sequences (grey). The interval spanning amino acids 350-450 (Interval 2: bottom tree) is proposed to be of bacterial ancestry because the chimeric sequences (green) are nested within a backbone of bacterial sequences (orange). All trees are available online from iTOL. **(C)** Distribution of the number of HGT-chimeras detected per genome for the 319 RefSeq reference genome annotations in the primary search dataset, with a maximum of one member of each HGT-chimera orthologous cluster tabulated per species (total N=274 genes). **(D)** This phylogram shows arthropod orders with species containing at least one HGT-chimera. Colored ranges indicate taxonomic class (Insecta, Collembola) or subphylum (Chelicerata, Crustacea). Data include sequences from both the primary search set of 319 RefSeq genomes and 197 additional GenBank genomes (see SI Methods). Symbols outside the phylogram indicate the presence of HGT-chimeras in clusters 18 (circles) and 3 (stars), which are notable for their sparse phylogenetic distribution (SI Figure 6-7). **(E)** The number of species possessing each of 104 HGT-chimera orthologous clusters, including both RefSeq and GenBank genomes. Species range is examined by inspecting the species distribution of arthropod proteins that are hmmsearch or BLASTp hits to both the HGT and metazoan intervals of the representative HGT-chimeras (see SI Methods).

Figure 2. (previous page) Evolutionary origins of HGT-chimeras. (A) Plausible HGT donor taxa at the domain/superkingdom level inferred from the taxonomic distribution of sister and cousin clades on maximum likelihood phylogenies for 109 HGT intervals from 104 HGT-chimera clusters (see SI Methods). **(B)** Representation of bacterial genera from documented arthropod symbionts in the Symbiotic Genomes Database (102) among closest and second-closest clades to HGT-chimera intervals on maximum likelihood trees (see SI Methods). Plot shows all genera represented in more than one interval, with full data included in SI Table 8. **(C)** Schematic representation of a model of HGT-chimera formation in which HGT precedes a duplication of HGT and/or metazoan genes. This model posits the existence of non-chimeric homologs ("relatives") to the HGT or metazoan intervals within the same genome. Note that the expected outcome of fusion via tandem duplication (bottom example) is a reversal of the order of metazoan and HGT segments on either side of the resulting chimera (86). **(D)** The number of HGT-chimeras with non-chimeric parents (DIAMOND BLASTp E-value <1e-10) detected at a different locus within the same genome, for HGT intervals, metazoan intervals, or both, based on BLASTp-based relative detection as follows: we considered an interval of a chimera to have a non-chimeric within-genome relative if it had a DIAMOND BLASTp hit to a protein encoded by a different locus (E-value <1e-10) and if the protein was not simultaneously a hit (E-value <10) for all chimera intervals of the opposite ancestry annotation (i.e. a metazoan relative should be a hit for the metazoan interval of a protein but not the HGT interval). Venn diagram includes data for the 82/104 HGT-chimeras for which we found evidence of a relative of at least one constituent interval. See also the results of phylogenetic relative detection in SI Figure 8C. **(E)** Two plausible mechanisms of gene fusion in HGT-chimeras. HGT-chimera intervals were hypothesized to be products of tandem duplication if HGT-chimeras were located on the same chromosome or genomic scaffold as their BLASTp-defined relatives with ≤ 2 intervening genes (left), or products of retroduplication if the interval was spanned by one exon in the HGT-chimera and more than one exon in the BLASTp-defined relative (right).

Figure 3. (previous page) Evidence of HGT-chimera functionality. (A) Measure Independent of Length and Composition (MILC) is a measure of codon use bias (103). Higher MILC values indicate greater deviation from genome-wide expected codon use frequencies. To enable comparison of codon use between HGT and metazoan intervals from the same protein as well as comparison to non-chimeric transcripts, we percentile normalized MILC values with respect to a distribution obtained via random sampling of annotated coding sequences from the same genome as each HGT-chimera. This plot shows percentile-normalized MILC across HGT (red) and metazoan-derived (dark grey) intervals across all 104 representative chimeras, with light grey lines connecting HGT and metazoan intervals from the same chimera (see SI Methods). Percentile-normalized MILC values were roughly uniformly distributed over [0,1], as would be expected for any genomic interval. HGT and metazoan intervals did not differ significantly in their percentile-normalized MILC values (Wilcoxon rank-sum p-value > 0.10). **(B)** GC values by interval type, with percentile scores produced as in (A). HGT and metazoan intervals do not differ significantly in their percentile-normalized GC values (Wilcoxon rank-sum p-value > 0.10). **(C)** Gene-wide ω (dN/dS) values (PAML M0) fitted for 21 of the 23 HGT-chimeras orthologous clusters that were found in the genomes of at least two different species (excluding clusters 3 and 18). The x-axis represents the log-transformed Benjamini-Hochberg corrected p-values from a likelihood ratio test comparing the likelihood of the free dN/dS ratio values (y-axis) to a null model with ω fixed at 1. **(D)** Each of 23 HGT-derived intervals from the same 21 HGT-chimeras as in (C) were permitted to take a different ω value from the rest of the protein using fixed-site models. Benjami-Hochberg corrected p-values (indicated by dot fill) were obtained by comparing the likelihood of a model in which codons in the HGT interval differed from the remaining codons in their ω values; open dots indicate statistically significant deviation of dN/dS values for an HGT-derived interval from the rest of the coding region. **(E)** Schematic representation of branch test performed to compare ω values of an interval before (gray) and after (blue) a HGT-chimera-forming gene fusion event. Separate gene trees were built for HGT and metazoan intervals using phylogenetic relatives within the same taxonomic order as HGT-chimeras. To best capture the early dynamics of HGT-chimera evolution, we restricted our analysis to 28 intervals from young (species or genus-restricted) HGT-chimeras in which relatives were detected both within the same genome as the HGT-chimera and in the genomes of arthropods in the same taxonomic order (SI Methods). **(F)** The distribution of the fold-change in ω between chimeric and non-chimeric branches of gene trees is plotted on the y-axis, for 28 HGT-chimera intervals. Benjamini-Hochberg corrected p-values (x-axis) were obtained using a likelihood ratio test of a two-branch model to a model with a single ω value.

Figure 4. HGT-chimeras are transcribed. Predicted domain architectures (via NCBI CDD (75), InterProScan (74), and DeepGO-SE (76)) for a sample of ten HGT-chimeras with expression validated by RT-PCR and Sanger sequencing (SI Table 13). The unique cluster identifier of each HGT-chimera is indicated, along with its taxonomic range in parenthesis. Asterisks indicate a predicted functional commonality between the metazoan and HGT intervals (SI Table 17). Note that cluster 3 may have undergone inter-arthropod HGT (SI Text 1). Representative silhouettes obtained from phylopic.org. Fractions next to taxon names indicate the number of total species in the cluster for which we confirmed chimera expression via RT-PCR (SI Table 13). Domain length is arbitrary and not to scale.

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