Population genetics of *Paramecium* mitochondrial genomes: recombination, mutation spectrum, and efficacy of selection

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39 **RUNNING TITLE**: Evolution of mitochondrial genomes.
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KEYWORDS: *Paramecium*, mitochondria, recombination, mutation spectrum, efficacy of

purifying selection.

ABSTRACT

There is a dearth of understanding of evolution of mitochondrial genomes and their

population-genetic environment among unicellular eukaryotes. Ciliate mitochondrial

genomes exhibit a unique combination of characteristics, including a linear organization and

the presence of multiple genes with no known function or detectable homologs in other

eukaryotes. Here we study the variation of ciliate mitochondrial genomes both within and

across thirteen highly diverged *Paramecium* species, including multiple species from the *P.*

aurelia species complex, with four outgroup species: *P. caudatum*, *P. multimicronucleatum,*

and two strains that appear to represent novel related species. We observe extraordinary

conservation of gene order and protein-coding content in *Paramecium* mitochondria across

species. In contrast, significant differences are observed in tRNA content and copy number,

which is highly conserved in species belonging to the *P. aurelia* complex but variable

among and even within the other *Paramecium* species. There is an increase in GC content

from ~20% to ~40% on the branch leading to the *P. aurelia* complex. Patterns of

polymorphism in population genomic data and mutation-accumulation experiments suggest

that the increase in GC content is primarily due to changes in the mutation spectra in the *P.*

aurelia species. Finally, we confirm a complete lack of recombination in *Paramecium*

mitochondria and find that the mitochondrial genome appears to experience either similar or

stronger levels of purifying selection than the nucleus. We discuss how our results might

still be concordant with theoretical predictions.

INTRODUCTION

Mitochondria have played integral roles in furthering our understanding of relationships among species as well as revealing population structure and demographic history. As a consequence, we have obtained insights into the unique population-genetic properties of mitochondrial genomes. In most species, mitochondria are inherited uniparentally (but see BARR *et al.* 2005). Although mitochondrial genomes are known to frequently undergo recombination in plants (STADLER and DELPH 2002; MACKENZIE 2007) as well as fungi (FRITSCH *et al.* 2014), no recombination has been detected in animals (BALLARD and WHITLOCK 2004; PIGANEAU and EYRE-WALKER 2004). Because of the unique mode of transmission and lack of recombination in some species, mitochondria have been suggested to have lower effective population sizes than their nuclear counterparts and therefore to accumulate more deleterious mutations (LYNCH and BLANCHARD 1998; NEIMAN and TAYLOR 2009). In addition, mitochondrial genomes experience much higher spontaneous rates of mutation than their corresponding nuclear genomes in animals but exhibit the opposite trend in plants (LYNCH *et al.* 2006).

Unlike the relatively uniform and conserved properties of metazoan mitogenomes, mitochondrial genomes in unicellular eukaryotes exhibit remarkable variation in genome structure and GC content. Mitochondrial genome structures range from hundreds of short linear segments (0.3-8.3 kb) in *Amoebidium parasiticum* (BURGER *et al.* 2003), an opisthokont, to many small (< 10 kb) circular genomes in the excavate *Diplonema papillatum* (VLCEK *et al.* 2011), to a single larger linear or circular chromosome, and a variety of other states (reviewed in SMITH and KEELING 2015). In addition to variation in organization, mitochondria from unicellular lineages display

widely diverse GC compositions, ranging from as low as 10% in yeast (SMITH 2012) to 60% in

Lobochlamys culleus (BORZA *et al.* 2009), although most species are AT rich, with an average

GC content of 35% (SMITH 2012).

Much has been learned about the structure, evolution and population-genetic environment of

mitochondria in the main model systems, especially in plants and metazoans (LYNCH 2007;

SMITH 2016). However we lack such understanding in mitochondria of most unicellular

eukaryotes, which harbor most eukaryotic phylogenetic diversity. We address this gap by

surveying both within and between-species variation in mitochondrial genomes among highly

diverged ciliate species.

In the large and morphologically and ecologically diverse ciliate lineage, mitochondrial genomes

are organized into single large linear chromosomes, several tens of kilobases in length, with

telomeres at the ends (GODDARD and CUMMINGS 1975; MORIN and CECH 1988; SWART *et al.*

2012). Few mitochondrial genomes have been fully sequenced among the ciliates, with two in

the *Paramecium* genus (*P. tetraurelia* and *P. caudatum*; (BARTH and BERENDONK 2011)), and

only a few others: *Tetrahymena pyriformis* (BURGER *et al.* 2000), *Euplotes minuta* and *Euplotes*

crassus (DE GRAAF *et al.* 2009), *Oxytricha trifallax* (SWART *et al.* 2012), *Stentor coeruleus*

(SLABODNICK *et al.* 2017), *Ichthyophthirius multifiliis* (COYNE *et al.* 2011), and the anaerobic

ciliate *Nyctotherus ovalis* (DE GRAAF *et al.* 2011).

The *Paramecium* genus is a particularly interesting system in which to study the evolution of

mitochondrial genomes. While it contains a number of distinct morphospecies, it is especially

known for including a species complex consisting of multiple morphologically identical but

sexually isolated species – the *P. aurelia* complex (SONNEBORN 1975). Species in the *P. aurelia*

complex are extremely ancient, with the estimated time of divergence for the complex as a whole

being on the order of 300 million years ago (MCGRATH *et al.* 2014b), implying that the genus

Paramecium itself is even more ancient. Interestingly, among *Paramecium* species, there is a

doubling of GC content in the branch leading to the *P. aurelia* complex (BURGER *et al.* 2000;

BARTH and BERENDONK 2011). *Paramecium* therefore also offers an attractive system with

which to study the evolution of nucleotide composition across mitochondrial genomes that are

structurally very similar.

In this study we further the understanding of the biology and the population-genetic

environment of ciliate mitochondria by presenting the complete mitochondrial genomes of

nine species belonging to the *P. aurelia* complex, four outgroup species, and 5-10 isolates

each of four *Paramecium* species. Using phylogenetic and population-genetic analyses, we

investigate variation in protein-coding genes, tRNA content, and causative forces

governing the evolution of nucleotide composition across the phylogeny. In addition, we

estimate the recombination rate across the genome and address the controversy of whether

mitochondrial genomes experience reduced purifying selection in comparison to their

nuclear counterparts.

RESULTS

Mitochondrial genome assembly and SNP detection

We assembled complete mitochondrial genomes of nine species belonging to the *P. aurelia* complex: *P. biaurelia*, *P. tetraurelia*, *P. sexaurelia*, *P. octaurelia*, *P. novaurelia*, *P. decaurelia*, *P. dodecaurelia*, *P. quadecaurelia*, and *P. jenningsi* as well as four outgroup species: *P. caudatum*, *P. caudatum-C026*, *P. multimicronucleatum*, and *P. multimicronucleatum-Peniche3I* (Figure 1). We note that *P. caudatum-C026* and *P. multimicronucleatum-Peniche3I* were initially sampled as individual isolates belonging to the *P. caudatum* and *P. multimicronucleatum* species (based on morphological criteria), respectively. However, the analysis of the resulting sequencing data revealed that they are highly diverged from the reference strains (see below) and are therefore almost certainly separate species and were treated as such in subsequent analyses. For all 13 mitochondrial genomes in this study, Illumina reads were assembled using SPAdes (BANKEVICH *et al.* 2012), and mitochondrial contigs were identified by BLAST searches against the publicly available *P. caudatum* and *P. tetraurelia* mitochondrial sequences (see the Materials and Methods section for more details). The assembled sequences are largely complete with the exception of the *P. multimicronucleatum* and *P. multimicronucleatum* Peniche3I mitocontigs, which appear to be missing small portions of the 3′ end of the chromosome (Figure 2).

In addition, we sequenced 10 isolates of both *P. tetraurelia* and *P. sexaurelia*, and 5 isolates of each *P. caudatum* and *P. multimicronucleatum* (Supplementary Figure 1). Illumina

paired-end reads from these isolates were mapped to the assembled reference genomes and

SNPs were called as in JOHRI *et al.* (2017). These genomes were also assembled *de novo*

(Supplementary Figures 2, 3 and 4) in order to examine large-scale genome organization

mapping.

Genome structure and organization

All *Paramecium* mitochondrial genomes are linear; ~40 kb in the *P. aurelia* species and ~44

kb in *P. caudatum* and *P. caudatum-C026*. Telomeric repeats identified on both ends of the

assembled genomes imply that the full lengths of the linear contigs have been assembled in

most species. While we did not recover complete mitochondrial contigs for *P.*

multimicronucleatum and *P. multimicronucleatum-Peniche3I*, the length of the existing

contigs suggests an overall size closer to that observed in *P. aurelia* than to the larger

mitochondrial genomes in the *P. caudatum* lineage. We also note that the assemblies for two

of the *P. aurelia* species contain extensions (Supplementary Figure 5 and 6). In *P.*

novaurelia, an additional ~18 kb is present at the 5′ end of the mitocontig, while in *P.*

quadecaurelia, a small, ~1 kb extension is seen at the 3′ end. However, the read coverage

over these regions is very different from the rest of the mitocontigs, suggesting either

misassembly or heterogeneity within cell populations. We therefore ignored these

extensions in subsequent analysis.

The organization of the genomes is very similar, with gene order preserved almost perfectly

between all species (Figure 2). The GC content is relatively uniform along the length of

the mitochondrial chromosome in all *Paramecium* species, with the exception of the

immediate subtelomeric areas and the ribosomal RNAs in the non-*aurelia* species

(Supplementary Figures 7-9).

We also identified telomeric repeats based on the sequences at the end of assembled

mitocontigs (see Methods for more details). In most *P. aurelia* species, we identify

almost   identical   repeats,   with   a   23-bp   consensus   sequence

GCCCTGGTGGCCCTAGAAGCTCC (Supplementary Figure 10). However, in *P.*

jenningsi and *P. sexaurelia* the telomere repeat motif is the same length, but has 1 base

pair different from this consensus. Of note, these two species are the earliest diverging

ones within the *P. aurelia* complex species included in our analysis. We observed even

more   divergent   telomeric   sequences   in   *P.   caudatum*

(GCCCTGGTAACGCTGGTCGCCCTTTTAAAATA) and *P. multimicronucleatum*

(GCCCTTGTTACACTTGGTGGCTCTTTAAGCTCT). In these species, the core

telomeric repeat sequence has been expanded by additional 10 bp sequences that are not

present in *P. aurelia*. The *Paramecium* core telomeric repeat is broadly similar to that of

Tetrahymena (ACCCTCGTGTCTCTTTA)*,* the other Oligohymenophorean genus for

which mitochondrial genomes are available, but distinct from the what is observed in

distantly branching ciliates such as the spirotrichean *Oxytricha trifallax* (Supplementary

Figure 10).

Variation in protein coding gene content between and within species

All *Paramecium* mitochondrial genomes contain a core set of 15 genes (Figure 2) involved

in electron transport and ATP synthesis (*atp9*, *cob*, *cox1*, *cox2*, *nadh1*, *nadh2*, *nadh3*,

nadh4, *nadh4L*, *nadh5*, *nadh6*, *nadh7*, nadh9 and *nadh10)*, the heme maturase *YejR*, and 8

ribosomal protein genes (*rpL6*, *rpL12*, *rpL14*, *rpL16*, *rpS3*, *rpS12*, *rpS13*, and *rpS14*). One

ribosomal protein subunit *rpS19* was found to be absent from *P. tetraurelia*, *P. octaurelia*,

P. novaurelia, *P. dodecaurelia*, and *P. quadecaurelia* and therefore appears to have been

independently lost from the mitochondria at least 3 times along the *P. aurelia* phylogeny

(Figure 1). Remarkably, we also find a presence-absence polymorphism of *rpS19* in *P.*

sexaurelia isolates, with the ORF not being identifiable in 2 out of 11 isolates studied

(Supplementary Figure 11). Although this might suggest a mitochondrial gene in the

process of transfer to the nucleus, the closest hit in the nuclear genome has an E value of

0.27, implying either a complete loss or perhaps transfer to a mitochondrial plasmid, which

has not been captured by any study.

Paramecium genomes also contain 16 ciliate-specific genes of unknown function, called

Ymf genes (BURGER *et al.* 2000), named according to the Commission on Plant Gene

Nomenclature (PRICE and REARDON 2001). Each sequenced strain contains all of these

genes, with the exception of *P. multimicronucleatum* strain M13 in which *Ymf80* and

Ymf83 appear to have fused with *nadh4* and *Ymf64*, respectively. In addition, several ORFs

originally identified in *P. tetraurelia*, are observed in only one or a few additional *P.*

aurelia mitogenomes, typically overlapping longer ORFs: *orf189*, *orf285*, and *orf314*

restricted to the three *P. tetraurelia* isolates; *orf221* present in *P. tetraurelia*, *P. octaurelia*

and *P. biaurelia*; *orf265* in *P. biaurelia*; and orf78 found only in *P. tetraurelia* isolate A.

We used HHPred (SODING *et al.* 2005) to predict homologs of the Ymf genes and found

that parts of Ymf genes display homology to standard mitochondrial genes, encoding

ribosomal subunits and proteins involved in electron transport. About 37% of sequence

from *Ymf59* was found to be homologous to *rpS10*, ~22% sequence of *Ymf61* to a 30S

ribosomal protein S24E, ~28% of *Ymf64* sequence to a 30 S *rpS3*, ~79% of *Ymf65*

sequence to the NADH subunit and ~11% of *Ymf67* to cytochrome c oxidase, subunit P.

Homologs of *Ymf59* and *Ymf64* were previously similarly identified in *Oxytricha* (SWART

et al. 2012) and reached the same conclusions.

In addition, we found a previously unidentified ORF larger than 100 AA, which appears to

be present in all *Paramecium* mitochondrial genomes and is located at the very 5′ end of the

chromosome, before the large ribosomal RNA. This ORF has homology to the CRISPR-

associated endoribonuclease Cas6; its functional significance is unclear at present.

A notable Ymf gene is *Ymf64*, which accounts for a significant part of the difference

between the length of *P. aurelia* and *P. caudatum* mitochondrial genomes, being much

longer in the latter (~1700 AA vs. ~600 AA) (BARTH and BERENDONK 2011). In two

isolates of *P. multimicronucleatum* (M04 and M05), the locus appears to have split into

multiple ORFs (Figure 2), with the one most clearly homologous to *Ymf64* being shortened

even relative to *P. aurelia*. However, in the *P. multimicronucleatum* isolate M13, as well as

P. multimicronucleatum-Peniche3I, *Ymf64* is relatively long (1000 and 863 AA

respectively).

Most other ORFs exhibit relatively constant length across all *Paramecium* mitochondrial

genomes, with the exceptions of *atp9*, which is elongated by ~30-60 AA in all *P. sexaurelia*

isolates, *rpS3* and *rps19*, which are specifically elongated in *P. caudatum* and *P.*

caudatum-C026, and *Ymf76*, which is very short in one of the *P. biaurelia* isolates.

Rate of evolution of protein-coding genes across the phylogeny

Most species were found to be fairly evolutionarily distant from each other, as

measured by the average number of nonsynonymous (*dN*) and synonymous (*dS*) site

substitutions per site (Supplementary Figure 12). *P. decaurelia* and *P. dodecaurelia*

(average *dS*: 0.85; average *dN*: 0.05, average total divergence: 0.23) are the closest

species pair, followed by *P. tetraurelia* and *P. octaurelia* (average *dS*: 0.93; average

dN: 0.09; average total divergence: 0.27). All other species pairs have on average *dS* >

1.0, i.e., synonymous sites in protein coding genes have on average undergone more

than 1 substitution each since the time of divergence. We note here that mean *dS*

between *P. caudatum* and *P. caudatum-C026* is ~2.0 (average *dN*: 0.07; average total

divergence: 0.28), implying that these two isolates represent separate species. A similar

observation confirms that *P. multimicronucleatum-Peniche3I* and *P.*

multimicronucleatum are probably separate species (average *dS* = 1.97; average *dN*:

0.10; average total divergence: 0.26). Our observations suggest the possibility of

cryptic species complexes in both *P. caudatum* and *P. multimicronucleatum*, as

previously suspected (HORI *et al.* 2006; TARCZ *et al.* 2012). Thus the phenomenon of

species complexes containing numerous morphologically identical species, already

known for the *P. aurelia* (SONNEBORN 1937) and *T. pyriformis* (GRUCHY 1955)

complex, might be much more widespread among ciliates than previously appreciated.

We next asked whether different functional groups of genes exhibit different sequence

constraints by measuring number of nonsynonymous relative to synonymous substitutions

(*dN/dS*) across the phylogeny. Overall, enzyme components of the respiratory chains exhibit

the highest degree of conservation across the phylogeny (average *dN/dS* $\cong$ 0.04), followed

by ribosomal proteins (average *dN/dS* $\cong$ 0.06) and then *Ymf* genes (average *dN/dS* $\cong$ 0.11)

(Supplementary Table 1, Supplementary Figure 13). Ciliate-specific *Ymf* genes therefore

exhibit a relatively higher rate of evolution than other genes, with as little as 30% sequence

identity between *P. aurelia*, *P. caudatum,* and *P. multimicronucleatum*, similar to

observations in *Tetrahymena* (MORADIAN *et al.* 2007), as well as with higher values of π_n/π_s

in *P. tetraurelia*, *P. sexaurelia*, *P. caudatum*, and *P. multimicronucleatum*

(Supplementary Figure 14).

The rapid divergence of *Ymf* genes can either be explained by relaxed purifying

selection at the sequence level, or recurrent positive selection over long periods of time,

or a combination of both. To distinguish between these possibilities, we performed a

McDonald Kreitman test (MK test) in the species *P. tetraurelia*, *P. sexaurelia*, *P.*

caudatum, and *P. multimicronucleatum*. As most of these species are highly diverged

from each other, we used ancestral reconstruction over the set of all 13 taxa to first infer

ancestral nucleotides for each internal node. The numbers of synonymous (D_S) and

nonsynonymous (D_N) changes were then inferred along each terminal branch leading to

each of the 4 species mentioned above. We tested for positive selection by determining

whether the proportion of nonsynonymous fixed differences relative to synonymous

ones was significantly larger than the proportion of nonsynonymous relative to

synonymous polymorphic differences. None of the genes in *P. tetraurelia* were found to

have undergone positive selection by this criterion (Holm−Bonferroni corrected $p \geq 0.05$

in each case). In *P. sexaurelia*, *cox1*, *Ymf76*, and *Ymf63* were found to be the only genes

that showed significant positive selection, whereas in *P. caudatum*, only *Ymf64*

exhibited positive selection (Supplementary Table 2). It should be noted that *Ymf64* has

also increased in length in *P. caudatum* and might represent an example of gain of

function. With very few SNPs available in *P. multimicronucleatum*, the MK test was not

significant for any gene. Nevertheless, we find no statistical enrichment of number of

genes evolving under positive selection among the *Ymf* vs. other genes in *P. sexaurelia*

(p = 0.56; Fisher's exact test) and *P. caudatum* (p = 0.40; Fisher's exact test),

suggesting that majority of them are likely evolving fast due to relaxed sequence

constraints.

Levels of expression of protein-coding genes in the mitochondria

At present, very little is known about the regulation of transcription and of the

posttranscriptional stability of transcripts in ciliate mitochondria. Given the organization of

Paramecium mitogenomes, with a small group of genes on the forward strand in the middle

of the chromosome separating two other large groups of genes, at least three transcriptional

units are likely to exist (BURGER *et al.* 2000), but the number could be significantly higher.

To address this issue, we examined the abundance of transcripts (generated from PolyA+-

selected RNA samples) obtained from single strains for each of *P. biaurelia*, *P. sexaurelia*,

and *P. caudatum* (see the Materials and Methods section for details). We observe very high

levels of rRNA suggesting that rRNA might be expressed separately, but in addition, we

also notice large differences between the abundances of protein-coding transcripts

(Supplementary Figure 15, 16 and 17), with the most highly expressed genes often varying

both between species and within the same species in different conditions (Supplementary

Figure 18). These observations suggest a complex transcriptional organization and/or

posttranscriptional regulation of RNA levels in ciliate mitochondria. While the available

RNA-seq data are from samples enriched for polyadenylated transcripts, and mitochondrial

transcripts in *Paramecium* may not have polyA tails, this should not have affected the

ratios of mitochondrial transcripts.

Mutation spectrum and GC-content variation within the *Paramecium* genus

Perhaps the most remarkable discontinuity in *Paramecium* mitochondrial genomes is the

difference between the high GC content observed in species of the *P. aurelia* complex (~40%)

and the low GC content in the outgroup species (~20%). Very low GC content is also observed

in mitochondrial genomes of other ciliates, for instance in the five *Tetrahymena* species

(~18-21%), in *Icthyophthirius multifiliis* (~16%) (COYNE *et al.* 2011), and in *Oxytricha*

trifallax (~24%). However, nuclear genomes have relatively similar levels of GC content across

the *Paramecium* species (MCGRATH *et al.* 2014a). The low GC content of *P. caudatum* and *P.*

multimicronucleatum mtDNA is marked by a highly biased codon usage (BARTH and

BERENDONK 2011), with most synonymous positions exhibiting a strong bias for A or T

nucleotides (Supplementary Figure 19). Indeed, the difference in GC content is most

pronounced at 4-fold degenerate sites, with the GC content at such sites being as low as

3.5% in *P. multimicronucleatum* and as high as 54.5% in *P. decaurelia* (Figure 1). The 0-

fold redundant sites in the outgroup species have much higher GC content (~26-37%) and

the GC content (31-36%) of the rRNAs is similar across the entire genus suggesting strong

selection on rRNA nucleotide content. At least three forces may be responsible for

determining the GC content at 4-fold degenerate sites: (1) mutational processes, (2) codon

usage bias, and/or (3) genome-wide selection for higher/lower GC content. We therefore

looked at GC composition in other regions of the genomes like tRNAs and intergenic regions

that do not experience selection for codon usage. Both tRNAs and intergenic regions have

elevated GC content in the *P. aurelia* species (~40-45% and ~34-37%) relative to *P. caudatum*

and *P. multimicronucleatum* (~14-22% and ~16-20%; Figure 1), suggesting that either

mutational changes or selection for GC content is primarily responsible for changes in nucleotide

composition across the genome.

To distinguish between mutation and selection, we evaluated the mutational pressures acting on

Paramecium species, using two approaches. First, we used the mitochondrial mutation spectrum

obtained from mutation-accumulation (MA) studies of *P. tetraurelia* (SUNG *et al.* 2012) to

calculate the AT mutation bias, $m = v/u$, where v is the mutation rate from G/C to A/T and u is

the rate of mutation from A/T to G/C (Table 1). We found m $\cong$ 1.0, showing little mutation bias

and corresponding to expected equilibrium GC content (SUEOKA 1993) of 51.3% (Table 1). This

is very close to the GC content of 4-fold redundant sites (54%) in *P. tetraurelia*. We also

analyzed existing sequencing data from MA experiments in *P. biaurelia* and *P.*

sexaurelia (LONG *et al.* 2018a; Supplementary Table 5). These data imply slight mutation

bias towards GC in *P. biaurelia* and *P. sexaurelia*, corresponding to expected equilibrium

GC percentages (SUEOKA 1993) of 55.8% and 67.0% respectively. Given the relatively

small number of mutations (a few tens) identified in each set of MA experiments, there is

likely to be considerable uncertainty in these estimates. Nonetheless these data do not

present evidence that 4-fold degenerate sites in *P. aurelia* mitochondria are evolving away

from mutation equilibrium via selection.

Next, derived singleton alleles at 4-fold degenerate sites were used to quantify the number of

G/C to A/T mutations relative to A/T to G/C mutations and thus infer an estimate of AT

mutation bias from population data. Again, we find that *m* is close to 1.0 (i.e. no mutation bias

towards A/T) in both *P. tetraurelia* and *P. sexaurelia*, with the predicted GC content under

mutation equilibrium being remarkably close to that of their 4-fold degenerate sites (Table 1).

These results suggest that the composition of 4-fold degenerate sites is mostly determined by

mutation. The same can also be seen by calculating the strength of selection ($S = 4N_e s$ or

$2N_e s$) favoring A/T at 4-fold degenerate sites. As S usually takes values between 0.1 and 4.0

(LYNCH 2007; LONG *et al.* 2018b) and we obtain much lower magnitudes (0.0-0.5) in the *P.*

aurelia species (Table 1), we infer negligible or weak selection at 4-fold degenerate sites,

consistent with absence of codon bias at the third position.

In contrast to the *P. aurelia* species, we infer a significant AT mutation bias in *P. caudatum*

(Table 1), and predicted GC content at equilibrium of ~17%, with the observed GC content in

intergenic and tRNA regions (16% and 20%) being remarkably close to this value. These

calculations suggest that genome-wide GC content in *P. caudatum* is mostly governed by

mutation bias, and that there has been a decrease in AT mutation bias along the branch leading to

the *P. aurelia* species.

tRNA content variation across and within species

While the number and identity of protein-coding genes is generally the same across the

genus, tRNAs display significant variation. All species in the *P. aurelia* complex have only

three tRNA loci, at highly conserved locations (Figure 2), most of the time consisting of a

Y, F, and W tRNA (the latter one recognizing the UGA stop codon that has been

reassigned in ciliate mitochondria to tryptophan). The one exception is *P. octaurelia*, in

which a T tRNA has been substituted for the Y tRNA that other species possess. In

stark contrast, mitochondrial genomes in the *P. caudatum* and *P. multimicronucleatum*

lineages contain large and highly variable sets of tRNAs (Figure 3), with as many as 38

tRNA predictions in *P. multimicronucleatum* M05, and with individual *P. caudatum* and *P.*

multimicronucleatum isolates having different tRNAs at multiple loci in their

mitogenomes. These tRNAs often overlap protein-coding genes (in contrast to what is

observed in *P. aurelia*), in particular *Ymf* genes. Of note, the three tRNAs found in the *P.*

aurelia species are also present in all outgroup species.

Recombination in the mitochondria

We performed multiple tests for the presence of recombination in the mitochondria. First, we

evaluated the relationship between linkage disequilibrium (LD), calculated by r^2 (HILL and

ROBERTSON 1968) and distance between sites; r^2 does not decrease with distance in any of the

four species, consistent with the expectation under no recombination. Next, we conducted the

four-gamete test (FGT) (HUDSON and KAPLAN 1985), which detects recombination by searching

for pairs of polymorphic sites with all four segregating haplotypes and assumes that such pairs of

sites must have arisen via recombination (under the infinite-sites model). We found all four

gametes at 2 pairs of sites (1.45×10^{-5} of all pairs) in *P. tetraurelia*, 312781 sites (2.14×10^{-2} of

all pairs) in *P. sexaurelia*, 42647 sites (1.21×10^{-2} of all pairs) in *P. caudatum*, and 0 in *P.*

multimicronucleatum. The observed variation between species correlates well with levels of total

sequence diversity and indicates the bias in power to detect recombination towards species with

more sequence variation. Although results from the FGT suggest the presence of some

recombination, the probability of finding all four gametes does not increase with the distance

between the pairs of sites, contrary to expectation under recombination, and is inconsistent with

other distance-based analyses. Violation of the infinite-sites model (i.e. recurrent mutation at the

same site) can result in the presence of pairs of sites with all four alleles. The FGT works best for

species and genomes whose recombination rate is much larger than the mutation rate, which may

not be the case in *Paramecium* mitochondria.

In order to test if the presence of four gametes was more likely to be caused by recombination or

mutation, we used LDhat (MᶜVEAN *et al.* 2002) to test for recombination and estimate $4N_er$,

using values of $4N_e\mu$ as close to empirical data as possible. Here r is the recombination rate, μ is

the mutation rate and N_e is the effective population size of the species under consideration. $4N_er$

estimated under the finite-sites mutation model (WAKELEY 1997; HUDSON 2001) was found to be

0.0 for all four species, and is consistently 0.0 in all non-overlapping windows (1000 bp)

spanning the genome. We also used permutation tests (MᶜVEAN *et al.* 2002) to detect

recombination. The idea behind these tests is that in the absence of recombination the relative

position of SNPs would not change inferred values of statistics used to measure recombination.

Thus, under absence of recombination, statistics like sum-of-distance between sites with all four

gametes (G4) (MEUNIER and EYRE-WALKER 2001), and correlation between r^2 or D' and

physical distance, would not be significantly different from an expectation obtained by randomly

shuffling SNPs and computing these statistics. We find no statistical significance for the

presence of recombination using permutation tests and thus conclude that there is no

recombination in *Paramecium* mitochondria.

Efficacy of selection in the mitochondria vs. nucleus

Finally, we asked if genes in the mitochondria compared to the nucleus, experienced

weaker purifying selection, as would be expected due to smaller effective population

size and the lack of recombination in the mitochondria. We did so by evaluating the

strength of selection in each of the two genomes using multiple statistics. The average

value of d_N/d_S over the mitochondrial phylogeny is 0.05 (SD = 0.05; median = 0.03),

while that over the nuclear phylogeny, comprising of the same taxa is 0.05 (SD = 0.04;

median = 0.04). The distributions of these d_N/d_S values are not significantly different (p

= 0.54, Student's t-test), suggesting that the average amount of purifying selection

experienced by genes in the nucleus is not significantly different from that experienced

by those in the mitochondria. We also observe no significant difference when

performing this comparison only examining genes encoding proteins that are part of the

oxidative phosphorylation pathway (mitochondrial: 0.02, nuclear: 0.03, p=0.28) or only

those that encode ribosomal subunits (mitochondrial: 0.05, nuclear: 0.04, p=0.74).

Using π_n/π_s as a proxy for recent purifying selection, we find that the distribution of

π_n/π_s of mitochondrial (mt) and nuclear genes (nuc) is not significantly different in *P.*

tetraurelia (mean mt = 0.174; mean nuc = 0.198; p = 0.56) and *P. caudatum* (mean mt =

0.135; mean nuc = 0.170; p = 0.22) respectively. However, mean π_n/π_s in the

mitochondrial genes is significantly lower than that of nuclear genes in *P. sexaurelia*

(mean mt = 0.051; mean nuc = 0.268; $p < 2.2 \times 10^{-16}$) and *P. multimicronucleatum* (mean

mt = 0.099; mean nuc = 0.178; p = 1.87 × 10^{-3}) respectively, suggesting that

mitochondrial genes might be under similar or stronger purifying selection than nuclear

genes.

Next, we calculated the neutrality index (NI = $(P_n / P_s) / (D_n / D_s)$; P_n and P_s: number of

nonsynonymous and synonymous polymorphisms respectively; D_n and D_s: number of

nonsynonymous and synonymous fixed differences respectively) of each gene in the

mitochondrion and nucleus for *P. tetraurelia*, *P. sexaurelia*, and *P. caudatum*. The

number of branch-specific substitutions at synonymous (D_s) and nonsynonymous (D_n)

sites was calculated by ancestral reconstruction. Comparing the distributions of values

of NI in the mitochondrion and nucleus shows that overall there is no significant

difference between the two means (whether we include or exclude *Ymf* genes) in *P.*

tetraurelia and *P. caudatum* (Table 2). Consistent with the above, distributions of NI

values in *P. sexaurelia* are significantly different between the nucleus and

mitochondrion. We note that the absolute values of NIs seem to indicate pervasive

positive selection in both the nucleus and the mitochondrion. However, underestimation

of the number of synonymous changes (*Ds*) can result in lower NI, mimicking positive

selection. We therefore also calculated neutrality index as $(\pi_n/\pi_s)/(d_N/d_S)$ (BETANCOURT

et al. 2012; denoted by NIπ below) for each gene with d_N/d_S obtained from pairwise

comparison with respect to the closest species. As a close outgroup species was

required, this analysis was restricted to *P. tetraurelia* and *P. sexaurelia*. Again,

consistent with all analyses above, there is no difference between the mean NI_π value in

the mitochondrion and nucleus in *P. tetraurelia*, but mean NI_π is significantly higher in

the nucleus than the mitochondrion in *P. sexaurelia* (Table 2). This suggests that there

are more deleterious variants segregating in the nucleus than in the mitochondrion in *P.*

sexaurelia; these results do not change upon excluding the *Ymf* genes. Together, these

results suggest species-specific differences in the relative strength of purifying selection

between the mitochondrion and nucleus. Overall, mitochondria appear to experience

either similar or stronger efficacy of purifying selection than the nucleus.

A major caveat of comparing neutrality indices between all genes present in the

mitochondria vs. nucleus, is that we might be measuring differences is strength rather

than efficacy of purifying selection. In order to correct for that, we compared nuclear

genes with similar functions to those in the mitochondria. We thus performed all

analyses noted above in a restricted set of nuclear genes. We compared the 14

mitochondrial genes with ~13-27 nuclear genes involved in the oxidative

phosphorylation pathway, as well as the 8 ribosomal genes in the mitochondria with

~77-430 nuclear genes that encode for structural components of the ribosomes.

Although we fail to get significant p values, as the sample sizes are very small, we

continue to observe similar trends as described above for all genes (Supplementary

Table 3).

As an aside, we tried to reduce the bias caused by saturation of DS by re-calculating NI

only in the mitochondrion: (i) using all 13 taxa (in order to break up longer branches),

(ii) restricting the analysis to the set of genes that have pairwise $d_S < 1.0$ (from their

closest outgroup), (iii) estimating different variations of neutrality indices (see Methods)

in order to reduce various statistical biases (GREENLAND 1982a; STOLETZKI and EYRE-

WALKER 2011). We continued to recover extremely low values of NIs (Supplementary

Table 4) and failed to obtain values close to NI$_n$, suggesting that the absolute values of

NI can be misleading and have to be interpreted with caution.

DISCUSSION

Ciliate-specific mitochondrial genes

Paramecium mitochondrial genomes possess 16 lineage-specific open-reading frames (referred

to as *Ymf* genes) that have no known homologs in non-ciliate species and lack assigned

functions, but are nonetheless conserved across *Paramecium* and *Tetrahymena* species. Other

ciliates like *Oxytricha* have also been found to have unidentified open-reading frames (SWART *et*

al. 2012), but not all *Ymf* genes have homologs identified in ciliates outside of

Oligohymenophora (which contains both *Tetrahymena* and *Paramecium*). We find that *Ymf*

genes are evolving faster, mostly under relaxed purifying selection, and compared to other genes

are also more likely to undergo positive selection. Shedding light on the identity of the *Ymf* genes

could possibly indicate entirely new set of genes present in the ancestor of *Oligohymenophora*

mitochondria.

We found that parts of five of the 16 *Ymf* genes show homology to standard mitochondrial

proteins, especially ribosomal proteins. As ciliates are far from most model organisms in the

eukaryotic tree, it is very likely that some *Ymf* genes are ribosomal subunits or genes belonging

to the NADH complex and are simply not identifiable because of extreme divergence. Similar

findings are reported across protist and other mitochondrial genomes (e.g. DE GRAAF *et al.* 2009;

POMBERT *et al.* 2013; BURGER *et al.* 2016; SKIPPINGTON *et al.* 2017) that have diverged

substantially from the most well-studied mammalian mitochondrial genomes. In some species,

RNA editing (including insertions and deletions) can be substantial (GRAY 2003), which can

mask the identification of the proteins encoded, especially when mostly sequence analyses are

performed. RNA editing, however, has been reported to not occur in *P. tetraurelia* mitochondria

(ORR *et al.* 1997) and is therefore unlikely to be the primary cause of observed divergence. In

Tetrahymena thermophila, the ATP synthase forms an unusual structure and possesses

completely novel subunits whose orthologs are not identifiable in other organisms

(BALABASKARAN NINA *et al.* 2010). It is therefore possible that, through some combination of

the above phenomena, ciliates possess structurally unique proteins that perform similar functions

in the mitochondria, but are difficult to identify based on other known sequences. Although the

origin of these genes is unclear, it is intriguing that a set of such fast evolving genes is preserved

across highly diverged species.

Curiously, we find a previously unidentified ORF at the 5′ end of all *Paramecium*

mitogenomes, which displays homology to Cas6 found widely in bacteria and archaea

(HAFT *et al.* 2005). This could potentially represent a case of horizontal gene transfer from

the endosymbiotic bacteria (PREER 1969; FOKIN and GORTZ 2009) living in *Paramecium*.

Sequencing of more unicellular eukaryotic mitochondrial genomes would provide insight

into the origin of this ORF.

Change in mutation spectrum and nucleotide composition

We used a combination of previous mutation-accumulation studies and our population genomic

data to suggest that the change in nucleotide composition of *P. aurelia* mitochondrial genomes

toward higher GC is a result of change in mutational bias. Unfortunately, due to our modest

sample sizes, some of the singleton SNPs in our analysis are present at fairly high frequencies in

the population and thus might be influenced by selection. Mutation-accumulation lines in *P.*

caudatum would help further disentangle these forces. Because ciliates have very low mutation

rates, their mutation-accumulation study requires a large number of generations to produce only

a handful of mutations, making it very difficult to obtain precise estimates of the mutation

spectrum. The most feasible strategy to more precisely estimate these spectra in *Paramecium*

would thus be to produce larger population samples in order to observe lower-frequency variants.

We also note that although an alternative explanation for higher GC content in the *P. aurelia*

species could be biased gene conversion, we found no evidence of mitochondrial recombination

(including non-crossovers) in the *P. aurelia* species.

An interesting question raised by our results is how fast the mutation spectrum in mitochondria

evolves across species (LYNCH *et al.* 2008; MONTOOTH and RAND 2008). Re-analyzing data from

previous work on mutation-accumulation lines in mitochondria of other model organisms

presents a number of interesting observations (Table 1). First, within opisthokonts, there is a

huge variation in mutation bias (m) in the mitochondria, ranging from nearly 0 (strongly biased

towards GC) to values much larger than 1 (biased towards AT; Table 1). However, most species

except *S. cerevisiae* have a mutation bias towards A/T, consistent with most mitochondrial

genomes being AT-rich. Second, across opisthokonts, we find that selection can have a

significant impact on mitochondrial GC content. The effect of selection (S) can be observed by

comparing observed genome-wide nucleotide composition (or specifically at 4-fold degenerate

sites) with the expected composition under mutation equilibrium (Table 1). Again, in most

species selection favors higher G/C, but in *S. cerevisiae* there appears to be strong selection

favoring A/T genome-wide. Thus there might not be a universal direction for mutation bias or

selection for nucleotide composition in mitochondria. Finally, closely related species can have

significant changes in mutation bias in the mitochondria (HOWE *et al.* 2010; KONRAD *et al.* 2017)

as observed between *C. elegans* and *C. briggsae*. All of these observations suggest that it is

biologically reasonable that there have been changes in mutational biases towards AT along the

long branch leading to the *P. aurelia* species.

It has been observed that higher AT content in mitochondrial genomes is usually accompanied

by the presence of more tRNA genes (SMITH 2012). This correlation holds in ciliates as well,

where the *P. aurelia* species with higher GC content only possess 3 tRNA genes relative to other

Paramecium species that possess many more tRNA genes. Although we have shown that

there have been multiple gains and losses of tRNA genes in *Paramecium* species, the

source of these new tRNA genes is not evident. It may be possible for new tRNA gene

copies to be transferred from the nucleus to the mitochondrial genome. Phylogenetic

analyses and mito-nuclear comparisons may illuminate the mutational and selective

forces driving mitochondrial tRNA gain and loss.

Similar efficacy of purifying selection experienced by the mitochondria and nucleus

Mitochondrial genomes are often non-recombining and are usually passed on via

uniparental inheritance. Mitochondria are therefore expected to have lower effective

population sizes than that of the nucleus within the same organism (LYNCH and

BLANCHARD 1998; NEIMAN and TAYLOR 2009). One consequence of reduced effective

population sizes is an increased probability of segregation and even fixation of slightly

deleterious mutations. There have been multiple contradictory reports on whether

mitochondrial genes experience stronger or weaker purifying selection than the nuclear

genes. Studies examining a few protein-coding loci but with larger number of species

have concluded that mitochondria experience less effective purifying selection than the

nucleus (WEINREICH and RAND 2000; BETANCOURT *et al.* 2012; POPADIN *et al.* 2013).

However a recent study conducted on multiple individuals and whole genomes in

Drosophila melanogaster and humans found no significant difference between the

efficacy of purifying selection in the mitochondrial vs. nuclear protein-coding genes

(COOPER *et al.* 2015).

We confirm the absence of recombination in *Paramecium* mitochondria, which was

previously hinted at, but restricted to a study of a single gene, cytochrome b (BARTH *et*

al. 2008). We also evaluated the extent of purifying selection in ciliate mitochondria

relative to the nucleus for 4 species: *P. tetraurelia*, *P. sexaurelia*, *P. caudatum*, and *P.*

multimicronucleatum. We find that despite the lack of recombination in the

mitochondria, the efficacy of selection is either similar to or stronger in the

mitochondria relative to the nucleus.

Although our results seem to be in discordance with theoretical predictions, they are not

necessarily surprising. One possibility is that heteroplasmy and bottlenecks during

transmission of mitochondria can result in proliferation of a random subset of

deleterious mutations, which then get exposed to cell-level selection (STEWART *et al.*

2008; WAI *et al.* 2008; STEWART and LARSSON 2014), eventually leading to stronger

purifying selection observed. Another possibility is that we observe stronger efficacy of

selection in the mitochondria because the magnitude of negative selection itself is

stronger in the mitochondrial genes (POPADIN *et al.* 2013), because they differ from the

average nuclear gene in several key ways. Most mitochondrial genes are expressed at

high levels compared to the nucleus (HAVIRD and SLOAN 2016). Mitochondrial encoded

proteins (cox1 and cox2) that are part of the oxidative phosphorylation (OXPHOS)

pathway are core enzyme catalytic subunits (TSUKIHARA *et al.* 1996; ZHANG and

BROUGHTON 2013; HAVIRD and SLOAN 2016). And, most genes retained in the

mitochondria encode for highly hydrophobic proteins and high GC content (JOHNSTON

and WILLIAMS 2016). In order to test theoretical predictions successfully, we stress the

importance of comparing equivalent sets of genes—finding comparable sets of genes

between these two genomes may be difficult (but see LYNCH 1996; LYNCH 1997).

Although we made efforts on this front, by also conducting all analyses with nuclear

genes involved in the same pathway as the mitochondrial genes, most of the caveats

638 described above continue to affect our results.

640 Lastly, our results need to be evaluated in the light of *Paramecium*-specific life cycle. In

641 *Paramecium*, there is cytoplasmic inheritance during conjugation (KOIZUMI and

642 KOBAYASHI 1989) and there is almost no exchange of cytoplasm during conjugation

643 (reviewed in MEYER and GARNIER 2002). Thus it appears that both parents pass on their

644 mitochondria to their offspring, without the degradation of mitochondrial genomes from

645 any one lineage. On the other hand *Paramecium* species frequently undergo asexual

646 reproduction, thus reducing the nuclear effective population size. Therefore, effective

647 population sizes of mitochondria might only be slightly lower or perhaps similar to that

648 of the nucleus. Due to asexual reproduction, under equilibrium conditions, expected

649 heterozygosity in the nucleus would fall between $4N_e\mu$ - $2N_e\mu$. Similarly in the

650 mitochondria, under equilibrium conditions, expected hetrozygosity would be $\sim 2N_e\mu$.

651 Assuming that the ratio of divergence at silent sites can be used as a proxy for the ratio

652 of mutation rate between the two compartments, it is possible to approximately estimate

653 the ratio of effective population sizes of the two compartments as $N_{e(m)}/N_{e(n)} = y \times$

654 $(\pi_m/\pi_n)/(d_m/d_n)$, where y would be some number between 1 and 2. For both *P.*

655 *tetraurelia* and *P. sexaurelia*, for which we have relatively closer outgroup species,

656 $N_{e(m)}/N_{e(n)}$ turns out to be between 0.94-1.88 and 6.58-13.16 respectively. Although

657 underestimation of neutral divergence in the mitochondria relative to the nucleus could

658 skew our inference, the above calculations suggest that perhaps effective population

659 sizes of mitochondria are larger than that of the nucleus in *Paramecium*.

We therefore conclude, that our results might continue to be consistent with theoretical

predictions. Unicellular eukaryotes, like *Paramecium* with their unique life cycle, might

represent a case where the effective population size of the mitochondria is much larger

than that of the corresponding nucleus and concordantly we observe stronger purifying

selection in the mitochondria relative to the nucleus.

METHODS:

Genome sequencing and assembly

DNA extraction, sequencing library preparation and genome sequencing were previously

described (Johri et al. 2017). Sequencing reads were assembled using SPAdes (BANKEVICH *et al.*

2012; version 3.5.0) after removing potential adapter sequence with Trimmomatic (BOLGER *et al.*

2014; version 0.33). Mitochondrial contigs were identified from the resulting assemblies by

BLAST (ALTSCHUL *et al.* 1997) searches against the published *P. caudatum* and *P. tetraurelia*

mitochondrial genomes.

Mitochondrial genome annotation

Genome annotation was carried out as follows. Protein coding genes were identified by

generating all ORFs longer than 60aa in all six frames, using the Mold, Protozoan, and

Coelenterate Mitochondrial Code (i.e., UGA codes for W instead of being a stop codon) and all

alternative start codons specific to *Paramecium* (AUU, AUA, AUG, AUC, GUG, and GUA),

and retaining the longest ORFs associated with each stop codon. BLASTP was then used to

identify homologs of annotated mitochondrial proteins in *P. tetraurelia* and *P. caudatum*.

Additional ORFs were identified by imposing the requirement that their length exceeds 100aa,

and subsequently annotated using BLASTP against the Non-redundant protein sequences (nr)

database and HMMER3.0 (EDDY 2011) scans against the PFAM 27.0 database (FINN *et al.*

2014). tRNA genes were annotated with tRNAscan-SE (SCHATTNER *et al.* 2005; version 1.21),

using the "Mito/Chloroplast" source. rRNA genes were identified using Infernal (NAWROCKI

et al. 2009; version 1.1.1).

Identification of telomeres

Telomeric repeats were identified as follows. The first and the last 200bp of each mitogenome

were used as input to the MEME *de novo* motif finding program (BAILEY *et al.* 2009; version

4.6.1), which was run with the following parameters: "*-maxw 25 -dna -nmotifs 5 -mod anr*". The

repetitive units defined that way were then manually aligned to each other and refined to arrive at

final telomeric repeats comparable across all species.

Expression level in mitochondria

For each species, sequencing reads were aligned against a combined Bowtie (LANGMEAD *et al.*

2009) index containing both the nuclear and mitochondrial genomes using TopHat2 (KIM *et al.*

2013; version 2.0.8) with the following settings: "*--bowtie1 --no-discordant --no-mixed --*

microexon-search --read-realign-edit-dist 0 --read-edit-dist 4 --read-mismatches 4 --min-intron-

length 10 --max-intron-length 1000000 --min-segment-intron 10 --min-coverage-intron 10".

Custom python scripts were then used to generate normalized coverage tracks over the

mitogenomes.

Estimation of *dN/dS*, D_n, D_s, P_n, P_s, and π_n/π_s

dN/dS was estimated either across the phylogeny using CODEML, PAML (YANG 2007;

version 4.9a) and for the *P. aurelia* species it was also estimated pairwise w.r.t the

closest outgroup species using yn00, PAML. π_n/π_s was obtained for all protein coding

genes in the 4 species- *P. tetraurelia*, *P. sexaurelia*, *P. caudatum*, and *P.*

multimicronucleatum, where total number of changes in synonymous sites was greater

than 1. This filter was executed in order to reduce errors in π_n/π_s due to very low values

of synonymous polymorphisms in a gene.

D_n and D_s, the number of nonsynonymous and synonymous changes, were inferred by

performing ancestral reconstruction at each site, and then counting branching-specific

substitutions. Ancestral reconstruction (PAML, baseml, GTR model) was conducted

over the phylogeny of all available taxa. For comparing statistics between mitochondrial

and nuclear genes, the ancestral reconstruction was performed over the same set of taxa

for both, i.e. over *P. tetraurelia*, *P. sexaurelia*, *P. caudatum*, and *P.*

multimicronucleatum. For all analyses that involved ancestral reconstruction, only sites

whose posterior probability of the inferred ancestral state $\geq$ 0.85 were used in the

analyses—this filter was imposed for counting synonymous and nonsynonymous

polymorphisms (P_s and P_n, respectively) as well as divergent sites (D_n and D_s). There

may be some concern that ancestral reconstruction could end up biasing the ratio of

D_n/D_s as many more changes at synonymous sites might result in lower confidence in

inferring ancestral states at synonymous but not nonsynonymous sites. Such a bias

would increase D_n relative to D_s and thus decrease values of NI. Therefore, all analyses

involving D_n and D_s were also performed including all sites, with no filter, and results

remained unchanged.

Calculation of multiple estimators of Neutrality Index (NI) and statistical tests

Several estimators of neutrality index have been proposed in order to counter different biases.

The estimators we used were calculated as follows:

Simple neutrality index, $NI = P_n/P_s/D_n/D_s$ (RAND and KANN 1996).

$NI_\pi = \pi_n/\pi_s/d_N/d_S$, where d_N/d_S was calculated pairwise, w.r.t closest outgroup species

(BETANCOURT *et al.* 2012).

$NI_{TG} = \Sigma_i[D_{si}.P_{ni}/(P_{si} + D_{si})] / \Sigma_i [P_{si}.D_{ni}/(P_{si} + D_{si})]$, where i is the ith gene (TARONE 1981;

GREENLAND 1982b).

$NI_{DoS} = D_n/(D_n+D_s) - P_n/(P_n+P_s)$ (STOLETZKI and EYRE-WALKER 2011).

For McDonald Kreitman test (MCDONALD and KREITMAN 1991), Fisher's exact test in R (R-

CORE-TEAM 2014) was used to test significance. In all cases p value was corrected by

Bonferonni-Holm method (HOLM 1979) for multiple tests, using R.

Mutation spectrum from mutation accumulation lines

MA line experiments for *P. tetraurelia* had previously been published (SUNG *et al.* 2012) and

results from their analysis were used directly in this study.

MA experiments to obtain nuclear mutation rates in *P. biaurelia* and *P. sexaurelia* are currently

unpublished (LONG *et al.* 2018a). Data from their analysis were used to obtain mitochondrial

mutations as follows:

Sequencing reads were assembled for each MA line individually and mitochondrial contigs

identified as described above. A composite consensus mitogenome sequence was then created

from the individual assemblies by creating multiple sequence alignments of all mitochondrial

contigs using MAFFT (KATOH and STANDLEY 2013; version 7.221) and retaining the most

frequent base for each alignment column (with the exception of telomeres, which were

manually curated). Reads were then aligned in a 2×100bp format against a combined Bowtie

index, containing a combination of the nuclear and consensus mitochondrial genomes, allowing

for up to 3 mismatches and retaining only unique reads. Putative mutations were identified by

requiring that any variant is supported by at least 3 non-redundant read pairs on each strand, by

not more than 4 times more reads on one strand than on the other, and is also observed in ≥5%

of reads covering a given position were included. Telomeric sequences were excluded due to an

excessively high number of sequence variants observed in those regions. Mutation rate of A/T

→ G/C (*u*) and G/C → A/T (*v*) mutations was calculated as follows:

u = (number of A/T → G/C mutations) / (total number of utilizable A/T sites)

v = (number of G/C → A/T mutations) / (total number of utilizable G/C sites)

Mutation spectrum from population genomics data

For each SNP, the ancestral allele was inferred by performing ancestral reconstruction on the

13-taxa phylogeny to predict the nucleotides on internal nodes (see above). The ancestral allele

was used to infer the derived allele segregating in *P. tetraurelia*, *P. sexaurelia*, *P. caudatum* and

P. multimicronucleatum. This analysis was restricted to sites where the ancestral nucleotide was

inferred with confidence score >= 0.90, where the derived allele was present in only a single

individual, i.e. was a singleton, and was at 4-fold degenerate site. Of these, we counted all

mutations that were from G/C to A/T or from A/T to G/C, with respect to the total number of

utilizable sites that were counted according to the same criteria as above. Care was also taken to

remove all sites that were part of overlapping ORFs.

Recombination analyses

All analyses to detect recombination were restricted to SNPs that were biallelic, homozygous,

and had a known ancestral state. The statistic (r^2) to measure linkage disequilibrium was

calculated as $r^2 = (f_{Aa} - f_A \times f_a)^2 / [f_A \times f_a \times (1 - f_A) \times (1 - f_a)]$. The program "pairwise" in LDhat 2.2

(MCVEAN *et al.* 2002) was used to infer recombination rates using the permuted composite

likelihood test as well other permutation tests. These tests were performed under both the gene

conversion (average tract length: 500) and cross-over models with 2 values of θ (= $4N_e\mu$) for

each species: the closest allowed θ value lower than that estimated from nucleotide diversity

values, and the closest higher value.

Identifying nuclear genes belonging to Oxidative Phosphorylation pathway and Ribosomal

complex

KEGG (KANEHISA *et al.* 2017) was used to obtain the full list of genes that are part of complexes

involved in Oxidative Phosphorylation (Complexes I-V) for *P. tetraurelia*. A total number of 87

genes in *P. tetraurelia* were obtained, and their corresponding orthologs were identified in other

species. For genes encoding proteins that are part of the ribosomal complex, we used the

PANTHER (Mɪ *et al.* 2017) annotation obtained in a previous study (Mᴄɢʀᴀᴛʜ *et al.* 2014b) for

all species and selected all genes that were structural constituents of ribosome. This allowed us to

start with a set of 585 genes in *P. tetraurelia*, 564 in *P. sexaurelia*, and 213 genes in *P.*

caudatum. However, analyses requiring orthologs from all 3 species were conducted with a

smaller subset of genes.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS:

We thank Jean-Francois Gout to provide us with DNA sequences, as well as for a critical reading

of the manuscript. We thank Hongan Long for providing us with sequences from *P. biaurelia*

and *P. sexaurelia* nuclear mutation-accumulation experiments. We also thank Jeff Palmer for

constructive ideas and discussions about the project. This work was financially supported

by the National Science Foundation (MCB-1050161 and DEB-1257806).

DATA AVAILABILITY:

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815 Mitochondrial genome assemblies will be made publicly available upon acceptance of the

816 manuscript. Supplementary material is available at FigShare.

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FIGURES and TABLES

		Fraction of GC nucleotides			
	assembly size (bp)	Total	4-fold	Inter-genic	tRNA
P. caudatum	43,660	0.22	0.07	0.16	0.22
P. caudatum CO26	44,413	0.22	0.05	0.16	0.20
P. multimicronucleatum	39,192*	0.20	0.04	0.20	0.14
P. multimicronucleatum Peniche3I	39,530*	0.20	0.04	0.17	0.16
P. sexaurelia	39,970	0.39	0.47	0.37	0.44
P. jenningsi	40,261	0.41	0.50	0.34	0.44
P. tetraurelia	40,469	0.41	0.54	0.35	0.45
P. octaurelia	39,983	0.40	0.51	0.37	0.43
P. decaurelia	42,742	0.41	0.55	0.37	0.44
P. dodecaurelia	40,335	0.41	0.54	0.37	0.43
P. biaurelia	39,870	0.40	0.51	0.35	0.40
P. novaurelia	59,002**	0.35	0.50	0.27	0.25
P. quadecaurelia	41,844	0.41	0.47	0.42	0.44

● loss of rpS19

Figure 1: Mitochondrial phylogeny and change in nucleotide composition across *Paramecium* species. The species in green belong to the *P. aurelia* complex. Numbers on branches indicate total number of substitutions per site. Black solid circles show the inferred event of loss of the ribosomal protein *rpS19*. The numbers on the right show the total assembly size (in bp) and mean GC content of the whole mitochondrial genome (Total), at 4-fold degenerate sites, at intergenic regions, and of tRNAs respectively. Starred (*) numbers indicate incomplete assembly of mitochondrial genomes.

Figure 2: Structure of mitochondrial genomes in *Paramecium*. All *Paramecium* mitochondrial genomes are linear with 24 protein-coding genes (shown in reddish orange), 2 rRNA genes (yellow), lineage-specific genes referred to as *Ymf* genes (in green) and varying numbers and content of tRNA genes (shown in light blue).

AA	Anticodon	*Tetrahymena* species	*P. multimicronucleatum* (reference)	*P. multimicronucleatum* (strain: M05)	*P. multimicronucleatum* (strain: M13)	*P. multimicronucleatum-Peniche3I*	*P. caudatum* (reference)	*P. caudatum* (strain: C065)	*P. caudatum* (strain: C083)	*P. caudatum-C026*	*Paramecium aurelia* species
C	GCA				1	1					
E	TTC	1	1			1	1				
F	AAA		3	2	3	2	1	1	3	3	
F	GAA	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
I	AAT				1					1	
I	GAT		2	3							
I	TAT		2	1		1	1		1	1	
K	TTT		4	11	6	5	4	4	2	2	
H	GTG	1									
L	CAA		2	2	1						
L	TAA	2	5	4	4	3	3	3	3	3	
L	TAG				1	1					
Met	CAT	1									
N	ATT					1					
N	GTT				1	1					
Q	TTC		1	1				1			
R	TCT		2	3	1	2					
S	AGA								1		
S	TGA						1	1			
W (SeC)	TCA	1	1	1	2	2	1	1	1	1	1
Sup	CTA		1	1	1		1	1			
Sup	TTA		4	3		6	2	2	2	1	
T	AGT		1	1	1						
T	GTA										
T	TGT		1	2	1					1	
Undet	Undet					1				1	
V	AAC					1	1	2	1	1	
V	TAC		1			1			1		
Y	ATA		1	1		1				1	
Y	GTA	1	1	1	1	1	2	1	1	1	1

Figure 3: tRNA content variation in *P. caudatum* and *P. multimicronucleatum* strains. tRNAs shaded in grey are present in all *Paramecium* and *Tetrahymena* species. tRNAs whose anticodons were ambiguous are displayed as "Undet".

Table 1: Mutation bias towards AT (m) in the mitochondrial genomes of *Paramecium* and other species, where v and u are mutation rates from G/C to A/T, and A/T to G/C respectively. Values of m less than 1 indicate that mutation spectrum is biased towards G/C. $S = 4N_es$ (or $2N_es$) for diploids (or haploids) represents the strength of selection favoring A/T composition, where negative values of S represent selection favoring G/C. S is calculated using the Bulmer equation, $P_{AT} = 1/(1 + me^{-S})$, where P_{AT} is the fraction of AT nucleotides.

Species	Type of study	Total number of base-substitution mutations or SNPs	AT mutation bias ($m = v/u$)	Expected equilibrium GC content [1/(1+m)]	Whole-genome GC content	4-fold site GC content	S (avg)	S (4-fold)
P. tetraurelia[1]	MA	Not known	0.88	0.53	0.42	0.54	0.197	-0.013
P. tetraurelia	population	37	0.95	0.51	0.42	0.54	0.163	-0.047
P. biaurelia	MA	55	0.79	0.56	0.40	0.51	0.278	0.085
P. sexaurelia	MA	87	0.49	0.67	0.39	0.47	0.504	0.368
P. sexaurelia	population	112	1.56	0.39	0.39	0.47	0.000	-0.137
P. caudatum	population	96	5.02	0.17	0.22	0.07	-0.151	0.397
Other species from previous studies:								
S. cerevisiae[2]	MA	13	0.00	1.00	0.17	0.08	>> 0	>> 0
Caenorhabditis elegans[3,4]	MA	25	3.79	0.21	0.24	0.14	-0.073	0.224
Daphnia pulex[5]	MA	6	2.48	0.29	0.38	0.30	-0.182	-0.026
Caenorhabditis briggsae[6]	MA	15	18.10	0.05	0.25	0.14	-0.780	-0.451
Drosophila melanogaster[7]	MA	28	381.25	0.00	0.18	0.06	-1.923	-1.386

1: Sung et al., 2012; **2**: Lynch et al., 2008; **3**: Denver et al., 2000; **4**: Konrad et al., 2017; **5:** Xu et al., 2012; **6:** Howe et al., 2010; **7:** Haag-Liautard et al., 2008

Table 2: Neutrality index (NI) of mitochondrial and nuclear genes, calculated using multiple statistics. All *p* values represent comparisons between nuclear and mitochondrial NIs within the same species. Statistically significant scores (p < 0.05) are underlined.

	P. tetraurelia	*P. sexaurelia*	*P. caudatum*
NI [$(P_N/P_S)/(D_N/D_S)$]			
nuclear	2.145	0.810	0.314
mitochondrial	1.528	0.351	0.324
mitochondrial excluding Ymf	1.855	0.430	0.281
p	0.272	0.005	0.141
p (excluding Ymf)	0.817	0.007	0.047
NI DoS [$(D_N/(D_N + D_S)) - (P_N/(P_N + P_S))$]			
nuclear	-0.041	0.125	0.286
mitochondrial	0.026	0.268	0.373
mitochondrial excluding Ymf	0.024	0.229	0.428
p	0.272	0.001	0.260
p (excluding Ymf)	0.738	0.272	0.094
NIπ [$(\pi_N/\pi_S)/(d_N/d_S)$]			
nuclear	4.018	4.639	-
mitochondrial	2.294	2.353	-
mitochondrial excluding Ymf	2.495	3.419	-
p	0.124	3.52×10^{-10}	-
p (excluding Ymf)	0.537	2.89×10^{-5}	-