Extensive horizontal exchange of transposable elements in the *Drosophila pseudoobscura* group

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Abstract

While the horizontal transfer of a parasitic element can be a potentially catastrophic, it is increasingly recognized as a common occurrence. The horizontal exchange, or lack of exchange, of TE content between species results in different levels of divergence among a species group in the mobile component of their genomes. Here, we examine differences in the TE content of the *Drosophila pseudoobscura* species group. We identify several putative horizontal transfer events, and examine the role that horizontal transfer plays in the spread of TE families to new species and the homogenization of TE content in these species. Despite rampant exchange of TE families between species, we find that both TE content differs hugely across the group, likely due to differing activity of each TE family and differing suppression of TEs due to divergence in Y chromosome size, and its resulting effects of TE regulation. Overall, we show that TE content is highly dynamic in this species group, and that it plays a large role in shaping the differences seen between species.

Data availability

All data used in this study (summarized in table S1) is freely available online through the NCBI short read archive (NCBI SRA: ERR127385, SRR330416, SRR330418, SRR1925723, SRR330426, SRR330420, SRR330423, SRR617430-74). All genomes used are either available through Flybase.org or Popoolation.at.

Introduction

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Unlike mammals, which have few active transposable elements (TEs) mostly fixed

insertions within species (Hellen and Brookfield 2013a; b), transposable elements (TEs)

in *Drosophila* species appear to be highly active, as inferred from a high proportion of

polymorphic, and thus presumably recent, insertions (Charlesworth and Langley 1989;

Sniegowski and Charlesworth 1994; Charlesworth *et al.* 1997; González *et al.* 2008;

Petrov *et al.* 2011). The dynamic nature of TEs in *Drosophila* is reflected in the data

from the 12-genomes project (Clark *et al.* 2007). While species in the genus all host

LTR, non-LTR retrotransposons and TIR DNA transposons in roughly the same rank

order of abundance (Sessegolo *et al.* 2016), the contribution of each appears to differ

for different genomes. The proportion of total TE content that is non-LTRs, for example,

ranges from ~12% to ~35% (Clark *et al.* 2007; Sessegolo *et al.* 2016).

Under a model of TE evolution where active transposition is followed by

suppression and eventually, inactive decayed elements, one might expect that the

active families of elements would differ between the species (Kaplan *et al.* 1985;

Maruyama and Hartl 1991; Capy *et al.* 1992; Lohe *et al.* 1995; Hartl *et al.* 1997).

Instead, the overall content is largely similar (Vieira *et al.* 1999; Lerat *et al.* 2011; Kofler

et al. 2015b), with many of the same TE insertions found at low frequencies in both

species (Kofler *et al.* 2015b). The reason might be that the overall TE content between

species be regularly homogenized by horizontal exchange between the species

(Bartolomé *et al.* 2009). This process is exemplified by the recent horizontal transfer of

the P-element, newly acquired by *D. melanogaster* sometime in the 20th century from a

Caribbean species, into *D. simulans* (Kofler *et al.* 2015a; Hill *et al.* 2016).

Here, we investigate these questions in a different *Drosophila* group, the

pseudoobscura group, using publicly available genome sequences for five species, and

an improved genome sequence from *D. pseudoobscura* (Richards *et al.* 2005), and

several sequenced third chromosome isolates (Fuller *et al.* 2016). Unlike *D. simulans*

and *D. melanogaster*, these species are not cosmopolitan and thus may have had less

opportunity to encounter new transposable elements outside their ancestral range.

Further, in contrast to most Drosophila, some species in this group were reported to

have mostly fixed insertions; we re-examine this claim with new data. We also examine

horizontal exchange between species within the group and from outside the group, and

find abundant evidence of recurrent horizontal exchange.

Materials and Methods

Sequence data

All sequence data used is summarized in Table S1. We used publicly available

reference genomes for five species: *D. pseudoobscura* (NCBI: PRJNA18793)*, D.*

persimilis (NCBI: PRJNA29989 genome assembled from Sanger sequence reads,

http://popoolation.at/persimilis_genome/ for the genome based on illumina reads)*, D.*

affinis (NCBI: ERX103526), *D. lowei* (http://popoolation.at/lowei_genome/; Palmieri et

al. 2014), *D. miranda* (NCBI: PRJNA77213) and *D. affinis*

(http://popoolation.at/affinis_genome/)*.* We also used publicly available paired-end

illumina data from inbred lines for four of these species [*D. persimilis* (SRA:

SRR330426), *D. miranda* (SRA: SRR1925723), *D. lowei* (SRA: SRR330416 and

SRR330418) and *D. affinis* (ENA: ERR127385)]. As we were unable to find publicly

available paired-end illumina data for *D. pseudoobscura*, we used a data generated

from an individual wild *D. pseudoobscura* made homozygous for the reference third

chromosome inversion type (SRA: SRR617430, S. Schaeffer, pers. Comm.; Fuller et al.

2016). As a result, only the third chromosome represents a wild chromosome, the rest

of the genome is a mosaic of material from the wild and from the two different balancer

stocks used, due to this we limited any population statistical analysis to the third

chromosome.

De novo annotation of transposable elements in the D. pseudoobscura group

We annotated TE families in all five species, as well as putative TE sequences in the

more diverged species (such as *D. lowei* and *D. affinis*), and compared our *de novo*

annotations to the previous annotations for *D. pseudoobscura* and *D. persimilis*. These

sequences were identified using *RepeatModeler* and *LTRHarvest* (Ellinghaus *et al.*

2008; Smit and Hubley 2008) and filtered, as outlined in Supplementary Figure 1 to give

us a set of 'high confidence' TE annotations.

To *de novo* annotate the transposable elements, as shown in Figure S1:

1. We recovered a set of TE candidates for each species using the reference genomes.

We used two separate pipelines: *(i) Repeatscout* and *PILER* in the *RepeatModeler*

pipeline (default parameters) (Price *et al.* 2005; Smit and Hubley 2008), with all

sequences designated as microsatellites and simple repeats removed from the

output, and *(ii) LTRHarvest*, which finds LTR retrotransposons (using parameters

recommended in the *LTRHarvest* manual*: -tis -suf -lcp -des -sds –dna; -seed 100 -*

minlenltr 100 -maxlenltr 1000 -mindistltr 1000 -maxdistltr 15000 -xdrop 5 -mat 2 -mis

-2 -ins -3 -del -3 -similar 90.0 -overlaps best -mintsd 5 -maxtsd 20 -motif tgca -

motifmis 0 -vic 60 -longoutput) (Ellinghaus *et al.* 2008). Though this step may bias us

to find primarily LTRs, we note that most previously known TEs we find are LTRs,

while most (19 of 41) novel elements are DNA transposons (Table S2).

2. Step 1 resulted in a set of 769 candidate TE sequences, ranging from 208bp to

14.5kb. We used BLAST to filter and annotate the candidate TEs (parameters: e-

value < 1e-08, -word_size 10, -perc_identity 85) (Altschul *et al.* 1990), by searching

a database of all known *Repbase* and *Flybase* transposable element sequences for

Diptera (including 121 TEs previously found in *D. pseudoobscura, D. persimilis* or *D.*

miranda), with sequenced duplicated between the data bases removed using a

custom python script.

a. Sequences that show single BLAST hits (e-value ≤ 1e-08) to this data base

were assumed to represent a previously identified TE family. We discarded

these sequences and used the Repbase/Flybase TE sequence to represent

the family instead. (349 sequences).

b. From the remaining sequences, those that showed BLAST hits to several TE

families, all from one superfamily, were considered to potentially represent a

previously unidentified family within that superfamily. (180 sequences).

c. Of the remaining sequences, those with hits all in a single order, but to

multiple superfamilies, were potentially novel TEs within this order. (18

sequences).

d. For sequences which had no potential TE family assigned in Step 2 (222

sequences), we attempted to find matches by aligning them to the online

NCBI non-redundant database using megablast. Of these, 202 had
annotated or predicted genes as the primary BLAST hit; these were
discarded. The remaining potentially novel TEs were retained (20
sequences),
To facilitate downstream analysis, we obtained a single representative sequence for
the potential novel TEs identified in Steps 2b, c and d, as is already done for those in
Step 2a. To do this, we clustered sequences found for all species using *vmatch*
(recommended *LTRHarvest* parameters: -dbcluster 95 7 -p -d -seedlength 50 -l 1101
-exdrop 9) (Kurtz 2010). We confirmed these clusters by BLASTing novel TE
sequences to themselves and grouping them by similar matches (parameters: e-
value < 0.00001, -word_size 10).
4. As these may only represent partial TE sequences, we further assembled the
grouped sequences using *Trinity* (default parameters) to collapse similar
sequences and get a representative sequence for the cluster, even if only a
fragment of the consensus sequence (Haas *et al.* 2013). We checked these
assemblies and clusters by aligning sequences from the cluster and with the
Trinity assembly (if applicable) using *MAFFT* (parameters: --thread 3 --threadit 0 -
-reorder --leavegappyregion –auto) (Katoh *et al.* 2002), to ensure that the
assembly or longest sequence representing the putative novel TE was
recovered. From each cluster of similar sequences, we took the longest
sequence as the representative fragment of each putatively novel family.
5. Some of the putatively novel families identified in 2b may instead be divergent
representatives of known families. To see whether this was the case, we again
attempted to identify previously known families among them using the consensus
sequences from the five species genomes. We aligned novel TEs pairwise to all
Repbase TEs using *MAFFT* (parameters: --thread 3 --threadit 0 --reorder --
leavegappyregion --auto) and used a custom *python* script to find the number of
diverged aligned bases. We defined sequences as belonging to a known family if
they were >90% similar to a known family across the sequence, following
(Kohany *et al.* 2006). Two families of the novel sequences were found to belong
to known families in this way (an I-element and a Jockey element), but were

145	closely related to insertions in distant relatives of the *obscura* group (*I*-4_DF from
146	*D. funebris* and *Jockey*-8_DRh from *D. rhopaloa,* respectively). We therefore
147	retained these sequences in our data set, as they likely represent diverged
148	copies of these families, or ancient horizontal acquisitions.
149	6. From Steps 1-5, we found 567 candidate TE sequences, 349 of which belong to
150	previously described TE families, including all 121 families previously found in the
151	*D. pseudoobscura* group ('known' families), and 445 others (putative 'novel'
152	families). We proceeded to filter sequences from this set which were represented
153	by very few or very short matches to the reference genomes.
154	a. First, we used the 567 sequences to repeat mask the reference genome
155	of each species using *RepeatMasker* (parameters: –no_is –norna –
156	no_low –gff –gccalc –u –s –cutoff 200) (Tarailo-Graovac and Chen 2009),
157	following recommendations in (Kofler *et al.* 2012). We required that the
158	families have at least 25 Repeatmasker hits in at least one species (237
159	sequences retained, 116 known and 121 novel families).
160	b. We then estimated the copy number of each TE family for each species
161	from the Illumina short read data from adult females, discarding those
162	estimated to have a median coverage less than 2-fold that of the third
163	chromosome for less than 80% of the length of the sequence. To do this,
164	we mapped short reads to the repeated masked reference genome and
165	the 237 TE sequences retained from the previous step using BWA MEM
166	(parameters: paired end –t 5 -M) (Li and Durbin 2009), and estimated
167	coverage with *bedtools genomecov* (Quinlan and Hall 2010). Due to the
168	poor assembly of the *D. persimilis* genome, we used a reference
169	consisting of the *D. pseudoobscura* genome and the *D. persimilis* TE
170	sequences. (157 sequences retained, from 116 known and 41 families
171	novel to this species group).
172	We considered these 157 sequences to be a cromulent representation of the TE
173	content in the *pseudoobscura* group, though we recognize that we may have
174	discarded some true TE sequences.

Using this method, we found strong support for 114 of the 121 TE families
previously described in *D. pseudoobscura, D. persimilis* or *D. miranda* and 2 TEs
previously identified in other species. We also found 41 novel sequences,
including two subfamilies of previously known sequences, 30 newly assembled
sequences which BLAST exclusively to one super family, and nine potentially
new families that BLAST to one TE order. We also found 15 sequences that
cannot be assigned an order (either due to BLAST hits to multiple orders, or no
BLAST hits). These 15 sequences passed all filters, including being found
multiple times in species genomes and did not correspond to genes or other
NCBI sequences in a universal BLAST search. To avoid unreliable inferences, we
discarded these sequences from downstream analyses, but gave each of the 41
novel sequences an ID (Table S2), and included them in masking and mapping
stages. Sequences are available in File S1.

Estimating TE density in the reference genome.

We used *RepeatMasker* v. 4.0.6 to mask each reference genome using the 157
consensus TE sequences and 15 unknown sequences from the *de novo* annotation,
(parameters: –no_is –norna –nolow –gff –gccalc –u –s –cutoff 200) (Tarailo-Graovac
and Chen 2009). To estimate TE density, we used the density of TE bases per 1MB
sliding window (with a step size of 100kb) of the *D. pseudoobscura* reference genome
(after removing all N bases [e.g. TE bases / [window size – Ns in chromosome]]),
across both assembled scaffolds and unassembled contigs from the reference genome.

Identifying insertions in reference genomes and in sequenced third chromosome lines of
D. pseudoobscura

To identify insertion sites in the reference genomes of *D. pseudoobscura* and *D.*
persimilis, we used the *PopoolationTE2* pipeline (Kofler *et al.* 2016a). Briefly, we used
RepeatMasker v. 4.0.6 to mask the *pseudoobscura* genome using the 157 consensus
TE sequences and 15 unknown sequences identified above (parameters: –no_is –norna
–nolow –gff –gccalc –u –s –cutoff 200) (Tarailo-Graovac and Chen 2009). We chose to
use the *D. pseudoobscura* reference, rather than the fragmented *D. persimilis*
reference, as it facilitated mapping reads to genomic insertion sites. We expect similar

results as these species are closely related (0.018 average synonymous divergence

(Noor *et al.* 2007)), and we find that similar numbers of reads map to TEs regardless of

whether the *D. pseudoobscura* or *D. persimilis* genome is used (27.63% vs 27.27%).

We then mapped available Illumina reads to the repeat masked reference, the

consensus TE sequences, and to sequences matching these consensus TEs identified

by *RepeatMasker* using BWA-MEM (parameters: paired end –t 5 -M, with secondary

alignments reported, but marked) (Li and Durbin 2009). Using masked TE sequences

to aids mapping of degenerate TE sequences, as described in (Kofler *et al.* 2016a).

Following mapping, we generated a ppileup file summarizing identities and locations of

TE insertions for all lines in *PopoolationTE2* (default settings, --map-qual 10) and

subsampled to a physical coverage of 25, removing secondary alignments. As these

sequences are mostly from inbred lines, we required the estimated frequency to be at

least 50% (default parameters, --target-coverage 25, --min-count 5, minimum frequency

= 0.5) (Kofler *et al.* 2016a). We then identified the number of insertions per MB window

(after adjusting for the number of N bases in the window [e.g. TE number / [window size

– Ns in window]]) across the genome of each species.

Expression confirmation of putative TE sequences.

We also used expression data for mRNA (SRA: SRR1956914, taken from (Duff

et al. 2015)) and small RNAs (SRA: SRR032435, taken from (Leslie *et al.* 2010)) from

the *D. pseudoobscura* reference line (MV-25) to examine the expression of novel TEs.

Before further analysis, we trimmed all genomic and RNAseq Illumina reads used

with *Sickle* to remove low quality sequence data (default parameters for long reads,

minimum length = 16 for small RNAs), and removed reads that were unpaired (apart

from the small RNA reads) after this step from the sequence data (Joshi and Fass

2011).

We mapped small RNA sequences from *D. pseudoobscura* to known and novel

TEs identified in that species, using publicly available small RNA reads from the

reference strain ((Leslie *et al.* 2010), SRA: SRR032435).

We first removed non-TE related small RNAs, following (Aravin *et al.* 2007;
Rahman *et al.* 2015), by mapping to a database of known *Drosophila* viruses and small
RNAs other than those that are TE-related, including miRNAs, viral siRNAs, snoRNA
(Rahman *et al.* 2015), using *BWA aln* and allowing for up to 3 mismatches (parameters:
-n 3) (Aravin *et al.* 2007; Li and Durbin 2009). We then mapped the remaining reads to
the repeat masked *D. pseudoobscura* reference genome and the novel and known TE
sequences identified in this study (*BWA aln* parameters: -n 3, maximum 2 alignments).

We classified small RNAs by length and orientation using a custom python script
and the *Pysam* python library, following (Brennecke *et al.* 2008). Specifically, we
considered small RNAs from 21 to 23 to be siRNAs and from 24 to 29 to be piRNAs
(Obbard *et al.* 2009). We used *bedtools* (*intersect*, -wa –wb –f 0.3 –r), to check for a
10-bp overlap between sense and anti-sense matches and used *sequence logos*
(Schneider and Stephens 1990) to check for the 1-T, 10-A bias, both associated with
ping-pong amplification, a characteristic feature of piRNAs (Levine and Malik 2011).

Detecting short range horizontal transfer events within the pseudoobscura group
To detect horizontal transfer of TEs within the five species examined, we compared
divergence between consensus TE sequences to genomic divergence, following the
rationale described in (Bartolomé *et al.* 2009). We limited this analysis to families found
in at least 3 species and with an annotation on Repbase.

To construct consensus TE sequences for each TE family and each species, we
identified the major allele for each species at each variable site using *GATK v3.5-0-*
g36282e4 HaplotypeCaller, with ploidy levels set to the estimated copy numbers based
on coverage of the TE sequence, and using *FastaAlternateReferenceMaker* (default
parameters) to generate fasta sequences from the mapped data (DePristo *et al.* 2011).

We aligned these consensus sequences from each species using *MAFFT* (parameters:
--thread 3 --threadit 0 --reorder --leavegappyregion –auto) (Katoh *et al.* 2002) and
generated a phylogeny of each sequence using the *Repbase* annotation and *PhyML*
(parameters: -M GTR) (Guindon *et al.* 2010). We obtained a total of 39 annotated
alignments that included sequences for *D. affinis* comparisons, and 62 additional
sequences for all other species comparisons (noted in Table S2).

We estimated synonymous site divergence (d_S) in the TE sequences pairwise

between species using *codeml* (with transition–transversion rates estimated from the

data, and codon frequencies from the nucleotide frequencies) and the coding regions

for these TEs as annotated in *Repbase* (Kohany *et al.* 2006; Yang 2007). We then

compared d_S of TEs to that of orthologous genes between species obtained in the same

way, taken from Avila et al. (2014). Following Bartolomé et al. (2009), we considered an

individual family to show strong evidence of exchange if its d_S value was below the

2.5% quantile of the d_S of all nuclear genes, to have potentially transferred if d_S was

between the 2.5% and 50% quantiles, and to show no evidence of transferring if above

the 50% quantile.

We also examined polymorphism within TE families for evidence of horizontal

transfer. We estimated Tajima's *D* of each TE using *Popoolation* (Kofler *et al.* 2011),with

the TE copy number as the sample size. As negative Tajima's D may reflect recent

expansion of a TE family (Bartolomé *et al.* 2009). We compared the levels of

polymorphism shared among TEs in each species between potentially transferred TEs

(d_S < 2.5% quantile) and TEs that are unlikely to have transferred (d_S > 50% quantile).

Detecting long range horizontal transfer events with other Drosophila species

We attempt to identify long range transfers from other *Drosophila* species. To do this,

we separated all known *Drosophila* TEs by their super families, including our set of *D.*

pseudoobscura group TEs, and aligned the TE sequences within each superfamily

using *MAFFT* (Katoh *et al.* 2002) and generated phylogenies for these using *PhyML*

(Guindon *et al.* 2010). We then extracted patristic distance matrices for each

superfamily using *Patristic* (Fourmant and Gibbs 2006) and compared each distance to

the nuclear genome comparison performed previously for these genomes (Chen *et al.*

2014).

Results and Discussion

Transposable element annotation of the D. pseudoobscura group genomes

We identified insertions of the 157 well-supported TE families in the reference genome

of the five species, and assessed their TE content using four metrics: the proportion of

the reference genome masked (using *RepeatMasker* (Tarailo-Graovac and Chen

2009)), the proportion of short reads mapping to each TE sequences, the number of

insertions in each genome using short read data (using *PopoolationTE2* (Kofler *et al.*

2016b), demonstrated across genomes in Supplementary Figure 2) and the estimated

copy number of each TE family (Table 1 and Table S2). We also estimated the density

of TE content across the genome (in masked bp/Mbp) using the proportion of the

reference masked by *Repeatmasker*.

Across all species, for all measures of TE content we find a significant linear

correlation between measures (Table S2, Spearman's Rank Correlation *p*-value <

0.00213), though the strength of the correlation is weak for all species between the

proportion of the genome masked at the family level versus the copy number of the TE

family, and the insertion count versus the proportion of the genome masked ($\rho < 0.58$),

suggesting that the proportion of the genome masked may be an inconsistent measure

of TE density. As expected, correlations between measures of TE content in the

species with genomes assembled only from short reads are lower (Table 1, Table S2)

(Hoen *et al.* 2015; Rius *et al.* 2016), and the estimates of TE content for these species

are likely more unreliable. We therefore limit our analysis of TE content to the two

genomes with available long read data, *D. pseudoobscura* and *D. persimilis*. We also

identified 15 sequences that pass all filters, but cannot be assigned to a TE order, we

have included these sequences and their statistics, but have not included these

sequences in further analyses (e.g. the 2 unknown sequences in *D. pseudoobscura*,

Table 1, Table S2).

Because the *D. pseudoobscura* and *D. persimilis* genomes were originally

assembled from long reads (and the *D. pseudoobscura* genome has also been

assembled with the help of PacBio information and Sanger sequence information)

(Richards *et al.* 2005; Clark *et al.* 2007), the TE content of these two species is already

well-annotated. We found 116 previously identified *pseudoobscura* TE families using our

pipeline. We also found two TE families from other species, and 28 additional putative

TE families that passed all our filters in these two species.   For *D. pseudoobscura*, we

were able to use RNAseq data from (Duff *et al.* 2015) to determine whether these

elements showed evidence of expression in embryos, using publically available

expression data. We estimated RPKM for both novel and known TEs from these data;
of the novel TEs, nine had appreciable levels of expression (Figure S3, FPKM > 1), a
similar proportion to that of the known TEs (49 of 116). Similarly, we used sequences
from embryonic small RNAs to ask if suppressive small RNAs are produced against
these TE families. We extracted TEs with at least 20 small RNAs mapping to them,
which comprised 114 of the 116 known TEs and all 28 of the novel TE sequences (Table
S7 & 8). Most of these elements (108 of 140) had piRNAs generated against them
(using the 24-29nt range generally used to identify piRNAs in other species (Ghildyal
and Zamore 2009), and 27 elements also had homologous siRNAs (21-23nt small
RNAs) (Figure S3, Table S2) (Obbard *et al.* 2009). A subset of the piRNAs, those
produced in the germline (Aravin *et al.* 2007), are expected to show signatures of "ping-
pong" amplification— small RNAs that match both sense and anti-sense strands of the
TE sequence, an enrichment of these that show a 10bp overlap, a uracil in position 1 of
sense strand piRNAs, and adenosine in position 10 of the antisense small RNAs)
(Aravin *et al.* 2007). We found that 60 elements (53 known families and 7 novel; 36
LTRs, 15 LINEs, 7 DNA transposons & 2 helitrons) showed signatures of ping-pong
amplification— from inspecting *Sequence Logos* plots (Table S2) (Schneider and
Stephens 1990); novel and known elements showed ping-pong small RNAs at similar
rates (Figure S3, Mann-Whitney U test W = 24, p > 0.1676). As these TE sequences
are all multicopy, these measures of expression are mainly useful to show that the
putative novel TEs have characteristics like those of the known TE sequences (Mann-
Whitney U test W = 37, p > 0.05, Figure S3).

In all, we found 12.33% and 23.59% make up the reference genomes of these
species, (Table 1). In contrast to a previous study, which found similar proportions of
LTRs and LINEs in the *D. pseudoobscura* genome (Clark *et al.* 2007), we find over
twice as much TE content due to LTR vs. LINE retrotransposons (Table 1); it is worth
noting an additional effort was put into finding novel LTRs in the putative TE set using
LTRHarvest (Ellinghaus *et al.* 2008).

In the remaining species, we find 20 additional families not found in *D.*
pseudoobscura and *D. persimilis* (Figure 1B). The 57 TE families shared among all five
species constitute most of the TE content (73-84% of insertions and 53-78% of each

species reference TE content, Table S2), but vary in copy number between species (e.g.

HelitronN-1 in *D. miranda* and *D. lowei*, Table S2), possibly due to stochastic expansion

and loss of families over time. For example, we find *HelitronN-1_DPe* has 1927

insertions and makes up 1.1% of the genome of *D. miranda*, while it has only 727

insertions in *D. lowei,* comprising of 0.14% of the genome (Table 1, Table S2). This is

likely due to the collapsing of *Helitron-1* and the closely related ISX sequence that has

been co-opted for dosage compensation in *D. miranda* (Ellison and Bachtrog 2013)*.*

These differences can be further seen in the distributions of copy numbers in families,

which differ between species (Figure S3, S4).

While we annotate the *D. miranda, D. lowei* and *D. affinis* genomes using a

pipeline identical to that for other species, we suspect we have underestimated the TE

content of these species. There are three main reasons. First, the genome assemblies

for these species rely on short reads (Palmieri *et al.* 2014), which can lead to under-

representation of the TE content of the genome (Rius *et al.* 2016). Similarly, previous

estimates of the TE content of *D. pseudoobscura* and *D. persimilis* were much lower

likely due to more fragmented genomes (Clark *et al.* 2007). Second, we may have

missed TE families unique to these species, or may have recovered them only as

fragments, as it is easier to recover full-length TE sequences if they closely match

sequences already in RepBase as is true for the *D. persimilis* and *D. pseudoobscura*

sequences. Finally, and likely the most important reason, the material sequenced for the

reference genomes for *D. lowei, D. miranda* and *D. affinis* was adult females and not

mixed sex embryos as for the others (Richards *et al.* 2005; Clark *et al.* 2007). Thus the

other genomes contain the TE-rich Y-chromosome, which appears to be cytologically

quite large in these species (Dobzhansky 1935, 1937), and may shows less under-

replication of the TE-rich heterochromatin than adult samples.

In *D. persimilis* we found the same TE families as in *D. pseudoobscura*, but

estimated 23.59% of the *D. persimilis* reference to be repetitive content versus 12.33%

in *D. pseudoobscura*, implying 21.3MB more repetitive content in the *D. persimilis*

reference genome compared to *D. pseudoobscura*. Previous annotation from the 12-

genomes project found lower TE content as a proportion of the genome than that found

here (3% and 8% *vs.* 12.33% and 23.59% here), but a similar ~2-fold enrichment in TEs

for *D. persimilis* (Clark *et al.* 2007). While it is true that *D. persimilis* has a larger

genome than *D. pseudoobscura* ((Gregory 2005), the two species genomes are

estimated to differ only by ~2Mb (Bosco *et al.* 2007; Gregory and Johnston 2008).

The higher TE content of *D. persimilis* is not due to the presence of additional

families, as the same families occur in both species (Table 1, Figure 1). In fact, as

these species hybridize occasionally (Noor *et al.* 2007), it would be surprising if their TE

families remained very distinct. Estimates of copy number from coverage of short read

data (collected from adult females in both species) shows more copies of each TE

family in *D. persimilis* than *D. pseudoobscura* (46.8 vs. 39.6 on average), but the

difference is highly non-significant (Mann-Whitney U, p = 0.669).

Simple coverage differences of TEs, could, in principle, be explained by

differences in under-replication of TE between the strains or species. But this is

unlikely, as the coverage differences are also consistent with genome-size estimates,

insertion number recovered and the proportion of the genome repeat masked

(significant associations between all, as stated previously). If the difference is genuine,

it could be due to the differences seen in a few families with large numbers of insertions

in *D. persimilis,* such as *Gypsy10_Dpse*, *HelitronN-1_Dpe*, *Gypsy17_Dpse*, and

MiniME_DP (Table S2). Based on coverages of each TE sequence in each species, we

estimate that *D. persimilis* has, at most, ~5Mb more TE content than *D. pseudoobscura*,

consistent with the minor differences in genome size found between the two species

(Bosco *et al.* 2007), suggesting a large amount of genomic content is missing from the

D. pseudoobscura reference genome.

It is possible that an accumulation of TEs in the fixed inversions between

D.pseudoobscura and *D. persimilis* could explain the large difference in TE content, due

to the reduced genomic exchange in these regions (Machado *et al.* 2007), allowing

insertions to accumulate in one species but not the other. Consistent with this idea, we

find that LTR retrotransposons are at significantly higher densities of TE insertions

within these inverted regions in *D. persimilis* when compared to *D. pseudoobscura* and

the uninverted regions (File S2, Insertions per MB, using inversion windows defined in

(Avila *et al.* 2014); Mann Whitney U test: LTR inside inversions W = 53686, p = 5.674e-

05, LTR near inversions W = 16604, p-value = 0.1128 LTR outside inversions W =

290520, p-value = 0.1407). However, we find RC and LINE insertions are at significantly higher densities in *D. persimilis* regardless of genomic location (Insertions per MB, Mann Whitney U test: W > 335780, p-value < 0.0001303 for inside, outside and near inverted regions) and no difference in TIRs (W < 790, p-value > 0.37), suggesting that the fixed inversions are not the only explanation.

One final possibility, the Y chromosome of these species may also play a role in both the genome size and TE content differences of the species. While considerable variation exists in the size of *D. pseudoobscura* Y chromosome size across types (Dobzhansky 1935, 1937), the *D. persimilis* Y chromosomes are limited to the largest of these types (Types I, II and III). As the *D. pseudoobscura* reference genome was likely generated from a strain containing the smallest Y chromosome type (Standard/Arrowhead, likely type V) (Dobzhansky 1937; Dobzhansky and Sturtevant 1937), while the *D. persimilis* genome strain used to generate their genome likely contains the most common *D. persimilis* Y, the largest of the chromosome types (Dobzhansky 1937). Previous work has also found Y-linked variation in *D. melanogaster* and *D. simulans* to be associated with phenotypic variation in a number of factors including TE regulation, it is possible that a larger Y can cause poorer TE regulation, due to the increased heterochromatin load in the genome (Sackton and Hartl 2013; Francisco and Lemos 2014). This is possibly the case between *D. pseudoobscura* and *D. persimilis*, where the larger Y chromosome may have led to the poorer regulation of TE families, leading to the ~5Mb expansion of TEs in *D. persimilis*.

Several transposable element families show evidence of ancient horizontal spread between species

As a majority of TEs are likely acquired in a species by horizontal transfer by closely related species (Burt and Trivers 2006; Peccoud *et al.* 2017). We examined our set of TEs for evidence that they had been horizontally acquired from another *Drosophila* species by comparing the patristic distance of all *Repbase* TEs pairwise to the average patristic distance of *pseudoobscura* group TEs (Kohany *et al.* 2006), after building a phylogeny of each superfamily (Supplementary Figure 3).

Across 4096 pairwise comparisons, we found 230 where the TE patristic distance
was lower than the previously found genic distance (Table S7) (Chen *et al.* 2014).
These events were limited to 63 of 157 TEs, with most these TEs having lower patristic
distances than entire species groups (such as the *D. rhopaloa/D.elegans/D.ficusphila*
species subgroup), consistent with a transfer of the TE between the common ancestor
of the species and the *D. pseudoobscura* group, followed by a diversification into
multiple elements seen today. 42 of these transferred elements are LTRs, 6 are DNA
transposons and 15 are LINEs (Table S7, Figure 2A). While a higher proportion of LTRs
are transferred between species, each of these families only appears to have been
exchanged with a single species, rather than multiple, likely because of the recent
expansion of LTRs in *Drosophila*, compared to the more ancient expansion of most
LINEs and DNA transposons (Figure 2B). Among these transferred elements, we find a
piggyBac element that was acquired from *D. busckii*, several elements from the Asian
subgroup of the *D. melanogaster* group, (such as *P_226* with *D. elegans*, *Jockey_185*
with *D. rhopaloa* and *I_149* with *D. ficusphila*) and several Jockey elements are closely
related to elements found in the *Drosophila* clade species, such as with a *D. virilise*
ancestor. We compared the proportion of TEs showing HT events between species to
the patristic distance to each species, we find a significant negative linear correlation
between the species genic patristic distance and the proportion of TEs (Figure 2C,
Binomial GLM logistic regression, z-value = -7.88, p-value< 2e-16), agreeing with
previous findings that horizontal acquisition is more likely between closely related
species (Peccoud *et al.* 2017).

Evidence of recent recurrent horizontal transfer between species

In the *D. melanogaster* group, in addition to occasional bouts of catastrophic
invasion, many elements appear to have been transferred commonly between close
relatives in the group (Daniels *et al.* 1990; Clark and Kidwell 1997; Bartolomé *et al.*
2009). For *pseudoobscura* group TEs found in at least 3 species which had previously
described coding regions (101 TEs, 39 for comparisons to *D. affinis*), we compared the
silent site divergence (d_S) of TEs found between species to the d_S of host genes.
Overall, we found a significant reduction in synonymous divergence relative to host

genes for all comparisons (Mann-Witney U test *p-value* < 0.05), excluding those

involving *D. affinis* (Figure 3A). We find 76 TE families below the 97.5% quantile of

nuclear gene d_S in at least one comparison suggesting potentially recent transmission

between species (51 of 62 LTRs, 19 of 30 LINEs and 6 of 8 DNA transposons).

Inconsistent with horizontal transfer, there is not a depletion of non-LTR retrotransposon

(LINE) elements found here.

We also compared the phylogenies of the TEs to that of the species, again

looking for evidence of horizontal transfer. Of these families, 41 have phylogenies that

differ from the species tree and group the two species with little divergence together. It

is possible these differences are due to incomplete lineage sorting, or gene tree

discordance, it is also possible that horizontal transfer has occurred for this family

between these species, and so may support HT for 34 LTRs, 3 DNA transposons and 5

LINEs (All of which are below the 97.5% quantile for genomic d_S, Figure 3B; Table S2).

Again, we find no evidence of exchange with *D. affinis*. In the *D. pseudoobscura*

subgroup each species can hybridize with others to some degree (though likely not

occurring in nature; Machado et al. 2007), therefore, we cannot determine if these

apparent transfer events are true horizontal events or vertical transfer via hybridisation.

We do see slightly elevated proportions of TIRs & LTRs when comparing phylogenies,

consistent with horizontal transfer as suggested previously in (Sánchez-Gracia *et al.*

2005; Bartolomé *et al.* 2009). Conversely, we found d_S between species and *D. affinis*

was significantly higher for TEs than host genes, consistent with the allopatric

separation limiting HT events seen between species and possibly unconstrained

evolution in the TEs (Figure 3A, Mann Whitney U test: *p* < 3.5e-08, Table S5).

By comparing Tajima's D for each TE in species we can look for strongly negative

D, consistent with a copy number expansion following horizontal transmission

(Bartolomé *et al.* 2009). All comparisons show equal levels of D in each species, close

to 0, implying that each species already share the TE families, resulting in no expansion

in copy number (Figure 3C). Consistent with this, we find all the TEs potentially shared

between species have shared polymorphism (Figure 3E), which is not expected if

acquisition is recent and purely horizontal. However, this result conflicts with our

expectation from the nuclear d_S comparison, which we expect to be at similar levels to

TE d_S if there is hybridization. This result suggests pervasive transmission between
species, resulting in polymorphism being exchanged between species several times,
rather than once, resulting in no excess of low frequency polymorphism (Tajima 1989;
Bartolomé *et al.* 2009). Alternatively, there is less constraint on polymorphism in
transposable elements, allowing polymorphisms to drift to higher frequencies in shorter
periods of time following their horizontal acquisition.

Interestingly, 10 TE families appear to transfer between species in all
comparisons (d_S < 0.25% quantile: 1 TIR, 1 LINE and 8 LTRs), while 21 show no
evidence of transfer (d_S > 50% quantile: 1 TIR, 1 helitron, 11 LINEs and 9 LTRs),
suggesting that rates of transmission are highly dependent on the TE family and its
activity. We also see large differences in copy numbers of each family in each species.
We next looked to see if a lack of exchange can lead to changes in copy number of a
family and explain the differences between *D. persimilis* and others.

We compared changes in copy number over all the species (via the coefficient of
variation), for pervasively transferring TEs, non-transferring TEs and all other TEs. We
find no difference in the coefficient of variation of copy number for pervasively
transferring families and non-transferring families (Figure 3D; Mann Whitney U *p*-
value > 0.19 for all comparisons), suggesting that reduced transmission between
species isn't altering dynamics of the families compared to pervasively transferring
families. This low divergence and no evidence of family expansion has two possible
explanations: 1. There may be gene flow to some degree between these species in the
wild, while the genes are likely not introgressed due to incompatibilities or lower fitness,
their linked TEs will be transpose more readily after hybridisation, becoming unlinked
from this gene. This variant will then be maintained in the new host, resulting in reduced
divergence for the TE family between the species. 2. Due to the sympatry of the
pseudoobscura subgroup, there may have been recurrent horizontal transmission
between species, for TE families already present in each of the species, resulting in the
low d_S, but shared polymorphism and lack of copy number expansion. The lower
numbers of LINE families found exchanging between species supports the idea of
horizontal exchange, however the supposed numbers of exchanges (up to 61) between
species is unprecedented, giving more support to vertical exchange of TEs. Despite this

pervasive TE exchange of some families, TE dynamics may be changing within the
species, leading to the differences seen in TE families, densities and family copy
numbers.

Like *D. melanogaster*, the *D. pseudoobscura* group shows highly active TEs that
appear to be constantly undergoing a cycle of acquisition, expansion and high activity,
suppression and finally extinction. Strangely, despite TE exchange between species, the
group shows distinct differences in TE content and TE densities. Though some of these
differences are due to differences in quality of assembly of each species genome and
method used to identify TE insertions, we find a distinct expansion in TE numbers in *D.*
persimilis. We find these differences are likely due to stochastic differences in
expansion and extinction between shared families, and not due to differing activities in
novel and private families compared to these shared families. Overall this suggests that
despite frequent gene flow, TE dynamics can evolve rapidly due to stochastic factors
across the lifetime of a family.

Due to the history of the first recorded instance of a horizontal transfer of a
transposable element, we tend to think that these transfers are rare, likely catastrophic
events. However, an expanding body of evidence suggests that these events are likely
a common occurrence throughout genomes, becoming more and more common the
more closely related two species are. This transfer of elements is possibly even
recurrent in some cases and, due to closely related sequences already established
within piRNA clusters, do not cause the fitness costs seen with the invasion of P-
element into *D. melanogaster.* Our results support the idea that TEs are highly fluid,
moving between genomes easily without leading to the expansion of TE content in a
species genome, or heavy catastrophic events such as was seen in laboratories with
the invasion of P-element.

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Table 1: Number of TE families and counts by order in species. % of reads mapping to
each order in each species, number of copies found based on coverage relative to
chromosome 3, % of the reference genome masked by each order for each species and
number of insertions found using PopoolationTE2 (Kofler *et al.* 2016a). As LTR
elements often exist not as complete insertions, but as solo-LTRs resulting from
illegitimate recombination, coverage for the LTR elements was estimated for both solo
LTRs and LTR bodies separately, with the average taken across the combined
sequences. We tested for extrachromosomal circular DNAs such as from Helitrons and
Polintons via comparisons between copy numbers and insertion numbers. We excluded
the unknown families from the total insertion counts.

			Reads		Reference
		n families	% reads	est. num	% genome
D. pseudoobscura	TIR	31	1.745	414	0.98
	LTR	72	8.875	2230	7.21
	LINE	35	3.633	1121	2.85
	RC	3	1.852	978	1.21
	Polinton	1	0.417	149	0.081
	Unknown	2	0.332	22	0.017
	Total *	142	16.522	4892	12.33
	Total (including Unknown)	144	16.854	4914	12.5
D. persimilis	TIR	31	1.547	413	1.29
	LTR	72	14.273	2260	12.95
	LINE	35	6.956	1301	5.76
	RC	3	4.43	1781	3.41
	Polinton	1	0.034	46	0.18

	Unknown	2	0.543	76	0.025
	Total *	142	27.24	5801	23.59
	Total (including Unknown)	144	27.78	5877	23.615
D. miranda	TIR	31	0.892	262	0.87
	LTR	67	7.19	973	2.21
	LINE	36	5.367	1431	1.25
	RC	5	1.484	1934	1.16
	Polinton	1	0.054	9	0.024
	Unknown	2	0.337	4	0.015
	Total *	140	14.987	4609	5.51
	Total (including Unknown)	142	15.324	4613	5.525
D. loweii	TIR	31	1.396	495	0.382
	LTR	74	6.883	1366	1.55
	LINE	34	3.839	933	0.799
	RC	5	1.245	813	0.363
	Polinton	1	0.054	7	0.013
	Unknown	9	0.641	265	0.087
	Total *	145	13.417	3614	3.1
	Total (including Unknown)	154	14.058	3879	3.187
D. affinis	TIR	9	0.872	278	0.177
	LTR	47	4.328	630	1.427
	LINE	13	5.223	530	0.406
	RC	4	1.351	369	0.245
	Polinton	1	0.068	35	0.041
	Unknown	10	1.192	206	0.098
	Total *	74	11.842	1842	2.29
	Total (including Unknown)	84	13.034	2048	2.394

587 **Figure 1: A.** Phylogeny of the *D. pseudoobscura* group and the estimated time of
588 divergence between nodes. **B.** Number of TE families shared between species in the *D.*
589 *pseudoobscura* group, including putative novel families.

Figure 2: A. Each TE family and the proportion of times they show a lower divergence value than the mean divergence between the host species. **B.** Of the transferring TEs, the proportion of times these TEs are exchanging, grouped by TE order. **C.** Comparisons between the proportion of exchange events and the pairwise divergence between species, for exchanged TEs.

Figure 3: A. Pairwise comparison of silent site diversity (d_S) for nuclear genes (solid line) and shared TEs (dashed lines) between *D. pseudoobscura, D. pseudoobscura bogotana, D. persimilis* and other species. The lower 2.5% quartile for nuclear d_S is shown as the dotted vertical line **B.** The number of transfer events for transposable elements based on d_S, the number in brackets shows events that can be seen in the assembled phylogenies. Note that many events could be occurring between species vertically as well as horizontally. **C.** Comparison of Tajimas D across species for frequently exchanged TEs and rarely exchanged TEs shows no difference, suggesting no population expansion. **D.** No more variation in copy number of rarely exchanged TEs than with frequently exchanged TEs. **E.** Proportion of shared nucleotide polymorphism sites between TE sequences in species, out of total nucleotide polymorphism sites, divided by TE families with low Ks relative to nuclear genes and TEs with higher d_S.

Figure S1: Pipeline for TE annotation.

Figure S2: TE density across the genomes of each species, found using *PopoolationTE2,* sorted by TE order.

Figure S3: Comparison between putatively novel and known TE sequences for (A) length, (B) expression, (C) small RNA silencing expression and (D-F) copy number.

Figure S4: Distribution of TE copy numbers per species.

Table S1: *D. pseudoobscura* lines used in this study

Table S2: TEs found in *D. obscura* group. Sorted by if they are previously discovered or novel, then by Order and super family. Transmission states if the TE family is found to transfer between species

Table S3: Diagonal shows the total number of families found in each species for comparison.

Table S4: GLMs for three recombination maps versus TE accumulation, divided by order and super family. Done for both TE count (quasipoisson GLM) and TE density (binomial GLM). Significant values ($p< 0.05$) are shown in bold.

Table S5: For instances where no dS for nuclear comparisons are available, we used the dS between D. pseudoobscura and the species of interest.

Table S6: Number of unique and shared polymorphic sites for each species comparison, for each TE family.

Table S7: *D. pseudoobscura* TEs and the patristic distance from other TEs in their superfamily group, compared to the patristic distance between the TEs fly species and *D.pseudoobscura*

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Figure S1: Pipeline for TE annotation.

Figure S2: TE density across the genomes of each species, found using

PopoolationTE2, sorted by TE order.

Figure S3: Comparison between putatively novel (grey) and known TE sequences (white) for (A) length, (B) expression, (C) small RNA silencing expression and (D-F) copy number.

Figure S4: Distribution of TE copy numbers per species.