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

Tom Hill[1]* & Andrea J. Betancourt[2]

*Corresponding Author: tom.hill@ku.edu

1. 4055 Haworth Hall, The Department of Molecular Biosciences, University of Kansas, 1200 Sunnyside Avenue, Lawrence, KS 66045.

2. Institute of Integrative Biology, University of Liverpool, Liverpool, United Kingdom

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

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 -d*es -sds –dna;* -seed 10*0* -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).

94   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 closely related

to insertions in distant relatives of the *obscura* group (*I*-4_DF from *D. funebris* and

Jockey-8_DRh from *D. rhopaloa,* respectively). We therefore retained these

sequences in our data set, as they likely represent diverged copies of these

| 145 | families, or ancient horizontal acquisitions. |

6. From Steps 1-5, we found 567 candidate TE sequences, 349 of which belong to previously described TE families, including all 121 families previously found in the *D. pseudoobscura* group ('known' families), and 445 others (putative 'novel' families). We proceeded to filter sequences from this set which were represented by very few or very short matches to the reference genomes.

   a. First, we used the 567 sequences to repeat mask the reference genome of each species using *RepeatMasker* (parameters: –no_is –norna –no_low – gff –gccalc –u –s –cutoff 200) (Tarailo-Graovac and Chen 2009), following recommendations in (Kofler *et al.* 2012). We required that the families have at least 25 Repeatmasker hits in at least one species (237 sequences retained, 116 known and 121 novel families).

   b. We then estimated the copy number of each TE family for each species from the Illumina short read data from adult females, discarding those estimated to have a median coverage less than 2-fold that of the third chromosome for less than 80% of the length of the sequence. To do this, we mapped short reads to the repeated masked reference genome and the 237 TE sequences retained from the previous step using BWA MEM (parameters: paired end –t 5 -M) (Li and Durbin 2009), and estimated coverage with *bedtools genomecov* (Quinlan and Hall 2010). Due to the poor assembly of the *D. persimilis* genome, we used a reference consisting of the *D. pseudoobscura* genome and the *D. persimilis* TE sequences. (157 sequences retained, from 116 known and 41 families novel to this species group).

We considered these 157 sequences to be a cromulent representation of the TE content in the *pseudoobscura* group, though we recognize that we may have 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 (ρ < 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 the presence of closely related sequences within piRNA clusters,
reducing the fitness costs of a transfer event, such as 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.

Acknowledgements

Thanks to L. Endler and D. Gómez Sánchez for discussion and advice concerning the
bioinformatic analysis. We are grateful for helpful discussion provided by K. Senti, R.
Kofler, B. Charlesworth, A. Clark, R. Unckless and J. Blumenstiel. Thanks for S. W.
Schaeffer and M. Noor for providing the data used in this survey and advice concerning
how the data should be used. The *D. pseudoobscura* line sequencing was funded by a
National Institute of Health (NIH) grant R01-GM098478 to S. W. Schaeffer. Funding for
TH was provided by the Max Kade foundation.

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.

| Species | TE Order | No. families | Reads | | Reference | PPTE2 |
			% reads	est. num	% genome	est. num
D. pseudoobscura	TIR	31	1.745	414	0.98	292
	LTR	72	8.875	2230	7.21	1846
	LINE	35	3.633	1121	2.85	927
	RC	3	1.852	978	1.21	978
	Polinton	1	0.417	149	0.081	29
	Unknown	2	0.332	22	0.017	6
	Total *	142	16.522	4892	12.33	4072
	Total (including Unknown)	144	16.854	4914	12.5	4078
D. persimilis	TIR	31	1.547	413	1.29	392
	LTR	72	14.273	2260	12.95	1919
	LINE	35	6.956	1301	5.76	958
	RC	3	4.43	1781	3.41	1755
	Polinton	1	0.034	46	0.18	46
	Unknown	2	0.543	76	0.025	7
	Total *	142	27.24	5801	23.59	5070
	Total (including Unknown)	144	27.78	5877	23.615	5077
D. miranda	TIR	31	0.892	262	0.87	258
	LTR	67	7.19	973	2.21	925
	LINE	36	5.367	1431	1.25	1059
	RC	5	1.484	1934	1.16	1934
	Polinton	1	0.054	9	0.024	9
	Unknown	2	0.337	4	0.015	4
	Total *	140	14.987	4609	5.51	4185

	Total (including Unknown)	142	15.324	4613	5.525	4189
D. loweii	TIR	31	1.396	495	0.382	381
	LTR	74	6.883	1366	1.55	740
	LINE	34	3.839	933	0.799	449
	RC	5	1.245	813	0.363	523
	Polinton	1	0.054	7	0.013	7
	Unknown	9	0.641	265	0.087	241
	Total *	145	13.417	3614	3.1	2100
	Total (including Unknown)	154	14.058	3879	3.187	2341
D. affinis	TIR	9	0.872	278	0.177	230
	LTR	47	4.328	630	1.427	832
	LINE	13	5.223	530	0.406	339
	RC	4	1.351	369	0.245	369
	Polinton	1	0.068	35	0.041	35
	Unknown	10	1.192	206	0.098	206
	Total *	74	11.842	1842	2.29	1805
	Total (including Unknown)	84	13.034	2048	2.394	2011

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

A

B

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*

Bibliography
Altschul S. F., Gish W., Miller W., Myers E. W., Lipman D. J., 1990 Basic local
      alignment search tool. J. Mol. Biol. 215: 403–410.
Aravin A. A., Hannon G. J., Brennecke J., 2007 The piwi-piRNA pathway provides an
      adaptive defense in the transposon arms race. Science (80-.). 318: 761–764.
Avila V., Marion de Procé S., Campos J. L., Borthwick H., Charlesworth B., *et al.*, 2014
      Faster-X effects in two Drosophila lineages. Genome Biol. Evol. 6: 2968–82.
Bartolomé C., Bello X., Maside X., 2009 Widespread evidence for horizontal transfer of
      transposable elements across Drosophila genomes. Genome Biol. 10: R22.

Bosco G., Campbell P., Leiva-Neto J. T., Markow T. A., 2007 Analysis of Drosophila species genome size and satellite DNA content reveals significant differences among strains as well as between species. Genetics 177: 1277–1290.

Brennecke J., Malone C. D., Aravin A. A., Sachidanandam R., Stark A., *et al.*, 2008 An epigenetic role for maternally inherited piRNAs in transposon silencing. Science 322: 1387–1392.

Burt A., Trivers R., 2006 *Genes in Conflict*.

Capy P., Koga A., David J. R., Hartl D. L., 1992 Sequence analysis of active Mariner elements in natural populations of Drosophila simulans. Genetics 130: 499–506.

Charlesworth B., Langley C. H., 1989 The population genetics of *Drosophila* transposable elements. Annu. Rev. Genet. 23: 251–87.

Charlesworth B., Langley C. H., Sniegowski P. D., 1997 Transposable element distributions in *Drosophila*. Genetics 147: 1993–5.

Chen Z., Sturgill D., Qu J., Jiang H., 2014 Comparative validation of the D. melanogaster modENCODE transcriptome annotation. Genome …: 1209–1223.

Clark J. B., Kidwell M. G., 1997 A phylogenetic perspective on P transposable element evolution in *Drosophila*. Proc Nat Acad Sci USA 94: 11428–11433.

Clark A. G., Eisen M. B., Smith D. R., Bergman C. M., Oliver B., *et al.*, 2007 Evolution of genes and genomes on the Drosophila phylogeny. Nature 450: 203–218.

Daniels S. B., Peterson K. R., Strausbaugh L. D., Kidwell M. G., Chovnick A., 1990 Evidence for horizontal transmission of the P transposable element between *Drosophila* species. Genetics 124: 339–355.

DePristo M. A., Banks E., Poplin R., Garimella K. V, Maguire J. R., *et al.*, 2011 A framework for variation discovery and genotyping using next-generation DNA sequencing data. Nat. Genet. 43: 491–8.

Dobzhansky T., 1935 The Y Chromosome of Drosophila Pseudoobscura. Genetics 20: 366–76.

Dobzhansky T., 1937 Further data on the variation of the Y chromosome in *Drosophila pseudoobscura*. : 340–346.

Dobzhansky T., Sturtevant A. H., 1937 Inversions In Chromosomes of <i>Drosophila pseudoobscura. Genetics 23: 28–64.

Duff M. O., Olson S., Wei X., Garrett S. C., Osman A., *et al.*, 2015 Genome-wide identification of zero nucleotide recursive splicing in Drosophila. Nature 521: 376–379.

Ellinghaus D., Kurtz S., Willhoeft U., 2008 LTRharvest, an efficient and flexible software for de novo detection of LTR retrotransposons. BMC Bioinformatics 9: 18.

Ellison C. E., Bachtrog D., 2013 Dosage Compensation via Transposable Element Mediated Rewiring of a Regulatory Network. Science (80-.). 342: 846–850.

Fourmant M., Gibbs M. J., 2006 Patristic: a program for calculating patristic distances and graphically comparing the components of genetic change. BMC Evol. Biol. 6: 1–5.

Francisco F. O., Lemos B., 2014 How Do Y-Chromosomes Modulate Genome-Wide Epigenetic States : Genome Folding , Chromatin Sinks , and Gene Expression. J. Genomics 2: 94–103.

Fuller Z. L., Haynes G. D., Richards S., Schaeffer S. W., 2016 Genomics of Natural Populations: How Differentially Expressed Genes Shape the Evolution of

Chromosomal Inversions in. Genetics.

Ghildyal M., Zamore P. D., 2009 Small silencing RNAs: an expanding universe. Nat Rev
Genet. 10: 94–108.

González J., Lenkov K., Lipatov M., Macpherson J. M., Petrov D. a, 2008 High rate of
recent transposable element-induced adaptation in *Drosophila melanogaster*. PLoS
Biol. 6: e251.

Gregory T. R., 2005 Synergy between sequence and size in large-scale genomics. Nat.
Rev. Genet. 6: 699–708.

Gregory T. R., Johnston J. S., 2008 Genome size diversity in the family Drosophilidae.
Heredity (Edinb). 101: 228–38.

Guindon S., Dufayard J.-F., Lefort V., Anisimova M., Hordijk W., *et al.*, 2010 New
algorithms and methods to estimate maximum-likelihood phylogenies: assessing
the performance of PhyML 3.0. Syst. Biol. 59: 307–21.

Haas B. J., Papanicolaou A., Yassour M., Grabherr M., Blood P. D., *et al.*, 2013 De
novo transcript sequence reconstruction from RNA-seq using the Trinity platform
for reference generation and analysis. Nat. Protoc. 8: 1494–512.

Hartl D. L., Lozovskaya E. R., Nurminsky D. I., Lohe A. R., 1997 What restricts the
activity of mariner-like transposable elements? Trends Genet. 13: 197–201.

Hellen E. H. B., Brookfield J. F. Y., 2013a The diversity of class II transposable
elements in mammalian genomes has arisen from ancestral phylogenetic splits
during ancient waves of proliferation through the genome. Mol. Biol. Evol. 30: 100–
108.

Hellen E. H. B., Brookfield J. F. Y., 2013b Transposable element invasions. Mob.
Genet. Elements 3: e23920.

Hill T., Schlötterer C., Betancourt A. J., 2016 Hybrid Dysgenesis in Drosophila simulans
Associated with a Rapid Invasion of the P-Element. PLoS Genet. 12.

Hoen D. R., Hickey G., Bourque G., Casacuberta J., Cordaux R., *et al.*, 2015 A call for
benchmarking transposable element annotation methods. Mob. DNA 6: 13.

Joshi N., Fass J., 2011 Sickle: A sliding window, adaptive, quality-based trimming tool
for fastQ files. 1.33.

Kaplan N., Darden T., Langley C. H., 1985 Evolution and extinction of transposable
elements in Mendelian populations. Genetics 109: 459–480.

Katoh K., Misawa K., Kuma K., Miyata T., 2002 MAFFT: a novel method for rapid
multiple sequence alignment based on fast Fourier transform. Nucleic Acids Res.
30: 3059–66.

Kofler R., Orozco-terWengel P., Maio N. de, Pandey R. V., Nolte V., *et al.*, 2011
Popoolation: A toolbox for population genetic analysis of next generation
sequencing data from pooled individuals. PLoS One 6.

Kofler R., Betancourt A. J., Schlötterer C., 2012 Sequencing of pooled DNA Samples (
Pool-Seq) uncovers complex dynamics of transposable element insertions in
Drosophila melanogaster. PloS Genet. 8: 1–16.

Kofler R., Hill T., Nolte V., Betancourt A. J., Schlötterer C., 2015a The recent invasion of
natural Drosophila simulans populations by the P-element. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.
S. A. 112.

Kofler R., Nolte V., Schlötterer C., 2015b Tempo and mode of transposable element
activity in *Drosophila*. PLoS Genet 11: e1005406.

Kofler R., Daniel G., Schl C., 2016a PoPoolationTE2 : comparative population genomics
of transposable elements using Pool-Seq. : 1–7.
Kofler R., Daniel G., Schlötterer C., 2016b PoPoolationTE2 : comparative population
genomics of transposable elements using Pool-Seq. Mol. Biol. Evol.: 1–12.
Kohany O., Gentles A. J., Hankus L., Jurka J., 2006 Annotation, submission and
screening of repetitive elements in Repbase: RepbaseSubmitter and Censor. BMC
Bioinformatics 7: 474.
Kurtz S., 2010 The Vmatch large scale sequence analysis software Features of Vmatch.
: 1–12.
Lerat E., Burlet N., Biémont C., Vieira C., 2011 Comparative analysis of transposable
elements in the *melanogaster* subgroup sequenced genomes. Gene 473: 100–9.
Leslie L. K., Cohen J. T., Newburger J. W., Alexander M. E., Wong J. B., *et al.*, 2010
Evolutionary flux of canonical microRNAs and mirtrons in Drosophila. Nat. Genet.
42: 6–10.
Levine M. T., Malik H. S., 2011 Learning to protect your genome on the fly. Cell 147:
1440–1441.
Li H., Durbin R., 2009 Fast and accurate short read alignment with Burrows-Wheeler
transform. Bioinformatics 25: 1754–60.
Lohe A. R., Moriyama E. N., Lidholm D. A., Hartl D. L., 1995 Horizontal transmission,
vertical inactivation, and stochastic loss of mariner-like transposable elements. Mol.
Biol. Evol. 12: 62–72.
Machado C. a, Haselkorn T. S., Noor M. a F., 2007 Evaluation of the genomic extent of
effects of fixed inversion differences on intraspecific variation and interspecific gene
flow in Drosophila pseudoobscura and Drosophila persimilis. Genetics 175: 1289–
306.
Maruyama K., Hartl D. L., 1991 Evolution of the transposable element Mariner in
Drosophila Species. Genet. Soc. Am. 128: 319–329.
Noor M. a F., Garfield D. a, Schaeffer S. W., Machado C. a, 2007 Divergence between
the Drosophila pseudoobscura and D. persimilis genome sequences in relation to
chromosomal inversions. Genetics 177: 1417–28.
Obbard D. J., Gordon K. H. J., Buck A. H., Jiggins F. M., 2009 The evolution of RNAi as
a defence against viruses and transposable elements. Philos. Trans. R. Soc. Lond.
B. Biol. Sci. 364: 99–115.
Palmieri N., Kosiol C., Schlötterer C., 2014 The life cycle of *Drosophila* orphan genes.
Elife 3: 1–21.
Peccoud J., Loiseau V., Cordaux R., Gilbert C., 2017 Massive horizontal transfer of
transposable elements in insects. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. 114: 4721–4726.
Petrov D. a, Fiston-Lavier A.-S., Lipatov M., Lenkov K., González J., 2011 Population
genomics of transposable elements in *Drosophila melanogaster*. Mol. Biol. Evol.
28: 1633–1644.
Price A. L., Jones N. C., Pevzner P. a., 2005 De novo identification of repeat families in
large genomes. Bioinformatics 21: 351–358.
Quinlan A. R., Hall I. M., 2010 BEDTools: a flexible suite of utilities for comparing
genomic features. Bioinformatics 26: 841–2.
Rahman R., Chirn G.-W., Kanodia A., Sytnikova Y. A., Brembs B., *et al.*, 2015 Unique
transposon landscapes are pervasive across Drosophila melanogaster genomes.

Nucleic Acids Res. 43: 10655–72.

Richards S., Liu Y., Bettencourt B. R., Hradecky P., Letovsky S., *et al.*, 2005
Comparative genome sequencing of *Drosophila pseudoobscura*: chromosomal,
gene, and cis-element evolution. Genome Res. 15: 1–18.

Rius N., Guillén Y., Delprat A., Kapusta A., Feschotte C., *et al.*, 2016 Exploration of the
Drosophila buzzatii transposable element content suggests underestimation of
repeats in Drosophila genomes. BMC Genomics 17: 344.

Sackton T. B., Hartl D. L., 2013 Meta-Analysis Reveals that Genes Regulated by the
Preferentially Localized to Repressive Chromatin. Genome Biol. Evol. 5: 255–266.

Sánchez-Gracia A., Maside X., Charlesworth B., 2005 High rate of horizontal transfer of
transposable elements in Drosophila. Trends Genet. 21: 200–203.

Schneider T. D., Stephens R. M., 1990 Sequence logos: a new way to display
consensus sequences. Nucleic Acids Res. 18: 6097–6100.

Sessegolo C., Burlet N., Haudry A., Biémont C., Vieira C., *et al.*, 2016 Strong
phylogenetic inertia on genome size and transposable element content among 26
species of flies. Biol. Lett. 12: 521–524.

Smit A. F. A., Hubley R., 2008 RepeatModeler Open-1.0.

Sniegowski P. D., Charlesworth B., 1994 Transposable element numbers in
cosmopolitan inversions from a natural population of Drosophila melanogaster.
Genetics 137: 815–827.

Tajima F., 1989 Statistical method for testing the neutral mutation hypothesis by DNA
polymorphism. Genetics 123: 585–595.

Tarailo-Graovac M., Chen N., 2009 Using RepeatMasker to identify repetitive elements
in genomic sequences. Curr. Protoc. Bioinforma.

Vieira C., Lepetit D., Dumont S., Biémont C., 1999 Wake up of transposable elements
following *Drosophila simulans* worldwide colonization. Mol. Biol. Evol. 16: 1251–5.

Yang Z., 2007 PAML 4: Phylogenetic analysis by maximum likelihood. Mol. Biol. Evol.
24: 1586–1591.