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## **A-to-I RNA editing uncovers hidden signals of adaptive genome evolution in animals**

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35           **Abstract**

36           **In animals, the most common type of RNA editing is the deamination of adenosines**  
37 **(A) into inosines (I). Because inosines base-pair with cytosines (C), they are interpreted as**  
38 **guanosines (G) by the cellular machinery and genomically encoded G alleles at edited sites**  
39 **mimic the function of edited RNAs. The contribution of this hardwiring effect on genome**  
40 **evolution remains obscure. We looked for population genomics signatures of adaptive**  
41 **evolution associated with A-to-I RNA edited sites in humans and *Drosophila melanogaster*.**  
42 **We found that single nucleotide polymorphisms at edited sites occur 3 (humans) to 15 times**  
43 **(*Drosophila*) more often than at unedited sites, the nucleotide G is virtually the unique**  
44 **alternative allele at edited sites and G alleles segregate at higher frequency at edited sites**  
45 **than at unedited sites. Our study reveals that coding synonymous and nonsynonymous as**  
46 **well as silent and intergenic A-to-I RNA editing sites are likely adaptive in the distantly related**  
47 **human and *Drosophila* lineages.**

48

49           **Introduction**

50           Through a single nucleotide modification, A-to-I RNA editing may impact the stability of  
51 the corresponding RNA molecule, recode the original protein sequence, and eventually  
52 modulate its biological function. The role of RNA editing in animal evolution is not well  
53 understood. A widely accepted hypothesis suggests that A-to-I RNA editing at nonsynonymous  
54 sites would entail a selective advantage over a genomic G nucleotide, as it increases the  
55 transcriptome diversity without affecting the genomically encoded A phenotype in tissues  
56 where editing does not occur[1–3]. This hypothesis predicts that edited A nucleotide sites will

57 be rarely substituted by G nucleotides compared to unedited A sites (hypothesis H1, Table 1).  
58 Contrary to this prediction, it was shown that A-to-G nucleotide substitutions between species  
59 are more frequent at edited sites than at unedited sites[4,5]. An alternative hypothesis  
60 (hypothesis H2, Table1) suggests that nonsynonymous A-to-G nucleotide substitutions between  
61 species are more tolerated (i.e., less deleterious) at edited sites than at unedited sites[4],  
62 explaining the difference in A-to-G substitution rates. Finally, a third hypothesis (hypothesis H3,  
63 Table1) proposes that G nucleotide sites are the ancestral state of currently edited A sites, and  
64 that A-to-I RNA editing is a compensation mechanism to reverse the harmful A phenotype  
65 caused by G-to-A mutations[5–7]. However, the fact that the editing level is far below 100% (for  
66 instance, in *D. melanogaster* the average editing level is 23%[8]) suggests that A-to-I RNA  
67 editing would rarely overcome the deleterious effects of the G-to-A mutations. In any case,  
68 each hypothesis predicts different evolutionary outcomes for the non-synonymous edited sites  
69 compared to unedited sites (Table 1).

70

71 To our knowledge, most studies have applied a phylogenetic approach to detect  
72 footprints of adaptive evolution of A-to-I RNA editing at coding regions[9–12]. Here, we employ  
73 a population genomics approach to search for signatures of selection in both coding and non-  
74 coding regions of the genome. To this end, we integrated the *D. melanogaster* and human  
75 editomes into population genomics data and investigated the population genetic patterns of  
76 the A-to-I RNA editing sites. Our study contradicts several predictions from previously  
77 suggested hypotheses and suggests a new adaptive role of A-to-I RNA editing in *Drosophila* and  
78 humans.

79

## 80 **Results**

### 81 **Polymorphism patterns suggest adaptive editing in *Drosophila***

82 We analyzed *D. melanogaster* genome data from the *Drosophila* Genetics Reference  
83 Panel 2 (DGRP2)[13], consisting of 205 sequenced inbred lines derived from Raleigh (NC), U. S.  
84 A., and two additional wild populations collected in Florida (FL) and Maine (ME), U. S. A.,  
85 consisting of 39 and 86 pool-sequenced inbred lines, respectively[14]. We investigated genome-  
86 wide nucleotide polymorphisms across more than 171 million nucleotide sites, 3,581 of them  
87 corresponding to known edited sites occurring in 1,074 genes[8]. We found that 15% (FL and  
88 ME) to 21% (DGRP2) of the edited sites are polymorphic, in sharp contrast to the 1% to 2%  
89 found among unedited sites (Table 2). This result does not support hypothesis H1 (Table 1),  
90 which predicts reduced polymorphisms at edited sites, but may be compatible with the  
91 hypotheses H2 and H3 (Table 1) which predict similar or slightly increased polymorphism at  
92 edited sites. Thus, according to the original study from where hypothesis H2 is derived[4], A-to-  
93 G nonsynonymous substitutions at edited sites are twice as frequent compared to  
94 nonsynonymous unedited sites ( $6.92\% / 2.98\% = 2.32$ ). Although this study[4] compares  
95 humans and mice (not *Drosophila*), the 2.32-fold difference is far below the 10- (DGRP2) to 15-  
96 fold (FL and ME) increase in polymorphic rate at edited sites. We did not find a clear  
97 quantitative prediction for hypothesis H3[5–7]. Remarkably, we found that the G nucleotide is  
98 the alternative allele in at least 98% of the polymorphic edited sites (including both silent and  
99 non-synonymous ones), but only in ~47% of the unedited polymorphic sites (Table 2). The  
100 percentage of each polymorphism type at unedited sites fits the transition (A-to-G) and

101 transversion mutation (A-to-C and A-to-T) frequencies in *Drosophila*[15]. This result seems  
102 incompatible with hypotheses H1-H3 as all polymorphism types should be found, at least at  
103 silent edited sites (Table 1).

104

105         These observations hold two important implications: 1) because C and T alleles are  
106 virtually absent at edited sites, A-to-I RNA editing is functionally constrained and likely adaptive  
107 relative to C and T, and 2) unless the A-to-G mutation rate is much higher at edited sites than at  
108 unedited sites due to an unknown molecular mechanism, the 10 to 15-fold increase in  
109 nucleotide polymorphism indicate that the G allele is likely adaptive at edited sites (hypothesis  
110 H4, Table1). We thus looked for additional evidence supporting the adaptive hypothesis.

111

#### 112         **Derived G alleles at edited sites are likely adaptive in *Drosophila***

113         Among the 3,581 edited sites in *Drosophila*, 1,015 are protein coding nucleotides.  
114 Because of the potential deleterious effects caused by mutations in coding regions, nucleotide  
115 polymorphisms in such regions are expected to be similar or even lower than in noncoding  
116 regions[16]. This is what we see for unedited sites, where nucleotide polymorphisms remain at  
117 2% (DGRP2) or even decreases from 1% to 0.5% (FL and ME; S1 Table). In contrast, nucleotide  
118 polymorphism at edited sites increases, on average, from 17% to 25% if we only consider  
119 coding regions. In other words, edited sites show a 16- to 44-times higher polymorphic rate  
120 than unedited sites at coding regions (S1 Table). This observation is not predicted by the  
121 hypotheses H1-H3 (Table 1) and prompted us to further investigate the relative contribution of  
122 nonsynonymous and synonymous replacements to nucleotide polymorphism at edited and

123 unedited sites.

124

125 To understand the A,G polymorphism on a genome wide scale, we scanned the  
126 reference genome for coding A sites where a G mutation would result in a synonymous change.  
127 We found  $S = 777,461$  A sites in the reference genome that would result in synonymous  
128 changes if replaced by G, 84,246 of which are actual synonymous A,G polymorphisms in the  
129 DGRP2 population, thus leading to a genomic rate of synonymous A,G polymorphisms  $f_s^{DGRP2} =$   
130  $84,246 / S = 0.108$ . Similarly, we computed for edited sites the rate of synonymous A,G  
131 polymorphisms (251) per potentially synonymous A,G site ( $S^{edited} = 370$ ) as  $f_s^{edited,DGRP2} = 251 /$   
132  $S^{edited} = 0.678$ . For the FL and ME populations we computed  $f_s^{edited,FL} = 0.524$ ,  $f_s^{FL} = 0.029$  and  
133  $f_s^{edited,ME} = 0.511$ ,  $f_s^{ME} = 0.027$ , respectively. Therefore, the rate of synonymous A,G  
134 polymorphisms for edited sites is 6 to 19 times higher than for unedited sites in *Drosophila*. This  
135 result is rather inconsistent with hypotheses H1-H3 (Table 1) that predict similar rates of  
136 synonymous polymorphism at edited and unedited sites. Remarkably, for nonsynonymous sites,  
137 the differences between rates are even more pronounced:  $f_n^{edited,DGRP2} = 0.105$  and  $f_n^{DGRP2} =$   
138  $0.007$ , which implies a 15-fold increased rate for edited nonsynonymous sites in DGRP2, while  
139 for the ME and FL populations the rate increase is 45-fold and 51-fold, respectively (Table 3).

140

141 A common way to determine the evolutionary force driving coding sequence evolution  
142 is the ratio of the number of nonsynonymous substitutions per nonsynonymous site ( $d_N$ ) to the  
143 number of synonymous substitutions per synonymous site ( $d_S$ ). The estimates of  $f_s$  and  $f_n$  fall  
144 within the distribution of  $d_S$  (0.030 – 0.128; 5<sup>th</sup> and 95<sup>th</sup> percentiles, respectively) and  $d_N$  (0.000

145 – 0.022; minimum and 95<sup>th</sup> percentile, respectively) estimations for *D. melanogaster* genes[17].  
146 We therefore applied the same reasoning behind the  $d_N / d_S$  ratio[18] to our  $f_S$  and  $f_n$   
147 estimations. This is: if selection does not act on synonymous sites, then  $f_n^{edited} / f_S^{edited} > 1$  may  
148 be considered as an evidence of positive selection on nonsynonymous edited sites. However,  
149 the large polymorphism rate that we observe for edited sites and the fact that  $f_S^{edited(mean)} \sim 14 \times$   
150  $f_S^{mean}$  indicates that edited synonymous sites are not neutral but likely adaptive due to the  
151 pervasive roles of RNA editing in the posttranscriptional regulation of gene expression[19,20].  
152 We therefore used  $f_S^{mean} = 0.055$  as the neutral rate for synonymous A,G polymorphisms in the  
153 genome, and obtained  $f_n^{edited(mean)} / f_S^{mean} = 1.34$  ( $P = 0.012$ , one-sided Binomial test for the null  
154 hypothesis  $f_n^{edited(mean)} \leq f_S^{mean}$ ). We conclude that the alleles encoding the same protein variant  
155 that is obtained through A-to-I RNA editing are likely adaptive.

156  
157 According to population genetics theory, if the G alleles at polymorphic edited sites  
158 were adaptive, they would segregate at higher frequencies than G alleles at unedited sites  
159 originated at the same time[21]. This effect should be detectable by comparing the allele  
160 frequency spectrum for edited and unedited A,G polymorphisms. We used *D. simulans*  
161 population genomics data[16] to infer the ancestral state (i.e., polarize) of the polymorphic A-  
162 sites across the genome in the DGRP2 population and to be confident that the derived G alleles  
163 at edited and unedited sites are of similar age. We detected 462,498 A-to-G polymorphisms  
164 across the genome where the (derived) G allele most likely originated in *D. melanogaster's*  
165 lineage, 303 of them occurring at edited sites (S2 Table). Fig 1a displays the allele frequency  
166 spectrum of the derived G alleles at edited and unedited A-to-G polymorphic sites. Remarkably,

167 the frequency spectrum for the derived G alleles at edited sites is shifted to the right and quite  
168 distinct from that of unedited sites and from the expected allele frequency spectrum under  
169 neutral evolution, indicating that a significant fraction of A-to-G mutations at edited sites is  
170 likely adaptive. Our analysis in FL and ME populations supports this observation (S1 and S2  
171 Figs). Because 266 (i.e., 88%) of the 303 polarized polymorphisms correspond to non-coding  
172 edited sites, the allele frequency spectrum analysis reveals a likely functional role of noncoding  
173 edited sites and endorses the use of  $f_s^{mean} = 0.055$  as the neutral rate for A, G polymorphisms in  
174 the genome (see previous paragraph). This result is incompatible with the hypotheses H2 and  
175 H3, as the frequency spectrum for the derived G-allele at non-coding edited sites should fit the  
176 neutral expectation (Table 2).

177

### 178 **Differentiated genomic footprints around edited and unedited sites in *Drosophila***

179 Two different scenarios may explain the higher frequency of the derived G allele at  
180 edited sites: directional selection in favor of the G allele or long-term balancing selection. We  
181 further looked for genomic signatures across the polarized polymorphisms that helped us to  
182 distinguish between these two scenarios.

183

184 According to the theory of selective sweeps, a new adaptive mutation appears on a  
185 single haplotype that quickly goes to fixation due to directional selection. The hallmark of a  
186 selective sweep is a reduction of nucleotide diversity near the adaptive mutation[22].

187 Accordingly, if the G allele at edited sites is positively selected, we expect reduced nucleotide  
188 diversity in genomic regions around polymorphic edited sites compared to unedited sites. We

189 computed the number of single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) in 10kb windows centered on  
190 edited A-to-G polymorphisms across the genome and tested whether these windows had the  
191 same nucleotide diversity than those centered on unedited A-to-G polymorphisms (Fig 1b). The  
192 average number of SNPs are 346, 125 and 116 for windows centered on edited sites (DGRP, FL  
193 and ME, respectively) and 398, 144 and 131 for windows centered on unedited sites (DGRP, FL  
194 and ME, respectively). Such a reduction of nucleotide diversity is significant in the three  
195 populations ( $P < 10^{-4}$  for each paired comparison; one-sided Mann-Whitney-U test) and a  
196 similar reduction of diversity is observed for 1kb windows (S3 Fig).

197  
198 Another prediction of directional selection is that, because the adaptive G allele  
199 increases in frequency relatively fast, it will locate on an unusually long haplotype of low  
200 nucleotide diversity[23]. On the other hand, the haplotypes carrying the original A allele should  
201 be shorter than the haplotypes carrying the adaptive G allele but of similar length to haplotypes  
202 from a neutral genomic background. We used the genotypes of the 205 inbred lines from the  
203 DGRP2 to compute the integrated haplotype score (iHS)[23], an index that compares the  
204 extended homozygosity of the haplotypes carrying the derived G allele with that of the  
205 ancestral A allele. The iHS values at unedited A-to-G polymorphism (median iHS = 0.003)  
206 indicate that the haplotypes carrying the alleles at unedited SNPs have the same length and are  
207 likely neutral[23]. In contrast, the negative median iHS = -0.202 at edited A-to-G polymorphism  
208 (Fig 1c) indicate unusually long haplotypes carrying the derived G allele and suggest that these  
209 haplotypes have increased in frequency faster than neutral expectation. However, when testing  
210 one edited site at a time, only 12 of the iHS values are significant ( $P < 0.05$ , one-sided t-test for

211 the null hypothesis  $iHS^{\text{edited}} \leq iHS^{\text{unedited}}$ ), revealing the limitations of our analysis (see Discussion  
212 for further details).

213

214 The reduced nucleotide diversity near the edited A-to-G polymorphism and the longer  
215 haplotypes carrying the derived G alleles at edited sites is inconsistent with long term balancing  
216 selection, as a prediction of balancing selection is a local increase in nucleotide diversity[24]. To  
217 further evaluate long term balancing selection as one reason for the higher population  
218 frequency of the derived G allele at edited sites, we tested whether the local increase in  
219 nucleotide diversity relative to nucleotide divergence (i.e., fixed differences between species) is  
220 stronger near polymorphic edited sites than near polymorphic unedited sites[24]. To do so, we  
221 gathered a total of 100 nucleotide sites upstream and downstream of the polarized A-to-G  
222 polymorphisms across the genome, where a site is either a SNP or a fixed difference between  
223 *D. melanogaster* and *D. simulans*. For each window, we computed a log-likelihood ratio (LLR)  
224 that compares a balancing selection model against a neutral model based on the background  
225 genome pattern of polymorphisms[24]. Our analysis shows that the likelihood of the balancing  
226 selection model relative to that of the neutral model is lower in windows centered on A-to-G  
227 polymorphic edited sites than in windows centered on A-to-G polymorphic unedited sites (Fig  
228 1d). The average LLRs comparing both models are 78, 120 and 111 for windows centered on A-  
229 to-G edited sites (DGRP2, FL and ME, respectively) and 83 and 136 for windows centered on A-  
230 to-G unedited sites (DGRP2 and both FL and ME, respectively). This result indicates that the  
231 signal of balancing selection is less prominent at A-to-G edited sites than at A-to-G unedited  
232 sites.

233

234 **Differentiated polymorphism pattern and allele frequency spectrum between edited**  
235 **and unedited sites of *Alu* repeats**

236 We further applied our comparative analysis in humans to determine whether the  
237 selective footprints found in *Drosophila* were unique to this lineage or, otherwise common  
238 between these two distantly related species. Because the human genome is about two orders  
239 of magnitude larger than *Drosophila's*, several difficulties arose, in particular: the list of (coding)  
240 edited sites is proportionally shorter than in *Drosophila* (in part due to the filtering by SNPs that  
241 is normally done to annotate the human editome) and the proportion of homologous  
242 nucleotide sites sequenced in other apes' genomes (needed to polarize polymorphisms) is  
243 greatly reduced. Consequently, our approach in humans is inevitably more challenging and  
244 limited than in *Drosophila*. For instance, in our first attempt to apply our approach to humans,  
245 we integrated a recent list of 2,042 known coding edited sites[9] into a population genomics  
246 database compiled from the 1,000 Genomes Project[25] and the Great Ape Genome  
247 Project[26]. However, only 10 of the 2,042 edited sites were represented in our database,  
248 impeding any further genome-wide analysis.

249

250 Because humans have more than a million copies of *Alu*[27] and virtually all adenosines  
251 within *Alu* repeats that form double-stranded RNA undergo A-to-I editing[28], we used our  
252 population genomic approach on *Alus*. By using *Alus* we are limiting our analysis to silent (most  
253 genic *Alu* repeats occur in introns and 3' UTRs) and intergenic A sites, but we gain in numbers  
254 enough to look for genome-wide polymorphism patterns. With this in mind, we analyzed RNA-

255 Seq data from 105 control (healthy) breast samples from The Cancer Genome Atlas (TCGA) and  
256 annotated *de novo* a list of 28,322 highly-edited sites at *Alu* repeats, 1,838 of them represented  
257 in our database (1,208 genic and 630 intergenic; Table 2). Remarkably, we found a 3-fold  
258 increase in the nucleotide polymorphism at edited *Alu* sites (19%) compared to unedited *Alu* A-  
259 sites (6%) located in genes. In addition, the G nucleotide is the alternative allele in 97% of the  
260 polymorphic edited sites, but only in 58% of the unedited polymorphic sites (Table 2). We used  
261 chimpanzee and bonobo population genomic data to infer the ancestral state of the A,G  
262 polymorphisms occurring at genic *Alus*, and compared the frequency spectrum of the derived G  
263 alleles segregating at edited and unedited sites. Fig 1e shows that derived G alleles at edited  
264 sites segregate at higher frequency than derived G alleles at unedited sites. Notably, we  
265 observed a similar nucleotide polymorphism pattern (Table 2) and allele frequency spectrum  
266 (S5 Fig) for edited sites in intergenic *Alu* repeats. Our study in humans therefore confirms our  
267 results in *Drosophila* and suggest that a significant fraction of A-to-G mutations at edited sites is  
268 also adaptive in humans, including those occurring in intergenic regions.

269

## 270 **Discussion**

271 The binary classification (edited/unedited) of *Drosophila* and human population  
272 genomic data based on a posttranscriptional modification uncovered an evolutionary footprint  
273 that, otherwise, would remain hidden. Several of these footprints seem incompatible with the  
274 current hypotheses on the evolution of A-to-I RNA editing and prompt us to suggest an  
275 additional hypothesis that may better explain our results.

276

277           The extraordinary differences of the polymorphic rates and polymorphism types  
278 between edited and unedited sites are very unlikely affected by differences in the usage of  
279 synonymous codons (Fig 2a), gene expression level (Fig 2b) or recombination rates (Fig 2c and  
280 S4 Fig) between edited and unedited sites. Higher GC biased gene conversion (i.e., the unequal  
281 exchange of genetic material between homologous loci) is also an unlikely source of bias as  
282 there is no GC biased gene conversion in *Drosophila*[29] and we restricted our analysis in  
283 human to A-sites of *Alu* elements, ensuring identical local sequence for both edited and  
284 unedited sites. In addition, we did not find significant differences in the nucleotide composition  
285 around edited and unedited A-sites in *D. melanogaster* that might suggest context-driven local  
286 mutation rates (Fig 2d). Finally, we found similar results for *Drosophila* and human out of  
287 different editing annotation strategies and population genomic datasets, suggesting that  
288 annotation artifacts are not likely affecting our analysis.

289  
290           The fact that the nucleotides C and T are virtually absent at edited sites suggest strong  
291 functional constraints upon edited A-sites in humans and flies. This implies that the relative  
292 fitness ( $s$ ) of edited A-sites is much higher than that of the alternative C and T alleles ( $s_A \gg s_{C,T}$ ).  
293 In addition, the fact that derived G alleles at edited A-sites segregate at higher frequencies than  
294 expected (Fig 1a and 1e) indicates that the A-to-G mutations at edited sites are generally  
295 adaptive. In other words:  $s_G > s_A \gg s_{C,T}$  at edited sites. These two observations are also difficult  
296 to explain according to the current hypotheses on editing and shed light on the adaptive roles  
297 of the G mutations at edited sites and on the A-to-I RNA editing itself. Our hypothesis is that a  
298 genomically encoded G nucleotide is generally adaptive at edited sites because it mimics the

299 function of the edited RNA. This implies that A-to-I RNA editing is also generally adaptive  
300 (hypothesis H4, Table 1). If A-to-I RNA editing were not adaptive, the G allele would not reveal  
301 signatures of adaptation and C and T alleles would be also found at edited SNPs (both coding  
302 and non-coding).

303

304         We showed that directional selection in favor of the derived G allele is more likely than  
305 balancing selection acting at A,G polymorphic edited sites. However, the evidence is weak for  
306 several reasons. First, we can only analyze incomplete selective sweeps because we do not  
307 know which G nucleotide sites currently fixed in *D. melanogaster* were edited A-sites in the  
308 past. Second, the selection strength may depend on the dominance of the derived G allele. For  
309 instance, it is likely that the dominance has a more prominent effect at nonsynonymous G  
310 mutations than at silent mutations. Third, although directional selection may be more  
311 prominent, balancing selection may still occur at some edited sites. Despite these limitations,  
312 by averaging over many sites, the footprint for directional selection, and not balancing  
313 selection, becomes more evident (but not conclusive).

314

315         The adaptive potential of A-to-I RNA editing by modifying the protein sequence have  
316 been recently proven. Garrett and Rosenthal[30] showed that the editing level of the mRNA  
317 encoding the octopus' potassium Kv1 channels correlates with the water temperature where  
318 the octopus' species were captured. Most importantly, a concomitant physiological  
319 amelioration at cold Antarctic temperatures indicates that RNA editing may play a significant  
320 role in thermal adaptation in this species. The important role of A-to-I RNA editing on

321 posttranscriptional regulation, including editing of genic *Alu* sequences[1], also suggest an  
322 adaptive potential of editing as a checkpoint to gene expression control. In summary, the  
323 adaptive role of the G mutation at edited sites may come in two ways: by encoding the same  
324 protein variant and “encoding” the same RNA secondary structure as in the edited RNA.

325

326         The adaptive role of the G mutations at edited A-sites of intergenic *Alu* repeats is less  
327 obvious to explain. It has been shown that ADAR1 mutants over-express genes containing  
328 edited *Alu* repeats and that *Alu* editing is involved in the nuclear retention of the cognate  
329 mRNA[31]. We suggest that A-to-I RNA editing (and A-to-G mutations mimicking the editing  
330 function) might be an adaptive mechanism to prevent the deleterious effect of  
331 retrotransposition of intergenic *Alu* repeats and could work in two flavors: 1) by silencing the  
332 expression of the *Alu* repeats or 2) by retaining the transcribed *Alu* repeats to impede their  
333 retrotranscription in the cytoplasm.

334

335         We expect that new population genomics data and new editome annotations will help  
336 us to find additional signs of positive selection in other animal classes and confirm the pervasive  
337 adaptive potential that A-to-I RNA editing offers to these two distantly related species, *D.*  
338 *melanogaster* and human. Our novel approach will hopefully help to expose similar genome-  
339 wide adaptive patterns associated with the expanding epitranscriptome landscape.

340

341 **Methods**

342 ***Population genomic data***

343 We downloaded the genotypes of the 205 inbred lines annotated in the *Drosophila*  
344 Genetic Reference Panel 2[13] (<http://dgrp2.gnets.ncsu.edu/>). In addition, we also analyzed  
345 pooled DNA-Seq data from *D. melanogaster* flies collected in 2010 from outbred populations in  
346 Maine (86 lines) and Florida (39 lines)[14]. We trimmed 101 bp paired-end reads with  
347 ConDeTri[32] using the following parameters: hq=20, lq=10, frac=0.8, minlen=50, mh=5, ml=1,  
348 and mapped with NextGenMap[33] the remaining reads longer than 50 bp to the *D.*  
349 *melanogaster* reference genome, release r5.40 (<ftp://ftp.flybase.net/genomes/>). Next, we  
350 removed reads with a mapping quality value lower than 20 with SAMtools[34]. We called SNPs  
351 for each dataset when the coverage was  $\geq 10$  at this nucleotide site and at least two reads  
352 carried the alternative allele.

353

354 A pileup from 6 *D. simulans*' sequenced genomes was downloaded from the *Drosophila*  
355 Population Genomics Project (<http://www.dpgp.org/>). We used UCSC's liftover tool[35] to  
356 convert dm2 coordinates into dm3 coordinates (BDGP Release 5).

357

358 Primate population genomic data was downloaded from the Great Ape Genome  
359 Project[26]. We converted the coordinates from hg18 to hg19 using liftover and used hg19  
360 nucleotide site ID to merge the Great Ape population genomics data with the human data from  
361 the 1,000 Genomes Project[25]. The merged population genomics database consists of  
362 179,546,112 entries indicating homologous nucleotide sites in great apes and allele frequency

363 information in humans.

364

### 365 ***A-to-I RNA editing data***

366 We used the latest annotation of the A-to-I RNA editing sites in *D. melanogaster*, which  
367 consists of 3,581 sites[8]. In this study, editing events were called when G allele expression was  
368 detected from a homozygous AA genotype. The potential editing sites were further confirmed  
369 by the absence of G allele expression at putative editing sites in ADAR<sup>-/-</sup> mutants generated  
370 from the same isogenic line.

371

372 We annotated *de novo* the A-to-I RNA editing sites occurring in *Alu* repeats in a  
373 conservative way. Briefly, we mapped RNA-Seq data from 105 control (healthy) breast tissue  
374 samples available at The Cancer Genome Atlas (TCGA) project (<http://cancergenome.nih.gov/>)  
375 against the human reference genome (hg19) with STAR aligner v2.3.0[36]. Only uniquely  
376 mapped reads with less than 5% mismatches were kept for further analysis, allowing us to test  
377 a total of 148,961,882 A sites for A-to-I RNA editing. For the purpose of this study, we defined a  
378 site to be edited if 1) the G allele were found at >1% of the reads in >50% of the breast samples  
379 and 2) the G allele was not found in the dbSNP (build 146) at frequency >0.5. Otherwise, the A  
380 site was defined as unedited. This definition allowed us to detect 28,322 highly edited sites out  
381 of the ~149 million A sites tested.

382

### 383 ***Polarizing A-to-G mutations in D. melanogaster and human***

384 We downloaded pairwise *D. melanogaster/D.simulans* axt alignment files from UCSC

385 (<http://hgdownload.soe.ucsc.edu/goldenPath/dm3/vsDroSim1/>). A script was generated to  
386 parse the alignment files and detect the homologous sites in *D. simulans* reference genome and  
387 in six additional *D. simulans* genomes downloaded from the *Drosophila* Population Genomics  
388 Project (<http://www.dpgp.org/>). A-to-G mutations were inferred to occur on the *D.*  
389 *melanogaster* lineage (DGRP, ME and FL populations) when the homologous site in the *D.*  
390 *simulans* lines was A (i.e., monomorphic in *D. simulans* population).

391

392 We parsed the pileup file from the Great Ape Genome Project and compiled the list of  
393 human A,G SNPs that likely originated by A-to-G mutation in the human lineage. The ancestral  
394 state of an A,G polymorphism was already inferred in the original study and stored in the pileup  
395 file as *node 18*[26].

396

### 397 ***Allele frequency spectrum***

398 Low coverage in pool-sequencing experiments may inflate the frequency estimation of  
399 alleles segregating at low frequencies. We tested for different coverage among edited and  
400 unedited polymorphisms and for a correlation between coverage and minor allele frequency in  
401 ME and FL populations. S2 Fig shows that the coverage is not different between edited and  
402 unedited sites and that allele frequency and coverage do not correlate. Therefore, we are  
403 confident that the higher frequency of the G allele in edited sites is not due to an artifact  
404 associated with coverage.

405

406 After polarizing the polymorphism data with *D. simulans*, we found 462,801, 110,844

407 and 125,807 A-to-G polymorphic sites in DGRP2, ME and FL populations, respectively, that most  
408 likely originated from A-to-G mutations. 303, 155 and 179 of these sites are edited sites in  
409 DGRP2, ME and FL populations, respectively (S2 Table).

410

411 For DGRP2 data, we computed the frequency of the derived G allele as  $\pi_G^{DGRP2} = GT_G /$   
412  $(GT_G + GT_A)$ , where  $GT_G$  and  $GT_A$  are the number of lines with genotype GG and genotype AA,  
413 respectively. For ME and FL populations, we computed the frequency of the G allele as  $\pi_G^{ME,FL} =$   
414  $g / r$ , as suggested for pool-sequencing data[37], where  $g$  is the number of DNA-Seq reads  
415 carrying the G allele and  $r$  is the total number of reads mapped at this site. To compute the  
416 allele frequency spectrum of the derived G alleles across the genome, we sampled 303, 155 and  
417 179 sites from the 462,801, 110,844 and 125,807 polarized A-to-G polymorphic sites in DGRP2,  
418 ME and FL populations, respectively. We repeated the sampling 100,000 times (per population)  
419 to compute the average distribution and the 95% confidence interval for each frequency class.  
420 The expected neutral allele frequency spectrum of the G alleles segregating at the edited sites  
421 was computed by plugging the 303, 155 and 179 allele frequencies into Kimura and Crow's  
422 formula[38]

$$423 \quad \Phi(x) = \theta(1-x)^{(\theta-1)x^{-1}},$$

424 where  $x$  is the allele frequency and  $\theta = 4N_e v$ . We used  $\theta = 0.007$ , as previously  
425 estimated for DGRP2[13,39], and ME and FL populations[14]. The expected neutral allele  
426 frequency spectrum fits the observed frequency spectrum of the 462,801, 110,844 and 125,807  
427 polarized unedited sites in DGRP2 (Fig 1a), ME and FL populations (S1 Fig). To plot the neutral  
428 allele frequency spectrum for Fig 1a, we only considered G alleles segregating at frequencies

429 higher than 1% and lower than 99%.

430

431 We polarized 176,311 tested A,G human polymorphisms occurring at genes that most  
432 likely originated from A-to-G mutations; 231 of them corresponded to edited sites in genes  
433 (Table 2). To compute the allele frequency spectrum of the G allele at genes, we sampled 231  
434 sites from the 176,311 unedited A,G polymorphisms. We repeated the sampling 100,000 times  
435 and compute the average allele frequency spectrum and the 95% confidence interval for each  
436 frequency class. We took the frequency of the G alleles from the 1,000 Genomes Project. With  
437 regards to intergenic regions, we polarized 196,140 tested A,G human polymorphisms that  
438 most likely originated from A-to-G mutations; 110 of them corresponded to edited sites (Table  
439 2). The sampling procedure was as explained for genic A,G polymorphism with sampling size  
440 110.

441

#### 442 ***Testing for balancing selection and directional selection***

443 To test for directional selection in favor of the derived G allele in edited sites, we first  
444 tested whether diversity was lower around edited sites than around unedited sites. To this aim,  
445 we counted the number of SNPs in windows of 10kb centered on each polarized A-to-G  
446 polymorphism. The ancestral allele was again determined based on data from *D. simulans*. We  
447 also used the recombination rate data from Ref.[40] to linearly interpolate local recombination  
448 for the 10kb windows. The distribution of local recombination rates at edited and unedited  
449 sites are essentially identical (S4 Fig), ruling out a bias in our diversity analyses caused by  
450 differences in recombination rates between edited and unedited sites.

451

452           We also computed the integrated haplotype score (iHS)[23] using the software rehh[41]  
453 as a second approach to test for directional selection in favor of the derived G allele in edited  
454 sites. G alleles raising rapidly due to strong selection will have less chances to accumulate new  
455 mutations around and will tend to have high levels of haplotype homozygosity extending much  
456 further than expected under a neutral model. The rationale of the iHS approach is therefore to  
457 test whether the derived G allele at an edited site tends to segregate on an unusually long  
458 haplotype of low diversity[23]. Because haplotypes cannot be inferred for pool-sequencing, we  
459 computed iHS only for the DGRP2 population. Negative values of iHS indicate unusually long  
460 haplotypes carrying the derived G allele compared to the ancestral A allele. Values of iHS close  
461 to zero indicate that the haplotypes carrying both the ancestral and the derived alleles are  
462 equally large and the tested SNP is likely neutral[23].

463

464           To scan for polymorphic sites under balancing selection, we used the software  
465 ballet[24]. Ballet combines intraspecies polymorphism and interspecies divergence with the  
466 spatial distribution of polymorphisms and substitutions around a selected site. The signature of  
467 balancing selection is that of a local increase in diversity relative to divergence, and a skew of  
468 the site frequency spectrum towards intermediate frequencies. The method outperforms both  
469 the HKA test and Tajima's D under a diverse set of demographic assumptions, such as a  
470 population bottleneck and growth[24]. We calculated a log-likelihood ratio (LLR) for each  
471 polymorphic site implemented in the test type T1. The input files for ME and FL population  
472 consisted of the polymorphic state inferred from the pool-sequencing data. Because ballet can

473 only handle a maximum of 100 lines, we used a random sample of 50 isogenic DGRP2 lines (Fig  
474 1d) and of 100 randomly sampled lines to carry out the LLR computation. The result obtained  
475 for 100 lines are similar to the result for 50 lines (not shown). We specified a window size of  
476 200 sites, as little is gained by incorporating information from additional sites[24], where a site  
477 is an intraspecies polymorphism or a divergent site. Divergent sites to *D. simulans* were defined  
478 as single nucleotide substitution: i.e., homologous non-polymorphic (fixed) sites that contain  
479 different nucleotides between *D. melanogaster* and *D. simulans*. Ballet also utilizes information  
480 regarding the recombination distance between sites. We used the recombination rate data  
481 from Ref.[40] to linearly interpolate recombination distance between two consecutive sites.

482

### 483 ***Estimation of $f_s$ and $f_n$***

484 To estimate  $f_s$  and  $f_n$  in *D. melanogaster*, we first compiled all A sites from the reference  
485 genome, release r5.40, and generated a variant call file with all potential A,G polymorphisms.  
486 We used this file as input to CooVar[42], which analyzed the effect of each A-to-G mutation in  
487 coding regions. The output files were integrated into the DGRP2, FL and ME polymorphism  
488 database to identify the potential A,G synonymous and nonsynonymous polymorphism that are  
489 actual A,G polymorphisms.

490

### 491 ***Gene expression and codon usage data***

492 We download gene expression data from the GEO (acc. GSE67505). The expression data  
493 was obtained from pooled RNA-Seq data for the DGRP2 lines, as described in the original  
494 study[43]. The published expression tables are given separately for male and females in FPKM

495 units. To test for correlation between gene expression levels and non-random usage of codons  
496 (i.e., codon bias), we downloaded two measurements of codon bias (the effective number of  
497 codons or ENC and the frequency of optimal codons or FOP) from the sebida database[44] and  
498 fused the DGRP2 expression data with sebida data by means of the FlyBase gene IDs. Genes  
499 containing at least one edited site were coined edited genes and unedited genes otherwise.

500

### 501 ***Nucleotide profiles***

502 The nucleotide profile around edited sites was calculated as the fraction of A, C, G and T  
503 nucleotides at each nucleotide site upstream and downstream ( $\pm 10$  bp and  $\pm 1,000$  bp) the  
504 edited site. For the background data, we sampled  $a = 1,657$  genic A sites and  $t = 1,549$  T sites  
505 from the *D. melanogaster* genome, where  $a$  and  $t$  are the number of annotated edited sites in  
506 the direct and inverted strands, respectively, and repeated this operation 100 times to compute  
507 the fraction of each nucleotide type at each nucleotide position upstream and downstream the  
508 sampled A/T unedited sites.

509

510 **Data availability:** Computer code and data is available upon request to the authors.

511

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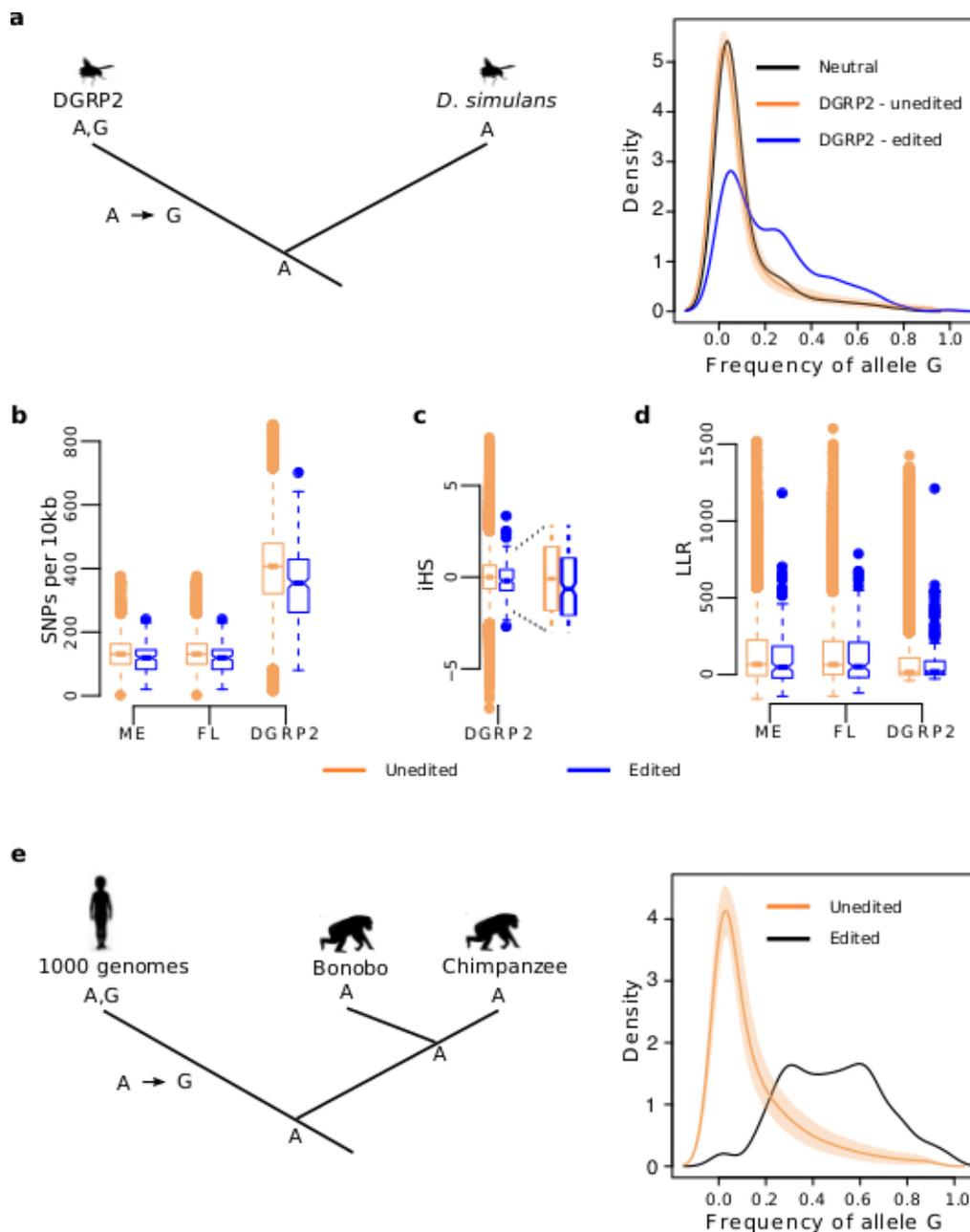
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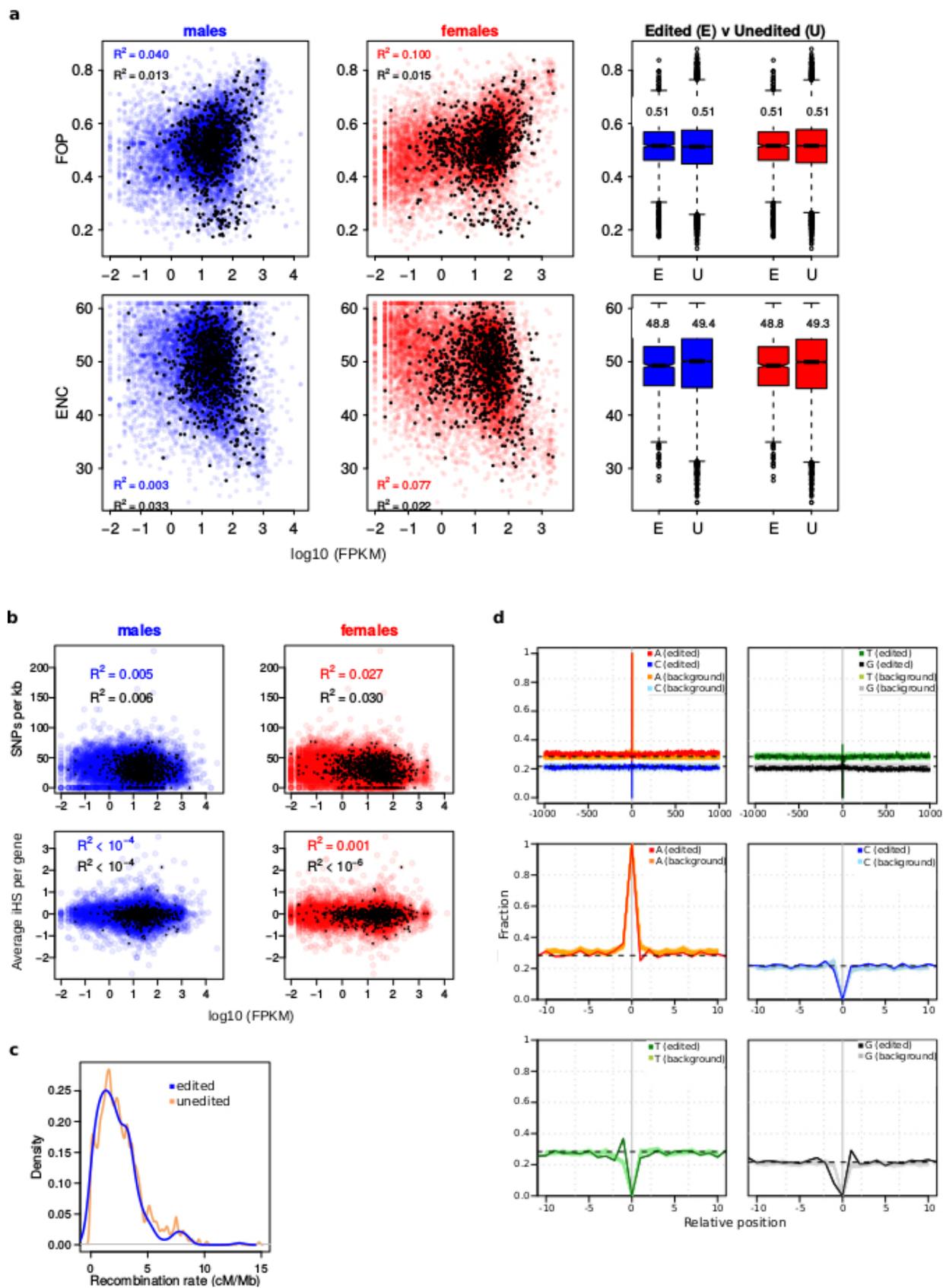
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**Fig 1. Properties of the G alleles segregating at edited sites in *D. melanogaster* and human. a,** We used *D. simulans* as an outgroup to infer the ancestral state of the A,G polymorphisms in *D. melanogaster*. The right panel shows the average frequency spectrum and 95% confidence interval of the derived G alleles at unedited sites (peach) and the frequency spectrum for the derived G alleles at edited sites (blue). The shift of the blue distribution towards higher G allele

frequencies is a signal of positive selection for the derived G alleles at edited sites. The black curve shows the expected frequency distribution of the derived G alleles at edited sites if they were neutral. **b**, Windows centered on polarized A-to-G mutations have lower diversity (in SNPs per 10kb) for edited SNPs than for unedited SNPs ( $P < 10^{-4}$  for each paired comparison; one-sided Mann-Whitney-U test). **c**, At polarized edited sites, the extended homozygosity of the haplotype carrying the derived G allele is longer than that of the haplotypes carrying the ancestral A allele (average *iHS* score  $< 0$ ). At unedited sites, the extended homozygosity is similar for both haplotypes (average *iHS* score  $\sim 0$ ).  $P = 0.004$ , one-sided Mann-Whitney-U test for the null hypothesis *iHS* (edited)  $\geq$  *iHS* (unedited). **d**, The LLR comparing a long-term balancing selection model versus a neutral model tend to be lower for edited sites than for unedited sites (expected to be higher if balancing selection were more prominent for edited sites).  $P \gg 0.05$  for each paired comparison; two-sided Mann-Whitney-U test. **e**, We used Bonobo and Chimpanzee as an outgroup to infer the ancestral state of the genic A,G polymorphisms in the human genome. The right panel shows that G alleles segregate at higher frequencies in edited sites (black line) than in unedited sites (peach).



**Fig 2. Control analyses for differences in polymorphic rates and polymorphism types as a byproduct of gene expression level, recombination rate and local sequence composition in *Drosophila*.** **a**, Bias in synonymous codon usage per gene is represented as a function of gene expression level in males (blue) and females (red). Gene expression level only explains 4% (males) to 10% (females) of the total variance in codon bias when measured as the frequency of optimal codons (FOP; the higher, the more biased) and 0.3% (males) to 7% (females) of the total variance in codon bias when measured as the effective number of codons (ENC; the lower, the more biased). The coefficient of determination for edited sites (black dots) is even lower than for unedited sites. Numbers in the boxplots refer to the mean. **b**, Nucleotide diversity (SNPs per kb per gene) and iHS (averaged per gene) does not correlate with gene expression level. Black dots: genes containing edited sites. Blue and red dots: unedited genes. **c**, Local recombination rates in 10 kb windows centered on edited (blue) and on unedited (peach) sites show identical distributions. **d**, Nucleotide profiles show that local sequence context around edited and unedited sites ( $\pm 1000$  bp and  $\pm 10$  bp) are virtually identical.

**Table 1. Hypotheses suggested for the evolution of A-to-I RNA editing target sites**

	Hypothesis			
	H1: Transcriptome diversity is beneficial (1-3)	H2: G is slightly deleterious (4)	H3: Compensatory hypothesis (5-7)	H4: Adaptive hypothesis (current study)
<b>Features</b>				
Ancestral state	A	A	G	A
Adaptive value of editing	Editing is adaptive because provides diversity to transcript population.	Editing is very deleterious and currently detected edited sites are generally slightly deleterious.	Editing is adaptive as it reverses the harmful effect of G-to-A mutations.	Editing is adaptive because A-to-I replacements are beneficial at these nucleotide sites.
Relative fitness (S) of the derived allele	$S_A > S_G \geq S_{C,T}$	$S_A \geq S_G \geq S_{C,T}$	$S_G \geq S_A > S_{C,T}$	$S_G > S_A \gg S_{C,T}$
<b>Population genetics predictions compared to unedited sites</b>				
Overall polymorphic rate	Polymorphism at edited sites should be <b>reduced</b> as A-to-G, A-to-C and A-to-T mutations are slightly deleterious.	Polymorphism at edited sites should be <b>slightly increased</b> as A-to-G mutations are slightly more tolerated than at unedited sites.	Polymorphism at edited sites should be <b>similar or slightly increased</b> as editing somehow reduces the deleterious effect of G-to-A mutations.	Polymorphism at edited sites should be <b>increased</b> as A-to-G mutations are largely adaptive.
Polymorphism type	<b>A,G should be slightly more frequent</b> than A,C and A,T polymorphisms at edited sites.	<b>A,G should be slightly more frequent</b> than A,C and A,T polymorphisms at edited sites.	<b>A,G should be slightly more frequent</b> than A,C and A,T polymorphisms at edited sites.	<b>A,C and A,T polymorphism should be rarely found.</b>
Polymorphic rate at coding regions	<b>Similar or reduced</b> at both edited and unedited sites due to potential deleterious effects at non-synonymous sites.	<b>Similar or reduced</b> at both edited and unedited sites due to potential deleterious effects at non-synonymous sites.	<b>Similar or reduced</b> at both edited and unedited sites due to potential deleterious effects at non-synonymous sites.	<b>Increased</b> at edited sites as the G allele mimics the protein variant obtained through editing.
Synonymous polymorphic rate	<b>Similar</b> at both edited and unedited sites.	<b>Similar</b> at both edited and unedited sites.	<b>Similar</b> at both edited and unedited sites.	<b>Increased</b> at edited sites.
Frequency spectrum of the derived allele	<b>Derived G</b> allele should segregate at <b>similar or lower</b> frequency (i.e., purifying selection or neutral at most).	<b>Derived G</b> allele should segregate at <b>similar</b> frequency (i.e., neutral or nearly neutral).	<b>Derived G</b> allele should segregate at <b>similar</b> frequency (i.e., neutral or nearly neutral).	<b>Derived G</b> allele should segregate at <b>higher</b> frequency.
Nucleotide diversity around edited sites	<b>Similar</b>	<b>Similar</b>	<b>Similar</b>	<b>Reduced</b>

References supporting each hypothesis are indicated between brackets. Predictions confirmed in this study are shaded in green.

**Table 2. Number of single nucleotide polymorphism sites and polymorphism types among edited and unedited sites in *Drosophila* populations and human.**

	DGRP2		Florida		Maine		Human - genic <sup>c</sup>		Human - intergenic <sup>c</sup>	
	edited	unedited <sup>b</sup>	edited	unedited	edited	unedited	edited	unedited	edited	unedited
<b>Polymorphic</b>	<b>755 (21%)</b>	3,951,070 (2%)	<b>543 (15%)</b>	1,367,160 (1%)	<b>507 (14%)</b>	1,235,454 (1%)	<b>231 (19%)</b>	176,080 (6%)	<b>110 (18%)</b>	196,030 (6%)
<b>Not polymorphic</b>	2,826 (79%)	171,048,930 (98%)	3,038 (85%)	118,920,513 (99%)	3,074 (86%)	119,052,219 (99%)	977 (81%)	2,811,804 (94%)	520 (82%)	3,017,246 (94%)
<b>Polymorphism<sup>a</sup> A,G</b>	<b>740 (98%)</b>	817,333 (45%)	<b>536 (99%)</b>	337,098 (48%)	<b>502 (99%)</b>	309,347 (49%)	<b>225 (97%)</b>	102,842 (58%)	<b>105 (96%)</b>	112,936 (58%)
<b>A,C</b>	3 (0%)	355,952 (20%)	1 (0%)	142,183 (21%)	0 (0%)	131,624 (20%)	4 (2%)	35,491 (21%)	3 (3%)	38,772 (20%)
<b>A,T</b>	12 (2%)	649,599 (35%)	6 (1%)	217,230 (31%)	5 (1%)	195,528 (31%)	2 (1%)	37,747 (21%)	2 (1%)	42,971 (22%)

a: Only biallelic polymorphisms

b: Assuming an average genome coverage of 175 Mb over the 205 lines[13]

c: Polarized data

In bold: increased proportion in edited sites compared to unedited sites

**Table 3. Potential A,G synonymous and nonsynonymous replacements in *Drosophila* populations.**

Population	Potential A,G synonymous replacements					Potential A,G nonsynonymous replacements				
	Edited ( $S^{edited} = 370$ )		Genome ( $S = 777,461$ )		Ratio	Edited ( $N^{edited} = 645$ )		Genome ( $N = 4,448,133$ )		Ratio
	Polymorphic	Rate ( $f_s^{edited}$ )	Polymorphic	Rate ( $f_s$ )	$f_s^{edited} / f_s$	Polymorphic	Rate ( $f_n^{edited}$ )	Polymorphic	Rate ( $f_n$ )	$f_n^{edited} / f_n$
DGRP2	251	0.678	84,246	0.108	6	68	0.105	29,727	0.007	15
ME	181	0.511	21,198	0.027	19	29	0.045	4,349	0.001	45
FL	194	0.524	22,603	0.029	18	33	0.051	4,647	0.001	51