

Diverse origins of high copy tandem repeats in grass genomes

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In studying genomic architecture, highly repetitive regions have historically posed a challenge when investigating sequence variation and content. High-throughput sequencing has enabled researchers to use whole-genome shotgun sequencing to estimate the abundance of repetitive sequence, and these methodologies have been recently applied to centromeres. Here, we utilize sequence assembly and read mapping to identify and quantify the genomic abundance of different tandem repeat sequences. Previous research has posited that the highest abundance tandem repeat in eukaryotic genomes is often the centromeric repeat, and we pair our bioinformatic pipeline with fluorescent *in-situ* hybridization data to test this hypothesis. We find that *de novo* assembly and bioinformatic filters can successfully identify repeats with homology to known tandem repeats. Fluorescent *in-situ* hybridization, however, shows that *de novo* assembly fails to identify novel centromeric repeats, instead identifying other potentially important repetitive sequences. Together, our results test the applicability and limitations of using *de novo* repeat assembly of tandem repeats to identify novel centromeric repeats. Building on our findings of genomic composition, we also set forth a method for exploring the repetitive regions of non-model genomes whose diversity limits the applicability of established genetic resources.

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ABSTRACT

In studying genomic architecture, highly repetitive regions have historically posed a challenge when investigating sequence variation and content. High-throughput sequencing has enabled researchers to use whole-genome shotgun sequencing to estimate the abundance of repetitive sequence, and these methodologies have been recently applied to centromeres. Here, we utilize sequence assembly and read mapping to identify and quantify the genomic abundance of different tandem repeat sequences. Previous research has posited that the highest abundance tandem repeat in eukaryotic genomes is often the centromeric repeat, and we pair our bioinformatic pipeline with fluorescent *in-situ* hybridization data to test this hypothesis. We find that *de novo* assembly and bioinformatic filters can successfully identify repeats with homology to known tandem repeats. Fluorescent *in-situ* hybridization, however, shows that *de novo* assembly fails to identify novel centromeric repeats, instead identifying other potentially important repetitive sequences. Together, our results test the applicability and limitations of using *de novo* repeat assembly of tandem repeats to identify novel centromeric repeats. Building on our findings of genomic composition, we also set forth a method for exploring the repetitive regions of non-model genomes whose diversity limits the applicability of established genetic resources.

Keywords: Centromere, tandem repeats, heterochromatin

INTRODUCTION

Sequencing technologies have facilitated genome assembly for many non-model organisms, bringing a tremendous amount of data to the field of comparative genomics. Assembly of repetitive regions is limited by shotgun sequencing, leading to overrepresentation of genic regions in assembled genomes. Though repetitive DNA was once disregarded as "junk DNA", research continues to unravel its many functions, spurring a growing interest in a better understanding of the evolutionary history and genomic composition of repeats (Consortium et al., 2012). Plant genomes can be highly repetitive, and individual repeat classes are often present at extremely high copy numbers in the genome (Pearce et al., 1996). Plant repeats can be classified in two broad categories: dispersed repeats derived from transposable elements (TEs) or tandemly repeated sequence. TE-derived repeats comprise the majority of many eukaryotic genomes and are recognized for their different modes of amplification, being divided into class I (RNA intermediate) or class II (DNA intermediate). TEs have been shown to impact gene expression (Waterland and Jirtle, 2003; Makarevitch et al., 2015) and chromatin status (Miura et al., 2001), functions which can have strong impacts on overall phenotype.

In comparison to the wealth of TE data across organisms, little is known about the function and evolutionary history of tandem repeats. Tandem repeats contribute fewer base pairs to the genome than TEs, but the total number of nucleotides derived from tandem repeats varies substantially across phylogenetic groups (Melters et al., 2013). Tandem repeats are commonly found in the gene poor but

47 structurally important telomeres and centromeres. Tandem repeats do not appear necessary for the
48 formation of centromeres (Jiang et al., 2003), however, and may instead serve as placeholders for an
49 epigenetic signal that governs heterochromatin formation (Kagansky et al., 2009) or function in repair
50 of double strand breaks (Wolfgruber et al., 2016). Tandem repeats are also found in other types of
51 heterochromatin such as the large chromosomal features known as knobs in the genus *Zea* and closely
52 related taxa (Albert et al., 2010). Knobs suppress local recombination (Chang and Kikudome, 1974))
53 and in some backgrounds are involved in meiotic drive (Buckler et al., 1999), but little is known of their
54 origin.

55 In an effort to better understand tandemly repeated sequence, researchers have applied a combination
56 of sequencing technologies and molecular biology. For example, studies that have paired chromatin
57 immunoprecipitation (ChIP) against centromere proteins with bioinformatic identification of repetitive
58 sequence have successfully identified centromere repeats (Gong et al., 2012; Neumann et al., 2012; Zhang
59 et al., 2014). However, high-throughput ChIP across a broad sample of taxa is difficult to perform, costly,
60 and labor intensive, leading some researchers to instead use bioinformatic approaches to explore whole
61 genome short read data. RepeatExplorer (Novák et al., 2013), for example, clusters reads to identify
62 repeat groups and their genomic abundance, and has been used in several studies to identify the repetitive
63 landscape of plant genomes (Weiss-Schneeweiss et al., 2015), and paired with ChIP data to identify
64 centromere clusters (Zhang et al., 2014). Taking a different approach, Melters *et al.* (Melters et al., 2013)
65 conducted *de novo* repeat assembly of published short read sequence data, using consensus sequences
66 to identify tandem repeats across 280 plant and animal species. One critical assumption of this latter
67 approach, however, was that the most abundant tandem repeat in all taxa was the centromere repeat. While
68 comparison to known repeats in several model organisms suggests this assumption works well for
69 animals, earlier work suggests that it may not apply broadly to plants. Using a similar pipeline and 454
70 shotgun reads from *Solanum* species, Torres *et al.* (Torres et al. (2011) identified two subtelomeric repeats
71 as the most abundant tandem repeats genome wide based on the highest frequency kmer.

72 Here, we apply the basic pipeline of tandem repeat consensus assembly to species within the An-
73 dropogoneae tribe of the grasses in order to better understand tandem repeat contribution to genomic
74 composition. The Andropogoneae tribe includes both maize and sorghum, two model organisms with
75 well-known repeats (Paterson et al., 2009; Schnable et al., 2009) that allow us to test the accuracy of our
76 method and the Melters et al. (2013) assumption regarding centromere repeat sequence and its genomic
77 abundance. Because previous work has shown that sequencing libraries prepared through identical
78 methods better retain relative composition of repeats (Bilinski et al., 2014), rather than use published data
79 we elect to re-sequence all the species used here. We examine genomic composition of highly abundant
80 tandem repeats across the phylogeny, determine their homology to known centromere repeats, and perform
81 fluorescent in-situ hybridization to test whether novel high abundance repeats show patterns consistent
82 with known centromere repeats. We show that the common assumption that the highest abundance tandem
83 repeat is centromeric is not supported in these taxa, but that *de novo* tandem repeat assembly can be used
84 to identify entirely novel repeats such as a knob-like repeat in *Arundinella*.

85 MATERIALS AND METHODS

86 Sequencing

87 Seed was requested from the GRIN database, and accession information is available in Suppl. Table
88 S1. DNA was isolated from leaf tissue using the DNeasy plant extraction kit (Qiagen) according to
89 the manufacturer's instructions. Samples were quantified using Qubit (Life Technologies) and 1ug of
90 DNA was fragmented using a bioruptor (Diagenode) with cycles of 30 seconds on, 30 seconds off. DNA
91 fragments were then prepared for Illumina sequencing. First, DNA fragments were repaired with the
92 End-Repair enzyme mix (New England Biolabs). A deoxyadenosine triphosphate was added at each
93 3' end with the Klenow fragment (New England Biolabs). Illumina Truseq adapters (Affymetrix) were
94 then added with the Quick ligase kit (New England Biolabs). Between each enzymatic step, DNA
95 was washed with sera-mags speed beads (Fisher Scientific). Samples were multiplexed using Illumina
96 compatible adapters with inline barcodes and sequenced in one lane of Miseq (UC Davis Genome Center
97 Sequencing Facility) for 150 paired-end base reads with an insert size of approximately 350 bases. Parsing
98 of reads was performed with in house scripts (All scripts for this and other processes are available at
99 https://github.com/paulbilinski/Github_centrepeat), and one pair of reads were
100 used for all analyses.

101 **Phylogenetic Tree Reconstruction**

102 We downloaded sequence data for two ribosomal inter-genic spacers and one chloroplast gene at NCBI
103 (sequences are available on github). Sequences were aligned using seven iterations of MUSCLE (Edgar,
104 2004), and concatenated in order to build a neighbor joining tree using Jukes-Cantor distance implemented
105 in Geneious (v5.4.4) (Kearse et al., 2012). The topology of the NJ tree broadly agrees with previously
106 published phylogenies (Wu and Ge, 2012; Skendzic et al., 2007), though variation exists where some
107 nodes are collapsed into polytomies.

108 **Assembly and Genomic Composition of Centromere Repeats**

109 To assemble contigs from low coverage sequence, we used MIRA (Chevreux et al. 1999, version 4.0; job
110 = genome,denovo,accurate, parameters = -highlyrepetitive -NW:cnfs=no -NW:mrnl=200 -HS:mnr=no).
111 We ran Tandem Repeat Finder (Benson, 1999) (TRF) on all assembled contigs to select only those that
112 contained tandem repeats. Parameters for TRF were Match = 2, Mismatch = 7, Indel = 7, Probability of
113 match = 80, Probability of indel = 10, Min score = 50, and Max period = 2000. To discover the percentage
114 of genomic composition of each tandemly repeated contig, we used Mosaik (Lee et al., 2014), which
115 stores information about multiply mapping reads (version 1.0; parameters optimized for tandem repetitive
116 elements as in (Bilinski et al., 2014)). Low coverage libraries (<0.1X) were mapped against the contigs
117 identified by TRF and contigs were ranked by the number of reads aligned. The top ranking contig was
118 extracted, and the number of reads aligning to it was recorded from the assembly ace files. We then
119 blasted (-evalue 1E-1 -outfmt 7 -max_target_seqs 15000 -task blastn) the top ranking contig against all
120 other TRF assemblies and removed assemblies with BLAST homology. This process was repeated 4 times
121 to identify the genomic composition of the 4 highest abundance tandem repeat groups. Finally, to estimate
122 the overall abundance of each of these four repeats, we mapped reads against a reference consisting of the
123 most abundant monomer and all polymers with homology to the monomer as determined by BLAST.

124 **Fluorescent In-Situ Hybridization**

125 Primers were designed from the computationally identified tandem repeats. Repetitive sequences were am-
126 plified using the genomic DNA isolated from the targeted species and labeled with digoxigenin-11-dUTP.
127 FISH was performed using published procedures (Jiang et al., 1995). Hybridization signals were detected
128 with rhodamine-conjugated anti-digoxigenin (Roche Diagnostics USA, Indianapolis, IN). Chromosomes
129 were counterstained with 4',6-diamidino-2-phenylindole (DAPI). The following primers were used on
130 the species indicated: *Arundinella* Primer F-CCATTCAAGAAATGGGTGTC A; *Arundinella* Primer R-
131 GCAAAGTACGAAAGCCAAAAT; *Urelytrum* Primer F-GCACTGGCCCTGAGAGAAAT; *Urelytrum*
132 Primer R- ACAGGCTTGGGTGGACAAAA; *Hyparrhenia* Primer F- GATCCGAAAGTCGCGAAACG;
133 *Hyparrhenia* Primer R- TTTTTCGCAACGAACGCACA. FISH was performed using published proce-
134 dures (Jiang et al., 1995).

135 **RESULTS**

136 Assembly of low depth Illumina data produced several thousand contigs in each species from our panel
137 (Fig. 1, and Supp. Table S1). From these, TRF identified between 300 and 15,000 tandem repeat
138 contigs in each taxon. The number of tandem repeat contigs varied across taxa based on coverage
139 and overall genomic repetitive content. Illumina data were mapped against tandem repeat contigs to
140 approximate abundance of tandem repeats in our panel (Fig. 2). Our taxa vary greatly in their total
141 tandem repeat content, ranging from over 13% to under 1%. We see high tandem repeat content across the
142 *Tripsacum* genus and in *Arundinella nepalensis*, though *Tripsacum* species show large variation. Based
143 on genome size estimates from the Kew C-Value database (<http://data.kew.org/cvalues/>),
144 the correlation between total tandem repeat content and genome size is poor ($r=0.05$, >0.05).

145 In order to investigate the proportional contribution of the most common tandem repeat classes in
146 each of our taxa, we ranked the mapping abundance of all post-TRF contigs. We used the number of reads
147 mapping to the top ranked contig as its abundance, and removed any similar contigs from our rankings
148 using BLAST homology (See methods for parameters). We repeated this for the top four tandem repeats
149 in each genome. Results showed that most taxa had one tandem repeat class at much higher abundance
150 than other tandem repeats (Fig. 3. In all taxa except for *Arundinella*, only the top contig exceeded 1%
151 of genomic composition. *Sorghum*, *Phyllostchys*, *Ischaemum*, and *Apluda* showed the largest difference
152 between the top ranked contig and the second ranked contig. In the sister genera *Zea* and *Tripsacum*,

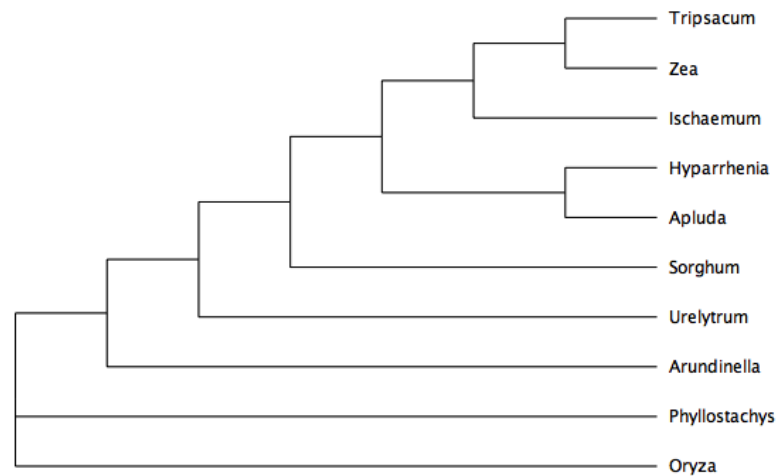


Figure 1. Neighbor joining tree of evolutionary relationships between the grasses studied.

Detailed discussion of relationships among these taxa is available in (Wu and Ge, 2012; Skendzic et al., 2007). *Oryza* and *Phyllostachys* are both outside the Andropogoneae tribe.

153 while the top ranked contig showed immense variation, the second ranked contig had a relatively constant
154 abundance near half a percent.

155 We tested the assumption that the most abundant repeat is centromeric (Melters et al., 2013) in
156 taxa with both known and uncharacterized centromere repeats. Among taxa with known centromere
157 repeats, the centromere repeats was found to be the most abundant tandem repeat in both *Oryza* and
158 *Sorghum*, but in *Zea* and *Tripsacum*, while the centromere repeat was among the four most abundant, the
159 highest abundance repeat came instead from heterochromatic knobs. While the centromere repeat was not
160 previously known for the genus *Apluda*, its highest abundance contig shared homology and a common
161 monomer repeat length with the *Sorghum* centromere repeat. The top-ranked contig in *Ischaemum* shared
162 a monomer length identical to *Sorghum*, but with no sequence homology. The top ranked contigs from
163 the remaining taxa in our panel bore no similarity to known centromere repeats. To test whether the
164 most abundance repeat in these taxa was centromeric, we performed fluorescent in situ hybridization
165 (FISH; Fig. 4), expecting spatial clustering of the probe in the interior (for metacentric) or end (for
166 acrocentric) of most if not all chromosomes. FISH from the *de novo* constructed repeat of *Hyparrhenia*
167 is widely dispersed across the genome, a pattern expected from a TE rather than a tandem repeat. In
168 contrast, the tandem repeat from *Urelytrum* showed strong spatial clustering, but clusters were not found
169 on all chromosomes and were associated with chromosome ends as might be expected from subtelomeric
170 sequence. The regions probed in *Urelytrum* did not associate with visible knobs, as they were not found
171 in regions of tightly packed heterochromatin. The probed repeat of *Arundinella* also showed subtelomeric
172 clustering, but clusters were found in highly compacted chromatin suggesting that the probe bound to a
173 knob-like repeat rather than a low copy subtelomeric repeat. The fact that *Arundinella* had the largest
174 proportion of its genome comprised of tandem repeats (Fig. 2) is also consistent with a knob-like origin
175 for this tandem repeat. While the knob repeat sequences in *Arundinella* had sequence lengths similar to
176 those in maize (approximately 180bp and 350bp), the sequences share no identity. Our *Arundinella* FISH
177 also showed that no single probe bound to all visible knobs. From these FISH results, we conclude that
178 genomic abundance is not uniformly predictive of centromere localization in the Andropogoneae.
179

180 DISCUSSION

181 Our analyses of *de novo* assembled tandem repeats in grasses provides insight into the utility of this
182 approach for studying the evolution of repetitive sequence. Most importantly, we show that previous
183 assumptions about repeat abundance and location within the centromere do not hold across all taxa. *De*
184 *novo* assembly to identify centromere repeats only functioned in species where repeats shared homology

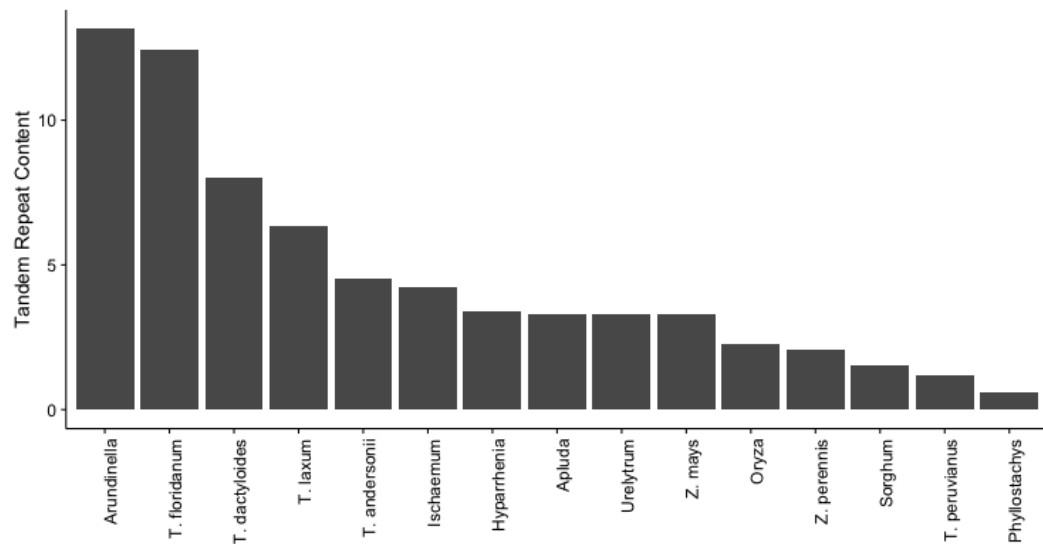


Figure 2. Percentage genomic composition of all tandem repeat contigs in monocot taxa. Values are derived from the proportion of all reads mapping to any tandemly repetitive contig derived from TRF after MIRA assembly. Species are ordered from highest to lowest percentage tandem repeat content.

185 to known centromere repeats. As our FISH data show, *de novo* assembly and abundance ranking identified
 186 non-centromeric repeats in all taxa whose most abundant repeat did not share homology with a known
 187 repeat. Given the inconsistency of abundance as a predictor of centromere localization, we believe the
 188 alternative method of chromatin immunoprecipitation with CenH3 proteins (ChiP) (Zhang et al., 2014) is
 189 likely a better method to reliably identify centromere repeats.

190 Though not ideal for centromere repeat identification, *de novo* assembly of tandem repeats can be an
 191 efficient, low cost method for characterizing repetitive content in non-model genomes, an area of study
 192 generally left untouched due to the difficulties of traditional assembly. Our assembly of *Arundinella*
 193 repeats serves as an example of evolutionary inferences that can be made regarding repeat sequences
 194 using this approach *Arundinella*, sister to all other species in this study, has two highly abundant tandem
 195 repeats that do not share homology to any annotated genetic sequence. Our cytological work suggests that
 196 these two sequences derive from knob-like heterochromatin. Knobs are associated with meiotic drive in
 197 maize (Dawe and Cande, 1996) and suppress recombination locally but increase recombination in the
 198 intervening region between themselves and the centromere Buckler et al. (1999). Knobs are known in
 199 a number of other plant taxa, such as maize, *Tripsacum*, rye (Gill and Kimber, 1974), and *Arabidopsis*
 200 (Fransz et al., 2000). That we find no sequence homology between *Arundinella* knobs and those in *Zea*
 201 suggests we have identified an entirely novel knob system. Interestingly, the lengths of the knob variants
 202 in *Arundinella* and *Zea* are similar, centered around 180bp and 360bp. These approximate lengths are
 203 observed in many subtelomeric repeats Torres et al. (2011), though the high genomic abundance of the
 204 *Arundinella* and *Zea* repeats may be unique. Further work will be necessary to identify whether the knobs
 205 of *Arundinella* function similarly to those in maize with regard to recombination and meiotic drive, but
 206 our findings suggest that knobs may be a more common genomic feature than previously believed. Future
 207 investigations in additional taxa may reveal whether the accumulation of knobs near chromosome ends is
 208 a common evolutionary theme.

209 The ability to look broadly across a phylogeny at consensus repeats and identify novel repeats in
 210 previously unstudied organisms has the potential to produce phylogenetically relevant data, shedding
 211 light on the evolution of the repetitive fraction of the genome. Recently, researchers have shown that
 212 information from the repetitive fraction of genomes has phylogenetically relevant signal (Dodsworth et al.,
 213 2015), showing one possible avenue of using repeat sequence to inform species relationships. Consistent
 214 with this idea, we found closely related taxa had similar rank abundance of tandem repeats. Future work
 215 with a higher density of sampling could provide insight into sequence turnover in repetitive regions

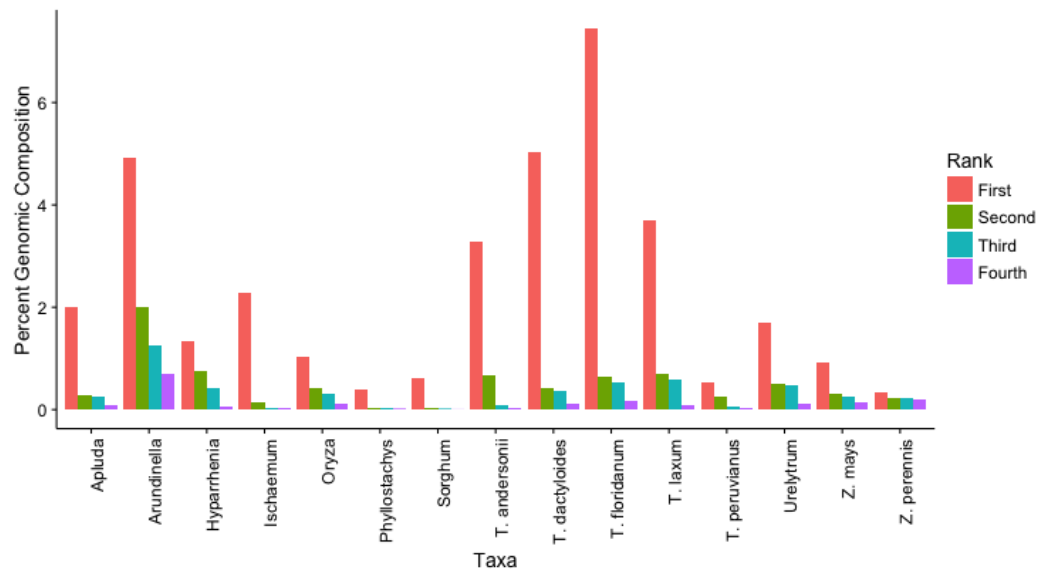


Figure 3. Genomic Composition of Top 4 Tandemly Repetitive Contigs. The top 4 contigs in each species were defined as not having homology to one another, in order to identify independent repeat motifs. Species are ordered alphabetically by genus.

216 (Henikoff et al., 2001) and discover the ways in which these heterochromatic regions of the genome
217 evolve.

218 The methods presented here can also be applied to study variation in genomic composition within and
219 between species. Genome size is highly variable across plants and is associated with many important
220 phenotypic traits such as flowering time and seed size (Rayburn et al., 1994; Knight et al., 2005). The
221 ability to identify the percentage of the genome composed by specific types of tandem repeats can enable
222 studies that track the components driving genome size variation. When applied across populations of a
223 species, researchers can test whether repetitive components that drive genome size change or are under
224 selection. Looking across species, repetitive composition can inform our understanding of speciation,
225 showing for example how often centromere repeat divergence co-occurs with or without speciation (Pertile
226 et al., 2009). Also, identification of genomes with high abundance of tandem repeats may lead to a better
227 understanding of selfish genetic elements and how they may influence long term evolution. Altogether,
228 the results presented here show how *de novo* assembly can be used to better understand the repetitive
229 fraction of the genome.

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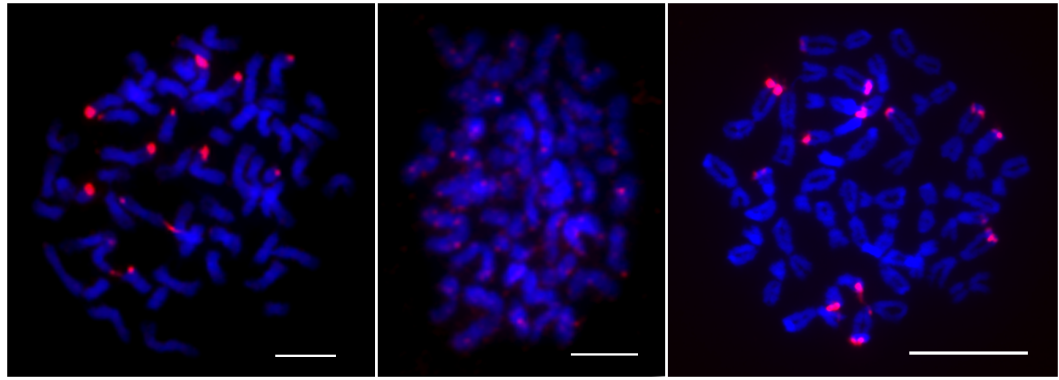


Figure 4. Fluorescent in-situ hybridization for the highest abundance tandem repeat monomer in for three grasses. (a) Arundinella, (b) Hyarphenia, (c) Urelytrum. For probe information, see methods. Scale bar = 10 microns.

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<u>Genus</u>	<u>Species</u>	<u>Reads</u>	<u>AccessionID</u>
Apluda	mutica	746994	PI 219568
Arundinella	nepalensis	662118	PI 384059
Hyparrhenia	hirta	861995	PI 206889
Ischaenum	rugosum	920258	Kew 0183574
Phyllostachys	edulis	628030	NA
Zea	mays	4422188	RIMMA0019
Sorghum	bicolor sp bicolor	473944	PI 564163
Tripsacum	andersonii	288175	MIA 34430
Tripsacum	dactyloides	391848	MIA 34597
Tripsacum	floridanum	743668	MIA 34719
Tripsacum	laxum	723097	MIA 34792
Tripsacum	peruvianum	238983	MIA 34501
Triticum	urartu	435815	PI 428198
Urelytrum	digitatum	661535	SM3109
Zea	perennis	5106091	NA

Table S1. Counts of reads per sequence library for each taxa. An accession ID of NA indicates a purchase from a local nursery or sample not registered with GRIN.