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Morozov SY, Lazareva EA, Solovyev AG. 2017. RNA helicase domains of viral origin in proteins of insect retrotransposons: possible source for evolutionary advantages. PeerJ 5:e3673  
<https://doi.org/10.7717/peerj.3673>

# RNA helicase domains of viral origin in proteins of insect retrotransposons: possible source for evolutionary advantages

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Recently, a novel phenomenon of horizontal gene transfer of helicase-encoding sequence from positive-stranded RNA viruses to LINE transposons in insect genomes was described. TRAS family transposons encoding an ORF2 protein, which comprised all typical functional domains and an additional helicase domain, were found to be preserved in many families during the evolution of the order Lepidoptera. In the present paper, in species of orders Hemiptera and Orthoptera, we found helicase domain-encoding sequences integrated into ORF1 of retrotransposons of the Jockey family. RNA helicases encoded by transposons of TRAS and Jockey families represented separate branches in a phylogenetic tree of helicase domains and thus could be considered as independently originated in the evolution of insect transposons. Transcriptome database analyses revealed that both TRAS and Jockey transposons encoding the helicase domain represented transcribed genome sequences. Moreover, the transposon-encoded helicases were found to contain the full set of conserved motifs essential for their enzymatic activities. Taking into account the previously reported ability of RNA helicase encoded by TRAS ORF2 to suppress post-transcriptional RNA silencing, we propose possible scenarios of evolutionary fixation of actively expressed functional helicases of viral origin in insect retrotransposons as genetic elements advantageous for both transposons and their insect hosts.

1           **RNA helicase domains of viral origin in proteins of insect retrotransposons:**  
2                           **possible source for evolutionary advantages**

3

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13

15 **ABSTRACT**

16

17 Recently, a novel phenomenon of horizontal gene transfer of helicase-encoding sequence from  
18 positive-stranded RNA viruses to LINE transposons in insect genomes was described. TRAS  
19 family transposons encoding an ORF2 protein, which comprised all typical functional domains  
20 and an additional helicase domain, were found to be preserved in many families during the  
21 evolution of the order Lepidoptera. In the present paper, in species of orders Hemiptera and  
22 Orthoptera, we found helicase domain-encoding sequences integrated into ORF1 of  
23 retrotransposons of the Jockey family. RNA helicases encoded by transposons of TRAS and  
24 Jockey families represented separate branches in a phylogenetic tree of helicase domains and  
25 thus could be considered as independently originated in the evolution of insect transposons.  
26 Transcriptome database analyses revealed that both TRAS and Jockey transposons encoding the  
27 helicase domain represented transcribed genome sequences. Moreover, the transposon-encoded  
28 helicases were found to contain the full set of conserved motifs essential for their enzymatic  
29 activities. Taking into account the previously reported ability of RNA helicase encoded by TRAS  
30 ORF2 to suppress post-transcriptional RNA silencing, we propose possible scenarios of  
31 evolutionary fixation of actively expressed functional helicases of viral origin in insect  
32 retrotransposons as genetic elements advantageous for both transposons and their insect hosts.

33

## 35 INTRODUCTION

36 It is commonly accepted that eukaryotic genomes contain sequences derived from viruses  
37 with RNA genomes. RNA-to-DNA conversion of such sequences, a necessary step preceding the  
38 integration into the cell genomic DNA, could have only been accomplished by retrovirus or  
39 retrotransposon reverse transcriptase provided *in trans*. Due to ubiquitous occurrence of  
40 retrotransposons in eukaryotic genomes and their activity in germline cells, examples of RNA  
41 virus sequences integrated into the host genome and inherited as host alleles are generally  
42 attributed to the functional activity of retrotransposons (Holmes, 2011; Cui & Holmes, 2012;  
43 Fort et al., 2012).

44 Recently, we described a new group of insect retrotransposons, related to the R1 clade of  
45 Long Interspersed Nuclear Elements (LINEs). The open reading frame 2 (ORF2) protein  
46 encoded by R1 LINEs of this group contains an additional C-terminal domain similar to  
47 NTPase/helicase domains (superfamily 1 helicase - SF1H), which are found in the replicative  
48 proteins encoded by many positive-stranded RNA viruses (Lazareva et al., 2015). According to  
49 previously published data, the SF1H-encoding LINEs were found only in the order Lepidoptera.  
50 Interestingly, the genome of *Plutella xylostella* (Plutellidae) contains the highest number (several  
51 dozens) of SF1H-encoding LINEs, showing that in specific lepidopteran lineages they underwent  
52 a transpositional burst, while in some other genera these elements were subjected to complete or  
53 partial deletions (Lazareva et al., 2015).

54 To counteract the RNA silencing, most viruses have evolved viral suppressors of RNA  
55 silencing (VSRs), proteins that block one or more steps in the RNA silencing pathway. VSRs  
56 were first identified in plant viruses and later found in viruses infecting other higher eukaryotes  
57 (Axtell, 2013; Csorba et al., 2015). The LINEs described in our recent paper (Lazareva et al.,  
58 2015) carry a sequence encoding SF1H domain significantly related to the VSR domain of  
59 replicases of plant positive-stranded RNA viruses belonging to the genus *Tobamovirus* of the  
60 family *Virgaviridae*. Our experimental data demonstrated that the predicted *P. xylostella* LINE  
61 VSR domain exhibits a weak, compared to the potent plant virus VSR p19, but detectable ability  
62 to suppress RNA silencing in the *Nicotiana benthamiana* leaves (Lazareva et al., 2015). In this  
63 context, it is important that plant and insect VSRs can substitute for each other in different  
64 eukaryotic model systems (Jing et al., 2011; Maliogka et al., 2012; Zhu et al., 2012). Moreover,  
65 the plant VSRs were shown to suppress retrotransposon silencing in heads and ovaries of insects

66 by endogenous siRNAs (Berry et al., 2009). We supposed that both siRNA- and piRNA-  
67 mediated pathways (Ito, 2012; Peng and Lin, 2013) can be suppressed by the LINE-encoded  
68 tobamovirus-like VSR. The tobamovirus VSRs are known to function to sequester RNA  
69 duplexes and interfering with their incorporation into effector AGO complexes (Csorba et al.,  
70 2007; Wang et al., 2012). Similar silencing suppression mechanism may be anticipated for the  
71 LINE-encoded SF1H domains.

72 We hypothesized that the acquired SF1H-related VSR could give LINEs the ability to suppress  
73 RNA silencing and thus counteract the RNA silencing-based insect defense against  
74 retrotransposons (Lazareva et al., 2015).

75 In this paper, we further analyzed SF1H domains in insect genomes. Particularly, we  
76 demonstrated that TRAS ORF2-encoded SF1H are more closely related to helicase domains of  
77 several recently sequenced insect viruses than to plant viruses as it was proposed in our previous  
78 paper (Lazareva et al., 2015). Recent sequencing of around 1500 new invertebrate RNA viruses  
79 (Shi et al., 2016) resulted in significant increase of new insect positive-stranded RNA viruses  
80 obviously related to previously better studied plant virus taxons including virga-like, beny-like,  
81 flexi-like and macula-like viruses. Nevertheless, it was found that “Despite the presence of  
82 conserved RdRp sequences, the evolutionary histories of the structural and non-structural parts  
83 of the virus genomes characterized here often differed substantially” (Shi et al., 2016).

84 In addition, using the helicase sequences as baits for database searches, we found that  
85 insect retrotransposons of Jockey family can encode the SF1H domain in their ORF1. We further  
86 revealed conservation of the full set of helicase conserved motifs in SF1H domains encoded by  
87 insect retrotransposons and demonstrated, by analysis of transcriptome databases, that these  
88 sequences are actively expressed in insects. In view of these findings, we propose a number of  
89 evolutionary scenarios for the acquisition and natural selection-supported preservation of SF1H  
90 domains in insect retrotransposons.

91

## 92 MATERIALS AND METHODS

93 Sequences for comparative analysis were retrieved from NCBI  
94 (<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/>). The nucleic acid sequences and deduced amino acid sequences  
95 were analyzed and assembled using the NCBI. BLAST searches were carried out using the NCBI  
96 server with all available databases. An ORF search in retrotransposons was performed with the

97 ORF Finder of the NCBI. Conserved domains in the amino acid sequences were identified using  
98 the CD-Search of the NCBI. COBALT, the constraint-based alignment tool for multiple protein  
99 sequences (<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/tools/cobalt/>) was used for multiple sequence  
100 alignments and phylogenetic analyses; neighbor-joining trees were obtained with the use of  
101 default parameters.

102 We also used a popular motif-finding tool WebLogo 3 (version 3.5.0.)  
103 (<http://weblogo.threeplusone.com/>) to find the characteristic motifs of retrotransposon SF1H  
104 proteins. The secondary structures of the proteins were modeled with the PCOIL  
105 (<http://toolkit.tuebingen.mpg.de/pcoils>) program.

106

107

## 108 **RESULTS**

109 *Retrotransposon-encoded RNA helicase domains are related to replicative SF1H helicases of*  
110 *both invertebrate and plant viruses*

111 The unexpected occurrence of viral-like helicase and insect retrotransposon protein  
112 domains combined in a single polypeptide raised questions on the evolutionary origin of such  
113 proteins. First, was there an event of horizontal gene transfer (HGT) of the SF1H domain-coding  
114 sequence directly from plant viruses to insect retroelements, or such HGT occurred from  
115 unknown insect viruses coding for SF1H domains similar to those in tobamovirus protein?  
116 Second, could the SF1H HGT to insect chromosomes results in its integration in locations other  
117 than the ORF2 of TRAS retrotransposons and, if it occurred, what is the relation of such  
118 differently located SF1H sequences to the lepidopteran TRAS ORF2 SF1H? Enormous increase  
119 of invertebrate virus-like sequences (including insect viruses) in public databases during the last  
120 year (Shi et al., 2016; Webster et al., 2016; Nunes et al., 2017) enabled us to address these  
121 questions by performing, using NCBI databases, new comparative sequence analyses of viral  
122 RNA helicases and those encoded by lepidopteran TRAS ORF2.

123 Blast analyses, with the deduced SF1H amino acid sequences from nine TRAS elements  
124 of the selected Lepidoptera species as queries, against the NCBI database revealed that these  
125 sequences showed highest identities (37-44%) with helicase domains of replicative ORF1  
126 proteins of Hubei virga-like viruses 1 and 2 isolated from mosquitoes in China (Shi et al., 2016)  
127 (Table 1). Some other invertebrate viruses (Xinzhou nematode virus 1, Lodeiro virus from

128 spiders and Xingshan nematode virus 2) also showed significant similarities of their replicative  
129 polypeptides to TRAS SF1H domains, whereas tobamoviruses and some other plant Virgaviruses  
130 had somewhat lower similarity scores (identity 34-35%) (Table 1). In general, a neighbor-joining  
131 tree obtained with the NCBI COBALT service clearly indicated that all TRAS SF1H domains  
132 clustered as single branch with high bootstrap values (Fig. 1), and that helicase domains of  
133 ORF1 proteins of Hubei virga like viruses 1 and 2 are most similar to lepidopteran TRAS SF1H  
134 domains, whereas plant Virgaviruses form a separate brunch of the helicase protein tree.

135 The genomes of invertebrate viruses encoding helicase domains most closely related to  
136 TRAS ORF2 SF1H (Table 1) encode two to five proteins (Fig. 2). In all cases, the ORF1  
137 polyprotein represents a viral polymerase protein and shows obvious similarity with the  
138 replicative proteins of negeviruses, Boutonnet virus and Adelphocoris suturalis-associated virus  
139 1 (Shi et al., 2016; Li et al., 2017; Nunes et al., 2017). In different viruses, a several conserved  
140 domains are observed in ORF1 proteins. These domains are related to the highly conserved  
141 sequences of viral methyltransferase (PFAM: PF01660), ribosomal RNA methyltransferase FtsJ  
142 domain, (PFAM: PF01728), viral SF1 helicase (PFAM: PF01443), and the domain of RNA-  
143 dependent RNA polymerase (RdRp) (PFAM: PF00978) (Fig. 2). It was shown, that among the  
144 invertebrate virga-like viruses, RdRp domains of Hubei virga-like viruses 1 and 2 form a distinct  
145 cluster which contains proteins most similar to plant Sindbis-like virus replicative proteins  
146 (Supplementary data 3 in Shi et al., 2016). On the other hand, the ORF1 polyprotein of other  
147 invertebrate virga-like viruses shows obvious similarity with negeviruses, Boutonnet virus and  
148 Adelphocoris suturalis-associated virus 1 (Shi et al., 2016; Li et al., 2017; Nunes et al., 2017).  
149 Thus our previous conclusion on the closest relationship between TRAS ORF2 SF1H and  
150 replicative helicases of plant tobamoviruses (Lazareva et al., 2015) is explained by  
151 incompleteness of sequence data available at that time.

152

### 153 *Virus-like RNA helicase domains are found in ORF1 of non-LTR retrotransposons*

154 Using replicative SH1H domains of recently sequenced invertebrate viruses (Shi et al.,  
155 2016) as baits, we performed more careful mining nucleotide sequence databases in an attempt to  
156 reveal sequences coding for polypeptides related to viral SF1H protein in insect orders outside  
157 Lepidoptera. We used concomitant TBLASTN searches using viral SF1H, reverse transcriptase  
158 (RT) and endonuclease domains as baits. Using this approach, new retrotransposons with the



159 full-length viral SF1H-coding sequences were found in several insect transcriptomic and  
160 genomic assemblies (Fig. 3). In whole-genome shotgun contigs of rice pest brown planthopper  
161 *Nilaparvata lugens* (Hemiptera: Delphacidae), the draft genome of which has been recently  
162 published (Xue et al., 2014), we revealed dozens of sequences, where SF1H-containing ORFs  
163 are located very close to or overlap with ORFs encoding proteins showing a typical organization  
164 of LINE-encoded ORF2 polyprotein and containing the RT and endonuclease domains of  
165 retrotransposons belonging to Jockey superfamily (Table 2). Particularly, contig AOSB01072940  
166 (Unigene24906) contains an ORF coding for a protein with a single domain related to SF1H and  
167 overlapping ORF2 by 2 nucleotides (Fig. 4). An almost identical organization was found for a  
168 Jockey-like LINE element in contig AOSB01047371.

169 In general, the LINE retrotransposon ORF1 is more variable than ORF2. Although ORF1  
170 was often considered as a possible equivalent of the retroviral *gag* gene, the functions of the  
171 ORF1 are less understood, and their sequences in different LINES are highly variable (Malik et  
172 al., 1999; Goodier and Kazazian, 2008). Analysis of ORF1-encoded proteins from a dozen of  
173 LINE clades revealed several ORF1 classes based on the types of conserved domains and their  
174 positions. Particularly, these domains may be represented by RNA recognition motif (RRM),  
175 CCHC-type knuckle, a coiled-coil domain, PHD sequence (plant homeodomain) and esterase  
176 domain (Malik et al., 1999; Khazina and Weichenrieder, 2009; Metcalfe and Casane 2014;  
177 Gaurav et al., 2017). Our data show that the ORF1-encoded proteins may contain also the SF1H  
178 domain (Fig. 4).

179 Another identified insect encoding LINE with the SF1H domain in the ORF1 was glassy-  
180 winged sharpshooter *Homalodisca vitripennis* (Hemiptera, Cicadellidae), a xylem-feeding  
181 leafhopper. The transcriptome of adult *H. vitripennis* was explored using high-throughput  
182 sequencing and *de novo* assembly (Nandety et al., 2013). Among transcript assemblies of *H.*  
183 *vitripennis*, we revealed sequences (particularly, scaffold JJNS01178034) organized similarly to  
184 contigs of *Nilaparvata lugens*. These sequences also represent Jockey-like LINES (Fig. 4).

185 Using the same approach, we identified ORF1 encoding SF1H in additional species from  
186 orders Hemiptera and Orthoptera (Fig. 3 and Table 2). Particularly, genomes of insects from  
187 genus *Ceutophilus* (camel crickets), representing one of the most basal insect orders, namely,  
188 Orthoptera (Misof et al., 2014), also contain a Jockey-like LINE element encoding an ORF1 with  
189 SF1H domain (Fig. 4, Tables 2 and 3).

190 Recently, it was shown that a flavivirus genome region coding for SF2H RNA helicase  
191 and adjacent genes could be integrated into chromosomes of representatives of genera *Aedes* and  
192 *Anopheles* (order Diptera), where virus sequences were often positioned in the vicinity of LTR  
193 transposons (Chen et al., 2015; Lequime & Lambrechts, 2017; Suzuki et al., 2017). Our search  
194 for fusions between virus-like SF1H and proteins of LTR transposons also revealed transcribed  
195 ORF in the genome of *Aedes aegypti* which codes for SF1H domain followed by full-length  
196 RNase H domain of Ty1/Copia LTR transposons (Table 3). In order Hymenoptera, a similar  
197 fused protein of Ty1/Copia transposons was found in *Leptopilina boulardi* (family Figitidae). In  
198 this insect, SF1H ORF is fused in frame as an upstream element to the ORF coding for integrase  
199 core domain (Table 3).

200

#### 201 *Search for transcribed sequences of SF1H encoded by LINEs in insects*

202 Previously we reported that TRAS ORF2 sequences coding for an additional SF1H  
203 domain are actively expressed at different stages of ontogenesis in different tissues of  
204 lepidopteran *Plutella xylostella* (Lazareva et al., 2015). Here, we further explored NCBI insect  
205 transcriptome databases to assess the expression of TRAS ORF2 with encoded SF1H domains in  
206 large number of lepidopteran species and viral-like SF1H domains expressed by other insect  
207 orders. Table 3 shows that SF1H sequences are expressed in most lepidopteran species tested  
208 including whole organisms (at different development stages) and cell lines of many species  
209 excluding *Bombyx mori* (*Bombycidae*). These species include insects from most basal  
210 lepidopteran superfamilies Aglossata and Heterobathmiina, as well as from basal Glossata  
211 (infraorders Dacnonypha and Myoglossata). In order Hemiptera, transcripts coding for ORF1  
212 with viral SF1H domain were revealed among the representatives of families Delphacidae,  
213 Cicadellidae and Gerridae (Table 3). Among Orthoptera, these transcripts were found in the  
214 families Rhaphidophoridae and Acrididae (Table 3).

215 Next, we analysed the deduced amino acid sequences of transcribed SF1H. We aligned  
216 the amino acid sequences of the SF1H domains found in insects and encoded by TRAS- and  
217 Jockey-like LINE elements (Fig. 5). Six highly conserved motifs (I - VI) were reported for the  
218 SF1H domains (Gorbalenya and Koonin, 1989; Lehmann et al., 2015). Insect viral-like helicases  
219 retain not only the most conserved motifs I and II also known as Walker A and B boxes, but also  
220 motifs which are located in the C-terminal helicase region (Fig. 5). The long-time conservation

221 of the complete set of SF1H conserved motifs in two different types of insect non-LTR  
222 retrotransposons could be considered as a strong indication of the evolutionary preservation of  
223 SF1H functional properties.

224

## 225 **DISCUSSION**

226 *Acquisition of SF1H coding sequences providing selective advantages to retrotransposons as*  
227 *selfish genetic elements*

228         The natural selection-supported presence of SF1H in both ORF1 and ORF2 of  
229 retrotransposons of two different types strongly suggests that SF1H expression by  
230 retrotransposons can increase the evolutionary fitness of these selfish genetic elements.  
231 Originally, we proposed that the VSR function provided by the SF1H domain could be of  
232 evolutionary advantage for TRAS LINEs, since their transposition may be suppressed by the  
233 RNA silencing system (Lazareva et al., 2015). LINEs and other retrotransposons are controlled  
234 by the RNA interference mechanisms at both the transcriptional and post-transcriptional levels.  
235 Transposon-specific siRNAs mainly direct local DNA methylation resulting in repressed  
236 retrotransposon transcription and, additionally, contribute to the degradation and/or translational  
237 repression of their transcripts. Another class of small RNAs, piRNAs derived from genomic  
238 PIWI loci containing multiple dysfunctional transposon sequences, act predominantly post-  
239 transcriptionally, but can take part in transcriptional regulation as well (Peng and Lin, 2013; Ito,  
240 2012). In agreement with this general view on the role of PIWI loci in transposon control, the  
241 accumulation level of TRAS1 transcript is found to be significantly increased when piRNA  
242 pathway is compromised in insect cells (Tatsuke et al., 2010). We suppose that both siRNA- and  
243 piRNA-mediated pathways can be suppressed by the LINE-encoded SF1H VSR.

244         On the other hand, one cannot exclude that an advantage in evolutionary fitness might be  
245 provided to retrotransposons by the SF1H helicase function. In fact, viral SF1H proteins were  
246 able to unwind not only double-stranded RNA but also RNA-DNA duplexes and dsDNA  
247 substrates containing a single-stranded region at one or both of the 5' ends (Lehmann et al.,  
248 2015). This means that SF1H-coding sequences acquired by retrotransposons might be adapted  
249 for co-operative work with reverse-transcribing enzymes to improve replication and transposition  
250 efficiency of selfish genetic elements.

251 One can also speculate that SF1H domain in insect TRAS-like LINEs may participate in  
252 post-transcriptional quality control of transposon RNA transcript. Interestingly, ORF2 of these  
253 LINEs encode zinc binding domain (homology to pfam13966: zf-RVT) upstream of SF1H  
254 domain (Lazareva et al., 2015). The location of this domain in the ORF2 protein sequence and its  
255 orientation relative to the SF1H domain resemble those of zinc binding domain in replicative  
256 RNA helicases of nidoviruses and the helicase Upf1-like subfamily (Lehmann et al., 2015). Zinc  
257 finger (approx. 30 residues) constitute the functional part of the zinc binding domain. This  
258 general organization is only found for SF1H in Upf1 of all eukaryotes and nidoviruses. For Upf1,  
259 its conservation was attributed to the universal role in post-transcriptional quality control of  
260 eukaryotic RNAs, including nonsense-mediated mRNA decay (Lehmann et al., 2015). If the  
261 insect SF1H helicases of TRAS elements possess some of the properties of Upf1, this could be  
262 connected to the unusual organization and expression of dicistronic LINE RNA transcript, where  
263 translation of the second ORF is performed by reinitiation mechanism (Alisch et al., 2005;  
264 Kojima et al., 2005). For instance, providing post-transcriptional quality control of genomic  
265 RNA, i.e. detection of long untranslated regions and nonsense-mediated mRNA decay resulting  
266 in elimination of defective molecules, the TRAS ORF2 helicase could alleviate the consequences  
267 of the low fidelity of transposon RNA synthesis and reverse transcription of full-length pre-  
268 genomic RNA.

269 Another possible advantage of the SF1H helicase function for retrotransposons could be  
270 inferred from recent findings showing that non-LTR retrotransposons as well as LTR  
271 retrotransposons of insects can produce both sense and anti-sense transcripts that results in  
272 formation of double-stranded RNA precursors which can be processed by Dicers into siRNAs  
273 capable of silencing the retrotransposon transcripts (Li et al., 2014; Russo et al., 2016). Viral  
274 SF1H sequences acquired and adapted by mobile genetic elements may prevent the negative  
275 impact of this mechanism by unwinding double-stranded RNAs and therefore suppressing the  
276 generation of transposon-specific siRNAs. Importantly, the nidovirus helicase structure has two  
277 possible RNA-binding clefts, which are formed by domains 1A and 1B of SF1H and the zinc  
278 binding domain and could be especially suited for unwinding complex RNA secondary structures  
279 (Lehmann et al., 2015). The formally similar organization in the TRAS ORF2 protein suggests  
280 analogous enhancement for the mechanism of dsRNA unwinding.

281

282 *Preservation of genome-integrated virus-like SF1H coding sequences as a tool for anti-viral*  
283 *defense*

284 It is well documented that negative sense single-stranded RNA virus genomes can be  
285 integrated as the full copies or gene fragments into the genomes of insect hosts including,  
286 particularly, drosophila, mosquitos and ticks (Holmes, 2011; Ballinger et al., 2012; Fort et al.,  
287 2012). Moreover, these integrated virus sequences are actively expressed (Geisler and Jarvis,  
288 2016). Other invertebrates also actively acquired minus-RNA viral genome sequences which are  
289 often integrated as a result of transposon-related reverse transcription and can be found in the  
290 chromosome regions enriched in retrotransposons (Ballinger et al., 2012; Theze et al., 2014;  
291 Metegnier et al., 2015).

292 Very recently it was found that minus-RNA viral genome sequences can be massively  
293 integrated into PIWI clusters producing transcripts that function in the piRNA pathway.  
294 Moreover, full-length retrotransposons are often found to flank integrated virus-related loci  
295 (Palatini et al., 2017). PIWI proteins bound to siRNAs derived from endogenous virus-related  
296 transcripts may target the genomes of close exogenous viruses upon their infection, possibly  
297 conferring selective advantage to the insects possessing acquired integrated virus sequences. In  
298 this scenario, a horizontal gene transfer event linked to the activity of retrotransposons may  
299 trigger for the functional specialization of PIWI clusters against both retrotransposon sequences  
300 and specific virus sequences (Palatini et al., 2017).

301 An alternative scenario implies the possibility that the protein expression from integrated  
302 virus-like sequences is able to affect the replication of exogenous viruses (Honda and Tomonaga,  
303 2016). It can be proposed that the retrotransposon-encoded SF1H can inhibit virus replication,  
304 since the excessive RNA helicase activity provided by SF1H might cause deregulation of  
305 otherwise balanced transcription/replication of insect-infecting virga-related viruses, resulting in  
306 suppression of negative disease consequences.

307

308 *Adaptive acquisition of virus-like SF1H VSR domains by highly expressed insect genome*  
309 *sequences as a possible factor supporting herbivorous lifestyle*

310 The extraordinary diversity of insects has been largely explained by the important role of  
311 co-evolution with flowering plants (Farrell and Mitter, 1998). Some authors have suggested that,  
312 among several other factors, feeding on living tissues of vascular plants is a major driver of

313 insect diversification (Wiens et al., 2015). However, plants have evolved different defense  
314 strategies that negatively affect the herbivores. Plant resistance to herbivory can be achieved by  
315 physical barriers such as trichomes and waxy layer. In addition, defensive phytochemicals have  
316 been evolved to repulse and poison herbivores or interfere with the assimilation of consumed  
317 nutrients inside the insect's gut. For example, many plants produce cyanogenic glycosides that  
318 can be converted into hydrogen cyanide when the plant is eaten (Wybouw et al., 2016).  
319 Nevertheless, insects can overcome these nutritional and defensive barriers using, particularly,  
320 the optimized assimilation and detoxification processes (Despres et al., 2007; Wybouw et al.,  
321 2014).

322 A recently developed pathogen control strategy, which is called host-induced gene  
323 silencing (HIGS), is based on generating transgenic plants that express pathogen-specific dsRNA  
324 to trigger silencing of essential genes in insects, fungi and other pests (Nunes and Dean, 2012;  
325 Koch and Kogel, 2014; Weiberg and Jin, 2015). Importantly, recent reports show that not only  
326 artificial transgenic HIGS dsRNAs, but also plant endogenous dsRNAs can be actively  
327 transported into insect cells; however, the functional consequences of consuming these dietary-  
328 derived plant dsRNAs for the insects remain to be clarified (Ivashuta et al., 2015; Sattar and  
329 Thompson, 2016). The natural dsRNA transfer from plants to insects was reconstituted in  
330 numerous studies of insect feeding on substrates containing artificial insect-specific dsRNAs.  
331 These experiments revealed that beetles (order Coleoptera) are very amenable to dsRNA-  
332 mediated RNA silencing, whereas other insects, most notably lepidopterans, are more refractory  
333 to RNA silencing (Swevers et al., 2013). As an explanation of the observed difference between  
334 coleopteran and lepidopteran insects in their RNA silencing response, it was proposed that  
335 persistent viral infections (and subsequently continuous synthesis of virus-encoded VSR  
336 proteins) are much more prevalent in lepidopterans than in other insects. This could be an  
337 important factor contributing to lepidopteran relative recalcitrance to RNA silencing (Swevers et  
338 al., 2013).

339 To our mind, this phenomenon can be rather attributed to less efficient silencing response  
340 due to the presence of VSR-encoding LINEs in Lepidoptera but not in Coleoptera insects. In  
341 agreement with this hypothesis, dsRNA administered to coleopteran cell lines and tissues  
342 (*Tribolium castaneum* and *Leptinotarsa decemlineata*) was actively processed into 23-  
343 nucleotide-long siRNA, whereas the uptake of dsRNA by lepidopteran cell lines and tissues

344 (*Spodoptera frugiperda* and *Heliothis virescens*) did not result in detectable siRNA production  
345 (Shukla et al., 2016). Moreover, overexpression of *L. decemlineata* Argonaute-1 and Aubergine  
346 proteins, which are required for processing of dsRNA into siRNA, in *Spodoptera frugiperda*  
347 cells partly improved silencing effects induced by dsRNA (Yoon et al., 2016). This finding  
348 clearly shows that the impairment of RNA silencing in lepidopteran cell is associated with a  
349 suppression of dsRNA processing into small RNAs. Additionally, when the impact of the  
350 persistent virus infection on gene silencing induced by dsRNA was tested in two normally virus-  
351 free lepidopteran cell lines, no significant interference with artificial dsRNA-induced gene  
352 silencing was found in virus-infected cells when compared to virus-free cells (Swevers et al.,  
353 2016). These data show that the inefficient response of lepidopteran cells to dsRNA could not be  
354 attributed to persistent infections with viruses providing VSR proteins.

355 We suppose that these data argue in favor of the hypothesis that the continuous  
356 expression of LINE-encoded SF1H domain, which has the VSR function, in Lepidoptera insects  
357 makes them highly resistant to the negative effect of consumed plant artificial and potential  
358 endogenous dsRNAs targeted against insect genes. Therefore, assuming the existence of dsRNA-  
359 based pest defense in plants, the acquisition of VSR genes by LINEs in early evolution of  
360 Lepidoptera by HGT could have a significant positive adaptive impact in their evolution as  
361 herbivores and serve as a factor of herbivorous lifestyle expansion in insects of this order.  
362 Indeed, Lepidoptera is one of the prominent insect taxons with respect to species richness among  
363 insect orders and contains the highest proportion of herbivores (Wiens et al., 2015). It should be  
364 emphasized that this evolutionary scenario could take place only if the HGT-transferred VSR  
365 gene became highly expressed in the context of insect genome. In fact, RNA transcripts of SF1H  
366 VSR domain are widely represented in the tissues of most lepidopteran species at different  
367 developmental stages. Importantly, potential functional abilities of this domain, namely,  
368 unwinding of long dsRNA which could be especially enhanced because of Upf1-like  
369 organization of the C-terminal part of TRAS ORF2 protein (Lehmann et al., 2015; Lazareva et  
370 al., 2015, see above) and the VSR activity *per se* may result in suppressing the effect of  
371 exogenous dsRNA by converting it into single-stranded RNA or by blocking incorporation of  
372 already-formed 21-23 nucleotide-long siRNAs into AGO complexes.

373 If our hypothesis on the adaptive role of SF1H VSR for herbivores is true, one can expect  
374 that the phytophagous insects outside Lepidoptera may code and express this functional domain.

375 It is known that, in addition to Lepidoptera containing almost exclusively herbivorous species,  
376 seven more insect orders are represented by a substantial amount of herbivores (Wiens et al.,  
377 2015). Among these orders (Diptera, Coleoptera, Hemiptera, Thysanoptera, Hymenoptera,  
378 Phasmatodea and Orthoptera), hemipteran species, like lepidopteran insects, are more refractory  
379 to dsRNA-induced silencing (Swevers et al., 2013; Wybouw et al., 2016). In support of our  
380 hypothesis, we found that at least five representatives of this insect order express virus-like  
381 SF1H-coding transcripts during their ontogenesis (see above).

382

### 383 CONCLUSIONS

384 Considering all possible hypotheses on the functional significance of acquisition of virus  
385 SF1H coding sequences by insect genomes, namely, (i) providing selective advantages to  
386 retrotransposons as selfish genetic elements; (ii) using the SF1H coding sequences as a tool for  
387 anti-viral defense of insects; (iii) active expression of virus-like SF1H VSR as a possible  
388 prerequisite for herbivory, one can consider these scenarios as mutually exclusive. We prefer a  
389 more complex view on the acquisition and preservation of functional SF1H coding sequences in  
390 retrotransposons of many present-day insects. As suggested previously, it is possible that basal  
391 insect groups together with sister invertebrates represented a major reservoir of viral genetic  
392 diversity for potentially billions of years and, thus, have been central to RNA virus evolution (Li  
393 et al., 2015; Dudas and Obbard, 2015; Shi et al., 2016). Accordingly, anti-viral defense likely  
394 was very important for survival and natural selection in the course of insect evolution (Palatini et  
395 al., 2017), that can explain the preservation of expressed SF1H in insect genomes. As an  
396 independent scenario of initial evolutionary fixation of SF1H in insect genomes, we consider that  
397 acquired virus SF1H coding sequences could provide selective advantages to retrotransposons as  
398 selfish genetic elements. Later in the insect evolution, irrespective of initial scenario of SF1H  
399 fixation in insect genomes, the acquired SF1H-based machinery for silencing suppression could  
400 work in favor of emergence of herbivory and herbivorous lifestyle expansion.

401

### 402 ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

403 We are grateful to Dr. Stanislav Kozlovsky for helpful discussions.

404

405



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611 **Figure Legends**

612

613 **Fig. 1.** The phylogenetic tree based on sequence alignment of the analyzed SF1H proteins of  
614 Lepidoptera transposons and some insect and plant viruses. Neighbor-joining tree was obtained  
615 at [http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/ tools/cobalt/](http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/tools/cobalt/) with the use of default parameters. Sindbis virus  
616 SF1H was used as outgroup. Plant viruses are shown by green shading. Invertebrate viruses are  
617 by brown shading. Selected lepidopteran species with transposons coding for SF1H are shown by  
618 blue shading. The scale bar denotes the estimated number of amino acid substitutions per site.

619

620 **Fig. 2.** Schematic ORF organization depicting genomic RNAs of analyzed invertebrate viruses.  
621 Replicase protein domains are indicated in different colors and abbreviated according to the text.  
622 HVL21, Hubei virga-like virus 21; HVL1, Hubei virga-like virus 1; HVL2, Hubei virga-like  
623 virus 2; XNV1, Xinzhou nematode virus 1; XNV2, Xingshan nematode virus 2; LV, Lodeiro  
624 virus.

625

626 **Fig. 3.** The phylogenetic tree based on sequence alignment of the analyzed SF1H proteins  
627 encoded by Lepidoptera TRAS-like LINES and Jockey-like LINES of three other insect orders.  
628 Taxonomic positions of the insect species are indicated on the right and highlighted by different  
629 colors. Neighbor-joining tree was obtained at [http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/ tools/cobalt/](http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/tools/cobalt/) with the  
630 use of default parameters. Sindbis virus SF1H was used as outgroup. The scale bar denotes the  
631 estimated number of amino acid substitutions per site.

632

633 **Fig. 4.** Schematic ORF organization depicting proteins encoded by analyzed TRAS-like  
634 elements of *A. transitella* and *S. frugiperda* and Jockey-like LINE elements of *N. lugens* and  
635 *Ceuthophilus* sp. Conserved domains of ORF1 and ORF2 proteins are indicated in different  
636 colors and abbreviated according to the text.

637

638 **Fig. 5.** Sequence logos of the SF1H conserved domains encoded by insect LINE transposons.  
639 These sequence logos, which visualize the distribution of amino acids at each position of  
640 conserved motifs, are based on the aligned transposon-encoded SF1H sequences. Yellow shading  
641 indicates conserved motifs of SF1H proteins (I to VI). Amino acids are colored according to

642 chemical properties; negatively charged (red), positively charged (blue). Amino acids are  
643 represented in a single-letter code.  
644

**Table 1** (on next page)

Amino acid sequence comparisons of some SF1H proteins encoded by LINEs in Lepidoptera and RNA virus replicative helicases.

- 1 **Table 1.** Amino acid sequence comparisons of some SF1H proteins encoded by LINEs in  
 2 Lepidoptera and RNA virus replicative helicases  
 3

<b>Query Lepidoptera species</b>	<b>Subject viral replication protein</b>	<b>E-value</b>	<b>Maximal amino acid identity (%)</b>	<b>Accession numbers (NCBI)</b>
<i>Andesiana lamellata</i> (Andesianidae)	Hubei virga-like virus 1	<b>1e-47</b>	<b>42</b>	<b>YP_009337423</b>
_***_	Hubei virga-like virus 2	<b>6e-47</b>	<b>42</b>	<b>YP_009337412</b>
_***_	Xinzhou nematode virus 1	<b>1e-30</b>	<b>36</b>	<b>YP_009345041</b>
_***_	Xingshan nematode virus 2	<b>1e-30</b>	<b>35</b>	<b>YP_009345038</b>
<i>Tischeria quercitella</i> (Tischeriidae)	Hubei virga-like virus 1	<b>2e-40</b>	<b>38</b>	<b>YP_009337423</b>
_***_	Hubei virga-like virus 2	<b>9e-40</b>	<b>38</b>	<b>YP_009337412</b>
_***_	Lodeiro virus	<b>1e-27</b>	<b>33</b>	<b>YP_009315901</b>
_***_	Hubei virga-like virus 12	<b>2e-27</b>	<b>32</b>	<b>YP_009337818</b>
<i>Eudarcia</i>				

<i>simulatricella</i> ( <a href="#">Tineidae</a> )	Hubei virga-like virus 1	<b>1e-43</b>	<b>40</b>	<b>YP_009337423</b>
_***_	Hubei virga-like virus 2	<b>1e-41</b>	<b>38</b>	<b>YP_009337412</b>
_***_	Lodeiro virus	<b>3e-31</b>	<b>33</b>	<b>YP_009315901</b>
_***_	<b>Potato mop-top virus</b>	<b>4e-31</b>	<b>34</b>	<b>ALM54963</b>
<i>Caloptilia triadicae</i> ( <a href="#">Gracillariidae</a> )	Hubei virga-like virus 1	<b>8e-38</b>	<b>39</b>	<b>YP_009337423</b>
_***_	Hubei virga-like virus 2	<b>3e-36</b>	<b>37</b>	<b>YP_009337412</b>
_***_	Lodeiro virus	<b>9e-28</b>	<b>33</b>	<b>YP_009315901</b>
_***_	<b>Soil-borne wheat mosaic virus</b>	<b>3e-26</b>	<b>34</b>	<b>BAA94796</b>
<i>Plutella xylostella</i> ( <a href="#">Plutellidae</a> )	Hubei virga-like virus 1	<b>1e-47</b>	<b>44</b>	<b>YP_009337423</b>
_***_	Hubei virga-like virus 2	<b>1e-44</b>	<b>39</b>	<b>YP_009337412</b>
_***_	Xinzhou nematode virus 1	<b>3e-32</b>	<b>39</b>	<b>YP_009345041</b>
_***_	<b>Broad bean necrosis virus</b>	<b>2e-29</b>	<b>35</b>	<b>NP_740761</b>

<i>Ostrinia nubilalis</i> (Crambidae)	Hubei virga-like virus 1	<b>7e-45</b>	<b>41</b>	<b>YP_009337423</b>
_***_	Hubei virga-like virus 2	<b>2e-41</b>	<b>41</b>	<b>YP_009337412</b>
_***_	Xinzhou nematode virus 1	<b>4e-31</b>	<b>37</b>	<b>YP_009345041</b>
_***_	Soil-borne cereal mosaic virus	<b>1e-30</b>	<b>35</b>	<b>AAF18326</b>
<i>Polyommatus icarus</i> (Lycaenidae)	Hubei virga-like virus 1	<b>5e-48</b>	<b>40</b>	<b>YP_009337423</b>
_***_	Hubei virga-like virus 2	<b>1e-45</b>	<b>41</b>	<b>YP_009337412</b>
_***_	Lodeiro virus	<b>3e-37</b>	<b>37</b>	<b>YP_009315901</b>
_***_	Hubei virga-like virus 21	<b>5e-34</b>	<b>37</b>	<b>YP_009337659</b>
<i>Lyssa zampa</i> (Uraniidae)	Hubei virga-like virus 1	<b>1e-43</b>	<b>38</b>	<b>YP_009337423</b>
_***_	Hubei virga-like virus 2	<b>1e-41</b>	<b>38</b>	<b>YP_009337412</b>
_***_	Streptocarpus flower break virus	<b>2e-27</b>	<b>34</b>	<b>YP_762618</b>
_***_	Lodeiro virus	<b>3e-30</b>	<b>32</b>	<b>YP_009315901</b>

<i>Biston suppressaria</i> (Geometridae)	Hubei virga-like virus 1	<b>3e-47</b>	<b>42</b>	<b>YP_009337423</b>
_***_	Hubei virga-like virus 2	<b>2e-44</b>	<b>37</b>	<b>YP_009337412</b>
_***_	Xinzhou nematode virus 1	<b>1e-30</b>	<b>35</b>	<b>YP_009345041</b>
_***_	<b>Paprika mild mottle virus</b>	<b>2e-28</b>	<b>34</b>	<b>ANV28177</b>

4

5 Plant viruses are in green. Insect families are in indicated in parenthesis.

6

**Table 2** (on next page)

Amino acid sequence comparisons of some insect LINE ORF2 proteins and those encoded by SF1H-coding LINES in Hemiptera and Orthoptera species.



1 **Table 2.** Amino acid sequence comparisons of some insect LINE ORF2 proteins and those  
 2 encoded by SF1H-coding LINEs in Hemiptera and Orthoptera species

3

Query Hemiptera and Orthoptera species	Subject insect LINE ORF2 protein	E-value	Maximal amino acid identity (%)	Accession numbers (NCBI)
<i>Ceuthophilus</i> sp. GAUX01000930 (Orthoptera)	mobile element jockey- like [Papilio xuthus]	<b>1e-60</b>	<b>29</b>	<b>XP_013171417</b>
_***_	mobile element jockey- like [Papilio machaon]	<b>4e-56</b>	<b>29</b>	<b>XP_014357830</b>
_***_	mobile element jockey- like [Amyelois transitella]	<b>3e-51</b>	<b>28</b>	<b>XP_013193561</b>
_***_	mobile element jockey- like [Vollenhovia emeryi]	<b>5e-46</b>	<b>28</b>	<b>XP_011859003</b>
<i>Homalodisca</i> <i>vitripennis</i> JJNS01051000 (Hemiptera)	mobile element jockey- like [Diachasma alloeum]	<b>1e-06</b>	<b>27</b>	<b>XP_015119810</b>
_***_	mobile element jockey- like [Papilio xuthus]	<b>6e-06</b>	<b>24</b>	<b>XP_013171417</b>
_***_	uncharacterized protein LOC103522538 [Diaphorina citri]	<b>1e-05</b>	<b>24</b>	<b>XP_008485861</b>

_***_	mobile element jockey-like [Papilio machaon]	<b>2e-05</b>	<b>25</b>	<b>XP_014357830</b>
<i>Nilaparvata lugens</i> AOSB01052258 (Hemiptera)	mobile element jockey-like isoform X1 [Amyelois transitella]	<b>1e-148</b>	<b>35</b>	<b>XP_013193561</b>
_***_	mobile element jockey-like [Papilio xuthus]	<b>1e-49</b>	<b>26</b>	<b>XP_013171417</b>
_***_	uncharacterized protein LOC106650627 [Trichogramma pretiosum]	<b>6e-48</b>	<b>25</b>	<b>XP_014224251</b>
_***_	transposon X-element [Tribolium castaneum]	<b>8e-47</b>	<b>26</b>	<b>XP_973868</b>
<i>Gerris buenoi</i> JHBY01062481 (Hemiptera)	mobile element jockey-like [Amyelois transitella]	<b>4e-29</b>	<b>32</b>	<b>XP_013193561</b>
_***_	mobile element jockey-like [Neodiprion lecontei]	<b>2e-17</b>	<b>29</b>	<b>XP_015522510</b>
_***_	uncharacterized protein LOC105842132 [Bombyx mori]	<b>1e-11</b>	<b>26</b>	<b>XP_012548769</b>
_***_	mobile element jockey-like [Diachasma alloeum]	<b>7e-10</b>	<b>25</b>	<b>XP_015124772</b>

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**Table 3** (on next page)

Search for transcribed sequences of SF1H encoded by retrotransposon-related ORFs in Lepidoptera and other insects.

1 **Table 3**

2 Search for transcribed sequences of SF1H encoded by retrotransposon-related ORFs in

3 Lepidoptera and other insects

Order/Suborder	Family	Subfamily	Species	Sequence source
Lepidoptera Aglossata	Agathiphagidae	-	<i>Agathiphaga queenslandensis</i>	SRX1594824
Lepidoptera Heterobathmiina	Heterobathmiidae	-	<i>Heterobathmia pseudeiocrania</i>	SRX1594810
Lepidoptera Glossata (Dacnonypha*)	Acanthopteroctetidae	-	<i>Acanthopteroctetes unifascia</i>	SRX1594806
Glossata (Dacnonypha*)	Lophocoronidae	-	<i>Lophocorona astiptica</i>	SRX1594812
Lepidoptera Glossata (Myoglossata*)	Neopseustidae	-	<i>Neopseustis meyricki</i>	SRX1594818
Lepidoptera Glossata (Neolepidoptera, Exoporia**)	Hepialidae	-	<i>Hepialus xiaojinensis</i>	SRX2583878
-/-	-/-	-	<i>Thitarodes jiachaensis</i>	SRX862112
Glossata (Neolepidoptera, Heteroneura**)	Andesianidae	-	<i>Andesiana lamellata</i>	GEOA01069083
-/-	Tischeriidae	-	<i>Tischeria quercitella</i>	GEOU01072667 GENO01015855
-/-	Tineidae	Dryadaulinae	<i>Dryadula visaliella</i>	GENH01137414
-/-	-/-	Meessiinae	<i>Eudarcia simulatricella</i>	GEOF01053845
-/-	-/-	Tineinae	<i>Tineola bisselliella</i>	GEOR01006141
-/-	Gracillariidae	Gracillariinae	<i>Caloptilia triadicae</i>	SRX869394
-/-	-/-	Lithocolletinae	<i>Cameraria ohridella</i>	SRX488063

-/-	Yponomeutidae	Yponomeutinae	<i>Yponomeuta evonymellus</i>	GASG02025483
-/-	Plutellidae	-	<i>Plutella xylostella</i>	HX687959 HX687832 HX685996
-/-	Elachistidae	Stenomatinae	<i>Antaeotricha schlaegeri</i>	SRX371326
-/-	Zygaenidae	Zygaeninae	<i>Zygaena fausta</i>	SRX371360
-/-	Limacodidae	-	<i>Euclea delphinii</i>	SRX371325
-/-	Castniidae	Synemoninae	<i>Synemon plana</i>	SRX362667
-/-	Urodidae	-	<i>Urodus decens</i>	SRX371357
-/-	Pyralidae	Phycitinae	<i>Plodia interpunctella</i>	ERX392603
-/-	-/-	-/-	<i>Amyelois transitella</i>	GDGN01078241
-/-	Crambidae	Pyraustinae	<i>Ostrinia nubilalis</i>	GAVD01018675
-/-	-/-	-/-	<i>Loxostege sticticalis</i>	GFCJ01034503
-/-	Noctuidae	Amphipyriinae	<i>Spodoptera frugiperda</i>	GESP01134032
-/-	-/-	Heliiothinae	<i>Helicoverpa armigera</i>	GBXD01029497
-/-	-/-	Plusinae	<i>Trichoplusia ni</i>	GBKU01050963 GBKU01044506
-/-	Lymantriidae	-	<i>Lymantria dispar</i>	SRX1520900
-/-	Sphingidae	Sphinginae	<i>Manduca sexta</i>	GETI01156885
-/-	Saturniidae	Saturniinae	<i>Antheraea pernyi</i>	GBZF01003318
-/-	-/-	-/-	<i>Samia ricini</i>	GBZD01018504
-/-	Lycaenidae	Polyommatainae	<i>Polyommatus icarus</i>	GAST02024448
-/-	-/-	-/-	<i>Hemiargus ceraunus</i>	SRX553292
-/-	-/-	Theclinae	<i>Protantigius superans</i>	SRX1257171
-/-	-/-	Aphnaeinae	<i>Spindasis takanonis</i>	SRX1257172
-/-	Papilionidae	Papilioninae	<i>Papilio zelicaon</i>	JP709801

-/-	Nymphalidae	Heliconiinae	<i>Heliconius ismenius</i>	FAPP01000292
-/-	-/-	Nymphalinae	<i>Melitaea cinxia</i>	APLT01012297
-/-	Hesperiidae	Hesperiinae	<i>Lerema accius</i>	SRX1085019
-/-	-/-	-/-	<i>Thymelicus sylvestris</i>	SRX565325
-/-	-/-	-/-	<i>Hylephila phyleus</i>	SRX553313
-/-	-/-	Megathyminae	<i>Megathymus yuccae</i>	SRX553644
-/-	Drepanidae	Thyatirinae	<i>Pseudothyatira cymatophoroides</i>	SRX371349
-/-	Sematuridae	-	<i>Nothus lunus</i>	SRX553336
-/-	Uraniidae	Uraniinae	<i>Lyssa zampa</i>	SRX553795
-/-	-/-	Epipleminae	<i>Calledapteryx dryopterata</i>	SRX371329
-/-	Geometridae	Ennominae	<i>Biston suppressaria</i>	GCJP01006855
-/-	-/-	Larentiinae	<i>Operophtera brumata</i>	KOB69843
Hemiptera	Delphacidae	Delphacinae	<i>Nilaparvata lugens</i>	SRX698355
-/-	Cicadellidae	Cicadellinae	<i>Homalodisca vitripennis</i>	SRX910971
-/-	-/-	-/-	<i>Graphocephala coccinea</i>	SRX2141460
-/-	Gerridae	Gerrinae	<i>Gerris buenoi</i>	JHBY01062481 SRX896710
-/-	Pseudococcidae	-	<i>Planococcus citri</i>	SRX275951
Orthoptera	Rhaphidophoridae	Ceuthophilinae	<i>Ceuthophilus</i> sp.	GAUX02053896 GAUX02050946
-/-	-/-	-/-	<i>Ammobaenetes arenicolus</i>	SRX1203846
-/-	Acrididae	Oedipodinae	<i>Locusta migratoria</i>	SRX850791 GBDZ01086272
Hymenoptera	Figitidae	Leptopilinae	<i>Leptopilina boulardi</i> ***	GAJA01009526 SRX184305
Diptera	Culicidae	Culicinae	<i>Aedes aegypti</i>	NW_001811003 SRX1897891

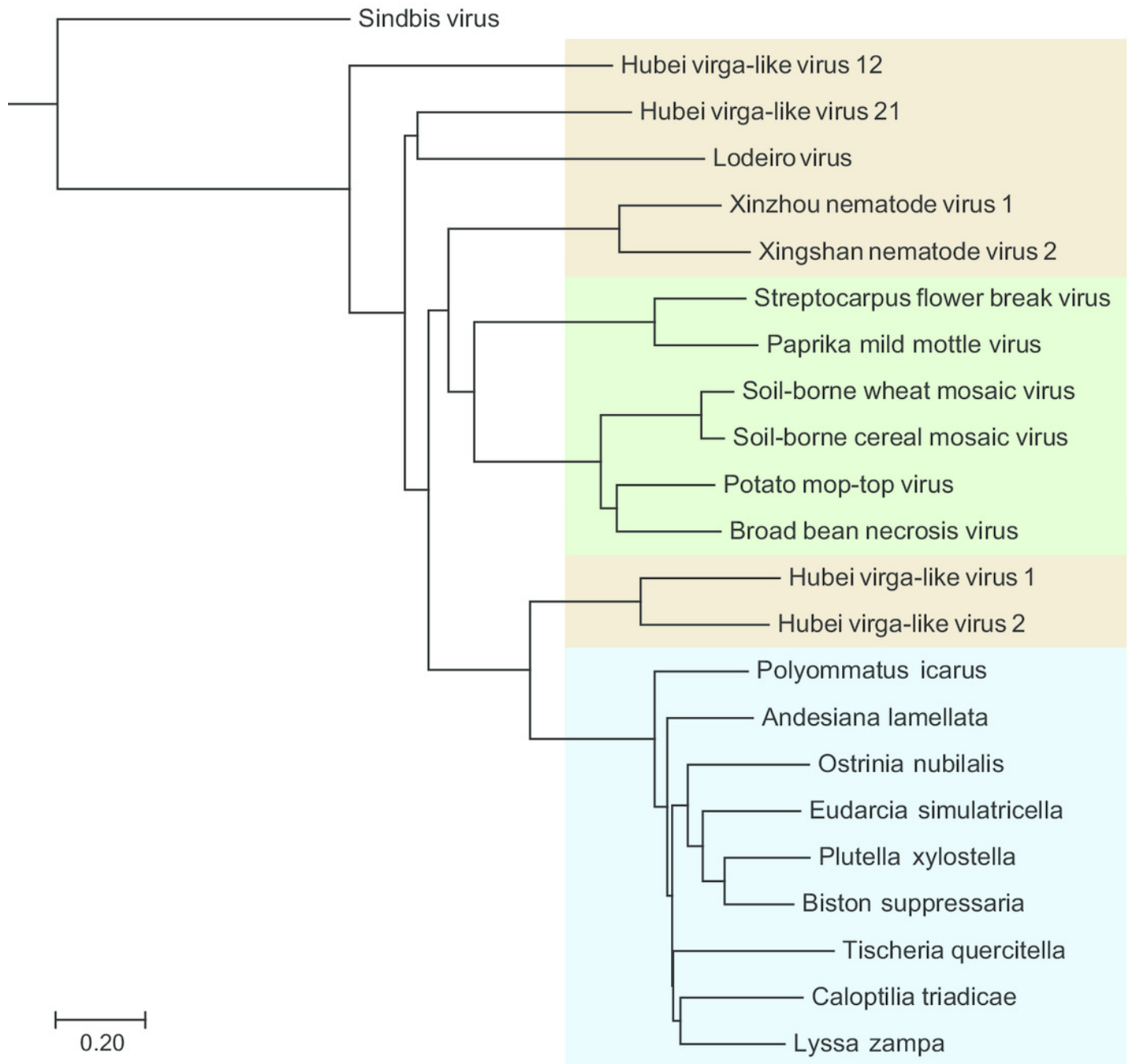
4 \* - infraorder; \*\* - infraorder/superfamily; \*\*\* - SF1H-encoded ORF is interrupted by  
5 termination codons. -/- indicates the same taxon as above.  
6

# Figure 1

The phylogenetic tree based on sequence alignment of the analyzed SF1H proteins of Lepidoptera transposons and some insect and plant viruses.

Neighbor-joining tree was obtained at <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/tools/cobalt/> with the use of default parameters. Sindbis virus SF1H was used as outgroup. Plant viruses are shown by green shading. Invertebrate viruses are by brown shading. Selected lepidopteran species with transposons coding for SF1H are shown by blue shading. The scale bar denotes the estimated number of amino acid substitutions per site.

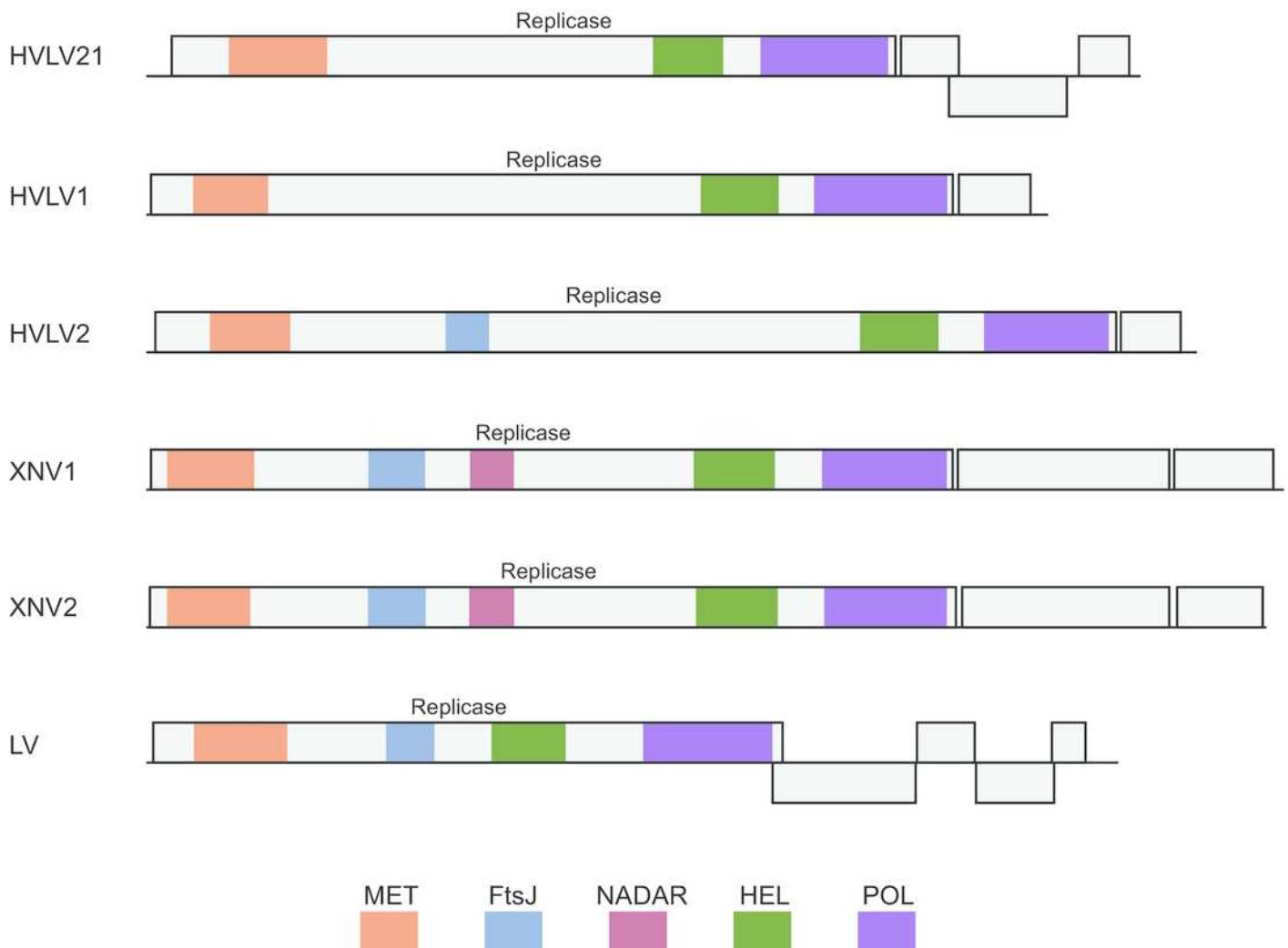




## Figure 2

Schematic ORF organization depicting genomic RNAs of analyzed invertebrate viruses.

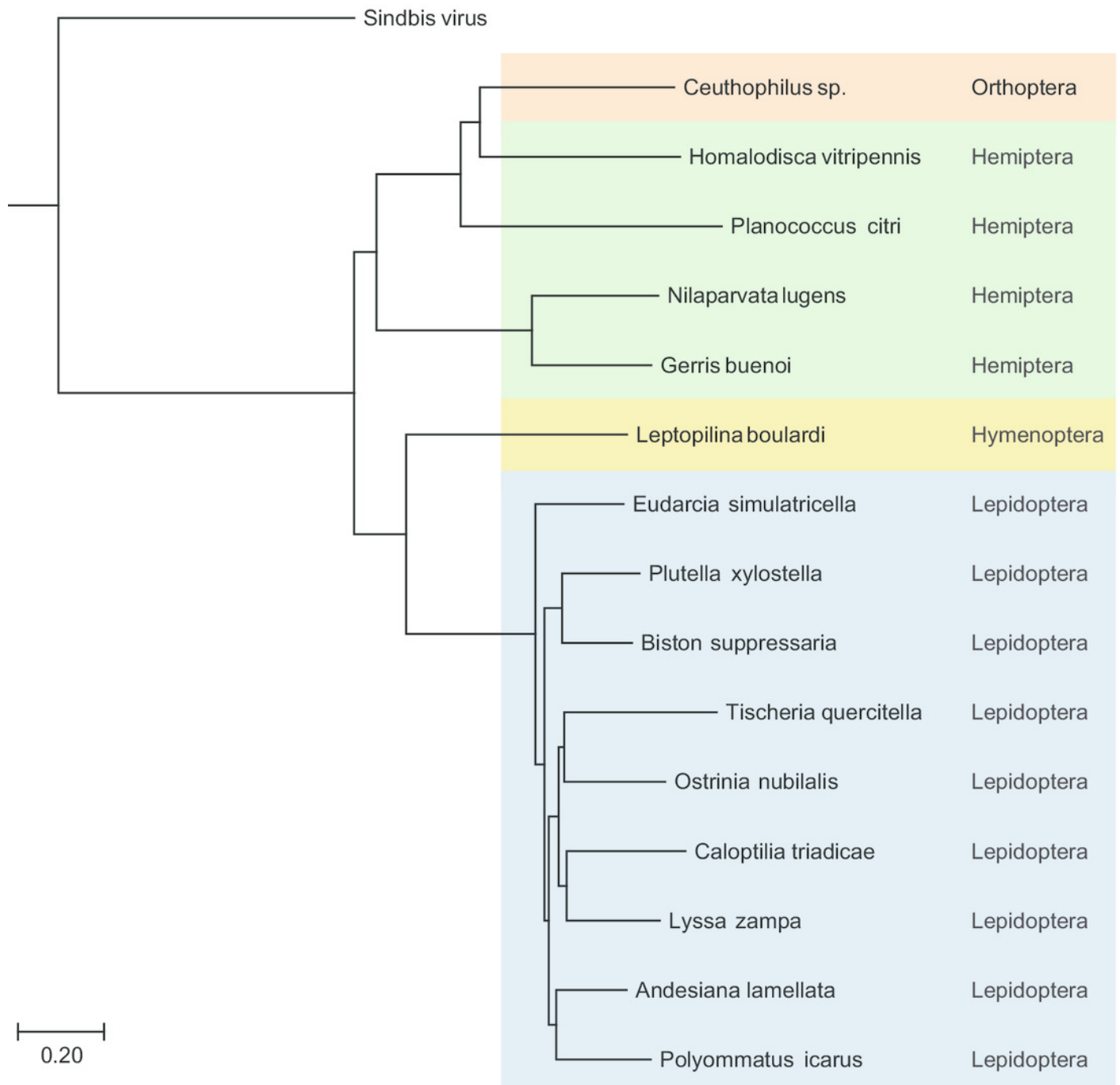
Replicase protein domains are indicated in different colors and abbreviated according to the text. HVLV21, Hubei virga-like virus 21; HVL1, Hubei virga-like virus 1; HVL2, Hubei virga-like virus 2; XNV1, Xinzhou nematode virus 1; XNV2, Xingshan nematode virus 2; LV, Lodeiro virus.



## Figure 3

The phylogenetic tree based on sequence alignment of the analyzed SF1H proteins encoded by Lepidoptera TRAS-like LINEs and Jockey-like LINEs of three other insect orders.

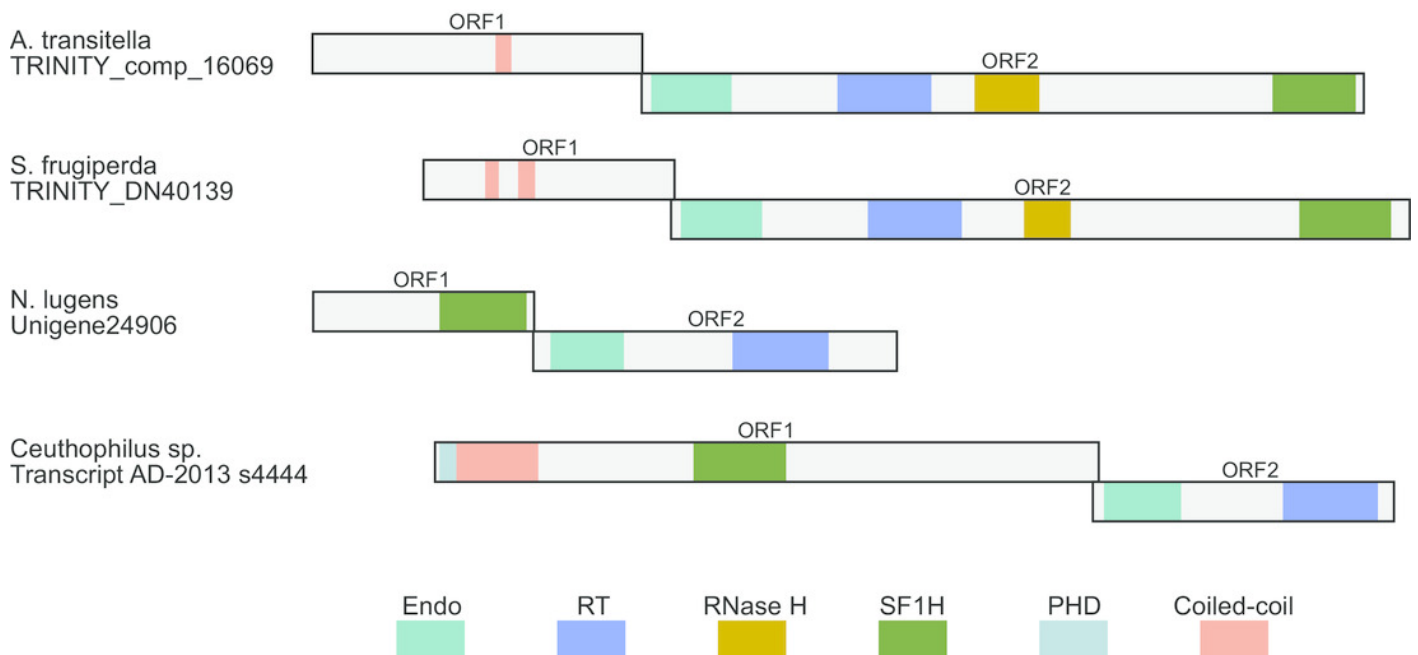
Taxonomic positions of the insect species are indicated on the right and highlighted by different colors. Neighbor-joining tree was obtained at <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/tools/cobalt/> with the use of default parameters. Sindbis virus SF1H was used as outgroup. The scale bar denotes the estimated number of amino acid substitutions per site.



## Figure 4

Schematic ORF organization depicting proteins encoded by analyzed TRAS-like elements of *A. transitella* and *S. frugiperda* and Jockey-like LINE elements of *N. lugens* and *Ceuthophilus* sp.

Conserved domains of ORF1 and ORF2 proteins are indicated in different colors and abbreviated according to the text.



## Figure 5

Sequence logos of the SF1H conserved domains encoded by insect LINE transposons.

These sequence logos, which visualize the distribution of amino acids at each position of conserved motifs, are based on the aligned transposon-encoded SF1H sequences. Yellow shading indicates conserved motifs of SF1H proteins (I to VI). Amino acids are colored according to chemical properties; negatively charged (red), positively charged (blue). Amino acids are represented in a single-letter code.

