

1 **Transposable elements in the genome of the lichen-forming**
2 **fungus *Umbilicaria pustulata*, and their distribution in**
3 **different climate zones along elevation**

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26 **Abstract**

27 **Background** Transposable elements (TEs) are an important source of genome plasticity
28 across the tree of life. Accumulating evidence suggests that TEs may not be randomly
29 distributed in the genome. Drift and natural selection are important forces shaping TE
30 distribution and accumulation, acting directly on the TE element or indirectly on the host
31 species. Fungi, with their multifaceted phenotypic diversity and relatively small genome size,
32 are ideal models to study the role of TEs in genome evolution and their impact on the host's
33 ecological and life history traits. Here we present an account of all TEs found in a high-
34 quality reference genome of the lichen-forming fungus *Umbilicaria pustulata*, a macrolichen
35 species comprising two climatic ecotypes: Mediterranean and cold-temperate. We trace the
36 occurrence of the newly identified TEs in populations along three replicated elevation
37 gradients using a Pool-Seq approach, to identify TE insertions of potential adaptive
38 significance.

39 **Results** We found that TEs cover 21.26 % of the 32.9 Mbp genome, with LTR Gypsy
40 and Copia clades being the most common TEs. Out of a total of 182 TE copies we identified
41 28 insertions displaying consistent insertion frequency differences between the two host
42 ecotypes across the elevation gradients. Most of the highly differentiated insertions were
43 located near genes, indicating a putative function.

44 **Conclusions** This pioneering study into the content and climate niche-specific distribution
45 of TEs in a lichen-forming fungus contributes to understanding the roles of TEs in fungal
46 evolution. Particularly, it may serve as a foundation for assessing the impact of TE dynamics
47 on fungal adaptation to the abiotic environment, and the impact of TE activity on the
48 evolution and maintenance of a symbiotic lifestyle.

49

50 **Keywords:** TEs, lichens, terrestrial symbiosis, population genomics, environmental gradient

51 **Background**

52 Transposable elements (TEs) are DNA sequences that self-propagate across genomes (1). TEs
53 are a ubiquitous component of almost all prokaryotic (2) and eukaryotic genomes such as
54 plants (e.g., (3,4), fungi (5) and animals (6,7)). Eukaryotic TEs fall into two broad classes:
55 DNA transposons that use a cut-and-paste mechanism for their transposition, and
56 retrotransposons, that move via a reverse transcribed RNA intermediate via a copy-and-paste
57 mechanism. TEs can be further classified into superfamilies and families based on specific
58 sequence features (8–10). Most TEs present in eukaryotic genomes are genomic fossils, i.e.
59 inactive remnants of once active copies (11,12). Their variation in copy number and size is
60 responsible for much of the large differences in genome size observed even among closely
61 related species (13–15). On the other hand, the most recent, likely active, transposable
62 fraction of the repeatome – all repeated sequences except microsatellites – remains silenced
63 under normal conditions. TEs are activated by ontogenetic factors and/or environmental cues
64 (16,17). By their repetitive nature TEs provide hotspots for ectopic (non-homologous)
65 recombination and induce chromosomal rearrangements as well as gene shuffling leading to
66 loss of genomic portions or expansion of gene copy numbers. Being mobile, TEs can further
67 locate in coding or regulatory regions, thus strongly affecting gene expression and gene
68 structure and/or function. TEs can thus passively and actively impact genome plasticity, and
69 extensively shape eukaryotic genome evolution (18,19).

70 TEs generate evolutionary novelty and respond to environmental change, indicating
71 that they are likely to play a relevant role in adaptation (20–26). The relationship between TEs
72 and environmental adaptation is complex, as both activation and repression of transposition in
73 response to environmental changes have been reported (27–29). Most TEs remain silent and
74 evolve in a neutral fashion, while only a minor fraction has adaptive roles (e.g., (30)). Several
75 studies have suggested that the presence of a certain number of potentially active TEs may
76 increase the genome's ability to cope with environmental stress in a variety of ways, e.g. via

77 major genomic rearrangements (31), TE-driven creation of new regulatory networks involving
78 genes in the TEs' proximity (32–35), and/or genome alteration via newly generated TE copies
79 (36). As such, TEs can be a major source of intra-population genetic variation in response to
80 environmental pressures (e.g., (37,38)). For instance, TE composition and/or copy number
81 variation in response to micro-climatic conditions was reported for natural populations of wild
82 barley, *Arabidopsis thaliana* (10,39), *A. arenosa* (40), and several *Brassicaceae* species (41).
83 However, there is a general lack of understanding on how environment influences TE
84 abundance and the activity of most TEs in most non-model species. The range and phenotypic
85 consequences of the heritable mutations produced through TE mobilization remain largely
86 unknown.

87 Fungi are a diverse group of organisms colonizing all habitats on Earth. Their
88 remarkable diversity in terms of morphologies, life-styles, genome sizes, reproductive modes,
89 and ecological niches makes them an ideal group for comparative genomics. Due to their
90 relatively small genome size compared to plants and animals (e.g., 37 Mbp on average in
91 Ascomycota and 46 Mbp in Basidiomycota; (42)), fungal genomes are easier to assemble and
92 annotate. The past decade has seen an extraordinary increase in fungal genomic research, also
93 in the area of TE research. The increased availability of high quality assemblies for a large
94 numbers of fungi has enabled kingdom-wide comparative studies (5,43). The TE content of
95 fungal genomes is variable, typically ranging from 0 to 30%, with up to 90% in the plant-
96 pathogen *Blumeria graminis* (44,45). Retrotransposons with long terminal repeats (LTR) are
97 the most abundant TE elements in fungal genomes. Several studies have shown that TEs are a
98 major driving force for adaptive genome evolution in fungi (46), especially in fungal plant
99 pathogens (43,47). In fact, animal-related and pathogenic fungi tend to have more TEs
100 inserted into genes than fungi with other lifestyles, and may play an important role in effector
101 gene diversification (48,49). Furthermore, TE content in fungi seems to be correlated with the
102 mode of reproduction, with sexual fungi displaying a higher TE load (50). Surprisingly,

103 lichen-forming fungi, a group of highly diverse, ecologically obligate biotrophs, have been
104 more or less completely neglected in TE research. Lichens are textbook examples of
105 ecologically successful symbioses being the result of a tightly integrated relationship between
106 a fungus, typically an ascomycete, and green algae and/or cyanobacteria (51). Lichens, due to
107 their ability to tolerate environmental extremes, their specialized nutritional mode involving
108 more or less strictly selected photosynthetic symbionts, and their varied morphologies and
109 modes of reproduction represent an important missing piece of the puzzle in our attempt to
110 understand the impact of TE activity on the evolutionary trajectory and architecture of fungal
111 genomes.

112 Here we provide the first in-depth report on the abundance and distribution of TEs in
113 the genome of a lichen-forming fungus, the ascomycete *Umbilicaria pustulata*. *U. pustulata* is
114 a widespread macrolichen that grows attached to rocks from southern Europe to northern
115 Scandinavia. Population genomics analyses revealed the presence of otherwise
116 morphologically indistinguishable ecotypes in *U. pustulata*, i.e. intra-specific lineages,
117 differentially adapted to the Mediterranean and cold-temperate climate zone, and interacting
118 with different algal symbiont communities (52,53). The availability of a high-quality, PacBio-
119 based reference assembly (54), together with marked genome-wide climatic niche
120 differentiation data (52), and the possibility to sample this widespread and abundant species
121 along replicated elevation gradients make *U. pustulata* an ideal model to study the TE content
122 of a lichen-forming fungal genome and its potential link to intra-specific adaptive variation.
123 Specifically, we asked the questions: i) How diverse is the repeatome in *U. pustulata*?; ii) To
124 what extent does TE abundance vary between populations and across gradients?; iii) Are there
125 ecotype-specific TE insertions, and if so, where are they located? To address these questions,
126 we tracked the insertion frequencies of the newly annotated TEs in populations representing
127 the Mediterranean and the cold-temperate ecotypes of the species. To disentangle general

128 trends from local differentiation, we sampled populations across three elevational gradients
129 each encompassing the Mediterranean and the cold-temperate climate zone.

130

131 **Results**

132 *TE landscape in U. pustulata*

133 The repeatome spans 21.26 % of the *U. pustulata* genome length (Supplementary Table 1).

134 We annotated 119 TE consensus sequences for a total of 5,956 TE copies (704 of which full-
135 length), 6,758 TE fragments, for a cumulative coverage of 6,996,427 bp (Table 2,

136 Supplementary Tables 1, 2). Retrotransposons (Class I) cover 15.6% of the genome of *U.*

137 *pustulata*, while DNA transposons (Class II) cover 3.5%. Among the Class I elements, Gypsy
138 are the most represented (8.8% of the genome), followed by Copia elements (4.1%). Helitron

139 are the most abundant elements within the Class II (1.7%), followed by Terminal Inverted

140 Repeats (TIR; 1.2%).

141 TE copies have a median nucleotide identity of ~90% with their respective TE family

142 consensus sequence, ranging from 88.7% of Helitron (Class II) and 86.2% of LTR elements

143 (Class I) to 95.3% for PiggyBac (Class II) and 94% for LINE elements (Class I). The

144 distribution of TE copy identity to their family consensus sequences suggests recent activity

145 (Fig. 1, Supplementary Table 3).

146

147 *TE variation across U. pustulata populations*

148 We used the PoPoolationTE2 pipeline (55) on the *U. pustulata* reference genome (54) to

149 detect variations in TE frequencies in 15 natural populations across three replicated

150 elevational gradients.

151 After manual curation we retained 182 TE loci belonging to 12 superfamilies with a

152 minimum physical coverage of 16 (Table 3A, Supplementary Table 4). Of these, 68 insertions

153 were fixed across populations, i.e., they had a minimum frequency of 0.95 within each

154 population. Copia elements were the most frequently detected loci, representing 43% (49 loci)
155 of all polymorphic insertions, followed by TIR elements (19.3%, 22 loci) (Table 3B).

156 We further compared population structure based on 447,470 genome-wide SNPs
157 (dataset available at: <https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.14784579>) with the population
158 divergence based on the variations of TE frequencies across populations. Both SNP-based and
159 TE frequency-based ordinations show that populations can be grouped into two clearly
160 distinct clusters, corresponding to the Mediterranean and cold-temperate ecotypes of the
161 lichen-forming fungus *sensu* Dal Grande et al. (2017) (52) (Fig. 2).

162

163 *Variations of TE frequencies between ecotypes*

164 We identified TE loci that were highly differentiated (hdTEs) between the two ecotypes,
165 because these loci might represent differential fixation/loss between ecotypes and have
166 particular functional relevance. We identified 28 hdTEs (Table 3C). Of these, seven were
167 exclusively found in the cold-temperate populations, 19 showed significantly higher
168 frequency in the cold-temperate populations, and one was more abundant in the
169 Mediterranean populations (a short Copia11 fragment in scaffold9_123163). One Copia
170 element was almost exclusively found in the two Spanish gradients (an almost full-length
171 Copia11 copy in scaffold9_1443709). This insertion was absent in the Mediterranean climatic
172 zone and linearly increased in abundance with elevation.

173 The analysis of hdTEs between ecotypes showed an overrepresentation of Copia
174 elements (16 loci, 57.1%). Among hdTEs we also found 4 TIR, 3 Helitron, 3 unknown, 1
175 MITE and 1 PiggyBac element. Compared to all other TE insertions detected across
176 populations, hdTEs were significantly more similar to their consensus sequence (Wilcoxon
177 signed rank sum test $p < 0.0001$ both in terms of sequence identity and length coverage).
178 Eighteen hdTEs displayed sequence identity and length coverage towards their respective
179 consensus sequence greater than 95%.

180

181 *Potential functional impact of TE insertions*

182 One hundred and three out of 114 polymorphic TE loci were inserted either inside a gene (27

183 TE loci, 25 in coding positions) or in a possible regulatory region (in the 1-kb region

184 surrounding a gene). These include all except two hdTEs (Supplementary Table 3).

185

186 **Discussion**

187 *The U. pustulata repeatome*

188 In this work we studied the content of transposable elements in the genome of the lichen-

189 forming fungus *U. pustulata*. Furthermore we analyzed the variation in TE insertion

190 frequency in populations representing two ecotypes distributed along three gradients spanning

191 the elevational range of the species, i.e. from the Mediterranean to cold-temperate climate

192 zones.

193 The repeat content in *U. pustulata* of 21% is rather high, compared to the repetitive

194 content in other fungal genomes, which typically ranges from 0 to 30% (56,57). It is also

195 higher than the predicted 15% TE content in another lichen-forming fungus, the

196 Eurotiomycete *Endocarpon pusillum* (58). The *U. pustulata* TE landscape is particularly rich

197 in retrotransposons (class I), especially the LTR retrotransposons Gypsy and Copia. This is a

198 general feature in fungi. The class I/class II genomic coverage ratio of 1.56 is in line with

199 what has been reported for Ascomycetes (0.78-4.23; (57)).

200 A substantial portion of the annotated TE copies are highly similar to their consensus,

201 which is often interpreted as a signature of rapid and recent bursts of TE activity in the

202 genome (e.g., (59)). Some TE families, such as Gypsy, on the other hand, displayed a broader

203 range of identity rate with their consensus, suggesting slower colonization of the *U. pustulata*

204 genome with these elements. In the absence of a molecular clock for *U. pustulata* it is,

205 however, difficult to precisely evaluate the time when the TE bursts possibly occurred, and
206 how much time it took for the TEs to spread in the genome.

207 Population-level analyses of TE insertion frequencies in 15 populations of *U.*
208 *pustulata* along three elevational gradients showed that a substantial part of the TEs can be
209 considered as stable and fixed among populations. The clustering of populations based on the
210 detected TE loci across the three gradients recapitulated almost exactly the population
211 divergence based on genome-wide SNPs. This suggests that TE variation is mainly a result of
212 drift between populations. The predominant evolutionary neutrality of TE variation has
213 already been reported for other groups of organisms, such as nematodes (60), and other fungi
214 (61).

215

216 *Ecotypic differentiation patterns of TE insertions and their potential functional impact*

217 Although adaptive TE insertions may be marginal compared to the overall repeatome
218 dynamics (61), it is broadly recognized that TEs can play important regulatory roles and may
219 contribute substantially to adaptive evolution in a variety of organisms (25,27,62,63). To
220 identify TE insertions likely linked to climatic niche we studied loci where the TE frequencies
221 were significantly differentiated by fungal ecotype, recurrently across the gradients (hdTEs).
222 Overall, the high similarity of hdTEs to their consensus, the high variability in insertion
223 frequency among populations – often linearly correlated with elevation – as well as the
224 presence of gradient-specific insertions suggest that most of the hdTEs have recently been
225 active in *U. pustulata* and are possibly still active, in particular in populations located in the
226 cold-temperate climate zone.

227 Copia retrotransposons are the younger, most active elements of the *U. pustulata*
228 repeatome. When Copia elements are in proximity of a gene, their regulatory role is typically
229 exerted via regulation of gene expression by small RNAs, whereas when inserted within
230 genes they can give rise to alternative splice variants (39,64). Genome expansion related to

231 retrotransposon amplification has been shown to occur in plants as a result of environmental
232 adaptation (e.g., (65,66)). Global transcriptomic responses of Copia elements have been
233 linked to heat stress in *Arabidopsis* spp. (41) and to various environmental stresses in
234 *Eucalyptus* (67).

235 The identified hdTEs are prime candidates for future functional validation, e.g. via
236 targeted transcriptomic and proteomic analyses, to test whether and how they influence
237 adaptation of the lichen ecotype to different climatic niches. Particularly interesting in this
238 regard could be the effects of TEs inserted near i) *genes involved in cell wall biosynthesis*: a
239 Copia element near a putative GPI ethanolamine phosphate gene, controlling membrane-to-
240 cell wall transfer of fungal adhesins by membrane-anchored transglycosidases (68); a TIR
241 element near *Sac7*, a known activator of the small GTPase *RHO1*, which plays an essential
242 role in the control of cell wall synthesis and organization of the actin cytoskeleton (69); ii)
243 *genes involved in nutrient assimilation*: a Copia element near a NADP-specific glutamate
244 dehydrogenase, a key enzyme in the assimilation of alternative nitrogen sources through
245 ammonium (70); an Helitron element near an acid protease, whose secretion grants access to
246 the carbon and mineral nutrients within proteins in the cells of the plant host in fungal
247 endophytes (71); an unknown TE element inserted near an inositol-pentakisphosphate 2-
248 kinase, an enzyme involved in the decomposition of organic phosphates, whose activity is
249 modulated by environmental pH (72); iii) *genes involved in DNA repair mechanisms*: a Copia
250 element near a putative DNA glycosylase, a gene involved in single-base excision repair
251 mechanisms (73); iv) *genes involved in reproduction and environmental sensing*: an unknown
252 TE element located near a conidiation-specific gene, which plays a role in balancing asexual
253 and sexual development, a process regulated by several factors including light, temperature,
254 humidity, and nutrient availability (74,75); v) *genes involved in secondary metabolism*: a
255 PiggyBac element within a type-I polyketide gene cluster containing fixed nonsense
256 mutations in its core biosynthetic gene only in the cold-temperate climate zone (76). TEs have

257 been previously identified as regulators of biosynthetic gene clusters in ascomycetes: the
258 lower expression of the penicillin cluster in *Aspergillus nidulans* in the absence of *Pbla*
259 element is a typical example (77).

260

261 *Outlook and future perspectives*

262 To our knowledge, this is the first in-depth report on a lichen repeatome, based on a highly
263 contiguous and complete PacBio-based reference assembly. As more consensus TE libraries
264 will become available in the future, as a result of improved sequencing and assembling
265 technologies, the study of the repeatome of lichen-forming fungi will contribute key insights
266 to the understanding of TE evolution, in particular in the following research areas:

267 1) *Role of reproductive mode on TE abundance and composition*: the dynamics in TE
268 load according to the reproductive modes are still a matter of debate. Theoretically sexual
269 reproduction may either facilitate TE accumulation by providing a means of spreading to all
270 individuals in a population, or restrain TE accumulation via purifying selection (50). On the
271 other hand, TE movements may constitute an important source of genome plasticity
272 compatible with adaptive evolution in predominantly asexual species (60). Broad-scale
273 comparative analyses of different sexual and asexual lineages in both nematodes and
274 arthropods revealed no evidence for differences in TE load according to the reproductive
275 modes (78,79). In fungi, however, a recent study suggests that sex might be responsible for
276 the evolutionary success of TEs, by showing that TE loads decrease rapidly under asexual
277 reproduction (50). Lichens are ideal study systems to address this question as congeneric,
278 closely-related species often differ strikingly in their modes of reproduction (80,81). In our
279 case, the sister species of the predominantly asexual *U. pustulata*, *U. hispanica*, reproduces
280 mainly via sexual ascospores (82,83).

281 2) *Link between TE content and fungal life strategies*: TE count tends to be elevated in
282 fungal plant symbionts (84). This is because recurrent adaptation to symbiosis seems to

283 involve relaxed genome control against duplications, TE proliferation and overall growth in
284 genome size (63). About half of the currently described ascomycete species are involved in a
285 lichen symbiotic association. This symbiotic lifestyle is believed to have arisen independently
286 on several occasions in the evolution of Ascomycota (51). Comparing the repeatome of
287 several unrelated lichen-forming fungi across the Fungi will provide important basal
288 information to understand the evolutionary consequences of the symbiotic lifestyle on the
289 fungal repeatome.

290 3) *Intra-specific variation and role of TEs in adaptive evolution*: several studies have
291 shown that TE insertion patterns may differ between closely related fungal species occupying
292 different niches (e.g., *Ustilago maydis* and *Sporisorium scitamineum*, (85)) or even between
293 strains within the same species (*Magnaporthe grisea*, (86)). Many lichen species are
294 characterized by wide ecological amplitudes, with distributional ranges spanning multiple
295 climate zones. Furthermore, long-lived, sessile organisms such as lichens are more likely to
296 experience strong selective pressures resulting in particularly abrupt genetic breaks between
297 differentially selected populations over short distances (52,87). Lichens are therefore ideal
298 systems to test the intra-specific differentiation in TE content and its potential role in affecting
299 host fitness in different environments.

300 4) *TE content in lichen-associated photobionts*: Nearly 40 genera of green algae (~100
301 species) have been reported from lichen symbioses. Studies on the TE content of green algae
302 are scarce. While the TE abundance seems to be low in the green algal lineage (88,89), TEs
303 may have important functional roles. For instance, TEs may have considerably contributed for
304 gene regulatory sequences evolution in the green algal model species *Chlamydomonas*
305 *reinhardtii* (89). TEs were reported as the major driver of chromosome specialization in two
306 out of the 20 chromosomes in the marine algal *Ostreococcus tauri*, the smallest free-living
307 eukaryote, possibly contributing to environmental niche adaptation and modulation of
308 reproduction (90). Lichen photobionts are an interesting and highly diverse group of

309 unicellular eukaryotes to study in relation to TE diversity and evolution, especially
310 considering the high symbiotic specificity, the high intra-specific diversity and strong
311 environmental structuring found in many taxa (91–95).

312 In summary, our pioneering study into TE content and variation of a lichen-forming
313 fungus provides valuable baseline data for future investigations. It opens up new perspectives
314 for targeted analyses of the potential effect of TE dynamics on the evolution, fitness and
315 adaptability of *U. pustulata*, and more generally of lichen-forming fungi, and other symbiotic
316 systems.

317

318 **Methods**

319 *The genome of U. pustulata*

320 We used the genome assembly by Greshake Tsovaras et al. (54) as reference for TE prediction
321 and annotation (accession VXIT01000000, BioProject: PRJNA464168). The haploid genome
322 of *U. pustulata* is 32.9 Mbp long, with 43 scaffolds, and an N50 length of >1.8 Mbp.

323

324 *Pool-Seq sequencing of 15 U. pustulata populations*

325 To predict the copy insertion frequencies at TE loci across three elevational gradients, we
326 used whole-genome sequencing data from pools of individuals from 15 natural lichen
327 populations (100 lichen thalli per population). The 15 pools were collected along three
328 elevational gradients in Southern Europe, i.e. Mount Limbara (Sardinia, Italy; 6 populations,
329 IT), Sierra de Gredos (Sistema Central, Spain; 6 populations, ESii) and Talavera-Puerto de
330 Pico (Sistema Central, Spain; 3 populations, ESi) (Table 1), as described in (96). Individuals
331 were pooled in equimolar concentrations and each pool was sequenced on an Illumina HiSeq
332 platform (2 x 100 bp for IT and ESi, 2 x 150 bp for ESii). The Pool-Seq data was quality-
333 filtered using Trimmomatic v0.39 (97) with a length cutoff of 80 bp and a quality cutoff of 26
334 in a window of 5 bp. Reads with N's were removed and an additional quality trimming using

335 a modified Mott algorithm was performed using the script *trim-fastq.pl* from the PoPoolation
336 v1.2.2 pipeline (98). After trimming, the sequencing depth varied between 24.3 and 37.3
337 million paired-end reads (Table 1).

338

339 *De novo TE prediction: building a U. pustulata TE-consensus library*

340 We used the TEdenovo pipeline from the REPET package v2.5 (99,100) to generate a TE-
341 consensus library in *U. pustulata*. Briefly, the pipeline was used to perform a self-alignment
342 of the reference genome to detect repeats, to cluster the repetitions, and to perform multiple
343 alignments from the clustered repetitions to create consensus TE sequences. Consensus TEs
344 were subsequently classified using the PASTEClassifier pipeline v2.0 (101), which follows
345 Wicker's classification (8) using structural and homology-based information (i.e., terminal
346 repeats, poly(A) tails, ORFs, tandem repeats, etc.) and the following databases:

347 'rebase20.05_ntSeq_cleaned_TE.fa', 'rebase20.05_aaSeq_cleaned_TE.fa' and

348 'ProfilesBankForREPET_Pfam27.0_GypsyDB.hmm'

349 (<https://urgi.versailles.inra.fr/download/repet>). We set the *minNbSeqPerGroup* parameter to 3
350 (i.e., $2n+1$) because *U. pustulata* is haploid. All remaining parameters used for these analyses
351 can be found in the TEdenovo and TEannot configuration files (Additional Files 1, 2).

352 We then performed extensive automated as well as manual curation of the TE
353 consensus library to minimize redundancy as well as false positives. For this purpose, we first
354 performed a two-step annotation (102) on contigs longer than 5 kbp, i.e. 1st round: steps 1 -
355 taking all matches found by BLASTER, RepeatMasker and CENSOR, 2 - normal and
356 random, 3 - using Grouper, Recon and Piler as clustering methods, 7 - removing
357 duplicated/spurious fragments and applying the long join procedure for nested copies of TEs
358 identified by the TEannot pipeline part. We only retained TE consensus sequences having at
359 least one Full-Length Copy (FLC; i.e. length of fragments between 95% and 105% of

360 consensus length) to build the final TE library. This was followed by a 2nd round consisting of
361 TEannot steps 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 7 and 8 using the final TE library to annotate the genome.

362 Finally we performed a copy-divergence analysis of TE classes, based on Kimura
363 distances by calculating Kimura 2-parameter divergence (103) between each TE copy and its
364 consensus sequence using the utility scripts provided in the RepeatMasker package. These
365 were also used to construct a TE landscape divergence plot by grouping copies within TE
366 superfamilies and calculating the percentage of the genome occupied by each TE superfamily.
367

368 *Evaluation of TE copy insertion frequencies across the different U. pustulata populations*

369 We used the PoPoolationTE2 v1.10.04 pipeline (55) to compute population-wide TE copy
370 insertion frequencies of the curated TE library across the 15 populations described above. For
371 this, we performed a 'joint' analysis using both quantitative and qualitative information
372 extracted from paired-end reads mapping on the TE-annotated reference genome and a set of
373 reference TEs to detect TE copy insertion frequencies in populations. Frequency values in this
374 case correspond to the proportion of individuals in a population for which a TE copy is
375 present at a given locus.

376 We used the curated *U. pustulata* TE library and the *U. pustulata* reference genome
377 described above to produce the 'TE-merged' reference file (available at:
378 <https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.14784579>) and the 'TE-hierarchy' file (Additional File 3)
379 as follows. Sequences corresponding to the TE annotations were extracted and masked in the
380 reference genome using the tools getfasta and maskfasta from the Bedtools suite (104),
381 respectively. The resulting TE sequences were concatenated with the masked genome to form
382 the 'TE-merged' reference. For every TE copy we also retrieved TE sequence name, family,
383 and order to build the required 'TE-hierarchy' file. For each *U. pustulata* pool, we mapped
384 forward and reverse reads separately against the 'TE-merged' reference using the local
385 alignment algorithm BWA-SW v0.7 (105) with default parameters. The obtained SAM

386 alignment files were then converted to BAM files using samtools view v1.9 (106). Paired-end
387 information was restored from the previous alignments using the *se2pe* (--sort) tool from
388 PoPoolationTE2 v1.10.04. Using the *ppileup* tool from PoPoolationTE2 we then created a
389 ppileup file (--map-qual 15) that summarizes, for every base of the genome, the number of PE
390 reads spanning the site – i.e., physical coverage – as well as the structural status inferred from
391 the paired-end reads covering the site (i.e., indicating whether one or both boundaries of a TE
392 insertion are supported by significant physical coverage).

393 Heterogeneity in physical coverage among populations may lead to discrepancies in
394 TE frequency estimation and in a substantial fraction of sample specific insertion false
395 positives (55). Hence, to reduce the number of false positives, we normalized the physical
396 coverage across the *U. pustulata* populations via a subsampling and a rescaling approach: In
397 order to balance the loss of information with the homogeneity of the TE frequency we used
398 the *stat-coverage* tool from PoPoolationTE2 to obtain information on the physical coverage in
399 our dataset. We then used the *subsamplePpileup* tool (--target-coverage 16) to discard
400 positions with a physical coverage below 16x and rescale the coverage of the remaining sites
401 to that value.

402 We identified signatures of TE polymorphisms from the previously subsampled file
403 using the *identifySignature* tool following the joint algorithm (--mode joint; --min-count 3; --
404 signature-window minimumSampleMedian; --min-valley minimumSampleMedian). Then,
405 for each identified site, we estimated TE frequencies in each pool using the *frequency* tool.
406 Eventually, we paired up the signatures of TE polymorphisms using *pairupSignatures* tool (--
407 min-distance 100; --max-distance 500), yielding a final list of TE loci in the reference genome
408 with their frequencies for each pool. Each TE insertion was manually checked using IGV v2.5
409 (107). TE loci predictions with unusually high read coverage, i.e. resulting from spurious
410 alignments to unmasked repeats, were discarded from further analysis. The stringent filters
411 applied here, together with the inability of PoPoolationTE2 to detect nested TEs (55), may

412 lead to an underestimation of TE activity across *U. pustulata* populations. On the positive
413 side, however, such a conservative approach almost certainly eliminates false insertions.

414 TE loci supported by significant physical coverage were considered polymorphic if
415 they had a frequency difference of at least 0.05% among populations. TE loci with
416 frequencies $\geq 0.95\%$ were considered as fixed in the populations. The similarity of populations
417 based on their TE composition was investigated using nonmetric multidimensional scaling
418 (NMDS) on all detected TE insertion frequencies using the function metaMDS from the
419 vegan package (108) for R (109).

420

421 *Identification of TE loci significantly differentiated between U. pustulata ecotypes*

422 To identify highly differentiated TE loci (hdTEs) between *U. pustulata* ecotypes we
423 performed a differential abundance analysis using the microbiomeSeq (110) and DeSeq2
424 (111) R packages. For this purpose, we contrasted the normalized relative abundances of all
425 TE copy insertions in DeSeq2 to detect differentially abundant TE copy insertions (at $\alpha =$
426 0.01) between populations representing the Mediterranean (populations IT1-4, ESii1, ESi1)
427 and the cold-temperate (IT6, ESii3-6, ESi2-3) ecotypes. From the analysis we excluded
428 populations IT5 and ESii2, because they represent admixed populations of both ecotypes (96).

429

430 *Functional characterization*

431 To identify genes potentially impacted by TE insertions, i.e. genes overlapping with TEs or in
432 the proximity of TEs (1 kbp up- or downstream each TE insertion), we cross-referenced the
433 TE annotation file with the gene annotation file (54) using the *intersect* tool of the Bedtools
434 suite (104).

435

436 *Population structure based on genome-wide SNPs*

437 Population structure based on genome-wide single-nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs), i.e. the
438 positional relations among populations based on their genetic distances, was detected by
439 analyzing pairwise quantile distance matrices (0.975, 0.75, 0.5, 0.25, 0.025) based on the
440 pairwise fixation index (F_{ST}) among all populations using a three-way generalization of
441 classical multidimensional scaling (DISTATIS; (112)). Briefly, we used the sorted, duplicate-
442 removed BAM files of reads mapped to the *U. pustulata* reference genome. High-quality (i.e.
443 after removing duplicated reads and genomic indels) SNPs were called using SAMtools
444 mpileup and normalized to a uniform coverage of 30 across all populations with PoPoolation2
445 (113). For this we used the synchronized mpileup file (i.e. ‘sync’ file containing the allele
446 frequencies for every population at every base in the reference genome) and the script
447 *subsample-synchronized.pl* (--without-replacement), excluding positions with a coverage
448 exceeding the 2% of the empirical coverage distribution of each pool. Genetic differentiation
449 (F_{ST}) was calculated with *fst-sliding.pl* in PoPoolation2 on the subsampled sync file. We only
450 considered SNPs with a minimum read count of 4 and a minimum mapping quality of 20. A
451 more detailed description of the methods can be found in (96).

452

453 **Declarations**

454 **Ethics approval and consent to participate** Not applicable.

455 **Consent for publication** Not applicable.

456 **Availability of data and materials** Raw sequences are available in the SRA archive under
457 Bioproject [xxx]. The datasets supporting the conclusions of this article are available in the
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464 **Authors' contributions** FDG and IS conceived the idea to the study. FDG, VC, NC, AC,
465 MP, and MS analyzed the data. FDG, MP, MN, and IS interpreted the data. FDG produced the
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471

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781 **Figure Legends**

782 **Fig. 1** Repeat landscape plot in *U. pustulata*. Sequence divergence of each TE copy from the
783 corresponding consensus sequence was measured based on the Kimura (K2P) distance
784 method. The further to the left a peak in the distribution, the younger the corresponding TE
785 fraction generally is.

786 **Fig. 2** Left: Pattern of genetic structure among populations based on pairwise F_{ST} genetic
787 distances calculated on 447,470 polymorphic SNPs. Right: Non-metric multidimensional
788 scaling (NMDS) ordination plot illustrating population structure based on TE copy insertion
789 frequencies in 15 populations of *U. pustulata*. IT: Italian gradient, ES: Spanish gradients (i,
790 ii). The populations from Mediterranean climate (red) and cold temperate climate (blue) form
791 clusters (with the exception of IT5 and ESii2 which have an intermediate position).

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Table 1. Populations ID, coordinates, elevations and Pool-Seq read number for 15 *U. pustulata* populations along three elevational gradients.

Country	Population ID	Lat	Long	Elevation m a.s.l.	Paired-end read #	mean read length
Italy	IT1	40,7577	9,0794	176	29162770	99,3
	IT2	40,7778	9,0546	297	28279628	99,3
	IT3	40,8503	9,1119	588	26570943	99,4
	IT4	40,8568	9,134	842	31720828	99,4
	IT5	40,8573	9,1642	1125	31755901	99,4
	IT6	40,8524	9,1732	1303	32064853	99,4
Spain 1	ESii1	40,2028	-5,2334	706	26758269	141,8
	ESii2	40,2069	-5,2327	887	24295101	141,7
	ESii3	40,2116	-5,2337	1082	29236274	141,9
	ESii4	40,2183	-5,2335	1258	33333561	141,6
	ESii5	40,2253	-5,2375	1480	24672545	141,7
	ESii6	40,2322	-5,2389	1699	26690508	141,5
Spain 2	ESi1	39,9946	-4,8679	477	28862057	99,5
	ESi2	40,2899	-4,9927	859	37303042	99,5
	ESi3	40,323	-5,0173	1417	35351050	99,5

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Table 2A. Summary of class I and II TE elements found in the *U. pustulata* genome.

class	Total length	no. copies	no. full length copies	median identity*	median length
class II	1146170	1863	156	91,4	657,9
class I	5118614	2902	465	90,3	1162,5
Unknown	731643	1191	83	88,1	323,4

Table 2B. Summary of TE elements subdivided into superfamilies for the *U. pustulata* genome.

class	order	superfamily	no. elements	total length	no. copies	no. full length copies	median identity*	median length
class II	DHX	Helitron_01	7	553513	680	23	88,7	498,6
	DTA	HAT	1	24206	80	4	89,98	186,5
	DTB	PiggyBac	1	12236	10	4	95,3	1481,0
	DTT	Tc1Mar	4	104574	139	28	89,6	1029,4
	DTX	TIR	18	380415	824	86	92,0	648,2
	DXX	MITE	4	71226	130	11	93,0	521,0
class I	RII	LINE	5	317234	155	33	94,0	923,1
	RLC	Copia	25	1333809	865	166	92,0	1350,2
	RLG	Gypsy	23	2904582	1296	215	89,8	1246,0
	RLX	LTR	15	538504	550	46	86,2	942,6
	RXX	LARD	1	20415	25	1	816,6	383
	RXX	TRIM	1	4070	11	4	96,8	126
	No	Unknown	14	731643	1191	83	88,1	323,4
<i>total</i>			<i>119</i>	<i>6996427</i>	<i>5956</i>	<i>704</i>	<i>147,1</i>	<i>743,0</i>

*Identity= % sequence similarity between TE copy and the respective consensus sequence

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Table 3A. TE copy insertion in 15 populations of *U. pustulata* (min. physical coverage: 16x).

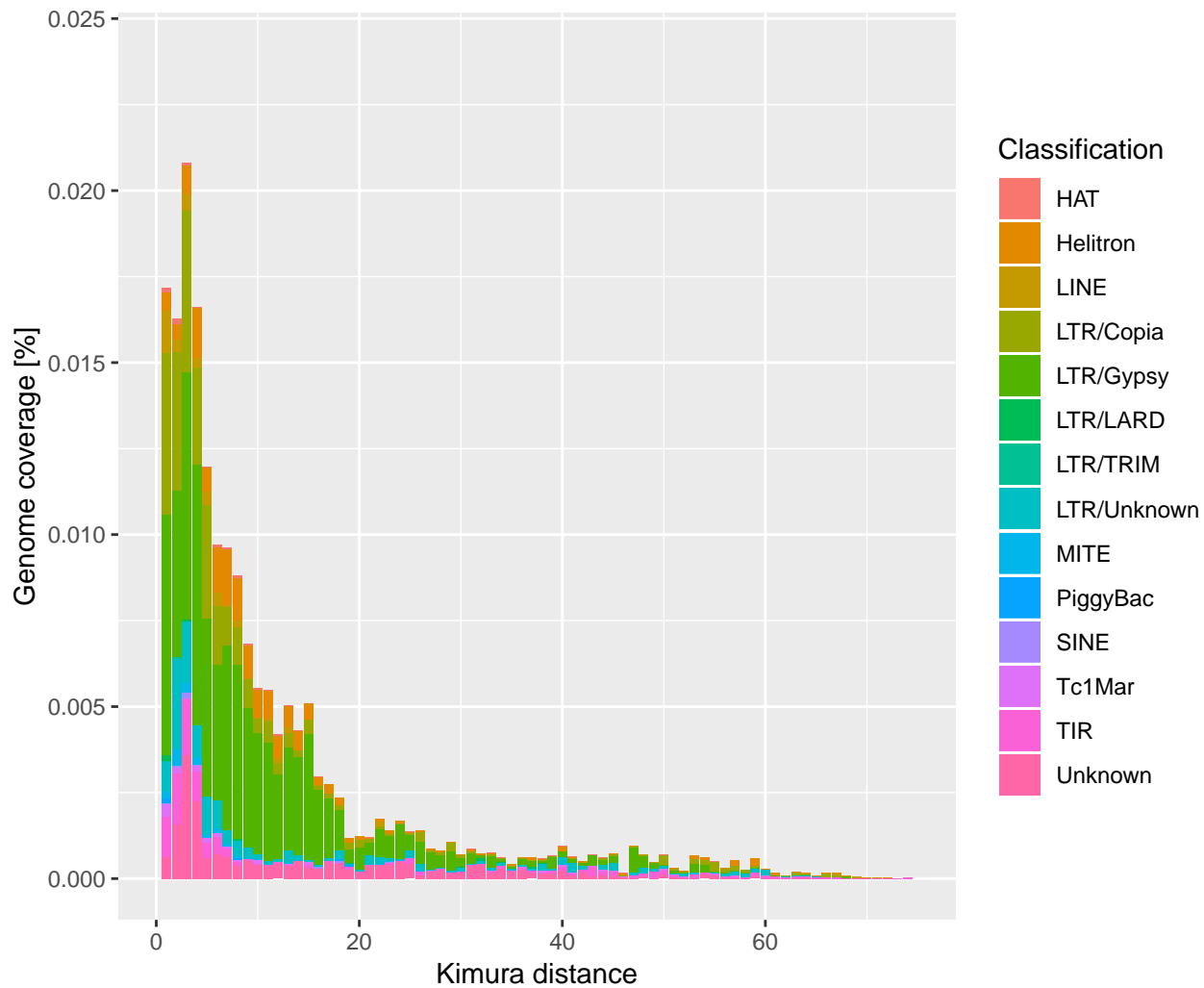
TE family	copy no.	%
Copia	62	34,1
TIR	31	17,0
Unknown	23	12,6
Helitron	22	12,1
Gypsy	16	8,8
LTR	10	5,5
MITE	8	4,4
LARD	5	2,7
TC1Mar	2	1,1
HAT	1	0,5
LINE	1	0,5
Piggybac	1	0,5

Table 3B. Polymorphic TE copy insertion in populations.

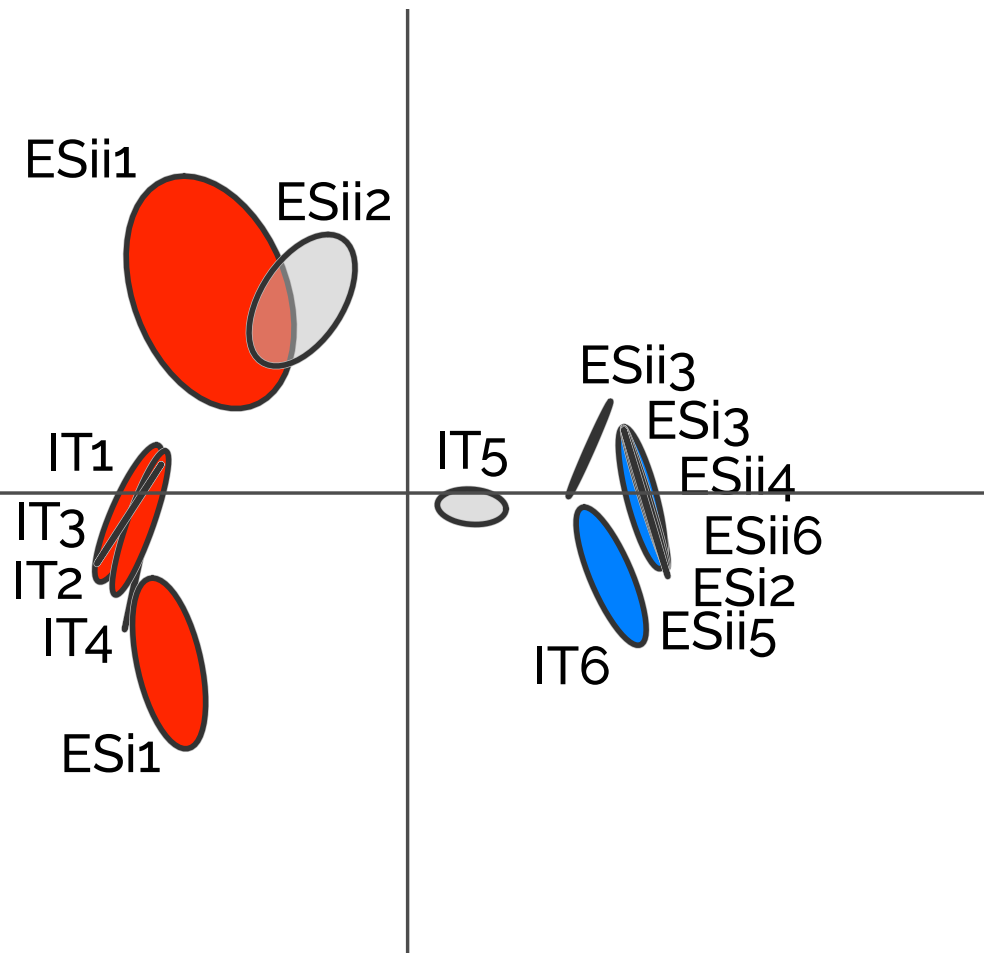
TE family	copy no.	%
Copia	49	43,0
TIR	22	19,3
Unknown	13	11,4
Helitron	10	8,8
Gypsy	5	4,4
LTR	5	4,4
MITE	5	4,4
LARD	1	0,9
TC1Mar	2	1,8
HAT	1	0,9
Piggybac	1	0,9

Table 3C. hdTEs between *U. pustulata* ecotypes.

TE family	copy no.	%
Copia	16	57,1
TIR	4	14,3
Helitron	3	10,7
Unknown	3	10,7
MITE	1	3,6
PiggyBac	1	3,6



genome-wide SNPs



TE insertions

