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The genome of *Ectocarpus subulatus* – a highly stress-tolerant brown alga

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34 Abstract

35

36 Brown algae are multicellular photosynthetic stramenopiles that colonize marine rocky shores 37 worldwide. Ectocarpus sp. Ec32 has been established as a genomic model for brown algae. Here we 38 present the genome and metabolic network of the closely related species, Ectocarpus subulatus 39 Kützing, which is characterized by high abiotic stress tolerance. Since their separation, both strains 40 show new traces of viral sequences and the activity of large retrotransposons, which may also be related to the expansion of a family of chlorophyll-binding proteins. Further features suspected to 41 42 contribute to stress tolerance include an expanded family of heat shock proteins, the reduction of genes involved in the production of halogenated defence compounds, and the presence of fewer cell 43 44 wall polysaccharide-modifying enzymes. Overall, E. subulatus has mainly lost members of gene 45 families down-regulated in low salinities, and conserved those that were up-regulated in the same 46 condition. However, 96% of genes that differed between the two examined *Ectocarpus* species, as 47 well as all genes under positive selection, were found to encode proteins of unknown function. This 48 underlines the uniqueness of brown algal stress tolerance mechanisms as well as the significance of 49 establishing E. subulatus as a comparative model for future functional studies.

51 Introduction

52 Brown algae (Phaeophyceae) are multicellular photosynthetic organisms that are successful 53 colonizers of rocky shores in the world's oceans. In many places they constitute the dominant 54 vegetation in the intertidal zone, where they have adapted to multiple stressors including strong 55 variations in temperature, salinity, irradiation, and mechanical stress (wave action) over the tidal 56 cycle¹. In the subtidal environment, brown algae form kelp forests that harbor highly diverse communities². They are also harvested as food or for industrial purposes, such as the extraction of 57 alginates³. The worldwide annual harvest of brown algae has reached 10 million tons in 2014 and is 58 constantly growing⁴. Brown algae share some basic photosynthetic machinery with land plants, but 59 their plastids derived from a secondary or tertiary endosymbiosis event with a red alga, and they 60 belong to an independent lineage of eukaryotes, the stramenopiles⁵. This phylogenetic background, 61 62 together with their distinct habitat, contributes to the fact that brown algae have evolved numerous unique metabolic pathways, life cycle features, and stress tolerance mechanisms. 63

64 To enable functional studies of brown algae, strain Ec32 of the small filamentous alga Ectocarpus sp. has been established as a genetic and genomic model⁶⁻⁸. This strain was formerly described as 65 *Ectocarpus siliculosus*, but has since been shown to belong to an independent clade by molecular 66 methods^{9,10}. More recently, three additional brown algal genomes, that of the kelp species 67 Saccharina japonica¹¹, that of Cladosiphon okamuranus¹², and that of Nemacystus decipiens¹³, have 68 69 been characterized. Comparisons between these four genomes have allowed researchers to obtain a 70 first overview of the unique genomic features of brown algae, as well as a glimpse of the genetic 71 diversity within this group. However, given the evolutionary distance between these algae, it is 72 difficult to link genomic differences to physiological differences and possible adaptations to their 73 lifestyle. To be able to generate more accurate hypotheses on the role of particular genes and 74 genomic features for adaptive traits, a common strategy is to compare closely related strains and 75 species that differ only in a few genomic features. The genus *Ectocarpus* is particularly well suited 76 for such comparative studies because it comprises a wide range of morphologically similar but genetically distinct strains and species that have adapted to different marine and brackish water 77 78 environments^{9,14–16}. One species within this group, *Ectocarpus subulatus* Kützing¹⁰, comprises isolates highly resistant to elevated temperature¹⁷ and low salinity. A strain of this species was even 79 80 isolated from freshwater¹⁸, constituting one of the handful of known marine-freshwater transitions in brown algae¹⁹. 81

82 Here we present the draft genome and metabolic network of a strain of *E. subulatus*, establishing the genomic basis for its use as a comparative model to study stress tolerance mechanisms, and in 83 84 particular low salinity tolerance, in brown algae. Similar strategies have been successfully employed 85 in terrestrial plants, where "extremophile" relatives of model- or economically relevant species have been sequenced to explore new stress tolerance mechanisms in the green lineage $^{20-25}$. The study of 86 the E. subulatus genome, and subsequent comparative analysis with other brown algal genomes, in 87 88 particular that of *Ectocarpus* sp. Ec32, provides insights into the dynamics of *Ectocarpus* genome 89 evolution and divergence, and highlights important adaptive processes, such as a potentially 90 retrotransposon driven expansion of the family of chlorophyll-binding proteins with subsequent 91 diversification. Most importantly, our analyses underline that most of the observed differences 92 between the examined species of *Ectocarpus* correspond to proteins with yet unknown functions.

93 **Results**

94 Sequencing and assembly of the *E. subulatus* genome

95 A total of 34.7Gb of paired-end read data and of 28.8Gb of mate-pair reads (corresponding to 45 million non-redundant mate-pairs) were acquired (Supporting Information Table S1). The final 96 genome assembly size of strain Bft15b was 227Mb (Table 1), and we also obtained 123Mb of 97 98 bacterial contigs corresponding predominantly to Alphaproteobacteria (50%, with the dominant 99 genera Roseobacter 8% and Hyphomonas 5%), followed by Gammaproteobacteria (18%), and 100 Flavobacteria (13%). The mean sequencing coverage of mapped reads was 67X for the paired-end library, and the genomic coverage was 6.9, 14.4, and 30.4X for the 3kb, 5kb, and 10kb mate-pair 101 102 libraries, respectively. RNA-seq experiments yielded 8.8Gb of RNA-seq data, of which 96.6% 103 (Bft15b strain in seawater), 87.6% (freshwater strain in seawater), and 85.3% (freshwater strain in 104 freshwater) aligned with the final genome assembly of the Bft15b strain.

105 Gene prediction and annotation

106 The number of predicted proteins in E. subulatus was 60% higher than that predicted for Ec32 107 (Table 1), mainly due to the presence of mono-exonic genes, many of which corresponded to 108 transposases, which were not removed from our predictions, but had been manually removed from 109 the Ec32 genome. Ninety-eight percent of the gene models were supported by at least one associated 110 RNA-seq read, and 92% were supported by at least ten reads, with lowly-expressed (<10 reads) 111 genes being generally shorter (882 vs 1,403 bases), and containing fewer introns (2.6 vs 5.7). In 7.3% of all predicted proteins we detected a signal peptide, and 3.7% additionally contained an 112 113 'ASAFAP'-motif (Supporting Information Table S2) indicating that they are likely targeted to the plastid²⁶. Overall the BUSCO²⁷ analyses indicate that the *E. subulatus* genome is 86% complete 114 115 (complete and fragmented genes) and 91% when not considering proteins also absent from all other 116 currently sequenced brown algae (Table 1).

117 **Repeated elements**

118 Thirty percent of the E. subulatus genome consisted of repeated elements. The most abundant groups 119 of repeated elements were large retrotransposon derivatives (LARDs), followed by long terminal 120 repeats (LTRs, predominantly Copia and Gypsy), and long and short interspersed nuclear elements 121 (LINEs, Figure 1A). The overall distribution of sequence identity levels within superfamilies showed two peaks, one at an identity level of 78-80%, and one at 96-100% (Figure 1C). An examination of 122 123 transposon conservation at the level of individual families revealed a few families that follow this 124 global bimodal distribution (e.g. TIR B343 or LARD B204), while the majority exhibited a 125 unimodal distribution with peaks either at high (e.g. LINE R15) or at lower identity levels (e.g. 126 LARD B554) (Figure 1C). Terminal repeat retrotransposons in miniature (TRIM) and LARDs, both 127 non-autonomous groups of retrotransposons, were among the most conserved families. A detailed 128 list of transposons is provided in Supporting Information Table S3. In line with previous 129 observations carried out in Ectocarpus sp. Ec32, no methylation was detected in the E. subulatus 130 genomic DNA.

131 Organellar genomes

132 Plastid and mitochondrial genomes from *E. subulatus* have 95.5% and 91.5% sequence identity with

133 their *Ectocarpus* sp. Ec32 counterparts in the conserved regions respectively. Only minor structural

134 differences were observed between organellar genomes of both *Ectocarpus* genomes, as detailed in

135 Supporting Information Text S1.

136 Global comparison of predicted proteomes

137 Metabolic network-based comparisons

Similar to the network previously obtained for *Ectocarpus* sp. $Ec32^{28}$, the *E. subulatus* Bft15b metabolic network comprised 2,074 metabolic reactions and 2,173 metabolites in 464 pathways,

140 which can be browsed at http://gem-aureme.irisa.fr/sububftgem. In total, 2,445 genes associated with

141 at least one metabolic reaction, and 215 pathways were complete (Figure 2). Comparisons between

142 both networks were carried out on a pathway level (Supporting Information Text S1, Section

143 "Metabolic network-based comparisons"), but no pathways were found to be truly specific to either

144 Ec32 and/or Bf15b.

145 Genes under positive selection

146 Out of the 2,311 orthogroups with single-copy orthologs that produced high quality alignments, 172 147 gene pairs (7.4%) exhibited dN/dS ratios > 0.5 (Supporting Information Table S4). Among these,

148 only eleven (6.4%) were found to fit significantly better with the model allowing for positive

selection in the *Ectocarpus* branch. These genes are likely to have been under positive selection, and

150 two of them contained a signal peptide targeting the plastid. All of them are genes specific to the

brown algal lineage with unknown function, and only two genes contained protein domains related

152 to a biochemical function (one oxidoreductase-like domain, and one protein prenyltransferase, alpha

subunit). However, all of them were expressed at least in *E. subulatus* Bft15b. There was no trend

154 for these genes to be located in specific regions of the genome (all except two for *Ectocarpus* sp.

Ec32 were on different scaffolds) and none of the genes were located in the pseudoautosomal region

156 of the sex chromosome.

157 Genes specific to either *Ectocarpus* genome, and expanded genes and gene families

After manual curation based on tblastn searches to eliminate artefacts arising from differences in the gene predictions, 184 expanded gene clusters and 1,611 predicted proteins were found to be specific to *E. subulatus* compared to *Ectocarpus* sp., while 449 clusters were expanded and 689 proteins

161 were found specifically in the latter (Figure 2, Supporting Information Table S5). This is far less

162 than the 2,878 and 1,093 unique clusters found for a recent comparison of *N. decipiens* and *C.*

163 okamuranus¹³. Gene set enrichment analyses revealed no GO categories to be significantly over-

164 represented among the genes unique to or expanded in *E. subulatus* Bft15b, but several categories

165 were over-represented among the genes and gene families specific to or expanded in the *Ectocarpus*

sp. Ec32 strain. Many were related either to signalling pathways or to the membrane and transporters

167 (Figure 2), but it is difficult to distinguish between the effects of a potentially incomplete genome 168 assembly and true gene losses in Bft15b. In the manual analyses we therefore focussed on the genes

169 specific to and expanded in *E. subulatus*.

170 Among the 1,611 E. subulatus-specific genes, 1,436 genes had no homologs (e-value < 1e-5) in the UniProt database as of May 20th 2016: they could thus, at this point in time, be considered lineage-171 172 specific and had no function associated to them. Among the remaining 175 genes, 145 had hits (e-173 value < 1e-5) in *Ectocarpus* sp. Ec32, *i.e.* they likely correspond to multi-copy genes that had 174 diverged prior to the separation of *Ectocarpus* and *S. japonica*, and for which the *Ectocarpus* sp. 175 Ec32 and S. japonica orthologs were lost. Thirteen genes had homology only with uncharacterized 176 proteins or were too dissimilar from characterized proteins to deduce hypothetical functions; another 177 eight probably corresponded to short viral sequences integrated into the algal genome 178 (EsuBft1730 2, EsuBft4066 3, EsuBft4066 2, EsuBft284 15, EsuBft43 11, EsuBft551 12, 179 EsuBft1883_2, EsuBft4066_4), and one (EsuBft543_9) was related to a retrotransposon. Two 180 adjacent genes (EsuBft1157 4, EsuBft1157 5) were also found in diatoms and may be related to the 181 degradation of cellobiose and the transport of the corresponding sugars. Two genes, EsuBft1440 3 182 and EsuBft1337 8, contained conserved motifs (IPR023307 and SSF56973) typically found in toxin 183 families. Two more (EsuBft1006_6 and EsuBft308_11) exhibited low similarities to animal and 184 fungal transcription factors, and the last (EsuBft36 20 and EsuBft440 20) consisted almost 185 exclusively of short repeated sequences of unknown function ("ALEW" and 186 "GAAASGVAGGAVVVNG", respectively). In total, 1.7% contained a signal peptide targeting the 187 plastid, *i.e.* significantly less than the 3.7% in the entire dataset (Fisher exact test, p<0.0001).

188 The large majority of *Ectocarpus* sp. Ec32-specific proteins (511) also corresponded to proteins of 189 unknown function without matches in public databases. Ninety-seven proteins were part of the *E*. 190 *siliculosus* virus-1 (EsV-1) inserted into the Ec32 genome and the remaining 81 proteins were poorly

191 annotated, usually only via the presence of a domain. Examples are ankyrin repeat-containing

192 domain proteins (12), Zinc finger domain proteins (6), proteins containing wall sensing component

193 (WSC) domains (3), protein kinase-like proteins (3), and Notch domain proteins (2).

194 Regarding the 184 clusters of expanded genes in E. subulatus, 139 (1.064 proteins) corresponded to 195 proteins with unknown function, 98% of which were found only in Ectocarpus. Furthermore, nine 196 clusters (202 proteins) represented sequences related to transposons predicted in both genomes, and 197 eight clusters (31 proteins) were similar to known viral sequences. Only 28 clusters (135 proteins) 198 could be roughly assigned to biological functions (Table 2). They comprised proteins potentially involved in modification of the cell-wall structure (including sulfation), in transcriptional regulation 199 200 and translation, in cell-cell communication and signalling, as well as a few stress response proteins, 201 notably a set of HSP20s, and several proteins of the light-harvesting complex (LHC) potentially 202 involved in non-photochemical quenching. Only 0.6% of all genes expanded in Bft15b contained a 203 signal peptide targeting the plastid, i.e. significantly less than the 3.7% in the entire dataset (Fisher 204 exact test, p<0.0001).

Striking examples of likely expansions in *Ectocarpus* sp. Ec32 or reduction in *E. subulatus* Bft15b were different families of serine-threonine protein kinase domain proteins present in 16 to 25 copies in Ec32 compared to only 5 or 6 in Bft15b, Kinesin light chain-like proteins (34 vs. 13 copies), two clusters of Notch region containing proteins (11 and 8 vs. 2 and 1 copies), a family of unknown WSC domain containing proteins (8 copies vs. 1), putative regulators of G-protein signalling (11 vs. 4 copies), as well as several expanded clusters of unknown and viral proteins. However, these results 211 need to be taken with caution because the *E. subulatus* Bft15b genome was less complete than that

of *Ectocarpus* sp. Ec32.

213 Correlation with gene expression patterns

214 To assess whether genomic adaptations in E. subulatus Bft15b were located preferentially in genes 215 that are known to be responsive to salinity stress, we compared expanded gene families to previously 216 available expression data obtained for a freshwater strain of E. subulatus grown in freshwater vs 217 seawater²⁹. This analysis revealed that genes that were down-regulated in response to low salinity 218 were significantly over-represented among the gene families expanded in *Ectocarpus* sp. Ec32 or 219 reduced in *E. subulatus* Bft15b, (42% of genes vs 26% for all genes; Fischer exact test p=0.0002), while genes that were upregulated in response to low salinity were significantly under-represented 220 221 (25% vs 33%; Fischer exact test p=0.006; Figure 3, Supporting Information Table S6). This 222 indicates that E. subulatus Bft15b has mainly lost members of gene families that were generally 223 down-regulated in low salinities, and conserved those that were upregulated in this condition.

224 Targeted manual annotation of specific pathways

225 In addition to the global analyses carried out above, genes related to cell wall metabolism, sterol 226 metabolism, polyamine and central carbon metabolism, algal defence metabolites, transporters, and 227 abiotic stress response were manually examined and annotated, because, based on literature studies, 228 these functions could be expected to explain the physiological differences between E. subulatus 229 Bft15b and Ectocarpus sp. Ec32. Overall the differences between both Ectocarpus strains with 230 respect to these genes were minor; a detailed description of these results is available in Supporting 231 Information Text S1 and Supporting Information Table S7, and a brief overview of the main 232 differences is presented below.

233 Regarding gene families reduced in *E. subulatus* Bft15b or expanded in *Ectocarpus* sp. Ec32, the *E.* 234 subulatus genome encoded only 320 WSC-domain containing proteins, vs. 444 in Ectocarpus sp.. 235 Many of these genes were down-regulated in response to low salinity, (61% of the WSC domain containing genes with available expression data; Fischer exact test, p=0.0004) while only 7% were 236 237 upregulated (Fischer exact test, p-value=0.0036). In yeast, WSC domain proteins may act as cell 238 surface mechanosensors and activate the intracellular cell wall integrity signalling cascade in response to hypo-osmotic shock³⁰. Whether or not they have similar functions in brown algae, 239 240 however, remains to be established. Furthermore, we found fewer aryl sulfotransferase, tyrosinases, 241 potential bromoperoxidases, and thyroid peroxidases in the E. subulatus genome compared to 242 *Ectocarpus* sp., and it entirely lacks haloalkane dehalogenases (Supporting Information Text S1). All 243 of these enzymes are involved in the production of polyphenols and halogenated defence 244 compounds, suggesting that E. subulatus may be investing less energy in defence, although a 245 potential bias induced by differences in the assembly completeness cannot be excluded here.

Regarding gene families expanded in *E. subulatus* Bft15b or reduced in *Ectocarpus* sp. Ec32, we detected differences with respect to a few "classical" stress response genes. Notably an HSP20 protein was present in three copies in the genome of *E. subulatus* and only one copy in *Ectocarpus* sp.. We also found a small group of LHCX-family chlorophyll-binding proteins (CBPs) as well as a larger group belonging to the LHCF/LHCR family that have probably undergone a recent expansion but all of them were associated with RNA-seq reads, suggesting that they may be functional. A

- number of these proteins were also flanked by LTR-like sequences. CBPs have been reported to be
- up-regulated in response to abiotic stress in stramenopiles 31,32 , including *Ectocarpus*³³, probably as a
- 255 way to deal with excess light energy when photosynthesis is affected.

256 **Discussion**

- 257 Here we present the draft genome and metabolic network of *E. subulatus* strain Bft15b, a brown alga
- which, compared to *Ectocarpus* sp. Ec32, is characterized by high abiotic stress tolerance^{10,17}. Based
- on time-calibrated molecular trees, both species separated roughly 16 Mya²⁹, *i.e.* slightly before the
- 260 split between Arabidopsis thaliana and Thellungiella salsuginea (7-12 Mya)³⁴. This split was
- 261 probably followed by an adaptation of *E. subulatus* to highly fluctuating and low salinity habitats¹⁹.

262 Traces of recent transposon activity and integration of viral sequences

263 The E. subulatus Bft15b genome is only approximately 6% (flow cytometry) to 23% (genome 264 assembly) larger than that of *Ectocarpus* sp. Ec32, and no major genomic rearrangements or 265 duplications were detected. However, we observed traces of recent transposon activity, especially 266 from LTR transposons, which is in line with the absence of DNA methylation. Bursts in transposon activity have been identified as one potential driver of local adaptation and speciation in other model 267 systems such as salmon³⁵ or land plants^{34,36}. Furthermore, LTRs are known to mediate the 268 retrotransposition of individual genes, leading to the duplication of the latter³⁷. In *E. subulatus* 269 Bft15b, only a few expansions of gene families were observed since the separation from *Ectocarpus* 270 271 sp. Ec32, and only in the case of the recent expansion of the LHCR family were genes flanked by a 272 pair of LTR-like sequences. These elements lacked both the group antigen (GAG) and reverse 273 transcriptase (POL) proteins, which implies that, if retro-transposition was the mechanism 274 underlying the expansion of this group of proteins, it would have depended on other active 275 transposable elements to provide these activities.

276 A second factor that has shaped the *Ectocarpus* genomes were viruses. Viral infections are a common phenomenon in Ectocarpales³⁸, and a well-studied example is the *Ectocarpus siliculosus* 277 virus-1 (EsV-1)³⁹. It was found to be present latently in several strains of *Ectocarpus* sp. closely 278 279 related to strain Ec32, and has also been found integrated in the genome of the latter, although it is not expressed⁷. As previously indicated by comparative genome hybridization experiments⁴⁰, the E. 280 subulatus Bft15b genome does not contain a complete EsV-1 like insertion, although a few shorter 281 282 EsV-1-like proteins were found. Thus, the EsV-1 integration observed in *Ectocarpus* sp. Ec32 has 283 likely occurred after the split with E. subulatus, and the biological consequences of this insertion 284 remain to be explored.

285 Few classical stress response genes but no transporters involved in adaptation

One aim of this study was to identify genes that may potentially be responsible for the high abiotic stress and salinity tolerance of *E. subulatus*. Similar studies on genomic adaptation to changes in salinity or to drought in terrestrial plants have previously highlighted genes generally involved in stress tolerance to be expanded in "extremophile" organisms. Examples are the expansion of catalase, glutathione reductase, and heat shock protein families in desert poplar²⁴, arginine metabolism in jujube⁴¹, or genes related to cation transport, abscisic acid signalling, and wax

production in T. salsuginea³⁴. In our study, we found that gene families reduced in E. subulatus 292 293 Bft15b compared to the marine *Ectocarpus* sp. Ec32 model have previously been shown to be 294 repressed in response to stress, whereas gene families up-regulated in response to stress had a higher 295 probability of being conserved. However, there are only few signs of known stress response gene 296 families among them, notably the two additional HSP20 proteins and an expanded family of CBPs. 297 E. subulatus Bft15b also has a slightly reduced set of genes involved in the production of 298 halogenated defence compounds that may be related to its habitat preference: it is frequently found 299 in brackish and even freshwater environments with low availability of halogens. It also specializes in 300 habitats with high levels of abiotic stress compared to most other brown algae, and may thus invest 301 less energy in defence against biotic stressors.

302 Another anticipated adaptation to life in varying salinities lies in modifications of the cell wall. 303 Notably, the content of sulfated polysaccharides is expected to play a crucial role as these compounds are present in all marine plants and algae, but absent in their freshwater relatives^{42,43}. 304 The fact that we found only small differences in the number of encoded sulfatases and 305 sulfotransferases indicates that the absence of sulfated cell-wall polysaccharides previously observed 306 in *E. subulatus* in low salinities⁴⁴ is probably a regulatory effect or simply related to the lack of 307 sulfate in low salinity. This is also coherent with the wide distribution of *E. subulatus* in marine, 308 309 brackish water, and freshwater environments.

310 Finally, transporters have previously been described as a key element in plant adaptation to different

311 salinities⁴⁵. Similar results have also been obtained for *Ectocarpus* in a study of quantitative trait loci

(QTLs) associated with salinity and temperature tolerance⁴⁶. In our study, however, we found no indication of genomic differences related to transporters between the two species. This observation

314 corresponds to previous physiological experiments indicating that *Ectocarpus*, unlike many

315 terrestrial plants, responds to strong changes in salinity as an osmoconformer rather than an

316 osmoregulator, *i.e.* it allows the intracellular salt concentration to adjust to values close to the

317 external medium rather than keeping the intracellular ion composition constant³³.

Species-specific genes of unknown function are likely to play a dominant role in adaptation

In addition to genes that may be directly involved in the adaptation to the environment, we found several gene clusters containing domains potentially involved in cell-cell signalling that were expanded in the *Ectocarpus* sp. Ec32 genome (Table 2), *e.g.* a family of ankyrin repeat-containing domain proteins⁴⁷. These observed differences may be, in part, responsible for the existing prezygotic reproductive barrier between the two examined species of *Ectocarpus*⁴⁸.

325 The vast majority of genomic differences between the two investigated species of *Ectocarpus*, 326 however, corresponds to proteins of entirely unknown functions. All of the 11 gene pairs under 327 positive selection were unknown genes taxonomically restricted to brown algae. Of the 1,611 E. 328 subulatus Bft15b-specific genes, 88% were unknown. Most of these genes were expressed and are 329 thus likely to correspond to true genes; their absence from the *Ectocarpus* sp. Ec32 genome was also 330 confirmed at the nucleotide level. A large part of the mechanisms that underlie the adaptation to 331 different ecological niches in *Ectocarpus* may, therefore, lie in these genes of unknown function. 332 This can be partly explained by the fact that still only few brown algal genomes have been sequenced, and that currently most of our knowledge on the function of their proteins is based on studies in model plants, animals, yeast, or bacteria, which have evolved independently from stramenopiles for over 1 billion years⁴⁹. They differ from land plants even in otherwise highly conserved aspects, for instance in their life cycles, cell walls, and primary metabolism⁵⁰. Substantial contributions of lineage-specific genes to the evolution of organisms and the development of innovations have also been described for animal models⁵¹, and studies in basal metazoans furthermore indicate that they are essential for species-specific adaptive processes⁵².

340 Despite the probable importance of these unknown genes for local adaptation, *Ectocarpus* may still 341 heavily rely on classical stress response genes for abiotic stress tolerance. Many of the gene families 342 known to be related to stress response in land plants (including transporters and genes involved in 343 cell wall modification), and for which no significant differences in gene contents were observed, 344 have previously been reported to be strongly regulated in response to environmental stress in *Ectocarpus*^{29,33,53}. This high transcriptomic plasticity is probably one of the features that allow 345 *Ectocarpus* to thrive in a wide range of environments, and may form the basis for its capacity to 346 further adapt to "extreme environments" such as freshwater¹⁸. 347

348 **Conclusion and future work**

349 We have shown that since the separation of *E. subulatus* and *Ectocarpus sp.* Ec32, both genomes have been shaped partially by the activity of viruses and transposons, particularly large 350 351 retrotransposons. Over this period of time, E. subulatus has adapted to environments with high 352 abiotic variability including brackish water and even freshwater. We have identified a few genes that 353 likely contribute to this adaptation, including HSPs, CBPs, a reduction of genes involved in 354 halogenated defence compounds, or some changes in cell wall polysaccharide-modifying enzymes. However, the majority of genes that differ between the two examined *Ectocarpus* species or that 355 356 may be under positive selection encode proteins of unknown function. This underlines the 357 fundamental differences that exist between brown algae and terrestrial plants or other lineages of 358 algae. Studies as the present one, *i.e.* without strong a priori assumptions about the mechanisms 359 involved in adaptation, are therefore essential to start elucidating the specificities of this lineage as 360 well as the various functions of the unknown genes.

361 Methods

362 Biological material. Haploid male parthenosporophytes of E. subulatus strain Bft15b (Culture Collection of Algae and Protozoa CCAP accession 1310/34), isolated in 1978 by Dieter G. Müller in 363 364 Beaufort, North Carolina, USA, were grown in 14 cm (100 ml) Petri Dishes in Provasoli-enriched seawater⁵⁴ under a 14/10 daylight cycle at 14°C. Strains were exanimated by light microscopy (800X 365 magnification, phase contrast) to ensure that they were free of contaminating eukaryotes, but did still 366 contain some alga-associated bacteria. Approximately 1 g fresh weight of algal culture was dried on 367 368 a paper towel and immediately frozen in liquid nitrogen. For RNA-seq experiments, in addition to 369 Bft15b, a second strain of E. subulatus, the diploid freshwater strain CCAP 1310/196 isolated from Hopkins River Falls, Australia¹⁸, was included. One culture was grown as described above for 370 Bft15b, and for a second culture, seawater was diluted 20-fold with distilled water prior to the 371 addition of Provasoli nutrients²⁹ (culture condition referred to as freshwater). 372

Flow cytometry experiments to measure nuclear DNA contents were carried out as previously described⁵⁵, except that young sporophyte tissue was used instead of gametes. Samples of the genome-sequenced *Ectocarpus* sp. strain Ec32 (CCAP accession 1310/4 from San Juan de Marcona, Peru) were run in parallel as a size reference.

DNA and RNA were extracted using a phenol-chloroform-based protocol⁵⁶. For DNA sequencing, 377 four Illumina libraries were prepared and sequenced on a HiSeq2000: one paired-end library 378 379 (Illumina TruSeq DNA PCR-free LT Sample Prep kit #15036187, sequenced with 2x100 bp read 380 length), and three mate-pair libraries with span sizes of 3kb, 5kb, and 10kb respectively (Nextera 381 Mate Pair Sample Preparation Kit; sequenced with 2x50bp read length). One poly-A enriched RNA-382 seq library was generated for each of the three aforementioned cultures according to the Illumina 383 TruSeq Stranded mRNA Sample Prep kit #15031047 protocol and sequenced with 2x50 bp read 384 length.

The degree **of DNA methylation** was examined by HPLC on CsCl-gradient purified DNA⁵⁶ from three independent cultures per strain as previously described⁵⁷.

387 Redundancy of mate-pairs (MPs) was reduced to mitigate the negative effect of redundant chimeric 388 MPs during scaffolding. To this means, mate-pair reads were aligned with bwa-0.6.1 to a preliminary E. subulatus Bft15b draft assembly calculated from paired-end data only. Mate-pairs 389 390 that did not map with both reads were removed, and for the remaining pairs, read-starts were 391 obtained by parsing the cigar string using Samtools and a custom Pearl script. Mate-pairs with redundant mapping coordinates were removed for the final assembly, which was carried out using 392 SOAPDenovo 2^{58} . Scaffolding was then carried out using SSPACE basic 2.0^{59} (trim length up to 5) 393 394 bases, minimum 3 links to scaffold contigs, minimum 15 reads to call a base during an extension) 395 followed by a run of GapCloser (part of the SOAPDenovo package, default settings). A dot plot of syntenic regions between E. subulatus Bft15b and Ectocarpus sp. Ec32 was generated using D-396 Genies 1.2.0⁶⁰. Given the high degree of synteny observed (Supporting Information Text S1), 397 398 additional scaffolding was carried out using MeDuSa and the Ectocarpus sp. Ec32 genome as reference⁶¹. This super-scaffolding method assumes that both genome structures are be similar. 399 400 Annotations were generated first for version 1 of the Bft15b genome and then transferred to the new scaffolds of version 2 using the ALLMAPS⁶² liftover function. Both the assemblies with (V2) and 401 without (V1) MeDuSa scaffolding have been made available. RNA-seq reads were cleaned using 402 403 Trimmomatic (default settings), and a second Bft15b genome-guided assembly was performed with 404 Tophat2 and with Cufflinks. Sequencing coverage was calculated based on mapped algal reads only, 405 and for mate-pair libraries the genomic coverage was calculated as number of unique algal mate-406 pairs * span size / assembly size.

407 As cultures were not treated with antibiotics prior to DNA extraction, **bacterial scaffolds were** 408 **removed** from the final assembly using the taxoblast pipeline⁶³. Every scaffold was cut into 409 fragments of 500 bp, and these fragments were aligned (blastn, e-value cutoff 0.01) against the 410 GenBank non-redundant nucleotide (nt) database. Scaffolds for which more than 90% of the 411 alignments were with bacterial sequences were removed from the assembly (varying this threshold 412 between 30 and 95% resulted in only very minor differences in the final assembly). Finally, we ran 413 the Anvi'o v5 pipeline to identify any remaining contaminant bins (both bacterial and eukaryote) 414 based on G/C and kmer contents as well as coverage⁶⁴. "Contaminant" scaffolds were submitted to

- the MG-Rast server to obtain an overview of the taxa present in the sample⁶⁵. They are available at $\frac{116}{1000}$
- 416 http://application.sb-roscoff.fr/blast/subulatus/download.html.
- 417 **Repeated elements** were searched for *de novo* using TEdenovo and annotated using TEannot with
- 418 default parameters. LTR-like sequences were predicted by the LTR-harvest pipeline⁶⁶. These tools
 - 419 are part of the REPET pipeline 67 , of which version 2.5 was used for our dataset.
 - 420 **BUSCO** 2.0 analyses²⁷ were run on the servers of the IPlant Collaborative⁶⁸ with the general 421 eukaryote database as a reference and default parameters and the predicted proteins as input.

422 **Plastid and mitochondrial genomes** of *E. subulatus* Bft15b, were manually assembled based on scaffolds 416 and 858 respectively, using the published organellar genomes of *Ectocarpus* sp. Ec32 423 (accessions NC_013498.1, NC_030223.1) as a guide^{7,69,70}. Genes were manually annotated based on 424 the result of homology searches with Ectocarpus sp. Ec32 using a bacterial genetic code (11) and 425 based on ORF predictions using ORF finder. Ribosomal RNA sequences were identified by 426 427 RNAmmer⁷¹ for the plastid and MITOS⁷² for the plastid, and tRNAs or other small RNAs were identified using ARAGORN⁷³ and tRNAscan-SE⁷⁴. In the case of the mitochondrial genome, the 428 429 correctness of the manual assembly was verified by PCR where manual and automatic assemblies diverged. 430

- 431 Putative **protein-coding sequences** were identified using Eugene $4.1c^{75}$. Assembled RNA-seq reads 432 were mapped against the assembled genome using GenomeThreader 1.6.5, and all available proteins 433 from the Swiss-Prot database as well as predicted proteins from the *Ectocarpus* sp. Ec32 genome⁷ 434 were aligned to the genome using KLAST⁷⁶. Both aligned *de novo*-assembled transcripts and 435 proteins were provided to Eugene for gene prediction, which was run with the parameter set 436 previously optimized for the *Ectocarpus* sp. Ec32 genome⁷. The subcellular localization of the 437 proteins was predicted using SignalP version 4.1^{77} and the ASAFIND software version $1.1.5^{26}$.
- For functional annotation, predicted proteins were submitted to InterProScan and compared to the Swiss-Prot database by BlastP search (e-value cutoff 1e-5), and the results imported to Blast2GO⁷⁸ The genome and all automatic annotations were imported into Apollo^{79,80} for manual curation. During manual curation sequences were aligned with characterized reference sequences from suitable databases (e.g. CAZYME, TCDB, SwissProt) using BLAST, and the presence of InterProScan domains necessary for the predicted enzymatic function was manually verified.

The *E. subulatus* Bft15b **genome-scale metabolic model** reconstruction was carried out as previously described²⁸ by merging an annotation-based reconstruction obtained with Pathway Tools⁸¹ and an orthology-based reconstruction based on the *Arabidopsis thaliana* metabolic network AraGEM⁸² using Pantograph⁸³. A final step of gap-filling was then carried out using the Meneco tool⁸⁴. The entire reconstruction pipeline is available via the AuReMe workspace⁸⁵. For pathwaybased analyses, pathways that contained only a single reaction or that were less than 50% complete were not considered.

Functional comparisons of gene contents were based primarily on orthologous clusters of genes shared with version 2 of the *Ectocarpus* sp. Ec32 genome⁸⁶ as well as the *S. japonica* (Areschoug)

genome¹¹. They were determined by the OrthoFinder software version 0.7.1⁸⁷. To identify genes 453 specific to either of the Ectocarpus genomes, we examined all proteins that were not part of a multi-454 455 species cluster and verified their absence in the other genome by tblastn searches (threshold e-value 456 of 1e-10). Only genes without tblastn hit that encoded proteins of at least 50 amino acids were 457 further examined. A second approach consisted in identifying clusters of genes that were expanded or reduced in either of the two *Ectocarpus* genomes based on the Orthofinder results. Blast2GO 3.1^{78} 458 459 was then used to identify significantly enriched GO terms among the genes specific to either 460 Ectocarpus genome or the expanded/reduced gene families (Fischer's exact test with FDR correction 461 FDR<0.05). These different sets of genes were also examined manually for function, genetic 462 context, GC content, and EST coverage (to ensure the absence of contaminants).

The search for genes under positive selection was based on a previous analysis in other brown 463 algae⁸⁸. Therefore, Orthofinder analyses were expanded to include also *Macrocystis pyrifera*, 464 Scytosiphon lomentaria⁸⁸, and Cladosiphon okamuranus¹². Rates of non-synonymous to 465 synonymous substitution (ω =dN/dS) were searched for in clusters of single-copy orthologs. Protein 466 sequences were aligned with Tcoffee⁸⁹ (M-Coffee mode), translated back to nucleotide using 467 Pal2Nal⁹⁰, and curated with Gblocks⁹¹ (-t c -b4 20) or manually when necessary. Sequences that 468 produced a gapless alignment that exceeded 100bp were retained for pairwise dN/dS analysis 469 470 between *Ectocarpus* strains using CodeML (F3x4 model of codon frequencies, runmode = -2) of the PAML4 suite⁹². Orthogroups for which the pairwise dN/dS ratio between *Ectocarpus* species 471 472 exceeded 0.5, which were not saturated (dS < 1), and which contained single-copy orthologs in at 473 least two other species were used to perform positive selection analysis with CodeML (PAML4, 474 F3x4 model of codon frequencies): branch-site models were used to estimate dN/dS values by site 475 and among branches in the species tree generated for each orthogroup. The branch leading to the genus Ectocarpus was selected as a 'foreground branch', allowing different values of dN/dS among 476 477 sites in contrast to the remaining branches that shared the same distribution of ω . Two alternative 478 models were tested for the foreground branch: H1 allowing the dN/dS to exceed 1 for a proportion of 479 sites (positive selection), and H0 constraining dN/dS < 1 for all sites (neutral and purifying selection). 480 A likelihood ratio test was then performed for the two models (LRT=2×(lnLH1-lnLH0)) and genes 481 for which H1 fitted the data significantly better (p<0.05) were identified as evolving under positive 482 selection.

Phylogenetic analyses were carried out for gene families of particular interest. For chlorophyllbinding proteins (CBPs), reference sequences were obtained from a previous study⁹³, and aligned together with *E. subulatus* Bft15b and *S. japonica* CBPs using MAFFT (G-INS-i)⁹⁴. Alignments were then manually curated, conserved positions selected in Jalview⁹⁵, and maximum likelihood analyses carried out using PhyML 3.0⁹⁶, the LG substitution model, 1000 bootstrap replicates, and an estimation of the gamma distribution parameter. The resulting phylogenetic tree was visualized using MEGA7⁹⁷.

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498 **Author contributions**

499 Conceived the study: SMD, AP, AS, HH, CB, TT. Provided materials: AFP, APL. Performed

experiments: SMD, SD, IGN, DM, MMP. Analysed data: SMD, APL, EC, LBG, NP, MA, KA,
CHC, JC, AC, LD, SD, CF, AGo, AGr, CH, DJ, HK, XL, GVM, AEM, MM, PP, MMP, ASim, CT,

502 HSY, TT. Wrote the manuscript: SMD, KA, APL, JC, LD, CH, Ago, AGr, GVM, ASim, TT.

503 Revised and approved of the final manuscript: all authors.

504 Additional Information

505 **Competing interests**

506 The authors declare no competing interest.

507 **Data availablility**

- 508 Sequence data (genomic and transcriptomic reads) were submitted to the European Nucleotide
- 509 Archive (ENA) under project accession number PRJEB25230 using the EMBLmyGFF3 script⁹⁸. A
- 510 JBrowse⁹⁹ instance comprising the most recent annotations is available via the server of the Station
- 511 Biologique de Roscoff (<u>http://mmo.sb-roscoff.fr/jbrowseEsu</u>). The reconstructed metabolic network
- 512 of *E. subulatus* is available at <u>http://gem-aureme.irisa.fr/sububftgem</u>. Additional resources and
- 513 annotations including a blast server are available at <u>http://application.sb-</u>
- 514 <u>roscoff.fr/project/subulatus/index.html</u>. The complete set of manual annotations is provided in
- 515 Supporting Information Table S7.

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744 **Figures a**

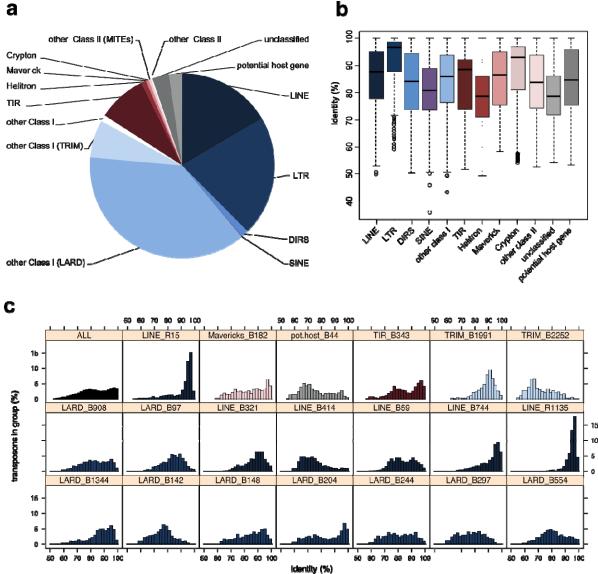
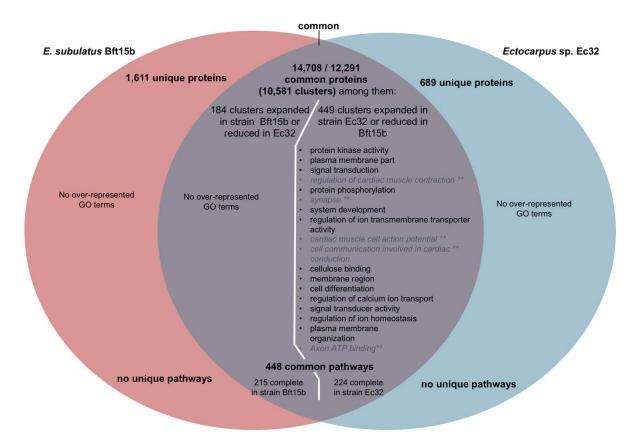


Figure 1: Repeated elements identified within the genome of *E. subulatus* Bft15b. A) Number of
transposons detected in the different superfamilies; B) Boxplot of sequence identity levels for the
detected superfamilies; and C) Distribution of sequence identities in all and the 20 most abundant
transposon families.

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752 Figure 2: Comparison of gene content and metabolic capacities of E. subulatus Bft15b and 753 *Ectocarpus* sp. Ec32. The top part of the Venn diagram displays the number of predicted proteins 754 and protein clusters unique and common to both genomes in the OrthoFinder analysis. The middle 755 part shows GO annotations significantly enriched (FDR ≤ 0.05) among these proteins. For the 756 common clusters, the diagram also contains the results of gene set enrichment analyses for 757 annotations found among clusters expanded in E. subulatus Bft15b and those expanded in Ectocarpus sp. Ec32. Functional annotations not directly relevant to the functioning of Ectocarpus 758 759 or shown to be false positives are shown in grey and italics. The bottom part shows the comparison 760 of both genomes in terms of their metabolic pathways.

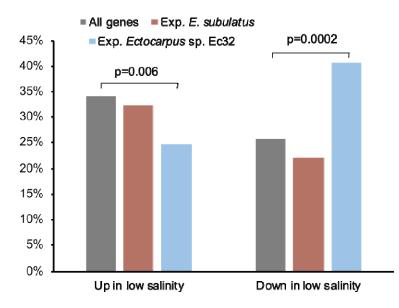
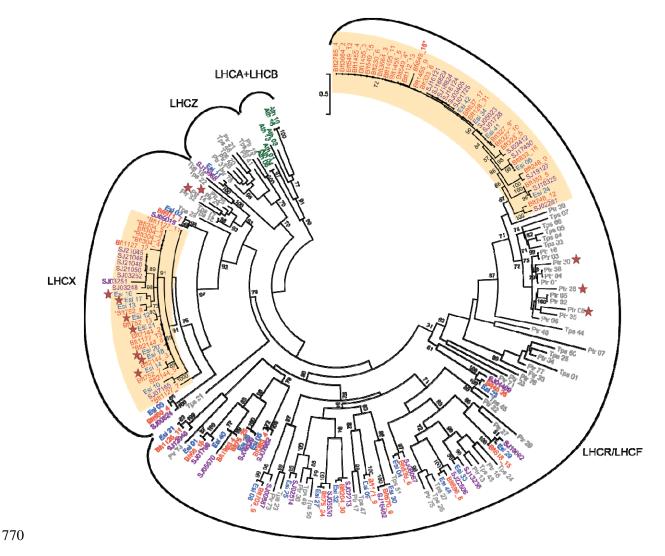




Figure 3: Percentage of significantly (FDR<0.05) up- and down-regulated genes in *E. subulatus* in response to low salinity (5% seawater). Grey bars are values obtained for all genes with expression data (n=6,492), while brown and blue bars include only genes belonging to gene families expanded in *E. subulatus* Bft15b (n=99) or *Ectocarpus* sp. Ec32 (n=202), respectively ("Exp." stands for expanded). P-values correspond to the result of a Fisher exact test. Gene expression data were obtained from previous microarray experiments²⁹. Please refer to Supporting information Table S6 for additional data.



771 Figure 4: Maximum likelihood tree of chlorophyll binding proteins (CBPs) sequences in E. 772 subulatus Bft15b (orange) Ectocarpus sp. Ec32 (blue), S. japonica (purple), and diatoms 773 (Thalassiosira pseudonana and Phaeodactylum tricornutum, grey). Support values correspond to the 774 percentage of bootstrap support from 1000 replicate runs, only values \geq 70% are shown. A. thaliana sequences (green) were added as outgroup. Accessions for *E. subulatus* Bft15b are given without the 775 Esu prefix; for *Ectocarpus* sp. Ec32, diatoms and A. thaliana, see⁹³. Stars indicate genes that have 776 been previously shown to be stress-induced⁹³, asterisks next to the protein names indicate incomplete 777 778 proteins. Probable expansions in E. subulatus Bft15b are indicated by an ocher background.

780 Tables

781 **Table 1:** Assembly statistics of available brown algal genomes. PE = paired-end, MP = mate-pair,

n.d. = not determined

	Е.	Ectocarpus	S.	C.	<i>N</i> .
	subulatus Bft15b	sp. $Ec32^7$	japonica ¹¹	okamuranus ¹²	decipiens ¹³
Sequencing strategy	Illumina (PE+MP)	Sanger+Bac libraries	Illumina PE+PacBio	Illumina (PE+MP)	Illumina (PE+MP)
Genome size estimate (flow cytometry)	226	214 ⁶ *	545	140	n. d.
Genome size (assembled)	242 Mb	196 Mb	537 Mb	130 Mb	154 Mb
Genomic Coverage	119 X	11 X [#]	178 X	100 X	420 X
G/C contents	54%	53%	50%	54%	56%
Number of scaffolds >2kb	1,757	1,561	6,985	541	685
Scaffold N50 (kb)	510 kb	497 kb	254 kb	416 kb	1,863 kb
Number of predicted genes	25,893	17,418	18,733	13,640	15,156
Mean number of exons per gene	5.4	8.0	6.5	9.3	11.2
Repetitive elements	30%	30% ^{##}	40%	4.1%	8.8%
BUSCO genome completeness	86% (91%* [#])	94% (99%* [#])	91% (96% * [#])	88% (93%* [#])	92% (97%* [#])
(complete+fragmented) BUSCO Fragmented proteins	13.5%	7.4%	14.2%	11.9%	5.6%

783 $\frac{\text{proteins}}{\text{##}23\%}$ according to ⁷, but 30% when re-run with the current version (2.5) of the REPET pipeline.

^{*#} not considering proteins absent from all three brown algal genomes.

786 **Table 2**: Clusters of orthologous genes identified by OrthoFinder as expanded in the genome of *E*.

787 subulatus Bft15b or reduced in Ectocarpus sp. Ec32, after manual identification of false positives,

and removal of clusters without functional annotation or related to transposon or viral sequences.

Cluster(s)	# Ec32	# Bft15b	Putative annotation or functional domain		
Cell-wall related proteins					
OG0000597	1	3	Peptidoglycan-binding domain		
OG0000284, -782, -118	6	12	Carbohydrate-binding WSC domain		
OG0000889	1	2	Cysteine desulfuration protein		
OG0000431	1	3	Galactose-3-O-sulfotransferase (partial)		
Transcriptional regulation and translation					
OG0000785	1	2	AN1-type zinc finger protein		
OG0000059	4	10	C2H2 zinc finger protein		
OG0000884	1	2	Zinc finger domain		
OG0000766	1	2	DNA-binding SAP domain		
OG0000853	1	2	RNA binding motif protein		
OG0000171	1	6	Helicase		
OG0000819	1	2	Fungal transcriptional regulatory protein domain		
OG0000723	1	2	Translation initiation factor eIF2B		
OG0000364	2	3	Ribosomal protein S15		
OG0000834	1	2	Ribosomal protein S13		
Cell-cell communication and	d signaling				
OG0000967	1	2	Ankyrin repeat-containing domain		
OG0000357	2	3	Regulator of G protein signaling domain		
OG0000335	2	3	Serine/threonine kinase domain		
OG0000291	2	3	Protein kinase		
OG0000185	3	4	Octicosapeptide/Phox/Bem1p domain		
Others					
OG0000726	1	3	HSP20		
OG0000104	1	9	Light harvesting complex protein		
OG0000277	3	3	Major facilitator superfamily transporter		
OG0000210	2	4	Cyclin-like domain		
OG0000721	1	2	Myo-inositol 2-dehydrogenase		
OG0000703	1	2	Short-chain dehydrogenase		
OG0000749	1	2	Putative Immunophilin		
OG0000463	1	3	Zinc-dependent metalloprotease with notch domain		