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# Complete mitochondrial genomes from the ferns Ophioglossum californicum and Psilotum nudum are highly repetitive with the largest organellar introns

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Summary

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#### Introduction

## Mitochondrial genomic diversity among flowering plants is well characterized owing to  $> 70$  complete mitochondrial genomes (mitogenomes) that have been sequenced (as of December 2015). They can vary greatly in size, gene and intron content, RNA editing abundance, nucleotide substitution rates, DNA turnover rates (i.e. the loss of shared, homologous DNA over time), and the frequency of recombination across repeats (Sloan *et al.*, 2012; Rice et al., 2013; Richardson et al., 2013; Skippington et al., 2015; Guo et al., 2016). This rich collection of genomic data provides a basis with which to infer ancestral angiosperm features and subsequent evolutionary trends that have established the present-day diversity in mitogenome structure and content (Mower et al., 2012b; Richardson et al., 2013; Skippington et al., 2015). By contrast, the number of sequenced mitogenomes from other vascular plant lineages is limited. Currently, only three gymnosperms (Cycas taitungensis, Ginkgo biloba and Welwitschia mirabilis) and three lycophytes (Isoetes engelmannii, Selaginella moellendorffii and Huperzia squarrosa) have been fully sequenced (Chaw et al., 2008; Grewe et al., 2009; Hecht et al., 2011; Liu et al., 2012; Guo et al., 2016).

 Currently, complete mitochondrial genomes (mitogenomes) are available from all major land plant lineages except ferns. Sequencing of fern mitogenomes could shed light on the major evolutionary transitions that established mitogenomic diversity among extant lineages.

• In this study, we generated complete mitogenomes from the adder's tongue fern (Ophioglossum californicum) and the whisk fern (Psilotum nudum).

• The Psilotum mitogenome (628 kb) contains a rich complement of genes and introns, some of which are the largest of any green plant organellar genome. In the Ophioglossum mitogenome (372 kb), gene and intron content is slightly reduced, including the loss of all four mitochondrial ccm genes. Transcripts of nuclear Ccm genes also were not detected, suggesting loss of the entire mitochondrial cytochrome  $c$  maturation pathway from Ophioglossum. Both fern mitogenomes are highly repetitive, yet they show extremely low levels of active recombination. Transcriptomic sequencing uncovered ~1000 sites of C-to-U RNA editing in both species, plus a small number (< 60) of U-to-C edit sites.

 Overall, the first mitochondrial genomes of ferns show a mix of features shared with lycophytes and/or seed plants and several novel genomic features, enabling a robust reconstruction of the mitogenome in the common ancestor of vascular plants.

> Despite the limited number of mitogenomes from nonflowering vascular plants, the available genomes have provided valuable insights into the extent of mitogenomic diversity among these lineages and the evolutionary trends that have generated this diversity. For example, extensive variation in gene and RNA editing content were shown in both gymnosperms and lycophytes (Chaw et al., 2008; Grewe et al., 2009; Hecht et al., 2011; Liu et al., 2012; Guo et al., 2016). Intron content also is highly variable in these two groups, including the presence of numerous previously unknown group I and group II introns in lycophytes, several of which are found in novel *trans*-spliced arrangements (Grewe et al., 2009; Hecht et al., 2011; Liu et al., 2012). Regarding structural evolution, extensive rearrangements were inferred for Isoetes, Selaginella and Welwitschia (Grewe et al., 2009; Hecht et al., 2011; Guo et al., 2016), whereas mitochondrial DNA turnover rates were found to be extremely slow in Cycas, Ginkgo and *Huperzia* (Liu et al., 2012; Guo et al., 2016).

> Ferns (Monilophyta) include over 10 000 species classified into five major groups: Equisetales, Psilotales, Ophioglossales, Marattiales and Polypodidae (Christenhusz & Chase, 2014). As ferns are the sister lineage to seed plants, knowledge of fern mitogenomic features is essential for a comprehensive understanding of

evolution and diversification of vascular plant mitogenomes through comparative analyses, yet they are the only one of the seven major clades of land plants (i.e. angiosperms, gymnosperms, ferns, lycophytes, hornworts, mosses and liverworts) that lack a completely sequenced mitogenome. In a previous whole genome shotgun sequencing project, mitochondrial contigs were reported for six ferns (Wolf et al., 2015). However, these incompletely sequenced and assembled mitochondrial DNAs (mtDNAs) are insufficient to address questions regarding the structure, content and evolution of plant mitogenomes in ferns.

To fill in this remaining phylogenetic gap in land plants, we sequenced and completed the first fern mtDNAs, from the adder's tongue fern (Ophioglossum californicum) and the whisk fern (Psilotum nudum). To evaluate their features in a broadscale phylogenetic context, we compared the two mitogenomes with those of lycophytes, gymnosperms and several gene-rich, representative angiosperms. These comparative genomic analyses demonstrated that the two fern mitogenomes possess both lycophyte-like and seed plant-like features. They also show several novel genomic features, including a very high proportion of repetitive sequences yet extremely low levels of active recombination, and the largest organellar genes and introns of any green plant.

# Materials and Methods

#### Genome sequencing, assembly and annotation

Organelle-enriched DNAs of Ophioglossum californicum Prantl and Psilotum nudum (L.) P. Beauv. were isolated and extracted as described in Grewe et al. (2013). In addition to the sequencing data obtained in Grewe et al. (2013), the organelle-enriched DNAs of each species also were sequenced at BGI (Shenzhen, China) on an Illumina HiSeq 2000 platform from a single 5-kb mate-pair library, which generated 40.4 and 41.8 million  $2 \times 100$  bp reads for *Ophioglossum* and *Psilotum*, respectively. The Psilotum organelle-enriched DNA was also 454 sequenced at the University of Nebraska Core for Applied Genomics and Ecology, producing 149 474 single-end reads with an average length of 473 bp.

The paired-end and mate-pair Illumina sequencing reads were assembled separately with VELVET v.1.210 (Zerbino & Birney, 2008). Multiple VELVET assemblies were constructed for each dataset using different pairwise combinations of Kmer values and expected coverage values, as described previously (Grewe et al., 2014; Zhu et al., 2014). For all runs, the scaffolding option was turned off. The 454 sequencing data were assembled by using Roche's GS de novo ASSEMBLER v.2.3 ('Newbler') with default parameters. SSPACE v.3.0 (Boetzer et al., 2011) was used for iteratively scaffolding all assemblies with the read-pair information from the Illumina 800-bp paired-end and 5-kb mate-pair libraries. GAPFILLER v.1.10 (Nadalin et al., 2012) was used in silico to fill most of the gaps. Remaining gaps in the assemblies were due to long mononucleotide repeats (10–20 nt in length) and were finished by Sanger sequencing. Completed

mitogenomes were deposited in GenBank under accession num-bers [KX171637](http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/nuccore/KX171637) (Ophioglossum), [KX171638](http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/nuccore/KX171638) (Psilotum chromo-some 1) and [KX171639](http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/nuccore/KX171639) (*Psilotum* chromosome 2).

Depth of sequencing coverage for the completed genomes (Supporting Information Fig. S1) was evaluated by mapping Illumina paired-end reads onto the genome sequences using BOWTIE v.2 as described previously (Guo et al., 2014; Zhu et al., 2014). Genes and introns were annotated using established procedures (Grewe et al., 2014; Zhu et al., 2014). To detect mitochondrial ccm and nuclear Ccm genes in other eusporangiate ferns, Psilotum mitochondrial ccm and Arabidopsis nuclear Ccm amino acid sequences were queried against the 1-kp database ([https://](https://www.bioinfodata.org/Blast4OneKP/) [www.bioinfodata.org/Blast4OneKP/\)](https://www.bioinfodata.org/Blast4OneKP/) with TBLASTN searches and an e-value cut-off of  $1 \times 10^{-10}$  (Table S1).

#### Transcriptome sequencing and analysis

Organelle-enriched RNAs of both Ophioglossum and Psilotum were isolated, prepared and sequenced as described in Guo et al. (2015). Adapter and low-quality bases of the RNA sequencing data were trimmed as described in Guo et al. (2015). To eliminate the effect of plastid-derived sequences (MIPTs), the trimmed reads were mapped simultaneously to both mitochondrial and plastid genomes of *Ophioglossum* and *Psilotum*, respectively, using TOPHAT v.2.0.13 (Kim et al., 2013) with relaxed parameters (-N 4 -read-gap-length 0 -read-edit-dist 4 -maxinsertion-length 0 -max-deletion-length 0 -I 15000 -coveragesearch). RNA edit sites then were identified using the established bioinformatics pipeline described in Guo et al. (2015) except the minimum read depth was increased to  $10\times$ .

#### Substitution rate analysis

Substitution rates were calculated using 41 mitochondrial protein-coding genes (Fig. 1a) from Ophioglossum, Psilotum, three gymnosperms (Cycas taitungensis, Ginkgo biloba and Welwitschia mirabilis), four slowly evolving and gene-rich angiosperms (Amborella trichopoda, Liriodendron tulipifera, Phoenix dactylifera and Vitis vinifera) and two lycophyte outgroups (Huperzia squarrosa and Isoetes engelmannii). Genes were individually aligned with MUSCLE v.3.8.31 (Edgar, 2004) using default parameters. To mitigate the confounding effects of Cto-U and U-to-C RNA editing on substitution rate calculations, empirical editing data was used for Ophioglossum, Psilotum and Isoetes. For seed plants and Huperzia, empirical editing data are not available for all genes from all species. Therefore, predicted RNA sequences from Guo et al. (2016) or generated by the PREP-Mt webserver (Mower, 2009) were used in the alignments. Because these species are used as outgroups relative to ferns, the use of predicted data should have no effect on rates estimated for ferns.

Poorly aligned regions were eliminated from each alignment using GBLOCKS v.0.91b (Castresana, 2000) with relaxed settings  $(-t = c, -b1 = h, -b2 = h, -b4 = 5, -b5 = h)$ . Filtered alignments were concatenated with FASCONCAT v.1.0 (Kück & Meusemann, 2010), generating a final alignment of 33 639 bp.

# New<br>Phytologist Phytologist Research 393



Fig. 1 (a) Mitochondrial protein-coding gene content among representative vascular plants.●, indicates presence of an intact gene;  $\psi$ , a pseudogene; -, gene loss. (b) Nuclear Ccm and mitochondrial ccm gene content in eusporangiate ferns. Gray boxes, presence of a gene; white boxes, absence of a gene. (c) Evolutionary timing of mitochondrial gene losses in vascular plants. Gene losses were mapped onto a chronogram using maximum parsimony. The 46 ancestral genes are listed in (a). Ma, million years.

Trees representing synonymous  $(d_S)$  and nonsynonymous  $(d_N)$ branch lengths were calculated in HYPHY v.2.2.1 (Pond et al., 2005) with a local MG94xHKY85 codon model. Topologies were

constrained according to version 13 of the Angiosperm Phylogeny Website [\(http://www.mobot.org/mobot/research/apweb/\)](http://www.mobot.org/mobot/research/apweb/). Absolute rates of synonymous  $(R<sub>S</sub>)$  and nonsynonymous  $(R<sub>N</sub>)$ 

substitution were calculated by dividing  $d_S$  or  $d_N$  branches by their estimated divergence times reported by the TimeTree web service [\(http://www.](http://www.timetree.org/)

[timetree.org/\)](http://www.timetree.org/).

#### Repeats and repeat-mediated recombination

Repeats in both mitogenomes were identified with BLAST searches using different sets of parameters. For comparison of repeat content across vascular plants, a word size of 7 and an e-value cut-off of  $1 \times 10^{-6}$  was used, which is very sensitive and can detect repeats as short as 30 bp (perfect match) or 33 bp (one mismatch). For additional comparisons with several highly repetitive mitogenomes, a word size of 7 and an e-value cut-off of 1 or a minimum raw score of 19 was used to detect repeats down to 19 bp. In addition to the BLAST analyses, short dispersed repeats up to several hundred bp in length were classified into repeat families using REPEATSCOUT v.1.0.5 (Price et al., 2005) and REPEATMASKER v.4.0.5 [\(http://www.repeatmasker.org\)](http://www.repeatmasker.org). Short tandem repeats up to 30 bp were identified using MISA [\(http://](http://pgrc.ipk-gatersleben.de/misa/misa.html) [pgrc.ipk-gatersleben.de/misa/misa.html](http://pgrc.ipk-gatersleben.de/misa/misa.html)), with the following search parameters: minimum number of repeats for mononucleotide and dinucleotide was set to 5, for trinucleotide to octal-nucleotide was set to 3 and for all others was set to 2.

Repeat-mediated recombination was evaluated for all nonoverlapping repeats between 100 bp and 5 kb in both mitogenomes by using established procedures (Guo et al., 2016). As an independent measure of overall recombination, we counted the frequency of all improperly mapped read pairs, which did not map to the genome in the expected tail-to-tail orientation at a distance of  $5 \text{ kb } (\pm 100\%).$ Excluded from this count were all read pairs that mapped in a head-to-head orientation at a distance of < 1 kb, which are likely derived from unbiotinylated fragments of contiguous DNA that were not washed away completely during the library preparation procedure ([http://support.illumina.com/](http://support.illumina.com/downloads/mate_pair_v2_sample_prep_guide_for_2-5_kb_libraries_15008135.html) [downloads/mate\\_pair\\_v2\\_sample\\_prep\\_guide\\_for\\_2-5\\_kb\\_libraries](http://support.illumina.com/downloads/mate_pair_v2_sample_prep_guide_for_2-5_kb_libraries_15008135.html) [\\_15008135.html](http://support.illumina.com/downloads/mate_pair_v2_sample_prep_guide_for_2-5_kb_libraries_15008135.html)).

#### Gene order and DNA turnover analyses

Gene orders for Physcomitrella, Megaceros, Huperzia, Ophioglossum and Psilotum were taken from their annotated GenBank files. Genes were color-coded according to the ancestral land plant gene orders determined by Liu et al. (2012).

Rates of DNA turnover were estimated by plotting the amount of shared DNA between two mitogenomes as a function of divergence time, as described previously (Guo et al., 2016). Briefly, to obtain the shared amount of mtDNA between Ophioglossum and Psilotum, the two mitogenomes were aligned using BLASTN with a word size of 7 and an evalue cut-off of  $1 \times 10^{-6}$ . The divergence time between Ophioglossum and Psilotum was estimated to 305 Myr ago (Ma) using the TimeTree website (<http://timetree.org/>). These shared DNA and divergence time values were plotted with data obtained previously (Guo et al., 2016).

# **Results**

#### Genome size

The Ophioglossum mitogenome was assembled into a single circular molecule, with a genome size of 372 kb, whereas the Psilotum mitogenome was assembled into two circular molecules with sizes of 364 and 264 kb (Table 1; Fig. S1). The two chromosomes in Psilotum mitochondria share two large repeats (2.7 and 3.0 kb), and have essentially the same sequencing depth (Fig. S1B). Despite the shared presence of two large repeats, read-pair mapping shows that the two chromosomes rarely recombine with each other (see the 'Genome structural dynamics' section below), providing strong support for the two chromosome conformation rather than the typical single chromosome assembled in most plant mitogenomic studies. The Ophioglossum mitogenome is similar in size to that of the lycophyte Huperzia (414 kb), the gymnosperms Cycas (415 kb) and Ginkgo (347 kb), and many angiosperms, whereas the mitogenome size of Psilotum is larger than > 75% of sequenced vascular plants (as of December 2015). In comparison with Ophioglossum, the larger mitogenome in Psilotum is due primarily to a major increase of repetitive sequences (138 kb vs 331 kb), and, to a lesser extent, to increased gene space (34 kb vs 51 kb) and intronic regions (58 kb vs 102 kb). MIPTs (mitochondrial DNA of plastid origin) are low in both species (1.8 kb vs 0.1 kb), contributing very little to overall size (Table 1).

#### Gene content

The Ophioglossum and Psilotum mitogenomes have similar coding content to other vascular plants, with a few notable distinctions (Fig. 1a). Compared with the 41 protein-coding genes inferred to be present in the ancestral mitogenome of seed plants, Ophioglossum and Psilotum have an additional rpl6 gene that is shared with *Huperzia*, but both species lack the rpl10 gene that is present in most vascular plants. In addition, Ophioglossum lacks all four ccm genes (ccmB, ccmC, ccmF<sub>C</sub> and ccmF<sub>N</sub>). Transcripts also were not detected for any of the nucleus-encoded members of this pathway (i.e. the nuclear Ccm genes) in Ophioglossum, whereas most or all of these genes were detected in genomic and transcriptomic data from other members of Ophioglossales and more distantly related ferns (Fig. 1b; Table S1). Thus, the entire pathway may have been lost specifically from Ophioglossum.

Lycophytes have a few additional mitochondrial genes not found in other vascular plants (Fig. 1a), including several novel maturase genes (Guo & Mower, 2013) as well as a full-length rps8 gene that was reported previously as a pseudogene in Huperzia (Liu et al., 2012). However, the Huperzia rps8 gene is found within a highly conserved cluster of ribosomal protein genes that is syntenic with liverworts and mosses. In addition, by assuming C-to-U and U-to-C RNA editing, processes which are active in the *Huperzia* mitogenome (Liu et al., 2012), both a start codon can be created and a premature stop codon can be removed (Fig. S2). The gene also is transcribed, based on the recovery of an expressed sequence tag from a *Huperzia* cDNA

Table 1 General mitogenomic features of representative vascular plants



<sup>a</sup>Duplicate gene copies were not counted.

Selagin., Selaginella; Ophiogl., Ophioglossum; Welwits., Welwitschia; Lirioden., Liriodendron; NA, not available.

library (GenBank accession number [GO912990](http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/nuccore/GO912990)). These lines of evidence indicate that rps8 probably is functional in *Huperzia*.

Altogether, there are 46 protein-coding genes present in at least one lineage of vascular plants (Fig. 1a). Because orthologs for all 46 genes also are detected in at least some nonvascular plants, this implies that all of these genes were present in the common ancestor of vascular plants, followed by lineage-specific loss of some genes from particular vascular plant lineages (Fig. 1c). Many of the gene losses affect ribosomal protein genes and sdh genes, consistent with previous observations for angiosperms (Adams et al., 2002).

With regard to RNA gene content (Table S2), Ophioglossum and *Psilotum* have the typical set of three rRNA genes that also are found in nearly all land plants, with two copies of rrn18 and rrn26 present in Psilotum due to a 25-kb repeat. The tRNA content includes 24 genes in *Ophioglossum* and 27 genes in *Psilotum*, most of which also are present in other vascular plants, except for a trnR-UCG gene that is found only in the two ferns. The closest homolog to this trnR-UCG gene was detected in several bacteria from Chlamydiales, suggesting that this fern tRNA was acquired via horizontal transfer, as postulated also for several other mitochondrial tRNAs in some lycophytes and ferns (Knie et al., 2015).

#### Intron content

Mitochondrial intron content shows a more variable pattern among vascular plants, due mainly to many novel introns in lycophytes (Fig. 2). The overall intron distribution pattern in ferns is more similar to seed plants than to lycophytes. Among group II introns (Fig. 2a), the predominant type of intron in land plants, there is only a single intron from ferns (*Psilotum* nad5i1242) that is shared with lycophytes but not seed plants. The two ferns contain a novel group II intron (nad1i258), and Psilotum contains another novel intron (rps1i25), both of which were shown

previously to be unique to ferns (Dombrovska & Qiu, 2004; Knie et al., 2016). Group I introns are much more restricted in vascular plants (Fig. 2b). Psilotum contains a group I intron (cox1i624) that is not shared with any vascular plants, although an ortholog is present in mosses and liverworts (Liu et al., 2011, 2014).

Mapping group II intron gains and losses in a phylogenetic context shows that intron loss predominated during vascular plant evolution (Fig. 2c). Several introns, including nad1i394, nad5i1242, nad7i209 and rps3i257, are absent from Ophioglossum but present in Psilotum and many other vascular plants, indicating a loss from the Ophioglossum lineage. The  $ccmF<sub>C</sub>$ i829 intron was also lost from *Ophioglossum* due to loss of its host gene. Gain and loss patterns are more difficult to infer for group I introns. The much more restricted distribution of group I introns, coupled with the sporadic presence of homologs in nonvascular plants or green algae, makes it uncertain whether their patchy distribution is due to inheritance from a common ancestor coupled with extensive loss or to horizontal intron transfer, as proposed for the acquisition of cox1 group I intron in angiosperms from fungi (Vaughn et al., 1995; Adams et al., 1998; Sanchez-Puerta et al., 2008).

#### RNA editing abundance and efficiency

Using a previously established bioinformatics pipeline (Guo et al., 2015) with slightly modified parameters, a total of 1014 Cto-U and 58 U-to-C edit sites were detected in the Ophioglossum mitochondrial transcriptome, whereas 965 C-to-U and 19 U-to-C edit sites were identified in the Psilotum mitochondrial transcriptome (Tables 2, S3). In both species, the majority of edit sites are found in coding regions, and about half of those are located at second codon positions. For multiple genes, C-to-U RNA editing is required to create start codons and/or stop codons, and numerous internal stop codons were removed by



Fig. 2 Mitochondrial group II intron (a) and group I intron (b) content among representative vascular plants. ●, indicates presence of a cis-splicing intron; ө, a trans-splicing intron; x, indicates intron loss due to gene loss. \*, Intron has homologs in nonvascular plants and/or streptophytic green algae, indicating that the intron was acquired before the divergence of nonvascular plants and vascular plants. (c) Evolutionary timing of mitochondrial intron gains (shaded in black background) and losses (gray background) in vascular plants. Red text, intron losses were due to loss of the host gene. Intron gains and losses were mapped onto a chronogram using maximum parsimony. The 27 ancestral introns are marked with \* in (a). Ma, million years.

U-to-C RNA editing (Table S3). The majority of coding edit sites are nonsilent and they are more efficiently edited on average than silent edit sites, consistent with a greater level of selective constraint to maintain nonsilent editing (Fig. 3a).

RNA editing was less common in noncoding regions (Table 2). Most of the noncoding edit sites affect intergenic regions, presumably within UTRs or intergenic spacers, whereas





a small fraction is located within introns. In Psilotum, all three ribosomal RNA genes were altered, each by a single C-to-U editing event, whereas no editing events were detected in any Ophioglossum ribosomal RNAs. No RNA editing was detected in any transfer RNAs of either species. In general, most of these noncoding edit sites are edited very inefficiently, as also reported previously for the angiosperm Silene noctiflora (Wu et al., 2015), suggesting a lower level of selective constraint to maintain them (Fig. 3a).

Of the 862 and 731 edit sites in coding regions of Ophioglossum and Psilotum, respectively, only 186 sites are shared at homologous positions (Table S4). This highly lineage-specific distribution of edit sites, which was also observed in the plastid transcriptomes of both species (Guo et al., 2015), affects all of the mitochondrial genes to a large degree, indicating a rapid turnover rate due to frequent gain and loss of RNA edit sites during fern diversification. The enrichment of shared edit sites in the high editing efficiency category (75–100%) suggests a higher level of functional importance for the shared sites (Fig. 3b,  $P < 1 \times 10^{-9}$ ,  $\chi^2$  test).

#### Nucleotide composition and DNA substitution rates

The Ophioglossum and Psilotum mitogenomes are GC-rich, with GC percentages (GC%) of 52.2% and 51.2%, respectively (Table 1). These mitochondrial GC% values are higher than all other land plants except Welwitschia (53.0%) and Selaginella



Fig. 3 (a) Frequency of RNA editing in Ophioglossum and Psilotum at nonsilent, silent, and noncoding sites. (b) Shared and lineage-specific RNA edit sites as a function of editing efficiency. (c) Correlation between editing abundance and genome GC%, gene GC%, and second codon position GC%. Linear regression analyses either included (orange line, upper equation) or excluded (blue line, lower equation) the Selaginella data point, which is a possible outlier.

(68.1%) (Hecht et al., 2011; Guo et al., 2016). The similar GC % between the two ferns indicates that their common ancestor also probably possessed a GC-rich mitogenome. Because previous studies have shown that editing abundance positively correlates with either genomewide GC% (Malek et al., 1996; Smith, 2009; Hecht et al., 2011) or GC% at second codon positions (Guo et al., 2016), we correlated editing abundance in selected ferns, lycophytes and seed plants with GC% in the whole genome, in gene sequences and at second codon positions (Fig. 3c). These results demonstrate that editing abundance correlates more closely with second position GC% ( $R^2 = 0.78$ ) and gene GC%  $(R^2 = 0.63)$  than with genomewide GC%  $(R^2 = 0.48)$ . Excluding Selaginella, which may be an outlier in the data, weakens the correlation of editing abundance with genomewide GC%  $(R^2 = 0.07)$  and gene GC%  $(R^2 = 0.41)$ , but the correlation with second position GC% remains strong ( $R^2 = 0.79$ ).

Using the 41 protein-coding genes present in the majority of vascular plants examined in this study (Fig. 1a), rates of synonymous and nonsynonymous substitution were estimated for Ophioglossum and Psilotum. The Ophioglossum mitogenome has experienced slightly higher levels of both synonymous  $(d<sub>S</sub>)$  and nonsynonymous  $(d_N)$  sequence divergence than *Psilotum* (Fig. 4). With an estimated divergence time of 305 Ma, absolute synonymous  $(R<sub>S</sub>)$  and nonsynonymous  $(R<sub>N</sub>)$  substitution rates are estimated to be 0.72 and 0.17 substitutions per site per billion years for Ophioglossum, and 0.58 and 0.15 substitutions per site per billion years for *Psilotum*. These  $R<sub>S</sub>$  and  $R<sub>N</sub>$  values in ferns are slightly lower than rates in Welwitschia but 2–3 times higher than rates in Cycas and Ginkgo (Guo et al., 2016), and similar to rates observed in many angiosperm lineages (Mower et al., 2007; Richardson et al., 2013).

#### Repeat content and expanded mitochondrial introns

The *Ophioglossum* and *Psilotum* mitogenomes are highly repetitive (Tables 1, S5). Regardless of the specific criteria used for repeat identification, it is clear that the *Psilotum* mitogenome has one of the highest proportion of repetitive sequence (52.7– 63.3%) of any land plant, whereas Ophioglossum's mitochondrial repeat content  $(37.1–44.3%)$  is similar to some of the most



Fig. 4 Phylograms representing synonymous ( $d<sub>S</sub>$ ) and nonsynonymous  $(d_N)$  sequence divergence based on the 41 mitochondrial genes present in the majority of sampled vascular plants. The  $d_S$  and  $d_N$  branch lengths are shown for those branches that were used for the substitution rate calculations for Ophioglossum and Psilotum.

repeat-rich mitogenomes of land plants, such as *Silene conica* (40.8%, Sloan et al., 2012), Viscum scurruloideum (39%, Skippington et al., 2015), Cucurbita pepo (38%, Alverson et al., 2010) and Cucumis sativus (36%, Alverson et al., 2011).

The *Ophioglossum* mitogenome has four large  $(> 1 \text{ kb})$  repeats with sizes of 1.0, 1.3, 4.0 and 11.3 kb, whereas the *Psilotum* mitogenome has five large repeats of 1.1, 1.5, 2.7, 3.0 and 25.4 kb in size. All of these large repeats are present in two copies, and all are identical or nearly so (99.5–100% sequence identity) except for the 1.0-kb and 1.3-kb repeats in Ophioglossum, which have 97.0% and 78.8% sequence identities. Also, an indel of  $\sim$ 100 bp is present in each of the 4.0-kb and 11.3-kb repeats in *Ophioglossum*. Smaller  $(< 1 \text{ kb}$ ) repeats are composed of a complex array of tandem and dispersed subrepeat families that are present in many copies throughout each genome. Many of these repeats partially overlap, making it difficult to quantify precisely the number of repeats in the two genomes. Using REPEATSCOUT and REPEATMASKER, we identified 27 families in Ophioglossum and 41 families in Psilotum (Fig. S3). None of these repeat families are shared between the two species, and they do not share any obvious similarity to the Bpu elements previously reported for Cycas and Ginkgo (Chaw et al., 2008; Guo et al., 2016).

Tandem repeats make up a substantial proportion of repeat content, accounting for c. 11% of the Ophioglossum mitogenome and 4% of the Psilotum mitogenome (Table 1). Numerous short tandem repeats (STRs) were also detected in both mitogenomes (Table S6). Some notable high-frequency STRs include ACC/ GGT (28 copies), CCA/TGG (40), TTAAA/TTTAA (38), AAC TCCTCC/GGAGGAGTT (58), ACTCCTCCC/GGGAGG AGT (45) and AGGAGTTGG/CCAACTCCT (34) in the Ophioglossum mitogenome, and AAC/GTT (58), AACC/GGTT (45), AAGC/GCTT (110), GCAA/TTGC (140), CTCCC/ GGGAG (30), CTTCC/GGAAG (26) and GGGGA/TCCCC (84) in the Psilotum mitogenome. Nearly all of these STRs are located in noncoding regions. The few exonic STRs are in all cases trinucleotide repeats present in few tandem copies (3–5), and are therefore not expected to affect functionality of the translated product.

The abundance of repeats in the fern mitogenomes has resulted in a substantial increase in the size of many introns (Fig. 5 and Table S7). Of the 262 cis-spliced introns examined from the 12 sampled mitogenomes, the six largest introns are found in the ferns, including five *Psilotum* introns and one Ophioglossum intron that are all  $> 6$  kb in length. Overall, the average mitochondrial intron size in *Psilotum* is substantially larger than in all other vascular plants, whereas Ophioglossum ranks second, slightly ahead of the lycophyte *Huperzia*. The increased repeat content in both fern mitogenomes accounts for a large portion of the increased intron sizes (Table S8); between 46% and 80% of these six largest introns are composed of repetitive elements. These large introns in the *Psilotum* mitogenome have also resulted in extremely long total lengths for several intron-containing genes. The longest gene,  $nad1$ , is  $\geq$  21 kb from start to stop codon, and the genes nad2, nad4, nad5 and nad7 are 15–20 kb in length.



Fig. 5 Distribution of intron sizes in vascular plant mitogenomes. Variation is represented using box and whisker plots, generated in R v3.2.1. Each data point corresponds to a single intron. The boxes show the 25% and 75% quartiles of the data points, and the horizontal lines within the boxes indicate the means. The dotted whisker lines encompass the range of all non outlier data points.

## Genome structural dynamics

We examined the recombinational activity of all nonoverlapping repeats between 100 bp and 5 kb in the Ophioglossum and the Psilotum mitogenomes by mapping the 5-kb mate-pair reads to the genome sequences. For the 4.0-kb (nearly identical except for a 130 bp indel) and 1.0-kb (97.0% sequence identity) inverted repeats in Ophioglossum, only 24.5% and 0.1% read pairs that span each repeat support the recombinant repeat forms that would generate an alternative conformation (AC) of the genome. In Psilotum, because one copy of the 3.0-kb (99.5% sequence identity) and 2.7-kb (100% sequence identity) repeats are located on each chromosome, recombination at these repeats would generate a single chromosome. However, only 0.3% of the read pairs spanning the 3.0-kb repeat and none of the read pairs spanning the 2.7-kb repeat support a recombination event, suggesting that the Psilotum mitogenome is present predominantly as two autonomous circular chromosomes and may only be substoichiometrically present as a single chromosomal arrangement. For the 1.5-kb repeat in Psilotum (100% sequence identity), both copies are located on chromosome 2, and only 0.7% of the spanning read pairs support the AC. The 1.3-kb direct repeats in Ophioglossum and the 1.1-kb direct repeats in Psilotum were located <5 kb from each other and thus were not suitable for analyzing recombinational activity. Most of the medium repeats (100 and 1000 bp) in both Ophioglossum and Psilotum exhibited very little  $($  < 1%) to no recombination, with just a few repeats having up to 2.3% recombination frequency. The limited amount of repeat-mediated rearrangement in the two fern mitogenomes is supported further by the fact that only 6.6% (3195 of 48 474) of Ophioglossum mapped read pairs and 2.2% (8942 of 405 171) of Psilotum mapped read pairs were consistent with any kind of AC, despite the presence of so many repeats.

Although recombination at large mitochondrial repeats appears to be low in both Ophioglossum and Psilotum, gene order in their mitogenomes is not well conserved, in contrast to the

highly syntenic mitogenomes of bryophytes (Fig. S4). The Megaceros and Physcomitrella mitogenomes have retained four major clusters of genes, with just a single translocation of the Megaceros nad1 gene out of its ancestral position. As previously demonstrated (Liu et al., 2012), Huperzia has retained quite a few gene adjacencies from these ancestral gene clusters, including many of the genes in the ribosomal protein cluster, the ribosomal RNA cluster, the sdh3-sdh4-nad4L cluster, and the rpl10-nad5 and *atp4-cox1* clusters. The two ferns have retained many fewer gene adjacencies, including just a few fragmented subsets of the ancestral ribosomal protein cluster and the shd4-mttB pairing. Thus, even though repeat-mediated recombination is low in ferns relative to seed plants, the recombination rate in Huperzia and bryophytes may be even lower to account for the higher degree of synteny between their mitogenomes.

We also estimated the rates of DNA turnover in Ophioglossum and Psilotum mitogenomes using methods established previously (Guo et al., 2016). The Ophioglossum and Psilotum share  $~55$  kb of mtDNA. Assuming again a divergence time of 305 Ma, these values fit very well to the regression line previously estimated from 14 pairs of phylogenetically independent seed plants (Fig. 3b of Guo et al., 2016), indicating that DNA turnover rates in these two ferns are similar to most seed plants.

#### **Discussion**

The lack of a complete mitochondrial genome from ferns, a phylogenetically pivotal group as the sister lineage of seed plants, has impeded a comprehensive understanding of the origin and evolution of mitogenomic diversity in vascular plants. In the present study, we sequenced and analyzed the first complete mitogenomes from two ferns, Ophioglossum californicum and Psilotum nudum, and then compared them with other seed plant and lycophyte genomes. These comparative analyses have provided substantial insight on the mitogenomic features of the common ancestor of vascular plants, contributed to a broader and more comprehensive understanding of all aspects of plant mitogenome evolution, and identified several remarkable features of these fern mitogenomes that expand the range of known mitogenomic diversity in plants.

The mitogenome of the ancestral vascular plant was moderately sized but rich in genes, introns and edit sites

Although mitogenomic sizes are highly variable among seed plants (e.g., Sloan et al., 2012; Skippington et al., 2015; Guo et al., 2016), more than half of the sequenced angiosperm genomes are 300–600 kb in size (as of December 2015), and two of the three available gymnosperm mitogenomes are  $\sim$ 400 kb in size, suggesting that the size of the ancestral seed plant mitogenome was also  $\sim$ 400 kb (Guo *et al.*, 2016). The two newly sequenced fern mitogenomes are similar in size to the majority of seed plants, as is the only fully assembled lycophyte mitogenome from Huperzia squarrosa, at 414 kb (Liu et al., 2012). Taken together, the abundance of ~400-kb mitogenomes in vascular plant lineages suggests that their common ancestor may also be

around this size, followed by independent genome expansions and contractions in specific descendant lineages. However, sequencing of additional gymnosperm, fern and lycophyte mitogenomes is necessary to ensure that this inference is not influenced by ascertainment bias in these lineages of smaller genomes that are easier to be fully assembled.

Comparative analyses have indicated that 41 protein-coding genes were present in the mitogenome of the common ancestor of seed plants (Guo et al., 2016), whereas in the vascular plant ancestor, the mitogenome appears to be more gene-rich (Fig. 1c). In particular, the presence of a mitochondrial rpl6 gene in Huperzia and both newly sequenced ferns indicates that this gene was also likely to be present in the vascular plant ancestor, followed by loss in other lycophytes and seed plants. Mitochondrial maturases, RNA splicing factors that assist in the removal of introns during transcriptional maturation, probably also were more abundant in the common ancestor of vascular plants. In addition to *matR*, which is a mitochondrial gene in the majority of vascular plants, lycophyte mitogenomes have several other maturase genes, including *mat-atp9i87* in *Isoetes* and *Selaginella*, and mat-atp9i95 and mat-cobi787 in Huperzia (Guo & Mower, 2013). Notably, intact or pseudogenized orthologs of these lycophyte maturases also are found in one or more nonvascular land plants, strongly suggesting that these maturases were present in the vascular plant ancestor, maintained in some lycophytes, and functionally lost from most other vascular plants, including the ferns sequenced in this study. *Huperzia* also contains pseudogenes for several additional maturases, but the lack of functional orthologs in any vascular plants suggests that these genes were not functional in their ancestor. Altogether, comparative analysis of gene content suggests that the common ancestor of vascular plants had at least 46 protein-coding genes in its mitogenome, including the 41 genes in seed plants plus rpl6, rps8, matatp9i87, mat-atp9i95 and mat-cobi787. The absence of rps8 and these additional maturases and their host introns from all seed plants and the two newly sequenced ferns suggests that they were lost from the common ancestor of euphyllophytes (i.e. ferns plus seed plants), although additional fern mitogenomes are needed to better assess this inference.

Ancestral reconstruction of intron content in vascular plants is more complicated due to the large number of distinct introns in lycophytes relative to ferns and seed plants (Fig. 2c). In total, 27 of the group II introns in vascular plants have homologs in nonvascular plants and/or streptophytic green algae (Hecht et al., 2011; Liu et al., 2012; Turmel et al., 2013), which signifies that probably they were acquired early in plant evolution and retained in the ancestral vascular plant. Another 11 group II introns are present in both lycophytes and euphyllophytes but not any nonvascular plants or green algae, indicating that they were acquired in the common ancestor of vascular plants and inherited by descendant lineages. The remaining 11 group II introns are more restricted in their distribution, suggesting relatively recent gains in specific lineages, although for all of these introns, it is only slightly less parsimonious to infer that they were actually acquired by the vascular plant ancestor and then lost once or a few times in descendant lineages. The evolutionary origin of the five group I introns in lycophytes or ferns (cox1i395, cox1i624, cox1i876, cox1i1305, rrnSi839) is less clear due to their highly lineagespecific distribution in vascular plants, coupled with the sporadic distribution of homologs in nonvascular plants and/or green algae. This is akin to the situation for the cox1i729 intron, which is present in many angiosperms and liverworts and was shown to be horizontally acquired from fungi (Cho et al., 1998; Sanchez-Puerta et al., 2008). Deeper taxon sampling is needed to determine whether these fern/lycophyte group I introns were obtained through horizontal gene transfer or vertical transfer coupled with many losses in the majority of other land plants. Overall, it is apparent that the ancestral mitogenome of vascular plants was intron-rich, containing at least 38 group II introns and up to five group I introns. This high ancestral count implies that intron losses have been more frequent than intron gains in vascular plants, particularly in euphyllophytes which have substantially fewer mitochondrial introns presently.

Reconstruction of RNA editing content is even more difficult due to the low number of conserved sites among lineages. In the ferns *Psilotum* and *Ophioglossum*, which diverged c. 305 Myr ago (Ma), both species have about ~1000 C-to-U edit sites and a small number of U-to-C sites (Table 2). However, only ~25% of the edit sites in coding regions are conserved between them (Table S4), suggesting a high rate of gain and/or loss in these two fern lineages. Between the gymnosperms Ginkgo and Cycas, which also diverged c. 300 Ma, c. 70% of the  $\sim$ 1300 edit sites (all C-to-U) are shared, suggesting a somewhat lower rate of gain and/or loss compared with ferns (Guo et al., 2016). In lycophytes, RNA editing content and type ranges widely, from a few hundred C-to-U and U-to-C sites in Huperzia (Liu et al., 2012) to  $> 1500$  C-to-U sites and  $> 200$ U-to-C sites in *Isoetes* (Grewe et al., 2011) and > 2100 sites (all C-to-U) in Selaginella (Hecht et al., 2011). Editing content in hornworts, the presumed sister lineage to vascular plants, was also inferred to be high and to include both C-to-U and U-to-C sites (Xue et al., 2010), although precise editing counts are not known because complete transcriptomes were not examined. Taken together, it seems likely that the vascular plant ancestor had a large number of C-to-U edit sites given that > 1000 edit sites are found in most ferns, gymnosperms and lycophytes. Because U-to-C editing has been detected in ferns, lycophytes and hornworts, this process was almost certainly active in the vascular plant ancestor as well. Additional transcriptomes are needed to more accurately estimate the ancestral editing content of vascular plants.

# Recurrent loss of mitochondrial ccm genes from land plants suggests functional co-option by alternative cytochrome c maturation pathways

In plants, the mitochondrial ccm genes encode products involved in the attachment of a heme group to the cytochrome  $c$  protein (Giege et al., 2008). The absence of any functional ccm genes in Ophioglossum but their presence in Psilotum and many other eusporangiate ferns signifies that these genes were lost from the *Ophioglossum* mitogenome. Across land plants, the

mitochondrial *ccm* genes have been completely lost or pseudogenized at least four times independently, from the liverwort Treubia lacunosa (Liu et al., 2011), the hornworts Megaceros aenigmaticus and Phaeoceros laevis (Li et al., 2009; Xue et al., 2010), the lycophytes Isoetes, Selaginella and Huperzia (Grewe et al., 2009; Hecht et al., 2011; Liu et al., 2012), and the fern Ophioglossum (this study). From a broader perspective, this cytochrome c maturation pathway appears to have been acquired from the ancestral proto-mitochondrion and lost repeatedly in many eukaryotic lineages (Allen et al., 2008; Babbitt et al., 2015).

The correlated loss of all four mitochondrial genes in multiple land plant lineages argues against a model whereby all four genes were transferred more or less simultaneously from the mitochondrion to the nucleus. Instead, it is possible that the function of the *ccm* gene products in these lineages has been co-opted by one of the alternative cytochrome  $c$  maturation pathways, which also was postulated to have occurred in other eukaryotic lineages (Allen et al., 2008; Babbitt et al., 2015). Consistent with the functional co-option hypothesis, none of the nuclear-encoded or mitochondrial-encoded members of this mitochondrial cytochrome  $c$  maturation pathway were detected in the Ophioglossum transcriptome (Fig. 1b; Table S1). Likewise, homology searches of the Selaginella nuclear genome (Banks et al., 2011) did not identify any homologs of the missing mitochondrial ccm genes or nuclear Ccm genes, although this negative result should be interpreted cautiously given the generally higher rate of sequence evolution in plant nuclear genomes compared with mitogenomes (Wolfe et al., 1987; Drouin et al., 2008; Zhu et al., 2014) and the long divergence time (> 400 Myr) between Selaginella and euphyllophytes, whose genes were used for homology assessment. Searches of nuclear genomes from additional species lacking these genes are needed to test more robustly for the possibility of functional co-option.

# Fern mitogenomes have the largest organellar introns and intron-encoded genes among green plants

One notable feature of the fern mitogenomes is the abundance of very large introns, several of which are > 6 kb in size. The largest Psilotum intron (nad7i917) is 8206 bp in length, which, to our knowledge, is the largest intron ever reported from the mitochondrial or plastid genome of any eukaryote. The increased repeat content appears to be the main driver of intron expansion in the fern mitogenomes (Table S8). Outside of ferns, the two largest reported introns in land plant mitogenomes are likely to be erroneous. A 6.9-kb intron was reported in the Selaginella mitogenome study (Hecht et al., 2011), but the identity of this intron is unknown as the largest intron in the genome annotation is 5.5 kb (nad1i1477). In the annotated *Huperzia* genome, the atp9i87 intron was reported to be 5.8 kb (Liu et al., 2012). However, the very short downstream exon was later inferred to be annotated incorrectly (Guo & Mower, 2013); after correction of this exon position, the size of atp9i87 is 3.6 kb. Thus, compared with ferns, the largest mitochondrial introns in other land plants are the Cycas nad4i976 intron at 5.7 kb followed by the Selaginella nad1i1477 intron at 5.5 kb. There are no confirmed introns > 6 kb in any sequenced land plant mitogenomes other than ferns.

Many of the largest introns in the Psilotum mitogenome are found in the intron-rich *nad* genes, which makes several of these genes very long. In fact, the *Psilotum nad1* gene, at 21 474 bp, is the longest organellar gene of any green plant. In total, over 95% of this gene is intronic. Several other nad genes (nad2, nad4, nad5 and nad7) in Psilotum are also long  $(15.7-19.3 \text{ kb})$  and mostly intronic (89–94%), raising intriguing questions about the potential regulatory roles or possible detrimental effects of these nad introns during transcription. Longer organellar genes are known only from fungal mitogenomes, such as the extremely intron-rich *cox1* gene, which is more than 29 kb in Agaricus bisporis (Ferandon et al., 2010).

## Many repeats but extremely low levels of repeat-mediated recombination

Repeats, both large  $(> 1 \text{ kb})$  and small  $(< 1 \text{ kb})$ , are nearly ubiquitously present in the mitogenomes of vascular plants. In this study, we determined that the mitogenomes of the ferns Ophioglossum and Psilotum are highly repetitive (Tables 1, S5). Despite this abundance of repeats, however, recombinational activity is unusually quiescent in these fern genomes. This result contrasts sharply with the situation in most angiosperms, in which the larger repeats undergo frequent recombination resulting in nearly equimolar ratios of various genomic forms created by the repeat-mediated recombination events (Maréchal & Brisson, 2010; Mower et al., 2012a). In gymnosperms, recombinational activity in Ginkgo and Welwitschia was found to be somewhat lower at large and small repeats compared with most angiosperms (Guo et al., 2016). In lycophytes, the evidence for repeat-mediated recombination is more indirect. The many repeats and genomic arrangements in Isoetes and Selaginella mitogenomes suggest a highly active recombination system (Grewe et al., 2009; Hecht et al., 2011), whereas the mitogenomes of *Huperzia* and nonvascular plants exhibit a high degree of synteny (Liu et al., 2012), suggesting much lower recombinational activity in Huperzia and most nonvascular plants. Thus, as with many features of plant mitochondrial genomes, there appears to be a wide range of variation among species with respect to the frequency of repeat-mediated recombination.

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### Author contributions

J.P.M. designed the research. W.G. and W.F. performed experiments. W.G., A.Z. and J.P.M. analyzed the data. W.G. and J.P.M. interpreted the results and wrote the paper. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

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# Supporting Information

Additional Supporting Information may be found online in the Supporting Information tab for this article:

Fig. S1 Mitogenome maps and depth of coverage analysis of Ophioglossum californicum and Psilotum nudum.

Fig. S2 Alignment of rps8 amino acid sequences.

Fig. S3 Highly repetitive families of dispersed repeats identified in the Ophioglossum and Psilotum mitogenomes.

Fig. S4 Comparison of gene order in mitogenomes of ferns and other land plants.

Table S1 TBLASTN search results for transcribed ccm genes in fern transcriptomes

Table S2 Number of RNA genes in representative mitogenomes of vascular plants

Table S3 Description of RNA edit sites in the Ophioglossum and Psilotum mitogenomes

Table S4 Number of mitochondrial RNA edit sites shared between Ophioglossum and Psilotum

Table S5 Amount of repetitive DNA in highly repetitive mitogenomes of vascular plants

Table S6 Number of short tandem repeats in fern mitogenomes

Table S7 Intron sizes in vascular plant mitogenomes

Table S8 Composition of the largest fern introns

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