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Chromosomal resolution reveals symbiotic virus colonization of parasitic wasp genomes

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16

17 Abstract

Most endogenous viruses, an important proportion of eukaryote genomes, are doomed to slowly 18 decay. Little is known, however, on how they evolve when they confer a benefit to their host. 19 20 Bracoviruses are essential for the parasitism success of parasitoid wasps, whose genomes they integrated ~103 million years ago. Here we show, from the assembly of a parasitoid wasp 21 22 genome, for the first time at a chromosomal scale, that symbiotic bracovirus genes spread to and colonized all the chromosomes. Moreover, large viral clusters are stably maintained 23 suggesting strong evolutionary constraints. Genomic comparison with another wasps revealed 24 25 that this organization was already established ~53 mya. Transcriptomic analyses highlight temporal synchronization of viral gene expression, leading to particle production. Immune 26 genes are not induced, however, indicating the virus is not perceived as foreign by the wasp. 27 28 This recognition suggests that no conflicts remain between symbiotic partners when benefits to them converge. 29

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34 Main

Cotesia wasps (Hymenoptera, Braconidae) are parasitoids of Lepidoptera. Female 35 wasps lay their eggs into caterpillars and larvae develop feeding on the host hemolymph. 36 37 Several *Cotesia* species are famous for their use as biological control agents to control insect 38 pests, such as Cotesia flavipes which is massively released over several million hectares of sugarcane fields in Brazil^{1,2}. Parasitoid wasps evolved several strategies that increase parasitic 39 success, including a sensitive olfactory apparatus to locate their hosts^{3,4} and detoxification 40 41 mechanisms against plant toxic compounds accumulating in their host (Fig. 1). But the most 42 original strategy is the domestication of a bracovirus (BV) shared by over 46,000 braconid wasp 43 species⁵. Bracoviruses originate from a single integration event ~103 million years ago (mya) of a nudivirus in the genome of the last common ancestor of this group⁶⁻⁹. Virus domestication 44 45 nowadays confers a benefit to the wasps that use BVs as virulence gene delivery systems¹⁰. Indeed, virulence genes are introduced with wasp eggs into their hosts, causing inhibition of 46 host immune defenses¹⁰⁻¹². Imbedded in wasp DNA, the nudivirus genome has been extensively 47 rearranged¹³. Now BV sequences are differentiated as i.) genes involved in particles production 48 named "nudiviral genes"⁶, and ii.) proviral segments packaged as dsDNA circles in viral 49 particles¹³, encoding virulence genes involved in successful parasitism. 50

To understand the genetic underpinning of the endoparasitoid life-style and of BV 51 evolution since the original nudivirus capture event, we used a hybrid sequencing approach 52 combining 454 reads, illumina short reads, and chromosomal contact data (HiC), to obtain a 53 54 reference genome for Cotesia congregata at a chromosomal scale. These approaches allowed 55 the analysis of wasp genes potentially involved in the success of the endoparasitoid lifestyle such as genes implicated in olfaction, detoxification and immunity. Moreover, the results 56 revealed the global distribution of bracoviral sequences in wasp chromosomes and the 57 identification of syntenies with genome scaffolds of *Microplitis demolitor* parasitoid wasp^{14,15}, 58 which diverged from the *Cotesia* lineage 53 mya¹⁶. In addition, we sequenced draft genomes 59 of five Cotesia species (C. rubecula, C. glomerata, C. vestalis, C. flavipes, C. sesamiae) to 60 61 assess bracovirus molecular evolution between closely related species.

We discovered that, in discrepancy with the usual gene decay of endogenous viral elements, bracovirus genes have spread in all wasp chromosomes, reaching a ~2.5-fold higher number of genes than a pathogenic nudivirus. However strong evolutionary constraints have maintained specialized chromosomal regions containing large virus gene clusters, resembling "super gene" regions and concentrating 77% of virulence genes and half of the nudiviral genes,

respectively. Transcriptome analyses point to the major role of viral transcription in maintaining
the viral entity, however wasp immune response is not induced, suggesting no conflicts remain
in this ancient virus-wasp association.

70

71 Results

72 *Genome assembly, annotation and comparison*

First, a 207 Mb high-quality genome (scaffolds N50=1.1 Mb and N90=65 kb) was 73 74 obtained for Cotesia congregata using a combination of mate pair 454 pyrosequencing and 75 Illumina sequencing (Supplementary Table 1). Most of the assembly (86%) consisted of 285 scaffolds of over 100 kb. This genome was then re-assembled based on experimentally obtained 76 chromosomal contact maps. The HiC method yielded ten main scaffolds comprising >99% of 77 78 the previously obtained genome assembly (Supplementary Table 1 and 3; Supplementary Fig. 79 1 and 2), and corresponding to the ten chromosomes of C. congregata¹⁷. In addition, draft 80 genomes of five related Cotesia species – C. rubecula, C. glomerata, C. vestalis, C. flavipes 81 and C. sesamiae – were sequenced and assembled with Illumina shotgun sequencing reads 82 (Supplementary Table 1). They respectively resulted in scaffold N50 values of 13, 9, 15, 20 and 26 Kb and cumulative sizes of 216, 243, 176, 155 and 166 Mb, in agreement with cytometry 83 data (189-298 Mb) (Supplementary Table 2). 84

The genome of C. congregata comprised 48.7% of repeated DNA sequences including 85 34.7 % of known Transposable Elements (TEs) (Supplementary Fig. 3). Bracovirus proviral 86 87 segments comprised other TE sequences that had previously been annotated as bracovirus genes: BV26 gene family corresponded to Sola2 elements (Supplementary Fig. 4; 88 Supplementary Table 5) and CcBV 30.5 to a hAT^{18} . Moreover, the analysis suggested that the 89 90 BV7 gene family might also derive from TEs. Interestingly, some of these genes are highly expressed in the host¹⁹ or likely participate in ecological adaptation²⁰. This indicates that, contrary 91 92 to a common paradigm in this field²¹, the virulence genes packaged in bracovirus particles do 93 not exclusively originate from the wasp cellular gene repertoire.

We annotated 14,140 genes in the genome of *C. congregata* (Methods and
Supplementary Table 7), which include more than 99% of 1,658 conserved insect genes (98 to
99 % of the genes for the other *Cotesia* species, Supplementary Fig. 5).

97 *Gene gains and losses in traits associated to the endoparasitoid lifestyle*

Expert annotation of chemoreceptor gene families identified 243 odorant receptor (OR), 98 54 gustatory receptor (GR) and 105 ionotropic receptor (IR) genes in C. congregata. These 99 numbers are in line with those of other parasitoid wasps, but are lower than in ants²² 100 101 (Supplementary Table 10). Phylogenetic analyses showed C. congregata ORs belong to 15 of 102 the 18 OR lineages (Fig. 2) described in Apocrita²³ and revealed independent OR gene 103 expansions in N. vitripennis and in Braconidae (Fig. 2). The most spectacular Braconidae-104 specific expansions occurred in five clades each harboring at least 25 genes in C. congregata 105 (Fig. 2; Supplementary Table 10). Highly duplicated OR genes were found in 6 clusters of at 106 least 10, and up to 19, tandemly arrayed genes (Supplementary Fig. 16). Within Braconidae, 107 many duplications occurred in the ancestors of Cotesia but OR copy numbers varied 108 significantly between species (Fig. 2). This illustrates the highly dynamic evolution of OR gene 109 families within parasitoid wasps and between Cotesia species, which have different host ranges.

All the genes involved in detoxification in insects were identified in C. congregata and 110 111 are largely conserved within Cotesia (Supplementary Table 12 and 13). For instance, each 112 species harbors conserved numbers of UDP-glucosyltransferases (UGTs) and slightly different 113 numbers of gluthatione-S-transferases (GSTs). In contrast, carboxylesterases (CCEs) and 114 cytochrome P450 (P450s) numbers vary widely with C. flavipes and C. sesamiae harboring few representatives (respectively 22-24 CCEs and 49 P450s), compared to the 32 CCEs of C. 115 116 rubecula and the 70 P450s found in C. congregata, which are both exposed to plant toxic 117 compounds (Supplementary Table 12 and 13). Cotesia specific P450 families were identified 118 in the clan 3 and 4, both of which are often associated to adaptation to plant compounds and 119 insecticides²⁴ (Supplementary Table 12 and 13). Altogether Cotesia appear equipped for 120 detoxification although no spectacular gene expansion was observed.

121 The complete genome annotation of C. congregata revealed 102 nudiviral gene copies that have colonized all the chromosomes. This number is similar to that of pathogenic 122 123 nudiviruses³⁵, which is an unexpected result given that endogenous viral elements usually 124 undergo gene loss in the course of evolution²⁶. Here this surprisingly high number of nudiviral genes can be explained by the fact that gene losses have been balanced by expansions of gene 125 126 families. At least 25 of the 32 nudivirus core genes involved in essential viral functions²⁷ have 127 been retained in the wasp genome, with the notable absence of the nudiviral DNA polymerase 128 (Supplementary Table 8). The loss of this major replication gene may have prevented viral 129 escape^{10,25,28}. The *fen* genes, generally involved in DNA replication, form a gene family with six tandem copies that is found specifically in the Cotesia lineage (Fig. 3B). The most spectacular 130

expansion concerns the *odv-e66* gene family with 36 genes in 10 locations (Fig. 2B; Fig. 3C), 131 132 in contrast to the one or two copies typically found in nudivirus genomes²⁹. This expansion occurred both before and after the divergence between C. congregata and M. demolitor since 133 134 we found tandemly duplicated copies in homologous loci of the two species or in C. congregata 135 only (Fig. 3D). In baculoviruses, *odv-e66* encodes a viral chondroitinase¹⁰ involved in digesting the peritrophic membrane lining the gut, thus allowing access to target cells during primary 136 137 infection. Different ODV-E66 proteins may similarly allow BVs to cross various host barriers, 138 and BV infection to spread to virtually all Lepidoptera tissues^{31,32}.

139 Genomic architecture and synteny of bracovirus genes

Chromosome scale genome assembly of C. congregata provides the first comprehensive 140 genomic organization of a bracovirus within the genome of a wasp. Half of the single copy 141 142 nudiviral genes are located in the nudiviral cluster, which comprises 25 genes and is amplified 143 during bracovirus production but not packaged within the particles³³. Comparison with the 144 scaffolds of *M. demolitor* showed overall gene content conservation as well as conserved 145 syntenic blocks in the genomic regions flanking nudiviral sequences, over \sim 53 million years of evolution. This confirms that the nudiviral clusters of both species are orthologous (Fig. 3) and 146 147 likely derive from a genome fragment of the nudivirus that originally integrated in the ancestor 148 wasp genome. This striking stability suggests that major evolutionary constraints maintain these 149 genes together. The other nudiviral genes are dispersed in the wasp genome, although not 150 evenly, as more loci are located in the 4 smaller chromosomes. Orthology with M. demolitor 151 could be identified for 20 nudiviral gene regions (Fig. 3; Supplementary Fig. 9), indicating they 152 were already dispersed in the last common ancestor of both wasps and have stayed in the same 153 loci. Altogether, this showed that nudivirus gene loss and dispersion occurred during the first 154 period of wasp-bracovirus association (100 to 53 mya).

155 The expansion of virulence genes is another aspect of wasp genome colonization. In C. 156 congregata, the 249 virulence genes encoded by proviral segments are found in 5 regions of 157 the genome located on three chromosomes. However, 77% of these genes clustered in a single 158 region, which comprised four physically linked proviral loci (PL1, PL2, PL4, PL10) interspersed by wasp genes (Fig. 3). This major virulence gene coding region, named 159 160 "macrolocus"¹³, spans half of chromosome 5 short arm and is almost comparable (2 Mb, 177 161 genes) to the Major Histocompatibility Complex (MHC) involved in mammalian immunity (~4 Mb, ~260 genes)³⁴. Orthology relationships could be inferred between the PL1 in C. congregata 162

macrolocus and the largest proviral region (comprising 11 segments) of *M. demolitor*¹⁴ (Fig. 3) 163 164 but the macrolocus expanded specifically in the Cotesia lineage since M. demolitor does not have regions corresponding to PL2, PL4 and PL10. Further syntenies were found between 5 165 166 isolated proviral loci, showing they pre-date wasp lineage split (Fig. 3) whereas the 3 proviral 167 loci in the long arm of chromosome C9 and C10 appear as a genuine novelty of the Cotesia 168 lineage. The homologous relationships of PLs contrasts with their gene content divergence³⁵, 169 which show high turnover probably because of their role as virulence factors and coevolution 170 with the hosts²⁰.

171 Strong conservation of the bracoviral machinery

The DNA circles packaged in bracovirus particles are produced following the genomic amplification of replication units (RU) that span several proviral segments of PLs^{33,6}. Detailed genomic analyses of *C. congregata* data led to the identification of a specific sequence motif at each RU extremity and confirmed the presence of circularization motifs^{11,37} on all proviral segments at the origin of packaged circles indicating the conservation of the viral machinery whatever the localization of viral sequences. (Fig. 4; Supplementary Fig. 10).

178 Over 100 million years of evolution, the conservation of viral functions in microgastroid 179 wasps must have endured through several bouts of natural selection. Synonymous to 180 nonsynonymous substitution ratio analyses on orthologous nudiviral genes in *Cotesia* showed 181 most of the nudiviral genes (65 genes among the 79 tested genes), are evolving under 182 conservative selection, that is however less stringent than on the insect genes used to assess 183 genome completeness (Fig. 4; Supplementary Table 8). This selection is notably strong for genes involved in viral transcription, such as the RNA polymerase subunits (lef-4, lef-8, lef-9, 184 185 p47), which most likely control nudiviral gene expression and, consequently, particle 186 production⁶⁸. In contrast, genes involved in infectivity (homologues of baculovirus *pif* genes) 187 appear less conserved (Supplementary Table 8). This might reflect divergence occurring during host shifts, through adaptation of virus envelope proteins to particular host cell receptors. The 188 189 large *odv-e66* gene family and duplicated genes (*p6.9_2, pif-5_2, 17a*) similarly displayed less stringent to relaxed selection (Fig. 4; Supplementary Table 8), which might be conducive to 190 191 mutational space exploration for adaptation by neo-functionalization or sub-functionalization³⁸. 192 Virulence genes encoded by proviral segments globally displayed lower conservative selection 193 than nudiviral genes (Fig. 4), as expected for genes interacting with host defenses and involved 194 in evolutionary arms race or adaptation to new hosts²⁰.

195 Synchronized nudiviral transcription precedes bracovirus production

Bracovirus particle production only occurs in the calvx region of the ovaries, and starts 196 197 before wasp emergence at day 5. Detailed RNAseq analysis of wasp ovaries and venom glands 198 during pupal development showed 91 (out of 102) nudiviral genes were only expressed in the 199 ovaries and could not be detected in the venom gland, which highlights strong ovarian tissue 200 specificity. The onset of nudiviral gene expression was detected from day 2 of pupal 201 development, with the expression of the RNA polymerase subunits (Fig. 5), reaching a peak on 202 day 4 and declining in later stages (Fig. 5). The other nudiviral genes followed roughly the same 203 expression pattern, low or undetectable at day 2, high at day 3 and reaching a peak at day 5 204 (Fig. 5). This pattern concurs with the hypothesis that the nudiviral RNA polymerase controls 205 the expression of the other nudiviral genes and therefore bracovirus particle production. 206 Notably, 12 nudiviral genes reached very high mRNA levels (at day 5) and are among the top 207 50 of most expressed genes in C. congregata. Three genes from the nudiviral cluster (including 208 a major capsid component vp39) are by far the 3 most expressed of all wasp genes. Altogether, it is remarkable that the expression of almost all nudiviral genes remains strongly synchronized 209 210 during pupal ovarian development. Considering the age of the nudivirus wasp association, this 211 suggests strong evolutionary constraints.

212 Immune gene expression during bracovirus production

After 100 million years of endogenous evolution within the wasp genome, one can 213 214 question whether the bracovirus is considered as a regular part of the wasp or is still perceived 215 as non-self, in which case its production should trigger an immune response. However, whether 216 viral production interacts in any way with the wasp immune system was totally unknown. 217 Globally, the annotation of immune-related genes indicated C. congregata has an arsenal of 258 immune genes that are potentially involved in recognition, signal transduction, different 218 219 signaling pathways, melanization and effector functions (Supplementary Table 9), in 220 accordance with the recently reported annotation of C. Vestalis immune genes³⁹. We identified 221 all members of the Toll, IMD, Jak/STAT and RNA interference pathways found in Hymenoptera (Supplementary Table 9). 222

In contrast to the sharp increase in nudiviral gene expression, no significant changes in immune genes expression could be detected in the ovaries during pupal development (Fig. 6). In particular, expression of the genes involved in antiviral immunity (encoding members of the RNA interference, Jak/STAT or Imd/JNK pathways) was high in ovaries, even at stages before

particle production is observable (ovaries stages 2 to 4), but hardly fluctuated during the course
of ovary development, even at day 5, when massive particle production becomes apparent by
TEM (Fig. 5A). Thus, no immune response appears to be induced or repressed at the cellular
level as a response to high level nudiviral genes expression and particles production. This
strongly suggests the bracovirus is not perceived as foreign by wasp ovarian cells (Fig. 1).

232

233 Discussion

234 To investigate the genome features related to the endoparasitoid lifestyle, we sequenced 235 the genomes of 6 Cotesia species, and obtained an assembly at the chromosomal scale for C. 236 congregata. This approach provided insights into essential functions of the wasps, such as olfaction, detoxification and immunity, as well as on the genomic evolution of the bracovirus. 237 238 Large OR gene diversifications are often associated to host localization and acceptance. Indeed, 239 female wasps rely on sensitive olfactory apparatus to locate their hosts from volatile cues plants 240 emit in response to herbivore attacks^{3,4} and to assess caterpillar quality before oviposition⁴⁰. 241 Interestingly, OR copy numbers varied significantly during the evolution of the genus *Cotesia* 242 (Fig. 2). The high dynamics of OR repertoire might point to the need for more specific 243 recognition of chemical cues from the host and its food plant.

244 In contrast, no comparable diversification was observed in the detoxification arsenal, 245 even though Cotesia larvae can be exposed to various toxic phytochemicals while feeding on 246 the hemolymph of caterpillar hosts (i.e. potential exposure of C. congregata to insecticidal 247 nicotine when parasitizing Manduca sexta feeding on tobacco; C. rubecula, C. glomerata and C. vestalis are potentially exposed to glucosinolates by developing in hosts consuming 248 249 crucifers; and C. flavipes to phenylpropanoids and flavonoids when parasitizing hosts on 250 sugarcane). This surprisingly low diversification of the detoxification arsenal could suggest that 251 wasp larvae may not be as exposed to toxic compounds as expected due to direct excretion of 252 these chemicals by the host larvae^{41,42}.

Cotesia wasps face different immune challenges during their lifetime. While feeding on nectar the adult might be exposed to similar environmental challenges as honey bees. Development inside the caterpillar host could on the one hand shield wasp larvae from pathogens but on the other hand expose them to opportunistic infections, because parasitism alters caterpillar immune defenses. Lastly, metamorphosis coincides with the production of bracovirus particles, against which wasp antiviral responses had so far not been investigated. 259 Insects were recently shown to recognize their obligate bacterial symbionts as foreign and to 260 exert strong immune control, as documented for Sitophilus oryzae Primary Endosymbiont $(SOPE)^{*}$. As the immunity gene arsenal of *C*. congregata is comparable to that of the honey 261 262 bee, this wasp is most probably able to mount an immune response against pathogens, including 263 viruses. However, the transcriptomic approach did not reveal any significant difference in 264 immune gene expression between the ovaries of different pupal stages, although massive 265 amounts of bracovirus particles are produced from day 5. This lack of anti-viral gene induction 266 suggests the wasp no longer perceives the bracovirus as potentially pathogenic but rather 267 considers it as a regular secretion.

With the ancestral integration of a nudivirus genome, the parasitoid wasp gained a series 268 269 of viral functions: including viral transcription, viral DNA replication, particle morphogenesis 270 and infectivity. Whereas the function of viral DNA replication has been lost¹⁰, thus impeding 271 autonomous virus re-emergence, the other viral functions have been reorganized for virulence 272 gene transfer via bracovirus particles. Chromosomal scale resolution of C. congregata genome 273 showed bracovirus genes have colonized all the chromosomes with a nearly 2.5 fold increase 274 of in the total number of virus genes compared to the genome of a pathogenic nudivirus. This 275 contrasts sharply with the decay of most viruses integrated into eukaryote genomes that do not 276 provide a benefit to their host. Bracovirus dispersion occurred between 100 and 53 mya, as 25 277 viral loci are orthologous between Cotesia and Microplitis (Fig. 3; Supplementary Fig. 5). Yet, 278 the organization of many bracovirus genes in clusters suggests strong evolutionary constraints 279 maintain these genes together. In the case of the nudiviral cluster, which encodes major capsid 280 components (VP39, 38K) on chromosome 7, DNA amplification, as a single unit³, might be 281 essential to the mass production of bracoviral particles that are injected into parasitized hosts. 282 This could explain the counter selection on the dispersion or loss of these clustered nudivirus 283 genes since the separation of the Cotesia and Microplitis lineages. The genomic organization 284 stasis is reminiscent of bacterial symbiont genomes, which underwent major rearrangements 285 specifically during the initial steps of association⁴. In the case of the particularly large 286 macrolocus which comprises 77% of virulence genes in Cotesia genome, clustering could 287 facilitate the evolution of new virulence genes copies by duplications¹³, and thereby wasp 288 adaptation against host resistance or to new hosts^{10,45} This organization may also promote the 289 transmission of bracovirus virulence genes as a block of co-evolved genes as shown for 290 supergenes involved in butterfly wing patterns⁴⁶ and ant social behavior⁴⁷.

291

Remarkably, despite their dispersed locations in the wasp genome, bracovirus genes

remain synchronically expressed and under conservative selection, thus enabling the production 292 293 of infectious virus particles. This striking conservation of the viral machinery highlights the paramount importance of the production of viral particles allowing virulence gene transfer to a 294 295 host, in the evolutionary history of the wasp. Although high nudiviral gene expression and 296 massive particle production underline the continuing existence of a virus entity, it is now 297 considered as a regular secretion by the wasp. Thus, contrary to a vision of obligatory mutualism as an unstable alliance in which partners can become opponents or cheaters^{48,49}, this 298 299 very ancient association shows conflicts disappear when the benefits of the partners converge.

- 300
- 301 Methods

302 Sampling

303 The C. congregata laboratory strain was reared on its natural host, the tobacco hornworm, M. sexta (Lepidoptera: Sphingidae) fed on artificial diet containing nicotine as previously 304 305 described⁵⁰. C. sesamiae isofemale line came from individuals collected in the field in Kenya (near the city of Kitale) and was maintained on Sesamia nonagrioides⁵¹. C. flavipes individuals 306 originated from the strain used for biological control against *Diatraea saccharalis* in Brazil⁵². 307 308 C. glomerata, C. rubecula and C. vestalis laboratory cultures were established from individuals 309 collected in the vicinity of Wageningen in Netherlands, and reared on Pieris brassicae, Pieris rapae and Plutella xylostella larvae, respectively^{53,54}. To reduce the genetic diversity of the 310 samples prior to genome sequencing, a limited number of wasps were pooled; for example, 311 312 only haploid males from a single virgin female were used for Illumina sequencing of C. congregata genome, ten female and male pupae originating from a single parent couple were 313 314 used to generate C. glomerata genome, five male pupae originating from a single C. rubecula virgin female for C. rubecula genome and 40 adult males and 8 adult females from multiple 315 316 generations of C. vestalis cultured in the Netherlands were used. DNAs were extracted from 317 adult wasps and stored in extraction buffer following two protocols. C. congregata, C. sesamiae 318 and C. flavipes DNA were extracted using a Qiamp DNA extraction kit (Qiagen) with RNAse 319 treatment following the manufacturer's instructions and eluted in 200 µl of molecular biology 320 grade water (5PRIME). C. glomerata, C. rubecula and C. vestalis DNA was extracted using phenol-chloroform. 321

322

323 Genome sequencing and assembly

Cotesia congregata genome was sequenced combining two approaches: (i) single-end reads 324 and MatePair libraries of 3Kb, 8Kb and 20Kb fragments on 454 GS FLX Titanium platform 325 326 (Roche) and (ii) paired-end reads of 320bp fragments with HiSeq2000 platform (Illumina). C. 327 glomerata, C. rubecula and C. vestalis DNA libraries were prepared using insert sizes of 300 328 and 700 bp. For C. sesamiae and C. flavipes libraries an insert size of 400 bp was selected. These libraries were sequenced in 100 bp paired-end reads on a HiSeq2000 platform (Illumina) 329 at the French National Sequencing Institute (CEA/Genoscope, France) and at the Sequencing 330 Facility of the University Medical Center (Groningen, Netherlands). Reads were then filtered 331 332 according to different criteria: low quality bases (Q<20) at the read extremities, bases after the 333 second N found in a read, read shorter than 30 bp and reads matching with phiX (Illumina intern 334 control) were removed using in-house software (http://www.genoscope.cns.fr/fastxtend) based (http://hannonlab.cshl.edu/fastx toolkit/) 335 FASTX-Toolkit described on the as in 336 (https://www.nature.com/articles/sdata201793).

337 The C. congregata genome was generated by de novo assembly of 454 reads using GS De Novo Assembler from the Newbler software package v2.8⁵⁵. The consensus was polished using the 338 339 Illumina data as described in (https://bmcgenomics.biomedcentral.com/articles/10.1186/1471-2164-9-603). Gaps were filled using GapCloser module from the SOAPdenovo assembler 340 341 (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC3626529/). The genomes of C. sesamiae, C. flavipes, C. glomerata, C. rubecula and C. vestalis were assembled with Velvet v1.2.0755 using 342 343 the following parameters: velveth k-mer 91 -shortPaired -fastq -separate, velvetg -clean yes and specific adapted values for -exp cov and -cov cutoff for each species. The genome size was 344 345 estimated using k-mer distribution of raw reads on all Cotesia species with 17-mer size using Jellyfish v1.1.11 ⁵⁶. 346

347

348 Chromosome scale assembly of *C. congregata* genome

349 *HiC library preparation*

The individual wasps had their gut removed and were immediately suspended after sampling in 30 mL of 1X tris-EDTA buffer and formaldehyde at 3% concentration, then fixed for one hour. 10 mL of glycine at 2.5 M was added to the mix for quenching during 20 min. A centrifugation recovered the resulting pellet for -80° C storage and awaiting further use. The libraries were then prepared and sequenced (2 × 75 bp, paired-end Illumina NextSeq with the first ten bases acting as tags), as previously described⁵⁷ using the *Dpn*II enzyme.

356 *Read processing and Hi-C map generation*

The HiC read library was processed and mapped onto *Dpn*II fragments of the reference assembly using HiCbox (available at https://github.com/kozullab/HiCbox) with bowtie2⁵⁸ on the back-end (option --very-sensitive-local, discarding alignments with mapping quality below 30). Fragments were then filtered according to size and coverage distribution, discarding sequences shorter than 50 bp or below one standard deviation away from the mean coverage. Both trimmed contact maps were then recursively sum-pooled four times by groups of three, yielding bins of 3⁴= 81 fragments.

364 *Contact-based re-assembly*

The genome was re-assembled using an updated version of GRAAL (dubbed instaGRAAL) for 365 366 large genomes on the aforementioned contact maps for 1,000 cycles, as described in⁵⁹. Briefly, the program modifies the relative positions and/or orientations of sequences according to 367 expected contacts given by a polymer model. These modifications take the form of a fixed set 368 of operations (swapping, flipping, inserting, merging, etc.) on the 81-fragment bins. The 369 370 likelihood of the model is maximized by sampling the parameters with an MCMC method. 371 After a number of iterations, the contact distribution converges and the global genome structure 372 ceases to evolve, at which point the genome is considered reassembled. The process yielded eleven main scaffolds comprising >99% of the bin sequences. 373

374 Polishing and post-assembly processing

Each scaffold was independently polished by reconstructing the initial contig structure 375 376 whenever relocations or inversions were found. In addition, previously filtered sequences were 377 reintegrated next to their original neighbors in their initial contig when applicable. The implementation is instaGRAAL 378 part of polishing and available at https://github.com/koszullab/instaGRAAL (run using the -polishing mode). 379

380 Assembly validation

We performed the validation with QUAST-LG⁶⁰, an updated version of the QUAST analyzer tailored for large genomes. The initial assembly from Illumina short reads was used as reference. The assessed metrics include genomic feature completeness, Nx and NGx statistics as well as global and local misassemblies. In addition, each assembly was assessed for ortholog completeness with BUSCO v3⁶¹. The reference dataset used for expected gene content was pulled from the OrthoDB (version 9) database for Hymenoptera, comprising 4,415 orthologs.

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388 Genome annotations

389 *Transposable element annotation*

Genome annotation was first done on the *C. congregata* reference genome and then exported
on the genomes of the five other *Cotesia* species. First, the transposable element annotation was
realized following the REPET pipeline comprising a *de novo* prediction (TEdenovo) and an
annotation using TE libraries (TEannot)⁶². This annotation was exported into GFF3 files used
as mask for the gene annotation.

395 *Automated gene annotation*

396 The automated gene prediction and annotation of C. congregata genome was done using Gmove (https://github.com/institut-de-genomique/Gmove) integrating different features based 397 on (i) the mapping of Hymenoptera proteins from all hymenopteran genomes available on 398 NCBI (Supplementary Table 6) and UniProt Hymenoptera, (ii) the mapping of RNA-Seq data 399 400 from C. congregata, C. glomerata, C. vestalis and C. rubecula^{63,64}, and (iii) ab initio genes predictions using SNAP 65. The automated annotation of the five other Cotesia species was 401 402 performed using MAKER ⁶⁶ using the same features as for the annotation of *C. congregata* but 403 also including the output automated annotation of C. congregata.

404 *Automated gene functional annotation*

The functional annotation was performed using blastp from BLAST+ v2.5.0⁶⁷ to compare the *C. congregata* proteins to the NCBI non-redundant database (from the 29/06/2014). The ten best hits below an e-value of 1e-08 without complexity masking were conserved. Interproscan v5.13-52.0⁶⁸ was used to analyze protein sequences seeking for known protein domains in the different databases available in Interproscan. Finally, we used Blast2GO⁶⁹ to associate a protein with a GO group.

411 Specialist gene annotation

412 The automated annotations were followed by manual curations, corrections and annotations

- 413 realized by specialists of each gene family of interest through Apollo⁷⁰. The genomes were
- 414 available to this consortium through the web portal: https://bipaa.genouest.org/is/parwaspdb/.

415 Genome completeness evaluation

The completeness of the genomes and annotations were evaluated using Benchmarking
Universal Single-Copy Orthologs BUSCO v3⁶¹ using the insecta_odb9 database composed of
1658 genes.

Contigs were searched for similarities against the nonredundant NCBI nucleotide (nt) (release November 2019) and the Uniref90 protein (release November 2019) databases using respectively blastn v2.7.1+⁶⁷ and diamond v0.9.29.130⁷¹. For both tasks, e-value cutoff was set to 10–25. Taxa were inferred according to the highest-scoring matches sum across all hits for each taxonomic rank in the two databases. Sequencing coverage was deduced after mapping Illumina paired reads to the assembly with Bowtie2 v2.3.4.2⁵⁸. Contigs were then displayed with Blobtools v1.1.1⁷² using taxon-annotated-GC-coverage plots.

426

427 Orthologous genes identification, alignment and phylogeny

428 Orthologous genes between all genes annotated in the six Cotesia species and the four outgroups (Microplitis demolitor, Nasonia vitripennis, Apis mellifera and Drosophila 429 *melanogaster*) were identified using OrthoFinder v1.14⁷³. Universal single-copy ortholog genes 430 from BUSCO v3⁶¹ were extracted for the six *Cotesia* species and the four outgroups, aligned 431 using MAFFT v7.017⁷⁴ and concatenated. The species phylogeny was performed on this 432 alignment composed of 1,058 orthologous for a length of 611 kb using PhyML program⁷⁵ with 433 the HKY85 substitution model, previously determined by jModelTest v2.1⁷⁶ and the branch 434 support were measured after 1,000 bootstrap iterations. The cluster of orthologous genes was 435 used to determine the phylogenetic level of each gene represented in Fig. 2. as follows: genes 436 shared by all species are called shared by all; genes shared by at least nine species among the 437 438 ten studied species without phylogenetic logical are named "shared by some"; genes shared by only Hymenoptera species and without orthologous gene in *D. melanogaster* are considered as 439 "Hymenoptera specific"; genes shared only by Microgastrinae are named "Microgastrinae 440 specific"; genes shared only by Cotesia species and without orthologous genes in any of the 441 442 outgroup are considered as "Cotesia specific".

443

444 Synteny analyses

445 The different synteny analyses were performed on the orthologous genes identified by 446 OrthoFinder v1.14⁷³ and by reciprocal blastp from BLAST+ v2.2.28⁶⁷ on the annotated proteins

447 (e-value below 10e⁻²⁰). The correspondence between the genes, the localizations on the scaffold
448 and the figures were realized thanks to a custom R script (R Core Team 2013).

449

450 Evolution of gene families

For OR, P450 and odv-e66 genes manually annotated genes from the reference genome of C. 451 452 congregata were used along with orthologous genes from the five other Cotesia species, M. demolitor⁷⁷, N. vitripennis⁷⁸, A. mellifera⁷⁹ to create a phylogeny of each family among 453 Hymenoptera. Protein sequences were first aligned with MAFFT v7.01774 and the maximum-454 likelihood phylogeny was performed with PhyML⁷⁵ using the JTT+G+F substitution model 455 456 for OR and using HKY80 substitution model for P450 and odv-e66 genes. The branch support was assess using aLRTfor OR and 1,000 bootstraps for P450 and odv-e66 genes.. The trees 457 458 were then rooted to Orco (OR-coreceptor) clade for OR and t the midpoint for the other. The 459 gene gains and losses along the phylogeny for the different gene families of interest were identified with NOTUNG v2.9^{80 81}. 460

461

462 Evolution of single copy genes

To determine evolutionary rates within *Cotesia* genus, single-copy orthologous gene clusters 463 464 (BUSCO, nudiviral and virulence genes) were first aligned using MACSE⁸² to produce reliable codon-based alignments. From these codon alignments, pairwise dN/dS values were estimated 465 between C. congregata and C. sesamiae, the two most diverging species in the Cotesia 466 phylogeny, with PAML v4.8 using the YN00 program⁸³. dN/dS of the different gene categories 467 of interest were then compared using a Kruskal-Wallis test, and Nemenyi-Tests for multiple 468 comparisons were realized with the R package. For the nudiviral genes the dN/dS values were 469 calculated using genes from the 6 species. Orthologous genes from the six Cotesia species were 470 471 aligned as described before and codeml (implemented in PAML v4.8) was used to estimate the 472 M0 dN/dS (free ratio model). This model was compared to a neutral model for which the dN/dS is fixed to 1. 473

474

475 RNA-Seq analyses

476 Sample preparation, extraction and sequencing

477 The ovaries and venom glands were extract from females at five pupal stages, i.e. days 2, days 3, days 4, days 5 and at emergence, corresponding to the number of days after the creation of 478 the cocoon and identified following body melanization⁸⁴. Ovaries were pooled by groups of 20 479 pairs and venom glands by 100 and in duplicates for each condition. Samples were stored in 480 481 buffer provided in the extraction kit by adding 2-mercaptoethanol to reduce RNA degradation. Extractions were performed using QIAGEN RNeasy kit following manufacturer's 482 483 recommendations. Library preparation and sequencing were performed at the Genescope using a paired-end strategy with HiSeq2000 platform (Illumina). 484

485 *Analyses*

The pair-end reads from *C. congregata* ovary and venom gland libraries were mapped on the
reference genome using TopHat2⁸⁵ with default parameters. Then, featureCounts program from
the Subread package⁸⁶ was used to determine fragment counts per genes using default
parameters.

490 To analyze gene expression, the raw fragment counts of ovaries and venom glands samples were first converted to counts per million (CPM) using the edgeR⁸⁷ R-implemented package 491 492 (R-Core Team 2017). Expressed genes were filtered based on a CPM > 0.4 (corresponding to 493 raw count of 15) in at least two of the libraries incorporated in the analysis (Supplementary Fig. 6 A) and subsequent normalization was performed on CPMs using the edgeR TMM method for 494 Normalization Factor calculation⁸⁸ (Supplementary Fig. 6 B). The reproducibility of replicates 495 496 was then assessed by Spearman correlation of gene expression profiles based on filtered and 497 normalized CPMs (Supplementary Fig. 6 C).

498 To examine differential expression between ovary stages and with venom glands a quasi-499 likelihood negative binomial generalized log-linear model was fitted to the data after estimation 500 of the common dispersion using edgeR. Then, empirical Bayes quasi-likelihood F-tests were performed to identify differentially expressed (DE) genes under chosen contrasts⁸⁹. Finally, F-501 test p-values were adjusted using False Discovery Rate (FDR) method⁹⁰. Genes were 502 503 considered as DE whether FDR < 0.05 and fold-change (FC) of expressions between compared 504 conditions was higher or equal to 1.5. Four contrasts were designed between the five successive 505 ovary stages and a control contrast was tested between ovaries and venom glands at wasp 506 emergence stage.

507

508 **Data availability**

The datasets generated during the current study are available from the National Center for Biotechnology Information (NCBI) at the following BioProject ID: PRJEB36310 for genome raw reads; PRJNA594477 for transcriptome raw reads. Genome database (genomes and annotated genes) are available on the web site BIPAA (Bioinformatic Platform for Agrosystem Arthropods) <u>https://bipaa.genouest.org/is/parwaspdb/</u>. Custom scripts are available from <u>https://github.com/JeremyLGauthier/Script_Gauthier_et_al._2020_NEE</u>.

- 515
- 516

517 Figure Legends

518 Fig. 1. A. Major traits involved in the parasitoid koinobiont lifestyle and genome content of six 519 Cotesia species. First OLFACTION plays an important role in the detection of the plant 520 (tobacco) attacked by caterpillars and host (*M. sexta*) larvae acceptance by adult wasps. Once the host is accepted, the wasp injects its eggs bathed in ovarian fluid filled with bracovirus 521 particles. Bracovirus particles infect host cells, from which expression of bracovirus 522 523 VIRULENCE GENES alter host immune defenses, allowing wasp larvae development (the 524 eggs laid in the host body would otherwise be engulfed in a cellular sheath of hemocytes). As the host ingests plant toxic compounds, such as nicotine, while feeding, wasp larvae consuming 525 526 the hemolymph containing these compounds rely on DETOXIFICATION to complete their life cycle. But in these species associated with endogenous viruses the most important trait for 527 parasitism success consists in BRACOVIRUS MORPHOGENESIS during wasp 528 metamorphosis, using genes originating from a nudivirus ancestrally integrated in the wasp 529 530 genome. As massive production of virus particles occurs within wasp ovaries, WASP 531 IMMUNITY may be induced during particles production; d2, d3, d4, d5 refer to developmental stages of *C. congregata* larvae⁸⁴. **B** Pictures of the six *Cotesia* species sequenced (credit H. M. 532 533 Smid and R. Copeland). C Phylogeny of these species based on 1,058 single-copy orthologous 534 insect genes including the Microgastrinae Microplitis demolitor and outgroups (N. vitripennis, 535 A. mellifera, and D. melanogaster). Black dots highlight branches with at least 90% support from maximum-likelihood analysis (1,000 bootstraps). D Distribution of shared genes at 536 several phylogenetic levels. Full protein-coding gene sets were included to identify orthologous 537 gene groups. The "shared by some" category refers to genes shared by at least nine species 538 539 among the 10 studied. Note that the lower number of genes for C. congregata probably reflects the higher quality of the genome assembly obtained. 540

Fig. 2. Gene family extensions in Cotesia. A Maximum-likelihood phylogeny of the OR 541 542 family in C. congregata and four other Hymenoptera species. The dataset included 243 amino 543 acid sequences from C. congregata (blue), 203 sequences from M. demolitor (red), 216 544 sequences from N. vitripennis (orange), 162 sequences from A. mellifera (yellow). The tree was 545 rooted using the Orco (OR-coreceptor) clade. Circles indicate nodes strongly supported by the 546 approximate likelihood-ratio test (black circles $aLRT \ge 0.95$; white circles $0.90 \ge aLRT \le 0.95$). 547 The scale bar represents 0.5 expected amino acid substitutions per site. ORs of the five 548 Hymenoptera species are distributed into 18 OR subfamilies previously described in ²³ 549 delineated in grey. B Copy number dynamics of OR (olfaction) P450 (detoxification) and Odv-550 e66 genes, note that the later are found specifically in bracovirus associated wasps since they 551 derive from the ancestrally integrated nudivirus. Estimated numbers of gene gain and loss 552 events are shown on each branch of the species tree. The size of OR repertoires in common 553 ancestors is indicated in the boxes. The lack of phylogenetic resolution for closely related 554 Cotesia OR genes precluded any comprehensive analysis of gene gains and losses.

555 Fig. 3. Synteny of nudiviral genes loci and Proviral Loci (PL) between C. congregata and 556 *M. demolitor*. A *C. congregata* chromosome map with the position of 24 nudiviral genes loci. 557 **B** Comparisons between nudiviral gene regions of C. congregata and M. demolitor. Synteny 558 between the two species has been characterized by at least two hymenopteran (non-viral) 559 orthologous genes in the vicinity of homologous nudiviral gene(s) of both species. Genome 560 scaffolds are represented in black. Red boxes indicate nudiviral genes and white boxes refer to 561 hymenopteran genes. 1. the vp91 region is orthologous indicating the position of this gene was 562 inherited from their common ancestor 53 mya; 2.: the fen region is also orthologous but an 563 expansion occurred specifically in *Cotesia* lineage giving rise to six copies; 3.: the organization 564 of the nudiviral cluster encoding in particular capsid genes has remained strikingly similar with 565 the same viral genes in the same order (except p6-9-2) in both species indicating strong 566 evolutionary constraints. C C. congregata chromosome map with the position of gene loci 567 corresponding to the highly expanded odv-e66 nudiviral gene family. D Comparison of two 568 odv-e66 loci showing that expansion occurred before (cluster 7) and after (cluster 4) the 569 separation of both species E C. congregata chromosome map with the position of Proviral Loci 570 (PL) encoding virulence genes packaged in bracovirus particles. Note the concentration of loci 571 (successively PL10-PL1-PL2 and PL4) in a 2 Mb region termed "macrolocus" and representing 572 half of the chromosome 5 short arm. F Comparison of C. congregata and M. demolitor PL. 573 Numbers 1 to 37 and letters correspond to the different dsDNA circles present in CcBV and

574 MdBV particles produced from the PL. Blue boxes indicate virulence genes while white boxes

refer to hymenopteran genes and the red box to a nudiviral *odv-e66* gene located between PL1

and PL2. Ø indicates the absence of orthologs PL in the *M. demolitor* genome.

577 Fig. 4. A C. congregata chromosome map with the location of bracovirus loci: nudiviral gene 578 loci are shown in red, nudiviral odv-e66 gene loci in hatched red and Proviral Loci (PL) in blue. 579 The sizes of the circles correspond to the relative number of genes in each locus B taxon-580 annotated GC content-coverage plot of C. congregata scaffolds. Each circle represents a 581 scaffold in the assembly, scaled by length, and colored by taxonomy assignation to Braconidae 582 and Polydnaviridae. The x-axis corresponds to the average GC content of each scaffold and the 583 y-axis corresponds to the average coverage based on alignment of illumina reads. C Measure 584 of selection pressure on hymenopteran conserved genes, nudiviral genes and virulence genes. 585 Pairwise evolutionary rates (dN/dS) of single-copy orthologous BUSCO genes, nudiviral genes, 586 different copies from the expanded odv-e66 nudiviral gene family and virulence genes of C. 587 congregata and C. sesamiae. Letters above boxes indicate significant differences determined 588 by Kruskal-Wallis test (H= 296.8, 2 d.f., P<0.001) followed by post-hoc comparisons. C 589 Schematic representation of the genomic amplification during the production of viral particles 590 in the wasp ovaries. Replication Unit Motifs (RUM) are the motifs that constitute the 591 extremities of the molecules amplified during particle production. Direct Repeat Junctions 592 (DRJ), at the extremities of each segment are used during the excision/circularization process 593 to produce packaged dsDNA circles from the amplified molecules. Host Integration Motifs 594 (HIM) are motifs used during the integration of bracovirus circles in host genome. For each of these motifs an alignment of a representative set of sequence comprising five motifs from C. 595 596 congregata and M. demolitor are represented (all alignments are reported in Supplementary Fig. 10). 597

598 Fig. 5. Gene expression of nudiviral genes in the ovaries during *C. congregata* nymphal 599 development. A Pictures of wasp developmental stages studied and characteristic electron 600 micrographs of ovarian cells involved in particle production. From d2 to d4 stage, cells that 601 will produce particles show enlarged nuclei with chromatin condensation (left panel). From d5 602 massive particle production begins, particle assembly occurs at the periphery of a zone of electron dense material in the nucleus named "virogenic stroma" (middle panel). In newly 603 604 emerged wasp nuclei are completely filled with bracovirus particles (right panel). Credit: Juline Herbinière. B Unsupervised hierarchical clustering based on gene expression in ovaries and 605

venom glands. Ov2, Ov3, Ov4, Ov5 refer to the different ovaries across wasp developmental 606 607 stages. Ove and vg refer to ovaries and venom glands of adult wasps. The colored squares 608 associated with the clustering tree indicate the viral functions to which different nudiviral genes 609 are supposed to contribute based on those of their baculovirus homologues. Heatmap of 610 expression levels of 95 nudiviral genes is shown in the middle panel. Bold names highlight the 611 genes that are validated as significantly differentially expressed between two consecutive stages 612 using the statistical analysis and dots represent the four different comparisons studied between 613 ovary stages (Ov2 vs. Ov3, Ov3 vs. Ov4, Ov4 vs. Ov5 and Ov5 vs. Ove). Black, red and green 614 dots indicate similar, increased and reduced expressions between consecutive developmental 615 stages respectively. The increase of some nudivirus genes expression between d2 and d3 616 visualized on the heat map was not validated statistically for all of them because in one of the 617 d2 duplicates (shown in C) nudiviral genes expression had already reached high levels. 618 Underlined genes show higher expression in venom glands compared to ovaries (Ove) note that 619 27a and 17b are not nudiviral genes but wasp genes, the products of which have been identified 620 in Chelonus inanitus bracovirus particles. C Unsupervised hierarchical clustering of gene expression from the two replicates of Ov2 ovary stage, that are very different regarding 621 622 nudiviral gene expression levels, although dissected nymphae presented a similar coloration 623 pattern, the left one representing a slightly earlier stage from the analysis of the whole set of 624 wasp genes. Note that the genes within the box are already expressed at a high level in the 625 earlier stage, including all of the genes involved in nudiviral transcription (shown in green) 626 except lef5, in accordance with the hypothesis that the nudiviral RNA polymerase complex 627 controls the expression of the other genes (lef-5 is associated to the complex but not a part of 628 it).

629 Fig. 6. Gene expression of immune genes in the ovaries during C. congregata nymphal 630 development. Gene expression of antiviral immunity genes during C. congregata 631 development. The heatmaps show the expression of genes involved in A RNAi, B Imd, C Toll 632 and **D** Jak-STAT pathways across the developmental stages of ovaries (Ov2, Ov3, Ov4, Ov5, 633 Ove) and in venom glands (vg). The trees on the left are unsupervised hierarchical clustering 634 of expression values. Boxplots represent overall expression of each pathway in ovaries and 635 venom glands. Bold names highlight the genes that are differentially expressed between two stages and dots represent the four different comparisons studied between consecutive ovary 636 stages (Ov2 vs. Ov3, Ov3 vs. Ov4, Ov4 vs. Ov5 and Ov5 vs. Ove). Black, red and green dots 637 638 indicate similar, increased and reduced expressions between consecutive developmental stages

respectively. Note that no particular trend appears correlated to bracovirus particles productionwhich occurs massively from Ov5 onward.

641

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