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**PhyloToL: A taxon/gene rich phylogenomic pipeline to explore genome evolution of diverse eukaryotes**

Cerón-Romero M. A <sup>a,b</sup>, Maurer-Alcalá, X. X. <sup>a,b,d</sup>, Grattepanche, J-D. <sup>a,e</sup>, Yan, Y. <sup>a</sup>, Fonseca, M. M. <sup>c</sup>, Katz, L. A <sup>a,b</sup>.

<sup>a</sup> Department of Biological Sciences, Smith College, Northampton, Massachusetts, USA.

<sup>b</sup> Program in Organismic and Evolutionary Biology, University of Massachusetts Amherst, Amherst, Massachusetts, USA.

<sup>c</sup> CIIMAR - Interdisciplinary Centre of Marine and Environmental Research, University of Porto, Porto, Portugal.

<sup>d</sup> Current address: Institute of Cell Biology, University of Bern, Bern, Switzerland.

<sup>e</sup> Current address: Biology Department, Temple University, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, USA.

## ABSTRACT

Estimating multiple sequence alignments (MSAs) and inferring phylogenies are essential for many aspects of comparative biology. Yet, many bioinformatics tools for such analyses have focused on specific clades, with greatest attention paid to plants, animals and fungi. The rapid increase of high-throughput sequencing (HTS) data from diverse lineages now provides opportunities to estimate evolutionary relationships and gene family evolution across the eukaryotic tree of life. At the same time, these types of data are known to be error-prone (e.g. substitutions, contamination). To address these opportunities and challenges, we have refined a phylogenomic pipeline, now named PhyloToL, to allow easy incorporation of data from HTS studies, to automate production of both MSAs and gene trees, and to identify and remove contaminants. PhyloToL is designed for phylogenomic analyses of diverse lineages across the tree of life (i.e. at scales of >100 million years). We demonstrate the power of PhyloToL by assessing stop codon usage in Ciliophora, identifying contamination in a taxon- and gene-rich database and exploring the evolutionary history of chromosomes in the kinetoplastid parasite *Trypanosoma brucei*, the causative agent of African sleeping sickness. Benchmarking PhyloToL's homology assessment against that of OrthoMCL and a published paper on superfamilies of bacterial and eukaryotic organelle outer membrane pore-forming proteins demonstrates the power of our approach for determining gene family membership and inferring gene trees. PhyloToL is highly flexible and allows users to easily explore HTS data, test hypotheses about phylogeny and gene family evolution and combine outputs with third-party tools (e.g. PhyloChromoMap, iGTP).

**Keywords:** Phylogenomic pipeline, high-throughput sequencing data, contamination removal, genome evolution, chromosome mapping.

INTRODUCTION

An important way to study biodiversity is through phylogenomics, which uses the generation of multiple sequence alignments (MSAs), gene trees and species trees (e.g. Katz and Grant 2015; Hug, et al. 2016). During the last two decades, advances in DNA sequencing technology (e.g. 454, Illumina, Nanopore and PacBio) have led to the rapid accumulation of data (transcriptomes and genomes) from diverse lineages across the tree of life, greatly expanding the opportunities for phylogenomic studies (Katz and Grant 2015; Burki, et al. 2016; Brown, et al. 2018; Heiss, et al. 2018). Such approaches are powerful by using increasingly large molecular datasets to reduce the discordance between gene and species trees. Indeed, studies relying on a small number of genes are often impacted by lateral gene transfer, gene duplication and loss, and incomplete lineage sorting (e.g. Maddison 1997; Tremblay-Savard and Swenson 2012; Mallo and Posada 2016). Large-scale phylogenomic analyses allow for the exploration of deep evolutionary relationships (dos Reis, et al. 2012; Wickett, et al. 2014; Katz and Grant 2015; Hug, et al. 2016), but such analyses require data-intensive computing methods. As a result, numerous laboratories have developed custom phylogenomic pipelines proposing different methods to efficiently process and analyze massive gene and taxon databases (e.g. Sanderson, et al. 2008; Wu and Eisen 2008; Smith, et al. 2009; Kumar, et al. 2015).

In general, phylogenomic pipelines are composed of three steps: 1) construction of a collection of homologous gene datasets from various input sources (e.g. whole genome sequencing, transcriptome analyses, PCR based studies), 2) production of MSAs, and 3) generation of gene trees and sometimes a species tree. Phylogenomic pipelines typically put more effort in the first two steps (collecting homologous genes and MSA curation) to ensure a more accurate tree inference. For instance, pipelines such as PhyLoTA (Sanderson, et al. 2008) and BIR (Kumar, et al. 2015) focus on the identification and collection of homologous genes by exploring public databases such as GenBank (Benson, et al. 2017). On the other hand, pipelines such as AMPHORA (Wu and Eisen 2008) and Mega-phylogeny (Smith, et al. 2009) focus on the construction and refinement of robust alignments rather than the collection of homologs. A recently published tool, SUPERSMART (Antonelli, et al. 2017), incorporates more efficient methods for data mining than PhyLoTA (Sanderson, et al. 2008). SUPERSMART includes sophisticated methods for tree inference using a multilocus coalescent model, which benefits biogeographical analyses. Although these pipelines incorporate sophisticated methods for data mining, alignment and tree inference, a major issue is that they are optimized for either

a relatively narrow taxonomic sampling (e.g. plants) or for relatively narrow sets of conserved genes/gene markers.

A major problem for phylogenomic analyses using public sequence data, including GenBank and EMBL (Baker, et al. 2000), is the inherent difficulty in identifying and removing annotation errors and contamination (e.g. data from food sources, symbionts or organelles). Additional errors are introduced when non-protein coding regions (e.g. pseudogenes, promoters and repeats) are inferred as open reading frames (ORFs) by gene-prediction tools such as GENESCAN (Burge and Karlin 1997), SNAP (Korf 2004), AUGUSTUS (Stanke and Morgenstern 2005) and MAKER (Cantarel, et al. 2008). Similarly, some public databases are more prone to contain annotation errors than others depending on how much effort they invest in manual curation of public submissions. For instance, data from GenBank NR, TrEMBL (Bairoch and Apweiler 2000) and KEGG (Kanehisa and Goto 2000) may have very high rates of these errors, whereas curated resources like Gene Ontology (GO; Ashburner, et al. 2000) and SwissProt (Bairoch and Apweiler 2000) are more likely to have low to moderate rates of such errors (Schnoes, et al. 2009). The misidentification errors in these databases often stem from problems surrounding accurate taxonomic identification of sequences from HTS data sets, as contamination by other taxa can be frequent, particularly of organisms that cannot be cultured axenically (Shrestha, et al. 2013; Lusk 2014; Parks, et al. 2015). Hence, a crucial element of any phylogenomic pipeline that relies on public databases is the ability to identify and exclude annotation errors and contaminants from its analyses.

At the same time, the availability of curated databases and third-party tools provide considerable power and efficiency for phylogenomic analyses. We rely on OrthoMCL, a database generated initially to support analyses of the genome of *Plasmodium falciparum* and other apicomplexan parasites (Li, et al. 2003; Chen, et al. 2006), for the initial identification of homologous gene families (i.e. GFs). We also incorporate GUIDANCE V2.02 (Penn, et al. 2010; Sela, et al. 2015) for assigning statistical confidence MSA scores based on the robustness of the MSA to guide-tree uncertainty. GUIDANCE allows an efficient identification and removal of potentially non-homologous sequences (i.e. sequences having very low scoring values) and unreliably aligned columns and residues under various parameters (Privman, et al. 2012; Hall 2013; Vasilakis, et al. 2013). This flexibility is critical – while concepts such as homology and paralogy have clear definitions in textbooks, when it comes to deploy phylogenomic tools on inferences at the scale of >100 million years, they become working definitions that depend of parameters and sampling of both genes and taxa. Finally, we have chosen RAXML V8 (Stamatakis, et al. 2005; Stamatakis 2014) for tree inference as its efficient algorithms allow for

robust estimation of maximum likelihood trees [though users can access the MSAs from our pipeline for analyses with other software].

Our original phylogenomic pipeline aimed to explore the eukaryotic tree of life using multigene sequences available in GenBank from diverse taxa (Grant and Katz 2014a; Katz and Grant 2015). This first version generated a collection of ~13,000 gene families (i.e., GFs) from ~800 species distributed among Eukaryota, Bacteria and Archaea, and included a suite of methods to process gene alignments and trees. The 800 species were a subset of available taxa, picked to represent, more or less evenly, the main eukaryotic lineages with no more than two species per genus. Moreover, although the focus was on eukaryotes, bacteria and archaea were also included in order to allow detection of contamination, lateral gene transfer events and/or for exploring phylogenetic relationships that include all cellular life. GFs originally defined by OrthoMCL were used as seeds to search more homologous sequences from additional taxa. Then, the enriched GFs pass for an additional quality-check step that re-evaluates homology. This step includes applying a combination of methods that include removing alleles and nonhomologous genes and highly-divergent sequences based on pairwise comparisons with Needle (Rice, et al. 2000), with robust alignments produced with MAFFT (Katoh and Standley 2013) that were then filtered with GUIDANCE. These refined high-quality MSAs were used to produce gene trees with RAXML. An additional option is to identify orthologs based on their position in gene trees, which can be used to generate concatenated alignments for species tree inference (see Grant and Katz 2014a for more details).

This new version, which we name PhyloToL (Phylogenomic Tree of Life), incorporates significant improvements over Grant and Katz (2014a), including a more efficient method to capture HTS data, a more robust homology detection approach, a novel tree-based method for contamination removal, and substantially more efficient scripts and improved databases. PhyloToL contains a database of 13,103 GFs that include up to 627 eukaryotes (58 generated in our lab), 312 bacteria and 128 archaea. Here we describe our updated approaches providing examples of stop codon usage assessment in Ciliophora and detection of contamination produced by many HTS studies (including our own). We also illustrate the potential of PhyloToL by depicting the evolutionary history of the genes on the chromosomes of the human parasite *Trypanosoma brucei*, causative agent of African sleeping sickness.

**NEW APPORACHES**

PhyloToL (<https://github.com/Katzlab/PhyloTOL>; last updates January 2019) is divided in four major components: 1) Gene family assessment per taxon, 2) refinement of homologs and

gene tree reconstruction, 3) tree-based contamination removal and 4) generation of a supermatrix for species tree inference (i.e. concatenation). The first component starts with data from either public databases or those generated by our own 'omics projects and categorizes sequences into a collection of candidate GFs. This part of PhyloToL includes steps for removing bacterial contamination (given our focus on eukaryotes) and translating sequences using the most appropriate inferred genetic code (fig. 1A). The second component includes a series of steps to assess homology in the candidate GFs based on sequence similarity, sequence overlap, and refinement of MSAs prior to reconstructing phylogenies (fig. 1B). The third component includes a novel method that iterates the second component (refinement of homologs and gene tree reconstruction) to remove contamination inferred from phylogenetic trees (fig. 1C), which is critical given the high frequency of contamination in many HTS datasets. While the combination of methods in the first three components identify homologs within GFs (see MATERIALS AND METHODS), the distinction between paralogous and orthologous sequences occurs only in the optional fourth component. This component detects orthologous sequences based on their position in phylogenetic trees and concatenates them into a supermatrix for species tree inference (fig. 1D); this last component has not been modified since the last published version of the pipeline (Grant and Katz 2014a; Grant and Katz 2014b; Katz and Grant 2015), and users can explore other tools for concatenation (Leigh, et al. 2008; Narechania, et al. 2012; Drori, et al. 2018; Vinuesa, et al. 2018) using the single gene MSAs generated by PhyloToL.

Additional to the primary goal of PhyloToL, which was reconstructing the evolutionary history of eukaryotes, this new version emphasizes the flexibility to allow studies of GFs evolution as well as phylogenomics with varying parameters and taxon/gene inclusion. Though there are many other tools out there for phylogenomic analyses (e.g. OneTwoTree (Drori, et al. 2018), SUPERSMART (Antonelli, et al. 2017) and PhyloTA (Sanderson, et al. 2008)), we believe PhyloToL is distinctive because of its combination of: 1) inclusion of both database and user-inputted data; 2) focus on broad taxon inclusion for 'deep' events (e.g.  $\geq 100$  million years); and 3) flexibility for exploration of multiple hypotheses and parameters (supplementary table S1).

## RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The overall structure of PhyloToL was improved over Grant and Katz (2014a) by dividing the pipeline into 4 major components (fig. 1) allowing different modes to execute these components depending on the type of study. PhyloToL also includes new methods to use data



from more sources (in component 1, fig. 1A), refine MSAs from GFs (in component 2, fig. 1B), and to remove contaminant sequences (in component 3, fig. 1C). Here we explain improvements on the overall structure of PhyloToL and benchmark the performance of new methods by analyses of ancient gene families.

**Pipeline structure**

Although PhyloToL is designed for phylogenomic analyses of diverse lineages across the tree of life, it can also be deployed in different ways for a variety of purposes such as phylogenomic chromosome mapping (Cerón-Romero, et al. 2018), gene discovery, or metatranscriptomics. For instance, the GF assessment per taxon, refinement of GFs and gene tree reconstruction (i.e. first and second components of PhyloToL) can be run independently, and the tree-based contamination removal and generation of a supermatrix (third and fourth components) are optional. Moreover, the user can also run the second component in two alternative modes: i) only quality control (QC) for GFs and ii) without gene tree. Running the second component of PhyloToL only for QC for GFs is helpful when the primary aim is to collect sequences for candidate GFs (QC involves filtering sequences by length, overlap and similarity, see MATERIALS AND METHODS) or for exploring taxonomic diversity within each gene family. Likewise, running the second component of PhyloToL without generating gene trees is useful for inspecting regions of homology (motif searching), trying alternative methodologies (i.e. those other than RAxML V8, which is incorporated into PhyloToL) for phylogenetic tree inference and to simply create a curated database of aligned homologous proteins (i.e. having sequences with divergence levels above the defined threshold removed by GUIDANCE). Our approach for determining homology is through generation of MSAs using GUIDANCE V2.02 (Penn, et al. 2010; Sela, et al. 2015) with sequence and column cutoff 0.3 and 0.4, respectively, to determine which sequences meet criteria for retention. These GUIDANCE parameters were chosen based on inspection of early runs of our data because the default parameters in GUIDANCE are geared for shallower levels of diversity and tend to exclude much of our focal taxa. Indeed, GUIDANCE scores are alignment dependent and so cutoffs are empirically defined. As described in our manual (Supplementary Material online) users can change these parameters for their own data sets in order to explore homology more deeply.

**Performance of PhyloToL in GF estimation per taxon**

To exemplify outputs of the first component of PhyloToL, GF assessment per taxon, we provide data from RNA-seq studies of the ciliates *Blepharisma japonicum* (MMETSP1395) and

*Strombidium rassoulzadegani* (MMETSP0449\_2). Each of these two datasets starts with > 20,000 assembled transcripts, from which ~1% are contamination from rRNAs, bacterial and archaeal sequences that are removed (table 1). The final datasets after running through PhyloToL (only the GF assessment per taxon component) contain between 5,000 and 10,000 transcripts assigned to eukaryotic GFs and representing ~20% of the initial set of sequences (table 1). PhyloToL also allows us to assess that *B. japonicum* potentially uses the “*Blepharisma*” genetic code (i.e. UAR as stop codon, UGA is translated to tryptophan; Lozupone, et al. 2001; Sugiura, et al. 2012) and *S. rassoulzadegani* uses the “ciliate” genetic code (i.e. only use UGA as stop codon, and UAR is reassigned to glutamine; Caron and Meyer 1985).

We evaluated the importance of PhyloToL’s inspection of putative stop codons for these two taxa by also processing the transcriptomic data forcing translation with the universal and the “ciliate” genetic codes (fig. 2A). Here we found that when using PhyloToL’s inferred alternative genetic code, transcripts were substantially longer than when forced to be processed with universal or ciliate genetic codes (fig. 2A), which suggests that using the carefully assessed genetic code allows the user to retrieve a larger proportion of each transcript.

### Performance of PhyloToL in tree-based contamination removal

We then tested the third component of PhyloToL (i.e. tree-based contamination removal) using a dataset of 152 GFs that includes up to 167 taxa distributed among eukaryotes, bacteria and archaea (Supplementary Material online). To give the user a sense of the time involved, using a computer with 128 GB of RAM and 10 cores, the analyses took 86 hours and 5 iterations of contamination removal. However, 79% of the contaminant sequences were removed in the first iteration, which also took 52% of the total time (fig. 2B).

Contaminant sequences detected often originated from food sources or endosymbiosis (at least 52% and 42% of the total contaminants, respectively; Supplementary Material online). For instance, sequences from the amoeba *Neoparamoeba* are often nested within Euglenozoa (in 14 GFs; fig. 3A) because likely some of its data are actually from a (past or present) kinetoplastid endosymbiont as previously reported by Tanifuji et al. (2011). Likewise, sequences from the foraminifera *Sorites*, which hosts a dinoflagellate endosymbiont (Langer and Lipps 1995), are sometimes nested within dinoflagellate sequences (37 GFs; fig. 3B). On the other hand, sequences from the Katablepharid *Roombia truncata* are sometimes nested among the SAR clade as sister to Stramenopila (in 3 GFs; fig. 3C); these sequences are potentially from diatoms, which are used for feeding *R. truncata* (Okamoto, et al. 2009). Finally, sequences from



the Rhizaria *Leptophrys vorax*, which is fed on green algae, are often nested among green algal clades (38 GFs; fig. 3D).

Using the methods developed here, users can identify sources of contamination in individual taxa and then remove contaminating sequences in PhyloToL's contamination loop. This step is critical because sequence contamination is a common problem in HTS data of public databases (Merchant, et al. 2014; Kryukov and Imanishi 2016). Indeed, previous studies have demonstrated that sequence contamination is one of the most important obstacles for evolutionary studies (Laurin-Lemay, et al. 2012; Struck 2013; Philippe, et al. 2017).

**Implementation for phylogenomic chromosome mapping**

To exemplify an implementation of PhyloToL, we combined outputs with our tool PhyloChromoMap (Cerón-Romero, et al. 2018) to explore the evolutionary history of chromosomes in the kinetoplastid parasite that causes African sleeping sickness, *Trypanosoma brucei gambiense* DAL972 (assembly ASM21029v1). Combining these tools, with PhyloChromoMap for mapping genes along each strand separately, we generated a map that displays the evolutionary history of 9,755 genes across both strands of the *T. brucei gambiense* chromosomes (fig. 4 and supplementary fig. S1).

Previous studies have shown that karyotypes of kinetoplastid parasites have large syntenic polycistronic gene clusters (PGC), where genes are sequentially arranged on the same strand of DNA and expressed as multi-gene transcripts (Berriman, et al. 2005; El-Sayed, et al. 2005; Daniels, et al. 2010; Martinez-Calvillo, et al. 2010). We observed that almost all genes matching our GFs fall in PGCs and have a wide distribution throughout all 11 chromosomes, with variable gene density among chromosomes (fig. 4 and supplementary fig. S1). Besides the presence of PGCs in *T. brucei*, previous studies proposed that large subtelomeric arrays of species-specific genes might serve as breakpoints for ectopic recombination in the nuclear membrane (Berriman, et al. 2005; El-Sayed, et al. 2005), a phenomenon that is also described in the apicomplexan parasite, *Plasmodium falciparum* (Freitas-Junior, et al. 2000; Scherf, et al. 2001; Hernandez-Rivas, et al. 2013; Cerón-Romero, et al. 2018). However, while young and highly recombinant subtelomeric regions of at least 58 Mbp (up to 218 Mbp) are present in all *P. falciparum* chromosomes (Cerón-Romero, et al. 2018), in *T. brucei gambiense* this pattern is only evident in chromosomes 3 and 9 (supplementary fig. S1, Supplementary Material online). This indicates that although ectopic recombination of subtelomeric regions can play a role in the karyotype evolution of *T. brucei*, it may not be as crucial to the success of this parasite as compared to *P. falciparum*.

We also explored the level of evolutionary conservation of genes in *T. brucei gambiense* based on their phylogenetic distribution as estimated by PhyloToL. Here, we detected that genes tend to be either very conserved or very divergent, with few genes of intermediate conservation ( $\chi^2$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ; supplementary fig. S2, Supplementary Material online). About 73% of the published genes in the *Trypanosoma brucei gambiense* DAL972 (assembly ASM21029v1) genome lacked homologs to any of our GFs and thus may be *Trypanosoma*-specific genes and/or mis-annotations (table 2). Of the remaining 27% of genes that match conserved eukaryotic GFs, ~44% are conserved among all the major eukaryotic clades, ~8% are shared between all major eukaryotic clades and Archaea and ~8% are conserved among all major eukaryotic clades, Archaea and Bacteria (table 2).

### Test of homology assessment

To benchmark the homology assessment in PhyloToL, we compared reconstructions of ancient (i.e. present in bacteria, archaea and eukaryotes) gene families originally estimated in OrthoMCL. Members of ancient gene families tend to be categorized in different orthologous groups in OrthoMCL (e.g.,  $\alpha$ -tubulin is group OG5\_126605 and  $\beta$ -tubulin is group OG5\_132171). We analyzed 8 ancient gene families that were likely present in LUCA: ATPases, family B DNA polymerase, elongation factors Tu/1a, elongation factors G/2, glutamyl- and glutaminyl-tRNA synthetases, RNA polymerase subunit A, RNA polymerase subunit B and tubulins. Overall, our recovery of the homology of these ancient GFs was robust to our taxon-rich analyses (fig. 5 and supplementary fig. S3). For four of the eight gene families (i.e., glutaminyl-tRNA synthetases, RNA polymerase subunit A, RNA polymerase subunit B and tubulins) there were a few cases ( $<0.05\%$ ) where sequences were misclassified in the earlier steps of PhyloToL, likely due to the limited taxon sampling in the OrthoMCL-based 'seeds' for BLAST analyses (supplementary fig. S3).

We also benchmarked PhyloToL against the reconstruction of gene families of bacterial and eukaryotic organelle outer membrane pore-forming proteins as proposed by Reddy and Saier (2016). Reddy and Saier (2016) combined 76 gene families among 5 superfamilies of varying size. To compare their homology statements to inferences from PhyloToL, we focused on the 12 gene families already included in the PhyloToL databases that fall into two superfamilies, the prokaryotic superfamily I (SFI) and eukaryotic superfamily IV (SFIV). Under PhyloToL's default parameters (i.e. GUIDANCE V2.02 sequence cutoff = 0.3, column cutoff = 0.4, number of iterations = 5), many SFI members (different GFs) determined by Reddy and Saier (2016) do

not meet our criteria for homology: when running the full set of sequences of SFI in PhyloToL, only sequences of the largest GF survive, indicating that the other GFs are too dissimilar to be included in a MSA under our parameters (supplementary table S2). We then re-ran PhyloToL to test homology in every cluster and sub-cluster of GFs that form SFI but at the end only cluster III meets our conservative criteria for homology (fig. 5 and supplementary table S1). In contrast to SFI, both members of the eukaryotic SFIV are retained under default parameters in PhyloToL (fig. 6 and supplementary table S2). We then forced the gene families determined by Reddy and Saier (2016) to align, and found limited evidence of homology (e.g. conserved columns in MSAs). In sum, our estimation of homology is more stringent than in Reddy and Saier (2016), and the exploration of this question took ~3 hours on a computer with 4 threads, highlighting the flexibility of PhyloToL for users.

**MATERIALS AND METHODS**

There are four components in PhyloToL’s algorithm: 1) GF assessment per taxon, 2) refinement of GFs and gene tree reconstruction, 3) tree-based contamination removal and 4) generation of a supermatrix for species tree inference. The GF assessment per taxon includes features such as translation using informed genetic codes. The refinement of GFs and gene tree reconstruction filters and asserts homology in the GFs comparing sequences by length, overlap, similarity and MSA. The component tree-based contamination removal detects and removes contaminant sequences based on predefined contamination rules and the position of the sequences in gene trees. Finally, the component generating a supermatrix for species tree inference chooses orthologs and discards paralogs based on tree topology in order to concatenate MSAs for species tree inference.

**Naming sequences**

PhyloToL uses standardized names that are compatible with the third-party tools incorporated into the pipeline (e.g. GUIDANCE, RAxML). Although the users are free to assign different codes to the taxa at their convenience, PhyloToL requires that every taxon is named using a 10-digit code that broadly reflects its taxonomy (see Supplementary Material online for our suggested codes); this code is divided in three components, a major clade (e.g. Op = Opisthokonta), a “minor” clade (e.g. Op\_me = Metazoa) and a species name (e.g. Op\_me\_hsap for *Homo sapiens*). For each sequence, the 10 digit-code is followed by the sequence identifier such as the GenBank accession or Ensembl ID (e.g. Op\_me\_hsap\_ENSP00000380524). This naming system allows an easy control of names when handling alignments and trees.

### GF assessment per taxon

The first component of PhyloToL (i.e. GF assessment per taxon; fig. 1A) allows the inclusion of a large number of data sources from online repositories (e.g. GenBank) or from the user's lab, and of different types (e.g. transcriptomes, proteins or annotated proteins from genomic sequences (e.g., 454, Illumina, ESTs)). The first steps aim to accurately assign sequences to homologous GFs, with improvements to the efficiency of these processes as compared to our original pipeline (Grant and Katz 2014a; Grant and Katz 2014b; Katz and Grant 2015). To exemplify methods, we focus on the inclusion of Illumina transcriptome data, though the structure can easily be adapted for other sources. PhyloToL uses a pipeline (<https://github.com/Katzlab/PhyloTOL/tree/master/AddTaxa>) for passing assembled transcripts through a variety of steps for: removal of short contigs (at a user-defined length), removal of putative contaminants (from ribosomal RNAs (rRNA), bacteria and archaea), and assess gene families. To remove rRNA sequences, we rely on BLAST, comparing each sequence against a database of diverse rRNA sequences sampled from across the tree of life (75 bacteria, 26 archaea and 77 eukaryotes; Supplementary Material online). This is followed by the identification and removal of bacterial/archaeal transcripts through USEARCH V10 (Edgar 2010), which compares data against both a database of diverse bacterial + archaeal proteins and another database of diverse eukaryotic proteins, retaining all non-bacterial/archaeal transcripts (i.e. those with strong matches to eukaryotes, and those remaining unassigned). With this pruned dataset, USEARCH is again used to bin these eukaryotic-enriched sequences into OrthoMCL GFs while rRNA and bacterial/archaeal transcripts are saved in a different location for easy retrieval if desired.

With growing evidence for the diversity of stop codon reassignments across the eukaryotic tree of life (Keeling and Doolittle 1997; Lozupone, et al. 2001; Keeling and Leander 2003; Heaphy, et al. 2016; Swart, et al. 2016; Panek, et al. 2017), we include an optional step to evaluate potential alternatives to conventional stop codon usage (frequent in frame non-conventional stop codons). This step is essential for some clades such as Ciliophora, where there are at least eight unconventional genetic codes (i.e. not all three traditional stop codons terminate translation). Using the most appropriate genetic code, each nucleotide sequence is then translated into the corresponding amino acid ORF.

Given the imperfect nature of HTS data, we take a conservative approach to avoid inflating the number of paralogs for each taxon and, therefore, we remove nearly identical sequences. These nearly identical sequences can represent an unknown mixture of alleles, recent paralogs and more importantly sequencing and/or assembly errors, which can be

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problematic for the comparative aspects of PhyloToL. To avoid this issue, for every taxon we remove nearly identical sequences at the nucleotide level ( $> 98\%$  nucleotide identity across  $\geq 70\%$  of their length).

An additional step is available to address the well-known phenomenon of sample bleeding (also known as index switching; Mitra, et al. 2015; Larsson, et al. 2018) that occurs during Illumina sequencing. Based on the observation that some of our taxa were contaminated by one another during Illumina sequencing, we developed a method to remove low read coverage contigs that are identical to higher read coverage contigs. To this end, we performed a USEARCH (“BLAST”) all vs. all of the nucleotide ORFs (at a minimum identity of 98% across  $\geq 70\%$  of their length). Those sequences that form clusters of hits to other taxa represent potential cross-contaminants. Next, those sequences with a substantially high read coverage compared to the mean (e.g. 10x more than the mean) are retained and low-read coverage sequences as excluded. In ambiguous cases (i.e. all are low read number), the entire group of sequences is discarded. Although this step is highly dependent on transcriptional state and sequencing depth, this conservative approach impacts  $< 5\%$  of transcripts for a given taxon using our own Illumina data.

**Refinement of homologs and gene tree reconstruction**

In the second component of PhyloToL (i.e. refinement of homologs and gene tree reconstruction; fig. 1B), GFs pass through a procedure to assess homology and then to produce gene trees. The procedure starts with a QC step that includes two filters: an overlap filter and a similarity filter. The overlap filter aims to remove non-homologous sequences, which are sequences substantially longer than putative homologs (e.g. those with only shared motifs), or atypically short (i.e. those with insufficient overlap). Such sequences will confound paralog counting and can negatively impact the alignments. To proceed, we start by identifying a ‘master sequence’ as the putative homolog. This sequence has the lowest E-value from the GF assignment and is also  $\leq 150\%$  the average length of the members from the reference GF dataset. We then retain all sequences that have a pairwise local alignment overlap that includes at least 35% of the length of the master sequence. In contrast, the optional similarity filter allows the user to remove alleles and recent paralogs (i.e. too similar sequences) at a user-defined cutoff to improve efficiency. The similarity filter uses an iterative process in which the next longest sequence acts as the ‘master sequence’ to remove highly similar sequences, and repeats until there are no more sequences that can be assigned as a ‘master sequence’.

For the next part of the procedure to assess homology within each GF, PhyloToL relies on GUIDANCE V2.02 scores, and using a user-specified number of iterations, identifies and removes unreliably aligned and potentially non-homologous sequences (fig. 1B). Then, GUIDANCE is used to filter the final alignment using preset cutoffs for sequences and columns (default parameters or empirically defined, in our case 0.3 for sequences and 0.4 for columns). In contrast to the previous version of the pipeline that relied on only two iterations of GUIDANCE, one for removing poorly-aligned sequences and another for removing poorly-aligned columns, PhyloToL iterates the sequence-removal step either for a user-defined number of iterations or until all unreliable sequences have been removed. Only then the columns are removed based on the user-specified confidence threshold score (the default number of bootstrap replicates for each GUIDANCE run is 10). Residues with low confidence scores, based on a settable residue score cutoff, can be masked in the alignment with an “X” (turned off in our defaults). Finally, in PhyloToL, GUIDANCE uses more accurate MAFFT V7 parameters, including an iterative refinement method (E-INS-i algorithm, and up to 1000 iterations). The E-INS-i algorithm was chosen because it makes the smallest number of assumptions of the three iterative refinement methods implemented in MAFFT and is recommended if the nature of sequences is less clear.

### Tree-based contamination removal

The third component of PhyloToL (i.e. tree-based contamination removal; fig. 1C) includes a method to identify and remove contaminants based on their location within the phylogenetic trees, though user scrutiny of results is required. If inspection of gene trees reveals sequences from a given taxon frequently nested among distantly related lineages, the user can create a set of “rules for contamination removal” and then run the tree-based contamination removal that will detect and remove potential contaminants from the alignments and subsequent trees (fig. 1C). To help users to define their rules for contamination removal, PhyloToL also generates a report (summary\_contamination.csv) containing the frequency of every sister clade per lineage ignoring those with significantly longer branches than the average branch length of the tree, which allows the users to differentiate contamination (e.g. food, symbionts and other sources) from fast evolving taxa that were incorrectly placed in trees. This component of PhyloToL iterates the refinement of homologs and gene tree reconstruction (i.e. second component) using the pre-defined rules to identify sequences of contamination and removing them for the next iteration. This continues until no more ‘contaminant’ sequences are identified. The component tree-based contamination removal also produces a full list of contaminant



sequences that can be removed from the permanent databases. In order to run the tree-based contamination removal more efficiently, potentially non-homologues (i.e. sequences discarded by GUIDANCE) are also removed in every iteration.

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**FIG. 1.** The four components of PhyloToL. GF = Gene Family, QC = Quality Control, CR = Contamination Removal. A) The first component processes and classifies raw data from different sources (e.g. transcriptomes, genomes, and protein data) into a collection of gene families. In the initial step, transcriptomes produced in-lab are processed to identify and remove sample bleeding (Mitra, et al. 2015) in an Illumina lane (cross-contamination). Then, prokaryotic sequences and rRNA sequences are removed from transcriptomes. Finally, transcriptomic and genomic sequences are translated using informed genetic codes. B) The second component compiles all gene families by taxon in the gene family database, refines an MSA, and produces a phylogenetic tree for each gene family. C) The third component (optional) detects contaminant sequences using gene trees and pre-defined contamination rules, and also detects non-homologous sequences after the MSA refinement process. Contaminants and non-homologs are identified and removed from the gene family database iteratively. D) The fourth component (optional) identifies orthologous sequences using a tree-based approach for removing paralogs. Alignments of orthologs can be concatenated to produce a species tree.

**FIG. 2.** Evaluation of performance of the first and second component of PhyloToL (figs 1A and 1B). A) Gene family assessment per taxon performance using the inferred genetic code (indicated with a star) and the ciliate and universal genetic codes for the ciliates *Blepharisma japonicum* and *Strombidium rassoulzadegani*. The length of the inferred sequences is higher when using the informed genetic code because it will not terminate the sequences at potentially reassigned in-frame stop codons. B) Example of contamination removal using our test dataset, containing 152 GFs with up to 167 taxa. Overall it needed 5 iterations to remove all contaminant and non-homologous sequences with most of the sequence removal occurring during the first iteration.

**FIG. 3.** Examples of contamination from gene trees, which are used to define rules for the contamination removal loop of component 3 of PhyloToL (See fig. 1C). All sequences are named by major clade (Am=Amoebozoa, EE = everything else, Ex = Excavata, PI = Archaeplastida, Sr = SAR), “minor” clade (di = Dinophyceae, he = Heterolobosea, eu = Euglenozoa, st = Stramenopile, ci = Ciliophora, ka = Katablepharidophyta, gr = green algae, rh = Rhizaria) and a four-digit code unique to each species (e.g. Ngru = *Naegleria gruberia*). A) Possible case of contamination in *Neoparamoeba aestuarina* by an endosymbiotic excavate. B) Possible case of contamination in *Sorites* by an endosymbiotic dinoflagellate. C) Possible case of contamination from *Roombia truncata*’s diatom food source. D) Possible case of contamination in *Leptophrys vorax* from its green alga food source.

**FIG. 4.** Example of phylogenomic map of the chromosome III of *Trypanosoma brucei* generated by combining PhyloToL and PhyloChromoMap (Cerón-Romero, et al. 2018). Horizontal line represent chromosome 3 of *Trypanosoma brucei* and bars above/below reflect levels of conservation. First row from the bottom (NIP, “not in pipeline”) indicates ORFs that do not match our criteria for tree inference (i.e. likely *Trypanosoma*-specific, highly divergent and/or misannotated ORFs). The remaining rows (bottom to top) reflect the presence or absence of the gene in the major clades Excavata (Ex), orphans (EE, “everything else”), Archaeplastida (PI), SAR (Sr), Amoebozoa (Am), Opisthokonta (Op), Archaea (Ar), and Bacteria (Ba). Genes are organized in polycistronic gene clusters (PGC) with variable gene density as described in results/discussion.

**FIG. 5.** PhyloToL homology assessment for well-known GFs that duplicated prior to LUCA. Subfamilies of these ancient GFs are often categorized in different orthologous groups by OrthoMCL. The cartoon trees show the reconstruction of the phylogeny of 5 of the 8 analyzed ancient GF by PhyloToL. A) glutamyl- and glutaminyl-tRNA synthetases, B) elongation factors Tu/1a, C) elongation factors G/2, D) family B DNA polymerase, E) Tubulins. Ar = Archaea, Ba = Bacteria, Op = Opisthokonta, Am = Amoebozoa, Ex = Excavata, PI = Archaeplastida, Sr = SAR. The number in every tip represents the number of species per major clade. Full trees for the 8 analyzed ancient GFs are found as Newick strings in supplementary fig. S3.

**FIG. 6.** PhyloToL homology assessment for candidate superfamilies (S) of outer membrane pore-forming proteins as proposed by Reddy and Saier (2016). The left hand “Reference” columns show the proposed superfamilies SI and SIV while the right hand “PhyloToL” column shows the surviving homologs (i.e. those connected by lines). Only cluster III of SI and the two gene families of SIV are homologous based on PhyloToL’s default parameters (i.e. GUIDANCE V2.02: sequences cutoff = 0.3, column cutoff = 0.4, 5 iterations).

**Table 1.** Summary of the experiment of gene family assessment per taxon.

Sequences	<i>Blepharisma japonicum</i>	<i>Strombidium rassoulzadegani</i>
Original assembly	45,231	24,810
Removed rRNA	114	33
Removed prokaryotic	453	290
Assigned to PhyloToL GF	10,060	4,764

**Table 2.** Summary of conservation of genes in *Trypanosoma brucei*.

Description	Number of genes <sup>b</sup>
Total in <i>Trypanosoma brucei</i> .	9755
Recent (NIP): Not in PhyloToL <sup>a</sup>	7125
Older (IP): In PhyloToL <sup>a</sup>	2630
Distribution	
Only in eukaryotes	
1 major clade	39
2 major clades	85
3 major clades	113
4 major clades	190
5 major clades	385
All major clades (including EE)	1150
In eukaryotes and prokaryotes	
Eukarya, Archaea and Bacteria <sup>c</sup>	205
Eukarya and Archaea <sup>c</sup>	207
Eukarya and Bacteria <sup>c</sup>	185
Excavata and either Bacteria or Archaea	2

<sup>a</sup> NIP = did not meet the requirement of  $\geq 4$  sequences (from the 167 taxa that were chosen for this study) to produce a tree, and are therefore likely either very divergent or misannotated. <sup>b</sup> A gene is considered to be present in a major clade only if it is present in at least 25% of the clades from the next taxonomic rank (e.g. Euglenozoa in Excavata, Apicomplexa in SAR, Animals or Fungi in Opisthokonta); sequences in only a few lineages may be contaminants or the result of gene transfers. <sup>c</sup> In at least 5 eukaryotic major clades: Excavata (Ex), Archaeplastida (PI), SAR (Sr), Amoebozoa (Am) and Opisthokonta (Op). For every tree the root was placed in between Bacteria and Archaea + Eukaryotes when there were Bacteria; between Archaea and Eukaryotes when there were not Bacteria; or in Opisthokonta when there were not prokaryotes (Katz and Grant 2015).

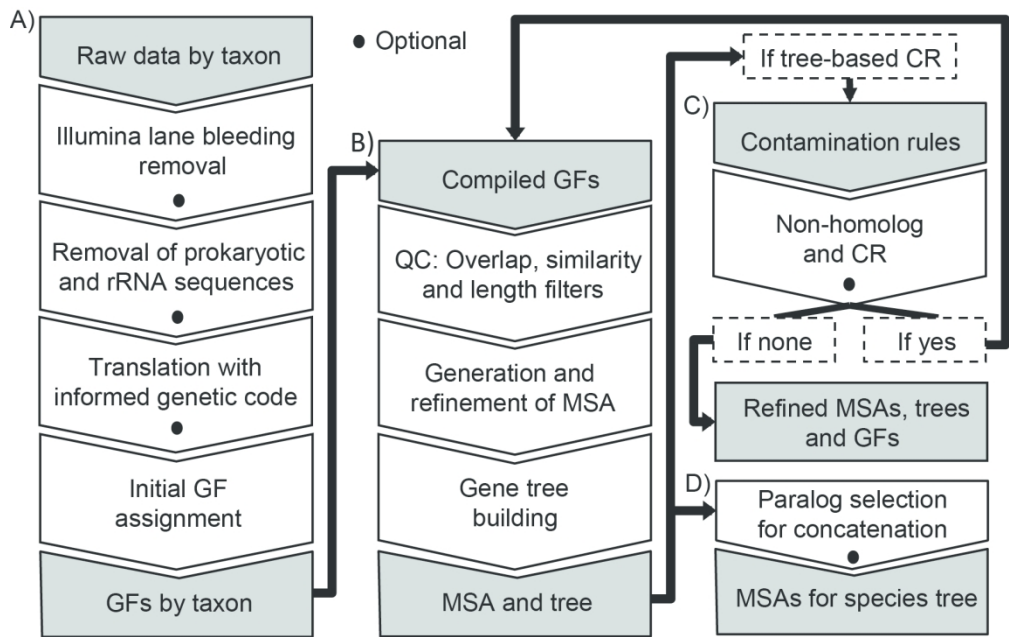


FIG. 1. The four components of PhyloToL. GF = Gene Family, QC = Quality Control, CR = Contamination Removal. A) The first component processes and classifies raw data from different sources (e.g. transcriptomes, genomes, and protein data) into a collection of gene families. In the initial step, transcriptomes produced in-lab are processed to identify and remove sample bleeding (Mitra, et al. 2015) in an Illumina lane (cross-contamination). Then, prokaryotic sequences and rRNA sequences are removed from transcriptomes. Finally, transcriptomic and genomic sequences are translated using informed genetic codes. B) The second component compiles all gene families by taxon in the gene family database, refines an MSA, and produces a phylogenetic tree for each gene family. C) The third component (optional) detects contaminant sequences using gene trees and pre-defined contamination rules, and also detects non-homologous sequences after the MSA refinement process. Contaminants and non-homologs are identified and removed from the gene family database iteratively. D) The fourth component (optional) identifies orthologous sequences using a tree-based approach for removing paralogs. Alignments of orthologs can be concatenated to produce a species tree.

156x98mm (300 x 300 DPI)

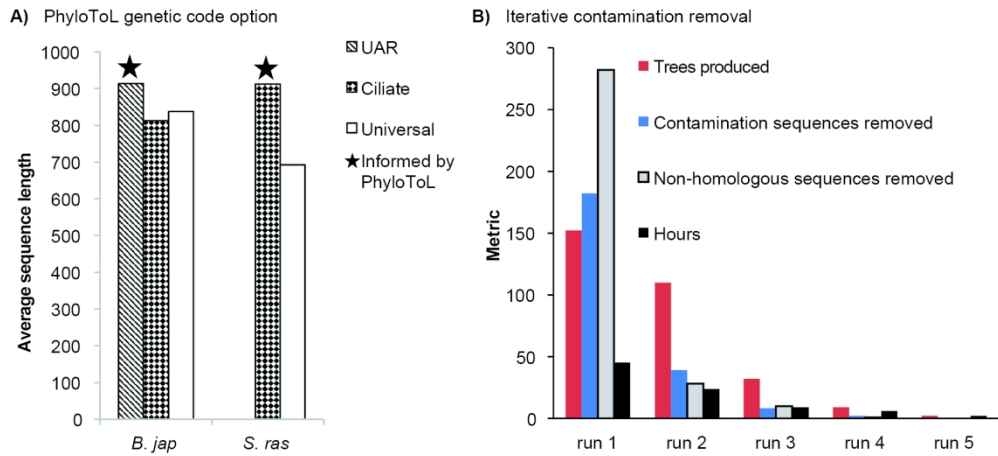


FIG. 2. Evaluation of performance of the first and second component of PhyloToL (figs 1A and 1B). A) Gene family assessment per taxon performance using the inferred genetic code (indicated with a star) and the ciliate and universal genetic codes for the ciliates *Blepharisma japonicum* and *Strombidium rassoulzadegani*. The length of the inferred sequences is higher when using the informed genetic code because it will not terminate the sequences at potentially reassigned in-frame stop codons. B) Example of contamination removal using our test dataset, containing 152 GFs with up to 167 taxa. Overall it needed 5 iterations to remove all contaminant and non-homologous sequences with most of the sequence removal occurring during the first iteration.

165x75mm (300 x 300 DPI)



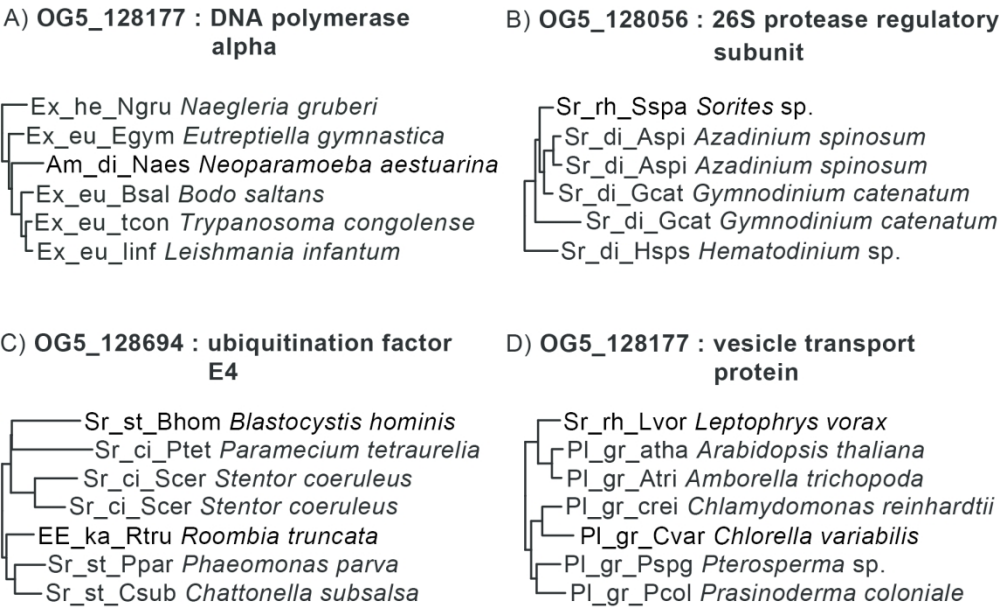


FIG. 3. Examples of contamination from gene trees, which are used to define rules for the contamination removal loop of component 3 of PhyloToL (See fig. 1C). All sequences are named by major clade (Am=Amoebozoa, EE = everything else, Ex = Excavata, PI = Archaeplastida, Sr = SAR), "minor" clade (di = Dinophyceae, he = Heterolobosea, eu = Euglenozoa, st = Stramenopile, ci = Ciliophora, ka = Katablepharidophyta, gr = green algae, rh = Rhizaria) and a four-digit code unique to each species (e.g. Ngru = *Naegleria gruberi*). A) Possible case of contamination in *Neoparamoeba aestuarina* by an endosymbiotic excavate. B) Possible case of contamination in *Sorites* by an endosymbiotic dinoflagellate. C) Possible case of contamination from *Roombia truncata*'s diatom food source. D) Possible case of contamination in *Leptophrys vorax* from its green alga food source.

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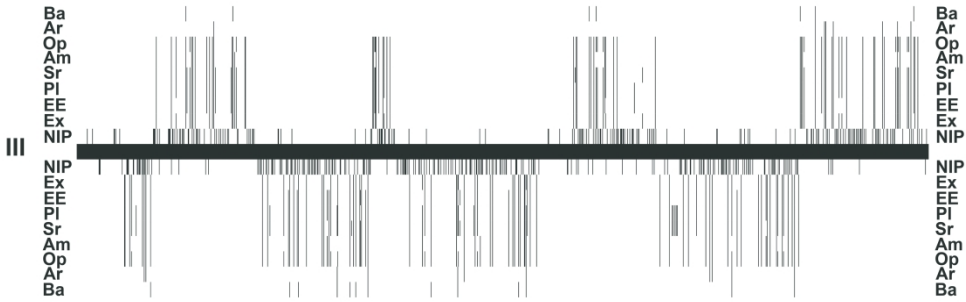


FIG. 4. Example of phylogenomic map of the chromosome III of *Trypanosoma brucei* generated by combining PhyloToL and PhyloChromoMap (Cerón-Romero, et al. 2018). Horizontal line represent chromosome 3 of *Trypanosoma brucei* and bars above/below reflect levels of conservation. First row from the bottom (NIP, “not in pipeline”) indicates ORFs that do not match our criteria for tree inference (i.e. likely *Trypanosoma*-specific, highly divergent and/or misannotated ORFs). The remaining rows (bottom to top) reflect the presence or absence of the gene in the major clades Excavata (Ex), orphans (EE, “everything else”), Archaeplastida (PI), SAR (Sr), Amoebozoa (Am), Opisthokonta (Op), Archaea (Ar), and Bacteria (Ba). Genes are organized in polycistronic gene clusters (PGC) with variable gene density as described in results/discussion.

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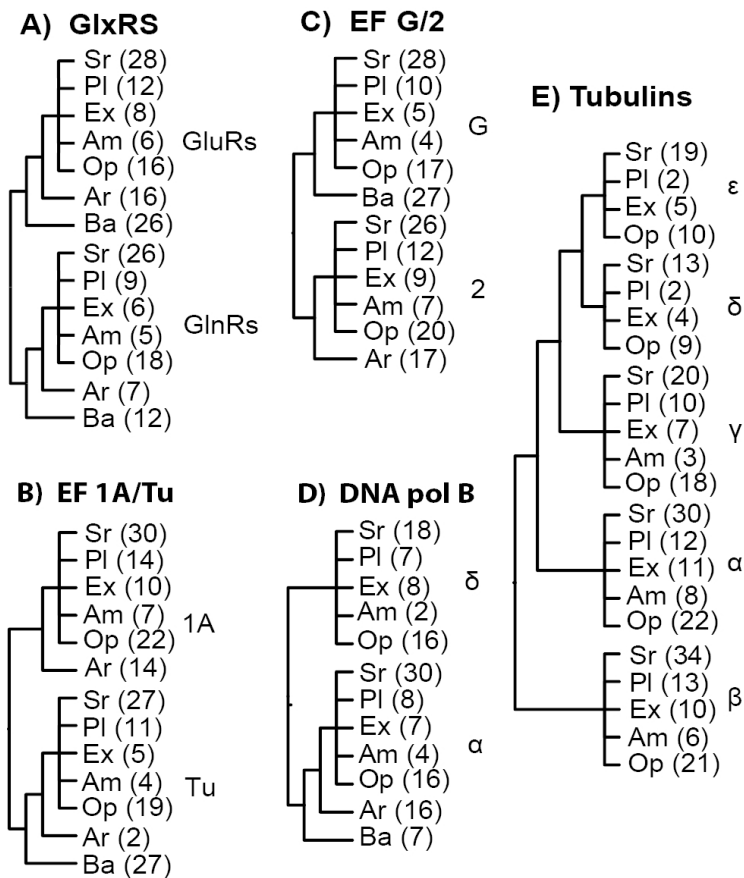


FIG. 5. PhyloToL homology assessment for well-known GFs that duplicated prior to LUCA. Subfamilies of these ancient GFs are often categorized in different orthologous groups by OrthoMCL. The cartoon trees show the reconstruction of the phylogeny of 5 of the 8 analyzed ancient GF by PhyloToL. A) glutamyl- and glutaminyl-tRNA synthetases, B) elongation factors Tu/1a, C) elongation factors G/2, D) family B DNA polymerase, E) Tubulins. Ar = Archaea, Ba = Bacteria, Op = Opisthokonta, Am = Amoebozoa, Ex = Excavata, PI = Archaeplastida, Sr = SAR. The number in every tip represents the number of species per major clade. Full trees for the 8 analyzed ancient GFs are found as Newick strings in supplementary fig. S3.

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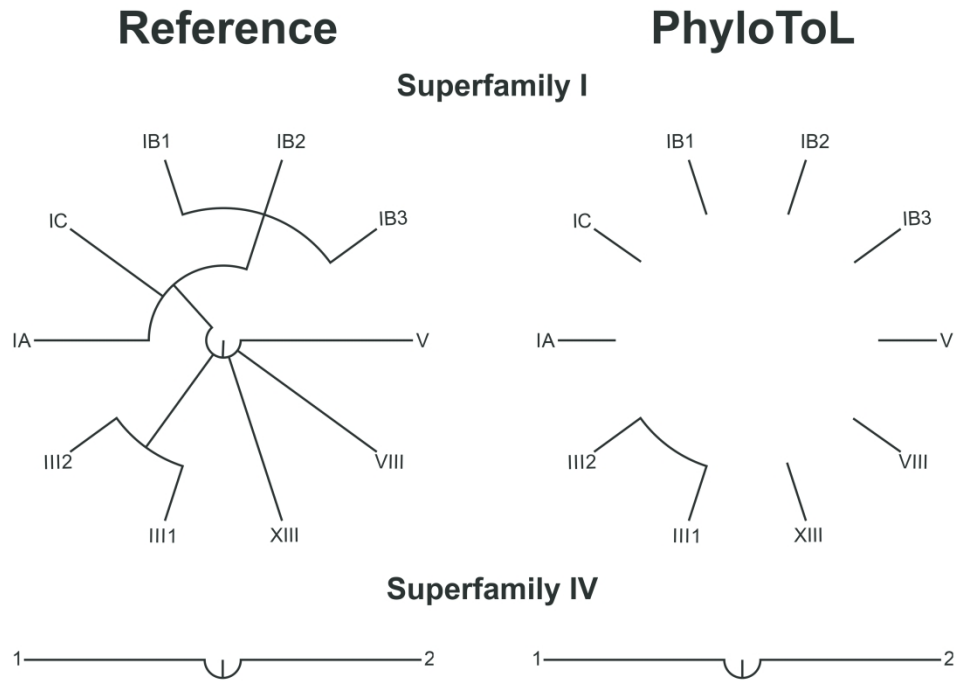


FIG. 6. PhyloToL homology assessment for candidate superfamilies (S) of outer membrane pore-forming proteins as proposed by Reddy and Saier (2016). The left hand "Reference" columns show the proposed superfamilies SI and SIV while the right hand "PhyloToL" column shows the surviving homologs (i.e. those connected by lines). Only cluster III of SI and the two gene families of SIV are homologous based on PhyloToL's default parameters (i.e. GUIDANCE V2.02: sequences cutoff = 0,3, column cutoff = 0.4, 5 iterations).

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