Characterization of the transcriptome, nucleotide sequence polymorphism, and natural selection in the desert adapted mouse *Peromyscus eremicus*

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$_{\scriptscriptstyle 1}$ Abstract

As a direct result of intense heat and aridity, deserts are thought to be among the most
harsh of environments, particularly for their mammalian inhabitants. Given that osmoregulation can be challenging for these animals, with failure resulting in death, strong
selection should be observed on genes related to the maintenance of water and solute
balance. One such animal, *Peromyscus eremicus*, is native to the desert regions of the
southwest United States and may live its entire life without oral fluid intake. As a first
step toward understanding the genetics that underlie this phenotype, we present a characterization of the *P. eremicus* transcriptome. We assay four tissues (kidney, liver, brain,
testes) from a single individual and supplement this with population level renal transcriptome sequencing from 15 additional animals. We identified a set of transcripts undergoing
both purifying and balancing selection based on estimates of Tajima's D. In addition, we
used the branch-site test to identify a transcript – Slc2a9, likely related to desert osmoregulation – undergoing enhanced selection in *P. eremicus* relative to a set of related
non-desert rodents.

₇ Introduction

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Deserts are widely considered one of the harshest environments on Earth. Animals living in desert environments are forced to endure intense heat and drought, and as a result, species living in these environments are likely to possess specialized mechanisms to deal with them. While living in deserts likely involves a large number of adaptive traits, the ability to osmoregulate – to maintain the proper water and electrolyte balance – appears

to be paramount (Walsberg, 2000). Indeed, the maintenance of water balance is one of the most important physiologic processes for all organisms, whether they be desert inhabitants or not. Most animals are exquisitely sensitive to changes in osmolality, with slight derangement eliciting physiologic compromise. When the loss of water exceeds dietary intake, dehydration - and in extreme cases, death - can occur. Thus there has likely been strong selection for mechanisms supporting optimal osmoregulation in species that live where water is limited. Understanding these mechanisms will significantly enhance our understanding of the physiologic processes underlying osmoregulation in extreme environments, which will have implications for studies of human health, conservation, and climate change.

olivacea (Giorello et al., 2014).

The genes and structures responsible for the maintenance of water and electrolyte balance are well characterized in model organisms such as mice (Tatum et al., 2009), rats (Romero et al., 2007; Rojek et al., 2006; Nielsen et al., 1995), and humans (Mobasheri et al., 2007; Bedford et al., 2003; Nielsen et al., 1999). These studies, many of which have been enabled by newer sequencing technologies, provide a foundation for studies of renal genomics in non-model organisms. Because researchers have long been interested in desert adaptation, a number of studies have looked at the morphology or expression of single genes in the renal tissues of desert adapted rodents *Phyllotis darwini* (Gallardo et al., 2005), *Psammomys obesus* (Kaissling et al., 1975), and *Perognathus penicillatus* (Altschuler et al., 1979). More recently, full renal transcriptomes have been generated for *Dipodomys spectabilis* and *Chaetodipus baileyi*, (Marra et al., 2014) as well as *Abrothrix*

These studies provide a rich context for current and future work aimed at developing a synthetic understanding of the genetic and genomic underpinnings of desert adaptation in rodents. As a first step, we have sequenced, assembled, and characterized the transcriptome (using four tissue types - liver, kidney, testes and brain) of a desert adapted cricetid rodent endemic to the southwest United States, *Peromyscus eremicus*. These animals have a lifespan typical of small mammals (Veal and Caire, 2001), and therefore an individual may live its entire life without ever drinking water. Additionally, they have a distinct advantage over other desert animals (e.g. *Dipodomys*) in that they breed readily in captivity, which enables future laboratory studies of the phenotype of interest. In addition, the focal species is positioned in a clade of well known animals (e.g. *P. californicus*,

P. maniculatus, and P. polionotus) (Feng et al., 2007) with growing genetic and genomic
 resources (Shorter et al., 2014; Panhuis et al., 2011; Shorter et al., 2012). Together, this
 suggests that future comparative studies are possible.

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While the elucidation of the mechanisms underlying adaptation to desert survival is beyond the scope of this manuscript, we aim to lay the groundwork by characterizing the transcriptome from four distinct tissues (brain, liver, kidney, testes). These data will be included in the current larger effort aimed at sequencing the entire genome. Further, via sequencing the renal tissue of a total of 15 additional animals, we characterize nucleotide polymorphism and genome-wide patterns of natural selection. Together, these investigations will aid in our overarching goal to understand the genetic basis of adaptation to deserts in *P. eremicus*.

$_{\scriptscriptstyle 69}$ Materials and Methods

70 Animal Collection and Study Design

To begin to understand how genes may underlie desert adaptation, we collected 16 adult individuals (9 male, 7 female) from a single population of *P. eremicus* over a two-year time period (2012-2013). These individuals were captured in live traps and then euthanized using isoflurane overdose and decapitation. Immediately post-mortem, the abdominal and pelvic organs were removed, cut in half (in the case of the kidneys), placed in RNAlater and flash frozen in liquid nitrogen. Removal of the brain, with similar preservation techniques, followed. Time from euthanasia to removal of all organs never exceeded five minutes. Samples were transferred to a -80C freezer at a later date. These procedures were approved by the Animal Care and Use Committee located at the University of California Berkeley (protocol number R224) and University of New Hampshire (protocol number 130902) as well as the California Department of Fish and Game (protocol SC-008135) and followed guidelines established by the American Society of Mammalogy for the use of wild animals in research (Sikes et al., 2011).

4 RNA extraction and Sequencing

Total RNA was extracted from each tissue using a TRIzol extraction (Invitrogen) following the manufacturer's instructions. Because preparation of an RNA library suitable

for sequencing is dependent on having high quality, intact RNA, a small aliquot of each total RNA extract was analyzed on a Bioanalyzer 2100 (Agilent, Palo Alto, CA, USA). Following confirmation of sample quality, the reference sequencing libraries were made using the TruSeq stranded RNA prep kit (Illumina), while an unstranded TruSeq kit was used to construct the other sequencing libraries. A unique index was ligated to each 91 sample to allow for multiplexed sequencing. Reference libraries (n=4 tissue types from Peer360, a male mouse used for generating a genome sequence - not part of the current study) were then pooled to contain equimolar quantities of each individual library and submitted for Illumina sequencing using two lanes of 150nt paired end sequencing employing the rapid-mode of the HiSeq 2500 sequencer at The Hubbard Center for Genome Sciences (University of New Hampshire). The remaining 15 libraries were multiplexed and sequenced in a mixture of 100nt paired and single end sequencing runs across several lanes of an Illumina HiSeq 2000 at the Vincent G. Coates Genome Center (University of California, Berkeley). 100

Sequence Data Preprocessing and Assembly

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The raw sequence reads corresponding to the four tissue types were error corrected using 102 the software bless version 0.17 (Heo et al., 2014) using kmer=25, based on the developer's 103 default recommendations (https://github.com/macmanes/pero_transcriptome/blob/ 104 master/analyses.md#error-correction). The error-corrected sequence reads were adapter 105 and quality trimmed following recommendations from MacManes (MacManes, 2014) and 106 Mbandi (Mbandi et al., 2014). Specifically, adapter sequence contamination and low 107 quality nucleotides (defined as Phred <2) were removed using the program Trimmo-108 matic version 0.32 (Bolger et al., 2014). Reads from each tissue were assembled using the 109 Trinity version released 17 July 2014 (Haas et al., 2013). We used flags to indicate the 110 stranded nature of sequencing reads and set the maximum allowable physical distance be-111 tween read pairs to 999nt (https://github.com/macmanes/pero_transcriptome/blob/ master/analyses.md#trinity-assemblies). We elected to assembly reads derived from 113 a single deeply sequenced individual (Peer360, a male) to reduce polymorphism and thus 114 the complexity of the de Bruijn graph, which has important implications for runtime, 115 hardware requirements (Lowe et al., 2014; Pop. 2009), and assembly contiguity (Vijay 116 et al., 2013). Individual tissues were assembled independently, as we hypothesize that 117 tissue specific isoforms would be reconstructed with higher fidelity that if all tissues were 118 assembled together.

The assembly was conducted on a linux workstation with 64 cores and 512Gb RAM. 120 To filter the raw sequence assembly, we downloaded Mus musculus cDNA and ncRNA 121 datasets from Ensembl (ftp://ftp.ensembl.org/pub/release-75/fasta/mus_musculus/) 122 and the *Peromyscus maniculatus* reference transcriptome from NCBI (ftp://ftp.ncbi. 123 nlm.nih.gov/genomes/Peromyscus_maniculatus_bairdii/RNA/). We used a blastN 124 (version 2.2.29+) procedure (default settings, evalue set to 10^{-10}) to identify contigs in 125 the P. eremicus dataset likely to be biological in origin https://github.com/macmanes/ 126 pero_transcriptome/blob/master/analyses.md#blasting. This procedure, when a reference dataset is available, retains more putative transcripts that a strategy employing 128 expression-based filtering (remove if transcripts per million (TPM) <1 (MacManes and Lacey, 2012)) of the raw assembly. We then concatenated the filtered assemblies from each 130 tissue into a single file and reduced redundancy using the software cd-hit-est version 4.6 (Li 131 and Godzik, 2006) using default settings, except that sequences were clustered based on 132 95% sequence similarity (https://github.com/macmanes/pero_transcriptome/blob/ 133 master/analyses.md#cd-hit-est-). This multi-fasta file was used for all subsequent 134 analyses, including annotation and mapping. 135

137 Assembled Sequence Annotation

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The filtered assemblies were annotated using the default settings of the blastN algorithm (Camacho et al., 2009) against the Ensembl cDNA and ncRNA datasets described above, 130 downloaded on 1 August 2014. Among other things, the Ensemble transcript identifiers 140 were used in the analysis of gene ontology conducted in the PANTHER package (Mi, 141 2004). Next, because rapidly evolving nucleotide sequences may evade detection by blast 142 algorithms, we used HMMER3 version 3.1b1 (Wheeler and Eddy, 2013) to search for conserved protein domains contained in the dataset using the Pfam database (Punta et al., 144 2012) (https://github.com/macmanes/pero_transcriptome/blob/master/analyses. md#hmmer3pfam). Lastly, we extracted putative coding sequences using Transdecoder ver-146 sion 4Jul2014 (http://transdecoder.sourceforge.net/) (https://github.com/macmanes/ 147 pero_transcriptome/blob/master/analyses.md#transdecoder-) 148

To identify patterns of gene expression unique to each tissue type, we mapped sequence reads from each tissue type to the reference assembly using bwa-mem (version cloned from Github 7/1/2014) (Li, 2013). We estimated expression for the four tissues individually

using default settings of the software eXpress version 1.51 (Roberts and Pachter, 2013).

Interesting patterns of expression, including instances where expression was limited to a single tissue type, were identified and visualized.

Population Genomics

In addition to the reference individual sequenced at four different tissue types, we sequenced 15 other conspecific individuals from the same population in Palm Desert, California. Sequence data were mapped to the reference transcriptome using bwa-mem. The alignments were sorted and converted to BAM format, then passed to the program ANGSD version 0.610, which was used for calculating the folded site frequency spectrum (SFS) and Tajima's D (Korneliussen et al., 2013) using instructions found at http://popgen.dk/angsd/index.php/Tajima.

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Natural Selection

To characterize natural selection on several genes related to water and ion homeostasis, we 167 identified several of the transcripts identified as experiencing positive selection in a recent 168 work on desert-adapted Heteromyid rodents (Marra et al., 2014). The coding sequences 169 corresponding to these genes, Solute Carrier family 2 member 9 (Slc2a9), the Vitamin 170 D3 receptor (Vdr) and several of the Aquaporin genes (Aqp1,2,4,9), were extracted from 171 the dataset, aligned using the software MACSE version 1.01b (Ranwez et al., 2011) to 172 homologous sequences in Mus musculus, Rattus norvegicus, Peromyscus maniculatus, and 173 Homo sapiens as identified by the conditional reciprocal best blast procedure (CRBB, 174 (Aubry et al., 2014)). An unrooted gene tree with branch lengths was constructed using the online resource ClustalW2-Phylogeny (http://www.ebi.ac.uk/Tools/phylogeny/ 176 clustalw2_phylogeny/), and the tree and alignment were analyzed using the branch-177 site model (model=2, nsSites=2, fix_omega=0 versus model=2, nsSites=2, fix_omega=1, 178 omega=1) implemented in PAML version 4.8 (Yang and dos Reis, 2011; Yang, 2007). 179 Significance was evaluated via the use of the likelihood ratio test.

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Results and Discussion

RNA extraction, Sequencing, Assembly, Mapping

RNA was extracted from the hypothalamus, renal medulla, testes, and liver from each 184 individual using sterile technique. TRIzol extraction resulted in a large amount of high 185 quality (RIN ≥ 8) total RNA, which was then used as input. Libraries were constructed 186 as per the standard Illumina protocol and sequenced as described above. The number 187 of reads per library varied from 56 million strand-specific paired-end reads in Peer360 188 kidney, to 9 million single-end reads in Peer321 (Table 1, available as part BioProject PRJNA242486). Adapter sequence contamination and low-quality nucleotides were elim-190 inated, which resulted in a loss of <2% of the total number of reads. These trimmed 191 reads served as input for all downstream analyses. 192

Table 1

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Dataset	Num. Raw Reads	SRA ACCESSION
Peer360 Testes	32M PE/SS	SRR1575398
Peer360 Liver	53M PE /SS	SRR1575397
PEER360 KIDNEY	56M PE/SS	SRR1575396
Peer360 Brain	23M PE/SS	SRR1575395
Peer305	19M PE	SRR1575434
Peer308	15M PE	SRR1575437
Peer319	14M PE	SRR1575439
Peer321	9M SE	SRR1575441
Peer340	16M PE	SRR1575443
Peer352	14M PE	SRR1575464
Peer354	9M SE	SRR1575466
Peer359	14M PE	SRR1575492
Peer365	16M PE	SRR1575493
Peer366	16M PE	SRR1575494
Peer368	14M PE	SRR1575624
Peer369	14M PE	SRR1575625
Peer372	17M SE	SRR1576070
Peer373	23M SE	SRR1576071
Peer380	16M SE	SRR1576072
Peer382	14M SE	SRR1576073

Table 1. The number of sequencing reads per sample, whose identity is indicated by Peer[number]. PE=paired end, SS=strand specific, SE=single end sequencing.

Transcriptome assemblies for each tissue type was accomplished using the program Trinity (Haas et al., 2013). The raw assemblies for brain, liver, testes, and kidney contained 185425, 222096, 180233, and 514091 assembled sequences respectively. This assembly was filtered using a blastN procedure against the *Mus* cDNA and ncRNA and *P. maniculatus* cDNAs, which resulted in a final dataset containing 68331 brain-derived transcripts, 71041 liver-derived transcripts, 67340 testes-derived transcripts, and 113050 kidney-derived transcripts. Mapping the error-corrected adapter/quality trimmed reads to these datasets resulted in mapping 94.98% (87.01% properly paired) of the brain-derived reads to the brain transcriptome, 96.07% (88.13% properly paired) of the liver-derived reads to the liver transcriptome, 96.81% (85.10% properly paired) of the testes-derived reads to the testes transcriptome, and 91.87% (83.77% properly paired) of the

kidney-derived reads to the kidney transcriptome. Together, these statistics suggest that the tissue-specific transcriptomes are of extremely high quality. All tissue-specific assemblies are to be made available on Dryad, and until then are stored on Dropbox (https://www.dropbox.com/sh/2jwzd8p6n6eluco/AAAO3nSdXb_u4wtQZRTwqW9ia?dl=0).

Figure 1

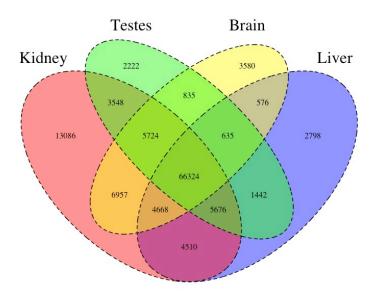


Figure 1. The Venn Diagram, which provides a visual representation of the overlap of expression of the four tissue types. The majority of transcripts (66,324) are expressed in all studied tissue types.

We then estimated gene expression on each of these tissue-specific datasets, which allowed us to understand expression patterns in the multiple tissues (Pero.tissue.xprs, will be made available on Dryad, until then on Dropbox (https://www.dropbox.com/sh/2jwzd8p6n6eluco/AAAO3nSdXb_u4wtQZRTwqW9ia?dl=0)). Specifically, we constructed a Venn diagram (Figure 1) that allowed us to visualize the proportion of genes whose expression was limited to a single tissue and those whose expression was ubiquitous. 66324 transcripts are expressed on all tissue types, while 13086 are uniquely expressed in the kidney, 2222 in the testes, 3580 in the brain, and 2798 in the liver. The kidney appears to an outlier in the number of unique sequences, though this could be the result of the recovery of more lowly expressed transcripts or isoforms.

In addition to this, we estimated mean TPM (number of transcripts per million) for all transcripts. Table 2 consists of the 10 genes whose mean TPM was the highest. Several genes in this list are predominately present in a single tissue type. For instance Transcript_126459, Albumin is very highly expressed in the liver, but less so in the other tissues. It should be noted, however, that making inference based on uncorrected values for TPM is not warranted. Statistical testing for differential expression was not implemented due to the fact that no replicates are available.

After expression estimation, the filtered assemblies were concatenated together, and after the removal of redundancy with cd-hit-est, 123,123 putative transcripts remained (to be made available on Genbank, and until then are stored on Dropbox https://www.dropbox.com/sh/2jwzd8p6n6eluco/AAAO3nSdXb_u4wtQZRTwqW9ia?dl=0.). From this filtered concatenated dataset, we extracted 71626 putative coding sequences (72Mb, to be made available on Dryad). Of these 71626 sequences, 38221 contained complete open reading frames (containing both start and stop codons), while the others were either truncated at the 5-prime end (20239 sequences), the 3-prime end (6445 sequences), or were internal (6721 sequencing with neither stop nor start codon). The results of a Pfam search conducted on the predicted amino acid sequences will be found on Dryad, and until then are stored on Dropbox https://www.dropbox.com/sh/2jwzd8p6n6eluco/AAAO3nSdXb_u4wtQZRTwqW9ia?dl=0..

Table 2

Transcript ID	Testes	Liver	Kidney	Brain	Genbank ID	Gene ID
Transcript_83842	2.05E+03	6.40E+03	1.03E+04	5.47E + 03	DQ073446.1	COX2
$Transcript_126459$	1.43E+01	2.22E+04	2.77E + 01	6.73E+00	$XM_{-}006991665.1$	Alb
$Transcript_128937$	4.39E+00	1.91E + 04	4.74E + 02	2.23E+00	$XM_{-}007627625.1$	Apoa2
$Transcript_81233$	1.71E + 03	5.23E + 03	6.11E+03	3.08E + 03	$XM_{-}006993867.1$	Fth1
Transcript_94125	3.67E + 01	1.08E+04	2.09E+03	2.75E+00	$XM_{-}006977178.1$	CytP450
$Transcript_119945$	5.03E + 03	1.15E + 03	1.33E+03	3.71E + 03	XM_008686011.1	Ubb
$Transcript_5977$	4.95E+00	1.01E+04	3.05E+02	3.58E + 02	$XM_{-}006978668.1$	Tf
$Transcript_4057$	2.62E + 01	9.32E + 03	1.34E+02	8.38E+01	$XM_{-}006994871.1$	Apoc1
$Transcript_112523$	4.07E + 02	7.36E + 03	7.78E + 02	9.54E + 02	$XM_{-}006994872.1$	Apoe
$Transcript_98376$	1.98E+00	8.66E + 03	1.02E+00	2.68E+00	XM_006970208.1	Ttr

Table 2. The 10 transcripts with the highest mean TPM (transcripts per million).

Population Genomics

As detailed above, RNAseq data from 15 individuals were mapped to the reference transcriptome with the resulting BAM files being used as input to the software package ANGSD. The Tajima's D statistic was calculated for all transcripts covered by at least 14 of the 15 individuals. In brief, a negative Tajima's D - a result of lower than expected average heterozygosity - is often associated with purifying or directional selection, recent selective sweep or population bottleneck. In contrast, a positive value for Tajima's D represents higher than expected average heterozygosity, often associated with balancing selection.

The distribution of the estimates of Tajima's D for all of the assembled transcripts is shown in Figure 2. Although Tajima's D is known to be sensitive to demographic history, which is largely unknown for this population, the estimates may also be drive by patterns of selection. In general, the distribution is skewed toward negative values (mean=-0.89, variance=0.58), which may be the result of purifying selection, a model of evolution commonly invoked for coding DNA sequences (Chamary et al., 2006). Table 3 presents the 10 transcripts whose estimate of Tajima's D is the greatest, while Table 4 presents the 10 transcripts whose estimate of Tajima's D is the least. The former list of genes may contain transcripts experiencing balancing selection in the studied population. This list includes, interestingly, genes obviously related to solute and water balance (e.g. Clenkb

and a transmembrane protein gene) and immune function (a interferon-inducible GTPase and a Class 1 MHC gene). The latter group, containing transcripts whose estimates of Tajima's D are the smallest are likely experiencing purifying selection. Many of these transcripts are involved in core regulatory functions where mutation may have strongly negative fitness consequences.

Figure 2

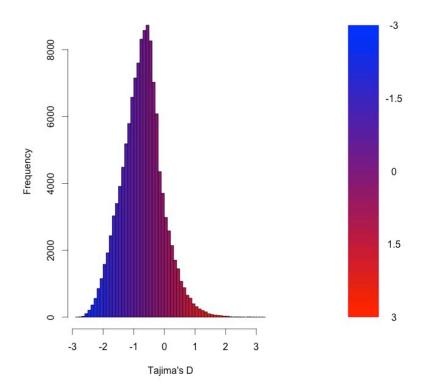


Figure 2. The distribution of Tajima's D for all putative transcripts.

Table 3

Transcript ID	GenBank ID	Description	Tajima's D
$Transcript_49049$	XM_006533884.1	heterogeneous nuclear ribonucleoprotein H1 (Hnrnph1)	3.26
$Transcript_38378$	$XM_{-}006522973.1$	Son DNA binding protein (Son)	3.19
$Transcript_126187$	$NM_{-}133739.2$	transmembrane protein 123 (Tmem123)	3.02
$Transcript_70953$	XM ₋ 006539066.1	chloride channel Kb (Clcnkb)	2.96
$Transeript_37736$	XM_006997718.1	h-2 class I histocompatibility antigen	2.92
$Transcript_21448$	XM_006986148.1	zinc finger protein 624-like	2.84
$Transcript_47450$	$NM_009560.2 zinc$	finger protein 60 (Zfp60)	2.82
$Transcript_122250$	$XM_{-}006539068.1$	chloride channel Kb (Clcnkb)	2.81
$Transcript_78367$	XM_006496814.1	CDC42 binding protein kinase alpha (Cdc42bpa)	2.78
$Transcript_96470$	XM_006987129.1	interferon-inducible GTPase 1-like	2.77

Table 3. The 10 transcripts with the highest values for Tajima's D, which suggests balancing selection.

288 Table 4

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Transcript ID	GenBank ID	Description	Tajima's
Transcript_84359	XM_006991127.1	nuclear receptor coactivator 3 (Ncoa3)	-2.82
$Transcript_87121$	$XM_{-}006970128.1$	methyl-CpG binding domain protein 2 (Mbd2)	-2.82
$Transcript_125755$	EU053203.1	alpha globin gene cluster	-2.78
$Transcript_87128$	XM_006976644.1	membrane-associated ring finger (March5)	-2.76
$Trans{\tt oript_}55468$	XM_006978377.1	Vpr binding protein (Vprbp)	-2.75
$Transcript_116042$	XM_006980811.1	membrane associated guanylate kinase (Magi3)	-2.75
$Transcript_18966$	XM_006982814.1	ubiquitin protein ligase E3 component n-recognin 5 (Ubr5)	-2.75
$Transcript_122204$	XM_008772511.1	zinc finger protein 612 (Zfp612)	-2.75
$Transcript_100550$	XM_006971297.1	bromodomain adjacent to zinc finger domain, 1B (Baz1b)	-2.74
$Transcript_33267$	XM ₋ 006975561.1	pumilio RNA-binding family member 1 (Pum1)	-2.75

Table 4. The 10 transcripts with the lowest values for Tajima's D, which suggests purifying or directional selection.

Natural Selection

To begin to test the hypothesis that selection on transcripts related to osmoregulation is enhanced in the desert adapted *P. eremicus*, we calculated Tajima's D as described above,

and implemented the branch-site test using alignments produced in MACSE. These alignments were manually inspected, and were relatively free from indels and internal stop 297 codons. We set the sequence corresponding to P. eremicus for both Slc2a9, Vdr, and 298 several of the Aquaporin genes (Aqp1,2,4,9) as the foreground lineages in six distinct 299 program executions. These transcripts Slc2a9 and Vdr were chosen specifically because 300 they - the former significantly - were recently linked to osmoregulation in a desert rodent 301 (Marra et al., 2014). The test for Slc2a9 was highly significant ($2\Delta Lnl=51.4$, df=1, p=0, 302 Table 5), indicating enhanced selection in P. eremicus relative to the other lineages. The 303 branch site test for positive selection conducted on the Vdr and Aquaporin genes were 304 non-significant. While the branch site test of positive selection is largely non-significant, estimating Tajima's D for these few candidate loci demonstrates that either a selective 306 or demographic process may be influencing the genome at these functionally relevant sites. 307

Table 5

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Transcript ID	Description	Tajima's D	Branch Site Test p.value
$Transcript_106085$	Slc2a9	2.15	p=0
$Transcript_114624$	Vdr	1.97	p=1
$Transcript_128972$	Aqp1	1.39	p=1
$Transcript_33960$	Aqp2	1.78	p=1
$Transcript_22154$	Aqp4	2.10	p=1
$Transcript_107677$	Aqp9	2.06	p=1

Table 5. Several candidate genes were evaluated using Tajima's D and the branch site test implemented in PAML.

Conclusions

As a direct result of intense heat and aridity, deserts are thought to be amongst the harshest environments, particularly for mammalian inhabitants. Given that osmoregulation can
be challenging for these animals - with failure resulting in death - strong selection should
be observed on genes related to the maintenance of water and solute balance. This study
aimed to characterize the transcriptome of a desert-adapted rodent species, *P. eremicus*.
Specifically, we characterized the transcriptome of four tissue types (liver, kidney, brain,
and testes) from a single individual and supplemented this with population-level renal

transcriptome sequencing from 15 additional animals. We identified a set of transcripts undergoing both purifying and balancing selection based on Tajima's D. In addition, we used a branch site test to identify a transcript, likely related to desert osmoregulation, undergoing enhanced selection in *P. eremicus* relative to a set of non-desert rodents.

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$_{27}$ Acknowledgments

This manuscript was greatly improved by careful review from C. Titus Brown, Elijah Lowe, and an anonymous reviewer, as well as by Matthew Hahn, who provided feedback on an earlier version of the manuscript posted on bioRxiv.

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