NHA gene family phylogeny in *Eurytemora affinis* and Closely Related Arthropods

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Abstract

In multiple separate events, populations of the *Eurytemora affinis* complex, a normally small marine copepod (crustacean), have adapted and invaded freshwater environments. When observing genetic differences between adapted and ancestral populations, multiple genes involved in ion transport show strong signals of natural selection, potentially indicating they have an important role in helping copepod populations adapt to new environments (Stern et al. 2020).  One gene paralog among the highest signals of selection is NHA7, a member of the Sodium Hydrogen Antiporter (NHA) family. This result indicates that this gene family might play an important role in the adaption of copepod populations to freshwater environments. In this study, I will investigate the evolutionary history and patterns of molecular evolution of the NHA gene family to further elucidate the mechanism of salinity adaptation in copepod populations. Specifically, I will reconstruct a curated phylogeny of the NHA gene family in order to further infer its evolutionary history in arthropods. This information will be important for uncovering a clear mechanism for salinity adaptation.

Introduction

The development of the anthropocene has been the main cause of environmental changes, namely global warming, which has had broader consequences in rainfall patterns, melting of glaciers, and rise of the oceans (Lee et al., 2022). Salinity changes are deeply detrimental to fauna and flora around the world, as they impose a serious challenge for aquatic species physiological tolerances (Lee et al., 2022, Smyth, et al. 2023). In this study, I am using the copepod *Eurytemora affinis* complex as a model to examine the evolution of populations impacted by global warming, as they are abundant in nature, and their high capacity to adapt to new less-saline environments have made them invasive on multiple occasions. In fact, many populations and clades in the *E. affinis* complex have independently invaded and adapted to freshwater (Stern and Lee, 2020).

In a recent study, Stern et al. (2022) simulated the effects of global warming by reducing salinity in replicate copepod lines in the lab. By pool-sequencing both lab and nature adapted populations, Stern et al. (2022) found that these copepods had undergone parallel evolution among replicate lines. In another study investigating these signatures of selection, Stern and Lee (2020) and Stern et al. (2022) found that most sites under selection located on ion transporter genes are parallel in replicate lines, suggesting that these ion transporter genes might contribute to adaptation of copepod populations to these new environments, and that these ion transporter genes might be co-adapting together to form these adapted phenotypes.

My research focuses on the ion transporter Sodium Hydrogen Antiporter (NHA) gene family, which is contained within the genomic region with the highest signals of selection across the copepod genome (Stern and Lee, 2020). This high signal of selection suggests their importance in adaptation from brackish to freshwater environments.

To answer the question of what allows copepod populations to survive and reproduce under salinity decay pressures, I will investigate the evolutionary history and patterns of molecular evolution of the NHA gene family. I will do this by reconstructing accurate phylogenies, from which I hope to later extract the order in which these mutations arise.

Materials and Methods

Collecting sequences

I had two major sources of data for collecting the sequences present in my analysis: (1) the in-lab genome and transcriptome data on *E. affinis* (Du, 2023 - unpublished), and (2) the ncbi Genbank database.

For the first source, I have used BLAST+ 2.6.0 (Camacho et al., 2009) to create a database of the recently assembled genome and transcriptome data, and then search through the database for potential matches. In total, I made 8 searches per database using as my queries 8 partial CDS sequences for NHA paralogs in *E. affinis* (Marthers, 2018 – unpublished). Then, for each of these paralogs, I used the best; longest transcript matches and aligned them with a 10kb window of the best-match genome result. From this, I was able to infer a more complete CDS sequence that did not contain the 5’ cap or poly-A tail that are usually present in the transcript, or the intron sequences, that are present in the genome (table 1). The final CDS sequences were aligned (figure 1) using T-Coffee Version\_13.45.0.4846264 (Di Tommaso, 2011), and a simple preliminary tree was inferred using the PHYLIP Neighbor Joining building method, with the Dayhoff PAM distance matrix model (figure 2). Both alignments and tree were visualized using UGENE v46.0 (Okonechnikov, 2012).

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Genes** | **gene size (bp)** | **# exons** | **Transcript** | **# isoforms** | **CDS size (bp)** | **Protein size (aa)** |
| **NHA1** | 2399 | 3 | MSTRG.14342.3 | 9 | 1914 | 638 |
| **NHA2** | 3419 | 3 | MSTRG.14344.1 | 2 | 1959 | 653 |
| **NHA3** | 4303 | 3 | MSTRG.14347.2 | 4 | 3615 | 1205 |
| **NHA4** | 3425 | 3 | MSTRG.14350.1 | 6 | 2361 | 787 |
| **NHA5** | 3685 | 5 | MSTRG.14351.1 | 4 | 2262 | 754 |
| **NHA6** | 2803 | 3 | MSTRG.14351.4 | 4 | 2127 | 709 |
| **NHA7** | 2093 | 6 | MSTRG.14352.1 | 1 | 1770 | 590 |
| **NHA8** | 8682 | 6 | MSTRG.15126.2 | 2 | 990 | 330 |
| **Averages** | 3851.125 | 4 | - | 4 | 2124.75 | 708.25 |

Table 1. Summary of *E. affinis* paralogs

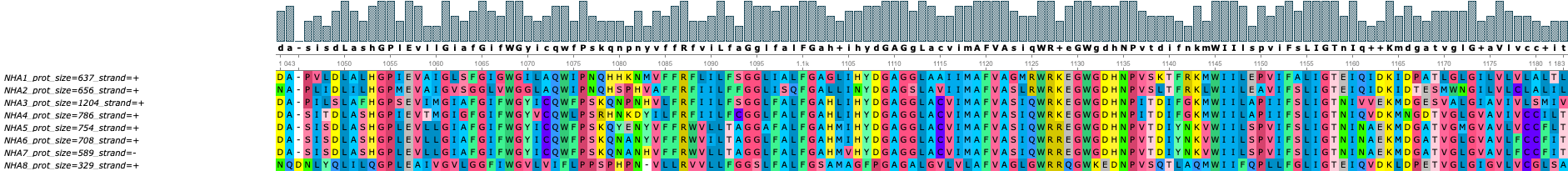


Figure 1. Conserved region of all 8 paralogue sequences alignment in *E. affinis*.

For my second source of sequences, I used my complete CDS sequences, as well as some validated Refseq NHA sequences in different organisms as queries to BLASTp (Morgulis, 2008) against the non-redundant BLAST database, using the scoring matrix BLOSUM62 and BLOSUM45, and excluding XP/XM sequences. The main reason for this latter criterion is because there is a lack of consistency in the annotation of proteins, such as some of them containing or not containing information linked information and ids of their bioproject and assembly information, especially when comparing XP/XM sequences from other non-XP/XM sequences. Moreover, genome assemblies from XP sequences often do not show as potential results when looking in the NCBI database, even when directly looking up their name. Because of this, it became virtually impossible to automate acquiring the information necessary for my analysis.

Diagram

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Figure 2. Preliminary tree of all *E. affinis* paralogs.

In summary, these extensive BLAST searches yielded a total of 214 non-XP/XM proteins. With this intial dataset, I then used the Biopython (Cock, 2009) library, and more specifically the Entrez module as a NCBI database API to recover in-depth information about these proteins, as well as their genome assembly.

Curation of orthologs

Because Genbank is a public database, it also contains several unreliable sequences that might have been reconstructed from poor sequencing or assembling techniques. For this reason, I used the pandas library (McKinney, 2010) available on python to filter all proteins results according to their respective genome assembly quality. To reinforce this quality check, I used the following criteria: minimum protein size = 200, minimum genome coverage = 50x, minimum scaffold N50 = 10000, and maximum scaffold count = 9000. With these filters, only 73 (34%) out of the 214 original protein results remained.

For a second curation step, given the recent divergence of the NHE and NHA gene families (Anderegg et al., 2022), I decided to align each of the 73 remaining sequences with a known NHA (*D. melanogaster* NHA2, NP\_001247251.1) and a known NHE (*D. melanogaster* NHE3, AAF13702.1) sequences and check that the remaining sequences were more closely related to NHA than to NHE. To do this, I used the R/seqinR (Charif and Lobry, 2007) package to load and perform a simple global Pairwise alignment (Needleman and Wunsch, 1970) between every sequence and NHE and NHA sequences. After this step, I was able to remove 26 potentially NHE sequences. With this, only 47 sequences, and 31 species remained.

Chart

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Table 2. Diversity of the dataset

For a third curation step, I used the conserved domain database analysis (Lu, 2020) available on NCBI to verify that the remaining sequences were contained within the NHA gene family. Using the *D. melanogaster* NHA2 (NP\_001247251.1) as a reliable NHA containing a reliable NHA conserved domain, I re-checked every sequence and eliminated the sequences that did not have “NA\_H\_exchanger” as their conserved domain. Moreover, to ensure that I would obtain all paralogs available for each species, I also used BLAST+ to blast the sequences I had against their respective organism, thus obtaining all NHA paralogues for every species in my dataset. Additionally, at this stage, I also manually added separate species that had not originally passed the initial filtering step due to having XP/XM sequences, such as *Lepeophtheirus salmonis* and *Eriocheir sinensis*.

Finally, for the last curation step, I also added two species of tardigrades (*Ramazzottius varieornatus* and *Hypsibius exemplaris*), and all their paralogs as outgroup sequences. The finalized dataset had a total of 83 sequences, with 35 unique species: 3 belonging to crustacea, 2 belonging to chelicerates, 27 belonging to *hexapoda* and 2 belonging to *tardigrada* (table 2). On average, there were 2.37 NHA paralog per species (table 3).

As a safety measure, I have also kept a second “relaxed” dataset that was not filtered for their conserved domain, which contained 296 sequences, and 48 species, with a whopping average of 6.17 paralogs per species. This, however, did not yield good alignments or trees, so I proceeded future analyses with the more conservative dataset.

Table

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Table 3. Paralogs across species

Alignment

For the alignment of the 83 sequences, I have used the MAFFT (Katoh, 2002) multiple sequence alignment tool. This yielded a clean alignment of all sequences with a clear conserved domain. To isolate it, I used GBlocks 0.91.1 (Castresana, et al., 2000, Talavera et al., 2007) available on the ngphylogeny.fr/tools/ server with the following parameters: minimum number of sequences for a conserved position= default, minimum number of sequences for a flank position= default, maximm number of contiguous non-conserved positions= 8, minimum length of a block= 10, allowed gap positions= with half. The resulting segmented alignment can be seen on the figure below.

A picture containing graphical user interface

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Figure 3 Contains a partial view of the multiple sequence alignment.

One of the main reasons for my choice in this alignment software is because it has shown to be as accurate as T-Coffee, but at a speed up to 10x faster (Katoh, 2002). Moreover, it was much mor friendly-user and easy to install.

Phylogeny Inference

To build the trees, I used two main approaches: (1) maximum likelihood, and (2) Bayesian. For my maximum likelihood approach, I decided to use IQTree ver 2.0.3 (Nguyen, 2014) because it is still considered one of the most accurate maximum likelihood models, it could also automatically perform tests and use best-fit evolutionary models, and it ran surprisingly fast on my trimmed sequences. Perhaps the greatest weakness to IQTree is that, like all other maximum likelihood approaches, it cannot guarantee a global optimum. However, given that no other software can, it is still considered a formidable tool.

For my parameters, I used the model LG+F+G4, which best fit the AIC criteria, and was automatically defined by IQTree. I also used specifically the OQV21679, *Hypsibius examplaris* paralogue, as my outgroup. This is because IQTree can only accept one sequence as an outgroup, and when building a neighbor-joining tree with all the paralog sequences of my two outgroups (*Hypsibius examplaris*, and *Ramazzottius varieornatus*), OQV21679 and GAU88015.1 were considered the most ancestral, however, only OQV21679 had the “NA\_H\_exchanger” domain.

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Figure 4 Neighbor-joining Tree of outgroup paralogues

For my Bayesian approach, I have attempted to download and install both MrBayes (Huelsenback and Ronquist, 2001) and BEAST (Drummond and Rambault, 2007), however, none of them worked due to an error in the installation of my Beagle library (Ayres et al., 2019). For this reason, I used the CIPRES server (phylo.org/portal2) which allowed me to submit Bayesian inferences as jobs. I have attempted both MrBayes and BEAST, however only BEAST worked with my set of inputs.

The advantages to using BEAST, besides being the only working software for Bayesian inferences on my dataset, are the introduction of a relaxed molecular clock model, which removes one of the large assumptions of tree building: that the mutation rate is the same across lineages.

To reconstruct the NHA phylogeny using BEAST (Drummond and Rambault, 2007), I used the following parameters: codon\_partitioning=False, no\_beagle\_=False, nu\_partitions=1, nu\_patterns=307, path\_sampling=False, runtime=10, save\_everyval=100000, spec\_seed=False, which\_beast=104.

Results

The inferred IQTree generally had a good grouping of each taxonomic clades. For example, it clustered all crustacean, chelicerates, tardigrades and most of hexapods together. Curiously, however, it did not order these clades according to the expected by the normal arthropod species tree. For instance, while it did keep tardigrades as the outgroup clade to all other arthropods, it also grouped it together with hymenopterans, an order within hexapods, the most derived sub-phylum within the dataset. This, unfortunately, could be a sign of long-branch attraction. Likewise, crustaceans are shown to be more ancient than chelicerates.

More interestingly perhaps, when dividing the hexapod clades into orders, we may observe clades that are more ancient and more derived for the following orders: hemipterans, dipterans, hymenopterans, and lepidopterans. Although we should be skeptic about the quality of the tree, it seems to suggest that NHA duplication events are relatively new. For example, because there chelicerates, tardigrades and crustaceans form their own clades, it is likely that these duplication events occurred after speciation events. Moreover, because there are no clear clades containing different species (e.g. one clade containing one specific paralogue of a species of crustacean, a chelicerate and a dipteran), we cannot conclude there is a clear homology between the arthropods. In other words, while many proteins are labeled as “NHA2” on the Genbank database, these proteins might not be necessarily directly orthologous to each other.

The Bayesian tree was, perhaps, even more unexpected than the resulting maximum likelihood phylogeny. Because I could not specify a specific outgroup, the Bayesian phylogeny assigned lepidopterans as the outgroup for the arthropods. Strangely, it also divided all taxonomic groups into different clades, for the exception of tardigrades. For example, lepidopterans, hymenopterans, crustaceans, chelicerates, dipterans and hemipterans.

Although the Bayesian inference had a smaller number of iterations than I originally intended, an analysis of the tracer plot of the joint probability showed that the MCMC algorithm most likely had a quick burn-in (figure 7, showed as translucent), a good mixing (see through the caterpillar pattern in blue), which show that it had most likely had time to converge. Additionally, the expected sample size (ESS) also had a value of 1036.2, which is much higher than the minimum recommended > 100.



Figure 5. Maximum Likelihood phylogeny of NHA made using IQTree. It contains bootstrap values.



Figure 6. Bayesian-inferred phylogeny of NHA made using BEAST. It contains posterior probabilities to 2 decimals.

A picture containing background pattern

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Figure 7. Tracer plot of the joint probability.

Discussion

In the future I would like to expand on the diversity of subphyla of my dataset. For example, due to my quality constraints and the availability of data, the majority of my current dataset is comprised of hexapods. Because I am currently investigating copepods, I would like to obtain more quality sequences of different crustaceans, chelicerates and potentially myriapods. I plan to do this by manually annotating potential NHA genes in two other copepod species which my lab is currently developing assemblies for. Likewise, it would be interesting to investigate the potential third gene within the CPA clade. Hemipterans and hymenopterans are divided into two.

Data collection and data curation are indeed the slowest step of the methodology used in this paper. Having said this, it is imperial that the curation step be so stringent, because future analyses regarding estimating ancestral sequences, order of mutations, protein modelling, and most importantly, signals of selection will depend on frequencies of synonymous and non-synonymous changes (Kryazhimskiy and Plotkin, 2008). As such, having assembly or sequencing errors can have a drastic effect in the false positive rates. Moreover, a study by Wong et al. (2008) found a potential bias in phylogeny reconstructions. By comparing different MSA algorithms, they found that 46.2% of 1502 alignments of the same sequences produced one or more conflicting trees, implying a potential bias surging through the multiple sequence alignment step. Likewise, this error carried on to future steps, like inferring evolution parameters such as signals of selection, substitution rate, etc., that were also in conflict. Having this in mind for the future, I plan on reviewing and trying alternative curation techniques to optimize sequence quality, while retaining more crustacean and chelicerate species.

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