Adaptation of codon and amino acid use for translational functions in highly expressed cricket genes

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17 Abstract

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19 Background

For multicellular organisms, much remains unknown about the dynamics of synonymous codon and amino acid use in highly expressed genes, including whether their use varies with expression in different tissue types and sexes. Moreover, specific codons and amino acids may have translational functions in highly transcribed genes, that largely depend on their relationships to tRNA gene copies in the genome. However, these relationships and putative functions are poorly understood, particularly in multicellular systems.

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27 **Results**

28 Here, we rigorously studied codon and amino acid use in highly expressed genes from 29 reproductive and nervous system tissues (male and female gonad, somatic reproductive system, brain, ventral nerve cord, and male accessory glands) in the cricket Gryllus bimaculatus. We 30 report an optimal codon, defined as the codon preferentially used in highly expressed genes, for 31 each of the 18 amino acids with synonymous codons in this organism. The optimal codons were 32 largely shaped by selection, and their identities were mostly shared among tissue types and both 33 sexes. However, the frequency of optimal codons was highest in gonadal genes. Concordant with 34 translational selection, a majority of the optimal codons had abundant matching tRNA gene 35 copies in the genome, but sometimes obligately required wobble tRNAs. We suggest the latter 36 may comprise a mechanism for slowing translation of abundant transcripts, particularly for cell-37 cycle genes. Non-optimal codons, defined as those least commonly used in highly transcribed 38 genes, intriguingly often had abundant tRNAs, and had elevated use in a subset of genes with 39 specialized functions (gametic and apoptosis genes), suggesting their use promotes the 40 upregulation of particular mRNAs. In terms of amino acids, we found evidence suggesting that 41 amino acid frequency, tRNA gene copy number, and amino acid biosynthetic costs 42 43 (size/complexity) had all interdependently evolved in this insect model, potentially for 44 translational optimization.

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46 Conclusions

- 47 Collectively, the results strongly suggest that codon use in highly expressed genes, including
- 48 optimal, wobble, and non-optimal codons, and their tRNAs abundances, as well as amino acid
- 49 use, have been adapted for various functional roles in translation within this cricket. The effects
- 50 of expression in different tissue types and the two sexes are discussed.
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- 52 Keywords: Codon, amino acid, tissue-type, translational selection, regulation, tRNAs
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54 Background

Synonymous codons in protein-coding genes are not used randomly [1]. The preferential 55 56 use of synonymous codons per amino acid in highly transcribed genes, often called optimal codons, has been observed in diverse organisms including bacteria, fungi, plants and animals [2-57 14], including insects such as flies, mosquitoes, beetles and crickets [10, 11, 13, 15, 16]. When 58 59 optimal codons co-occur with a high count of iso-accepting tRNA gene copies in the genome, which reflects an organism's tRNA abundance [3-5, 12, 17-20], it suggests a history of selection 60 favoring translational optimization [1, 3, 5, 12, 13, 20-25]. In multicellular organisms, unlike 61 unicellular systems, genes can be expressed at different levels among tissue types and between 62 the two sexes [16, 26-29]. Thus, in these organisms, codon use may be more complex, given that 63 it is plausible that optimal codons may depend on the tissue type or sex in which a gene is 64 expressed [11, 16, 22, 30, 31], and codon use could feasibly adapt to local tissue-dependent 65 66 tRNA populations [30, 32, 33]. However, only minimal data are currently available about whether and how codon use varies with high expression in different tissue types and between the 67 two sexes in multicellular organisms. 68

69 The limited data that are available suggest that codon use varies among genes transcribed 70 in different tissues. We recently found, for example, that some optimal codons of highly 71 transcribed genes differed among males and females for the testis, ovaries, gonadectomized-72 males and gonadectomized females, which may suggest adaptation of codon use to local tRNA 73 populations in the beetle T. casteneum [16]. In addition, a study in Drosophila melanogaster showed that certain codons were preferentially used in the testis (CAG (Gln), AAG (Lys), CCC 74 75 (Pro), and CGU (Arg)) as compared to other tissues such as the midgut, ovaries, and salivary 76 glands, a result that was taken as support for the existence of tissue-specific tRNA populations 77 [32] (see also an analysis of codon bias by [31]). Similar patterns of tissue-related use of specific codons have been inferred in humans [33, 34] and the plants Arabidopsis thaliana and Oryza 78 79 sativa [30, 35]. Given the limited scope of organisms studied to date, however, further research is needed to determine whether the codon use varies among tissues across a broader scale of 80 organisms. Tissues that are of particular importance for research include the gonads, which are 81 key to reproductive success, and the brain, wherein the transcribed genes are apt to regulate male 82 83 and female sexual behaviors [36-38]. Translational optimization of highly transcribed genes in these tissues may be particularly significant for an organism's fitness. 84

While much of the focus on codon use in an organism's highly expressed genes to date 85 86 has centered on optimal codons [3, 5, 7, 12, 13, 16, 21-25, 39-41], and whether they have abundant matching tRNAs that may improve translation [3, 12, 13, 20-24], growing evidence 87 suggests that other, less well studied, types of codon statuses could also play important 88 translational roles [42-44]. In particular, even for codons that are not optimal, the supply-demand 89 90 relationship between codons and tRNA abundances may regulate translation rates, possibly affecting protein functionality and abundance [42, 45-47]. For example, *in vivo* experimental 91 research has shown that genes using codons requiring wobble tRNAs, which imprecisely match a 92 codon at the third nucleotide site, exhibit slowed movement of ribosomes along mRNAs [42, 48, 93 49]. Similarly, non-optimal codons, defined as those codons that are least commonly used in 94 highly transcribed genes (or sometimes defined as "rare" codons), particularly those non-optimal 95 96 codons with few or no tRNAs in the cellular tRNA pool [16], may decelerate translation and 97 thereby prevent ribosomal jamming [19] and also allow proper co-translational protein folding 98 [44, 50-53]. In this regard, wobble codons, and non-optimal codons with few matching tRNA gene copies in the genome, may have significant translational roles, including roles in slowing 99 100 translation.

In contrast to non-optimal codons that have few tRNAs, some evidence has emerged 101 102 suggesting non-optimal codons may sometimes have abundant tRNAs, a relationship that may 103 act to improve translation of specific gene mRNAs [16, 45]. For instance, in yeast 104 (Saccharomyces cerevisiae), rare genomic codons exhibit enhanced use in stress genes, and tRNAs matching these codons have been found to be upregulated in response to stressful 105 conditions, allowing improvement of their translation levels without any change in transcription 106 107 rates [45]. In the red flour beetle, we recently reported that some non-optimal codons have 108 abundant matching tRNA genes in the genome [16], and these codons are concentrated in a 109 subset of highly transcribed genes with specific, non-random biological functions (e.g., olfactory 110 or stress roles), which may together allow preferential translation of mRNAs of those particular genes [16]. Accordingly, given these findings, further studies of codon use patterns in highly 111 expressed genes of multicellular organisms should expand beyond the focus on optimal codons 112 per se [2, 3, 7-9, 12, 21, 39, 41], and explore the use and possible translational functions of non-113 optimal codons, distinguishing between those that have few and plentiful tRNAs, as well as the 114 use of wobble codons [16]. 115

While the investigation of amino acid use remains uncommon in multicellular organisms, 116 the available sporadic studies suggest an association between amino acid use and gene 117 expression level [21, 54, 55]. In insects, for example, an assessment of the biosynthetic costs of 118 amino acid synthesis (size/complexity score for each of 20 amino acids as quantified by Dufton 119 [56]) has shown that those amino acids with low costs tend to be more commonly used in genes 120 121 with high transcription levels in the beetle *T. castaneum* [21]. Further, genome-wide studies in 122 other arthropod models such as spiders (*Parasteatoda tepidariorum*) [55], and the study of 123 partial available transcriptomes from milkweed bugs (*Oncopeltus fasciatus*), an amphipod crustacean (Parhyale hawaiensis) and crickets (Gryllus bimaculatus, using a single 124 ovary/embryo dataset in this system) [10], were suggestive of the hypothesis that evolution may 125 have typically favored a balance between minimizing the amino acid costs for production of 126 127 abundant proteins with the need for certain (moderate cost) amino acids to ensure proper protein function (protein stability and/or functionality) [54]. Moreover, it has been found that amino acid 128 129 use is correlated to their tRNA gene copy numbers in beetles [21], and in some other eukaryotes [17], a relationship that may be stronger in highly transcribed genes [17]. Thus, these various 130 131 patterns raise the possibility of adaptation of amino acid use for translational optimization in multicellular organisms [17, 21, 55]. At present, further data is needed on amino acid use in 132 133 highly expressed genes in multicellular systems, that include consideration of tRNA gene number, biosynthetic costs, and expression in different tissue types. 134

135 An emerging model system that provides opportunities for further deciphering the relationships between gene expression and codon and amino acid use is the two-spotted cricket 136 Gryllus bimaculatus. Within insects, Gryllus is a hemimetabolous genus (Order Orthoptera) and 137 has highly diverged from the widely studied model insect genus *Drosophila* (Order Diptera) [57, 138 58]. G. bimaculatus comprises a model for investigations in genetics [59, 60], germ line 139 140 formation and development [61-63] and for molecular evolutionary biology [10, 64]. In the present study, we rigorously assess codon and amino acid use in highly transcribed genes of G. 141 *bimaculatus* using its recently available annotated genome [65] and large-scale RNA-seq data 142 143 from tissues of the male and female reproductive and nervous systems [64]. From our analyses, we demonstrate that optimal codons, those preferentially used in highly expressed genes, occur 144 145 in this organism, are largely shaped by selection pressures, and are nearly identical across tissues. Based on analyses of codon and tRNA gene copy relationships, we find that a majority of 146

optimal codons have abundant tRNAs, which is consistent with translational optimization in this 147 species. However, some optimal codons obligately require the use of wobble tRNAs, which may 148 act to slow translation, including for cell-cycle genes. Moreover, non-optimal codons, those 149 codons rarely used in highly expressed genes, rather than usually having few tRNAs, often have 150 abundant tRNAs, and thus may provide a system to upregulate the translation of specific mRNAs 151 152 (for example, apoptosis gonadal genes), as has been proposed in yeast and beetles [16, 45]. 153 Finally, with respect to amino acids, we find evidence to suggest that amino acid frequency, 154 tRNA gene copy number, and amino acid biosynthetic costs have all interdependently evolved in this taxon, possibly for translational optimization. 155

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157 **Results and Discussion**

For our study, codon and amino acid use in G. bimaculatus was assessed using genes 158 159 from its recently available annotated genome [65]. We included all 15,539 G. bimaculatus protein-coding genes (CDS, longest CDS per gene) that had a start codon and were >150bp. 160 Gene expression was assessed using RNA-seq data from four adult male and female tissue types, 161 162 the gonad (testis for males, ovaries for females), somatic reproductive system (for males this 163 includes the pooled vasa deferentia, seminal vesicle and ejaculatory duct and for females 164 includes the spermathecae, common oviduct, and bursa), brain and ventral nerve cord (Additional file 1: Table S1; [64]). The male accessory glands were included for study, but were 165 166 separated from the other male reproductive system to prevent overwhelming, or skewing, the types of transcripts detected in the former tissues [64]. The trimmed reads in Additional file 1: 167 168 Table S1 were mapped to the 15,539 annotated G. bimaculatus genes independently for each of 169 the nine tissue types under study and the expression level, or FPKM, was determined per gene. 170 To identify the optimal and non-optimal codons in G. bimaculatus, we compared codon

171 use in highly versus lowly expressed genes [2, 7, 9, 10, 15, 16, 39, 66, 67]. For each CDS, the 172 relative synonymous codon usage (RSCU) was determined for all codons for each amino acid 173 with synonymous codons, whereby RSCU values >1 and <1 respectively indicate greater and 174 lower use of a synonymous codon than that expected under equal codon use, and elevated values 175 of codons for each amino acid indicate more frequent usage [18]. The Δ RSCU=RSCUMean Highly 176 Expressed CDS-RSCUMean Low Expressed CDS was used to define the primary optimal codon as the codon 177 with the largest positive and statistically significant Δ RSCU value per amino acid [2, 7, 9, 10, 15,

16, 39]. The primary non-optimal codon was defined as the codon with the largest negative and 178 statistically significant $\Delta RSCU$ value per amino acid [16]. In the following sections, we first 179 thoroughly describe the optimal codons identified in this cricket species, including an assessment 180 of the variation in expression among tissue types, and the role of selection versus mutation in 181 shaping the optimal codons. Subsequently, we thoroughly evaluate the relationships between 182 optimal codons and the non-optimal codons and their matching tRNA gene counts in the genome 183 to ascertain plausible functional roles. We then consider the amino acid use and tRNA 184 185 relationships in highly expressed genes of this taxon.

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187 Optimal Codons are Shared Across the Nine Distinct Tissues in *G. bimaculatus*

The organism-wide optimal codons were identified for G. bimaculatus using $\Delta RSCU$ for 188 genes with the top 5% average expression levels across all nine studied tissues (cutoff was 556.2 189 190 FPKM) versus the 5% of genes with the lowest average expression levels (among all 15,539 genes under study) and are shown in Table 1. Based on \triangle RSCU we report a primary optimal 191 codon for all of the 18 amino acids with synonymous codons, each of which ended at the third 192 193 position in an A (A3) or T (T3) nucleotide (boldface and underlined Δ RSCU values, Table 1). As shown in Table 2, the 777 genes in the top 5% average expression category (organism-wide 194 195 analysis) were enriched for ribosomal protein genes and had mitochondrial and protein folding functions. We found that 14 of the 17 primary optimal codons (one per amino acid) that were 196 197 previously identified using a partial transcriptome from one pooled tissue sample (embryos/ovaries [10]), were identical to those observed here, marking a strong concordance 198 199 between studies and datasets (the differences herein were CAA for Gln, TTA for Leu, and AGA 200 for Arg as optimal codons, and the presence of an optimal codon AAA for Lys, which had no optimal codon using previous embryonic/ovary data [10]). Thus, the present analysis using large-201 scale RNA-seq from nine divergent tissues (Additional file 1: Table S1) and using a complete 202 203 annotated genome [65] support a strong preference for AT3 codons in this cricket.

Importantly, the expression datasets herein (Additional file 1: Table S1) allowed us to conduct an assessment of whether the identity of optimal codons varied with tissue type or sex. As certain data suggest that codon use may be influenced by the tissue in which it is maximally transcribed [16, 30], we examined those genes that exhibited maximal expression (in the top 5%) within each tissue type, that were not in the top 5% for any of the other eight remaining tissue

types [16, 30], which we refer to as Top5one-tissue (N values as follows, female gonad (274), male-209 gonad (270), female somatic reproductive system (67), male somatic reproductive system (104), 210 female brain (24), male brain (22); female ventral nerve cord (32), male ventral nerve cord (33), 211 and male accessory glands (162)). We found remarkable consistency among tissues, with nearly 212 all identified optimal codons (largest positive Δ RSCU and P<0.05) ending in A3 and T3 in each 213 214 tissue (Additional file 1: Table S2). For amino acids with two codons, the organism-wide optimal 215 codon was always optimal across all nine tissues (Additional file 1: Table S2; with possible 216 exceptions for the optimal codons AGG for Arg and CAG for Gln in the male brain; however this had P>0.1, and the N values and thus statistical power was lowest for the male brain; 217 218 Additional file 1: Table S2). Nonetheless, there was some minor variation among the AT3-ending codons for amino acids with three or more synonymous codons. As an example, for the amino 219 220 acid Thr, ACT was the optimal codon at the organism-wide level (Table 1) and for five tissues types (male somatic reproductive system, male brain, male ventral nerve cord, female ventral 221 222 nerve cord, and male accessory glands), while the secondary organism-wide optimal codon ACA (secondary status is based on their magnitude of $+\Delta RSCU$ values) was the primary optimal 223 codon in four other tissues (Additional file 1: Table S2). Thus, for some amino acids there is 224 mild variation in primary and secondary status among tissues of the AT3 codons, which may 225 226 reflect modest differences in the tRNA abundances among tissues [16, 32]. However, the overall 227 patterns suggest there is remarkably high consistency in the identity of AT3 optimal codons 228 across diverse tissues in this taxon (Additional file 1: Table S2).

While tissue-related optimal codons in multicellular organisms have only rarely been 229 studied, the data available from fruit flies, thale cress (Arabidopsis), and our recent results from 230 red flour beetles [16, 30, 32] have shown that optimal codons can vary among tissues, which 231 suggests the existence of tissue-specific tRNA pools in those taxa [32]. The results here in G. 232 233 *bimaculatus* thus differ from those in other organisms, and suggest its tRNA pools do not vary 234 substantially with tissue or sex. Future studies using direct quantification of tRNA populations in various tissue types, which is a methodology under refinement and wherein the most effective 235 approaches remain debated [45, 68], will help further affirm whether tRNA populations are 236 237 largely similar among tissues and sex in this organism. Taken together, the results from this Top5one-tissue analysis, wherein the gene set for each tissue is mutually exclusive of the top 5% 238 expressed genes in any other tissue, suggest that high transcription in even a single tissue type or 239

sex is enough to give rise to the optimal codons in this species. We note nonetheless that while
the identity of optimal codons, and thus potentially the relative tRNA abundances, are shared
among genes expressed in different tissues, the frequency of optimal codons (Fop) [22] varied
among tissue types (Top5one-tissue), suggesting the absolute levels of tRNAs may differ among
tissues (see below section "*Fop varies with tissue type and sex*").

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246 Selective pressure is a primary factor shaping optimal codons

247 Given that the optimal codons were highly consistent across tissues, to further investigate the potential role of selection in shaping the optimal codons we focused on the organism-wide 248 optimal codons (Table 1). While the elevated use of the specific types of codons in highly 249 250 expressed genes in Table 1 in itself provides evidence of a history of selection favoring the use 251 of optimized codons in G. bimaculatus [2, 7, 9, 10, 15, 16, 66, 67, 69], the putative role of 252 selection can be further evaluated by studying the AT (or GC) content of introns (AT-I), which 253 are thought to largely reflect background neutral mutational pressures on genes, and thus on AT3 [16, 66, 70-74]. The G. bimaculatus genome contains repetitive A and T rich non-coding DNA 254 255 [65], including in the introns. Nonetheless, to decipher whether any additional insights might be gained from the introns in G. bimaculatus we extracted the introns from the genome and found 256 257 that 90.5% (N=14,071) of the 15,539 annotated genes had introns suitable for study (≥50bp after trimming). The AT-I content across all genes in this taxon had a median of 0.637, indicating a 258 259 substantial background compositional nucleotide bias, and differing from the whole gene CDS 260 (median AT for CDS across all sites=0.525). Introns (longest per gene) were nearly two-fold shorter for the most highly (top 5% organism-wide) than lowly (lowest 5%) expressed genes 261 (1.91 fold longer in low than high expressed genes, medians were 5,183 and 2,694bp 262 263 respectively, MWU-test P<0.05). We speculate that the shorter introns under high expression 264 may comprise a mechanism to minimize transcriptional costs of abundantly produced transcripts 265 in this cricket, as has been suggested in some other species including humans and nematodes [75], and may indicate a history of some non-neutral evolutionary pressures on the length of 266 introns. 267

To further distinguish the role of mutation from selection in shaping AT3 in this cricket, we evaluated the relationship between gene expression (FPKM) and AT-I and AT3. We found that AT-I was positively correlated to gene expression level, with Spearman's R=0.354, P<2X10-

7 (across all 14,071 annotated genes with introns). Thus, assuming intron nucleotide content is
largely selectively neutral, this may suggest a degree of expression-linked mutational-bias [76,
77] in this organism favoring AT mutations in introns of highly transcribed genes (or conversely,
elevated GC mutations at low expression levels, see below in this section). However, this
correlation was markedly weaker than that observed between AT3 of protein-coding genes and
expression across these same genes (R=0.534, P<2X10-7), thus providing evidence that selection
is a significant factor shaping AT3 [8].

278 For additional rigor in verifying the role of selection as compared to mutation in favoring AT3 codons (Table 1), genes from the top 5% and lowest 5% gene expression categories were 279 placed into one of five narrow bins based on their AT-I content, specifically ≤ 0.5 , > 0.5-0.6, > 0.6-280 0.7, >0.7-0.8, and >0.8. As shown in Fig. 1, for each AT-I bin, we found that AT3 of the top 5% 281 282 expressed genes was statistically significantly higher than that of lowly expressed genes (MWUtests P between 0.01 and <0.001). No differences in AT-I between highly and lowly expressed 283 284 genes were observed per bin (MWU-test P>0.30 in all bins, with one exception of a minimal median AT-I difference of 0.019 for category 3, P<0.05, Fig. 1). Thus, this explicitly 285 286 demonstrates that within genes that have a similar background intron nucleotide composition (that is, genes contained in one narrow bin of AT-I values), AT3 codons exhibit significantly 287 288 greater use in highly transcribed than in lowly transcribed genes. This pattern further supports the interpretation that selection substantially shapes optimal codon use in G. bimaculatus. 289

As an additional assessment, we also considered whether the lower AT3 content of lowly expressed genes (as indicated by Δ RSCU in Table 1, and in Fig. 1) could be related to biasedgene conversion, which acts to enhance GC content [74, 78], in Additional File 1: Text File S1. We conclude that while BGC may influence GC (and thus AT) content to some extent in this taxon, it is not a major factor shaping codon use of highly versus lowly expressed genes (Table 1, Additional file 1: Table S2), thereby further supporting a substantive role of selection in shaping AT3 optimal codon use patterns in Table 1 and Fig. 1.

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298 Fop varies with tissue type and sex

While the types of optimal codons identified herein were largely shared among tissues (Additional file 1: Table S2), the frequency of use of these codons (Fop) varied markedly with tissue type and sex in *G. bimaculatatus*. In particular, Fop was markedly higher in Top5one-tissue

genes from the testes and ovaries and the male accessory glands, than in all other six tissue types 302 303 (MWU-tests P<0.05, Fig. 2). Thus, this suggests that genes linked to these fundamental sexual structures and functions are prone to elevated optimal codon use that could, in principle, be due 304 to their essential roles in reproduction and fitness, and cost-efficient translation may be 305 particularly beneficial in the contained haploid meiotic cells [16]. Moreover, we found that the 306 307 Top5one-tissue genes from the female somatic reproductive system had markedly higher Fop than their male counterparts (MWU-test P<0.05, Fig. 2). We speculate that this may reflect the 308 309 essential and fitness-related roles of genes involved in the insect female structures since they transport and house the male sex cells and seminal fluids after mating [79, 80], possibly making 310 translational optimization more consequential to reproductive success for the female than male 311 genes. In contrast, no differences in Fop were observed with respect to sex for the brain or 312 313 ventral nerve cord, and the relatively low Fop values for these tissues suggest weakened selective 314 constraint on codon use of genes as compared to the gonads and to the male accessory glands 315 (MWU- tests P<0.05 for the latter tissues versus the former, Fig. 2). In this regard, the data show striking differences in frequency of use of the optimal codons among tissue types (Fig. 2) while 316 317 the identities of optimal codons themselves are largely conserved (Additional file 1: Table S2). These patterns are consistent with a hypothesis that selection for translational optimization has 318 319 been higher for genes involved in the gonads and male accessory glands, than those from the 320 nervous system.

321 While few comparable data on multi-tissue expression and Fop are available, and especially with respect to sex, a study of the male-female gonads and gonadectomized tissues in 322 D. melanogaster indicated that codon usage bias was lower in male than female genes [31]. This 323 pattern may be due to Hill-Robertson interference arising from adaptive evolution at linked 324 325 amino acid sites in the males, dragging slightly deleterious codon mutations to fixation [31]. 326 However, we found an opposite pattern in the mosquito Aedes aegypti where optimal codon use 327 was higher in male than in female gonads [11]. Our results here, using four discrete paired malefemale tissue types, suggest that the only sex-related difference in Fop for G. bimaculatus is for 328 329 the somatic reproductive system (where male genes had lower Fop than female genes, Fig. 2). 330 Thus, outside the somatic reproductive system, our data show that tissue type of maximal expression plays the predominant role in shaping Fop in this cricket model, rather than sex. 331 Moreover, the low Fop observed in the brain (Fig. 2) suggests that Hill-Robertson effects may be 332

333 greatest in this tissue type, a notion that is consistent with recent observations of a rapid rate of 334 protein sequence evolution of sex-biased brain genes in this species [64]. It is worth noting that 335 the finding that the degree of optimal codon use is particularly pronounced for genes transcribed 336 in the gonads in Fig. 2 may suggest greater absolute (but not relative) tRNA abundances of the 337 optimal codons in those reproductive tissues, which are essential for formation of the sex cells. 338

Functional Roles of Optimal and Non-Optimal Codons Inferred by their Relationships to tRNA Gene Copies

The hypothesis of translational selection for efficient and/or accurate translation in an 341 organism has been thought to be substantiated by associations between optimal codon use in 342 highly expressed genes and their matching tRNA gene copy numbers in the genome [3, 5, 12, 13, 343 344 16, 20-25] In some organisms however, the correspondence between optimal codon use in 345 highly expressed genes and the matching tRNA abundance has been weak [21], or not observed 346 for some (outlier) codons [81], that has been interpreted as limited support for adaptation of tRNA abundance and optimal codon use [21]. However, growing evidence suggests that there is 347 348 a complex supply-demand relationship between codons and tRNAs that may affect multiple aspects of translation [42-44, 82], such that a universal connection between optimal codons and 349 350 matching tRNA gene copy numbers may not always be expected [16, 42, 44]. For instance, some optimal codons may obligately require wobble tRNAs (no direct matching tRNAs) [16], which 351 352 act to allow slow translation [48, 49], and thus a positive relationship between codon use in highly expressed genes and high tRNA abundance would not be expected for those codons. In 353 turn, while non-optimal (or rare) codons may have few tRNAs, and thus act to slow translation 354 [44], in some cases they may have numerous matching tRNAs, which could conceivably allow 355 356 for translational upregulation of gene mRNAs using those codons [16, 45]. Given this context, to 357 allow a precise interpretation of the codon-tRNA relationships in Table 1, and given some 358 variation in terminology in the literature, we explicitly describe the codons using their $\Delta RSCU$ status and their tRNA abundances as follows: Opt-codonttRNAs are those optimal codons 359 (elevated use in highly expressed genes) that have relatively high tRNA gene copy numbers, 360 361 Opt-codonwobble, include those optimal codons obligately requiring the use of wobble tRNAs, Nonopt-codon_tRNAs are the non-optimal codons (least used in highly expressed genes) with few 362

tRNAs, and Nonopt-codon[†]tRNAs, represents non-optimal codons with abundant tRNA gene
copies [16].

To assess the relationships between the codon use and tRNA gene numbers for each 365 amino acid in Table 1, we first determined the number of tRNA genes per amino acid in the G. 366 bimaculatus genome using a recently updated version of the program tRNA-scan-SE (v. 2.0.5, 367 see Methods) [83, 84]. We report 1,391 putative tRNAs for the G. bimaculatus genome (Table 368 369 1). To evaluate the propensity for translational selection *per se*, defined as a strong relationship 370 between optimal codon use in highly expressed genes and tRNAs [5, 12, 18, 21], we compared the 18 primary optimal codons to the number of tRNAs per gene. We found that for 11 of 18 371 amino acids, the primary optimal codon had the highest or near highest matching number of 372 tRNAs gene copies (≥18 tRNA copies) among the synonymous codons (Table 1), or Opt-373 374 codon_{trRNAs} status. Thus, this concurs with a model of translational selection for accurate and/or efficient translation for a majority of optimal codons in this cricket (Table 1) [5, 12, 16, 18, 21]. 375 376 However, some optimal codons obligately required a wobble tRNA, or had Opt-codonwobble, status, which we suggest may also serve important functional roles. 377

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379 Some optimal codons require wobble tRNAs

380 Seven of the 18 identified optimal codons in Table 1 had Opt-codonwobble status, and had no exact matching tRNAs in the genome. These included the codons AAT (Asn), GAT (Asp), 381 382 TGT (Cys), GGT (Gly), CAT (His), TTT (Phe), and TAT (Tyr) (Table 1). Thus, the elevated use of codons with Opt-codonwobble status in highly transcribed genes cannot be ascribed to 383 translational selection *per se*. We suggested in a recent report for *T. castaneum*, that optimal 384 codons obligately using wobble tRNAs may likely be employed in highly expressed genes as a 385 386 mechanism to slow translation, perhaps for protein folding purposes [16]. Indeed, experimental 387 research in yeast, human cells, and nematodes has shown that ribosomal translocation along the mRNA is slowed by codons requiring wobble tRNAs [42, 48, 49], and thus may allow co-388 translational protein folding. The inefficiency of wobble interactions between codons and 389 tRNAs, including chemically modified wobble tRNAs (e.g., adenosine to inosine, I34 in the 390 391 anticodon loop [85, 86], appears to act as a mechanism to decelerate translation as compared to 392 codons with exact tRNA matches [42, 43]. In this regard, wobble codons in highly expressed genes studied here, may serve a similar function to non-optimal codons (those that have few 393

tRNAs, see below section), which growing studies suggest may regulate the rate, or rhythm, of translation to allow co-translational protein folding [44, 50-53]. Notably, we found the highly transcribed genes in *G. bimaculatus* were preferentially involved in protein folding as shown in Table 2, and thus this comprises a primary active process within the tissues/cells under study. In this regard, our collective results suggest a hypothesis that wobble codons in highly transcribed genes may slow translation and effectively assist in the process of protein folding.

400 To further study the possible roles of wobble codons, we assessed the gene ontology 401 (GO) functions of the four codons with Opt-codonwobble status that had the highest $\Delta RSCU$ values (GGT, GAT, CAT and TAT with \triangle RSCU values of +0.610, +0.520, +0.511 and +0.430 402 respectively (Table 1)) to determine if genes using these codons tended to be involved in 403 particular processes. For this, we examined the subset of highly expressed genes that were 404 405 especially enriched for each wobble codon (had RSCU≥1.5, where a value of 1 indicates equal use of the codon per codon family, and thus ≥ 1.5 indicates a substantial elevation in use) in the 406 407 organism-wide dataset (Table 1), and for the genes with Top5one-tissue status in the gonads (Additional file 1: Table S2), which had the largest N values of any tissue type (Additional file 1: 408 409 Table S2; gene ontology determined from putative orthologs to D. melanogaster (e<10-3, BLASTX [87]) and the program DAVID [88] and Flybase.org [89], see Methods). The results 410 411 are shown in Additional file 1: Table S3. The functions of the organism-wide highly expressed genes with especially elevated use of the Opt-codonwobble codons included ribosomal protein 412 413 genes, and genes involved in mitochondrion functions (Additional file 1: Table S3), thereby specifically affirming that high use of these codons are apt to serve functions in these types of 414 genes. For the gonads, we found that the top GO clusters for genes with high use of GAT in the 415 ovaries (with Top5one-tissue status) and of TAT in the testes (with Top5one-tissue status) were 416 involved in mitosis and cell cycle functions (Additional file 1: Table S3). Thus, this pattern for 417 418 highly expressed gonadal genes in this cricket is in agreement with a prior experimental study 419 that suggested the use of wobble codons in genes in cultured human and yeast cells might regulate the cell cycle, by controlling translation of cell-cycle genes [90]. Taken together, our 420 421 results are suggestive that the use of Opt-codonwobble codons in highly expressed cricket genes 422 may act to slow translation as a means to regulate the level of cellular proteins, and to ensure proper co-translational folding, particularly affecting genes involved in the cell-cycle 423 (Additional file 1: Table S3) and ribosomal and mitochondrial proteins (Table 2). 424

425

426 Non-optimal codons may have different functions that depend on tRNA abundance

The primary non-optimal codon per amino acid was defined as the codon with the largest 427 negative \triangle RSCU with a statistically significant P value [16]. With respect to the identified non-428 optimal codons, we found striking patterns with respect to tRNAs that concur with two possible 429 430 functional roles, that include firstly, slowing translation, and secondly, regulating differential translation of cellular mRNAs. With respect to the former case, we found two amino acids had a 431 432 primary non-optimal codon with Nonopt-codon uRNAs, status, that included CGC (Arg), ATC (Ile) (Table 1). This suggests their infrequent use in highly expressed genes may be due to the rarity 433 or absence of matching tRNAs in the cellular tRNA pools. Moreover, these codons were not only 434 non-optimal, and thus by definition are rare in highly transcribed genes, but their exact matching 435 436 tRNAs were absent in the genome, and thus require wobble tRNAs, a combination that would in theory make them especially prone to slowing down translation. The use of non-optimal codons 437 438 has been suggested to decelerate translation, which may prevent ribosomal jamming [19], and/or permit proper protein folding [44, 50, 51, 91], while, as described above, the use of codons 439 440 requiring wobble tRNAs may also slow translation [42, 48, 49]. Thus, we propose the use of these two codons in genes that have Nonopt-codon_{JtRNAs}, status, and require wobble tRNAs, 441 442 could play significant roles in slowing translation in highly expressed genes in G. bimaculatus.

443 Importantly however, the other non-optimal codons in Table 1 had tRNA counts 444 markedly higher than zero (≥15 gene copies; Nonopt-codon↑tRNAs status). Thus, the infrequent use of those non-optimal codons in the highly expressed genes is not likely to be due to a role in 445 slowing translation. In fact, the use of these codons combined with high tRNA abundance 446 suggests the potential for a high supply : demand ratio [16, 42, 45-47], a relationship that may 447 give rise to preferential translation of any highly expressed genes that contain unusually elevated 448 449 Nonopt-codon^ttRNAs codons [16]. This proposed mechanism of up-translation using non-optimal (or rare) codons has been recently suggested for stress genes in yeast [45], and for highly 450 expressed genes in the red flour beetle, wherein genes with an elevated frequency of Nonopt-451 codon_tRNAs status codons were linked to specific biological functions [16], suggesting their 452 453 mRNAs may be preferentially translated. In this regard, the Nonopt-codon_ttrnas status codons in G. bimaculatus could also have significant biological roles in up-regulation of specific cellular 454 mRNAs in this cricket model. 455

To further evaluable this possibility for G. bimaculatus, we studied as examples the 456 Nonopt-codon t_{tRNAs} codon GTG for Val , which had an organism-wide ΔRSCU of -0.484 and 40 457 458 tRNAs, the codon GGC for Gly with respective values of -0.709 and 41 tRNAs (note both Val 459 and Gly are four-fold degenerate), and CTG for the six-fold degenerate Leu with a $\Delta RSCU$ of -0.692 and 30 matching putative tRNAs (Table 1). These were chosen as examples due to their 460 461 relatively high putative tRNA counts (as compared to other Nonopt-codontrans codons from 462 amino acids with the same degeneracy level). For each of these codons, we examined those 463 Top5one tissue genes (only in the top 5% expression in one tissue type) in the gonads that had RSCU value ≥ 1.5 , indicating enhanced use. The results are shown in Table 3. We found that 464 genes preferentially using Nonopt-codontrNA codons were associated with a diverse range of 465 functions. For example, for the ovaries, the highly expressed genes that preferentially used the 466 467 Nonopt-codon \uparrow tRNAs codon GTG (for Val) included a match to *Bicaudal C* (*BicC*), which is involved in oogenesis [92]. Remarkably, this ovary gene also had elevated use of the wobble 468 469 codons GGC ad CTG (Table 1). Similarly, for the ovaries, an ortholog of *santa-maria*, which has 470 been associated with phototransduction [93] and apoptosis [94], had elevated use of each of the 471 wobble codons GTG, GGC and CTG. The fact that both *BicC* and *santa-maria* each have high use of all three of these Nonopt-codonttRNAs codons, which by definition have abundant matching 472 473 tRNA genes, suggests their gene transcripts are preferentially translated in the ovary as compared 474 to other transcripts in the transcript pool. For CTG (Leu), the Top5one-tissue genes in the ovaries 475 preferentially using this codon with Nonopt-codon₁tRNAs status included another apoptosis gene, apoptosis inducing factor (AIF) [95], which also had elevated use of GGC for Gly, suggesting 476 these codons may facilitate apoptosis in the female gonad cells. With respect to the testis, GTG 477 (Val) was preferentially used in genes such as *belle*, which is involved in male germ-line stem 478 479 cell development [96, 97] and no child left behind (nclb), involved in male gonad development 480 [98], suggesting that use of this non-optimal codon may promote translation of these particular 481 transcripts in the male gonadal mRNA pools. Enhanced use of GGC and CTG in testes genes matching Dual-specificity tyrosine phosphorylation-regulated kinase 2 (Dyrk2), which is 482 involved in apoptosis and sensory roles [99, 100], and short spindle 3 (ssp3), involved in male 483 484 meiosis [101] (Table 3), infers that these two codons may promote translation of apoptosis and 485 meiotic proteins in the testes. When taken together, these patterns in G. bimaculatus, similar to recent findings in *T. castaneum* [16], suggest that the combination of elevated use of non-optimal 486

487 codons and a high supply of tRNAs may plausibly be involved in preferential translation of the
488 transcripts of specific genes in this system, particularly for apoptosis genes and genes with
489 female and male gonadal functions (Table 3).

490

491 Amino Acid Use, Biosynthesis Costs, and tRNA Gene Copies have Interdependently

492 Evolved

493 Next, we asked whether amino acid use in the highly expressed genes in G. bimaculatus 494 (top 5% using the organism-wide assessment) varied with their size/complexity (S/C) scores, which were developed to quantify the relative biosynthesis costs of different amino acids [56], 495 hydropathy, or with their broad role in protein folding properties [102, 103] (Additional file 1: 496 Table S4). As shown in Fig. 3, for highly expressed genes the amino acid usage (across all 20 497 498 amino acids) was not correlated to hydropathy (Spearman's correlation across all 777 organism-499 wide highly expressed genes P>0.60) and showed no broad relationship to specific protein 500 folding properties (ranked ANOVA P>0.05 between groups, Fig. 3BC). However, a very strong 501 negative correlation was observed between amino acid use and S/C scores across the 20 amino 502 acids (Spearman's R=-0.87, P<2X10-7, Fig. 3A, Table 4; see also [10]). An inverse relationship between S/C score and the frequency of the 20 amino acids was also observed across all 15,539 503 504 studied G. bimaculatus genes irrespective of expression level (for all genes R=-0.70, P=4X10-4, 505 Additional file 1: Fig. S1), but the correlation was stronger in the subset of highly expressed 506 genes, suggesting that the connection between amino acid use and S/C scores is ameliorated with 507 elevated transcription. Thus, these patterns both at the genome-wide level and using highly expressed genes measured across nine tissue types, indicate preferential use of low-cost amino 508 509 acids in genes producing abundant mRNAs.

510 To further decipher this relationship, we compared amino acid usage using the organism-511 wide highest and lowest expressed genes (top and lowest 5%, averaged across nine tissues). As 512 shown in Table 4, we found that 19 of 20 amino acids had a statistically different frequency between the most and least transcribed genes in the genome (t-tests P < 0.05), with the only 513 514 exception being Thr. The amino acids with the largest increase in frequency in highly expressed genes (as compared to lowly expressed) were Ile (S/C score=16.04; with 49.0% greater use under 515 high expression) and Lys (30.14; 49.1% greater use under high expression), suggesting that 516 enhanced use of these amino acids with intermediate S/C scores may be more crucial to efficient 517

translation or function of abundant transcripts, than the use of those with the lowest possible S/C
scores in this taxon. We note this is consistent with an earlier analysis based on a partial
transcriptome from one pooled ovary/embryo sample and without tRNA data in that study, where
amino acids with intermediate S/C scores Glu, Asp, and Asn were preferred [10], that all had
>22% increased use under high transcription here. This type of complex relationship between
S/C score and amino acid use has also been suggested in spiders [55].

524 Under a null hypothesis of equal usage of each of 20 amino acids, we would assume a 525 frequency of 5% for every amino acid per gene, with values above and below this threshold indicating favored and unfavored usage respectively. In this context, we observed that for the 526 five highest cost amino acids (Tyr, Cys, His, Met and Trp, S/C scores of 57.00 to 73.00), the 527 average usage was less than 5% (between 1.18 and 3.10%) in both the highly and lowly 528 529 expressed genes (Table 4), indicating these biochemically costly amino acids are consistently rarely used in this taxon. Taken together, organism-wide highly expressed genes in G. 530 531 *bimaculatus* exhibit a pattern of elevated use of amino acids with low S/C scores (Fig. 3A), and also exhibit elevated use of specific amino acids with intermediate S/C scores (Table 4), and very 532 533 low use of the highest cost amino acids. We speculate that the pattern of favored use of some intermediate cost amino acids may be due to the roles of these amino acids in protein folding 534 535 (e.g., beta and alpha folding respectively, Additional file 1: Table S4) and thus their use may 536 ensure proper function of abundantly produced gene products.

537 With respect to tRNA abundances, we found that amino acid frequencies in Table 4 were positively correlated to the tRNA gene counts per amino acid (the tRNA counts included all 538 those matching any of synonymous codons per amino acid) in G. bimaculatus. The correlation 539 was observed both for the highly and for the lowly expressed genes (Spearman's Ranked R=0.65 540 541 and 0.75, P<0.05, Table 4). Thus, this suggests the frequency of amino acid use within genes is 542 connected to its tRNA abundance in this organism. However, despite being correlated in both 543 groups (high and low expressed genes) in this cricket species, we suggest that the relationship is apt to be most beneficial to the organism by reducing the translational costs of genes that are 544 545 highly transcribed, as these genes should presumably be most commonly translated.

We next asked whether tRNA abundance, or gene copy number, was connected to S/C scores in *G. bimaculatus*. Indeed, the 20 amino acids showed a striking tendency to be inversely connected to the total tRNA counts per amino acid in the organism-wide highly expressed genes

(Spearman's R=-0.52, P=0.02, Fig. 4). Thus, the abundance of tRNAs in the genome is directly 549 connected to how biochemically costly an amino acid is to produce by the organism. While 550 551 comparable studies of relationships between biosynthetic amino acid costs and tRNAs are 552 uncommon, a similar negative pattern has been observed in a study from beetles [21], suggesting this phenomenon may be shared among diverse insects. Taking all our results in combination, it 553 is evident that amino acid frequency is positively correlated to the matching tRNA gene counts 554 (Table 4), and negatively correlated to S/C scores (Fig. 3A, Additional file 1: Fig. S1), and that 555 556 tRNA gene counts per amino acid are negatively related to S/C scores (Fig. 4). In other words, genes exhibit a tendency for preferred use of low cost amino acids that have abundant tRNAs. 557 We therefore suggest the hypothesis that all three parameters, amino acid frequency, tRNA genes 558 in the genome, and biochemical costs, have evolved interdependently for translational 559 560 optimization in G. bimaculatus.

It should be noted that while we specify herein that our tRNAs counts obtained from tRNA-scan-SE (v. 2.0.5) [83, 84] from the recently available cricket genome [65] are considered preliminary predictions in this study (see Methods, Table 1), the accuracy of this list is substantiated by the marked correlation of tRNA gene counts with S/C scores (Fig. 4) and with amino acid frequency (Table 4). In this regard, we consider the relative tRNA counts apt to provide an appropriate and accurate profile for *G. bimaculatus*.

567

568 Variation in amino acid use with respect to sex and tissue type

Finally, we determined whether amino acid frequency per gene varied among tissue type 569 570 or sex for those genes with Top5one-tissue status. The results for amino acid frequency are shown 571 in Additional file 1: Table S5, and correlations between use for each sex per tissue type are provided in Additional file 1: Table S6. For each sex, we found strong correlations in the 572 frequency of amino acid use (across 20 amino acids) for all paired contrasts of tissues, with 573 Spearman R values between 0.861 and 0.98 (P<2X10-6). This suggests the relative amino acid 574 use is largely consistent among highly expressed genes from all tissue types. However, the R 575 576 values were weakest (R < 0.9) for contrasts of the male gonad to all other tissues, suggesting a possible testis-effect on amino acid use. In terms of differences between sexes, we determined 577 the percent difference in frequency of amino acid use between females and males for each tissue 578 type (Additional file 1: Table S5). We found that amino acid use varied between the sexes, with 579

between two to six amino acids per tissue type (gonad, somatic reproductive system, brain, 580 581 ventral nerve cord) exhibiting statistically significant differences between sexes. As an example, 582 for the Top5one-tissue genes from the brain which had six amino acids with statistically significant differences between males and females, we found that some amino acids, namely Arg and Tyr, 583 had in excess of 21% difference in their use between the sexes in G. bimaculatus (t-test P<0.05; 584 Additional file 1: Table S5), thus revealing particularly marked variation for this tissue. In this 585 regard, there are non-negligible differences in amino acid use between the sexes, particularly for 586 587 the brain, suggesting that high expression in a particular sex may be a significant factor contributing to amino acid use. 588

589

590 **Conclusions**

Our collective results herein strongly suggest a model whereby codon use and amino acid 591 592 use have adapted to facilitate multiple functions in highly expressed genes the cricket G. *bimaculatus*. Specifically, we showed that optimal codons are largely shared across diverse 593 tissue types and both sexes in this organism, and are likely shaped by selective pressures (Table 594 1, Fig. 1, Additional file 1: Table S2). Further, we revealed that a majority of optimal codons 595 596 have abundant tRNA gene copies (Table 1), which is concordant with functional roles in 597 translational optimization [12, 22]. Importantly however, we found that a substantial subset of optimal codons obligately require wobble tRNAs (Table 1), suggesting their use may have 598 599 evolved as a mechanism to slow translation in highly transcribed genes, a notion that is 600 supported by available experimental in vivo translation research [42, 48, 49]. These wobble 601 codons may facilitate protein folding and/or be involved in regulation of genes such as cell-cycle 602 genes (Additional file 1: Table S3). In turn, we demonstrated that non-optimal codons, 603 particularly those that have few or no matching tRNAs gene copies in the genome (Table 1), may 604 also act to slow translation, concurring with the notion that non-optimal codons may limit 605 ribosome jamming or protein folding [19, 44, 50-53]. Crucially however, our data revealed that not all non-optimal codons are apt to have this putative function. Rather, we find that many non-606 607 optimal codons have abundant directly matching tRNA genes (Table 1), and are linked to specific types of gene ontology functions such as apoptosis and gonadal functions (Table 3). 608 609 Thus, the non-optimal codons with abundant tRNAs likely provide a major organismal mechanism to promote the upregulation of specific mRNAs in the cellular mRNA pool, agreeing 610

with a model proposed in some recent studies [16, 45]. Finally with respect to amino acid use,

our data suggest a hypothesis that amino acid use, biochemical costs of amino acids [56], and

tRNA gene counts in the genome (Fig. 3A, Fig. 4, Table 4) have interdependently evolved as a

614 mechanism for translational optimization of highly expressed genes in *G. bimaculatus*.

Future research should include the direct quantification of tRNAs in different tissue

types, a method that remains under development and debate [33, 45, 68, 104], to assess whether

those results add support to the conclusion of similar relative tRNA abundances among amino

acids across tissue types and sexes in this cricket. Moreover, further studies should be conducted

of the frequencies of optimal, as well as non-optimal, codons and their relationships to tRNA

abundances and gene functionalities, in a wider range of multicellular organisms. Such research

621 will reveal whether the phenomena observed herein are shared across divergent systems.

622

624 Materials and Methods

625 Biological Samples and RNA-seq

626 Gene expression level was determined for all 15,539 G. bimaculatus protein-coding genes (CDS, longest CDS per gene) [65] that had a start codon and were >150bp. RNA-seq was 627 obtained for four adult male and female tissue types, the gonad (testis for males, ovaries for 628 females), somatic reproductive system, brain and ventral nerve cord and for the male accessory 629 glands (Additional file 1: Table S1) as described previously [64]. The expression level of each G. 630 bimaculatus gene was determined by mapping reads per RNA-seq dataset per tissue to the 631 complete CDS list using Geneious Read Mapper [105], to determine FPKM per gene. FPKM 632 was robust to mapping programs, and other common mappers including BBmap 633 (https://jgi.doe.gov/data-and-tools/bbtools/bb-tools-user-guide/bbmap-guide/) and Bowtie2 [106] 634 yielded similar results [64]. 635 636 Optimal codons for the organism-wide analysis (averaged expression across all nine tissues) and $\Delta RSCU$ is described in the "Results and Discussion". For each codon, using 637 $\Delta RSCU = RSCU_{Mean Highly Expressed CDS} + RSCU_{Mean Low Expressed CDS}, t-tests were conducted between$ 638 639 highly and lowly expressed genes to assess statistical significance. To isolate the effect of each 640 individual tissue type, the optimal codons were determined separately for each of the nine tissues 641 under study (males and females for each tissue type, and male accessory glands). It has been suggested that optimal codon use in a gene largely depends on the tissue type in which it is 642 maximally transcribed [16, 30]. Accordingly, to identify optimal codons for each tissue type, we 643 644 examined those genes that were in the top 5% expression in that one tissue type and not in the 645 top 5% expression for any of the remaining eight tissues (denoted as Top5one-tissue) versus those with the lowest 5% expression (or all those tied with the FPKM cutoff of the lowest 5% [16]). 646 647 Using these highly and lowly expressed genes per tissue, the $\Delta RSCU$ was determined as described for the organism-wide optimal codons. 648

The frequency of optimal codons (Fop) [4] for each gene under study was determined,
using the identified optimal codons, in the program CodonW (Peden 1999). Fop was then
compared for genes with high transcription in the various tissue types and two sexes in *G*. *bimaculatus*.

653

654 Intron Analysis

We compared the AT (or GC) content of introns, which are thought to largely reflect the 655 innate mutational pressures on the nucleotide content of genes [74, 107, 108], to the AT3 656 657 content (third nucleotide position) of CDS of highly and lowly expressed genes for the G. *bimaculatus* organism-wide optimal codons [16]. For this, using the genomic data for G. 658 *bimaculatus*, we extracted the introns for all genes (with introns), and retained those >50bp after 659 trimming of 10bp from the 5' and 3' ends which may contain regulatory/conserved regions [74] 660 (and studied the longest intron per gene). For additional stringency, given that highly transcribed 661 662 genes have been suggested to exhibit mutational biases (e.g., C to T) within a small number of organisms (e.g., *E. coli*, humans [76, 77]), we tested whether there was a correlation between 663 gene expression and intron AT content in G. bimaculatus. To further assess the role of selection, 664 as compared to mutation, in favoring AT3 codons (Table 1), genes from the top 5% and lowest 665 666 5% gene expression categories were placed into one of five bins based on their AT-I content as shown in Fig. 1. 667

668

669 **tRNA Gene Copies**

670 The number of tRNA genes per amino acid in the G. bimaculatus genome was determined using the recently updated version of tRNA-scan-SE (v. 2.0.5) [83, 84]. The 671 672 Eukaryotic filer called EukHighConfidenceFilter was used, which was designed to narrow the 673 tRNA-scan output to a conservative high confidence tRNA [83] (used at default settings with the 674 exception of ml -1). We note that since the rigor of the updated program has not been explicitly tested in insects outside *Drosophila* (P. Chan, personal communication), we consider the tRNA 675 predictions preliminary, and focus on the relative values of tRNAs among codons and amino 676 acids. The accuracy of the predictions, however, is strongly supported by the correlations 677 678 between tRNA gene copy numbers and amino acid costs and amino acid frequency (see section 679 "Amino Acid Use, Biosynthesis Costs, and tRNA Gene Copies have Interdependently Evolved"). The filter acted to reduced the absolute counts of tRNAs per amino acid to the high confidence 680 dataset. Nonetheless, the tRNA counts with and without the filter were strongly correlated across 681 amino acids (Spearman's Ranked R =0.90, P<2X10-7), and thus relative gene counts remain 682 683 intact using both measures.

684

685 Amino Acid Use

The frequency of each of the 20 amino acids in protein-coding genes in an organism may 686 be influenced by factors such as their size/complexity Dufton scores (which range from 1 to 73 687 depending on the amino acid, [56]), as well as hydropathy (where positive hydrophobicity values 688 indicate hydrophobic nature, while negative suggest a hydrophilic amino acid [102, 103]), and/or 689 their role in protein folding structures (alpha helices, beta sheets, or breakers used to affect 690 691 bonding in helices) [103]. We thus aimed to study each of these parameters, using established values per amino acid shown in Table S4. We evaluated whether amino acid frequency in 692 693 proteins of highly transcribed genes at an organism-wide level in G. bimaculatus (top 5% average expression across all eight male and female tissue) was correlated to S/C score [56], as 694 well as hydropathy and protein folding characteristics [56, 102, 103]. In addition, we assessed 695 696 and compared amino acid use per tissue type/sex by examining genes with Top5one-tissue status per 697 tissue type.

698

699 Gene Ontology

For gene ontology functions, we used the gene ontology from the fly *D. melanogaster*, which comprises the most well studied insect genome to date [89]. For this, we conducted a BLAST search of the full. *G. bimaculatus* CDS list under study to *D. melanogaster* CDS list (version 6.29 [89]) using BLASTX [87], applying a cutoff of e<10-3. For those genes having matches within these criteria, the *D. melanogaster* gene identifiers of were then input into the program DAVID [88] for gene ontology analyses and searched in FlyBase [89].

706 List of abbreviations

Top5one-tissue, genes with an expression level in the top 5% in one tissue type only, and not in the
 other eight tissues

- 709 FPKM, frequency per kilobase million
- 710 MWU-test, Mann-Whitney U-test

712 **Declarations**

- 713 *Ethics approval and consent to participate*
- 714 Not applicable.
- 715 *Consent for publication*
- 716 Not applicable.
- 717 Availability of data and material
- All RNA-seq data under study are described in Additional file 1: Table S1 and are available at
- the Short Read Archive (SRA) under the project identifier PRJNA564136.
- 720 *Competing interests*
- 721 The authors declare they have no competing interests.
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- 728 Authors' contributions
- 729 CAW, AK and CGE designed the study. AK reared G. *bimaculatus* and sampled tissues for
- 730 RNA-seq. CAW analyzed the data and wrote the manuscript with contributions by AK, NC and
- 731 CGE. NC contributed to GO analysis. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.
- 732

733 Additional Files

- Additional File 1: The file contains the Supplementary Tables, Figures and Text which are
- denoted and Tables S1 to S6, Figure S1, and Text File S1.

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Table 1. The organism-wide Δ RSCU values determined using genes with the top 5% expression level (when averaged across all nine tissues) and lowest 5% expression level (*P<0.05 **P<0.001). The number of putative tRNAs as determined using tRNA-scan and Euk filter [83] are shown. The primary optimal codon per amino acid and its Δ RSCU value are in bold and underlined. An optimal codon that has a relatively high number of tRNAs (\geq 18, Opt-codon[†]tRNAs</sub>) and those with no tRNAs, and thus obligately requiring the use of wobble tRNAs (Optcodon_{wobble}), are shown, as well as the putative wobble anticodon. The primary non-optimal codons that have matching tRNA gene numbers substantially in excess of 0 (\geq 15, Nonoptcodon[†]tRNAs</sub>) and those with few/no tRNAs (Nonopt-codon[‡]tRNAs) are indicated. Codons not having primary optimal or non-optimal status are indicated by "---".

Amino acid	Codon (DNA)	Standard anticodon	ΔRSCU	Р	No. tRNAs	Optimal and non- optimal status	Wobble anticodon (optimal)
Ala	GCT	AGC	+0.871	**	35	Opt-codon ^t RNAs	
Ala	GCC	GGC	-0.344	**	0		
Ala	GCA	UGC	+0.518	**	18		
Ala	GCG	CGC	-1.039	**	22	Nonopt-codon ^t RNAs	
Arg	CGT	ACG	+0.463	**	40		
Arg	CGC	GCG	-1.053	**	0	Nonopt-codon _{↓tRNAs}	
Arg	CGA	UCG	+0.185	**	39		
Arg	CGG	CCG	-0.548	**	2		
Arg	AGA	UCU	<u>+0.881</u>	**	18	Opt-codon ^t RNAs	
Arg	AGG	CCU	+0.047		26		
Asn	AAT	AUU	<u>+0.416</u>	**	0	Opt-codonwobble	GUU
Asn	AAC	GUU	-0.244	**	37 Nonopt-codon↑tRNAs		
Asp	GAT	AUC	+0.520	**	0	Opt-codonwobble	GUC
Asp	GAC	GUC	-0.482	**	31	Nonopt-codon ^t RNAs	
Cys	TGT	ACA	<u>+0.368</u>	**	0	Opt-codonwobble	GCA
Cys	TGC	GCA	-0.365	**	38	Nonopt-codon ^t RNAs	
Gln	CAA	UUG	+0.254	**	39	Opt-codon ^t RNAs	
Gln	CAG	CUG	-0.218	**	37	Nonopt-codon ^t RNAs	
Glu	GAA	UUC	<u>+0.496</u>	**	31	Opt-codon ^t RNAs	
Glu	GAG	CUC	-0.480	**	18	Nonopt-codon ^t RNAs	
Gly	GGT	ACC	<u>+0.610</u>	**	0	Opt-codonwobble	GCC
Gly	GGC	GCC	-0.709	**	41	Nonopt-codon ^t RNAs	
Gly	GGA	UCC	+0.483	**	19		
Gly	GGG	CCC	-0.383	**	11		
His	CAT	AUG	<u>+0.511</u>	**	0	Opt-codonwobble	GUG
His	CAC	GUG	-0.452	**	37	Nonopt-codon ^t RNAs	
Ile	ATT	AAU	+0.603	**	22	Opt-codon ^t RNAs	
Ile	ATC	GAU	-0.452	**	0	Nonopt-codon _{tRNAs}	

Ile	A 75 A	***	0.045		10		
Leu	ATA	UAU	+0.045	**	19 29	 Out as less set	
	TTA	UAA	<u>+0.537</u>		28	Opt-codon ^t rnas	
Leu Leu	TTG	CAA	+0.383	** **	16 20		
	CTT	AAG	+0.409		39		
Leu	CTC	GAG	-0.629	**	0		
Leu	CTA	UAG	+0.007		28		
Leu	CTG	CAG	-0.692	**	30	Nonopt-codon ^t RNAs	
Lys	AAA	UUU	<u>+0.263</u>	**	20	Opt-codon ^t RNAs	
Lys	AAG	CUU	-0.160	**	50	Nonopt-codon ^t RNAs	~
Phe	TTT	AAA	+0.407	**	0	Opt-codonwobble	GAA
Phe	TTC	GAA	-0.265	**	48	Nonopt-codon ^t RNAs	
Pro	CCT	AGG	<u>+0.749</u>	**	36	Opt-codon ^t RNAs	
Pro	CCC	GGG	-0.359	**	0		
Pro	CCA	UGG	+0.483	**	31		
Pro	CCG	CGG	-0.843	**	36	Nonopt-codon ^t RNAs	
Ser	TCT	AGA	<u>+0.731</u>	**	36	Opt-codon ^t rnAs	
Ser	TCC	GGA	-0.208	**	0		
Ser	TCA	UGA	+0.493	**	21		
Ser	TCG	CGA	-0.723	**	15	Nonopt-codon ^t RNAs	
Ser	AGT	ACU	+0.325	**	0		
Ser	AGC	GCU	-0.619	**	60		
Thr	ACT	AGU	<u>+0.644</u>	**	35	Opt-codon ^t rnas	
Thr	ACC	GGU	-0.223	**	0		
Thr	ACA	UGU	+0.493	**	37		
Thr	ACG	CGU	-0.873	**	31	Nonopt-codon ^t RNAs	
Tyr	TAT	AUA	<u>+0.430</u>	**	0	Opt-codonwobble	GUA
Tyr	TAC	GUA	-0.186	**	43	Nonopt-codon ^t RNAs	
Val	<u>GTT</u>	AAC	<u>+0.600</u>	**	26	Opt-codon↑tRNAs	
Val	GTC	GAC	-0.394	**	0		
Val	GTA	UAC	+0.314	**	30		
Val	GTG	CAC	-0.484	**	40	Nonopt-codon ^t rNAs	
Amino a	cids with	one codon					
Met	ATG	CAU			43		
Trp	TGG	CCA			32		
T ()							
Total tRNAs					1,391		

Table 2. Top predicted GO functional groups for organism-wide highly expressed genes (top 5% expression levels when averaged FPKM across all nine tissues). The top five clusters with the greatest enrichment (abundance) scores are shown. P-values are derived from a modified Fisher's test, where lower values indicate greater enrichment. Data is from DAVID software [88] using those *G. bimaculatus* genes with *D. melanogaster* orthologs (BLASTX e <10-3 [87]).

Enrichment Score: 18.88	P-value
Ribosomal protein	7.30E-31
Cytosolic ribosome	9.00E-11
Enrichment Score: 12.49	
Mitochondrion	3.50E-17
Enrichment Score: 8.98	
Transit peptide: Mitochondrion	4.30E-04
Enrichment Score: 8.39	
Electron transport	1.90E-10
Enrichment Score: 6.49	
Protein folding	2.40E-10

Table 3. Examples of genes that exhibit the top 5% expression levels in the ovaries and top 5% expression levels in the testes (but are not in the top 5% of any other tissue type, Top5one tissue) in *G. bimaculatus* that have elevated use of a non-optimal codon with high tRNAs counts (Nonopt-codon_↑tRNAs status; elevated use in this table indicates the RSCU in a gene is ≥ 1.5). The codons include GTG for Val, GGC for Gly, and CTG for Leu (RSCU values ≥ 1.5). Genes are listed that have an identified putative *D. melanogater* (Dmel) ortholog (best match BLASTX e <10-3 [87] and a known gene name at FlyBase [89].

GB ID	Dmel ID	Gene Name
Ovaries- GTG for V	Val (RSCU>1.5)	
GBI 17906-RA	FBgn0039889	ADP ribosylation factor-like 4 (Arl4)
	FBgn0261788	Ankyrin 2 (Ank2)
GBI_16610-RA	FBgn0024227	aurora B (aurB)
GBI_20301-RA	FBgn0000182	Bicaudal C (BicC)
GBI_10942-RA	FBgn0024491	Bicoid interacting protein 1 (Bin1)
GBI_05907-RA	FBgn0000337	cinnabar (cn)
GBI_11302-RA	FBgn0030608	Lipid storage droplet-2 (Lsd-2)
GBI_09650-RA	FBgn0031145	Nuclear transport factor-2 (Ntf-2)
GBI_06633-RB	FBgn0031530	Polypeptide GalNAc transferase 2 (Pgant2)
GBI_13292-RA	FBgn0039214	puffyeye (puf)
GBI_11680-RC	FBgn0004855	RNA polymerase II 15kD subunit (RpII15)
CDI 12051 DD	ED	scavenger receptor acting in neural tissue and majority
GBI_13051-RB	FBgn0025697	of rhodopsin is absent (santa-maria)
GBI_03901-RD	FBgn0003312	shadow (sad)
GBI_03557-RA	FBgn0037802	Sirtuin 6 (Sirt6)
GBI_00841-RB	FBgn0003714	technical knockout (tko)
Testes- GTG for Va	al (RSCU≥1.5)	
GBI_00920-RA	FBgn0038984	Adiponectin receptor (AdipoR)
GBI_00615-RA	FBgn0263231	belle (bel)
GBI_03558-RA	FBgn0032820	fructose-1,6-bisphosphatase (fbp)
GBI_04579-RA	FBgn0030268	Kinesin-like protein at 10A (Klp10A)
GBI_09377-RA	FBgn0015754	Lissencephaly-1 (Lis-1)
GBI_12141-RA	FBgn0038167	Lkb1 kinase (Lkb1)
GBI_02406-RA	FBgn0263510	No child left behind (nclb)
GBI_09426-RA	FBgn0261588	pou domain motif 3 (pdm3)
GBI_08602-RA	FBgn0036257	Rho GTPase activating protein at 68F (RhoGAP68F)
GBI_05329-RA	FBgn0032723	short spindle 3 (ssp3)

Ovaries- GGC for Gly (RSCU≥1.5)

GBI_17906-RA FBgn0039889 ADP ribosylation factor-like 4(Arl4)

GBI_06216-RA	FBgn0031392	Apoptosis inducing factor (AIF)
GBI_20301-RA	FBgn0000182	Bicaudal C (BicC)
GBI_11302-RA	FBgn0030608	Lipid storage droplet-2 (Lsd-2)
		VAMP-associated protein of 33kDa ortholog A(Vap-
GBI_05398-RA	FBgn0029687	33A)
GBI_09822-RD	FBgn0261458	capulet (capt)
GBI_01828-RA	FBgn0011296	lethal (2) essential for life (l(2)efl)
GBI_10179-RA	FBgn0024841	pterin-4a-carbinolamine dehydratase (pcd)
GBI_13051-RB	FBgn0025697	santa-maria

Testes- GGC for Gly (RSCU≥1.5)

GBI_15155-RA	FBgn0016930	Dual-specificity tyrosine phosphorylation-regulated kinase 2 (Dyrk2)
GBI_09377-RA	FBgn0015754	Lissencephaly-1(Lis-1)
GBI_00388-RA	FBgn0010288	Ubiquitin carboxy-terminal hydrolase (Uch)
GBI_09426-RA	FBgn0261588	Pou domain motif 3 (pdm3)
GBI_05329-RA	FBgn0032723	short spindle 3 (ssp3)

Ovaries- CTG for Leu (RSCU≥1.5)

GBI_17906-RA	FBgn0039889	ADP ribosylation factor-like 4 (Arl4)
GBI_01735-RA	FBgn0261788	Ankyrin 2 (Ank2)
GBI_06216-RA	FBgn0031392	Apoptosis inducing factor (AIF)
GBI_07513-RA	FBgn0005666	bent (bt)
GBI_20301-RA	FBgn0000182	Bicaudal C (BicC)
GBI_05907-RA	FBgn0000337	cinnabar (cn)
GBI_11302-RA	FBgn0030608	Lipid storage droplet-2 (Lsd-2)
GBI_16524-RA	FBgn0027786	Mitochondrial carrier homolog 1 (Mtch)
GBI_09650-RA	FBgn0031145	Nuclear transport factor-2 (Ntf-2)
GBI_05851-RA	FBgn0003074	Phosphoglucose isomerase (Pgi)
GBI_06633-RB	FBgn0031530	Polypeptide GalNAc transferase 2 (pgant2)
GBI_09582-RA	FBgn0036187	RIO kinase 1 (RIOK1)
GBI_13051-RB	FBgn0025697	santa-maria
GBI_03901-RD	FBgn0003312	shadow (sad)

Testes- CTG for Leu (RSCU≥1.5)

GBI_00369-RA	FBgn0003884	Alpha-Tubulin at 84B (alphaTub84B)
GBI_15155-RA	FBgn0016930	Dyrk2
GBI_03558-RA	FBgn0032820	fructose-1,6-bisphosphatase (fbp)
GBI_10438-RA	FBgn0038923	mitochondrial ribosomal protein L35 (mRpL35)
GBI_09426-RA	FBgn0261588	Pou domain motif 3 (pdm3)
GBI_08602-RA	FBgn0036257	Rho GTPase activating protein at 68F (RhoGAP68F)
GBI_05329-RA	FBgn0032723	short spindle 3 (ssp3)

GBI_00450-RA	FBgn0024289	Sorbitol dehydrogenase 1 (Sodh-1)
GBI_14282-RA	FBgn0029763	Ubiquitin specific protease 16/45 (Usp16-45)

Table 4. The average amino acid use of the top 5% expressed genes (Top5_{One-tissue}) in *G. bimaculatus* and 5% lowest expressed genes for the organism-wide analyses (using average expression across all nine tissue types). **indicates P<0.05 using a two tailed t-test. The number of predicted tRNAs in the genome per amino acid are shown. SE- standard error.

Amino acid	S/C Score	AA Freq. High exp	SE	AA Freq. Low exp	SE	Percent Diff.	Р	tRNAs
(AA)								
Gly	1	6.66	0.21	8.71	0.13	-30.70	**	71
Ala	4.76	7.32	0.24	11.54	0.14	-57.72	**	75
Val	12.28	6.73	0.19	6.27	0.08	+6.80	**	96
Ile	16.04	5.70	0.15	2.91	0.04	+49.01	**	41
Leu	16.04	9.07	0.26	8.13	0.10	+10.31	**	141
Ser	17.86	6.75	0.21	7.63	0.11	-12.94	**	132
Thr	21.62	5.16	0.15	5.08	0.07	+1.69		103
Lys	30.14	6.93	0.18	3.53	0.06	+49.08	**	70
Pro	31.8	4.62	0.15	6.95	0.11	-50.40	**	103
Asp	32.72	5.08	0.16	3.83	0.06	+24.64	**	31
Asn	33.72	4.30	0.13	2.68	0.04	+37.70	**	37
Glu	36.48	6.53	0.22	5.09	0.07	+22.08	**	49
Gln	37.48	3.75	0.15	3.49	0.05	+6.92	**	76
Phe	44	4.10	0.10	2.70	0.04	+34.20	**	48
Arg	56.34	5.61	0.15	10.04	0.12	-78.95	**	125
Tyr	57	3.10	0.08	1.87	0.05	+39.53	**	43
Cys	57.16	2.08	0.06	2.51	0.03	-20.75	**	38
His	58.7	2.24	0.07	2.53	0.04	-12.99	**	37
Met	64.68	2.61	0.06	2.32	0.02	+10.93	**	43
Trp	73	1.18	0.03	1.48	0.02	-25.80	**	32

Notes: A negative correlation between S/C score and the frequency of amino acids was observed for highly and lowly expressed genes (Spearman's Ranked R=-0.87 and -0.75, P<10-7). Further, a positive correlation between the frequency of amino acids and tRNA counts was observed for highly and lowly expressed genes (Spearman's Ranked R=0.65 and 0.74, P<0.05). Percent Diff.= percent difference.

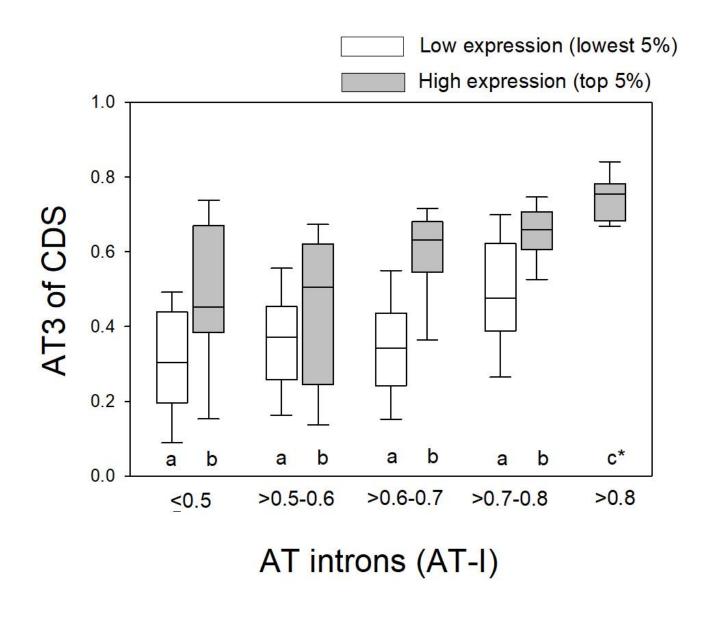


Fig. 1. Box plots of the AT3 of codons of lowly and highly expressed genes within narrow bins of AT-I, and thus presumably having similar background mutational pressures. Genes were binned into categories with similar AT-I content to ascertain differences in AT3 attributable to non-mutational (selection) pressures in highly transcribed genes. Different letters in each pair of bars indicates P<0.05 using MWU-tests. No statistically significant differences in AT-I were observed between highly and lowly expressed genes for any bins (MWU-test P > 0.30; with the exception of a minor AT-I difference in medians of 0.019 for category 3 (0.6-0.7)). *AT3 for this bar is statistically significant from all other bars. Only one gene had AT-I >0.8 for lowly expressed genes and thus the bar for this category was excluded.

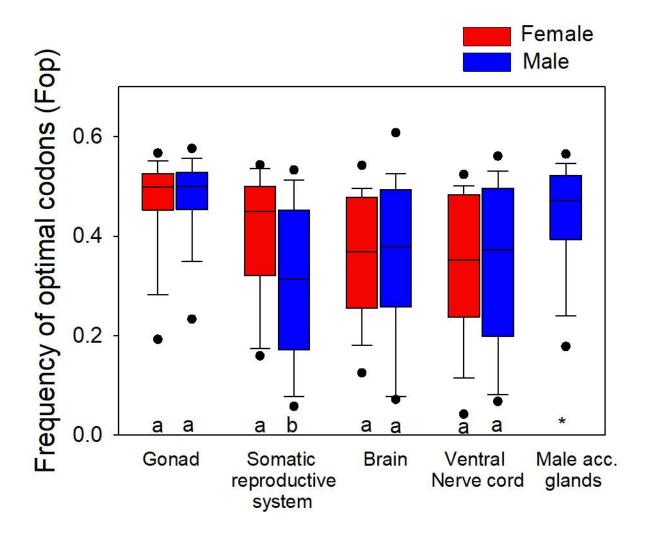
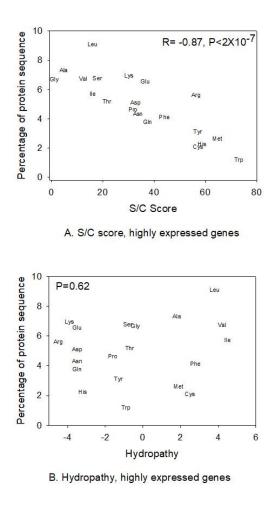
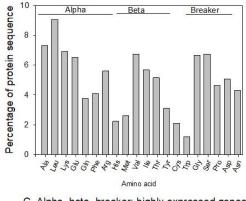


Fig. 2. The frequency of optimal codons (Fop) for genes with expression in the top 5% in one tissue type and not in any other tissues (Top5_{one-tissue}) for *G. bimaculatus*. Different letters within each pair of bars indicates a statistically significant difference (MWU-test P<0.05). Note that the gonad genes had higher Fop values than all other categories (MWU-tests P<0.05). *Indicates a difference of male accessory (acc.) gland genes from all other bars.





C. Alpha, beta, breaker; highly expressed genes

Fig. 3. The relationship between amino acid properties and amino acid use (percent per gene, averaged across genes) in the organism-wide highly expressed genes. A) size/complexity (S/C) score; B) hydropathy, and C) folding properties. For A and B Spearman's R and/or P values are shown, and for C no differences were detected between groups (alpha, beta, and breaker, Ranked ANOVA P>0.05).

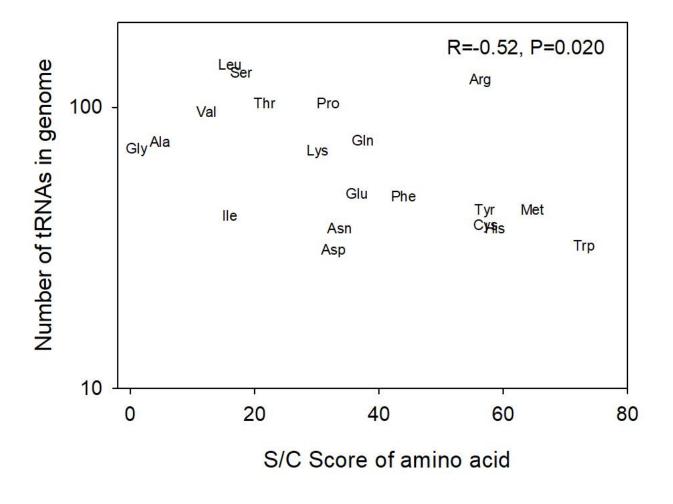


Fig. 4. The predicted gene counts of tRNAs in the *G. bimaculatus* genome and the S/C score of each of 20 amino acids [56]. The Spearman R correlation and P value is shown.