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14 nrDNA:mtDNA copy number ratios as a comparative metric for evolutionary and
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56

57 **Introduction**

58 The use of genetic data in evolutionary and conservation biology has
59 expanded beyond the inference of population structure, species identity, and
60 phylogenetic relationships to incorporate inferences about function and adaptation
61 to the environment, e.g. with the advent of ecological genomics (Ungerer *et al.*,
62 2008). However, identifying genetic cues of functional relevance is not trivial
63 because extensive omics analyses are often required - reviewed by Porcelli *et al.*
64 (2015). Screening for variation at candidate loci putatively associated with function
65 can yield valuable insights to complement subsequent and more extensive omics
66 investigations. Nuclear ribosomal DNA (nrDNA) and mitochondrial DNA (mtDNA)
67 are of considerable functional significance but have been under-exploited as
68 markers within this context (Weider *et al.*, 2005; Ballard and Pichaud, 2014). In this
69 study, I propose that nrDNA and mtDNA could be assessed for functionally relevant
70 variation through the comparison of their copy number ratios.

71 nrDNA and mtDNA vary in copy number between cells, tissues, individuals
72 and species. Classic examples of the former come from studies on toad oocytes that
73 are known to accumulate both nrDNA and mtDNA (Dawid, 1966; Gall, 1968). By
74 contrast, nrDNA content is reduced during the development of copepods' somatic
75 tissue (Zagoskin *et al.*, 2010). Levels of human mtDNA show more variation among
76 tissues within individuals than between individuals (Wachsmuth *et al.*, 2016).
77 Nevertheless, tissue-specific inter-individual variation can be considerable.
78 Gibbons *et al.* (2014) found mtDNA content to vary c.4-fold, and nrDNA more than
79 an order of magnitude, among the human individuals included in the 1000

80 Genomes Project Consortium (2012) dataset. Inter-individual copy number
81 comparisons are dominated by studies involving human pathological states, such
82 as neurodegeneration and cancer, with which differences in nrDNA and mtDNA
83 abundance have been associated (Hallgren *et al.*, 2014; Pyle *et al.*, 2016; Reznik *et*
84 *al.*, 2016; Wang and Lemos, 2017). Between-species comparisons of copy number
85 have revealed substantial variation in nrDNA content and an association with
86 genome size (Prokopowich *et al.* 2003; Vierna *et al.*, 2013). There have yet to be
87 any such multi-species comparisons of mtDNA content.

88 The most obvious functions of nrDNA and mtDNA relate to the structural
89 and catalytic products these DNA regions encode, which are essential for protein
90 synthesis and energy production (Weider *et al.*, 2005; Ballard and Pichaud, 2014
91 and references therein). Associations between the physiological demand for these
92 products and copy numbers are clear in certain tissue-specific instances (e.g. toad
93 oocytes: Dawid, 1966; Gall, 1968) and they have been proposed to be involved in
94 pathological conditions (e.g. human cancers: Reznik *et al.*, 2016; Wang and Lemos,
95 2017). Some intriguing examples of associations between copy number and
96 physiological demand have also emerged at the organismal level. Elser *et al.* (2000)
97 hypothesised that nrDNA abundance is positively associated with growth rates,
98 citing several examples from plants and animals (see also Weider *et al.*, 2005). More
99 recently, Cheng *et al.* (2013) and Li *et al.* (2016) have explored the contribution of
100 mtDNA levels to physiological adaptation in human populations and reported
101 associations between copy numbers and environmental parameters.

102 Associations between copy numbers and the physiological demand for
103 proteins and energy are complicated by other factors including sample-specific
104 differences in the regulation of DNA transcription and RNA translation, and the
105 related issue of genetic and epigenetic variation affecting nrDNA and mtDNA
106 functions. These functions have been suggested to extend beyond encoding
107 products for protein synthesis and energy production to other roles, which in the
108 case of yeast nrDNA, involve modulating genome integrity and adaptability
109 (Kobayshi, 2011). The nrDNA within other organisms may have similar additional
110 functions given reported instances of redundancy in nrDNA copy numbers which
111 exceed cellular requirements for ribosomal RNA (Weider *et al.*, 2005). Indeed,
112 changes in nrDNA levels that alter genome stability may have a functional role in
113 human cancers (Wang and Lemos, 2017). Copy number redundancy has also been
114 suggested to play a role in the maintenance of mitochondrial genome integrity in
115 mammals by provisioning for the selective degradation of damaged molecules
116 (Alexeyev *et al.*, 2013). Furthermore, mtDNA may have ‘other functions’ by
117 encoding for products involved in processes other than energy production, such as
118 the mitochondrial-derived peptide *humanin* (Capt *et al.*, 2016).

119 The extent to which these proposed functions of nrDNA and mtDNA
120 ultimately drive copy number variation remains an understudied issue. So too is the
121 impact of other potential drivers on copy numbers, that include mechanistic
122 cellular processes (e.g. DNA recombination and replication) and underlying
123 evolutionary processes (e.g. drift, gene flow). Accumulating evidence from recent
124 work on humans suggests that it is worth exploring the potential of nrDNA and

125 mtDNA copy numbers as markers of functionally relevant genetic variation in
126 animals more broadly. Obtaining nrDNA and mtDNA copy number data is
127 straightforward because it can be readily estimated through quantitative PCR
128 (qPCR) by taking advantage of archived sequences as a resource for primer design.
129 Due to the typically high abundance of nrDNA and mtDNA in nucleic acid
130 extractions, copy numbers can also be efficiently estimated from low coverage
131 1+nth generation sequencing surveys. mtDNA levels estimated in this way are less
132 prone to bias arising from the inadvertent qPCR amplification of nuclear-
133 mitochondrial DNA (NUMTS). Estimating relative amounts of nrDNA and mtDNA
134 instead of their absolute quantities offers practical advantages. Deriving copy
135 number ratios removes the need for internal references (e.g. single copy genes),
136 which require additional background information for qPCR primer design and deep
137 rather than low coverage sequencing. Furthermore, the use of ratios greatly
138 simplifies quantitative comparisons within and between studies by removing the
139 need for data on absolute template concentrations associated with qPCR/DNA
140 sequencing.

141 To explore the use of nrDNA:mtDNA copy number ratios within an
142 evolutionary and conservation genetics setting, a comparison was made between
143 a pair of closely related zooplankton species that might be expected to show
144 physiological adaptations to different environments. The salp (pelagic tunicate)
145 *Salpa thompsoni* was selected as the first species because it occurs within the polar
146 waters of the Southern Ocean (Foxton, 1961) and has interesting nrDNA-mtDNA
147 properties: abundant nrDNA (Jue *et al.*, 2016), and mtDNA duplications and

148 heteroplasmy (Goodall-Copestake, 2017). The other species selected for
149 comparison was *S. fusiformis*, which is non-polar and has a near-cosmopolitan
150 distribution (Van Soest, 1975). Little is known of *S. fusiformis* genetics other than
151 its nrDNA 18S sequence that confirms its close affinity to *S. thompsoni*
152 (Govindarajan *et al.*, 2011). Species distributions (Van Soest, 1975) and
153 phylogenetic relationships (Govindarajan *et al.*, 2011) are consistent with *S.*
154 *thompsoni* as a polar lineage of the largely tropical-temperate genus *Salpa*.
155 Adaptive genetic changes in response to the polar environment might thus be
156 expected in *S. thompsoni* relative to *S. fusiformis*, some of which may have driven
157 differences in the nrDNA:mtDNA copy number ratio between these species. To this
158 end, quantitative PCR (qPCR) was used to determine if the ratio of 18S nrDNA to
159 16S mtDNA differed between samples of *S. thompsoni* and *S. fusiformis*. Traditional
160 cloning-sequencing and deep sequencing were then used to generate 45S rRNA
161 array (from 18S to 28S) and mitochondrial genome sequences from both salp
162 species, high-resolution copy number data, and intra-individual single nucleotide
163 polymorphism (SNP) and structural variation data to place the qPCR results into a
164 broader genomic background.

165

166 **Methods**

167 Ten *S. thompsoni* samples (five oozoids and five blastozooids) were
168 obtained from the archives of British Antarctic Survey cruise JR26, sampling event
169 184 near Elephant Island (Southern Ocean). Ten *S. fusiformis* (three oozoids, seven
170 blastozooids) were sampled near Gough Island (South Atlantic) during cruise JR287

171 event 46. Morphological determinations followed descriptions in Foxton (1961).

172 Body muscles were dissected out for molecular genetic analysis.

173 Procedures for DNA extraction, long-range PCR, amplicon visualization,
174 cloning, Sanger sequencing - editing - assembly and annotation followed those
175 previously described in Goodall-Copestake (2017). Novel PCR primers were
176 designed from salp *18S* (Govindarajan *et al.*, 2011) and mtDNA (Goodall-Copestake
177 WP, unpublished data) sequences using the Oligo Analysis Tool by Eurofins
178 Genomics (Ebersberg, Germany). Other procedures and methodological variations
179 were as follows.

180 qPCR was carried out in triplicate 10µL reactions using a KiCqStart SYBR
181 Green qPCR ReadyMix (Sigma-Aldrich, Staffordshire, UK), 5ng of template, and the
182 novel *18S* primers (F 5'- CAAAGATTAAGCCATGCAAGTGTAAG -3', R 5'-
183 TCACGCATGTATTAGCTCTAGAATTG -3') and *16S* primers (F 5'-
184 CCTTATGCAATTGGTGTTTTACGAC -3', R 5'- GAGATAAAATCCGGTCTAATTCTCACC -
185 3') on an Eco 48 machine (PCRmax Limited, Staffordshire, UK). The bundled PCRmax
186 Eco Study software was used to determine average Cq fluorescence values from
187 which nrDNA *18S* to mtDNA *16S* abundance ratios were generated.

188 Near complete fragments of 455 nrDNA were amplified using the primer
189 *18S* F paired with '11_RC' from Machida and Knowlton (2012). Mitochondrial
190 genomes were amplified as two overlapping fragments using the *16S* qPCR primers
191 paired with the novel *trnR* primers (F 5'- GAACAGGTGATTCGGGTTACC -3', R 5'-
192 GGTAACCCGAAATCACCTGTTC -3'). Amplicons were single pass Sanger sequenced
193 by Eurofins Genomics following a primer walking strategy. However, repetitive

194 *nad3-nad4-trnM-cox1* mtDNA in *S. thompsoni* (see Goodall-Copestake, 2017) could
195 not be sequenced using this method. Instead, the longest cloned amplicon obtained
196 with the novel flanking primers nd2 F (5'- GGAGACTGGGTGTTGGTTACT -3') and cx3
197 R (5'- TCGTGTGTGATCCCTAACTAGTC -3') was sequenced as nested deletions
198 following TOPO TA Cloning Kit (Life Technologies, Paisley, UK) instructions; Sbf I
199 then Pme I were selected to make linear plasmids with blunt 5' ends and 3'
200 overhangs and a 37°C exonuclease III digestion sampled ten times every 90 seconds
201 was used to generate successive 5' end deletions (enzymes from New England
202 BioLabs, Ipswich, USA).

203 TruSeq nano DNA library preparation and Illumina HiSeq 100bp paired-end
204 sequencing were outsourced to the University of Bristol Genomics Service (Bristol,
205 UK). Geneious v10.2 (Biomatters, Auckland, New Zealand) was used to trim
206 overrepresented and low-quality sequences identified with FastQC v0.11.5
207 (Andrews, 2010). Majority (most common base call) consensus sequences for 45S
208 nrDNA and mtDNA genomes were generated by mapping the trimmed HiSeq reads
209 to the Sanger sequence derived templates using Geneious with a medium
210 sensitivity and paired reads only option. MITOS (Bernt *et al.*, 2013) was used to
211 guide mtDNA sequence annotation.

212 Repeated HiSeq read mapping to the majority consensus sequences was
213 used to estimate relative copy numbers, the *tbx1* gene was applied as a single copy
214 reference following Jue *et al.* (2016). A relative measure of SNP prevalence
215 (proportion of mapped reads) was inferred by identifying sites where >10% of reads
216 contained a base call differing from the consensus. Geneious structural variant

217 mapper was used to identify putative deletions, small insertions (limited by read
218 length), and inversions. Relative measures of these variants were estimated by
219 identifying sites where >0.1% of mapped reads contained a variant junction. The
220 lower cut-off used for structural variants compared to SNPs was based on the lower
221 frequency of such errors in HiSeq datasets (Schirmer *et al.*, 2016).

222

223 **Results**

224 Initial qPCR analysis revealed that the ratio of 18S nrDNA to 16S mtDNA in
225 muscle tissue was consistently higher in the *S. thompsoni* samples than in *S.*
226 *fusiformis* samples. For every copy of 16S, *S. thompsoni* contained on average 9
227 ± 2.0 copies of 18S (minimum 7, maximum 12, n=10). By contrast, in *S. fusiformis*,
228 there were on average 3 ± 0.5 copies of 18S for every copy of 16S (minimum 2,
229 maximum 4, n=10). Although sample sizes were small, these inter-species
230 differences in 18S:16S copy number ratios appear to be robust to the inclusion of
231 both oozoid and blastozoid life history stages.

232 A total of 258,104,562 *S. thompsoni* and 279,916,278 *S. fusiformis* trimmed
233 HiSeq reads were used for mapping to the long-range PCR derived Sanger
234 sequenced templates. The resulting majority rule consensus sequences represent
235 the first annotated 45S nrDNA and mtDNA genome accessions for any salp species
236 and as such, will provide a valuable reference for future comparative analysis
237 (Figure 1 A, C). Average raw pairwise differences between the two species were
238 0.5% for 18S-5.8S-28S, 6.9% for the ITS regions and 18.8% for mitochondrial coding
239 DNA; the *cox1* DNA barcoding difference was 15.2%. Notable structural differences

240 involved the position of four tRNA genes, and in *S. thompsoni*, the presence of a
241 near perfect sequence repeat associated with this tRNA rearrangement, and a
242 region of tandemly repeated *nad3-nad4-trnM-cox1* coding DNA (Figure 1 C).

243 The average percentage of mapped reads per site was higher for *S.*
244 *thompsoni* nrDNA than *S. fusiformis* nrDNA, and conversely, proportionately fewer
245 reads mapped to *S. thompsoni* mtDNA than to *S. fusiformis* mtDNA (Figure 1 B).
246 Copy number ratios derived from the average read depths were 9:1 for *S.*
247 *thompsoni* and 2:1 for *S. fusiformis*. Considering only those sites amplified by the
248 qPCR primers, there were 9 and 3 copies of 18S for every copy of 16S in *S.*
249 *thompsoni* and *S. fusiformis*, respectively. These results were thus in accordance
250 with those inferred using qPCR. When normalised to the read depth of the *tbx1*
251 gene, the estimated haploid copy numbers were 484 for nrDNA and 54 for mtDNA
252 in *S. thompsoni*, and 125 for nrDNA and 62 for mtDNA in *S. fusiformis*.

253 SNP and structural variant prevalence differed markedly between nrDNA
254 and mtDNA, as well as between the salp samples (Figure 1 A, C). After correcting
255 for sequence length, the *S. thompsoni* 45S HiSeq reads contained approximately
256 one-third of the SNPs but twice as many structural variants as found in the *S.*
257 *fusiformis* 45S reads. The *S. thompsoni* mtDNA HiSeq reads comprised greater
258 numbers of both SNPs (3X more) and structural variants (33X more) than the *S.*
259 *fusiformis* HiSeq reads.

260

261

262

263 **Discussion**

264 This study introduces nrDNA to mtDNA copy number ratios as a new metric
265 with which to screen for functional genetic variation in evolutionary and
266 conservation genetics studies. To investigate the potential of this metric, qPCR was
267 used to estimate nrDNA:mtDNA copy number ratios in samples of two
268 zooplankters, *S. thompsoni* and *S. fusiformis*, followed by deep sequencing to
269 profile the underlying sources of genetic variation. Species-specific copy number
270 ratios were found, as were different profiles of intra-individual nrDNA and mtDNA
271 variation (Figure 1). Before discussing the potential functional significance of these
272 nrDNA and mtDNA differences, it is important to consider the life-history
273 characteristics of *S. thompsoni* and *S. fusiformis*. In particular, the capacity of salps
274 for opportunistic population blooms and extensive asexual reproduction, which
275 suggests that they may be prone to reductions in effective population size (Goodall-
276 Copestake, 2017). Therefore, it is conceivable that genetic drift might have
277 influenced, or even caused, the differences in species-specific nrDNA:mtDNA copy
278 number ratios found in this study.

279 Differences in nrDNA content between *S. thompsoni* and *S. fusiformis*
280 account for most of the difference in nrDNA:mtDNA copy number ratios between
281 these species (Figure 1B). The larger number of nrDNA copies found in *S.*
282 *thompsoni*, associated with fewer SNPs but more structural variants (Figure 1A),
283 suggests an expansion of a subset of similar nrDNAs in *S. thompsoni* relative to *S.*
284 *fusiformis*. Jue *et al.* (2016) also inferred an expansion of nrDNA in their analysis of
285 the *S. thompsoni* genome. By incorporating gene expression results from a

286 companion study (Batta-Lona *et al.*, 2017), Jue *et al.* (2016) suggested that nrDNA
287 content had increased in *S. thompsoni* to compensate for slow metabolism due to
288 the low temperatures of its polar environment. With the added benefit of
289 comparative data from non-polar *S. fusiformis*, the results obtained herein support
290 this possibility. Salps are ectotherms and an increase in the number of actively
291 transcribed nrDNA loci, and/or a locus advantageous in cold environments, may
292 help *S. thompsoni* to achieve growth rates at temperatures ranging from -1°C to 2°C
293 that “compare favourably” to growth rate estimates of *S. fusiformis* at 15°C (Loeb
294 and Santora, 2012). At a broader functional level, the difference in nrDNA content
295 between *S. thompsoni* and *S. fusiformis* may also reflect other environmentally
296 induced changes, such as those associated with the regulation of genome-level
297 integrity and adaptability (Kobayshi, 2011).

298 mtDNA content differed less considerably than nrDNA content between *S.*
299 *thompsoni* and *S. fusiformis* (Figure 1B), and accordingly, mtDNA had less of an
300 impact on nrDNA:mtDNA copy number ratios. Unlike nrDNA, levels of mtDNA do
301 not appear to have increased in *S. thompsoni* as part of a metabolic response to
302 low temperatures. On the contrary, mtDNA copy numbers were marginally lower
303 in *S. thompsoni* than in *S. fusiformis*. *Salpa thompsoni* may thus rely on different
304 mechanisms to ensure that energy production satisfies metabolic requirements in
305 its polar environment. There are a number of possible mechanisms by which this
306 may occur, prime among which are adjustments to mitochondrial membrane
307 composition that enhance respiratory activity (Guderley, 2004). However, these
308 membrane changes are at the cost of an increase in reactive oxygen species (ROS)

309 that are known to damage DNA (Guderley, 2004; Ballard and Pichaud, 2014). While
310 speculative, the mtDNA deep sequencing results suggest that *S. thompsoni* could
311 have undergone such a change in mitochondrial membrane composition as a
312 response to the cold. The rationale for this being that the mtDNA of polar *S.*
313 *thompsoni* contains abundant signatures of damage in the form of intra-individual
314 SNPs and structural rearrangements, while the mtDNA of non-polar *S. fusiformis*
315 does not (Figure 1C). It is worth noting that, in addition to ROS-mediated damage,
316 other factors might also have contributed to the signature of mtDNA damage in *S.*
317 *thompsoni*, including genome destabilization induced by mtDNA duplications, and
318 mutations impacting the efficacy of nuclear encoded genes involved in mtDNA
319 replication and repair. Two other issues warrant mention with regard to copy
320 numbers. The first is the possibility that mtDNA copy numbers in *S. thompsoni*
321 might be impacted through the selective degradation of damaged mtDNA
322 molecules (Alexeyev *et al.*, 2013). The other is the possibility that mitochondrial
323 ROS could influence nrDNA levels through retrograde signalling driven processes
324 (mitochondrion to nucleus signalling; see Ballard and Pichaud, 2014).

325 To conclude, this study reveals how nrDNA:mtDNA copy number ratios
326 obtained from the same tissue in different individuals and species can be used as a
327 metric of potentially functional genetic variation. In the case of *S. thompsoni* and *S.*
328 *fusiformis*, differences in nrDNA:mtDNA copy number ratios and the underlying
329 sources of sequence variation were consistent with adaptation and damage at the
330 DNA level in *S. thompsoni*, potentially in response to the polar environment. This
331 raises the intriguing possibility that *S. thompsoni* may be less adapted to polar

332 conditions than its distribution might suggest. More extensive omics analyses of
333 salps are required to ascertain if this is the case. Data from a broad range of other
334 animal species, sampled under different conditions, are also needed to further
335 explore the circumstances under which levels of nrDNA and mtDNA vary. These
336 data will provide much-needed insights about the drivers of copy number variation
337 and the utility of nrDNA:mtDNA copy number ratios as a comparative metric.

338

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348

349 **Data Archiving**

350 Sequence data have been submitted to the DNA DataBank of Japan:
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352

353

354 **Conflict of Interest**

355 The author declares no conflict of interest.

356

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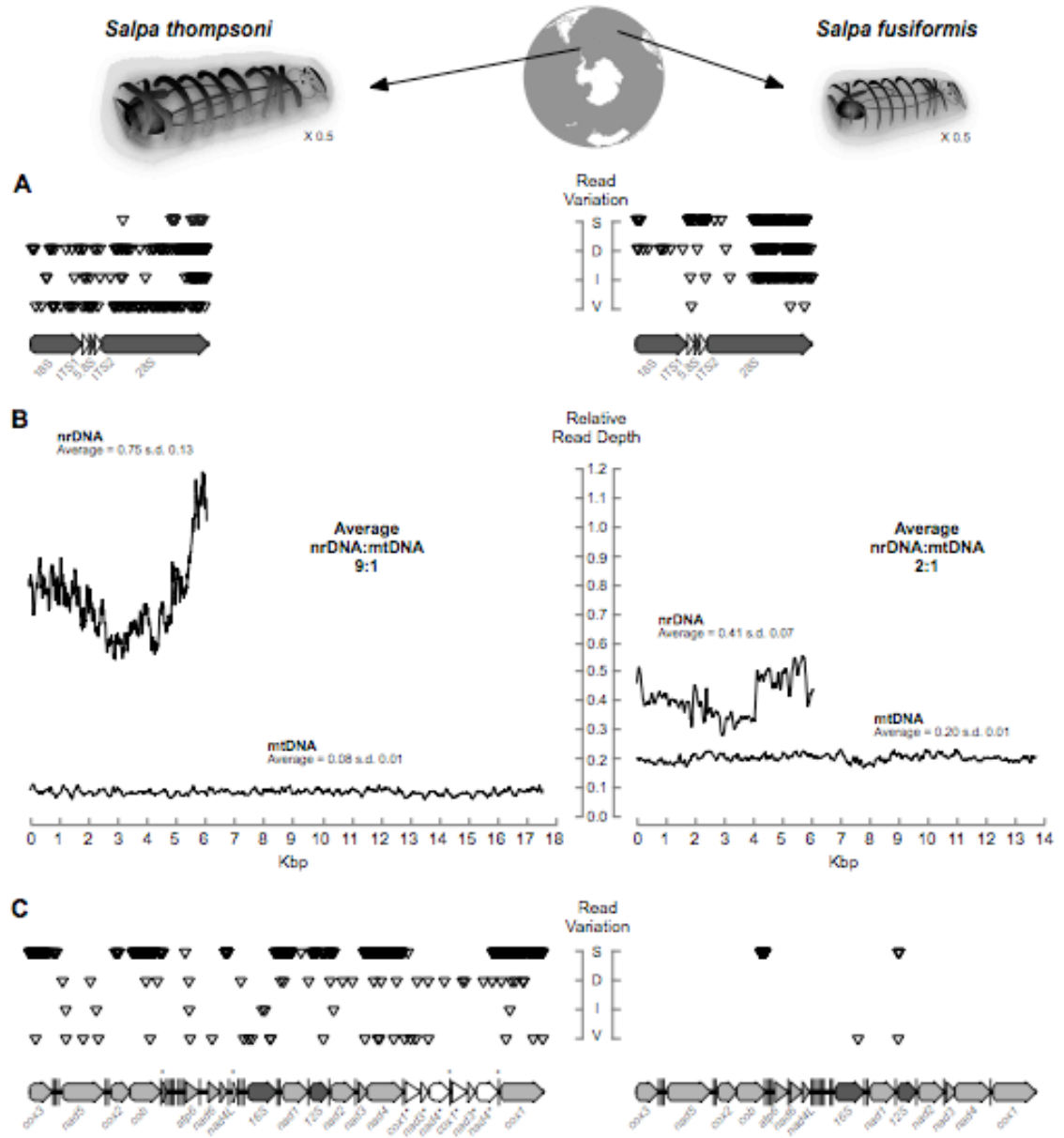
447

448 **Figure 1 Legend**

449 Variation (A, C) and relative abundance (B) along DNA sequences
450 comprising salp 45S nuclear ribosomal arrays and mitochondrial genomes. Relative
451 read depth is the proportion of total HiSeq reads mapped per nucleotide site
452 multiplied by 10,000. Read variation includes sites where >10% of mapped reads
453 contained a single nucleotide polymorphism (S); and sites where >0.1% mapped
454 reads contained deletions (D), insertions (I) or inversions (V); triangles mark the
455 mid-point of S, D, I, V feature junctions. Sampling locations and linear DNA
456 sequence maps are provided for reference; vertical bars indicate tRNA sites,
457 asterisks indicate duplicated DNA sequence features.

458

459 **Figure 1**



460