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### **Annotation and expression analysis of cuticular proteins from the tobacco hornworm, Manduca sexta**

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#### **Abstract**

The insect cuticle is a unique material that covers the exterior of the animal as well as lining the foregut, hindgut, and tracheae. It offers protection from predators and desiccation, defines body shape, and serves as an attachment site for internal organs and muscle. It has demonstrated remarkable variations in hardness, flexibility and elasticity, all the while being light weight, which allows for ease of movement and flight. It is composed primarily of chitin, proteins, catecholamines, and lipids. Proteomic analyses of cuticle from different life stages and species of insects has allowed for a more detailed examination of the protein content and how it relates to cuticle mechanical properties. It is now recognized that several groups of cuticular proteins exist and that they can be classified according to conserved amino acid sequence motifs. We have annotated the genome of the tobacco hornworm, *Manduca sexta*, for genes that encode putative cuticular proteins that belong to seven different groups: proteins with a Rebers and Riddiford motif (CPR), proteins analogous to peritrophins (CPAP), proteins with a tweedle motif (CPT), proteins with a 44 amino acid motif (CPF), proteins that are CPF-like (CPFL), proteins with an 18 amino acid motif (18 aa), and proteins with two to three copies of a  $C-X<sub>5</sub>-C$  motif (CPCFC). In total we annotated 248 genes, of which 207 belong to the CPR family, the most for any insect genome annotated to date. Additionally, we discovered new members of the CPAP family and determined that orthologous genes are present in other insects. We established orthology between the *M. sexta* and *Bombyx mori* genes and identified duplication events that occurred after separation of the two species. Finally, we utilized 52 RNAseq libraries to ascertain gene

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expression profiles that revealed commonalities and differences between different tissues and developmental stages.

#### **Keywords**

cuticular proteins; Rebers & Riddiford; RNAseq; orthology; *Manduca sexta*

#### **1. Introduction**

The insect exoskeleton (cuticle) is a remarkable extracellular structure secreted by epidermal cells that serves as the outer body covering. It helps to protect the insect from environmental stresses such as predators, parasites, abrasions, desiccation, and UV radiation. It also functions as an attachment site for internal muscles and organs, and is instrumental to locomotion and flight. The bulk of the cuticle is made primarily of a network of chitin embedded in a proteinaceous matrix, with water, catecholamines, and some lipids (Moussian, 2013). Despite what may seem like a limited pallet of materials, insects are able to synthesize cuticles that differ widely with respect to physical properties. Measurements of hardness have differed by more than 30 fold, while the stiffness of cuticle has been shown to vary by more than seven orders of magnitude (Klocke and Schmitz (2011) and references within; Vincent and Wegst, 2004). Investigations of the reasons behind these differences have focused on the role of dehydration and chemical cross-linking (Andersen, 2010; Sugumaran, 2010; Vincent 2009). However, it has been apparent for many years that differences exist between proteins extracted from different types of cuticle (hard versus soft), different developmental stages (i.e. larva, pupa, adult), as well as different time points (pre-molt versus post-molt) (Andersen *et al*., 1986, 1987, 1995a; Cox and Willis, 1985; Dittmer *et al*., 2012; Jensen *et al*., 1997; Kiely and Riddiford, 1985; Missios *et al*., 2000). Obtaining sequence information of these proteins was limited as it required either solubilization, purification, digestion, and sequencing of peptide fragments, or screening of cDNA expression libraries with antibodies raised against cuticle extracts in order to identify the proteins involved. Now, the emergence of large scale genomic, proteomic, and transcriptomic analyses has allowed for a renewed look at the importance of the protein content.

The first insect genome sequenced was that of *Drosophila melanogaster* (Adams *et al*., 2000); there are now 112 insect genome sequences available at NCBI. An analysis of 12 genomes by Ioannidou *et al*. (2014) suggested that genes encoding structural cuticular proteins (CP) represent on average 1% of the total protein-coding genes in insects. The total number of genes varied from 63 for *Pediculus humanus* to 301 for *Aedes aegypti*. These numbers, as well as those given for other insects, likely represent a minimum as most genomes have not gone through a rigorous manual annotation and rely on homology to other known CPs. Combining proteomics with genomics has been used to identify cuticular proteins for several insect species (Bae *et al*., 2011; Carrasco *et al*., 2011; Dittmer *et al*., 2012; Fu *et al*., 2011; He *et al*., 2007). Similarly, genomics and transcriptomics have contributed valuable information on CP gene expression, discerning variations in the timing (pre- or post-molt), developmental stage (larval, pupal, adult), and relative expression levels

of these genes (Cornman and Willis, 2009; Dittmer *et al*., 2012; Futahashi *et al*., 2008; Gallot *et al*., 2010; Liang *et al*., 2010; Okamoto *et al*., 2008; Suetsugu *et al*., 2013; Togawa *et al*., 2007, 2008).

Many CPs can be classified by the conserved sequence motifs they contain (Ioannidou *et al*., 2014; Willis *et al*., 2012). The largest group is known as CPs with the Rebers and Riddiford motif (CPR) that contain a core 28 amino acid sequence that is now recognized as part of a larger 63 amino acid consensus sequence (pfam00379) (Rebers and Riddiford, 1988; Willis *et al*., 2012). Variations in the extended consensus have been recognized, and CPs are often classified into one of three sub types: RR-1, RR-2, and RR-3. The number of CPR genes can vary greatly among species but many insects have more than 100 (Ioannidou *et al*., 2014). Additional groups having conserved sequence motifs include CPs analogous to peritrophins (CPAP) (Jasrapuria *et al*., 2010), CPs with a 44 amino acid motif (CPF) (Andersen *et al*., 1997; Togawa *et al*., 2007), CPF-like (CPFL) (Togawa et al., 2007), CPs with a Tweedle motif (CPT) (Guan *et al.*, 2006), CPs with two or three repeats of C-X<sub>5</sub>-C motif (CPCFC) (Jensen *et al*., 1997; Willis *et al*., 2012), and CPs with an 18 amino acid motif (Andersen, 2000; Nakato *et al*., 1990). Additionally, low-complexity proteins can be found in the cuticle that are rich in glycine or contain repeats of AAP(A/V), P(V/Y), GYGL, or GLLG (Willis *et al*., 2012). However, since these proteins lack any other distinctive sequences, presence of these repeats alone is not proof enough of their location in the cuticle. Excellent reviews on CPs can be found in Willis (2010) and Willis *et al*, (2012).

The goal of this research was to annotate the CP genes in the genome of the tobacco hornworm, *Manduca sexta*, with respect to the groups described above. These seven groups (CPR, CPAP, CPF, CPFL, CPT, CPCFC, and 18 aa motif) were chosen as they all contain conserved sequences previously shown to be present in known cuticular structural proteins and, therefore, can serve as a diagnostic feature. We compared the CP genes in *M. sexta*  with those of *Bombyx mori* (Futahashi *et al*., 2008) in order to identify orthologs. Finally, we utilized 52 RNAseq libraries prepared from various tissues and developmental stages to look for patterns of coordinated expression among the CP genes. This analysis offers new insights into the CPs present in cuticle synthesized at different times and developmental stages.

#### **2. Materials and Methods**

#### **2.1 CP gene annotation**

To identify putative CP genes, the *M. sexta* genome and first official gene set (OGS1), available from the Agricultural Pest Genomics Resource Database [\(www.agripestbase.org](http://www.agripestbase.org)), were searched by tBLASTn (Altschul *et al*., 1997) with the following sequences: for the CPR family, the consensus sequence GxFxYxxPDGxxxxVxYxADENGYQPxGAHLP was used to identify the RR-1 subtype, and

EYDAxPxYxFxYxVxDxHTGDxKSQxExRDGDVVxGxYSLxExDGxxRTVxYTADxxNG FNAVVxxE was used to identify the RR-2 subtype (Figure 3 in Willis *et al*., 2005); classification into the appropriate subfamily was confirmed by the use of a profile hidden Markov model that discriminates between the two subtypes, available at the cuticleDB website [\(biophysics.biol.uoa.gr/cuticleDB/](http://biophysics.biol.uoa.gr/cuticleDB/), Karouzou et al., 2007). For the CPAP family,

the *Tribolium castaneum* CPAP1-D (GenBank ACY95469) and CPAP3-A1 (GenBank ACY95475) sequences were used to identify CPAP family members. CPF genes were identified using the most highly conserved portion of the 44 amino acid motif, VSxYSKAVDTPFSSVRKxDxRIVNxA, (derived from Figure 1B in Togawa *et al*., 2007). CPFL genes were identified with the sequence LxYSAAPAVSHVAYxGxGxxYGW (derived from Figure 3 in Togawa *et al*., 2007). For Tweedle genes, the 100 amino acid weblogo sequence from Figure 3A in Willis (2010) was used to identify homologs. The sequence YPAGVNPAACPNYPYCD was used to identify members of the CPCFC family, and PVDTPEVAAAKAAHFAAH was used to identify genes encoding CPs with the 18 amino acid motif (Figure 4C and 4B in Willis, 2010).

For all genes except those of the CPAP family, names were assigned based on putative orthology to *B. mori* homologs. Reciprocal BLAST was performed to confirm that the *B. mori* protein identified as the top hit to a *M. sexta* query identified the same *M. sexta* protein as the top hit when it was used as the query sequence. Orthology was further established through the use of microsynteny. When the genes flanking a CP gene were homologous between *B. mori* and *M. sexta*, the CP genes were considered to be orthologous; identification of genes surrounding *B. mori* CP genes was inferred from the Gene Report page at NCBI associated with that particular CP gene. Because the CPAP genes in *B. mori*  have not been annotated yet, naming of the *M. sexta* CPAP genes was based on a phylogenetic analysis of homologous proteins from several insect species; a detailed description of this analysis can be found in Tetreau *et al*. (2014, this issue).

#### **2.2 Phylogenetic analysis**

Phylogenetic analysis was performed using the corresponding protein sequence of selected genes from the CPR, CPAP, and CPFL groups. Details of the CPAP analysis can be found in a companion paper (Tetreau *et al*., 2014, this issue). Analysis was performed using MEGA software (v5.2.1; Tamura *et al*., 2011). Sequences were aligned globally using the ClustalW program in MEGA and then adjusted manually by eye. For the CPR group, the extended RR domain (pfam00379) was used; RR-1 and RR-2 subgroups were treated separately. For the CPFL group, the entire sequence of the *M. sexta* and *B. mori* proteins were used. Trees were constructed by the neighbor-joining method with a Poisson correction model. Gaps were treated by the pairwise deletion method and statistical analysis was performed by the bootstrap method using 1000 repetitions.

#### **2.3 CP gene expression**

Fifty-two RNAseq libraries had been prepared from various tissues and developmental stages as part of the Manduca Genome Sequencing Project (GenBank assembly accession number GCA\_000262585.1). The libraries were sequenced by Illumina technology either at the Weill Cornel Medical College or the Baylor College of Medicine Human Genome Sequencing Center. The RNAseq reads were trimmed to 50 base pair and mapped onto the predicted open reading frame of the CP genes. Transcript abundance was determined by the FPKM method (fragments per kilobase of transcript per million fragments mapped). Read mapping and determination of FPKM values were performed using the RSEM software package (v1.2.12) (Li and Dewey, 2011). (The expression data for all genes in the *M. sexta* 

OGS2 can be downloaded at [ftp://ftp.bioinformatics.ksu.edu/pub/Manduca/OGS2/](ftp://ftp.bioinformatics.ksu.edu/pub/Manduca/OGS2/OSU_files/) [OSU\\_files/](ftp://ftp.bioinformatics.ksu.edu/pub/Manduca/OGS2/OSU_files/), file 20140508RSEM\_OGS2\_Gene\_FPKM.xlsx.) The FPKM values ranged from 0 to greater than 10,000 and gene expression was grouped as follows: less than 1, no expression;  $1 - 10$ , very low expression;  $10 - 100$ , low expression;  $100 - 1000$ , moderate expression; 1,000 – 10,000, high expression; greater than 10,000, very high expression. Hierarchical clustering of CP gene expression was performed using MultiExperiment Viewer (v4.9) (Saeed *et al*., 2003) with the Pearson correlation-based metric and average linkage clustering method.

#### **3. Results and Discussion**

**3.1.1 CP gene annotation—**Our analysis of OGS1 identified 206 gene models that belong to seven different CP groups (CPR, CPAP, CPF, CPFL, CPT, CPCFC, 18 aa motif). However, upon annotation of these models it became apparent that 28 of them likely represented 44 genes that had been incorrectly spliced. An additional 26 genes, for which no OGS1 gene model was predicted, were identified by searching the *M. sexta* genome sequence. These findings were incorporated during the development of OGS2 and increased the total number of gene models to 276 (Table 1). Some of these models are likely allelic variants of the same gene. For example, *Msex2.14790* encodes a partial *CPR* gene that is 98% identical at the nucleotide level, and 100% identical at the amino acid level, to *Msex2.11885* (*MsCPR38*). Furthermore, *Msex2.14790* is on a small scaffold of ∼2000 nucleotides which is 94% identical at the nucleotide level to position 14,274 - 16,027 of scaffold00529, where *Msex2.11885* resides. Thus it was judged to be an allelic variant of *Msex2.11885*.

Additionally, some CP genes were also split between multiple gene models due to gaps in the genome assembly (supplementary file 1). This was evident for *MsCPAP3-B*. Both *Msex2.08808* and *15015* show high sequence identity at the amino acid level (80% and 96% respectively) with obstructor-B (i.e. CPAP3-B) from *Papilio xuthus* (GenBank BAM17933). Interestingly, Msex2.08808's shared identity with PxObst-B covers amino acids 1-110 and 245-291, while Msex2.15015 aligns with residues 113-242. An examination of the genomic sequence for *Msex2.08808* reveals a gap between exons 3 and 4 which likely contains the missing exons encoding residues 111-244 present in Msex2.15015. Thus, the correct sequence for *MsCPAP3-B* is a composite of *Msex2.08808* and *Msex2.15015*. This conclusion is supported by the RNAseq data assembled by the Trinity software package which predicts a 1.24 kb transcript encoding a 296 amino acid protein that is the same as the composite sequence and 87% identical to PxObst-B (data not shown). (*Msex2.14185*  encodes for a protein that is 99% identical at both the amino acid and nucleotide levels with Msex2.15015 and therefore was judged to be an allele.) After accounting for multiple gene models representing the same gene, we identified 248 distinct *CP* genes in *M. sexta*.

**3.1.2 CPR genes—**Two-hundred and seven of the annotated genes belong to the CPR family: 79 RR-1, 124 RR-2, and 4 RR-3 (Table 1). This represents the largest number of CPR genes in any insect genome annotated to date and is 36% greater than the number of CPR genes in the silkworm *B. mori*: 56 RR-1, 93 RR-2, and 4 RR-3; 149 were originally annotated by Futahashi et al. (2008) including the misclassified CPH5, three more were

added by Liang et al. (2010), and one additional gene, LOC101743422, was discovered in our analysis. Similar to observations for other insects (Cornman *et al*., 2008; Dittmer *et al*., 2012; Gallot *et al*., 2010; Liang *et al*., 2010), many of the genes occurred in clusters: 55 of the RR-1 genes were found in clusters of 11-17 genes on four scaffolds (00081, 00136, 00224, 00529), while 86 of the RR-2 genes were found in clusters of 8-26 genes on six scaffolds (00006, 00227, 00685, 00717, 01004, 01013) (Table 1).

As automated annotation is being carried out on several sequenced lepidopteran genomes, *B*. *mori* genes are frequently the top hit resulting in some continuity in gene naming among the lepidoptera. We endeavored to continue this practice by naming the *M. sexta CP* genes based on their deduced orthology to *B. mori* as determined by sequence identity, phylogenetic analysis, and microsynteny. For some of the *M. sexta* genes no clear orthology with *B. mori* could be established. For others, gene duplication resulted in multiple *M. sexta*  genes being orthologous to a single *B. mori* gene. In these cases, new CPR numbers were assigned that begin with *CPR152*. Therefore, the CPR gene numbering went as high as *CPR250* even though there are only 207 genes. Nevertheless, we believe that those numbered *CPR1* - *151* are orthologous to the *B. mori* gene with the same name.

We were able to assign orthology to 52 of the 56 *B. mori* RR-1 genes; only *BmCPR29*, *31*, *50*, and *53* did not have clear orthologs in *M. sexta*. (*BmCPR50* and *53* may be orthologs of *Msex2.04420* and *06326* but this could not be confirmed by synteny, therefore, the *M. sexta*  genes were given the names *CPR159* and *162*). Sixteen of the additional RR-1 genes in *M. sexta* likely arose through duplication of just four genes: *MsCPR2*, *13*, *41*, and *46* (boxed in grey in Table 1). For example, in *B. mori* the five genes *CPR41-46* are flanked by *CPG21*  on one end and *ORC3* and *T-related protein-like* on the other (Figure 1). These same three genes in *M. sexta* flank a cluster of 17 *CPR* genes on scaffold00136. BLAST results and phylogenetic analysis indicate that *Msex2.06320* and *06321* are co-orthologs of *BmCPR41*, *Msex2.06322* – *06325* are orthologous to *BmCPR42-45*, and *Msex2.06327* – *06336* are all most closely related to *BmCPR46*. As no ortholog could be identified by sequence similarity or phylogenetic analysis, *Msex2.06336* was given the name *MsCPR46* because of its location and orientation with respect to *ORC3* and *T-related protein-like*. Similar analysis indicates that *Msex2.00115* and *00116* are paralogs of *Msex2.00117* (*MsCPR2*), and *Msex2.08403* – *08406* are paralogs of *Msex2.08402* (*MsCPR13*).

Determining orthology among the RR-2 genes was more difficult as only 51 of the 93 RR-2 genes in *B. mori* had clear one- to-one orthologs in *M. sexta*. Interestingly, orthology could be established to most of the *B. mori* genes from *CPR57* – *84* and *121* – *145*; it was only for *CPR85* – *120* (with the exception of *90* and *91*) that direct orthology could not be conclusively resolved, although groups of relatedness were apparent. Phylogenetic analysis showed that 11 genes clustered on scaffold00685 (*Msex2.12553* – *12561*, *15538*, *15539*, which we have named *MsCPR183* – *193*) were most similar to *BmCPR85* – *89* (Figure S1). The common node for these two groups suggest that they arose from a common ancestral gene and that duplication after speciation gave rise to additional genes. This conclusion is further supported by the location of *MsCPR183* – *193* between genes *MsCPR84*  (*Msex2.12552*) and *MsCPR90* (*Msex2.12562*) on scaffold00685, thus making it likely that

they would be related to *BmCPR85* – *89*. Similar homologous groupings are shown in Table 2 and Figure S2.

Four RR-3 genes were identified, *Msex2.06360*, *11251*, *07106*, and *04414*, that all have orthologs in *B.mori* (*CPR146* – *149*). *BmCPR149* was originally annotated as encoding an RR-2 protein (GenBank ACY06906), however, we have classified the M.sexta gene as an RR-3 based on greater sequence identity with the RR-3 consensus sequence (Andersen, 2000; data not shown). MsCPR149 is unique in that it encodes a protein with two RR domains, one each at the N- and C-termini of the protein; this model is supported by the RNAseq data suggesting that it is not an error in the gene assembly resulting from the fusion of two adjacent genes. It is similar to CPR58 of Nansonia vitripennis (GenBank XP\_001601627) which has a comparable domain architecture (Willis, 2010).

**3.1.3 CPAP genes—**The second largest group of *CP* genes annotated was the *CPAPs*. *CPAPs* are classified according to the number of peritrophin A-type chitin binding domains they contain, with CPAP1 proteins containing one domain and CPAP3 proteins containing three domains (Jasrapuria *et al*., 2010). The *CPAP3* genes were first recognized in *D. melanogaster* and alternately named *gasp* (gene analogous to small peritrophins) and *obstructor* (Barry et al., 1999; Behr and Hoch, 2005). This family of genes was further divided into two groups consisting of *obstructor-A – E*, and  $F - J$ . Genes orthologous to *obst-A* – *E* have been identified in other insects while *obst-F* – *J* have only been described for *D. melanogaster*. The related *CPAP1* genes were identified and characterized by Jasrapuria *et al*. (2010) and contained ten family members named *CPAP1-A* – *J*.

We identified 15 putative *CPAP1* genes and 10 *CPAP3* genes (Table 1). This is greater than the 10 *CPAP1* and 7 *CPAP3* genes described from *T. castaneum* for which the most extensive annotation of this gene family has been carried out (Jasrapuria *et al.*, 2010). Since similar work had not yet been performed for *B. mori*, we named the *M. sexta* genes based on orthology to *T. castaneum* and homologous genes in other insects. This analysis is described in a companion paper detailing the different groups of proteins containing peritrophin Atype chitin-binding domains in *M. sexta* (Tetreau *et al*., 2014, this issue) but will be summarized here. *M. sexta* has orthologs to 9 of the 10 *CPAP1* genes in *T. castaneum* with *1-E* being the exception. The six additional *CPAP1* genes in *M. sexta* all have orthologs in other insect species and we have named these *CPAP1-B2* and *1-K* – *O*. *M. sexta* has orthologs to all seven of the *CPAP3* genes in *T. castaneum*, and phylogenetic analysis shows that the three additional genes cluster with *CPAP3-E* and, therefore, we have named them *E2* – *E4*; it should be noted that *MsCPAP3-E2* (*Msex2.03294*) is not orthologous to *Obst-E2*  of *D. melanogaster* as the latter is a spliced isoform of the *Obst-E* gene while the former is a separate gene distinct from *MsCPAP3-E1* (*Msex2.03293*). Similar to what Jasrapuria *et al*. (2010) reported for *T. castaneum*, the *CPAP3-C* ortholog of *M. sexta* (*Msex2.08810*) has the potential for alternative splicing of exon 5, giving rise to two different proteins. Eight of the ten *CPAP3* genes are present in tandem arrays on two scaffolds: *A1*, *A2*, *D1*, *B*, and *C* on scaffold00255 (with one gene between *B* and *C*), and *E1* – *E3* on scaffold00068. The CPAP1 genes don't exhibit the same clustering characteristic although *B1* and *B2* are

adjacent on scaffold00007, while *H*, *F*, and *N* are grouped on scaffold00032 (with one gene between *F* and *N*) (Table 1).

In general, very little annotation of these genes has been carried out for insect genomes. Recently, Ioannidou and co-workers (2014) developed profile hidden Markov models to identify CPAP and other cuticle structural proteins from sequenced genomes and applied this analysis to 14 arthropod genomes (12 insect and 2 crustacean). The number of putative *CPAP* genes identified ranged from 10 to 20 for *CPAP1* and from 5 to 12 for *CPAP3*  (supplementary file 2 in Ioannidou *et al*., 2014). Combining our analysis of *M. sexta* with their analysis of several insect genomes allowed us to assign orthology to the *CPAP* genes from eight insect species (Table 3). The *CPAP3* genes had the highest degree of conservation, with *Acyrthosiphon pisum*, *Apis mellifera*, *B. mori*, *M. sexta*, and *T. castaneum*  all having orthologs to the seven described genes. *Anopheles gambiae* and *P. humanus* had orthologs to six of these genes with both lacking an ortholog to *CPAP3-A2*, although *A*. *gambiae* appears to have two duplications of *CPAP3-A1* and *P. humanus* a duplication of *CPAP3-D1* (Table 3). Interestingly, we observed that the gene model *PHUM434540* appears to be a fusion of two genes with the 5-prime half orthologous to *CPAP3-B* and the 3-prime half orthologs to *CPAP3-A1*. As detailed by Behr and Hoch (2005), *D. melanogaster* has five *CPAP3* (a.k.a. *obstructor*) genes, lacking orthologs to *CPAP3-A2* and *CPAP3-D2*.

More interspecies variability was observed with the *CPAP1* genes. Of the original ten genes described by Jasrapuria *et al*. (2010), the number of genes present in the eight species analyzed varied from five (*A. pisum*) to ten (*T. castaneum*), with most having eight or nine (Table 3). All eight species had orthologs to the newly described *CPAP1-B2* branch, and at least three orthologs to *CPAP1-K* – *O* groups. A few genes from *A. pisum*, *A. mellifera*, and *P. humanus* could not be clearly grouped within any of the 16 CPAP1 branches and were left unclassified. It should be noted that although both our analysis (this report and Tetreau *et al*., 2014, this issue) and that of Ioannidou *et al*. (2014) independently verified the close relationship of the new members of the CPAP1 group to the original ten genes described previously for *T. castaneum*, the presence of the encoded proteins in the cuticle must still be established (and hence are they truly cuticle proteins). The *D. melanogaster* ortholog to *CPAP1-K* (*CG7549*), alternately known as *mind-the-gap (mtg)*, is expressed in neuronal cells and encodes a protein critical for the organization of the synaptic extracelluar matrix of neuromuscular junctions (Rohrbough *et al*., 2007; Rushton *et al*., 2012). Interestingly, *mtg*  null mutants, which die during the embryonic stage, exhibit a weakened cuticle and herniated hindgut phenotype (Rohrbough *et al*., 2007). This phenotype can be rescued by ubiquitous expression of a wildtype transgene (Rushton *et al*., 2009). According to FlyBase, moderate levels of *mtg* expression was also detected in the larval hindgut, tracheae, and carcass, all cuticle expressing tissues. Thus, it seems that *mtg*, and possibly other CPAPs, may have multiple roles.

**3.1.4 Other CP genes—**All of the remaining CP genes we annotated had identifiable orthologs in *B. mori* (Table 1). *M. sexta* and *B. mori* each have four *CPT* genes, one *CPCFC*  gene, and one *CPF* gene. *B. mori* has five genes with the 18 amino acid motif (*BmCPH14*, *15*, *16*, *30*, and *31*) whereas *M. sexta* has only four. An examination of the protein sequences

reveals that BmCPH14 and 15 are 92% identical and likely resulted from a gene duplication event that did not occur in *M. sexta*. The *M. sexta* ortholog (Msex2.01072) had a slightly higher sequence identity to BmCPH15 and, therefore, was given that name. Whereas six *CPFL* genes were identified in *M. sexta*, only four were in *B. mori*. The corresponding proteins of genes *Msex2.04035*, *04036*, and *04037* were all similar to BmCPFL4. Msex2.04036 had the highest sequence similarity and was designated the ortholog; the remaining two genes were named *MsCPFL5* and *MsCPFL6*.

#### **3.2 CP gene expression**

Fifty-two RNAseq libraries were created to provide transcript information to aid in the annotation of the genome. We sought to take advantage of this information to examine the expression profiles of the CP genes across multiple tissues and developmental stages. One caveat is that a majority of the libraries were created from tissues collected during the postmolt period. Thus, expression data of genes expressed primarily or exclusively during premolt (pharate) stages is limited. A second complication concerns the potential (if not likely) contamination of non-cuticle synthesizing samples with cuticle expressing tissues such as trachea or epidermis during the collection process. For example, we would not expect CP genes to be expressed in fat body, midgut, Malpighian tubules, or muscle. However, these samples may also contain pieces of epidermis or trachea and, therefore, CP gene expression was observed in some of these libraries. Finally, most libraries were sequenced only once, thus caution is advised when interpreting expression levels. (Four libraries were sequenced by both paired-end reads and single-end reads: midgut 5<sup>th</sup> instar wandering, and abdominal muscle (proleg)  $5<sup>th</sup>$  instar at 12 h, pre-wandering, and wandering stages.)

The average number of CP genes expressed across all libraries was 88, with a minimum of 6, a maximum of 216, and a median of 72 (Figure 2A). The libraries with the highest number of CP genes expressed were the whole head and abdominal muscle (proleg) libraries of  $4<sup>th</sup>$  instar larva after head capsule slippage (HCS, i.e. pharate  $5<sup>th</sup>$  instar), each with 216 genes, while the library with the fewest CP genes expressed was prepared from adult midguts 3 -5 days post eclosion (6 genes). In total, 21 libraries had "above average" (> 88 genes) expression. This includes the 11 whole head libraries, the 5 libraries prepared form eggs or whole larvae ( $1<sup>st</sup>$  through  $3<sup>rd</sup>$  instar), 3 of the abdominal muscle (proleg) libraries  $(4<sup>th</sup> instar HCS and 5<sup>th</sup> instar 12 h)$ , midgut from 3<sup>rd</sup> instar HCS, and fat body from 4<sup>th</sup> instar HCS and pupa days 15-18; the latter three libraries would not be predicted to have abundant CP gene expression but this may be an indication of contamination from trachea or epidermis.

The libraries having the highest levels of CP transcripts (as judged by total FPKM values) are predictably from tissues enriched for epidermal cells; namely whole heads, whole larvae, or muscle scraped from the abdominal body wall either just prior to or just after molting (Figure 2B). CPR RR-1 transcripts dominated most libraries, having the highest total FPKM values in all but nine libraries (Table 4). Genes from RR-1, RR-2, CPH, and CPFL all had high levels of expression in the whole head libraries (supplementary file 1) with RR-2 having the highest transcript levels in the 4<sup>th</sup> instar HCS library and CPH the highest in adult day 1. On average, the top ten expressed genes in each library accounted for nearly 77% of

the CP transcripts, and we view them as representing the major CPs expressed in that library. We compared the top ten expressed genes in various libraries to identify differences and commonalities between them. Transcripts for RR-1 genes *CPR154* and *156*, the RR-2 gene *CPR63*, and genes *CPH1* and *CPH15* (CPCFC and 18 aa groups, respectively) are among the top ten in most post-molt larval head libraries but not adult. Conversely, *CPR19*, *23*, *37*, *CPH30*, and *CPH31* are more highly expressed in the adult head than in the larva (Table 5). In contrast, *CPFL1* and *Msex2.02570* were commonly found in both the larval and adult whole head libraries. (*Msex2.02570* encodes a low complexity protein that is not a member of the CP groups discussed here but it is annotated in GenBank as a pupal cuticle protein; accession number AY585211.) Only two of the whole head libraries were made from tissue collected pre-molt. For the  $4<sup>th</sup>$  instar HCS (pharate  $5<sup>th</sup>$  instar) library, six of the ten most highly expressed genes were RR-2, as compared to only two in the post-molt larval whole head libraries. A different pattern was observed when comparing the pre-molt adult head library (pupa days 21-22) with post-molt adult head libraries in which many of the top expressed genes were the same (*CPR19*, *23*, *37*, *67*, *CPH30*, *31*, and *CPFL1*) (Table 5).

Differences between pre-molt and post-molt CP expression were also observed with the 3 day old eggs (pharate  $1<sup>st</sup>$  instar) and the whole larva libraries ( $1<sup>st</sup>$  through  $3<sup>rd</sup>$  instars 1 day post-molt). The whole larva libraries shared seven genes in common among the top ten (RR-1 genes *CPR2*, *3*, *4*, *5*, *154*, *156*, and *170*) of which only two (*CPR3* and *4*) were also highly expressed in 3 day old eggs. Top CP expressing genes in 3 day old eggs include *CPT2*, *CPT3*, *CPAP3-A1* and *CPAP3-Ca* (supplementary file 1). Differences between premolt and post molt CP expression was not seen with the three libraries from abdominal muscle (proleg) having high CP transcript levels (4<sup>th</sup> instar HCS and 5<sup>th</sup> instar 12 h both single and paired end reads); CPR RR-1 transcripts dominated the list with six of the top ten genes the same between the three libraries (*CPR3*, *4*, *46*, *154*, *156*, and *163*; supplementary file 1). Common top expressed genes among the larval libraries (whole head, whole larvae, abdominal muscle) include the RR-1 genes *CPR3*, *4*, *5*, *154*, and *156* (supplementary file 1 and Fig S3). In a similar fashion, the corresponding genes in *B. mori* (*BmCPR2-5*) were among the top expressing genes during the pre- and post-molt 5<sup>th</sup> instar larval stage (Okamoto et al., 2008). Recently, Qiao and coworkers (2014) identified *BmCPR2* as the gene responsible for the *stony* mutant in *B. mori*. This mutation lead to significant defects in cuticle extension, tensile strength, larval mobility, and body shape. It was also observed for *B. mori* that *CPR46* was highly expressed post-molt in larval epidermis. As noted in section 3.1.2, the *M. sexta* ortholog to *CPR46* has undergone gene expansion that encompasses 10 genes, *CPR46* and *CPR163* – *171* (Table 1). Members of this co-orthologous group appear as top expressed genes in many of the post-molt larval libraries in *M. sexta* as well (supplementary file 1).

Twenty of the annotated genes showed no expression in any of the libraries; 19 of these belong to the CPR RR-2 group and one belonged to the CPR RR-1 group (see supplementary file 1). Furthermore, 10 of these 20 genes belonged to the same cluster of related genes (group 4 in Table 2). An additional 29 genes were not detected in at least 47 of the 52 libraries (90%), with 22 of these belonging to the CPR RR-2 group; 8 of these had established orthology with *B. mori* genes (with CPR numbers between 121 – 145) while 7

belonged to a cluster whose orthology could not be established. The lone CPF gene in *M. sexta, Msex2.05601*, was not detected in 48 of the libraries, but had high expression in the whole head library from pupa day  $21 - 22$  (pharate adult) and then decreased thereafter (low expression in adult day 1 whole head and very low expression in adult days 3 and 7 whole head libraries). Similarly, transcripts for *CPAP3-E4* (*Msex2.14886*) were detected at moderate levels in 3 h old eggs but no other libraries. These results suggest that genes showing very low or no expression in most (or all) libraries may have a restricted tissue or temporal expression, or that they may be pseudogenes.

Clustering analysis was performed to identify genes that had similar expression patterns across all 52 libraries. Figure 3 shows selected profiles from this analysis. (A heat map depicting the grouping and relative expression levels of all the CP genes is shown in supplementary Figure S3.) One of the most striking observation was of eight genes that had low to moderate levels of expression in nearly all of the libraries, producing an "expression band" that extended the width of the heat map (Figure 3A and supplementary Figure S3). Five of the eight genes in this cluster belonged to the CPAP group (*CPAP1-C*, *1-H*, *1-M*, and *CPAP3-D2* and *3-Cb*) and two were RR-3 (*CPR146* and *149*). The nearly ubiquitous expression pattern of these genes suggests that they may be important for general cuticle synthesis or synthesis of tracheal cuticle. Another six genes were nearly exclusively expressed only in pre-molt libraries during larval development (the exception being expression in fat body from pupa days  $15 - 18$ ) (Figure 3B). Remarkably, three of the genes belonged to the Tweedle family (of which only four were found in *M. sexta*) and the other three are CPR RR-2 genes that are clustered together in the genome. Similar observations were reported for *B. mori* in that *CPT2-4* shared the same expression pattern with the highest expression occurring at the larval stage during the molt (Liang et al., 2010).

Several genes showed expression in just a few libraries such as whole heads 4<sup>th</sup> instar HCS and 3 day old eggs (Figure 3C). What these two libraries have in common is that they were prepared from tissue synthesizing larval head capsule cuticle pre-molt. The fact that those genes were not expressed in other larval pre-molt libraries that may contain tracheal or epidermis contamination such as fat body 4th instar HCS, midgut 3rd and 4th instars HCS, or abdominal muscle (proleg)  $4<sup>th</sup>$  instar HCS, suggests that those genes are not involved in synthesis of tracheal or body wall cuticle. Similarly, several genes were expressed almost exclusively in 4<sup>th</sup> instar whole heads and abdominal muscle (proleg) HCS libraries, indicating likely function in larval head capsule and body wall synthesis pre-molt (Figure 3D). Additional interesting patterns observed include restriction of expression to whole heads of  $5<sup>th</sup>$  instar day 2 and abdominal muscle (proleg)  $5<sup>th</sup>$  instar post-molt (Figure 3E), 3 day old eggs and midguts of  $2<sup>nd</sup>$  and  $3<sup>rd</sup>$  instar larvae (Figure 3F), and eggs 3 hours old (Figure 3G). Three of the four genes in the last example are the additional members of the CPAP3-E group found in *B. mori* and *M. sexta* but not the other species presented in Table 3. This time point is too early for embryonic or 1st instar cuticle synthesis (Konopova and Zrzavy, 2005; Ziese and Dorn, 2003) but the transcripts may be maternally loaded.

Combining reciprocal BLAST, phylogenetic analysis, and microsynteny proved an effective method for identifying orthologous CP genes between *M. sexta* and *B. mori*. The most challenging identification was for the CPR RR-2 group which appears to be undergoing duplication after speciation more often than for other CP genes. For the remaining groups examined, one to one orthology was more easily established. The 207 CPR genes identified are currently the most in any insect for which this type of annotation has been carried out (although recent analysis by Ioannidou et al. (2014) indicates that the yellow fever mosquito, *Aedes aegypti*, may have as many as 240), and is 37% more than the number of CPR genes identified in *B. mori*; it remains to be determined which number is more typical for the Lepidoptera. Our analysis has also expanded the number of genes in the CPAP1 group from 10 to 16 but the veracity of the new genes as true CPs must be confirmed.

The RNAseq libraries provided valuable data on gene expression. In most libraries, CPR RR-1 genes accounted for most of the CP gene transcripts but this may have been influenced by the number of libraries prepared from larval tissues (32 of 52) or post-molt tissues (40 of 52). RR-1 genes have been proposed to be more prevalent in soft cuticle than hard cuticle (Andersen, 2000). As larva are mostly soft bodied and cuticle synthesized post-molt is thought to undergo less (or no) sclerotization than cuticle synthesized pre-molt (Andersen *et al*., 1995b), this may account for the abundance of RR-1 transcripts detected. Additionally, trachea is a likely contamination of the libraries prepared from midguts, Malpighian tubules, and fat body. The flexibility needed may necessitate a less sclerotized tracheal cuticle and, therefore, it is reasonable to anticipate a greater number of RR-1 proteins. In *B. mori*, Okamoto and co-workers (2008) also found that the majority of CP transcripts from two larval EST libraries (a pharate  $5<sup>th</sup>$  instar and  $5<sup>th</sup>$  instar day 3) were from RR-1 genes. Nevertheless, several distinct patterns of CP gene expression were observed, with differences noted between larval and adult cuticle or pre-molt and post-molt cuticle. As the purpose of the RNAseq libraries was to aid in the genome annotation, it was desirable to sample multiple tissues at several time points and all developmental stages. As a consequence, careful selection of a single tissue (i.e. epidermis, trachea, or hard cuticle or soft cuticle) or more refined time points was not a necessity. A more meticulous collection on both accounts in future experiments may yield a better characterization of CP gene expression.

#### **Supplementary Material**

Refer to Web version on PubMed Central for supplementary material.

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- **•** 248 cuticular protein (CP) genes were annotated in *Manduca sexta*
- **•** Orthology was established between *M. sexta* and *Bombyx mori* CP genes
- **•** Gene expression was analyzed via 52 RNAseq libraries
- **•** Diverse expression was observed across various tissues and developmental stages



#### **Figure 1. Evidence of gene duplication in** *M. sexta*

(A) Alignment of *M. sexta* genes (green arrows) on scaffold00136 with the corresponding region in *B. mori* chromosome 22 (blue arrows). Filled arrows represent CPR genes while open arrows represent non-CPR genes; the arrows are only meant to show gene order and orientation and are not representative of gene size or distances between genes. The dashed red line denotes putative orthologs. (B) Phylogenetic analysis of the CPR genes shown in A. All branches with a bootstrap value less than 50 were collapsed.



#### **Figure 2. CP gene expression in the RNAseq libraries**

(A) Total number of CP genes expressed in each library. (B) Total FPKM values for CPR RR-1 and RR-2 genes in each library; the pattern looks the same when the total FPKM value for all CP genes is displayed. Red type indicates libraries prepared from pre-molt (pharate) stages.



#### **Figure 3. Selected expression patterns from cluster analysis**

The expression pattern of each CP gene across all 52 RNAseq libraries were grouped by cluster analysis as described in section 2.3. A – G highlight some of the unique expression patterns observed; a full heat map of all of the genes is shown in supplemental Figure S3. Red type indicates libraries prepared from pre-molt (pharate) stages.

**Table 1** *Manduca* **structural cuticle protein genes**

OGS2 Gene ID	Gene Name <sup>a</sup>	<b>Family</b>	Scaffold No. <sup>b</sup>
Msex2.07923	MsCPR1	CPR-RR1	scaffold00208
Msex2.00114	MsCPR154 (LCP14)	CPR-RR1	scaffold00003
Msex2.00115	MsCPR155	CPR-RR1	scaffold00003
Msex2.00116	MsCPR156	CPR-RR1	scaffold00003
Msex2.00117	MsCPR2	CPR-RR1	scaffold00003
Msex2.00118	MsCPR3	CPR-RR1	scaffold00003
Msex2.09274	<b>MsCPR4 (CP14.6)</b>	CPR-RR1	scaffold00267
Msex2.09273	MsCPR5	CPR-RR1	scaffold00267
Msex2.11639	MsCPR6	CPR-RR1	scaffold00482
Msex2.05318	MsCPR7	CPR-RR1	scaffold00107
Msex2.05319	MsCPR8	CPR-RR1	scaffold00107
Msex2.05320	MsCPR9 (CP20)	CPR-RR1	scaffold00107
Msex2.05189	MsCPR10	CPR-RR1	scaffold00106
Msex2.08400	MsCPR11	CPR-RR1	scaffold00224
Msex2.08401	MsCPR12	CPR-RR1	scaffold00224
Msex2.08402	MsCPR13	CPR-RR1	scaffold00224
Msex2.08403	MsCPR174	CPR-RR1	scaffold00224
Msex2.08404	MsCPR175	CPR-RR1	scaffold00224
Msex2.08405	MsCPR176	CPR-RR1	scaffold00224
Msex2.08406	MsCPR177	CPR-RR1	scaffold00224
Msex2.08407	MsCPR14	CPR-RR1	scaffold00224
Msex2.08408	MsCPR15 (CP36)	CPR-RR1	scaffold00224
Msex2.08409	MsCPR16 (CP27)	CPR-RR1	scaffold00224
Msex2.08410	MsCPR17	CPR-RR1	scaffold00224
Msex2.08411	MsCPR18	CPR-RR1	scaffold00224
Msex2.08412	MsCPR19	CPR-RR1	scaffold00224
Msex2.08413	MsCPR52	CPR-RR1	scaffold00224
Msex2.00741	MsCPR20	CPR-RR1	scaffold00009
Msex2.00742	MsCPR21	CPR-RR1	scaffold00009
Msex2.04086	MsCPR157	CPR-RR1	scaffold00073
Msex2.04415	MsCPR158	CPR-RR1	scaffold00081
Msex2.04416	MsCPR22	CPR-RR1	scaffold00081
Msex2.04417	MsCPR23	CPR-RR1	scaffold00081
Msex2.04418	MsCPR24	CPR-RR1	scaffold00081
Msex2.04419	MsCPR25	CPR-RR1	scaffold00081
Msex2.04420	MsCPR159	CPR-RR1	scaffold00081















*a* Gene names were assigned based on putative orthology to *B. mori*. Red type indicates genes in which one to one orthology could not be clearly established and, therefore, new gene numbers were assigned (MsCPR154-250). Blue type indicates genes previously deposited in GenBank (names given in parentheses). Genes boxed in gray identify expansion in *M. sexta* (putative paralogs) for which only a single ortholog occurs in *B. mori*.

*b* Scaffolds boxed in yellow or orange contain clusters of five or more CP genes.

*c* Genes MsCPR152 and 153 are orthologous to *B. mori* LOC101743422.





*a* See supplementary figure S2 for phylogenetic analysis

*b* See Table 1 for OGS2 Gene ID

# **Table 3**

 $\emph{CPAP}$  gene orthologs from eight insect species *CPAP* **gene orthologs from eight insect species**



Gene IDs were derived from Jasrapuria (2011) and Ioannidou et al. (2014) except for B. mori and D. melanogaster which were from GenBank or Behr and Hoch (2005), and M. sexta from this report. Gene IDs were derived from Jasrapuria (2011) and Ioannidou *et al*. (2014) except for *B. mori* and *D. melanogaster* which were from GenBank or Behr and Hoch (2005), and *M. sexta* from this report.

 $\overline{a}$ 





RR1 All others 32-402,401 30-90

*a* Total FPKM value for indicated CP group. *b* Relative to total FPKM value for all CP genes.

**Table 4 Most abundant CP group expressed per library**



**Top ten expressing CP genes in whole head libraries** Top ten expressing CP genes in whole head libraries<sup>a</sup>

**Table 5**



 $\ddot{\phantom{a}}$ 

 $a$  As determined by FPKM values; red type indicates RR-1 genes and blue type indicates RR-2 genes. *a*As determined by FPKM values; red type indicates RR-1 genes and blue type indicates RR-2 genes.