

De novo oviduct transcriptome of the moor frog *Rana arvalis*: a quest for maternal effect candidate genes

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Abstract

Maternal effects can substantially affect ecological and evolutionary processes in natural populations. However, as they often are environmentally induced, establishing their genetic basis is challenging. One important, but largely neglected, source of maternal effects are egg coats (i.e. the maternally derived extracellular matrix that surrounds the embryo). In *Rana arvalis*, ~~an emerging ecological and evolutionary amphibian model,~~ the gelatinous egg coats (i.e. egg jelly) are produced in the mother's oviduct and consist primarily of highly glycosylated mucin type O-glycans. These O-glycans affect jelly water balance and, subsequently, strongly contribute to adaptive divergence in embryonic acid tolerance.

To identify candidate genes for maternal effects, we conducted RNAseq transcriptomics on oviduct samples from seven *R. arvalis* females, representing the full range of within and among population variation in embryonic acid stress tolerance across our study populations. *De novo* sequencing of these oviduct transcriptomes detected 124 071 unigenes and functional annotation analyses identified a total of 57 839 unigenes, of which several identified genes likely code for variation in egg jelly coats. These belonged to two main groups: mucin type core protein genes and five different types of glycosylation genes. We further predict 26 711 gene-linked microsatellite (SSRs) and 231 274 single nucleotide (SNPs) polymorphisms.

Our study provides the first set of genomic resources for *R. arvalis*, an emerging model system for the studies of ecology and evolution in natural populations, and will aid in gaining insight to the genetic architecture of egg coat mediated maternal effects.

Background

Understanding evolutionary processes of natural populations necessitates a good understanding of the genetic architecture of trait variation in an ecologically relevant context (e.g. ~~(Houle et al. 2010; Mitchell-Olds et al. 2007; Nadeau & Jiggins 2010)~~(Houle et al. 2010; Mitchell-Olds et al. 2007; Nadeau & Jiggins 2010)). Maternal effects (the effects of ~~mothera~~ mother's environment and phenotype on offspring performance) are an important source of phenotypic variation and often under strong natural selection (reviewed in

~~(Mousseau & Fox 1998; Räsänen & Kruuk 2007)~~(Mousseau & Fox 1998; Räsänen & Kruuk 2007)). Maternal effects can influence speed and direction of evolution as well as facilitate local adaptation ~~(Hangartner et al. 2012; Räsänen & Kruuk 2007; Shu et al. 2016; Wolf et al. 1998)~~(Hangartner et al. 2012; Räsänen & Kruuk 2007; Shu et al. 2016; Wolf et al. 1998). However, as maternal effects are ~~often~~typically at least partially environmentally induced, their genetic architecture is ~~still~~ poorly understood.

Maternal effects can arise through various mechanisms, most commonly acknowledged through variation in egg size and content (reviewed in (Bernardo 1996; ~~Mousseau & Fox 1998~~Mousseau & Fox 1998). A much less well acknowledged but important source of maternal effects are so called egg coats ~~(Shu et al. 2015b)~~(Shu et al. 2015b). Egg coats, Egg coats (present in all sexually reproducing animals, as well as many asexual metazoans) are maternally derived, extracellular structures that consist of multiple functionally and structurally different layers (reviewed in ~~(Menkhurst & Selwood 2008; Shu et al. 2015b; Wong & Wessel 2006)~~(Menkhurst & Selwood 2008; Shu et al. 2015b; Wong & Wessel 2006)). These structures have many key functions, ranging from fertilization to embryonic protection ~~(Shu et al. 2015b)~~(Shu et al. 2015b). The genetic basis of the innermost, so called oocyte coats, has been studied in several model systems, such as sea urchins and the abalone (Claw & Swanson 2012; ~~Palumbi 2009~~Palumbi 2009), the moth *Bombyx mori* ~~(Papantonis et al. 2015)~~(Papantonis et al. 2015) and the frog *Xenopus laevis* ~~(Hedrick 2008; Shu et al. 2015b)~~(Hedrick 2008; Shu et al. 2015b). However, the genetic basis of the outeroutermost gelatinous egg coats—~~that surround embryos of many, often found in~~ taxa where embryos develop externally in the surrounding environment (e.g. various invertebrates, fish and amphibians)), is to date effectively unstudied (reviewed in (Shu et al. 2015b)).

Field Code Changed

~~Recently, we showed that in~~In the moor frog *Rana arvalis*, jelly coat mediated maternal effects have driven adaptive divergence in embryonic acid stress tolerance ~~(Hangartner et al. 2011; Persson et al. 2007; Räsänen et al. 2003; Shu et al. 2015a; Shu et al. 2016; Shu et al. 2015c)~~(Hangartner et al. 2011; Persson et al. 2007; Räsänen et al. 2003b; Shu et al. 2015a; Shu et al. 2016; Shu et al. 2015c). JellyThis divergence is primarily due to glycoproteins of the jelly coats, which influence water balance and, subsequently, embryonic survival in acidic conditions ~~(Shu et al. 2015a)~~(Shu et al. 2015a). Egg jelly ~~coats consist of~~glycoproteins, ~~with~~ are complex glycan structures attached to a protein backbone ~~(Hedrick & Nishihara 1991)~~(Hedrick & Nishihara 1991) and are highly species specific (Coppin et al. 1999; Delplace et al. 2002; ~~Strecker et al. 2003~~; Strecker et al. 2003). Given this complexity, the

95 jelly coats can be coded by multiple genes that regulate – for instance – the protein backbone
 96 and the activities of enzymes that impact how different branches are attached (~~Shu et al.~~
 97 ~~2015b~~)([Shu et al. 2015b](#)). This makes identifying the genetic basis of jelly coat variability
 98 highly challenging – particularly so in natural populations not amenable to experimental
 99 cross-generational rearing or genetic manipulations. Here next generation sequencing tools,
 100 in particular RNA-seq, can be helpful (~~Todd et al. 2016; Wang et al. 2009~~)([Todd et al. 2016;](#)
 101 [Wang et al. 2009](#)). Here we ~~apply~~[applied](#) *de novo* transcriptomics to get first insight to jelly
 102 coat genes in ~~the moor frog (*Rana*~~[R. arvalis](#)). We ~~conduct~~[conducted](#) tissue specific RNA-seq
 103 ~~on the oviducts~~ of *R. arvalis* [oviducts](#), where jelly coat biosynthesis takes place (~~Hedrick &~~
 104 ~~Nishihara 1991~~)([Hedrick & Nishihara 1991](#)).
 105 Despite the [increasing numbers of genomes being sequenced, the genomic resources for](#)
 106 [amphibians remain depauperate as are sparse and only two a handful of amphibian genomes](#)
 107 [\(*Xenopus tropicalis* and *Nanorana perkeri*\) have been sequenced so far \(Hellsten et al. 2010;](#)
 108 [Sun et al. 2015\)\(Elewa et al. 2017; Hammond et al. 2017; Hellsten et al. 2010; Nowoshilow](#)
 109 [et al. 2018; Sun et al. 2015\)](#). This is an important shortcoming, given that amphibians are
 110 common model systems for a range of ecotoxicological (~~Helbing 2012~~)([Helbing 2012](#)),
 111 ecological and evolutionary studies, the latter ranging from spatial patterns of phenotypic and
 112 genetic divergence (Egea-Serrano et al. 2014; ~~Richter-Boix et al. 2011; Van Buskirk & Arioli~~
 113 ~~2005~~)([Richter-Boix et al. 2011; Van Buskirk & Arioli 2005](#)) to developmental plasticity
 114 (~~Gomez-Mestre et al. 2006~~)([Gomez-Mestre et al. 2006](#)) and adaptive maternal effects
 115 (~~Mousseau & Fox 1998; Räsänen et al. 2003; Shu et al. 2016; Shu et al. 2015c~~)([Mousseau &](#)
 116 [Fox 1998; Räsänen et al. 2003b; Shu et al. 2016; Shu et al. 2015c](#)).
 117 To bridge this knowledge gap – and as a first step to identify candidate genes for egg coat
 118 mediated maternal effects - we here apply tissue specific transcriptomics on *R. arvalis*
 119 oviducts. In doing so, we complement recent transcriptomics studies on other [Ranid](#) species
 120 (Birol et al. 2015; ~~Helbing 2012; Price et al. 2015; Qiao et al. 2013; Zhang et al. 2013~~);
 121 [Helbing 2012; Price et al. 2015; Qiao et al. 2013; Robertson & Cornman 2014; Zhang et al.](#)
 122 [2013](#)) and increase availability of genomics resources for amphibians in general. As our
 123 specific interest is in identifying putative genes underlying egg jelly coat variation, we
 124 collected samples from the oviduct on seven *R. arvalis* individuals ~~bracketing~~[encompassing](#)
 125 the full range of embryonic acid tolerance variation among and within our study populations
 126 (~~Hangartner et al. 2011; Shu et al. 2015a; Shu et al. 2015c~~)([Hangartner et al. 2011; Shu et al.](#)
 127 [2015a; Shu et al. 2015c](#)). We implemented *de novo* transcriptome sequencing and, We

focused particularly on identifying genes related to biosynthesis of mucin type O-linked glycans. In addition, ~~we provide the first set of transcriptomic and genome wide molecular markers for *R. arvalis*; this study provides the first transcriptomes for *R. arvalis*, and add more genome wide markers in addition to existing resources (Brelsford et al. 2017).~~

Materials and Methods

Study system

R. arvalis is an anuran amphibian, broadly distributed across the western Palearctic (Glandt 2006). Individuals from three *R. arvalis* populations (Tottajärn, [T], Bergsjö, [B] and Stubberud, [S]) breeding in permanent ponds along an acidification gradient in southwestern Sweden were used in this study (~~Hangartner et al. 2011; Shu et al. 2015a; Shu et al. 2016; Shu et al. 2015b; Shu et al. 2015c~~)(Hangartner et al. 2011; Shu et al. 2015a; Shu et al. 2016; Shu et al. 2015b; Shu et al. 2015c). These ponds differ in pH due to a mix of natural acidification processes, variation in bedrock buffering capacity and acid rain (Räsänen et al. 2003a; Räsänen et al. 2003b). These populations were chosen ~~as~~because, based on former common garden experiments ((Hangartner et al. 2012; Shu et al. 2015c), they represent the extreme ends of adaptive divergence ~~along an acidification gradient in~~ embryonic acid stress tolerance (i.e. [S] most acid sensitive; [B] intermediate tolerance; [T] most acid tolerant; ~~(Hangartner et al. 2012; Shu et al. 2015c)~~). The pH in these ponds ranges from highly acidic (pH 4, site [T]) to intermediate (pH 6, site [B]) to neutral (pH 7.5, [S]).

During the breeding season of 2012, females in breeding condition were collected and transported to the laboratory at Uppsala University (59°50'N, 17°50'E). The females were maintained in containers with moist *Sphagnum* moss (antibacterial medium) in a climate chamber at 2- 4°C until artificial crosses (see below) and RNA sampling were conducted a few days later. The females used for this transcriptomics study consist of a subset (~~out of 7 to 10 females/population~~) ~~used in artificial crosses of females that were artificially crossed~~ to establish acid tolerance of embryos in a common garden laboratory experiment and to study variation in macromolecular composition of egg jelly coats (for details see ~~(Shu et al. 2016; Shu et al. 2015c)~~(Shu et al. 2016; Shu et al. 2015c)). The experiments were conducted under permissions from the Västra Götaland county board (collection permit: Dnr 522-6666-2011) and the Ethical committee (Dnr C65/11) for animal experiments in Uppsala County.

Sampling and RNA extraction

To bracket a broad range of genetic backgrounds, ~~the individuals chosen (a total N=6) for RNA analyses of six females~~ were ~~selected~~ chosen so as to represent females that produced the most acid tolerant (highest embryonic survival at acidic pH in a common garden experiment) and most acid sensitive ~~clutch~~ (lowest embryonic survival at acidic pH in a common garden experiment) clutches both among and within each of the three populations ~~in Shu et al. (Shu et al. 2015c); (Shu et al. 2016)~~. In addition, we included a sample from one female that had not yet fully ovulated, hence providing a reference for gene expression at an earlier stage of egg coat production- (Supplementary material). For each female, RNA of the whole oviduct (i.e. specific tissue where egg jelly is produced; ~~(Hedrick & Nishihara 1991)~~ (Hedrick & Nishihara 1991)) was collected- and stored in RNA later at -20 °C until extraction. RNA extraction was conducted using TRIzol (Life Technologies) according to the manufacturer's protocol, followed by DNase (Qiagen) treatment to eliminate potential genomic DNA contamination. Both the concentration and integrity of the RNA samples for transcriptomic analyses were evaluated with the Agilent 2100 Bioanalyzer. All samples had an RNA integrity value (RIN) > 8 and were, hence, used to construct the cDNA libraries (~~Schroeder et al. 2006~~) (Schroeder et al. 2006).

cDNA library construction and sequencing

cDNA libraries were generated using the TruSeq RNA-Seq Sample Prep kit according to the manufacturer's protocol (Illumina Inc., San Diego, CA, USA). Briefly, magnetic beads with Oligo₂(dT) were used to isolate the poly(A)⁺ mRNA. Fragmentation buffer was added in the presence of divalent cations to break the mRNA into short fragments of approximately 200 bp. Short fragments were purified with QiaQuick PCR extraction kit, followed by end reparation, adding poly(A) and sequencing adapters. The suitable fragments were selected for the PCR amplification as templates. In total, seven cDNA libraries were constructed and sequenced using the Illumina HiSeqTM 2000 (90 bp paired-end reads). The sequencing reactions were conducted at the Beijing Genomics Institute (BGI), Shenzhen.

Assembly and annotation

Raw reads were filtered to remove reads containing adaptors, reads with unknown nucleotides greater than 5% and low-quality reads with more than 20% bases of quality value ≤ 10 (filterfq, BGI). Only clean reads were used in the following analyses. Transcriptome *de novo* assembly was carried out using the assembly program Trinity (~~Grabherr et al. 2011~~) (Grabherr et al. 2011). Briefly, the software first combined reads of certain lengths of

191 overlap to form contigs. Subsequently, the reads were mapped back to the contigs, which
192 were connected until extension proceeded on neither end (~~Grabherr et al. 2011~~)(Grabherr et
193 al. 2011). After removing any redundancy, the resulted sequences were defined as unigenes.
194 Software and their parameters ~~are listed below~~were: Trinity (--seqType fq --
195 min_contig_length 100; --min_glue 4 --group_pairs_distance 250; --
196 path_reinforcement_distance 85 --min_kmer_cov 4); TGICL (-l 40 -c 10 -v 20); Phrap (-
197 repeat_stringency 0.95 -minmatch 35 -minscore 35).

198 Unigene annotation provides information of expression and functional annotation of Unigene.
199 Unigene sequences were first annotated using blastx against the database Nr
200 (<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/>), with a cut-off E-value of 1e-5. To acquire a more
201 comprehensive annotation, Unigene sequences were also aligned to the protein databases
202 Swiss-Prot, ~~KEGG~~Kyoto Encyclopedia of Genes and Genomes (KEGG) and Gene Ontology
203 (GO) (1e-5) by blastx. In order to predict and classify the possible functions of the unigenes,
204 they were additionally annotated to Cluster of Orthologous Group (COG), which classifies
205 orthologous gene products (Tatusov et al. 2003). Software and their parameters ~~are listed~~
206 ~~below~~were: BLAST (-F F -e 1e-5 -p blastn; -F F -e 1e-5 -p blastx); Blast2GO (Default);
207 Path_finder (Default).

208 **Protein Coding Sequence Prediction (CDS)**

209 Unigenes were aligned by blastx (e value < 0.00001) to protein databases in the priority order
210 of NR, Swiss-Prot, KEGG and COG. Unigenes aligned to a higher priority database were not
211 aligned to lower priority database. Proteins with highest ranks in the blast results were used
212 to decide the coding region sequences of the Unigenes. The coding region sequences were
213 subsequently translated into amino acid sequences with the standard codon table. This
214 produced both the nucleotide sequences (5'→3') and amino acid sequences of the Unigene
215 coding region. Unigenes that could not be aligned to any database were scanned by ESTScan
216 (~~Iseli et al. 1999~~)(Iseli et al. 1999), producing nucleotide sequence (5'→3') direction and
217 amino sequence of the predicted coding region.

218 **Metabolic pathway analysis**

219 To investigate the functions of the unigenes in metabolic process, we acquired pathway
220 annotation by mapping the unigenes to ~~Gene Ontology~~(GO) and ~~Kyoto Encyclopedia of~~
221 ~~Genes and Genomes~~ (KEGG) database (~~Kanehisa et al. 2008~~)(Kanehisa et al. 2008). Gene
222 ~~Ontology~~ (GO) database is a relational database, which has three ontologies: molecular

function, cellular component and biological process. KEGG is a database for understanding high-level functions and utilities of the biological system. It is able to analyze gene products during metabolism and cellular processes and allowed us to get pathway annotation for unigenes. We used the Blast2GO program with default setting to acquire GO and KEGG annotation of Unigenes (Tarazona et al. 2011).

Identification of candidate genes for maternal effects

Based on prior work, jelly coats of *R. arvalis* and other amphibians (Coppin et al. 1999; Guerardel et al. 2000; Strecker et al. 2003) mostly consist of mucin type O-glycans, making genes related to mucins and to O-glycan biosynthesis particularly relevant as maternal effect genes. Therefore we considered as candidate genes related to *R. arvalis* egg jelly coats (Shu et al. 2015b) (Shu et al. 2015b), we considered unigenes that i) were expressed in all individuals, ii) were mapped to the category of “extracellular matrix” in GO and KEGG annotations and iii) were involved in the glycosylation process of the egg jelly. Based on prior work, jelly coats of *R. arvalis* and other amphibians (Coppin et al. 1999; Guerardel et al. 2000; Strecker et al. 2003) mostly consist of mucin type O-glycans, making genes related to mucins and to O-glycan biosynthesis particularly relevant as maternal effect genes.

Preliminary differential expression analysis

Unigene expression was calculated using the FPKM (Fragments Per kb per Million reads), which can eliminate the influence of different gene length and sequencing level on the calculation of gene expression (Mortazavi et al. 2008) (Mortazavi et al. 2008). Group comparison between populations was performed using the R Bioconductor package NOISeq, which is a data-adaptive and nonparametric method (Tarazona et al. 2011) (Tarazona et al. 2011). We defined Probability ≥ 0.8 and the absolute value of Log2Ratio ≥ 1 as the threshold to judge the significance of gene expression difference between populations. KEGG enrichment analysis was performed with a Fisher’s exact test in Blast2GO (Tarazona et al. 2011) (Tarazona et al. 2011). Pathway enrichment analysis identifies significantly enriched metabolic pathways or signal transduction pathways in differential expressed genes (DEGs). After correction for multiple testing, we chose pathways with Q value ≤ 0.05 as significantly enriched in DEGs (Gotz et al. 2008; Tarazona et al. 2011) (Gotz et al. 2008; Tarazona et al. 2011).

Genetic marker resources

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To aid population genomic analyses for taxa where no genome is available, RNA-seq data can be used to identify genomic markers, such as *Simple sequence repeats* (SSR) and *Single nucleotide polymorphisms* (SNPs), in transcribed regions (~~Lopez-Maestre et al. 2016~~)(~~Lopez-Maestre et al. 2016~~). ~~Here we~~We therefore used the oviduct RNA-seq data to predict SSR and SNP markers, ~~to be~~which allows later ~~validated for validation of~~ targeted questions (~~Lopez-Maestre et al. 2016~~)(~~Lopez-Maestre et al. 2016~~), such as allelic frequency variation of the candidate genes in the source populations.

SSRs were identified in the final assembly with the software MicroSATellite (MISA, <http://pgrc.ipk-gatersleben.de/misa/>) using unigenes as the reference. Assembled contigs were scanned for SNPs with SNP detection software SOAPsnp (~~Li et al. 2008~~)(~~Li et al. 2008~~). The program can assemble consensus sequence for the genome of a newly sequenced individual based on the alignment of the raw sequencing reads on the unigenes. The program calculated the likelihood of each genotype at each site based on the alignment of short reads to a unigene, set together with the corresponding sequencing quality scores. It then infers the genotype with highest posterior probability at each site based on Bayes' theorem (the reverse probability model (~~Li et al. 2008~~)(~~Li et al. 2008~~)). Therefore, the intrinsic bias or errors that are common in Illumina sequencing data have been taken into account and the quality values for use in inferring consensus sequence have been recalibrated. Software and their parameters ~~are listed below~~were: SOAPsnp (Release 1.03, <http://soap.genomics.org.cn/soapsnp.html>, -u t -Q i -L 90).

Additional analyses

To test whether embryonic acid tolerance is related to the transcriptional activity, we performed correlation analysis between the acid tolerance of each individual and the expression of each unigene (FPKM) by PYTHON. A strict correlation threshold was applied (Pearson correlation, $|r| > 0.9$ and p-value < 0.01). To test how much of the fluke genomes our *R. arvalis* dataset cover, we downloaded the genomes of 3 flukes (*Clonorchis sinensis*, *Schistosoma mansoni*, *Schistosoma japonicum*) from the wormbase (<https://parasite.wormbase.org/>), and BLAST them (BLATP, E-value $< 1e-7$) against our unigenes dataset. To examine whether there are any hits from our database to the recently developed transcriptomic resources for the green frog *Rana clamitans* and chorus frog *Pseudacris regilla* (Robertson & Cornman 2014), we downloaded the assembled transcriptomes from NCBI BioProjects (PRJNA162931 and PRJNA163143), and used them as query to blast against our Unigene database (BLASTX, E-value $< 1e-7$).

287 Results

288 Sequencing and assembly

289 In total, 53 330 025 420 bp bases were generated from the *R. arvalis* oviduct transcriptome.
290 Total clean reads of the seven cDNA libraries ranged from 81 166 804 to 87 485 924 (Table
291 1), with an average GC content of 44.95%. In the final assembly, ~~69 987 87 401~~ to 112 136
292 unigenes were detected across the ~~sevensix~~ cDNA libraries (Table 2). Interestingly, ~~for the~~
293 ~~immatureone~~ female ~~has less that had not yet ovulated fewer~~ unigenes ~~(69 987) were~~ detected
294 than ~~maturefor the remaining~~ females- ~~(that had ovulated)~~. When the cDNA libraries were
295 pooled, a total of 124 071 unigenes were detected, with an N50 of 1, 212 bp and a total length
296 of 90.3 Mb. The average length of the unigenes was 728 bp (~~the size distribution of the~~
297 ~~unigenes is shown in Fig.Fig. 1~~).

298 Transcriptome annotation

299 The E-value distributions of the unigenes showed that approximately 60% of the unigenes
300 had very strong homogeny ($< 1e-30$) with the Nr database, while the rest ranged from $1e-5$ to
301 $1e-30$ (Fig. 2A). Thirty percent of the unigene sequences had over 80% similarity with the Nr
302 database, while the similarity of the remaining 70% of sequences ranged from 17% to 80%
303 (Fig. 2B). **The *R. arvalis* sequences matched best with *Xenopus (Silurana) tropicalis* (43.4%),**
304 **followed by *Xenopus laevis* (13.1 %, Fig. 2C) and the liver fluke *Clonorchis sinensis* (12.1 %**
305 **Fig. 2C).**

306 Functional classes were successfully annotated for 13 501 unigenes using COG (Fig. 3, 4).
307 BLASTX against Swiss-Prot, KEGG, NT and GO database resulted in 37 262, 31 405, 39
308 138 and 24 452 hits, respectively (Fig. 4). Altogether, 57 839 *R. arvalis* unigenes (46.6% of
309 all 124 071 unigenes) had significant matches with existing databases (Fig. 4). Among the
310 124 071 unigenes, 48 850 (39.4%) were predicted as Protein coding sequences (CDS). Of
311 these, 44 809 unigenes were aligned using existing databases, while 4 041 unigenes
312 ~~whichthat~~ could not be annotated with any database were predicted by EST Scan. The length
313 distribution of the CDS protein sequences is available in the Supporting information.

314 Functional pathway annotation

315 A total of 24 452 unigenes (42.27% of all annotated unigenes) were successfully categorized
316 into 60 GO functional groups (Fig. 5). These were classified to three major categories:
317 biological processes (23), cellular components (18) and molecular functions (19) (Fig. 5). A

total of 31 405 unigenes (54.29% of all annotated unigenes) were annotated in KEGG, and assigned to 259 known KEGG pathways (Table S2). The highly enriched pathways included: metabolic pathways (3796, 12.09%), purine metabolism (1910, 6.08%), regulation of actin cytoskeleton (1202, 3.83%), focal adhesion (1161, 3.7%) and calcium signaling pathway (1159, 3.69%).

Candidate genes for egg jelly coat

We identified two groups of candidate genes likely related to egg jelly coats: 1) core protein genes (Table 3) and 2) protein glycosylation genes (Table 4). The major components of egg jelly core protein (extracellular matrix fiber, ECM) are ~~mucin and collagen~~ (Haymucins (Hedrick 1991), of which 13 and 11 different types, respectively, were detected in our dataset (Table 3). Within the Mucin gene family, Mucin-5AC, Mucin-5B and Mucin-2 were very highly expressed (Table 3) and the most abundant transcripts of all unigenes. In addition, previous evidence suggests that the Mucin-5 gene is expressed exclusively in the *X. tropicalis* oviduct, making Mucin-5 genes likely candidates for egg jelly coat genes (Lang et al. 2016)(Lang et al. 2016). Several other minor components were also identified (Dermatopontin, Fibulin-5 and Fibrinogen-like protein 1, Decorin, EMILIN-1, Fibrillin-1, Fibronectin and Laminin) (Table 3).

In addition to the candidate core protein genes, five major biosynthesis pathways involved in protein glycosylation were identified based on KEGG: Mucin type O-Glycans, Other types of O-glycans, Heparan sulfate, Chondroitin sulfate and Keratan sulfate (Table 4). Of these, Mucin type O-Glycan genes are the most likely candidates for egg jelly coat glycosylation (Coppin et al. 1999; Lang et al. 2016; Lang et al. 2016) (Fig. 6). Of the eight types of Mucin type O-Glycans, only genes related to cores 1, 2, 3, 4 and 6 Mucin type O-Glycan biosynthesis were detected, while cores 5, 7 and 8 were not expressed in *R. arvalis* (Fig. 6).

Preliminary differential expression analysis

Differentially expressed genes (i.e. DEGs) were identified by pairwise comparisons between each population pair ([S] vs [T], [S] vs [B], [T] vs [B]) of six of the ~~immature females (the not ovulated female was excluded) from these analyses~~. Overall, 4457, 4198 and 3691 differentially expressed genes were identified between [S] vs [T], [S] vs [B] and [T] vs [B], respectively (Figure S3). In general, [T] and [B] individuals had much lower gene expression levels compared to S individuals (Figure S3). For instance, 3397 and 3388 genes were down-regulated in the [T] and [B] individuals compared to the [S] individuals, while only 1060 and

810 genes were up-regulated in [T] individuals compared to the [S] individuals. (Figure S3). The smallest number of differentially expressed genes occurred between the [T] and [B] individuals, where 2256 were up-regulated and 1435 were down-regulated in [T] versus [B] individuals. (Figure S3).

Enrichment of KEGG pathway in the differentially expressed unigenes was assessed using a Fisher's exact test ($FDR < 0.05$). The FDR analyses identified 37 and 49 significantly enriched KEGG pathways in [T] (Table S4) and [B] (Table S3) compared to [S] individuals, whereas only two were identified between [T] and [B] (Table S5). Again, the suggested expression profiles of [T] and [B] individuals were more divergent compared to that of [S] individuals, while differentiation between the [T] vs. [B] was very small. The Ribosome (KO03010) and Oxidative phosphorylation (KO00190) were the most enriched pathways in both [S] vs. [T] and [S] vs. [B] comparisons (Table S3, S4). This indicated that [T] and [B] females had, in general, lower rates of energy production as well as protein biosynthesis.

Because we are able to rank each individual frog's degree of acid tolerance based on our previous work (Shu et al. 2016), we can test whether a frog's acid tolerance is related to the transcriptional activity. The correlation analyses found 292 unigenes that were significantly correlated with acid tolerance. These genes have diverse functions ranging from signaling to protein biosynthesis, which could be suitable targets for future functional work (SI2). However, it is important to note that to really validate their relevance, future studies are needed. The information of candidate genes were listed in Supplementary Information 2 (SI2).

SSRs and SNPs

A total of 26 711 SSRs were identified across all unigenes, in which Mono-nucleotide repeats (19 215), Di-nucleotide repeats (5 050) and Tri-nucleotide repeats (2 002) were the most abundant SSR motif classes, and Quad-nucleotide repeat (345), Penta-nucleotide repeats (79) and Hexa-nucleotide repeats (20) were detected at much lower frequencies (Fig. S1, Table S1).

A total of 231 274 SNPs were predicted across all unigenes. The number of SNPs in seven individual cDNA library ranged from 63 354 to 86 608 (Fig. S2). The average Ts/Tv ratio (the numbers of transitions and transversions at the SNP sites) of all SNPs was ca. 1.75.

The SSR or SNP data were not analyzed in detail for segregation among populations – as sample size is small. However, as a first step we compared the homologous SNPs

differentiated between population [S] (most acid sensitive) and population [T] (most acid tolerant) that differ in acid tolerance. We found 420 candidate SNPs that could be suitable targets for future functional work. The results are listed in Supplementary Information 3 (SI3).

Discussion

Understanding the genetic architecture of maternal effects is important for our ability to understand the relative contribution of genetic *versus* plastic effects in organismal phenotypes and the eco-evolutionary processes of natural populations (Mousseau & Fox 1998; Räsänen & Kruuk 2007)(Mousseau & Fox 1998; Räsänen & Kruuk 2007). Yet given that maternal effects are typically strongly environmentally induced, and that the phenotypic variance of offspring is produced in the mother but their fitness consequences are expressed in the offspring, establishing their genetic basis is challenging – particularly in non-model systems. We therefore applied RNA-seq analyses as a first step towards identifying candidate genes for maternal effects that are mediated through the gelatinous egg coats (i.e. egg jelly) in *R. arvalis* (Shu et al. 2015b)(Shu et al. 2015b). We next provide first an overview of the general genomic variation revealed, followed by a discussion of putative candidate genes for maternal effects.

General genomic aspects

We characterized 124 071 unigenes from the *R. arvalis* transcriptome, and successfully annotated 57 839 of them (46.6%). These unigenes most closely matched *Xenopus (Silurana) tropicalis* (43.4%), followed by *X. laevis* (13.1%) and the liver fluke *Clonorchis sinensis* (12.1%) (Fig. 2C). This fluke does not exist in areas where our *R. arvalis* samples originate from and, hence, this relatively high match to the lung fluke is most likely due to poor annotation of amphibian genomes (as only two amphibian genomes sequenced thus far). It is also possible that genes expressed in the amphibian oviduct may in part orthologous with that of liver fluke, or *R. arvalis* may have been infested by other genetically related parasites (e.g. lung flukes are common (Bolek & Janovy 2007)). It is at the first look somewhat surprising that a substantial portion of the unigenes matched to a trematode parasites (Platyhelminthes) rather than any vertebrate genomes. Given that the *Xenopus* genomes are well annotated, it is possible that we have produced transcriptomes of two taxa (an approach that was recently used to detect endoparasites (Santos et al. 2018)). We therefore performed additional analyses to test how much of the fluke genomes our *R. arvalis* dataset covers. We found that the

percentage of genes in fluke genomes that have hits in our dataset was very high (*C. sinensis*: 61.4%; *S. mansoni*: 72.3%; *S. japonicum*: 58.0%), indicating that we indeed likely sequences parasites in the oviduct wild moor frogs. Trematode parasites are common in amphibians (Sears et al. 2012), but to our knowledge nothing is known of the oviduct parasites in *R. arvalis*. Further studies are clearly needed to confirm this finding.

More than half of the unigenes in our database could not be annotated with any existing databases. This mostly reflects the lack of genomics resources in *R. arvalis* or any closely related frog species, but also in amphibians as a whole. Although numerous genomes are now available across a wide range of taxa, only two handful of amphibian genomes (*X. tropicalis* and *Nanorana perkeri*) have been sequenced thus far (Hellsten et al. 2010; Sun et al. 2015)(Elewa et al. 2017; Hammond et al. 2017; Hellsten et al. 2010; Nowoshilow et al. 2018; Sun et al. 2015). This lack of amphibian genomes is mostly due to their large genome sizes (due to large proportion of repeat sequences (Sun et al. 2015)(Sun et al. 2015)). Clearly Yet clearly more work on amphibian genomics is needed given that as 1) amphibians are the most ancient class of land-dwelling vertebrates and their genomic resources are essential for understanding vertebrate development and evolution; 2) the understanding of evolutionary processes of amphibian populations would greatly be facilitated by studies on the genomic architecture of trait variation, and 3) because conservation of amphibians that are under serious global decline (Hof et al. 2011; Stuart et al. 2004)(Hof et al. 2011; Stuart et al. 2004) could thus be facilitated (Calboli et al. 2011). The transcriptome recently sequenced transcriptomes of *R. arvalis* (this study) and other ranids *Ranidae* (Birol et al. 2015; Helbing 2012; Price et al. 2015; Qiao et al. 2013; Zhang et al. 2013); Helbing 2012; Price et al. 2015; Qiao et al. 2013; Robertson & Cornman 2014; Zhang et al. 2013) recently sequenced will aid in developing amphibian genomics resources. will aid in developing amphibian genomics resources. As we used only oviduct tissue, while most other studies use other tissues (e.g. liver, skin), a comparison of oviduct-specific transcriptomes with transcriptomes from other tissues are needed to reliably identify oviduct-specific genes or expression profiles. For instance, when compared with the recently developed transcriptomic resources for the green frog *Rana clamitans* and chorus frog *Pseudacris regilla* (Robertson & Cornman 2014), the percentage of genes in our dataset that have hits in their dataset are 40.61% (20 402/50 238) and 40.62% (19 583/48 213) respectively, indicating a considerable proportion of candidate oviduct-specific genes. Furthermore, the large number of potentially amplifiable SSRs and SNP markers detected in this study (Supporting information) represent an important resource

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for applications in population genetics and for the detection of interesting functional genetic variants ([Li et al. 2008](#); [Morin et al. 2004](#); [Schunter et al. 2014](#))([Li et al. 2008](#); [Morin et al. 2004](#); [Schunter et al. 2014](#)).

Candidate genes for maternal effects: inside the egg jelly coat

Although there is substantial potential for a genetic basis of in maternal effects (~~Räsänen & Kruuk 2007~~)([Räsänen & Kruuk 2007](#)), most studies aiming to identify maternal effect genes have focused on their role in early embryonic development *per se* (~~Tong et al. 2000; Wu et al. 2003~~)([Tong et al. 2000](#); [Wu et al. 2003](#)). To what extent maternal effect genes contribute to adaptive divergence of local populations and response to natural selection at early life stages is therefore still largely unknown.

We identified two groups of candidate maternal effect genes based on their role in egg jelly biosynthesis: mucin core protein genes and protein glycosylation genes. The mucin genes and several O-linked glycosylation genes are particularly likely candidates, given that amphibian egg jelly - including that of *R. arvalis* ([Coppin et al. 1999a](#)) - mostly consists of mucin type O-linked glycoproteins ([Coppin et al. 1999](#); [Guerardel et al. 2000](#); [Strecker et al. 2003](#)); [Guerardel et al. 2000](#); [Strecker et al. 2003](#)). Evidence for high mucin gene expression in the oviduct has been found previously in *Rana chensinensis* ([Zhang et al. 2013](#))([Zhang et al. 2013](#)) and *Xenopus* *X. tropicalis* (~~Lang et al. 2016~~)([Lang et al. 2016](#)). Whereas Mucin 2 is expressed in various tissues, Mucin 5AC was reported to be exclusively expressed in the oviduct of *X. tropicalis*. Although Mucins, particularly Mucin 5, are likely candidates for the core protein in jelly coats, the role of different genes contributing to the glycosylation of the jelly coat proteins are much more difficult to infer. For instance, the egg jelly coat of *R. arvalis* consists of at least 19 different glycan building blocks ([Coppin et al. 1999](#)) and preliminary our own analyses indicate high among individual polymorphism in the macromolecular composition of *R. arvalis* jelly is high overall ([Shu et al. 2016](#),-) as well as in glycans ([Shu, Suter and Räsänen, unpublished data](#)). Given the complexity of O-linked glycosylation it is therefore not surprising that multiple glycosylation genes are highly expressed in the *R. arvalis* oviduct - and the genetic basis of jelly coat mediated adaptive maternal effects could be complex.

In general, the genes representing likely candidate genes for egg jelly coat formation showed a different expression pattern compared to the global profile (Fig. 7). For instance, Mucin-5AC, and Mucin-5B and (i.e. the major component components of jelly core

proteins), were relatively highly expressed in the [T] individuals. However, ~~in general,~~ expression of the putative jelly coat genes was very diverse across the six individuals in our data set (Fig. ~~7~~-7). More detailed analyses on coding versus regulatory variation underlying this heterogeneity as well as SNP genotyping of allelic variation across the acidification gradient are important future avenues. However, it is important to note that the current data only provides the first step that in future allows to test to what extent variation is due to coding and/or transcriptional differences in the maternally influenced jelly coat (which, in turn, affects embryonic survival).

The potential complexity of the jelly phenotype and its function is also highlighted in the high degree of variation in expression of the putative jelly coat genes across different individuals in our study (Fig. 7). Given the many important roles that the egg jelly coats play in sperm-egg interactions, pathogen defense and responses to various environmental stressors (reviewed in ~~(Menkhurst & Selwood 2008; Shu et al. 2015b)~~(Menkhurst & Selwood 2008; Shu et al. 2015b)), this complexity is not surprising. Follow up work establishing the link between the genotype (jelly coat coding genes and variation in the expression) – phenotype (jelly coat glycome) - fitness (embryonic acid tolerance) map are needed to confirm the role of the candidate genes is ongoing in our lab.

Conclusion

Conclusions

In conclusion, we identified several mucin and O-linked glycosylation genes that are highly expressed in the oviduct of *R. arvalis* – and show high heterogeneity in expression. Given the role of *R. arvalis* in a broad range of evolutionary ecological questions, we believe this transcriptomic dataset ~~and together with~~ the predicted SSR and SNP markers (Supporting information) will benefit future studies of molecular ecology and evolution in natural populations. We further hope that our oviduct transcriptomes ~~lays lay~~ the ground for future studies on the molecular evolution of jelly coat genes, thereby contributing to the emerging field of glycobiology in evolutionary ecology ~~(Shu et al. 2015b; Springer & Gagneux 2016)~~(Shu et al. 2015b; Springer & Gagneux 2016), as well as studies on how these genes contribute to responses to natural selection at early life stages and adaptive divergence of local populations in particular. In particular, we hope that the genes identified here will aid in disentangling the genetic architecture of egg coat evolution and adaptive maternal effects.

Declarations

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Data Accessibility

~~Transcriptome sequences will be deposited in the NCBI Sequence Read Archive (SRA) database.~~

Author Contributions

~~LS and KR conceived and planned the study. LS performed the experiments. Both authors discussed the results and commented on the manuscript. Both authors read and approved the final manuscript.~~

Competing interests

~~The authors declare that they have no competing interests.~~

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