

1 Evolution of tRNA pool shapes variation in selection on
2 codon usage across the Saccharomycotina subphylum

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15 **selection**

16

Abstract

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Across the major taxonomical domains, synonymous codons of an amino acid are found to be used in unequal frequencies. This codon usage bias – both in terms of the degree of bias and the identity of codons used – is highly variable, even among closely related species. Within a species, genome-wide codon usage bias reflects a balance between adaptive and non-adaptive microevolutionary processes. Variation in these microevolutionary processes results in across-species variation in codon usage bias. As codon usage bias is tightly linked to important molecular and biophysical processes, it is critical to understand how changes to these processes drive changes to the microevolutionary processes. Here we employ a population genetics model of coding sequence evolution to quantify natural selection and mutation biases on a per-codon basis and estimate gene expression levels across the budding yeasts Saccharomycotina subphylum. We interrogate the impact of variation in molecular mechanisms hypothesized to be driving the microevolution of codon usage. We find that natural selection and mutation biases evolved rapidly over macroevolutionary time, with high variability between closely related species. The majority (324/327) of yeasts exhibited clear signals of translational selection, with selection coefficients being correlated with codon-specific estimates of ribosome waiting times within species. Across species, natural selection on codon usage correlated with changes to ribosome waiting times, indicating that tRNA pool evolution is a major factor driving changes to natural selection on codon usage. We find evidence that changes to tRNA modification expression can contribute to changes in natural selection across species independent of changes to tRNA gene copy number, suggesting tRNA modifications also play a role in shaping natural selection on codon usage. Our work firmly establishes how changes to microevolutionary processes can be driven by changes to molecular mechanisms, ultimately shaping the macroevolutionary variation of a trait.

42 Introduction

43 The genetic code is “degenerate” – the 61 amino acid-encoding codons are translated into 20 amino
44 acids, meaning multiple codons must be ascribed to the same amino acid. Across all domains of
45 life, synonymous codons are used at unequal frequencies, a phenomenon known as codon usage bias
46 (CUB) [1–6]. The CUB of a genome reflects a balance between the microevolutionary processes of
47 natural selection, mutation, and genetic drift shaping the synonymous codon usage frequencies for
48 a particular amino acid [7]. Natural selection for efficient or accurate translation – often termed
49 “translational selection” – is hypothesized to be the primary driver of adaptive CUB due to the
50 correlations between codon usage and the tRNA pool and the bias towards codons corresponding to
51 more abundant tRNA in highly expressed genes [5, 8–11]. Under translational selection, selection
52 on synonymous mutations is strongest in highly expressed genes due to their effects on potential
53 energetic burden of ribosome pausing or protein misfolding [10, 12–14]. However, because highly
54 expressed genes constitute only a small portion of protein-coding sequences in a genome, genome-
55 wide CUB (i.e., the most frequently used synonyms genome-wide) is determined by mutation bias
56 and drift. Other microevolutionary processes, such as GC-biased gene conversion [15–17], can also
57 shape patterns of codon usage within a genome and can sometimes obscure signature of selection.

58 CUB varies across species, both in terms of the degree of bias and the identity of synonymous
59 codons used most frequently [1, 5, 6, 11, 18–22]. The fact that CUB varies across species is clear – the
60 causes are not. Variation in CUB on macroevolutionary timescales ultimately reflects changes to the
61 underlying microevolutionary processes that drive CUB within a genome. Mechanistic evolutionary
62 models providing theoretically justified (i.e., rooted in population genetics theory) estimates of
63 evolutionary parameters (e.g., the strength of natural selection) are necessary to determine how
64 variation in these processes leads to the observed macroevolutionary trends in CUB. Moreover,
65 CUB is tightly linked to the molecular processes of DNA replication (mutation bias) and protein
66 synthesis (translational selection), such that macroevolutionary variations in the microevolutionary
67 processes shaping CUB are hypothesized to reflect changes to the underlying molecular processes.
68 Some studies observed correlations between CUB and the relevant molecular processes [3, 5, 11, 20],
69 but a lack of formal estimates of population genetics parameters at the level of individual codons

70 limits our ability to link changes in microevolution to these processes.

Here, we quantify variation in natural selection and mutation biases that drive CUB across 327 Saccharomycotina budding yeasts [11, 23]. To do so, we employ the Ribosomal Overhead Cost version of the Stochastic Evolutionary Model of Protein Production Rates (ROC-SEMPPR) – a powerful population genetics model for quantifying CUB [24–28]. Unlike many popular heuristic approaches for quantifying CUB, ROC-SEMPPR disentangles the effects of natural selection from mutation biases by quantifying changes in codon usage as a function of gene expression. Specifically, for a given gene g with average gene expression (technically, protein production rate) ϕ_g , the probability $p_{g,i}$ of seeing codon i is

$$p_{g,i} \propto e^{-\Delta M_i - \Delta \eta_i \phi_g}$$

71 ROC-SEMPPR estimates natural selection $\Delta \eta$ and mutation bias ΔM per codon, allowing us to
72 systematically investigate how and why these microevolutionary processes vary on macroevolution-
73 ary timescales. Building from a previous examination of 49 budding yeasts, we find a substantial
74 percentage of the Saccharomycotina subphylum ($\approx 20\%$) exhibit significant across-gene variation in
75 codon usage not attributable to translational selection, suggestive of other non-adaptive evolution-
76 ary processes that can shape codon usage bias. We find multiple lines of evidence for translational
77 selection on CUB across most species. Particularly noteworthy, we find codon-specific shifts in
78 natural selection are correlated with changes to the tRNA pool across species. Such a correlation
79 is often presumed, but our work directly shows how a key feature of protein synthesis (the tRNA
80 pool) shapes natural selection on codon usage. Additionally, we explore how mutation biases change
81 across species, finding them to be strongly correlated with changes to GC%, but find inconclusive
82 support for a general role of the evolution of mismatch-repair (MMR) genes in driving changes to
83 mutation biases (see Supplemental Text).

84 Results

85 We applied ROC-SEMPPR to quantify the strength and direction of natural selection and mutation
86 bias shaping CUB across the 327 Saccharomycotina budding yeasts. Previous work by us and others
87 indicate that within-genome variation in nucleotide usage can arise due to non-adaptive processes
88 (e.g., GC-biased gene conversion) that can obscure signatures of translational selection [26, 28, 29].
89 To account for this variation, for each species, we performed correspondence analysis on the absolute
90 codon frequencies of each gene followed by CLARA clustering (a k-medoids clustering) of the
91 first 4 principal axes to separate genes into 2 sets potentially subject to different non-adaptive
92 nucleotide biases. Following [28], we compared two model fits to assess the potential impact of
93 within-genome variation in non-adaptive nucleotide biases – any processes biasing codon usage that
94 does not scale with gene expression ϕ . We refer to these models as “ConstMut” and “VarMut”.
95 The ConstMut model assumes mutation bias is constant across all genes; in contrast, the VarMut
96 model allows mutation bias ΔM to vary between the 2 gene sets determined by the clustering of the
97 correspondence analyses axes (termed the “Lower GC3 Set” and “Higher GC3 Set”, see “Material
98 and Methods: Identifying within-genome variation in codon usage bias”). Using the correlations of
99 ROC-SEMPPR predicted gene expression ϕ with empirical gene expression as our comparisons of
100 the ConstMut and VarMut models, the VarMut model better fit 58 of the 327 species (approximately
101 18%), consistent with intragenomic variation in non-adaptive nucleotide biases within these species.
102 Across the 58 species better fit by the VarMut model, the predicted-empirical correlations between
103 the VarMut and ConstMut models differ by a median value of 0.31, indicating better predictions
104 of gene expression based on codon usage when using the VarMut model. Across the other 269
105 species, the predicted-empirical correlations between the VarMut and ConstMut models differ by
106 a median value of -0.05, indicating generally worse or negligible differences in predictions of gene
107 expression based on codon usage when using the VarMut model (Figure S1) – this is consistent with
108 unsubstancial intragenomic variation in non-adaptive nucleotide biases. For subsequent analyses,
109 we use the selection and mutation bias estimates from the best model fit for each species.

110 Natural selection and mutation biases shaping codon usage are 111 highly-variable among close relatives

112 To understand the evolution of codon usage on macroevolutionary timescales, it is critical to quan-
113 tify the variability in the evolutionary forces shaping species-specific CUB. We performed hierar-
114 chical clustering of species based on the estimates of (1) (scaled) selection coefficients $\Delta\eta$ and (2)
115 mutation biases to both understand how these parameters varied across species and to what extent
116 these parameters reflect the shared ancestry of the budding yeasts. To further clarify the meanings
117 of these parameters, the selection coefficients $\Delta\eta = s_{i,j}N_e$ in a gene of average expression, where
118 $s_{i,j}$ is the unscaled selection coefficient between synonymous codons i and j and N_e is the effective
119 population size. Mutation bias $\Delta M = \log(\frac{\mu_{i,j}}{\mu_{j,i}})$ where $\mu_{i,j}$ is the mutation rate between synony-
120 mous codons i and j . All parameter estimates from our model fit are relative to a reference codon,
121 specifically the alphabetically last codon, with a negative value indicating a codon is “favored”
122 relative to the reference codon.

123 Based on the clustering of selection coefficients, the direction of natural selection on codon
124 usage is largely consistent across the tree (Figure 1A). For example, NNC codons for most 2/3-
125 codon (Asn, Tyr, His, Phe, Asp, Ser₂, Ile) and 4-codon (Val, Thr, Ser₄, Ala) amino acids are
126 selectively-favored across the majority of species; this was not the case for either 6-codon amino
127 acid (Arg, Leu). For the 2-codon amino acids Lys, Glu, and Gln (all NNA/NNG), the Lys codon
128 AAG was generally selectively-favored relative to AAA, but the NNA codons for Glu (GAA) and Gln
129 (CAA) are favored across most species (although many species did favor NNG). 34 species exhibit
130 dramatic shifts in natural selection on codon usage relative to the remaining 293 species (Figure
131 1A, row dendrogram labels 1 and 2). These species have significantly weaker correlations between
132 ROC-SEMPPR predicted gene expression and empirical gene expression (Welch two-sample t-test
133 $p = 3.499E - 08$) compared to the other 293 species, suggesting poor model fits (Figure 1A, Obs.
134 vs. Pred. Gene Expr.). Surprisingly, the clustering of selection coefficients only weakly reflects the
135 phylogeny of the *Saccharomctoina* yeasts, consistent with little similarity between closely-related
136 species. Many species from the same clade fall into the same cluster, but most clades are divided
137 into separate groups (Figure 1A, Clade color bar). To ensure that the poorly fit species did not

138 obscure the similarity of closely related species in our clustering, we removed the 34 species with
139 suspected poor model fits and re-performed the clustering of selection coefficients. We find overall
140 little agreement between the clustering of selection coefficients and phylogeny as measured by
141 the cophenetic correlation to quantify the overall pairwise similarity between species within the
142 dendrograms. A high cophenetic correlation implies variation in selection coefficients recapitulates
143 the evolutionary relationships between the species. We find the cophenetic correlation between the
144 clustering of selection coefficients and the phylogeny was 0.35, consistent with selection coefficients
145 only weakly reflecting the phylogeny of the Saccharomycotina yeasts.

146 As with the selection coefficients, we examined how mutation biases ΔM varied across the
147 327 yeasts. Generally, mutation biases favor AT-ending codons over GC-ending codons across the
148 majority of the subphylum (Figure 2 and Figure S2), consistent with the overall AT-bias of the
149 Saccharomycotina subphylum [11]. Similar to the selection coefficients, we performed hierarchical
150 clustering of mutation biases to assess the similarity of mutation biases between closely related
151 species (Figure 2 and Figure S2, Clade color bar). Mutation biases are more variable between
152 closely related species compared to selection coefficients as indicated by the smaller groupings
153 of species by clade (Figure 2 and Figure S2, Clade color bar). Consistent with this qualitative
154 observation, the cophenetic correlations between the hierarchical clustering of mutation biases and
155 the phylogenetic tree after removing the 34 poorly fit species is 0.14 or 0.13 depending on the
156 use of Lower GC3% and Higher GC3% sets for species better fit by the VarMut model. Even
157 more so than selection coefficients, across-species variation in mutation biases poorly reflects the
158 Saccharomycotina phylogeny.

159 As an orthogonal analysis to quantify the overall similarity of natural selection and mutation
160 biases between closely related yeasts (i.e., phylogenetic signal), we estimated a multivariate version
161 of Blomberg's K (K_{multi}) using the R package **geomorph** [30]. Selection coefficients exhibit a
162 greater phylogenetic signal ($K_{multi} = 0.437$) than mutation biases ($K_{multi} = 0.224$ if using Lower
163 GC3% set, $K_{multi} = 0.156$ if using Higher GC3% set). Taken together, both analyses support
164 greater variation in mutation biases between closely related species, but this should not distract
165 from the fact that both natural selection and mutation biases are highly variable. It is often
166 assumed that a weaker phylogenetic signal is due to higher evolutionary rates. However, this is

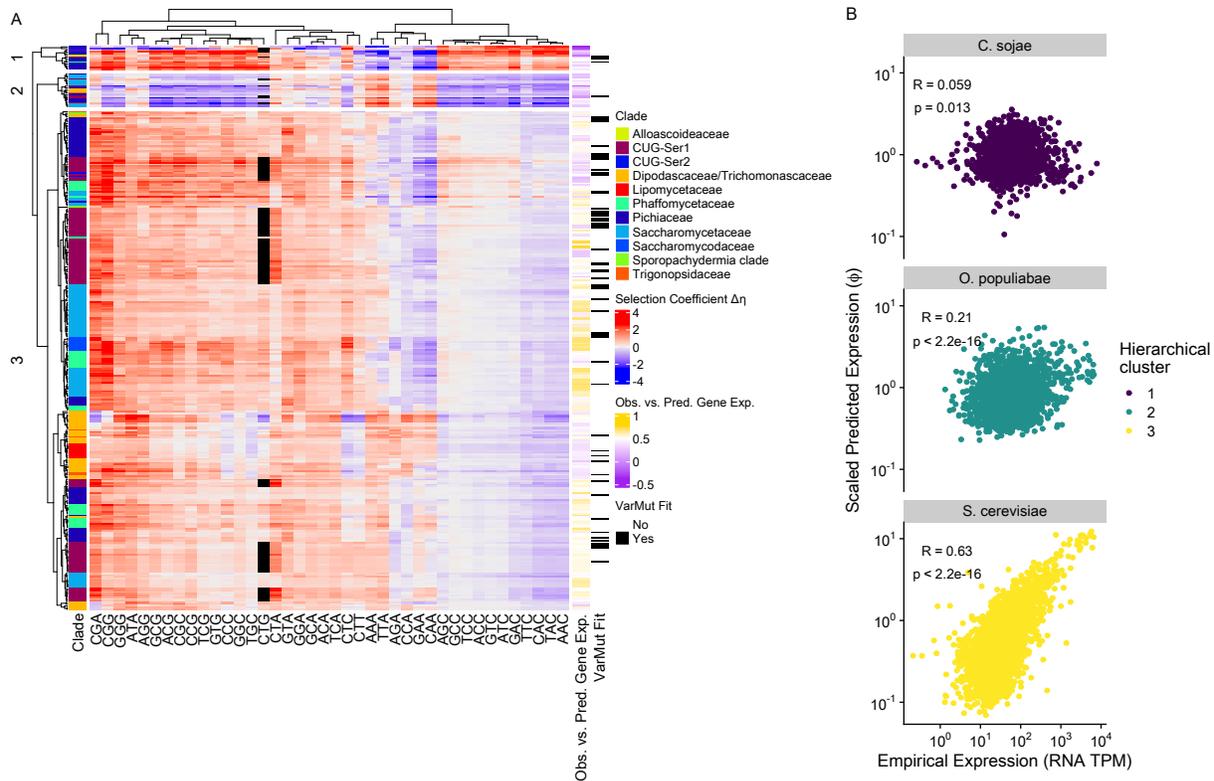


Figure 1: (A) Heatmap representing the selection coefficients $\Delta\eta$ across the 327 Saccharomycotina subphylum. Red indicates a codon is disfavored by selection relative to the reference synonymous codon (the alphabetically last codon for each amino acid), while blue indicates the codon is favored relative to the reference codon. Black indicates cases where the codon CTG codes for serine – in these species, CTG is treated separately from the serine codons (see Materials and Methods). Row-wise dendrogram represents the hierarchical clustering of selection coefficients across species based on dissimilarity as estimated by $1 - R$, where R is the Spearman correlation between the selection coefficients of two species. Numbers represent the result of splitting the clustering into 3 groups of species. Column-wise dendrogram represents the hierarchical clustering of selection coefficients across codons based on Euclidean distance. The Clade color bar indicates the major clade of the species, as defined previously[11]. The Obs. vs. Pred. Gene Expr. color bar represents the Spearman correlation between empirical gene expression estimates and ROC-SEMPPR predicted gene expression estimates ϕ per species. The VarMut fit color bar indicates if the model fit used for a given species was VarMut (black) or ConstMut fit (white). (B) Example of the correlation between empirical estimates of gene expression and ROC-SEMPPR predicted estimates of gene expression for species in the three clusters as labeled on the species-wise dendrogram in (A).

167 not always the case. Phylogenetic signal can degrade due to strong stabilizing selection towards a
 168 single optimum [31]. We fit a univariate Ornstein-Uhlenbeck model of trait evolution (via the R
 169 package **geiger** [32]) to our estimates of natural selection and mutation biases for each codon to

170 quantify the strength of stabilizing selection for each trait. We find that the strength of stabilizing
171 selection α is generally greater for estimates of mutation biases than estimates of selection (median
172 $\alpha_{\Delta M_{\text{Lower GC3\%}}} = 0.011$, $\alpha_{\Delta\eta} = 0.005$, Wilcoxon rank sum test $p = 3.051E - 9$). We note the highest
173 α values are for estimates of natural selection (Figure S3A). We obtain a similar result if using
174 mutation bias estimates from the Higher GC3% set (Figure S3B). This is consistent with stronger
175 stabilizing selection acting on the factors shaping mutation biases (or other non-adaptive nucleotide
176 biases) relative to natural selection, resulting in a stronger degradation of phylogenetic signal.

177 Below, we focus on the molecular mechanisms responsible for the observed across-species
178 changes in natural selection on codon usage. We perform similar analyses to examine changes to
179 estimates of mutation biases and find clear correlations between our mutation bias estimates and
180 genome-wide GC%. However, our results relating these changes to a specific molecular mechanism
181 are rather inconclusive (see Supplemental Text).

182 **Selection for translation efficiency is a prevalent force shaping within-** 183 **genome variation in codon usage**

184 The strength and direction of natural selection on codon usage varies across species, suggesting
185 underlying changes to the molecular processes that shape natural selection. Translational selec-
186 tion (e.g., selection against translation inefficiency) remains the predominant hypothesis regarding
187 genome-wide adaptive CUB, particularly in microbes. The translational selection hypothesis leads
188 to two testable predictions: (1) codon usage will covary with gene expression and (2) highly ex-
189 pressed genes are biased toward codons with faster elongation rates. Such predictions are testable
190 with ROC-SEMPPR's parameters: (1) estimates of evolutionary-average gene expression ϕ are
191 expected to be positively correlated with empirical estimates of gene expression, and (2) selection
192 coefficients $\Delta\eta$ are expected to be positively correlated with ribosome waiting times, the inverse of
193 elongation rates (i.e., slower codons are disfavored by natural selection).

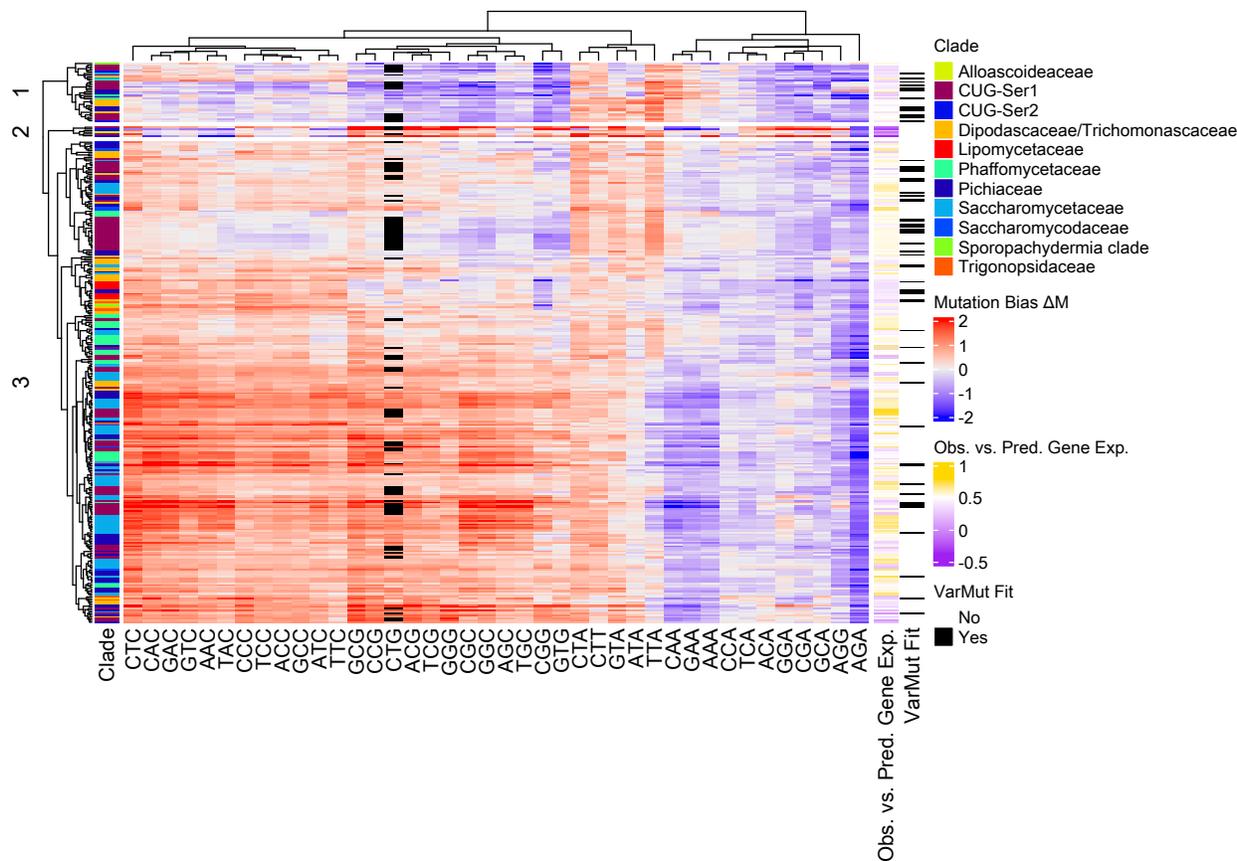


Figure 2: (A) Heatmap representing the mutation biases ΔM across the 327 Saccharomycotina subphylum. Red indicates mutation is biased against a codon relative to the reference synonymous codon (the alphabetically last codon for each amino acid), while blue indicates mutation is biased towards a codon relative to the reference codon. Black indicates cases where the codon CTG codes for serine – in these species, CTG is treated separately from the serine codons (see Materials and Methods). The row-wise dendrogram represents the hierarchical clustering of mutation biases across species based on dissimilarity as estimated by $1 - R$, where R is the Spearman correlation between the selection coefficients of two species. Numbers represent the result of splitting the clustering into 3 groups of species. Column-wise dendrogram represents the hierarchical clustering of mutation biases across codons based on Euclidean distance. The Clade color bar indicates the major clade of the species, as defined previously [11]. The Obs. vs. Pred. Gene Expr. color bar represents the Spearman correlation between empirical gene expression estimates and ROC-SEMPPR predicted gene expression estimates ϕ per species. The VarMut fit color bar indicates if the model fit used for a given species was VarMut (black) or ConstMut fit (white).

194 **ROC-SEMPPR predictions of gene expression are well-correlated with empiri-**
 195 **cally measured gene expression**

196 After determining the best model fit between the ConstMut and VarMut models for each species,
 197 we find the median Spearman rank correlation between predicted and empirical estimates of gene

198 expression (i.e., ϕ vs. RNA-seq) across all species is 0.51 with 95% of species having a correlation
199 > 0.26 (Figure 3). We emphasize the empirical gene expression data are based on RNA-seq data
200 from a subset of 49 yeasts [28] mapped across species based on a list of one-to-one orthologs
201 [23]. We find the correlation between predicted and empirical estimates decreased relative to
202 the RNA-seq reference species as the divergence time between the two species increased (Figure
203 S4, Spearman rank correlation $-0.14, p = 0.016$). Regardless, the positive correlation between
204 predicted (i.e., based solely on codon usage) and empirical gene expression indicates prevalent
205 translational selection on codon usage across the Saccharomycotina subphylum.

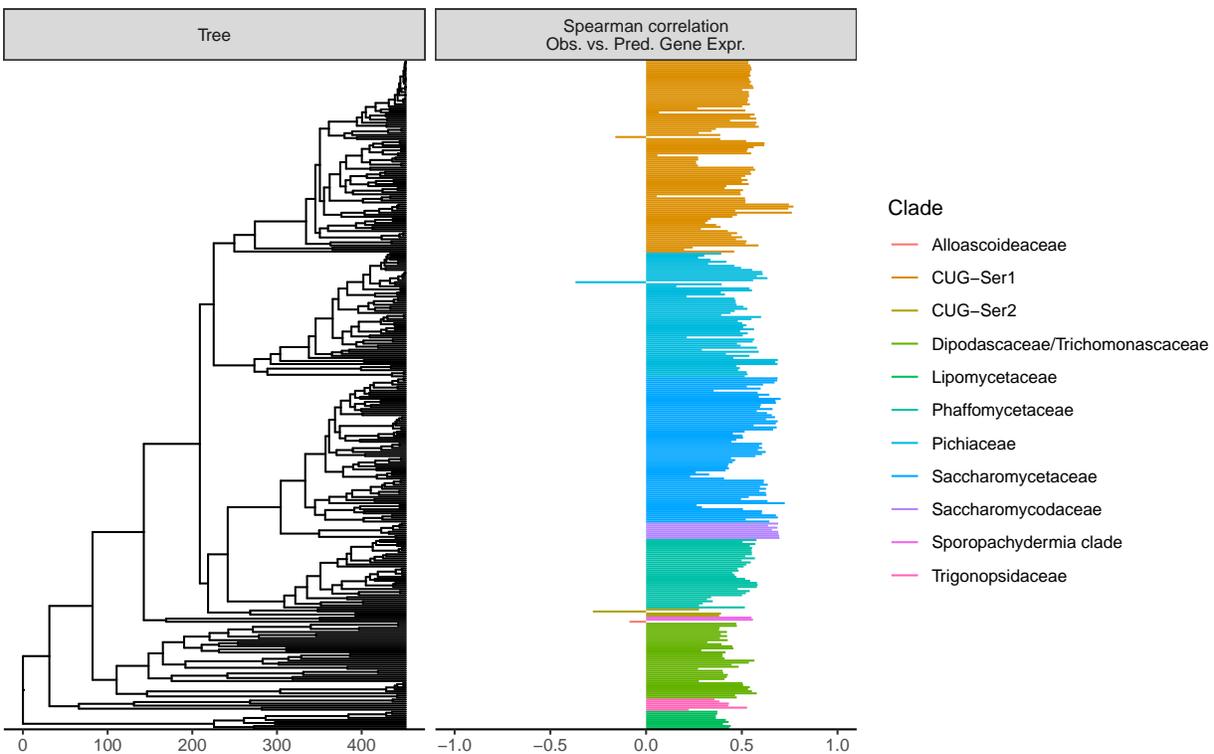


Figure 3: Within-species correlation between observed empirical gene expression measured via RNA-seq and ROC-SEMPPR predicted gene expression ϕ based on codon usage bias. For most species, empirical gene expression were taken from the closest relative for which such estimates were available. Solid lines indicate cases where the Spearman rank correlation was statistically significant; dashed lines indicate non-significance.

206 **Selection coefficients are well-correlated with the predicted speed of elongation**
207 **within species**

208 As selection coefficients $\Delta\eta$ reflect selection against a codon relative to its synonyms, translational
209 selection will lead to a positive correlation between selection coefficients and ribosome waiting times
210 (from here on out referred to as "waiting times"). We used the inverse of the relative weights for
211 the tRNA adaptation index (tAI) as a proxy for waiting times [33]. Surprisingly, we find numerous
212 codons do not have a corresponding tRNA based on the identified tRNA genes and standard wobble
213 rules, implying inefficient elongation of these codons. Although many of these are likely spuriously
214 missed tRNA genes by tRNAscan-SE, we note a lack of tRNA genes recognizing proline codons CC-
215 C/CCT in the clades CUG-Ser2 (2/4 species), Phaffomycetaceae (34/34 species), Pichiaceae (46/61
216 species), and Saccharomycodaceae (8/8) species (Figure S5). A gene encoding Pro-tRNA^{UGG} codon
217 is present in each of these species, but not at appreciably different amounts than observed in the
218 other species (Welch two-sample t-test, $p = 0.7742$). Assuming the corresponding tRNA genes are
219 truly missing in these clades, this suggests the occurrence of super-wobbling for proline, whereby
220 an unmodified U₃₄ allows a tRNA to bind all 4 codons [34].

221 We highlight two species: *Candida albicans* and *Starmera amethionina*, both of which were
222 previously determined to have little adaptive codon usage related to translational selection (Figure
223 4A,B) [11]. We find a strong positive correlation between waiting times and selection coefficients
224 in both species, indicating translational selection is a prevalent force shaping CUB within these
225 yeasts. In the case of *C. albicans*, previous difficulty in detecting translational selection was likely
226 due to the failure to account for within-genome variation in non-adaptive nucleotide biases [28].
227 However, the VarMut model performed significantly worse for *S. amethionina* (Spearman rank
228 correlation between ROC-SEMPPR predicted and empirical gene expression of 0.348 vs. -0.0819
229 for ConstMut and VarMut models, respectively). The median Spearman rank correlation between
230 selection coefficients and waiting times across all 327 budding yeasts was 0.78, with a range of
231 0.17 to 0.93 (324/327 species $p < 0.05$, Figure 4C). The positive correlation between selection
232 coefficients and waiting times indicates translational selection is a prevalent force shaping CUB
233 across the Saccharomycotina subphylum.

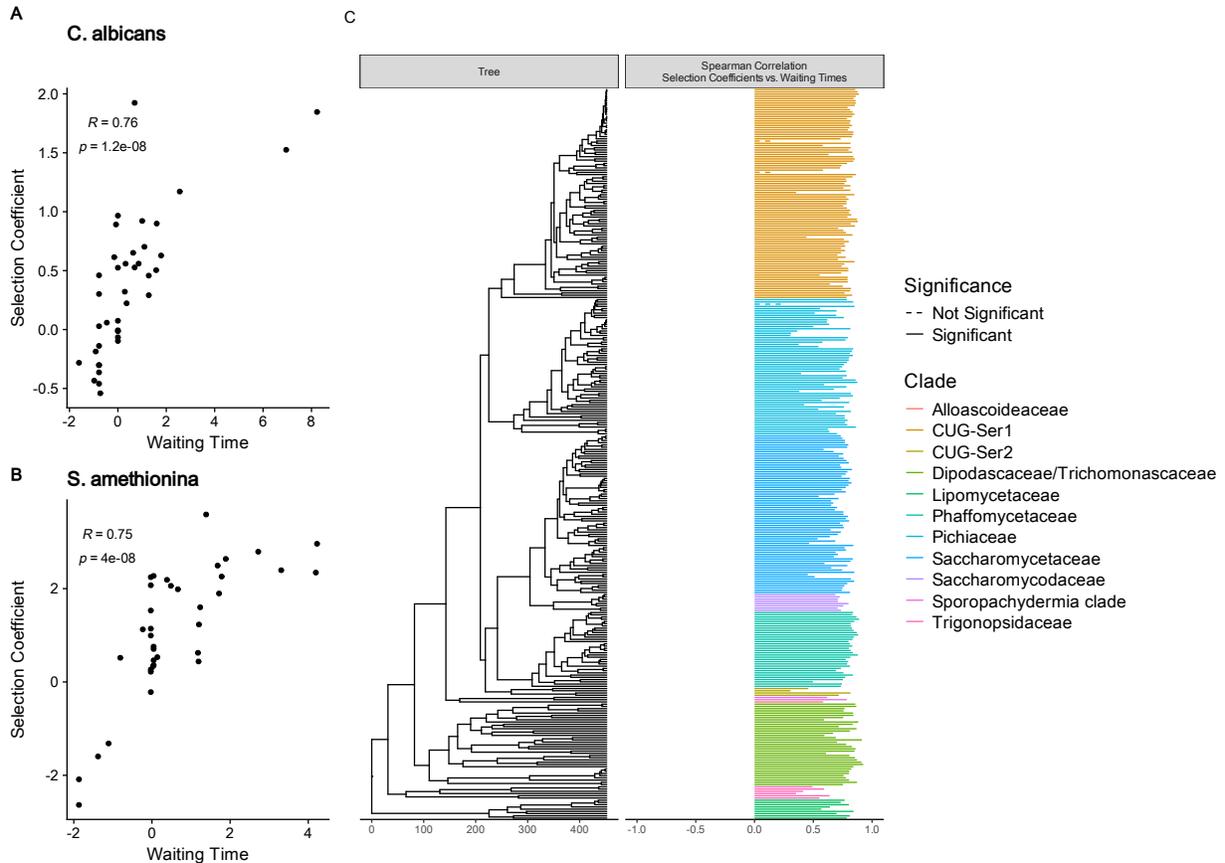


Figure 4: Comparisons of relative elongation waiting times (based on tRNA gene copy numbers) and selection coefficients $\Delta\eta$ for (A) *Candida albicans* and (B) *Starmera amethionina*. R indicates the Spearman rank correlation. (C) Correlation as in (A) and (B) across all species (right panel) ordered by the phylogeny of the budding yeasts (left panel). Species are colored by major clade as defined in [11]. Solid lines indicate cases where the Spearman rank correlation was statistically significant; dashed lines indicate non-significance.

234 **Across-species variation in natural selection on codon usage varies with the**
235 **tRNA pool**

236 Given the positive correlation between natural selection and waiting times within species, the
237 evolution of the tRNA pool is hypothesized to be a driver of differences in natural selection on
238 codon usage. We exclude the 34 species outlier species indicated by the hierarchical clustering of
239 selection coefficients because these species could obfuscate the general relationship between selection
240 coefficients and the tRNA pool. Previous work found the overall strength of selection on codon
241 usage increased with the number of translation resources, supposedly reflecting increased selection

242 on growth rate [3, 35]. Along these lines, we find the mean absolute selection coefficients per species
243 – which reflects the average strength of selection across all codons – is positively correlated with
244 the total number of tRNA genes per genome, albeit weakly (Figure 5A, Spearman rank correlation
245 $R = 0.22$, $p = 0.00025$). Our finding conflicts with [11], who found no significant relationship
246 between S [33] (based on tAI and the effective number of codons, not to be confused with the
247 population genetics parameter $S = sN_e$) and the total number of tRNA genes after accounting
248 for shared ancestry. We note S is not a theoretically justified estimate of natural selection on
249 codon usage [3, 33]; perhaps unsurprisingly, mean absolute selection coefficients are only weakly
250 correlated with S (Figure S6). Our results suggest selection on codon usage increases slightly with
251 investment in translational resources, but other factors are likely driving differences in adaptive
252 CUB. For example, translational selection is expected to result from differences in the waiting
253 times of synonymous codons, which in turn could be driven by differences in the tRNA pool. We
254 find the selection coefficients for 39 codons (out of 40, not including the ROC-SEMPPR reference
255 codons for each amino acid) are positively correlated with waiting times across species (Figure 5B
256 and C, Benjamini-Hochberg adjusted $p < 0.05$, see also Figure S7), consistent with across-species
257 changes in the strength/direction of natural selection on codon usage being driven by evolution of
258 the tRNA pool.

259 Certain tRNA modifications alter the waiting times of a codon [36, 37]. Evolutionary changes to
260 the functionality of tRNA modification enzymes may also signal shifts in the strength or direction of
261 natural selection on codon usage. In *S. cerevisiae*, knockouts of the multimeric Elongator Complex
262 protein (responsible for the U₃₄ modification mcm⁵s²U) resulted in increased waiting times at
263 codons AAA, CAA, and GAA [36, 37]. Given the impact of tRNA modifications on waiting
264 times, across-species variation in tRNA modification enzyme activity may contribute to variation in
265 natural selection on codon usage. Here, we determine the impact of differences in gene expression ϕ
266 (as a proxy for overall enzyme activity) of the catalytic activity proteins of the Elongator Complex
267 IKI3, ELP2, and ELP3. We observe correlations between predicted gene expression and selection
268 coefficients for individual codons (e.g., Figure 6A for IKI3 expression vs. AAA selection). However,
269 this does not control for other factors likely related to selection (e.g., tGCN) or expression of
270 Elongator Complex proteins (e.g., genome-wide GC%). We performed phylogenetic generalized

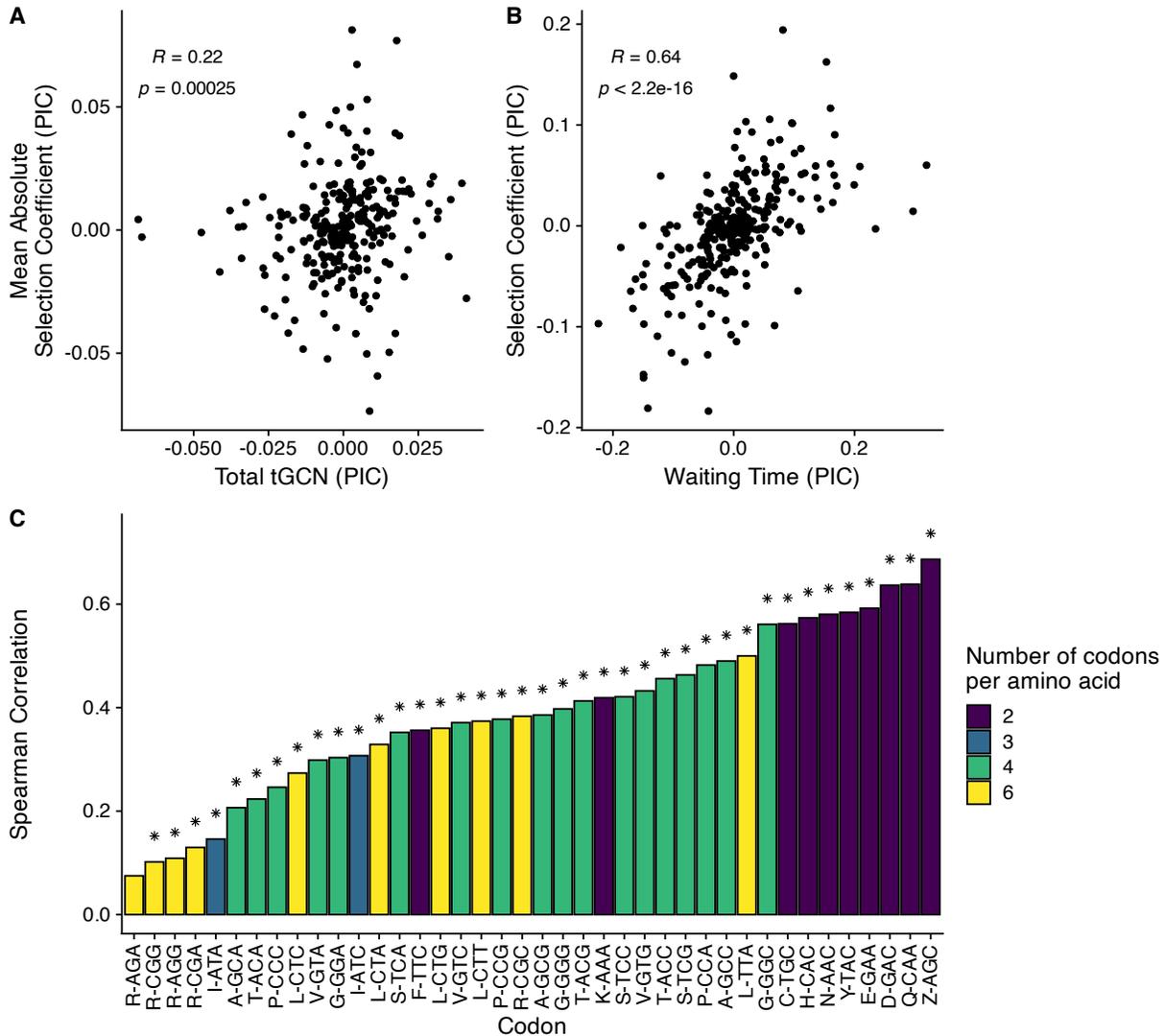


Figure 5: Relationship between codon-specific waiting times (based on tGCN) and selection coefficients $\Delta\eta$. Phylogenetic independent contrasts (PIC) were used in all cases. Spearman rank correlations R and associated p-values are reported. (A) Comparison of mean absolute selection coefficients $|\Delta\eta|$ and the total number of tRNA genes across species. (B) Example scatter-plot showing the relationship between waiting times and selection coefficients $\Delta\eta$ for codon CAA (relative to CAG) across species. (C) Bar plot representing the Spearman rank correlations between waiting times and selection coefficients $\Delta\eta$ across species for all codons. “*” indicate statistical significance $p < 0.05$ after correcting for multiple hypothesis testing via Benjamini-Hochberg.

271 least squares via the **phylolm** R package to determine the impact of the IKI3, ELP2, and ELP3 on
 272 natural selection while controlling for changes to tGCN and genome-wide GC%. Unsurprisingly,
 273 tGCN has the overall largest effect on variation in natural selection across species for all 3 codons.

274 However, we find that shifts in the expression levels of protein IKI3 contribute to variation in natural
275 selection for 2 of the 3 codons. We note there is collinearity between many of our independent
276 variables, which may result in overestimating our standard errors; however, these correlations are
277 weak (for example, Figure S8). Taken together, our results suggest changes to tRNA modification
278 enzyme activity or expression have a modest contribution to changes in selection on codon usage.

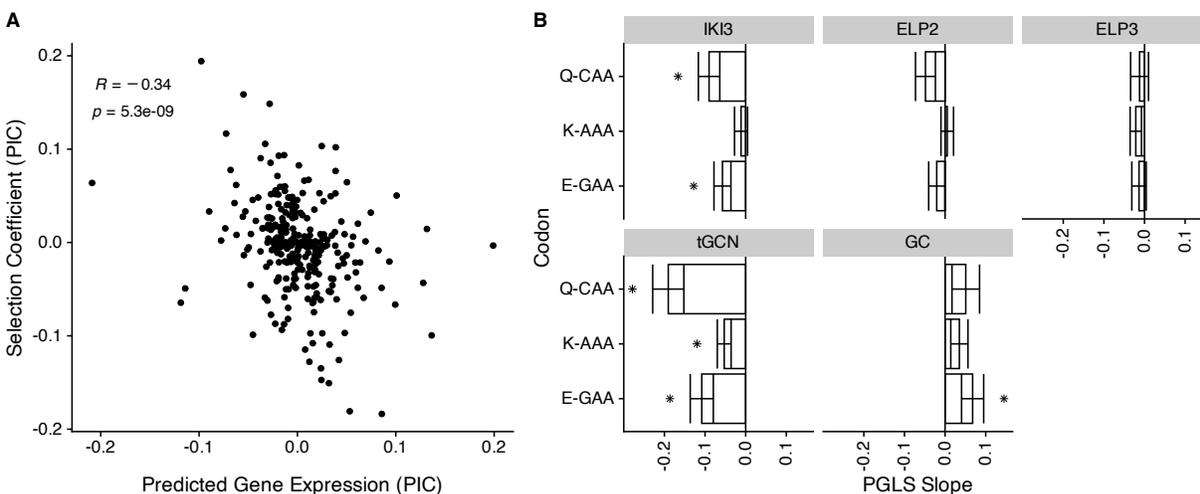


Figure 6: Relationship between across-species variation in natural selection on codon usage and across-species variation in gene expression of proteins forming the tRNA modification enzyme Elongator Complex (IKI3, ELP2, ELP3). (A) Example scatter-plot showing the relationship between the selection coefficients $\Delta\eta$ of codon CAA and gene expression of IKI3. (B) Bar plot representing the effects (i.e., PGLS slopes) of Elongator Complex gene expression, tGCN, and genome-wide GC% on variation in PGLS selection coefficients of codons recognized by tRNA modified by the Elongator Complex.

279 Discussion

280 The direction and degree of codon usage bias (CUB) varies across species. Theoretically justified
281 estimates of the underlying microevolutionary processes that shape CUB within a species and how
282 these relate to molecular mechanisms are critical for understanding the causes of the observed
283 macroevolutionary variation in CUB. We applied a population genetics model ROC-SEMPPR to
284 the protein-coding sequences of 327 Saccharomycotina budding yeasts [11, 23] to estimate natural
285 selection and mutation biases at codon-level resolution for all species [10, 24, 38]. The formula-
286 tion of ROC-SEMPPR and its predecessors assume the only non-adaptive directional force (i.e.,

287 favoring one synonym over another) shaping codon usage bias is mutation bias, but many other
288 relevant directional non-adaptive processes exist. This includes but is not limited to GC-biased
289 gene conversion [17] and lateral gene transfer or introgressions [26]. As ROC-SEMPPR quantifies
290 natural selection on codon usage via changes to gene expression, all non-adaptive processes shaping
291 codon usage uncorrelated with gene expression are absorbed into the mutation bias parameter.
292 This is particularly problematic if these processes cause genome-wide variation in the non-adaptive
293 nucleotide background: ROC-SEMPPR is most likely to mistake this variation to be the result of
294 natural selection [28]. We built upon our recent work coupling an unsupervised machine learning
295 approach with ROC-SEMPPR approach to identify protein-coding sequences subject to different
296 non-adaptive nucleotide biases. Across the 327 yeasts, we find 18% of species exhibited significant
297 within-genome variation in non-adaptive nucleotide biases. Previously, we found protein-coding
298 sequences assigned to the different sets were largely differentiated based on GC3% and tended to
299 be colocalized along chromosomes, leading to regions of low and high GC3% content [28]. Within-
300 genome variation in non-adaptive nucleotide biases could be due to several processes; prominent
301 among these is GC-biased gene conversion in which regions of high recombination are expected
302 to have higher GC content [17]. Although we have no direct evidence of GC-biased gene con-
303 version, *Saccharomycotina* yeasts better fit by the VarMut model often show clear non-adaptive
304 biases towards GC-ending codons. Surprisingly, yeasts exhibiting within-genome variation of non-
305 adaptive biases are often phylogenetically distant. Further work is needed to elucidate the causes
306 of within-genome variation in non-adaptive nucleotide biases.

307 Translational selection (i.e., natural selection for translation efficiency) is a prominent hypothe-
308 sis explaining adaptive CUB, particularly in microbes [4]. Most of the *Saccharomycotina* subphylum
309 exhibits evidence of translational selection, including correlations between predicted and empiri-
310 cal estimates of gene expression, and correlations between selection coefficients with waiting times
311 within species. Under translational selection, we expect across-species changes in selection on codon
312 usage to correlate with changes to the tRNA pool. Across species, natural selection on codon usage
313 is generally correlated with waiting times of codons, strong evidence for a key role of the tRNA
314 pool in shaping natural selection on codon usage. As further evidence for the role of the tRNA
315 pool, changes to the expression levels of the Elongator Complex – a key tRNA modification enzyme

316 – are correlated with changes to natural selection on codons AAA, CAA, and GAA across species.
317 Previous studies investigated how codon usage changes with the tRNA pool on macroevolutionary
318 timescales [5, 20], but ours is the first to directly test how variation in natural selection on codon
319 usage reflect evolutions variation of tRNA pool at the level of individual codons.

320 Across species changes to natural selection on codon usage are correlated with the waiting
321 times, but many of these correlations are moderate to weak. Many factors may be obscuring this
322 relationship. First, empirical estimates of waiting times from ribosome profiling data are imperfectly
323 (albeit moderately to strongly) correlated with tRNA-based proxies [39, 40]. Second, our estimates
324 of natural selection are expected to average over different selective pressures that may also scale
325 with gene expression, further obscuring the relationship between selection on codon usage and the
326 tRNA pool. For example, selection against translation errors (missense errors, nonsense errors,
327 etc.) is also expected to scale with gene expression [12, 41, 42], but the most efficient codon may
328 not always be the most accurate codon [43]. Additionally, selective pressures on CUB restricted to
329 specific regions of a protein-coding sequence, such as selection against mRNA secondary structure
330 around the 5'-end [44], also shape adaptive CUB. How different selective pressures interplay to shape
331 the observed CUB remains an open question and will necessitate the development of more nuanced
332 models that can separate different forms of adaptive CUB. Finally, a key question regarding changes
333 in natural selection on codon usage is the relative importance of changes to the effective population
334 size N_e (which modulates the impact of genetic drift) vs. the unscaled selection coefficient s (note
335 that our selection coefficients $\Delta\eta$ reflect the scaled selection coefficients $S = sN_e$ in a gene of average
336 of expression $\phi = 1$). With the current data, we cannot decompose our scaled selection coefficients
337 $\Delta\eta$ into the effective population size and the unscaled selection coefficients (which is a function of
338 both waiting times and the energetic cost of ribosome pausing, see [24] for more details) As such,
339 we cannot say which contributes more to across species variation in adaptive CUB. However, our
340 work indicates changes to the unscaled selection coefficients s via changes to the tRNA pool are
341 prominent in driving changes to natural selection on codon usage, and thus shaping variation in
342 adaptive CUB across species.

343 Perhaps our most surprising finding was that microevolutionary processes shaping CUB across
344 the Saccharomycotina subphylum are highly variable across closely related species. This was evident

345 by (a) the generally poor agreement between the clustering of parameters and the phylogeny and (b)
346 the overall low estimates of phylogenetic signal based on a multivariate version of Blomberg's K [30].
347 Interestingly, estimates of natural selection were more similar than mutation biases between closely
348 related species. Consistent with this, estimates of stabilizing selection were generally greater for
349 the mutation bias estimates than natural selection. This suggests the underlying molecular factors
350 shaping mutation biases (e.g., mismatch repair) are generally under stronger stabilizing selection
351 than those relevant to natural selection on codon usage (e.g., the tRNA pool). This should not
352 distract from the larger point that both traits are highly variable across species, ultimately driving
353 variation in CUB.

354 Hierarchical clustering revealed 34 of the 327 budding yeast were poorly fit by ROC-SEMPPR,
355 at least relative to other species. On average, ROC-SEMPPR parameter estimates for these species
356 were more weakly correlated with empirical estimates of gene expression and codon-specific waiting
357 times. These correlations were often positive, suggesting possible isolated shifts in the direction of
358 natural selection acting on codon usage. Based on the poor model fit, it is possible that these species
359 (1) have reduced natural selection acting on codon usage below the drift barrier [45], possibly due
360 to reduced effective population sizes or (2) additional evolutionary forces acting on codon usage
361 that further obscure signals of natural selection related to protein synthesis. These species serve as
362 excellent starting points for future studies to elucidate the complex interplay of evolutionary forces
363 that shape CUB.

364 **Materials and methods**

365 We obtained genome sequences, associated annotation files, the Saccharomycotina species tree,
366 and a list of one-to-one orthologs from previous work [23]. We excluded mitochondrial genes,
367 protein-coding sequences with non-canonical start codons, internal stop codons, and sequences
368 whose lengths were not a multiple of three from all analyses. We queried all protein sequences
369 against a BLAST database built from sequences in the MiToFun database to identify and remove
370 mitochondrial sequences (<http://mitofun.biol.uoa.gr/>). Empirical gene expression measure-
371 ments were taken from [28] and the sources cited therein. Briefly, adapters for each sequence were

372 trimmed using **fastp** [46], and genes were quantified using **kallisto** [47]. Transcripts-per-million
373 (TPMs) were re-calculated for each transcript by rounding raw read counts to the nearest whole
374 number [48].

375 Analyzing codon usage patterns with ROC-SEMPPR

The Ribosomal Overhead Cost version of the Stochastic Evolutionary Model of Protein Production Rates (ROC-SEMPPR) is implemented in a Bayesian framework. This allows for the simultaneous estimation of codon-specific selection coefficients and mutation bias, as well as gene-specific estimates of the evolutionary average gene expression by assuming gene expression follows a log-normal distribution [24]. ROC-SEMPPR does not require empirical gene expression data, meaning it can be applied to any species with annotated protein-coding sequences. For any amino acid with n_{aa} synonymous codons, the probability $p_{i,g}$ of observing codon i in gene g is defined by the equation

$$p_{i,g} = \frac{e^{-\Delta M_i - \Delta \eta_i \phi_g}}{\sum_j^{n_{aa}} e^{-\Delta M_j - \Delta \eta_j \phi_g}} \quad (1)$$

376 where ΔM_i and $\Delta \eta_i$ represent mutation bias and selection coefficient of codon i relative to a
377 reference synonymous codon (arbitrarily chosen as the alphabetically last codon), and ϕ_g represents
378 gene expression of gene g which follows from the steady-state distribution of fixed genotypes under
379 selection-mutation-drift equilibrium [10, 24, 49]. For each gene, the observed codon counts for an
380 amino acid are expected to follow a multinomial distribution with the probability of observing a
381 codon defined by Equation 1. Given the codon counts and the assumption that gene expression
382 follows a lognormal distribution, ROC-SEMPPR estimates the parameters that best fit the codon
383 counts via a Markov Chain Monte Carlo simulation approach (MCMC). ROC-SEMPPR was fit
384 to 327 species using the R package AnaCoDa [50]. For each species, the MCMC chains were run
385 for 200,000 iterations, keeping every 10th iteration. The first 50,000 iterations were discarded as
386 burn-in. Two separate MCMC chains were run for each species and parameter estimates were
387 compared to assess convergence.

388 Previous work with ROC-SEMPPR separated serine codons TCN (where N is any of the other
389 four nucleotides) and AGY (where Y is C or T) into separate groups of codons for the analysis

390 [10, 24, 26]. ROC-SEMPPR assumes each mutation introduced to a population is fixed or lost
391 before the arrival of the next mutation (i.e., “weak mutation” $N_e\mu \ll 1$). The model also assumes
392 fixed amino acid sequences for all protein-coding sequences. As a result, going between these two
393 groups of serine codons would require the fixation of a non-serine amino acid before returning to
394 serine via the fixation of another mutation, violating the fixed amino acid sequence assumption. A
395 local version of AnaCoDa was created to handle species for which CTG codes for serine. For these
396 species, CTG was treated as a third codon group for serine, similar to ATG (methionine) or TGG
397 (tryptophan), which have no synonyms.

398 **Identifying within-genome variation in codon usage bias**

399 We recently found numerous Saccharomycotina yeasts exhibit variation in the non-adaptive nu-
400 cleotide biases shaping GC% within a genome that obscures signals of natural selection on codon
401 usage [28]. We followed the same procedure to hypothesize genes evolving under different non-
402 adaptive nucleotide biases across all 327 budding yeasts. For each species, correspondence analysis
403 (CA) was applied to the absolute codon frequencies of each annotated protein-coding sequence
404 using the ca R package [51]. Protein-coding sequences were then clustered into two groups based
405 on the first four principal components from the CA using the CLARA algorithm implemented in
406 the cluster R package, which is designed to perform k-medoids clustering on large datasets [52]. See
407 our previous work for more details on the CLARA clustering algorithm [28]. For each species, the
408 cluster with the lower median GC3% was designated as the “Lower GC3% Set”, and the cluster
409 with the higher median GC3% as the “Higher GC3% Set”. ROC-SEMPPR was fit to the protein-
410 coding sequences of each species, assuming selection coefficient and mutation bias parameters were
411 the same between the two clusters, which we refer to as the “ConstMut” model. Similarly, the
412 protein-coding sequences of each species were also fit while allowing the mutation bias to vary
413 across sequences based on their assigned cluster, which we will refer to as the “VarMut” model.
414 For the VarMut model, selection coefficients were assumed to be the same across the Higher and
415 Lower GC3% sets.

416 ROC-SEMPPR predictions of gene expression ϕ for each protein-coding sequence were com-
417 pared to empirical estimates of mRNA abundance using the Spearman correlation coefficient using

418 processed data from our previous work [28]. For species lacking RNA-seq data, we compared each
419 species' predicted gene expression to the empirical gene expression of its closest relative for which
420 the latter was available. This is reasonable given that mRNA abundances in yeasts evolve under
421 stabilizing selection [53]. The VarMut model was considered an improved fit over the ConstMut
422 model if the correlation between predicted and empirical gene expression estimates was 25% greater
423 relative to the ConstMut model.

424 **Comparing codon-specific parameters across species**

425 Across-species and across-codon variation in selection coefficients $\Delta\eta$ and mutation bias ΔM were
426 compared using hierarchical clustering using the “complete linkage” algorithm with distances de-
427 termined by the $1 - R$, where R is the pairwise Spearman rank correlation. Results were visualized
428 using heatmaps as implemented in the R package **ComplexHeatmap**. For each codon-specific
429 parameter estimate, we quantified the similarity between the phylogenetic tree and the hierarchical
430 clustering via a cophenetic correlation, which measures how well two dendrograms preserve the
431 pairwise distances between data points. As orthogonal analyses, we quantified the overall phy-
432 logenetic signal (i.e., how similar species are to their closest relatives) via a multivariate version
433 of Blomberg's K (K_{multi}) as implemented in the R package **geomorph**. As stabilizing selection
434 toward a single optimum value degrades phylogenetic signal [31], we also fit an Ornstein-Uhlenbeck
435 [54] model of trait evolution via the R package **geiger** [32] to the codon-specific parameters (using
436 the standard deviation of the posterior distribution as measurement error), with the strength of
437 stabilizing selection α compared between selection and mutation bias estimates using a Wilcox rank
438 sum test. For the VarMut species, we performed these analyses using mutation bias estimates from
439 either the Lower GC3% set or the Higher GC3% set.

440 **Determining potential causes for across-species variation in codon-** 441 **specific parameters**

442 Across-species correlations between traits were assessed after performing phylogenetic independent
443 contrasts (PIC) as implemented in the R package **ape**. Phylogenetic regressions were performed

444 using the R package **phylolm** using Pagel’s λ model [55]. Multiple comparisons were accounted
445 for via the Benjamini-Hochberg procedure with a false discovery rate of 0.05.

446 **Estimating codon-specific ribosome waiting times**

447 Estimates of codon-specific elongation rates were obtained based on the weights used to calculate
448 the tRNA Adaptation Index (tAI) [33]. We ran the latest version of tRNA-ScanSE on the genomic
449 FASTA sequences with mitochondrial genomes removed to obtain a tRNA gene copy (tGCN)
450 for each species under consideration [56]. To allow for potential variation in wobble efficiency
451 across species, we estimated wobble parameters by maximizing the Spearman rank correlation
452 coefficient between ROC-SEMPPR predicted gene expression and tAI using the R package **tAI**
453 [57]. ROC-SEMPPR estimates reflect selection against a codon relative to a reference synonymous
454 codon (implemented as the alphabetically last codon for each amino acid in **AnaCoDa**). As we
455 are primarily interested in comparing tRNA-based waiting times to selection coefficients $\Delta\eta$, we
456 calculated the log ratio of the weights between a codon and its respective reference codon i.e.,

$$w_{aa,i} = \log(W_{aa_{ref}}/W_i) \quad (2)$$

457 where aa_{ref} indicates the reference codon for amino acid aa and W_i gives the unnormalized
458 weight as calculated in tAI. This contrasts with the normal formulation of tAI, which typically
459 normalizes all weights relative to the maximum weight across all codons (regardless of amino acid)
460 [33]. In some cases, the reference codon for an amino acid could not be translated based on the
461 given tRNA genes and standard wobble rules. As our goal is to test if across-species changes to
462 selection are generally correlated with changes to the tRNA pool, we opted to drop these cases
463 from our analyses rather than have potentially different reference codons for each species.

464 **Comparing selection coefficients $\Delta\eta$ with tRNA modification gene expression**

465 Removal of the mcm⁵s²U modification at U₃₄ of tRNA recognizing codon AAA (Lys), GAA (Glu),
466 and CAA (Gln) increases ribosome waiting times at these codons in *S. cerevisiae* [36, 37]. The

467 protein-coding sequences encoding tRNA modifications enzymes that make up the catalytic center
468 of the Elongator Complex – IKI3 (ELP1), ELP2, and ELP3 – were identified in each Saccha-
469 romycotina yeasts tRNA modifications known to impact translation efficiency using a previously
470 determined list of one-to-one orthologs [23]. The relevant ROC-SEMPPR gene expression estimates
471 ϕ were obtained for each gene and were compared to the selection coefficients $\Delta\eta$ for AAA, GAA,
472 and CAA using multivariate phylogenetic regressions assuming a Pagel’s λ model (3 regressions,
473 one for each codon) as implemented in the R package **phylolm**. In addition to the effects of
474 each of the Elongator Complex proteins, we also included the effects of the corresponding tGCN
475 (specifically, $\log(\text{tGCN})$) for each of the codons and the genome-wide GC% in our regressions, i.e.
476 $\Delta\eta_{\text{Codon}} \sim \phi_{\text{IKI3}} + \phi_{\text{ELP2}} + \phi_{\text{ELP3}} + \text{tGCN}_{\text{Codon}} + \text{GC}\% + \text{Intercept}$. Each independent variable
477 was transformed into a Z-score to make the effects of each variable more comparable.

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484 Competing interests

485 P.S. is a Director at the stealth mode biotech.

486 Data availability

All data are publicly available via the citations provided in this article (see doi:10.6084/m9.figshare.5854692.v1).
Scripts and R notebooks for re-creating our analysis and visualizations can be found at https://github.com/acope3/Saccharomycotina_subphylum_analysis.

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