Evolution of Bacterial Genome under Changing Mutational Pressure *Computer Simulation Studies*

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Abstract: The main force shaping the structure of bacterial chromosomes is the replication-associated mutational pressure which is characterized by distinct nucleotide substitution patterns acting on differently replicated DNA strands (leading and lagging). Therefore, the composition of DNA strands is asymmetric and it is important at which strand a gene is located and into which strand it could be translocated. Thus, the mutational pressure restricts also intragenomic translocations. To analyze this effect, we have elaborated a simulation model of bacterial genome evolution assuming translocation of protein coding genes and different types of selection acting on their sequences. The 'negative' selection eliminated individuals if the coding signal of any gene in its genome dropped below the acceptable range, whereas the 'stabilizing' selection did not allow for the decrease in the coding signal of any gene below its original value. Under the 'negative' selection more genes stayed or were translocated to the lagging strand, whereas under the 'stabilizing' selection more genes preferred the leading strand. The 'stabilizing' selection eliminated more individuals because of the coding signal loss and slightly fewer because of the stop codon generation. The 'stabilizing' selection allowed also for much less gene translocations between strands than the 'negative' selection.

1 INTRODUCTION

The conserved position of genes on bacterial chromosomes is observed only between closely related species or strains and it disappears very quickly during divergence of the bacterial genomes (Mushegian and Koonin, 1996; Watanabe et al., 1997; Bellgard et al., 1999; Itoh et al., 1999; Hughes, 2000; Rocha, 2006). The main force shaping the structure of bacterial chromosomes is the mutational pressure associated with DNA replication. Since the mechanisms of DNA synthesis are different for leading and lagging strands, the probabilities of specific nucleotide substitutions are different for those strands (Frank and Lobry, 1999; Kowalczuk et al., 001a; Kowalczuk et al., 001b; Rocha and Danchin, 2001; Rocha et al., 2006). The direct result of this phenomenon is compositional bias between the differently replicated DNA strands, which is called DNA asymmetry. (Lobry, 1996; Grigoriev, 1998; McLean et al., 1998; Mrazek and Karlin, 1998; Mackiewicz et al., 1999; Tillier and Collins, 000a; Lobry and Sueoka, 2002).

The genome rearrangements and genes translocations are strongly related to the asymmetric structure of bacterial chromosomes (Achaz et al., 2003; Mackiewicz et al., 2003). The large inversions observed in closely related bacterial genomes are symmetrical in relation to the origin of replication as a result of higher frequency of recombination events at the replication forks and/or selection for the maintenance of: (i) highly expressed genes near the replication origin in the proper copy number, (ii) the same length of two replichores and (iii) position of genes on the same type of DNA strand subjected to the stable mutational pressure (Eisen et al., 2000; Tillier and Collins, 000b; Mackiewicz et al., 001a). However, comparisons of more distantly related genomes revealed that the number of orthologs which changed DNA strand increases quickly with the phylogenetic distance leaving only a small fraction of highly conserved genes for ribosomal proteins on the leading strand in analyzed genomes (Mackiewicz et al., 2003). It probably results from selection for location of genes essential for cell functioning in the leading strand (Rocha and Danchin, 003a; Rocha and Danchin, 003b). Such requirements may also explain the observed higher frequency of gene translocations from the lagging to the leading strand rather than in the opposite direction (Mackiewicz et al., 001b). The last observation should result in a very strong bias in coding capacity of the two DNA strands. To keep the coding capacity of DNA strands more balanced, the other selection

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force should be expected. It could be the different selection pressure for gene surviving under the different mutational pressure.

The translocation of genes between differently replicated DNA strands and the influence of changing mutational pressure associated with replication on such genes was studied in computer simulations (Mackiewicz et al., 2004; Dudkiewicz et al., 2005; Mackiewicz and Cebrat, 2009). They showed that the most advantageous strategy for the majority of genes is to switch their position between the DNA strands from time to time. The translocation involves a change in the direction of the mutational pressure, which introduces intragenic suppression mutations complementing the former ones which occurred in the same gene. Those previous simulations used the amino acid composition of particular gene products as selection parameter. In the approach presented here, we applied selection at the nucleotide level according to the algorithm for prediction of protein coding sequences (Błażej et al., 2010; Błażej et al., 2011).

SCIENCE AND TECHN

2 METHODS

In computer simulations, we applied the modified model of prokaryotic genome evolution proposed in (Błażej et al., 2012). We considered the population of 72 individuals. Such number was optimal for the simulation program to perform computer calculations. Each individual (genome) were represented by 475 protein coding sequences of *Borrelia burgdorferi* genome, which is characterized by very strong asymmetry in DNA composition. The gene sequences were downloaded from the NCBI database (*www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov*). This set of genes was divided into subsets: 333 genes located on the leading strand and 142 genes located on the lagging strand.

Nucleotides from the gene sequences were chosen for mutation according to the Poisson process assuming one mutation per genome. Then the nucleotide was substituted by another one with probability in the mutational matrices for the leading or lagging strands (Tab. 1) accordingly to the current location of the gene. However, in contrast to (Błażej et al., 2012), we also applied translocation of genes to the other DNA strand with the probability 10^{-3} , which is close to the rearrangement rate per generation expected in bacteria without selection (Rocha, 2006). In the next step of simulation, such gene was subjected to the substitution matrix from this new strand. For comparison, we also carried out simulations without translocations.

After the mutation stage, genes were eliminated if they obtained a stop codon or their coding signal Table 1: The substitution matrix describing mutational pressure acting on the leading DNA strand for the *B. burgdorferi* genome (Kowalczuk et al., 001b). A nucleotide in the first column is substituted by a nucleotide in the first row. Because of strands' complementarity, the substitution from the lagging strand is complementary to the corresponding one from the leading strand. For example, the lagging strand substitution from C to T corresponds to the substitution from G to A from the leading strand.

	A	1	G	C
A	0.81	0.10	0.07	0.02
T	0.07	0.87	0.03	0.03
G	0.16	0.12	0.71	0.01
C	0.07	0.26	0.05	0.62

was destroyed according to the algorithm for prediction of protein coding sequences (Błażej et al., 2010; Błażej et al., 2011). This algorithm calculates average coding signal uses three independent homogeneous Markov chains to describe occurrence of nucleotides for each of three codon positions in a given DNA sequence, separately. However, unlike (Błażej et al., 2012) we applied separate selection pressures for genes according to their location on the leading or lagging strands. Genes from the given DNA strand were checked with the appropriate gene recognition model based on the learning sets of protein coding genes from the suitable strand.

We considered two types of selection of individuals according to the coding signal. An individual was eliminated when at least one of its mutated gene sequences accumulated so many mutations that its coding signal became lower than: (i) the coding signal from an alternative reading frame ('negative' selection), or (ii) the original value at the beginning of the simulation ('stabilizing' selection). Simulations were run over 10 million Monte Carlo steps (MCS).

3 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

3.1 Coding Signal for Different Gene Sets and Models

In Fig. 1, we compared the average coding signal calculated separately for the leading and lagging strand genes based on two gene recognition models trained on: (i) genes from the DNA strand on which the analyzed genes are located (right model) and (ii) genes from the opposite strand (wrong model). The maximum of the coding signal for alternative reading frames of the analyzed genes was also shown for comparison. As expected, the application of the right model for every gene set gives the higher coding signal than in the case of the wrong model. However, the difference is smallest for the lagging strand genes than for the leading strand genes although the coding signal for the leading strand genes with the right model shows the widest range and overlaps with the range of the wrong model for the leading strand genes. Generally, the coding signal of correct reading frames is much stronger than of the non-coding sequences for all gene sets and models combinations. The smallest difference between coding signals of the correct and incorrect reading frames is if the coding signal of lagging strand genes is calculated based on the learning set from the leading strand. It suggests that the genes from the lagging strand should be more frequently eliminated when they were subjected to the selection typical of the leading strand genes. However, these expectation can be also influenced by the applied mutational and selection pressures acting on gene sequences.



Figure 1: Average coding signal for the leading and lagging strand genes (lead_g and lagg_g, respectively) calculated according to the gene recognition model trained on learning sets from two DNA strands (lead_m and lagg_m, respectively). Non-coding sequences represented by alternative reading frames of genes from two DNA strands were also included for comparison (lead_n and lagg_n, respectively). The thick horizontal line in the boxplots indicates median, the rectangle means quartile range and the whiskers show the range without outliers.

3.2 Stability of Gene Location on DNA Strands during Simulation

The simulations were started with 70% of genes coming from the leading strand and 30% of genes from the lagging strand (like in the real *B. burgdorferi genome*). These proportions were almost unchanged under the 'stabilizing' selection while they changed significantly under negative selection and the percentage of the genes staying on the leading strand dropped to about 40% after 10 million MCS of simulation (Fig. 2).



Figure 2: Fraction of genes occupying the leading strand during simulation.

To check what kind of translocation led to this distribution, we studied changes in fraction of genes from DNA strands separately (Fig. 3 and Fig. 4). These analyses showed that till 10,000 MCS, about the half of genes both from the leading and the lagging strand were translocated to the opposite strand under the 'negative' selection. However, during the simulation under this selection many lagging strand genes returned to their proper strand reaching at the end of the simulation about 60% (Fig. 3). In contrast to that, more of leading strand genes left their own strand and about 40% occupied the leading strand at the end of the simulation for the 'negative' selection (Fig. 4). Interestingly, the 'stabilizing' selection was more conserving for positions of the leading than lagging strand genes because it kept more than 90% of the genes on the leading strand and about 80% of the genes on the lagging strand.

This results indicate that for the 'negative' selection, it is more advantageous for most of genes from both DNA strands to stay under mutational and selection pressures characteristic of the lagging strand. However, for the more conserved 'stabilizing' selection, more genes prefer the leading strand conditions as it is observed in the real genomes (Mackiewicz et al., 001b; Mackiewicz et al., 2003; Rocha and Danchin, 003a; Rocha and Danchin, 003b).



Figure 3: Fraction of lagging strand genes staying on their own strand during simulation.



Figure 4: Fraction of leading strand genes staying on their own strand during simulation.

3.3 Comparison of Two Selection Types and Simulation Models

The used two selection types differ in their restrictions. The 'negative' selection eliminated individuals when the coding signal of genes was smaller than their alternative reading frames, whereas the 'stabilizing' selection was more restrictive because a mutated gene was not allowed to decrease its original coding signal. Then, the 'stabilizing' selection eliminated more genomes than the 'negative' one for the model with translocations (Fig. 5). Moreover, the simulation with the latter selection begun with a long delay in which none or very few individuals were eliminated until their gene sequences accumulated enough number of mutations that decreased their coding signal. Therefore, the 'stabilizing' selection was more restrictive for the maintenance of the coding signal during the whole simulation, whereas the 'negative' selection allowed for its decrease (Fig. 6). The model with gene translocations eliminated more individuals than the model without them under the 'negative' selection (Fig. 5). This stronger selection resulted in a slightly higher average coding signal of survived genes for the model with translocations when the simulations reached equilibrium (Fig. 6).



Figure 5: Cumulated number of individuals eliminated because of the coding signal loss in their genes.



Figure 6: Change of the coding signal of gene sequences during simulation.

Differences between two types of selections and simulation models were much weaker when individ-



Figure 7: Cumulated number of individuals eliminated because of the codon stop.



Figure 8: Cumulated number of substitutions accepted in gene sequences.

uals were eliminated by generation of the stop codon inside their genes (Fig. 7). Then, the 'stabilizing' selection turned out less restrictive than the 'negative' one for the model with translocations. Moreover, the admission of gene movements between DNA strands eliminated only slightly more individuals than the model without translocations (Fig. 7).

Generally, the number of eliminated individuals by stop codons was much bigger than the number of individuals eliminated because of the coding signal loss for models with and without translocations using the 'negative' selection (Fig. 5). The opposite was for the 'stabilizing' selection model with translocations. It seems that translocation effect on individual elimination depends on the applied selection type.



Figure 9: Cumulated number of gene translocation between differently replicated DNA strands.

The applied selections also differed in the number of accepted substitutions (Fig. 8) and the number of translocated genes (Fig. 9). The 'negative' selection allowed for only slightly more substitutions but significantly more gene movements than the 'stabilizing' one. The model with translocations caused accumulation of more substitutions than the model without them. It agrees with studies of bacterial genomes showing higher divergence between homologs lying on different than the same DNA strands (Rocha and Danchin, 2001; Mackiewicz et al., 001b; Mackiewicz et al., 2003). It may result from weaker selection on translocated genes or higher susceptibility of their sequences to the opposite mutational pressure.

The presented simulations were based on *Borrelia burgdorferi* genes but similar results are expected for other bacteria also showing compositional bias between differently replicated DNA strands. However, pure mutational pressures should be found for these genomes to perform comparative studies.

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