

Comprehensive annotation of transcription factors, chromatin-associated factors, and basal transcription machinery in the pea aphid, Acyrthosiphon pisum

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| 3 | ATFdb database, a resource for studies of transcriptional regulation |
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23 Abstract

24 The pea aphid, Acyrthosiphon pisum, is an emerging model system in functional and comparative genomics, in part due to the availability of new genomic approaches and the 25 different sequencing and annotation efforts that the community has dedicated to this important 26 27 crop pest insect. The pea aphid is also used as a model to study fascinating biological traits of aphids, such as their extensive polyphenisms, their bacteriocyte-confined nutritional symbiosis, 28 29 or their adaptation to the highly unbalanced diet represented by phloem sap. To get insights into the molecular basis of all these processes, it is important to have an appropriate annotation of 30 transcription factors (TFs), which would enable the reconstruction/inference of gene regulatory 31 32 networks in aphids. All available annotations of pea aphid TFs are based on the first versions of the genome assembly and annotation, that are now replaced by a new reference assembly. 33 We took advantage of this new resource, which represents the first chromosome-level A. pisum 34 35 genome, to annotate the complete repertoire of A. pisum TFs, and to complement this information by annotating genes encoding chromatin-associated and basal transcription 36 machinery proteins. These annotations were done using information from the model Drosophila 37 melanogaster, for which we also provide a revisited list of these proteins. The comparison 38 39 between the two model systems allowed the identification of major losses or expansions in each 40 genome, while a deeper analysis was made of ZNF TFs (with certain families expanded in the pea aphid), and the Hox gene cluster (showing reorganization in gene position in the pea aphid 41 compared to D. melanogaster). All annotations are made available to the community the 42 43 different annotations we produced storing all this information in the Aphid Transcription Factors database (ATFdb), a resource for gene regulation studies in aphids. 44

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46 Keywords: Hemiptera; pea aphid; transcription factors; chromatin; basal transcription

47 machinery; TF database

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49 1. Introduction

Changes in gene expression arise in response to internal and external signals and are essential 50 51 for decoding genotypes into cellular, tissue and organismal phenotypes. Gene expression 52 alterations are observed, for example, during development (Martín et al., 2016; Spitz and Furlong, 2012), upon cellular differentiation (Peñalosa-Ruiz et al., 2019), in metabolic 53 homeostasis and physiological regulations (Desvergne et al., 2006), and in response to 54 55 environmental stimuli (Han and Kaufman, 2017; Song et al., 2016). Gene expression is 56 controlled to an important extent by Transcription Factors (TFs), which bind accessible cis-57 regulatory DNA elements to positively or negatively regulate the expression of target genes 58 (Hammonds et al., 2013; Hens et al., 2011; Kim and Wysocka, 2023; Lambert et al., 2018). The accessibility of DNA depends on chromatin state and can be enhanced by TFs (Zaret, 2020). 59 Sets of TFs and their target genes are organized in so-called Gene Regulatory Networks (GRNs) 60 that govern cellular gene expression (Aerts, 2012; Davidson and Levine, 2008; Singh et al., 61 2018). Altered specificity or activity of TFs or changes in cis-regulatory sequences impact the 62 63 structure or activity of GRNs and represent an important source of phenotypic diversity and evolutionary adaptation (Carroll, 2008; Schember and Halfon, 2022). 64

TFs are a large group of evolutionary conserved regulatory proteins. Their modular structure determines their ability to interact with DNA sequences through DNA binding domains (DBDs), to exert their function as positive or negative regulators of target gene expression through transcriptional regulatory domains, or even to associate with each other or with co-activating/repressing proteins through oligomerization (Gonzalez, 2016; Lemon and Tjian, 2000; Näär et al., 2001). TFs are classified into several superfamilies, families and subfamilies, based on structural similarities, primarily of their DBDs (Luscombe et al., 2000). Three major superfamilies are the C_2H_2 zinc finger, homeodomain and helix-loop-helix, which together account for more than 80% of all predicted human TFs (Vaquerizas et al., 2009) and around 70% of TFs in the fruit fly *Drosophila melanogaster* (Gramates et al. (2022)).

75 For over a century, D. melanogaster has been used as a model system to dissect and 76 understand genetics, developmental biology, organ specification and function, physiology and metabolism (Bellen and Yamamoto, 2015; Dow et al., 2022; Fischer et al., 2023; Helfand and 77 78 Rogina, 2003; Mohr and Perrimon, 2019). Many sophisticated biochemical, molecular, and 79 cellular approaches have been developed in *D. melanogaster* and were used to functionally validate TFs (Shokri et al., 2019). Consequently, the Drosophila genome is one of the best 80 characterized metazoan genomes in terms of functionally annotated genes and regulatory 81 82 elements (Celniker and Rubin, 2003; Chen et al., 2014; Yang et al., 2018). In recent years, the increasing number of sequenced genomes has accelerated TF predictions and annotations in 83 diverse insects beyond Drosophila (i5K Consortium, 2013; Sproul et al., 2023). The pea aphid 84 Acyrthosiphon pisum has emerged as an important model system in functional and comparative 85 genomics, in part due to the availability of new genomic approaches (Calevro et al., 2019; Le 86 87 Trionnaire et al., 2019; Sapountzis et al., 2014; Tagu et al., 2016) and the high annotation quality of its genome (Fernández et al., 2020; Li et al., 2019; The International Aphid Genomics 88 Consortium, 2010). Aphids are a great model to study extensive polyphenisms, including 89 90 parthenogenetic and sexual reproduction and the presence of winged and non-winged morphs 91 (Davis et al., 2021; Ogawa and Miura, 2014). They are one of the best studied models of 92 nutritional symbioses and have bacteriocytes, a specialized cell type that houses the obligate endosymbiont Buchnera aphidicola (Baumann, 2005; Calevro et al., 2023; Simonet et al., 93 2018). Not only the developmental origin of this novel cell type remains unknown, but recent 94

work has shown extensive plasticity and transcriptional reprogramming of these cells in
response to environmental challenges (Colella et al., 2018; Ribeiro Lopes et al., 2022). Finally,
aphids are phloem sap-sucking insects that are highly adapted to this unbalanced diet (Douglas,
2015). We propose that all these processes are supported by the interaction of TFs with their
target genes and by GRNs that are either modified from preexisting GRNs or are novel and
possibly aphid specific.

To facilitate studies on gene regulation and GRN inference in aphids, we made a 101 comprehensive annotation of the TFs, chromatin-associated proteins, and basal transcription 102 machinery in the pea aphid, at both the family and gene levels. A first effort by Shigenobu and 103 104 colleagues (2010) made use of the first pea aphid genome assembly but only precisely annotated developmentally important TFs, limiting the rest of the annotation to a DBD-based 105 106 classification. Other analyses, focusing on the basic helix-loop-helix TF family in A. pisum 107 (Dang et al., 2011) or on the annotation of TFs and chromatin-related proteins in different 108 hemipteran species including A. pisum (Vidal et al., 2016) have also been made on the first pea 109 aphid genome assembly. Since then, the availability of the first chromosome-scale assembly 110 for the pea aphid (Li et al., 2019) resulted in a significant adjustment of predicted protein-coding gene numbers, making a new and comprehensive annotation a necessity. Taking advantage of 111 112 the knowledge accumulated in *Drosophila*, we predicted 854 TF-coding genes in A. pisum. In addition, we annotated 230 chromatin-associated genes and 67 genes belonging to the basal 113 transcription machinery. All annotations are compiled in a dedicated database, the Aphid 114 115 Transcription Factors database (ATFdb) (http://atf.cycadsys.org). This complete annotation is 116 expected to be of use to the community studying aphids and other hemipterans, prominent crop 117 pest insects, as well as to researchers studying insect development and evolution.

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2. <u>Materials and methods</u>

120 **2.1 Definition of a list of** bona fide D. melanogaster transcription factors (TFs)

D. melanogaster TF annotations were retrieved from Hens et al. (2011) and Hammonds et al. 121 122 (2013). These lists were merged and then filtered to remove splicing variants that had been 123 annotated as independent genes, or genes that have since been (re)annotated as not being TFs 124 or as being a component of the basal transcription machinery or associated with chromatin. The 125 remaining TFs were compared to the "Transcription factors" gene group (FBgg0000745) 126 available in FlyBase release 6.55 (Gramates et al., 2022), to the precompiled Drosophila TF 127 predictions from the DBD database (Kummerfeld and Teichmann, 2006), and to the TF lists extracted from the relevant databases FlyMine (Lyne et al., 2007) and FlyNet (Tian et al., 2009). 128 129 De novo predictions were made based on the Drosophila melanogaster genome release 6.55 130 using the transcription factor prediction tools from PlantTFDB (Jin et al., 2017) and Pfam using 131 TF domains of the DBD database (Mistry et al., 2021; Wenger, 2018; Wilson et al., 2008). The refinement strategy is summarized in the upper part of Figure 1. 132

133 2.2 Prediction of Acyrthosiphon pisum transcription factors

134 All predicted proteins of A. pisum were downloaded from the NCBI datasets using the RefSeq 135 Annotation release 103 (assembly ID: GCF 005508785.2), also published in Li et al. (2019). A first BLASTP (Altschul et al., 1990) analysis was performed against the A. pisum proteins 136 137 using our new list of bona fide D. melanogaster TF protein sequences as a query with an e-138 value cutoff of 1e-5. BLASTP results were manually curated. To confirm the homology relationships and to remove proteins that are not homologs, reverse BLASTP analyses (i.e. 139 140 using the A. pisum candidate protein as query against D. melanogaster) were performed using 141 as query the A. pisum proteins corresponding to the top ten first BLASTP hits against all D. melanogaster proteins. When both BLASTP analyses yielded the same A. pisum/D. 142 143 melanogaster homologous protein pairs (one to one relationships) the A. pisum orthologous

protein was annotated as such according to D. melanogaster nomenclature. When multiple A. 144 145 pisum TFs gave the same Drosophila TF as the top hit, then the A. pisum TF sequences were 146 aligned pairwise using BLAST Global Alignment to identify identical protein-coding 147 sequences, i.e., putative splicing variants in A. pisum or almost identical copies homologous to 148 one Drosophila TF. Nearly identical sequences in A. pisum were annotated based on Drosophila 149 nomenclature, with chromosomal localization used to discriminate between splicing variants 150 (one localization) or paralogs (several localizations). In cases where the divergence between A. pisum and D. melanogaster hits did not allow an orthologous relationship to be defined, the 151 152 full-length amino acid sequences were aligned and a manual multi-criteria expert judgement 153 was used to distinguish the paralogs, which were then numbered and named according to the Drosophila nomenclature. In most cases, sequence bordering the DNA-binding domain 154 155 contains unique residues that allow unambiguous identification. If the divergence from the D. 156 melanogaster sequence was too strong, but the DNA-binding domain identified it as belonging 157 to the same TF family, the suffix "-like" was added to the end of the gene name symbol. Finally, 158 any remaining sequences that were too short or too divergent and lacked an identifiable DNA-159 binding domain were removed. Since the approach described above would not identify TFs that 160 are not homologous to Drosophila, a de novo prediction was done in parallel on all 17,681 161 A. pisum protein-coding genes using the same prediction tools as for Drosophila (i.e., 162 PlantTFDB and Pfam).

163 The global strategy we used to annotate the *A. pisum* TFs is summarized in the lower part of164 Figure 1.

165 **2.3 Prediction of chromatin associated proteins and basal transcription machinery**

Analysis of the gene lists provided by Hens et al. (2011) and Hammonds et al. (2013) revealedsome overlap between TFs and chromatin-associated proteins, or proteins belonging to the basal

transcription machinery. This stimulated us to produce a complete list of the latter, for which 168 169 an exhaustive single repository was not available, using information derived from FlyBase, and 170 expert literature. A master list of Drosophila chromatin-associated proteins was thus compiled 171 and used to search for homologs in the A. pisum genome, as detailed above (see § 2.2 and Figure 172 1). For chromatin-associated proteins also functioning as TFs, they were double-listed (as TFs 173 and as chromatin-associated proteins). Lastly, the basal transcription machinery of A. pisum 174 was annotated following the same procedure. All identified TFs, chromatin-associated genes and genes involved in the transcription machinery were classified into families and subfamilies 175 176 based on the available information listed in § 2.1.

177 2.4 Annotation of HNF4 homologs in Hemiptera

Following the identification of a HNF4 homolog in A. pisum, the search was extended to 14 178 additional species: six aphid species (Aphis gossypii, Diuraphis noxia, Melanaphis sacchari, 179 180 Myzus persicae, Rhopalosiphum maidis and Sipha flava, all members of the Aphidoidae family), two aphid-related species (Adelges cooleyi, member of the Adelgidae family and 181 Daktulosphaira vitifoliae, member of the Phylloxeridae family) and six other hemipterans 182 (Bemisia tabaci, Cimex lectularius, Diaphorina citri, Halyomorpha halys, Homalodisca 183 184 vitripennis and Nilavarpata lugens) (Table 1). Among all available hemipteran genomes, we 185 specifically selected those with a NCBI RefSeq annotation, which guarantees a quality 186 reference for genome annotation and gene identification. The protein sequences of A. pisum 187 HNF4 (identified in this study) and D. melanogaster HNF4 were used as query to perform BLASTP searches against the RefSeq proteome of the 14 insect species listed above. For each 188 189 species, reverse BLASTP searches (i.e. using the candidate protein as query against the D. 190 melanogaster and A. pisum protein sets) were performed on the top ten BLASTP hits. 191 Additionally, candidate sequences were analyzed with InterProScan (v5.59-91.0) to identify functional domains (Paysan-Lafosse et al., 2023). Candidate proteins were considered *bona fide* HNF4 homologs only if the reverse BLASTP analyses yielded HNF4 in the top ten hits and if the InterProScan analyses revealed the presence of a DBD (InterPro signature IPR049636) and/or ligand binding domain (InterPro signature IPR049635) that are typical of HNF4 TFs. Alignments were performed using the Kalign multiple sequence alignment web service from EMBL-EBI (Madeira et al., 2022) with default parameters. Graphical representations of the alignments were performed using the ESPript v3.0 web service (Robert and Gouet, 2014).

199 2.5 Hox cluster gene annotation in Hemiptera

200 To better understand the evolution of the Hox gene cluster in hemipterans, genes belonging to 201 this cluster were annotated in the 14 additional species listed in Table 1 (see § 2.4). For four of them (A. gossypii, R. maidis, H. vitripennis and N. lugens) chromosome-level assemblies were 202 203 available, and for one (D. vitifoliae) genes belonging to the Hox gene cluster were located on 204 the same genomic scaffold, which permitted cross-species comparison of the chromosomal 205 organization of the Hox gene cluster. Protein sequences encoded by the A. pisum Hox cluster identified in this study were used as query to perform BLASTP searches against the NCBI 206 207 RefSeq proteomes of the 14 selected insect species. For each species, the BLASTP hits with 208 the 10% highest identity scores were subsequently blasted back against the A. pisum reference 209 proteins. When both BLASTP analyses yielded the same homologous protein pairs as top hits, 210 these were annotated as such. When there were discrepancies between the two BLASTP results, 211 semi-manual curation was performed by (i) repeating the analysis with the *D. melanogaster* 212 Hox cluster protein sequences as query and (ii) looking at the relative position of each Hox 213 cluster gene relative to the others on the genome. Systematic BLASTP searches were performed to compare the protein sequences of each predicted Hox gene with the complete set of homologs 214

identified in hemipterans or model species, enabling the level of inter- and intra-specificdivergence within the Hox cluster to be assessed (see § 3, Results and Discussion).

217 This annotation strategy was validated by using it to reannotate the canonical and non-canonical 218 Hox genes of the red flour beetle Tribolium castaneum and the domestic silk moth Bombyx 219 mori, insect models representative of the orders Coleoptera and Lepidoptera, respectively, using the latest NCBI RefSeq genome 220 sequences available (GCF 000002335.3 and 221 GCF 014905235.1). Our results were consistent with the annotation of the Hox cluster genes available in previous studies: we identified the same genes and confirmed their relative position 222 to each other in the Hox cluster (Chai et al., 2008; Mulhair and Holland, 2022; Pace et al., 223 224 2016).

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226 **2.6 Database construction and web interface**

227 All predicted TF sequences and annotations (*i.e. A. pisum* TFs, transcription basal machinery and chromatin-related genes, and HNF4 and the Hox gene cluster in 14 additional hemipteran 228 229 genomes) were stored in a MySQL relational database on a Linux server. Queries to the 230 database were implemented in PHP scripts running in an Apache/PHP environment. ATFdb is 231 accessible online (https://atf.cycadsys.org/) and allows users to browse by TF family. Users can 232 search ATFdb by gene ID, gene name, TF family or by keywords. Users can also run BLAST 233 searches against all the sequences available in the database. The lists of TFs as well as their nucleotide and protein sequences are available for download. 234

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3. <u>Results and Discussion</u>

3.1 A new annotation of *D. melanogaster* TFs, chromatin-associated and basal transcription machinery-associated genes

The analysis of the 755 putative TFs of Hens et al. (2011) revealed that they correspond to 747 238 239 independent genes. The difference is due to the independent listing of splicing variants and the 240 duplicate listing of a few TFs. The intersection of these 747 TFs with the 707 from Hammonds 241 et al. (2013) is 643 TFs, with 104 putative TFs that were listed only in Hens et al. (2011) and 242 64 only in Hammonds et al. (2013). By removing genes that had since been (re)annotated as 243 not being TFs or as being a component of the basal transcription machinery or associated with 244 chromatin, we obtained a final list of 703 putative D. melanogaster TFs. This list was then complemented with annotation datasets from FlyBase (FBgg0000745, 628 candidates), 245 246 FlyMine (142), FlyNet (633) and TranscriptionFactor.org (529). De novo predictions were also 247 performed on the 13,962 protein-coding genes of the D. melanogaster genome using the Pfam 248 domain (536) and the PlantTFDB (483) prediction tools. These analyses yielded an additional 249 32 candidate TFs (upper part of Figure 1). Thus, the complete list of bona fide D. melanogaster 250 TFs that was used to annotate the A. pisum genome comprised 735 unique TF-coding genes 251 (Suppl. File 1).

We also annotated 195 unique *D. melanogaster* chromatin-associated genes (Suppl. File 2). Thirty-two of those genes function as TFs and are also listed in our *D. melanogaster* TF list (Suppl. File 1). Lastly, we report in Suppl. File 3 our annotation of the 51 *D. melanogaster* genes involved in the basal transcription machinery. Two of them are double-listed in Suppl. File 2, as they also belong to the chromatin-associated machinery.

3.2 The *A. pisum* repertoire of TFs, chromatin-associated and basal transcription machinery-associated genes

Using the curated TF list from *D. melanogaster* as query in combination with our *de novo* prediction approach, we identified 854 putative TFs in the pea aphid genome (Suppl. File 1), including 16 chromatin-associated genes. Those were double-listed in Suppl. File 2, which contains the 230 unique *A. pisum* chromatin-associated genes. We also annotated 67 basal
transcription machinery associated genes (Suppl. File 3), two of which also belong to the class
of chromatin associated genes. All this information is available in ATFdb. The basal
transcription machinery did not display important differences between *D. melanogaster* and *A. pisum*. The TFs and the chromatin-associated genes did, however, show remarkable differences.
While some families are well conserved relative to the ones present in the *D. melanogaster*genome, others show independent expansions and losses (Table 2) and are discussed below.

Among the 854 unique *A. pisum* TF genes, 215 were exclusively found in *A. pisum* and did not
have homologs in *D. melanogaster*.

271 Importantly, a systematic comparison with previous annotations of TFs in the A. pisum genome was not possible as we worked on the latest pea aphid reference assembly (Li et al., 2019), in 272 which the total gene number is reduced compared to the versions previously used (20,307 273 274 predicted genes in the latest reference assembly compared to 34,604 in the first assembly used by Shigenobu et al. (2010) and Dang et al. (2011), or to 36,939 of the assembly used by Vidal 275 et al. (2016)) and contains a significantly lower number of duplications. It is also important to 276 277 note that the A. pisum genome assembly used in our study is the first one to have been resolved 278 at the chromosomal level, which permitted a deeper comparative genomic analysis with the 279 annotation available in *D. melanogaster* and other insects (see for example our analysis of the 280 Hox cluster genes).

3.3 The expansion of distinct groups of chromatin-associated genes suggests an important role for epigenetic regulation in the pea aphid

The annotation of the chromatin-associated genes yielded a total of 230 genes in the *A. pisum*genome compared to 195 in the *D. melanogaster* genome. The expansions in *A. pisum* include

285 multiple homologs of the Polycomb-repressive Complex 1 (PRC1) associated genes Kdm2 286 (histone demethylase specific for H3 lysine 36; Lagarou et al., 2008), Sce (Sex combs extra, E3 287 ubiquitin ligase that monoubiquitinates H2A; Gutiérrez et al., 2012) and Scm (Sex combs on 288 midleg, enables PRC1 binding; Bornemann et al., 1996), as well as the SET-domain lysine 289 methyltransferase egg (eggless, histone H3-lysine(9) N-trimethyltransferase; Wang et al., 290 2011). In addition, we found expansions of histone lysine acetyltransferase 6 complex genes 291 (enok - enoki mushroom (Scott et al., 2001), Ing5 - Inhibitor of growth family member 5 (Huang 292 et al., 2016)) and histone deacetylase genes (HDAC1; Mannervik and Levine, 1999). Lastly, 293 the heterochromatin protein 1 (HP1) family, which binds histone H3 tails, is also larger in A. 294 pisum (Mendez et al., 2011). Combined, these results suggest that epigenetic mechanisms may 295 play a prominent role in gene and transcriptional regulation in the pea aphid, a hypothesis also 296 supported by studies suggesting that gene expression in A. pisum is regulated by multiple 297 histone acetyltransferase and histone deacetylase genes (Kirfel et al., 2020).

298 3.4 TF family-specific differences in A. pisum and D. melanogaster

An overall observation was that the genomes of *A. pisum* and *D. melanogaster* show differences
in the numbers of TFs in distinct families, suggesting lineage-specific expansions and losses
(Table 2). We here highlight some of the most notable differences.

302 The most prominent differences were found in the zinc finger (ZNF) TFs. Using a previous 303 version of the A. pisum genome assembly, Shigenobu et al., (2010) described significantly more 304 zinc finger containing TFs of the C₂H₂ (also called classical ZNF) GATA, BED, and MIZ 305 families. We have now systematically reannotated all these families and assigned each ZNF TF 306 in A. pisum to its precise family and observed species-specific expansions of ZNF TFs. The 307 most striking expansions concern the following families : "ZNF-classical transcription factors" (with 269 genes in A. pisum and 149 genes in Drosophila), ZNF-BED (29 genes in A. pisum 308 vs. six in D. melanogaster), ZNF-THAP (17 genes in A. pisum vs. seven in D. melanogaster), 309

ZNF-SP1/KLF (19 genes in A. pisum vs. 13 in D. melanogaster) and ZNF-RING/FYBVE/PHD 310 311 (also known as ZNF-MIZ, 38 genes in A. pisum vs. 14 in D. melanogaster). By contrast, the 312 family ZNF-AD displays an expansion in D. melanogaster (83 TFs). Several of the ZNF-AD 313 TFs are lacking in the A. pisum genome (29 TFs), yet we noted seven A. pisum homologs for 314 the D. melanogaster Meics gene. There is no notable difference in the ZNF-GATA family. 315 Concerning the ZNF-classical family, we were able to subdivide this expansion in A. pisum 316 based on homology with known D. melanogaster genes: 18 homologs for CG12299, 12 for 317 clamp (clp), 135 for crooked legs (crol), and seven for Phaser. Overall, these results suggest that an independent evolution of ZNF TFs occurred in the two species. Panfilio et al. (2019) 318 319 described a different expansion of the C₂H₂ ZNF TFs in the milkweed bug Oncopeltus fasciatus 320 therefore suggesting that this family of TFs is particularly prone to expansions. Whether and 321 how this is reflected functionally remains to be discovered. However, similar expansions of 322 ZNF TFs have been observed in vertebrates suggesting that the modularity of the zinc fingers 323 and the possibility of changing amino acids that interact with DNA are two factors that 324 contribute to the fact that they are the largest group of TFs (Nardelli et al., 1991; Vaquerizas et 325 al., 2009). The different classes of ZNF TFs in the A. pisum genome are listed in Table 2.

Other less prominent differences were found. In *A. pisum* we annotated larger numbers of TFs of the following families: ARID, MAD homology domain, and MADS. On the other hand, in the *D. melanogaster* genome, we found an overall higher number of TFs belonging to the following TF families: bHLH, Homeobox-TALE, HTH-Psq and T-box.

The families that are not explicitly listed here comprised the same or nearly the same numbers of TFs in *A. pisum* and *D. melanogaster*. However, in some instances, and even though the overall numbers were the same in a TF family, expansions of some subfamilies were seen in either species, e.g. for MADF-BESS. In addition, there were numerous cases where a single homolog was present in *A. pisum* and two homologs in *D. melanogaster* (Suppl. File 1). This

was the case for Met/gce (Methoprene tolerant/germ cell-expressed bHLH-PAS; Juvenile 335 336 Hormone signaling; Baumann et al., 2010; Miura et al., 2005), *Rbf/Rbf2* (retinoblastoma family protein; cell cycle regulation; Stevaux et al., 2002), *slp1/slp2* (*sloppy paired 1* and 2; 337 segmentation; Grossniklaus et al., 1992), gcm/gcm2 (glial cell missing 1 and 2; glia and 338 plasmatocyte development; Chotard et al., 2005), B-H1/B-H2 (Bar; eye and leg development; 339 340 Higashijima et al., 1992), en/inv (engrailed/invected; segmentation; Cheng et al., 2014), lbe/lbl 341 (ladybird early/late; heart development; Jagla et al., 1997), Vsx1/Vsx2 (visual system homeobox 1 and 2; Erclik et al., 2008), bab1/bab2 (bric-a-brac; Lours et al., 2003), tsh/tio (teashirt/tiptop; 342 head and trunk development; Datta et al., 2011), and eyg/toe (evegone/twin of eyegone; eye 343 344 development; Yao et al., 2008). The presence of a single *engrailed/invected* homolog is likely due to secondary loss since it was previously shown that they arose through tandem duplication 345 346 prior to the radiation of hexapods (Peel et al., 2006).

347 3.5 Differences and similarities in TFs regulating early development and organ 348 development of *D. melanogaster* and *A. pisum*

We confirm the absence of A. pisum homologs for the early developmental genes bicoid (bcd), 349 350 huckebein (hkb), buttonhead (btd) and giant (gt), as originally reported by Shigenobu et al. 351 (2010). Bicoid is only found in higher Diptera (Gregor et al., 2008). Its absence in the A. pisum 352 genome was therefore expected. By contrast, the absence of homologs for huckebein, 353 buttonhead and giant was less expected. Giant is conserved in many insects and has been shown 354 to act as a gap gene in the hemipteran O. fasciatus (Ben-David and Chipman, 2010). While we did not find a bona fide homolog for buttonhead in the A. pisum genome, we did identify an 355 356 Sp1 homolog. Given the close relatedness of buttonhead and Sp1 and similar functions in 357 appendage development in Drosophila, T. castaneum and O. fasciatus (Schaeper et al., 2009), 358 we propose that the presence of Sp1 in A. pisum likely reflects the fact that it retained this role as a regulator of appendage development. *Huckebein* is present in *O. fasciatus* where its expression pattern suggests a role different from what was described in *Drosophila* where it is a terminal gap gene (Weisbrod et al., 2013).

Key TFs involved in the development of various organs are conserved in A. pisum. These 362 include development of (i) wings: apterous (ap; Cohen et al., 1992) and vestigial (vg; Williams 363 364 et al., 1991); (ii) salivary gland: forkhead (fkh; Mach et al., 1996); (iii) muscle: Mef2 (Kelly et al., 2002); (iv) heart: tinman (tin; Bodmer, 1993). For eye (and head) development we found 365 366 that many of the genes that constitute the retinal determination pathway in Drosophila 367 (Domínguez and Casares, 2005; Kumar, 2010), are conserved in A. pisum, namely so, lz, ey, toy, eyg, eva, hth, exd, oc. At the same time, the absence of dan, danr, toe and the presence of 368 369 a single *ara/caup/mirror* homolog indicates that the pathway has likely undergone 370 modifications. A final interesting observation was the complete absence of homologs for *Doc1*, Doc2 and Doc3, which are involved in the amnosierosa development in Drosophila 371 (Hamaguchi et al., 2004). Hemimetabolous insects, including the pea aphid, have two 372 373 extraembryonic membranes (amnion and serosa) that are involved in blastokinesis (comprising 374 anatrepsis and katatrepsis) (Panfilio, 2008; Schmidt-Ott, 2000). It contrasts with Drosophila where extraembryonic development is extremely reduced, thus making it likely that the 375 underlying genetic mechanisms will also show considerable differences. 376

377 **3.6 TFs regulating developmental transitions are conserved**

Ecdysone and juvenile hormone (JH) are essential hormones regulating developmental transitions. All TFs implicated therein in *Drosophila* are conserved in *A. pisum. Ecdysone Receptor (EcR)* and *Ultraspiracle (Usp)* for ecdysone signaling (Yamanaka et al., 2013), and *Met/Gce, Taiman, Kr-h1* and *Eip93F* for JH signaling (Jindra et al., 2015).

382 3.7 Key TFs of signaling pathways are conserved, but TCF and MAD TFs show expansion 383 in *A. pisum*

384 The activity of signaling pathways ultimately leads to transcriptional changes mediated by 385 specific TFs. Not unexpectedly, we identified homologs of all these TFs in the A. pisum genome. Yan/Aop (anterior open; Rebay and Rubin, 1995) and Pointed (O'Neill et al., 1994) 386 387 are central negative and positive transcriptional regulators downstream of receptor tyrosine 388 kinases (EGFR, FGFR, PVR). Others include Foxo (insulin signaling; Puig et al., 2003), cubitus 389 interruptus (ci) (hedgehog signaling; Alexandre et al., 1996), scalloped (Wu et al., 2008) and vorkie (Hippo signaling; Huang et al., 2005), Su(H) (Notch signaling; Schweisguth and 390 391 Posakony, 1992), and Jra/kay = JUN/cFos (JNK signaling; Perkins et al., 1990). Interestingly, 392 we observed expansions of TFs associated with Wnt signaling (pangolin and TCF TFs; Brunner 393 et al., 1997), JAK-STAT signaling (three homologs of Stat92E; Hou et al., 1996) and TGF-beta 394 signaling (SMAD TFs; Sekelsky et al., 1995). The expansion of TCF TFs is intriguing in light of previous observations of duplications of the Wnt pathway component armadillo/b-catenin in 395 O. fasciatus and other hemimetabolous insects (Bao et al., 2012; Panfilio et al., 2019). An 396 397 expansion of SMAD TFs has been previously reported in O. fasciatus where it was suggested to be Oncopeltus-specific (Panfilio et al., 2019). The fact that we found an expansion in the pea 398 399 aphid seems to suggest that the amplification may be more ancient in insect evolution. bHLH 400 TFs of the E(Spl) complex acting in Notch signaling show a strongly reduced number as well 401 as an altered organization of the complex. Dearden (2015) described and discussed these 402 differences for the E(Spl) complex in arthropods.

3.8 Identification of an *A. pisum* homolog of HNF4, a key TF regulating metabolic homeostasis

Previously it was reported that there was no HNF4 homolog in A. pisum (Shigenobu et al., 405 406 2010). Given its central importance in regulating metabolic homeostasis (Palanker et al., 2009), 407 this was unexpected. We here report the identification of a bona fide HNF4 homolog in A. 408 pisum (corresponding to different isoforms, listed in Table 3). This annotation was supported by the presence of two domains characteristic of HNF4 TFs, namely an N-terminal ZNF-409 410 GATA-type DNA binding domain (DBD) (InterPro signature IPR049636; Hepatocyte Nuclear 411 Factor 4-like, DNA binding domain) and a C-terminal nuclear receptor-type ligand binding 412 domain (LBD) (InterPro signature IPR049635; Hepatocyte nuclear factor 4, ligand-binding 413 domain). The isoforms encoded by the D. melanogaster HNF4 gene are longer than those of 414 the pea aphid (between 666 and 732 amino acids vs. between 375 and 420 amino acids, respectively). Nonetheless, D. melanogaster and A. pisum HNF4 are highly similar, with 65% 415 416 identity over the whole sequence and 72% when only functional domains are considered. We 417 next searched the sequence of HNF4 in 14 additional hemipteran species (see Table 1 and § 2.4). At least one copy of HNF4 was found in each of these species (Table 3), with very high 418 419 conservation of functional domains, especially the DNA binding domain (Figure 2). Three 420 species (B. tabaci, D. citri and D. noxia) appeared to have a duplication of HNF4. In B. tabaci, we identified three genes that have a size consistent with HNF4 and have DBD and LBD that 421 422 were successfully identified by InterProScan. Importantly, the sequence of the B. tabaci 423 proteins encoded by the LOC109043749 and LOC109038961 genes differ significantly from those of the other HNF4 homologs. On the one hand, the position of LOC109043749 in the B. 424 425 tabaci genome of B. tabaci, in tandem with LOC109043751, suggests that this gene could have 426 appeared through tandem duplication, and diverged afterwards. On the other hand, LOC109038961 probably appeared through duplication of LOC109043749. Two HNF4 427 homologs were also identified for D. citri and D. noxia, but the presence of two genes seems to 428 be the result of assembly errors. In the case of D. citri, one of the genes codes for a very short 429

430 protein of 90 amino acids (LOC103508991), not compatible with a functional HNF4. In the 431 case of *D. noxia*, one sequence encodes a protein with only a LBD (LOC107163700), and the 432 other sequence corresponds to a single gene on a very short contig, encoding a protein with 433 only a DBD (LOC107172291). In the latter case, it is possible that the two genes identified as 434 homologs actually correspond to a single gene that was not reconstructed during assembly.

The conservation of HNF4 in all hemipteran genomes we analyzed here supports the hypothesis, emerging from recent studies (Cheng et al., 2020; Wang et al., 2023) that HNF4 has important roles in hemipteran physiology as well. Moreover, the observation that the length of HNF4 proteins encoded in all these hemipteran genomes is closer to the size of isoforms we found in in *A. pisum* and shorter than the isoforms we found in *D. melanogaster*, suggests the presence of potential lineage-specific features.

441 **3.9 TFs regulating essential cellular and organismal processes**

We also analyzed TFs with central roles in important cellular or organismal processes in D. 442 443 melanogaster. For the majority of these we identified homologs in A. pisum. Specifically, we 444 found homologs for SREBP (HLH106 - lipid homeostasis; Theopold et al., 1996), Atf6 445 (endoplasmic reticulum stress response; Allen and Seo, 2018), cnc (oxidative stress response; Sykiotis and Bohmann, 2008), Xbp1 (UPR pathway; Huang et al., 2017), REPTOR/REPTOR-446 447 bp (TOR mediator complex; Tiebe et al., 2015). Intriguingly, we were not able to identify 448 homologs for Myc (cell growth, cell competition, proliferation; Gallant et al., 1996) and Mitf 449 (regulator of V-ATPase and lysosomal – autophagic pathway; Zhang et al., 2015). We did find 450 a distant relative of Myc, namely Mnt (Loo et al., 2005) to be conserved. Since both are 451 dimerization partners for Max, it is possible that one or both functionally replace Myc.

As an example of an organismal process, we investigated the central circadian clock and found
homologs for all relevant TFs, *Clk, cwo, cycle, vri and Pdp1* suggesting that this process is
fundamentally conserved (Hardin, 2011; Tataroglu and Emery, 2014).

3.10 *A. pisum* has no homolog for *doublesex*, a key TF in the *Drosophila* sex determination pathway

The genome of D. melanogaster contains four related TFs (dmrt11E, dmrt93B, dmrt99B and 457 458 dsx) of the DM domain family. doublesex (dsx) encodes a key TF in the Drosophila sex 459 determination pathway (Coschigano and Wensink, 1993), while *dmrt11E* is required in testis 460 somatic cells for male fertility (Yu et al., 2015). The two other genes have not been functionally 461 characterized. We did not find direct homologs for dsx and dmrt11E, but homologs for Drosophila dmrt93b and dmrt99b are present in A. pisum. The absence of a dsx homolog may 462 463 reflect the differences in sex determination between A. pisum and D. melanogaster. Whether the A. pisum homologs dmrt93b and dmrt99b have a role in spermatogenesis remains to be 464 465 investigated. Consistent with a different organization of sex determination is the observation 466 that the A. pisum genome does not encode a fruitless homolog, a BTB transcription factor that 467 regulates male sexual behavior in Drosophila (Just et al., 2023; Laslo et al., 2023).

468 3.11 The A. pisum Hox cluster is reorganized and lacks a bona fide fushi tarazu homolog

The insect Hox cluster is thought to have been composed, in a bilaterian ancestor, of 10 genes: *labial (lab), proboscipedia (pb), zerknüllt (zen), Deformed (Dfd), Sex combs reduced (Scr), fushi tarazu (ftz), Antennapedia (Antp), Ultrabithorax (Ubx), abdominal-A (abdA),* and *Abdominal-B (AbdB),* (listed here in the order they occupy in the cluster in a metazoan hypothetical ancestor). Unlike other arthropods (*e.g.* Crustacea), that can lack some of them, insects appear to have conserved all eight canonical Hox genes (*lab, pb, Dfd, Scr, Antp, Ubx,*

abdA, AbdB), essential in determining positional identity along the body axis (Mulhair and 475 476 Holland, 2022). The other two genes of the cluster, zen and ftz, which had ancestral homeotic 477 functions, evolved novel roles in insects (extraembryonic membrane patterning for zen and segmentation for *ftz*), and are often referred to as the non-canonical Hox genes. We focused on 478 479 the Hox cluster since it is one of only few gene clusters in Arthropod genomes and, given the 480 availability of the chromosomal assignment of the A. pisum genome, we analyzed the structure 481 of the cluster and determined whether the linear arrangement is conserved in A. pisum or 482 whether it is rearranged.

The A. pisum Hox gene cluster is localized on chromosome A1 and contains the eight canonical 483 Hox genes. The fact that all insects have retained these eight could have functional implications: 484 485 segment number and tagmatization are constant in insects, despite their high species radiation, 486 leaving no place for redundancy or loss for these genes essential for the establishment of the insect body plan (Mulhair and Holland, 2022). In Figure 3 we compare the A. pisum Hox cluster 487 488 organization to the ones present in three model species, D. melanogaster, T. castaneum and B. 489 mori. This shows several differences in the A. pisum Hox cluster when compared to other 490 insects: (i) the genomic size of the cluster is four times bigger than in D. melanogaster or T. 491 castaneum, with longer average gene length and intergenic distances, (ii) the split between the anterior and the posterior parts of the cluster observed in D. melanogaster is not present, and a 492 493 shorter split separates the first three genes from the others, (iii) while the respective positions of Dfd, Scr, Antp, Ubx, abd-A and Abd-B are the same as in the three other species, the first two 494 495 genes of the cluster are reorganized, with inversion of the respective positions of the *lab* and *pb* 496 genes. These observations are in agreement with the work of Mulhair and Holland (2022), who 497 analyzed the Hox cluster arrangements in 243 insect genomes and showed that the most anterior genes of the cluster have undergone several rearrangements and that intergenic distances can 498 499 vary greatly.

Concerning the non-canonical Hox, we have identified a unique HoxB4-like gene in A. pisum 500 501 instead of the two zen genes (zen and zen-2) present in Diptera and Coleoptera (Figure 3). The 502 A. pisum genome also lacks another Hox-related gene, bicoid (see also § 3.5), which is 503 considered as a Diptera-specific duplication of zen (Stauber et al., 1999). Moreover, it was 504 difficult to identify a *ftz* homolog. A homeobox-containing gene is present at the usual position 505 for this gene, located between Scr and Antp, but it encodes a shorter protein (237 predicted 506 amino acids vs. 410 in *D. melanogaster*) (Figure 3 and Table 4B). Moreover, blasting it back 507 to the Drosophila genome gave Scr as best it, and not ftz. This difficulty in identifying a clear 508 homolog of ftz was already reported in the first annotation of TFs in the pea aphid genome 509 (Shigenobu et al., 2010), and it was attributed to the lack of a chromosome-level assembly for 510 the A. pisum genome. Our analysis has been made on the first chromosome-level genome 511 assembly for this species (Li et al., 2019), which excludes that this problematic annotation of 512 ftz could be due to the quality of the genome assembly. Given the divergence of the A. pisum ftz gene versus its homolog in D. melanogaster, we propose to refer to it as ftz-like instead. 513

514 **3.12** The Hox cluster in Hemiptera: organization and sequence homology/divergence

515 In their recent analysis of the insect Hox cluster, Mulhair and Holland (2022) took into 516 consideration 243 insect genomes. As this analysis included only two hemipteran genomes, we 517 extended our analysis of the Hox cluster genes to all the Hemiptera for which a NCBI RefSeq 518 annotation was available (Table 1). The lengths of the predicted Hox genes and proteins we 519 have annotated are listed in Tables 4A and 4B, respectively. This analysis shows a great 520 diversity in Hox gene lengths, that do not correlate with the genome sizes (Tables 1 and 4). We 521 were not able to identify a zen homolog in H. halis and H. vitripennis, but there was one in all aphid species (Table 4). The identification of a ftz homolog was as difficult as in A. pisum and 522 523 the putative homolog we identified in the different hemipteran genomes always corresponded to proteins shorter than the *ftz* homologs present in the genomes of *D. melanogaster*, *T. castaneum* or *B. mori*.

To gain a better understanding of the levels of intra- and inter-specific divergence within the 526 527 Hox cluster in Hemiptera, we compared the protein sequences of the genes that make up this 528 cluster in the species listed in Table 1 through systematic BLASTP. Results are presented in 529 Suppl. File 4 and include the percentages of coverage and identity for each pairwise 530 comparison. This latter analysis shows that some genes are more conserved than others. For 531 example, when we compare the Hox genes of D. melanogaster with those of the pea aphid, we find coverage and identity percentages of 56% and 61%, respectively, for *abd-A* versus 30% 532 533 and 56% for *ftz*. When considering the average values of coverage and identity for each group of homologs, we find low coverage rates, averaging 27% (Suppl. File 5). Significant identity is 534 535 primarily observed in the homeodomain sequences. Identity percentages vary between 56% 536 (using *pb* proteins used as queries) and 66% (using *Antp* as queries), on average. These values reflect the level of divergence between proteins encoded by Hox cluster genes, despite the 537 538 presence of the conserved homeodomain. When only orthologs are compared, coverage 539 percentages are higher, with a minimum of 48% (57% when only canonical Hox proteins are considered) and a maximum of 88%. The pb and lab proteins are the most divergent, with 540 541 coverage and identity percentages averaging no more than 60% and 63% respectively. Conversely, Abd-B, abd-A, Ubx, Antp and Scr proteins have percentages of coverage and 542 identity that go up to 88% and 81% on average. These results are intriguing in light of the fact 543 544 that most hemipteran Hox clusters present a split between the posterior region of the cluster 545 (from Abd-B to Scr) and the anterior region of the cluster (comprising lab and pb), suggesting 546 that the evolutionary constraints are higher on the former while *lab* and *pb* diverge more rapidly. *Dfd*, which can be associated to either the posterior or anterior region depending on the species, 547

has an intermediate status, with coverage and identity averaging 65% and 66% respectively. *ftz*and *zen* homologs appear to be highly divergent compared to canonical Hox gene products.

550 A comparison of genomic organization and genomic distances between genes of the Hox 551 clusters was possible for a small group of Hemiptera, for which all the Hox genes were on the 552 same chromosome/scaffold (Figure 4). This analysis shows how, in the Hemiptera group, the 553 general organization of the Hox cluster, in terms of relative position of the genes and the splits, 554 can vary greatly from each other. General observations made by Mulhair and Holland (2022) 555 in other insects, for instance that intergenic distances can be large in the anterior part of the 556 cluster, are reduced in the middle and become even larger in the posterior part of the Hox cluster 557 do not apply to the hemipteran genomes we have analyzed here (Figure 4). Moreover, contrary 558 to what has been found in other insect genomes, Ubx, abd-A and Abd-B are not always present 559 in the cluster in this specific order in hemipteran genomes.

Concerning the function of TFs in A. pisum, very little information is available in the literature. 560 A few studies have focused on the Hox genes and have shown that they evolved new roles in 561 aphids, related to their symbiotic status or certain polyphenisms. Immunohistochemical studies 562 563 have demonstrated that Ubx and AbdA/B are localized in the bacteriocytes of aphid embryos 564 and nymphs, which supports the hypothesis that they are associated with the early development 565 and the differentiation of these symbiont-containing cells (Braendle et al., 2003). The important 566 role of Ubx in the development of insect bacteriocytes has subsequently been confirmed in the 567 hemipteran Nysius plebeius (Matsuura et al., 2015), but no study has since been performed in 568 A. pisum. Other roles for the Hox TFs seem to be related to the wing polyphenisms, as Scr, 569 Antp and Ubx are up-regulated in apterae vs. alate aphids and are differentially expressed 570 between the two morphs during development (Zhang et al., 2019). Future availability of high-571 quality insect genomes with chromosomal annotation will permit further comparative studies 572 of the Hox cluster, not only to infer its evolutionary origin and dynamics, but also to determine

573 what - if any - the developmental and functional consequences are of the rearrangements.

574 Conclusion

In the present work, we have (re)annotated all TFs, chromatin-associated genes and genes 575 associated with the basal transcriptional machinery in the model aphid A. pisum using the latest 576 genomic data. The procedure we used for the annotation, combining homology-based and 577 578 manually curation of D. melanogaster TFs and de novo predictions, is described in the 579 manuscript. The results of these annotations are made available to the scientific community 580 through the ATF database. This approach may be of interest to researchers who want to annotate 581 other aphids to expand the ATFdb database, and to all researchers with an interest in transcriptional regulatory networks in aphids and other insects. 582

Despite the evolutionary divergence between the two species, homologs for most D. 583 melanogaster TF families have been found in A. pisum. This includes the identification of an 584 A. pisum homolog of HNF4, a key TF regulating metabolic homeostasis and that had not been 585 586 previously described in aphids. We propose that the major differences in development, 587 physiology and reproduction between the two species can be explained by the numerous differences they display in their TF repertoires. In particular, the expansion of distinct sets of 588 589 chromatin-associated genes suggests an important role for epigenetic regulation in the pea 590 aphid. Finally, we performed and discussed in-depth analyses of the ZNF TFs with certain families expanded in the pea aphid, and of the Hox gene cluster, which shows a reorganization 591 592 of gene position in the pea aphid compared to Drosophila and other insect models.

593

594 **Figures and Tables**

595 Figure 1. Transcription factor annotation pipeline in *Drosophila melanogaster* (top blue) and Acyrthosiphon pisum (bottom green). BTM: Basal Transcription Machinery, CA: 596 597 Chromatin-Associated, TF: Transcription Factor. The eye symbol indicates when manual 598 annotation was required.

599

600 Figure 2. Alignment of HNF4 transcription factor homologs in hemipteran insects and model species representative of Diptera, Coleoptera and Lepidoptera. Amino acids 601 conserved in at least 90% of all sequences are indicated below the alignment (consensus >90). 602 The regions corresponding to the DNA binding domain (DBD) and ligand binding domain 603 (LBD) are indicated above the alignment by blue and green bars, respectively. 604

605

606 Figure 3. Comparison of the Hox gene cluster in Acyrthosiphon pisum with the Hox 607 clusters of model species representative of Diptera, Coleoptera and Lepidoptera. The orientation of each arrow indicates the transcriptional orientation of each canonical and non-608 canonical Hox gene. Genes are represented with their actual lengths and genomic distances. In 609 610 B. mori, the « Shx genes » box refers to 12 genes obtained through extensive tandem gene duplication of zen (Chai et al., 2008). In T. castaneum, orthologs of Antp, Scr and pb are often 611 referred to as *ptl* (prothoraxless, Brown et al., 2002), Cx (cephalothorax, Curtis et al., 2001), 612 613 and mxp (maxillopedia, Shippy et al., 2000), respectively.

614

615 Figure 4. Genomic organization and gene orientation across hemipteran Hox clusters. (A) 616 Order and transcriptional orientation of canonical and non-canonical Hox genes in each species. Splits within the Hox cluster are denoted by double black lines and inversions with respect to 617 the predicted ancestral Hox cluster are annotated with a black border around the gene. (B) 618 619 Organization of the Hox cluster per species, shown using actual genomic distances. Each line represents a Hox gene as it occurs in the genome. Genomic distances are shown in Megabases 620 (Mb).

- 621
- 622 623 **Tables**

624 Table 1. Genomic information (assembly and annotation numbers) used for the annotation of HNF4 and the Hox cluster genes in hemipteran insects and model species 625 representative of Diptera, Coleoptera and Lepidoptera. 626

627 Table 2. Transcription factors in Acyrthosiphon pisum and Drosophila melanogaster 628 classified by family. The table is nonredundant: genes are counted only once, regardless of whether they have splicing variants. 629

630 Table 3. Annotation of HNF4 transcription factor homologs in hemipteran insects and model species representative of Diptera, Coleoptera and Lepidoptera. For each NCBI gene 631 ID, all corresponding protein entries present in the database are listed. Each protein identifier 632 corresponds to a protein isoform encoded by a unique predicted messenger RNA. Some 633 isoforms are identical but are encoded by mRNAs that differ in their UTR regions, suggesting 634 635 differences in the regulation of their expression.

636 Table 4. Predicted Hox gene length (in base pair) (A) and Hox protein length (in amino 637 acid) (B) from different hemipteran genomes and model species representative of Diptera,

- **Coleoptera and Lepidoptera.** 638
- 639 Supplementary data

- 640 Suppl. File 1. Transcription factor annotation in *Acyrthosiphon pisum* (green), and 641 comparison with the reference organism, *Drosophila melanogaster* (blue).
- 642 Suppl. File 2. Chromatin-associated factor annotation in *Acyrthosiphon pisum* (green),
 643 and comparison with the reference organism, *Drosophila melanogaster* (blue).
- Suppl. File 3. Basal transcription machinery annotation in *Acyrthosiphon pisum* (green),
 and comparison with the reference organism, *Drosophila melanogaster* (blue).

Suppl. File 4. Pairwise alignment statistics between the protein sequences of canonical and
non-canonical Hox genes in hemipteran insects and model species representative of
Diptera, Coleoptera and Lepidoptera, determined through systematic BLASTP. Coverage
and identity values above 80 are highlighted in red. Abbreviations: id, identity percentage; cov,
coverage percentage.

651 Suppl. File 5. Average coverage and identity values obtained through systematic BLASTP 652 between predicted orthologs of canonical and non-canonical Hox genes in insects, 653 hemipterans and aphids. Coverage and identity percentages are represented with a color 654 gradient from white to green for coverage and from white to red for identity. Darker colors 655 indicate higher percentages. Abbreviations: id, identity percentage; cov, coverage percentage. 656

657 <u>CRediT authorship contribution statement</u>

Nicolas Parisot: conceptualization, methodology, software, formal analysis, investigation, 658 659 writing - original draft, writing - review & editing, visualization; Mélanie Ribeiro Lopes: methodology, formal analysis, investigation, writing - original draft; Sergio Peignier: 660 validation, resources, data curation, writing - review & editing; Patrice Baa-Puyoulet: 661 662 software, data curation, writing - review & editing; Hubert Charles: validation, formal analysis, writing-review & editing; Federica Calevro: conceptualization, investigation, 663 writing - original draft, writing - review & editing, supervision, funding acquisition; Patrick 664 665 **Callaerts:** conceptualization, investigation, writing - original draft, writing - review & editing, 666 supervision, funding acquisition

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