

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

Nicolas Parisot, Mélanie Ribeiro Lopes, Sergio Peignier, Patrice Baa-Puyoulet, Hubert Charles, Federica Calevro, Patrick Callaerts

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Abstract

 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 different sequencing and annotation efforts that the community has dedicated to this important 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, 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 transcription factors (TFs), which would enable the reconstruction/inference of gene regulatory 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. We took advantage of this new resource, which represents the first chromosome-level *A. pisum* genome, to annotate the complete repertoire of *A. pisum* TFs, and to complement this information by annotating genes encoding chromatin-associated and basal transcription machinery proteins. These annotations were done using information from the model *Drosophila melanogaster*, for which we also provide a revisited list of these proteins. The comparison between the two model systems allowed the identification of major losses or expansions in each 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 compared to *D. melanogaster*). All annotations are made available to the community the different annotations we produced storing all this information in the Aphid Transcription Factors database (ATFdb), a resource for gene regulation studies in aphids. **Abstract**

24 The pea aphid, *Acyrthosphon pasum*, is an emerging model system in transional and

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

machinery; TF database

1. Introduction

 Changes in gene expression arise in response to internal and external signals and are essential for decoding genotypes into cellular, tissue and organismal phenotypes. Gene expression 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 homeostasis and physiological regulations (Desvergne et al., 2006), and in response to environmental stimuli (Han and Kaufman, 2017; Song et al., 2016). Gene expression is controlled to an important extent by Transcription Factors (TFs), which bind accessible cis- regulatory DNA elements to positively or negatively regulate the expression of target genes (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). Sets of TFs and their target genes are organized in so-called Gene Regulatory Networks (GRNs) that govern cellular gene expression (Aerts, 2012; Davidson and Levine, 2008; Singh et al., 2018). Altered specificity or activity of TFs or changes in cis-regulatory sequences impact the structure or activity of GRNs and represent an important source of phenotypic diversity and evolutionary adaptation (Carroll, 2008; Schember and Halfon, 2022). 46 Keywords: Hemiptera: pea aphid; transmittion factors; chromatin; basal transcription

47 machinery; TF database

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1. Introduction

16 Changes in gene expression arise in response to internal and external signals and

 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 sub- families, based on structural similarities, primarily of their DBDs (Luscombe et al., 2000). 72 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)).

 For over a century, *D. melanogaster* has been used as a model system to dissect and 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 Rogina, 2003; Mohr and Perrimon, 2019). Many sophisticated biochemical, molecular, and 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 characterized metazoan genomes in terms of functionally annotated genes and regulatory 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 diverse insects beyond *Drosophila* (i5K Consortium, 2013; Sproul et al., 2023). The pea aphid *Acyrthosiphon pisum* has emerged as an important model system in functional and comparative genomics, in part due to the availability of new genomic approaches (Calevro et al., 2019; Le 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 Consortium, 2010). Aphids are a great model to study extensive polyphenisms, including parthenogenetic and sexual reproduction and the presence of winged and non-winged morphs (Davis et al., 2021; Ogawa and Miura, 2014). They are one of the best studied models of 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., 94 2018). Not only the developmental origin of this novel cell type remains unknown, but recent 70 Tjian, 2006): Näne tal., 2001). TFs are classified into several superfamilies, families and sib-

71 families, based on structural similarities, primarily of their DBFDs (Luscombe et al., 2000).

72 Three major superfa

 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 comprehensive annotation of the TFs, chromatin-associated proteins, and basal transcription machinery in the pea aphid, at both the family and gene levels. A first effort by Shigenobu and 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 classification. Other analyses, focusing on the basic helix-loop-helix TF family in *A. pisum* (Dang et al., 2011) or on the annotation of TFs and chromatin-related proteins in different hemipteran species including *A. pisum* (Vidal et al., 2016) have also been made on the first pea aphid genome assembly. Since then, the availability of the first chromosome-scale assembly 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 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 transcription machinery. All annotations are compiled in a dedicated database, the Aphid Transcription Factors database (ATFdb) (http://atf.cycadsys.org). This complete annotation is expected to be of use to the community studying aphids and other hemipterans, prominent crop pest insects, as well as to researchers studying insect development and evolution. 95 work has shown extensive photicity and transcriptional reprogramming of these cells in
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2. Materials and methods

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. (2013).These lists were merged and then filtered to remove splicing variants that had been annotated as independent genes, or genes that have since been (re)annotated as not being TFs or as being a component of the basal transcription machinery or associated with chromatin. The remaining TFs were compared to the "Transcription factors" gene group (FBgg0000745) available in FlyBase release 6.55 (Gramates et al., 2022), to the precompiled *Drosophila* TF 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). *De novo* predictions were made based on the *Drosophila melanogaster* genome release 6.55 using the transcription factor prediction tools from PlantTFDB (Jin et al., 2017) and Pfam using 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. 2.1 Definition of a list of *bonn fide D. meltanogester* frameriquion factors (TFs)

2.1 D. meltanogester TF annotations were retrieved from Hens et al. (2011) and Hammonds et al.

2.2 D. meltanogester TF annotations were

2.2 Prediction of *Acyrthosiphon pisum* **transcription factors**

 All predicted proteins of *A. pisum* were downloaded from the NCBI datasets using the RefSeq 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 using our new list of *bona fide D. melanogaster* TF protein sequences as a query with an e- 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.* using the *A. pisum* candidate protein as query against *D. melanogaster*) were performed using 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. 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. pisum* TFs gave the same *Drosophila* TF as the top hit, then the *A. pisum* TF sequences were aligned pairwise using BLAST Global Alignment to identify identical protein-coding sequences, i.e., putative splicing variants in *A. pisum* or almost identical copies homologous to one *Drosophila* TF. Nearly identical sequences in *A. pisum* were annotated based on *Drosophila* nomenclature, with chromosomal localization used to discriminate between splicing variants (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 full-length amino acid sequences were aligned and a manual multi-criteria expert judgement 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 contains unique residues that allow unambiguous identification. If the divergence from the *D. melanogaster* sequence was too strong, but the DNA-binding domain identified it as belonging to the same TF family, the suffix "-like" was added to the end of the gene name symbol. Finally, any remaining sequences that were too short or too divergent and lacked an identifiable DNA- binding domain were removed. Since the approach described above would not identify TFs that are not homologous to *Drosophila*, a *de novo* prediction was done in parallel on all 17,681 *A. pisum* protein-coding genes using the same prediction tools as for *Drosophila* (i.e., PlantTFDB and Pfam). 144 protein was annuateal as such according to D nethospassic nonenclatine. When multiple 1

145 pixon TFs gave the same Drosophila TF as the top hit, then the 4, pixon TFs expanses were

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

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) revealed 167 some 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 an exhaustive single repository was not available, using information derived from FlyBase, and expert literature. A master list of *Drosophila* chromatin-associated proteins was thus compiled and used to search for homologs in the *A. pisum* genome, as detailed above (see § 2.2 and Figure 1). For chromatin-associated proteins also functioning as TFs, they were double-listed (as TFs and as chromatin-associated proteins). Lastly, the basal transcription machinery of *A. pisum* 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 based on the available information listed in § 2.1.

2.4 Annotation of HNF4 homologs in Hemiptera

 Following the identification of a HNF4 homolog in *A. pisum*, the search was extended to 14 additional species: six aphid species (*Aphis gossypii*, *Diuraphis noxia*, *Melanaphis sacchari*, *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 *Daktulosphaira vitifoliae,* member of the Phylloxeridae family) and six other hemipterans (*Bemisia tabaci*, *Cimex lectularius*, *Diaphorina citri*, *Halyomorpha halys*, *Homalodisca vitripennis* and *Nilavarpata lugens*) (Table 1). Among all available hemipteran genomes, we specifically selected those with a NCBI RefSeq annotation, which guarantees a quality reference for genome annotation and gene identification. The protein sequences of *A. pisum* 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 species, reverse BLASTP searches (*i.e.* using the candidate protein as query against the *D. melanogaster* and *A. pisum* protein sets) were performed on the top ten BLASTP hits. Additionally, candidate sequences were analyzed with InterProScan (v5.59-91.0) to identify 168 Innescription much the y-Whis stimulated us to produce a complete led of the latter, for which

169 an exhaustive single expository was not available, using information derived from PlyRace, and

170 expect literance. 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).

2.5 Hox cluster gene annotation in Hemiptera

 To better understand the evolution of the Hox gene cluster in hemipterans, genes belonging to 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 available, and for one (*D. vitifoliae*) genes belonging to the Hox gene cluster were located on the same genomic scaffold, which permitted cross-species comparison of the chromosomal 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 RefSeq proteomes of the 14 selected insect species. For each species, the BLASTP hits with the 10% highest identity scores were subsequently blasted back against the *A. pisum* reference proteins. When both BLASTP analyses yielded the same homologous protein pairs as top hits, these were annotated as such. When there were discrepancies between the two BLASTP results, semi-manual curation was performed by (i) repeating the analysis with the *D. melanogaster* Hox cluster protein sequences as query and (ii) looking at the relative position of each Hox cluster gene relative to the others on the genome. Systematic BLASTP searches were performed 214 to compare the protein sequences of each predicted Hox gene with the complete set of homologs 1992 functional demains (Paysan-Lafosse et al., 2023). Candidala protsins were currishead *loost* field
1933 IFNP4 homologis andy if the treviewe BLASTP analyses yielded HNF4 in the tip ten hits and if
1934 the homedogis identified in hemipterans or model species, enabling the level of inter- and intra-specific 216 divergence within the Hox cluster to be assessed (see \S 3, Results and Discussion).

 This annotation strategy was validated by using it to reannotate the canonical and non-canonical Hox genes of the red flour beetle *Tribolium castaneum* and the domestic silk moth *Bombyx mori*, insect models representative of the orders Coleoptera and Lepidoptera, respectively, using the latest NCBI RefSeq genome 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 to each other in the Hox cluster (Chai et al., 2008; Mulhair and Holland, 2022; Pace et al., 2016). 135 identified in hemipterans or model spacies, embling the level of inter- and intra-spacific

216 divergence within the Hav chuter to he assessed (see § 3, Recults and Discussion).

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2.6 Database construction and web interface

 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 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 search ATFdb by gene ID, gene name, TF family or by keywords. Users can also run BLAST 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.

3. Results and Discussion

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 independent genes. The difference is due to the independent listing of splicing variants and the duplicate listing of a few TFs. The intersection of these 747 TFs with the 707 from Hammonds 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 not being TFs or as being a component of the basal transcription machinery or associated with 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), FlyMine (142), FlyNet (633) and TranscriptionFactor.org (529). *De novo* predictions were also performed on the 13,962 protein-coding genes of the *D. melanogaster genome* using the Pfam domain (536) and the PlantTFDB (483) prediction tools. These analyses yielded an additional 32 candidate TFs (upper part of Figure 1). Thus, the complete list of *bona fide D. melanogaster* TFs that was used to annotate the *A. pisum* genome comprised 735 unique TF-coding genes (Suppl. File 1). 338 The analysis of the 755 pattaive TFs of Hens et al. (2011) everaled that they correspond to 747
339 independent genes. The difference is due to the independent biolog of splicing variants and the
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 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*.

 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 which the total gene number is reduced compared to the versions previously used (20,307 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 et al. (2016)) and contains a significantly lower number of duplications. It is also important to note that the *A. pisum* genome assembly used in our study is the first one to have been resolved at the chromosomal level, which permitted a deeper comparative genomic analysis with the annotation available in *D. melanogaster* and other insects (see for example our analysis of the Hox cluster genes). 1823 contains the 230 unique *A. pions* charmatin-associated genes. We also amostated 67 histal
1833 transcription machinery associated genes (Suppl. File 3), two of which also belongs to the class
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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 multiple homologs of the Polycomb-repressive Complex 1 (PRC1) associated genes *Kdm2* (histone demethylase specific for H3 lysine 36; Lagarou et al., 2008), *Sce* (*Sex combs extra*, E3 ubiquitin ligase that monoubiquitinates H2A; Gutiérrez et al., 2012) and *Scm* (*Sex combs on midleg*, enables PRC1 binding; Bornemann et al., 1996), as well as the SET-domain lysine methyltransferase *egg* (*eggless*, histone H3-lysine(9) N-trimethyltransferase; Wang et al., 2011). In addition, we found expansions of histone lysine acetyltransferase 6 complex genes (*enok - enoki mushroom* (Scott et al., 2001), *Ing5 - Inhibitor of growth family member 5* (Huang et al., 2016)) and histone deacetylase genes (*HDAC1;* Mannervik and Levine, 1999). Lastly, the heterochromatin protein 1 (HP1) family, which binds histone H3 tails, is also larger in *A. pisum* (Mendez et al., 2011). Combined, these results suggest that epigenetic mechanisms may play a prominent role in gene and transcriptional regulation in the pea aphid, a hypothesis also supported by studies suggesting that gene expression in *A. pisum* is regulated by multiple histone acetyltransferase and histone deacetylase genes (Kirfel et al., 2020). 985 multiple homologs of the Polycomb septensive Complex 1 (PRC1) associated genes *Kibn*2

986 (histone demethylase specific for H3 lysine 36; Lagranu et al., 2008), See (See condo activa F5

996 (histone demethylase spe

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.

 The most prominent differences were found in the zinc finger (ZNF) TFs. Using a previous version of the *A. pisum* genome assembly, Shigenobu et al., (2010) described significantly more 304 zinc finger containing TFs of the C_2H_2 (also called classical ZNF) GATA, BED, and MIZ families. We have now systematically reannotated all these families and assigned each ZNF TF in *A. pisum* to its precise family and observed species-specific expansions of ZNF TFs. The 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* vs. six in *D. melanogaster*), ZNF-THAP (17 genes in *A. pisum* vs. seven in *D. melanogaster*),

 ZNF-SP1/KLF (19 genes in *A. pisum* vs. 13 in *D. melanogaster*) and ZNF-RING/FYBVE/PHD (also known as ZNF-MIZ, 38 genes in *A. pisum* vs. 14 in *D. melanogaster*). By contrast, the family ZNF-AD displays an expansion in *D. melanogaster* (83 TFs). Several of the ZNF-AD TFs are lacking in the *A. pisum* genome (29 TFs), yet we noted seven *A. pisum* homologs for the *D. melanogaster Meics* gene. There is no notable difference in the ZNF-GATA family. Concerning the ZNF-classical family, we were able to subdivide this expansion in *A. pisum* based on homology with known *D. melanogaster* genes: 18 homologs for CG12299, 12 for *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) described a different expansion of the C2H2 ZNF TFs in the milkweed bug *Oncopeltus fasciatus* therefore suggesting that this family of TFs is particularly prone to expansions. Whether and how this is reflected functionally remains to be discovered. However, similar expansions of ZNF TFs have been observed in vertebrates suggesting that the modularity of the zinc fingers and the possibility of changing amino acids that interact with DNA are two factors that contribute to the fact that they are the largest group of TFs (Nardelli et al., 1991; Vaquerizas et 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 2513 TMT-KTF (19 genes in *A phose* vs. 13 in *D. ordinogastics*) and ZVF-RINGFFTRVEFTHD

111 (also known as ZNF-MIZ, 38 genes in *A pisson* vs. 14 in *D. nedanogastes*) any memories (be

1111 (also known as ZNF-MIZ, 38 g

 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 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*; segmentation; Grossniklaus et al., 1992), *gcm/gcm2* (*glial cell missing 1* and *2*; glia and plasmatocyte development; Chotard et al., 2005), B-H1/B-H2 (Bar; eye and leg development; Higashijima et al., 1992), *en/inv* (*engrailed/invected;* segmentation; Cheng et al., 2014), *lbe/lbl* (*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;* head and trunk development; Datta et al., 2011), and *eyg*/*toe* (*eyegone*/*twin of eyegone;* eye 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 prior to the radiation of hexapods (Peel et al., 2006). 335 was the case for Mergee (Maboprone colerancigator collectrossed bHH P.18, Invarile
1386 Hurnone eignaling Baumann et al., 2010; Vitara et al., 2005), Rb/PRb/2 (verimblastma family
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3.5 Differences and similarities in TFs regulating early development and organ development of *D. melanogaster* **and** *A. pisum*

 We confirm the absence of *A. pisum* homologs for the early developmental genes *bicoid* (*bcd*), *huckebein* (*hkb*), *buttonhead* (*btd*) and *giant* (*gt*), as originally reported by Shigenobu et al. (2010). *Bicoid* is only found in higher Diptera (Gregor et al., 2008). Its absence in the *A. pisum* genome was therefore expected. By contrast, the absence of homologs for *huckebein*, *buttonhead* and *giant* was less expected. *Giant* is conserved in many insects and has been shown 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 Sp1 homolog. Given the close relatedness of *buttonhead* and Sp1 and similar functions in appendage development in *Drosophila*, *T. castaneum* and *O. fasciatus* (Schaeper et al., 2009), 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 include development of (i) wings: *apterous* (*ap;* Cohen et al., 1992) and *vestigial* (*vg;* Williams 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 that many of the genes that constitute the retinal determination pathway in *Drosophila* (Domínguez and Casares, 2005; Kumar, 2010), are conserved in *A. pisum*, namely *so*, *lz*, *ey*, *toy*, *eyg*, *eya*, *hth*, *exd*, *oc*. At the same time, the absence of *dan*, *danr*, *toe* and the presence of a single *ara/caup/mirror* homolog indicates that the pathway has likely undergone 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* (Hamaguchi et al., 2004). Hemimetabolous insects, including the pea aphid, have two extraembryonic membranes (amnion and serosa) that are involved in blastokinesis (comprising anatrepsis and katatrepsis) (Panfilio, 2008; Schmidt-Ott, 2000). It contrasts with *Drosophila* where extraembryonic development is extremely reduced, thus making it likely that the underlying genetic mechanisms will also show considerable differences. 359 as a regulator of appendinge development. *Huckabiol* is present in *O*, *focusion* where its

860 expression pattern arguests a role different from what was described in *Drougholia* where it is

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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).

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

 The activity of signaling pathways ultimately leads to transcriptional changes mediated by 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) are central negative and positive transcriptional regulators downstream of receptor tyrosine kinases (EGFR, FGFR, PVR). Others include *Foxo* (insulin signaling; Puig et al., 2003), *cubitus interruptus* (*ci*) (hedgehog signaling; Alexandre et al., 1996), *scalloped* (Wu et al., 2008) and *yorkie* (Hippo signaling; Huang et al., 2005), *Su(H)* (Notch signaling; Schweisguth and Posakony, 1992), and *Jra/kay* = *JUN/cFos* (JNK signaling; Perkins et al., 1990). Interestingly, we observed expansions of TFs associated with Wnt signaling (pangolin and TCF TFs; Brunner et al., 1997), JAK-STAT signaling (three homologs of *Stat92E*; Hou et al., 1996) and TGF-beta 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 *O. fasciatus* and other hemimetabolous insects (Bao et al., 2012; Panfilio et al., 2019). An 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 aphid seems to suggest that the amplification may be more ancient in insect evolution. bHLH TFs of the E(Spl) complex acting in Notch signaling show a strongly reduced number as well as an altered organization of the complex. Dearden (2015) described and discussed these differences for the E(Spl) complex in arthropods. 387 3.7 Key TFs of signaling pathways are conserved, but TCF and MAD TFs show expansion
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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., 2010). Given its central importance in regulating metabolic homeostasis (Palanker et al., 2009), this was unexpected. We here report the identification of a *bona fide HNF4* homolog in *A. 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- GATA-type DNA binding domain (DBD) (InterPro signature IPR049636; Hepatocyte Nuclear Factor 4-like, DNA binding domain) and a C-terminal nuclear receptor-type ligand binding domain (LBD) (InterPro signature IPR049635; Hepatocyte nuclear factor 4, ligand-binding domain). The isoforms encoded by the *D. melanogaster* HNF4 gene are longer than those of 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% identity over the whole sequence and 72% when only functional domains are considered. We 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 conservation of functional domains, especially the DNA binding domain (Figure 2). Three 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 were successfully identified by InterProScan. Importantly, the sequence of the *B. tabaci* 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. tabaci* genome of *B. tabaci*, in tandem with LOC109043751, suggests that this gene could have appeared through tandem duplication, and diverged afterwards. On the other hand, LOC109038961 probably appeared through duplication of LOC109043749. Two HNF4 homologs were also identified for *D. citri* and *D. noxia*, but the presence of two genes seems to be the result of assembly errors. In the case of *D. citri*, one of the genes codes for a very short B05 Previously it was reported that there was no HNF4 humalog in A pison (Shigenobu et al., 2010). Given its contract We here expect the determinent including metabolic homeockeis (Palanker et al., 2010). This ansorption protein of 90 amino acids (LOC103508991), not compatible with a functional HNF4. In the case of *D. noxia*, one sequence encodes a protein with only a LBD (LOC107163700), and the other sequence corresponds to a single gene on a very short contig, encoding a protein with only a DBD (LOC107172291). In the latter case, it is possible that the two genes identified as 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.

3.9 TFs regulating essential cellular and organismal processes

 We also analyzed TFs with central roles in important cellular or organismal processes in *D. melanogaster*. For the majority of these we identified homologs in *A. pisum*. Specifically, we found homologs for *SREBP* (HLH106 - lipid homeostasis; Theopold et al., 1996), *Atf6* (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- bp* (TOR mediator complex; Tiebe et al., 2015). Intriguingly, we were not able to identify homologs for *Myc* (cell growth, cell competition, proliferation; Gallant et al., 1996) and *Mitf* (regulator of V-ATPase and lysosomal – autophagic pathway; Zhang et al., 2015). We did find a distant relative of *Myc*, namely *Mnt* (Loo et al., 2005) to be conserved. Since both are dimerization partners for *Max*, it is possible that one or both functionally replace *Myc*. protein of 90 aminu acids (LOC103508991), not ecompatible with a functional HNF4. In the case of *D*, *nortic*, me exquested a presein with only a HBD (LOC107163700), and the exec of *D*, *nortic*, me exquested a presein 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 *dsx*) of the DM domain family. *doublesex* (*dsx*) encodes a key TF in the *Drosophila* sex determination pathway (Coschigano and Wensink, 1993), while *dmrt11E* is required in testis somatic cells for male fertility (Yu et al., 2015). The two other genes have not been functionally 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 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 investigated. Consistent with a different organization of sex determination is the observation that the *A. pisum* genome does not encode a *fruitless* homolog, a BTB transcription factor that regulates male sexual behavior in *Drosophila* (Just et al., 2023; Laslo et al., 2023). 152 As an example of an espanismal presess, we investigated the central eisendian dock and found
153 Ionnalisgs. for all televant TFs, CB, cso, excle *vst and Polph* suggesting that this presence is
154 Indianomally conse

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 Holland, 2022). The other two genes of the cluster, *zen* and *ftz*, which had ancestral homeotic 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 the Hox cluster since it is one of only few gene clusters in Arthropod genomes and, given the availability of the chromosomal assignment of the *A. pisum* genome, we analyzed the structure of the cluster and determined whether the linear arrangement is conserved in *A. pisum* or whether it is rearranged.

 The *A. pisum* Hox gene cluster is localized on chromosome A1 and contains the eight canonical Hox genes. The fact that all insects have retained these eight could have functional implications: segment number and tagmatization are constant in insects, despite their high species radiation, 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 organization to the ones present in three model species, *D. melanogaster*, *T. castaneum* and *B. mori*. This shows several differences in the *A. pisum* Hox cluster when compared to other insects: (i) the genomic size of the cluster is four times bigger than in *D. melanogaster* or *T. 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 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 genes of the cluster are reorganized, with inversion of the respective positions of the *lab* and *pb* genes. These observations are in agreement with the work of Mulhair and Holland (2022), who 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 vary greatly. *abilal*, *AbilB*₁, essential in determining positional identity along the body axis (Malbair and
176 Hulland, 2022). The other two genes of the cluster, seo and *fic*, which had meested humatric
177 Hulland, 2022). Concerning the non-canonical Hox, we have identified a unique *HoxB4-like* gene in *A. pisum* instead of the two *zen* genes (*zen* and *zen-2*) present in Diptera and Coleoptera (Figure 3). The *A. pisum* genome also lacks another Hox-related gene, *bicoid* (see also § 3.5), which is considered as a Diptera-specific duplication of *zen* (Stauber et al., 1999). Moreover, it was difficult to identify a *ftz* homolog. A homeobox-containing gene is present at the usual position for this gene, located between *Scr* and *Antp*, but it encodes a shorter protein (237 predicted amino acids vs. 410 in *D. melanogaster*) (Figure 3 and Table 4B). Moreover, blasting it back to the *Drosophila* genome gave *Scr* as best it, and not *ftz*. This difficulty in identifying a clear homolog of *ftz* was already reported in the first annotation of TFs in the pea aphid genome (Shigenobu et al., 2010), and it was attributed to the lack of a chromosome-level assembly for the *A. pisum genome*. Our analysis has been made on the first chromosome-level genome assembly for this species (Li et al., 2019), which excludes that this problematic annotation of *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. For Conserving the non-enterineal Hox, we have identified a unique *HorBabilie* gene in A pixon

101 instand of the two cor genus (cor and zon-2) present in Diplaca and Colonptican (Figure 3). The

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

 In their recent analysis of the insect Hox cluster, Mulhair and Holland (2022) took into consideration 243 insect genomes. As this analysis included only two hemipteran genomes, we extended our analysis of the Hox cluster genes to all the Hemiptera for which a NCBI RefSeq annotation was available (Table 1). The lengths of the predicted Hox genes and proteins we have annotated are listed in Tables 4A and 4B, respectively. This analysis shows a great diversity in Hox gene lengths, that do not correlate with the genome sizes (Tables 1 and 4). We 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 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 Hox cluster in Hemiptera, we compared the protein sequences of the genes that make up this cluster in the species listed in Table 1 through systematic BLASTP. Results are presented in Suppl. File 4 and include the percentages of coverage and identity for each pairwise comparison. This latter analysis shows that some genes are more conserved than others. For 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% 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 primarily observed in the homeodomain sequences. Identity percentages vary between 56% (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 presence of the conserved homeodomain. When only orthologs are compared, coverage 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 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 identity that go up to 88% and 81% on average. These results are intriguing in light of the fact that most hemipteran Hox clusters present a split between the posterior region of the cluster (from *Abd-B* to *Scr*) and the anterior region of the cluster (comprising *lab* and *pb*), suggesting 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, 134 to pnotrine shorter than the *fix* hermings present in the genomes of *D. methongnistor*, *T*

253 continuous of *B* more.

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

 A comparison of genomic organization and genomic distances between genes of the Hox clusters was possible for a small group of Hemiptera, for which all the Hox genes were on the same chromosome/scaffold (Figure 4). This analysis shows how, in the Hemiptera group, the general organization of the Hox cluster, in terms of relative position of the genes and the splits, can vary greatly from each other. General observations made by Mulhair and Holland (2022) in other insects, for instance that intergenic distances can be large in the anterior part of the cluster, are reduced in the middle and become even larger in the posterior part of the Hox cluster do not apply to the hemipteran genomes we have analyzed here (Figure 4). Moreover, contrary to what has been found in other insect genomes, *Ubx*, *abd-A* and *Abd-B* are not always present 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. A few studies have focused on the Hox genes and have shown that they evolved new roles in aphids, related to their symbiotic status or certain polyphenisms. Immunohistochemical studies have demonstrated that Ubx and AbdA/B are localized in the bacteriocytes of aphid embryos and nymphs, which supports the hypothesis that they are associated with the early development and the differentiation of these symbiont-containing cells (Braendle et al., 2003). The important role of Ubx in the development of insect bacteriocytes has subsequently been confirmed in the hemipteran *Nysius plebeius* (Matsuura et al., 2015), but no study has since been performed in *A. pisum*. Other roles for the Hox TFs seem to be related to the wing polyphenisms, as Scr, Antp and Ubx are up-regulated in apterae vs. alate aphids and are differentially expressed between the two morphs during development (Zhang et al., 2019). Future availability of high- quality insect genomes with chromosomal annotation will permit further comparative studies **E48** has an intermediate states, with averange and islamity averaging 63% and 66% respectively. Its
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As and sev hermings appear in of the Hox cluster, not only to infer its evolutionary origin and dynamics, but also to determine

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

Conclusion

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

 Despite the evolutionary divergence between the two species, homologs for most D. melanogaster TF families have been found in *A. pisum.* This includes the identification of an *A. pisum* homolog of HNF4, a key TF regulating metabolic homeostasis and that had not been previously described in aphids. We propose that the major differences in development, 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 chromatin-associated genes suggests an important role for epigenetic regulation in the pea 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 of gene position in the pea aphid compared to *Drosophila* and other insect models. 373 of the Haveluster, not only to infer its evolutionary origin and dynamics, but also to determine

373 what - if any - the developmental and functional comeangeneous are of the nearangements.

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Figures and Tables

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

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

 Figure 3. Comparison of the Hox gene cluster in *Acyrthosiphon pisum* **with the Hox clusters of model species representative of Diptera, Coleoptera and Lepidoptera**. The orientation of each arrow indicates the transcriptional orientation of each canonical and non- canonical Hox gene. Genes are represented with their actual lengths and genomic distances. In *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 referred to as *ptl* (*prothoraxless*, Brown et al., 2002), *Cx* (*cephalothorax*, Curtis et al., 2001), and *mxp* (*maxillopedia*, Shippy et al., 2000), respectively. 595 Figure 1. Transception factor annotation pipeline in *Drosophilin enchanges (see phiphical*). The state and *not peer* reviewed in Re state and Re state Re (see and Re state Re state Re state Re state Re state

 Figure 4. Genomic organization and gene orientation across hemipteran Hox clusters. (A) 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 the predicted ancestral Hox cluster are annotated with a black border around the gene. (B) 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 (Mb).

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- **Tables**

 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 representative of Diptera, Coleoptera and Lepidoptera.

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

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

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

- **Coleoptera and Lepidoptera.**
- **Supplementary data**
- **Suppl. File 1. Transcription factor annotation in** *Acyrthosiphon pisum* **(green), and comparison with the reference organism,** *Drosophila melanogaster* **(blue).**
- **Suppl. File 2. Chromatin-associated factor annotation in** *Acyrthosiphon pisum* **(green), 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.

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

CRediT authorship contribution statement

 Nicolas Parisot: conceptualization, methodology, software, formal analysis, investigation, writing - original draft, writing – review & editing, visualization; **Mélanie Ribeiro Lopes:** methodology, formal analysis, investigation, writing - original draft; **Sergio Peignier:** validation, resources, data curation, writing – review & editing; **Patrice Baa-Puyoulet:** software, data curation, writing – review & editing**; Hubert Charles:** validation, formal analysis, writing-review & editing; **Federica Calevro:** conceptualization, investigation, writing - original draft , writing – review & editing, supervision, funding acquisition ; **Patrick Callaerts:** conceptualization, investigation, writing - original draft, writing – review & editing, supervision, funding acquisition S41 Supple. Fit is Transcription factor annotation in Acyrthosiphon plasm (green), and
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