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6-1-2014

# Divergent transcriptional responses to low temperature among populations of alpine and lowland species of New Zealand stick insects (Micrarchus).

Luke T Dunning University of London - Imperial College of Science, Technology and Medicine, L.Dunning@imperial.ac.uk

Alice B Dennis Landcare Research, Auckland, New Zealand

Brent J Sinclair Western University, bsincla7@uwo.ca

Richard D Newcomb University of Auckland

Thomas R Buckley University of Auckland

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#### Citation of this paper:

Dunning, L. T., Dennis, A. B., Sinclair, B. J., Newcomb, R. D. and Buckley, T. R. (2014), Divergent transcriptional responses to low temperature among populations of alpine and lowland species of New Zealand stick insects (Micrarchus). Mol Ecol, 23: 2712–2726. doi:10.1111/mec.12767

# 1 Molecular Ecology

2	Divergent transcriptional responses to low temperature among populations of alpine and
3	lowland species of New Zealand stick insect (Micrarchus)
4	Running Title (max 45 characters inc. spaces):
5	Cold-induced changes to transcription
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7	Luke T. Dunning <sup>1,2,3,4</sup> , Alice B. Dennis <sup>1,3,5</sup> , Brent J. Sinclair <sup>6</sup> , Richard D. Newcomb <sup>2,3,7</sup> , Thomas
8	R. Buckley <sup>1,2,3</sup>
9	<sup>1</sup> Landcare Research, Private Bag 92170, Auckland, New Zealand
10	<sup>2</sup> School of Biological Sciences, University of Auckland, Auckland, New Zealand
11	<sup>3</sup> Allan Wilson Centre for Molecular Ecology and Evolution, New Zealand
12	<sup>4</sup> Present address: Imperial College London, Silwood Park, Berkshire, UK
13 14	<sup>5</sup> Present address: EAWAG, Swiss Federal Institute of Aquatic Science and Technology; 8600 Dübendorf, Switzerland
15	<sup>6</sup> Department of Biology, The University of Western Ontario, London, ON, Canada N6G 1L3
16	<sup>7</sup> The New Zealand Institute for Plant & Food Research Limited, Auckland, New Zealand
17	Corresponding Author: Luke T. Dunning (L.Dunning@imperial.ac.uk). Imperial College
18	London, Silwood Park Campus, Buckhurst Road, Ascot, Berks, SL5 7PY, UK
19	Keywords: Cold tolerance, Cuticle, introgression, local adaptation, RNA-Seq
20 21 22 23 24	This is the pre-peer reviewed version of the following article: Dunning, L. T., Dennis, A. B., Sinclair, B. J., Newcomb, R. D. and Buckley, T. R. (2014), Divergent transcriptional responses to low temperature among populations of alpine and lowland species of New Zealand stick insects ( <i>Micrarchus</i> ). Mol Ecol, 23: 2712–2726. doi:10.1111/mec.12767, which has been published in final form at 10.1111/mec.12767. This article may be used for non-commercial purposes in accordance with Wiley Terms and Conditions for Self-Archiving

In widespread and genetically-structured populations, temperature variation may promote local 26 adaptation and lead to among-population differentiation of thermal biology. The New Zealand 27 stick insect genus Micrarchus contains four species (two of which are geographically 28 widespread) which inhabit different thermal environments. RNA-Seq and qPCR were used to 29 investigate the transcriptional responses to cold-shock (-5°C for 1 h then 21°C for 1 h) among 30 lowland and alpine species to identify cold-responsive transcripts and determine geographic 31 variation in gene expression. We also used DNA sequences and transcriptome-wide SNPs to 32 determine phylogeographic structure and the potential for locally-adapted gene expression. 33 34 RNA-Seq identified 2.160 unigenes differentially expressed across two alpine populations (both *M.* nov. sp. 2) and one lowland population (*M. hystriculeus*), with a majority (68%  $\pm$  20%) being 35 population- and species-specific. Responses to cold-shock shared among genetically-divergent 36 M. nov. sp. 2 populations that differ from M. hystriculeus included the enrichment of cuticular 37 structure-associated transcripts, suggesting that cuticle modification may have accompanied 38 colonisation of the low-temperature alpine environment by M. nov. sp. 2. We further show with 39 qPCR that cold-induced changes to transcription in M. nov. sp. 2 was significantly correlated 40 across years, suggesting that the differences we observed are a consequence of divergence in 41 42 genetic background. One alpine population maintains a putatively pure nuclear genome despite complete M. hystriculeus mtDNA replacement, possibly indicating local adaptation in the 43 nuclear genome. These results show that, across a relatively small spatial scale, reduced gene 44 flow and possible local adaptation are associated with location-specific transcriptional responses 45 to temperature. 46

#### 48 Introduction

The thermal environment, especially the frequency, intensity and duration of low-49 temperature exposure, can vary considerably across a species' geographic range (Kingsolver 50 1989; Chown & Terblanche 2006). In genetically-structured populations with low rates of gene 51 flow, variation in thermal stress may promote local adaptation and differentiation of their thermal 52 biology (Ghalambor et al. 2007; Sinclair 2012). This differentiation is likely to be manifested in 53 54 modifications to protein-coding sequences (Dahlhoff & Rank 2000) and gene expression profiles (Hoffmann & Willi 2008) at temperature-related loci. The global transcriptional responses to 55 thermal stress have been widely studied in Drosophila, with fewer studies in other insect taxa 56 57 (Oleksiak et al. 2002; Hoffmann et al. 2003). Microarray and RNA-Seq studies in intertidal copepods (Tigriopus californicus) (Schoville et al. 2012) and reef-building coral larvae 58 (Montastraea faveolata) (Polato et al. 2010) reveal strikingly divergent transcription responses to 59 thermal stress among populations. In *M. faveolata*, this has been attributed to local adaptation 60 occurring in spite of high gene flow among populations (Polato et al. 2010). Species comprised 61 multiple genetically-isolated populations may 62 of develop divergent locally-adapted transcriptional profiles, and are therefore likely to respond to climate change differently than 63 more genetically-homogeneous species (Pelini et al. 2009; Sinclair 2012). High-altitude endemic 64 65 species from temperate mountain ranges are at a disproportionally high risk from climate change because treeline expansion is predicted to dramatically reduce suitable habitat (Dirnböck et al. 66 2011). One proposed solution to this threat is translocations between mountain tops (Weeks *et al.* 67 2011). However, managed translocations may result in reduced fitness if geographic genetic 68 variation is locally-adapted (Weeks et al. 2011), thus, determining the occurrence and prevalence 69 of local adaptation is essential for managing populations in the face of climate change. 70

Insects have successfully colonised the complete range of terrestrial environments, 71 including polar and alpine habitats where they experience sub-zero conditions (Sømme 1995). 72 Sub-zero temperature exposure induces physiological and biochemical stresses including 73 increased membrane rigidity (Overgaard et al. 2005), induced apoptosis (Denlinger & Lee 2010), 74 elevated oxidative stress (Lalouette et al. 2011) and loss of sodium ions and water from the 75 76 hemolymph (MacMillan et al. 2012). Microarray studies on laboratory Drosophila populations 77 have identified cold-responsive loci with functions relating to gene regulation, immune function, metabolism, stress, cuticles, membranes and the cytoskeleton (Qin et al. 2005; Laayouni et al. 78 79 2007; Sørensen et al. 2007; Zhang et al. 2011; Vesala et al. 2012). A majority of these candidate Drosophila cold tolerance genes do not overlap with those identified from the limited number of 80 studies using other insects (Colinet et al. 2007; Purać et al. 2008; Clark et al. 2009; Teets et al. 81 2012; Dunning et al. 2013a). For example, hsp83 (a homolog of mammalian hsp90) is up-82 regulated by D. melanogaster adults exposed to 0 °C for 2 h (Qin et al. 2005), but not in alpine 83 84 stick insects (*Micrarchus* nov. sp. 2) exposed to a similar treatment (Dunning *et al.* 2013a; 0°C for 1 h followed by a 1 h recovery period at 20°C). Even within Drosophila, patterns of cold-85 induced gene expression differ among species. For example, the allopatric Drosophila virilis and 86 87 D. montana share only two consistently differentially-expressed genes in response to cold acclimation (14 days at 19°C followed by six days at 5°C) and rapid cold hardening (20 days at 88 89 19°C followed by 1 h at 0°C) (Vesala *et al.* 2012). Using a phylogenetic framework to 90 investigate inter- and intra-specific variation in cold-induced transcription in closely-related species and populations inhabiting different thermal environments will increase our 91 92 understanding of how cold-tolerance varies across the geographic range of a species and whether 93 there is variation in this response which could be driven by divergent selection.

We hypothesise that species with poor dispersal ability are likely to have strong 94 phylogeographic structure, and locally-adapted responses to environmental stress may evolve if 95 this structure overlies significant variation in environmental conditions. Apterous (wingless) 96 New Zealand stick insects from the genus Micrarchus Carl (Carl 1913) are therefore a great 97 model to investigate if poor dispersal, resulting in strong phylogeographic structure, does result 98 99 in significant inter- and intraspecific variation in the gene expression response to low temperature. Micrarchus is a genus of New Zealand stick insects comprised of four endemic 100 101 species that all overwinter as nymphs and/or adults. All four species experience sub-zero 102 temperatures in their respective environments, but the frequency, duration and extremes in temperature encountered by M. nov. sp. 2 are greater than those of the other species (Salmon 103 1991; Dennis et al. 2013). Micrarchus nov. sp. 2 is exclusively found at high elevations (650 to 104 105 1400 m a.s.l) in contrast to the ecological generalist M. nov. sp. 1 (0 to 1100 m a.s.l), and lowland M. hystriculeus and M. nov. sp. 3 (0 to 283 m a.s.l) (Salmon 1991; Dennis et al. 2013). 106 107 Montane populations of *M*. nov. sp. 2 are effectively isolated on alpine 'sky islands' (Heald 1951). As Micrarchus species are apterous there is little potential for migration or gene flow 108 109 among these populations. In July, alpine sites are on average 3.6°C colder and experience ten 110 times more freeze-thaw cycles than nearby lowland sites (Dennis et al. 2013). Previously, RNA-111 Seq has been used to identify three differentially expressed genes in M. nov. sp. 2 from one 112 population (Sewell Peak) after brief exposure to a mild cold-shock (0°C) that encode: an 113 oxidoreductase enzyme, a transcriptional regulator and a cuticle protein (Dunning et al. 2013a). 114 No information on the molecular response to cold is available for the other three Micrarchus species or further populations of *M*. nov. sp. 2. 115

116 Similarities in the transcriptional response to low-temperature exposure shared among 117 populations of alpine stick insects likely reflect fixed molecular mechanisms that may be associated with the colonisation of the colder alpine environment, especially if they are not 118 119 shared with a closely related lowland species. Additionally, Geographically-isolated alpine populations of M. nov. sp. 2 offer an opportunity to investigate whether reduced gene flow 120 between populations results in the differentiation of cold-induced transcription as local 121 adaptation will not be swamped by admixture with unadapted genotypes. There is presently little 122 understanding of how thermal adaptation varies over the geographic range of a species, whether 123 populations have locally adapted thermal biologies, and how these differences may be 124 divergently acted upon by climate change-imposed selection 125

#### 127 Materials and Methods

#### **128** Sample collection

129 Micrarchus specimens were collected across their known distributions between 2004 and 2012 (Fig. 1; Full location details Table S1). The nominate *M. hystriculeus* (Westwood 1859) 130 has the broadest geographical distribution (Fig. 1) and is the only representative on the North 131 132 Island (Salmon 1991). Micrarchus nov. sp. 1 (Voucher specimen NZAC 03000433 from New Zealand Arthropod Collection, Landcare Research, Auckland, New Zealand) is restricted to 133 habitats on the east coast of the South Island (Salmon 1991; Dennis et al. 2013). Micrarchus 134 nov. sp. 2 (NZAC03009458) is exclusively found at high elevations (600 to 1409 m above sea 135 136 level) in the mountains of the northwestern South Island (Salmon 1991; Dennis et al. 2013; Dunning et al. 2013a). Micrarchus nov. sp. 3 (NZAC03000053) is only known from near sea 137 level on Stephens Island (150 ha) in the Cook Strait where it is sympatric with M. hystriculeus 138 (Buckley et al. 2012). Specimens were collected by beating and manually searching host 139 140 vegetation (Salmon 1991; Dennis et al. 2013). Insects were preserved in ethanol or transported live to Landcare Research, Auckland. 141

#### 142 Micrarchus phylogeny reconstruction

To assess the degree of phylogeographic structure among and within *Micrarchus* species, and therefore the potential for local adaptation, we collected nuclear and mitochondrial DNA sequence data. DNA was extracted from 5 – 10 mg of leg muscle tissue using the Corbett Xtractor Gene robot (Corbett Robotics, Brisbane, Australia) and the QIAxtractor DX Reagents kit (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany, cat. no. 950107) following the manufacturer's instructions for 148 individuals. Mitochondrial cytochrome oxidase subunit I (COI), cytochrome oxidase subunit II

(COII) and 28S ribosomal RNA genes were sequenced using previously described methods and 149 primers (Buckley et al. 2008). Sequence information for these three genes was supplemented 150 with sequence from a further 36 individuals sequenced using cDNA as a template (qPCR 151 samples) and 24 individuals using high-throughput sequencing (RNA-Seq samples). Two 152 Tectarchus ovobessus and two T. salebrosus specimens were used as outgroups for COI/II and 153 154 28S respectively. Both of these species are endemic to New Zealand and closely related to Micrarchus (Buckley et al. 2010; Dunning et al. 2013b). Sequences were edited and assembled 155 into alignments for each gene using Geneious v.5.6.4 (Drummond et al. 2012). Nucleotide 156 157 substitution models for phylogenetic analysis were selected based on the corrected Akaike Information Criterion (Sugiura 1978; Hurvich & Tsai 1989) implemented in jModelTest v. 0.1.1 158 (Guindon & Gascuel 2003; Posada 2008). Bayesian phylogenies were constructed using Markov-159 160 chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) sampling in MrBayes v.3.2.0 (Huelsenbeck & Ronquist 2001; Ronquist & Huelsenbeck 2003) with 10 million generations sampled every thousand generations. 161 162 A relative burn-in of 25% was used with the following priors: uniform substitution rates, empirically estimated state frequencies, exponential gamma shape parameter set to mean of five 163 for among-site rate variation and proportion of invariable sites uniformly distributed between 164 165 zero and one. Non-parametric bootstrap analysis under maximum likelihood (100 pseudo replicates) was performed using Garli v. 2.0 (Zwickl 2006) (substitution model: COI/COII = 166 GTR+I+ $\Gamma$ ; 28S = TIM3+ $\Gamma$ ). 167

168 *Cold-shock experiments* 

169 Cold-shock experiments were performed exclusively on adult females. For these 170 experiments alpine *M*. nov. sp. 2 was collected from two sites: (i) Sewell Peak (SP), in the 171 Paparoa Range, on 11/02/2011 (Site 1; Fig. 1 & Table S1) and; (ii) Mt. Arthur (MA), Arthur

Range, on 13/02/2011 (Site 9; Fig. 1 & Table S1). These two allopatric populations are separated 172 by 176 km, much of which is comprised of low elevation forest, in which this species is absent. 173 174 The lowland *M. hystriculeus* was collected from Paengaroa Scenic Reserve (PA), Taihape, on 25/03/2011 (Site 38; Fig. 1 & Table S1). Prior to experimentation insects were maintained under 175 constant conditions for a minimum of 16 days acclimatisation in a 12:12 light:dark cycle under 176 177 ambient room temperature and humidity with a constant diet of freshly collected *Metrosideros* 178 excelsa leaves. The RNA-Seq experimental design consisted of three independent trials between 179 control and cold-shocked groups (For *M*. nov. sp. 2 (SP) and *M*. hystriculeus (PA) n = 3 vs. 3; *M*. 180 nov. sp. 2 (MA) n = 6 vs. 6). Experiments were conducted on 17/03/2011 for *M*. nov. sp. 2 (SP and MA), and on 11/04/2011 for M. hystriculeus (PA). The control groups were maintained at 181 21°C in a Sanyo MIR-154 incubator (Global Science and Technology, Osaka, Japan) prior to 182 183 being snap-frozen in liquid nitrogen. The cold-shocked experimental individuals were incubated at 21°C for one hour prior to cooling at approximately 1°C min<sup>-1</sup> until the incubator reached -184 185 5°C, where it was held for one hour. The animals were then warmed at approximately 1°C min<sup>-1</sup> and held at 21°C for a one hour recovery, at which point insects were snap frozen and all 186 187 samples stored at -80°C prior to RNA extraction. All insects survived the treatments and were moving in a coordinated fashion prior to snap freezing. 188

189 *cDNA preparation and RNA-Seq* 

Total RNA was extracted using TRIzol (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA, USA, cat. No. 610.06)
from the head, antennae and prothorax of the 24 experimental samples using previously
published methods (Dunning *et al.* 2013a). cDNA libraries for HTS were prepared using the
Illumina TruSeq RNA Sample Preparation Kit (Illumina San Diego, CA, USA, cat. no.
15013136) according to the manufacturer's protocol, with a starting input of 2.65 µg total RNA

from each sample. Individual samples had randomly assigned barcodes ligated to the cDNA fragments and were amplified with 13 cycles of PCR. Libraries were validated using the Agilent 2100 Bioanalyzer to ensure each had the recommended ~260 bp average fragment size. Libraries were sent for high throughput sequencing (HTS) to the University of Utah's Microarray and Genomic Analysis Shared Resource where they were qPCR quantified prior to sequencing on three lanes of a 50 cycle single-end Illumina HiSeq 2000 run.

#### 201 Pre-processing, aligning and annotating RNA-Seq data

202 Reads with ambiguous bases were removed using ShortRead v. 1.16.3 (Morgan et al. 203 2009) implemented in R v. 2.15.0 (R Development Core Team 2012). Illumina adapter sequences and low quality bases (Phred quality < 30) were trimmed using Cutadapt v. 1.1 204 205 (Martin 2011). Poly A/T tails longer than 10 bp from either end of the reads, and any read shorter than 40 bp was removed using PRINSEQ lite v. 0.16 (Schmieder & Edwards 2011). Cleaned 206 reads were grouped by population and *de novo* assembled using Trinity (release 2012-10-05 207 208 (Grabherr et al. 2011)), with default parameters and the reduce Butterfly option used to combine 209 similar splice variants. Ribosomal RNA was removed using all available databases in riboPicker v.0.4.3 (Schmieder et al. 2012) and BLASTn sequence searching against 28S Micrarchus 210 sequences. Assemblies were annotated by BLASTx (*E*-value threshold =  $1e^{-10}$ ) sequence 211 212 searching against the National Centre for Biotechnology Information (NCBI) non-redundant (nr) 213 protein and SwissProt databases. Gene Ontology (GO) annotation was based on the SwissProt Blast matches using Blast2GO v. 2.6.2 (Conesa et al. 2005). GO annotations were compared and 214 visualised between assemblies using WEGO (Ye et al. 2006). 215

216 Differential expression analysis of RNA-Seq data

Individual cleaned sequence reads were mapped back onto the respective population 217 Trinity assemblies using RSEM v. 1.2.4 (Li & Dewey 2011). Differential expression analysis 218 followed previously published methods (Dunning et al. 2013a). In brief, DESeq v. 1.12.0 219 (Anders & Huber 2010), edgeR v. 3.2.4 (Robinson et al. 2010) and baySeq v. 1.14.1 (Hardcastle 220 & Kelly 2010) packages implemented in R v. 3.0.1 (R Development Core Team 2012) were used 221 222 to determine which genes were differentially expressed using recommended significance cut-offs to control for Type I errors. To be considered for differential expression analysis 'unigenes' 223 (trinity components containing clusters of 'contigs' representing splice variants of the same 224 225 locus) had to have at least one count per million in half of the samples analysed (3 out of 6 in M. hystriculeus (PA) and M. nov. sp. 2 (SP); 6 out of 12 in M. nov. sp. 2 (MA)). Gene Ontology 226 (GO) annotation enrichment analysis was performed by way of a Fisher's exact test in Blast2GO 227 (Conesa et al. 2005) between the GO terms associated with the differentially regulated cold-228 responsive unigenes, and those associated with the non-differentially-expressed unigenes. The 229 230 analysis was restricted to biological function with a false discovery rate (FDR) of < 0.10).

#### 231 *qPCR* validation

To validate the RNA-Seq results and gain more detailed information on the variation in 232 expression among populations and species a subset of six genes, with a range of GO terms and 233 234 direction of regulation (Table S2), were selected for qPCR using both technical and biological 235 replicates. Two non-differentially expressed reference genes across all three comparisons in the RNA-Seq data were selected to normalise the relative qPCR expression between genes (pyruvate 236 kinase and ATP synthase subunit beta; P-value > 0.85; counts > 1000). Technical replicates used 237 238 cDNA synthesised from the same individuals as RNA extractions used for the RNA-Seq data. 239 Biological replicates consisted of cDNA synthesised from different individuals from the same

population, with M. nov. sp. 2 individuals collected and treated on different dates to the technical 240 replicates; *M.* nov. sp. 2 (SP) collected 27/01/2012 and treated 28/02/2012; *M.* nov. sp. 2 (MA) 241 collected 23/01/2012 and treated 02/03/2012. In addition, three further populations were used for 242 qPCR. These were Alpine M. nov. sp. 2 collected from: (i) Mt. Owen (MO), Nelson Range on 243 25/01/2012 and treated on 01/03/2012 (Site 5; Fig. 1 & Table S1) and; (ii) Harwood's Hole 244 245 (HH), Takaka Hill on 24/01/2012 and treated on 29/02/2012 (Site 11; Fig. 1 & Table S1). A sample of lowland M. hystriculeus was collected from Kowhai (KO), Wairau Valley on 246 247 19/01/2012 treated on 25/04/2012 (Site 14; Fig. 1 & Table S1). For biological and population replicates, experimental treatments and RNA extractions followed previously described methods 248 for RNA-Seq samples. Contaminating DNA was removed from RNA extractions using TURBO 249 DNase (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA, cat. no. AM2238) prior to cDNA synthesis. Primer design 250 251 (primer sequences Table S3), cDNA library preparation and qPCR followed previously published methods (Dunning et al. 2013a). Fold changes were generated by dividing the mean 252 253 relative amount for each treatment group by the mean relative amount for the control. Linear regression with Pearson correlation coefficients were used to compare the agreement between the 254 RNA-Seq and qPCR results. For the additional HH, KO and MO populations, significant 255 256 differential expression between treatments was assessed using the log-transformed raw relative expression values and a one tailed t-test. 257

258 Population genetics and phylogeography of Micrarchus

259 Contigs corresponding to all 13 mitochondrial protein coding genes were extracted from 260 the three RNA-Seq assemblies by tBLASTx sequence searching against the complete *D*. 261 *melanogaster* mitochondrial genome (DMU37541). The contigs were subsequently aligned and 262 pairwise similarities calculated. To generate SNP data to compare between the three populations, 263 a new Trinity assembly was constructed with the cleaned reads from all 24 individuals with the 264 same parameters as previously described. Individual clean reads were then mapped onto the new combined assembly using Bowtie 2 (Langmead & Salzberg 2012). SNPs were subsequently 265 called from the Bowtie 2 mapped reads using the recommended default parameters for *mpileup* 266 in SAMtools v. 0.1.18 (Li et al. 2009). The data set was trimmed to only retain bialleic, unlinked 267 and high quality (Q > 30) SNPs with no missing data using VCFtools v. 0.1.10 (Danecek *et al.* 268 269 2011). Population structure was assessed by way of a principle component analysis (PCA) performed in R (R Development Core Team 2012) and ancestry inference using ADMIXTURE 270 271 v.1.22 (Alexander *et al.* 2009) with K = 2 to K = 6.

272

#### 274 **Results**

#### 275 *Transcriptome assembly*

276 A total of 235 million 50 bp single-end Illumina reads were obtained from 24 277 individually-tagged cDNA libraries. Raw data have been submitted to the NCBI Sequence Read Archive (SRA). An average of 9.8 million reads (range: 6.6-13.2 million reads) were generated 278 for each library (Table S4), with 99% of the data remaining after trimming. Cleaned reads were 279 de novo assembled by species and population: M. nov. sp. 2 (SP), M. nov. sp. 2 (MA) and M. 280 281 hystriculeus (PA); producing 42,425 (41,771 unigenes), 58,743 (57,576 unigenes) and 37,814 282 (37,334 unigenes) contigs, respectively (Table S4). Between 27% and 30% of the contigs within each assembly were annotated by BLASTx against the nr database, with the species distribution 283 284 of top-matches overlapping among the three assemblies (Fig. S1). The distribution of high level GO terms from the SwissProt BLASTx matches was extremely similar among the three 285 assemblies (Fig. S2). 286

#### 287 *Phylogeography and population genetics*

A total of 210 individuals were sequenced, resulting in alignments of 530 bp for 28S and 1515 288 bp of COI/COII. All sequences have been submitted to NCBI Genbank. The 28S Bayesian and 289 290 likelihood phylogenies support each Micrarchus species as monophyletic, with M. hystriculeus sister to M. nov. sp. 1, and M. nov. sp. 2 sister to M. nov. sp. 3 (Fig. 1; expanded phylogeny Fig. 291 292 S3). There is very little intraspecific variation at this locus, with between 98.5% and 100% pairwise similarity between alleles from the same species. The COI/COII Bayesian phylogeny 293 294 does not support any Micrarchus species as monophyletic, with geographically-proximal populations of different species often grouping together (Fig. 2; expanded phylogeny Fig. S4). 295

For example, the *M*. nov. sp. 2 haplotype clade containing SP, Denniston Plateau and Buckland's Peak is sister to all other *Micrarchus* haplotypes, separated by the longest branch in the ingroup phylogeny. The other clades containing *M*. nov. sp. 1, *M*. nov. sp. 2 and *M*. nov. sp. 3 are nested within clades of *M*. *hystriculeus* individuals. *Micrarchus* nov. sp. 3 is endemic to Stephens Island (location 22; Fig. 1), where it is sympatric with the widespread *M*. *hystriculeus*. Whilst distinct at the 28S locus, *M*. nov. sp. 3 shares mtDNA with *M*. *hystriculeus* from Stephens Island.

302 All M. nov. sp. 2 (MA) mtDNA protein coding sequences in the RNA-Seq data have a greater pairwise nucleotide identity to those from *M. hystriculeus* (PA) (average pairwise identity 303 = 95.2%) than the conspecific *M*. nov. sp. 2 (SP) (average pairwise identity = 92.7%), apart from 304 305 NADH dehydrogenase subunit 4L (ND4L). The ND4L gene is 285 bp in M. nov. sp. 2 (MA) and is 98.1% identical to M. hystriculeus (PA) (11 observed substitutions) and 98.6% identical to M. 306 nov. sp. 2 (SP) (ten observed substitutions). The degree of admixture in the nuclear genome 307 between M. hystriculeus and M. nov. sp. 2 was assessed using 45,785 biallelic unlinked 308 transcriptome wide SNPs extracted from all 24 individuals from three populations: 6 x M. 309 hystriculeus (PA) (Pure M. hystriculeus mtDNA); 6 x M. nov. sp. 2 SP (pure M. nov. sp. 2 310 mtDNA) and 12 x M. nov. sp. 2 (MA) (introgressed M. hystriculeus mtDNA). PCA analysis of 311 the SNP data identified three separate clusters that corresponded to the three populations (Fig. 3). 312 313 The first principle component explained 26.2% of the variation in the data and separates both M. nov. sp. 2 populations from *M. hystriculeus*. The second principle component explained 14.6% 314 of the variation in the data and distinguishes the two M. nov. sp. 2 populations. Maximum 315 likelihood estimation was used to determine the ancestry of each individual from the SNP data, 316 with three being the optimal number of ancestral populations based on cross-validation errors 317 between different values of K (2-6). K = 3 clearly separates the three populations (Fig. 3). The 318

next best fit of K = 2 groups the populations into their respective species groups. Values of K higher than three have a much lower fit to the data (higher cross-validation error). These data demonstrate a high degree of differentiation in the nuclear genomes of the species of *Micrarchus*, however, there is strong evidence of gene flow at mitochondrial DNA.

#### 323 Differential expression analysis

Differentially-expressed transcripts as a result of cold-shock treatment were identified in 324 two alpine populations of M. nov. sp. 2 (MA and SP) and one lowland population of M. 325 326 hystriculeus (PA). Counts for differential expression analysis were generated by mapping 327 cleaned 50 bp Illumina HiSeq reads back onto their respective population transcriptome, with between 84.3 and 92.9% (Mean = 89.5%; SD = 1.9%) of reads from each individual having at 328 329 least one valid alignment. Differential expression analyses identified 1774, 252 and 134 differentially expressed cold-responsive unigenes in M. nov. sp. 2 (SP), M. nov. sp. 2 (MA) and 330 M. hystriculeus (PA) populations, respectively (Table 1; Full details of the differentially-331 332 regulated cold-responsive genes in Supplementary File B). A majority of the differentiallyexpressed unigenes were unique to each population (M. nov. sp. 2 (MA) 52%; M. nov. sp. 2 (SP) 333 90%; M. hystriculeus (PA) 62%; Mean 68% ± 20%), sharing no BLASTx match (E-value 334 threshold =  $< 1e^{-10}$ ) with differentially-expressed genes identified in other populations (Fig. 4). 335 336 Cold-responsive unigenes that did overlap between populations were regulated in similar and 337 opposing directions (Fig. 4; Full details of correspondence between differentially-regulated coldresponsive transcripts in Table S5). No unigene was universally up-regulated, or universally 338 down-regulated as a result of cold-shock in all three populations. 339

Enrichment of biological function GO terms in the differentially expressed unigenes 340 compared to the non-differentially expressed unigenes was assessed using a Fisher's exact test 341 (FDR <0.05). In *M.* nov. sp. 2 (SP) 32 molecular functions were significantly enriched in the 342 differentially expressed unigenes (Table 2). In M. nov. sp. 2 (MA) 3 molecular functions were 343 significantly enriched in the differentially expressed unigenes (Table 2). In *M. hystriculeus* (PA) 344 345 a single molecular function was significantly enriched in the differentially expressed unigenes (Table 2). The GO terms for the structural constituent of cuticle (GO:0042302), structural 346 347 constituent of chitin-based cuticle (GO:0005214) and structural molecule activity (GO:0005198) were significantly enriched in both *M*. nov. sp. 2 (SP) and *M*. nov. sp. 2 (MA). 348

#### 349 *qPCR verification*

350 To validate the RNA-Seq results and to further explore geographical patterns of differential expression, expression was also measured in a subset of six genes (Table S2) by 351 qPCR for technical (same individuals and RNA extractions for both methods) and biological 352 353 replicates (different individuals from the same population) in all three populations. Overall, there was a strong correlation between the RNA-Seq and qPCR results for the technical replicates (P-354 value < 0.001; Fig. 5; Fig. S5). There was also a significant positive correlation between the 355 RNA-Seq and qPCR results for the biological replicates (*P*-value < 0.009; Fig. 5, Fig. S5). The 356 expression of the qPCR candidates was also assessed in alpine M. nov. sp. 2 (MO) and M. nov. 357 sp. 2 (HH), and lowland *M. hystriculeus* (KO) (Fig. 5) to obtain further information on 358 intraspecific patterns of gene expression. There was a high level of intra- and inter-specific 359 variation in the magnitude of expression response to the cold-shock treatment. For example, in 360 361 Endocuticle structural glycoprotein db-2 (Cud2) the direction of regulation in the additional alpine M. nov. sp. 2 populations were consistent with M. nov. sp. 2 (MA), but in only M. nov. sp. 362

2 (HH) was the gene significantly down-regulated as a result of cold-shock. *Sarcosine dehydrogenase (Sardh)* is significantly up-regulated in *M*. nov. sp. 2 (HH), but not in *M*. nov. sp.
2 (MO); even though the overall fold-change is higher in the latter. *Cathepsin L* is significantly up-regulated in three of the four alpine populations (*M*. nov. sp. 2 (MA), *M*. nov. sp. 2 (SP) and *M*. nov. sp. 2 (MO)). *Unannotated contig8923 (Comp8923)* is up-regulated as a result of cold-

368 shock in both populations of the alpine species.

#### 370 **Discussion**

All *Micrarchus* experience sub-zero temperatures in their respective environments. However the 371 frequency and duration of cold stress, and the minimum temperatures encountered by M. nov. sp. 372 373 2 are more extreme than experienced by its congeners (Salmon 1991; Dennis et al. 2013). Thus, we expect M. Nov. sp. 2 to have a more cold-hardy genotype. In the context of the likely 374 restricted gene flow imposed by the sky island distribution of this species, we also expect local 375 376 adaptation of the gene expression response to low temperature. In this study we show that, across a relatively small spatial scale, reduced gene flow and possible local adaptation are associated 377 with location-specific transcriptional responses to low temperature exposure. 378

#### 379 Genetic divergence and introgression among Micrarchus species and populations

Our phylogeographic data clearly show strong differentiation of the nuclear genomes of 380 381 *Micrarchus* species and populations within *M*. nov. sp. 2, a prerequisite for local adaptation. All species are monophyletic at 28S, and transcriptome wide SNPs clearly able to discriminate 382 populations and species. However, this resolution is lost in the mitochondrial genome, with 383 evidence of introgression of *M. hystriculeus* mtDNA into the other three *Micrarchus* species 384 (Fig. 2). The consistent phylogenetic clustering of geographically-proximate populations from 385 different Micrarchus species supports our conclusion that mtDNA replacement is due to 386 introgression rather than incomplete lineage sorting (Holder et al. 2001). Furthermore, 387 introgression is commonly observed in stick insects, including New Zealand species (Morgan-388 389 Richards & Trewick 2005; Andersen et al. 2006; Buckley et al. 2008; Schwander & Crespi 2009). Several processes in insects may give rise to the complete mitochondrial capture with 390 reduced nuclear introgression that is witnessed in M. nov. sp. 2 from Mount Arthur (reviewed by 391

Toews & Brelsford 2012), including: (i) hybrid zone movement, (ii) sex-biased asymmetries, (iii) adaptive introgression, (iv) demographic disparities and (v) *Wolbachia* infection. However, further work is required to identify the cause of mtDNA introgression in *Micrarchus*. Reduced nuclear introgression may indicate local adaptation in *M*. nov. sp. 2, with selection against maladapted *M. hystriculeus* nuclear genes in *M*. nov. sp. 2 populations (Nosil *et al.* 2005).

#### 397 *Cold-induced changes to transcription in* Micrarchus

The *de novo* assembled transcriptomes of the three *Micrarchus* populations were broadly 398 399 similar with analogous GO annotation and BLAST match frequencies within and between 400 species (Figs S1 & S2). However, extensive variation in the transcriptional response to coldshock mirrors the genetic diversity witnessed in *Micrarchus*, with 68% ( $\pm$  20%) of differentially-401 402 expressed unigenes being location specific. The most notable difference in transcriptional response between these two species is the differential expression of cuticle-related unigenes in 403 alpine M. nov. sp. 2, but not in lowland M. hystriculeus. In the two genetically distinct and 404 405 geographically isolated populations of M. nov. sp. 2 used for RNA-Seq, structural cuticle unigenes are predominately differentially regulated in opposite directions. Geographically-406 isolated populations of marine copepods show similar disparate responses to thermal stress in 407 genes associated with cuticle structure (Schoville et al. 2012). Structural reorganisation of the 408 cuticle in response to cold-shock in M. nov. sp. 2 may be an adaptation that has facilitated the 409 410 colonisation of the alpine environment and the development of a more cold-hardy phenotype.

411 At the individual cuticle unigene level, both *M*. nov. sp. 2 (MA) and *M*. nov. sp. 2 (SP) 412 up-regulate two *cathepsin L* (*Catl*) orthologous as a result of cold-shock. *Catl* is a proteolysis 413 enzyme acting on chitin-based cuticles that is also up-regulated in Arctic springtails during

cyroprotective dehydration (Clark *et al.* 2009). In addition, cuticular genes are significantly 414 differentially expressed in the qPCR experiments in M. nov. sp. 2 (MO) (Catl) and M. nov. sp. 2 415 416 (HH) (*Cud2*). We previously identified a cold-responsive cuticular protein upregulated by M. nov. sp. 2 in response to a mild cold-shock (1 h 0°C with 1 h recovery at 20°C) (Dunning et al. 417 2013a). However, this gene (cuticular protein analogous to peritrophins 3-d2) was not 418 419 differentially expressed in the current study, illustrating variation in the transcriptional response 420 to mild and severe cold-shock consistent with other physiological differences between different intensities of cold exposure (reviewed by Sinclair & Roberts 2005). Cold-responsive cuticular 421 422 genes and proteins have been identified in many other insect species including flies (Qin et al. 2005), wasps (Colinet et al. 2007), beetles (Carrasco et al. 2011), and locusts (Wang et al. 2012); 423 424 indicating that changes in this tissue likely plays an important role in the adaptation to low-425 temperature, however, the physiological role of the cuticle in cold tolerance has not yet been explored. 426

#### 427 The evolution of gene expression in a phylogenetic context

428 The differential expression of cuticular genes appears to be an evolutionarily-conserved 429 response to low-temperature exposure across all populations of cold-hardy alpine M. nov. sp. 2. However, a majority of other differentially expressed unigenes are population-specific. These M. 430 nov. sp. 2 population-specific responses are consistent among biological replicates collected 431 from the wild in different years, even though these individuals would likely have experienced 432 differing environmental regimes during development. This indicates that the genetic structuring 433 434 of populations across the mountain ranges as a result of reduced gene flow likely promotes the differentiation of their transcriptional profiles. Furthermore the integrity of the nuclear genome 435 in M. nov. sp. 2 is maintained despite a complex pattern of unidirectional mitochondrial 436

replacement from the lowland *M. hystriculeus*. This provides some evidence for local adaptation
in *M.* nov. sp. 2, with selection against maladapted introgresing *M. hystriculeus* nuclear genes.
Small population sizes and extremely low migration rates increase the chance of fixation of
locally adapted traits that have even relatively small positive selective coefficients (Lenormand
2002; Kawecki & Ebert 2004). This raises the possibility that some of the fixed expression
differences between *M.* nov. sp. 2 populations are a result of local adaptation.

443 While the 'core' transcriptional response of cuticular gene expression has been maintained, the variation in low-temperature response may mean that populations of M. nov. sp. 444 2 will respond differently to future altered climate regimes. This is contrary to genetically-445 homogenous species where high dispersal between populations will prevent the maintenance of 446 local alleles and lead to a more uniform response (Case & Taper 2000). The evolution of 447 divergent transcriptional responses to low-temperature exposure in isolated populations of M. 448 449 nov. sp. 2 has two important implications. First, this divergence has evolved in response to 450 presumably similar montane environmental stressors from a common genetic background, which 451 implies that these two populations have solved the physiological challenges of montane habitats 452 in different ways. Thus, we show that there may be significant evolutionary divergence in the responses to abiotic stressors even when the environmental stressors are ostensibly similar. 453 454 Second, local adaptation in response to environmental stressors presents challenges for managing 455 populations in the face of climate change, because locally-adapted genotypes may be unsuitable 456 for translocation to new locations, and may even perform poorly as their current habitat changes. While such local adaptation has been identified in organismal-level studies (e.g. Pelini et al. 457 2009), our work suggests that it may be possible to identify functional local adaptation by 458 459 screening gene expression responses to simple abiotic stressors.

#### 460 Acknowledgements

461 We would like to thank Jacob Corcoran for the guidance with qPCR, Rich Leschen, Lucy Shield, Shelly Myers, Litza Coello, Chris Dennis, Mhairi McFarlane, Ana Ramon-Laca and Clive 462 Williams for assistance with fieldwork, the Greymouth Department of Conservation office for 463 access to field sites, Katya Ruggiero and Steve Vander Hoorn for statistical support, Daniel 464 465 White and the New Zealand eScience Infrastructure (NeSI) high-performance computing 466 facilities and the staff at the Centre for eResearch at the University of Auckland, for bioinformatic support. The project was funded by The Royal Society of New Zealand Marsden 467 468 Fund (LCR0901), the Allan Wilson Centre for Molecular Ecology and Evolution and core funding for Crown Research Institutes from the Ministry of Business, Innovation and 469 Employment's Science and Innovation Group. 470

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638 Tables

**Table 1:** Differentially expressed cold-shock responsive transcripts in *Micrarchus* stick insects identified using RNA-Seq. Cold-shock treated individuals ( $21^{\circ}$ C for 1 h;  $-1^{\circ}$ C min<sup>-1</sup> for 26 min; -5°C for 1 h;  $+1^{\circ}$ C min<sup>-1</sup> for 26 min;  $21^{\circ}$ C for 1 h) were compared to controls ( $21^{\circ}$ C for 3 h) using three exact test approaches (edgeR with common dispersion, edgeR with tagwise dispersion and DESeq) and a Bayesian methods (baySeq).

Species	Micrarchus				Micrarchus			
		nov.	hystriculeus					
Population	Sewe	well Peak		Mt. Arthur		Paengaroa		
unigenes*	24,629		22,482		23,151			
Direction	up	down	up	down	up	down		
edgeR <sup>†</sup>	173	1,077	60	165	81	37		
edgeR <sup>‡</sup>	54	900	0	0	23	9		
DESeq	40	275	0	2	5	1		
baySeq	279	1070	20	24	29	6		
Total	424	1,350	78	174	94	40		

644 Significance cut-off for: edgeR = FDR < 0.05 (*P*-value < 0.003); DESeq = FDR < 0.10 (*P*-value < 0.002); BaySeq FDR < 0.10(likelihood > 0.75). \* = number of unigenes used for differential expression analysis after removing unigenes with less than one

646 count per million in at least three samples for Sewell Peak/Paengaroa and 6 samples for Mt. Arthur,  $\dagger = using common$ 

647 dispersion,  $\ddagger$  = using tagwise dispersion. Total = unique unique scaled by all analysis methods.

**Table 2:** Enriched molecular function Gene Ontologies (GO) as a result of cold-shock treatment in two species of *Micrarchus* stick insects. GO terms from unigenes identified as differentially expressed by at least one analysis (Table 1) in the cold-shock treatment (21°C for 1 h; -1°C min<sup>-1</sup> for 26 min; -5°C for 1 h; +1°C min<sup>-1</sup> for 26 min; 21°C for 1 h) and control (21°C for 3 h) groups were compared to GO terms for non-differentially expressed unigenes to assess enrichment of molecular function using a Fishers exact test.

GO term	Definition	FDR	P-Value	#DR	#CS	#CO	#GO				
Micrarchus nov. sp. 2 (Sewell Peak)											
GO:0042302	Structural constituent of cuticle	6.12E-07	1.33E-10	12	12	0	23				
GO:0005214	Structural constituent of chitin-based cuticle	6.21E-04	8.56E-07	7	7	0	13				
GO:0030228	Lipoprotein particle receptor activity	1.56E-03	2.83E-06	11	1	10	41				
GO:0038024	Cargo receptor activity	2.70E-03	9.58E-06	11	1	10	46				
GO:0022843	Voltage-gated cation channel activity	3.03E-03	1.14E-05	8	1	7	24				
GO:0005041	Low-density lipoprotein receptor activity	4.25E-03	1.95E-05	7	1	7	19				
GO:0005245	Voltage-gated calcium channel activity	5.09E-03	2.87E-05	6	0	6	14				
GO:0043924	Suramin binding	5.09E-03	2.96E-05	5	0	5	9				
GO:0005244	Voltage-gated ion channel activity	7.66E-03	5.36E-05	8	1	7	29				
GO:0022832	Voltage-gated channel activity	7.66E-03	5.36E-05	8	1	7	29				
GO:0005219	Ryanodine-sensitive calcium-release channel activity	7.66E-03	5.68E-05	5	0	5	10				
GO:0034236	Protein kinase A catalytic subunit binding	7.66E-03	5.68E-05	5	0	5	10				
GO:0005200	Structural constituent of cytoskeleton	1.21E-02	1.09E-04	14	1	13	90				
GO:0004043	L-aminoadipate-semialdehyde dehydrogenase activity	1.30E-02	1.17E-04	3	3	0	3				
GO:0034237	Protein kinase A regulatory subunit binding	1.70E-02	1.64E-04	5	0	5	12				
GO:0015026	Coreceptor activity	1.76E-02	1.77E-04	4	0	4	7				
GO:0001948	Glycoprotein binding	2.28E-02	2.46E-04	10	1	9	54				
GO:0002162	Dystroglycan binding	2.35E-02	2.57E-04	5	0	5	13				
GO:0008092	Cytoskeletal protein binding	2.70E-02	3.18E-04	40	7	33	466				
GO:0051018	Protein kinase A binding	3.12E-02	3.83E-04	5	0	5	14				
GO:0071936	Coreceptor activity involved in Wnt receptor signaling	3.37E-02	4.52E-04	3	0	3	4				
GO:0070016	Armadillo repeat domain binding	3.37E-02	4.52E-04	3	0	3	4				
GO:0008802	Betaine-aldehyde dehydrogenase activity	3.37E-02	4.52E-04	3	3	0	4				
GO:0008010	Structural constituent of chitin-based larval cuticle	3.37E-02	4.52E-04	3	3	0	4				
GO:0005198	Structural molecule activity	3.37E-02	4.53E-04	34	13	21	381				
GO:0005218	Intracellular ligand-gated calcium channel activity	3.92E-02	5.52E-04	5	0	5	15				
GO:0034189	Very-low-density lipoprotein particle binding	4.04E-02	5.90E-04	4	0	4	9				
GO:0002020	Protease binding	4.04E-02	5.99E-04	8	0	8	40				
GO:0034185	Apolipoprotein binding	5.23E-02	8.43E-04	8	0	8	42				
GO:0030492	Hemoglobin binding	6.22E-02	1.05E-03	5	0	5	17				
GO:0042954	Lipoprotein transporter activity	7.86E-02	1.39E-03	5	0	5	18				
GO:0008013	Beta-catenin binding	9.59E-02	1.85E-03	7	0	7	37				
Micrarchus nov. sp. 2 (Mt. Arthur)											
GO:0042302	Structural constituent of cuticle	1.84E-14	1.25E-18	9	2	7	16				
GO:0005214	Structural constituent of chitin-based cuticle	1.74E-06	2.37E-10	5	2	3	10				
GO:0005198	Structural molecule activity	6.28E-02	1.28E-05	9	2	7	367				
Micrarchus	Micrarchus hystriculeus (Paengaroa)										
GO:0047714	Galactolipase activity	7.89E-02	1.14E-05	2	0	2	3				

#### 659 Figure Captions

Fig. 1: Geographic distribution of the four *Micrarchus* species within New Zealand and their 660 evolutionary relationship based on 28S ribosomal RNA sequences. The 28S Bayesian phylogeny 661 is collapsed into the four species nodes, each with number of samples (n), number of different 662 663 haplotypes (h) and percentage pairwise identity between haplotypes (i) shown. Upper support 664 values are posterior probabilities estimated with MrBayes; lower support values are likelihood bootstraps (100) estimated with GARLI. Scale bar represents the number of substitutions per 665 666 site. The full detail of each of the 43 sampling locations and expanded phylogeny is provided in Table S1 and Fig. S3. Sites used for RNA-Seq and qPCR are named. 667

**Fig 2:** Bayesian phylogeny constructed using mitochondrial cytochrome oxidase subunit I (COI) and II (COII) DNA sequences representing 208 individuals from 43 populations and four *Micrarchus* species. Nodes collapsed to population, with those that are non-monophyletic denoted with an asterisk. Support values are posterior probabilities estimated in MrBayes. Scale bar represents the number of substitutions per site. Sites used for RNA-Seq and qPCR are named. The full detail of each of the locations, samples and the expanded phylogeny is provided in Table S1 and Fig. S4.

**Fig 3:** a) Principle components analysis and b) Inferred ancestry (Q-Plot) based on 45,785 biallelic unlinked SNPs from 24 individuals representing three populations and two *Micrarchus* species (Paengaroa = *M. hystriculeus*; Mt. Arthur and Sewell Peak = *M.* nov. sp. 2). Each individual in the Q-plot is represented by one vertical bar divided into varying proportions (colours) representing ancestral populations (K). The optimal value of K is determined by the lowest cross-validation procedure score (K = 3). **Fig. 4:** Intra- and inter-specific variation in differentially-expressed cold-responsive loci from three populations representing two species of *Micrarchus* stick insect. Each Venn diagram represents a population and the number of its differentially expressed unigenes that have a BLASTx (*E*-value  $<1^{-10}$ ) sequence match with a differentially expressed unigenes in the other populations. Cold-shock treatment = 21°C for 1 h; -1°C min-1 for 26 min; -5°C for 1 h; +1°C min-1 for 26 min; 21°C for 1 h. Control treatment = 21°C for 3 h. If a unigene had more than one BLASTx match only the match with the highest *E*-value was used.

Fig. 5: Heat map representing log transformed fold-changes in gene expression between control 688 (21°C for 3 h) and cold shocked (21°C for 1 h; -1°C min<sup>-1</sup> for 26 min; -5°C for 1 h; +1°C min<sup>-1</sup> 689 for 26 min; 21°C for 1 h) *Micrarchus* stick insects using RNA-Seq and qPCR. \* = Significantly 690 differentially expressed (qPCR samples t-test P-value < 0.05; RNA-Seq samples FDR < 0.05691 692 edgeR or < 0.10 baySeq/DESeq. qPCR mRNA abundances normalised using two reference genes (pyruvate kinase and ATP synthase subunit beta). Cartoons represent COI/COII and 28S 693 Micrarchus phylogenies, dotted line represents reticulated branch. Negative fold-changes 694 represent increased expression in treatment group ( $21^{\circ}$ C for 1 h;  $-1^{\circ}$ C min-1 for 26 min;  $-5^{\circ}$ C for 695 1 h; +1°C min-1 for 26 min; 21°C for 1 h; positive fold-changes represent increased expression 696 in control group (21°C for 3 h). Inf = Infinite fold-change as a result of no recorded expression in 697 698 one sample.

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703 Fig. 1



### 705 Fig. 2













#### 714 Fig. 5



