

# The Impact of the Transversion/Transition Ratio on the Optimal Genetic Code Graph Partition

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**Abstract:** The standard genetic code (SGC) is a system of rules ascribing 20 amino acids and stop translation signal to 64 codons, i.e. triplets of nucleotides. It was proposed that the structure of the SGC evolved to minimize harmful consequences of mutations and translational errors. To study this problem, we described the SGC structure by a graph, in which codons are vertices and edges correspond to single nucleotide mutations occurring between the codons. We also introduced weights ( $W$ ) for mutation types to distinguish transversions from transitions. Using this representation, the SGC is a partition of the set of vertices into 21 disjoint subsets. In this case, the question about the potential robustness of the genetic code to the mutations can be reformulated into the optimal graph clustering task. To investigate this problem, we applied an appropriate clustering algorithm, which searched for the codes characterized by the minimum average calculated from the set  $W$ -conductance of codon groups. Our algorithm found three best codes for various ranges of the applied weights. The average  $W$ -conductance of the SGC was the most similar to that of the best codes in the range of weights corresponding to the observed transversion/transition ratio in natural mutational pressures. However, it should be noted that the optimization of the SGC was not as perfect as the best codes. It implies that the evolution of the SGC was driven not only by the selection for the robustness against mutations or mistranslations but also other factors, e.g. subsequent addition of amino acids to the code according to the expansion of amino acid metabolic pathways.

## 1 INTRODUCTION

The questions about the origin and the structure of the standard genetic code (SGC) have puzzled biologists since the first codons assignments were discovered (Khorana et al., 1966; Nirenberg et al., 1966). This nearly universal, with some rare exceptions, set of coding rules is responsible for transmitting genetic information stored in DNA molecules into the protein world. The code uses all possible 64 nucleotide triplets, i.e. codons, to encode 20 canonical amino acids and also the signal for stopping the protein synthesis, i.e. the translation. Since the total number of codons is greater than the number of encoded labels, the SGC must be degenerate, i.e. there must exist an amino acid that is encoded by more than one codon. These redundant codons, called synonymous, are or-

ganized in specific groups. In most cases, the codons in such groups differ at the third position, which can be called a degenerate position. This fact suggested to Francis Crick that only the first two codon positions were important in a primordial code (Crick, 1968).

The redundancy of the SGC causes other interesting consequences related to the process of single nucleotide mutations. If these changes occur in the degenerate codon position, then the originally encoded amino acid will not be changed. These mutations are called synonymous or silent, whereas those that change the encoded amino acid or stop translation signal are named nonsynonymous. It should be noted that there are two types of nucleotide changes, transitions and transversions. In the case of transition, a purine nucleotide, i.e. adenine or guanine, mutates to another purine ( $A \leftrightarrow G$ ), or a pyrimidine nucleotide,

i.e. cytosine or thymine, changes into another pyrimidine ( $C \leftrightarrow T$ ). Transversion are changes in which a purine mutates to a pyrimidine or *vice versa* ( $A \leftrightarrow C$ ,  $A \leftrightarrow T$ ,  $G \leftrightarrow C$ ,  $G \leftrightarrow T$ ). There are four possible transitions and eight possible transversions. Transitions are more often observed in sequences than transversions (Duchêne et al., 2015; Gojobori et al., 1982; Kumar, 1996; Lynch, 2010; Lyons and Luring, 2017; Petrov and Hartl, 1999; Rosenberg et al., 2003; Wakeley, 1996). It may result from a higher mutation rate of transitions than transversions in nucleic acids due to physicochemical similarity of the nucleotides. Moreover, transitions are accepted with a greater probability because they rarely lead to amino acid substitutions in encoded proteins due to the specific codon degeneracy. The transitions are also more frequent during protein synthesis (Freeland and Hurst, 1998a).

It should be noted, that the synonymous substitutions do not have to be completely neutral mutations, even though they do not change a coded amino acid. The specific codon usage can be associated with co-translational modifications of amino acids, efficiency and accuracy of translation as well as co-translational folding of synthesized proteins (Bulmer, 1991; Hershberg and Petrov, 2008; Zhou et al., 2009). The synonymous codon usage can be also modified as a consequence of selection at the amino acid level (Morton, 2001; Błażej et al., 2017b).

The tendency to minimize the number of non-synonymous substitutions were noticed in the SGC and this property suggested that the code could have evolved to minimize harmful consequences of mutations and translational errors (Ardell, 1998; Ardell and Sella, 2001; Di Giulio, 1989; Di Giulio and Medugno, 1999; Epstein, 1966; Freeland and Hurst, 1998a; Freeland and Hurst, 1998b; Freeland et al., 2003; Freeland et al., 2000; Gilis et al., 2001; Goldberg and Wittes, 1966; Goodarzi et al., 2005; Haig and Hurst, 1991; Woese, 1965). The robustness of the code was usually measured as a difference between the polarity values of amino acids encoded by codons before and after a single-point mutation.

Since the genetic code is a set of codons which are related, e.g. by nucleotide mutations, the general structure of this code can be well described by the methodology taken from graph theory (Beineke and Wilson, 2005; Lee et al., 2014). Similarly to (Tlusty, 2010; Błażej et al., 2018a), we assume that the code encodes 21 items, i.e. 20 amino acids and stop translation signal, and all 64 codons create the set of vertices of the graph, in which the set of edges corresponds to all possible single nucleotide mutations occurring between the codons. This graph is undirected, unweighted and regular. Moreover, according to this

representation, each genetic code is a partition of the set of vertices into 21 disjoint subsets. Therefore, the question about the potential genetic code optimality in regard to the mutations can be reformulated into the optimal graph clustering problem.

In the present study, we investigated the properties of the SGC using a more general model including in the graph representation information about transition to transversion ratio, which was not considered by (Tlusty, 2010; Błażej et al., 2018a). From a mathematical point of view, we considered a weighted graph, in which all weights are dependent on the type of nucleotide substitutions. We also modified the set conductance measure, which is widely used in the graph theory (Lee et al., 2014) and has many practical interpretations, for example in the theory of random walks (Levin et al., 2009) and social networks (Bollobás, 1998). In the problem considered here, the conductance of a codon group is the ratio of the weights of nonsynonymous mutations to the weights of all possible single nucleotide mutations, in which the codons in this group are involved. Therefore, this parameter can be used as a measure of robustness against the potential changes in protein-coding sequences generated by the single nucleotide mutations. Basing on the methodology described in (Błażej et al., 2018a), we found some solutions, i.e. the genetic code structures, of the optimal graph clustering problem.

## 2 PRELIMINARIES

### 2.1 Model Description

To study the general structure of the genetic code we developed its graph representation. Let  $G(V, E)$  be a graph in which  $V$  is the set of vertices representing all possible 64 codons, whereas  $E$  is the set of edges connecting these vertices. All connections fulfil the property that the vertices, i.e. codons  $u, v \in V$  are connected by the edge  $e(u, v) \in E$  ( $u \sim v$ ) if and only if the codon  $u$  differs from the codon  $v$  in exactly one position. Moreover, we claim that all transitions are given a weight which equals always to one, while the transversions are given a weight  $W$ , where  $W \in [0, \infty)$ . The larger weight indicates that the transversions are more important than transitions, respectively. The weight can be interpreted as transversion to transition ratio. Hence, the graph  $G$  is undirected, weighted and regular with the vertices degree equal to 9. Moreover, from a biological perspective, the set of edges represents all possible single nucleotide substitutions, which occur between codons in

a DNA sequence. What is more, this model includes two important types of mutations.

Following the methodology presented in (Błazej et al., 2018a), each potential genetic code  $C$ , which encodes 20 amino acids and stop translation signal is a partition of the set  $V$  into 21 disjoint subsets, i.e. groups of codons,  $S$ . Thus, we obtain the following representation of the genetic code  $C$ :

$$C = \{S_1, S_2, \dots, S_{20}, S_{21} : S_i \cap S_j = \emptyset, S_1 \cup S_2 \cup \dots \cup S_{21} = V\}.$$

In Figure 1 we showed an example of the partition of the graph  $G$ , which corresponds to the standard genetic code. From a biological point of view, it is interesting to study the code structure according to the types and also the number of connections between and within the codon groups because these connections correspond to nonsynonymous and synonymous substitutions, respectively. It should be noted that each potential genetic code that minimizes the number of the nonsynonymous substitutions is regarded the best in terms of decreasing the biological consequences of mutations. Therefore, the conditions under which the partitions of the graph vertices describe the best genetic code, are worth finding.

There are many methods of the optimal graph partitioning, which are based on different approaches. In this work, to investigate the theoretical features of genetic codes in terms of the connections between the codon groups, we decided to use the set conductance measure, which plays a central role in the spectral graph clustering method. The definition of the set  $W$ -conductance measure including weights for edges is as follows:

**Definition 2.1.** For a given weighted graph  $G$  let  $W$  be a weight of transversion connections in  $G$  and  $S$  be a subset of  $V$ . The  $W$ -conductance of  $S$  is defined as:

$$\phi_S(W) = \frac{E_{tr}(S, \bar{S}) + E_{trv}(S, \bar{S}) \cdot W}{|S| \cdot (3 + 6W)},$$

where  $E_{tr}(S, \bar{S})$  is the total number of transition edges crossing from  $S$  to its complement  $\bar{S}$  whereas  $E_{trv}(S, \bar{S})$  is the total number of transversion edges crossing from  $S$  to its complement  $\bar{S}$ , and  $|S|$  is the number of vertices belonging to  $S$ .

The definition of the set  $W$ -conductance is a good starting point to describe a quality measure of a given codon group. Large values of this measure mean that a substantial fraction of substitutions in which these codons are involved are nonsynonymous, i.e. they change one amino acid to another. From the robustness point of view, small values are desirable because in this case many substitutions are neutral (synonymous) and do not change coded amino acids.

What is more, this approach allows us to characterize the properties of the whole genetic code because following the definition of the set  $W$ -conductance we define the average  $W$ -conductance of a genetic code:

**Definition 2.2.** The average  $W$ -conductance of a given genetic code  $C$  and a given weight  $W$  is defined as:

$$\bar{\Phi}_C(W) = \frac{1}{21} \sum_{S \in C} \phi_S(W).$$

Using the definition presented above, we are able to describe the best code in terms of the average  $W$ -conductance, which is defined as follows:

$$\bar{\Phi}_{min}(W) = \min_C \bar{\Phi}_C(W).$$

$\bar{\Phi}_{min}(W)$  gives us the lower bound of the genetic code robustness measured in terms of the average code  $W$ -conductance.

## 2.2 The Clustering Algorithm

In this work we propose a new randomized clustering algorithm to find the optimal genetic code with respect to the minimum average  $W$ -conductance. More formal description of Algorithm 1 provides the structure of the clustering algorithm. The generic structure of the clustering algorithm contains inputs, outputs (cf. input parameters and output variables in Table 1), and three functions, namely: AVERAGECONDUCTANCE, PICKFIRSTNODE, and PICKSECONDDNODE. The main function is the AVERAGECONDUCTANCE function, which aims to find the optimal genetic code with the minimum average  $W$ -conductance. The function includes nested loops of two levels. The main loop (lines 5-14) counts the average conductance for each iteration. The second level loop (lines 7-14) is for picking and merging nodes from the graph until we have 21 clusters (super nodes). The AVERAGECONDUCTANCE terminates when the graph is clustered to 21 clusters for each iteration and returns the best genetic code with the minimum average conductance over all independent iterations. The PICKFIRSTNODE (lines 16-30) and the PICKSECONDDNODE (lines 31-47) associate a probability for each node in the graph and each function pick a node randomly.

## 3 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The main goal of our work is to find the optimal genetic codes in terms of the average  $W$ -conductance  $\bar{\Phi}_{min}(W)$ . Furthermore, we compare the properties of

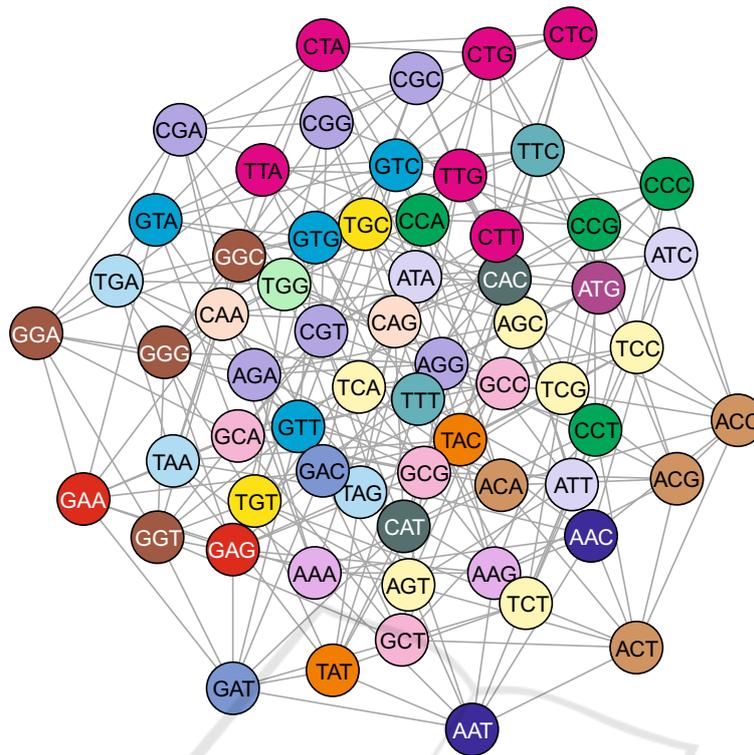


Figure 1: The standard genetic code as an example of the partition of the graph  $G(V, E)$ . Every group of vertices with the same colour corresponds to the respective set of codons, which code for the same amino acid or stop translation signal. The edges represent all possible single nucleotide substitutions. According to (Błazej et al., 2018a), modified.

Table 1: Input parameters and output variables for Algorithm 1.

Input parameters:	
1	Adjacent matrix of 64 codons, called $A$ , where $A[i, j]$ can take:
$A[i, j] = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } i \neq j \text{ and if and only if } i \text{ differs} \\ & \text{from } j \text{ in exactly one position} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$	
2	Adjacent transition matrix of codons, called $B$ , where $B[i, j]$ can take 1 only with transition connections i.e. $A \leftrightarrow G, C \leftrightarrow T$ , otherwise 0
3	$W \in [0, \infty)$
4	#iterations $\leftarrow 20,000$
Output variables:	
1	The minimum average conductance
2	The structure of the best genetic code that gives the minimum average conductance

these codes with the standard genetic code, which is interesting from the biological point of view.

We run the clustering algorithm (Algorithm 1)

20,000 times independently to find the minimum of the  $W$ -average conductance and the structure of the genetic code that gives the minimum average  $W$ -conductance. We carried out the calculations for the transversion weight  $W \in [0, 10]$ . The weights can be interpreted as a relative ratio between transversions and transitions. Smaller weights mean that transitions are more frequent than transversions, while larger weights indicate that the transversions dominate among point mutations.

We found three genetic codes that are best for different ranges of  $W \in [0, \infty)$ . The genetic code  $C1$  was best for every  $W \in [0, \frac{37}{70}]$ , the code  $C2$  for every  $W \in [\frac{37}{70}, 1]$  and the code  $C3$  for every  $W \in [1, \infty)$ . The average  $W$ -conductance for these codes in the function of weight  $W$  is  $\bar{\Phi}_{C1}(W) = \frac{1}{21} \cdot \frac{126W+31}{6W+3}$ ,  $\bar{\Phi}_{C2}(W) = \frac{1}{21} \cdot \frac{308W+130}{9(2W+1)}$ , and  $\bar{\Phi}_{C3}(W) = \frac{1}{21} \cdot \frac{94W+52}{6W+3}$  for every  $W \in [0, \frac{37}{70}]$ ,  $[\frac{37}{70}, 1]$ , and  $[1, \infty)$ , respectively. We conjecture that these codes are optimal in the range of weights corresponding to the observed transversion/transition ratio in natural mutational pressures; though, as the algorithm is randomized (but repeated a large number of times to reduce the probability of finding sub-optimal solutions), the formal proof of their optimality is still an open question. Figure 2 shows the av-

Algorithm 1: The clustering algorithm.

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1: function AVERAGECONDUCTANCE( $A, B, W, iterations$ )
2:    $D = A - B$  ▷ Create transversion matrix
3:    $M = B + (W \cdot D)$  ▷ Create matrix M
4:   min-ave-cond  $\leftarrow 2$ 
5:   for each iteration do
6:      $g = [(node, edges) \text{ for each node in } M]$  ▷ List  $g$  stores each node  $i$  in  $M$  and its edges
7:     while ( $len(g) > 21$  nodes) do ▷ Keep picking and merging nodes until we have 21 clusters
8:        $u \leftarrow \text{PICKFIRSTNODE}(g)$ 
9:        $v \leftarrow \text{PICKSECONDNODE}(g)$ 
10:      Merge nodes  $u$  and  $v$ 
11:      conductance = compute conductance for each cluster in  $g$  ▷ List conductance stores conductance of 21
      clusters using  $\phi_S(W)$  formula in Definition 2.1
12:      if min-ave-cond  $>$  sum(conductance)/len(conductance) then
13:        min-ave-cond = sum(conductance)/len(conductance)
14:        clusterings-min-ave-cond =  $g$  ▷ Stores the structure of the genetic code
15:      return min-ave-cond, clusterings-min-ave-cond
16: function PICKFIRSTNODE( $g$ )
17:    $cond \leftarrow [(i, \phi_i(W)) \text{ for each node } i \text{ in } g]$  ▷ List to store conductance for each node  $i$  in  $g$ 
18:   for for each node  $i$  in  $cond$  do
19:      $weight[i] \leftarrow (i, cond[i]^{20})$  ▷ List to store weight for each node  $i$  in  $cond$  list
20:   for for each node  $i$  in  $weight$  do
21:      $prob[i] \leftarrow (i, \frac{weight[i]}{sum(weight)})$  ▷ List to store probability of selecting each node  $i$  in  $weight$  list
22:    $R \leftarrow$  Generate a random number between 0 and 1
23:    $j \leftarrow 0$ 
24:    $a \leftarrow prob[0]$ 
25:   while ( $R > a$ ) do
26:      $j \leftarrow j + 1$ 
27:      $a \leftarrow a + prob[j]$ 
28:   return  $j$ 
29:    $u \leftarrow cond[j]$  ▷ Select the  $j^{th}$  node in the  $cond$  list
30:   return  $u$ 
31: function PICKSECONDNODE( $g$ )
32:    $cond1 \leftarrow cond - u$  ▷ Copy  $cond$  list without the selected node  $u$ 
33:   for for each node  $i$  in  $cond1$  do
34:      $edges[i] \leftarrow (i, \#edges \text{ between } i \text{ and } u)$ 
35:   for for each node  $i$  in  $cond1$  do
36:      $weight[i] \leftarrow (i, (edges[i] + 1)^{10} \cdot cond1[i]^{20})$  ▷ List to store weight for each node  $i$  in  $cond1$  list
37:   for for each node  $i$  in  $weight$  do
38:      $prob[i] \leftarrow (i, \frac{weight[i]}{sum(weight)})$  ▷ List to store probability of selecting each node  $i$  in  $weight$  list
39:    $R \leftarrow$  Generate a random number between 0 and 1
40:    $j \leftarrow 0$ 
41:    $a \leftarrow prob[0]$ 
42:   while ( $R > a$ ) do
43:      $j \leftarrow j + 1$ 
44:      $a \leftarrow a + prob[j]$ 
45:   return  $j$ 
46:    $v \leftarrow cond1[j]$  ▷ Select the  $j^{th}$  node in the  $cond1$  list
47:   return  $v$ 

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average  $W$ -conductance for the best codes and the SGC depending on the transversion weight.

The average conductance for the codes that are best for  $W < 1$  increases rapidly with  $W$  and then stabilizes for large values. In the case of the code  $C3$ , its conductance decreases at first and then also approaches a certain value. For small  $W$  values, the average conductance is the smallest for the code  $C1$  and the largest for codes  $C3$ . In turn, the opposite is true for large  $W$  values. The code  $C1$  is characterized by the biggest difference between its average conductance values. The code is very well optimized for the excess of transitions over transversions but it is very bad in the opposite case. The average  $W$ -conductance of the SGC shows the general course similar to that of the  $C1$  and  $C2$  codes.

To compare the properties of the best codes with the standard genetic code, we computed the function of the average  $W$ -conductance for the SGC,  $\bar{\Phi}_{SGC}(W) = \frac{1}{21} \cdot \frac{10(33W+13)}{9(2W+1)}$ . Then, we subtracted  $\bar{\Phi}_{SGC}(W)$  from each of the average  $W$ -conductance function of each best codes ( $C1, C2, C3$ ) and calculated the derivative for each produced function as follows:

1. Define  $f1(W) = \bar{\Phi}_{SGC} - \bar{\Phi}_{C1}$ , then

$$f1(W) = \frac{1}{21} \cdot \frac{10(33W+13)}{9(2W+1)} - \frac{1}{21} \cdot \frac{126W+31}{6W+3}$$

The derivative of  $f1(W)$  is

$$f1'(W) = -\frac{122}{189(2W+1)^2}$$

At  $W = 0$ , the value of  $f1$  is equal to 0.2 and at  $W = \frac{37}{70}$   $f1$  is equal to 0.03. The values of the conductance function for both codes are the same at  $W = \frac{37}{48}$ . Below this weight the  $C1$  code shows a smaller  $\bar{\Phi}$  than the SGC and above this weight, the opposite is true.

2. Define  $f2(W) = \bar{\Phi}_{SGC} - \bar{\Phi}_{C2}$ , then

$$f2(W) = \frac{1}{21} \cdot \frac{10(33W+13)}{9(2W+1)} - \frac{1}{21} \cdot \frac{308W+130}{9(2W+1)}$$

The derivative of  $f2(W)$  is

$$f2'(W) = \frac{22}{189(2W+1)^2}$$

At  $W = 0$ , the  $C2$  and the SGC codes have the same values of  $\bar{\Phi}$ , i.e.  $f2 = 0$ . Next, with the growth of  $W$ ,  $f2$  increases, which means that the average  $W$ -conductance of the SGC becomes larger than that of the  $C2$  code. At  $W = \frac{37}{70}$ , the value of  $f2$  is equal to 0.03 and at  $W = 1$   $f2$  is equal to 0.04.

3. Define  $f3(W) = \bar{\Phi}_{SGC} - \bar{\Phi}_{C3}$ , then

$$f3(W) = \frac{1}{21} \cdot \frac{10(33W+13)}{9(2W+1)} - \frac{1}{21} \cdot \frac{94W+52}{6W+3}$$

The derivative of  $f3(W)$  is

$$f3'(W) = \frac{100}{189(2W+1)^2}$$

For  $W < \frac{13}{24}$ ,  $\bar{\Phi}_{SGC}$  is smaller than  $\bar{\Phi}_{C3}$ . Above this weight, the opposite is true. At  $W = 1$ , the value of  $f4$  is equal to 0.04 and at  $W = 3$   $f3$  is equal to 0.11.

The functions  $f1(W)$ ,  $f2(W)$  and  $f3(W)$  are differences in the average  $W$ -conductance between the SGC and three best codes depending on the transition weight  $W$ . It is evident that the standard genetic code is optimized for more frequent transitions than transversions. The SGC can obtain the same average  $W$ -conductance as each of the optimized codes but for different transversion weights. Nevertheless, the  $W$  is always smaller than 1 in these cases. The minimum distance between the SGC and the best genetic codes in terms of the average conductance is 0.03 for  $W = \frac{37}{70} = 0.53$  (Figure 3). Since there are twice as many possible transversions as transitions, the expected ratio should be 2, if all nucleotide substitutions happen with the same probability. Interestingly, the weights for which  $\bar{\Phi}_{SGC}$  is close to  $\bar{\Phi}$  of the best codes is in the range of the transversion/transition ratio observed in genomic mutational pressures, i.e. from 1.44 to 0.10 (Kowalczyk et al., 2001; Błażej et al., 2015). However, for each transversion weight, it is possible to find a code better optimized than the SGC in terms of the average  $W$ -conductance, so this code is not perfectly optimized. Our preliminary analyses of the alternative genetic codes in this respect showed that the relationship between their average conductance depending on the transversion weight has the course very similar to that of the SGC.

The structure of these best genetic codes is presented in Table 2. Although the code  $C1$  and  $C3$  are best for different and extreme  $W$  values, they have the same number of two- and four-codon groups, 10 and 11, respectively. The code  $C2$  has in addition 3 groups consisting of three codons as well as 8 two-codon groups and 9 four-codon groups. The SGC is more diversified in this respect because it has 2 one-codon groups, 9 two-codon groups, 2 three-codon groups, 5 four-codon groups and 3 six-codon groups. Thereby, it is more similar to the code  $C2$ .

The code  $C1$  is best for smaller weights of transversions. Therefore, such mutations are preferably involved in changes between codon groups of this code in order to minimize these changes. Consequently, all synonymous substitutions in this code

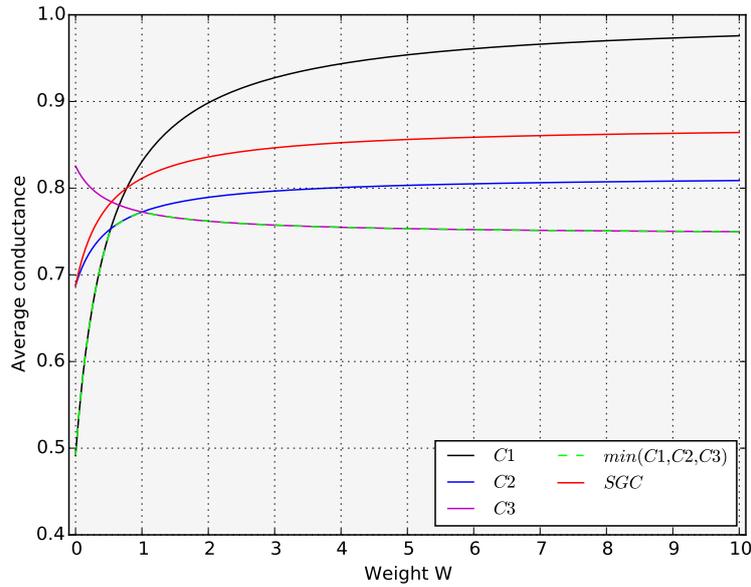


Figure 2: The average conductance for the best codes  $C1, C2, C3$ , and  $\min(C1, C2, C3)$  as well as the standard genetic code (SGC) for the weights of transversions  $W \in [0, 10]$ .

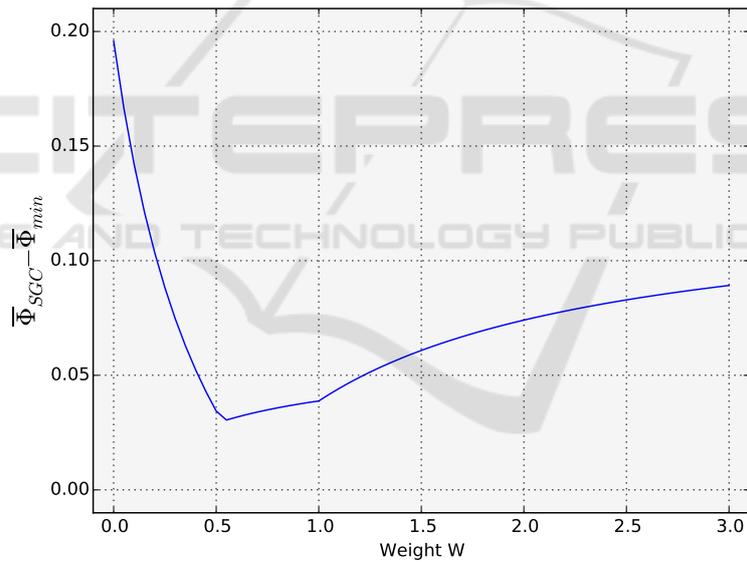


Figure 3: The difference between the average conductance for the standard genetic code (SGC) ( $\bar{\Phi}_{SGC}$ ) and the best codes ( $\bar{\Phi}_{min}$ ) for the weights of transversions  $W \in [0, 3]$ .

are transitions. In the case of the code  $C3$ , which is best for larger  $W$ , transversions were eliminated from changes between codon groups as much as possible to increase the number of transitions. In consequence, all changes within two-codon groups of this code are transversions. Since there are only two purines and two pyrimidines, it is not possible to create four-codon groups that can change to each other by only transversions. Therefore, changes within such groups are both transitions and transversions. The code  $C2$

is a mixture in this respect because the codons in its two-codon groups can change to each other only by transitions, while in the other groups by the two types of mutations. Considering only one point mutations in the SGC, all changes within two-codon groups are also transitions and within other groups both transitions and transversions with exception to the stop codon group, which also involves only transitions. Then the SGC is again more similar to the code  $C2$  in this respect.

Table 2: The structure of the best genetic codes  $C1$ ,  $C2$ , and  $C3$  for  $W \in [0, \frac{37}{70}]$ ,  $W \in [\frac{37}{70}, 1]$ , and  $W \in [1, \infty]$ , respectively. Each row describes the codon group for a cluster.

	$C1$	$C2$	$C3$
1	{AAA, AAG, AGG, AGA}	{AAG, ACG, ATG}	{ATA, AAA, AGA, ACA}
2	{ATT, ATC}	{AGA, AGG}	{AGC, ACC}
3	{TAG, TAA}	{AGC, ATC, AAC, ACC}	{ACT, TCT}
4	{TAC, TAT, TGT, TGC}	{ACA, AAA, ATA}	{ACG, AAG, ATG, AGG}
5	{TTT, CTT}	{TAA, TAG}	{TTA, TAA}
6	{TGA, TGG}	{TAC, CAC}	{TTC, TAC, TCC, TGC}
7	{TCT, CCT}	{TTA, CTA, GTA}	{TGG, TAG, TCG, TTG}
8	{TCG, TTG, TTA, TCA}	{TTG, CTG}	{TCA, TGA}
9	{TCC, TTC, CTC, CCC}	{TGA, TGG, TGC, TGT}	{GAT, AAT, TAT, CAT}
10	{GTA, ATA, GTG, ATG}	{TCA, TCT, TCC, TCG}	{GTT, ATT, TTT, CTT}
11	{GTC, GTT}	{GAT, AAT, TAT, CAT}	{GGA, GCA, GAA, GTA}
12	{GGA, GAA, GAG, GGG}	{GAC, GGC, GCC, GTC}	{GGT, CGT, AGT, TGT}
13	{GGT, GAT, AGT, AAT}	{GTG, GAG, GGG, GCG}	{GCG, GAG, GGG, GTG}
14	{GGC, AGC, AAC, GAC}	{GGT, AGT}	{GCC, GTC, GAC, GGC}
15	{GCG, GCA, ACA, ACG}	{GCA, GGA, GAA}	{CAA, CTA}
16	{GCC, ACC, GCT, ACT}	{GCT, ACT}	{CAC, AAC}
17	{CAT, CGT, CGC, CAC}	{CAG, CAA}	{CTG, CGG, CAG, CCG}
18	{CTA, CTG}	{CTT, GTT, ATT, TTT}	{CTC, ATC}
19	{CGA, CAA}	{CTC, TTC}	{CGC, CCC}
20	{CGG, CAG}	{CGC, CGG, CGT, CGA}	{CCA, CGA}
21	{CCG, CCA}	{CCA, CCC, CCT, CCG}	{CCT, GCT}

The changes between codons in one group of the code  $C3$  can occur only in one fixed codon position, the first or the second one. The third codon position can also be mutated in the code  $C2$ . However, the code  $C1$  contains also the groups in which any two codon positions can be changed. The SGC contains many codon groups with synonymous mutations in the third codon position but there are also three codon groups involving single changes in two codon positions.

The comparison of structures of the genetic codes show that the assignments of amino acids to codons is not ideally optimized in the SGC. Some similarity of the SGC to the code  $C2$  suggests that the standard genetic code could evolve under the transversion/transition for which the code  $C2$  is best.

#### 4 CONCLUSIONS

Our results show that the general structure of the genetic code and the problem of the genetic code optimality can be successfully reformulated using a methodology adapted from graph theory in the con-

text of optimal clustering of a specific graph. To evaluate the quality of the genetic code, we calculated the average code  $W$ -conductance including weights for mutation types. Thereby, we distinguished transitions and transversions. From the biological point of view, this measure describes the code robustness against amino acid and stop translation signal replacements resulting from single nucleotide substitutions between codons.

We found three best codes with respect to the average code conductance for various ranges of the applied weight. The structure of the codes was different in comparison to the standard genetic code. The  $W$ -conductance of the SGC was the most similar to that of the best codes in the range of weights corresponding to the observed small transversion/transition ratio in the mutational pressure. Other researches also showed that the SGC performs better for the excess of transitions over transversions (Freeland and Hurst, 1998a; Freeland and Hurst, 1998b). It indicates that the SGC is optimized to some extent in terms of the minimization of amino acid and stop translation replacements. However, the optimization was not ideal and for each weight better theoretic-

cal codes could be found. In agreement with that, other investigations also showed that the SGC is not perfectly robust against point mutations or mistranslations (Błażej et al., 2018b; Błażej et al., 2016; Massey, 2008; Novozhilov et al., 2007; Santos and Monteagudo, 2011; Santos and Monteagudo, 2017; Wnetrzak et al., 2018).

Most likely, the robustness against mutations was not the main force that drove the evolution of the genetic code and amino acids were assigned to codons according to expansion of biosynthetic pathways synthesizing amino acids (Di Giulio, 1999; Di Giulio, 2008; Di Giulio, 2016; Di Giulio, 2017; Wong, 1975; Wong et al., 2016; Wong, 2007; Di Giulio, 2018). In this case, the potential minimization of mutation errors could have occurred by the direct optimization of the mutational pressure around the established genetic code (Dudkiewicz et al., 2005; Mackiewicz et al., 2008; Błażej et al., 2013; Błażej et al., 2017a; Błażej et al., 2015).

The results can have practical consequences in the context of designing modified or extended genetic codes (Xie and Schultz, 2006; Chin, 2014). The aim of this engineering is to produce peptides or proteins containing unnatural amino acids and showing an improved activity or completely new functions.

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