1 *Extensive duplication and convergent sequence evolution of an*
2 *antimicrobial peptide gene*
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14 Abstract

Antimicrobial peptides (AMPs) are host-encoded antibiotics that combat
invading pathogens. AMPs are encoded by short genes that tend to evolve rapidly,
likely responding to host-pathogen arms races. However recent studies have
highlighted roles for AMPs in neurological contexts suggesting functions for these
defence molecules beyond infection. Here we characterize the evolution of the
Drosophila Baramicin (*Bara*) AMP gene family. We describe a recent duplication of
the immune-induced *BaraA* locus, and trans-species polymorphisms in *BaraA*
peptides that suggest dynamic selective pressures. We further recover multiple
Baramicin paralogs in *Drosophila melanogaster* and other species, united by their N-
terminal IM24 domain. Strikingly, some paralogs are no longer immune-induced. A
careful dissection of the *Baramicin* family's evolutionary history indicates that these
non-immune paralogs result from repeated events of duplication and subsequent
truncation of the coding sequence, leaving only the IM24 domain as the prominent
gene product. Using mutation and targeted gene silencing, we demonstrate that two
such genes are adapted for function in neural contexts in *D. melanogaster*. Using the
Baramicin evolutionary history, we reveal unique properties of the different
Baramicin domains. In doing so, we provide a case study for how an AMP-encoding
gene might play dual roles in both immune and non-immune processes.

35 Introduction

36
Antimicrobial peptides (AMPs) are immune effectors best known for their

role in defence against infection. These antimicrobials are commonly encoded as a

polypeptide including both pro- and mature peptide domains [1–3]. AMP genes

frequently experience events of duplication and loss [4–7] and undergo rapid

evolution at the sequence level [8,9]. This rapid evolution is driven by positive

selection, and acts to either maintain genetic variation (balancing selection), or

differentiate AMP sequence (diversifying selection) [10–15]. The selective pressures

that drive these evolutionary outcomes are likely the consequence of host-pathogen

interactions. One striking example is the maintenance of two alleles of *Diptericin A*

in *Drosophila* that predict defence against infection by *Providencia rettgeri* bacteria

[16]. However AMPs and AMP-like genes in various species have also recently been

implicated in non-immune roles as regulators of sleep [17], memory [18], and

neurodegeneration [19–23]. These new contexts suggest that the evolutionary

forces acting on AMP genes may not be driven strictly by trade-offs in host defence,

but rather by conflicts between roles in immunity and other non-immune functions.

We recently described a novel antifungal peptide gene of *Drosophila*

melanogaster that we named *Baramicin A* (*BaraA*) [24]. A unique aspect of *BaraA* is

its precursor protein structure, which encodes a polypeptide cleaved into multiple

mature products by interspersed furin cleavage sites. The use of furin cleavage sites

to produce two mature peptides from a single polypeptide precursor is common in

animal AMP genes [1,3]. However, *BaraA* represents an exceptional case as multiple

tandem repeat peptides are produced from the translation of a single coding

sequence, effectively resembling a "protein-based operon." The immature precursor

protein of *D. melanogaster BaraA* encodes three types of domains: an IM24 domain,

three tandem repeats of IM10-like domains, and an IM22 domain (**Fig.** 1A). *BaraA*

mutants are susceptible to infection by fungi, and preliminary *in vitro* experiments

suggest the *BaraA* IM10-like peptides have antifungal activity [24,25]. The

remaining Baramicin domains encoding IM22 and IM24 remain uncharacterized.

Curiously, *BaraA* deficient flies also display an erect wing behavioural phenotype

upon infection [24], suggesting that *BaraA* could have additional roles beyond

immunity.

Figure 1: The *BaraA* duplication is not fixed in wild flies. A) Gene structure of *BaraA*,
including its three key domain types: IM24 (orange), IM10-like (green), and IM22 (teal).
SP = signal peptide. Purple triangles indicate furin cleavage sites. **B)** Depiction of the
BaraA duplication. Diagnostic regions used in (C) and (D) are annotated. **C)** The number
of unknown variant calls rises immediately after the start of the identical promoter
region shared by *BaraA1* and *BaraA2,* stabilizing at 61% (~125/205) of the DGRP lines
(**C'**). Upon reaching the limit of Illumina resolution, a second spike in unknown calls
stabilizes at ~174/205 lines. **C''** shows a heatmap of DGRP strains where mapped
variants are listed in blue (light blue = alternate allele), while yellow indicates unknown
variant calls. **D)** The 5' region of the duplicated sulfatase *CG18278* shows a stable
unknown variant call frequency at ~53% (~108/205) of the DGRP lines.

In this study, we characterize a duplication of the *BaraA* locus, and also
describe two additional *Baramicin* genes encoded in the genome of *D. melanogaster*:
BaraB and *BaraC*. Surprisingly, only *BaraA* is immune-induced, while *BaraB* and
BaraC are specifically enriched in the nervous system. Moreover, independent
Baramicin genes in other *Drosophila* species have convergently evolved to resemble
BaraC, both in expression and gene structure. We resolved the evolutionary history
of *Baramicin* across species, revealing properties that are unique to each of the
Baramicin domains. By doing so, we provide a case study for how an AMP-encoding
gene can play dual roles in both immune and non-immune processes.
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Results and Discussion
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A duplication of the BaraA gene is present in some laboratory and wild strains
94	
The *D. melanogaster BaraA* gene encodes three key types of mature peptide
(**Fig.** 1A): one IM24 peptide, three IM10-like peptides, and one IM22 peptide that is
structurally related to the IM10-like peptides [24]. We recently found that the
immune induced *BaraA* gene contributes to the *Drosophila* defence against
filamentous fungi [24]. During this investigation, we found that while the *BaraA*
locus in the *D. melanogaster* R6 reference genome encodes two copies of *BaraA*
(*CG33470* and *CG18279*, *BaraA1* and *BaraA2* respectively), other fly strains carry
only one *BaraA* gene (**Fig.** 1B). Several lines of evidence indicate that this
duplication is a very recent evolutionary event. First: in the Dmel_R6 genome,
3,380bp of contiguous sequence in the *BaraA1* and *BaraA2* loci are 100% identical,
including the regions upstream (1,140bp) and downstream (892bp) of the 5' and 3'
UTRs. Second: this duplication is not found in *D. melanogaster* sister species such as
Drosophila simulans and *Drosophila sechellia*. And third: this duplication is not fixed
in wild-type flies (**Fig.** 1).
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As the reference genome encodes two copies of *BaraA*, we reasoned that
mapping the genome of a strain with only one copy to the reference genome (two-
copies) would result in multiple genetic variant calls of "unknown" in *BaraA* as those

reads would map to only one of the two *BaraA* gene regions in the reference

genome. Using this logic, we searched for the *BaraA* duplication in the Drosophila

Genetic Reference Panel (DGRP), a panel of wild-type flies collected in the USA

whose genomes were assembled using a mix of Illumina and 454 sequencing. These

two assembly methods differed in read length: ~300bp (Illumina) and 450-550bp

(454 sequencing) [26]. As a consequence, we expected to see regions of unknown

variant calling that were ~300bp long, and then an additional ~150-250 bp

specifically for genomes that used 454 sequencing. As predicted, a sharp spike in

unknown variant calls occurs upstream of *BaraA2*, which begins at the variant site

2R_9293471_INS (**Fig.** 1C). This signal remains relatively stable at ~61% over the

next ~300bp, which includes seven genetic variant sites. Following this region, there

is a second spike in unknown variant calls, which again settles at ~61% frequency

spanning the next 178bp. An alternate estimate of the duplication frequency can be

made using sequence in the 5' gene region of *CG18728*, which is also duplicated in

lines carrying two copies of *BaraA* (**Fig.** 1B). In this region, there is a relatively

steady number of unknown variant calls with a frequency of ~53% (**Fig.** 1D). This

suggests that approximately 53-61% of DGRP strains have only one *BaraA* gene. We

validated *BaraA* copy number in a subset of DGRP strains using PCR. This

independent validation supports the use of both loci in **Fig.** 1C-D in interpreting the

DGRP sequencing data as neither region perfectly predicts copy number, but a

decision tree using information from both loci correctly predicted *BaraA* copy

number in 7/7 cases (**Table** S1). Other regions of the *BaraA* locus show less

consistent variant calling patterns (**Fig.** S1A). Lastly, we found that *BaraA* copy

number varies in common *D. melanogaster* lab strains (**Table** S1).

This suggests that only 39-47% of DGRP strains carry the *BaraA* duplication

found in the Dmel_R6 reference genome. Due to the difficulty in mapping highly

similar duplicate genes, it is not clear whether the 100% similarity of *BaraA1*

BaraA2 found in the reference genome is true of all DGRP strains. Indeed, there are

variant calls in the *BaraA2* promoter region, but no variant calls in the *BaraA1*

promoter region (**Fig.** S1B), which may be an artefact caused by variants in *BaraA1*

erroneously mapping to *BaraA2*. Regardless, this analysis clearly shows that the

BaraA duplication is not fixed in *D. melanogaster*, and it is common for wild flies and

lab strains to carry either one or two copies of *BaraA*.

Baramicin A is an ancestral immune effector

In *D. melanogaster, BaraA* is regulated by the Toll immune signalling pathway

[24,25]. Using BLAST, we further recovered *BaraA*-like genes that encode all three

kinds of Baramicin peptides (IM24, IM10-like, and IM22) across the genus

Drosophila and in the outgroup *Scaptodrosophila lebanonensis*. We next performed

infection experiments in different species to confirm that their *BaraA*-like genes

were immune-inducible. We infected the phylogenetically diverse species *D.*

melanogaster, *D. pseudoobscura*, *D. willistoni*, *D. virilis*, and *D. neotesteacea* with

Micrococcus luteus and *Candida albicans*, and included orthologues of the *Drosophila*

Toll effector *Dmel\BomBc3* as an immune-induced control (**Fig.** 2A). In all five

species, *BaraA*-like genes were immune-induced, confirming that the ancestral

Baramicin was an immune-induced gene (**Fig.** 2B-F). We therefore demonstrate that

BaraA-like genes are consistently immune induced in all species tested.

The BaraA antifungal IM10*-like *peptides display trans-species polymorphisms

Trans-species polymorphisms are variable residues that appear repeatedly

in orthologous genes of different species. Such polymorphisms imply balancing

selection that favours one allele or the other in a context-dependent manner, and

are commonly found in Dipteran AMPs [4,12,27]. The predominant peptide

products of *D. melanogaster BaraA* are the three IM10-like peptides IM10, IM12, and

IM13, which have been shown to inhibit fungal growth in vitro [24]. We next

investigated the degree of conservation in *Drosophila* species for these 23-residue

peptides. Strikingly, we found that IM10-like peptides across the *Drosophila* genus

have a recurrent polymorphic site in an otherwise conserved [6]RPXR[9] motif, at

residue 8 (G/D) (**Fig.** 3A). We also note three other polymorphic residues at site 3

Figure 2: The ancestral *BaraA* gene was immune-induced. A) Cladogram of species used in B-F. **B-F)** Expression of *BomBc3* controls (brown) or *BaraA-like* genes (orange) in diverse *Drosophila* species upon infection. In all cases, both *BomBc3* and *BaraA-like* genes are induced upon infection by either *C. albicans* yeast or *M. luteus* bacteria.

(H/V/Q), site 4 (V/I), and site 5 (A/E/S) that are broadly observed across the genus.

Furthermore, site 9 universally encodes an Arginine, except in flies of the

Immigrans-Tripunctata radiation where a Histidine is observed instead (**Fig. 3A**).

These polymorphisms impact the hydrophobicity and isoelectric point of these

peptides (**Fig.** 3B). Notably, the IM22 peptide encoded at the C-terminus of *BaraA*

also encodes an IM10-like motif, except the residue 8 G/D site instead encodes both

D and G in tandem (i.e. ²⁷RP<u>DG</u>R³¹), which is conserved across *Drosophila* species

(**Fig.** S2).

The number of IM10-like repeats within the *BaraA*-like gene structure is

variable across species (e.g. in **Fig.** 5C), making it difficult to assess the synteny of

Figure 3: Convergent evolution maintains a polymorphism in Baramicin IM10-
like peptides. A) Alignment of IM10-like peptides from diverse *Drosophila* species. The
G/D polymorphic site is highlighted in lavender (residue 8). Broadly conserved
polymorphisms are also seen at sites 3 (H/V/Q), 4 (V/I), 5 (A/E/S), and 9 (R/H). **B)** The
IM10-like polymorphic residues confer different hydrophobicity and isoelectric points
(PI). The three *D. melanogaster* IM10-like peptides are given as examples. Bar height
indicates greater hydrophobicity/PI. **C)** The syntenic codon of IM12 in Melanogaster
group flies encodes either a D or G residue owing to convergent G-A nucleotide
transitions. The D residue is far more common in additional outgroups (**Fig.** S3),
suggesting the ancestral state encoded D, and G was derived at least twice.
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codons in distantly related species. However among closely related species of the

Melanogaster group, we nevertheless recovered G/D trans-species polymorphisms

at syntenic codons. Focusing on *BaraA*-like genes in the Melanogaster group, the

first IM10-like peptide repeat is IM12. In the "RPXR" motif of IM12, RP<u>G</u>R is found in

D. ananassae, D. erecta, D. simulans, and *D. melanogaster.* Meanwhile an RP<u>D</u>R motif

is found in *D. bipectinata, D. eugracilis, D. suzukii,* and *D. yakuba* (**Fig.** 3C). At the RNA

level these polymorphic sites are encoded as either GGU (G) or GAU (D). Thus there

is a split between G/D in IM12 in two sets of sister lineages: *D. ananassae* vs. *D.*

bipectinata, and *D. erecta* vs. *D. yakuba*. Furthermore, while *D. melanogaster* encodes

RP<u>G</u>R, *D. eugracilis* and *D. suzukii* outgroups instead encode RP<u>D</u>R. These examples

demonstrate that the G/D trans-species polymorphism of IM10-like peptides arose

independently in different lineages, and thus derive from recurrent mutations found

in the reference genomes of given species. Overall, the frequency of either residue

across all IM10-like peptides in the Melanogaster species group is: RP_DR (~85%) or

RP_GR (~15%) (**Fig.** S3). However, the G/D frequency differs drastically in other

Drosophila lineages (**Fig.** 3A). As such, the IM10-like G/D frequency in Melanogaster

group flies should not be generalized to how advantageous one allele might be in

another species.

Thus trans-species polymorphisms in IM10-like peptides are found across

the genus *Drosophila*. In particular, the residue 8 G/D polymorphism is unlikely to

be a product of simple inheritance, as this would require multiple speciation events

to maintain both alleles of the polymorphism. Moreover G/D frequency differs in a

lineage-specific manner, suggesting selection acts to promote one allele or the other

depending on life history. These IM10-like polymorphisms confer distinct

biochemical properties (i.e. hydrophobicity, isoelectric point), which are likely to

modify antimicrobial activity. We conclude that the IM10-like peptides encoded by

BaraA evolve rapidly in lineage-specific fashions.

Identification of BaraB and BaraC, two non-immune Baramicin paralogs in D.

melanogaster

While investigating *Baramicin* evolution across species, we also recovered

two paralogous *Baramicin* genes in *D. melanogaster* through reciprocal BLAST

searches: *CG13749* and *CG30285*, which we name *BaraB* and *BaraC* respectively. The

three *Baramicin* genes are scattered on the right arm of chromosome II at

cytological positions 44F9(*BaraB*), 50A5 (*BaraA*), and 57F8 (*BaraC*). While *BaraA*-

like genes are conserved throughout the genus *Drosophila*, *BaraB* is conserved only

in Melanogaster group flies, and *BaraC* is found only in Melanogaster and Obscura

group flies, indicating that both paralogs stem from duplication events of a *BaraA*-

like ancestor (see **Fig.** 5 for a summary of the *Baramicin* loci). In the *D. melanogaster*

reference genome, these paralogous *Baramicin* genes are united by the presence of

the IM24 domain (**Fig.** 4A). In the case of *BaraB*, we additionally recovered a

frameshift mutation causing a premature stop segregating in the DGRP, leading to

the loss of IM13 and IM22 relative to the *BaraA* gene structure (**Fig.** 4A); this

truncation is present in the Dmel_R6 reference genome, but many DGRP strains

encode a CDS including either a standard (e.g. DGRP38) or extended (e.g. DGRP101)

IM22 domain. Moreover, in contrast to BaraA, the initial IM10-like peptide of BaraB

no longer follows a furin cleavage site (**Fig.** 4A), and now also encodes a serine

(R<u>S</u>XR) in its IM10-like motif instead of the proline (R<u>P</u>XR) of *BaraA*-like genes. Each

of these mutations prevents the secretion of classical IM10-like and IM22 peptides.

Finally, BaraC encodes only IM24 tailed by a transmembrane domain at the C

terminus (TMHMM v2.0 [28]), and thus lacks both the IM10-like peptides and IM22

(**Fig.** 4A).

BaraA is strongly induced following microbial challenge, being

predominantly regulated by the Toll pathway with minor input from the Immune

Deficiency (Imd) pathway [24]. We assayed the expression of *BaraB* and *BaraC* in

wild-type flies, and also flies with defective Toll (spz^{rm7}) or Imd (Rel^{E20}) signalling to

see if their basal expression relied on these pathways. Surprisingly, neither gene

was induced upon infection regardless of microbial challenge (**Fig.** 4B and **Fig.** S4).

BaraC levels were reduced in spz^{rm7} mutants regardless of treatment (cumulative

data in **Fig.** S4C, p = .005), suggesting that *BaraC* basal expression might be affected

by Toll signalling. We next monitored the expression of the three *Baramicin* genes

over the course of development from egg to adult. We found that expression of all

genes increased over development and reached their highest level in young adults

(**Fig.** 4C). Of note, *BaraB* expression approached the lower limit of our assay's

detection sensitivity at early life stages. However *BaraB* was robustly detected

beginning at the pupal stage, indicating it is expressed during metamorphosis. *BaraC*

expression also increased markedly between the S3 larval stage and pupal stage.

Figure 4: The *D. melanogaster Baramicin* gene family. A) Two *Baramicin* paralogs in addition to *BaraA* are present in the Dmel_R6 reference genome, united by the presence of an IM24 peptide. Relative to *BaraA*, two frameshift mutations in *BaraB* are segregating in the DGRP. One results in the same mature protein annotated in the Dmel_R6 reference genome (coloured domains), while the other elongates the IM22 peptide (e.g. *DGRP101*). Most strains carry a *BaraB* gene of similar length to *BaraA* (e.g. DGRP38). Additionally, the *BaraB* gene does not encode a functional signal peptide. **B)** Only *BaraA* is immune-induced. *BaraB* and *BaraC* do not respond to infection, though basal *BaraC* expression depends on Toll signalling (**Fig.** S4C). **C)** Time series of whole animal *Baramicin* expression over the course of development. Expression values are normalized within each gene, with expression in the adult set to 100% (left panel). For context, normalizing each gene to *BaraA* in adults shows that *BaraC* and especially *BaraB* expression is much lower at a whole fly level (right panel). **D)** The *ΔBaraB^{LC1}* mutation is partial lethal, an effect that is exaggerated by rearing flies at 29°C. **E)** Example of a nubbin-like wing, which is phenocopied by *BaraB* gene silencing using the neural driver *elav-Gal4*. **F)** The *BaraC* gene almost perfectly matches the expression pattern of glia specific *Repo*-expressing cells in single cell RNA sequencing of the adult fly brain [29].

Here we reveal that *BaraA* is part of a larger gene family. While the *BaraA*

gene was first described as an immune effector, the two more phylogenetically-

restricted *Baramicin* paralogs *BaraB* and *BaraC* are not induced by infection in *D.*

melanogaster. Both *BaraB* and *BaraC* first see increased expression during pupation,

and are ultimately expressed at their highest levels in adults.

The Dmel\BaraB gene is required in the nervous system over the course of

development

A simple interpretation of the truncated gene structure and low levels of

BaraB expression is that this gene is undergoing pseudogenization. To explore

BaraB function, we used two null mutations for *BaraB* (*ΔBaraB^{LC1}* and *ΔBaraB^{LC4}*,

generously gifted by S.A. Wasserman). These mutations were made using a CRISPR

double gRNA approach to replace the *BaraB* locus with sequence from the pHD-

DsRed vector. We further introgressed the *ΔBaraB^{LC1}* mutation into the DrosDel

isogenic background (referred to as *iso*) as described in Ferreira et al. [30]. We

assessed *BaraB* mutant viability using crosses between *ΔBaraB/CyO* heterozygous

females and *ΔBaraB* homozygous males. Under mendelian ratios of inheritance, this

cross is expected to result in a 1:1 ratio of *ΔBaraB*/CyO and *ΔBaraB* homozygous

progeny. However, *BaraB* deficient flies exhibited reduced viability regardless of

mutation or genetic background (**Fig.** 4D and S5A). This reduced viability was

exacerbated by rearing at 29°C, reaching a lethality rate over 50%. Using a *CyO-GFP*

reporter to track genotype in larvae revealed that the lethal phase occurs primarily

in the late larval and pupal stages (**Fig.** S5B-E), agreeing with a role for *BaraB* in

pupae previously suggested by increased expression at this stage (**Fig.** 4C). Many

ΔBaraB^{LC1} flies never emerge from their pupal cases (**Fig.** S5B). Dissections

confirmed that some adult flies fully developed inside the puparium even to the

point of abdominal pigmentation maturing, indicating they did not perish but rather

failed to eclose in spite of developing to adulthood. Beyond overt lethality, many

emerging homozygotes had locomotory issues and were frequently found

floundering in the food medium, even when given tissue paper to facilitate climbing.

Some emergents also exhibited a nubbin-like wing phenotype (FlyBase:

FBrf0220532 and e.g. **Fig.** 4E), where the wings were stuck in a shrivelled state for

the remainder of the fly's lifespan. However, a plurality of homozygotes successfully

emerged, and unlike their siblings, had no immediate morphological or locomotory

defects. The lifespan of otherwise normal *iso ΔBaraB^{LC1}* adults is significantly

shorter compared to wild-type flies and even *iso ΔBaraB^{LC1}/CyO* siblings (**Fig.** S5F).

We confirmed these developmental effects using ubiquitous gene silencing with

Actin5C-Gal4 (Act-Gal4) to drive two *BaraB* RNAi constructs (*TRiP-IR* and *KK-IR*).

Both constructs resulted in significant lethality and occurrence of nubbin-like wings

(**Table** S2). Additionally, we crossed *iso ΔBaraB^{LC1}* to a genomic deficiency line

(BDSC9063) at both 25°C and 29°C. These crosses resulted in significantly reduced

numbers of eclosing *ΔBaraB^{LC1}/Df(9063)* flies at 25°C (n = 114, χ^2 p < .001) and 29°C

(n = 63, χ^2 p < .001) (**Fig.** S5G)

These data demonstrate a significant consequence of *BaraB* mutation on

fitness. While whole-fly *BaraB* expression is low, these results suggest that *BaraB* is

not pseudogenized, and instead performs an integral function during development.

The fact that there is a bimodal outcome in adults (either severe defects or generally

healthy) suggests *BaraB* is involved in passing some checkpoint during larval/pupal

development. Flies lacking *BaraB* are more likely to fail at this developmental

checkpoint, resulting in either lethality or developmental defects.

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346 ***The Baramicin paralogs BaraB and BaraC are expressed in the nervous system***

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Given that whole-fly *BaraB* depletion produced lethality and nubbin-like

wings, we next sought to determine in which tissue(s) *BaraB* is required. *BaraB*

mutant locomotory defects led us to suspect an involvement in the nervous system.

We silenced *BaraB* in the nervous system at 25°C or at 29°C for greater efficiency,

using a pan-neural *elav-Gal4* driver, and for *BaraB-IR* used both the *TRiP-IR* and *KK-*

IR lines. We additionally combined this approach with *UAS-Dicer2* (*Dcr2*) to further

strengthen gene silencing [31]*.* We used the *TRiP-IR* line with a *CyO* balancer

chromosome (*elav-Gal4 * TRiP-IR/CyO*), allowing the same simple mendelian

approach to assess lethality as used previously. Both *elav>TRiP-IR* and *elav>Dcr2,*

TRiP-IR caused partial lethality and occasional nubbin-like wings (χ^2 p < .02, **Table**

S2). For *KK-IR*, we instead crossed homozygous flies and so we did not assess

lethality using mendelian inheritance. However, no adults emerged when *elav>Dcr2,*

KK-IR flies were reared at 29°C. Rare emergents (n^{total} = 11 after three experiments)

occurred at 25°C, all of which bore nubbin-like wings. Using *elav-Gal4* at 29°C

without *Dcr2*, we observed greater numbers of emerging adults, but 100% of flies

had nubbin-like wings (**Fig.** 4E, **Table** S2). Finally, *elav>KK-IR* flies at 25°C suffered

both partial lethality and nubbin-like wings, but normal-winged flies began

emerging (χ^2 p < .001, **Table** S2). This analysis indicates that *BaraB* is expressed in

the nervous system, and this expression readily explains both the lethality and

nubbin-like wing phenotypes. Moreover, we observed a consistent spectrum of

developmental defects using *elav-Gal4>BaraB-IR* wherein strength of gene silencing

correlates with severity of defects.

BaraB is not the only *Baramicin* gene now specialized for expression in the

nervous system. Tissue-specific transcriptomic data indicate that *BaraC* is expressed

in various neural tissues including the eye, brain, and the thoracic abdominal

ganglion (**Fig.** S6A) [32]. However *BaraC* is also highly enriched in the hindgut and

rectal pads, pointing to a complex expression pattern [32,33]. We next searched

FlyBrainAtlas (http://scope.aertslab.org, [29]) to narrow down which neural

subtypes *BaraC* was expressed in. Strikingly, *BaraC* was expressed in all glial cell

types, fully overlapping the glia marker *Repo* (**Fig.** 4F). To confirm these

observations, we compared the effects of *BaraC* RNA silencing (*BaraC-IR*) using *Act-*

Gal4 (ubiquitous), *elav-Gal4* (neural) and *Repo-Gal4* (glia) drivers on *BaraC*

expression. *Act-Gal4* reduced *BaraC* expression to just ~14% that of control flies

(**Fig.** S6B). By comparison *elav-Gal4* reduced *BaraC* expression to ~63% that of

controls, while *Repo-Gal4* led to *BaraC* levels only 57% that of controls (overall

controls vs. neural/glia-IR, p = .002). Collectively, our results support the notion

that *BaraC* is expressed in the nervous system, and are consistent with *BaraC*
expression being most localized to glial cells.

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388 ***Extensive genomic turnover of the Baramicin gene family***

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The results thus far show that *BaraA*-like genes are consistently immune-
induced in all *Drosophila* species (**Fig.** 2), and the *BaraA* antifungal IM10-like
peptides evolve rapidly (**Fig.** 3). However, the two phylogenetically-restricted
paralogs *Dmel\BaraB* and *Dmel\BaraC* are not immune-induced, and are truncated
in a fashion that deletes some or all of the IM10-like peptides (**Fig.** 4A). These two
Baramicins are now enriched in the nervous system (**Fig.** 4E-F). In the case of *BaraB*,
a role in the nervous system is evidenced by severe defects recapitulated using pan-
neural RNA silencing. In the case of *BaraC*, this is evidenced by a clear overlap with
Repo-expressing cells.

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The three *D. melanogaster Baramicin* genes are united by their IM24 domain,
and are scattered across different loci along chromosome 2R, suggesting a series of
complex genetic events. To determine the ancestry of each *D. melanogaster*
Baramicin gene, we traced their evolutionary history by analyzing genomic synteny.
This allowed us to determine ancestry beyond sequence similarity-based
approaches. Using this strategy, we traced a series of genomic duplications,
inversions, and locus translocation events that ultimately resulted in the three
Baramicin loci of *D. melanogaster*. Our analysis reveals that these three loci
ultimately stem from a single-locus ancestor encoding only one *Baramicin* gene that
resembled *Dmel\BaraA* (**Fig.** 5A). This is evidenced by the presence of only a single
BaraA-like gene in the outgroup *S. lebanonensis*, and also in multiple lineages of the
subgenus Drosophila (**Fig.** 5B). Indeed, the general *BaraA* gene structure encoding
IM24, tandem repeats of IM10-like peptides, and IM22 is conserved in *S.*
lebanonensis and all *Drosophila* species (**Fig.** 5C). On the other hand, the *Dmel\BaraC*
gene is an ancient duplication restricted to the subgenus Sophophora, and
Dmel\BaraB resulted from a more recent duplication found only in the
Melanogaster group (**Fig.** 5B).

Figure 5: *Baramicin* evolutionary history. A) Map of genomic neighbourhoods in the outgroup drosophilids *S. lebanonensis, D. willistoni,* and *D. melanogaster*, detailing inferred duplication, inversion, and translocation events. Gene names are given as found in *D. melanogaster*. **B)** Cladogram and genomic loci further detailing the series of events leading to the extant *Baramicin* loci of *Drosophila* species. Loci in *S. lebanonensis* and flies in the subgenus *Drosophila* encode only one *Baramicin* gene, indicating the ancestral drosophilid likely encoded only one *Baramicin*. **C)** IM24-specific *Baramicins* arose from convergent evolution both in gene structure and expression profile. Genomic loci are described here as *ATP8A* or *stum* reflecting prominent genes neighbouring the *Baramicins* (see **Fig.** 5A). Expression dynamics relating to immune-induction or enrichment in the head (checked boxes) are shown in **Fig.** 2 and **Fig.** S7. The *Baramicin* loci in *D. willistoni* are syntenic with *D. melanogaster*, but evolved in a vice versa fashion (purple arrow). The *D. virilis Baramicins GJ21309* and *GJ25897* are direct sister genes (100% identity at N-terminus).

This genomic synteny analysis revealed a striking observation: the *D.*

willistoni gene *Dwil\GK10648* is syntenic with the *Dmel\BaraC* locus (**Fig.** 5A), yet it

is immune-induced (**Fig.** 2D) and retains a *BaraA*-like gene structure (**Fig.** 5C).

Meanwhile, the other *D. willistoni Baramicin Dwil\GK10645* is found at the locus

syntenic with *BaraA/BaraB*, yet this gene has undergone an independent truncation

to encode just an IM24 peptide (similar to *Dmel\BaraC*). Thus these two *D. willistoni*

genes have evolved similar to *D. melanogaster BaraA/BaraC*, but in a vice versa

fashion. This suggests a pattern of convergent evolution with two key points: **i)** the

duplication event producing *Dmel\BaraA* and *Dmel\BaraC* originally copied a full-

length *BaraA*-like gene to both loci, and **ii)** the derivation of an IM24-specific gene

structure has occurred more than once (*Dmel\BaraC* and *Dwil\GK10645*). Indeed,

another independent IM24-specific *Baramicin* gene is present in *D. virilis*

(*Dvir\GJ25897*), which is a direct sister of the *BaraA*-like gene *Dvir\GJ21309* (**Fig.**

5C). We evaluated the expression of these truncated *Baramicins* encoding only IM24

in both *D. willistoni* and *D. virilis* upon infection. As was the case for *Dmel\BaraC*,

neither gene is immune-induced (**Fig.** S7A-C). Given the glial expression of

Dmel\BaraC, we reasoned that the heads (rich in nerve tissue) of adult flies should

be enriched in *BaraC* compared to whole animals. Indeed we saw a significant

enrichment of *BaraC* in the heads of *D. melanogaster* males compared to whole flies,

which was not the case for *BaraA* (**Fig.** S7D). We further saw a consistent and

significant enrichment in the head for the IM24-specific genes *Dwil\GK10645* and

Dvir\GJ25897, while *BaraA*-like genes were more variable in expression (**Fig.** S7E-F).

Thus, multiple independent IM24-specific *Baramicins* apparently do not play

an immune role, and are enriched in the head. In the case of *Dmel\BaraC*, this is

likely due to expression in glia. Strikingly, we observe an independent but parallel

evolution of expression pattern and gene structure in *Baramicins* of *D. willistoni* and

D. virilis. A summary of these expression data is included in **Fig.** 5C. Phylogenetic

and genomic synteny analysis reveals that the gene structure and immune

expression pattern of *BaraA* reflect the ancestral state, while *Dmel\BaraB* and

Dmel\BaraC are paralogs derived from independent duplication events. These two

genes, which are truncated and delete both IM10-like and IM22 domains, have also
lost immune function.
465
466 ***Evolution of IM24 in lineage-specific fashions***
467
Multiple independent *Baramicin* genes have lost both IM10-like and IM22
peptides, and also converge on loss of immune induction. Taken together, these
truncations and expression patterns suggest that the IM10-like peptides and IM22
are strictly useful during the immune response, consistent with their recently
described antifungal role [24]. Inversely, non-immune *Baramicin* genes have
repeatedly and independently truncated to encode primarily IM24. This suggests
that IM24 is adaptable to different contexts – a protein domain with utility
extending beyond the immune response.
476
Thus far, we have discussed IM24 primarily as a unifying feature of the
Baramicin gene family. To understand how this universal domain differs across gene
lineages, we next investigated the evolution of the IM24 domain at the sequence
level. We analyzed IM24 domain evolution via multiple approaches using the HyPhy
package (implemented in Datamonkey.org, [34]) with a codon alignment of *BaraA,*
BaraB, and *BaraC* IM24 domains beginning at their conserved Q^1 starting residue.
Globally, FEL, FUBAR, and SLAC site-specific analyses suggest strong purifying
selection across the IM24 domain, agreeing with the general protein structure of
IM24 being broadly conserved (analysis outputs in **supplementary data file 1**).
However alignment of Baramicin IM24 domains revealed a specific motif with
lineage-restricted patterns. In *Dmel\BaraB*, this motif encodes the residues
^{40}HHASSPAD^{48}, numbered according to the Q^1 starting residue. This HHASSPAD
domain shows lineage-restricted residues in *BaraA, BaraB,* and *BaraC* (**Fig.** 6A).
Such lineage-restricted residues suggest that selection on Baramicin IM24 coincided
with rapid evolution of this motif following gene duplication events, and then
subsequently experienced purifying selection within each lineage (as suggested by
FEL, FUBAR, and SLAC). This pattern could mask signals of positive selection,

Figure 6: *BaraB* and IM24 rapid evolution. A) Evolution of the signal peptide and core IM24 domain with a focus on *Baramicins* of the Melanogaster group. Residue highlighting indicates agreement with *Dmel\BaraB*. The *D. melanogaster* [40]HHASSPAD[48] domain is bordered by red dashed lines, where unique residues are found restricted within each lineage. For example: the residues at the end of this domain are [46]RGE[48] in *BaraA*-like genes and also *Dwil\GK10645*, [46](S/N)GQ[48] in *BaraC* genes, and [46]PXE[48] in *BaraB* genes (except in *D. melanogaster*). The signal peptide region, dipeptidyl peptidase cleavage site, and IM24 domain including the Q[1] site are indicated. The cladogram along the left shows a neighbour-joining tree derived from the residues shown (1000 bootstraps). Background colouring indicates *Baramicin* clade. **B)** Proposed timeframe for the introgression of the extant *Dmel\BaraB* protein structure between *D. melanogaster* and *D. simulans*. The *D. erecta BaraB* gene is pseudogenized. Speciation timeframes adapted from Timetree.org.

particularly given the short 61-residue region of homologous coding sequence (**Fig.**

6A). To test this hypothesis, we next used adaptive branch site relative-effects

likelihood (aBSREL) to screen for episodic diversifying selection, a more sensitive

method to detect punctuated instances of positive selection [34]. aBSREL analysis of

the IM24 domain found one instance of diversifying selection along the branch

distinguishing the subgenus Drosophila and *D. willistoni* (subgenus Sophophora) as

outgroups from other Sophophora species (**Fig.** S8). This branch corresponds to the

evolutionary event distinguishing the *Dmel\BaraA* and *Dmel\BaraC* lineages from

the *Baramicins* found in *D. willistoni*. This positive selection event therefore

accompanies the parallel and vice versa evolution of *BaraA*-like and IM24-specific

gene structures and expression patterns in *D. melanogaster* and *D. willistoni* (**Fig.**

5C).

These findings highlight that not only are IM10-like and IM22 peptides lost in

e.g. *Dmel\BaraC* and *Dwil\GK10645*, but the IM24 domain in these genes also

evolved rapidly following these events. An 8-residue motif ("HHASSPAD" in

Dmel\BaraB) appears to be a highly variable motif amongst different genes, but the

sequence within is conserved in each gene lineage (**Fig.** 6A). Moreover, an ancient

instance of diversifying selection distinguishes the *Baramicins* of *D. melanogaster*

and *D. willistoni*, which evolved towards similar gene structures independently.

Introgression and loss: a timeframe for BaraB neofunctionalization

Another striking evolutionary pattern in Dmel\BaraB is the loss of the N-

terminal signal peptide (**Fig.** 4). Intriguingly, a *BaraA*-like signal peptide is

conserved across species in all *Baramicin* lineages, except in *BaraB* of *D.*

melanogaster and also *D. simulans* (last common ancestor 5.9mya [35]); these

species encode a conserved region of parallel length that lacks a signal peptide

structure (**Fig.** 6A, SignalP 5.0 [36]). This is surprising, as *D. simulans* is

phylogenetically more closely related to *D. sechellia* (last common ancestor 3.3mya)

and *D. mauritiana* (last common ancestor 4.5mya), yet *D. sechellia* and *D. mauritiana*

retain signal peptide structures in their *BaraB* genes; we note that the *D. sechellia*

BaraB signal peptide is divergent due to a separate insertion event (**Fig.** 6A), but is

still predicted to enable protein secretion (SignalP 5.0 [36]).

We reason that the *D. simulans BaraB* N-terminus – which mirrors that of *D.*

melanogaster – was introgressed from one species to the other prior to the complete

development of hybrid inviability between these lineages. Taken together, these

observations provide a precise phylogenetic timeframe that confirms that the last

point where the *Dmel\BaraB* lineage encoded a functional signal peptide was in the

last common ancestor of *D. melanogaster, D. simulans, D. sechellia,* and *D.mauritiana*

5.9mya. This overt change in protein structure prevents BaraB secretion by a

standard signal peptide mechanism. Even more precisely, the introgression of the

Dmel\BaraB-like gene structure into *D. melanogaster/D. simulans* pinpoints that the

current *BaraB* gene structure existed prior to the development of hybrid inviability

between these two species, but after reproductive isolation between *D. simulans* and

D. sechellia began (**Fig.** 6B). It is tempting to speculate that this evolutionary event

correlates with the neofunctionalization of *BaraB* for some developmental process

in the nervous system. Perhaps supporting this notion, the *BaraB* gene of the

outgroup *D. erecta* is pseudogenized (**Fig.** 6B): there is a mutation in the ATG start

codon (now ATT), alongside frameshifts in the IM24 domain leading to premature

stops. It seems unlikely that *BaraB* in the last common ancestor of *D. melanogaster*

and *D. erecta* (11.4mya) functioned as it does now in *D. melanogaster* given that

Dmel\BaraB mutation is highly deleterious.

We speculate that loss of a signal peptide correlates with Dmel\BaraB

function diverging from its sister gene Dmel\BaraA, though we do not to invoke this

loss as the cause of *Dmel\BaraB* derived function. However, using this signal as a

proxy for derived function, Timetree.org [35], and confirmed Melanogaster group

hybrid inviabilities [37], we estimate the timeframe of *D. melanogaster-D. simulans*

BaraB introgression at between ~2.6 and 3.3mya, which dates the extant

Dmel\BaraB gene structure to between 5.9mya and 2.6mya. Assuming loss of the

Baramicin signal peptide correlates with derivation of novel function, we suggest that the developmental role of *Dmel\BaraB* was only recently derived between 2.6-5.9 million years ago.

Conclusion and Future Directions

The *Baramicin* gene family has undergone a varied history of genomic duplication, translocation, and complex sequence evolution. Here we describe an actively segregating duplication of the immune-induced *BaraA*, which may be relevant to immunity studies given that the duplication is variable in common lab stocks. The ancestral *BaraA*-like gene structure is comprised of multiple distinct peptide domains (i.e. IM24, IM10-like peptides, IM22). The loss of IM10-like peptides in non-immune *Baramicin* paralogs and inter-species polymorphisms in the IM10-like peptides of the *BaraA*-like genes reinforces the notion that these peptides are likely key in host-pathogen interactions. Two recent studies suggest that the *BaraA* gene and specifically the IM10-like peptides have antifungal properties [24,25]. Future research investigating these peptides as potential therapeutics would benefit from explicitly testing the consequences of the G/D polymorphism on microbicidal activity. Broadly conserved polymorphisms across IM10-like peptides at sites 3 (H/Q/V), 4 (V/I), 5 (A/E/S) and 9 (R/H) should also be of interest to potential IM10-like peptide activity screens.

The IM24 domain unites the *Baramicin* gene family. As a consequence, the evolution of *Baramicin* gene structure, pattern of expression, and IM24 domain sequence divergence, all yield insight into the contexts in which IM24 acts. Notably, multiple IM24-specialized genes are not immune induced, and are enriched in the head; for *D. melanogaster BaraB* and *BaraC* we determine this head enrichment derives from the nervous system. *BaraB* knockdown by the pan-neural driver *elav-Gal4* phenocopies both the lethality and nubbin-like wing phenotype. We additionally investigated the effect of *BaraB* RNAi using Gal4 drivers specific for glia (*Repo-Gal4*), motor neurons (*D42-, VGMN-,* and *OK6-Gal4*), the wing disc (*nubbin-*

Gal4), myocytes (*mef2-Gal4*), and with a recently-made *BaraA-Gal4* driver [24].

However all these *Gal4>BaraB-IR* flies were viable and never exhibited overt

morphological defects. While we did not identify the specific neural cell type that

expresses *BaraB*, our Gal4 approach rules out a number of options including: glia,

the wing disc, motor neurons, myocytes, or neural tissue overlapping with

expression of *BaraA* in the nervous system. Future study will benefit from

systematically knocking down *BaraB* in neuronal subtypes. Furthermore, *BaraB*

gene knockout in the Melanogaster group (i.e. in *D. simulans, D. sechellia,* and/or *D.*

mauritiana) may also validate whether the important role of *BaraB* in development

correlates with the loss of a signal peptide structure.

While we do not identify the exact tissue of *BaraB* expression, we do

highlight two evolutionary events that are associated specifically with the

Dmel\BaraB lineage. First, the global picture informed by analyzing the IM24 region

of *BaraA, BaraB,* and *BaraC* reveals that the residues aligned with the Dmel\BaraB

HHASSPAD domain are highly variable, bounded by otherwise conserved IM24

sequence (**Fig.** 6A). Second, the Dmel\BaraB protein has lost the otherwise

conserved signal peptide structure of the *Baramicin* gene family, suggesting its

cellular localization differs from that of other *Baramicins*. Certainly BaraA IM24 is

secreted, as this peptide is robustly detected in immune-induced hemolymph

[24,25,38]. Likewise, Dmel\BaraC bears a couple key signatures indicating it is likely

to reach the plasma membrane: i) it encodes a signal peptide that should enable

entry into the secretory pathway, and ii) the IM24 domain is preceded by an "SA"

dipeptidyl peptidase site; XA or XP motifs are cleaved by dipeptidyl peptidases at

the cell membrane to mature secreted peptides [39]. Indeed XA or XP motifs are

seen preceding the Q^1 residue in all IM24 domains of BaraA and BaraC proteins in

Fig. 6A. These patterns suggest *BaraC* encodes an initially secreted protein.

BaraC is unique as a tool to understand the activity of IM24, owing to its

IM24-specific structure. As the BaraC IM24 domain is tailed by a transmembrane

helix, the BaraC C-terminus should insert itself into the membrane of either the

BaraC-producing cell, or a neighbouring cell. In either scenario, the IM24 domain of

BaraC would likely be exposed to the extracellular space, suggesting a role for the

BaraC IM24 domain in receiving some humoral signal, or interacting with other

molecules embedded in the membrane. Identifying the binding partner(s) of either

the secreted BaraA IM24, the putatively extracellular BaraC IM24 domain, or BaraB

IM24 whose cellular localization is unknown, should be informative to this domain's

general function. Further genetic and biochemical approaches using tagged IM24

constructs should elucidate BaraA, BaraB, and BaraC IM24 localization patterns.

Manipulating the variable region of different IM24 peptides should also confirm if

this motif underlies the specificity of different IM24 domains to their paralog-

specific functions, including *Baramicin* phenotypes such as *BaraB*-dependent

nubbin-like wings, or the erect wing phenotype *BaraA* mutants display upon

infection [24].

It is clear from our comparative approach that the function of the IM24

protein is not strictly related to immune processes. Nevertheless it is possible that

IM24 also possesses antimicrobial activity. Indeed AMPs and neuropeptides share

many common features including: small size, cationic net charge, and

amphipathicity [40], and BaraA IM24 is both relatively short (96 AA) and cationic

(+2.4 at pH=7). However *Baramicins* are not the only AMP gene family united by a

domain that does not necessarily function as an immune effector. One human AMP

recently implicated in chronic neuroinflammatory disease is the Cathelicidin LL-37

[23,41,42]. The *Cathelicidin* gene family is unified by its N-terminal "Cathelin"

domain, however this region has no antimicrobial activity in vitro [43]. Instead, the

Cathelicidins encode their mature AMPs (e.g. LL-37) at the protein C-terminus. The

role of innate immunity and specifically antimicrobial peptides in neurological

disorders is a budding and exciting field of exploration [17–19,21,44]. The

Baramicins add to the growing list of immune-neural interactions by providing an

evolutionary case study that demonstrates that not all peptidic domains of AMP-

encoding genes are immune-specific. Indeed, most AMP studies have a peculiar

blind spot in this regard, as *in vivo* experiments typically disrupt entire genes, while

ex vivo or in vitro approaches typically manipulate only the canonical mature AMP

domain. Future studies on AMP contributions to various disease processes should

benefit greatly from dissecting the functions of AMPs at the gene level from the

specific functions of their encoded peptides, which could act in totally separate

tissues and contexts.

657   In summary, we characterize how an ancestral AMP-encoding gene has

evolved under a number of unique evolutionary scenarios. In light of the repeated

derivation of IM24-specific *Baramicin* genes – including at least two specifically

involved in neural processes – it will be interesting to consider the functions of AMP

genes in neural processes not simply at the level of the gene, but at the level of the

mature peptides produced by that gene. The distinct functional roles of the IM24

domain in neural processes and IM10-like peptides in immunity suggest that

selection on AMP genes may go beyond host-pathogen interactions. In the case of

Baramicin and other recently-characterized invertebrate AMPs, natural selection

may impose trade-offs that contrast pressures imposed by essential roles in host

processes (e.g. in neural tissues) with maintenance of a competent host defence.

Given the many commonalities between AMPs and neuropeptides, these canonical

immune effectors might be adapted for non-immune functions more commonly than

appreciated.

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673
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and generated by Lianne Cohen, who we also thank for their critical involvement in
characterizing *Baramicin A* [24].
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Materials and Methods (507 words)

DGRP population screening and bioinformatics analyses

Sequence data from the DGRP were downloaded from
http://dgrp2.gnets.ncsu.edu/ [26]. Sequence comparisons and alignment figures
were prepared using Geneious R10 [45], Prism 7, and Inkscape. Alignments were
performed using MUSCLE or MAFFT followed by manual curation, and phylogenetic
analyses were performed to validate sequence patterns using the Neighbour Joining,
PhyML, RaxML, and MrBayes plugins in Geneious. Figure S1B was generated using
the UCSC *D. melanogaster* DGRP2 genome browser. Selection analyses were
performed using the HyPhy package implemented in datamonkey.org [34]. Codon
alignment of the IM24 domain used in **Fig.** 6A is included as a .fasta file in
supplementary data file 1 alongside outputs from FEL, FUBAR, SLAC, and aBSREL
selection analyses.

Fly genetics

The *BaraB^{LC1}* and *BaraB^{LC4}* mutations were generated using CRISPR with two
gRNAs and an HDR vector by cloning 5' and 3' region-homologous arms into the
pHD-DsRed vector, and consequently *ΔBaraB* flies express DsRed in their eyes,
ocelli, and abdomen. The following PAM sites were used for CRISPR bordering the
BaraB region. Slashes indicate the cut site: 5': GCGGGCAACAGATGTGTTCA/GGG
3': GTCCATTGCTTATTCAAAAA/TGG. These mutants were generated in the
laboratory of Steve Wasserman by Lianne Cohen, who graciously allowed their use
in this study. All fly stocks including Gal4 and RNAi lines are listed in
supplementary data file 1. Experiments were performed at 25°C unless otherwise
indicated. When possible, genetic crosses of 6-8 males and 6-8 females were
performed in both directions to test for an effect of the X or Y chromosomes on
BaraB-mediated lethality; crosses in both directions yielded similar results in all
cases. Fly diet consisted of a nutrient-rich lab standard food: 3.72g agar, 35.28g
cornmeal, 35.28g yeast, 36mL grape juice, 2.9mL propionic acid, 15.9mL moldex,
and H_2O to 600mL.

Infection experiments

Bacteria and yeast were grown to mid-log phase shaking at 200rpm in their
respective growth media (LB, BHI, or YPG) and temperature conditions, and then
pelleted by centrifugation to concentrate microbes. Resulting cultures were diluted
to OD = 200 at 600nm before infections to measure gene expression. The following
microbes were grown at 37°C: *Escherichia coli strain 1106* (LB) and *Candida albicans*
(YPG)*. Micrococcus luteus* was grown at 29°C in LB. For **Fig.** 2 and S6A, pooled fly
samples were collected either 6 hours post-infection (*E. coli*) or 24 hours post-
infection (*C. albicans, M. luteus*) prior to RNA extraction on pools of 5 adult males.
These timepoints correspond to the maximal expression inputs of the Imd (6hpi) or

Toll (24hpi) NF-κB signalling pathways, which are most specifically induced by Gram-negative bacteria (Imd) or Gram-positive bacteria or fungi (Toll) [46]. Flies were pricked in the thorax as described in [47].

RNA extractions were performed using TRIzol™, Ambion DNAse treatment, and PrimeScript RT according to manufacturer's protocols. RT-qPCR was performed using PowerUP SYBR Green master mix with primers listed in **supplementary data file 1**. Gene expression differences were analyzed using the PFAFFL method [48]. For gene expression experiments requiring dissection of heads, pools of 20 males were used for either whole flies or heads dissected in ice-cold PBS and transferred immediately to a tube kept on dry ice.

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Supplementary Information

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Figure S1: Other regions of the *BaraA* locus in the DGRP are less informative
regarding the *BaraA* duplication. A) The 3' region of *CG33470 (BaraA1)* appears less
informative in determining the frequency of the *BaraA* duplication in the DGRP, but also
generally supports a duplication frequency near 50% in the DGRP. **B)** The *BaraA1* and
BaraA2 gene regions are totally devoid of mapped variants (dashed boxes). We
speculate this is due to an artefact during genomic assembly, where reads mapping to
either of the two identical *BaraA* genes were discarded as non-specific read mapping.

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Figure S2: The IM22 domain encodes an IM10-like motif. IM22 encodes a unique
peptide with a domain similar to the IM10-like [6]RP(G/D)R[9] motif, except both D and G
are encoded in tandem. There is a furin cleavage site upstream of IM22 in all *BaraA-like*
genes. In *S. lebanonensis* there is an SP dipeptidyl peptidase site that is also predicted to
be cleaved off. In *D. melanogaster BaraA* the GIND motif is also cleaved off by an
unknown process [24]. In subgenus Drosophila flies, the mature IM22 peptide begins
immediately following the furin cleavage site.
915

Asp (D): 41/48 (85%)
Gly (G): 7/48 (15%)

1. Drosophila eugracilis (LOC108112041), mRNA
2. Drosophila eugracilis (LOC108112041), mRNA
3. Drosophila eugracilis (LOC108112041), mRNA
4. Drosophila takahashii immune-induced peptides-like (LOC108060115), mRNA
5. Drosophila takahashii immune-induced peptides-like (LOC108060115), mRNA
6. Drosophila biarmipes immune-induced peptides-like (LOC108029511), mRNA
7. Drosophila biarmipes immune-induced peptides-like (LOC108029511), mRNA
8. Drosophila biarmipes immune-induced peptides-like (LOC108029511), mRNA
9. Drosophila suzukii (LOC108019921), mRNA
10. Drosophila suzukii (LOC108019921), mRNA
11. Drosophila suzukii (LOC108019921), mRNA
12. Drosophila rhopaloa immune-induced peptides-like (LOC108042598), mRNA
13. Drosophila rhopaloa immune-induced peptides-like (LOC108042598), mRNA
14. Drosophila rhopaloa immune-induced peptides-like (LOC108042598), mRNA
15. Drosophila elegans immune-induced peptides-like (LOC108149133), mRNA
16. Drosophila elegans immune-induced peptides-like (LOC108149133), mRNA
17. Drosophila elegans immune-induced peptides-like (LOC108149133), mRNA
18. Drosophila ficusphila immune-induced peptides-like (LOC108094939), mRNA
19. Drosophila ficusphila immune-induced peptides-like (LOC108094939), mRNA
20. Drosophila ficusphila immune-induced peptides-like (LOC108094939), mRNA
21. Drosophila ficusphila immune-induced peptides-like (LOC108094939), mRNA
22. Drosophila serrata immune-induced peptides-like (LOC110191327), mRNA
23. Drosophila serrata immune-induced peptides-like (LOC110191327), mRNA
24. Drosophila bipectinata (LOC108121264), mRNA
25. Drosophila bipectinata (LOC108121264), mRNA
26. Drosophila bipectinata (LOC108121264), mRNA
27. Drosophila ananassae (LOC6496527), mRNA
28. Drosophila ananassae (LOC6496527), mRNA
29. Drosophila ananassae (LOC6496527), mRNA
30. Drosophila erecta (LOC6549484), mRNA
31. Drosophila erecta (LOC6549484), mRNA
32. Drosophila erecta (LOC6549484), mRNA
33. Drosophila yakuba uncharacterized protein (Dyak\GE12540), mRNA
34. Drosophila yakuba uncharacterized protein (Dyak\GE12540), mRNA
35. Drosophila yakuba uncharacterized protein (Dyak\GE12540), mRNA
36. Drosophila yakuba uncharacterized protein (Dyak\GE12540), mRNA
37. Drosophila melanogaster BaraA, cDNA
38. Drosophila melanogaster BaraA, cDNA
39. Drosophila melanogaster BaraA, cDNA
40. Drosophila simulans (Dsim\GD10965), mRNA
41. Drosophila simulans (Dsim\GD10965), mRNA
42. Drosophila simulans (Dsim\GD10965), mRNA
43. Drosophila sechellia immune-induced peptides (LOC6608991), transcript variant X1, ...
44. Drosophila sechellia immune-induced peptides (LOC6608991), transcript variant X1, ...
45. Drosophila sechellia immune-induced peptides (LOC6608991), transcript variant X1, ...
46. Drosophila mauritiana immune-induced peptides (LOC117137134), transcript varian...
47. Drosophila mauritiana immune-induced peptides (LOC117137134), transcript varian...
48. Drosophila mauritiana immune-induced peptides (LOC117137134), transcript varian...

916
917 **Figure S3: G/D polymorphism frequency in Melanogaster group flies.** Presentation
918 of the residue 8 G/D polymorphism in all IM10-like peptides (i.e. IM10, IM12, IM13) of
919 Melanogaster group flies. 41/48 encode an Aspartic acid, while 7/48 encode a Glycine.
920 However, in the Quinaria species group, only Glycine residues are observed (**Fig.** 2A),
921 suggesting G/D frequency is lineage-specific.
922

Figure S4: Additional assays of Baramicin expression upon infection. A) Neither

BaraB nor *BaraC* are regulated by the Imd pathway, which is specifically stimulated by

E. coli infection. **B)** Neither *BaraB* nor *BaraC* are induced after infection by *M. luteus*. **C)**

BaraC levels were consistently depressed in *spz^rm7* flies in the unchallenged condition

(UC) or upon infection with *C. albicans* (**Fig.** 3B) or *M. luteus* (**Fig.** S4B). Data here are

pooled for *iso* wild type or *iso spz^rm7* flies without regard for infection treatment

(student's t, p = .005).

Figure S5: *BaraB* mutation is highly deleterious and penetrance of effect depends on genetic background. A) Emergent frequencies of *ΔBaraB* flies in a variety of genetic backgrounds. *iso ΔBaraB^{LC1}* flies were backcrossed for seven generations. *w; ΔBaraB/CyO* flies represent the original background the mutation was generated in, while *ΔBaraB/CyO-GFP* flies have had additional genetic variation introduced in their 1st and 3rd chromosomes. Rare homozygous L3 larvae were observed in *BaraB^{LC4}*/CyO-GFP vials (anecdotally a rate of <2% of L3 larvae), but these larvae never successfully eclosed. **B)** Aborted pupae (yellow arrows) are a common occurrence in *ΔBaraB* vials, and sometimes contain fully-developed adults that simply never eclosed. **C-E:** ns = not significant, * = p < .05, *** = p < .001. **C)** The ratio of *ΔBaraB^{LC1}*/CyO-GFP to *ΔBaraB^{LC1}* homozygous larvae drops between the S2 and S3 larval stages (χ^2, p = .515 and p = .012 respectively). **D)** Frequency of successfully eclosing adults using *BaraB^{LC4}*/CyO-GFP flies. **E)** Frequency of successfully eclosing adults using *BaraB^{LC1}*/CyO-GFP flies. **F)** *BaraB* mutation negatively affects lifespan. *iso ΔBaraB^{LC1}* homozygotes suffer reduced

946 lifespan even relative to their *iso ΔBaraB^LC1/CyO* siblings. By comparison, *iso ΔBaraA*
947 flies that used the same vector for mutant generation live as wild-type. ATM[8] flies suffer
948 precocious neurodegeneration and are included as short-lived controls [49]. **G)** Crosses
949 using the genomic deficiency line *Df(9063)* support a partial-lethal effect of *BaraB*
950 mutation.
951

952
Figure S6: *BaraC* is expressed in the nervous system, but also the hindgut and
rectal pads. A) FlyAtlas2 expression data for *BaraC*. **B)** RT-qPCR of *BaraC* in whole flies
using different Gal4 drivers to express *BaraC* RNAi. *BaraC* is knocked down by both the
elav-Gal4 and *Repo-Gal4* nervous system drivers. Cumulatively, nervous system drivers
significantly depress *BaraC* expression compared to *BaraC-IR* controls (student's t, p <
.01). Ubiquitous knockdown using *Act>BaraC-IR* provides a comparative knockdown to
better understand the strength of nervous system-specific knockdowns at the whole fly
level.

961
Figure S7: RT-qPCR of *Baramicin* genes in diverse species. A-C) Independent IM24-
specific genes in *D. melanogaster* (A), *D. willistoni* (B), and *D. virilis* (C) are not induced
by infection. *BomBc3* is included as an immune-induced control. D-F) The independent
IM24-specific genes (blue) of *D. melanogaster* (D), *D. willistoni* (E), and *D. virilis* (F) are
each enriched in the head relative to whole flies. *BaraA-like* genes (orange) were
expressed more stochastically in the head, but also generally showed an enrichment
pattern relative to whole flies (not always significant). Each data point represents an
independent pooled sample from 20 male flies. Data were analyzed using one-way
ANOVA with Holm's-Sidak multiple test correction.
971

Figure S8: Adaptive branch site relative-effects likelihood (aBSREL) analysis of the IM24 domain for episodic diversifying selection. One branch along the tree had a significant dN/dS distinguishing *D. willistoni Baramicins* from *D. melanogaster* and other outgroups. A number of other branches also have high ω values, though these were not statistically significant (e.g. the branch distinguishing *Dvir\GJ21309* and *Dvir\GJ25897* from their immune-induced sibling *Dvir\GJ21308*).

Genotype	Inferred copy #	Gtype	Junction PCR band	CG30059 band	5' BaraA2 prediction	5' CG18278 prediction	5' BaraA2 correct?	5' CG18278 correct?
DGRP								
	2	DGRP-38	YES	YES	1	2	No	Yes
	2	DGRP-88	YES	YES	1	2	No	Yes
	1	DGRP-91	NO	YES	1	unclear	Yes	unclear
	1	DGRP-158	NO	YES	1	unclear	Yes	unclear
	2	DGRP-318	YES	YES	2	unclear	Yes	unclear
	1	DGRP-822	NO	YES	1	unclear	Yes	unclear
	1	DGRP-832	NO	YES	1	unclear	Yes	unclear
Wild-type								
	2	OR-R	YES	YES				
	2	iso w1118	YES	YES				
	2	Exelexis	YES	YES				
	1	w VDRC	NO	YES				
	1	yw	NO	YES				
	1	Canton S	NO	YES				

Table S1: the *BaraA* duplication is variable in common lab stocks. Inferred *BaraA* copy numbers are given for various DGRP and wild-type strains following PCR diagnosis using primers specific to the duplication event. All samples were additionally screened for *CG30059* as a DNA extraction positive control. We used unknown variant call patterns to predict *BaraA* copy number in the DGRP using both the 5' region of *BaraA2*, and the 5' region of *CG18278*. We were successful in predicting *BaraA* copy number for 5/7 DGRP strains using just the 5' region of *BaraA2* alone. We could not discern clearly defined pattern groups in the 5' region of *CG18278* that allowed us to specifically predict lines with only one copy of *BaraA*. However some strains called variants across the entirety of the *CG18278* gene region, and we presumed these to be clear indicators of having the duplication. This assumption was correct in 2/2 cases; notably in the two where existing unknown variants in the 5' of *BaraA2* predicted incorrectly. We suggest that using a decision tree to predict *BaraA* copy number will provide best results. This decision tree is informed by the 5' region of the *BaraA2* promoter, but gives veto power to the 5' region of *CG18278* if variants are called in *CG18278* throughout. This post-hoc approach successfully predicts *BaraA* copy number in the DGRP in 7/7 strains.

Parents and temperature	Offspring	Sex	# eclosed	χ^2	p-value
TRiP					
y1 v1; P{TRiP.HMJ23624}attP40/CyO	Act-Gal4 / CyO	m	26	25.687	**p < .001**
Act-Gal4/CyO-GFP ; +		f	30		
25°C	TRiP / CyO	m	26		
		f	29		
	Act-Gal4 > BaraB-IR{TRiP}	m	2		
		f	18		
y1 v1; P{TRiP.HMJ23624}attP40/CyO male	elav>Dcr2 ; +/CyO	m	67	10.037	**p < .02**
elav>Dcr2 ;; female		f	62		
25°C	elav>Dcr2 ; +/BaraB-IR	m	38		
		f	47		
y1 v1; P{TRiP.HMJ23624}attP40/CyO male	elav-Gal4; +/CyO	m	29	13.593	**p < .01**
elav-Gal4> ;; female		f	46		
25°C	elav-Gal4 ; +/BaraB-IR	m	21		
		f	22		
KK					
P{KK112854}VIE-260B	Act-Gal4 ; +/CyO	m	27	45.187	**p < .001**
Act-Gal4/CyO-GFP ; +		f	55		
25°C	Act-Gal4 > BaraB-IR{KK}	m	14		
		f	11		
P{KK112854}VIE-260B male	elav>Dcr2 ; +/BaraB-IR	m	0	11.000	**p < .001**
elav>Dcr2 ;; female		f	11		
25°C					
P{KK112854}VIE-260B male	normal wing	m	37	32.133	**p < .001**
elav-Gal4> ;; female		f	47		
25°C	nubbin-like wing	m	31		
		f	5		
P{KK112854}VIE-260B male	normal wing	m	0	87.766	**p < .001**
elav-Gal4> ;; female		f	0		
29°C	nubbin-like wing	m	28		
		f	57		

982
983 **Table S2: *BaraB* RNAi summary statistics.** Crosses used either the TRiP or KK *BaraB-*
984 *IR* lines, driven by either *Actin5C-Gal4* or *elav-Gal4,* sometimes including *UAS-Dcr2*.
985 Rearing at 29°C and inclusion of *UAS-Dcr2* increases the strength of RNA silencing.
986