1   *Extensive duplication and convergent evolution of an antimicrobial*
2   *polypeptide gene*
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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 convergent 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.

Introduction

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 (Semple and Dorin

2012; Gerdol et al. 2020; Hanson and Lemaitre 2020). AMP genes frequently

experience events of duplication and loss (Wang and Zhu 2011; Vilcinskas et al.

2013; Sackton et al. 2017; Hanson, Lemaitre, et al. 2019) and undergo rapid

evolution at the sequence level (Sackton et al. 2007; Lazzaro et al. 2020). This rapid

evolution is driven by positive selection, and acts to either maintain genetic

variation (balancing selection), or differentiate AMP sequence (diversifying

selection) (Tennessen 2005; Jiggins and Kim 2007; Hellgren et al. 2010;

Halldórsdóttir and Árnason 2015; Hanson et al. 2016; Chapman et al. 2019). 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 (Unckless et al. 2016). However AMPs and

AMP-like genes in various species have also recently been implicated in non-

immune roles as regulators of sleep (Toda et al. 2019; Sinner et al. 2021), memory

(Barajas-azpeleta et al. 2018), and neurodegeneration (De Lorenzi et al. 2017;

Pineda and Burré 2017; Gosztyla et al. 2018; Lezi et al. 2018; Dominy et al. 2019) in

both flies and nematodes. 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.

For instance, Diptericins are membrane-disrupting antimicrobial peptides of

flies (Diptera) that are required for defence against infection (Unckless et al. 2016;

Hanson, Dostálová, et al. 2019). It was therefore surprising that the *D. melanogaster*

gene *Diptericin B (DptB)* affects memory processes (Barajas-azpeleta et al. 2018). In

this study, *DptB* derived from the fly fat body (analogous to the mammalian liver)

regulated the ability of the fly to form long-term memory associations (Barajas-

azpeleta et al. 2018). Another study in nematodes showed that an immune-induced

polypeptide (NLP-29) binds to a G-protein coupled receptor (NPR-12) triggering

neurodegeneration through activation of the NPR-12-dependent autophagy

pathway (Lezi et al. 2018). The two *Drosophila* AMP-like effectors *GNBP-like3* and

IBIN have also been shown to affect neuronal processes derived from expression

within the nervous system (Barajas-azpeleta et al. 2018; Ebrahim et al. 2021). In

humans, the *Cathelicidin* gene encodes the AMP LL-37, which is implicated in glia-

mediated neuroinflammation and Alzheimer's disease (Lee et al. 2015; De Lorenzi et

al. 2017), alongside evidence of Alzheimer's as being stimulated by pathogen-

derived inflammation (Dominy et al. 2019). Thus, immune effectors best known for

their roles in the systemic immune response can have surprising interactions with

host neurology, derived either from expression within neuronal tissue or through

production via immune-responsive tissue.

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

melanogaster that we named *Baramicin A* (*BaraA*) (Hanson et al. 2020). 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 (Gerdol et al. 2020; Hanson and Lemaitre

2020). 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"; this tandem repeat structure has also been

found in two other AMPs of flies and bees (Casteels-Josson et al. 1993; Hanson et al.

2016). 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 (Hanson et al. 2020; Huang et al. 2020). The remaining *Baramicin*

domains encoding IM22 and IM24 remain uncharacterized. Curiously, *BaraA*

deficient flies also display an erect wing behavioural phenotype upon infection,

suggesting that *BaraA* could have additional roles beyond immunity (Hanson et al.

2020).

In this study, we describe the evolution of the immune-induced *BaraA* locus.

We then characterize two other *Baramicin* genes in the genome of *D. melanogaster*

(*BaraB* and *BaraC)*, providing insight on the function of each *Baramicin* domain.

Surprisingly, only *BaraA* is immune-induced, while *BaraB* and *BaraC* are enriched in

the nervous system. Moreover independent *Baramicin*s in other *Drosophila* have

convergently evolved to resemble *BaraC*, both in expression and gene structure. We

resolved the history of *Baramicin* genomic translocations, revealing properties of

each protein domain. We suggest that distinct *Baramicin* domains perform different

functions with either host protein targets or antimicrobial activity. By characterizing

the distinct roles of sub-peptides in an AMP gene, we provide a case study for how

other polypeptide AMP-encoding genes (such as fly *DptB* or human *Cathelicidin*)

could play dual roles in both immune and non-immune processes.

Results and Discussion

A duplication of the BaraA gene is present in some laboratory and wild strains

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 (Hanson et al. 2020). We recently

found that *BaraA* contributes to the *Drosophila* defence against filamentous fungi

(Hanson et al. 2020). 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 assembly, 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 close relatives such as *Drosophila simulans*

and *Drosophila sechellia*. And third: this duplication is not fixed in laboratory (**Table**

S1) or wild flies (below).

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. The PCR amplicon used to detect presence of the *BaraA* duplication event, and the region in the DGRP of unknown variant calls correlated with the duplication are annotated (detailed in Fig. S1).

The *Drosophila* Genetic Reference Panel (DGRP) is a genome-sequenced

collection of wild-caught flies from the USA (Mackay et al. 2012). As the *D.*

melanogaster R6 genome assembly encodes two copies of *BaraA*, we reasoned that

mapping the genomes of DGRP strains with variable copy number to this reference

genome would result in a failure to call genetic variants ("call = unknown") in the

BaraA gene region. Indeed, a sharp spike in unknown variant calls occurs just

upstream of *BaraA2* in the region that is identical to *BaraA1* (**Fig.** S1A and predictive

region in **Fig.** 1B). We performed a PCR-based screen of 132 DGRP strains using

primers specific to the duplication (PCR amplicon in **Fig.** 1B), finding 18/132 flies

were PCR-positive for the duplication (~14%). Next, we used Pearson's correlation

analysis to ask if genetic variant status (annotated or unknown) correlated with

PCR-positive genotypes from our screen. We recovered a significant correlation

between *BaraA* PCR status and a string of nine genetic variants from

2R_9293471_SNP to 2R_9293576_SNP (Pearson's correlation: $p < 5e^{-3}$ at all nine

sites). Specifically, flies with annotated alleles were always PCR-negative (53/53),

while 17/18 PCR-positive lines had unknown annotations throughout these nine

sites. However 61/114 DGRP strains had unknown calls despite also being PCR-

negative for the duplication. Thus, unknown call status is an imperfect but

informative predictor of the duplication event. Finally we asked if *BaraA* copy

number might inform on infection outcome in data from Wang et al. (Wang et al.

2017). Agreeing with an antifungal role for *BaraA*, we recovered striking

correlations between these same nine variant sites and susceptibility to infection by

Metarhizium anisopliae fungi (.09 < Pearson's r < .16, and .03 < p-value < .10;

supplementary information and supplementary data file 1). Thus, considering

variation at the *BaraA* locus can improve interpretation of DGRP responses to

infection.

Here we annotate *BaraA* copy number in both lab strains and wild-caught

flies. Given this region's poor resolution, cryptic SNPs or indels could have

interfered with our PCR assay. Nevertheless, we reveal an unusual pattern in the

DGRP that provides insight into how *BaraA* copy number seemingly affects

antifungal defence. Importantly, our results highlight how lack of information (i.e.

unknown variant status) can have predictive value. It will be important to consider

BaraA copy number in infection studies, or perhaps even behavioural responses

where AMP genes have previously been implicated (Barajas-azpeleta et al. 2018;

Hanson et al. 2020; Kobler et al. 2020; Ebrahim et al. 2021).

Baramicin A is an ancestral immune effector with convergent polymorphisms

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

BLAST, we recovered *BaraA*-like genes encoding each Baramicin peptide (IM24,

IM10-like, and IM22) across the genus *Drosophila* and in the outgroup

Scaptodrosophila lebanonensis. We next performed infection experiments to confirm

that these *BaraA*-like genes were immune-inducible. We infected the diverse species

D. melanogaster, *D. pseudoobscura*, *D. willistoni*, *D. virilis*, and *D. neotesteacea* (last

common ancestor ∼50mya (Kumar et al. 2017)) with *Micrococcus luteus* and

Candida albicans, two microbes that stimulate the Toll pathway (**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). The predominant peptide

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

IM13, which can inhibit fungal growth in vitro (Hanson et al. 2020).

Antimicrobial peptides can display polymorphisms found in different species,

suggesting selective pressure (e.g. balancing selection) that favours one allele or the

other in a context-dependent manner. Such polymorphisms are commonly found in

Dipteran AMPs (Unckless and Lazzaro 2016; Chapman et al. 2019; Hanson,

Lemaitre, et al. 2019). We found that the 23-residue IM10-like peptides of *Baramicin*

genes display signatures of convergent evolution, similar to other fly AMPs (**Fig.** S2

and supplementary information). Of particular note, an [6]RPXR[9] motif universally

encodes aspartate (D) or glycine (G) at residue 8, which has convergently evolved

multiple times (**Fig.** S2C). Future studies of these peptides should incorporate

variation of IM10-like peptide residues into activity assays and interpretations of

host-pathogen dynamics.

Figure 2: The ancestral *BaraA* gene was immune-induced. A) Cladogram of species used in B-F. B-F) Expression of *BomBc3* control genes (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.

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

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 (a summary of the *Baramicin* loci is shown later). In the *D. melanogaster* reference genome, these paralogous *Baramicin* genes are united by

the presence of the IM24 domain (**Fig. 3**A). In the case of *BaraB*, we additionally

recovered a frameshift mutation (2R_4821599_INS) causing a premature stop

segregating in the DGRP leading to the loss of IM13 and IM22 relative to the *BaraA*

gene structure (**Fig. 3**A); this truncation is present in the Dmel_R6 genome

assembly, but many DGRP strains encode a CDS with either a standard (e.g.

DGRP38) or extended (e.g. DGRP101) IM22 domain (a DGRP *BaraB* alignment is

provided in supplementary data file 2). Moreover, in contrast to BaraA, the initial

IM10-like peptide of BaraB no longer follows a furin cleavage site (**Fig. 3**A), and

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 (Krogh et al. 2001)), and

thus lacks both the IM10-like peptides and IM22 (**Fig. 3**A).

BaraA is strongly induced following microbial challenge, being

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

Deficiency (Imd) pathway (Hanson et al. 2020; Huang et al. 2020). 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. 3**B and **Fig.** S3A-B). However *BaraC* levels were reduced in

spz^{rm7} mutants regardless of treatment (cumulative data in **Fig.** S3C, p = .005),

suggesting that *BaraC* basal expression is affected by Toll signalling. We next

generated a novel time course of development from egg to adult to monitor the

expression of the three *Baramicin* genes. We found that expression of all genes

increased over development and reached their highest level in young adults (**Fig.**

3C). 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 L3 larval stage and pupal stage.

Figure 3: 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 relies on Toll signalling (Fig. S3C). 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 (Davie et al. 2018).

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.

Dmel\BaraB 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 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. The *ΔBaraB^{LC1}* and *ΔBaraB^{LC4}* mutations differ in their ultimate effect,

as *ΔBaraB^{LC1}* is an incidental insertion of the DsRed cassette in the promoter of the

gene. This disruption reduces gene expression, resulting in a hypomorph state (**Fig.**

S4A-B). The *ΔBaraB^{LC4}* mutation however deletes the entire locus, leading to *BaraB*

null flies (**Fig. S4**A). We further introgressed both mutations into the DrosDel

isogenic background (referred to as *iso*) for seven generations. *ΔBaraB^{LC4}*

homozygotes are lethal during larval development, whereas the hypomorphic

ΔBaraB^{LC1} flies allow for homozygous adults to emerge (**Fig. S4**C). Thus we used

ΔBaraB^{LC1} for experiments involving adults. Isogenization was performed as

described in Ferreira et al. (Ferreira et al. 2014). We assessed *ΔBaraB^{LC1}* mutant

viability using crosses between *ΔBaraB^{LC1}*/CyO heterozygous females and *ΔBaraB^{LC1}*

homozygous males. Under mendelian ratios of inheritance, this cross is expected to

result in a 1:1 ratio of *ΔBaraB^{LC1}*/CyO and *ΔBaraB^{LC1}* homozygous progeny.

However, *BaraB* deficient flies showed reduced viability using both mutations

independent of genetic background (**Fig. S4**C). This reduced viability was

exacerbated by rearing at 29°C, reaching a lethality rate over 50% (**Fig. 3**D). 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. S4**D-G), agreeing with a role for

BaraB in larvae/pupae previously suggested by increased expression at this stage.

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

FBrf0220532 and e.g. in **Fig. 3**E), where the wings were stuck in a shrivelled state

for the remainder of the fly's lifespan. However, a plurality of *ΔBaraB^{LC1}*

homozygotes successfully emerged, and unlike their siblings, had no immediate

morphological or locomotory defects. The lifespan of morphologically normal *iso*

ΔBaraB^{LC1} adults is nevertheless significantly shorter compared to wild-type flies

and *iso ΔBaraB^{LC1}/CyO* siblings (**Fig. S4**H). 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, χ² p < .001) and 29°C (n = 63, χ² p < .001) (**Fig. S4**I).

These data demonstrate a significant consequence of *BaraB* disruption 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 hypomorph-like *ΔBaraB^{LC1}* adults (either

severe defects or generally healthy) suggests *BaraB* is involved in passing some

checkpoint during larval/pupal development. Flies deficient for *BaraB* are more

likely to fail at this developmental checkpoint, resulting in either lethality or

developmental defects.

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

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 (Neely et al. 2010)*. 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. 3**E, **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. S5**A) (Leader et al. 2018). However *BaraC* is also highly enriched in

the hindgut and rectal pads, pointing to a complex expression pattern (Hammonds

et al. 2013; Leader et al. 2018). We next searched FlyBrainAtlas (Davie et al. 2018)

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. 3**F).

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. S5**B). 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.

Extensive genomic turnover of the Baramicin gene family

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.** S2). 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. 3**A). These two

Baramicins are now enriched in the nervous system (**Fig. 3**E-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*, nervous system expression is evidenced

by a clear overlap with *Repo*-expressing cells.

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. 4**A). 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. 4**B). 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. 4**C). On the other hand, the *Dmel\BaraC*

gene comes from an ancient duplication restricted to the subgenus Sophophora, and

Dmel\BaraB resulted from a more recent duplication found only in the

Melanogaster group (**Fig. 4**B).

Figure 4: *Baramicin* evolutionary history. A) Detailed 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. S6. 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).

390   This genomic synteny analysis revealed a striking observation: the *D. willistoni* gene *Dwil\GK10648* is syntenic with the *Dmel\BaraC* locus (**Fig. 4**A), yet it is immune-induced (**Fig.** 2D) and retains a *BaraA*-like gene structure (**Fig. 4**C). Meanwhile, the other *D. willistoni Baramicin Dwil\GK10645* is found at the locus syntenic with *BaraA*, 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. 4**C). 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. S6**A-C). Given the glial expression of *Dmel\BaraC,* we reasoned that the heads of adult flies (rich in nerve tissue) 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. S6**D). 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. S6**E-F).

413   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. 4**C. 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

421   genes, which are truncated and delete both IM10-like and IM22 domains, have also

422   lost immune function.

424   ***Evolution of IM24 in lineage-specific fashions***

425   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 a recently described

antifungal role for IM10-like peptides (Hanson et al. 2020). 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.

433   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 statistical approaches

(including Likelihood (FEL), Bayesian (FUBAR), and Count-based (SLAC) analyses)

using the HyPhy package implemented in Datamonkey.org, (Delport et al. 2010)

with separate codon alignments of *BaraA, BaraB,* or *BaraC* IM24 domains beginning

at their conserved Q[1] starting residue. We collected additional genomic sequence

data from recently-sequenced fly species (Kim et al. 2021) to better inform on the

sequence evolution of these genes and loci. We employed analyses of each lineage

using locus-specific alignments (e.g. genes at the *stum* locus in **Fig. 4**B were all

analyzed together). Globally, FEL, FUBAR, and SLAC site-specific analyses suggest

strong purifying selection across the IM24 domain (data in **supplementary data**

file 3), agreeing with the general protein structure of IM24 being broadly conserved.

However one site (residue 29) was consistently highlighted as evolving under

positive selection using each type of statistical approach for those genes located at

the Sophophora *ATP8A* locus (*BaraA* genes and *Dwil\GK10645*: p-adj < .05; **Fig. 5**A).

This site is universally Proline in *Baramicin* genes located at the stum locus (*BaraC-*

like), but is variable in both the *BaraA* and *BaraB* lineages (**Fig. 5**A). We also note

Figure 5: *BaraB* and IM24 rapid evolution. A) Evolution of the signal peptide and core IM24 domain. Residue highlighting indicates agreement with *Dmel\BaraB*. Arrows indicate site 29 and the *D. melanogaster* [40]HHASSPAD[48] domain. Insertion events in *D. yakuba* and *D. sechellia BaraB* are denoted as XX to save space. The *D. sechellia* signal peptide is predicted to remain functional (SignalP 5.0). The cladogram on the left shows genomic relatedness (by speciation and locus) independent of sequence similarity. Background colouring is included to show birth of novel *Baramicin* loci/lineages. B) Proposed timeframe for gain of novel *BaraB* function. The *D. erecta BaraB* gene is pseudogenized, and the *D. yakuba* gene is not immune-induced and encodes a 9-residue insertion in the IM24 peptide bordering the HHASSPAD domain (see A). However the *BaraB* genes of *D. suzukii*, and both *D. mauritiana* and *D. sechellia* remain inducible by infection, while the *BaraB* genes of *D. simulans* and *D. melanogaster* are not, and are expressed at very low levels (Fig. S8). This pattern suggests that *BaraB* of *D. melanogaster* (and *D. simulans*) acquired its non-immune role only recently, and is correlated with the loss of the *BaraB* signal peptide. Speciation timeframes adapted from Timetree.org (Kumar et al. 2017).

that two sites on either side of site 29 (site 27 and site 31) similarly diverge by

lineage in an otherwise highly conserved region of the IM24 domain. FUBAR

analysis (but not FEL or SLAC) also found evidence of positive selection at site 31 (p-

adj = .026), suggesting this neighbouring site could also be evolving in a non-random

fashion. Similar analyses of the *BaraB* and *stum* loci *Baramicins* did not find evidence

of site-specific positive selection.

We next assessed the potential for diversifying selection across the

phylogeny using two branch-site methods (aBSREL and BUSTED (Murrell et al.

2015)). Both branch-site analyses found evidence of episodic diversifying selection

in different lineages. For the *ATP8A* locus *Baramicins (BaraA* genes and

Dwil\GK10645), BUSTED whole-phylogeny analysis found evidence of diversifying

selection in at least one branch across the phylogeny (p-adj = .008). aBSREL analysis

also finds evidence of diversifying selection specifically at the node delineating the

Willistoni group from other Sophophora (**Fig.** S7). This node corresponds to the

parallel and opposite evolution of BaraA-like and BaraC-like protein structures at

this locus in *D. melanogaster* compared to *D. willistoni* (**Fig. 4**C), indicating both gene

structure and sequence evolved rapidly in these branches. Finally one other string of

residues is also striking: a specific motif with lineage-restricted patterns occurs at

sites 40-48, numbered according to the Q^1 starting residue. In *Dmel\BaraB*, this

motif encodes the residues ^{40}HHASSPAD^{48}. The three C-terminal residues of this

motif are diagnostic for each gene lineage (*BaraA, BaraB,* and *BaraC* have RGE, PXE,

or (S/N)GQ respectively; **Fig. 5**A). We also recovered a signature of diversifying

selection in the stum locus *Baramicin* gene of *Drosophila paulistorum* using recent

genomic sequence for strains L06 and L12 (see (Kim et al. 2021) and supplementary

information), suggesting population-level data may reveal additional sites of

interest.

Globally, *Baramicin* IM24 peptides have experienced positive selection. Site-

specific analyses highlight residue 29 in the *ATP8A* locus lineage. We further found

evidence that, alongside major structural changes specific to gene lineages, the IM24

sequence itself evolved under diversifying selection. Thus, not only are IM10-like

and IM22 peptides independently lost in *Dmel\BaraC* and *Dwil\GK10645*, alongside

parallel loss of immune induction, but their IM24 domains also evolved rapidly

following the speciation event distinguishing these lineages. Another 8-residue

motif encoding "HHASSPAD" in Dmel\BaraB is diagnostic of *Baramicin* lineages. We

could not generate a reasonable model of the IM24 peptide conformation using

Phyre2 (Kelley et al. 2015), QUARK, or TASSER protein modelling methodologies

(Zhang et al. 2016). However the pattern of residues at site 29 and neighbouring

residues at site 27 and site 31 may suggest this region has some importance in

interactions with targets of IM24. The Dmel\BaraB HHASSPAD motif also shows

striking patterns in different gene lineages, though we did not find evidence of

positive selection at this motif.

A timeframe for BaraB neofunctionalization

Selection analyses support the notion that IM24 evolves rapidly in different

lineages. One other striking feature of the Dmel\BaraB protein is the absence of a

signal peptide structure (SignalP 5.0 (Almagro Armenteros et al. 2019)). Signal

peptide sequence is conserved in all *Baramicin* lineages, except in *BaraB* of *D.*

melanogaster and also *D. simulans* (last common ancestor 5.9mya (Kumar et al.

2017)); these species encode a conserved region of parallel length (**Fig.** 5A). 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 an insertion event

(**Fig.** 5A), but is still predicted to enable protein secretion (SignalP 5.0). We also

previously noted that a genetic variant truncating the *BaraB* CDS is segregating in

wild *D. melanogaster* (Fig. 3A and supplementary data file 2). However we

recovered only full-length *Baramicin* gene structures encoding IM24, IM10-like

peptides, and IM22 in *BaraB* orthologues of other species (except *D. erecta* where

the *BaraB* orthologue appears pseudogenized by the loss of the *BaraB* start codon

and multiple indel events).

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

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

complete development of hybrid inviability, or reflects incomplete lineage sorting of

this locus in the Melanogaster species complex. In either scenario, two major events

affect the *D. melanogaster* BaraB protein structure: i) loss of signal peptide

sequence, and ii) premature stop variants truncating the precursor protein. Patterns

of residue conservation at IM24 site 29 or in the BaraB [40]HHASSPAD[48] domain may

also determine different species' *BaraB* gene function. We were curious if any of

these events correlated with the loss of an immune role, presumably alongside

neofunctionalization of *BaraB* for its specific role in the nervous system. To this end,

we designed qPCR assays for *Baramicin* genes in phylogenetically diverse members

of the Melanogaster species group including *D. suzukii, D. yakuba, D. mauritiana, D.*

sechellia, and *D. simulans* (last common ancestor 27.2mya (Kumar et al. 2017)). We

then infected these flies with *M. luteus* bacteria, known to activate the Toll pathway.

We found that the *BaraB* orthologues of *D. suzukii*, *D. mauritiana* and *D. sechellia* all

remain immune-induced, indicating that the ancestral *BaraB* gene was still immune-

regulated following its genomic translocation (**Fig.** 5B). However like *Dmel\BaraB*,

importantly the *BaraB* gene of *D. simulans* was not immune-induced and is

expressed at a very low level despite direct sister species having immune-induced

BaraB genes.

These observations provide a precise phylogenetic timeframe confirming

that the last point where the *Dmel\BaraB* lineage encoded a functional signal

peptide was in the last common ancestor of the Melanogaster species complex

5.9mya. The *D. melanogaster* and *D. simulans BaraB* genes appear to have lost

immune regulation only recently, as *BaraB* is robustly expressed and immune-

induced in the Melanogaster sister species *D. mauritiana* and *D. sechellia*. Taken

together, we demonstrate not only that this AMP-encoding gene has repeatedly

evolved non-immune roles in multiple species, but that one such event unfolded

very recently in the Melanogaster species complex with significant implications on

fitness during development. We therefore characterize the precise timeframe

wherein an AMP-encoding gene transitioned to perform a novel function in the

nervous system, and highlight key sequence and structural changes correlated with

this neofunctionalization event.

Conclusion and Future Directions

The *Baramicin* gene family has undergone a varied history of genomic duplication, translocation, and complex sequence evolution. The *BaraA* duplication may be especially relevant to immunity studies given it is variable in common lab stocks. Our initial exploration using data from a previous DGRP infection screen suggests that *BaraA* copy number can explain a great deal of DGRP strain response to infection (also see supplementary information). As *BaraA* underlies a sexually dimorphic "erect wing" response to infection (Hanson et al. 2020), and other short immune peptides have recently been implicated in behavioural regulation (Barajas-azpeleta et al. 2018; Ebrahim et al. 2021; Sinner et al. 2021), *BaraA* copy number variation may be an important consideration beyond immune function.

The ancestral *BaraA*-like gene structure is comprised of multiple distinct peptide domains (i.e. IM24, IM10-like peptides, IM22). Two recent studies suggest the *BaraA* gene (Huang et al. 2020) and specifically the IM10-like peptides have antifungal properties (Hanson et al. 2020). We found a striking convergent polymorphism in the IM10-like peptides (**Fig.** S2) similar to polymorphisms found in other AMPs that can have drastic effects on host-pathogen interactions (Unckless et al. 2016). We also discovered multiple non-immune *Baramicin* paralogs in various *Drosophila* species that have convergently lost IM10-like peptides, reinforcing a role for the IM10-like peptides specifically in the immune response. Development of these peptides or other AMPs as therapeutics should consider the consequences of such polymorphisms on antimicrobial activity.

The IM24 domain unites the *Baramicin* gene family. It was therefore surprising that multiple *Baramicin* genes retain this domain, but have lost immune induction. In the case of *D. melanogaster BaraB* and *BaraC* we found enrichment in the nervous system, where *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 in non-neural tissues including the fat body (*c564-Gal4*), hemocytes (*hml-Gal4*), the gut (esg-Gal4), malpighian tubules (MyO-Gal4), the wing disc (*nubbin-Gal4*), and in myocytes (*mef2-*

gal4) to no effect. We also screened neural drivers specific for glia (*Repo-Gal4*),

motor neurons (*D42-, VGMN-,* and *OK6-Gal4*), and a recently-made *BaraA-Gal4*

driver that is expressed in the larval ventral nervous system (Hanson et al. 2020).

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 various options including tissue

overlapping in expression with *BaraA*. Future study will benefit from systematically

knocking down *BaraB* in neuronal subtypes, and perhaps exploring *BaraB* evolution

in the Melanogaster species complex.

Adding to the complex patterns in IM24 evolution and gene function, the

cellular location of each Baramicin peptide is unclear. The Dmel\BaraB protein has

lost the otherwise conserved signal peptide structure of the *Baramicin* gene family, a

mutation that prevents secretion. Certainly *BaraA* IM24 is secreted, as this peptide

was first described for its robust extracellular signature as a component in immune-

induced hemolymph (Levy et al. 2004). Likewise, *Dmel\BaraC* bears a couple key

signatures indicating it is likely to reach the cell membrane: i) it encodes a signal

peptide that should enable entry into the secretory pathway, and ii) its IM24 domain

is preceded by an "SA" dipeptidyl peptidase site. XA or XP motifs are cleaved by

dipeptidyl peptidases at the cell membrane to maturate secreted peptides (Barrett

et al. 2004), and indeed XA or XP motifs are seen preceding the Q^1 residue in all

IM24 domains of BaraA and BaraC proteins (**Fig. 5**A), and an "SP" motif precedes

each of the *D. melanogaster* IM10-like peptides (Hanson et al. 2020). Given IM24

conservation in genes with totally different expression profiles, the general IM24

protein is not strictly tied to immunity. In this regard, AMPs and neuropeptides

share many features including: small size, cationic net charge, and amphipathicity

(Brogden 2005). Indeed Dmel\BaraA IM24 is both relatively short (96 AA) and

cationic (+2.4 at pH=7). However, while IM24 sequence is broadly conserved (**Fig.**

5A), changes present in Dmel\BaraC make it strikingly anionic by comparison: the

net charge of the putative extracellular part is -4.6 at pH=7 assuming the same N-

terminal pGlu modification found in BaraA (Krogh et al. 2001). The glia-expressed

Dmel\BaraC encodes a transmembrane tail that is found throughout the

Melanogaster and Obscura groups. This domain should enable insertion into either

the endogenous cell membrane, or the membrane of a neighbouring cell. The latter

possibility is intriguing, as glia envelope and regulate neurons. Discovering the

binding partner(s) of any of *Baramicin* IM24 proteins should be exciting, as this will

highlight a protein scaffold with either immune and/or neural functional domains.

While *Baramicins* are restricted to drosophilids, they are not the only AMP

gene family united by a domain not necessarily functioning in the immune response.

One human AMP recently implicated in chronic neuroinflammatory disease is the

Cathelicidin LL-37 (Lee et al. 2015; De Lorenzi et al. 2017; Moir et al. 2018). The

Cathelicidin gene family is unified by its N-terminal "Cathelin" domain, however this

region has no antimicrobial activity in vitro (Zanetti 2005). 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 (Barajas-azpeleta et al. 2018;

Gosztyla et al. 2018; Lezi et al. 2018; Masuzzo et al. 2019; Toda et al. 2019; Ebrahim

et al. 2021; Sinner et al. 2021). The *Baramicins* add to this growing list of immune-

neural interactions by providing an evolutionary case study demonstrating not all

peptides 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. Future studies on AMPs relations to 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.

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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were graciously provided by Steven Wasserman and generated by Lianne Cohen,
who we also thank for their critical involvement in characterizing *Baramicin A*.

Materials and Methods

667
DGRP population screening and bioinformatics analyses
Genomic sequence data were downloaded from GenBank default reference
assemblies and Kim et al. (Kim et al. 2021), and DGRP sequence data from
http://dgrp2.gnets.ncsu.edu/ (Mackay et al. 2012). Sequence comparisons and
alignment figures were prepared using Geneious R10 (Kearse et al. 2012), 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 (Delport et al. 2010). Codon alignments of the IM24 domain used
in **Fig. 5**A is included as a .fasta file in **supplementary data file 3** 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 4. 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 and reported data are pooled results. 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.
698
699 ***Infection experiments***
700   Infection experiments and qPCR analyses were performed as previously
701 described (Hanson, Dostálová, et al. 2019). Additional details are available in the
702 supplementary information.
703

Figure captions

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. The PCR amplicon used to detect presence of the *BaraA* duplication event, and the region in the DGRP of unknown variant calls correlated with the duplication are annotated (detailed in Fig. S1).

Figure 2: The ancestral *BaraA* gene was immune-induced. A) Cladogram of species used in B-F. **B-F)** Expression of *BomBc3* control genes (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.

Figure 3: 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 relies on Toll signalling (**Fig.** S3C). **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 (Davie et al. 2018).

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D. simulans and *D. melanogaster* are not, and are expressed at very low levels (Fig.
S8). This pattern suggests that *BaraB* of *D. melanogaster* (and *D. simulans*) acquired
its non-immune role only recently, and is correlated with the loss of the *BaraB* signal
peptide. Speciation timeframes adapted from Timetree.org (Kumar et al. 2017).
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Supplementary figures and tables

Figure S1: The *BaraA* locus is poorly resolved in DGRP genome assemblies. A)
The number of unknown variant calls rises immediately after the start of the
identical promoter region shared by *BaraA1* and *BaraA2,* stabilizing at ~125/205
DGRP lines. Approaching the limits of Illumina resolution (~300bp), a second spike
in unknown calls stabilizes at ~174/205 lines corresponding to the limits of 454
sequencing (~450bp), after which unknown call frequency seems more randomly
distributed. **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 equally to the two identical *BaraA* genes were
discarded as non-specific.

Genotype	Inferred copy #	Gtype	Junction PCR band	CG30059 band
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 six different lab stocks including *Oregon R* (*OR-R*), *iso DrosDel* (*iso w^{1118}*), *Exelexis*, a *w^{1118}* line from the VDRC, a *yellow white* (*yw*) line used previously by our group, and *Canton S*. All samples were additionally screened for *CG30059* as a DNA extraction positive control.

Figure S2: 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.** S2E), suggesting the ancestral state encoded D, and G was
derived at least twice. **D)** 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
(Hanson et al. 2020). In subgenus Drosophila flies, the mature IM22 peptide begins
immediately following the furin cleavage site. **E)** Presentation of the residue 8 G/D
polymorphism in all IM10-like peptides (i.e. IM10, IM12, IM13) of Melanogaster
group flies. 41/48 encode an Aspartic acid, while 7/48 encode a Glycine. However,
in the Quinaria species group, only Glycine residues are observed (**Fig.** S2A),
suggesting G/D frequency is lineage-specific.
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Figure S3: 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 S4: *BaraB* **mutation is highly deleterious and penetrance of effect depends on genetic background. A)** Diagram of *BaraB* mutant loci. The *ΔBaraB^{LC1}* mutation encodes an unintended insertion in the *BaraB* promoter, and both a SNP in the promoter and frameshift in protein product (asterisks). The *ΔBaraB^{LC4}* mutation encodes the intended knock-in of a DsRed cassette in place of the *BaraB* gene producing a full gene knockout. **B)** *ΔBaraB^{LC1}* is a *BaraB* hypomorph. Under normal

qPCR assay conditions, *BaraB* expression is not detected. However using highly
concentrated cDNA beyond our assay's valid range (100ng/10μL reaction), we could
detect *BaraB* transcript in *ΔBaraB^{LC1}* flies. Quantification shown here is intended
only to show that *BaraB* transcript can be recovered from *ΔBaraB^{LC1}* homozygotes,
and to give a sense of relative whole-fly expression levels. **C)** 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 *ΔBaraB^{LC4}*/CyO-GFP vials (<5% of L3
larvae), but these larvae never successfully eclosed. **D)** Aborted pupae (yellow
arrows) are a common occurrence in *ΔBaraB* vials, and sometimes contain fully-
developed adults that simply never eclosed. In **E-G:** ns = not significant, * = p < .05,
*** p = < .001. **E)** 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). **F)**
Frequency of successfully eclosing adults using *BaraB^{LC4}*/CyO-GFP flies. **G)**
Frequency of successfully eclosing adults using *BaraB^{LC1}*/CyO-GFP flies. **H)** *BaraB*
mutation negatively affects lifespan. *iso ΔBaraB^{LC1}* homozygotes suffer reduced
lifespan even relative to their *iso ΔBaraB^{LC1}/CyO* siblings. By comparison, *iso ΔBaraA*
flies that used the same vector for mutant generation live as wild-type. ATM[8] flies
suffer precocious neurodegeneration and are included as short-lived controls
(Petersen et al. 2013). **I)** *ΔBaraB^{LC1}* crossed to the genomic deficiency line (*Df(9063)*)
supports a partial-lethal effect of *BaraB* mutation.
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Parents and temperature	Offspring	Sex	# eclosed	χ^2	p-value
TRiP					
y1 v1; P{TRiP.HMJ23624}attP40/CyO Act-Gal4/CyO-GFP ; + 25℃	Act-Gal4 / CyO	m	26	25.687	**p < .001**
		f	30		
	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 ;; female 25℃	elav>Dcr2 ; +/CyO	m	67	10.037	**p < .02**
		f	62		
	elav>Dcr2 ; +/BaraB-IR	m	38		
		f	47		
y1 v1; P{TRiP.HMJ23624}attP40/CyO male elav-Gal4> ;; female 25℃	elav-Gal4; +/CyO	m	29	13.593	**p < .01**
		f	46		
	elav-Gal4 ; +/BaraB-IR	m	21		
		f	22		
_KK_					
P{KK112854}VIE-260B Act-Gal4/CyO-GFP ; + 25℃	Act-Gal4 ; +/CyO	m	27	45.187	**p < .001**
		f	55		
	Act-Gal4 > BaraB-IR{KK}	m	14		
		f	11		
P{KK112854}VIE-260B male elav>Dcr2 ;; female 25℃	elav>Dcr2 ; +/BaraB-IR	m	0	11.000	**p < .001**
		f	11		
P{KK112854}VIE-260B male elav-Gal4> ;; female 29℃	normal wing	m	0	87.766	**p < .001**
		f	0		
	nubbin-like wing	m	28		
		f	57		
P{KK112854}VIE-260B male elav-Gal4> ;; female 25℃	normal wing	m	37	32.133	**p < .001**
		f	47		
	nubbin-like wing	m	31		
		f	5		

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859 **Table S2: _BaraB_ RNAi summary statistics.** Crosses used either the TRiP or KK
860 _BaraB-IR_ lines, driven by either _Actin5C-Gal4_ or _elav-Gal4,_ sometimes including _UAS-_
861 _Dcr2_. Rearing at 29°C and inclusion of _UAS-Dcr2_ increases the strength of RNA
862 silencing.
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Figure S5: *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.
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Figure S6: 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.
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886 **Figure S7: Adaptive branch site relative-effects likelihood (aBSREL) analysis of**
887 **the Sophophora ATP8A locus (primarily *BaraA* genes) for episodic**
888 **diversifying selection.** One branch along the tree had a significant dN/dS
889 distinguishing Willistoni group *Baramicins* from *D. melanogaster* and relatives (p-
890 adj = .044).
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Figure S8: The *D. melanogaster BaraB* gene acquired its non-immune role only
recently. A) Phylogeny of the Melanogaster species group, with divergence times
from (Kumar et al. 2017). The presence of a functional signal peptide (Fig. 6A), and
the disruption of the *D. yakuba* IM24 peptide by an in-frame insertion is noted. A
summary of whether *BaraB* is an immune-induced orthologue (B-G) is annotated. **B-**
G) *Baramicin* expression data from Melanogaster group flies either unchallenged or
infected with *M. luteus*. *BaraB* is immune-induced in *D. suzukii* and *D. mauritiana*.
BaraB is also induced *D. sechellia* but not in the sister species *D. simulans*, nor in *D.*
melanogaster, which lack signal peptide structures. *Drosophila yakuba BaraB* is not
immune-induced (C), has an insertion event in its IM24 peptide (Fig. 6A), and its
sister species *D. erecta* has pseudogenized its *BaraB* orthologue (Fig. 6B), suggesting
pseudogenization may explain the lack of immune induction in *D. yakuba BaraB*.
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Figure S9: Variant call status at the *BaraA* locus predicts defence specifically
against fungal infection in data from Wang et al. (Wang et al. 2017). Marginal
and significant correlations (0.09 < |*rho*| < 0.16) were found between unknown
status and *BaraA* variant sites in defence against **A)** *Metarhizium anisopliae* fungal
infection (0.03 < p < 0.10, except males*2R_9293563_SNP p = 0.196), but not **B)**
Pseudomonas aeruginosa bacterial infection. Pearson's rho and p-values come from
Pearson's correlation matrix implemented in Prism 7. LT50 reflects the time taken
until 50% of flies perished, and so higher LT50 indicates longer survival. Example
variant site identifiers are given above each plot. Boxplots here show underlying
data for two representative sites split by sex and *BaraA* variant call status.
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