# *Extensive duplication and convergent evolution of an antimicrobial 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 [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 [17,18], memory [19], and

neurodegeneration [20–24] 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.

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51           For instance, Diptericins are membrane-disrupting antimicrobial peptides of

flies (Diptera) that are required for defence against infection [4,16,25]. It was

therefore surprising that the *D. melanogaster* gene *Diptericin B (DptB)* affects

memory processes [19]. 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 [19]. 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 [20]. 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 [19,26]. In humans, the *Cathelicidin* gene encodes the AMP LL-37,

which is implicated in glia-mediated neuroinflammation and Alzheimer's disease

[24,27], alongside evidence of Alzheimer's as being stimulated by pathogen-derived

inflammation [21]. 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.

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

*melanogaster* that we named *Baramicin A* (*BaraA*) [28]. 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"; this tandem repeat

structure has also been found in two other AMPs of flies and bees [15,29]. 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 [28,30]. 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 [28].

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*

100         The *D. melanogaster BaraA* gene encodes three key types of mature peptide

101     (**Fig.** 1A): one IM24 peptide, three IM10-like peptides, and one IM22 peptide that is

102     structurally related to the IM10-like peptides [28]. We recently found that *BaraA*

contributes to the *Drosophila* defence against filamentous fungi [28]. 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).

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

collection of wild-caught flies from the USA [31]. 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: $1e^{-4} < p < 5e^{-3}$ 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. [32]. Agreeing with an antifungal role for *BaraA*, we recovered

striking correlations between these same nine variant sites and susceptibility to

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 [19,26,28,33].

### Baramicin A is an ancestral immune effector with convergent polymorphisms

In *D. melanogaster, BaraA* is regulated by the Toll immune pathway [28,30]. 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 [34]) 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).

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

195  *BaraA* is strongly induced following microbial challenge, being

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

197 Deficiency (Imd) pathway [28,30]. We assayed the expression of *BaraB* and *BaraC* in

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

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

200 was induced upon infection regardless of microbial challenge (**Fig. 3**B and **Fig.** S3A-

201 B). However *BaraC* levels were reduced in *spz$^{rm7}$* mutants regardless of treatment

202 (cumulative data in **Fig.** S3C, p = .005), suggesting that *BaraC* basal expression is

203 affected by Toll signalling. We next generated a novel time course of development

204 from egg to adult to monitor the expression of the three *Baramicin* genes. We found

205 that expression of all genes increased over development and reached their highest

206 level in young adults (**Fig.** 3C). Of note, *BaraB* expression approached the lower limit

207 of our assay's detection sensitivity at early life stages. However *BaraB* was robustly

208 detected beginning at the pupal stage, indicating it is expressed during

209 metamorphosis. *BaraC* expression also increased markedly between the L3 larval

210 stage and pupal stage.

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

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

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

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

215 and are ultimately expressed at their highest levels in adults.

217 ***Dmel\BaraB is required in the nervous system over the course of development***

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

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

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

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

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

223 DsRed vector. The *ΔBaraB$^{LC1}$* and *ΔBaraB$^{LC4}$* mutations differ in their ultimate effect,

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

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

**S4**A-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. [38]. 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, $\chi^2$ p < .001) and 29°C

(n = 63, $\chi^2$ 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 [39]. 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 ( $\chi^2$ 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 ( $\chi^2$ 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) [40]. However *BaraC* is also highly enriched in the hindgut and
rectal pads, pointing to a complex expression pattern [40,41]. We next searched
FlyBrainAtlas ([http://scope.aertslab.org](http://scope.aertslab.org), [42]) 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).

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).

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

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

lost immune function.

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

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 [28]. 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.

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, [43] 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 [44] 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 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 [45]). 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 [44] 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 [46], QUARK, or TASSER protein modelling methodologies [47]. 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 [48]). Signal peptide sequence is conserved in all *Baramicin* lineages, except in *BaraB* of *D. melanogaster* and also *D. simulans* (last common ancestor 5.9mya [34]); 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 [48]). 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 [34]). 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 [28], and other short immune peptides have recently been implicated in behavioural regulation [18,19,26,33], *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 and specifically the IM10-like peptides have antifungal properties [28,30]. 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 [16]. 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 [28]. 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 [28,30,49]. 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 [50], 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 [28]. 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 [51]. 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 [37].

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 [24,27,52]. The *Cathelicidin* gene family is unified by its N-

terminal "Cathelin" domain, however this region has no antimicrobial activity in

vitro [53]. 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–

20,22,26,54]. 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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Steven Wasserman and generated by Lianne Cohen, who we also thank for their
critical involvement in characterizing *Baramicin A* [28].

# Materials and Methods

### *DGRP population screening and bioinformatics analyses*

Genomic sequence data were downloaded from GenBank default reference
assemblies and Kim et al. [44], and DGRP sequence data from
http://dgrp2.gnets.ncsu.edu/ [31]. Sequence comparisons and alignment figures
were prepared using Geneious R10 [55], 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 [43]. 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.
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***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.
621
***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) [56]. Flies
were pricked in the thorax as described in [25].
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 5**. Gene expression differences were analyzed using the PFAFFL method [57].
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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## 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 $\Delta BaraB^{LC1}$ 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 [42].

**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

688  (checked boxes) are shown in **Fig.** 2 and **Fig.** S6. The *Baramicin* loci in *D. willistoni*
689  are syntenic with *D. melanogaster*, but evolved in a vice versa fashion (purple
690  arrow). The *D. virilis Baramicins GJ21309* and *GJ25897* are direct sister genes (100%
691  identity at N-terminus).
692
**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 [34].
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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.

**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 [28]. 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.

**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

756  the unchallenged condition (UC) or upon infection with *C. albicans* (**Fig.** 3B) or *M.*
757  *luteus* (**Fig.** S4B). Data here are pooled for *iso* wild type or *iso spz^rm7* flies without
758  regard for infection treatment (student's t, p = .005).
759
**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 ($\chi^2$, 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 [58].
**I)** *ΔBaraB^LC1* crossed to the genomic deficiency line (*Df(9063)*) supports a partial-
lethal effect of *BaraB* mutation.
789
790  **Table S2: *BaraB* RNAi summary statistics.** Crosses used either the TRiP or KK
791  *BaraB-IR* lines, driven by either *Actin5C-Gal4* or *elav-Gal4,* sometimes including *UAS-*
792  *Dcr2*. Rearing at 29°C and inclusion of *UAS-Dcr2* increases the strength of RNA
793  silencing.
794
**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.
803
**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.
813
814 **Figure S7: Adaptive branch site relative-effects likelihood (aBSREL) analysis of**
815 **the Sophophora ATP8A locus (primarily *BaraA* genes) for episodic**
816 **diversifying selection.** One branch along the tree had a significant dN/dS
817 distinguishing Willistoni group *Baramicins* from *D. melanogaster* and relatives (p-
818 adj = .044).
819
**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 [34]. 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.*
832
**Figure S9: Variant call status at the *BaraA* locus predicts defence specifically**
**against fungal infection in data from Wang et al. [32].** 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.
843

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1025

**Figure 1**

**Figure 3**

**Figure 5**

# A

**5' of _BaraA2_**

# B

UCSC Genome Browser on D. melanogaster Apr. 2006 (BDGP R5/dm3) Assembly

**Figure S2**

**Figure S3**

**Figure S4**

**A**

Dmel_R6: PAN2 | Prom | BaraB | FANCI

ΔBaraB^LC1: DsRed SNP 10nt insertion

ΔBaraB^LC4

**B**

Relative expression (adults)

- OR-R
- w; ΔBaraB^LC1
- iso ΔBaraB^LC1
- iso ΔBaraB^LC1 Df{9063}

**C** ΔBaraB viability 25°C

- iso ΔBaraB^LC1/CyO — n = 448
- w; ΔBaraB^LC1/CyO — n = 89
- w; ΔBaraB^LC1/CyO-GFP — n = 283
- iso ΔBaraB^LC4/CyO — n = 38
- w; ΔBaraB^LC4/CyO — n = 123
- w; ΔBaraB^LC4/CyO-GFP — n = 136

% of emergents

- homoz. female
- homoz. male
- CyO female
- CyO male

**D** iso ΔBaraB^LC1 25°C aborted pupae

**E**

Frequency (%)

- ΔBaraB^LC1/CyO-GFP
- ΔBaraB^LC1 homoz.

S2 larvae (ns, n = 57), S3 larvae (*, n = 35)

**F**

Frequency (%)

- Failed
- Eclosed

ΔBaraB^LC4 (n = 6), ΔBaraB^LC4/CyO-GFP (n = 45), ***

**G**

Frequency (%)

- Failed
- Eclosed

ΔBaraB^LC1 (n = 51), ΔBaraB^LC1/CyO-GFP (n = 95), *

**H** iso ΔBaraB^LC1 lifespan 25°C

Percent survival vs. Time (days)

- iso w^1118 — n = 80
- iso ΔBaraA — n = 80, HR = +0.26, p = .118
- iso ΔBaraB^LC1 — n = 93, HR = +2.56, p < .001
- iso ΔBaraB^LC1/CyO — n = 120, HR = +1.98, p < .001
- ATM^8 — n = 39, HR = +4.32, p < .001

$n^{exp}$ = 2-3
N = 412
iso BaraB^LC1 vs. CyO
HR = +0.58, p < .001

**I** iso ΔBaraB^LC1 x Df(BaraB) viability

- ΔBaraB^LC1/CyO ♀
- ΔBaraB^LC1/CyO ♂
- Df()/ΔBaraB^LC1 ♀
- Df()/ΔBaraB^LC1 ♂

- Df(9063) - 25°C — n = 114
- Df(9063) - 29°C — n = 63

% of emergents

| 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 |

| Parents and temperature | Offspring | Sex | # eclosed | $\chi^2$ | p-value |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **TRiP** | | | | | |
| y1  v1; P{TRiP.HMJ23624}attP40/CyO Act-Gal4/CyO-GFP ; + 25°C | 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°C | 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°C | 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°C | 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°C | elav>Dcr2 ; +/BaraB-IR | m | 0 | 11.000 | **p < .001** |
| | | f | 11 | | |
| P{KK112854}VIE-260B male elav-Gal4> ;; female 29°C | 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°C | normal wing | m | 37 | 32.133 | **p < .001** |
| | | f | 47 | | |
| | nubbin-like wing | m | 31 | | |
| | | f | 5 | | |