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# Functional divergence of the *bag of marbles* gene in the *Drosophila melanogaster* species group

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## Abstract

The combination of recent advances in both genomic and gene editing technologies have opened up new possibilities for assessing the functional consequences and drivers of positive selection. In *Drosophila melanogaster,* a key germline stem cell differentiation factor, *bag of marbles* (*bam*) shows rapid bursts of amino acid fixations between its *D. melanogaster* and its sibling species *D. simulans*, but not in the outgroup species *D. ananassae*. We previously hypothesized that a genetic conflict with the maternally inherited, intracellular bacteria *W. pipientis* could be driving the adaptive evolution of *bam* as *W. pipientis* increases the fertility of a *bam* partial loss of function mutant. However, we have not been able to further test this hypothesis by assessing *bam* variation in other *Drosophila* lineages and their interactions with *W. pipientis* because *bam* function has not been examined in non-*melanogaster Drosophila* species. Since *bam* is rapidly evolving at the protein level, its function may not be conserved between species, and therefore different evolutionary pressures may be shaping *bam* in individual lineages. Here, we ask if *bam* is necessary for GSC daughter differentiation in five *Drosophila* species in the *melanogaster* species group that span approximately 15 million years of divergence and show different patterns of nucleotide sequence evolution at *bam*. We find that *bam* function is not fully conserved across these species, and that *bam* function may change on a relatively short time scale. Ultimately, we conclude that a simple gain in function as the germline stem cell differentiation factor alone does not explain our population genetic and functional genetic results we have observed. Our findings provide a foundation on which to explore the evolution of *bam* as a GSC differentiation factor and its interactions with *W. pipientis* in specific lineages.

## Introduction

In most sexually reproducing animals, egg and sperm production begins with the differentiation of germline stem cells. These germline stem cells (GSCs) can divide both to self-renew to maintain the germline and/or to produce daughter cells that differentiate to produce gametes [1]. The cellular processes of daughter cell differentiation and stem cell self-renewal are the most fundamental functions of stem cells and are therefore highly regulated and conserved. In the germline the mis-regulation of either of these processes leads to sterility [2]. However, many of the genes that control GSC maintenance and GSC daughter differentiation in *D. melanogaster* are rapidly evolving due to positive selection for amino acid diversification [3–5].

One such gene is *bag-of-marbles* (*bam*) which exhibits a rapid burst of amino acid substitutions between the sister species *D. melanogaster* and *D. simulans*, acts as the key switch for GSC daughter cell differentiation in *D. melanogaster* females, and is necessary for terminal differentiation of spermatogonia in males [3,6][7]. In females, *bam* is repressed in GSCs, and upon its expression promotes differentiation by binding to the protein product of *benign gonial cell neoplasm* (*bgcn)* as well as a series of other protein partners to repress the translation of self-renewal factors *nanos* and *eIF4a* [8,9]. The GSC daughter cell differentiates into a cystoblast, which then goes through four rounds of mitotic divisions while *bam* localizes to the fusome, a cellular structure that interconnects the resulting dividing cells that make up the cyst. In these cells, Bam functions with Bgcn to regulate mitotic synchrony [10]. Before meiosis begins, *bam* expression is repressed. In males, *bam* is expressed in GSCs and its expression

increases as differentiation progresses [7]. In early dividing spermatogonia, Bam protein

must reach a threshold to bind with partners Bgcn and *tumorous testis* (*tut*) to repress

*mei-P26* and switch the cellular program from proliferation to terminal differentiation to

begin meiosis [11]. After this switch, *bam* expression is rapidly repressed. Loss of *bam*

function in either sex daughter cell differentiation and results in the over-proliferation of

either GSCs in females or spermatogonia in males causing tumors and sterility [6]. The

intriguing observation that *bam* is both rapidly evolving due to positive selection and

functions as a switch for GSC daughter differentiation has led us to investigate what

could be driving its adaptive evolution [12].

Many genes involved in reproduction show signals of adaptive evolution and are

involved in forms of evolutionary conflict. In *Drosophila,* many genes that function in

later stages of reproduction (relative to GSC genes), such as in the female reproductive

tract and in seminal fluid are critical for fertility and fitness but also show signals of

adaptive evolution [13–18]. Combinations of population, quantitative, and functional

genetic studies have established that sexual selection and sexual conflicts both

between males and females and between males likely explain many of the signals of

adaptation in later stages of reproduction. However, the evolutionary pressures that

affect post-mating reproductive genes are not likely to affect GSC genes, as GSC genes

are expressed at the very first stages of gametogenesis [3,5]. However, there are other

conflicts in the germline that may shape the evolution of GSC genes. For example, the

GSC genes *piwi* and *fs(1)Yb* show signals of adaptive evolution in *D. melanogaster* and

play important roles in regulating transposable element expression in the germline

[5,19,20]. Additionally, natural variation in the GSC gene *Bruno* is associated with

tolerance to P-element activity [21]. Therefore, interactions with transposable elements

may drive the evolution of GSC genes involved in their regulation. However, *bam* has

no known role in regulating transposable elements and lacks any domains predicted to

bind DNA or RNA so it is unlikely that conflicts with transposable elements shape its

evolution.

We previously identified a genetic interaction between *bam* and the endosymbiotic,

maternally inherited, bacterium *W. pipientis* [22]. Infection with the *w*Mel strain of *W.*

*pipientis* partially rescued the fertility and cellular GSC daughter differentiation defects

of a *bam* partial loss-of-function mutant (hypomorph) in *D. melanogaster* females [12].

We also found evidence that the consequences of genetic divergence between *D.*

*melanogaster* and *D. simulans bam* only functionally affect females. A full copy of the *D.*

*simulans bam* expressed as a transgene in a *D. melanogaster bam* null background did

not fully complement female *D. melanogaster bam* function, but it did fully rescue male

*bam* function [12]. These two pieces of evidence, that *W. pipientis* rescues a *bam*

hypomorph in females, and that functional consequences of *bam* divergence between

*D. melanogaster* and *D. simulans* is female specific, are consistent with the possibility

that interactions between the *Drosophila* germline and *W. pipientis* drives positive

selection at *bam*. As *W. pipientis* utilizes female host cues such as actin formation in

order to infect the germline for its own propagation [23,24], *W. pipientis* may be in

conflict with its host for control of oogenesis [25]. Our lab sought to further test this

hypothesis by asking if other *Drosophila* species with known *W. pipientis* infection

histories within the time frame of those in *D. melanogaster* and *D. simulans* also show

evidence of positive selection at *bam* [26]. However, we reported that in *D. ananassae*

which is also infected with *W. pipientis*, there is no evidence of positive selection at *bam*

[26].

While the finding in *D. ananassae* that *bam* is not evolving under positive selection

despite the species being currently infected with *W. pipientis* seems to refute the

hypothesis that *W. pipientis* drives the adaptive evolution of *bam,* two notable caveats

must be considered. First, we do not know the entire *W. pipientis* infection history of a

lineage and therefore conflict between *bam* and *W. pipientis* may have occurred at any

time in that lineage. A signal of positive selection that we observe in a population

sample today may be the result of a *W. pipientis* infection in the past. Second, we do

not know if *bam* function is conserved between *D. melanogaster* and *D. ananassae*. Our

expectation that *W. pipientis* infection status should predict patterns of selection at *bam*

if *W. pipientis* drives *bam* evolution also assumes that *bam* function is conserved in the

lineages under comparison. However, although *bam* has predicted orthologs throughout

the *Drosophila* genus, there is reason to believe that *bam* function may not be

conserved. Across *Drosophila*, *bam* sequence is highly divergent, making it even

difficult to confidently align between *D. melanogaster* and *D. ananassae* [3].

Additionally, *bam* is predicted to be a novel gene to a dipteran lineage containing the

genus *Drosophila* and a few other closely related genera [27].

The *bam* sequence itself has many properties of novel genes: it does not contain any

known DNA or RNA binding motifs, it binds with multiple protein partners, it contains

disordered regions, and it is expressed in a tight spatiotemporal manner [28–32]. Novel

genes that become fixed often gain critical roles in conserved gene networks which may

drive their evolution by providing functional flexibility for conserved processes [30]. It is

possible that *bam* was a novel gene to the common ancestor of *Drosophila* (and

possibly some other dipterans) and has functionally diversified across the *Drosophila*

genus, only gaining its role in germline stem cell differentiation in the lineage leading to

*D. melanogaster* and *D. simulans*, thereby resulting in adaptive evolution for this

function. Additionally, it is possible that *bam* quickly evolved a role in GSC daughter

differentiation in *Drosophila,* but that function has been shaped by germline conflicts in

specific lineages. Conflict with germline agents such as *W. pipientis* may even drive the

fixation of novel genes in new roles that successfully evade their control.

Here, we ask if *bam* is necessary for gametogenesis in diverse species within the

*Drosophila* genus that show different patterns of *bam* evolution. We ask this question to

understand two concepts fundamental to making predictions about drivers of positive

selection at *bam.* First, we need to know if the signals of positive selection we observed

in *D. melanogaster* and *D. simulans* can be explained by a new role for *bam* as the

GSC daughter differentiation switch. Second, if we know in which lineages *bam* is

necessary for GSC daughter differentiation, we can identify appropriate lineages to use

for further hypothesis testing regarding factors that drive the adaptive evolution of *bam*.

In this study we analyzed additional population samples of species mainly within the

*melanogaster* species group and a few more distant lineages for nucleotide sequence

variation at *bam.* We find further evidence of lineage-specific signals of adaptation

within the *melanogaster* species subgroup, and no signals observed outside of the

*melanogaster* species subgroup. We generated *bam* loss-of-function alleles in five

diverse *Drosophila* species in the *melanogaster* group and find that *bam* is not

necessary for gametogenesis in one or both sexes in lineages that do not have

evidence of positive selection at *bam*. Together, our data suggest that functional

diversification alone does not likely explain the signals of adaptive evolution at *bam,* and

a complex evolutionary history between GSC function and lineage-specific pressures

may explain the population genetic and functional genetic patterns at *bam*.

**Materials and Methods**

**Fly stocks and rearing:**

We raised fly stocks on standard cornmeal molasses food at room temperature. We

used yeast glucose food for fertility assays. The *D. melanogaster* $w^{1118}$ isogenic line and

$w^{1118}$ balancer lines were gifts from Luis Teixeira, and the *D. simulans* $w^{501}$ line (stock

14021-0251.011), the *D. yakuba* white eyed line [14021-226.03] and the *D. ananassae*

reference genome (14024-0371.14) lines are from the Drosophila species stock center

(http://blogs.cornell.edu/drosophila/). The *W. pipientis*-free *D. ananassae* line Nou83

was a gift from Artyom Kopp. The *D. teissieri* line (*teissieri* syn) was a gift from Daniel

Matute [33].

We tested all lines for *W. pipientis* infection status by qPCR (NEB Luna Universal qPCR

kit) using primer sets for *wsp* and *arm* (S1 Table). Lines that tested positive (*D. teissieri*,

*D. ananassae*, *D. simulans*) were treated with tetracycline (200 μg/mL) for three

generations to remove *W. pipientis* [34]. We allowed these lines to recover for at least

three generations before using them in any analyses. We were unable to fully clear the

*D. ananassae* reference line of *W. pipientis* with tetracycline, so to obtain a *W. pipientis*

free stock, we crossed males of our *bam* null lines to females from the Nou83 line,

which we confirmed to be *W. pipientis*-free by qPCR.

**Population samples:**

The *D. yakuba*, *D. santomea*, and *D. teissieri* population sample lines were gifted by

Brandon Cooper and Daniel Matute [35]. The *D. yakuba* and *D. teissieri* lines were

collected in Bioko in 2013, the *D. santomea* sample was collected in Sao Tome in 2015.

The *D. affinis* population sample lines were gifted by Robert Unckless (S2 Table). The

*D. mojavensis* population sample is from Organ Pipe National Monument, Arizona and

DNA from this sample was gifted by Erin Kelleher and Luciano Matzkin. The *D.*

*pseudoobscura* population sample is from Apple Hill, California, as described in [36].

We used previously prepared DNA from the *D. pseudoobscura* population sample as

described in [36].

**Cloning for bam null constructs**:

We obtained the nucleotide sequence information for designing constructs in *D.*

*melanogaster, D. simulans*, *D. yakuba*, and *D. ananassae* from FlyBase [27]. We

obtained sequence information for the *D. teissieri* sequences from Daniel Matute. We

used Geneious for all cloning design.

We used the NEB Q5 High Fidelity 2X master mix to generate all PCR products. We gel

extracted and purified PCR products using the NEB Monarch DNA gel extraction kit or

Qiagen MinElute gel extraction kit. IDT primers were used for PCR, sequencing, and

cloning. We generated the donor plasmids for the 3xP3-DsRed and 3xP3-YFP bam

disruption lines using the NEB HiFi Assembly Cloning kit into the pHD-attP-DsRed

vector from flyCRISPR [37] as follows: we amplified 1.5 kb homology arms from

genomic DNA of the appropriate species stock flanking the insertion site for 3xP3-

DsRed or 3xP3-YFP. 3xP3-DsRed was amplified from the pHD-attP-DsRed plasmid

and 3xP3-YFP was amplified from the *D. simulans* nos-Cas9 line, a gift from David

Stern. We then gel extracted the two homology arms and the appropriate 3xP3 marker,

purified them, and assembled them into the pHD vector backbone using the

manufacturer's protocol (S3 Table).

We used the U6:3 plasmid from CRISPRflydesign [38] to express gRNAs for generating

the *D. yakuba* lines. The gRNA target sequence was generated by annealing primers

with the gRNA sequence and BbsI site overhangs, and ligating into the BbsI ligated

U6:3 vector (T4 ligase NEB, BbsI NEB) (S3 Table). We used NEBalpha competent cells

for transformations.

We prepped and purified all plasmids for embryo injections with the Qiagen plasmid

plus midi-prep kit. We additionally purified plasmids for injections with phenol-chloroform

extraction to remove residual RNases. We confirmed plasmid sequences with Sanger

sequencing (Cornell BRC Genomics Facility).

**CRISPR/Cas9:**

gRNA selection:

We chose gRNAs using the flyCRISPR target finder [37] for *D. melanogaster*, *D.*

*simulans*, *D. yakuba*, and *D. ananassae*. For *D. teissieri*, we used one completely

conserved gRNA from *D. yakuba.* We also chose an additional gRNA from *D. yakuba*

that had two divergent sites between *D. yakuba* and *D. teissieri,* thus we modified them

to the *D. teissieri* sites. We selected gRNAs that had no predicted off- targets in the

reference genome (S4 Table & S5 Table ). For *D. yakuba*, we used the U6:3 gRNA

plasmid from CRISPRfly design as described above. For the remaining species (*D.*

*melanogaster*, *D. simulans*, *D. teissieri*, and *D. ananassae*), we used synthetic gRNAs

(sgRNAs) from Synthego. We used 1-3 gRNAs per injection to increase the chances of

a successful CRISPR event. We used multiple gRNAs if there were suitable options for

that site to increase efficiency (multiple gRNAs within 50 bps with 0 predicted off-

targets).

Injections:

All CRISPR/Cas9 injections were carried out by Genetivision. Lines were injected with

the plasmid donor, gRNAs (synthetic or plasmid), Cas9 protein (Synthego), and an

siRNA for Lig4 (IDT DNA). The same siRNA was used for *D. melanogaster*, *D.*

*simulans*, *D. yakuba*, and *D. teissieri* (pers communication with Daniel Barbash and

David Stern S6 Table). We created a *D. ananassae* specific siRNA due to sequence

divergence (S6 Table).

For the *bam* disruption lines, we screened for eye color in F1s in house using a

Nightsea fluorescence system with YFP (cyan) and DsRed (green) filters. We

backcrossed all CRISPR/Cas9 mutants to the stock line we used for injections for three

generations. All mutants are maintained as heterozygous stocks. We confirmed all

CRISPR insertions by Sanger sequencing (Cornell BRC Genomics Core Facility).

<u>Genotypes for generating bam disruption homozygotes</u>:

We generated two *bam* disruption lines in each species in order to create the genotypes

for the comparative *bam* null analyses. We generated one by disrupting *bam* with 3xP3-

DsRed and the other with 3xP3-YFP. We selected DsRed or YFP positive flies and

crossed them to generate homozygous *bam* disruption flies ($bam^{3xp3-DsRed}/bam^{3xP3-YFP}$).

This cross also results in DsRed or YFP positive heterozygous *bam* null progeny as well

as *bam* wildtype progeny without any fluorescent eye marker.

**Fertility assays:**

<u>Female fertility</u>:

All female fertility assays were performed following the approach of Flores et al. [12].

Specifically, we collected virgin females and aged them 2-3 days (*D. melanogaster*, *D.*

*simulans*, *D. yakuba,* and *D. teissieri*) or 5-7 days (*D. ananassae*). We collected all

genotypes from each bottle to control for bottle effects. We collected virgin males of the

wildtype genotype for each species and aged them for the same timeframe as the

females of that species. We evenly distributed males collected from different bottles

across the female genotypes to control for any bottle effects. We crossed single females

collected within 48 hours of each other to two virgin males. We allowed the trio to mate

for 9 days, and then flipped them to new vials. Except for *D. ananassae*, as fertility was

very low, we cleared the trio after day 9 and did not continue further. For all other

species crosses, after an additional 9 days, we cleared the trio. Then, we counted the

progeny for each trio every other day to get the total adult progeny per female.

Male fertility:

All male fertility assays were performed as described for the female fertility assays

except that one tester male was crossed to two virgin females.

Food and conditions for fertility assays:

For *D. melanogaster*, *D. simulans*, *D. ananassae*, and *D. teissieri*, we performed all

fertility assays on yeast-glucose food. For *D. yakuba*, we performed fertility assays on

cornmeal-molasses food, as this line did not thrive on the yeast-glucose food. We kept

all crosses and fertility experiments in an incubator at 25°C with a 12-hour light-dark

cycle.

**Statistics**:

For the fertility assays we used estimation statistics to assess the mean difference

(effect size) of adult progeny between the wildtype *bam* genotype and each individual

additional *bam* genotype. For generating the estimation statistics and plots [39], we

used the dabest package in Python (v. 0.3.1) with 5,000 bootstrap resamples.

Estimation statistics provide a non-parametric alternative to other statistical tests of the

difference of the mean (for example, ANOVA), and allow us to understand the

magnitude of the effect of *bam* genotype on the fertility phenotype. In text, we report

significance as a mean difference (effect size) outside the 95% bootstrap confidence

interval. While one benefit of these statistics is that they are less biased than reporting

traditional P-values, we also report P-values for approximate permutation tests with

5,000 permutations.

**Immunostaining:**

We used the following primary antibodies, anti-vasa antibody from Santa Cruz

biologicals (anti rabbit 1:200), anti-Hts-1B1 from Developmental Studies Hybridoma

bank (anti-mouse 1:4 for serum, 1:40 for concentrate item), and anti-Fas3 from DSHB

(anti-mouse 1:50). We used the following secondary antibodies: Alexaflour 488, 568

(Invitrogen) at 1:500.

We performed immunostaining as described in Aruna et al. [38] and Flores et al.

[12,40]. Briefly, we dissected ovaries and testes in ice-cold 1X PBS and pipetted ovaries

up and down to improve antibody permeability. We fixed tissues in 4%

paraformaldehyde, washed with PBST, blocked in PBTA (Alfa Aesar, with 0.01% Triton

X added), and then incubated in the appropriate primary antibody in PBTA overnight.

We then washed (PBST), blocked (PBTA), and incubated the tissue in the appropriate

secondary antibody for 2 hours, then washed (PBST) and mounted in mounting media

with DAPI (Vecta shield or Prolong Glass with NucBlue) for imaging.

**Confocal Microscopy:**

We imaged ovaries and testes on a Zeiss i880 confocal microscope with 405nm, 488

nm, and 568 nm laser lines at 40X (Plan-Apochromat 1.4 NA, oil) (Cornell BRC Imaging

Core Facility). We analyzed and edited images using Fiji (ImageJ).

**RNA extraction:**

For RT-qPCR experiments we dissected ovaries from 10 one-day old females per

biological replicate or testes from 15 one-day old males in ice cold 1x PBS. The tissue

was immediately placed in NEB DNA/RNA stabilization buffer, homogenized with a

bead homogenizer, and then stored at -80°C until RNA extraction. We used the NEB

Total RNA mini-prep kit for all RNA extractions according to the manufacturer's

protocol and included the on column DNAse treatment. We assessed RNA

concentration and quality with a Qubit 4 fluorometer and a NanoDrop.

**RT-qPCR:**

For all RT-qPCR analyses, we used the Luna One Step RT-qPCR kit from NEB

according to the manufacturer's instructions at 10µl total volume in 384 well plates. We

used a Viia7 qPCR machine with the appropriate cycle settings as described in the

Luna One Step RT-qPCR kit.

For the analysis of *bam* expression in *D. ananassae*, we used primers to *D. ananassae*

*bam* with *D. ananassae Rp49* as a control (S1 Table). To assess the possibility that the

*bam* disruption allele induced exon skipping of the disrupted exon 1 in *D. teissieri*, we

designed a primer pair that spanned exon 1 to exon 2 and another pair that spanned

exon 2 to exon 3 (S1 Table). We used the exon 2 - exon 3 target as the control. For

both the *D. teissieri* and *D. ananassae* assays described above, we included a standard

curve for each target on every plate at a 1:2 dilution and then used the standard curve

method to calculate the relative quantity of *bam* (to either *Rp49* for *D. ananassae* or

*bam* exon 2-exon 3 for *D. teissieri*) with the QuantStudio software using the wildtype

*bam* genotype as a control for each species.

For the allele specific analysis in *D. teissieri,* we designed one primer pair specific to

the *bam* 3xP3-DsRed and 3xP3-YFP insertion alleles and another primer pair specific

to the wildtype allele. We then used these two targets to measure the relative

expression of the insertion allele to the wildtype allele in a single heterozygous sample.

The primer pair for the *bam* insertion alleles target the sequence between the SV40-

polyA tail of the 3xP3-DsRed and 3xP3-YFP insertion and the *bam* sequence

downstream of the insertion (S1 Table). The primer pair for the *bam* wildtype allele

target *bam* upstream and downstream of the 3xP3-DsRed and 3xP3-YFP insertion,

and therefore will not amplify the large insertion allele under RT-qPCR conditions (S1

Table). We included a standard curve for each target on every plate at a 1:2 dilution

and then used the standard curve method in the QuantStudio software to calculate the

Ct and Ct standard error for each target and each sample. We report the relative

quantity of the 3xP3-DsRed or 3xP3-YFP allele using the wildtype allele in the same

sample as a control by calculating $2^{-(nullCt-wildtypeCt)}$.

**Genomic analysis of *bam* copy number in *D. teissieri*:**

While *bam* is reported as a 1:1 syntenic ortholog on FlyBase for *D. melanogaster, D.*

*simulans, D. yakuba,* and *D. ananassae,* data for *D. teissieri* is not available. To ask if

*bam* has been recently duplicated in *D. teissieri,* we generated a blast database (blastn

v 2.9.0) from a new de novo assembled *D. teissieri* reference genome (accession

GCA_016746235.1) and blasted *D. teissieri bam* from the resequencing described

above.

Additionally, to assess read coverage for *bam* compared to the surrounding loci and the

entire chromosome 3R, we used publicly available short read WGS data for *D. teissieri*

(SRR13202235) and used bwa-mem (v 0.7.17) to map reads to a new de novo

assembled *D. yakuba* reference genome (accession GCA_016746365.1). We visualized

the alignment and assessed read coverage using Geneious.

**Population genetic analyses:**

**Resequencing:**

We prepared genomic DNA from *D. affinis, D. yakuba*, *D. santomea*, and *D. teissieri*

samples using the Qiagen PureGene kit. We used Primer3 to generate primers to

amplify *bam* from *D. affinis, D. mojavensis, D. pseudoobscura, D. yakuba*, *D. santomea*,

and *D. teissieri* population samples (S7 Table). We used existing polymorphism data

(Daniel Matute, personal communication) to generate primers for *D. yakuba*, *D.

santomea*, and *D. teissieri*. We resequenced *bam* using Sanger sequencing from

5'UTR-3'UTR for *D. yakuba*, *D. santomea*, and *D. teissieri* and *bam* exons and introns

for *D. affinis* (Cornell BRC Genomics Facility). We used Geneious for aligning the

sequences and calling polymorphisms. We generated fasta files for each individual. We

used DnaSP to phase individuals with heterozygous sites, and then randomly picked

one allele for further analyses [3]. We will deposit all resequencing data described here

in Genbank.

**Existing polymorphism data:**

We used polymorphism data for *D. melanogaster* from the Zambia population sample

from the Drosophila genome Nexus [41], as this is the largest population sample with

intact *bam* sequence and represents a population in the *D. melanogaster* ancestral

range. We used polymorphism data for *D. simulans* from the California population

sample [42]. For the *D. melanogaster* Zambia population sample, we removed a single

individual that contained missing nucleotide calls in the *bam* coding sequence (ZI117).

As we filtered polymorphisms at < 5% frequency, omitting this single individual would

not affect our downstream analyses. In the *D. simulans* CA population sample there

were no individuals with missing data.

*D. ananassae bam* polymorphism, and single *D. atripex, D. bipectinata bam* sequences

are from Choi et al. [26]. We obtained single *bam* sequences for species used for

outgroups from FlyBase (*D. erecta*), and Genbank (*D. eugracilis, D. arizonae, D.*

*navojoa, D. miranda, D. subobscura).*

**Alignments and ancestral sequence reconstruction:**

We performed all multiple sequence alignments for the *bam* coding sequences using

PRANK (v.170427) with the -codon and -F parameters and using the PRANK generated

guide tree. As *bam* is highly divergent across the *Drosophila* genus, we generated

multiple sequence alignments only among closely related clusters of species to ensure

alignment quality. We generated a multiple sequence alignment of the *melanogaster*

subgroup species (*D. melanogaster, D. simulans, D. yakuba, D. santomea, D. teissieri,*

*D. erecta, D. eugracilis*), a multiple sequence alignment of *D. ananassae, D. atripex,*

and *D. bipectinata*, a multiple sequence alignment of *D. mojavensis, D. arizonae, and D.*

*navajo*, and a multiple sequence alignment of *D. affinis, D. pseudoobscura, D. miranda,*

and *D. subobscura*.

We used only unique sequences for input to codeml. We used the codeml package from

PAML (v. 4.9) to generate the predicted common ancestor sequences to calculate

lineage-specific divergence for *bam* with the McDonald-Kreitman test. We used the

PRANK alignments and their corresponding gene trees as input to codeml with the

following control file parameters (noisy = 9, verbose = 2, runmode = 0, seqtype = 1,

CodonFreq = 2, clock = 0, aaDist = 0, model = 0, NSsites = 0, icode = 0, getSE = 0,

RateAncestor = 1, Small_Diff = .5e-6, cleandata = 0, method = 1).

We used the http://mkt.uab.cat/mkt/mkt.asp webtool to perform the standard McDonald-

Kreitman test (MKT) comparing nonsynonymous vs. synonymous changes [43]. We

excluded polymorphic sites at < 5% frequency, as these are likely slightly deleterious

alleles that have not yet been purged by purifying selection [44]. For each species

where we had polymorphism data, we performed the MKT using the specified predicted

common ancestral sequence to calculate lineage-specific divergence. We report the

values of the contingency table, the P-value of the Chi-Square test, as well as alpha, the

proportion of fixations predicted to be due to positive selection [45].

**Results**

***bam* shows lineage-specific bursts of positive selection in the *yakuba* complex,**

**and no evidence of positive selection outside of the *melanogaster* species**

**subgroup**

Previously, our group found that *bam* is evolving under strong positive selection

detected by the McDonald-Kreitman test in *D. melanogaster* and *D. simulans*, but not in

*D. ananassae* [3,26]. As these three species span about 15 million years of divergence,

we wanted to know if there was evidence of adaptation in lineages more closely related

to *D. melanogaster* and *D. simulans*, or if this signal was unique to the individual *D.*

*melanogaster* and *D. simulans* lineages. We expanded the species sampled to include

three closely related species from the *yakuba* complex, *D. yakuba, D. santomea,* and *D.*

*teissieri*. We also took advantage of published population genomic data from large

inbred lines to expand our assessment of *bam* variation in an additional population

sample each for *D. melanogaster* and *D. simulans*.

In addition to further sampling more closely related species to *D. melanogaster* and *D.*

*simulans,* we also wanted to ask if there was any evidence of adaptive evolution at *bam*

in lineages outside of the melanogaster group. We resequenced *bam* from population

samples of three more distantly related *Drosophila* species: *D. pseudoobscura*, *D.*

*affinis*, and *D. mojavensis,* these species span approximately 40 million years of

divergence [46].

To ask if any population samples showed departures from selective neutrality consistent

with positive selection at *bam* similar to what we previously observed for *D.*

*melanogaster* and *D. simulans*, we used a lineage-specific McDonald-Kreitman test

(MKT) [47], specifically measuring nonsynonymous and synonymous changes. The null

hypothesis of the MKT is that the ratio of nonsynonymous to synonymous polymorphism

within a species is equal to the ratio of nonsynonymous to synonymous divergence

between species (or in our case, a predicted common ancestral sequence). Previously,

we have detected signatures of positive selection at *bam* as an excess of

nonsynonymous fixations in the *D. melanogaster* and *D. simulans* lineages [3]. As *bam*

appears to be experiencing episodic signals of adaptive evolution restricted to particular

lineages, we measured lineage-specific divergence. We used codeml to generate

reconstructed ancestral sequences at the node of interest by maximum likelihood. We

then used this sequence to calculate nonsynonymous and synonymous divergences for

each population sample.

For *D. melanogaster*, we utilized the Zambia population sample from the *Drosophila*

genome Nexus to measure *bam* variation [41]. The Zambia sample contains the largest

sample size of intact *bam* sequence (few missing calls), and represents variation found

in the ancestral range of *D. melanogaster*. We used the predicted common ancestor of

*D. melanogaster* and *D. simulans* and found similar patterns of polymorphism and

divergence to the smaller samples of *D. melanogaster* from the USA and Zimbabwe

previously reported by Bauer DuMont et al. [3] (Fig 1). The *D. melanogaster* lineage

shows a strong signal of adaptive evolution (alpha = 0.912, P<0.000) (Fig 1).

For *D. simulans bam*, we utilized the CA, USA population sample from Signor et al [42].

The previous *D. simulans bam* sample our lab reported was also from the USA, but

from North Carolina [3,48]. We used the same common ancestral sequence as we did

for the *D. melanogaster* analysis to calculate divergence. However, we did not observe

the same patterns of divergence and polymorphism in this sample as we previously

observed in the NC sample (Fig 1). In the CA *bam* sample, we cannot reject neutrality

(alpha = 0.539, P=0.084), in contrast to our previous finding in the NC sample

(alpha=0.631, P=0.049). It is notable that although the ratios were not significantly

different, the trend in this lineage also shows a high alpha value and higher

nonsynonymous divergences. The difference between the two samples seems to be

driven by higher nonsynonymous polymorphism in the CA sample compared to the NC

sample. The likely explanation for this discrepancy is the observed genome-wide

excess of intermediate frequency polymorphisms in the CA population sample that is

consistent with a combination of population contraction and possibly soft sweeps on

standing genetic variation within the past 100 years in this CA *D. simulans* population

[42]. The introduction of the *w*Ri strain of *W. pipientis* into southern CA around the

1980s led to the spread of this strain through CA with initially strong Cytoplasmic

Incompatibility [49] that would have also resulted in a severe bottleneck particularly in

the female effective population size (e.g. [50]). A population bottleneck can bring slightly

deleterious polymorphisms to higher frequency. While the frequency of these

deleterious polymorphisms will then slowly decline, during this time their frequency in

the population is thus an overestimation of their probability of their fixation and thus

weaken power of the MKT and underestimate alpha (e.g. [51])

We used the predicted common ancestor of the *yakuba* complex (*D. yakuba*, *D.*

*santomea*, *D. teissieri*) to estimate divergence for *bam* in each of the species population

samples. For *D. yakuba* and *D. santomea* we observed signals of positive selection for

*bam* (*D. yakuba*: alpha=0.723, P=0.006), (*D. santomea*: alpha=0.726, P=0.024) (Fig 1).

In contrast, we could not reject neutrality for *D. teissieri bam* (alpha=-0.011, P=0.983)

(Fig 1).

In lineages outside of the *melanogaster* species subgroup, we did not reject neutrality at

*bam* for any of the species we sampled. For *D. ananassae*, we reassessed divergence

with the predicted common ancestor of *D. atripex* and *D. ananassae* to further polarize

the patterns of divergence in the *D. ananassae* lineage as Choi et al. [26] reported

divergence between *D. ananassae* and *D. atripex*. Our findings are consistent with the

previous study (alpha = 0.816, P= 0.089) [26]. The alpha value is high here although not

significant, which suggests it may be informative to sample *bam* from additional *D.*

*ananassae* populations with larger sample sizes (n=14 here). We calculated divergence

for *bam* from population samples of *D. pseudoobscura* and *D. affinis* from their

predicted common ancestor and observed similar patterns of polymorphism and

divergence (*D. pseudoobscura*: alpha=0.250, P=1), (*D. affinis*: alpha=0.487, P=0.360),

neither of which were close to rejecting neutral expectations (Fig 1). We used the

predicted common ancestor of *D. mojavensis* and *D. arizonae bam* to calculate

divergence in the *D. mojavensis* lineage and again observed no trend towards an

excess of nonsynonymous divergence (alpha=0.250, P=1) (Fig 1).

**Generating *bam* null alleles for non-*melanogaster* species**

We believe that there are three main possibilities that could explain the patterns of

positive selection we have observed at *bam* across the *Drosophila* genus. The first is

that *bam* function is conserved across all of the species sampled and the only lineages

that show signals of adaptation are those that are experiencing an evolutionary

pressure to which *bam* is adapting. The second possibility is that *bam* function is not

conserved across the *Drosophila* genus, and a novel role for *bam* in GSC daughter

differentiation is under positive selection in those lineages. The third possibility

combines aspects of the first two, *bam's* function in GSC daughter differentiation is

novel to the *melanogaster* group, but adaptation is driven by lineage-specific factors to

which *bam* is responding.

As *bam* sequence is rapidly evolving across the *Drosophila* genus but we only observed

signals of adaptive evolution in four species all within the melanogaster group (spanning

approximately eight million years of divergence [46]), we wanted to distinguish between

the possibilities that *bam* is adapting to lineage-specific factors (i.e., endosymbionts, or

changes in life history), and that *bam* adapting due to acquiring a role in GSC daughter

differentiation. Importantly, before we can generate hypotheses about lineage-specific

factors that would drive the adaptation of a GSC daughter differentiation factor, we need

to ask if *bam* is a GSC daughter differentiation factor in that lineage. While it is difficult

to assess if all of *bam's* known functions in *D. melanogaster* are conserved in diverse

*Drosophila* species due to the lack of genetic tools in non-*melanogaster* species, we

can ask if ask if *bam*'s core function is conserved in other species by assessing if *bam*

is necessary for GSC daughter differentiation in females and males.

To ask if *bam* is rapidly evolving due to a novel role as the GSC daughter differentiation

switch and simultaneously ask if the *bam* phenotype is conserved to test hypotheses

about lineage-specific selection pressures, we designed and generated a series of *bam*

null alleles in diverse species in the melanogaster species group to assay for GSC

daughter differentiation (Fig 2A). To do this, we used CRISPR/Cas9 to introduce a

3xP3-YFP or a 3xP3-DsRed gene cassette into the first exon of *bam*, thereby disrupting

the *bam* coding sequence and introducing a premature termination codon (Fig 2B). This

also generates an allele that is trackable by eye color, which is necessary for the non-

*melanogaster* species of which we do not have balancer chromosomes to maintain

alleles that cause sterility. Being able to track the null allele is a concern in this design if

*bam* is necessary for GSC daughter differentiation in the species tested, because a loss

of function allele will cause sterility (as it does in *D. melanogaster* males and females).

To generate the homozygous *bam* null genotype, we cross the 3xP3-YFP line to the

3xP3-DsRed line and select flies with both DsRed and YFP positive eyes. This scheme

also allows us to use the same cross to assay the heterozygous and wildtype *bam*

siblings (Table 1).

However, we were unable to obtain a *D. simulans* 3xP3-DsRed 1$^{st}$ exon disruption line,

but as we did find that a *D. simulans* line with a 3xP3-DsRed insertion in its 2$^{nd}$ intron

resulted in homozygous sterile females and males with tumorous ovaries and testes,

while heterozygous females and males were fertile with wildtype ovary and testes

phenotypes. As this edit was specific to the *bam* locus, we presumed it was an mRNA

null allele and we used this line for our analyses. Thus, if the phenotype of the 3xP3-

DsRed 2$^{nd}$ intron allele over the 3xP3-YFP 1$^{st}$ exon allele is the same as the

homozygous 3xP3-DsRed 2$^{nd}$ intron allele, this is consistent with classification as a

genetic null.

We used *D. melanogaster* as a control to ensure our method would generate a loss of

function *bam* phenotype, as the *bam* null phenotype has been well characterized in this

species (Table 1). We also generated *bam* nulls in two other species that exhibited

signals of positive selection – *D. simulans* and *D. yakuba*, and two of which we did not

have evidence of positive selection – *D. teissieri* and *D. ananassae* (Fig 2A).

**Bam is necessary for female and male fertility in *D. melanogaster*, *D. simulans*,**

**and *D. yakuba*, but only in *D. ananassae* females, and in neither *D. teissieri* males**

**nor females.**

In *D. melanogaster*, both male and female *bam* nulls are sterile as early germline cells

fail to differentiate and proceed through gametogenesis. In classic null alleles of *D.*

*melanogaster bam* (*bam*$^{\Delta 59}$ and *bam*$^{\Delta 86}$), one copy of functional *bam* is sufficient to

rescue the *bam* null sterility phenotype. We first asked if our novel *bam* null alleles

behaved this way in *D. melanogaster*. We found that in both males and females,

heterozygotes of each 3xP3-DsRed or 3xP3-YFP disruption line showed similar fertility

to wildtype *bam* and that the *bam* null genotype was completely sterile (Fig 3, Fig S1).

We observed this same pattern for *D. simulans* and *D. yakuba* (Fig 3, Fig S1). However,

when we assessed fertility of the *D. teissieri bam* null, we found that there was no

difference in fertility between any of the genotypes tested for females or males (Fig 3,

Fig S1). The *bam* null genotype did not result in sterility, or even reduced fertility. In *D.*

*ananassae*, *bam* null females were sterile, and one copy of the null allele of each 3xP3-

DsRed or 3xP3-YFP disruption did not significantly reduce fertility, but in *D. ananassae*

males, *bam* nulls were fertile, with no significant mean difference in progeny across the

tested genotypes (Fig 3, Fig S1). Therefore, *bam* is not necessary for fertility in all

species in the *melanogaster* species group, or even all species within the *melanogaster*

species subgroup.

**Consistent with the fertility results, *bam* is also necessary for germ cell**

**differentiation in *D. simulans* and *D. yakuba* females and males, but not in *D.***

***teissieri* males or females, and only *D. ananassae* females.**

In *D. melanogaster* females, *bam* null ovaries feature over-proliferating germline stem

cells that fail to differentiate into cystoblasts [6,52]. This results in the germarium and

developing downstream cysts accumulating small, GSC-like cells resembling tumors

(Fig 4A). In *D. melanogaster bam* null males, spermatogonia differentiation is blocked

which results in testes with over-proliferating spermatogonia that fail to develop into

terminally differentiated spermatocytes (Fig 4A) [7,53].

We imaged ovaries from 2-5 day old *D. melanogaster* females from each *bam*

genotype. We assayed for the characteristic *bam* null tumor phenotype using antibodies

to Vasa to visualize the morphology of the germline and Hts-1B1 to visualize the

fusome, which fails to fully form in *bam* mutants [54,55]. We found that the *bam* null

genotype resulted in the characteristic *bag of marbles* phenotype consistent with classic

*bam* null alleles, with tumorous ovaries filled with undifferentiated GSC-like cells (Fig

4B). One copy of wildtype *bam* was sufficient to rescue the *bam* null phenotype, as has

been previously observed for other *bam* null alleles (Fig 4B) [12,54]. Therefore, our

3xP3-DsRed and 3xP3-YFP disruptions successfully recapitulate the *bam* null

phenotype in females. We imaged testes from 3-5 day old *D. melanogaster* males and

also immunostained with antibodies to Vasa to label the germline and Hts-1B1 to label

the fusome. We found that the *bam* null genotype resulted in tumorous testes filled with

small over-proliferating cells that fail to differentiate into spermatocytes (Fig 4B). We

found that one copy of wildtype *bam* was sufficient to rescue the *bam* null tumor

phenotype, as has been previously reported for classic *bam* null alleles [56,57](Fig 4B).

Therefore, our *bam* null alleles also recapitulate the previously described *bam* null

phenotype in *D. melanogaster* males.

We repeated the same analysis for the other species in the study. We found for *D.*

*simulans* and *D. yakuba* both female and male homozygous *bam* null genotypes

exhibited the characteristic ovarian and testes tumors as described in *D. melanogaster*

(Fig 4B). In these two species for both males and females, one copy of *bam* was also

sufficient to rescue the *bam* null phenotype as observed in *D. melanogaster* (Fig 4B).

However, in the *D. teissieri bam* null genotype, we observed no evidence of GSC over-

proliferation in females or spermatogonia over-proliferation in males. We observe the

same phenotype for the heterozygous alleles in both males and females, as well as

wildtype (Fig 4B). This indicates that *bam* is not necessary for GSC daughter

differentiation in *D. teissieri* females nor is *bam* necessary for spermatogonia

differentiation in males. In *D. ananassae bam* null females, we observed the

characteristic *bam* null phenotype observed in *D. melanogaster* with over-proliferating

GSC-like cells in the germarium and cysts and undeveloped fusomes (Fig 4B). One

copy of *bam* was sufficient to rescue the *bam* null tumorous phenotype (Fig 4B).

Therefore the *D. ananassae* female *bam* null phenotype is consistent with that of *D.*

*melanogaster*, *D. simulans*, and *D. yakuba*. In contrast, in *D. ananassae* males of the

*bam* null genotype we did not observe over-proliferating spermatogonia (Fig 4B). The

homozygous *bam* null genotype resulted in the same phenotype as the heterozygous

bam null genotypes and wildtype indicating that *bam* is not necessary for the switch

from proliferating spermatogonia to differentiated spermatocytes in *D. ananassae*

males. Therefore, these cytological data are fully consistent with our fertility assay

observations.

**Confirming the loss-of-function status of *bam* in the *bam* null disruption design**

However, as the only available Bam antibody is weak in *D. melanogaster* and *D.*

*simulans* we cannot confirm the absence of Bam protein in all the species tested.

Although we used the same design to generate the *bam* null alleles across this study

and therefore expect the 3xP3-DsRed and 3xP3-YFP disruptions to have the same

effect on *bam* in all five species, we further confirmed the loss-of-function status of the

*bam* disruption alleles in *D. ananassae* and *D. teissieri* given their functional divergence.

First, we asked if *bam* had undergone duplication events in *D. ananassae* and *D.*

*teissieri* using publicly available sequence data and found no evidence of *bam*

duplication in either species (details described in S1 File, S8 Table).

Next, since the 3xP3-DsRed and 3xP3-YFP insertions introduce a premature

termination codon, we expect the mRNA of the disrupted *bam* allele to be degraded

through nonsense mediated mRNA decay (NMD), but if the premature termination

codon induced exon skipping, the disrupted *bam* exon could be alternatively spliced out

resulting in expression of a truncated *bam* allele, which may be sufficient for function

[58–60]. We used RT-qPCR to ask if patterns of expression in the *bam* null alleles in *D.*

*ananassae* males and *D. teissieri* females and males were consistent with expectations

for NMD. We found that for *D. ananassae* and *D. teissieri*, the expression of the *bam*

null disruption alleles were reduced relative to the *bam* wildtype allele to levels

consistent with NMD (~1-50%, details in S1 File, Fig S2). Therefore, the mRNA of the

*bam* disruption alleles are likely targeted for degradation. Additionally, since both *bam*

null *D. teissieri* males and females show wildtype phenotypes, we asked if the exon

disrupted by 3xP3-YFP or 3xP3-DsRed in the *bam* null genotypes was expressed in

proportion to the non-disrupted exons relative to the wildtype genotype to look for

evidence of exon skipping. We found that the ratio of exon 1 to exon 2 expression was

not significantly different between *D. teissieri* nulls and *D. teissieri* wildtype genotypes

for males and females (details in S1 File, FigS4).

Although *bam* null *D. ananassae* males and *D. teissieri* males and females exhibited

wildtype phenotypes, together the genomic and RT-qPCR analyses indicate that the

*bam* null alleles are loss-of-function alleles. This evidence therefore supports our

conclusion that *bam* is not required for spermatogenesis in *D. ananassae* and *D.*

*teissieri* nor oogenesis in *D. teissieri.*

***D. ananassae bam* null males show evidence of germline defects**

As we found that *bam* was necessary for oogenesis in *D. ananassae* but not for

spermatogenesis, we assayed for more subtle evidence of germline defects in *D.*

*ananassae* males by immunostaining testes with an antibody to Fas3 which is

expressed in epithelial cells in the hub, the testes microenvironment that houses the

somatic and germline stem cell population. In *D. melanogaster bam* null males, Fas3 is

mis-expressed outside of the hub, as the spermatogonia over proliferate (Fig 5A&B). In

*D. ananassae bam* null males, we also observed misexpression of Fas3 outside of the

hub, although not nearly as severe as in *D. melanogaster bam* null males (Fig 5C&D).

This indicates that while *bam* is not necessary for differentiation in *D. ananassae* males,

it may be playing a role in maintenance of the stem cell population.

**Discussion**

**A novel role in GSC daughter differentiation is not likely the sole driver of**

**adaptive evolution at *bam***

Using representative *Drosophila* species including the *melanogaster* species group, we

combined population genetic analyses and functional genetic experiments to evaluate

the evolutionary dynamics of genetic variation at *bam* and the functional consequences

of its evolution. We observe additional lineages within the *melanogaster* species

subgroup with evidence of positive selection for amino acid diversification. Our

comparative assessment of *bam* requirement in gametogenesis across diverse

*Drosophila* species indicates that the functional evolution of *bam* is complex. The two

species for which we found no signal of positive selection at *bam* (*D. teissieri* and *D.*

*ananassae*) also do not require *bam* for gametogenesis in one or both sexes. This

pattern is not fully consistent with the hypothesis that positive selection is driven alone

by a gain in *bam* function as a GSC daughter differentiation factor. *D. ananassae* is an

outgroup to all of the other species tested, and thus for this hypothesis to fit, *bam* would

have gained and lost its function multiple times in the *melanogaster* species group. The

most parsimonious explanation of our functional data is that *bam* was required for

oogenesis and spermatogenesis in the common ancestor of the species tested (Fig 2A),

then *bam* function was lost in *D. ananassae* males, and then lost again independently in

*D. teissieri* males and females.

Therefore, we cannot fully distinguish between the possibility that the signal of adaptive

evolution at *bam* is driven by functional divergence and the possibility that positive

selection is due to conflict between *bam*'s GSC daughter differentiation function and

lineage-specific agents such as *W. pipientis.* However, it does seem unlikely that

positive selection is solely driven by a gain in GSC function. In the second scenario,

*bam* must be necessary for GSC function for there to be an evolutionary conflict. The

finding that the requirement for *bam* is lineage-specific may also indicate that lineage-

specific conflicts could drive functional diversification of GSC genes. One illuminating

test would be to ask if *D. teissieri bam* is sufficient for GSC daughter differentiation in *D.*

*yakuba* using the reciprocal hemizygosity test [61], or in *D. melanogaster* using

CRISPR/Cas9. If it is, it would be further evidence that *bam* functioned as a necessary

GSC daughter differentiation factor in the common ancestor of the *melanogaster*

species subgroup. If *D. teissieri bam* is not sufficient for gametogenesis, it is possible

that either its function has been completely lost due to drift in *D. teissieri*, or that it was

not required in the common ancestor of the *melanogaster* species group. Similar

experiments could be done with *D. ananassae bam* in order to further refine the timeline

for the emergence of *bam's* role as the switch for GSC daughter differentiation.

Additionally, our findings illustrate that *bam* ortholog function is be conserved, even for

though it has a critical function for fitness. As most functional genetic studies have been

performed only in single representative model organisms, we often do not have

functional confirmation for all orthologs in a comparative study. This fact is especially

important to consider in making and evaluating hypotheses about drivers of genetic

signals of positive selection. If function is not conserved across orthologs, then it is not

likely for that gene to be experiencing the same evolutionary pressures in each species.

**Episodic signals of positive selection at *bam*, but only in the *melanogaster* group**

It is notable that we have only observed signals of adaptive evolution at *bam* within the

melanogaster subgroup which spans approximately 10 million years of divergence, and

only in four lineages within this group (*D. melanogaster, D. simulans, D. santomea* and

*D. yakuba*) [46]. This pattern combined with our finding that *bam* function is not

conserved in all species tested implies that *bam* may not necessary for GSC daughter

differentiation in more divergent species outside of the *melanogaster* species group.

Therefore, testing hypotheses about the presence or absence of *W. pipientis* or other

factors to explain the episodic amino acid diversification at *bam* should not include

comparisons with these divergent species.

We currently have the most evidence in the *D. melanogaster* lineage for pervasive

positive selection at *bam*, as we detect departures from neutrality for multiple population

samples from different continents, whereas in *D. simulans* we observe a significant

signal of positive selection in the NC population, but not in the CA population. As

discussed above, this seems likely to be due an inflation of polymorphism, including

nonsynonymous variants, associated with strongly nonequilibrium dynamics caused by

a recent bottleneck in CA. This pattern was not evident in the NC population. It remains

possible that differences in sample sizes and sequencing methodologies may also

contribute to the different results obtained (NC n=10 Sanger sequences, CA n=182 low-

coverage genome sequences). To better understand how *bam* is evolving in *D.*

*simulans,* it will also be beneficial to sample *bam* from additional populations in the *D.*

*simulans* ancestral range.

For the remaining species in our study (other than *D. melanogaster*), we currently only

have samples from single populations. It will be interesting to further sample *bam* and

its functional interacting network in additional populations within the species described

here to further understand lineage-specific functional evolution at *bam*. This may be

particularly interesting for the species in the *yakuba* complex, where we see functional

divergence of *bam* on a short time scale (approximately 5 million years). Additionally,

there is existing sampling data for populations in these species over time in which *W.*

*pipientis* infection frequencies increased [35]. Are there changes in allele frequencies

over time in these populations that can help explain regions of *bam* under selection in

*D. yakuba* but not in *D. teissieri*?

**The function of a key stem cell daughter differentiation factor is divergent in**

**closely related species**

The results of past studies of GSC evolution [3,4,26,62] and our findings here pose the

question of whether GSC developmental functions are frequent targets of adaptation.

There is increasing evidence that this is so. Selfish transposable elements are regulated

by piRNAs to protect the germline genome. There is natural variation in the gene *Bruno*

that provides tolerance to deleterious P-element expression in the genome [21]. In a

scRNA-seq study of male *D. melanogaster* testes, Witt et al. [63] report many fixed de

novo genes expressed in GSCs and early spermatogonia (where *bam* is expressed) at

similar levels to testis specific genes. In contrast, segregating de novo genes show

lower expression in GSCs and early spermatogonia implying that cell type expression

may impact the likelihood for a de novo gene to become fixed. As de novo gene

evolution is increasingly recognized as a critical mode of adaptation, especially in

reproduction, GSCs/early spermatogonia may be generating necessary variation for

adaptation [63].  A recent finding that the insect gene *oskar,* which is critical for germ

cell formation and oogenesis, arose *de novo* through a horizontal gene transfer event

from a prokaryote, resulting in a fusion between prokaryotic and eukaryotic sequence

illustrates yet another mechanism by which novel genes can take on key developmental

roles in reproduction [64,65].

GSCs and early differentiating cells exhibit high gene expression both in number of

genes and transcript abundance which likely contributes to novel transcript expression

[63]. Novel transcripts in the early germline could provide the substrate for evolutionary

responses to intracellular agents like *W. pipientis*, TEs, and viruses. For example, a

novel gene product may physically interact with the intracellular agent to block its

function. Or, as many novel genes evolve connections with conserved networks, a novel

gene that integrates into a functional network manipulated by *W. pipientis* may eliminate

or reduce the ability of *W. pipientis* to recognize and manipulate that function. In either

case, we may predict that gene to evolve in an arms race with the infectious intracellular

agents, resulting in positive selection for alleles that evade manipulation. Another

consequence of these interactions could be the evolution of sex-biased gene function.

While many of the genes involved in GSC daughter differentiation and maintenance are

similar between females and males, many have sex-specific interactions, functions, or

expression patterns [66]. If a gene is evolving in conflict with an intracellular pathogen

that differentially affects females and males, this could lead to sex-biased function.

In addition to *bam,* there is other evidence that essential GSC genes may be gained

and lost. For example, unpublished data from our lab indicates that the *fs(1)Yb* ortholog

is missing in the *D. pseudoobscura, D. persimilis* and *D. miranda* lineage (Jae Young

Choi, personal communication). This gene is expressed in cap cells which adhere to the

GSCs in the germarium to maintain self-renewal [67]. In the cap cells, *fs(1)Yb* functions

in GSC maintenance as well as in the regulation of transposable elements [19]. In the

*D. melanogaster* and *D. simulans* lineages, *fs(1)Yb* shows a strong signal of amino acid

diversification [12], and in *D. melanogaster*, females null for *fs(1)Yb* are sterile [68].

Additionally, in *D. melanogaster*, *bam* and *ovarian tumor* (*otu*) share some sequence

homology, suggesting they may have evolved from a single locus, or perhaps the

physical properties of these proteins are common in novel proteins that gain roles in

GSC regulation [6].

It certainly seems plausible that genetic conflict is one way for new genes to evolve

required functions in conserved processes such as GSC daughter differentiation. The *D.*

*melanogaster* testes and the accessory gland show enriched expression of novel

genes, many of which show signals of adaptive evolution, and some of which are

predicted to be driven by sexual conflict [63,69–73].

We believe it is worth further exploring if stem cells that function in other developmental

processes outside of reproduction that also show signals of adaptive evolution are

functionally divergent, as Choi et al. [4] also found levels of adaptive evolution in neural

stem cell genes were similar to what we observe in germline stem cell genes. Perhaps

the genes that regulate differentiation and maintenance of stem cells provide adaptive

potential for functional innovation in critical developmental processes. In fact, two

studies report that adaptively evolving neural stem cells are enriched for roles in

neurogenesis, the process of neural stem cell differentiation into neurons and glia

[4,74]. *D. melanogaster* intestinal stem cells are a growing model for understanding

epithelial stem cell regulation, and studies have shown that the midgut responds to

nutritional changes by altering modes of stem cell division to regulate midgut growth

[75]. As the *Drosophila* gut is in contact with the environment and documented to

respond to changes in food, microbiota, and pathogens, intestinal stem cell regulatory

genes may also play roles in adaptive responses.

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**Fig 1. *Bam* shows lineage-specific signals of positive selection within the melanogaster species subgroup and no evidence of positive selection outside of the melanogaster species subgroup.** Cladogram of *Drosophila* species we sampled in this study or previously published. Red lineages represent lineages where we have evidence of positive selection at *bam* with the McDonald Kreitman test. Blue lineages are lineages of which we could not reject neutrality with the McDonald Kreitman test. The 2X2 table from the McDonald Kreitman test is shown on the right (N = nonsynonymous, S = synonymous). Alpha is the proportion of nonsynonymous fixations predicted to be due to positive selection. p-value is from the chi-sq test, n is sample size. [1][*]2X2 table and statistics from Bauer DuMont et al. [3] [2]polymorphism data from Choi et al. [24]

**Fig 2. Species chosen to generate *bam* null alleles using CRISPR/Cas9 to disrupt *bam* with a trackable eye marker cassette.** (A) The five species we chose to generate *bam* null alleles span approximately 15 million years of divergence and show different patterns of evolution at *bam*. The lineages in red show evidence of positive selection (MKT), we did not observe evidence of positive selection for the lineages in blue. (B) Schematic for generating null alleles with trackable eye markers using CRISPR/Cas9. We generate two null alleles using different color eye markers and cross the heterozygotes together to generate an easily trackable null genotype.

**Fig 3. *Bam* is necessary for female and male fertility in *D. melanogaster, D. simulans, and D. yakuba,* but not for *D. ananassae* males nor both *D. teissieri* males and females.** Swarm plots showing the total progeny per female or per male for each *bam* genotype. Dotted boxes show genotypes where the phenotype did not match that of *D. melanogaster.* For *D. melanogaster, D. simulans, and D. yakuba*, the *bam* null DsRed/YFP females and males were sterile (P < 0.0001, permutation test), and the heterozygous genotypes did not have a significant effect on fertility (P > 0.05, permutation test). For *D. teissieri,* the *bam* null DsRed/YFP females and males did not have significantly different fertility from wildtype, nor did the heterozygotes. For *D. ananassae*, the *bam* null DsRed/YFP females were sterile (P < 0.0001, permutation test), and the heterozygotes did not affect fertility. However, the *bam* null DsRed/YFP males were fertile and there was no significant difference between the null and heterozygotes and wildtype fertility (P>0.05, permutation test).

**Fig 4. *Bam* is necessary for female and male germline stem cell differentiation in *D. melanogaster, D. simulans, and D. yakuba,* but not for *D. ananassae* males nor *D. teissieri* males and females.** (A) Schematics of ovaries and testes showing the *bam* wildtype and null cytological phenotypes in *D. melanogaster*. Wildtype *bam* ovaries exhibit developing egg chambers with differentiated nurse cells and testes exhibit large differentiated spermatocytes. Null *bam* ovaries exhibit egg chambers filled with small GSC-like tumors that contain undeveloped fusomes and testes exhibit cysts filled with small over-proliferating spermatogonia. (B) Ovaries and testes from all five species of wildtype (*bam*[+]/*bam*[+]), heterozygous (YFP/+ or DsRed/+)*,* and null (DsRed/YFP) *bam* genotypes. All tissue is labeled with antibodies to Vasa (germline) and Hts-1B1 (fusome). Dashed boxes indicate genotypes and tissue that are not consistent with the *D. melanogaster* phenotype. Ovaries and testes from all five species exhibit developing nurse cells or spermatocytes (respectively) for wildtype and heterozygous *bam* genotypes. We did not observe any tumorous cysts (arrowheads). Ovaries and testes from *bam* null *D. melanogaster, D. simulans, and D. yakuba* all exhibited cysts filled with GSC-like tumors (ovaries) or over-proliferating spermatogonia (testes) (arrows). The *bam* null ovaries exhibit undeveloped fusomes. *D. ananassae bam* null ovaries exhibited the tumorous egg chamber phenotype (arrow), however testes exhibited large developing spermatocytes (arrowhead) and

we did not observe any tumors. The *bam* null *D. teissieri* ovaries and testes exhibited nurse cell positive egg chambers and developing spermatocytes (respectively) (arrowheads) and we did not observe any tumors.

**Fig 5. Loss of *bam* function in *D. ananassae* males shows mis-expression of Fas3, a marker expressed in the hub.** All testes tissue is labeled with antibodies for Vasa (germline) and Fas3 (hub, arrowheads). (A) *D. melanogaster bam* wildtype testes with Fas3 expression limited to the hub (inset) and featuring large differentiating spermatogonia. (B) *D. melanogaster bam* null testes feature ectopic Fas3 expression and small over-proliferating spermatogonia. (C) *D. ananassae bam* wildtype testes with Fas3 expression limited to the hub and featuring large differentiating spermatogonia. (D) *D. ananassae bam* null testes with ectopic Fas3 expression and large differentiating spermatogonia.

**Fig S1. Extended plots from Fig 3 including the Cumming estimation plot below the swarm plot.** *bam* is necessary for female and male fertility in *D. melanogaster, D. simulans, and D. yakuba,* but not for *D. ananassae* males nor both *D. teissieri* males and females. The Cumming estimation plot displays the 95% confidence interval effect size. As stated in Fig 3*, D. melanogaster, D. simulans, and D. yakuba*, the *bam* null DsRed/YFP females and males were sterile (P < 0.0001, permutation test), and the heterozygous genotypes did not have a significant effect on fertility (P > 0.05, permutation test). For *D. teissieri,* the *bam* null DsRed/YFP females and males did not have significantly different fertility from wildtype, nor did the heterozygotes. For *D. ananassae*, the *bam* null DsRed/YFP females were sterile (P < 0.0001, permutation test), and the heterozygotes did not affect fertility. However, the *bam* null DsRed/YFP males were fertile and there was no significant difference between the null and heterozygotes and wildtype fertility (P>0.05, permutation test)

**Fig S2. RT-qPCR experiment to assess *bam* mRNA in *D. ananassae bam* null genotypes reported as the relative quantity (RQ) of *bam* expression to the housekeeping control RP49.** *bam* expression in testes of the null (DsRed/YFP) genotype is significantly reduced (standard error) relative to *bam* expression in testes of the wildtype genotype at approximately 10%, consistent with expectations for NMD. The heterozygous genotypes DsRed/+ and YFP/+ do not show reduced *bam* expression relative to wildtype.

**Fig S3. RT-qPCR experiment to detect patterns consistent with nonsense mediated mRNA decay of the *bam* disruption allele in *D. teissieri* reported as the relative quantity (RQ) of mRNA from the *bam* disruption allele to the *bam* wildtype allele in heterozygotes.** Significance reported as standard error (A) Expression of the *bam* null allele relative to the *bam* wildtype allele in ovaries. Both heterozygous genotypes DsRed/+ and YFP/+ show less than 10% of expression of the *bam* null allele relative to the wildtype allele, consistent with expectations for NMD. The wildtype negative control shows little to no expression of the null allele as expected. (B) Expression of the *bam* null allele relative to the *bam* wildtype allele in testes. Both heterozygous genotypes DsRed/+ and YFP/+ show less than 50% of expression of the *bam* null allele relative to the wildtype allele, consistent with expectations for NMD. The wildtype negative control shows little to no expression of the null allele as expected.

**Fig S4. RT-qPCR experiment to detect evidence of exon skipping of the exon containing the *bam* disruption reported as the relative quantity (RQ) of *bam* exon 1 to exon 2.** Significance reported as standard error (A) Expression of *bam* exon 1 relative to exon 2 in ovaries. The RQ of exon 1 to exon 2 in the *bam* null DsRed/YFP genotype is not significantly different than the RQ of exon 1 to exon 2 in the *bam* wildtype genotype, indicating that

expression of the exon containing the disruption is comparable to the unaffected exon in both the null and wildtype genotype, and therefore exon skipping is not likely occurring in females. (B) Expression of *bam* exon 1 relative to exon 2 in testes. The RQ of exon 1 to exon 2 in the *bam* null DsRed/YFP genotype is not significantly different than the RQ of exon 1 to exon 2 in the *bam* wildtype genotype, indicating that expression of the exon containing the disruption is comparable to the unaffected exon in both the null and wildtype genotype, and therefore exon skipping is not likely occurring in males.

**Fig 1**

| | Divergence | | Polymorphism | | | | |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| | N | S | N | S | alpha | P-value | n |
| *melanogaster* - ZM | 20 | 6 | 4 | 13 | 0.907 | ***0.000*** | 187 |
| *melanogaster** - US, ZI[1] | 28 | 11 | 8 | 14 | 0.776 | ***0.008*** | 12,7 |
| *simulans** - US, NC[1] | 26 | 16 | 9 | 15 | 0.631 | ***0.049*** | 10 |
| *simulans* - US, CA | 46 | 25 | 13 | 15 | 0.528 | 0.093 | 182 |
| *yakuba*- Bioko | 26 | 18 | 10 | 25 | 0.723 | ***0.006*** | 14 |
| *santomea*- São Tomé | 24 | 21 | 5 | 16 | 0.726 | ***0.024*** | 11 |
| *teissieri*- Bioko | 12 | 13 | 14 | 15 | -0.011 | 0.983 | 11 |
| *atripex* | | | | | | | |
| *ananassae* - Thailand[2] | 28 | 36 | 1 | 7 | 0.816 | 0.089 | 14 |
| *pseudoobscura* - US, CA | 40 | 41 | 3 | 6 | 0.487 | 0.360 | 11 |
| *affinis* - US | 31 | 31 | 5 | 7 | 0.285 | 0.597 | 14 |
| *mojavensis* - US | 2 | 5 | 3 | 8 | 0.250 | 1 | 22 |
| *arizonae* | | | | | | | |

● Predicted ancestral sequence
used to calculate divergence

*1

40  10  5  0
**Divergence time (million years)**

**Fig 2**

**Table 1.** Abbreviations for *bam* genotypes for all species and the expected phenotypes as observed in *D. melanogaster.*

| Genotype | Abbreviation | *D. melanogaster* Phenotype Expectations | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | | Fertility | Cytological |
| *bam⁺/bam⁺* | wildtype | wildtype | wildtype |
| *bam³ˣᴾ³⁻ᴰˢᴿᵉᵈ/bam⁺* | DsRed/+ | wildtype | wildtype |
| *bam³ˣᴾ³⁻ʸᶠᴾ/bam⁺* | YFP/+ | wildtype | wildtype |
| *bam³ˣᴾ³⁻ᴰˢᴿᵉᵈ/bam³ˣᴾ³⁻ʸᶠᴾ* | DsRed/YFP | sterile | tumorous ovaries and testes |

**Fig 3**

**Adult progeny per fly for each *bam* genotype**

# Fig 4

**A.** *D. melanogaster bam* cytological phenotypes

**B.** *bam* disruption genotype

# Fig 5

## *bam* disruption genotype

# Fig S1

*D. ananassae testes*

# Fig S3

## A.  *D. teissieri* ovaries

Expression of bam null allele relative to wildtype allele in heterozygotes

## B.  *D. teissieri* testes

Expression of bam null allele relative to wildtype allele in heterozygotes

# Fig S4

## A. *D. teissieri* ovaries

## B. *D. teissieri* testes