

1 **Evidence for a conserved queen-worker genetic toolkit across slave-making ants and their ant**
2 **hosts**

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5 B. Feldmeyer¹, C. Gstöttl², J. Wallner², E. Jongepier³, A. Séguret³, D. Grasso⁴, E. Bornberg-Bauer⁵, S.

6 Foitzik⁶, J. Heinze²

7

8 ¹ Senckenberg Biodiversity and Climate Research Centre, 60325 Frankfurt am Main, Germany

9 ² Zoology / Evolutionary Biology, University of Regensburg, 93040 Regensburg, Germany

10 ³Institute for Biodiversity and Ecosystem Dynamics, University of Amsterdam, 1098 XH Amsterdam,

11 The Netherlands

12 ⁴Department of Chemistry, Life Sciences and Environmental Sustainability, Università di Parma, 43124

13 Parma, Italy

14 ⁵Institute for Evolution and Biodiversity, Westfälische Wilhelms University, 48149 Münster, Germany

15 ⁶Institute of Molecular and Organismic Evolution, Johannes Gutenberg University, 55128 Mainz,

16 Germany

17 **Abstract**

18 The ecological success of social Hymenoptera (ants, bees, wasps) depends on the division of labour
19 between the queen and workers. Each caste is highly specialized in their respective function in
20 morphology, behaviour and life history traits, such as lifespan and fecundity. Despite strong defences
21 against alien intruders, insect societies are vulnerable to social parasites, such as workerless
22inquilines or slave-making (dulotic) ants. Here, we investigate whether gene expression varies in
23parallel ways between slave-making ants and their host ants across five independent origins of ant
24slavery in the “*Formicoxenus*-group” of the ant tribe Crematogastrini. As caste differences are often
25less pronounced in slave-making ants than non-parasitic ants, we also compare the transcriptomes of
26queens and workers in these species. We demonstrate a substantial overlap in expression differences
27between queens and workers across taxa, irrespective of lifestyle. Caste affects the transcriptomes
28much more profoundly than lifestyle, as indicated by 37 times more genes being linked to caste than
29to lifestyle and by multiple caste-associated gene modules with strong connectivity. However, several
30genes and one gene module are linked to the slave-making lifestyle across the independent origins,
31pointing to some evolutionary convergence. Finally, we do not find evidence for an interaction
32between caste and lifestyle, indicating that caste differences remain consistent even when species
33switch to a parasitic lifestyle. Our findings are a strong indication for the existence of a core set of
34genes whose expression is linked to the queen and worker caste in this ant taxon, supporting the
35“genetic toolkit” hypothesis.

36

37 **Key words:** Social parasitism, caste, transcriptomes, gene networks, slave-making ants, dulosis,
38 selection

39 **Introduction**

40 The ecological success of social insects is based on the efficient division of labour between
41 reproductives and non-reproductives, i.e., in the social Hymenoptera, the queens and workers
42 (Wilson 1971; Hölldobler and Wilson 2009). Instead of producing their own offspring, workers help to
43 raise the offspring of their mother or other related queens. The altruism of workers is explained by
44 their relatedness to the recipients of their help, which is maintained by the closure of the society
45 against unrelated freeloaders or parasites (Hamilton 1964, 1987). Nevertheless, several species have
46 evolved sophisticated ways to infiltrate and usurp social insect colonies (Rabeling 2020), and among
47 these are the charismatic “slave-making” or “dulotic ants” (Hölldobler and Wilson 1990; Buschinger
48 2009; Heinze and d’Ettorre 2001). Freshly mated, young queens of slave-making ants invade the
49 nests of closely related, non-parasitic ant species, where they kill or expel the resident queen(s) and
50 often also the adult workers. Host workers emerging from the conquered host brood take care of the
51 slave-maker queen and her own offspring, maintain the nest, and forage for food. Slave-maker
52 workers do not engage in normal worker chores (Hölldobler and Wilson 1990; Buschinger 2009) but
53 instead raid neighbouring host nests and pillage their brood, thus replenishing or increasing the host
54 force.

55 Slavery originated ten times independently in ants (Stoldt and Foitzik 2020) and at least five
56 convergent origins lie within the “*Formicoxenus*-group” of the myrmicine tribe Crematogastrini
57 (Blaimer et al. 2018). This allows investigation of whether convergent changes in gene expression
58 occurred among those evolutionary switches to slave-making. There are several morphological,
59 physiological and behavioural similarities among slave-making species of independent origin. For
60 example, slave-maker workers are often heavily armed with strong mandibles and associated muscles,
61 which leads to enlarged heads (Hölldobler and Wilson 1990). Given that workers of slave-making
62 species no longer take care of the daily duties in the colony, they have become more queen-like in
63 their task repertoire. They neither forage for food nor do they engage in brood care (Buschinger 2009).
64 Moreover, slave-maker workers tend to have increased reproductive potential. While the ovaries of

65 non-parasitic workers have fewer ovarioles than the queen's ovaries and rarely contain mature eggs
66 in the presence of a fertile queen, the ovaries of slave-maker workers often have the same number of
67 ovarioles as the queen (Heinze 1996a). They form reproductive hierarchies (Franks and Scovell 1983;
68 Bourke 1988; Heinze 1996b) and frequently lay male-destined eggs even in the queen's presence
69 (Foitzik and Herbers 2001, Brunner et al. 2005, Suefuji and Heinze 2014). Gene expression differs
70 strongly between workers and queens of most species, reflecting their divergent function, behaviour,
71 and physiology (Gstöttl et al. 2020, Korb et al. 2021; Morandin et al. 2019a, b, Feldmeyer et al. 2014).
72 For example, queen transcriptomes are characterized by the expression of genes associated with
73 fecundity (e.g. vitellogenins), immunity, DNA repair and response to oxidative stress functionalities
74 linked to their long lifespan (Stoldt et al. 2021). However, given the described similarities between
75 slave-maker queens and workers, we expected their transcriptomes to differ less than those of queens
76 and workers of non-parasitic species.

77 We therefore investigated the influence of caste (queen vs worker) and lifestyle (slave-maker
78 vs non-parasitic) on gene expression of adult individuals and the interaction between those two
79 parameters, which would indicate that caste is affecting gene expression differently in non-parasitic
80 versus slave-making species. We used an experimental protocol that aimed for a large number of
81 independent evolutionary origins of the slave-making lifestyle – five in total – all in the myrmicine
82 tribe Crematogastrini. For each species, we sequenced the transcriptomes of six pooled workers and
83 three pooled queens, respectively, taking slave-making species vs. host species as replicates. We
84 investigated gene regulatory network properties according to caste and lifestyle and constructed
85 orthologue clusters to investigate putative parallel selection patterns in genes associated to the
86 slave-maker versus host lifestyle, including two related non-host taxa and two samples of the
87 distantly related ant *Cardiocondyla obscurior* as outgroup.

88

89 **Material & Methods**

90 *Sampling and sequencing*

91 Colonies of the 15 myrmicine ant species of the “*Formicoxenus*-group” (genera *Harpagoxenus*,
92 *Leptothorax*, and *Temnothorax*, including the previously synonymized genera of slave-making ants:
93 *Chalepoxenus*, *Myrmoxenus*, and *Protomognathus*, Ward et al. 2015, but see Seifert et al. 2016) were
94 collected between 2016-2018 from various locations across Germany, Italy, and the US (Supplement
95 coordinates). Colonies were either brought to the lab in Regensburg, Mainz, or Münster, and kept
96 under standard conditions in incubators (12 h 25°/ 12 h 25°C day-night cycles) before six workers and
97 three queens were pooled per species for RNA extraction. For each species, workers and queens
98 originated from three colonies. We generated one queen and one worker transcriptome for seven
99 slave-making ants and their host species (*Harpagoxenus sublaevis* / *L. acervorum* and *L. muscorum*,
100 Nürnberger Reichswald, Germany; *T. americanus* (formerly *Protomognathus americanus*) / *T.*
101 *longispinosus*, New York, USA; *T. duloticus* / *T. curvispinosus*, Ohio, USA; *T. muellerianus* (formerly
102 *Chalepoxenus muellerianus*) / *T. unifasciatus*, Calino nr. Rovato, Italy; *T. pilagens* / *T. ambiguus*,
103 Michigan, USA; *T. ravouxi* (formerly *Myrmoxenus ravouxi*) / *T. unifasciatus*, Schönhofen, Germany; *T.*
104 *mediterraneus* (formerly *Myrmoxenus krausseii*) / *T. recedens*, Tignale, Italy). RNA was extracted using
105 the Nucleo-Spin Mini kit (Macherey-Nagel). Samples were shipped to StarSEQ (Mainz) for library
106 preparation and 100bp paired end sequencing on an Illumina HiSeq. In total, we obtained 15mio reads
107 on average per sample (Supplement Table S2).

108

109 *Gene expression analyses*

110 Raw reads were quality checked using FastQC v.0.11.8 ([https://www.bioinformatics.babraham.ac.uk/](https://www.bioinformatics.babraham.ac.uk/projects/fastqc/)
111 [projects/fastqc/](https://www.bioinformatics.babraham.ac.uk/projects/fastqc/)), and adapters trimmed with Trimmomatic v.2.8.4 (Bolger *et al.* 2014). HiSat2 v.2.1.0
112 (Kim et al. 2015) was used to map the reads to the *T. longispinosus* genome v.1 (GenBank accession:
113 GCA_004794745.1_tlon_1.0; Kaur et al. 2019). We chose to use a single species genome as reference
114 for all species to be able to later directly compare expression patterns between slave-making ants
115 and their hosts as well as between queens and workers across species, with species as replicates.
116 Non-host species were not included in this analysis. The counts table was created with HTSeq

117 (Anders et al. 2015). To prevent spurious results due to low read counts, we removed from the
118 counts matrix genes with less than 10 reads in at least four samples before the subsequent
119 differential gene expression analysis with DESeq2 (Love *et al.* 2014). We started with the full model
120 \sim Caste+Lifestyle+Caste:Lifestyle. The interaction turned out to be insignificant (no differentially
121 expressed genes for the interaction), and we thus based all follow-up analyses on the two main
122 factors only. All p-values were adjusted by false discovery rate (FDR) correction as implemented in
123 DESeq2. To determine whether the significant slave-maker differentially expressed genes (DEGs) are
124 more numerous than we would expect by chance, we ran 1000 permutations on the DEGs analysis in
125 R. To gain a deeper understanding for the functionality of DEGs, we 1) conducted a functional
126 enrichment analysis, 2) inferred pathways in which the DEGs are involved, and 3) used a word mining
127 approach based on longevity and fecundity terms. In detail, we ran Interproscan v.5.39-77.0 (Jones et
128 al. 2014) locally to obtain GO information using the *T. longispinosus* predicted proteome (GenBank
129 accession: GCA_004794745.1_tlon_1.0; Kaur et al. 2019) as query. The GO enrichment analysis was
130 performed with the R package TopGO (Alexa and Rahnenführer, 2016), using the 'parentchild'
131 algorithm and the Fishers exact test for significance. Furthermore, the proteome was annotated with
132 KEGG functional ortholog numbers using the BlastKOALA web utility (last accessed: 11.02.2021;
133 Kanehisa et al. 2016) with 'Eukaryotes, Animals' specified as Taxonomy group. KEGG pathway
134 affiliation of genes that were differentially expressed in each of the four comparisons (queens
135 compared to workers and vice-versa; slave-makers compared to hosts and vice-versa) was assessed
136 using the online utility of KEGG mapper with *Apis mellifera* as reference species (Kanehisa & Sato
137 2020), and visualized including the log₂-fold change using pathview (Luo et al. 2013) in R v.3.6.3 (R
138 Core team 2020). KEGG pathway enrichment was assessed with the enrichKEGG function
139 implemented in clusterProfiler v.3.14.3 (Yu et al. 2012) where the universe was defined as the total
140 set of *T. longispinosus* protein predictions with a KEGG functional ortholog annotation and organism
141 'ko'. For the text mining approach, we used gene annotations based on a BlastP search of the
142 proteome versus the RefSeq invertebrate database, as query for a UniProt search. More specifically,

143 we extracted the gene function information for each gene with entries from *C. elegans*, *D.*
144 *melanogaster*, *A. mellifera* and searched for terms related to fecundity and longevity (Supplement
145 Table S3), both traits which we assumed to differ between queens and workers (script available from
146 Negroni et al. 2021). We conducted an enrichment analysis by conducting a Fisher's exact test to test
147 whether the number of genes with terms in fecundity or longevity within differentially expressed
148 genes was higher than expected with respect to the complete proteome. The online tool Venny
149 v.2.0.2 was used to generate the Venn diagram (<https://bioinfo.gp.cnb.csic.es/tools/venny>).

150

151 *Selected genes analysis*

152 For this analysis, we added transcriptomes of four taxa that are not known to be parasitized by slave-
153 making ants, which acted as a biological control for comparisons of selection intensity between slave-
154 makers and hosts: as outgroup, two populations of *Cardiocondyla obscurior* from Okinawa, Japan, and
155 Ilhéus, Itabuna, and the two non-host species of the *Formicoxenus* group, *Temnothorax nylanderii*
156 (Mainz, Germany) and *T. rugatulus* (Arizona, USA). We used Trinity v.2.8.6 (Grabherr et al 2011) with
157 standard settings to construct species-specific transcriptomes using both worker and queen
158 transcripts. Nucleotide sequences were translated into amino acid sequences with Transdecoder
159 (<https://github.com/TransDecoder>). As *de novo* transcriptomes are known to contain many transcript
160 fragments and well as isoforms, we constructed orthogroups across all species with OrthoFinder
161 (Emms & Kelly 2015) including protein sequences derived from the *Temnothorax longispinosus*
162 genome (Kaur et al 2019) to prevent the inflation of orthogroups. After orthogroup construction, the
163 *T. longispinosus* protein sequences derived from the genome were removed from the orthogroups
164 from all downstream summary statistics and analyses. Since we only obtained a handful of single copy
165 orthologs, we used an inhouse script (Supplement_script) to retain only a single sequence per species
166 based on the length and percent identity identified from the pair-wise blast results from OrthoFinder.
167 We used Clustal-omega v.1.2.4 (Goujon et al. 2010) to construct sequence alignments for each
168 orthogroup, which were trimmed with TrimAL v.1.4.1 (Capella-Gutierrez et al. 2009) and the following

169 settings: -gappout -resoverlap 0.75 -seqoverlap 75 -backtrans. To test for signatures of positive
170 selection we used the codeml implementation in ete3 v.3.1.1 (Huerta-Cepas et al. 2016) running the
171 branch site test of selection as follows: ete3 evol --models bsA bsA1 --tests bsA, bsA1 --leaves --
172 internals. The cluster-specific tree topology as inferred by RAxML v.8.2.12 (Stamatakis 2014) was used
173 as input tree, and each species was coded as foreground branch consecutively. Finally, we blasted the
174 *T. longispinosus* sequence of each ortholog cluster with signature of selection versus the *T.*
175 *longispinosus* genome and only retained ortholog clusters with sequences mapping to a single location,
176 as further means of preventing putative paralogs. We further ran a GO enrichment analysis to test for
177 overrepresented functions among the selected genes (details above), and used the KEGG annotations
178 to investigate the pathways in which genes with signature of selection are involved.

179

180 *Network analysis*

181 To identify networks of co-expressed genes (modules), we constructed a weighted gene co-
182 expression network using the WGCNA (Langenfelder and Horwath 2008) package in R. We used all
183 genes which had passed the quality filtering step for the expression analysis (N = 8327), thus not only
184 the differentially expressed genes. Gene counts were normalized using the
185 *varianceStabilizingTransformation* function from DESeq2 (Love et al. 2014). Following the WGCNA
186 guidelines, we picked a soft-thresholding power of 8 for adjacency calculation. To associate modules
187 to either caste or lifestyle, we first calculated the modules' eigengene using the *moduleEigengenes*
188 function and tested for module trait correlation using the *corPvalueStudent* function. The hub gene of
189 each module (i.e., the gene with the highest connectivity within a module) was determined using the
190 *chooseTopHubInEachModule* function. Moreover, for modules associated with caste or lifestyle, we
191 tested whether the connectivity of genes with caste-specific expression and genes differed from the
192 connectivity of those which were not differentially expressed,. We ran linear models with connectivity
193 as response and caste-specificity (queen, worker, NA) as explanatory variable in R.

194

195 To determine the relevance of fecundity and longevity associated genes in lifestyle and caste
196 associated modules, we downloaded a list of 123 genes which were assembled based on information
197 from *Drosophila* and are part of the TI-J-LiFe pathways (TOR/IIS-JH-Lifespan and Fecundity) (Korb et al.
198 2021). We used the Flybase identifiers to download the corresponding *Drosophila* sequences and used
199 a BlastX search to identify *T. longispinosus* proteins with a blast hit e-value < e-10. In cases where we
200 had two or three hits, we selected the protein with the smallest e-value, with the longest match, which
201 mostly corresponded to the lowest e-value. In cases where we had >3 blast hits, we created a sequence
202 alignment using MACSE v.2.03 (Ranwez et al. 2011). A Maximum Likelihood phylogenetic tree with
203 1000 bootstrap replicates was constructed with RAxML with PROTGAMMAWAG as protein
204 substitution model.

205

206 **Results**

207 We set out to investigate the effect of lifestyle and caste on gene expression patterns across 15
208 different species of ants contrasting slave-making ants versus their hosts, and queens versus workers.
209 We were mainly interested in determining whether there are common toolsets of genes characteristic
210 for a specific lifestyle or caste. We additionally tested for genes under selection in the above-
211 mentioned slave-maker-host pairs plus four additional non-host outgroup species.

212 In general, gene expression patterns seem to be most similar amongst phylogenetically close
213 species. The principal component analysis revealed a very strong phylogenetic effect with 71% of
214 variance explained by PC1, which separated the *Harpagoxenus* / *Leptothorax* group from the
215 *Temnothorax* species (Supplement Figure 1), while PC2, explaining 8% of the variance, separated
216 queens from workers. Caste had a much stronger effect on gene expression compared to lifestyle, as
217 also evident in the heatmap dendrogram, where samples cluster according to caste rather than
218 lifestyle (Figure 1). As our analysis did not reveal an interaction between lifestyle and caste (0 DEGs
219 associated to the interaction term), we present the gene expression plus gene network results
220 according to the main effects, caste and lifestyle, and finally the results from the selection analysis.

221

222 *Lifestyle*

223 We detected 62 differentially expressed genes (DEGs) between lifestyles (host versus slave-maker
224 species) cumulative across the five origins of slavery (see supplement Table 1 DEGs). A permutation
225 test with 1000 iterations revealed that this is more than expected by chance ($p = 0.04$). Six genes were
226 consistently higher expressed in all seven slave-maker species compared to hosts, of which three were
227 annotated: “protein DVR-1 homolog”, “sulfotransferase family cytosolic 1B member 1-like”, and “ATP-
228 dependent DNA helicase II subunit 1-like”. Only a single gene, “NADPH oxidase 5”, showed higher
229 expression in all seven host species compared to slave-makers (Figure 2). Various metabolic processes
230 were significantly enriched among the differentially expressed genes between lifestyles (total = 21
231 processes). Among genes up-regulated in slave-makers, 14 processes were enriched, and three
232 functions were enriched in genes up-regulated in hosts, including “cell death” (Supplement_GO). In
233 addition to the functional level, we also investigated whether the genes in the lifestyle DEGs set were
234 overrepresented in specific pathways. There was no enrichment for the complete set of lifestyle DEGs,
235 nor in the separate host or slave-maker up-regulated gene-sets. This might be explained by the low
236 number of lifestyle-associated DEGs, and by the fact that only about half of these lifestyle-specific
237 genes could be KEGG annotated.

238 Host colonies are generally larger than slave-maker colonies, *i.e.*, host queens are more fecund
239 than slave-maker queens. Moreover, fecundity is often positively correlated with longevity in social
240 insects (Heinze and Korb 2016; Negroni et al. 2016). We therefore conducted a word mining approach
241 based on UniProt entries to investigate whether genes with known fecundity or longevity functionality
242 were overrepresented in the sets of DEGs between hosts and slave-makers (Table 1). We indeed
243 recovered more DEGs putatively associated with fecundity than expected by chance ($N = 31$; Fisher’s
244 exact test, $p\text{-value} = 6.619e-09$), but not for the longevity associated genes (Table 1).

245 We obtained 10 modules of co-expressed genes (named after colours as given by the *WGCNA*
246 package), of which one module, red, was positively associated with the slave-making lifestyle (Figure

247 5). This module contained 191 genes, of which 19 were up-regulated in slave-makers and none in hosts.
248 Genes associated with this lifestyle module were enriched for “reactive oxygen species metabolic
249 processes”, “oxidation reduction processes”, or “fatty acid biosynthetic process” (Supplement
250 WGCNA). Genes up-regulated in slave-makers had the highest connectivity in this module associated
251 with lifestyle (Supplement Figure S2).

252

253 *Caste*

254 Caste had a much stronger effect on gene expression than lifestyle ($\chi^2= 2496.8$, $df = 1$, $p\text{-value} < 2.2\text{e-}$
255 16), with 2,321 differentially expressed genes (DEGs) between queens and workers. Around half of all
256 caste-specific DEGs showed consistent higher expression in queens ($N=738$ out of 1,295) or in workers
257 ($N = 450$ out of 1,026) across all species. For example, genes for an *insulin-like growth factor 2*, *mRNA-*
258 *binding protein 1*, *maternal protein exuperantia*, *histone deacetylases*, and several *serine/threonine-*
259 *protein kinases* were more highly expressed in queens of all 15 species, while *pro-corazonine like* had
260 higher counts in workers of all but one species. The number of genes with consistent expression across
261 taxa was significantly lower for the lifestyle comparison ($\chi^2= 36.865$, $df = 1$, $p\text{-value} = 1.266\text{e-}09$).

262 As queens and workers strongly differ in fecundity and longevity, we used a word mining
263 approach based on UniProt entries to investigate whether genes with known fecundity or longevity
264 functionality were overrepresented in the sets of caste-specific DEGs (Table 1). Indeed, we detected
265 more fecundity-associated terms ($N = 1076$; Fisher’s exact test, $p\text{-value} = 2.2\text{e-}16$), and more longevity-
266 associated terms ($N = 412$; Fisher’s exact test, $p\text{-value} < 0.0003$) than expected by chance.

267 In the caste-specific DEG set, 39 gene ontology (GO) functions were significantly
268 overrepresented, many of which were associated with metabolic and biosynthetic processes
269 (Supplement_GO). Genes up-regulated in queens were enriched for 60 functions linked to various
270 metabolic processes or stress responses. Among the worker up-regulated genes, 78 functions were
271 significantly enriched, also belonging to metabolic and biosynthetic processes, but also oxidation-
272 reduction. In addition to the functional enrichment, we conducted a KEGG-pathway enrichment

273 analysis. In total, we found 27 pathways enriched amongst the caste-specific DEGs, 12 for genes up-
274 regulated in queens, and 61 genes overexpressed in workers (Supplement_KEGG). Multiple putatively
275 reproduction-associated and repair pathways, such as “meiosis-yeast”, “cell cycle”, “DNA replication”,
276 “RNA transport,” or “ribosome biogenesis,” were enriched in queens, and pathways such as “olfactory
277 transduction” and “longevity regulating pathway” (Figure 3) were enriched in genes up-regulated in
278 workers (Supplement_KEGG).

279 The gene network analysis resulted in five modules associated with caste, three of which were
280 positively associated with queens (yellow, green, magenta), and two with workers (black and blue)
281 (Figure 5). There was a trend for the pink module to also be associated with caste ($p = 0.07$), and it was
282 included in the following analyses (for details see: Supplement_WGCNA). In all three worker associated
283 modules (black, blue, pink), connectivity was highest for worker up-regulated genes, lowest for queen
284 up-regulated genes, and intermediated for genes that were not differentially expressed. The same
285 pattern was observed in queen-specific modules (yellow, green, magenta), in which the queen up-
286 regulated genes had the highest connectivity (Supplement_WGCNA).

287

288 *Comparison to other species*

289 We identified 84 genes associated to one of the 10 WGCNA modules that have also previously been
290 linked to fecundity or longevity in *Drosophila*. We obtained these from the “TI-J-LiFe” list containing
291 123 candidate genes (Korb et al. 2021). About half of these ($N = 60$) were found in the turquoise
292 module, which was neither associated to caste nor lifestyle, and eleven were found in the blue, caste-
293 linked module (Supplement_WGCNA). To determine whether overrepresented gene functions linked
294 to caste associated modules from our *Formicoxenus*-group data set could be extrapolated to other
295 ants or even termites, we compared our modules to Morandin et al. (2016) and Lin et al. (2021). Only
296 three functions were shared between enriched GO-terms of caste associated modules in our dulosis
297 data set ($N = 46$) and enriched GO-functions in *Formica* caste associated modules ($N = 155$; Morandin
298 et al. 2016), namely “cellular protein modification process”, “protein modification process”,

299 “monovalent inorganic cation transport” (Table 2). Eight terms were shared with caste associated
300 modules in termites (N = 277; Lin et al. 2021) (Table 2). No terms were shared amongst the three
301 studies. As queen and workers differ in fecundity and longevity, we investigated whether the same set
302 of fecundity-longevity associated genes of the “TI-J-LiFe” list (N = 84) which were found in the termites
303 (Lin et al. 2021) could be found in our data set . There were two genes, Ras64B and Kr-h1, associated
304 with a queen-worker co-expression module in termites and in *Crematogastrini*.

305

306 *Selected genes analysis*

307 The transcriptomes of the 19 taxa, including four samples of non-host species, consisted of 67,150-
308 155,629 transcripts with 32,584-51,743 open reading frames and 92-96% DOGMA completeness
309 (Supplement_transcriptomes). In total, we obtained 10,699 ortholog clusters of which 5,826 clusters
310 contained at least one transcript per species. 1,398 clusters remained after trimming and filtering for
311 single copies per species. We identified 660 signatures of selection across all species, which are
312 associated with 424 ortholog clusters, each mapping to a single location on the genome
313 (Supplement_codeml). Between 6-92 genes showed signatures of selection in each species
314 (Supplement_codeml), but there was no difference in the number of selected genes between lifestyles
315 (linear model, $F = 0.61$, d.f. = 2, $p = 0.56$). In slave-makers, genes with signatures of selection were
316 significantly enriched in functions such as protein modification, demethylation and energy
317 maintenance (Figure 4a, Supplement_codeml). In hosts and non-hosts, several regulatory and
318 metabolic functions are significantly overrepresented in genes with signatures of selection (Figure
319 4b+c).

320 We identified 114 genes that were both differentially expressed and additionally showed signatures
321 of selection (Supplement_overlap). Of these, a single gene was differentially expressed between
322 castes and lifestyles (TLON_06615-RA; pleckstrin homology domain-containing family F member 2
323 isoform X1), all other 113 were differentially expressed only between castes. 35 of these caste-
324 specific DEGs showed signatures of selection in hosts, 23 in non-hosts, and 57 in slave-makers.

325 Interestingly, many nucleotide metabolism pathways were included in the overlapping gene lists
326 including purine, alanine, aspartate, valine, to name just a few, and the “mTOR signalling pathway”
327 (Supplement_overlap).

328

329 **Discussion**

330 Eusocial insects are characterised by their sophisticated division of labour, which led to the evolution
331 of different castes. Ant queens are the main reproductives, known for their long life of up to several
332 decades and high fecundity (Keller and Genoud 1997), while the mostly infertile and short-lived
333 workers take care of the brood, foraging, and nest defence (Hölldobler & Wilson 1990). In slave-
334 making species, however, workers do not perform the “general” worker chores. They raid host nests
335 in summer and often are permitted to lay male-destined eggs in the presence of the queen. Our
336 study shows that whole-body transcriptomes of seven species pairs of the “*Formicoxenus* group” of
337 Crematogastrini (Blaimer et al. 2018; *Harpagoxenus*, *Leptothorax*, and *Temnothorax*) differ
338 considerably more with caste (queen vs. worker) than with lifestyle (slave-maker vs. non-parasitic
339 species). Caste polyphenism is based on differential gene expression, and our transcriptome analyses
340 show that the expression of 1,188 genes consistently differs between queens and workers of all
341 studied species, regardless of lifestyle. Though the evolution of a parasitic lifestyle is associated with
342 considerable changes in morphology and behaviour, only few transcriptomic shifts from host to
343 slave-making species were consistent across the five independent origins of slave-making.

344 Approximately 40x more genes were differentially expressed between castes than between
345 lifestyles (2321 vs. 62), and six out of ten co-expression modules were caste-associated in contrast to
346 a single lifestyle module. This difference might in part reflect the single evolutionary origin of caste
347 diphenism in ants, whereas slavery evolved repeatedly (Beibl et al. 2005; Feldmeyer et al. 2017; Prebus
348 2017). Nevertheless, as slave-making workers are often fertile and do not take over normal worker
349 chores, we had expected to find a considerable interaction between caste and lifestyle in gene
350 expression as well as in gene connectivity, as caste differences are less pronounced in slave-making

351 species. The lack of the interaction indicates that slave-maker and host queens and workers are rather
352 similar on a molecular level. Furthermore, it corroborates the result of a previous study where caste
353 differences also exceeded differences due to other traits, such as worker sterility, queen number, or
354 invasiveness (Morandin et al. 2016).

355 While in this study, half of the genes differentially expressed between queens and workers
356 show the same expression pattern across all species, another study identified only a single gene
357 similarly expressed between queens and workers a set of 16 species of multiple genera (Morandin et
358 al. 2016). The reason for this discrepancy may be explained by the different species relationships as
359 well as the underlying data basis. We studied species within a single, closely related clade and used
360 the genome of a single species as reference. In contrast, Morandin et al. (2016) investigated species
361 from five genera in different subfamilies based on de novo assembled transcriptomes. Additionally,
362 there is evidence for similarities in pathways across different lineages of social insects (ants, bees,
363 wasps) rather than a “common toolkit” of genes responsible for the caste phenotype (Berens et al.
364 2014). In our phylogenetically more restricted data set however, we identified 1,188 genes
365 representing the “core set” of queen-worker differences across the 15 species. For example, the gene
366 “*maternal protein exuperantia*”, a maternal effect gene which is needed for proper localisation of the
367 *bicoid* RNA during oocyte formation (de Oliveira et al 2017; McDonald et al. 1991), but also plays a
368 role in *Drosophila* spermatogenesis (Hazelrigg et al. 1990) was up-regulated in all queens. Also, “G1/S-
369 specific cyclin-D2” (*cycD*) was more strongly expressed in queens compared to workers in all but one
370 species. This gene is involved in cell cycle regulation and part of the “FoxO signalling” and “Wnt
371 signalling pathway”, both important regulators of longevity. It could thus be associated with the
372 lifespan differences between these two castes. More generally, half of the genes differentially
373 expressed between caste were associated with the UniProt functionalities “fecundity” and “longevity.”

374 Reflecting the convergent evolution of ant slavery (Beibl et al. 2005; Feldmeyer et al. 2017;
375 Prebus 2017), the different parasitic species not only show pronounced differences in their
376 morphology, but also in raiding behaviour (Brandt et al. 2006; Johnson 2008; Kleeberg and Foitzik

377 2016). Species-specific raiding patterns are mirrored by species-specific gene expression patterns
378 (Alleman et al. 2018) and genes under selection (Feldmeyer et al. 2017). Gene expression differences
379 between pairs of slave-makers and their hosts showed much more variation across species
380 (representing different origins of slaver-making) than the differences between queens and workers,
381 *i.e.*, there are many more idiosyncrasies in how slave-makers and hosts differ. Nevertheless, we
382 found 62 genes that varied with lifestyle, including genes for fatty acid synthases. This could be
383 indicative either of differences in fat synthesis and maybe storage between the two lifestyles, but
384 these synthases may also be involved in the synthesis of cuticular hydrocarbons which are used as
385 communication signals to discriminate species and castes (Leonhard et al. 2016).

386 As slave-makers are the derived lifestyle with species-specific behaviours and traits, we
387 expected to find more genes under selection in slave-makers than in hosts and/or non-host species,
388 however the number of selected genes did not differ between lifestyles. Genes with signatures of
389 selection were significantly enriched in functions such as protein modification, demethylation, and
390 energy maintenance. An interesting candidate among the genes that showed signatures of selection
391 in only one or a few of the species is venom protease-like in *T. muellerianus*. Though at present
392 nothing is known on the composition of the venom used by *T. muellerianus* to kill host ants during
393 slave-raids, many Hymenopteran venoms are proteases (Touchard et al. 2016). On a higher level,
394 many metabolism pathways were included in this overlapping gene list, including purine, alanine,
395 aspartate, valine, to name just a few, and the “mTOR signalling pathway”.

396

397 Conclusion

398 Social parasitism represents a derived state with clear differences to host and non-host species from
399 morphology to behaviour. In most social parasites, queens and workers are more similar than in host
400 species. Examining gene expression patterns and gene regulatory networks of 15 different ant
401 species spanning five origins of slave-making, we expected to find an interaction between caste and
402 lifestyle effects on gene expression patterns. Despite the phenotypic differences between

403 slavemaker and host castes, gene expression profiles are remarkably similar. We observed a very
404 strong and reliable effect of caste on gene expression. Within our species set, we were able to
405 identify a core-set of 1,188 caste-specific genes, which show a consistent expression pattern across
406 all species irrespective of lifestyle, pointing to a “genetic toolkit” in this set of related ant species.

407

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561 **Data Accessibility**

562 All raw sequence data underlying this study have been deposited in the National Centre for
563 Biotechnological Information (NCBI) Sequence Read Archive (SRA) and will be accessible upon
564 publication of this manuscript (BioProject accession number XY will follow in the next version of the
565 manuscript).

566 **Author Contributions**

567 The study was conceived by JH, EBB and SF, and was designed by EJ, BF, JH, EBB and SF. DG provided
568 ant samples. BF, CS, JW and EJ conducted the analyses. All authors contributed to writing the paper.
569 Authors declare no conflict of interest.

570 **Table 1:** Number of differentially expressed genes with a fecundity or longevity functionality based
 571 on a text mining approach using the UniProt database as a reference. Results of Fisher’s exact test
 572 are given indicating whether the number of genes with either fecundity or longevity association in
 573 caste and lifestyle are more than expected by chance.
 574

<i>Treatment</i>	Fecundity		Longevity	
	N of genes	P-Value	N of genes	P-value
<i>Caste</i>	1076	2.2e-16	412	0.0003
<i>Queen</i>	630		262	
<i>Worker</i>	447		150	
<i>Lifestyle</i>	31	6.619e-09	13	0.39
<i>Host</i>	9		6	
<i>Slave-maker</i>	23		7	

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579 **Table 2:** Shared enriched GO terms between queen-worker caste associated modules from this study,
 580 a study on 16 ant species from multiple genera (Morandin et al. 2016), and the termite *Cryptotermes*
 581 *secundus* (Lin et al. 2021).
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<u>Organism(s)</u>	<u>Shared enriched GO-terms with this study</u>
Multiple ants	cellular protein modification process
Multiple ants	protein modification process
Multiple ants	monovalent inorganic cation transport
<i>C. secundus</i>	cyclic nucleotide biosynthetic process
<i>C. secundus</i>	signal transduction
<i>C. secundus</i>	transmembrane transport
<i>C. secundus</i>	DNA replication initiation
<i>C. secundus</i>	transcription
<i>C. secundus</i>	G protein-coupled receptor signaling pathway
<i>C. secundus</i>	intracellular protein transport
<i>C. secundus</i>	proteolysis

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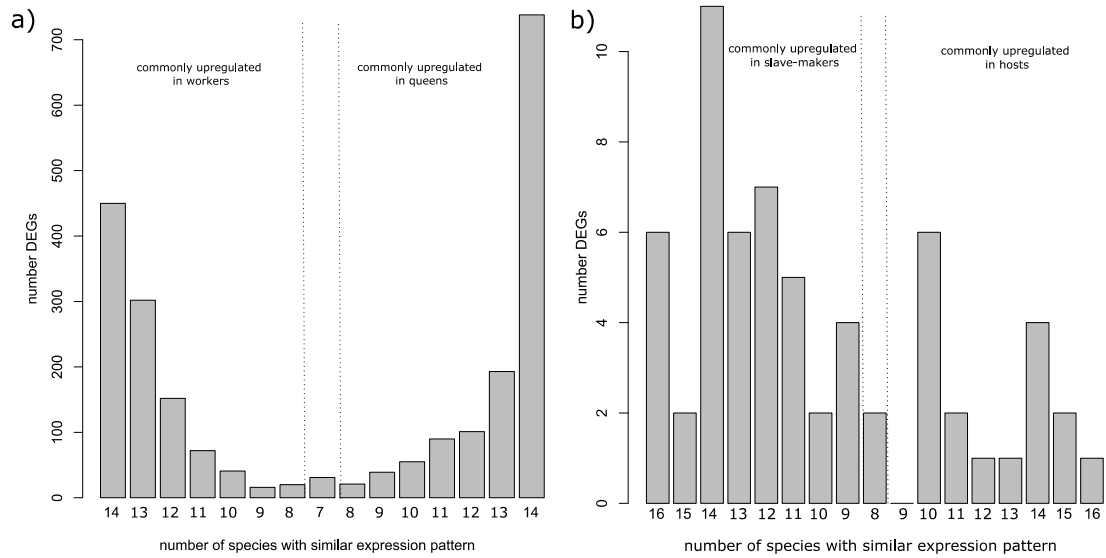
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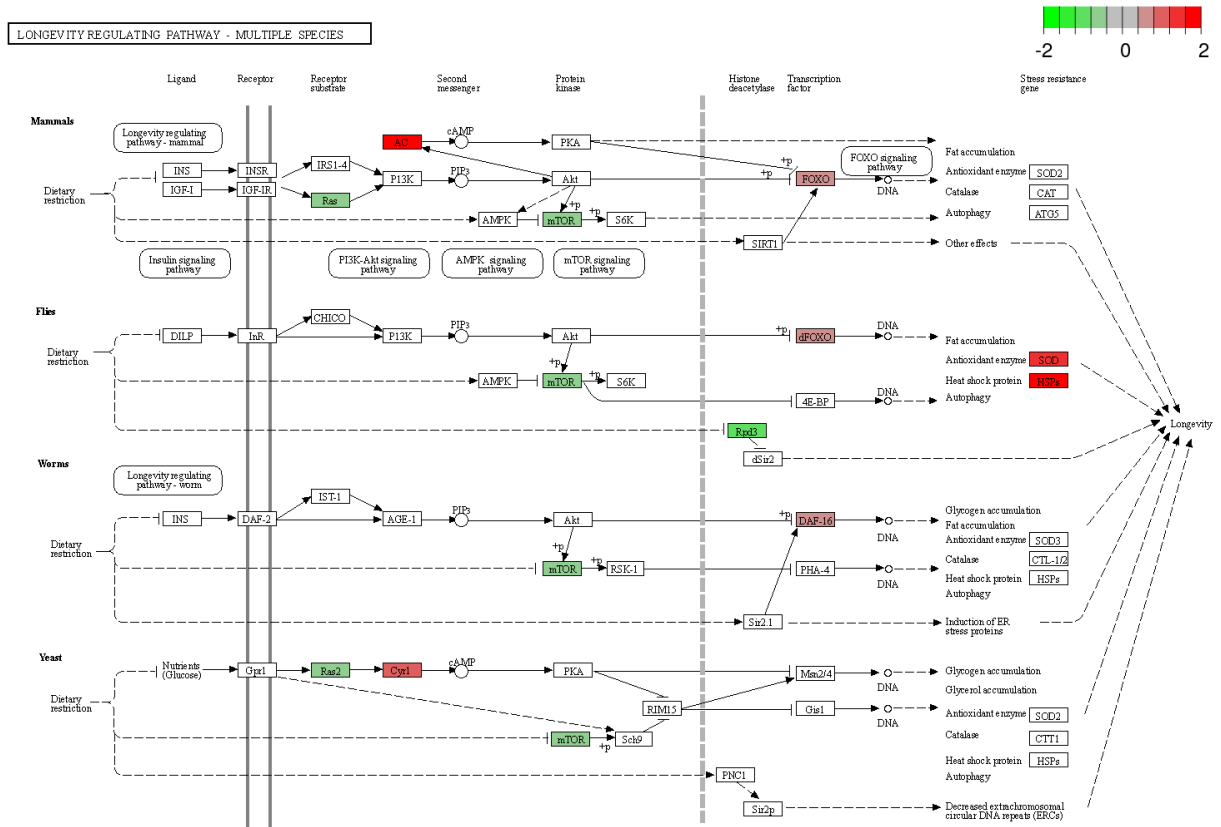
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Figure 1: Sample dendrogram and heatmap depicting a strong clustering according to caste and a weaker effect of lifestyle. The heatmap is based on the top 50 highest expressed genes. Slave-making species are highlighted in bold.



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600 **Figure 2:** Number of species with similar gene expression patterns in a) queen and worker, or b) host
601 and slave-maker comparisons. Please note that the host-slave-maker pairs add up to 16 comparisons
602 instead of 14, since *Harpagoxenus sublaevis* parasitizes two host species *L. acervorum* and *L.*
603 *muscorum*.
604

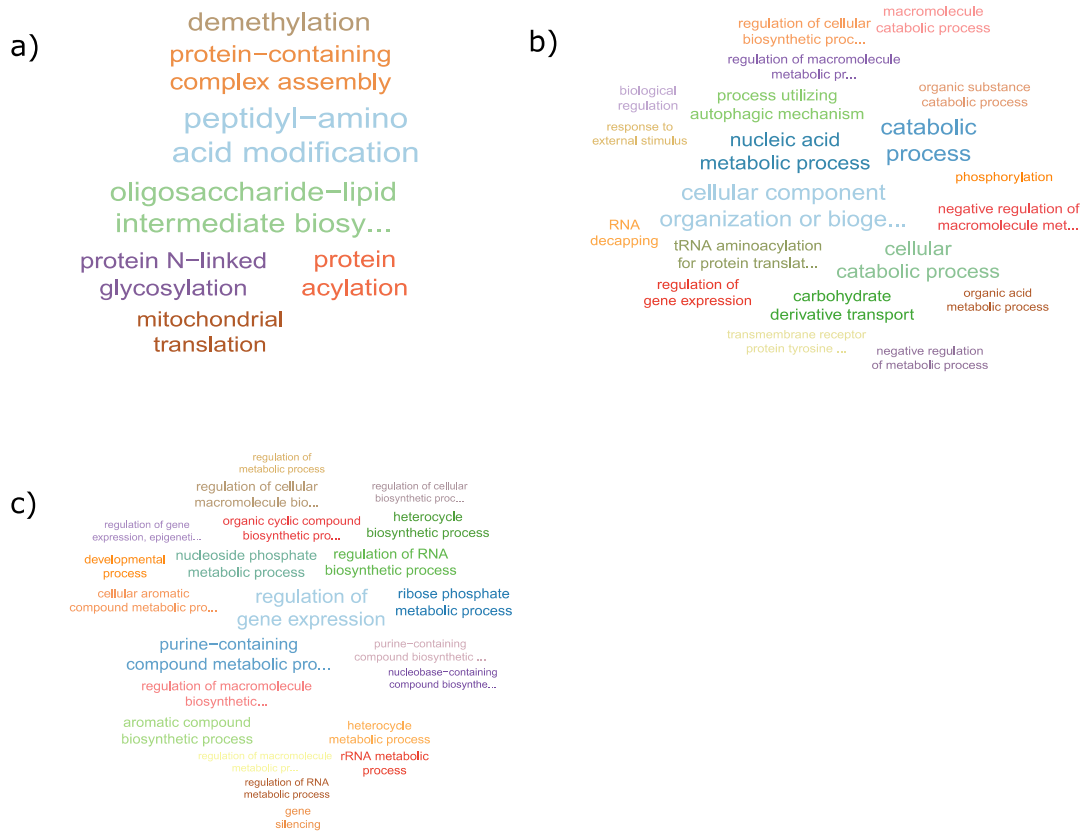


605 Data on KEGG graph

606 Rendered by Pathview

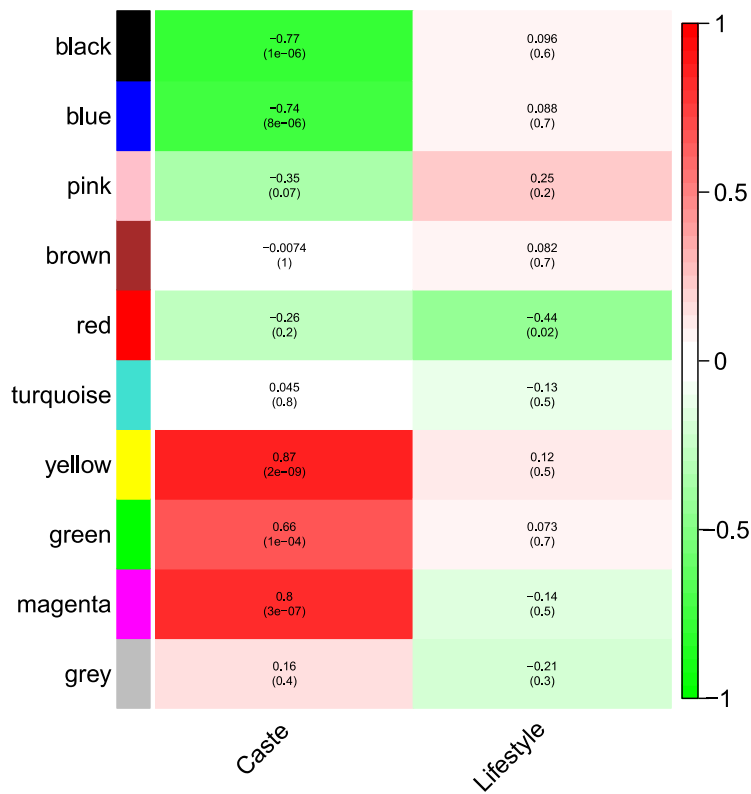
607 **Figure 3:** KEGG map depicting the “longevity regulating pathway” with up-regulated genes in queens

608 (negative logFC; green) versus up-regulated in workers (positive logFC; red).



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 610 **Figure 4:** Word clouds of enriched GO functions based on genes with signature of selection in a)
 611 slavemakers, b) hosts, c) non-hosts.
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Figure 5: Module trait relationship of the 10 gene co-expression clusters with caste and lifestyle. The strength of the correlation is given in the upper numbers and significance levels in parentheses below. Modules are labelled by colours according to standard WGCNA output. Green indicates modules of genes overexpressed in workers / slave-makers, red indicates those with genes more expressed in queens / hosts.