Title: Virgin Birth: A genetic basis for facultative parthenogenesis

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Abstract

Sexual reproduction evolved 1-2 billion years ago and underlies the biodiversity of our

planet. Nevertheless, devolution of sexual into asexual reproduction can occur across all

phyla of the animal kingdom. The genetic basis for how parthenogenesis can arise is

completely unknown. To understand the mechanism and benefits of parthenogenesis, we

have sequenced the genome of the facultative parthenogen, *Drosophila mercatorum*, and

compared its organisation and expression pattern during parthenogenetic or sexual

reproduction. We identified three genes, *desat2*, *Myc*, and *polo* in parthenogenetic *D.*

mercatorum that when mis-regulated in a non-parthenogenetic species, *D. melanogaster*,

enable facultative parthenogenetic reproduction. This simple genetic switch leads us to

propose that sporadic facultative parthenogenesis could evolve as an 'escape route'

preserving the genetic lineage in the face of sexual isolation.

Introduction

Parthenogenesis is a form of reproduction resulting in uniparental offspring having only the maternal genome; it is a virgin birth. There are two types of parthenogenesis: facultative, having the ability to switch back to sexual reproduction; and obligate, in which this is not possible. Sexual reproduction requires a carefully orchestrated program whereby the genome is first duplicated before undergoing two divisions in the absence of DNA synthesis to generate a complement of haploid gametes that can be combined with those of the opposite sex, or mating type in the context of lower eukaryotes, to generate a diploid zygote. Facultative parthenogens retain the key meiotic machinery and yet have a hitherto unknown, but likely heritable, change that enables them to regain diploidy after meiosis and initiate mitotic divisions. By contrast, obligate parthenogens can theoretically have a block anywhere in meiosis and may eliminate it completely. It is therefore likely that different mechanisms underlie parthenogenesis depending upon which stage of sexual reproduction is blocked. Parthenogenesis was first observed in aphids by Charles Bonnet in approximately 1740 and yet, its underlying mechanism has not been identified in any animal. Despite being poorly understood, parthenogenesis is generally regarded as being a deleterious reproductive strategy because it fails to generate genetic diversity. Nevertheless, parthenogenesis has evolved repeatedly across different phyla of animals and plants. One reason for the failure to identify any genetic cause of naturally occurring parthenogenesis in animals is that ancient obligate parthenogenetic lineages are often compared to similar, sexually reproducing counterparts that have sometimes diverged millions of years ago. It then becomes impossible to separate the primary cause from multiple downstream consequences. If we are to understand parthenogenesis, we must look at new species or, better yet, examine those able to switch from sexual to parthenogenetic reproduction. We postulated that a genetic cause likely underlies facultative parthenogenesis because it can undergo selection in *Drosophila*, locuts,

and chickens and increase in frequency over several generations [1-4]. We therefore sought

to uncover the genetic cause behind facultative parthenogenesis in *Drosophila mercatorum*,

by sequencing its genome and comparing gene expression patterns during the oogenesis of

females undertaking sexual or parthenogenetic reproduction. We, and now report a genetic

cause of sporadic facultative parthenogenesis in *D. mercatorum* and show how these traits

can be transferred to a sexually reproducing species, *Drosophila melanogaster.*

Results

The parthenogenetic ability of *D. mercatorum*

The facultative parthenogen, *D. mercatorum*, is unique in that some strains can behave as

obligate parthenogens upon transitioning to parthenogenetic reproduction and can then be

maintained in the lab indefinitely as healthy and easily expandable female only stocks [4-6].

D. mercatorum belongs to the *repleta* species group of South American cactus feeders which

are approximately 47 My diverged from *D. melanogaster* [7]. However, *D. mercatorum*

appears invasive and has spread, far beyond the range of most other *repleta*, to Australia and

as far north as New York [4, 8]. As nearly all strains of *D. mercatorum* studied to date show

some degree of parthenogenetic capability [4], we began by determining the baseline of

parthenogenesis in 8 different *D. mercatorum* strains using a classical assay adapted from the

first study of *Drosophila* parthenogenesis [3]. Large numbers of virgin females were

maintained on fresh food for the duration of their lives and the food examined for offspring at

any developmental stage. The numbers of progeny ranged from the generation of a small

number of developing embryos that died before hatching to the production of a small number

of fertile adult flies (Table S1). We observed that parthenogenetic offspring were produced

from middle aged mothers (Table S1). We also confirmed by PCR with general Wolbachia

primers that there was no Wolbachia infection (Table S1), since it is known to cause

parthenogenesis in other arthropods [9], although Wolbachia is only known to cause

cytoplasmic incompatibility in *Drosophila* [10]. We also confirmed that the strains examined

were indeed all *D. mercatorum* since they were able to interbreed producing viable and fertile

male and female offspring, although the parthenogenetically reproducing strain had slight

impediment to breeding and did not consistently produce offspring (Table S2). As a result of

these experiments, we selected two *D. mercatorum* stains for further study, a parthenogenetic

strain from Hawaii and a sexually reproducing strain with very low parthenogenetic

capability from São Paulo, Brazil.

The genome of *D. mercatorum*

In search for genetic changes permitting parthenogenesis, we chose to sequence and compare

the genomes of the chosen sexually reproducing and parthenogenetic strains of *D.*

mercatorum. We produced polished chromosome-level genome assemblies, using Oxford

Nanopore Technology (ONT) and Illumina sequencing technology, that were then annotated

(Fig. 1A). Most of the genes were on the 14 largest contigs (Fig. S1A-B). We ensured that the

sequencing depth and coverage were uniform by plotting the reads over the assembled

genome (Fig. S1C-D). The quality of the assemblies was assessed using standard metrics of

N50, coverage, genome size, and gene content (Fig. 1A). When aligned, the sexual and

parthenogenetic genomes were highly similar having only 1.2% divergence (Fig. 1B), which

is consistent with pairwise heterozygosity, and thus further confirming that they are indeed

the same species. We observed inversions on the 2L chromosome arm which had previously

been noticed between *D. mercatorum* populations collected from South and North America

[8, 11].

We found 24.4% divergence between both parthenogenetically and sexually reproducing *D.*

meractorum genome assemblies and the *D. melanogaster* reference genome (release 6).

There was clustering of each contig from both *D. meractorum* genomes to specific

chromosome arms in *D. melanogaster* (Fig. S2A-B), indicative of the shuffling of genes,

which largely remain on the same chromosome arms. We also confirmed chromosome arm

contig matching by checking the DNA k-mers using Nucmer (Fig. S3A-B). This accords with

long-held knowledge of how corresponding chromosome arms form a series of homologous

genetic 'building blocks' in different *Drosophila* species within which synteny is lost [12,

13]. These chromosome arm 'building blocks' correspond to the six Muller elements (A-F)

and are conserved across Diptera [14]. Together these analyses indicated that the

chromosome-level genome assemblies for the sexually and parthenogenetically reproducing

D. mercatorum strains were suited to detailed comparison between each other and with the *D.*

melanogaster genome.

We next confirmed that the genome assemblies matched the karyotypes of the sexual and

parthenogenetic of *D. mercatorum* strains by localising local sequence markers onto

preparations of mitotic chromosomes from *D. mercatorum* third instar larval brains using a

Hybridisation Chain reaction (HCR) fluorescence in situ hybridization (FISH) protocol that

we developed for this purpose (see Supplementary text). We selected single genes within

syntenic blocks that are conserved between *D. melanogaster* and *D. mercatorum* to serve as

markers for each of the 6 chromosome arms of the mitotic karyotype (Fig. 2A). This allowed

us to identify the Muller elements, A-F, for both sexual and parthenogenetic *D. mercatorum*

strains (Fig. 2B-C). We found a fusion of the 2L/B and 3R/E (*D. melanogaster*/Muller)

chromosome arms that was previously documented as unique to *D. mercatorum* within the

repleta group [11] and the remaining chromosome arms were telocentric. We observed that

the 4th chromosome of the parthenogenetic strain was substantially larger than the 4th

chromosome in the sexual strain and we continue to investigate the underlying reason for

this. We also used HCR FISH to physically position the 14 largest contigs from the

parthenogenetic genome onto the 3rd instar larval salivary gland polytene chromosomes of

both the sexual and parthenogenetic strains of *D. mercatorum*. We found that each contig

mapped to the chromosome arm as predicted by the annotation and nucleotide sequence (Fig.

2D-F). Notably the polytene 4th (F) chromosome of sexually and parthenogenetically

reproducing strains of *D. mercatorum* appeared of similar size suggesting that the increased

size of their corresponding diploid chromosomes is due to acquisition of satellite,

heterochromatic sequences that do not undergo endoreduplication in the generation of

polytene chromosomes. We conclude that the two chromosome-level genome assemblies of

the sexually and parthenogenetically reproducing *D. mercatorum* represent the protein coding

part of these genomes and accurately reflects chromosome organisation in this species.

Gene expression differences between sexual and parthenogenetic *D. mercatorum*

We argued that genomic changes with potential to lead to changes in reproductive ability

should reveal themselves as gene expression changes late in female germline development.

We therefore used RNA sequencing to characterise the transcriptomes of mature eggs (Stage

14 egg chambers) isolated from the sexual, parthenogenetic, and a 'partially parthenogenetic'

strain of *D. mercatorum*. The partially parthenogenetic strain reproduces sexually but has an

enhanced ability to switch to parthenogenetic reproduction. From the three transcription

profiles we identified 7656 genes that were expressed in mature eggs with the same

distribution as the annotated genes (Fig. S4A-B, Fig. S1A-B). There were 92 genes

differentially expressed in all three pairwise transcriptome comparisons (Fig. S4C, Tables

S3). However, there were few strongly and significantly differentially expressed genes and

after manual curation a subset were selected for further study, highlighted in the volcano

plots (Fig. S4D). We analysed the significantly differentially expressed genes from all

pairwise comparisons and found gene ontology (GO) enrichment of genes involved in redox,

immune function, wing disc growth, biosynthesis, proteolysis, and translation (Fig. S5A).

Following consideration of the GO analysis and the pairwise comparisons of expression, we

selected a further set of genes whose mis-regulation could potentially result in

parthenogenesis (Fig. 3A). Genes were selected that exhibited significant differential

expression ($p$adj<0.05) at a level equivalent to heterozygosis ($\log_2$ fold change $\pm$ 0.6) or

greater and were involved in common cellular processes, based upon the gene ontology

analysis.

Functional screens for parthenogenesis

We decided to take a two-pronged approach in an effort to identify genes that could lead to

parthenogenesis in a sexually reproducing fly: an unbiased screen of candidate genes from

the transcriptomics (Fig. 3A), a biased screen of candidate genes based on their cell

cycle/centriole functions (Fig. 3B), and a series of controls (Fig. 3C). For the first group, our

objective was to replicate, as far as possible, the degree of differential expression seen

between *D. meractorum* strains (Fig. S6). Since all strains of *D. mercatorum* we screened

were already parthenogenetic to some degree, we carried out this screen in the non-

parthenogenetic species *D. melanogaster*. Using 13 different *Drosophila* species, we first

determined that a baseline indicator of parthenogenesis could be given by testing the ability

of approximately 500 virgin female flies to generate progeny (Table S4). Strong levels of

parthenogenesis could be detected with as little as 30 flies. Using these criteria, we found that

two typical laboratory strains of *D. melanogaster* (w^- and *Oregon-R*) showed no

parthenogenesis whatsoever, whereas a strain caught in the wild (*CB1*) produced a small

number of embryos that showed restricted development before dying (Table S5). This

accords with previous findings that *D. melanogaster* strains caught in the wild have slight

parthenogenetic ability [3].

We then tested whether down-regulating the *D. melanogaster* homologs of genes showing

reduced expression in parthenogenetic *D. mercatorum* strains would result in the production

of offspring that died as embryos, larvae, pupae, or from old age as adult flies. To this end,

we examined CRISPR knock-out alleles that we generated in candidate genes (Fig. S7, Table

S6); publicly available mutants; or established lines in which candidate genes were down-

regulated by RNAi. We also tested *D. melanogaster* constructs engineered to increase

expression of genes whose homologues had elevated expression in the parthenogenetic *D.*

mercatorum strains. In the case of variant alleles that were not homozygous viable, screening

was carried out on heterozygotes. Together we screened a total of 44 genes (Fig. 3A-C, see

Supplementary text) and identified 16 able to cause 0.1-0.4% parthenogenesis in *D.*

melanogaster when their expression was either increased or decreased (Fig. S8A; Table S7

and see Supplementary text). The parthenogenesis observed resulted in the offspring

developing to varying stages and dying as embryos or from old age as adult flies. The

percentage given is relative to the number of adult flies screened. For this single mutant

screen, we found largely only the generation of embryos that died before hatching.

The low level of parthenogenesis detected in this single mutant screen, where the expression

of only a single gene was perturbed, is in line with earlier studies that had concluded that

parthenogenesis was a polygenic trait [4]. This consideration led us to carry out a double

mutant screen in which we combined pairs of variants in different genes into individual fly

stocks that we then screened for parthenogenesis. This revealed several mutant combinations

able to generate between 0.5-7% parthenogenetic offspring that died as embryos, larvae,

pupae, or from old age as adult flies. From the more successful combinations, we found that

one of the mutant genes either encoded a desaturase, *desat1* or *desat2*, or a protein

predominantly involved in regulating cell division and proliferation, *Myc*, *slmb*, or *polo* (Fig.

4A, and Table S8). Notably, 0.8% of the offspring derived from females heterozygous for a

mutation in *desat2* and carrying two extra copies of a *polo* transgene expressed from its

endogenous promotor (*GFP-polo*[4+];; *desat1*^{-/+}) developed to adulthood (Table S8). This level

of *D. melanogaster* parthenogenesis is a comparable the 'partially parthenogenetic' strain of

D. mercatorum used in generating the transcriptomics data. Parthenogenesis results from

decreased expression of either *desat1* or *desat2*. Since the *desat2* allele is known to be a

natural variant present in most populations, we determined whether our *desat1* stock carries

the *desat2* allele and indeed it does. Therefore, the *desat1* stock is a double mutant for *desat1*

and *desat2*, accounting for its stronger phenotype.

We then asked whether the parthenogenetic offspring obtained from these screens for

parthenogenesis in *D. melanogaster* were themselves able to carry out parthenogenetic

reproduction and found that none of them could (Tables S7-8). We did, however, find that the

parthenogenetic *D. melanogaster* were still able to mate with males and produce fertile

offspring (Fig. S8B), similar to previous findings [4]. The parthenogenetic *D. mercatorum*

offspring from the sexually reproducing stocks could not be established as a lab stock and did

not survive beyond the 7th generation of parthenogenesis as also found previously [15]. Even

our long-held stocks of fully parthenogenetic females were able to mate with males (Table

S2). Therefore, we have not found a genetic combination that leads to obligate-like

parthenogenesis, but we have identified key genes for facultative parthenogenesis.

Having identified *D. mercatorum* genes whose homologues led to a degree of

parthenogenetic development when mis-expressed in *D. melanogaster,* we looked for

genomic differences in these genes in sexual and parthenogenetic strains of *D. mercatorum*.

We found no substantial changes in gene organisation of *desat1/2*, *polo*, or *slmb,* although we

cannot exclude the possibility of changes in distal enhancer elements that have not been

mapped (Fig. S9A-D, Supplementary text). There were several changes to the *Myc* locus that

could affect the expression of the protein and change its downstream function (Fig. S9E). The

Myc locus of the parthenogenetic strain showed many deletions and insertions leading to the

changes in primary amino-acid sequence of the protein as indicated in Fig. S10A. None of

these mutations affected either the basic Helix-Loop-Helix (bHLH) DNA-binding domain or

the three Myc Box (MB) domains (1-3), or the three known phosphorylation sites of the Myc

protein (Fig. S9E) [16-18]. There were also changes in genome organisation at the *Myc* locus

of the *D. mercatorum* parthenogenetic genome, which has a 1.4kbp repetitive region between

a *Drosophila* INterspersed Elements-1 (DINE-1/INE1) transposable element (TE) and the

Myc coding region, which are 9.3kbp apart. A similar TE insertion in the classic mutant allele

of *Myc* (*dm1*) causes the minute phenotype [16], therefore having a repressive effect on Myc

expression. The 1.4kbp repetitive sequence present in the parthenogenetic genome between

the gene and the TE could allow de-repression resulting in an increased expression of *Myc*

relative to the sexually reproducing flies. Finally, we detected a 48bp deletion in the

parthenogenetic genome 344bp up stream of the start site. The above mutations have the

potential to affect the transcription, translations, or protein stability of Myc. Moreover, they

might also perturb Myc's functions as a transcription factor to influence the expression of the

other genes identified in our study [19]. Future studies will be required to distinguish these

possibilities.

The development of parthenogenetic embryos

To understand how development might be initiated during parthenogenesis we first examined

fertilised eggs from the sexually reproducing *D. mercatorum* strain that were initiating the

mitotic nuclear division cycles (Fig 5C, Fig. S11A) to compare to the parthenogenetic eggs.

The extent to which nuclear division cycles could take place in parthenogenetic *D.*

mercatorum reflected the extent of parthenogenicity. We observed that 38% of unfertilised

eggs from the parthenogenetic strain had one or more cell divisions (Fig 5A,C, Fig. S11E-G),

whereas 12% of unfertilised eggs from the partially parthenogenetic strain showed one or

more cell divisions (Fig 5B,C, Fig. S11B-D). The sexually reproducing *D. mercatorum*

embryos had timely cell divisions and no obvious nuclear defects. In contrast, the unfertilised

parthenogenetic and partially parthenogenetic embryos developed with abnormal numbers of

nuclei (Fig. S11D) or DNA abnormalities (Fig. S11G). All parthenogenetic *Drosophilids*

appear to retain normal meiosis and rediploidise their genomes either by fusion of one or

more of the four haploid nuclei arising from meiosis or by post-meiotic duplication of the

haploid gamete [3, 5, 20-24]. All four meiotic products, three polar bodies and the female

pronucleus, are present within the *Drosophilid* egg, and the three polar normally fuse and

arrest in a mitotic-like state. We only observed the presence of polar bodies in 44% of

parthenogenetic embryos that initiated the mitotic nuclear division cycles suggesting that the

missing polar bodies may be participating in the mitotic nuclear division cycles in the

developing embryos.

We then examined fertilised and unfertilised wildtype *D. melanogaster* eggs and compared

their development to the parthenogenetic *D. melanogaster* eggs. All unfertilised wildtype *D.*

melanogaster eggs completed meiosis and 70% appeared to have entered the first mitotic

division and had condensed chromosomes (Fig 5N, Fig. S12A-B). In contrast, nearly all

fertilised embryos had begun to undergo the mitotic nuclear division cycles (Fig 5N, Fig.

S11C-D). Development of the induced parthenogenetic *D. melanogaster* embryos mirrored

the findings from the parthenogenesis screens. We found nearly all unfertilised eggs laid by

either *GFP-polo^{4+}* or *desat2$^{-/-}$* mothers were not able to undertake mitotic nuclear division

cycles (Fig. 5D-E,G-J,O, Fig. S13A-D). By contrast, 6% of the unfertilised eggs laid by

GFP-polo^{4+} ; ; *desat2$^{-/+}$ D. melanogaster* mothers could undertake at least limited mitosis

(Fig. 5F,K-M,O, Fig. S13E-G). Similar to the unfertilised parthenogenetic and partially

parthenogenetic *D. mercatorum* embryos, the parthenogenetic *D. melanogaster* embryos had

abnormal numbers of nuclei and/or DNA abnormalities. Although there are abnormalities in

these parthenogenetic embryos, during early embryogenesis there only need be one normal

nucleus dividing to produce an animal. We were unable to observe polar bodies in the

unfertilised $GFP\text{-}polo^{4+}$; ; $desat2^{-/+}$ - derived eggs that had initiated the mitotic cell divisions

and found that nuclei were not present in the expected ratio, suggesting that the polar bodies

participate in the nuclear division cycles. This leads us to propose that the recapture of polar

bodies contributes to rediploidisation in these induced parthenogenetic $D.\ melanogaster$

embryos.

Discussion

Our study offers the first account of a molecular basis underlying the evolution of any type of

parthenogenesis in any animal. Our findings relate specifically to the Dipteran $D.$

$mercatorum$ and suggest a route through which parthenogenesis could arise in this species.

Key to this is the differential expression of $desat$ and cell cycle genes between

parthenogenetically and sexually reproducing strains. The ability of $desat1$ mutants to

enhance the phenotype of $desat2$ mutants in driving parthenogenesis when heterozygous in

$D.\ melanogaster$ is likely a consequence of overlapping function between their encoded

proteins, which show 85% identity in amino-acid sequence. Both $desat1$ and $desat2$ encode

desaturases that generate double bonds in hydrocarbons and have roles in lipid metabolism.

Desat1 also generates double bonds during sex pheromone biogenesis [25], and $desat1$

mutations can result in female resistance to mating. Desat2 desaturates cuticular

hydrocarbons; it has been associated with increased cold tolerance [26] and is credited with

imparting the ability $of\ D.\ melanogaster$ to become invasive and colonise cosmopolitan

habitats. The highly pleiotropic nature of $desat1$ and $desat2$ makes it difficult to determine

how their down-regulation relates to the increased incidence of parthenogenesis. As their

mutation leads to a higher fluidity of membranes, it is possible that this could influence a wide range of membrane associated trafficking events associated with the completion of female meiosis, behaviour of the polar bodies, and the onset of zygotic mitoses. The potential effects of these mutations upon such events will require detailed future studies.

The other group of genes involved in enabling parthenogenesis regulate some aspect of cell cycle progression. Slmb is a subunit of the SCF, the Skp, Cullin, F-box containing ubiquitin ligase complex that regulates S phase entry by targeting multiple substrates. One of the multiple targets of the SCF is Myc [27]. There was only a modest increase in Myc transcripts (0.6 Log_2 fold change) in the parthenogenetic strain, however, this expression level change was highly significant (padj<0.001) and is equivalent to having one extra copy of the gene. The Myc bHLH transcription factor has been shown to give *D. melanogaster* cells a competitive growth advantage [28] and could account for the finding that parthenogenetic offspring are physically larger than the sexually reproducing animals [29]. Myc is known to promote Polo-like-kinase1 expression in mammalian cells that in turn destabilises SCF [30]. If a similar mechanism were to act in *Drosophila*, this could account for the relationships we observe here to promote parthenogenesis. Our findings suggest that an effective step towards establishing parthenogenesis is the heterozygosity of *desat1* or *desat2* coupled to *Myc* over-expression or heterozygosity of the SCF (slmb).

Although we have shown that we can induce parthenogenesis in a sexually reproducing line of *D. melanogaster* to a similar degree as a partially parthenogenetic strain of *D. mercatorum*, we are not able to maintain these animals as a parthenogenetic stock. Therefore, although we identify a significant step towards heritable parthenogenesis, this is not the end of the story and additional changes would be required for parthenogenesis to become fixed in a population and transit to more obligate-like parthenogenetic reproduction. Moreover, there are likely to be many alternative paths to the devolution of sexual reproduction in animals

and this could explain the varying degree of parthenogenetic ability, not only within *D.*

mercatorum, but also across the *Drosophila* genus. Given the polygenic nature of facultative

parthenogenesis and the fact that there are multiple inputs into core cell cycle regulation, it

may explain why no unifying signature of parthenogenesis has been found to date [31]. Thus,

we anticipate that parthenogenesis might have different causal events in each species or even

between individuals of the same species.

Some consider sporadic facultative parthenogenesis to be an unimportant accident. However,

there could be a benefit of having sporadic facultative parthenogenesis inducing

heterozygotic mutations floating around in the population, they may facilitate an 'extinction

escape hatch', thus helping a lineage of the species stave off extinction in the face of isolation

until an opportunity to mate arises again. Parthenogenesis is spread across the order Diptera

and rare facultative parthenogenesis is prevalent in *Drosophila* [32] making it likely that the

mechanism we propose is not restricted to *D. mercatorum.*

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Data and materials availability: All raw and analyzed *D. mercatorum* genomic and

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used for analysis in on GitHub via FabianDK and ekg, all *Drosophila strains/stocks* will be

offered to Bloomington Stock Centre or made available upon request.

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445

Figure 1: **Sexual and Parthenogenetic *D. mercatorum* genome analysis.** A) Genome

assembly data metrics, quality control, and annotation metrics B) Alignment of the

parthenogenetic *D. mercatorum* genome against the sexual genome.

Figure 2: *D mercatorum* karyotyping and genome assembly physical mapping. A) Select

genes used for probes to identify the chromosome arms. B) Mitotic chromosomes with the

chromosome arm indicated for the parthenogenetic and sexually reproducing *D. mercatorum*

3rd instar neuroblasts stained with DAPI and the probes indicated in 'A', chromosomes are

outlined with a white dashed line. The indicated chromosome was marked in 100% of typical

karyotypes analysed (n≥42, N≥3). The scale is 1μm. C) Cartoon of the parthenogenetic and

sexual *D. mercatorum* karyotype with the analogous *D. melanogaster* chromosomes

indicated along with the Muller Element letter in brackets. D) Select genes that have

chromosome level synteny across the genus *Drosophila* that were used to make probes for

mapping contigs to the polytene chromosomes. E) Images of polytene chromosomes used for

mapping of the largest 14 contigs of the sexual and parthenogenetic *D. mercatorum* genomes,

chromosomes were stained with DAPI and HCR in situ DNA probes matching the genes

listed in 'B'. The scale is 10μm. F) Schematic of the mapping of the first 14 Contigs.

Figure 3: Unbiased and biased candidate genes that were screened for parthenogenesis.

A) Differentially expressed genes between the parthenogenetic, partially parthenogenetic, and

sexual transcriptomes, the function was assigned from flybase.org, the $\log_2$ fold change and

the *p*adj are given for only the parthenogenetic vs sexual comparison except those with a (*)

are from the partial parthenogenetic vs sexual comparison, the screening was performed with

the listed genetic tools. B) Biased screen of cell cycle and centrosome genes that were not

differentially expresses, the function was attributed from flybase.org and the screening was

performed with the listed genetic tools. D) Negative controls that were not differentially

expressed, the screening was performed with the listed genetic tools.

Figure 4: Double mutant screen results. A) Positive results from the functional screens of

candidate genes that may cause parthenogenesis and two controls, the *p*-value was calculated

using the Fisher's exact test the control used for these calculations was the combined results

from the primary screen for the two genes used.

Figure 5: Parthenogenetic *D. mercatorum* and *D. melanogaster* embryos.

A-B) Unfertilised parthenogenetic and partially parthenogenetic *D. mercatorum* embryos.

The parthenogenetic embryo has entered the mitotic divisions. The partially parthenogenetic

embryo has initiated the first mitosis. Refer to Fig. S11. C) Histogram of the proportion of

sexually and parthenogenetically reproducing *D mercatorum* eggs/embryos that have

aggregated polar bodies, initiated the first mitosis, or have entered the mitotic cell divisions.

E-D) *GFP-polo^{4+}*, *desat2$^{-/-}$*, and *GFP-polo^{4+}; desat2$^{-/+}$ D. melanogaster* embryos that have

initiated the first mitosis, aggregated polar bodies, and have entered the mitotic cell divisions,

respectively. G-M) *GFP-polo^{4+}*, *desat2$^{-/-}$*, and *GFP-polo^{4+}; desat2$^{-/+}$ D. melanogaster*

embryos that have initiated the first mitosis, aggregated polar bodies, and have entered the

mitotic cell divisions. N) Histogram of the proportion of wildtype unfertilised and fertilised

D. melanogaster eggs/embryos that have aggregated polar bodies, initiated the first mitosis,

or have entered the mitotic cell divisions, refer to Fig. S12 for examples. O) Histogram of the

proportion of unfertilised *GFP-polo^{4+}*, *desat2$^{-/-}$*, and *GFP-polo^{4+}; desat2$^{-/+}$ D. melanogaster*

embryos that have aggregated polar bodies, initiated the first mitosis, or have entered the

mitotic cell divisions. The Fisher's exact test was used to calculate all p-values. The nuclei

are marked with asterisks. The scale is 10μm.

Figure 2

A

	Candidate genes from the transcriptomics screens			
Gene	**Function**	**Log$_2$ Fold Change**	**p$_{adj}$**	**Screened with**
Asciz	Transcription	-0.6	1.3^{-4}	RNAi
bam	Cell fate	-4.8	8.4^{-25}	RNAi/mutant
c(2)M	Female meiosis	-1.4	1.7^{-8}	RNAi
Cad96Ca	Receptor tyrosine kinase	-7.4	2.5^{-126}	RNAi
CG4329	Cilia/flagella	-2.8	2.6^{-3}	RNAi
CG4496	Transcription	-1.8	3.2^{-15}	RNAi
CG10433	Female receptivity	-2.7	7.0^{-2}	RNAi
CG17202	Myc-binding	-0.8	3.5^{-5}	mutant
CG42808	Unknown	-3.4	2.5^{-3}	RNAi
chrb	Cell growth inhibition	-2.2	2.9^{-71}	RNAi
CRMP	Pyrimidine catabolism	-3.0	5.2^{-4}	RNAi/mutant
desat1	Fatty acid desaturase	-0.6	1.7	RNAi/mutant
desat2	Fatty acid desaturase	-6.6	1.3^{-7}	RNAi/mutant
e(r)	Pyrimidine biosynthesis	-2.7	1.5^{-3}	mutant
eya*	Transcription	1.6	0.12	UAS/Gal4 overexpression
f	Actin filament	-2.8	3.7^{-11}	RNAi/mutant
FER	Tyrosine kinase	-2.4	1.5^{-3}	RNAi/mutant
gnu	Translation	3.5	1.7^{-73}	mutant/UAS/Gal4 overexpression
ktub	Endocytosis	-3.3	5.7^{-4}	RNAi/mutant
msd1	Mitotic spindle	-0.6	6.2^{-3}	mutant
Myc	Transcription	0.7	9.2^{-3}	UAS/Gal4 overexpression
Nmnat	Adenylyltransferase	1.7	1.9^{-10}	UAS/Gal4 overexpression
pnt	Transcription	1.8	1.7^{-9}	UAS/Gal4 overexpression
Rcd4	Centrosome	2.0	2.3^{-27}	UAS/Gal4 and ubiquitous expression
Roc1a	SCF complex/Cell cycle	-0.6	2.3^{-6}	mutant UAS/Gal4 overexpression
RpL10Ab	Ribosome	-0.8	1.6^{-8}	mutant
spir	Actin nucleation	1.0	2.0^{-2}	UAS/Gal4 overexpression

B

	Candidate Cell cycle and centrosome: centriole/pericentriolar material (PCM) genes	
Gene	**Function**	**Screened with**
ana2	Centriole	CRISPR
asl	Centriole/PCM	CRISPR/ubiquitous expression
cnn	PCM	mutant
cyclinE	Cell cycle	UAS/Gal4 overexpression
morula	Cell cycle	CRISPR
Plk4	Centriole/Centrosome	CRISPR/UAS/Gal4 overexpression
Plp	PCM	CRISPR
plu	Translation	CRISPR
png	Translation	CRISPR
polo	Cell cycle	mutants/endogenous promotor overexpression
Sas-6	PCM	CRISPR/ubiquitous expression
slmb	SCF complex/Cell cycle	CRISPR/mutant
Rca1	Cell cycle	UAS/Gal4 overexpression
teful/atm	Serine/threonine kinase	RNAi/mutant

C

	Negative controls	
Gene	**Function**	**Screened with**
CG3436	Cell cycle	mutant
dhd	embryonic development	mutant
Klp64D	Motor protein	RNAi/mutant
Trx-2	Redox	RNAi/mutant
w	Eye pigment transporter	RNAi/mutant

Figure 3

A | Summary of the double mutant screen: Genes that cause parthenogenesis when combined and select controls

Genotype	Percent parthenogenetic offspring	p value
desat1$^{+/-}$ / desat2$^{+/-}$	0.4%	1
desat2$^{+/-}$ / slmb$^{+/-}$	1.2%	0.13
Myc$^{+/+}$; desat1$^{+/-}$	0%	1
Myc$^{+/+}$; desat2$^{+/-}$	0%	1
Plk4$^{+/-}$ / slmb$^{+/-}$	0.9%	0.33
polo^{4+} ; ; desat1$^{+/-}$	1.7-5.2%	<0.003
polo^{4+} ; ; desat2$^{+/-}$	1.6-7.4%	<0.003
polo^{4+} ; Myc$^{+/+}$	0.6%	0.1217
polo^{4+} ; ; slmb$^{+/-}$	3.1%	3.2^{-08}
polo^{4+} ; ; w-RNAi$^{/-}$	0%	1
desat1$^{+/1}$ / w-RNAi$^{/-}$	0%	1

Figure 4

Figure 5

Figure S1:

Figure S2:

A DNA k-mers of the sexual *D. mercatorum* genome mapped onto the *D. melanogaster* chromosome arms

B DNA k-mers of the parthenogenetic *D. mercatorum* genome mapped onto the *D. melanogaster* chromosome arms

Figure S3:

Figure S4:

A Gene Ontology enrichment for differentially expressed genes present in all transciptomics comparisons

Figure S5:

Figure S6:

J

slmb genomic region target-site and resulting mutant

ATG/4462bp/ATCATCCGAGCTGGTCTGCAAGG

UTR

UTR

CCGAATCGGATGACCTGGATTTC/36bp/ATG

slmb[i33] / TM6B

ATG/4414bp│145bp/CCGAAT│GACCTGGATTTC/36bp/ATG

slmb[i41] / TM6B

ATG/4462bp/ATCATCCGAGCTGG│TCGGATGACCTG/42bp/ATG

slmb[i44] / TM6B

ATG/4462bp/ATCATCCGAGC│AGCAAGG

ATC│CGGATGACCTGGATTTC/36bp/ATG

Figure S7:

A

Single Mutant Screen: Genes that cause a small percentage of parthenogenesis			
Genotype	**Screened with**	**Percent parthenogenetic offspring**	**p value**
$asl^{-/+}$	CRISPR	0.1%	0.50
$cnn^{-/+}$	Mutant	0.1%	0.38
$CRMP^{-/+}$	Mutant	0.2%	0.50
$desat1^{-/-}$	RNAi/Mutant	0.2-0.4%	>0.035
$desat2^{-/-}$	Mutant	0.3%	0.40
$f^{-/-}$	RNAi/Mutant	0.1%	0.50
$gnu^{-/+}$	CRISPR	0.2%	0.50
$ktub^{-/+}$	RNAi/Mutant	0.1-0.4%	0.20
$mr^{-/+}$	CRISPR	0.1%	0.40
$Myc^{+/+}$	Over-expression	0.3%	0.23
$Plp^{-/+}$	CRISPR	0.1%	0.24
$plu^{-/+}$	CRISPR	0.1%	0.50
$polo^{4+}$	Over-expression	0.1%	0.49
$Sas-6^{-/+}$	Over-expression	0.1%	0.40
$slmb^{-/+}$	CRISPR	0.3%	0.17
$Trx-2^{-/-}$	RNAi	0.4%	0.11

B

Parthenogenetic Female Mating		
Drosophila species/genotype	**Successful F2**	**No F2**
melanogaster		
$polo^{4+}$; $desat1^{-/+}$	1	0
$polo^{4+}$; $desat2^{-/+}$	2	0
mercatorum		
partially parthenogenetic	9	5

Figure S8:

Figure S9:

A Protein sequence comparison between mouse, human, mosquito, *D. melanogaster*, sexual *D. mercatorum*, and parthenogenetic *D. mercatorum*

```
mouse                      ------------------------------------------------------------   0
human                      ------------------------------------------------------------   0
mosquito                   MVSIKQEPSCWDDIKTISIKQELSNWDDSH--NMDIDWEQDIGIQFMDLPTSEFLTSAVE   58
Dmelanogaster              -----------MAL---YRSDPYSIMDDQLFSNISIFDMDNDLYDMDKLLSSSTIQSDLE   46
Sexual_Dmercatorum         -----MTTACSSGI---CISGEFDLMDEMGFDLLE-FNVQDIGY------RLPSIQNDLE   45
parthenogenetic_Dmercatorum -----MTTACSSGI---CISGEFDLMDEMGFDLLE-FNVQDIGY------RLPSIQNDLE   45
```

Myc box 1   Myc box 2
```
mouse                      ------------------------------------------------------------   0
human                      ------------------------------------------------------------   0
mosquito                   LEQTYGSATCPANGWEQPASSKTQIRNHDCMWSGTCFDQSHPGKMGCGTNHGPANTTQDQ   118
Dmelanogaster              KIEDMESV-F--QDYDLEEDMKPEIRNIDCMWPAMSS--CLTSGNGNGIE            91
Sexual_Dmercatorum         KIAAEHAHNMNSLALADDFDIKPEIRNGDCMWSAFGS--SANGGVNGANNNNNNNSSNI   103
parthenogenetic_Dmercatorum KIAAEHAHNMNSLALADDFDIKPEIRNGDCMWSAFGS--SANGGVNGANNNN-NNNSSNI   102
                                                                              1 aa deletion
```

```
mouse                      ------------------------------------------------------------   0
human                      ------------------------------------------------------------   0
mosquito                   S--EVSNKFSTVTAVAAASLNNNVV----------------VS---------QKPILT--   149
Dmelanogaster              SGNSAASSYSETGAVSLAMVSGSTNLYSAYQRSQT-TDNTQSNQQHVVNSAENMPVIIKK   150
Sexual_Dmercatorum         NSLSAASSYSESSAVPPAFVSGSTLHIKRELEDEVQLEEVHDQDQDNDSNSENCPVNSNS   163
parthenogenetic_Dmercatorum NSLSAASSYSESSAVPPAFVSGSTLHIKRELEDEVQLEEVHDQDQDNDSNSENCPVNSN-   161
```

```
mouse                      ------------------------------------------------------------   0
human                      ------------------------------------------------------------   0
mosquito                   -----------------------PANTSAMNINNNLTAKMATVKQQIPAGRSLLISSR   184
Dmelanogaster              ELADLDYTVCQKRLRLSGGDKKSQ-----------------IQDEVHLIPPGGSLLRKRN   193
Sexual_Dmercatorum         GSNSSGIRKRTNSCRSTGGSSKVAAATATPTISIPSRMIHRDPVIEPYIPPGGSLLRKSN   223
parthenogenetic_Dmercatorum ---SSGIRKRTNSCRSTGGSSKVAAATATPTISIPSRMIHRDPVIEPYIPPGGSLLRKSN   218
                           4 aa deletion
```

```
mouse                      ------------------MDFLWALET-------PQTATTM------------------   16
human                      ------------------MDFFRVVEN-------QQPPATM------------------   16
mosquito                   IKQQMNRIPTVST---S---DFLR--ERETAVPLHRPDTPLSL--DEDPPEFKHNIDLAT   234
Dmelanogaster              NQDIIRKSGELSG---SDSIKY-----------QRPDTPHSLTDEVAASEFRHNVDLRA   238
Sexual_Dmercatorum         TQHKLQQQKLQQQQQQQQRLTYLLSSNNYNNSNNNSNNNSYSMPEDEVLPVFRHNVDLRA   283
parthenogenetic_Dmercatorum TQHKLQQQKLQQQQQQQQRLTYLLSSNNYNNSNNNSNNNSYSMPEDEVLPVFRHNVDLRA   278
                                             :              :   ::
```

```
mouse                      ----PLNVNFTNRNYDLDYDS----------------------VQPY------------   37
human                      ----PLNVSFTNRNYDLDYDS----------------------VQPY------------   37
mosquito                   CTIGSNRLSLTGHSRHYKNHQSHHDDPSSHRIINMLKEHLEDNESSSFRTCMASSTGEVG   294
Dmelanogaster              CVMGSNNISLTGNDSDVNY-------------IKQISRELQNTGKDPLPVR-YIP-----   279
Sexual_Dmercatorum         CVMGSNNISLTN-SSDANI-------------IDLLSRELQNTSKERIDLP-YRIPGDPP   328
parthenogenetic_Dmercatorum CVMGSNNISLTN-SSDANI-------------IDLLSRELQNTSKERIDLP-YRIPGDPP   323
                              .:.:*. . . .                                  .
```

```
mouse                      FICDEEENFYHQQQQSE---------LQPPAPSEDIWKKFELLPTPPLPSPSRRSGLCSPS   88
human                      FYCDEEENFYQQQQQSE---------LQPPAPSEDIWKKFELLPTPPLPSPSRRSGLCSPS   88
mosquito                   SLTDLLNDLEEMEEM----------------------------------ES-R----DGDD   316
Dmelanogaster              PINDVLDVLNQHSNSTGGQQQLNQQQLDEQQQAIDIATGRNTVDSPPTTG-S----DSDS   334
Sexual_Dmercatorum         IITDVLEVLNQQAQQSASSAA----------AAAAAAAAAATLSPPATTA-T----SSDS   373
parthenogenetic_Dmercatorum IITDVLEVLNQQAQQSASSAA----------AAAAAAAAAATLSPPATTA-T----SSDS   368
                            *  : : .  :                                            . .
```

```
mouse                      YVAVATSFSPRE--------DDDGGGG--NFSTADQLEMM--TELLGGDMVNQSFICDPD   136
human                      YVAV-TPFSLRG--------DNDGGGG--SFSTADQLEMV--TELLGGDMVNQSFICDPD   135
mosquito                   SHGEELDSDTDSNADSSSRSSSKGGGISGGYTHAHNQEMSPSSSSSSSSSSSSYEYQGTHVG   376
Dmelanogaster              DDGEPLNFDLRHH------RTSKSGSNASITTNNNNSN--NKNNKLKNNSNGMLHMMHIT   386
Sexual_Dmercatorum         D--------------------------------SD--YGDCSMGESSCSASIMRHIS   396
parthenogenetic_Dmercatorum D--------------------------------SD--YGDCSMGESSCSASIMRHIS   391
                                                             :      .       .
```

Myc box 3
```
mouse                      DETFIKNIIIQDCMWSGFSAAAKLVSEKL--ASYQAARKDSTSLSPARGHSVCST-----   189
human                      DETFIKNIIIQDCMWSGFSAAAKLVSEKL--ASYQAARKDSGSPNPARGHSVCST-----   188
mosquito                   DHSYTRPKARYNLAELGVQTPSDSEDEEIDVVSIGE-KNLPTNPTPRDKRHVESRVALKI   435
Dmelanogaster              DHSYTRCNDMVD-DGPNLETPSD-SDEEIDVVSYTD-KKLPTNPSCHLMGALQFQMAHKI   443
Sexual_Dmercatorum         DHSYTRCNEVE----ANLDTPSD-SDEEIDVVSLND-KKLPTNPSDRDRRVLQTKVANKI   450
parthenogenetic_Dmercatorum DHSYTRCNEVE----ANLDTPSD-SDEEIDVVSLND-KKLPTNPSDRDRRVLQTKVANKI   445
                           *.:: :           ..: :. .*:: .*      ::  . .         :
```

```
mouse                        ----------SSLYLQDLTAAASECIDP--SVVFPYPLNDSSSPKSCTSSDSTAFSPSS   236
human                        ----------SSLYLQDLSAAASECIDP--SVVFPYPLNDSSSPKSCASQDSSAFSPSS   235
mosquito                     RKHPQGNPSHHH-------------RRRHSGEDYPSHHGMSSSSSQHSPSKSYGYSPNY   481
Dmelanogaster                SIDHMK-QKPRYNNFNLPYTPASSSPVKSVANSRYPSPSST---PYQNCSSASPSYSPLS  499
Sexual_Dmercatorum           SSDNRIVAHRSSRRYELPYTPASSSPVKSVANSRYPSPSST---PYQGAATGPATYSPES  507
parthenogenetic_Dmercatorum   SSDNRIVAHRSSRRYELPYTPASSSPVKSVANSRYPSPSST---PYQGAATGPATYSPES  502
                                        .  :*   .        .         :**

mouse                        DSLLSS-ESS------------------------------------------PRAS   249
human                        DSLLSSTESS------------------------------------------PQGS   249
mosquito                     LTPASSTSIS--------------G--------------SNTPLPPNSSSISNPR--   508
Dmelanogaster                VDSSNVSSSSSSSSSQSSFTTSSSNKGRKRSSLKDPGLLISSSSVYLPGVNNKVTH----  555
Sexual_Dmercatorum           SSSSSDCTTP-------SIALGVGAGGKK-----------NRKPFYMPDCNDDLLTAKRQ  549
parthenogenetic_Dmercatorum   SSSSSDCTTP-------SIALGVGAAGKK-----------NRKPFYMPDCNDDLLTAKRQ  544
                               .                       G526A

mouse                        PEPLVLHEETPPTTSSDSEEEQEDEEEIDVVSVEKRQTPAKRSESGSSPS--RGHSKPPH  307
human                        PEPLVLHEETPPTTSSDSEEEQEDEEEIDVVSVEKRQAPGKRSESGSPSA--GGHSKPPH  307
mosquito                     -------KR------------------------------------------PSK   513
Dmelanogaster                ----------------------------SSMMSKKSRGK-KVVGTSSGNTSPIS-SGQ   583
Sexual_Dmercatorum           PRGYLLSKKRPLKRTHYSSYGF-DAKE--VRSVLSHASNSV-STIGSSSS---NSSKSGH  602
parthenogenetic_Dmercatorum   PRGYLLSKKRPLKRTHYSSYGF-DAKE--VRSVLSHASNSV-STIGSSSSNSSNSSKSGH  600
                                                                          3 aa addition   :

mouse                        SPLVLKRCHVSTHQHNYAAPPSTRKDYPAAKRAKLDSGRVLKQISNNR----KCSSPRSS  363
human                        SPLVLKRCHVSTHQHNYAAPPSTRKDYPAAKRVKLDSVRVLRQISNNR----KCTSPRSS  363
mosquito                     DDRSKNRH----HQH-----------------RNKKQRIPG-------KTIARSPESSE   544
Dmelanogaster                DVDAMDRN----WQR-----------------R--SGGIATSTSSNSSVHRKDFVLGFD   619
Sexual_Dmercatorum           SNG----S----HSS-----------------N--SGHSNGSISNGSGINSLKRHLSID   634
parthenogenetic_Dmercatorum   SNG----S----HSS-----------------N--SGHSNGSISNGSGINSLKRHLSID   632
                             .              .         . .                              .
                                          Helix-loop-helix DNA-binding domain
mouse                        DTEENDKRRTHNVLERQRRNELKRSFFALRDQIPELENNEKAPKVVILKKATAYILSIQA  423
human                        DTEENVKRRTHNVLERQRRNELKRSFFALRDQIPELENNEKAPKVVILKKATAYILSVQA  423
mosquito                     EQETLEKRNLHNDMERQRRIGLKNLFEELKRQIPNLRDKERAPKVNILREAAVLCTRLNR  604
Dmelanogaster                EADTIEKRNQHNDMERQRRIGLKNLFEALKKQIPTIRDKERAPKVNILREAAKLCIQLTQ  679
Sexual_Dmercatorum           EADTIEKRNLHNDMERQRRIGLKNLFEALKTQIPNIRDKERAPKVNILREAARLCEQLTS  694
parthenogenetic_Dmercatorum   EADTIEKRNLHNDMERQRRIGLKNLFEALKTQIPNIRDKERAPKVNILREAARLCEQLTS  692
                             : :   **. ** :*****  **. *   *: *** :.::*:**** **::*:     :

mouse                        DEHKLTSEKDLLRKRREQLKHKLEQLRNSGA--------------   454
human                        EEQKLISEEDLLRKRREQLKHKLEQLRNSCA--------------   454
mosquito                     EQEQLNALRKQ----QQRLYARVRQLRTSLHTQ-------RRVMD   638
Dmelanogaster                EEKELSMQRQL-------LSLQLKQRQDTLASYQMELNESRSVSG   717
Sexual_Dmercatorum           EERDLNVKRQL-------LKAKLKQQQEQLARMRLNLSKNE----   728
parthenogenetic_Dmercatorum   EERDLNVKRQL-------LKAKLKQQQEQLARMRLNLSKNE----   726
                             ::..*    ..          *  ::.* :
```

Figure 10:

Figure S11:

Figure S12:

Figure S13