Transcriptome Differences between Alternative Sex Determining Genotypes in the House Fly, *Musca domestica*

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Abstract

Sex determination evolves rapidly, often because of turnover of the genes at the top of the pathway. The house fly, *Musca domestica*, has a multifactorial sex determination system, allowing us to identify the selective forces responsible for the evolutionary turnover of sex determination in action. There is a male determining factor, $M$, on the $Y$ chromosome ($Y^M$), which is probably the ancestral state. An $M$ factor on the third chromosome ($III^M$) has reached high frequencies in multiple populations across the world, but the evolutionary forces responsible for the invasion of $III^M$ are not resolved. To test if the $III^M$ chromosome invaded because of sex-specific selection pressures, we used mRNA sequencing to determine if isogenic males that differ only in the presence of the $Y^M$ or $III^M$ chromosome have different gene expression profiles. We find that more genes are differentially expressed between $Y^M$ and $III^M$ males in testis than head, and that genes with male-biased expression are most likely to be differentially expressed between $Y^M$ and $III^M$ males. This suggests that male phenotypes, especially those related to male fertility, are more likely to be affected by the male-determining chromosome, supporting the hypothesis that sex-specific selection acts on alleles linked to the male-determining locus driving evolutionary turnover in the sex determination pathway. We additionally find that $III^M$ males have a “masculinized” gene expression profile, suggesting that the $III^M$ chromosome has accumulated an excess of male-beneficial alleles because of its male-limited transmission.

Key words: sex determination, gene expression, RNA-seq, sex-specific selection, sex chromosomes
1. Introduction

Sex determination (SD) is an essential developmental process responsible for sexually dimorphic phenotypes. It is therefore paradoxical that SD pathways are poorly conserved, with master SD (MSD) genes at the top of the pathway differing between closely related species and even variable within species (Bull, 1983; Wilkins, 1995; Pomiankowski et al., 2004; Beukeboom and Perrin, 2014). The hypotheses to explain the rapid evolution of SD pathways fall into three categories. First, SD evolution may be selectively neutral if MSD turnover is the result of mutational input without phenotypic or fitness consequences (van Doorn, 2014). Second, frequency dependent (sex-ratio) selection could favor a new MSD variant if one sex is below its equilibrium frequency (Eshel, 1975; Bull and Charnov, 1977; Bulmer and Bull, 1982; Werren and Beukeboom, 1998). Third, a new MSD locus can invade a population if the new MSD variant itself or genetically linked alleles confer a fitness benefit (Charlesworth and Charlesworth, 1980; Rice, 1986; Charlesworth, 1991; van Doorn and Kirkpatrick, 2007, 2010). Those fitness effects could be beneficial to both sexes (natural selection), increase the reproductive success of the sex determined by the new MSD variant (sexual selection), or be beneficial to the sex determined by the MSD variant and deleterious to the other sex (sexually antagonistic selection). Sexually antagonistic selection is predicted to be an especially important driver of MSD turnover because linkage to an MSD locus allows the sexually antagonistic allele to be inherited in a sex-limited manner, thereby resolving the inter-sexual conflict (Charlesworth and Charlesworth, 1980; van Doorn and Kirkpatrick, 2007; Roberts et al., 2009; van Doorn and Kirkpatrick, 2010).

The house fly, *Musca domestica*, is an ideal model for testing hypotheses about the evolution of SD because it has a multifactorial SD system, with male- and female-determining loci segregating in natural populations (Dübendorfer et al., 2002; Hamm et al., 2015). Most relevant to the work presented here is the the fact that the male-determining factor, \( M \), can be located on the \( Y \) chromosome (\( Y^M \)), any of the five autosomes (\( A^M \)), and even the \( X \) chromosome (Hamm et al., 2015). It is unknown whether these \( M \)-factors are the same gene in different locations or different genes that have independently assumed the role of an MSD locus (Bopp, 2010). \( Y^M \) is a common arrangement (Hamm et al., 2015), and it is thought
to be the ancestral state because it is the genotype found in close relatives of the house fly (Boyes et al., 1964; Boyes and Van Brink, 1965; Dübendorfer et al., 2002). \( M \) on the third chromosome (\( III^M \)) is also common, but it is not clear what was responsible for the invasion of the \( III^M \) chromosome (Hamm et al., 2015). Note that when the \( M \) factor arrived on chromosome \( III \), this entire chromosome essentially assumed \( Y \)-like properties, including restriction to males and reduced recombination (Hamm et al., 2015). Identifying the selective forces responsible for the invasion of \( III^M \) will be a powerful test of the hypotheses to explain SD evolution.

It is possible that \( A^M \) chromosomes invaded house fly populations because of selection on phenotypic effects of either the autosomal \( M \) loci themselves or alleles linked to \( M \)-factors (Franco et al., 1982; Tomita and Wada, 1989; Kozielska et al., 2006; Feldmeyer et al., 2008). Strong linkage to \( A^M \) is expected for alleles on the same autosome because recombination is low or non-existent in house fly males (Hiroyoshi, 1961; Hamm et al., 2015), but see Feldmeyer et al. (2010). Phenotypic effects of \( M \) variants include splicing and expression differences of genes downstream in the SD pathway between \( Y^M \) and \( A^M \) males (Schmidt et al., 1997; Hediger et al., 2004; Siegenthaler et al., 2009). In addition, \( A^M \) chromosomes form stable latitudinal clines on multiple continents (Franco et al., 1982; Tomita and Wada, 1989; Hamm et al., 2005; Kozielska et al., 2008), and seasonality in temperature is somewhat predictive of their distribution (Feldmeyer et al., 2008). Furthermore, in laboratory experiments, \( III^M \) males out-competed \( Y^M \) males for female mates; the \( III^M \) chromosome increased in frequency over generations in population cages; and \( III^M \) males had higher rates of emergence from pupae than \( Y^M \) males (Hamm et al., 2009). The most specific phenotype that has been linked to \( A^M \) is insecticide resistance (Kerr, 1960, 1961, 1970; Denholm et al., 1983; Kence and Kence, 1992), but insecticide resistance alone cannot entirely explain the invasion of \( A^M \) chromosomes (Shono and Scott, 1990; Hamm et al., 2005).

To test whether sex-specific selection pressures could be responsible for the invasion of the \( III^M \) chromosome, we used high throughput mRNA sequencing (mRNA-seq) to compare gene expression profiles between nearly isogenic \( Y^M \) and \( III^M \) males that only differ in their \( M \)-bearing chromosome. These contrasts are essentially a comparison between flies with
the ancestral $Y$ chromosome ($Y^M$) and individuals with a recently evolved “neo-$Y$” ($III^M$).

The gene expression differences we detected were the result of both differentiation of $cis$ regulatory regions between the $III^M$ and “standard” third chromosome and $trans$ effects of the $III^M$ and/or $Y^M$ chromosome(s) on expression throughout the genome. We found that genes responsible for male phenotypes are more likely to be differentially expressed between $Y^M$ and $III^M$ males, suggesting that $Y^M$ and $III^M$ males have phenotypic differences that would be differentially affected by male-specific selection pressures. This supports the hypothesis that sexual or sexually antagonistic selection drives evolutionary turnover at the top of SD pathways.

2. Materials and Methods

2.1. Strains

We compared gene expression between two nearly isogenic house fly strains that differ only in the chromosome carrying $M$. The first, Cornell susceptible (CS), is an inbred, lab adapted strain with $XX$ males that are heterozygous for a $III^M$ chromosome and a standard third chromosome that lacks an $M$ factor ($X/X; III^M/III^{CS}$) (Scott et al., 1996; Hamm et al., 2005) (Figure 1A). CS females are $XX$ and homozygous for the standard third chromosome ($X/X; III^{CS}/III^{CS}$). We created a strain with $Y^M$ males that has the $X$ chromosome and all standard autosomes from the CS strain. To do so, we used a backcrossing approach to move the $Y$ chromosome from the genome strain (aabys) onto the CS background (Figure 1B), creating the strain CS-aabys-Y (CSaY). CSaY males are $XY$ and homozygous for the standard CS third chromosome ($X/Y; III^{CS}/III^{CS}$). The aabys strain has a recessive phenotypic marker on each of the five autosomes (Wagoner, 1967; Tomita and Wada, 1989). To confirm that the aabys autosomes had been purged from the CSaY genome, we crossed CSaY flies to aabys and observed only wild-type progeny. CS and CSaY males are nearly isogenic, differing only in that CS males are $XX$ and heterozygous for the $III^M$ and standard $III^{CS}$ chromosomes, and CSaY males are $XY$ and homozygous for the standard $III^{CS}$ chromosome (Figure 1). Females are genetically identical between strains.
We are confident that the strains are isogenic except for the M-bearing chromosome because there is very little evidence for recombination in male house flies with an XY genotype (Hiroyoshi, 1961; Hamm et al., 2015). However, if there were minimal recombination between the CS and aabys chromosomes in our crossing scheme, the majority of autosomal alleles in the CSaY strain would still have originated from the CS genotype, with very little contribution from aabys autosomes.

2.2. Samples and mRNA-seq

CS and CSaY flies were kept at 25°C with a 12:12 hour light:dark cycle. Larvae were reared in media made with 1.8 L water, 500 g calf manna (Manna Pro, St. Louis, MO), 120 g bird and reptile litter wood chips (Northeastern Products, Warrensburg, NY), 60 g dry active baker’s yeast (MP Biomedical Solon, OH), and 1.21 kg wheat bran (Cargill Animal Nutrition, Minneapolis, MN), as described previously (Hamm et al., 2009).

We sampled two types of tissue from CS and CSaY males and females: head and gonad. All dissections were performed on living, non-anesthetized 4–6 day old unmated adult flies. Heads were separated from males and females, homogenized in TRIzol reagent (Life Technologies) using a motorized grinder, and RNA was extracted on QIAGEN RNeasy columns following the manufacturer’s instructions including a genomic DNA (gDNA) elimination step. Testes were dissected from males, and ovaries were dissected from females in Ringer’s solution (182 mM KCl, 46 mM NaCl, 3 mM CaCl₂, 10 mM Tris-Cl in ddH₂O). Ovary and testis samples were dissolved in TRIzol and RNA was extracted on QIAGEN RNeasy columns with gDNA elimination. Three biological replicates of CS (III⁻M) male heads, CSaY (Y⁻M) male heads, CS testes, and CSaY testes were collected; one sample was collected for each of the four female dissections (CS head, CSaY head, CS ovary, and CSaY ovary).

Barcoded mRNA-seq libraries were prepared using the Illumina TruSeq kit following the manufacturer’s instructions. The samples were run on 2 lanes of an Illumina HiSeq2500 at the Cornell Medical School Genomics Resources Core Facility. One lane had the eight head samples, and the other lane had the eight gonad (testis and ovary) samples. We generated 101 base pair single-end reads, and the sequencing reads were processed using Casava 1.8.2.
2.3. mRNA-seq data analysis

Illumina mRNA-seq reads were aligned to house fly genome assembly v2.0.2 and annotation release 100 (Scott et al., 2014) using TopHat2 v2.0.8b (Kim et al., 2013) and Bowtie v2.1.0.0 (Langmead et al., 2009) with the default parameters. We tested for differential expression between males and females and between $Y^M$ and $III^M$ males using the Cuffdiff2 program in the Cufflinks v2.2.1 package (Trapnell et al., 2013) with the default parameters and a false discovery rate (FDR) of 0.05. In comparisons between male and female expression levels, we treated all 6 male samples as biological replicates and did the same for both female samples.

We used expression level estimates from Cuffdiff2 (Fragments Per Kilobase of transcript per Million mapped reads, FPKM) to calculate correlations of expression levels between our experimental samples (Figure S1). The correlations between testis and ovary expression are lowest, which is expected because they are dramatically different tissues. The correlations between male and female head samples are substantially higher than between testis and ovary, but still lower than the correlations within sexes. The two ovary samples are more highly correlated than any of the pairwise comparisons between CS and CSaY testis samples (Figure S1), most likely because CS and CSaY females are genetically identical (Figure 1).

2.4. Gene ontology and chromosomal assignment of house fly genes

We used the predicted *Drosophila melanogaster* orthologs (Scott et al., 2014) to infer the functions of house fly genes. Gene ontology (GO) annotations of house fly genes were determined using Blast2GO (Conesa et al., 2005; Götz et al., 2008) as described previously (Scott et al., 2014).

The house fly genomic scaffolds have not formally been assigned to chromosomes, but homologies have been inferred between house fly chromosomes and the five major chromosome arms of *Drosophila*, also known as Muller elements A–E (Foster et al., 1981; Weller and Foster, 1993). Additionally, the house fly X chromosome is most likely homologous to the *Drosophila* dot chromosome (Muller element F, or *D. melanogaster* chromosome 4) (Vicoso and Bachtrog, 2013). We therefore assigned house fly genes that are conserved as one-to-one orthologs with *D. melanogaster* (Scott et al., 2014) to house fly chromosomes.
based on the Muller element mapping of the *D. melanogaster* orthologs. We also assigned house fly scaffolds to chromosomes based on the Muller element mapping of the majority of *D. melanogaster* orthologs on each scaffold.

3. Results

3.1. Genes on the house fly third chromosome are more likely to be differentially expressed between *Y*<sup>M</sup> and *III*<sup>M</sup> males than genes on other autosomes

We used mRNA-seq to compare gene expression in heads and gonads of house fly males and females of a *Y*<sup>M</sup> strain (CSaY) and a *III*<sup>M</sup> strain (CS). Males of the *III*<sup>M</sup> strain are *XX* and heterozygous for the *III*<sup>M</sup> chromosome and a standard third chromosome without *M* (Figure 1A). Males of the *Y*<sup>M</sup> strain are *XY* (with the same *X* as the *III*<sup>M</sup> strain) and homozygous for the standard third chromosome found in the *III*<sup>M</sup> strain (Figure 1B). The rest of the genome is isogenic, and females of the two strains are genetically identical (Figure 1).

We detected 873 and 1338 genes that are differentially expressed between *Y*<sup>M</sup> and *III*<sup>M</sup> males in heads or testes, respectively (Table 1, Figure S2, Supplementary Data). Genes on the house fly third chromosome are more likely than genes on other autosomes to be differentially expressed between *Y*<sup>M</sup> and *III*<sup>M</sup> males (Figure 2). Approximately 30% of the differentially expressed genes are predicted to be on the third chromosome, which is greater than the fraction assigned to any of the other four autosomes (14.8–20.6%). X-linked genes also trend towards an excess that are differentially expressed between *Y*<sup>M</sup> and *III*<sup>M</sup> males, but we do not have power to detect statistically significant deviations from the expectation because only 56 X-linked genes are expressed in head and 52 X-linked genes are expressed in testis.

3.2. More differential expression between *Y*<sup>M</sup> and *III*<sup>M</sup> males in testis than in head, but a common set of genes co-regulated in both tissues

A higher fraction of genes is differentially expressed in testes between *Y*<sup>M</sup> and *III*<sup>M</sup> males than in heads (Table 1; *P* < 10<sup>−16</sup> in Fisher’s exact test, FET), suggesting that genes involved
in male fertility phenotypes are more affected by the \( M \)-bearing chromosome. In fact, the fraction of genes differentially expressed between the testes of \( Y^M \) and \( III^M \) males is nearly as large as the fraction differentially expressed between male and female heads (Table 1). When we restrict the analysis to only genes expressed in both heads and gonads, we still observe more genes differentially expressed in testes than heads between \( Y^M \) and \( III^M \) males (Table S1).

If the probability that a gene is differentially expressed between \( Y^M \) and \( III^M \) male heads is independent of the probability that the gene is differentially expressed in testes, we expect <1% of genes to be differentially expressed in both head and testis. We find that 176 genes (2.12%) are differentially expressed between \( Y^M \) and \( III^M \) males in both head and testis, which is significantly greater than the expectation \( (P < 10^{-25}, \text{FET}) \). In contrast, there is not a significant excess of genes differentially expressed between males and females (i.e., “sex-biased”) in both head and gonad—we expect 9.41% of genes to have sex-biased expression in both head and gonad (Table S1), and we observe that 809 genes (9.27%) are sex-biased in both tissue samples \( (P = 0.655, \text{FET}) \). These results suggest that there are genes under common regulatory control by the \( M \)-bearing chromosome in both male head and testis, but there is no such sex-specific regulation in common between head and gonad.

3.3. Genes that are differentially expressed between \( Y^M \) and \( III^M \) males are more likely to have male-biased expression

Genes whose expression is significantly higher in males than females are said to have “male-biased” expression, and genes that are up-regulated in females have “female-biased” expression. Genes with male-biased expression in head are more likely to be differentially expressed between \( Y^M \) and \( III^M \) male heads than genes with either female-biased or unbiased expression (Figure 3A). Similarly, genes that are up-regulated in testis relative to ovary (“testis-biased”) are more likely to be differentially expressed between \( Y^M \) and \( III^M \) testes than genes with “ovary-biased” or unbiased expression in gonad (Figure 3B). In addition, 14.8% of genes that are up-regulated in \( III^M \) male heads have male-biased expression, whereas <2% of genes that are up-regulated in \( Y^M \) male heads have male-biased expression \( (P < 10^{-10}, \text{FET}) \). This suggests that \( III^M \) male heads have a “masculinized” expression.
profile relative to $Y^M$ heads.

3.4. Functional annotations of genes that are differentially expressed between $Y^M$ and III$^M$ males

We tested for GO categories that are over-represented amongst genes differentially expressed both between $Y^M$ and III$^M$ males and between males and females (Supplementary Data). We found that nearly half (49.7%) of genes that are differentially expressed between $Y^M$ and III$^M$ male heads are annotated with the functional category “catalytic activity”, whereas only 43% of genes not differentially expressed have that GO annotation ($P < 0.05$ in FET corrected for multiple tests). Over 10% of the genes with the catalytic activity annotation that are up-regulated in III$^M$ male head are predicted to encode proteins involved in a metabolic process, including metabolism of organic acids, amino acids, and lipids. Among those genes, 15 are annotated as cytochrome P450 (CYP450) genes, and four of those also have male-biased expression in head (Table S4). CYP450s collectively carry out a wide range of chemical reactions including metabolism of endogenous (e.g., steroid hormones) and exogenous (e.g., xenobiotics) compounds (Scott, 2008). All 15 differentially expressed CYP450s are up-regulated in III$^M$ males, and no CYP450 genes are up-regulated in $Y^M$ males. Five of the CYP450s can be assigned to the third chromosome (Table S4), suggesting that cis regulatory sequences controlling the expression of CYP450s have diverged between III$^M$ and the standard third chromosome. However, five of the CYP450s can be assigned to other autosomes (the remaining 5 cannot be assigned to a chromosome), demonstrating that divergence of trans factors between III$^M$ and the standard third chromosome are also responsible for differential expression of CYP450s between $Y^M$ and III$^M$ males. The 15 CYP450s represent a range of different clans (2, 3 and 4) and families (4, 28, 304, 313, 438 and 3073). However, an excess of CYP450s from clan 4 are up-regulated in III$^M$ male head ($\chi^2 = 4.19, P = 0.041$), and thus over-expression of CYP450s is not random.

Genes that are annotated as encoding proteins located in extracellular regions are over-represented amongst genes with testis-biased expression (15.0% of genes with testis-biased expression; 9.9% of genes not differentially expressed between testis and ovary; $P < 10^{-3}$ in FET corrected for multiple tests) and amongst genes that are differentially expressed between
$Y^M$ and $III^M$ testes (13.9% of differentially expressed genes; 8.1% of non-differentially expressed genes; $P < 10^{-4}$ in FET corrected for multiple tests). In addition, 3.1% of the genes differentially expressed between $Y^M$ and $III^M$ testes are predicted to encode carbohydrate binding proteins (compared to 1.4% of non-differentially expressed genes; $P < 0.05$ in FET corrected for multiple tests), and 7.2% of differentially expressed genes are predicted to encode structural molecules (compared to 3.7% of non-differentially expressed genes; $P < 10^{-3}$ in FET corrected for multiple tests). Three of those structural molecules are predicted to be $\beta$-tubulin proteins encoded by genes that are up-regulated in the testis of $Y^M$ males relative to $III^M$, and two of those genes also have testis-biased expression. The *D. melanogaster* genome encodes a testis-specific $\beta$-tubulin paralog that is essential for spermatogenesis (Kemphues et al., 1982; Hoyle and Raff, 1990), suggesting that at least one of the $\beta$-tubulin genes that is up-regulated in $Y^M$ testis may be important for sperm development.

Four genes that are differentially expressed between $Y^M$ and $III^M$ testes are homologs of the *D. melanogaster* Y-linked fertility factors *kl-2, kl-3*, and *kl-5* (Goldstein et al., 1982; Gepner and Hays, 1993; Carvalho et al., 2000, 2001). These proteins encode components of the dynein heavy chain, which is necessary for flagellar activity of sperm. All four of the predicted dynein heavy chain genes that are differentially expressed between $Y^M$ and $III^M$ testes are autosomal in house fly. Three of these genes have testis-biased expression—two of those are up-regulated in $III^M$ testis, while the third is up-regulated in $Y^M$ testis. The fourth gene is up-regulated in $III^M$ testis, but it is not differentially expressed between testis and ovary. Two additional genes encoding components of other dynein chains have testis-biased expression and are up-regulated in $III^M$ testis relative to $Y^M$ testis.

Finally, there are numerous predicted RNAs in the house fly genome annotation that have no identifiable homology to any known RNAs or proteins (Scott et al., 2014). We identified six of these uncharacterized RNAs that both have testis-biased expression and are differentially expressed between $Y^M$ and $III^M$ testes (three up-regulated in $Y^M$, three up-regulated in $III^M$). Reproductive proteins are known to evolve rapidly (Swanson and Vacquier, 2002; Clark et al., 2006; Meisel, 2011), suggesting that these testis-biased genes may be evolving so fast that their homologs are undetectable. On the other hand, there
are multiple examples of testis-expressed lineage-specific \textit{de novo} protein-coding genes in \textit{Drosophila} (Levine et al., 2006; Begun et al., 2007; Reinhardt et al., 2013; Zhao et al., 2014); the testis-biased house fly genes without identifiable homologs may have similarly arisen \textit{de novo} along the house fly lineage. However, we were unable to detect long open reading frames in the transcripts, suggesting that these may be non-protein-coding RNAs with testis-biased expression.

4. Discussion

4.1. Differential expression between \textit{YM} and \textit{III} \textit{M} males is driven by both \textit{cis} and \textit{trans} effects

We compared gene expression in head and testis between \textit{YM} and \textit{III} \textit{M} males. \textit{YM} males are homozygous for a standard third chromosome that does not have \textit{M}, whereas \textit{III} \textit{M} males are heterozygous for a \textit{III} \textit{M} chromosome and a standard third chromosome (Figure 1). Differences in the expression levels of autosomal genes between \textit{YM} and \textit{III} \textit{M} males could be the result of: 1) divergence of \textit{cis}-regulatory sequences between the \textit{III} \textit{M} and standard third chromosomes that affect the expression of genes on the third chromosome; 2) divergence of \textit{trans}-factors between \textit{III} \textit{M} and the standard third chromosome that differentially regulate gene expression throughout the genome; 3) downstream effects of the first two processes that lead to further differential expression.

The two strains also differ in the genotype of their sex chromosomes; \textit{YM} males are \textit{XY}, whereas \textit{III} \textit{M} males are \textit{XX} (Figure 1). The house fly \textit{Y} chromosome is highly heterochromatic and does not harbor any known genes other than \textit{M} (Boyes et al., 1964; Hediger et al., 1998; Dübendorfer et al., 2002). It is clear that the \textit{Y} chromosome does not contain any genes necessary for male fertility or viability because \textit{XX} males are fertile and viable. The \textit{X} chromosome is also highly heterochromatic and probably homologous to the \textit{Drosophila} dot chromosome (Hediger et al., 1998; Vicoso and Bachtrog, 2013). The heterochromatic \textit{Drosophila} \textit{Y} chromosome can affect the expression of autosomal genes (Lemos et al., 2008, 2010; Sackton et al., 2011; Zhou et al., 2012), suggesting that the house fly \textit{X} and \textit{Y} chromosomes could have \textit{trans} regulatory effects on autosomal gene expression.
A higher fraction of third chromosome genes are differentially expressed between $Y^M$ and $III^M$ house fly males than genes on any other autosome (Figure 2). Therefore, divergence of cis-regulatory sequences between $III^M$ and the standard third chromosome are at least partially responsible for the expression differences between $Y^M$ and $III^M$ males. However, $\sim 70\%$ of the genes differentially expressed between $Y^M$ and $III^M$ males map to one of the other four autosomes, suggesting that the majority of expression differences are the result of trans effects of the $X$, $Y$, and third chromosomes along with further downstream effects.

4.2. Reproductive and male phenotypes are more likely to be affected by $M$ variation

Reproductive traits are more sexually dimorphic than non-reproductive traits, and reproductive traits also tend to evolve faster, possibly as a result of sexual selection (Eberhard, 1985). A similar faster evolution of gene expression in reproductive tissues has been observed across many taxa (Khaitovich et al., 2005; Zhang et al., 2007; Brawand et al., 2011), and increased variation within species for sex-biased gene expression often accompanies elevated expression divergence (Meiklejohn et al., 2003; Ayroles et al., 2009). Consistent with these patterns, more genes are differentially expressed between $Y^M$ and $III^M$ males in testis than head (Table 1, Figure S2).

Somatic and germline SD in house fly are under the same genetic control (Hilfiker-Kleiner et al., 1994), so the exaggerated differences in expression between $Y^M$ and $III^M$ testes relative to heads cannot be attributed to differences in the SD pathway between gonad and head. We also find that genes with male-biased expression are more likely to be differentially expressed between $Y^M$ and $III^M$ males (Figure 3). Genes with male-biased expression are more likely to perform sex-specific functions (Connallon and Clark, 2011), suggesting that genes that are differentially expressed between $Y^M$ and $III^M$ males disproportionately affect male phenotypes.

4.3. Evaluating the role of sex-specific selection in MSD turnover

Many models of SD evolution predict that a new MSD locus will invade a population if it is genetically linked to an allele with a beneficial, sexually selected, or sexually antagonistic
fitness effect (Charlesworth and Charlesworth, 1980; Rice, 1987; Charlesworth, 1991, 1996; Rice, 1996; van Doorn and Kirkpatrick, 2007, 2010). Alternatively, evolutionary turnover of MSD loci could be the result of neutral drift in a highly labile system (van Doorn, 2014).

The differential expression between $Y^M$ and $III^M$ males is consistent with a model in which the $III^M$ chromosome invaded populations because it harbors alleles with male-specific beneficial effects. For example, the expression of genes that are likely to perform male-specific functions—especially in male fertility—are more likely to be affected by the $III^M$ chromosome (Table 1; Figure 3), and those male-specific phenotypic differences could have been targets of sex-specific selection pressures. In addition, $III^M$ heads have a masculinized expression profile relative to $Y^M$ heads (see Results), suggesting that the male-limited transmission of the $III^M$ chromosome favored the accumulation of alleles with male-beneficial fitness effects (Rice, 1984). Previous work found that $III^M$ males outperformed $Y^M$ males in multiple laboratory fitness assays (Hamm et al., 2009), providing additional support for the accumulation of male-beneficial alleles on the $III^M$ chromosome. However, despite the apparent selective advantage of the $III^M$ chromosome, it surprisingly does not appear to be expanding rapidly (Hamm et al., 2015), suggesting that the fitness benefits of $III^M$ are environment-specific (Feldmeyer et al., 2008).

Our data do not allow us to distinguish between two possible orders of events in the invasion of the $III^M$ chromosome. In the first scenario, male-beneficial alleles on the third chromosome could have driven the initial invasion of $III^M$ (van Doorn and Kirkpatrick, 2007). In the second scenario, beneficial alleles could have accumulated on the $III^M$ chromosome after it acquired an $M$-locus because male-limited inheritance promotes the fixation of male-beneficial alleles (Rice, 1984, 1987). These scenarios are not mutually exclusive. Regardless of the sequence of events, we have provided evidence that the house fly multifactorial male-determining system is associated with phenotypic differences that likely have male-specific fitness effects, which could explain the invasion of the $III^M$ chromosome under sexual or sexually antagonistic selection.
5. Acknowledgements

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### 6. Tables

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**Table 1:** Differential expression between strains and sexes. Counts of the number of genes that are differentially expressed (# diff), tested and non-differentially expressed (# non-diff), and total genes tested (# genes), as well as the frequency of genes that are differentially expressed (freq diff).
7. Figures

A. \[ \frac{\text{X}^C}{\text{X}^C} \frac{\text{I}^C}{\text{I}^C} \frac{\text{II}^C}{\text{II}^C} \frac{\text{IV}^C}{\text{IV}^C} \frac{\text{V}^C}{\text{V}^C} \] \( \text{♀} \) (CS) \[ \frac{\text{X}^C}{\text{X}^C} \frac{\text{I}^C}{\text{I}^C} \frac{\text{II}^C}{\text{II}^C} \frac{\text{IV}^C}{\text{IV}^C} \frac{\text{V}^C}{\text{V}^C} \] \( \text{♂} \) (CS)

B. \[ \frac{\text{X}^C}{\text{X}^C} \frac{\text{I}^C}{\text{I}^C} \frac{\text{II}^C}{\text{II}^C} \frac{\text{IV}^C}{\text{IV}^C} \frac{\text{V}^C}{\text{V}^C} \] \( \text{♀} \) (CS) \[ x \] \[ \frac{\text{X}^M}{\text{Y}^M} \frac{ac}{ac} \frac{ar}{ar} \frac{bwb}{bwb} \frac{ye}{ye} \frac{snp}{snp} \] \( \text{♂} \) (aabys)

9 additional generations of backcrossing males to CS females

A. Genotypes of CS males and females. B. Crossing scheme used to generate the CSaY (Y\(^{M}\)) strain. Each pair of parallel rectangles represent homologous chromosomes; there is one pair of sex chromosomes (X and Y) and five autosomes. Chromosomes of CS origin are black and indicated by “CS”, except for the III\(^{M}\) chromosome which is white. Chromosomes of aabys origin are gray, and the aabys strain has a recessive phenotypic marker on each autosome. Females from the CS strain were crossed to aabys males, and the male progeny were backcrossed to CS females for 10 generations to create the CSaY strain. Because there is no recombination in XY males, CS and CSaY are isogenic except that the CSaY males have a Y chromosome and CS males have a III\(^{M}\) chromosome.
Figure 2: Chromosomal locations of genes that are differentially expressed between $Y^M$ and $III^M$ males. Bar graphs indicate the percent of genes on each chromosome ($Drosophila$ Muller element in parentheses) that are differentially expressed between $Y^M$ and $III^M$ male heads (top) or testes (bottom). The dashed line indicates the percentage of genes that are differentially expressed across all chromosomes. Asterisks indicate P-values from Fisher's exact test comparing the number of differentially expressed genes with the number not differentially expressed on a chromosome and summed across all other chromosomes ($* P < 0.05$, $** P < 0.005$, $**** P < 0.0005$, $***** P < 0.00005$).
Figure 3: Sex-biased expression of genes differentially expressed between $Y^M$ and $III^M$ males.

Bar graphs indicate the percentage of genes with male-biased (blue), female-biased (pink), or unbiased (gray) expression in either (A) head or (B) gonad that are differentially expressed between $Y^M$ and $III^M$ males in either (A) head or (B) testis. P-values are for Fisher’s exact test between groups.
Supplementary Tables

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Tissue</th>
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<td>6375</td>
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**Table S1:** Differential expression between strains and sexes. Same as Table 1 except only genes that are expressed in both head and gonad are counted.
<table>
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<tr>
<th>sex-bias (head)</th>
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<th># genes</th>
<th>freq</th>
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**Table S2:** Sex-biased expression in head of genes that are differentially expressed between $Y^M$ and $III^M$ male heads. Sex-biased expression is based on comparisons of male and female heads. The number of genes (# genes) that are differentially expressed between strains and non-differentially expressed is reported for each sex-bias category. We also report the frequency of genes within the differential expression class that are in each sex-bias category (freq). A P-value is given for a FET comparing differentially and non-differentially expressed genes in each sex-bias category with genes that have unbiased expression.
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<th>sex-bias (gonad)</th>
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<th>not diff. expressed</th>
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**Table S3:** Sex-biased expression in gonad of genes that are differentially expressed between Y^M and III^M testes. Sex-biased expression is based on comparisons of testis and ovary. The number of genes (# genes) that are differentially expressed between strains and non-differentially expressed is reported for each sex-bias category. We also report the frequency of genes within the differential expression class that are in each sex-bias category (freq). A P-value is given for a FET comparing differentially and non-differentially expressed genes in each sex-bias category with genes that have unbiased expression.
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<th>Y M</th>
<th>chr (ME)</th>
<th>whole fly gonad head</th>
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**Table S4:** CYP450 genes that are differentially expressed between male and Y M+ male heads. The asterisk (*) indicates a gene with an incomplete sequence in the assembly. The q value is an FDR corrected P value comparing expression in III M+ and Y M+ heads. Sex-biased expression (male, female, and no) is given for whole fly measurements (Scott et al., 2014), gonad, and head. Genes for which expression level was too low to test for sex-biased expression are given as NA. House fly chromosome arm assignments (and Muller element homologies) are provided for genes that are on scaffolds where the majority of 1:1 D. melanogaster homologs are on a single Muller element (NA is listed for genes whose scaffolds could not be assigned to a chromosome arm).
Supplementary Figures

![Supplementary Figure S1](https://example.com/figure_s1.png)

**Figure S1:** Correlations of expression levels of genes between samples. Point estimates of Spearman’s correlation coefficient ($\rho$) of gene expression between samples are plotted, along with the 95% confidence intervals (CIs) of the correlations. CIs were estimated by bootstrapping the data 1000 times. Comparisons between male and female samples are colored purple, comparisons between male samples are colored blue, and comparisons between female samples are colored red.
Figure S2: MA plots for comparisons of expression between (a) male heads from the CSaY ($Y^M$) and CS ($III^M$) strains, (b) testes from the CSaY and CS strains, (c) heads from females and males, and (d) testes and ovaries. The fold change ($\log_2$ expression ratio) is plotted against $\log_{10}$ of the average expression in the two samples being compared. Gray points represent genes whose expression does not significantly differ between strains or sexes (darker gray indicates a higher density of points), and red points represent genes whose expression does differ significantly. Points at the top or bottom of the plot ($\log_2$ fold change -15 or 15) are genes with an expression value of zero in one strain or sex. Only genes that were tested for significantly differential expression are plotted. The dashed red lines are the 2-fold cutoffs.
Supplementary Data

*mRNA-seq results*

Column information:

1. **gene** - NCBI gene symbol
2. **protein_id** - NCBI protein identifier
3. **locus** - Coordinates in genomic scaffold
4. **orthocat** - Orthology category:
   - sco: single-copy ortholog
   - mto1: multiple house fly genes orthologous to 1 *D. melanogaster* gene
   - 1tom: 1 house fly gene orthologous to many *D. melanogaster* genes
   - mtom: multiple house fly genes homologous to multiply *D. melanogaster* genes
   - lr: lineage-restricted house fly gene without any identified *D. melanogaster* orthologs
5. **og** - Orthology group (gene family)
6. **dmel** - FlyBase identifier of *D. melanogaster* orthologs
7. **Dmel_ME** - Muller element location of *D. melanogaster* ortholog (only if sco)
8. **Musca_chr** - House fly chromosome homolog of Muller element
9. **scaff_ME** - Muller element assignment of house fly scaffold (based on majority rule of genes on scaffold)
10. **Musca_scaff** - House fly chromosome based on scaff_ME
11. **CS_MaleHead_FPKM** - Expression level in CS (III\(^M\)) male head
12. **CSaY_MaleHead_FPKM** - Expression level in CSaY (Y\(^M\)) male head
13. MaleHead_TestStat - Test statistic comparing CS and CSaY male head expression levels

14. MaleHead_qval - FDR corrected p-value of test statistic comparing CS and CSaY male head expression levels

15. CS_testis_FPKM - Expression level in CS (III_M) testis

16. CSaY_testis_FPKM - Expression level in CSaY (Y_M) testis

17. testis_TestStat - Test statistic comparing CS and CSaY testis expression levels

18. testis_qval - FDR corrected p-value of test statistic comparing CS and CSaY testis expression levels

19. CS_FemaleHead_FPKM - Expression level in CS female head

20. CSaY_FemaleHead_FPKM - Expression level in CSaY female head

21. FemaleHead_TestStat - Test statistic comparing CS and CSaY female head expression levels

22. FemaleHead_qval - FDR corrected p-value of test statistic comparing CS and CSaY female head expression levels

23. CS_ovary_FPKM - Expression level in CS ovary

24. CSaY_ovary_FPKM - Expression level in CSaY ovary

25. ovary_TestStat - Test statistic comparing CS and CSaY ovary expression levels

26. ovary_qval - FDR corrected p-value of test statistic comparing CS and CSaY ovary expression levels

27. female_head_FPKM - Expression level in female head

28. male_head_FPKM - Expression level in CS male head

29. head_TestStat - Test statistic comparing female and male head expression levels
30. **head_qval** - FDR corrected p-value of test statistic comparing female and male head expression levels

31. **ovary_FPKM** - Expression level in ovary

32. **testis_FPKM** - Expression level in testis

33. **gonad_TestStat** - Test statistic comparing ovary and testis expression levels

34. **gonad_qval** - FDR corrected p-value of test statistic comparing ovary and testis expression levels
Gene ontology tests

File information (test vs reference comparisons):

1. head_female-biased_GO.txt - GO categories that are enriched in genes with female-biased expression in head (foreground) vs genes with non-sex-biased expression in head

2. head_male-biased_GO.txt - GO categories that are enriched in genes with male-biased expression in head vs genes with non-sex-biased expression in head

3. male_head_diff_GO.txt - GO categories that are enriched in genes that are differentially expressed between CS and CSaY male heads vs genes that are not differentially expressed between CS and CsaY male heads

4. male_testis_diff_GO.txt - GO categories that are enriched in genes that are differentially expressed between CS and CSaY testes vs genes that are not differentially expressed between CS and CsaY testes

5. ovary-biased_unbiased_GO.txt - GO categories that are enriched in genes with ovary-biased expression vs genes with non-sex-biased expression in gonad

6. testis-biased_unbiased_GO.txt - GO categories that are enriched in genes with testis-biased expression vs genes with non-sex-biased expression in gonad

Column information:

1. GO-ID - Gene ontology ID

2. Term - GO term

3. Category - Cellular Component (C), Biological Process (P), or Molecular Function (F)

4. FDR - False discovery corrected P-value for enrichment

5. P-Value - Fisher’s exact test comparing #Test, #Ref, #notAnnotTest, #notAnnotRef
6. #Test - Count of genes with ontology annotation that are differentially expressed

7. #Ref - Count of genes with ontology annotation that are not differentially expressed

8. #notAnnotTest - Count of genes without ontology annotation that are differentially expressed

9. #notAnnotRef - Count of genes without ontology annotation that are not differentially expressed

10. Over/Under - Term is enriched (over) or depleted (under) in test data set
References


34:351–361.


35


Reinhardt JA, Wanjiru BM, Brant AT, Saelao P, Begun DJ, Jones CD. 2013. De novo ORFs in Drosophila are important to organismal fitness and evolved rapidly from previously non-coding sequences. PLoS Genet. 9:e1003860.


