

DIFFERENTIATION OF GENE EXPRESSION IN BEHAVIORALLY ISOLATED
BLACK AND BROWN MORPHS OF *DROSOPHILA ELEGANS*

by

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ABSTRACT

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Pre-zygotic isolation has been recognized as the primary form of incipient speciation, with behavioral isolation as one of its most significant manifestations. In spite of intensive research on behavioral isolation, its molecular mechanism is still poorly understood. We present microarray data from two morphs, black (OH) and brown (HK), of *Drosophila elegans*. Since only OH females show strong preference to mate with same type of males, these two morphs provide a model system for investigations into the incipient stage of speciation.

We analyzed the expression profiles from heads of mated OH females and non-mated females of both morphs. Subsequent analysis of candidate genes by GoMiner showed that OH unique genes were enriched in the visual system related categories, and

these categories were still enriched with candidate genes whose expression levels were modified after mating. These results suggest that *Drosophila elegans* might use visual cues mainly as mate recognition.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

The new developments in comparative genetics and genomics hold promise for providing answers to many questions about the origin of new species (speciation). Reproductive isolation between species has been recognized as the essential step to speciation (Dobzhansky 1937; Mayr 1963). While post-zygotic isolation has been widely accepted as the main cause of evolutionary divergence of species, pre-zygotic isolation is considered to be involved in incipient speciation (Coyne and Orr 1998). Several theoretical models of pre-mating isolation have been proposed, with assortative mating by direct mate choice playing a central role (Rundle *et al.* 2005). Mate discrimination has been observed in many closely related species, including *Drosophila melanogaster*. Zimbabwe and Cosmopolitan morphs of *D. melanogaster* provide a good model to investigate asymmetrical mating that results in prezygotic isolation. However, in spite of the intensive effort of many researchers, the genetic mechanism of this mating discrimination needs yet to be resolved (Chenoweth and Blows 2006).

Here we use *Drosophila elegans*, another *Drosophila* system that shows partial sexual isolation between two different morphs (Hirai and Kimura, 1997; Ishii et al, 2001; Ishii et al, 2002; Kopp and True 2002). *D. elegans* is an Oriental species from the *D. melanogaster* subgroup and is characterized by distinct morphological differences

between geographically isolated populations - in particular brown and black body color (Bock and Wheeler 1972; Kopp and True 2002). Several numbers of strains have been described in *D. elegans*, and female choice experiments showed the asymmetrical behavioral isolation between the black morph and the brown morph. Females Black morphs of *D. elegans* preferably mate with their own male and discriminate against brown morphs of *D. elegans*, while females brown morphs of *D. elegans* mate randomly (Hirai and Kimura 1997). The correlation between adaptive changes and their traits in *D. elegans* has been investigated, but there was virtually no attempt to determine the molecular basis of morphological and behavioral differences between the black and brown morphs (Kalmus 1941; Jacobs 1968).

In our previous study, we identified a number of candidate genes potentially involved in sexual isolation between Zimbabwe morphs and Cosmopolitan morphs of *D. melanogaster* (Michalak et al. 2007). In this study, we have used similar methodology to show that there also are transcriptional differences between two morphs of *D. elegans* associated with their behavioral isolation. We hypothesized that expression of genes which respond to external stimuli, such as olfactory, auditory, or visual cues, would be different at the transcriptional level, providing good candidate genes for behavioral isolation and incipient speciation.

Here, we present analysis of the differential expression of genes between two strains of *D. elegans*, OH (black morph) and HK (brown morph). Using Affymetrix microarray technology, we analyzed expression profiles from female heads to compare the differential expression of genes between the two morphs. We found that several

genes relating to visual system were upregulated in the OH strain and genes involved in neuronal network were more expressed after mating behavior OH female. Some of these genes were involved in olfactory guidance behavior.

CHAPTER 2

MATERIALS AND METHODS

2.1 Flies

Fly stocks were reared in uncrowded cultures at 24°C with a 12 hours light-dark cycle on standard sugar-yeast-agar medium. Two strains of *D. elegans*, OH as the black morph and HK as the brown morph, were provided by John True and Masahito Kimura.

2.2 Mating Experiment

Virgin females and males were collected and aged for 7 days in dark. Around 9 to 10 am on the day 7, females of one strain were put into a chamber containing both same strain males and different strain males for one hour. Copulating flies were aspirated into separate vials, and females were categorized into two groups; one was labeled as mated with OH male and the other was labeled as mated with HK male. Females of the HK strain were treated in the same way.

2.3 RNA Collection

Heads of 7-day old mated and non-mated OH females as well as non-mated HK females were used for RNA extraction. We focused on transcriptional changes

associated with mating in the OH strain, for it is the discriminating group of *D. elegans*, which would be more informative than that of the HK strain. For mated females, RNA was extracted within 30 minutes after mating. Twenty female heads were used per sample. At least five micrograms of total RNA were extracted with RNAPure and the manufacture's protocol (GenHunter Corp., Nashville, TN), followed by purification with GeneChip Sample Cleanup Modules (QIAGEN).

2.4 Affymetrix *Drosophila* GeneChip® Profiles

By using the ENZO BioArray High Yield RNA transcript labeling kit, cRNA was synthesized and biotin-labeled in an in vitro transcription reaction. The target cRNA was hybridized to Affymetrix GeneChip® *Drosophila* arrays. Although this microarray tool was designed for studying expression of *D. melanogaster* transcripts, we show that the genetic material from *D. elegans* also successfully hybridizes to these arrays, reflecting relatively close taxonomic positions of these two species (Ashburner et al. 1984; Schawaroch 2002; Kopp 2006). Probes for a particular transcript are present in 28 cells on the array chip. Half of those cells possess Perfect Match (PM) sequence and the other half contains Mismatch (MM) sequence. Affymetrix Microarray Suit (MAS) 5.0 software computes the average of the logarithm of the PM:MM ratio for each probes. This software has also the detection algorithm which calculates the Discrimination Score from each probe pair and a Detection P value from the one-sided Wilcoxon Signed Rank test that assigns a P (Present), M (Marginal), or A (Absent) call

in relation to a threshold value $\text{Tau} = 0.015$. Arrays were hybridized and scanned at the Microarray Core Facility at the University of Texas Southwestern Medical Center in Dallas. Overall, we obtained 4 chips of non-mated OH (nMOH), 2 chips of non-mated HK (nMHK), and 2 chips of mated OH (MOH).

2.5 Statistical Analysis

For mating experiment, replicated goodness-of-fit test (replicated G-test) was used to test deviations from random mating for both OH and HK females. The expected ratio was calculated by multiplying the ratio of the male by the total number of mated females for each replicate.

For microarray data analysis, in order to minimize the effect of inefficient hybridization due to sequence divergence, only transcripts detected as P call were analyzed. To identify up- and down-regulated genes, the Rank Product (RP) analysis was adopted (Breitling et al. 2004). Two comparisons were analyzed, one between the strains, and the other between before and after mating of the OH strain. Since we had 4 chips for nMOH and 2 chips for nMHK and MOH, 8 sets of fold change were obtained for each comparison. Ranks were given to each list of fold change from the highest to the lowest and the rank product values (RP-values) were calculated by multiplying the ranks for each gene (i) and dividing them by the total number of the genes (n) to the power of the number of sets of fold change (k), which is shown by the following formula;

$$\text{RP-value (for each gene)} = \frac{\prod_{i=1}^k l_i}{n^k}$$

The total number of the genes was 605 and the power of the fold change sets was 8. Significance level was obtained by converting rank product values of each gene to E-value in analogy to the BLAST results (Breitling et al. 2004). In order to set the threshold for E-value, we permuted the ranks of each fold change list, and then got new RP-values. This simulative permutation tests were done 1000 times. These newly generated RP-values were compared to the original RP-values, and the number of times exceeding original RP-values by newly generated ones was counted and divided by the total number of permutation, which gave us E-value for each gene. Genes whose E-values were less than the conventional criteria (0.05) were selected as candidate genes for further analysis.

In order to investigate biological significance of these differentially expressed genes, we analyzed them also in the context of Gene Ontology (GO). GO is organized in a hierarchy of annotated terms, and this facilitates to explore the biological significance of candidate genes (Beissbarth 2006). Recently, several programs to find GO categories enriched with candidate genes have been developed and become available, and GoMiner is one of them (Lomax 2004). GoMiner was developed especially for biological interpretation of microarray data. It adopts the one-sided Fisher's exact test to assess the null hypothesis; there was no difference between the proportion of candidate genes falling into the category and that of candidate genes not falling into the category. Even though p-values were obtained by Fisher's exact test, the

result potentially includes many false positives. Therefore, to obtain lists of the GO categories enriched with up-regulated genes and down-expressed genes individually for each comparison, False Discovery Rate (FDR) with q-values were also estimated. This q-value is obtained by resampling algorithm (Zeeberg et al. 2003; Zeeberg et al. 2005).

CHAPTER 3

RESULTS

3.1 Mate-By-Female Choice Test

We performed mate-by-female choice test over ten days; five days for OH female and other five days for HK female. Each day, we had different total number of flies. Table 1 summarizes the number of mated males, unmated females, and unmated males (Table 3.1). Although previous studies reported that black morph (OH) females showed very strong preference to homotypic males and brown morph females did not (Hirai and Kimura 1997; Ishii et al. 2001; Ishii et al. 2002; Kopp and True 2002), our results suggested that brown morph females also preferably mates with black morph males ($G=16.250$, $df=5$, $p<0.01$) (table 3.1 and 3.3). Anova-like replicated G-test results are shown on table 3.2 and 3.3.

Table 3.1: Summary of multiple female choice tests

Replicates	OH Female					HK Female				
	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
x OH Male	42	53	37	59	48	19	10	12	24	12
x HK Male	16	5	9	24	11	13	6	14	8	15
Unmated Female	17	6	12	10	5	10	8	7	13	4
Unmated OH Male	36	27	23	16	38	15	4	15	9	12
Unmated HK Male	64	72	52	36	75	22	10	16	34	24

Table 3.2: Total G and all of the each replicate show the significance non-random mating by OH female

OH Female					
Tests	df	G	Replicates	df	G
Pooled	1	96.191*	1	1	12.748*
Heterogeneity	<u>4</u>	<u>11.074*</u>	2	1	44.526*
Total	5	107.264*	3	1	18.758*
			4	1	8.452*
			5	<u>1</u>	<u>25.031*</u>
			Total	5	109.515*

(* indicates significance.)

Table 3.3: Total G and only the replicate 4 show the significance non-random mating by HK female

HK Female					
Tests	df	G	Replicates	df	G
Pooled	1	8.577*	1	1	1.312
Heterogeneity	<u>4</u>	<u>7.673</u>	2	1	1.616
Total	5	16.250*	3	1	0.015
			4	1	12.695*
			5	<u>1</u>	<u>0.453</u>
			Total	5	16.092*

(* indicates significance.)

3.2 Differentially Expressed Gene Between OH Female and HK Female

Candidate genes were categorized into 4 different groups: group I, containing genes overexpressed in nMOH relative to nMHK, group II with genes underexpressed in nMOH relative to nMHK; group III with genes overexpressed in nMOH relative to MOH, and group IV with genes underexpressed in nMOH relative to MOH. As a result of the analysis by MAS 5.0, on average 1581 probes had P-call for each chip. We chose the probe sets that had P-call for all 8 chips and the other probe sets. This is a very conservative way to analyze microarray data, for it was shown that this filtering process increased the ratio of true positive to false positive (McClintick and Edenberg 2006). A total of 605 genes met these criteria. Of these 605 genes, differentially expressed genes

were produced by the RP-analysis, which is very powerful method with a small sample size (Jeffery et al. 2006). As a result, there were 91 genes in the group I and 91 genes in the group II (E-value < 0.05) (Table 3.4, 3.5, and 3.6).

Table 3.4: Summary of the number of genes differentially expressed in each contrast

Category	Number of Genes
I: Up-regulated genes in non-mated OH compared to non-mated HK	91
II: Down-regulated genes in non-mated OH compared to non-mated HK	91
III: Up-regulated genes in non-mated OH compared to mated OH	75
IV: Down-regulated genes in non-mated OH compared to mated OH	76

Table 3.5: Group I: Up-regulated genes in non-mated OH compared to non-mated HK

Gene Symbol	RP-value	E-value	Function
for	4.212E-20	0	cyclic-nucleotide dependent protein kinase
maps	1.651E-18	0	
Lsp2	4.368E-17	0	larval serum protein
beta-Spec	1.950E-14	0	actin cross-linking
BG	5.640E-13	0	
CG15381	1.383E-12	0	
CG6287	2.883E-12	0	enzyme
emc	5.354E-12	0	transcription co-repressor
Gdi	5.411E-12	0	GDP-dissociation inhibitor
wupA	7.960E-12	0	cytoskeletal structural protein
Act5C	2.135E-11	0	motor protein
CG15105	4.315E-11	0	transcription factor
Pdk	5.527E-11	0	pyruvate dehydrogenase (lipoamide) kinase ; EC:2.7.1.99
CG13666	8.690E-11	0	
CG15893	1.451E-10	0	
Taf110	1.617E-10	0	transcription activating factor
Gbeta13F	2.469E-10	0	heterotrimeric G protein
CG7351	3.311E-10	0.001	lysophospholipase
CG1534	3.664E-10	0	
CG9318	3.763E-10	0	
CG6963	5.047E-10	0	
CG12431	5.308E-10	0	
CG3534	9.407E-10	0.001	xylulokinase
Gst2	9.515E-10	0	glutathione transferase ; EC:2.5.1.18
Rac1	9.638E-10	0	RHO small GTPase
CG5827	1.148E-09	0.004	structural protein of ribosome
Atpalpha	1.376E-09	0	sodium/potassium-transporting ATPase ; EC:3.6.1.37
CG10078	1.394E-09	0	enzyme
CG14503	1.487E-09	0.002	

(Table 3.5 - continued)

CG12203	2.049E-09	0	electron transfer
CG14844	2.914E-09	0.003	
CG8723	3.068E-09	0.003	enzyme
Arr2	3.196E-09	0	
CG9057	3.523E-09	0.001	
Cam	3.627E-09	0	calcium sensing
Argk	3.685E-09	0	arginine kinase ; EC:2.7.3.3
CG8895	3.844E-09	0	
SdhB	4.163E-09	0	succinate dehydrogenase-(ubiquinone) ; EC:1.3.5.1
CG13943	4.914E-09	0	
CG8818	6.379E-09	0.001	
fax	6.935E-09	0	
CG9894	8.426E-09	0	
eIF-4a	1.096E-08	0.001	ATP dependent RNA helicase
CG7510	1.192E-08	0.002	
CG10640	1.250E-08	0	enzyme
CG9336	1.348E-08	0.002	
CG10664	1.764E-08	0.001	enzyme
CG13315	1.905E-08	0.004	
Arf79F	2.080E-08	0.028	GTP binding
Sdc	2.349E-08	0.001	heparin sulfate proteoglycan
robl	2.538E-08	0.002	motor
Pfk	2.769E-08	0.003	6-phosphofructokinase ; EC:2.7.1.11
CG6056	3.206E-08	0.01	transporter
da	3.534E-08	0.001	specific RNA polymerase II transcription factor
CG15567	4.142E-08	0.004	
Pu	5.200E-08	0.003	GTP cyclohydrolase I ; EC:3.5.4.16
CG7888	5.420E-08	0.004	transporter
CG16745	6.601E-08	0.001	
BcDNA	8.564E-08	0.014	
CG10083	9.261E-08	0.005	cell cycle regulator
CG13233	9.691E-08	0.007	
igl	1.249E-07	0.035	calmodulin binding
fng	1.323E-07	0.023	
CG18290	1.511E-07	0.009	
Dpl	1.958E-07	0.007	single-stranded DNA binding
CG3662	2.252E-07	0.028	structural protein
Act57B	2.274E-07	0.013	muscle motor protein
CG3874	2.645E-07	0.022	transporter
BcDNA	3.520E-07	0.013	
Pabp2	3.577E-07	0.04	poly(A) binding
BcDNA	3.604E-07	0.005	cytoskeletal structural protein
CG12143	3.943E-07	0.044	
Gdh	4.554E-07	0.02	glutamate dehydrogenase (NAD(P) +) ; EC:1.4.1.3
CG15081	4.608E-07	0.031	
Rpn6	5.024E-07	0.028	multicatalytic endopeptidase ; EC:3.4.99.46
CG1548	5.212E-07	0.012	
G-salpa60A	6.441E-07	0.041	heterotrimeric G protein
CG2159	7.345E-07	0.018	diacylglycerol kinase
Ace	8.220E-07	0.029	acetylcholinesterase ; EC:3.1.1.7
blw	8.620E-07	0.029	hydrogen-transporting ATP synthase ; EC:3.6.1.34

(Table 3.5 - continued)

Rab1	8.720E-07	0.044	RHO small GTPase
Vha55	9.428E-07	0.04	hydrogen-transporting ATPase ; EC:3.6.1.35
maps	1.145E-06	0.013	
CG18638	1.193E-06	0.049	
CG18282	1.304E-06	0.034	
PyK	1.416E-06	0.013	pyruvate kinase ; EC:2.7.1.40
CG9172	1.511E-06	0.03	enzyme
BG	1.652E-06	0.048	
CG1200	1.733E-06	0.028	
Rh6	1.892E-06	0.042	light-sensitive visual pigment
mts	2.901E-06	0.043	protein phosphatase type 2A catalyst

Table 3.6: Group II: Down-regulated genes in non-mated OH compared to non-mated HK

Gene Symbol	RP-value	E-value	Function
Dbi	1.835E-16	0	acyl-CoA or acyl binding
CG13779	1.966E-15	0	
CG11765	3.804E-15	0	enzyme
CG10652	5.189E-14	0	
CG8857	7.741E-14	0	structural protein of ribosome
RpL18A	9.310E-14	0	large-subunit cytosol ribosomal protein
BcDNA:GH055 36	5.770E-12	0	
CG9026	6.343E-12	0	enzyme
CoVa	9.225E-12	0	cytochrome-c oxidase ; EC:1.9.3.1
RpS20	1.415E-11	0	small-subunit cytosol ribosomal protein
RpL9	7.681E-11	0	large-subunit cytosol ribosomal protein
CG7613	1.012E-10	0	enzyme
BcDNA:GH106 14	3.861E-10	0.001	enzyme
CG14449	4.414E-10	0	
RpL32	5.733E-10	0.001	large-subunit cytosol ribosomal protein
Elf	7.267E-10	0.001	cytosolic translation release factor
MtnA	7.891E-10	0.001	Cu/Cd binding
CG5991	1.096E-09	0.001	enzyme
CG11218	1.375E-09	0	ligand binding or carrier
CG18598	1.454E-09	0	
CG13771	1.465E-09	0	
Ubi-p63E	1.891E-09	0.013	protein degradation tagging
RpL13	2.107E-09	0.001	large-subunit cytosol ribosomal protein
CG2862	3.542E-09	0.004	enzyme inhibitor
CG4572	4.883E-09	0.001	peptidase
CG7430	5.539E-09	0	enzyme
RpL1	7.457E-09	0.002	large-subunit cytosol ribosomal protein
CG5841	9.180E-09	0	apoptosis inhibitor
RpS4	9.891E-09	0.002	small-subunit cytosol ribosomal protein
CG8057	1.191E-08	0.005	protein kinase
RpS17	1.724E-08	0.003	small-subunit cytosol ribosomal protein
CG6631	2.487E-08	0.006	motor
Gbp	2.520E-08	0.002	GTP binding

(Table 3.6 - continued)

RpL14	2.680E-08	0.009	large-subunit cytosol ribosomal protein
oho23B	2.833E-08	0.006	ribosomal protein
Jra	2.949E-08	0.005	RNA polymerase II transcription factor
smp-30	3.003E-08	0.001	
CG8343	3.876E-08	0.008	ligand binding or carrier
CG7738	4.119E-08	0.002	
CG7630	4.139E-08	0.005	
CG10363	4.475E-08	0.011	
CG14320	5.007E-08	0.007	
dock	5.170E-08	0.009	SH3/SH2 adaptor protein
RpS27A	5.179E-08	0.011	protein degradation tagging
Yp1	5.370E-08	0.001	yolk protein
CG1883	5.817E-08	0.02	structural protein of ribosome
CG7360	6.261E-08	0.003	receptor
RpS25	6.364E-08	0.005	small-subunit cytosol ribosomal protein
CG9274	6.439E-08	0.006	
RpS12	8.914E-08	0.025	small-subunit cytosol ribosomal protein
CG15231	9.104E-08	0.006	
Elongin-C	9.736E-08	0.008	transcription factor
sta	9.740E-08	0.043	small-subunit cytosol ribosomal protein
Rack1	9.931E-08	0.021	protein kinase C binding protein
CG9836	1.005E-07	0.006	
RpS18	1.216E-07	0.006	small-subunit cytosol ribosomal protein
RpS9	1.248E-07	0.011	small-subunit cytosol ribosomal protein
CG17280	1.357E-07	0.011	enzyme
HLHmgamma	1.455E-07	0.004	transcription factor
Pgi	1.740E-07	0.024	phosphogluconate dehydrogenase (decarboxylating) ; EC:1.1.1.44
RpS13	1.926E-07	0.019	small-subunit cytosol ribosomal protein
CG14214	2.140E-07	0.015	transporter
CG15222	2.533E-07	0.009	
ninaA	2.555E-07	0.024	cyclophilin
eas	2.940E-07	0.016	ethanolamine kinase ; EC:2.7.1.82
Dlc90F	3.862E-07	0.018	motor
Takr99D	6.123E-07	0.018	tachykinin receptor
CG9904	6.430E-07	0.026	
CG8332	7.923E-07	0.037	structural protein of ribosome
CG14975	8.146E-07	0.036	
CG5081	9.584E-07	0.024	transporter
CG6867	9.624E-07	0.047	structural protein
Hnf4	9.704E-07	0.016	ligand-dependent nuclear receptor
CG4561	1.114E-06	0.048	tyrosine--tRNA ligase
CG9282	1.648E-06	0.034	structural protein of ribosome
CG9674	1.671E-06	0.021	enzyme
CG13255	1.720E-06	0.037	
CG7275	1.815E-06	0.026	signal transduction
ATPsyn-b	1.924E-06	0.034	hydrogen-transporting ATP synthase ; EC:3.6.1.34
CG15235	1.962E-06	0.036	signal transduction
CG16844	2.266E-06	0.02	
CG10622	2.299E-06	0.046	
CG3792	2.472E-06	0.041	

(Table 3.6 - continued)

CG9354	2.597E-06	0.044	structural protein of ribosome
BcDNA:GH12504	2.758E-06	0.029	transmembrane receptor
GlyP	2.895E-06	0.04	phosphorylase ; EC:2.4.1.1
mbf1	3.284E-06	0.042	
CG8505	3.632E-06	0.032	structural protein
CG7528	5.653E-06	0.046	

Further analysis of the group I genes by GoMiner showed that 30 categories of Biological Process, 7 of Cellular Component, and 4 of Molecular Function were significantly enriched (q-value < 0.05) (Table 3.7). Remarkably, enriched Biological Process categories included those related to visual system, such as response to radiation, eye morphogenesis, and eye photoreceptor cell differentiation. Under the category of Cellular Component, rhabdomere was also shown to be significantly enriched (q-value < 0.05). The genes in those categories include *da*, *mts*, *fng*, *rac1*, *emc*, *arr2*, *rh6*, and *cam*. As for Molecular Function, the group I genes were enriched in nucleoside-triphosphatase activity, hydrolase activity, and monovalent ionic cation transporter activity (q-value < 0.05).

Table 3.7: *D. elegans* between species (OH and HK), enriched GO categories of overexpressed genes in nMOH (Group I)

<u>Description</u>	<u>Over</u>	<u>Total</u>	<u>p-value</u>	<u>q-value</u>
Biological Process				
cytoskeleton organization and biogenesis	13	353	0	0.003
organelle organization and biogenesis	15	563	0	0.008
cell organization and biogenesis	22	1092	0	0.0083
cell differentiation	12	417	0.0001	0.0332
main pathways of carbohydrate metabolism	5	82	0.0006	0.0456
morphogenesis	12	524	0.0011	0.0459
cellular carbohydrate metabolism	7	222	0.0024	0.0465
muscle fiber development	3	33	0.0026	0.0466
skeletal muscle fiber development	3	33	0.0026	0.0466
skeletal muscle development	3	33	0.0026	0.0466
eye photoreceptor fate commitment (sensu Endopterygota)	3	32	0.0023	0.047

(Table 3.7 - continued)

eye photoreceptor cell fate commitment	3	32	0.0023	0.047
phosphorylation	10	369	0.0009	0.0472
eye photoreceptor cell differentiation	4	66	0.0022	0.0475
carbohydrate metabolism	9	373	0.0036	0.0476
organismal physiological process	15	690	0.0004	0.0478
eye morphogenesis (sensu Endopterygota)	5	117	0.0029	0.0479
muscle contraction	4	75	0.0035	0.0482
development	19	1180	0.0025	0.0482
compound eye morphogenesis (sensu Endopterygota)	5	110	0.0022	0.0483
compound eye development (sensu Endopterygota)	5	110	0.0022	0.0483
eye-antennal disc morphogenesis	5	122	0.0034	0.0485
eye morphogenesis	5	122	0.0034	0.0485
spermatid development	3	29	0.0018	0.0489
spermatid differentiation	3	29	0.0018	0.0489
response to radiation	4	45	0.0005	0.0493
generation of precursor metabolites and energy	10	423	0.0024	0.0497
energy derivation by oxidation of organic compounds	5	94	0.0011	0.0497
photoreceptor cell differentiation (sensu Endopterygota)	4	74	0.0033	0.0499
regulation of cell shape	4	74	0.0033	0.0499
Cellular Component				
rhabdomere	4	18	0	0.005
plasma membrane	11	451	0.0011	0.0477
cellular_component	44	4014	0.0024	0.0487
membrane part	18	962	0.0006	0.0492
intracellular	33	2683	0.0034	0.0493
cell part	43	3735	0.0009	0.0498
cell	43	3735	0.0009	0.0498
Molecular Function				
nucleoside-triphosphatase activity	11	421	0.0006	0.0435
hydrolase activity, acting on acid anhydrides, in phosphorus-containing anhydrides	11	442	0.0009	0.0448
hydrolase activity, acting on acid anhydrides	11	442	0.0009	0.0448
monovalent inorganic cation transporter activity	4	74	0.0033	0.0499

7 categories of Biological Process, 22 of Cellular Component, and 3 of Molecular Function were shown to be significantly enriched by group II genes (q-value < 0.05) (table 3.8). In contrast to the group I genes, the group II genes were mainly enriched in biosynthesis and metabolism. Notably, categories related to ribosome

constituents were significantly enriched with this group of genes, and 27 genes had molecular function of nucleic acid binding (q-value < 0.05).

Table 3.8: *D. elegans* between species (OH and HK), enriched GO categories of underexpressed genes in OH (Group II)

<u>Description</u>	<u>Under</u>	<u>Total</u>	<u>p-value</u>	<u>q-value</u>
Biological Process				
protein biosynthesis	23	397	0	0
cellular biosynthesis	28	641	0	0
macromolecule biosynthesis	24	420	0	0
biosynthesis	29	692	0	0
cellular macromolecule metabolism	31	1707	0.0004	0.0166
cellular protein metabolism	30	1650	0.0005	0.0191
protein metabolism	30	1733	0.0012	0.0415
Cellular Component				
protein complex	33	1302	0	0
intracellular non-membrane-bound organelle	23	582	0	0
non-membrane-bound organelle	23	582	0	0
small ribosomal subunit	14	62	0	0
eukaryotic 48S initiation complex	14	38	0	0
eukaryotic 43S preinitiation complex	14	54	0	0
ribonucleoprotein complex	22	272	0	0
cytosolic small ribosomal subunit (sensu Eukaryota)	14	38	0	0
cytosolic large ribosomal subunit (sensu Eukaryota)	8	46	0	0
ribosome	22	164	0	0
cytosolic ribosome (sensu Eukaryota)	22	84	0	0
cytosol	23	156	0	0
cytoplasm	36	1201	0	0
intracellular organelle part	31	1172	0	0
cytosolic part	22	106	0	0
cytoplasmic part	30	952	0	0
organelle part	31	1172	0	0
large ribosomal subunit	8	87	0	0.0001
intracellular part	44	2595	0	0.0011
intracellular	44	2683	0.0001	0.002
intracellular organelle	37	2193	0.0003	0.0109
organelle	37	2193	0.0003	0.0109
Molecular Function				
structural molecule activity	26	623	0	0
structural constituent of ribosome	22	163	0	0

(Table 3.8 - continued)

nucleic acid binding	27	1424	0.0006	0.0197
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3.3 Differentially Expressed Gene in OH Female Due to Mating Effect

The group III contained 75 genes and the group IV contained 76 genes (E-value < 0.05) (Table 3.4, 3.9, and 3.10). Notably, even though a few GO categories were reported as enriched with the group III genes (4 categories of Biological Process, 8 of Cellular Component, and 1 of Molecular Function), many GO categories were enriched with the group IV genes (table 3.11 and 3.12). 64 categories of Biological Process were significantly enriched (q-value < 0.05), and these categories are related to the visual system, such as eye photoreceptor cell differentiation, eye-antennal disc development, and R8 cell differentiation, and also neural network system, such as regulation of synaptic structure and function, regulation of neurogenesis, regulation of axonogenesis, and glutamate metabolism. Genes from the visual system-related categories included *emc*, *h*, *mts*, *rac1*, and *rho1*, and genes from the other neuronal categories included *rab5*, *slob*, *rac1*, *rho1*, *gdh*, and *CG9674*. Enriched categories of Molecular Function were mainly related to hydrolase activity, pyrophosphatase activity, and nucleoside-triphosphatase activity.

Table 3.9: Group III: Up-regulated genes in non-mated OH compared to mated OH

Gene Symbol	RP-value	E-value	Function
Lsp2	8.529E-17	0	larval serum protein
CG4347	2.226E-16	0	UTP--glucose-1-phosphate uridylyltransferase
CG5827	2.732E-16	0	structural protein of ribosome
CG8505	1.098E-15	0	structural protein
CG9282	2.058E-15	0	structural protein of ribosome
BG:DS07851.3	9.334E-15	0	
CG3534	1.681E-12	0	xylulokinase
CG2827	4.021E-12	0	enzyme
CG13779	2.037E-11	0	
CG3560	4.124E-11	0	NADH dehydrogenase

(Table 3.9 - continued)

CG10320	2.687E-10	0.001	enzyme
CG6770	2.872E-10	0.001	
Mp20	6.022E-10	0	calcium binding
CG15201	6.903E-10	0	
dock	1.789E-09	0	SH3/SH2 adaptor protein
CG9112	1.971E-09	0.003	DNA binding
CG4019	2.044E-09	0	transporter
CG8360	2.495E-09	0	enzyme
CG12030	2.860E-09	0.001	enzyme
CG13550	2.903E-09	0.002	motor
CG15199	3.076E-09	0.002	
CG5642	4.013E-09	0.003	
CG5995	5.500E-09	0	
ATPCL	5.569E-09	0.007	ATP-citrate (pro-S)-lyase ; EC:4.1.3.8
TRAP1	6.028E-09	0	chaperone
hig	6.222E-09	0.001	cell adhesion
CG5168	6.984E-09	0.005	signal transduction
CG11901	7.223E-09	0.003	
CG6188	1.013E-08	0.001	
CG14214	1.062E-08	0.001	transporter
CG18606	1.695E-08	0.008	
Qcr9	1.911E-08	0.005	ubiquinol-cytochrome c oxidase ; EC:1.10.2.2
RpL9	2.214E-08	0.011	large-subunit cytosol ribosomal protein
CG15499	2.243E-08	0.015	
CG2922	2.507E-08	0.012	
CG1458	3.031E-08	0.008	
CG8723	3.252E-08	0.021	enzyme
CG13328	3.431E-08	0.006	
CG4962	3.467E-08	0.002	
RhoBTB	3.862E-08	0.022	RHO small GTPase
Pdh	5.616E-08	0.013	enzyme
eIF1A	6.612E-08	0.004	
CG12079	7.913E-08	0.009	enzyme
CG12269	8.780E-08	0.017	
CG5973	9.275E-08	0.01	ligand binding or carrier
RpL29	1.517E-07	0.02	large-subunit cytosol ribosomal protein
Ip259	1.694E-07	0.01	
CG9298	1.890E-07	0.024	
eas	1.992E-07	0.029	ethanolamine kinase ; EC:2.7.1.82
CG12131	2.424E-07	0.04	translation factor
CG9354	3.176E-07	0.006	structural protein of ribosome
CG9034	3.955E-07	0.021	
CG5165	4.027E-07	0.035	enzyme
CG10794	4.133E-07	0.013	defense
CG8369	4.432E-07	0.012	
CG7712	5.277E-07	0.02	NADH dehydrogenase
His4r	5.499E-07	0.034	DNA binding
CG4769	5.632E-07	0.025	electron transfer
CG12264	5.954E-07	0.038	enzyme
Mlc1	6.243E-07	0.018	muscle motor protein
CG15731	6.414E-07	0.025	

(Table 3.9 - continued)

CG7834	6.509E-07	0.013	electron transfer
CG1318	6.656E-07	0.017	
CG7584	9.819E-07	0.023	ligand binding or carrier
CG8309	1.006E-06	0.041	
CG11979	1.381E-06	0.044	enzyme
Sec61beta	2.016E-06	0.023	transporter
CG13078	2.053E-06	0.044	
CG1214	2.114E-06	0.04	
CG17272	2.993E-06	0.041	calcium binding
CG16994	3.115E-06	0.037	
Sap-r	3.206E-06	0.031	
CG8707	4.238E-06	0.045	signal transduction

Table 3.10: Group IV: Down-regulated genes in non-mated OH compared to mated OH

Gene Symbol	RP-value	E-value	Function
Ubi-p63E	1.114E-22	0	protein degradation tagging
fax	3.429E-15	0	
CG12431	1.120E-14	0	
CG6963	5.808E-14	0	
Taf110	4.069E-13	0	transcription activating factor
Cam	6.539E-13	0	calcium sensing
CG9894	3.983E-12	0	
h	1.427E-11	0	specific RNA polymerase II transcription factor
CG15223	2.357E-11	0	
Act5C	2.495E-11	0	motor protein
CG8895	2.618E-11	0	
Sdc	6.098E-11	0	heparin sulfate proteoglycan
CG13943	7.807E-11	0	
Pu	2.776E-10	0	GTP cyclohydrolase I ; EC:3.5.4.16
Gdi	2.889E-10	0	GDP-dissociation inhibitor
CG18282	5.359E-10	0	
Slob	5.628E-10	0.001	signal transduction
CG12004	1.016E-09	0.003	
Atpalpha	1.309E-09	0	sodium/potassium-transporting ATPase ; EC:3.6.1.37
CG14844	2.741E-09	0	
	3.033E-09	0.004	
Pbprp3	4.041E-09	0.004	pheromone binding
26/29kD-proteinase	4.117E-09	0	cysteine-type endopeptidase
Ace	4.483E-09	0.002	acetylcholinesterase ; EC:3.1.1.7
CG9140	5.628E-09	0.001	enzyme
CG9057	5.828E-09	0.002	
emc	5.935E-09	0.005	transcription co-repressor
TM4SF	6.020E-09	0.002	
CG14503	6.435E-09	0	
CG7085	6.758E-09	0.001	
beta-Spec	7.422E-09	0.005	actin cross-linking
CG18598	8.244E-09	0.001	

(Table 3.10 - continued)

CG9318	9.806E-09	0.005	
CG7181	1.221E-08	0.007	
CG5889	2.413E-08	0.003	
CG13666	2.421E-08	0.003	
CG12324	2.542E-08	0	structural protein of ribosome
CG15567	3.103E-08	0.006	
Rac1	3.116E-08	0.002	RHO small GTPase
BcDNA:GH08860	3.502E-08	0.012	enzyme
PhKgamma	3.702E-08	0.01	phosphorylase kinase catalyst
sta	4.867E-08	0.025	small-subunit cytosol ribosomal protein
CG14975	4.916E-08	0.017	
CG13233	5.003E-08	0.004	
Rab5	5.055E-08	0.014	RAB small GTPase
CG18502	5.453E-08	0.003	
Arf79F	5.506E-08	0.002	GTP binding
CG12566	6.035E-08	0.009	
Elf	7.756E-08	0.006	cytosolic translation release factor
CG15381	8.143E-08	0.008	
CG15893	8.149E-08	0.015	
CG9674	9.040E-08	0.011	enzyme
CG2233	9.152E-08	0.015	
Pabp2	9.305E-08	0.004	poly(A) binding
CG13159	1.042E-07	0.004	
CG7981	1.477E-07	0.008	
AnnX	1.541E-07	0.012	calcium-dependent phospholipid binding
CG7510	1.891E-07	0.019	
nAcRalpha-96Ab	2.073E-07	0.027	nicotinic acetylcholine-gated receptor-channel
CG3186	2.124E-07	0.017	translation factor
mts	2.289E-07	0.012	protein phosphatase type 2A catalyst
Elongin-B	2.290E-07	0.021	enzyme
Gbeta13F	2.461E-07	0.042	heterotrimeric G protein
Nlp	2.604E-07	0.019	DNA binding
CG2768	3.956E-07	0.018	transporter
	5.800E-07	0.011	
Gdh	7.052E-07	0.038	glutamate dehydrogenase (NAD(P)+) ; EC:1.4.1.3
Rho1	8.498E-07	0.025	RHO small GTPase
CG1534	8.906E-07	0.017	
CG11676	1.173E-06	0.031	transcription factor
CG8029	1.296E-06	0.019	enzyme
CG13255	1.532E-06	0.017	
CG13053	2.396E-06	0.032	
CG5991	2.419E-06	0.03	enzyme
Vha55	2.645E-06	0.032	hydrogen-transporting ATPase ; EC:3.6.1.35
CG15890	4.766E-06	0.049	transporter

Table 3.11: *D. elegans* mating effect, enriched GO categories of overexpressed genes in non-mated OH (Group III)

Description	Over	Total	p-value	q-value
Biological Process				

(Table 3.11 - continued)

ATP synthesis coupled electron transport	5	51	0	0.003
ATP synthesis coupled electron transport (sensu Eukaryota)	5	50	0	0.0035
oxidative phosphorylation	6	109	0.0001	0.0119
SRP-dependent cotranslational protein targeting to membrane, translocation	2	4	0.0003	0.0389
Cellular Component				
cytoplasm	22	1201	0	0.002
cytoplasmic part	19	952	0	0.0025
mitochondrial electron transport chain	5	59	0	0.0093
cytosolic large ribosomal subunit (sensu Eukaryota)	4	46	0.0003	0.0315
intracellular organelle part	18	1172	0.0004	0.035
organelle part	18	1172	0.0004	0.035
mitochondrial membrane part	5	93	0.0004	0.042
translocon complex	2	5	0.0005	0.0437
Molecular Function				
electron carrier activity	5	48	0	0.0047

Table 3.12: *D. elegans* mating effect, enriched GO categories of underexpressed genes in non-mated OH (Group IV)

<u>Description</u>	<u>Under</u>	<u>Total</u>	<u>p-value</u>	<u>q-value</u>
Biological Process				
synaptic transmission	8	196	0	0.005
regulation of synapse structure and function	3	11	0	0.0063
cell organization and biogenesis	19	1092	0	0.007
neurophysiological process	11	470	0.0001	0.021
transmission of nerve impulse	9	311	0.0001	0.0237
endocytosis	5	93	0.0003	0.0275
eye photoreceptor cell differentiation (sensu Endopterygota)	4	64	0.0007	0.0282
eye photoreceptor cell differentiation	4	66	0.0008	0.0283
membrane organization and biogenesis	3	27	0.0006	0.0287
cell differentiation	9	417	0.0011	0.0289
compound eye morphogenesis (sensu Endopterygota)	5	110	0.0006	0.0296
compound eye development (sensu Endopterygota)	5	110	0.0006	0.0296
eye photoreceptor fate commitment (sensu Endopterygota)	3	32	0.0011	0.0297
eye photoreceptor cell fate commitment	3	32	0.0011	0.0297
eye-antennal disc morphogenesis	5	122	0.001	0.0309
eye morphogenesis	5	122	0.001	0.0309
photoreceptor cell differentiation (sensu Endopterygota)	4	74	0.0012	0.032
organelle organization and biogenesis	11	563	0.0006	0.0324
organismal physiological process	12	690	0.001	0.0324

(Table 3.12 - continued)

neuromuscular synaptic transmission	3	25	0.0005	0.0325
cell-cell signaling	9	383	0.0006	0.0326
eye morphogenesis (sensu Endopterygota)	5	117	0.0008	0.0332
cellular physiological process	40	4965	0.0009	0.0334
morphogenesis	10	524	0.0014	0.0334
restriction of R8 fate	2	6	0.0006	0.0335
glutamate metabolism	2	6	0.0006	0.0335
dorsal closure, amnioserosa morphology change	2	6	0.0006	0.0335
actin cytoskeleton organization and biogenesis	4	82	0.0018	0.0341
actin filament-based process	4	82	0.0018	0.0341
photoreceptor cell differentiation	4	81	0.0017	0.0344
eye-antennal disc development	5	133	0.0015	0.035
cellular morphogenesis	7	277	0.0017	0.0351
eye development (sensu Endopterygota)	5	144	0.0021	0.0352
cytoskeleton organization and biogenesis	8	353	0.0016	0.0352
photoreceptor fate commitment (sensu Endopterygota)	3	38	0.0018	0.0354
photoreceptor cell fate commitment	3	38	0.0018	0.0354
R8 cell fate commitment	2	9	0.0014	0.0355
eye development	5	149	0.0025	0.0361
generation of neurons	5	149	0.0025	0.0361
establishment of wing hair orientation	2	11	0.0021	0.0369
glial cell migration	2	11	0.0021	0.0369
cytoplasm organization and biogenesis	3	42	0.0024	0.037
R8 cell differentiation	2	12	0.0026	0.038
energy reserve metabolism	2	12	0.0026	0.038
regulation of axonogenesis	2	12	0.0026	0.038
system development	9	478	0.0028	0.039
wing hair organization and biogenesis	2	13	0.003	0.041
endosome transport	2	13	0.003	0.041
neurogenesis	5	158	0.0032	0.0417
axonogenesis	4	101	0.0038	0.0429
neurite morphogenesis	4	101	0.0038	0.0429
neuron morphogenesis during differentiation	4	101	0.0038	0.0429
epidermis morphogenesis	2	14	0.0035	0.0433
epidermal cell differentiation	2	14	0.0035	0.0433
trichome organization and biogenesis (sensu Insecta)	2	14	0.0035	0.0433
hair cell differentiation	2	14	0.0035	0.0433
vesicle-mediated transport	6	242	0.0041	0.0457
actin filament organization	3	52	0.0044	0.0458
regulation of neurogenesis	2	15	0.004	0.0461
glutamine family amino acid metabolism	2	16	0.0046	0.0482
development	15	1180	0.0048	0.0484
oxidative phosphorylation	4	109	0.005	0.0486
generation of precursor metabolites and energy	8	423	0.0048	0.0489
secretory pathway	5	179	0.0054	0.0497
Cellular Component				

(Table 3.12 - continued)

plasma membrane	11	451	0.0001	0.0154
plasma membrane part	8	278	0.0003	0.0266
cytoplasm	16	1201	0.0021	0.0352
membrane part	13	962	0.0056	0.0494
Molecular Function				
GTPase activity	6	108	0.0001	0.0165
hydrolase activity, acting on acid anhydrides, in phosphorus-containing anhydrides	10	442	0.0004	0.0242
hydrolase activity, acting on acid anhydrides	10	442	0.0004	0.0242
oxidoreductase activity, acting on the CH-NH2 group of donors, NAD or NADP as acceptor	2	3	0.0001	0.0275
pyrophosphatase activity	10	427	0.0003	0.0298
nucleoside-triphosphatase activity	10	421	0.0002	0.0317
monovalent inorganic cation transporter activity	4	74	0.0012	0.032
GTP binding	5	137	0.0017	0.0336
guanyl nucleotide binding	5	138	0.0018	0.036
oxidoreductase activity, acting on the CH-NH2 group of donors	2	10	0.0018	0.0367
protein binding	14	984	0.0024	0.0374
transcription corepressor activity	2	14	0.0035	0.0433
ATPase activity, coupled to transmembrane movement of ions, phosphorylative mechanism	3	51	0.0041	0.0454

3.4 Overlap of Candidate Gene Among the Group I, II, III, and IV

5, 36, 8, and 8 genes overlapped between the group I and the group III, I and IV, II and III, and II and IV, respectively. To determine the biological significance of these overlapping genes, we checked the shared GO categories. Interestingly, GO categories, which were showed to be enriched by both groups I and IV (table 3.13) still included the biological processes related to the visual system, such as eye photoreceptor cell differentiation and eye-antennal disc morphogenesis. These shared genes were also enriched in Molecular Function categories of nucleoside-triphosphatase activity, hydrolase activity, and monovalent inorganic cation transporter activity. The shared genes between other gene groups were not enriched in any interesting GO categories (table 3.14).

Table 3.13: Genes overlapping between Group I and Group IV

<u>Gene ID</u>	<u>Gene Symbol</u>	<u>Function</u>	<u>Map</u>
151557_i_at	maps		
143361_at	beta-Spec	actin cross-linking	16C1-16C1
151193_f_at	CG15381		22C1-22C1
153703_at	emc	transcription co-repressor	61D1-61D2
141214_at	Gdi	GDP-dissociation inhibitor	30B8-30B9
143058_f_at	Act5C	motor protein	5C5-5C5
148396_f_at	CG13666		66C8-66C8
154623_at	CG15893		5E4-5E4
151747_s_at	Taf110	transcription activating factor	72D6-72D6
154331_at	Gbeta13F	heterotrimeric G protein	13F5-13F5
153560_at	CG1534		9E2-9E2
155059_at	CG9318		38E3-38E4
154428_at	CG6963		89B17-89B19
151244_f_at	CG12431		47C7-47C7
143597_at	Rac1	RHO small GTPase	61F5-61F5
142520_at	Atpalpha	sodium/potassium-transporting ATPase ; EC:3.6.1.37	93B1-93B1
151213_f_at	CG14503		55C5-55C5
151048_f_at	CG14844		88C3-88C3
145098_at	CG9057		13A11-13A11
153465_at	Cam	calcium sensing	48F5-48F5
142892_at	CG8895		25B10-25C1
151224_f_at	CG13943		50F4-50F4
154421_at	fax		72F4-72F4
145664_at	CG9894		23B1-23B1
153525_at	CG7510		74E2-74E2
142723_at	Arf79F	GTP binding	79F5-79F5
153619_at	Sdc	heparin sulfate proteoglycan	57D12-57E5
150941_f_at	CG15567		100C3-100C3
154812_at	Pu	GTP cyclohydrolase I ; EC:3.5.4.16	57C5-57C6
151241_f_at	CG13233		47D1-47D1
143566_i_at	Pabp2	poly(A) binding	44A7-44A8
154218_at	Gdh	glutamate dehydrogenase (NAD(P)+) ; EC:1.4.1.3 inferred from direct assay	95C12-95C13
152974_at	Ace	acetylcholinesterase ; EC:3.1.1.7	87E3-87E3
153041_at	Vha55	hydrogen-transporting ATPase ; EC:3.6.1.35	87C5-87C5
144587_f_at	CG18282		5E1-5E1
154353_at	mts	protein phosphatase type 2A catalyst	28D2-28D2

Table 3.14: GO categories shown to be enriched by both enriched GO categories of Group I and those of Group IV

<u>Description</u>
Biological Process
cytoskeleton organization and biogenesis

(Table 3.14 - continued)

organelle organization and biogenesis
cell organization and biogenesis
cell differentiation
morphogenesis
eye photoreceptor fate commitment (sensu Endopterygota)
eye photoreceptor cell fate commitment
eye photoreceptor cell differentiation
organismal physiological process
eye morphogenesis (sensu Endopterygota)
development
compound eye morphogenesis (sensu Endopterygota)
compound eye development (sensu Endopterygota)
eye-antennal disc morphogenesis
eye morphogenesis
generation of precursor metabolites and energy
photoreceptor cell differentiation (sensu Endopterygota)

Cellular Component

plasma membrane
membrane part

Molecular Function

nucleoside-triphosphatase activity
hydrolase activity, acting on acid anhydrides, in phosphorus-containing anhydrides
hydrolase activity, acting on acid anhydrides
monovalent inorganic cation transporter activity

CHAPTER 4

DISCUSSION

4.1 Does HK Female Also Show Mating Preference?

All of the previous works on *D. elegans* done by other research groups reported that black morph females of *D. elegans* have preference to select their mates and brown morph females of *D. elegans* do not (Hirai and Kimura 1997; Ishii et al. 2001; Ishii et al. 2002; Kopp and True 2002). Our result was consistent with theirs in terms of the black morph female preference, but, on the other hand, it suggested that HK females, one of the brown morphs in *D. elegans*, have slight mating preference to OH males (Table 3.2 and 3.3 and Figure 4.1). However, this result is most likely because of the few sample size of HK group and an outlier of the data. Among 5 replicates in the HK group, only replicate 4 showed significant deviation from random mating ($G=12.695$, $df=1$, $p<0.001$) while others do not ($0.015<G<1.616$, $df=1$, $p>0.05$). This replicate makes total G-value significant. Even though it is still possible that HK females preferably mate with OH males, it is safe to conclude that HK females do not show sexual isolation. As for OH females, there is not the shadow of a doubt that OH females show the strong preference to select their mate ($G=107.264$, $df=5$, $p<0.001$). Figure 4.1 illustrates this mating preference by OH and HK morphs of *D. elegans*.

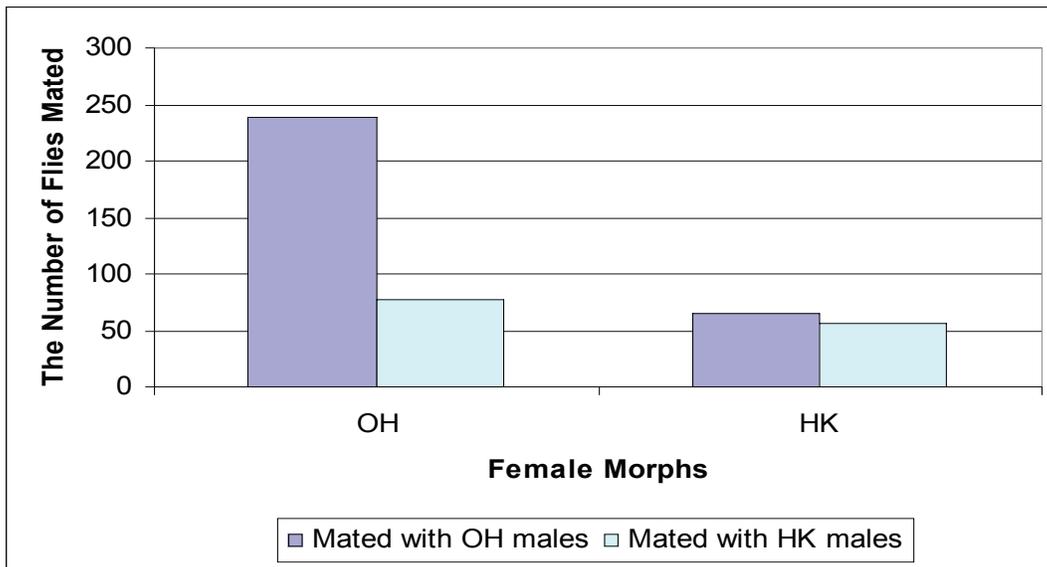


Figure 4.1: Multiple Female Choice Mating Reveals That OH Females Have a Strong Preference to Mate With Own Males

4.2 Sequence Divergence Between *D. elegans* and *D. melanogaster*

Since we hybridized RNA from *D. elegans* on the *D. melanogaster* microarray chips, we expected that our analysis contained sequence divergence problems. To overcome this problem, we used a filtering procedure to exclude poorly hybridized probes so that we minimized the effect of sequence divergence. Moreover, both *D. elegans* morphs are expected to have been equally diverged from *D. melanogaster* and this should effectively result in canceling out the sequence divergence effects. In order to estimate when *D. elegans* subgroup was branched out from *D. melanogaster* subgroup, we calculated synonymous substitution rate (Ks) of the coding region of *yellow* gene among 6 different *Drosophila* species, including *D. melanogaster*, *D. elegans*, *D. sechellia*, *D. yakuba*, *D. erecta*, and *D. ananassae*. We used *yellow* gene since it is the only gene whose mRNA has been completely sequenced in *D. elegans*.

Coding regions of *yellow* gene of these 6 species were obtained from the GenBank on the National Center for Biotechnology Information (NCBI) WebSite. We estimated Ks by Kumar method with MEGA 4 and the result showed that there were about 72% differences between *D. elegans* and *D. melanogaster* (Table 4.1).

Table 4.1: Estimation of Ks by Kumar method. Calculation was done by MEGA 4

	1	2	3	4	5	6
1: <i>D. elegans</i>						
2: <i>D. melanogaster</i>	0.716					
3: <i>D. sechellia</i>	0.708	0.053				
4: <i>D. yakuba</i>	0.714	0.199	0.179			
5: <i>D. erecta</i>	0.705	0.182	0.168	0.172		
6: <i>D. ananassae</i>	1.422	1.526	1.581	1.243	1.496	

Table 4.1 also suggested that *D. elegans* subgroup was split from *D. melanogaster* subgroup after *D. ananassae*, which is consistent with other researches (Schawaroch 2002; Tamura et al. 2004; Kopp 2006). If we calculate a divergence time at a rate of 1 % synonymous substitution per million year, which is a standard estimated rate, *D. elegans* was branched out from *D. melanogaster* about 36 million years ago (MYA). This estimated divergence time is very close to the divergence distance between *D. melanogaster* subgroup and *D. takahashii* subgroup, which is 35.6 ± 8.7 MYA (Tamura et al. 2004). Since we just used one gene, *yellow*, for sequence divergence time between *D. elegans* and *D. melanogaster*, it is not enough to conclude the divergent time between these two species. However, this estimation provided us an idea how much these two species are diverged, giving us no big surprise by obtaining only 605 probes after filtering process for microarray analysis.

4.3 Some OH Strain-Unique Candidate Gene Are Involved in the Visual System

Since OH females, unlike HK females, preferably mate with homotypic males, if we can identify genes differentially expressed in OH females relative to HK females, those genes could be very good candidates for this phenomenon. Ishii et al. (2001) showed that this behavioral isolation is caused by different kinds of cuticular hydrocarbon concentration, not by their body color (Ishii et al. 2001). However, they did not show which genes are involved in recognizing these sexual signals. Our analysis showed that a total of 182 genes were differentially expressed between OH and HK female heads, of which 91 genes were unique to OH (the group I genes), and the others were unique to HK (the group II genes). The genes unique to OH are most likely involved in sexual discrimination. In order to see the biological significance of these OH unique genes, we used GoMiner to find enriched GO categories. As a result, very interesting GO categories were found to be enriched by OH unique genes. Even though Ishii *et al.* reported that visual cues were not essential for *D. elegans* mate discrimination, our result showed that some of our candidate genes (*da*, *emc*, *fng*, *mts*, *rac1*, *arr2*, *cam*, *rh6*, and *g-s60aa*) were enriched in the visual system categories, which may have two possible explanations. First, this could be due to our experimental design. Since we took female out from the dark environment right before mating experiment, this could have affected the result. However, if this was true, those visual system relating genes should have expressed to relatively same amount in both strains (OH and HK). Besides, although our previous paper performed same method for mating experiments, none of these genes were shown to be differentially expressed (Michalak

et al. 2007). The other explanation is that these genes are possibly involved in female courtship behavior. It is known that locomotion of female slows down when she is more receptive to male. This transition is presumed as the consequence of detecting some sexual cues, such as male pheromones or courtship songs. After female stops locomotion, male attempts further courtship behavior, such as circulating around female (Greenspan and Ferveur 2000). In *D. elegans*, it's possible that OH females select their mates via visual cues at either of these courtship steps.

4.4 Genes Involved in the Visual System Are Still Up-Regulated in Mated OH Female

Even though the significant number of the genes involved in the visual system was more expressed in nMOH compared to nMHK, some of them were even higher expressed in MOH, such as *emc*, *mts*, and *rac1*. Additionally, *h* and *rho1* appeared to be highly expressed in MOH over nMOH. Even though the other genes relating to the visual system, *da* and *fng*, were not significantly over-expressed in MOH, because of these two new genes, GO analysis showed that those categories are still significantly enriched. Although this phenomenon is still interesting, the visual system relating genes which turned off after mating are more interesting, because those genes could be good candidates for mate discrimination factors in *D. elegans*, for it is known that female decreases their receptivity towards male after mating (Tompkins and Hall 1983; Ejima et al. 2001). If *D. elegans* females use visual recognition as sexual cues a number of the

vision-related genes should be turned off after mating so that they do not consume any energy to select their mate.

4.5 OH Unique Genes Are Significantly Enriched in Biochemical Process

Cognition is a very complicated system, so it is unlikely that a single gene explains whole behavior difference. However, interestingly, a group of genes which are involved in biochemical process were shown to be unique to OH female, and these GO categories are hydrolase activity (*arf79F*, *atpalpha*, *blw*, *CG8801*, *eif-4a*, *Gβ13f*, *g-s60aa*, *rab1*, *rac1*, *robl*, and *vha55*), cation transporter activity (*atpalpha*, *blw*, *CG10664*, and *vha55*), and phosphorylation (*argk*, *blw*, *cam*, *CG10664*, *CG12203*, *CG9172*, *for*, *pdk*, *pyk*, and *vha55*). This result suggests that recognition systems of OH female and HK female are significantly different from each other, and it is very likely that some of these genes are involved in assortative mating. In contrast to OH gene profile, HK genes are more enriched in structural and organelle constituents, such as involved in ribosome synthesis.

4.6 Transcriptional Changes Associated With Mating

Significant female behavior changes, such as less receptivity toward males or decrease in female sexual attractiveness after mating have been observed (Fuyama and Ueyama 1997; Tram and Wolfner 1998; Ejima et al. 2001). These female behavior

changes are due to sperm and seminal fluid injection and mating behavior itself, which possibly regulate transcriptional changes. By comparing the transcriptional expression between pre-mating and after-mating female, we can identify genes associated with these behavioral changes. Unfortunately, the genes we obtained from the analysis with *D. elegans* did not overlap with any of the genes in the list from our previous work in which we used *D. melanogaster* Zimbabwe and Cosmopolitan strains (Michalak et al. 2007). McGraw *et al.* and Lawniczak and Begun performed similar whole-genome wide analysis to identify mating associating genes (McGraw et al. 2004; Lawniczak and Begun 2004). Even though our gene list did not match any candidate genes from Lawniczak and Begun, there were some overlapping with McGraw's candidate genes (table 4.2). Interestingly, some of these overlapping genes were regulated in opposite directions, so those genes could be specific to each species.

Table 4.2: Genes overlapping with McGraw's candidate genes

<u>Gene Symbol</u>	<u>Function</u>	<u>Group</u>
Genes Modulated by Sperm		
CG8505	structural protein	III
CG3560 *	NADH dehydrogenase	III
Mp20	calcium binding	III
dock	SH3/SH2 adaptor protein	III
CG6188		III
Qcr9 *	ubiquinol-cytochrome c oxidase ; EC:1.10.2.2	III
CG13328 *		III
CG12079 *	enzyme	III
eas	ethanolamine kinase ; EC:2.7.1.82	III
CG5165 *	enzyme	III
CG10794	defense	III
CG7712 *	NADH dehydrogenase	III
CG4769 *	electron transfer	III
Mlc1 *	muscle motor protein	III
CG1318 *		III
Sec61beta	transporter	III
CG13078		III

(Table 4.2 - continued)

Pu ?	GTP cyclohydrolase I ; EC:3.5.4.16	IV
Pbprp3	pheromone binding	IV
CG12566 *		IV
CG9674	enzyme	IV
Pabp2 *	poly(A) binding	IV
CG13255		IV
CG13053 *		IV
Genes Regulated by Acps		
Lsp2 *	larval serum protein	III
CG3534 *	xylulokinase	III
CG2827 *	enzyme	III
ATPCL *	ATP-citrate (pro-S)-lyase ; EC:4.1.3.8	III
CG8723 *	enzyme	III
Gene Regulated by Non-Sperm/Non-Acps Components of Mating		
CG4347 *	UTP--glucose-1-phosphate uridylyltransferase	III
CG12030 *	enzyme	III
142042_at		III
CG7584 *	ligand binding or carrier	III
h *	specific RNA polymerase II transcription factor	IV
beta-Spec	actin cross-linking	IV
CG5889		IV
PhKgamma	phosphorylase kinase catalyst	IV
CG7981 *		IV

* Same direction of up and down regulation.

Among the overlapping genes, *dock* and *pbprp3* are quite interesting. *Dreadlocks (dock)* has been identified as a component of a signaling cascade involved in photoreceptor axon guidance, which composed of three Src homology 3 (SH3) domain and single SH2 domain (Clemens et al.1996; Garrity et al. 1996). Recent works reveal that its adapter protein interacted with Pak, a serine/threonine kinase, to form a signaling pathway that mediates the response of olfactory axon (Ang et al. 2002). Therefore, *dock* is involved in both visual and olfactory system. This gene turns off after mating in *D. elegans* (Group III), suggesting that it possibly connects to sexual isolation behavior. The other gene, *pbprp3* is more fascinating. This gene is named as

pheromone binding protein (PBP)-relating proteins since it is related to moth PBPs and odorant binding proteins (OBPs), and it is expressed in the main olfactory organ of the antennae (Pikielny et al. 1994). *Pbprp3*, also called as *Olfactory Specific-F (OS-F)*, is highly conserved genes among 4 species of *Drosophila* and have an annotated duplicated gene, *OS-E*, which is very diverged (Sánchez-Gracia et al. 2003). The exact function of OBPs is not well understood yet, but many recent researches have shown that OBPs play an important role in odorant recognition. Besides, OBPs might be involved in inactivating odorants and other volatile molecules (Park et al. 2000; Hekmat-Scafe et al. 2002). Since this gene is more expressed after mating (Group IV), it is possibly used to inhibit an olfactory signal cascade to reduce receptivity of females towards male.

4.7 Biochemical Process Profile in Neural Circuit in *D. elegans* Is Modified by Mating

GO analysis of the genes turned on after mating (the group IV genes) revealed that female behavioral changes were associated with neural network changes, for many of the neural network relating genes were more expressed in MOH, such as *ace, arf79f, β -spec, cam, fax, gdi, nacra-96b, pbprp3, rab5, rac1, and slob*. These genes are involved in neurophysiological processes, such as synaptic transmission, transmission of nerve impulse, generation of neurons, and axonogenesis. Especially, *fax* and *cam* are reported to affect olfactory behavior (Anholt et al. 2003), so these genes are good candidates to explain female behavior change after mating. Moreover, these two genes

are more expressed in OH female compared to HK female (Group I), suggesting us that these could related to OH female choosiness in terms of olfactory.

4.8 Problems Need to Be Addressed

So far, our analysis showed many interesting results, there are some problems that we need to discuss. First, in GoMiner's result, there are some categories, shown to be enriched by our candidate genes, which seem completely irrelevant such as spermatid differentiation. This is because of categorization of GO. Since most of genes are assigned to some different biological processes, cellular components, and molecular functions based on GO, this GO categorization might have given us noisy data. Second, for our analysis, we just used the P-call probes, excluding all other probes. These P-call probes are representing the genes whose sequences have been highly conserved, probably around 36 million years, between *D. elegans* and *D. melanogaster* in their evolutionary history. By filtering out M-call and A-call probes from microarray, we have definitely missed many important genes, which could possibly participate in major role of sexual discrimination in *D. elegans* system. However, it is still quite interesting to see that each morph of *D. elegans* has retained dramatically different portion of genome with *D. melanogaster*.

4.9 Conclusion and Future Direction

Our analysis showed that OH strains, black morph, of *D. elegans* might use visual cues as their sexual isolation. In order to confirm this hypothesis, we will perform choice-by-female test under dark conditions. We might be able to perform that experiment under infrared conditions, but since *D. elegans*' habitat is over flowers, they might be influenced by infrared.

Incipient speciation is one of the big mysteries in evolutionary biology. Unveiling the mechanisms of sexual isolation, one of the pre-zygotic isolation, would lead us to answering fundamental questions of speciation. In our study, we showed some candidate genes are possibly involved in sexual discrimination behavior, especially visual and olfactory relating genes. Further characterization of these candidate genes will be necessary to confirm their involvement in sexual isolation.

APPENDIX A

A PUBLISHED PREVIOUS RESEARCH

GENE EXPRESSION POLYMORPHISM IN *DROSOPHILA* POPULATIONS

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ABSTRACT

Changes in gene expression have long been recognized as critical to evolutionary processes. However, the extent of natural polymorphism in gene expression has yet to be assessed, which currently opens a new area of active research. We present microarray and quantitative real-time PCR data from Cosmopolitan and Zimbabwe morphs of *Drosophila melanogaster*. These morphs provide a useful model for investigations into the incipient stages of speciation because Zimbabwe females tend to preferentially mate with their own males and discriminate against Cosmopolitan males, while Cosmopolitan females mate indiscriminately. We analyzed expression profiles from heads of mated and nonmated females and identified 45 candidate genes whose expression levels were associated with the behavioral morphs and were modified by mating. Genes with altered transcription levels were randomly distributed across the genome and fell into diverse categories of biological activities. Several candidate genes, such as *desaturase2* and *Odorant receptor 63a*, were additionally subjected to quantitative RT-PCR analysis. Notably, *desaturase2*, which has been invoked to play a role in sexual isolation between Cosmopolitan and Zimbabwe and predicted to be translational-inactive in Cosmopolitan due to a major deletion, was found to be upregulated in Zimbabwe and downregulated, but still expressed, in Cosmopolitan.

INTRODUCTION

Rapid differentiation and speciation are often associated with striking behavioral and morphological changes and at the same time limited mutations in functional genes. To explain this pattern, changes in regulatory regions have been proposed as a major source of biological differences between species, potentially also contributing to speciation (King and Wilson 1975). Identifying changes in gene regulation during the earliest stages of speciation therefore becomes an important direction for understating how new species form.

Much evidence suggests that behavioral isolation is the first step in the formation of new species. First, behavioral isolation is consistently higher than postzygotic isolation among sympatric but not among allopatric species (Coyne and Orr 1989, 1997; Sasa *et al.* 1998). Second, reproductive isolation breaks down in the absence of behavioral isolation (Seehausen *et al.* 1997) and finally, comparative studies in insects and birds imply a positive correlation between indices of sexual selection and species richness (reviewed in Coyne and Orr 2004). Because of the importance of behavioral isolation to the formation of new species, it is then natural to explore variation in gene expression among populations that show signs of behavioral isolation.

In order to achieve this goal, it is important to distinguish expression variation related to genetic variation within a species (i.e. polymorphism), genetic variation between species (i.e. endogenous factors) and variation in expression that may occur due to the complex behaviors that isolate species (exogenous factors like sexual stimuli). A mechanistic link between altered gene expression and behavioral changes has been well established in a wide range of taxa at all three levels (Bucan and Abel 2002; Rankin

2002; Robinson *et al.* 2005). At the polymorphism level, DNA microarray studies have established that natural genetic variation produces significant differences in gene expression within a species (Cowles *et al.* 2002; Oleksiak *et al.* 2002; Rifkin *et al.* 2003; Cheung *et al.* 2003; Nuzhdin *et al.* 2004; Ranz and Machado 2006; Whitehead and Crawford 2006). At the endogenous level, novel social behavior in closely related whiptail lizards is associated with modified gene expression of a steroid hormone receptor in the brain (Woolley *et al.* 2004). Genome-wide expression profiling of relative transcript abundance in the brain indicated differences between domestic dogs and wolves (Saetre *et al.* 2004), as well as between humans and chimpanzees (Enard *et al.* 2002; Cáceres *et al.* 2003; Gu and Gu 2003; Preuss *et al.* 2004; Uddin *et al.* 2004). At the exogenous level, various labor occupations in the honeybee, such as nursing and foraging, are associated with massive changes in brain transcript levels (Whitfield *et al.* 2003a, 2003b; Grozinger *et al.* 2003; Goodman 2004; Cash *et al.* 2005). Transcription activation is crucial in mediating various forms of mate recognition as exemplified by changes in gene expression and neural circuits in the forebrain of zebra finches presented with conspecific and heterospecific birdsongs (Mello *et al.* 1992; Jarvis *et al.* 2002; Clayton 2004). Sexual experience was observed to dramatically affect expression profiles in the brain of female hamsters as well (Bradley *et al.* 2005). A microarray comparison between mated and nonmated females and between courted (exposed to males, but nonmated) females and unexposed females in *Drosophila melanogaster* detected dozens of differentially expressed genes (Lawniczak and Begun 2004).

Substantial variation in gene expression among natural populations, between biological species, and the clear link between sexual behavior and transcriptional

alterations, allow us to hypothesize that gene expression changes may also underlie behavioral isolation. Two morphs of *Drosophila melanogaster* (Cosmopolitan and Zimbabwe) offer a model system to address variation in gene expression as it relates to behavioral isolation. Behavioral isolation in *Drosophila* is exerted through courtship behavior, consisting of sequential actions that exchange auditory, visual, and chemosensory signals between males and females (Greenspan and Ferveur 2000). *Drosophila melanogaster* Cosmopolitan and Zimbabwe morphs provide an example of incipient speciation (Wu *et al.* 1995; Hollocher *et al.* 1997a,b; Ting *et al.* 2001) because while there is little deviation from random mating between individuals from various Cosmopolitan populations (Henderson and Lambert 1982, but see Capy *et al.* 2000 and Korol *et al.* 2000), females from some Zimbabwean populations (Sengwa Wildlife and Harare) preferentially mate with their own males and discriminate against Cosmopolitan males. Subsequent experiments with Zimbabwean flies found considerable polymorphism in mating behavior, ranging from pure M-type (“Cosmopolitan”-like) to pure Z-type (“Zimbabwe”) and mapped the trait to several genomic regions with the largest impact on the third chromosome (Hollocher *et al.* 1997a,b; Ting *et al.* 2001). Therefore, we hypothesized that fixed differences in gene expression as well as population specific patterns of gene expression due to external stimuli (i.e. exposure to mates) cause behavioral differences that are evolutionarily important.

We used DNA microarrays to identify genes differentially expressed between Cosmopolitan and Zimbabwe populations of *Drosophila melanogaster* and simultaneously, differentially expressed due to mating behavior. This transcriptomics-based approach provides a powerful entrée towards discovery and functional

characterization of genes responsible for incipient stages of speciation. Thus far, there have been no such genes identified despite the fact that estimates of their numbers were obtained from genetic mapping and there have been a number of genes identified that are responsible for hybrid defects (reviewed in Orr *et al.* 2004 and Michalak and Noor 2006). Comparing expression profiles from the heads of mated and nonmated females, we identified a number of genes likely associated with mating (and postmating) effects.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Flies

Stocks were reared in uncrowded cultures at 24°C with a 12-h light-dark cycle on Carolina 4-24® formula. Three stocks of *Drosophila melanogaster* Cosmopolitan were used as biological replicates: E10019 from Fukui, Japan (Ehime *Drosophila* Stocks), EC175 from Ecuador (courtesy of Esther Betrán), and 14021-0231.23 from Crete (Tucson Stock Center, TSC). Four stocks of *Drosophila melanogaster* Zimbabwe were used (courtesy of Jerry Coyne and Tami Panhuis): Z29, Z30, Z49, and Z53.

Experimental mating

Although the pattern of asymmetric isolation between M and Z types has been found highly repeatable by independent researchers (e.g., Wu *et al.* 1995; Hollocher *et al.* 1997a-b; Alipaz *et al.* 2001; Ting, Takahashi, and Wu 2001; Fang *et al.* 2003; Panhuis *et al.* 2003; Takahashi and Ting 2004), we conducted 43 female multiple choice mating experiments to confirm that it persists in our laboratory. During each mating experiment, n (>20) 7-day old females from the same stock were given a choice between n conspecific and n heterotypic males. Z and M males were marked by a dot on their scutella with red and blue colored sharpie markers. Colors were alternated between

experiments but they were found to have no effect on mating frequencies. Replicates were aggregated together within each female type and organized into contingency tables.

RNA collection

For RNA collection, virgin females were collected, separated, and aged for 7 days. On day 7, half of them were transferred to bottles with heterotypic males for mating and the other half used as nonmated controls. Copulating pairs were aspirated into individual vials and then males were removed after 30 min and simultaneously frozen with females along with corresponding nonmated control females for comparison. This scheme ensured that female age and time of exposure to treatments were identical in both groups. RNA was extracted from heads only, after 20 females per sample were collected. At least five micrograms of total RNA were extracted using RNAPure and following the manufacture's protocol (GenHunter Corp., Nashville, TN). After purification with GeneChip Sample Cleanup Modules (QIAGEN), concentrations were measured with the NanoDrop® ND-1000 UV-Vis and checked for integrity via denaturing gel electrophoresis following the protocol of Liang and Pardee (1997).

Affymetrix Drosophila GeneChip® profiles

A total of 13 Affymetrix Drosophila GeneChip® arrays (9 for Z and 4 for M females) were used. Double-stranded cDNA was synthesized with a T7-(dT)₂₄ primer; cRNA was synthesized and biotin-labeled in an in vitro transcription reaction using the ENZO BioArray HighYield RNA Transcript Labeling Kit. The target cRNA was hybridized to Affymetrix GeneChip® Drosophila Genome Arrays that allow assays of the relative abundance of >13,500 mRNA transcripts. Probes for a particular transcript are present in 28 cells on the array chip. Half of those cells possess Perfect Match (PM)

sequences that are complementary to the reference transcript. The other half possesses Mismatch (MM) sequences that are complementary to the reference transcript except for a homomeric base mismatch at the 13th position. The number of instances in which the PM hybridization signal is larger than the MM signal is computed along with the average of the logarithm of the PM:MM ratio (after background subtraction) for each probe set using Affymetrix Microarray Suite (MAS) 5.0 software. The software Detection algorithm calculates the Discrimination Score from each probe pair (PM vs. MM), assesses probe saturation, calculates a Detection P value from a one-sided Wilcoxon Signed Rank test, and assigns a Present, Marginal, or Absent Call in relation to a threshold value $\text{Tau}=0.015$.

Gene expression analysis

Prior to the statistical analysis, MAS 5.0 data were scaled to 10,000 and \log_2 -transformed. Additionally, Affymetrix CEL files were reanalyzed with DNA-Chip Analyzer (dChip; Li and Wong 2003). dChip is a software package that implements a statistical model-based expression analysis to account for probe variability and enables both low-level and high-level analyses (see Li and Wong 2003 for details). Expression values were generated from PM-MM using Li-Wong transformation and normalization (Li and Wong 2001a, 2001b). dChip normalizes all arrays to a common baseline array having the median overall brightness (Li and Wong 2003). Normalization is based on an invariable set of probes identified through iterative procedures. The CEL images were visually checked for local contamination and data were additionally filtered to include only those 3237 transcripts that had more than 50% present calls among all samples.

ANOVA contrasts implemented in dChip were used to find the intersection of two candidate gene lists, one differentiating all Z and M and the other differentiating mated and nonmated Z females. Candidate transcripts from the intersection represent mating-related genes that significantly differ between the Z and M morphs. They may include genes involved in sexual discrimination but transcripts underlying postmating effects will likely be included as well. We focused on contrasting mated and nonmated Z females, as we reasoned that comparing females from the discriminating group would be more informative than those from the nondiscriminating group (M). Although expression profiles of M females may also be changed due to their mating status, this change will not be associated with mating discrimination against foreign males (in contrast to Z females), and as such will fail to contribute to phenotypic (behavioral) differences between Z and M groups. Therefore, Z females were mostly compared with nonmated M females to assure a cost-effective approach. We did not address the problem of gene expression polymorphism within M or Z groups. Instead, we aimed to detect inter-group differentiation between M and Z. For that reason, we used geographically distant M populations to provide a wide coverage of genetic differentiation and thus assure a statistically conservative approach. The moderated t-statistic based on an empirical Bayes method and implemented in the limma package (Irizarry 2005) was used to estimate the false discovery rate (FDR) and FDR-adjusted P-values. Additionally, the SAM thresholding procedure (Tusher *et al.* 2001) was used to generate the plots for FDR (Fig. 1).

Hierarchical clustering was used to infer patterns of coregulation among the candidate genes. The distance between two genes is defined as $1 - r$ where r is the

Pearson correlation coefficient between the standardized expression values (mean 0 and standard deviation 1) of the two genes across the samples used (Li and Wong 2003). Standardization and clustering methods followed Golub *et al.* (1999) and Eisen *et al.* (1998). To detect overrepresented functional groups, information from the Gene Ontology (GO) database (Gene-Ontology-Consortium 2001) was integrated with the expression data using the EASE application (Hosack *et al.* 2003), and probability values were assigned to each observed GO representation relative to GO fractions for all Affymetrix probe sets.

Quantitative RT-PCR

Based on their statistical significance and potentially relevant functional classification, four candidate genes (Table 2) were selected for quantitative real-time fluorescent polymerase chain reaction (QRT-PCR) analysis to confirm the microarray results with independent RNA sampling and methodology. For QRT-PCR, 100 ng of total RNA prepared as described above were reverse transcribed and amplified in two-step reactions using Promega Access RT-PCR system (cat. # A1250) and Promega protocols. QRT-PCR reactions contained 5 μ L AMV/ Tfl5 Reaction Buffer, 1 μ L 25mM MgSO₄, 1.5 μ L 0.0001% SYBR Green, 1 μ L 20 μ M downstream and upstream primers each, 0.5 μ L dNTP mix (10 mM each), 0.5 μ L TflDNA Polymerase, 0.5 μ L AMV Reverse Transcriptase, and complemented to a total of 25 μ L with DEPC-treated water. All PCRs were run on the same BIO-RAD iCycler with MyiQTM Optical Module, and included an initial 45 min at 48°C for reverse transcription, 2 min at 95°C, 35 cycles of 95°C for 30 s, 55°C for 1 min and 72°C for 2 min. CT-values of the target gene were corrected by β -Actin values as a normalizer. To test for contamination with genomic DNA, negative

controls for each sample contained RNA and all other components, excluding the AMV Reverse Transcriptase. Three-way ANOVA of threshold cycle (C_T) values was used to analyze differential expression with Group (M and Z), mating status, and PCR reaction as fixed factors.

RESULTS

Intergroup mate choice tests confirmed the expected pattern of asymmetric behavioral isolation between Z and M (Fig. 2). All 19 replicates of tests with Z females exposed to both types of males resulted in preference for conspecific males (range 60-100%), compared to 24 replicates of tests with M females out of which 10 resulted in preference for heterotypic males (<84%), 6 for conspecific males (<71%), and 8 no preference (50% of each type). Thus, M females showed a slight preference to mate with Z males but this tendency was not significant (contingency table $\chi^2=2.4955$, $df=1$, $P=0.1142$). Conversely, Z females strongly discriminated against heterotypic (M) males ($\chi^2=19.7195$, $df=3$, $P=0.0002$).

We obtained four nonmated and five mated Z transcriptome profiles compared with three nonmated and one mated M profiles. Knudsen (2002) showed that four replicates are sufficient to keep the rate of false positives low. Replicates were biologically diversified to represent variation within group (M stocks originated from different continents). We also reasoned that pooling of mRNA from multiple females (see Materials and Methods) effectively increases the level of biological replication and reduces variability between arrays (see also Kendzioriski *et al.* 2005). We found that 1065 genes were differentially expressed between Z and M, 609 genes were differentially expressed between mated and nonmated Z, and only 45 genes were simultaneously

different ($P < 0.05$) in both contrasts (Table1). The intention behind this two-way contrast was to identify Z-specific transcript changes associated with mating effects, thus manifest in mated Z females but not nonmated Z and any M. We reasoned that if expression of a gene responsible for sexual discrimination in Z females is modulated through mating, nonmated Z (rather than mated Z) females will be more M-like. Thus of particular interest are those 17 genes, such as *Odorant receptor 63a*, whose expression difference between mated and nonmated Z was in the same direction, respectively, as between Z and M (Fig. 3).

We assessed whether probe sets with significantly altered transcript abundance due to our experimental conditions were randomly distributed across the five major chromosome arms. We used a chi square goodness-of-fit test to check for significant deviation of observed from expected numbers of affected loci on each chromosome. By conventional criteria ($P < 0.05$), this deviation could not be considered significant ($\chi^2=9.387$, $df = 4$, $P = 0.0521$; after including the fourth chromosome the significance decreases even further, $\chi^2= 10.181$, $df = 4$, $P =0.070$). Three biological processes (physiological, cellular, and development), four molecular functions (catalytic activity, binding, transporter activity, and transcription regulator activity), and one cellular component (cell) were present among GO groups represented by the 45 genes, but none of them were statistically overrepresented according to EASE ($P < 0.05$).

Using QRT-PCR, we tested expression changes in four candidate genes: *Odorant Receptor 63a*, *desaturase2*, *CG10120*, *CG1812* (Table 2). We confirmed that *Odorant Receptor 63a* was downregulated in Z females relative to M and at the same time suppressed in mated Z females compared with nonmated Z females. For *desaturase2* and

CG10120, we validated the difference between Cosmopolitan and Zimbabwe to be consistent with microarray results (Fig. 4) but there was no significant difference between mated and nonmated Z females. Neither contrast was statistically significant for *CG1812* (Table 2).

DISCUSSION

Behavioral isolation in *Drosophila* is exerted through courtship behavior, consisting of sequential actions that exchange auditory, visual, and chemosensory signals between males and females (e.g., Greenspan and Ferveur 2000; Markow and O'Grady 2005). Given the complexity of mating behavior, it should not be surprising that candidate genes represent a variety of biological functions. One of the candidate genes, *Odorant receptor 63a*, plays a critical role in the olfactory system and mate recognition in *Drosophila*. Odorant receptors constitute the molecular basis for the detection of volatile odorous molecules and the perception of smell (Clyne *et al.* 1999; Vosshall *et al.* 1999, Vosshall *et al.* 2000). The members of the odorant receptor gene family (~60) in the *Drosophila* genome are considerably divergent, with an average amino acid identity of ~20%, and each of them encodes a putative seven-transmembrane domain protein of about 380 amino acids (Vosshall *et al.* 2000). Odorant receptors are expressed in small subsets of olfactory receptor neurons in the olfactory sensory organs of adult *Drosophila*, mostly the antenna and the maxillary palp (Clyne *et al.* 1999). Despite the extreme confinement and patchiness of expression, we were able to validate the microarray expression pattern of *Odorant receptor 63a* with quantitative RT-PCR (Table 2). This gene was downregulated in Z females relative to M and at the same time suppressed in mated Z females compared with nonmated Z females (Fig. 3A).

Another receptor, *Nmda1* (N-methyl-D-aspartate receptor-associated protein), represents a class of glutamate receptors that are of central importance in synaptic plasticity. NMDA receptors allow Ca^{2+} influx and are thought to trigger Ca^{2+} dependent postsynaptic processes involved in long term potentiation and depression (Sucher *et al.* 1996). This gene has been reported among transcripts typical for neuroblast lineage development (Brody *et al.* 2002). Receptor activity was also changed at *neurexin* putatively involved in cell adhesion (Arbeitman *et al.* 2004). Two other genes with changes in expression, *elk* and *CG15088*, are involved in potassium transport. In mammals, sexual interactions have been known to cause extensive changes in channels, signal transduction and neurotransmission (Bradley *et al.* 2005).

Notably, we found that transcription of *desaturase2* (*CG5925*), a gene with stearoyl-CoA 9-desaturase activity involved in cuticle hydrocarbon biosynthesis, was also altered in our experimental conditions. Its regulation pattern clustered together with *CG7763* (putative sugar binding activity), *geko* (*CG13695*), *hoe1* (*CG12787*, producing a membrane component with transporter activity), *CG6208* (soluble NSF attachment protein activity involved in vesicle-mediated transport), *CH5* (NEDD8 activating enzyme involved in axonogenesis), and *Dsor1* involved in signal transduction (Fig. 3B). This gene has been suggested to be involved in differential adaptation to climate as well as behavioral isolation between Z and M lines (Fang *et al.* 2002; Greenberg *et al.* 2003; Greenberg *et al.* 2006, but see Coyne and Elwyn 2006a,b). Moreover, functional variation at *desaturase2* locus has a distinct geographic pattern: females from African (including Z) and Caribbean populations produce 5,9-heptacosadiene (5,9-HD) as the predominant cuticle hydrocarbon. This product seems to be absent from most

Cosmopolitan females as a result of a 16-bp deletion at the 5' end of the gene, largely contributing to the polymorphism of cuticle hydrocarbons (Dallerac *et al.* 2000; Takahashi *et al.* 2001). The loss-of-function allele is widely distributed over the world and the nucleotide diversity at the locus as well as experimental data suggest that this spread may have been driven by positive selection for increased cold resistance (Takahashi *et al.* 2001; Greenberg *et al.* 2003; Greenberg *et al.* 2006, but see Coyne and Elwyn 2006a,b). Although downregulated relative to Z females, *desaturase2* transcripts were still present in M females in contrast to the report by Dallerac *et al.* (2000). Using RT-PCR, we confirmed a difference between Cosmopolitan and Zimbabwe consistent with the results of microarray analysis (Tables 1 and 2, Fig. 4) but the difference between mated and nonmated females was not significant.

In addition to *desaturase2*, transcription levels of 10 other enzymes were related to divergence between the M and Z morphs, including *CAH1* with carbonic anhydrase activity and *Pi3K68D* with phosphatidylinositol-4-phosphate 3-kinase activity. Seven transcription factors or other DNA binding gene products were altered in the experimental conditions. These include *trithorax* which is required to maintain the proper spatial pattern of expression for multiple homeotic genes of the Bithorax and Antennapedia complexes (Kuzin *et al.* 1994). *Trithorax* has also been reported to interact genetically with *brm*, *ph-p*, *Pc*, *mod(mdg4)*, *Asx* and 32 other genes (FlyBase Report). However, none of these occurred among the candidate genes from Table 1 or at the cluster of coregulated transcripts (not shown). One of the two most closely coregulated genes with *trithorax* was *CG6701* that has two conserved domains related to DNA and RNA helicases and helicase subunits (DNA replication, recombination, and repair;

Celniker *et al.* 2002). The other tightly coregulated gene (*CG3558*) has not been functionally characterized. In adults, *trithorax* is known to affect the development of sex combs, which are male specific chaetae located on the prothoracic tarsal segment of the prothoracic leg, in addition to influencing development of at least eight other tissues.

At least three loci on the third chromosome have been mapped for female discrimination between Zimbabwe and Cosmopolitan populations (Ting *et al.* 2001) and this raises a question about the genomic distribution of expression changes we observed. Sexual conflict provides a plausible mechanism leading to a nonrandom distribution of genes with sex-biased patterns of expression. Specifically, the evolution of sex-biased gene expression may alleviate sexual antagonism which has been shown to be extensive in adult *Drosophila* (Chippindale *et al.* 2001). Transcription level is an excellent measure of sex-biased function and global expression profiles do provide evidence of extensive sex-biased expression in *Drosophila* and *C. elegans* (Andrews *et al.* 2000; Reinke *et al.* 2000; Jiang *et al.* 2001; Jin *et al.* 2001; Swanson *et al.* 2001; Arbeitman *et al.* 2002; Kelly *et al.* 2002; Meiklejohn *et al.* 2003; Parisi *et al.* 2003; Ranz *et al.* 2003, Michalak and Noor 2003). As the X chromosome is depauperate for male-specific genes probably due to demasculinization or feminization effects of selection (Parisi *et al.* 2003; Ranz *et al.* 2003; Oliver and Parisi 2004; Mackay *et al.* 2005), it is thus plausible that X chromosome-linked transcripts have a disproportionate contribution to sexual isolation. However, we observed no chromosomal overrepresentation of analyzed loci across the genome.

Our results also suggest substantial epistasis (many interacting genes involved) and pleiotropy (same genes, such as *trithorax*, affect multiple traits) underlying

differences between populations of *D. melanogaster*. Further studies are evidently required to determine whether any candidate genes reported here are directly responsible for behavioral isolation between Cosmopolitan and Zimbabwe groups. The genetic architecture underlying behavioral isolation may be extraordinarily complex, as exemplified by mapping genes responsible for reinforcement in *Drosophila pseudoobscura* and *D. persimilis*; Ortiz-Barrientos *et al.* (2004) found that the genetic architecture of basal female mating discrimination (between allopatric populations) is different from that of reinforced mating discrimination (between sympatric populations).

In sum, we demonstrated significant differentiation of gene expression in two major morphs of *Drosophila melanogaster*, Cosmopolitan and Zimbabwe. As some of those differences were additionally modified by female mating status, we believe that the list of identified candidate genes may be very useful in further studies of sexual isolation between these two *Drosophila melanogaster* morphs. Prior to our study, only one gene, *desaturase2*, has been invoked to play a role in sexual isolation between Cosmopolitan and Zimbabwe flies. Remarkably, this gene was among 44 other candidate genes detected here with microarrays. However, there are several limitations in the presented analysis, such as relatively high FDR resulting from the moderate sampling and rather low fold changes. Also due to the experimental setup, expression changes in the candidate genes likely represent postmating effects, such as insemination, in addition to mating discrimination.

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Table 1. Genes differentially expressed between Zimbabwe (Z) and Cosmopolitan (M) and simultaneously affected by the mating experience (v – nonmated Z, nv – mated Z). † symbols denote genes chosen for the QRT-PCR analysis and asterisks (*) denote P-values <0.05 after adjustment for FDR.

Locus	Activity description	Z/M fold change	P-value (Z – M contrast)	nv/v fold change	P-value (nv – v contrast)
<i>desaturase2</i> [†]	fatty acid desaturase	1.873 Z > M	0.009*	1.655 nv < v	0.006
<i>CG11357</i>	enzyme	1.072 Z > M	0.004	1.053 nv < v	0.049
<i>CG12400</i>	NADH dehydrogenase	1.052 Z < M	0.024	1.034 nv < v	0.026
<i>CG11836</i>	endopeptidase	1.645 Z < M	0.001	1.140 nv > v	0.016
<i>CG15547</i>	enzyme	1.122 Z < M	0.013*	1.125 nv > v	0.004*
<i>CG10120</i> [†]	deoxyribonuclease	1.126 Z < M	0.003*	1.179 nv > v	0.0004
<i>CG4199</i>	enzyme	1.026 Z < M	0.036*	1.032 nv > v	0.0007*
<i>CAH1</i>	carbonate dehydratase	1.203 Z > M	0.034	1.219 nv < v	0.002
<i>CG3027</i>	beta-ureidopropionase	1.026 Z < M	0.009*	1.020 nv < v	0.020
<i>Aats-gln</i>	Glutaminyl-tRNA synthetase	1.271 Z > M	0.044	1.353 nv < v	0.009
<i>SamDC</i>	adenosylmethionine decarboxylase	2.040 Z < M	0.001	1.465 nv > v	0.025
<i>Rpn11</i>	proteasome regulatory particle	1.489 Z < M	0.004	1.307 nv < v	0.017
<i>Arf72A</i>	ARF small GTPase	1.016 Z < M	0.029	1.021 nv > v	0.023
<i>Elk</i>	potassium channel	11.05 Z > M	0.0004	1.815 nv < v	0.042
<i>Pi3K68D</i>	Phosphatidylinositol 3 kinase	1.268 Z > M	0.023	1.292 nv > v	0.035
<i>CG15088</i>	neurotransmitter transporter	1.036 Z < M	0.006	1.036 nv < v	0.034
<i>CG7050</i>	Neurexin, cell adhesion	1.858 Z < M	0.004*	1.662 nv < v	0.028
<i>Cyp4p2</i>	cytochrome P45	1.026 Z < M	0.039*	1.029 nv > v	0.044*
<i>CHORD</i>	Zink ion binding	1.245 Z < M	0.023	1.392 nv < v	0.028
<i>CG1812</i> [†]	transcription factor	1.296 Z < M	0.000001*	1.124 nv > v	0.008*
<i>CG14730</i>	DNA binding	2.034 Z < M	0.019	4.675 nv < v	0.030
<i>Bowl</i>	RNA polymerase II transcription factor	1.077 Z < M	0.003*	1.076 nv > v	0.039
<i>Trithorax</i>	DNA binding	1.089 Z < M	0.011*	1.098 nv > v	0.048*
<i>prospero</i>	RNA polymerase II transcription factor	1.042 Z < M	0.023	1.049 nv > v	0.012*
<i>CG14962</i>	nucleic acid binding	1.033 Z < M	0.010	1.036 nv > v	0.020
<i>Gcn2</i>	elongation-factor-2 kinase	1.391 Z < M	0.004	1.390 nv > v	0.043
<i>CG14641</i>	RNA binding	1.281 Z < M	0.008	1.231 nv > v	0.018

<i>CG15636</i>	DNA binding	1.029 Z > M	0.010	1.036 nv > v	0.036
<i>Schnurri</i>	RNA polymerase II transcription factor	1.633 Z > M	0.030	1.433 nv > v	0.023
<i>Odorant receptor 63a[†]</i>	olfactory receptor	1.856 Z < M	0.009*	2.420 nv < v	0.026
<i>CG3814</i>	N-methyl-D-aspartate receptor-associated protein	1.449 Z < M	0.001	1.268 nv > v	0.046
<i>CG17988</i>	---	1.036 Z < M	0.009	1.033 nv > v	0.009
<i>CG13339</i>	---	1.040 Z > M	0.039	1.049 nv < v	0.015
<i>CG10127</i>	---	1.03 Z > M	0.011	1.034 nv < v	0.023
<i>CG4398</i>	---	1.198 Z > M	0.0003*	1.056 nv < v	0.014
<i>CG13301</i>	---	1.058 Z < M	0.046	1.083 nv > v	0.022
<i>CG8844</i>	---	1.027 Z < M	0.009*	1.033 nv < v	0.035
<i>CG7530</i>	---	1.027 Z < M	0.019	1.028 nv > v	0.020*
<i>Msta</i>	---	1.350 Z > M	0.004	1.207 nv < v	0.020
<i>CG3173</i>	---	1.017 Z > M	0.002	1.014 nv > v	0.045
<i>CG14899</i>	---	1.401 Z > M	0.017	1.373 nv > v	0.008*
<i>CG15929</i>	---	1.098 Z > M	0.017*	1.093 nv < v	0.040
<i>CG12765</i>	---	1.037 Z < M	0.039*	1.024 nv < v	0.037
<i>CG14701</i>	---	1.032 Z > M	0.013	1.027 nv > v	0.041
<i>CG17496</i>	---	1.043 Z > M	0.049	1.071 nv > v	0.032

Table 2. Differences in threshold cycle (C_T) values from quantitative RT-PCR for four candidate genes. Lower C_T-values represent higher expression levels. Results of 3-way ANOVA are shown, with the PCR reaction effect and interactions (not significant) not shown. The Z-M difference is subtraction of mean C_T-value for Cosmopolitan from the mean C_T for Zimbabwe. The nv-v is between mean C_T-values for mated (nv) and nonmated (v) Zimbabwe females.

Gene	df	Z-M difference	F	P-value	nv-v difference	F	P-value
<i>Odorant Receptor 63a</i>	1, 17	0.135	50.33	0.0001	0.080	12.85	0.002
<i>desaturase2</i>	1, 15	0.100	9.64	0.007	-0.002	0.00	P>0.05
<i>CG10120</i>	1,8	-0.072	5.51	0.047	-0.014	0.21	P>0.05
<i>CG1812</i>	1,16	-0.009	0.07	P>0.05	0.048	1.81	P>0.05

FIGURE LEGENDS

Fig.1. SAM plot of the false discovery rate (FDR) against the fixed rejection region (δ) and the number of significant genes for two contrasts: (A) Zimbabwe versus Cosmopolitan and (B) mated versus nonmated Zimbabwe.

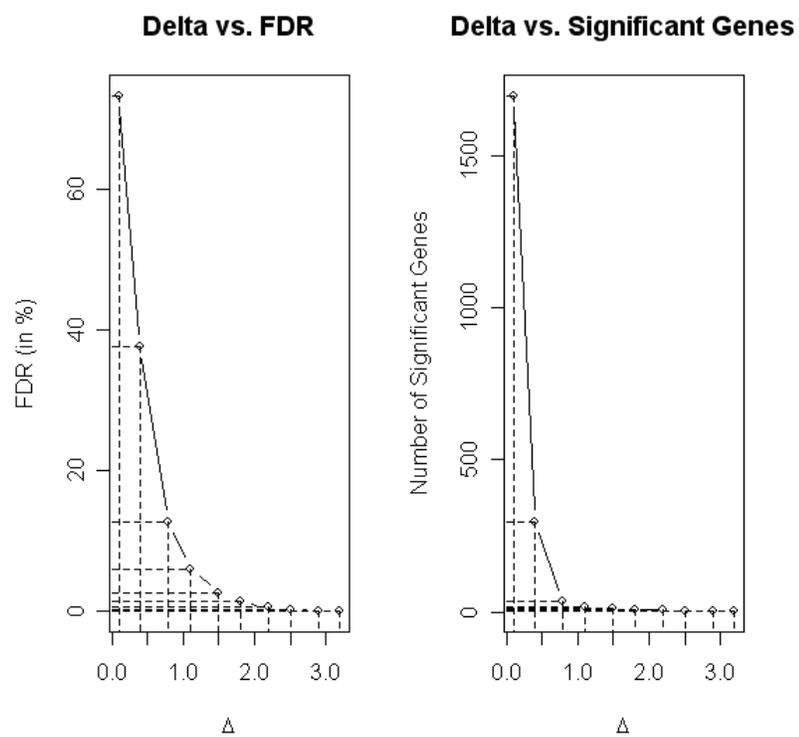
Fig. 2. Average mating frequencies from the multiple choice mating tests. Third bar in each group (Paired) represents percent of females paired.

Fig. 3. Hierarchical clustering of genes that were differentially expressed between Zimbabwe (Z) and Cosmopolitan (M) and simultaneously between mated (nv) and nonmated (v) Zimbabwe females: (A) *Odorant receptor 63a* and (B) *desaturase2* (CG5925). Clustering at the top of the figure groups treatments (morphs and mating status), whereas clustering on the right panel of the figure groups genes with similar expression levels, ranging from overexpression (red color) to underexpression (green color).

Fig. 4. An example of quantitative real-time PCR amplification of *desaturase2*. Black curves with circles represent Zimbabwe samples and red lines with squares correspond to Cosmopolitan samples.

Figure 1

A.



B.

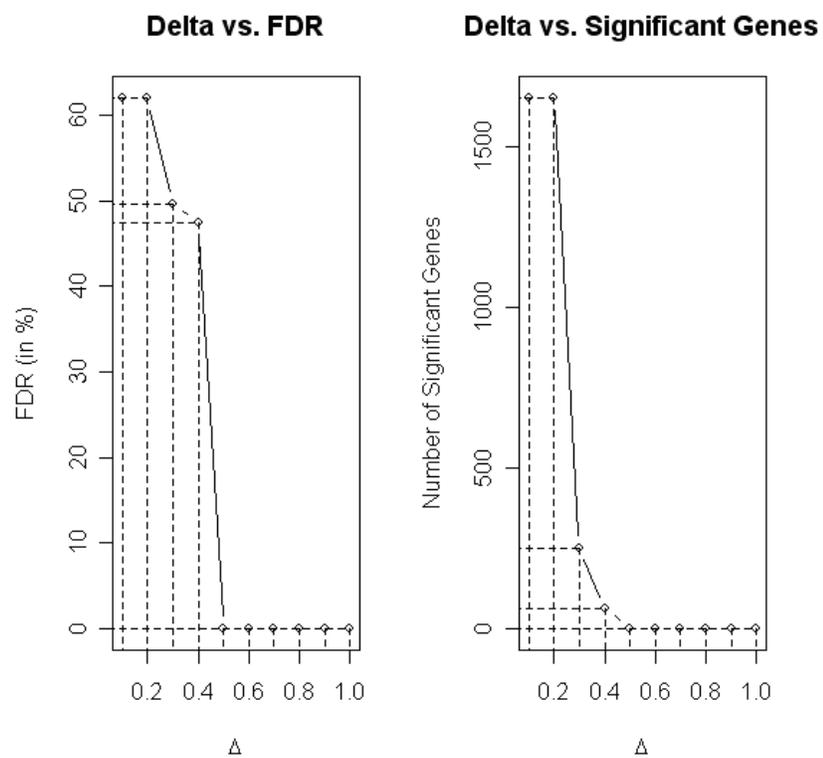


Figure 2

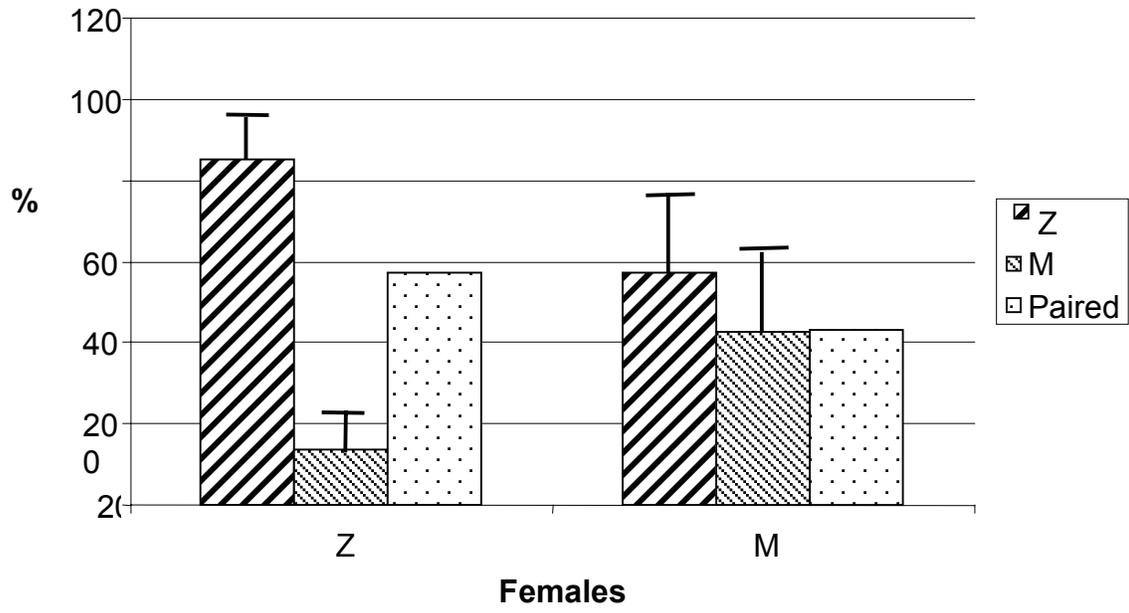
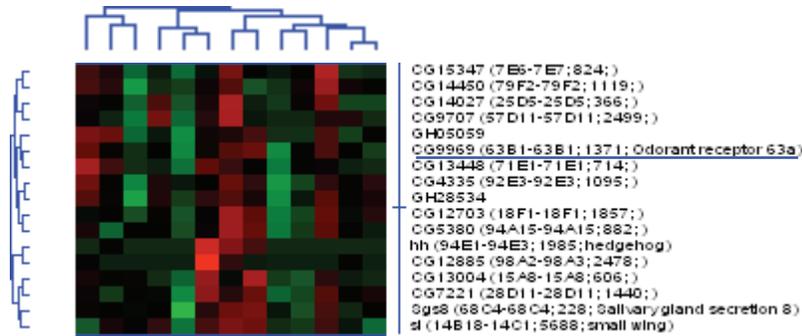


Figure 3



A.



B.

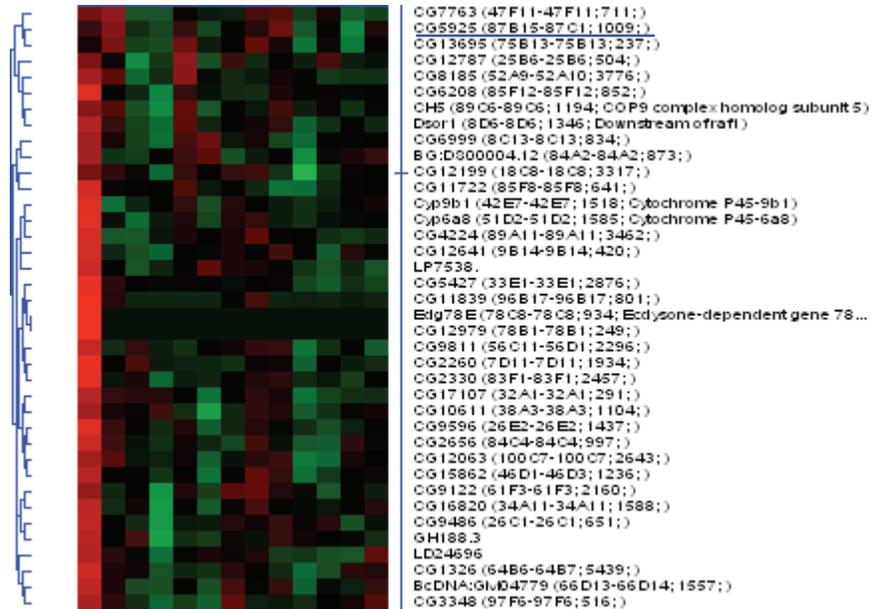
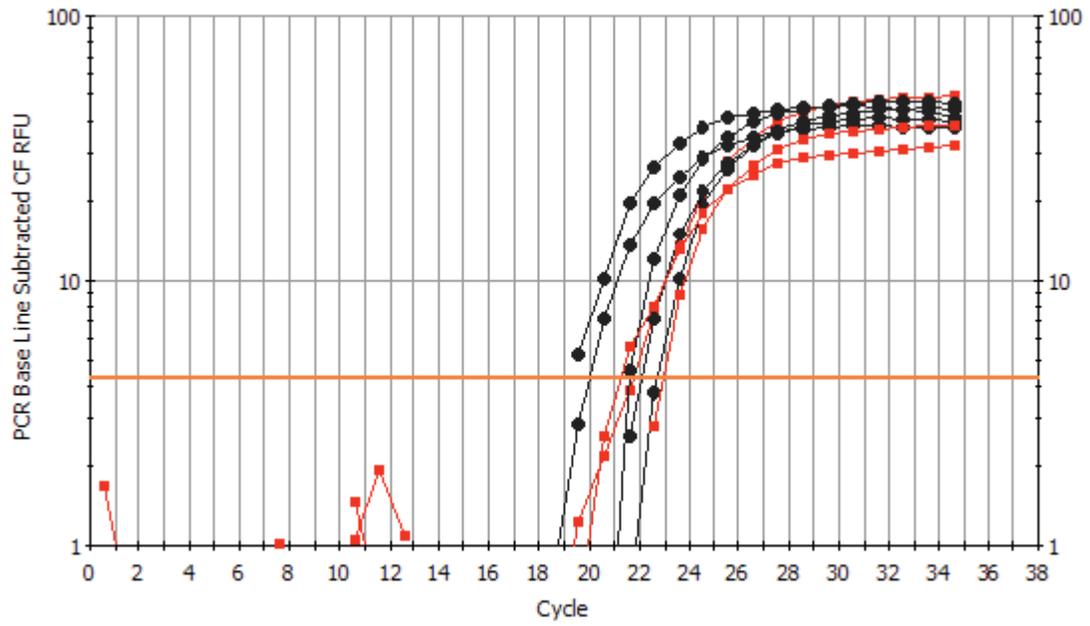


Figure 4



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BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION

Daiju Hoshino graduated from Ohta High School (Japan) at March 2001 and entered the University of Texas at Arlington at August 2001 upon completion of the curriculum of the English Learning Institute at UTA. Research interests being speciation genetics, he joined the Michalak Speciation Genetics/Population Genomics Laboratory in the summer of 2003 as an undergraduate research assistant. He received his Bachelor of Science degree in Microbiology from UTA at May 2005 and kept pursuing the Master of Science degree in Biology at the Graduate school of UTA. During working in Michalak Laboratory, he presented a poster at 46th Annual Drosophila Research Conference at Houston at March 2006 and the article on the subject of one of the projects he greatly participated was accepted and published by Molecular Ecology at January 2007. He participated in mainly 4 projects. 1st project was to identify genes involved in behavioral isolation of *Drosophila melanogaster*. Two strains of *Drosophila melanogaster*, Zimbabwe and Cosmopolitan, were used to investigate. 2nd project was to identifying genes involved in hybrid male sterility between *Drosophila simulans* and *Drosophila mauritiana*. 3rd project was investigation of olfactory system of Zimbabwe stain of *Drosophila melanogaster* with antennal removal method. If he received Master of Science degree, he will go back to Japan to teach English and Science to middle school students.