

## Cross-Species Comparison of *Drosophila* Male Accessory Gland Protein Genes

J. L. Mueller,\* K. Ravi Ram,\* L. A. McGraw,\* M. C. Bloch Qazi,\*<sup>1</sup> E. D. Siggia,<sup>†</sup>  
A. G. Clark,\* C. F. Aquadro\* and M. F. Wolfner\*<sup>2</sup>

\*Department of Molecular Biology and Genetics, Cornell University, Ithaca, New York 14853 and <sup>†</sup>Center for Studies in Physics and Biology, Rockefeller University, New York, New York 10021

Manuscript received March 29, 2005  
Accepted for publication May 19, 2005

### ABSTRACT

*Drosophila melanogaster* males transfer seminal fluid proteins along with sperm during mating. Among these proteins, ACPs (Accessory gland proteins) from the male's accessory gland induce behavioral, physiological, and life span reduction in mated females and mediate sperm storage and utilization. A previous evolutionary EST screen in *D. simulans* identified partial cDNAs for 57 new candidate ACPs. Here we report the annotation and confirmation of the corresponding Acp genes in *D. melanogaster*. Of 57 new candidate Acp genes previously reported in *D. melanogaster*, 34 conform to our more stringent criteria for encoding putative male accessory gland extracellular proteins, thus bringing the total number of ACPs identified to 52 (34 plus 18 previously identified). This comprehensive set of Acp genes allows us to dissect the patterns of evolutionary change in a suite of proteins from a single male-specific reproductive tissue. We used sequence-based analysis to examine codon bias, gene duplications, and levels of divergence (via  $d_N/d_S$  values and ortholog detection) of the 52 *D. melanogaster* ACPs in *D. simulans*, *D. yakuba*, and *D. pseudoobscura*. We show that 58% of the 52 *D. melanogaster* Acp genes are detectable in *D. pseudoobscura*. Sequence comparisons of ACPs shared and not shared between *D. melanogaster* and *D. pseudoobscura* show that there are separate classes undergoing distinctly dissimilar evolutionary dynamics.

ACCESSORY gland proteins (ACPs) induce a variety of physiological, behavioral, and reproductive changes when transferred to the female. Between 25 and 150 ACPs were initially thought to be transferred to the female during mating (INGMAN-BAKER and CANDIDO 1980; SCHMIDT *et al.* 1985; WHALEN and WILSON 1986; COULTHART and SINGH 1988; WOLFNER *et al.* 1997). Males lacking ACPs have impaired fertility, indicating that ACPs perform important reproductive functions (KALB *et al.* 1993; XUE and NOLL 2000). Specifically, ACPs cause females to increase their egg-production, egg-laying, and ovulation rates, decrease their propensity to remate, and store and utilize sperm (reviewed in WOLFNER 2002; CHAPMAN and DAVIES 2004). ACPs also participate in formation of the mating plug (LUNG and WOLFNER 2001) and mediate a decrease in the mated female's life span (CHAPMAN *et al.* 1995). Genetic analyses have revealed the functions of four ACPs thus far. Acp26Aa (ovulin) is a prohormone that triggers

an increase in ovulation rate (HERNDON and WOLFNER 1995; HEIFETZ *et al.* 2000). Acp36DE is a glycoprotein that is essential for sperm storage (NEUBAUM and WOLFNER 1999), by regulating sperm accumulation into storage (BLOCH QAZI and WOLFNER 2003). Acp70A (sex peptide) induces egg laying and decreases females' receptivity to remating; it also contributes to the cost of mating to females (CHEN *et al.* 1988; AIGAKI *et al.* 1991; CHAPMAN *et al.* 2003; LIU and KUBLI 2003; WIGBY and CHAPMAN 2005). Acp62F is a trypsin protease inhibitor that localizes to the sperm storage organs of mated females and has been suggested to preserve sperm viability (LUNG *et al.* 2002). Acp62F also enters the female's circulation and is toxic to flies upon repeated ectopic expression, suggesting a possible role in the life span cost of mating (LUNG *et al.* 2002). In addition, the transfer of antimicrobial ACPs to the female (LUNG *et al.* 2001) and the Acp-induced upregulation of antimicrobial peptides in mated females (LAWNICZAK and BEGUN 2004; MCGRAW *et al.* 2004) suggests that ACPs may contribute to a female's immune defense. Altogether, ACPs appear to participate in a complex set of interactions by competing/cooperating with seminal fluid proteins of other males (CLARK *et al.* 1995; CLARK *et al.* 1999; PROUT and CLARK 1996; SNOOK and HOSKEN 2004), receptors present in the female or on sperm, and pathogens. To better understand this diverse set of interactions of ACPs it is important to

Sequence data from this article have been deposited with the EMBL/GenBank Data Libraries under accession nos. DQ088689–DQ088699, DQ079991–DQ079998, and BK005692–BK005702.

<sup>1</sup>Present address: Department of Biology, Nobel Hall of Science, Gustavus Adolphus College, St. Peter, MN 56082.

<sup>2</sup>Corresponding author: Department of Molecular Biology and Genetics, 423 Biotechnology Bldg., Cornell University, Ithaca, NY 14853.  
E-mail: mfw5@cornell.edu

fully characterize the ACPs involved and examine their evolutionary dynamics.

Initially, 18 *Drosophila melanogaster* ACPs had been identified from multiple screens (CHEN *et al.* 1988; SIMMERL *et al.* 1995; WOLFNER *et al.* 1997); however, this was far below the predicted 25–150 ACPs (INGMAN-BAKER and CANDIDO 1980; SCHMIDT *et al.* 1985; WHALEN and WILSON 1986; CIVETTA and SINGH 1995; WOLFNER *et al.* 1997). In an extensive screen (SWANSON *et al.* 2001a), 57 new candidate ACPs were identified from partial gene sequencing of ESTs obtained from a *D. simulans* accessory gland cDNA library. These 57 candidate ACPs, plus the 18 previously identified, led to 75 putative ACPs. Statistical analysis of the frequency of multiple isolates predicted that these genes represented ~90% of the total number of Acp genes (SWANSON *et al.* 2001a). The SWANSON *et al.* (2001a) EST screen identified ACPs from partial gene sequencing and from a species in which genetic analysis is not routine, *D. simulans*. Because it is important to obtain the complete sequence of these genes in a species in which genetic analysis is possible, we obtained and report here the *D. melanogaster* orthologs of the 57 *D. simulans* Acp candidates. Our RT-PCR and bioinformatic analyses determined that 34 of the candidate 57 ACPs identified by SWANSON *et al.* (2001a) have sequences suggestive of encoding extracellular proteins and expression patterns suggestive of encoding ACPs. This resets the total number of *D. melanogaster* ACPs identified to 52 (34 plus 18 previously identified).

An unusually high fraction of the genes encoding ACPs show signs of positive selection (AGUADÉ *et al.* 1992; CIRERA and AGUADÉ 1997; TSAUR and WU 1997; AGUADÉ 1999; BEGUN *et al.* 2000; PANHUIS *et al.* 2003; KERN *et al.* 2004; KOHN *et al.* 2004; STEVISON *et al.* 2004). ACPs, as a class, evolve at about twice the rate of non-reproductive proteins (WHALEN and WILSON 1986; CIVETTA and SINGH 1995; SWANSON *et al.* 2001a). SWANSON *et al.* (2001a) found that ~11% of the partially sequenced ESTs that they identified have an excess of nonsynonymous over synonymous nucleotide changes, suggesting that divergence of these genes is being accelerated by positive selection. Three selective forces are predicted to drive the generation of sequence diversity of ACPs: female sperm preference (ÉBERHARD and CORDERO 1995), sperm competition (CLARK *et al.* 1995), and sexual conflict (RICE 1996). Previous evolutionary analyses of ACPs focused on some of the initially identified 18 ACPs (AGUADÉ *et al.* 1992; CIRERA and AGUADÉ 1997; TSAUR and WU 1997; AGUADÉ 1999; BEGUN *et al.* 2000; KERN *et al.* 2004). Here we present a detailed examination of the molecular evolution of the entire set of stringently selected and annotated 52 ACPs. We performed sequence-based comparisons of these *D. melanogaster* ACPs with their orthologs in three *Drosophila* species (*D. simulans*, *D. yakuba*, and *D. pseudoobscura*). This allowed us to determine levels

of codon bias, rates of gene duplication, and levels of sequence divergence among three members of the *D. melanogaster* subgroup (*D. melanogaster*, *D. simulans*, and *D. yakuba*) and, via ortholog detection, which ACPs are conserved between *D. melanogaster* and *D. pseudoobscura*. These evolutionary analyses demonstrate that ACPs represent a combination of divergent and conserved proteins that undergo different patterns of sequence evolution.

## MATERIALS AND METHODS

**Annotation of *D. melanogaster* orthologs of *D. simulans* Acp-ESTs:** We sequenced *D. simulans* Acp ESTs (SWANSON *et al.* 2001a) from their 3'-ends to determine the translational stop position. This in combination with previously sequenced 5'-end sequences (SWANSON *et al.* 2001a) provided each candidate ACP's complete ORE. The complete EST sequences can be found under GenBank accession nos. DQ088689–DQ088699 and DQ079991–DQ079998. These *D. simulans* EST sequences were subsequently aligned using Sequencher 4.0.5 (Gene Codes) to the *D. melanogaster* genome (Release 4.0) (CELNIKER *et al.* 2002) to identify their *D. melanogaster* orthologs. Each translational start was located by the presence of sequences encoding a predicted signal peptide, either from the Berkeley *Drosophila* Genome Project (BDGP) *D. melanogaster* annotation or via manual inspection if the BDGP annotation did not match the *D. simulans* EST. Manual searches for predicted signal peptides constituted scanning ~1.5 kb of noncoding upstream *D. melanogaster* sequence from the 5'-end of the *D. simulans* EST or BDGP predicted translational start site. Predicted signal peptides were identified using SignalP (NIELSEN *et al.* 1997).

Candidate Acp genes were then examined for accessory gland-specific expression. Eighteen previously identified ACPs (CHEN *et al.* 1988; SIMMERL *et al.* 1995; WOLFNER *et al.* 1997) were already known to show accessory gland-predominant or -exclusive expression. We searched each of the 57 new candidate ACPs identified by SWANSON *et al.* (2001a) against the *D. melanogaster* BDGP EST database (<http://www.fruitfly.org/EST/EST.shtml>) to see if the gene was expressed in other tissues (*e.g.*, head, embryo, tissue culture). Occasionally adult testis ESTs (RUBIN *et al.* 2000a) included our Acp candidates. For example, Acp36DE [a highly expressed Acp (WOLFNER *et al.* 1997)] has 32 testes EST hits, but has been shown by Western blots to be an accessory gland-specific protein (BERTRAM *et al.* 1996; WOLFNER *et al.* 1997). These differences may result from low-level contamination by accessory gland fragments or cells in the large-scale testes preparations for the EST project or may indicate that Acp36DE is transcribed, but not translated, in the testes. Consistent with such models, all 15 Acp antibodies thus far generated detect exclusively accessory gland-specific proteins, even though 9 of 15 genes [CG8982 (Acp26Aa), CG4605 (Acp32CD), CG7157 (Acp36DE), CG6289, CG8137, CG9334, CG17575, CG1656, CG9029] (MONSMA *et al.* 1990; COLEMAN *et al.* 1995; BERTRAM *et al.* 1996; LUNG *et al.* 2002; RAVI RAM *et al.* 2005) have testis EST hits (ANDREWS *et al.* 2000; RUBIN *et al.* 2000a; PARISI *et al.* 2003).

Of the 57 Acp candidates previously selected by SWANSON *et al.* (2001a), 7 were eliminated from further study because mutational analysis (per FlyBase, <http://flybase.net/>) indicates that their phenotypes affect nonreproductive processes. Sixteen further candidates were removed because they either had EST hits in multiple nonreproductive tissue types or could not be annotated, thus leaving 34 candidate ACPs (see <http://www.genetics.org/supplemental/> for list of ACPs removed

from the previous 57 candidates). It is important to note that secreted proteins found in other tissues, or whose mutants have additional nonreproductive phenotypes, may be present in accessory gland secretions. However, we focused on accessory gland-specific candidates since the evolutionary pressures and functions of these genes should be more comprehensible than those of genes expressed in multiple tissues and thus likely having multiple functions.

This selection process resulted in a collection of 52 ACPs (Table 1). Twelve (CG1262 (Acp62F), CG4986, CG6069, CG10284, CG10956, CG11598, CG14034, CG17097, BG642378, BG642312, BG642167, and BG642163) either were not identified in or have different ORFs from those predicted in the *D. melanogaster* genome sequence (Release 4.0) (CELNIKER *et al.* 2002). We may have identified alternative splice forms of the predicted genes. An example is CG10956, whose Release 4.0 annotation predicts a single exon, while our annotation has identified a second exon at the 3'-end. Our annotation may have also revealed species-specific differences, since the EST library was constructed from *D. simulans*, or differences with the *D. melanogaster* annotation (Release 4.0) (CELNIKER *et al.* 2002).

We revised the current *D. melanogaster* (Release 4.0) annotation (CELNIKER *et al.* 2002) of the translational start sites for both CG4986 and CG10956; the splicing patterns for CG1262 (Acp62F), CG11598, CG6069, CG10284, and CG17097; and the translational start, translational stop, and splicing pattern for CG14034. Four Acp *D. simulans* ESTs (BG642378, BG642312, BG642167, and BG642163, SWANSON *et al.* 2001a) likely represent real genes but remain unannotated in the current *D. melanogaster* genome Release 4.0 (CELNIKER *et al.* 2002). All genes unidentified and/or misannotated in the *D. melanogaster* (Release 4.0) genome annotation were submitted to GenBank under accession nos. BK005692–BK005702.

**Confirmation of *D. melanogaster* annotations:** RT-PCR of full coding regions in *D. melanogaster* was performed from RNA isolated from whole, 3-day-old adult virgin Canton-S males. Approximately 30 flies were homogenized in Trizol according to the manufacturer's instructions (GIBCO, Bethesda, MD) and total RNA was prepared for RT-PCR as in CARNINCI and HAYASHIZAKI (1999). Full-length coding regions were amplified using primers designed from our annotations, which verified the annotations and expression. All amplified products were PCR-purified, cloned into pENTR-DTopo or pDONR-201 vectors (Invitrogen), and sequenced by the Biotechnology Resource Center at Cornell using the vector's internal primers. ACPs that could not be RT-PCR'd from whole adult male Canton-S cDNA were amplified from available EST clones (RUBIN *et al.* 2000a) and subsequently cloned as above. Incomplete sequence information for Acp53Eb and a very short coding sequence for CG31056 (Acp98AB) (WOLFNER *et al.* 1997) did not allow cloning into pENTR-DTopo or pDONR-201 vectors. Complete coding, amino acid, and primer sequences for each of the 34 new ACPs can be found in the supplemental materials (<http://www.genetics.org/supplemental/>).

***D. melanogaster* Acp sequence analysis:** Codon bias: Codon bias was measured by both the frequency of optimal codons (Fop) and the percentage G/C content in the third codon position (G/C3rd) (MORIYAMA and POWELL 1997). Fop values range from 0.33 to 1, where 0.33 indicates homogeneous codon usage and 1 indicates that only optimal codons are used. Fop, G/C3rd, and gene GC content calculations were performed using the codonw program (<http://www.molbiol.ox.ac.uk/cu/>). Codon bias values (see <http://www.genetics.org/supplemental/>) were calculated using the *D. melanogaster* codon frequency table settings of the codonw program. Previous codon bias analysis of CG32952 (Acp33A) in *D. melanogaster* to *D. simulans* comparisons have combined its two

ORFs (CG32952-A and CG32952-B) (BEGUN *et al.* 2000); however, since each ORF contains its own predicted signal sequence we performed our analysis as two separate genes.

For comparison, we generated a random sample of 100 *D. melanogaster* genes showing twofold higher expression in testes *vs.* ovaries from the PARISI *et al.* (2004) microarray data set. Additionally, a random sample of 150 *D. melanogaster* genes with approximately the same gene lengths as ACPs (Acp mean gene nucleotide length, 994.7; random gene nucleotide length, 957.6) was obtained from BDGP (<http://www.fruitfly.org/sequence/dlMisc.shtml>).

**Gene duplications:** Sequence comparisons and chromosomal location were used together to identify gene duplicates. Individual Acp protein sequences were compared to the *D. melanogaster* genome using BlastP. Acp gene duplicate candidates were considered if they had a conservative *E*-value of  $10^{-10}$  and a minimum of 30% sequence identity across  $\geq 80\%$  of the protein (GU *et al.* 2002). Because many gene duplicates often are found in tandem (FRIEDMAN and HUGHES 2003) we extended our search to locate significant matches falling within neighboring Acp genes that did not meet the  $>30\%$  sequence identity cutoff. If such a hit was present, we checked for a similar protein domain prediction (<http://www-cryst.bioc.cam.ac.uk/~fugue/prfsearch.html>) and conserved splicing pattern to support its being a possible duplicate. Candidates that both had a BlastP *E*-value of  $10^{-10}$  or smaller and matched all three sequence search criteria were also considered gene duplicates, even though their sequence identity may be  $<30\%$ . Gene duplication conservation in *D. simulans* and *D. yakuba* was searched via tBlastN to their whole-genome alignments (WashU-GSC <http://genome.wustl.edu/tools/blast/>).

**Calculation of the expected number of ACPs in the *D. melanogaster* genome:** Two estimates of the total number of Acp genes in the *D. melanogaster* genome were performed as in SWANSON *et al.* (2001a) by using maximum-likelihood fits to a truncated Poisson distribution. A third estimate was obtained by nonparametric maximum likelihood. The first two predictions differ with respect to how they deal with 5 ACPs (Acp26Aa, Acp26Ab, Acp32CD, Acp33A, Acp36DE) that were not adequately prescreened by Swanson *et al.* (and hence appeared in the postscreening library). In the first estimate, we ignore the 5 ACPs prescreened by SWANSON *et al.* (2001a) and fit a truncated Poisson distribution to the frequency spectrum (counts of singleton hits, doubleton hits, etc.). This gives a maximum-likelihood count of 52 ACPs in addition to the 18 that were prescreened by SWANSON *et al.* (2001a), for a total of 70. For the second estimate, we include the 5 Acp hit counts as though they were not prescreened at all, and we obtain a maximum-likelihood count of 59 ACPs. If the 13 ACPs that were successfully prescreened (or at least were not observed among the sequenced clones) are added back to the estimate of 59 ACPs, this yields a prediction of 72 Acp genes in the *D. melanogaster* genome. The third method was designed for an unscreened library, and fits the data to a Poisson mixture model by nonparametric maximum likelihood (JI-PING WANG, personal communication). The perl script eststat.pl (available at <http://www.floralgenome.org/cgi-bin/eststat/eststat.cgi>) took the frequency spectrum of EST hits and produced an estimate of the total count of distinct ACPs in the library at 106. This figure may be considered as an upper bound because of the prescreening that was applied to the library, leaving a more uniform frequency distribution than would be found in an unscreened library.

***D. simulans* and *D. yakuba* sequence comparisons to *D. melanogaster* ACPs:** Nonsynonymous substitutions per nonsynonymous site ( $d_N$ ) and synonymous substitutions per synonymous site ( $d_S$ ) values for some previously characterized ACPs

(AGUADÉ *et al.* 1992; CIRERA and AGUADÉ 1997; AGUADÉ 1999; BEGUN *et al.* 2000; KOHN *et al.* 2004) were incorporated into this analysis. *D. yakuba* sequences were retrieved via BlastN alignment outputs of the *D. melanogaster* ACPs to the *D. yakuba* genome (WashU-GSC <http://genome.wustl.edu/tools/blast/>). *D. simulans* and *D. yakuba* coding regions (see <http://www.genetics.org/supplemental/>) were aligned to the *D. melanogaster* coding regions with ClustalX (THOMPSON *et al.* 1997).  $d_N$  and  $d_S$  values were calculated using DNASP 4.0 (ROZAS *et al.* 2003). In a few cases, partial gene sequences were used. In a single *D. yakuba* case, CG32952-B, an adenine to cytosine change disrupted the apparent start codon. No other plausible ATG could be identified upstream of CG32952-B to compensate for this difference and CG32952-B was thus omitted from *D. melanogaster* to *D. yakuba* comparisons, although rare CUG start codons do exist (PRATS *et al.* 1989). *D. simulans* and *D. yakuba* codon bias values (see <http://www.genetics.org/supplemental/>) were calculated as above. The *D. yakuba* non-Acp data set was obtained from a set of non-sex-specific transcripts (DOMAZET-LOSO and TAUTZ 2003). The StatView statistical program (version 5.0.1; SAS Institute) was used for statistical analyses.

**Detection of Acp orthologs in *D. pseudoobscura*:** The whole-genome alignment (WGA) of the *D. melanogaster* and *D. pseudoobscura* genome (RICHARDS *et al.* 2005) was taken from (EMBERLY *et al.* 2003). The SMASH program (ZAVOLAN *et al.* 2003) was used to find the strongest set of syntenic anchors between the *D. pseudoobscura* contigs and the *D. melanogaster* genome. Anchors were high-similarity regions from 10s to 100s of base pairs and covered ~30% of the genome. The LAGAN program (BRUDNO *et al.* 2003) gave similar alignments. Since the size of syntenic domains between the two species generally exceeds 10 kb (*i.e.*, much larger than most repeat elements within the sequenced euchromatin), using synteny eliminated almost all ambiguities due to repeats. The SMASH blocks along with the contigs they matched were displayed on top of the Release 3 annotation (CELNIKER *et al.* 2002) using GBrowse (<http://www.gmod.org/ggb/index.shtml>).

We then examined the syntenic regions for each Acp individually at the sequence level. In 48 of 51 cases (51 ACPs instead of 52 were compared because Acp53Eb's sequence information has yet to be determined), SMASH blocks from a single contig either bracketed or "hit" the annotated gene in *D. melanogaster*. SMASH blocks from a single *D. pseudoobscura* contig that span a given Acp locus indicate that the Acp genomic region in question can be aligned at the sequence level. For CG31872, a contiguous *D. pseudoobscura* sequence could not be aligned because the Acp gene fell into a gap between two contigs. Two other cases, CG14560 and CG9074, contained SMASH block hits to multiple contigs that differed from the contig spanning this region. The coding sequence of CG14560 and CG9074 were then submitted to Repeatmasker (<http://www.repeatmasker.org/>), which indicated that both ACPs contained repetitive regions, thus explaining the multiple SMASH block contig hits. After filtering out the repetitive regions for CG14560 and CG9074, we could generate a single contig that bracketed each gene. Upon verification of the *D. melanogaster* to *D. pseudoobscura* contig alignments of the ACPs, we retrieved the corresponding *D. pseudoobscura* sequence within the aligned contig and searched the *D. pseudoobscura* contig sequence via tBlastN using the *D. melanogaster* protein sequence. If coding sequence alignments could not be identified, we used GENSCAN (BURGE and KARLIN 1997) and Genie (REESE *et al.* 2000) to locate possible ORFs. All ACPs for which coding sequence alignments could be generated with the corresponding *D. pseudoobscura* contig region are considered true orthologs (Table 1). The SMASH block-based coding sequence alignments were confirmed using another more recent *D. pseudoobscura* WGA (KAROLCHIK

*et al.* 2003). *D. pseudoobscura* coding sequences of conserved ACPs and *D. melanogaster* to *D. pseudoobscura* contig alignments for absent or undetectable ACPs can be found in the web supplement (<http://www.genetics.org/supplemental/>). It is important to note that even though we define conserved ACPs between *D. melanogaster* and *D. pseudoobscura* as true orthologs, we have not determined whether these ACPs have maintained their accessory gland expression in *D. pseudoobscura*.

*D. melanogaster* ACPs that could not be detected within the retrieved *D. pseudoobscura* contig were searched via tBlastN to the *D. pseudoobscura* genome, via the Baylor College of Medicine Drosophila Genome project website (<http://www.hgsc.bcm.tmc.edu/projects/drosophila/>). For tBlastN searches, only hits with an *E*-value of  $1e-04$  (ZDOBNOV *et al.* 2002) or smaller were considered significant. Whenever a significant tBlastN hit in *D. pseudoobscura* was identified, the corresponding *D. pseudoobscura* sequence was then return searched against the *D. melanogaster* genome (<http://www.flybase.net>) via BlastP to determine whether it hit the Acp in question or a protein within a similar sequence/structure-function class. In all cases significant *D. pseudoobscura* tBlastN hits were false positives [*e.g.*, *D. melanogaster* ACPs CG8137 (serpin) and CG9334 (serpin) both hit the *D. pseudoobscura* ortholog of CG9456 (serpin)]. Alignments and "false-positive *D. melanogaster* genes" for ACPs whose true ortholog could not be detected via WGA, yet have a significant tBlastN hit in *D. pseudoobscura* whose return *D. melanogaster* BlastP does not match an Acp, can be found in the supplemental materials (<http://www.genetics.org/supplemental/>).

## RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

***D. melanogaster* Acp genes:** Secreted proteins synthesized by the *D. melanogaster* male accessory gland have important functions in reproduction (reviewed in WOLFNER 2002; KUBLI 2003; CHAPMAN and DAVIES 2004). To address more thoroughly the functions and evolution of these Acp proteins, we carried out a comprehensive identification and annotation of *D. melanogaster* Acp genes. Prior to 2001, 18 Acp genes had been reported in *D. melanogaster* (CHEN *et al.* 1988; SIMMERL *et al.* 1995; WOLFNER *et al.* 1997). In 2001, SWANSON *et al.* (2001a) identified 57 additional candidate Acp genes in *D. simulans* via an evolutionary EST approach that was performed to permit a rapid scan to identify genes with features suggesting rapid evolution. However, the ESTs identified by SWANSON *et al.* (2001a) were partial cDNAs and from a species, *D. simulans*, which is presently less amenable to genetic analyses than is *D. melanogaster*. We therefore full-length sequenced a select set of the *D. simulans* EST sequences identified by SWANSON *et al.* (2001a). The full-length *D. simulans* Acp EST sequences allowed us to identify the complete ORF of their *D. melanogaster* orthologs. We then applied a more stringent set of criteria to identify those genes on which to focus, based on what is known of the initial 18 ACPs. We define *bona fide* ACPs here as genes that: (a) encode a protein with a predicted secretion signal sequence, (b) have a pattern of EST hits in other tissue- or cell-type-specific EST screens

TABLE 1

Cross-species comparisons of sequence divergence levels and ortholog detection analyses for individual *D. melanogaster* ACPs

Gene	Functional class	$d_N$ sim	$d_S$ sim	$d_N/d_S$ sim	$d_N$ yak	$d_S$ yak	$d_N/d_S$ yak	WGA	TBN
Conserved in <i>D. pseudoobscura</i>									
CG1262 (Acp62F)	Trypsin protease inhibitor	0.050	0.126	0.399	0.219	0.359	0.611	+	NA
CG1462 <sup>a</sup>	Alkaline phosphatase	0.013	0.125	0.107	0.034	0.348	0.097	+	NA
CG1652 <sup>a</sup>	C-type lectin	0.021	0.148	0.140	0.052	0.281	0.186	+	NA
CG1656 <sup>a</sup>	C-type lectin	0.016	0.096	0.171	0.071	0.262	0.273	+	NA
CG3359 <sup>a</sup>	Fasciclin	0.010	0.091	0.104	0.006	0.200	0.028	+	NA
CG4605 (Acp32CD)		0.014	0.012	1.176	0.069	0.220	0.312	+	NA
CG4847 <sup>a</sup>	Cysteine protease	0.020	0.114	0.177	0.043	0.282	0.151	+	NA
CG6069 <sup>a</sup>	Serine protease	0.016	0.131	0.119	0.120	0.404	0.297	+	NA
CG6168 <sup>a</sup>	Serine protease	0.036	0.176	0.203	0.085	0.365	0.232	+	NA
CG8093 <sup>a</sup>	Acid lipase	0.005	0.119	0.039	0.016	0.399	0.040	+	NA
CG8194 <sup>a</sup>	RNase	0.011	0.121	0.094	0.020	0.276	0.072	+	NA
CG8622 (Acp53Ea)		0.039	0.143	0.275	0.120	0.282	0.425	+	NA
CG9024 (Acp26Ab)		0.018	0.059	0.305	0.150	0.356	0.422	+	NA
CG9029 <sup>a</sup>		0.077	0.156	0.494	0.309	0.444	0.695	+	NA
CG9997 <sup>a</sup>	Serine protease	0.031	0.108	0.291	0.100	0.393	0.254	+	NA
CG10284 <sup>a</sup>	CRISP	0.044	0.106	0.413	0.135	0.348	0.387	+	NA
CG10363 <sup>a</sup>	$\alpha$ -Macroglobulin	0.015	0.071	0.210	0.036	0.291	0.123	+	NA
CG10433 <sup>a</sup>	Defensin	0.009	0.027	0.317	0.037	0.105	0.347	+	NA
CG11598 <sup>a</sup>	Acid lipase	0.026	0.217	0.121	0.466	1.421	0.328	+	NA
CG11864 <sup>a</sup>	Metalloprotease	0.020	0.090	0.227	0.099	0.339	0.293	+	NA
CG13309 <sup>a</sup>		0.029	0.117	0.246	0.085	0.301	0.282	+	NA
CG16707 <sup>a</sup>		0.052	0.108	0.483	0.064	0.211	0.304	+	NA
CG17097 <sup>a</sup>	Acid lipase	0.010	0.125	0.082	0.064	0.208	0.309	+	NA
CG17575 <sup>a</sup>	CRISP	0.007	0.165	0.039	0.016	0.172	0.093	+	NA
CG17673 (Acp70A)		0.028	0.124	0.227	0.146	0.294	0.497	+	NA
CG17843 <sup>a</sup>	Thioredoxin	0.019	0.110	0.175	0.059	0.403	0.147	+	NA
CG17924 (Acp95EF)		0.037	0.223	0.164	0.259	0.411	0.630	+	NA
CG18284 <sup>a</sup>	Acid lipase	0.034	0.190	0.179	0.104	0.424	0.244	+	NA
CG32952-A (Acp33A)		0.007	0.081	0.085	0.129	0.531	0.243	+	NA
Without a <i>D. pseudoobscura</i> true ortholog									
CG3801 (Acp76A)	Serpin	0.025	0.142	0.178	0.169	0.467	0.361	-	+
CG4986		0.158	0.161	0.978	0.528	0.589	0.897	-	-
CG5016		0.000	0.000	0.000	0.156	0.368	0.423	-	-
CG6289 <sup>a</sup>	Serpin	0.077	0.125	0.616	0.359	0.414	0.867	-	+
CG7157 (Acp36DE)		0.049	0.132	0.371	0.292	0.633	0.461	-	-
CG8137 <sup>a</sup>	Serpin	0.083	0.094	0.882	0.169	0.390	0.433	-	+
CG8982 (Acp26Aa)		0.156	0.167	0.934	0.484	0.465	1.040	-	-
CG9074		0.040	0.253	0.157	0.174	0.619	0.282	-	+
CG9334 <sup>a</sup>	Serpin	0.087	0.118	0.737	0.160	0.399	0.402	-	+
CG10852 (Acp63F)		0.132	0.176	0.752	0.421	0.552	0.763	-	-
CG10956 <sup>a</sup>	Serpin	0.031	0.132	0.238	0.067	0.346	0.193	-	+
CG11664 <sup>a</sup>	Serine protease	0.029	0.160	0.183	0.103	0.403	0.255	-	+
CG14034 <sup>a</sup>	Phospholipase	0.022	0.161	0.138	0.121	0.385	0.315	-	+
CG14560 <sup>a</sup>		0.071	0.145	0.492	0.207	0.446	0.463	-	+
CG17797 (Acp29AB)	C-type lectin	0.078	0.253	0.308	0.434	0.973	0.446	-	+
CG31056 (Acp98AB)		0.119	0.000	NA	0.067	0.261	0.257	-	-
CG31872 <sup>a</sup>	Acid lipase	0.032	0.234	0.136	0.183	0.368	0.497	c/b	NA
CG32952-B (Acp33A)		0.007	0.081	0.085	NA	NA	NA	-	NA
BG642378(6h1) <sup>a</sup>	Serpin	0.063	0.150	0.421	0.169	0.360	0.469	-	+
BG642167(1a8) <sup>a</sup>		0.154	0.311	0.494	0.148	0.322	0.458	-	-
BG642312(4h1) <sup>a</sup>		0.084	0.160	0.521	0.145	0.182	0.798	-	-
BG642163(1a3) <sup>a</sup>		0.078	0.050	1.568	0.401	0.564	0.711	-	-
All Acp averages		0.045	0.131	0.473	0.161	0.397	0.407		

*D. melanogaster* ACPs conserved in *D. pseudoobscura* are listed first and *D. melanogaster* ACPs not identifiable via our WGA detection methods are listed second. c/b, contig breakpoint at site of an Acp, presence of ortholog undeterminable; TBN, TBLASTN hits against the *D. pseudoobscura* genome; WGA, SMASH blocks-based whole-genome alignment identification of true Acp orthologs in *D. pseudoobscura*; sim, *D. simulans*; yak, *D. yakuba*;  $d_N$ , nonsynonymous nucleotide substitution value;  $d_S$ , synonymous nucleotide substitution value; NA, not applicable.

<sup>a</sup>The 34 new ACPs selected from SWANSON *et al.* (2001a) EST that fit our newly defined criteria.

consistent with accessory gland predominant expression, (c) have no previously characterized non-Acp function, and (d) show male and/or accessory gland predominant expression in *D. melanogaster*. Using these stringent criteria we utilized secretion signal prediction programs, EST databases, reports of mutant phenotypes, and RT-PCR to screen through the 57 candidate ACPs identified by SWANSON *et al.* (2001a) (see MATERIALS AND METHODS for details). Thirty-four ACPs fit these new stringent criteria (see Table 1). The other 23 genes identified by SWANSON *et al.* (2001a) could encode proteins made in accessory glands and potentially also transferred to females, but their additional tissues of expression and/or nonreproductive functions complicate genetic and functional analyses and evolutionary interpretations; thus, we do not consider them further. It is also formally possible that the expression characteristics of some of these 23 ACPs differ in *D. melanogaster* and *D. simulans*, resulting in their exclusion from the stringently selected *D. melanogaster* ACPs on which we focus. The 34 stringently selected *D. melanogaster* ACPs that fit the above criteria, in combination with the 18 previously known ACPs, make a total of 52 *D. melanogaster* ACPs (Table 1) whose gene boundaries and expression have been confirmed. This comprehensive and characterized set of 52 ACPs has also allowed a recalculation of the predicted number of ACPs in the genome. Fitting the frequency spectrum of the 52 ACPs with EST hits from the SWANSON *et al.* (2001a) screen to a truncated Poisson distribution and to a Poisson mixture model gave maximum-likelihood estimates in the range of 70–106 ACPs in the *D. melanogaster* genome (see MATERIALS AND METHODS), respectively. Additionally, recently identified ACPs CG8626, CG15616, and CG17799 (HOLLOWAY and BEGUN 2004) suggest that the field is steadily approaching a complete list of ACPs in *D. melanogaster*.

These 52 *D. melanogaster* ACPs are expected to be extracellular and thus transferred to the female upon mating and to be produced primarily or exclusively in the male's accessory gland. Indeed, all 16 Acp genes tested so far encode seminal proteins detectable only in the male's accessory gland and transferred to the female during mating (CHEN *et al.* 1988; MONSMA *et al.* 1990; COLEMAN *et al.* 1995; BERTRAM *et al.* 1996; LUNG *et al.* 2002; ALBRIGHT 2003; RAVI RAM *et al.* 2005). Additional support that this set of 52 *D. melanogaster* ACPs truly represents accessory-gland predominant genes stems from the finding that 29 of 46 tested Acp genes showed twofold or higher expression values in germlineless male *vs.* germlineless female comparisons (6 ACPs were not present on the microarrays) (PARISI *et al.* 2004).

**Presence of multiple Acp gene duplicates across the *D. melanogaster* genome:** About 40% of the *D. melanogaster* genome (5536 of 13601 genes) appears to be gene duplicates (RUBIN *et al.* 2000b). Similarly, 16 (31%) of the 52 ACPs appear to have gene duplicates (Table 2) within the *D. melanogaster* genome. CG8137 and CG9334 are the only

**TABLE 2**  
**List of Acp Gene Duplicates in *D. melanogaster***

Acp	Non-Acp gene duplicate(s)	Protein identity (%)
A. ACPs and their gene duplicates that are not expressed in the male accessory gland		
CG17797	CG17799	45
CG17843	CG6690	39
CG6289	CG6663	92
CG13309	CG13308, CG13312	50, 37
CG17575	CG30486	30
CG11864	CG15254	48
CG11598	CG11600	46
B. ACPs whose gene duplicates retain male accessory gland expression		
Acp	Acp duplicate(s)	Protein identity (%)
CG1652	CG1656	46
CG3801	BG642378	25
CG31872	CG17097, CG18284	39, 88
CG8137	CG9334	72

gene duplicates not in tandem, although they share the same intron splice positions. Percent identities of the Acp gene duplicates range from 25 [CG3801 (Acp76A) and BG642378] to 92% (CG6289 and CG6663), indicating that a range of recent and ancient gene duplicates have been identified.

Nine of these cases of gene duplication are within the 52 Acp collection (3 duplicate pairs plus 1 triplicate) (Table 2B), indicating that these duplicates have similar expression profiles. This is consistent with the observation that gene duplication events often lead to coexpressed genes that cluster together (BOUTANAIEV *et al.* 2002). These 9 Acp gene duplicates are found in tandem clusters of paired (or triplicate) genes, and they share the same relative splice site positions, which are also conserved in *D. simulans* and *D. yakuba*.

For seven additional ACPs we detect duplicates in the genome (Table 2A). Again, tandem arrangements are seen in *D. simulans* and *D. yakuba*, and the *D. melanogaster* duplicates share the same splice site positions. However, in these seven cases, only one member of each duplicate pair is a member of our 52-Acp collection. This could be because the collection is incomplete (only 52 of the predicted 70–106 ACPs are described here), because a given duplicate's expression might not fit our stringent criteria of accessory gland-predominant expression, or because a given duplicate has an entirely different expression pattern. An example of the first is CG17799. This gene duplicate of CG17797 (Acp29AB) has recently been shown to also be expressed in the *D. melanogaster* accessory gland (HOLLOWAY and BEGUN 2004), but is not among the 52 genes we focused on here, simply because it was not detected in the SWANSON *et al.*

(2001a) EST screen or previous screens. It is likely that other gene duplicates of ACPs whose expression profiles have yet to be determined may later be identified as ACPs. The identification of the Acp gene duplicates will have an impact on future genetic analysis since duplication may introduce genetic redundancy. Additionally, since many ACPs are rapidly evolving, ACPs provide a good example for defining which evolutionary processes drive the divergence of gene duplicates.

**Comparative sequence analysis of the *D. melanogaster* ACPs and their *D. simulans* and *D. yakuba* orthologs:**

Several ACPs have features indicative of rapid evolution (AGUADÉ *et al.* 1992; CIRERA and AGUADÉ 1997; TSAUR and WU 1997; AGUADÉ 1999; BEGUN *et al.* 2000; PANHUIS *et al.* 2003; KERN *et al.* 2004; KOHN *et al.* 2004; STEVISON *et al.* 2004) and SWANSON *et al.*'s (2001a) data suggested that rapidly evolving genes are represented at a high level among ACPs. With our larger collection of fully annotated Acp genes, and the recent release of *Drosophila* genomic sequences, we could examine this question in detail. We investigated the patterns of codon bias and rates of evolution (by examining the rates of non-synonymous and synonymous nucleotide substitution,  $d_N$  and  $d_S$ ) for the 52 stringently defined Acp genes and compared those results to those with a control set of genes that are not expressed in the accessory gland.

**Codon bias:** Levels of codon bias have been used as a criterion for detecting rapidly evolving genes in *Drosophila* (SCHMID and AQUADRO 2001). Although codon bias alone cannot conclusively prove rapid evolution, genes that are rapidly evolving tend to have low codon bias (SCHMID *et al.* 1999). A previous study of 10 Acp genes (BEGUN *et al.* 2000) found that Acp genes tend to have lower levels of codon bias relative to the rest of the *Drosophila* genome. The 52 *D. melanogaster* Acp genes defined here as a class have significantly lower levels of codon bias (Mann-Whitney test,  $P < 0.001$  for both Fop and G/C3rd calculations, Table 3) than the control random sample of *D. melanogaster* genes of approximately the same length. *D. melanogaster* Acp genes do not exhibit significant differences (Fop, Mann-Whitney test  $P = 0.612$ , G/C3rd Mann-Whitney test  $P = 0.302$ , Table 3) in codon bias from the majority of genes expressed in the testis. Comparing levels of codon bias in the *D. simulans* Acp gene orthologs to non-Acp genes, we also find that Acp genes exhibit lower levels of codon bias (data not shown). We also determined whether this phenomenon is found in a more distantly related species, *D. yakuba*. Levels of codon bias in *D. yakuba* ACPs were also significantly lower (Fop, Mann-Whitney test,  $P < 0.001$ , G/C3rd Mann-Whitney test,  $P < 0.001$ , Table 3) than those of a collection of *D. yakuba* non-ACP genes (DOMAZET-LOSO and TAUTZ 2003).

Our findings with the extended set of 52 ACPs agree with the findings by BEGUN *et al.* (2000)—on average the 52 ACPs exhibited lower than average levels of codon bias in *D. melanogaster*, *D. simulans*, and *D. yakuba*. It is

TABLE 3

***D. melanogaster* and *D. yakuba* codon bias comparisons between different gene classes**

Gene class averages	Fop <sup>a</sup>	G/C3rd <sup>a</sup> (%)
<i>D. melanogaster</i> ACPs	0.498	0.512
<i>D. melanogaster</i> non-ACP	0.543	0.666
<i>D. melanogaster</i> testes specific	0.366	0.516
<i>D. yakuba</i> ACPs	0.432	0.545
<i>D. yakuba</i> non-ACP	0.544	0.653
	Mean difference between classes ( $P$ -value)	
Side-by-side comparisons		
<i>D. melanogaster</i> ACPs vs. non-ACP	<0.001	<0.001
<i>D. melanogaster</i> ACPs vs. testes-biased genes	0.612	0.302
<i>D. yakuba</i> ACPs vs. non-ACP	<0.001	<0.001

<sup>a</sup>High values are associated with codon bias for both the frequency of optimal codons (Fop) and the percentage (%) of GC bases in the third position (G/C3rd). Mann-Whitney test used to test for significant differences.

possible that these low levels of codon bias could be due to rapid rates of protein evolution of ACPs (AKASHI 1994). *Drosophila* codon bias can also be influenced by sequence length (DURET and MOUCHIROUD 1999), expression level, and local GC content. Because short *Drosophila* genes tend to exhibit high levels of codon bias (DURET and MOUCHIROUD 1999), and because Acp genes also tend to be short, our control set was selected to be genes of similar length to avoid the contribution of gene length. The unusual levels of codon bias seen for both ACPs and testis-genes (Table 3) suggest that male-reproductive proteins in general may exhibit lower levels of codon bias. Low levels of codon bias for *D. melanogaster* testis genes is consistent with their poorly conserved sequence and sex-specific expression pattern when compared to *Anopheles gambiae* (PARISI *et al.* 2003) or *D. simulans* (RANZ *et al.* 2003), respectively. That male-biased genes evolve more rapidly at the sequence (SINGH and KULATHINAL 2000) and expression pattern levels (MEIKLEJOHN *et al.* 2003) suggests that their rapid evolution may not allow adaptation to high levels of codon bias.

**Levels of divergence:** A high  $d_N/d_S$  ratio can identify genes for which amino acid replacement is being driven by a selective pressure. Acp genes have already been reported to demonstrate higher levels of sequence divergence than non-Acp genes between *D. simulans* and *D. melanogaster* (SWANSON *et al.* 2001a; KERN *et al.* 2004; STEVISON *et al.* 2004). However, those analyses used only partial sequences or included genes that our present analyses have shown not to fit the stringent definition of ACPs in *D. melanogaster* and thus could be subject to additional or different selection pressures.

Here we compare our complete sequences of a set of stringently selected *D. melanogaster* ACPs with their

**TABLE 4**  
**Divergence levels of *D. melanogaster* ACPs vs. non-ACPs when compared to their *D. yakuba* orthologs**

Divergence level averages	ACPs	Non-ACPs	Mann-Whitney test ( <i>P</i> -value)
<i>D. melanogaster</i> / <i>D. yakuba</i> $d_N$	0.161	0.026	<0.001
<i>D. melanogaster</i> / <i>D. yakuba</i> $d_S$	0.397	0.306	0.002
<i>D. melanogaster</i> / <i>D. yakuba</i> $d_N/d_S$	0.407	0.082	<0.001

Nonsynonymous ( $d_N$ ) and synonymous ( $d_S$ ) nucleotide substitution rates.

*D. simulans* and *D. yakuba* orthologs. ACPs exhibit high levels of sequence divergence with average  $d_N$  values for *D. simulans* of 0.045 (Table 1), similar to previously reported  $d_N$  values for *D. simulans* ACPs of 0.052 (SWANSON *et al.* 2001a) and 0.050 (BEGUN *et al.* 2000). The average level of  $d_S$  for this set of ACPs in *D. simulans* is 0.13 (Table 1), similar to the known average *D. simulans*  $d_S$  value of 0.11 (BAUER and AQUADRO 1997; MORIYAMA and POWELL 1997; BEGUN and WHITLEY 2000; BETANCOURT *et al.* 2002). We also compared Acp to non-Acp levels of sequence divergence between *D. melanogaster* and *D. yakuba* (Table 4). In this comparison as well, ACPs have significantly higher  $d_N$  (0.161) and  $d_N/d_S$  (0.407) values than non-ACPs ( $d_N$  and  $d_N/d_S$  values of 0.026 and 0.082, respectively) (Mann-Whitney test, both  $d_N$  and  $d_N/d_S$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ).

Using levels of  $d_N$  and  $d_S$  as a metric to identify rapidly evolving genes, which have a  $d_N/d_S$  value  $>1$ , SWANSON *et al.* (2001a) identified 19 genes whose partial sequence had  $d_N/d_S >1$  in *D. melanogaster*/*D. simulans* comparisons. However, our reanalysis of the 52 ACPs using complete gene sequences yields only 3 ACPs from both *D. melanogaster*/*D. simulans* and *D. melanogaster*/*D. yakuba* comparisons with  $d_N/d_S >1$  (Table 1). We believe this discrepancy between the SWANSON *et al.* (2001a) results and those reported here is because we analyzed full-length coding regions from an accurately annotated list of genes instead of partially sequenced cDNAs, which in some cases were misaligned. In addition, for many rapidly evolving genes often only part of the gene is under positive selection (HUGHES and NEI 1988; SWANSON *et al.* 2001b). Thus, some partial cDNAs analyzed by SWANSON *et al.* (2001a) may have fortuitously contained regions under positive selection giving a higher  $d_N/d_S$  than when the entire gene is tested. For this reason a  $d_N/d_S >0.5$  was recently proposed as a more practical cutoff when using full-length sequences, to identify candidate genes that may be driven by positive selection (SWANSON *et al.* 2004). Applying this cutoff value of 0.5 to the 52 ACPs we find that 9 ACPs (but not the same 9 as in SWANSON *et al.* 2001a) in both *D. melanogaster*/*D. simulans* and *D. melanogaster*/*D. yakuba* have  $d_N/d_S >0.5$ . This proportion of ACPs (9/52, 17%) is similar to the percentage of ACPs identified in the SWANSON *et al.* (2001a) male accessory gland EST screen (19%) with a  $d_N/d_S >0.5$ . Comparable percentages of ACPs with a  $d_N/d_S >0.5$  described here to those

ACPs identified in SWANSON *et al.* (2001a) support the idea that  $d_N/d_S >0.5$  may serve as a good indicator for candidate rapidly evolving genes (SWANSON *et al.* 2004). Further analysis of the role of natural selection in shaping Acp sequence evolution using codon-substitution models will be presented elsewhere.

**Detection of *D. melanogaster* Acp orthologs in *D. pseudoobscura*:** The complete genome sequence of *D. pseudoobscura* (RICHARDS *et al.* 2005) allowed us to search for conserved *D. melanogaster* ACPs in a distantly related species outside of the *D. melanogaster* subgroup. A whole-genome alignment (WGA) approach was used to determine which of the 52 *D. melanogaster* ACPs can be identified in *D. pseudoobscura*. Syntenic regions covering each Acp were generated for 50 ACPs. Limited sequence information for the other 2 ACPs (Acp53Eb and CG31872) prevented generation of accurate comparative genome sequence alignments. We verified all the *D. melanogaster* to *D. pseudoobscura* contig alignments and identified the corresponding *D. pseudoobscura* Acp, to generate coding sequence alignments between the two species. All *D. melanogaster* ACPs for which coding sequence alignments could be generated with the corresponding *D. pseudoobscura* contig are considered true orthologs (see Table 1). We found that, via WGA, 58% (29/50) of the *D. melanogaster* ACPs have true orthologs in *D. pseudoobscura* (Table 1). For the 21 *D. melanogaster* ACPs for which true orthologs could not be identified in *D. pseudoobscura* we used tBlastN against all *D. pseudoobscura* contigs and orphan sequences to ensure that we had not missed *D. melanogaster* ACPs that had moved to non-syntenic chromosomal locations in *D. pseudoobscura*. In 10 cases, tBlastN comparisons gave significant *D. pseudoobscura* hits. However, each hit was interpreted as a false positive because it matched either repetitive sequence in the Acp or a different *D. pseudoobscura* gene with a respective non-Acp *D. melanogaster* ortholog (see MATERIALS AND METHODS). Our inability to detect a *D. pseudoobscura* ortholog for a *D. melanogaster* Acp gene via this method does not mean that a *D. pseudoobscura* ortholog does not exist, but only that our searches were negative. *D. melanogaster* ACPs undetectable in *D. pseudoobscura* via our methods could be highly diverged, located in an unsequenced region of the *D. pseudoobscura* genome, or potential *D. melanogaster* lineage-specific proteins. A recent study (WAGSTAFF and BEGUN 2005) uncovered a *D. pseudoobscura* gene with 18.5% amino



TABLE 5

Distinct sequence evolution patterns for *D. melanogaster* ACPs present and undetectable in *D. pseudoobscura*

A.			
Averages	<i>D. pseudoobscura</i> orthologs present	<i>D. pseudoobscura</i> orthologs undetectable	Mann-Whitney test ( <i>P</i> -value)
Fop <sup>a</sup> <i>D. melanogaster</i>	0.439	0.351	0.001
G/C3rd <sup>a</sup> <i>D. melanogaster</i>	0.559	0.456	<0.001
Fop <sup>a</sup> <i>D. yakuba</i>	0.467	0.371	<0.001
G/C3rd <sup>a</sup> <i>D. yakuba</i>	0.598	0.474	<0.001
$d_N/d_S$ <sup>b</sup> <i>D. simulans</i>	0.240	0.525	0.002
$d_N/d_S$ <sup>b</sup> <i>D. yakuba</i>	0.287	0.515	<0.001
B.			
Averages	All other predicted functional classes	Protease inhibitors	Mann-Whitney test ( <i>P</i> -value)
Fop <sup>a</sup> <i>D. melanogaster</i>	0.476	0.365	0.002
G/C3rd <sup>a</sup> <i>D. melanogaster</i>	0.596	0.477	0.009
Fop <sup>a</sup> <i>D. yakuba</i>	0.503	0.395	0.007
G/C3rd <sup>a</sup> <i>D. yakuba</i>	0.602	0.498	0.005
$d_N/d_S$ <sup>b</sup> <i>D. simulans</i>	0.173	0.496	0.001
$d_N/d_S$ <sup>b</sup> <i>D. yakuba</i>	0.235	0.477	0.004

<sup>a</sup>High values are associated with codon bias for both the frequency of optimal codons (Fop) and the percentage of GC bases in the third position (G/C3rd).

<sup>b</sup>Nonsynonymous ( $d_N$ ) to synonymous ( $d_S$ ) nucleotide substitution ratios.

acid sequence identity to *D. melanogaster* Acp26Aa. This is below the similarity level detectable in our search for *D. pseudoobscura* orthologs. For another gene, Acp95EF, our analysis revealed its *D. pseudoobscura* ortholog, which was undetected by WAGSTAFF and BEGUN (2005). Differences in methodologies and the limited alignability of the *D. pseudoobscura* genome (only ~48%; RICHARDS *et al.* 2005) likely account for these two differences in Acp ortholog detection.

Of the 29 ACPs we found conserved between *D. melanogaster* and *D. pseudoobscura* it had been possible to generate comparative structural models to known protein classes for 20 (Table 1) (MUELLER *et al.* 2004). This represents a greater fraction (20/29, 69%) than is seen for those *D. melanogaster* ACPs that do not have *D. pseudoobscura* counterparts (9/21, 43%). That more proteins within predicted protein functional classes are conserved between *D. melanogaster* and *D. pseudoobscura* suggests that these proteins may mediate reproductive strategies that are conserved across *Drosophila*. Interestingly, the protease inhibitor class is not well conserved between the two species (Table 1): only one (Acp62F) of seven predicted or known Acp protease inhibitors is identifiable between the two species (Table 1). The lack of conservation of protease inhibitors between *D. melanogaster* and *D. pseudoobscura* is significantly greater than the percentage of ACPs not shared in all other protein classes (chi-square = 12.28, d.f. = 1,  $P < 0.001$ ). ACPs that are predicted protease inhibitors have been suggested to participate in sperm storage, cost of mating [specifically Acp62F (LUNG *et al.* 2002)],

and/or immune regulation (KHUSH and LEMAITRE 2000; MCGRAW *et al.* 2004), which may contribute to their evolution between *D. melanogaster* and *D. pseudoobscura* lineages.

**Comparative sequence analysis within the *D. melanogaster* subgroup of ACPs shared or not shared with *D. pseudoobscura*:** Within the set of ACPs conserved between *D. melanogaster* and *D. pseudoobscura*, we examined levels of codon bias and  $d_N/d_S$  with two other species in the *D. melanogaster* subgroup. We tested whether codon bias and  $d_N/d_S$  values could distinguish those *D. melanogaster* ACPs that share or do not share true orthologs in *D. pseudoobscura*. We find that *D. melanogaster* ACPs without detectable *D. pseudoobscura* true orthologs have significantly lower levels of codon bias in *D. melanogaster* (Fop and G/C3rd Mann-Whitney test,  $P = 0.001$  and  $P < 0.001$ , respectively) and *D. yakuba* than ACPs conserved between *D. melanogaster* and *D. pseudoobscura* (Fop and G/C3rd Mann-Whitney test,  $P < 0.001$  and  $P < 0.001$ , respectively, Table 5A). Additionally, levels of  $d_N/d_S$  are significantly higher for *D. melanogaster/D. simulans* and *D. melanogaster/D. yakuba* comparisons of ACPs without true orthologs in *D. pseudoobscura* compared to ACPs conserved between *D. melanogaster* and *D. pseudoobscura* (*D. simulans* and *D. yakuba*, Mann-Whitney test,  $P = 0.002$  and  $P < 0.001$ , respectively, Table 5A). This subgroup divergence analysis can be extended to the case of the *D. melanogaster* predicted protease inhibitor ACPs that do not have counterparts in *D. pseudoobscura* (Table 1). We find that the seven predicted or known Acp protease inhibitors

have both significantly lower levels of codon bias and higher levels of sequence divergence ( $d_N/d_S$ ) than ACPs in other predicted functional classes (Table 5B). Together, these results suggest that *D. melanogaster* ACPs without a true *D. pseudoobscura* ortholog have greater levels of sequence divergence ( $d_N/d_S$ ) within the *D. melanogaster* subgroup than *D. melanogaster* ACPs with a detectable *D. pseudoobscura* ortholog. Those *D. melanogaster* ACPs with higher sequence divergence levels that do not have a true ortholog in *D. pseudoobscura* thus serve as good candidates for mediating reproductive functions in close relatives of *D. melanogaster*.

**Underrepresentation of ACPs on the *D. melanogaster* X chromosome:** As previously reported (WOLFNER *et al.* 1997; SWANSON *et al.* 2001a), ACPs' chromosomal locations are biased to autosomes in *D. melanogaster*. Only 1 of the 52 ACPs, CG11664, falls on the X chromosome at cytological band 1D2 in *D. melanogaster*. The remaining 51 ACPs are evenly distributed across the second (27 ACPs) and third (24 ACPs) chromosomes. Given that the X chromosome contains ~17% of the total *D. melanogaster* genome (CELNIKER *et al.* 2002), if the 52 ACPs were randomly distributed across the genome we would expect ~9 of the 52 ACPs to fall on the X chromosome and 43 on autosomes. The presence of only a single X-linked Acp is highly unlikely to have occurred by chance ( $G_{\text{corr}} = 7.908$ , d.f. = 1,  $P = 0.005$ ), supporting reports that the *D. melanogaster* X chromosome is deficient in male-biased genes (WOLFNER *et al.* 1997; ANDREWS *et al.* 2000; SWANSON *et al.* 2001a; PARISI *et al.* 2003; RANZ *et al.* 2003).

An alternative approach to understanding the chromosomal bias of sex-specific genes is to focus on the region that contains the single X-linked *D. melanogaster* Acp. The 50-kb region flanking CG11664 is unusual in several respects. First, CG11664 lies in an apparently gene-poor region, with only six other genes within the surrounding 100 kb. On average there are ~11 genes/100 kb in the *D. melanogaster* genome (= 13792 genes/120 Mb) (ADAMS *et al.* 2000; CELNIKER *et al.* 2002). Second, of the 6 neighboring genes, 4 (CG3713, CG11663, CG14634, and CG14635) appear to be testis biased in their expression (ANDREWS *et al.* 2000; PARISI *et al.* 2004, no expression data could be found for CG14632 and CG14633); thus, perhaps this region is a "hotspot" for harboring male-biased genes on the X chromosome. Third, more than half of the genes in this region do not appear to be conserved between *D. pseudoobscura* and *D. melanogaster*, consistent with the report that male-biased genes tend to evolve more rapidly at both expression (RANZ *et al.* 2003) and sequence (PARISI *et al.* 2003) levels. Fourth, five of the six neighboring ORFs, in addition to CG11664, are intronless, suggesting they may be retrogenes. Additionally, this region appears to also be a hotspot for transposable elements. In the recent transposable element (*piggyBac* and *P* element) insertion mutagenesis

collection release of 16,500 fly lines (THIBAUT *et al.* 2004), the 100-kb region surrounding CG11664 contained 34 insertions, which is more than the average of ~14 transposable elements/100 kb (= 16,500 elements/120 Mb). Altogether, the region surrounding CG11664 contains a number of unique features that may help determine what pressures are driving the evolution of sex-specific genes on the X chromosome in *D. melanogaster*.

Multiple hypotheses including sexual antagonism, dosage compensation, and X inactivation may explain the paucity of male-biased genes on the *D. melanogaster* X chromosome (reviewed in OLIVER and PARISI 2004). The ability to help distinguish the importance of these phenomena could be assisted by looking at *D. pseudoobscura*. In *D. pseudoobscura*, the X chromosome consists primarily of a region largely syntenic to the left arm of the third chromosome in *D. melanogaster* (3L) that fused more recently in the *D. pseudoobscura* lineage to a region syntenic to the X chromosome of *D. melanogaster* (SEGARRA and AGUADÉ 1992). Thus, all ACPs with *D. pseudoobscura* orthologs that are located on 3L in *D. melanogaster* [CG1262 (Acp62F), CG10852 (Acp63F), CG17673 (Acp70A), CG3801 (Acp76A), CG6289, CG13309, CG14560, BG642312, CG16707, CG8194, BG642378, and CG6168) would now be on the right arm of the *D. pseudoobscura* X chromosome (XR). If there is selection against X linkage for ACPs, we would expect a higher "loss" of ACPs from the "new" (*D. melanogaster* 3L homolog) X-linked genes in the *D. pseudoobscura* lineage than for ACPs on autosomes in *D. pseudoobscura*. We find that a larger proportion of new ACPs on the *D. pseudoobscura* X chromosome are not shared between the two species (as compared to autosomal ACPs in *D. pseudoobscura*), although this difference is not statistically significant [*D. pseudoobscura* X chromosome (7/13 = 54% absent or undetected) *vs.* autosomes (13/36 = 36% absent or undetected); chi-square = 1.01, d.f. = 1,  $P = 0.322$ ]. That fewer X-linked *D. pseudoobscura* ACPs are conserved than autosomal ACPs is consistent with selection against X-linked Acp's. However, the *D. melanogaster* 3L's base chromosome and its *D. pseudoobscura* XR counterpart show the second lowest level of genome sequence alignability between species: 46.5% of *D. melanogaster* 3L's base pairs are alignable with *D. pseudoobscura* XR as compared to an average across all chromosomes of 48%. Therefore, the relatively low sequence conservation of the *D. pseudoobscura* XR arm suggests that loss or translocation of ACPs from this arm may have resulted from the particular X-chromosomal evolutionary dynamics in the *D. pseudoobscura* lineage rather than from any sex-specific selection acting differentially on X chromosomes *vs.* autosomes.

**Conclusions:** Genes with increased rates of evolution increase the frequency with which incompatibilities evolve between closely related species. Since some ACPs in *Drosophila* evolve faster than other genes, these

rapidly evolving ACPs serve as good candidates for examining the selection pressures associated with reproductive functions. We have characterized here such divergent ACPs, whose divergence may be attributable to sexually antagonistic evolution with proteins from the female or male (SWANSON *et al.* 2001b; SWANSON and VACQUIER 2002). The female's genotype has been shown to play an active role in sperm displacement (CLARK and BEGUN 1998) and a recent EST screen identified a number of candidate receptors/sexually antagonistic genes for ACPs (SWANSON *et al.* 2004). Candidate receptors would likely serve as the most upstream female genes in signaling pathways for the numerous biological processes/pathways regulated by ACPs, sperm, and the act of mating (McGRAW *et al.* 2004). The comprehensive set of ACPs described here thus provides a basis for understanding both the evolutionary dynamics and function of specific ACPs. This, in turn, may help tease apart the functional importance of male-female interactions during the evolution of reproductive isolation.

We thank all members of the Wolfner lab for comments on the manuscript, S. Albright and S. Ji for assistance with the annotations, and V. DuMont, A. Fiumera, G. Reeves, and A. Wong for helpful advice. This work was supported by National Institutes of Health Grants HD38921 to M.F.W. and GM36431 to C.F.A., and by a National Science Foundation Grant DEB-0242987 to A.G.C. For part of this work, J.L.M. and L.A.M. were supported by National Institutes of Health training grant T32 GM7617 and J.L.M. was subsequently supported by a Department of Education Graduate Assistance in Areas of National Need Fellowship. M.C.B.Q. was supported by an American Cancer Society Postdoctoral Fellowship. We appreciate permission (from Richard K. Wilson) to use the *D. yakuba* genomic sequences generated by the Genome Sequencing Center, Washington University-St. Louis School of Medicine, prior to their publication.

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Communicating editor: L. HARSHMAN