Molecular evolutionary analysis of seminal receptacle sperm storage organ genes of *Drosophila melanogaster*

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**Introduction**

An emerging trend in evolutionary biology is that many genes related to reproduction evolve rapidly. This phenomenon is observed in plants, invertebrates and vertebrates (Clark *et al.*, 2006). Rapidly evolving reproductive genes in *Drosophila* have been the subject of many studies. One such study looked at genes encoding male and female *Drosophila* reproductive proteins and found higher rates of evolution in these proteins compared to genes encoding nonreproductive proteins (Haerty *et al.*, 2007). Especially, intensely studied are male proteins passed to females at the time of mating (Findlay *et al.*, 2008). One class of transferred proteins, male accessory gland proteins (Acps), have been identified as rapidly evolving in a number of studies (Civetta & Singh, 1995; Begun *et al.*, 2000; Swanson *et al.*, 2001; Mueller *et al.*, 2005; Wagstaff & Begun, 2005). Additionally, studies of genes expressed in the lower reproductive tract of females show that genes in this region evolve relatively rapidly (Swanson *et al.*, 2004; Kelleher *et al.*, 2007). However, there has been little investigation into the evolution of proteins expressed in specific female reproductive organs, though one previous study investigating molecular evolution in a specific sperm storage organ, the spermatheca, observed a high incidence of positive selection (Prokupek *et al.*, 2008).

The process of reproduction in taxa with internal fertilization, such as *Drosophila* species, presents opportunities for strong selection to operate on female reproductive proteins. One possible result of this selection is the rapid evolution of female reproductive proteins. Post-mating sexual selection could include processes such as the female mediation of sperm competition and female cryptic choice of sperm. A series of steps are taken before fertilization, including the processes involved in sperm storage (Adams & Wolfner, 2007), during which male and female reproductive proteins could interact. This interaction could be an underlying cause of sexually antagonistic coevolution (Rice, 1996; Holland & Rice, 1999; Arnqvist *et al.*, 2000; Miller & Pitnick, 2002; Rice & Holland, 2005; Rice *et al.*, 2006). Another consideration is that females must protect themselves from bacteria and fungi transferred with the seminal fluid (Ferrandon *et al.*, 1998; Wira & Fahey, 2004). Host–pathogen coevolution may play a role in the rapid evolution of female reproductive proteins. In both cases, proteins within the female reproductive tract interact with molecules introduced

**Abstract**

Sperm storage organs are common and broadly distributed among animal taxa. However, little is known about how these organs function at the molecular level. Additionally, there is a paucity of knowledge about the evolution of genes expressed in these organs. This investigation is an evolutionary expressed sequence tag (EST) study of genes expressed in the seminal receptacle, one of the sperm storage organs in *Drosophila*. The incidence of positive selection is higher for the seminal receptacle genes than *Drosophila* reproductive genes as a whole, but lower than genes associated with the spermatheca, a second type of *Drosophila* sperm storage organ. By identifying overrepresented classes of proteins and classes for which sperm storage function is suggested by the nature of the proteins, candidate genes were discovered. These candidates belong to protein classes such as muscle contraction, odorant binding and odorant receptor, protease inhibitor and immunity.

**Keywords:** conflicts; genomics; insects; molecular evolution; population genetics; sexual selection.
during the mating process creating opportunities for positive selection driven by coevolutionary dynamics.

Sperm storage by females is widespread in animals including insects (Baer et al., 2006; Collins et al., 2006; Adams & Wolfner, 2007), reptiles (Gist & Congdon, 1998; Yamanouye et al., 2004), birds (Das et al., 2006; Zhang, 2006) and mammals (Racey, 1972, 1979). Sperm storage organs are likely to be important sites of interaction between male and female reproductive molecules. These interactions can be synergistic and ensure that sperm are properly directed, whether towards the fertilization site or into separate sections of the reproductive tract for storage (Bloch-Qazi & Wolfner, 2003; Gao et al., 2006). Conversely, male and female proteins may also interact antagonistically with differential fitness consequences for each sex. Female sperm storage organs increase the length of time sperm spend within the female reproductive tract, thus maximizing the time of contact between male and female proteins. Studying these organs provides a unique opportunity to identify proteins important in male–female reproductive interactions.

*Drosophila melanogaster* females have two sperm storage organs: the seminal receptacle and paired spermathecae. The seminal receptacle stores the majority (65–80%) of the sperm, and the spermathecae is thought to be the long-term sperm storage organ (reviewed in Neubaum & Wolfner, 1999). In *Drosophila*, sperm enter the seminal receptacle first, approximately 10–15 min after mating, and do not begin entering the spermathecae until approximately 35 min after mating (Adams & Wolfner, 2007). The entrance of sperm into storage is correlated with distinct morphological changes and muscular contractions in the female reproductive tract (Adams & Wolfner, 2007). Within 3 h of mating, the female is laying fertilized eggs, the sperm used for fertilization at this point is suspected to be from the seminal receptacle. At 3-h post-mating, the seminal receptacle is performing dual functions: the storage of sperm and the release of sperm for fertilization.

Transcriptome and molecular evolution studies can be informative in terms of providing insight into how organs function at the molecular level. A study by Prokupek et al., 2009 used transcriptome analysis to investigate expression differences in the two sperm storage organs of *Drosophila* females at two time points post-mating (Prokupek et al., 2009). This study found substantial differences between the transcription profiles of these two organs. The spermathecae was enriched for genes involved in proteolysis and metabolism whereas the seminal receptacle was enriched for genes involved in localization, signalling and ion transport. At 3-h post-mating, the seminal receptacle had over ten times the number of differentially expressed genes as the ST. The large number of differentially expressed genes in the seminal receptacle may be related to the dual role this organ is playing (storing and releasing sperm) at three-hour post-mating.

The methods for inferring patterns of evolution from DNA sequence divergence are well-established. Specific DNA sequences are typically compared between species often in the context of an established phylogeny (Yang, 2007; Ellegren, 2008). The analysis is based on comparing the rate of amino acid coding changes (nonsynonymous) to the rate of silent changes (synonymous). The ratio for comparison is the ratio of nonsynonymous changes per nonsynonymous site (dN) to synonymous changes per synonymous site (dS). The null hypothesis is neutral evolution in contrast to inference about several modes of natural selection. Positive Darwinian selection is indicated by elevated dN/dS ratios (Yang & Bielawski, 2000; Bielawski & Yang, 2003). This inference is made by comparison with the actual sequence divergence patterns with the expectations under the null hypothesis of neutral evolution using maximum-likelihood statistics. This strategy allows for discernment of adaptive evolution of specific genes (Swanson, 2003). One of the generalities to emerge from these analyses is that reproductive proteins tend to evolve more rapidly in terms of the rate of amino acid substitutions (Swanson & Vacquier, 2002). To understand the basis for the observed pattern of rapid evolution, it is important to investigate genes that encode male and female reproductive proteins that could interact.

The present study examines genes encoding female reproductive proteins that are candidates to interact with male reproductive proteins. Sexual selection at the level of interacting male and female reproductive proteins is a likely cause of positive selection acting on sperm storage organ proteins. If sexual selection is operating, then one would expect high levels of amino acid replacement and the subsequent inference of positive selection. Molecular evolution studies provide tools to study sexual selection at the level of male and female reproductive proteins.

The *Drosophila* seminal receptacle is the focus of the current study. This organ is understudied in terms of the identification and function of genes expressed within, or the characterization of the evolutionary rates of these genes. In the present study, we investigated expressed sequence tags (ESTs) of genes enriched for expression in *D. melanogaster* seminal receptacle. We identified genes expressed in the seminal receptacle that are rapidly evolving and may be prime candidates to play an important role in female-ejaculate interactions. Functional annotation revealed a number of genes that provide clues into how the seminal receptacle operates.

**Materials and methods**

**Stock maintenance and experimental design**

The Canton-S stock of *D. melanogaster* was used in the present study. Flies were reared in larval density controlled vials, on a standard *Drosophila* diet in a temperature controlled environment (25 degrees Celsius) with a
standard 12/12 light/dark cycle. Adults were collected as virgins, and virginity was confirmed by observing that no larvae appeared in the vials used to hold the females. The flies were held as virgins until the fourth day of adult life when each female was paired with a single male for mating. Females were separated from males immediately after the observed mating had ended naturally. Prior to dissection, females were immobilized by placing vials containing females on ice for 5 min. Seminal receptacles were collected from virgin and 3-h post-mating females by dissection on a cold plate in RNase Later (Ambion).

cDNA library preparation and sequence generation
RNA was isolated from seminal receptacles dissected from 250 D. melanogaster females. Total RNA was isolated from seminal receptacles using the TRIzol reagent (Invitrogen). Total RNA was also purified from female whole bodies minus seminal receptacle to be used as the driver in subtractive hybridization. cDNA was generated from total RNA using the SMART approach (Zhu et al., 2001). A cDNA library was generated (Evrogen Inc., Moscow) using the suppressive subtraction hybridization method in both directions (tester vs. driver and driver vs. tester) (Diatchenko et al., 1996, 1999). An aliquot of the library was plated and resulting colonies were used for DNA template generation by rolling circle amplification using TempliPhi (Amersham Biosciences). Using a MegaBACE 400 automated DNA sequencer (Amersham Biosciences), 2304 DNA sequences were generated. For DNA sequence analysis, vector sequences were masked using the CAP3 program (Huang & Madan, 1999).

Identification of genes expressed in seminal receptacles
Each of the 2304 D. melanogaster ESTs was used as a query in a blastn DNA similarity search (Altschul et al., 1990) conducted against the entire coding sequence (CDS) set of the D. melanogaster genome (Flybase Release 5.9; http://flybase.org). We excluded those sequences with identities lower than 95% or lower (with the exception of four ESTs with at least 92%) and those with expected (E) values greater than 10^{-6} (1168 sequences were excluded).

Ortholog identification and reconstruction of multiple alignments
Using each of the D. melanogaster CDSs as a query, a blastp protein similarity search (Altschul et al., 1990) was performed to identify ortholog candidates from five additional Drosophila genomes (D. simulans, D. sechellia, D. yakuba, D. erecta and D. ananassae). The top hit from each species was then used as a query in a reciprocal blastp search against the entire D. melanogaster protein set to confirm the orthologous relationships. When multiple sequences were identified with almost identical lowest E values, all were used as the queries for the reciprocal search.

To determine the presence or absence of possible distant orthologs in other species, reciprocal blast was performed against an additional six (more distantly related) Drosophila genomes (D. pseudoobscura, D. persimilis, D. willistoni, D. melavensis, D. virilis and D. grimshawi). In addition to blastp, tblastn against the DNA scaffolds was also performed to identify ortholog candidates even if they are not included in the annotated CDS set. If two or more genes were identified as the top hits with almost identical E values, then these genes were analysed as possible duplicates by further investigation using the phylogenetic analysis to identify species-specific gene duplication events. All of the Drosophila complete genome sequences were downloaded from the FlyBase (Annotation Release 1.2; http://flybase.org).

Protein alignments were reconstructed using MAFFT with L-INS-i method (Katoh & Toh, 2008). The PAL2NAL script was used for converting sequence alignments of proteins into corresponding codon-based nucleotide alignments (Suyama et al., 2006). Alignments were inspected at both DNA and protein-levels and adjusted manually when necessary.

Molecular evolution analyses
The relative contribution of nonsynonymous (dN) to synonymous (dS) nucleotide changes was compared using the codon-based maximum-likelihood framework described by Goldman and Yang (1994) implemented in PAML version 4 (Yang, 2007). For all genes having an identifiable D. simulans ortholog, pairwise comparisons were performed between D. simulans and D. melanogaster. A dS/dN ratio of 0.5 was found to be reasonable for the identification of candidate genes to undergo further investigation into the forces of selection (Swanson et al., 2004).

The dS/dN ratios were also estimated by using the ‘branch model’ as well as the ‘site model’ of PAML based on six-species phylogenies. When six orthologs were not identified, a minimum of four orthologs were used to circumvent problems caused by model convergence. To ensure that possible incomplete lineage sorting reported in the melanogaster subgroup (Pollard et al., 2006; Wong et al., 2008) did not affect the outcome of our analysis, the analysis was performed using three alternative six-species trees varying the phylogenetic placement of D. erecta and D. yakuba. The ‘branch model’ allows the dS/dN ratios to vary among branches in a given phylogeny to detect positive selection acting on particular lineages (Yang, 1998). Variation in the dS/dN ratios among sites was investigated using the ‘site model’ described by Yang et al. (2000), which compares the fit of the data to different models of codon evolution (Yang & Nielsen, 2000). We examined the fit of data to
the one-ratio model (M0) against the model that classifies sites into 3 classes (M3). Two additional model comparisons were used to perform more direct tests of positive selection. Briefly, two likelihood ratio tests were used to compare null models that do not allow \( d_{\text{S}}/d_{\text{N}} > 1 \), M1a (nearly neutral) and M7 (beta), with alternative models that allow a class of sites to have \( d_{\text{S}}/d_{\text{N}} > 1 \), M2a (positive selection) and M8 (beta and omega) (Yang & Nielsen, 2002; Yang & Swanson, 2002). For a full description of the assumptions of the models and test statistics, see Yang et al. (2000).

**Transmembrane and signal peptide prediction**

Protein sequences from the *D. melanogaster* genes were used for motif prediction. Transmembrane region prediction was conducted using two programs: HMMTOP version 2.1 (Tusnády & Simon, 2001) and Phobius version 1.01 (Käll et al., 2004). Both methods use hidden Markov models (HMMs) for predicting the transmembrane topology. Phobius combines TM prediction and signal peptide prediction to identify signal peptides from N-terminal regions, often misidentified as a TM region by these prediction methods. We list a protein as having transmembrane regions if both HMMTOP and Phobius predicted one or more TM regions, or if one program predicted multiple TM regions. For signal peptide prediction, we used TargetP version 1.1 (Emanuelsson et al., 2007) in addition to Phobius. The TargetP program ranks support for the signal peptides. Only the genes in the highest class of support in TargetP, which were also identified as having signal peptides by Phobius, were listed as having signal peptides.

**Functional categories**

Protein function was inferred from a combination of information gained from the conserved domain searches, FlyBase, Gene Ontology database classification and literature searches. All genes were subject first to conserved domain searches by CD-Search at National Center for Biotechnology Information (Marchler-Bauer & Bryant, 2004).

The Database for Annotation, Visualization and Integrated Discovery (DAVID) (http://david.abcc.ncifcrf.gov) was used to classify genes using the most relevant gene ontology (GO)-associated terms and to determine significant enrichment of known functional annotations within our gene list. DAVID calculates the probability of observed representation of genes within a given category compared to a predefined genome list corresponding to the same category.

The Protein ANalysis THrough Evolutionary Relationships (PANTHER) (http://www.pantherdb.org) classification system was also used to classify genes into broad functional categories. Genes were classified into families and subfamilies using profile HMMs, then further classified by molecular function and biological process ontology terms. The ontology of PANTHER uses a controlled vocabulary of molecular function and biological process arranged as directed acyclic graphs, similar to the GO, but abbreviated and simplified. Currently, the PANTHER database contains annotation data for 14,115 *D. melanogaster* genes.

**Results**

**Coding sequences in the cDNA library**

Of the 2,304 EST library clone sequences, 1,136 matched CDSs in the *D. melanogaster* genome representing 292 unique CDSs. The accepted sequences had an average E value of 4.5 × 10⁻⁶.

**Orthologs and functional categories**

Sequence similarity and reciprocal blast were used to identify putative orthologs in six *Drosophila* genomes: *D. simulans*, *D. melanogaster*, *D. sechellia*, *D. yakuba*, *D. erecta* and *D. ananassae*. Of the 292 genes identified from the library, 248 had identifiable orthologous genes in all six species (268 in at least four).

Gene function was investigated for all genes (292 genes in total; Table 1, Supplementary Table S1). Genes expressed in the seminal receptacle represented a diverse range of functional categories. The largest category consisted of genes of unknown function (41 genes). Other gene categories included signalling (19 genes), lipid/carbohydrate metabolism (24 genes), ion transport (15 genes), proteases (17 genes) and muscle contraction (14 genes). Additional categories include protease inhibitors, structural, transcription, detoxification/antioxidants and electron transport.

**Overrepresented gene categories**

Genes were clustered into functional categories (using molecular function, biological process and cellular component), and statistical measurements of overrepresentation were calculated. Statistically significant gene categories are those with a P value of less than 0.001. These categories include cytoskeletal proteins, signalling, transport, protease inhibitor, muscle contraction, organ development, ion and lipid particle. Two pathways (based on the KEGG metabolic pathway database) were also identified as being overrepresented. These pathways are cell communication and amino-sugar metabolism.

**Evolutionary analyses**

A total of 261 genes had identifiable orthologs in the *D. simulans* genome. Nonsynonymous and synonymous substitution rates were determined for each of the 261
Table 1 Seminal receptacle genes grouped by functional annotation.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Sp</th>
<th>TM</th>
<th>dN/dS</th>
<th>PAML</th>
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<tr>
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<td>41</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>12</td>
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<td>Lipid/carb metabolism</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
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<tr>
<td>Other transport</td>
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<td>5</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>8</td>
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<td>6</td>
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<td>17</td>
<td>9</td>
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<td>Ion transport</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>4</td>
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<tr>
<td>Defence/immunity</td>
<td>14</td>
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<td>Muscle contraction</td>
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<td>Binding</td>
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<tr>
<td>Receptor</td>
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<td>5</td>
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<td>3</td>
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<tr>
<td>Detox/antioxidant</td>
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<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
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<tr>
<td>Ribosomal protein</td>
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<tr>
<td>Protease inhibitor</td>
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<td>Translation</td>
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<tr>
<td>Reductase</td>
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<tr>
<td>Nerve transmission</td>
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<tr>
<td>mRNA catabolism</td>
<td>1</td>
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</table>

*Predicted function of encoded proteins.
†Number of genes.
‡Number of genes predicted to encode proteins that have secretion signal peptides.
§Number of genes predicted to encode proteins that have transmembrane domains.
¶Number of genes for which each functional category predicted to have secretion signal peptides and/or transmembrane domains.
**Number of genes for which each functional category predicted to have secretion signal peptides and/or transmembrane domains.

The number of genes from each category predicted to have secretion signal peptides and/or transmembrane domains is given. Evolutionary information including the number of genes having dN/dS values > 0.5 and predicted to be positively selected by site-model PAML analysis is listed.

D. melanogaster genes by comparing it with its ortholog in D. simulans. The average dN/dS ratio was 0.1357 ± 0.0095, with an average dN of 0.0304 and an average dS of 0.2530. In this comparison, 9 of the 261 genes (Fig. 1) have dN/dS higher than the 0.5 threshold adopted by Swanson et al. (2004).

The ‘site-model’ analysis in PAML was used to explore heterogeneity in dN/dS along the gene and to test for positive Darwinian selection (Table 1, Supplementary Table S1). These comparisons were restricted to the 268 genes for which sequences were available from at least four species. The first comparison examined the fit of data to M0 against M3. For 236 of the 268 genes, the fit of data to M3 was significantly better than M0, indicating heterogeneity of evolutionary rates along the gene for a high percentage of the genes analysed. Comparisons of M7 to M8 and M1 to M2 provided evidence for positive selection in 58 of 268 genes. Genes having elevated dN/dS ratios were examined for positive selection.

The branch-model analysis using PAML shows little variation among branch lengths. For example, there was little difference in the overall dN/dS averages based on the three phylogenetic trees varying the placement of D. yakuba and D. erecta. As an exception to this consistency, the branch leading to D. ananassae has, on average, the lowest dN/dS values because of increased dS (>1) for most genes. D. ananassae is the most distantly related species in the analysis. All data from PAML branch-model analysis is reported in Supplementary Table S2.

To obtain extended taxonomic insight into the evolution of spermathecal genes, the presence or absence of homologous genes was examined comparing D. melanogaster to 11 sequenced genomes (D. simulans, D. sechellia, D. yakuba, D. erecta, D. ananassae, D. pseudoobscura, D. persimilis, D. willistoni, D. mojavensis, D. virilis and D. grimshawi) (Supplementary Table S1). Possible species-specific duplications were found for a total of eleven genes across seven species (Supplementary Table S3).

Secretion signal sequence, transmembrane region prediction and evolutionary rates

Of the 292 genes examined, 86 (29%) are predicted to have secretion signal peptides and 53 (18%) predicted to have transmembrane regions (Table 1). Twenty of the genes predicted to have secretion signal peptides and
seven of the genes predicted to have transmembrane regions show evidence of positive selection (Supplementary Table S1).

**Discussion**

**Evolution**

Comparative molecular evolution

Genes were identified in the seminal receptacle, which exhibit rapid evolution, through the proportion of these genes is much less than that found in a similar study of the spermathecae (Prokupek et al., 2008). In a comparison of *D. melanogaster* and *D. simulans* sequences in the present study, there is an average \( d_\text{SN} \) of 0.0304 and an average \( d_\text{SF} \) of 0.2530. In this comparison, 9 of the 261 genes (Fig. 1) have \( d_\text{SN} / d_\text{SF} \) higher than the 0.5. In an analogous pairwise comparison, genes in the spermatheca had an average \( d_\text{SN} / d_\text{SF} \) ratio of 0.269 \( \pm \) 0.2932, with an average \( d_\text{SF} \) of 0.032 and an average \( d_\text{SN} \) of 0.119. The level of \( d_\text{SF} \) in the seminal receptacle is about twice that of the spermatheca, but this value is well within the 10-fold range of \( d_\text{SN} \) (0.2–2.0) observed in genes that have diverged between *D. melanogaster* and *D. simulans* (Powell & Moriyama, 1997). Of 42 genes, 10 had a \( d_\text{SN} / d_\text{SF} \) higher than the 0.5 (Prokupek et al., 2008), a significantly higher proportion \( (Z = 4.7, p < 0.01) \) than seen in the seminal receptacle. The distribution of \( d_\text{SN} / d_\text{SF} \) for the seminal receptacle genes compared to the spermathecae genes (Fig. 2) shows a marked difference. Specifically, the spermatheca distribution appears to be bimodal, with a small second mode comprised of rapidly evolving genes.

Tests of molecular evolution in a phylogenetic framework further support the pattern of differences in evolutionary dynamics between the two organs. Molecular evolution analyses using PAML indicates that 58 of 268 (21.6%) of seminal receptacle genes are evolving by positive selection in a subset of the codons (Supplementary table 1) by the acceptance of M8 over M7 and/or M2 over M1. Similar to what was observed using \( d_\text{SN} / d_\text{SF} \) pairwise comparisons, a significantly higher proportion \( (Z = 2.67, p < 0.01) \) of spermathecae genes (17 of 40; 42.5%) are evolving by positive selection using PAML analysis compared to genes of the seminal receptacle. Comparison of the genes in the seminal receptacle to other relevant studies shows that the proportion of genes evolving by positive selection in the seminal receptacle is high. From a sample of 25 seminal fluid genes, four (16%) exhibited positive selection by the acceptance of M8 over M7 (Haerty et al., 2007). The same study analysed 679 genes expressed in the reproductive tract of Drosophila and found 6.2% exhibited positive selection by PAML analysis.

Overall, the incidence of positive selection in the spermatheca is significantly higher than the seminal receptacle. Of the genes undergoing positive selection, there is a higher proportion encoding proteins with secretion signals and transmembrane domains in the spermatheca. This is potentially important because interaction between female and male reproductive protein interactions are hypothesized to underlie positive selection (Pitnick et al., 2009). Secreted female proteins, or those with transmembrane domains, are most likely to interact with male reproductive proteins transferred to the female.

Given the relatively small sample size of the spermatheca EST library compared to that of the seminal receptacle, there is some concern about sampling bias. One issue is whether the sample from the spermatheca library is representative of the transcript level distributions, although the use of normalized libraries should address this concern. To further address this issue, we compared the gene lists from the spermatheca EST library and the seminal receptacle EST library to gene expression data generated as part of a microarray study of the sperm storage organs of *Drosophila melanogaster* (Prokupek et al., 2009). Both libraries contain transcripts from a range of expression levels with uncommon transcripts represented in similar proportions.
Seminal receptacle genes expressed in other organs or tissues

Seminal receptacle genes could be expressed in other reproductive tissues and somatic tissues. Thus, the net effect of selection of genes found in the seminal receptacle library may not be due solely to expression in this organ. It is expected that the process of subtractive hybridization, as used in this study, will enrich the library with transcripts specifically expressed in the seminal receptacle rather than totally exclude genes that are expressed elsewhere. We found that genes expressed in the seminal receptacle overlap with genes expressed in the sperm storage organ. Our subtractive hybridization did not remove messages from male-specific genes unless they were present in the sperm. Overlap between female genes and those previously presumed to be male specific is interesting in terms of both function and evolution.

Seminal receptacle expression compared with other studies

In this study, a hybrid selected library was used and thus the genes identified are enriched for expression in this sperm storage organ. However, the genes can be expressed in other tissues and selection of them need not be due only to the role of the encoded protein in the seminal receptacle. In this section, the expression of these genes in other places in the body is considered, but a comprehensive analysis of expression in other tissues will be made in a different study.

Comparison with the spermatheca EST library

Seven seminal receptacle genes (CG8331, Treh, Act57B, CG10469, Drs, TspEl and Qm) overlap with genes in the spermatheca EST library (Prokupek et al., 2008). Four of these genes show evidence for positive selection in both studies (CG8331, Act57B, Treh and Qm) based on the analysis using the PAML site model; none show elevated \( \delta_s/\delta_D \) in the pairwise comparison between D. melanogaster and D. simulans. Different splice forms of genes have been observed in the two sperm storage organs (Treh-PF and Zm-PA in the seminal receptacle as well as Treh-PC Om-PA in the spermatheca).

Comparison with the sperm proteome

Although it is generally accepted that sperm are in an inactive transcriptional state, studies involving human have found a small number of mRNAs to be present in ejaculated sperm (reviewed in Miller, 2000). The suggestion is that the mRNAs are not from ongoing transcription within the mature sperm cells, but remnants of stored mRNA from spermatogenesis. The mRNA could be a nonfunctional remnant, but one argument in place is that stored mRNA may be used during the initial steps of fertilization and may contribute to paternal imprinting (Braude et al., 1988; Siffroi & Dadoune, 2001). Additionally, during the process of capacitation and acrosome reaction, low levels of transcription have been reported in mature sperm cells (Miteva et al., 1995; Naz, 1998; Lambard et al., 2004).

Four genes (Acp5C, dp, sesB and Cp-P60A) identified in the seminal receptacle library overlap with those identified as part of the sperm proteome (Karr, 2007). Act5C is related to the cytoskeleton and has been noted to play a role in sperm individualization; dp is a transcription factor; sesB is involved in ADP transport (ion transport); and Ca-P60A is an ATPase involved in calcium ion homoeostasis (ion transport). Three of these genes (dp, Act5C and sesB) are predicted to be evolving under positive selection by PAML analysis. The fourth gene Ca-P60A had no predicted orthologs in other Drosophila species thus preventing evolutionary analysis. The lack of orthologs in other species, however, indirectly suggests a gene evolving by positive selection. It is likely that these genes are expressed in the seminal receptacle, but it is possible that the mRNA came from stored sperm. Sperm are also present in the ST, so the process of subtractive hybridization used to create the seminal receptacle library should have eliminated the cDNAs from mRNA found in sperm. One hypothesis is that proteins essential to sperm function, which are produced in male structures such as the testis or epididymis where sperm are held, are also produced by the female in the seminal receptacle. As such, proteins expressed in the seminal receptacle may overlap those identified as part of the sperm proteome and seminal fluid/accessory gland proteome. For example, Ca-P60A is an ATPase involved in calcium ion homoeostasis and could play a role in preventing premature capacitation of the sperm. The lipid and carbohydrate metabolism genes could be providing an eternal energy source.

Comparison with seminal fluid proteins/accessory gland proteins

Genes present in the seminal receptacle cDNA library can be compared to seminal proteins including the well-studied accessory gland proteins (Acps). In Drosophila, males pass to the female proteins at the time of mating a number of proteins which elicit a series of post-mating responses. Acps are responsible for triggering changes in female reproductive morphology and muscle contractions necessary for sperm to enter storage organs (Adams & Wolfner, 2007). Many of these proteins are produced in the male accessory gland. Approximately 112 male accessory gland proteins (Acps) have now been identified. A subset of these Acps have been characterized in terms of their localization within the female, effects they have on the post-mated female, as well as their evolutionary rates. Nine Acps localize in the sperm storage organs (Peng et al., 2005; Ravi-Ram & Wolfner, 2005). Acps have been implicated in the displacement of previous male’s sperm (5 Acps), as well as the defence of stored sperm against displacement (7 Acps) (Clark et al., 1998).
et al., 1995; Fiumera et al., 2005; Ravi-Ram & Wolfner, 2007). Four Acps are suggested to decrease the longevity of mated females (Acp62F, Sex Peptide, CG8137 and CG10433), two of which are protease inhibitors (reviewed in Ravi-Ram & Wolfner, 2007) and three of which enter the sperm storage organs (Ravi-Ram & Wolfner, 2005). Male seminal fluid proteins (SFPs) that are found in sperm storage organs and proteins on stored sperm are prime candidates to interact with female proteins secreted by the sperm storage organs or those female proteins on sperm storage organ membranes. A high percentage of Acps have evolved rapidly (Swanson & Vacquier, 2002; Haerty et al., 2007; Wong et al., 2008), and this elevated rate of evolution may be attributed to interactions with female reproductive proteins (Rice, 1996; Pitnick et al., 2003).

In the present study, the list of seminal receptacle genes was compared to a list of SFPs which included accessory gland proteins (Acps). The male protein list was synthesized from the supplementary data from Findlay et al. (2008) and Ravi-Ram & Wolfner (2007), and included 112 accessory gland protein genes, and an additional 82 SFPs. Comparing the seminal receptacle to the SFP lists, there was a total of 12 common genes (5 Acps). The genes included two of unknown function, two involved in lipid/carbohydrate metabolism, two involved in defence and immunity (a protease inhibitor and a signalling gene), two hydrolases, a gene involved in cell adhesion, an isomerase and a structural gene involved in chitin binding. Esterase-6 (Est-6), a serine hydrolase, is recognized as a SFP with specific expression in the male ejaculatory bulb. Est-6 has been reported in previous studies as affecting both sperm storage and use in female Drosophila (Richmond et al., 1980; Gilbert, 1981; Bloch-Qazi & Wolfner, 2003).

Two genes were suggested to play a role in spermatogenesis using GO classifications that were not identified in the sperm proteome or recognized as a seminal fluid protein. Poe is a ligase involved in spermatogenesis and motility and Yuri plays a role in actin and tubulin structures of spermatogenesis and locomotion. The overlap observed with the seminal fluid or accessory gland proteins is an interesting observation especially given that Sfps/Acps are transferred to the female after translation. One possibility is the SFPs have co-opted female sperm storage organ functions to manipulate sperm storage and use. The idea is that female proteins regulate female aspects of reproduction. However, if males express and transfer these proteins to females at the time of mating, then males can manipulate female reproduction in the interest of males.

Functional categories of genes in the seminal receptacle

In addition to evolutionary considerations, the present study provides insight into genes enriched for expression in the seminal receptacle that could be playing an important role in how this organ functions.

Immune response

Immune response genes are an important category of genes in the seminal receptacle, not only because of the functional role they are likely to play during the reproductive process, but also because host–pathogen co-evolution may be one of the forces leading to the rapid evolution of reproductive proteins. De Gregorio et al. (2001) and Irving et al. (2001) performed microarray analyses on D. melanogaster after immune challenge (bacterial or fungal) and generated lists of genes classified as immune response genes. By comparing the seminal receptacle library genes with the immune response genes identified in the microarray studies we were able to classify 14 seminal receptacle genes as immunity/defence related. Six additional genes, not identified in the DIRG comparison, were classified as “involved in immunity and defence” using GO searches. In total, 20 putative defence/immunity genes (7 per cent of the identified seminal receptacle genes) were identified in the seminal receptacle.

Lipid/Carbohydrate metabolism

Lipid and carbohydrate metabolism genes made up the largest functional group in the seminal receptacle. Genes encoding two glycosyltransferases (CG17323 and CG11289) and two glycosidases (Trehalose (Treh) and hexoaminidase 2 (Hexo2) were present in the seminal receptacle library. These enzymes hydrolyse terminal sugar residues in different glycoconjugates. Glycosidases and glycosyltransferases have been found in several animal studies and have predicted roles in sperm–egg interactions. They form complexes with oligosaccharide substrates on the egg coats in noncatalytic conditions (Shur, 1989). In mammals, these enzymes facilitate the surface modification of spermatozoa to enhance sperm–egg interactions (Tulsiani et al., 1998; Zitta et al., 2006). N-Acetyl-α-glucosaminidase (NAG), also known as hexosaminidase, is found in fluids surrounding sperm and may prevent the initiation of premature acrosomal reaction by binding to glucosamine which triggers the acrosome reaction process (Brandelli et al., 1994).

Secreted glycosidases have been discovered in male (including Drosophila) reproductive tracts (Hall et al., 1992; Barbieri et al., 1995; Cattaneo et al., 2002; Intra et al., 2006) and have suggested involvement in the modification of sperm surface glycoproteins and sperm maturation. Three distinct glycosidases (two B-N-acetylhexoaminidase isoforms HEX1 and HEX2 and α-mannosidase) have been characterized in male D. melanogaster (Cattaneo et al., 2002). Both HEX1 and HEX2 are heterodimers orthologous to mammalian isoenzyme A and B, respectively (Cattaneo et al., 2002).

One carbohydrate metabolism gene found in the seminal receptacle library has activity which is associated
with sperm function in humans. Gene CG14478 found in the seminal receptacle EST library has alpha-glucosidase activity. In humans, Alpha-glucosidase activity is positively correlated with motility and sperm forward progression (Viljoen et al., 1990; Elzanaty et al., 2002). Additional roles for carbohydrate/lipid metabolism genes could include breaking down complex energy sources to be utilized by sperm in storage. Lipid metabolism genes could participate in the remodelling of the phospholipids membrane of the sperm for quiescence or capacitation.

Protease inhibitors
A total of nine protease inhibitors were identified in the seminal receptacle library. This category of genes was found to be significantly over-represented in the genes expressed in the seminal receptacle. Protease inhibitors are known to be important molecules in reproduction. For example, the absence or mutation of protease inhibitors in the seminal fluid impairs fertility in mammals such as mice (lacking protease nexin-1) (Murer et al., 2001) and humans (lacking protein C inhibitor) (He et al., 1999). Inhibitors in the seminal fluid have been proposed to: (i) protect and regulate the reproductive tract and SFPs (induction of capacitation, release from oviductal storage). Six odorant-binding proteins are among the SFPs transferred to the female (Findlay et al., 2008). The genes could play a role in male–female communication, similar to mammalian odorant receptors. Four genes expressed in the seminal receptacle had odorant-related functions, one odorant receptor (Or47a) and three odorant binding (Obp57a, CG1124 and CG13027). These female odorant proteins could present a mechanism for chemical guidance cues, ensuring the proper direction of sperm post-insemination. Further, odorant binding/receptors may play a role in the recognition of sperm and in this way may function as mechanisms for cryptic female choice.

Mechanical cues (Muscle contraction)
The *Drosophila* female reproductive tract, including the sperm storage organs, is integrated with muscle tissue. Rhythmic contractions have been observed in the ova-rioles, peritoneal sheath, oviduct and spermathecae in correlation with egg movement and ovipositioning (Middleton et al., 2006). The seminal receptacle is surrounded by a layer of visceral muscle (Blaney, 1970; Filosi & Perotti, 1975). Implications for muscular contraction have been suggested in female-mediated sperm storage as well as displacement in a variety of invertebrate taxa (Haase & Baer, 1995; Arthur et al., 1998; Hellriegel & Bernasconi, 2000). Flour beetles require female muscle contraction for sperm storage to be successful ((Bloch-Qazi et al., 1998; Fedina & Lewis, 2004). Acps may stimulate muscles in the female’s lower reproductive tract to contract and relax, facilitating the movement of the sperm mass towards storage sites, as well as exposing the openings of these sites (Adams & Wollner, 2007). Vesicle release in lower reproductive tract nerve termini modulated by Acps could also mediate muscular contraction/release (Heifetz & Wollner, 2004).

A total of 16 genes were found in the seminal receptacle library which play a role in muscle contraction. One of these genes (Prm) is predicted to play a role in defence/immunity, and a second (Mp20) is predicted to play a role in detoxification. Muscle contraction genes may play a role in the entrance into and the release from the seminal receptacle.

NADPH oxidase (dNOX) was found in the current study, which has been previously identified as a regulator of smooth muscle contraction in *Drosophila* (Ritsick et al., 2010).
Conclusions

This study focused on sperm storage organs, which have been understudied in terms of evolution and categorization of protein function. The genes expressed in the seminal receptacle are evolving at rates higher than that of general reproductive proteins, but lower than that of the spermatheca. Thus, the evolutionary pressures operating in these two organs appear to be quite different, despite their similar role in reproduction (sperm storage). Overrepresented gene categories in the seminal receptacle include muscle contraction, immunity, odorant binding/receptors and protease inhibitors. Muscle contraction and odorant binding/receptors may play a major role in the proper direction of sperm within the female. Although further research needs to be carried out to characterize male–female interactions, it is plausible that protease inhibitors interact directly with male proteases transferred in the seminal fluid and that these interactions may result in sexually antagonistic co-evolution. In general, this study provides unique information about the evolution of genes expressed in sperm storage organs and about categories of genes that could play an important role in the function of the seminal receptacle.

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**Supporting information**

Additional supporting information may be found in the online version of this article.

**Table S1** Gene identification numbers for *D. melanogaster*. *D. melanogaster* CG and FB gene identification numbers; Function of predicted proteins; Secretion Signal prediction; Transmembrane region prediction; Pairwise dν/dσ; PAML data; Presence of orthologs in 12 genomes.

**Table S2** Gene identification numbers for *D. simulans* and *D. melanogaster*. Pairwise dν/dσ; PAML branch-model data.

**Table S3** Species-specific gene duplications.

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