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# Revised Annotations, Sex-Biased Expression, and Lineage-Specific Genes in the Drosophila melanogaster Group

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ABSTRACT Here, we provide revised gene models for D. ananassae, D. yakuba, and D. simulans, which include untranslated regions and empirically verified intron-exon boundaries, as well as ortholog groups identified using a fuzzy reciprocal-best-hit blast comparison. Using these revised annotations, we perform differential expression testing using the cufflinks suite to provide a broad overview of differential expression between reproductive tissues and the carcass. We identify thousands of genes that are differentially expressed across tissues in D. yakuba and D. simulans, with roughly 60% agreement in expression patterns of orthologs in D. yakuba and D. simulans. We identify several cases of putative polycistronic transcripts, pointing to a combination of transcriptional read-through in the genome as well as putative gene fusion and fission events across taxa. We furthermore identify hundreds of lineage specific genes in each species with no blast hits among transcripts of any other Drosophila species, which are candidates for neofunctionalized proteins and a potential source of genetic novelty.

**KEYWORDS** 

gene annotation sex-specific gene expression polycistronic genes gene fusion D. simulans D. yakuba D. ananassae

Accurate models of gene structure including untranslated regions (UTRs), intron-exon boundaries, as well as coding sequences are essential for proper interpretation of molecular genetics (Fire et al. 1998, Jinek et al. 2012), demographic inference (Halligan and Keightley 2006, Parsch et al. 2010, Clemente and Vogl 2012), tests of selection (Mcdonald and Kreitman 1991), and comparative genomics (Chen et al. 2014). The Drosophila offer an excellent model for comparative genomics, with high-quality sequenced genomes for 12 species(Drosophila Twelve Genomes Consortium 2007) as well as draft genomes for an additional eight species (Chen et al. 2014) spanning a total of 63 million years (Tamura et al. 2004). Previous gene models provided for the 12 Drosophila genomes focused on gene prediction with the aid of homology to establish putative annotations of coding sequences

across taxa with  $15,000-16,000$  genes for most species (Drosophila Twelve Genomes Consortium 2007). These gene models produce reliable annotations for conserved genes as well as genes that are present in multiple species but will lack lineage specific genes where sources of genetic novelty add to the genome, will misidentify rapidly evolving sequences, and will neglect isoforms that may offer alternative molecular functions.

Recent work has validated gene models in D. melanogaster through cross-species comparisons (Chen et al. 2014). Although aligned CDS sequences often display patterns of expression consistent with conservation, gene structure varies across taxa at UTRs, introns, and noncoding DNA (Chen et al. 2014). Furthermore, any gene families and functional classes subject to rapid evolution in gene structure that is unlikely to be reflected in homology-based annotations (Wasbrough et al. 2010) and de novo genes also will be absent, despite their role in developing functional diversity (Zhao et al. 2014).

Beyond the evolution of gene structure, expression patterns of genes across tissues is expected to influence their evolutionary constraints and rates of sequence evolution (Van Dyken and Wade 2010) as well as their functional roles within the organism. Sex-biased genes are often rapidly evolving (Ranz et al. 2003; Ellegren and Parsch 2007), especially among male reproductive proteins (Haerty et al. 2007; Zhang et al. 2007; Meisel 2011). Moreover, sex-specific expression patterns can influence the extent to which genes contribute to sexual antagonism, influencing their role in the evolution of sexual

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dimorphism Mank et al. (2008). Correctly identifying sex-specific and tissue specific expression is therefore essential for studying the molecular and evolutionary impacts of genes within species. Changes in tissue specific or sex-specific expression may point to rapid evolution of gene functions and candidate loci to search for signals of evolutionary change and differential selective effects between the sexes.

Here, we describe RNA-seq based gene annotations for Drosophila outgroup species D. simulans, D. yakuba, and D. ananassae based on whole transcriptome sequencing of male and female adult tissues. These revised gene models capture hundreds of lineage-specific genes on major chromosomal arms in D. yakuba and D. simulans. We also describe 5' and 3' UTRs, and intron-exon structure for genes throughout the D. melanogaster group. Finally, we describe sex-biased expression across species, identifying thousands of genes that are differentially expressed across tissues. These revised gene models as well as results of sex-biased and tissue-biased differential expression testing should serve as a resource for the Drosophila evolutionary and molecular genetics community interested in evolution, conservation, and gene expression.

# MATERIALS AND METHODS

# Sample preparation

Fly stocks were incubated under controlled conditions at 25° and ~40% humidity. Virgin flies were collected within 2 hr of eclosion, then aged  $2-5$  d posteclosion before dissection. We dissected samples in isotonic Ringers solution using female ovaries and headless gonadectomized carcass from two adult flies as well as testes plus glands and male headless gonadectomized carcass for four adult flies for each sample RNA prep. We collected three biological replicates of the D. yakuba reference, three biological replicates of the D. simulans  $w^{501}$ reference, and one replicate of the D. ananassae reference and one replicate of the D. melanogaster reference (stock numbers in Table 1). Samples were flash frozen in liquid nitrogen immediately after dissection, and and stored in 0.2 mL of Trizol at  $-80^\circ$ . All samples were homogenized in 0.5 mL of Trizol Reagent (Invitrogen) with plastic pestle in a 1.5-mL tube, mixed with 0.1 mL of chloroform, and centrifuged 12,000g for 15 min at 4°C, as Trizol RNA extraction protocol. The RNAs in the supernatant about 0.4 mL were then collected and purified with Direct-Zol RNA MiniPrep Kit (Zymo), following the standard protocol. The total RNAs were eluted in 65  $\mu$ L of RNase-Free H<sub>2</sub>O. Approximately 1  $\mu$ g of purified RNAs were treated with  $2 \mu L$  of Turbo DNase (Invitrogen) in a 65- $\mu L$  reaction, incubated for 15 min at room temperature with gentle shaking. These RNAs were further purified with RNA Clean and Concentrator-5 (Zymo). One extra wash with fresh 80% ethanol after the final wash step was added into the original protocol. The treated RNAs were eluted with 15  $\mu$ L of RNAse-Free H<sub>2</sub>O, and stored at  $-80^\circ$ .

The amplified cDNAs were prepared from 100 ng of DNase treated RNA with Ovation RNA-Seq System V2 (Nugen) and modified protocol. The preparations followed the protocol to the step of SPIA Amplification (Single Primer Isothermal Amplification). The amplified cDNAs were first purified with Purelink PCR Purification

■ Table 1 Fly stocks used for RNA-seq

<b>Species</b>	Strain
D. melanogaster	14021-0231.36
D. simulans	$M^{501}$
D. yakuba	14021-0261.01
D. ananassae	14024-0371.13

Kit (Invitrogen, HC Binding Buffer) and eluted in  $100 \mu L$  of EB (Invitrogen). These cDNAs were purified again to  $25 \mu L$  of Buffer EB with DNA Clean and Concentrator -5 Kit (Zymo) for Nextera library preparation. About 43 ng of cDNA was used to construct libraries with Nextera DNA Sample Preparation Kit (Illumina) and modified protocol. After tagmentation, a Purelink PCR Purification Kit with HC Binding Buffer was used for purification and eluted with  $30\mu$ L of EB or H<sub>2</sub>O. The products (libraries) of final polymerase chain reaction (PCR) amplification were purified with DNA Clean and Concentractor-5 and eluted in 20  $\mu$ L of EB. The average library lengths of approximately 500 bp were estimated from profiles on a Bioanalyzer 2100 (Agilent) with DNA HS Assay. All libraries were normalized to  $2-10$  nM based on the real-time PCR method with Kapa Library Quant Kits (Kapa Biosystems). The qualities and quantities of these RNAs, cDNAs and final libraries were measured from Bioanalyzer with the Qubit RNA HS or DNA HS Assay Kit (Invitrogen) with RNA HS or DNA HS Reagents, respectively. Samples were barcoded and sequenced using 76-bp reads in 4-plex on an Illumina HiSequation 2500 using standard Illumina barcodes, resulting in high coverage ([Figure S1,](http://www.g3journal.org/content/suppl/2014/10/01/g3.114.013532.DC1/013532SI.pdf) [Figure S2](http://www.g3journal.org/content/suppl/2014/10/01/g3.114.013532.DC1/013532SI.pdf), [Figure S3,](http://www.g3journal.org/content/suppl/2014/10/01/g3.114.013532.DC1/013532SI.pdf) [Figure S4,](http://www.g3journal.org/content/suppl/2014/10/01/g3.114.013532.DC1/013532SI.pdf) [Figure S5](http://www.g3journal.org/content/suppl/2014/10/01/g3.114.013532.DC1/013532SI.pdf), [Figure](http://www.g3journal.org/content/suppl/2014/10/01/g3.114.013532.DC1/013532SI.pdf) [S6](http://www.g3journal.org/content/suppl/2014/10/01/g3.114.013532.DC1/013532SI.pdf)). Coverage in RNA-seq data is dependent on expression level, but the majority of sites have coverage less than 50 reads. One replicate of female tissues was sequenced using single end reads. All other libraries were sequenced using paired end reads and dual indexing. Samples were sequenced as they became available, across the equivalent of one eight lane flow cell for the 32 samples in total.

### Trinity and Augustus gene annotation

RNA sequencing data for ovary, female carcass, testes, and male carcass of D. yakuba, D. simulans, and D. ananassae were concatenated into a single fastq file and digitally normalized to remove excess redundant reads for highly expressed transcripts. This step results in tractable runtimes with no loss of information in transcript annotations. We ran Trinity [\(http://trinityrnaseq.sourceforge.net/;](http://trinityrnaseq.sourceforge.net/) Grabherr et al. 2011; Haas et al. 2013). For a single sample:

- 1. FASTQ files for left and right reads were concatenated.
- 2. The concatanated files were subject to "digital normalization" using the following command in the Trinity package:
- normalize by kmer coverage.pl --seqType fa --JM 100G --max\_cov 30 --left left.fa

--right right.fa --pairs together --PARALLEL STATS --JELLY\_CPU \$CORES

where \$CORES is how many CPU we had available

1. The resulting normalized left and right fastq files where then used in the following command: Trinity.pl --seqType fa --bflyHeapSpaceInit 1G --bflyHeapSpaceMax 8G --JM 7G --left \$LEFTFILE --right \$RIGHTFILE --output trinity\_output

where the variables are the normalized fastq files and the number of cores available.

1. Further detail is at [https://github.com/ThorntonLab/annotation\\_](https://github.com/ThorntonLab/annotation_methods) [methods](https://github.com/ThorntonLab/annotation_methods)

The resulting annotations were used as input in the Augustus v2.5.5 gene prediction software <http://bioinf.uni-greifswald.de/augustus/> with command line options

--species=fly --hintsfile=\$INFILE\_BASE.hints.E.gff --extrinsicCfgFile=augustus.2.5.5/config/extrinsic/ extrinsic.ME.cfg \$INFILE --gff3=on --uniqueGeneId=  $true$  >  $SINFILE$  BASE.gff3

# Alignment and annotation

We matched Augustus gene models to previous annotations from FlyBase r1.3 for D. ananassae, and D. yakuba, or to the D. simulans  $w^{501}$  reference annotations. CDS sequences were required to physically overlap with the location of a current FlyBase or  $w^{501}$  gene model and were required to have matches to 85% or more CDS sequence with 90% or greater amino acid similarity in an all-by-all BLASTp of translated sequences at a cutoff of  $E \leq 10^{-10}$  with low-complexity filters turned off (-F F). We mapped RNA-seq data to known gene models annotated in FlyBase, D. yakuba r1.3, D. ananassae r1.3, D. melanogaster r.5.45, and the *D. simulans*  $w^{501}$  gene models annotated by Hu *et al.* (2012). GFF Files were reformatted using gffread from Cufflinks suite. Sequences were mapped to the genome using Tophat v.2.0.6 (Trapnell et al. 2009, Kim et al. 2013) and Bowtie2 v.2.0.2 (Langmead et al. 2009), using reference annotations as a guide, with no attempt to identify novel transcripts using reads which fell outside reference annotations (-G) and all other parameters set to default. We used Cufflinks 2.0.2 (Trapnell et al. 2012) to calculate expression levels across genes and transcripts, normalizing expression by the upper quantile (-N) and ignoring reads which fall outside known gene models (-G) with all other options set to default. Orphaned gene models from FlyBase or from Hu et al. (2012) which had fragments per kilo bases of exons for per million mapped read (FPKM)  $\geq$ 2 but which had no assembled gene model match from Augustus were included in the final annotations used for differential expression testing. Some annotations contain polycistronic transcripts encompassing multiple independent open reading frames. A portion of these polycistronic transcripts may reflect only low-level polycistronic transcription, rather than polycistronic transcripts serving as the dominant isoforms but the rate of polycistronic transcription cannot be readily determined with available data. For genes with polycistronic transcripts but no 1:1 transcript match with FlyBase gene models, we included annotations for both the polycistronic Augustus gene models and the gene models from FlyBase supporting independent transcripts.

### Sex-bias and tissue bias

The union of gene models from Augustus and orphaned gene models from FlyBase were combined into a single GFF containing transcript and CDS annotations for each species. We then re-mapped RNAseq reads to gene models in the reannotated GFF for D. yakuba, D. ananassae, and D. simulans, as well as unmodified gene models for D. melanogaster r.5.45 with Tophat and performed differential expression testing at a false discovery rate  $\leq 0.1$  normalizing expression by the upper quantile (-N) and ignoring reads that fall outside known gene models (-G) with all other options set to default using the Cufflinks suite according to the same criteria described previously. We compared female carcass with female ovaries, male carcass with male testes, female carcass with male carcass, and female ovaries with male testes for each species, grouping replicates for reference genomes.

# Orthologs and lineage specific genes

Orthologs were identified using fuzzy reciprocal best hit BLASTp comparisons of all translations across reference genomes for gene model predictions of D. ananassae, D. yakuba, D. simulans, as well as D. melanogaster. Orthologs are similar to those previously used to annotate gene families in Drosophila (Drosophila Twelve Genomes Consortium 2007, Hahn et al. 2007). Putative orthologs must be putative reciprocal hits of the same rank order, where genes with an E-value within a single log-unit of one another are assigned the same

rank, using the best E-Value for a gene with a cutoff of  $E \le 10^{-10}$ . Lineage-specific genes were defined as genes with no hit in an all-byall BLASTp of translations against translations of the other outgroups (e.g., D. yakuba, D. ananassae, and D. melanogaster for D. simulans) at a cutoff of  $E \le 10^{-10}$  with low-complexity filters turned off (-F F).

# Gene ontology

We used DAVID gene ontology analysis software [http://david.abcc.](http://david.abcc.ncifcrf.gov/) [ncifcrf.gov/](http://david.abcc.ncifcrf.gov/) to determine whether any functional categories were overrepresented among genes with sex specific or tissue specific expression. Functional data for *D. ananassae*, *D. yakuba*, and *D. simulans* are not readily available in many cases, and thus we identified functional classes in the D. melanogaster orthologs as classified in Flybase. Gene ontology clustering threshold was set to Low. Genes with tissue specific expression were based on genes with differential expression from cufflinks for comparisons of female carcass vs. female ovaries and male carcass vs. male testes at a genomewide false discovery rate  $\leq$ 0.10, according to cufflinks default settings.

Expression of Adh in Female Carcass



Figure 1 Quantile-normalized coverage for reference strains at the Adh locus in D. yakuba. Coverage shows clear distinctions between introns and exons, and coverage that spans both 5' and 3' UTRs in ovaries and carcass. Low coverage of intron sequence points to partial sequencing of low levels of unprocessed transcripts. Top, carcass; bottom, ovaries.

# Data access

Gene annotations, ortholog calls, gene ontology calls, and Cuffdiff differential expression testing output files for all samples are available at [http://github.com/ThorntonLab/GFF.](http://github.com/ThorntonLab/GFF) RNA-seq-based annotations as well as first=order orthologs in comparison with D. melanogaster can be viewed in the UCSC browser on the Thornton Lab public track hub at <http://genome.ucsc.edu>. Sequencing fastq files were deposited in SRA with accession numbers PRJNA196536, PRJNA193071, PRJNA257286, and PRJNA257287.

# RESULTS

# Annotations

For moderately to highly expressed genes, we recover gene structure with intron-exon boundaries and UTR sequences for full-length transcripts including novel exons that were previously unannotated based on comparative genomics (Figure 1 and Figure 2). Many genes are part of polycistronic transcripts including one from D. melanogaster. We identify 2529 putative polycistronic transcripts in D. yakuba, 2379 in D. ananassae, and 561 in D. simulans. For such genes, we offer gene models from FlyBase as well as fused models from Augustus. The extent to which such transcription of multiple genes is functional as opposed to a stochastic byproduct of transcriptional errors is unclear. We also include FlyBase gene models expressed in the reference genomes with no 1:1 match in gene models from Augustus. The addition of FlyBase gene models results in an additional 4265 annotations in D. yakuba, 5367 in D. ananassae, and 7419 in D. simulans. We identify a total of 22,989 transcripts for 16,278 genes in D. simulans, 20,315 transcripts for 17,579 genes in D. yakuba, and 22,420 transcripts for 20,580 genes in D. ananassae (Table 2). Compared with D. yakuba, for D. ananassae an additional 1173 FlyBase gene models failed to match sufficiently well with RNA-seq supported gene models and these were added to the annotations, explaining some of the excess in the number of genes and also highlighting the difficulties of annotation through comparative genomics across large phylogenetic distances. In D. ananassae, 72% of gene models have RNA-seq data supporting 60% or more gene features (exons, UTRs) compared with 79.4% in D. yakuba and 80.1% in D. simulans (Table 3).

As defined by a fuzzy reciprocal best-hit blast (Drosophila Twelve Genomes Consortium 2007, Hahn et al. 2007) we identify 12,127 genes in D. melanogaster with first-order orthologs in D. simulans, 11,425 with first-order orthologs in D. yakuba, and 11,348 with firstorder orthologs in D. ananassae (Table 4). The increase in the number



Figure 2 Quantile-normalized RNA-seq data for three replicates of the D. yakuba reference with an example of FlyBase gene model (white) and revised gene model (gray).

#### ■ Table 2 Number of transcripts and genes identified



of genes with orthologs in D. simulans is the product of improved annotations as well as the improved assembly of the  $w^{501}$  D. simulans reference (Hu et al. 2012). We observe a 1:1 concordance for 48% of FlyBase gene models in D. yakuba and 46% of FlyBase gene models for D. ananassae. These annotations typically include UTR sequences in addition to empirically supported intron-exon and coding sequence boundaries, an improvement over previous gene models from release r1.3 which lack UTRs (Drosophila Twelve Genomes Consortium 2007). We further identify thousands of lineage specific genes in each species of Drosophila with no matching gene model in other outgroup species. Although lineage-specific genes identified on minor chromosomes could result from assembly issues, we identify hundreds on major chromosomal arms (Table 5), suggesting that many of these are in fact cases of lineage-specific gene formation.

### Sex-biased and tissue-biased expression

We observe thousands of genes with sex-biased or tissue-biased expression in *D. yakuba* and *D. simulans* but hundreds of genes with sexbiased or tissue-biased expression in D. melanogaster and D. ananassae, a direct product of increasing power to detect differences in RNA levels with biological replicates. Gene ontology categories overrepresented between ovary and female carcass reflect differences in genes involved in reproduction, chromosome segregation, and DNA synthesis or repair, whereas genes differentially expressed between testes and carcass reflect sperm development, cell division, and energy production ([Supporting Information](http://www.g3journal.org/content/suppl/2014/10/01/g3.114.013532.DC1/013532SI.pdf), [File S1\)](http://www.g3journal.org/content/suppl/2014/10/01/g3.114.013532.DC1/FileS1.zip). We used reciprocal best hit orthologs to identify genes with similar regulation across species, focusing on D. yakuba and D. simulans where biological replicates increase power for differential expression testing (Table 6). A total of 10,369 genes in D. yakuba have reciprocal best-hit orthologs in D. simulans and were retained to compare differential expression across the two species. We have collected replicates for both *D. yakuba* and *D. simulans*, contributing to the greater power in differential expression testing. Roughly 60% of genes with tissue biased expression in D. yakuba that have a reciprocal best hit ortholog in D. simulans exhibit the same tissuespecific bias in *D. simulans*, with marginally greater agreement in genes biased toward the carcass than the reproductive tissues in both males and females (Figure 3). We additionally observe evidence of differential expression in at least one of the four comparisons of male and female germline or somatic tissues for 118 lineage specific genes in D. ananassae, 334 in D. yakuba, and 222 in D. simulans (Table 5), suggesting that they are not solely artifacts of gene annotation software.

■ Table 3 Percent of revised gene models with  $\geq$  60% of features supported by RNA-seq data

<b>Species</b>	<b>Percent Suported</b>
D. ananassae	72.3
D. yakuba	79.4
D. simulans	80.05

#### ■ Table 4 Genes with a first-order ortholog identified



# **DISCUSSION**

# Gene models and ortholog calls

Correct interpretations of gene expression changes and gene family evolution depend on accurate gene models. Among the Drosophila, D. melanogaster has received the most attention with empirically verified gene annotations through high-throughput expressed sequence tags and RNA-seq data as well as detailed manual or molecular curation of single genes. Until present, gene models for outgroup species offer only CDS sequences, with no information concerning 5' or 3' UTRs or alternative isoforms even for well-studied genes such as [Adh](http://flybase.org/reports/FBgn0000055.html). Establishing more complete gene models based on RNA-seq data will allow us to correctly identify coding and noncoding sequences during functional assays, correctly identify putatively neutral vs. non-neutral mutations, and correctly define new mutations including the origins of new genes, expansion of gene families, and gross modification of coding sequences through rearrangement, duplication, and deletion. Moreover, identifying putative isoforms provides a more complete portrait of gene structure and function across species. Here, we provide updated gene annotations based on high coverage RNA-seq data for the reference genomes of three species of Drosophila: D. ananassae, D. yakuba, and D. simulans, which should serve as an excellent springboard and initial resource to the Drosophila molecular and evolutionary genetic community.

Additionally, lineage specific genes are unlikely to be identified in previous annotation efforts that focused largely on conserved amino

### ■ Table 5 Putative Lineage Specific Genes on Major Chromosomes



acid sequences. With RNA-seq annotations we can identify lineage specific genes, which are expected to be important in the evolution of genomes and emergence of genetic novelty. The increased power to identify genes independently from conservation is a major step toward studying the evolution of genome content and rapidly evolving gene sequences. The ability to identify transcribed genes independently from conservation will facilitate evolutionary and functional analyses of the most rapidly changing segments of the genome. There may be additional gene models and isoforms in other tissue types or time points, which deserves to be explored. Particularly, these annotations are unlikely to reflect the full diversity of sequences and isoforms expressed during embryonic development postfertilization, pupal development, or in larvae. These alternative time points deserve future exploration and the gene models offered here will serve as a lower bound on the full diversity of sequences that are transcribed within each species.

# Polycistronic genes

We observe thousands of putatively polycistronic annotations in D. ananassae and D. yakuba, as well as hundreds in D. simulans  $w^{501}$ where fewer gene model annotations were previously aligned and power to identify polycistronic genes is limited. In D. melanogaster, hundreds of genes are known to show signs of polycistronic transcription (Lin et al. 2007), offering a means of co-regulation across genes with similar functions (Blumenthal 1998; Slone et al. 2007). With very high sequencing coverage, we are able to recover a greater number of polycistronic transcripts, though some of these may be false positives resulting from annotation algorithms. Some genes may differ in the frequency with which they are transcribed as polycistronic vs. independent transcripts, but these results imply that at least low levels of polycistronic transcription may be common for many genes in the genome and future validation may explore the extent of their functionality. [Adh](http://flybase.org/reports/FBgn0000055.html) and [Adhr](http://flybase.org/reports/FBgn0000056.html) show evidence of differing polycistronic status









across Drosophila species (Betran and Ashburner 2000) and plant genomes are thought to split and fuse genes at rates of roughly  $10^{-11}-10^{-10}$  per gene per year (Nakamura et al. 2007). Switching the rates at which genes are cotranscribed has the potential to alter regulatory patterns across species (Blumenthal 1998; Slone et al. 2007) and thereby produce novel phenotypes. These differences in polycistronic transcription therefore represent potential sources of genetic change that may be important in evolutionary change.

### Tissue-specific expression

We identify thousands of genes that are differentially expressed across tissues in D. yakuba and D. simulans, where biological replicate samples for each tissue are available. A large fraction of the genome appears to display tissue-biased expression between germiline and carcass, with many fewer genes showing differential expression between male and female gonadectomized carcass, consistent with early microarry-based assays in D. melanogaster (Parisi et al. 2003; 2004). We have sequenced samples to extremely high coverage, generating transcript annotations with 5' and 3' UTRs with empirically supported intron-exon structures, improving accuracy in differential expression testing. Biological replicates for D. yakuba and D. simulans result in much greater power to identify differentially expressed genes in comparison with D. ananassae and D. melanogaster. However, even in D. ananassae and D. melanogaster, where only one replicate was available per tissue, we are still able to identify hundreds of genes that are differentially expressed across tissues with high coverage.

A comparison of orthologs between D. yakuba and D. simulans where biological replicates should result in sufficient power to detect differential expression reliably across both species reveals that roughly 60% of genes with reciprocal best hit orthologs exhibit similar tissue biased expression between the two species. The remaining 30% represent either genes that are differentially regulated between tissues but with effect sizes beyond the limits of detection, or genes that have evolved independent expression patterns between the two species. We also observe tissue biased expression in hundreds of lineage specific genes, which may represent candidates for neofunctionalization and

new gene origination. These genes that display changes in sex-biased or tissue-biased expression across taxa, as well as lineage specific genes that exhibit tissue-biased and sex-biased expression are important candidate loci for evolutionary change in genome content and function that will be useful in exploring the functional and selective impacts of genomic changes.

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