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Title:

Genes involved in *Drosophila melanogaster* ovarian function are highly conserved throughout evolution

Sebastien Elis^{1#}, Alice Desmarchais^{1#}, Emilie Cardona², Sophie Fouchecourt¹, Rozenn Dalbies-Tran¹, Thaovi Nguyen², Violette Thermes², Virginie Maillard¹, Pascal Papillier¹, Svetlana Uzbekova¹, Julien Bobe², Jean-Louis Couderc³ and Philippe Monget^{1*}

¹ UMR PRC, CNRS, IFCE, INRA, Université de Tours, 37380, Nouzilly, France

² LPGP, INRA, 35000 Rennes, France

³ GReD Laboratory, Université Clermont Auvergne - CNRS UMR 6293- INSERM U1103, Clermont-Ferrand, France

*Author for Correspondence: Philippe Monget, INRA Centre Val de Loire, Physiologie de la Reproduction et des Comportements, 37380 Nouzilly, France

Phone: 0033 2 47427797

Fax: 0033 2 47427743

Email address: philippe.monget@inra.fr

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^{*}Equivalent contribution

ABSTRACT

This work presents a systematic approach to study the conservation of genes between fruit flies

and mammals. We have listed 971 Drosophila genes involved in female reproduction at the

ovarian level and looked for orthologues in the Ciona, zebrafish, coelacanth, lizard, chicken

and mouse. Depending on the species, the percentage of these genes with at least one orthologue

varies between 69% and 78%. In comparison, only 42% of the Drosophila genes have an

orthologue in the mouse genome (p < 0.0001), suggesting a dramatically higher evolutionary

conservation of ovarian genes. The 177 Drosophila genes that have no orthologue in mice and

other vertebrates correspond to genes involved in mechanisms of oogenesis that are specific to

the fruit fly or the insects. Among 759 genes with at least one orthologue in the zebrafish, 73

have an expression enriched in the ovary in this species (RNA-seq data). Among 760 genes that

have at least one orthologue in the mouse; 76 and 11 orthologues are reported to be

preferentially and exclusively expressed in the mouse ovary, respectively (based on the

UniGene EST database). Several of them are already known to play a key role in murine

oogenesis and/or to be enriched in the mouse/zebrafish oocyte, while others have remained

unreported. We have investigated, by RNA-seq and RT-qPCR, the exclusive ovarian expression

of 10 genes in fish and mammals. Overall, we have found several novel candidates potentially

involved in mammalian oogenesis by an evolutionary approach and using the fruit fly as an

animal model.

Key words: evolution; conservation; reproduction; ovary

1. INTRODUCTION

Several examples of conservation of genes of the biochemical and molecular

mechanisms involved in various biological functions have been previously documented, in

particular between flies and mammals (McGary, et al. 2010). For example, hox genes are

involved in morphogenesis and cell differentiation in the fly and in the morphogenesis of the

vertebrate embryo (Mark, et al. 1997); the ovo gene is implicated in epidermal differentiation

in the fruit fly and in hair formation in the mouse (Dai et al. 1998).

In *Drosophila*, contrary to mammals, oogenesis spans the entire life of a female, due to

the presence of stem cells in the most anterior part of the ovary in a region called the germarium.

Although different at first sight, *Drosophila* and vertebrate oocyte formation and maturation

might share more common features than previously thought (Matova and Cooley 2001). Firstly,

meiosis is an important common step in the precursors of oocytes as well as packing the oocyte

with RNA, proteins and organelles that are crucial for the first steps of oogenesis. Moreover,

within the animal kingdom, neo-oogenesis exists in several species, not only in insects but also

in molluscs and teleost fishes (Billard 1987; Craig-Bennett 1931; Eggert 1931; Grier et al. 2007;

Hann 1927; Wallace and Selman 1990). In *Drosophila*, many experiments have shown that the

self-renewal of germline stem cells (GSCs) takes place in a niche, a physical structure made of

signalling cells, that functions to maintain stem cell self-renewal and to prevent stem cell

differentiation (Spradling et al. 2001; Watt and Hogan 2000). Renewal of the ovarian reserve

during adult life is widely found in teleost fishes, and, in some salmonid species, there is an

increase in the number of oogonia following spawning. In the rainbow trout (Oncorhynchus

mykiss) postovulatory ovary, cell nests can be found in the germinal epithelium that contain

oogonia, early diplotene oocytes and prefollicle cells (Grier et al. 2007). In medaka (Oryzias

latipes), recently characterised ovarian cords within the germinal ovarian epithelium have been

hypothesised to be reminiscent of the germarium from the *Drosophila* ovary (Nakamura et al.

2010). In mammalian ovaries, this type of niche has never been observed neither based on

morphological studies nor molecular markers.

Recently it has been shown, by analysing how primary oocytes are formed from germ

cells in the mouse embryo, that germ cell cysts exist in mouse ovaries similar to those found in

Drosophila. Cells of these cysts are connected by ring canals and result from the synchronous

divisions but incomplete cytokinesis of primordial germ cells. As in *Drosophila*, the future

murine oocyte seems to be "nursed" by surrounding sister cells transferring some of their

cytoplasm to this cell including Golgi, mitochondria, centrosomes and likely RNAs and

proteins. Eventually, this unique cell will become a primary oocyte, while the other cells of the

cyst die, like nurse cells in *Drosophila* (Pepling and Spradling 2001). In both *Drosophila* and

mice, oocyte transcripts encode the so-called maternal genetic determinants that will support

the earliest stages of embryogenesis (Laver et al. 2015). Mechanisms that control mRNA

localisation and regulate translation play central roles in specification of the anteroposterior and

dorsoventral axes of the oocyte and future embryo and have been studied in detail in *Drosophila*

(Lasko 2012).

Many genes have been shown to be involved in oogenesis in *Drosophila*, and some of

them have an orthologue in the mouse and zebrafish that is also involved in oogenesis. It is the

case with mos and Aurora, involved in meiosis, and the mRNA binding-proteins orb/cpeb1

(Extavour 2009; Schindler et al. 2012; Zheng and Dean 2007). We have previously identified

genes encoding mRNA binding proteins that are highly expressed in the mouse oocyte, based

on their phylogenetic relationship with fruit flies and nematode orthologues known to be

involved in oogenesis in both species (Drouilhet et al. 2008). However, systematically

identifying the orthologues of all fly genes in mammals and other vertebrates remains undone.

In the present work, we have recovered a list of 971 fruit fly genes whose mutations affect

ovary, egg, follicle cells, oocyte and/or germarium according to the FlyBase database

(flybase.org/) or reported in the literature to affect Drosophila oogenesis. We have then

systematically looked for orthologues of these genes in the Ciona, zebrafish, coelacanth, lizard,

chicken and mouse to i) investigate their phylogenetic evolution and the evolution of ovarian

function from the fly to vertebrates, ii) identify genes that are specific of the fly and/or the

insects as well as genes that are conserved between these species and iii) identify putative

orthologues of genes whose expression are enriched or exclusively expressed in the mouse

and/or zebrafish ovary, using in silico and RNA-seq data, respectively. To further validate the

evolutionary-conserved expression pattern of a subset of genes, we further investigated their

expression using another model teleost species, the medaka, which is evolutionarily distant

from the zebrafish.

2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

2.1 In silico analyses

A list of genes of *Drosophila melanogaster* involved in female reproduction at the ovarian level

was generated by compiling FlyBase lists of *Drosophila* mutants affecting ovarian phenotypes

(http://flybase.org/). Five different affected tissues or cells were chosen to increment the list:

ovary, egg, follicle cells, oocyte and germarium. An additional list of candidate genes described

as being involved in oogenesis in the literature was also added (Bastock and St Johnston 2008;

Kumano 2012; McKearin and Christerson 1994; Spradling 1993; Stein and Stevens 2014). The

Drosophila gene list thus included 356 genes affecting the egg, 223 genes affecting the oocyte,

317 genes affecting follicle cells, 184 genes affecting the germarium, 688 genes affecting the

ovary and 337 genes involved in oogenesis; the latter have been previously reported in the

literature. Once redundancy is taken into account, the fruit fly gene list was composed of 971

unique genes (Supplementary Table 1).

Orthologues of *D. melanogaster* genes (genome version BDGP6) were extracted from

the Ensembl database using the BioMart tool (http://www.ensembl.org/biomart/martview/) for

chordates: Ciona intestinalis (genome version KH), Latimeria chalumnae (coelacanth, genome

version LatCha1), Danio rerio (zebrafish, genome version GRCz10), Anolis carolinensis (anole

lizard, genome version AnoCar2.0), *Gallus gallus* (chicken, genome version Gallus_gallus-5.0)

and Mus musculus (mouse, genome version GRM38.p5) (Supplementary Table 1). The

orthology percentage of the 971 Drosophila genes list was also retrieved in the Ensembl

metazoa database (http://metazoa.ensembl.org/biomart/martview/) for sponge (Amphimedon

queenslandica, genome version Aqu1), cnidarians (Nematostella vectensis, genome version

ASM20922v1), platyhelminthes (Schistosoma mansoni, genome version ASM23792v2),

Ecdysozoa: arthropods (*Drosophila erecta*, genome version dere_caf1; *Anopheles gambiae*,

genome version AgamP4; Apis mellifera, genome version Amel_4.5), roundworms

(Caenorhabditis elegans, genome version WBcell235), Lophotrocozoa: molluscs (Octopus

bimaculoides, genome version PRJNA270931), annelids (Capitella teleta, genome version

Capitella teleta v1.0) and echinoderms (Strongylocentrotus purpuratus, genome version

Spur_3.1).

For all mouse orthologues of *Drosophila* genes, EST (expressed sequence tag)

expression data from all tissues was collected from the UniGene

(http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/unigene). The ratio of ovarian expression was calculated as the

sum of ovary, oocyte, fertilised and unfertilised ovum in transcripts per million divided by the

sum of all adult female tissues. The ratio of testicular expression was calculated as the sum of

testis, epididymis and prostate in transcripts per million divided by the sum of all adult male

tissues (Supplementary Table 2).

For zebrafish orthologues, RNA-seq data were extracted from the PhyloFish database

(Pasquier et al. 2016). The ratio of ovarian expression was calculated as the ovary expression

divided by the sum of all adult female tissues (Supplementary Table 3). The ratio of testicular

expression was calculated as the testis expression divided by the sum of all adult male tissues

(Supplementary Table 3). For medaka, orthologues were identified using the list of manually

curated orthology relationships established between zebrafish and medaka, using the spotted

gar as an outgroup of teleosts (Braasch et al. 2016). Characterisation of the gene lists was

performed using gene ontology and DAVID 6.8 (https://david.ncifcrf.gov/home.jsp) (Huang et

al. 2009, 2008).

2.2 Biological material

All experimental protocols were carried out in accordance with the European Directive

2010/63/EU on the protection of animals used for scientific purposes and the recommendations

of the French Ministry of National Education, Higher Education and Research. The brain, heart,

liver, spleen, skeletal muscle (quadriceps), kidney, bladder, uterus and ovaries were collected

from three adult female mice of the Swiss strain (Janvier, Le Genest St Isle, France). Testes were also collected from three adult male mice. Tissues were frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at -80 °C until their use for RNA isolation.

For medaka and zebrafish, all sampled fishes originated from the INRA LPGP experimental facility. Fishes were reared and handled in strict accordance with French and European policies and guidelines of the INRA LPGP Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee (# 25M10), which approved this study. In medaka, all tissues were collected from 8 adult females (0.431 \pm 0.05 g) and 8 adult males (0.425 \pm 0.05 g). Zebrafish fish tissue originated from adult fish, as previously described (Braasch et al. 2016; Pasquier et al. 2017). All samples were immediately frozen in liquid nitrogen and subsequently stored at -80 °C until RNA extraction.

2.3 Gene expression analysis

Total RNA was extracted from murine tissues using TRI reagent, as recommended by the manufacturer's instructions. Then, potential genomic DNA contamination was eliminated using RQ1 RNase-free DNase (Promega, Charbonnières-les-Bains, France), and the RNA quantity was assessed using a NanoDrop ND-1000 spectrophotometer (Nyxor Biotech, Paris, France). Reverse transcription (RT) was carried out on 1 μg of total RNA with the iScript Select CDNA synthesis kit (BioRad, Marnes La Coquette, France), according to the manufacturer's protocol. Real-time PCR was performed in a total volume of 20 μL containing each primer at a final concentration of 125 nM (see sequences of specific primer pairs in Table 1), 5 μL of RT reaction solution (diluted 1:25) and 10μL of IQTM SYBR® Green Supermix (BioRad, Marnes La Coquette, France), according to the manufacturer's instructions. Real-time PCR reactions were run on a MyiQTM cycler (BioRad, Marnes La Coquette, France), with the following thermal conditions: denaturation at 95 °C for 3 min, then 40 cycles of a three-step protocol (denaturation at 95 °C for 30 s, specific annealing at 60 °C for 30 s and elongation at 72 °C for 30 s) followed by acquisition of a melting curve. Gene expression was normalised using the

housekeeping gene Rpl19 with stable expression under our conditions. The normalised values of relative expression (R) were calculated according to the following equation: $R = \frac{\left(E_{Gene}^{-Cq~Gene}\right)}{\left(E_{Rpl19}^{-Cq~Rpl19}\right)}$, where Cq is the cycle threshold and E is PCR efficiency for each primer pair. The specificity of the amplified fragment was controlled by checking the amplicon size by electrophoresis. Normalised gene expression is expressed as mean \pm SEM of three female/male mice.

In medaka, total RNA from several tissues was extracted using the Trizol method (MRC, USA), according to the manufacturer's instructions. The quantity and quality of each RNA were assessed by measuring their absorbance at 260 nm and 280 nm using a Nanodrop 1000 spectrophotometer (Thermo Scientific, Courtaboeuf, France) associated with ND-1000 V3 7.0 software. A DNAse treatment to remove residual DNA was carried out using the Ambion DNAse free kit, according to the manufacturer's instructions. First-strand cDNA was synthesised with 540 ng of total RNA in each reaction system using the Thermo Scientific Maxima first strand cDNA synthesis system, according to the manufacturer's protocol. At this step, luciferase control RNA (Promega, Charbonnières-les-Bains, France), 50 pg per 500 ng of total RNA, was added to each sample to allow for data normalisation. All cDNAs were diluted 1:10 with nuclease-free water and stored at -20 °C until used as templates in real-time quantitative PCR (RT-qPCR). Primers were designed so that they were overlapping an intron when it was possible (Primer3 software) using known sequences from the PhyloFish database. The primer sequences are shown in Table 2. To determine the RT-qPCR efficiencies of each primer pair used, standard curves were generated using six serial dilutions (cDNA dilution from 1:5 to 1:160) of a pool from eight ovary samples. The ability of primers was validated when the amplification efficiency varied between 90% and 110%. RT-qPCR was carried out using a StepOnePlus™ Real-Time PCR System (Applied Biosystems, Villebon Sur Yvette, France) using Promega's GoTaq® qPCR Master Mix following the manufacturer's recommendations. Each PCR run included duplicates of each sample and also negative controls (reverse transcriptase-free and water RNA-free samples). The reactions were mixed in a volume of 10

μL containing 5μL SYBR® Premix, 4 μL cDNA (diluted 1:10) and 0.5 μL each of the 6 μM

forward and reverse primers. After initial denaturation at 95 °C for 15 min, 40 cycles of

amplification were carried out starting at 95 °C for 15 s, followed by 1 min at 60° C, with a

final extension at 60 °C for 1 min and 95 °C for 15 min. Data were subsequently normalised

using exogenous luciferase transcript abundance in samples.

2.4 Statistical Analysis

The proportion of genes exhibiting orthologues, enriched expression at the ovarian level

or enriched gene ontology were compared using Chi square analyses.

Gene expression was compared between tissues using non-parametric analysis of

variance (permutational ANOVA) (R package lmPerm) (Wheeler 2010) with the Tukey post-

hoc test (R package nparcomp) (Konietschke et al. 2015)), R version 3.3.1 (R_Core_Team

2015). A difference with $p \le 0.05$ was considered significant.

3. RESULTS

3.1 Chordate orthologues

The tables presenting the 971 fruit fly genes and their orthologues in chordate species, as well as EST/RNA-seq expression of corresponding murine/zebrafish orthologue genes are provided in Supplementary Tables 1, 2 and 3. Among these 971 fruit fly genes, 81.8% (794 genes) possess a chordate orthologue in at least one of the following species: C. intestinalis (69.3%), L. chalumnae (coelacanth, 77.4%), D. rerio (zebrafish, 78.2%), A. carolinensis (anole lizard, 77.0%), G. gallus (chicken, 76.4%) and/or M. musculus (mouse, 78.3%). Considering only the mouse, 78.3 % of the fruit fly genes (760 genes) have mouse orthologues, with a total of 1556 mouse orthologues. Only 41.7 % of the complete fruit fly gene repertoire (17559) have mouse orthologues (7318 genes) according to the Ensembl BioMart database. Therefore, our fruit fly gene list showed a significant increase in the proportion of genes possessing a mouse orthologue (p < 0.0001) or a vertebrate orthologue (Figure 1) in comparison to the fruit fly gene repertoire. Given the high percentage of the studied genes that are conserved in the fruit fly and mouse, we investigated the conservation of these genes in other phyla. Among the 971 fruit fly genes, 66.0% possess an orthologue in sponge (A. queenslandica, 641 genes) and 72.0% possess an orthologue in cnidarians (N. vectensis, 699 genes). Only 34.6% and 38.6% of the complete fruit fly genome (17559) have orthologues in A. queenslandica (6067 genes) and N. vectensis (6784 genes), respectively. Therefore, our fruit fly gene list showed a significant increase in the proportion of genes possessing an orthologue in sponge and chidarians (p < 0.0001) compared to the fruit fly gene repertoire.

To determine which GO (gene ontology) was especially enriched throughout evolution, a GO analysis was performed on the 1556 mouse orthologue genes and the 1849 zebrafish genes corresponding to the 971 fruit fly genes (Figures 2 and 3; Supplementary Tables 4 and 5), and they were compared to the murine and zebrafish genome, respectively. Enriched GO terms

corresponding to at least 20 of the 1556 or 1849 mouse or zebrafish genes, respectively, were investigated. Only GO terms with a Bonferroni corrected p value < 0.01 were considered significantly enriched compare to the complete genome. In the mouse, concerning the biological process GO category, ontologies related to signal transduction (peptidyl-tyrosine phosphorylation, peptidyl-serine phosphorylation, regulation of protein phosphorylation, canonical Wnt signalling pathway, transmembrane receptor protein tyrosine kinase signalling pathway and cellular response to insulin stimulus) (p < 0.0001), regulation of translation (p < 0.0001) and to cell cycle (regulation of cell cycle and actin cytoskeleton organisation) (p < 0.0001) were enriched more than 4-fold in the 1556 mouse orthologue genes compared to the mouse genome (Figure 2, Supplementary Table 4). Concerning molecular function GO category, ontologies related to kinase, endopeptidase and phosphatase activities (p < 0.0001) as well as related to mRNA binding (p < 0.0001) were also enriched more than 4-fold in the 1556 mouse gene list compared to the mouse genome (Figure 3, Supplementary Table 4).

In the zebrafish, similar ontologies were found significantly increased compared to the genome. Concerning biological process GO category, ontologies related to signal transduction (peptidyl-tyrosine autophosphorylation, integrin-mediated signalling pathway, canonical Wnt signalling pathway, transmembrane receptor protein tyrosine kinase signalling pathway and peptidyl-serine phosphorylation) (p < 0.0001), cell migration (p < 0.0001) and actin cytoskeleton organisation (p < 0.01) were enriched more than 3-fold in the 1849 zebrafish orthologue genes compared to the zebrafish genome (Figure 2, Supplementary Table 5). Concerning molecular function GO category, ontologies related to kinase and endopeptidase activities (p < 0.0001), motor activity (p < 0.0001) and microtubule binding (p < 0.0001) as well as related to mRNA binding (p < 0.0001) were also enriched more than 3-fold in zebrafish genes compared to the zebrafish genome (Figure 3, Supplementary Table 5). A lot more GOs are enriched in the mouse gene list compared to the zebrafish gene list. Indeed, approximately

all GOs that are enriched in the zebrafish gene list are also found enriched in the mouse gene

list. Therefore, additional GOs are found enriched in the mouse gene list but not in the zebrafish

gene list (i.e., regulation of translation, cellular response to insulin stimulus, positive regulation

of neuron apoptotic process, negative regulation of ERK1 and ERK2 cascade, transforming

growth factor beta receptor signalling pathway and histone deacetylase binding).

3.2 Drosophila genes with no orthologues in chordate

Among the 971 fruit fly genes, 18.2% of the fruit fly genes have no chordate orthologues

(177/971) (Supplementary Table 1). We investigated the evolution of these genes in order to

detail the absence of these genes (Figure 4). Concerning the Ecdysozoa phylum, 94.4 % of these

genes have orthologues in the closest species of Drosophila (Drosophila erecta), which is a

significantly higher conservation percentage compared to the complete Drosophila

melanogaster genome (72.8%). In other insects phyla (A. gambiae and A. mellifera,

respectively), 57.9 and 52.8 % of the 177 *Drosophila* genes without vertebrate orthologues, are

present, which is not different from the average conservation of the complete Drosophila

melanogaster genome (51.8% and 47.4%, respectively). All the other invertebrate phyla

analysed showed significantly lower conservation percentages of the 177 genes list compared

to the average conservation of the complete *Drosophila melanogaster* genome: 12.4 % have

roundworm orthologues (C. elegans) vs 31.4%; concerning the Lophotrocozoa phylum, 23.6 %

of the genes have a mollusc orthologue (O. bimaculoides) vs 41.6% and concerning

Echinoderms phylum, only 19.7 % of the genes have a S. purpuratus orthologue vs 40.0%. This

result could suggest that most of these genes are either lost after insect phyla or appeared

throughout insect evolution.

3.3 In silico ovarian enriched expression in mice

The UniGene database enabled us to class the mouse orthologues regarding their ovarian

expression. Among the 1556 mouse orthologues, 76 genes had an ovarian expression ratio

above 0.5 (meaning that more than 50% of the total number of transcripts from all tissues of

these genes are in the ovarian compartment) (Supplementary Tables 2 and 6). Among these

genes, 11 mouse genes are described as strictly expressed in the ovaries (*Kpna7*, *Aurkc*, *Nanos2*,

Pabpn11, T, Cts7, Eif4e1b, Tdrd1, Rbmxl2, Pin1rt1 and Spocd1), including 3 genes that are also

strictly expressed in the testes of males (*Kpna7*, *Tdrd1* and *Rbmxl2*).

Moreover, 52 genes had a testis expression above 0.5 (Supplementary Table 7). Among

these genes, 14 mouse genes are described as strictly expressed in the testis but not in the mouse

ovary (Fscn3, Gm4064, Tdrd6, Hmgb4, Hus1b, 4921511C20Rik, Gm382, Enthd1, Meiob,

Capza3, Gm732, Mycs, D1Pas1 and Rbm31y).

GO analysis was used to determine which GO was enriched when selecting genes on a

preferential ovarian expression ratio above 0.5 (76 mouse genes) compared to the complete list

of 1556 mouse orthologue genes (Supplementary Table 8). Enriched GO terms corresponding

to at least 4 of the 76 mouse genes, respectively, were investigated. Only GO terms with a raw

p value < 0.05 were considered significantly enriched compare to the 1556 mouse gene list.

Concerning biological process GO category, the ontologies related to the meiotic cell cycle (p

= 0.0026) and regulation of translation (p = 0.045) were significantly enriched (7.8-fold and

3.0-fold, respectively) compared to mouse genes (Figure 5). Concerning molecular function

GO category, the mRNA binding ontology was significantly (p = 0.029) enriched (2.9-fold) in

mouse genes, exhibiting a preferential ovarian expression compared to all 1556 mouse genes.

3.4 Ovarian enriched expression in zebrafish (RNA-seq)

The RNA-seq data obtained on zebrafish tissues allowed the classification of zebrafish

orthologues based on their ovarian expression (Supplementary Table 3). Among the 1849

zebrafish orthologues, 73 genes had an ovarian expression ratio above 0.4 (meaning that more

than 40% of the total number of transcripts from all tissues of these genes are in the ovarian

compartment) (Supplementary Table 3). As zebrafish data consisted of RNA-seq data and not

EST data, a 0.4 ratio was chosen instead of 0.5. Indeed, contrary to UniGene data, expression

in several tissues is observed for all the zebrafish genes studied, likely due to the efficiency of

RNA-seq methodology. Interestingly, 20 genes were common between the mouse and zebrafish

(Supplementary Table 6). Indeed, 20 mouse genes and their 20 zebrafish orthologues had an

ovarian preferential expression: Kpna7, Pabpn11, Aurkb, Eif4e1b, Rnf17, Foxr1, Tdrd9, Pld6,

Cpeb1b, Ccnb1, Kif23, Igf2bp1, Kif14, Ncapg, Lsm14b, Mybl2b, Mcm10, Mcph1, Dlgap5 and

Cdc7.

GO analysis was used on genes showing a preferential ovarian expression ratio above

0.4 (73 zebrafish genes) compared to the complete list of 1849 zebrafish orthologue genes

(Supplementary Table 9). Enriched GO terms corresponding to at least 4 of the 73 zebrafish

genes, respectively, were investigated. Only GO terms with a raw p value < 0.05 were

considered significantly enriched compared to the 1849 zebrafish gene list. Concerning

biological process, the ontologies related to DNA methylation involved in gamete generation

(p = 0.0005; 21-fold enriched), regulation of translation (p = 0.0028; 7.7-fold enriched), DNA

replication (p = 0.011; 8.1-fold enriched) and microtubule-based movement (p = 0.011; 8.1-

fold enriched) were significantly enriched compared to zebrafish genes (Figure 5). Concerning

molecular function, the ontologies related to RNA binding (p = 0.004; 3.0-fold enriched),

ATPase activity (p = 0.0038; 11.3-fold enriched) and microtubule motor activity (p = 0.018;

6.8-fold enriched) were significantly enriched compared to the 1849 zebrafish genes.

Ontologies enriched in zebrafish ovarian genes and related to ATPase activity,

microtubule-based movement or microtubule motor activity were not enriched in mouse

ovarian genes. On the contrary, ontologies enriched in mouse ovarian genes and related to the

negative regulation of translation or gene silencing by RNA were not enriched in zebrafish

ovarian genes.

3.5 In vivo confirmation of ovarian enriched expression

Among the mouse orthologues exhibiting an in silico ovarian enriched expression, the

expression of 11 genes was checked by qPCR: Eife1b, Foxr1, Kpna7, Lin28a, Nanos2, Pin1rt1,

Rnf17, Slc25a31, Spocd1, Tdrd1 and Tdrd9 (Figure 6). Eight of these genes showed

significantly enriched expression in the ovary compared to nongonadal tissues (Eife1b, Kpna7,

Lin28a, Nanos2, Pin1rt1, Rnf17, Spocd1 and Tdrd1). Moreover, the expression in the ovary is

higher compared to all other tissues for six of these genes: Eife1b, Kpna7, Lin28a, Nanos2,

Pin1rt1 and *Spocd1*. Interestingly, a significantly enriched expression in the testis was found

for six genes compared to nongonadal tissues: Kpna7, Rnf17, Slc25a31, Spocd1, Tdrd1 and

Tdrd9.

Among the genes exhibiting an ovarian enriched expression in zebrafish RNA-seq data,

seven were selected for further analysis in medaka using qPCR: kpna7, pabpnl1, bokb, mos,

lsm14b, cdt1 and orc1 (Figure 7). All genes had predominant expression in the ovary with the

exception of bokb that was equally expressed in the eyes. Significant testicular expression was

also observed for *pabpnl1*, *cdt1* and *orc1*.

4. DISCUSSION

In the present study, we investigated the vertebrate orthologues of *Drosophila* genes involved

in ovarian function. For the first time, we showed, from a list of 971 Drosophila genes, that

around 80% of them were conserved throughout evolution. We also reported that 73 and 76

orthologues of these genes, in the zebrafish and mouse, respectively, were likely to exhibit

preferential ovarian expression, 20 genes being common between both species.

4.1 Genes shared by the fly and the vertebrates

Drosophila genes studied in this work showed high conservation throughout evolution. Indeed,

an increased percentage of vertebrate orthologues of these Drosophila genes was found

compared to the complete genome (80% versus 42%), in each species investigated. Moreover,

orthology percentage was also increased in all other phyla investigated, including sponge,

cnidarians, lophotrocozoa, ecdysozoa and echinoderm, suggesting the critical importance of

these genes. The other point to consider is that the orthology percentage we measured between

vertebrate species and *Drosophila* is an underestimation. Indeed, due to the high stringency of

the phylogenetic trees in Ensembl, we evidenced that already described mammal orthologues

were not considered in the BioMart tool. For example, surprisingly, Vasa and Mos Drosophila

genes were not predicted by BioMart to have an orthologue in vertebrates, although they do

possess one (Elis et al. 2008; Gebauer and Richter 1997; Horie and Kotani 2016; Song et al.

2016). Interestingly, the conservation of "ovarian genes" is even higher for our ovarian genes

than for "disease-focused genes" that averaged 65% to 70% from Drosophila to human (Hu et

al. 2011; Wangler et al. 2017).

Among the GO enriched in the conserved genes, mRNA binding was reported as well

as GO related to posttranslational regulation (phosphorylation) and signalling pathways. The

processes of mRNA biogenesis, translation, alternative splicing, nuclear exportation, cytosolic

localisation and finally degradation are modulated by RNA-binding proteins, which are of

primary importance in the oocyte (Akagi et al. 2000). Several mechanisms contributing to this

translational control, including conserved RNA-binding proteins that control translation by 3'

UTR binding and the assembly of mRNA-protein complexes called mRNPs, have been

investigated not only in invertebrates but also in vertebrates (Boateng et al. 2017; Drouilhet et

al. 2008; Pushpa et al. 2017; Rosario et al. 2017; Tsukamoto et al. 2017).

4.2 Conserved genes preferentially expressed in the ovary

In this study, among the fly genes that have orthologues, we have found that the expression of

73 and 76 of them are enriched in, or strictly specific to the ovary, in the zebrafish and mouse,

respectively, including 20 genes that are preferentially expressed in the ovary in both vertebrate

species. In the 73 and 76 zebrafish and mouse gene lists, respectively, the GO analysis

suggested that mRNA binding function is increased compared to the full list of orthologues.

Interestingly, among the 20 common genes between the zebrafish and mouse, 4 genes encode

proteins involved in RNA binding and/or processing (pabpn11, Lsm14, Eif4e1b and Cpeb1). In

particular, pabpn11 binds, stabilises and localises osk mRNA in Drosophila oocytes and might

be involved in similar functions in vertebrates (Vazquez-Pianzola et al. 2011). The Lsm14

protein, known to associate with RNA to form the core domain of ribonucleoprotein particles,

is involved in mRNA translation and distribution in Xenopus oocytes (Ladomery and

Sommerville 2015). Eif4e1b was previously shown to be expressed in the mouse, Xenopus and

zebrafish oocytes (Evsikov and Marin de Evsikova 2009) and to be involved in mRNA cap

binding (Kubacka et al. 2015). Cpeb1 was also previously shown to regulate mRNA translation

in the mouse (Sousa Martins et al. 2016) and Xenopus oocytes through the formation of a

ribonucleic protein complex (Minshall et al. 2007). Four additional ovarian preferentially

expressed genes, common between the zebrafish and mouse, can be related to RNA binding

and processing (igf2bp1 and Rnf17, Tdrd9 and plD6). Indeed, the igf2bp1 gene encodes a protein that binds mRNA, but to our knowledge, its role in the oocyte is still not known. Rnf17, Tdrd9 and plD6 are all involved in piRNA processing. Indeed, the invalidation of Rnf17 (RING finger protein 17) leads to male sterility due to a blockage of spermiogenesis (Pan et al. 2005), likely through the regulation of piRNA content and of PIWI proteins (Wasik et al. 2015). However, the same study showed that females are fertile. So, the role of this conserved gene in oogenesis remains to be determined. Moreover, *Tdrd9* (tudor domain containing 9) encodes an ATP binding RNA helicase, and pld6 (or MITOPLD) is involved in the silencing of retrotransposons in male germ cells in the mouse (Shoji et al. 2009; Watanabe et al. 2011). A role of plD6 in piRNA processing was recently shown in the mouse oocyte, even if it seems to be dispensable in females, in contrast to males (Kabayama et al. 2017). In testes, molecular studies of germinal granules strongly implicate them in the transport, storage, localisation, stability and regulation of translation of mRNA (Houston and King 2000; Voronina et al. 2011). Other functions are also represented in this common gene list between the zebrafish and mouse. Indeed, three genes encode serine/threonine kinases (AuroraC and Cdc7) and a cyclin (CCNB1). AuroraC and CCNB1 are known to play a role in the processes of mitosis and meiosis in oocytes (Schindler et al. 2012; Uzbekova et al. 2008), and Cdc7 is conserved from yeast to human and is essential for cell proliferation and embryonic development (Silva et al. 2006).

Six genes are involved in processes of cytokinesis, general chromosome relocation, DNA replication, recombination and repair and might play similar roles in the oocyte (*Kif23*, *Kif14*, *Ncapg* (or non-SMC condensin I complex, subunit G), *Mcm10* (minichromosome maintenance 10), *Mcph1* and *Dlgap5* (large (*Drosophila*) homolog-associated protein 5) (Bonnet et al. 2015; Geiman et al. 2004; Liang et al. 2010; Liao et al. 2013; Lim et al. 2011; Liu et al. 2013; Reubens et al. 2015; Samwer et al. 2013). The gene encoding Kpna7, a karyopherin involved in the transport of molecules between cytoplasm and nucleus, has been

shown to be necessary for the early steps of embryonic development in the pig (Wang et al.

2012). Lastly, two genes encode transcription factors: FOXR1, a forkhead DNA binding protein

whose expression was described in human oocytes (Virant-Klun et al. 2013), but its role in

oogenesis remains unknown; and Mybl2, involved in cell cycle progression and known to

suppress autophagy in the pig ovary via the upregulation of the VDAC2 gene (Yuan et al. 2015).

Overall, these genes are highly conserved during evolution. Their specific ovarian expression

seems to be well conserved as well and might play a universal role in oogenesis in both

invertebrates and vertebrates. Of note, several of the other genes whose expression is highly

enriched in the mouse and/or zebrafish ovaries, but under the threshold we fixed, have not been

studied in the oocyte so far. Thus, future studies should also focus on their characterisation in

oocytes: peptidyl-prolyl cis/trans isomerase Pin1rt1, Spocd1, T Brachyury transcription factor,

Slc25a31, Naa11 or N(Alpha)-Acetyltransferase 11.

4.3 Limitations: false negative genes, no orthologue found

As mentioned before, one limitation of this study is that the stringency of the method

used (Ensembl database and BioMart tool) prevented us, in some cases, from finding an

orthologue even when we knew the vertebrate orthologue does exist. Therefore, it is possible

that, concerning the supposed genes present in flies but not vertebrates, due to the evolutionary

distance between these species, these genes have a true vertebrate orthologue, but that the high

stringency of the phylogenetic trees recovered from the Ensembl database does not allow to

identify them without any ambiguity (i.e., Vasa, mos and brca2 are Drosophila genes known

to have vertebrate orthologues). Moreover, for the same reason of evolutionary distance, the

conserved synteny could not be used between Drosophila and vertebrates to complete or

strengthen our phylogenetic trees.

4.4 Genes present in the fly and not in vertebrates

Nevertheless, in the list of 971 genes that are involved in ovarian function in the fly, 177 are

supposed to have no orthologue in vertebrates. Some of these genes are known to be specific to

oogenesis in flies, such as border cell formation and migration (six genes implicated in EGFR

signalling, aos, grk... and four implicated in JAK/STAT signalling, apt, upd...), germ line stem

cell functions (bam, ote...), oocyte fate determination (dap, ranshi and stwl), ring canal

formation with nurse cells (sosie, akap200...), dorsoventral polarity (spz, trk...),

anteroposterior axis specification (bcd, osk, cup...), chorion and vitelline membrane formation

(cp16, cp36, psd...) or dorsal appendage formation (Gfrl, brk...). One of the most interesting

genes is oskar. Indeed in Drosophila, it seems that there is a hierarchical model for the

organisation of germ plasm, oskar being necessary and sufficient to initiate a cascade of

interactions that assemble germ plasm at its site of localisation (Mahowald 2001). Oskar

initiates granule formation likely through direct interactions with Vasa, which in turn recruits

Tudor (Anne 2010; Breitwieser et al. 1996), Valois and PIWI factors (Kirino et al. 2009;

Nishida et al. 2009). Germ granule mRNAs (nanos, germ cell-less and polar granule

components) are transferred from the nurse cells to the oocyte (reviewed in (Becalska and Gavis

2009)). Surprisingly, some other genes are involved in more universal functions, such as

apoptosis (hid, rpr, Strica...) or meiosis (mei-218, ord, cort...), suggesting that these genes are

specific to these processes in *Drosophila* or insects.

4.5 Genes involved in oogenesis in the fly and expressed in the testis in the mouse

Surprisingly, some genes involved in oogenesis in the fly have a testis specific expression in

the mouse, suggesting a role in spermatogenesis, such as tra2/Rbmxl2 and tud/tdrd6. It is also

the case in the ovo gene, which has been shown experimentally to be involved in

spermatogenesis but not oogenesis in the mouse (Dai et al. 1998).

5. CONCLUSION

In conclusion, through this evolutionary in silico analysis using a D. melanogaster model, we

have identified several vertebrate orthologues of genes involved in ovarian function and whose

expression is highly enriched or specifically expressed in the ovary. Several of these genes are

not known to play a role in oogenesis and represent new functional candidates to be tested by

invalidation.

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7. TABLES

Table 1 : Mouse oligonucleotide sequences

Abbrev.	Accession number	Gene	Forward primer	Reverse primer	bp	E %
Eif4e1b	NM_001033269	eukaryotic translation initiation factor 4E family member 1B	GGTTGGGAATTGTTTTGAGG	CCTGGTACCCAATGATGGTC	185	99.9
Foxr1	NM_001033469	forkhead box R1	CTTCCATCTGATTGCCTTGG	TAACGACCCAGGAGAATTGG	180	108
Kpna7	NM_001013774	Karyopherin alpha 7	TGGAGATGGTGACAGTTTGC	CACCAGAGACCATGTGGATG	173	103.9
Lin28a	NM_145833	lin-28 homolog A	TGGACACCAGAAAAGGGACT	GATGGGGAAAGGACAGACAA	211	102.7
Nanos2	NM_194064	Nanos homolog 2	CGACCAGGCTCATACACTCA	GAGCAGAGCAGAGGGGACTA	179	102.2
Pin1rt1	NM_001033768	Protein (peptidyl-prolyl cis/trans isomerase) NIMA-interacting 1, retrogene 1	CAAGGGGTGACAACAGTCT	GCGTTGGTGATGTGATTGAA	193	95.8
Rnf17	NM_001033043	Ring finger protein 17	CCCTTAAGTGACTCGGGAAA	TCTGCAAGCCCCATTTCTAC	200	104.7
Rpl19	NM_009078	Ribosomal protein L19	CCTCCAGGCCAAGAAGGAAG	GGGCAACAGACAAAGGCTTG	151	87.8
Slc25a31	NM_178386	Solute carrier family 25 (mitochondrial carrier; adenine nucleotide translocator), member 31	GCCTTCCTAGAGACACCCTGT	CCCAAGCAACAGGAAAATGT	245	73.6
Spocd1	XM_017320505	SPOC domain containing 1	CAGGTGAAAATGGTCCTGCT	TCTTTGGGACCTTGTTCGAC	181	118.6
Tdrd1	NM_031387	Tudor domain containing 1	AAACAATCCAACCAACCAAAGT	GAAAGAGGAGGAAGCAGCAA	205	102.1
Tdrd9	NM_029056	Tudor domain containing 9	CTAGTGTGTGATGGGCCAAA	TCCACTCGTAGGGTTTCTCG	157	98.3

Table 2: Medaka oligonucleotide sequences

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Abbrev.	Accession number	Forward primer	Reverse primer					
kpna7	XM_011494462.2	ACCAAAAGCCTTCTGTGCAG	GGGAAGGAGACCACATGTGA					
bokb	XM_011486847.2	GGTGGTCCAAAGCCGAAATT	CACTCCAGCTCGTCTCCTAG					
lsm14b-201	XM_011475365.2	AGTACCAGGAATTCAGGGCC	AACTCTGGATTTGGCGAGGA					
mos	XM_020702078.1	GCACCTCCGTCATTCATTGG	CTCTTCACCTTCTTCAGCGC					
pabpn11-201	XM_011490104.2	ATCAAAGCCAGGGTTCAGGA	TAGAAAGGCCCAGGTTGAGG					
cdt1-201	XM_004076871.3	ATTGTCTCAGACCACAGCCA	TGCTTCACGAGGGAGATCAG					
orc1-201	XM_020702576.1	GGAAATCTGCGAGCACTCAG	CATTCAAGGCCTCCATCACG					

8. FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure 1: *Drosophila* genes possessing a chordate orthologous gene

Number and percentage of orthologues of the 971 Drosophila melanogaster genes and of the

complete Drosophila gene repertoire were obtained for each species considered using the

Ensembl metazoa gene and Ensembl gene databases and the BioMart tool, as described in

Material and Methods section. Comparison of orthologue percentage of the 971 selected genes

and the Drosophila gene repertoire were performed using Chi square tests. * indicates a

significant difference (p < 0.0001).

Figure 2: Biological process GO enrichment

Fold enrichment of biological process GO in either zebrafish or mouse orthologue genes

compared to the 971 Drosophila genes. GO analyses were performed using DAVID 6.8

(https://david.ncifcrf.gov/home.jsp). Only significantly enriched biological processes were

represented (p < 0.05, Bonferroni corrected).

Figure 3: Molecular function GO enrichment

Fold enrichment of molecular function GO in either zebrafish or mouse orthologue genes

compared to the 971 Drosophila genes. GO analyses were performed using DAVID 6.8

(https://david.ncifcrf.gov/home.jsp). Only significantly enriched molecular functions were

represented (p < 0.05, Bonferroni corrected).

Figure 4: *Drosophila* genes possessing no chordate orthologous gene

Number and percentage of orthologues of the 178 Drosophila melanogaster genes exhibiting

no orthologue genes in chordates were obtained for each species considered using the Ensembl

metazoa gene and Ensembl gene databases and the BioMart tool, as described in Material and

Methods section. Comparison of orthologue percentages of the selected 178 genes and the

Drosophila gene repertoire were performed using Chi square tests. * indicates a significant

difference (p < 0.0001).

Figure 5: Biological process GO enrichment in ovarian genes

Fold enrichment of biological process GO in mouse orthologue genes exhibiting an ovarian

expression compared to the complete list of mouse orthologue genes (1556 genes). Fold

enrichment of biological process GO in zebrafish orthologue genes exhibiting an ovarian

expression compared to the complete list of zebrafish orthologue genes (1849 genes). GO

analyses were performed using DAVID 6.8 (https://david.ncifcrf.gov/home.jsp). Only

significantly enriched biological processes were represented (p < 0.05, raw p values).

Figure 6: Gene expression in mouse tissues

Expression of 11 candidate genes was assessed in 10 mouse tissues (O, ovary; T, testis; M,

muscle; U, uterus; Li, liver; S, spleen; B, brain; K, kidney; Bl, bladder and H, heart). After

mRNA extraction and reverse transcription, qPCR was performed on tissues of three females

or males. Expression of candidate genes is normalised by the expression of the Rpl19

housekeeping gene and presented as mean \pm SEM of three replicates. Different letters indicate

a significant difference (p < 0.05). Therefore, if, at least, one letter is common between

conditions, there is no significant difference between these 2 conditions (ex: a is different from

b but ab is not different from b...).

Figure 7: Gene expression in medaka tissues

Expression of 7 candidate genes was assessed in 10 medaka tissues (O, ovary; T, testis; M,

muscle; L, liver; B, brain; K, kidney; I, intestine; E, eye; G, gills and F, fins). After mRNA

30

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extraction and reverse transcription, qPCR was performed on tissues of eight females or males.

Expression of candidate genes is normalised using exogenous luciferase transcript abundance

in samples and presented as mean ± SEM of eight replicates. Different letters indicate a

significant difference (p < 0.05). Therefore, if, at least, one letter is common between

conditions, there is no significant difference between these 2 conditions (ex: a is different from

b but ab is not different from b...).

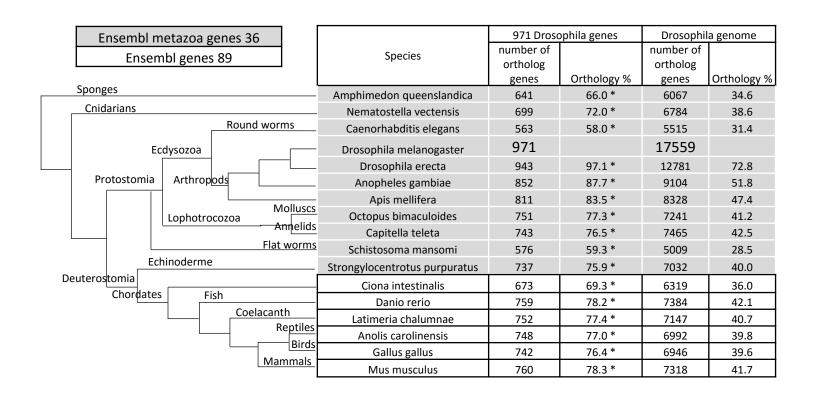


Figure 1

Biological process GO enrichment

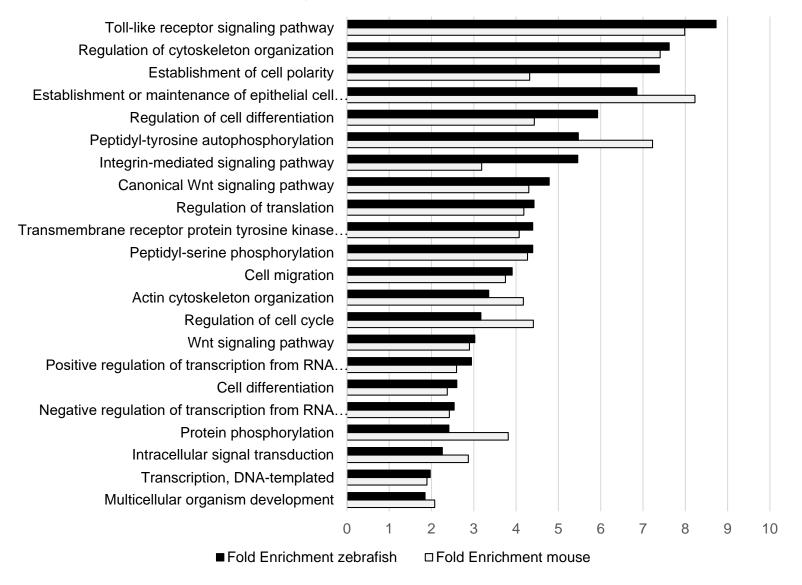
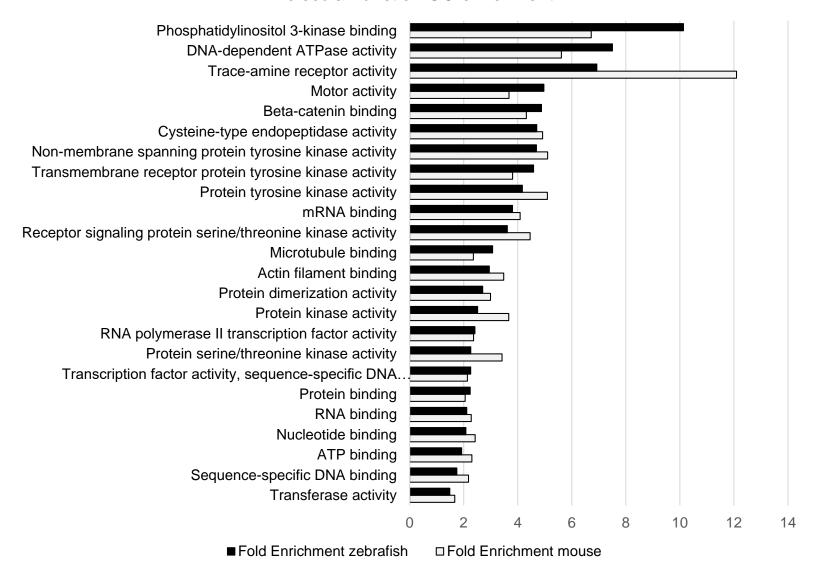
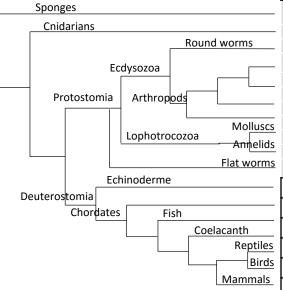


Figure 2

Molecular function GO enrichment



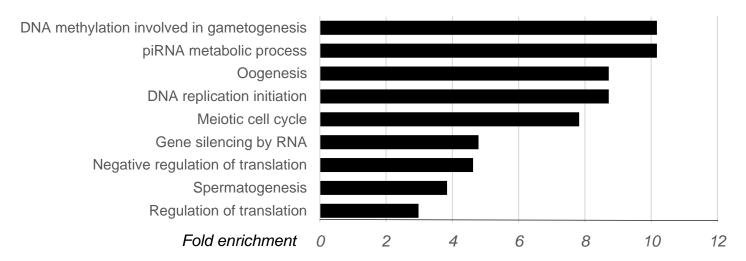
Ensembl metazoa genes 36 Ensembl genes 89



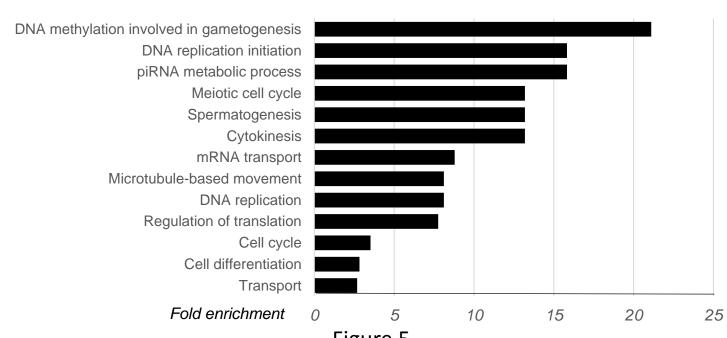
	1			
	971 Drosophila genes		Drosophila genome	
	number of		number of	
Species	ortholog genes	Orthology %	ortholog genes	Orthology %
Amphimedon queenslandica	26	14.6 *	6067	34.6
Nematostella vectensis	30	16.9 *	6784	38.6
Caenorhabditis elegans	22	12.4 *	5515	31.4
Drosophila melanogaster	177		17559	
Drosophila erecta	168	94.4 *	12781	72.8
Anopheles gambiae	103	57.9	9104	51.8
Apis mellifera	94	52.8	8328	47.4
Octopus bimaculoides	42	23.6 *	7241	41.2
Schistosoma mansomi	23	12.9 *	5009	28.5
Capitella teleta	49	27.5 *	7465	42.5
Strongylocentrotus purpuratus	35	19.7 *	7032	40.0
Ciona intestinalis	0	0.0 *	6319	36.0
Latimeria chalumnae	0	0.0 *	7147	40.7
Danio rerio	0	0.0 *	7384	42.1
Anolis carolinensis	0	0.0 *	6992	39.8
Gallus gallus	0	0.0 *	6946	39.6
Mus musculus	0	0.0 *	7318	41.7

Figure 4

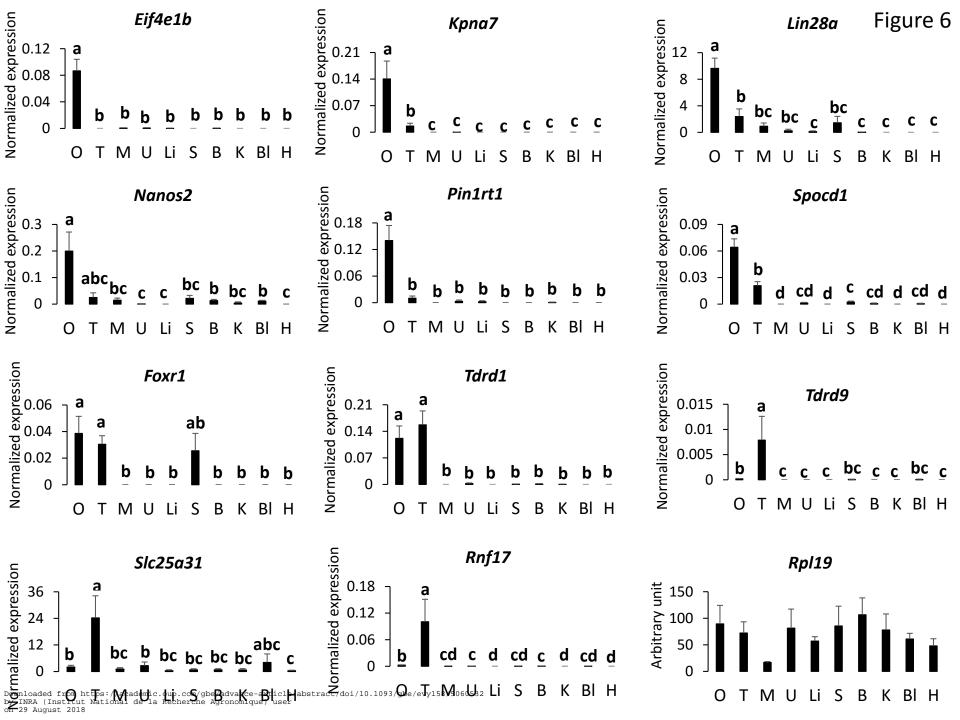


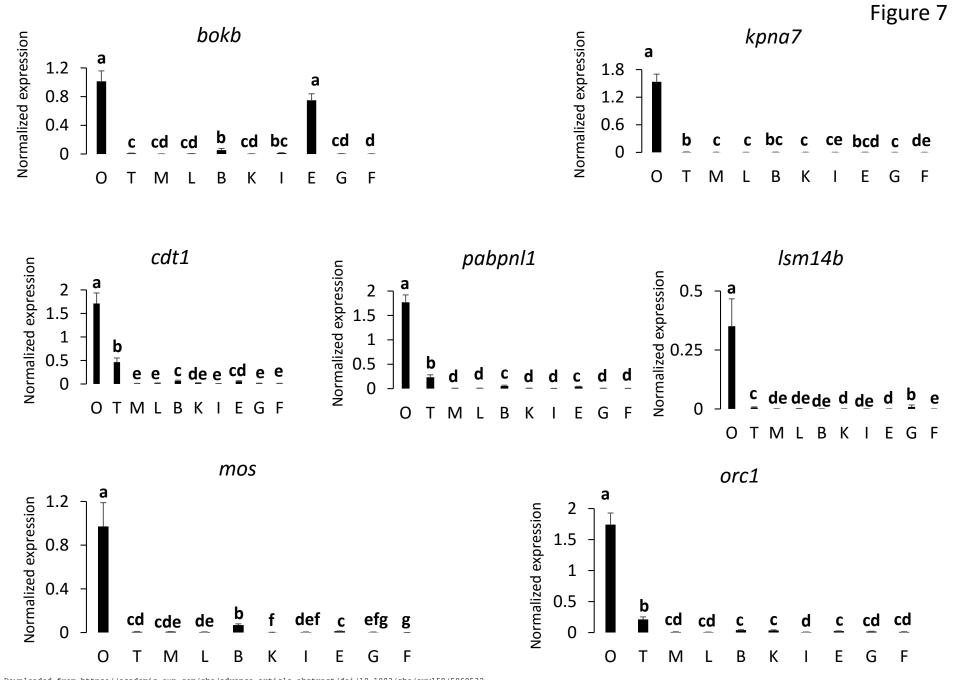


Zebrafish



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