

Evolutionary insights into the genomic organization of major ribosomal DNA in ant chromosomes

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Abstract

 The major rDNA genes are composed of tandem repeats and are part of the nucleolus organizing regions (NORs). They are highly conserved and therefore useful in understanding the evolutionary patterns of chromosomal locations. The evolutionary dynamics of the karyotype may affect the organization of rDNA genes within chromosomes. In this study, we physically mapped 18S rDNA genes in 13 Neotropical ant species from four subfamilies using fluorescence *in situ* hybridization. Furthermore, a survey of published rDNA cytogenetic data for 50 additional species was performed, which allowed us to detect the evolutionary patterns of these genes in ant chromosomes. Species from the Neotropical, Palearctic, and Australian regions, comprising a total of 63 species from 19 genera within six subfamilies, were analyzed. Most of the species (48 out of 63) had rDNA genes restricted to a single chromosome pair in their intrachromosomal regions. The position of rDNA genes within the chromosomes appears to hinder their dispersal throughout the genome, as translocations and ectopic recombination are uncommon in intrachromosomal regions because they can generate meiotic abnormalities. Therefore, rDNA genes restricted to a single chromosome pair seem to be a plesiomorphic feature in ants, while multiple rDNA sites, observed in distinct subfamilies, may have independent origins in different genera.

 Keywords: Evolution - ribosomal DNA - gene dispersion - Formicidae - chromosome rearrangements - physical mapping

Introduction

 Eukaryotic genomes have repetitive tandem sequences such as in the major 3 ribosomal RNA genes $(45S = 18S + 5.8S + 28S)$, herein denominated rDNA, which contain highly conserved genic sequences and are therefore useful as molecular genetic markers, allowing comparisons across distant taxa. However, intergenic spacers vary in both sequence and length (Long and Dawid, 1980; Sumner, 2003; Symonová, 2019). The 45S ribosomal genes are part of the nucleolus organizing regions (NORs) and are located in portions of the DNA that, after their condensation, usually appear as secondary constrictions on metaphase chromosomes (Sumner, 2003).

 The silver nitrate impregnation technique (Ag-NOR banding) shows only transcriptionally active NORs by staining nuclear acid proteins involved in transcription (Howell and Black, 1980; reviewed by Sumner, 2003). Species with multiple rDNA clusters do not usually exhibit silver-staining in all clusters (reviewed by Sumner, 2003; Vicari *et al*., 2008). However, it must be assumed that if a species has only a single NOR (or single 45S rDNA gene site), then it will be transcriptionally active, as evidenced for different organisms (Dobigny *et al*., 2002; Barros *et al*., 2015; Falcione *et al*., 2018; Cholak *et al*., 2020; Malimpensa *et al*., 2020).

 Intercellular and interindividual variations are frequently detected by the Ag-NOR banding method (Zurita *et al*., 1997; Cross *et al*., 2003; Walker *et al*., 2014; Schmid *et al*., 2017). However, the use of this technique in ant species has not produced reliable results owing to low repeatability, difficulty in obtaining good-quality markings, and the appearance of unspecified marks on heterochromatic regions of many chromosomes, which makes using this procedure unsatisfactory and inconclusive (Imai *et al.,* 1992; Hirai *et al.*, 1994; Lorite *et al*., 1997; Barros *et al*., 2009, 2015; Aguiar *et al*., 2017).

 Since the 1980s, molecular cytogenetic tools have been used to study karyotypes. For example, fluorescence *in situ* hybridization (FISH) has proven to be an effective and precise tool for physically mapping specific DNA sequences within chromosomes (reviewed by Levsky and Singer, 2003; Liehr, 2017). The rDNA genes can be located in single or multiple chromosome pairs (Sochorová *et al.*, 2018). In several organisms, studies of these genes have pointed to chromosomal differences within species complexes (Mantovani *et al.*, 2005; Barbosa *et al.*, 2017; Dutra *et al.,* 2020) and between species with similar karyotypes (Panzera *et al.*, 2012; Golub *et al.*, 2015; Gokhman *et al*., 2016). As a consequence, inferences can be made based on chromosomal rearrangements that shape the chromosomal evolution of a species (Roy *et al*., 2005; Nguyen *et al.*, 2010; Britton-Davidian *et al*., 2011; Cabral-de-Mello *et al.*, 2011; Dutrillaux and Dutrillaux, 2012; Roa and Guerra, 2012; Menezes *et al.*, 2019; Degrandi *et al*., 2020).

 In ants, the physical mapping of rDNA genes using the FISH technique was first described in Australian ants by Hirai *et al.* (1994, 1996). Since then, the number of studies mapping these genes has increased (Mariano *et al*., 2008; Santos *et al*., 2016; Micolino *et al*., 2019a; Teixeira *et al.*, 2020) and other repetitive sequences, such as telomeres (Meyne *et al.*, 1995; Pereira *et al.*, 2018; Micolino *et al*., 2020; Castro *et al*., 2020), satellite DNA (Lorite *et al.*, 2004; Huang *et al.*, 2016), 5S ribosomal genes (Aguiar *et al.*, 2017), and microsatellites (Barros *et al.*, 2018; Micolino *et al*., 2019b), have been mapped in the chromosomes using the FISH technique. To date, molecular cytogenetic studies on rDNA genes in ants have improved understanding of chromosomal evolution and phylogeny, and provided taxonomic resolutions for different ant groups (Hirai *et al.*, 1994, 1996; Santos *et al.*, 2010, 2016).

 In this study, we physically mapped 18S rDNA clusters using the FISH technique and verified if they were GC-rich in 13 Neotropical ant species from four subfamilies

 (Ectatomminae, Formicinae, Myrmicinae, and Ponerinae). In addition, we reviewed previous molecular cytogenetic data related to rDNA gene clusters (45S, 18S, or 28S) in ants. Using these data, we investigated whether the number and location of the ribosomal gene clusters followed a specific pattern or were randomly distributed in order to understand the genomic organization and evolutionary dynamics of these genes in ants.

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- **Results**
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1 - Chromosome mapping of 18S rDNA clusters in 13 Neotropical ant species

 All of the studied ant species presented only a single 18S rDNA site that was co-12 localized with GC-rich regions $(CMA₃⁺)$ (Table 2), while AT-rich regions (DAPI⁺) were not detected in any species. Most of the species presented GC-rich rDNA genes in the intrachromosomal regions (pericentromeric or interstitial), including *Pseudoponera gilberti* (Kempf, 1960) (Fig. 1A, S1A), *Anochetus targionii* Emery, 1894 (Fig. 1B, S1B), *Odontomachus haematodus* (Linnaeus, 1758) (Fig. 1C, D, S1C), *Odontomachus bauri* Emery, 1892 (Fig 1E, S1D), *Pheidole germaini* Emery, 1896 (Fig. 2A, S2A), *Crematogaster longispina* Emery, 1890 (Fig. 2B, S2B), *Solenopsis geminata* (Fabricius, 1804) (Fig. 2C, D, S2C), *Myrmicocrypta* sp. (Fig. 2E, S2D), and *Acromyrmex echinatior* (Forel, 1899) (Fig. 2F). Additional GC-rich bands only occurred in *P. gilberti* in the 21 pericentromeric region of the $3rd$ and $4th$ metacentric chromosome pairs (Fig. S1B). Differences in rDNA cluster sizes between homologous chromosomes were observed in 23 heterozygous *O. bauri* individuals. One of the homologous chromosomes showed clusters approximately twice the size of those in the other chromosome (Fig. 1F, S1E). A male

- individual bearing a chromosome with minor GC-rich bands was analyzed (Fig. S1F).
- Homozygous individuals with duplicated clusters were not observed.
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 Figure 1. Fluorescence *in situ* hybridization with 18S rDNA probe (red blocks) of Ponerinae ants: (A) *Pseudoponera gilberti* (2n=12), (B) *Anochetus targionii* (2n=30)*,* (C, D) *Odontomachus haematodus* (2n=44, Brazil and French Guiana, respectively), (E, F) *Odontomachus bauri* (2n=44). In the last species, the 18S rDNA site was located on the long arm of the polymorphic chromosomal pair. The boxes show a polymorphic subtelocentric pair in (E) in the homozygous state, and (F) in the heterozygous state. Bars 11 = $5 \mu m$.

 Figure 2. Fluorescence *in situ* hybridization with 18S rDNA probe (red blocks) of Myrmicinae ants: (A) *Pheidole germaini* (2n=22), (B) *Crematogaster longispina* (2n=24), (C) *Solenopsis geminata* (2n=32) and (D) *Solenopsis geminata* (n=16), (E) *Myrmicocrypta* sp. (2n=30), (F) *Acromyrmex echinatior* (2n=38), (G) *Strumigenys* 6 *diabola* (2n=40). Bars = 5μ m.

 The remaining species showed GC-rich 18S rDNA clusters across the entire chromosome arm, occupying either the long arm, as in *Gnamptogenys tortuolosa* (Smith, 1858) (Fig. 3A, S3A), or residing in the short arm, as in *Strumigenys diabola* Bolton, 2000 (Fig. 2G, S2E), *Camponotus atriceps* (Smith, 1858) (Fig. 3B, S3B), and *Gigantiops destructor* (Fabricius, 1804) (Fig. 3C, S3C, D). Heteromorphism of 18S rDNA clusters was detected in all of the analyzed *C. atriceps* and *G. tortuolosa* individuals. In the latter species, the heteromorphism of the NOR resulted in differences in total size between homologous chromosomes, which changed their morphology such that one was submetacentric while the other was subtelocentric. In *G. destructor*, additional GC-rich bands were located in the interstitial region of the long arm of the largest subtelocentric chromosome pair (Fig. S3C, D).

 Figure 3. Fluorescence *in situ* hybridization with 18S rDNA probe (red blocks) of an Ectatomminae ant (A) *Gnamptogenys tortuolosa* (2n=44), and Formicinae ants (B) *Camponotus atriceps* (2n=40) and (C) *Gigantiops destructor* (n=39). In *G. tortuolosa*, the box shows a remarkable size heteromorphism of 18S rDNA clusters between homologs. Bars: 5 µm.

2 - Chromosome mapping review of rDNA clusters in ants

 Cytogenetic data available in the literature related to the rDNA genes of 50 ant species from 12 genera and six subfamilies were reviewed (Table 2; Fig. 4). Most data were concentrated on Neotropic ants, with information on 33 species, while the Palearctic

 Even *Gnamptogenys moelleri* (Forel, 1912), a species with differing chromosome numbers between two populations (2n=34 and 44), has a single intrachromosomal rDNA site. *Gnamptogenys tortuolosa* is an exception, with rDNA clusters occurring over the entire long arm (this study). In the genus *Anochetus*, the chromosome number ranges from 2n=30 to 46, and a single pericentromeric rDNA site has been observed (Santos *et al*., 2010).

 All analyzed fungus-farming ants (Attina) had a single rDNA site located in the intrachromosomal region (Table 2). In the genus *Mycetophylax*, although chromosome number differs among species (2n=26 to 36), a single rDNA site is located in the pericentromeric or terminal region in all the species of the genus (Micolino *et al*., 2019a). The leaf-cutting ants are considered the most derived among the Attina species (Schultz and Brady, 2008). *Atta* spp. (2n=22) have a single rDNA site in the interstitial region and *Acromyrmex* spp. (2n=38) have a single rDNA site in the terminal region (Barros *et al*., 2015, 2016; Teixeira *et al*., 2017). *Acromyrmex striatus* (Roger, 1863), a sister group of the leaf-cutting ants, has 2n=22 and pericentromeric rDNA clusters that are not located on the same chromosome pair relative to that in *Atta* spp. (Cristiano *et al.*, 2013; Teixeira *et al*., 2017). In *A. echinatior* (2n=38), rDNA clusters are located in the interstitial region of the same pair as observed in other *Acromyrmex* spp. (this study).

 The chromosome number of the Australian bulldog ants is highly variable, ranging from 2n=2 to 76 (Imai *et al*., 1994). In addition, *Myrmecia* spp. present remarkable patterns of multiple 28S rDNA clusters that are highly dispersed throughout their genomes. The number of rDNA sites increases with the chromosome number of the species. This suggests several ribosomal gene amplification events have occurred in the different species of *Myrmecia* and that they have accumulated in karyotypes throughout the evolution of the genus. Only four out of 16 species from this monophyletic genus

 have the entire arm or intrachromosomal rDNA clusters restricted to a single pair of chromosomes (Hirai *et al*., 1994, 1996; Hirai, 2020). This pattern is observed in species with small chromosome numbers, which suggests that a single NOR is plesiomorphic among *Myrmecia* (Hirai, 2020).

 Carpenter ants (*Camponotus*) from the subgenus *Myrmothrix* have 2n=40 chromosomes, with its studied species having a single rDNA site in the terminal region. *Camponotus renggeri* is the only exception, having an additional rDNA cluster at the terminal region of a medium-sized subtelocentric pair (Aguiar *et al*., 2017).

 In the giant ants of the genus *Dinoponera*, two contrasting patterns have been observed: *D. gigantea* (2n=82) has multiple rDNA sites located on its short chromosome arms (Aguiar *et al*., 2011), whereas *Dinoponera lucida* Emery, 1901 has a higher chromosome number (2n=120), but only a single rDNA site restricted to the intrachromosomal region of its largest chromosome pair (Mariano *et al*., 2008).

 Homeology patterns among chromosomal pairs bearing ribosomal genes can be detected in a few ant genera, such as *Gnamptogenys* (*striatula* group), *Camponotus* (*Myrmothrix*), *Atta*, and *Acromyrmex* (Table 2). However, it is speculative to infer such homeology patterns for the entire Formicidae family. Ants constitute an ultra-diverse monophyletic group with more than 13,800 described species (Bolton, 2020). They show a wide range of karyotype variation both in number (2n=2 to 2n=120) and chromosomal morphology (reviewed by Lorite and Palomeque, 2010; Mariano *et al*., 2019).

 2 - Insights concerning the organizational patterns of ribosomal gene clusters in the ant genome

 The mapping of the ribosomal gene clusters of 63 species distributed in 19 genera and six subfamilies, together with information on their phylogenetic relationships, demonstrated that a single pair of chromosomes bearing the GC-rich rDNA clusters is the most frequent trait among the studied species, regardless of the chromosome number (Table 1, Fig. 4A). Genomes carrying rDNA clusters in more than a single chromosome pair have been observed in non-related taxa, such as *D. gigantea* (Aguiar *et al.*, 2011), *C. renggeri* (Aguiar *et al.*, 2017), and *Myrmecia* spp. (Hirai *et al*., 1994, 1996). We hypothesize that having a single rDNA site should be considered a plesiomorphic trait because multiple rDNA sites were observed in different non-related lineages that do not share exclusive common ancestry and appear *de novo* throughout the Formicidae family.

 Figure 4. Summary of available molecular cytogenetic data (this study and in the literature) concerning rDNA genes in ant species: (A) number of species with single and multiple rDNA sites in a karyotype, (B) location of rDNA genes in chromosomes of ant species, considering the following chromosomal regions: c, centromeric region; p, pericentromeric region; i, interstitial region; t, terminal region; wsa, whole short arm; wla,

 whole long arm, and (C) number of species with single and multiple rDNA sites by subfamilies of Formicidae.

 In eukaryotes, it is common to observe variations in the number of rDNA clusters and the location of these genes in the chromosomes within genera (Sánchez-Gea *et al*., 2000; Gross *et al.*, 2010; Cabral-de-Mello *et al.*, 2011; Gokhman *et al*., 2014; Mazzoleni *et al.*, 2018), among populations (Panzera *et al*., 2014; Ferreti *et al.*, 2019; Menezes *et al.*, 2019), and sexes of the same species (Nakayama *et al*., 2001; Šťáhlavský *et al.*, 2018). The possession of terminal rDNA clusters seems to be a common trait among mammals, fish, and mollusks, but less so in arthropods (Sochorová *et al*., 2018). Within the ultra- diverse insect group, the location of rDNA clusters may follow distinct patterns in its two largest orders; terminal rDNA sites are more abundant in Coleoptera, whereas pericentromeric rDNA clusters are more frequent in Orthoptera (Sochorová *et al.*, 2018). In Formicidae, terminal rDNA sites are a less common feature and all species with multiple rDNA clusters show these genes in the entire short chromosome arms including terminal/subterminal regions, such as *C. renggeri*, *D. gigantea*, and *Myrmecia* spp. (Aguiar *et al*., 2011, 2017; Hirai *et al*., 1994, 1996).

 Different hypotheses have been proposed to explain the cytogenetic pattern (conservative or variable) of these rDNA clusters in the genome of several organisms. Such hypotheses are linked to the specific locations of these rDNA clusters on the chromosomes. Rearrangements, such as translocations, unequal exchange, and ectopic recombination mechanisms (i.e., between non-homologous chromosomes), which can lead to gene dispersion or increases in number in the genome, are more likely in the terminal/subterminal regions of chromosomes and are uncommon in the intrachromosomal regions (Martins and Wasko, 2004; Mantovani *et al*., 2005; Nguyen *et al*., 2010; Roy and Guerra, 2012; Hirai, 2020).

 Based on rDNA mapping data in fish karyotypes, Martins and Wasko (2004) proposed that translocations are more likely to occur in telomeric regions because of their proximity within the interphase nucleus, which originates from the ordering of chromosomes according to Rabl's model. Effects due to the location of ribosomal genes in relation to their dispersion in the karyotype were also observed in Coleoptera (Dutrillaux *et al*., 2016) and primates (Gerbault-Seureau *et al*., 2017). These authors argued that translocations in the interstitial position could result in abnormal meiosis and, therefore, unbalanced gametes. In contrast, translocations in terminal positions may increase the number of rDNA genes in the genome. This would lead to fewer meiotic abnormalities and highlights the selection for interstitial rDNA site stability (Dutrillaux *et al*., 2016; Gerbault-Seureau *et al*., 2017).

 Ectopic recombination is another mechanism suggested to explain the rDNA patterning in moths and butterflies (Nguyen *et al.*, 2010) and plants (Roa and Guerra, 2012). It is also included in the recent model proposed by Hirai (2020). In this model, two mechanisms are important: the "site effect" and the "molecular effect." The former allows terminal region associations due to the proximity of these regions in a meiotic bouquet. The "site effect" is a precondition for the "molecular effect," which refers to systems of affinity/non-affinity due to the similarity between rDNA sequences with other repetitive sequences. Thus, rDNA clusters in the terminal regions tend to associate with other repetitive sequences of non-homologous chromosomes more easily, facilitating the occurrence of ectopic recombination and dispersion of these genes in the genome (Hirai, 2020).

 There are reports of species with multiple rDNA clusters associated with the centromeres of acrocentric chromosomes (Cazaux *et al*., 2011). In the recent model proposed by Hirai (2020), the centromeric region of acrocentric chromosomes

 (chromosomes with a short and heterochromatic arm) that have rDNA genes associated with the centromere may behave as subterminal regions. Therefore, such an arrangement would also facilitate eventual associations of rDNA genes with other repetitive sequences and the occurrence of ectopic recombination, which leads to their dispersal in the genome (for details, see Hirai, 2020).

 The ant rDNA chromosome evolution seems to be in accordance with the above- mentioned hypothesis about dispersal and NOR location because the single rDNA 8 clusters of most studied species are interstitial or pericentromeric (Fig. 4B). In ant species, terminal rDNA clusters are prone to rearrangements that lead to their dispersal. *Camponotus renggeri* (Aguiar *et al*., 2017), *D. gigantea* (Aguiar *et al*., 2011), and *Myrmecia* spp. present multiple NORs in the entire short chromosome arms including terminal/subterminal regions, which facilitates the association of these genes with the heterochromatic sequences of other non-homologous acrocentric chromosomes during meiosis and the subsequent occurrence of ectopic recombination (Hirai, 2020). This pattern may be applicable to different ant groups. In addition, inversions have been shown to change the position of rDNA genes in *A. echinatior* (this study), *Dolichoderus* spp. (Santos *et al*., 2016), and *Myrmecia* spp. (Hirai *et al*., 1996).

 Figure 5. Summary of available data (this study and literature) concerning the number and position of rDNA genes in ant species, along with their degree of relatedness and diploid chromosome numbers**.** Ideograms of rDNA-bearing chromosomes show number

1 and location (terminal, interstitial, pericentromeric or centromeric) of rDNA clusters (red) in the haploid complement. Phylogenetic relationships are based on 1- Moreau and Bell (2013), 2 - Schmidt (2013), 3 - Larabee *et al.* (2016), 4 - Santos *et al.* (2016), 5 - Hasegawa and Crozier (2006), 6 - Ward *et al.* (2015), 7 - Solomon *et al.* (2019), 8 - Micolino *et al.* (2019a), 9 - Bacci *et al.* (2009), 10 - Queiroz (2015). Colours of phylogenetic branches indicate the following subfamilies: red, Ponerinae; purple, Dolichoderinae; pink, Myrmeciinae; blue, Formicinae; green, Myrmicinae; gray, Ectatomminae.

 A single rDNA site located in the terminal region or entire chromosomal arm was observed in some ant species. The repetitive sequences in the subterminal/terminal chromosome regions probably do not form affinity systems with ribosomal genes (the so- called molecular effect; for details, see Hirai, 2020) in these species. Therefore, rDNA clusters are restricted to a single chromosomal pair. Future studies focusing on the characterization of repetitive sequences that make up the heterochromatin of these species will help clarify this hypothesis.

 Size heteromorphisms are frequent in karyotypes where the rDNA clusters have terminal positions in the chromosomes, as reported in this study (*G. tortuolosa* and *C. atriceps*) as well as in other ants (Aguiar *et al.*, 2017) and insects in general (Cabral-de- Mello *et al.*, 2011; Maryańska-Nadachowska *et al.*, 2016; Andrade-Souza *et al.*, 2018). Subtle variations in the size of the rDNA clusters between homologous chromosomes can be observed as a result of late condensation during cell division (Sumner, 2003). However, large variations, such as those mentioned above, at the terminal region on the chromosome are usually related to duplications/deletions as a result of unequal exchange (Schubert and Lysack, 2011). It is believed that exchanges are less common in intrachromosomal regions (Hirai, 2020).

Ant species	2n/(n)	Location of rDNA genes in karyotype	Ideogram	Co-localization CMA3/rDNA	Reference CMA ₃ /rDNA
Neotropical ants					
Subfamily Myrmicinae					
Acromyrmex aspersus	38	Largest subtelocentric pair		Yes	Teixeira et al. (2017)
Acromyrmex coronatus	38	Largest subtelocentric pair		Yes	Barros et al. (2016)
Acromyrmex disciger	38	Largest subtelocentric pair		Yes	Barros et al. (2016)
Acromyrmex echinatior	38	Largest subtelocentric pair	$\mathsf{I} \times$	Yes	Barros et al. (2016) / Present study
Acromyrmex niger	38	Largest subtelocentric pair		Yes ^a	Barros et al. (2016)
Acromyrmex striatus	22	2nd metacentric pair		Yes ^a	Cristiano et al. (2013)/ Teixeira et al. (2017)
Acromyrmex subterraneus molestans	38	Largest subtelocentric pair		Yes	Teixeira et al. (2017)
Atta bisphaerica	22	4th metacentric pair		Yes	Barros et al. (2014) / Teixeira et al. (2017)
Atta laevigata	22	4th metacentric pair		Yes	Barros et al. (2014) / Teixeira et al. (2017)
Atta robusta	22	4th metacentric pair		Yes	Barros et al. (2015)
Atta sexdens rubropilosa	22	4th metacentric pair		Yes	Barros et al. (2014) / Teixeira et al. (2017)

1 **Table 1.** Summary of the available molecular cytogenetic data concerning major ribosomal genes (45S, 28S or 18S) detected by FISH in ants

3 ^a: Additional markers CMA₃⁺. ^b: Data showed by Hirai et al. (1996). ^c: Heteromorphism of rDNA clusters between the homologous.

^d: Polymorphism of rDNA clusters between the homologous. – unavailable data.

21 FG: French Guiana, BR: Brazil.

 Size variations in the rDNA clusters can be observed when these genes are located in the interstitial/pericentromeric region of the chromosomes, as seen in *Gnamptogenys regularis* Mayr, 1870 (Teixeira *et al.*, 2020) and in *O. bauri* (this study). A different path seems to be involved in the evolution of these karyotypes compared to the rearrangements involved in terminal rDNA heteromorphisms. In these cases, the mechanism may be associated with the formation of extrachromosomal circular DNA (eccDNA), which is likely to form tandem repetitive sequences similar to the rDNA genes (Cohen and Segal, 8 2009). These eccDNAs may be lost, leading to deletions in the original rDNA sequences, or they may be replicated via a rolling circle mechanism and reintegrated into the original chromosome, producing duplications of these repetitive sequences (Cohen and Segal, 2009).

 In ants as well as in other eukaryotes, rDNA clusters are located in GC-rich 13 regions (Symonová, 2019) and, therefore, usually coincide with $CMA₃⁺$ bands, possibly as a result of GC-biased gene conversion (gBGC) over the course of evolutionary time (Escobar *et al.*, 2011). This co-localization of GC-rich regions and rDNA was observed for all the ants studied to date (Table 2), with the exception of *D. voraginosus* (Santos *et al.*, 2016). However, GC-rich chromatin is not always an indication of ribosomal genes, as seen here in *G. destructor*, *P. gilberti*, and in some *Dolichoderus* spp. and fungus-farming ants (Table 2).

 In insects, a compilation of previous data concerning rDNA genes has been conducted, for example, in moths and butterflies (Lepidoptera; Nguyen *et al.*, 2010), beetles (Coleoptera; Dutrillaux and Dutrillaux, 2012), and kissing bugs (Heteroptera; Panzera *et al.*, 2012). However, this is the first survey of Hymenoptera species. We have compiled available information and new data on 13 Neotropical ant species. In different organisms, including ants, the number and location of chromosomes bearing rDNA

 clusters within the genome follow general patterns that govern the modes of evolution for these genes (Martins and Wasko, 2004; Nguyen *et al.*, 2010; Dutrillaux *et al*., 2016; Gerbault-Seureau *et al*., 2017; Hirai, 2020; this study). We can conclude that having only a single pair of chromosomes bearing rDNA clusters is more common in the ant genome because of the pericentromeric/interstitial location of these genes on the chromosomes. Intrachromosomal regions are sites with low frequencies of rearrangements, such as non- Robertsonian translocations and ectopic recombination, and are therefore less prone to meiotic abnormalities. It should be assumed that the chromosomal location of rDNA clusters influences the dispersion of these genes within the karyotype.

 Future studies will allow the mapping of rDNA genes in more ant taxa, including 11 the other remaining subfamilies. Other repetitive sequences, such as 5S rDNA and histone genes, may also be mapped in ant species as a tool to investigate further patterns that reflect the relationship between chromosomal location and dispersion in the genome. Finally, a solid understanding of the evolutionary patterns of ribosomal gene dispersal in ant chromosomes may provide a comparative model for other insects.

- **Experimental Procedures**
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1 - Obtaining samples for analysis

 Field surveys to collect ant colonies were performed in French Guiana, Brazil, and Panama (Table 1) from the following locations: *La Montagne des Singes*, Kourou (5.07225, -52.69407), Campus Agronomique, Kourou (5.17312, -52.65480), and Sinnamary (5.28482, -52.91403), all in French Guiana; Viçosa (-20.757041, -42.873516)

 and Ubá (-21.128880, -42.937646), both in Minas Gerais, Brazil, and Açailândia (- 4.84200, -47.29667) in Maranhão, Brazil; and Barro Colorado Island (9.150000, - 79.83333) in Panama. Sampling permit in Brazil was provided by the Instituto Chico Mendes de Conservação da Biodiversidade (ICMBio) (SISBIO accession numbers 32459 and 62598). Adult specimens were identified by Dr. Jacques H. C. Delabie and deposited in the ant collection at the Laboratório de Mirmecologia do Centro de Pesquisas do Cacau (CPDC/Brazil), in Bahia, Brazil, under records #5802, #5803, and #5804.

 In this study, previous molecular cytogenetic data related to rDNA genes (45S, 18S, or 28S) mapped by FISH from 50 ant species were used. For comparative analysis, the following traits were considered for each species: chromosome number, number of rDNA-bearing chromosomes, location of rDNA clusters in the karyotype, and co- localization of CMA³ fluorochrome and rDNA clusters. Ag-NOR data were disregarded due to the highly variable patterns and unreliable results (for details, see Introduction).

2 – Chromosome preparation

 Mitotic metaphase chromosomes were obtained from the cerebral ganglia of larvae after meconium elimination, using colchicine hypotonic solution (0,005%) and fixatives according to the methods described by Imai *et al.* (1988).

 3 - Staining with fluorochromes chromomycin A³ (CMA3) and 4ʹ6- diamidino-2- phenylindole (DAPI)

 Metaphase chromosomes of all the species, except *Ac. echinatior*, were stained with the fluorochromes CMA³ and DAPI for the detection of GC and AT-rich regions,

 respectively, based on the technique proposed by Schweizer (1980). The *Ac. echinatior* samples studied here correspond to the same colonies studied by Barros *et al.* (2016) and 3 the CMA₃/DAPI staining in this species was performed by these authors.

4 - Fluorescent *in situ* **hybridization with rDNA 18S probe**

 The 18S rDNA probes were obtained by amplification via polymerase chain reaction (PCR) using *Melipona quiquefasciata* Lepeletier, 1836, rDNA primers 18SF1 (5ʹ–GTC ATA GCT TTG TCT CAA AGA–3ʹ) and 18SR1.1 (5ʹ–CGC AAA TGA AAC TTT AAT CT–3ʹ) (Pereira, 2006) in the genomic DNA from the ant *Camponotus rufipes* (Fabricius, 1775). Gene amplification was performed following Pereira (2006). The probes were labeled by an indirect method using digoxigenin-11-dUTP (Roche Applied Science, Mannheim, Germany), and the FISH signals were detected with anti- digoxigenin-rhodamine (Roche Applied Science), following the manufacturer's protocol. The rDNA 18S genes were mapped by FISH, following the protocol of Pinkel *et al.* (1986). The slides were treated with RNase A (100 μg/mL) and kept in a moist 17 chamber at 37°C for 1h. After that, they were washed in 2×SSC for 5 min, incubated in 5 μg/ml pepsin in 0.01 N HCl for 10 min, washed in 1×PBS for 5 min and dehydrated in 50%, 70% and 100% alcohol series for 2 min each. After this pretreatment, metaphase 20 chromosomes were denatured in 70% formamide/2×SSC at 75 \degree C for 3 min, and 20 μ L of hybridization mix including 200 ng of labeled probe, 2×SSC, 50% formamide, and 10% dextran sulfate was denatured for 10 min at 85°C and added on preparations. The slides 23 were kept in a moist chamber at 37° C overnight. Then, the slides were washed in $2 \times$ SSC for 5 min; the detection solution including anti-digoxigenin-rhodamine was added on slides that were kept in a moist chamber at 37°C for 1h. The slides were washed in

- 4×SSC/Tween, and dehydrated in an alcohol series. Finally, counterstaining with DAPI (DAPI Fluoroshield, Sigma Aldrich) was performed.
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5 - Chromosomal analysis

 Chromosomes were arranged in order of decreasing size and based on the ratio of 7 the chromosomes arm lengths $(r = \text{long arm/short arm})$, according to the classification proposed by Levan *et al.* (1964). The chromosomes were classified as m = metacentric (r 9 = 1–1.7), sm = submetacentric ($r = 1.7-3$), st = subtelocentric ($r = 3-7$), and a = 10 acrocentric (r > 7); they were organized using Adobe Photoshop[®] 21.1.1 and measured using Image Pro Plus®. Ideograms of the NOR-bearing chromosome/chromosomes (i.e., graphical representation of the chromosomes concerning the rDNA clusters) of the ant species were then designed with the Easy Idio software (Diniz and Xavier, 2006).

 For the fluorochrome staining and FISH 18S rDNA technique, 30 metaphases from at least three individuals of each species were analyzed. In the case of *O. bauri*, which presented a chromosomal polymorphism involving rDNA clusters, seven individuals were analyzed (six females and one male). The metaphases were analyzed and photographed using a fluorescence microscope, Olympus BX60, attached to an image system, QColor Olympus®, with the filters WB (450–480 nm), WU (330-385 nm), and WG (510-550 nm) for the fluorochromes CMA3, DAPI, and rhodamine, respectively.

6 - Phylogenetic relationships

 The phylogenetic relationship among ant species was determined by associating with previously published molecular phylogenies. The resultant cladogram topology at the subfamily level was determined following Moreau and Bell (2013). The Poneroid clade topology was determined according to Schmidt (2013) and Larabee *et al.* (2016); the clade topology for the subfamily Dolichoderinae was determined according to Santos *et al.* (2016) and that for the subfamily Myrmicinae was determined according to Bacci *et al.* (2009), Ward *et al.* (2015), Queiroz (2015), Solomon *et al.* (2019), and Micolino *et al.* (2019a). The topology of the species groups within the subfamily Myrmeciinae was determined according to Hasegawa and Crozier (2006).

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 Figure S1. Staining with chromomycin A³ showing GC-rich regions (arrows) of Ponerinae ants: (A) *Pseudoponera gilberti* (2n=12), (B) *Anochetus targionii* (2n=30), (C) *Odontomachus haematodus* (2n=44, French Guiana), (D, E) *Odontomachus bauri* showing the homozygous and heterozygous states, respectively (2n=44), and (F) male of *Odontomachus bauri* with the smaller size regions rich in GC base pairs. Bars = 5 μm.

 Figure S2. Staining with chromomycin A³ showing GC-rich regions (arrows) of Myrmicinae ants: (A) *Pheidole germaini* (2n=22), (B) *Crematogaster longispina* (2n=24), (C) *Solenopsis geminata* (n=16), (D) *Myrmicocrypta* sp. (2n=30), (E) *Strumigenys diabola* (2n=40). Bars = 5 μm.

 Figure S3 Staining with chromomycin A³ showing GC-rich regions (arrows) of an Ectatomminae ant (A) *Gnamptogenys tortuolosa* (2n=44), and Formicinae ants (B) *Camponotus atriceps* (2n=40) and (C, D) *Gigantiops destructor* (2n=78, n=39). Bars = 5 µm.

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