

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

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1	Evolutionary insights into the genomic organization of major ribosomal
2	DNA in ant chromosomes
3	
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### 1 Abstract

2 The major rDNA genes are composed of tandem repeats and are part of the nucleolus 3 organizing regions (NORs). They are highly conserved and therefore useful in 4 understanding the evolutionary patterns of chromosomal locations. The evolutionary 5 dynamics of the karyotype may affect the organization of rDNA genes within 6 chromosomes. In this study, we physically mapped 18S rDNA genes in 13 Neotropical 7 ant species from four subfamilies using fluorescence *in situ* hybridization. Furthermore, 8 a survey of published rDNA cytogenetic data for 50 additional species was performed, 9 which allowed us to detect the evolutionary patterns of these genes in ant chromosomes. 10 Species from the Neotropical, Palearctic, and Australian regions, comprising a total of 63 11 species from 19 genera within six subfamilies, were analyzed. Most of the species (48 out 12 of 63) had rDNA genes restricted to a single chromosome pair in their intrachromosomal 13 regions. The position of rDNA genes within the chromosomes appears to hinder their 14 dispersal throughout the genome, as translocations and ectopic recombination are 15 uncommon in intrachromosomal regions because they can generate meiotic 16 abnormalities. Therefore, rDNA genes restricted to a single chromosome pair seem to be 17 a plesiomorphic feature in ants, while multiple rDNA sites, observed in distinct 18 subfamilies, may have independent origins in different genera.

19

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

#### 1 Introduction

2 Eukaryotic genomes have repetitive tandem sequences such as in the major 3 ribosomal RNA genes (45S = 18S + 5.8S + 28S), herein denominated rDNA, which 4 contain highly conserved genic sequences and are therefore useful as molecular genetic 5 markers, allowing comparisons across distant taxa. However, intergenic spacers vary in 6 both sequence and length (Long and Dawid, 1980; Sumner, 2003; Symonová, 2019). The 7 45S ribosomal genes are part of the nucleolus organizing regions (NORs) and are located 8 in portions of the DNA that, after their condensation, usually appear as secondary 9 constrictions on metaphase chromosomes (Sumner, 2003).

10 The silver nitrate impregnation technique (Ag-NOR banding) shows only 11 transcriptionally active NORs by staining nuclear acid proteins involved in transcription 12 (Howell and Black, 1980; reviewed by Sumner, 2003). Species with multiple rDNA 13 clusters do not usually exhibit silver-staining in all clusters (reviewed by Sumner, 2003; 14 Vicari et al., 2008). However, it must be assumed that if a species has only a single NOR 15 (or single 45S rDNA gene site), then it will be transcriptionally active, as evidenced for 16 different organisms (Dobigny et al., 2002; Barros et al., 2015; Falcione et al., 2018; 17 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).

1 Since the 1980s, molecular cytogenetic tools have been used to study karyotypes. 2 For example, fluorescence in situ hybridization (FISH) has proven to be an effective and 3 precise tool for physically mapping specific DNA sequences within chromosomes 4 (reviewed by Levsky and Singer, 2003; Liehr, 2017). The rDNA genes can be located in 5 single or multiple chromosome pairs (Sochorová et al., 2018). In several organisms, 6 studies of these genes have pointed to chromosomal differences within species complexes 7 (Mantovani et al., 2005; Barbosa et al., 2017; Dutra et al., 2020) and between species 8 with similar karyotypes (Panzera et al., 2012; Golub et al., 2015; Gokhman et al., 2016). 9 As a consequence, inferences can be made based on chromosomal rearrangements that 10 shape the chromosomal evolution of a species (Roy et al., 2005; Nguyen et al., 2010; 11 Britton-Davidian et al., 2011; Cabral-de-Mello et al., 2011; Dutrillaux and Dutrillaux, 12 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 13 14 described in Australian ants by Hirai et al. (1994, 1996). Since then, the number of studies 15 mapping these genes has increased (Mariano et al., 2008; Santos et al., 2016; Micolino 16 et al., 2019a; Teixeira et al., 2020) and other repetitive sequences, such as telomeres 17 (Meyne et al., 1995; Pereira et al., 2018; Micolino et al., 2020; Castro et al., 2020), 18 satellite DNA (Lorite et al., 2004; Huang et al., 2016), 5S ribosomal genes (Aguiar et al., 19 2017), and microsatellites (Barros et al., 2018; Micolino et al., 2019b), have been mapped 20 in the chromosomes using the FISH technique. To date, molecular cytogenetic studies on 21 rDNA genes in ants have improved understanding of chromosomal evolution and 22 phylogeny, and provided taxonomic resolutions for different ant groups (Hirai et al., 23 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

1 (Ectatomminae, Formicinae, Myrmicinae, and Ponerinae). In addition, we reviewed 2 previous molecular cytogenetic data related to rDNA gene clusters (45S, 18S, or 28S) in 3 ants. Using these data, we investigated whether the number and location of the ribosomal 4 gene clusters followed a specific pattern or were randomly distributed in order to 5 understand the genomic organization and evolutionary dynamics of these genes in ants.

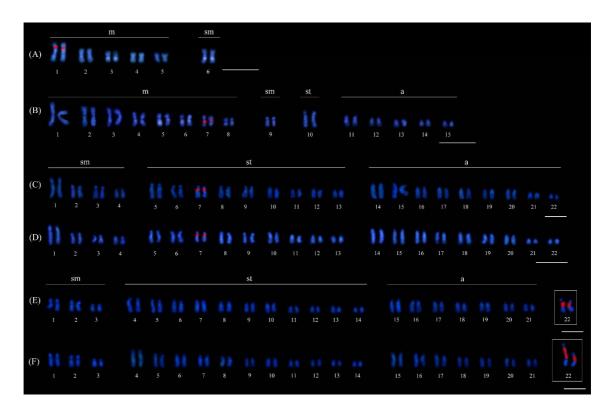
- 6
- 7 **Results**
- 8

### 9 1 - Chromosome mapping of 18S rDNA clusters in 13 Neotropical ant species

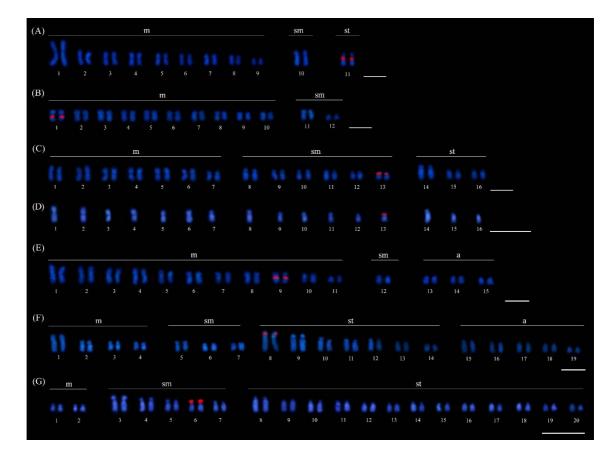
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11 All of the studied ant species presented only a single 18S rDNA site that was co-12 localized with GC-rich regions (CMA<sub>3</sub><sup>+</sup>) (Table 2), while AT-rich regions (DAPI<sup>+</sup>) were 13 not detected in any species. Most of the species presented GC-rich rDNA genes in the 14 intrachromosomal regions (pericentromeric or interstitial), including Pseudoponera 15 gilberti (Kempf, 1960) (Fig. 1A, S1A), Anochetus targionii Emery, 1894 (Fig. 1B, S1B), 16 Odontomachus haematodus (Linnaeus, 1758) (Fig. 1C, D, S1C), Odontomachus bauri 17 Emery, 1892 (Fig 1E, S1D), Pheidole germaini Emery, 1896 (Fig. 2A, S2A), 18 Crematogaster longispina Emery, 1890 (Fig. 2B, S2B), Solenopsis geminata (Fabricius, 19 1804) (Fig. 2C, D, S2C), Myrmicocrypta sp. (Fig. 2E, S2D), and Acromyrmex echinatior 20 (Forel, 1899) (Fig. 2F). Additional GC-rich bands only occurred in P. gilberti in the pericentromeric region of the 3<sup>rd</sup> and 4<sup>th</sup> metacentric chromosome pairs (Fig. S1B). 21 22 Differences in rDNA cluster sizes between homologous chromosomes were observed in 23 heterozygous O. bauri individuals. One of the homologous chromosomes showed clusters 24 approximately twice the size of those in the other chromosome (Fig. 1F, S1E). A male

- 1 individual bearing a chromosome with minor GC-rich bands was analyzed (Fig. S1F).
- 2 Homozygous individuals with duplicated clusters were not observed.
- 3



**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  $11 = 5 \mu m$ .



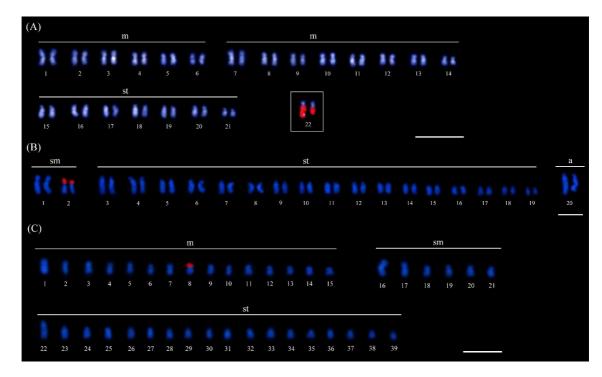
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Figure 2. Fluorescence *in situ* hybridization with 18S rDNA probe (red blocks) of
Myrmicinae ants: (A) *Pheidole germaini* (2n=22), (B) *Crematogaster longispina*(2n=24), (C) *Solenopsis geminata* (2n=32) and (D) *Solenopsis geminata* (n=16), (E)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

7

8 The remaining species showed GC-rich 18S rDNA clusters across the entire 9 chromosome arm, occupying either the long arm, as in *Gnamptogenys tortuolosa* (Smith, 10 1858) (Fig. 3A, S3A), or residing in the short arm, as in *Strumigenys diabola* Bolton, 11 2000 (Fig. 2G, S2E), *Camponotus atriceps* (Smith, 1858) (Fig. 3B, S3B), and *Gigantiops* 12 *destructor* (Fabricius, 1804) (Fig. 3C, S3C, D). Heteromorphism of 18S rDNA clusters 13 was detected in all of the analyzed *C. atriceps* and *G. tortuolosa* individuals. In the latter 14 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).

5



6

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.

12

### 13 **2** - Chromosome mapping review of rDNA clusters in ants

14

15 Cytogenetic data available in the literature related to the rDNA genes of 50 ant 16 species from 12 genera and six subfamilies were reviewed (Table 2; Fig. 4). Most data 17 were concentrated on Neotropic ants, with information on 33 species, while the Palearctic

1	and Australian regions had data on only one and 16 species, respectively. A single rDNA
2	site localized in the intrachromosomal region was observed in most species (Fig. 4A, B).
3	However, Camponotus renggeri Emery, 1894, Dinoponera gigantea (Perty, 1833), and
4	most of the studied Myrmecia species presented multiple rDNA sites over the entire short
5	chromosome arm. The subfamily Myrmicinae possessed most of the rDNA data, and the
6	Myrmeciinae subfamily showed a different pattern in relation to other subfamilies with
7	multiple rDNA sites observed in the majority of species (Fig. 4C). Dolichoderus
8	voraginosus Mackay, 1993 did not show any co-localization of 18S rDNA clusters and
9	GC-rich bands. Figure 5 summarizes the available data on the number and position of
10	NORs in ant species and the phylogenetic relationships among these species, and is based
11	on the published molecular phylogenies.
12	
13	Discussion
14	
15	1 - Patterns of rDNA clusters in the karyotypes of specific ant groups
16	
17	Specific rDNA patterns can be observed in the karyotypes of some ant groups
18	where several species have been studied. In species of the genus Dolichoderus, the
19	chromosome numbers range from 2n=10 to 58, and a single rDNA site in the interstitial
20	region has been observed in the majority of the investigated species. However, there are
21	two exceptions: D. voraginosus and Dolichoderus attelaboides (Fabricius, 1775), where
22	the rDNA clusters are located in the terminal region of the long arm and in the short arm,
23	respectively (Santos et al., 2016).
24	Despite the chromosomal variation observed in Gnamptogenys spp. (2n=24 to 44),

25 they all have a single rDNA site in the intrachromosomal region (Teixeira *et al.*, 2020).

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).

7 All analyzed fungus-farming ants (Attina) had a single rDNA site located in the 8 intrachromosomal region (Table 2). In the genus *Mycetophylax*, although chromosome 9 number differs among species (2n=26 to 36), a single rDNA site is located in the 10 pericentromeric or terminal region in all the species of the genus (Micolino et al., 2019a). 11 The leaf-cutting ants are considered the most derived among the Attina species (Schultz 12 and Brady, 2008). Atta spp. (2n=22) have a single rDNA site in the interstitial region and 13 Acromymex spp. (2n=38) have a single rDNA site in the terminal region (Barros et al., 14 2015, 2016; Teixeira et al., 2017). Acromyrmex striatus (Roger, 1863), a sister group of 15 the leaf-cutting ants, has 2n=22 and pericentromeric rDNA clusters that are not located 16 on the same chromosome pair relative to that in Atta spp. (Cristiano et al., 2013; Teixeira 17 et al., 2017). In A. echinatior (2n=38), rDNA clusters are located in the interstitial region 18 of the same pair as observed in other *Acromyrmex* spp. (this study).

19 The chromosome number of the Australian bulldog ants is highly variable, 20 ranging from 2n=2 to 76 (Imai *et al.*, 1994). In addition, *Myrmecia* spp. present 21 remarkable patterns of multiple 28S rDNA clusters that are highly dispersed throughout 22 their genomes. The number of rDNA sites increases with the chromosome number of the 23 species. This suggests several ribosomal gene amplification events have occurred in the 24 different species of *Myrmecia* and that they have accumulated in karyotypes throughout 25 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).

5 Carpenter ants (*Camponotus*) from the subgenus *Myrmothrix* have 2n=40 6 chromosomes, with its studied species having a single rDNA site in the terminal region. 7 *Camponotus renggeri* is the only exception, having an additional rDNA cluster at the 8 terminal region of a medium-sized subtelocentric pair (Aguiar *et al.*, 2017).

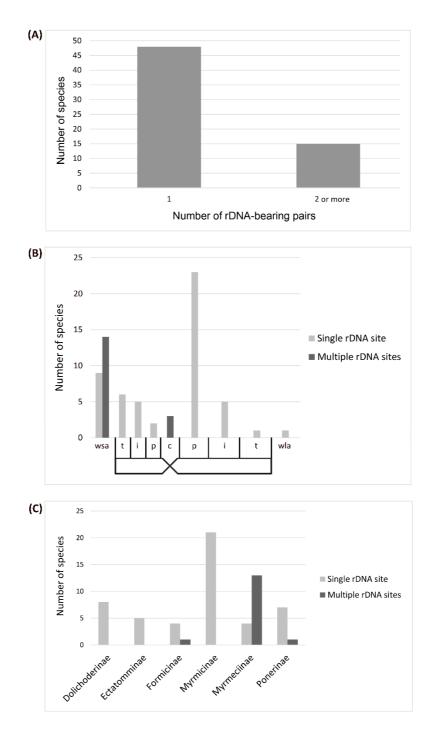
9 In the giant ants of the genus *Dinoponera*, two contrasting patterns have been 10 observed: *D. gigantea* (2n=82) has multiple rDNA sites located on its short chromosome 11 arms (Aguiar *et al.*, 2011), whereas *Dinoponera lucida* Emery, 1901 has a higher 12 chromosome number (2n=120), but only a single rDNA site restricted to the 13 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).

21

22 2 - Insights concerning the organizational patterns of ribosomal gene clusters in the
 ant genome

1 The mapping of the ribosomal gene clusters of 63 species distributed in 19 genera 2 and six subfamilies, together with information on their phylogenetic relationships, 3 demonstrated that a single pair of chromosomes bearing the GC-rich rDNA clusters is the 4 most frequent trait among the studied species, regardless of the chromosome number 5 (Table 1, Fig. 4A). Genomes carrying rDNA clusters in more than a single chromosome 6 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 7 8 hypothesize that having a single rDNA site should be considered a plesiomorphic trait 9 because multiple rDNA sites were observed in different non-related lineages that do not 10 share exclusive common ancestry and appear de novo throughout the Formicidae family.



1

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.

3 In eukaryotes, it is common to observe variations in the number of rDNA clusters 4 and the location of these genes in the chromosomes within genera (Sánchez-Gea et al., 5 2000; Gross et al., 2010; Cabral-de-Mello et al., 2011; Gokhman et al., 2014; Mazzoleni 6 et al., 2018), among populations (Panzera et al., 2014; Ferreti et al., 2019; Menezes et 7 al., 2019), and sexes of the same species (Nakayama et al., 2001; Šťáhlavský et al., 2018). 8 The possession of terminal rDNA clusters seems to be a common trait among mammals, 9 fish, and mollusks, but less so in arthropods (Sochorová et al., 2018). Within the ultra-10 diverse insect group, the location of rDNA clusters may follow distinct patterns in its two 11 largest orders; terminal rDNA sites are more abundant in Coleoptera, whereas 12 pericentromeric rDNA clusters are more frequent in Orthoptera (Sochorová et al., 2018). 13 In Formicidae, terminal rDNA sites are a less common feature and all species with 14 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. 15 16 (Aguiar et al., 2011, 2017; Hirai et al., 1994, 1996).

17 Different hypotheses have been proposed to explain the cytogenetic pattern 18 (conservative or variable) of these rDNA clusters in the genome of several organisms. 19 Such hypotheses are linked to the specific locations of these rDNA clusters on the 20 chromosomes. Rearrangements, such as translocations, unequal exchange, and ectopic 21 recombination mechanisms (i.e., between non-homologous chromosomes), which can 22 lead to gene dispersion or increases in number in the genome, are more likely in the 23 terminal/subterminal regions of chromosomes and are uncommon in the 24 intrachromosomal regions (Martins and Wasko, 2004; Mantovani et al., 2005; Nguyen et 25 al., 2010; Roy and Guerra, 2012; Hirai, 2020).

1 Based on rDNA mapping data in fish karyotypes, Martins and Wasko (2004) 2 proposed that translocations are more likely to occur in telomeric regions because of their 3 proximity within the interphase nucleus, which originates from the ordering of 4 chromosomes according to Rabl's model. Effects due to the location of ribosomal genes 5 in relation to their dispersion in the karyotype were also observed in Coleoptera 6 (Dutrillaux et al., 2016) and primates (Gerbault-Seureau et al., 2017). These authors 7 argued that translocations in the interstitial position could result in abnormal meiosis and, 8 therefore, unbalanced gametes. In contrast, translocations in terminal positions may 9 increase the number of rDNA genes in the genome. This would lead to fewer meiotic 10 abnormalities and highlights the selection for interstitial rDNA site stability (Dutrillaux 11 et al., 2016; Gerbault-Seureau et al., 2017).

12 Ectopic recombination is another mechanism suggested to explain the rDNA 13 patterning in moths and butterflies (Nguyen et al., 2010) and plants (Roa and Guerra, 14 2012). It is also included in the recent model proposed by Hirai (2020). In this model, 15 two mechanisms are important: the "site effect" and the "molecular effect." The former 16 allows terminal region associations due to the proximity of these regions in a meiotic 17 bouquet. The "site effect" is a precondition for the "molecular effect," which refers to 18 systems of affinity/non-affinity due to the similarity between rDNA sequences with other 19 repetitive sequences. Thus, rDNA clusters in the terminal regions tend to associate with 20 other repetitive sequences of non-homologous chromosomes more easily, facilitating the 21 occurrence of ectopic recombination and dispersion of these genes in the genome (Hirai, 22 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).

6 The ant rDNA chromosome evolution seems to be in accordance with the above-7 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, 9 terminal rDNA clusters are prone to rearrangements that lead to their dispersal. 10 Camponotus renggeri (Aguiar et al., 2017), D. gigantea (Aguiar et al., 2011), and 11 Myrmecia spp. present multiple NORs in the entire short chromosome arms including 12 terminal/subterminal regions, which facilitates the association of these genes with the 13 heterochromatic sequences of other non-homologous acrocentric chromosomes during 14 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 15 16 to change the position of rDNA genes in A. echinatior (this study), Dolichoderus spp. 17 (Santos et al., 2016), and Myrmecia spp. (Hirai et al., 1996).

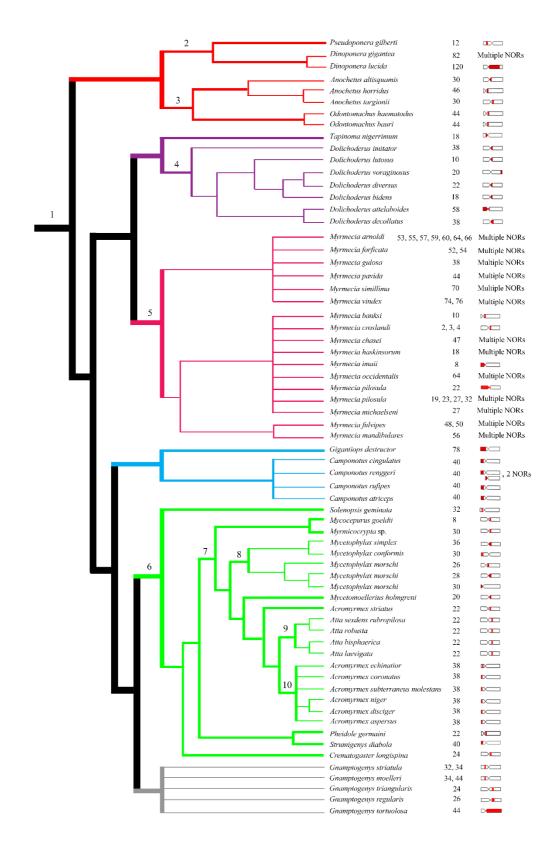


Figure 5. Summary of available data (this study and literature) concerning the number and position of rDNA genes in ant species, along with their degree of relatedness and diploid chromosome numbers. Ideograms of rDNA-bearing chromosomes show number

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 socalled 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.

15 Size heteromorphisms are frequent in karyotypes where the rDNA clusters have 16 terminal positions in the chromosomes, as reported in this study (G. tortuolosa and C. 17 atriceps) as well as in other ants (Aguiar et al., 2017) and insects in general (Cabral-de-18 Mello et al., 2011; Maryańska-Nadachowska et al., 2016; Andrade-Souza et al., 2018). 19 Subtle variations in the size of the rDNA clusters between homologous chromosomes can 20 be observed as a result of late condensation during cell division (Sumner, 2003). 21 However, large variations, such as those mentioned above, at the terminal region on the 22 chromosome are usually related to duplications/deletions as a result of unequal exchange 23 (Schubert and Lysack, 2011). It is believed that exchanges are less common in 24 intrachromosomal regions (Hirai, 2020).

Ant species	2n/(n)	Location of rDNA genes in karyotype	Ideogram	Co-localization CMA <sub>3</sub> /rDNA	Reference CMA <sub>3</sub> /rDNA
		Neotropical a	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		Yes	Barros et al. (2016)/ Present study
Acromyrmex niger	38	Largest subtelocentric pair		Yes <sup>a</sup>	Barros et al. (2016)
Acromyrmex striatus	22	2nd metacentric pair		Yes <sup>a</sup>	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)

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

Ant species	2n/(n)	Localization of rDNA genes in karyotype	Ideogram	Co-localization CMA <sub>3</sub> /rDNA	Reference CMA <sub>3</sub> /rDNA
Crematogaster longispina	24	Largest metacentric pair		Yes	Present study
Mycetophylax conformis	30	11th metacentric pair		Yes	Cardoso et al. (2014)/ Micolino et al. (2019a)
Mycetophylax morschi	26	2nd submetacentric pair		_	Micolino et al. (2019a)
Mycetophylax morschi	28	7th metacentric pair		_	Micolino et al. (2019a)
Mycetophylax morschi	30	Acrocentric pair		_	Micolino et al. (2019a)
Mycetophylax simplex	36	Smallest metacentric pair		Yes	Cardoso et al. (2014)/ Micolino et al. (2019a)
Mycocepurus goeldii	8	2nd metacentric pair		Yes <sup>a</sup>	Barros et al. (2010)/ Barros et al. (2012)
Myrmicocrypta sp.	30	9th metacentric pair		Yes	Present study
Pheidole germaini	22	Subtelocentric pair		Yes	Present study
Solenopsis geminata	32	Smallest submetacentric pair		Yes	Present study
Strumigenys diabola	40	4th submetacentric pair		Yes	Present study
Trachymyrmex holmgreni	20	4th metacentric pair		Yes	Barros et al. (2018)
Subfamily Formicinae					
Camponotus atriceps <sup>c</sup>	40	2nd submetacentric pair		Yes	Present study

Ant species	2n/(n)	Localization of rDNA genes in karyotype	Ideogram	Co-localizatio CMA3/rDNA	
Camponotus cingulatus <sup>c</sup>	40	2nd submetacentric pair		Yes	Aguiar et al. (2017)
Camponotus renggeri	40	2nd submetacentric pair and medium-sized subtelocentric pair		Yes	Aguiar et al. (2017)
Camponotus rufipes <sup>c</sup>	40	2nd submetacentric pair		Yes	Aguiar et al. (2017)
Gigantiops destructor	(39)	8th metacentric pair		Yes <sup>a</sup>	Present study
Subfamily Ponerinae					
Anochetus altisquamis <sup>c</sup>	30	3rd submetacentric pair		_	Santos et al. (2010)
Anochetus horridus <sup>c</sup>	46	4th telocentric pair		_	Santos et al. (2010)
Anochetus targionii	30	7th metacentric pair		Yes	Present study
Dinoponera gigantea	82	Multiple pairs	-	_	Aguiar et al. (2011)
Dinoponera lucida	(59)	Largest pair (A <sup>Mt</sup> )		Yes	Mariano et al. (2008)
Odontomachus bauri <sup>d</sup>	44/(22)	2nd subtelocentric pair	, ,	Yes	Present study
Odontomachus haematodus	44	3rd subtelocentric pair		Yes	Present study
Pseudoponera gilberti	22	Largest metacentric pair		Yes <sup>a</sup>	Present study

Ant species	2n/(n)	Localization of rDNA genes in karyotype	Ideogram	Co-localization CMA <sub>3</sub> /rDNA	<b>Reference</b> CMA <sub>3</sub> /rDNA
Subfamily Ectatomminae					
Gnamptogenys moelleri	34, 44	4th metacentric pair		Yes	Teixeira et al. (2020)
Gnamptongeys regularis <sup>d</sup>	26	Metacentric and submetacentric homologous		Yes	Teixeira et al. (2020)
Gnamptogenys striatula	32	5th metacentric pair		Yes	Teixeira et al. (2020)
Gnamptogenys striatula	34	4th metacentric pair		Yes	Teixeira et al. (2020)
Gnamptogenys triangularis	24	Largest metacentric pair		Yes	Teixeira et al. (2020)
Gnamptogenys tortuolosa <sup>c</sup>	44	Subtelocentric and submetacentric homologous		Yes	Present study
Subfamily Dolichoderinae					
Dolichoderus attelaboides	58	Largest submetacentric pair		Yes	Santos et al. (2016)
Dolichoderus bidens	18	Largest metacentric pair		Yes <sup>a</sup>	Santos et al. (2016)
Dolichoderus decollatus	38	2nd metacentric pair		Yes	Santos et al. (2016)
Dolichoderus diversus	22	Largest metacentric pair		Yes <sup>a</sup>	Santos et al. (2016)

Ant species	2n/(n)	Localization of rDNA genes in karyotype	Ideogram	Co-localization CMA3/rDNA	Reference CMA <sub>3</sub> /rDNA
Dolichoderus imitator	38	Largest metacentric pair		Yes	Santos et al. (2016)
Dolichoderus lutosus	10	2nd metacentric pair		Yes <sup>a</sup>	Santos et al. (2016)
Dolichoderus voraginosus	20	Largest metacentric pair		No <sup>a</sup>	Santos et al. (2016)
		Australian ant	S		
Subfamily Myrmeciinae					
Myrmecia banksi <sup>c</sup>	10	Smallest acrocentric pair		_	Hirai et al. (1994), (1996)
Myrmecia chasei	47	Multiple pairs	-	_	Hirai et al. (1996)
Myrmecia croslandi <sup>d</sup>	2, 3, 4 <sup>b</sup>	Acrocentric pair	, ,	_	Hirai et al. (1994), (1996)
Myrmecia forficata	52 <sup>b</sup> , 54	Multiple pairs	-	_	Hirai et al. (1996)
Myrmecia fulvipes	48, 50	Multiple pairs	-	_	Hirai et al. (1996)
Myrmecia gulosa	38 <sup>b</sup>	Multiple pairs	-	_	Hirai et al. (1996)
Myrmecia haskinsorum	18	Multiple pairs	-	_	Hirai et al. (1994), (1996)

1	
2	

3 4

Ant species	<b>2n/(n)</b>	Localization of rDNA genes in karyotype	Ideogram	Co-localization CMA <sub>3</sub> /rDNA	Reference CMA <sub>3</sub> /rDNA
Myrmecia imaii <sup>c</sup>	8	Largest acrocentric pair		_	Hirai et al. (1994), (1996)
Myrmecia mandibularis	56 <sup>b</sup>	Multiple pairs	-	_	Hirai et al. (1996)
Myrmecia michaelseni	27	Multiple pairs	-	_	Hirai et al. (1996)
Myrmecia occidentalis	64 <sup>b</sup>	Multiple pairs	-	_	Hirai et al. (1996)
Myrmecia pavida	44	Multiple pairs	-	_	Hirai et al. 1996
Myrmecia pilosula	22 <sup>b</sup>	Acrocentric pair		_	Hirai et al. (1996)
Myrmecia pilosula	19, 23 <sup>b</sup> , 27, 32	Multiple pairs	-	_	Hirai et al. (1994), (1996)
Myrmecia simillima	70 <sup>b</sup>	Multiple pairs	-	_	Hirai et al. (1996)
Myrmecia arnoldi	53, 55, 57, 59, 60 <sup> b</sup> , 64, 66	Multiple pairs	-	_	Hirai et al. (1996)
Myrmecia vindex	74, 76	Multiple pairs	-	_	Hirai et al. (1996)
		Palearctic ant			

### **Subfamily Dolichoderinae**

Tapinoma nigerrimum	18	Largest submetacentric pair		Yes	Lorite et al. (1997)
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<sup>a</sup>: Additional markers CMA<sub>3</sub><sup>+</sup>. <sup>b</sup>: Data showed by Hirai et al. (1996). <sup>c</sup>: Heteromorphism of rDNA clusters between the homologous. <sup>d</sup>: Polymorphism of rDNA clusters between the homologous. – unavailable data.

Table 2. The relationship between Neotropical ant species studied using 18S rDNA FISH and the	ir chromosome number
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Ant species	Subfamily	Locality	2n
Acromyrmex echinatior (Forel, 1899)	Myrmicinae	Barro Colorado – Panamá	38
Anochetus targionii Emery 1894	Ponerinae	Campus Agronomique, Kourou – FG	30
Camponotus atriceps (Smith, 1858)	Formicinae	Viçosa – Minas Gerais – BR	40
Crematogaster longispina Emery, 1890	Myrmicinae	La Montagne des Singes – FG	24
Gigantiops destructor (Fabricius, 1804)	Formicinae	Sinnamary – FG	78
Gnamptogenys tortuolosa (Smith, 1858)	Ectatominae	Sinnamary – FG	44
Myrmicocrypta sp.	Myrmicinae	Sinnamary – FG	30
Odontomachus bauri Emery, 1892	Ponerinae	Açailândia – Maranhão – BR	44
Odontomachus haematodus (Linnaeus, 1758)	Ponerinae	Campus Agronomique, Kourou – FG Ubá – Minas Gerais – BR	44
Pheidole germaini Emery, 1896	Myrmicinae	Viçosa – Minas Gerais – BR	22
Pseudoponera gilberti (Kempf, 1960)	Ponerinae	Sinnamary – FG	12
Solenopsis geminata (Fabricius, 1804)	Myrmicinae	Sinnamary – FG	32
Strumigenys diabola Bolton 2000	Myrmicinae	Sinnamary – FG	40

21 FG: French Guiana, BR: Brazil.

1 Size variations in the rDNA clusters can be observed when these genes are located 2 in the interstitial/pericentromeric region of the chromosomes, as seen in Gnamptogenys 3 regularis Mayr, 1870 (Teixeira et al., 2020) and in O. bauri (this study). A different path 4 seems to be involved in the evolution of these karyotypes compared to the rearrangements 5 involved in terminal rDNA heteromorphisms. In these cases, the mechanism may be 6 associated with the formation of extrachromosomal circular DNA (eccDNA), which is 7 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, 9 or they may be replicated via a rolling circle mechanism and reintegrated into the original 10 chromosome, producing duplications of these repetitive sequences (Cohen and Segal, 11 2009).

12 In ants as well as in other eukaryotes, rDNA clusters are located in GC-rich 13 regions (Symonová, 2019) and, therefore, usually coincide with CMA<sub>3</sub><sup>+</sup> bands, possibly 14 as a result of GC-biased gene conversion (gBGC) over the course of evolutionary time 15 (Escobar et al., 2011). This co-localization of GC-rich regions and rDNA was observed 16 for all the ants studied to date (Table 2), with the exception of D. voraginosus (Santos et 17 al., 2016). However, GC-rich chromatin is not always an indication of ribosomal genes, 18 as seen here in G. destructor, P. gilberti, and in some Dolichoderus spp. and fungus-19 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

1 clusters within the genome follow general patterns that govern the modes of evolution for 2 these genes (Martins and Wasko, 2004; Nguyen et al., 2010; Dutrillaux et al., 2016; 3 Gerbault-Seureau et al., 2017; Hirai, 2020; this study). We can conclude that having only 4 a single pair of chromosomes bearing rDNA clusters is more common in the ant genome 5 because of the pericentromeric/interstitial location of these genes on the chromosomes. 6 Intrachromosomal regions are sites with low frequencies of rearrangements, such as non-7 Robertsonian translocations and ectopic recombination, and are therefore less prone to 8 meiotic abnormalities. It should be assumed that the chromosomal location of rDNA 9 clusters influences the dispersion of these genes within the karyotype.

Future studies will allow the mapping of rDNA genes in more ant taxa, including 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.

16

- 17 Experimental Procedures
- 18

### 19 **1** - Obtaining samples for analysis

20

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.

8 In this study, previous molecular cytogenetic data related to rDNA genes (45S, 9 18S, or 28S) mapped by FISH from 50 ant species were used. For comparative analysis, 10 the following traits were considered for each species: chromosome number, number of 11 rDNA-bearing chromosomes, location of rDNA clusters in the karyotype, and co-12 localization of CMA<sub>3</sub> fluorochrome and rDNA clusters. Ag-NOR data were disregarded 13 due to the highly variable patterns and unreliable results (for details, see Introduction).

14

### 15 **2 – Chromosome preparation**

16

17 Mitotic metaphase chromosomes were obtained from the cerebral ganglia of 18 larvae after meconium elimination, using colchicine hypotonic solution (0,005%) and 19 fixatives according to the methods described by Imai *et al.* (1988).

20

3 - Staining with fluorochromes chromomycin A<sub>3</sub> (CMA<sub>3</sub>) and 4'6- diamidino-2phenylindole (DAPI)

23

24 Metaphase chromosomes of all the species, except *Ac. echinatior*, were stained 25 with the fluorochromes CMA<sub>3</sub> 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
the CMA<sub>3</sub>/DAPI staining in this species was performed by these authors.

4

### 5 4 - Fluorescent *in situ* hybridization with rDNA 18S probe

6

7 The 18S rDNA probes were obtained by amplification via polymerase chain 8 reaction (PCR) using Melipona quiquefasciata Lepeletier, 1836, rDNA primers 18SF1 9 (5'-GTC ATA GCT TTG TCT CAA AGA-3') and 18SR1.1 (5'-CGC AAA TGA AAC 10 TTT AAT CT-3') (Pereira, 2006) in the genomic DNA from the ant Camponotus rufipes 11 (Fabricius, 1775). Gene amplification was performed following Pereira (2006). The 12 probes were labeled by an indirect method using digoxigenin-11-dUTP (Roche Applied 13 Science, Mannheim, Germany), and the FISH signals were detected with anti-14 digoxigenin-rhodamine (Roche Applied Science), following the manufacturer's protocol. 15 The rDNA 18S genes were mapped by FISH, following the protocol of Pinkel et 16 al. (1986). The slides were treated with RNase A (100  $\mu$ g/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 18  $5 \mu g/ml$  pepsin in 0.01 N HCl for 10 min, washed in 1×PBS for 5 min and dehydrated in 19 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°C for 3 min, and 20 µL of 21 hybridization mix including 200 ng of labeled probe, 2×SSC, 50% formamide, and 10% 22 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×SSC 24 for 5 min; the detection solution including anti-digoxigenin-rhodamine was added on 25 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.
- 3

#### 4 5 - Chromosomal analysis

5

6 Chromosomes were arranged in order of decreasing size and based on the ratio of 7 the chromosomes arm lengths (r = long arm/short arm), according to the classification 8 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<sup>®</sup> 21.1.1 and measured 11 using Image Pro Plus<sup>®</sup>. Ideograms of the NOR-bearing chromosome/chromosomes (i.e., 12 graphical representation of the chromosomes concerning the rDNA clusters) of the ant 13 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 CMA<sub>3</sub>, DAPI, and rhodamine, respectively.

21

### 22 6 - Phylogenetic relationships

23

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).

8

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10

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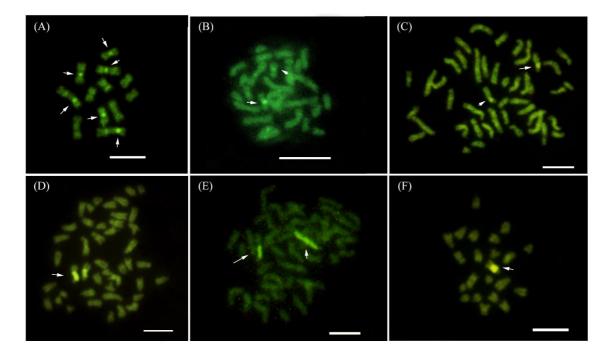


Figure S1. Staining with chromomycin A<sub>3</sub> showing GC-rich regions (arrows) of
Ponerinae ants: (A) *Pseudoponera gilberti* (2n=12), (B) *Anochetus targionii* (2n=30), (C) *Odontomachus haematodus* (2n=44, French Guiana), (D, E) *Odontomachus bauri*showing the homozygous and heterozygous states, respectively (2n=44), and (F) male of *Odontomachus bauri* with the smaller size regions rich in GC base pairs. Bars = 5 µm.

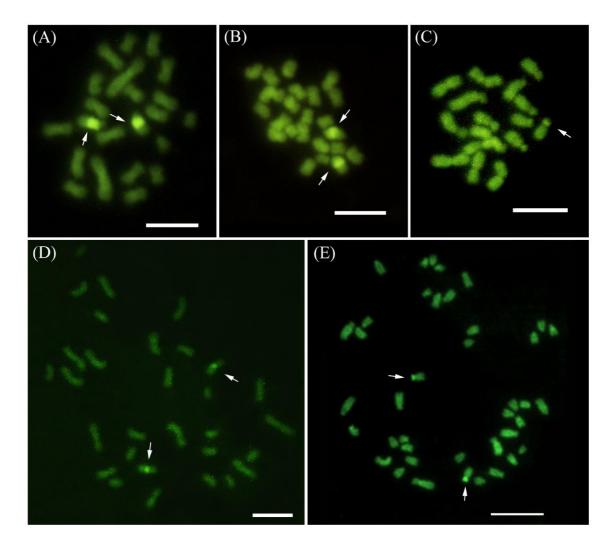


Figure S2. Staining with chromomycin A<sub>3</sub> showing GC-rich regions (arrows) of
Myrmicinae ants: (A) *Pheidole germaini* (2n=22), (B) *Crematogaster longispina*(2n=24), (C) *Solenopsis geminata* (n=16), (D) *Myrmicocrypta* sp. (2n=30), (E) *Strumigenys diabola* (2n=40). Bars = 5 μm.

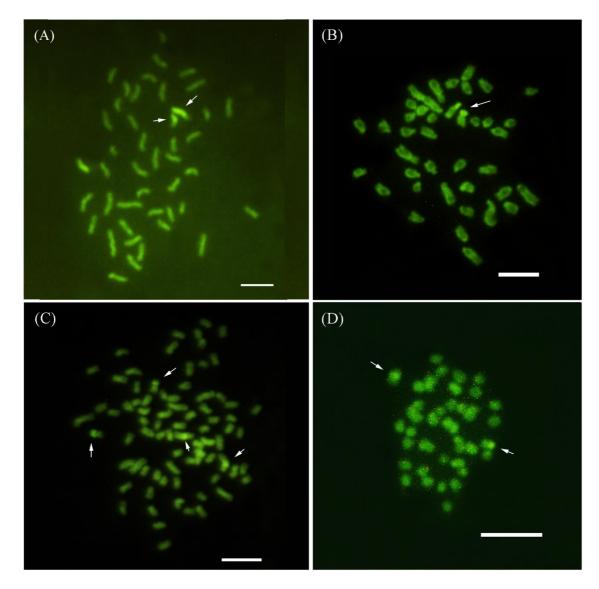


Figure S3 Staining with chromomycin A<sub>3</sub> showing GC-rich regions (arrows) of an
Ectatomminae ant (A) *Gnamptogenys tortuolosa* (2n=44), and Formicinae ants (B) *Camponotus atriceps* (2n=40) and (C, D) *Gigantiops destructor* (2n=78, n=39). Bars = 5
μm.

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