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**HONEY BEE BEHAVIOURAL EVOLUTION AND
ITPR GENE STRUCTURE STUDIES**

Thesis submitted by

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In March 2002

for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy
in Zoology and Tropical Ecology
within the School of Tropical Biology
James Cook University

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March 27, 2002

ABSTRACT

Honey bees (genus *Apis*) display a rich variety of fascinating traits, which can reveal considerable information about their evolution by means of analysis and investigation. Therefore, my main objective is to investigate some of these traits in order to determine food recruitment and nesting behaviour ancestral traits in *Apis*.

In my first experiment, I focused on foraging behaviour performed by the forager honey bee. Its ability to conduct food recruitment through elegant dance behaviour is facilitated by memory formation in the brain. In the first experimental study described in Chapter 2, I conducted an *itpr* gene characterisation, a highly expressed gene present in honey bee brain (Kamikouchi et al. 1998). A partial sequence of the *A. mellifera itpr* gene was obtained which comprised of 2, 091 bp and showed 62%, 60%, 33%, 56%, and 56% similarities respectively to those in *Panulurius argus* (lobster), *Drosophila melanogaster*, *Caenorhabditis elegans*, *Xenopus laevis*, and *Mus musculus itpr-1*. A phylogenetic analysis using *itpr* demonstrated that *D. melanogaster itpr* is closest to that of *A. mellifera itpr*. It has two introns showing the same positions as those of *D. melanogaster itpr* introns (Sinha and Hasan 1999) and there are four *Apis itpr* introns which appear absent in *D. melanogaster*. In my research, I investigated several conserved putative sites in *A. mellifera* IP₃R protein namely protein kinase A (PKA) and protein kinase C (PKC) phosphorylation sites. These particular phosphorylation sites are considered to be important in honey bee memory formation (Menzel 2001).

Certain parts of *itpr* characterised in Chapter 2 were used as molecular markers for honey bee molecular phylogenetic reconstruction, concatenated with *COII* and *lsRNA* genes.

In further analysis based on the more complex model of DNA evolution, another hypothesis of *Apis* evolution was revealed. According to this model, the monophyletic *Apis* genus is split into two lines; those are the *A. mellifera* group line and the *A. dorsata* and *A.*

florea groups line. Another outcome based on *COII* molecular phylogenetics combined with previous data, indicated the ambiguity detected in *A. koschevnikovi* by Willis et al. (1992) resulted from a possible error.

A. florea and *A. andreniformis* were confirmed as basal species in *Apis* phylogeny followed by the more derived species: *A. dorsata*, *A. laboriosa*, *A. d. binghamii*, *A. mellifera*, *A. koschevnikovi*, *A. cerana*, *A. nuluensis*, and *A. nigrocincta*. My findings suggest that *A. nuluensis* and *A. nigrocincta* are the most derived species and that they have recently speciated from *A. cerana*.

By mapping dance behaviour characteristics onto the weighted Maximum Likelihood (ML) consensus tree, an interesting result was produced. It was found that unordered trait analysis did not answer the question whether horizontal dancing or vertical dancing was the ancestral trait because species with vertical dance behaviour are monophyletic and so are those with horizontal dance behaviour. However, given that horizontal dancing behaviour is less complex, an ordered dance character state seems justified. Based on these considerations, horizontal dance behaviour seems most likely to be ancestral. Another possibility of dance behaviour evolution hypothesis revealed by applying another DNA evolution model in ML analysis, mentioned that the vertical dancer honey bees (*A. mellifera* and *A. dorsata* group) are not monophyletic; they are clustered in different clade. The latter are in the same clade with the other horizontal dancers, *A. florea* group. Hence, it turns another possibility that vertical dance could be the ancestral to that of horizontal dance.

Inferring honey bee nest behaviour by mapping onto the molecular phylogenetics tree led me to the conclusion that there were two alternative evolutionary histories accounting well for this behaviour. One scenario has the ancestral state for *Apis* being open nesting with cavity nesting being a derived state. In the other, equally parsimonious scenario, cavity nesting in *Apis* is ancestral and apparent derived directly from cavity nesting in the

Bombini and Meliponini, and open-nesting has been evolved twice (or once) in the *A. florea* and *A. dorsata* groups.

Only open nesters that construct platform at the top of their nests perform horizontal dancing. Other open nesters such as the *A. dorsata* group do not construct such platform and so it is possible that their dance behaviour has evolved into a vertical dance. Similar features namely no platform and vertical dance behaviour exists in the *A. mellifera* group. Hence, there is an adaptation of dance behaviour to the nest structure, which shows a correlation between these two behavioural character traits.

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Last, but not least, I wish to say thank you, to my mama and papa, and to my mother-in-law and father-in-law, for their patient prayers for my study success.

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STATEMENT ON SOURCES

DECLARATION

I declare that this thesis is my own work and has not been submitted in any form for another degree or diploma at any university or other institution of tertiary education. Information derived from the published or unpublished work of others has been acknowledged in the text and a list of references is given.

Rika Raffiudin

March 27, 2002

Chapter 1. General Introduction: Honey bee biology and neural system

INTRODUCTION

E.O. Wilson wrote in his review paper for Karl von Frisch book 'The Dance Language and Orientation of Bees' that "The life of bees is like a magic well, the more you draw from it, the more there is to draw" (Wilson 1968).

This chapter provides some essential background to honey bee biology. In particular, it will cover honey bee current taxonomy, biogeography and the fossil record. This general information is important to introduce specific areas of interest in my project, which are nesting and dance behaviour in honey bees, and how this behaviour relates to gene expressed in the brain, specifically the inositol-1,4,5 trisphosphate receptor (*itpr*) gene.

It is the aim of my study to explore the behavioural evolution of this social insect, in terms of dance and nesting behaviour. Descriptions of these two behavioural traits will follow the second section of this introductory chapter. Behavioural evolutionary traits will be discussed by using molecular phylogenetic approach in Chapter 3.

Honey bee dance communication can be described as special interesting behaviour, due to the elaborate way of advertising a food source to the nestmates in the colony. Honey bee brain facilitates their ability to perform such advanced communication. Neurophysiological studies have referred certain parts of the brain, which shape learning and memory ability in this social insect. In an attempt to trace the molecular basis of dance behaviour, this topic will be discussed towards the end of this chapter which will conclude with a reference to particular gene members expressed in the honey bee brain.

Honey bee biology

Honey bees live in a colony containing thousands of individuals. As an eusocial insect the drone (male) and the queen are the reproductive members in the colony, and there

are overlapping generations of parent and offspring. Brood provisioning is occurring with live overlap times between parent and offspring generations (Wilson 1971). Only a single queen can exist in the colony (monogyny) (Winston 1987), but she can mate with more than ten drones (polyandry) (Palmer and Oldroyd 2001). In contrast, worker honey bees are non-reproductive caste members, although they also have limited reproductive capabilities (Ratnieks 1995; Oldroyd and Ratnieks 2000; Halling et al. 2001). Honey bees have male haploid mechanism of sex determination where fertilised eggs produce a female (queen or worker) while unfertilized eggs produce a male (drone) (Wilson 1971; Winston 1987).

Honey bee colonies also exhibit highly developed division of labour. Different tasks within the colony are carried out by different worker castes. The tasks performed are primarily age-related. In the first three weeks after pupation, workers spend their time inside the nest where tasks involve cleaning, brood rearing, constructing the nest, and guarding (Lindauer 1961). Following this, in the final stages of her life time (3-6 weeks), a worker perform outside foraging tasks (Seeley 1991).

Honey bee taxonomy

Honey bees (genus *Apis*) belong to the order Hymenoptera, suborder Apocrita, infraorder Acuelata, superfamily Apoidea, family Apidae, subfamily Apinae, tribe Apini. The Apidae are characterised by long tongues and recent classifications describe this family as comprising the three subfamilies Xylocopinae, Nomadinae and Apinae (which contain the honey bee). Within Apinae are nineteen tribes, which are classified as either corbiculate (including the honey bees) or non-corbiculate bees (Michener 2000). Corbiculate group bees has a “corbicula” or pollen basket (Michener et al. 1978) in the worker’s hind leg. Corbiculate bees include the tribes Euglossini, Bombini, Meliponini and Apini (which include *Apis*) (Michener 2000).

Genus Apis

The genus *Apis* is a small group of bees, having an apiform (apine-like) body type. Worker body size ranges from small to large (7-19 mm) with hairy-erected eyes. The hind tibia lack spurs and the hind wing has both jugal and vannal lobes, with a shallow

incision. The male genitalia are reduced in *Apis*, but the endophallus is highly developed (Michener 2000).

Traditionally, the *Apis* genus was known consisted of four species, those are *A. mellifera*, *A. cerana*, *A. dorsata* and *A. florea* (Koeniger 1976). Current studies mentioned that there are five more *Apis* species, namely, *A. andreniformis* (Wu and Kuang 1987), *A. koschevnikovi* (Tingek et al. 1988), *A. laboriosa* (Sakagami and Matsumura 1980; Underwood 1990b), *A. nigrocincta* (Hadisoesilo et al. 1995) and *A. nuluensis* (Tingek et al. 1996).

Honey bee species are clustered into three species groups based on body and wing size. *A. florea* species group consists of dwarf honey bees with worker forewing length of 5-7 mm. The drone has an inner lobe process at the hind tibia (Maa 1953). Medium sized honey bees are clustered in the *A. mellifera* group, with a forewing length of 7-10 mm. The giant honey bees are classified in the *A. dorsata* group with a forewing length of 12-15 mm. The two latter drone honey bee groups lack of inner lobe in the hind leg (Ruttner 1975). The following is a description of each species.

A. florea Fabricius

This species is a dwarf honey bee, 7-10 mm for workers body length. The queen is almost twice as long as the workers (13-15 mm) and drone is 11-13 mm long (Wu and Kuang 1987). Two distinctive worker characteristics are white basitarsal hairs and bright red-brown colours on the first and second abdominal tergites. The cubital index (that is length ratio of two cubital veins) is 2.78 (Wongsiri et al. 1990) - 2.864 (Rinderer et al. 1995). Worker head width is 2.60 ± 0.03 mm and wing length is 6.26 ± 0.10 mm (Seeley 1982). Drones have distinct characteristics of a long inner lobe on the hind tibia (Maa 1953; Wu and Kuang 1987) and an endophallus which is thin and curved at the terminal end and a double coiled of the bursal cornua (Wongsiri et al. 1990). *A. florea* drone mating flight is from 14.00 h - 16.45 h (Rinderer et al. 1993).

A. andreniformis Smith

A. andreniformis is another dwarf honey bee (Wu and Kuang 1987). Worker body length is 8-9 mm. Cubital index of the front wing is 6.282-6.378 which is much longer than that of *A. florea* (Rinderer et al. 1995; de Guzman et al. 1992). Drones have an inner lobe on the hind tibia, which is half the size of *A. florea*. Workers have black hairs on the hindleg and the chestnut-brown color of the first and second abdominal tergites. Drone endophallus has a thick and straight terminal end (Wongsiri et al. 1990). Drone mating flight takes place from 12.15 h - 13.45 h (Rinderer et al. 1993).

A. mellifera Linneaus

A. mellifera is a medium size honey bee, with a forewing length of 7.64-9.70 mm and a forewing cubital index of 2.30. Mean value of hind wing hook (hamuli) is 21.30. Workers head width is 3.77 ± 0.04 mm (Seeley 1982). Drones have an endophallus with one pair of cornua bulbs and chitinous plates are present. The upper cornua of the drone endophallus are rudimentary and *A. mellifera* drone cells cap lack of pores (Ruttner 1988).

A. cerana Fabricius

A. cerana, another medium size honey bee, has specific brownish yellow mouthparts, scutellum, coxae II and trochanter II-III. The wing is almost clear hyaline (Maa 1953) while the femur II and tibia II are black. Workers head width is 3.38 ± 0.06 mm and wing length is 7.54 ± 0.14 mm (Tingek et al. 1996). Cubital index measurement of the forewing is 4.40 (Seeley 1982). *A. cerana* endophallus lacks of the chitinous plate, which occurs in the *A. mellifera* endophallus. It has three pairs of upper cornua and perforated drone cap cells (Ruttner 1988).

A. nigrocincta Smith

A. nigrocincta was described by Smith (1861), based on the A.R. Wallace collection. Workers are characterised by a pale or rusty color of the antennae scape, clypeus, labrum, mandibles, scutellum, legs and abdomen (Smith 1861; Hadisoesilo et al. 1995) with reddish-tan hair over most of the body. Forewings are slightly darker hyaline (Maa, 1953). Morphometric results show significant differences between sympatric *A.*

cerana in hind femur, tibia, metatarsus length, tergite III and IV and forewing cubital index which is 3.84 ± 0.228 (Hadisoesilo et al. 1995). Reproductive isolation between sympatric *A. cerana* and *A. nigrocincta* has been confirmed based on drone mating flight (12.30 h – 14.30 h in *A. nigrocincta* and 15.20 h - 17.30 h in *A. cerana*) and on differences in male genitalia (Hadisoesilo and Otis 1996). *A. nigrocincta* drone cell cap composed of thin wax without pore, unlike that of *A. cerana* drone cap cell which is hard and porous (Hadisoesilo and Otis 1998).

A. nuluensis Tingek, Koeniger, Koeniger

A. nuluensis is a montane medium sized honey bee characterised by light-brown femur II and femur III. There are four whitish tomenta on the tergite and long abdominal hairs on workers (0.23 ± 0.016 mm). Drone pigmentation is entirely black on the thorax and abdomens (Tingek et al. 1996). Morphometric analysis reveals that *A. nuluensis* is similar in body size measurements to *A. nigrocincta* but wing venation measurements are closer to those of *A. cerana* (Fuchs et al. 1996). Drone mating flight is at 10.44 h-13.12 h (Koeniger et al. 1996), which clearly distinguishes from *A. cerana* (16.15 h-17.15 h) (Koeniger and Wijayagunasekera 1976).

A. koschevnikovi Enderlein

A. koschevnikovi workers have their distinctive yellow-orange colour in most body parts while the drone is mostly brown (Woyke 1997). Workers are medium sized (body length approximately 10-11 mm), forewing length of 8.46 ± 0.11 mm, with cubital index 7.64 ± 1.40 (Tingek et al. 1996). Overall, it is larger than *A. cerana* (Ruttner et al. 1989). *A. koschevnikovi* drone mating flight is at 16.15 h - 18.15 h, which clearly separate it from sympatric *A. cerana* at 13.45 h - 15.30 h (Koeniger et al. 1988).

A. dorsata Fabricius

A. dorsata has a rusty brown pubescence and dark tinge on the workers wings (Ruttner 1988). Workers have a bicolor integument - yellow and black on the abdomen tergites, and a raised ocular (Sakagami and Matsumura 1980). Workers head width is 4.71 ± 0.09 mm, wing length is 12.34 ± 0.34 mm (Seeley 1982). Drone endophallus is unique in form having three long, thin bursal cornua that are bent ventrally (Ruttner 1988).

Drone flight mating time is 18.00 h - 18.45 h (Koeniger and Wijayagunasekera 1976; Rinderer et al. 1993).

A. laboriosa Smith

This giant honey bee is restricted to high elevations (Maa 1953). However, several studies have classified *A. laboriosa* as a subspecies of *A. dorsata* (Koeniger 1976; Engel 1999). Several morphometric characteristics significantly distinguish it from sympatric *A. dorsata*. Different drone mating flights distinguish *A. laboriosa* from *A. dorsata* being 12.20 h - 14.20 h (Underwood, 1990b) and 18.00 h - 18.45 h (Koeniger and Wijayagunasekera 1976), respectively. Overall body size is larger in *A. laboriosa* than *A. dorsata*, in forewing (length and width), head width and malar ratio. Abdomen coloration integument is uniformly black in *A. laboriosa* in contrast to the yellow and black bicolor of *A. dorsata*. The other striking characteristic is the ocellar area, which is flat in *A. laboriosa* and distinctly raised in *A. dorsata* (Maa 1953; Sakagami and Matsumura 1980). However, there are no apparent endophallus characteristics distinctions between *A. laboriosa* and *A. dorsata* (McEvoy and Underwood 1988).

Honey bee distribution

The genus *Apis* is native to the Old World: Asia, Europe and all of Africa. *A. cerana* and *A. mellifera* are the most widely distributed of all honeybees. *A. cerana* mostly occupies the eastern world while *A. mellifera* spread throughout Europe and Africa, before being introduced as an agricultural commodity to the New World (Ruttner 1988). General descriptions of *Apis* distribution are provided in the following paragraphs.

A. florea is restricted to the South East (SE) Asian mainland from Thailand, Vietnam and India, but it has recently reported dispersed further west to Iraq and Oman (Otis 1996). While *A. florea* is usually found in lowland areas below 500 m (Wu and Kuang 1987), it has also been found in high elevations such as 1600 m in Thailand (Wongsiri et al. 1997) and up to 1900 m in Iran (Ruttner et al. 1995).

A. andreniformis is distributed throughout Indochina and Sundaland. On the mainland it is distributed throughout Thailand and the Malay Peninsula (Otis 1996). *A.*

andreniformis is also found in the SE Asian archipelago: Sumatra (Salmah et al. 1990), Borneo (Raffiudin, R personal observation; Koeniger et al. 2000) and Palawan Island (de Guzman et al. 1992; Otis 1996). *A. andreniformis* occurs in both lowland areas 0 - 500 m elevation (Salmah et al. 1990) and in highland areas up to 1600 m in Thailand (Wongsiri et al. 1997).

A. mellifera is the most widely distributed honey bee species, and is found in desert and cold temperate regions. However, this species is not native to most Asian regions. Based on morphometric analysis, *A. mellifera* subspecies is classified into three lineages, those are the A, M, and C lineage (Ruttner et al. 1978). Further, the C lineage is differentiated into two lineage, C and O lineage (Ruttner 1988); Arias and Sheppard 1996; Franck et al. 2000). South and Central African subspecies covered by the A lineage *A. mellifera* subspecies: *A. m. lamarckii*, *A. m. litorea*, *A. m. scutellata*, *A. m. yemenitica*, *A. m. monticola*, *A. m. adansonii*, *A. m. unicolor*, and *A. m. capansis* (Ruttner 1988). The M lineage covers the North European subspecies (*A. m. mellifera*), Spain and Portugal (*A. m. iberica*) and the North African (*A. m. saharensis*, *A. m. intermissa*). The C lineage includes subspecies from Italy (*A. m. ligustica*), Austria and Yugoslavia (*A. m. carnica*), Northern Greece and Bulgaria (*A. m. macedonica*), Southern Greece (*A. m. cecropia*) and Sicily (*A. m. sicula*). The O lineage includes subspecies from the Caucasus Mountain (*A. m. caucasica*), Armenia (*A. m. armenica*), Turkey (*A. m. anatoliaca*), Syria (*A. m. syriaca*), Cyprus (*A. m. cypria*) and Crete (*A. m. adami*) and *A. m. meda* (Ruttner 1988).

Molecular studies on *A. mellifera* subspecies variations have been done in the last ten years. Overall, morphometric and molecular approaches concur in supporting the subspecies lineages of *A. mellifera* (Smith 1991; Garnery et al. 1992), except for several subspecies, such as the North African subspecies (Franck et al. 2001). This subspecies is grouped in the O lineage based on mitochondrial data (Franck et al. 2001), but in the M lineage on the basis of morphometrics (Ruttner 1988). Moreover, in Ruttner's O morphometric lineage, only *A. m. syriaca* has the O mitochondrial haplotype (Franck et al. 2000). Another difference between the two kinds of data is in the classification of *A. m. anatolica*, the Turkish subspecies. It is grouped in the O morphometric lineage

(Ruttner 1988), whereas it has the C mitochondrial haplotype (Smith et al. 1997). Further, the A mitochondrial haplotype is also detected in the M morphometric lineage *A. m. iberica*, and in the C morphometric lineage *A. m. sicula*.

A. cerana is another honey bee species, which occupies a vast area, ranging from West Afghanistan to the Philippines. This species also has several subspecies. Western and Northeast Asian countries (Afghanistan, Pakistan, Kashmir, China, and Korea) are occupied by *A. c. cerana* (Ruttner 1988). *A. cerana* also exists in the Himalayan region (*A. cerana himalayana*). In the South and SE Asia, *A. c. indica* (Maa 1953) is the main subspecies which covers mainland India, Srilanka, Myanmar, Thailand, Malaysia, Sumatra, Java, Borneo, Lombok, Bali, Flores and most of Sulawesi, Timor, and Sabah (Damus and Otis 1997). The Philippine archipelago exhibits another subspecies namely *A. c. philippina* (Maa 1953) and Japan has *A. c. japonica*, except for Hokkaido Island (Hepburn et al. 2001).

A. nuluensis is a montane species found at elevations 1 524 - 3 400 m in two mountainous regions of Sabah, namely Mount Kinibalu and the Crocker Range (Gunung Emas) (Tingek et al. 1996).

A. koschevnikovi that is sympatric with *A. cerana*, is distributed in several regions Sumatra, the Malay Peninsula, Borneo and Java. Sadly, recent observations suggest that *A. koschevnikovi* is now rarely seen, except in Borneo, due to the destruction of forest habitat (Otis 1991). This species is usually found mostly at sea level, but has also been discovered at elevations up to 1000 m (Otis 1996).

A. nigrocincta is endemic to Sulawesi and adjacent islands (Selayar, Buton) and Sangihe (Damus and Otis 1997). In Sulawesi, this species exists sympatrically with *A. cerana*. *A. nigrocincta* tend to nest in forest areas, whereas *A. cerana* is predominant in urban area (Otis 1996).

A. dorsata has a large distribution area in Asia and is found as far west as India. It is distributed throughout Vietnam and the entire Asian mainland (Thailand, the Malay

Peninsula), and the South East Asian islands (Sumatra, Borneo, Java, Timor, Sulawesi, and the Philipines). Two subspecies of *A. dorsata* occur in Sulawesi namely *A. d. binghamii* and in the Philipines namely *A. d. breviligula* (Maa 1953). *A. dorsata* is also found in lowland areas and up to 1 300 m elevation (Himalayan region) (Sakagami and Matsumura 1980).

A. laboriosa is another montane honey bee which is restricted to elevations of 1200 – 4000 m, in the Himalayan region and distributed throughout India, Nepal, Bhutan, China including Tibet and Yunnan (Sakagami and Matsumura 1980; Roubik et al. 1985; Underwood 1990a) and Vietnam (Trung et al. 1996).

Bee fossil records

The corbiculate tribe Apinae originated in the late Cretaceous period. The oldest bee fossil is *Trigona* (Tribe Meliponini) in New Jersey amber 96-74 million years ago (Michener and Grimaldi 1988). Another Meliponini fossil was found in Miocene Dominican amber (Michener 1982), and two Meliponini fossils (*Kelneriapis eocenica* [Kelner-Pillault] and *Liotrigonopsis rozeni* Engel) from Baltic amber (Engel 2001a). The true Bombini fossil has not been found in amber as yet, although many fossils from Tribe Bombini (bumble bee) exist (Engel 2001a). Two species of Euglosini fossil have been found in Miocene amber from the Dominican Republic (Engel 1999). The fossil Electrapini (genus *Electrapis*) from Eocene Baltic amber is of special interest due to its close to resemblance to Bombini and Apini. It resembles Bombini by having the hind tibial spur and is related to Apini because of its jugal lobe in the hind wing (Cockerell 1908).

Honey bee fossils have been found in Baltic Amber (Zeuner and Manning 1976) and in China (Zhang 1990) all of which are from Tertiary strata. Recent compilation of *Apis* fossil data has cited seven accepted species of *Apis* fossils (Engel 1999), four of which are from the upper Miocene period namely *A. ambrusteri* (Germany) (Zeuner and Manning 1976), *A. longtibia* (China), *A. miocenica* (China) and *A. petrefacta* (Bohemia) (Engel 1998). Three of the fossils are from the Oligocene period namely *A. vetustus* (Germany), *A. henshawi* (Europe), and *A. cuenoti* (France) (Cockerell 1907; Engel 2001a).

Examination of wing venation in the three fossils in the genus *Electrapis*, fossil of *A. armbursteri*, fossil of *A. henshawi* and the extant *A. mellifera* have revealed no significant differences among them (Ruttner 1988; Engel 1998). Honey bee fossil wings have the same venations that exist in *A. mellifera*. The only differences are due to the venation wing lengths that affect wing cell size. The *A. armbursteri* fossil resembles the current *A. mellifera* in size and in the wax mirror on the abdomen (Zeuner and Manning 1976).

It is widely accepted that eusocial insects dominate terrestrial ecosystems, and this success has been attributed to their eusociality (Wilson, 1990). Engel (2001b), however, notes that numerous probably eusocial bee genera seen in fossil assemblages have died out leaving a depauperate bee fauna today, and questions the importance of eusociality in achieving ecological dominance. However, as acknowledged by Engel (2001b), the loss of diversity has probably resulted from competitive pressure by the most successful lineages, which in the case of bees is the genus *Apis*.

Honey bee behaviour: nest structure and dance behaviour

Eusociality developed in three tribes of corbiculate bees; Bombini, Meliponini and Apini (Michener 1974). Among them, Apini appears to exhibit the most advanced behaviour shown by their ability to communicate (Lindauer 1961). The colony members work as a unit with highly integrated and decentralised decision-making (Seeley 1998).

Honey bees use a variety of signals to communicate. These signals can be classified as modulators and specific signals. Hölldobler (1984, p. 366) mentions that in a modulatory communication system “...in it, signals do not release specific behaviour patterns but rather modulate the probability of reactions to other stimuli by influencing the motivational state of the receiver”. Modulatory signals are transmitted by honey bees by means of tremble dances, and shaking signals (Schneider et al. 1986; Seeley 1992; Anderson and Ratnieks 1999). The most sophisticated and complex signals are conveyed by specialised ritualised signals such as the waggle dance (Lindauer and Kerr 1960; Hölldobler 1984).

Honey bee dance communication

Karl von Frisch and his group pioneered the research into honey bee dance communication (von Frisch 1967). When a forager returns from a food source, she unloads the nectar to the young receiver honey bees (Hart and Ratnieks 2001). Subsequently, she communicates the food source position (Seeley 1994).

Three types of dance communication for food source distance recruitment are displayed according to the food distance (von Frisch 1967). The round dance conveys an adjacent food source by a series of round runs (or round dances). Intermediate food distance information is conveyed by sickle dance. For long distances, a waggle dance is performed where the forager performs a series of wagging runs (Tautz and Rohrseitz 1996) followed by loop walking and repeating the waggle run. The waggle run appears to be the most important component in advertising the distance of the food source (Michelsen et al. 1992). Dance attenders extract considerable information from this behaviour, include the distance and the direction of the food source from the nest, together with the richness of the food (Lindauer 1961; Judd 1995). The distance of the food source is indicated by the duration of the waggle dance while the food source direction is shown by the angle of the waggle dance based on the position of the sun as the compass (Gould 1980). The richer the food sources the more lively the dance (Lindauer, 1961; Seeley et al. 2000).

Among honey bee species, dance behaviour is performed in two distinct orientations according to nest construction. The first type is the vertical dance which is performed by *A. mellifera*, *A. cerana*, *A. dorsata* (Koeniger and Koeniger 1980; Dyer 1985b; Punehihewa et al. 1985), *A. laboriosa* (Kirchner et al. 1996) and *A. nigrocincta* (Otis personal communication). The second type is the horizontal dance which is performed by *A. florea* (Koeniger et al. 1982; Dyer 1985a) and *A. andreniformis* (Rinderer et al. 1992).

In the vertical dance, the direction of the food source is indicated with respect to the gravity direction on the comb (Edrich 1977). The vertical dancer waggles upward if the food source is towards the sun and downwards if the food source is in the opposite

direction to the sun (von Frisch 1967). In contrast, the horizontal dance is performed by the forager on the flat platform at the top of the comb (Dyer 1985a). Here the waggle run points directly to the food source. Both vertical and horizontal dances use the sun as a compass (Lindauer 1956; Gould 1980). The horizontal dancers cannot compensate for gravity; they are only able to dance on a horizontal and slope nest (Dyer 1991).

The evolution of these sophisticated behaviour traits has been studied for some time. According to Lindauer (1961), the horizontal dance is the ancestral trait. Others suggest that the vertical dance is the ancestral characteristic (Koeniger 1976). In Chapter 3, I will focus on the polarity of this such behaviour, by mapping and reconstructing dance characteristics on the phylogenetic tree.

Nest sites

Nest structure is an example of another sophisticated architectural behaviour performed by honey bees. The nests comprise of compact hexagonal cells attached to a thin sheet of wax as a living area, which are used to rear the brood and for food storage (Michener 1974). Unlike other corbiculate bees, honey bee brood and food storage cells are mostly uniform in shape and size, except in *A. dorsata*, differ in their cell depth (Thakar, 1961). Male's cells are slightly larger because of their greater body size. The queen or the gyne cell formed a tube, large cell (Winston 1987). Brood cells are located in the middle part of the comb while pollen and nectar surround at the outer layers of the brood area (Camazine 1991). Reproductive cells (drone and queen cells) are located at the lower part of the comb.

Several differences in honey bee nest: size and comb numbers are apparent in each nest. The open-air nests consist of single comb but there is great size variation (Sakagami and Matsumura 1980). The giant bees nest can extend up to one metre in length whereas the dwarf honey bee nest covers only 20-30 cm (Rinderer et al. 1996).

Honey bee nests are found in two niches namely open air and cavity nests (Seeley 1983). The cavity nesters, *A. mellifera*, *A. cerana*, *A. nigrocincta*, *A. koschevnikovi* and *A. nuluensis*, construct several vertical parallel combs in hollow tree trunks. While these

are the habitual nesting sites of honey bee species, the fact that *A. mellifera* can occasionally nest in the open, as when combs are constructed hanging from a branch, indicates that there is a degree of flexibility in this behavior.

Open air nests can occupy a big branch of a tall tree (*A. dorsata*) (Wongsiri et al. 1996), hang on cliffs (*A. laboriosa*) (Underwood 1990a) and attached to small twigs (*A. andreniformis* and *A. florea*). Figure 1-4 illustrated the variety of honey bee nest morphologies: the cavity nesting *A. cerana*, and the open nesting *A. florea*, *A. andreniformis* and *A. dorsata*.



Figure 1. The cavity nesting of *A. cerana* (photograph taken from Seeley (1983))



Figure 2. *A. dorsata* open nesting



Figure 3. *A. florea* open nesting



Figure 4. *A. andreniformis* open nesting.

The *A. andreniformis* nest has two midribs, one below and one above the supporting branch. The upper midrib functions as the “nest crown”, providing for honey storage. The nest crown does not exist in *A. florea* nest, hence it has only the lower midrib. It is located under the supporting branch, close to the brood area (Rinderer et al. 1996). Overall, the depth and width of worker and drone cells are smaller in *A. andreniformis* compared to those of *A. florea* (Rinderer et al. 1996). In both dwarf honey bees, pollen is stored at the top of the brood nest location (Wongsiri et al. 1997).

The single combed *A. florea* group and the *A. dorsata* group reveals architectural differences. *A. dorsata* nests (Figure 2) are attached to the substrate (branch, wall, building and cliff), and so there is no free space above the nest (Starr et al. 1987; Underwood 1990a). On the other hand, *A. florea* and *A. andreniformis* nests (Figure 3 and 4) are attached around the twig, thus allowing free space at the top of the nest (Lindauer 1961; Raffiudin, R. personal observation). The freely attached nest has a flat platform of nectar cells. This flat platform at the top of *A. andreniformis* and *A. florea* nests serves as horizontal dance platform.

Evolution of the honey bee nest type is a behavioural trait that will be studied in detail in my study. Along with dance behaviour, nesting behaviour will be mapped in the molecular phylogenetic tree in Chapter 3.

Honey bee: behaviour and brain

Foraging bees obtain a variety of signals from celestial and terrestrial cues which guide them back to the nest and are subsequently transcribed when advertising their findings (Gould et al. 1970; Dyer and Gould 1983). The signals are received through honey bee chemosensory receptors, antennae and eyes (Collet 2000). Signals received by the antennae are relayed to antennal lobes while signals from the eyes are relayed to optical lobes. Finally, signals from the two lobes are relayed to specific parts of the honey bee brain namely corpora pedunculata or mushroom bodies (Mobbs 1982). These signals can be linked together to achieve associated learning (Srinivasan 1998). Hence, the ability of the honey bee to integrate many informational cues into the waggle dance is

facilitated by advanced memory ability in the brain (Menzel 2001; Menzel and Giurfa 2001).

General anatomy of *A. mellifera* central nervous system

The insect brain comprises three paired sections namely the protocerebrum (forebrain), deutocerebrum (midbrain) and tritocerebrum (hindbrain). The protocerebrum consists of the corpus pedunculata or mushroom bodies and two optical lobes. The antennal lobes comprise the deutocerebrum region and the tritocerebrum region corresponds with the labrum and visceral nervous systems (Burrows 1996).

The mushroom bodies are paired organs in the insects forebrain which serve as a higher centre for signal integration (Menzel et al. 1994). They consist of calyx and neuron (Kenyon) cells, and a pedunculus. The calyx consists of dendrite arborisation derived from Kenyon cells and is divided into three parts (the lip, collar and the basal ring) according to the input signal source. The lip at the tip of the calyx receives signals from antennal lobes, the collar region receives signals from optical lobes and the basal ring region receives signals from both areas as well as the esophageal (Mobbs 1984; Gronenberg 1986). Axons of Kenyon cells extend to the peduncles and are further structured as α and β lobes in the output region (Grunewald 1999).

Kenyon cells are located in the centre of the calyx, contain of small and large types (Kenyon 1896). The large type cells are located on the inner side, whereas the small types are layered on the outer side (Farris et al. 1999). The *A. mellifera* brain contains 340 000 cells of this type (Witthorft 1967), whereas *Drosophila* have 2 500 cells in each body. Such great variations in cell numbers lead to the hypothesis that this organ is associated with complex behaviour in social insects (Ehmer and Hoy 2000; Gronenberg 2001). The great difference in cell numbers are reflected from the number of calyx in each mushroom body; a pair of calyx in *A. mellifera* (Mobbs 1982), and one calyx in *Drosophila*.

Mushroom body neuropils show an increasing growth size from nurse to forager bee stage and even in different forager ages. Differences apparent in the extended

mushroom body neuropil region (Withers et al. 1993) and in calyx subcompartments (lip and collar region) (Durst et al. 1994). The increase in mushroom body size is mainly due to dendritic growth (Durst et al. 1994), and not to cell proliferation since there is no neurogenesis in the adult honey bee (Fahrbach et al. 1995).

Honey bee task age-related variations have been reported in molecular neurobiological studies (Wagener-Hulme et al. 1999). Multiple genes have been identified as expressed in the brain of *A. mellifera*. Those are eight biogenic amine receptor genes (Ebert et al. 1998; Blenau et al. 2000), a neurotransmitter glutamate transporter (Kucharski et al. 2000), and a group of second messenger genes (Kamikouchi et al. 1998; Kamikouchi et al. 2000; Eisenhardt et al. 2001).

Biogenic amines such as dopamine, serotonin and octopamine are the neuromodulators in the nervous system (Erber et al. 1993). It has been demonstrated that octopamine receptor genes expression is significantly increased in the forager honey bees compared to nursing honey bees, which maybe means the gene is age-related in the division of labour (Wagener-Hulme et al. 1999).

The second messenger genes group is of particularly interest to intracellular communication due to their role in first messenger transmission that received to antenna or eyes. Chapter 2 will deal with this topic and present the findings of *A. mellifera itpr* characterization study, which is one of the gene expressed in the Kenyon cells.

Chapter 2. *A. mellifera* Inositol 1,4,5-Trisphosphate Receptor (*Itpr*) Gene Structure

Abstract

The inositol 1,4,5 - trisphosphate receptor (*itpr*) gene codes for the IP₃ Receptor (IP₃R) protein, a calcium release channel protein in the endoplasmic reticulum membrane. This gene is highly expressed in *A. mellifera* mushroom bodies, which are the essential parts of the honey bee brain for memory formation. In this study I attempt to characterise the *itpr* gene based on putative A1 clone gene sequences (Kamikouchi et al. 1998) through *A. mellifera itpr* genomic and cDNA inverse PCR (IPCR) and DNA sequencing.

The sequence obtained was found to comprise 2, 091 bp of a partial sequence of the *A. mellifera itpr* gene encoding 697 inferred amino acids. *A. mellifera* IP₃R amino acids show 62%, 60%, 33%, 56%, and 56% similarities to those of *Panulurius argus* (lobster), *Drosophila melanogaster*, *Caenorhabditis elegans*, *Xenopus laevis*, and *Mus musculus itpr-1*, respectively. A phylogenetic analysis using *itpr* sequence demonstrated that *D. melanogaster itpr* has the closest sequence to that of *A. mellifera* of those known. Seven exons and six introns interrupt this partial *itpr* gene sequence. The *A. mellifera itpr* exons of this study aligned to the *D. melanogaster itpr* embryonic variant (Genbank: AJ238949) at nucleotide 3616–5784. Exon-intron organisation comparison of *A. mellifera itpr* gene with that of *D. melanogaster* showed that two introns were at conservative positions and that *A. mellifera itpr* has several additional introns.

The inferred *A. mellifera* IP₃R amino acid sequence aligned with the modulatory domain of *D. melanogaster*. Several conserved motifs were observed in *A. mellifera* putative IP₃R namely an IP₃R signature and four protein kinase phosphorylation sites, comprising cAMP dependent protein kinase (PKA), protein kinase C (PKC), tyrosine kinase and casein kinase II. PKA and PKC are two known protein kinases needed for *A. mellifera* signal transduction in short and long term memory formation, respectively. Further study is needed to confirm PKA and PKC phosphorylation sites in *A. mellifera* IP₃R in order to determine the role of *itpr* among other kinases signalling in honey bee mushroom bodies.

INTRODUCTION

Intracellular second messengers and their genes target in *A. mellifera* brain

Coordination of biochemical reactions enables living cells to react to stimuli, integrate the signal information, and then respond to the environment. Such signal mechanisms are present in all cells, but the highest complexity is found in nervous system cells (Levitan and Kaczmarek 1997).

Extracellular signals are recognised by neurons cells through specific membrane receptors that are coupled to different kinds of transduction mechanisms via intracellular second messengers (Hall 1992). Nervous cells contain several major types of intracellular second messengers, namely cyclic adenosine monophosphate (cAMP), cyclic guanyl monophosphate (cGMP), and membrane phospholipid turnover phosphatidylinositol (Nicholls 1994). Each second messenger has its specific target to be activated. cAMP target molecule is cAMP-dependent protein kinase A (PKA), cGMP is the substrate of cyclic guanyl monophosphate dependent protein kinase (cGMP). Phosphatidylinositol turnovers produce inositol 1,4,5-trisphosphate (IP₃) and diacylglycerol (DAG). The IP₃ target protein is inositol 1,4,5-trisphosphate receptor (IP₃R), while DAG and Ca²⁺ are the substrates of Ca²⁺/phospholipid-dependent protein kinase C (PKC) (Levitan and Kaczmarek 1997).

Over the past few years, extensive researches in *A. mellifera* molecular neurobiology have resulted in the discovery of several neurotransmitter receptors (Ebert et al. 1998; Blenau et al. 2000) as well as glutamate transporters (Kucharski et al. 2000) and complete PKA cDNA (complementary DNA) in honey bee brain (Eisenhardt et al. 2001). The remaining second messenger receptors have been partially characterised as PKC, Ca²⁺/calmoduline-dependent protein kinase II (CaMkinaseII) (Kamikouchi et al. 2000), and putative clone A1, predicted to be the IP₃R homologue (Kamikouchi et al. 1998).

IP₃R is encoded by the inositol 1,4,5-trisphosphate receptor gene (*itpr*), which has been completely characterised in several arthropods, nematode, and mammals. This gene is of special interest because complete cDNA sequences are available from those

organisms; hence, it is useful for comparisons and phylogenetic analysis involving the gene from *A. mellifera* from this study. All the intron positions are known for the embryonic *D. melanogaster itpr* gene (Sinha and Hasan 1999) and this information is useful for comparing its exon-intron organisation with that of *A. mellifera*. In *Drosophila* the protein in the adult is shorter than that seen in embryos, and is a splice variant of the latter. I therefore refer to the embryonic form in comparisons below.

Inositol 1,4,5-trisphosphate (IP₃): a second messenger pathway

Inositol is a six-carbon alcohol molecule, a glucose derivative called myo-inositol in its active state. Within the cells inositol exists in several phosphorylation stages namely phosphatidylinositol 1,4-bisphosphate (PIP₂), IP₃, inositol 1,3,4,5-tetrakisphosphate (IP₄) and inositol 1,3,4,5,6-pentakisphosphate (IP₅) (Berridge and Irvine 1989).

Phosphatidylinositol 1,4-bisphosphate (PIP₂), abundant in the plasma membrane, is hydrolysed by a neurotransmitter received by receptors in cell membrane. Many receptors are coupled to the membrane enzyme phospholipase C (PLC) through the G protein. PLC acts as a phosphodiesterase to split PIP₂ into two products, the water soluble IP₃ and diacylglycerol (DAG) that remains in the membrane. IP₃ diffuses in the cytoplasm and binds to a specific Ca²⁺ receptor (IP₃R) channel on the endoplasmic reticulum. The binding triggers calcium release from intracellular storage (Berridge 1993).

The Ca²⁺ release from IP₃R channel is the intermediate of many cellular pathways (Berridge 1993). Several studies have shown that Ca²⁺ and IP₃R are important in the *D. melanogaster* olfactory system (Deshpande et al. 2000). An experiment using IP₃R mutant *D. melanogaster* shows that this protein is important to maintain the *D. melanogaster* olfactory system (Deshpande et al. 2000). Studies on rat IP₃R suggest a role in circadian rhythms (Hamada et al. 1999).

***Itpr* gene and the splicing sites**

The complete *itpr* cDNA has been reported for *Mus musculus* (mouse) (Furuichi et al. 1989), *Rattus norvegicus* (rat) (Mignery et al. 1990), *D. melanogaster* (fruit fly)

(Yoshikawa et al. 1992), *Xenopus laevis* (frog) (Kume et al. 1993), human (Yamada et al. 1994), *Caenorhabditis elegans* (nematode) (Baylis et al. 1999), *Panulirus argus* (lobster) (Munger et al. 2000), *Bos taurus* (bovine) (unpublished data: Genbank AF157625) and *Gallus gallus* (chicken) (partial gene: unpublished data: Genbank AF312710). These studies have established that the gene has approximately 8 600 base pairs (bp) and that IP₃R consists of approximately 2700 amino acids.

Two splicing sites are apparent in mouse (Danoff et al. 1991) and rat (Mignery et al. 1990) *itpr*, namely the SI and SII sites. The mouse SI splicing site occurs between *itpr* gene nucleotides 952-996, correspond to IP₃R residues 317-331 (fifteen amino acids) which are located at IP₃ binding site in N-terminal region (Mignery and Sudhof 1990). The existence of the SI splicing region is presumably due to the exons splicing, since there is a donor site (GTNNN) in the SI domain (Breitbart et al. 1987). The SII splicing site is found between mouse *itpr* nucleotide 5074-5193 or IP₃R residues number 1692-1731 (fourty amino acids), falling between two PKA phosphorylation sites (Nakagawa et al. 1991).

Those two splicing sites yielded three protein transcriptions (Nakagawa et al. 1991) which are IP₃R-1, IP₃R-2 and IP₃R-3. Mammals have those three types of IP₃R (Danoff et al. 1991). IP₃R-1 is mostly expressed in mouse cerebellum (Wojcikiewicz 1995), whereas IP₃R-2 and IP₃R-3 are mostly expressed in the non neural regions (Ross et al. 1992; Blondel et al. 1994). Three types of IP₃R were found in rat brain, IP₃R-1 is highly expressed in Purkinje cells, IP₃R-2 in glial cells and IP₃R-3 in neuronal cells (Sharp et al. 1999). Only IP₃R-1 was expressed in *D. melanogaster* (Yoshikawa et al. 1992) and *C. elegans* (Baylis et al. 1999) and it is encoded by the *itpr-1* gene (Venkatesh and Hasan 1997). In *D. melanogaster*, IP₃R is highly expressed in the antenna (Yoshikawa et al. 1992) while in *A. mellifera*, partial IP₃R is strongly expressed in the mushroom bodies of the brain (Kamikouchi et al. 1998).

Inositol 1,4,5-trisphosphate receptor structure

The IP₃R protein has three domains, namely N-terminal, modulatory and C-terminal domains. The N-terminal domain has a 750 residue ligand binding site that binds the IP₃ molecule. The modulatory domain comprises most of IP₃R region lying between the

ligand binding and the transmembrane calcium channel sites [approximately at IP₃R residue number 700-2250 (Maeda et al. 1991)]. This domain regulates activation of Ca²⁺ channel and it has several functional phosphorylation sites such as PKA (Danoff et al. 1991), casein kinase (Sinha and Hasan 1999) and ATP phosphorylation (Maeda et al. 1991a). The third domain is the C terminal domain, which occupies only a small region of IP₃R (Furuichi et al. 1989). A calcium channel is located in this domain performed six to eight transmembrane spanning regions (Michikawa et al. 1994).

Conserved and variable regions within IP₃R

IP₃R has 72 % similarity between human and mouse IP₃R-1 (Yamada et al. 1994) and 62 % similarity between rat IP₃R-1 and IP₃R-3 (Mignery et al. 1990). Conserved regions are mostly found in the N-terminal domain particularly in ligand binding sites and in the amino acids region within the multiple transmembrane spanning region (Baylis et al. 1999).

Despite of IP₃R conserved region, it has three variable regions (area I, II, and III) (Yamada et al. 1994) based on human, mouse, rat, *X. laevis*, *D. melanogaster* amino acids alignment. Area I consists of approximately twenty residues at *D. melanogaster* residue number 1245-1265, whereas area II is at residue number 1799-1845. Both are in the modulatory domain. Area III is at residues 2577-2602, inserted between the last two transmembrane spanning regions of the calcium channel. Of the thirty two amino acid replacements between human and mouse IP₃R-1, seventeen replacements were concentrated in area I, six replacements are in area II and seven in area III (Yamada et al. 1994).

IP₃R displays functional differences among several organisms as well. Mouse (Furuichi et al. 1989), rat (Mignery et al. 1990), human (Yamada et al. 1994) and lobster IP₃R-1 has two PKA phosphorylation sites, however these two PKA sites are not found in the *D. melanogaster* (Yoshikawa et al. 1992) and *X. laevis* IP₃R-1 (Kume et al. 1997). On the other hand, adult and embryonic IP₃R *D. melanogaster* has several casein kinase binding sites in the modulatory domain (Sinha and Hasan 1999).

The other difference in IP₃R structure functions is that there are two ATP binding sites both of which are present in mouse, rat and human IP₃R at residue numbers 1720-1725 and 2094-2099, respectively (Mignery et. al 1990; Yamada et. al. 1994). However, *D. melanogaster* IP₃R contains only the second ATP binding site (Hasan and Rosbash 1992).

Inositol 1,4,5-trisphosphate receptor: homo- and heterotetramer protein

Homotetrameric IP₃R is found in cells containing only one IP₃R type, such as IP₃R in mouse cerebellum Purkinje cells (Maeda et al. 1991a). The protein is composed of four non-covalently bound identical subunits (Miyawaki et al, 1991) and electron microscopy revealed that it is a homotetramer protein with four fold symmetry and four radial arms (Chadwick et al. 1990). However, heterotetrameric IP₃R formation was found in cells that contain all IP₃R types such as in liver cells (Monkawa et al. 1995) and in human neuroblastoma cell (Wojcikiewicz 1995).

Exon-intron organisation

Types of introns

Protein coding genes are transcribed into mRNA and are subsequently translated into protein. Genes comprise of coding (exon) regions but they are often interrupted by non-coding (intron) regions. Exons are represented in mRNA whereas introns are cleaved from mRNA prior to the protein translation (Lewin 1993).

Based on cleavage mechanisms, there are three known types of introns, namely nuclear spliceosomal intron, intron type I and intron type II. The former intron is spliced from RNA by a protein complex called spliceosome that occurs in most eukaryotes (Padgett et al. 1986). The other two intron types are self-splicing and most abundant in fungal, plant mitochondrial and chloroplast ribosomal genes (Lambowitz and Belfort 1993). Nuclear intron splice site is recognised by spliceosome at conserved dinucleotides, namely GT at the 5' intron and AG at the 3' intron, hence known as GT/AG rule. This splice site occurred in 99 % of intron splice region in many organisms (Deutsch and Long 1999).

Intron evolution theory

The origin of nuclear introns has become source of debate since they were discovered. Two theories of nuclear intron evolution have emerged, namely "introns early" and "introns late". The "introns early" theory has introns arising at the origin of life (Gilbert 1978). According to this view, the first minigene composed of exons while spacers of the minigenes are thought of as the intron origin. This theory developed into the exon shuffling theory since the author postulates that intron insertion plays a role in gene assembly (Gilbert 1985). Hence, exon shuffling promoted the earliest gene formation (Blake 1978).

However, other authors have suggested that the exon shuffling theory is not identical to the intron early theory, due to a lack of any evidence suggesting that introns are derived from the spacer (Li 1997). Palmer and Logsdon (1991) suggest that although exon shuffling has played an important role in vertebrate gene evolution, there is little or no basis for ascribing a role to it in the assembly of primordial proteins.

Mapping nuclear intron distribution on a tree of life reconstructed based on rRNA data shows that introns are inserted in the eukaryotic lineages while they are lost in the bacterial and ancient eukaryote lineages (Palmer and Logsdon 1991). "Introns early" explained the intron loss in bacterial genome and ancient eukaryotes due to selection of streamlined genomes (Doolittle 1978).

The "introns late" theory views this region is inserted at the late stages of eukaryotic evolution (Rogers 1989; Cavalier-Smith 1991; Palmer and Logsdon 1991). Mounting evidence of intron late theory include for example, intron insertion in dasyurid marsupials intronless *SRY* gene (O'Neill et al. 1998), in human odor protein (Lacazette et al. 2000), and the *A. mellifera* elongation factor 1 α (EF-1 α) gene has more introns than that of *D. melanogaster* (Waldorf and Hovemann 1990). On the other hand, insect triosephosphate isomerase (TPI) gene is consistent with both views (Tyshenko and Walker 1997).

Intron distribution in itpr gene

Of all *itpr* genes that have been published, only those of *D. melanogaster* and *C. elegans* are known with respect to the intron position. Intron distributions in the *D. melanogaster itpr* (Sinha and Hasan 1999) are different to those in *C. elegans itpr* gene (Baylis et al. 1999). *D. melanogaster itpr* has a total of eleven introns, with six of them clustered in the modulatory domain. However, *C. elegans* has 32 introns, which are more dispersed: eleven, twelve and nine at C-terminal, modulatory and N-terminal domain, respectively (Baylis et al. 1999).

OBJECTIVES

The aims of my study were to characterise the *A. mellifera itpr* gene and to elucidate putative IP₃R protein structure. *Itpr* gene structure is determined by exon-intron organisation. Comparisons of *itpr* gene intron positions between *A. mellifera* and that of *D. melanogaster* are evaluated in order to investigate intron present and absent in this gene. The similarity of the *A. mellifera itpr* gene with respect to those in other organisms is ascertained and subsequently used to infer phylogenetic relationships with other organisms. IP₃R structural function is examined by searching the amino acid motifs within the Prosite protein database and used to infer the role of IP₃R in *A. mellifera* neuron signalling.

MATERIALS AND METHOD

DNA: extraction, sequencing and genomic walking

Genomic DNA was extracted from bee thoraces (mesosomes) using the standard CTAB method. The first genomic region was amplified based on cDNA clone A1 of putative IP₃R gene (Kamikouchi et al. 1998) using oligonucleotide primers 1 and 2 (Table 1) designed by the author. In order to extend the region, several genomic walk steps were subsequently conducted by performing inverse PCR (IPCR) using primers designed to face the unknown regions (Triglia et al. 1988).

For IPCR, genomic DNA was first cut with *HincII* and then the resulting fragments were circularized using T4 ligase. The walk began using primers 3 and 4 (Table 1). Amplifications were performed in 50 µl volumes containing 5x Buffer B (Gibco), 200 µM dNTP, 1 µM of each primer, and DNA template. Prior to IPCR, the PCR mixture was heated at 94⁰C for three minutes, then 1 unit of Elongase polymerase (Gibco) was added. IPCR was performed in 2 min at 94⁰C for initial denaturing, 35 cycles of 30 s at 94⁰C, 30 s at 50-58⁰C and 2-6 min at 68⁰C for DNA elongation, followed by 10 minutes at 72⁰C for the final extension. PCR products were purified with Qiagen kit prior to cloning them into pGEM-T vector (Promega). The cloned products were amplified either by using the previous primers or primers number 8 and 9 (Table 1, which are pUC/M13 universal primers also present in pGEM-T vector). DNA sequencing was carried out by ABI Prism BigDye automated sequencing using the manufacturer's protocol. *BfaI* digest was used at the next genomic walking using primers number 2 and 5. Eight other restriction enzymes and several other primers (not shown in Table 1) were applied in genomic walking but were yielded no further results because of the unspecific PCR products. Therefore, I used complementary DNA (cDNA) walking for the second technique.

Table 1. Oligonucleotide primers used in *A. mellifera itpr* gene characterisation; sense primers are coded by “F” or “For”, and antisense primers are coded by “R” or “Rev”

No	Primers	5' – 3' Sequence
1	IP3For	5' GAATATCCTCTGGTGATGGATACA 3'
2	IP3Rev	5' CCATGTTCTTCTGATGCTTTAGA 3'
3	IP3W3F	5' GGTTTCCGATAGTGATGTTGAAT 3'
4	IP3W4R	5' CCCTCCGCTTGTGTACCTATT 3'
5	IP3F1658	5' GACGGGAAAGAAGATGTTAGA 3'
6	<i>ITPR</i> -F2280	5' TTAGCTTGTTCGTACAATGGGC 3'
7	IP3W2R	5' AATTTTGTATCCATCACCAGAGG 3'
8	F23	5' CCCAGTCACGACGTTGTAAAACG 3'
9	R24	5' AGCGGATAACAATTCACACAGGA 3'
10	5'RACE= SMART II	5'AAGCAGTGGTAACAACGCAGAGTACGCGGG 3'
11	3'RACE= CDS PRIMER	5' AAGCAGTGGTAACAACGCAGAGTAC(T)30VN 3'
12	DSCUP="PCR PRIMER"	5' AAGCAGTGGTAACAACGCAGAGT 3'
13	<i>Itp</i> rRev1781	5' AGGATTAAGAAATAAATCTAA 3'
14	<i>Itp</i> rFor1658	5' GACGGGAAAGAAGATGTTAGA 3'
15	<i>Itp</i> rRev2284	5' TGCCCATTTGTACGACAAGC 3'

RNA: extraction, single and double stranded cDNA amplification, and cDNA walking

Total RNA was extracted from three heads of *A. mellifera* foragers. Three heads (20 mg) were excised and preserved in 500 µl of RNA*later* RNA stabilisation Reagent from RNeasy protect Kits (Qiagen). RNA was extracted using the RNeasy mini Kit (Qiagen). Extraction procedure was followed the instructions in the kit manual.

For first strand cDNA synthesis, I used SMART PCR cDNA Synthesis Kit (Clontech). A total volume of 3 µl of RNA template, 10 µM 3' RACE primer and 10 µM 5'RACE primer (Table 1) was incubated in 72⁰C (2 min). To the mixture was added 5x First Strand Buffer, 20 mM DTT, 50x dNTP mix and 1 µl of Superscript II enzyme (200 U/µl) (Clontech). First Strand cDNA synthesis was carried out by incubating the mixture in 42⁰ C (1 hr). Forty µl of TE buffer (10mM Tris, 1mM EDTA) was added for dilution.

For second strand cDNA synthesis, the same kit was used. The PCR mix contained 10x Advantage 2 PCR Buffer, 50x dNTP mix, DSCUP primer (Table 1), 50x Advantage 2 Polymerase Mix, 2 μ l single strand (ss) cDNA template and ddH₂O adjusted to 25 μ l. PCR was performed in a Perkin Elmer 9700 for 95⁰C (5 sec), 65⁰C (5 sec), and 68⁰C (6 min) in 18 cycles.

cDNA polishing was carried out in order to blunt ds cDNA ends by adding T4 DNA polymerase (Huang et al. 1990). The 25 μ l amplified double strand (ds) cDNA was combined with 2 μ l of proteinase K after which it was heated at 90⁰C in order to inactivate proteinase K. The tube was chilled in ice for 2 min in order to stop the reaction and 15 units of T4 DNA polymerase were subsequently added and incubated at 16⁰C (30 min) and heated at 72⁰C (10 min). To extract the cDNA, 27.5 μ l of 4 M ammonium acetate were added and ethanol precipitation was conducted by adding ~210 μ l of 95% ethanol. The mixture was spun at 13 000 rpm (20 min) and pellets were washed with 80% ethanol and subsequently spun at 13 000 rpm (10 min). Then, 100 μ l dH₂O were added to the air-dried pellet.

The blunt end ds cDNA was circulated with the T4 DNA ligase (Huang et al. 1993). The 100 μ l ds blunt end cDNA were combined with 25 μ l of 10x Ligation Buffer, 2 μ l of T4 DNA ligase (3U/ μ l) (Promega). The mixture was incubated at 18⁰C for 16 h and purified with GeneClean Kit.

cDNA IPCR is performed using the same method as in genomic walking IPCR, based on the last genomic walking result. IPCR used primer combination primer number 2, 4, 5, 6 and 7 (Table 1). Intron splice sites were confirmed based on the cDNA region that were amplified using primers combination number 1+2, 3+13 and 14+15 (Table 1).

Nucleotide, amino acids and motif protein analyses

For each genomic walking step, DNA was translated into three reading frames using MacVectorTM and ANGIS (BioNavigator by Entigen Corporation) amino acid translation programs. Each translated amino acid strand between two stop codons was investigated for its homology within the protein database. The strand that returned as an

IP₃R homolog was chosen and established as *A. mellifera itpr* exon. Introns were recognised by the presence of stop codon and denotion from the sequence required the yield known IP₃R sequences, further introns were delineated using the known intron splicing site. Prosite (Hofmann et al. 1999), PRINTS (Attwood and Beck 1994) and pfam (Bateman et al. 1999) databases were used to determine protein domain, motifs, protein fingerprint and protein family, respectively, in *A. mellifera* putative IP₃R.

***Itpr* phylogenetic analysis**

Genbank sequences for IP₃R from various organisms (*D. melanogaster* adult type: D90403, *D. melanogaster* embryo type: AJ238949, *C. elegans*: AJ243179, *X. laevis*: D14400, *P. argus*: AF055079, *M. musculus* IP₃R type-1: X15373) and *A. mellifera* IP₃R (this study) were aligned using the CLUSTALX program (Thompson et al. 1997). Tree construction was performed using the Maximum Likelihood (ML) method implemented in the TREEPUZZLE 5.0 program using quartet puzzling as the algorithm with 1000 replicates (Strimmer and von Haeseler 1996). ML rather than Maximum Parsimony (MP) was used because basic MP counts every replacement as a unitary change, whereas some replacements imply a larger change in protein chemistry than others and should therefore be counted more. Ad hoc methods exist for changing these weights, but then mean that MP converges on ML, while the latter also correctly takes account of amino acid frequencies in a natural determination of weights. The amino acids substitution models tested were the Dayhoff (Dayhoff et al. 1978), VT (Müller and Vingron. 2000) and WAG (Whelan and Goldman 2001) models and the model giving the highest likelihood score was used. These models use sets of proteins in known phylogenies to determine empirically the probability of one amino acid being replaced by another.

RESULTS

***Itpr* gene structure: exon intron organisation**

A. mellifera itpr gene characterisation in this study began by using the published putative A1 clone *itpr* gene sequences (Kamikouchi et al. 1998). The honey bee *itpr* gene sequence of this study was extended through genomic and cDNA walking to cover a total of 2,091 bp exons and 810 bp introns of partial gene. Amino acids deduced from *itpr* gene DNA sequence showed the similarity of 62%, 60%, 33%, 56%, and 56% to those of *P. argus* (lobster) (Munger et al. 2000), *D. melanogaster* (Yoshikawa et al. 1992; Sinha and Hasan 1999), *C. elegans* (Baylis et al. 1999), *X. laevis* (Kume et al. 1993), *M. musculus itpr-1* (Furuichi et al. 1989), respectively. However, searching *A. mellifera* intron gene sequences on an Intron Searching Intron Database (ISIS-<http://isis.bit.uq.edu.au>) did not yield any homologous regions.

Exon regions (2,091 bp) of *A. mellifera* partial *itpr* gene were aligned with the nucleotide *D. melanogaster* embryonic *itpr* gene (Genbank: AJ238949) at nucleotide numbers 3616 – 5784. There are seven exons and six introns in this partial gene. Hence, in this study, I stated exon 1 as starting at nucleotide number 3616 based on the *D. melanogaster* embryonic *itpr* gene. The first intron inserted in this partial gene was regarded as the first intron as well.

Exon-intron organisation in *itpr* was examined through both genomic and cDNA sequences. Six introns were distributed at nucleotide position numbers 312 – 1775 based on *A. mellifera itpr* cDNA positions. However, this study has not explored intron existence in two regions, namely nucleotide between numbers 1-310 and 1776-2091 (Figure 1). Moreover, the first intron inserted in this gene has not been fully sequenced as well. The *A. mellifera itpr* nucleotide and predicted amino acid sequence are shown in Figure 1.

ATGAGTATTAATGATTATGATGCAAAACAGGATGCGGGATCAAAATAAAGAAGCTGTACGTGCTAAATTTA 70
 M S I N D Y D A N R M R D Q N K E A V R A K F 23

GCGCAACTATAATGTTTGTAGAAGATTATTTGTGTAATGTTGTAGCAAAAATGTGGTCCTTTGCTGATCA 140
 S A T I M F V E D Y L C N V V A K M W S F A D Q 47

AGAACAAAATAAACTTACATTTGAAGTCGTTAAATTGGCACGTGATTTAATTTATTTGGATTCTATAGT 210
 E Q N K L T F E V V K L A R D L I Y F G F Y S 70

TTCAGTGATCTTTTGAGATTAACGAAAACATTACTCAGTATTTTGGATTGTATTTAGAAAATGATGTAG 280
F S D L L R L T K T L L S I L D C I S E N D V 93

▼ 1st intron

CCGATGGAAAAATTCCAACTGGTGAATTTGATGCGGAAGGTGGAGTATTAAGATGTATTGGAGACATGGG 350
 A D G K I P T G E I D A E G G V L R C I G D M G 117

TGCAGTAATGACGAGCTTAACACTGGGACCAGCAGGACAAGTATTAGCAGGAAGTCTTCTCCAAGACCA 420
 A V M T S L T L G P A G Q V L A G S S S P R P 140

AAACCACTTTTAAAGAAAGAATATCCTCTGGTGTGGATACAAAATGAAAATAATCGAAATTTTACAAT 490
 K P L L K K E Y P L V M D T K L K I I E I L Q 163

TTATACTTGATGTTTCGATTGGATTATAGAATTTCTGTTTATTGAGTATTTTCAAACAAGAATTTGATGA 560
 F I L D V R L D Y R I S C L L S I F K Q E F D E 187

AACTGAAAGAGCTTCTGGTGATTTGAGTCTCGGCCAGAAAACATTTGATTTAGAATTAATAGGTACACAA 630
 T E R A S G D L S L G Q K T I D L E L I G T Q 210

▼ 2nd intron

GCGGAGGGTATATTTGGTAGCAGCGAGGAATGTGTGGCGTTAGATTTAGATGGACAAGGTGGTAGAACAT 700
 A E G I F G S S E E C V A L D L D G Q G G R T 233

TTCTGCGTGTTTTACTCCATTTGGCAATGCATGACTATCCTCCACTAGTTTCCGGAGCATTACATTTGCT 770
 F L R V L L H L A M H D Y P P L V S G A L H L L 257

▼ 3rd intron

TTTTAGGCATTTTAGTCAAAGACAAGAAGTCTTACAAGCATTTAAACAAGTTCAACTTTTGGTTTCCGAT 840
 F R H F S Q R Q E V L Q A F K Q V Q L L V S D 280

AGTGATGTTGAATCTTACAAACAAATAAAGTCAGATTTGGACGTTTTAAGACAATCGGTTGAAAATCGG 910
 S D V E S Y K Q I K S D L D V L R Q S V E K S 303

AACTTTGGGTTTATAAATCTAAAGCATCAGAAGAACATGGCAATAAAAAAGAAGAAAAATAAAGAAGACGA 980
 E L W V Y K S K A S E E H G N K K K K N K E D E 327
 ▼^{4th} intron
 AGATGATGGAGCTACTCCTCGTAAAGCACCACCACAACACTATCTACGACGGATAAGAAAGGATCTGCAATA 1050
 D D G A T P R K A P P Q L S T T D K K G S A I 350
 ***** **** *****=====

GATTTAGATATTGGTCCACCGTTACATGCAGATCAAGCGGAGGAATATAAAAAAATACAACAAATTCTAA 1120
 D L D I G P P L H A D Q A E E Y K K I Q Q I L 373

TTCGAATGAACAAATTATGTATCCAAACGATAGGTGGTCAAATAAAACCACGAAAACATGAACAAAGACT 1190
I R M N K L C I Q T I G G Q I K P R K H E Q R L 397

TTTACGTAATGTTGGAGTACATACCGTTGTTTTAGATTTATTACAAGTTCATTTGACGCGAAAGAAGAT 1260
L R N V G V H T V V L D L L Q V P F D A K E D 420

GTTAGAATGAATGAGTTAATGCGATTAGCACATGATTTCTTGCAAATTTTTGTTTAGGAAATCAACAAA 1330
V R M N E L M R L A H D F L Q N F C L G N Q Q 423

ATCAAGTCTGTTGCATAAACAATTAGATTTATTTCTGAATCCTGGTATAACGTGAAGCTCAAACGATATG 1400
N Q V L L H K Q L D L F L N P G I R E A Q T I C 467

TAGTATTTTTCAAGATAATTCGACTTTGTGCAATGAAGTAAGTGCTAAAGTGATACAACATTTTGTACAT 1470
S I F Q D N S T L C N E V S A K V I Q H F V H 490

TGCATAGAACTCATGGGAAACATGTGCAATATTTAAAATTTCTTCAAACAATAGTAAAAGCCGAAAATC 1540
C I E T H G K H V Q Y L K F L Q T I V K A E N 513

▼^{5th} intron
 AATTTATCAGAAAATGTCAGGAAATGGTGATGCAAGAATTGGTTCAAGCAGGTGAAGACGTTTTAGTTTT 1610
Q F I R K C Q E M V M Q E L V Q A G E D V L V F 537

TTATAACGATCGAGCTTCTTTTAATCATTTTGTGGAAATGATGCGATCTGAACGACATCGGATGGATGAA 1680
Y N D R A S F N H F V E M M R S E R H R M D E 560

▼^{6th} intron
 AGTAGTCCACTTAAGTATCATGTAGAATTAGTTAAATTATTAGCTTGTCGTACAATGGGCAAAAATGTTA 1750
 S S P L K Y H V E L V K L L A C R T M G K N V 533

AACTGAAATTAATGTCACAGTCTTTTACCCTAGATGATATTGTTGCTATGGTATCTCATCCGGATTG 1820
 N T E I K C H S L L P L D D I V A M V S H P D C 607

TATACCAGAAGTAAAAGAAGCATATATAAATTTCTTAATCATTGTTATATTGATACAGAAGTAGAAATG 1890
 I P E V K E A Y I N F L N H C Y I D T E V E M 630

AAAGAAATCTACACATCAAATCATATGTGGTCATTATTTGAAAAATCATTGTTAGATATGGGAATTA 1960
 K E I Y T S N H M W S L F E K S F I V D M G I 653

TAGCAACAGCTACACATGATCGCGAACATGCTGATATATCTCTGGAAAATTATGTGACAGGTTGCCTAAT 2030
 I A T A T H D R E H A D I S L E N Y V T G C L M **677**

GAATATCATTACAACGTTCTTTAGCAGTCCATTTTCAGATCAAAGTACCACAGTACAGAAA 2091
 N I I T T F F S S P F S D Q S T T V Q K **697**

Figure 1. Nucleotide and predicted amino acid sequence of partial *A. mellifera itpr* based on genomic and cDNA. *First line*, nucleotide sequence; *second line*, deduced amino acid sequence. Plain and bold numbers at the right indicated nucleotide and amino acids, respectively. IP₃R signature was boxed, arrow between the underlined nucleotide showed intron insertion position, cAMP phosphorylation residues were double underlined, PKC phosphorylation site residues shown by * and ryanodine-*itpr* homolog (RIH) residues indicated by single underline (residues 368-547).

Intron lengths in *A. mellifera itpr* range from 70-410 bp, five being less than 100 bp (Table 2). Intron insertions are in all possible phases (Patthy 1987). All introns inserted at the conserved intron insertion (GT/AG) (Table 2).

Although there are high levels of similarity between IP₃R sequences among different organisms, the *A. mellifera* partial *itpr* gene cloned from a single bee contained two alleles that showed five nucleotide differences between them (Table 3). One nucleotide substitution was at the first codon position, resulting in an amino acid change whereas four other occurred at the third codon position and were synonymous.

Table 2. Partial *A. mellifera itpr* gene intron length, conserved and non-conserved introns splice-sequences; unexplored 5' splice site shown with *; the underlined nucleotides are the conserved splicing sites

Intron number	Intron length	5' Splice Site (exon/intron)	3' splice site (intron/exon)	Intron phase
1	410 ?	*	gtttataatatttaata/GCG	?
2	84	AGC, AG/g <u>ta</u> atacattattcat	tattttattttatttag/C, GAG	2
3	75	CAA/g <u>ta</u> tgttacattatttata	taaattattgtaa <u>atag</u> /GTT	0
4	94	AAA, G/g <u>tt</u> tttggttaataat	attatttataattat <u>atag</u> /GA, TCT	1
5	70	GAA/g <u>ta</u> aagtgataactatttga	taattgctttttttt <u>atag</u> /TTG	0
6	76	CTT, AA/g <u>ta</u> atgcatttaagata	atatatattttt <u>atag</u> /G, TAT, CAT	2

Table 3. *A. mellifera* *itpr* gene nucleotide variants

No	<i>A. mellifera</i> partial <i>itpr</i> cDNA nucleotide position	1 st allele			2 nd allele		
		Nucleo- - tide	Codon- - amino acid	Found in	Nucleo- - tide	Amino acid	Found in
1	574	T	<u>TCT</u> - S	clone 1,3,4	<u>CCT</u>	<u>CCT</u> - P	clone 2
2	669	G	<u>GCG</u> - A	clone 1,3,4	<u>GCA</u>	<u>GCA</u> - A	clone 3
3	696	A	<u>AGA</u> - R	clone 1,2,4	<u>AGG</u>	<u>AGG</u> - R	clone 3
4	717	C	<u>CTC</u> - L	clone 1,3,4	<u>CTT</u>	<u>CTT</u> - L	clone 2
5	895	G	<u>TCG</u> - S	clone 1,3,4	<u>TCA</u>	<u>TCA</u> - S	clone 2

Intron position comparison between A. mellifera and D. melanogaster embryonic itpr gene

The *D. melanogaster* embryonic *itpr* gene comprises eleven introns, six of which inserted in the IP₃R modulatory domain (Sinha and Hasan 1999). Of the six introns, three found in the region aligning with the partial *A. mellifera* *itpr* gene. In this study, two introns are at identical position i.e. between *A. mellifera* 1st intron and *D. melanogaster* embryonic type 8th intron at position 3926 (Figure 2). Second similarity is the *A. mellifera* 3rd intron and *D. melanogaster* embryonic type 8th intron at *D. melanogaster* nucleotide number 4569. Besides those conserved introns, *A. mellifera* *itpr* gene exhibits three more introns and one intron loss at the aligning region with that of *D. melanogaster*.

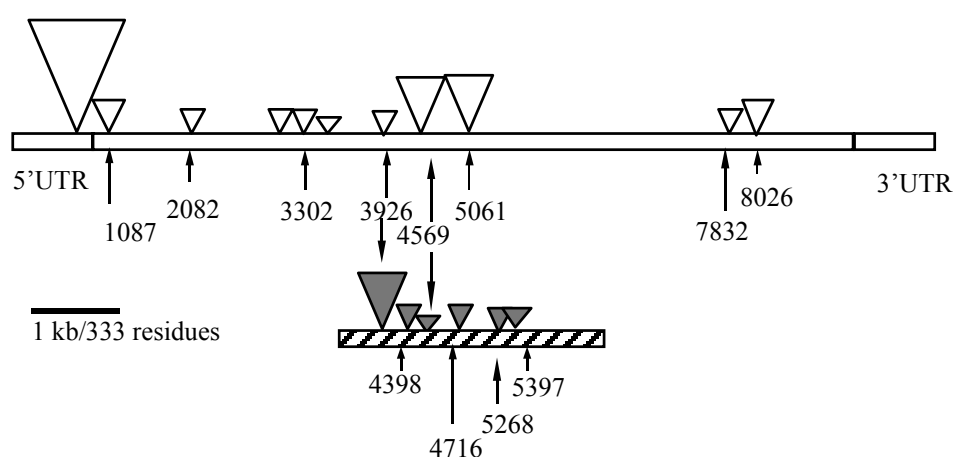


Figure 2. *A. mellifera* and *D. melanogaster* *itpr* gene (Sinha and Hasan, 1999) and the intron positions comparisons; *A. mellifera* *itpr* gene (▣) and its introns (▼); *D. melanogaster* *itpr* gene (▢), and its introns (▽)

***Itpr* gene phylogenetic analysis**

Arthropod, nematode and mammals *itpr* phylogenetic tree is shown in Figure 3 based on approximately 697 amino acids deduced from the *itpr* gene. Alignments was employed with CLUSTAL X and *C. elegans itpr* was used as the outgroup. Tree topology was revealed the same by using three kinds of amino acid substitution model (WAG, VT and Dayhoff) implemented in TREEPUZZLE 5.0 program. The WAG model giving the highest likelihood score was chosen as the best model (Table 4).

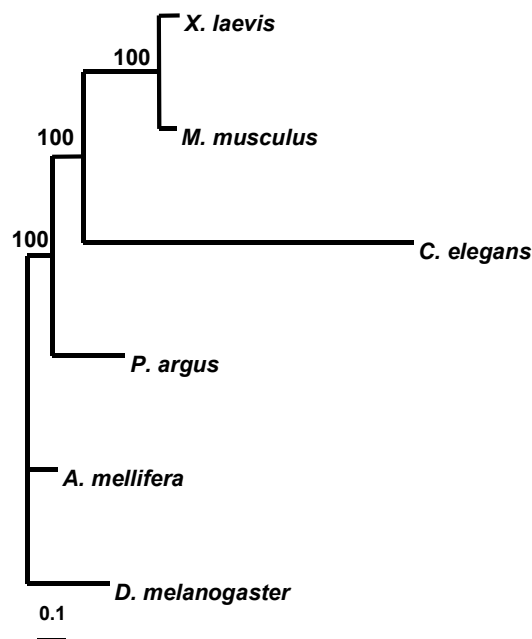


Figure 3. The quartet puzzling tree with its support values constructed from amino acids *itpr* gene of *A. mellifera*, *D. melanogaster* (Genbank: D90403), *P. argus* (AF055079), *C. elegans* (AJ243179), *X. laevis* (D14400), *M. musculus* (X15373). Tree reconstruction uses TREEPUZZLE 5.0. with WAG model. Numbers above the node are the quartet puzzling support values with 1000 replicates.

Table 4. Likelihood value of each *itpr* tree using different amino acid models

Model	Ln likelihood
WAG	-7254.70
VT	-7334.73
Dayhoff	-7300.30

IP₃R: motifs structure and function

Characterisation of 2,091 bp exons of *A. mellifera* partial *itpr* gene inferred 697 residues for IP₃R with a mass of 79.31 kDa (BioNavigator by Entigen Corporation). The *A. mellifera* partial IP₃R was aligned at *D. melanogaster* IP₃R from amino acid positions 877-1583 which are situated in the modulatory domain of this protein (Yoshikawa et al. 1992).

An *A. mellifera* IP₃R motif search using Prosite revealed one of the IP₃R signatures (PR00779) (Hofmann et al. 1999) (APPENDIX 1). Putative *A. mellifera* IP₃R signature consisted of twenty-six conserved amino acids (Figure 1). Other motifs included the conserved regions of phosphorylation sites, namely one cAMP- or cGMP-dependent protein kinase site, seven PKC phosphorylation sites, fourteen casein kinase II phosphorylation sites and one tyrosine kinase phosphorylation site. Determined by PRINTS, a protein motif finger-print database (Attwood and Beck 1994), *A. mellifera* partial IP₃R protein is a homologue of a Ryanodine receptor (PF01365) and they belongs to RYR-IP₃R Homologue (RIH) protein family. The homologous region is shown in residues number 368-574 of *A. mellifera* partial *itpr* gene (Figure 1).

DISCUSSION

The molecular and structural properties of *A. mellifera itpr* gene are described in this section. The exon-intron organisation and variations of intron positions in this gene are compared with other organisms. Overall, it was found that, although amino acid similarity is highly conserved among nematode and *Drosophila*, several variations were observed to have occurred in gene structure such as intron splice variant and intron position.

Itpr gene structure

Exon-intron organisation in A. mellifera partial itpr gene: common and unique features

Exon-intron organisation of partial *itpr* gene exhibited certain features in common with other genes such as the number of introns for every kilobase (kb) of exon. There were six introns in 2,091 bp exons of partial *itpr* gene that represented an average of three introns per one kb of exon. These results coincided with results from a compilation of intron-exon structures in an overall database whereby 3.7 introns exist in 1 kb exons, while 2.7 introns per kb exist in *D. melanogaster* genome (Deutsch and Long 1999).

Other features common to all *itpr* gene introns were located at the phase 2, 0, 1. Introns were classified according to their relative positions in gene reading frame. The phase 0 intron is the intron which lies between two codons, while those falling between first and second nucleotides are known as Phase 1 introns, and those interrupting codons between second and third nucleotides are known as Phase 2 introns (Sharp 1981). In the “intron early” theory Gilbert (1985) claimed that most introns are inserted in Phase 0 (Tomita et al. 1996), which was used as the basis for exon shuffling theory, an extended view of intron early theory.

However, *A. mellifera itpr* gene introns displayed common features, such as the characteristics at their splicing sites. All introns started with GT and ended with AG. Pre-mRNA splicing sites take place in a large spliceosomes. In the conserved GT/AG splice site, spliceosomes contain four small nuclear ribonucleoproteins (snRNPs) namely the U1, U2, U4/U6 and U5 snRNPs (Newman and Norman 1992) and a

complex non-snRNPs protein. The latter protein belongs to an SR family (U2AF) with RNA recognition motifs (RRM), which are needed to enhance U1 and U2 recruitment to the binding region (Valcarcel et al. 1996). U1 snRNP binds to the 5'GA splice site, U2 snRNP binds to the branchpoint of 3' AG splice sites, and U4/U6.U5 assembly required for intron lariat connection (Lopez 1998).

Conservation and divergence of intron insertion sites in itpr gene

Two introns are at conserved positions between *A. mellifera* and *D. melanogaster* which are *A. mellifera* 2nd intron and *D. melanogaster* embryonic type 8th intron at *D. melanogaster itpr* gene (Figure 2).

In addition to conserved intron positions relative to *Drosophila*, the *A. mellifera itpr* sequence shows that there are three introns not seen in *Drosophila* and one that occurs in *Drosophila* but absent in *Apis*. The addition of introns at different positions in the *A. mellifera* and *D. melanogaster itpr* genes may be the result of a more recent insertion event as shown in intron gain of intron late view (Cavalier-Smith 1991). Insertional theory accounts for introns as being the result of a dynamic process of occasional insertion and deletion (Palmer and Logsdon 1991). Recent studies have produced evidence that intron insertions in the different organismal gene families are more likely to take place than intron loss. Evidence for intron gain also has been observed in intron-bearing dasyurid marsupials in the usually intronless *SRY* gene (O'Neill et. al 1998) and in *Chironomus thummi* which has a single intron in the usually intronless globin genes (Gruhl et al. 1997). Supporters of the intron gain theory have postulated that the sources of nuclear intron insertions were derived from mobile group II introns from yeast and mitochondria because these intron types have their own reverse transcriptase for making double stranded DNA from a single RNA strand (Eickbush 2000). Other authors have postulated that there *P element* insertion (Nouaud et al. 1999) or intron duplication (Tarrío et al. 1998) became the intron insertional source.

Variable itpr region

Despite high level conservation of *itpr* gene, several variants occur in this gene. Five nucleotide differences between two alleles of the *A. mellifera itpr* gene are due to both

purin and pyrimidine changes. Nucleotide variations are also evident in clones of rat *itpr-1* gene, all of which had purine changes only (Mignery et al. 1990). Another variable region shown in *P. argus* IP₃R deduced from the *itpr* gene. It has twenty highly hydrophobic amino acids which are absent in IP₃R from other organisms. However, some of these hydrophobic regions exist in the *A. mellifera* putative IP₃R (APPENDIX 1, dotted line). This hydrophobic region is presumably due to the existence of *P. argus* IP₃R in plasma membrane, which is a different location for this receptor (Munger et al. 2000).

Putative *A. mellifera* partial IP₃ Receptor

My study has revealed a total of 697 residues of putative IP₃R protein. Complete IP₃R from several organisms exhibit nine conserved amino acids or protein signatures, one of which was identified in putative *A. mellifera* IP₃R, that represents a significantly reliable amino acid in this partial *itpr* gene (APPENDIX 1).

IP₃R: similarity, phylogeny and protein family

A. mellifera IP₃R showed high similarity (more than fifty percent) to this protein from other organisms, except for those of *C. elegans*. High gene conservation is also evident in other genes expressed in *A. mellifera* brain such as gene encoded for partial PKC reveals high degree of similarity, namely 86% and 83% to that of *D. melanogaster* and rat- α PKC (Kamikouchi et al. 2000). *A. mellifera* brain biogenic amine receptors (ie. serotonin, tyramine/octopamine, and dopamine) reveal high degrees of similarity, namely 84%, 72% and 65%, respectively to those of *D. melanogaster* homologue (Ebert et al. 1998).

Based on partial IP₃R amino acid similarities, *P. argus* shows the highest degree of similarity to *A. mellifera*, exceeding that of *D. melanogaster*. However, a phylogenetic analysis based on ML was carried out and revealed that *D. melanogaster* IP₃R is the sister to *A. mellifera*. This phylogenetic tree reflects *itpr* evolution in agreement with current views on animal phylogeny. Current metazoan phylogeny based on 18srRNA revealed two monophyletic groups across bilateria metazoans, deuterostomes (including chordates) and protostomes (including nematodes and arthropods) (Adoutte et al. 1999).

A. mellifera partial IP₃R has been shown to be homologous with Ryanodine (*ryr*), a calcium transport receptor found in muscle (Tunwell et al. 1996). Three subtypes of *ryr* are expressed preferentially in muscular tissue (Tunwell et al. 1996), cardiac tissue (Gorza et al. 1997) and in Purkinje cells (McPherson and Campbell 1993) of sarcoplasmic reticulum. *D. melanogaster* thorax tubular muscle also expresses this gene (Hasan and Rosbash 1992). There has been no study of *ryr* expression in the honey bee, while *A. mellifera* muscle regions (thorax and legs) show slightly IP₃R expression (Kamikouchi et al. 1998b). *Ryr* and *itpr* phylogenetic analyses show that both are paralogous genes. Gene duplication resulted in *ryr* and *itpr* occurring in invertebrate lineage while the three subtype receptors in vertebrates resulted from gene duplication (Saier et al. 1999).

Motifs in A. mellifera IP₃R

In this study, seven putative protein kinase phosphorylation sites were detected in the putative *A. mellifera* IP₃R which are also found in IP₃R of other organisms. Phosphorylation is a post-translational modification process involving a reaction in which phosphate groups are added to hydroxyl groups on protein (Stryer 1995). This process is usually catalysed by a kinase (an enzyme that catalyses phosphate transfer from ATP to a second substrate) using ATP as the phosphate donor (Hunter 1995). Activation of phosphorylation sites by kinase enzymes in the IP₃R modulatory domain regulates the opening of calcium channels (Furuichi et al. 1989).

Of all the phosphorylation sites detected in *A. mellifera* partial IP₃R, PKA is the most interesting one due to the absence of this site in *D. melanogaster* IP₃R (Yoshikawa et al. 1992). PKA catalyses phosphorylation of a number of different enzyme and non-enzyme proteins and hence it plays an important role in metabolic regulation (Taylor et al. 1990). PKA phosphorylation conserved amino acids are R/K-R/K-X-S where R, K, X and S represent arginine, lysin, any amino acid and serin; and the last residue is the phosphorylation site (Feremisco et al. 1980). *A. mellifera* has one putative PKA phosphorylation sites (KKDS_↓), two PKA phosphorylation sites in *P. argus* (KKE_↓S and RKPS_↓) (Munger et al. 2000), and one site in rat (RRES_↓) (Danoff et al. 1991). *A.*

mellifera putative PKA phosphorylation site position is at S₃₄₈ that is located at the variable area 1 region (APPENDIX 1).

The occurrence of putative PKA phosphorylation sites in *A. mellifera* but not in *D. melanogaster* suggests that there is a different mechanism and more complex second messenger signal transductions in *A. mellifera* compared to those of *D. melanogaster*. In *D. melanogaster*, signalling is only activated by a single second messenger (IP₃), whereas in *A. mellifera* two second messenger are possibly needed in signal transduction.

Protein kinase C (PKC) phosphorylation sites also exist in the putative *A. mellifera* IP₃R. PKC is the major kinase occurring in neuronal tissue (Huang 1989). Conserved substrate specificity for PKC phosphorylation amino acids are (S/T) or (R/K) with S (serine) as the phosphorylation site (Kishimoto et al. 1985). PKC phosphorylation sites also exist in most IP₃R in other organisms (Munger et al. 2000).

Does the *itpr* gene mediate honey bee memory formation?

Two regions in the honey bee brain act as memory formation areas, namely the olfactory glomerulus which acts as the first memory storage area and mushroom bodies which act as the highest integration modulation signal (Hammer and Menzel 1995). Memory formation in the honey bee has been confirmed as developing in five stages, namely early short term memory (eSTM), late short term memory (lSTM), middle term memory (MTM), early long term memory (eLTM) and late long term memory (lLTM) (Menzel and Giurfa 2001). STM enables honey bee to retain information from several seconds to minutes. MTM can last for several hours while LTM can even last for days (Menzel 2001). In STM, the honey bee uses PKA as protein kinase to phosphorylated signals (Menzel 1999). PKC appears to be the basic protein kinase in later memory or in the lLTM stage (Grunbaum and Muller 1998) which is associated with NO (Muller 1996).

Immunohistochemistry studies of honey bee brains have revealed that PKA and PKC expression occurs in different distributions, i.e. PKA occurs in most neuronal brains

whereas PKC is highly expressed in mushroom bodies (Muller 1997; Muller 1999). My study highlights the occurrence of putative PKA and PKC phosphorylation sites in IP₃R. It is possible then that *A. mellifera* IP₃R can play role in mediating signal pathways at certain stages of memory formation by means of the PKA and PKC phosphorylation sites in the protein modulatory domain. Moreover, Muller's Figure 1 diagram (1999) shows the scheme of second messenger-regulated phosphorylating cascades including PKA and PKC and also the occurrence of intracellular organelle contributes to the production of Ca²⁺.

Complete honey bee PKA cDNA (Eisenhardt et al. 2001), partial PKC and Ca²⁺/CaMKII cDNAs (Kamikouchi et al. 2000) have been characterised. Research studies which assess the contribution of IP₃R to brain signalling pathways can be conducted by means of experiments using *A. mellifera* PKA and (or) PKC mutant. *D. melanogaster dunce* mutant for cAMP phosphodiesterase (Dudai et al. 1976; Chen et al. 1986) and rutabaga mutant for Ca²⁺/Calmoduline-responsive adenylyl cyclase (Levin et al. 1992) show that these are defective in learning. Another study of the role of the *itpr* gene in relation to PKA has already been demonstrated in *D. melanogaster* molting development (Venkatesh and Hasan 1997; Venkatesh et al. 2001), it is therefore possible to study the role of this gene in *A. mellifera* signalling neurons, either directly using generated mutants or, perhaps more feasibly, using antisense RNA under RNAi as already attempted in honey bees (Beye et al., 2002).

FUTURE STUDY

Further studies are necessary in order to complete the entire *A. mellifera itpr* sequence. As a result of this current study, all introns are known to be inserted at conserved splicing sites. Complete *A. mellifera itpr* sequence can be done by using cDNA walking combined with the use of conserved primers to amplify *A. mellifera* cDNA and DNA. *A. mellifera itpr* introns can be explored at the genomic level using the sequence difference between cDNA and DNA sequences.

The *A. mellifera itpr* promoter region needs to be characterised and as well as the IP₃R transmembrane spanning and IP₃ ligand binding sites. *A. mellifera* putative

phosphorylation sites (PKA, cGMP, PKC, tyrosine, glucosamine and casein kinase) should be confirmed and the results expanded to the entire *A. mellifera* IP₃R. In the context of honey bee brain calcium signalling, it should also be possible to characterise *A. mellifera* RYR. This receptor is expressed in *the D. melanogaster* tubular muscle and has a low expression in neuronal tissue (Hasan and Rosbash 1992).

APPENDIX 1. Partial *itpr* gene alignment; the IP₃R signature is boxed; arrows indicate the conserved intron position between *A. mellifera* and *D. melanogaster itpr* gene embryonic type; bold amino acids are the *D. melanogaster* IP₃R adult type insertional region; the thick line is the IP₃R variable area I (Yamada et. al 1994); the *A. mellifera* PKA phosphorylation site (S₃₄₈) is underlined; dotted spots covered the similar hydrophobic regions in *P. argus* (Munger et. al 2000) and *A. mellifera*; stars denote the identical amino acids of all taxa.

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A.mellife -----MSINDYDANMR--- 12
D.mel_embryo DETMPYELRASFCRLMLHLHVDR-DPQEPVTPVKYARLWSEIPSKMSIQDYDGKNQQP-- 889
D.mel_adult DETMPYELRASFCRLMLHLHVDR-DPQEPVTPVKYARLWSEIPSKMSIQDYDGKNQQP-- 889
P.argus EETLAYDLRAAFCRMLLHMVDC-EPQEMVTPVKYARLWSEIQPHMSIADYDKHAAM--- 824
C.elegans DNRLPYDLRGSFTRLMLHLHVVRGSP---MSAIRHARLWWSIPENVVSTYSEVSVEAYS 883
X.laevs DENLFPDLRASFCRLMLHMVDR-DPQEQVTPVKYARLWSEIPSEIAIDYDS-----S 807
M.musculu DENLFPDLRASFCRLMLHMVDR-DPQEQVTPVKYARLWSEIPSEIAIDYDSSGTS--- 825
*

A.mellife DQNKEAVRAKFS-A-TIMFVEDYLCNVVAKMWSFAD-QEQNKLT FEVVKLARDLIYFGFY 70
D.mel_embryo DQNKQACRAKENT-TIAFVENYLCNVATKVWLFTD-QEQNKLT FEVVKLARDLIYFGFY 947
D.mel_adult DQNKQACRAKENT-TIAFVENYLCNVATKVWLFTD-QEQNKLT FEVVKLARDLIYFGFY 947
P.argus -HSTEAETTFKD-VIVFVEEYLCNVVAKMWSFSD-CEQNKLT FEVVKLARDLIYFGFY 881
C.elegans DGSRMRI GEGIAHKVLAIVETYLMLGRNQSMEEQSVNSSKLT YEIVNLAKALAQFNFY 943
X.laevs GTSRDDIKERFAQ-TMEFVEEYLRDVGQRFPFAD-KEKNKLT FEVVNLARNLIYFGFY 865
M.musculu ---KDEIKERFAQ-TMEFVEEYLRDVGQRFPFAD-KEKNKLT FEVVNLARNLIYFGFY 880
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A.mellife FSDLLRLTKTLLSILDCISENDVADGKIPTGEID-----AEGGLVRCIGDMGAVMT 121
D.mel_embryo FSDLLRLTKTLLSILDCVSD--DTSSGEFASTDID-----SEGGVLRISIGDINTVMT 996
D.mel_adult FSDLLRLTKTLLSILDCVSD--DTSSGEFASTDIDSVEEETNAEAEGGLVLRISIGDINTVMT 1005
P.argus FNDLLRLTKTLLSILDYSF--DTDSKYFSNSIPQG-----TASAKGGVIKSLGDMGAVVT 934
C.elegans FNDLLQLTQNLAIINEGP---ATEQVPS-----HRAMVNAIRN-----MS 981
X.laevs FSDLLRLTKTLLAIIVDCVH---LIANFPSPGKLGK--E--ESKGGSNVMRSIHGVGELMT 918
M.musculu FSDLLRLTKTLLAIILDCVH---VTTIFPISKMTKG-----EENKGSNVMRSIHGVGELMT 932
* * * * *

A.mellife SLTLGP--AGQVLGSSSPRPK----PLLKKEYPLVMDTKLKIIEILQFILDVRLDYRIS 175
D.mel_embryo SLALGS--VGQAIAAPTISLQQRKSVS QLMKEYPLVMDTKLKIIEILQFILDVRLDYRIS 1054
D.mel_adult SLALGS--VGQAIAAPTISLQQRKSVS QLMKEYPLVMDTKLKIIEILQFILDVRLDYRIS 1063
P.argus NLALGTRMGPRLGSGSSPKKK---VGATEKEDTLVMDTKLKIIEILEFILNVRDYRIS 991
C.elegans KSMRGGNKENS KDLAKTPSVTAEAGRTKEGRALNVKTKLIVAEILQFVMDVRRDYRIT 1041
X.laevs QVVLRRGGGFPMPTPMAAPEGTIKAQREPEKED-ILVMDTKLKIIEILQFILDVRLDYRIS 977
M.musculu QVVLRRGGGFPMPTPMAAPEGN-VKQAEPEKEDIMVMDTKLKIIEILQFILDVRLDYRIS 991
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A.mellife CLLSIFKQEFDETER-----ASGD 194
D.mel_embryo CLLSIFKREFDESEVPLRPLAMRQVSSSRNRRNRRLAAPMRLIPSTVPSLWPPRCAAAA 1114
D.mel_adult CLLSIFKREFDESEVPLRPLAMRQVSSSRNRRNRRLAAPMRLIPSTVPSLWPPRCAAAA 1123
P.argus CLLSIFKRESDENPSS---LTGEGISQGLKKNK-----VENIW---AQAO 1030
C.elegans MALSWFKNVFPCD-----EDGS-- 1058
X.laevs CLLCIFKSEFDESNAQ-----SVEGSTE 1000
M.musculu CLLCIFKREFDESNSQ-----SSETSSGN-----SSQE 1019
* * *

A.mellife LSLGQKT-IDLELIGTQAEGIFGSSE--ECVALDLDGQGGRTFLRVLLHLAMHDYPPPLVS 251
D.mel_embryo TTARQKN-IDLESIGVQAEGIFDCERS-DAANLDDGQGGRTFLRVLLHLIMHDYAPPLVS 1172
D.mel_adult TTARQKN-IDLESIGVQAEGIFDCER--TPANLDDGQGGRTFLRVLLHLIMHDYAPPLVS 1180
P.argus SIFDETSGLGLVWSSSQKPSLQTSCEENSSLDLDGEGGKFLRVLLHLMHEYPPLVS 1090
C.elegans --LMHSASINERMASELYDAIYRSS----GHELHLDGRDQGLLAILLQMTMSDYPPPLVS 1112
X.laevs AITVVPGLTDFEHIEEQAEGIFGGSE--ENTPLDLDGQGGRTFLRVLLHLMHDYPPPLVS 1058
M.musculu GPSNVPALDFEHIEEQAEGIFGGSE--ENTPLDLDGQGGRTFLRVLLHLMHDYPPPLVS 1077
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A.mellife GALHLLFRHFSQRQEVLAQAFKQVQLLVSDSDVESYKQIKSDLDVLRQSVESKSELWVYK-- 309
D.mel_embryo GALHLLFRHFSQRQEVLAQAFKQVQLLVSDSDVESYKQIKSDLDILRQSVESKSELWVYK-- 1230
D.mel_adult GALHLLFRHFSQRQEVLAQAFKQVQLLVSDSDVESYKQIKSDLDILRQSVESKSELWVYK-- 1238
P.argus RSLQLLFRHFSQRQEVLAQAFKQVQLLVQDGDVESYKQIKEDSDDLRNLVEKSELWVYK-- 1148
C.elegans IALKVFFRHFTQYQELLEDLKQVQLLVSNNDVENVYRQIDRDLFILKNLTKSELWVHGDR 1172
X.laevs GALHLLFRHFSQRQEVLAQAFKQVQLLVTSQDQVDNYKQIKQDLQDLRSIVEKSELWVY--- 1115
M.musculu GALQLLFRHFSQRQEVLAQAFKQVQLLVTSQDQVDNYKQIKQDLQDLRSIVEKSELWVYK-- 1135
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-----SKASEEHGN---KKKKKEDED-----DGATPRKAPP---QLS 341
D.mel_embryo -----AKATDELG----- 1238
D.mel_adult -----AKATDELG----- 1246
P.argus -----SRSTDEDGGGTTKKKKKDDDE-----DDALSKPKPPAPKLT 1187
C.elegans HHSIDTKEVDEKERTTEHDLDDHDLKSPRAFDSGDSMEALMAVLNEHYPSIRNECLQLLN 1232
X.laewis ---KGS---GPEEVTAQAAGGADKGETP-----G----- 1138
M.musculu -----GQGPDEPMDG-----A 1146

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Area I

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TTDKKGS AIDLDIGPLHADQAE--EYKKIQILIRMNKLCIQITIG---GQIKPRKHQR 396
D.mel_embryo ATDAGGDAVSLEYNAALSQEQRN--EYRKVKEILIRMNKFCVTASGP-GSVVKPRKHQR 1295
D.mel_adult ATDAGGDAVSLEYNAALSQEQRN--EYRKVKEILIRMNKFCVTASGP-GSVVKPRKHQR 1303
P.argus AQDKQES AIDLGLGPPLEPEQAD--NYKRIQQILVRMNKLCVQSS--HGNSPFRNEQR 1243
C.elegans RLLIKDDRNDAAVALQELSDKAPLIAYPLIRQMLVRLTGMCYRKGDG---KPD TMNQ 1287
X.laewis ---KAKK-----SESTSSYNYRVVKEILLRLSKLCVQENTG--R-RNRKQQQR 1181
M.musculu SGENEHKKTEEGTSKPLKHSTSSYNYRVVKEILIRLSKLCVQESA---SVRKS RQQR 1203

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LLRNVGVHTVVDLLQVPFDKEDVVRMNEMLRLAHDFLQNFCLGNQQNQVLLHKLQD--- 453
D.mel_embryo LLRNVGVHTVVDLLQNPYDEKDELMEKELMCLAHEFLQNFCLGNQQNQVLLHNHLD--- 1352
D.mel_adult LLRNVGVHTVVDLLQNPYDEKDELMEKELMCLAHEFLQNFCLGNQQNQVLLHNHLD--- 1360
P.argus LLRNMGIHSVVLELLQIPYDRKEDKRMNELIELAHQFLQNFCLGDRANQALLYKSID--- 1300
C.elegans LLKNMRVYEVVLEFISVPHDKKHDHDMKLI TLSHEFLRSFCKTNKENQSRLYKFISYEK 1347
X.laewis LLRNMGAHSVLELLQIPYEKTEDTRMQEIMKIAHEFLQNFCAAGNQNALHKKHIN--- 1238
M.musculu LLRNMGAHAVVLELLQIPYEKAEDTKMQEIMRLAHEFLQNFCAAGNQNALHKKHIN--- 1260

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-----LFLNPGIREAQ TICSFQDNSTLCNEVSAKV--IQHFVHCIEITHGKHVQYLKFLQ 506
D.mel_embryo -----LFLNPGILEAKTVCAIFKDNLALCNEVTDKVGVGHSVVHCIEI HGRHVAYLQFLQ 1407
D.mel_adult -----LFLNPGILEAKTVCAIFKDNLALCNEVTDKV---VHFVHCIEI HGRHVAYLQFLQ 1412
P.argus -----LFLNPGLEAKTVCAVFKDNHLCSEVSEV---IQHFHCIEI THGRHVQYLKFLQ 1353
C.elegans DAKEGMLRVETIEEVGTLVAIFRNNRELASNVPEEL--IAHIVGLIEHNSRNP I FLELLQ 1405
X.laewis -----LFLTPGILEAVTMQHIFMNNFQLCSEINERV--VQHFVHCIEI THGRNVQYIKFLQ 1291
M.musculu -----LFLKPGILEAVTMQHIFMNNFQLCSEINERV--VQHFVHCIEI THGRNVQYIKFLQ 1313

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TIVKAENQFIRKQCEMVMQELVQAGEDVLVVFYNDRASFNHFVEMMRSERH-RMDESS--- 562
D.mel_embryo TVVAAENQFIRRCQDMVMQELINSGEDVLVVFYNDKGSFNHFVQMMQQQML-GMEKLSDDS 1466
D.mel_adult TVVAAENQFIRRCQDMVMQELINSGEDVLVVFYNDKGSFNHFVQMMQQQML-GMEKLSDDS 1471
P.argus TIVKAEGQFLRRSQDIVMQLVQAGEDVLVVFYNERASFNMFIEMMKADRNRMDFDSS-S 1411
C.elegans ALVCVYDKEIESGQEKVANEICAASDEVRLYVDNASFEELEAMMKDEKESGRSSDSRR 1465
X.laewis TIVKAEGRYIKKQDIVMAELVNSGEDVLVVFYNDRASFO TLVQMMRSERE---R-MDENS 1347
M.musculu TIVKAEGKFIKKQDMVMAELVNSGEDVLVVFYNDRASFO TLVQMMRSERD-RMDENS--- 1369

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PLKYHVELVKLLACRTMGKNVNT EIKCHSLLPLDDIVAMVSHPCIPVKEAYINFLNHC 622
D.mel_embryo PLKYHVELVKLLACCTMGKNVYTEIKCNLLSLDDIVTI ICHPLCMPEVKEAYVDFL NHC 1526
D.mel_adult PLKYHVELVKLLACCTMGKNVYTEIKCNLLSLDDIVTI ICHPLCMPEVKEAYVDFL NHC 1531
P.argus PLRYHIELVKLLACCTEGKNASTEIKCHSLLPLDDIVAMVEHKDCIPEVKEAYINFLNHC 1471
C.elegans KLKYHIELVRLLAMCTRGKNGNTE LKASQIPMDHIVRVVTAQCLVEVKT VYVQLLLHC 1525
X.laewis PLMYHIHLVELLAVCTEGKNVYTEIKCNLLPLDDIVRVVTHEDCVPEVKIAYINFLNHC 1407
M.musculu PLMYHIHLVELLAVCTEGKNVYTEIKCNLLPLDDIVRVVTHEDCIPVVKIAYINFLNHC 1429

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A.mellife	YIDTEVEMKEIYTSNHMWSLFEKSFIVDMGIIATATHDREHADISLENYVTGCLMNIITT	682
D.mel_embryo	YIDTEVEMKEIYASGHMWSLFEKSFIVDMGIIATATHDREHADISLENYVTGCLMNIITT	1584
D.mel_adult	YIDTEVEMKEIYASGHMWSLFEKSFIVDMGIIATATHDREHADISLENYVTGCLMNIITT	1589
P.argus	YIDTEVEMKEIYNHHIWSLFEKSFIVDMGRVATAPPDRRHADKALENYVINSMTIITT	1531
C.elegans	YIDTDAEMKDAYKTEYVDHILNN-LLEDI-RSLRVEKLTGAETATLEHYICHTVTEVLIK	1583
X.laewis	YVDTEVEMKEIYTSNHMWSLFEKSFIVDMGIIATATHDREHADISLENYVTGCLMNIITT	1466
M.musculu	YVDTEVEMKEIYTSNHMWSLFEKSFIVDMGIIATATHDREHADISLENYVTGCLMNIITT	1488
	* * * * *	

A.mellife	FFSSPFSD-QSTTVQK	697
D.mel_embryo	FFASPFSD-QSAIVQS	1599
D.mel_adult	FFASPFSD-QSAIVQS	1604
P.argus	FFNSPFSD-QSQTIQT	1546
C.elegans	FFEAPYSALQQAKVDV	1599
X.laewis	FFSSPFSD-QSTTLQA	1481
M.musculu	FFSSPFSD-QSTTLQT	1503
	** * * *	

APPENDIX 2. *A. mellifera* partial *itpr* gene: intron (lowercase) and exon (uppercase) sequences

ttatataatatacgcacattttgatataattttaagtgattaactaactaaatattga
 aaacttctaaagctgattctgtggattctcaggacataggtaatatattattgagaat
 taattaggtagcatgttactttgtaataatcttgcacttctatttgtttcacgtaac
 atcttcctttgatactttccttcttaatttattttaagtcagttttgtgttaaaaa
 atataaatattttattaaaaacagcaatgtcaaataatgtaactatattcaatcttaa
 ttcaatttttaagcctgaagttatttttttttaaatataataaaaaatatttaa
 acataaaatcattctatttaataaattaagaacgcatttaaaaatgtttataatattt
 aataGCGGAAGGTGGAGTATTAAGATGTATTGGAGACATGGGTGCAGTAATGACGAGC
 TTAACACTGGGACCAGCAGGACAAGTATTAGCAGGAAGTTCTTCTCCAAGACCAAAC
 CACTTTTAAAGAAAGAATATCCTCTGGTGATGGATACAAAATTGAAAATAATCGAAAT
 TTTACAATTTATACTTGATGTTTCGATTGGATTATAGAATTTCTTGTTTATTGAGTATT
 TTCAAACAAGAATTTGATGAAACTGAAAGAGCTTCTGGTGATTTGAGTCTCGGCCAGA
 AACTATTGATTTAGAATTAATAGGTACACAAGCGGAGGGTATATTTGGTAGCAGgta
 atacattattcattttttgtaatcttttttttatttatttatattaataaatatttc
 ataaattattttattttatttagCGAGGAATGTGTGGCGTTAGATTTAGATGGACAAG
 GTGGTAGAACATTTCTGCGTGTTTTACTCCATTTGGCAATGCATGACTATCCTCCACT
 AGTTTCCGGAGCATTACATTTGCTTTTTAGGCATTTTAGTCAAAGACAAGAAGTCTTA
 CAAGCATTTAAACAgtatgttacattatttataatattatcgtgtaataataatgaa
 aaaatataaatatttataaattattgtaaatagGTTCAACTTTTGGTTTCCGATAGTGA
 TGTTGAATCTTACAAACAAATAAAGTCAGATTTGGACGTTTTAAGACAATCAGTTGAA
 AAATCGGAACTTTGGGTTTATAAATCTAAAGCATCAGAAGAACATGGCAATAAAAAGA
 AGAAAAATAAAGAAGACGAAGATGATGGAGCTACTCCTCGTAAAGCACCACCACAACT
 ATCTACGACGGATAAGAAAGgttttgttaataattttttttaataaaaatattgaaat
 aaattgaaaaatcaaaggcaaatcttctaatacaaatattatttataattatagGA
 TCTGCAATAGATTTAGATATTGGTCCACCGTTACATGCAGATCAAGCGGAGGAATATA
 AAAAAATACAACAAATTCTAATTCGAATGAACAAATTATGTATCCAAACGATAGGTGG
 TCAAATAAAACCACGAAAACATGAACAAAGACTTTTACGTAATGTTGGAGTACATACC
 GTTGTTTTAGATTTATTACAAGTTCATTTGACGCGAAAGAAGATGTTAGAATGAATG
 AGTTAATGCGATTAGCACATGATTTCTTGCAAAATTTTGTGTTAGGAAATCAACAAAA
 TCAAGTTCTGTTGCATAAACAATTAGATTTATTTCTGAATCCTGGTATACGTGAAGCT

CAAACGATATGTAGTATTTTTCAAGATAATTCGACTTTGTGCAATGAAGTAAGTGCTA
AAGTGATAACAACATTTTGTACATTGCATAGAACTCATGGGAAACATGTGCAATATTT
AAAATTTCTTCAAACAATAGTAAAAGCCGAAAATCAATTTATCAGAAAATGTCAGGAA
ATGGTGATGCAAGAAgtaagtgataactatTTgacaaaataaattcatttatatttaa
aaattattaataattgctTTTTTTTTtagTTGGTTCAAGCAGGTGAAGACGTTTTTAGTT
TTTTATACGATCGAGCTTCTTTTAATCATTTTGTGGAAATGATGCGATCTGAACGACA
TCGGATGGATGAAAGTAGTCCACTTAAgtatgcatTTaagatatataccaatagttat
aattataataattatgtatacataaatatataatataatTTTTtagGTATCATGTAGAA
TTAGTTAAATTATTAGCTTGTCGTACAATGGGCAAAAATGTTAACACTGAAATTAAAT
GTCACAGTCCTTTACCA

Chapter 3. Honey bee behavioural evolution: insights from molecular phylogenetic analysis

Abstract

My study deals with honey bee behavioural evolution in terms of ancestral states for food recruitment and nesting behaviour. It also seeks to resolve questions about honey bee phylogeny mainly the relationship of two newly recognised species.

Phylogenetic reconstruction was performed under a Maximum Likelihood (ML) framework using data from two mitochondrial genes (*COII* and *lsRNA*) and a nuclear gene, *itpr*. ML analysis under GTR+G+I model of substitution revealed that *A. dorsata* and *A. florea* groups are clustered in the same clade, separate to that of *A. mellifera* group. Another possible honey bee evolutionary scenario from a weighted consensus ML tree revealed the following topology: ((((*Apis mellifera*, (((*A. nuluensis*, *A. nigrocincta*), *A. cerana*), *A. koschevnikovi*))), ((*A. laboriosa*, *A. d. binghamii*), *A. dorsata*)), (*A. florea*, *A. andreniformis*)), *Trigona fimbriata*, *Bombus terrestris*). This topology is in agreement with previous morphological and molecular results. In addition, my study discovered a discrepancy in the *COII* sequence of *A. koschevnikovi* *COII* (Willis et al. 1992) and thereby explains some puzzling results.

Dance behaviour was mapped onto the consensus phylogenetic tree. Species with vertical dance behaviour are monophyletic, as are those with horizontal dance behaviour. An unordered trait analysis does not resolve which type of dance behaviour (horizontal or vertical) is the ancestral. However, given that horizontal dance behaviour is less sophisticated with respect to translating foraging information for potential recruits, an ordered dance character state seems justified, and yields simple results. From these considerations, horizontal dance seems most likely to be the ancestral condition.

Whether cavity- or open nesting was ancestral cannot be determined because the two possibilities are equally parsimonious (i.e. both require two changes). Either ancestral *Apis* evolved open nesting from a common ancestor with the (cavity nesting) Bombini or Meliponini, or cavity nesting was ancestral with two or one origin(s) of open nesting.

The flexibility has shown by the cavity nesters. *A. mellifera* (which can nest in the open for extended periods) suggests that it may stem from open nesting ancestor, thereby indicating that open-nesting was ancestral.

INTRODUCTION

Eusociality in Apidae occurs in the corbiculate bees, namely the group of bees which have a corbicula (pollen basket) on the hindleg (Michener et al. 1978). The corbiculate group consists of four tribes: the Euglossini, Bombini, Meliponini, and Apini (Michener 2000). The tribe Euglossini is non-eusocial bees (most species are solitary, but some are communal or quasisocial), whereas the other groups (Bombini, Meliponini and Apini) live in eusocial colonies (Michener 1944; Prentice 1991).

The Apini consists of one genus, *Apis* that contains nine species. In this study, I seek to elucidate the behavioural history of *Apis*, with respect to nesting and dance behaviour. In inferring honey bee phylogeny, I used Bombini and Meliponini as the outgroups. The following sections describe behavioural characteristics reported in Bombini and Meliponini. Details of *Apis* nesting and dance behaviour were given in Chapter 1.

Nest construction

The nests made by bees placed in the Bombini, Meliponini and Apini, in which young are cared for communally and two generations of adult females live in the nest, reflect their eusociality (Michener 1974). Here I follow the original meaning of ‘eusocial’ (Crozier and Pamilo, 1996 page 4) as denoting species with continued and cooperative care of the young, a reproductive division of labour, and colonies with two adult generations, with ‘advanced eusociality’ pertaining to cases in which the egg-layers are morphologically differentiated from other individuals. Crespi and Yanega (1995) restrict ‘eusociality’ to species usually defined as ‘advanced eusocial’ and Sherman et al. (1995) suggest describing no species as ‘eusocial’ but rather giving them a score on a eusociality index. Neither of these suggestions is as useful as the original definition, at least for the work reported here.

Bombini or bumble bees, live mostly in the soil and often in an abandoned rodent nest burrow covered with dry grass and leaves (Michener 1974). Several species build their nests above the soil surface, mostly beneath vegetation. The bumble bee nest consists of brood cells and food storage pots which are made from mixed pollen and wax. Sometimes they make food storage pots from old cocoons (Michener 1964).

The Meliponini or stingless bees, usually build their nests in cavities inside hollow trees, although some species nest in soil, and others live in the open air (Roubik 1983). The fossorial species sometimes form an association with termite or ant nests such as *T. moorei* in *Crematogaster* (Salmah et al. 1990). Meliponini nests are made of wax, and some parts are made of cerumen (a mixture of resin and wax). In several cavity stingless bee species, the nest is encircled by batumen (thick cerumen plates), which seals most of the nest. The stingless bee nests in partially-exposed areas are providing with thick batumen which provides protection from heavy winds blows and temperature fluctuations (Wille and Michener 1973). Most stingless bees have an entrance tunnel to the nest. Their nests consist of brood cells and food storage pot, both made of wax and resin. Some brood cells are arranged horizontally, and others are in spirals with vertical openings. There is one species which builds vertical cells which are double-sided, back-to-back cells as seen in the honey bee (Michener 1974).

Outgroup data are essential for identifying character state homologies and determining polarity of evolutionary events. Table 1 (below) describes the nest structure features in Bombini, Meliponini, and Apini, which will be used here for comparative analyses.

Table 1

Nest structure comparisons in Bombini, Meliponi, and Apini (Michener 1974; Roubik 1983)

NEST DESCRIPTION	BOMBINI	MELIPONINI	APINI
Location			
Underground	yes	yes	no
Cavity (i.e. tree trunk)	no	yes	yes
Open area	yes	yes	yes
Nest material	Mostly wax and resin	Mostly wax and resin	Wax
Nest component			
Brood cells	Vertical opening cells	Vertical opening cells only one species with horizontal opening cells	Two-sided horizontal opening cells
Brood and food cells	Differ	Differ	the same form
Food storage	pot	pot	cells

Dance behaviour

Dance behaviour in honey bee is a repetitive behaviour that gives information about the distance and the direction of a certain place (von Frisch 1967). Dance behaviour is performed by forager, scout and drone honey bees. The forager honey bee gives food source information whereas the scout bee communicates the location of the new nest (Lindauer 1961), while at least in *A. andreniformis* the drone dances to coordinate departure by the colony's males (Rinderer et al. 1992). The focus of my study will be dance behaviour as performed by the forager honey bee.

Dance behaviour basically is food recruitment behaviour; it is a form of communication that brings nestmates to point in space where work is required. In the foraging context of food recruitment, dance behaviour is a communication that brings nestmates to the food source (Wilson 1971).

One example of food recruitment in Bombini is that of *B. terrestris* (Dornhaus and Chittka 2001), where the returning forager stimulates nestmates to search for food by a repetitive irregular running while fanning the wings. However, no information about distance or direction of the food location is provided (Dornhaus and Chittka 2001). While performing the runs, the bumble bee unloads the nectar into the nectar pot, then continues the excited running for several minutes before flying back to the food source. Recruitment mechanisms involve distributing the pheromone from the dancer to the recruits. A considerably higher amount of honey is produced after the dancer has recruited nestmates (Dornhaus and Chittka 2001).

Among the Meliponini, wide ranges of food communication mechanisms have evolved. The first of these is the alerting signal, which indicates that food is available by means using of a scent trail (Esch et al. 1965). In *Scaptotrigona postica* route to the food source from the nest is marked with a scent trail (Lindauer and Kerr 1960). "Jostling running" is performed by *Melipona scutellaris* and *M. quadrifasciata* foragers (Hrncir et al. 2000; Jarau et al. 2000). *M. panamica* shows a recruitment behaviour by performing clock and anticlockwise dance as the honey bee round dance (Nieh 1998). The polarity of dance behaviour will be discussed as well.

Previous studies of morphology and molecular phylogenetics in *Apis*

In order to understand the evolution of nesting and dancing behaviours we require a comprehensive phylogeny of this genus. Previous phylogenetic analyses were based on morphology (Alexander 1991) and mitochondrial DNA sequences using cytochrome oxidase II (*COII*) (Garnery et al. 1991; Willis et al. 1992) and large unit of ribosomal (*lsRNA*) (Cameron et al. 1992) regions for five species of honey bee. Most phylogenetic results have found that *A. florea* is the most basal species in the tree, with *A. dorsata* and *A. mellifera* as more derived groups (Alexander 1991; Garnery et al. 1991; Engel and Schultz 1997).

Controversy surrounds the position of *A. koschevnikovi*. One study found a close relationship of *A. koschevnikovi* to *A. florea* and *A. andreniformis* (Willis et al. 1992). Using the *COII* data of Willis et al. (1992), Engel, and Schultz (1997) confirmed that they show a close relationship of *A. koschevnikovi* to *A. florea* and *A. andreniformis*, whereas morphology and the other gene support the traditional place of *A. koschevnikovi* close to *A. cerana*. Tanaka et al. (2001) confirmed these findings from *COII* and concurred with Engel and Schultz (1997) that *COII* cannot be used for *Apis* phylogenetic studies. I have reexamined this condition by obtaining new or independent *COII* sequence for all the *Apis* species.

In addition to using the phylogenetic tree for tracing the evolution of honey bee behaviour, I will address the relationships of new honey bee species, *A. nuluensis* and *A. nigrocincta*, to the established species.

The previous honey bee phylogenetics used *Bombus* and *Xylocopa* as outgroups (Garnery et al. 1991). The latter was also used by Cameron et al. (1992) while Tanaka et al. (2001) used wasp as the outgroup. Apid molecular phylogenetics based on cytochrome b (Koulianos et al. 1999) showed that the Apini form a sister tribe of the Euglossini; and the Bombini are the sister tribe to the Meliponini. Data from several genes (*opsin*, 28srDNA, *lsRNA* and *cytochrome b* genes) also yielded the same results (Cameron and Mardulyn 2001; Lockhart and Cameron 2001). On the other hand, Ascher et al. (2001) found that *opsin* sequences failed to resolve the higher qualification

of the corbiculate tribes; but that adding morphological and behavioral data yielded the same, traditional result as do the behavioural and morphological data alone. Schultz et al. (2001) note that some molecular data sets are equivocal and argue that therefore, all molecular results should be set aside in favour of the morphological, paleontological and behavioral data sets. For the purpose of this study, I have selected Bombini and Meliponini as the outgroups because they perform the type of social behaviour which is the focus of interest here.

Nuclear and mitochondrial gene combined data

Previous molecular phylogenetic analyses have used mitochondrial DNA for analysing honey bee evolution. In this study I will contribute further to the inference of *Apis* phylogeny by including a nuclear gene, the inositol 1,4,5-trisphosphate receptor (*itpr*) from the study described in Chapter 2. The molecular phylogeny combines the *itpr* gene with the two mitochondrial DNA genes: cytochrome oxidase II (*COII*) and the large unit of ribosomal (*lsRNA*).

OBJECTIVE

The main objectives here are to elucidate behavioural evolution of honey bee in the areas of nesting and dance behaviour and to determine ancestral characteristic states of such behaviour traits. I have used molecular phylogenetics as my approach in tracing behavioural evolution. In addition to map the behavioural characteristics into the inferred molecular tree, I would resolve honey bee molecular phylogenies and include the newly recognised honey bee species, in my new phylogeny.

MATERIALS AND METHOD

DNA: extraction, sequencing and genomic walking

Genomic DNA was extracted from the thoraces of single bees using phenol-chloroform extraction and ethanol precipitation. DNA target regions were amplified using the Polymerase Chain Reactions (PCRs). PCRs were carried out in 50 µl reactions. Cycle sequencing conditions varied depending on the DNA target length. The basic amplification protocol was 2 min at 94⁰C for initial denaturing, 35 cycles of 30 s at 94⁰C, 30 s at 40-58⁰C and 1 min at 72⁰C for DNA elongation, followed by 10 minutes

for the final extension. DNA Sequencing was carried out according to the ABI BigDye protocol automated sequencing instruction of the supplier.

Taxon analysis

The ingroup honey bees comprise nine species of *Apis* and one subspecies, *A. d. binghamii*. *T. fimbriata* (Meliponini) and *B. terrestris* (Bombini) comprise the outgroups in the phylogenetic analysis (Table 2).

Table 2.
Bee sample locations and collectors

Bees species	Location	Collector
<i>A. mellifera</i>	Sydney, Australia	BPO
<i>A. dorsata</i>	Sabah, Malaysia	RR
<i>A. d. binghamii</i>	Sulawesi, Indonesia	GWO
<i>A. laboriosa</i>	Nepal	JP
<i>A. florea</i>	Chiangmai, Thailand	RR
<i>A. andreniformis</i>	Sumatra, Indonesia	RR
<i>A. cerana</i>	Sabah, Malaysia	RR
<i>A. koschevnikovi</i>	Sabah, Malaysia	RR
<i>A. nigrocincta</i>	Sulawesi, Indonesia	SH
<i>A. nuluensis</i>	Sabah, Malaysia	RR
<i>T. fimbriata</i>	Chiangmai, Thailand	RR
<i>B. terrestris</i>	Switzerland	RS

Collector abbreviations: BPO: Ben P. Oldroyd; RR: Rika Raffiudin; GWO: Gard W. Otis; JP: Jurgen Paar; SH: Soesilowati Hadisoesilo; RS: Regula Schimdt-Hempel

Molecular markers

Apis itpr and *COII* were analysed for all honey bees and outgroup bees. Sequence data from several *lsRNA* honey bees (Cameron et al. 1992) were used and combined with the new mitochondrial sequence data from this study.

Itpr gene

Three exons (starting 2nd exon) and two introns of *itpr*, derived from the *itpr* characterisation study (Chapter 2), were used for reconstructing honey bee phylogeny. The total region comprised of approximately 1.2 kb. In order to amplify these regions, two oligonucleotide primer sets were designed. The first set was the set of IP3For 5'-

GAATATCCTCTGGTGATGGATACA-3' and IP3Rev 5'-CCATGTTCTTCTGATGCTTTAGA 3'. The second set was the IP3W3F 5' GGTTTCCGATAGTGATGTTGAT 3' and IP3R1781 5' AGGATTAAGAAATAAATCTAA 3'.

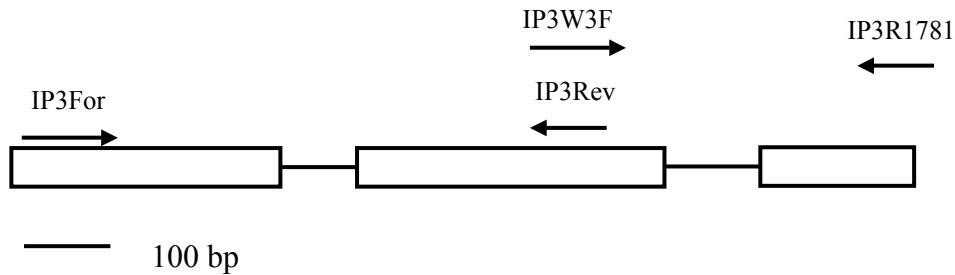


Figure 1. *ItpR* exons (boxed) and intron (lined) regions amplified. The arrows indicate primer positions in this study

ItpR gene sequences resulted in double peaks with the same intensity, is considered to denote heterozygots; therefore, PCR products were cloned. Four clones were sequenced, and the commonest nucleotide was used in the data analysis.

***COII* gene**

Honey bee *COII* whole regions were amplified by using two sets of primers (Figure 2, Table 3). The first region (A) was amplified using E2 (Garnery et al. 1991) and H1 (Estoup et al. 1996) while the second region was amplified by using A298 (Simon et al. 1994) and tRNA aspartic acid (Willis et al. 1992). As *T. fimbriata COII* failed to be amplified using these primers pairs, I substituted with E3 and H1 (Estoup et al. 1996) and reamplified using E2 and H1 as the internal primers. The B region was amplified using A298 (Simon et al. 1994) and ATP-8 (Andrew Beckenbach, personal communication) (Table 3).

Large Subunit Ribosomal RNA Gene (lsRNA)

Half of the 5' end of *lsRNA* region was amplified using primers 875-16SmF and 874-16SIR (Cameron et al. 1992).

Table 3.

PCR and sequencing primers of honey bee *COII* and *lsRNA* genes. Primer positions are based on the *A. mellifera* complete mitochondrial genome (Crozier and Crozier 1993)

Primers	Sequence 5'-3'	Position in <i>A. mellifera</i>	References
Cytochrome oxidase II gene			
E2	GGCAGAATAAGTGCATTG	3363-3380	(Garnery et al. 1991)
A298	ATTGGACACCAATGGTATTGA	3915-3935	(Simon et al. 1994)
tRNA aspartic acid	GGCCGTCTGACAAACTAATGTTAT	4312-4335	(Willis et al. 1992)
E3	ATACCACGACGT TAT TCAGA	3093-3112	(Estoup et al. 1996)
H1	GTTCATGAATGAATTACATCT G	4082-4103	(Estoup et al. 1996)
ATP8	ATTGGTGCTATTTGTGGAAT	4444-4463	Andrew Beckenbach (pers. communication)
<i>lsRNA</i> gene			
875-16SmF	TTATTCACCTGTTTATCAAAACAT	13924-13948	Cameron et al. (1992)
874-16SIR	TATAGATAGAAACCAATCTG	13367-13386	Cameron et al. (1992)

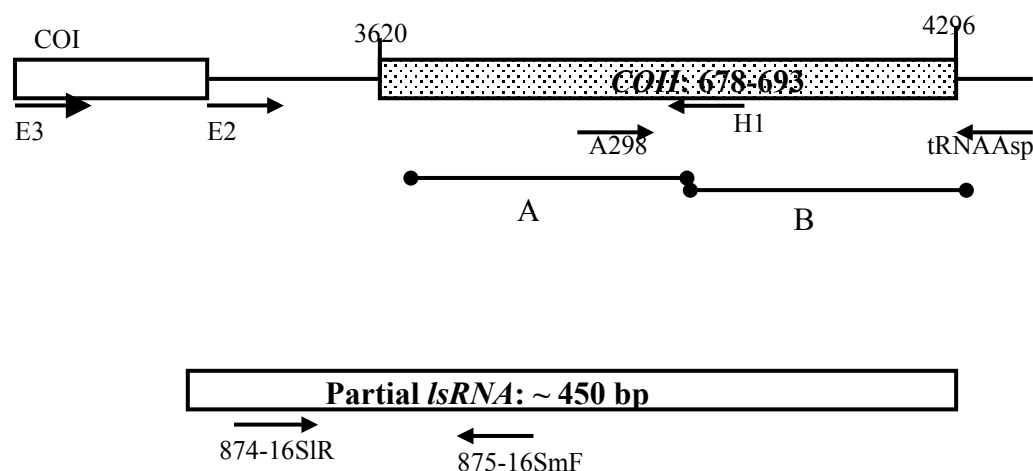


Figure 2. Honey bee *COII* (upper) and *lsRNA* (lower) primers that are used in this study. References of the primers above are referred to the Table 3.

Phylogenetic analysis

Multiple alignments of honey bee *COII* (693 bp), *lsRNA* (450 bp) and *itpr* (1.2 kb) were carried out using ClustalX (Thompson et al. 1997) and improved by eye using Se-Al (<http://evolve.zoo.ox.ac.uk/Se-Al/Se-Al.html>). The *MEGA* version 2.0 program (Kumar et al. 2001) was used to analyse genetic distance of each codon position of the protein coding gene (*COII* and *itpr* exons) and the transition and transversion value in *lsRNA*.

Homogeneity of the sequence data

The homogeneity of base composition between sequences was tested using the TREEPUZZLE 5.0 program (Strimmer and von Haeseler 1996).

Tree construction

Maximum Likelihood (ML) approach. ML trees (Felsenstein, 1981) for each gene and the concatenated datasets were constructed firstly by using PAUP* 4.0b10 program (Swofford 2002), applying model of DNA substitutions determined from MODELTEST 5.0. program (Posada and Crandall 1998). Bootstrap analysis (Felsenstein 1985) used 1000 replicates with random-addition sequence searches and TBR branch swapping for the each gene and the concatenation.

To take account of suboptimal trees which are not significantly different from the best, I use MOLPHY vers. 2.3. (Adachi and Hasegawa 1996), and TREEPUZZLE 5.0 (Strimmer and von Haeseler 1996) as the second analysis. The most complex model available in those programs was HKY+G+I and was used in both analysis.

By using MOLPHY program, trees were constructed firstly on the basis of each gene. Secondly, protein coding genes (*itpr* and *COII*) were partitioned for each codon position using MOLCODON as implemented in MOLPHY program. Seven partitions resulted, that are three for each protein coding gene and one for *lsRNA*. Trees were inferred for each partition and for all three genes concatenated. One substitution model was used for the concatenated data set in some major papers recently (Murphy et al 2001, Madsen et al 2001), although all their sequences were nuclear. A recent paper shows that ML (Suzuki et al., 2002) is robust in treating concatenating data in that it will correctly indicate no significance when there are different models in the partitions with different topologies. Hence, it is robust to using a simpler model that can be justified by the data. Paralleling the finding that ML treats concatenations robustly (Suzuki et al., 2002), Cunningham (1997) found that their concatenation usually yielded an improved analysis even when partitions presented different evolutionary histories. Transition and transversion ratio (α/β) of each partition and each gene were optimized using the NUCML command in MOLPHY program. Support for the nodes were obtained from

local branch probability (LBP) values using local rearrangement generated through RELL (Hasegawa and Kishino 1994).

Next, using the concatenated sequence data, the topologies derived from the trees referred to in previous paragraph were tested using the Kishino Hasegawa (KH) test (Kishino and Hasegawa 1989) implemented in MOLPHY program. The KH test has received some criticism (Goldman et al., 2000; Shimodaira and Hasegawa 1999), but further analysis has shown that it is in fact satisfactory and the best of the tests available (Strimmer and Rambaut 2002).

The test compared the likelihood of each topology to the best tree topology. For each tree topology, the KH test produces a likelihood score, and the difference in likelihood for each tree is then compared to the best (ML) tree ($\Delta \ln$), and standard error (S.E.). In addition, the KH test determines which tree topologies are significantly different from the best tree. The various trees found not to be significantly different when run against the concatenated datasets were used to infer a ML consensus tree using the program TREECONS (Jermin et al. 1997). TREECONS weights the likelihood values against the highest (ML) result, in my case using the recommended option of exponential weighting. The data set of trees was then, as recommended by Jermin et al. (1997), fed into the PHYLIP program CONSENSE (Felsenstein 1993), yielding a consensus tree with the support for each branch reflecting the likelihoods of those trees in which it appeared.

The tree topologies derived under the GTR+G+I and HKY+G+I substitution models were compared using the KH test implemented in PAUP* 4.0b10 (Swofford 2002). The KH test compares the \ln likelihood between those two topologies with 1000 replicates under RELL bootstrapping. The comparative analyses were done under HKY+G+I and GTR+G+I model of substitution.

Maximum Parsimony approach. Maximum Parsimony (MP) unweighted based tree constructions were analysed using PAUP* 4.0b10 (Swofford 2002) for each gene and the concatenated datasets. The heuristic search and TBR branch rearrangement options

were used. Bootstrap analysis (Felsenstein 1985) used 1000 replicates with random-addition sequence searches and TBR branch swapping for each gene and the concatenation. The numbers of sites determined to be constant, variable uninformative and informative parsimony were recorded for both the single gene and partitions of each codon position.

***COII* comparisons**

Previous studies produced anomalies results using honey bee *COII* sequences. Therefore, I reamplified the gene from all species. I combined all the sequences in order to investigate the discrepancy among *COII* honey bee sequences. *COII* sequence lists used for comparison with this present study are shown in Table 4.

Table 4.
Honey bee *COII* sequence used in data comparison

Species	Willis et al. (1992)	Tanaka et al. (2001)
<i>A. andreniformis</i>	M77208	-
<i>A. dorsata</i>	M77209	AF153126
<i>A. cerana</i>	M77210	AF153116
<i>A. florea</i>	M77211	
<i>A. koschevnikovi</i>	M77212	AF153124
<i>A. mellifera</i>	(Crozier and Crozier 1993)	AF214670
<i>A. nuluensis</i>	-	AF153115

Behaviour characters mapping

Given the phylogeny inferred from the above analyses, I used the parsimony approach to reconstruct the character evolution. Nesting and dance behaviour traits were mapped using MacClade version 3.07 (Maddison and Maddison 1992).

Nest behaviour data was mapped by using two hypotheses; firstly the cavity nesting in Bombini is non-homologous with that of Apini and secondly that those characters are homologous. In the first hypothesis, data were assumed to be both unordered and ordered (in different analyses) and were entered as 0, 1, 2 respectively for food pot storages and brood cells and cavity nesting, food and brood cells and open nesting and food and brood cells and cavity nesting nest. In the ordered analysis I took the order to

be 0 – 1 – 2. Secondly, I explored nesting behavioural evolution by using the hypothesis of nesting behaviour that the Bombini, Meliponini and Apini cavities are homologous. Data were assumed to be unordered and were entered as 0 and 1, respectively for cavity nesting and open.

Dance behaviour was coded as 0, 1, 2, 3 for food alert, scent trail and non-directional dance, directional horizontal dance and directional vertical dance and were assumed to be both unordered and ordered. I ordered the food recruitment behaviour started from food alert, non-directional dance behaviour, then the horizontal directional dance moving towards to the directional vertical dance.

RESULTS

Characteristics of the sequence data

Itpr sequence

Honey bee molecular phylogenetic reconstruction used a total of 1 216 bp of exon numbers 2, 3 and 4 (*A. mellifera itpr* cDNA nucleotide 322-1 287) and intron numbers 2, 3, 4 interrupted in those above exons, based on *A. mellifera itpr* characterisation in Chapter 2. The exons revealed a deletion of one amino acid in *A. cerana* and *A. nuluensis*. Consequently, both species had only 963 bp of *itpr* exons, whereas other species had 966 bp.

Intron length ranged from 70–163 bp (Table 5) reflecting insertions and deletions. The *A. koschevnikovi* 3rd intron contains 68 bp of TA repeat insertion and *B. terrestris* 4th intron has 70 bp of insertion (Table 5). These two large insertions were excluded prior to phylogenetic analysis. All honey bee and outgroup introns were inserted in the same intron phase, namely 2, 0, 1, respectively and all was commenced and ended according to the standard “GT/AG” rule.

Itpr exons and introns were AT biased, and the two highest numbers were found at the 3rd codon position and in intron region at 78.6 % and 87.4 %, respectively (Table 6). However, there were no significant variations in base composition across honey bee exon and intron data based on analysis from the TREEPUZZLE 5.0 program (Strimmer and von Haeseler 1996) (Table 7).

Itpr exons 1st and 2nd codon positions contribute five and two parsimony informative sites, respectively as compared to 70 at the 3rd codon position (Table 8). Figure 3 also shows 3rd codon substitution (ts and tv) contribution across all species. However, most 3rd codon position substitutions do not result in amino acids substitutions, leading to *itpr* amino acid conservation through all honey bee species.

Introns produced 56 informative sites (Table 8). Along with the introns, only the 3rd codon position can contribute significantly to honey bee *itpr* molecular phylogenetic reconstruction (Figure 6).

Table 5.
*Itp*r exon - intron length and intron deletion parts

<i>Itp</i> r partitions	Sequence length (basic/aligned)	Deletion
Exons	963-966 bp	-
2 nd intron	70-84/84	-
3 rd intron	72-163/70	<i>A. koschevnikovi</i> : 68 bp
4 th intron	93-163/96	<i>B. terrestris</i> : 70 bp

Table 6.
Nucleotide sequence data for each codon position and or each gene

Gene	Base frequency average				% AT
	T	C	A	G	
<i>Itp</i>r exons					
1 st position	20.4	19.7	27.4	32.5	47.8
2 nd position	31.6	17.5	34.9	16.0	66.5
3 rd position	33.2	7.4	45.3	14.0	78.6
1+2+3	28.3	14.9	35.9	20.9	64.2
<i>Itp</i>r introns	46.0	4.6	41.4	8.1	87.4
<i>COII</i>					
1 st position	33.2	12.3	39.4	15.1	72.5
2 nd position	43.1	17.6	29.2	10.1	73.3
3 rd position	49.0	3.6	46.8	0.6	95.8
1+2+3	41.8	11.2	38.5	8.6	80.3
<i>LsRNA</i>	38.7	7.6	39.4	14.3	77.1
<i>Itp</i>r + <i>COII</i>+16s	34.4	14.1	36.3	15.2	70.7

COII

COII lengths ranged from 678 bp and 681 bp, whereas *B. terrestris* has 693 bp (APPENDIX 2). The 3rd codon position shows the highest AT biases (Table 6), however there is no significant difference in base composition between species (Table 7). While there is little difference in 1st and 2nd *COII* codon position rate, the 3rd *COII* codon position shows slight saturation (Figure 4).

Table 7.

The homogeneity of base composition between sequences was tested using TREEPUZZLE 5.0 program (Strimmer and von Haeseler 1996); ns = non-significant in 5 % significant level

Species	<i>itpr</i>	<i>COII</i>	<i>lsRNA</i>	<i>Itpr+ COII+ lsRNA</i>
<i>A.mellifera</i>	ns	ns	ns	ns
<i>A.nuluensis</i>	ns	ns	ns	ns
<i>A.cerana</i>	ns	ns	ns	ns
<i>A.nigrocincta</i>	ns	ns	ns	ns
<i>A.koschevnikovi</i>	ns	ns	ns	ns
<i>A.laboriosa</i>	ns	ns	ns	ns
<i>A.d.binghamii</i>	ns	ns	ns	ns
<i>A.dorsata</i>	ns	ns	ns	ns
<i>A.florea</i>	ns	ns	ns	ns
<i>A.andreniformis</i>	ns	ns	ns	ns
<i>T.fimbriata</i>	< 0.05	ns	ns	< 0.05
<i>B.terrestris</i>	< 0.05	ns	< 0.05	< 0.05

Table 8.

Numbers of constant, variable and informative sites of unweighted Maximum Parsimony analyses of *itpr*, *COII*, and *lsRNA* genes

Genes and partitions	Total characters	Constant characters	Variable uninformative Characters	Parsimony informative characters
<i>COII</i> (all codon positions)	693	426	112	155
1 st codon position		151	39	41
2 nd codon position		194	19	18
3 rd codon position		81	54	96
<i>Itpr</i> (exons and introns)	1216	898	185	133
<i>Itpr</i> exons only	966	786	103	77
1 st codon position		305	12	5
2 nd codon position		318	2	2
3 rd codon position		163	89	70
<i>Itpr</i> introns only	250	112	83	56
<i>lsRNA</i>	503	137	231	135
<i>COII</i> + 16s	1194	562	342	290
<i>Itpr</i> + <i>COII</i> + 16s	2410	1460	423	527

lsRNA

In *lsRNA*, transversions predominate over transitions (Figure 5) and thus high transition/transversion ratio is obtained, which is 4.

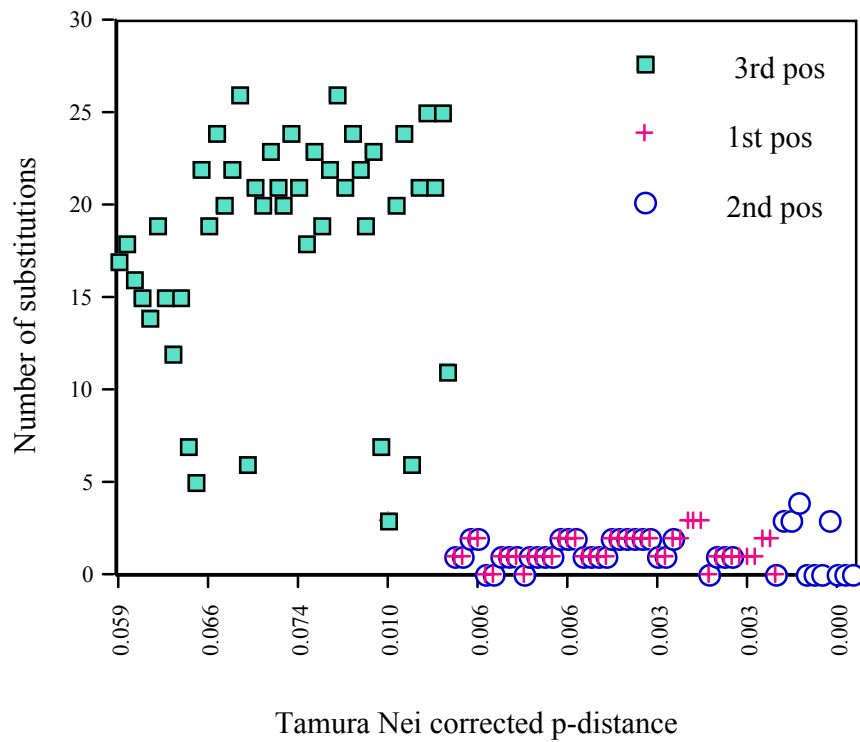


Figure 3a. *Itpr* exons substitution numbers and distances for each codon positions. Each point denotes a comparison between two sequences

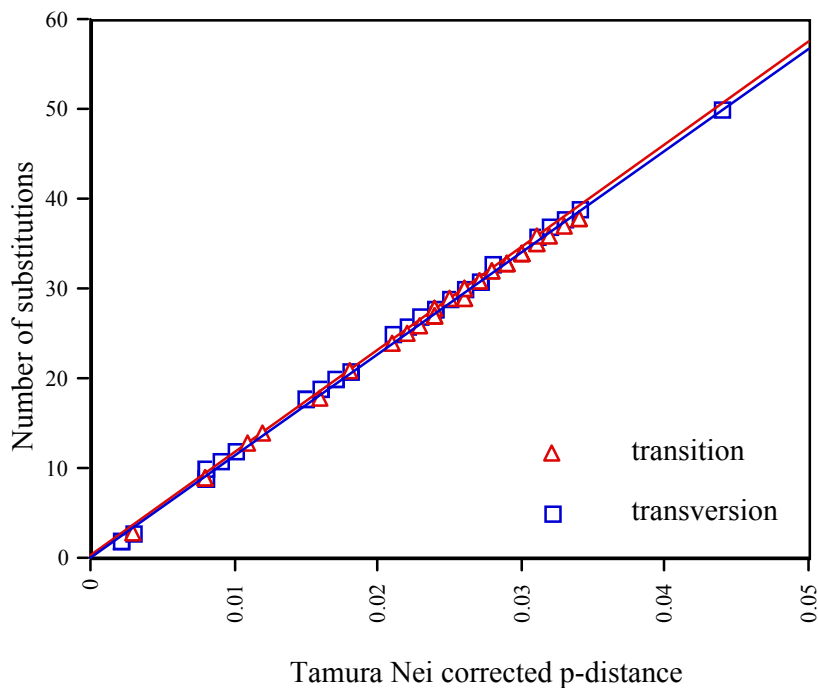


Figure 3b. *Itpr* transition and transversion relative rates. Tamura-Nei corrected distance versus substitution number of each pair of taxa

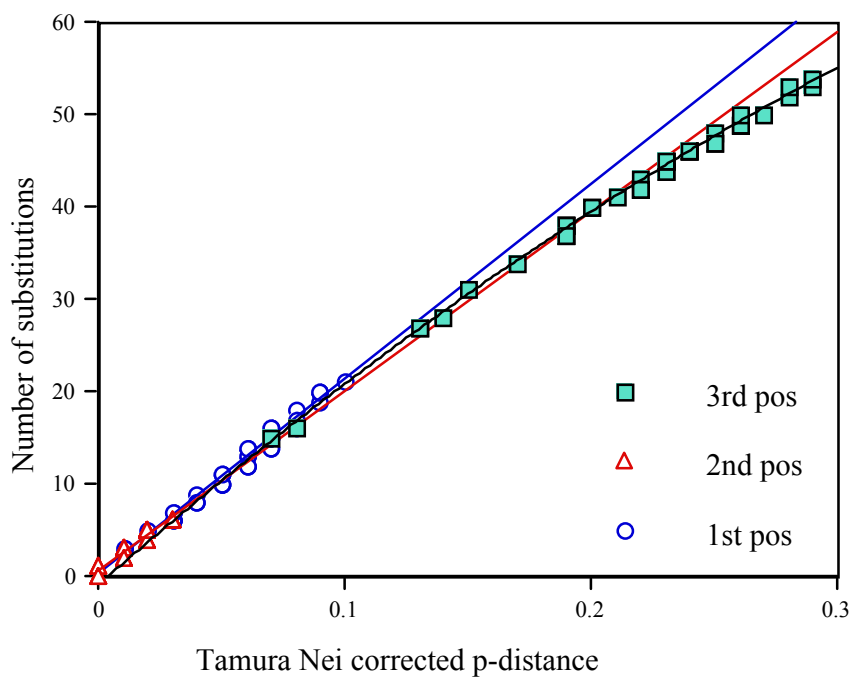


Figure 4. *COII* relative rate. Substitution numbers of each pair of species and Tamura Nei corrected distances for each codon position

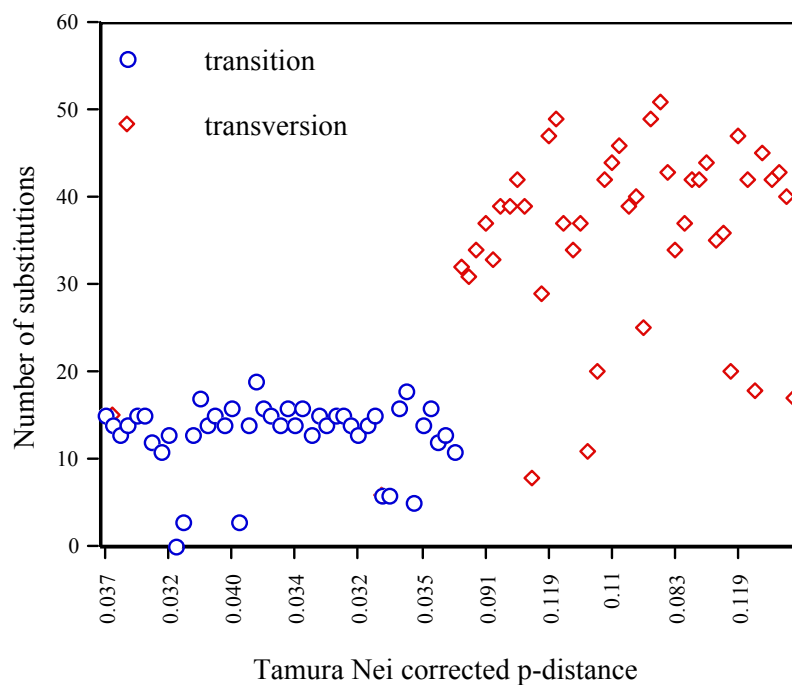


Figure 5. *lsRNA* substitution numbers of each pair of species and Tamura Nei corrected distances. Transition are replaced by transversion on higher levels of divergence

Homogeneity test of base composition between sequences

The homogeneity of base composition between sequences was tested using the TREEPUZZLE 5.0 program (Strimmer and von Haeseler 1996). The analysis was done firstly for each gene, and for three concatenated genes examined. The χ^2 test results, shown in Table 7, revealed no significant differences in all ingroup honey bee sequence data both for each gene and for the three concatenated genes but importantly show significant deviation for all data sets except that for *COII*.

Trees construction

I have used MODELTEST program to obtain model of substitution appropriate for each gene and the concatenated datasets (Table 9). ML tree for concatenated datasets applying those determined model of evolution was constructed through PAUP* 4.0b10 program as shown in Figure 6.

Table 9. List of model of substitutions determined by MODELTEST program (Posada and Crandall 1998) for each gene and the concatenated datasets.

Gene(s)	Model of substitution
<i>Itp</i>	F81+G
<i>COII</i>	GTR+G
<i>lsRNA</i>	F81+G
Concatenated datasets	GTR+G+I

MOLPHY version 2.3. (Adachi and Hasegawa 1996), and TREEPUZZLE 5.0 (Strimmer and von Haeseler 1996) programs were used to construct ML trees of the different genes and applying HKY+G+I model of substitution are shown in Figure 7a, 8a, and 9a. Unweighted MP trees for each genes are presented in Figures 7b, 8b, and 9b.

The results are generally very similar, although for *COII* both MP and HKY (Figure 8a, 8b) lead to a clearly incorrect rooting of the *Apis* tree, while GTR does not (Figure 8c). *Itp* tree reconstructed both in ML based on HKY+G+I substitution model and unweighted MP framework produced the same topologies which favoured *A. mellifera* as basal in honey bee phylogeny (Figure 7a, 7b). On the other hand, the *lsRNA* ML revealed similar topology to that of Cameron (1992), but the unweighted MP did not (Figure 9a, 9b).

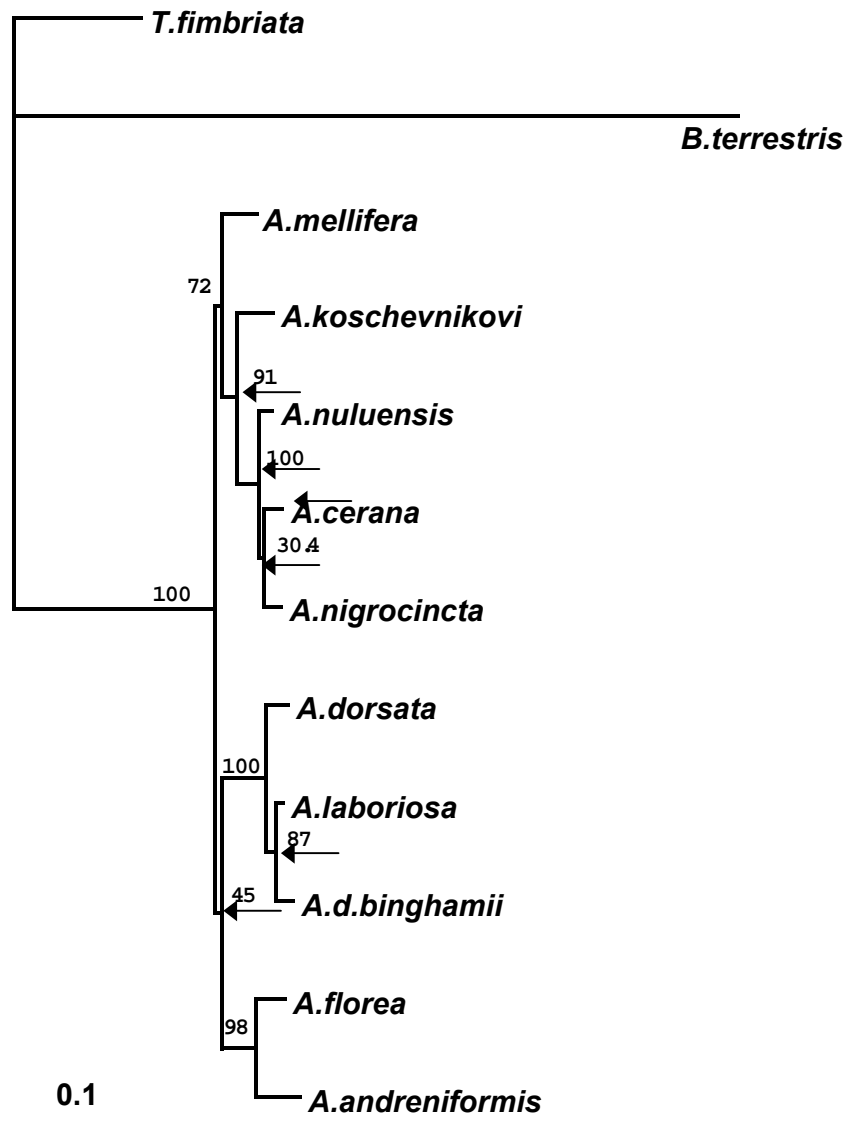


Figure 6. Honey bee most likely tree based on *itpr*, *COII* and *lsRNA* genes by using GTR+G+I model of substitution ($\ln = -9649.26840$); numbers above the nodes are support for internal branches generated from 1000 bootstrap replicates.

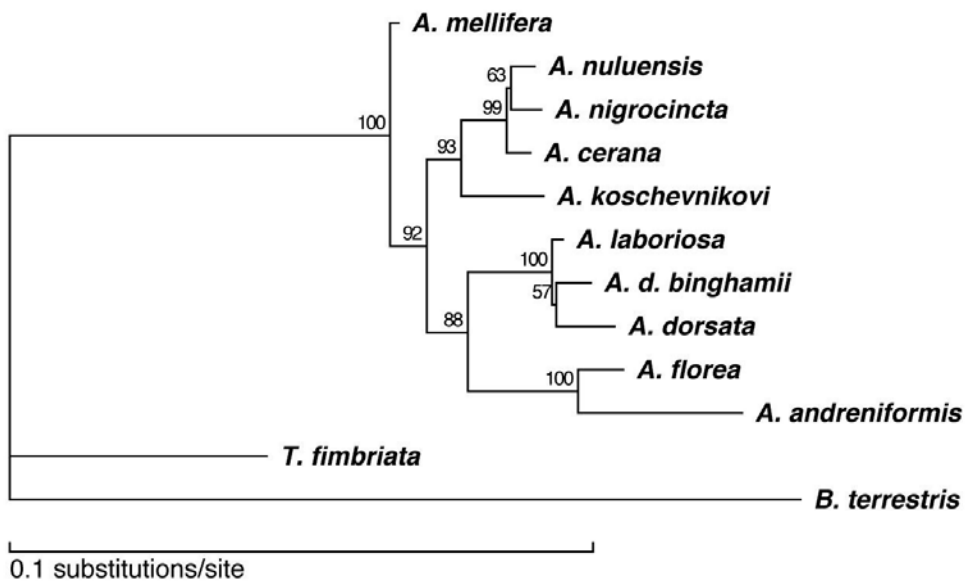


Figure 7a. Honey bee *itpr* ML tree based on HKY+G+I substitution model; numbers above the nodes are support for internal branches generated from RELL.

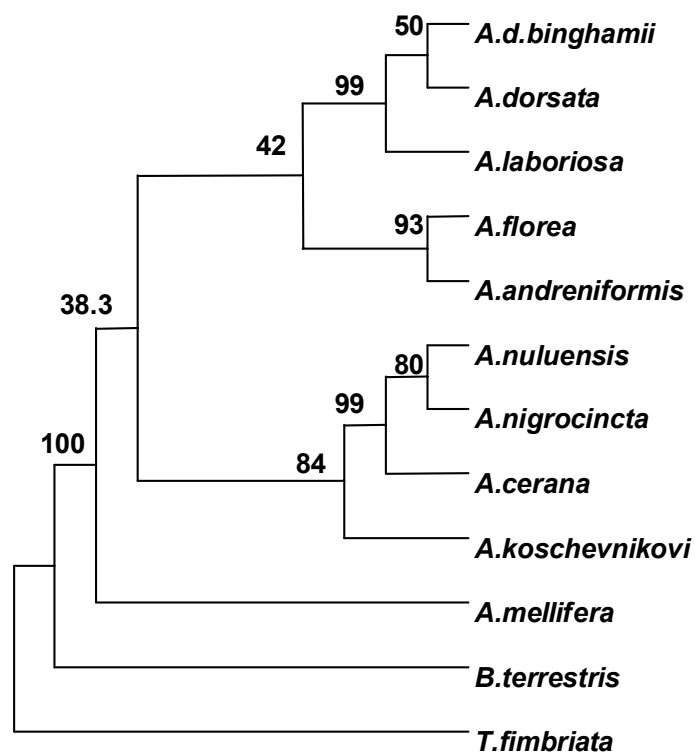


Figure 7b. Honey bee *itpr* unweighted MP tree; numbers above the nodes are support from 1000 bootstrap replicates.

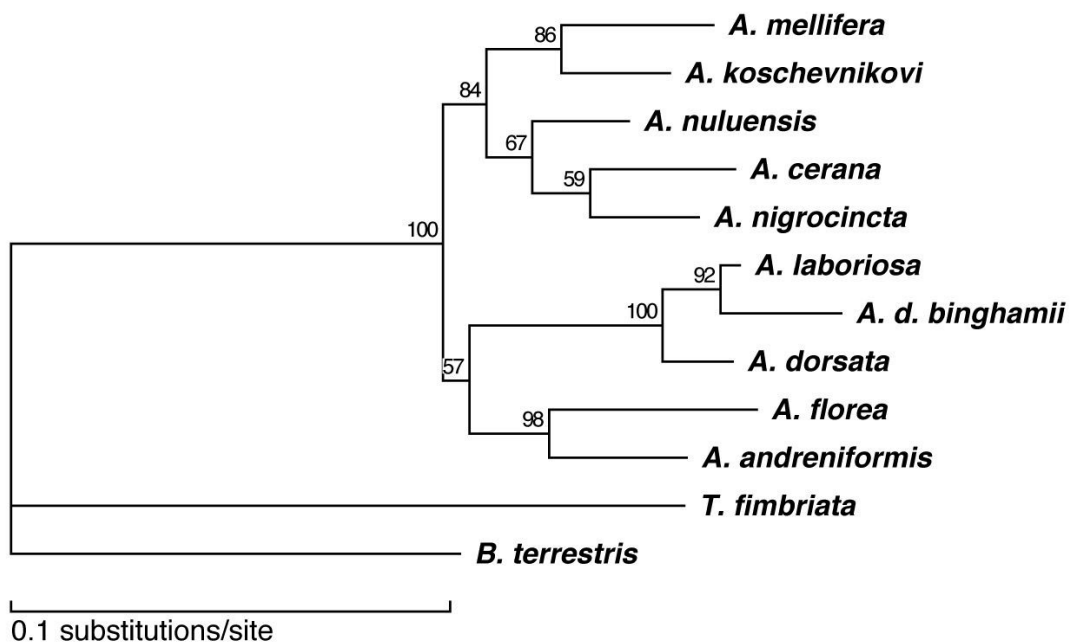


Figure 8a. Honey bee *COII* ML tree based on HKY+G +I substitution model; numbers above the nodes are support for internal branches generated from RELL.

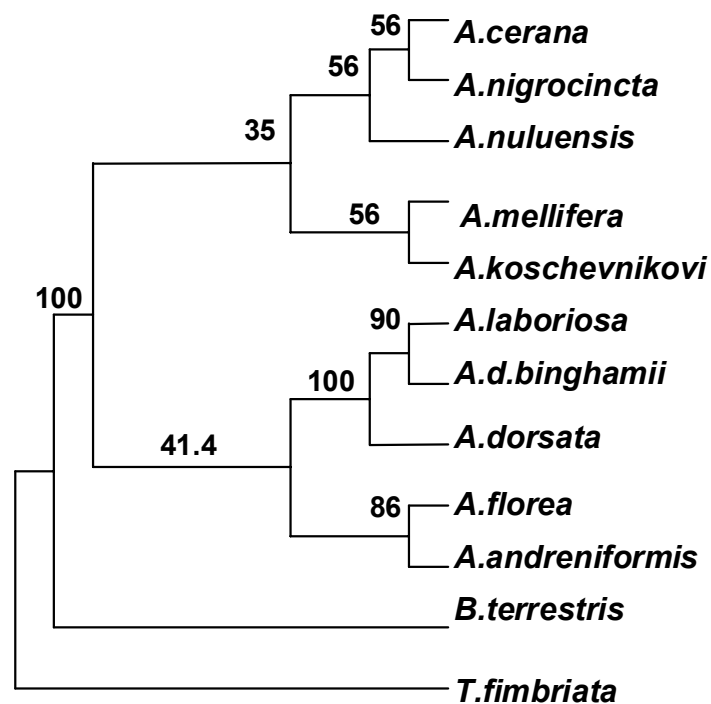


Figure 8b. Honey bee *COII* unweighted MP tree; numbers above the nodes are support from 1000 bootstrap replicates.

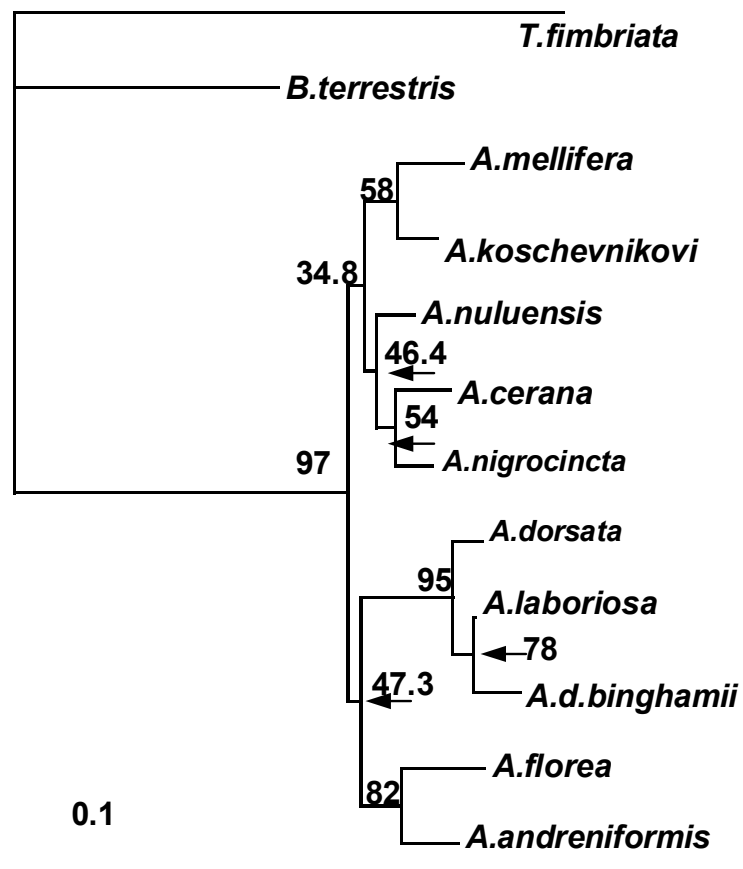


Figure 8c. Honey bee *COII* ML tree based on GTR+G substitution model; numbers above the nodes are support from 1000 bootstrap replicates.

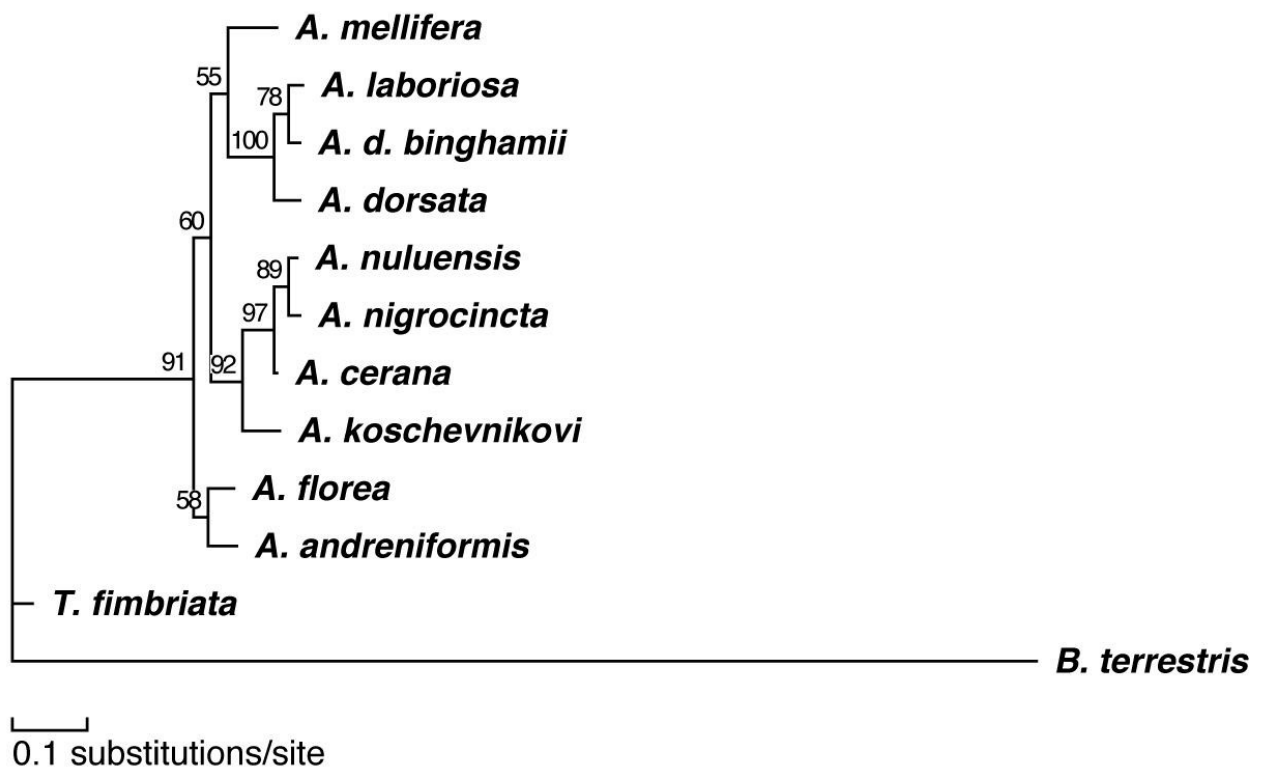


Figure 9a. Honey bee *lsRNA* ML tree based on HKY+G+I substitution model; numbers above the nodes are support for internal branches generated from RELL.

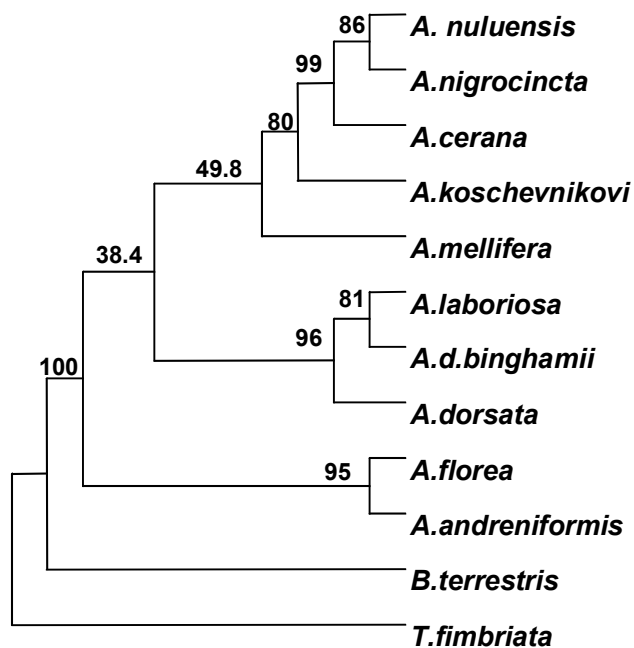


Figure 9b. Honey bee *lsRNA* unweighted MP tree; numbers above the nodes are support from 1000 bootstrap replicates.

Tree topology comparisons

By using NUCML as implemented in the MOLPHY program, tree topologies were derived from each gene as well as each codon position of the gene and the concatenated datasets. All topologies were obtained from the MOLPHY program using the HKY+G+I substitution model (Table 10).

Table 10.

Tree topology comparisons using the concatenated datasets and the HKY+G+I model. The datasets and models that produced the topologies are shown. Significance values pertain to the Kishino-Hasegawa test: M = *A. mellifera*, N = *A. nuluensis*, Ni = *A. nigrocincta*, C = *A. cerana*, K = *A. koschevnikovi*, L = *A. laboriosa*, B = *A. dorsata binghamii*, D = *A. dorsata*, F = *A. florea*, A = *A. andreniformis*, T = *Trigona fimbriata*, Bo = *Bombus terrestris*; $\Delta\text{Ln L}$ = the difference of likelihood of a particular tree to the ML

No	Topology	Gene(s) or gene partitions tree-HKY+G+I model.	$\Delta\text{Ln L} \pm \text{S.E.}$	P value
1	(((M,(((N,Ni),C),K)),(L,B),D)),(F,A)),T,Bo)	3 genes- Concatenation	-10088.3	-
2	(((M,((L,B),D)),((N,Ni),C),K)),(F,A)),T,Bo)	16s gene	- 10.6 \pm 11.9	NS
3	(((M,K),(N,(C,Ni))),((L,B),D),(F,A))),T,Bo)	<i>COII</i> gene	- 24.5 \pm 23.0	NS
4	((M,(((N,Ni),C),K),((L,(B,D)),(F,A))))),T,Bo)	<i>Itpr</i> exon and intron	- 20.5 \pm 16.4	NS
5	(((M,((N,(C,Ni)),K)),(L,B),D)),A),F),T,Bo)	<i>COII</i> 1 st codon position	- 30.4 \pm 19.4	NS
6	(((M,(((N,C),Ni),K)),(F,A)),(L,D),B)),T,Bo)	<i>COII</i> 2 nd codon position	- 13.6 \pm 19.2	NS
7	((M,(((N,C),Ni),((L,B),D),(F,A))),K)),T,Bo)	<i>COII</i> 3 rd codon position	- 31.4 \pm 24.0	NS
8	(((M,((N,C),(B,D))),((Ni,F),A),T)),L),K,Bo)	<i>Itpr</i> 1 st codon position	- 908.4 \pm 70.0	< 0.05
9	((M,T),(((N,C),(Ni),((L,D),(B,(F,A))))),K),Bo)	<i>Itpr</i> 2 nd codon position	-457.9 \pm 47.5	< 0.05
10	((M,((((N,Ni),C),K),(L,(B,D))),F,A))),T,Bo)	<i>Itpr</i> 3 rd codon position	-41.9 \pm 17.1	NS

The tree topology resulting from three concatenated genes yielded the highest likelihood score. Topologies from each gene (*lsRNA*, *COII*, and *itpr*) were not significantly worse and also the tree revealed from each codon position of *COII*. KH test only rejected the tree topologies resulted from 1st and 2nd *itpr* codon position.

The next procedure was to combine all trees that did not differ significantly from the ML tree. A consensus tree was generated using weighting scheme V in the Treecons program (Jermin et al. 1997) at a 5% significance level. Branch confidence values were obtained from the CONSENSUS command in the PHYLIP package and the result is shown in Figure 9a. Branch length was obtained from the TREEPUZZLE 5.0 program, by using HKY+G+I substitution model and by applying tree topology results from the CONSENSUS command as the user-defined topology.

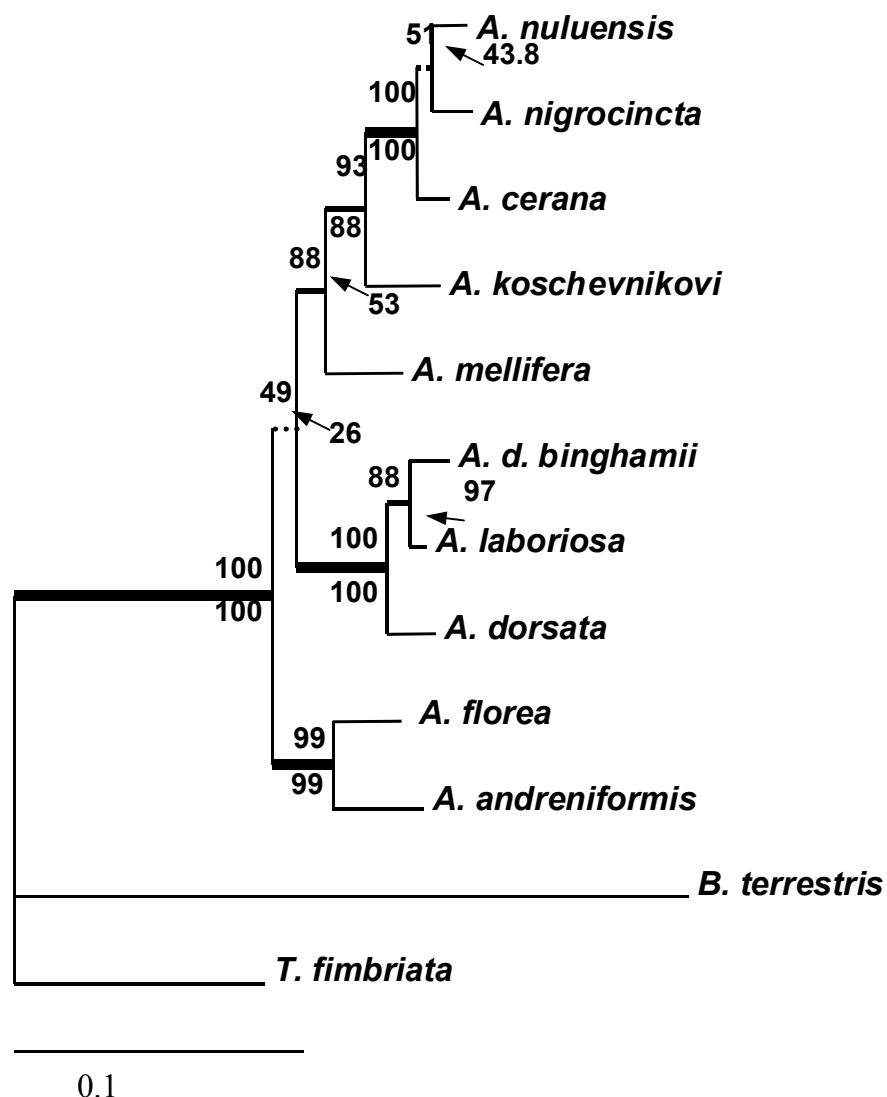


Figure 10a. ML-rule consensus of honey bee phylogenetic tree by using HKY+G+I substitution model (ln likelihood = -10088.3); numbers above the nodes are support for internal branches generated from RELL; numbers below the nodes are support from 1000 bootstrap replicates of unweighted MP tree.

Besides ML weighted consensus tree as described above (Figure 10a), trees for the concatenated datasets were constructed based the unweighted MP tree (Figure 10b).

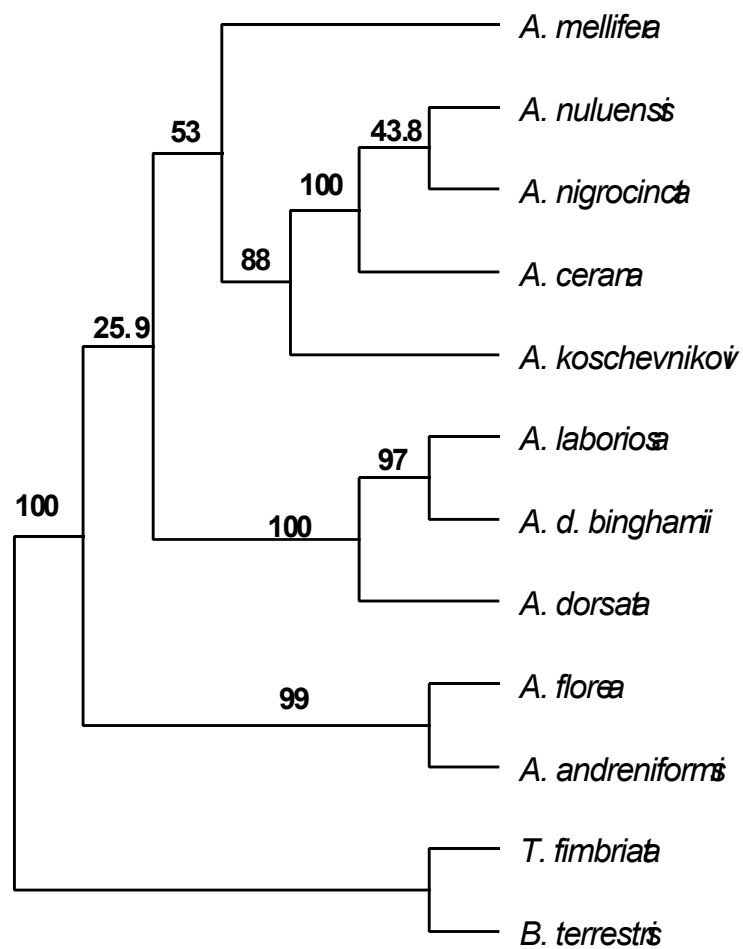


Figure 10b. The most parsimony honey bee phylogenetic tree (unweighted MP); numbers above the nodes are support for internal branches generated from 1000 bootstrap replicates. Tree length = 1482; CI = 0.748; HI = 0.252, RI = 0.586

By applying GTR+G+I model of substitution revealed that the genus *Apis* was split into two lines, the *A. mellifera* group line and the other line consists of *A. dorsata* and *A. florea* group (Figure 6). Hence, the dwarf bees group adds to the giant honey bees.

A more traditional tree was obtained from ML analysis by using HKY+G+I model of substitution and unweighted MP (Figure 10a, 10b); that is, the first split is the dwarf honeybees group (*A. florea* and *A. andreniformis*). The next split occurred in the giant honey bee *A. dorsata* group and the medium *A. mellifera* group occupied the apical tree. Hence, the dwarf honey bees are the sister group to all other honey bees.

The next step is to test whether HKY+G+I tree topology is significantly worse than that of GTR+G+I topology, and topology comparisons showed that the HKY+G+I tree topology is not significantly worse than that of the GTR topology, both under GTR and HKY models of substitution analysis (Table 11 and 12).

Table 11.

Tree topology comparisons between honey bee GTR+G+I and HKY+G+I topology under GTR+G+I model of substitution; Significance values pertain to the Kishino-Hasegawa test; $\Delta\ln L$ = the difference of likelihood of a particular tree to the ML (best).

No	Tree	$-\ln L$	$\Delta\ln L$	P
1	GTR+G+I	9649.26840	(best)	0.623
2	HKY+G+I	9652.98495	3.71655	

Table 12.

Tree topology comparisons between honey bee HKY+G+I and GTR+G+I tree topology under HKY+G+I model of substitution; Significance values pertain to the Kishino-Hasegawa test; $\Delta\ln L$ = the difference of likelihood of a particular tree to the ML (best).

No	Tree	$-\ln L$	$\Delta\ln L$	P
1	HKY+G+I	10086.49102	(best)	0.893
2	GTR+G+I	10088.57827	2.08725	

Further examination shows that the topologies differ in where the outgroup (*Trigona* and *Bombus*) joins the *Apis* tree. In HKY+G+I tree topology the outgroup joins the dwarf honey bees and in the GTR+G+I tree it joins the mellifera group. This result

indicates that rooting the *Apis* tree is not certain yet. To test this finding, using the GTR+G+I tree, I shifted the outgroup branch to that of the dwarf honey bees. Then, tree topology comparisons were done between the GTR+G+I and the GTR+G+I outgroup shifted to dwarf honey bee tree. The result is shown in Table 13; the GTR+G+I tree with the outgroup shifted is not significantly worse than that of the original GTR+G+I topology.

Table 13.

Tree topology comparisons between honey bee GTR+G+I and GTR+G+I outgroup shifted to dwarf honey bees tree topology under GTR+G+I model of substitution; Significance values pertain to the Kishino-Hasegawa test; $\Delta\text{Ln L}$ = the difference of likelihood of a particular tree to the ML (best).

No	Tree	-ln L	$\Delta\text{Ln L}$	P
1	GTR+G+I	9649.26841	(best)	0.532
2	GTR+G+I outgroup shifted to dwarf honey bees	9650.65625	1.38785	

The newly-recognised *A. nuluensis* shows the closest relationship to the new *A. nigrocincta* (Figure 9a - under HKY+G+I model of evolution) as it supported with 51 % bootstrap value. Another topology for those species revealed from GTR+G+I model of substitution (Figure 6). It shows an ambiguity relationship of *A. nuluensis* to the *A. nigrocincta*. The topology shows that the most derived species are *A. cerana* and *A. nigrocincta*, but is supported by a lower confidence value (30.4%)

***COII* tree topology comparisons**

Honey bee *COII* sequences have been analysed by several authors who have described different topologies, particularly concerning the sequence of *A. koschevnikovi*. Firstly, Willis et al. (1992) found that *A. koschevnikovi* position is closely related to *A. florea*. The same *COII* tree topology was obtained by Engel and Schultz (1997) using the Willis et al. (1992) data. More recent studies, Tanaka et al. (2001) yielded the same results, using the *A. koschevnikovi* sequence from Willis et al. (1992). Engel & Schultz (1997) and Tanaka et al. (2001) concluded that the *COII* sequence is unsuitable for inferring molecular phylogenetics in *Apis*.

This present study reports *COII* sequences derived by me from all honey bee species. A phylogenetic tree derived from *COII* sequence according to Willis et al. (1992), Tanaka et al. (2001) and my present study is shown in Figure 10. The analysis was carried out using the ML approach implemented in the MOLPHY program with the HKY substitution model for estimating ts/tv ratios. The *COII* tree in Figure 11 demonstrate that the current study and those Tanaka et al. (2001), and Willis et al. (1992) are in agreement, except for placing the *A. koschevnikovi* sequence from the Willis et al. (1992) data. This finding shows that the *A. koschevnikovi* sequence reported by Willis et al. (1992) is anomalous and probably in error. Furthermore, it removes one of the three examples of Lockhart et al (1994) indicating the importance of accounting for non-stationary in phylogenetic inference.

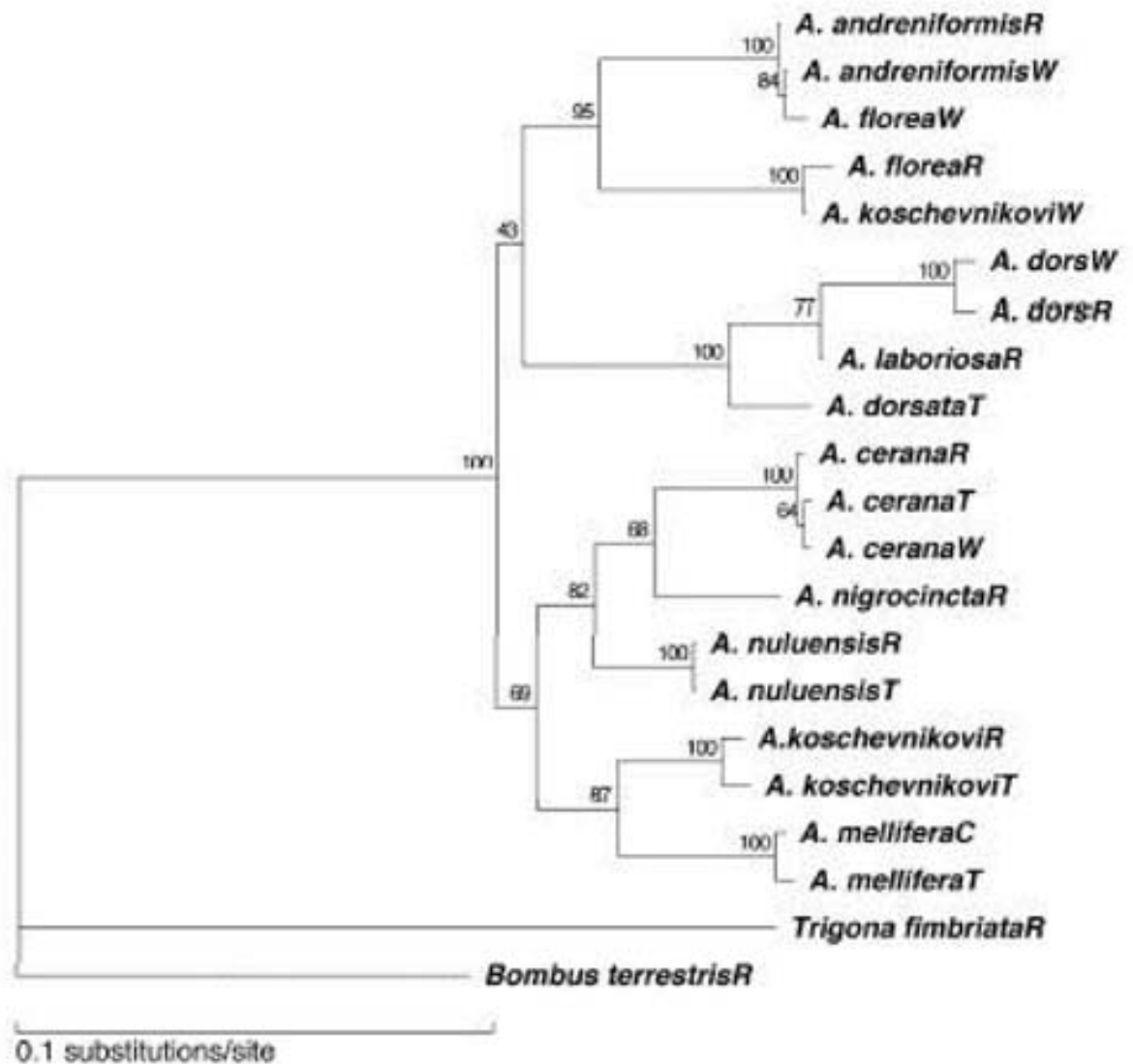


Figure 11. Honey bee *COII* phylogenetic ML tree based on HKY substitution model, compiled from previous studies. A capital letter at the end of bee species referred to the author name, C: Crozier and Crozier (1993), W: Willis et al. (1992), T: Tanaka et al. (2001) and R: present study.

Dance behaviour characteristics map

Using honey bee ML consensus molecular phylogenetic tree and unweighted MP as my basis, I inferred the evolutionary ontogeny of dance and nesting behaviour. In order to determine the polarity of such behaviour trait evolution, I conducted a comparative analyses of those behaviour traits between the ingroup (Apini) and the outgroup (Bombini and Meliponini) bees to determine their homology.

The returning *B. terrestris* forager performs alert food running behaviour to convey information and recruit the nestmate to the food source (Dornhaus and Chittka 2001). In Meliponini, most foragers recruit nestmates to the food source by marking the pathway with a scent trail (Lindauer and Kerr 1960), although one species, *M. panamica* performs a non-directional dance (Nieh 1998). Excited food-alert running in Bombini and Meliponini produces irregular movements instead of repetitive or patterned movements as described for honey bee dance behaviour (Dornhaus and Chittka 2001). Based on that comparative analyses, food recruitment behaviour in Bombini and Meliponini bees do not indicate a common ancestor with that in Apini. Therefore, food recruitment behaviour among the bee tribes is non-homologous.

Food recruitment behaviour was mapped onto the ML (HKY+G+I model of nucleotide substitution) and unweighted MP trees, applying unordered (Figure 12a) and ordered assumption (Figure 12b). The same behaviour trait was mapped based on ML analysis under GTR+G+I evolutionary model as shown in Figure 13a (unordered) and Figure 13b (ordered assumption). I ordered the food recruitment behaviour started from food alert; scent trail or non-directional dance behaviour, horizontal directional dance and move towards to the directional vertical dance behaviour.

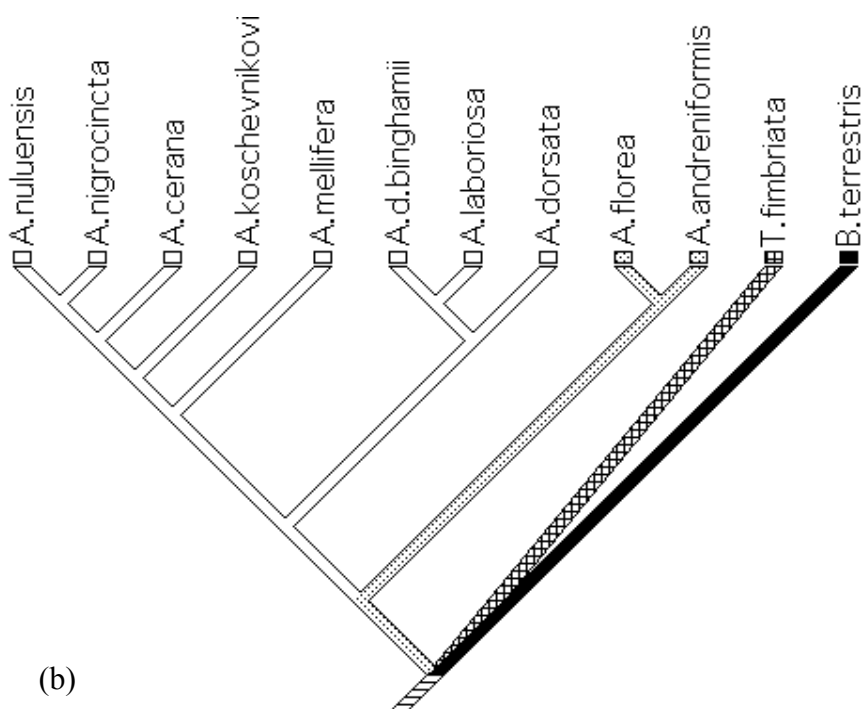
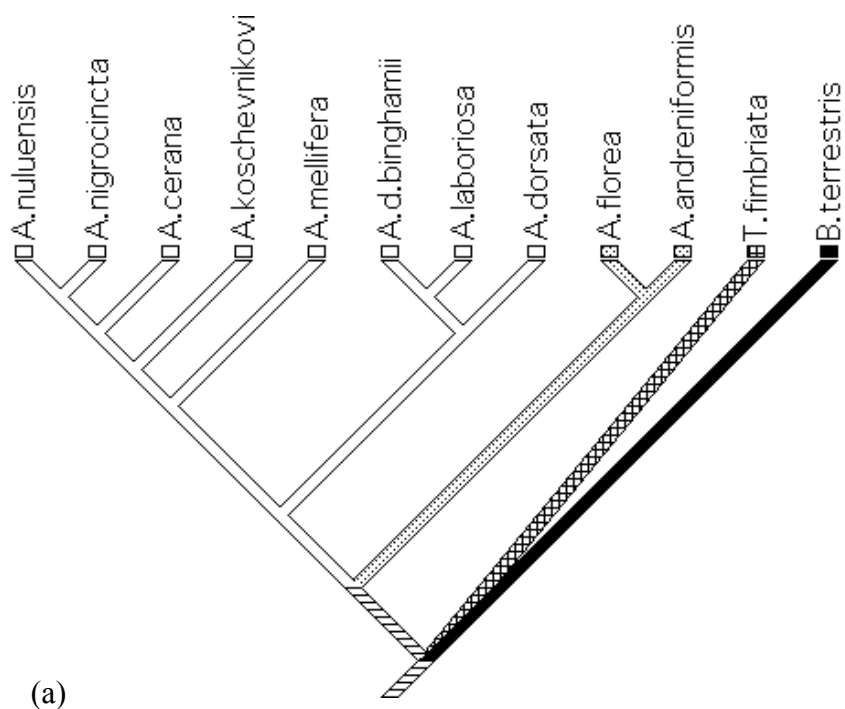


Figure 12. Mapping of honey bee **dance** behaviour onto ML (HKY+G+I model of substitution) & unweighted MP tree, by using (a) unordered and (b) ordered assumptions.

- = food alert; ▨ = scent trail or non-directional dance;
- ▩ = horizontal directional dance; □ = vertical directional dance;
- ▨ = equivocal

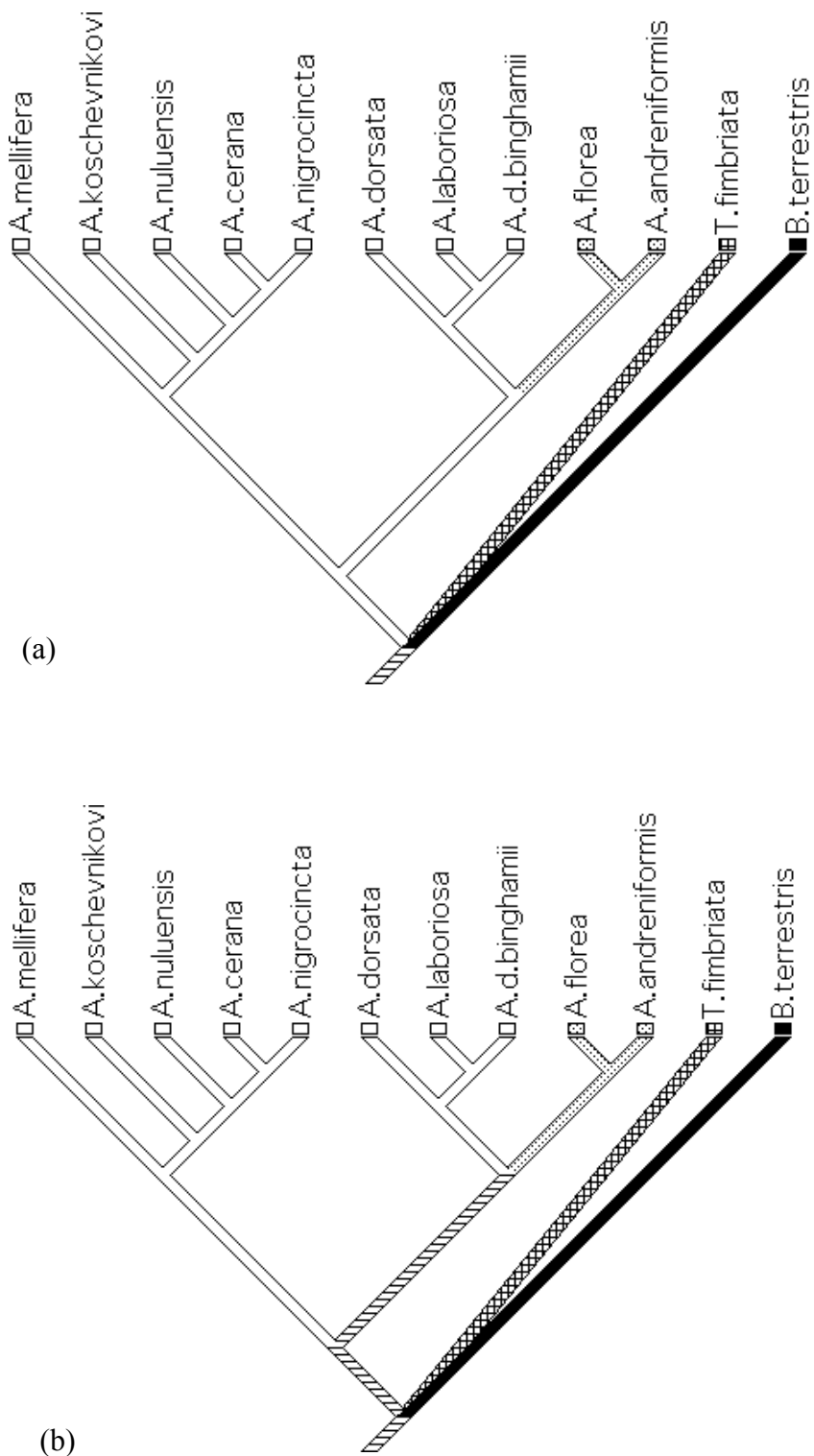


Figure 13. Mapping of honey bee **dance** behaviour onto **ML** tree (**GTR+G+I** model of substitution), by using (a) unordered and (b) ordered assumptions.

■ = food alert; ▣ = scent trail or non-directional dance;
 ▤ = horizontal directional dance; □ = vertical directional dance;
 ▨ = equivocal

Nest behaviour characteristics map

I conducted a comparative analyses of Bombini, Meliponini and Apini nest construction behaviour. While both Bombini and Meliponini mostly nest in cavities, they build distinct types of cells for holding food and brood. Food is stored in a pot whereas broods are reared in a cell (Michener 1974). These traits do not occur in honey bee where identical cells provide both storage for food and brood. Another trait was observed, that is cavity and open-nesting. I mapped the nesting behaviour by applying homologous and non-homologous hypotheses for this trait.

Based on those comparative behaviour data, two kinds of character traits are observed: firstly pot versus non-pot cells trait, secondly cavity versus open nest trait. I explored bees nest behaviour evolution by using both traits; pot (vs non-pot cells) and cavity (vs open nest). I traced the evolution reconstruction of nesting behaviour onto the ML tree (under HKY+G+I model of DNA substitution) and the unweighted MP, by using non-homologous of nesting trait approach, and applying unordered (Figure 14a) and ordered (Figure 14b) assumption. The same behaviour was mapped onto ML tree by using GTR+G+I evolutionary model as shown in Figure 15a (unordered assumption) and Figure 15b (ordered assumption), applying non-homologous of nesting trait approach as well.

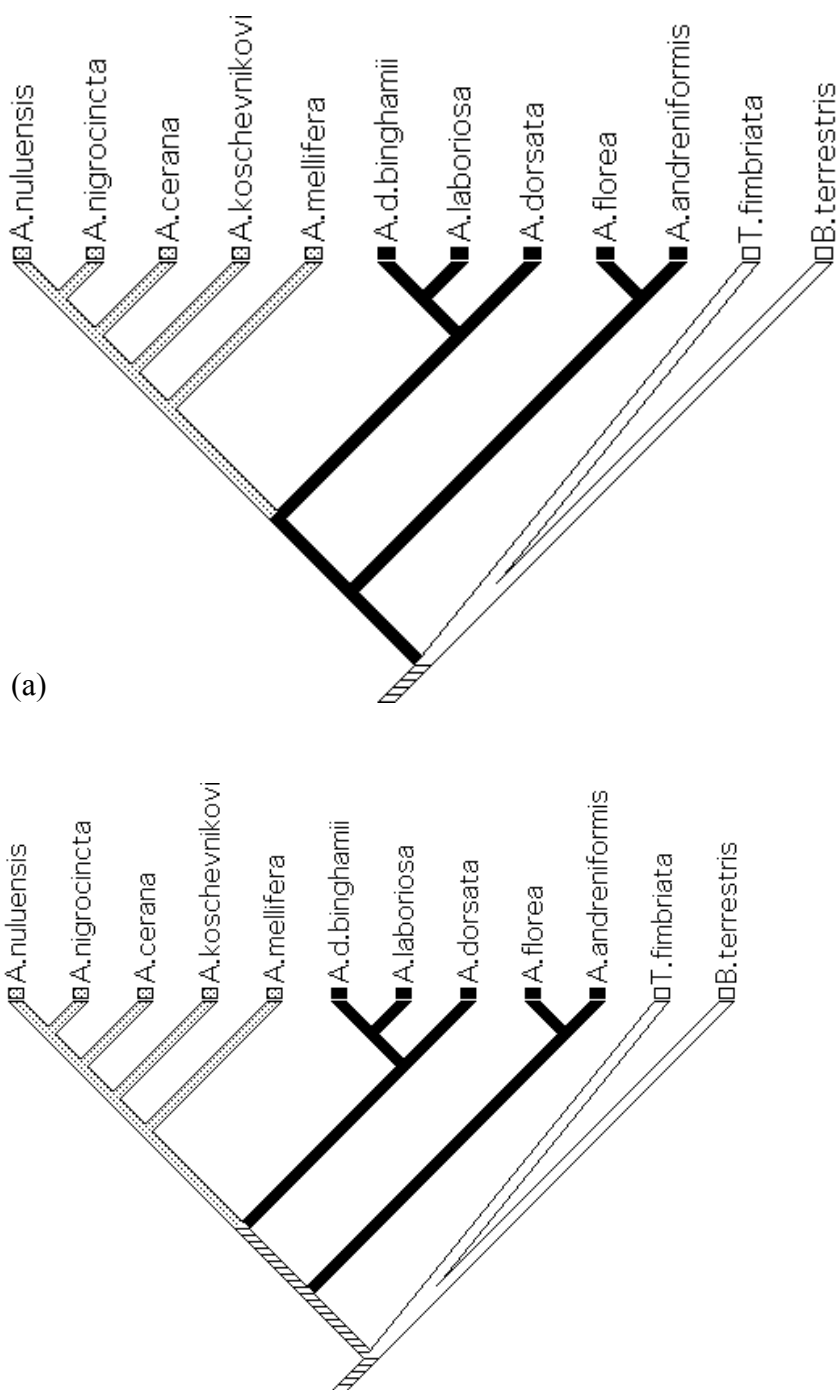


Figure 14. Mapping of honey bee **nesting** behaviour onto **ML (HKY+G+I model of substitution)** & unweighted **MP** tree, by using (a) unordered and (b) ordered assumptions, applying **non-homologous** assumption of nesting trait

- = food pot storage and brood cells cavity nesting;
- ▨ = food and brood cells open nesting;
- = food and brood cells cavity nesting;
- ▧ = equivocal

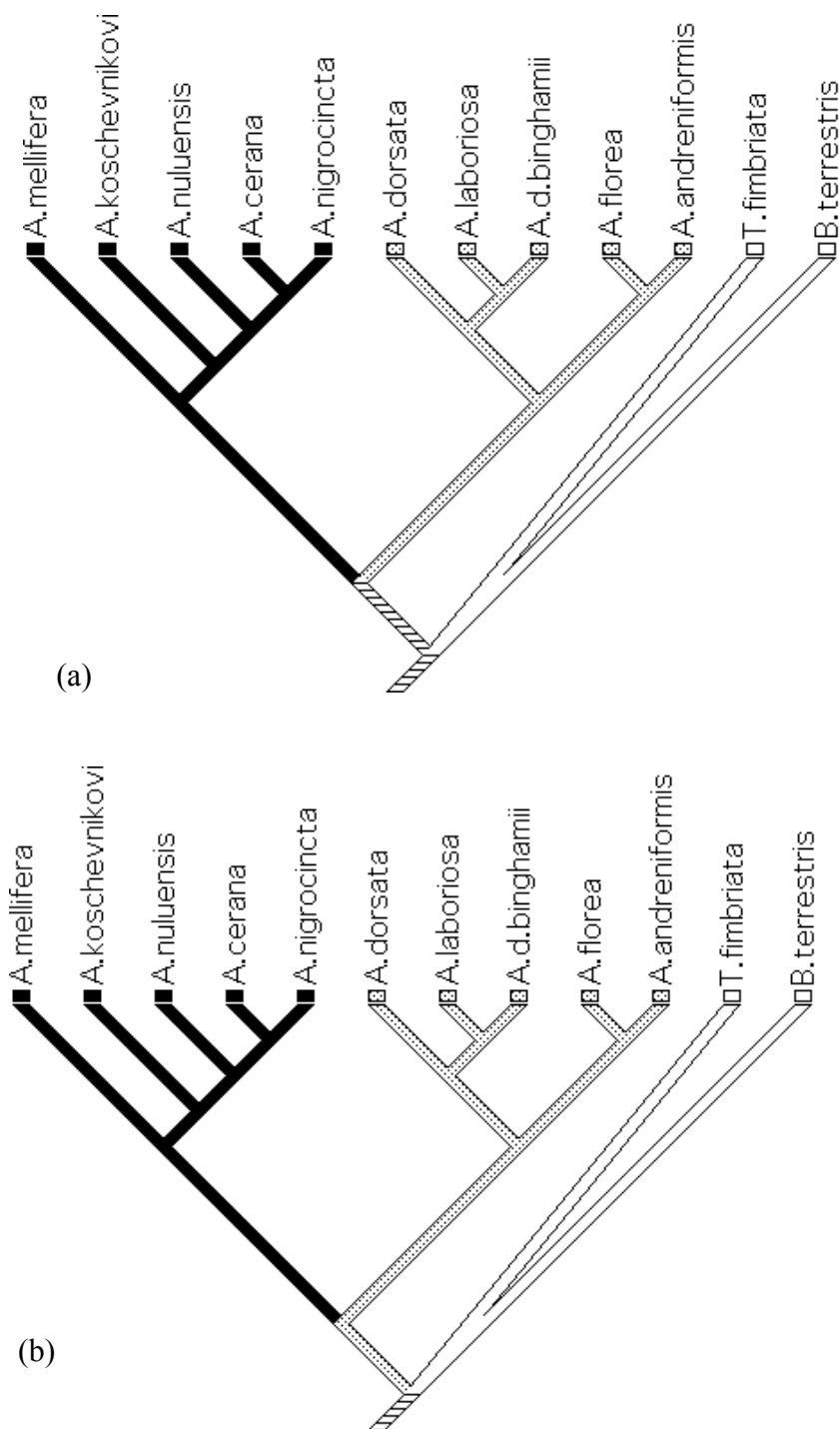


Figure 15. Mapping of honey bee **nesting** behaviour onto **ML** tree under **GTR+G+I** model of substitution, by using (a) unordered and (b) ordered assumptions, applying **non-homologous** assumption of nesting trait.

- = food pot storage and brood cells cavity nesting,
- ▤ = food and brood cells open nesting;
- = food and brood cells cavity nesting;
- ▨ = equivocal

Secondly, I explored nesting behavioural evolution by using hypothesis of cavity nesting behaviour of Bombini, Meliponini and Apini are homologous. That is, this hypothesis assumes honey bee (Apini) cavity nesting come from the same common of Bombini and Meliponini nests (Figure 16a and 16b).

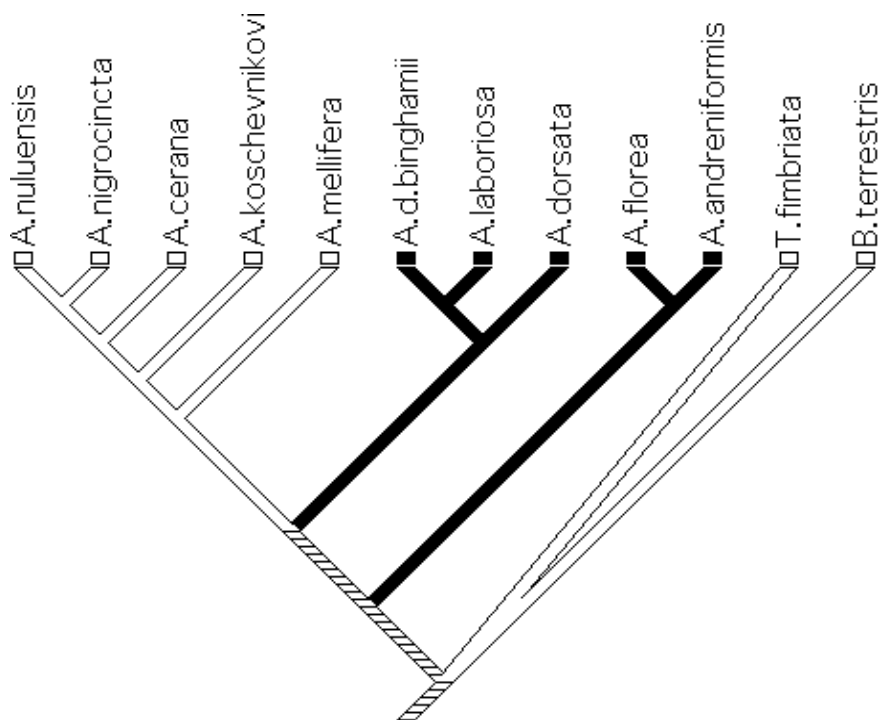


Figure 16a. Mapping of honey bee nesting behaviour onto **ML** (HKY+G+I model of substitution) & unweighted **MP** tree, by using unordered and ordered assumptions, and applying Bombini, Meliponini and Apini **homologous** cavity nesting behavioural trait

□ = cavity nesting; ■ = open nesting; ▨ = equivocal

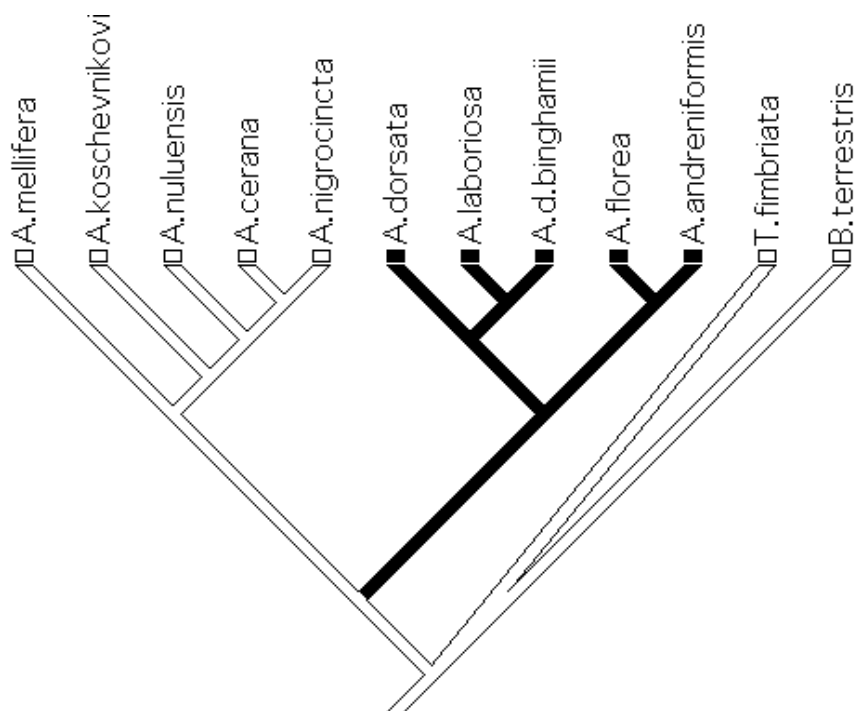


Figure 16b. Mapping of honey bee nesting behaviour onto **ML** tree under **GTR+G+I** model of substitution by using unordered and ordered assumptions, and applying Bombini, Meliponini and Apini **homologous** cavity nesting behavioural trait

□ = cavity nesting; ■ = open nesting; ◻ = equivocal

DISCUSSION

Honey bee tree topology

This study represents the first honey bee molecular phylogenetic study of all presently known species. ML analysis by using GTR+G+I model of evolution shows that *A. dorsata* and *A. florea* groups formed a single clade separate to that of *A. mellifera* group.

Consensus tree topologies derived from ML and unweighted MP based on three concatenated genes (*itpr*, *COII*, and *lsRNA*) produce traditional tree topology that is a monophyletic honey bee tree. My ML analysis applying HKY+G+I model of substitution and unweighted MP topology agree with that obtained by Alexander (1991) based on morphology for the species that are in common. In addition, previous unresolved relationships in morphological data for the *A. dorsata* groups have been resolved in the current study.

Considering the root of *Apis*, it may be that this has been affected by violation of stationarity involving *Trigona* and *Bombus* DNA sequences. Significant deviation from sequence homogeneity was found for the three genes concatenated dataset including *Trigona* and *Bombus* (Table 7, p. 66). Hence, at least from the molecular data of this study, the root for *Apis* is uncertain as yet.

A. nuluensis and *A. nigrocincta* are two recently described species of honey bee discussed in this study, with a very short branch connecting them with *A. cerana* based on HKY+G+I model of substitution and MP approaches. This finding is very interesting because both species are restricted in their distribution. Therefore, I have assumed that both species are the result of recent speciation from *A. cerana*.

Current distribution status for *A. nuluensis* is in the Kinibalu and Crocker mountainous regions of Sabah, Borneo, where *A. cerana* and *A. nuluensis* lives sympatrically (Tingek et al. 1996). However, *A. nuluensis* occupies a higher elevation level (up to 2000 m), whereas *A. cerana* is commonly found up to 1500 m above sea level. It is possible that the mountainous region of Sabah acts as a barrier to isolate *A. nuluensis* and *A. cerana*.

Both species differ in their mating times yielding a pre-mating barrier (Koeniger et al. 1996), justifying their species status under the Biological Species Concept.

A.nigrocincta distribution is restricted to the Sulawesi where *A. nigrocincta* and *A. cerana* live sympatrically as well (Hadisoesilo et al. 1995). They also differ in their mating times which serve as pre-mating behaviour barriers between the two species (Hadisoesilo and Otis 1996).

An alternative scenario regarding to *A. nuluensis* and *A. nigrocincta* evolution was shown in the ML tree under GTR+G+I model of substitution. This topology mentioned that *A. cerana* is the sister species to *A. nigrocincta*, however it is supported by low bootstrap value (30.4 %). Hence based on this topology both *A. cerana* and *A. nigrocincta* are derived from *A. nuluensis*. Further studies are needed to confirm the relationship of those three honey bee species.

Separate analyses of *itpr* and mtDNA sequence data also revealed different results concerning of *A. d. binghamii* relationship among other giant honey bees. Based on *itpr* gene, *A. d. binghamii* is apparently derived from *A. laboriosa* and not from *A. dorsata*. This finding might suggest that *A. d. binghamii* is a new species, or else that all three taxa are in fact conspecific. It would be interesting to investigate drone mating times occurring between *A. dorsata* and *A. d. binghamii*.

Is horizontal dance an ancestral characteristic state?

In studies of character evolution, the basic questions to be inferred from the molecular tree involve reconstructing the character's history, in order to ascertain character changes might have occurred and in what lineages such changes took place (Ridley 1983).

Dance behaviour refers to behaviour performed by the forager honey bee in order to indicate a certain flower patch location. This type of behaviour does not exist in Bombini and Meliponini bees. Therefore, different food recruitment behaviour has evolved in each tribal lineage. If this assumption is correct, it can be reasonably claimed that dance behaviour has evolved only in the *Apis* species. From the molecular phylogeny based on ML under HKY+G+I model of evolution and unweighted MP, the earliest split is between the dwarf honey bee and the rest. The dwarf honey bees perform a horizontal dance whereas others in that clade are vertical dancers. It is more parsimonious for the ancestral honey bee to have used the dance than for the horizontal and vertical dances to have evolved independently. Hence, either horizontal or vertical dance was ancestral for the other. Which scenario is correct cannot be determined from the phylogeny.

Horizontal dance behaviour in *A. florea* has been well-documented in several studies. (Dyer 1985a; Koeniger et al. 1982). It has been established that *A. florea* can dance in the slope area of the nest platform under natural conditions as well as *A. andreniformis*. The ability of the dwarf honey bees to dance in this way represents a transition towards vertical dance behaviour. Because the horizontal dance is less versatile than the vertical one (being disarranged by darkness as in a cavity), it is more reasonable to regard horizontal as evolving into vertical dancing than the converse; Lindauer (1961) also suggested that the horizontal dance was ancestral.

Another hypothesis of dance behaviour evolution arised by using ML analysis applying the GTR+G+I model of nucleotide evolution. Based on this model, the genus *Apis* was split into two lines, the first line consists of *A. mellifera* group and the second line consists of *A. dorsata* and *A. florea* group. Both *A. mellifera* and *A. dorsata* groups

performs vertical dance, hence there is an indication that vertical dance is the ancestral to that of horizontal.

Is open nesting an ancestral characteristic state?

My comparative nest behaviour analyses of outgroup bees and honey bees comprise two approaches, the first approach uses two different traits (pot versus non-pot and cavity versus open nest) and the second approach uses cavity nest versus open nest. Homology means when the same state is derived from a common ancestor without an intervening different state. The use of the integrated life pattern and hence compound characters precluded determining homology.

In my attempt to investigate nesting behaviour evolution, I inferred nest behaviour to be according to the second approach, namely cavity versus open nest. By making ordered and unordered assumptions, from both ML analyses (HKY and GTR model of evolution), it became evident that open nesting behaviour is an intervening state. The other possibility was that *Apis* open nest behaviour was an independently - derived behavioural character state. Consequently, I suggest that cavity nesting in Bombini and Meliponini bees is homologous with that in Apini. Therefore, honey bee cavity nest behaviour seems likely to have occurred as a reversal evolutionary trait, which originated in Bombini and Meliponini bees.

Although *A. mellifera* is well-known for cavity living, there is considerable evidence that it can also nest in the open (Ben Oldroyd, personal communication; Butler 1958). This open-nesting behaviour in *A. mellifera* could indicate a swarming nest. It is for swarming cavity nesting honey bees to choose a temporary place such as on a tree branch before determining the final cavity nesting site. Scouts honey bee performs dance behaviour which advertise the future nest place. If the colony cannot decide on a destination, it will continue to nest in the open. In this particular situation, *A. mellifera* displays ancestral characteristics of open area nest behaviour. However, no other honey bee species information data concerning their ability to live in open nests appears to be available.

Given the above data, I have formed the opinion that the ancestral condition of honey bee was either open or cavity nesting. Therefore, nest behaviour ancestral states could not be completely identified as a result of my present study. Bee nesting characteristics require further investigation in order to improve our understanding of this evolutionary behavioural trait.

Finally, further sequence information is still required in order to test some of the nodes with low support, hopefully increasing these supports.

Potential areas for further research

Honey bees are rich in interesting traits, which can be analysed in order to discover how they evolved. Examples of such traits include those of multi comb cavity behaviour versus the single comb open nesting (Ben Oldroyd, personal communication); silent waggle dance behaviour versus buzzing waggle dance behaviour (Kirchner et al. 1996), and porous versus non-porous honey bee drone cap cell construction (Ruttner 1988; Hadisoesilo and Otis 1998). These examples provide potential areas of study for future behavioural research.

Besides honey bee behavioural evolution, evolutionary studies of corbiculate bees have proved to be interesting areas for discussion. The areas of disagreement which exists between corbiculate molecular (Cameron and Mardulyn 2001) and morphological-paleontological (Schultz et al. 2001) phylogenetic trees can be analysed by using tree topology comparisons as provided in the ML analysis described in this present study. Furthermore, it is then possible to examine and map the behaviour of corbiculate bees.

APPENDIX 1. *Itp*r DNA sequence alignment

Species abbreviation: *A.mellifer*: *Apis mellifera*, *A.nuluensi*: *A. nuluensis*, *A.cerana*: *A. cerana*, *A.nigrocin*: *A. nigrocincta*, *A.koschevn*: *A. koschevnikovi*, *A.laborios*: *A. laboriosa*, *A.d.bingha*: *A. d. binghamii*, *A.dorsata* : *A. dorsata*, *A.florea*: *A.florea*, *A.andrenif* : *A. andreniformis*, *T.fimbriat*: *Trigona fimbriata*, *B.terrestr*: *Bombus terrestris*.

<i>A.mellifer</i>	GGA	GTA	TTA	AGA	TGT	ATT	GGA	GAC	ATG	GGT	GCA	GTA	ATG	ACG	AGC	TTA	[48]
<i>A.nuluensi</i>	[48]
<i>A.cerana</i>	[48]
<i>A.nigrocin</i>	[48]
<i>A.koschevn</i>	[48]
<i>A.laborios</i>	[48]
<i>A.d.bingha</i>	[48]
<i>A.dorsata</i>	[48]
<i>A.florea</i>	[48]
<i>A.andrenif</i>	[48]
<i>T.fimbriat</i>CTC	[48]
<i>B.terrestr</i>TC	[48]
<i>A.mellifer</i>	ACA	CTG	GGA	CCA	GCA	GGA	CAA	GTA	TTA	GCA	GGA	AGT	TCT	TCT	CCA	AGA	[96]
<i>A.nuluensi</i>	[96]
<i>A.cerana</i>	[96]
<i>A.nigrocin</i>	...	T..	[96]
<i>A.koschevn</i>	[96]
<i>A.laborios</i>	[96]
<i>A.d.bingha</i>	[96]
<i>A.dorsata</i>	[96]
<i>A.florea</i>	...	T..	[96]
<i>A.andrenif</i>	...	T..	[96]
<i>T.fimbriat</i>	...	T..	..TT	..CGA	..A	[96]
<i>B.terrestr</i>TT	..TGCAT	...	[96]
<i>A.mellifer</i>	CCA	AAA	CCA	CTT	TTA	AAG	AAA	GAA	TAT	CCT	CTG	GTG	ATG	GAT	ACA	AAA	[144]
<i>A.nuluensi</i>	[144]
<i>A.cerana</i>	[144]
<i>A.nigrocin</i>	[144]
<i>A.koschevn</i>G	[144]
<i>A.laborios</i>	[144]
<i>A.d.bingha</i>	[144]
<i>A.dorsata</i>	[144]
<i>A.florea</i>	[144]
<i>A.andrenif</i>G	[144]
<i>T.fimbriat</i>	..GG	..AA	..AC	[144]
<i>B.terrestr</i>GG	..AC	..A	..AC	..G	..G	...	[144]
<i>A.mellifer</i>	TTG	AAA	ATA	ATC	GAA	ATT	TTA	CAA	TTT	ATA	CTT	GAT	GTT	CGA	TTG	GAT	[192]
<i>A.nuluensi</i>	[192]
<i>A.cerana</i>	[192]
<i>A.nigrocin</i>	[192]
<i>A.koschevn</i>	[192]
<i>A.laborios</i>	[192]
<i>A.d.bingha</i>	[192]
<i>A.dorsata</i>	[192]
<i>A.florea</i>C	[192]
<i>A.andrenif</i>	[192]
<i>T.fimbriat</i>	C..GCC	..C	..C	...	C..	..C	...	[192]
<i>B.terrestr</i>	C..ACC	A..C	...	[192]

A.mellifer	TTA	GAT	TTA	GAT	GGA	CAA	GGT	GGT	AGA	ACA	TTT	CTG	CGT	GTT	TTA	CTC	[480]
A.nuluensi	[480]
A.cerana	[480]
A.nigrocin	[480]
A.koschevnG	[480]
A.laborios	[480]
A.d.bingha	[480]
A.dorsata	C..	[480]
A.floreaA	[480]
A.andrenifCCA	[480]
T.fimbriat	..GC	..CC	T..T	[480]
B.terrestr	..G	...	C..CC	C..AG	T..A	[480]
A.mellifer	CAT	TTG	GCA	ATG	CAT	GAC	TAT	CCT	CCA	CTA	GTT	TCC	GGA	GCA	TTA	CAT	[528]
A.nuluensiTC	[528]
A.ceranaT	[528]
A.nigrocinT	[528]
A.koschevn	T..	[528]
A.laborios	?..G	[528]
A.d.binghaCGT	[528]
A.dorsataG	[528]
A.florea	[528]
A.andrenif	[528]
T.fimbriat	..CTC	..TG	..G	..GG	[528]
B.terrestrTC	..TA	..G	T..G	[528]
A.mellifer	TTG	CTT	TTT	AGG	CAT	TTT	AGT	CAA	AGA	CAA	GAA	GTC	TTA	CAA	GCA	TTT	[576]
A.nuluensiGT	[576]
A.ceranaGT	[576]
A.nigrocinGT	[576]
A.koschevnT	[576]
A.laboriosT	[576]
A.d.binghaT	[576]
A.dorsataT	[576]
A.floreaCT	[576]
A.andrenifT	[576]
T.fimbriatA	..C	..C	..C	C..	..G	..G	...	[576]
B.terrestrC	..A	..CCT	[576]
A.mellifer	AAA	CAA	GTA	TGT	TAT	TTA	TAA	TAT	TAT	CGT	GTA	ATA	TAA	ATG	AAA	AAA	[624]
A.nuluensiG	..A	A..	[624]
A.ceranaA	A..	[624]
A.nigrocinG	..A	A..	[624]
A.koschevnA	A..A	[624]
A.laboriosT	..ATGA	A..	[624]
A.d.binghaT	..ATGA	A..	[624]
A.dorsataT	..ATGA	A..	[624]
A.floreaT	..GT	A..T	AT	---	-..	A..	[624]
A.andrenifT	..GT	A..T	AT	ATC	GTG	TA	TA	A..	[624]
T.fimbriat	C..	...	A..	..CG	C..G	AG	..A	TA	TAG	..G	G..A	..C	GGG	[624]
B.terrestr	C..	...	AG	-..T	C..	..A	..A-	..G	GG	G..	..A	...	C..	[624]
A.mellifer	TAT	AAA	TTT	ATT	AAA	TTA	TTG	TAA	ATA	GGT	TCA	ACT	TTT	GGT	TTC	CGA	[672]
A.nuluensi	C..	[672]
A.cerana	C..	A..	[672]
A.nigrocin	C..	[672]
A.koschevn	C..A	[672]
A.laborios	[672]
A.d.bingha	[672]
A.dorsata	[672]
A.florea	C..	[672]
A.andrenif	..C	...	C..	G..	[672]
T.fimbriat	G..A	..GG	..C	...	G..	[672]
B.terrestr	G..A	..G	CG	T..	...	G..	[672]

A.mellifer	TAG	TGA	TGT	TGA	ATC	TTA	CAA	ACA	AAT	AAA	GTC	AGA	TTT	GGA	CGT	TTT	[720]
A.nuluensi	T..	...	[720]
A.cerana	T..	A..	T..	...	[720]
A.nigrocin	T..	...	[720]
A.koschevn	A..	T..	...	[720]
A.laborios	T..	...	[720]
A.d.bingha	A..	T..	...	[720]
A.dorsata	T..	...	[720]
A.florea	T..	A..	[720]
A.andrenif	T..	A..	[720]
T.fimbriat	C..	A..	G..	[720]
B.terrestr	...	C..	C..	C..	T..	A..	C..	C..	A..	T..	...	[720]
A.mellifer	AAG	ACA	ATC	AGT	TGA	AAA	ATC	GGA	ACT	TTG	GGT	TTA	TAA	ATC	TAA	AGC	[768]
A.nuluensi	[768]
A.cerana	[768]
A.nigrocin	[768]
A.koschevn	G..	[768]
A.laborios	G..	[768]
A.d.bingha	G..	A..	[768]
A.dorsata	G..	[768]
A.florea	[768]
A.andrenif	[768]
T.fimbriat	G..	[768]
B.terrestr	.C.	...	G..	G..	...	G..	...	A..	C..	[768]
A.mellifer	ATC	AGA	AGA	ACA	TGG	CAA	TAA	AAA	GAA	GAA	AAA	TAA	AGA	AGA	CGA	AGA	[816]
A.nuluensi	A..G	G..	...	[816]
A.cerana	A..G	G..	...	[816]
A.nigrocin	G..	A..	G..	...	[816]
A.koschevn	C..G	[816]
A.laborios	C..	...	A..	[816]
A.d.bingha	C..	...	A..	[816]
A.dorsata	C..	...	A..	[816]
A.florea	A..	...	[816]
A.andrenif	R..	G..	...	[816]
T.fimbriat	[816]
B.terrestr	...	G..	G..	T..	G..G	G..	A..	...	[816]
A.mellifer	TGA	TGG	AGC	TAC	TCC	TCG	TAA	AGC	ACC	ACC	ACA	ACT	ATC	TAC	GAC	GGA	[864]
A.nuluensi	...	?.-	--	G..	A..	A..	[864]
A.cerana-	--	G..	A..	[864]
A.nigrocin	G..	A..	[864]
A.koschevn	G..	[864]
A.laborios	[864]
A.d.bingha	[864]
A.dorsata	[864]
A.florea	C..	...	[864]
A.andrenif	C..	...	[864]
T.fimbriat	[864]
B.terrestr	A..	...	T..	G..	T..	.T.	G..	...	AT.	...	[864]
A.mellifer	TAA	GAA	AGG	TTT	TGT	TAA	TAA	TTT	TTT	TTA	AAT	AAA	ATA	TTG	AAA	TAA	[912]
A.nuluensiG	[912]
A.ceranaG	[912]
A.nigrocinGG	...	[912]
A.koschevnG	[912]
A.laborios	...	A..	[912]
A.d.bingha	...	A..	[912]
A.dorsata	...	A..	C..	[912]
A.florea	AA.G	.A.	[912]
A.andrenifA	T..	.AT	G..A	G..	-.T	[912]
T.fimbriat	[912]
B.terrestr	...	A..A.	.CC	.G.C.	CAC	A..	TGG	.GT	.AT	.AAG	[912]

A.mellifer	ATT	GAA	AAA	TCA	AAG	GCA	AAA	--T	TTT	CCT	AAT	ACA	AAT	ATT	ATT	TAT	[960]	
A.nuluensi	G..	--.	T..	[960]	
A.cerana	G..	--.	[960]	
A.nigrocina	G..	--.T.	[960]	
A.koschevni	G..	--.A.	[960]	
A.laboriosus	G..	--.	...	T..	[960]	
A.d.bingha	G..	--.	[960]	
A.dorsata	G..	--.	...	T..	[960]	
A.florea	G.-	-..	A..	...	AA.	...	T..T.	[960]	
A.andrenif	.AG	T..	A..	C..	--.	...	T..T.	[960]	
T.fimbriat	--.	[960]	
B.terrestr	GAA	T.T	.GG	AAT	..A	AT.	T.-	-T.	C..	T..	G.C	GT.	G.A	[960]	
A.mellifer	AAT	TAT	AGG	ATC	TGC	AAT	AGA	TTT	AGA	TAT	TGG	TCC	ACC	GTT	ACA	TGC	[1008]	
A.nuluensi	A..	[1008]	
A.cerana	A..	[1008]	
A.nigrocina	A..	[1008]	
A.koschevni	A..	[1008]	
A.laboriosus	A..	[1008]	
A.d.bingha	A..	[1008]	
A.dorsata	A..	[1008]	
A.florea	A..	[1008]	
A.andrenif	C..	[1008]	
T.fimbriat	[1008]	
B.terrestrG.	...	G..	...	G..	C..	G..	A..	G..	C..	[1008]
A.mellifer	AGA	TCA	AGC	GGA	GGA	ATA	TAA	AAA	AAT	ACA	ACA	AAT	TCT	AAT	TCG	AAT	[1056]	
A.nuluensiT.	[1056]	
A.cerana	G..T.	[1056]	
A.nigrocinaT.	[1056]	
A.koschevniT.	[1056]	
A.laboriosus	C..	T..	[1056]	
A.d.binghaR	...	C..	G..	[1056]	
A.dorsata	C..	[1056]	
A.florea	G..	[1056]	
A.andrenifT	G..	[1056]	
T.fimbriat	[1056]	
B.terrestr	...	C..	G..	...	G..	G..	[1056]	
A.mellifer	GAA	CAA	ATT	ATG	TAT	CCA	AAC	GAT	AGG	TGG	TCA	AAT	AAA	ACC	ACG	AAA	[1104]	
A.nuluensi	G..	[1104]	
A.cerana	G..	[1104]	
A.nigrocina	G..	[1104]	
A.koschevni	...	T..	G..	[1104]	
A.laboriosus	[1104]	
A.d.bingha	[1104]	
A.dorsata	[1104]	
A.florea	[1104]	
A.andrenif	[1104]	
T.fimbriat	[1104]	
B.terrestr	G..	...	C..	T..	[1104]	
A.mellifer	ACA	TGA	ACA	AAG	ACT	TTT	ACG	TAA	TGT	TGG	AGT	ACA	TAC	CGT	TGT	TTT	[1152]	
A.nuluensi	C..	[1152]	
A.cerana	C..	[1152]	
A.nigrocina	C..	[1152]	
A.koschevni	T..	[1152]	
A.laboriosus	C..	[1152]	
A.d.bingha	C..	[1152]	
A.dorsata	C..	[1152]	
A.florea	...	C..	C..	[1152]	
A.andrenif	C..	[1152]	
T.fimbriat	[1152]	
B.terrestr	...	C..	G..	C..	C..	G..	C..	C..	[1152]	

A.mellifer	AGA	TTT	ATT	ACA	AGT	TCC	ATT	TGA	CGC	GAA	AGA	AGA	TGT	TAG	AAT	GAA	[1200]
A.nuluensi	?	[1200]
A.cerana	[1200]
A.nigrocin	[1200]
A.koschevn	[1200]
A.laborios	T..	[1200]
A.d.bingha	T..	[1200]
A.dorsata	T..	[1200]
A.florea	T..	[1200]
A.andrenif	T..	[1200]
T.fimbriat	[1200]
B.terrestr	...	C..	G..	G..	G..	G..	...	C..	C..	[1200]

A.mellifer	TGA	GTT	AAT	GCG	ATT	A	[1216]
A.nuluensi	C..	A..	G	[1216]
A.cerana	...	A..	G	[1216]
A.nigrocin	...	A..	G	[1216]
A.koschevn	[1216]
A.laborios	...	A..	[1216]
A.d.bingha	...	A..	[1216]
A.dorsata	...	A..	[1216]
A.florea	[1216]
A.andrenif	[1216]
T.fimbriat	[1216]
B.terrestr	C..	...	G..	G	[1216]

APPENDIX 2. *COII* sequence alignment

A.mellifera	ATT	TCC	ACA	TGA	TTT	ATA	TTT	ATA	TTT	CAA	GAA	TCA	AAT	TCA	TAT	TAT	[48]
A.nuluensisG	[48]
A.ceranaTCG	[48]
A.nigrocinctaTC	[48]
A.koschevnikoviATC	[48]
A.laboriosaA	..G	...	A.A	...	C.ATC	[48]
A.d.binghamiiA	..G	...	A.A	...	C.ATC	[48]
A.dorsataA	A.AAT	[48]
A.floreaT	A.ACT	[48]
A.andreniformisT	A.AGTA	[48]
T.fimbriata	..G	..A	..T	...	AAA	TCTT	..TA	...	[48]
B.terrestrisT	AAC	T	A.TT	..TC	...	[48]
A.mellifera	GCT	GAT	AAT	TTA	ATT	TCA	TTT	CAT	AAT	ATA	GTT	ATA	ATA	ATT	ATT	ATT	[96]
A.nuluensisCA	[96]
A.ceranaCA	[96]
A.nigrocinctaA	[96]
A.koschevnikovi	..CC	...	[96]
A.laboriosa	..AC	..TAC	..A	[96]
A.d.binghamii	..ATAC	..A	[96]
A.dorsata	..AAC	..A	...	G.A	...	[96]
A.florea	G.GC	...	T	..A	[96]
A.andreniformis	G.A	..TC	..AG	...	G.A	[96]
T.fimbriata	T.C	T.C	...	T.T	..AG	T	...	G.A	[96]
B.terrestris	T	C.T	T	ACAA	..A	..A	[96]
A.mellifera	ATA	ATT	TCA	ACA	TTA	ACT	GTA	TAT	ATT	ATT	TTA	GAT	TTA	TTT	ATA	AAC	[144]
A.nuluensisTA	..T	..CC	...	C.T	...	T	..T	[144]
A.ceranaT	..TA	A	T	..T	[144]
A.nigrocinctaT	..TA	..T	C	...	T	..T	[144]
A.koschevnikoviA	..T	A	T	...	[144]
A.laboriosaA	A.T	A	..C	T	..T	[144]
A.d.binghamiiA	A.T	A	..C	..G	...	T.G	..T	[144]
A.dorsataA	A.TC	...	A	...	C	..CT	[144]
A.florea	C.T	..A	A.TTT	[144]
A.andreniformisA	..TT	T	..T	[144]
T.fimbriata	A.T	T	T	..T	T	...	A.TT	AT	[144]
B.terrestris	ATT	..TC	A	..T	T.C	...	AT	..CAT	[144]
A.mellifera	AAA	TTC	TCA	AAT	TTA	TTT	TTA	TTA	AAA	AAT	CAT	AAT	ATT	GAA	ATT	ATT	[192]
A.nuluensisTC	[192]
A.ceranaT	CC	...	[192]
A.nigrocinctaTCC	...	[192]
A.koschevnikoviT	..T	[192]
A.laboriosaT	[192]
A.d.binghamiiT	A	[192]
A.dorsataT	[192]
A.floreaT	[192]
A.andreniformisTA	...	C.TC	...	[192]
T.fimbriataAT	ATT	..C	...	AACA	G.A	[192]
B.terrestris	..TT	AA	CC	[192]

A.mellifera	TGA	ACA	ATT	ATT	CCA	ATT	ATT	ATT	CTA	TTA	ATT	ATT	TGT	TTT	CCA	TCA	[240]
A.nuluensis	G..	..C	T..	[240]
A.cerana	G.A	T..	[240]
A.nigrocincta	G..	T..T	[240]
A.koschevnikovi	G.ATT	[240]
A.laboriosa	T..	G..	..T	[240]
A.d.binghamii	T..	G..	..T	[240]
A.dorsataT	T..	G..	..TA	[240]
A.florea	G..	..T	...	G.A	...	T..	[240]
A.andreniformis	G..	..T	...	G..	...	T..	[240]
T.fimbriataA	..T	..A	...	G.A	T..	...	G.AC	..A	[240]
B.terrestrisT	T.A	..C	..T	..A	T.G	A..CT	[240]
A.mellifera	TTA	AAA	ATT	TTA	TAT	TTA	ATT	GAT	GAA	ATT	GTA	AAT	CCT	TTT	TTT	TCA	[288]
A.nuluensisAT	[288]
A.ceranaA	..CT	[288]
A.nigrocinctaG	..CT	[288]
A.koschevnikoviAT	[288]
A.laboriosa	C..A	[288]
A.d.binghamii	C..A	[288]
A.dorsata	[288]
A.florea	A.TA	..CT	[288]
A.andreniformisAT	[288]
T.fimbriata	C.TC	..CA	..TA	A.A	...	[288]
B.terrestrisAT	A..A	[288]
A.mellifera	ATT	AAA	TCA	ATT	GGT	CAT	CAA	TGA	TAT	TGA	TCA	TAT	GAA	TAT	CCA	GAA	[336]
A.nuluensisT	[336]
A.cerana	G.ACT	...	[336]
A.nigrocincta	G.ATTT	...	[336]
A.koschevnikoviGC	[336]
A.laboriosaTCT	...	[336]
A.d.binghamiiTCT	...	[336]
A.dorsataTT	...	[336]
A.floreaA	..CCC	..C	..T	...	[336]
A.andreniformisGT	...	[336]
T.fimbriataG	G..C	..GC	..T	[336]
B.terrestrisTTC	[336]
A.mellifera	TTT	AAT	AAT	ATT	GAA	TTT	GAT	TCA	TAT	ATA	CTA	AAT	TAT	AAT	AAT	TTA	[384]
A.nuluensisT	T..GA	[384]
A.ceranaT	T..GA	[384]
A.nigrocincta	T..GA	..C	...	[384]
A.koschevnikovi	T..GA	..C	...	[384]
A.laboriosa	..YY	T..CA	[384]
A.d.binghamii	T..TA	[384]
A.dorsata	..CC	T..CA	[384]
A.florea	T..GA	[384]
A.andreniformis	T..GA	G..	...	[384]
T.fimbriata	A.C	A.C	..GT	..C	...	AA.	G.GTA	GTA	G.T	[384]
B.terrestris	TA.	T..	G.A	TCA	A..	[384]
A.mellifera	AAC	CAA	TTT	CGT	TTA	CTA	GAA	ACT	GAT	AAT	CGA	ATA	GTA	ATT	CCA	ATA	[432]
A.nuluensis	..TA	...	T..	A.T	..C	..T	...	[432]
A.cerana	..TA	...	T..	A.T	..C	..T	...	[432]
A.nigrocincta	..TA	...	T..TT	...	[432]
A.koschevnikovi	..TA	...	T..C	[432]
A.laboriosa	..TA	...	T..AC	[432]
A.d.binghamii	..TA	...	T..ATA	..T	...	[432]
A.dorsata	..TA	...	T..AT	[432]
A.florea	..TA	...	T..C	A.T	..C	[432]
A.andreniformis	..T	T..	A.TT	...	[432]
T.fimbriata	..TA	C.T	T..CT	T.T	[432]
B.terrestris	..TA	C.T	T..	T..	A.T	..C	...	T.T	[432]

A.mellifera	AAA	ATC	CCA	CTA	CGT	TTA	ATT	ACA	ACA	TCA	ACA	GAT	GTA	ATT	CAT	TCA	[480]
A.nuluensis	..T	..T	...	T..	..AT	..T	[480]
A.cerana	..T	..T	...	T..	..AT	..T	[480]
A.nigrocincta	..T	..T	...	T..	..ACT	[480]
A.koschevnikovi	..T	T..	[480]
A.laboriosa	.G.	..A	..T	A..T	[480]
A.d.binghamii	..T	..A	..T	T..T	..TTTC	...	[480]
A.dorsata	.G.	..A	..T	T..T	[480]
A.floreaT	..T	A..	..ATT	[480]
A.andreniformisT	..T	T..	..ATT	[480]
T.fimbriataT	...	A..	..A	GT.	T..	..T	TT.T	[480]
B.terrestrisT	T..	A..	...	A..	...	GT.	T.T	..T	T..C	...	[480]
A.mellifera	TGA	ACA	GTT	CCA	TCC	TTA	GGT	ATT	AAA	GTT	GAT	GCA	GTT	CCA	GGA	CGA	[528]
A.nuluensisTTAT	[528]
A.ceranaTA	C.T	..A	[528]
A.nigrocinctaTTT	[528]
A.koschevnikovi	[528]
A.laboriosaTTAAT	[528]
A.d.binghamiiTTA	..CAT	[528]
A.dorsataTTAAT	[528]
A.floreaT	..C	..T	..AT	...	[528]
A.andreniformisTTA	[528]
T.fimbriata	A.C	..A	..TAAC	..G	..T	...	[528]
B.terrestris	A..	..T	..AA	A..	..T	[528]
A.mellifera	ATT	AAT	CAA	TTA	AAT	TTA	ATT	AGA	AAA	CGT	CCA	GGA	ATT	TTT	TTT	GGT	[576]
A.nuluensisA	..TC	[576]
A.cerana	.G.A	..TC	[576]
A.nigrocinctaGAC	[576]
A.koschevnikoviCC	[576]
A.laboriosaAC	..C	[576]
A.d.binghamiiAC	[576]
A.dorsataAC	[576]
A.florea	[576]
A.andreniformisGA	..T	[576]
T.fimbriata	T..	TCG	..TT	..A	..T	..T	C.A	..ACA	...	[576]
B.terrestris	T..	T.T	..TTA	[576]
A.mellifera	CAA	TGT	TCA	GAA	ATT	TGT	GGT	ATA	AAT	CAT	AGA	TTT	ATA	CCA	ATT	ATA	[624]
A.nuluensisA	[624]
A.ceranaC	[624]
A.nigrocincta	[624]
A.koschevnikovi	[624]
A.laboriosaTCA	[624]
A.d.binghamiiCC	[624]
A.dorsataTCACT	[624]
A.floreaACT	[624]
A.andreniformisTA	[624]
T.fimbriataG	G..T	[624]
B.terrestrisTAT	[624]
A.mellifera	ATT	GAA	TCA	ACT	TCA	TTT	CAA	TAT	TTT	TTA	AAT	TGA	GTA	AAT	AAA	CAA	[672]
A.nuluensisA	A..CT	[672]
A.cerana	G.AT	..A	A..C	C.T	[672]
A.nigrocincta	G..T	..A	A..	..C	[672]
A.koschevnikoviA	A..C	...	A.T	[672]
A.laboriosa	A.TT	[672]
A.d.binghamii	G.TT	[672]
A.dorsata	A.TT	[672]
A.florea	G..A	A..	..T	..C	A.T	AT.	...	[672]
A.andreniformis	G..A	A..A	A.T	T..	...	AT.	...	[672]
T.fimbriata	T.A	...	AGT	..A	AG.	..A	A..	A..	...	A..	G..T	..C	...	A..	[672]
B.terrestris	T.A	...	AG.	..C	..T	..A	G..	ATA	A.T	..A	...	A..	[672]

A.mellifera	ATC	---	---	---	---	---	TAA	[693]
A.nuluensis	.AT	AAC	---	---	---	---	...	[693]
A.cerana	.AT	AAT	---	---	---	---	...	[693]
A.nigrocincta	.AT	AAC	---	---	---	---	...	[693]
A.koschevnikovi	.AT	---	---	---	---	---	...	[693]
A.laboriosa	TCT	---	---	---	---	---	...	[693]
A.d.binghamii	TCT	---	---	---	---	---	...	[693]
A.dorsata	TCT	---	---	---	---	---	...	[693]
A.florea	.A.	---	---	---	---	---	...	[693]
A.andreniformis	.AT	---	---	---	---	---	...	[693]
T.fimbriata	..T	GAA	---	---	---	---	...	[693]
B.terrestris	..A	AT?	TGA	AAA	ATT	AGT	...	[693]

APPENDIX 3. *IsRNA* sequence alignment

Species abbreviation: *A.mellifer*: *Apis mellifera*, *A.nuluensi*: *A. nuluensis*, *A.cerana*: *A. cerana*, *A.nigrocin*: *A. nigrocincta*, *A.koschevn*: *A. koschevnikovi*, *A.laborios*: *A. laboriosa*, *A.d.bingha*: *A. d. binghamii*, *A.dorsata* : *A. dorsata*, *A.florea*: *A.florea*, *A.andrenif* : *A. andreniformis*, *T.fimbriat*: *Trigona fimbriata*, *B.terrestr*: *Bombus terrestris*.

<i>A.mellifer</i>	--GGTCGATC	TGCTCCATGA	AATTT---T	TTAAATAGCT	GCAGTATGT-	[50]
<i>A.nuluensi</i>	-A.....AA---A.-	[50]
<i>A.cerana</i>	--.....AAA---A.-	[50]
<i>A.nigrocin</i>	-A.....A.A---A.-	[50]
<i>A.koschevn</i>	TA.....G.AAA--A.A.-	[50]
<i>A.laborios</i>	--.....A....	...A---T.	..T.....A.-	[50]
<i>A.d.bingha</i>	--.....A....	...A.-TTT.	..T.....A.-	[50]
<i>A.dorsata</i>	--.....----	..T.....A.-	[50]
<i>A.florea</i>	TA.....TAAAAATT.A.-	[50]
<i>A.andrenif</i>	--A.....T.AAC---G...T.-	[50]
<i>T.fimbriat</i>	-AA.....	...C.A....	...A.----	.G..TGGCTG	CAGTATAAC-	[50]
<i>B.terrestr</i>	-CA.A.TTAA	.TA.TA.ATT	TC..CATTTA	AA.TT..T..	TA.T.CAACA	[50]
<i>A.mellifer</i>	TGACTGTACA	AAGGTAGCAT	AATAAATTG-	TCTTTTAATT	GAAGAATTGT	[100]
<i>A.nuluensi</i>-A	[100]
<i>A.cerana</i>-A	[100]
<i>A.nigrocin</i>-A	[100]
<i>A.koschevn</i>-A	[100]
<i>A.laborios</i>-A	[100]
<i>A.d.bingha</i>-A	[100]
<i>A.dorsata</i>-A	[100]
<i>A.florea</i>-A	[100]
<i>A.andrenif</i>-A.A	[100]
<i>T.fimbriat</i>C....A	.T...A..-	...ATC.G.A	[100]
<i>B.terrestr</i>	.CGAG..CGC	..TCATCTT.	TTC..TAA.AA..AA	..TATTAC.C	[100]
<i>A.mellifer</i>	ATGAAAGAAT	TAATGAAATA	ATAACTGTCT	CTAAATTATT	AAATGAATTT	[150]
<i>A.nuluensi</i>T....	.G.....	.C.....	...T.....	T.....	[150]
<i>A.cerana</i>T....	.G.....	.C.....	...TT....	[150]
<i>A.nigrocin</i>T....	.G.....	.C.....	...TT....	[150]
<i>A.koschevn</i>C....	.G.....	.C.....	...TT....	G.....	[150]
<i>A.laborios</i>C....G.....	[150]
<i>A.d.bingha</i>C....G.....	TT.....	[150]
<i>A.dorsata</i>C....	T.....	[150]
<i>A.florea</i>T....T.....	T.....	[150]
<i>A.andrenif</i>C....	.G.....	.T.....AC..	[150]
<i>T.fimbriat</i>G..	TA.....	.AC.TA...	TT.....	[150]
<i>B.terrestr</i>	--TT.TCCC	...G.T...T	TACT..T.T-	.ATTT...C.	...A..TCAA	[150]
<i>A.mellifer</i>	AAATTTTAA-	-----G	TTAAAATTCT	AAAATTAATT	-ATGGGACGA	[200]
<i>A.nuluensi</i>-	-----	G....T.A.	T.....	[200]
<i>A.cerana</i>-	-----	.A.....	G....T.A.	T.....	[200]
<i>A.nigrocin</i>-	-----	.A.....T.A.	T.....	[200]
<i>A.koschevn</i>-	-----G..T.A.	T.....	[200]
<i>A.laborios</i>-	-----T.A.	T.....	[200]
<i>A.d.bingha</i>-	-----T.A.	T.....	[200]
<i>A.dorsata</i>G-	-----T.A.	T.....	[200]
<i>A.florea</i>-	-----T.A.	T.....	[200]
<i>A.andrenif</i>-	-----	...C.....T.A.	T.....	[200]
<i>T.fimbriat</i>	...A....A	TAAAAAT--T.	TTT..GGGAC	G..AA.---	[200]
<i>B.terrestr</i>	..TA.A..CT	TTAATTAAA.	..G.T...TA	...TAA.G..	T.ATAA.TTT	[200]

A.mellifer	TAAGA----C	CCTATAGAAT	TTAATTTAAT	TTTTAAATTT	ATTTATAAAT	[250]
A.nuluensi----.T.....	A.AATT....A.T.A	[250]
A.cerana----.T.....	A.AATT....ATT.A	[250]
A.nigrocin----.T.....	A.AGTT....A.T.A	[250]
A.koschevn----.T.....A	.AA.T.T..A	T..A.ATTA.	[250]
A.laborios----.T.....	A...T.T..A	T.AA.....	[250]
A.d.bingha----.T.....	A...T.T..A	T.AA.....	[250]
A.dorsata----.T.....	A...T.T..G	T.AA.....	[250]
A.florea----.T.....	..A.-T...-	TAA.T...A.	[250]
A.andrenif----.T.....A	..A.-T...-	TAA.T...A.	[250]
T.fimbriat	-----T..A--C	.AA.TT....	TAA..CTTAA	[250]
B.terrestr	ACCT.TCCT.	..A.C.A...	A.T.A.ATTC	AA.A.T.AAA	T.A..ATTAA	[250]
A.mellifer	T--TAAT-AA	ATATATTT-A	AGAT--TAAA	TTTGATTGGG	AGGATTGGTA	[300]
A.nuluensi	..-.TG.G..	TATATAA.-T	.AT.--....	[300]
A.cerana	..--TTGG..AATT	.AT.--....	[300]
A.nigrocin	..-.CT.G..	TATATAA.-T	.AT.--....	[300]
A.koschevn	..--TGT..	...A..AATT	.AT.--....	[300]
A.laborios	A--.T.ATTT	G..A..AA-G	.TG.--....A..	[300]
A.d.bingha	A--.TTATTT	G..A..AA-G	GT..--....A..	[300]
A.dorsata	..-.TT.ATT	TATA.A.AAT	.T..--....A..	[300]
A.florea	.AT--T.A..	.ATA.A-.A.	-----AA..	[300]
A.andrenif	.TTATT.TT.	.ATA.AA.A.	TA.ATT....AA..	[300]
T.fimbriat	.ATA..ATTT	-----AAAT	TAG.A-----AT..	[300]
B.terrestr	AATATTAAT.	TA.A...CT.	TAGGGTCTT.	.CGTCCCAT	.ATTAATT.T	[300]
A.mellifer	AATTTAATAA	ACTTTATTTA	-AGATTTAAT	TTTGATATAA	AGATTAATTT	[350]
A.nuluensi	...AA..AT.C..	-.A.A.....GA..TT...	[350]
A.cerana	...AA..AT.C.-	-.A.A.....GA..T....	[350]
A.nigrocin	...AA..GT.C..	-.A.A.....GA..AT....	[350]
A.koschevn	...A...AT.C.T	-.T.AA....	...A..TAG.	.A..ATT...	[350]
A.laboriosA.T...	ATAT--.T.A	...TGAT.T.	.AGA..GA.A	[350]
A.d.binghaT...A-	-.ATA..T.A	...TGATAT.	.AGA...A.A	[350]
A.dorsata	...A..A..A-	---TA.-T.-	--.TTG....	.AGA..TA.A	[350]
A.florea-T.AT.T	T.A.....TAG.AT.GAA	[350]
A.andrenifT	T.A..A....TA..T.A.A	[350]
T.fimbriatTA..T.AA.	-TT..G...A	C..T.AT.T.	...AATTA.A	[350]
B.terrestr	.GCA-----	--..T----	-----A	C.AA.A..TT	.A.....	[350]
A.mellifer	TTGAATTATA	AATTGTAATT	AAAAGAATAA	ATTACCTTAG	G-ATAACA--	[400]
A.nuluensiC.....	.T..A.G...G.....--	[400]
A.ceranaC.....	.T..A.G...	-.-----	[400]
A.nigrocinC.....	...A.G...G.....--	[400]
A.koschevn	..-.TC....	...A.....G.....--	[400]
A.laboriosT..A.....	.T..G....G.....--	[400]
A.d.binghaT..A.....	.T.....G.....--	[400]
A.dorsataT..A.....	.T.....	-.-----	[400]
A.florea	A...T.....	.T..A...A.	.T.....	-.-----	[400]
A.andrenifTC....	.T..A.....G.....--	[400]
T.fimbriat	A...TC.T..	.T..AA...A	TTT.....G.....--	[400]
B.terrestr	-----AATAT	.TA..AG.CA	----.TG..T	..CT.A...A	CTC.TT..TT	[400]

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A.mellifer GCGTAATATC TTTTGATAGA CCATATAGAT AAAGATG-TT TGCGACCTCG [450]
A.nuluensi ..... C..T... .....-.. [450]
A.cerana ..... C..T... .....-.. [450]
A.nigrocin ..... C..T... .....-.. [450]
A.koschevn ..... T... .....-A. [450]
A.laborios ..... A.. [450]
A.d.bingha ..... C..... -A. [450]
A.dorsata ..... T..... -A. [450]
A.florea ..... G T..... T... .....-A. [450]
A.andrenif ..... T...T... .....-A. [450]
T.fimbriat .....CT .....T..... C.....A ...AG...-A. [450]
B.terrestr C.AGTT.T.A A..AA.A.AC AAT.GATT-A TGCT.CCT.. GTAC.GTCAA [450]

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A.mellifer ATGTTGAATT AAGATGAAAA TTAGGCGCAG TAGTTTAAGT TTTTAAGTCT [500]
A.nuluensi .....GA...G ...AA..... G.....AA ..... [500]
A.cerana .....GA...G ...AA..... G.....AA ..... [500]
A.nigrocin .....GA...G ...AA..... G.....AA ..... [500]
A.koschevn .....A..... A.....AA A..... [500]
A.laborios .....T.... ...AA..... A.....A- ....G..... [500]
A.d.bingha .....T.... ...AAT.... A.....A- ....G..... [500]
A.dorsata .....T...G ...AAT.... A.....A- ....G..... [500]
A.florea .....A.... ...AAT.... G.....T. A..... [500]
A.andrenif .....G.A.... ...AAT.... G.....T. A..... [500]
T.fimbriat .....A..TT ...AA..... G.....TA A-..... [500]
B.terrestr T.A.ACCGCA --.CCATTT. A.TATTTA.A ATCA..GG.C AGAATT.A.. [500]

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A.mellifer G [501]
A.nuluensi . [501]
A.cerana . [501]
A.nigrocin . [501]
A.koschevn . [501]
A.laborios . [501]
A.d.bingha . [501]
A.dorsata . [501]
A.florea . [501]
A.andrenif . [501]
T.fimbriat . [501]
B.terrestr T [501]

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CHAPTER 4. General Discussion

My research has focussed on honey bee molecular research. In Chapter 2, I added to the characterization of *itpr* gene expressed in the *Apis mellifera* brain. Then, using *itpr* and two other mitochondrial genes, I extended the resolution of honey bee molecular phylogenetics, as described in Chapter 3. In this chapter, I discussed aspects of honey bee behavioural evolution in the light of the molecular phylogeny, and some implications of this work for current questions in molecular evolution.

Putative PKA and PKC phosphorylation sites in *itpr*

My study extended the *itpr* sequence derived by Kamikouchi et al. (1998) by exploring both genomic and cDNA sequences. I investigated several functional motif sites in the IP₃ Receptor (IP₃R) protein, which is encoded by the gene *itpr*. Putative PKA and PKC phosphorylation sites were included in these investigations as well.

Protein phosphorylation plays an important role in regulating many cellular processes particularly those of signal transduction. One major phosphorylation requirement is the protein kinase (Hunter 1995). PKA or cAMP-dependent protein kinase is the major mediator cAMP reaction (Taylor et al. 1990). cAMP signalling pathways contribute to learning and memory processes as reported in *Drosophila* (Davis 1993), honey bee (Hammer 1997), *Aplysia* (Kandel and Schwartz 1982) and mammals (Abel et al. 1997). While PKA is important in honey bee short term memory, PKC is important for its role in the long-term memory of this insect (Menzel and Giurfa 2001).

Of the two PKA isoforms in existence, only isoform II is the type that has been characterised in the honey bee (Muller 1997). However, because PKA and PKC phosphorylation sites observed in honey bee *itpr* were based on motif searches from protein family databases further biochemical analyses are needed in order to determine the isoform type. In addition, the position of PKA and PKC phosphorylation sites observed in modulatory domains implicated their function as regulating calcium channel opening. I propose that research in this area would clarify the role of these two *itpr* kinases in calcium release from endoplasmic reticulum storage.

Itpr amino acid sequences showed high conservation between honey bee and other vertebrates and invertebrates. Exon evolution is constrained because exons encode amino acid sequences, hence there is little potential for change (Lewin 1993). Changes mostly involve substitution in the third base position, and thus many changes do not affect codon meanings (Nei and Kumar 2000). This phenomenon is well supported by the current study.

On the other hand, intron divergence patterns involve both size difference (due to deletion and insertion) and base substitution. This situation exists because introns evolve much more rapidly than exons (Li 1997) due to the lack of the functional constraints of the latter. In the honey bee *itpr* shows large changes in the case of introns divergence in *A. koschevnikovi* 3rd and *B. terrestris* 4th introns, where both introns are approximately 60–78 bp longer than other homologous introns from other species.

High intron divergence is due to the absence of constraints imposed of coding functions and therefore intron is able to accumulate point substitution and other changes quite freely. Such changes imply that introns have few in any sequence-specific functions (Lewin 1993). A review of nuclear gene evolution found that the highest average rate substitution is for pseudogenes, with introns second in substitution rates (Li 1997).

Comparative analysis of intron position

In my study of *A. mellifera itpr* intron evolution, I conducted a comparative study with that of *Drosophila* introns (Sinha and Hasan 1999). It was found that of the two introns shared the same position along aligned sequences. *A. mellifera* revealed four unique introns that were absent in *D. melanogaster*. However, intron positions in *Drosophila* were not obtained from genomic walking sequence data. Rather, introns positions were obtained by using a series of oligonucleotide primers (Sinha and Hasan 1999). Intron size was determined according to the difference between genomic and cDNA PCR product size. Three of the predicted introns (those at position 2082, 3302 and 3783 were completely sequenced while the other three were not (Sinha and Hasan 1999).

Hence, comparative data of *Apis* and *Drosophila* introns could not be very precise because the imperfect knowledge of the latter. Information on *C. elegans* (nematode)

intron positions is available as well, but without size information (Baylis et al. 1999). *C. elegans* has two introns at the *itpr* alignments among *A. mellifera*, *D. melanogaster* and *C. elegans*. However, none of those two *C. elegans* introns are shared at the same position any of either *A. mellifera* or *Drosophila*.

Ideally, to understand *itpr* intron insertion or intron gain we need intron data from other organisms such as *P. argus* (lobster), rat, and humans. As these are obtained, we can infer intron ancestral positions. According to the “intron late” theory, intron insertion takes place during eukaryote evolution (Palmer and Logsdon 1991), thus implying that intron insertion is a derived trait. On the other hand according to the “introns early” theory, most introns are lost from ancestral genes (Gilbert 1997). If this is the case, intron absence is a secondary, but in the “introns late” theory, intron absence is an inferred primitive trait.

Honey bee molecular phylogenetics

A molecular phylogenetic tree of *Apis* was constructed using a nuclear (*itpr*) and two mitochondrial DNA (*COII* and *lsRNA*) genes. Several features differentiate mtDNA and nuclear genes, for example mtDNA evolves at a rate tenfold faster than nuclear DNA (Page and Holmes 1998). Because differences such as mtDNA are maternally inherited, there is a lack of recombinant in this gene, compared to nuclear genes such as biparentally inherited. *COII* is a region in mitochondria that evolve quickly (Simon et al. 1994). It has been used in many studies, and has proved itself to be appropriate for inferred evolution of closely-related species (Thompson et al. 2000). *lsRNA* in mitochondrial genes has also been widely used in several studies (Dowton et al. 1998).

If well supported molecular phylogenies have been established for specific taxa, the taxonomic distribution of behavioural aspects can elucidate evolutionary origins and directional change of such characteristics (Avice 1994). This theory also implies that mapping characteristics for the purpose of tracing evolutionary patterns of a certain trait must be conducted from independently of the data to be mapped, such as molecular data (Avice 1994). Thus, I inferred honey bee behavioural evolution onto ML and MP consensus tree based on the three concatenated genes.

The phylogenetic tree from my study extended the knowledge of the relationship among to the known of nine *Apis* species. It was concurred that that the monophyletic *Apis* genus are split further into two lines that is the cavity and the open honey bee nesters. However, another tree topology revealed from my study was in agreement with the morphology results of Alexander (1991) for the common species. Further, the *COII* phylogenetic tree analysis from this study resolved the problem with respect to the Willis et al. (1992) *A. koschevnikovi* sequence.

Adapted honey bee behavioural traits

“Adaptation” refers to “design” in life-those properties of living things that enable them to survive and reproduce in nature“ (Ridley 1996)

In Chapter 3, I concluded that neither of the two theories of the evolution of *Apis* nesting behaviour could be ruled out - ancestrally, nesting could have been either in the open or cavities because these alternate scenarios are equally parsimonious. In considering the evolution of dance behaviour, it is apparent that, among the open nesters, only *A. florea* and *A. andreniformis* perform horizontal dance. The other open nesters, *A. dorsata* group honey bees perform a vertical dance. Open nest dwarf honey bees (*A. florea* and *A. andreniformis*) have an open space at the top of the nest, which is used for building a platform nest region, facilitates their horizontal dance. A different nest construction occurs in *A. dorsata* group; their open nest has no open space at the top of nest. *A. dorsata* group nests are directly attached to a substrate (i.e. branch, roof, and cave). Therefore, it is possible that due to being no possibility of a horizontal platform, *A. dorsata* evolved a vertical dance at the nest curtain. Hence, it is most likely that the vertical dance evolved because of constraint facing bees such as giant honey bee and was then shown in the ancestral to the *A. mellifera* group. Given those phenomena, honey bee dance behaviour shows its adaptation to nest structure and demonstrates a correlation between those two behaviour traits.

It is tempting to suggest that the common ancestor of the *A. dorsata* and *A. mellifera* groups evolved vertical dancing because of the constraint facing the giant honey bee today. The horizontal dance of *A. florea* can proceed when the sky is not visible from

the dance arena or during the cloudy days, due to the ability of *A. florea* to use landmarks as their compass (Koeniger et al. 1982; Dyer 1984). However, in Dyer (1984) in the same experiments as before, he observed that several foragers does not dance pointed to the direction of the food source. The disoriented dance of some open nesters implied that celestial cues are needed in some stage as the open nesters compass. A more detailed study of a horizontal dance behavioural data in a completely dark cavity (as in the tree trunk) is sought-after. This information is crucial, in order to test the idea that the vertical dance is necessary before honey bees (specifically the *A. mellifera* group) could become cavity nesters.

Multi-comb nesting is another trait associated with cavity nesters while single comb nesting occur in open nests (Ben Oldroyd, personal communication). Single comb nests are covered with several curtain layers whereas in multi comb nests a single layer is formed to cover each comb. In an attempt to study the advantages of cavity nests, Dyer and Seeley (1991) measured honey bee worker tempo, which includes body temperature, flight speed, wing loading and mass specific metabolic rates. These authors found that the cavity nesters have higher tempos (high body temperature, flight speed, wing loading and mass specific metabolic rates) compared to the open nesting honey bees. Although a higher tempo brings a cost (a shorter life span, resulting in fewer workers available for the nest protection), it is relatively unimportant for honey bees, because cavity walls are provided to reduce the need for protection. Hence, it appears that *Apis* evolution involved reversal of nesting behaviour because of the more efficient life style allowed cavity nesters.

Evolution of open nesting and cavity nesting is influenced by honey bee ecology and distribution (Seeley 1983). Thermoregulatory ability exists in both open and cavity nesting behaviour as the result of environmental adaptation. *A. florea* and *A. andreniformis* compensate for high nest temperatures by using water drops and fanning behaviour to cool the nest. At high temperatures, honey bees within the colony will spread instead of remaining in tight cluster (Wilson 1971). Others, such as *A. mellifera* acquired sophisticated thermoregulation techniques for survival in temperate regions.

To heat the colony, the foragers contract their muscle to produce heat while large amount of honey is stored during the winter season (Winston 1987).

A phylogenetic hypothesis underlies conclusions made about comparative evolution (Harvey and Pagel 1991). In addition, in phylogenetic mapping, the general goal is to distinguish whether shared features arose through common ancestry or through convergent evolution from unrelated ancestors (Avice 1994). Hence, for my future research project, I propose to study the behaviour of stingless bees, because these corbiculate bee type displays advanced eusociality. Stingless bees show various open-, cavity- and ground-nesting, and it would be interesting to determine using molecular phylogeny whether groups with the same behaviours evolved independently in each lineage thus producing a convergent evolution. Comprehensive stingless bee molecular phylogeny is required in order to infer such behaviour.

“Phylogeny is in large part the history of branching or speciation and extinction”

(Maddison and Maddison 1992)

My study has added further information to the area of honey bee molecular phylogenetics. On the basis of the phylogenetics constructed in my study, it can be inferred that *A. nigrocincta* is the result of recent speciation from *A. cerana*. It is possible that sympatric speciation occurred because both species are found in regions only 12 km apart (Hadisoesilo et al. 1995). On the other hand, it is likely for allopatric speciation (Page and Holmes 1998) took place yielding *A. nuluensis*, the montane Sabah honey bee, from *A. cerana* because they are separated by altitude (Tingek et al. 1996). Further population genetic work may explore the biogeography of *A. nigrocincta* and *A. nuluensis* in relation to *A. cerana*.

A. nigrocincta in Sulawesi and in adjacent islands (Sangihe) revealed differences in mitochondrial DNA (mtDNA) haplotypes (Smith et al. 2000). However, there do not appear to be any studies involving distribution of *A. koschevnikovi*, the Borneo honey bee. Because Borneo was connected to Palawan during the mid or late Pleistocene (Heaney 1986), I assumed that *A. koschevnikovi* was also distributed in Palawan, as similar distribution patterns to *A. andreniformis* were evident in both regions (de

Guzman et al. 1992). Further *A. koschevnikovi* exploration needs to be undertaken in order to investigate its distribution and also the genetic population structure of this species.

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