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A genetic signature of the evolution of loss of flight in the Galapagos cormorant

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Abstract

We have a limited understanding of the genetic and molecular basis of evolutionary changes in the size and proportion of limbs. We studied wing and pectoral skeleton reduction leading to flightlessness in the Galapagos cormorant (*Phalacrocorax harrisi*). We sequenced and *de novo* assembled the genomes of four cormorant species and applied a predictive and comparative genomics approach to find candidate variants that may have contributed to the evolution of flightlessness. These analyses and cross-species experiments in *C. elegans* and in chondrogenic cell lines implicated variants in genes necessary for transcriptional regulation and function of the primary cilium. Cilia are essential for Hedgehog signaling, and humans affected by skeletal ciliopathies suffer from premature bone growth arrest, mirroring skeletal features associated with loss of flight.

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Introduction

The evolution of loss of flight is one the most recurrent limb modifications encountered in nature (1). In fact, Darwin used the occurrence of flightless birds as an argument in favor of his theory of natural selection (2). He proposed that loss of flight could evolve selection in favor of larger bodies and relaxed selection due to the absence of predators. Loss of flight has evolved repeatedly, and is found among 26 families of birds in 17 different orders (1). Moreover, recent studies strongly suggest that the ratites (ostriches, emus, rheas, cassowaries and kiwis), long thought to derive from a single flightless ancestor, may constitute a polyphyletic group characterized by multiple independent instances of loss of flight and convergent evolution (3–5). However, despite the ubiquity and evolutionary importance of loss of flight (6), the underlying genetic and molecular mechanisms remain unknown.

The Galapagos cormorant (*Phalacrocorax harrisi*) is the only flightless cormorant among approximately 40 extant species (7). The entire population is distributed along the coastlines of Isabela and Fernandina Islands in the Galapagos archipelago. *P. harrisi* has a pair of short wings, which are smaller than those of any other cormorant (Fig. 1A); a deviation from the allometric relationship between wing length and body mass (7). The radius and ulna are disproportionally small compared to the humerus, but no digits have been fused or lost, unlike in some ratites (8). In addition, the Galapagos cormorant differs from its flighted relatives in a delay in the onset of several developmental landmarks after hatching (9), shortened remiges (flight feathers), underdeveloped pectoral muscles, a long and narrow skull and pelvis, a disproportionally long tibiotarsus, a 1.6-fold increase in body mass, and a highly reduced keel (7). The keel is an extension of the sternum that runs along its midline and provides an attachment surface for the flight muscles, the largest muscles in birds. Flightless taxa, such as ratites and Cretaceous *Hesperornis* have evolved flat sternums in which the keel has been largely reduced or lost (10).

In contrast to ratites and penguins, which became flightless over 50 million years ago (MYA) (5, 11), the Galapagos cormorant and its flighted relatives are estimated to share a common ancestor ~2 MYA (12). This recent and extreme modification of wing size and pectoral skeleton makes *P. harrisi* an attractive model to study loss of flight.

High-quality genome sequences of four cormorant species

To identify variants associated with loss of flight, we sequenced and *de novo* assembled the 1.2 Gb genomes of the Galapagos cormorant (Galapagos Islands, Ecuador) and three flighted cormorant species: the Double–crested cormorant (*Phalacrocorax auritus*; Minnesota, USA), the Neotropical cormorant (*Phalacrocorax brasilianus*; Valdivia, Chile), and the Pelagic cormorant (*Phalacrocorax pelagicus*; Alaska, USA). *P. auritus* and *P. brasilianus* are the closest relatives of *P. harrisi* (12–14), and *P. pelagicus* is part of a sister clade and served as an outgroup. Genomes were assembled from a combination of short insert and mate-pair Illumina libraries with SOAPdenovo2 (15) (table S1). Among these four genomes, the Galapagos cormorant's assembly had the longest contig and scaffold N50 metrics (contig N50: 103 kb; scaffold N50: 4.6 Mb; table S1B). We evaluated the completeness of the cormorants' genomes by estimating the total number of uniquely

annotated proteins in each assembly and by using the CEGMA pipeline (16, 17). Overall, we found agreement between these two independent metrics in a dataset including the four cormorant genomes and 17 recently published bird genomes ($r^2 = 0.75$ $P = 4.3\times10^{-07}$; Fig. 1B and table S2).

Interestingly, commonly used metrics of assembly quality, such as contig and scaffold N50, were very poor predictors of the total number of proteins present in each assembly ($r^2 = 0.13$ $P = 0.15$ and $r^2 = 0.06$ $P = 0.81$; fig. S1; table S2). Three of the four cormorant genomes (*P. harrisi, P. auritus* and *P. pelagicus*) obtained the highest CEGMA scores and number of uniquely annotated genes among all bird genomes (red triangles, Fig. 1B). The following CEGMA scores, a means to predict gene annotation, were obtained for the cormorants: *P. harrisi*, 90.3%; *P. auritus*, 91.3%; *P. brasilianus*, 72.6%; *P. pelagicus*, 87.1%. In contrast, Sanger and PacBio genomes had lower scores for other birds: *Gallus gallus* (Sanger assembly) (18), 80.7%; *Taeniopygia guttata* (Sanger assembly) (19), 71.4%; and *Melopsittacus undulatus* (PacBio assembly) (20), 79.0%. Thus, our cormorant genomes perform even better than genomes assembled from Sanger sequences and PacBio long reads (complete statistics in table S2).

Phylogeny and genetic diversity

We reconstructed the cormorant phylogeny using a Bayesian framework (17), confirming the phylogenetic relationship among the four sequenced species (Fig. 1C). Moreover, our results indicate that *P. harrisi* last shared a common ancestor with *P. auritus* and *P. brasilianus* ~2.37 MYA, in agreement with an estimate from mitochondrial DNA (12) (Fig. 1C). The oldest extant island in the Galapagos archipelago, Española, emerged at most 4 MYA, and proto-Galapagos islands existed at least 9 MYA (21). Our results are consistent with the view that *P. harrisi* lost the ability to fly while inhabiting the archipelago.

We calculated the proportion of single nucleotide polymorphism (SNP) heterozygous sites for each sequenced individual to estimate the levels of intra-specific genetic diversity (Fig. 1D). *P. harrisi* showed the lowest proportion of heterozygous SNPs among the sequenced cormorants (0.00685%; Fig. 1D). The heterozygosity of *P. harrisi* is even lower than that of the Crested Ibis, *Nipponia nippon*, highly endangered bird with a small effective population size and a known recent population bottleneck (22) (0.0172%; Fig. 1D). The low level of heterozygosity found in the Galapagos cormorant is most likely due to its small population size (~1,500 individuals) and multiple population bottlenecks (23).

Discovery and characterization of function-altering variants in *P. harrisi*

To investigate the genetics of flightlessness evolution, we developed a comparative and predictive genomics approach (24, 25) that uses the genome sequences of *P. harrisi* and its flighted relatives to identify genetic variants that likely contributed to the evolution of loss of flight. Both coding and *cis*-regulatory variants have been implicated in the evolution of morphological traits (26, 27). However, determining the impact of regulatory variants is not straightforward. To identify the contribution of regulatory variants to the evolution of loss of flight in *P. harrisi*, we searched for ultra-conserved noncoding sequences showing

accelerated molecular evolution (28–30). We identified eleven ultra-conserved noncoding regions in tetrapods that show accelerated evolution in *P. harrisi* but not in the other cormorants (False Discovery Rate (FDR) < 5%). One of these regions was located in an intron of the gene FTO (fig. S2), which been associated with obesity in humans (31); however, none of these regions overlapped with experimentally validated or putative mouse limb enhancers (17, 32, 33) (table S7).

We thus focused on characterizing coding variants because we are better able to predict their molecular consequences. For our variant discovery approach to be comprehensive, it was imperative to interrogate most of the Galapagos cormorant's genes. To increase our power to do so, we annotated genes using homology-based and transcriptome-based gene annotations. The latter was derived with mRNA expression data from the developing wing of a double-crested cormorant embryo (fig. S3C) (17). We then predicted all missense, deletion, and insertion variants in ortholog pairs between *P. harrisi* and each of its three flighted relatives (fig. S4) (17).

We used PROVEAN (34), a phylogeny-corrected variant effect predictor, to evaluate the impact on protein function of each of the Galapagos cormorant's variants on a genome-wide scale. PROVEAN predictions have been validated in experimental evolution studies that mimic the process of gradual accumulation of mutations in nature (35). A PROVEAN score is calculated for each variant; the more negative the score, the more likely a given variant is to alter protein function. We examined the distribution of PROVEAN scores obtained when comparing 12,442 ortholog pairs between *P. harrisi* and *P. auritus* (Fig. 2A). Of these, 4,959 pairs (40%) did not contain coding variants; the remaining 7,483 pairs contained a total of 23,402 coding variants: 22,643 single amino acid substitutions, 456 deletions, and 303 insertions (Fig. 2B). Most variants were predicted to be neutral (the distribution is centered around zero). As expected, deletion and insertions were enriched in the tails of the distribution (Fig. 2B). Very similar numbers of variants and PROVEAN score distributions were obtained for the other homology-based (fig. S5) and transcriptome-based annotations (fig. S3).

Enrichment for genes mutated in skeletal ciliopathies

To identify proteins carrying function-altering variants in the Galapagos cormorant, we applied a stringent threshold to our four prediction datasets: PROVEAN score < −5, two times the threshold for human disease variants discovery (17, 34) (Fig. 2A). In our dataset, variants with a PROVEAN score < −5 typically occur at residues that have been perfectly conserved at least since mammals and birds last shared a common ancestor (~300 MYA; fig. S6). Consequently, changes in these residues are likely to alter protein function or stability.

On the basis of theoretical and experimental considerations (36), we hypothesized that flightlessness is likely to have a polygenic basis and that the underlying variants would be enriched in certain biological pathways. Consistent with this hypothesis, gene enrichment analysis of function-altering variants in the Galapagos cormorant revealed that genes implicated in human developmental disorders were significantly overrepresented (17) (table S3A). Strikingly, 8 out of the 19 significantly enriched categories consisted of genes

implicated in disorders affecting limb development, such as polydactyly, syndactyly, and duplication of limb bones. Control analyses showed no enrichment of these categories in the flighted cormorants (17) (table S3B, S3C).

Many of the genes underlying the enrichment for limb syndromes are those mutated in a family of human disorders known as ciliopathies. For instance, 17 out of 25 genes (65%) in the "duplication of hand bones" category and 12 out of 12 genes (100%) in the "preaxial hand polydactyly" category are mutated in human ciliopathies (table S4). Moreover, ciliopathy-associated genes were present in all of the enriched categories (table S4). Ciliopathies compromise a phenotypically diverse group of rare genetic disorders that result from defects in the formation or function of cilia (37).

Cilia are hair-like microtubule-based structures that are nucleated by the basal body (centriole and associated proteins) and project from the surface of cells. Primary cilia are essential for mediating Hedgehog (Hh) signaling in vertebrates, serving as antennae for morphogens during development (38). We confirmed by Sanger sequencing the presence of predicted function-altering variants in *Ofd1*, *Evc*, *Talpid3*, *Dync2h1*, *Ift122, Wdr34,* and *Kif7,* all of which are necessary for the assembly or functioning of the primary cilium and are mutated in human ciliopathies, particularly those affecting the skeleton (Table 1). We also found a likely function-altering variant in *Gli2*, a transcription factor necessary for Hh signaling (39) (Table 1). Humans affected by diverse skeletal ciliopathies have small limbs and rib cages (37), suggesting a parallel with the main features of the Galapagos cormorant: small wings and a flattened sternum. However, the consequences of ciliopathies in humans are often more severe and pleotropic, likely as a consequence of the overrepresentation of loss of function alleles in patients (40). Interestingly, although ciliopathies do not exclusively affect the forelimb in humans, differences between forelimbs and hindlimbs are commonly found among patients. For example, digital abnormalities affect the hands more often than the feet of Oral-facial-digital syndrome Type I (40, 41) and Ellis van Creveld (42) patients, suggesting that forelimbs and hindlimbs differ in their intrinsic sensitivity to ciliary dysfunction.

The Galapagos cormorant ortholog of human OFD1 (mutated in Oral-facial-digital syndrome 1) contains three predicted function-altering variants with PROVEAN score < −5 (R325C −6.913, K517T −5.673 and E889G −5.068; fig. S6A and S6B). *Ofd1* knockout mice display polydactyly and shortened long bones (43). Also, a function-altering missense variant (Q691L −5.491) was found in IFT122, a component of the IFT complex that controls ciliogenesis and the ciliary localization of Shh pathway regulators (44). Null *Ift122* mutants show severe limb and skeletal phenotypes in mice (45), and mutations in *Ift122* have been associated with Sensenbrenner Syndrome in humans, which is characterized by craniofacial, ectodermal, and skeletal abnormalities, including limb shortening (46). Strikingly, the mutated glutamine in IFT122 is virtually invariant among eukaryotes ranging from green algae, *C. elegans,* and Drosophila to vertebrates (fig. S6C). To directly test whether the non-synonymous substitution in IFT122 affects protein function, we generated a *C. elegans* knock-in strain using CRISPR/Cas9 homology directed genome editing (Fig 3A). The edited strain carries the Galapagos cormorant missense variant at the corresponding orthologous position in *daf-10* (Q862L), the ortholog of IFT122 in *C. elegans* (47).

In invertebrates, cilia do not mediate Shh signaling but are necessary for detecting external sensory inputs (48). The only ciliated cells in *C. elegans* are sensory neurons and mutations in cilia components affect dispersal behavior, chemotaxis, and dauer formation (49). We tested the bordering behavior of worms -accumulation of animals on the thickest part of a bacterial lawn- which is known to be mediated by ciliated neurons (50). We found that *daf-10(e1387)* mutants carrying a premature stop (Q869X) displayed an increased bordering behavior in a dispersal assay compared to wild type (73% for *daf-10(e1387)* vs. 30% for N2; P = 0.019, t-test, Fig. 3B, C, E). Two independently generated *daf-10* Q862L knock-in lines phenocopied the effect of the premature stop allele (70% for line 1 and 69% for line 2 vs. 30% for N2; P = 0.018 and P = 0.016 respectively; Fig. 3B, D, E; see movie S1). *Daf-10(e1387)* ciliary neurons fail to incorporate fluorescent dyes, like many other loss of function mutants in cilia components (49). In contrast, the *daf-10* Q862L knock-in worms incorporated the DiO dye like wild type worms, suggesting that this allele is hypomorphic (fig. S7). Overall, these results indicate that the IFT122 Q691L missense variant present in the Galapagos cormorant can affect protein function *in vivo* in *C. elegans.*

The Planar Cell Polarity (PCP) pathway exhibits a genetic link to cilia (38, 51–53). We found function-altering variants in members of the PCP pathway in *P. harrisi*: Fat1 atypical cadherin (*Fat1*), Dachsous cadherin-related 1 (*Dchs1*) and Disheveled-1 (*Dvl1*) (Table 1). The Galapagos Cormorant FAT1 contains two function-altering variants (S1717L and Y2462C, Table 1). The mutated serine and tyrosine are conserved from zebrafish to humans (fig. S5D). *Fat1* knockout mice show very selective defects in muscles of the upper body, but not in posterior muscles (54). In addition, *Dvl1* is mutated in humans with Robinow syndrome, characterized by limb shortening (55, 56).

Sanger sequencing of 20 Galapagos cormorant individuals from two different populations (Cabo Hammond and Cañones Sur) (57) revealed only homozygous carriers for all of the variants in Table 1, indicating that these variants are most likely fixed in the Galapagos Cormorant. In summary, we found an overrepresentation of predicted function-altering variants in genes that, when mutated in humans and mice, cause skeletal ciliopathies and bone growth defects.

CUX1 is mutated in *P. harrisi*

To identify the most likely function-altering variants in *P. harrisi*, we applied a more stringent PROVEAN score threshold: −12.5 delta alignment score, five times the threshold used for human disease variants discovery (34). This strategy narrowed our search to 23 proteins (0.16% of annotated proteins in *P. harrisi*) (table S5). We manually curated these 23 proteins and performed additional Sanger sequencing, reducing the list of proteins with confirmed or putative variants to 12 (table S5) (17). These variants were exclusively small deletions. Among these 12 proteins, two stood out from their known role in development: LGALS-3 and CUX1. LGALS-3 is affected by a 7 amino acid deletion in *P. harrisi* (PROVEAN score −26.319). LGALS-3 (Galectin-3) is localized at the base of the primary cilium and is necessary for correct ciliogenesis in mice (58), but it has not been implicated in human ciliopathies. Moreover, LGALS-3 physically interacts with SUFU, an important

regulator of mammalian Hh signaling (59), and knockout mice show pleiotropic defects in chondrocyte differentiation (60).

In addition, we found a 4 amino acid deletion (PROVEAN score −15.704) in CUX1. CUX1 (cut-like homeobox 1), also known as CDP, is a highly conserved transcription factor with diverse roles in development. CUX1 contains four DNA binding domains: three CUT domains (CR1–3) and one homeodomain (HD) (Fig. 4A) (61). The full-length isoform, which contains four DNA binding domains (CR1–3HD), acts exclusively as a transcriptional repressor and has rapid and unstable DNA binding dynamics. In contrast, smaller isoforms such as CR2–3HD and CR3HD can act as both repressors and activators of gene expression, and show slow and stable DNA binding dynamics *in vitro* (61). Although insect and bird wings evolved independently, it is interesting to note that *cut*, the Drosophila ortholog of Cux1, is necessary for the proper development of wings and flight muscles in flies (62). In chicken, *Cux1* mRNA expression in the limb at embryonic stage 23 is restricted to the ectoderm bordering the Apical Ectodermal Ridge (AER) (63). The AER is one of the key signaling centers that drive limb development. At later stages, *Cux1* is expressed in the developing joints of both chicken (64) and mice (fig. S8) and is also detected in chondrocytes in developing bones of mice (fig. S9). A function-altering variant in CUX1 is a strong candidate to contribute to loss of flight in *P. harrisi* because adenovirus-mediated overexpression in the developing chicken wing of a form of CUX1 missing the Cut2 DNA binding domain results in severe wing truncation (63, 65). These truncations most strongly affect distal skeletal elements (digits, radius and ulna). Interestingly, in *P. harrisi* the radius and ulna are disproportionately small compared to the humerus (7).

We Sanger-sequenced and confirmed the predicted *Cux1* 12 base pair (bp) deletion in *P. harrisi.* We also confirmed that this variant is fixed in the population and absent in the other cormorant species (fig. S10A). The 12 bp deletion in Cux1 removes four amino acids, AGSQ, immediately adjacent to the C-terminal end of the homeodomain (Fig. 4B). We will refer to this variant as CUX1-Δ4aa. Alignment of CUX1 orthologs from available vertebrate genomes revealed that the 4 missing residues are extremely conserved among tetrapods (Fig. 4B). The deleted serine is phosphorylated in human cells (66), but the consequences of this modification are unknown.

The *Cux1* deletion does not include any of the predicted residues responsible for DNA contact and recognition (67), but given its close proximity to the homeodomain, we decided to test whether the DNA binding activity of CUX1 was affected. We chose to express the CR3HD isoform because western blot analysis revealed that this was the most abundant CUX1 isoform expressed in the developing wing of mallard embryos (~50 kDa; Fig. 4A). We performed Electrophoretic Mobility Shift Assay (EMSA) with purified CR3HD CUX1-Ancestral and CUX1-Δ4aa protein variants (fig. S10B) as previously described (68) and found that DNA binding was not abolished in the deletion variant (fig. S10C). CUX1 is able to both directly repress and activate gene expression through its C-terminal tail (69, 70). We performed a luciferase reporter assay (69, 71) and found that both variants were equally capable of repressing the expression of a UAS/tk *lu*ciferase reporter (Fig. 4D). Thus, the Galapagos cormorant CUX1-Δ4aa variant appears to not affect DNA binding in *vitro* or the C-terminal repression activity in COS-7 cells.

CUX1 regulates the expression of cilia and PCP genes

We hypothesized that the *Cux1* deletion variant is mechanistically related to the enrichment of function-altering variants in ciliopathy-related genes. This inference came from the fact that transgenic mice overexpressing the CUX1-CR3HD isoform develop polycystic kidneys. Cilia in cystic epithelial cells from these animals were twice as long as the ones in control epithelial cells (72). Furthermore, the CUX1-CR2CR3HD isoform has been shown to directly upregulate the expression of *RPGRIPL1,* also known as *FTM*, a component of the cilia basal body that is involved in Shh signaling and mutated in human ciliopathies (73). Also, *Cux1* knockout mice show deregulation of SHH expression in hair follicles (74).

To test whether *Cux1* could globally regulate expression of cilia genes, we analyzed expression array data from human-derived Hs578t cells stably expressing a shRNA against *Cux1*, as well as cells overexpressing the human CUX1-CR2CR3HD isoform (75). In concordance with the role of *Cux1* as a regulator of cell growth and proliferation (76), genes significantly up- or down-regulated in both conditions ($p < 0.05$ and > 1.1 fold change) were enriched for pathways such as “Cell cycle” and “Mitotic G1-G1/S phases” ($P = 3.99\times10^{-5}$ and 0.016, respectively; table S6). Importantly, we also found enrichment for cilia-related categories such as “Assembly of the primary cilium” and “Intraflagellar transport” ($P = 1.2\times10^{-4}$ and 5.7×10^{-3} respectively; table S6). These results suggest that cilia-related genes are enriched among *Cux1* targets.

To further test whether *Cux1* can regulate ciliary genes in an appropriate cellular context, we generated ATDC5 stable lines expressing N-terminal HIS-tagged versions of CR3HD CUX1-Ancestral and CUX1-Δ4aa variants. ATDC5 is a well-characterized mouse chondrogenic cell line that largely recapitulates *in vitro* the differentiation landmarks of chondrocytes (77). We performed quantitative reverse transcription PCR (RT-qPCR) on a selected number of genes containing predicted strong function-altering variants in *P. harrisi* (Table 1) and showing detectable levels of expression in ATDC5 cells. In addition, we measured the expression of *Ptch1*, the receptor of the Hh pathway. Our experiments indicate that the CUX1-Ancestral variant transcriptionally upregulated the expression of *Ofd1* (1.7 fold, $P = 1.2\times10^{-6}$; Fig. 4C) and *Fat1* (1.8 fold, $P = 2.9\times10^{-2}$; Fig. 4C) and downregulated the expression of *Ift122* (0.77 fold, $P = 2.5\times10^{-3}$; Fig. 4C) and *Ptch1* (0.53 fold, $P = 1.4\times10^{-2}$; Fig. 4C) compared to the control line. In contrast, neither *Dync2h1* nor *Wdr34* expression levels were changed by CUX1-Ancestral overexpression (Fig. 4C). These results suggest that cilia and Hh related genes are likely transcriptional targets of CUX1 in chondrocytes.

Impaired transcriptional activity of the Galapagos cormorant CUX1

The Galapagos cormorant CUX1 showed impaired transcriptional activity compared to the ancestral variant. *Ofd1* was significantly upregulated in CUX1-Δ4aa cells compared to control cells (1.2 fold, $P = 2.1\times10^{-2}$, ANOVA and Tukey’s HSD test ; Fig. 4C); however, *Ofd1* upregulation was significantly reduced in CUX1-Δ4aa cells compared to CUX1-Ancestral cells (1.2 vs. 1.7 fold, $P = 6\times10^{-5}$; Fig. 4C). Similarly, although *Fat1* was significantly upregulated in CUX1-Ancestral cells compared to control (1.8 fold, P =

2.9×10^{-2}), *Fat1* expression levels in CUX1-Δ4aa cells were not significantly different from control lines (1.2 fold, P = 0.57; Fig. 4C). The difference between *Fat1* upregulation in CUX1-Δ4aa and CUX1-Δ4aa cells was not significant (1.8 fold vs. 1.3 fold, P = 0.17; Fig. 4C). In contrast, CUX1-Δ4aa cells significantly repressed both *Ift122* (0.78 fold, P = 2.6×10^{-3}) and *Ptch1* (0.56 fold, P = 2.4×10^{-2}) and there were no significant differences between CUX1-Ancestral and CUX1-Δ4aa cells (0.78 fold vs. 0.78 fold for *Ift122*; P = 0.99) and 0.53 fold vs. 0.56 fold for *Ptch1*, P = 0.96; Fig. 4C). These results suggest that the four amino acid deletion in the Galapagos Cormorant CUX1 affects its ability to activate but not to repress gene expression, and are consistent with our luciferase reporter assays, which showed no effect on repression (Fig. 4D). It is notable that both the transcriptional activator (*Cux1*) and its target genes (*Ofd1* and *Fat1*) exhibit function-altering variants in the Galapagos Cormorant.

CR3HD-CUX1 promotes chondrogenesis

Chondrocytes are the main engine of bone growth. The growth of skeletal elements depends on the precise regulation of chondrocyte proliferation and hypertrophy. Mutations that affect cilia result in premature arrest of bone growth due defects in Indian Hedgehog (IHH) signaling in chondrocytes (78). To test the role of CUX1-CR3HD in chondrogenesis, we differentiated control, CUX1-Ancestral and CUX1-Δ4aa ATDC5 cell lines and quantified the expression of *Ihh* and *Sox9*, two well-established markers of chondrocyte differentiation *in vitro* and *in vivo* (78). Overexpression of both CR3HD CUX1-Ancestral and CUX1-Δ4aa variants promoted chondrogenic differentiation of ATDC5 cells after 7 and 12 days of differentiation (Fig. 5A). However, the CUX1-Δ4aa variant was not as efficient as the ancestral variant, showing significant differences from CUX1-Ancestral in Ihh expression after 7 days of differentiation (~50% decrease, P = 5.9×10^{-4}, ANOVA and Tukey's HSD test; Fig. 5A) and in Sox9 expression after 12 days (~15% decrease, P = 1.6×10^{-2}; Fig. 5A). These results suggest that the Galapagos cormorant CUX1 is probably not as effective as the ortholog from its flighted relatives in promoting chondrogenic differentiation, and that mutations in Cux1 may affect the dynamics of chondrogenesis. This observation is further supported by the fact that CUX1 is expressed in the hypertrophic chondrocytes of developing bones in mice, and that the bones of *Cux1* mutant mice are thin and flaky (79)

Possible evolutionary scenarios

Loss of flight has traditionally been attributed to relaxed selection. In this scenario, the first cormorants that inhabited the Galapagos Islands found a unique environment that lacked predators and provided food year-round, drastically reducing the need to migrate. However, we found no evidence for pseudogenization of developmental genes in *P. harrisi* (17) (table S10 and S11). On the other hand, loss of flight in the Galapagos Cormorant is thought to confer an advantage for diving by decreasing buoyancy via shorter wings and by indirectly allowing an increase oxygen storage via larger body size (80). This advantage could make flightlessness a target of positive selection.

We evaluated whether any of our candidate genes (Table 1) showed signatures of positive selection in the Galapagos Cormorant lineage by estimating the ratio of non-synonymous to

synonymous substitutions ($\omega = dN/dS$). This is a very stringent test of selection because it assumes that all sites in a protein are evolving under the same selective pressure, a condition rarely met in highly conserved regulatory genes (81). We found that three out of eleven tested genes showed signs of positive selection ($\omega>1$) in the Galapagos cormorant lineage compared to a background phylogeny of 35 taxa (*Ofd1* ω =1.92, *Evc* ω=1.93, *Gli2* ω=1.10; table S8).

One of these three genes, *Gli2*, showed a statistically significant difference (ω=1.10 (Galapagos branch) vs. ω=0.11 (Background branch), $P = 2.4\times10^{-3}$; table S8). In contrast, *Gli2* showed no sign of selection in the sister group of *P. harrisi* (*P. auritus* and P. *brasilianus*) (ω=0.11 (Galapagos branch) vs. $\omega=1\times10^{-4}$ (Background branch), P = 0.46). As a control, we also analyzed *Gli3,* the partially redundant paralog of *Gli2*, which also mediates Hh signaling but has no predicted function-altering variants in *P. harrisi* and found no evidence for positive selection (ω=0.04 (Galapagos branch) vs. ω=0.15 (Background branch), P = 0.11; table S8). These results suggest that selection towards flightlessness may be partially responsible for the phenotype of *P. harrisi*.

Discussion

The study of evolution of flightlessness in the Rallidae family led to the hypothesis that flightlessness could be a fast-evolving heterochronic condition (10, 82). Heterochrony, the relative change in the rate or timing of developmental events among species, is thought to be an important factor contributing to macroevolutionary change (83). Yet, virtually nothing is known about its genetic and molecular mechanisms.

Diverse myological, osteological, and developmental observations suggest that flightlessness in the Galapagos cormorant is caused by the retention into adulthood of juvenile characteristics affecting pectoral and forelimb development (a class of heterochrony known as paedomorphosis) (7). Here, we propose a genetic and molecular model that may explain this heterochronic condition, where the perturbations of cilia/Ihh signaling may be responsible for the reduction in growth of both wings and keel in the Galapagos cormorant. However, we cannot rule out a role of *Cux1* also in the AER. Of special interest is the gene *Fat1*, a target of *Cux1* (Fig. 4D), which contains two putative function-altering variants (Table 1). *Fat1*$^{-/-}$ mouse mutants are viable and show selective defects in face, pectoral and shoulder muscles but not in in hindlimb muscles (54). Thus, variants in *Fat1* could explain the underdeveloped pectoral muscles of *P. harrisi.*

Although we have identified multiple variants that likely contribute to the flightless phenotype of *P. harrisi*, we cannot exclude that other genes and pathways may contribute to the phenotype, nor the contribution of non-coding regulatory variants (17). Further characterization of the individual and joint contributions of the variants found in this study will help us to reconstruct the chain of events leading to flightlessness and to genetically dissect macroevolutionary change. We hypothesize that mutations in cilia or functionally related genes could be responsible for limb and other skeletal heterochronic transformations in birds and diverse organisms, including humans.

Supplementary Material

Refer to Web version on PubMed Central for supplementary material.

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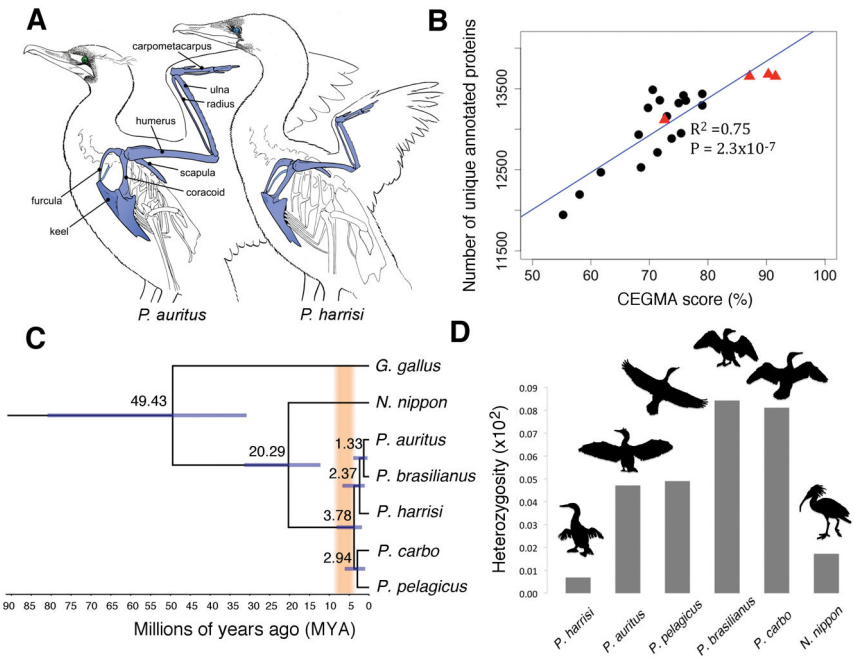

Fig. 1. The Galapagos Cormorant, a model to study flightlessness evolution

(A) The average wing length of an adult Galapagos cormorant male is 19 cm (3.6 kg. body mass), whereas the wing length of its closest relative, the double-crested cormorant, is 31.5 cm. (2.2 kg. body mass). Illustration by Katie Bertsche from specimens 134079 and 151575 from the Museum of Vertebrate Zoology at Berkeley. **(B)** CEGMA score is a good predictor of genome completeness from a gene-centric perspective. Blue line is the linear regression model ($r^2 = 0.75$ $P = 4.3\times10^{-07}$). Genomes reported in this study are red triangles and other published avian genomes are black circles (table S2). **(C)** Bayesian phylogram reconstructed with fourfold degenerate sites from whole genome sequences. The orange bar illustrates the time span between the approximate origin of proto-Galapagos archipelago (9 MYA) and the origin of the oldest extant island, San Cristobal (4 MYA). Nodes represent median divergence ages. Blue bars indicate the 95% Highest Posterior Density (HPD) Interval. **(D)** Heterozygosity levels inferred from whole genome sequences. Birds are not drawn to scale.

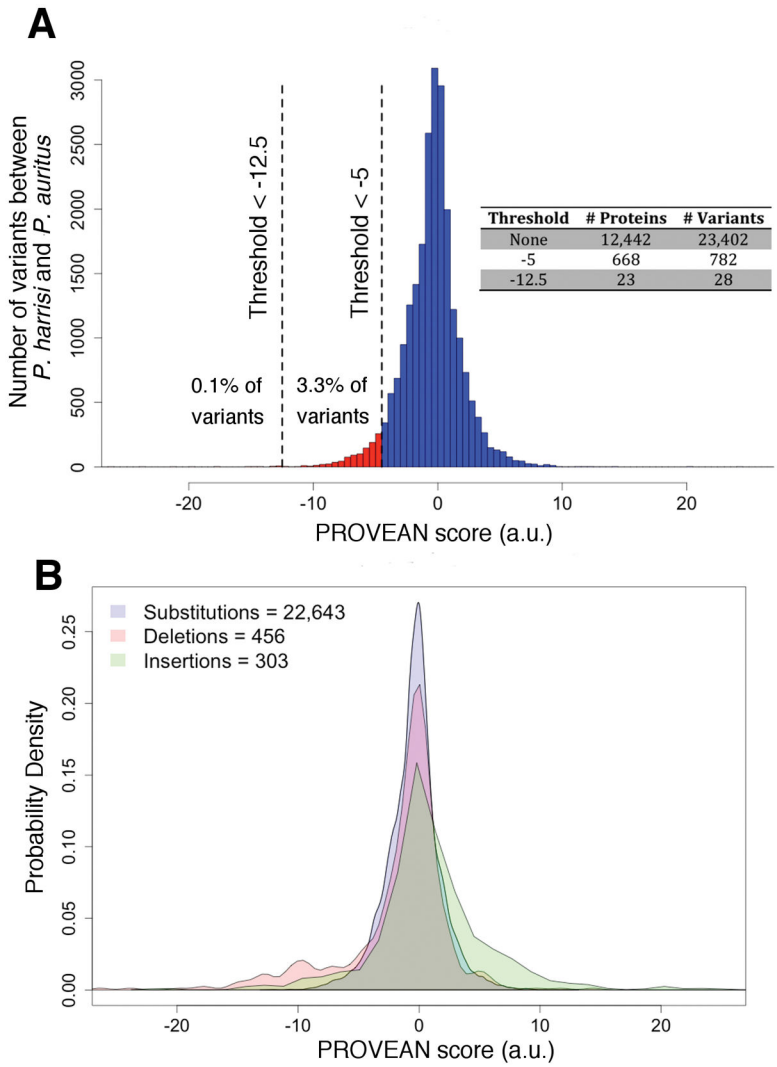

Fig. 2. Distribution of the effect of variants between *P. auritus* and *P. harrisi*

(A) We used PROVEAN to predict the effect on protein function of 23,402 variants contained in 12,449 orthologous pairs between *P. auritus* and *P. harrisi*. 4,966 pairs contained no variants. The more negative the score; the more likely the variant affects protein function. PROVEAN score thresholds used in this study are drawn as vertical dashed lines. Number of proteins and variants found for each threshold are presented in inset table. **(B)** Density of PROVEAN scores for each class of variant. The same variants presented in **(A)** were classified as single amino acid substitutions, deletions, and insertions. Number of variants in each class is indicated in the legend.

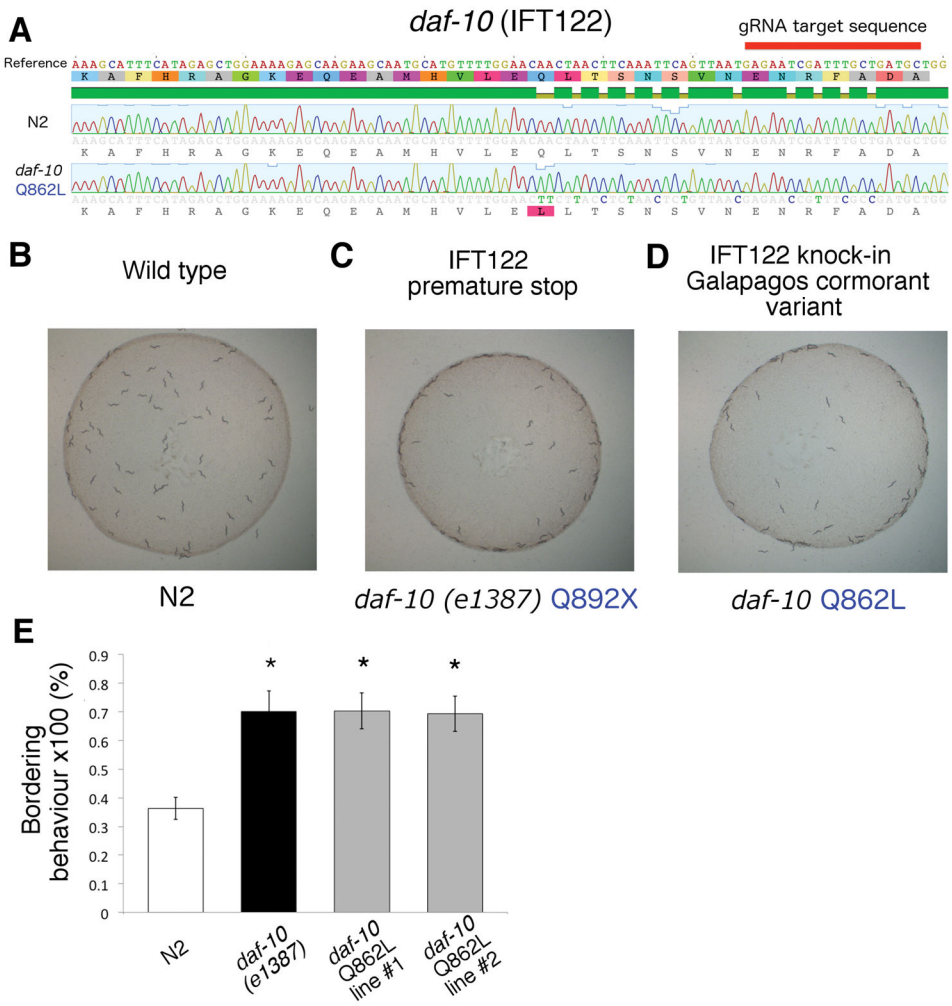

Fig. 3. The Galapagos cormorant variant IFT122 Q691L affects ciliary function *in vivo*

(A) The *daf-10* gene (IFT122 ortholog) was targeted with CRISPR/Cas9 homology mediated repair in *C. elegans* to introduce a non-synonymous substitution present exclusively in the Galapagos Cormorant (IFT122 Q691L). The resulting edited knock-in strain contains the *daf-10* Q862L substitution and ten synonymous substitutions (17). Edited strains were sequenced with Sanger sequencing to confirm genotypes. Representative bordering behavior of **(B)** N2 wild type worms, **(C)** *daf-10(e1387)* containing a premature stop codon Q892X, and **(D)** *daf-10* Q862L knock-in strain. **(E)** Quantification of bordering behavior in N2, *daf-10(e1387)* and two independently generated knock-in) *daf-10* Q862L strains (n=3, t-test, (*) P <0.05).

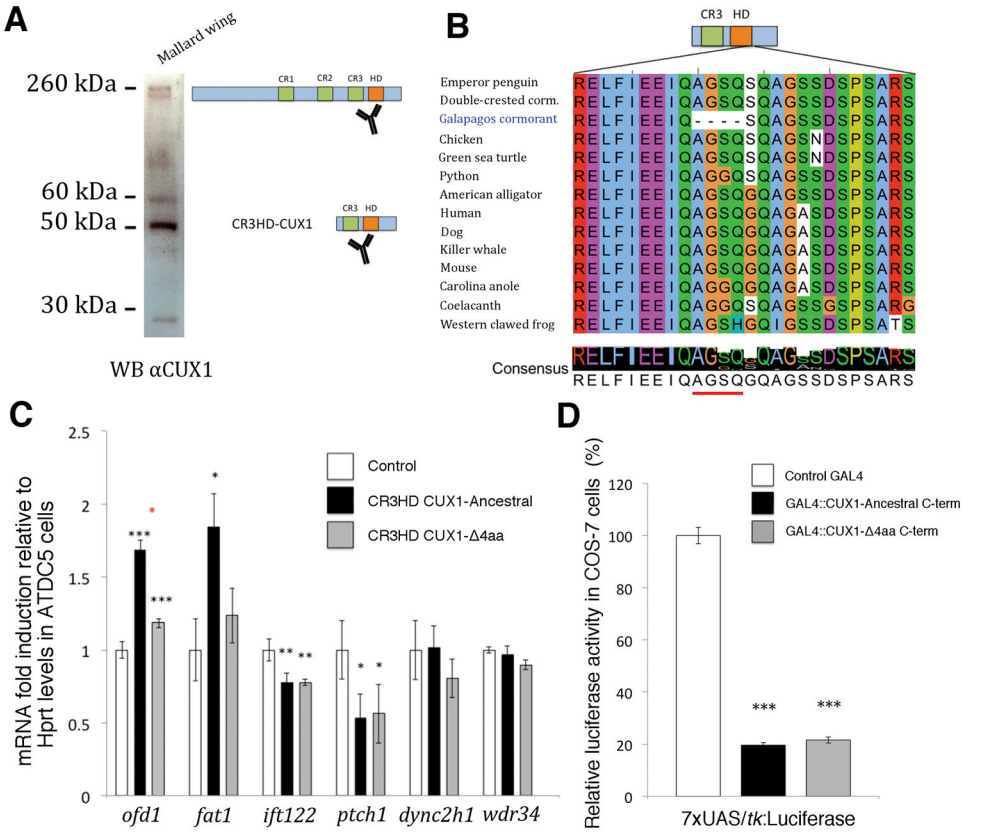

Fig. 4. The Galapagos Cormorant *Cux1* is a transcriptional activation hypomorph

(A) Western blot showing the expression of CUX1 isoforms in the developing wing of a mallard embryo (22 days). The most abundant band corresponds to the predicted size of the CR3HD CUX1 isoform. **(B)** Protein alignment showing the deleted –AGSQ-residues in the Galapagos Cormorant CUX1 and their high degree of conservation among vertebrates. **(C)** Differential up-regulation of genes by CUX1-Ancestral and CUX1-Δ4aa variants in ATDC5 cells. Pooled stable lines carrying CR3HD CUX1-Ancestral or CUX1-Δ4aa variants were generated by lentiviral transduction and puromycin selection. Controls cells were transduced with an empty vector. Gene expression levels were measured by reverse transcriptase quantitative PCR (n=5 biological replicates, each compromising 3 technical replicates). **(D)** Luciferase based assay to test the repression activity of CUX1 C-terminal domain lacking CR3 and HD domains. GAL4 DNA binding domain was fused to CUX1-Ancestral or CUX1-Δ4aa variants. Both constructs equally repressed a promoter containing UAS binding sites in COS-7 cells (n=3 biological replicates, each compromising 3 technical replicates). Gene expression levels were measured by RT-qPCR (n=5 biological replicates, each compromising 3 technical replicates). Error bars indicate standard errors. We used ANOVA and Tukey's HSD to test for statistical significance. Black stars indicate a significant difference between a CUX1 variant and the control. Red starts indicate a significant difference between CUX1-Ancestral and CUX1-Δ4aa variants. Absence of stars indicates no significant difference. (*) P <0.05, (**) P<0.01, and (***) P<0.001

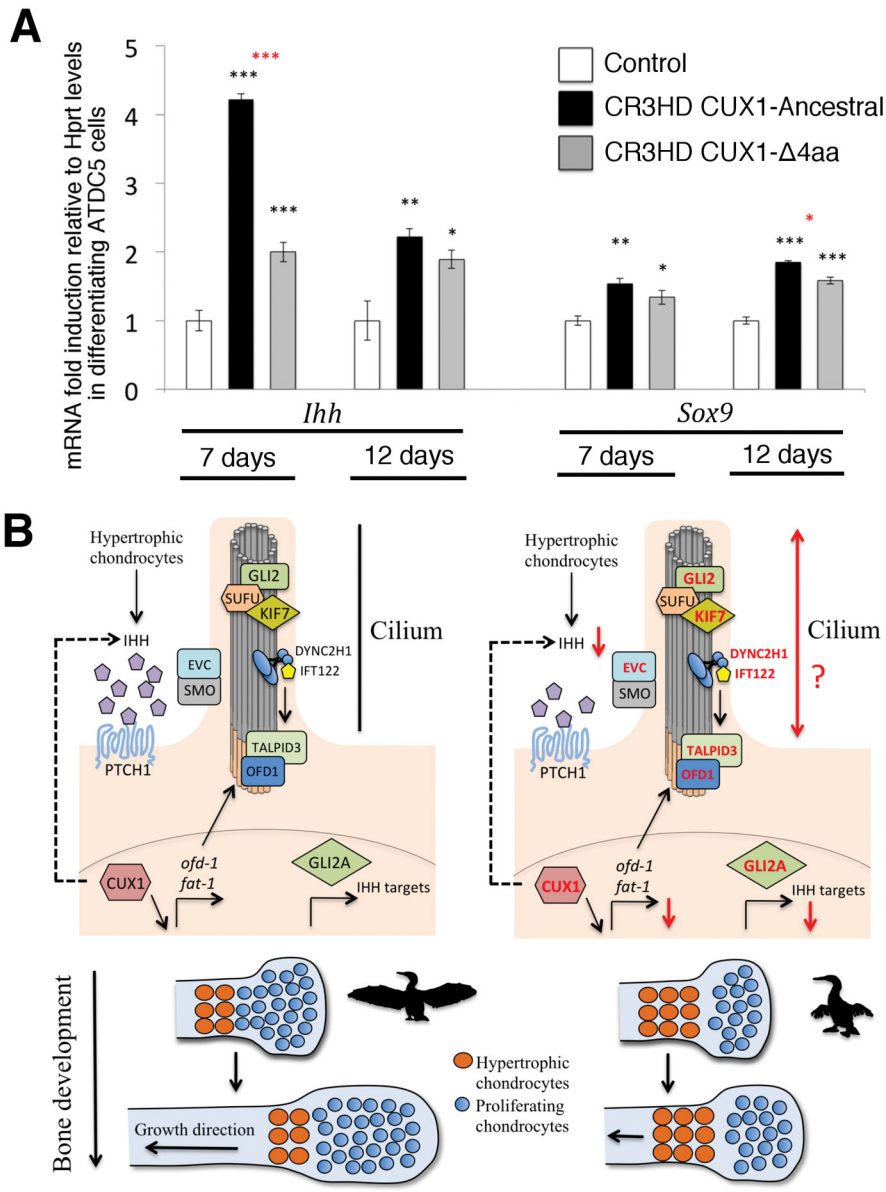

Fig. 5. CR3HD CUX1 promotes chondrogenesis

(A) ATDC5 control cells and cells carrying CR3HD CUX1-Ancestral or CUX1-Δ4aa variants were differentiated into chondrocytes. Gene expression levels were measured by RT-qPCR (n=4 biological replicates, each compromising 3 technical replicates) after 7 and 12 days. Error bars indicate standard errors. We used ANOVA and Tukey's HSD to test for statistical significance. Black stars indicate a significant difference between a CUX1 variant and the control. Red starts indicate a significant difference between CUX1-Ancestral and CUX1-Δ4aa variants. Absence of stars indicates no significant difference. (*) P <0.05, (**) P<0.01, and (***) P<0.001. **(B)** Proposed mechanism for the reduction of wing size in *P. harrisi*. The left panel depicts the normal functioning of IHH signaling pathway in vertebrates. CUX1 regulates the expression of cilia related genes such as *Ofd1* and promotes chondrogenesis. The right panel depicts the state of the IHH pathway in *P. harrisi.* Proteins

in red have predicted function-altering variants in *P. harrisi*. We propose that these variants will affect both cilia formation and functioning leading to a reduction in IHH pathway activity. As a result, the pool of proliferating chondrocytes would decrease in wing bones and the number of hypertrophic chondrocytes would increase resulting in impaired bone growth.

Table 1

Function-altering variants in *P. harrisi* are enriched for genes that cause skeletal ciliopathies in humans.

Gene	Pathway	Variant	PROVEAN score	Human Syndrome
Ofd1	Cilia/Hh	R325C	−6.913	Orofaciodigital and Joubert
		K517T	−5.673	
		E889G	−5.068	
Talpid3	Cilia/Hh	D759V	−7.805	Joubert and Jeune
Evc	Cilia/Hh	T341I	−5.546	Ellias-Van Creveld
Dync2h1	Cilia/Hh	P2733S	−7.431	Short-rib thoracic dysplasia
Ift122	Cilia/Hh	Q691L	−5.491	Cranioectodermal dysplasia
Wdr34	Cilia/Hh	P188R	−6.337	Short-rib thoracic dysplasia
Kif7	Cilia/Hh	R833W	−6.827	Joubert and Acrocallosal
Gli2	Hh	P1086T	−5.117	Culler-Jones
Fat1	PCP	S1717L	−5.858	Facioscapulohumeral Dystrophy (*)
		Y2462C	−8.592	
Dchs1	PCP	G2063D	−6.45	Van Maldergem
Dvl1	PCP	P103L	−8.23	Robinow

Sanger validated examples of function-altering variants (PROVEAN score <−5) in *P. harrisi*. Cilia/Hh related genes were found based on functional enrichment for human syndromes. PCP (Planar cell polarity) genes were selected based on literature evidence linking cilia and PCP. These variant are fixed in the population.

(*) Based on phenotypic similarity to mutant mouse model.