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Phylogeny of *Drosophila* and Related Genera Inferred from the Nucleotide Sequence of the Cu,Zn *Sod* Gene

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Abstract. The phylogeny and taxonomy of the drosophilids have been the subject of extensive investigations. Recently, Grimaldi (1990) has challenged some common conceptions, and several sets of molecular data have provided information not always compatible with other taxonomic knowledge or consistent with each other. We present the coding nucleotide sequence of the Cu,Zn superoxide dismutase gene (*Sod*) for 15 species, which include the medfly *Ceratitis capitata* (family Tephritidae), the genera *Chymomyza* and *Zaprionus*, and representatives of the subgenera *Dorsilopha*, *Drosophila*, *Hirtodrosophila*, *Scaptodrosophila*, and *Sophophora*. Phylogenetic analysis of the *Sod* sequences indicates that *Scaptodrosophila* and *Chymomyza* branched off the main lineage before the major *Drosophila* radiations. The presence of a second intron in *Chymomyza* and *Scaptodrosophila* (as well as in the medfly) confirms the early divergence of these two taxa. This second intron became deleted from the main lineage before the major *Drosophila* radiations. According to the *Sod* sequences, *Sophophora* (including the *melanogaster*, *obscura*, *saltans*, and *willistoni* species groups) is older than the subgenus *Drosophila*; a deep branch splits the *willistoni* and *saltans* groups from the *melanogaster* and *obscura* groups. The genus *Zaprionus* and the subgenera *Dorsilopha* and *Hirtodrosophila* appear as branches of a prolific “bush” that also embraces the numerous species of the subgenus *Drosophila*. The *Sod* results corroborate in many, but not all, respects Throckmorton’s (King, R.C. (ed) *Hand-*

book of Genetics. Plenum Press, New York, pp. 421–469, 1975) phylogeny; are inconsistent in some important ways with Grimaldi’s (*Bull. Am. Museum Nat. Hist.* 197:1–139, 1990) cladistic analysis; and also are inconsistent with some inferences based on mitochondrial DNA data. The *Sod* results manifest how, in addition to the information derived from nucleotide sequences, structural features (i.e., the deletion of an intron) can help resolve phylogenetic issues.

Key words: Superoxide dismutase gene — *Drosophila* phylogeny — Nucleotide sequence — Medfly *Ceratitis capitata* — Intron evolution — G + C content

Introduction

The taxonomy and systematics of *Drosophila* have been the subject of many investigations. A few landmarks are the monographs by Sturtevant (1921), Patterson and Stone (1952), Throckmorton (1975), and Wheeler (1981, 1986). Important recent contributions include a cladistic and revisionist monograph by Grimaldi (1990), and several molecular studies, the most notable and inclusive of which is DeSalle and Grimaldi (1991).

Throckmorton’s (1975) assessment of previous taxonomic, phylogenetic, and biogeographic studies moved him to conclude that the genus *Drosophila* originated in the Old World tropics, probably in Asia. Throckmorton’s other important conclusions include that (1) the first major radiation of the genus is represented by the subgenus *Scaptodrosophila*, primarily distributed throughout the Old World tropics from Africa to Australia and the Pacific, although some species groups

(including *subtilis* and *victoria*) occur in the New World; (2) the radiation of the subgenus *Sophophora* (comprising the *melanogaster*, *obscura*, *saltans*, and *willistoni* groups) preceded the radiation of the subgenus *Drosophila*; (3) the genus *Chymomyza* is part of the *Sophophora* radiation; and (4) the genus *Zaprionus* emerged as part of the *Drosophila* subgenus radiation (which also includes the subgenera *Hirtodrosophila* and *Dorsilopha*).

Grimaldi (1990) has carried out a cladistic analysis of morphological characters and produced a phylogeny that challenges Throckmorton's conclusions in important respects; in particular, Grimaldi places *Chymomyza*, *Zaprionus*, and *Hirtodrosophila* outside the lineage of the genus *Drosophila*. He also places *Scaptodrosophila* outside the *Drosophila*-genus lineage (thus agreeing with Throckmorton) and raises it (as well as *Hirtodrosophila*) to the genus category. DeSalle and Grimaldi (1991) as well as DeSalle (1992) have shown that molecular data (derived particularly from mitochondrial DNA) disagree with some of Grimaldi's (1990) conclusions.

We present here the DNA coding sequence of the gene *Sod* (which codes for the Cu,Zn superoxide dismutase) in 15 species representing the drosophilid genera and subgenera just mentioned. Our results are largely consistent with the phylogenetic relationships proposed by Throckmorton (1975)—more so, in fact, than with those proposed by Grimaldi (1990) or DeSalle and Grimaldi (1991). The propitious discovery of a second intron, present in the medfly *Ceratitis capitata* (family Tephritidae) as well as in *Scaptodrosophila* and *Chymomyza*, places the latter two taxa outside the genus *Drosophila*. The absence of this second intron from *Hirtodrosophila* also locates the branching of this taxon after the split of *Chymomyza* from the genus *Drosophila*, thus contradicting the mtDNA-based conclusion of DeSalle and Grimaldi (1991) and DeSalle (1992).

Materials and Methods

Species. The 15 species studied are listed in Table 1. Strains of *Chymomyza amoena*, *C. procnemis*, *Zaprionus tuberculatus*, *Drosophila busckii*, *D. lebanonensis*, *D. pictiventris*, *D. quinaria*, and *D. virilis* were obtained from the National Drosophila Species Stock Center at Bowling Green, Ohio; *D. hydei* and *D. saltans* were obtained from the Stock Center at Indiana University, Bloomington; other *Drosophila* species derived from cultures available in our laboratory; for the source of the *Ceratitis capitata* DNA see Kwiatowski et al. (1992a).

DNA Preparation, Amplification, Cloning, and Sequencing. We prepared genomic DNA from about 10–20 flies following the method of Kawasaki (1990). The *Sod* gene was amplified by the high-fidelity PCR technique and cloned into plasmids (puc19 or puc21) (Kwiatowski et al. 1991b). Double-stranded DNA templates were sequenced as described earlier (Kwiatowski et al. 1992a). The primers for PCR amplification were designed by comparing available dipteran *Sod* se-

quences, using conserved regions of *Sod* as well as a downstream unidentified gene (Fig. 1). Three oligonucleotides were used for amplification and sequencing (5' → 3'): *N*, CCTCTAGAAATG-TGGTTAAAGCTGTNTGCGT; *C*, CTTGCTGAGCTCGTGTC-CACCCCTGCCCAGATCATC; and *O*, ACGGAAGTCTA-GAAGGGCTTTTGGGCTTTGCCACCTG. Three additional oligonucleotides were used only for sequencing: *I*, GACAT-GCAGCCATTGGTGTGTC; *IR*, GACAACACCAAYGGCTG-CATGTC; and *CR*, CAAGGGTGGACACGAGCTGAGCAAG. The *IR* primer failed in three species (*C. procnemis*, *Z. tuberculatus*, and *D. lebanonensis*), for which it was replaced by *IR140* (TGTA-CTTCGGCAGCTCTGG). In addition we used standard M13 sequencing primers. In some cases (nine species) primers that were different for different species (but are all represented by *A*, *B*, and *D* in Fig. 1) were designed using noncoding gene regions so as to sequence the coding fragments from both DNA strands. All compressions and ambiguities were resolved by multiple sequencing of both strands.

Computer-Assisted Sequence Analysis. DNA and protein sequences were assembled and analyzed using the Darwin package written by Mr. Robert Tyler from our laboratory. Phylogenetic analyses were made with the PHYLIP 3.4 and 3.5c package (Felsenstein 1989). The codon usage table was computed with the CODONS program (Lloyd and Sharp 1992).

Results

Structure of the *Sod* Gene

The structure of the *Sod* gene is outlined in Fig. 1. In all species the coding sequence is interrupted after the 22nd codon by an intron 300–700 bp in length. Several *Drosophila* species that we had earlier sequenced exhibit no other intron; but a second short intron (<100 bp), between codons 95 and 96, occurs in *Chymomyza* and in the medfly, *Ceratitis capitata* (Kwiatowski et al. 1992a,b), which belongs to a different dipteran family.

D. lebanonensis, a species of the subgenus *Scaptodrosophila*, also exhibits the second intron, which is, however, absent from *Zaprionus tuberculatus* as well as from all other *Drosophila* species now sequenced.

Nucleotide Sequences

The 15 nucleotide sequences of the *Sod* coding region are given in Fig. 2. The following sequences have been published before: *Drosophila melanogaster* (Kwiatowski et al. 1989b), *D. simulans* (Kwiatowski et al. 1989a), *D. virilis* (Kwiatowski and Ayala 1989), *Chymomyza amoena* (Kwiatowski et al. 1992b), and *Ceratitis capitata* (Kwiatowski et al. 1992a).

The noncoding regions are not shown in Fig. 2. They were not used for phylogenetic analysis because they are so highly diverse that their alignment becomes uncertain in many cases. The primer sequences are not shown either. The complete coding region is amplified by means of the *N* and *O* primers (see Fig. 1), which yield single or multiple PCR bands 1,150–1,850 bp in size

<i>D.melanogaster</i>	AATTAACGGC	GATGCCAAGG	GCACGGTTTT	CTTCGAACAG	GAGAGCAGCG	GTACGCCCGT	60
<i>D.simulans</i>							
<i>D.subobscura</i>							
<i>D.saltans</i>	T.....						
<i>D.willistoni</i>	T.....						
<i>D.virilis</i>	T.....						
<i>D.hydei</i>	T.....						
<i>D.busckii</i>	T.....						
<i>D.quinaria</i>	T.....						
<i>D.pictiventris</i>	T.....						
<i>Zaprionus</i>	TC.A...A						
<i>C.amoena</i>	T.....						
<i>C.procnemis</i>	G.....						
<i>D.lebanonensis</i>	T.....						
<i>Ceratitis</i>							
<i>D.melanogaster</i>	GAAGTCTCC	GGTGAGGTGT	GCGGCCTGGC	CAAGGGTCTG	CACGGATTCC	ACGTGCACGA	120
<i>D.simulans</i>							
<i>D.subobscura</i>							
<i>D.saltans</i>	C.A...TA						
<i>D.willistoni</i>	C.A...TA						
<i>D.virilis</i>							
<i>D.hydei</i>							
<i>D.busckii</i>	T.....						
<i>D.quinaria</i>							
<i>D.pictiventris</i>	A.A...AA						
<i>Zaprionus</i>	T.....						
<i>C.amoena</i>	A.A...A.GT						
<i>C.procnemis</i>	T.A...G.G						
<i>D.lebanonensis</i>	C.A...GA.T						
<i>Ceratitis</i>	CCTA...A.T						
<i>D.melanogaster</i>	GTTCGGTGAC	AACACCAATG	GCTGCATGTC	GTCCGGACCG	CACCTCAATC	CGTATGGCAA	180
<i>D.simulans</i>							
<i>D.subobscura</i>							
<i>D.saltans</i>	A.T...C						
<i>D.willistoni</i>	A.T...C						
<i>D.virilis</i>							
<i>D.hydei</i>							
<i>D.busckii</i>	A.T...C						
<i>D.quinaria</i>							
<i>D.pictiventris</i>	A.T...G						
<i>Zaprionus</i>							
<i>C.amoena</i>	A.T...A						
<i>C.procnemis</i>	A.T...C.T						
<i>D.lebanonensis</i>							
<i>Ceratitis</i>	A.....						
<i>D.melanogaster</i>	GGAGCATGGC	GCTCCCGTCG	ACGAGAATCG	TCACCTGGGC	GATCTGGGCA	ACATTGAGGC	240
<i>D.simulans</i>							
<i>D.subobscura</i>							
<i>D.saltans</i>							
<i>D.willistoni</i>							
<i>D.virilis</i>							
<i>D.hydei</i>							
<i>D.busckii</i>							
<i>D.quinaria</i>							
<i>D.pictiventris</i>							
<i>Zaprionus</i>							
<i>C.amoena</i>	A.A...T						
<i>C.procnemis</i>							
<i>D.lebanonensis</i>							
<i>Ceratitis</i>	TTC.....						
<i>D.melanogaster</i>	CACCGCGGAC	TGCCCCACCA	AGGTCAACAT	CACCGACTCC	AAGATTACGC	TCTTCGGCGC	300
<i>D.simulans</i>							
<i>D.subobscura</i>	TG.....						
<i>D.saltans</i>	A.T...A.T						
<i>D.willistoni</i>	AT.T...AGT						
<i>D.virilis</i>							
<i>D.hydei</i>							
<i>D.busckii</i>							
<i>D.quinaria</i>							
<i>D.pictiventris</i>							
<i>Zaprionus</i>							
<i>C.amoena</i>	TC.A...T						
<i>C.procnemis</i>	AC.....						
<i>D.lebanonensis</i>							
<i>Ceratitis</i>							

Fig. 2. Nucleotide sequence of the coding region of the Cu,Zn Sod gene from 15 species. The sequences begin 23 bp downstream from the start of the coding region and end at the stop codon. The sequences of *D. subobscura* and *D. pictiventris* are missing the last 96 bp (in-

dicated by dashes) because they failed to be amplified by the O primer. (See Fig. 1.) Dots indicate nucleotides identical to those of *D. melanogaster*. The species are as in Table 1.

G + C Content of the Sod Gene

Table 3 gives the G + C content for the 343 bp sequenced in all 15 species (column labeled *b*), as well as for the complete set of nucleotides sequenced in 13 of

the species (column *a*). The percent G + C of any given species is virtually identical in both sets. When all codon sites are taken into account, the G + C content is about 50% in all species, except *melanogaster*, *simulans*, *subobscura*, and *virilis*, for which it is about 60%.

<i>D.melanogaster</i>	CGACAGCATC	ATCGGACGCA	CCGTTGTCGT	GCACGCCGAT	GCCGATGATC	TTGGCCAGGG	360
<i>D.simulans</i>							
<i>D.subobscura</i>							
<i>D.saltans</i>	T..T.....		A.....	C..T.....	C.....CT	G...A...	
<i>D.willistoni</i>	A..T..T...			C..T.....		G...A...	
<i>D.virilis</i>	A..T.....				C..A.....	G...A...	
<i>D.hydei</i>	A..T.....				C.....C	C...A..A	
<i>D.busckii</i>	A.....		T..G..G..	A..T.....	C.....T	G...A...	
<i>D.quinaria</i>	GA.....		A.....		C.....C	C...A...	
<i>D.pictiventris</i>	AA.....T		A.....G..		C.....		
<i>Zaprionus</i>	AA..T.....			C.....T		G...A...	
<i>C.amoena</i>	GA.....	G..T.....	G...G..A..	T..T.....	C..T.....T	G...A...	
<i>C.procnemis</i>	GC..T.....	G..T.....	G...G..A..	T..T.....	C..A.....T	G...A...	
<i>D.lebanonensis</i>	A.....		TA..A..T..	T..T.....	C.....T	G...A..A	
<i>Ceratitis</i>	AA..T.....	G..T.....	TA.....T..	A..T..T...	C..T.....T	G...TA..A	
<i>D.melanogaster</i>	TGGACACGAG	CTGAGCAAGT	CAACGGGCAA	CGCTGGTGCC	CGCATCGGGT	GCGGCGTTAT	420
<i>D.simulans</i>							
<i>D.subobscura</i>							
<i>D.saltans</i>	C.....T...	A..	G...T..T..	T.....	T..T..	T..C..	
<i>D.willistoni</i>		A..	G...T..T..	T.....A..T	T..T..	T..C..	
<i>D.virilis</i>	C.....	A..		G...A..T	T..C..	T..C..	
<i>D.hydei</i>	...C..T...	A..	T..A..	T	T..A..	T..A..	
<i>D.busckii</i>	C.....	A..	T..A..	T.....C..T	T..A..	T..C..	
<i>D.quinaria</i>	T...	T.....A..	T	T.....C..T	T..A..	T..C..	
<i>D.pictiventris</i>							
<i>Zaprionus</i>	...C.....	T.....	T..A..	T.....T	T	T..C..	
<i>C.amoena</i>	T...	T.....	A..A..	T.....	T..T..T	T..A..	
<i>C.procnemis</i>			C..A..	T..C..C..A	T..T..C	T..C..	
<i>D.lebanonensis</i>	...C..T...		G...T..A..	T.....A..A	T..T..A	T..A..C	
<i>Ceratitis</i>	...T..T..A	T..A.....A	T	G..T	...C..T..T	T..C..	
<i>D.melanogaster</i>	TGGCATTGCC	AAGGTCTAA	439				
<i>D.simulans</i>							
<i>D.subobscura</i>							
<i>D.saltans</i>	...T.....	..AA.....					
<i>D.willistoni</i>		..A.....					
<i>D.virilis</i>	C.....	..AA.....					
<i>D.hydei</i>	...T.....	..AA..A...					
<i>D.busckii</i>		..AA.....					
<i>D.quinaria</i>	T	..AA...G					
<i>D.pictiventris</i>							
<i>Zaprionus</i>	T	..AA.....					
<i>C.amoena</i>	...A...TG	..AA.....					
<i>C.procnemis</i>	TG	..AA.....					
<i>D.lebanonensis</i>	TG	...A..T...					
<i>Ceratitis</i>	...A...TG	...A..T...					

Fig. 2. Continued.

Table 2. Number of nucleotide (above the diagonal) and amino acid differences (below the diagonal) between the 13 species: numbers compared are 439 nucleotides and 153 amino acids

Species	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1 <i>D. melanogaster</i>	—	11	94	92	84	106	98	98	107	117	108	111	129
2 <i>D. simulans</i>	0	—	90	91	86	107	97	101	108	118	107	108	131
3 <i>D. saltans</i>	15	15	—	60	90	97	82	101	103	100	90	99	120
4 <i>D. willistoni</i>	19	19	10	—	86	95	82	100	97	105	96	95	120
5 <i>D. virilis</i>	20	20	16	15	—	63	68	85	96	120	96	110	132
6 <i>D. hydei</i>	19	19	18	15	6	—	79	89	96	116	108	107	130
7 <i>D. busckii</i>	18	18	17	15	10	9	—	79	84	103	94	104	115
8 <i>D. quinaria</i>	24	24	20	18	16	17	16	—	89	114	107	115	121
9 <i>Zaprionus</i>	23	23	21	17	15	12	12	19	—	107	104	113	123
10 <i>C. amoena</i>	25	25	22	21	22	22	22	26	22	—	65	108	118
11 <i>C. procnemis</i>	24	24	21	22	21	20	22	26	20	7	—	109	130
12 <i>D. lebanonensis</i>	24	24	21	20	23	24	23	23	26	24	22	—	113
13 <i>Ceratitis</i>	33	33	32	30	31	29	28	27	28	29	30	28	—

The difference in G + C content between the two sets of species becomes larger when only the third coding position is considered: the four exceptional species noted have 69–80% G + C, whereas the average is about 50% for the other species. (The G + C content is particularly low in *Ceratitis*, *Chymomyza*, and *Zaprionus*.)

Variation in *Sod* G + C content among dipterans has been noted earlier (Kwiatowski et al. 1992a,b). Similar heterogeneity occurs in the *Adh* gene (Starmer and Sullivan 1989), and it reflects a bias in codon preferences

that is generally encountered in well-expressed genes of other taxa, ranging from bacteria to humans (Sharp et al. 1988).

Phylogenetic Analysis

Differences in the transition/transversion ratio and G + C composition are a potential problem when inferring phylogenies from sequence data. It is difficult to assess the transition/transversion bias for the *Sod* coding region

Table 3. Percent G + C content in the coding sequence of *Sod*

Species	All sites ^a		Third positions ^a	
	a	b	a	b
<i>D. melanogaster</i>	61	61	76	79
<i>D. simulans</i>	61	61	77	80
<i>D. subobscura</i>		60		75
<i>D. saltans</i>	50	50	46	45
<i>D. willistoni</i>	53	52	52	52
<i>D. virilis</i>	58	57	69	69
<i>D. hydei</i>	51	51	49	53
<i>D. busckii</i>	53	54	55	57
<i>D. quinaria</i>	52	52	50	50
<i>D. pictiventris</i>		50		48
<i>Z. tuberculatus</i>	50	49	44	43
<i>C. amoena</i>	46	46	39	39
<i>C. procnemis</i>	50	49	47	44
<i>D. lebanonensis</i>	51	51	52	54
<i>C. capitata</i>	48	48	42	43

^a a, includes the complete set of 439 nucleotides sequenced in 13 species; b, subset of 345 nucleotides sequenced in all 15 species. The two initial nucleotides derived from the N primer, which are conserved in all species, have been added to the sequences for estimating G + C content

in our data since the taxa used are fairly distant in most cases. For the two most closely related species, *D. melanogaster* and *D. simulans*, the ratio is 1.2. For the more distantly related pairs, *virilis/hydei* and *willistoni/saltans*, the ratio is 1.6 and 1.9, respectively. The within-species ratio for 11 *Sod* alleles sequenced in *D. melanogaster* is 2.5 (Hudson et al. 1994). For a set of closely related species and subspecies of the *D. willistoni* group the ratio is about two (Antezana et al. unpublished data from our laboratory). Likelihood analysis (see below) suggests a transition/transversion ratio of two, and this ratio is used in calculating differences between sequences. In any case, the results of our analysis are not sensitive to the value of this ratio: a broad range (from one to 20) of transition/transversion ratios yields very similar trees.

Figure 3 shows the *Sod* phylogenetic relationships obtained by the distance method (Fitch and Margoliash 1967; FITCH algorithm in the PHYLIP package, Felsenstein 1989). The phylogeny on top (A in the figure) is based on the 343 bp sequenced in all 15 species; the one below (B) is based on the 439 bp sequenced in 13 species. Distances are calculated according to the two-parameter model of nucleotide substitutions (Kimura 1980). We have explored the degree of confidence that can be attached to the various phylogenetic relationships by means of the bootstrap method of resampling (Felsenstein 1985b). We have run SEQBOOT and DNADIST (100 replications) and the CONSENSE algorithm of PHYLIP in order to find a consensus tree.

The phylogenies show *D. lebanonensis* and the two *Chymomyza* species as early branches; the remaining clade includes all other *Drosophila* species as well as

Fig. 3. Phenetic trees of *Sod* coding sequences, based on Kimura's (1980) distances (FITCH program of the PHYLIP package; Felsenstein 1989). The branch lengths correspond to the distances between sequences; the numbers represent the bootstrap results out of 100 replications. **A** Based on 345 bp for all 15 species. **B** Based on 439 bp for 13 species. The vertical arrow indicates the deletion of the second intron.

Zaprionus. This early separation of *D. lebanonensis* and *Chymomyza* is consistent with the presence of the second intron noted earlier, which became deleted in the short evolutionary interval that preceded the divergence of any other species in the remaining clade.

The subgenus *Sophophora* appears in Fig. 3 as polyphyletic, with the *willistoni* and *saltans* groups as the sister clade of a grouping that includes the *melanogaster* and *obscura* groups as one clade and the rest of the species as the other clade. This latter clade appears as a bush that includes the genus *Zaprionus* as well as *D. busckii*, (*Dorsilopha*), *D. pictiventris* (*Hirtodrosophila*), and species of the subgenus *Drosophila*. This particular clade appears as monophyletic in Fig. 3 in a relatively high number of replications (59% in A and 75% in B). The alternative grouping (which places *Hirtodrosophila* and/or *Zaprionus* outside the subgenera *Sophophora* and *Drosophila*) occurs with much lower frequencies (1% in A and 4% in B). Therefore, the distance phenetic analysis of the *Sod* sequences supports Throckmorton's rather than Grimaldi's hypothesis concerning the phylogeny of these species. However, our bootstrap values for this grouping (59 and 75% for A and B, respectively) are far from robust, since bootstrap results below 70% are suspect (Hillis and Bull 1993).

A deep split between the two *Sophophora* clades (the *willistoni* plus *saltans* and the *melanogaster* plus *obscura* groups) had been recognized by Throckmorton (1975). Rousset et al. (1991) obtained a phylogeny, based on the D1 and D2 variable domains of the large

Fig. 4. Phylogenetic trees of *Sod* coding sequences, using the DNA parsimony algorithm with bootstrap resampling (DNABOOT program of PHYLIP package; Felsenstein 1989). The trees are unrooted; *Ceratitis* is used as the outgroup. The numbers indicate how many times

the sequences to the right occurred as a clade among the 1,000 replicates. **A** and **B**, based on 439 bp (13 species); **C** and **D**, based on 343 bp (15 species); **A** and **C**, all sites; **B** and **D**, third codon positions are excluded from the analysis.

ribosomal RNA subunit, which shows, as in Fig. 3, the *willistoni* and *saltans* groups as a clade that has as a sister clade the other *Sophophora* species as well as the *Drosophila* subgenus. (See also Pelandakis et al. 1991.) However, the neighbor-joining method (Saitou and Nei 1987; result not shown), as well as other phylogenetic analyses of our data (see below), shows the *Sophophora* species as a monophyletic subgenus, although deeply divided.

A parsimony analysis (DNAPARS of PHYLIP) of the 343 nucleotides sequenced in all species, with *Ceratitis* as the outgroup, yields trees that are somewhat different, one from the other, as a function of the order in which the species are added. The six shortest trees independently obtained are three with 654 steps, one with 655, and two with 656. All trees show the same three deepest branches: successively *Scaptodrosophila* (*D. lebanonensis*), *Chymomyza*, and the subgenus *Sophophora*. The various trees differ, however, with respect to the topological position of *Zaprionus*, and the *Hirtodrosophila*, *Dorsilopha*, and *Drosophila* subgenera. Somewhat lesser sensitivity to the order in which the sequences are added occurs when we analyze the 439 nucleotides sequenced in 13 species. The four shortest trees all have 666 steps, but differences still occur in the topological positions of *Zaprionus*, *Hirtodrosophila*, and subgenus *Drosophila*.

Figure 4 gives the bootstrap results (1,000 runs) obtained with the DNABOOT algorithm of PHYLIP. The two trees on the top use the 439 bp sequenced in all 13 species; the two trees at bottom are based on the 343 bp sequenced in all 15 species. The trees on the left use all sites; the two on the right exclude the third codon bases so as to allow evaluation of the possible bias introduced by differences in G + C composition and by superimposed substitutions at particular sites. The trees in Fig. 4 are among the most parsimonious ones obtained with the DNAPARS algorithm; they also are quite similar to one another and to the distance trees shown in Fig. 3.

The bootstrap results show fairly high confidence (617 to 810 times out of 1,000 replicates) for the deepest branch, the split of *Scaptodrosophila* (*D. lebanonensis*) from the rest. The second branch, leading to the *Chymomyza* species, appears more often (704 and 464 times) in the bootstrap replications that exclude the third codon sites than when all sites are considered (428 and 275 times). This suggests that, at this depth, repeated substitutions in the third positions are obscuring the phylogenetic relationships. The clustering of the *Sophophora* subgenus shows a lower level of confidence (344–533 occurrences) than the cluster including the subgenera *Drosophila* and *Hirtodrosophila* and the genus *Zaprionus* (380–792 occurrences). This supports

Fig. 5. Maximum likelihood tree of *Sod* coding sequences based on 345 bp. The DNAML program of the PHYLIP package is used, assuming identical rates for all sites. The maximum log likelihood was obtained with a transition/transversion ratio = 2. Multiple runs of the program, performed with randomized order of input sequences and different transition/transversion ratios seeking to maximize log likelihood, all give the same tree. Base frequencies are calculated from the data. The branch lengths are proportional to the number of nucleotide substitutions along the branches, with hollow bars indicating confidence intervals calculated according to Felsenstein (1989). The deletion of the second intron is shown by the vertical arrow.

the radiation of all the species in the latter cluster as a sister group to *Sophophora*. It manifests as well the deep split between the two *Sophophoran* clades: *willistoni* + *saltans* vs *melanogaster* + *obscura*. The four trees in Fig. 4 differ with respect to the branching order within the cluster that includes *Zaprionus*, *Hirtodrosophila*, and subgenus *Drosophila*.

Figure 5 shows a maximum likelihood phylogeny obtained with the program DNAML (Felsenstein 1981). Approximate confidence limits of branch lengths (assuming a transition/transversion ratio = 2) show that these are significantly positive ($P < 0.01$) in all cases except for the one between *Chymomyza* and the large clade that includes most *Drosophila* species, but this split is confirmed by the deletion of the second intron in all species of the larger clade. The two deepest branches (*D. lebanonensis* and *Chymomyza*) are the same, and in the same order, as in all previous trees. Also, the *Sophophora* species appear as a cluster, distinct from the cluster that includes the subgenus *Drosophila*, *Hirtodrosophila*, and *Zaprionus*. The relationships just mentioned also persist in the phylogeny obtained with the FITCH program for distance data, provided with the trees obtained with DNABOOT and DNAML (Fig. 6).

We have tested alternative hypotheses of the Drosophilidae phylogeny by statistical evaluation of pertinent trees. For simplicity we have pruned our trees so that they only include six species of representative taxa: *Scaptodrosophila* (*D. lebanonensis*), *Zaprionus* (*Z. tuberculatus*), *Hirtodrosophila* (*D. pictiventris*), subgenus *Drosophila* (*D. virilis*), and *Sophophora* (*D. willistoni* and *D. melanogaster*). The trees are shown in Fig. 7. Tree 2 is advanced by Grimaldi (1990) based on mor-

Fig. 6. Consensus phylogenetic tree of *Sod* coding sequences: an approximation to the relative temporal succession of phylogenetic events (FITCH program of the PHYLIP package with user-defined trees obtained by the DNABOOT and DNAML programs). The deletion of the second intron is represented by the vertical arrow.

Fig. 7. Six different cladograms showing different phylogenetic hypotheses for the Drosophilidae. Tree 2 reflects the morphological (Grimaldi 1990) and mtDNA hypotheses (DeSalle and Grimaldi 1991; DeSalle 1992) whereas trees 5 and 6 are consistent with the hypotheses proposed by Throckmorton (1975), Beverley and Wilson (1984, based on larval hemolymph), and Thomas and Hunt (1993, based on the *Adh* gene), and with the *Sod* results herein presented.

phology and DeSalle (1992) based on mtDNA, while trees 5 and 6 represent Throckmorton's (1975) view and the *Sod* results. We have used the methods of Kishino and Hasegawa (1989) and Templeton (1983; Felsenstein 1985a) to calculate the mean and variance of log likelihood, and step differences between trees, respectively. According to these tests, none of the six trees is significantly worse than the best one when maximum likelihood and maximum parsimony analyses are performed on all 343 sites. However, when only the first and second codon positions are considered for maximum parsimony analysis, trees 1, 2, and 3 are significantly worse than tree 6, which is the best (Table 4). Similar results are obtained with the full set of 13 sequences. Here again, the two trees (similar to 1 and 2) with *Hirtodrosophila* and *Zaprionus* branches outside

Table 4. Statistical comparison of six possible different tree topologies for six *Drosophilidae* species: the tests are based on the first and second codon positions for 343 bp of the *Sod* coding region and follow the method of Templeton (1983)

Tree ^a	Steps	Comparison with tree No. 6		
		Difference	SE	Significantly worse?
1	92.0	8.0	2.8	Yes
2	90.0	6.0	2.8	Yes
3	91.0	7.0	3.3	Yes
4	88.0	4.0	2.4	No
5	85.0	1.0	2.2	No
6	84.0			

^a The six topologies are shown in Fig. 7

the *Drosophila* clade (subgenera *Drosophila* and *Sophophora*) are rejected relative to the best tree (similar to 6), which has the *Hirtodrosophila* and *Zaprionus* branches inside, as part of a monophyletic cluster that includes the subgenus *Drosophila*. Similar results with respect to the position of *Zaprionus* have been recently obtained with *Adh* sequences (Thomas and Hunt 1993). A molecular study based on immunological distances of larval hemolymph protein also places *Hirtodrosophila* within a clade that includes the subgenus *Drosophila*, but not *Sophophora* (Beverley and Wilson 1984).

Divergence Time

Table 5 shows time estimates for various phylogenetic events. The relevant nodes are labeled in Fig. 6. The estimates are based on the number of amino acid replacements given in Table 2. We use amino acid rather than nucleotide differences, because the former are likely to be more reliable in this case for two reasons. One is that the substantial differences observed in G + C composition among species, particularly in the third codon sites, introduce a bias that is difficult to evaluate as to its magnitude and significance (Gillespie 1986; Woese 1991). The other reason is that the rate of amino acid substitutions in the Cu,Zn SOD of diverse organisms has been shown to be fairly constant during the last 60 MY (million years); the rate is approximately 15 aa/100 aa/100 MY for PAM-corrected data (Kwiatowski et al. 1991a, 1992a; for the PAM correction, see Dayhoff 1978).

The evolutionary time estimates given in Table 5 are only rough estimates, because they not only depend on the assumption of a molecular clock, but also on the particular rate previously established for SOD, and on the limited amount of information provided by a dozen or so *Sod* sequences. Nevertheless, the estimates shown in Table 5 may be as reliable as any currently available in the literature, since sequence data are more precise than data sets based on immunological distances, two-

Table 5. Mean number of PAM differences and estimated time since the phylogenetic events indicated

Node ^a	Phylogenetic event	PAM ^b	Million years
1	Tephritidae/ <i>Drosophilidae</i>	23.0 ± 0.6	77
2	<i>Scaptodrosophila</i> divergence	16.9 ± 0.4	56
3	<i>Chymomyza</i> / <i>Drosophila</i> genus	16.6 ± 0.3	55
4	<i>Drosophila</i> genus radiation	13.3 ± 0.6	44
5	<i>Sophophora</i> radiation	12.0 ± 1.6	40
6	<i>Drosophila</i> subgenus radiation ^c	10.0 ± 0.8	33

^a The nodes are as numbered in Fig. 6

^b PAM is the estimated percent of amino acid differences corrected for superimposed and back replacements

^c *Zaprionus*, *Dorsilopha*, and *Hirtodrosophila* are included in the *Drosophila* subgenus radiation

dimensional protein electrophoresis, and restriction analysis.

Our time estimates are somewhat lower than those of Collier and MacIntyre (1977) based on microcomplement fixation studies of alpha-glycerophosphate dehydrogenase, and those of Spicer (1988), based on two-dimensional protein electrophoresis. Collier and MacIntyre (1977) estimate the Tephritidae radiation at 90 MY (our estimate, 77 MY). Spicer (1988) estimates the *Drosophila* genus radiation at about 60 MY (ours, 44). The radiation of the *Drosophila* subgenus is estimated by Collier and MacIntyre (1977) as well as by Spicer (1988) at 50 MY (ours, 33 MY). The estimates of Beverley and Wilson (1984), based on immunological distances for a larval hemolymph protein, also are somewhat higher than those shown in Table 5. However, lower numbers than ours are estimated by Thomas and Hunt (1993) based on the nucleotide sequence of the *Adh* gene: *Scaptodrosophila* divergence, approximately 45 MY (ours, 56 MY); *Drosophila* genus radiation, 40 MY (ours, 44); *Drosophila* subgenus radiation, 27 MY (ours, 33 MY).

Discussion

The Cu/Zn superoxide dismutase is an abundant enzyme in eukaryotic organisms, with highly specific superoxide dismutation activity that protects aerobic cells against the harmfulness of free oxygen radicals (Fridovich 1986). Cu,Zn SOD is distinctly interesting for investigating phylogenetic issues, because (1) it is apparently present in all eukaryotes, and (2) it evolves at a fairly high rate, so as to be informative for recent evolutionary events, i.e., within the last 100 MY (Lee et al. 1985; Ayala 1986; see Table 2). Yet (3), it is well conserved over long time spans, so 60% of the amino acid residues remain identical between organisms from different kingdoms, such as humans and yeasts (Ayala 1986; Kwiatowski et al. 1991a). In higher Diptera the *Sod* gene consists of a 462-bp coding region interrupt-

ed by one or two introns (Kwiatowski et al. 1992a; see Fig. 1).

The Drosophilidae are well-studied organisms with respect to genetics and systematics. Yet many issues remain controversial. The commonly accepted taxonomy (Wheeler 1981, 1986) and the evolutionary account of Throckmorton (1975) have been recently challenged by Grimaldi (1990) in important respects. A profusion of molecular investigations have failed to settle the issues and have often yielded incongruous outcomes. The results conveyed in the present paper provide helpful evidence toward resolving some issues.

On the basis of biogeographical, morphological, and other considerations, Throckmorton (1975) has argued that the divergence of *Scaptodrosophila* (represented in our study by *D. lebanonensis*) precedes the first major radiation of the genus *Drosophila*. This is supported by all our data. The presence of the second *Sod* intron in *Scaptodrosophila* (as well as in *Ceratitis* and *Chymomyza*), and its absence in the species of the *Sophophora* and *Drosophila* subgenera, definitely places the phylogenetic divergence of *Scaptodrosophila* before the *Drosophila* radiations (a position also endorsed by Grimaldi 1990; and DeSalle and Grimaldi 1991; but see Villarroja and Juan 1991). Grimaldi (1990) has accordingly raised *Scaptodrosophila* to the taxonomic status of "genus."

The presence of the second *Sod* intron in the two *Chymomyza* species investigated, and its absence from the species of the subgenus *Sophophora*, *Drosophila*, *Hirtodrosophila*, and *Dorsilopha* (as well as from the genus *Zaprionus*), places the *Chymomyza* lineage outside the *Drosophila* radiations. This is also supported by the analysis of the *Sod* sequence data. (See Figs. 3–7.) Our results therefore contradict Throckmorton's inclusion of *Chymomyza* as a member of the *Sophophora* radiation and support the phylogenetic position of *Chymomyza* proposed by Grimaldi (1990, his Fig. 542, p. 100) and DeSalle and Grimaldi (1991).

The *Sod* sequence data indicate that *Scaptodrosophila* and *Chymomyza* diverged from the *Drosophila* lineage within a short time interval (between 56 and 55 MY ago, according to our date estimates). The data are thus insufficient to decide which one of the two lineages is the sister clade of the *Drosophila* clade. The radiation of the genus *Drosophila* happened shortly afterward (estimated at 44 MY in Table 4); but it was during this brief time preceding the *Drosophila* radiation that the *Drosophila* lineage lost the second *Sod* intron.

The absence of the second *Sod* intron from *D. pictiventris* (subgenus *Hirtodrosophila*) excludes the position of *Hirtodrosophila* outside the *Chymomyza* + *Drosophila* clade, as proposed by DeSalle (1992) on the basis of mtDNA data. (See also DeSalle and Grimaldi 1991.) The *Sod* sequence data support Throckmorton's (1975) position of *Hirtodrosophila* within the radiation of the subgenus *Drosophila* (*sensu lato*, i.e., inclusive

also of the genus *Zaprionus* and the subgenus *Dorsilopha*) and are inconsistent with Grimaldi's (1990) opposite conclusion (as well as DeSalle's).

The *Sod* sequence data also support Throckmorton (1975) on the phylogenetic position of the genus *Zaprionus*, which he sees as part of the subgenus *Drosophila* (*s.l.*) radiation. The *Sod* phylogenies contradict Grimaldi (1990), DeSalle and Grimaldi (1991), and DeSalle (1992), who place *Zaprionus* outside the clade comprising the subgenera *Drosophila* and *Sophophora*. Throckmorton's (1975) proposal that the *Sophophora* radiation preceded the radiation of the subgenus *Drosophila* is also supported by the *Sod* sequence data.

Several systematists, Throckmorton (1975) among them, have noted that the evolution of the drosophilids is modulated by rapid radiations, or bursts of cladistic expansion. The short time spans between cladistic events that follow one another in rapid succession are unlikely to leave conspicuous traces in the organisms' morphology or genetic makeup. The sequence of phylogenetic events may then be difficult to determine. This hardship is further intensified in the evolution of the drosophilids by the relative scarcity of fossil specimens, substantial conservation of morphology, and occasional homoplasy. It is thus not surprising that the systematics of the Drosophilidae has remained controversial in the face of extensive and authoritative investigations.

Will molecular information eventually provide the definitive answers concerning phylogenetic matters? Nucleotide sequence data have indeed the potential to do so. The DNA of an organism has a record of its evolutionary history. There are many genes (and other DNA sequences) in each organism, so more and more data can in principle be accumulated until a particular phylogenetic issue of interest is settled. But possibility in principle and securing the data are very different matters. Obtaining a DNA sequence is a laborious process (compare it with a morphological observation such as eye color or wing length), so at best only a few relevant DNA sequences (or other highly informative molecular data) are known for most groups of organisms. Whenever the molecular data are very limited, as currently they are in most cases of interest, variance in evolutionary rates, homoplasy, and other difficulties can yield erroneous conclusions when taken at face value. (Homoplasy is a particularly nagging problem, since the nucleotide bases provide only four possible alternatives at each particular site in a DNA sequence.)

The present investigation illustrates some of the virtues and potential pitfalls of molecular data. The pitfalls are apparent in the variation of outcomes concerning details of the phylogeny obtained by different analytical methodologies: compare Figs. 3–6. An attempt to attenuate the difficulties of homoplasy, by ignoring the third codon positions, increases only slightly the stability of branches in the phylogeny. (Compare

B and D with A and C in Fig. 4.) The contributing reasons are three: (1) the twofold degeneracy of the genetic code implies that silent sites occur in first codon positions, not only in the third positions; (2) the evolution of codon preferences, reflected in G + C content in the third positions, is itself phylogenetically informative; (3) the data set becomes reduced when one-third of the nucleotides are excluded from consideration. The potential pitfalls of molecular data are illustrated de facto by the observation that mtDNA sequence data (DeSalle and Grimaldi 1991; DeSalle 1992) yield conclusions that are inconsistent with the *Sod* sequence data.

One virtue of DNA sequences that is illustrated by the *Sod* data is that phylogenetic information derives not only from the direct comparison of nucleotides at particular sites in a sequence, but also from the organization of the DNA sequences. Deletions of well-defined DNA segments may be particularly informative, as exemplified by the deletion of the second *Sod* intron, owing to the low probability of independent occurrence or restoration of such an event within a defined phylogeny; that is, homoplasy is particularly unlikely.

There can be little doubt that the accumulation of DNA sequence data may eventually settle any given phylogenetic issue. It would seem equally certain that in the interim, or for that matter at any time, the only reasonable approach to settling phylogenetic relationships is to use all available information—molecular, morphological, biogeographical, etc.—and to weigh it according to its value in a particular case.

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