Polygenic adaptation from standing genetic variation allows rapid ecotype formation

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Abstract

Adaptive ecotype formation is the first step to speciation, but the genetic underpinnings of this process are poorly understood. Marine midges of the genus *Clunio* (Diptera) have recolonized Northern European shore areas after the last glaciation. In response to local tide conditions they have formed different ecotypes with respect to timing of adult emergence, oviposition behavior and larval habitat. Genomic analysis confirms the recent establishment of these ecotypes, reflected in massive haplotype sharing between ecotypes, irrespective of whether there is ongoing gene flow or geographic isolation. QTL mapping and genome screens reveal patterns of polygenic adaptation from standing genetic variation. Ecotype-associated loci prominently include circadian clock genes, as well as genes affecting sensory perception and nervous system development, hinting to a central role of these processes in ecotype formation. Our data show that adaptive ecotype formation can occur rapidly, with ongoing gene flow and largely based on a re-assortment of existing alleles.

Keywords: Local adaptation, reproductive timing, lunar rhythm, biological clocks, gene flow, Chironomidae, marine ecology

Introduction

The genetic foundations for rapid ecological adaptation and speciation remain poorly understood. Decades of research have focused on identifying single or few major genetic loci in such contexts, with some notable successes [1-4]. However, many genome-wide association studies have now shown that quantitative trait phenotypes have usually a polygenic basis [5,6]. This implies that also rapid natural adaptation should be expected to occur in a polygenic context [7,8]. Yet, tests of this assumption are still rare, since it is easier to prove the involvement of major locus compared to showing its absence. To show that this occurs in natural populations requires an exceptional biogeographic setting, as well as deep genomic and genetic analysis.

Here we present a study on the postglacial evolution of new ecotypes in marine midges of the genus *Clunio* (Diptera: Chironomidae), which in adaptation to their habitat differ in oviposition behavior and reproductive timing, involving both circadian and circalunar clocks.

Circalunar clocks are biological time-keeping mechanisms that allow organisms to anticipate lunar phase [9]. Their molecular basis is unknown [10], making identification of adaptive loci for lunar timing both particularly challenging and interesting. In many marine organisms, circalunar clocks synchronize reproduction within a population. In *Clunio marinus* they have additional ecological relevance [11]. Living in the intertidal zone of the European Atlantic coasts, *C. marinus* requires the habitat to be exposed by the tide for successful oviposition. The habitat is maximally exposed during the low waters of spring tide days around full moon and new moon. Adult emergence is restricted to these occasions by a circalunar clock, which tightly regulates development and maturation. Additionally, a circadian clock ensures emergence during only one of the two daily low tides. The adults reproduce immediately after emergence and die few hours later. As tidal regimes vary dramatically along the coastline, populations of this *Atlantic ecotype* of *C. marinus* show local timing adaptations [11-13] for which the genetic underpinnings are partially known [14,15].

When *Clunio* expanded into the North after the recess of the ice shield, new ecotypes *evolved* in the Baltic Sea [16-18] and in the high Arctic [19,20], which differ from the *Atlantic ecotype* of *C. marinus* in various ways (see Fig. 1 for a summary of defining characteristics of the three ecotypes). In the Baltic Sea the tides are negligible and the *Baltic ecotype* oviposits on the

open water, from where the eggs quickly sink to the submerged larval habitat at water depths

of up to 20 metres[16,21]. Reproduction of the *Baltic ecotype* happens every day precisely at dusk

under control of a circadian clock[22], without a detectable circalunar rhythm[17]. Near Bergen

(Norway) the *Baltic* and *Atlantic ecotypes* were reported to co-occur in sympatry, but in tem-

poral reproductive isolation. The *Baltic ecotype* reproduces at dusk, the *Atlantic ecotype* re-

produces during the afternoon low tide[22]. Therefore, the *Baltic ecotype* is currently considered

a separate species – *C. balticus*. However, *C. balticus* and *C. marinus* can be successfully inter-

bred in the laboratory[22].

In the high Arctic there are normal tides and the *Arctic ecotype* of *C. marinus* is found in

intertidal habitats[19]. During its reproductive season, the permanent light of polar day pre-

cludes synchronization of the circadian and circalunar clocks with the environment. Thus, the

Arctic ecotype relies on a so-called tidal hourglass timer, which allows it to emerge and repro-

duce during every low tide[20]. It does not show circalunar or circadian rhythms[20].

The geological history of Northern Europe[23] implies the Baltic Sea and the high Arctic could

only be colonized by *Clunio* after the last glacial ice shield recessed about 10,000 years ago.

This inference is also supported by subfossil *Clunio* head capsules in Baltic Sea sediment

cores[24]. The new adaptations to the absence of tides in the Baltic Sea and to polar day in the

high Arctic must therefore have occurred within this time frame. This makes *Clunio* a particu-

larly interesting model system for studying the genetics of rapid adaptation, since it promises

at the time to yield insights into the genetic pathways underlying the ecotype characteristics,

including circadian and circalunar timing.

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81
82 **Figure 1** **Northern European ecotypes of *Clunio* and their lunar rhythms**
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The *Atlantic*, *Arctic* and *Baltic ecotypes* of *Clunio* differ mainly in their lunar rhythms (B-H), circadian
rhythms (Suppl. Fig. 1), as well as their habitat and the resulting oviposition behavior (Suppl. Note 1).
(A) Sampling sites for this study. **(B-H)** Lunar rhythms of adult emergence in corresponding laboratory
strains under common garden conditions, with 16 hours of daylight and simulated tidal turbulence
cycles to synchronize the lunar rhythm. In *Arctic* and *Baltic ecotypes* the lunar rhythm is absent (E,G,H)
or very weak (F). Por-1SL: n=1,263; He-1SL: n=2,075; Ber-1SL: n=230; Tro-tAR: n=209; Ber-2AR: n=399;
Seh-2AR: n= 380; Ar-2AR: n=765.

Results

Clunio **ecotypes.** Starting from field work in Northern Europe (Fig. 1A), we established one

laboratory strain of the *Arctic ecotype* from Tromsø (Norway, Tro-tAR; see methods for strain

nomenclature) and three laboratory strains of the *Baltic ecotype*, from Bergen (Norway, Ber-

2AR), Sehlendorf (Germany; Seh-2AR) and Ar (Sweden; Ar-2AR). We also established a strain

of the *Atlantic ecotype* from Bergen (Ber-1SL, sympatric with Ber-2AR) and used two existing

Atlantic ecotype laboratory strains from Helgoland (Germany; He-1SL) and Port-en-Bessin

(France; Por-1SL). We confirmed the identity of the ecotypes in the laboratory by the absence

of a lunar rhythm in the *Baltic* and *Arctic ecotypes* (Fig. 1B-H), their circadian rhythm (Supple-

mentary Fig. 1B-H) and their oviposition behavior (for details see Supplementary Note 1). The

Baltic ecotype from Bergen (Ber-2AR, Fig. 1F) was found weakly lunar-rhythmic.

Evolutionary history and species status. We sequenced the full nuclear and mitochondrial

genomes of 168 field-caught individuals from six geographic sites, including the two sympatric

population ecotypes from Bergen (Figure 1). Based on a set of 792,032 single nucleotide pol-

ymorphisms (SNPs), we first investigated population structure and evolutionary history by

performing a principal component analysis (PCA; Fig. 2A-B) and testing for genetic admixture

(Fig. 2C). We also constructed a haplotype network of complete mitochondrial genomes (Fig.

2D). There are several major observations that can be derived from these data.

First, there is strong geographic isolation between populations from different sites. In PCA,

clusters are formed according to geography (Fig. 2A-B, Supplementary Fig. 2). Mitochondrial

haplotypes are not shared and are diagnostically different between geographic sites (Fig. 2D).

In ADMIXTURE, the optimal number of genetic groups is six (Fig. 2C, Supplementary Fig. 3),

corresponding to the number of geographic sites, and there is basically no mixing between

the six clusters (Fig. 2C; K=6). Finally, there is isolation by distance (IBD; Supplementary Figure

4).

Second, and much in contrast to the above, the sympatric ecotypes in Bergen are genet-

ically very similar. In PCA they are not separated in the first four principal components (Fig.

2A-B) and they are the only populations that share mitochondrial haplotypes (Fig. 2D). In the

ADMIXTURE analysis, they are only distinguished at K=7, a value larger than the optimal K. As soon as the two populations are distinguished, some individuals show signals of admixed origin (Fig. 2C; K=7), indicative of ongoing gene flow and incomplete reproductive isolation. These observations question the species status of *C. balticus*, which was based on the assumption of temporal isolation between these two populations[22].

Third, the data suggest that after the ice age *Clunio* colonized northern Europe from a single source and expanded along two fronts into the Baltic Sea and into the high Arctic. The mitochondrial haplotype network expands from a single center, which implies a quick radiation from a colonizing haplotype (Fig. 2D; note that all sampled populations occur in areas under a former ice shield cover). There is also a large degree of shared nuclear polymorphisms. 34% of polymorphic SNPs are polymorphic in all seven populations and 93% are polymorphic in at least two populations (Supplementary Fig. 5). Separation of the Baltic Sea populations along PC1 and the Arctic population along PC2 (Fig. 2A), suggests that *Clunio* expanded into the high Arctic and into the Baltic Sea independently. Congruently, nucleotide diversity significantly decreases towards both expansion fronts (Supplementary Fig. 6, Supplementary Tab. 1). Postglacial establishment from a common source indicates that the *Baltic* and *Arctic ecotypes* have evolved their new local adaptations during this expansion time, i.e., in less than 10,000 years.

▶

Figure 2   Genetic structure and evolutionary history of Northern European *Clunio* ecotypes

The analysis is based on 24 individuals from each population (23 for Por-1SL, 25 for He-1SL). **(A,B)** Principal Component Analysis (PCA) based on 792,032 SNPs separates populations by geographic location rather than ecotype. **(C)** ADMIXTURE analysis supports strong differentiation by geographic site (best K=6), but a notable genetic component from the Baltic Sea in the Bergen populations (see K=2 and 3). The Bergen populations are only separated at K=7 and then show a number of admixed individuals. **(D)** Haplotype network of full mitochondrial genomes reveals highly divergent clusters according to geographic site, but haplotype sharing between Ber-1SL and Ber-2AR. **(E)** Correlated allele frequencies indicate introgression from Seh-2AR into Ber-2AR.

Fourth, ADMIXTURE analysis reveals that sympatric co-existence of the *Atlantic* and *Baltic*

ecotypes in Bergen likely results from introgression of *Baltic ecotype* individuals into an exist-

ing *Atlantic ecotype* population. At K=2 and K=3 the two Baltic Sea populations Seh-2AR and

Ar-2AR are separated from all other populations and the two Bergen populations Ber-2AR and

Ber-1SL show a marked genetic contribution coming from these Baltic Sea populations (Fig.

2C). The Baltic genetic component is slightly larger for the *Baltic ecotype* Ber-2AR population

than for the *Atlantic ecotype* Ber-1SL population. A statistical analysis via TreeMix detects pre-

dominantly an introgression from Seh-2AR into Ber-2AR (Fig. 2E, Supplementary Fig. 7), sug-

gesting that genetic haplotypes that convey the *Baltic ecotype* have introgressed into a popu-

lation of *Atlantic ecotype*, resulting in the now observed sympatric co-existence of *Baltic* and

Atlantic ecotypes in Bergen.

While this observation adds to the evidence for a role of introgression in adaptation and

early speciation processes [25,26], it also constitutes an excellent starting point for mapping loci

that could be involved in the respective ecotype adaptations. Under the assumption that fast

adaptation and ecotype formation are mostly based on frequency changes in standing varia-

tion, one expects that the respective haplotypes should be shared between ecotypes, espe-

cially when transferred via introgression. The following analysis is focussed on the *Atlantic* and

Baltic ecotypes, represented by three populations each.

Nuclear haplotype sharing. First, we reconstructed the genealogical relationship between

36 individuals (six from each population) in 50 kb windows (n=1,607) along the genome, fol-

lowed by topology weighting. There are 105 possible unrooted tree topologies for six popula-

tions, and 46,656 possibilities to pick one individual from each population out of the set of 36.

For each window along the genome, we assessed the relative support of each of the 105 pop-

ulation tree topologies by all 46,656 combinations of six individuals. We found that tree to-

pologies change rapidly along the chromosomes (Fig. 3A; Supplementary Fig. 8; Supplemen-

tary Data 1). The tree topology obtained for the entire genome (Supplementary Fig. 9) domi-

nates only in few genomic windows (Fig. 3A, black bars "Orig."), while usually one or several

other topologies account for more than 75% of the tree topologies (Fig. 3A, grey bars "Misc.").

Hardly ever do all combinations of six individuals follow a single population tree topology (Fig.

3A, stars), which implies that in most genomic windows some individuals do not group with

their population. Taken together, this indicates a massive sharing of haplotypes across popu-

lations and high levels of incomplete lineage sorting, typical for such radiation situations. In

such a highly mixed genomic landscape, it is close to impossible to separate signals of intro-

gression from incomplete lineage sorting. Still, we highlighted genomic windows that are con-

sistent with the detected introgression from the *Baltic ecotype* into both Bergen populations

(Fig. 3A, yellow bars "Intr."; all topologies grouping Por-1SL and He-1SL vs Ber-1SL, Ber-2AR,

Seh-2AR and Ar-2AR). Regions consistent with introgression are scattered over the entire ge-

nome.

Crosses and QTL mapping suggest a polygenic basis to lunar rhythmicity. As a first attempt

to get hold of ecologically relevant loci, we assessed the genetic basis to lunar rhythmicity by

crossing the lunar-arrhythmic Ber-2AR strain with the lunar-rhythmic Ber-1SL strain. Interest-

ingly, the degree of lunar rhythmicity segregates within and between crossing families (Sup-

plementary Fig. 10), suggesting a heterogeneous polygenic basis of lunar arrhythmicity. Ge-

netic segregation in the cross implies that the weak rhythm observed in Ber-2AR is due to

genetic polymorphism. The Ber-2AR strain seems to carry some lunar-rhythmic alleles, likely

due to gene flow from the sympatric *Atlantic ecotype* (see Fig. 1C and results below).

For QTL mapping, we then picked a set of F2 families, which all go back to a single parental

pair (BsxBa-F2 34; n=272 Supplementary Fig. 10). As a phenotype, we scored the degree of

lunar rhythmicity for each individual as the number of days between the individual's emer-

gence and day 9 of the artificial turbulence cycle, which is the peak emergence day of the

lunar-rhythmic strain (Supplementary Fig. 11). However, QTL analysis with various algorithms

did not reveal any significant QTL for lunar rhythmicity (Fig. 4). As a control that in principle

we had sufficient power for QTL mapping in this crossing family, we also mapped the sex de-

termining locus, which was clearly detectable (Fig. 4). We can conclude that lunar rhythmicity

must have a polygenic basis with many loci of small effects.

Figure 3   **Genome screens for haplotype sharing and genotype-ecotype associations**

(**A**) Topology weighting of phylogenetic trees for 36 individuals from the *Baltic* and *Atlantic ecotypes*, as obtained from 50 kb non-overlapping genomic windows. Windows were marked by a bar if they were dominated by one kind of topology ($w_\tau > 75\%$). Most windows are not dominated by the consensus population topology ("Orig."; Suppl. Fig. 9), but by combinations of other topologies ("Misc."). Windows dominated by topologies that separate the *Baltic* and *Atlantic ecotypes* ("Ecol.") are mostly on chromosome 1. Windows consistent with introgression are found all over the genome ("Intr."). (**B**) Distribution of outlier variants (SNPs and Indels) between the six *Baltic* and *Atlantic ecotype* populations, after global correction for population structure (X^tX statistic). Values below the significance threshold (as obtained by subsampling) are plotted in grey. (**C**) Association of variant frequencies with *Baltic* vs. *Atlantic ecotype* (eBP_{mc}). Values below the threshold of 3 (corresponding to $p = 10^{-3}$) are given in grey, values above 10 are given in red. (**D**) Genetic differentiation (F_{ST}) between the sympatric ecotypes in Bergen. Values above 0.5 are given in black, values above 0.75 in red. (**E**) The distribution of SNPs with $F_{ST} >= 0.75$ in the *Baltic* vs. *Atlantic ecotypes*. Circled numbers mark the location of the eight most differentiated loci (see Fig. 6). Centromeres of the chromosomes are marked by a red "C".

Figure 4 **Quantitative Trait Locus (QTL) mapping for lunar rhythmicity and the sex determining locus.**

No significant QTLs can be detected for lunar rhythmicity, suggesting it is controlled by many loci of small effects. The sex-determining locus is clearly detectable, indicating that the is no general lack of power in the mapping panel.

Genomic regions associated with ecotype formation. Given that QTL mapping for lunar rhythmicity suggested a polygenic basis to ecotype formation, we next applied three approaches to identify genomic regions associated with divergence between *Atlantic* and *Baltic* *ecotypes*.

First, genomic windows which are dominated by tree topologies that group populations according to ecotype were highlighted (Fig. 3A, red bars "Ecol.").

Second, we screened all genetic variants (SNPs and indels; n=948,128) for those that are overly differentiated between the six populations after correcting for the neutral covariance structure across population allele frequencies (see Ω matrix, Supplementary Fig. 12A-B). Such variants can indicate local adaptation. At the same time, we tested for association of these variants with ecotype, as implemented in BayPass[27]. Overly differentiated variants (X^tX statistic; Fig. 3B) and ecotype-associated variants ecotype (eBP$_{mc}$; Fig. 3C) were detected all over the genome, but many were concentrated in the middle of the telocentric chromosome 1. Tests for association of variants with environmental variables such as sea surface temperature or salinity find fewer associated SNPs and no concentration on chromosome 1 (Supplementary Fig. 12D-E), confirming that the detected signals are not due to general genome properties, but are specific to the ecotypes.

Third, we expected that gene flow between the sympatric Ber-1SL and Ber-2AR populations

would largely homogenize their genomes except for regions involved in ecological adaptation,

which would be highlighted as peaks of genetic differentiation. The distributions of F_{ST} values

in all pairwise population comparisons confirmed that genetic differentiation was particularly

low in the Ber-1SL vs. Ber-2AR comparison (Supplementary Fig. 13 and 14). Pairwise differen-

tiation between Ber-1SL and Ber-2AR (Fig. 3D) shows marked peaks on chromosome 1, most

of which coincide with peaks in X^tX and eBP_{mc}. Notably, when assessing genetic differentiation

of *Baltic* vs *Atlantic ecotype* (72 vs 72 individuals; Fig. 3E; Supplementary Fig. 15), there is not

a single diagnostic variant ($F_{ST} = 1$), and even variants with $F_{ST} \geq 0.75$ are very rare (n=63; Fig.

3E).

Genetic divergence (d_{xy}), nucleotide diversity (π) and local linkage disequilibrium (r^2) of the

two Bergen populations do not show marked differences along or between chromosomes

(Supplementary Fig. 16). The cluster of ecotype-associated variants on chromosome 1 over-

laps with three large blocks of long-range linkage disequilibrium (LD; Supplementary Fig. 17).

However, the boundaries of the LD blocks do not correspond to the ecotype-associated region

and differ between populations. LD blocks are not ecotype-specific. Local PCA of the strongly

ecotype associated region does not reveal patterns consistent with a chromosomal inversion

or another segregating structural variant (Supplementary Fig. 18). Thus, there is no obvious

link between the clustering of ecotype-associated loci and structural variation. Notably, ge-

netic differentiation is not generally elevated in the ecotype-associated cluster on chromo-

some 1, as would be expected for a segregating structural variant, but drops to baseline levels

in between ecotype-associated loci (Fig. 3D).

Taken together, these observations imply that numerous genomic loci – inside and outside

the cluster on chromosome 1 – are associated with ecological adaptation and none of these

are differentially fixed between ecotypes. In line with QTL mapping, this virtually excludes the

possibility that only one or few loci have driven the new ecotype formation, suggesting instead

that ecotype formation is based on a complex polygenic architecture.

Support for adaptation from standing genetic variation. If, as assumed above, adaptation

in these populations was indeed based mostly on standing genetic variation, one should find

evidence in this in the data structure. We selected highly ecotype-associated SNPs ($X^tX >$

1.152094, threshold obtained from randomized subsampling; $eBP_{mc} > 3$; n=3,976; Supplemen-

tary Fig. 19A) and assessed to which degree these alleles are shared between the studied pop-

ulations and other populations across Europe. Allele sharing between the Bergen populations

is likely due to ongoing gene flow, and hence Bergen populations were excluded from the

analysis. In turn, allele sharing between the geographically isolated Seh-2AR, Ar-2AR, Por-1SL

and He-1SL populations likely represents shared ancient polymorphism. Based on this com-

parison, we found that 82% of the ecotype-associated SNPs are polymorphic in both *Atlantic*

and *Baltic ecotypes*, suggesting that the largest part of ecotype-associated alleles originates

from standing genetic variation. We then retrieved the same genomic positions from pub-

lished population resequencing data for *Atlantic ecotype* populations from Vigo (Spain) and

St. Jean-de-Luz (Jean, southern France)[14], an area that is potentially the source of postglacial

colonization of all locations in this study. We found that 90% of the alleles associated with the

Northern European ecotypes are also segregating in at least one of these southern popula-

tions, supporting the notion that adaptation in the North involves a re-assortment of existing

standing genetic variation.

Ecotypes differ mainly in the circadian clock and nervous system development. In the light

of a polygenic architecture for ecotype formation, we can expect that usually several genes of

a relevant physiological pathways are affected. This provides an ideal setting to identify the

physiological processes underlying ecotype formation by enrichment analysis. Accordingly, we

assessed how all ecotype-associated variants (SNPs and indels; $X^tX > 1.148764$; $eBP_{mc} > 3$,

n=4,741; Supplementary Fig. 19B) relate to *C. marinus'* genes. In a first step, we filtered the

existing gene models in the CLUMA1.0 reference genome to those that are supported by tran-

script or protein evidence, have known homologues or PFAM domains, or were manually cu-

rated (filtered annotations provided in Supplementary Data 2; 15,193 gene models). Based on

this confidence gene set, we then assessed the location of variants relative to genes, as well

as the resulting mutational effects (SNPeff[28]; Supplementary Fig. 20; statistics in Supplemen-

tary Tab. 2). The vast majority of ecotype-specific variants are classified as intergenic modifier

variants, suggesting that ecotype formation might primarily rely on regulatory mutations.

Figure 5 **GO term analysis of ecotype associated SNPs**

(**A**) The top 40 enriched GO terms are listed for the 1,400 genes that are found to be affected by eco-
type-associated genetic variants (eBP$_{mc}$ > 3). For each GO term the significance level (black line, top y-
axis) and the observed-expected ratio of genes annotated to the respective GO term (blue bars, bot-
tom y-axis) are given. (**B**) The top 40 GO terms are driven by 168 genes. Hierarchical clustering of
genes and GO terms reveals major signals in the circadian clock and nervous system development
(more details in Supplementary Table 3). (**C**) Most GO terms are consistent with the known ecotype
differences and selected genes are highlighted for all of them. Notably, basically all core circadian
clock genes are affected.

The ecotype-specific SNPs are found in and around 1,400 genes (Supplementary Data 3 and

4). We transferred GO terms from other species to the *Clunio* confidence annotations based

on gene orthology (5,393 genes; see methods and Supplementary Data 5). GO term enrich-

ment analysis suggests that ecological adaptation prominently involves the circadian clock,

supported by three of the top four GO terms (Fig. 5A). In order to identify which genes drive

GO term enrichment in the top 40 GO terms, we extracted the genes that harbour ecotype-

associated SNPs (168 genes; Fig. 5B; Supplementary Table 3). We individually confirmed their

gene annotations and associated GO terms. Clustering the resulting table by genes and GO

terms reveals two dominant signatures (Fig. 5B). Many GO terms are associated with circadian

timing and are driven by a small number of genes, which include almost all core circadian clock

genes (Fig. 5B and C). As a second strong signal, almost half of the genes are annotated with

biological processes involved in nervous system development (Fig. 5B and C). GO term enrich-

ment is also found for ecdysteroid metabolism, imaginal disc development and gonad devel-

opment (Fig. 5). These processes of pre-pupal development are expected to be under circal-

unar clock control. The fact that circalunar clocks are responsive to moonlight and water tur-

bulence[9] renders the finding of GO term enrichment for "auditory behaviour" and "photo-

taxis" interesting. Furthermore, many of the genes involved in nervous system development

and sodium ion transport, also have GO terms that implicate them in light- and mechanore-

ceptor development, wiring or sensitivity (Supplementary Data 5). With the exception of "re-

sponse to hypoxia" and possibly "sodium ion transmembrane transport", there are very few

GO terms that can be linked to the submerged larval habitat of the *Baltic ecotype*, which is

usually low in salinity and can turn hypoxic in summer. There is a striking absence of GO terms

involved in metabolic processes or immune response.

Taken together, the detected GO terms are highly consistent with the known ecotype dif-

ferences and suggest that ecotypes are mainly defined by changes in the circadian clock and

nervous system development. A previously unknown aspect of *Clunio* ecotype formation is

highlighted by the GO terms "male courtship behaviour", "inter-male aggression" and "copu-

lation" (Fig. 5). These processes are subject to sexual selection and considered to evolve fast.

They could in the long term entail assortative mating between ecotypes.

Strongly differentiated loci correspond to GO-term enriched biological processes. While GO term analysis gives a broad picture of which processes have many genes affected by ecotype-associated SNPs, this does not necessarily imply that these genes and processes also show the strongest association with ecotype. Additionally, major genes might be missed because they were not assigned GO terms. As a second line of evidence, we therefore selected variants with the highest ecotype-association by increasing the eBP_{mc} cut-off to 10. This reduced the set of affected genes from 1,400 to 69 (Supplementary Data 6 and 7). Additionally, we only considered genes with variants that are strongly differentiated between the ecotypes ($F_{ST} \geq 0.75$, compare Fig. 3E), leaving thirteen genes in eight distinct genomic regions (Fig. 6A; numbered in Fig. 3E). Two of these regions contain two genes each with no homology outside *C. marinus* (indicated by "NA", Fig. 6A), confirming that GO term analysis missed major loci because of a lack of annotation. Three other regions contain the – likely non-visual – photoreceptor *ciliary Opsin 1* (*cOps1*)[29], the transcription factor *longitudinals lacking* (*lola;* in fruit fly involved in axon guidance[30] and photoreceptor determination[31]) and the nuclear receptor *tailless* (*tll;* in fruit fly involved in development of brain and eye[32]), underscoring that ecotype characteristics might involve differential light sensitivity. Interestingly, *tll* also affects development of the neuroendocrine centres involved in ecdysteroid production and adult emergence[33]. Even more, re-annotation of this genomic locus revealed that the neighbouring gene, which is also affected by ecotype specific variants, is the *short neuropeptide F receptor* (*sNPF-R*) gene. Among other functions, sNPF-R is involved in coupling adult emergence to the circadian clock[34]. Similarly, only 100 kb from *cOps1* there is the differentiated locus of *matrix metalloprotease 1* (*Mmp1*), which is known to regulate circadian clock outputs via processing of the neuropeptide *pigment dispersing factor* (PDF)[35]. In both cases, the close genetic linkage could possibly form pre-adapted haplotypes and entail a concerted alteration of sensory and circadian functions in the formation of ecotypes. In the remaining two loci, *sox100B* is known to affect male gonad development[36] and the *ecdysone-induced protein 93F* is involved in response to hypoxia in flies[37], but was recently found to also affect reproductive cycles in mosquitoes[38]. In summary, only two out of the top 13 ecotype-associated genes were comprised

in the top 40 GO terms (Fig. 6A). Nevertheless, all major biological processes detected in GO term analysis (Fig. 5) are also reflected in the strongly ecotype-associated loci (Fig. 6), giving a robust signal that circadian timing, sensory perception and nervous system development are underlying ecotype formation in *C. marinus*.

Finally, we assessed the top 13 strongly ecotype-associated loci for signatures of selective sweeps in genetic diversity and LD (Fig. 6B-G). Despite these loci being the most differentiated between ecotypes in the entire genome, there is at best a mild reduction in genetic diversity and a mild increase in LD (Fig. 6B-G). If selection acted on these loci, it must have been very soft, underscoring a history of polygenic adaptation from standing genetic variation and continued recombination.

Legend | eBP$_{mc}$>10 | eBP$_{mc}$>3 | eBP$_{mc}$<3 | Por-1SL | He-1SL | Ber-1SL | Ber-2AR | Seh-2AR | Ar-2AR

Figure 6 **The 13 most differentiated ecotype-associated genes**

(**A**) Loci with highly ecotype-associated variants were selected based on eBPmc > 3 and F$_{ST}$(Baltic-Atlantic) > 0.75. There are 13 genes in eight distinct genomic loci. (**B-G**) An overview is given for the six loci with identified genes. In each panel, from top to bottom the sub-panels show the gene models, F$_{ST}$ values of genetic variants in the region, local linkage disequilibrium (LD) and genetic diversity (π). F$_{ST}$ values are coloured by ecotype association of the variant (red: eBP$_{mc}$ > 10; black: 10 > eBP$_{mc}$ > 3; grey: eBP$_{mc}$ < 3). LD and genetic diversity are shown for the six populations independently, coloured-coded as in Fig. 1 and 2. The are no strong signatures of selection.

Discussion

The deep genomic analysis of *Clunio* populations has allowed to reconstruct a detailed bi-ogeographic history of their different ecotypes. Most surprisingly, the two sympatric ecotypes that were considered different species turned out to be the most closely related populations in the sample, testifying the high power of ecology in generating differential adaptation in the face of gene flow. The data allowed further to infer a polygenic architecture for ecotype for-mation. We found that while ecotype-associated alleles differ in allele frequency, they are largely shared between ecotypes, which suggests that adaptation primarily involves standing genetic variation from many different loci. A similar re-use of existing regulatory variation has been found in ecotype formation in sticklebacks[39-41] or mimicry in *Heliconius* butterflies[42]. However, while in *Heliconius* alleles are shared over large evolutionary distances via introgres-sion, *Clunio* ecotypes diverged recently from a common source, as is illustrated by massive and genome-wide shared polymorphism. Combined with the observation that many genes from the same biological processes have ecotype-associated alleles, this draws a picture of polygenic adaptation, involving many pre-existing alleles with probably small phenotypic ef-fects. Particularly for adaptation in circadian timing this scenario is highly plausible. The an-cestral *Atlantic ecotype* comprises many genetically determined circadian timing types that are adapted to the local tides[11,12,14,43]. Existing genetic variants conveying emergence at dusk were likely selected or re-assorted to form the *Baltic ecotype*'s highly concentrated emer-gence at dusk.

Besides circadian timing, the ecotypes differ in circalunar timing and oviposition behavior. In our study the vast majority of GO terms and candidate genes is consistent with these func-tions, leaving little risk for evolutionary "story-telling" based on individual genes or GO terms[44]. We propose that good congruence between known phenotypic differences and de-tected biological processes could be a hallmark of polygenic adaptation, as only polygenic ad-aptation is expected to leave a footprint in many genes of the same ecologically relevant bio-logical process.

Based on our genomic comparison of lunar-rhythmic and lunar-arrhythmic ecotypes, we propose three not mutually exclusive hypotheses on molecular pathways involved in the

unknown circalunar clock. Firstly, *Clunio*'s circalunar clock is known to tightly regulate ecdys-teroid-dependent development and maturation just prior to pupation[45]. Congruently, our screen identified ecotype-associated genes in the development of imaginal discs and genital discs, and in ecdysteroid metabolism. Lunar arrhythmicity may rely on an escape of these pro-cesses from circalunar clock control. Secondly, it has been hypothesized that circalunar clocks involve a circadian clock[46] and such a mechanism has been experimentally confirmed in the midge *Pontomyia oceana*[47]. Thus, the overwhelming circadian signal in our data might be re-sponsible for both circadian timing adaptations and the loss of circalunar rhythms. Thirdly, *Clunio*'s circalunar clock is synchronized with the external lunar cycle via moonlight, as well as tidal cycles of water turbulence and temperature[9]. Our data suggests that sensory receptor development, wiring or sensitivity might differ between ecotypes. Interestingly, some *Atlantic ecotype* populations are insensitive to specific lunar time cues, either moonlight or mechanical stimulation by the tides[11]. These pre-existing insensitivities may have been combined to form completely insensitive and hence lunar-arrhythmic ecotypes. This scenario would fit the gen-eral pattern of polygenic adaptation through a re-assortment of standing genetic variation, which emerges from our study.

In several species, genes involved in complex behavioral or ecological syndromes were found to be locked into supergenes by chromosomal inversions, e.g. in *Heliconius* butterfly mimicry[48] or reproductive morphs of the ruff[49]. While we observe a clustering of ecotype-associated alleles in *Clunio*, there is no obvious connection to an underlying structural variant (SV). Possibly, the SV is so complex that it did not leave an interpretable genomic signal. Alter-natively, *Clunio*'s long history of genome rearrangements[14] may have resulted in a clustering of ecologically relevant loci without locking them into a single SV. Clustering could be stabi-lized by low recombination, consistent with the observed three LD blocks, which – while not ecotype-specific – all overlap with the differentiated region. Epistatic interactions between the clustered loci and co-adaptation of alleles might further reduce the fitness of recombi-nants and lead to a concerted response to selection. Such an interconnected adaptive cluster might allow for more flexible evolutionary responses than a single, completely linked

464   supergene. Further studies will have to show whether such a genome architecture exists,

465   whether it facilitates adaptation and whether it might itself be selected for.

Methods

Nomenclature of ecotypes. We expanded the existing naming convention of *C. marinus* timing types[43] to also include *Baltic* and *Arctic ecotypes*. Names of populations and corresponding laboratory strains consist of an abbreviation for geographic origin followed by a code for the daily and lunar timing phenotypes. Daily phenotypes in this study are emergence during the first 12 hours after sunrise ("1") or, emergence during the second 12 hours after sunrise ("2") or emergence during every low tide ("t" for tidal rhythm). Lunar phenotypes in this study are either emergence during full moon and new moon low tides ("SL" for semi-lunar) or arrhythmic emergence ("AR"). As a consequence, the *Arctic ecotype* is "tAR", the *Baltic ecotype* is "2AR" and the *Atlantic ecotype* populations in this study are all of timing type "1SL" (while other timing types exist within the *Atlantic ecotype*[43]).

Fieldwork and sample collection. Field samples for genetic analysis and establishment of laboratory strains were collected in Sehlendorf (Seh, Germany), Ar (Sweden), Tromsø (Tro, Norway) and Bergen (Ber, Norway) during eight field trips in 2017 and 2018 (Supplementary Tab. 4). Field caught adult males for DNA extraction were directly collected in 99.98 % ethanol and stored at -20°C. Females are immobile and basically invisible in the field, unless found in copulation. Laboratory strains were established by catching copulating pairs in the field and transferring multiple fertilized egg clutches to the laboratory (Supplementary Tab. 4). Samples and laboratory strains of the sympatric ecotypes in Bergen were collected at the same location but at different daytime. Additional samples and laboratory strains from Helgoland (He, Germany) and Port-en-Bessin (Por, France) were collected and described earlier[14,43,50], but had previously not been subject to whole genome sequencing of individuals.

Laboratory culture and phenotyping of ecotypes. Laboratory strains were reared under standard conditions[51] at 20°C with 16 h of light and 8 h of darkness. *Atlantic* and *Arctic ecotype* strains were kept in natural seawater diluted 1:1 with deionized water and fed with diatoms (*Phaeodactylum tricornutum*) and powdered nettles (*Urtica sp.*). The *Baltic ecotype* was kept

in natural Sea water diluted 1:2 and fed with diatoms and powdered red algae (90%, *Delesseria*

spp., 10% *Ceramium spp.*, obtained from F. Weinberger and N. Stärck, GEOMAR, Kiel). For

entrainment of the lunar rhythm all strains were provided with 12.4 h tidal cycles of water

turbulence (mechanically induced vibrations produced by an unbalanced motor, 50 Hz,

roughly 30 dB above background noise, 6.2 h on, 6.2 h off)[52,53].

Assignment of strains to ecotypes was confirmed based on their phenotypes as recorded

in laboratory culture. Oviposition behavior was assessed during standard culture mainte-

nance: *Baltic ecotype* eggs are generally found submerged at the bottom of the culture vessel,

Atlantic and *Arctic ecotype* eggs are always found floating on the water surface or on the walls

of the culture vessel (see Supplementary Note 1). Daily emergence times were recorded in 1h

intervals by direct observation (Seh-2AR, Ar-2AR) or with the help of a fraction collector[54] (Ber-

1SL, Ber-2AR, Tro-tAR, Por-1SL, He-1SL; Supplementary Fig. 1). Lunar emergence times were

recorded by counting the number of emerged midges in the laboratory cultures every day

over several months and summing them up over several tidal turbulence cycles. Emergence

data for He-1SL was taken from[55], emergence data for Por-1SL was taken from a manuscript

in preparation (D Briševac, C Prakash, TS Kaiser).

Crosses and Quantitative Trait Locus (QTL) mapping. The Ber-1SL and Ber-2AR laboratory

strains were subject to single-pair crossing after their emergence rhythms were synchronized

by keeping them in separate, time-shifted LD regimes. Several F1 families were raised inde-

pendently and the F1 siblings were allowed to mate freely in order to obtain bulk F2 families.

Emergence distributions were recorded by collecting all emerged adults every day.

Bulk crossing family 34 (n=272) was selected for QTL mapping. DNA of the two parents and

the F2 progeny was extracted with the QuickExtract DNA Extraction Solution (Lucigen,

QE0905T) according to manufacturer's protocol with modifications. Instead of vortexing be-

fore incubation, a pestle was used to grind the sample. In order to identify scorable markers

for the genetically very similar strains, the two parents of the cross were subject to whole-

genome sequencing. Raw reads were processed through our genotyping pipeline (described

below), resulting in 656,368 detected variants, 53,097 of which were diagnostic for the

grandparents. Based on the list of diagnostic markers, we picked eight evenly spaced regions

on each chromosome for amplicon sequencing (Supplementary Fig. 21, Supplementary Tab.

5). Multiplex PCR was performed with the QIAGEN Multiplex PCR Kit (206143) for each chro-

mosome primer set separately (15 min at 95°C; 40 cycles of 94°C for 30 s, 57°C for 90 s and

72°C for 90 s; 72°C for 10 min). Sequencing libraries were prepared with standard Illumina

protocols and sequenced with 150 bp paired-end on the Illumina HiSeq3000 sequencer by the

Max Planck Genome Centre (Cologne, Germany). Sequencing reads from independent runs

were first merged to one read file for forward and reverse reads. Those files were again sub-

ject to our genotyping pipeline (described below) with the exception that the mapped reads

in SAM format undergone a coverage capping of 40 using a custom python script and the VCF

was filtered for a minimum minor allele frequency of 0.25 ('--maf 0.25') and a maximum pro-

portion of missing data per locus of 30% ('--max-missing 0.7'). All markers that were not diag-

nostic for the parents were removed. In case genotypes differed within an amplicon, a con-

sensus amplicon genotype was called by majority.

For QTL mapping the degree of rhythmicity of an individual was recorded as the number of

days between its emergence day and day 9, which is the peak of emergence in the rhythmic

strain (Ber-1SL). As this phenotype is not normally distributed (Kolmogorov-Smirnov test and

the Shapiro-Wilk test of normality) it was treated as non-parametric. QTL scans were per-

formed in the R package 'qtl' [56]. The genome scans with different QTL models followed the

calculation of conditional genotype probabilities in 5 cM distances and simulated genotypes

from 64 imputations with the same distance. Both phenotypes (lunar rhythmicity, sex) were

scanned for a single QTL model in the 'scanone()' function (method = "em"). Significance

thresholds were set at top 5% of the logarithm of the odds (LOD) scores for 1000 permuta-

tions. The 'stepwise.qtl()' function for identification of multiple and interacting QTLs returned

a null QTL model for lunar rhythmicity.

DNA extraction and whole genome sequencing. For each of the seven populations, 24 field

caught males (23 for Por-1SL, 25 for He-1SL) were subject to whole genome sequencing. DNA

was extracted from entire individuals with a salting out method[57] and amplified using the

REPLI-g Mini Kit (QIAGEN) according to the manufacturer's protocol with volume modifica-

tions (Supplementary Tab. 6). All samples were subject to whole genome shotgun sequencing

at 15-20x target coverage on an Illumina HiSeq3000 sequencer with 150 bp paired-end reads.

Library preparation and sequencing were performed by the Max Planck Genome Centre (Co-

logne, Germany) according to standard protocols. Raw sequence reads are deposited at ENA

under Accession PRJEB43766.

Sequence data processing, genotyping and SNP filtering. Raw sequence reads were

trimmed for adapters and base quality using Trimmomatic v.0.38[58] with parameters 'ILLUMI-

NACLIP:TruSeq3-PE-2.fa:2:30:10:8:true', 'LEADING:20', 'TRAILING:20', 'MINLEN:75'. Overlap-

ping paired end reads were merged with PEAR v.0.9.10[59], setting the minimum assembled

sequence length to 75 bp and a capping quality score of 20. Assembled and unassembled

reads were mapped with BWA-MEM[60] to the nuclear reference genome[14] (ENA accession

GCA_900005825.1) and the mitochondrial reference genome (ENA accession

CVRI01023763.1) of *C. marinus*. Mapped reads were sorted, indexed, filtered for mapping

quality (-q 20) and transformed to BAM format with SAMtools v.1.9[61]. Read group information

was added with the AddOrReplaceReadGroups.jar v.1.74 script from the Picard toolkit

(http://picard.sourceforge.net/) [62].

For the nuclear genome, SNPs and insertion-deletion (indel) genotypes were called using

GATK v.3.8-0-ge9d806836[63]. After initial genotype calling with the GATK HaplotypeCaller and

the parameter '-stand_call_conf 30', base qualities were recalibrated with the GATK Bas-

eRecalibrator with '-knownSites' and genotype calling was repeated on the recalibrated BAM

files to obtain the final individual VCF files. Individual VCF files were combined using GATK

GenotypeGVCFs. SNP and indel genotypes were filtered with VCFtools v.0.1.14 [64] to keep only

biallelic polymorphisms (--max-alleles 2), with a minimum minor allele frequency of 0.02 (--

maf 0.02), a minimum genotype quality of 20 (--minQ 20) and a maximum proportion of miss-

ing data per locus of 40% (--max-missing 0.6), resulting in 792,032 SNPs and 156,096 indels

over the entire set of 168 individuals. For certain analyses indels were excluded with VCFtools

('--remove-indels').

Reads mapped to the mitochondrial genome were transformed into mitochondrial haplo-

types as described in [65].

Population genomic analyses. Mitochondrial haplotype networks were calculated using

the Median-Joining algorithm[66] with Network v.10.1.0.0 (fluxus-engineering.com).

Nuclear SNP genotypes were converted to PLINK format with VCFtools. SNPs were LD

pruned with PLINK v.1.90b4[67] and parameters '--indep-pairwise 50 10 0.5' as well as '--chr-set

3 no-xy no-mt --nonfounders'. Principal Component Analysis (PCA) was performed in PLINK

using the option '--pca' with the options default settings. The pruned BED file from PLINK was

used as input to ADMIXTURE v.1.3.0[68], with which we assessed a series of models for K=1 to

K=10 genetic components, as well as the corresponding the cross-validation error ('--cv'). Mi-

gration was further tested by converting the SNP data to TreeMix format with the *vcf2tree-*

mix.sh script[69] and running *TreeMix 1.13*[70] with default parameters and the southernmost Por-

1SL as root population.

Population estimates along the chromosomes were calculated in 100 kb overlapping slid-

ing-windows with 10 kb steps. Nucleotide diversity (π) was calculated for SNPs with VCFtools

'--window-pi'. For the genome-wide average, calculations were repeated with 200kb non-

overlapping windows. Linkage disequilibrium (LD; as r^2) was calculated in VCFtools with '--

geno-r2'. Local LD was calculated with '--ld-window-bp 500'. Preliminary tests showed that

local LD decays within a few hundred base pairs (Supplementary Fig. 22). For long range LD

minor allele frequency was filtered to 0.2 ('--maf 0.2', resulting in 335,800 SNPs), only values

larger 0.5 were allowed with '--min-r2 0.5' and the '--ld-window-bp 500' filter was removed.

Pairwise F_{ST} was calculated with VCFtools '--weir-fst-pop' option per SNP and in sliding win-

dows. For calculation of genetic divergence (d_{xy}), allele frequencies were extracted with

VCFtools '--freq' and d_{xy} was estimated from allele frequencies according to [71].

Phylogenomics and topology weighting. Nuclear genome phylogeny was calculated for a

random set of six individuals from each population, without Tro-tAR (n=36). For windowed

phylogenies, the VCF file was subset into non-overlapping 50 kb windows using VCFtools '--

from-bp --to-bp'. SNP genotypes were transformed into FASTA alignments of only informative

sites with the vcf2phylip.py v.2.3 script[72] and parameters '-m 1 -p -f'. Heterozygous genotypes

were represented by the respective IUPAC code for both bases. Whole genome and windowed

phylogenies were calculated with IQ-TREE v.1.6.12 [73] using the parameters '-st DNA -m MFP -

keep-ident -redo' for the windowed and '-st DNA -m MFP -keep-ident -bb 1000 -bnni -nt 10 -

redo' for the whole genome phylogenies. Topology weighting was performed on the win-

dowed phylogenies with TWISST [74] and the parameter '--method complete'.

Association analysis. Population-based association between genetic variants (SNPs and In-

dels) and ecotype, as well as environmental variables (Supplementary Tab. 7) was assessed in

BayPass v.2.2 [27]. Allele counts were obtained with VCFtools option '--counts'. Analyzed covari-

ates were ecotype, sea surface salinity (obtained from [75]) and average water temperature of

the year 2020 (obtained from weather-atlas.com, accessed 27.04.2020; 16:38), as given in

Supplementary Tab. 7. BayPass was run with the MCMC covariate model. BayPass corrects for

population structure via Ω dissimilarity matrices, then calculates the X^tX statistics and finally

assesses the approximate Bayesian p value of association (eBP_{mc}). To obtain a significance

threshold for X^tX values, the data was randomly subsampled (100,000 genetic variants) and

re-analyzed with the standard covariate model, as implemented in baypass_utils.R. All ana-

lyses we performed in three replicates (starting seeds 5001, 24306 and 1855) and the median

is shown.

SNP effects and GO term enrichment analysis. Gene annotations to the CLUMA1.0 refer-

ence genome [14] were considered reliable if they fulfilled one of three criteria: 1) Identified

ortholog in UniProtKB/Swiss-Prot or non-redundant protein sequences (nr) at NCBI or PFAM

domain, as reported in [14]. 2) Overlap of either at least 20% with mapped transcript data or

40% with mapped protein data, as reported in [14]. 3) Manually annotated. This resulted in a

15,193 confidence genes models. The location and putative effects of the SNPs and indels

relative to these confidence gene models were annotated using SnpEff 4.5 [28] (build 2020-04-

15 22:26, non-default parameter `-ud 0'). Gene Ontology (GO) terms were annotated with

emapper-2.0.1. [76] from the eggNOG 5.0 database[77], using DIAMOND [78], BLASTP e-value $<1e^{-10}$

and subject-query alignment coverage of >60%. Conservatively, we only transferred GO terms

with "non-electronic" GO evidence from best-hit orthologs restricted to an automatically ad-

justed per-query taxonomic scope, resulting in 5,393 *C. marinus* gene models with GO term

annotations. Enrichment of "Biological Process" GO terms in the genes associated with eco-

type-specific polymorphisms was assessed with the weight01 Fisher's exact test implemented

in topGO [79] (version 2.42.0, R version 4.0.3).

Figure preparation. Figures were prepared in R[80]. Data were handled with the 'data.table'[81]

and 'plyr'[82] packages. The map of Europe was generated using the packages 'ggplot2'[83] and

'ggrepel' [84], 'maps'[85] and 'mapdata'[86]. The map was taken from the CIA World DataBank II

(http://www.evl.uic.edu/pape/data/WDB/). Circular plots were prepared using the R package

'circlize'[87]. Multiple plots were combined in R using the package 'Rmisc'[88]. The graphical edit-

ing of the whole genome phylogeny was done in Archeopteryx (http://www.phylosoft.org/ar-

chaeopteryx)[89]. Final figure combination and graphical editing of the raw plot files was done

in *Inkscape*. Neighbor Joining trees of the omega statistic distances from BayPass were created

with the R package 'ape'.[90] In all plots the order and orientation of scaffolds within the chro-

mosomes follows the published genetic linkage map[14].

Data availability

Sequencing data for field samples and mapping families are deposited at ENA under Accession PRJEB43766. Filtered genome annotations are given in Supplementary Dataset 2.

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Author contributions

NF performed field work, laboratory work, QTL mapping, population genomic analyses and association analysis, prepared the figures and participated in drafting the manuscript. CP analyzed SNP effects and GO term enrichment and participated in figure preparation. TSK conceived, designed and supervised the study, participated in data analysis and figure preparation and wrote the manuscript. All authors approved of the final manuscript.

687 **Competing interests**

689 There are no competing interests.

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