

1 **Genomic bases of insularity and ecological**
2 **divergence in barn owls (*Tyto alba*) of the Canary**
3 **Islands**

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35

36 Abstract

37 Islands, and the particular organisms that populate them, have long fascinated biologists. Due
38 to their isolation, islands offer unique opportunities to study the effect of neutral and adaptive
39 mechanisms in determining genomic and phenotypical divergence. In the Canary Islands, an
40 archipelago rich in endemics, the barn owl (*Tyto alba*) is thought to have diverged into a
41 subspecies (*T. a. gracilirostris*) on the eastern islands, Fuerteventura and Lanzarote. Taking
42 advantage of 40 whole-genomes and modern population genomics tools, we provide the first
43 look at the origin and genetic makeup of barn owls of this archipelago. We show that the
44 Canaries hold diverse, long-standing and monophyletic populations with a neat distinction of
45 gene pools from the different islands. Using new method, less sensitive to structure than
46 classical F_{ST} , to detect regions involved in local adaptation to the insular environment, we
47 identified a haplotype-like region likely under positive selection in all Canaries individuals. Genes
48 in this region suggest morphological adaptations to insularity. In the eastern islands, where the
49 subspecies *T. a. gracilirostris* is present, genomic traces of selection pinpoint signs of locally
50 adapted body proportions and blood pressure, consistent with the smaller size of this population
51 living in a hot arid climate. In turn, genomic regions under selection in the western barn owls
52 from Tenerife showed an enrichment in genes linked to hypoxia, a potential response to
53 inhabiting a small island with a marked altitudinal gradient. Our results illustrate the interplay of
54 neutral and adaptive forces in shaping divergence and early onset speciation.

55

56 **Key words** – Local adaptation; Niche analysis; Population genomics; *T. a. gracilirostris*; Whole
57 genome sequencing

58

59 Introduction

60 Due to the often-peculiar organisms that inhabit them, islands have always fascinated
61 naturalists and scientists alike. Since Darwin's first visit to the Galapagos in 1835, the study of
62 insular populations has been crucial to the development of evolutionary theory (MacArthur and
63 Wilson 1967; Grant 1998; Warren et al. 2015). Labelled nature's test tubes, islands are home to
64 a myriad of endemic (sub)species. Moreover, the combination of their relatively small size,
65 discrete borders, geographical isolation and natural replication provides an excellent setting to
66 study the evolutionary forces underlying population divergence and speciation (Losos and
67 Ricklefs 2009). The divergence of insular populations from their founders and surrounding
68 islands is the result of neutral and selective forces. Disentangling the respective impacts of
69 these two forces is a challenging task, as they are interconnected and can both contribute to
70 genetic and phenotypic differentiation.

71 Isolated and small populations, such as those frequently found on islands, are under a markedly
72 strong influence of genetic drift. This process will alter the genetic makeup of the population by
73 randomly removing rare alleles and fixating common ones, hence decreasing genetic diversity
74 (Frankham 1997). This is a common occurrence on islands which, coupled with low gene flow,
75 can lead to inbreeding (Keller and Waller 2002) and accelerate neutral divergence. Conversely,
76 the absence of regular gene flow, and the often distinctive ecological conditions of the islands,
77 can facilitate the action of local adaptation on beneficial alleles (Lenormand 2002; Tigano and
78 Friesen 2016). This process can lead to the emergence of ecomorphs via ecological divergence
79 as populations adapt to unfilled insular niches (Losos and Ricklefs 2009), particularly so in
80 remote islands that are colonized less often (MacArthur and Wilson 1963). Ecomorphs can
81 occur in different islands or in the same one (Gillespie et al. 1997; Losos et al. 1998; Gillespie
82 2004), a concept mirrored in inland lakes (Malinsky et al. 2015), the aquatic homologous of
83 islands. Eventually, ecomorphs can become new subspecies or even species and, in extreme
84 cases, result in adaptive radiations as illustrated by Darwin's finches (Grant 1999; Lamichhaney
85 et al. 2015).

86 The Afro-European barn owl (*Tyto alba*) is a non-migratory, nocturnal raptor present from
87 Scandinavia to Southern Africa. It is also found on numerous islands and archipelagos where
88 subspecies have often been described (Uva et al. 2018). A recent study of the species' genetic
89 structure in the Western Palearctic (Cumer et al. 2021) described two main lineages occupying
90 this region: the eastern lineage in the Levant and the western in Europe. In addition, Cumer et
91 al. (2021) showed that barn owls from Tenerife (Canary Islands) were very distinct from both
92 lineages. The Canaries are a volcanic archipelago that was formed several million years ago
93 (Anguita and Hernán 2000) about 100 km from the coast of north-western Africa and was never
94 connected to the mainland. This long-term isolation (Norder et al. 2019), along with its
95 subtropical climate and elevation gradients (Steinbauer et al. 2016), has resulted in high
96 endemism, for example in plants (Carine et al. 2009), reptiles (Thorpe and Baez 1993; Nogales
97 et al. 1998; Nogales et al. 2001; Molina-Borja 2003; Mateo et al. 2011), mammals (Hutterer et
98 al. 1987; Pestano et al. 2003; Firmat et al. 2010; Masseti 2010) and birds (Illera et al. 2016;
99 Lifjeld et al. 2016; González Melián 2018; Senfeld et al. 2020). Among them, an endemic barn
100 owl subspecies, *T. a. gracilirostris* (Hartert, E, 1905), has been described based on its
101 morphological traits, especially for its smaller size and darker coloration (Bannerman and
102 Bannerman 1963; Clements et al. 2019). This subspecies is recorded in the eastern Canary
103 Islands of Lanzarote and Fuerteventura, as well as in its surrounding islets (Lobos, Alegranza,
104 Montaña Clara and La Graciosa), and is the only barn owl in this sector of the archipelago
105 (Siverio 2007).

106 The presence of this subspecies on the eastern islands is surprising however, given that it is
107 sandwiched between the western islands and the mainland which both harbour the nominal
108 species *T. alba*. Lacking any evidence of different colonization origins or timing, this could
109 suggest that selection to local conditions acting on the eastern population has accelerated
110 divergence in comparison to the western one. In both cases, neutral and adaptive
111 microevolutionary processes promoting divergence of insular populations would leave traces on
112 their genomic makeup. The advances in sequencing technology, and its decreasing costs, now
113 allow to sequence the entire genomes of individuals. With the parallel development of

114 sophisticated tools, it is possible to analyse changes in allelic frequencies at a high resolution to
115 investigate the history of populations and inspect the genomic landscape for signals of local
116 adaptation.

117 Here, we investigate the genomic bases of differentiation of barn owls from the Canary Islands.
118 Making use of the whole-genome sequences from 40 individuals, we first describe the neutral
119 genetic structure and diversity of the Canaries populations in contrast to the mainland, in order
120 to retrace their history. Second, we employ a new relatedness-based method to probe the
121 genomic landscape of these isolated populations for signals of local adaptation to the insular
122 environment in regards to the mainland. Third, we characterize the climatic niches barn owls
123 occupy on eastern and western islands, and explore how each population is diverging to adapt
124 to their niches from a genomic perspective. Our results elucidate the genomic bases of the
125 differentiation of insular populations, thus enlightening the classification of the Canaries barn
126 owls.

127

128 **Materials & Methods**

129 **Whole-genome sequencing, SNP calling and identification of coding regions**

130 For this study, 40 individual barn owls were sampled from four populations (Figure 1;
131 Supplementary Table 1): Eastern Canaries (EC, Fuerteventura and Lanzarote), Western Canary
132 (WC, Tenerife), Morocco (MA), Portugal (PT) and Israel (IS). All but the EC and MA populations
133 were published in previous work, including a North American owl that was used as an outgroup
134 for some analyses (Genbank accession JAEUGV000000000 (Cumer et al. 2021; Machado et al.
135 2021). For EC and MA, we followed the same molecular and sequencing protocol as in the
136 aforementioned publications. Succinctly, genomic DNA was extracted using the DNeasy Blood &
137 Tissue kit (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany) and individually tagged 100bp TruSeq DNA PCR-free
138 libraries (Illumina) were prepared according to manufacturer's instructions. Whole-genome
139 resequencing was performed on multiplexed libraries with Illumina HiSeq 2500 high-throughput
140 paired-end sequencing technologies at the Lausanne Genomic Technologies Facility (GTF,
141 University of Lausanne, Switzerland).

142 The bioinformatics pipeline used to obtain analysis-ready SNPs from the 40 individuals plus the
143 outgroup was the same as in (Machado et al. 2021), adapted from the Genome Analysis Toolkit
144 (GATK) Best Practices (van der Auwera et al. 2013) to a non-model organism following the
145 developers' recommendations. Briefly, reads were trimmed with Trimomatic v.0.36 (Bolger et
146 al. 2014) and aligned with BWA-MEM v.0.7.15 (Li and Durbin 2009) to the barn owl reference
147 genome (GenBank accession JAEUGV000000000; Machado et al. 2021). Base quality score
148 recalibration (BQSR) was performed in GATK v.4.1.3 using high-confidence calls obtained from
149 two independent callers: GATK's HaplotypeCaller and GenotypeGVCF v.4.1.3 and ANGSD v.0.921
150 (Korneliussen et al. 2014). Following BQSR, variants were called with GATK's HaplotypeCaller
151 and GenotypeGVCFs v.4.1.3 from the recalibrated bam files. Genotype calls were filtered using
152 GATK and VCFtools (Danecek et al. 2011) if they presented: low individual quality per depth (QD
153 < 5), extreme coverage (600 > DP > 1000), mapping quality (MQ < 40 and MQ > 70), extreme

154 hetero or homozygosity ($\text{ExcessHet} > 20$ and $\text{InbreedingCoeff} > 0.9$) and high read strand bias
155 ($\text{FS} > 60$ and $\text{SOR} > 3$). We filtered further at the level of individual genotype for low quality (GQ
156 < 20) and extreme coverage ($\text{GenDP} < 10$ and $\text{GenDP} > 40$). Lastly, we kept only bi-allelic sites
157 with less than 5% of missing data across individuals resulting in 7'283'516 SNP. For analyses of
158 neutral population structure and demography, an exact Hardy-Weinberg test was used to
159 remove sites that significantly departed ($p < 0.05$) from the expected equilibrium using the R (R
160 Development Core Team 2016) package `HardyWeinberg` (Graffelman and Morales-Camarena
161 2008; Graffelman 2015) yielding 6'827'220 SNP with a mean coverage of 19.9X (4.6 SD).

162

163 **Population structure and genetic diversity**

164 To investigate population structure among our samples, `sNMF v.1.2` (Frichot et al. 2014) was run
165 for K 2 to 5 in 25 replicates to infer individual clustering and admixture proportions. For this
166 analysis, singletons were excluded and the remaining SNPs were pruned for linkage
167 disequilibrium in `PLINK v1.946` (Purcell et al., 2007; parameters `-indep-pairwise 50 10 0.1`) as
168 recommended by the authors, retaining 288'775 SNP. The same dataset was used to perform a
169 Principal Component Analysis (PCA) with the R package `SNPRelate` (Zheng et al. 2012). A
170 second PCA was performed by merging the data in this study with that of (Cumer et al. 2021)
171 that includes European populations (total of 2'036'320 SNP with no missing data) to assess
172 where the Eastern Canary population (unsampled in Cumer et al. 2021) falls among the larger
173 sampling.

174 Individual observed heterozygosity and population-specific private alleles were estimated using
175 custom R scripts for each population. Individual-based relatedness (β ; (Weir and Goudet 2017;
176 Goudet et al. 2018), inbreeding coefficients for whole genome SNP data (F_{IS} and F_{IT}), overall,
177 population specific and pairwise F_{ST} (Weir and Goudet 2017) were calculated with `hierfstat v.0.5-`
178 `9` (Goudet 2005).

179

180 **Demographic history**

181 To investigate the demographic history of the insular populations and potential admixture
182 events we used Treemix (Pickrell and Pritchard 2012). Using the LD-pruned dataset filtered
183 further to include no missing data (228'980 SNP), Treemix was run for 10 replicates with 0 to 5
184 migration events, rooting the tree on the IS population, given its position on the PCA and what is
185 known of the region from previous work (Cumer et al. 2021). The function `get_f` was used to
186 estimate the variance explained by adding migration events.

187

188 **Detection of genomic regions under selection**

189 *Insular vs mainland barn owls*

190 In this study, we aimed to identify genomic regions potentially under selection at two different
191 levels. First, to detect signatures of selection specific to barn owls of the Canary Islands, we
192 grouped insular individuals (EC and WC) and compared them to the mainland ones (MA, PT and
193 IS). A script by Simon Martin
194 (https://github.com/simonhmartin/genomics_general/blob/master/popgenWindows.py) was
195 used to estimate genome wide patterns of relative (F_{ST}^{LvsML}) and absolute (d_{xy}) divergence
196 between the insular and mainland groups, and to calculate nucleotide diversity (π) per group, in
197 windows of 100kbp with 20kbp steps.

198 **SNPrelate** was used to calculate a pairwise matrix of linkage disequilibrium (r) from SNPs with
199 over 5% minor allelic frequency (MAF) over all insular individuals (EC and WC) on one hand and
200 all mainland individuals (PT, MA and IS) in the other, which was then squared to obtain r^2 . For
201 plotting, we estimated the mean of non-overlapping 100 SNP windows.

202 The topology weighting method implemented in **Twisst** (Martin and Van Belleghem 2017), was
203 used to quantify the relationships between the five populations in our dataset and visualize how
204 they change along the genome. **Twisst** estimated the topology based on trees produced using
205 **Randomized Axelerated Maximum Likelihood (RAxML) v8.2.12** (Stamatakis 2014). **RAxML**

206 inferred trees in sliding windows (100kb of length, 20kb of slide) using a generalized time-
207 reversible (GTR) CAT model with Lewis ascertainment bias correction. Twisst then estimated the
208 weighting of each taxon topology (defined as the fraction of all unique population sub-trees) per
209 window.

210 Finally, we calculated population specific F_{ST} from allele sharing matrices (β ; (Weir and Goudet
211 2017; Goudet et al. 2018) in sliding windows of 100kbp with 20kbp steps, using hierfstat. For
212 each matrix, we calculated i) the mean allele sharing for pairs of individuals from islands and ii)
213 the mean allele sharing for pairs of individuals, one from an island and the other from the
214 mainland, from which we obtain the islands specific F_{ST} . We shall refer to this estimate as F_{ST}
215 island-specific (F_{ST}^{can} ; see Sup. Fig. 1 for a schematic representation). This method allowed us to
216 identify genomic regions of high differentiation exclusively on the islands with no confounding
217 effect from the mainland (see also Weir et al. 2005).

218 From the genome wide scans, we identified peaks of differentiation with at least two
219 overlapping windows of F_{ST}^{can} higher than 5 standard deviations (SD) from the mean (threshold:
220 0.377), and extracted the genes in these regions from the NCBI's annotation of the reference
221 genome (RefSeq accession: GCF_018691265.1). The gene list was then fed to ShinyGO v0.61
222 (Ge et al. 2020) to investigate potential enrichment of molecular pathways.

223

224 *Eastern vs Western Canary Islands*

225 On a second stage, to investigate potential genomic signals of differentiation, putatively linked
226 with ecological adaptation to their distinct niches, we contrasted the two insular lineages (EC
227 against WC). We estimated pairwise F_{ST} , d_{xy} and π as for the island-mainland comparison
228 described above.

229 Then, as for the island-mainland comparison above, we used hierfstat to calculate population
230 specific F_{ST} in sliding windows of 100kbp with 20kbp steps based on a dataset including only
231 the insular individuals. For each island, we consequently identified genomic regions with at least

232 two overlapping windows of pairwise F_{ST} higher than 5 SD from the mean (regions highly
233 differentiated between islands, threshold: 0.157) and above the 99th quantile of each
234 population's F (regions highly similar within each island, respective threshold for F_{ST}^{EC} = 0.404
235 and for F_{ST}^{WC} =0.393) and extracted the genes in these regions as described above. This yielded
236 two genes lists, one per island, which were input to ShinyGO as above.

237

238 **Climatic niche analysis**

239 To assess whether the barn owl populations of eastern and western Canaries occupy different
240 climatic niches, we used the Outlying Mean Index (OMI) approach (Dolédec et al. 2000) as
241 implemented in the R package *ade4* v.1.7-16. Observation points for barn owls were compiled
242 from three different sources: Global Biodiversity Information Facility (GBIF), samples sequenced
243 in this study and in Burri et al. (2016). We kept records only from the islands sampled in this
244 study, namely Tenerife (*T. alba*; N=79) and Lanzarote and Fuerteventura (*T. a. gracillirostris*;
245 N=34 and N=39, respectively).

246 Climatic variables for the Canary Islands were extracted from the WorldClim database (Hijmans
247 et al. 2005) at 30 sec resolution (approximately 1 km²) using the R package *rbioclim* (Exposito-
248 Alonso 2017). Redundant variables (correlation of 1) were trimmed and the final model was run
249 with the following 13 variables: Mean Diurnal Range (BIO2), Isothermality (BIO3), Temperature
250 Seasonality (BIO4), Max Temperature of Warmest Month (BIO5), Min Temperature of Coldest
251 Month (BIO6), Temperature Annual Range (BIO7), Mean Temperature of Driest Quarter (BIO9),
252 Annual Precipitation (BIO12), Precipitation of Driest Month (BIO14), Precipitation Seasonality
253 (BIO15), Precipitation of Warmest Quarter (BIO18), Precipitation of Coldest Quarter (BIO19).

254

255 Results

256 Population structure and genetic diversity

257 The overall F_{ST} in our dataset was 0.0698. Individual ancestry analyses with sNMF distinguished
258 four genetic clusters, separating each population into its own cluster, except Morocco (MA) and
259 Portugal (PT) that clustered together (Fig. 1a). Similarly, PCA clustering clearly grouped
260 individuals according to their population, except PT and MA (Fig. 1c). The first axis opposed the
261 insular populations to the mainland, as did sNMF $K=2$ (Sup. Fig. 2), with Eastern Canary (EC) and
262 Israel (IS) at each extreme. The second axis contrasted the two insular populations EC and
263 Western Canary (WC), as in $K=3$ (Sup. Fig. 2), and finally the third axis segregated the mainland
264 groups with PT and MA opposed to IS, as in $K=4$ (Fig. 1a, 1c). Three individuals from EC (one
265 from Fuerteventura and two from Lanzarote) showed small ancestry levels from both WC and PT
266 in sNMF and were placed intermediately on axes 1 and 2 of the PCA. In the PCA including the
267 European individuals, the first axis remained qualitatively the same with EC and WC together in
268 opposition to IS (Sup. Fig. 3). Axes 2 and 3 switched positions, with MA, PT and the rest of
269 Europe being first isolated from the rest and only then the two Canary split from each other
270 (Sup. Fig. 3). In terms of differentiation, pairwise F_{ST} were highest between both islands and IS
271 (EC-IS 0.092; WC-IS 0.088) as well as between islands (WC-EC 0.084). The mainland
272 populations were overall less differentiated (all below 0.04), with PT and MA having the lowest
273 F_{ST} with all other populations in accordance with their central position on the PCA (all below
274 0.06 for PT and 0.061 for MA), and the lowest between themselves (0.007) (Table 1).

275 Treemix yielded a population tree highly resembling the first PCA axis, with two main branches
276 splitting from the IS root, one towards PT and MA and the second to WC and EC (Sup. Fig. 4).
277 Most of the variance was explained by the tree with no migration (0.993). Nonetheless, the tree
278 with two migration events displayed the highest likelihood (162.284), with one migration edge
279 from the base of WC towards the tip of PT (edge weight 0.33) and the other from the base of PT

280 towards the tip of EC (edge weight 0.13). Adding more than two migration events to the tree did
281 not improve its fit to the data.

282 Overall, mainland populations presented higher genetic diversity than the insular ones (Table 1).
283 Nonetheless, both insular populations showed over 280'000 private polymorphic sites (Table 1).
284 Accordingly, individual relatedness was higher within and between insular populations (Sup. Fig.
285 5), and PT had the lowest within population relatedness. All populations showed signs of
286 random mating with F_{IS} close to zero but slightly negative as expected of dioecious species
287 (Balloux 2004), while the inbreeding levels of insular barn owls relative to the whole set of
288 populations (F_{IT}) were higher than those on the mainland (Table 1), a reflection of their isolation
289 from the continent.

290

291 **Island vs mainland genomic comparisons**

292 In order to measure the differentiation between islands and mainland individuals, we computed
293 two distinct F_{ST} along the genome (see methods for details). F_{ST}^{Can} allowed the detection of
294 regions of high similarity in the islands as a whole, whereas F_{ST}^{LvsML} produced less clear results
295 with population-specific allelic frequencies driving the overall signal instead of the defined
296 groups. For example, F_{ST}^{LvsML} yielded a peak of differentiation between the islands and the
297 mainland which, upon closer inspection of pairwise comparisons of the populations, turned out
298 to be due to differences between EC and the mainland only, whereas WC did not produce the
299 same signal (Sup. Fig. 6). The genomic comparisons of diversity and divergence between insular
300 and mainland barn owls based on the F_{ST}^{Can} yielded 48 regions (478 100kb overlapping
301 windows) of high differentiation including 100 genes (Fig. 2a). ShinyGO analyses identified an
302 enrichment of five functional categories related to morphogenesis in humans (Sup. Table 2). The
303 largest enriched pathway – anatomical structure morphogenesis – included 25 of the genes in
304 regions of high genomic differentiation. The remaining three categories – anatomical structure
305 formation involved in morphogenesis, tube morphogenesis and blood vessel morphogenesis –
306 were subsets of the largest pathway, including 15, 14, 12 and 10 of the 25 genes, respectively.

307 The largest of the peaks encompassed 15Mb of Super-Scaffold_1000006. Of all the genes
308 found in peaks of differentiation, 87 out of 100 were within this region. Here, insular owls
309 showed a strong decrease in relative diversity compared to the mainland (F_{ST}^{Can}), as well as a
310 drop of absolute divergence (d_{xy}) between each other and nucleotide diversity (π). The region
311 showed strong LD (r^2) in all insular owls between neighbouring variants compared to the rest of
312 the scaffold (Fig. 2b), which was not the case among continental ones (Sup. Fig. 7). In addition,
313 F_{ST} was higher between island and mainland owls (Sup Fig. 6). Twisst showed roughly similar
314 proportions of each tree along the genome, except for this region where there was a higher than
315 average proportion of trees that joined EC and WC (Sup. Fig. 8). Of the 25 genes of the
316 morphogenesis pathway, 18 were found in this closely-linked region of
317 Super_Scaffold_1000006 (21% of the total 87 genes of the region).

318

319 **Eastern vs Western Canary Islands**

320 *Climatic niche analysis*

321 To investigate the genomic and ecological differentiation between island populations (EC and
322 WC), we first depict different climate in the two set of islands based on barn owl observations in
323 the Canary Islands. The climatic niche analyses (OMI) yielded two axes that explained the
324 climatic variability in our study area (Fig. 3b), with the first axis (OMI1) explaining nearly all of it
325 (99.3%). OMI1 was positively correlated with temperature and negatively correlated with
326 precipitation (Sup. Fig. 10). The eastern population *T. a. gracilirostris* occupied a narrow niche of
327 high temperature, low precipitation and low seasonal and daily variability. *T. alba* in Tenerife
328 occupied a broader niche that covered most of OMI1, including some of the niche of *T. a.*
329 *gracilirostris*. OMI2 explained little of the variability (0.7%), spreading slightly each population's
330 niche without segregating them.

331

332 *Detection of differentially selected genomic regions*

333 We then searched for regions under selection in each island, yielding to a total of 33 putatively
334 adaptive regions (14 in EC and 19 in WC), with high differentiation (F_{ST}) between island and
335 increased relatedness within each island (F_{ST}^{EC} and F_{ST}^{WC}), from which we obtained two lists of
336 genes (Fig. 3c, 3d). For EC, there were 30 such genes (Sup. Table 3) while for WC there were 25
337 genes (Sup. Table 4). Enrichment analyses found no link to a specific GO pathway for either
338 island population. Nonetheless, in each island there were clusters of genes with similar
339 identified functions, namely body proportions and blood pressure in EC, and cellular response to
340 hypoxia in WC.

341 **Discussion**

342 Islands offer unique conditions for organisms to adapt and expand their niches. In the Canaries,
343 an archipelago rich in endemics, the barn owl is one of the few raptors present and is thought to
344 have diverged into a subspecies on the easternmost islands. Taking advantage of whole-
345 genome sequences, we first investigate the origin of the population of barn owls in the Canary
346 Islands, revealing that the latter are long-standing populations and allowing us to address their
347 taxonomic classification. Using a new, more sensitive method based on excess of allele sharing
348 within the islands, we detect 58 putatively locally adapted genomic segments, many of them
349 grouped in a haplotype-like region seemingly under positive selection in the Canary Islands. A
350 quarter of the tightly linked genes in this genomic region are enriched for genes contributing to
351 a pathway of anatomical morphogenesis suggesting morphological adaptations to insularity. We
352 also identify scattered genomic regions putatively locally adapted to either the eastern and
353 western islands. For eastern Canaries, the identified genes in regions under positive selection
354 belong to pathways linked to body proportions and blood pressure, consistent with the smaller
355 owl size of this population living in a hot arid climate. In the western Canaries, barn owls from
356 Tenerife display a potential signal of selection of genes related to hypoxia, a potential response
357 to inhabiting an island with a steep elevation gradient.

358

359 **Barn owls from the Canary Islands and Mediterranean Basin**

360 Our work shows that, while each population in the study area has its own unique genetic
361 composition (Fig. 1), barn owls from the Canary Islands are distinct from those on the mainland
362 surrounding the Mediterranean Basin. Indeed, clustering methods constantly opposed insular
363 individuals to mainland ones (Fig. 1c; Sup. Fig. 2) and were supported by the drift-based trees of
364 Treemix. Thus, overall, our current results indicate that the two insular lineages – Eastern and
365 Western Canaries – have a common origin.

366 In terms of genetic diversity, the islands were less diverse than the mainland as expected and
367 showed slightly higher levels of inbreeding relative to the whole set (Frankham 1997). However,
368 they presented nearly 10-fold higher levels of private alleles than those reported for other
369 islands in the Atlantic (British Isles; Machado et al. 2021) and in the Mediterranean Sea (Cyprus
370 and Greek islands; Machado et al. 2021). Notably, the two Canaries insular populations, about
371 165 Km apart, were more distant genetically from each other than either was from Portugal,
372 over 1000 Km away. Furthermore, they were more distant from each other even than WC was
373 from any population in continental Europe in a recent genomic study (Cumer et al. 2021), as
374 well as in an earlier one with microsatellites (Burri et al. 2016). The high private diversity could
375 be partially explained by the small number of samples in north-western Africa, which may be
376 masking any shared polymorphisms between the islands and the nearest mainland as private to
377 the former. However, as we did sample PT and IS, the most diverse populations in the Western
378 Palearctic assumed to meet in northern Africa (Cumer et al. 2021), much of this insular diversity
379 is likely indeed private. Therefore, the Canaries appear to have been colonized much earlier than
380 the other studied insular populations and have thus had the time for *in situ* mutations to
381 accumulate in spite of genetic drift, which is supported by their higher divergence as well. These
382 populations may also reflect a more ancient lineage from northern Africa that would have been
383 replaced or simply evolved in a different direction and only the addition of samples from African
384 mainland (on top of the three MA samples) would allow to fully depict the neutral history of
385 these populations.

386

387 **Insularity**

388 We found multiple evidence of adaptation common to both barn owl lineages of the Canary
389 Islands. To do so, we used an estimator of population specific F_{ST} (Weir and Goudet 2017;
390 Goudet et al. 2018) to identify genomic regions with an excess of shared ancestry in all insular
391 individuals relatively to the mean shared ancestry between islands and mainland individuals.
392 Being a moment estimator, it can process efficiently a large amount of genomic loci, compared

393 to maximum likelihood or Bayesian estimators (e.g. Foll and Gaggiotti 2008). More importantly,
394 it does not rely on the F-model, which assumes independent populations. This island specific F_{ST}
395 (F_{ST}^{Can}) identified regions of increased relatedness between insular individuals compared to the
396 averaged relatedness along the genome (i.e. regions in which all insular individuals resemble
397 each other more than expected). This population specific, moment based and model-free
398 estimator of F_{ST} provides a clearer result than classical pairwise F_{ST} scan, as it focuses on the
399 diversity in the target population rather than taking an average over the set of populations, and
400 should be a useful addition to the population genomic toolbox to detect nested signals of local
401 adaptation, especially when there is substructure in the groups one wishes to compare. We thus
402 considered regions highly similar in insular individuals as putatively under selection on the
403 islands. The genomic landscape of F_{ST}^{Can} differentiation between insular and mainland owls
404 yielded 58 windows putatively under selection (Fig. 2a). Among these, a particularly large and
405 clear peak of differentiation stood out. This region approximately 15 Mb in length was highly
406 similar among insular individuals (Sup. Fig. 9) as shown by the accompanying drop in d_{XY} and π
407 (Fig. 2b). Furthermore, the increased linkage between alleles in this region suggests that it is
408 transmitted in a haplotype-fashion. Crucially, the fact that we do not see the slightest surge of
409 LD in mainland individuals confirms that it is not a by-product of a region of low-recombination
410 in this species (Sup. Fig. 7). Overall, we provide strong evidence of positive selection in this
411 genomic region in Canary Islands owls, suggesting an adaptation to insularity (Fig. 2).

412 A fifth of the genes in this haplotype (18 out of 87), in conjunction with 7 other genes in
413 potentially adaptative regions, significantly enriched the anatomical structure morphogenesis
414 pathway (Sup. Table 2), a biological process related to the organisation and generation of
415 anatomical structure during development. This suggests positive selection on some
416 morphological trait on insular individuals. Given that there is evidence of gene flow from the
417 mainland into both islands (see admixed individuals in Fig. 1, Sup Fig, S2), we propose two
418 hypotheses to explain how selection might act on this haplotype. First, it could confer a
419 significant advantage to individuals carrying it on the island and prevent those that do not carry
420 it from reproducing or surviving. In this scenario, immigrants from the mainland not carrying this

421 haplotype would reproduce less in both islands. In the second scenario, selection would happen
422 on the migrants themselves before reaching the island if, for example, the haplotype facilitates
423 long flight over large spans of water. It is widely accepted that, given how dispersal capacity is
424 highly variable across species, even among birds, some are more prone to colonizing islands
425 than others. Therefore, it is also conceivable that, within a species or population, some
426 individuals are morphologically more predisposed or have better dispersal abilities than others.
427 Since the barn owl generally avoids flying over open water, as demonstrated by its consistently
428 higher differentiation on islands (Cumer et al. 2021; Machado et al. 2021, n.d.), this seems
429 plausible. The absence of phenotypic measurements from the sequenced birds prevents us from
430 establishing a link between phenotypes and genotypes on this data set, and we hence remain
431 cautious on the speculation regarding the functional implications of this haplotype. Future work
432 should verify the frequencies of this haplotype in a larger cohort as we only had 19 insular
433 individuals in this study and, if possible, include detailed morphometric measurements to allow
434 a GWAS-like approach.

435

436 **Ecological divergence**

437 In the Canary archipelago, both the eastern islands and Tenerife have many specific endemic
438 species across multiple taxa. This is generally attributed to their intrinsic characteristics driving
439 ecological speciation, namely the arid and windy conditions of Lanzarote and Fuerteventura, and
440 the elevation gradient of the Teide volcano (up to 3'718m a.s.l.) in Tenerife. We quantified the
441 climatic differences between the two environments with a niche analysis based on reported
442 barn owl observations, and show that indeed barn owls occupy significantly different niches on
443 each group of islands (Fig. 3b). In the east, they are found on unvaryingly hot and dry locations,
444 whereas Tenerife covers a wide range of temperature and precipitation (Fig. 3b).

445 From the genomic data, we found evidence of local adaptation on both insular populations (Fig.
446 3c, 3d). The eastern population had more genomic regions, and more genes, potentially under
447 selection compared to the west (30 and 25 genes, respectively). Although no significant

448 pathway enrichment was detected in either population, there were clear groups of genes with
449 similar known functions in the putatively adapted regions. In the eastern population there were
450 two such groups. The first, composed of 7 genes, has significant links to body size and
451 proportions in humans (see Sup. Table 3 and references therein). Among these, a specific set of
452 4 genes – *HIP1R*, *CCDC62*, *VPS37B* and *ABCB9* – is tightly clustered in the barn owl genome
453 (Fig. 3c). These four genes have been linked to body height, body-mass-index and other body
454 measurement ratios (Turcot et al. 2018; Kichaev et al. 2019; Vuckovic et al. 2020; Zhu et al.
455 2020), and may thus play a role in the smaller size of barn owls in the eastern population, which
456 would then be adaptive. The second group of genes in regions potentially under selection,
457 includes 11 genes related to numerous blood parameters (Sup. Table 3), a similar signal to that
458 seen in chickens adapted to hot arid environments (Gu et al. 2020). In particular, the gene
459 *MTHFR* has extensive connections to blood pressure (Newton-Cheh et al. 2009; Ehret et al.
460 2016; Liu et al. 2016; Surendran et al. 2016; Hoffmann et al. 2017; Wain et al. 2017; Kulminski
461 et al. 2018; German et al. 2020), a trait known to vary with environmental temperature in
462 mammals (Halonen et al. 2011) and birds (Darre and Harrison 1987), potentially suggesting
463 barn owls have circulatory systems adapted to the hot and dry conditions of the eastern
464 Canaries.

465 In the western island population, regions putatively under selection contained an interesting
466 group of 4 genes - *EPAS1*, *PRKCE*, *MCFD2* and *FZD8* - with links to red blood cells, haemoglobin
467 density and cellular response to hypoxia (i.e. low levels of oxygen; Sup. Table 4; Astle et al.
468 2016; Kichaev et al. 2019; Chen et al. 2020; Oskarsson et al. 2020; Vuckovic et al. 2020). Red
469 blood cells, and the haemoglobin within, are responsible for transporting oxygen in the body and
470 are direct targets of selection at high elevation (O'Brien et al. 2020). The gene *EPAS1* in
471 particular, is well known for being involved in adaptation to high altitude environments across
472 vertebrates (Witt and Huerta-Sánchez 2019). These genes hints at a possible adaptation of barn
473 owls to higher altitude in Tenerife. On this small island, barn owls are mostly concentrated at
474 lower altitude (i.e. along the coast – 0 to 300m a.s.l.) and their repartition is limited in the
475 central part of the island by the presence of the colossal peak of Teide volcano (3715m a.s.l.;

476 Silverio 1998). This is consistent with the known limited ability of this bird to live at high
477 altitudes (Machado et al. 2018; Cumer et al. 2021). However, the observation of individuals up to
478 1200m a.s.l. and the presence of breeding couples at moderate altitudes (600 to 1200m a.s.l.)
479 (Silverio 1998), support the hypothesis of an ongoing adaptation to higher altitude in this insular
480 population. This hypothesis, which deserves further investigations, is also consistent with
481 observations made in other populations in warm climates; where local barn owl populations
482 expand their range by adapting to slightly higher altitudes (Romano et al. 2020).

483 Considering its wide distribution, even accounting for phenotypic plasticity, barn owls' capacity
484 to adapt to a variety of prey and environments is unquestionable. As such, detecting signals of
485 local adaption in the Canary Islands is not surprising. Indeed, with islands generally being
486 species-poor, the species that do inhabit them have to adapt to different or broader niches via
487 ecological divergence (Losos and Ricklefs 2009). This is especially true of volcanic islands that
488 arise isolated and uninhabited, in contrast to those intermittently connected to the mainland
489 and more easily colonized. Moreover, the community of birds of prey in the Canary archipelago
490 includes less than half the species found in the nearby mainland (8 diurnal and 2 nocturnal
491 species; Martín and Lorenzo, 2001; rodriguez et al. 2018), likely due to the lack of suitable
492 habitat, preys and/or the limited surface. A by-product of this is the reduction of inter-specific
493 competition, which could have allowed the barn owl to maintain population sizes just large
494 enough on the islands through time for selection to act and potentially expand its niche to better
495 exploit the insular environment. Our results suggest this is happening in parallel on each island
496 (Fig. 3c, 3d), consistent with their different niches (Fig. 3b) and relative genetic isolation,
497 producing two distinct ecomorphs, adapted to distinct ecosystems.

498

499 **Insular subspecies**

500 The eastern islands of Lanzarote and Fuerteventura, and adjacent islets (Fig. 3a) are home to
501 the barn owl subspecies *T. a. gracilirostris*. This classification is based on its smaller size and
502 even on colouration pattern, although the latter is contested by ornithologists and inconsistent

503 with reported phenotypical measurements (Burri et al. 2016). The reduction in size is actually a
504 common pattern in insular barn owls (Romano et al. 2021), and could be an adaptation to
505 nesting in very small cavities (i.e. cracks in lava walls) and/or to better navigate the strong
506 winds in the eastern islands (Siverio 2007). The genomic data presented here is consistent with
507 this population forming an endemic subspecies. It has diverged considerably from the mainland,
508 with higher differentiation levels than barn owls from any other studied island in the Western
509 Palearctic (Machado et al. 2021, n.d.). Moreover, we show it carries high levels of private genetic
510 diversity and multiple genomic regions showing signs of local adaptation (Fig. 3c).

511 In contrast, barn owls from Tenerife and the remaining islands are considered to belong to the
512 nominal *T. alba* found also on the mainland surrounding the Mediterranean Basin (Fig. 3a).
513 However, it too has considerably diverged from the mainland and shows signs of potential
514 ongoing adaptation in Tenerife and its elevation gradient (see previous section). Furthermore, it
515 clusters with the other insular Canary population rather than the mainland (Fig. 1). While it is
516 not the aim of this study to evaluate what constitutes a subspecies, we provide evidence that
517 the Tenerife population is diverging significantly from its founding population, both neutrally and
518 adaptively, albeit at a slower pace than the eastern population.

519 The reasons why the eastern population is more divergent than the western, a puzzling fact
520 considering it is closer to the mainland, are not yet fully resolved. Neutral divergence in F_{ST}
521 between these two insular populations suggest they are the result of two independent
522 colonisation events rather than a strict east-to-west progression as described for other taxa
523 (Juan et al. 2000). Although the islands themselves emerged from east to west, Tenerife is at
524 least 11 million years old, twice the inferred time of formation of the *T. alba* species (Uva et al.
525 2018) and thus available for colonisation at the time. Nonetheless, an earlier settlement of the
526 eastern islands would have given more time for both genetic drift and selection to promote
527 divergence. Alternatively, a very small population size in the east, consistent with current census
528 data (Palacios 2004, Silverio 2007), could account for the stronger drift in a scenario of
529 simultaneous colonization. However, it would strongly hinder local adaptation, making it a less

530 likely hypothesis since we identified more regions putatively under selection in this population.
531 Further work, including an extensive sampling of all island populations, as well as demographic
532 modelling, would be needed to resolve this intriguing pattern and refine the history of the barn
533 owl in the Canary archipelago.

534

535 **Conclusion**

536 Due to their intrinsic characteristics, islands house numerous endemics making them ideal
537 systems to study the bases of ecological divergence. We provide empirical evidence that both
538 neutral and adaptive evolutionary mechanisms shaped divergence from the mainland in barn
539 owls from the Canary archipelago. Our results show clear signs of genome-wide differentiation
540 (i.e. neutral), a combination of mutations (high private diversity; Table 1) and drift (high F_{ST} and
541 F_{IT}), consistent with theoretical expectations for populations established and isolated long ago
542 despite some admixture. We also identify signals of local adaptation to common insular
543 conditions (Fig. 2), as well as to each island's niche, creating ecomorphs (Fig. 3). While the
544 history and functional effect of the putatively adapted genomic regions identified here deserve
545 further investigation, these observations highlight how selection can still act on small isolated
546 populations. This study illustrates the capacity of a widespread bird to adapt to the local
547 ecological conditions of small islands, an adaptative capacity which may prove essential in
548 facing a changing global climate.

549

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560

561 **Data Accessibility**

562 The raw Illumina reads for the whole-genome sequenced individuals are available in BioProjects
563 PRJNA700797, PRJNA727977 and PRJNA774943. Sampling locations used for niche
564 modelling are given in appendix 1.

565

566 **Author Contributions**

567 APM, TC, AR, JG designed this study; FS, MC, IR, RL provided samples; APM produced whole-
568 genome resequencing libraries; TC and APM conducted the analyses; APM and TC led the
569 writing of the manuscript with input from all authors.

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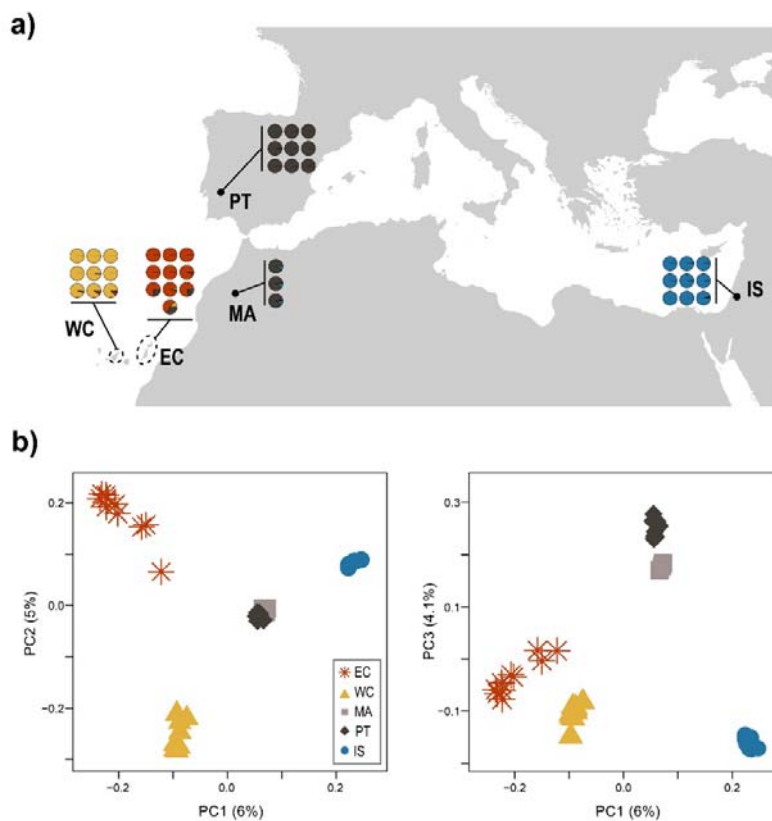
1105 Tables & Figures

1106 **Table 1** – Genetic diversity and population differentiation of barn owls from the Mediterranean Basin
 1107 and the Canary Islands. Right-hand-side of the table shows the matrix of population pairwise F_{ST} .

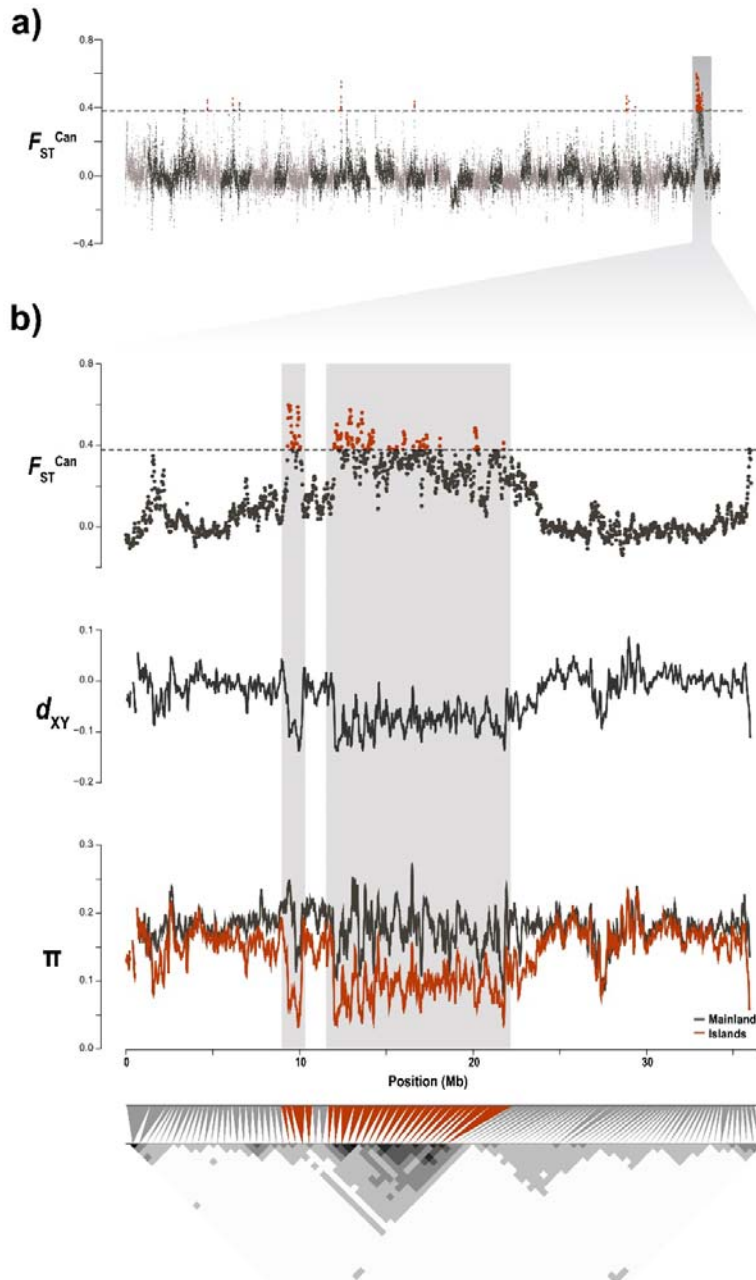
Population	Abbrev.	N	#PA	#rPA	H_o	F_{IS}	F_{IT}	F_{ST}	EC	WC	MA	PT	IS
Eastern Canary	EC	10	324458	265175 (3829)	0.161 (0.013)	-0.015 (0.08)	0.10 (0.07)	EC	0.112	0.081	0.061	0.060	0.088
Western Canary	WC	9	288313	288313	0.167 (0.006)	-0.030 (0.04)	0.07 (0.03)	WC	0.081	0.105	0.055	0.054	0.083
Morocco	MA	3	234524	692508 (13287)	0.190 (0.001)	-0.04 (0.01)	-0.06 (0.01)	MA	0.061	0.055	-0.013	0.007	0.034
Portugal	PT	9	669889		0.182 (0.008)	-0.013 (0.04)	-0.01 (0.04)	PT	0.060	0.054	0.007	0.014	0.039
Israel	IS	9	703392	703392	0.180 (0.002)	-0.036 (0.04)	-0.004 (0.01)	IS	0.088	0.083	0.034	0.039	0.050

1108 N – number of sampled individuals; #PA – private alleles in each population; #rPA – private alleles
 1109 (SD) rarefied to 9 individuals per population (note that PT and MA were merged); H_o – mean
 1110 observed heterozygosity (SD); F_{IS} - population level inbreeding coefficient (SD); F_{IT} : mean individual
 1111 inbreeding coefficient relative to the meta-population (SD). F_{ST} : pairwise and population specific F_{ST} .

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1113 **Figure 1** – Population structure of barn owls from the Mediterranean Basin and the Canary Islands. **a)**
 1114 Individual admixture proportion of each of $K=4$ lineages as determined by sNMF. Black dots are
 1115 located at the approximate centroid of each sampled population. Dashed lines encircle the island(s)
 1116 sampled for each Canary population. **b)** PCA of the 40 individuals. Point shape and colour denote
 1117 populations according to the legend. Axes one to three are shown and values in parenthesis indicate
 1118 the percentage of variance explained by each axis.
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1121 **Figure 2** – Genomic landscape of differentiation between insular and mainland barn owls. **a)**
 1122 Genome-wide beta comparison between individuals from the Canary Islands (EC & WC) and from the
 1123 mainland (PT & IS). Each dot represents a 100kb window. Dashed line indicates the 5 SD threshold
 1124 used to identify genomic regions of high differentiation, emphasised in red. Alternating grey colours
 1125 denote different scaffolds. Shaded vertical bar highlights Scaffold 100006. **b)** Zoom on Scaffold
 1126 100006 and, in particular, the ~15 Mb long highly differentiated genomic region (background
 1127 shading) over windows of 100 kb. From top to bottom, we see in this region a high F_{ST}^{Can} between
 1128 insular and mainland barn owls, low absolute distance (d_{XY}) between both islands (scaled with
 1129 mean=0) and reduction of nucleotide diversity (π) among insular individuals (red line) compared to
 1130 the mainland (black line). The bottom triangular matrix shows pairwise LD (r^2) between groups of 100
 1131 SNP along the chromosome in insular owls. Darker pixels show higher LD. Grey triangles match each

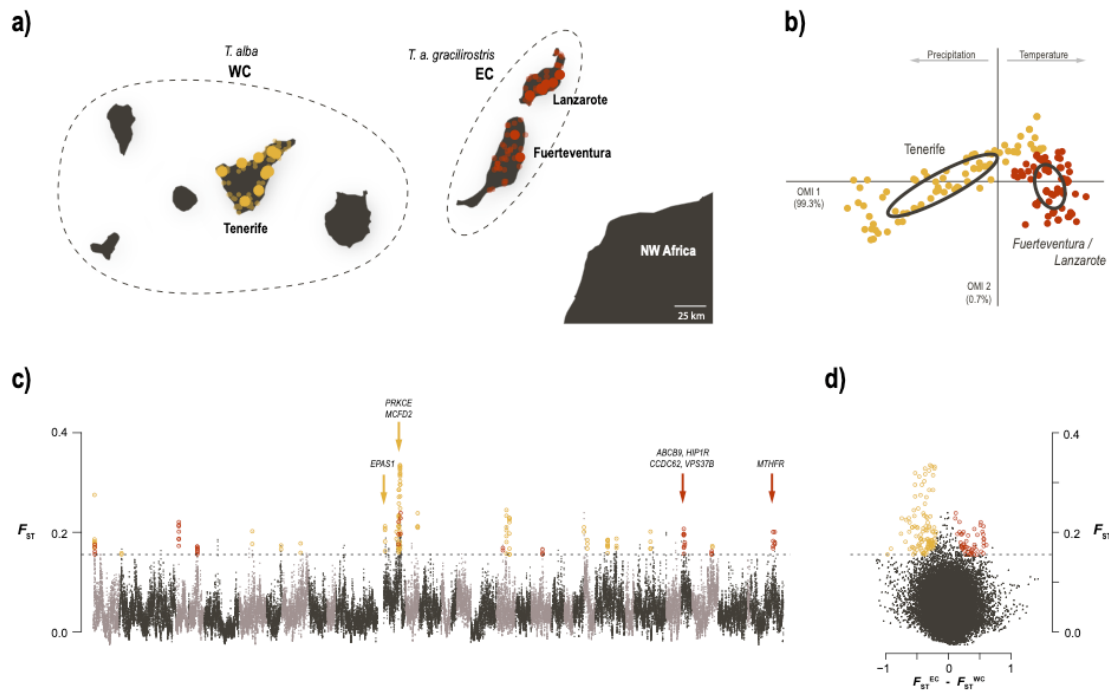
1132 pixel in the matrix diagonal to the region it spans on the chromosome above. Red triangles indicate
 1133 pixels that overlap the region of high differentiation.

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1139 **Figure 3** – Ecological divergence in barn owls from the Canary Islands. **a)** Sampling location of
 1140 Western (WC; yellow) and Eastern (EC; red) Canary individuals, off the coast of north-western Africa.
 1141 Sampled islands are named. Large dots indicate individuals sampled for WGS and population
 1142 genomics analyses; small transparent dots are barn owl observations used in niche analysis. Dashed
 1143 lines group islands according to barn owl taxonomy. **b)** Climatic niche occupied by the two Canary
 1144 populations. The first axis varies from cold and wet to hot arid environments. **c)** Genome-wide F_{ST}
 1145 comparison between individuals from each Canary population. Each dot represents a 100kb window.
 1146 Alternating grey colours denote different chromosomes. Dashed line indicates the 5 SD F_{ST} threshold
 1147 used to identify genomic regions of high differentiation overlaid with F_{ST}^{WC} , highlighted in yellow and
 1148 F_{ST}^{EC} in red. Arrows denote the location of genes linked with response to hypoxia in WC; and the
 1149 cluster of 4 genes linked to morphological ratios and the main gene related to blood pressure in EC.
 1150 **d)** Same F_{ST} windows and threshold as in **c)** plotted against the difference between F_{ST}^{WC} and F_{ST}^{EC} ,
 1151 clearly highlight the two sets of windows putatively under local adaptation.

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