1 Original Article

2 Genomic islands of divergence between *Drosophila yakuba* subspecies predominantly

- **3** overlap with chromosomal inversions
- 4 Erina A. Ferreira^{1,2}, Cathy C. Moore³, David Ogereau¹, Arnaud Suwalski², Stéphane R.
- 5 Prigent², Rebekah L. Rogers³, Amir Yassin^{1,2,*}
- 6
- 7 ¹Laboratoire Évolution, Génomes, Comportement et Écologie, CNRS, IRD, Université Paris-
- 8 Saclay Institut Diversité, Ecologie et Evolution du Vivant (IDEEV), Gif-sur-Yvette, France.
- 9 ²Institut Systématique, Evolution, Biodiversité (ISYEB), CNRS, MNHN, Sorbonne Université,
- 10 EPHE, Université des Antilles, 57 rue Cuvier, CP 50, 75005 Paris, France. ³Department of
- 11 Bioinformatics and Genomics, University of North Carolina, Charlotte NC, USA.
- 12

13 * Corresponding author: <u>amir.yassin@universite-paris-saclay.fr</u>

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17 Authors contributions

E.A.F. sequenced and assembled new genome, conducted population genomics and structural variation analyses, wrote the primary draft of the paper. C.C.M. sequenced individual lines. D.O. sequenced and assembled new genome. A.S. collected flies. S.R.P. taxonomically sorted flies. R.L.R. sequenced individual lines, obtained funds. A.Y. conceptualized the work, collected flies, taxonomically sorted flies, supervised population genomics and structural variation analyses, obtained funds, wrote the final version of the paper with inputs from all authors.

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33

34 Conflict of interest

- 35 The authors declare no conflict of interest.
- 36

37 Data availability statement

38 Scripts used in this study publicly available GitHub: are on 39 https://github.com/AmirYassinLab/Population genomics scripts. Genome sequences 40 generated for this study are available on NCBI BioProject: PRJNA972991, PRJNA973002 and 41 PRJNA973271.

42

44 Abstract

45 During the early stages of local adaptation and speciation, genetic differences tend to 46 accumulate at certain regions of the genome leading to the formation of genomic islands of 47 divergence (GIDs). This pattern may be due to selection and/or difference in the rate of 48 recombination. Here, we investigate the possible causes of GIDs in Drosophila yakuba 49 mayottensis, and reconfirm using field collection its association with toxic noni (Morinda 50 citrifolia) fruits on the Mayotte island. Population genomics revealed lack of genetic structure 51 on the island and identified 20 GIDs distinguishing D. v. mayottensis from generalist mainland 52 populations of D. y. yakuba. The GIDs were enriched with gene families involved in the 53 metabolism of lipids, sugars, peptides and xenobiotics, suggesting a role in host shift. We 54 assembled a new genome for D. y. mayottensis and identified five novel chromosomal 55 inversions. Twelve GIDs (~72% of outlier windows) fell close to or within subspecies-specific 56 inversions. However, three GIDs were in collinear, high recombining regions indicating strong 57 signal of hard selective sweeps. Unlike D. v. mayottensis, D. sechellia, the only other noni-58 specialist, is homosequential with its generalist relatives. Thus, both selection and 59 rearrangements shape GIDs and striking convergences can occur between species with distinct 60 genomic architectures.

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62 Keywords: ecological speciation; structural variation; population genomics; genetic
63 parallelism; insect-plant interactions.

65 Introduction

66 The genomic landscape of inter-population differentiation is often heterogeneous, with 67 certain genomic regions, known as genomic islands of divergence (GIDs), emerging above the average differentiation level (Feder and Nosil 2010; Wolf and Ellegren 2017). GIDs were 68 69 originally hailed as a result of divergent selection acting on genes that underlie adaptation to 70 distinct environment and/or reproductive isolation (Turner et al. 2005). However, a plethora of 71 mechanisms may also lead to the formation of such islands even in the absence of divergent 72 selection. Most importantly, variation in recombination rate, due to heterochromatin content or 73 structural variation, strongly affects the rate of admixture and the accumulation of genetic 74 differences in natural populations (Feder and Nosil 2010; Cruickshank and Hahn 2014; 75 Quilodrán et al. 2020). Chromosomal inversions are among the most common forms of 76 structural variation, and a number of studies has unraveled an overlap between inversions and 77 GIDs (Feder and Nosil 2009; Michel et al. 2010; Ellegren et al. 2012; Sodeland et al. 2016; 78 Huang et al. 2020). Inversions often suppress recombination, reducing the rate at which slightly-79 deleterious mutations are purged from the population (Berdan et al. 2021; Jay et al. 2021, 2022). 80 Conversely, the reduction of recombination could conserve one or more favorable allelic 81 combinations for survival in contrasting environments, hence becoming targets of balancing or 82 diverging selection depending on the heterogeneity of the environment (Faria et al. 2019; Kapun 83 and Flatt 2019; Mérot et al. 2021; Hager et al. 2022; Harringmeyer and Hoekstra 2022; 84 Sanchez-Donoso et al. 2022; Tepolt et al. 2022). Untangling the complex interactions of 85 selection and inversions in driving GIDs and ultimately speciation therefore requires proper 86 understanding of the genomic architecture of the study model and its natural variation.

Host shifts or changes in the width of the ecological niche, e.g., specialization, are a
major source of diversification in herbivorous insects (Wiens et al. 2015; Forbes et al. 2017).
The complexity of this phenomenon, which should involve the simultaneous evolution of genes

90 underlying multiple behavioral and physiological phenotypes with an ultimate impact on 91 reproductive isolation, has long been a major area of research (Futuyma and Moreno 1988; 92 Vertacnik and Linnen 2017). One of the best well-characterized systems at the genomic level 93 is the specialization of the fly Drosophila sechellia on toxic fruits of noni (Morinda citrifolia) 94 on the Seychelles islands in the Indian Ocean (Louis and David 1986; Auer et al. 2021). 95 Drosophila sechellia is a member of the simulans species complex, which comprises two 96 additional species, namely the cosmopolitan Drosophila simulans and Drosophila mauritiana, 97 an endemic to Mauritius. Unlike D. sechellia, both species are generalists and are repulsed by 98 the odor of and intolerant to noni main toxins, octanoic and hexanoic acids (R'Kha et al. 1991; 99 Amlou et al. 1997, 1998; Drum et al. 2022). The three species represent a sister clade to 100 Drosophila melanogaster. This facilitated the extension of the unique genetic and genomic 101 tools from this paradigmatic species to the study of *D. sechellia* specialization (Matsuo et al. 102 2007; Lavista-Llanos et al. 2014; Prieto-Godino et al. 2017; Auer et al. 2020). Besides, the three 103 species show partial reproductive isolation and are karyologically homosequential, making 104 them ideal for quantitative trait loci (QTLs) mapping through interspecific crosses (Earley and 105 Jones 2011; Hungate et al. 2013; Huang and Erezyilmaz 2015; Chakraborty et al. 2021). Despite 106 these numerous advantages, the divergence of *D. sechellia* from its generalist sister species *D*. 107 simulans is estimated at around 89.000-242,000 years ago (Garrigan et al. 2012; Schrider et al. 108 2018); its entire genome has accumulated so many differences that traces of possible GIDs 109 during the early stages of divergence may be difficult to observe. Besides, a particularly low 110 level of genetic diversity has been detected in this species (Legrand et al. 2009; Schrider et al. 111 2018), further complicating population genomics analyses.

In January 2013, a second case of *Drosophila* species associated with toxic noni was discovered in Mayotte, another island in the Indian Ocean. This was a population of *Drosophila yakuba*, which had higher preference for and survival on noni unlike its continental conspecifics

115 (Yassin et al. 2016). The noni-specialist population likely diverged from generalist continental 116 populations nearly 28,000 years ago and specialization was accompanied by precopulatory 117 isolation between Mayotte and continental flies, earning them subspecific status as 118 D. v. mayottensis and D. v. vakuba, respectively (Yassin et al. 2016; Yassin 2017). Genomic 119 comparisons between this single population of D. v. mayottensis and two D. v. yakuba 120 continental populations identified multiple GIDs, widespread across the genome, consistent 121 with theoretical expectations (Yassin et al. 2016). Many D. y. mayottensis GIDs overlap with 122 large noni survival QTLs in D. sechellia (Yassin et al. 2016). Despite those similarities, D. 123 *yakuba* is a species where, unlike the *simulans* species complex, multiple polymorphic 124 chromosomal inversions have been identified in continental populations (Lemeunier and 125 Ashburner 1976). Several GIDs in D. y. mayottensis may therefore be the result of such 126 inversions.

127 In this paper, we report the population genomics analysis of three additional populations 128 of *D. y. mayottensis* all associated with noni in Mayotte. We identified 20 GIDs distinguishing 129 the three populations from continental *D. y. yakuba*. We assembled a genome for *D. y.* 130 *mayottensis* and identified multiple inversions that predominantly overlap with the GIDs, hence 131 allowing the discrimination between GIDs presenting genuine signal of hard selective sweep 132 from those which may be mere results of structural variation.

133

134 Materials and methods

135 Fly collection and establishment of isofemale lines from Mayotte island

Flies were prospected in April 2017 from 14 localities on the Grande Terre and Petite Terre islands of Mayotte. We particularly searched fruiting noni trees but also collected drosophilids in places with no noni trees. Flies were collected by net sweeping and direct aspiration over fallen fruits or using standard baits with fermented banana hung from tree branches. Flies were also bred from ripe fruits brought back to the laboratory. *D. y. mayottensis* isofemale lines were established by placing one female and one male in a small vial with instant Carolina medium and the F_1 progeny was transferred to an axenic medium in the laboratory. Fly species that were or could not be bred in the laboratory were killed in absolute ethanol and taxonomically sorted in the laboratory. Data on *D. yakuba* seasonal abundance and attraction to banana baits in West Africa was obtained from Vouidibio (1985).

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147 Pooled and individual lines genome sequencing

148 Drosophila yakuba mayottensis were sequenced both as pooled (Pool-Seq) as well as individual 149 lines (Ind-Seq). For Pool-Seq analyses, we pooled single F₁ female per line in three pools according to the populations, namely BE, MTS and SOU. Pools were sent in ethanol to End2end 150 151 Genomics LLC, Davis, California where DNA was extracted, PE library prepared using 152 NEBNext Protocol and 75x coverage double-paired Illumina NovoSeq sequencing was 153 conducted. For Ind-Seq analyses, DNA was extracted from single flies flash frozen in liquid 154 nitrogen following QIAamp Mini Kit (Qiagen) protocol without using RNase A. The resulting 155 DNA samples were quantified (Qubit dsDNA HS assay kit, ThermoFisher Scientific), assessed 156 for quality (Nanodrop ND-2000), and stored at -20°C. Illumina TruSeq Nano DNA libraries 157 were prepared manually following the manufacturer's protocol (TruSeq Nano DNA, RevD; 158 Illumina). Briefly, samples were normalized to 100ng DNA and sheared by sonication with 159 Covaris M220 (microTUBE 50; Sage Science). The samples were end repaired, purified with 160 Ampure XP beads (Agencourt; Beckman Coulter), adaptors adenylated, and Unique Dual 161 Indices ligated. Adaptor enrichment was performed using eight cycles of PCR. Following 162 Ampure XP bead cleanup, fragment sizes for all libraries were measured using Agilent 163 Bioanalyzer 2100 (HS DNA Assay; Applied Biosystems). The libraries were diluted 1:10 000 and 1:20 000 and quantified in triplicate using the KAPA Library Quantification Kit (Kapa 164

Biosystems). Equimolar samples were pooled, and the libraries were size selected targeting
400-700bp range to remove adaptor monomers and dimers using Pippen Prep DNA Size
Selection system (1.5% Agarose Gel Cassette #CDF1510; Sage Sciences). Library pools were
run on an Illumina HiSeq 4000 platform using the 150bp paired end (PE) Cluster Kit.

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170 Population genomics analyses and delimitation of the genomic islands of divergence (GIDs) in

171 Drosophila yakuba

172 As in Yassin et al. (2016) and Ferreira et al. (2021), we used previously published 173 genomic sequences from two continental D. y. yakuba populations, namely Cameroon (CY) 174 and Kenya (NY) (Rogers et al. 2014), for comparisons with D. v. mayottensis. We also used previous Pool-Seq reads from a single D. v. mayottensis population collected from Soulou in 175 176 2013 for temporal comparisons within the subspecies (Yassin et al. 2016). For all comparisons, 177 reads were mapped to the D. yakuba v.1.05 reference genome obtained from Flybase 178 (https://flybase.org/, Thurmond et al. 2019) using Minimap2 software package (Li 2018). 179 Minimap2-generated SAM files were converted to BAM format using samtools 1.9 software 180 (Li et al. 2009). The BAM files were then cleaned and sorted using Picard v.2.0.1 181 (http://broadinstitute.github.io/picard/). Popoolation 2 software package v.1.20162 (Kofler et 182 al. 2011) was used to generate a synchronized mpileup file, from which intra-population 183 polymorphism (π) and between-populations genetic differentiation (F_{ST}) were estimated using 184 customized perl scripts.

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186 Delimitation of the genomic islands of divergence (GIDs) in D. y. mayottensis

187 We conducted Population Branch Excess (*PBE*) analysis (Yassin et al. 2016) to identify 188 GIDs specifically distinguishing *D. y. mayottensis* from the two continental populations CY 189 and NY. *PBE* is a standardized version of the Population Branch Statistic (*PBS*), which was

190 proposed to identify population-specific allelic changes from F_{ST} pairwise comparisons 191 between three populations (Yi et al. 2010). The standardization measures how PBS at a locus 192 deviates from the chromosome-wide median *PBS* divided by the median F_{ST} estimate from the 193 two non-focal populations. Therefore, PBE is less sensitive than PBS to genome-wide variation 194 in polymorphism levels. Due to the lack of genetic structure within D. y. mayottensis (see 195 below), Pool-Seq reads of the three populations were pooled into a single Pool of Pools (PoP). 196 *PBS* and *PBE* were made assuming an (CY,(NY,PoP)) tree. Genes with *PBE* values falling \geq 197 97.5 quantiles were considered outliers, and the width of a genomic island of divergence was 198 considered if two outlier windows did not fall more than 500-kb apart. Gene enrichment tests 199 were conducted for each GID as well as using the whole list of genes from all GIDs using the 200 online Database for Annotation, Visualization and Integrated Discovery (DAVID) (Sherman et 201 al. 2022).

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203 De novo assembly of D. y. mayottensis genome and identification of chromosomal 204 rearrangements

205 A mass culture of D. y. mayottensis was used to assemble a reference genome for this subspecies. Genomic DNA was extracted using the Nucleobond AXG20 kit and buffer set IV 206 207 from Macherey-Nagel (ref. 740544 and 740604, https://www.mn-net.com, Düren, Germany), 208 selection was conducted using the SRE XS kit from Circulomics size and 209 (https://www.circulomics.com/, Baltimore, Maryland, USA). Fragments less than 10 Kb were 210 eliminated. The SQK-LSK109 kit from Oxford nanopore technology (Lu et al. 2016), 211 https://nanoporetech.com/) was then used to prepare the samples for nanopore sequencing 212 following manufacturer's protocol. The library was then loaded on a R9.4 flow cell for 213 sequencing on MinION. Raw data were basecalled with Guppy v4.0.11.

214 Illumina short-read sequences have also been produced to reconstruct our genome, using 215 a hybrid assembly strategy, combining those short accurate Illumina reads to our long Nanopore 216 reads. Illumina sequencing was realized by Novogene Company Limited 217 (https://en.novogene.com, Cambridge, UK) on our previously extracted DNA. DNA sequences, 218 from Nanopore and Illumina technologies, were then assembled using MaSuRCA genome 219 assembler software v3.4.0 (Zimin et al. 2013). We aligned our newly constructed D. y. 220 mayottensis genome using minimap2 software package to the v.1.05 reference genome as well 221 as to a newly assembled genome of the reference D. yakuba strain (David et al. 2022) to correct 222 for early missassemblies in the v.1.05 reference genome (Miller et al. 2018). D. y. mayottensis 223 scaffolds were then ordered and oriented according to the reference genome, and chromosomal 224 rearrangements were visually detected from a dotplot constructed by R. We used the cytological 225 position of D. melanogaster orthologs of D. vakuba genes to delimit D. v. vakuba 226 rearrangements described by Lemeunier and Ashburner (1976).

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228

229 Results

230 Drosophila yakuba mayottensis is strictly associated with noni in Mayotte

231 In April 2017, we investigated the association between D. y. mayottensis and noni 232 across the two main islands of Mayotte, *i.e* Grande Terre and Petite Terre. Out of 14 collection 233 sites, we identified noni trees in 9 locations, mostly near the coastline. However, the trees were 234 not always at the same fruiting stage, with fallen ripe fruits found at only three locations, namely 235 Soulou (the same locality for the 2013 sample, hereafter SOU), M'tsangamouji (MTS) in the 236 humid northwest and Bambo Est (BE) in the arid southeast (Figure 1A). D. y. mayottensis flies 237 were collected through net sweeping or direct aspiration over fallen, rotting noni fruits only at 238 those three locations. No single D. y. mayottensis fly was collected using fermenting banana

239 traps at those sites or at any other site on the island, although the noni trees at Bambo Est were 240 present amid a banana plantation (Figure 1B). In West Africa, such traps often collect tens or 241 hundreds of D. y. yakuba (Rio et al. 1983; Vouidibio 1985; Llopart et al. 2005; Prigent et al. 2013; Turissini and Matute 2017) (Figure 1B; $\chi^2 P < 0.001$ for comparison with data from 242 Vouidibio (1985)). The total number of collected D. y. mayottensis was low, ~200 flies 243 244 throughout the 10-days duration of the expedition, compared to ~600 flies that were collected 245 during the last 2 days of the January 2013 at a single location (David et al. 2014). This indicates 246 a strong seasonality in the abundance of the species, consistent with other observations on 247 D. y. yakuba on the continent (Vouidibio 1985; Prigent et al. 2013), and highlights the necessity of year-round investigations. We also observed that flies were more abundant on noni fruits that 248 249 have been nibbled and thrown to the ground by the brown lemur (*Eulemur fulvus*) than on intact 250 fallen fruits (Figure 1C).

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252 Pooled and isofemale line sequencing of the three Mayotte populations reveal low level of253 differentiation on the island

254 We established 26, 22 and 29 isofemale lines from wild-caught flies from the three 255 collection sites, *i.e.*, BE, SOU and MTS, respectively. As in Yassin et al. (2016), we sequenced 256 a single F_1 fly per line in three pools according to the populations. The level of genetic 257 differentiation estimated in 10-kb windows in SOU between the 2013 and 2017 samples was low ($F_{ST} = 0.0262 \pm 0.0001$; Figure 2A), as well as the level of differentiation between the three 258 2017 geographical samples ($F_{ST} = 0.0283 \pm 0.0001$; Figure 2B; Supplementary Table S1). 259 260 Because F_{ST} estimates from Pool-Seq data could be slightly biased (Hivert et al. 2018), we also sequenced 7, 6 and 6 individual isofemale lines from BE, SOU and MTS, respectively. We 261 262 found a strong correspondence between F_{ST} estimates from both approaches, with Ind-Seq data 263 producing higher estimates probably due to their smaller sample size and higher ascertainment bias ($F_{ST} = 0.0352 \pm 0.0001$ between the 2013 and 2017 of SOU, and 0.0426 ± 0.0001 between the three Mayotte populations; Supplementary Table S1). Nonetheless, whether Pool- or Ind-Seq analyses were conducted, the genetic differentiation among *D. y. mayottensis* populations was significantly lower than that between the two *D. y. yakuba* populations from Cameroon (CY) and Kenya (NY) ($F_{ST} = 0.0671 \pm 0.0002$; Student's *t*-test $P < 2.2 \times 10^{-16}$ for both analyses).

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270 Differentiation between the two D. yakuba subspecies differed among chromosomal arms

271 To quantify the level of genetic differentiation between Mayotte and mainland 272 populations, we estimated F_{ST} in 10-kb windows across the genome. Because of the lack of 273 genetic structure among the three populations of D. v. mayottensis, we pooled either the Ind-274 Seq or the Pool-Seq sequences of the three populations in a single population, referring to them as Pool of Individuals (PoI) and Pool of Pools (PoP), respectively (Supplementary Table S2). 275 276 Results did not greatly differ between the two methods, and we will show here analyses on the 277 PoP data due to its larger sampling size and consequently reduced ascertainment bias. 278 Surprisingly, the average genome-wide differentiation between the subspecies differed whether 279 we used CY and NY, being higher for the former case $(0.0731 \pm 0.0003 \text{ and } 0.0638 \pm 0.0001,$ respectively; Student's *t*-test $P < 2.2 \times 10^{-16}$). However, differentiation greatly depended on 280 281 chromosomal arms (Figure 3A). Whereas for most chromosomal arms, differentiation between 282 the two mainland populations CY and NY were significantly lower than between each from D. v. mavottensis, only for chromosomal arm 2R differentiation between CY and the island was 283 284 the highest (Figure 3A). Differentiation among the three D. y. mayottensis populations did not 285 show any chromosomal effect and for all chromosomal arms was significantly lower than 286 differentiation between the two subspecies or within D. y. yakuba (Figure 3A; Supplementary 287 Table S1).

289 Twenty Genomic Islands of Divergence (GIDs) differentiate D. y. mayottensis

The *PBE* analysis showed 20 GIDs falling above the 97.5% quantiles in *D. y. mayottensis* (Figure 3B; Table 1). As in Yassin et al. (2016), we used the number of polymorphic sites found in 10-kb windows to delimit low recombining regions that are close to chromosomal arms extremities at the telomeres and centromeres (shaded areas in Figure 3B). These regions strongly concorded with fine-scale recombination rate variation in *D. yakuba* (Pettie et al. 2022). Half of the identified GIDs fell within these regions. Of the remaining 10 GIDs falling in high recombining regions, seven were on chromosome 2.

297 Eight GIDs were enriched for specific gene families (Table 1). Gene families that were 298 enriched for the whole list of genes from all GIDs included LITAF (LPS-induced TNFactivating factor) endosome-associated membrane proteins, glucose-methanol-choline (GMC) 299 300 oxidoreductases, cytochrome P450, UDP-glycosyltransferases, and maltose-alpha-glucosidases 301 at P < 0.05, and serine-type endopeptidases and glutathione-S-transferases at P < 0.10302 (Supplementary Table S3). All these gene families have major roles in the metabolism of 303 ecdysteroids, lipids, sugars, proteins and xenobiotics, as it would be expected in cases of major dietary shifts. 304

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306 GIDs in D. y. mayottensis predominantly overlap with chromosomal inversions

307 Our hybrid assembly of the *D. y. mayottensis* genome yielded 563 fragments with an 308 N50 of 6.9Mb, and a BUSCOv5 score of 99.5%. Comparing the assembly to the v.1.05 309 reference genome assembly v.1.05 of *D. yakuba* identified 9 large structural variations with the 310 characteristic V-shape of inversion breakpoints (Figure 4A). The first breakpoint was found on 311 the X chromosome and indicated a ~1 Mb-long inversion between X:8,648,348..9,652,060. 312 Lemeunier and Ashburner (1976) did not detect any inversion on chromosome X in *D. y.* 313 *yakuba*. Following their nomenclature, we call this new subspecies-specific inversion *Xto*, and

note that it overlaps with GID2. We also noted a collinear connection between X: 13,477,771..17,070,823 on a single scaffold (grey) that could have resulted from double inversions, but do direct evidence for breakpoints was observed at this region (Figure 4A).

317 The second breakpoint was found on chromosomal arm 2L and corresponded to a large, 318 \sim 12 Mb-long inversion between 2L: 8423810..20352247. This large inversion encompassed the 319 misassembled portion of this chromosomal arm in the reference genome between 8,586,415 320 and 11,101,068 (Figure 4A,B; cf. Supplementary Figure S1 for alignment with a correct 321 assembly). Lemeunier and Ashburner (1976) found four polymorphic inversions in mainland 322 D. y. yakuba, namely 2Lh, 2Ll, 2Lm and 2Ln, with 2Lh being ancestral to 2Ll, and 2Lm and 2Ln 323 independently derived from 2Ll. We found the large inversion in D. v. mavottensis to be 324 independently derived from 2Ll too, and called it 2Lo (Figure 4B). Remarkably, the proximal 325 end of this inversion falls within the large subcentromeric region of 2L. Compared to the two 326 most common inversions of the mainland, *i.e.* 2Lh and 2Ll (Lemeunier and Ashburner 1976), four GIDs (5 to 8) fall in an inverted order in 2Lo and one was close to its proximal, 327 328 subcentromeric breakpoint (GID9) (Table 1).

329 The third breakpoint fell in the subcentromeric region of chromosomal arm 2R at 330 2R:182,816..436,892 but did not overlap with a major GID. However, the fourth to the seventh 331 breakpoints all fell within the high recombining region of 2R. Their cytogenetic positions 332 corresponded to the breakpoints separating chromosomal inversions 2Rn and 2Ri (Lemeunier and Ashburner 1976). The reference genome has the 2Rn order indicating that 2Ri, the most 333 334 common inversion in D. yakuba (Lemeunier and Ashburner 1976), is fixed in D. y. mayottensis. 335 Both inversions independently derived from a hypothetical 2Ri order that has never been 336 observed in natural populations (Figure 4B; Lemeunier and Ashburner 1976). Two GIDs, 11 337 and 14, fell in the flanking region separating 2Ri from 2Ri, whereas GID12 and 13 overlapped with the breakpoints separating 2Rn from 2Ri. Remarkably, the large GID13 is inverted in 338

inversion 2*Rk*, another common 2R inversion in *D. y. yakuba* that was not detected in *D. y. mayottensis*.

The eighth and ninth breakpoints were found in the subcentromeric regions of chromosomal arms 3L and 3R, respectively. Each corresponded to ~0.2 and 0.8 Mb-long inversions and overlapped with GIDs 15 and 16, respectively. These small subcentromeric inversions were not detected by Lemeunier and Ashburner (1976) and we denoted them 3Lkand 3Ri, respectively.

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347 Discussion

348 By combining field observation with population and structural genomics, we were able to draw a clearer picture of the mechanisms underlying the evolution of genomic islands of 349 350 divergence (GIDs) in the noni-specialist subspecies Drosophila yakuba mayottensis. First, we 351 showed that D. y. mayottensis GIDs were subspecies-specific. There was no different pattern of divergence whether F_{ST} was inferred by comparing mainland populations to the Soulou 352 353 population collected in January 2013 or April 2017, or to any other noni-associated D. y. 354 mayottensis population collected in 2017 across the island. Second, we found that the two 355 subspecies had distinct inversions. Of the 20 GIDs distinguishing D. y. mayottensis from two 356 mainland populations, 12 fell close to or within subspecies-specific chromosomal inversions, 357 corresponding to \sim 72% of the outlier windows in the *PBE* analysis.

Chromosomal inversions can play an important role in promoting local adaptation, either through reducing gene flow at selected genomic regions or through bringing to a new habitat an advantageous allelic combination segregating at the ancestral range (Faria et al. 2019; Mérot et al. 2020; Schaal et al. 2022). The two scenarios could have contributed to *D. y. mayottensis* specialization on noni in Mayotte. For example, GIDs falling in the subspeciesspecific inversions *Xtb* and *2Lo* include several ecologically-relevant candidates that are 364 involved in the metabolism of ecdysone, lipids and carbohydrates (GMC oxidoreductases (Iida 365 et al. 2007; Glaser-Schmitt and Parsch 2018); maltases (Inomata et al. 2019)), ethanol tolerance 366 (Adh (Siddiq and Thornton 2019)), and hexanoic acid sensing (pdm3 (Arguello et al. 2021)). 367 The 2R_j inversion that is fixed in D. y. mayottensis is, on the other hand, widespread in D. y. *yakuba*, and it is ancestral to three 2R inversions that are specific to the mainland subspecies 368 369 (Lemeunier and Ashburner 1976). GIDs near the breakpoints of this ancestral inversion contain 370 important clusters of detoxification genes of cytochrome P450 oxidases and glutathione-S-371 transferases, which are involved in basal resistance to noni toxins in D. sechellia and its close relatives (Peyser et al. 2017; Lanno and Coolon 2019). Alternatively, both derived and shared 372 373 inversions might have been fixed by drift, although demographic models do not suggest major bottlenecks during D. y. mayottensis colonization of Mayotte (Yassin et al. 2016). Testing the 374 375 potential role of derived and shared inversions would require experimental isolation of each 376 karyotype and comparison of the effect of each on different noni use traits, but the large breadth 377 of these inversions would complicate fine-scale QTL mapping or genome-wide association 378 studies (GWAS) in D. yakuba.

379 High levels of differentiation in collinear, high recombining regions constitute strong 380 signals of hard selective sweeps. Only 3 GIDs (4, 19 and 20) satisfied these conditions. Most 381 notably, GID20 consisted of syntenic members of the Osiris gene family. The role of those 382 genes in conferring resistance against noni's main toxin, octanoic acid, has been demonstrated through genetic mapping (Hungate et al. 2013) and transcriptomic analyses in D. sechellia 383 384 (Lanno et al. 2017), as well as functional gene silencing in D. melanogaster (Andrade López et 385 al. 2017; Lanno et al. 2019). The two other GIDs also involve some genes with a potential role 386 in resistance to plant chemical defenses in other insects, such as acetylcholine esterase (Ace) or 387 serine-type endopeptidases (Hoang et al. 2015; Alyokhin and Chen 2017; Lanno and Coolon 2019). Those genes therefore are best candidates for future functional genetics analyses. 388

389 However, hard selective sweeps indicate a particular mode of selection wherein the selected 390 alleles were absent or had low frequency at the onset of selection. Alternatively, incomplete selective sweeps wherein the selected alleles may have not reached fixation yet or soft selective 391 392 sweeps on alleles segregating at intermediate frequencies in the ancestral range could also be 393 important factors, although loci under these patterns of sweeps will hardly be detected by GID 394 analyses. A signal of soft selective sweep on the odorant receptor Or22a, a gene that controls 395 D. sechellia attraction to methyl hexanoate, the main noni volatile (Auer et al. 2020), was 396 recently demonstrated in D. v. mavottensis (Ferreira et al. 2021). However, the efficiency of 397 this approach will be limited to collinear, high recombining regions, which constitute a 398 relatively small proportion of the D. yakuba genome.

399 In many cases, shared polymorphic inversions had promoted parallel adaptations in 400 different geographical populations (Mérot et al. 2018; Lucek et al. 2019; Morales et al. 2019; 401 Matschiner et al. 2022). This situation cannot explain the recurrent specialization on toxic noni 402 fruits in distinct islands of the Indian Ocean between D. vakuba and D. sechellia. Despite their 403 striking phenotypic convergence (Yassin et al. 2016; Ferreira et al. 2021), the divergence 404 between the two species is deep and their genomic architectures are quite different. Nearly 35.3% of the genome in D. yakuba has low number of segregating sites extending from the 405 406 telomeres and centromeres (Yassin et al. 2016; Pettie et al. 2022). In D. simulans and D. 407 mauritiana, only 10.5% of the genome has low number of segregating sites (Brand et al. 2018). 408 The three species of the *simulans* clade are homosequential and chromosomal inversions were 409 very rarely reported in D. simulans (Chakraborty et al. 2021). As functional genetics analyses 410 will continue to be undergone in both species, the degree of genic parallelism underlying the 411 recurrent specialization on a toxic resource despite distinct genomic architectures will be 412 clarified.

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670 Figure legends

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Figure 1 – Association of *Drosophila yakuba mayottensis* with noni (*Morinda citrifolia*) on the island of Mayotte. A) Frequency of *D. yakuba* (blue) among drosophilids (red) collected on the island of Mayotte in January 2013 (after David et al. (2014)) and April 2017. Locations with fruiting noni trees are indicated with a star. The size of the pie charts reflects the total number of collected flies per site. B) Abundance of *D. yakuba* flies among drosophilids collected using standard fermenting banana traps in Congo (after Vouidibio (1985) and in Mayotte. C) A brown lemur (*Eulemur fulvus*) eating a noni fruit in Mayotte (© Amir Yassin).

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Figure 2 – Low temporal and spatial genetic differentiation among *D. y. mayottensis* populations on the island of Mayotte. A) Pairwise F_{ST} values for 10-kb windows between Pool-Seq data from Soulou collected in January 2013 and April 2017. B) Average pairwise F_{ST} values for 10-kb windows between Pool-Seq data from the three populations collected in Mayotte in April 2017. Gray areas reflect subtelomeric and subcentromeric regions with low recombination rate (Yassin et al. 2016; Pettie et al. 2022). Each chromosomal arm according to the v.1.05 reference genome is represented by different color.

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Figure 3 – High genetic differentiation among the two *D. yakuba* subspecies. A) Boxplot of pairwise F_{ST} values for 10-kb windows between the two mainland *D. y. yakuba* populations (pale red), between each and a pool-of-pooled flies from *D. y. mayottensis* (pale blue and orange), and between the three Pool-Seq populations of *D. y. mayottensis* (yellow). Significance estimated from Student's *t* pairwise-tests. B) Population Branch Excess (*PBE*) identification of

the genomic islands of divergence (GIDs), enumerated in red, distinguishing *D. y. mayottensis*from the two *D. y. yakuba* populations. Color code as in Figure 2.

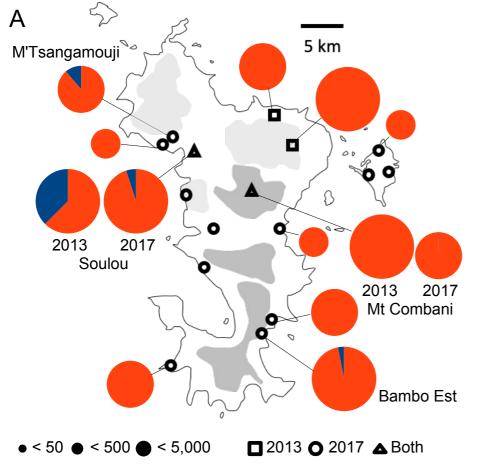
695

696	Figure 4 – Genomic islands of divergence (GIDs) predominantly overlap with major
697	chromosomal inversions. A) Dot plot comparing D. y. mayottensis hybrid assembly with the D.
698	yakuba reference genome v1.05. Each D. y. mayottensis scaffold is given in different color with
699	the position of the GIDs indicated by their number. Shaded areas indicate subtelomeric and
700	subcentromeric regions with low recombination rate. Red arrows indicate inversion
701	breakpoints. B) Schematic presentation of major inversions on chromosomal arms 2L (left) and
702	2R (right). Inversion names, breakpoints and geographical distribution into West Africa (W),
703	East Africa (E) and Mayotte (M) are given following Lemeunier and Ashburner (1976) and this
704	study.
705	
706	
707	

- 709 Table 1 Position, structural features and candidate genes or families of the 20 genomic islands
- 710 of divergence (GIDs) distinguishing noni-specialist Drosophila yakuba mayottensis from
- 711 generalist mainland species. *P* levels from DAVID gene ontology enrichment analyses for each
- 712 GID.

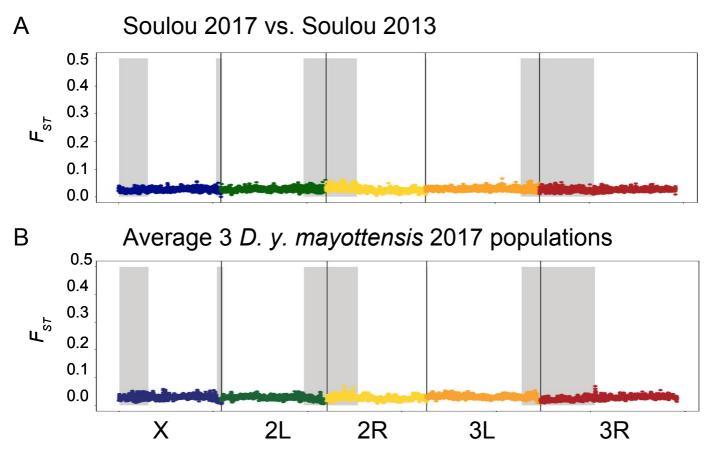
GI D	Coordinates (Mb)	Architecture	Candidate genes	
1	X:3.63-3.98	Subtelomeric region		
2	X:8.68-9.23	Subspecies-specific Xtb inversion	<i>Flo2</i> ; Glucose-methanol-choline oxidoreductase (ecdysteroid metabolic process, $P < 1 \ge 10^{-20}$)	
3	X:21.22-21.77	Subcentromeric region		
4	2L:2.21-2.27	ŭ		
5	2L:14.51-14.83	Subspecies-specific 2Lo inversion	Adh	
6	2L:16.59-17.15	Subspecies-specific 2Lo inversion	<i>pdm3</i> ; maltose alpha-glucosidase activity (sugar metabolism and transport, $P < 5 \times 10^{-13}$), cytochrome P450 ($P < 0.10$)	
7	2L:18.24-18.83	Subspecies-specific 2Lo inversion; subcentromeric region		
8	2L:20.37-20.23	Subspecies-specific 2Lo inversion; subcentromeric region	EcR	
9	2L:21.08-21.57	Close to subspecies- specific 2Lo inversion; subcentromeric region		
10	2R:5.01-5.57	Subcentromeric region	Catsup; UDP-glycosyltransferases (metabolism of xenobiotics by cytochrome P450, $P < 0.01$)	
11	2R:6.85-6.93	Close to species-common 2 <i>Rj</i> inversion		
12	2R:10.42-10.77	Species-common 2 <i>Rj</i> inversion; subspecies- specific 2 <i>Rk</i> inversion	Cytochrome P450 ($P < 1 \ge 10^{-5}$)	
13	2R:14.79-17.61	Species-common2Rjinversion;subspecies-specific 2Rk inversion	LITAF ($P < 3 \ge 10^{-14}$); glutathione S-transferase ($P < 0.05$); destabilase ($P < 0.05$); malic enzyme ($P < 0.10$)	
14	2R:19.54-19.63	Close to species-common 2 <i>Rj</i> inversion		
15	3L:23.56-24.20	Subspecies-specific 3Lk inversion; subcentromeric region		

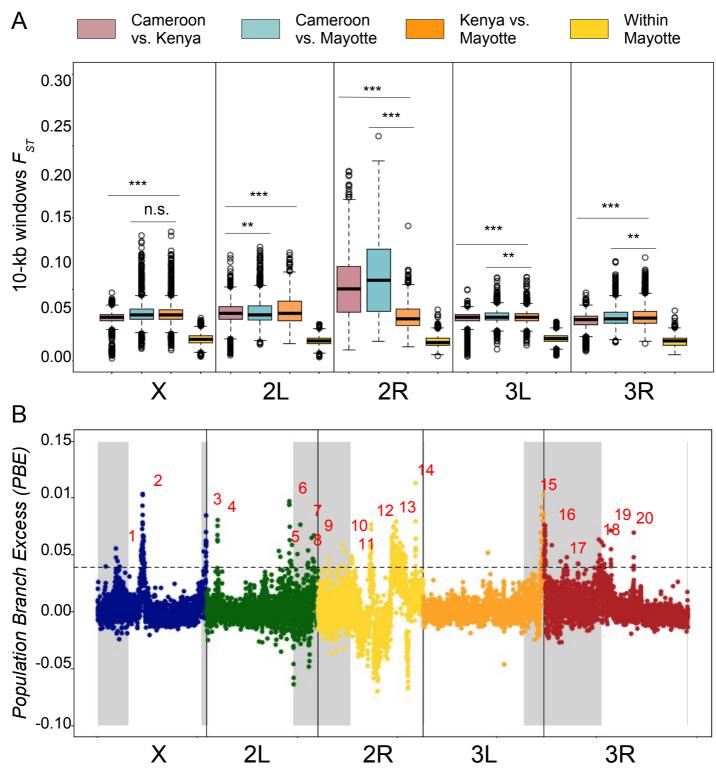
16	3R:0.00-0.33	Subspecies-specific 3Ri	
		inversion; subcentromeric	
		region	
17	3R:4.39-4.57	Subcentromeric region	
18	3R:10.82-11.92	Subcentromeric region	UDP-glucuronosyl/UDP-
			glucosyltransferase ($P < 5 \ge 10^{-8}$)
19	3R:13.38-13.42		Ace, Osi22
20	3R:17.96-17.98		Osi2, Osi3, Osi4, Osi5 (Proteins of
			unknown function DUF1676, P <
			1 x 10 ⁻⁸)



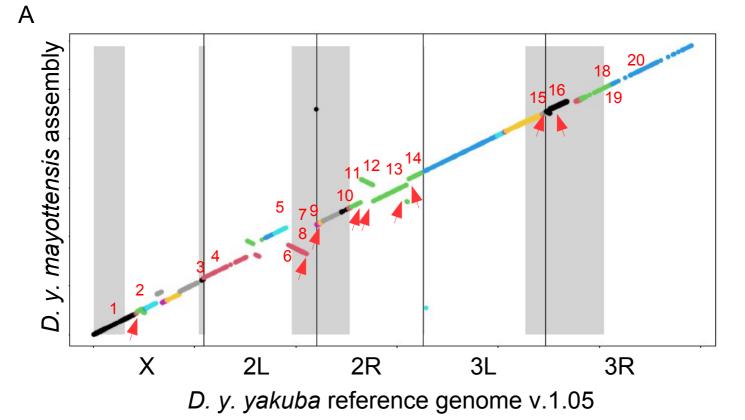
В						
	Banana bait	Not e <i>yak</i>	yak			
	Mayotte	210	0			
	Congo	6531	383			



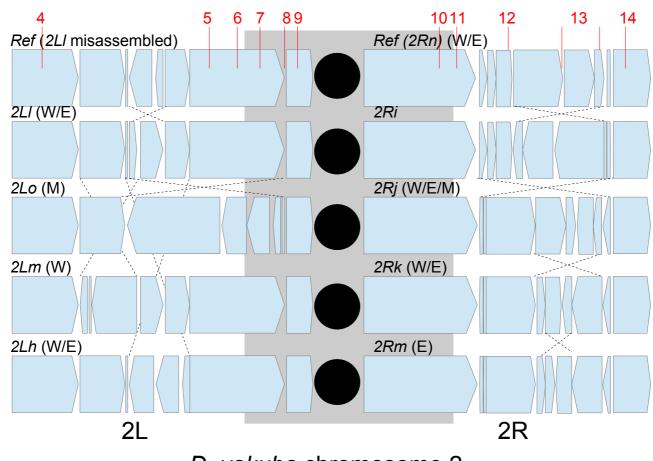




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D. yakuba chromosome 2