1   Genomics of Natural Populations: Gene Conversion Events Reveal Selected Genes within the
2   Inversions of *Drosophila pseudoobscura*
3

4   Stephen W. Schaeffer*, Stephen Richards[1], and Zachary L. Fuller[2]
5
6   *Department of Biology
7   The Pennsylvania State University
8   208 Erwin W. Mueller Laboratory
9   University Park, PA 16802-5301
10
11
12
13   [1]Current address:
14   Human Genome Sequencing Center, Baylor College of Medicine, One Baylor Plaza, Houston,
15   TX 77030
16
17   [2]Current address:
18   23andMe, Inc., Sunnyvale, CA 94086

20   Data Availability: Sequence data in FASTA format and aligned NEXUS files are available at
21   https://scholarsphere.psu.edu/resources/720f454e-ceb2-4139-a3a9-c59a5b7fdfaf . Additional
22   data and computer code are available at https://github.com/SWSchaeffer/InversionGC

23
24

25   Running title: Gene Conversion within Inversions

27   Key Words: Gene Conversion, Inversion, Selection, Local Adaptation, *Drosophila*

28   *pseudoobscura*

30   Corresponding Author: Stephen W. Schaeffer

31   Department of Biology

32   The Pennsylvania State University

33   208 Erwin W. Mueller Laboratory

34   University Park, PA 16802-5301

35   (814) 865-3269

36   sws4@psu.edu

Abstract

When adaptive phenotypic variation or QTLs map within an inverted segment of a chromosome, researchers often despair because it is thought that the suppression of crossing over will prevent the discovery of selective target genes that contribute to the establishment of the rearrangement. If an inversion polymorphism is old enough, then the accumulation of gene conversion tracts offers the promise that QTLs or selected loci within inversions can be mapped. This study uses the inversion polymorphism of *Drosophila pseudoobscura* as a model system to show that gene conversion analysis is a useful tool for mapping selected loci within inversions. *D. pseudoobscura* has over 30 different chromosomal arrangements on the third chromosome (Muller C) in natural populations and their frequencies vary with changes in environmental habitats. Statistical tests of five *D. pseudoobscura* gene arrangements identified outlier genes within inverted regions based on local clusters of fixed SNP differences. These outlier genes also had potentially heritable variation, either fixed amino acid differences or differential expression patterns among arrangements. Here, we use genome sequences of the inverted third chromosome (Muller C) to infer 98,443 gene conversion tracts for a total coverage of 142 Mb or 7.2 x coverage of the 19.7 Mb chromosome. We estimated gene conversion tract coverage in the 2,668 genes on Muller C and tested whether the number of genes with significantly low coverage was the same for outlier versus non-outlier loci. . Genes with low gene conversion tract coverage were more frequent in the outlier class than the non-outlier class suggesting that selection removes exchanged DNA from the outlier genes more often than non-outlier genes. These data support the hypothesis that the pattern and organization of genetic diversity on the third chromosome in *D. pseudoobscura* is consistent with the capture of locally adapted combinations of alleles prior to inversion mutation events.

Introduction

Chromosomal inversions were first observed indirectly as recombination modifiers in *Drosophila melanogaster* (STURTEVANT 1917) and later demonstrated to be the result of the reordering of genes along chromosomes (STURTEVANT 1921). An inversion results from two breaks along a chromosome and the rejoining of the central segment in reverse order. The direct examination of polytene chromosomes from Dipteran larval salivary glands revealed that many species are segregating for inversion polymorphisms on one or more chromosomal arms (DOBZHANSKY AND STURTEVANT 1938; WASSERMAN 1982; SPERLICH AND PFRIEM 1986; CARSON 1992; COLUZZI *et al.* 2002). An outstanding question in evolutionary genetics has been whether neutral or selective forces are responsible for establishing inversions in populations (BERDAN *et al.* 2023). Quantitative trait loci (QTL) and genes that underlie ecotypes have been found to map within inversions or supergenes in a wide variety of species (LOWRY AND WILLIS 2010; HUYNH *et al.* 2011; KÜPPER *et al.* 2015; MÉROT *et al.* 2018; SINCLAIR-WATERS *et al.* 2018; AROSTEGUI *et al.* 2019; AYALA *et al.* 2019; FARIA *et al.* 2019; LUCEK *et al.* 2019; RENNISON *et al.* 2019; HAN *et al.* 2020; HUANG *et al.* 2020; YAN *et al.* 2020; FUNK *et al.* 2021; HAGER *et al.* 2022; HARRINGMEYER AND HOEKSTRA 2022). Indirect evidence such as clines, seasonal cycling, and population cage experiments have inferred that inversion polymorphisms have been maintained by selection (DOBZHANSKY 1944; WRIGHT AND DOBZHANSKY 1946; DOBZHANSKY 1948; DOBZHANSKY 1950; COLUZZI *et al.* 1979; KAPUN *et al.* 2016; WESTRAM *et al.* 2018). In Drosophila, a number of phenotypic characters have been associated with inversion polymorphisms including mating speed, body size, temperature resistance, wing length, and thorax length (SPIESS AND LANGER 1964; HOFFMANN AND WEEKS 2007; REGO *et al.* 2010). In addition, different karyotypes have differentiation survival under different environmental conditions such as humidity, temperature, food sources (HEUTS 1947; HEUTS 1948; CUNHA 1951; LEVINE 1952; BATTAGLIA AND SMITH 1961; DRUGER 1962; DOLGOVA *et al.* 2010). What is not clear is what genes lead to the establishment of new chromosomal inversions. Identifying candidate selected genes underlying QTLs and phenotypes within different arrangements have remained elusive because inversions suppress recombination leading to extensive linkage disequilibrium within inverted regions that can mask signatures of selection.

Genomic re-sequencing data have provided insights into the mechanisms for the origin, establishment, and maintenance of chromosomal inversions in natural populations (For a recent review see, BERDAN *et al.* 2023). Comparison of sequences between different gene arrangements have allowed the identification of regions of chromosomes where breakage and rejoining events led to the origin of new gene orders (RICHARDS *et al.* 2005; RANZ *et al.* 2007; HARRINGMEYER AND HOEKSTRA 2022). Ectopic exchange between repeat sequences at breakpoints provide one model for the facilitation of inversion mutations (FULLER *et al.* 2017; HARRINGMEYER AND HOEKSTRA 2022), while staggered cuts that duplicate genes at breakpoints is an alternative mechanism observed to generate new gene arrangements (RANZ *et al.* 2007; PUERMA *et al.* 2016).

Once an inversion mutation arises in the population, it is usually lost because its initial frequency (1/2N) is quite low. On the other hand, a new inversion can be established in the population either due to neutral or selective forces. Like point mutations, a selectively neutral inversion can drift to higher frequency through random genetic drift and over time inter-arrangement divergence will be greatest at the breakpoints because the homogenizing effect of genetic flux among arrangements is greatest in the central regions of the inverted regions (NAVARRO *et al.* 2000; GUERRERO *et al.* 2012). There are several possible mechanisms that can explain how an inversion is established by selection. First, direct or position effects (SPERLICH

AND PFRIEM 1986) may create beneficial variation when the breakpoints either disrupt genes,
create new hybrid genes, or alter gene expression of boundary genes at or near the lesions.
Empirical studies of inversion breakpoints have shown that gene duplications can occur at
breakpoints (RANZ *et al.* 2007), but have failed to find evidence for gene disruptions within
genes (FULLER *et al.* 2017). Inversion breakpoints can altered gene expression of boundary
genes (PUIG *et al.* 2002). Recent analyses have shown that chromatin states and architecture
may influence where breakpoints occur (MCBROOME *et al.* 2020; WRIGHT AND SCHAEFFER 2022).
A second mechanism proposes that indirect effects associated with the suppression of
recombination can maintain advantageous haplotypes within the inverted region leading to
elevated linkage disequilibrium among multiple genes within the inverted segment (KIRKPATRICK
AND BARTON 2006). These models assume that the new inversion captures sets of beneficial
alleles (CHARLESWORTH AND CHARLESWORTH 1973). Sets of alleles may be beneficial if they are
free of deleterious recessive alleles (NEI *et al.* 1967) or are alleles that contribute to local
adaptation (KIRKPATRICK AND BARTON 2006). In the case of the local adaptation model,
inversions arise to counter the formation of maladaptive genotypes formed through
recombination of alternatively selected chromosomes from different habitats. This typically
occurs when the migration parameter (*Nm*) is > 1 and populations exist in a heterogeneous
environment (DOBZHANSKY 1944; KENNINGTON *et al.* 2006; SCHAEFFER 2008; CHENG *et al.* 2012;
KENNINGTON AND HOFFMANN 2013; KAPUN *et al.* 2016). The size of an inversion may also
influence whether it is established based on the number of genes involved in local adaptation
(KIRKPATRICK AND BARTON 2006; FULLER *et al.* 2017). The size of an inversion and its selective
role will be a trade off between the number of selected genes versus the ability for double cross
overs to reduce associations among selected genes (CACERES *et al.* 1999). Finally, a new gene
arrangement may rise to intermediate frequency because one beneficial allele is trapped within
the inverted region (MAYNARD SMITH AND HAIGH 1974) and arrangements can later accumulate
additional selected genes .
Once established, the new inversion will act as an isolated subpopulation and
accumulate genetic differences from its ancestral arrangement (NAVARRO *et al.* 2000).
Recombination or genetic flux among different gene arrangements will oppose genetic
differentiation keeping sequences homogeneous among inversion types (NAVARRO *et al.* 1997).
Genetic flux is initiated by double strand breaks between inverted chromosomes and are either
resolved as genetic cross overs or as gene conversion events. Single cross overs within an
inverted region of a Drosophila heterokaryotype will generate unbalanced inviable gametes that
are selected against leaving only parental gametes (STURTEVANT AND BEADLE 1936). Cross
overs are possible if two cross overs occur within the inverted region, but the probability of
double cross over events is small unless the size of the inverted segment is large (NAVARRO *et
al.* 1997). Gene conversion events, on the other hand, are genetic exchanges at double strand
breaks that are resolved as non-cross over events leading to the exchange of small segments of
200 to 300 nucleotides among arrangements without the formation of unbalanced gametes
(CHOVNICK 1973; ROZAS AND AGUADÉ 1993; ROZAS AND AGUADÉ 1994; SCHAEFFER AND
ANDERSON 2005) (Figure 1). Conversion happens when the DNA strand from one homologous
chromosome (pink strand in Figure 1C) invades the other homolog creating heteroduplexes
everywhere where there are SNP differences. Repair of the heteroduplexes in favor of the
invading DNA strand leads to the gene conversion event (Figure 1 D). Gene conversion events
occur uniformly across the inverted segment, but the homogenizing effect is limited because of
the small DNA segment exchanged among chromosomes (NAVARRO *et al.* 1997; MILLER *et al.*
2012; MILLER *et al.* 2016; KORUNES AND NOOR 2019). Overall, crossing over is expected to

have a greater homogenizing effect than gene conversion because larger genomic segments
are exchanged, but crossing over is less likely to occur relative to gene conversion events.
Fuller *et al*. (2017) analyzed complete genome sequences of the third chromosome
inversion polymorphism of *D. pseudoobscura* as a model system to determine mechanisms
responsible for the establishment of inversions in populations. The third chromosome or Muller
C (MULLER 1940) of *D. pseudoobscura* has a wealth of gene arrangements that were generated
through a series of overlapping inversion events (DOBZHANSKY AND STURTEVANT 1938). These
arrangements have been suggested to be targets of selection based on stable clines across
heterogenous environments (DOBZHANSKY 1944; ANDERSON *et al.* 1991), stable altitudinal
gradients (DOBZHANSKY 1948), and seasonal cycling (DOBZHANSKY 1948). Aquadro *et al*.
(1991) used phylogenetic analysis of restriction fragment length polymorphisms to support the
unique origin hypothesis of the *D. pseudoobscura* gene arrangements. Fuller *et al*. (2017)
tested 2,668 Muller C genes within each of six arrangements for evidence of selection. Loci
with significant elevated frequencies of derived nucleotide variants and with significantly long
population specific branch lengths (SHRIVER *et al.* 2004; YI *et al.* 2010) were identified as outlier
genes. In addition, outlier genes that were differentially expressed or had fixed inversion
specific amino acids among arrangements were considered potential targets of selection.
These outlier loci may reflect regions enriched for nucleotide variation originally associated with
the new inversion event that has yet to be decoupled by genetic flux. Alternatively, genetic flux
in the form of gene conversion may be sufficient to homogenize genetic diversity, but purifying
selection has removed deleterious conversion tracts.
Direct empirical estimates of gene conversion rates in inverted and colinear regions of *D.
pseudoobscura* have been estimated to be 3.1×10^{-5} and 7.7×10^{-6} converted nucleotides per
base per generation, respectively (KORUNES AND NOOR 2019). Korunes and Noor (2019)
generated genome wide SNP heterozygotes and used computational methods to infer gene
conversion events on four of the five major chromosomal arms. In the cross, the third
chromosome was heterozygous for the ST and PP arrangements. Ten F_2 offspring were
sequenced for this cross and 11 and 23 gene conversion events were scored within inverted
and colinear regions respectively. Identical events were scored in the cross and were
presumed to occur during mitosis prior to meiosis (KORUNES AND NOOR 2019). If only unique
events are scored, then three and eight gene conversion tracts were observed in inverted and
colinear regions, respectively, which reduces the estimates of gene conversion rates in inverted
and colinear regions to 8.5×10^{-6} and 2.4×10^{-6} converted nucleotides per base per generation,
respectively. These estimates of gene conversion rates are two orders of magnitude greater
than the mutation rate, which would allow gene conversion to homogenize genetic diversity
among arrangements. Korunes and Noor (2019) show that gene conversion events can be
detected after a single generation, but do not provide insights about the selective effects of
these events, which might be inferred over longer evolutionary time.
A general computational method to detect gene conversion events indirectly was
developed based on the configuration of polymorphic nucleotides (phylogenetic partitions) at
multiple sites across a sample of nucleotide sequences (STEPHENS 1985). This method was
refined to detect gene conversion events in inversion systems when differentiated DNA
segments are exchanged between one arrangement and another (BETRAN *et al.* 1997). Figure
2 shows an example of two detected gene conversion events on Muller C of *D. pseudoobscura*.
The Betran *et al*. (1997) method assumes that the frequency of an informative variant is greater
in the source arrangement than in the recipient. Two probabilities are used to infer gene
conversion tracts from samples of gene arrangement sequence data. The first is the probability

that a SNP is informative of a conversion event based on the frequencies of a variant within the
source and recipient subpopulations or ψ. The second is the probability that a gene conversion
event is extended to an additional nucleotide or ϕ. This method was applied by Schaeffer and
Anderson (2005) to gene arrangement samples of short aligned sequences (339 to 517 bp)
from seven gene regions of *D. pseudoobscura*. They estimated the mean conversion tract
length to be 205 bp and mean population conversion rate to be 3.4 x 10^{-6}, which is comparable
to the rates inferred by Korunes and Noor (2019).
Under a neutral model and an infinite amount of time, maximal nucleotide divergence will
be found at inversion breakpoints with the central inverted region showing less divergence
among different arrangements (NAVARRO *et al.* 2000; NOOR *et al.* 2007; GUERRERO *et al.* 2012).
When an inversion captures locally selected alleles, selection opposes the homogenizing effect
of genetic flux leading to local peaks of differentiation (GUERRERO *et al.* 2012). The observation
of peaks of differentiation will become more apparent as time progresses and gene conversion
events homogenize variation among arrangements except at selected loci.
Five *D. pseudoobscura* arrangements had sufficient sample sizes to detect multiple
outlier loci. These gene arrangements had between 36 and 149 outlier genes that were
distributed within and outside the boundaries of the derived inversion (Figure 1). Outlier genes
had decreased estimates of the recombination parameter rho (ρ) (CHAN *et al.* 2012) compared
to intervening non-outlier loci (see Table 3 in FULLER *et al.* 2017) suggesting that genetic flux is
limiting differentiation at a fine scale. The predominant force homogenizing local regions among
arrangements, however, remains unclear.   The current study infers gene conversion events
over the accumulated history of the Muller C inversion polymorphism in *D. pseudoobscura* to
test the hypothesis that gene conversion events occur uniformly across all genes in colinear and
inverted regions of Muller C in *D. pseudoobscura*. With genome re-sequencing data, we used
the Bertran *et al.* (1997) method to do a comprehensive analysis of gene conversion tracts
across Muller C of *D. pseudoobscura*. We show here that gene conversion has been sufficient
to homogenize genetic variation among arrangements within inverted regions. Previously
identified outlier genes tended to have lower coverage from gene conversion events than non-
outlier genes. These data provide evidence for the indirect effect of recombination maintaining
associations of selected genes originally captured by inversion events. Outlier genes that have
low gene conversion coverage represent loci where purifying selection has removed exchanged
DNA.
234

Materials and Methods

Strains. The genome sequencing of 54 strains of *D. pseudoobscura* that carry one of six
different gene arrangements on Muller C have been previously described (FULLER *et al.* 2017).
In brief, isofemale strains were collected from seven localities: Mount St. Helena, CA (MSH),
Santa Cruz Island, CA (SCI); James Reserve, CA (JR); Mather, CA (MA); Kaibab National
Forest, AZ (KB); Davis Mountains, TX (DM), San Pablo Etla, Oaxaca, Mexico (SPE). Crosses
with either the Blade or Lobe third chromosome balancer strains were used to generate
isochromosomal strains (Drosophila Species Stock Center Strain ID 14011-0121.173 is the
Blade balancer for non-AR chromosomes, Genotype: or Bl cv AR/lethal CU; Strain ID 14011-
0121.171 is the Lobe balancer for non-SC chromosomes, Genotype: or L SC/ or + lethal ST;
and Strain ID 14011-0121.172 is an additional strain used in the balancer crosses, Genotype or
pr) (see Figure 1 in DOBZHANSKY AND QUEAL 1938 for the general crossing scheme). The 54
strains used in this study carry one of six Muller C gene arrangements where the names are
based on the locality where the chromosome was first collected (DOBZHANSKY AND STURTEVANT
1938): Arrowhead (AR, n=15); Standard (ST, n=8); Pikes Peak (PP, n=10); Chiricahua (CH,
n=9); Tree Line (TL, n=9); and Cuernavaca (CH,n=3).

Genome Sequences. Each of the 54 strains were sequenced with Illumina HiSeq short
reads (for full details of the sequencing, read mapping, and variant calling, see FULLER *et al.*
2017). Reads were mapped to the *D. pseudoobscura* v3.2 Arrowhead reference sequence. The
Arrowhead MV2-25 reference genome is available at NCBI in BioProject PRJNA18793, the re-
sequencing genomes are available in BioProject PRJNA358242. Two additional Pikes Peak
genomes are available at NCBI as BioSamples SAMN00709017 and SAMN00709004. The set
of 54 aligned sequences for the 19.8 Mb third chromosome (Muller C) were used in the gene
conversion analysis. The mapping of Illumina reads might be expected to decrease with
increasing inversion distance between arrangements, however, the different inverted
chromosomes have similar levels of inferred gaps or missing data (2.0 to 2.2 % sites of the 19.8
Mb sequence) and have similar distributions of gaps or missing data across the 73 regions
examined in the gene conversion analysis (See Supplemental Figure S1).

Gene Conversion Analysis. We estimated gene conversion tract coverage in outlier
and non-outlier genes with the following analysis. Coverage refers to how often conversion
tracts occur at a particular nucleotide in a gene region. As gene arrangements age, they
accumulate arrangement specific mutations. These SNPs can be exchanged between
arrangements in heterokaryotypes via crossing over or gene conversion, but will have lower
frequency in the recipient strain. We used the approach of Betran *et al*. (1997) to infer gene
conversion tracts across Muller C of *D. pseudoobscura*. This approach compares sets of
sequences among different chromosomal arrangements to identify two or more SNPs in linkage
disequilibrium that are found in two or more arrangements.

The gene conversion events detected by the Betran *et al*. (1997) approach are based on
exchange between gene arrangement heterokaryotypes. The gene conversion analysis requires
that the SNPs use a common gene order and that the distance between SNPs be preserved in
the data set. The seven pairs of *D. pseudoobscura* inversion breakpoints used in this study
divide the third chromosome into 14 regions where genes within the region are in the same
order in all arrangements (Figure 3). While conversion events may occur near breakpoints
(CROWN *et al.* 2018), they are unlikely to straddle the breakpoints.

The Gene Conversion analysis module within DNASP v 6 (ROZAS *et al.* 2017) was used
to infer gene conversion tracts across the 14 cytogenetic regions of Muller C. Each of the 14
regions were subdivided into smaller subregions of 181 to 440 kb each, with most subregions

being 250 kb. This was done to accommodate DNASP memory constraints and to maximize
the speed of analysis. All pairs of gene arrangements were compared in each of the 73
subregions with the Gene Conversion analysis in DNASP (15 total comparisons: AR-ST, AR-
PP, AR-CH, AR-TL, AR-CU, ST-PP, ST-CH, ST-TL, ST-CU, PP-CH, PP-TL, PP-CU, CH-TL,
CH-CU, and TL-CU). Each analysis excluded nucleotide sites with alignment gaps and the
output provided lists of conversion tracts within strain, the beginning and end coordinates of the
tract, the tract length excluding gaps, mean value of ψ, number of informative sites, and a list of
sites with its associated value of ψ. The detected events are unidirectional in the pairwise
analysis. The polarity of events is based on the informative sites being fixed or nearly fixed in
the source arrangement and at low or intermediate frequency in the recipient arrangement. For
instance, in the comparison of AR and CH, an event detected in the AR recipient strain will have
CH as the source arrangement. Results of each of the 1,095 pairwise analyses were stored in
separate text files and were also combined into a single file for subsequent summary analyses.
A gene conversion tract can be detected multiple times in this analysis. There are two
sources of redundancy. First, a gene conversion tract can be inferred from multiple pairwise
comparisons of gene arrangements. For instance, a gene conversion tract in an AR strain might
be inferred from a comparison of AR with CH or with TL. Only one instance of this detected
event is used. For the analysis of event polarity, only events detected with a single pairwise
comparison is used so that we can unambiguously infer the source and recipient. Second, a
gene conversion tract can be inferred in multiple strains of the same gene arrangement. It is
assumed that gene conversion tracts result from unique events and finding the same event in
multiple strains is a result of the tract increasing in frequency within the arrangement (BETRAN *et*
al. 1997). Only one tract from a single strain is used when the conversion event is found in
multiple strains. The effect of removing redundant gene conversion tracts from the data set is a
conservative adjustment that lowers the overall gene conversion tract coverage per site in both
outlier and non-outlier genes.
A histogram of gene conversion coverage in each of 2,668 genes was constructed from
the set of non-redundant gene conversion tracts (Figure 4). Outlier and non-outlier transcripts
were mapped to Muller C (Figure 4A). Next, gene conversion tracts were mapped to Muller C
(Figure 4B). Finally, a histogram of gene conversion coverage was constructed by counting the
number of tracts that cover each nucleotide across the chromosome (Figure 4C).
The mean coverage per nucleotide was estimated for outlier and non-outlier genes from
the gene conversion histogram. The sum of gene conversion tract coverage was estimated
across the exons of each gene and divided by the total number of nucleotides in the gene. The
mean gene conversion coverage was determined separately for outliers and non-outlier genes.
To determine if the donor and recipient conversion events were independent across the
14 syntenic block regions and overall, we permuted the donor and recipient classifications
across the 14 regions. We constrained the permutations so that only non-self-arrangement
events occurred. A total of 10,000 random permutations were used. For each permutation of
the donors and recipients, the number of gene conversion events was re-estimated and
compared with the observed data to determine the probability of obtaining more extreme values
as well as the minimum and maximum values found across all permutations.
Maximum Likelihood Estimates of ϕ and Expected Number of Conversion Tracts.
We used the maximum likelihood approach of Betran *et al*. (1997) to infer ϕ within each of the
14 regions and for each donor-recipient pair using the observed list of conversion tracts for each
pair (See equations 4, 6, and 8). The second derivative of the likelihood equation was used to
estimate the asymptotic variance, which is used to infer a lower and upper bound for tract

length. We did separate analyses for each region and donor-recipient pair because we
assumed that the breakpoints that defined the 14 regions might interfere with the progression of
conversion tracts. This may be a conservative assumption because we define the syntenic
block regions based on the set of 13 breakpoints of gene arrangements used in this study.
Tests for Differences in Gene Conversion Tract Coverage between Outlier and
Non-Outlier Genes. We tested the hypothesis that outlier and non-outlier genes had
equivalent gene conversion coverage using several methods. This assumes that gene
conversion can occur uniformly across the chromosome.

    1. *Random Permutation of Gene Class.* We used a permutation test where we randomly assigned outlier and non-outlier designations to the genes within the arrangement. A total of 10,000 replicates were used to determine the frequency of random outlier assignments that had a mean tract coverage less than the observed value.

    2. *Random Permutation of Observed Gene Conversion Tracts.* We randomly assigned the observed gene conversion tracts to Muller C without replacement 10,000 times and for each random mapping we re-constructed the conversion tract histogram for the outlier and non-outlier genes. The average coverage in outlier and non-outlier genes was determined for each replicate and the frequency of replicates that had a value less than the observed was estimated.

    3. *Random Gene Conversion Tracts Based on Maximum Likelihood Parameters.* We used maximum likelihood estimates of region-specific ϕ and the expected number of gene conversion tracts ($E(k_T)$) in the 14 different syntenic block regions to generate a set of conversion tracts. The parameter ϕ is the probability of extending the conversion tract to an additional nucleotide and the process of generating tract lengths is geometric random variable. For each gene conversion tract within a recipient arrangement, we sampled a tract length as a geometric random deviate. If the tract length was greater than the region size, then a new tract length was chosen. Next, a random nucleotide site was chosen from a uniform distribution to begin the gene conversion tract. If the mapped tract spanned two syntenic blocks, a new starting coordinate was chosen. A total of $E(k_T)$ tracts are generated for each region for each of the five donor arrangements, where k_T is the expected number of conversion tracts (See page 95 in BETRAN *et al.* 1997). A total of 10,000 replicates was generated and the mean tract coverage in outlier genes was re-estimated.

It is possible that the original classification of Muller C genes into outlier and non-outlier
categories may reflect ascertainment bias because they were originally identified based on
higher levels of divergence. To overcome this possibility, we classified each gene into one of
three categories based on the random permutation minimum and maximum coverage
estimates. The three categories are: (1) below the permuted minimum coverage; (2) between
the permuted minimum and maximum coverage; and (3) above the permuted maximum
coverage. We used a Chi-square test of homogeneity for each arrangement to determine if the
distribution of outlier and non-outlier genes into gene coverage classes is similar.

Results
Numbers and Lengths of Conversion Tracts in 14 Syntenic Block Regions. There
were 98,443 non-redundant gene conversion tracts observed across Muller C. The mean
number of tracts per strain is 1930.2. Sample sizes varied among arrangements, which could
bias the number of gene conversion tracts detected. The distribution of gene conversion tracts
rejects the null hypothesis that conversion tracts are proportional to the number of strains

sampled within each gene arrangement using a Chi-Square Goodness of Fit test (X^2=2281.0,
df=4, *P*<0.0001). The AR, CH, and TL arrangements have more gene conversion tracts than
expected while the PP and ST arrangements have fewer tracts than expected (Figure 5). Gene
conversion tract numbers are not similar in the 14 syntenic block regions in the five different
arrangements based on a Chi-Square test for Homogeneity (X^2=366.6, *df*=52, *P*<0.0001) (Figure
6). Examination of residuals shows that the AR arrangement has a deficiency of tracts in
regions 5 and 9, the CH arrangement has an excess of gene conversion tracts in region 5 and a
deficiency of tracts in regions 11 and 14, the PP arrangement has a deficiency of tracts in region
5 and an excess of tracts in region 9, the ST arrangement has deficiencies of tracts in regions 3
and 5 and an excess of tracts in regions 8 and 10, while the TL arrangement has an excess of
tracts in region 3 and deficiencies of tracts in regions 5 and 8.
Median observed gene conversion tract lengths are greatest in the proximal and distal
regions of Muller C compared to the central inverted regions (Figure 7). The central areas of the
chromosome which are often within inverted regions in heterokaryotypes have an observed
median tract length of 112, 160, 97, 127, and 115 bps in the AR, CH. PP, ST, and TL
arrangements, respectively. We used a random permutation test to determine if the median
gene conversion tract lengths are lower or greater than expected given the distribution of all
observed tract lengths. The test was performed by shuffling the list of tracts without
replacement, which randomly assigns tracts to the 14 different regions keeping the number of
tracts per region the same as the observed. For each of the 10,000 permutation replicates, the
regional median was re-estimated and the probability of obtaining a median greater than or less
than the observed value within each region was determined. Figure *5* shows the regions that
had median gene conversion tract lengths that were significantly less than or greater than
expected given the distribution of all tract lengths. Proximal regions 1 and 2 and distal regions
12 through 14 had median tract lengths that were greater than expected in two or more gene
arrangements while central regions 4 through 10 had median tract lengths that were less than
expected in four or more karyotypes. Regions 3 and 11 had arrangements with median tract
lengths less than or greater than expected reflecting boundary regions that the transition
between largely collinear or inverted segments of the chromosome.
Of the 98,443 observed gene conversion tracts in recipient arrangements, the source
arrangement could be inferred unambiguously in 74,419 events. We observed gene conversion
events between all pairs of arrangements across Muller C ranging between 1,270 conversion
events from ST to PP and 5,266 conversion events from CH to AR. Figure 8 shows the polarity
of the observed gene conversion events (Donor to Recipient) in the 14 syntenic block regions
and across all regions. For all gene conversion events across all regions, three pairs showed a
deficiency of events in both directions (AR-TL, CH-PP, and ST-TL), one pair showed an excess
of events in both directions (AR-ST), one pair showed a deficiency in one direction and an
excess in the other direction (PP-ST).. The rest showed either a deficiency or excess in only
one direction. The test of independence of donor to recipient events for the 14 different regions
found subsets of regions with significant deficiencies or excesses of conversion events with a
tendency toward what was found for the sum of all events. For instance, if the overall trend was
toward a deficiency of events, then most regions with a significant departure tended to also
show a deficiency, e.g., the ST to CH transition had a significant overall deficiency (2,195) and
ten of 14 regions showed a significant deficiency. For the arrangement pairs likely to form
heterozygotes at frequencies of 10% or more in natural populations (CH/ST, CH/PP, AR/ST,
and AR/PP) CH tended to be a donor to AR and ST, ST tended to be a donor to AR, and PP
tended to be a donor to AR.
Maximum Likelihood Estimates of ϕ and Expected Number of Conversion Tracts.
The estimates of ϕ and the expected number of conversion tracts along with other values for all

donor-recipient pairs in each region are in the Supplemental Materials (Supplemental Table S1). These values are used below in tests of gene conversion coverage in outlier genes.

Gene Conversion Tract Coverage in Outlier and Non-Outlier Genes. The 98,443 observed conversion tracts were mapped to Muller C and the mean coverage per nucleotide was estimated for the exons of each transcript. The expected gene conversion tract coverage per nucleotide across Muller C is 1.2 per nucleotide for all arrangements except for PP, which had an expected coverage rate of 0.8 tracts per nucleotide. Thus, at least one conversion tract should occur in each gene across the chromosome (Figure 5).

Figure 9 shows the gene conversion tract coverage for outlier and non-outlier genes across Muller C in five gene arrangements of *D. pseudoobscura*. Proximal and distal regions of all arrangements have higher conversion tract coverage than central inverted regions. Outlier genes tend to have lower levels of coverage than non-outliers. The maximum coverage values are sample size dependent. Standard, Chiricahua, Pikes Peak, and Tree Line have sample sizes between 8 and 10 with maximum coverage of 10 tracts/nucleotide. Arrowhead, on the other hand, has a sample size of 15 with a maximum coverage of 18.

The mean gene conversion tract coverage estimated for the 2,668 genes on Muller C shows that non-outlier genes have higher mean coverage than outlier genes (Table 1). Gene conversion tract coverage in non-outlier genes matches the expected value for the entire chromosome, while outlier genes have coverage values < 0.1.

We used three tests to determine if the lower gene conversion coverage is expected by chance (Table 1). The Random Permutation of Gene Class test found that the observed mean gene conversion coverage in outlier genes was always less than random permutations in all gene arrangements. One factor to consider is that we filtered the conversion tracts to remove redundant tracts. If the redundant tracts were to be included, we would likely see higher coverage both in outlier and non-outlier genes, but still show a significant difference. The Random Permutation of Observed Gene Conversion Tracts test showed that the observed mean coverage in outliers was always less than the replicate permutations. The Random Gene Conversion Tracts Based on Maximum Likelihood Parameters test found that the observed mean conversion tract coverage in outlier genes was less than was found with random conversion tracts. The results of this test should be viewed with caution because the expected number of true tracts is greater than the observed number of tracts. Thus, it is not surprising that we observe higher gene conversion tract coverage in outlier genes than in our replicates. The important result from these three tests is that outlier genes have lower gene conversion coverage than expected.

It is possible that the previous classification of genes into outlier and non-outliers may bias our analysis of gene conversion tract coverage because these genes were identified based on high levels of fixed nucleotide mutations, which would have low levels of shared polymorphism that would result from gene conversion. We examined the relationship between the Population Specific Branch Length (PSBL) statistic and gene conversion tract coverage in outlier and non-outlier genes in the five gene arrangements (Supplement Figure S2). Non-outlier genes had gene conversion tract coverage estimates from 0 to 18 while non-outlier genes had tract coverage estimates from 0 to 4. The random permutation analysis provides an overall estimate for the minimum and maximum coverage across all genes. We divided genes up into three classes, (1) below the permuted minimum value, (2) between the permuted minimum and maximum value, and (3) above the permuted maximum value. We did this separately for the outlier and non-outlier genes and used a chi-square test of homogeneity to determine if the distribution into the three classes is the same for outlier and non-outlier genes (See Supplemental Figure S2 A-E and Tables S2 to S6). The Chi-square tests show that the distributions reject homogeneity in the five arrangements (Supplemental Tables S2-S6). For the

five gene arrangements, the outlier class has an excess of genes with gene conversion tract
coverage below the permutation minimum (Percent AR = 94.4%; CH=87.5%; PP=92.6%;
ST=95.1%; TL=88.9%). Each arrangement had classified outlier genes with coverages
between the permuted minimum and maximum coverages (Numbers, AR, 2; CH, 5; PP, 10; ST,
4; TL, 5) and two arrangements had classified outlier genes above the permuted maximum
coverage (Numbers, PP, 1; TL, 1), which suggest that some previously identified outliers do
experience expected levels of gene conversion.

Gene Conversion and the Site Frequency Spectrum. We examined whether the site
frequency spectrum differs in regions with different levels of gene conversion. Gene conversion
events would likely introduce maladaptive genetic variants and our analysis suggests that these
variants are removed by purifying selection, however, purifying selection does not have as
profound effect on the site frequency spectrum as beneficial mutations do. Beneficial mutations
will sweep out nucleotide variation likely leading to an excess of rare variants and a significant
negative Tajima's D. Purifying selection on deleterious variants will only remove or decrease
the frequency of chromosomes that carry the changes. Jackson et al. (2015) found that
purifying selection alters the site frequency spectrum of nonsynonymous nucleotides, but did not
alter the site frequency spectrum of synonymous sites. Supplemental Figure S3 A-E shows
volcano plots of Tajima's D for all genes of the five arrangements with significant and non-
significant D indicated in pink or blue for outlier genes. The five arrangements have both
significant positive and negative Tajima's *D*s with only the CH having more positive than
negative D values.

Discussion

496
The work presented here shows that gene conversion events among arrangements are
readily detectable and serve as a source of genetic flux among the gene arrangements of *D.*
pseudoobscura. The number of observed conversion tracts tends to be uniformly distributed
across Muller C (Figure 6) except for the proximal two syntenic blocks of the chromosome
consistent with theory on genetic flux (NAVARRO *et al.* 1997). Fewer conversion tracts may
result from the initiation of fewer double stranded breaks in the proximal regions. While regions
1 and 2 are closer to the centromere where crossing over is reduced (LINDSLEY AND SANDLER
1977), these regions are in euchromatic DNA, which is unlikely to be affected by the
centromeric effect. More likely is that the Betran *et al.* (1997) method has lower power to detect
gene conversion events in regions 1 and 2. This method relies on informative nucleotide
polymorphisms to detect an exchange between two gene arrangements. Because regions 1
and 2 are outside most inverted regions, genetic exchange is likely to reduce differentiation and
prevent conversion tract detection.
The observed median gene conversion tract lengths are largest in the proximal and
distal regions of Muller C and are reduced in size in the inverted regions (Figure 7). The
detected events in the proximal and distal regions may be the result of cross overs rather than
gene conversion tracts. The Betran *et al.* (1997) method uses informative nucleotide sites to
infer exchanges between arrangements. The accumulation of genetic differences among gene
arrangements can extend beyond the boundaries of the inversion breakpoints providing
information about gene exchanges. In this case, the exchange events are longer than what is
observed within the inverted regions. The most proximal region (1) has the largest median
conversion track length compared to the most distal region (14). This may reflect that region 1
is further from the influence of interference caused by inversion breakpoints (GONG *et al.* 2005).
Most common arrangement pairs are homosequential across regions 1 to 3 with the exception
of the PP arrangement, which has its proximal breakpoint at the boundary of regions 2 and 3.
As a result, there is likely to be less interference of inversion breakpoints in the more proximal
regions leading to resolution of exchanges as cross overs and longer sequences being
exchanged.
We expected exchanges among all pairs of gene arrangements because
heterokaryotypes for these pairs have frequencies between 0.054 and 0.380 in at least one
population of *D. pseudoobscura*. The number of gene conversion events are not positively
correlated with heterokaryotypic frequency. We find larger numbers of events between
arrangements with lower observed heterokaryotypic frequencies than higher heterokaryotypic
frequencies.(ANDERSON *et al.* 1991). A total of 4,888 tracts were observed between CH and
PP, which has an observed maximum heterokaryotypic frequency of 0.054 (ANDERSON *et al.*
1991), while ST and CH had 4409 observed tracts with an observed heterokaryotypic frequency
of 0.280. We also found that in 15 of 20 cases, the number of events from donor to recipients
are either lower or greater than expected in a permutation test (Figure 8). For most pairs of
arrangements, there is a bias in which arrangement is the donor versus the recipient. For
instance, AR is the recipient of more tracts from CH than expected while there is neither a
deficiency nor excess of events in the reverse direction. (see heterokaryotype frequencies in
Figure 8). The CH and TL arrangements have two and three cases of deficiencies of being gene
conversion recipients. The AR, PP, and ST arrangements have both deficiencies and excesses
of being gene conversion recipients. The significant deficiencies may reflect selection against
exchanged segments of DNA from one background to another especially in regions within
inverted regions (Figure 8).
Arrangements that receive significant excesses of gene conversion events may reflect
positively selected changes. For example, the PP arrangement received an excess of events
from the TL arrangement especially in regions 8 and 9, which are cytological regions 74B-70D

and 70C-70B (Figure 2 and Figure 8). These two regions are unusual because phylogenetic
analysis of SNPs of the 14 regions of Muller C shows that PP and TL share a more recent
common ancestor than either does with their respective cytogenetic ancestor (ST for PP and SC
for TL) (see Figure 4 in FULLER *et al.* 2017). This suggests that gene conversion may have
introduced sequences from the TL to the PP arrangement that were important for the
proliferation of the PP arrangement. Further examination of the exact nature of how the TL
donated conversion tracts alter genes in the PP arrangement are needed to understand if
introduced variation is the target of selection.
The rate of gene conversion is sufficient to homogenize the sequences among the gene
arrangements, yet one observes differentiation of some genes (outliers) and not others across
the inverted segments. Our analysis of gene conversion coverage tracts shows that gene
conversion occurs less frequently in outlier versus non-outlier genes. Tests that randomly
shuffle the gene conversion tracts show that there are enough events to homogenize the
sequences. Each gene arrangement has fewer than 12% of outlier genes without a significant
reduction in gene conversion events (see Supplemental Tables S2-S6). The reason we can
detect these outlier loci is that we observe differentiation in the face of the homogenizing effect
of gene flux, which works in a similar manner as gene flow. This requires that the various gene
arrangements accumulate genetic differences and that there is sufficient time for gene
conversion events to accumulate. The Muller C inversion polymorphism in *D. pseudoobscura* is
estimated to be at least 1 million years old (AQUADRO *et al.* 1991; WALLACE *et al.* 2011) with the
AR arrangement being the newest arrangement of the set originating 350,000 years ago.
Despite being a young arrangement, our sample of AR chromosomes has over 30 thousand
gene conversion events with a mean coverage of 2.33 events per nucleotide and 36 detected
outlier genes with a mean coverage of 0.11. A similar pattern of reduced coverage in outlier
genes is observed in the other four older arrangements.
Essentially what is observed here is an example of survivorship bias. Gene conversion
events survive over time in genes within the inverted regions that can tolerate additional genetic
diversity, while gene conversion events in selected outlier genes from different arrangements do
not survive because they damage the important features of selected alleles within the inversion
haplotype. We assume that these outlier genes are in fact genes essential for the particular
gene arrangement's adaptive phenotype. Thus, the lack of homogenization of alleles by gene
conversion allows one to detect a signal of selected genes within gene arrangements despite
cross over suppression in heterokaryotypes.
Each of the major gene arrangements examined in *D. pseudoobscura* have evidence for
multiple outlier genes that show arrangement specific variation. We show here that the
arrangement specific variation in outlier genes is observed despite the homogenizing effect of
extensive genetic flux among arrangements driven by gene conversion events through the
history of these chromosomes. These data are consistent with a model where the inversions
captured sets of genes involved in local adaptation (KIRKPATRICK AND BARTON 2006). We
propose that the local populations of *D. pseudoobscura* in different physiographic provinces
(DOBZHANSKY 1944; LOBECK 1948) are selected for different locally adapted phenotypes
encoded by multiple genes within the arrangements. These polygenic traits were generated
through shuffling of allelic variation to generate adaptive combinations in different environments.
Adaptive combinations in one environment may not be beneficial in another habitat and are
likely to generate maladaptive types through recombination. This creates a setting for
chromosomal inversions to establish if they capture combinations of selected genes
(CHARLESWORTH AND CHARLESWORTH 1973). The set of selected genes is not likely to be
recognized initially because there will be extensive linkage disequilibrium of SNPs across the
inverted region from the ancestral arrangement. As the ancestral and derived arrangements
diverge in sequence, conditions to recognize selected loci emerge. Gene conversion begins to

homogenize the unselected genes within the inversion and with sufficient time differentiated
selected genes can be recognized.
If genes within the inverted region are neutral, then we would expect to see the highest
levels of genetic differentiation at or near the inversion breakpoints and not within the central
regions of the inversion (NAVARRO *et al.* 2000; MUNTE *et al.* 2005; NOOR *et al.* 2007; GUERRERO
AND KIRKPATRICK 2014). We observe outlier genes distributed across the inverted regions,
which are not restricted to the breakpoint regions even in the largest inversion event considered
in this study, Pikes Peak. The inversion that gave rise to the PP arrangement accounts for 60%
of Muller C. Double cross overs would be expected to homogenize the central region of the
inverted region, yet 129 outlier loci are distributed across the rearranged segment. This
differentiation pattern is the so-called suspension bridge pattern where the towers of the bridge
are the regions of high differentiation or outlier genes and the cables are the regions of reduced
differentiation caused by the accumulation of gene conversion events.
An alternative model to the capture model is one where new inversions gain beneficial
alleles within the arrangement over time. This model does not seem plausible because in this
scenario, one would predict that the repeated selected sweeps that add multiple adaptive alleles
would continue to remove segregating variation from the inverted region making it impossible to
identify outlier genes. A majority of nucleotide sites within the arrangement would be in near
absolute linkage disequilibrium at all times due to the repeated sweeps (FULLER *et al.* 2019).
In summary, we show here that gene conversion is a powerful force for genetic flux
among different gene arrangements that can allow population geneticists to identify selected loci
within inversions. Selected genes are discovered as differentiated loci surrounded by regions of
relative homogeneity among arrangements. This approach will not work for recent inversions
because sufficient time must pass for differentiation among arrangements and for gene
conversion to homogenize non-selected genes. The inversion polymorphism of *D.*
pseudoobscura is sufficiently old that we have identified multiple loci within each arrangement
are identified as selective targets. We think this supports the model that each arrangement
captured sets of locally adapted alleles. Locally adapted inversions were favored because they
prevented the formation of maladaptive combinations from other locally adapted migrant
chromosomes (KIRKPATRICK AND BARTON 2006). When an adaptive QTL is discovered to map
within an inversion, researchers often have a look of despair on their faces. This study
suggests there is hope to identify an adaptive QTL within the confines of an inversion. The
identification of selected genes within inversions is an important step in understanding the
molecular basis for what led to the establishment of inversions in populations. In this case, the
outlier genes within the *D. pseudoobscura* inversions fall into two broad categories, perception
and detoxification genes (FULLER *et al.* 2017). Mapping gene conversion events provides an
important tool for discriminating selected from non-selected genes within inverted regions of the
genome.
634

Acknowledgements

635   The data presented in this work was generated through support from the National Institutes of
636   Health R01 GM 098478 to (S.W.S.). We thank the sequencing team at the Baylor College of
637   Medicine Human Genome Sequencing Center for their help in sequencing data generation. The
638   funders had no role in study design, data collection, data analysis, the decision to publish, or
639   preparation of the manuscript.

Table 1. Gene Conversion Tract Coverage of Outlier and Non-Outlier Genes on Muller C of *Drosophila pseudoobscura.*

Gene Arrangement	Outlier Obs Coverage (SD)	Non-Outlier Obs Coverage (SD)	Min – Max
Arrowhead (AR)			
Transcripts	36	2,632	
Nucleotides	78,468 bp	4,099,525 bp	
Permute Out	0.112 (0.503)*	2.585 (3.064)	1.406 – 4.037
Shuffle CT			0.679 – 2.652
ML Parameter			2.018 – 4.066
Standard (ST)			
Transcripts	82	2,596	
Nucleotides	179,724 bp	3,998,269 bp	
Permute Out	0.067 (0.356)*	1.415 (1.662)	0.974 – 1.926
Shuffle CT			0.563 – 1.758
ML Parameter			1.415 – 2.565
Pikes Peak (PP)			
Transcripts	149	2,519	
Nucleotides	365,249 bp	3,812,744 bp	
Permute Out	0.048 (0.295)*	0.922 (1.488)	0.609 – 1.156
Shuffle CT			0.233 – 0.922
ML Parameter			0.922 – 2.242
Chiricahua (CH)			
Transcripts	40	2,628	
Nucleotides	95,262 bp	4,082,731 bp	
Permute Out	0.055 (0.322)*	1.735 (1.873)	1.087 – 2.709
Shuffle CT			0.483 – 1.735
ML Parameter			1.595 – 3.199
Tree Line (TL)			
Transcripts	54	2,614	
Nucleotides	113,586 bp	4,064,407 bp	
Permute Out	0.101 (0.444)*	1.290 (1.656)	0.832 – 1.917
Shuffle CT			0.216 – 1.290
ML Parameter			0.658 – 1.660

*, $P<0.0001$ the observed coverage value for the outlier genes is less than that observed in the randomly permuted data. Min – Max, minimum and maximum values from 10,000 replicates; Permute Out, permutation test where outlier label was permuted; Shuffle CT, permutation test where the observed conversion tracts were shuffled; ML Parameter, test where the expected number of conversion tracts with random tract length with maximum likelihood parameter ϕ is used.

 Figure Legends

Figure 1. Gene conversion events generated in a heterozygote for a paracentric inversion. A.
Two different gene arrangements with a paracentric inversion between the F and P
genes. B. Pairing of these two inversions during meiosis showing the initiation of
exchange at a double strand break (DSB within the Box). C. Exchange of strands
between the two homologs via the exchange of the pink strand into the double helix of
the blue strand, the so-called Holliday junction. Nucleotide mismatches are formed in
this structure as DNA strands are exchanged between the homologs. The Holliday
junction can be resolved either by breaking strands indicated by the green arrows
leading to cross over events or by the orange arrows leading to non-cross over events
and potential gene conversion tracts. D. The resolution of heteroduplex sequences
because of repair. If the blue strand in the heteroduplex is used as the template for
repair, then gene conversion does not occur. In this case, the pink strand was used as
the template for repair leading to gene conversion event.

Figure 2 Detection of gene conversion. A map of SNP polymorphism is shown for a short
region of the third chromosome of *D. pseudoobscura*. Each column represents a SNP
with gray boxes matching the reference genome in the first row. A nucleotide that differs
from the reference genome is represented in one of four colors (see legend on the right-
hand side). Multi-site genotypes are shown for six gene arrangements along with their
sample sizes: Arrowhead (AR), Standard (ST), Pikes Peak (PP), Chiricahua (CH), Tree
Line (TL), Cuernavaca (CU), and the outgroup *D. miranda*. Two inferred gene
conversion events are shown with the black outline box indicating the recipient sequence
and the light blue outline boxes shown in light blue representing the source sequence.
The length of the conversion tract is determined from the first and last nucleotide
coordinate of the detected tract.

Figure 3. Network of Drosophila pseudoobscura gene arrangements. The network of gene
arrangements (HY, ST, AR, PP, SC, CU, TL, and CH) and the inversion events (colored
arrows) are shown to the left where the HY arrangement is the ancestral arrangement.
One the right side are the cytogenetic maps for the gene arrangements along with the
inverted segments indicated by the colored brackets. The color-coded lines below each
arrangement show the locations of the different inversion breakpoints. Outlier genes in
each of the gene arrangements are indicated by a black dot. An outlier gene had a
significant elevation of derived alleles or population specific branch lengths and had
either fixed amino acid differences or differential expression. Below the AR
arrangement, 14 regions where genes are in the same order among all chromosomes in
the set. The dotted line below the CH, ST, PP, and AR arrangements indicates the
regions that would be inverted in ST/AR, ST/CH, AR/CH, or AR/PP heterozygotes
whose frequency is at least 10% at least one locality in the Southwestern United States
(Dobzhansky 1944).

Figure 4. Example of a gene conversion map from the AR chromosome Coordinates 8,900,000
– 8,993,000. A. The locations of non-outlier (black) and outlier genes (blue) are shown in
this section of the Muller C nucleotide sequence. B. The positions of mapped gene
conversion tracts are shown on the Muller C nucleotide sequence. C. The gene
conversion tracts are converted to a histogram based on the number of tracts that cover
each nucleotide of the Muller C sequence.

Figure 5. Gene conversion tract information in five Muller C gene arrangements in D.
pseudoobscura. A. Observed and expected numbers of gene conversion tracts where

the expected number = Number of Observed/[1-Probability(Unobserved Gene
Conserved Events)]. B. Observed and expected mean number of gene conversion tracts
per strain where the number of strains is shown in parentheses next to the gene
arrangement name on the x-axis. C. Gene conversion tract coverage per nucleotide for
the five gene arrangements.

Figure 6. Distribution of the number of conversion tracts within recipient gene arrangement for
14 regions along Muller C of D. pseudoobscura. Dots underneath the x-axis indicate
regions within gene arrangement with a deficiency (blue) or excess of gene conversion
tracts based on residuals from a Chi Square test of homogeneity. The bar underneath
the x-axis shows the relative sizes of the different regions.

Figure 7. Distribution of conversion tract lengths within recipient gene arrangement for 14
regions along Muller C of *D. pseudoobscura*. Dots underneath the x-axis indicate
regions within gene arrangement where gene conversion tract lengths are shorter (blue)
or longer (pink) than expected based on a random permutation test. The bar underneath
the x-axis shows the relative sizes of the different regions.

Figure 8. Number of gene conversion events per strain between pairs of gene arrangements in
D. pseudoobscura in 14 different syntenic blocks. The five gene arrangements are
abbreviated with their two letter codes: AR, Arrowhead; CH, Chiricahua; PP, Pikes Peak;
ST, Standard; TL, Tree Line. Histograms show the number of gene conversion events in
the 14 syntenic blocks with the maximum value on all scales being 2,500. Blue and pink
boxes below each bar indicate regions with a significant deficiency (blue) or excess
(pink) of events based on a random permutation test (see the text). The number above
each histogram indicates the total number of events across all 14 regions with a blue
number indicating a significant deficiency, a pink number indicating a significant excess
of events, and a black number indicating neither a significant deficiency or excess. The
double headed arrows connect pairs of arrangements with the arrows pointing to the
number of events in the recipient arrangement from the donor arrangement. For
instance, 1654 conversion events were from ST to TL and 1973 conversion events were
from TL to ST. The boxes with frequencies on the arrows are the maximum observed
heterokaryotype frequencies in the 1980 collections of *D. pseudoobscura* (ANDERSON *et*
al. 1991).

Figure 9. Mean gene conversion tract coverage in 2,668 transcripts across Muller C in *D.*
pseudoobscura in five gene arrangements. Coverage is the number of times that a
nucleotide is covered by a gene conversion tract. Coverage was estimated for each
exon within a transcript and the mean coverage for the entire transcript was averaged
over all exons. Outlier genes are shown with an orange marker while non-outliers are
shown with a gray marker. The location of the derived inversion giving rise to each gene
arrangement are shown with a black bar.

Figure 1

Figure 2

TL → AR (394 bp)   CH → AR(205 bp)

739   Figure 3**Figure 2**

Figure 5

746   Figure 6**Figure 6**

749   Figure 7**Figure**

752   Figure 8

754   Figure 9

Arrowhead

Standard

Pikes Peak

Chiricahua

Tree Line

Literature Cited

Anderson, W. W., J. Arnold, D. G. Baldwin, A. T. Beckenbach, C. J. Brown *et al.*, 1991 Four decades of inversion polymorphism in *Drosophila pseudoobscura*. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences USA 88**:** 10367-10371.

Aquadro, C. F., A. L. Weaver, S. W. Schaeffer and W. W. Anderson, 1991 Molecular evolution of inversions in *Drosophila pseudoobscura* : The amylase gene region. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences USA 88**:** 305-309.

Arostegui, M. C., T. P. Quinn, L. W. Seeb, J. E. Seeb and G. J. McKinney, 2019 Retention of a chromosomal inversion from an anadromous ancestor provides the genetic basis for alternative freshwater ecotypes in rainbow trout. Mol Ecol 28**:** 1412-1427.

Ayala, D., S. Zhang, M. Chateau, C. Fouet, I. Morlais *et al.*, 2019 Association mapping desiccation resistance within chromosomal inversions in the African malaria vector Anopheles gambiae. Molecular Ecology 28**:** 1333-1342.

Battaglia, B., and H. Smith, 1961 The Darwinian fitness of polymorphic and monomorphic populations of *Drosophila pseudoobscura* at 16° C. Heredity 16**:** 475-484.

Berdan, E. L., N. H. Barton, R. Butlin, B. Charlesworth, R. Faria *et al.*, 2023 How chromosomal inversions reorient the evolutionary process. J Evol Biol 36**:** 1761-1782.

Betran, E., J. Rozas, A. Navarro and A. Barbadilla, 1997 The estimation of the number and the length distribution of gene conversion tracts from population DNA sequence data. Genetics 146**:** 89-99.

Caceres, M., A. Barbadilla and A. Ruiz, 1999 Recombination rate predicts inversion size in Diptera. Genetics 153**:** 251-259.

Carson, H. L., 1992 Inversions in Hawaiian *Drosophila,* pp. 407-439 in *Drosophila Inversion Polymorphism*, edited by C. Krimbas and J. R. Powell. CRC Press, Boca Raton, FL.

Chan, A. H., P. A. Jenkins and Y. S. Song, 2012 Genome-Wide Fine-Scale Recombination Rate Variation in Drosophila melanogaster. PLOS Genetics 8**:** e1003090.

Charlesworth, B., and D. Charlesworth, 1973 Selection of new inversion in multi-locus genetic systems. Genetical Research 21**:** 167-183.

Cheng, C., B. J. White, C. Kamdem, K. Mockaitis, C. Costantini *et al.*, 2012 Ecological genomics of *Anopheles gambiae* along a latitudinal cline: A population-resequencing approach. Genetics 190**:** 1417-1432.

Chovnick, A., 1973 Gene conversion and transfer of genetic information within the inverted region of inversion heterozygotes. Genetics 75**:** 123-131.

Coluzzi, M., A. Sabatini, A. della Torre, M. A. Di Deco and V. Petrarca, 2002 A polytene chromosome analysis of the *Anopheles gambiae* species complex. Science 298**:** 1415-1418.

Coluzzi, M., A. Sabatini, V. Petrarca and M. A. Di Deco, 1979 Chromosomal differentiation and adaptation to human environments in the *dob* complex. Transactions of The Royal Society of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene 73**:** 483-497.

Crown, K. N., D. E. Miller, J. Sekelsky and R. S. Hawley, 2018 Local Inversion Heterozygosity Alters Recombination throughout the Genome. Current Biology 28**:** 2984-2990.

Cunha, A. B. D., 1951 Modification of the Adaptive Values of Chromosomal Types in Drosophila pseudoobscura by Nutritional Variables. Evolution 5**:** 395-404.

Dobzhansky, T., 1944 Chromosomal races in *Drosophila pseudoobscura* and *Drosophila persimilis*. Carnegie Inst. Washington Publ. 554**:** 47-144.

Dobzhansky, T., 1948 Genetics of natural populations. XVI. Altitudinal and seasonal changes in certain populations of *Drosophila pseudoobscura* and *Drosophila persimilis*. Genetics 33**:** 158-176.

Dobzhansky, T., 1950 The genetics of natural populations. XIX. Origin of heterosis through natural selection in populations of *Drosophila pseudoobscura*. Genetics 35**:** 288-302.

Dobzhansky, T., and M. L. Queal, 1938 Genetics of natural populations. II. Genic variation in
populations of *Drosophila pseudoobscura* inhabiting isolated mountain ranges. Genetics
23**:** 463-484.
Dobzhansky, T., and A. H. Sturtevant, 1938 Inversions in the chromosomes of *Drosophila*
pseudoobscura. Genetics 23**:** 28-64.
Dolgova, O., C. Rego, G. Calabria, J. Balanya, M. Pascual *et al.*, 2010 Genetic constraints for
thermal coadaptation in Drosophila subobscura. BMC Evol Biol 10**:** 363.
Druger, M., 1962 Selection and body size in *Drosophila pseudoobscura* at different
temperatures. Genetics 47**:** 209-222.
Faria, R., P. Chaube, H. E. Morales, T. Larsson, A. R. Lemmon *et al.*, 2019 Multiple
chromosomal rearrangements in a hybrid zone between Littorina saxatilis ecotypes. Mol
Ecol 28**:** 1375-1393.
Fuller, Z. L., G. D. Haynes, S. Richards and S. W. Schaeffer, 2017 Genomics of natural
populations: Evolutionary forces that establish and maintain gene arrangements in
Drosophila pseudoobscura. Molecular Ecology 26**:** 6539-6562.
Fuller, Z. L., S. A. Koury, N. Phadnis and S. W. Schaeffer, 2019 How chromosomal
rearrangements shape adaptation and speciation: Case studies in *Drosophila*
pseudoobscura and its sibling species *Drosophila persimilis*. Molecular Ecology 28**:**
1283-1301.
Funk, E. R., N. A. Mason, S. Palsson, T. Albrecht, J. A. Johnson *et al.*, 2021 A supergene
underlies linked variation in color and morphology in a Holarctic songbird. Nat Commun
12**:** 6833.
Gong, W. J., K. S. McKim and R. S. Hawley, 2005 All Paired Up with No Place to Go: Pairing,
Synapsis, and DSB Formation in a Balancer Heterozygote. PLOS Genetics 1**:** e67.
Guerrero, R. F., and M. Kirkpatrick, 2014 Local adaptation and the evolution of chromosome
fusions. Evolution 68**:** 2747-2756.
Guerrero, R. F., F. Rousset and M. Kirkpatrick, 2012 Coalescent patterns for chromosomal
inversions in divergent populations. Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society B:
Biological Sciences 367**:** 430-438.
Hager, E. R., O. S. Harringmeyer, T. B. Wooldridge, S. Theingi, J. T. Gable *et al.*, 2022 A
chromosomal inversion contributes to divergence in multiple traits between deer mouse
ecotypes. Science 377**:** 399-405.
Han, F., M. Jamsandekar, M. E. Pettersson, L. Su, A. P. Fuentes-Pardo *et al.*, 2020 Ecological
adaptation in Atlantic herring is associated with large shifts in allele frequencies at
hundreds of loci. Elife 9.
Harringmeyer, O. S., and H. E. Hoekstra, 2022 Chromosomal inversion polymorphisms shape
the genomic landscape of deer mice. Nature Ecology & Evolution 6**:** 1965-1979.
Heuts, M. J., 1947 Influence of Humidity on the Survival of Different Chromosomal Types in
Drosophila pseudoobscura. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 33**:** 210-213.
Heuts, M. J., 1948 Adaptive properties of carriers of certain gene arrangements in *Drosophila*
pseudoobscura. Heredity 2**:** 63-75.
Hoffmann, A. A., and A. R. Weeks, 2007 Climatic selection on genes and traits after a 100 year-
old invasion: a critical look at the temperate-tropical clines in Drosophila melanogaster
from eastern Australia. Genetica 129**:** 133-147.
Huang, K., R. L. Andrew, G. L. Owens, K. L. Ostevik and L. H. Rieseberg, 2020 Multiple
chromosomal inversions contribute to adaptive divergence of a dune sunflower ecotype.
Molecular Ecology 29**:** 2535-2549.
Huynh, L. Y., D. L. Maney and J. W. Thomas, 2011 Chromosome-wide linkage disequilibrium
caused by an inversion polymorphism in the white-throated sparrow (Zonotrichia
albicollis). Heredity 106**:** 537-546.

Jackson, B. C., J. L. Campos and K. Zeng, 2015 The effects of purifying selection on patterns of genetic differentiation between Drosophila melanogaster populations. Heredity 114**:** 163-174.

Kapun, M., D. K. Fabian, J. Goudet and T. Flatt, 2016 Genomic evidence for adaptive inversion clines in *Drosophila melanogaster*. Molecular Biology and Evolution 33**:** 1317-1336.

Kennington, W., and A. Hoffmann, 2013 Patterns of genetic variation across inversions: geographic variation in the In(2L)t inversion in populations of Drosophila melanogaster from eastern Australia. BMC Evolutionary Biology 13**:** 100.

Kennington, W. J., L. Partridge and A. A. Hoffmann, 2006 Patterns of diversity and linkage disequilibrium within the cosmopolitan inversion *In(3R)Payne* in *Drosophila melanogaster* are indicative of coadaptation. Genetics 172**:** 1655-1663.

Kirkpatrick, M., and N. Barton, 2006 Chromosome inversions, local adaptation and speciation. Genetics 173**:** 419-434.

Korunes, K. L., and M. A. F. Noor, 2019 Pervasive gene conversion in chromosomal inversion heterozygotes. Mol Ecol 28**:** 1302-1315.

Küpper, C., M. Stocks, J. E. Risse, N. dos Remedios, L. L. Farrell *et al.*, 2015 A supergene determines highly divergent male reproductive morphs in the ruff. Nature Genetics 48**:** 79.

Levine, R. P., 1952 Adaptive responses of some third chromosome types of *Drosophila pseudoobscura*. Evolution 6**:** 216-233.

Lindsley, D. L., and L. Sandler, 1977 The genetic analysis of meiosis in female *Drosophila melanogaster*. Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London Biology 277B**:** 295-312.

Lobeck, A. K., 1948 Physiographic diagram of North America, pp. C. S. Hammond & Co., Maplewood, NJ.

Lowry, D. B., and J. H. Willis, 2010 A Widespread Chromosomal Inversion Polymorphism Contributes to a Major Life-History Transition, Local Adaptation, and Reproductive Isolation. PLOS Biology 8**:** e1000500.

Lucek, K., Z. Gompert and P. Nosil, 2019 The role of structural genomic variants in population differentiation and ecotype formation in Timema cristinae walking sticks. Molecular Ecology 28**:** 1224-1237.

Maynard Smith, J., and J. Haigh, 1974 The hitch-hiking effect of a favorable gene. Genetical Research 23**:** 23-35.

McBroome, J., D. Liang and R. Corbett-Detig, 2020 Fine-Scale Position Effects Shape the Distribution of Inversion Breakpoints in Drosophila melanogaster. Genome Biol Evol 12**:** 1378-1391.

Mérot, C., E. L. Berdan, C. Babin, E. Normandeau, M. Wellenreuther *et al.*, 2018 Intercontinental karyotype–environment parallelism supports a role for a chromosomal inversion in local adaptation in a seaweed fly. Proceedings of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences 285.

Miller, D. E., C. B. Smith, N. Y. Kazemi, A. J. Cockrell, A. V. Arvanitakas *et al.*, 2016 Whole-genome analysis of individual meiotic events in *Drosophila melanogaster* reveals That noncrossover gene conversions are insensitive to interference and the centromere effect. Genetics 203**:** 159-171.

Miller, D. E., S. Takeo, K. Nandanan, A. Paulson, M. M. Gogol *et al.*, 2012 A Whole-Chromosome Analysis of Meiotic Recombination in Drosophila melanogaster. G3 Genes|Genomes|Genetics 2**:** 249-260.

Muller, H. J., 1940 Bearings of the 'Drosophila' work on systematics., pp. 185-268 in *The New Systematics*, edited by J. Huxley. Clarendon Press, Oxford.

Munte, A., J. Rozas, M. Aguade and C. Segarra, 2005 Chromosomal inversion polymorphism leads to extensive genetic structure: a multilocus survey in *Drosophila subobscura*. Genetics 169**:** 1573-1581.

Navarro, A., A. Barbadilla and A. Ruiz, 2000 Effect of inversion polymorphism on the neutral nucleotide variability of linked chromosomal regions in *Drosophila*. Genetics 155**:** 685-698.

Navarro, A., E. Betrán, A. Barbadilla and A. Ruiz, 1997 Recombination and gene flux caused by gene conversion and crossing over in inversion heterokaryotypes. Genetics 146**:** 695-709.

Nei, M., K. I. Kojima and H. E. Schaffer, 1967 Frequency changes of new inversions in populations under mutation-selection equilibria. Genetics 57**:** 741-750.

Noor, M. A., D. A. Garfield, S. W. Schaeffer and C. A. Machado, 2007 Divergence between the *Drosophila pseudoobscura* and *D. persimilis* genome sequences in relation to chromosomal inversions. Genetics 177**:** 1417–1428.

Puerma, E., D. J. Orengo and M. Aguadé, 2016 The origin of chromosomal inversions as a source of segmental duplications in the Sophophora subgenus of Drosophila. Scientific Reports 6**:** 30715.

Puig, M., M. Cáceres and A. Ruiz, 2002 Effect of the polymorphic inversion 2j of *Drosophila buzzatii* on the genes adjacent to its breakpoints, pp. 328A in *Annual Drosophila Research Conference*, San Diego, CA.

Ranz, J. M., D. Maurin, Y. S. Chan, M. v. Grotthuss, L. W. Hillier *et al.*, 2007 Principles of genome evolution in the *Drosophila melanogaster* species group Public Library of Science Biology 5**:** 1366-1381.

Rego, C., J. Balanya, I. Fragata, M. Matos, E. L. Rezende *et al.*, 2010 Clinal patterns of chromosomal inversion polymorphisms in Drosophila subobscura are partly associated with thermal preferences and heat stress resistance. Evolution 64**:** 385-397.

Rennison, D. J., Y. E. Stuart, D. I. Bolnick and C. L. Peichel, 2019 Ecological factors and morphological traits are associated with repeated genomic differentiation between lake and stream stickleback. Philos Trans R Soc Lond B Biol Sci 374**:** 20180241.

Richards, S., Y. Liu, B. R. Bettencourt, P. Hradecky, S. Letovsky *et al.*, 2005 Comparative genome sequencing of *Drosophila pseudoobscura*: Chromosomal, gene and *cis*-element evolution. Genome Research 15**:** 1-18.

Rozas, J., and M. Aguadé, 1993 Transfer of genetic information in the *rp49* region of *Drosophila subobscura* between different gene arrangements. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences USA 90**:** 8083-8087.

Rozas, J., and M. Aguadé, 1994 Gene conversion is involved in the transfer of genetic information between naturally occurring inversions of *Drosophila*. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences USA 91**:** 11517-11521.

Rozas, J., A. Ferrer-Mata, J. C. Sánchez-DelBarrio, S. Guirao-Rico, P. Librado *et al.*, 2017 DnaSP 6: DNA Sequence Polymorphism Analysis of Large Data Sets. Molecular Biology and Evolution 34**:** 3299-3302.

Schaeffer, S. W., 2008 Selection in heterogeneous environments maintains the gene arrangement polymorphism of *Drosophila pseudoobscura*. Evolution 62**:** 3082-3099.

Schaeffer, S. W., and W. W. Anderson, 2005 Mechanisms of genetic exchange within the chromosomal inversions of *Drosophila pseudoobscura*. Genetics 171**:** 1729-1739.

Shriver, M., G. Kennedy, E. Parra, H. Lawson, V. Sonpar *et al.*, 2004 The genomic distribution of population substructure in four populations using 8,525 autosomal SNPs. Human Genomics 1**:** 274 - 286.

Sinclair-Waters, M., I. R. Bradbury, C. J. Morris, S. Lien, M. P. Kent *et al.*, 2018 Ancient chromosomal rearrangement associated with local adaptation of a postglacially

colonized population of Atlantic Cod in the northwest Atlantic. Molecular Ecology 27**:**
339-351.
Sperlich, D., and P. Pfriem, 1986 Chromosomal polymorphism in natural and experimental
populations, pp. 257-309 in *The Genetics and Biology of Drosophila 3e*, edited by M.
Ashburner, H. L. Carson and J. N. Thomson. Academic Press, New York, NY.
Spiess, E. B., and B. Langer, 1964 Mating speed control by gene arrangements in *Drosophila*
pseudoobscura homokaryotypes. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences
USA 51**:** 1015-1019.
Stephens, J. C., 1985 Statistical methods of DNA sequence analysis: Detection of intragenic
recombination or gene conversion. Molecular Biology and Evolution 2**:** 539-556.
Sturtevant, A. H., 1917 Genetic factors affecting the strength of genetic linkage in *Drosophila*.
Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences USA 3**:** 555-558.
Sturtevant, A. H., 1921 A case of rearrangement of genes in Drosophila. Proceedings of the
National Academy of Sciences USA 7**:** 235-237.
Sturtevant, A. H., and G. W. Beadle, 1936 The relations of inversions in the X chromosome of
Drosophila melanogaster to crossing over and disjunction. Genetics 21**:** 544-604.
Wallace, A. G., D. Detweiler and S. W. Schaeffer, 2011 Evolutionary history of the third
chromosome gene arrangements of *Drosophila pseudoobscura* inferred from inversion
breakpoints. Molecular Biology and Evolution 28**:** 2219-2229.
Wasserman, M., 1982 Evolution of the *repleta* group, pp. 61-139 in *The Genetics and Biology of*
Drosophila 3b, edited by M. Ashburner, H. L. Carson and J. N. Thompson. Academic
Press, New York.
Westram, A. M., M. Rafajlovic, P. Chaube, R. Faria, T. Larsson *et al.*, 2018 Clines on the
seashore: The genomic architecture underlying rapid divergence in the face of gene
flow. Evol Lett 2**:** 297-309.
Wright, D., and S. W. Schaeffer, 2022 The relevance of chromatin architecture to genome
rearrangements in *Drosophila*. Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society B:
Biological Sciences 377**:** 20210206.
Wright, S., and T. Dobzhansky, 1946 Genetics of natural populations. XII. Experimental
reproduction of some of the changes caused by natural selection in certain populations
of *Drosophila pseudoobscura*. Genetics 31**:** 125-156.
Yan, Z., S. H. Martin, D. Gotzek, S. V. Arsenault, P. Duchen *et al.*, 2020 Evolution of a
supergene that regulates a trans-species social polymorphism. Nat Ecol Evol 4**:** 240-
249.
Yi, X., Y. Liang, E. Huerta-Sanchez, X. Jin, Z. X. P. Cuo *et al.*, 2010 Sequencing of 50 human
exomes reveals adaptation to high altitude. Science 329**:** 75-78.