An oligogenic architecture underlying ecological and reproductive divergence

in sympatric populations

Dušica Briševac[1], Carolina M. Peralta[1], Tobias S. Kaiser[1]*

[1] Max Planck Research Group *Biological Clocks*, Max Planck Institute for Evolutionary

Biology, August-Thienemann-Strasse 2, 24306 Ploen, Germany

* kaiser@evolbio.mpg.de

Abstract

The evolutionary trajectories and genetic architectures underlying ecological divergence

with gene flow are poorly understood. Sympatric timing types of the intertidal insect *Clunio*

marinus (Diptera) from Roscoff (France) differ in lunar reproductive timing. One type

reproduces at full moon, the other at new moon, controlled by a circalunar clock of yet

unknown molecular nature. Lunar reproductive timing is a magic trait for a sympatric

speciation process, as it is both ecologically relevant and entails assortative mating. Here we

show that the difference in reproductive timing is controlled by at least four quantitative trait

loci (QTL) on three different chromosomes. They are partly associated with complex

inversions, but differentiation of the inversion haplotypes cannot explain the different

phenotypes. The most differentiated locus in the entire genome, with QTL support, is the

period locus, implying that this gene could not only be involved in circadian timing but also in

lunar timing. Our data indicate that magic traits can be based on an oligogenic architecture

and can be maintained by selection on several unlinked loci.

	Introduction

After a long debate on whether speciation can only happen with geographic isolation

(*allopatry*) or also with full range overlap (*sympatry*)[1-4], there is growing evidence for

population divergence with gene flow[4,5]. The process is generally assumed to start with

divergent ecological selection, but for speciation to complete, additional mechanisms for

reproductive isolation must come into play[6,7]. Traits underlying ecological divergence and

reproductive isolation must be genetically coupled, as otherwise they cannot withstand the

homogenizing effects of gene flow and recombination[6]. One possibility to achieve such

coupling are *magic traits*, i.e. traits that entail ecological divergence and reproductive

isolation at the same time[8]. For example, divergent ecological adaptations can lead to

differences in reproductive timing, i.e. *allochrony*[9] or *isolation by time*[10]. One example is

found in the apple maggot *Rhagoletis*[11,12]. Magic traits imply that ecological divergence and

reproduction are pleiotropically controlled by the same set of genes[13], usually involving only

one or very few loci. As another possibility, genomic regions of low or suppressed

recombination, such as chromosomal inversions, can entail a coupling of ecological and

reproductive traits even if they are controlled by different sets of genes. Examples of

inversions associated with ecologically relevant traits are found in *Littorina* snails[14,15] and

Heliconius butterflies[16]. In this study, we assessed if these mechanisms play a role in sympatric

population divergence in the marine midge *Clunio marinus* (Diptera: Chironomidae).

C. marinus is found in the intertidal zone of the European Atlantic coast. Larvae live at the

lower levels of the intertidal, which are almost permanently submerged. For successful

reproduction, the adults need these regions to be exposed by the low tide. The lowest tides

predictably recur just after new moon and full moon. Therefore, *C. marinus* adults emerge

only during full moon or new moon low tides, reproduce immediately and die a few hours

later in the rising tide. This life cycle adaptation is based on a circalunar clock, i.e. an

endogenous time-keeping mechanism which synchronizes development and maturation with

lunar phase. Circalunar clocks are common in marine organisms, but their molecular basis is

still unknown[17]. Additionally, a circadian clock ensures that *C. marinus* adults only emerge

during the low tide[18]. As the pattern and amplitude of the tides differ dramatically along the

coastline, *C. marinus* populations from different geographic sites show various genetic

adaptations in circadian and circalunar timing[18-20].

Notably, full moon and new moon low tides are ecologically equally suitable for *C. marinus'*

reproduction, representing different *timing niches* that are occupied by different *timing types*

(for details and definitions see[21]). Some timing types of *C. marinus* use both niches (*"semi-*

lunar rhythm"; SL type), but there are also dedicated full moon (FM) or new moon (NM) timing

types, which occupy only one timing niche[21]. Divergence into FM and NM timing types

represents a magic trait, as it automatically entails assortative mating. We recently discovered

that in Roscoff (France) FM and NM timing types occur in sympatry, largely separated by

reproductive timing, but still connected by gene flow[21]. Here we present evidence for

polymorphic chromosomal inversions in all chromosome arms of the sympatric FM and NM

types. Quantitative trait loci (QTL) mapping for divergence in lunar reproductive timing

identifies four unlinked and additive QTL in different chromosomes and inversions. Individual

loci inside the inversions are more differentiated than the inversions, suggesting that the

inversions themselves are not directly required to maintain genetic linkage of adaptive loci

and that ecological divergence is kept up by permanent selection on unlinked loci on different

chromosomes.

Results

Genome sequencing confirms limited genetic differentiation between the sympatric FM

and NM types. In order to gain insights into the loci and processes underlying sympatric

divergence in reproductive timing, we sequenced 48 individual genomes for the FM and NM

timing types (24 individuals each, defined by their lunar timing phenotype). The resulting set

of 721,000 genetic variants (608,599 SNPs; 112,401 small indels) indicated limited genetic

differentiation between the FM and NM types (Supplementary Fig. 1; weighted genome-wide

F_{ST} = 0.028). Principal component analysis (PCA) and ADMIXTURE identify one individual as a

migrant in time, which was caught at full moon among FM type individuals, but genetically

clearly is of NM type (Supplementary Fig. 1A and B; blue circle and arrow). Many other

individuals, particularly in the NM type, show ADMIXTURE fractions close to 0.5 or 0.25,

suggesting they are F1 hybrids or backcrosses (Supplementary Fig. 1A and B; yellow circle and

arrows). Finally, there are four FM individuals, which are genetically distinct along principal

component 2 and in ADMIXTURE at K=4 (Supplementary Fig. 1A and B; red circle and arrows).

These might constitute either a sub-lineage of the FM type or migrants from a different

geographic location. Taken together, full genome resequencing confirms that there is strong

gene flow between sympatric timing types.

A differentiated chromosomal inversion system on chromosome 1. Plotting genetic

differentiation of the phenotypically defined FM and NM types along the genome

(Supplementary Fig. 1C) revealed a region of elevated F_{ST} on the telocentric chromosome 1

(Fig. 1A). This region coincides with a block of long-range linkage-disequilibrium (LD) in the

FM type (Fig. 1B; Supplementary Fig. 2). Structural variant (SV) calling based on additional

long-read sequencing data supports that this block represents a chromosomal inversion in

both timing types (Fig. 1C). Notably, the NM type shows a smaller LD block (Fig. 1B;

Supplementary Fig. 2), suggesting that a second structural variant occurs within the limits of

the detected large chromosomal inversion. While this second variant was not picked up in SV

calling, genetic linkage information obtained from crosses (described in detail below)

indicates that this is a second inversion (see double inverted marker order in Fig. 4A,B).

For a more detailed analysis of this inversion system, we subdivided it into three windows,

based on the inversion coordinates suggested by long-range LD. Two windows correspond to

those parts of the large inversion that do not overlap with the small inversion (roughly 2.7-

4.4 Mbp and 11.3-18.7 Mbp; Supplementary Table 1; Fig. 1A-C). The central window

corresponds to the overlap of both inversions (roughly 4.4-11.3 Mbp; Supplementary Table

4; Fig. 1A-C). In a Principal component analysis (PCA) on the genetic variants in these windows

(Supplementary Table 2), the four FM individuals that were already identified as genetically

distinct (Supplementary Fig. 1) always cluster separately and cannot be assessed (Fig. 1 D to

G, red question mark). The remaining 44 individuals are split into three genotype classes when

PCA is performed on the non-overlapping regions of the large inversion (Fig. 1D and F). These

classes correspond to individuals homozygous for the standard haplotype (SS), individuals

homozygous for an inverted haplotype (I_1I_1), and heterozygotes for the inversion (SI_1). The

haplotype with the higher observed heterozygosity in homozygotes is considered the

ancestral standard haplotype S (see Fig. 1H-J). Observed heterozygosity is clearly elevated in

individuals heterozygous for the inversion (Fig. 1H and J), suggesting there are polymorphisms

specific to the S or I_1 haplotypes. This is corroborated by the patterns of genetic

differentiation between SS and I_1I_1 homozygotes, which show F_{ST} values of up to 1

(Supplementary Figure 3).

In the region where both inversions overlap (Fig. 1E), the 44 individuals separate into six

genotype clusters, corresponding to three clusters of inversion haplotype homozygotes (SS,

I_1I_1, I_2I_2) and three clusters of heterozygotes (SI$_1$, SI$_2$, I_1I_2). Individuals that are I_1I_1 genotypes

in the 2.7-4.4 Mbp and 11.3-18.7 Mbp windows (Fig. 1D and F) now separate into the I_1I_1, I_1I_2

and I_2I_2 clusters (Fig. 1E). This indicates that the small inversion leading to haplotype I_2

happened in the already inverted haplotype I_1 of the large inversion (compare Fig. 1L). This is

backed up by genetic linkage data (Fig. 4A,B) and consistent with I_2I_2 homozygotes showing

even lower heterozygosity than I_1I_1 homozygotes (Fig. 1I). Again, heterozygosity is clearly

elevated in the inversion heterozygotes (Fig. 1I). A sliding-window PCA analysis along the

chromosomes (500kb windows, 100kb steps; Supplementary Figure 4) confirms these

patterns of segregation and the approximate genomic positions of inversion breakpoints.

Sliding-window PCA also indicated that there might be a third inversion, which ends at 24.8

Mbp (Fig. 1A and G; Supplementary Figure 4). Its start overlaps with the differentiated

inversion system and is therefore hard to identify, but according to observed heterozygosity

along the chromosome, it might lie at around 9 Mbp (Supplementary Fig. 5A). This inversion

is only clearly detected in three SI$_3$ heterozygotes (Fig. 1G and K). These three individuals are

found in the SS cluster in the other genomic windows, implying that the inversion leading to

haplotype I_3 happened in the standard haplotype S (Fig. 1L).

One peculiarity deserves further investigation: In the window from 2.7-4.4 Mbp some

individuals of the I_1I_1 genotype cluster close to the SI$_1$ heterozygotes. However, the pattern in

which these individuals segregate in the 4.4-11.3 Mbp window unequivocally indicates that

these must be I_1I_1 homozygotes. They also show much lower heterozygosity than the SI$_1$

heterozygotes. Their peculiar clustering may indicate a certain degree of gene conversion

between inversion haplotypes or a complex demographic history.

Taken together, our data support three inversion events, which we name In(1a), In(1b) and

In(1c), leading to four distinct haplotypes of chromosome 1 (S, I_1, I_2 and I_3; Fig. 1L). From the

PCA-derived genotypes (Fig. 1D-G), we can infer the frequency of each haplotype (Fig. 1L).

There is marked genetic differentiation between the sympatric timing types. The FM type

carries all haplotypes but is dominated by the S haplotype, while the NM type almost

exclusively carries the inverted I_1 and I_2 haplotypes.

Non-differentiated inversions on chromosomes 2 and 3. The analysis of long-range LD

also identifies one putative chromosomal inversion on each arm of the metacentric

chromosomes 2 and 3 (Fig. 2B,C; Supplementary Fig. 6). We call them In(2L), In(2R), In(3L) and

In(3R). In(2L) is confirmed by inverted marker order in linkage mapping (Fig. 4A,B) and In(2R)

is confirmed by SV calling. As above, windowed PCA along the chromosomes confirms the

approximate inversion breakpoints and allows to genotype the individuals for the inversion

haplotypes (Fig. 2D-G). Heterozygosity is clearly elevated in inversion heterozygotes (SI; Fig.

2H-K) and lowered in the inversion homozygotes (II; Fig. 2H-K). Notably, inversion

homozygotes are absent for two of these inversions (Fig. 2D and F) and very rare for the other

two (Fig. 2E and G), suggesting these inversions might impose some fitness constraints. These

four inversions are only weakly differentiated between populations (Fig. 2 L-O). Only In(2L)

shows up as a block of mildly elevated genetic differentiation between the strains (Fig. 2A).

Crosses between the FM and NM types indicate that lunar reproductive timing is

heritable and controlled by four QTL. Next, we tested for a genetic basis of lunar reproductive

timing by performing crossing experiments between the FM and NM types (Fig. 3). F1 hybrids

emerge intermediate between the FM and NM type, with a slight shift towards FM emergence

(Fig. 3C). In the F2 generation, the phenotype distribution is spread out, but does not fully

segregate into parental and F1 phenotype classes (Fig. 3D). This indicates that the difference

in lunar reproductive timing is controlled by more than one genetic locus. From the crossing

experiment, we picked a set of several F2 families that together comprised 158 individuals,

which all go back to a single parental pair – a FM type mother and a NM type father. Because

of the limited genetic differentiation between the timing types (see Supplementary Fig. 1C

and [21]), we sequenced the full genomes of the two parents in order to identify informative

genetic markers for linkage mapping and QTL mapping. We picked a set of 32 microsatellite

markers, 23 of which turned out to be reliably amplified and informative in the F2 families, as

well as four insertion-deletion polymorphisms (Supplementary Table 3).

Genetic linkage mapping confirmed the existence of the inversions In(1a) and In(1b), both

of which are supported by inverted marker order on the genetic linkage map (Fig. 4A). Marker

order is also inverted for In(2L), but not for the other inversions (Fig. 4A). We then performed

stepwise QTL identification and Multiple QTL Mapping (MQM) as implemented in R/qtl and

found four largely additive QTL for the difference in lunar reproductive timing (Fig. 4A and

Supplementary Table 4). A specific scan for epistatic effects only shows a weak interaction of

chromosome 1 with the QTL on chromosome 2 (Supplementary Figure 7). The four QTL model

explains 54% of the total variance in lunar reproductive timing and the estimated additive

effects of the QTL account for 6 days of the timing difference between the FM and NM type

(Fig. 4A, see Supplementary Table 4 for individual QTL effects and variance explained).

In both MQM and additional Composite Interval Mapping (CIM; Supplementary Figure 8)

we estimated confidence intervals for the QTL (Fig. 4A). There are two QTL on chromosome

1, one of which overlaps with the inversion system. While the inversions reduce

recombination and thus map length for the respective genomic region (Fig. 4A), there was

sufficient recombination to assign the QTL interval to only one end of In(1a). Based on the

first genetic marker outside the QTL's confidence intervals, we matched the QTL region with

the corresponding genomic reference sequence (Fig. 4B). The second QTL on chromosome 1

maps outside the inversion system and is not linked with the other QTL (Fig. 4A,B). The other

two QTL are found on chromosomes 2 and 3 and overlap with In(2R) and In(3L) respectively.

The genomic regions underlying these QTL are large and show several peaks in genetic

differentiation (Fig. 4B). Possibly, the QTL on chromosome 2 and 3 harbor a set of linked loci

influencing the lunar emergence phenotype. Taken together, there are at least four unlinked

loci which influence this magic trait, giving it a complex genetic architecture.

Divergent alleles are not associated with specific inversion haplotypes. While some

chromosomal inversions show up as genetically differentiated blocks, in all chromosomal

inversions there are loci that are more differentiated than the inversion itself (Fig. 4B). This

implies that the inversions are not required for protecting genetic differentiation. Instead,

there must be sufficient levels of recombination and gene conversion to place the divergent

alleles in all inversion haplotypes, so that individual loci can diverge, while the surrounding

inversions remain less differentiated. We corroborated this scenario for the most

differentiated locus in the genome (Fig. 4B, red asterisk), which is the *period* locus (Fig. 4C).

We identified an insertion-deletion (indel) mutation in the highly differentiated first intron of

the *period* gene (Fig. 4C, green arrows) and re-genotyped the 48 individuals for this indel (Fig.

4D; Supplementary Figure 9). This confirmed that *period* alleles indeed strongly differentiated

between the FM and NM types. However, we could not find a close association between the

period alleles and the inversion haplotypes of chromosome 1 (Fig. 4D). This confirms that

differentiation of the *period* locus is not protected by the inversions.

Candidate loci. The existence of individual divergence peaks within the QTL, despite the

overlap with chromosomal inversions, allows us to pinpoint candidate genes for controlling

the magic trait, i.e. phenotypic divergence in lunar reproductive timing (see Supplementary

Table 5 for an overview). Some loci are particularly conspicuous in that they are by far the

most divergent within a specific QTL. The QTL in the inversion system on chromosome 1 is

narrow and harbors a single strongly divergent locus, which is the *period* locus (Fig. 4B, red

asterisk). The *period* locus is the most differentiated locus in the entire genome (maximum

F_{ST} = 0.86) and *period* is a core circadian clock gene. The QTL at the end of chromosome 1,

outside the inversion system, also shows a single strong divergence peak (Fig. 4B, red circle).

This is the first intron of the *plum* gene (Supplementary Figure 10). The large intron likely

contains regulatory regions for both *plum* and the directly adjacent *cask* gene. On

chromosome arm 2L the QTL has several divergence peaks, but the strongest peak hits the

stat1 gene (Fig 4B, red cross; Supplementary Figure 11). *Plum*, *cask* and *stat1* are all involved

in nervous system development in *Drosophila melanogaster*[22-24], suggesting that divergence

in lunar reproductive timing involves nervous system remodeling as well as circadian

timekeeping.

Discussion

We found multiple large and polymorphic chromosomal inversions in the sympatric FM and NM strains, covering all chromosome arms of the *C. marinus* genome. This is consistent with large non-pairing and inverted regions observed in *C. marinus* polytene chromsomes[25]. These inversions reduce recombination, as is observed in large LD blocks (Supplementary Figures 2 and 6), and possibly lock several loci involved in divergent reproductive timing into supergenes (Figure 1A and 2A). However, most of these inversions are not differentiated between timing types and in all inversions, there are loci more divergent than the inversion itself. We show that divergent alleles at the *period* locus are not associated with specific inversion haplotypes or the standard haplotype (Figure 4D). There must be considerable recombination and/or gene conversion inside the inversion, placing the *period* alleles in different inversion haplotypes. This is likely also true for other divergent loci and forms the basis for genetic differentiation at individual loci to exceed the inversion background. We propose that natural selection on the divergent loci is more important for maintaining the magic trait than the lowering of recombination rate by the inversions. Ecological divergence rather drives differentiation of the inversion system on chromosome 1 than being protected by it. Nevertheless, differentiation of the inversion system creates a genetic substrate for further ecological and reproductive divergence.

At the same time, QTL mapping revealed at least four independent loci underlying lunar reproductive timing. Therefore, we are neither dealing with a single pleiotropic locus that affects the magic trait, nor with a single supergene that would combine genes underlying both ecological divergence and reproductive isolation. Our data show that an oligogenic architecture can underlie ecological and reproductive divergence in sympatric populations. In

addition, the four QTL we identified here for the difference in lunar reproductive timing

between the FM and NM types in Roscoff do not overlap with the two QTL we identified

previously for difference in lunar reproductive timing between Normandy (Por-1SL) and

Basque Coast (Jean-2NM) strains[26,27]. This indicates that within the species *C. marinus*,

different populations have found different genetic solutions for adapting lunar reproductive

timing to the local tidal regime. Thus, the genetic architecture underlying the evolution of this

magic trait is considerably more complex than what is generally assumed in models of

sympatric population divergence. Notably, the first records of *C. marinus* for Roscoff date to

1978 and 1989 and only mention the FM type[28,29]. The authors sampled larvae, which would

most likely have revealed the NM type as well, had it been present at the time. This sets a

very recent time frame to the establishment of sympatric timing types and the evolution of

the magic trait. Given the two timing niches imposed by the tides, divergent selection seems

to lead to rapid ecological and reproductive divergence. This may eventually lead to

speciation through a process of evolutionary branching[30,31].

Genetic differentiation between the inversion haplotypes is much higher than what could

evolve in such a recent time-frame (Supplementary Figure 3). We thus assume that the

inversions were already segregating in the ancestral populations or may have recently

introgressed from a different geographic site.

The detection of *period* as the most differentiated locus between NM and FM types,

overlapping with a QTL for lunar reproductive timing, suggests that this circadian clock gene

might also be involved in lunar time-keeping. The other prominent candidates, *plum*, *cask* and

stat1 are involved in neuronal or synaptic development and plasticity. Notably, *cask* is a direct

interaction partner of *CaMKII* [23], which we previously found to be involved in circadian timing

differences in *Clunio*[26]. Hence, both QTL on chromosome 1 suggest a close connection of

circadian and circalunar time-keeping. This is backed by recent findings in Baltic and Arctic

Clunio strains, for which genomic analysis of the loss of lunar rhythms also implied circadian

GO terms as the top candidates for affecting circalunar time-keeping, followed by GO terms

involved in nervous system development[32]. Thus, our data not only call for a new evaluation

of the genetic architectures underlying magic traits, but also give hints to the genetic basis of

the yet enigmatic circalunar clock.

Methods

Sampling and laboratory strains. Laboratory strains for crossing experiments and field

samples for whole genome sequencing of 48 individuals were available from a previous

study[21]. Laboratory strains were kept in standard culture conditions[33] at 20°C and under a

light-dark cycle of 16:8. An artificial moonlight cycle with four nights of dim light every 30 days

served to synchronize reproduction in the laboratory strains.

Sequencing, read mapping and genotype calling. DNA from the 48 field caught individuals

were subject to whole genome sequencing in the Max Planck Sequencing Centre (Cologne)

on an Illumina HiSeq3000 according to standard protocols. Independent sequencing runs

were merged with the *cat* function. Adapters were trimmed with Trimmomatic [34] using the

following parameters: ILLUMINACLIP <Adapter file> :2:30:10:8:true, LEADING:20,

TRAILING:20, MINLEN:75. Overlapping read pairs were merged with PEAR [35] using -n 75 -c 20

-k and mapped to the Cluma_2.0 reference genome (available in the Open Research Data

Repository of the Max Planck Society under DOI 10.17617/3.42NMN2; manuscript in

preparation) with bwa mem [36] version 0.7.15-r1140. Mapped reads were merged into a single

file, filtered for -q 20 and sorted with samtools v1.9 [37]. SNPs and small indels were called using

GATK v3.7-0-gcfedb67 [38]. All reads in the q20 sorted file were assigned to a single new read-

group with 'AddOrReplaceReadGroups' script with LB=whatever PL=illumina PU=whatever

parameters. Genotype calling was then performed with HaplotypeCaller and parameters --

emitRefConfidence GVCF -stand_call_conf 30, recalibration of base qualities using GATK

BaseRecalibrator with '-knownSites'. Preparing recalibrated BAM files with GATK PrintReads

using -BQSR. Recalling of genotypes using GATK HaplotypeCaller with previously mentioned

parameters. Individual VCF files were combined into a single file using GATK GenotypeGVCFs.

Genetic differentiation (F$_{ST}$). The vcf file containing GATK-called SNPs and small indels

from 48 Ros-2FM and Ros-2NM males was filtered with vcftools version 0.1.14 [39] for minor

allele frequency of 0.05, maximum of 2 alleles, minimum quality (minQ) of 20, maximum

missing genotypes of 20%, which finally left 721.000 variants. Genetic differentiation between

the two populations (fst) was estimated using vcftools parameters --weir-fst-pop --fst-

window-size 1 --fst-window-step 1.

Long-range linkage disequilibrium (LD). Linkage disequilibrium was calculated between all

variants along the three chromosomes in each of the populations in search of the signatures

of large genomic inversions. Vcf file containing GATK-called SNPs and small indels from 24

Ros-2FM males was filtered for minor allele frequency of 0.20, maximum of 2 alleles,

minimum quality (minQ) of 20, maximum missing genotypes per site of 20% leaving 344.331

variants. The same was done for the 24 Ros-2NM individuals resulting in 352.915 variants.

They were converted to plink input files and plink version 1.90 beta [40] was used to calculate

linkage disequilibrium between all variants with parameters --r2 --inter-chr. Large LD file was

then sorted into 3 files, one for each chromosome. Breakpoints of large chromosomal

inversions were identified by plotting r^2 and manually looking for obvious breaks in the r^2

scores (Supplementary Figure 2 and 6; Supplementary Table 1).

Principal component analysis (PCA). PCA was run for the entire genome, for sliding

windows along the chromosome ("windowed PCA"), and for windows corresponding to the

inversions ("local PCA"). The vcf file containing GATK-called SNPs and small indels from 48

Ros-2FM and Ros-2NM males was filtered with vcftools version 0.1.14 [39] for minor allele

frequency of 0.05, minimum quality (minQ) of 20, maximum missing genotypes per site of

20%, leaving 703.579 variants. Principle component analysis was calculated with plink version

1.90 beta [40] using flags --nonfounders --pca var-wts --chr-set 3 no-xy no-mt. Windowed PCA:

In order to investigate regions of the genome with unusual degree of variance, PCA was run in windows along the three chromosomes. Vcf files were subdivided into vcf files containing variants that belong to 500kb sliding windows with 100kb steps. They were further used to calculate PCA values for each window as noted above. Local PCA: To get the genotype-estimate of the identified inversions (see long-range disequilibrium section), we subdivided vcf files according to the estimated inversion breakpoints (Supplementary Table 4), and calculated principal components 1 and 2 as described above. Number of variants that belong to each window are listed in Supplementary Table 2.

Admixture. Ancestry and relatedness of the 48 individuals of Ros-2FM and Ros-2NM population were investigated with admixture version 1.3.0 [41]. Admixture was run for the entire genome, for sliding windows along the chromosome ("windowed admixture"), and for windows corresponding to the inversions ("local admixture"). We used vcf files previously described in the PCA section as input. Admixture was calculated using k of 2 to 4. Windowed admixture: In order to identify regions of the genome with ancestry different from the general population, we ran admixture on vcf files containing variants that belong to 500kb sliding windows with 100kb steps. Local admixture: In order to genotype the inversions (see long-range disequilibrium section) we calculated admixture using vcf files containing only variants from those regions of the genome (Supplementary Tables 1 and 2).

Observed heterozygosity. In order to complement the windowed and local PCA and admixture analyses and further corroborate the indirect genotyping of the chromosomal inversions, we calculated observed heterozygosity using vcftools version 0.1.14 [39] with --het flag. Proportion of observed heterozygosity was calculated for each file by dividing the number of observed heterozygotes with the number of variants. Patterns of heterozygosity along the chromosomes were assessed based on the vcf files containing variants that belong

to 500kb sliding windows with 100kb steps (see PCA and admixture section). Finally, in order

to calculate observed heterozygosity of the chromosomal inversions, observed

heterozygosity was calculated per inversion window for each individual (Supplementary

Tables 1 and 2). Then observed heterozygosity was calculated and plotted for each inversion

genotype according to local PCA and admixture.

Crosses, phenotyping and genotyping. After synchronizing the NM and FM strains by

applying different moonlight regimes, single pair crosses were performed. F1 egg clutches

were reared individually and the emerging adults were allowed to mate freely within each F1

family, leading to several sets of F2 families that go back to a single pair of parents. One of

these sets was picked for QTL mapping. As the second peak is not under clock control, but a

direct response to moonlight[21], analysis was restricted to individuals emerging in the first

peak (n=158). DNA was extracted with a salting out method[42] and amplified with the *REPLI-g*

Mini Kit (Qiagen) according to the manufacturer's instructions. The two parents were subject

to whole genome sequencing with 2x150bp reads on an Illumina HiSeq2000 according to

standard protocols. Read mapping and genotype calling were performed as described above.

Microsatellite and indel genotypes were obtained by custom parsing of the vcf files. PCR

primers (Supplementary Table 3) for amplifying the microsatellite and indel regions were

designed with Primer3. Indels were PCR amplified and then run and scored on 1.5% agarose

gels. Microsatellites were amplified with HEX- and FAM-labeled primers and run on an ABI

PRISM 3100 Genetic Analyzer. Chromatograms were analyzed and scored with in R with the

Fragman package[43]. The resulting genotype matrix can be found in the R/qtl input file

(Supplementary File 1).

Linkage & QTL mapping. Linkage analysis and QTL mapping were performed in R/qtl

according to the script in Supplementary File 2. Briefly, the recombination fraction and

distribution of alleles were checked and the correct marker order was inferred by rippling.

Missing data and error load were assessed. Then the best model was obtained in a stepwise

selection procedure (*stepwiseqtl*). Additional interactions were checked for in a two QTL scan

(*scantwo*), but were negligible and not considered in the final model. Finally, a model with 4

additive QTLs was subject to model fitting for Multiple QTL Mapping (*fitqtl*) and QTL

confidence intervals were estimated (*bayesint*). Composite Interval mapping was performed

in QTLcartographer[44] with various selection procedures (forward, backward), exclusion

windows (10 cM and 20 cM) and covariates (3, 5, 10; Supplementary Figure 8). The LOD

significance threshold was estimated by running 1000 permutations and a p value of 0.05.

PacBio Data and structural variant calling. PacBio long read data was obtained for pools

of 300 to 500 individuals from laboratory strains of Ros-2NM and Ros-2FM (Roscoff, France).

DNA was extracted as above and sequenced with standard protocols on a PacBio Sequel II at

the Max Planck Sequencing Facility in Cologne, Germany. Raw long-reads of Ros-2FM and Ros-

2NM were mapped against the reference CLUMA 2.0 (publication in preparation) using NGM-

LR v.0.2.7 [45] with default settings. Alignments were sorted, filtered (q20) and indexed with

samtools v.1.9 [37]. Three different SV-calling tools were used per population to discover SVs.

Sniffles v.1.0.11 [45] was run with parameters -- min_het_af 0.1 and –genotype. SVIM v1.2.0 [46]

was run with default parameters (svim alignment). Finally, Delly v0.8.6 [47] was run with

parameters lr -y pb -q 20 --svtype (INS, insertions; INV, inversions; DUP, duplications; DEL,

deletions) and the output VCF files per SV type were merged with a custom script. The

resulting VCF files were then sorted using vcf-sort and filtered for quality "PASS" using a

custom bash script. SURVIVOR v1.0.6 [48] was used to filter variants for a minimum size of 300

bp and at least 5 reads supporting each variant (SURVIVOR filter NA 300 -1 0 5). BND variants

detected with Sniffles and SVIM calls were excluded with a custom bash script before using

SURVIVOR merge (options set to 50 1 1 0 0 300) on all VCFs produced per population. The

merged VCFs were then used as an input to reiterate SV calling with Sniffles using the same

parameters as above plus --Ivcf option and --min_support 5 (minimum number of reads

supporting a SV).

Period **genotyping.** An insertion-deletion (indel) mutation in the *period* locus was

genotyped. The fragment was PCR amplified (primers: 5'-GAATACTGAGTGTAAGACTTGGC and

5'-ACAACGTGACCTGTGACAAT) and run and scored on 1.5% agarose gels.

Data availability

Sequencing data was submitted to ENA under project number PRJEB54033. The CLUMA2.0

reference genome is available on the Open Research Data Repository of the Max Planck

Society (EDMOND) under DOI 10.17617/3.42NMN2.

Materials & Correspondence

Requests should be addressed to Tobias S. Kaiser (kaiser@evolbio.mpg.de).

Author contributions

TSK conceived, designed and supervised the study, performed crosses and QTL mapping, interpreted data and wrote the manuscript. DB analyzed short-read sequencing data and participated in QTL mapping. CMP analyzed long-read sequencing data. All authors read and approved of the manuscript.

Acknowledgements

Tjorben Nawroth, Kerstin Schäfer, Susanne Mentz, Elke Bustorf and Sina Schirmer provided laboratory assistance. Jürgen Reunert provided animal care. We thank all members of the research group *Biological Clocks,* as well as Diethard Tautz for feedback and discussion. This work was supported by the Max Planck Society via an independent Max Planck Research Group and by an ERC Starting Grant (No 802923) awarded to TSK.

Competing interests

There are no competing interests.

References

Mayr, E. Ecological factors in speciation. *Evolution*, 263-288 (1947).

Maynard Smith, J. Sympatric speciation. *Amer Natur* **100**, 637-650 (1966).

Via, S. Sympatric speciation in animals: the ugly duckling grows up. *Trends in ecology & evolution* **16**, 381-390 (2001).

Foote, A. D. Sympatric speciation in the genomic era. *Trends in Ecology & Evolution* **33**, 85-95 (2018).

Richards, E. J., Servedio, M. R. & Martin, C. H. Searching for sympatric speciation in the genomic era. *BioEssays* **41**, 1900047 (2019).

Smadja, C. M. & Butlin, R. K. A framework for comparing processes of speciation in the presence of gene flow. *Molecular Ecology* **20**, 5123-5140, doi:Doi 10.1111/J.1365-294x.2011.05350.X (2011).

Seehausen, O. *et al.* Genomics and the origin of species. *Nature Reviews Genetics* **15**, 176-192, doi:Doi 10.1038/Nrg3644 (2014).

Gavrilets, S. *Fitness Landscapes and the Origin of Species*. Vol. 41 476 (Princeton University Press, 2004).

Taylor, R. S. & Friesen, V. L. The role of allochrony in speciation. *Mol Ecol* **26**, 3330-3342, doi:10.1111/mec.14126 (2017).

Hendry, A. P. & Day, T. Population structure attributable to reproductive time: isolation by time and adaptation by time. *Molecular Ecology* **14**, 901-916 (2005).

Filchak, K. E., Roethele, J. B. & Feder, J. L. Natural selection and sympatric divergence in the apple maggot Rhagoletis pomonella. *Nature* **407**, 739-742, doi:10.1038/35037578 (2000).

Doellman, M. *et al.* Genomic differentiation during speciation-with-gene-flow: comparing geographic and host-related variation in divergent life history adaptation in Rhagoletis pomonella. *Genes* **9**, 262 (2018).

Servedio, M. R., Van Doorn, G. S., Kopp, M., Frame, A. M. & Nosil, P. Magic traits in speciation:'magic'but not rare? *Trends in ecology & evolution* **26**, 389-397 (2011).

Koch, E. L. *et al.* Genetic variation for adaptive traits is associated with polymorphic inversions in Littorina saxatilis. *Evol Lett* **5**, 196-213 (2021).

Faria, R. *et al.* Multiple chromosomal rearrangements in a hybrid zone between Littorina saxatilis ecotypes. *Molecular ecology* **28**, 1375-1393 (2019).

Joron, M. *et al.* Chromosomal rearrangements maintain a polymorphic supergene controlling butterfly mimicry. *Nature* **477**, 203-U102, doi:10.1038/nature10341 (2011).

Kaiser, T. S. & Neumann, J. Circalunar clocks—Old experiments for a new era. *BioEssays* **43**, 2100074 (2021).

Neumann, D. Genetic adaptation in emergence time of *Clunio* populations to different tidal conditions. *Helgoländer wissenschaftliche Meeresuntersuchungen* **15**, 163-171 (1967).

Kaiser, T. S. in *Annual, Lunar, and Tidal Clocks* (eds Hideharu Numata & Barbara Helm) Ch. 7, 121-141 (Springer Japan, 2014).

20 Kaiser, T. S., Neumann, D. & Heckel, D. G. Timing the tides: Genetic control of diurnal
and lunar emergence times is correlated in the marine midge *Clunio marinus*. *BMC*
Genetics **12**, 49, doi:10.1186/1471-2156-12-49 (2011).
21 Kaiser, T. S., von Haeseler, A., Tessmar-Raible, K. & Heckel, D. G. Timing strains of the
marine insect Clunio marinus diverged and persist with gene flow. *Molecular Ecology*
30, 1264-1280, doi:https://doi.org/10.1111/mec.15791 (2021).
22 Yu, X. M. *et al.* Plum, an immunoglobulin superfamily protein, regulates axon pruning
by facilitating TGF-β signaling. *Neuron* **78**, 456-468 (2013).
23 Gillespie, J. M. & Hodge, J. J. CASK regulates CaMKII autophosphorylation in neuronal
growth, calcium signaling, and learning. *Frontiers in molecular neuroscience* **6**, 27
(2013).
24 Ngo, K. T. *et al.* Concomitant requirement for Notch and Jak/Stat signaling during
neuro-epithelial differentiation in the Drosophila optic lobe. *Developmental biology*
346, 284-295 (2010).
25 Michailova, P. Comparative External Morphological and Karyological Characteristics of
European Species of Genus Clunio HALIDAY 1855 *VII. International Symposium of*
Chironomidae, 9-15 (1980).
26 Kaiser, T. S. *et al.* The genomic basis of circadian and circalunar timing adaptations in
a midge. *Nature* **540**, 69-73, doi:10.1038/nature20151 (2016).
27 Kaiser, T. S. & Heckel, D. G. Genetic Architecture of Local Adaptation in Lunar and
Diurnal Emergence Times of the Marine Midge *Clunio marinus* (Chironomidae,
Diptera). *PLoS ONE* **7**, e32092, doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0032092 (2012).
28 Neumann, D. & Heimbach, F. in *Cyclic Phenomena in Marine Plants and Animals* (eds
E. Naylor & R.G. Hartnoll) 423-433 (Pergamon Press, 1979).
29 Neumann, D. Circadian Components of Semilunar and Lunar Timing Mechanisms.
Journal of Biological Rhythms **4**, 285-294 (1989).
30 Doebeli, M. & Dieckmann, U. Speciation along environmental gradients. *Nature* **421**,
259-264 (2003).
31 Doebeli, M. & Dieckmann, U. Evolutionary branching and sympatric speciation caused
by different types of ecological interactions. *The american naturalist* **156**, S77-S101
(2000).
32 Fuhrmann, N., Prakash, C. & Kaiser, T. S. Polygenic adaptation from standing genetic
variation allows rapid ecotype formation. *bioRxiv* (2021).
33 Neumann, D. Die lunare und tägliche Schlüpfperiodik der Mücke *Clunio* - Steuerung
und Abstimmung auf die Gezeitenperiodik. *Zeitschrift für Vergleichende Physiologie*
53, 1-61 (1966).
34 Bolger, A. M., Lohse, M. & Usadel, B. Trimmomatic: a flexible trimmer for Illumina
sequence data. *Bioinformatics* **30**, 2114-2120 (2014).
35 Zhang, J., Kobert, K., Flouri, T. & Stamatakis, A. PEAR: a fast and accurate Illumina
Paired-End reAd mergeR. *Bioinformatics* **30**, 614-620 (2014).
36 Li, H. & Durbin, R. Fast and accurate short read alignment with Burrows–Wheeler
transform. *Bioinformatics* **25**, 1754-1760 (2009).
37 Li, H. *et al.* The Sequence Alignment/Map format and SAMtools. *Bioinformatics* **25**,
2078-2079, doi:10.1093/bioinformatics/btp352 (2009).
38 McKenna, A. *et al.* The Genome Analysis Toolkit: A MapReduce framework for
analyzing next-generation DNA sequencing data. *Genome Research* **20**, 1297-1303,
doi:10.1101/gr.107524.110 (2010).

39   Danecek, P. *et al.* The variant call format and VCFtools. *Bioinformatics* **27**, 2156-2158
(2011).

40   Chang, C. C. *et al.* Second-generation PLINK: rising to the challenge of larger and richer
datasets. *Gigascience* **4**, s13742-13015-10047-13748 (2015).

41   Alexander, D. H., Novembre, J. & Lange, K. Fast model-based estimation of ancestry in
unrelated individuals. *Genome research* **19**, 1655-1664 (2009).

42   Reineke, A., Karlovsky, P. & Zebitz, C. P. W. Preparation and purification of DNA from
insects for AFLP analysis. *Insect Molecular Biology* **7**, 95-99 (1998).

43   Covarrubias-Pazaran, G., Diaz-Garcia, L., Schlautman, B., Salazar, W. & Zalapa, J.
Fragman: an R package for fragment analysis. *BMC genetics* **17**, 1-8 (2016).

44   Windows QTL Cartographer (Department of Statistics, North Carolina State University,
Raleigh, NC, 2006).

45   Sedlazeck, F. J. *et al.* Accurate detection of complex structural variations using single-
molecule sequencing. *Nat Methods* **15**, 461-468, doi:10.1038/s41592-018-0001-7
(2018).

46   Heller, D. & Vingron, M. SVIM: structural variant identification using mapped long
reads. *Bioinformatics* **35**, 2907-2915 (2019).

47   Rausch, T. *et al.* DELLY: structural variant discovery by integrated paired-end and split-
read analysis. *Bioinformatics* **28**, I333-I339, doi:10.1093/bioinformatics/bts378
(2012).

48   Jeffares, D. C. *et al.* Transient structural variations have strong effects on quantitative
traits and reproductive isolation in fission yeast. *Nature communications* **8**, 1-11
(2017).

Figure 1 A complex inversion system on chromosome 1. (**A**) Chromosome 1 harbors a block of markedly elevated genetic differentiation. (**B**) This genomic block coincides with two windows of elevated long-range LD in the FM and NM strains. (**C**) Structural variant (SV) calling from long read sequencing data supports that the larger LD block is due to an inversion. (**D-G**) Principal component analysis (PCA) for chromosomal sub-windows corresponding to suggested inversions separates the individuals into clusters corresponding to standard haplotype homozygotes (SS), inversion homozygotes (I_1I_1, I_2I_2) and inversion heterozygotes (SI_1, SI_2, SI_3, I_1I_2). The four individuals which were already found distinct in whole genome analysis (red question mark) cannot be assessed. (**H-K**) Observed heterozygosity is clearly elevated in inversion heterozygotes, underpinning substantial genetic differentiation between the inversions. (**L**) A schematic overview of the sequence of inversion events and the resulting haplotypes. The frequencies of the haplotypes differ markedly between the FM and NM types.

Figure 2 Inversions in chromosomes 2 and 3. (**A**) Chromosome arm 2L harbors a block of mildly elevated genetic differentiation. (**B**) Several blocks of long-range LD point to additional inversions in the FM and NM strains, one on each chromosome arm. (**C**) Structural variant (SV) calling from long read sequencing data supports the inversion on chromosome arm 2R. (**D-G**) Principal component analysis (PCA) for chromosomal sub-windows corresponding to suggested inversions separates the individuals into clusters corresponding to standard haplotype homozygotes (SS), inversion homozygotes (II) and inversion heterozygotes (SI). The four individuals which were already found distinct in whole genome analysis (red question mark) cannot be assessed. (**H-K**) Observed heterozygosity is clearly elevated in inversion heterozygotes, underpinning substantial genetic differentiation between the inversions. (**L-O**) The frequencies of the haplotypes do not differ much between the FM and NM types.

Figure 3 Lunar emergence time is heritable. In a cross between FM type (**A**) and NM type (**B**), the F1 hybrids emerges intermediate between the parents (**C**). In the F2 (**D**), the phenotypes spread out again, but do not segregate completely, suggesting that more than one locus controls lunar emergence time. The peaks around day 20 (grey shading) are direct responses to the artificial moonlight treatment (see [21]). They do not occur in the field and were not considered in our analyses. Yellow shading indicates the days with artificial moonlight treatment in the laboratory cultures.

Figure 4 Quantitative trait loci (QTL) and genomic regions underlying FM vs NM emergence. (**A**) Multiple QTL Mapping (MQM) identified four significant QTL controlling lunar emergence time. Confidence intervals were determined in MQM and Composite interval mapping (CIM). The marker order supports In(1a) and the nested In(1b) on chromosome 1, as well as In(2L) on chromosome 2. (**B**) QTL intervals were colour-coded, transferred to the reference sequence and assessed for loci which are strongly differentiated (F_{ST}) between the FM and NM types. Inversions are represented by blue bars below the plot. The QTL in In(1a) overlaps with the most differentiated locus in the genome (red asterisk) – the *period* locus. Other markedly differentiated loci within the QTL intervals are the *plum/cask* locus (red circle) and the *stat1* locus (red cross). (**C**) Genetic differentiation is strongest in the first intron and the intergenic region just upstream of the *period* gene. (**D**) The *period* locus was re-genotyped based on an insertion-deletion mutation in the first intron (green arrows in (C)). The long (L) and short (S) *period* alleles are only loosely associated with inversion haplotypes.