TITLE : The evolutionary history of Drosophila simulans Y chromosomes reveals molecular signatures

of resistance to sex ratio meiotic drive

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ABSTRACT

The recent evolutionary history of the Y chromosome in *Drosophila simulans*, a worldwide

species of Afrotropical origin, is closely linked to that of X-linked meiotic drivers (Paris system).

The spread of the Paris drivers in natural populations has elicited the selection of drive

resistant Y chromosomes. To infer the evolutionary history of the Y chromosome in relation

to the Paris drive, we sequenced 21 iso-Y lines, each carrying a Y chromosome from a different

location. Among them, 13 lines carry a Y chromosome that is able to counteract the effect of

the drivers. Despite their very different geographical origins, all sensitive Y's are highly similar,

suggesting that they share a recent common ancestor. The resistant Y chromosomes are more

divergent and segregate in four distinct clusters. The phylogeny of the Y chromosome confirms

that the resistant lineage predates the emergence of Paris drive. The ancestry of the resistant

lineage is further supported by the examination of Y-linked sequences in the sister species of

D. simulans, D. sechellia and *D. mauritiana*. We also characterized the variation in repeat

content among Y chromosomes and identified two simple satellites (*(AAACAAT)n* and

(AATGG)n) associated with resistance. Altogether, the molecular polymorphism allows us to

infer the demographic and evolutionary history of the Y chromosome and provides new

insights on the genetic basis of resistance.

INTRODUCTION

In *Drosophila melanogaster* and *D. simulans*, like in most Drosophila species, the Y chromosome is entirely heterochromatic, composed of transposable elements and other repetitive sequences such as satellite DNA (Bachtrog 2013). In both species the Y chromosome represents 20% of the male genome (around 40 Mb) (Hoskins et al. 2002) but contains only a handful of genes, expressed during spermatogenesis and necessary for male fertility (Kennison 1981; Bernardo Carvalho, Koerich, et Clark 2009). Indeed, XO males are usually viable but sterile. Beyond its essential role in male fertility, the Y chromosome of *D. melanogaster* has been shown to impact male fitness through a variety of phenotypic effects, on behavior or thermo tolerance (Huttunen et Aspi, s. d.; Rohmer et al. 2004). In fact, thanks to its heterochromatic nature, it appears able to modulate gene expression across the whole genome by modifying the chromatin landscape (Brown, Nguyen, et Bachtrog 2020). Similar effects are likely in *D. simulans* (Branco et al. 2013).

The large phenotypic variation caused by the Y chromosome of *D. melanogaster* is in sharp contrast with its very low variation in gene sequence compared to other chromosomes (Zurovcova et Eanes 1999; Larracuente et Clark 2013). In *D. simulans,* the sibling species of *D. melanogaster*, the gene diversity of the Y chromosome is even lower (Zurovcova et Eanes 1999; Kopp, Frank, et Fu 2006; Helleu et al. 2019).

This poor genetic variation can be explained by multiple factors. First, the Y chromosome has a reduced effective population size compared to the rest of the genome (one quarter of that of the autosomes). Second, because of its hemizygous state, the fitness conditions allowing the maintenance of stable, non-neutral polymorphism are very restrictive (Clark 1987; Clark 1990). Finally, the Y chromosome does not recombine, which causes natural selection on a Y-linked locus to affect the entire chromosome. It follows that beneficial mutations can lead to the fixation of the carrier Y chromosome into the population (Charlesworth, Coyne, et Barton

1987), while a deleterious mutation can lead to its loss. Population genetics models thus suggest

that neutral variations within populations should be rarely maintained whereas inter-population

differences can rapidly accumulate (Clark 1987). Thus, the *Drosophila* Y chromosome is

expected to be particularly sensitive both to the demographic history of populations and to

selection events. Indeed, in *D. melanogaster*, the ancestral African populations show

significantly less Y-linked variation than the cosmopolitan ones, which could be explained by

the demographic history of the species and a recent natural selection event in Africa

(Larracuente et Clark 2013).

Y chromosome evolution can also be shaped by intragenomic conflict triggered by X-linked

meiotic drivers. These favor the transmission of X chromosomes bearing them (hereafter X^{SR}),

thus, increasing the proportion of females in progeny and inducing a deviation from the

balanced - also called Fisherian- sex ratio. *Sex Ratio* (*SR*) systems are widespread in the

Drosophila genera, with 18 *SR* systems known in 16 species (Courret et al. 2019). During

spermatogenesis, an X^{SR} typically prevents the formation of functional Y bearing sperm,

resulting in a strong female bias in the progeny of carrier males. Thus, the effective size of the

Y chromosome is drastically reduced in populations invaded by X^{SR}. Following the spread of

X^{SR}, natural selection strongly favors any variant that can counteract the effect of the driver and

restore a balanced sex ratio (review in Helleu, Gérard, et Montchamp-Moreau 2015). Such drive

suppressors are expected to evolve at unlinked loci, *i.e.*, on autosomes and the Y chromosome.

Resistant Y chromosomes have direct and strong selective advantage and thus are expected to

quickly reach fixation (Clark 1987; Hall 2004).

In the worldwide species *Drosophila simulans*, autosomal suppressors and resistant Y

chromosomes have evolved in response to the spread of X-linked drivers known as the Paris

system (Cazemajor, Landré, et Montchamp-Moreau 1997). The Paris system likely emerged

less than 500 years ago in East Africa (Fouvry et al. 2011; Bastide et al. 2011). It then spread

to islands of the Indian Ocean and in Sub-Saharan Africa (Bastide et al. 2013). Drive

suppression is complete over the whole area and the frequency of X^{SR} was found to decrease in

some locations, like in Madagascar, Kenya or Mayotte (Bastide et al. 2011). During the last

decade, invasion of X^{SR} was observed in North African populations, where sensitive Y

chromosomes were then replaced by resistant ones within a few years (Helleu et al. 2019). On

the whole, in *D. simulans*, the Y chromosomes appeared to be highly polymorphic for their

resistance ability with a continuum of phenotypes, from complete resistance to high sensitivity

(Montchamp-Moreau, Ginhoux, et Atlan 2001). In contrast, they exhibit a very low level of

gene sequence variation, with only three single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) detected

along a total of 13 kb of gene fragments; those define three haplotypes - TTA, TTT, CAA - the

latter of which is associated with resistance to Paris *SR* drive (Helleu et al. 2019). This strongly

suggests that the phenotypic variation results from variation in repeated sequences and/or from

structural variations, both of which are extensive on the Y chromosomes of *D. simulans* (Helleu

et al. 2019; Chang et al. 2022).

Thanks to the recent advance in long read sequencing, about one third of the Y chromosomes

of *D. melanogaster* and *D. simulans* (13 Mb out of 40), are now assembled (Chang et

Larracuente 2019; Chang et al. 2022). Here we take advantage of those assemblies to further

investigate the molecular variation of the Y chromosome in *D. simulans* in relation to the

evolution of the Paris *SR* system. We sequenced 21 iso-Y lines (derived from a single male)

from different locations around the world, 8 from the sensitive lineage TTA and 13 from the

resistant lineage CAA (Figure 1A). Despite their very different geographical origins all

sensitive Y chromosomes appear to be highly similar. The resistant Y chromosomes are more

divergent and segregate in four distinct groups. By reconstructing the phylogeny of the Y

chromosome, we confirmed that the resistant lineage predates the emergence of the Paris X^{SR}.

We also examined the variation in repeat content among Y chromosomes. We observed almost

no variations in gene and TE copy number, neither of them showing an association with the

resistant phenotype. However, we identified two simple satellites ((AAACAAT)n and

(AATGG)n) associated with resistance. Altogether this new approach allowed us to better

understand the evolutionary history of the Y chromosome in relation with *SR* systems and also

give us insight on the genetic basis of the resistance.

RESULTS

1. Resistance ability of the Y chromosomes from the resistant CAA lineage

Among the 21 *D. simulans* Y chromosomes included in the present study, 13 belong to

the resistant CAA lineage and were checked for their resistance ability. To do so we produced

males carrying the Y chromosome to be tested, a reference X^{SR} chromosome, and suppressor-

free autosomes from the reference ST8 line (crossing scheme in Montchamp-Moreau, Ginhoux,

et Atlan 2001). For each Y, the individual progeny of 15 males was examined (Figure 1B).

We observed significant variation in the resistance ability among the CAA Y chromosomes

(ANOVA test, F=12.36, df=13, p<2e-16). The mean sex-ratio in the progeny of carrier males

ranged from 60% to 83% depending on the Y chromosome, compared to 89% for the sensitive

Y^{ST8} (Figure 1B, SupTable1). Except for Sey81 (Seychelles 1981) and New91 (New Caledonia

1991), which exhibit a low resistance ability with a mean sex-ratio of 81% and 83%,

respectively, all CAA Y chromosomes appear significantly more resistant compared to Y^{ST8},

our reference sensitive Y chromosome (Figure 1B, SupTable1).

Figure 1. A. Geographical location and date of collection of the Y chromosomes studied (●) Lines

carrying a Y chromosome with the CAA haplotype (resistant). (●) Lines carrying a Y chromosome with

the TTA haplotype (sensitive). B. Test of the resistance ability of the Y chromosomes. Each violin plot

represents the proportion of females in the progeny of males carrying the reference X^{SR} and the Y

chromosome from each iso-Y line. Tun83 corresponds to our reference sensitive Y chromosome. Each

dot corresponds to the progeny of an individual male. The letters above each violin plot correspond to

the group determined by the Tukey HSD post hoc-test performed on an Anova model.

2. *The molecular variation essentially occurs among resistant Y chromosomes.*

Using the Y chromosome from the XD1 strain (Chang et al. 2022) as a reference, we identified 8190 Y-linked polymorphic sites among the 21 iso-Y lines sequenced. The global nucleotide diversity is very low (1.808e-04) and most of this diversity comes from the resistant Y chromosomes (SupFig1). On average, these share the same allele at 76.89% of the polymorphic sites, while on average the sensitive Y chromosomes share the same alleles at 97.77 % of the detected polymorphic sites (Table1). Sensitive Y chromosomes are thus highly similar despite originating from geographical regions far away from each other. They all mainly share the same allele as the reference allele (SupFig1).

To examine the population structure of the Y chromosomes, we performed a PCA analysis based on the 8190 SNPs identified. It revealed 5 different clusters. Unsurprisingly, based on their high percentage of identity, all the sensitive Y chromosomes cluster together (Cluster I, Figure 2). The resistant Y chromosomes segregate in 4 different clusters. Cluster II is composed of Egy12, Tan96, Zim97, Mor16, Cam16 and Sey03, all originating from continental Africa or nearby islands. Cluster III is composed of Sey81 and New91, from Seychelles and New Caledonia, respectively. Cluster IV consists of May09 and Mad98, respectively sampled in Mayotte and Madagascar, the area from which the *D. simulans* species is thought to have originated (Lachaise et Silvain, 2004; Dean et Ballard 2004). Cluster V is composed of Fra09, Haw07 and Sao01, which are from very far apart geographical areas (France, Hawaii and SaoTome, respectively). The first axis of the PCA (29.8%) separates Cluster III from all the other Y chromosomes (Figure 2). This means that the divergence between Sey81/New91 and all the other Ys is higher than between all the other resistant Y chromosomes and the sensitive Y chromosomes. Interestingly, those Y chromosomes from Seychelles and New Caledonia are also very similar in resistance ability (Figure 1B).

None of the pairs of sensitive-resistant Y chromosomes originating from the same geographical

area cluster together. This confirms that the resistant chromosomes did not emerge locally but

rather arose from migration along with the driver. While the sensitive Y chromosomes (Egy07,

Mor12 and Fra93) are older than their resistant counterparts, *i.e.* were present respectively in

North Africa and Europe before the arrival of the Paris *SR* system, they appear to be very

similar. Indeed, they group together into Cluster I. By contrast, the resistant chromosomes

sampled more recently in those populations are more variable. The resistant Y chromosomes

from Morocco (Mor16) and Egypt (Egy12) group together in Cluster II, while the resistant Y

chromosome from France (Fra09) belongs to Cluster V. Both resistant Y chromosomes from

Morocco (Mor16) and Egypt (Egy12) appear to be closely related, whereas the resistant Y

chromosome from France (Fra09) likely originated from a different migration path.

Finally, the two resistant Y chromosomes collected in Seychelles in 1981 (Sey81) and 2003

(Sey03) do not cluster together. They have very different resistance ability (Figure 1B) and each

cluster with Y chromosomes showing a similar level of resistance (Figure 2). Because these Y

chromosomes were collected more than 20 years apart, we cannot conclude if there was a

polymorphism within the Seychelles islands where both Y chromosomes segregate in the

population or if there was a migration event from continental Africa which led to the

introduction of a new Y chromosome in Seychelles islands.

Figure 2. Principal component analysis based on nucleotide diversity. The 8190 polymorphic sites located on the Y chromosome are taken into account for this analysis. Y chromosomes have been colored based on the cluster. Cluster numbers are indicated by roman numbers.

Table 1: Summary of the number of shared SNPs per cluster.

Groups	Sensitive (Cluster I)	Resistant (all)	Resistant (Cluster II)	Resistant (Cluster III)	Resistant (Cluster IV)	Resistant (Cluster V)
N° shared SNP	6985	1123	6191	7488	7644	6704
Average % of identity	97.77	76.89	97.78	96.13	97.58	95.77

3. *Very little within-population variation of the Y chromosome*

To get an insight into the intra-population polymorphism of the Y chromosome, we genotyped by PCR-sequencing 98 additional chromosomes from 22 populations. This first allowed us to validate 11 SNPs detected by our approaches and to look at variation into the population. We reconstructed a haplotype tree that recapitulates the clusters identified by the PCA (Figure 2), except for cluster IV and V that grouped together as we do not have SNP distinguishing each cluster (SupFig2). Most of the time all the individuals collected in the same location at the same time carry the same haplotype (SupTable2). Only one population from France (collected in 2014 and 2015) seems to be polymorphic, containing Y chromosomes from cluster I, II and V. We postulate that recurrent annual migrations occur in western Europe, in accordance with the observation that *D. simulans* cannot overwinter in temperate regions (Boulétreau-Merle, Fouillet, et Varaldi 2003; Machado et al. 2016). In addition, migration in *D. simulans* is likely largely human-aided and must have broadly amplified all over the world in the recent past, as suggested by the rapid invasion of the P-transposable element within the last decade (Hill, Schlötterer, et Betancourt 2016).

4. *The resistant lineage predates the emergence of the driver*

Previous work suggested that resistance to X^{SR} is ancestral to all *D. simulans* Y chromosomes because the species sister to *D. simulans* (*D. mauritiana* and *D. sechellia*) carry the CAA haplotype, which is associated with resistance in *D. simulans* (Helleu et al. 2019). We reexamined this hypothesis in the light of our new sequencing data. We sought to identify the corresponding allele carried by *D. melanogaster*, *D. mauritiana* and *D. sechellia* for the 8190 SNPs identified as polymorphic within *D. simulans*. We were able to recover 6138 SNPs in *D. mauritiana*, 6126 SNPs in *D. sechellia* and 3909 SNPs in *D. melanogaster*. Based on the 8190 SNPs we reconstructed the phylogeny of the Y chromosomes using a Maximum likelihood

approach and *D. melanogaster* as the outgroup (Figure 3). The phylogeny defines 5 clades

corresponding to the 5 clusters identified by the PCA (Figure 2). According to this tree it

appears clear that the ancestral Y chromosome belongs to the resistant lineage. Indeed, the first

divergent clade is cluster III, composed of two resistant Y chromosomes Sey81 and New91.

Whereas the clade that includes all sensitive Y chromosomes (cluster I) appears to have a recent

common ancestor nested within clusters of resistant Y chromosomes. The sensitive haplotype

seems to diverge from the same ancestor as the resistant Y chromosome of cluster II.

In addition, we focused on the 590 SNPs that correspond to fixed differences between the four

clusters of resistant Y's and the cluster of sensitive Y's (Cluster I), in order to identify the allele

carried by the sister species. While we were not able to recover all the SNPs, 97.4% of the

recovered ones carry the resistant allele in *D. mauritiana*, 94.8% in *D. sechellia* and 93.7% in

D. melanogaster.

Altogether, we conclude that the common ancestor of the *melanogaster* clade was carrying a Y

chromosome closely related to the resistant lineage. Thus, while the sensitive lineage is the

most common Y chromosome lineage found worldwide, it is a divergent lineage that seems to

have a recent origin. This also means that the resistant Y chromosome lineage predates the

emergence of the Paris *Sex Ratio* driver in *D. simulans*.

242
243 Figure 3. The inferred maximum likelihood phylogeny for the Y chromosome. *D.melanogaster* was used
244 as the outgroup. Node labels indicate ultrafast bootstrap. The resistant Y chromosomes are indicated by
245 a circle at the tip and sensitive Y chromosomes are indicated by diamond at the tip. Clusters are colored
246 based on the cluster defined by the PCA analysis (Figure 2).

5. *Gene copy numbers appear stable among Y chromosomes*

We first estimated the exon copy number for each of the 11 canonical Y-linked genes (Figure 4A). Our estimates are in agreement with the previous estimates from the reference genome (Chang et al. 2022). Most of the canonical genes are in single copy and do not exhibit variation between Y chromosomes (Figure 4A). ARY was previously described as a multi copy gene with 4 copies on the reference genome; here we estimated between 4 and 6 copies of ARY among our 21 Y chromosomes. Similarly, *kl2* exons 8 to 12 are known to be duplicated, with more than 15 copies for exon 10 for example. They are also the most variable among the 21 Y chromosomes, with *kl2*-exon10 showing between 10 and 17 copies. *kl3*-exon16 shows an interesting variation: while most of the Y chromosomes have 3 copies, the 3 Y chromosomes that belong to Cluster V (Haw07, Sao01, Fra09) show a high duplication rate (between 7 and 11 copies) (Figure 4A).

In addition to the 11 canonical genes, two ampliconic genes have been described on the Y chromosome of *D. simulans* : *CK2B* and *Lhk* (Chang et al. 2022). Accordingly, both exhibit variation in exon copy number among our 21 Y chromosomes. We estimate between 83 and 170 copies of *CK2B*, between 91 and 156 copies of *Lhk*-exon1 and between 56 and 113 copies of *Lhk*-exon2, depending on the Y (Figure 4B).

In general, only exons that are multi-copy appear to be variable in terms of copy number. Importantly, we did not find any evidence for an association between the exon copy number and the resistance phenotype (Figure 4 A and B). It thus appears unlikely that the variation in resistance is due to a variation in exon copy number.

6. *Very low Y-linked variation in transposable element abundance between populations*

Using our Illumina sequences we estimated the abundance of transposable elements and complex satellites in 16 iso-Y lines (6 sensitive and 10 resistant; see materials and methods). Because our Y chromosomes have been isolated in the same genetic background, we assumed

that variation in the abundance of repeats between iso-Y lines is associated with the Y

chromosome. To investigate whether variation in Y-linked complex repeat abundance shows

the same clustering as Y-linked nucleotide polymorphism, we performed a PCA analysis.

Globally the complex repeat abundance does not replicate the clusters defined by SNPs in

Figure 2. The sensitive Y chromosomes (Cluster I) show a diffuse distribution that partially

overlaps with some resistant Y chromosomes. Similarly, the distributions of resistant Y

chromosomes from clusters III, IV and V largely overlap. Only the Y resistant chromosomes

from cluster II fully separates from all the others (Figure 4C).

Next, we tested whether the phenotypic variations observed among the Y chromosomes were

associated with variations in gross repeat content. We thus performed a Wilcoxon test to assess

whether some transposable elements or complex satellites might be differentially enriched

between sensitive and resistant Y chromosomes. None of these repeats show significant

variation (SupTable3), indicating that the abundance in complex repeats is not associated with

the resistance phenotype. More generally, it appears that most complex repeats exhibit very low

to no variation in abundance between iso-Y lines (see SupTable3). We calculated the coefficient

of variation for each complex repeat and plotted the abundance for the Top25 most variable

ones (Figure 4D). The NTS-240 element is the only complex repeat that shows substantial

variation, with more than 10-fold variation in abundance between Y lines (Figure 4D). While

lower in abundance, the telomeric transposable elements (Het-A, TART and TAHRE) are also

among the most variable repeats (Figure 4D). This is in agreement with the existence of those

elements in various regions on the Y chromosome (Agudo et al. 1999). However overall, the

majority of these Top25 most variable repeats show relatively low variation between iso-Y

lines. It is important to note that the abundance represented here is the whole genome

abundance. Thus complex repeats that are not associated with the Y chromosome are expected

to show low to no variation, the level of which could reflect that of background noise. This is

the case for the *360bp* satellite, which is a complex satellite in the 1.688 family, highly abundant

on chromosome II and III in *D. simulans* (Sproul et al. 2020; de Lima, Hanlon, et Gerton 2020)

and not associated with the reference Y chromosome (Chang et al. 2022). The *360-bp* satellite

shows 1.8-fold variation among iso-Y lines, and we therefore assume that repeats at or below

this threshold likely represents background noise (Figure 4D).

Figure 4: A. Dotplot representing the exon number for each Y associated genes. Each line corresponds

to a specific exon of a specific gene. Red crosses correspond to resistant Y chromosomes and blue

crosses to the sensitive Y chromosomes. B. Boxplot representing the exon number for the two Y-linked

multicopy gene families: *CK2B* and *Lhk*. Resistant and sensitive Y. C. PCA based on the complex

satellite abundance. Each Y chromosome is colored based on the groups defined previously using the

nucleotide diversity (Figure 2). D. Dotplot representing the top 25 most variable complex satellites

(based on coefficient of variation), among which the *360 bp* satellite is indicative of the background

noise. To be able to distinguish the differences between strains, RPM counts have been transformed in

log10. The Y resistant chromosomes are represented by a red circle while the sensitive Y chromosomes

are shown with a blue triangle. Chromosomes have been separated in two boxplots, red and blue

respectively. Each dot corresponds to a Y chromosome.

7. *Simple satellite enrichment reveals two strong candidates for the resistance.*

Simple repeats represent over 5% of *D. simulans* genome and are a major component of the Y chromosome (Wei et al. 2018). We compared the simple satellite composition between the same 16 iso-Y lines (6 sensitives and 10 resistants). Using the k-seek pipeline (Wei et al. 2014) we identified 177 simple satellites, with the most abundant kmers being previously described to be highly enriched in *D. simulans* (Wei et al. 2018) (SupTable4). Interestingly, we found that simple satellite abundance recapitulates the structure between iso-Y lines defined by the SNP calling (Figure 5A vs Figure 2).

Among the 177 satellites, 28 appear differently enriched on resistant versus sensitive Y chromosomes (Figure 5B). Two satellites known to be Y-specific (Wei et al. 2018) are particularly interesting. The first one, (AAACAAT)n is among the most abundant satellites and is 2-fold more enriched in the sensitive lineages than in the resistant lineages (Figure 5C). While it does not show a strong correlation with the resistance phenotype (SupFig3), its abundance makes it a good candidate underpinning resistance to X^{SR}. Our second candidate, (AATGG)n, is less abundant, but the sensitive Y chromosomes are also more enriched than the resistant ones. More importantly, this satellite shows a very strong correlation with the resistance phenotype (Spearman correlation test; pvalue<0.01, Figure 5D).

Figure 5. A. PCA based on the simple satellite abundance. Each Y chromosome is colored according to

the cluster to which it belongs (defined by nucleotide diversity, Figure 2B). B. Dotplot of the 28 simple

satellites differentially enriched between the resistant Y's (red circles) and the sensitive ones (blue

triangle). RPM counts were transformed in log10. C and D. The box plots represent the abundance of

(AAACAAT)n and (AATGG)n in each group (resistant in red and sensitive in blue). The dot plot

represents the correlation between the satellite abundance (y axis) and the resistance ability (x-axis).

Correlation was calculated based on a Spearman correlation test.

DISCUSSION

Y-linked nucleotide diversity in both *Drosophila melanogaster* and *Drosophila simulans* is known to be very low compared to the rest of the genome (Larracuente et Clark 2013; Helleu et al. 2019). Those previous estimates were done on genic sequences, which limits the estimation to a small portion of the Y chromosome. Here, taking into account the whole assembled chromosome (around 13Mb) we show that the Y-linked nucleotide diversity in *D. simulans* is about 15-fold lower than the estimate in *D. melanogaster* (π was estimated ranging from 0.00266 to 0.01696 in Larracuente et Clark 2013, here $\pi = 0.0001808$). While the level of nucleotide variation among the Y chromosomes examined here is very low, it reflects the evolutionary history of the species.

Evolutionary history of the Y chromosome related to the demographic history of D. simulans

The ancestral origin of the Resistance

D. simulans is thought to originate from Madagascar or the surrounding area (Lachaise et Silvain, 2004.; Dean et Ballard 2004). We hypothesize that this ancestral population was carrying a drive resistant Y chromosome (Figure 6A). Indeed, according to the phylogeny (Figure 3), the sensitive Y chromosomes are derived recently in *D. simulans* from resistant Y chromosomes, suggesting that the ancestral Y chromosome in *D. simulans* was of the resistant type. The ancestry of the resistant lineage does not necessarily mean that the resistant phenotype is ancestral. However, based on our phylogeny it is most parsimonious that the sensitive lineage (Cluster I) corresponds to a secondary loss of resistance to Paris SR. Consistently, previous

work suggested that the Y chromosome of *D. sechellia* is resistant to the Paris drivers (Tao et

al. 2007; Rice 2014).

<u>Spread of *D.simulan*s in Seychelles and Continental Africa.</u>

During a first expansion event, *D. simulans* is thought to have independently colonized

the Seychelles islands and the African continent (Lachaise et Silvain, 2004) (Figure 6A). Our

data well support this scenario. Indeed, most of the Y chromosomes from continental Africa

belong to Cluster II while the two chromosomes from Seychelles and New Caledonia belong to

Cluster III (Figure 2). The phylogeny is in agreement with the early divergence of these two

chromosomes. Not only do they appear genetically different but they also have a different

phenotype. Indeed the Y chromosomes from Seychelles (Sey81) and New Caledonia (New91)

appear less resistant than the other resistant Y chromosomes (Figure 1B).

This scenario for the demographic history of *D. simulans* was supported by the

distribution of the mitochondrial haplotype. In *Drosophila simulans* there are three different mt

haplotypes : *si*I, *si*II and *si*III (Solignac et Monnerot 1986). *si*II is the worldwide haplotype of

the species. In Madagascar and La Reunion, populations appear polymorphic for *si*III and *si*II.

The last haplotype, *si*I, is specific to the Indo-Pacific islands (Seychelles, New Caledonia and

Hawaii). We controlled for the mitochondrial haplotype of our strain. As expected most of them

carry the siII haplotype with the exception of the strain from Hawaii, New Caledonia and

Seychelles that carry the siI haplotype, and Mayotte that carry the siIII haplotype (SupTable5).

<u>Emergence and spread of the Sensitive lineage</u>

The phylogeny indicates that the sensitive Y chromosomes (Cluster I) and resistant Y

chromosomes from Continental Africa (Cluster II) have a recent common ancestor (Figure 3).

This suggests that the sensitive lineage emerged in Continental Africa and started to replace

resistant Y chromosomes (Figure 6B). This hypothesis is supported by the Ken75 Y

chromosome that comes from flies collected in Kenya in 1975. The Ken75 Y chromosome

appears similar to the sensitive Y chromosomes found across the world

The Y chromosome which has then spread out-of-Africa is the sensitive Y

chromosome, becoming the major Y chromosome across the species range (Helleu et al. 2019)

(Figure 1A, Figure 6C). The low nucleotide diversity (>97% similarity, Table 1) within the

sensitive Y lineage suggests that this event probably arose very recently. Indeed it has been

shown that the expansion of *D. simulans* is more recent than that of *D. melanogaster*, likely

6500-5000 years in Eurasia (Lachaise et Silvain, 2004) and 500 years in North America (Wall,

Andolfatto, et Przeworski 2002).

Why has the sensitive Y chromosome previously replaced the ancestral resistant Y

chromosome? Multiple non-exclusive factors could have favored the spread of Y sensitive

lineage. First, the emergence of an advantageous mutation may have led to a strong positive

selection on sensitive Y chromosomes. A selective advantage associated with the Y

chromosome can quickly lead to its fixation into the population (Clark 1987). The Y sensitive

chromosome might improve the fitness of the carrier over the resistant Y chromosome, they

can increase the fertility or favor the adaptation to a new environment. Second, the demographic

history of the species could also explain the low level of polymorphism of the sensitive Y

chromosome. Indeed, effects such as migration and bottleneck could have facilitated the spread

of the sensitive lineage and reduced its effective population size. Finally, the last hypothesis

involves recurrent genetic conflict in *D. simulans*. In *D. simulans*, there are at least 3

independent *SR* systems; Paris, Winter and Durham. The Winter and Durham SR systems are

cryptic and presumably older than the Paris system (Meiklejohn et al. 2018). *SR* systems appear

common in this species (Muirhead et Presgraves 2021; Vedanayagam, Lin, et Lai 2021). The

intense resulting genetic conflicts between X and Y chromosome have an important impact on

sex chromosome evolution. We hypothesize that the presence of an X-linked driver in *D.*

simulans, before the emergence of the Paris *SR* system, could have driven the spread of some

Y chromosomes belonging to the lineage sensitive to the Paris driver. Some of the Y

chromosomes sensitive to the Paris driver could have been resistant to this more ancient driver.

The quick replacement of sensitive by resistant Y chromosomes might have occurred in the past

but triggered by another driver. This ancestral driver would have favored the spread of the

sensitive Y chromosome lineage before becoming cryptic or disappearing.

<u>Emergence of the Paris system and replacement of the sensitive by the resistance Y</u>

<u>lineage.</u>

The Paris system likely emerged in East Africa and quickly spread in the Indian Ocean

Island and Sub-Saharan Africa (Bastide et al. 2011). During the last two decades we observed

the invasion of the system in North Africa, Europe and the Middle East (Bastide et al. 2013;

Helleu et al. 2019). Due to their transmission advantage the resistant Y chromosomes were

strongly selected and quickly spread along with the driver, replacing the Y sensitive

chromosomes (Helleu et al. 2019) (Figure 6D).

Our approach allows us to follow the migration path of the Paris SR system. For

example, the resistant Y chromosomes from Egypt, Morocco and France segregate in different

clusters indicating that the Paris SR system has migrated independently to North Africa and

Europe. Similarly, the two Y chromosomes from Seychelles are resistant but belong to two

different clusters: Sey81 and Sey03, which have been collected more than 20 years apart. The

2003 resistant lineage likely results from migration from continental Africa to the Seychelles

island at that time. In addition, Sey03 (cluster II) appears to be more resistant than Sey81

(cluster V), which could explain this replacement.

Figure 6. **Proposed scenario for the demographic history of *D. simulans* in relation to the Paris *SR***

system. A. Expansion of *D. simulans* out of its area of origin, toward the Seychelles and the African

continent (Lachaise et Silvain, 2004.; Dean et Ballard 2004). The ancestral Y chromosome belongs to

the resistant lineage, here represented by a red circle. B. Emergence of the sensitive lineage in

subsaharan Africa and diffusion out-of-Africa. Here sensitive Y chromosomes are represented by a blue

circle. C. Emergence of the Paris *SR* system in East-Africa (Bastide et al. 2011). Populations where the

system is detected are represented by a star. D. Spread of the Paris *SR* system and replacement of the

sensitive Y chromosome by resistant Y chromosome (Helleu et al. 2019).

Genetic basis of the resistance

Beyond the evolutionary history of the Y chromosome, we also provide important insight about the genetic basis of the resistance to Paris X^{SR}. Based on the large phenotypic variation of the resistance we hypothesize that the resistance ability might be associated with variation in the repeat content on the Y chromosome. We did not find any association between the resistance and the gene or transposable element abundance on the Y chromosomes, they even appear quite stable. However we do find a strong association with the simple satellite composition (Figure 5A-B) and identified two strong candidates: (AAACAAT)n and (AATGG)n (Figure 5C-D). Both are already known to be specific to the Y chromosome in *D. simulans* (Wei et al. 2018) and exhibit a lower copy number on the resistant Y chromosome. The (AATGG)n shows a strong negative correlation between the copy number and the resistance ability. Y chromosomes with fewer copies appear to be more resistant. We did not observe a similar correlation for the (AAACAAT)n satellite. However, it appears associated with structural variation observed among resistant Y chromosomes (Helleu et al. 2019), which could explain variation in the phenotype. One of the drivers of the Paris *SR* system has been identified as *HP1D2*, a member of the heterochromatin protein gene family, known to be involved in heterochromatin regulation. We have previously shown that HP1D2 is specifically expressed in spermatogonia and is enriched on the Y chromosome (Helleu et al. 2016). In addition, the drive is due to a loss of function of *HP1D2*. We thus hypothesize that the drive is associated with a mis-regulation of the heterochromatin region of the Y chromosome. While we do not know the precise target of HP1D2, those two simple satellites appear as good candidates. Correlations between the target copy number and the strength of the drive have already been shown in other meiotic drive systems. For example, in the *SD* system of *D. melanogaster*, *Rsp* satellite is the target of the driver (Hartl 1974). Variation in *Rsp* copy number is related to variation in the sensitivity to the driver (Lyttle 1989). Chromosomes with a higher

copy number of *Rsp* are more sensitive to the driver. Similarly, particular repeats may be

involved in the resistance to the Paris drivers and possibly be their target. Variation in resistance

could be due to variation in their abundance and/or in their localization. Considering that the

distortion is due to a misregulation of heterochromatic sequences, the localization of those

sequences among the Y chromosome could be more or less critical for chromosome

segregation. Also, we cannot exclude that the resistance phenotype is multifactorial, or that the

genetic basis of resistance is different between Y chromosome lineages.

To conclude, our study sheds light on the evolutionary history of the Y chromosome in

D. simulans. We show that Y resistant chromosomes likely predated the emergence of the Paris

SR system and that Y sensitive chromosomes have spread through the world in the recent past.

The Paris system is particularly young, at least in its present form, since the segmental

duplication which is involved in driving likely emerged less than 500 years ago (Bastide et al.

2013). While its impact on the recent evolutionary history of the Y chromosome is clearly

strong, it cannot explain on its own the whole pattern of variation we observed here. More

likely, the Y chromosome was recurrently involved in genetic conflicts, which resulted in

multiple selective sweeps. Furthermore, we also provide new insights on the genetic basis of

Paris drive resistance. Knowing that simple satellites are likely involved should help us to move

further in the understanding of the molecular mechanism underlying the Paris *SR* system.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Fly stocks

Except for Ken75, all iso-Y lines (derived from a single male) carry the same standard genetic background ($X^{ST} A^{ST}$) from the ST8 reference strain (Montchamp-Moreau et Cazemajor 2002). The crossing procedure used to isolate the Y chromosomes is presented in (Montchamp-Moreau, Ginhoux, et Atlan 2001). The fourth chromosome was not controlled. The place and date of collection of the strains from which the Y chromosomes studied originate are given in SupTable5.

ST8 is the reference standard strain in the Paris *SR* system. It has been collected in Tunisia (1983) and is free of driver and suppressor elements (Montchamp-Moreau et Cazemajor 2002). The *ST8/C(1)RM,yw* line is derived from the reference standard line ST8. Females carry a compound X chromosome *C(1)RM,yw* and males carry the X^{ST8} from the ST8 line. The Y chromosome and the autosomes are from the ST8 line. `

The *ST8;Cy;Delta/Ubx* line carry the sex chromosomes from the ST8 line and dominant markers on chromosomes II (^{Cy}) and III ($^{Ubx/Delta}$).

The X^{SR3} line is used to test the resistance ability of the Y chromosome. The males carry an X^{SR} from the reference SR strain (collected in Seychelles in 1981, Cazemajor, Landré, et Montchamp-Moreau 1997) and the females carry the compound X chromosome *C(1)RM,y,w*. The Y chromosome and the autosomes come from the ST8 line.

For simplicity each iso-Y line name is coded as follows : the 3 first letters of their location + last two digits of the collection year (for instance Morocco 2012 is Mor12).

Resistance test

Each Y chromosome from the CAA lineage, and the standard Y^{ST8} have been tested for their resistance ability against the same reference X^{SR3}. The crossing procedure is detailed in

Montchamp-Moreau, Ginhoux, et Atlan 2001. Briefly, males carrying the Y chromosome to be

tested (Y^{pop}) were mass-mated with *ST8/C(1)RM,yw* females. Three F1 females were

individually mated with X^{SR3} males, thus producing F2 males carrying both the X^{SR3} and Y^{pop}

and standard autosomal background. Five males from each F2 progeny were individually

mated, each with 2 ST8 females (so a total of 15 F2 males tested for each Y^{pop}). Only individual

F3 progenies consisting of at least 50 flies were considered.

Before statistical analyses, the data were transformed in *arcsin($\sqrt{q}$),* where *q* corresponds to the

proportion of females in the progeny. To test for within-strain variation in Y resistance, we

performed a Kurskal Wallis test between groups of F2 progenies (from the same F1 cross). All

the iso-Y lines appear homogeneous (SupTable1). We performed a Wilcoxon test to determine

whether those lines were significantly different from ST8. They all appear significantly more

resistant than ST8 except Sey81 and New91 (SupTable1). Finally, we performed a Tukey HSD

post-hoc test on the anova model to determine groups (Figure 1B). All statistical analyses were

conducted in R base (R Core Team 2022). The R script used can be found on github:

Figure1/resistance.R.

DNA extraction and sequencing

DNA extraction and sequencing was performed in two batches. In batch1 we sequenced: Tun83,

Egy07, Ken75, Zim97, Egy12, Tan96 and Sey81. In batch2 we sequenced: Tun83, Fra93,

Aus11, Mor12, Cal61, Guy56, Sey81, May09, Fra09, Mor16, Sao01, Cam16, New91, Haw07,

Mad98, Sey03. Tun83 was sequenced in both batches to control for potential technical bias.

Sey81 was sequenced in the first batch in its original genomic background (from Seychelles

1981) and then the Y chromosome was isolated in the same standard genomic background (from

ST8 strain) and re-sequenced in: the second batch. DNA was extracted from 50 adults J1 males

flies using the Nucleobond AXG20 column from Macherey-Nagel. For whole genome sequencing, libraries were prepared using Illumina PCRfree kit and sequencing was done using Illumina HiSeq3000 technology with pair-end 150bp reads. The sequencing depth was determined in order to obtain a minimum autosomal coverage of 80x.

Mapping and Variant calling

Paired-end reads were trimmed using trimgalore (*trim_galore --paired --nextera --length 75 --phred33 --no_report_file –fastqc*) (Krueger et al. 2021). Read quality was assessed using FASTQC.

Reads were mapped against the reference genome with bwa (v7.4) using the *BWA-MEM* algorithm (default parameters). We used the heterochromatin-enriched assembly of *D. simulans* (Chang et al. 2022) that include 15Mb of the Y chromosome as reference genome. Resulting sam alignment files were converted into bam files and sorted using respectively samtools (v1.11) *view* and *sort* command. PCR duplicates were removed using *Markduplicates* from Picardtools (v2.12.0) (https://broadinstitute.github.io/picard/). For our SNP calling analyses we want to keep only the uniquely mapping reads, whereas for the repeat quantification we need to keep also the multi-mapping reads. We thus performed two different filtering based on mapping quality using samtools *view* (Li et al. 2009). To keep multi-mapping reads we use the following parameters *-b -h -f 3 -F 4 -F 8 -F 256 -F 2048*, to keep only the uniquely mapping reads we use the following parameters *-b -h -f 3 -F 4 -F 8 -F 256 -F 2048 -q30.* Mean coverage was determined using the *genomecov* tool of bedtools (Quinlan et Hall 2010). The pipeline used (Mapping.sh) can be found on the github repository.

Variant calling was done on the uniquely mapping bam files using *mpileup* and *call* commands from bcftools (v1.14) (Li 2011). We then performed different filtering steps. First isolate the SNPs associated to the Y chromosome using *vcftools*. We use vcftools (Danecek et al. 2011) to

analyze the quality of the SNP calling on the Y chromosome based on variant mean depth,

variant quality, proportion of missing data per site, mean depth per individual, missing data per

individual. This allowed us to determine the threshold for the quality filtering : --remove-indels

--max-missing 0.9 --minQ 30 --min-meanDP 10 --max-meanDP 50 --minDP 10 --maxDP 50.

Because each iso-Y line originates from a single male and the Y chromosome is supposed to be

haploid, heterozygote sites are likely to be duplicated sequences and thus difficult to take into

account. We removed the heterozygotes sites using the *filter* command (-e 'GT="het"' option)

of bcftools. Note that because Tun83 and Sey81 were sequenced twice, after verification that

they were identical, we keep only the data from batch2 to avoid redundancy in the analyses.

The pipeline used (VariantCalling.sh) can be found on the github repository.

We calculate the nucleotide diversity along Y chromosomes per 10kb windows using the

vcftool--*window-pi 10000* option.

To investigate the population structure we performed a Principal Component Analysis (PCA)

on the filtered vcf, using the software plink (v1.9) (Chang et al. 2015). The pairwise distance

between strains was calculated using MEGA (Tamura, Stecher, et Kumar 2021).

All the following analyses on the vcf file were done using R scripts (VariantAnalyses.R on

github) using the following libraries: *vcfR, SNPrelate, gdsfmt, adegenet, ape, pheatmap,*

maSigPro, stringr.

Identification of corresponding SNPs in the sister species and phylogeny.

To identify the corresponding allele in *D. melanogaster*, *D. sechellia* and *D. mauritiana* we first

needed to identify the corresponding location. To do so, we first created a consensus Y

chromosome where SNPs are coding in UPAC code, using bcftools *consensus* command (with

--iupac-codes option). We built a bed file containing the position of each SNP. Using bedtools

getfasta command we extracted 400bp sequences for each SNPs (200bp on each side of the

SNPs) in a fasta file. Then each sequence were blasted against the Y chromosome consensus of

D. melanogaster, *D. sechellia* and *D. mauritiana* using blastn (-evalue 1e-20 -qcov_hsp_perc

80 -perc_identity 85 -max_hsps1 -max_target_seqs 1). We output the blast result in a tab

delimited format (-outfmt "6 qseqid sseqid evalue length pident qstart qseq sseq") and extract

the corresponding allele using a R script.

To reconstruct the phylogenetic tree, we first created a fasta sequence with only the SNP for

each individual. The SNP for which we were not able to identify a corresponding allele in the

sister species were coded as gaps. We constructed the maximum likelihood tree using the GTR

model and ultrafast bootstrap (1000 replicates) using iqTREE web server (Nguyen et al. 2015).

D. melanogaster was used as the outgroup. The scripts used can be found in github :

Figure3/Ancestry.sh and Figure3/Ancestry.R.

Transposable element and complex satellite quantification

Due to the batch effect observed we only used the strain from the second batch for the analysis.

To estimate the abundance of transposable elements and complex satellites in each iso-Y line

we first mapped the read against our reference genome. We applied the same pipeline as for the

SNP calling, with the exception that we kept multi-mapping reads (pipeline Mappingt.sh on

github). The reference genome was annotated using a custom repeat library (SupFile1.fasta)

using repeatmasker (options *-no_is -a -inv -pa 20 -div 20*) (Smit, AFA, Hubley, R, et Green, P.

2013). Using htseq-count (Putri et al. 2022)we counted the number of reads that map against

each repeats and normalize the reads count in RPM. We removed repeats for none of the strain

have a RPM greater than 10. All the subsequent analyses were done using Rstudio. We

performed a Wilcoxon test, followed by an "fdr" correction, to determine which repeats have a

different enrichment between sensitive and resistant. We calculated the coefficient of variation

for each repeat to determine which element should be the most variable, the top 25 is presented

in Figure 4D. The scripts used can be found in github : TEcount.sh and Figure4D/TE.R.

kmers quantification

Due to the batch effect observed we only used the strain from the second batch for the analysis.

Barring the fourth chromosome (not controlled), only the Y chromosome differs; we thus

consider that variations observed between lines are due to the Y chromosome. To estimate the

abundance of simple satellites in each strain we used an assembly-free approach based on kmer

quantification. We used the software k-Seek which quantified the simple satellite tandemly

repeated using unassembled Illumina reads. We normalized the kmers count in RPM using the

total mapping reads. We removed the kmers for which none of the strain have an RPM greater

than 5. All the subsequent analyses were done using Rstudio. We performed a Wilcoxon test to

determine which kmers have a different enrichment between sensitive and resistant. Then we

performed a correlation test between the kmers count and the resistance ability for the 11 strains

that have been phenotype (Figure 1B, SupTable1). The scripts used can be found in github :

kmers.sh and Figure5/Kmers.R.

Gene copy number analysis.

Due to the batch effect observed we only used the strain from the second batch for the analysis.

To estimate the exon copy number in each iso-Y line we first mapped the reads against our

reference genome. We applied the same pipeline as for the SNP calling, with the exception that

we kept multi-mapping reads (pipeline Mappingt.sh on github). We estimated the reads

coverage on each exon using *samtools depth*. For the 11 canonical genes we used a bed file

containing the coordinate of each exon on the reference genome based on Chang et al 2022. For

the two ampliconic genes, we blasted the consensus sequences against the reference genome

(option *-perc_identity 80*) to determine the coordinate of each insertion. For each iso-Y line we

calculated the mean coverage of all single copy exons and used it as a normalization factor. To

estimate the exon copy number we calculated the exon mean coverage divided by the

normalization factor and multiplied by the number of corresponding exons annotated on the

reference genome. The script used can be found in github : Figure4A/Gene_count.R.

Genotyping and Haplotype tree

We designed primers around SNPs located on regions annotated as coding regions (Chang et al

2022), as they are the most likely to be unique. For each of them we performed a PCR with

DreamTaq™ Hot Start Green PCR (ThermoFisherScientific, ref K9021) following

manufacturer's instructions (hybridization temperature: 58°). Each PCR product was sequenced

using the Sanger method on a SeqStudio Genetic Analyzer (ThermoScientific). Only five

primers pairs were able to deliver a unique sequence (SupTable6), containing 11 SNPs in total

(SupTable2). We genotyped the sequenced iso-Y lines, to validate our SNP calling, and 86

additional iso-Y lines from 22 populations. Similarly, we genotyped the mitochondrial

haplotype of the 21 iso-Y lines using 2 pairs of primers in SupTable6.

We concatenated the 11 SNPs for each iso-Y strains in a nexus format and built the haplotype

tree by the Median Joining Method using POPart (Leigh et Bryant 2015).

Data availability

All sequences are available from NCBI SRA under Bioproject accession PRJNA905841. All

the BASH pipelines and R scripts used in this study are available on github

https://github.com/CourretC/YchromosomesCourret2023.git

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<u>SUPPLEMENTAL FIGURES</u>

<u>SupFig1</u> : Y chromosome haplotypes. Each line corresponds to a different Y chromosome ordered based

on a clustering method. Each column corresponds to a SNP, the order of which is based on their physical

position on the Y chromosome. The blue alleles correspond to the reference allele and the red alleles

correspond to the alternative allele; white are missing data.

<u>SupFig2</u> : Haplotype network of 98 Y chromosomes from 26 populations. The haplotypes are composed

of 11 SNPs. The name of each Y chromosome is indicated within each cluster (see SupTable2 for full

name). The clusters are colored according to the 4 clusters identified for the 21 iso-Y lines sequenced.

<u>SupFig3</u> : Correlation plots between the satellite abundance (y axis) and the resistance ability (x-axis).

Correlation was calculated based on a Spearman correlation test

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