1 **Contribution of local recombination and AT-biased mutations to differentiated**
2 **region formation in *Apis cerana***
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Abstract

Genome architecture can interact with evolutionary processes and be involved in the

formation of differentiated regions potentially containing adaptation and speciation

loci. Regions of low GC content can be linked to low mutation and recombination

rates. These effects on the formation of heterozygous differentiation landscapes have

not been investigated. Here, we explored mutation accumulation and group

divergence along a speciation continuum using 499 genomes of *Apis cerana*, with a

widely distributed Central group diverged with its peripheral groups at both

population genetic and phylogenetic timescales. We found that the differentiated

regions had generally lower recombination and GC content than the rest of the

genome, with lower-than-average divergence (d_{xy}) initially to higher-than-average

ones at deeper timescale. Most rare alleles (~80%) are AT-biased that derived from

GC, resulting in lower AT-biased mutations in low-GC regions. Multiple regression

analysis further shows that reduced mutation and recombination rates are

associated with decreased diversity, particularly in regions with low GC content.

Moreover, in all *A. cerana* groups, higher mutation load and less efficient selection in

low-GC regions compared with high-GC regions suggest that restricted

recombination is important in mutation accumulation (e.g., AT-biased) and group

divergence. This pattern explains the increased d_{xy} in low-GC regions over

evolutionary time. Finally, low-GC regions possess higher proportion of

group-specific polymorphisms, which reconciliate discordance between

mitochondrial and nuclear phylogenies in *A. cerana*. Our results highlight the

contribution of genome architectures to the formation of differentiation landscapes

along divergent groups, emphasizing caution regarding loci identified solely from

differentiated regions.

Keywords

Eastern honeybee; low GC; mutation rate; mutation load; recombination

Significance Statement

This study shows the low nucleotide diversity in differentiated regions could be
simply attributed to genome architectures (e.g., gBGC, local recombination and
mutation rates). Further studies should consider the effects of genome architecture
on understanding the formation of heterozygous differentiation landscape along
diverging groups and identification of adaptive loci.

Introduction

Genomic islands are genomic regions with reduced nucleotide diversity (π) and elevated genetic differentiation (F_{ST}) that may potentially be involved in adaptation and reproductive isolation (Turner et al. 2005). Understanding the formation of these divergent peaks is imperative in defining how new species arise (Han et al. 2017; Wang et al. 2019; Wolf and Ellegren 2017). While modern sequencing technologies have facilitated our understanding of heterogeneous genomic landscapes in many species (Han et al. 2017; Ravinet et al. 2017; Vijay et al. 2016; Wang et al. 2016, 2019; Wolf and Ellegren 2017), the causes of genomic islands against the troughs of differentiation across the genome remains controversial (Cruickshank and Hahn 2014). Increasing evidence shows that genomic islands may emerge by processes unrelated to adaptation and speciation (Cruickshank and Hahn 2014; Guerrero and Hahn 2017; Ravinet et al. 2017; Wolf and Ellegren 2017). Authors (Burri 2017; Cruickshank and Hahn 2014; Guerrero and Hahn 2017; Han et al. 2017; Ravinet et al. 2017; Vijay et al. 2016; Wang et al. 2016, 2019; Wolf, Ellegren 2017) have proposed multiple evolutionary models to explain the formation of genomic islands in evolving groups. Recurrent selection can increase F_{ST} while reducing nucleotide divergence (d_{xy}) in genomic islands (Charlesworth et al. 1993; Irwin et al. 2016; Ravinet et al. 2017; Burri 2017). Selection in allopatry can generate regions with elevated genetic differentiation (with reduced nucleotide diversity), while not affecting their nucleotide divergence (Cruickshank & Hahn, 2014; Irwin et al., 2018). On the other hand, divergent selection coupling with gene flow may lead to the formation of genomic islands with both elevated F_{ST} and d_{xy} (Feder et al. 2012; Wolf and Ellegren 2017). Genomic islands with high F_{ST} and d_{xy} can also arise from ancient polymorphism, especially if gene flow is absent (Guerrero and Hahn 2017; Noor and Bennett 2009). In addition, genome architectures, such as gene density, recombination, and mutation rate, can all contribute to the formation of heterozygous differentiation landscape along the speciation continuum (Burri 2021; Castellano et al. 2020; Leroy et al. 2021; Ravinet et al. 2017).

Unlike other genome architectures, few have investigated the contribution of

GC content (proportion of guanine (G) and cytosine (C) nucleotides) on mutation

accumulation and genetic differentiation along diverging groups. While GC content

may not be a direct driver of differentiation or divergence, positive correlation

between GC content and regional recombination rate has been reported from yeast

to human (e.g. Meunier et al. 2004; Pessia et al. 2012; Kiktev et al. 2018). Regions

with high-GC content are more susceptible to double-strand DNA breaks (i.e.,

recombination) than low-GC ones (Petes 2001; Kiktev et al. 2018; Bouwman et al.,

2023). On the contrary, recombination can drive the fixation of G and C alleles

through GC-biased gene conversion (gBGC) (Charlesworth et al., 2020; Fullerton et al.

2001; Meunier et al. 2004; Pessia et al. 2012).

Through generation of AT mutations (Hershberg and Petrov, 2010; Lynch 2007),

GC content may increase the local mutation rate (Fryxell and Moon 2005; Kiktev et al.

2018, Long et al., 2018). Rare, derived alleles can be used as a proxy of mutation rate

since natural selection has yet to act on them in the short evolutionary time

(Coventry et al., 2010; Keinan and Clark, 2012). In *Apis mellifera* genome, for

example, elevated C/G to A/T mutations account for over 80% of rare, derived alleles

(derived allele frequency < 1%) (Wallberg et al., 2015). Regional high GC would

therefore contribute to elevated local mutation rate. Simulation results in *Drosophila*

melanogaster show that local mutation rate is a crucial factor interacting with other

forces, such as recombination, to shape nucleotide diversity and thus differentiation

across the genome (Barroso and Dutheil 2023). Generation of more AT alleles can be

further counteracted by gBGC that leads to fixation of more GC alleles (e.g., Wallberg

et al., 2015). High recombination (e.g., in high GC regions) can lead to more efficient

purified selection by removing deleterious mutations (Hill and Robertson, 1966;

MacPherson et al., 2021). These effects may be prominent in genomes with high

recombination, such as the honeybee genome, which has an average rate of 19

cM/Mb (centimorgans per megabase pair)—approximately 10 times higher than that

of most eukaryotes (Beye et al., 2006). Nevertheless, the interplay between three

processes—the generation of AT-biased mutations, the fixation of GC alleles via gBGC,

and the removal of deleterious mutations—varies significantly across the genome

due to the heterozygous genome architectures (e.g., local GC content and
recombination). This interplay may contribute to GC dynamics across the genome
and formation of heterozygous differentiation landscape along the speciation
continuum.

Apis cerana is a widespread cavity-nesting honeybee group (Ji et al. 2020; Qiu et
al. 2023; Radloff et al. 2010; Su et al. 2023). Its distribution in Asia ranges from
Pakistan to Japan and extends from the adjacent regions of Siberia in the North to its
southern distribution in Indonesia, from where the bee swarms invaded Oceania
(Koetz et al. 2013). There are four putative species in this group based on the
inference of genome-wide single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) (Su et al. 2023): *A.*
cerana (Asian Mainland and Indian black, Lineage M), *A. cerana* (Sundaland, Lineage
S), *A. cerana* (Indian yellow, Lineage I), and *A. cerana* (Philippines, Lineage P). The
mainland lineage (Lineage M) is the most widely distributed species and formed
several peripheral groups/populations with varied levels of divergence at the
surrounding of its Central population (Ji et al. 2020; Qiu et al. 2023). The Central
population of Lineage M admixes with the Lineage M peripheral populations and
introgresses with the other *A. cerana* species in the South (Lineage S) (Ji et al. 2023),
forming multiple admixed group pairs diverged at both population genetic and
phylogenetic timescales.

Here, we used resequencing genomes of 499 *A. cerana* and six *A. mellifera*
individuals (outgroup), with groups diverged over evolutionary time, to investigate
the contribution (direct or indirect) of GC content to genome-wide differentiation
landscape and mutation accumulation over time. Across the genome, GC content
(negative), recombination (positive) and mutation rates (positive) are the best
variables explaining genome-wide variation of π. When dividing the genome into
regions with different GC content, we found that low GC regions were always with
lower π and higher F_{ST} (i.e., genomic islands) than the rest of the genome. These
regions had few AT-biased mutations (the most dominant mutation type, from
ancestral G/C to derived A/T alleles) due to lower GC content, which suggested
lower mutation rate. In addition, lower recombination rates in these regions are

associated with reduced effects of genetic reshuffling on π. Groups at earlier stages

of divergence (i.e., population genetic timescale) showed low d_{xy} but high F_{ST} in low

GC regions, which meant even a small number of different mutations between

groups could cause high F_{ST} if π was low. The groups that were more diverged

exhibited elevated levels of d_{xy} due to the build-up of group-specific mutations (such

as fixed AT alleles), leading to d_{xy} values at the phylogenetic timescale (between

species) to be greater than the genome-wide average. Higher mutation loads and

less efficient selection in low GC regions of all investigated $A.\ cerana$ groups

supported the important role of restricted local recombination in variant

accumulation and group divergence in these regions. Conflict between mitochondrial

phylogeny (Qiu et al. 2023) and its nuclear counterpart (Ji et al. 2020) in $A.\ cerana$

Lineage M could be due to the above-mentioned admixture between adjacent

groups. They were reconciled with polymorphisms in low GC regions, where more

group-specific variants accumulated. These group-specific variants were easily found

in regions with elevated differentiation (i.e., F_{ST}) and divergence (i.e., d_{xy}, Central $vs.$

Lineage S) but possibly not related to adaption and speciation processes.

Results

Genetic structure and divergence of Apis cerana

In ADMIXTURE analysis, the optimal K value (i.e., genetic clusters) was 14 when investigating the genomic polymorphisms of 499 *A. cerana* individuals (Figure 1, Supplementary Table 1). *A. cerana* Sundaland individuals (samples from Malaysia and Singapore, Lineage S) first separated from the mainland species (Lineage M) due to long-term divergence (Su et al. 2023). Island groups (e.g. Taiwan, Hainan and Japan) and populations that colonized extreme habitats (e.g. high elevation: Ind_Pak, Bomi, Aba and Qinghai; or high latitude: Northeast) gradually separated. These groups had clear genetic ancestry and geographical distribution (Figure 1). Environmentally differentiated habitats also contributed to the formation of two clusters in the Central group, and four clusters in the Japan group (Figure 1). These clusters displayed intensive gene flow with adjacent ones and were difficult to distinguish from each other (Figure 1). Based on geography, we grouped the two clusters from Central and the four from Japan into one group. In total, we identified ten groups based on genomic clustering and geography. We performed the following analysis with this grouping scheme. It is worth noting that the grouping scheme is not associated with subspecies identification in the eastern honeybee (e.g., Qiu et al., 2022), but for the convenience of data analysis and illustration. It is important to note that the investigated genomic variation and differentiation pattern, as well as divergence time estimation (see below) when combining two Central clusters as one group (Central group) was consistent with the pattern using either one or the other cluster. Clustering of bioclimatic variables could not clearly separate these groups with some overlapping, suggesting a combination of phylogeny, genetic drift, and natural selection in the formation of these groups. The Central group (of Lineage M) was widely distributed and showed varied extent of genetic admixture with peripheral groups of Lineage M and Lineage S (Figure 1). It was thus used as an invariable group for divergence estimation in a time series (see below).

Estimated divergence times of group pairs within *A. cerana* Lineage M were 502

thousand years (Kyr) in Central *vs.* Japan, 521 Kyr in Central *vs.* Qinghai, 653 Kyr in

Central *vs.* Bomi, 700 Kyr in Central *vs.* Hainan, 972 Kyr in Central *vs.* Taiwan

(Supplementary Table 2). The divergence was consistent for different group pairs

whether using individuals from Southern or Northern part of Central group except

for the Central with Japan pair, where individuals from Northern part of Central

group showed shallower divergence (Supplementary Table 2). The gradually

divergent pattern of five groups with Central group was consistent with the

topologies based on nuclear (see below) and mitochondrial polymorphisms (Qiu et

al., 2022), thus supporting the robustness of divergence time estimation. These time

nodes within population genetic timescale (t1: Central *vs.* Japan; t2: Central *vs.*

Qinghai; t3: Central *vs.* Bomi; t4: Central *vs.* Hainan; t5: Central *vs.* Taiwan) and two

additional ones from the phylogenetic timescale (t6: Central *vs.* Lineage S; t7: Central

vs. A. mellifera) were chosen (Supplementary Table 2) and used in a time series to

investigate changes of genomic differentiation landscape and characterize genomic

polymorphisms.

Landscape of genomic variation and differentiation of diverging group pairs

By investigating genomic variation (nucleotide diversity, π) and differentiation

(genetic differentiation, F_{ST} and nucleotide divergence, d_{xy}) landscape over time

(Figure 2A, Supplementary Figure 1-3), we found a distinct pattern between high GC

and low GC regions, not just between centromere and non-centromeric regions.

Taking d_{xy} in low GC regions, for example, divergence increased from t1 to t7, with d_{xy}

values in t6 and t7 higher than the genome-wide average (Figure 2A, Supplementary

Figure 1). In high GC regions, however, divergences over time were indistinguishable

among the different group pairs when compared with low GC regions in the

genome-wide context (Figure 2A). We further compared nucleotide divergence in

low GC and high GC regions over time and found significantly lower d_{xy} values in low

GC regions from t1 to t4 than in high GC regions (Figure 2B, Mann-Whitney U test, *p*

< 0.001). In t5, t6 and t7, however, d_{xy} values in low GC regions were significantly

higher than in high GC regions (Figure 2B, Mann— Whitney U test, $p < 0.001$).

Correlations between d_{xy} and F_{ST} (Figure 2C) also switched over time in low GC

regions, with a negative correlation from t1 ($r = -0.43$) to t5 ($r = -0.14$), then positive

in t6 ($r = 0.75$) and t7 ($r = 0.61$). This pattern was not found in high GC regions (Figure

2C, all with positive r values). Correlation between d_{xy} and recombination rate (rho)

in low GC shifted pattern while not in high GC regions (Supplementary Figure 4A),

with positive r values from t1 (0.41) to t5 (0.26) and negative r values in t6 (-0.64)

and t7 (-0.48), and a similar trend found in correlations between d_{xy} and GC content

(Supplementary Figure 4B). In addition, we found both nucleotide diversity (π) and

mutation load showed positive correlations with GC content in low GC regions, but

negative correlations in high GC regions (Figure 3; Supplementary Figure 4).

Consistent negative correlations between nucleotide diversity (π) and gene density

were detected across the genome, as well as in high GC and low GC regions

(Supplementary Figure 4), supporting widespread linked selection in the functional

elements.

Genomic differentiation (F_{ST}) values in low GC regions were always higher and

recombination rate (rho) and nucleotide diversity (π) values lower than those in high

GC regions (Supplementary Figure 5), thus supporting the linkage of low GC content

with formation of genomic islands. We further characterized genomic islands

(normalized F_{ST}, Z-F_{ST} ≥ 2) over time and found a significantly lower GC content in

genomic islands compared with genomic backgrounds (Z- F_{ST} < 2) (Supplementary

Figure 6). Being consistent with the pattern found in low GC regions, recombination

rate and nucleotide diversity in genomic islands were significantly lower than those

in genomic backgrounds (Supplementary Figure 6). Comparisons of d_{xy} in genomic

islands and backgrounds also varied over time, with lower-than-average d_{xy} values

initially (t1 to t5) to higher-than-average at t6 and t7 (Supplementary Figure 6). This

pattern supported the proposed model of genomic island formation changing from

recurrent selection (i.e., high F_{ST} and low d_{xy}) to divergent selection (i.e., high F_{ST} and

high d_{xy}) over deeper divergence.

Contribution of recombination and AT-biased derived alleles to nucleotide diversity

and group divergence

We further investigated the effects of genome architectures on nucleotide diversity.

Rare, derived alleles (loci with derived allele frequency ≤ 1%, DAF_001) were

mutations that arose recently and were used here as a proxy for mutation rate

because natural selection had not yet worked on them (e.g., Coventry et al., 2010;

Keinan and Clark, 2012). Correlation analysis showed that GC content was positively

correlated with DAF_001 in both low and high GC regions across the genome (Figure

3). In addition, we found most of the mutations (~80%) were derived A/T alleles from

ancestral C/G ones (Supplementary Figure 7). This pattern supported the

predominant role of GC content on newly generated mutations (i.e., AT-biased)

across the genome (Hershberg and Petrov, 2010; Lynch 2007) with fewer mutations

in low GC regions (Figure 3). This process could contribute to the low nucleotide

diversity in low GC regions and therefore the presence of genomic islands

(Supplementary Figure 2, 3, 5, 6).

To further distinguish the effects of different genomic architectures on genomic

variation, we divided the genome into five regions (region 1 being low to region 5

being high GC) with equal-width intervals of GC content. We investigated the

contribution of each genome architecture to nucleotide diversity using a regression

analysis (Table 1). Four genomic architectures were included in the analysis: DAF_001,

GC content, recombination PC1, and gene density. Principal component 1 (PC1) was

extracted from recombination rate (explaining 74.91% of the total variance) and

nucleotide diversity (explaining 86.02% of the total variance) across six groups in *A.*

cerana Lineage M. Regression analysis across the five GC regions showed that the

models explained between 40.3% (region 3) and 85.7% (region 1) of the variance in

nucleotide diversity (Table 1). DAF_001 (i.e., proxy of mutation rate) had the

strongest and significantly positive effect in all regions, with coefficients ranging from

0.4222 (region 4) to 0.6985 (region 3; all with p < 0.001). GC content showed a

consistent negative association in each region, with the strongest value in region 4 (β

= -0.5802, p < 0.001). The effect is pronounced because gBGC promotes the fixation

of GC alleles, counteracting a genome-wide bias toward AT mutations (β=-2.341, p <

0.001). Recombination rate was generally positively associated, especially in region 1

(β = 0.4214, p < 0.001) and region 2 (β = 0.3638, p < 0.001), but negatively associated

in region 3 (β = -0.1075, p < 0.01). Gene density was negatively associated in regions

1–5 (e.g., region 2: β = -0.2496, p < 0.001). Based on the relationships DAF_001 ∝ μ

and ρ = 3N_e c (where N_e is the effective population size, μ is the mutation rate, and c

is the recombination rate, 3 is due to haplodiploid sex-determination system in

honeybee), our models support important and independent roles for both mutation

rate (proxied by DAF_001) and recombination rate (proxied by population scaled

recombination rate) in shaping nucleotide diversity. Their contributions are

particularly pronounced in low-GC regions (Table 1).

Following Wallberg et al. (2015), we further categorized mutation types in *A.*

cerana groups using *A. mellifera* as the outgroup. There were four types of mutation

S2S (strong to strong) (from C/G in *A. mellifera* to C/G in *A. cerana*), S2W (strong to

weak) (from C/G to A/T), W2S (weak to strong) (from A/T to C/G), and W2W (weak to

weak) (from A/T to A/T). In *A. cerana* lineage M (Figure 4A), relative site frequency

spectrum of the four mutation types showed that an initially high S2W contributed

by GC coupling with a fixation bias towards W2S mutations, consistent with a strong

GC-biased gene conversion (gBGC) (Wallberg et al., 2015). We found, however, a

higher percentage of nearly-fixed S2W mutations in the peripheral groups compared

to the Central group and Lineage M, at both population genetic and phylogenetic

levels (Figure 4B). This finding supports the contribution of fixed AT alleles to group

divergence. But, the relative contribution of fixed AT alleles to group divergence

varied among groups. For instance, the percentage differentiation of nearly fixed AT

alleles is amplified by genetic drift (e.g., Japan vs. Lineage M Central Lineage) and

divergence time (Lineage S vs. Lineage M, Figure 4B, C). In several groups (e.g.,

Qinghai, Hainan, Lineage S, Figure 4B, C), we found more fixation of AT-biased alleles

in low GC regions (with lower AT mutations) compared with high GC regions (with

higher AT mutations), suggesting the involvement of other mechanisms, such as local

recombination and gBGC.

Profile of functional polymorphisms in low GC and high GC regions

Patterns of accumulated polymorphism (e.g., mutations) differed between low GC

and high GC regions (Figure 5 A, B; Supplementary Figure 4E), with synonymous (dS)

and non-synonymous (dN) substitution rates positively correlated with GC content in

low GC regions and negatively correlated in high GC regions (Supplementary Figure

4). The differentiated pattern likely resulted from limited recombination and

inefficient purifying selection in low GC regions (Figure 3; Supplementary Figure 5

and 8), which could have facilitated the accumulation of mutations, a pattern that

could not be found in high GC regions with higher recombination (Figure 3). The

consistently positive correlation between mutations and GC content in low GC

regions indicated that these regions accumulated more mutations and divergence

than high GC regions at deeper divergence (Figure 2A, B), although fewer mutations

were found in these regions (Figure 3).

We calculated dN/dS and found significantly higher values in low GC regions

than in high GC regions (Figure 5A). We further divided the mutation load into

variants with different impacts (MODIFIER, LOW, MODERATE, and HIGH) and

calculated the ratio of SNP numbers in low GC over high GC regions. We found

significantly higher ratios of non-neutral variants (LOW, MODERATE, and HIGH) than

neutral ones (MODIFIER) in all defined groups (Figure 5B), which indicated low GC

regions could accumulate more impact SNPs than high GC regions due to inefficient

purifying selection. This pattern supported the idea that the genome architectures

(i.e. restricted recombination) was involved in mutation accumulation and

divergence in low GC regions of *A. cerana* groups due to Hill-Robertson interference

(Hill and Robertson, 1966).

We further investigated the ratio of polymorphisms that was group-specific or

shared among different groups in low GC and high GC regions. With three groups

(Bomi, Aba and Qinghai) that independently colonized highland habitats and had no

genetic admixture (Figure 1), we determined that most of the polymorphisms (e.g.

mutation load) were unique to each group and showed no percentage difference in

high GC and low GC regions (Figure 5C). For example, in MODERATE impact

polymorphism, Aba had 38.18% (12,082) and 19.19% (6,073) of unique and shared

variants in Low GC regions, and 36.19% (10,035) and 20.8% (5,768) in High GC

regions. We further investigated group-specific and shared polymorphisms in lineage

pairs with genetic admixture. With Central and Hainan group pair as an example, we

found more group-specific than shared polymorphism only in low GC regions (Figure

5D). For MODERATE impact polymorphism, Hainan had 7.58% (9,771) and 6.68%

(8,611) unique and shared variants in low GC regions, corresponding to 6.25% (7,372)

and 7.83% (9,235) in high GC regions.

Reconstruction of A. cerana nuclear phylogeny

After characterizing the landscape of genomic variation in high GC and low GC

regions, we reconstructed the phylogeny of *A. cerana* based on nuclear

polymorphism in low GC regions with more group-specific polymorphisms (Figure

5D). We reconstructed a nuclear topology similar to the mitochondrial phylogeny

(Figure 6 and Supplementary Figure 9, mitochondrial phylogeny from Qiu et al. 2023),

with individuals from Taiwan and Hainan being basal groups of *A. cerana* Lineage M.

The phylogeny based on polymorphism in high GC regions was influenced by gene

flow, with admixed groups clustering together (Supplementary Figure 10). Individuals

showing hybrid ancestry were always situated between groups (e.g. Central vs.

derived group, Figure 1 and Supplementary Figure 10) and had higher polymorphism

than the individuals within the derived groups (Supplementary Figure 10).

Discussion

The formation of heterozygous differentiation landscape is suggested to result from

the combined effects of external evolutionary processes and genome architectures

(Ravinet et al. 2017). Here, we used 499 eastern honeybee genomes along the

speciation continuum to investigate the influences of GC content on mutation

accumulation and group differentiation by conducting correlation analysis of

population genetic parameters and genomic architectures, characterization of

different genomic regions, and regression analysis of genome architectures on

genomic variation. We found that the local GC content could elevate regional

mutations because GC to AT mutations accounted for around 80% of the newly

generated alleles (Supplementary Figure 7). This however could be counteracted by

GC-biased gene conversion (gBGC) that lead to fixation of GC alleles.. We also found

local GC content was positively correlated with recombination rate that further

interplayed with evolutionary forces and shaped mutation accumulation and group

differentiation across the genome.

Over the diverging groups, genomic islands have significantly lower GC content

and recombination compared with background regions (Supplementary Figure 4).

This is consistent with fewer mutations (i.e., lower GC) and limited recombination

that leads to lower nucleotide diversity and elevated differentiation (Cruickshank and

Hahn 2014). In addition, genomic islands with reduced nucleotide diversity were

shared across diverging groups of *A. cerana* (Supplementary Figure 2, 3), suggesting

the important role of common genome architectures (Barroso and Dutheil 2023).

The lower-than-average divergence (d_{xy}) in GC regions at population genetic

timescales (within species) to higher-than-average d_{xy} at phylogenetic levels

(between species) corresponds to the suggested evolution models transformed from

"sweep-before-differentiation" and background selection (i.e. recurrent selection,

Charlesworth et al. 1993; Irwin et al. 2016; Ravinet et al. 2017), to divergent selection

with gene flow (Feder et al. 2012; Nosil et al. 2009; Wolf and Ellegren 2017) or

sorting of ancient polymorphisms (Guerrero and Hahn 2017; Han et al. 2017; Noor

and Bennett 2009; Wolf and Ellegren 2017). Correlations between d_{xy} and

recombination rate (rho) in low GC regions were negative in population genetic

timescale but positive in phylogenetic timescale. A similar trend was also found in

the correlations between d_{xy} and F_{ST}. These results align with previously proposed

models of genetic island formation, which suggest that initial formation involves

recurrent selection in regions with low recombination (Ravinet et al. 2017). In

contrast, divergent selection due to the breakdown of linkage occurs over deeper

divergence (Cutter and Choi 2010; Noor and Bennett 2009). Few studies have

reported a similar pattern (increased d_{xy} values in genomic islands along the

speciation continuum, e.g., Liu et al. 2022, and shift pattern of parameter

correlations) likely because few have analyzed group pairs at both population genetic

(within species) and phylogenetic (between species) timescales in a single system.

Many studies report on one dominant model in genomic island formation, with the

contribution of external processes and genomic architectures. For example, recurrent

selection is reported to be involved in the formation of genomic islands in population

pairs of Green-backed Tit (*Parus monticolus*) (Jiang et al. 2023). Zhou et al. (2024)

indicate that divergent selection contributes to regionally elevated divergence and

genomic islands in incipient species of plover (*Charadrius alexandrines* and *C.*

dealbatus). However, reductions in recombination were needed in the formation of

these genomic islands in both cases (Jiang et al. 2023; Zhou et al. 2024).

Synonymous (dS) and non-synonymous (dN) polymorphisms, and mutation load

(dN/dS) in both low GC and high GC regions were also analyzed. The results showed

higher mutation loads (i.e. higher dN and dN/dS ratio) in low GC regions than high GC

regions, suggesting inefficient natural selection (Arbuthnott and Rundle 2012;

Bertorelle et al. 2022; Leroy et al. 2021) in these regions compared with the rest of

the genome. It is worth noting that this pattern was not only in peripheral groups

with lower genome-wide nucleotide diversity (e.g., Japan group) where it might be

attributed to genetic drift (Bertorelle et al. 2022). Instead, it was observed across all

A. cerana groups including *A. cerana* Lineage M Central group and Lineage S. This

broader finding supports the continuous effects of restricted recombination leading

to the accumulation of neutral polymorphisms and mutation load due to

Hill-Robertson interference (Hill and Robertson, 1966) in low GC regions. The relative

contribution of external evolutionary processes and genome architectures to

regional variation and differentiation thus needs to be reconsidered. The reduced

nucleotide diversity of the genomic islands may not result from natural selection

(Feder and Nosil 2009; Turner and Hahn 2010), genetic drift, or both (Burri 2021). It

could be independently contributed by local genomic architectures, where lower

mutation rate governs the accumulations of less random mutations (Castellano et al.

2020), and reduced recombination protects low GC regions from natural selection

(Hill and Robertson, 1966; Leroy et al. 2021) and gene flow (Wong and Filatov 2023)

along the speciation continuum. Therefore, the genomic islands identified in $A.$

$cerana$ groups—whether at the population genetic timescale (characterized by high

F_{ST} and low d_{xy}) or the phylogenetic timescale (characterized by high F_{ST} and high

d_{xy})—could be largely explained by the influence of genome architectures (such as

low mutation and recombination rates) rather than by specific evolutionary

processes like recurrent or divergent selection.

In contrast to low GC regions, high recombination in high GC regions facilitate

natural selection (Roze 2021) and genetic admixture (Wong and Filatov 2023). This

leads to lower mutation load and reduces differentiation in these regions at group

pairs of both intraspecific and interspecific levels. Therefore, admixed ancestry in

high GC regions could blur nuclear phylogeny of two diverging groups in gene-flow

scenario and cause conflict between nuclear and cytoplasmic DNA topologies of $A.$

$cerana$ (e.g., Ji et al. 2020; Qiu et al. 2023). The conflict, however, could be reconciled

by polymorphisms in low GC regions with restricted recombination (Pease and Hahn

2013). These findings supported differentiated recombination in high and low GC

regions related to regional nucleotide diversity and accumulation of mutation loads

(e.g., lead to lineage divergence) (Barroso and Dutheil 2023).

Our results suggested that genome architectures such as regional mutation

and recombination could shape mutation accumulation (e.g., lower nucleotide

diversity in low GC regions) and group divergence (e.g., more group-specific alleles in

low GC regions) at different genome regions along divergent groups. Genomic

studies often reveal correlations between variation and divergence in evolving
groups across various species (e.g., Cuevas et al., 2022; Vijay et al., 2016). These
patterns are likely influenced by conserved genomic architectures, such as
recombination (Burri et al., 2015; Renaut et al., 2014; Shang et al., 2023). The
influence of local mutations and gBGC in nucleotide diversity and genetic
differentiation has received less investigation (Boman et al., 2021). Due to the
significant effects of regional A/T biased mutation, gBGC, and recombination on
nucleotide diversity and fixation of alleles, we would suggest considering the effects
of local genome architectures in future analyses related to the formation of
heterozygous differentiation landscapes along diverging groups and identification of
adaptive loci based on summary parameters (e.g., F_{ST} and d_{xy}).

Genome architectures, such as variation of recombination rate (Booker et al.,
2020), have been widely reported to produce pseudo positives that could not be
easily distinguished from those generated in non-neutral processes in genome-scan
methods (e.g., Southcott & Kronforst, 2017). When explaining signals from
genome-scan methods, caution is advised, and stricter methods should be applied
when isolating adaptation and speciation loci. Several parameters have been
introduced to refine the analysis of population differentiation statistics and minimize
false positives. For F_{ST} statistic, ΔF_{ST} (Burri, 2017) and Population Branch Statistic (PBS)
(Yi et al., 2010), for example, have been proposed. These approaches leverage one or
several reference populations to reduce pseudo positive signals. When calculating
dxy or other linkage-based parameters like the haplotype homozygosity statistic
(Garud et al., 2015), the use of a control population can help eliminate false positives,
thus reducing burden in further functional validation efforts.

Materials & Methods

Sequencing data processing, SNP calling, and variant filtering

A total of 507 *Apis cerana* workers were initially sampled across its distribution range from previous studies, including individuals from China (331), India (14), Japan (105), Malaysia (26), Myanmar (2), North Korea (1), Pakistan (5), Singapore (1), South Korea (6), Thailand (11) and Viet Nam (5) (Chen et al. 2018; Ji et al. 2020; Qiu et al. 2023; Wakamiya et al. 2023). Six *A. mellifera* individuals (Harpur et al. 2014) were used as the outgroup individuals. After preprocessing, eight *A. cerana* individuals with elevated percentage of missing sites (≥20%) or with unknown sampling sites were removed, resulting in a total of 505 individuals (499 *A. cerana* and six *A. mellifera* individuals) to be used for the analysis (Supplementary Table 1).

All sequencing reads were downloaded from National Center for Biotechnology Information (NCBI) Sequence Read Archive (SRA) (PRJNA592293, PRJNA418874, PRJNA870246, PRJNA216922), or DNA Data Bank of Japan (DDBJ) database (PRJDB14080). Clean reads were trimmed and filtered using Trimmomatic (v 0.39, Bolger et al. 2014). Reads with a minimum length of 50bp were kept for analysis. We further individually mapped clean reads to the *A. cerana* genome (GCF_001442555.1, Park et al. 2015) by using bwa (v 0.7.17, Li 2013). Duplicates were identified by Picard (v 2.24.0, http://broadinstitute.github.io/picard/). A standard pipeline of variant calling based on Genome Analysis Toolkit (GATK 4.2.4.0, McKenna et al. 2010) was applied with HaplotypeCaller for indel realignment and individual variant calling, and GenotypeGVCFs for joint variant genotyping in all samples with "--include-non-variant-sites and --heterozygosity 0.001". We further performed hard filtering based on suggested parameters in GATK by using VariantFiltration command (--filter-expression "SOR > 3.000", --filter-expression "FS > 60.000", --filter-expression "MQRankSum < -12.500", --filter-expression "ReadPosRankSum < -8.000", --filter-expression "ReadPosRankSum > 8.000", --filter-expression "MQ < 40.00", --filter-expression "QD < 2.00"). In addition, hard filtering was conducted with Vcftools (v 0.1.16, Danecek et al. 2011) using "—minDP 3 --min-meanDP 3

--max-meanDP 60 --minQ 30 --max-alleles 2 --max-missing 0.5 --remove-indels

--remove-filtered-all" to generate a high-quality dataset. This dataset, including

non-variant sites, was used for calculation of population genetic parameters,

including nucleotide diversity (π) and divergence (d_{xy}).

We also used Vcftools (v 0.1.16, Danecek et al. 2011) in SNP filtering when

investigating genetic structure and reconstructing phylogeny. In genetic structure

analysis, bi-allelic SNPs with a maximum missing value of 20% and a minor allele

frequency of 0.05 were extracted, after which one SNP from a window of 20-kb DNA

sequence was kept for analysis. We used a 20-kb window for thinning to remove

linkage of polymorphic sites in genetic structure inference. For window phylogeny

reconstruction with maximum likelihood method (see **2.5 Nuclear phylogeny**

reconstruction), we kept all bi-allelic SNPs in the entire dataset for the analysis.

Genetic structure and population genetic parameter calculation

We used ADMIXTURE (v 1.3.0, Alexander et al. 2009) for genetic structure analyses

and performed each K from 2 to 20 with 30 replicates. The best K value was

identified according to cross-entropy criterion. The outgroup individuals (*A. mellifera*)

were excluded for the genetic clustering analysis. To characterize the environmental

conditions for each sample, we obtained monthly climatic variables (e.g.,

temperatures, precipitation) and water balance for global terrestrial surfaces from

1996 to 2015 (high-spatial resolution, 1/24°, ~4-km) (Abatzoglou et al. 2018). We

then performed a Principal Component Analysis (PCA) with twelve monthly averages

of the twelve variables (a total of 144 monthly variables, Supplementary Table 1) to

investigate environmental heterogeneity of the sampling locations.

To have an unbiased calculation of π and d_{xy}, we used the dataset with variant

and non-variant sites. We calculated π, d_{xy}, F_{ST} in a 100 kb window size within and

among our identified groups using Python scripts downloaded from

github.com/simonhmartin/genomics_general. We removed all individuals that had

more than 20% admixed ancestry from the other group, resulting in 24 (Aba), 20

(Bomi), 224 Central, 26 (Hainan), 16 (Ind_Pak), 105 (Japan), 27 (Lineage S), 23

(Northeast), 21 (Qinghai) and 11 (Taiwan). Six *A. mellifera* (i.e., Mel, outgroup) were

also included in parameter calculation. Windows with less than 1000 genotyped sites

(variant and invariant) were removed from the analysis. Regional GC-content and

coding sequence percentage were also calculated in 100 kb window based on the *A.*

cerana genome sequence (GCF_001442555.1). For each group, calculation of

recombination rate was conducted by using FastEPRR (v 2.0, Gao et al. 2016). Dataset

with variant sites was extracted with Vcftools (v 0.1.16, Danecek et al. 2011) and

phased using beagle (v 5.4, Browning et al., 2021) with default settings. We then

calculated population-scaled recombination rate of each group in FastEPRR in a

sliding window size of 100kb.

Within *A. cerana* Lineage M, we further estimated divergence times of five

groups (Bomi, Hainan, Japan, Qinghai and Taiwan) with the Central group based on

coalescent theory in two-two-outgroup (TTo) method (Sjödin et al., 2021), which is

relatively robust to migration and could alleviate biases due to drastic ancestral

population size change (Sjödin et al., 2021). The ancestral state of the sites was

inferred with *A. mellifera*, and *A. cerana* Lineage S was used as the outgroup in TTo

method. Since Central group of *A. cerana* Lineage M showed divergence in Southern

part and Northern part of the distributed region, we calculated and checked the

divergence time of each group with Central group using individuals from Southern

and Northern region of Central group. The mutation rate μ equals to 5.27×10^{-9} per

base pair following Wallberg et al. (2014) and generation time g to be 1 year (Ji et al.,

2020).

Characterization of summary statistics in different regions

The pilot analysis and visualization of genome-wide parameters showed distinct

pattern of differentiation in high GC and low GC regions (Figure 2A, Supplementary

Figure 1). Therefore, we divided the genome-wide windows into high GC (higher than

average GC content) and low GC (lower or equal to average GC content) categories.

Difference in parameter values in high GC and low GC windows were compared and

tested based on Wilcoxon rank sum test in ggsignif R package (v 0.6.4, Ahlmann-Eltze

and Patil 2021). We further standardized per-window F_{ST} in each group pair to a Z

score (Han et al. 2017) based on the formula: Z-F_{ST} = (window F_{ST} − mean F_{ST}) /

standard deviation F_{ST}. We then compared the parameter values in the genomic

islands (windows with Z- F_{ST} ≥2 from each group pair) and background regions

(windows with Z- F_{ST} < 2) using a Wilcoxon rank sum test.

We conducted correlations of summary statistics to investigate the effects of

different evolutionary forces on formation of heterozygous genomic landscape. The

Pearson's correlation coefficient for intragroup summary statistics between groups

(e.g. π_i vs. π_j), within groups (e.g. π_i vs. rho_i), and intergroup statistics of group pairs

(e.g. π_i vs. F_{STij}) were calculated and performed in R package corrplot (v 0.94, Wei and

Simko 2021). The correlation analysis for each group pair was also performed in high

GC and low GC regions, respectively.

To investigate the effects of genome architectures on polymorphisms, we

grouped all individuals from *A. cerana* Lineage M and performed correlations

between GC content and recombination rate, gene density, and polymorphism of *A.*

cerana Lineage M, including rare derived alleles (with derived allele frequency ≤ 0.01,

DAF_001), and nucleotide diversity (π). We extracted principal component 1 (PC1) for

recombination rate (explained 74.91% variance) and nucleotide diversity (explained

86.02% variance) from six *A. cerana* Lineage M groups for analysis. In order to

capture variation across the genome instead of groups, we normalized each

parameter (i.e., recombination rate or nucleotide diversity) in each group before

analysis for PC1 extraction. To identify variables contributing to nucleotide diversity

(nucleotide diversity PC1), we further conducted regression analysis with genome

architectures (DAF_001, GC content, recombination PC1, and gene density) in

high-GC and low-GC regions, as well as in five divided regions based on equal-width

intervals of GC content.

The allele state (ancestral or derived) of each locus in *A. cerana* was inferred

with *A. mellifera* as the outgroup. The derived allele frequency of each locus in each

A. cerana group was then calculated with Vcftools (v 0.1.16, Danecek et al. 2011).

With *A. mellifera* as the outgroup, we further sorted and counted the number of four

mutation types in each *A. cerana* groups following Wallberg et al. (2014), including

S2S: strong to strong (from C/G in *A. mellifera* to C/G in *A. cerana*), S2W: strong to

weak (from C/G to A/T), W2S: weak to strong (from A/T to C/G), and W2W: weak to

weak (from A/T to A/T). We then investigated the relative site frequency spectrum of

four mutation types in each *A. cerana* group and along the GC gradient.

Investigation of mutation load

Synonymous and non-synonymous mutations in high GC and low GC regions in each

group were investigated. Bi-allelic SNPs were extracted from each group and

functionally annotated with SNPeff (v 5.1d, Cingolani et al. 2012), a variant

annotation and effect prediction tool. In each group, we then calculated dN/dS

(non-synonymous / synonymous SNPs) ratio that represents magnitude of mutation

load. In addition, numbers of SNPs in low GC regions divided by high GC regions were

calculated in each functional group (MODIFIER, LOW, MODERATE, and HIGH) in the

defined groups. To further characterize whether the polymorphisms were shared or

group-specific, mutation load in three highland groups (i.e., Aba, Bomi, and Qinghai)

that colonized Qinghai-Tibet Plateau independently and with no admixture with each

other, was investigated. As a comparison, mutation loads in group pair with

admixture (i.e., Central and Hainan) were further investigated to estimate the effects

of gene flow on group-specific and shared variants in low GC as well as high GC

regions.

Nuclear phylogeny reconstruction

For phylogeny reconstruction, we divided the genome into multiple 200-kb windows,

and reconstructed window phylogeny with maximum likelihood method by using

IQ-TREE 2 (v 2.2.2.7, Minh et al. 2020). In model testing, we employed +ASC model to

include ascertainment bias correction as SNP data did not contain constant sites

(Minh et al. 2020). We also appended -bnni to the regular UFBoot command to

reduce the risk of overestimating branch support according to Hoang et al. (2018).

Since genomic regions with high recombination rate and low recombination rate

showed differentiated efficiency in tree reconstruction (e.g., Pease and Hahn 2013),

and our analysis showed distinct pattern of recombination and mutation rates in high

GC and low GC regions (Figure 3, Supplementary Figure 4, 5), we divided genomic

windows into high GC (above genome-wide average GC content) and low GC (below

genome-wide average GC content) categories, and generated the species tree in

ASTRAL III (v 5.7.1, Zhang et al. 2018) based on window trees in each category.

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Data and code availability

All sequencing data could be retrieved from public data base. Software and packages for analysis in this project are all available online. Shell scripts were attached in supplementary files.

Author contributions

Conceptualization, F.S.K.; methodology and analysis, F.S.K.; Writing, F.S.K. and L.V.

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Figure 1. Genetic structure and bioclimate variable clustering of *Apis cerana* Lineage
M (mainland lineage). Additional samples from Malaysia and Singapore (i.e.,
Sundaland lineage (Lineage S); Su et al. 2023) were included. The optimal K=14
was selected based on cross-validation error in ADMIXTURE. Two and four
genetic clusters were identified from Central and Japan groups, respectively. The
144 monthly bioclimate variables can be found in Supplementary Table 1.

Figure 2

Figure 2. Characterization of heterozygous divergence (d_{xy}) landscape in high GC and low GC regions. **(A)** Landscape of d_{xy} over time (t1 to t6) varied along GC gradient. Landscape of d_{xy} from t1 to t7 in Supplementary Figure 1; **(B)** Patterns of d_{xy} in low GC and high GC regions shift over divergence time (i.e., progressing from t1 through t5 (population genetic timescale) to t6 and t7 (phylogenetic timescale); Wilcoxon rank sum test was conducted with values between low GC and high GC regions. Empty circles represent significantly lower values in low GC than high GC regions, while black circles indicate low GC regions with higher values. **(C)** Correlation coefficients of d_{xy} and genetic differentiation (F_{ST}) varied over divergence time in different genomic regions.

916 **Figure 3**
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Figure 3. Correlation of GC content with different population genetic parameters

(DAF_001, nucleotide diversity PC1, recombination rate PC1 and gene density)

of *A. cerana* Lineage M. DAF_001 represents derived allele frequency (DAF) ≤
0.01. Nucleotide diversity PC1 (explained 86.02% variance) and recombination
rate PC1 (explained 74.91% variance) are the first principal component of
nucleotide diversity and recombination rate of six *A. cerana* Lineage M groups
(Japan, Qinghai, Bomi, Hainan, Taiwan and Central), respectively.
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 Figure 4

Figure 4. Variation of derived allele frequency (DAF) in low and high GC regions of different *A. cerana* groups. **(A)** The relative site frequency spectrum of four mutation types (bin size: 0.01, from 0-0.01 to 0.99-1) in *A. cerana* Lineage M inferred with *A. mellifera* as the outgroup. S2S: strong to strong (from C/G in *A. mellifera* to C/G in *A. cerana*), S2W: strong to weak (from C/G to A/T), W2S: weak to strong (from A/T to C/G), and W2W: weak to weak (from A/T to A/T). **(B)** Percentage differentiation of nearly fixed S2W and W2S alleles (DAF ≥ 0.8) in low and high GC regions of different *A. cerana* groups. Japan, Qinghai, Bomi, Hainan, Taiwan, Lineage S have higher percentage of S2W (C/G to A/T) type than Central and Lineage M, especially in low GC regions. **(C)** Percentage of nearly fixed S2W and W2S alleles in different *A. cerana* groups along the GC gradient. The red dash line represents the mean GC content.

Figure 5

MODERATE impact variants   HIGH impact variants

Figure 5. Profile of functional variants in high GC and low GC regions. **(A)** Higher
dN/dS (ratio of nonsynonymous over synonymous mutations) in low GC regions
than high GC regions (Paired t test, p < 0.001). **(B)** Higher ratio of putatively
deleterious mutations than neutral mutants. Paired t tests were conducted
between ratio of different mutant types. *** indicates *p* < 0.001. Types of
putative variant impact could refer to SNPeff (Cingolani et al., 2012); **(C)**
Consistent pattern of more group-specific mutation load than the shared in both
high GC and low GC regions of isolated groups. Aba, Bomi and Qinghai represent
three independent colonization to Qinghai-Tibet Plateau and are with no
admixture with each other (Figure 1). **(D)** Ratio of group-specific and shared
mutation load differentiated in low GC and high GC regions in group pair with
gene flow. Group pair Central vs. Hainan, as an example.

Figure 6

Figure 6. Reconstruction of *Apis cerana* phylogeny based on nuclear polymorphisms in low GC regions. Bootstrap values and individual IDs could be referred to phylogeny in Supplementary Figure 8; Het ratio indicates number of heterozygous sites/number of homozygous sites in each individual.

964 **Table 1. Regression analysis of nucleotide diversity on genomic architectures.**

Regions	R²	Adj.R²	GC content	recombination	Gene density	DAF_001
Genome wide	0.6856	0.685	-2.341***	1.648***	-0.07695*	2.174***
Low-GC	0.7715	0.7706	-0.2402***	0.5548***	-0.0995***	0.5360***
High-GC	0.5543	0.5526	-0.9372***	0.0182(NA)	-0.0928***	0.5788***
region1	0.8465	0.8443	-0.0915*	0.4214***	-0.1700***	0.6128***
region2	0.644	0.6413	-0.2717***	0.3638***	-0.2496***	0.4904***
region3	0.4621	0.4591	-0.4429***	-0.1075**	-0.1495***	0.6985***
region4	0.4301	0.425	-0.5802***	0.1550***	-0.0091(NA)	0.4222***
region5	0.438	0.4054	-0.4521***	0.1446(NA)	0.1490(NA)	0.5408***

In addition to low-GC and high-GC regions, genomic windows (100 kb) were divided into five regions (region 1 -5,

from low to high GC) based on equal-width intervals of GC content. Nucleotide diversity (π) and

recombination (i.e., population-scaled recombination rate) are PC1s extracted from six *A. cerana* Lineage M

groups, respectively. DAF_001, as a proxy of mutation rate, is number of SNPs with rare and derived alleles

(daf <0.01) in Lineage M. DAF_001 ∝ μ and recombination = 3 * Ne * c (Ne, effective population size; μ,

mutation rate; c, recombination rate). NA, *, **, *** indicate $p > 0.05$, $p < 0.05$, $p < 0.01$ and $p < 0.001$,

respectively.

Supplementary Table 1. Sample and sequencing information of *Apis cerana*.

Supplementary Table 2. Divergence time estimation between *A. cerana* Central
group with other seven groups.

Supplementary Figure 1. Landscape of genomic divergence (dxy) over time varied
along with regional GC content. Central vs. Japan (t1), Central vs. Qinghai (t2),
Central vs. Bomi (t3), Central vs. Hainan (t4), Central vs. Taiwan (t5), Central vs.
Lineage S (t6), and Central vs. Mel (t7).

Supplementary Figure 2. Landscape of genomic variation (π) varied along with
regional GC content.

Supplementary Figure 3. Landscape of genomic differentiation (F_{ST}) over time varied
along with regional GC content. Central vs. Japan (t1), Central vs. Bomi (t3), and
Central vs. Lineage S (t6).

Supplementary Figure 4. Correlation coefficients of genome-wide parameters over
divergence time.

Supplementary Figure 5. Characterization of low GC and high GC regions over
divergence time. **(A)** F_{ST}; **(B)** recombination (rho); **(C)** nucleotide diversity (π).

Supplementary Figure 6. Characterization of genomic islands and background
regions over divergence time. **(A)** d_{xy}; **(B)** recombination (rho); **(C)** nucleotide
diversity (π); **(D)** dN/dS; **(E)** GC content.

Supplementary Figure 7. Summary of mutation types in all derived alleles. Each
panel represents loci within a specific range of derived allele frequency. The plot
shows a high percentage of derived A/T alleles from ancestral C/G alleles (i.e.
C/G_2_A/T), especially in loci with rare, derived alleles.

Supplementary Figure 8. Site frequency spectrum in different regions. Rare/common
ratio of SNPs in the inset plot suggest more efficient selection in high GC regions
than in low GC regions.

Supplementary Figure 9. Reconstruction of *Apis cerana* phylogeny based on nuclear
polymorphisms in low GC regions. Bootstrap values over 0.7 were presented.

Supplementary Figure 10. Reconstruction of *Apis cerana* phylogeny based on nuclear
polymorphisms in high GC regions. Het/Hom indicate ratio of homozygous vs.
heterozygous sites in an individual. The hybrid individuals referred to genetic
structure in Figure 1.

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Het ratio

Group

- ■ *A.mellifera*
- ■ Lineage S
- ■ Taiwan
- ■ Hainan
- ■ Central
- ■ Ind_Pak
- ■ Bomi
- ■ Aba
- ■ Qinghai
- ■ Northeast
- ■ Japan

PCA of bioclimate data

Lineages
- Aba
- Bomi
- Central
- Hainan
- Ind_Pak
- Japan
- Lineage S
- Northeast
- Qinghai
- Taiwan

Sample sites
- K1 (Lineage S)
- K2 (Taiwan)
- K3 (Hainan)
- K4 (Qinghai)
- K5 (Aba)
- K6 (Ind_Pak)
- K7 (Bomi)
- K8 (Central 1)
- K9 (Central 2)
- K10 (Northeast)
- K11 (Japan1)
- K12 (Japan2)
- K13 (Japan3)
- K14 (Japan4)

6,000 m

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