**Genomics and reproductive biology of *Leptopilina n. sp.* Buffington, Lue, Davis & Tracey sp. nov.**

**(Hymenoptera: Figitidae): An asexual parasitoid of Caribbean *Drosophila***

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**ABSTRACT**

*Drosophila* and parasitic wasps in the genus *Leptopilina* have long been a model for understanding host-parasite interactions. Indeed, parasitic wasps are important drivers of ecological and evolutionary processes broadly, but we are generally lacking information about the diversity, natural history, and evolution of these relationships. We collected insects from the Caribbean Island of Saint Lucia, home to the eastern Caribbean '*dunni*' subgroup of *Drosophila*: a clade long appreciated for its recent patterns of speciation and adaptation. Here we present an integrative approach that incorporates natural history, taxonomy, physiology, and genomics to describe *Leptopilina n. sp.* Buffington, Lue, Davis & Tracey sp. nov. (Hymenoptera: Figitidae), a virulent parasitoid of *dunni* group flies, especially *Drosophila antillea*. *Leptopilina n. sp.* is nested within an early-branching clade of *Leptopilina*, offering insights into the evolution of this important genus of *Drosophila* parasitoids. We present a high-quality assembly for this wasp's 1Gbp genome, and for its bacterial endosymbiont: *Wolbachia* strain "*w*Lmal". Furthermore, we show that *w*Lmal induces parthenogenesis in the wasp, and that these wasps are reliant upon their *Wolbachia* infections to produce female offspring. Finally, comparison to historical museum specimens indicate that *Leptopilina n. sp.* had been collected approximately 40 years prior from the nearby island of Guadeloupe and were also asexually reproducing. This work represents one of only a handful of studies in which field biology, taxonomy, systematics, genomics, and experimental biology are integrated into a species description: showcasing the possibilities for biodiversity research in the genomic era.

**KEYWORDS**

*dunni*, *cardini*, *Wolbachia*, parthenogenesis, Saint Lucia, Antilles, host-parasite

**INTRODUCTION**

Interactions between insects and their parasitoids are ubiquitous across terrestrial ecosystems, and have been postulated as critical, but underappreciated, drivers of ecological speciation in insect groups [1, 2]. Yet compared to other ecological interactions, considerably less attention is paid to parasitism as a driver of insect speciation, in part because of the challenges of identifying often cryptic parasitoid species. Molecular-based identification methods have rapidly revolutionized species identification, but issues persist for many parasitoid lineages [3]. Most critically, while parasitoids are commonly acknowledged as one of the most speciose groups of organisms, they are persistently under-described and under-represented in insect conservation efforts [4-6]. As such, more effort to find and describe the ecology and unique biology of new parasitoid species is needed to better understand the pattern and scope of biodiversity on earth.

Island species groups have been attractive systems for the study of speciation events and adaptive radiations since as far back as Darwin (1859), who recognized the immense number of endemic species on archipelago chains. Island archipelagos offer unique opportunities to study peripatric speciation following discrete patterns of colonization between single islands in an archipelago chain [7]. *Drosophila* species groups have been of particular interest for studying patterns of island colonization and speciation. Indeed, the Hawaiian *Drosophila* group represents one of the most well studied examples of island radiations – home to at least 500 species and research spanning decades [8-10]. While Hawaiian *Drosophila* are the most intensely studied group, several other island clades of *Drosophila* have received research attention (e.g., *sechellia-simulans* [11, 12]). Another such clade is the *D. dunni* group – a subgroup of the larger *D. cardini* group that is endemic to the Caribbean islands, particularly the Lesser Antilles [13, 14]. This subgroup is characterized by species or subspecies with distinct abdominal pigmentation endemic to just one or two major islands in this archipelago – frequently just 25-50 km apart. As such, this group represents an excellent model for the study of peripatric speciation and morphological evolution across archipelagos [12, 14]. Despite years of appreciation for the *dunni* group as a model, little is known about the parasitoid complex of these Caribbean flies.

To better understand the ecology of *dunni* group *Drosophila,* and to investigate their potential parasitoids,

we (JSD, SEM, WDT) conducted an expedition to the islands of the Lesser Antilles February through May

of 2019. We traveled among the islands aboard the sailing vessel Sea Salt (a 42-foot Fountaine Pajot

Catamaran) which also served as a mobile laboratory. We describe here results with collected flies and

associated parasitoids from the island of Saint Lucia. Other results of our expedition will be described

elsewhere. We describe a new species of *Drosophila* parasitoid: *Leptopilina n. sp.* Buffington, Lue, Davis

& Tracey sp. nov. (Hymenoptera: Figitidae). *Leptopilina n. sp.* appears to be endemic to the Lesser

Antilles and we find that it has high virulence against *dunni* group flies, particularly *Drosophila antillea*

also collected on Saint Lucia. To our knowledge, this is the first host-parasitoid association recorded for

*cardini* and *dunni* group *Drosophila.* We find that the wasps reproduce via thelytokous parthenogenesis

(the asexual reproduction of females) and that this is caused by infection with a bacterium: a

parthenogenesis-inducing *Wolbachia* symbiont. We report *de novo* genome assemblies for *Leptopilina n.*

*sp.* and its *Wolbachia* strain, hereinafter "*w*Lmal". *Leptopilina n. sp.* has the largest *Leptopilina* genome

reported to-date (~1Gbp) and will serve as a useful resource for understanding the evolution of

*Drosophila-Leptopilina* relationships in the Caribbean islands, island speciation events, and parasitoid

genome evolution more broadly.

**METHODS**

**Collection: Field sites and field rearing**

After sailing from Wallliabou Bay of Saint Vincent and the Grenadines, we moored the research vessel

and operated out of Soufrière and Marigot Bays of Saint Lucia. Verbal permission for collection of

*Drosophila* and their parasitoids was obtained in a February 2019 meeting with Dr. Hannah Romain of the

Saint Lucia Ministry of Agriculture. Sampling was conducted in 2019 on Saint Lucia and leveraged baited

trapping with either banana or calabasa, a locally available cucurbit fruit (likely *Cucurbita moschata*).

Calabasa and banana traps contained chopped fruit mixed with water and baker's yeast that had been

kept in a closed bucket for one or more days to ferment. The Calabasa bait was chosen based on

communication with Hope Hollecher who found it to be particularly attractive to *dunni* group *Drosophila.*

Traps were set at two separate sites from which flies and wasps in this study derive. The first site, known

as STL3 was placed on 24 February 2019 with a total of 2 calabasa traps on a short trail leading off the

main road near Ladera resort and Hotel Chocolat (GPS: lat 13.83, lon -61.05, elevation 289.6m, Figure

1). The second site, known as STL6 was placed on 26 February 2019 with a total of eight traps (5

calabasa, 3 banana) along Barre d'Isle trail (GPS: lat 13.924, lon -60.959, elevation 308.7m, Figure 1).

Each trapping site was checked daily for three days and insects were collected off the fruit each time.

Flies were collected using either cardboard mailing tubes for vertical trapping or mouth aspiration, and

wasps were collected by mouth aspiration while they searched for larvae in the bait.

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**Figure 1. Collections on Saint Lucia: field notebook entry from JSD on 1 March 2019:** "*...a 40-*
*minute brisk hike, in which I found 0 wasps in the traps - [bummer]. Until I remembered I had set out one*
*more trap off the path a little that I had not checked yet. And [nevertheless], my lucky [telson] finds the*
*wasp we needed sitting in this cup. I managed to nab it and was pretty excited leaving here.*" **(A)** Map of
Saint Lucia (GoogleMaps 2023), annotated with (1) locations of the STL3 and STL6 trap placements, (2)
the route and mooring locations (Soufrière in the south, and Marigot in the north) of the Sea Salt, and (3)
Malgretoute: the location of the La Soufrière Volcano. **(B)** The STL6 calabasa trap. **(C)** The inside of a
calabasa trap.

**Collection: Colony establishment and maintenance**

After collection, flies and wasps were transferred to individual rearing vials with instant fly media (Formula

4-24® Instant Drosophila Medium, Blue; Carolina Biological Supply Company). Isofemale lines of

*Drosophila antillea* and *Drosophila willistoni*, were initiated using flies collected at STL3 (see results). A

single wasp was collected from STL6 and was left in a vial with developing STL3 *Drosophila willistoni*

larvae. This vial was then shipped back to Indiana University Bloomington under USDA APHIS

Importation Permit Number P526P-19-01355. Since 2019, wasps have been maintained continuously on

host cultures of *D. willistoni* on Bloomington fly food medium and further reared in IU USDA regulated

containment facility number 5035.

**Taxonomy: Imaging**

Voucher specimens were sent to two of us (CHL and MB) for identification. These specimens were

compared with specimens deposited in the USNM as well as those on loan from Goran Nordlander

(Uppsala Agricultural University, retired). Additionally, notes from Yves Carton were shared with MB, and

his work with G. Nordlander in the mid 1980's. These notes revealed an undescribed *Leptopilina* from

Guadeloupe that matched the species described herein. We are therefore including these older

specimens in the description. Images were acquired using a Hitachi 3000 desktop Scanning Electron

Microscope (SEM), after a 120nm coating of Au-Pd from a Cressington sputter-coater. Light micrographs

were shot using a Macropod 3D Pro camera setup. All type specimens collected in this study are housed

in the USNM (registration numbers below); additional types, examined by G. Nordlander, reside in the

Uppsala Agricultural University collection overseen by G. Nordander. Terminology for these descriptions

follows Lue et al. (2016) [15].

**Taxonomy: Systematics of *Leptopilina***

Lue et al. (2016) [15] provided a detailed description on the species limits of *Leptopilina*. Species in this

genus are common throughout the Holarctic Region and have recently been investigated for their

biological control potential of pestiferous Drosophilidae [16, 17]. Some 29 species are currently

recognized worldwide [15]. While most described species are endemic to the Holarctic Region, many

undescribed species remain in collections, awaiting description. A relatively common trait among

Neotropical *Leptopilina* are polychromatic antennal segments, specifically black/brown, cream, and

orange-colored segments. These traits are either rare, or wholly missing, from the Paleotropics and

Australia (Buffington, Lue, pers. obsv.). This is mentioned here as the new species, herein described, has

rather unique color patterns among the antennal segments. This character makes this species relatively

straightforward to diagnose from other *Leptopilina*.

**Biology: Virulence assessment**

To test the virulence of *Leptopilina n. sp.* on *Drosophila* host species, infection vials were established at a

wasp-to-larvae ratio of 1:10 (typically 5 female wasps and 50 drosophila larvae). Two isofemale lines from

two *Drosophila* species that were collected from the island of Saint Lucia were assessed: *Drosophila*

*willistoni* (line STL3 iso3) and *Drosophila antillea* (line STL3 iso1). To collect the age-matched larvae, 20-

30 male and female adult flies were placed in embryo collection cages. The embryo collection plates (60

x 15mm) contained 5mL of *Drosophila* banana food medium (Archon Scientific) and a small amount of

yeast paste (active dry yeast mixed with water). The embryo collection cages were maintained in an

incubator set at 25°C and 75% humidity on a 12h/12h light/dark cycle. Embryos from a restricted 12-hour

egg-laying window were allowed to develop in the incubator for 3 days until they reached the size of $2^{nd}$

instar larvae. Larvae were carefully gently collected using extreme caution so as to not damage them.

Fifty larvae were placed into individual vials containing *Drosophila* banana food and a small cotton dental

plug that was inserted into the center of the food. The cotton plug was necessary to provide a place for

pupariation for the *D. antillea* species (which avoids pupariation on the side of the culture vials). Five

naïve *Leptopilina n. sp.* female wasps were placed into each infection vial and were allowed to infect the

larvae for 24 hours. During the infection period, the vials were closed with Flugs (Genesee Scientific

cat.no.49-102) dampened with honey and water (1:1 mixture) to ensure that the wasps had access to

food. After the infection period, the wasps were removed, and the vials were incubated as described

above. Uninfected mock control vials were treated in the same way but were not exposed to wasps. The

vials were assessed daily for the emergence of adult insects. Adult flies eclosed after 10-14 days, and

adult wasps eclosed after 25-30 days. Any newly eclosed adult flies and wasps were counted and

removed from the vials. The difference between the total number of adults and the initial number of larvae

in each vial accounts for larval mortality.

**Biology: Western blots for *Wolbachia* detection**

Active *Wolbachia* infection was assessed with western blot following published protocols [18]. Positive

and negative controls included individual *Drosophila melanogaster* from previously validated *Wolbachia*-

infected and -uninfected stocks (RRID: BDSC_145) [19]. Individual insects were homogenized with a

pestle in 1.7 ml microcentrifuge tubes containing lysis buffer (150mM NaCl, 1% Triton X-100, 50mM

TrisHCl (pH8) containing HALT protease inhibitor cocktail (Thermo Scientific) and 5 mM EDTA).

Homogenates were pelleted via centrifugation (8,000Xg for 1 minute) and the supernatant was incubated

for 5 minutes at 95°C in Laemmli sample buffer with 5% β-mercaptoethanol (Bio-Rad). Proteins were

separated via SDS-PAGE on 4–20% Tris-Glycine gels (NuSep) in 1X Tris/Glycine/SDS running buffer

(Bio-Rad) alongside a PageRuler prestained protein ladder (Thermo Scientific), transferred to a PVDF

membrane in Tris-Glycine transfer buffer with 15% methanol for 3 hours at 40v, and blocked for 5 minutes

in Starting Block T20 (Thermo Scientific). The membrane was co-incubated in primary antibodies

overnight at 4°C. After washing, the blot was incubated with the secondary antibody anti-mouse:HRP

(Invitrogen) at 1:5000. Finally, HRP was detected with SuperSignal West Pico Chemiluminescent

Substrate (Thermo Scientific). Primary antibodies included (1) mouse monoclonal Anti-Wolbachia Surface

Protein (WSP), NR-31029 from BEI Resources, NIAID, NIH at 1:10,000, and (2) mouse anti-actin

monoclonal at 1:20,000 (Seven Hills Bioreagents) as a loading control.

**Biology: Determining reproductive mode**

To test whether the observed parthenogenesis was induced by infection with a bacterial symbiont,

*Leptopilina n. sp.* female wasps were fed with the antibiotic rifampicin mixed into honey (100 mg of

rifampicin powder (Sigma-Aldrich cat.no. R3501-250MG) with 1 mL of honey) and reproductive biology

was assessed following standard protocols [20]. To feed the wasps, a Flug was dipped into water to

dampen one side, onto which a small amount of the rifampicin-honey mixture was spread (approx. 10-20

μL). A fresh Flug with rifampicin-honey was replaced once a day for six days. To prepare vials of fly

larvae, adult *Drosophila* were allowed to seed vials for 5 days, after which the adults were removed. After

the six days of rifampicin treatment, the treated wasps were placed into the vials with fly larvae and

allowed to infect as many larvae as possible. Wasp offspring eclosed after 25-30 days and all female and

male offspring were collected and counted. Rifampicin treatment trials were performed with larval hosts

from fly species that were collected on the island of Saint Lucia, either *D. melanogaster* or *D. willistoni*.

Regardless of the host species, the sex ratio of the wasp offspring in each generation was always almost

all female or almost all male (see results, Figure 5), and therefore the data from the trials with different

host species were combined. The treatment conditions of each generation were as follows: $G_1$ unmated

females received 6 days of rifampicin treatment. The $G_2$ offspring were almost all female and also

received 6 days of rifampicin treatment, after which they produced $F_0$ offspring. In order to cross

*Wolbachia* depleted males and females together, a separate generation of $G_1$ females was treated with

rifampicin to produce $G_2$ females that would eclose at the same time as the $F_0$ males. These $G_2$ females

then received 6 days of rifampicin treatment and were then mated to $F_0$ males. Subsequent generations

($F_1$ - $F_5$) were sexed and propagated by attempting sibling mating (when possible, see results) without

further rifampicin treatments.

**Genomics: Oxford Nanopore library preparation and sequencing**

DNA was extracted from a pool of ~100 adult female wasps using a Gentra PureGene Tissue Kit

(Qiagen). 3 ug of DNA was end prepped using NEBNext FFPE Repair Mix (M6630), NEBNext Ultra II End

repair/dA-tailing Module (E7546), and NEBNext Quick Ligation Module (E6056) and subsequently library

prepped using the ONT supplied SQK- LSK110 kit. Sequencing took place on an Oxford Nanopore

Minion over 3 days with nuclease wash followed by reloading after 24 hours. The sequencing computer

was built with an AMD Ryzen 3900x processor with 12 threads, 24 cores, 64 Gb RAM and a 1 Tb SSD,

and a GeForce 2080Ti with 4352 CUDA cores running Ubuntu Linux 20.04. We monitored the CUDA

cores with nvtop (https://github.com/Syllo/nvtop). Fastq files were generated from the Oxford Nanopore

Minion instrument and called with Guppy v6.1.5. We used the GPU enabled version of guppy in concert

to enable live basecalling with the fast base calling model and for post-hoc base calling with the super

(sup) accuracy model called via Minknow v22.05.5. All resulting fastq.gz files were concatenated and

used for further processing.

**Genomics: Illumina sequencing**

Total DNA was extracted from a pool of ten adult wasps using the DNeasy blood and tissue kit (Qiagen).

Sequencing library preparation was performed with the NEBNext Ultra II DNA library preparation kit (New

England Biolabs) according to the manufacturer's protocols including 10 cycles of PCR amplification. The

resulting library was subjected to 150-bp paired-end sequencing on the Illumina NextSeq 500 platform at

the Indiana University Center for Genomics and Bioinformatics (Bloomington, IN) to generate

181,561,108 read pairs. To aid in gene annotation we also sequenced wasp transcriptomes. Total RNA

was extracted from a flash-frozen, mixed stage pool of 10 wasps (adults, pupae, larvae) using the

Monarch® Total RNA Miniprep Kit (New England Biolabs) including the DNase treatment step. An RNA-

Seq library was prepared with the Illumina TruSeq Stranded mRNA Library Prep Kit, including rRNA

removal with oligo-dT beads, and sequenced on a NovaSeq with S4 chemistry at the University of

Minnesota Genomics Center to generate 64,677,726 150-bp paired-end reads.

**Genomics: Nuclear genome assembly, curation, and quality control**

All reads greater than 5kb were filtered with SeqKit v2.5.1 [21], assembled with Flye v2.9 [22], and the

assembly was polished with Medaka v1.5.0 (https://github.com/nanoporetech/medaka). Haplotigs were

purged with PurgeHaplotigs v1.1.2 [23]. Pilon v.122 [23] was used for polishing: first WGS Illumina reads

were mapped to the long-read assembly with bwa v0.7.17 [24], alignment files were converted and sorted

with samtools v1.10 [25], and finally pilon was called for polishing to generate an updated assembly. Four

rounds of pilon polishing were performed, each time mapping the short reads to the most recent pilon

output prior to pilon correction. Manual curation of the assembly and identification of cytoplasmic

genomes was informed by results derived from running blobtools [26]. We discarded contigs that were

deemed anomalous for the following reasons: (1) less than 5,000 bp in length with no BUSCOs (because

>5k reads were used during assembly, these are very likely to be chimeric and/or haplotigs), or, (2)

having blast hits to non-arthropod taxa across the length of the contig, unusual sequencing

coverage(<15X; >800X), and unusual GC content (outside of 23-33%). Finally, we checked the previously

purged contigs and recovered those that appeared to encode for *Leptopilina* rRNAs. Assemblies were

assessed with BUSCO v.5.3.2 [27] against the hymenoptera_odb10 database in genome mode ('-m

genome').

**Genomics: Methylation**

Nanopore runs were base called with guppy v6.3.8 using model

"dna_r9.4.1_450bps_modbases_5mc_cg_sup" to call 5-methylcytosines in a CpG context only. Aligned

bam reads containing modified base information were converted into bed format with modbam2bed, with

strict parameters on canonical and modified base probabilities where bases are only called as canonical

or modified if they have a greater than 95% probability estimate. Parameters: modbam2bed -m 5mC -t 32

-e -p total.modmapped --aggregate --cpg dtwasp-final-curated.fa total.modmapped.bam -a 0.05 -b 0.95 >

total.modmapped.bed". Global methylation was calculated by an awk script.

**Genomics: Mitogenome**

Mitogenome annotation with MITOS2 [28] and manual rearrangement to start the circular mitogenome at

Cox1 (as is convention) was done as in [29]. MITOS2 parameters included the RefSeq 63 Metazoa

reference and the invertebrate mitochondrial translation code. Manual curation was facilitated by

comparison to published mitochondrial genomes from *Leptopilina boulardi* (KU665622.1) and *Leptopilina*

*syphax* (MT649407.1). A phylogeny of *Leptopilina* was constructed based on COX1 ("COI") sequences

available from the DROP database [3]. A subset of the available *Leptopilina* sequences were selected

based on (1) sampling across the genus, (2) limiting the total number of sequences for any given species,

(3) length of the barcoding region sequenced, and (4) checking for open reading frame. In total 55

sequences were used for phylogenetic reconstruction. These include an outgroup (*Ganaspis kimorum*),

previously sequenced barcodes for the *Leptopilina n. sp.* STL6 colony [3], and the COI sequence derived

from the mitogenome assembly. Nucleotide sequences were aligned with MAFFT v7.511 [30] using the L-

INS-i alignment algorithm and a five point gap open penalty (-op 5). Comparison to the translated amino

acid alignment verified that codon relationships were maintained and we did not need to back-translate an

amino acid alignment. Ends of the nucleotide alignment were trimmed such that all sequences were

represented at all positions. Phylogenetic reconstruction was then performed with IQtree v1.6.11 [31]

using a pre-analysis model optimization step to select the final model (here, TIM3+F+I+G4) plus 1000

"ultrafast" bootstraps.

**Genomics: Repeat identification**

Repetitive DNA content was estimated using RepeatModeler2 [32] using the curated Dfam database

release 3.5 July 2021 [33], combined with the Repbase RepeatMasker database downloaded on October

26, 2018. RepeatMasker was run with the newly identified library to annotate the assembly with the

following parameters: RepeatMasker v4.1.2-pl -pa 24 -s [sensitive mode] [using rmblast 2.11.0+] -lib

ultimatefamilies.fa ultimateGenome.fasta. Each repeat library was also mapped against all other species

genomes with the following parameters: RepeatMasker v4.1.2-pl -pa 24 -s [sensitive mode] [using rmblast

2.11.0+] -lib families.fa genome.fasta.

**Genomics: Gene annotation and ortholog clustering**

Gene models were predicted with GeMoMa v1.9 [34] and leveraged three lines of evidence: (1) RefSeq

annotations for *Leptopilina heterotoma* (GCF_015476425.1) (2) RefSeq annotations for *Leptopilina*

*boulardi* (GCF_019393585.1) and (3) RNA-seq reads derived from the mixed pool of wasps. RNA-seq

reads were mapped to a hard masked version of the reference genome using STAR v2.5.3a [35].

GeMoMa was called with the following additional parameters: tblastn=TRUE, AnnotationFinalizer.n=false,

AnnotationFinalizer.r=SIMPLE, AnnotationFinalizer.t=true, AnnotationFinalizer.p=LMAL, pc=true, o=true.

To generate annotations for *Leptopilina clavipes* and *Ganaspis kimorum*, we ran the same annotation

pipeline on hard-masked assemblies, only without the RNA-seq data. Protein sequences from each

genome were clustered into orthologous groups using OrthoFinder v.2.5.4 [36]. For genes represented by

multiple transcript variants, only the longest isoform was used in clustering.

**Genomics: *Wolbachia* genome**

A single contig was identified to be a *Wolbachia* genome, based on size, circularity, and Blobtools results.

Genome completeness was assessed with BUSCO v5.3.2 [27] against the rickettsiales_odb10 database

in genome mode ('-m genome'). Genome annotation and phylogenetics were performed by running the

*Wolbachia* Phylogeny Pipeline (WHOP; https://github.com/gerthmicha/WHOP [37]). In brief, the pipeline

takes a provided database of bacterial genomes (*Wolbachia* strains and Rickettsiales outgroups) plus

additional genomes provided by the user, annotates them with Prokka v1.14.6 [38], clusters protein

sequences into orthogroups with OrthoFinder v2.5.4 [36], aligns the single-copy orthologs with MAFFT L-

INS-i v7.487 [30], removes recombining genes with PhiPack v1.1 [39], and then concatenates the

alignments prior to phylogenetic reconstruction with IQtree v2.2.3 [31]. IQtree was first run with a pre-

analysis model optimization step (-m LG+I+G4 -pre -redo -fast), followed by final reconstruction with the

selected model and 1000 bootstrap replicates. The *w*Lmal genome was re-oriented to start at *dnaA* and

proksee (https://proksee.ca/ [40]) was used for visualization. Prophage regions were identified with

VirSorter2 v.2.2.4 [41], and Phigaro v.2.3.0 [42], and other mobile elements were identified with

mobileOG-db v.1.0.1 [43], all implemented in proksee with default parameters. To aid in manual

annotation of *w*Lmal we leveraged the orthogroup relationships between *w*Lmal and *w*Mel generated by

WHOP to check for specific proteins. Additionally, we used blastp and tblastn with default parameters to

query against the protein sequences or genome, respectively, for a select number of functionally relevant

*Wolbachia* proteins not found in *w*Mel. All manual annotation queries and matches are in Supplemental

Tables S5-6.

**Data visualization**

Data visualization was carried out in R version 4.1.3 [44] and leveraged Paul Tol's "Medium-contrast

qualitative colour scheme", (R: khroma [45]). Newick files from phylogenetic reconstructions were

visualized in FigTree v1.4.4 (https://github.com/rambaut/figtree/) and annotated in Inkscape. Proksee

(https://proksee.ca/ [40]) was used for genome visualization, and the r package 'gggenes' v.0.5.1 was

used to plot gene models.

**RESULTS**

**Collections on Saint Lucia**

Banana and calabasa fruit traps were used to collect *Drosophila* and their associates on Saint Lucia in

2019. The calabasa traps at STL3 yielded six female *Drosophila antillea* and one female *Drosophila*

*willistoni.* Isofemale lines of *D. antillea* and *D. willistoni* were established from single females that

originated from the STL3 collection site. At site STL6, banana traps contained a total of 12 *melanogaster*-

like flies and 1 *repleta* group fly. Calabasa traps contained 4 *melanogaster*-like flies, 4 *repleta* group flies

and 20 *dunni*-group flies. Wasp "STL6" was collected from a calabasa trap on the morning of 1 March

2019: a clear day with a high temperature of 27C (Figure 1). The STL6 wasp was placed in a vial with

developing *Drosophila willistoni* (from the STL3 site, see above) to initiate a culture, and then shipped

back to Indiana University where they have been maintained since (see methods).

*Leptopilina n. sp.* **Buffington, Lue, Davis & Tracey sp. nov.**

**Species Diagnosis**. *Leptopilina n. sp.* is distinguishable from other *Leptopilina* species by a number of

characters, including: flagellomere colors, in which F1-F4 are honey-brown, F5-F10 are dark brown, and

F11 is yellow (Figure 2A); the typical flagellomere color in *Leptopilina* do not match the unique

combination here. Latero-posterior margin of pronotal plate is with elongate, golden setae that reach the

anterior margin of the mesoscutum (Figure 2B (LM) and Figure 3A-B (SEM)). No other known *Leptopilina*

have setae so long off the pronotal plate (Figure 2B); other species have hairs here, but not so long.

Members of the *clavipes* group *sensu* [15] tend to also have sparse, scattered setae over the

mesoscutum, whereas *Leptopilina n. sp.* is entirely glabrous (Figure 3A-B).

**Morphological Description**

Coloration with head, mesosoma, metasoma black to dark brown, legs light brown. Sculpture on vertex,

lateral surface of pronotum and mesoscutum absent, surface smooth.

*Antenna*. Female antenna composed of scape, pecidel, 11 flagellomeres (F1-F11). F1-F4 sub-

cylinderical, slightly expanded distally, smooth, non-claval segments. F5-F11 claval segments, abruptly

broader than non-claval segments, distinctly barrel-shaped, with slightly more erect, dense setae; claval

segments with placoidal sensillae distributed evenly around each segment. Single campaniform sensillae

present ventro-apically on F6-F10 (arrow, Figure 3C; compare to Figure 3D). Articulation between

flagellomeres in antenna moniliform, segments distinctly separated by narrow neck-like articulation. Male

antenna composed of 13 flagellomeres, F1 as long as F2, slightly curved and excavated distally;

campaniform sensillae on all flagellomeres.

*Head*. In anterior view, broadly triangular. Pubescence on head sparse, single setae scattered over face.

Sculpture along lateral margin of occiput absent. Gena (measured from compound eye to posterolateral

margin of head) short, ratio of length of gena to length of compound eye in dorsal view <0.3. Sculpture of

gena absent, smooth. Lateral margin of occiput evenly rounded, not well defined. Occiput (except

extreme lateral margin) smooth. Carina issuing from lateral margin of postocciput absent. Ocelli small,

ratio of maximum diameter of a lateral ocellus to shortest distance between lateral ocelli 0.2-0.4. Anterior

ocellus far from posterior ocelli, clearly separate anterior ocellus to anterior margins of posterior ocelli.

Relative position of antennal sockets intermediate, ratio of vertical distance between inner margin of

antennal foramen and ventral margin of clypeus to vertical distance between anterior ocellus and

antennal rim 2.0-4.0. Median keel absent. Vertical carina adjacent to ventral margin of antennal socket

absent; facial sculpture absent, surface smooth. Facial impression absent, face flat. Antennal scrobe

absent. Anterior tentorial pits small. Vertical delineations on lower face absent. Ventral clypeal margin

laterally, close to anterior mandibular articulation, straight. Ventral clypeal margin medially straight, flat,

with 4-6 setae overhanging base of mandibles. Clypeus smooth. Malar space adjacent to anterior

articulation of mandible evenly rounded, smooth. Malar sulcus present, composed of single groove. Eye

removed from lateral ocelli, ratio of distance between compound eye and posterior mandibular articulation

to distance between posterior ocellus and compound eye <1.2. Compound eyes, in dorsal view,

moderately protruding from the surface of the head. Pubescence on compound eyes absent. Orbital

furrows absent. Lateral frontal carina of face absent. Dorsal, posterior aspect of vertex smooth. Hair

punctures on lateral aspect of vertex absent. Posterior surface of head deeply impressed around

postocciput.

*Mouthparts*. Apical segment of maxillary palp with pubescence, consisting of one long erect setae. Apical

seta on apical segment of maxillary palp longer than twice length of second longest apical seta. Maxillary

palp composed of four segments. Last two segments of maxillary palp (in normal repose) straight. Apical

segment of maxillary palp about 1.5 times as long as preceding segment. Left mandible with three teeth;

scattered setae dorsally.

*Mesosoma.* Long auburn-golden setae present, originating from anterior inflection of pronotum, extending

to anterior margin of mesoscutum; rest of pronotum glabrous (Figure 3A-B). Anteroventral inflection of

pronotum narrow. Pubescence on lateral surface of pronotum absent. No ridges present posterior to

pronotal plate. Anterior flange of pronotal plate distinctly protruding anteriorly, completely smooth. Ridges

extending posteriorly from lateral margin of pronotal plate absent. Lateral pronotal carina absent. Crest of

pronotal plate absent. Dorsal margin of pronotal plate (in anterior view) spatulate. Submedian pronotal

depressions open laterally, deep. Lateral margin of pronotal plate defined all the way to the dorsal margin

of the pronotum. Width of pronotal plate narrow, not nearly as wide as head.

Mesoscutal surface convex, evenly curved. Sculpture on mesoscutum absent, entire surface smooth,

shiny, with sparse long hairs. Notauli absent. Median mesoscutal carina absent. Anterior admedial lines

absent. Median mesoscutal impression absent. Parascutal carina nearly straight.

Mesopleuron entirely smooth. Subpleuron entirely smooth, glabrous. Lower pleuron entirely smooth,

glabrous. Epicnemial carina absent. Lateroventral mesopleural carina present, marking abrupt change of

slope of mesopectus. Mesopleural triangle absent. Subalar pit not visible. Speculum absent. Mesopleural

carina present, complete, composed of one complete, uninterrupted carina. Anterior end of mesopleural

carina inserting above notch in anterior margin of mesopleuron; posterior end terminates at setal pit of

lower metapleuron.

Dorsal surface of scutellum foveate-areolet (Figure 3E). Circumscutellar carina present, complete,

delimiting dorsal and ventral halves of scutellum. Posterior margin of axillula marked by distinct ledge,

axillula distinctly impressed adjacent to ledge. Latero-ventral margin of scutellum, posterior to axillula,

weakly rugulose. Dorsoposterior part of scutellum rounded. Transverse median carina on scutellar plate

absent. Dorsal part of scutellum entirely areolate. Scutellar plate, in dorsal view, medium sized, exposing

about half of scutellum, gently foveate with three to four single setae; glandular release pit at posterior

end, oval. Scutellar fovea present, two, distinctly margined posteriorly, smooth. Longitudinal scutellar

carinae absent. Single longitudinal carina separating scutellar foveae present, elongage, ending past

posterior margin of foveae, gently expanding into teardrop-shaped scutellar plate. Postero-lateral margin

of scutellum rounded. Lateral bar smooth, narrow.

Posterior impression of metepimeron absent. Metapectal cavity anterodorsal to metacoxal base present,

well-defined (Figure 3F, arrow A). Anterior margin of metapectal-propodeal complex meeting

mesopleuron at same level at point corresponding to anterior end of metapleural carina. Posteroventral

corner of metapleuron (in lateral view) not extended posteriorly. Anterior impression of metepimeron

absent. Posterior margin of metepimeron distinct, separating metepimeron from propodeum, with distinct

ridge (Figure 3F, arrow B). Anteroventral setal pit of lower metapleuron present, with foamy setae.

Subalar area broadened anteriorly, narrowed posteriorly. Prespiracular process present, blunt, lobe-like,

polished, at end of polished prespiracular groove; posteroventral corner of prespiracular groove extended

to distinct lobe. Dorsellum absent. Anterior impression of metepisternum, immediately beneath anterior

end of metapleural carina, present. Pubescence consisting of few hairs on posterior part of

metepisternum, few sparse hairs on propodeum, but with distinct posterior swatch of foamy setae at

midline of metapleuron.

Pubescence posterolaterally on metacoxae sparse, with a single postero-dorsal button of dense

pubescence. Microsculpture on hind coxa absent. Longitudinal ridge on the posterior surface of metatibia

absent. Metafemoral tooth present, elongate, with adjacent serrate ridge posteriorly. Ratio of first

metatarsal segment to remaining 4 segments less than 10; metatarsus 5 distinctly elongate relative to 2

through 4.

Wing vein M absent. Pubescence of fore wing present, long, moderately dense on most of surface. Apical

margin of female fore wing rounded. Rs+M of forewing defined but nebulous at point of origin from basal

vein at posterior third. Mesal end of Rs+M vein situated closer to anterior margin of wing, directed

towards middle of basalis. Vein R1 forming marginal cell completely. Basal abscissa of R1 (the abscissa

between 2r and the wing margin) of fore wing as broad as adjacent wing veins. Coloration of wing absent,

entire wing hyaline. Marginal cell of fore wing membranous, similar to other wing cells. Areolet absent.

Hair fringe along apical margin of fore wing present, long or very long (Figure 2C).

Propodeal spurs absent. Lateral propodeal carinae present, not reaching scutellum. Ventral end of lateral

propodeal carina reaching nucha, carinae separated from each other, elbowed at midpoint, not parallel.

Inter propodeal carinae space lightly setose, underlying surface appearing smooth. Petiolar rim of uniform

width along entire circumference. Petiolar foramen removed from metacoxae, directed posteriorly.

Horizontal carina running anteriorly from lateral propodeal carina absent, moderately setose. Calyptra, in

lateral view, rounded. Propodeum not strongly drawn out posteriorly. Calyptra, in posterior view,

dorsoventrally elongate or rounded.

*Metasoma.* Petiole about as long as wide. Surface of petiole longitudinally costate, ventral keel absent.

Posterior part of female petiole abruptly widened. Ventral and lateral parts of petiolar rim broad.

Setal band (hairy ring) at base of tergum 3 present, interrupted dorsally, ventrally. Tergum 3 indistinct,

fused with syntergum. Posterior margin of tergum 3 indistinct, fused with tergum 4 in syntergum. Posterior

margin of tergum 4 evenly rounded. Sternum 3 encompassed by syntergum. Sculpture on metasomal

terga absent. Syntergum present with terga 3 to 5 fused, ventral margin rounded. Peglike setae on T6-T7

absent. Postero-ventral cavities of female metasoma T7 present, glabrous save for few, long setae.

Female postero-ventral margin of T6-T7 straight, parallel. Terebrum and hypopygium (in lateral view)

curved, pointing upward. Ovipositor clip present.

**Etymology**. The species epithet refers to locations on Saint Lucia: Malgretoute, a town near the island's

active volcano, and the near-by Malgretoute Beach, from which the iconic Saint Lucia Pitons are visible.

**Material examined. Holotype:** Female. Saint Lucia, Barr d'Isle trail, central. lat 13.924, long -60.959,

elevation 308.7m. 17.II.2019, Jeremy S. Davis, collected from calabasa bait trap. USNMENT01025555.

[1] Actual specimen taken from Indiana University colony derived from the above collection locality.

**Paratypes:** 9 females, 3 males. Same collection data as holotype. USNMENT01557161,

USNMENT01025556, USNMENT01025557, USNMENT01025554, USNMENT01557162,

USNMENT01557158, USNMENT01448469, USNMENT01448467, USNMENT01932975-

USNMENT01932978.

**Other material examined**. 8 females. INRA laboratory, Petit Bourg, Guadeloupe, January 1982. Carton,

coll. USNMENT01025775-USNMENT01025782

502
503 **Figure 2.** *Leptopilina n. sp..* **(A)** Lateral view, **(B)** lateral view of mesosoma, and **(C)** wing vein pattern.

504
505 **Figure 3. SEM images of *Leptopilina n. sp..* (A)** Top view of mesoscutum, **(B)** Lateral-posterior view of
506 mesosoma, **(C)** campaniform sensillae, white arrow, compared to **(D)** no campaniform sensillae, **(E)**
507 scutellum plate, and **(F)** metepimeron.
508

***Leptopilina n. sp.* is highly virulent on *D. antillea* flies**

As noted extensively above, our laboratory cultures of *Leptopilina n. sp.* were collected on Saint Lucia.

This island is also the only reported location for the *Drosophila antillea* species of the dunni subgroup. To

our knowledge, the susceptibility of dunni group *Drosophila* to parasitoid wasps has not been previously

investigated. Thus, we wondered if the *D. antillea* flies would be susceptible, or if they were possibly

resistant, to infection by a wasp species that is also found on Saint Lucia. We allowed female wasps to

oviposit for 24 hours on larval cultures that were derived from isofemale lines of either *D. antillea* or *D.*

*willistoni* (that both originated from the STL3 collection site) and then determined the proportion of wasps

and flies that emerged from the infection vials. The results clearly indicated a high degree of virulence of

*Leptopilina n. sp.* on *D. antillea* (76.5% ± 5.6% wasp eclosion) relative to *D. willistoni* (20% ± 3.8% wasp

eclosion) as host species (Figure 4)*.*

**Figure 4. *Leptopilina n. sp.* shows high virulence on a host fly species that is exclusive to Saint Lucia.** Percentage of adult flies and wasps that eclosed from vials infected by *Leptopilina n. sp.,* and from uninfected control vials. Mortality represents the percentage of larvae that did not develop to adulthood. *L. mal.* is clearly more virulent on *Drosophila antillea* ("D. ant") hosts than on a *Drosophila willistoni* ("D. wil") host strain that was also collected on Saint Lucia. Data are plotted as mean ± SEM; n = 8 infection vials, n = 3 uninfected control vials.

### *Wolbachia* mediates obligate thelytokous parthenogenesis in *Leptopilina n. sp.*

While maintaining *Leptopilina n. sp.* wasp lines we noticed that the cultures were primarily female (>95%).

And, in one generation of passaging, the cultures became entirely female. Fearing that we would lose the

culture, we infected flies with these female wasps in an attempt to obtain haploid male offspring that could

be mated back to their mothers to obtain more diploid females. However, the cultures generated by the

virgin female wasps were again entirely female. This indicated that this species of wasp was capable of

asexually producing females (*i.e.*, thelytokous parthenogenesis). Furthermore, the observation that males

were rarely obtained in the cultures was unlikely to be strictly a consequence of the wasps having

especially high rates of fertilization (which gives rise to female offspring in arrhenotokous, sexual,

haplodiploids). In many parasitic wasp species, including a suite of other *Leptopilina sp.*, thelytokous

parthenogenesis is mediated by vertically transmitted bacterial symbionts such as *Wolbachia* (α-

proteobacteria: Rickettsiales) [46-48]. We tested for the presence of *Wolbachia* infection by Western blot,

targeting a *Wolbachia* specific protein and found that indeed the wasps were infected with this microbe

(Supplemental Figure S1).

To determine if a microbe was responsible for the asexual production of females, we used antibiotic

treatment with rifampicin to remove the infection and assess changes in the offspring sex ratio derived

from unmated females (Figure 5A). After treating unmated adult females ($G_1$) with rifampicin, they were

allowed to parasitize host larvae. Their broods ($G_2$) were almost entirely female (98.6% ± 2.6% female).

Critically, *Leptopilina* are largely proovigenic: all their eggs develop and mature during the pupal period

[49]. This means that symbiont-mediated effects are likely established much earlier, and treating adults is

"too late" (as has been seen in other wasps [50]). Thus, we performed a second generation of rifampicin

treatment: $G_2$ rifampicin-treated females produced offspring ($F_0$) that were almost all male (99.7% ± 0.3%

male), a clear indicator of symbiont-mediated parthenogenesis.

We attempted to generate a symbiont-free sexually reproducing line of wasps (Figure 5B) but were

unsuccessful. Specifically, symbiont depleted males and treated $G_2$ females were crossed to assess

sexual reproduction, but offspring continued to be almost all male ($F_1$-$F_2$, 91.2% ± 1.5% and 98.5% ±

0.6% male, respectively), indicating no sexual reproduction (Figure 5C). After antibiotic treatment was

discontinued, rare female progeny that were allowed to reproduce produced sex ratios that gradually

returned to being almost entirely female ($F_3$-$F_4$, 80% and 100% female, respectively), and unmated

females were again able to produce female offspring by parthenogenesis ($F_5$-$F_6$, 98.5% and 100%

female, respectively).

561
**Figure 5. *Leptopilina n. sp.* reproduces by symbiont-mediated thelytokous parthenogenesis. (A)**
Schematic depicting the production of male progeny after two generations of antibiotic treatment ("+rif"),
which supports the hypothesis of symbiont mediated parthenogenesis. **(B)** Schematic of antibiotic
treatment and crossing scheme to test for sexual reproduction after symbiont depletion, and an attempt to
generate a sexual, symbiont free strain. **(C)** Percentage of female and male offspring in each generation.
Data is plotted as mean ± SEM. For generations $G_2$ to $F_2$, n = 4-8 infection vials; for generations $F_3$ to $F_6$,
n = 1 infection vial.
569

***Leptopilina n. sp.* genome sequencing and assembly**

We generated a genome assembly for *Leptopilina n. sp.* based on nanopore long read sequencing (Table

1, Supplemental Tables S1-S3). The draft assembly with Flye leveraged all nanopore reads longer than

5,000 bp (Supplemental Table S1) and generated 1,666 contigs totaling just over 1Gbp in total length

(Table 1; Supplemental Figure S2). The assembly was then polished with illumina short reads: short-read

mapping rates were very high (98.9% of reads mapped). After polishing, separating cytoplasmic

genomes, removing haplotigs, purging contaminants, and removing otherwise spurious contigs, the

ultimate nuclear genome assembly was 1,408 contigs and ~995Mbp in size with an N50 of >1.8Mbp

(Table 1). The longest contig in the assembly was close to 13Mbp in length. Assembly quality was

assessed with BUSCO. Just under 90% of the hymenopteran BUSCO proteins were complete, similar to

other assemblies in the genus (Table 2). We recovered two cytoplasmic genomes: mitochondrion and

*Wolbachia*. Additional low-coverage bacterial sequences that were purged from the assembly belonged to

typical associates of the fly food and microbiome (Supplemental Results in File S1 and Supplemental

Table S3). No other symbionts were identified in the contigs (e.g., *Cardinium*, *Spiroplasma,* etc [51-53]).

Thus, we determine that *Wolbachia* is likely the cause of thelytokous parthenogenesis.

**Table 1. Assembly statistics for *Leptopilina n. sp.***

| Metric | Draft | Ultimate |
|---|---|---|
| **Contigs** | 1,666 | 1,408 |
| **Length (bp)** | 1,004,830,435 | 994,948,826 |
| **Min length** | 499 | 5,452 |
| **Avg length** | 603,134 | 706,640 |
| **Max length** | 12,918,385 | 12,924,377 |
| **N50** | 1,831,405 | 1,835,757 |
| **%GC** | 29.85 | 29.75 |
| **BUSCO\* (Hymenoptera)** | C:89.3%[S:88.8%,D:0.5%], F:2.9%,M:7.8%,n:5991 | C:89.7%[S:89.2%,D:0.5%],F:2.7%,M:7.6%,n:5991 |

587    *Standard BUSCO annotation: Complete BUSCOs (C) [Complete and single-copy BUSCOs (S),
588    Complete and duplicated BUSCOs (D)], Fragmented BUSCOs (F), Missing BUSCOs (M), Total BUSCO
589    groups searched (n)
590

591    **Table 2. Additional genomes used in comparative analyses.**

| Species | Assembly Accession | Size (bp) | Protein Coding Genes | BUSCO\* (Hymenoptera) |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| *Leptopilina boulardi* | ZJU_Lbou_2.1 | 354,804,354 | 13,647 | C:91.4%[S:90.9%,D:0.5%], F:1.7%,M:6.9%,n:5991 |
| *Leptopilina clavipes* | ASM185565v1 | 255,343,917 | 13,920 | C:77.8%[S:77.3%,D:0.5%], F:7.3%,M:14.9%,n:5991 |
| *Leptopilina heterotoma* | ASM1547642v1 | 484,694,486 | 14,450 | C:91.1%[S:90.6%,D:0.5%], F:1.9%,M:7.0%,n:5991 |
| *Ganaspis kimorum*[#] | GCA_037103525.1 | 1,025,447,244 | 20,567 | C:89.4%[S:88.8%,D:0.6%], F:2.7%,M:7.9%,n:5991 |

592    * Standard BUSCO annotation: Complete BUSCOs (C) [Complete and single-copy BUSCOs (S),
593    Complete and duplicated BUSCOs (D)], Fragmented BUSCOs (F), Missing BUSCOs (M), Total
594    BUSCO groups searched (n). Hymenoptera dataset used.
595    [#] Previously '*Ganaspis* near *brasiliensis'* (including in genome report [54]), but recently re-assigned [6].
596

**Methylation**

We used a methyl-sensitive base-calling model to predict 5-methylcytosines in a CpG context. Across the

nuclear, mitochondrial, and *Wolbachia* genomes, fractional methylation was less than 1% (Genome:

0.600%, mitochondrion: 0.547%, *Wolbachia*: 0.598%). These estimates likely do not represent low levels

of true genomic methylation, rather, they are probably background noise due to error rates inherent to the

sequencing and base calling.

**Mitogenome**

We recovered a circular mitochondrial genome (14,490 bp; 20.6% GC; 3,562X sequencing coverage,

Figure 6, Supplemental Table S3). Using the barcoding sequence region from the mitochondrial genome,

plus representative sequences across the genus, we reconstructed a phylogeny of *Leptopilina sp.* (Figure

6A). *Leptopilina n. sp.* sequences were all identical, and formed a monophyletic group more than 10%

divergent from the next most closely related species in the dataset, further supporting its designation as a

new species. Importantly, *Leptopilina n. sp.* is sister to a clade within the *Leptopilina* genus that contains

all other species for which genome sequences are available (*Leptopilina clavipes, Leptopilina boulardi,*

and *Leptopilina heterotoma*). Annotation of the mitochondrial genome revealed that gene order was

largely conserved as compared to other *Leptopilina* mitochondria. Additionally, we annotated the

expected rRNAs and protein coding genes. However, insect mitochondrial tRNAs are often difficult to

annotate [55], and in *Leptopilina n. sp.* we were unable to find tRNAs for asparagine (N), alanine (A),

aspartic acid (D), pheylalanine (F), serine anticodon-1 (S1), and arginine (R). Related to that, the region

between the 3' end of the 16S rRNA (rrnL) and the 5' end of *nad2*, was quite divergent as compared to

*Leptopilina boulardi,* in which there is a cluster of tRNAs (including D, F, S1, N, A, plus glutamic acid,

glycine, and histidine). It is likely that divergence and/or noncanonical tRNA structures, as is often the

case in insect mitochondria, may be precluding a complete annotation.

624
**Figure 6. Mitochondrial phylogeny and genome of *Leptopilina n. sp.*. (A)** Phylogenetic reconstruction
of *Leptopilina,* based on 480 nucleotides of Cox1, aligned to maintain codon position relationships. Node
colors indicate bootstrap support as indicated in legend. The three *Leptopilina n. sp.* sequences are
identical. The two other *Leptopilina n. sp.* sequences are from previously barcoded STL6 specimens [3].
Sequences assigned to provisional species are indicated by 'sp' followed by a number, as per DROP
database [3]. Accession numbers are in gray at the end of each leaf label. **(B)** Map of the assembled
mitochondrial genome and annotations.
632

**<u>Gene Annotation</u>**

Annotation of the repeat-masked *Leptopilina n. sp.* genome revealed 16,402 genes (Table 3), which is in-

line with annotations of closely related species (Table 2). To better understand genome evolution, we

clustered protein sequences (n=78,896 in total) of the four *Leptopilina* species plus outgroup species

*Ganaspis kimorum* [6, 54, 56-58]. As expected with a small set of closely related species, we identified

orthologs for most genes: 97.1% of the genes were clustered into 13,659 orthogroups, each of which

contained 5.6 genes on average. 7,266 orthogroups contained genes from all five species, and of those,

6,389 orthogroups were strictly single-copy. 1,077 orthogroups were species-specific and only contained

in-paralogs.

**Table 3. Annotation metrics for the *Leptopilina n. sp.* genome.**

| Metric | Value* |
|---|---|
| Number of genes | 16,402 |
| Number of mRNAs | 18,165 |
| Number of exons | 97,163 |
| Number of introns | 78,998 |
| Mean mRNAs per gene | 1.1 |
| Mean exons per mRNA | 5.3 |
| Total gene length | 158,352,048 bp |
| Longest gene | 235,629 bp |
| Mean gene length | 9,654 bp |
| Longest CDS | 76,353 bp |
| Mean CDS length | 1,541 bp |
| Longest exon | 16,278 bp |
| Mean exon length | 288 bp |

644     *Base pairs = bp
645

**Repetitive elements**

Given the larger than expected size of the *Leptopilina n. sp.* genome relative to other *Leptopilina* species,

we analyzed the repeat content of the assembly using a *de novo* repeat identification pipeline. 66.81% of

the nearly 1Gbp genome assembly was identified as repetitive (Figure 7, Supplementary Table S4).

Retroelements and DNA transposons only constituted 9.57% and 5.09% of the length of the assembly,

respectively. The majority of the repeat content (48.97% of the assembly) was categorized as unclassified

repetitive elements. To determine if this large repetitive fraction was unique to *Leptopilina n. sp.* we ran

the same *de novo* repeat identification pipeline on the three other *Leptopilina* species with genome

assemblies available, plus an outgroup from a closely related genus, *Ganaspis kimorum* (Supplemental

Table S4). Indeed, the other *Leptopilina* species were less repeat dense with 35.40%, 48.01%, and

57.27% repeat content for *L. clavipes, boulardi, and heterotoma,* respectively. Similar to *Leptopilina n.*

*sp.*, the majority of these repetitive elements were unclassified. In fact, the overall size and makeup of the

*Leptopilina n. sp.* genome was much more similar to the outgroup *Ganaspis kimorum* (Figure 7A,B)*.*

However, the *Ganaspis kimorum* and *Leptopilina n. sp.* genomes contained approximately double the

amount of non-repetitive genome as compared to the other *Leptopilina* (black bars in Figure 7B). Thus,

while *Leptopilina n. sp.* had the largest repetitive content in the genus (both by total length and

percentage), repeat content alone does not completely explain the overall difference in genome size

relative to the other congenerics.

To understand the large differences in repeat content across the *Leptopilina* genomes, we performed an

all-versus-all analysis in which we mapped each species' repeat library to all other species' genomes

(Figure 7C). Then we determined how many of the unique repeat families were present to infer if there

was simply a difference in the number of repeat occurrences (e.g., family size), or, if entire repeat families

had been gained or lost across the clade. The most repeat dense genomes, *Ganaspis kimorum* and

*Leptopilina n. sp.*, contained 3,563 and 4,002 repeat families respectively, likely indicating a gain of

repeats in the *Leptopilina* common ancestor. Accordingly, while 84.1% of the *Ganaspis kimorum* repeat

families occur in the *Leptopilina n. sp.* genome, only 82.5% of the *Leptopilina n. sp.* repeat families occur

in *Ganaspis kimorum*. There appears to have been a large loss of repeat families in the ancestor of the

clade containing *L. boulardi*, *L. heterotoma*, and *L. clavipes*, and additional loss in the lineage leading to

*L. clavipes*. These genomes contained 2,727, 2,742, and 1,718 families respectively, and between 88-

91% of these families were found in *Leptopilina n. sp.*. Furthermore, while only 78-80% of the *Leptopilina*

*n. sp.* repeats were identified in these other *Leptopilina* genomes, an even lower percentage of the

*Ganaspis kimorum* repeats were present (73.3-77.5%). Finally, the comparisons within the clade of *L.*

*boulardi*, *L. heterotoma*, and *L. clavipes*, indicate high levels of shared repeats (85.8-93.9%). All together,

these data indicate that (1) the ancestor of the four *Leptopilina* species here acquired repetitive elements

that are not present in *Ganaspis kimorum*, (2) many of the repeats have since been lost in *L. boulardi*, *L.*

*heterotoma*, and especially in *L. clavipes*.

684
**Figure 7. Evolution of *Leptopilina* genomes. (A)** Species tree inferred by OrthoFinder, rooted on
outgroup, *Ganaspis kimorum*. Phylogeny is annotated with (1) the number of species-specific genes (gray
boxes), which include both singletons, and species-specific orthogroups, and (2) inferred gains and
losses of orthogroups. "Gained" orthogroups are those that are unique to and present in all taxa within the
clade, and "lost" orthogroups are present in all the outgroups, but none of the ingroups. **(B)** Genome
content of each representative assembly. **(C)** All-verus-all comparison of repetitive elements. Libraries of
the *de novo* identified repeats from each species were mapped to all other genomes, and the number of
unique repeat families recovered in each comparison is indicated within each box in the heat map
(number of families identified in "genome"/number of unique families in "library"). LMAL = *Leptopilina n.*
*sp.*
695

***Wolbachia* Strain *w*Lmal**

We identified a circular *Wolbachia* genome in our assembly, hereinafter strain "*w*Lmal" (Table 4). A single

contig was sequenced at 344X coverage and blast results from blobtools revealed similarity to *Wolbachia*

strain *w*Ha from *Drosophila simulans* across most of the contig. BUSCO genome completeness metrics

were very high, with 99.2% of Rickettsiales BUSCOs present in single copy (Table 4). Phylogenetic

reconstruction based on core single-copy orthologs revealed that *w*Lmal is closely related to *Drosophila*

infecting *Wolbachia* strains (e.g., *w*Mel, *w*Ha, *w*Ri, *w*Au) in *Wolbachia* Supergroup A (Figure 8A). This is

notable not only due to the host-parasitoid relationship of *Leptopilina* and *Drosophila*, but also because

the parthenogenesis-inducing "*w*Lcla" strain from *Leptopilina clavipes* is quite divergent, and nested

within a different major *Wolbachia* clade: Supergroup B [59, 60]. The size (~1.2Mbp) and coding content

of the *w*Lmal genome is quite typical of an insect-infecting *Wolbachia* strain [61, 62] (Figure 8B, Table 4).

Two putative prophage regions were identified. The first (1,00,3471 bp - 1,051,238 bp) is partial and is

likely remnants of a *Wolbachia* "WO" prophage. This prophage region contains some phage structural

elements (primarily proteins for the tail) and what looks to be part of a "Eukaryotic Association Module"

(EAM), a region associated with WO phages which often contains proteins for manipulating host

reproduction and cell biology [63]. The second predicted prophage region (824,983 bp - 864,973 bp)

appears much more degenerate and only has a few remaining open reading frames encoding for phage

proteins.

We searched for the two recently identified putative parthenogenesis-inducing effector proteins, *pifA* and

*pifB,* which are found in the parthenogenesis inducing strains *w*Lcla and *w*Tpre [59]. *pifA* is also present

in the PI-*Wolbachia* infecting *Encarisa formosa* (designated *"piff"* in that strain) [64]*.* We identified two

identical copies of *pifB*, but did not find evidence for *pifA* in *w*Lmal (Supplemental File S1). Closer

inspection revealed that the *pifB* copies are in opposite orientations, and one copy of *pifB* is surrounded

by insertion elements and is just downstream of a putative *hin* DNA invertase, likely from the WO phage.

We also queried the *w*Lmal genome for a suite of other notable *Wolbachia* proteins and identified other

putative or confirmed effector proteins. Surprisingly, these included the genes *cifA* and *cifB* (here,

specifically "type I" or *cid*-type [65] which cause an entirely different host reproductive phenotype: the

conditional sperm-egg incompatibility known as cytoplasmic incompatibility (CI).

729 **Table 4. *Wolbachia* strain *w*Lmal genome assembly and annotation.**

| Metric | *w*Lmal |
|---|---|
| **Contigs** | 1 |
| **Length (bp)** | 1,198,858 |
| **%GC** | 35.1 |
| **BUSCO\* (Rickettsiales)** | C:99.2%[S:99.2%,D:0.0%], F:0.3%,M:0.5%,n:364 |
| **CDS** | 1,356 |
| **rRNAs** | 3 |
| **tRNAs** | 34 |

730 \*Standard BUSCO annotation: Complete BUSCOs (C) [Complete and single-copy BUSCOs (S),
731 Complete and duplicated BUSCOs (D)], Fragmented BUSCOs (F), Missing BUSCOs (M), Total BUSCO
732 groups searched (n)

733
**Figure 8. *Wolbachia* strain *w*Lmal. (A)** Phylogenetic relationships of *Wolbachia* strains and Rickettsiales
relatives based on 127 core single-copy orthologs. **(B)** Map of the complete *w*Lmal genome. Each
concentric circle is annotated with a different set of genomic information. The innermost circle is
annotated with a basepair marker, the second circle indicates GC content, the third circle indicates
prophage regions identified by VirSorter, and the outermost circle shows the coding regions of the
genome. Abbreviations: Type IV Secretion system (T4SS), noncoding RNA (ncRNA), coding sequences

(CDS). Putative effector proteins are indicated with the gene name where possible, otherwise the wLmal
CDS number is indicated and the *w*Mel homologs can be found in Supplemental Table S5. **(C)** Gene
models in the prophage region containing remnant WO phage structural proteins and a suite of effector
proteins homologs. Notably the two *pifB* coding sequences are present in an inverted repeat. Open
reading frames labeled with numbers (e.g., 1167) are gene annotation IDs, provided to benchmark the
region.
746

**<u>Historical specimens of *Leptopilina n. sp.*</u>**

As noted above, our Saint Lucian specimens matched previously undescribed *Leptopilina* collected from

the Caribbean in the 1980's (specimens USNMENT01025775-USNMENT01025782). Specifically, those

*Leptopilina* (n=16, all female) were collected in 1982 and 1983 from Grande Terre, Guadeloupe (~270 km

from our collection site on Saint Lucia), some of which were used to initiate a now extinct colony, "PB10-

5". The PB10-5 wasps were previously characterized as an undescribed species nested within an early-

branching *Leptopilina* lineage, in the same clade as *Leptopilina longipes* [66, 67]. Our COI phylogenetic

reconstruction of *Leptopilina* recapitulated these relationships (Figure 6A). In addition to all the collected

Guadeloupe wasps being female, Yves Carton's notes indicated "*[the PB10-5 colony] emerged only*

*females: we can conclude that this species is parthenogenetic.*" In summary, our data indicate that

*Leptopilina n. sp.* was previously collected ~40 years ago on the neighboring island of Guadeloupe and

also reproduced via thelytokous parthenogenesis.

**DISCUSSION**

Our study represents a comprehensive description of *Leptopilina n. sp.*, the first recorded parasitoid of

*dunni* group *Drosophila* from their native range. By integrating classic taxonomy and systematics

approaches with genomics and experimental biology, we were able to generate a more comprehensive

view of the biology and evolution of this new species. Furthermore, historical records and museum

specimens enabled the discovery that asexually reproducing *Leptopilina n. sp.* have also been found on

another island in the Antilles. This work represents one of a limited number of studies in which description

of a new metazoan species is coupled with genome sequencing [68-72]. Indeed, this is the fifth such

example in insects [73-76], wherein body size often precludes whole genome sequencing of holotypes.

Despite the interest in speciation patterns of the *dunni* group *Drosophila*, the proximal ecological or

evolutionary mechanisms driving morphological and species diversity in this group remain unresolved.

One study found elevated nonsynonymous substitution rates in the pigmentation gene *yellow* in two

members of this group [77]. This is consistent with selection for pigmentation diversity, but no studies

have yet identified the selective agent responsible for this pattern. Importantly, melanization is a process

in many insect lineages that is critical in both the development of cuticle pigmentation as well as in

immune responses that occur during encapsulation of foreign pathogens [78]. In *Drosophila*, melanization

is a well-studied response to infection by eukaryotic parasites (including *Leptopilina*) and is linked to the

same genetic pathways as pigmentation production [79-81]. In one study in *Drosophila falleni*, selection

for a reduced number of abdominal spots resulted in higher infection rates by a parasitic nematode [82].

In other insects there are similar links between the levels or patterns of cuticular melanization and

resistance to parasites [83-88]. As such, it has been postulated that *Drosophila* abdominal coloration may

vary in some systems primarily due to selection by parasitism [89, 90], but direct evidence for this is

lacking.

Since adult flies of the *D. antillea* species are among the more highly pigmented flies of the *dunni* group,

we were interested in the possibility that they might be particularly resistant to infection by endemic

parasitoids. However, we instead found the opposite. *Leptopilina n. sp.* wasps are highly virulent on *D.*

*antillea* hosts*.* This observation could indicate that *Leptopilina n. sp.* is a relatively recent colonizer of

Saint Lucia and that *D. antillea* has not had sufficient time to evolve resistance. In contrast, *Leptopilina n.*

*sp.* was less effective at using *D. willistoni* as a host. Our findings open the door to future studies to

explore the potential mechanism of *Leptopilina n. sp.* virulence on flies of the *dunni* group as well as the

potential mechanisms of resistance for *D. willistoni.* It will also be of interest to test the virulence of

*Leptopilina n. sp.* on other species from the *dunni* group as well as how virulence tracks with island of

origin of the wasp. For example, are *Leptopilina n. sp.* wasps as effective when infecting *dunni* group flies

that are native to other islands of the Antilles chain? Are *Leptopilina n. sp.* wasps that originate from

Guadeloupe as virulent on *D. antillea*? Indeed, the island of Guadeloupe where Carton collected

*Leptopilina n. sp.* is home to the dunni group fly *Drosophila arawakana.* It would be of interest to know

how the virulence of Guadeloupian wasps relates to Saint Lucian wasps on fly species from the various

islands.

The island biogeography of *Leptopilina n. sp.* may also play a role in the evolution of their reproductive

mode. Our antibiotic curing experiments indicated that our *Leptopilina n. sp.* colony derived from Saint

Lucia is unable to revert to sexual reproduction. The inability to restore sex is a strong indicator of a so-

called "virginity mutation", which is well described in several other wasp species with symbiont-mediated

parthenogenesis [57, 91-96]. There are multiple hypotheses for the evolutionary pressures that lead to

virginity mutations [48, 91, 97, 98], but in brief, they are mutations that result in the decay or loss of

sexual function, to the point that the animal becomes reliant upon the PI symbiont for the production of

female offspring. Related to this, it is notable that the colony of *Leptopilina n. sp.* derived from

Guadeloupe collections in the 1980s were all female. However, we do not know if this PB10-5 colony was

(a) infected with *Wolbachia*, (b) asexual because of *Wolbachia*, or (c) obligately asexual (i.e., unable to

revert to a sexual mode). Indeed, some other populations of parasitic wasps with PI *Wolbachia* have

significant within-species polymorphism and vary in which *Wolbachia* strain they have, if they are

asexually reproducing, and if they have a so-called virginity mutation [48, 99]. Thus, it may be that

populations of *Leptopilina n. sp.* on different islands vary in whether they are sexually reproducing, and if

asexual reproduction is fixed or reversible. Notably, asexual reproduction across many taxa appears to be

more common on islands [100, 101], and thus *Leptopilina n. sp.* in the Greater Antilles may provide a

tractable system to understand the evolution of reproductive mode in the context of biogeography.

While there are many other examples of species with virginity mutations, our findings are quite unusual in

that the *Wolbachia* genome here also contains what appears to be functional genes for inducing

cytoplasmic incompatibility (CI). Paradoxically, the CI phenotype only manifests with sexual reproduction:

males with CI *Wolbachia*-modified sperm cause embryonic lethality in embryos derived from females

without a compatible *Wolbachia* strain [65]. We have several hypotheses for why these *Wolbachia*

encode for CI loci despite inducing parthenogenesis. First, the *cif* loci may have undergone some form of

neofunctionalization: perhaps these proteins are no longer involved in sperm-egg incompatibility as in CI

but are impacting other host processes. Alternatively, it might be that the transition to parthenogenesis is

more recent, and CI is no longer under selection. Perhaps the *cifs* are en route to be eliminated from the

genome in the future. "Recent" is of course difficult to determine quantitatively, especially in island

systems where there are often strong bottlenecks that can drive rapid evolution [102]. Finally, it might be

that if the PI phenotype has lower penetrance and occasional males are produced. These males might

mate with incompatible conspecifics (that either have no *Wolbachia* or an incompatible strain) and induce

CI, perhaps reducing competition for the asexual matriline. However, we see two issues with this

scenario. First, lower penetrance of PI phenotypes is typically due to the loss of *Wolbachia* (e.g., due to

higher temperatures, or in the lab, antibiotics), which leads to the production of males. In this case, the

occasional males produced by PI mothers might not have sufficient *Wolbachia* to induce CI. Second,

because the PI females transmitting *Wolbachia* to the next generation would never need to rescue CI,

there would be no selection pressure to maintain CI function.

Despite the peculiarity of a PI *Wolbachia* strain encoding for CI genes, all four loci associated with host

reproductive manipulation (*cifA, cifB,* and two copies of *pifB*) are found in the EAM of WO: a classic

signature of *Wolbachia* genomes and reproductive effector proteins. The multiple identical *pifB* copies,

genes for CI in combination with a clear *Wolbachia*-mediated PI phenotype, and evidence for multiple

prophage infections all point towards recent dynamism in the *w*Lmal genome. Many *Wolbachia* genes

mediating host reproductive switches are horizontally acquired from other *Wolbachia* strains, likely due to

the WO phage [63, 103]. For this reason, it was not surprising that the two PI *Wolbachia* strains from

*Leptopilina* both encoded for PifB proteins, despite the strains belonging to different clades. In contrast,

we did not find any evidence in *w*Lmal for the PifA protein, a *transformer* mimic that interacts with the

sexual differentiation pathway [59, 64]. Importantly however, we do not know the exact mechanism of

parthenogenesis induction employed by *w*Lmal (e.g., one versus two step, apomixis versus gamete

duplication, etc [104]). And, given the diversity of PI mechanisms found across *Wolbachia* [48] it is quite

possible that *w*Lcla and *w*Lmal are not using precisely the same toolset. Closer inspection of meiosis and

early embryonic mitoses in *Leptopilina n. sp.* will be key to understanding how *w*Lmal causes PI, and

what the role of PifB, or other proteins, might be in this process. Altogether, the description of *Leptopilina*

*n. sp.* and its reproductive biology will enable future explorations of host-parasitoid and host-symbiont

interactions, especially in the context of speciation.

In summary, this study provides a clear example of how descriptive work in under-studied species can

lead to novel discoveries across a broad set of biological disciplines. Insects generally, but especially

parasitic Hymenoptera, are under described [5]. Furthermore, of the described parasitic hymenopterans,

a significant majority lack biological information such as host associations and ecology. Here,

identification of a new species of parasitoid has provided a unique view into the intricate co-evolution of

host insect, parasitoid, and *Wolbachia* symbiont, with dynamic interactions between genomic evolution,

virulence, and reproductive ecology. We hope our work inspires more integration of descriptions of new

species coupled with investigations into novel aspects of their biology.

**DATA AVAILABILITY**

BioProject: PRJNA1150626

Supplemental File S1 contains:

Supplemental Text

Figure S1. Western Blot for *Wolbachia* detection.

Figure S2. Draft assembly snail plot and blob plot.

Supplemental Tables are provided in an excel file where each sheet corresponds to a different table

number:

Table S1. Passed reads statistics.

Table S2. All draft assembly contigs statistics, including BlobTools annotations.

Table S3. Purged contigs.

Table S4. Repeat annotations.

Table S5. *Wolbachia* protein queries.

Table S6. wLmal phage annotation.

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recommendation or endorsement by the USDA. USDA is an equal opportunity provider and employer.

**CONFLICTS OF INTEREST**

MKD works for Oxford Nanopore Technologies.

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