Metabolic resistance of the tiger mosquito to pyrethroid insecticides in La Réunion Island likely results from local adaptation

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Abstract

The resistance of mosquitoes to insecticides is a valuable model system for studying the genetic bases of xenobiotic adaptation in insects. The spread of the Asian tiger mosquito *Aedes albopictus* combined to the massive use of pyrethroid insecticides to limit arbovirus transmission resulted in the rise of resistance in various continents. Here, we investigated the genetic mechanisms underlying the recent adaptation of this mosquito to deltamethrin in La Réunion island. Bioassays confirmed the presence of resistance alleles in field populations. The resistance phenotype was further enhanced in the laboratory following a few generations of controlled selection. Combining whole genome Pool-seq and RNA-seq revealed no evidence of target-site resistance mutations but the over-expression and variant selection of detoxification enzymes associated with pyrethroid metabolism including cytochrome P450s, transferases and ABC-transporters. Among over-expressed detoxification genes, only one was linked to a gene duplication while polymorphism data suggest most of them being trans-regulated. Genome-wide selection signatures revealed a 9 Mb inverted superlocus responding to insecticide selection whose phenotypical importance remains uncertain. Altogether, this study indicates that the multigenic metabolic resistance phenotype observed in this insular territory mainly results from local adaptation. From an applied perspective, this study provides a set of markers to track pyrethroid resistance in the tiger mosquito in the South-West Indian Ocean. As this region is subjected to recurrent arbovirus outbreaks, the additive resistance phenotype that may arise from the introduction

of *Kdr* mutations from other territories also calls for improving resistance surveillance at the regional scale.

Author summary

While novel vector control strategies are being developed, chemical insecticides remain widely used to control mosquitoes transmitting human diseases such as the Asian tiger mosquito. However, the recurrent use of insecticides resulted in the emergence of resistance which can ultimately affect vector control efficacy. Here, we investigate the genetic bases underlying the resistance of the Asian tiger mosquito to the pyrethroid insecticide deltamethrin in La Réunion island. By combining two complementary genomic approaches, we showed that resistance is mainly caused by an increased insecticide detoxification while classical 'Knock down resistance' mutations affecting the target of the insecticide were not detected. We also showed that resistance is underlain by multiple genetic changes spread across the genome, supporting the local selection of resistance rather than the introduction of resistance alleles. Furthermore, we identified a large inverted supergene responding to insecticide selection. This study provides valuable insights into the genetic bases of insecticide resistance, enabling the implementation of molecular makers to improve the tracking of insecticide resistance in this major mosquito vector across the Indian Ocean.

Introduction

Natural populations experience a variety of human-driven selective pressures, leading to their adaptation through the expression of complex phenotypes (1). Understanding the genetic mechanisms allowing them to adapt to such rapid environmental changes provides key knowledge for populations management (2–4). The evolution of insecticide resistance is a good example of how natural selection can mediate the rapid adaptation of natural populations to anthropogenic pressures as it occurs in a large number of insects (5,6). Beyond understanding the adaptative mechanisms, identifying resistance alleles also contributes to improving management strategies (7–9). However, the frequent co-occurrence of multiple resistance mechanisms and the diversity of genetic events underlying resistant phenotypes often makes the characterization of resistance alleles challenging (5,10).

Among insect vectors, *Aedes* mosquitoes pose a significant threat to public health because they transmit major arboviral diseases (11,12). Among them, the invasive Asian tiger mosquito *Aedes albopictus* is of particular importance because its spread contributed to the worldwide re-emergence of arboviruses such as dengue and chikungunya (13). Although significant research efforts are

66 dedicated to develop vaccines targeting these arboviruses (14–16), outbreak prevention still massively
67 relies on insecticide-based vector control (17). Pyrethroid insecticides such as deltamethrin are the
68 most-used insecticides against Aedes mosquitoes (18). However, the adaptation of mosquitoes to such
69 insecticides can ultimately reduce the efficacy of vector control preventive actions (19–22).

70 Pyrethroids disrupt nerve function by altering the opening kinetics of the voltage-gated sodium
71 channel (VGSC gene: 23,24). Pyrethroid resistance can be the consequence of point mutations
72 affecting the VGSC gene, known as Knock-down resistance (*Kdr*) mutations (target-site resistance); a
73 decreased insecticide penetration mediated by cuticle modification (cuticle resistance); and
74 biodegradation of the insecticide through complex detoxification pathways (metabolic resistance: 10).
75 *Kdr* mutations typically affect a few conserved amino-acid positions in the VGSC protein and are fairly
76 well characterized in *Aedes* mosquitoes (25–28). Conversely, the genetic bases of insecticide
77 detoxification are far less understood. Indeed, the diversity and redundancy of genes underlying
78 xenobiotic detoxification pathways often lead to various multigenic adaptive trajectories depending on
79 the local context (5,10,17,23). In insects, pyrethroid metabolism typically includes an initial phase
80 involving hydroxylation by cytochrome P450s and sometimes ester-bond hydrolysis by
81 carboxylesterases, followed by the conjugation of hydrophilic groups by glutathione S-transferases
82 (GSTs) and UDP-glycosyltransferases (UDPGTs), and the excretion of the insecticide itself or its
83 metabolites by ABC-transporters (29–31). Molecular changes underlying metabolic resistance to
84 pyrethroids frequently include the over-expression of detoxification enzymes and transporters
85 mediated by cis- or trans-regulation or by gene duplication although the selection of
86 enzyme/transporter variants showing an enhanced activity toward the insecticide has also been
87 described (6,32–35).

88 The recent spread of *Ae. albopictus* to all continents and its ecological shift to more urbanized areas
89 (12) led to its increased exposure to pyrethroid insecticides and ultimately to the selection of
90 resistance. Pyrethroid resistance was first reported in South-East Asia more than a decade ago (36–39)
91 followed by other Asian regions (40–42). In these regions the resistance phenotype was often related
92 to the presence of various *Kdr* mutation haplotypes (40,43,44), although metabolic resistance was also
93 detected (45–47). Resistance was then detected in Europe following the introduction of *Kdr* mutations
94 from Asia (48–50). Resistance was also detected in Africa in association with *Kdr* mutations and
95 increased detoxification though the underlying resistance alleles were not characterized (51–53).

96 In the Indian Ocean, *Ae. albopictus* was likely imported from Asia in La Réunion island during the 17th
97 and the 18th centuries though other introductions likely occurred later (54). This mosquito was
98 associated to the chikungunya outbreak that occurred in 2005-2006 (55,56) and is the main vector of
99 recurrent dengue/chikungunya outbreaks since then (57). In La Réunion island, the recurrent use of

100 deltamethrin for vector control since 2006 ultimately resulted in the emergence of resistance as
101 detected by public health authorities in 2017 (58). However, the mechanisms underlying the resistance
102 phenotype have not been thoroughly investigated since then. A single heterozygote for the V1016G
103 *Kdr* mutation was observed from mosquitoes collected in La Réunion in 2016 as part of a worldwide
104 *Kdr* screening study (59). However, the circulation of *Kdr* mutation in the island or neighbouring
105 territories was not confirmed after this observation.

106 In this context, the present work aims at deciphering the genetic bases of the deltamethrin resistance
107 phenotype observed in *Ae. albopictus* populations in La Réunion island. This was achieved by adopting
108 an experimental design combining field populations and field-derived lines enriched or not for
109 resistance alleles by controlled selection. At the molecular level, an integrated genomic approach
110 combining RNA-seq and whole genome Pool-seq was applied to pinpoint resistance alleles and their
111 underlying genomic events. The evolutionary scenario leading to the emergence of resistance in La
112 Réunion island is then discussed in regards of the worldwide distribution of resistance alleles and the
113 local demographic context. While providing a set of novel molecular markers to track insecticide
114 resistance in this mosquito vector, the present study contributes to anticipate the emergence of
115 insecticide resistance in the South-West Indian Ocean region and its consequences for vector control
116 strategies.

117

118 ## Results

119 **Deltamethrin resistance alleles circulate in La Réunion island**

120 In order to improve the identification of deltamethrin resistance alleles, an experimental design
121 combining field populations and the controlled selection of a composite line was used (**Fig. 1A,** see
122 methods). Comparative deltamethrin bioassays performed on three field populations confirmed the
123 presence of resistance alleles in La Réunion (**Fig. 1B**). The three field populations (Saint-Paul, Saint-
124 Louis and Sainte-Suzanne) showed a significant decreased mortality to deltamethrin compared with
125 the susceptible SRun reference line. As expected, the composite line maintained without deltamethrin
126 selection for 6 generations (NS line) showed a resistance level similar to field populations. Selecting
127 the composite line for 5 generations with deltamethrin (Sel line) resulted in its increased resistance as
128 compared to the NS line, suggesting that resistance alleles are not fixed in the field and have been
129 further selected by controlled-selection in the laboratory.

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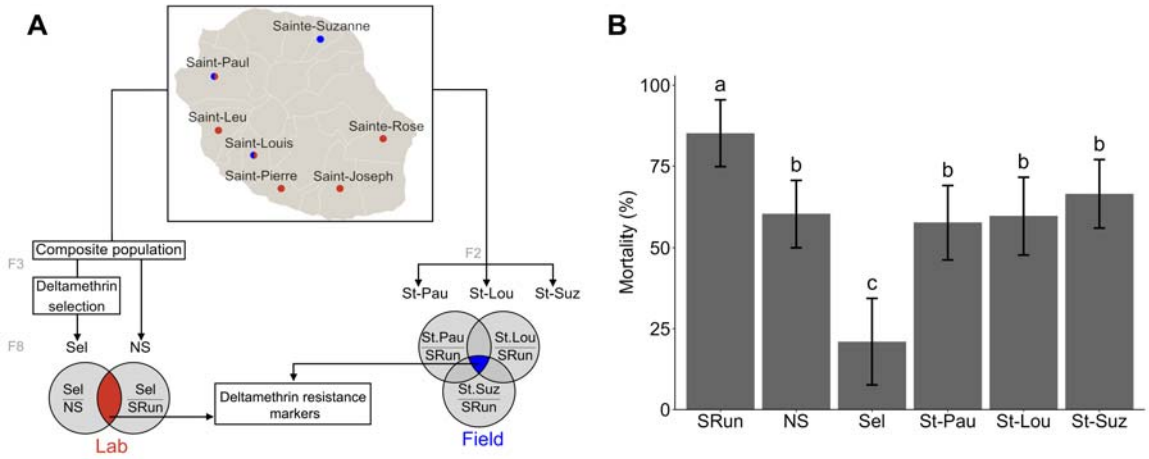


Fig 1. Study design and deltamethrin resistance levels. (A) Sampling sites and study design. The map shows the location of populations used to create the composite population from La Réunion island (red dots) and field populations (blue dots) used for analyses. For each line/population, the generation used is indicated. Venn diagrams illustrate the pairwise comparisons made for the identification of deltamethrin resistance markers (see methods). **(B)** Deltamethrin resistance levels. Mean mortality rates were obtained from standard WHO test tube assays using 0.03% deltamethrin impregnated papers. Error bars denote SD. Distinct letters indicate significantly distinct mortality rates (Conover-Iman test; N=9; p value ≤ 0.05). Sel: deltamethrin selected line; NS: non-selected line; St-Pau: Saint-Paul; St-Lou: Saint-Louis; St-Suz: Sainte-Suzanne; SRun: susceptible reference line from La Réunion.

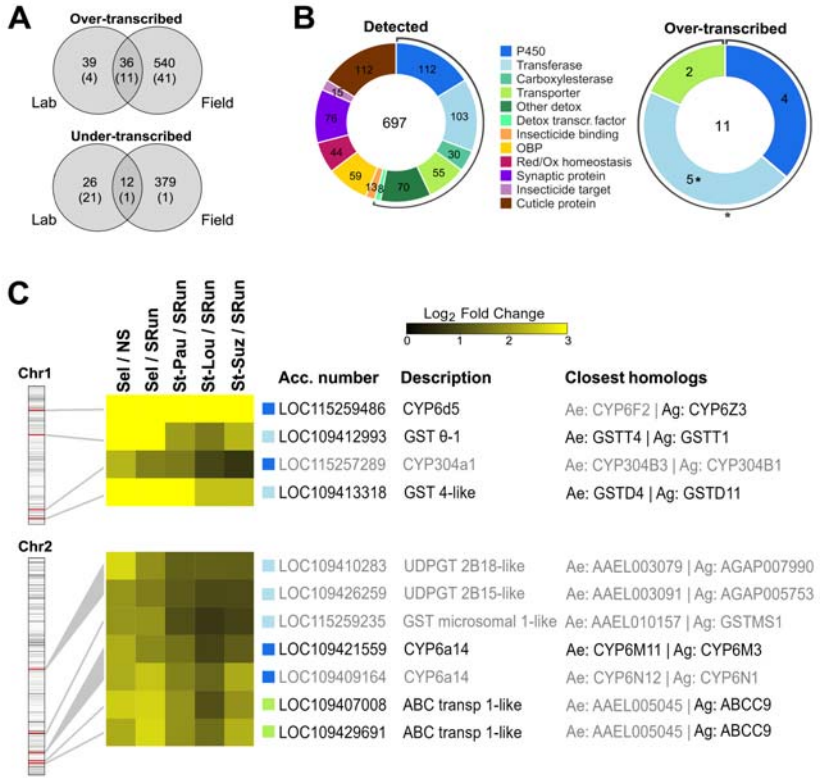
The resistance phenotype is not associated with target-site mutations

Whole genome pool-seq data from all lines were used to screen for *Kdr* mutations affecting the VGSC gene encoding the biochemical target of deltamethrin. Among the 132 polymorphisms detected in coding regions, six were non-synonymous (**S1 File**), but none matched the position of *Kdr* mutations previously associated with pyrethroid resistance in *Ae. albopictus* (*i.e.* V410L, L982Y, S989P, I1011M, V1016G/I, I1532T, and F1534C: ,28). In addition, these six non-synonymous variants are unlikely to contribute to deltamethrin resistance as they do not show a frequency pattern consistent with deltamethrin resistance across all lines. Furthermore, they were located in cytosolic regions being distant from the protein domains carrying known *kdr* mutations. Altogether, this indicate that the detected protein variants are most likely neutral, and that *Kdr* mutation do not contribute to deltamethrin resistance in La Reunion island.

Resistance involves the over-transcription of detoxification enzymes

RNA-seq performed on adult females enabled the detection of 13,918 genes passing coverage threshold which included 697 resistance candidate genes. Differential transcription analysis identified 48 genes differentially transcribed in association with resistance when considering both lab and field comparisons (**Fig. 2A and S2 Table**). The 12 under-transcribed genes include a single candidate encoding an ABC-transporter (LOC109429564). Conversely, the 36 over-transcribed genes included 11

candidates, representing a significant enrichment compared with the global gene set (from 5% to 30.5%, X^2 test $p < 0.05$). All of them belong to three gene families classically involved in pyrethroid metabolism (P450s, transferases and ABC-transporters), leading to a significant enrichment of detoxification genes (from 54% to 100%, X^2 test $p < 0.05$; **Fig. 2B**). All over-transcribed candidate genes were located on chromosomes 1 and 2, some of them being clustered together (**Fig. 2C**). Several of them show high protein homology with genes previously involved in pyrethroid resistance in *Aedes aegypti* or *Anopheles gambiae*. The P450s *CYP6d5* (LOC115259486) was previously found over-transcribed in resistant *Ae. albopictus* populations from China (same gene named CYP6A8 in 47) and shows high homology with members of the CYP6Z subfamily previously involved in pyrethroid metabolism (60–62). The P450 *CYP6a14* (LOC109421559) shows high homology with members of the CYP6M subfamily validated as pyrethroid metabolizers in Anopheles mosquitoes (62,63). Similarly, *GST-1* (LOC109412993) and *GST4*-like (LOC109413318) showed high homology with *theta*- and *delta*-GSTs previously associated with pyrethroid in mosquitoes (45,64–67). Finally, the two ABC-transporters (LOC109407008 and LOC109429691) showed a high homology with the ABCC subfamily previously associated with pyrethroid resistance (68–73). Altogether, these results indicate that in absence of *Kdr* mutations, the deltamethrin resistance phenotype observed in La Réunion island is associated with an over-expression of detoxification enzymes likely involved in insecticide metabolism.



175 **Fig 2. Genes identified as differentially transcribed in association with deltamethrin resistance**. Only genes showing
176 consistent transcription level variations in both Lab and Field comparisons were considered associated with resistance (see
177 methods). **(A)** Venn diagrams showing the number of genes being differentially transcribed in association with resistance.
178 Numbers within brackets stand for candidate genes. **(B)** The left donut-chart describes all candidates genes detected by RNA-
179 seq and their respective gene families. The right donut-chart shows candidate genes associated with resistance. Black circular
180 arcs indicate gene families classically associated with detoxification. Stars indicate a significant enrichment from 'detected' to
181 'resistance associated' candidate genes (X^2 test, p value ≤ 0.05). **(C)** Candidate genes over-transcribed in association with
182 deltamethrin resistance. Log_2 fold changes obtained from each comparison are shown on the heatmap (scale from 0 to 3, see
183 S2 table for exact values). Colour squares refers to candidate gene families. Chromosomal positions are shown on the left
184 with the density of detected candidate genes shown as grey intensity. For each gene, NCBI accession number and description
185 are provided together with closest protein homologs in *Ae. aegypti* and *An. gambiae*. Genes in bold are those from which
186 close orthologs were previously associated with pyrethroid resistance. CYP: cytochrome P450; GST: glutathione S-transferase;
187 UDPGT: UDP-glycosyltransferase; ABC transp: ABC transporter; Sel: selected line; NS: non-selected line; St-Pau: Saint-Paul; St-
188 Lou: Saint-Louis; St-Suz: Sainte-Suzanne; SRun: susceptible reference line from La Réunion.

189 **Resistance is likely not associated with alternative splicing**

190 Using a *de novo* RNA-seq assembly strategy, we searched for alternative splicing events associated
191 with resistance. This analysis identified 166 events associated with resistance affecting 163 genes (**S3**
192 **Table**). This included 8 alternative splicing events, 4 large intron retention events (> 50 bp) though
193 none of them affected candidate genes. Such analysis also identified 161 short genomic indel events (≤
194 50 bp) among with two affected candidate genes: the transcription factor HR96 LOC109416347 (6 bp
195 indel) and the peroxiredoxin LOC109415663 (3 bp indel). Altogether, these data indicate that
196 resistance in la Réunion does not strongly rely on alternative splicing events.

197 **An over-transcribed P450 is likely affected by a genomic duplication**

198 As over-transcription can be caused by an increased copy number, whole genome pool-seq data were
199 used to identify genes affected by copy number variations (CNV) in association with resistance based
200 on their increased exonic read coverages (see Methods). This analysis identified 72 genes showing an
201 increased coverage associated with resistance. Five of them were also over-transcribed in resistant
202 lines including the P450 *CYP6d5* (**Fig. 3A and 3B; S4 Table**). Comparing normalized coverage profiles at
203 the *CYP6d5 locus* revealed an increased coverage in resistant lines, which supports the occurrence of a
204 ~60 Kb duplication (**Fig. 3C**). The putative breakpoints were poorly covered, likely due to the presence
205 of transposable elements which were annotated as a LTR element on the left and a Line/R1 element
206 on the right.

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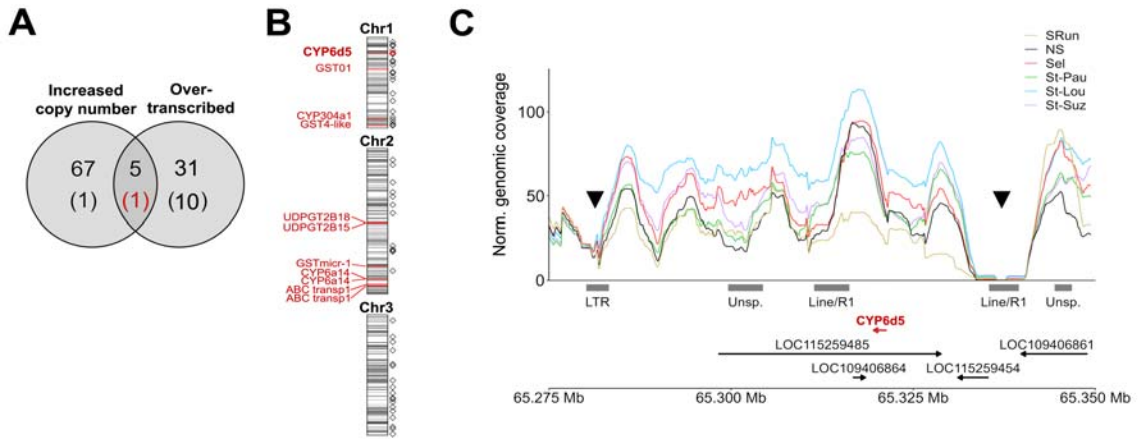

Fig 3. Gene copy number variant analysis. (A) Genes showing an increased copy number (CNV) in association with deltamethrin resistance in regards of those identified as overtranscribed. Numbers within brackets refer to candidate genes. **(B)** Distribution of gene copy number variants along chromosomes. Diamonds show the chromosomal position of the 72 genes showing an increased CNV associated with resistance. The red diamond refers to the candidate gene *CYP6d5* (LOC115259486). Over-transcribed candidate genes are named and shown as red marks in respect to candidate genes density (grey intensity). **(C)** Normalized read coverage profiles observed at the vicinity of *CYP6d5*. Normalized coverage profiles were computed for each line from whole genome pool-seq reads and smoothed using a 5 kb sliding window. The probable range of the duplicated region is delimited by black triangles. The *CYP6d5* gene is shown in red. Repeat masker annotation is shown as grey boxes. Genomic coordinates refer to AALBF3.v2 assembly. Sel: selected line; NS: non-selected line; St-Pau: Saint-Paul; St-Lou: Saint-Louis; St-Suz: Sainte-Suzanne; SRun: susceptible reference line from La Réunion.

Resistance is related to the selection of detoxification enzyme variants

Whole genome Pool-seq data were used to look for non-synonymous variants associated with resistance based on their frequency variation across resistant and susceptible lines. This analysis detected 197,403 non-synonymous variants passing coverage threshold with 11,679 of them affecting candidate genes (**Fig. 4A**). Among the 455 non-synonymous variants associated with resistance, 36 of them affected 27 distinct candidate genes **(Fig. 4B, S5 Table)**. A significant enrichment of candidate genes involved in detoxification was observed, mainly driven by a strong enrichment of P450s (from 15% to 33.3%, X^2 test $p < 0.02$). The 36 variants affecting candidate genes were spread over the three chromosomes (**Fig. 4C**). None of them affected over-transcribed genes though some were located in the same gene cluster. This was the case for the P450 *CYP6a8* variant located within a large CYP6 cluster which also include the two over-transcribed *CYP6a14* genes. Four major loci gathering multiple variants were identified in chromosome 3. The first one carried 4 variants affecting a *CYP4v2* and an ABC transporter. The second one included 9 variants affecting 6 P450s belonging to a cluster of 18 *CYP4C* genes. The last two gathered various candidate genes including a *CYP9f2* gene and an epoxide. Altogether, this analysis indicates that the deltamethrin resistance phenotype observed in La Réunion

is not only caused by the overtranscription of detoxification genes but also by the selection of protein variants likely related to insecticide metabolism.

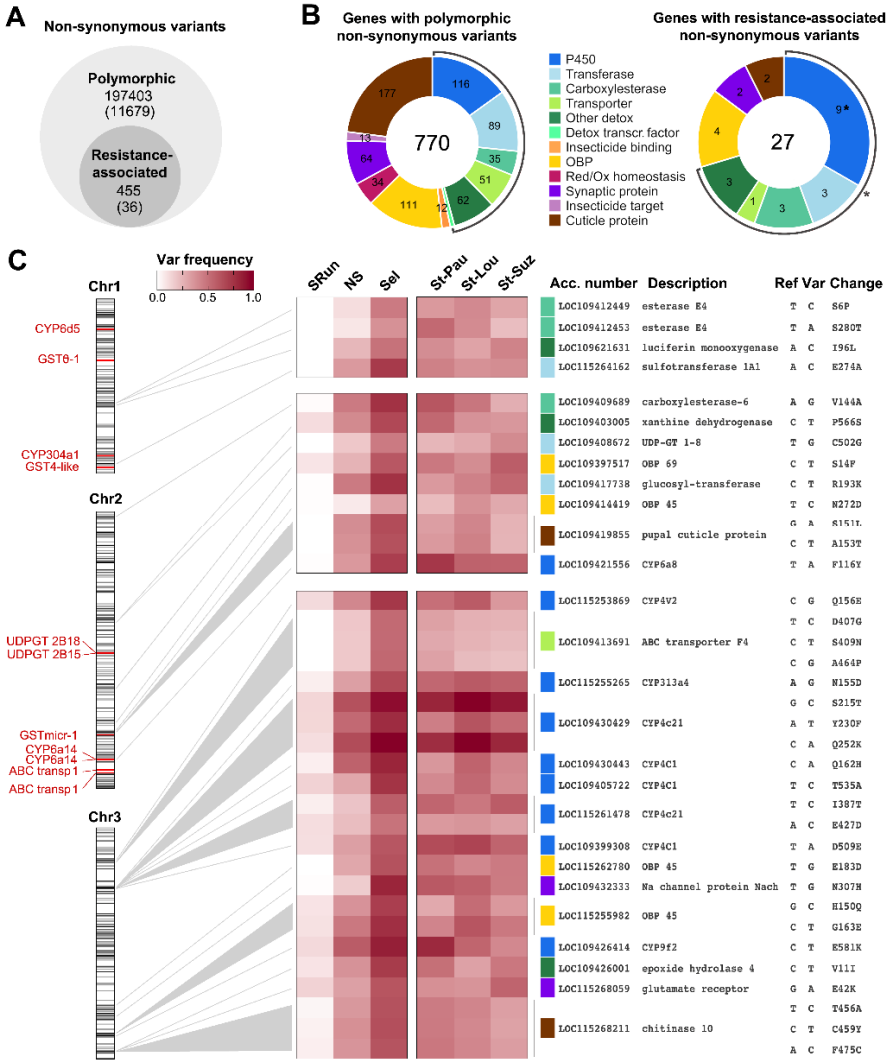

Fig 4. Protein variants associated with resistance. (A) Overview of non-synonymous variants identified. Numbers within brackets refer to variants affecting candidate genes. Variants associated with resistance were identified based on allele frequency variations across resistant and susceptible lines (see Methods) **(B)** The left donut-chart describes all candidate genes from which polymorphic non-synonymous variants were detected. The right donut-chart described those associated with resistance. Black circular arcs highlight gene families associated with detoxification. Stars indicate a significant enrichment (X^2 test, p value ≤ 0.05). **(C)** Candidate genes with non-synonymous variants associated with resistance. The heat map shows the frequency of the variant allele across all lines. The chromosomal position of each variant is shown on the left in respect to over-transcribed candidate genes (red marks) and candidate gene density (grey intensity). For each variant, gene family (colour square), gene accession number, gene description, nucleotide and amino-acid change are indicated. CYP: cytochrome P450; GST: glutathione S-transferase; UDPGT: UDP-glycosyltransferase; ABC transp: ABC transporter; Sel:

250 selected line; NS: non-selected line; St-Pau: Saint-Paul; St-Lou: Saint-Louis; St-Suz: Sainte-Suzanne; SRun: susceptible
251 reference line from La Réunion.

252

253 **Over-transcribed detoxification genes are not under direct selection**

254 Exonic polymorphism data were then used to look for gene-based selection signatures across the
255 genome between the Sel and NS lines based from allele frequency differentiation indexes (see
256 Methods). Among the 11 over-transcribed candidate genes, only the P450 *CYP304c1* and the
257 microsomal *GST-1* showed high differentiation indexes, which supports their cis-regulation. Other
258 over-transcribed candidate genes were below the baseline, consistent with their trans-regulation (**Fig.**
259 **5A**). Conversely, most candidate genes carrying protein variants associated with resistance showed
260 high gene differentiation indexes, supporting selection acting on the same *loci*. Among candidate
261 genes, those showing the highest differentiation indexes included two carboxylesterases *E4-like* on
262 chromosome 1, two UDPGTs and the *CYP6a8* P450 on chromosome 2, and the ABC transporter *F4* and
263 the two *CYP4c1* P450s on chromosome 3. Overall, though genetic drift may have occurred between
264 the Sel and NS lines, the high differentiation indexes observed across the three chromosomes support
265 the hypothesis of a multigenic adaptation based on standing genetic variation in La Réunion island (**Fig.**
266 **5B**).

267 **An inverted superlocus is under deltamethrin selection in La Réunion**

268 This analysis also identified a hundred genes located within an intriguing region of chromosome 2
269 displaying very high differentiation levels (**Fig. 5C and S6 Table**). This large 9.6 Mb *locus* showed a
270 strong selection signal in the Sel/NS comparison but also in other 'resistant *vs* susceptible'
271 comparisons coherent with a low recombination rate. Indeed, a quarter of the 3141 non-synonymous
272 polymorphisms detected in this region are above the whole genome top centile for Sel/NS
273 differentiation indexes. Examining reads topology identified 'one mate swap' read pairs and split reads
274 supporting the presence of a large genomic inversion whose breakpoints were 120,519,062 and
275 130,178,023. The partial mapping of these reads at the breakpoints together with the unmapped
276 fragments matching to multiple genomic locations supported the flanking of this inversion by two
277 transposable elements. The presence of this inversion at low frequency in the susceptible reference
278 strain SRun also suggests its pre-existence prior to its selection by deltamethrin in La Réunion. Among
279 the 107 genes located within the inverted region, only four belong to candidate genes including two
280 ABC-transporters, a cytochrome b5-like and a cuticle protein. However, none of them were
281 differentially transcribed, affected by CNV, or carried non-synonymous variants associated with
282 deltamethrin resistance. Among other genes located within the inversion, none showed a clear
283 association with a known resistance mechanism. Fifteen genes encoded known or putative (*i.e.* zing

finger proteins) transcription factors although none were previously associated with detoxification enzymes regulation. Several polymorphisms showing the highest Sel/NS differentiation affected the uncharacterized gene LOC115268503. Protein homology suggest that this gene encodes a S/T protein phosphatase with ankyrin motifs. As the voltage-gated sodium channel targeted by pyrethroids can be regulated by phosphorylation and interact with ankyrins (74,75), this gene is an attractive candidate to explain the selection of this large inversion by deltamethrin.

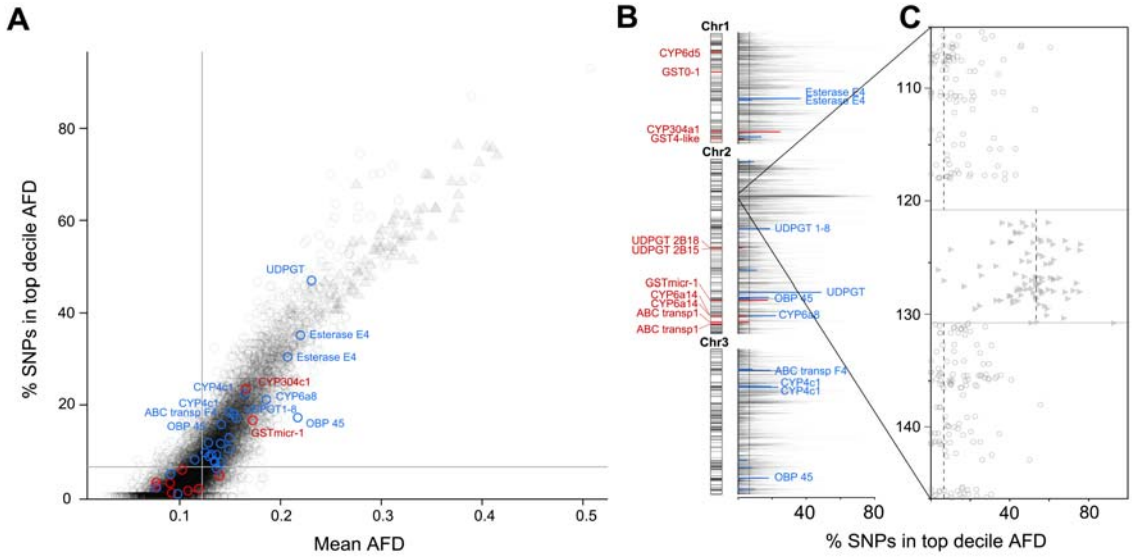

Fig 5. Genome-wide allele frequency differentiation. (A) The plot shows two genetic differentiation indexes for the Sel/NS line comparison: the mean Allele Frequency Difference per gene (mean AFD, absolute value) and the proportion (%) of SNPs per gene showing an AFD within the top decile of the global distribution (% SNPs in top decile AFD). These differentiation indexes were computed for the 10,192 protein-coding genes carrying > 20 bi-allelic substitutions (see Methods). Median values are shown as grey lines. Candidate genes within top quartiles for both differentiation indexes are annotated with those differentially transcribed in association with resistance in red and those carrying protein variants associated with resistance in blue. Triangles denotes genes carried by the genomic inversion identified in chromosome 2. **(B)** Genome wide overview of the '% SNPs in top decile AFD' index for the Sel/NS comparison. The dashed line stands for the median of the differentiation index across all genes. The chromosomal position of candidate genes associated with resistance is shown together with candidate gene density (grey intensity). **(C)** Focus on the genomic region carrying the 9 Mb inversion associated with resistance. The '% SNPs in top decil AFD' index is shown for all genes. Horizontal grey lines delimit the inverted region with breakpoints at Chr2:120,519,062-130178023 in AALBF3.v2 assembly (Chr2:405,097,032-416,198,432 in AALBF5 assembly). Vertical dashed lines show the median of the '% SNPs in top decile AFD' index within and outside the inverted region. The genomic scale is in Mb respective to AALBF3v2.

Discussion

Metabolic resistance likely emerged from local adaptation in La Réunion island

308 Bioassays performed on field mosquito populations from La Réunion island revealed a significant
309 deltamethrin resistance phenotype, confirming the rise of resistance observed since 2017 (58).
310 Considering that resistance may have remained undetected for some times, the emergence of
311 resistance may have begun a few years after deltamethrin was adopted for vector control following
312 the 2005-2006 chikungunya outbreak. The resistance level of the non-selected composite line was
313 similar to those observed in the field, suggesting that the sampling design was efficient at capturing
314 resistance alleles circulating in the island. Indeed, the ancient colonization of this insular territory by
315 *Ae. albopictus* was linked to a high local genetic diversity with significant gene flows between
316 populations (76–78).

317 More than 30 non-synonymous polymorphisms affecting the VGSC targeted by deltamethrin have
318 been identified in *Ae. albopictus* worldwide but only a few were consistently associated with
319 pyrethroid resistance (23,26,28,79: V1016G, I1532T and F1534S/C/L). Despite the sequencing of large
320 mosquito pools at high coverage, none of these *Kdr* mutations was detected in La Réunion island,
321 either in field populations or in composite laboratory lines. Considering the recurrent usage of
322 deltamethrin since 2005, this supports the absence of *Kdr* mutations in La Réunion at the time of the
323 study. As *Kdr* mutations have already spread across multiple continents including Asia, Europe and
324 Africa (26,28), such result also confirm that limited gene flow occurred from these regions. Instead, a
325 multigenic metabolic resistance phenotype was observed, involving detoxification genes belonging to
326 families involved in pyrethroid metabolism such as cytochrome P450s, glutathione S-transferases,
327 UDP-glycosyl transferases, and ABC-transporters (31,80). Elevated detoxification enzyme activities
328 have been linked to deltamethrin resistance in *Ae. albopictus* populations from various regions (46,81–
329 84).

330 Transcriptomic screenings revealed the over-transcription of the same detoxification gene families in
331 *Ae. albopictus* resistant populations from Asia with some P450s being functionally validated (44,45,47).
332 Among the detoxification genes identified in La Réunion, only the P450 (CYP6d5) was previously
333 identified as contributing to deltamethrin resistance in *Ae. albopictus* (same CYP gene named CYP6A8:
334 47). Yet, several of them showed high protein homology with known pyrethroid resistance genes
335 identified in other mosquito species. This includes two P450s showing high homology with
336 *CYP6Ms/CYP6Zs* subfamilies, two GSTs likely belonging to GST-theta and -delta families and two ABC-
337 transporters likely belonging to the ABCC family. Although functional validation is needed to clarify
338 their importance in the overall phenotype, the emerging picture is the independent selection of
339 detoxification genes in Asia and La Réunion. Such hypothesis is also supported by the absence of *Kdr*
340 mutations previously detected in Asia in La Réunion island. Such parallel evolution of detoxification
341 genes under pyrethroid selection is probable considering the functional redundancy observed within

342 these gene families whose members are often organized in clusters of genes sharing a high homology
343 (10,85). Altogether, while the introgression of metabolic resistance alleles cannot be ruled out, the
344 genetic isolation of La Réunion island together with the absence of *Kdr* mutations and the specific
345 nature of the genes identified support their local selection from standing genetic variation.

346 **Multiple genetic events underly the resistance phenotype**

347 Gene duplications mediating the over-expression of detoxification genes have been frequently
348 associated with the rapid adaptation of mosquitoes to insecticides (32,35,86,87). Here, the over-
349 transcribed P450 *CYP6d5* was linked to the presence of a ~100 Kb genomic duplication. Although our
350 short-read Pool-seq data did not allow to fully resolve the genomic architecture of the duplicated
351 locus, its flanking by transposable elements (TEs) was not surprising as TE-movements are often
352 associated with genomic duplication events (86,88), especially in TE-rich genomes such as *Aedes*
353 mosquitoes (89–91). No such duplication was identified for the other over-transcribed detoxification
354 genes, implying that their over-transcription is rather mediated by cis- or trans-regulation. In this
355 regard, the nuclear receptors CncC/Maf and AhR-ARNT considered as key regulators of insect
356 detoxification genes (92) were not differentially transcribed nor affected by protein variants in
357 association with resistance. Nevertheless, a two-codons deletion variant affecting the transcription
358 factor HR96 showed an increased frequency in resistant lines. The contribution of this transcription
359 factor to the regulation of detoxification enzymes has been demonstrated in spider mites (93,94).
360 Although this requires further validation, this finding supports the potential role of HR96 in the
361 regulation of detoxification enzymes in *Ae. albopictus*.

362 As metabolic resistance may also be the consequence of the selection of proteins variants showing a
363 higher activity toward the insecticide (10), polymorphism data were screened for non-synonymous
364 variants associated with resistance. Such analysis identified multiple detoxification protein variants
365 with P450s being over-represented. Yet this gene set showed no overlap with over-transcribed genes,
366 suggesting that these two adaptive mechanisms contribute to the multigenic resistance phenotype
367 observed in La Réunion island. Indeed, in a context of local adaptation, it is expected that selection
368 retains any polymorphism that contribute to resistance, affecting both gene expression and protein
369 function. Of particular interest was the selection of multiple P450 variants belonging to a cluster of 18
370 *CYP4C-like* genes on chromosome 3. Indeed, while *CYP4s* are not considered as classical xenobiotic
371 metabolizers in mosquitoes as opposed to *CYP6s*, *CYP9s*, some of them have been shown to be over-
372 transcribed in association with pyrethroid resistance in *Ae. aegypti* (95), suggesting their possible
373 contribution to deltamethrin metabolism. Similarly, the identification of two carboxylesterase variants
374 associated with resistance may indicate that these enzymes can still be active on deltamethrin or its

375 metabolites, even though the cyano group of type II pyrethroids like deltamethrin is thought to protect
376 the ester bond from a direct hydrolysis (96).

377 Polymorphism data were then used to look for genes under positive selection in association with
378 resistance. As expected, a good proportion of detoxification protein variants associated with resistance
379 showed a positive selection signal at the gene level. On the other hand, apart from one P450 and one
380 GST, most over-transcribed detoxification genes showed poor selection signals, supporting their trans-
381 regulation. Unexpectedly, such analysis also identified a large ~9 Mb genomic inversion on
382 chromosome 2 behaving as a supergene under deltamethrin selection. Genomic inversions can play a
383 key role in local adaptation as demonstrated in various biological models (97–100). Whether this
384 genomic event is specific to the South-West Indian Ocean or more widely distributed remains to be
385 investigated. In that concern, the identification of the inversion breakpoints will facilitate its high-
386 throughput genotyping by PCR. The hundred genes carried by the inverted locus included four
387 candidates but none of them were directly associated with deltamethrin resistance, suggesting that
388 they do not drive its selection. Considering the strong genetic linkage of the inverted haplotype,
389 deciphering which gene(s) drive the selection of this supergene is not at reach from the current data
390 set and requires functional approaches.

391 **A warning bell for the South-West Indian Ocean**

392 The French territory of La Réunion island is a hotspot of arbovirus transmission in the South West
393 Indian Ocean in line with a high human density and the presence of *Ae. albopictus* (57). Such
394 epidemiological context led to the recurrent use of deltamethrin for vector control since the first
395 Chikungunya outbreak of 2005-2006. In a context of genetic isolation, this repeated insecticide
396 pressure resulted in the local selection of a metabolic resistance phenotype underlain by various
397 genetic events. Such evolutionary scenario is supported by the multigenic nature of the phenotype
398 together with the striking absence of *Kdr* mutations, which are already widely distributed in this
399 species (26,28). At the time of the study, the resistance phenotype observed in the field was moderate
400 and can be further increased following a few generations of deltamethrin exposure, suggesting that
401 the selection of resistance alleles is undergoing in La Réunion and might be counterbalanced with
402 fitness costs. As the selection of this multigenic resistance phenotype may affect various mosquito life
403 traits including vector competence (7,101), precising its impact on population dynamics and viral
404 transmission is of interest.

405 Considering that the selection process was undergoing by the time of the study, the intense vector
406 control activity associated with recent chikungunya and dengue outbreaks may have resulted in an
407 increased frequency of resistance alleles in La Réunion and their dispersal to other neighbouring
408 territories of the South-West Indian Ocean. In addition, although *Kdr* mutations were not detected by

409 the time of the study, their introduction from Europe, Asia or Africa should be considered as a major
410 risk for the region. Indeed, their introduction in populations already carrying metabolic alleles is
411 expected to lead to an additive resistance phenotype that may impact vector control efficacy, as
412 shown in *Ae. aegypti* (19,21). In this context, the present study calls for an improved surveillance of
413 pyrethroid resistance in this region. Ideally, this surveillance should combine annual bioassays on
414 sentinel populations and the tracking of key metabolic resistance alleles identified here together with
415 known *Kdr* mutations.
416

417 ## Methods

418 **Mosquito lines and experimental design**

419 All mosquito lines were maintained under standard insectary conditions (27 ± 2°C, 70 ± 10 % relative
420 humidity and light/dark cycle 14h:10h). Populations size were maintained over 1000 individuals to
421 reduce the effect of genetic drift. Larvae were reared in tap water and fed with hay pellets. Adults
422 were maintained in mesh cages and fed on filter papers impregnated with a 10 % honey solution.
423 Blood feeding was conducted on mice to generate eggs of the next generation. Three days-old non-
424 blood-fed adult females were used for bioassays and molecular work.

425 The experimental design combined different mosquito populations all originating from La Réunion
426 island (**Fig. 1A**). First, a composite population from la Réunion island was created by pooling >500
427 larvae from six field populations collected in 2018-2019 using a minimum of three ovitraps per
428 population. After two generations of genetic mixing (F1 to F3), the composite population was split in
429 two separated lines (N>1000 in each line): the first being maintained without insecticide selection (NS
430 line) and the other being selected with deltamethrin for five successive generations (Sel line). Selection
431 was conducted on males and females separately prior mating as follows. Batches of 25 non-blood-fed
432 3-5 days-old adults were exposed to filter papers impregnated with 0.03% deltamethrin using WHO
433 test tubes. Exposure times were adjusted from 30 min to 1h to reach 40-60% mortality for each sex.
434 Surviving males and females were then pooled in a single mesh cage and allowed to reproduce.
435 Females were blood fed and allowed to lay eggs to generate the next generation. Three field
436 populations sampled in 2021 from the localities of St-Paul, St-Louis and St-Suzanne were also used.
437 Finally, the laboratory susceptible strain SRun colonized from La Réunion island in the 2000s was used
438 as reference line. For molecular analyses, genes and polymorphisms associated with resistance were
439 identified based on the five pairwise comparisons: 'Sel *vs* NS'; 'Sel *vs* SRun' and 'each field population
440 *vs* SRun'. Only genes and polymorphisms showing consistent variations (in the same direction) for all
441 comparisons were retained.

442 **Bioassays**

443 Comparative deltamethrin bioassays were performed on 3-5 days-old adult females following WHO
444 mosquito testing guidelines (102) using test tubes equipped with home-made insecticide papers
445 impregnated with 0.03% deltamethrin. Each bioassay was conducted using 9 replicates of 25 females
446 and an exposure time of 1h. Such insecticide dose resulted in a mortality >80% in the susceptible
447 reference line SRun. After insecticide exposure, mosquitoes were allowed to recover for 24h with a
448 cotton bowl impregnated with a 10% honey solution before mortality recording.

449 **Reference genome and candidate genes**

450 Genomic analyses were performed using the version AALBF3 of *Ae. albopictus* reference genome,
451 which was the latest available assembly at the time of this study (103). As this assembly was made
452 from 574 ordered scaffolds, the successive scaffolds were assembled into pseudo-chromosomes with
453 50N spacers (hereafter referred to as AALBF3.v2 assembly). A gff3 annotation file based on AALBF3.v2
454 assembly was also created based on AALBF3 annotation. The genomic coordinates of each scaffold on
455 AALBF3.v2 assembly is provided in **S7 Table**. Among the 22,435 features annotated in AALBF3.v2, only
456 the 17,342 genes and pseudogenes carried by the three nuclear chromosomes were retained for
457 genomic analyses. A subset of 953 genes belonging to 12 different families possibly involved in
458 insecticide resistance was defined. These candidate genes included: insecticide targets; synaptic
459 proteins; detoxification enzymes *sensu lato*; known detoxification transcription factors; ABC-
460 transporters; insecticide binding proteins; cuticle proteins; red/ox enzymes; odorant binding proteins
461 (**S8 Table**).

462 **RNA-sequencing**

463 For each line, four RNA-seq libraries were prepared from distinct batches of 25 five days-old non-
464 blood-fed females. Total RNA was extracted using TRIzol® (ThermoFisher Scientific) according to
465 manufacturer's instructions. RNA extracts were quantified with a Nanodrop One (ThermoFisher
466 Scientific) and diluted to meet sequencing requirements. Sequencing was performed by the BGI
467 Hongkong Tech Solution NGS Lab. Sample quality control was conducted on an Agilent 2100 and
468 libraries were prepared from 10 ng total RNA following the DNB-seq Eukaryotic Strand-specific mRNA
469 library protocol. Briefly, mRNAs were enriched with poly-A tails using oligodT beads and fragmented to
470 an average size of 200-400 bp before being reverse transcribed using random primers. Double-
471 stranded cDNAs were end-repaired and 3' adenylated. Adaptors were ligated at the 3'-end of the
472 cDNAs. Libraries were PCR amplified using rolling circle amplification to make DNA nanoballs (DNB)
473 and sequenced in multiplex as 100 bp paired-end reads. Adapters were trimmed with the SOAPnuke
474 v2.2.1 (104) and reads were filtered on base quality to reach an average Phred+33 score of 37. Quality

475 control was conducted using FastQC (105) leading to an average of 60.2 M quality-filtered reads per
476 replicate. Reads were then mapped onto the AALBF3.v2 assembly using STAR v2.7.10a (106) with
477 default parameters, except a minimum intron size of 10 bp. Mapping quality was assessed with
478 samtools v1.6 (http://www.htslib.org/), with an average of 94 % of reads being properly mapped (**S9**
479 **Table**). Gene read counts were quantified by STAR with default parameters.

480 *Differential transcription*

481 Differential transcription analysis was performed using DESeq2 (Love et al., 2014) on all genes and
482 pseudogenes showing ≥5 read counts in each of the four replicates for at least one mosquito line.
483 Differentially transcribed genes were identified based on their congruent transcription fold change (FC)
484 and adjusted Student' t-test *p* values (False Discovery Rate for multiple testing correction, 107) across
485 the five 'resistant vs susceptible' comparisons (see experimental design on **Fig. 1**). Fold change
486 thresholds were set as follows: FC ≥ 3 in 'Sel vs NS'; FC ≥ 3 in 'Sel vs SRun' and FC ≥ 1.5 in the three
487 'field vs SRun' comparisons while adjusted *p* Value threshold was set to 0.001 for all comparisons. In
488 order to clarify the role of detoxification genes over-transcribed in association with resistance, their
489 closest homologs were identified in *Ae. aegypti* and *An. gambiae* using a protein blast against *Ae.*
490 *aegypti* (LVP_AGWG) and *An. gambiae* (PEST) proteomes from VeuPathDB (108,109). As P450 gene
491 descriptions and gene names can vary across different genome versions, blast results were backed up
492 with a phylogenetic analysis performed on *CYP6s* protein sequences from *Ae. albopictus, Ae. aegypti*
493 and *An. gambiae*. Protein sequences were retrieved from NCBI and those having a validated role in
494 pyrethroid resistance were identified based on the literature and sequence alignments. Phylogenetic
495 trees were built using the only 'NGPhylogeny.fr' pipeline using approximate likelihood-ratio test (aLRT)
496 as branch support, with a *CYP4* sequence as outgroup (110).

497 *Alternative splicing*

498 Alternative splicing events and indels were identified from RNA-seq data using KisSplice v2.6.2 (111).
499 This *de novo* splicing events predictor was run on each replicate of each line with default parameters,
500 except the parameter -b which was set to 15 to account for the higher level of polymorphism in *Ae.*
501 *albopictus* compared with mammals. Splicing variants were identified with KissDE R package v1.19.0
502 (112). Only variants covered by at least 20 reads, affecting known genes and showing a congruent
503 splicing variation across all 'resistant vs susceptible' comparisons were retained. Delta Percent Spliced
504 In (ΔPSI) threshold were as follows: 20% for 'Sel *vs* NS'; 20% for 'Sel *vs* SRun' and 15% for the three
505 'field *vs* SRun' comparisons. The adjusted *p* value threshold was set to 0.05 (Benjamini & Hochberg
506 FDR for multiple testing correction). The splicing events passing these filters were then mapped to
507 AALBF3.v2 assembly using KisSplice2RefGenome v1.2.3

508 (https://kissplice.prabi.fr/tools/kiss2refgenome/) and assigned into three types: alternative splicing,
509 indels and intron retentions. The distinction between genomic indels and intron retention was based
510 on an arbitrary threshold (indel if ≤ 50 bp and intron retention if > 50 bp).

511 **Whole genome pool sequencing**

512 For each line, three batches of 33-35 three days-old virgin non-blood-fed females were sampled for
513 whole genome pool-sequencing (100 individuals per line). Genomic DNA was extracted separately for
514 each batch using the GENTRA Puregene kit (QIAGEN) following manufacturer's instructions quantified
515 using Qubit (Qiagen) and then pooled in equal DNA quantity. After quality check, one sequencing
516 library was prepared for each line following the DNBseq plant and animal whole genome resequencing
517 protocol (https://en.mgi-tech.com/products/). Briefly, DNA was fragmented, size selected (insert size
518 ~350 bp) and end-repaired. Adapters were ligated to the DNA fragments which were then size-
519 selected, amplified by PCR using rolling circle amplification and sequenced in multiplex as 150 bp
520 paired-end reads with the DNBseq Technology (MGI Tech Co). Sequencing reads were filtered based
521 on base quality resulting in a final average Phred score of 37 and adapters were removed with the
522 SOAPnuke software v2.2.1 (104) leading to an average of ~1630 M reads per line (**S9 Table**). Reads
523 were then mapped onto the *Ae. albopictus* AALBF3.v2 genome with BWA mem v0.7.17-r1188 (113).
524 SAM files were converted into BAM format, sorted by coordinates and unmapped reads were removed
525 using samtools v 1.6 (114). Mapped reads were trimmed and only reads showing a probability of
526 correct mapping of 0.999 were kept (MapQ ≥30). PCR duplicates were removed using picard
527 MarkDuplicates v2.27.5 (http://broadinstitute.github.io/*picard*), resulting in an average of 631 M
528 mapped reads per sample and a mean genome coverage of 64.2X.

529 *Copy number variations*

530 Genomic duplications were searched for by looking for genes showing a higher mean read coverage in
531 resistant than in susceptible mosquito lines. Though likely to generate false positives, this approach
532 was preferred to pipelines integrating local coverage variations and the presence of flanking non-
533 colinear reads (115) because the *Ae. albopictus* is genome is highly enriched with transposable
534 elements (>41% of the genome, 89) likely to generate false negatives. Indeed, transposable elements
535 are frequent at duplication breakpoints leading to the loss of non-colinear reads (*e.g.* split reads and
536 both mate flip reads) due to multiple mapping events. Since intronic regions are highly variable and
537 thus more subject to local coverage variations, mean normalized gene coverages were computed from
538 exonic regions only. Fold changes of normalized exonic coverage between lines were computed for all
539 genes. Since very low gene coverage can lead to artefactual high coverage variations, genes showing a
540 normalized coverage lower than the 5% global quantile were not considered. Furthermore, a global
541 observation of the data set indicated that the dispersion of coverage variations increased for smaller

542 transcripts. To take this into account, a sliding windows approach considering transcript length was
543 applied to identify differentially covered genes: for each pairwise line comparison, a gene was
544 considered as affected by a positive copy number variation (CNV) when its normalized coverage
545 variation was higher than the 95% quantile of the variation observed from the 1000 genes showing the
546 most similar transcript lengths. Following this approach, genes were considered as showing a positive
547 CNV associated with resistance when passing this threshold for all 'resistant vs susceptible'
548 comparisons ('Sel *vs* NS', 'Sel *vs* SRun' and the three 'field *vs* SRun' comparisons).

549 *Gene polymorphisms*

550 Gene polymorphisms associated with resistance were searched for using reads mapped to the coding
551 regions of protein-coding genes. For each line, polymorphisms were called using bcftools-v1.17 (116).
552 We then retained biallelic variants showing a read coverage between 50 and 300 reads in all lines, a
553 frequency ≥ 15% in at least one line and a frequency variation ≥ 15% between at least two lines. Genic
554 effects were annotated according to the longest reading frame using snpEff v5.2c (117). As the
555 reference genome *Foshan* strain is susceptible to deltamethrin (118) variants were considered
556 associated with resistance if the frequency of the variant allele increased in 'resistant vs susceptible'
557 comparisons. Frequency thresholds were as follows: frequency ≤ 15% in the susceptible SRun line,
558 frequency variation ≥ 25% in 'Sel *vs* SRun' and in 'Sel *vs* NS' comparisons, and frequency variation ≥
559 20% in the three 'Field *vs* SRun' comparisons.

560 We also specifically searched for non-synonymous polymorphisms affecting the gene encoding the
561 voltage-gated sodium channel protein targeted by deltamethrin (VGSC-para gene carrying the Kdr
562 mutations). However, this gene was incorrectly assembled in AALBF3 likely due to uncontrolled
563 heterozygosity. Indeed, the previous AALFBF2 assembly (Palatini et al., 2020) contains two annotated
564 gene copies, each located in a different scaffold (the 'VGSC-para' LOC109421922, and the 'VGSC para-
565 like' LOC109432678*)*. In AALBF3, both genic sequences were present but the 'para' sequence was not
566 annotated as a gene. In the latest AALBF5 assembly, a better control of heterozygosity led to the two
567 contigs being merged, resulting in a single annotated 'VGSC-para' gene (LOC109421922). We therefore
568 assumed that the AALBF5 assembly is correct. In order to study the polymorphism of this gene, all
569 reads mapped to AALBF3.v2 in the *para* (Chr3:378648962-378932310) and *para-like* regions
570 (Chr3:377089613-377411247) were re-mapped to the AALBF5 gene LOC109421922 and SNPs were
571 called as described above.

572 *Selection signatures*

573 Polymorphisms data were also used to look for selection signatures associated with deltamethrin
574 resistance between the Sel and NS lines, which only diverged by 5 generations of deltamethrin

575 selection. This analysis was based on all exonic bi-allelic substitutions covered by 50 to 300 reads in
576 each line and being polymorphic between these two lines (*i.e.* showing a variant frequency from 5% to
577 95% in at least one line). From this dataset, two genetic differentiation indexes were computed at the
578 gene level: the mean Absolute Frequency Difference (mean AFD), and the percentage of SNPs in the
579 top decile of the overall genomic AFD distribution. These indexes were plotted against each other and
580 across the AALBF3.v2 genome for the 10192 protein-coding genes containing ≥ 20 substitutions.

581

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587 the susceptible reference strain SRun. We also thank Vincent Lefort for help with phylogenetic
588 analyses.

589

590 ## Data availability

591 RNA-seq and WG Pool-seq sequencing data have been deposited at EBI short read archive (SRA) under
592 accession numbers E-MTAB-15418 and E-MTAB-15456.

593

594 ## Ethical aspects

595 Mice were kept in the animal facility of the Biology department of the University of Grenoble-Alpes,
596 approved by the French Ministry of Animal Welfare (agreement no. B 38 421 10 001) and used in
597 accordance with the laws of the European Union (directive 2010/63/EU). The use of animals for this
598 study was approved by the ComEth Grenoble-C2EA-12 ethics committee mandated by the French
599 Ministry of Higher Education and Research (MENESR). The study was conducted in accordance with
600 the ARRIVE guidelines.

601

602 ## Author contributions

603 **Conceptualization:** Tiphaine Bacot, Jean-Marc Bonneville, Jean-Philippe David
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616 David
617

618 ## Supporting information

619

620 **S1 File. Polymorphisms in the VGSC gene.** The first xlsx sheet describes all polymorphisms detected in
621 the VGSC coding regions. For each polymorphism, the following information is provided: Position
622 relative to AALBF5 assembly; amino-acid position in respect to the longest isoform; genic effect;
623 variant allele frequency in each line; Variant allele frequency variations between resistant and
624 susceptible lines; number of reads supporting each allele for each line. The second xlsx sheet provides
625 a graphical overview of the position of the variant identified relative to transmembrane domains and
626 known Kdr mutations.

627 **S2 Table**. **Gene transcription data.** This table describes transcription data for all genes detected by
628 RNA-seq. For each gene the following information is provided: AALBF3 accession number;
629 chromosomal position relative to AALBF3.v2 assembly; coding strand; gene type; Candidate gene
630 family; baseMean (mean normalized read counts across all conditions); $\log_2$ fold change and adjusted P
631 value for each resistant/susceptible comparison.

632 **S3 Table. Alternative splicing.** For each splicing event identified, the following information is provided:
633 AALBF3 accession number; gene description; candidate gene family; chromosome; event start; event
634 end; event type and subtype; event size in bp; frameshift occurrence; mean coverage; percent spliced
635 in (PSI for each line); PSI variation (ΔPSI for each comparison).

636 **S4 Table. Gene copy number variations.** For each gene detected, the following information is
637 provided: AALBF3 accession number; chromosomal position relative to the AALBF3.v2 assembly;

638 coding strand; gene type; candidate gene family; gene description; mRNA length; normalized exonic
639 coverage (for each lines); mean normalized coverage across all lines; coverage filter; CNV status for
640 both lab and field comparisons.

641 **S5 Table. Non-synonymous variants associated with resistance.** For each variant, the following
642 information is provided: chromosomal position relative to AALBF3.v2 assembly; reference and variant
643 alleles; polymorphism type; AALBF3 gene accession number; gene description; candidate gene family;
644 longest transcript; variant exon rank; variant genic effect; amino-acid change; cDNA position relative to
645 cDNA length; amino-acid position relative to protein length; total coverage (for each line); variant
646 allele frequency (for each line).

647 **S6 Table. Gene differentiation indexes.** For each gene the following information is provided: Gene
648 accession number; chromosomal position relative to AALBF3.v2 assembly; coding strand; gene
649 description; candidate gene family; total number of polymorphic SNPs; number of synonymous SNPs;
650 number of non-synonymous SNPs; number of resistance-associated non-synonymous SNPs; mean
651 Allele Frequency Variation between Sel and NS Lines (mean AFD); the percent of SNPs showing an AFD
652 within the top decile of the global distribution (% top decil AFD); differential transcription associated
653 with resistance (Yes/No); gene being within the inversion identified on chr2 (Yes/No).

654 **S7 Table. The AALBF3.v2 genome assembly.** The genomic position of AALBF3 scaffolds on AALBF3.v2
655 chromosomes is provided. AALBF3 scaffolds were assembled in the same order as described in Boyle
656 et al. 2021 with 50N spacers inserted between them.

657 **S8 Table. Resistance candidate genes.** For each gene the following information is provided:
658 AALBF3accesion number; chromosomal position relative to AALBF3.v2 assembly; coding strand; gene
659 type; candidate gene family; gene description.

660 **S9 File. Sequencing data overview.** The first xlsx sheet provides RNA-seq sequencing and mapping
661 statistics. The second xlsx sheet provides whole genome Pool-seq sequencing and mapping statistics.

662

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