Geographic divergence and the genomic basis of reproductive diapause in *Drosophila triauraria*

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Abstract

Adjusting reproduction timing to environmental cues is essential for lifetime fitness. In many insects, reproductive diapause shows clinal variation along environmental gradients such as photoperiod and temperature. How such continuous trait variation may be encoded at the molecular level and maintained in the presence of gene flow remains largely elusive. The fruit fly *Drosophila triauraria* is distributed across a wide latitudinal range of the Japanese archipelago. Northern strains exhibit a strong photoperiodic reproductive diapause in females, whereas southern strains fail to arrest ovarian development even under short-day conditions at low temperatures. These distinct phenotypes and the presumable clinal variation in between, provide an ideal opportunity to examine the molecular basis of latitudinal divergence. We first investigated diapause induction in both females and males from previously reported and newly tested strains collected from the regions spanning ~26–43°N along the Japanese archipelago. The assessment revealed continuous geographic variation in sensitivity to photoperiod and temperature. We then analyzed the whole-genome sequences of 21 strains, including 14 newly sequenced, to identify genomic regions underlying this divergence. In addition to the conventional F_{ST} analysis, we applied a "monophyletic window" approach suitable for limited sample sizes. The analysis identified a candidate region containing putative E-box and TER-box sequence motifs of the *timeless* (*tim*) gene, which has been previously implicated in diapause regulation in multiple insect species. The quantitative PCR analysis further supported a partial association between the *tim* expression and the incidence of female diapause. These findings reinforce the growing evidence for a role of circadian clock genes in the adaptive regulation of reproductive diapause and demonstrate the utility of tree-based approaches for detecting genomic regions of geographic divergence.

Keywords: reproductive diapause, *timeless*, *Drosophila triauraria*, ovary, accessory gland

INTRODUCTION

Adjusting internal physiological states to environmental fluctuations is essential for survival and reproductive success. Traits related to the sensitivity to environmental cues or the magnitude of physiological responses often maintain polymorphisms due to fluctuating or unpredictable fitness outcomes (e.g., Johnson et al., 2023). Such traits may also exhibit intraspecific clinal variation when key environmental factors follow a continuous geographical gradient (reviewed in Hut et al., 2013; Mayekar et al., 2022). Sensitivity to photoperiod and temperature cues that induce diapause in insects is a well-documented example (reviewed in Bradshaw & Holzapfel, 2007; Denlinger, 2023). Despite decades of studies using various insect species, the molecular mechanisms that enable continuous variation in diapause induction along clinal environmental gradients, and the processes that maintain such variation in the presence of gene flow, remain elusive.

Many studies have attempted to identify loci involved in the photoperiodic regulation of diapause across clinal populations to tackle this question. In *Drosophila melanogaster*, specific genes with large effects have been identified, such as *ls-tim* in European populations (Tauber et al., 2007) and *couch potato* in North America (Schmitt et al., 2008). However, these associations appear inconsistent across different geographic regions (Lee et al., 2011; Zonato et al., 2016; 2018), suggesting a polygenic nature of the phenotype (Bradshaw et al., 2012; Laruson et al., 2020; Barghi et al., 2020). Recent genomic resequencing studies in Lepidoptera, comparing population differentiation or conducting large-scale phenotype-genotype association analyses, have identified additional candidate genes, many of which are related to circadian regulations (Kozak et al., 2019; Pruisscher et al., 2021; Lindestad et al., 2022; Yu et al., 2023; Zheng et al., 2025). Although single genetic variants rarely explain the full extent of phenotypic variation in many cases (e.g., Pruisscher et al., 2018; Lindestad et al., 2024), the association between the circadian clock and photoperiodic regulation is widely recognized Lepidoptera as well as in other insect species (Ikeno et al. 2010; Chang & Meuti, 2020; Hasebe & Shiga, 2025). Whether this association represents a consistent pattern across diverse insect species requires further investigation, as it has not been detected in some studies (e.g., Emerson et al., 2009; Lirakis et al., 2022). At the same time, despite advances in genomic technologies, collecting sufficiently large sample sizes across broad geographic ranges, alongside phenotypic assays and genome sequencing, continues to be a significant challenge.

Drosophila species, many of which likely to have originated in tropical regions, have expanded to occupy habitats spanning a wide latitudinal range (Throckmorton, 1975; Lemeunier et al., 1986; Markow & O'Grady, 2006). Their migratory ability has also facilitated the expansion of habitats within species (e.g., Sprengelmeyer et al., 2020), providing opportunities to investigate

both shared and convergent genetic bases of clinal variation. Because of the direct fitness consequences, clinal variation in reproductive diapause, in which reproduction is arrested under unfavorable environmental conditions, is documented in multiple *Drosophila* species inhabiting temperate to subarctic regions. The diapause incidence increases with latitude in many of these species, reflecting local adaptation despite ongoing gene flow. For example, diapause incidence varies with latitude between ~35–70°N in *D. montana* (Tyukmaeva et al., 2020; Lankinen et al., 2023) and *D. littoralis* (Lankinen, 1986), and between ~34–43°N in *D. auraria* (Minami & Kimura, 1980; Kimura, 1984; Pittendrigh & Takamura, 1987) and *D. lacertosa* (Ichijo, 1986). Similarly, clinal variation of diapause incidence has been intensively studied in *D. melanogaster* along the eastern coast of North America (~25–45°N) and Europe (e.g., Schmidt et al., 2007; Tauber et al., 2007).

In this study, we focus on *D. triauraria*, a member of the auraria complex, which inhabits wide latitudinal ranges (~26–43°N) across the Japanese archipelago (Kimura, 1987). In this species, a strong photoperiodic reproductive diapause has been reported in northern strains, whereas, notably, southern strains fail to arrest ovarian development even under short-day conditions at 15°C (Kimura, 1983; 1988; Yamada & Yamamoto, 2011). These distinct phenotypes, together with the presumable clinal variation in between, provide an ideal opportunity to examine the molecular basis of latitudinal divergence.

Here, we investigate the sensitivity to temperature and photoperiod in reproductive diapause induction in both females and males of *D. triauraria* from mid-latitude regions alongside previously reported and newly tested strains from high- and low-latitude populations. We then examined the degree of divergence from the distribution of a previously described polymorphism in genital morphology (Onuma et al., 2022), and also by a phylogenetic analysis using the whole-genome sequences of the 21 *D. triauraria* strains. Next, to finding signatures of regional divergence, we applied a "monophyletic window" approach, in addition to the conventional F_{ST} analysis. A candidate region contained the *timeless* (*tim*) gene; thus, we conducted quantitative PCR analysis to analyze the association between the *tim* expression and the female reproductive diapause incidence. We discuss the involvement of a circadian clock gene in the adaptive regulation of reproductive diapause in *D. triauraria* and demonstrate the utility of the monophyletic window approach for identifying genomic regions showing geographic divergence.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Fly strains

The *Drosophila* strains used in this study are described in Table 1. The sampled locations on the

map are shown in Figure 1. All strains were maintained at 20ºC under the 15 h light: 9 h dark

cycle. All flies were fed with standard corn meal food mixed with yeast, glucose, and agar.

Female diapause assay

The flies were not exposed to the test conditions prior to eclosion, as exposure to low

temperatures during embryonic and larval development results in high mortality. Ten virgin

females collected within 6 h of eclosion were placed into the food vials and reared under an 8 h

light: 16 h dark (8L:16D) or a 16 h light: 8 h dark (16L:8D) cycle, at 12°C, 15°C, and 18°C. The

15°C and 18°C conditions were adopted from the previous studies of this species (Kimura,

1983; Yamada & Yamamoto, 2011), and the 12°C condition was introduced in addition to those

temperatures. The 16L:8D and 8L:16D testing light cycles were set to be slightly longer and

shorter, respectively, than the natural day lengths (hours between sunrise and sunset) at the

summer peak (~15.5 h) and winter peak (~9 h) at the collection sites of the high-latitude strains.

Flies were dissected after 21 days at 12°C, 16 days at 15°C, and 14 days at 18°C, according to

the timing of sexual maturation inferred from the previous studies (Kimura, 1983; Oguma et al.,

1996). The females were dissected in phosphate-buffered saline (PBS), and the ovary images

were taken by a CCD camera (DP73, Evident) attached to a microscope (SZX16, Evident). The

developmental stages of eggs inside the ovarioles were determined according to King (1970).

Diapaused ovaries were defined as those with egg stages 0 to 7 (Figure 2).

Measurements of Accessory gland (AG)

Ten non-mated males collected within 6 h of eclosion were dissected immediately or placed into

the food vials and reared under an 8L:16D or 16L:8D light/dark cycle at 12°C for 21 days. The

males were dissected in PBS and their accessory glands were fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde

(PFA) in PBS for 30 min, followed by three washes in PBST (0.05% Tween 20). The samples

were then transferred into PBS. For imaging, 7 μL VectorShield with DAPI (Vector

Laboratories) was used for mounting on the slides. Images were taken by a CCD camera (DP73,

Evident) attached to an inverted microscope (IX73, Evident). The obtained images were

analyzed for area measurement using ImageJ (Schneider et al. 2012).

Male genitalia dissection

Genitalia from 10 males aged 7–10 days were dissected in glycerol after boiling whole bodies in

10% potassium hydroxide at 95°C for more than 10 min to digest soft internal tissues and

facilitate clearing. Dissections were performed under a stereomicroscope (SZX7, Evident).

Images were acquired using an inverted microscope (IX73, Evident) equipped with a CCD

camera (DP73, Evident). Image stacks were processed with CellSens software (Evident) to

generate depth-composited TIFF files. Terminology and identification of phallic structures

followed Rice et al. (2019) and Onuma et al. (2022) for *D. triauraria*.

Genome sequencing

Genomic DNA was extracted from 40 individuals (20 males and 20 females) per strain for the

nine *Drosophila triauraria* strains (SPR23-05, SPR23-09, TM15-38, TM15-57, TM15-67,

TM15-92, T544, TTR010, and TMU23-02), along with one *D. biauraria* strain (SPR23-04) and

one *D. subauraria* strain (ONM29). DNA extraction was performed using the QIAGEN

Genomic-tip 20/G kit (QIAGEN), following the protocol described by Solares et al. (2018).

DNA concentrations were quantified using a Qubit dsDNA Quantification Assay Kit

(Invitrogen). For each sample, 1 µg of DNA was sent to Filgen, Inc. for library construction and

sequencing using a NovaSeq6000 platform with 150 bp paired-end reads.

Additionally, genomic DNA was extracted separately from 10 females and 10 males from each

of the five *D. triauraria* strains (ONM-15, K445, Jou, Yak2, and Yak3) using the Geno Plus

Genomic DNA Extraction Miniprep System (Viogen). DNA samples (50–250 ng per sample)

were used for library preparation with the Collibri PCR-free ES DNA Library Prep Kit for

Illumina (Invitrogen). Quality assessment of the libraries was performed using an Agilent 2100

Bioanalyzer (Agilent Technologies). The libraries were then sent to Macrogen Inc., Korea, for

sequencing by using a HiseqX with 150 bp paired-end reads. Read depth and quality

information for each strain are listed in Table S1.

Quality control and variant calling of the genomic sequence data

Quality control of the sequencing reads was performed using FastQC (Andrews, 2010). Adapter

trimming and quality filtering (QC > 30) were conducted using Trim Galore! (Krueger, 2021).

Reads were then mapped to the *D. triauraria* reference genome (GCA_014170255.2,

RU_Dtri_1.1, NCBI) using Bowtie2 (Langmead & Salzberg, 2012). The mapped reads were

sorted using SAMtools (Li et al., 2009), and variant calling was performed using BCFtools

v1.18 (Danecek et al., 2021). The quality of the variant calling process was assessed using

MultiQC (Ewels et al., 2016) based on the BCFtools v1.18 output. Post-calling variant filtration

was performed using BCFtools v1.18. Variants with QUAL $\leq$ 10, DP > 120, or MQBZ < -3

were filtered out, and the remaining variants were output in variant call format (VCF).
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Maximum likelihood tree construction

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A FASTA file for each strain was constructed by replacing the reference sequence with the
single-nucleotide polymorphisms and deletions (replaced by "-") in the variant call format
(VCF) file. The FASTA files from all strains were merged (alignment kept from the original VCF
file) and converted to PHYLIP format. Maximum likelihood phylogenetic trees were constructed
using IQ-TREE (Minh et al., 2013; 2020; Nguyen et al., 2015) with ultrafast bootstrap
(UFBoot) analysis (1,000 replicates) and the GTR+G+I substitution model. Gaps were removed
prior to running IQ-TREE. To construct trees from specific 5 kb windows, the focal regions
were extracted from the merged FASTA file using SeqKit2 (Shen et al., 2024), in prior to
PHYLIP conversion.
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Monophyletic window analysis by maximum parsimony tree construction

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To conduct a genome-wide sliding window analysis, VCF files from all strains were directly
merged (without first constructing FASTA files). The merged VCF file was then divided into 5
kb windows with a 1 kb step size using BCFtools v1.18, and converted to PHYLIP format using
vcf2phylip.py (Ortiz, 2019). MPBoot v1.1 (Hoang et al., 2018) was used to generate maximum
parsimony phylogenetic trees from each window with 1,000 UFBoot replicates. Monophyly of a
particular latitudinal group of strains was analyzed using ape 5.0 (Paradis & Schliep, 2019) and
phangorn (Schliep, 2011) packages in R (R core team, 2025). Windows with trees containing
monophyletic inner branches with UFBoot values ≥ 90 were considered as candidate genomic
regions. The phylogenetic trees were visualized and examined using FigTree v1.4.4 (Rambaut,
2018). Other window sizes (10, 20, and 100 kb) were also analyzed for comparisons. Smaller
window sizes provide higher resolution but reduced statistical power due to the limited number
of variants. The window size of 5 kb was selected as the smallest size for which more than 90%
of windows contained at least 100 variants. To identify genes within the candidate regions, a
local BLASTN search (Altschul et al., 1990) using BLAST v2.15.0 (Camacho et al., 2009) was
conducted against the *D. melanogaster* transcripts
(GCF_000001215.4_Release_6_plus_ISO1_MT_rna.fna.gz), retrieving the hits with E-values <
0.01.
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Genetic differentiation analysis

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To assess genetic differentiation between groups, Weir and Cockerham's F_{ST} value

(Weir and Cockerham, 1984) was calculated using VCFtools (Danecek et al., 2011) for each 5

kb window. The weighted F_{ST} statistic was used to account for varying sample sizes. The results

were visualized in R using the ggplot2 package (Wickham, 2016).

Sanger sequencing of the two adjacent monophyletic windows (6 kb) including *tim*

Genomic DNA was extracted from a single female using the NucleoSpin DNA Extraction Kit

(Macherey-Nagel). PCR amplification of the 6 kb region was performed using KAPA HiFi

HotStart Ready Mix (KAPA Biosystems) or Takara Ex Premier DNA Polymerase (Takara Bio).

Two sets of primer pairs were used: 1) 5'-CAGTGCTGATAAACCCCCTTACCTA- 3' or 5'-

CACTTGGTTATGAAAGCCCTAACCT- 3' and 5'-GCCAGTTGTAGGTACTTCTCCTCCT- 3';

2) 5'-AAATACCGGTTATGGACTGGTTACTAGC- 3' and 5'-

AAGTCCTCCAAGAGGATGCCATAATAGT- 3'. PCR products were purified using AMPure

XP beads (Beckman Coulter) or QIAquick Gel Extraction Kit (QIAGEN). Sanger sequencing

was performed using BigDye Terminator v3.1 Cycle Sequencing Kit (Applied Biosystems,

Thermo Fisher Scientific) and ABI 3130xl Genetic Analyzer (Applied Biosystems, Thermo

Fisher Scientific). Sequence assembly was conducted using BioEdit (Hall, 1999), and the

resulting FASTA files were compiled and aligned using MEGA7 (Kumar et al., 2016). The

heterozygotes were replaced by the reference sequence manually or using Mitsucal (Suzuki et

al., 2018).

Transcript models of *tim* were built by aligning a publicly available ovary transcripts

(SRR11780982) to the reference genome (GCA_014170255.2, RU_Dtri_1.1, NCBI) using

HISAT2 (Kim et al., 2019). Adapter trimming and quality filtering (QC > 30) were conducted

using Trim Galore! in prior to alignment. The aligned reads were sorted into BAM files with

SAMtools and assembled into transcripts using StringTie (Pertea et al., 2015). Open reading

frames (ORFs) were predicted with TransDecoder (Haas et al. 2013) with a minimum length of

50 amino acids and subsequently filtered by BLASTP against *D. melanogaster* protein

sequences (FlyBase dmel-all-translation-r6.36.fasta). BLASTP hits were used to retain only

ORFs with significant matches (E-value < 1e-10).

3' Rapid amplification of cDNA ends (3' RACE) of *tim* isoforms

One hundred heads from *D. triauraria* females reared at 20°C under a 15L:9D light/dark cycle

were flash-frozen in liquid nitrogen at Zeitgeber-time (ZT)4, corresponding to 4 h after lights

on. Total RNA was extracted using the PureLink RNA Mini Kit with TRIzol Reagent (Thermo

Fisher Scientific). RNA concentration was measured using a NanoDrop 2000 spectrophotometer

(Thermo Fisher Scientific). cDNA synthesis was performed using PrimeScript III Reverse

Transcriptase (Takara Bio) with 1 μg of total RNA as a template. The oligo (dT) primer was

used at a final concentration of 100 pmol/μL. PCR amplification was carried out using DNA Ex

Premier Polymerase (Takara Bio) with 5'-

GAGCTCAAGCTTAATCTGTTAAAAGAGTTTACAGTGG-3' and 5'-

CCAGTGAGCAGAGTGACGAGGACTCGAGCTCAAGCTTTTTTTTTTTTTTTTTT-3'. PCR

products were analyzed by agarose gel electrophoresis, and target bands (800–1,000 bp and

3,000–3500 bp) were excised and purified using NucleoSpin Gel and PCR Clean-up Kit (Takara

Bio). The purified DNA fragments were cloned into the pBluescript II SK(+) vector (Agilent

Technologies). The vector and PCR products were digested by NotI and treated with shrimp

alkaline phosphatase (SAP) for dephosphorylation, followed by ligation using T4 DNA Ligase

(Takara Bio). The ligated plasmids were transformed into competent *E. coli* cells. Plasmid DNA

was extracted from colonies containing plasmids with a PCR product insertion using Cica

Geneus Plasmid Kit (Kanto Chemical). The inserted PCR products were then subjected to

Sanger sequencing as described above.

Quantification of clock genes or *tim* isoforms transcription level

Ten virgin females of ONMA20-3 were collected within 6 h of eclosion and reared in food vials

(10 individuals per vial) under an 8L:16D or 16L:8D light/dark cycle at 12°C. After 7 days, the

females were immediately frozen in liquid nitrogen every 4 h and stored at -80°C. The same

protocol was applied to 15 additional strains, except that the samples were collected at 8 h and

16 h after lights on under the respective 8L:16D or 16L:8D light/dark cycle.

To extract RNA, 10 frozen heads per sample were detached by vortexing for 5 seconds

and placed into 2 mL microtubes containing 400 μL TRIzol Reagent and 1.2 mm (diameter)

zirconia-silica beads. Tubes were shaken at 3,200 rpm for 2 min using a Beads Crusher μT-12

(Taitec). Chloroform (160 μL) was added, and total RNA was purified using the silica-gel-based

method of Boom et al. (1990). First-strand cDNA was synthesized from 70 ng total RNA using

the PrimeScript RT Reagent Kit with gDNA Eraser (Takara Bio).

Realtime reverse transcription quantitative PCR (RT-qPCR) was conducted using

TBGreen Premix Ex Taq II (Tli RNaseH Plus, Takara Bio) in a total reaction volume of 12.5

μL. Each reaction contained 6.25 μL of TBGreen Premix, 2 μL of the 3-fold diluted cDNA

sample, and 10 pmol each of forward and reverse primers (*tim-L*: 5'-

CCCGCATGTATGTAAGCGATG- 3' and 5'-AACTCGGATCTGGGATCTGCT- 3', *tim-sc*: 5'-

TGAACACTCCTCCAAAGTCACC- 3' and 5'-GCATCTTAATCCTTACCAAATGG- 3').

Reactions were performed using the Dice Real Time System II thermal cycler (Takara Bio). The
standard curves generated from 5-fold serial dilutions of an arbitrarily selected sample (the third
replicate of the OEB12 samples collected at ZT16 under 16L:8D light/dark cycle) were used.
Each sample was analyzed in technical duplicate, with three biological replicates for each
condition.
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297 **RESULTS**
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299 **Geographic variation in female diapause induction**
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Previous studies have reported a strong photoperiodic induction of reproductive diapause in
females of *D. triauraria* from subarctic regions (42–44°N) and the contrasting non-diapausing
phenotype of those from subtropical regions (26–28°N) of the Japanese archipelago (Kimura,
1983; 1988; Kimura & Yoshida, 1995; Yamada & Yamamoto, 2011). Strains from the template
regions in between exhibited various levels of photoperiodic induction of reproductive diapause
at 15°C (Kimura, 1983; 1988). To investigate the geographic variation in photoperiodic
responses across temperatures, we measured the proportion of ovaries in reproductive diapause
at 12°C, 15°C, and 18°C under either an 8L:16D or 16L:8D light/dark cycle using 21 strains
from high- to low-latitude localities (Table 1, Figure 3).
Consistent with the previous studies, the strains from low-latitude regions showed
almost no diapause incidence under any condition, showing continuous ovarian development. In
contrast, strains from high-latitude regions induced diapause under short-day conditions in a
temperature-dependent manner but went into reproductive mode under the long-day photoperiod
regardless of temperature. Reproducing under long-day conditions at low temperature may be
an adaptive strategy to cope with short summers in high-latitude localities.
Mid-latitude strains showed photoperiod-dependent diapause induction at 15°C and
18°C, like high-latitude strains. However, at 12°C, approximately half of the females induced
reproductive diapause under the long-day condition. These results suggest that although mid-
latitude strains respond to photoperiods like high-latitude strains, their photoperiodic response at
low temperature is reduced, indicating a higher sensitivity to temperature. Three strains from
Yakushima Island, which is known for its unique climate including subtropical in the coastal
area to near subarctic in the mountainous ranges > 1,800 m, exhibited variable extent of
diapause induction under all temperature conditions.
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325 **Diapause induction in males**
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While reproductive diapause is more pronounced in females compared to males in *Drosophila* species, males also exhibit reduced reproductive activity under unfavorable conditions (Kimura, 1988; Kubrak et al., 2016; Ala-Honkola et al., 2020). The cost of reproduction typically differs between males and females (Bateman, 1948; Trivers, 1972); therefore, they may apply different criteria when allocating energy to reproduction. We investigated this possibility by examining male reproductive status under the 8L:16D or 16L:8D light/dark cycle at 12°C using 12 strains (four each from high-, mid-, and low-latitude populations). Yakushima strains were not included in the male accessory gland analysis because the diapause phenotypes of the females were variable and the variation was not associated with latitude, which is the primary focus of this study.

Reduction of testis and accessory gland size at low temperature and short photoperiod has been reported in *D. melanogaster* (Kubrak et al., 2016). However, unlike egg development in ovarioles, which has a checkpoint prior to the initiation of vitellogenesis, when environmental condition is assessed before investigating energy into egg production (Giorgi & Deri, 1976; Drummond-Barbosa & Spradling, 2001), there is no explicit point of arrest in male reproductive organs. Thus, we measured the size of accessory glands, where costly proteins are produced to be injected into the female reproductive tract during copulation.

The accessory gland sizes were measured from the males of all 12 strains kept 21 days after eclosion under the 8L:16D or 16L:8D light/dark cycle at 12°C (Figure 4A). For comparison, those of newly eclosed males within 6 h of eclosion were also measured and the 95% confidence interval (CI) was calculated from the measurement of all strains except T544 (Figure S1). Because the accessory glands of T544 males were significantly larger than those of Jou, OEB12, and OKNG12-6, the 95% CI was calculated separately for this strain. In this study, the males were conservatively classified as reproductively arrested if their accessory gland size was below the upper 95% CI limit of the newly eclosed males. Individuals with accessory gland sizes exceeding this threshold were classified as developing.

The proportion of males under reproductive arrest are shown in Figure 4B. Unlike females, no male in any of the 12 strains met the criteria of reproductive arrest under the 16L:8D light/dark cycle. Their accessory gland sizes not only exceeded the upper 95% CI limit of the newly eclosed males but also showed substantial growth in all strains (Figure 4A and Figure S1). Under the 8L:16D light/dark cycle, some individuals from the high- and mid-latitude strains went into reproductive arrest; however, the proportion did not exceed 60% in any strain, even under the condition where most of females from these regions entered reproductive diapause. These results suggest a weaker suppression of reproduction in males compared to females under unfavorable conditions. Consistent with the reproductive status of the females at

12°C, the males from low-latitude regions did not enter reproductive arrest under either

photoperiod.

Intraspecific variation in male genital morphology

To assess the degree of divergence among the latitudinal groups within this species, we

examined another polymorphic trait related to reproduction that is not strongly influenced by

climatic adaptation. Unlike the diapause-related traits, genital morphology in general is

insensitive to environmental factors and is often used for species identification. Thus, variation

in this trait provides an independent dataset for evaluating the extent of genetic divergence and

independent segregation of genomic regions. Different morphological forms of aedeagus

appendages have raised considerable debate over species delimitation of *D. triauraria*. Bock &

Wheeler (1972) initially described *D. quadraria* from Taiwan as a distinct species based on

differences in male genital morphology, specifically the presence of smaller appendages

(dorsolateral claws) compared to those of *D. triauraria* (type specimen from Tokyo, Japan).

However, subsequent fertility assays of hybrids (Kimura, 1987; Kim et al., 1989) and molecular

phylogenetic analyses (Miyake & Watada, 2007) led to the reclassification of *D. quadraria* as a

junior synonym of *D. triauraria* (Watada et al., 2011). Additionally, individuals with similarly

small appendages have been reported from the southern islands of Japan (Onuma et al., 2022),

further supporting that the observed variation reflects intraspecific rather than interspecific

differences.

The morphological variation in aedeagus appendages was classified into two types:

Northern (N) and Southern (S) (Figure 5 upper panel). Type N is characterized by larger

appendages with a narrower space between them compared to type S. Type N corresponds to the

originally described form in *D. triauraria* (Bock & Wheeler, 1972), while type S matches the

form from Nansei (Ryukyu) Islands (Onuma et al., 2022), corresponding to the low-latitude

region in this study. Genital morphology was examined in 10 males per strain. The strains from

southern Japan (low-latitude, Yakushima, and two mid-latitude strains) possessed only type S,

whereas most mid- and high-latitude strains included both types (Figure 5 lower panel).

Although weak differentiation between northern and southern populations was apparent in

genital morphology, discrepancies between the genital morphology and the diapause phenotype

suggest that these traits segregate independently, consistent with long-term gene flow and mixed

genomic backgrounds across geographic regions.

Genomic phylogeny and geographic differentiation in *D. triauraria*

Whole-genome sequences were analyzed to further investigate the overall genetic differentiation
among *D. triauraria* strains and the relationship to three other species from the auraria complex.
Short-read sequencing data were generated from 14 *D. triauraria*, one *D. subauraria*, and one
D. biauraria strains, and additional data for seven *D. triauraria* and four *D. auraria* strains were
retrieved from the NCBI Sequence Read Archive (SRA) (Table 1). Phylogenetic analysis using
a maximum-likelihood tree based on the whole-genome sequences revealed that strains from *D.*
triauraria and *D. auraria* formed separate clades (Figure 6). Within *D. triauraria*, a weak north
to south clinal differentiation was observed, with southern population being closer to the other
three species of the auraria complex. The low-latitude strains formed a single cluster, whereas
strains within each of the high-, mid-latitude, and Yakushima regions did not.
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409 **Identification of genomic regions differentiated among geographic populations**
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The genital morphology polymorphism and the whole-genome phylogeny suggest that
divergence among latitudinal groups at loci regulating reproductive diapause is likely to be
maintained despite gene flow. Such loci should therefore exhibit signatures of divergence
among latitudinal groups, in contrast to the rest of the genome. To identify these regions, we
employed a tree-based method, focusing on strains from extremes of the species distribution
(high- and low-latitude groups), where diapause phenotypes differ most strongly. The genome
was partitioned into 5 kb windows with a 1 kb step size, and the windows were screened for
those in which high- and low-latitude strains formed monophyletic clusters with $\geq 90\%$
bootstrap (UFBoot) support. A window size of 5 kb was chosen after comparison with 10, 20,
and 100 kb windows, which produced largely consistent UFBoot profiles (Figure 7 and Figure
S2), indicating that the 5 kb window provided finer-scale resolution while retaining sufficient
phylogenetic signal.
For the high-latitude group, 55 monophyletic windows were detected on the X
chromosome, two windows on 2L, and a single window on 3R (Figure 7A and Table S2). The
clustered windows on the X chromosome, stretching discontinuously from 29.437 Mb to 30.287
Mb, included the region homologous to *D. melanogaster* Y chromosome (29.7–34.9 Mb, Chang
et al., 2023) and therefore almost no coding genes were found (Table S2). Notably, the two
windows on 2L included *timeless* (*tim*), which has been implicated for diapause regulation in
many insect species (Mathias et al., 2005; Tauber et al., 2007; Sandrelli et al., 2007; Pruisscher
et al., 2018; Lindestad et al., 2022; Vaze et al., 2024) and also suggested to be associated with
diapause induction in *D. triauraria* (Yamada & Yamamoto, 2011). Sanger resequencing of the
two consecutive windows spanning a 6 kb region confirmed the presence of two putative E-box
motifs and one TER-box motif (Figure 8), which are critical for the circadian gene regulation

(McDonald et al., 2001). The 11 polymorphic sites fixed in the high-latitude group were located
in intronic regions outside these motifs.
In the low-latitude group, which does not respond to either photoperiod or
temperature, a total of 188 monophyletic windows were located on chromosomes X, 2L, 2R,
and 3R (Figure 7B, Table S3). These regions included *eyes shut* (*eys*), known to be involved in
temperature entrainment of circadian activity (Sehadova et al., 2009); *nahoda*, which is
expressed in egg chambers (Manning et al., 2017); and *Sox100B*; which plays a role in male-
specific gonad development (Nanda et al., 2009). The involvement of these genes in the
regulation of reproductive diapause has not been implicated.
The genome-wide F_{ST} window comparisons are more commonly applied to detect
divergent genomic regions between populations. However, F_{ST} estimates can be biased when the
sample sizes are small or uneven among regional populations (Whitlock and McCauley, 1999;
Willing et al., 2012). To address this, we compared the windows with the highest F_{ST} values to
those identified using the tree-based approach (Figure S3 and Figure S4). These comparisons
revealed that 93.1% (54 out of 58) of the monophyletic windows in high-latitude strains
(including those with the *tim* locus) and 92.0% (173 out of 188) in low-latitude strains
overlapped with the top 5% F_{ST} windows. In contrast, only 0.09% (54 out of 5841) and 0.032%
(173 out of 5463) of the top 5% windows overlapped with the monophyletic windows in high-
and low-latitude strains, respectively. Thus, the monophyletic windows represent a stringently
defined subset of the highest F_{ST} windows, based on an additional criterion of strong bootstrap
support for monophyly.
455
456 **Association between the expression of *tim* isoform groups and diapause incidence**
457
Multiple *tim* isoforms are expressed in *D. melanogaster* and other species of the *melanogaster*
subgroup (Low et al., 2008; Anduaga et al., 2019). These isoforms can be categorized by size:
long isoforms (*tim-L*, *tim-cold*), and a short isoform (*tim-sc*). *tim-L* is the canonical isoform,
while *tim-cold* and *tim-sc* are more abundant at low temperatures. The roles of these isoforms
have been investigated in *D. melanogaster*, variants of the *tim-L* isoform (*ls-tim-* and *s-tim*) are
known to regulate diapause induction (Tauber et al., 2007; Sandrelli et al., 2007), and
accumulation of TIM-SC under low temperature, short-day condition is implicated in diapause
regulation by stabilizing Eyes absent (EYA) (Abrieux et al., 2020).
The isoform differences are mostly attributed to alternative splicing downstream of
exon 9. Thus, to investigate the presence of these isoforms in *D. triauraria*, we performed 3′
RACE using RNA extracted from the heads of females from two strains, ONMA20-3 (high-
latitude) and OEB12 (low-latitude). We were able to identify sequences corresponding to the

two common isoforms, *tim-L* and *tim-sc*, and designed primers within the terminal exons to

quantify the abundance of the long and short isoforms (hereafter referred to as *tim-L* and *tim-sc*

isoform groups, respectively) by a realtime RT-qPCR (Figure S5). Although *tim-cold* and *tim-M*

were not detected in our 3' RACE analysis, they may still be amplified by the primers targeting

the *tim-L* isoform group. It should be noted that other undetected isoforms may also be

amplified by the designed primer pairs.

The oscillation patterns of *tim-L* and *tim-sc* isoform groups in the heads of females

from the ONMA20-3 strain were analyzed under an 8L:16D or 16L:8D light/dark cycle at 12°C

(Figure S6). The temporal patterns of *tim-L* expression under both photoperiods largely

coincided with the nuclear accumulation of TIM in the lateral ventral neurons (LN$_v$) of *D.*

melanogaster brain (Shafer et al., 2004), including a possible phase advance at low temperature

(Majercak et al., 1999; Anduaga et al., 2019). The overall expression level of *tim-L* isoform

group (averaged across six timepoints) was significantly higher under the 16L:8D light/dark

cycle than under 8L:16D (*t*-test after hyperbolic arcsine transformation: $t = 14.94$, df = 2, $P <$

0.01), whereas no significant difference was observed between the two cycles in the *tim-sc*

isoform group ($t = 3.54$, df = 2, $P = 0.07$).

To investigate whether the differences between the two light conditions in expression

of the two isoform groups (particularly *tim-L*, which showed a significant light-dependent

difference in ONMA20-3) are associated with diapause incidence at 12°C, the *tim* mRNA

abundance was quantified at ZT8 and ZT20 under 8L:16D and 16L:8D in female heads from the

high-, mid-, and low-latitude strains (Figure S7A). Two-way ANOVA showed that the *tim-L*

expression in the low-latitude strains was significantly lower than in the high-latitude strains

under both light conditions and also significantly lower than in the mid-latitude strains under

8L:16D (Figure S7C), suggesting a distinct regulatory mechanism of this isoform group in the

low-latitude strains. For the *tim-sc* isoform group, no significant effects were observed except

for a difference between the high- and mid-latitude groups under the 8L:16D light/dark cycle

(Figure S7B and Figure S7C).

Because the low-latitude strains exhibited no reproductive diapause even under the

8L:16D short-day (SD) condition at 12°C and displayed distinct *tim-L* expression profiles, the

following association analysis was conducted using only the high- and mid-latitude strains,

which showed variable diapause incidence under the 16L:8D long-day (LD) condition at 12°C.

For simplicity, the abbreviations LD and SD are used in the model. To explain variation in

diapause incidence under LD, we considered the following model:

$\Delta_{\text{SD-LD}} P_{\text{diap}} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \cdot tim\text{-}L_{\text{LD}} + \beta_2 \cdot tim\text{-}sc_{\text{LD}} + \beta_3 \cdot \Delta_{\text{LD-SD}} tim\text{-}L + \beta_4 \cdot \Delta_{\text{LD-SD}} tim\text{-}sc + \varepsilon$,

where $\Delta_{\text{SD-LD}} P_{\text{diap}}$ is the difference in the arcsine-transformed diapause proportions between the

SD (8L:16D) and LD (16L:8D) conditions. *tim-L*$_{\text{LD}}$ and *tim-sc*$_{\text{LD}}$ denote the hyperbolic arcsine-

transformed relative expression levels under LD, and $\Delta_{\text{LD-SD}}$ *tim-L* and $\Delta_{\text{LD-SD}}$ *tim-sc* represent

the differences in expression between the two light conditions. The arcsine transformation was

applied to normalize the diapause incidence, which ranges from 0 to 1, while the hyperbolic

arcsine transformation was used to normalize the *tim* expression data, which are not restricted to

this range . β_0 and β_{1-4} denotes intercept and regression coefficients, respectively. This model

aims to explain the variable $\Delta_{\text{SD-LD}}$ P_{diap}, reflecting the increased reproduction (reduced

diapause) under LD relative to SD, which is most pronounced in the high-latitude strains

(Figure 3). It incorporates *tim-L* and *tim-sc* isoform group expression under LD (*tim-L*$_{\text{LD}}$ and

tim-sc$_{\text{LD}}$), as well as their expression differences between LD and SD ($\Delta_{\text{LD-SD}}$ *tim-L* and $\beta_4 \cdot \Delta_{\text{LD-SD}}$

tim-sc), to account for the relationship between isoform-specific expression and photoperiodic

reproductive response.

We then performed stepwise model selection using BIC, which identified the

following model as the best-fit model:

$\Delta_{\text{SD-LD}}$ $P_{\text{diap}} = \beta_0 + \beta_3 \cdot \Delta_{\text{LD-SD}}$ *tim-L* $+ \varepsilon$,

with the coefficient estimates shown in Table 2. The result indicates that the differences in *tim-L*

expression between the two light conditions are significantly associated with the differences in

diapause incidence at 12°C. The positive regression coefficient indicates that strains with

relatively higher *tim-L* expression under the long-day condition (LD: 16L:8D) show reduced

diapause incidence, suggesting an enhanced reproductive activity at low temperature.

DISCUSSION

Initiating or arresting reproduction is a critical life-history choice with major consequences for

lifetime fitness. Like many other insects, *D. triauraria* respond to environmental cues such as

temperature and photoperiod to make the choice. We conducted a comprehensive analysis of the

female reproductive diapause induction in 21 strains of this species, including both newly tested

and previously reported strains collected from across the Japanese archipelago (26.2–43.1°N).

Our results revealed that a key difference between the high- and mid-latitude strains lies in their

temperature sensitivity under the long-day condition (16L:8D). At 12°C, females from the mid-

latitude strains exhibited a higher incidence of reproductive diapause compared to those from

the high-latitude strains (Figure 3). This reduced sensitivity to low temperature (i.e., stronger

photoperiodic induction of diapause) in the high-latitude strains likely reflects adaptation to

northern environments, where reproducing under cooler and shorter summer seasons is

essential.

Although direct comparisons between sexes are challenging, our results suggest that

females and males from the high- and mid-latitude regions differ in how reproduction activity is

modulated by photoperiod and temperature (Figure 3 and Figure 4). This implies that the

thresholds for reproductive suppression vary between sexes, potentially reflecting sex-specific

life history strategies. In particular, males may maintain investment in reproduction under

suboptimal conditions, consistent with the relatively lower energetic cost of reproduction

compared to females (Bateman, 1948; Trivers, 1972). Future work should examine the extent to

which shared versus sex-specific neuroendocrine pathways and sensory circuits contribute to

these differences. Moreover, assessing traits beyond accessory gland development, such as

spermatogenesis status and courtship behavior, will be essential for a comprehensive

understanding of intersexual variation in reproductive status under unfavorable environmental

conditions.

Our whole-genome phylogeny revealed only weak geographic divergence (Figure 6),

and the observed discrepancies between genital morphology and diapause phenotype (Figure 5)

further suggest that long-term gene flow across geographic regions has generated sufficient

recombination to decouple genomic regions associated with different traits. Such genomic

decoupling provides an opportunity to identify geographically divergent regions associated with

specific phenotypes. To investigate the genetic basis underlying the observed differences in

female diapause response, we applied a monophyletic window approach, which imposes a

stricter criterion for identifying genomic regions than the standard F_{ST} scans. Although Weir and

Cockerham's weighted F_{ST} estimation corrects for sample sizes of the populations (Weir and

Cockerham 1984), small and unbalanced samples, as in this study, can introduce false signals of

differentiation (Whitlock and McCauley, 1999; Willing et al., 2012). By focusing on genomic

windows where the focal group forms a well-supported monophyletic cluster, this approach

helps mitigate such biases.

For the high-latitude strain group (against all other groups), only 54 5-kb windows

showed both ≥ 90% bootstrap support for monophyly and F_{ST} values within the top 5%,

representing <1% of all top 5% F_{ST} windows (Figure S4A). These windows were located in two

separate genomic regions (one additional window on 3R met the monophyly criterion but fell

outside the top 5% F_{ST} threshold) (Figure 7A). The two windows on 2L contained *tim*, and a

cluster of windows on the X chromosome included few genes (Table S1). For the low-latitude

strain group, 173 windows met both the ≥ 90% bootstrap support and top 5% F_{ST} criteria,

representing approximately 3% of all top 5% F_{ST} windows (Figure S4B). These were distributed

across more than 20 separate genomic regions (Figure 7B). The smaller number of candidate

windows in the low-latitude groups could be due to multiple factors: a smaller number of

strains, a higher number of regions under selection, inflated F_{ST} threshold in the high-latitude

strains due to a dense cluster of high-F_{ST} windows on the X chromosome, or a combination of

these factors. We were unable to examine specific candidate regions within the low-latitude
group due to these complexities.

Our monophyletic window approach does not directly target diapause-associated loci
and may capture divergent regions associated with other locally adapted traits, including non-
reproductive traits such as the recently reported midgut remodeling response during diapause in
this species (Adachi et al. 2025), as well as more general metabolic or stress-tolerance
adaptations. Nevertheless, among the windows showing strong signals of high-latitude group
monophyly, we found a candidate region encompassing the E-box and T-box regulatory motifs
of *tim*. Given the implicated role of *tim* in regulating diapause across multiple insect species,
including *D. triauraria*, we further investigated the association between *tim* expression levels
and reproductive diapause incidence. Using RT-qPCR, the mRNA levels of the long and short
isoform groups were quantified. We detected a significant association across strains between the
differences in diapause incidence under the long- and short-day photoperiods and the
differences of *tim-L* isoform group expression between those light conditions at 12°C. The
analysis focused on the high- and mid-latitude strains, as the low-latitude strain exhibited
distinct diapause regulation patterns. Finally, it would be informative in future studies to
quantify other non-reproductive stress-response traits under these conditions, as they may also
be regulated by *tim*.

As in many organisms, circadian rhythms in *Drosophila* are influenced by light,
implicating a link between clock genes and photoperiodic regulation (e.g., Denlinger, 2022). *tim*
is a core circadian gene whose product, TIM, is bound by the photoreceptor CRYPTOCHROME
(CRY) upon light exposure and subsequently degraded by ubiquitination, resulting in light-
induced resetting of the circadian clock (Hunter-Ensor et al., 1996; Ceriani et al., 1999; Busza et
al., 2004). The primary light-sensitive isoform, *tim-L*, is included in the isoform group for which
we observed an association with diapause incidence. The light-insensitive isoforms, *tim-cold*
and *tim-sc*, are induced by low temperature (Montelli et al., 2015; Shakhmantsir et al., 2018;
Anduaga et al., 2019; Abrieux et al., 2020). Among these isoforms, TIM-SC contributes to the
stabilization of EYA, a key seasonal sensor, suggesting that the relative abundances of *tim-L* and
tim-sc may play a role in diapause induction in females of *D. melanogaster* (Abrieux et al.,
2020). There is no evidence from these *D. melanogaster* studies, however, demonstrating a
direct effect of *tim-L* on reproductive diapause. Thus, the mechanisms underlying the observed
association in our study, where higher *tim-L* expression associates with lower diapause
incidence at low temperature, remains unclear at this point. It is also important to note that the
TIM protein abundance was not quantified in our study, and the increased mRNA expression
observed under the long-day condition could reflect either an enhanced transcription or
compensatory response to light-driven protein degradation. Interestingly, unlike *D.*

melanogaster and related species such as *D. simulans, D. yakuba,* and *D. virilis*, whose *tim*

splicing is temperature-sensitive (Anduaga et al., 2019), the cold-tolerant northern species, *D.*

montana, exhibits photoperiod-sensitive *tim* splicing (Tapanainen et al., 2018). This suggests

that the splicing regulation of *tim* isoforms and their functional roles in circadian and diapause

pathways may vary considerably across species.

In *D. triauraria*, Kimura and Yoshida (1995) analyzed recombinant inbred lines derived

from hybrids between a diapausing strain (ONMA20-3) and a non-diapausing strain from

Kametoku (28°N), and estimated that three or four loci underly the difference in the photoperiodic

response, with at least one located on the X chromosome. More recently, Yamada and Yamamoto

(2011) conducted a genetic analysis and reported an association between reproductive diapause

incidence and the genetic marker variants at *tim* and *cry*. This analysis was based on genotyping

five clock genes (*per*, *tim*, *clk*, *cyc*, and *cry*) in 329 backcrossed individuals derived from a cross

between a diapausing strain (ONMA20-3) and a non-diapausing strain (OEB12). The association

with *tim* is consistent with our results, further supporting a potential role for this gene in diapause

regulation of *D. triauraria*. However, the low marker density (only five loci across the entire

genome) limits their mapping resolution. As they also noted, the observed associations could be

due to linkage with nearby genes rather than direct effects of *tim* or *cry*. Our higher-resolution

approach allows a more targeted investigation of this region and together with the expression

analysis, strengthens the case for *tim* as a candidate gene involved in photoperiodic diapause

regulation.

Consistent with the previous report (Yamada & Yamamoto, 2011), females of low-

latitude strains did not exhibit reproductive diapause under any of the tested conditions (Figure

3). Our experimental design differed from that of Yamada and Yamamoto (2011) in that flies

were transferred to the test conditions immediately after eclosion, whereas in the earlier study

flies were exposed to experimental conditions from the embryonic stage. Despite this difference,

we observed qualitatively similar phenotypes in the low-latitude strains. We further showed that

males of these strains also failed to arrest reproduction (Figure 4) and displayed reduced

expression of *tim-L* isoform group (Figure S7A). Taken together with the earlier finding that the

diapausing phenotype is completely dominant over the non-diapausing type (Yamada &

Yamamoto, 2011), these results suggest that the low-latitude strains may carry impaired

signaling pathways required for diapause induction. An intriguing evolutionary question that

remains unresolved is the ancestry of the phenotype; whether the absence of diapause in the

low-latitude strains represents a derived loss of the trait, or alternatively, whether the ability to

enter reproductive diapause was an adaptation acquired in the high-latitude populations.

Many *Drosophila* species are likely to have originated in tropical region and later

expanded into temperate and subarctic regions (Throckmorton, 1975; Lemeunier et al., 1986;

Markow & O'Grady, 2006). In our whole-genome maximum likelihood tree, the low-latitude

and Yakushima strains of *D. triauraria* form the basal lineages (Figure 6), consistent with a

tropical origin. However, Kimura (1988) argued that adaptation to cool-temperate climates

likely preceded speciation within the *auraria* complex. This view was based on the observation

that species within the complex do not differ markedly in cold-hardiness. Supporting this

hypothesis, three other species in the complex exhibit reproductive diapause phenotypes similar

to that of the northern strains of *D. triauraria* (Kimura, 1984; Kimura, 1990). Kimura (1988)

further proposed that the current subtropical populations of *D. triauraria* may have established

through reinvasion from northern, cool-temperate populations, as these subtropical flies are

significantly more cold-hardy than sympatric populations of the subtropical or warm-temperate

species like *D. rufa* and *D. lutescens*. These competing hypotheses, tropical origin with

independent acquisition of diapause in the north versus ancestral diapause with secondary loss

in the south, remain difficult to reconcile.

However, the phylogenetic analysis of the *tim* genomic region, including other species

of the auraria complex (Figure S8), does not support a scenario in which the low- and mid-

latitude alleles are derived from the high-latitude allele, nor the reverse. Instead, the tree

suggests that these alleles have diverged independently from a basal state. Given the likelihood

of frequent introgression and incomplete lineage sorting within the *auraria* complex (Miyake &

Watada, 2007; Conner et al., 2021), it is plausible that two alleles of early origin associated with

diapause regulation have persisted in different geographic regions within *D. triauraria*.

Although our analysis is currently confined to a single locus, the results raise the possibility that

key diapause-related alleles originated and diverged close to the time of speciation and

subsequently underwent differentiation along latitudinal gradients. In light of the polygenic

basis of diapause regulation, information from additional loci will be essential to further test and

refine this scenario, thereby providing deeper insights into the evolutionary dynamics of

adaptive traits evolving across heterogeneous environments.

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AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

TF and AT conceived this work. YA and TF analyzed accessory gland. MO and TF analyzed

genital morphology. MN obtained genome sequences of five *D. triauraria* strains. TF and AT

analyzed data and wrote the manuscript.

DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT

Raw sequence reads have been deposited in the SRA under BioProject PRJDB20728, with

individual run accession numbers provided in Table 1. Sequences of *tim* isoform groups are

available in DDBJ (accession numbers LC882409–LC882412). Sequencing data for the 6 kb *tim*

region are deposited in DDBJ (accession numbers LC884490–LC884507)

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Table 1 Strains of *D. triauraria*, *D. auraria*, *D. biauraria*, and *D. subauraria* used in this study.

Species	Strain name	Latitude group	Collection site	Coordinates	Year	Source (fly stock)	Genome accession #
D. triauraria	SPR23-05	High-latitude	Sapporo	43.1°N, 141.2°E	2023	Gift from Masahito T. Kimura.	DRR720568 [g]
D. triauraria	SPR23-09	High-latitude	Sapporo	43.1°N, 141.2°E	2023	Gift from Masahito T. Kimura.	DRR720569 [g]
D. triauraria	TM15-38	High-latitude	Tomakomai	42.6°N, 141.6°E	2015	KYORIN-Fly stock center	DRR720564 [g]
D. triauraria	TM15-57	High-latitude	Tomakomai	42.6°N, 141.6°E	2015	KYOTO *Drosophila* stock center	DRR720565 [g]
D. triauraria	TM15-67	High-latitude	Tomakomai	42.6°N, 141.6°E	2015	KYOTO *Drosophila* stock center	DRR720566 [g]
D. triauraria	TM15-92	High-latitude	Tomakomai	42.6°N, 141.6°E	2015	KYORIN-Fly stock center	DRR720567 [g]
D. triauraria	ONMA20-3	High-latitude	Onuma [b]	42.0°N, 140.4°E	1981	Gift from Shin G. Goto.	DRX055244 [g]
D. triauraria	ONM-15	High-latitude	Onuma [b]	42.0°N, 140.4°E	1984	TMU stock [e]	DRR720577 [g] DRR720578 [g]
D. triauraria	TTR010	Mid-latitude	Tsuchiura	36.1°N, 140.2°E	2017	Collected by M. Onuma (author)	DRR720571 [g]
D. triauraria	T544	Mid-latitude	Tsukuba	36.0°N, 140.0°E	1980	KYORIN-Fly stock center	DRR720570 [g]
D. triauraria	TMU23-02	Mid-latitude	Hachioji	35.6°N, 139.3°E	2023	Collected by T. Fujichika (author)	DRR720572 [g]
D. triauraria	K445	Mid-latitude	Oiso	35.3°N, 139.3°E	1980s [d]	TMU stock [e]	DRR720575 [g] DRR720576 [g]
D. triauraria	Jou	Mid-latitude	Mishima	35.1°N, 138.9°E	1986	TMU stock [e]	DRR720573 [g] DRR720574 [g]
D. triauraria	T748	Mid-latitude	Miyazaki	31.7–32.0°N, 131.2–131.3°E [c]	1982	KYORIN-Fly stock center	SRR13188919
D. triauraria	Yak2	- [a]	Yakushima	30.3°N, 130.6°E	1982	TMU stock [e]	DRR720579 [g] DRR720580 [g]
D. triauraria	Yak3	- [a]	Yakushima	30.3°N, 130.6°E	1982	TMU stock [e]	DRR720581 [g] DRR720582 [g]
D. triauraria	YKS-MTK	- [a]	Yakushima	30.3°N, 130.6°E	1982	KYORIN-Fly stock center	SRR13188918
D. triauraria	OEB12	Low-latitude	Okinoerabu	27.2°N, 128.3°E	2005	KYORIN-Fly stock center	SRR13188921
D. triauraria	OKNG12-6	Low-latitude	Nago	26.7°N, 128.1°E	2012	KYORIN-Fly stock center	SRR13188920
D. triauraria	KMJ1	Low-latitude	Kumejima	26.2°N, 126.5°E	2002	KYORIN-Fly stock center	SRR13188923
D. triauraria	KMJD2	Low-latitude	Kumejima	26.2°N, 126.5°E	2003	KYORIN-Fly stock center	SRR13188922
D. auraria	14028-0471.01	-	Nopporo	43.0°N, 141.5°E	1965	- [f]	SRR9997924
D. auraria	L5	-	Tomakomai	42.6°N, 141.6°E	2011	- [f]	SRR13188915
D. auraria	L8	-	Matsuyama	33.8°N, 132.7°E	2014	- [f]	SRR13188913
D. auraria	L11	-	Matsuyama	33.8°N, 132.7°E	2016	- [f]	SRR13188937

D. biauraria	SPR23-04	-	Sapporo	43.1°N, 141.2°E	2023	Gift from Masahito T. Kimura.	DRR720583 [g]
D. subauraria	ONM-29	-	Onuma [b]	42.0°N, 140.4°E	1982	KYORIN-Fly stock center	DRR720584 [g]

[a] Strains from Yakushima are not assigned to any latitude group.
[b] Referred to "Ohnuma" in Onuma et al. (2022).
[c] Exact location unknown.
[d] Exact year of collection unknown.
[e] Stock kept at Tokyo Metropolitan University.
[f] Live flies not used; genomic data only.
[g] Genome sequence data obtained in this study.

Table 2 Results of the linear regression model selected by stepwise BIC for explaining the differences in diapause incidence between light conditions.

Predictor	Estimate (β)	Std. Error	t	P
Intercept	0.813	0.095	8.55	<0.0001
$\Delta_{16L8D-8L16D}$ $timL$	0.948	0.383	2.47	0.0293

1064   Figure legends

1065

FIGURE 1 Collection sites of *D. triauraria* strains from Japanese archipelago used in this

study

A total of 21 isofemale lines of *D. triauraria* that were established from natural populations

were used. Circles indicate collection sites: blue, gray, and red denote high-, mid-, and low-

latitude regions, respectively, while orange represents Yakushima Island, which has a unique

mixed climate distinct from the other regions.

1072

1073   **FIGURE 2 Reproductively diapaused and non-diapaused ovaries of *D. triauraria***

1074   (A) Schematic illustration of a pair of *Drosophila* ovaries, modified from King (1970). Each

1075   ovary consists of multiple ovarioles, where oogenesis progresses from stage 0 to 14 (mature

1076   egg). (B) Diapaused ovaries, lacking eggs at $\geq$ stage 8 (vitellogenic stages). (C) Non-diapaused

1077   ovary with nine eggs at $\geq$ stage 8. (D) Fully developed ovary.

1078

FIGURE 3 Effects of temperature and photoperiod on reproductive diapause incidence

across regional populations of *D. triauraria*

The proportion (%) of female individuals in reproductive diapause under different temperatures

(12ºC, 15ºC, and 18ºC) and photoperiods (8L:16D or 16L:8D light/dark cycle). The colors

indicate different latitudinal regions: blue, grey, orange, and red indicate high-latitude, mid-

latitude, Yakushima, and low-latitude regions, respectively. Thick solid line connects the mean

at each temperature.

1086

FIGURE. 4 Effects of temperature and photoperiod on accessory gland (AG) growth

across regional populations of *D. triauraria*

(A) Sizes of AGs after 21 days under different photoperiods (8L:16D or 16L:8D) at 12ºC. Two

representative images of AGs are shown above the graph. Orange dashed lines indicate the

upper limit of the 95% CI calculated within strain for T544, and for the remaining strains, from

the pooled data excluding T544. The separate calculation for T544 was performed due to its

significant difference from other strains (see Figure S1). (B) Proportion (%) of males with AG

sizes below the 95% CI upper limit of day 0 after 21 days under 8L:16D or 16L:8D at 12ºC.

Colors indicate latitudinal regions: blue, grey, and red indicate high-latitude, mid-latitude, and

low-latitude regions, respectively. Thick solid line connects the means at each temperature.

1097

FIGURE 5 Polymorphism of the aedeagus appendages (dorsolateral claws) compared with

female reproductive diapause phenotype in *D. triauraria*

The upper panel shows the schematic images of the size polymorphism of aedeagus appendages

(after Onuma et al. 2022), classified as Northern (N) and Southern (S) types. Scale bar indicates

50 μm. Genital morphology was examined in 10 males per strain and compared with the female

reproductive diapause phenotype at 12ºC (lower panel). The colors of the strain names represent

their latitudinal regions of origin: blue, grey, orange, and red indicate high-latitude, mid-latitude,

Yakushima, and low-latitude regions, respectively.

1106

FIGURE 6 Maximum likelihood tree constructed from the whole-genome sequences of *D.

***triauraria, D. auraria, D. biauraria,* and *D. subauraria* strains used in this study.**

Maximum likelihood tree using IQ-TREE with the GTR+G+I model. Nodes with UFBoot value

= 100 , estimated from 1,000 pseudo-replicates are highlighted in orange. The colors of *D.*

triauraria strain names represent their latitudinal regions of origin: blue, grey, orange, and red

indicate high-latitude, mid-latitude, Yakushima, and low-latitude regions, respectively. Asterisks

indicate strains whose genomic sequences were obtained in this study.

1114

FIGURE 7 Monophyletic window analyses of the high- and low-latitudinal groups.

(A) Sliding window profile of bootstrap (UFBoot) support (%) for monophyly of the high-

latitude strain group, based on maximum parsimony trees (window size = 5 kb, step size = 1

kb). Red dots mark the midpoints of windows where the high-latitude strains formed

monophyletic clusters with ≥ 90% bootstrap support (1,000 pseudo-replicates). The upper graph

zooms in on the region containing the *timeless* (*tim*) gene (brown horizontal bar), which

coincides with two consecutive windows above this threshold (midpoints in red). The maximum

likelihood tree of one of these windows (highlighted by a pink stripe) is shown, with nodes

having UFBoot ≥ 90% highlighted in orange.

(B) Sliding-window profile of bootstrap (UFBoot) support (%) for monophyly of the low-

latitude strain group, based on maximum parsimony trees (window size = 5 kb; step size = 1

kb). Red dots mark the midpoints of windows where low-latitude strains formed monophyletic

clusters with ≥ 90% bootstrap support (1,000 pseudo-replicates). The maximum likelihood trees

of the sampled windows are drawn above the graph, with nodes having UFBoot ≥ 90%

highlighted in orange. The genome coordinates are based on the *D. triauraria* reference genome

(GCA_014170255.2_RU_Dtri_1.1_genomic.fna). The colors of *D. triauraria* strain names

represent their latitudinal origin: blue, grey, orange, and red indicate high-latitude, mid-latitude,

Yakushima, and low-latitude regions, respectively.

1133

FIGURE 8 Putative E-box and TER-box sequence motifs within the 6 kb region covering

the two consecutive monophyletic windows of the high-latitude strains.

The two consecutive monophyletic 5 kb windows are shown in a red horizontal arrow. Gray

boxes indicate predicted exons of *tim-L* isoform. Red vertical arrows mark the positions of

SNPs that are fixed only in high-latitude populations (positions in bp: 4,337,946, 4,338,013,

4,338,442, 4,338,876, 4,338,994, 4,338,995, 4,339,687, 4,339,715, 4,339,759, 4,341,078,

4,341,209). Putative E-box and TER-box motifs are shown, with the positions corresponding to

the indicated sites. The genome coordinates are based on the *D. triauraria* reference genome

(GCA_014170255.2_RU_Dtri_1.1_genomic.fna).

1143

SPR23-05, SPR23-09
TM15-38, TM15-57,
TM15-67, TM15-92

High-latitude
(Cool temperate
to subarctic zone)

ONMA20-3, ONM-15

T544
TTR010
TMU23-02
K445
YataJou
T748

Mid-latitude
(Temperate zone)

Yak2, Yak3, YKS-MTK ---- **Yakushima Island**

OEB12
OKNG12-6
KMJ1, KMJD2

Low-latitude
(Subtropical zone)

45°N
40°N
35°N
30°N

(A) Ovary

Ovariole

Stage 0

Vitellin

Stage 8

Stage 14

(B) (C) (D)

500 μm

FIGURE. 4

	Strain	Aedeagus appendages (N = 10)	Reproductive diapause (%) at 12°C (N = 30–35)	
			8L16D	16L8D
High-Latitude	SPR23-05	type N & S	90	10
	SPR23-09	type N & S	86.7	0
	TM15-38	type N & S	100	6.5
	TM15-57	type N & S	100	10
	TM15-67	type N & S	100	22.9
	TM15-92	type N & S	100	13.3
	ONMA20-3	type N & S	100	12.9
	ONM-15	type N & S	90	0
Mid-Latitude	T544	type N & S	100	60.6
	TTR010	type S	94.3	77.1
	TMU23-02	type N & S	100	47.1
	K445	type N & S	80	36.7
	Jou	type N & S	100	65.7
	T748	type S	93.3	87.9
Yakushima	Yak2	type S	40	0
	Yak3	type S	100	28.1
	YKS-MTK	type S	77.1	21.2
Low-latitude	OEB12	type S	2.9	0
	OKNG12-6	type S	3.3	0
	KMJ1	type S	2.9	2.9
	KMJD2	type S	2.9	0

100%

0%

FIGURE 5

FIGURE 6

FIGURE 7

FIGURE 8