Introgressive and horizontal acquisition of Wolbachia by *Drosophila yakuba*-clade hosts and horizontal transfer of incompatibility loci between distantly related Wolbachia

Brandon S. Cooper[*], Dan Vanderpool[§], William R. Conner[*], Daniel R. Matute[‡], Michael Turelli[†]

[*]Division of Biological Sciences
University of Montana
32 Campus Dr.
Missoula, MT 59812

[§]Department of Biology
Indiana University
1001 E. 3rd St.
Bloomington, IN 47405

[‡]Biology Department
University of North Carolina
250 Bell Tower Drive, Genome Sciences Building
Chapel Hill, NC 27510

[†]Department of Evolution and Ecology
University of California
One Shields Avenue
Davis, California 95616

Running title: Wolbachia and incompatibility loci transfer

Key words: cytoplasmic incompatibility, hybridization, introgression, horizontal gene transfer, host-microbe interactions, transposable elements, WO phage

Corresponding author: Brandon S. Cooper, (406) 243-5122, brandon.cooper@umontana.edu

26 February 2019

ABSTRACT

Maternally transmitted Wolbachia infect about half of insect species, yet the predominant

mode(s) of Wolbachia acquisition remains uncertain. Species-specific associations could be old,

with Wolbachia and hosts co-diversifying (i.e., cladogenic acquisition), or relatively young and

acquired by horizontal transfer or introgression. The three *Drosophila yakuba*-clade hosts ((*D.*

santomea, D. yakuba), *D. teissieri*) diverged about three million years ago and currently

hybridize on Bioko and São Tomé, west African islands. Each species is polymorphic for nearly

identical Wolbachia that cause weak cytoplasmic incompatibility (CI)–reduced egg hatch when

uninfected females mate with infected males. *D. yakuba*-clade Wolbachia are closely related to

*w*Mel, globally polymorphic in *D. melanogaster*. We use draft Wolbachia and mitochondrial

genomes to demonstrate that *D. yakuba*-clade Wolbachia and mitochondrial phylogenies tend to

follow host nuclear phylogenies; however, roughly half of *D. santomea* individuals, sampled

both inside and outside of the São Tomé hybrid zone, have introgressed *D. yakuba* mitochondria.

Both mitochondria and Wolbachia possess far more recent common ancestors than the bulk of

the host nuclear genomes, precluding cladogenic Wolbachia acquisition. General concordance of

Wolbachia and mitochondrial phylogenies suggests that horizontal transmission is rare, but

varying relative rates of molecular divergence complicate time-based statistical tests. Loci that

cause CI in *w*Mel are disrupted in *D. yakuba*-clade Wolbachia; however, a second set of loci

predicted to cause CI are located in the same WO prophage region. These alternative CI loci

seem to have been acquired horizontally from distantly related Wolbachia, with transfer

mediated by flanking Wolbachia-specific ISWpi1 transposons.

INTRODUCTION

Endosymbiotic Wolbachia bacteria infect many arthropods (Bouchon *et al.* 1998; Hilgenboecker *et al.* 2008), including about half of all insect species (Werren and Windsor 2000; Weinert *et al.* 2015). Wolbachia often manipulate host reproduction, facilitating spread to high frequencies within host species (Laven 1951; Yen and Barr 1971; Turelli and Hoffmann 1991; Rousset *et al.* 1992; O'Neill *et al.* 1998; Weeks *et al.* 2007; Kriesner *et al.* 2016; Turelli *et al.* 2018). In Drosophila, reproductive manipulations include cytoplasmic incompatibility (CI) and male killing (Hoffmann *et al.* 1986; Hoffmann and Turelli 1997; Hurst and Jiggins 2000). CI reduces the egg hatch of uninfected females mated with Wolbachia-infected males, and recent work has demonstrated that WO prophage-associated loci cause CI (Beckmann and Fallon 2013; Beckmann *et al.* 2017; LePage *et al.* 2017; Beckmann *et al.* 2019). Although reproductive manipulations are common, some Wolbachia show little or no reproductive manipulation (*e.g.*, *w*Mel in *D. melanogaster*, Hoffmann 1988; Hoffmann *et al.* 1994; Kriesner *et al.* 2016; *w*Mau in *D. mauritiana*, Giordano et al. 1995; Meany *et al.* 2018; *w*Au in *D. simulans*, Hoffmann *et al.* 1996; *w*Suz in *D. suzukii* and *w*Spc in *D. subpulchrella*, Hamm *et al.* 2014). These Wolbachia presumably spread by enhancing host fitness in various ways, with some support for viral protection, fecundity enhancement, and supplementation of host nutrition (Weeks *et al.* 2007; Teixeira *et al.* 2008; Hedges *et al.* 2008; Brownlie *et al.* 2009; Martinez *et al.* 2014; Gill *et al.* 2014; Moriyama *et al.* 2015). Better understanding of Wolbachia effects, transmission and evolution should facilitate using Wolbachia for biocontrol of human diseases by either transforming vector populations with virus-blocking Wolbachia (*e.g.*, McMeniman *et al.* 2009; Hoffmann *et al.* 2011; Schmidt *et al.* 2017; Ritchie 2018) or using male-only releases of CI-causing Wolbachia to suppress vector populations (Laven 1967; O'Connor *et al.* 2012).

There is a burgeoning literature on Wolbachia frequencies and dynamics in natural populations (*e.g.*, Kriesner *et al.* 2013; Kriesner *et al.* 2016; Cooper *et al.* 2017; Bakovic *et al.* 2018; Meany *et al.* 2018), but fewer studies elucidate the modes and time scales of Wolbachia acquisition by host species (O'Neill *et al.* 1992; Rousset and Solignac 1995; Huigens *et al.* 2004; Baldo *et al.* 2008; Raychoudhury *et al.* 2009; Ahmed *et al.* 2015; Schuler *et al.* 2016; Turelli *et al.* 2018). Sister hosts could acquire Wolbachia from their most recent ancestors. Such cladogenic acquisition seems to be the rule for the obligate Wolbachia found in filarial

nematodes (Bandi *et al.* 1998); and there are also examples in at least two insect clades, Nasonia wasps (Raychoudhury *et al.* 2009) and Nomada bees (Gerth and Bleidorn 2016). In contrast, infections can be relatively young and acquired through introgressive or horizontal transfer (Raychoudhury *et al.* 2009; Schuler *et al.* 2016; Conner *et al.* 2017; Turelli *et al.* 2018). Comparisons of host nuclear and mitochondrial genomes with the associated Wolbachia genomes enable discrimination among these three modes (Raychoudhury *et al.* 2009; Turelli *et al.* 2018). Concordant nuclear, mitochondrial, and Wolbachia cladograms—including consistent divergence-time estimates for all three genomes—support cladogenic acquisition and co-divergence of host and Wolbachia lineages. Concordant Wolbachia and mtDNA phylogenies and consistent Wolbachia and mitochondrial divergence-time estimates that are more recent than nuclear divergence support introgressive acquisition. In this case, mitochondrial and Wolbachia relationships may or may not recapitulate the host phylogeny. Finally, if Wolbachia diverged more recently than either nuclear or mitochondrial genomes, horizontal transfer (or paternal transmission; Hoffmann and Turelli 1988; Turelli and Hoffmann 1995) is indicated. This is often associated with discordance between host and Wolbachia phylogenies (O'Neill *et al.* 1992; Rousset and Solignac 1995; Turelli *et al.* 2018).

Introgressive Wolbachia acquisition may be common in Drosophila. About half of all closely related Drosophila species have overlapping geographical ranges and show pervasive evidence of reinforcement (Coyne and Orr 1989, 1997; Yukelevich 2012; Nosil 2013), indicating that hybridization must be common (Turelli *et al.* 2014). Several instances of sporadic contemporary hybridization and interspecific gene flow have been documented in the genus (Carson *et al.* 1989; Shoemaker *et al.* 1999; Jaenike *et al.* 2006; Kulathinal *et al.* 2009; Garrigan *et al.* 2012; Brand *et al.* 2013; Matute and Ayroles 2014; Lohse *et al.* 2015); but only two stable hybrid zones have been well described, and both involve *D. yakuba*-clade species. In west Africa, *D. yakuba* hybridizes with endemic *D. santomea* on the island of São Tomé, and with *D. teissieri* on the island of Bioko (Lachaise *et al.* 2000; Llopart *et al.* 2005; Comeault *et al.* 2016; Cooper *et al.* 2018). The ranges of *D. yakuba* and *D. teissieri* overlap throughout continental Africa, but contemporary hybridization has not been observed outside of Bioko (Cooper *et al.* 2018). Genomic analyses support both mitochondrial and nuclear introgression in the *D. yakuba* clade (Lachaise *et al.* 2000; Bachtrog *et al.* 2006; Llopart *et al.* 2014; Turissini and Matute 2017; Cooper *et al.* 2018), and the Wolbachia infecting all three species (*w*San, *w*Tei, and *w*Yak) are at

intermediate frequencies and identical with respect to commonly used typing loci (Lachaise *et al*.
2000; Charlat *et al*. 2004; Cooper *et al.* 2017).

Horizontal Wolbachia transmission has been repeatedly demonstrated since its initial
discovery by O'Neill *et al*. (1992) (*e.g*., Baldo *et al.* 2008; Schuler *et al.* 2016), and it may be
common in some systems (*e.g*., Huigens *et al.* 2000; Huigens *et al.* 2004; Ahmed *et al*. 2015; Li
et al. 2017). Phylogenomic analyses indicate recent horizontal Wolbachia transmission, on the
order of 5,000–27,000 years, among relatively distantly related Drosophila species of the *D*.
melanogaster species group (Turelli *et al.* 2018); but there is little evidence for non-maternal
transmission within Drosophila species (Richardson *et al.* 2012; Turelli *et al.* 2018). Horizontal
Wolbachia transfer could occur via a vector (Vavre *et al*. 2009; Ahmed *et al*. 2015) and/or via
shared food sources during development (Huigens *et al.* 2000; Li *et al*. 2017). Rare paternal
Wolbachia transmission has been documented in *D. simulans* (Hoffmann and Turelli 1988;
Turelli and Hoffmann 1995). However, the most common mode of Wolbachia acquisition by
Drosophila species (and most other hosts) remains unknown, and all three modes seem plausible
in the *D. yakuba* clade (Lachaise *et al.* 2000; Bachtrog *et al*. 2006; Cooper *et al*. 2017).

Distinguishing acquisition via introgression versus horizontal or paternal transmission
requires estimating phylogenies and relative divergence times of mtDNA and Wolbachia
(Raychoudhury *et al.* 2009; Conner *et al*. 2017; Turelli *et al*. 2018). To convert sequence
divergence to divergence time estimates requires understanding relative rates of divergence for
mtDNA, nuclear genomes and Wolbachia. If each genome followed a constant-rate molecular
clock, taxa with cladogenic Wolbachia transmission, such as Nasonia wasps (Raychoudhury *et*
al. 2009) and Nomada bees (Gerth and Bleidorn 2016), would provide reference rates for
calibration. However, like Langley and Fitch (1974), Turelli *et al*. (2018) found significantly
varying relative rates of Wolbachia and mtDNA divergence. This variation, which we document
more extensively, confounds attempts to understand Wolbachia acquisition, as discussed below.

The discovery of weak CI in the *D. yakuba* clade (Cooper *et al*. 2017) motivates detailed
comparative analysis of loci associated with CI (CI factors or *cifs*) in WO prophage regions of
Wolbachia genomes. Beckmann and Fallon (2013) first associated wPip_0282 and wPip_0283
proteins in *w*Pip-infected *Culex pipiens* with Wolbachia-modified sperm. Later work confirmed
that these proteins induce toxicity and rescue when expressed/co-expressed in *Saccharomyces*
cerevisiae (Beckmann *et al.* 2017), lending support to a toxin-antidote model of CI (Beckmann *et*

al. 2019; but see, Lindsey *et al.* 2018). Homologs of these genes in *w*Mel (WD0631 and

WD0632) recapitulate CI when transgenically expressed in *D. melanogaster* (LePage *et al.*

2017), and transgenic expression of WD0631 in *D. melanogaster* rescues CI (Shropshire *et al*.

2018). A distantly related WO-prophage-associated pair, present in *w*Pip, *w*Pip_0294 and

*w*Pip_0295, causes similar toxicity/rescue in *S. cerevisiae* (Beckmann *et al.* 2017), and causes CI

when placed transgenically into a *D. melanogaster* background (unpublished data presented by

Mark Hochstrasser at the 2018 Wolbachia meeting in Salem, MA). We adopt Beckmann *et al.*

(2019)'s nomenclature, which assigns names based on enzymatic activity of the predicted toxin

[deubiquitylase (DUB) and nuclease (Nuc)], with superscripts denoting focal Wolbachia strains

when needed. Specifically, we refer to *w*Pip_0282-*w*Pip_0283 and the wPip_0294-wPip_0295

pairs as *cidA-cidB*$^{w\text{Pip}}$ and *cinA-cinB*$^{w\text{Pip}}$, respectively; and we refer to WD0631-WD632 as *cidA-*

cidB$^{w\text{Mel}}$. This distinguishes *cid* (CI-inducing deubiquitylating enzyme) from *cin* (CI-inducing

nuclease) pairs, with the predicted antidote and toxin denoted "A" and "B", respectively

(Beckmann *et al.* 2019). We acknowledge ongoing disagreement in the literature and direct

readers to Beckmann *et al.* (2019) and Lindsey *et al.* (2018) for more detailed discussions.

However, none of these debates on terminology or mechanism affect our findings.

Here, we use host and Wolbachia genomes from the *D. yakuba* clade to demonstrate

introgressive and horizontal Wolbachia acquisition. General concordance of mtDNA and

Wolbachia phylogenies indicates that horizontal acquisition is rare within this clade. However,

tests involving divergence-time estimates are complicated by varying relative rates and patterns

of Wolbachia, mtDNA, and nuclear sequence divergence, as illustrated by data from more

distantly related Drosophila (Clark *et al.* 2007). Finally, we demonstrate that *cid* loci underlying

CI in closely related *w*Mel (LePage *et al.* 2017) are disrupted in all *D. yakuba*-clade Wolbachia.

These Wolbachia also contain a set of *cin* loci, absent in *w*Mel, but very similar to those found in

*w*Pip (Beckmann *et al.* 2017), a strain that diverged 6–46 million years ago (mya) from *w*Yak

and *w*Mel (Werren *et al.* 1995; Meany *et al.* 2018). This is the first discovery of two sets of loci

implicated in CI being housed within the same prophage region. Several analyses implicate

Wolbachia-specific insertion sequence (IS) transposable elements, specifically ISWpi1, in the

horizontal transfer of these loci and surrounding regions between distantly related Wolbachia.

Horizontal movement of incompatibility factors between prophage regions of Wolbachia variants

adds another layer to what is already known about horizontal movement of prophages within and

between Wolbachia variants that themselves move horizontally between host species.

METHODS

Genomic data

The *D. yakuba*-clade isofemale lines included in our study were sampled over several years in

west Africa (Comeault *et al.* 2016; Turissini and Matute 2017; Cooper *et al.* 2017). Each line

within each species used in our analyses exhibits little nuclear introgression (< 1%) (Turissini

and Matute 2017), and no hybrids were included. Reads from *D. yakuba* ($N = 56$), *D. santomea*

($N = 11$), and *D. teissieri* ($N = 13$) isofemale lines were obtained from the data archives of

Turissini and Matute (2017) and aligned to the *D. yakuba* nuclear and mitochondrial reference

genomes (Clark *et al.* 2007) with bwa 0.7.12 (Li and Durbin 2009), requiring alignment quality

scores of at least 50. Because many of the read archives were single end, all alignments were

completed using single-end mode for consistency.

mtDNA: Consensus mitochondrial sequences for each of the 80 lines were extracted with

samtools v. 1.3.1 and bcftools v 1.3.1 (Li 2011). Sequences for the 13 protein-coding genes were

extracted, based on their positions in the *D. yakuba* reference. We also extracted the 13 protein-

coding genes from additional unique *D. yakuba* ($N = 28$) and *D. santomea* ($N = 15$)

mitochondrial genomes (Llopart *et al.* 2014), and from the *D. melanogaster* reference (Hoskins

et al. 2015). Genes were aligned using MAFFT v. 7 and concatenated (Katoh and Standley

2013). Lines identical across all 13 genes were represented by one sequence for the phylogenetic

analyses.

Wolbachia: Reads from each of the 80 Turissini and Matute (2017) lines were aligned using

bwa 0.7.12 (Li and Durban 2009) to the *D. yakuba* reference genome (Clark *et al.* 2007)

combined with the *w*Mel reference genome (Wu *et al.* 2004). We calculated the average depth of

coverage across the *w*Mel genome. We considered lines with $< 1\times$ coverage uninfected and lines

with $>10\times$ coverage infected. No lines had between $1\times$ and $10\times$ coverage. To test our genomic

analyses of infection status, we used a polymerase chain reaction (PCR) assay on a subset of

lines. We extracted DNA using a "squish" buffer protocol (Gloor *et al*. 1993), and infection

status was determined using primers for the Wolbachia-specific *wsp* gene (Braig *et al.* 1998;

Baldo *et al.* 2006). We amplified a Drosophila-specific region of chromosome *2L* as a positive

control (Kern *et al.* 2015) (primers are listed in Supplemental Material, Table S1). For each run,

we also included a known Wolbachia-positive line and a water blank as controls.

To produce a draft Wolbachia "pseudoreference" genome for each species, we first

determined the isofemale line from each species that produced the greatest average coverage

depth over *w*Mel. We trimmed the reads with Sickle v. 1.33 (Joshi and Fass 2011) and assembled

with ABySS v. 2.0.2 (Jackman *et al.* 2017). *K* values of 51, 61…91 were tried. Scaffolds with

best nucleotide BLAST matches to known Wolbachia sequences with E-values less than 10^{-10}

were extracted as the draft Wolbachia assembly. For each species, the assembly with the highest

N50 and fewest scaffolds was kept as our Wolbachia pseudoreference genome for that host

species, denoted *w*Yak, *w*San, and *w*Tei (Table S2). To assess the quality of these three draft

assemblies, we used BUSCO v. 3.0.0 to search for homologs of the near-universal, single-copy

genes in the BUSCO proteobacteria database (Simão *et al.* 2015). For comparison, we followed

Conner *et al*. (2017) and performed the same search on the reference genomes for *w*Mel (Wu *et*

al. 2004), *w*Ri (Klasson *et al.* 2009), *w*Au (Sutton *et al.* 2014), *w*Ha and *w*No (Ellegaard *et al.*

2013) (Table S3).

Using these draft Wolbachia pseudoreference genomes, all other samples were aligned to

the *D. yakuba* reference (nuclear and mitochondrial) plus the species-specific Wolbachia draft

assembly with bwa 0.7.12 (Li and Durbin 2009). Consensus sequences were extracted with

samtools v. 1.3.1 and bcftools v. 1.3.1 (Li 2011).

To test whether the choice of Wolbachia pseudoreference influenced the Wolbachia draft

sequence obtained for each infected line, we arbitrarily selected three infected lines of each host

species and aligned reads from each of those lines independently to our *w*Yak, *w*San, and *w*Tei

pseudoreferences. This resulted in 27 alignments (9 per host species). Among the three

Wolbachia consensus sequences generated for each line, we assessed variation across all genes

used for downstream analyses. Irrespective of the pseudoreference used, we obtained identical

Wolbachia sequences. This indicates the robustness of our approach to generating population

samples of draft Wolbachia genomes, without having a high-quality Wolbachia reference

genome from any of the host species. Because Llopart *et al.* (2014) released only assembled

mitochondrial genomes, we could not assess the Wolbachia infection status of their lines.

Loci for phylogenetic and comparative-rate analyses

Wolbachia genes: For each phylogenetic analysis of Wolbachia data, the draft genomes were

annotated with Prokka v. 1.11 (Seemann 2014), which identifies homologs to known bacterial

genes. To avoid pseudogenes and paralogs, we used only genes present in a single copy and with

identical lengths in all of the sequences analyzed. Genes were identified as single copy if they

uniquely matched a bacterial reference gene identified by Prokka v. 1.11. By requiring all

homologs to have identical length in all of our draft Wolbachia genomes, we removed all loci

with indels across any of our sequences.

Given that many loci accumulate indels over time, the number of loci included in our

phylogenetic analyses depended on the number of strains included. We first estimated

phylograms and chronograms for the "A group" Wolbachia from: the *D. yakuba*-clade, *w*Mel

from *D. melanogaster* (Wu *et al.* 2004), *w*Inc that infects *Drosophila incompta* (Wallau *et al.*

2016), Wolbachia that infect Nomada bees (*w*NFe, *w*NPa, *w*NLeu, and *w*NFa; Gerth and

Bleidorn 2016), and Wolbachia that infect *D. simulans* (*w*Ri, *w*Au and *w*Ha; Klasson *et al.* 2009;

Sutton *et al.* 2014; Ellegaard *et al.* 2013). We also analyzed distantly related "B group"

Wolbachia: *w*No from *D. simulans* (Ellegaard *et al.* 2013), *w*Pip_Pel from *Culex pipiens*

(Klasson *et al.* 2008), and *w*AlbB from *Aedes albopictus* (Mavingui *et al.* 2012). To increase our

phylogenetic resolution within the *D. yakuba* Wolbachia clade (by increasing the number of

loci), we estimated a phylogram that included only *D. yakuba*-clade Wolbachia and *w*Mel. Our

phylogram with both A- and B-group Wolbachia included 146 genes (containing 115,686 bp),

our chronogram with only *D. yakuba*-clade Wolbachia included 678 genes (containing 695,118

bp), and our phylogram that included only *D. yakuba*-clade Wolbachia and *w*Mel included 643

genes (containing 644,586 bp),

To illustrate how divergence-time estimates vary with changing patterns of molecular

divergence, we estimated two additional Wolbachia chronograms: one that considered only the

*w*Mel reference plus the two most-diverged *w*Mel lines included in Richardson *et al.* (2012), and

one that included these three *w*Mel variants and our *D. yakuba*-clade Wolbachia. Our

chronogram with only *w*Mel Wolbachia included 692 genes (containing 709,599 bp), and our

chronogram that included *w*Mel plus *D. yakuba*-clade Wolbachia included 621 genes (containing

624,438 bp).

mtDNA and nuclear genes from diverse Drosophila: To assess variation in the relative rates

of divergence of mitochondrial and nuclear genes, we analyzed the canonical 12 Drosophila

genomes (Clark *et al.* 2007) plus *D. suzukii* (Chiu *et al.* 2013). We excluded *D. sechellia* and *D.*

persimilis which show evidence of introgression with *D. simulans* and *D. pseudoobscura*,

respectively (Kulathinal *et al.* 2009; Schrider *et al.* 2018; Brand *et al.* 2013). Coding sequences

for 20 nuclear genes used in the analyses of Turelli *et al.* (2018) (*aconitase, aldolase, bicoid,*

ebony, enolase, esc, g6pdh, glyp, glys, ninaE, pepck, pgi, pgm, pic, ptc, tpi, transaldolase, white,

wingless, and *yellow*) were obtained from FlyBase for each species. The genes were aligned with

MAFFT v. 7 (Katoh and Standley 2013). Coding sequences for the 13 protein-coding

mitochondrial genes in the inbred reference strains were also obtained from FlyBase for each

species and were aligned with MAFFT v. 7 and concatenated.

Phylogenetic analyses

All of our analyses used RevBayes v. 1.0.9 (Hohna *et al.* 2016), following the procedures of

Turelli *et al.* (2018). For completeness, we summarize those methods below. For additional

details on the priors and their justifications, consult Turelli *et al.* (2018). Four independent runs

were performed for each analysis, and in all cases runs agreed with one another. Nodes with

posterior probability less than 0.95 were collapsed into polytomies.

Wolbachia phylograms: We estimated a phylogram for A- and B-group Wolbachia and for only

D. yakuba-clade and *w*Mel Wolbachia using the same methodology as Turelli *et al.* (2018). We

used a GTR + Γ model with four rate categories, partitioning by codon position. Each partition

had an independent rate multiplier with prior Γ(1,1) (i.e., Exp(1)), as well as stationary

frequencies and exchangeability rates drawn from flat, symmetrical Dirichlet distributions (i.e.,

Dirichlet(1,1,1...). The model used a uniform prior over all possible topologies. Branch lengths

were drawn from a flat, symmetrical Dirichlet distribution, thus they summed to 1. Since the

expected number of substitutions along a branch equals the branch length times the rate

multiplier, the expected number of substitutions across the entire tree for a partition is equal to

the partition's rate multiplier.

Wolbachia chronograms: We first created a relaxed-clock relative chronogram with the root

age fixed to 1 using the GTR + Γ model, partitioned by codon position, using the same birth-

death prior as Turelli *et al.* (2018). Each partition had an independent rate multiplier with prior

Gamma(1,1), as well as stationary frequencies and exchangeability rates drawn from flat,

symmetrical Dirichlet distributions. The branch-rate prior for each branch was

$\Gamma(2,2)$, normalized to a mean of 1 across all branches (Table S4). We also tried a strict-clock tree

and a relaxed-clock tree with branch-rate prior $\Gamma(7,7)$, which produced no significant differences.

We used the scaled distribution $\Gamma(7,7) \times 6.87 \times 10^{-9}$ to model substitutions per third-position site

per year. This transforms the relative chronogram into an absolute chronogram. This scaled

distribution was chosen to replicate the upper and lower credible intervals of the posterior

distribution estimated by Richardson *et al.* (2012), assuming 10 Drosophila generations per year,

normalized by their median substitution-rate estimate. Branch lengths in absolute time were

calculated as the relative branch length times the third position rate multiplier divided by the

substitutions per third position site per year estimate above.

We illustrate how divergence-time estimates depend on changing patterns of Wolbachia

molecular evolution observed over different time scales, specifically the relative rates of third-

site substitutions versus first- and second-site substitutions. We compare divergence times

estimated for variants within *melanogaster*-group host species, with a time scale of only

hundreds or thousands of years, with the same divergence times estimated when more distantly

related Wolbachia, with divergence times over tens of thousands of years, are included in the

analyses. We present three separate analyses: one using only *D. yakuba*-clade Wolbachia

variants, a second using only *w*Mel variants analyzed by Richardson *et al.* (2012), and a third

simultaneously analyzing both sets of data.

***Drosophila* phylogeny for 11 references species:** We estimated a phylogram from our 20

nuclear loci using the GTR + Γ model, with partitioning by gene and codon position. The model

was identical to the Wolbachia phylogram model above except for the partitioning (there are too

few Wolbachia substitutions to justify partitioning by gene).

mtDNA phylogeny for the 11 reference species: We estimated a phylogram from the 13 protein-coding mitochondrial loci using the GTR + Γ model, with partitioning only by codon position. The model was identical to the Wolbachia phylogram model above.

mtDNA chronogram for the *D. yakuba* clade: We estimated a relative chronogram for the *D. yakuba*-clade mitochondria from the 13 protein-coding loci using the GTR + Γ model, partitioning only by codon position. To test the sensitivity of our results to priors, we ran a strict clock, a relaxed clock with a Γ(7,7) branch-rate prior, and a relaxed clock with a Γ(2,2) branch-rate prior, corresponding to increasing levels of substitution-rate variation across branches. The model was identical to the Wolbachia chronogram model above, except that we did not transform it into an absolute chronogram.

Ratios of divergence rates for mtDNA versus nuclear loci: To quantify ratios of mtDNA to nuclear substitution rates, we estimated relative substitution rates for host nuclear genes versus mtDNA using the GTR + Γ model. The (unrooted) topology was fixed to the consensus topology for the nuclear and mitochondrial data. The data from 20 nuclear loci were partitioned by locus and codon position, the mtDNA data were partitioned only by codon position. All partitions shared the same topology, but the nuclear partitions were allowed to have branch lengths different from the mtDNA partitions. The sum of the branch lengths for each partition was scaled to 1. Assuming concurrent nuclear-mtDNA divergence (because we used only species showing no evidence of introgression), we imposed the same absolute ages for all nodes of the nuclear and mtDNA chronograms. For each nuclear locus, the third-position rate-ratio for the mtDNA versus nuclear genomes was calculated as: (mitochondrial branch length × mitochondrial 3rd position rate multiplier)/(nuclear branch length × nuclear 3rd position rate multiplier). We summarized the relative rates of mtDNA versus nuclear substitutions along each branch using the arithmetic average of the 20 ratios obtained from the individual nuclear loci.

Introgressive versus horizontal Wolbachia transfer–concordance of phylograms: Horizontal transfer of Wolbachia was initially detected by discordance between Wolbachia and host phylogenies (O'Neill *et al*. 1992). When considering samples within species and closely related species, a comparison of mtDNA and Wolbachia phylogenies provides a natural test for

horizontal transmission. We first look for significant discrepancies between strongly supported

nodes in the mtDNA versus Wolbachia phylogenies. To test for less obvious differences, we

follow Richardson *et al.* (2012) and compute Bayes Factors to assess the support for models that

assume that mtDNA versus Wolbachia follow the same topology versus distinct phylogenies. For

these calculations, we omit san-Quija37 due to its clear discordance.

We calculated the marginal likelihood in RevBayes for two models; one with a shared

mtDNA and Wolbachia phylogeny, another with independent topologies. The mtDNA and

Wolbachia were each partitioned by codon position, for a total of six partitions. In the shared

phylogeny model, all six share the same topology; in the independent model, the mtDNA and

Wolbachia have separate topologies. All priors were the same as the Wolbachia phylogram

model. Lines that were identical across the mtDNA and Wolbachia were collapsed into one

sample. We ran two independent replicates of each model with 50 stepping stones per run. The

Bayes factor is computed as the difference between the marginal likelihoods of each model.

Introgressive versus horizontal Wolbachia transfer–relative rates: Within species, the

phylogenies of mtDNA and Wolbachia are fully resolved. Thus we consider an alternative

approach for distinguishing between introgressive versus horizontal transfer that depends on

estimating divergence times for Wolbachia genomes and host mtDNA. This is complicated by

variation in the relative rates of mtDNA versus Wolbachia divergence and by systematic changes

over time in the relative rates of substitutions at the three codon positions for Wolbachia.

Following the procedures in Turelli *et al.* (2018), we estimated the mtDNA-to-Wolbachia third-

position substitution-rate ratio for each branch in the *D. yakuba* clade. For each analysis, we

computed the marginal likelihood of the model where all branches shared the same ratio and the

same model except allowing different ratios on each branch. We then calculated Bayes factors

(i.e. differences in the log of the marginal likelihoods) to determine which model was favored.

We repeated these analyses after including three *w*Mel-infected *D. melanogaster* lines with the

D. yakuba-clade dataset. Because *D. yakuba*-clade species and *D. melanogaster* do not produce

fertile hybrids (Sánchez and Santamaria 1997; Turissini *et al.* 2017), introgressive transfer of

Wolbachia is not possible between these species. Hence, including *w*Mel provides a control for

our proposed test of introgressive transfer. For these controls, we calculated the mitochondrial

versus Wolbachia substitution-rate ratio for the interspecific branches separately, regardless of

whether the shared rate-ratio model was favored.

Wolbachia loci associated with CI

Wolbachia that infect all three *D. yakuba*-clade hosts cause weak intra-and interspecific CI

(Cooper *et al.* 2017), but the genetic basis of CI in this clade remains unknown. We used protein

BLASTN to search for *cif* homologs in each of our *D. yakuba*-clade Wolbachia assemblies,

querying *cidA-cidB* variants and the paralogous pair *cinA-cinB*$^{w\text{Ri}}$ (wRi_006720 and

wRi_006710) found in *w*Ri and some *w*Ri-like Wolbachia (Beckmann and Fallon 2013; Turelli

et al. 2018), and the *cinA-cinB*$^{w\text{Pip}}$ pair (Beckmann and Fallon 2013; Beckmann *et al*. 2017;

LePage *et al*. 2017; Lindsey *et al*. 2018). We identified both *cid* and *cin* homologs, but we found

no close matches to the *cinA-cinB*$^{w\text{Ri}}$ pair (denoted Type II *cif* loci by Lepage *et al*. 2017) in any

of our genomes. For all of the samples, we extracted consensus sequences from our assemblies

and alignments for the *cidA-cidB*$^{w\text{Yak-clade}}$ and *cinA-cinB*$^{w\text{Yak-clade}}$ gene pairs. The genes were

aligned with MAFFT v. 7 (Katoh and Standley 2013). We examined variation in these regions

relative to *cidA-cidB*$^{w\text{Mel}}$ and *cinA-cinB*$^{w\text{Pip}}$ respectively.

Because we unexpectedly identified homologs of *cinA-cinB* in all *w*Yak-clade Wolbachia,

we took additional measures to understand the origin and placement of these loci in the genomes.

The *cinA-cinB*$^{w\text{Yak-clade}}$ open reading frames are located on a ~11,500 bp scaffold in the

fragmented *w*Yak assembly (*w*Yak scaffold "702380" from ABySS output—we use quotes to

indicate names assigned by ABySS). The first ~4,000 bp of this scaffold contain *cinA* and *cinB*

genes that have ~97% identity with those in *w*Pip. We performed a BLAST search using all

contigs in the *w*Yak assembly as queries against the *w*Mel genome (Camacho *et al*. 2009). The

cinA-cinB$^{w\text{Yak-clade}}$ scaffold was placed on the *w*Mel genome (~617,000–623,000) adjacent to and

downstream of the *w*Yak contig containing *cidA-cidB*$^{w\text{Yak-clade}}$ loci (*w*Yak contig "187383").

However, only ~7,000 bp of the 11,500 bp of the scaffold containing *cinA-cinB*$^{w\text{Yak-clade}}$ align to

this region of *w*Mel. The ~4,000 bp sequence that contains the ORFs for *cinA-cinB*$^{w\text{Yak-clade}}$ has

no significant hit against the *w*Mel genome.

To verify the placement of the scaffold containing *cinA-cinB*$^{w\text{Yak-clade}}$, we first performed

targeted assembly using the *cinA-cinB*$^{w\text{Yak-clade}}$ contig and the adjacent contigs as references

(Hunter *et al*. 2015). Iterative targeted assembly often extends assembled scaffolds (Langmead

and Salzberg 2012). Reads are mapped to the target of interest, and the mapped reads are then

assembled using SPADES (Bankevich *et al.* 2012; Nurk *et al.* 2013). The newly assembled

scaffolds serve as the target in a subsequent round of mapping. The procedure is repeated until

no new reads are recruited to the assembled scaffold from the previous round. The extended

scaffolds enabled us to merge flanking *w*Yak contigs downstream of the *cinA-cinB*$^{w\text{Yak-clade}}$

scaffold but failed to connect the fragment with the *cidA-cidB*$^{w\text{Yak-clade}}$ contig. We used PCR to

amplify the intervening region (Sanger *et al.* 1977) (Supplemental Information, Table S1), and

Sanger sequencing to evaluate this product.

Subsequent mapping of paired-end reads to the merged scaffolds confirmed the correct

order and orientation of the contigs containing the *cidA-cidB*$^{w\text{Yak-clade}}$ and *cinA-cinB*$^{w\text{Yak-clade}}$

genes. Observed, uncorrected, pairwise distances between focal regions in *w*Yak, *w*Mel, and

*w*Pip and between focal regions in *w*Yak, *w*Pip, *w*AlbB, and *w*Nleu were calculated using a

sliding window (window size = 200 bp, step size = 25 bp).

RESULTS

Mitochondrial introgression

Previous analyses suggest that *D. yakuba* and *D. santomea* carry very similar mtDNA due to

ongoing hybridization and introgression (Lachaise *et al.* 2000; Bachtrog *et al.* 2006; Llopart *et*

al. 2014). However, our mtDNA relative chronogram (Figure 1), based on mitochondrial whole-

proteome data sampled from throughout the ranges of all three species, supports three mtDNA

clades that largely agree with the nuclear topology—*D. teissieri* mtDNA sequences are outgroup

to sister *D. yakuba* and *D. santomea* mtDNA (Figure 1). Consistent with introgression, 12 out of

26 *D. santomea* isofemale lines have *D. yakuba*-like mtDNA (indicated by blue branches and

letters in Figure 1). Yet, our samples showed no evidence of *D. santomea* mtDNA introgressed

into *D. yakuba* and no mtDNA introgression involving *D. teissieri*. The 12 *D. santomea*

isofemales with introgressed *D. yakuba*-like mtDNA were sampled from both within (*N* = 8) and

outside (*N* = 4) the well-described Pico de São Tomé hybrid zone (Llopart et al. 2014; Turissini

and Matute 2017). The *D. santomea* hybrid-zone samples are indicated by "HZ" in Figure 1 in

blue, and they are found throughout the clade that includes all *D. yakuba* mtDNA. This suggests

that hybridization occurs in other areas of the island or that introgressed *D. santomea* genotypes

migrate outside of the hybrid zone.

Previous analysis of nuclear genomes (Turissini and Matute 2017) also found more

introgression from *D. yakuba* into *D. santomea* when populations of *D. yakuba* from near the

Gulf of Guinea, Cameroon, and Kenya were included; however, excluding Cameroon and Kenya

indicated similar amounts of introgression in each direction. Matings between *D.*

santomea females and *D. yakuba* males are rare relative to the reciprocal cross (Coyne *et al*.

2002, Matute 2010). When these matings do occur, F1 females produce fewer progeny than do

F1 females produced by *D. yakuba* females and *D. santomea* males (Matute and Coyne 2010).

F1 hybrids produced by *D. santomea* females also have a shortened lifespan (Matute and Coyne

2010), due to copulatory wounds inflicted by *D. yakuba* males during mating (Kamimura 2012).

These observations are consistent with our finding of preferential introgression of *D.*

yakuba mitochondria into *D. santomea* backgrounds.

Wolbachia frequencies and draft genomes

As expected, we found Wolbachia in all three *D. yakuba*-clade species sampled by Turissini and

Matute (2017). For *D. yakuba,* 21 of 56 lines were infected, yielding an infection frequency of p

$= 0.36$, with 95% binomial confidence interval (0.25, 0.51). For *D. santomea*, 10 of 11 were

infected, $p = 0.91$ (0.59, 1.0); and for *D. teissieri*, 11 of 13 were infected, $p = 0.85$ (0.55, 0.98).

Additional frequency estimates are reported in Cooper *et al*. (2017), which found that Wolbachia

frequencies vary through time and space in west Africa. All PCR tests for Wolbachia matched

our coverage-based genomic analyses of infection status.

The average read depth over the *w*Mel reference sequence was 1,940 for our *w*Yak

pseudoreference genome (yak-CY17C), 40 for *w*San (san-Quija630.39), and 489 for *w*Tei (teis-

cascade_4_2). These pseudoreference genomes were included in the phylogram that includes A-

and B-group Wolbachia (Figure 2), and they cluster with the Wolbachia from their respective

hosts (Figure 3), as expected if introgression is rare. In general, the *w*San data are lower quality

due to the relatively small size of the *D. santomea* libraries (Turissini and Matute 2017). The

scaffold count, N50, and total assembly sizes are reported in Supplementary Table S2.

Figure 1 Bayesian relative chronogram for the *D. yakuba* clade mtDNA. The root age was fixed to 1. Nodes with posterior probability less than 0.95 were collapsed into polytomies, numbers at the tips show the number of genotypes collapsed. Node labels are the point estimates and 95% credible intervals for the relative ages. Tips and branches showing *D. santomea* individuals with *D. yakuba* mtDNA are colored blue, those sampled from the Pico de São Tomé hybrid zone are denoted by HZ. *D. santomea* line Quija 37 showing evidence of horizontal or paternal Wolbachia transmission is in bold blue. The chronogram was estimated from the thirteen protein-coding mitochondrial genes. A representation of host nuclear relationships with photos of host females at the tips is inset, with the divergence times estimated by Turissini and Matute (2017) superimposed.

Wolbachia phylograms, chronograms and relative rates

Our phylogram that includes A- and B-group Wolbachia places the three weak-CI-causing *D. yakuba*-clade Wolbachia together and sister to *w*Mel in the A group (Figure 2A). In contrast, *D. simulans* carries diverse Wolbachia that do (*w*Ri, *w*Ha, *w*No) and do not (*w*Au) cause CI, spanning Wolbachia groups A (*w*Ri, *w*Ha, *w*Au) and B (*w*No). All *w*San, *w*Yak, and *w*Tei Wolbachia variants included in our analysis are identical at the MLST loci often used to type Wolbachia variants (Cooper *et al.* 2017; Baldo *et al.* 2006). Due to the relatively small number of genes that meet our inclusion criteria (146 genes across 115,686 bp), the resulting phylogram does not resolve relationships among *w*San, *w*Yak, and *w*Tei (Figure 2A). Our phylogram that includes only *D. yakuba*-clade and *w*Mel Wolbachia (based on 643 genes across 644,586 bp) resolves these relationships, placing *w*Tei variants outgroup to sister *w*San and *w*Yak in distinct clades (Figure 2B). We observe 0.0039% third-position pairwise differences between *w*Tei and *w*Yak and between *w*Tei and *w*San, and 0.0017% between *w*San and *w*Yak. The third-position pairwise differences between any of the *D. yakuba*-clade Wolbachia and *w*Mel is 0.11%. For reference, the third-position pairwise difference between *w*Yak and *w*Ri is 2.9%, whereas *w*Ri and *w*Suz differ by only 0.014% (Turelli *et al.* 2018).

Our absolute chronogram that includes *w*Mel and *D. yakuba*-clade Wolbachia also indicates three monophyletic groups (Figure 3), whose topology—(*w*Tei, (*w*Yak, *w*San))—agrees with the nuclear topology of the hosts (Turissini and Matute 2017). However, one *D. santomea* line, *D. santomea* Quija 37, sampled from the south side of São Tomé (Matute 2010), carries Wolbachia identical to the other eight *w*San samples across 695,118 bp, yet its mtDNA is nested in the *D. yakuba* mtDNA cluster (bold blue in Figure 1). This single example of Wolbachia-mtDNA phylogenetic discordance can be explained by either horizontal Wolbachia transfer or paternal transfer of Wolbachia or mtDNA. While rare, paternal Wolbachia transmission has been observed in other Drosophila (Hoffmann and Turelli 1988; Turelli and Hoffmann 1995), as has paternal transmission of mtDNA (Kondo *et al.* 1990). The only other Wolbachia-screened *D. santomea* isofemale line with introgressed mtDNA was Wolbachia uninfected.

In Figure 3, we present alternative estimates of the divergence times for Wolbachia within and between *D. yakuba*-clade species, within *D. melanogaster*, and between the *D. yakuba* clade and *D. melanogaster*. The estimates from the chronogram that includes all of the indicated Wolbachia variants are in bold. To demonstrate how these time estimates depend on the

sequences included in the analyses (through estimates of relative divergence for each codon

position), estimates that included only *D. yakuba*-clade Wolbachia or only *w*Mel variants are

superimposed and not in bold. These estimates were all obtained using a relaxed-clock analysis

with a Γ(2,2) branch-rate prior (results using Γ(7,7) and a strict clock are mentioned below).

When considering only the *D. yakuba*-clade Wolbachia (Figure 3), we estimate the root at 2,510

years (95% credible interval = 773 to 5,867 years) [our point estimate is 2,642 and credible

interval (781, 5,904) using Γ(7,7)] and the *w*Yak-*w*San split at 1,556 years (95% credible interval

= 411 to 3,662 years) [point estimate 1,545 and credible interval (401, 3,680) with Γ(7,7)]. The

*w*Mel chronogram estimates the most recent common ancestor (MRCA) of *w*Mel at 4,890 years

ago (95% credible interval = 1,258 to 11,392 years) [point estimate 4955 and credible interval

(1363, 11093) with Γ(7,7)]. Our *w*Mel result is consistent with the Richardson *et al.* (2012)

estimate of 8,008 years (95% credible interval (3,263, 13,998). As noted, the alternative branch-

rate priors, Γ(2,2) versus Γ(7,7), have little effect on these divergence-times estimates.

Figure 2 A) Bayesian phylogram placing the *D. yakuba*-clade Wolbachia in the context of other A-, and also B-group, Wolbachia. *w*Pip, wNo, and wAlbB belong to Wolbachia group B, while *D. yakuba* clade-Wolbachia, *w*Mel, *w*Au, *w*Inc, *w*Ri, *w*Ana, *w*Suz, *w*Ha, and Nomada Wolbachia belong to group A. The phylogram was estimated with 146 single-copy genes of identical length in each genome, spanning 115,686 base pairs. The limited number of genes meeting our criteria precluded resolving relationships of *D. yakuba*-clade Wolbachia. B) Bayesian phylogram of *w*Yak, *w*San, *w*Tei, and outgroup *w*Mel. The phylogram was estimated with 643 single-copy genes of identical length in each genome, spanning 644,586 bp. These more extensive data provide increased phylogenetic resolution of the *D. yakuba*-clade Wolbachia. For both phylograms, nodes with posterior probability less than 0.95 were collapsed into polytomies.

Figure 3 Bayesian chronogram for the *D. yakuba*-clade Wolbachia plus three *w*Mel genomes with absolute age estimates based on the calibration in Richardson *et al*. (2012) in bold. The chronogram was estimated with 621 single-copy genes of identical length in all of the genomes, spanning 624,438 bp. Nodes with posterior probability less than 0.95 were collapsed into polytomies. Node labels are the point estimates and 95% credible intervals for the ages. We also constructed two other chronograms: one that included only *D. yakuba*-clade Wolbachia and one that included only *w*Mel Wolbachia. The divergence estimates for the chronogram including only *D. yakuba*-clade Wolbachia (*) and only *w*Mel Wolbachia (§) are superimposed to illustrate that the inclusion of both groups in the chronogram alters the absolute divergence estimates within each group. Our chronogram with only *D. yakuba*-clade Wolbachia included 678 genes (containing 695,118 bp), and our chronogram including only *w*Mel Wolbachia included 692 genes (709,599 bp).

In contrast, Figure 3 shows that including more divergent variants significantly influences our

time estimates. When we analyze the *D. yakuba*-clade and *w*Mel Wolbachia, using the same

$\Gamma(2,2)$ relaxed-clock model, we estimate the root of the *D. yakuba*-clade Wolbachia at 4,512

years (95% credible interval = 1,432 to 9,024 years) and the MRCA of *w*Mel at 7,204 years

(95% credible interval = 2,511 to 18,739 years), rather than 2,510 and 4,891, respectively.

Supplementary Table S4 shows how estimates of the relative amounts of the divergence for the

three codon positions vary across the data sets. The underlying model for divergence times

assumes constant relative rates at the three positions. Hence, changes in relative rates affect

divergence-time estimates.

As noted above, our estimates of the time of the MRCA for Wolbachia within the *D. yakuba*

clade or within *D. melanogaster* are relatively insensitive to whether the branch-rate prior is

$\Gamma(2,2)$ or $\Gamma(7,7)$. The estimated divergence time between *w*Mel and the *D. yakuba*-clade

Wolbachia is less robust. Using $\Gamma(2,2)$, we estimate this split at 29,209 years (95% credible

interval: 11,842 to 61,788 years); whereas $\Gamma(7,7)$ produces 49,585 years (17,452 to 106,310

years). (A strict clock analysis, corresponding to $\Gamma(n,n)$ as $n \to \infty$, produces 72,612, with 95%

credible interval (23,412, 132,276)). An alternative point estimate can be obtained from pairwise

differences. Averaging over the *D. yakuba*-clade sequences, we observe an average third-

position difference of 0.107% between the *D. yakuba*-clade Wolbachia and *w*Mel, or 0.0535%

from tip to root. The "short term evolutionary rate" of divergence within *w*Mel estimated by

Richardson *et al.* (2012) produces a point estimate of 78,000 years, which overlaps with the

credible interval of our relaxed-tree estimate with a $\Gamma(7,7)$ branch-rate prior. This molecular-

clock estimate closely agrees with our strict-clock chronogram analysis. Given that these

estimates are much shorter than the divergence time between their reproductively isolated hosts,

horizontal Wolbachia transmission must have occurred. As discussed below, the horizontal

transmission probably involved intermediate hosts.

***Drosophila*-wide mtDNA to nuclear rate-ratio analysis:** The topologies of the nuclear and

mtDNA trees for the 11 reference Drosophila species are completely concordant (Figure 4) and

agree with the neighbor-joining result presented in Clark *et al*. (2007). We find the average ratio

of mtDNA to nuclear substitution rates across branches vary from about 1× to 10×, consistent

with the results of Havird and Sloan (2016) across Diptera.

Comparison of mtDNA versus Wolbachia–concordance: The discordance between the

placement of the mtDNA of *D. santomea* line Quija 37, which has mtDNA belonging to the

clade associated *D. yakuba* and its Wolbachia, which is clearly *w*San, demonstrates horizontal or

paternal transmission. Apart from this, we find no nodes in either the mtDNA or Wolbachia tree

with posterior probability at least 0.95 that is inconsistent with a strongly supported node (i.e.,

posterior probability at least 0.95) in the other tree. For a more refined test of concordance, we

removed the Quija 37 line from our mtDNA and Wolbachia data and computed Bayes Factors.

The shared topology model was favored by a Bayes factor of e^{55}, indicating strong support for

concordance of the mtDNA and Wolbachia phylogenies.

Figure 4 A Bayesian phylogram, with branch lengths fixed to 1, displaying relative rate variation for mtDNA versus nuclear loci. Branches are labeled with quartiles of the estimated third position mtDNA to third position nuclear substitution rate. The nuclear substitution rate was taken as the arithmetic mean third-position rate over the 20 loci used. The mtDNA and nuclear phylograms are topologically identical when run separately.

Comparison of mtDNA versus Wolbachia–relative rates: Following the methods of Turelli *et*

al. (2018) to look for different mtDNA versus Wolbachia branch lengths, we also found no

evidence of variation in the ratio of mtDNA:Wolbachia substitution rates within the *D. yakuba*

clade (median 3rd position ratio = 223, quartiles = 186 and 268); the model with all branches

sharing the same ratio is favored over the model where each branch has its own ratio by a Bayes

factor of e^7. For comparison, Turelli *et al.* (2018) found a median ratio of 566 within *D. suzukii*

and 406 within *w*Ri-infected *D. ananassae*-subgroup species. These differences in relative rates

are broadly compatible with the tenfold variance in relative rates noted above for nuclear versus

mitochondrial divergence across Drosophila species. Hence, our data seem compatible with

Wolbachia transmission via introgression within the *D. yakuba* clade.

Although this result seems to strongly support purely maternal transmission of Wolbachia

within species and introgressive transfer between species (with more recent introgression

between the sister species *D. yakuba* and *D. santomea*), this interpretation is severely weakened

by our "control" analysis that includes *w*Mel-infected *D. melanogaster* (for which introgression

is impossible). Including the *D. melanogaster* data, the constant-ratio model was still favored

over variable ratios by a Bayes factor of e^{54} (median 3rd position ratio = 297, quartiles = 276 and

323). We discuss the implications of this anomalous result below. The key observation is that

significantly declining rates of substitution for Wolbachia (and mtDNA, see Ho *et al.* 2005) over

time, together with heterogeneity of relative rates (as illustrated in Figure 4), limit the power of

relative substitution ratios to differentiate between introgression and horizontal transmission.

Analysis of CI factors

In contrast to *w*Mel, which contains only the *cidA-cidB* gene pair (LePage et al. 2017), the *D.*

yakuba-clade Wolbachia, which also belong to Wolbachia group A, have both *cidA-cidB* and a

cinA-cinB pair homologous to CI loci originally identified in group-B *w*Pip (Beckmann *et al*.

2017). The A and B Wolbachia groups diverged about 6-46 mya (Werren *et al*. 1995; Meany *et*

al. 2018). Among our *w*Yak-clade sequences, there are no single-nucleotide variants within any

of the *cif* loci. The *cidB*[*w*Yak-clade] locus has an inversion from amino acids 37–103 relative to the

same region in *cidB*[*w*Mel] in every *w*Yak-clade Wolbachia variant we analyzed. This introduces

several stop codons, which might render this gene nonfunctional. On the other hand, RNA

polymerase should still transcribe a complete polycistronic transcript. Therefore translation of an

N-terminally truncated CidB[*w*Yak-clade] protein cannot be ruled out. The sequence differences

between *cinA*[*w*Yak-clade] and *cinB*[*w*Yak-clade] regions compared to *cinA*[*w*Pip] and *cinB*[*w*Pip] homologs are

1.35% and 0.59%, respectively. In contrast, the average difference between *w*Yak and *w*Pip

genomes across all 194 genes (161,655 bp) present in single copy and with identical lengths in

both genomes is 11.60%. Conversely, outside of the prophage regions, *w*Mel and *w*Yak differ by

about 1%. This is consistent with data that indicate WO phage regions have a different

evolutionary history than the bulk of the Wolbachia genome (LePage *et al*. 2017; Lindsey *et al*.

2018).

Figure 5 The gene structure and observed, uncorrected, pairwise distances among *w*Yak, *w*Mel, and *w*Pip Wolbachia spanning the region of the WO prophage island where the hypothesized transfer occurred between the ISWpi1 element "A" present in *w*Yak and the ISWpi1 sequence labeled "B" in *w*Mel. Over the region shown, *w*Yak, *w*San and *w*Tei are identical. The difference between *w*Yak and *w*Mel is less than 1% between the contigs (*w*Yak "187383" and *w*Yak "694583") flanking the region containing the *cinA-cinB* homologs. These homologs assembled on the first ~4,000 bp of the contig *w*Yak "702380", but they do not appear to exist in *w*Mel. A BLAST search against the NCBI nucleotide collection using contig *w*Yak "702380" as a query indicated the *cinA-cinB* homologs share high identity with group-B *w*Pip Wolbachia (~97%). The remainder of the *w*Yak contig is approximately equally divergent from both *w*Mel and *w*Pip, consistent with the entire region being transferred from an unknown Wolbachia variant that had acquired the *cinA-cinB* homologs. Under this scenario, ISWpi1 elements mediate the transfer to *w*Yak via excision of elements "A" and "B" along with the intervening DNA from the donor and subsequent homologous recombination between IS sequences "A" and "B" and WO phage island genes in *w*Yak. The ISWpi1 element "A" present in *w*Yak, but not in either *w*Mel or *w*Pip, was spanned using Sanger sequencing with primers anchored on unique sequence in the flanking contigs (Supplementary Table 2). The ISWpi1 sequence labeled "B" is assembled in *w*Mel and corresponds to *w*Mel#9 (Cordaux 2008) but could not be assembled or spanned with Sanger sequencing in the *w*Yak genome. White gene models (arrows) indicate a partial transposase gene present in the WO prophage island, truncated in *w*Yak. Pairwise differences were calculated using a sliding window (window size = 200 bp, step size = 25 bp).

The absence of *cin* loci in *w*Mel, combined with the similarity of this region between *w*Yak

and distantly related *w*Pip, led us to assess how these Wolbachia acquired *cin* loci. Targeted

assembly extended the scaffold *w*Yak "702380" containing the *cin* loci (Figure 5) but did not

definitively place it relative to the *w*Mel genome. BLAST searches indicated that contig *w*Yak

"187383" was likely flanked by *w*Yak "702380". PCR primers designed in both contigs

amplified the intervening region (labeled "A" in Figure 5), confirming we have discovered the

first WO prophage with two sets of *cif* loci. Subsequent Sanger sequencing revealed that this

region contains an ISWpi1 element (Supplemental Information), found in many Wolbachia

genomes, but not present at this location in the *w*Mel reference sequence (Cordeaux *et al*. 2008).

(Unpublished long-read Nanopore data shared with us by Antonio Serrato-Capuchina and

Jeremy Wang fully support our PCR and Sanger sequence results in the "A" region of Fig 5.)

IS elements encode a transposase gene that mediates their movement (Chandler and

Mahillon 2002). ISWpi1 elements are related to the IS5 family, which seems to be restricted to

Wolbachia (Duron *et al.* 2005; Cordaux *et al.* 2008). ISWpi1 elements occur in more than half of

the Wolbachia strains that have been evaluated, including *w*Yak and *w*Mel (Cordaux *et al.* 2008);

and these elements occur at variable copy number, potentially facilitating horizontal transmission

of ISWpi1 elements and their intervening sequence between Wolbachia variants/strains (Cordaux

et al. 2008). Following placement of contig *w*Yak "702380" relative to *w*Mel, we aligned these

regions and calculated pairwise differences along the chromosome using a sliding window.

In addition to containing the *cinA-cinB* loci, absent in *w*Mel, contig *w*Yak "702380" is on

average about 10% different from *w*Mel. In contrast, most of *w*Yak is less than 1% different

from *w*Mel (for instance, across the 650,559 bp used in our phylogenetic analyses, *w*Mel and

*w*Yak differ by only 0.09%). Downstream of the *cinA-cinB*$^{w\text{Yak-clade}}$ region, targeted assembly

enabled us to join several more contigs. The junctions were corroborated by mapping paired-end

reads (Langmead and Salzberg 2012) and visually inspecting the resulting bam files around

joined contigs for reads spanning the new junctions and for concordant read-pair mappings.

However, our attempts to fully bridge the gap downstream of the *cinA-cinB*$^{w\text{Yak-clade}}$ genes via

targeted assembly, scaffolding, and PCR were unsuccessful (see "*w*Yak unassembled gap" in

Figure 5). The unassembled region in *w*Yak contains an ISWpi1 element in *w*Mel, Mel #9

(labeled "B" in Figure 5; Cordaux 2008). Although not part of our *w*Yak assembly, homologs of

this ISWpi1 element appear in assemblies of this region of the WO prophage in several other A-

group Wolbachia (Cordaux *et al.* 2008; Bordenstein and Bordenstein 2016), specifically *w*Inc

from *D. incompta* (Wallau *et al.* 2016) and *w*Ri from *D. simulans* (see Figure 2). In both, we find

orthologs to Mel#9 ISWpi1 with corresponding flanking sequence assembled, indicating that this

IS element probably occurs in this unassembled region of *w*Yak, *w*San, and *w*Tei. The *w*Yak

sequence between these two ISWpi1 elements is highly diverged from *w*Mel in comparison to

the rest of the *w*Yak genome (about 10% difference versus 1%). It therefore seems plausible that

this region experienced a horizontal transfer event in the ancestor of *w*Yak, *w*Tei, and *w*San,

mediated by the flanking ISWpi1 elements.

Figure 6 The observed pairwise differences between *cinA* and *cinB* copies in *w*Yak and those in *w*AlbB and *w*Pip, not including flanking regions, are shown. We also plot the pairwise differences between the two copies of these loci found in Nomada Wolbachia (denoted *w*Nleu1 and *w*Nleu2); we chose *w*Nleu to represent the Nomada-clade Wolbachia because this strain contains the longest assembled contigs for both *cinA-cinB* copies. Homologous *cinA-cinB* copies have relatively low divergence (inset unrooted tree), with the highest divergence in the 5' end of region. The most highly diverged region among any of the copies is the first ~750 bp of *w*Nleu1, with pairwise differences between *w*Nleu1 and *w*Yak reaching ~25% in some windows, with similar divergence between *w*Nleu1 and *w*Nleu2 in this same region. Pairwise differences abruptly change 750 bp from the start of the *cinA* gene with the remaining ~1,150 bp of the assembled region having a single difference from the *w*Yak sequence (only ~1,900 bp assembled into a single contig in the *w*Nleu1 copy). This pattern suggests a recent transfer/recombination event from the same unknown donor of the *w*Yak *cinA-cinB* copy. The unrooted tree was generated using RAxML 8.2.9 (Stamatakis 2014), and the representative *cinA-cinB* gene copies were obtained using BLAST to search all Wolbachia genomes in the NCBI assemblies database (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/assembly/?term=wolbachia).

We conjectured that horizontal transfer occurred via the excision of the two ISWpi1

elements and the intervening DNA from the donor followed by homologous recombination

within the IS elements. To assess the plausibility of this scenario, we used BLAST to compare

cinA-cinB[*w*Pip] genes against all published *Wolbachia* genomes in the NCBI assembly database

(https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/assembly/?term=wolbachia). We found homologs of the *cinA-*

cinB^{wPip} in the group-A Wolbachia associated with Nomada bees (Gerth and Bleidorn 2016). An

unrooted tree of the ORFs for *cinA* and *cinB* (Figure 6) indicates that these genes in *w*Yak, *w*San,

and *w*Tei are more similar to *cinA-cinB* from group-B *w*Pip and *w*AlbB than to *cinA-cinB* found

in the fellow group-A Wolbachia associated with Nomada bees (*w*NFe, *w*NPa, *w*NLeu, and

*w*NFa), which each harbor two different *cinA-cinB* copies. This indicates that *cinA-cinB*^{wYak-clade}

were acquired via a horizontal transfer event of these CI loci across Wolbachia groups B and A

that is independent of the event(s) that placed *cinA-cinB* in the Wolbachia associated with

Nomada bees, suggesting repeated transfers of *cin* operons.

The two *cinA-cinB* copies (denoted *w*NLeu1 and *w*NLeu2 in Figure 6) in Nomada

Wolbachia are nearly as distinct from each other as they are from the homologs in *w*Pip, *w*AlbB,

and *w*Yak (~7% diverged from these strains, Figure 6). However, among the four Wolbachia-

infected Nomada species, the orthologs are very similar with *cinA*^{wNLeu1} having only 0–0.15%

pairwise differences among the four strains and *cinA*^{wNLeu2} having 0–0.56% pairwise differences.

(Reconstructions for *cinB* gene copies were more complicated as the *cinB*^{wNLeu1} copy fails to

assemble into a single contig on the 3-prime end.) This pattern suggests that *w*NLeu1 and

*w*NLeu2 *cin* copies were acquired by the common ancestor of the four Nomada Wolbachia

strains analyzed, followed by cladogenic transfer across Nomada species (Gerth and Bleidorn

2016). The highly fragmented assemblies of the four Nomada Wolbachia strains, with duplicate

copies confounding assembly, make it difficult to determine the relative positions of the *cinA* and

cinB copies and if they are likewise flanked by ISWpi1 elements.

To determine whether these genes were potentially moved by ISWpi1 elements into the

Wolbachia of the *D. yakuba* clade and Nomada, we searched each genome using both the *cinA-*

cinB^{wYak-clade} contig and the flanking ISWpi1 elements. Long repeated elements like ISWpi1

(916bp) break most short-read assemblies. Despite this, there is often a small fragment of the

element, the length of the short read, on either end of the broken contig, indicative of the repeat

element being responsible for terminating contig extension. We looked for the footprint of these

elements at the edges of the contigs on which the *cin* genes were found. We found ISWpi1

elements in the region flanking the both *cinA*^{wNLeu1} and *cinA*^{wNLeu2} copies, consistent with our

*w*Yak assembly in which we verified the ISWpi1 element with Sanger sequencing. These data

support a role for ISWpi1 in the acquisition of the *cinA-cinB* genes by the Wolbachia in the *D.*

yakuba clade and the Nomada bees. We conjecture that future work will fully confirm ISWpi1 in

the horizontal movement of incompatibility loci between Wolbachia.

DISCUSSION

Our results indicate introgressive and horizontal Wolbachia acquisition in the *D. yakuba* clade.

Evidence for horizontal Wolbachia transfer here and elsewhere (Turelli *et al*. 2018) suggests that

double infections must be common, even if ephemeral. Such double infections provide an

opportunity for ISWpi1 transposable elements to mediate horizontal transfer of incompatibility

loci among divergent Wolbachia. Importantly, our results highlight that incompatibility factors

may move independently of prophage, as evidenced by our discovery of the first prophage

documented to have two sets of *cif* loci. We discuss these conclusions below.

mtDNA Introgression

Our relative mitochondrial chronogram provides strong support for three mtDNA clades,

including a monophyletic *D. teissieri* clade that is outgroup to two sister clades: one clade

consisting of mtDNA from 14 *D. santomea* individuals, the other contains all *D. yakuba* mtDNA

plus mtDNA from 12 *D. santomea* individuals. Our results suggest less mitochondrial

introgression in the *D. yakuba* clade than a past report that used sequence data from only two

mitochondrial loci (*COII* and *ND5*, 1777 bp) and reported a clade with mtDNA sampled from

each species represented (Figure 3 in Bachtrog *et al*. 2006). (Using sequence data from only

COII and *ND5*, we can replicate this result, indicating data from additional loci are needed to add

resolution.) Our results also agree with recent work that demonstrated little nuclear introgression

in the *D. yakuba* clade (Turissini and Matute 2017).

Our results broadly agree with the results produced by Llopart *et al*. (2014) who assessed

mitochondrial introgression between *D. santomea* and *D. yakuba* using whole mitochondrial

genomes. They generated a neighbor-joining tree that produced a clade consisting of all *D.*

yakuba individuals and 10 *D. santomea* individuals, and this clade is sister to a clade with 6 *D.*

santomea individuals; one *D. santomea* haplotype is outgroup to all other haplotypes included in

their analysis (Figure 3 in Llopart *et al*. 2014). Nested within the mixed *D. yakuba* clade, Llopart

et al. (2014) identified a "hybrid zone clade" that includes *D. yakuba* individuals sampled from

São Tomé and from continental Africa and *D. santomea* individuals sampled from both within

and outside the Pico de São Tomé hybrid zone (HZ). The sister *D. santomea* clade also contains

both HZ and non-HZ individuals. Thus, their analysis and ours provide support for hybridization

within and outside of the HZ, leading us to question both the existence of a HZ clade and the

claim that these species "share the same mitochondrial genome" (Llopart *et al.* 2014). Instead,

both our results and theirs suggest unidirectional introgression of *D. yakuba* mitochondria into *D.*

santomea; we find 59% of *D. santomea* individuals having *D. yakuba*-like mitochondria and they

found 46%.

Llopart *et al.* (2014) used a strict molecular clock to estimate the mitochondrial MRCA of *D.*

santomea and *D. yakuba* at 10,792-17,888 years by calibrating their tree with the *D. yakuba*-*D.*

erecta split, estimated at 10.4 mya (Tamura *et al.* 2004). A high level of mitochondrial saturation

over time, with an expected value of 1.44 substitutions per synonymous site for the *D. yakuba*-*D.*

erecta split, could influence this estimate (Llopart *et al.* 2014). Moreover, Ho *et al.* (2005)

demonstrated that the mitochondrial substitution rate resembles an exponential curve, with high

short-term substitution rates that approach the mutation rate, then slow to a long-term rate after

about 1–2 million years of divergence, far younger than the inferred *D. yakuba*-*D. erecta* nuclear

and mtDNA divergence. Hence, using the slow long-term *D. yakuba*-*D. erecta* calibration is

likely to underestimate the more rapid rates of divergence experienced by *D. yakuba*-clade

mtDNA, inflating their short-term divergence-time estimates (Ho *et al.* 2005). If we assume that

Wolbachia and mtDNA were transferred by introgression, which our analyses support, our

estimates in Figure 3 suggest that *D. santomea* and *D. yakuba* mtDNA diverged more recently,

with our point estimates ranging from about 1,500 to 2,800 years.

Wolbachia placement, divergence, and acquisition

Wolbachia placement: Despite their similarity, *w*San, *w*Tei, and *w*Yak form monophyletic

clades with *w*Tei outgroup to sisters *w*San and *w*Yak, recapitulating host relationships (Figure 1;

Turissini and Matute 2017). *w*Mel is sister to the *D. yakuba*-clade strains in the A group (Figure

2), which also includes *D. simulans* strains (*w*Ri, *w*Au, and *w*Ha), *w*Ana, *w*Suz, and the Nomada

Wolbachia (*w*NFa, *w*NLeu, *w*NPa, and *w*NFe). Our phylogram (Figure 2A) places *w*AlbB

outgroup to *w*No and *w*Pip strains that diverged from A-group Wolbachia about 6–46 mya

(Meany *et al.* 2018).

Wolbachia divergence: Our chronogram analyses (Figure 3) estimate that *D. yakuba*-clade Wolbachia and three *w*Mel variants diverged about 29,000 years ago, and that *w*Tei split from sisters *w*San and *w*Yak about 2,500–4,500 years ago, with *w*San and *w*Yak diverging about 1,600-2,800 years ago. We estimate that the two most divergent *w*Mel variants from Richardson *et al.* (2012) and the reference *w*Mel genome split about 4,900–7,200 years ago, indicating more divergence among *w*Mel variants than among *D. yakuba*-clade Wolbachia strains. All of these results depend on the calibration provided by Richardson *et al.* (2012) and the relative accuracy of the underlying models of molecular evolution, which assume constant relative rates of change across data partitions. For the deepest divergence in Figure 3, between *D. yakuba*-clade Wolbachia and *w*Mel, we find that the estimated time depends on the variance in our prior for substitution rates across branches, with a strict clock putting the divergence at about 73,000 years rather than 29,000 years obtained with the most variable prior. Despite this uncertainty, the quantitative differences of our Wolbachia divergence-time estimates do not alter the qualitative conclusion that these Wolbachia did not co-diverge with these hosts, which split several million years ago.

Wolbachia acquisition—introgression versus horizontal: Our divergence-time estimates for the *D. yakuba*-clade Wolbachia versus their hosts preclude cladogenic acquisition. Unlike introgression, horizontal (or paternal) Wolbachia acquisition should produce discordance between phylogenies inferred for Wolbachia and the associated mtDNA. With the notable exception of *D. santomea* line Quija 37, which has mtDNA belonging to the clade associated with *D. yakuba*, but has *w*San Wolbachia, we find no evidence of discordance between the estimated mtDNA and Wolbachia phylogenies. Hence our data indicate that acquisition by introgression is far more common than horizontal transmission between closely related species, consistent with data on acquisition of *w*Ri-like Wolbachia in the *D. melanogaster* species group (Turelli *et al*. 2018). Similarly, consistent with extensive data from *D. melanogaster* (Richardson *et al*. 2012) and *D. simulans* (Turelli *et al*. 2018) and smaller samples from *D. suzukii* and *D. ananassae* (Turelli *et al*. 2018), we find only one possible example of paternal transmission or horizontal transmission within *D. yakuba*-clade species.

We also investigated an alternative approach to distinguish between introgressive and horizontal Wolbachia acquisition by estimating substitution ratios for mtDNA versus Wolbachia

(Turelli *et al.* 2018). Because we could estimate this ratio on each branch, we conjectured that

this approach might have greater resolving power than our incompletely resolved mtDNA and

Wolbachia phylogenies. We expect higher ratios with horizontal transmission because mtDNA

would have been diverging longer than recently transferred Wolbachia. However, this approach

assumes that mtDNA and Wolbachia substitution rates remain relatively constant. This is

contradicted by the finding of Ho *et al.* (2005) that mtDNA substitution rates decline

substantially with increasing divergence time, reaching an asymptote after around 1–2 million

years. To calibrate their Wolbachia substitution rate estimates, Richardson *et al.* (2012) used an

experimentally observed mitochondrial mutation rate in *D. melanogaster* (6.2×10^{-8} mutations

per third-position site per generation) that extrapolates to 62% third-position divergence per

million years. This extrapolation is nonsensical for a long-term substitution rate. As summarized

by Ho *et al.* (2005), typical mtDNA substitution rates are 0.5–1.5% per coding site per million

years. Nevertheless, using the ratio of short-term rates for mtDNA and Wolbachia, Richardson *et*

al. (2012) produced an estimate of the long-term Wolbachia substitution rate that agrees with

independent estimates from Nasonia wasps (Raychoudhury *et al.* 2009) and Nomada bees (Gerth

and Bleidorn 2016) derived from much longer divergence times (assuming cladogenic

Wolbachia acquisition) (Conner *et al.* 2017). This paradox is resolved if Wolbachia molecular

evolution is not subject to the dramatic slowdown in rates seen for mtDNA substitution rates.

The apparent difference between mtDNA molecular evolution (dramatic slowdown over

longer time scales, Ho *et al.* 2005) and Wolbachia molecular evolution (relative constancy, as

inferred from similar rates of differentiation over very different time scales) suggests why our

relative-rate test does not reject introgressive transmission of Wolbachia between *D.*

melanogaster and the *D. yakuba* clade, even though it is clearly impossible. A roughly 50-fold

slowdown in mtDNA substitution rates over the time scale of the divergence of *D. melanogaster*

from the *D. yakuba* clade, relative to the rate of differentiation within the *D. yakuba* clade,

produces comparable mtDNA-Wolbachia substitution ratios for comparisons within the *D.*

yakuba clade and between *D. melanogaster* and the *D. yakuba* clade. Because of this

complication and our conjecture that relative rates of mtDNA versus Wolbachia substitutions

over longer periods are likely to mirror the ten-fold differences we see for mtDNA versus

nuclear genes, phylogenetic discordance between mtDNA and Wolbachia is clearly a much more

robust indicator of horizontal (or paternal) Wolbachia transmission. Nevertheless, additional

examples of cladogenic Wolbachia acquisition are needed to better understand relative rates and

patterns of Wolbachia, mtDNA and nuclear differentiation over different time scales.

Our divergence-times estimate of the *D. yakuba*-clade Wolbachia versus their hosts precludes

cladogenic transmission; and our phylogenetic analyses suggest that these species share very

similar Wolbachia because of introgression, as originally argued by Lachaise *et al.* (2000).

However, under either introgressive or horizontal transfer of Wolbachia, we expect the donor

species Wolbachia sequences would appear paraphyletic when analyzed jointly with the

Wolbachia from the recipient. Paraphyly allowed Turelli *et al.* (2018) to infer that *D. simulans*

likely obtained its Wolbachia from *D. ananassae* and *D. subpulchrella* likely obtained its

Wolbachia from *D. suzukii*. Paraphyly is generally expected soon after gene flow stops between

populations. As noted by Hudson and Coyne (2002, Fig. 1), the time scale expected to produce

reciprocal monophyly for mtDNA (and Wolbachia) under a neutral model of molecular evolution

is on the order of the effective size of the species. Our results in Figure 3 indicate that, at least for

our small samples, reciprocal monophyly for the Wolbachia in these three species has been

achieved within a few thousand years. This suggests that reciprocal monophyly has been

accelerated by species-specific selective sweeps within the Wolbachia or mtDNA of these

species. This conjecture may be testable from estimates of host fitness using transinfected versus

native Wolbachia.

IS transposable elements mediate horizontal transfer of incompatibility loci between

divergent Wolbachia

Wolbachia in all three *D. yakuba*-clade hosts cause both intra-and interspecific CI (Cooper *et al.*

2017), despite originally being characterized as non-CI causing (Zabalou *et al.* 2004; Charlat *et*

al. 2004). CI is relatively weak, and its strength can vary among *w*Tei variants and *D. teissieri*

backgrounds (Table 3 in Cooper *et al.* 2017). Differences in CI among Wolbachia variants has

also been demonstrated in interspecific backgrounds where *w*Tei caused stronger CI in a *D.*

simulans background (97.2 ± 1.3 SE percent embryo mortality) than either *w*Yak (26.5 ± 4.2 SE,

percent embryo mortality) or *w*San (24.0 ± 4.1 SE, percent embryo mortality) (Zabalou et al.

2008). Both *w*Yak and *w*San induced CI in *D. simulans* comparable in intensity to that found by

Cooper *et al.* (2017, Figure 3) in their original hosts. Surprisingly, Zabalou *et al.* (2008) found

that the strength of CI induced by *w*Tei in *D. simulans* even eclipsed that of *w*Ri (89.8 ± 4.5 SE

percent embryo mortality). These results are hard to reconcile with the fact that loci known to

underlie CI do not vary within or among *D. yakuba*-clade Wolbachia variants we examined. The

nearly complete CI induced by *w*Tei in *D. simulans* may depend on CI-causing factors yet to be

identified or differences in gene expression.

In each *D*. *yakuba*-clade Wolbachia variant included in our analyses, we find a disruption of

cidB$^{wYak\text{-}clade}$ with an inversion from amino acids 37–103 relative to the same region in sister

*w*Mel. The inversion introduces multiple stop codons that could render this gene nonfunctional.

Fixation of loss-of-function mutations in CI-causing loci is consistent with theoretical analyses

showing that selection on Wolbachia within host lineages does not act to increase or maintain CI

(Prout 1994; Turelli 1994; Haygood and Turelli 2009); indeed, we have also recently observed a

single mutation that disrupts *cidB* in non-CI causing *w*Mau Wolbachia that infect *D*. *mauritiana*

on the island of Mauritius (Meany et al. 2018). In both *w*Mau and the *D*. *yakuba*-clade

Wolbachia, we find fixation of defects in the putative toxin gene. We expect that future genomic

analyses will produce additional examples.

All *D*. *yakuba*-clade Wolbachia genomes included in our analysis harbor *cinA-cinB* loci

originally discovered in the *w*Pip strain that diverged from A-group Wolbachia, including the *D*.

yakuba-clade variants, about 6–46 mya (Meany *et al*. 2018). *cin* loci are also present in B-group

*w*AlbB that infects *Ae*. *albopictus* and in A-group *w*NFe, *w*NPa, *w*NLeu, and *w*NFa Wolbachia

that infect Nomada bees. *cin* loci are absent from *w*Mel, but the *w*Yak contig containing these

loci is about 10% diverged from *w*Mel, while observed divergence between *w*Yak and *w*Mel

across the rest of the genome is less than 1%. The *w*Yak-clade *cin* loci share about 97%

similarity with the divergent B-group *w*Pip strain. *w*Yak-clade *cin* loci are more similar to *cinA-*

cinB from the B-group Wolbachia *w*Pip and *w*AlbB than to those in A-group Nomada Wolbachia

strains, which have two sets of *cin* loci that are as divergent from each other as they are from

these regions in *w*Yak and in B-group Wolbachia. These observations suggest independent

horizontal transfer of *cin* loci into *w*Yak and Nomada Wolbachia.

Our results indicate that independent of prophage movement, ISWpi1-element paralogs

serve to move incompatibility loci as transposon cargo via the excision of flanking ISWpi1

elements, followed by homologous recombination within the elements. Horizontal Wolbachia

acquisition is common in Drosophila (Turelli *et al.* 2018) and other species (O'Neill *et al.* 1992),

suggesting that double infections, which could provide the opportunity for ISWpi1 mediated

transfer of incompatibility loci, may be common, even if transient. (A second infection need not

become stably transmitted for horizontal gene transfer via ISWpi1 elements to occur.) In

contrast, phage particles or virions could be introduced by a vector and provide the opportunity

for ISWpi1 mediated transfer (Ahmed *et al.* 2015; Brown and Lloyd 2015), without the presence

of a double Wolbachia infection. Determining whether the insertion of these loci was derived

from a prophage region of the Wolbachia genome, or from a phage genome encapsulated in a

phage particle, remains an open question. While the ISWpi1 element in *w*Mel (Mel #9 labeled

"B" in Figure 5; Cordaux 2008) is not part of our *w*Yak assembly, homologs of this element are

present in assemblies of several other A-group Wolbachia including *w*Inc and *w*Ri (Cordaux *et*

al. 2008; Bordenstein and Bordenstein 2016). We predict this element occurs in the unassembled

region of our *w*Yak assembly. Footprints of ISWpi1 elements in the region flanking the *cinA*

genes for both copies of the gene in the Nomada Wolbachia provide further support for our

hypothesis. Long-read-based Wolbachia assemblies from many infected host systems will

elucidate the role of ISWpi1 elements in horizontal transfer of CI loci. Overall, the ecology of

horizontal Wolbachia transmission is crucial to understanding Wolbachia acquisition, and the

transfer and dynamics of CI loci are crucial to understanding Wolbachia evolution.

LITERATURE CITED

Ahmed, M. Z., S.-J. Li, X. Xue, X.-J. Yin, S.-X. Ren *et al.*, 2015 The Intracellular Bacterium Wolbachia Uses Parasitoid Wasps as Phoretic Vectors for Efficient Horizontal Transmission. PLoS Pathogens 11**:** e1004672.

Bachtrog, D., K. Thornton, A. Clark and P. Andolfatto, 2006 Extensive introgression of mitochondrial DNA relative to nuclear genes in the *Drosophila yakuba* species group. Evolution 60**:** 292-302.

Bakovic V., M. Schebeck, A. Telschow, C. Stauffer, H. Schuler, 2018 Spatial spread of Wolbachia in *Rhagoletis cerasi* populations. Biol. Lett. 14:20180161

Baldo, L., N. A. Ayoub, C. Y. Hayashi, J. A. Russell, J. K. Stahlhut *et al.*, 2008 Insight into the routes of Wolbachia invasion: high levels of horizontal transfer in the spider genus Agelenopsis revealed by Wolbachia strain and mitochondrial DNA diversity. Mol. Ecol. 17**:** 557-569.

Baldo, L., J. C. D. Hotopp, K. A. Jolley, S. R. Bordenstein, S. A. Biber *et al.*, 2006 Multilocus sequence typing system for the endosymbiont *Wolbachia pipientis*. Appl. Environ. Microbiol. 72**:** 7098-7110.

Bandi, C., T. J. Anderson, C. Genchi and M. L. Blaxter, 1998 Phylogeny of Wolbachia in filarial nematodes. Proc. Biol. Sci. 265**:** 2407-2413.

Bankevich, A., S. Nurk, D. Antipov, A. A. Gurevich, M. Dvorkin *et al.*, 2012 SPAdes: a new genome assembly algorithm and its applications to single-cell sequencing. J. Comput. Biol. 19**:** 455-477.

Beckmann, J. F., M. Bonneau, H. Chen, M. Hochstrasser, D. Poinsot *et al.*, The Toxin & Antidote Model of Cytoplasmic Incompatibility: Genetics and Evolutionary Implications. Trends Genet. In press.

Beckmann, J. F., and A. M. Fallon, 2013 Detection of the Wolbachia protein WPIP0282 in mosquito spermathecae: implications for cytoplasmic incompatibility. Insect Biochem. Mol. Biol. 43**:** 867-878.

Beckmann, J. F., J. A. Ronau and M. Hochstrasser, 2017 A Wolbachia deubiquitylating enzyme induces cytoplasmic incompatibility. Nat. Microbiol. 2: 17007.

Bordenstein, S. R., and S. R. Bordenstein, 2016 Eukaryotic association module in phage WO genomes from Wolbachia. Nat. Commun. 7**:** 13155.

Bouchon, D., T. Rigaud and P. Juchault, 1998 Evidence for widespread Wolbachia infection in isopod crustaceans: molecular identification and host feminization. Proc. Biol. Sci. 265: 1081-1090.

Braig, H. R., W. Zhou, S. L. Dobson and S. L. O'Neill, 1998 Cloning and characterization of a gene encoding the major surface protein of the bacterial endosymbiont *Wolbachia pipientis*. J. Bacteriol. 180: 2373-2378.

Brand, C. L., S. B. Kingan, L. Wu and D. Garrigan, 2013 A Selective Sweep across Species Boundaries in Drosophila. Mol. Biol. Evol. 30: 2177-2186.

Brown, A. N., and V. K. Lloyd, 2015 Evidence for horizontal transfer of Wolbachia by a Drosophila mite. Exp. Appl. Acarol. 66: 301-311.

Brownlie, J. C., B. N. Cass, M. Riegler, J. J. Witsenburg, I. Iturbe-Ormaetxe *et al.*, 2009 Evidence for Metabolic Provisioning by a Common Invertebrate Endosymbiont, *Wolbachia pipientis*, during Periods of Nutritional Stress. PLoS Pathogens 5**:** e1000368.

Camacho, C., G. Coulouris, V. Avagyan, N. Ma, J. Papadopoulos *et al.*, 2009 BLAST+: architecture and applications. BMC Bioinformatics 10**:** 421.

Carson, H. L., K. Y. Kaneshiro and F. C. Val, 1989 Natural hybridization between the sympatric
Hawaiian species *Drosophila silvestris* and *Drosophila heteroneura*. Evolution 43**:** 190-
203.
Chandler, M., and J. Mahillon, 2002 Insertion Sequences Revisited in *Mobile DNA II*. American
Society of Microbiology.
Charlat, S., J. W. O. Ballard and H. Merçot, 2004 What maintains noncytoplasmic
incompatibility inducing Wolbachia in their hosts: a case study from a natural *Drosophila*
yakuba population. Journal of Evolutionary Biology 17**:** 322-330.
Chiu, J. C., X. Jiang, L. Zhao, C. A. Hamm, J. M. Cridland *et al.*, 2013 Genome of *Drosophila*
suzukii, the spotted wing Drosophila. G3 3**:** 2257-2271.
Clark, A. G., M. B. Eisen, D. R. Smith, C. M. Bergman, B. Oliver *et al.*, 2007 Evolution of genes
and genomes on the Drosophila phylogeny. Nature 450**:** 203-218.
Comeault, A. A., A. Venkat and D. R. Matute, 2016 Correlated evolution of male and female
reproductive traits drive a cascading effect of reinforcement in *Drosophila yakuba*. Proc.
Biol. Sci. 283: 20160730.
Conner, W. R., M. L. Blaxter, G. Anfora, L. Ometto, O. Rota-Stabelli *et al.*, 2017 Genome
comparisons indicate recent transfer of *w*Ri-like Wolbachia between sister species
Drosophila suzukii and *D. subpulchrella*. Ecol. Evol.**:** 1-14.
Cooper, B. S., P. S. Ginsberg, M. Turelli and D. R. Matute, 2017 Wolbachia in the *Drosophila*
yakuba complex: pervasive frequency variation and weak cytoplasmic incompatibility,
but no apparent effect on reproductive isolation. Genetics 205**:** 333-351.
Cooper, B. S., A. Sedghifar, W. T. Nash, A. A. Comeault and D. R. Matute, 2018 A Maladaptive
Combination of Traits Contributes to the Maintenance of a Drosophila Hybrid Zone.
Curr. Biol. 28: 2940-2947.e2946.
Cordaux, R., 2008 ISWpi1 from *Wolbachia pipientis* defines a novel group of insertion
sequences within the IS5 family. Gene 409**:** 20-27.
Coyne, J. A., S. Y. Kim, A. S. Chang, D. Lachaise and S. Elwyn, 2002 Sexual isolation between
two sibling species with overlapping ranges: *Drosophila santomea* and *Drosophila*
yakuba. Evolution 56**:** 2424-2434.
Coyne, J. A., and H. A. Orr, 1989 Patterns of speciation in Drosophila. Evolution 43**:** 362-381.
Coyne, J. A., and H. A. Orr, 1997 "Patterns of Speciation in Drosophila" Revisited. Evolution
51**:** 295-303.
Duron, O., J. Lagnel, M. Raymond, K. Bourtzis, P. Fort *et al.*, 2005 Transposable element
polymorphism of Wolbachia in the mosquito *Culex pipiens*: evidence of genetic diversity,
superinfection and recombination. Mol. Ecol. 14**:** 1561-1573.
Ellegaard, K. M., L. Klasson, K. Näslund, K. Bourtzis and S. G. E. Andersson, 2013
Comparative Genomics of Wolbachia and the Bacterial Species Concept. PLoS Genetics
9**:** e1003381.
Garrigan, D., S. B. Kingan, A. J. Geneva, P. Andolfatto, A. G. Clark *et al.*, 2012 Genome
sequencing reveals complex speciation in the *Drosophila simulans* clade. Genome Res.
22**:** 1499-1511.
Gerth, M., and C. Bleidorn, 2016 Comparative genomics provides a timeframe for Wolbachia
evolution and exposes a recent biotin synthesis operon transfer. Nature Microbiol. 2**:**
16241.
Gill, A. C., A. C. Darby and B. L. Makepeace, 2014 Iron necessity: the secret of Wolbachia's
success? PLoS Negl. Trop. Dis. 8**:** e3224-e3224.

Giordano, R., S. L. O'Neill and H. M. Robertson, 1995 Wolbachia infections and the expression
of cytoplasmic incompatibility in *Drosophila sechellia* and *D. mauritiana*. Genetics 140**:**
1307-1317.

Gloor, G. B., C. R. Preston, D. M. Johnsonschlitz, N. A. Nassif, R. W. Phillis *et al.*, 1993 Type-1
repressors of P-element mobility. Genetics 135**:** 81-95.

Hamm, C. A., D. J. Begun, A. Vo, C. C. R. Smith, P. Saelao *et al.*, 2014 Wolbachia do not live
by reproductive manipulation alone: infection polymorphism in *Drosophila suzukii* and
D. subpulchrella. Mol. Ecol. 23**:** 4871-4885.

Havird, J. C., and D. B. Sloan, 2016 The Roles of Mutation, Selection, and Expression in
Determining Relative Rates of Evolution in Mitochondrial versus Nuclear Genomes.
Mol. Biol. Evol. 33**:** 3042-3053.

Haygood, R., and M. Turelli, 2009 Evolution of incompatibility-inducing microbes in subdivided
host populations. Evolution 63**:** 432-447.

Hedges, L. M., J. C. Brownlie, S. L. O'Neill and K. N. Johnson, 2008 Wolbachia and virus
protection in insects. Science 322: 702.

Hilgenboecker, K., P. Hammerstein, P. Schlattmann, A. Telschow and J. H. Werren, 2008 How
many species are infected with Wolbachia? A statistical analysis of current data. FEMS
Microbiol. Lett. 281**:** 215-220.

Ho, S. Y., M. J. Phillips, A. Cooper and A. J. Drummond, 2005 Time dependency of molecular
rate estimates and systematic overestimation of recent divergence times. Mol. Biol. Evol.
22**:** 1561-1568.

Hoffmann, A. A., 1988 Partial cytoplasmic incompatibility between two Australian populations
of *Drosophila melanogaster*. Entomol. Exp. Appl. 48**:** 61-67.

Hoffmann, A. A., D. Clancy and J. Duncan, 1996 Naturally-occurring Wolbachia infection in
Drosophila simulans that does not cause cytoplasmic incompatibility. Heredity 76**:** 1-8.

Hoffmann, A. A., D. J. Clancy and E. Merton, 1994 Cytoplasmic incompatibility in Australian
populations of *Drosophila melanogaster*. Genetics 136: 993-999.

Hoffmann, A. A., B. L. Montgomery, J. Popovici, I. Iturbe-Ormaetxe, P. H. Johnson *et al.*, 2011
Successful establishment of Wolbachia in Aedes populations to suppress dengue
transmission. Nature 476**:** 454-U107.

Hoffmann, A. A., and M. Turelli, 1988 Unidirectional incompatibility in *Drosophila simulans*:
inheritance, geographic variation and fitness effects. Genetics 119**:** 435-444.

Hoffmann, A. A., and M. Turelli, 1997 Cytoplasmic incompatibility in insects, pp. 42–80 in
Influential Passengers: Inherited Microorganisms and Arthropod Reproduction, edited by
S. L. O'Neill, A. A. Hoffmann, and J. H. Werren. Oxford University Press, New York.

Hoffmann, A. A., M. Turelli and G. M. Simmons, 1986 Unidirectional incompatibility between
populations of *Drosophila simulans*. Evolution 40**:** 692-701.

Höhna, S., M. J. Landis, T. A. Heath, B. Boussau, N. Lartillot *et al.*, 2016 RevBayes: Bayesian
Phylogenetic Inference Using Graphical Models and an Interactive Model-Specification
Language. Syst. Biol. 65: 726-736.

Hoskins, R. A., J. W. Carlson, K. H. Wan, S. Park, I. Mendez *et al.*, 2015 The Release 6
reference sequence of the *Drosophila melanogaster* genome. Genome Res. 25**:** 445-458.

Hudson, R. R. and J. A. Coyne, 2002 Mathematical consequences of the genealogical species
concept. Evolution 56:1557–1565.

Huigens, M. E., R. P. de Almeida, P. A. Boons, R. F. Luck and R. Stouthamer, 2004 Natural interspecific and intraspecific horizontal transfer of parthenogenesis-inducing Wolbachia in Trichogramma wasps. Proc. Biol. Sci. 271**:** 509-515.

Huigens, M. E., R. F. Luck, R. H. Klaassen, M. F. Maas, M. J. Timmermans *et al.*, 2000 Infectious parthenogenesis. Nature 405**:** 178-179.

Hunter, S. S., R. T. Lyon, B. A. J. Sarver, K. Hardwick, L. J. Forney *et al.*, 2015 Assembly by Reduced Complexity (ARC): a hybrid approach for targeted assembly of homologous sequences. bioRxiv**:** 014662.

Hurst, G. D. D., and F. M. Jiggins, 2000 Male-killing bacteria in insects: mechanisms, incidence, and implications. Emerg. Infect. Dis. 6**:** 329-336.

Jackman, S. D., B. P. Vandervalk, H. Mohamadi, J. Chu, S. Yeo *et al.*, 2017 ABySS 2.0: resource-efficient assembly of large genomes using a Bloom filter. Genome Res. 27**:** 768-777.

Jaenike, J., K. A. Dyer, C. Cornish and M. S. Minhas, 2006 Asymmetrical reinforcement and Wolbachia infection in Drosophila. PLoS Biol. 4**:** 1852-1862.

Joshi, N. A., and J. N. Fass, 2011 Sickle: A sliding-window, adaptive, quality-based trimming tool for FastQ files, pp.

Kamimura, Y., and H. Mitsumoto, 2012 Lock-and-key structural isolation between sibling Drosophila species. Entomol. Sci. 15**:** 197-201.

Katoh, K., and D. M. Standley, 2013 MAFFT Multiple Sequence Alignment Software Version 7: Improvements in Performance and Usability. Mol. Biol. Evol. 30**:** 772-780.

Kern, A. D., D. A. Barbash, J. Chang Mell, A. Jensen and D. Hupalo, 2015 Highly Constrained Intergenic Drosophila Ultraconserved Elements Are Candidate ncRNAs. Genome Biol. Evol. 7**:** 689-698.

Klasson, L., T. Walker, M. Sebaihia, M. J. Sanders, M. A. Quail *et al.*, 2008 Genome evolution of Wolbachia strain *w*Pip from the *Culex pipiens* group. Mol. Biol. Evol. 25**:** 1877-1887.

Klasson, L., J. Westberg, P. Sapountzis, K. Näslund, Y. Lutnaes *et al.*, 2009 The mosaic genome structure of the Wolbachia *w*Ri strain infecting *Drosophila simulans*. PNAS 106**:** 5725-5730.

Kondo, R., Y. Satta, E. T. Matsuura, H. Ishiwa, N. Takahata *et al.*, 1990 Incomplete maternal transmission of mitochondrial DNA in Drosophila. Genetics 126**:** 657-663.

Kriesner, P., W. R. Conner, A. R. Weeks, M. Turelli and A. A. Hoffmann, 2016 Persistence of a Wolbachia infection frequency cline in *Drosophila melanogaster* and the possible role of reproductive dormancy. Evolution 70**:** 979-997.

Kriesner, P., A. A. Hoffmann, S. F. Lee, M. Turelli and A. R. Weeks, 2013 Rapid Sequential Spread of Two Wolbachia Variants in *Drosophila simulans*. PLoS Path. 9.

Kulathinal, R. J., L. S. Stevison and M. A. F. Noor, 2009 The Genomics of Speciation in Drosophila: Diversity, Divergence, and Introgression Estimated Using Low-Coverage Genome Sequencing. PLoS Genet. 5**:** e1000550.

Lachaise, D., M. Harry, M. Solignac, F. Lemeunier, V. Benassi *et al.*, 2000 Evolutionary novelties in islands: *Drosophila santomea*, a new *melanogaster* sister species from São Tomé. Proc. Sci. Biol. 267**:** 1487-1495.

Langley, C. H., and W. M. Fitch, 1974 An examination of the constancy of the rate of molecular evolution. J. Mol. Evol. 3**:** 161-177.

Langmead, B., and S. L. Salzberg, 2012 Fast gapped-read alignment with Bowtie 2. Nature Methods 9**:** 357-359.

Laven, H., 1951 Crossing Experiments with Culex Strains. Evolution 5**:** 370-375.

Laven, H., 1967 Eradication of *Culex pipiens fatigans* through cytoplasmic incompatibility.
Nature 216**:** 383-384.

LePage, D. P., J. A. Metcalf, S. R. Bordenstein, J. On, J. I. Perlmutter *et al.*, 2017 Prophage WO
genes recapitulate and enhance Wolbachia-induced cytoplasmic incompatibility. Nature
543**:** 243-247.

Li, H., 2011 A statistical framework for SNP calling, mutation discovery, association mapping
and population genetical parameter estimation from sequencing data. Bioinformatics 27**:**
2987-2993.

Li, H., and R. Durbin, 2009 Fast and accurate short read alignment with Burrows-Wheeler
transform. Bioinformatics 25**:** 1754-1760.

Li, S.-J., M. Z. Ahmed, N. Lv, P.-Q. Shi, X.-M. Wang *et al.*, 2017 Plantmediated horizontal
transmission of Wolbachia between whiteflies. ISME Journal 11**:** 1019-1028.

Lindsey, A. R. I., D. W. Rice, S. R. Bordenstein, A. W. Brooks, S. R. Bordenstein *et al.*, 2018
Evolutionary Genetics of Cytoplasmic Incompatibility Genes *cifA* and *cifB* in Prophage
WO of *Wolbachia*. Genome Biol. Evol. 10**:** 434-451.

Llopart, A., D. Herrig, E. Brud and Z. Stecklein, 2014 Sequential adaptive introgression of the
mitochondrial genome in *Drosophila yakuba* and *Drosophila santomea*. Mol. Ecol. 23**:**
1124-1136.

Lohse, K., M. Clarke, M. G. Ritchie and W. J. Etges, 2015 Genome-wide tests for introgression
between cactophilic Drosophila implicate a role of inversions during speciation.
Evolution 69**:** 1178-1190.

Martinez, J., B. Longdon, S. Bauer, Y.-S. Chan, W. J. Miller *et al.*, 2014 Symbionts Commonly
Provide Broad Spectrum Resistance to Viruses in Insects: A Comparative Analysis of
Wolbachia Strains. PLoS Path. 10: e1004369.

Matute, D. R., 2010 Reinforcement of gametic isolation in Drosophila. PLoS Biol. 8**:** e1000341.

Matute, D. R., and J. F. Ayroles, 2014 Hybridization occurs between *Drosophila simulans* and
D. sechellia in the Seychelles archipelago. J. Evol. Biol. 27**:** 1057-1068.

Matute, D. R., and J. A. Coyne, 2010 Intrinsic reproductive isolation between two sister species
of Drosophila. Evolution 64**:** 903-920.

Mavingui, P., C. Valiente Moro, V. Tran-Van, F. Wisniewski-Dye, V. Raquin *et al.*, 2012
Whole-genome sequence of Wolbachia strain *w*AlbB, an endosymbiont of tiger mosquito
vector *Aedes albopictus*. J. Bacteriol. 194**:** 1840.

McMeniman, C. J., R. V. Lane, B. N. Cass, A. W. C. Fong, M. Sidhu *et al.*, 2009 Stable
introduction of a life-shortening Wolbachia infection into the mosquito *Aedes aegypti*.
Science 323**:** 141-144.

Meany, M. K., W. R. Conner, S. V. Richter, J. A. Bailey, M. Turelli *et al.*, 2018 Loss of
cytoplasmic incompatibility and minimal fecundity effects explain relatively low
Wolbachia frequencies in *Drosophila mauritiana*. bioRxiv**:** 461574.

Moriyama, M., N. Nikoh, T. Hosokawa and T. Fukatsu, 2015 Riboflavin Provisioning Underlies
Wolbachia's Fitness Contribution to Its Insect Host. mBio 6. e01732-15.

Nosil, P., 2013 Degree of sympatry affects reinforcement in Drosophila. Evolution 67**:** 868-872.

Nurk, S., A. Bankevich, D. Antipov, A. Gurevich, A. Korobeynikov *et al.*, 2013 Assembling
Genomes and Mini-metagenomes from Highly Chimeric Reads, pp. 158-170 in *Research*
in Computational Molecular Biology, edited by M. Deng, R. Jiang, F. Sun and X. Zhang.
Springer Berlin Heidelberg, Berlin, Heidelberg.

O'Connor, L., C. Plichart, A. C. Sang, C. L. Brelsford, H. C. Bossin *et al.*, 2012 Open release of male mosquitoes infected with a Wolbachia biopesticide: field performance and infection containment. PLoS Negl. Trop. Dis. 6**:** e1797.

O'Neill, S. L., R. Giordano, A. M. Colbert, T. L. Karr and H. M. Robertson, 1992 16S rRNA phylogenetic analysis of the bacterial endosymbionts associated with cytoplasmic incompatibility in insects. PNAS 89**:** 2699-2702.

O'Neill, S. L., A. A. Hoffman and J. H. Werren, 1998 *Influential Passengers: Inherited Microorganisms and Arthropod Reproduction*. Oxford University Press.

Prout, T., 1994 Some Evolutionary Possibilities for a Microbe that Causes Incompatibility in its Host. Evolution 48**:** 909-911.

Raychoudhury, R., L. Baldo, D. C. S. G. Oliveira and J. H. Werren, 2009 Modes of acquisition of Wolbachia: horizontal transfer, hybrid introgression, and codivergence in the Nasonia species complex. Evolution 63**:** 165-183.

Richardson, M. F., L. A. Weinert, J. J. Welch, R. S. Linheiro, M. M. Magwire *et al.*, 2012 Population genomics of the Wolbachia endosymbiont in *Drosophila melanogaster*. PLoS Genet. 8**:** e1003129.

Ritchie S. A., 2018 Wolbachia and the near cessation of dengue outbreaks in Northern Australia despite continued dengue importations via travellers. J. Travel Med. 25:tay084.

Rousset, F., D. Bouchon, B. Pintureau, P. Juchault and M. Solignac, 1992 Wolbachia endosymbionts responsible for various alterations of sexuality in arthropods. Proc. Biol. Sci. 250: 91-98.

Rousset, F., and M. Solignac, 1995 Evolution of single and double Wolbachia symbioses during speciation in the *Drosophila simulans* complex. PNAS 92**:** 6389-6393.

Sánchez, L., and P. Santamaria, 1997 Reproductive isolation and morphogenetic evolution in Drosophila analyzed by breakage of ethological barriers. Genetics 147**:** 231-242.

Schmidt, T. L., N. H. Barton, G. Rašić, A. P. Turley, B. L. Montgomery *et al.*, 2017 Local introduction and heterogeneous spatial spread of dengue-suppressing Wolbachia through an urban population of *Aedes aegypti*. PLoS Biol. 15**:** e2001894.

Schrider, D. R., J. Ayroles, D. R. Matute and A. D. Kern, 2018 Supervised machine learning reveals introgressed loci in the genomes of *Drosophila simulans* and *D. sechellia*. PLoS Genet. 14**:** e1007341.

Schuler, H., K. Köppler, S. Daxböck-Horvath, B. Rasool, S. Krumböck *et al.*, 2016 The hitchhiker's guide to Europe: the infection dynamics of an ongoing Wolbachia invasion and mitochondrial selective sweep in *Rhagoletis cerasi*. Mol. Ecol. 25**:** 1595-1609.

Seemann, T., 2014 Prokka: rapid prokaryotic genome annotation. Bioinformatics 30**:** 2068-2069.

Shoemaker, D. D., V. Katju and J. Jaenike, 1999 Wolbachia and the evolution of reproductive isolation between *Drosophilla recens* and *Drosophila subquinaria*. Evolution 53**:** 1157-1164.

Shropshire, J. D., J. On, E. M. Layton, H. Zhou and S. R. Bordenstein, 2018 One prophage WO gene rescues cytoplasmic incompatibility in *Drosophila melanogaster*. PNAS 115: 4987-4991.

Simao, F. A., R. M. Waterhouse, P. Ioannidis, E. V. Kriventseva and E. M. Zdobnov, 2015 BUSCO: assessing genome assembly and annotation completeness with single-copy orthologs. Bioinformatics 31**:** 3210-3212.

Stamatakis, A., 2014 RAxML version 8: a tool for phylogenetic analysis and post-analysis of large phylogenies. Bioinformatics (Oxford, England) 30**:** 1312-1313.

Sutton, E. R., S. R. Harris, J. Parkhill and S. P. Sinkins, 2014 Comparative genome analysis of Wolbachia strain *w*Au. BMC Genomics 15**:** 928.

Teixeira, L., A. Ferreira and M. Ashburner, 2008 The bacterial symbiont Wolbachia induces resistance to RNA viral infections in *Drosophila melanogaster*. PLoS Biol. 6**:** e1000002.

Turelli, M., 1994 Evolution of incompatibility-inducing microbes and their hosts. Evolution 48.

Turelli, M., B. S. Cooper, K. M. Richardson, P. S. Ginsberg, B. Peckenpaugh *et al.*, 2018 Rapid Global Spread of *w*Ri-like Wolbachia across Multiple Drosophila. Curr. Biol. 28**:** 963-971.e968.

Turelli, M., and A. A. Hoffmann, 1991 Rapid spread of an inherited incompatibility factor in California Drosophila. Nature 353**:** 440-442.

Turelli, M., and A. A. Hoffmann, 1995 Cytoplasmic incompatibility in *Drosophila simulans*: dynamics and parameter estimates from natural populations. Genetics 140**:** 1319-1338.

Turelli, M., J. R. Lipkowitz and Y. Brandvain, 2014 On the Coyne and Orr-igin of species: effects of intrinsic postzygotic isolation, ecological differentiation, X chromosome size, and sympatry on Drosophila speciation. Evolution 68**:** 1176-1187.

Turissini, D. A., and D. R. Matute, 2017 Fine scale mapping of genomic introgressions within the Drosophila yakuba clade. PLoS Genet. 13**:** e1006971.

Vavre, F., L. Mouton and B. A. Pannebakker, 2009 Chapter 12 *Drosophila*–Parasitoid Communities as Model Systems for Host–*Wolbachia* Interactions, pp. 299-331 in *Advances in Parasitology*. Academic Press, San Diego, California.

Wallau, G. L., M. T. da Rosa, F. C. De Re and E. L. Loreto, 2016 Wolbachia from *Drosophila incompta*: just a hitchhiker shared by Drosophila in the New and Old World? Insect Mol. Biol. 25**:** 487-499.

Weeks, A. R., M. Turelli, W. R. Harcombe, K. T. Reynolds and A. A. Hoffmann, 2007 From parasite to mutualist: rapid evolution of Wolbachia in natural populations of Drosophila. PLoS Biol. 5**:** e114.

Weinert, L. A., E. V. Araujo-Jnr, M. Z. Ahmed and J. J. Welch, 2015 The incidence of bacterial endosymbionts in terrestrial arthropods. Proc. Biol. Sci. 282**:** 20150249.

Werren, J. H., and D. M. Windsor, 2000 Wolbachia infection frequencies in insects: evidence of a global equilibrium? Proc. Biol. Sci. 267**:** 1277-1285.

Werren, J. H., W. Zhang and L. R. Guo, 1995 Evolution and phylogeny of Wolbachia: reproductive parasites of arthropods. Proc. Biol. Sci. 261**:** 55-63.

Wu, M., L. V. Sun, J. Vamathevan, M. Riegler, R. Deboy *et al.*, 2004 Phylogenomics of the reproductive parasite *Wolbachia pipientis w*Mel: a streamlined genome overrun by mobile genetic elements. PLoS Biol. 2**:** e69.

Yen, J. H., and A. R. Barr, 1971 New hypothesis of the cause of cytoplasmic incompatibility in *Culex pipiens L*. Nature 232**:** 657-658.

Yukilevich, R., 2012 Asymmetrical patterns of speciation uniquely support reinforcement in Drosophila. Evolution 66**:** 1430-1446.

Zabalou, S., A. Apostolaki, S. Pattas, Z. Veneti, C. Paraskevopoulos *et al.*, 2008 Multiple rescue factors within a Wolbachia strain. Genetics 178**:** 2145-2160.

Zabalou, S., S. Charlat, A. Nirgianaki, D. Lachaise, H. Merçot *et al.*, 2004 Natural Wolbachia infections in the *Drosophila yakuba* species complex do not induce cytoplasmic incompatibility but fully rescue the *w*Ri modification. Genetics 167**:** 827-834.

SUPPLEMENTAL INFORMATION

SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIALS AND METHODS

PCR amplification and Sanger Sequencing of "A" and "B" regions in Figure 5.

DNA was extracted from each isofemale (yakuba_S09_L24, yakuba_S01_L19, and yakuba_S01_L31) line using a standard 'squish' buffer protocol (Gloor *et al*. 1993). A standard PCR assay (Simpliamp ThermoCycler, Applied Biosystems, Singapore) was performed using the GoTaq™ DNA Polymerase (Promega™, Wisconsin, USA) master mix. PCR program began with 3 minutes at 94°C, followed by 34 cycles of 30 seconds at 94°C, 30 seconds at 55°C, and 1 minute and 15 seconds at 72°C. The profile finished with 8 minutes at 72°C. The amplified PCR products were visualized on a 1% agarose gel that included a 1kb ladder.

For each fly line, each of the three yak_ISWpi1 primer sets were assayed (Table S1). CinA primer set consistently returned a 100-150 bp product, 2CinA returned a ~1000 bp product, and 692607_694583 primer set returned no products. Touchdown PCR with an annealing gradient from 70°C to 55°C was performed with the same results to the standard PCR run from above.

For each fly line, both Mel_ISWPi1 primer sets were assayed (Table S1). All assays returned no products. Touchdown PCR with an annealing gradient from 70°C to 55°C was performed and also returned no products. Annealing temp was lowered from 55°C to 50°C and the PCR was repeated, and again no products were returned.

The ~1000 bp PCR product from yakuba_S09_L24 was cleaned using the QiaQuick PCR purification kit (Qiagen, Germany). The cleaned PCR product was sent to Eurofins (Kentucky) for Sanger sequencing.

 SUPPLEMENTAL TABLES

1233 **Table S1.** Primers used in this study.

Locus/Target region	Primer name	Forward primer	Reverse primer	Reference
wsp: Wolbachia surface protein	*wsp*	5'-TGGTCCAATAAGTGATGAAGAAAC-3'	5'-AAAAATTAAACGCTACTCCA-3'	Braig *et. al.* 1998
2L Control: rDNA	*2L*	5'-TGCAGCTATGGTCGTTGACA-3'	5'-ACGAGACAATAATATGTGGTGCTG-3'	Meany *et al.* 2018
YAK_*ISWpi1*, "A" in Figure 5[§]	2CinA	5'-TTTTTGTTCTCAGAGGTTGTCC-3'	5'-ATCCAACCATTTCCAGCAAC-3'	Designed here
YAK_*ISWpi1*, "A" in Figure 5[‡]	CinA	5'-TTTTAGCATGAGAAAGCAAGTCC-3'	5'-TTTTCCAACTTCTGTGCAAATG-3'	Designed here
YAK_*ISWpi1*, "A" in Figure 5*	692607_2_694583	5'-CCTTTATTGGCAATGCTGCT-3'	5'-CCTAAATTTTATTACGGCACTTTCA-3'	Designed here
MEL_*ISWpi1*, "B" in Figure 5*	692607_2_433806	5'-CCTCAGGTTCGAGTGACAATTT-3'	5'-TAAGTTGTCTTCAATATGCCGC-3'	Designed here
MEL_*ISWpi1*, "B" in Figure 5*	433808_2_694583	5'-GCTTACCAAGGCATGAATCC-3'	5'-TGCTTATTTTTCTTGTGGTCCA-3'	Designed here

1234 [§]Produced a ~1000 bp product

1235 [‡]Produced a ~100-150 bp product

1236 *Failed to amplify

1237

1238

Table S2. The scaffold count, N50, and total assembly size of each Wolbachia pseudoreference.

Genome	Scaffold count	N50	Total assembly size
*w*Yak	118	17888	1.28 million bases
*w*San	300	7231	1.18 million bases
*w*Tei	122	16157	1.30 million bases

1239

Table S3. Near-universal, single-copy proteobacteria genes used to assess assembly completeness. We used BUSCO v. 3.0.0 to identify complete and fragmented proteobacteria genes (out of 221) found in our draft Wolbachia genomes. For comparison, we provide results for reference-quality Wolbachia genomes.

Genome	Complete	Fragment	Not found
Complete reference genomes			
*w*Ri	180	2	39
*w*Mel	180	2	39
*w*Au	181	2	38
*w*Ha	179	3	39
*w*No	181	4	36
Draft genome assemblies			
*w*Yak	181	2	38
*w*San	181	2	38
*w*Tei	180	2	39

Table S4. Rate multipliers for the Wolbachia relaxed clock chronograms. All numbers are estimated from the $\Gamma(2,2)$ trees. They are the total estimated substitutions per site for that partition across the relevant clade (See Methods).

	1st position (95% credible interval)	2nd position (95% credible interval)	3rd position (95% credible interval)
D. yakuba-Wolbachia	1.9×10^{-5}, $(9.6 \times 10^{-6}, 3.0 \times 10^{-5})$	1.2×10^{-5}, $(5.2 \times 10^{-6}, 1.9 \times 10^{-5})$	1.7×10^{-5}, $(8.5 \times 10^{-6}, 2.7 \times 10^{-5})$
*w*Mel	4.4×10^{-5}, $(2.2 \times 10^{-5}, 7.1 \times 10^{-5})$	5.7×10^{-5}, $(2.8 \times 10^{-5}, 9.2 \times 10^{-5})$	3.4×10^{-5}, $(1.5 \times 10^{-5}, 5.6 \times 10^{-5})$
D. yakuba- clade and *w*Mel Wolbachia	1.7×10^{-4}, $(1.1 \times 10^{-4}, 2.4 \times 10^{-4})$	1.4×10^{-4}, $(8.7 \times 10^{-5}, 1.9 \times 10^{-4})$	2.0×10^{-4}, $(1.2 \times 10^{-4}, 2.7 \times 10^{-4})$