

Low concordance of short-term and long-term selection responses in experimental *Drosophila* populations

Anna Maria Langmüller^{1,2} and Christian Schlötterer^{2,*}

¹Institut für Populationsgenetik, Vetmeduni Vienna, Veterinärplatz 1, 1210 Wien, Austria

²Vienna Graduate School of Population Genetics, Vienna, Austria

*corresponding author: christian.schloetterer@vetmeduni.ac.at

September 5, 2019

1 **ABSTRACT**

2 Experimental evolution is becoming a popular approach to study genomic selection responses
3 of evolving populations. Computer simulation studies suggested that the accuracy of the sig-
4 nature increases with the duration of the experiment. Since some assumptions of the com-
5 puter simulations may be violated, it is important to scrutinize the influence of the experimen-
6 tal duration with real data. Here, we use a highly replicated Evolve and Resequencing study in
7 *Drosophila simulans* to compare the selection targets inferred at different time points. At each
8 time point approximately the same number of SNPs deviated from neutral expectations, but
9 only 10 % of the selected haplotype blocks identified from the full data set could be detected in
10 the first 20 generations. Those haplotype blocks that emerged already after 20 generations dif-
11 fer from the others by being strongly selected at the beginning of the experiment and displaying
12 a more parallel selection response. Consistent with previous computer simulations, our results
13 confirm that only Evolve and Resequencing experiments with a sufficient number of generations
14 can characterize complex adaptive architectures.

15

16 **KEYWORDS:** experimental evolution, evolve & resequence, *Drosophila simulans*, early adap-
17 tation, replicated time series data, concordance of adaptation, window-based analysis

18 **INTRODUCTION**

19 Deciphering the adaptive architecture is a long-term goal in evolutionary biology. In contrast
20 to natural populations, experimental evolution (EE) provides the possibility to replicate exper-
21 iments under controlled, identical conditions and to study how evolution shapes populations
22 in real time (Kawecki et al. (2012); Schlötterer et al. (2015)). The combination of EE with next-

23 generation sequencing - Evolve and Resequence (E&R) (Turner et al. (2011); Schlötterer et al.
24 (2015); Long et al. (2015)) - has become a popular approach to study the genomic response to se-
25 lection and to identify adaptive loci. E&R has been applied to various selection regimes, such as
26 virus infection (Martins et al. (2014)), host-pathogen co-adaptation (Papkou et al. (2019)), ther-
27 mal adaptation (Orozco-Terwengel et al. (2012); Barghi et al. (2019)), or body weight (Johansson
28 et al. (2010)). A wide range of experimental designs have been used, which vary in census popu-
29 lation size, replication level, history of the ancestral populations, selection regime, and number
30 of generations (Garland and Rose (2009); Turner et al. (2011); Kawecki et al. (2012); Lang et al.
31 (2013); Burke et al. (2014); Huang et al. (2014); Hardy et al. (2018); Castro et al. (2019); Michalak
32 et al. (2019); Seabra et al. (2019)). The duration of E&R studies ranged from less than 20 (Kelly
33 and Hughes (2018); Turner and Miller (2012); Rêgo et al. (2019)), over a few dozen (Orozco-
34 Terwengel et al. (2012); Johansson et al. (2010)), up to hundreds of generations (Burke et al.
35 (2010)). Computer simulations showed that the number of generations has a strong influence
36 on the power of E&R studies, and increasing the number of generations typically improved the
37 results (Baldwin-Brown et al. (2014); Kofler and Schlötterer (2014); Vlachos and Kofler (2019)).
38 Since simulations make simplifying assumptions, it is important to scrutinize these conclu-
39 sions with empirical data. Until recently no suitable data-sets were available, which included
40 multiple time points and replicates. We use an E&R experiment (Barghi et al. (2019)), which
41 reports allele frequency changes in 10 replicates over 60 generations in 10 generation intervals,
42 to investigate the impact of the experimental duration on the observed genomic response. The
43 time resolved genomic data of this experiment allows to contrast putative selection targets in-
44 ferred at different time points. We show that only a subset of the selection targets are detected
45 at earlier generations, which are not representative of the underlying adaptive architecture.

46 **METHODS**

47 **Experimental *Drosophila simulans* populations**

48 A detailed description of the *Drosophila simulans* E&R experiment can be found in Barghi et al.
49 (2019) and Hsu et al. (2019). The pooled individuals (Schlötterer et al. (2014)) from the evolving
50 populations were sequenced every 10th generation starting with the founder population (gen-
51 eration 0) until generation 60. This E&R experiment started from 202 isofemale lines, which
52 were collected in Tallahassee, Florida. 10 replicate populations evolved in the laboratory at a
53 "cycling hot" temperature regime (12 hours light and 28 °C, 12 hours dark and 18 °C). The cen-
54 sus size of the replicates was 1,000 individuals with non-overlapping generations (Barghi et al.
55 (2017, 2019); Hsu et al. (2019)).

56 **Genomic analysis hierarchy**

57 We investigated the genomic response of the experimental *Drosophila* populations on three dif-
58 ferent levels: candidate SNPs, candidate SNPs in a window of fixed length and candidate SNPs
59 shared with reconstructed selected haplotype blocks. A detailed description for each level is
60 given below. Reasoning that the most reliable signal is detected at the most advanced genera-
61 tion (60), we performed the same analysis at earlier time points and determined to what extent
62 the same selection targets were identified as in generation 60.

63 **Identification of candidate SNPs**

64 Barghi et al. (2019) applied various filtering steps to obtain a robust SNP set from the ancestral
65 population. In short, SNPs were called applying the following criteria: base quality of 40 in at
66 least one replicate, a coverage between the 2nd and 98th percentile, and the minor allele is sup-

67 ported by at least ten reads. Repeats, transposable elements, SNPs specific to Y-translocated
68 genes (Tobler et al. (2017)) and 5-bp regions around indels were excluded from the analysis to
69 increase the robustness of the SNP set (for further details, see Barghi et al. (2019)), resulting in
70 5,096,200 SNPs on chromosome X, 2, 3, and 4.

71 To study the selection response at different time points, we identified "candidate SNPs" based
72 on the frequency difference between the ancestral and evolved populations for each of the six
73 time points. Following Barghi et al. (2019), replicates were tested separately (Fisher's exact test)
74 and jointly (Cochran-Mantel-Haenszel test, CMH) to identify SNPs with pronounced allele fre-
75 quency change (AFC) using PoPoolation2 (Schlötterer et al. (2011)). Minimum and maximum
76 coverage restrictions were not imposed because outlier SNPs with extreme coverage had already
77 been removed. Neither the CMH test nor the Fisher's exact test account for AFC due to genetic
78 drift. To detect SNPs that show more AFC than expected under drift, we performed neutral
79 simulations with Nest (Jónás et al. (2016)) using estimates of the effective population size (N_e)
80 between generation 0 and the focal time point (Table S1- S3). The simulations further used the
81 empirical starting allele frequencies and sequencing coverages. For the CMH test, N_e estimates
82 were averaged across replicates for autosomes and the X chromosome separately. For Fisher's
83 exact test, we used replicate-specific N_e estimates of the autosomes. Based on these neutral
84 simulations we determined candidate SNPs with a false discovery rate smaller than 5 % (Barghi
85 et al. (2019)).

86 We identified 56,166 candidate SNPs in generation 60, compared to 55,199 in Barghi et al. (2019).
87 This small discrepancy can be explained by stochastic differences arising from the neutral sim-
88 ulations used to determine the significance threshold. We excluded six haplotype blocks (3.17,
89 2.27, 3.21, 3.48, 3.49 and 3.54) (Barghi et al. (2019)) with less than 90% of the previously reported
90 candidate SNPs.

91 **Identification of candidate windows**

92 The number of candidate SNPs is inflated as a result of linkage disequilibrium in the experi-
93 mental populations (Nuzhdin and Turner (2013); Tobler et al. (2014)). To account for
94 non-independence of candidate SNPs we used a window based approach. We split the main
95 chromosomes (X, 2 and 3) into non-overlapping windows of 5,000 SNPs that are segregating in
96 all generations and replicates. We chose SNPs instead of base pairs as window size measure to
97 allow for variation in SNP density along the genome. To determine if a given window contains
98 more candidate SNPs than expected, we sampled the same number of random SNPs as candi-
99 date SNPs in this window (1,000 iterations). "Candidate windows" contained at least as many
100 candidate SNPs as the 99th percentile of randomly sampled SNPs. Applying the procedure in-
101 dependently to candidate SNPs from all time points provides time point specific candidate win-
102 dows (Figure S1). We evaluated the similarity of two time points with the Jaccard index (for both
103 candidate SNPs, and candidate windows).

104 The number of candidate SNPs in a window is a summary statistic which ignores the signifi-
105 cance of the candidate SNPs. If a signal is robust between two time points, we expect the same
106 *p*-value based ranking of candidate SNPs. Thus, we also evaluated whether candidate SNPs
107 in a given window had a similar relative significance. For each candidate window we created
108 a ROC-like curve (similar to Jakšić and Schlötterer (2016)) by ranking the candidate SNPs by
109 their *p*-values - the most significant SNP was assigned rank 1 - and calculating the overlap in
110 top-ranked SNPs between two time points.

111 **HAploTYPE block Discovery Rate (HADR)**

112 Barghi et al. (2019) clustered candidate SNPs from F60 into selected haplotype blocks based on
113 similar allele frequency trajectories over time and replicates

114 (Franssen et al. (2016)). The reconstructed haplotype blocks were further validated with ex-
115 perimentally phased haplotypes from ancestral and evolved populations (Barghi et al. (2019))
116 and 96 % of the reconstructed haplotype blocks could be confirmed. This suggests that recon-
117 structed haplotype blocks provide a reliable set of linked candidate SNPs.
118 Taking advantage of this additional confirmation of the candidate SNPs in a selected haplotype
119 block we developed a third measure of similarity between time points. We determined the frac-
120 tion of candidate SNPs comprising a haplotype block that were also discovered at a given time
121 point (haplotype block discovery rate, HADR) using the poolSeq R-package (Taus et al. (2017)).
122 We note that inference of selected haplotype blocks at each generation does not provide a good
123 alternative to HADR, as the ability to cluster SNPs into haplotype blocks is dependent on the
124 number of time points (Franssen et al. (2016)), resulting in less power at early time points com-
125 pared to later ones.

126 **Early Detected HApIotype blocks (EDHAs)**

127 We applied hierarchical clustering (Pollard and Laan (2005)), PCA and kmeans (Hartigan and
128 Wong (1979)) to group haplotype blocks based on their HADR patterns. The hyper-parameter
129 k , which determines the number of clusters, was set to 5 based on the gap statistic approach
130 (Tibshirani et al. (2001)). The k-means clustering resulted into a group of 10 haplotype blocks
131 with elevated HADR in generation 20 (Figure S2). This group of 10 haplotype blocks can also
132 be separated from other haplotype blocks by the first principal component of a PCA applied
133 to HADR from F10 to F50 (Figure S3). We refer to the haplotype blocks in this cluster as early
134 detected haplotype blocks (EDHAs). We evaluated whether EDHAs have distinct characteristics
135 compared to all other haplotype blocks using the following features: haplotype block length,
136 median starting allele frequency, average recombination rate (*D. simulans* recombination map

137 from Howie et al. (2019)), selection coefficient (s , estimated with poolSeq (Taus et al. (2017)))
138 in generation 20, s in generation 60, selection coefficient ratio $r_s = \frac{s_{20}}{s_{60}}$, and number of rising
139 replicates in generation 20. Following Barghi et al. (2019), we classified a haplotype block as
140 replicate specific, if the allele frequency of candidate SNPs from a haplotype block increases on
141 average by at least 10%. We also used AFC thresholds of 5, 15, and 20% to determine whether
142 these haplotype blocks were rising in a given replicate. Selection coefficients were averaged
143 (mean) over replicates that passed the AFC threshold.

144 **RESULTS & DISCUSSION**

145 **Subsequent time points are more similar for advanced generations**

146 We studied the similarity of selection signatures for different time points using 10 replicates of
147 a *D. simulans* population, which evolved for 60 generations to a novel hot environment (Barghi
148 et al. (2019)). With Pool-Seq data from every 10th generation, we evaluated the selection sig-
149 nature on three different levels: candidate SNPs, candidate SNPs in a window of fixed length
150 and candidate SNPs shared with reconstructed selected haplotype blocks. The similarity of two
151 time points was determined by the Jaccard index, a dimensionless parameter ranging from 0
152 (no overlap between two sets) to 1 (sets are identical). We found that all candidate SNP sets are
153 more similar than expected by chance. The Jaccard index ranged from 0.08 (generation 10 vs
154 generation 60) to 0.40 (generation 50 vs generation 60), where subsequent time points are more
155 similar than those separated for more than 10 generations (e.g. $J=0.15$ (generation 10 vs gen-
156 eration 20); $J=0.08$ (generation 10 vs generation 60)). Furthermore, the similarity of candidate
157 SNP sets from subsequent time points increases with time until it ultimately more than doubles
158 for the last two generations ($J=0.15$ (generation 10 vs generation 20); $J=0.34$ (generation 50 vs

159 generation 60), Figure 1A). The monotonic increase in similarity with time shows that selection
160 patterns are more reliably detected at later generations.

161 Since the analysis of single SNPs suffers from considerable stochasticity, and neighboring SNPs
162 are not independent (Tobler et al. (2014); Howie et al. (2019)), we also repeated the analysis of
163 different time points using non-overlapping windows of 5,000 SNPs. Reasoning that windows
164 containing a target of selection will harbor multiple candidate SNPs, we defined selected win-
165 dows as those, which harbor more candidate SNPs than expected by chance. Consistent with
166 higher stochasticity on the SNP level, a higher similarity was observed for candidate windows
167 (from $J=0.26$ (generation 10 vs generation 60) to $J=0.62$ (generation 40 vs generation 50)). Again,
168 adjacent time points have a higher Jaccard index than time points farther apart ($J=0.26$ (genera-
169 tion 10 vs generation 60) $J=0.39$ (generation 10 vs generation 20)). The similarity of subsequent
170 time points also increases with the duration of the experiment ($J=0.39$ (generation 10 vs gen-
171 eration 20) ; $J=0.59$ (generation 50 vs generation 60), Figure 1A). In contrast to the SNP level,
172 the set of selected windows after 10 generations is only significantly similar to generation 20,
173 but not to any other generation. Thus, the pattern of less reliable selection targets in the early
174 generations is confirmed on the window level, albeit with different significance levels.

175 For an alternative measure of similarity we used the ranking of candidate SNPs in a specific win-
176 dow based on their p -values and compared it between different time points. If a signal is robust
177 between two time points, we expect the same SNP ranking in a selected window. Consistent
178 with the other tests, we found that the congruence in candidate SNP ranking increases with
179 time (Figure 2). To rule out that rare SNPs are responsible for the dissimilarity between early
180 and late time points, we calculated similarity measures based on SNPs that are segregating at
181 all generations and time points. Nevertheless, including SNPs which were lost in at least one
182 replicate during the experiment did not result in a pronounced decrease in similarity (Figure

183 S4).

184 The analysis of selected haplotype blocks provides another possibility to control for non-independence
185 of single candidate SNPs. We calculated the haplotype block discovery rate (HADR) - the frac-
186 tion of candidate SNPs in a haplotype block that are rediscovered at a given time point. Similar
187 to the other analyses, we observe higher similarity between later time points (Figure 1B), with a
188 pronounced increase of median HADR between generation 30 (< 25 %) and 40 (> 50 %).
189 Independent of the measure of similarity between time points, we consistently find that selec-
190 tion signatures at early time points are less reliable than those from later time points. With the
191 limitation that the true targets of selection are not known, this observation highlights that a
192 more reliable identification of selection targets strongly benefits from additional generations of
193 selection. Given that fewer "real" selection targets were identified in the first time points, it is
194 remarkable that a similar number of candidate SNPs was detected at each time point (Table S4).
195 This may imply that earlier time points harbor more false positives, but it is also possible that
196 these targets were only selected during the first generations. To distinguish between these two
197 alternative explanations, the analysis of haplotypes will be required to separate linked hitchhik-
198 ers from selected sites. Furthermore, experimental validation of selection targets in secondary
199 E&R studies (Burny et al. (2019)) may be another route to confirm selection signatures beyond
200 statistical testing.

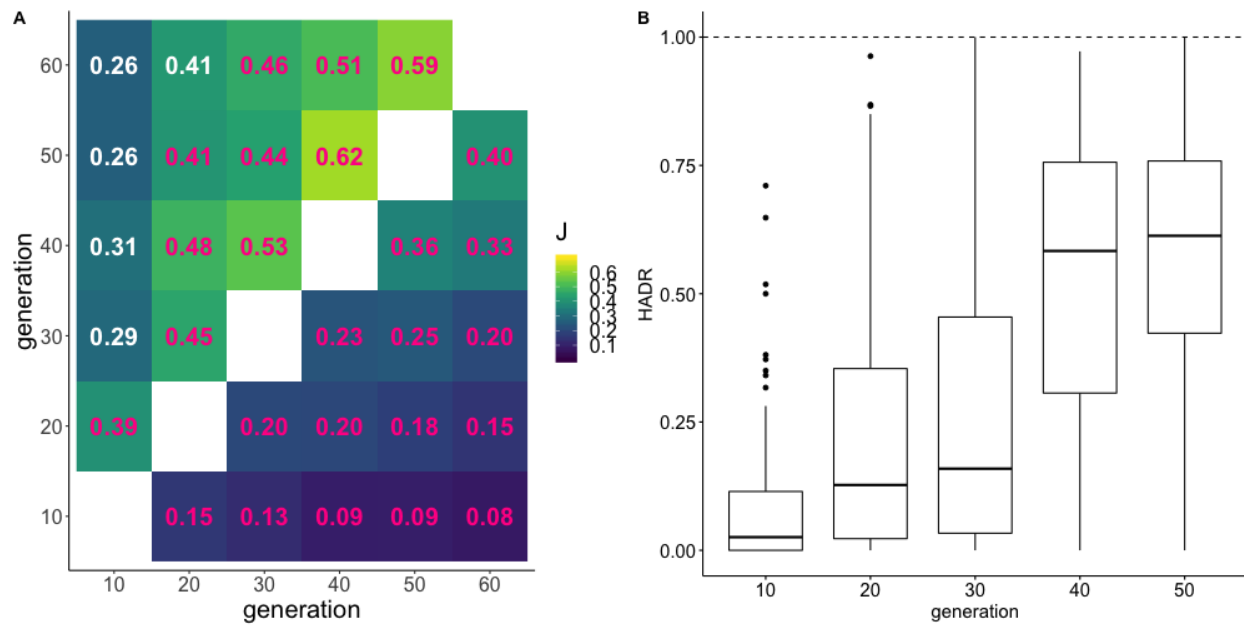


Figure 1: Similarity measures for candidate SNPs, candidate SNPs in a window of fixed length and candidate SNPs shared with reconstructed selected haplotype blocks

(A): Jaccard index for pairwise comparisons of candidate sets. The top triangle shows candidate window sets, the bottom triangle candidate SNP sets. Significant similarities (p -value < 0.05 after multiple testing correction, 10,000 bootstraps) are marked in pink.

B: The rate at which selected SNPs of 93 haplotype blocks from generation 60 were already discovered at earlier generations (HADR).

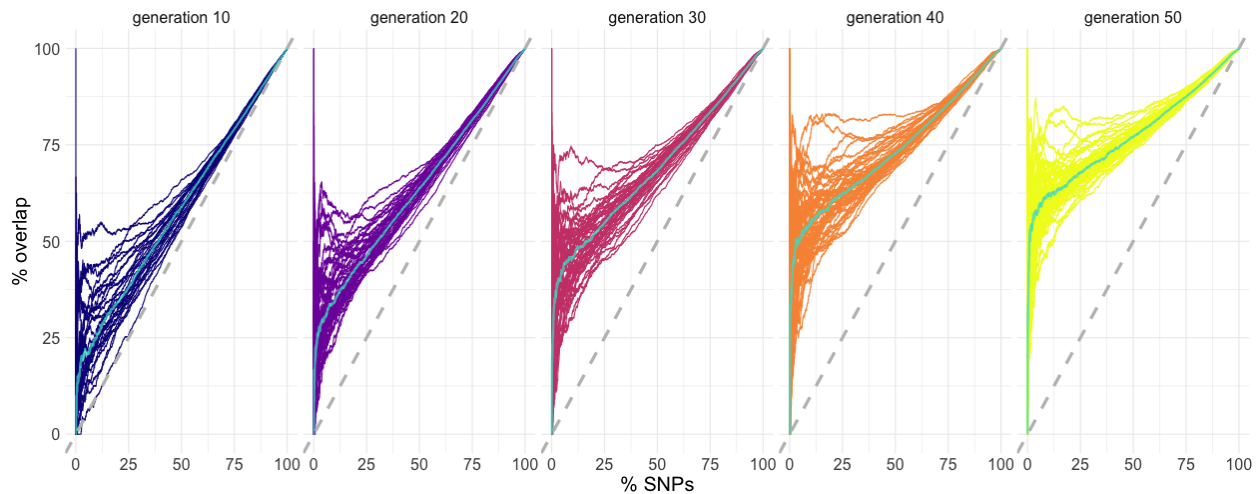


Figure 2: The rank of candidate SNPs becomes more congruent with time. In this ROC-like graph the ranking of all candidate SNPs in candidate windows is compared. Each panel shows one intermediate time point compared to generation 60. The percent overlap for each candidate window is indicated by a separate line. The median overlap (turquoise line) monotonically increases with experimental duration, demonstrating that the ranking of candidate SNPs is more robust for advanced generations. The expected overlap is shown as dashed, grey line.

201 **Only few selection targets are shared across all generations**

202 More than 27,000 candidate SNPs can be identified at each time point (Table S4), but only a
203 small (4.8 %) subset is consistently detected at every generation (Figure 3; including rare SNPs
204 see Figure S5). Independent of the importance of more reliable selection signatures with an in-
205 creasing number of generations, this analysis raises an important concern about the usefulness
206 of meta-analyses on the SNP level. With less than 5% of the SNPs being shared in the same se-
207 lection experiment, it will be extremely difficult to compare studies that started from different
208 founder populations and were selected for a different number of generations.

209 We repeated the analysis for windows and determined the number of selected windows that
210 are shared across all generations. With 18 out of 74 candidate windows in generation 60 (24.3
211 %, Figure 3) being detected at all generations, the window analysis shows more consistency

212 across time points than a SNP-based analysis. This observation is independent of window size
213 (Table S5- S6) and the inclusion of rare SNPs into the analysis (Figure S5). We propose that
214 meta-analyses of E&R data should be performed on the level of windows, or probably based on
215 selected haplotype blocks to avoid false negatives due to the high stochasticity of SNP-based
216 analyses.

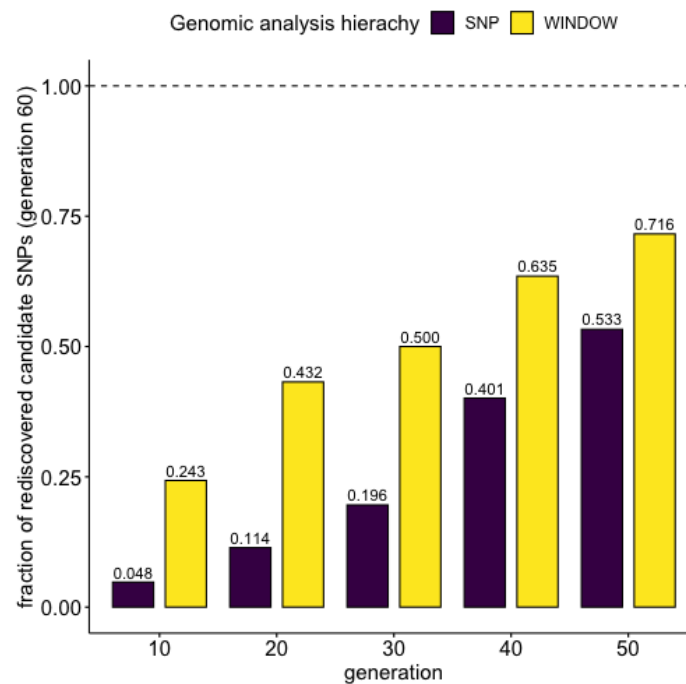


Figure 3: Less than 5% of candidate SNPs in generation 60 are detected consistently at every generation. The bars depict the fraction candidate SNPs (purple) and candidate windows (yellow) at generation 60, which are candidates in all subsequent generations (e.g. 40.1% of generation 60 candidate SNPs are candidates in generation 50 and 40). Candidate windows are more consistent than candidate SNPs. Figure S5 depicts the ratios for candidate sets that are not restricted to SNPs segregating in all generations and time points.

217 **Selection signatures detected early in the experiment are not representative**
218 **of the underlying adaptive architecture**

219 This study focused on the comparison of selection targets detected at early and late time points.
220 Since analyses based on single SNP are very stochastic, we investigated the fraction of candidate
221 SNPs comprising a haplotype block that were also discovered at earlier time points (HADR). We
222 detected 10 haplotype blocks with elevated HADR in generation 20 (EDHAs, Figure S3). 10 ED-
223 HAs were detected based on kmeans clustering (see Material & Methods and Figures S2-S3). We
224 found that EDHAs do not differ in their starting allele frequency, haplotype block length, aver-
225 age recombination rate or absolute selection coefficients from other haplotype blocks (Figure
226 S6). EDHAs are, however, more strongly selected at the beginning of the experiment, but do not
227 differ from the remaining haplotype blocks at later generations. The comparison of the rela-
228 tive selection intensity of early and late time points identified significant differences of EDHAs
229 from the other haplotype blocks (Figure 4A). Consistent with stronger selection at earlier time
230 points, the selection signature of EDHAs is significantly more parallel across replicates after 20
231 generations of adaptation. (Figure 4B). All statistical tests, which are evaluating a parallel selec-
232 tion signature across replicates, are more likely to detect selection signatures, which are shared
233 across replicates, even with only moderate allele frequency changes. This could result in a bi-
234 ased picture of the underlying genetic architecture. The analysis of selection signatures in repli-
235 cated experiments running for only a moderate number of generations is more likely to detect
236 parallel than replicate specific selection signatures. This bias is not restricted to our study, but
237 also an experimental study of *D. simulans* populations adapting 10 to 20 generations to a new
238 temperature regime (Kelly and Hughes (2018)) found more parallel selection responses. We pro-
239 pose that additional analyses contrasting selection signatures of early and late time points are
240 needed to confirm the enrichment of parallel selection signatures in short-term experiments.

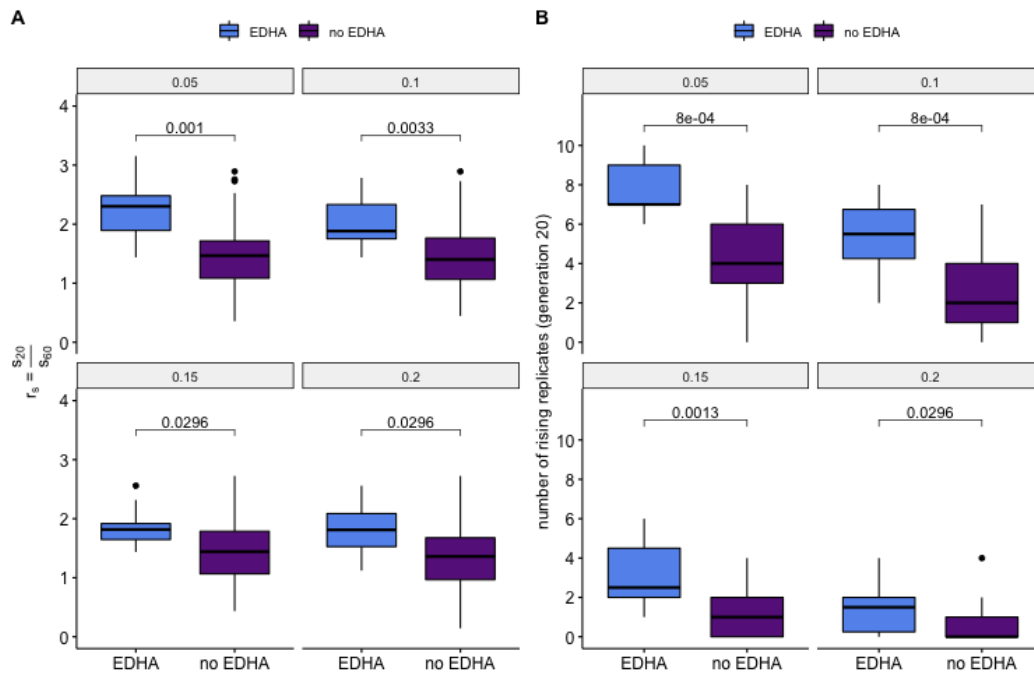


Figure 4: Early Detectable HAploTYPE blocks (EDHAs) differ from the other selected haploTYPE blocks. The ratio of selection coefficients determined for early generations (generation 20) and late generations (generation 60) is significantly higher for EDHAs (A). EDHAs rise in more replicates (B) than other haploTYPE blocks. Both observations are robust to different AFC thresholds. Values above the boxplots represent the two-tailed Mann-Whitney test p -values corrected for multiple testing with the Benjamini-Hochberg procedure.

241 ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

242 We thank the members of the Institut für Populationsgenetik for fruitful discussion and support.
243 Special thanks to Neda Barghi, Sheng-Kai Hsu and Claire Burny for helpful comments on earlier
244 versions of the manuscript. This work was supported by the Austrian Science Fund (FWF, grant
245 W1225) and an European Research Council (ERC) grant (ArchAdapt).

²⁴⁶ **DATA AVAILABILITY**

²⁴⁷ All scripts will be uploaded and available on GitHub upon publication.

248 **Bibliography**

- 249 Baldwin-Brown, J. G., A. D. Long, and K. R. Thornton
250 2014. The power to detect quantitative trait loci using resequenced, experimentally evolved
251 populations of diploid, sexual organisms. *Molecular Biology and Evolution*, 31(4):1040–1055.
- 252 Barghi, N., R. Tobler, V. Nolte, A. M. Jakšić, F. Mallard, K. A. Otte, M. Dolezal, T. Taus, R. Kofler,
253 and C. Schlötterer
254 2019. Genetic redundancy fuels polygenic adaptation in *Drosophila*. *PLOS Biology*, 17(2):1–
255 31.
- 256 Barghi, N., R. Tobler, V. Nolte, and C. Schlötterer
257 2017. *Drosophila simulans*: A species with improved resolution in evolve and resequence
258 studies. *G3: Genes, Genomes, Genetics*, 7(7):2337–2343.
- 259 Burke, M. K., J. P. Dunham, P. Shahrestani, K. R. Thornton, M. R. Rose, and A. D. Long
260 2010. Genome-wide analysis of a long-term evolution experiment with *Drosophila*. *Nature*,
261 467(7315):587–590.
- 262 Burke, M. K., G. Liti, and A. D. Long
263 2014. Standing genetic variation drives repeatable experimental evolution in outcrossing
264 populations of *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*. *Molecular Biology and Evolution*, 31(12):3228–3239.

- 265 Burny, C., V. Nolte, P. Nouhaud, M. Dolezal, and C. Schlötterer
266 2019. Secondary evolve and re-sequencing: an experimental confirmation of putative selec-
267 tion targets without phenotyping. *bioRxiv*.
- 268 Castro, J. P., M. N. Yancoskie, M. Marchini, S. Belohlavy, L. Hiramatsu, M. Kučka, W. H. Beluch,
269 R. Naumann, I. Skuplik, J. Cobb, N. H. Barton, C. Rolian, and Y. F. Chan
270 2019. An integrative genomic analysis of the longshanks selection experiment for longer
271 limbs in mice. *eLife*, 8:e42014.
- 272 Franssen, S. U., C. Schlötterer, and N. H. Barton
273 2016. Reconstruction of Haplotype-Blocks Selected during Experimental Evolution. *Molecu-*
274 *lar Biology and Evolution*, 34(1):174–184.
- 275 Garland, T. and M. Rose
276 2009. *Experimental Evolution: Concepts, Methods, and Applications of Selection Experiments*.
- 277 Hardy, C. M., M. K. Burke, L. J. Everett, M. V. Han, K. M. Lantz, and A. G. Gibbs
278 2018. Genome-Wide Analysis of Starvation-Selected *Drosophila melanogaster*-A Genetic
279 Model of Obesity. *Molecular Biology and Evolution*, 35(1):50–65.
- 280 Hartigan, J. A. and M. A. Wong
281 1979. Algorithm AS 136: A K-Means Clustering Algorithm. *Journal of the Royal Statistical*
282 *Society. Series C (Applied Statistics)*, 28(1):100–108.
- 283 Howie, J. M., R. Mazzucco, T. Taus, V. Nolte, and C. Schlötterer
284 2019. DNA Motifs Are Not General Predictors of Recombination in Two *Drosophila* Sister
285 Species. *Genome Biology and Evolution*, 11(4):1345–1357.

- 286 Hsu, S.-K., A. M. Jaksic, V. Nolte, N. Barghi, F. Mallard, K. A. Otte, and S. Christian
287 2019. A 24 h Age Difference Causes Twice as Much Gene Expression Divergence as 100 Gen-
288 erations of Adaptation to a Novel Environment. *Genes*, 10(2).
- 289 Huang, Y., S. I. Wright, and A. F. Agrawal
290 2014. Genome-wide patterns of genetic variation within and among alternative selective
291 regimes. *PLOS Genetics*, 10(8):1–15.
- 292 Jakšić, A. M. and C. Schlötterer
293 2016. The interplay of temperature and genotype on patterns of alternative splicing in
294 *Drosophila melanogaster*. *Genetics*, 204(1):315–325.
- 295 Johansson, A. M., M. E. Pettersson, P. B. Siegel, and Ö. Carlborg
296 2010. Genome-wide effects of long-term divergent selection. *PLOS Genetics*, 6(11):1–12.
- 297 Jónás, Á., T. Taus, C. Kosiol, C. Schlötterer, and A. Futschik
298 2016. Estimating the effective population size from temporal allele frequency changes in
299 experimental evolution. *Genetics*, 204(2):723–735.
- 300 Kawecki, T. J., R. E. Lenski, D. Ebert, B. Hollis, I. Olivieri, and M. C. Whitlock
301 2012. Experimental evolution. *Trends in Ecology & Evolution*, 27(10):547 – 560.
- 302 Kelly, J. K. and K. A. Hughes
303 2018. Pervasive linked selection and intermediate-frequency alleles are impli-
304 cated in an evolve-and-resequencing experiment of *Drosophila simulans*. *Genetics*,
305 211(March):genetics.301824.2018.

306 Kofler, R. and C. Schlötterer

307 2014. A guide for the design of evolve and resequencing studies. *Molecular Biology and*
308 *Evolution*, 31(2):474–483.

309 Lang, G. I., D. P. Rice, M. J. Hickman, E. Sodergren, G. M. Weinstock, D. Botstein, and M. M.
310 Desai

311 2013. Pervasive genetic hitchhiking and clonal interference in forty evolving yeast popula-
312 tions. *Nature*, 500(7464):571–574.

313 Long, A., G. Liti, A. Luptak, and O. Tenaillon

314 2015. Elucidating the molecular architecture of adaptation via evolve and resequence exper-
315 iments. *Nature Reviews Genetics*, 16(10):567–582.

316 Martins, N. E., V. G. Faria, V. Nolte, C. Schlötterer, L. Teixeira, É. Sucena, and S. Magalhães

317 2014. Host adaptation to viruses relies on few genes with different cross-resistance proper-
318 ties. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, 111(16):5938–5943.

319 Michalak, P., L. Kang, M. F. Schou, H. R. Garner, and V. Loeschcke

320 2019. Genomic signatures of experimental adaptive radiation in *Drosophila*. *Molecular Ecol-*
321 *ogy*, 28(3):600–614.

322 Nuzhdin, S. V. and T. L. Turner

323 2013. Promises and limitations of hitchhiking mapping. *Current Opinion in Genetics & De-*
324 *velopment*, 23(6):694–699.

325 Orozco-Terwengel, P., M. Kapun, V. Nolte, R. Kofler, T. Flatt, and C. Schlötterer

326 2012. Adaptation of *Drosophila* to a novel laboratory environment reveals temporally hetero-
327 geneous trajectories of selected alleles. *Molecular Ecology*, 21(20):4931–4941.

- 328 Papkou, A., T. Guzella, W. Yang, S. Koepper, B. Pees, R. Schalkowski, M.-C. Barg, P. C. Rosenstiel,
329 H. Teotónio, and H. Schulenburg
330 2019. The genomic basis of Red Queen dynamics during rapid reciprocal host–pathogen
331 coevolution. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, 116(3):923–928.
- 332 Pollard, K. S. and M. J. V. D. Laan
333 2005. Analysis of Genomic Data with Applications in R. *U.C. Berkeley Division of Biostatistics*
334 *Working Paper Series*, Working Paper 167.
- 335 Rêgo, A., F. J. Messina, and Z. Gompert
336 2019. Dynamics of genomic change during evolutionary rescue in the seed beetle *Callosobruchus maculatus*. *Molecular Ecology*, 28(9):2136–2154.
- 338 Schlötterer, C., R. Kofler, E. Versace, R. Tobler, and S. U. Franssen
339 2015. Combining experimental evolution with next-generation sequencing: a powerful tool
340 to study adaptation from standing genetic variation. *Heredity*, 114(5):431–440.
- 341 Schlötterer, C., R. Tobler, R. Kofler, and V. Nolte
342 2014. Sequencing pools of individuals — mining genome-wide polymorphism data without
343 big funding. *Nature Reviews Genetics*, 15(11):749–763.
- 344 Schlötterer, C., R. V. Pandey, and R. Kofler
345 2011. PoPoolation2: identifying differentiation between populations using sequencing of
346 pooled DNA samples (Pool-Seq). *Bioinformatics*, 27(24):3435–3436.
- 347 Seabra, S. G., I. Fragata, M. A. Antunes, G. S. Faria, M. A. Santos, V. C. Sousa, P. Simões, and

- 348 M. Matos
349 2019. Different Genomic Changes Underlie Adaptive Evolution in Populations of Contrasting
350 History. *Molecular Biology and Evolution*, 36(6):1358–1358.
- 351 Taus, T., A. Futschik, and C. Schlötterer
352 2017. Quantifying Selection with Pool-Seq Time Series Data. *Molecular Biology and Evolu-*
353 *tion*, 34(11):3023–3034.
- 354 Tibshirani, R., G. Walther, and T. Hastie
355 2001. Estimating the number of clusters in a data set via the gap statistic. *Journal of the Royal*
356 *Statistical Society Series B*, 63:411–423.
- 357 Tobler, R., S. U. Franssen, V. Nolte, and C. Schlötterer
358 2014. Patterns of Linkage Disequilibrium and Long Range Hitchhiking in Evolving Experi-
359 mental *Drosophila melanogaster* Populations. *Molecular Biology and Evolution*, 32(2):495–
360 509.
- 361 Tobler, R., V. Nolte, and C. Schlötterer
362 2017. High rate of translocation-based gene birth on the *Drosophila* Y chromosome. *Pro-*
363 *ceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, 114(44):11721–11726.
- 364 Turner, T. L. and P. M. Miller
365 2012. Investigating natural variation in *Drosophila* courtship song by the evolve and rese-
366 quence approach. *Genetics*, 191(2):633–642.
- 367 Turner, T. L., A. D. Stewart, A. T. Fields, W. R. Rice, and A. M. Tarone
368 2011. Population-based resequencing of experimentally evolved populations reveals the ge-
369 netic basis of body size variation in *Drosophila melanogaster*. *PLOS Genetics*, 7(3):1–10.

370 Vlachos, C. and R. Kofler

371 2019. Optimizing the power to identify the genetic basis of complex traits with Evolve and

372 Resequencing studies. *Molecular Biology and Evolution*.