

1 **Allelic polymorphism at *foxo* contributes to local adaptation in**  
2 ***Drosophila melanogaster***

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26 **Abstract:** The insulin insulin-like growth factor signaling pathway has been  
27 hypothesized as a major determinant of life history profiles that vary adaptively in  
28 natural populations. In *Drosophila melanogaster*, multiple components of this  
29 pathway vary predictably with latitude; this includes *foxo*, a conserved gene that  
30 regulates insulin signaling and has pleiotropic effects on a variety of fitness-  
31 associated traits. We hypothesized that allelic variation at *foxo* underlies genetic  
32 variance for traits that vary with latitude and reflect local adaptation. To evaluate this,  
33 we generated recombinant outbred populations in which the focal *foxo* allele was  
34 homozygous and fixed for either the allele common at high latitude or low latitude  
35 and the genomic background was randomized across 20 inbred lines. After eight  
36 generations of recombination, experimental populations were phenotyped for a  
37 series of traits related to gene function. Our results demonstrate that natural allelic  
38 variation at *foxo* has major and predictable effects on body size and starvation  
39 tolerance, but not on development time. These patterns mirror those observed in  
40 natural populations collected across the latitudinal gradient in the eastern U.S.:  
41 clines were observed for starvation tolerance and body size, but development time  
42 exhibited no association with latitude. Furthermore, differences in size between *foxo*  
43 genotypes were equivalent to those observed between populations sampled from the  
44 latitudinal extremes, although contribution to the genetic variance for starvation  
45 tolerance was less pronounced. These results suggest that allelic variation at *foxo* is  
46 a major contributor to adaptive patterns of life history variation in natural populations  
47 of this genetic model.

48 **Keywords:** *foxo*, cline, size, starvation tolerance, genetic architecture

49

## 50 **1. INTRODUCTION**

51       Elucidating the molecular, mechanistic basis of adaptive differentiation for  
52 complex traits in natural populations remains a fundamental goal in evolutionary  
53 biology. Outlining the genotype-phenotype map and subsequent investigation into  
54 mechanism requires, to some extent, identification of the genes and variants that  
55 underlie genetic variance realized in the wild. However, fitness traits are often  
56 complex, with a highly polygenic architecture (e.g., Arnegard et al. 2014; McCown et  
57 al. 2014; Savolainen et al. 2013). The likelihood of effectively mapping complex traits  
58 to causative polymorphism varies between two classical viewpoints regarding  
59 architecture for quantitative traits: many loci of small effect vs. few loci of large effect  
60 (Rockman 2012; Wellenreuther and Hansson 2016; Roff 2017; Boyle et al. 2017;  
61 Barton et al. 2017). While these perspectives may be artificially polarized, many  
62 empirical advances in understanding the mechanistic basis of adaptation in sexual,  
63 outbred populations include both a clear identification of traits that drive local  
64 adaptation as well as an apparently simple genetic architecture, with at least one  
65 locus of major effect (e.g., Colosimo et al. 2005; Comeault et al. 2015; van't Hof et  
66 al. 2016; Lamichhaney et al. 2016; Jones et al. 2018). In such examples, alleles  
67 segregating at a locus of major effect can then be examined for functional  
68 differences that affect performance and fitness (e.g., Laurie and Stam 1988;  
69 Manceau et al. 2011; Cheviron et al. 2012; Chakraborty and Fry 2016). What is  
70 unclear, however, is whether alleles at loci underlying local adaptation are typically of  
71 large effect, or whether the effect size of such naturally occurring variants is  
72 effectively negligible for any molecular or functional investigation (e.g., Lewontin  
73 1974; Rockman 2012).

74

75           Body size is a trait commonly associated with fitness (Brown et al. 1993;  
76 Blanckenhorn 2000; Bonnet et al. 2017). In a variety of taxa, size also varies  
77 predictably across environmental gradients such as those associated with latitude  
78 (James et al. 1995; Huey et al. 2000; Ashton 2002; Blanckenhorn and Demont 2004;  
79 Stillwell et al. 2007); such clines suggest that body size is affected by spatially  
80 varying selection and contributes to local adaptation (Partridge and Coyne 1997;  
81 Stillwell 2010). While size-related traits are in general highly polygenic (e.g., Boyle et  
82 al. 2017), major effect loci have also been observed (e.g., Sutter et al. 2007). In  
83 particular, multiple components of the insulin insulin-like growth factor signaling  
84 pathway (IIS) can regulate size (e.g., Colombani et al. 2005; Sutter et al. 2007); in  
85 particular, the forkhead box-O transcription factor gene *foxo* is a major regulator of  
86 IIS and impacts size as well as a variety of other traits associated with fitness  
87 (Libina, Berman, & Kenyon, 2003; Kramer, Davidge, Lockyer, & Staveley, 2003;  
88 Kramer, Slade, & Staveley, 2008; Hwangbo, Gersham, Tu, Palmer, & Tatar, 2004;  
89 Fielenbach & Antebi, 2008; Mattila, Bremer, Ahonen, Kostianen, & Puig, 2009).  
90 Thus, the analysis of variation in body size offers an excellent system in which to  
91 examine aspects of genetic architecture and the integration between allelic and  
92 phenotypic patterns in natural populations.

93

94           In *Drosophila melanogaster*, body size increases with increasing latitude on  
95 multiple continents (Coyne and Beecham 1987; James et al. 1995, 1997; Karan et  
96 al. 1998). Such latitudinal patterns are mirrored by altitudinal clines where size  
97 increases with increasing altitude (Fabian et al. 2015; Lack et al. 2016). These  
98 parallel and replicated patterns suggest that patterns of size variation are adaptive

99 and directly associated with thermally mediated selection (reviewed in Stillwell 2010).  
100 However, it remains unknown why small body size is associated with high fitness at  
101 low latitudes and large size with high fitness at high latitudes. De Jong and  
102 Bochdonavits (2003) hypothesized that adaptive patterns of size variation are driven  
103 primarily by one or more components of the IIS pathway; the simple prediction is that  
104 any causative variants would also exhibit pronounced and replicated allele frequency  
105 clines. Analysis of PoolSeq data has shown that multiple IIS genes (e.g., *Pi3K*, *foxo*,  
106 *InR*) are segregating for many alleles that vary predictably with latitude in *D.*  
107 *melanogaster* (Kolaczowski et al. 2011; Fabian et al. 2012; Bergland et al. 2014;  
108 Kapun et al. 2016; Machado et al. 2018). The question is whether these clinal alleles  
109 are distinct with respect to gene function and, at least in part, underlie the observed  
110 patterns of local adaptation in size (Paaby et al. 2014).

111

112 Here, we examine the functional significance of naturally occurring allelic  
113 variation at the forkhead box-O transcription factor gene *foxo* and evaluate whether  
114 the effects of allelic variation are consistent with patterns of variation among natural  
115 populations. We use a specific *foxo* allele, previously identified in PoolSeq data as  
116 being strongly clinal in the eastern U.S. (Fabian et al. 2012), as a marker for  
117 candidate alleles of functional significance. If size in *D. melanogaster* is highly  
118 polygenic with no loci of major effect, then alleles segregating at *foxo* should be  
119 effectively and functionally equivalent in laboratory- or field-based functional assays.  
120 However, if *foxo* is a major locus for body size in this species, then effect size may  
121 be of sufficient magnitude to be detectable. If allelic variation at *foxo* substantially  
122 contributes to phenotypic variation and local adaptation, then the effects of *foxo*  
123 alleles on phenotype should also be concordant with patterns observed in natural

124 populations. Such patterns should also be trait-specific and restricted to those  
125 related to gene function.

126

127

## 128 **2. MATERIAL AND METHODS**

### 129 **2.1 Identification of SNPs/alleles that vary predictably with latitude**

130 Fabian et al. (2012) identified a series of SNPs in *foxo* that exhibited high  $F_{ST}$   
131 in pooled sequencing of natural populations derived from Florida (low latitude),  
132 Pennsylvania (mid latitude), and Maine, U.S.A. (high latitude). From this analysis, we  
133 identified a candidate *foxo* allele based on the nucleotide state at two SNPs  
134 spanning approximately 2kb. Further details are provided in Durmaz et al. (2018).

135 To further examine clinal patterns associated with the focal low- and high-  
136 latitude *foxo* haplotypes, we analyzed ten populations collected along the latitudinal  
137 gradient of the U.S. east coast and sequenced as pools (Bergland et al. 2014; Kapun  
138 et al. 2016; Machado et al. 2018). We restricted our analyses to high-confidence  
139 SNPs that were polymorphic in the *Drosophila* Genetic Reference Panel (DGRP)  
140 dataset (Mackay et al. 2012; Langley et al. 2012) and isolated a total of 1372 SNPs  
141 located inside or within 2kbp up- and downstream of the annotated *foxo* gene. To  
142 provide a null context for allele frequency differentiation, we isolated 20,000 SNPs  
143 located in short introns (<60bp) and at least 100 kbp distance from the breakpoints  
144 of common cosmopolitan inversions (Corbett-Detig et al. 2012) that are consistent  
145 with patterns of evolutionary neutrality (Parsch et al. 2010; Clemente & Vogl 2012).  
146 For each of these neutral and *foxo*-associated SNPs, we tested for significant  
147 correlations between latitude and allele frequencies using generalized linear models  
148 (GLM) with a binomial error structure of the form:  $y_i = L + \varepsilon_i$ , where  $y_i$  is the allele

149 frequency of the  $i^{\text{th}}$  SNP,  $L$  is the continuous factor “Latitude” and  $\varepsilon_i$  is the binomial  
150 error of the  $i^{\text{th}}$  SNP. We further assessed whether allele frequency changes of the  
151 two candidate SNPs that constitute our focal haplotype were more clinal than neutral  
152 SNPs or other SNPs located within or in the proximity of *foxo*. To this end, we  
153 compared the  $-\log_{10}(p)$ -values from the GLMs for each of the two focal SNPs to  
154 distributions of  $-\log_{10}(p)$ -values from GLMs of either neutral SNPs or non-candidate  
155 SNPs associated with *foxo*. We subsequently calculated empirical cumulative  
156 distribution functions (ECDF; with total area =1) based on  $-\log_{10}(p)$ -values from all  
157 neutral or non-candidate *foxo* SNPs in *R* (R Development Core Team 2009). To test  
158 if the significance values associated with the two focal SNPs were greater than the  
159 95 percentiles of each significance distribution, we integrated over the area under  
160 each ECDF with values larger than the significance of each candidate SNP (see gray  
161 areas limited by red dashed lines in Figure 1) and subtracted the integral value from  
162 1, which represents the total area of the ECDF.

163 To investigate and visualize the relative patterns of allele frequency change  
164 for the two focal SNPs with respect to all other SNPs located inside or in close  
165 proximity to *foxo*, we conditioned the alleles with lower frequencies in Florida  
166 compared to the population in Maine for each *foxo*-associated SNP. Allele  
167 frequencies in Florida were set to zero and we then calculated the allele frequency  
168 differences relative to Florida for all other populations.

169

## 170 **2.2 Constructing recombinant population cages**

171 Based on the combination of the results of Fabian et al. (2012) and the  
172 DrosRTEC (*Drosophila* Real-Time Evolution Consortium) sequencing effort  
173 (Machado et al. 2018), we identified individual lines in the DGRP (Mackay et. al

174 2012) that were homozygous for the candidate *foxo* allele that was at high frequency  
175 in high-latitude populations (hereafter, the high-latitude allele), and lines that were  
176 fixed for the *foxo* allele that was at high frequency in low-latitude samples (hereafter,  
177 the low-latitude allele). Scripts for this filtering of the DGRP based on nucleotide  
178 state and locus are provided in the raw data (Data Dryad submission XXXXX). Two  
179 biological replicate population cages, denoted as sets A and B, were established  
180 using 20 independent lines per cage per *foxo* allele; thus, each cage was  
181 constructed with a completely distinct and independent set of inbred lines. Each  
182 population cage was founded using 10 individuals of each sex, from age- and  
183 density-controlled cohorts, from each of the 20 inbred DGRP founding lines.

184 Biological replicates were further split into two experimental replicates in the  
185 first generation of founding and cultured independently thereafter. After  
186 establishment, each population cage was cultured at a population size of ~2000  
187 adults on standard cornmeal-molasses medium for 8 discrete generations of  
188 outcrossing under conditions of constant temperature (25°C) and photoperiod  
189 (12L:12D) in Percival I36VL incubators. Thus, at the end of the experimental period,  
190 we generated replicate population cages in which the focal *foxo* allele was  
191 homozygous and fixed for either the high-latitude or low-latitude allele and the  
192 genomic background was randomized across the 20 inbred lines used to found each  
193 respective cage (Paaby et al. 2014; Behrman et al. 2018). To further test for  
194 genome-wide patterns of genetic differentiation among the recombinant outbred  
195 populations (ROP) fixed for either the high or low-latitude haplotypes, we calculated  
196 SNP-wise  $F_{ST}$  based on the method of Weir and Cockerham (1984) for sets A and B  
197 separately using custom software. After the eight generations of density-  
198 standardized culture under standardized environmental conditions, we established



199 replicate density-controlled vial cultures ( $30 \pm 10$  eggs/vial) for subsequent  
200 phenotyping of the high-latitude and low-latitude *foxo* alleles.

201

### 202 **2.3 Isofemale lines from natural populations**

203 Thirty isofemale lines were randomly selected from each of six previously  
204 collected outbred populations along the east coast of the U.S. to serve as a  
205 latitudinal comparison to the recombinant *foxo* populations (described in Rajpurohit  
206 et al. 2017, 2018: Homestead, FL (HFL), Jacksonville, FL (JFL), Charlottesville, VA  
207 (CVA), Media, PA (MPA), Lancaster, MA (LMA), and Bowdoin, ME (BME)). The  
208 individual lines from each population were maintained on a standard 21d culture  
209 regime under the same environmental conditions as the *foxo* recombinant cages.  
210 Prior to phenotyping, each isofemale line was cultured for two generations at low  
211 density ( $30 \pm 10$  eggs/vial) at 25°C, 12L:12D; in the third generation, freshly eclosed  
212 flies were collected in daily cohorts and used in the phenotypic assays described  
213 below.

214

### 215 **2.4 Phenotype assays**

216 In all assays, *foxo* recombinant cages were tested simultaneously at three  
217 independent timepoints and the data partitioned into blocks. For assessment of  
218 starvation resistance, virus infection of the cages precluded running three  
219 independent blocks, and a single timepoint was included in the analysis. For the  
220 natural populations, all lines from all populations were assayed simultaneously for all  
221 phenotypes using discrete 1d cohorts for each phenotype.

222 *Starvation resistance.* For the *foxo* recombinant outbred populations, embryos  
223 were collected from each cage in two replicate glass culture bottles and density was

224 standardized at  $150 \pm 10$  eggs per bottle. Isofemale lines from the natural populations  
225 were transferred into replicate vials and density standardized at  $30 \pm 10$  embryos per  
226 vial. All culture was done under standard conditions of  $25^{\circ}\text{C}$  and a photoperiod of  
227 12L:12D. Upon eclosion, mixed sex daily cohorts were collected over 3d and  
228 subsequently aged to 5d. The flies were then separated by sex into replicate groups  
229 of 10 and placed into glass vials equipped with a small cotton ball saturated with 1  
230 mL of water. Samples were placed in an incubator at  $25^{\circ}\text{C}$ , 12L:12D and mortality  
231 was recorded at four timepoints per day (9AM, 1PM, 5PM, and 9PM) until all flies  
232 had died. The *foxo* cages were assayed in three replicates per cage population; all  
233 isofemale lines from each of the natural populations were also assayed.

234 *Development time.* For the *foxo* recombinant outbred populations, eggs were  
235 collected from each cage over a 3h window using large Petri dishes containing  
236 standard medium supplemented with live yeast. The collected eggs were then  
237 counted and distributed in groups of 30 into three replicate vials per cage. For the  
238 natural populations, embryos from all isofemale lines were similarly collected over 3h  
239 in small collection receptacles. Embryos were counted and distributed to new  
240 collection vials, with density also standardized at 30 embryos per vial. All  
241 experimental material was subsequently cultured as previously described in Percival  
242 I36VL incubators with constant and standardized humidity, temperature, and  
243 photoperiod. All experimental vials were checked four times daily (9AM, 1PM, 5PM,  
244 9PM); eclosion events and sex were recorded.

245 *Body size/morphology.* For both the *foxo* cage as well as the natural  
246 populations, flies from the development assay were transferred to new vials, allowed  
247 to mate and age for 5d post eclosion, then were preserved in 95% ethanol in  
248 eppendorf tubes for subsequent size measurements. From these preserved

249 samples, 10 flies for each sex were randomly sampled and measured from each  
250 *foxo* ROP cage and 5 flies for each sex were measured for each isofemale line from  
251 the natural populations. Body size measurements (thorax length and wing area)  
252 were recorded using a Leica MZ9.5 microscope mounted with an Olympus DP73  
253 camera with CellSens standard measuring software. Thorax length was measured  
254 as the longest length across the dorsal shield; wing area was defined as a polygon  
255 using a standardized series of veinous landmarks. The ratio of total wing area to  
256 thorax length, indicative of wing loading (Azevedo et al. 1998; Gilchrist et al. 2000),  
257 was also calculated and subsequently analyzed.

258

## 259 **2.5 Statistical analysis**

260 For the natural populations, data were analyzed separately by sex. Isofemale  
261 line was considered a random variable and all data were analyzed using a restricted  
262 maximum likelihood ANOVA with population as a fixed effect. For all other traits  
263 other than starvation tolerance, experimental block (N=3) was also included as a  
264 covariate. For the *foxo* experimental population cages, a similar nested ANOVA was  
265 run independently for both sexes in which *foxo* allele, biological replicate (set), and  
266 experimental replicate (cage) were included as predictors.

267

## 268 **3. RESULTS**

### 269 **3.1 DrosRTEC Pooled Population Genome Sequencing**

270 By analyzing extensive genome-wide Pool-Seq data from ten populations  
271 sampled along the U.S. east coast generated by the DrosRTEC consortium  
272 (Bergland et al. 2014; Kapun et al. 2016; Machado et al. 2018), we show that  
273 numerous SNPs associated with *foxo* exhibit steep latitudinal clines and extensive

274 differentiation as a function of geography (Figure 1). Notably and consistent with  
275 previous observations by Fabian et al. (2012), the two focal *foxo* candidate SNPs  
276 that are highlighted by black and red lines in Figures 1A and 1B, respectively, exhibit  
277 strong allele frequency change between the populations at lowest and highest  
278 latitudes. In fact, clinal patterns of the two candidate SNPs were more pronounced  
279 than 95% of neutrally evolving SNPs located in short introns (>95.94% for  
280 3R:9,892,517 and >98% for 3R:9,894,559, respectively; Figure 2 A, B) and 91% of  
281 all non-candidate SNPs located within or close to *foxo* (>91.22% for 3R:9,892,517  
282 and >96% for 3R:9,894,559, respectively; Figure 2 C, D).

283         In establishing the recombinant outbred populations (ROPs) using the DGRP  
284 panel of inbred lines, the goal was to use candidate SNPs as markers of functional  
285 effects for naturally occurring alleles or haplotypes at this locus (Paaby et al. 2014;  
286 Berhman et al. 2018). The utility of this method is predicated on using a sufficient  
287 number of independent inbred lines such that no other position in the genome, other  
288 than the candidate site(s), is fixed or highly differentiated between experimental sets.  
289 In Figure 3,  $F_{ST}$  between experimental cages (*foxo* allele AT vs. *foxo* allele GG) is  
290 plotted as a function of chromosomal position for all SNPs segregating in the  
291 biological replicate sets A (Figure 3A) and B (Figure 3B). While there are multiple  
292 sites on each chromosome arm with  $F_{ST} > 0.4$  between the sets of lines used to  
293 construct the alternative *foxo* allelic cages, only the candidate sites are fixed  
294 between the cages that comprise the allelic states.

295

### 296 **3.2 Clinal variation in natural populations**

297         *Body size.* In the six sampled natural populations, thorax length was highly  
298 distinct among populations (Table 1), and these patterns of differentiation exhibited a

299 positive association with latitude (Figure 4C). Wing area exhibited qualitatively  
300 identical patterns, as did the ratio of wing area to thorax length (Table 1, Figure 4D).  
301 Sexes were analyzed separately due to dimorphism and the potential for differential  
302 allometry, but exhibited highly similar patterns of size variation among populations  
303 and as a function of latitude. As expected, these results are consistent with previous  
304 associations between latitude and body size in *D. melanogaster* (Coyne and  
305 Beecham 1987; James et al. 1995; de Jong and Bochdanovits 2003).

306

307 *Starvation resistance.* As with body size, starvation tolerance was highly  
308 variable among isofemale lines within populations yet exhibited a robust association  
309 with geography for both sexes (Table 1, Figure 3A). The increase in starvation  
310 tolerance as a function of increasing latitude appears more pronounced for females  
311 than males, although patterns are qualitatively identical and no heterogeneity of  
312 slopes was detected (analysis not shown). The patterns of increasing tolerance with  
313 increasing latitude is consistent with other aspects of stress tolerance in North  
314 American populations (Schmidt and Paaby 2008), but opposite to what has been  
315 observed on the Indian subcontinent (e.g., Karan et al. 1998). Starvation tolerance  
316 does not appear to vary predictably with latitude in other assayed geographic regions  
317 (Robinson et al. 2000; Hoffmann et al. 2001).

318

319 *Development time.* In contrast to the patterns observed for size and starvation  
320 tolerance, development time did not vary predictably with latitude. For both males  
321 and females, significant variation was observed among lines and among populations  
322 but there was no association with latitudinal origin (Table 1, Figure 4B). We did,  
323 however, observe distinct patterns of development time among the replicate

324 experimental blocks, despite controlling for density and culture conditions. This  
325 suggests that the trait is affected by additional environmental variables,  
326 measurement or other experimental error, or a combination of the two. It should be  
327 noted, however, that in examination of the experimental blocks individually, no  
328 significant association between development time and latitudinal origin of the  
329 population was observed. This is in contrast to patterns of seasonal variation, which  
330 demonstrate predictable change in development time as a function of time of  
331 collection (Behrman et al. 2015). All raw data for the phenotyping of these natural  
332 collections are available (Dryad Accession: XXXXXXXX).

333

### 334 **3.3 Phenotypic differentiation between *foxo* alleles**

335 *Body size.* Thorax length and wing area were both highly distinct between the  
336 high and low-latitude *foxo* genotypes (Table 2). Significant heterogeneity was  
337 present between the replicate sets A and B, as expected based on distinct  
338 composition of founding inbred lines, as well as among experimental replicates that  
339 were cultured independently since cage initiation. Despite these two sources of cage  
340 effects, the differences between *foxo* genotypes were consistent with expectations  
341 based on geography: the genotypes homozygous for the high-latitude *foxo* allele  
342 were significantly larger than genotypes homozygous for the low-latitude allele  
343 (Figure 4). The ratio of wing area to thorax length did not show any further  
344 differentiation between genotypes, but as with the two traits independently,  
345 demonstrated significant and predictable differences between the high and low-  
346 latitude *foxo* genotypes (Figure 4H). Furthermore, the observed differences between  
347 *foxo* genotypes are strikingly similar in effect size to the trait differences observed

348 between the populations sampled from the latitudinal extremes (Figure 4 C,D vs.  
349 Figure 4 G,H).

350

351 *Starvation resistance.* Similar to the observed differences in various metrics  
352 for body size, starvation resistance was also distinct between the *foxo* genotypes  
353 and varied predictably with geography (Table 2, Figure 4). For both males and  
354 females, the genotype homozygous for the high-latitude *foxo* allele was associated  
355 with increased starvation tolerance, which may be associated with effects of the  
356 alleles on body size and lipid content (e.g., Chippindale et al. 1996). A significant  
357 amount of variance in starvation tolerance was also associated with cage effects for  
358 both sets of inbred lines and culture replicate (Table 2). The effect size associated  
359 with *foxo* genotype was approximately 10%, again similar to what was observed for  
360 associated differences in body size. However, unlike the patterns observed for size  
361 related traits, the differences between *foxo* genotypes appear to explain a small  
362 amount of the variance in this trait among natural populations across the sampled  
363 geographic range in the eastern U.S. (Figure 4A, H). These distinct patterns suggest  
364 that differences in starvation tolerance are not determined exclusively by differences  
365 in size.

366

367 *Development time.* Development time varied significantly across sets of lines  
368 and replicates; in contrast to the other traits measured, development time was not  
369 distinct between the high- and low-latitude *foxo* alleles (Table 2, Figure 4). Overall  
370 these results suggest that there is no functional significance associated with these  
371 naturally occurring *foxo* alleles with respect to development time. This is somewhat  
372 congruent with data on Australian clines, where the relationship between body size

373 and development time is inconsistent across latitude (e.g., James et al 1995, 1997).  
374 Development time was the most variable of the traits studied here, both with respect  
375 to experimental replication and variation among natural as well as reconstituted  
376 outbred populations.

377

## 378 **4. DISCUSSION**

379 In *D. melanogaster*, there is abundant evidence for local adaptation. Natural  
380 populations exhibit rapid and predictable responses to environmental parameters  
381 that vary with season, both in terms of phenotypic (Schmidt and Conde 2006;  
382 Behrman et al. 2015; Rajpurohit et al. 2017; Behrman et al. 2018a; Behrman et al.  
383 2018b; Rajpurohit et al. 2018) and allele frequency (Cogni et al. 2014; Bergland et al.  
384 2014; Behrman et al. 2018a; Machado et al. 2018) change. Similarly, many fitness-  
385 associated traits have been shown to vary predictably with latitude, often in parallel  
386 across independent gradients (e.g., Oakeshott et al. 1982; Paaby et al. 2010; Yang  
387 and Edery 2018). Latitudinal allele frequency clines at candidate loci (e.g., Schmidt  
388 et al. 2000; Betancourt et al. 2001; Sezgin et al. 2005; Paaby et al. 2010; Coggi et al.  
389 2017) are now placed in a genomic context in which tens of thousands of SNPs are  
390 known to be clinal (e.g., Kolackowski et al. 2011; Fabian et al. 2012; Bergland et al.  
391 2016; Kapun et al. 2016). While it is clear that some allele frequency clines may be  
392 generated by demography (Kao et al. 2015; Bergland et al. 2016), it is also clear that  
393 at least some of the observed clines may be generated by spatially varying selection  
394 (Schmidt et al. 2008; Svetec et al. 2016). Two of the associated, major questions  
395 are: 1) how many, or what proportion of, allele frequency clines reflect spatially  
396 varying selection and thus local adaptation; and 2) how are allele frequency and  
397 phenotypic clines integrated? Alleles exist in a genomic context, and complex traits



398 are similarly correlated as well as affected by epistasis (Mackay 2014); it is  
399 extremely unlikely that all allele and phenotypic clines are independent and reflect  
400 selection on single variants or traits. However, the effect size of individual “adaptive  
401 polymorphisms” and the architecture of local adaptation are, arguably, not well  
402 resolved. There is a paucity of detailed, mechanistic and comprehensive  
403 investigations as to the functional significance of segregating polymorphisms in  
404 natural populations. It is clearly infeasible, as well as misguided, to assess the  
405 functional impact of all polymorphisms across the genome. However, we suggest  
406 that multiple, intersecting methodologies (e.g., direct mapping, expression analyses,  
407 mutant analysis, patterns of variation in natural populations) can be used to identify a  
408 subset of variants that may be examined for functional significance. Ideally,  
409 investigation of a sufficient number of outliers could generate an empirical  
410 distribution of genic or allelic effect sizes for specific fitness-associated traits. Such  
411 investigations are essential in resolving the genetic architecture and dynamics of  
412 local adaptation.

413         The *foxo* alleles we examine here are an example of a robust candidate  
414 suitable for functional analysis. Genetic manipulations of the *foxo* gene have  
415 revealed pronounced effects on lifespan, multiple aspects of stress tolerance  
416 including starvation resistance, and growth phenotype (Jünger et al., 2003; Puig,  
417 Marr, Ruhf, & Tjian, 2003; Kramer, Davidge, Lockyer, & Staveley, 2003; Hwangbo,  
418 Gersham, Tu, Palmer, & Tatar, 2004; Giannakou et al. 2004; Kramer, Slade,  
419 Staveley, 2008; Slack, Giannakou, Foley, Goss, & Partridge, 2011). These traits vary  
420 with latitude in *D. melanogaster* (Coyne & Beecham 1987; James et al. 1995;  
421 Schmidt et al. 2005); thus, the *foxo* gene is a logical candidate for determining  
422 variation for these traits in natural populations (de Jong and Bochdonavits 2003).

423 However, the effects of natural variation have not been previously addressed. While  
424 loss of function mutants are highly pleiotropic and have pronounced effects on life  
425 history phenotypes, and the IIS/TOR pathway is in general extremely pleiotropic,  
426 polymorphisms segregating in natural populations need not affect variance for all  
427 traits related to gene function (e.g., Stern 2011).

428 Our results demonstrate that allelic variation at *foxo* affects body size and  
429 starvation tolerance. We further show that these measures of size, thorax length and  
430 wing area, as well as starvation tolerance, vary predictably with latitude in natural  
431 populations of *D. melanogaster*. Furthermore, the high-latitude *foxo* allele is  
432 associated with larger size and greater starvation resistance, whereas flies  
433 homozygous for the low-latitude *foxo* allele are smaller and less tolerant. Thus, the  
434 allelic effects also parallel patterns of variation in natural populations. This is distinct  
435 from the countergradient patterns that have been previously observed for allelic  
436 variants at the *Drosophila insulin receptor (InR)* (Paaby et al. 2014). The effect size  
437 of the *foxo* alleles is seemingly large, particularly for body size: the difference  
438 between high and low-latitude *foxo* alleles is approximately the same as the  
439 observed size difference between flies sampled from Florida and Maine. This  
440 suggests that allelic variation at *foxo* is a major contributor to variance in body size in  
441 these populations. It remains to be determined whether *foxo* is a major effect locus  
442 for size in other taxa.

443 Durmaz et al. (2018) demonstrate that these focal *foxo* variants also have  
444 significant effects on viability, fat catabolism, and FOXO activity, as indicated by  
445 differences in transcript abundance of a FOXO target (*InR*). These investigations  
446 were done after an additional four generations of recombination, and parallel  
447 differences across studies were observed for different measures of body size: wing

448 area, thorax length, the ratio of wing area:length, and femur length were all greater in  
449 the populations homozygous for the high-latitude allele than in the recombinant  
450 populations homozygous for the low-latitude allele. Differences between the high and  
451 low-latitude *foxo* variants were largely consistent across two assayed temperatures  
452 and two diets, although genotype by environment interactions were observed for  
453 both starvation tolerance and lipid metabolism (Durmaz et al. 2018). While our  
454 results for *foxo* allelic effects are consistent with those of Durmaz et al. (2018) for  
455 measures of size, patterns of starvation tolerance for the high and low-latitude alleles  
456 are opposite: in our data, populations with the high-latitude *foxo* allele were more  
457 starvation tolerant, whereas in Durmaz et al. (2018) the low-latitude allele was  
458 associated with increased tolerance. The discrepancy may be due to methodological  
459 disparity, as the two assays are distinct; our method is associated with faster  
460 mortality and may involve a greater degree of desiccation stress than the agar  
461 method. Desiccation tolerance does vary with latitude in North American populations  
462 (Rajpurohit et al. 2018), although the effects of *foxo* on desiccation tolerance are  
463 unknown. Alternatively, the one observed difference across the two studies may be  
464 associated with laboratory-specific microbiota, which is known to vary across labs  
465 and culture conditions (Staubach et al. 2012) and has pronounced effects on *D.*  
466 *melanogaster* life histories (Walters et al., in review).

467         Despite the parallels we observed between the assayed *foxo* variants and the  
468 patterns in natural populations, we cannot conclude that it is these two focal SNPs  
469 (positions) that themselves cause the observed differences in starvation tolerance  
470 and size, or directly contribute to variance for these traits in natural populations. The  
471 linkage disequilibrium present in the founding inbred lines (DGRP) would decay to  
472 some extent by the eight generations of outcrossing among founder lines, but

473 remains pronounced; thus, without further characterization these SNPs are  
474 interpreted as markers for the functionally significant allelic variation segregating at  
475 this locus. Gene editing or similar techniques, in which the focal sites are  
476 manipulated in multiple common genetic backgrounds, would be essential in directly  
477 examining causality. Such investigations are the focus of future work.

478

## 479 **5. CONCLUSION**

480 We find that the marker allele at *foxo* has predictable effects on body size and  
481 starvation tolerance; no effects of *foxo* alleles on development time were observed.

482 We also show that both starvation tolerance and body size exhibit pronounced  
483 latitudinal clines in six sampled natural populations, whereas development time  
484 exhibited no association with latitude. The assayed alleles at *foxo* explain a small  
485 amount of the variance among natural populations for starvation tolerance, but  
486 appear to be a major factor in the determination of variance in size. Our results  
487 suggest a distinct genetic architecture for correlated fitness traits, and that allelic  
488 variation at the *foxo* locus underlies, in part, patterns of local adaptation in natural  
489 populations of this genetic model.

490

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497

498 **DATA ACCESSIBILITY**

499 The raw phenotypic data are available from Dryad at: XXXXX.

500

501 **AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS**

502 P.S. and T.F. conceived the project. D.F. and M.K. identified the *foxo* SNPs and

503 performed genomic analyses. P.S., S.R., E.D. and T.F. designed the experiments.

504 N.B. and S.R. established populations and performed the experiments. P.S., N.B.,

505 E.D., M.K., S.R. and T.F. analyzed the data. N.B., T.F. and P.S. wrote the paper with

506 input from the other authors.

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515

516 **COMPETING INTERESTS**

517 The authors of this manuscript have declared no competing interests.

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523 **LITERATURE CITED**

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Table 1. Analyses of variance for the assayed phenotypic traits among natural populations.

		Starvation Tolerance						
		Females			Males			
	DF	DFDen	F	p	DF	DFDen	F	p
Population	5	116.6	11.0359	***	5	114.1	5.6347	***

		Development Time						
		Females			Males			
	DF	DFDen	F	p	DF	DFDen	F	p
Population	5	133.3	6.7468	***	5	132.1	6.4188	***
Block	2	649.8	69.6903	***	2	539.6	75.5155	***

		Wing Area						
		Females			Males			
	DF	DFDen	F	p	DF	DFDen	F	p
Population	5	136.8	14.15	***	5	136.4	11.537	***
Block	2	386.6	2.719		2	394.9	4.707	**

		Thorax Length						
		Females			Males			
	DF	DFDen	F	p	DF	DFDen	F	p
Population	5	135.4	4.712	***	5	140.9	3.2804	**
Block	2	363.6	0.0459		2	365.8	1.9564	

		Wing Area / Thorax Length						
		Females			Males			
	DF	DFDen	F	p	DF	DFDen	F	p
Population	5	135.6	13.914	***	5	137.7	11.45	***
Block	2	365.3	3.687	*	2	372.1	3.272	*

\*  $p < 0.05$   
 \*\*  $p < 0.01$   
 \*\*\*  $p < 0.0001$

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Table 2. Analyses of variation for the effects of the high and low latitude *foxo* alleles on phenotype.

Starvation									
Females					Males				
	DF	SS	F	<i>p</i>	Source	DF	SS	F	<i>p</i>
Allele	1	1128.838	8.381	**	Allele	1	1039.233	8.142	**
Set [Allele]	2	2535.857	9.414	***	Set [Allele]	2	1988.758	7.791	***
Cage [Allele, Set]	4	2492.854	4.627	**	Cage [Allele, Set]	4	1202.370	2.355	
Development Time									
Females					Males				
	DF	SS	F	<i>p</i>	Source	DF	SS	F	<i>p</i>
Allele	1	57.118	0.670		Allele	1	111.796	3.233	
Set [Allele]	2	416.404	2.443		Set [Allele]	2	307.582	4.447	*
Cage [Allele, Set]	4	2400.365	7.041	***	Cage [Allele, Set]	4	413.108	2.987	*
Wing Area									
Females					Males				
	DF	SS	F	<i>p</i>	Source	DF	SS	F	<i>p</i>
Allele	1	1.95E+11	57.7364	***	Allele	1	8.69E+10	41.351	***
Set [Allele]	2	1.12E+11	16.4958	***	Set [Allele]	2	4.30E+10	10.229	***
Cage [Allele, Set]	4	2.46E+11	18.1487	***	Cage [Allele, Set]	4	1.01E+11	11.997	***
Thorax Length									
Females					Males				
	DF	SS	F	<i>p</i>	Source	DF	SS	F	<i>p</i>
Allele	1	8185.111	8.167	**	Allele	1	5689.745	9.974	**
Set [Allele]	2	11580.028	5.777	**	Set [Allele]	2	5644.897	4.948	**
Cage [Allele, Set]	4	14914.627	3.721	**	Cage [Allele, Set]	4	9119.648	3.997	**
Wing Area / Thorax Length									
Females					Males				
	DF	SS	F	<i>p</i>	Source	DF	SS	F	<i>p</i>
Allele	1	97159.11	39.827	***	Allele	1	52392.037	34.190	***
Set [Allele]	2	38974.63	7.988	***	Set [Allele]	2	19500.916	6.363	**
Cage [Allele, Set]	4	152264.86	15.604	***	Cage [Allele, Set]	4	85498.41	13.949	***

860 \*  $p < 0.05$  \*\*  $p < 0.01$  \*\*\*  $p < 0.0001$

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## 866 **Figure legends**

867 **Figure 1.** Allele frequency changes for *foxo*-associated SNPs in 10 populations  
868 sampled along the North American east coast. Both plots show allele frequency  
869 differences conditioned to increase from south to north, with frequencies in Florida  
870 being set to zero. Panel A shows allele frequency changes for all SNPs according to  
871 their genomic position. Here, the *foxo* candidate SNPs are highlighted by two vertical  
872 black lines (solid: 3R: 9,892,517; dashed: 3R: 9,894,449; *Drosophila melanogaster*  
873 reference genome v6). Panel B shows how allele frequencies change with latitude.  
874 The two *foxo* candidate SNPs are highlighted in red (solid: 3R: 9,892,517; dashed:  
875 3R: 9,894,449).

876

877 **Figure 2.** Empirical cumulative density functions (ECDF; total area = 1) calculated  
878 from the distribution of  $-\log_{10}(p\text{-values})$  for generalized linear models that test for  
879 associations between allele frequencies and latitude in 20,000 neutrally evolving  
880 SNPs (Panels A, B) and 1,372 non-candidate SNPs located inside or within 2 kbp  
881 distance to *foxo*. The vertical dashed lines indicate the significance values of the two  
882 candidate SNPs 3R: 9,892,517 (Panels A, C) and 3R: 9,894,449 (Panels B, D). The  
883 grey areas limited by the dashed line indicate the percentiles of neutral or non-  
884 candidate *foxo* SNPs with significance values larger than the candidates.

885

886 **Figure 3.**  $F_{ST}$  Manhattan plots for the biological replicates A and B, constructed from  
887 independent sets of inbred lines from the DGRP panel. All SNPs associated with  
888 *foxo* are highlighted in red. These analyses show that only the two focal SNPs are  
889 fixed for alternative alleles in the low- and high-latitude population cages of sets A  
890 and B.

891

892 **Figure 4.** Phenotypic analysis of natural populations collected across the latitudinal  
893 gradient in the eastern U.S. (A-D) and the homozygous high- and low-latitude *foxo*  
894 genotypes (E-H). In all panels, females are depicted by filled symbols and males by  
895 open symbols. Starvation tolerance increases with increasing latitude (A); similarly,  
896 the high-latitude *foxo* allele is associated with increased starvation resistance (E).  
897 Development time does not vary predictably with latitude (B), and is also equivalent  
898 between *foxo* alleles (F). Wing area (C) and the ratio of wing area to thorax length  
899 (D) exhibit a positive latitudinal cline in the sampled populations; these patterns of  
900 size variation in the natural populations are mirrored in both magnitude and direction  
901 by the observed differences in size parameters between the low and high-latitude  
902 *foxo* alleles (G, H).

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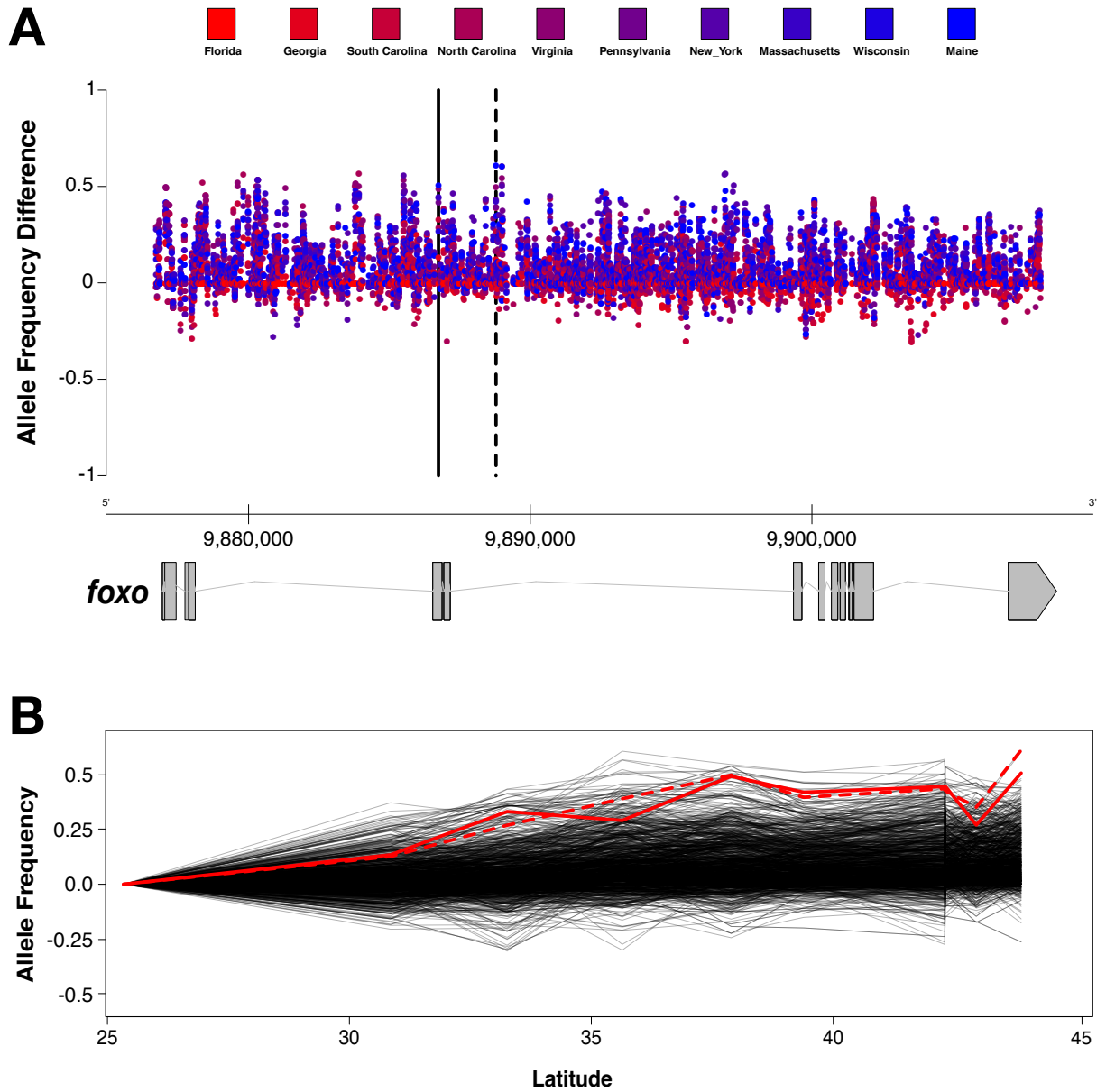
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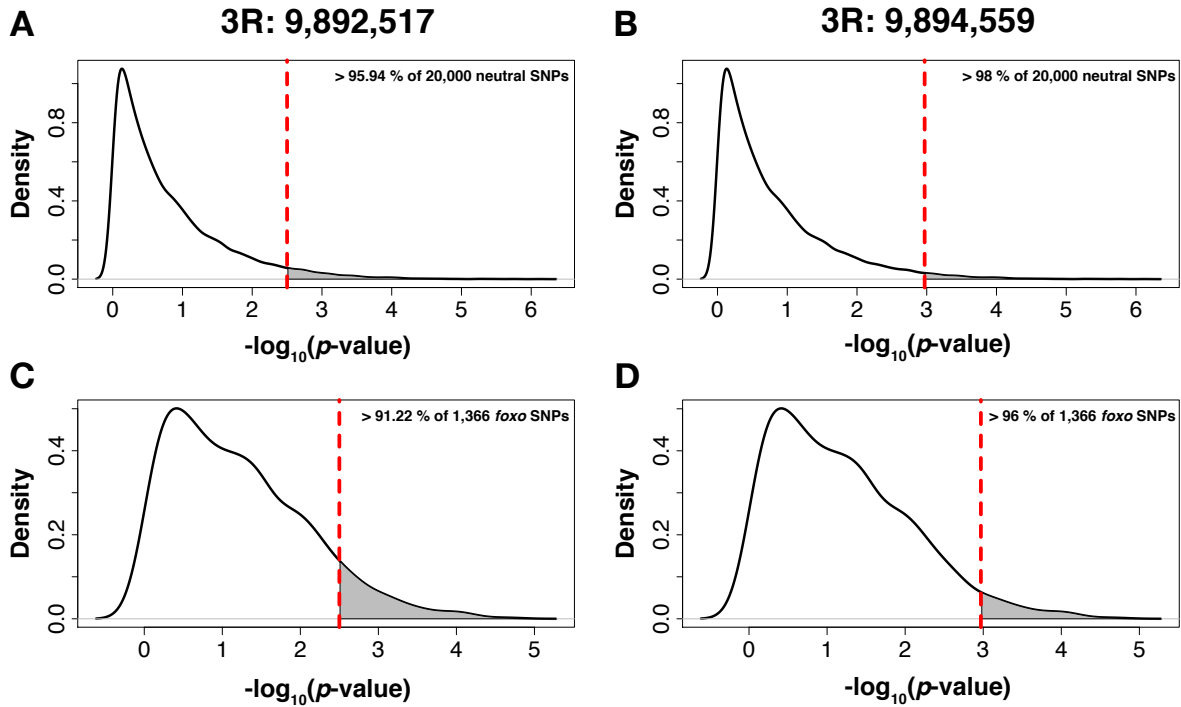
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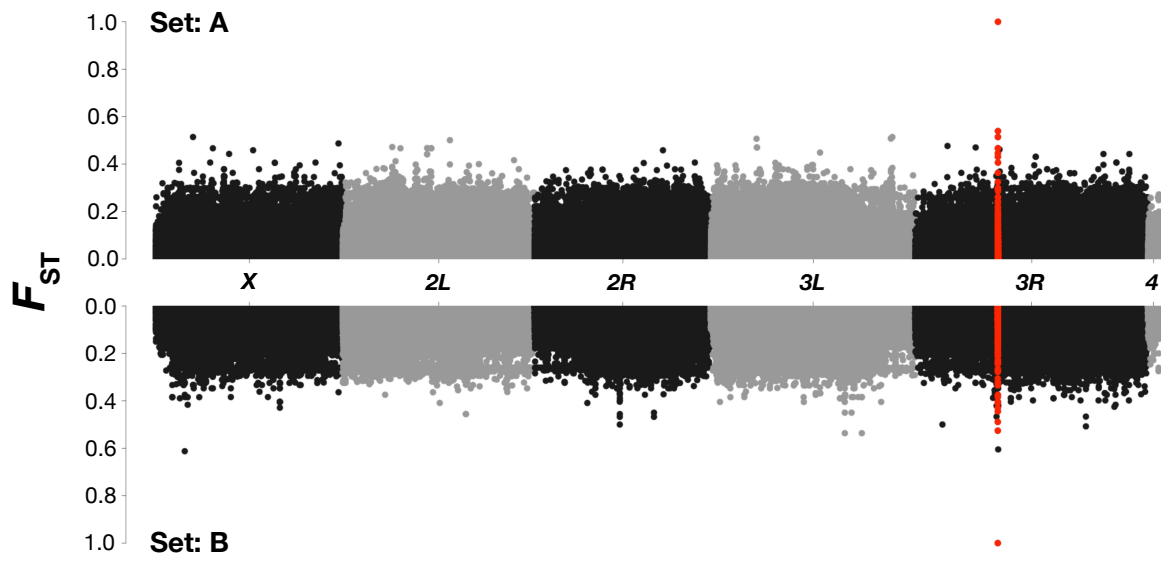
Figure 2.



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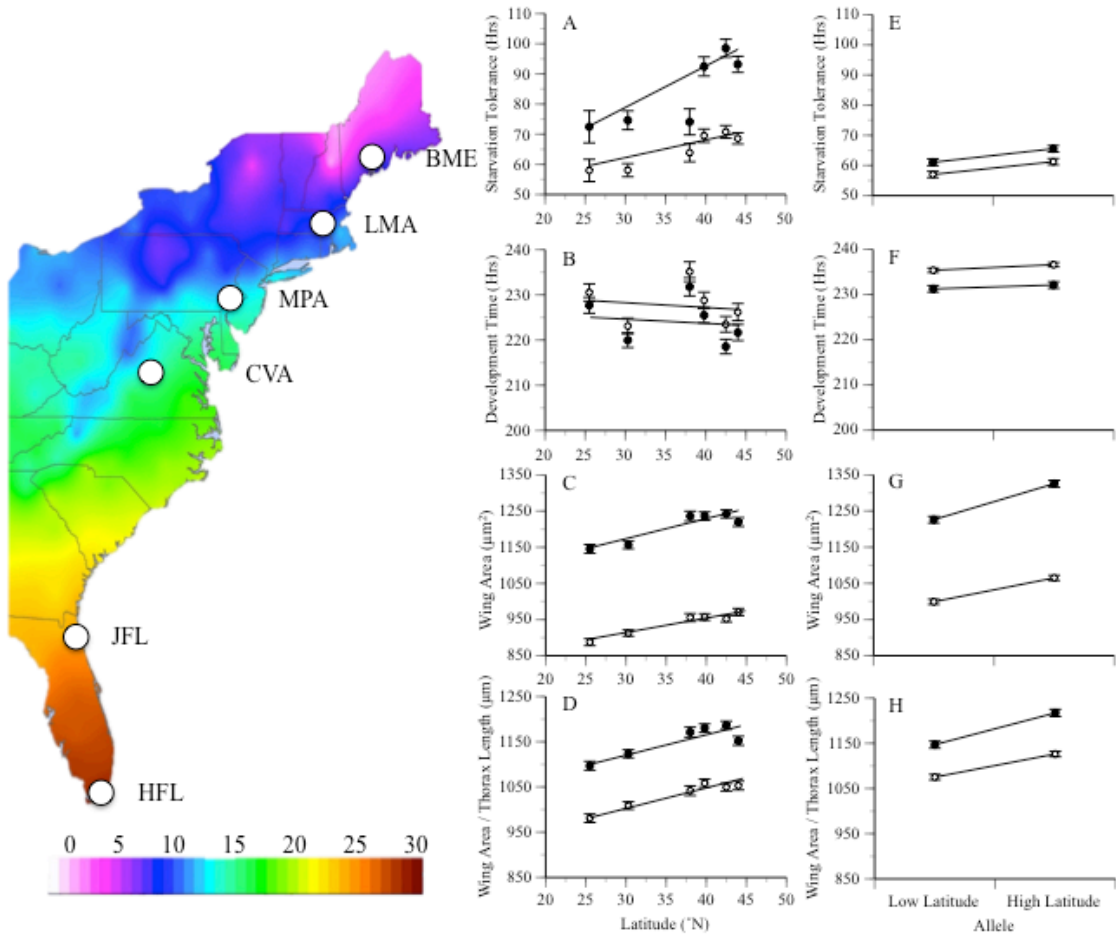
Figure 3.



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Figure 4.



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