

1 Molecular evidence to suggest the origin of a colonization:
2 *Drosophila subobscura* in America

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22 **Running head** Molecular evidence of a colonization origin

23 **Key words** *D. subobscura*; *Odh* gene; chromosomal inversion; origin of colonization;
24 gene flow; reintroduction

25 **Abstract** The recent colonization of America by *Drosophila subobscura* represents a
26 great opportunity for evolutionary biology studies. Knowledge of the populations from
27 which the colonization started would provide an understanding of how genetic
28 composition changed during adaptation to the new environment. Thus, a 793 nucleotide
29 fragment of the *Odh* (Octanol dehydrogenase) gene was sequenced in 66 chromosomal
30 lines from Barcelona (western Mediterranean) and in 66 from Mt. Parnes (Greece,
31 eastern Mediterranean). No sequence of *Odh* fragment in Barcelona or Mt. Parnes was
32 identical to any of those previously detected in America. However, an *Odh* sequence
33 from Barcelona differed in only one nucleotide from another found in American
34 populations. In both cases, the chromosomal lines presented the same inversion: O₇, and
35 the *Odh* gene was located within this inversion. This evidence suggests a possible
36 western Mediterranean origin for the colonization. Finally, the molecular and inversion
37 data indicate that the colonization was not characterized by multiple reintroductions.
38
39

40 **Introduction**

41

42 Colonizations and invasions are often an undesirable element in ecosystem integrity and
43 biodiversity, and result in substantial economic costs due to their impact on agriculture,
44 marine aquaculture and human health (Davies et al. 1999; Lee 2002; Hess et al. 2009).
45 However, they offer an excellent opportunity for evolutionary biology, as they enable
46 researchers to study, for instance, the speed and predictability of evolution in nature
47 (Lee 2002; Huey et al. 2005). A key issue in any colonization or invasion process is to
48 determine their origin, since this makes it possible to prevent re-introductions. It also
49 helps us understand the genetic variability of the source population when predicting the
50 evolutionary potential of new established populations (Davies et al. 1999; Dlugosh and
51 Parker 2008). In our opinion, colonizations or invasions can be classified into three
52 groups: those which occurred a long time ago (millions or thousands of years), such as
53 postglacial or volcanic island occupations (Taberlet et al. 1998; Hewitt 1999, 2000;
54 Capy and Gibert 2004; Liggins et al. 2008), those which took place several centuries
55 ago, probably due to journeys or other activities carried out by man (Fontdevila 1989;
56 Gouin et al. 2003; Capy and Gibert 2004; Keller 2007; Tollenaere et al. 2010) and
57 recent examples (less than 60-70 years ago), most of which are due to human global
58 activity (Davies et al. 1999; Reiland et al. 2002; Capy and Gibert 2004; Nardon et al.
59 2005; Rius et al. 2008; Hess et al. 2009). In the case of the latter group, it is more likely
60 that the origin of the process can be determined with greater precision. In this article, we
61 focus on the origin of the American colonization by *Drosophila subobscura*, which is a
62 recent event and thus belongs to the third group described.

63 The colonization of the Americas by *D. subobscura* represented an excellent
64 opportunity to analyse how different evolutionary mechanisms act in nature. This

65 invasion took place on the west coasts of both North and South America, and was
66 probably analysed -in both cases- from its earliest stages (Brncic et al. 1981;
67 Beckenbach and Prevosti 1986). For this reason, this double colonization was
68 considered a grand natural experiment with two replicates and a unique research
69 opportunity (Ayala et al. 1989). Not only were the process and mechanisms of the
70 colonization success studied in depth, but this was also a magnificent opportunity to
71 analyse the ecology (ecological preferences and competitive ability with other American
72 species of the *Drosophila* genus) and evolution of natural *D. subobscura* American
73 populations. Fundamental information on these colonization events was obtained by
74 classical genetic markers, such as chromosomal inversions, lethal genes and allozyme
75 loci (for a summary see Ayala et al. 1989; Prevosti et al. 1989; Mestres et al. 2005). The
76 magnitude of the bottlenecks produced was measured using different genetic markers
77 (chromosomal polymorphism, allozymes, lethal genes and restriction-size variation of
78 the *rp49* region and microsatellite *loci*) and it was concluded that the initial number of
79 colonizers was between 8 and 15 (Brncic et al. 1981; Prevosti et al. 1989; Mestres et al.
80 1990; Rozas and Aguadé 1991; Pascual et al. 2001). The same composition in
81 chromosomal arrangements and allozymes was detected in both colonized areas
82 (Prevosti et al. 1988; Prevosti et al. 1989; Balanyà et al. 1994) and the same
83 associations between lethal genes and chromosomal inversions were observed in North
84 and South America, leading to the conclusion that both colonizations were not
85 independent events (Mestres et al. 1992). Molecular markers such as mtDNA (Latorre et
86 al. 1986; Rozas et al. 1990) and restriction-size variation of the *rp49* region (Rozas and
87 Aguadé 1991) were in agreement with this finding. However, the population from
88 which the colonization originated remained obscure: the chromosomal polymorphism of
89 American samples resembled those generally obtained in the western Mediterranean

90 region, with the dramatic exception of the O₅ inversion (Ayala et al. 1989; Prevosti et
91 al. 1989). This inversion is relatively abundant (around 10%) in Scandinavian *D.*
92 *subobscura* populations (Sperlich 1964; Pinsker and Sperlich 1981; Mestres et al.
93 1994), but it has not been observed in the western Mediterranean (Prevosti et al. 1984;
94 Solé et al. 2002; Mestres et al. 2005) and it has been reported only in old samples from
95 the eastern Mediterranean (Krimbas 1964). However, the chromosomal composition of
96 Scandinavian populations was not compatible with those detected in American
97 populations of *D. subobscura*. The early use of molecular markers (such as mtDNA and
98 restriction-map analysis of the *rp49* region) failed to provide any new insight into the
99 origin of the colonization (Latorre et al. 1986; Rozas et al. 1990; Rozas and Agudé
100 1991). Some indirect evidence suggested a Mediterranean origin: the analyses of
101 evolution rates for quantitative traits in the American population are consistent with the
102 pattern of enhanced evolution observed in northern latitudes (Gilchrist et al. 2001).
103 Microsatellite analyses also support this hypothesis (Pascual et al. 2001), as well as
104 predicting the direction of the double colonization: from the Palearctic region to South
105 America and finally to North America (Pascual et al. 2007).

106 However, the puzzle with the O₅ inversion persisted. Although it is only
107 relatively abundant in Scandinavia, its distribution in the remaining Palearctic region is
108 erratic and presents negligible frequencies (Zivanovic and Mestres, 2000). It has not
109 been reported from the western Mediterranean area (which is a probable source of the
110 colonization), and it is seldom found in low frequencies in the eastern Mediterranean
111 region (for a revision see Krimbas 1993; Araúz et al. 2009a). It was even found
112 sporadically in Israel (Goldschmidt 1956; Malogolowkin-Cohen and Sperlich 1981). In
113 contrast, this inversion is relatively abundant in the American populations, presenting a
114 significant latitudinal cline in both American hemispheres (Prevosti et al. 1988; Balanyà

115 et al. 2003). Another peculiarity of the American O₅ inversions is their complete
116 association with a lethal gene (Mestres et al. 1990, 1992, 1995, 2005, 2009), though it
117 has proved to be heterotic in these populations (Mestres et al. 2001). In an early phase
118 of research we characterized this inversion by sequencing the *Odh* (Octanol
119 dehydrogenase) gene, which is located inside the O₅ inversion close to its proximal
120 break point (Mestres et al. 2004). This gene is also located within the chromosomal
121 inversions O₇, O₁ and O₂₂, and outside O₂ (but close to its proximal break point). The
122 American colonizing *Odh* sequences obtained (34 and 51 from North and South
123 America, respectively) confirmed the small number of colonizers, the resemblance
124 between both colonized areas, and the fact that only one O₅ inversion reached the
125 American continent (Mestres et al. 2004; Gómez-Baldó et al. 2008). Many strong
126 associations between the *Odh* haplotypes and chromosomal inversions were observed,
127 but different recombinants were also detected, indicating that the historical (due to the
128 founder event) associations were breaking. Only the adaptive associations remained
129 through the generations (Gómez-Baldó et al. 2008).

130 To date, only non-Palearctic populations have been analysed at this genetic level
131 to try to ascertain the origin of the colonization. The main aim of this study is to obtain
132 *Odh* haplotypes from two Mediterranean populations supposed to be the most probable
133 area from which the colonization started according to previous data, and to compare
134 them with those previously obtained in American populations. One of these two
135 populations is Barcelona (Spain) located in the western Mediterranean region, and the
136 other is Mt. Parnes (Greece) in the eastern part of the Mediterranean. These two
137 populations were chosen because they are well studied populations of *D. subobscura*
138 (for a revision see Krimbas 1992, 1993 and Mestres et al. 2005) and characteristic of the
139 Mediterranean areas tested in our hypotheses on the origin of the colonization. We

140 examined whether any American haplotype for this gene is present in any of these
141 Palearctic populations. We also studied the presence of associations of *Odh* haplotypes
142 with chromosomal inversions, to deduce their evolutionary consequences. The study of
143 the chromosomal inversion associations with the *Odh* gene sequences is very
144 informative, but it is a laborious task. For this reason we focused on the Barcelona and
145 Mt. Parnes populations. Finally, we examined whether repeated invasions from the
146 Palearctic region might have occurred in this colonization.

147

148 **Materials and methods**

149 Populations and chromosomal lines

150

151 The Barcelona population was collected in the foothills of the Tibidabo mountain
152 (located at the edge of Barcelona at approximately 400 m above sea level) in October
153 2004, whereas the Mt. Parnes population (about 25 km from Athens at 1100 m above
154 sea level) was sampled in May 2006 (Araúz et al. 2009a).

155 The homokaryotypic lines and lethal chromosomal lines were obtained by appropriate
156 crosses using the *chcu* (*cherry curled*), homokaryotypic strain and *Va/Ba*
157 (*Varicose/Bare*) balanced-lethal strain, as described in Mestres et al. (1990) and Araúz
158 et al. (2009a).

159 Finally, the *Odh* sequences of the chromosomal lines from Barcelona and Mt.
160 Parnes were compared with those available from America: 34 from U.S.A., samples
161 obtained in Gilroy (California, 37°33'N 121°31'W), Bellingham (Washington state,
162 48°45'N 122°29'W) and Centralia (Washington state, 46°43'N 122°58'W) populations
163 and 51 from Chile, samples collected in Santiago de Chile (33°30'S 70°40'W) and
164 Puerto Montt (41°28'S 73°00'W) populations (Mestres et al. 2004; Gómez-Baldó et al.

165 2008). The experimental procedure for obtaining these American chromosomal lines
166 and their *Odh* sequences was the same as that described below in the present manuscript
167 (for more details see Mestres et al. 2004; Gómez-Baldó et al. 2008).

168

169 DNA extraction, PCR amplification and sequencing

170

171 Total DNA was isolated from a single fly using the protocol of Pascual et al. (1997). To
172 amplify the *Odh* gene, the primers ODH-F and CD4 were used (described in Mestres et
173 al. 2004). PCR conditions were: 94°C for 5 min; 35 cycles of 94°C for 1min, 55°C for 1
174 min, 72°C for 1 min; with a final extension of 4 min at 72°C. The QIAquick PCR

175 Purification Kit (QIAGEN) was used to purify this PCR product, while direct

176 sequencing was carried out using the following primers: ODH-F, ODHseq-R, C2 and

177 CD6 (Mestres et al. 2004). Cycling conditions were: 96°C for 1 min; 25 cycles of 96°C

178 for 10 s, 55°C (45°C for ODH-F primer) for 5 s, 60°C for 4 min; and a final extension of

179 1 min at 4°C. *Odh* genes were sequenced using an ABI PRISM™ 3700 DNA Analyser

180 in the “Unitat de Genòmica, Serveis Científicotècnics” of the Universitat de Barcelona.

181

182 Sequences alignment and analysis

183

184 Sequence alignments were carried out with SeqMan™II v. 4.03 (DNA Star Inc. 1999)

185 and BioEdit v. 4.8.6 (Hall 1999). DnaSP v. 4 was used to analyse DNA polymorphism

186 (Rozas et al. 2003). With this software, h (haplotype diversity), π (nucleotide diversity),

187 θ (expected average number of nucleotide differences) and k (average number of

188 nucleotide differences) were estimated. Finally, gene trees were reconstructed using the

189 maximum likelihood composite method of the MEGA 5.02 Software (Tamura et al.

190 2011), applying the Tamura-Nei model, with gamma parameter and 500 bootstrap
191 replicates.

192

193 **Results**

194

195 Nucleotide variation

196

197 A total of 132 sequences from a 793-nucleotide fragment of the *Odh* gene (containing
198 intron 2, exon 3, intron 3 and part of exon 2 and exon 4) were obtained; 66 of them were
199 from Barcelona (54 from homokaryotypic lines and 12 from lethal chromosomal lines),
200 and 66 from Mt. Parnes (41 from homokaryotypic lines and 25 from lethal

201 chromosomal lines). The descriptions of all chromosomal lines sequenced, including

202 their GenBank/EMBL accession numbers, are shown in the Supplementary Table 1.

203 Despite the existence of two introns, no indels (insertions or deletions) were found in

204 any sequence. The estimates of parameters that describe the nucleotide polymorphism

205 of the *Odh* gene in Barcelona and Mt. Parnes populations are summarized in Table 1. In

206 this table, the same parameters are also presented for the North and South American

207 populations. In total, we have observed 48 nucleotide polymorphic sites in Barcelona

208 and 45 in Mt. Parnes, but 23 are different in the two populations (most of them being

209 singletons). As expected, the number of polymorphic sites in both populations is

210 significantly higher in introns than in exons ($\chi^2 = 15.64$, d.f. = 1, $P = 0.0001$, with Yates

211 correction and $\chi^2 = 7.20$, d.f. = 1, $P = 0.0073$, with Yates correction, for Barcelona and

212 Mt. Parnes, respectively). For the coding region according to a test based on the

213 binomial distribution (Mestres et al. 2001; Gómez-Baldó et al. 2008), the number of

214 nucleotide changes in third codon positions was significantly higher than in the other

215 positions (for both populations $k \geq 16$, $P = 0.000$). It is interesting to compare the
216 polymorphic sites observed with those from American samples (Mestres et al. 2004;
217 Gómez-Baldó et al. 2008): several sites were found in the American populations but not
218 in the Mediterranean populations (Table 2). It could probably mean that there is a lot of
219 variability at the level of these sites. However, in the studied populations several sites
220 have been detected only once.

221

222 Nucleotide sequences and chromosomal arrangements

223

224 Considering all sequences together most haplotypes appear only once (116), with some
225 sequences being shared between different chromosomal lines from the same population
226 or even between Barcelona and Mt. Parnes (Table 3). There is one haplotype associated
227 with the $O_{\underline{3+4+1}}$ arrangement, both in Barcelona and Mt. Parnes. However, this
228 association is incomplete as other chromosomal lines $O_{\underline{3+4+1}}$ presented different
229 haplotypes. In Barcelona and Mt. Parnes, no other associations between *Odh* haplotypes
230 and chromosomal arrangements were detected. Most importantly, no haplotypes found
231 in American colonizing populations were observed in both Mediterranean populations
232 analysed. However, the haplotype of the chromosomal line BC43 (from Barcelona) is
233 almost identical to that found in American chromosomal lines S49, PM110 and PM57
234 (Mestres et al. 2004; Gómez-Baldó et al. 2008). All these American chromosomal lines
235 come from Chile (S49 from Santiago de Chile; PM110 and PM57 from Puerto Montt).
236 There is only one change in nucleotide 254, a third position in exon 3. Chromosomal
237 line BC43 has a C in this position, while S49, PM110 and PM57 have a T. In both
238 cases, the amino acid coded is the same: glycine. It is worth pointing out that BC43, S49
239 and PM110 lines present the same chromosomal arrangement ($O_{\underline{3+4+7}}$), while PM57 has

240 a derivate of it, O_7 , the product of an infrequent recombination event between O_{3+4+7}
241 and O_{ST} chromosomes (Gómez-Baldó et al. 2008; Mestres et al. 2009). Another attempt
242 to analyse the similarity in sequences and associations between haplotypes and
243 chromosomal arrangements was carried out by creating gene trees. These trees for
244 Barcelona and Mt. Parnes are presented in Fig. 1 and Fig. 2 of Supplementary material,
245 respectively. In both cases, no clusters are detected and all sequences are mixed.
246 Furthermore, main nodes are poorly supported, because very low bootstrap values are
247 obtained. Additional gene trees, for instance using the sequences of both Palearctic
248 populations together or those from Mt. Parnes and America, do not provide any
249 valuable information (data not shown). The only exception is a joint analysis of the
250 Barcelona and American sequences (Fig. 1), where the cluster of BC43, S49, PM110
251 and PM57 sequences can be observed, which is supported by a valid bootstrap value
252 (85%). They cluster because BC43 differs in only one nucleotide with regard to S49,
253 PM110 and PM57 sequences.

254 Also interesting is the number of different *Odh* haplotypes observed in
255 Barcelona and Mt. Parnes: 59 out of 66 sequenced chromosomal lines and 62 out of 66,
256 respectively. It seems that both populations could present a large effective population
257 size (N_e). As shown by Wright (Wright et al. 1942), the allelism of lethal genes is high
258 when N_e is small, so most lethal genes in the population are identical by descendant. On
259 the contrary, the allelism of lethal genes is low when N_e is large. In this population, few
260 lethal genes are identical by descendant, and thus the allelic cases are scarce. A similar
261 concept can be applied to the nucleotide sequences: the “allelism of sequences”, that is,
262 determining how many are identical in all possible comparisons between two nucleotide
263 sequences from the same populations. We would expect low values in populations with
264 high N_e and *vice versa*. For the *Odh* gene, the estimated values of “allelism of

265 sequences” for Barcelona and Mt.Parnes were 0.0037 ± 0.0013 and 0.0019 ± 0.0009 ,
266 respectively. However, these values are lower than those computed using the data of
267 Gómez-Baldó et al. (2008) from Chilean populations: 0.1176 ± 0.0260 and
268 0.1905 ± 0.0202 for Santiago de Chile and Puerto Montt, respectively. The low values
269 from Chilean populations of *D. suboscuro* are most probably due to the founder effect
270 (Ayala et al. 1989; Prevosti et al. 1989; Mestres et al. 2005).

271

272 Amino acid sequences

273

274 Non-coding regions were studied, but without providing any valuable information.

275 However, the amino acid sequences derived from the nucleotide sequences gave us new
276 insights into the connections between Barcelona, Mt. Parnes and American populations.

277 The positions where amino acid changes were observed are presented in Table 4.

278 Changes were detected in four, seven and five positions in Barcelona, Mt. Parnes and
279 American populations, respectively. It is worth noting that amino acid positions 50 and

280 88 are exclusive to America, and that position number 7 is shared between America and
281 Mt. Parnes. When analyzing Barcelona, Mt. Parnes and American populations, these

282 amino acid changes define 16 different haplotypes (Supplementary Table 2). Their

283 relative abundance (in percentage terms) is summarized in Supplementary Table 3. The

284 distribution of haplotypes is similar in both European populations, with haplotype 6

285 being very abundant (61.29% and 57.14% in Barcelona and Mt. Parnes, respectively),

286 haplotype 1 presenting relatively high frequency (32.26% and 33.33% in Barcelona and

287 Mt. Parnes, respectively) and different haplotypes with very low frequencies. In

288 American populations, haplotype 1 is the most abundant (62.07%), haplotypes 2

289 (10.34%) and 3 (20.69%) are relatively frequent and haplotypes 4 and 5 are relatively
290 infrequent.

291

292 **Discussion**

293

294 The origin of the colonization

295

296 Knowledge of the origin of a colonization (or invasion) would help evolutionary
297 biologists to understand the amount of genetic variability reduction in the newly-
298 established populations in comparison to the population from which the colonization
299 started. This information could grant us a general overview of the quantity and kind of
300 genetic variability needed to succeed in the colonization of a particular environment
301 (Lee 2002; Dlugosh and Parker 2008). Unfortunately, it is difficult to track with any
302 precision the origin of a colonization that took place in the distant past. However, recent
303 colonizing events provide more accurate information (genetic markers have still
304 accumulated few changes), which would tend to help us to ascertain the population or
305 specific geographical region of origin. The *Drosophila subobscura* colonization of the
306 American continent is generally considered to have taken place in the late 1970s (for a
307 review see Ayala et al. 1989; Prevosti et al. 1989; Huey et al. 2005; Mestres et al.
308 2005). Ascertaining the origin of New World populations was a priority from the
309 earliest studies (Brncic et al. 1981). Different genetic markers provided different levels
310 of information: chromosomal inversion polymorphism indicated a western
311 Mediterranean origin, but the presence of the O₅ inversion in American populations was
312 difficult to explain (Brncic et al. 1981; Ayala et al. 1989; Prevosti et al. 1989). The O₅
313 inversion is found with a frequency of around a 10% in Scandinavia (for a revision see
314 Krimbas 1993), but the origin of the colonization cannot be from Northern Europe due

315 to the chromosomal composition of American samples. Several chromosomal
316 arrangements found in the American continent have never been detected in this
317 European region (Prevosti et al. 1989; Mestres et al. 1990; Zivanovic and Mestres 2000)
318 The *D. subobscura* mtDNA haplotypes and microsatellites were not conclusive, but
319 they were compatible with a western Mediterranean origin (Latorre et al. 1986; Pascual
320 et al. 2001). Joint analysis of *Odh* sequences and chromosomal inversions gives new
321 insight into the origin of this colonization. While none of the Palearctic *Odh* sequences
322 from Barcelona or Mt. Parnes has been found in America, one sequence from Barcelona
323 (BC43) was almost identical to one found in the New World, differing only in one
324 nucleotide (American chromosomal lines S49, PM110 and PM57). And most
325 importantly, both sequences were located inside the same inversion, the O₇. This
326 evidence strongly supports a possible origin from the western Mediterranean region.
327 However, this hypothesis has a drawback: the O₅ inversion has not been reported in the
328 Iberian Peninsula, despite the fact that chromosomal inversion polymorphism has been
329 studied extensively (for a review see Krimbas 1993; Mestres et al. 2005). In all
330 probability, the O₅ inversion is adaptive to cold conditions, as in the Palearctic region it
331 is found mainly in Scandinavia (Krimbas 1993; Ruiz-Martin 2006), and in the New
332 World it presents significant latitudinal clines in North and South America (Prevosti et
333 al. 1985, 1988, 1990) which persisted over time (Balanyà et al. 2003), despite being
334 completely associated with a particular lethal gene (Mestres et al. 2001). As molecular
335 data show, this inversion probably appeared recently (Araúz et al. 2009b). Although it is
336 adapted to cold conditions, it may well have spread from Scandinavia to other warmer
337 Palearctic regions by gene flow, and would then be eliminated by selection or genetic
338 drift if this inversion reaches these warmer areas. Thus, with the exception of
339 Scandinavia, its distribution is erratic in the Old World and presents negligible

340 frequency (for a revision see Zivanovic and Mestres, 2000). Hence, one possible
341 explanation is that at a certain moment, it could have reached the western Mediterranean
342 population from which the colonization originated and be included in the sample of
343 colonizers. It is true that this inversion was found in Greece a long time ago (Krimbas
344 1964, 1967; Krimbas and Alevizos, 1973), but since 1975 (just before the probable
345 beginning of the American colonization) it has not been reported again (Loukas et al.
346 1979, 1980, 1981; Araúz et al. 2009a). Furthermore, the inversion composition of the
347 Greek populations, though possible, makes it unlikely that any of them originated the
348 colonizing process. For instance, Mt. Parnes population (and other Greek populations)
349 presented a non-negligible frequency of O_{3+4+1} (between 14.66% and 28.00%) and
350 O_{3+4+22} (between 2.38% and 11.47%) chromosomal arrangements (Krimbas 1967;
351 Araúz et al. 2009a), but neither has been found in American *D. susboscura* populations
352 (Prevosti et al. 1985, 1988, 1989, 1990; Balanyà et al. 2003). Furthermore, different
353 O_{3+4+7} arrangements reached the American continent (Mestres et al. 1990, 1995, 2004;
354 Gómez-Baldó et al. 2008), whereas its frequency is very low in Mt. Parnes and other
355 Greek populations, with values ranging from 0% to 6.65% (Krimbas 1967; Araúz et al.
356 2009a). For these reasons an origin in an eastern Mediterranean population seems
357 unlikely. Thus, the most probable explanation is that the colonization originated from a
358 western Mediterranean population which fortuitously presented the sporadic O_5
359 inversion (due to gene flow) and, by chance, it was included in the sample of colonizers.
360 However, more analyses of chromosomal polymorphism and *Odh* sequences will be
361 needed to pinpoint more accurately the particular area from which the colonization
362 started.

363 Repeated invasions that superimpose onto one another have been described in
364 some species (Davies et al. 1999; Ellstrand and Schierenbeck 2000; Bossdorf et al.

365 2005; Frankham 2005; Krafsur et al. 2005; Novak and Mack 2005; Dlugosh and Parker
366 2008). In the case of the American colonization by *D. subobscura*, chromosomal
367 inversion data accumulated from the beginning of the colonization indicate that the
368 colonization was a unique event, since new genetic variability at this level has not been
369 found since the earlier studies (Prevosti et al. 1988, 1989; Ayala et al. 1989; Balanyà et
370 al. 2003). With regard to the *Odh* nucleotide and amino acid sequence, their variability
371 in Barcelona and Mt. Parnes compared with that of American populations indicates that
372 the founder event was considerable (Mestres et al. 2004; Gómez-Baldó et al. 2008).
373 Repeated invasions would produce an increment of new *Odh* sequences in the American
374 continent. However, no new *Odh* sequences have been reported in the American
375 continent, with the exception of those that appeared there through recombination
376 (Gómez-Baldó et al. 2008). In the future, more studies will be needed to ascertain if new
377 genetic variability is introduced in America from Palearctic populations.

378

379 Nucleotide polymorphism in the Mediterranean populations

380

381 The nucleotide polymorphism for the *Odh* gene presents very similar values in
382 Barcelona and Mt. Parnes populations and slightly lower values of this polymorphism
383 were observed for the *Odh* gene in American populations of *D. subobscura*, a
384 consequence of the founder event (Mestres et al. 2004; Gómez-Baldó et al. 2007). In
385 general, the values π (nucleotide diversity) and θ (expected average number of
386 nucleotide differences) are equivalent to those found in the Palearctic region when other
387 nuclear genes of *D. subobscura* were studied (Rozas and Aguadé, 1990; Rozas et al.
388 1995, 1999; Cirera and Aguadé, 1998; Navarro-Sabaté et al. 1999; Llopart and Aguadé,

389 2000; Munté et al. 2005). In these studies, the π estimates range between 0.004 and
390 0.012, and those for θ between 0.010 and 0.021.

391 Barcelona and Mt. Parnes populations appear to have a large effective
392 population size (N_e) due to the high number of different *Odh* haplotypes observed and
393 the low values obtained in the “allelism of sequences”. N_e was estimated using the lethal
394 genes allelism, and the values ranged between 6,964–13,004 for Barcelona and
395 11,874–26,828 for Mt. Parnes (Araúz et al. 2009a), confirming the large effective
396 population size of both populations. However, although Barcelona and Mt. Parnes are
397 large populations with a high number of different *Odh* haplotypes, a high gene flow was
398 observed at this molecular level. Indeed, different haplotypes are shared by both
399 populations and in one case they even presented the same chromosomal arrangement,
400 $O_{\underline{3+4+1}}$ (Table 3). The gene flow between distant Palearctic populations has been
401 observed using different genetic markers, such as mtDNA (Latorre et al. 1992),
402 microsatellites (Pascual et al. 2001) and lethal genes (Zivanovic et al. 2007). Finally,
403 most haplotypes were not associated with inversions and only one seems to be partially
404 associated with the $O_{\underline{3+4+1}}$ arrangement. This observation is in clear contrast with the
405 associations between *Odh* haplotypes and chromosomal arrangements in North and
406 South America, a product of the colonization (Mestres et al. 2004; Gómez-Baldó et al.
407 2008).

408

409 In summary, the American colonization by *D. subobscura* was a unique event
410 and the colonizers most probably came from the western Mediterranean region. Our
411 results are in agreement with some previous indirect evidence (Ayala et al. 1989;
412 Prevosti et al. 1989). Secondary colonizations explain the expansion of the species from
413 the west coast of South America to the west coast of North America and the eastern

414 coast of Argentina (Pascual et al. 2007; Fernández-Iriarte et al. 2009). Although the
415 initial sample of colonizers was small, it contained the genetic variability needed to
416 achieve the colonization success. As proposed in Lee (2002), the initial sample of
417 colonizers was influenced by the genetic architecture of the original Palearctic
418 population, and natural selection operated rapidly on this genetic basis to allow
419 adaptation to the new environments. Finally, it is worth pointing out that molecular
420 markers in association with chromosomal inversions are useful tools to locate the origin
421 of recent colonizations and invasions. Thus, it may be possible to study the evolutionary
422 potential of the new established populations and the possibility of reintroductions.

423

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430

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710 **FIGURE CAPTION:**

711

712

713 **Fig. 1** Gene tree obtained using the *Odh* nucleotide sequences from Barcelona and
714 America. Only bootstrap values over 70 are presented. The cluster of BC43, S49,
715 PM110 and PM57 sequences is marked with a square. Abbreviations for Barcelona
716 population are as follows: BC and FBC stand for chromosomal lines obtained from a
717 wild male and from an individual son of a wild female offspring from Barcelona,
718 respectively. Abbreviations from American populations are as follows: BF and BM
719 (Bellingham, Washington state USA); C (Centralia, Washington state, USA); G, GM,
720 FGF (Gilroy, California, USA); S and SC (Santiago de Chile, Chile); PM (Puerto
721 Montt, Chile). The arrangement of each chromosomal line sequenced is also presented
722 after its abbreviation.

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