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

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Abstract The recent colonization of America by *Dro*sophila subobscura represents a great opportunity for evolutionary biology studies. Knowledge of the populations from which the colonization started would provide an understanding of how genetic composition changed during adaptation to the new environment. Thus, a 793 nucleotide fragment of the Odh (Octanol dehydrogenase) gene was sequenced in 66 chromosomal lines from Barcelona (western Mediterranean) and in 66 from Mt. Parnes (Greece, eastern Mediterranean). No sequence of Odh fragment in Barcelona or Mt. Parnes was identical to any of those previously detected in America. However, an Odh sequence from Barcelona differed in only one nucleotide from another found in American populations. In both cases, the chromosomal lines presented the same inversion: O_7 , and the Odh gene was located within this inversion. This evidence suggests a possible western Mediterranean origin for the colonization. Finally, the molecular and inversion

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A. Latorre Institut Cavanilles de Biodiversitat i Biologia Evolutiva, Universitat de València, Valencia, Spain data indicate that the colonization was not characterized by multiple reintroductions.

Keywords *D. subobscura* \cdot *Odh* gene \cdot Chromosomal inversion \cdot Origin of colonization \cdot Gene flow \cdot Reintroduction

Introduction

Colonizations and invasions are often an undesirable element in ecosystem integrity and biodiversity, and result in substantial economic costs due to their impact on agriculture, marine aquaculture and human health (Davies et al. 1999; Lee 2002; Hess et al. 2009). However, they offer an excellent opportunity for evolutionary biology, as they enable researchers to study, for instance, the speed and predictability of evolution in nature (Lee 2002; Huey et al. 2005). A key issue in any colonization or invasion process is to determine their origin, since this makes it possible to prevent re-introductions. It also helps us understand the genetic variability of the source population when predicting the evolutionary potential of new established populations (Davies et al. 1999; Dlugosh and Parker 2008). In our opinion, colonizations or invasions can be classified into three groups: those which occurred a long time ago (millions or thousands of years), such as postglacial or volcanic island occupations (Taberlet et al. 1998; Hewitt 1999, 2000; Capy and Gibert 2004; Liggins et al. 2008), those which took place several centuries ago, probably due to journeys or other activities carried out by man (Fontdevila 1989; Gouin et al. 2003; Capy and Gibert 2004; Keller 2007; Tollenaere et al. 2010) and recent examples (less than 60-70 years ago), most of which are due to human global activity (Davies et al. 1999; Reiland et al. 2002;



Capy and Gibert 2004; Nardon et al. 2005; Rius et al. 2008; Hess et al. 2009). In the case of the latter group, it is more likely that the origin of the process can be determined with greater precision. In this article, we focus on the origin of the American colonization by *Drosophila subobscura*, which is a recent event and thus belongs to the third group described.

The colonization of the Americas by D. subobscura represented an excellent opportunity to analyse how different evolutionary mechanisms act in nature. This invasion took place on the west coasts of both North and South America, and was probably analysed -in both cases- from its earliest stages (Brncic et al. 1981; Beckenbach and Prevosti 1986). For this reason, this double colonization was considered a grand natural experiment with two replicates and a unique research opportunity (Ayala et al. 1989). Not only were the process and mechanisms of the colonization success studied in depth, but this was also a magnificent opportunity to analyse the ecology (ecological preferences and competitive ability with other American species of the *Drosophila* genus) and evolution of natural D. subobscura American populations. Fundamental information on these colonization events was obtained by classical genetic markers, such as chromosomal inversions, lethal genes and allozyme loci (for a summary see Ayala et al. 1989; Prevosti et al. 1989; Mestres et al. 2005). The magnitude of the bottlenecks produced was measured using different genetic markers (chromosomal polymorphism, allozymes, lethal genes and restriction-size variation of the rp49 region and microsatellite loci) and it was concluded that the initial number of colonizers was between 8 and 15 (Brncic et al. 1981; Prevosti et al. 1989; Mestres et al. 1990; Rozas and Aguadé 1991; Pascual et al. 2001). The same composition in chromosomal arrangements and allozymes was detected in both colonized areas (Prevosti et al. 1988, 1989; Balanyà et al. 1994) and the same associations between lethal genes and chromosomal inversions were observed in North and South America, leading to the conclusion that both colonizations were not independent events (Mestres et al. 1992). Molecular markers such as mtDNA (Latorre et al. 1986; Rozas et al. 1990) and restriction-size variation of the rp49 region (Rozas and Aguadé 1991) were in agreement with this finding. However, the population from which the colonization originated remained obscure: the chromosomal polymorphism of American samples resembled those generally obtained in the western Mediterranean region, with the dramatic exception of the O₅ inversion (Ayala et al. 1989; Prevosti et al. 1989). This inversion is relatively abundant (around 10 %) in Scandinavian D. subobscura populations (Sperlich 1964; Pinsker and Sperlich 1981; Mestres et al. 1994), but it has not been observed in the western Mediterranean (Prevosti et al. 1984; Solé et al.

2002: Mestres et al. 2005) and it has been reported only in old samples from the eastern Mediterranean (Krimbas 1964). However, the chromosomal composition of Scandinavian populations was not compatible with those detected in American populations of D. subobscura. The early use of molecular markers (such as mtDNA and restriction-map analysis of the rp49 region) failed to provide any new insight into the origin of the colonization (Latorre et al. 1986; Rozas et al. 1990; Rozas and Aguadé 1991). Some indirect evidence suggested a Mediterranean origin: the analyses of evolution rates for quantitative traits in the American population are consistent with the pattern of enhanced evolution observed in northern latitudes (Gilchrist et al. 2001). Microsatellite analyses also support this hypothesis (Pascual et al. 2001), as well as predicting the direction of the double colonization: from the Palearctic region to South America and finally to North America (Pascual et al. 2007).

However, the puzzle with the O_5 inversion persisted. Although it is only relatively abundant in Scandinavia, its distribution in the remaining Palearctic region is erratic and presents negligible frequencies (Zivanovic and Mestres 2000). It has not been reported from the western Mediterranean area (which is a probable source of the colonization), and it is seldom found in low frequencies in the eastern Mediterranean region (for a revision see Krimbas 1993; Araúz et al. 2009a). It was even found sporadically in Israel (Goldschmidt 1956; Malogolowkin-Cohen and Sperlich 1981). In contrast, this inversion is relatively abundant in the American populations, presenting a significant latitudinal cline in both American hemispheres (Prevosti et al. 1988; Balanyà et al. 2003). Another peculiarity of the American O₅ inversions is their complete association with a lethal gene (Mestres et al. 1990, 1992, 1995, 2005, 2009), though it has proved to be heterotic in these populations (Mestres et al. 2001). In an early phase of research we characterized this inversion by sequencing the Odh (Octanol dehydrogenase) gene, which is located inside the O₅ inversion close to its proximal break point (Mestres et al. 2004). This gene is also located within the chromosomal inversions O₇, O₁ and O₂₂, and outside O₂ (but close to its proximal break point). The American colonizing Odh sequences obtained (34 and 51 from North and South America, respectively) confirmed the small number of colonizers, the resemblance between both colonized areas, and the fact that only one O₅ inversion reached the American continent (Mestres et al. 2004; Gómez-Baldó et al. 2008). Many strong associations between the Odh haplotypes and chromosomal inversions were observed, but different recombinants were also detected, indicating that the historical (due to the founder event) associations were breaking. Only the adaptive associations remained through the generations (Gómez-Baldó et al. 2008).



To date, only non-Palearctic populations have been analysed at this genetic level to try to ascertain the origin of the colonization. The main aim of this study is to obtain Odh haplotypes from two Mediterranean populations supposed to be the most probable area from which the colonization started according to previous data, and to compare them with those previously obtained in American populations. One of these two populations is Barcelona (Spain) located in the western Mediterranean region, and the other is Mt. Parnes (Greece) in the eastern part of the Mediterranean. These two populations were chosen because they are well studied populations of D. subobscura (for a revision see Krimbas 1992, 1993 and Mestres et al. 2005) and characteristic of the Mediterranean areas tested in our hypotheses on the origin of the colonization. We examined whether any American haplotype for this gene is present in any of these Palearctic populations. We also studied the presence of associations of Odh haplotypes with chromosomal inversions, to deduce their evolutionary consequences. The study of the chromosomal inversion associations with the Odh gene sequences is very informative, but it is a laborious task. For this reason we focused on the Barcelona and Mt. Parnes populations. Finally, we examined whether repeated invasions from the Palearctic region might have occurred in this colonization.

Materials and methods

Populations and chromosomal lines

The Barcelona population was collected in the foothills of the Tibidabo mountain (located at the edge of Barcelona at approximately 400 m above sea level) in October 2004, whereas the Mt. Parnes population (about 25 km from Athens at 1,100 m above sea level) was sampled in May 2006 (Araúz et al. 2009a).

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

Finally, the *Odh* sequences of the chromosomal lines from Barcelona and Mt. Parnes were compared with those available from America: 34 from USA, samples obtained in Gilroy (California, 37°33′N 121°31′W), Bellingham (Washington state, 48°45′N 122°29′W) and Centralia (Washington state, 46°43′N 122°58′W) populations and 51 from Chile, samples collected in Santiago de Chile (33°30′S 70°40′W) and Puerto Montt (41°28′S 73°00′W) populations (Mestres et al. 2004; Gómez-Baldó et al. 2008). The experimental procedure for obtaining these American chromosomal lines and their *Odh* sequences was

the same as that described below in the present manuscript (for more details see Mestres et al. 2004; Gómez-Baldó et al. 2008).

DNA extraction, PCR amplification and sequencing

Total DNA was isolated from a single fly using the protocol of Pascual et al. (1997). To amplify the *Odh* gene, the primers ODH-F and CD4 were used (described in Mestres et al. 2004). PCR conditions were: 94 °C for 5 min; 35 cycles of 94 °C for 1 min, 55 °C for 1 min, 72 °C for 1 min; with a final extension of 4 min at 72 °C. The QIAquick PCR Purification Kit (QIAGEN) was used to purify this PCR product, while direct sequencing was carried out using the following primers: ODH-F, ODHseq-R, C2 and CD6 (Mestres et al. 2004). Cycling conditions were: 96 °C for 1 min; 25 cycles of 96 °C for 10 s, 55 °C (45 °C for ODH-F primer) for 5 s, 60 °C for 4 min; and a final extension of 1 min at 4 °C. Odh genes were sequenced using an ABI PRISMTM 3700 DNA Analyser in the "Unitat de Genòmica, Serveis Cientificotècnics" of the Universitat de Barcelona.

Sequences alignment and analysis

Sequence alignments were carried out with SeqManTM II v. 4.03 (DNA Star Inc. 1999) and BioEdit v. 4.8.6 (Hall 1999). DnaSP v. 4 was used to analyse DNA polymorphism (Rozas et al. 2003). With this software, h (haplotype diversity), π (nucleotide diversity), θ (expected average number of nucleotide differences) and k (average number of nucleotide differences) were estimated. Finally, gene trees were reconstructed using the maximum likelihood composite method of the MEGA 5.02 Software (Tamura et al. 2011), applying the Tamura-Nei model, with gamma parameter and 500 bootstrap replicates.

Results

Nucleotide variation

A total of 132 sequences from a 793-nucleotide fragment of the *Odh* gene (containing intron 2, exon 3, intron 3 and part of exon 2 and exon 4) were obtained; 66 of them were from Barcelona (54 from homokaryotypic lines and 12 from lethal chromosomal lines), and 66 from Mt. Parnes (41 from homokaryotypic lines and 25 from lethal chromosomal lines). The descriptions of all chromosomal lines sequenced, including their GenBank/EMBL accession numbers, are shown in the Supplementary Table 1. Despite the existence of two introns, no indels (insertions or deletions) were found in any sequence. The estimates of



parameters that describe the nucleotide polymorphism of the Odh gene in Barcelona and Mt. Parnes populations are summarized in Table 1. In this table, the same parameters are also presented for the North and South American populations. In total, we have observed 48 nucleotide polymorphic sites in Barcelona and 45 in Mt. Parnes, but 23 are different in the two populations (most of them being singletons). As expected, the number of polymorphic sites in both populations is significantly higher in introns than in exons ($\chi^2 = 15.64$, d.f. = 1, P = 0.0001, with Yates correction and $\chi^2 = 7.20$, d.f. = 1, P = 0.0073, with Yates correction, for Barcelona and Mt. Parnes, respectively). For the coding region according to a test based on the binomial distribution (Mestres et al. 2001; Gómez-Baldó et al. 2008), the number of nucleotide changes in third codon positions was significantly higher than in the other positions (for both populations $k \ge 16$, P = 0.000). It is interesting to compare the polymorphic sites observed with those from American samples (Mestres et al. 2004; Gómez-Baldó et al. 2008): several sites were found in the American populations but not in the Mediterranean populations (Table 2). It could probably mean that there is a lot of variability at the level of these sites. However, in the studied populations several sites have been detected only once.

Nucleotide sequences and chromosomal arrangements

Considering all sequences together most haplotypes appear only once (116), with some sequences being shared between different chromosomal lines from the same population or even between Barcelona and Mt. Parnes (Table 3). There is one haplotype associated with the O_{3+4+1} arrangement, both in Barcelona and Mt. Parnes. However, this association is incomplete as other chromosomal lines O_{3+4+1} presented different haplotypes. In

Barcelona and Mt. Parnes, no other associations between Odh haplotypes and chromosomal arrangements were detected. Most importantly, no haplotypes found in American colonizing populations were observed in both Mediterranean populations analysed. However, the haplotype of the chromosomal line BC43 (from Barcelona) is almost identical to that found in American chromosomal lines S49, PM110 and PM57 (Mestres et al. 2004; Gómez-Baldó et al. 2008). All these American chromosomal lines come from Chile (S49 from Santiago de Chile; PM110 and PM57 from Puerto Montt). There is only one change in nucleotide 254, a third position in exon 3. Chromosomal line BC43 has a C in this position, while S49, PM110 and PM57 have a T. In both cases, the amino acid coded is the same: glycine. It is worth pointing out that BC43, S49 and PM110 lines present the same chromosomal arrangement (O_{3+4+7}) , while PM57 has a derivate of it, O_7 , the product of an infrequent recombination event between O_{3+4+7} and O_{ST} chromosomes (Gómez-Baldó et al. 2008; Mestres et al. 2009). Another attempt to analyse the similarity in sequences and associations between haplotypes and

Table 2 Nucleotide polymorphic sites characteristic of American populations of *D. subobscura* and other populations where they were detected

American nucleotide site	Population in which nucleotide site was found				
20	Mt. Parnes				
87	Mt. Parnes				
119	Barcelona				
213	Only in North America				
311	Only in North and South America				
329	Only in North and South America				
616	Barcelona				

Table 1 Nucleotide polymorphism estimates for the Odh gene from Barcelona and Mt. Parnes populations

	Barcelona	Mt. Parnes	North America	South America		
n	66	66	44	46		
Nhap	59	62	11	11		
$h \pm SD$	0.996 ± 0.004	0.998 ± 0.003	0.802 ± 0.046	0.867 ± 0.023		
S	48	45	31	29		
$\pi \pm SD$	0.01263 ± 0.00040	0.01303 ± 0.00042	0.01030 ± 0.00094	0.01177 ± 0.00061		
$\theta \pm SD$ (per site)	0.01273 ± 0.00375	0.01194 ± 0.00354	0.00891 ± 0.00160	0.00833 ± 0.00275		
$k \pm SD$	10.007 ± 1.854	10.317 ± 1.882	8.237 ± 1.695	9.372 ± 1.830		
$\theta \pm \text{SD}$ (per sequence)	10.086 ± 1.456	9.455 ± 1.450	7.126 ± 1.280	6.598 ± 1.225		

For comparison, the values obtained in North and South American *D. subobscura* populations are also presented (Mestres et al. 2004; Gómez-Baldó et al. 2008)

n = number of sequences, Nhap = number of haplotypes, h = haplotype diversity, S = number of polymorphic sites, π = nucleotide diversity; θ = expected average number of nucleotide differences; k = average number of nucleotide differences



Table 3 Chromosomal lines whose haplotypes are shared inside one population or between populations or both

Barcelona	Mt. Parnes	Barcelona-Mt. Parnes
BC8 (O ₃₊₄₊₈) and BC31 (O ₃₊₄)	MP3 (O_{3+4}) and MP4 (O_{3+4})	BC21 (O ₃₊₄₊₇) and MP25 (O ₃₊₄₊₂₂)
BC9 $(O_{\underline{3+4}+\underline{1}})$ and BC20 $(O_{\underline{3+4}+\underline{1}})$	MP10 (O_{3+4}) and MP38 (O_{3+4})	BC55 (O_{ST}) and MP27 ($O_{\underline{3+4+8}}$)
FBC7 (O_{3+4}) and FBC58 (O_{ST})	MP24 (O_{3+4}) and MP91 (O_{3+4+22})	BC14 (O ₃₊₄₊₈), MP24 (O ₃₊₄) and MP91 (O ₃₊₄₊₂₂)
FBC22 ($O_{\underline{3+4+8}}$) and FBC46 ($O_{\underline{3+4+7}}$)	MP36 (O_{3+4+1}) and MP78 (O_{3+4+1})	FBC7 (O $_{3+4}$), FBC58 (O $_{ST}$) and MP47 (O $_{3+4+22}$)
FBC38 $(O_{\underline{3+4+8}})$ and FBC62 $(O_{\underline{3+4+8}})$		BC9 (O $_{\underline{3+4+1}}$), BC20 (O $_{\underline{3+4+1}}$), MP36 (O $_{\underline{3+4+1}}$) and MP78 (O $_{\underline{3+4+1}}$
FBC23 (O_{3+4+8}), FBC25 (O_{3+4+8}) and FBC51 (O_{3+4+8})		 -

The arrangement for each chromosomal line is shown in brackets. BC and FBC stand for chromosomal lines obtained from a wild male and from an individual son of a wild female offspring from Barcelona, respectively. MP stands for chromosomal lines obtained from a wild male from Mt. Parnes

chromosomal arrangements was carried out by creating gene trees. These trees for Barcelona and Mt. Parnes are presented in Fig. 1 and Fig. 2 of Supplementary material, respectively. In both cases, no clusters are detected and all sequences are mixed. Furthermore, main nodes are poorly supported, because very low bootstrap values are obtained. Additional gene trees, for instance using the sequences of both Palearctic populations together or those from Mt. Parnes and America, do not provide any valuable information (data not shown). The only exception is a joint analysis of the Barcelona and American sequences (Fig. 1), where the cluster of BC43, S49, PM110 and PM57 sequences can be observed, which is supported by a valid bootstrap value (85 %). They cluster because BC43 differs in only one nucleotide with regard to S49, PM110 and PM57 sequences.

Also interesting is the number of different Odh haplotypes observed in Barcelona and Mt. Parnes: 59 out of 66 sequenced chromosomal lines and 62 out of 66, respectively. It seems that both populations could present a large effective population size (N_e) . As shown by Wright et al. (1942), the allelism of lethal genes is high when N_e is small, so most lethal genes in the population are identical by descendant. On the contrary, the allelism of lethal genes is low when N_e is large. In this population, few lethal genes are identical by descendant, and thus the allelic cases are scarce. A similar concept can be applied to the nucleotide sequences: the "allelism of sequences", that is, determining how many are identical in all possible comparisons between two nucleotide sequences from the same populations. We would expect low values in populations with high N_e and vice versa. For the Odh gene, the estimated values of "allelism of sequences" for Barcelona and Mt.Parnes were 0.0037 ± 0.0013 and 0.0019 ± 0.0009 , respectively. However, these values are lower than those computed using the data of Gómez-Baldó et al. (2008) from Chilean populations: 0.1176 ± 0.0260 and 0.1905 ± 0.0202 for Santiago de Chile and Puerto Montt, respectively. The low values from Chilean populations of *D. suboscura* are most probably due to the founder effect (Ayala et al. 1989; Prevosti et al. 1989; Mestres et al. 2005).

Amino acid sequences

Non-coding regions were studied, but without providing any valuable information. However, the amino acid sequences derived from the nucleotide sequences gave us new insights into the connections between Barcelona, Mt. Parnes and American populations. The positions where amino acid changes were observed are presented in Table 4. Changes were detected in four, seven and five positions in Barcelona, Mt. Parnes and American populations, respectively. It is worth noting that amino acid positions 50 and 88 are exclusive to America, and that position number 7 is shared between America and Mt. Parnes. When analyzing Barcelona, Mt. Parnes and American populations, these amino acid changes define 16 different haplotypes (Supplementary Table 2). Their relative abundance (in percentage terms) is summarized in Supplementary Table 3. The distribution of haplotypes is similar in both European populations, with haplotype 6 being very abundant (61.29 and 57.14 % in Barcelona and Mt. Parnes, respectively), haplotype 1 presenting relatively high frequency (32.26 and 33.33 % in Barcelona and Mt. Parnes, respectively) and different haplotypes with very low frequencies. In American populations, haplotype 1 is the most abundant (62.07 %), haplotypes 2 (10.34 %) and 3 (20.69 %) are relatively frequent and haplotypes 4 and 5 are relatively infrequent.



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Fig. 1 Gene tree obtained using the *Odh* nucleotide sequences from Barcelona and America. Only bootstrap values over 70 are presented. The cluster of BC43, S49, PM110 and PM57sequences is marked with a square. Abbreviations for Barcelona population are as follows: BC and FBC stand for chromosomal lines obtained from a wild male and from an individual son of a wild female offspring from Barcelona, respectively. Abbreviations from American populations are as follows: BF and BM (Bellingham, Washington sate USA); C (Centralia, Washington state, USA); G, GM, FGF (Gilroy, California, USA); S and SC (Santiago de Chile, Chile); PM (Puerto Montt, Chile). The arrangement of each chromosomal line sequenced is also presented after its abbreviation

Discussion

The origin of the colonization

Knowledge of the origin of a colonization (or invasion) would help evolutionary biologists to understand the amount of genetic variability reduction in the newlyestablished populations in comparison to the population from which the colonization started. This information could grant us a general overview of the quantity and kind of genetic variability needed to succeed in the colonization of a particular environment (Lee 2002; Dlugosh and Parker 2008). Unfortunately, it is difficult to track with any precision the origin of a colonization that took place in the distant past. However, recent colonizing events provide more accurate information (genetic markers have still accumulated few changes), which would tend to help us to ascertain the population or specific geographical region of origin. The Drosophila subobscura colonization of the American continent is generally considered to have taken place in the late 1970s (for a review see Ayala et al. 1989; Prevosti et al. 1989; Huey et al. 2005; Mestres et al. 2005). Ascertaining the origin of New World populations was a priority from the earliest studies (Brncic et al. 1981). Different genetic markers provided different levels of information: chromosomal inversion polymorphism indicated a western Mediterranean origin, but the presence of the O₅ inversion in American populations was difficult to explain (Brncic et al. 1981; Ayala et al. 1989; Prevosti et al. 1989). The O₅ inversion is found with a frequency of around a 10 % in Scandinavia (for a revision see Krimbas 1993), but the origin of the colonization cannot be from Northern Europe due to the chromosomal composition of American samples. Several chromosomal arrangements found in the American continent have never been detected in this European region (Prevosti et al. 1989; Mestres et al. 1990; Zivanovic and Mestres 2000) The D. subobscura mtDNA haplotypes and microsatellites were not conclusive, but they were compatible with a western Mediterranean origin (Latorre et al. 1986; Pascual et al. 2001). Joint analysis of *Odh* sequences and chromosomal inversions gives new insight into the origin of this colonization. While

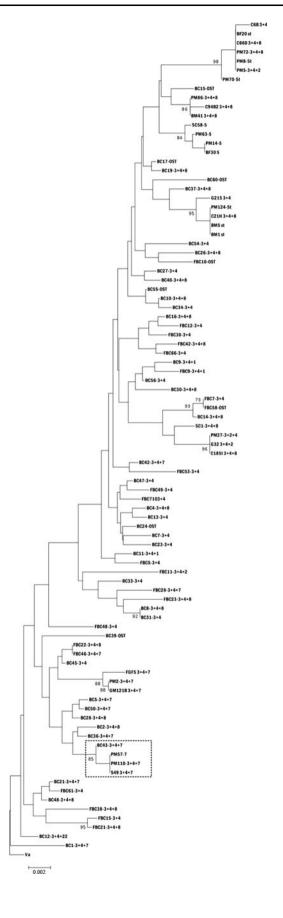




Table 4 Positions of amino acid change, type of amino acid change and number of times that the same change was detected in the Barcelona, Mt. Parnes and American populations for the ODH peptide

	Changes in amino acid positions											
	1	7	7	34	50	88	120	148	149	216	218	218
Va (reference)	Е	V	V	D	V	F	G	Е	T	Е	A	A
Change	G	M	E	E	I	L	S	D	S	K	D	V
America			7		2	7		3	29			
Barcelona	1							1	21		2	
Mt. Parnes		1	1	1			1	1	23	1		1
Total	1	1	8	1	2	7	1	5	73	1	2	1

The ODH peptide of the *Va* chromosome (balancer chromosome used for obtaining the chromosomal lines) is used as reference for the amino acid changes. Positions 7 and 218 appear twice because two different amino acid changes had taken place in them (V to M and V to E for position 7; A to D and A to V for position 218)

 $E = Glutamic \ acid; \ V = Valine; \ D = Aspartic \ acid; \ F = Phenylalanine; \ G = Glycine; \ T = Threonine; \ A = Alanine; \ M = Methionine; \ I = Isoleucine; \ L = Leucine; \ S = Serine; \ K = Lysine$

none of the Palearctic Odh sequences from Barcelona or Mt. Parnes has been found in America, one sequence from Barcelona (BC43) was almost identical to one found in the New World, differing only in one nucleotide (American chromosomal lines S49, PM110 and PM57). And most importantly, both sequences were located inside the same inversion, the O₇. This evidence strongly supports a possible origin from the western Mediterranean region. However, this hypothesis has a drawback: the O_5 inversion has not been reported in the Iberian Peninsula, despite the fact that chromosomal inversion polymorphism has been studied extensively (for a review see Krimbas 1993; Mestres et al. 2005). In all probability, the O_5 inversion is adaptive to cold conditions, as in the Palearctic region it is found mainly in Scandinavia (Krimbas 1993; Ruiz-Martín 2006), and in the New World it presents significant latitudinal clines in North and South America (Prevosti et al. 1985, 1988, 1990) which persisted over time (Balanyà et al. 2003), despite being completely associated with a particular lethal gene (Mestres et al. 2001). As molecular data show, this inversion probably appeared recently (Araúz et al. 2009b). Although it is adapted to cold conditions, it may well have spread from Scandinavia to other warmer Palearctic regions by gene flow, and would then be eliminated by selection or genetic drift if this inversion reaches these warmer areas. Thus, with the exception of Scandinavia, its distribution is erratic in the Old World and presents negligible frequency (for a revision see Zivanovic and Mestres, 2000). Hence, one possible explanation is that at a certain moment, it could have reached the western Mediterranean population from which the colonization originated and be included in the sample of colonizers. It is true that this inversion was found in Greece a long time ago (Krimbas 1964, 1967; Krimbas and Alevizos, 1973), but since 1975 (just before the probable beginning of the American colonization) it has not been reported again

(Loukas et al. 1979, 1980, 1981; Araúz et al. 2009a). Furthermore, the inversion composition of the Greek populations, though possible, makes it unlikely that any of them originated the colonizing process. For instance, Mt. Parnes population (and other Greek populations) presented a non-negligible frequency of O_{3+4+1} (between 14.66 and 28.00 %) and $O_{\underline{3+4+22}}$ (between 2.38 and 11.47 %) chromosomal arrangements (Krimbas 1967; Araúz et al. 2009a), but neither has been found in American D. susboscura populations (Prevosti et al. 1985, 1988, 1989, 1990; Balanyà et al. 2003). Furthermore, different O_{3+4+7} arrangements reached the American continent (Mestres et al. 1990, 1995, 2004; Gómez-Baldó et al. 2008), whereas its frequency is very low in Mt. Parnes and other Greek populations, with values ranging from 0 to 6.65 % (Krimbas 1967; Araúz et al. 2009a). For these reasons an origin in an eastern Mediterranean population seems unlikely. Thus, the most probable explanation is that the colonization originated from a western Mediterranean population which fortuitously presented the sporadic O₅ inversion (due to gene flow) and, by chance, it was included in the sample of colonizers. However, more analyses of chromosomal polymorphism and *Odh* sequences will be needed to pinpoint more accurately the particular area from which the colonization started.

Repeated invasions that superimpose onto one another have been described in some species (Davies et al. 1999; Ellstrand and Schierenbek 2000; Bossdorf et al. 2005; Frankham 2005; Krafsur et al. 2005; Novak and Mack 2005; Dlugosh and Parker 2008). In the case of the American colonization by *D. subobscura*, chromosomal inversion data accumulated from the beginning of the colonization indicate that the colonization was a unique event, since new genetic variability at this level has not been found since the earlier studies (Prevosti et al. 1988, 1989; Ayala et al. 1989; Balanyà et al. 2003). With regard



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to the *Odh* nucleotide and amino acid sequence, their variability in Barcelona and Mt. Parnes compared with that of American populations indicates that the founder event was considerable (Mestres et al. 2004; Gómez-Baldó et al. 2008). Repeated invasions would produce an increment of new *Odh* sequences in the American continent. However, no new *Odh* sequences have been reported in the American continent, with the exception of those that appeared there through recombination (Gómez-Baldó et al. 2008). In the future, more studies will be needed to ascertain if new genetic variability is introduced in America from Palearctic populations.

Nucleotide polymorphism in the Mediterranean populations

The nucleotide polymorphism for the *Odh* gene presents very similar values in Barcelona and Mt. Parnes populations and slightly lower values of this polymorphism were observed for the *Odh* gene in American populations of *D. subobsucura*, a consequence of the founder event (Mestres et al. 2004; Gómez-Baldó et al. 2008). In general, the values π (nucleotide diversity) and θ (expected average number of nucleotide differences) are equivalent to those found in the Palearctic region when other nuclear genes of *D. subobscura* were studied (Rozas and Aguadé 1990; Rozas et al. 1995, 1999; Cirera and Aguadé 1998; Navarro-Sabaté et al. 1999; Llopart and Aguadé, 2000; Munté et al. 2005). In these studies, the π estimates range between 0.004 and 0.012, and those for θ between 0.010 and 0.021.

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

In summary, the American colonization by D. subobscura was a unique event and the colonizers most probably came from the western Mediterranean region. Our results are in agreement with some previous indirect evidence (Ayala et al. 1989; Prevosti et al. 1989). Secondary colonizations explain the expansion of the species from the west coast of South America to the west coast of North America and the eastern coast of Argentina (Pascual et al. 2007; Fernández-Iriarte et al. 2009). Although the initial sample of colonizers was small, it contained the genetic variability needed to achieve the colonization success. As proposed in Lee (2002), the initial sample of colonizers was influenced by the genetic architecture of the original Palearctic population, and natural selection operated rapidly on this genetic basis to allow adaptation to the new environments. Finally, it is worth pointing out that molecular markers in association with chromosomal inversions are useful tools to locate the origin of recent colonizations and invasions. Thus, it may be possible to study the evolutionary potential of the new established populations and the possibility of reintroductions.

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