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Multi-locus genomic signatures of local adaptation to snow across the landscape in California populations of a willow leaf beetle

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1	Multi-locus genomic signatures of local adaptation to snow across the landscape in
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17 Abstract

18 Organisms living in mountains contend with extreme climatic conditions, including short 19 growing seasons and long winters with extensive snow cover. Anthropogenic climate change is 20 driving unprecedented, rapid warming of montane regions across the globe, resulting in reduced 21 winter snowpack. Loss of snow as a thermal buffer may have serious consequences for animals 22 overwintering in soil, yet little is known about how variability in snowpack acts as a selective 23 agent in montane ecosystems. Here we examine genomic variation in California populations of 24 the leaf beetle Chrysomela aeneicollis, an emerging natural model system for understanding how 25 organisms respond to climate change. We used a genotype-environment association approach to 26 identify genomic signatures of local adaptation to microclimate in populations from three 27 montane regions with variable snowpack and a coastal region with no snow. We found that both 28 winter-associated environmental variation and geographic distance contribute to overall genomic 29 variation across the landscape. We identified non-synonymous variation in novel candidate loci 30 associated with cytoskeletal function, ion transport and membrane stability, cellular processes 31 associated with cold tolerance in other insects. These findings provide intriguing evidence that 32 variation in snowpack imposes selective gradients in montane ecosystems.

33 Introduction

34 Seasonality serves as one of the strongest and most ubiquitous sources of environmental 35 variation impacting natural systems, with distinct selective forces operating between periods of 36 summer growth and reproduction and overwintering survival (Fretwell, 1972; Williams et al., 37 2017). For small montane ectotherms, elevated and variable air temperatures during summertime 38 can cause physiological stress during critical periods of reproduction, growth, and development 39 (Dahlhoff et al., 2008; McMillan et al., 2005; Neargarder et al. 2003). As hotter, drier summers 40 become more common, upslope shifts in montane insect species are becoming more frequent, 41 posing novel challenges at the limits of physiological tolerance (Larsen, 2012; Moret et al., 42 2016). For organisms that overwinter beneath the soil, snow cover is a key environmental factor 43 influencing physiology and survival because snow buffers microclimate variability (Pauli et al., 44 2013; Slatyer et al., 2022; Zhu et al., 2019). Climate change is causing more prevalent, intense, 45 and lengthy droughts, which in turn leads to more winters with a higher elevation snowline and 46 lower total snowpack (Huning & AghaKouchak, 2020; Mote et al., 2018). Reductions in 47 snowpack may expose organisms overwintering in the soil to temperature extremes that cause 48 physiological stress, reducing their overwintering survival and reproductive success at 49 subsequent summer emergence. Recent declines in insect populations in montane environments 50 documented across the globe demonstrate the urgency in gaining a clear understanding of how 51 organisms cope with greater seasonal variability in temperature and precipitation in montane 52 ecosystems (Birrell et al., 2020; Halsch et al., 2021; Shah et al., 2020). Seasonal fluctuation can 53 maintain genetic polymorphisms within populations (Haldane & Jayakar, 1963; Wittmann et al., 54 2017), and variation in the extent and magnitude of seasonal fluctuations can generate spatial

clines in allelic variants (Conover, 1992; Rank & Dahlhoff, 2002; Rhomberg & Singh, 1986).
Elucidating how past climatic conditions have structured genetic variation and corresponding
physiological responses for organisms in these habitats will be critical for predicting their
responses to future environmental change.

59 Local adaptation, which occurs when resident genotypes have a higher relative fitness in 60 their local habitat than genotypes originating from other habitats, is an important mechanism by 61 which genetic variation is maintained in heterogeneous environments (Felsenstein, 1976; 62 Hedrick et al., 1976; Kawecki & Ebert, 2004). The extent and persistence of local adaptation is 63 determined by a balance between natural selection for alleles that confer improved reproductive 64 success in a particular microclimate and the homogenizing effects of gene flow and other neutral 65 processes (Forester et al., 2016; Kawecki & Ebert, 2004; Nadeau et al., 2016; Orsini et al., 2013; 66 Slatkin, 1987). Neutral processes that influence patterns of genetic variation among populations 67 include dispersal rates, colonization history, and population expansion and contraction, which in 68 turn affects levels of genetic drift (Nadeau et al., 2016; Orsini et al., 2013). Local adaptation may 69 be detected by identifying a stronger genetic variant 'signal' from weaker, non-selective 'noise' 70 (Shafer & Wolf, 2013; Wang & Bradburd, 2014). Unfortunately, selective climatic gradients, 71 geography, and migration corridors tend to covary, which complicates quantifying the relative 72 contribution of selective and neutral evolutionary forces; thus, effects of isolation by distance and 73 population structure must be taken into account before patterns of genomic variation can be associated with selective features of the environment (Forester et al., 2018a; Frichot et al., 2013; 74 75 Rellstab et al., 2015; Sork et al., 2013).

76 In this study, we investigated relationships between microclimatic factors and genetic 77 variation in the willow leaf beetle *Chrysomela aeneicollis*, a well-described model species for 78 understanding how climate change impacts montane ecosystems (Dahlhoff et al., 2019; Millstein, 79 2006; Rank & Dahlhoff, 2002). This insect is ideal for investigating processes of local adaptation 80 in a region of high topographic and seasonal landscape heterogeneity (Camus, 2020). During the 81 brief summer growing season, this univoltine beetle species mates, lays eggs, and undergoes one 82 generation of larval development before new adults emerge and feed before winter returns 83 (Smiley & Rank, 1986). They overwinter in the soil as freeze-tolerant adults for eight to nine 84 months before emergence of reproductively mature adults (Boychuck et al., 2015; Roberts et al., 85 2021).

86 In western North America, C. aeneicollis is found living on willows in cool, moist 87 habitats separated by regions of arid or Mediterranean climates, resulting in highly fragmented 88 distribution with little connectivity among populations (Brown, 1956; Dellicour et al., 2014). In 89 California, this species inhabits regions with distinct microclimate and seasonal characteristics: 90 along high-elevation (2700 - 3400 m) streams and bogs in the Sierra Nevada, in isolated montane 91 populations on the edge of the Great Basin, and in low elevation riparian habitats along the 92 Northern California coast. Within the Sierra Nevada, populations experience stressfully warm 93 and cold temperatures throughout the year and their distribution is affected by seasonality and 94 elevation, with populations contracting upslope and declining in abundance during droughts and 95 growing in size and expanding to lower elevations after wet, snowy winters (Dahlhoff et al., 96 2019; McMillan et al., 2005; Rank, 1994; Rank et al., 2020; Roberts et al., 2021; Smiley & 97 Rank, 1986). Despite these fluctuations in population size, Sierra Nevada populations have

98 maintained high levels of heterozygosity at protein coding genes and other loci and show no 99 deviation from Hardy Weinberg expectations with respect to expected versus observed genotype 100 frequencies (Rank 1992a, Rank et al. 2020), suggesting that they are sufficiently large to avoid 101 bottlenecks and effects of inbreeding. Montane populations show evidence of substantial, stable 102 genetic differentiation along a 60 km latitudinal gradient, from the South Fork of the Kings River 103 in the south to Rock Creek in the north, with especially high divergence at mitochondrial loci 104 and the metabolic enzyme locus phosphoglucose isomerase, Pgi (Dahlhoff et al., 2008; Rank, 105 1992a; Rank et al., 2020; Rank & Dahlhoff, 2002). Prior laboratory and field studies have also 106 shown that effects of temperature on performance and fitness components vary among 107 individuals with different nuclear and mitochondrial variants (Camus, 2020; Dahlhoff et al., 108 2019; Dahlhoff & Rank, 2000; Dick et al., 2013; Rank et al., 2020). While extensive studies 109 support the hypothesis that variation at metabolic loci such as Pgi and the mitochondrion reflect 110 local adaptation (Bracewell et al., 2023; Dahlhoff et al., 2008; Dahlhoff & Rank, 2000; Rank & 111 Dahlhoff, 2002), we lack information about how variation throughout the genome reflects the 112 complex interaction of neutral and adaptive processes across the beetle's range.

Here, we address this gap by evaluating relationships between genomic variation and environmental conditions in locations where willow beetle populations occur in four distinct ecoregions of California (Griffith et al., 2016). We quantified differentiation at nuclear loci among populations in three montane regions in Eastern California and populations in an isolated coastal area; this sampling design covers all known regions within California where this species is currently known to occur (Brown, 1956; Dellicour et al., 2014). We identified selective microclimatic gradients that contribute to spatial patterns of potentially adaptive genomic

- 120 variation across the landscape, then used this information to predict functions of newly identified
- 121 genes that vary along microclimatic gradients to examine how genomic differentiation among
- 122 these regions may contribute to local adaptation.

124 Results

125 Sequencing and marker filtering

126 Illumina sequencing generated 5.06 billion paired-end reads from 175 individuals in 12

127 populations (Table 1), of which 4.05 billion total reads (80.1%) passed initial quality filters (per

128 sample: mean = 23.1 million, sd = 7.9 million). The joint genotype calling workflow identified

129 12 million hard-filtered biallelic SNPs (Tables S1, S2). We then used a conservative SNP

130 filtering approach based on minor allele frequency (MAF), heterozygosity, and inbreeding

131 coefficient, resulting in 22,323 SNPs across all individuals and 12 populations. Filtering

132 thresholds that contributed substantially to the reduced set of analyzed SNPs were those that

133 removed SNPs with a MAF < 0.01 (Table S2B) and that removed loci with low quality reads

134 within populations (Table S2C). These SNPs were distributed evenly across the nuclear genome

135 (Table S1).

136 Microclimate simulation

137 The NicheMapR microclimate model simulated 24 variables for the 12 beetle populations that 138 represent air, soil, and snow conditions beetles experience throughout their lifecycle (Table S3). 139 Simulated environmental variables demonstrated high sensitivity to the shade input parameter in 140 the model (Fig S1), but relative multivariate environmental distances between populations were 141 consistent between minimum and maximum shade conditions (Fig S2). Simulated microclimatic 142 data under minimum shade conditions were more concordant with available empirical 143 measurement based on RMSE (Table S4), so downstream analyses were therefore conducted 144 using simulated environmental variables under 10% shade.

145 Population genomic differentiation across California landscape

146 The first two principal components on population-level minor allele frequencies explained 55.8% 147 of total genomic variation (Fig 1B). Eastern Cascade and Coast Range ecoregions exhibited the 148 greatest genomic divergence among populations, and population genomic variation in the Sierra 149 Nevada and Central Basin ecoregions followed a latitudinal gradient (Fig 1; Table S5). SNP 150 filtering thresholds used in analyses did not meaningfully influence estimates of population 151 structure compared to more relaxed filter thresholds (Fig S3-S5).

152 A population genetic structure analysis was used to estimate proportions of individual 153 genomes originating from ancestral gene pools based on the five populations determined by 154 selecting a value of K that minimized cross entropy (Fig S6). Individuals in the Sierra Nevada 155 ecoregion show a strong pattern of genetic differentiation with latitude (Fig 1). Based on 156 proportions of estimated ancestral coefficients, individuals in the southern drainage Tuttle Creek 157 (TC) are genetically distinct and belong to one ancestral population. Individuals in Taboose Pass 158 (TP) are mixed, sharing ancestry with neighbors in Tuttle Creek to the south, Big Pine (BP) and 159 Baker (BK) Creek to the north. Individuals in South Bishop Creek (BC) and Tyee Lakes (TL) 160 share ancestry with both southern (BP, BK) and northern (NF, PC, RC) populations, which in 161 turn share ancestry with those from the Great Basin (DC). Individuals collected in Eastern 162 Cascades and Coast Range ecoregions were genetically distinct from each other and from the 163 Sierra Nevada-Great Basin complex (Fig 1).

Analysis of pairwise F_{st} values among population pairs revealed that populations in the
 montane Eastern Cascades region were more similar to montane populations in the Sierra
 Nevada and Great Basin than they were to Coast Range populations, despite similar geographic

167 distances separating each region (Fig 2). When populations were classified by habitat type 168 (coastal or mountain), F_{st} values for "coast vs. mountain" population pairs were four-fold greater 169 $(LSM = 0.43 \pm 0.02)$ than those for "mountain vs. mountain" population pairs $(LSM = 0.11 \pm 0.02)$ 170 0.01, $F_{1.63} = 197.4$, P < 0.001; Fig 2). The overall relationship between geographic distance and 171 F_{st} was similar within the two types of population pairs and was consistent with 'isolation by 172 distance' genetic differentiation ($F_{1.63} = 24.5$, P < 0.001; Fig 2). Together, these results suggest 173 that isolation by distance and isolation by environment (coastal versus montane) both shape 174 genomic differentiation, and differences in environmental conditions appear to strongly influence 175 genetic composition of C. aeneicollis populations.

176 Associations between environmental and genomic variation

177 Partial redundancy analysis (pRDA)- The pRDA made it possible to identify specific genetic 178 polymorphisms that were associated with environmental differences among populations. Among 179 all California populations, the pRDA was globally significant ($F_{2,7} = 2.18$, P = 0.001; Fig 3), and 180 the constraining environmental matrix explained 17.1% of variation in genomic data, while the 181 conditioning spatial matrix explained 19.0% of genomic variation. The forward selection 182 procedure identified a significant positive spatial variable (MEM1), which was retained as 183 conditioning variable in pRDA. The forward selection procedure identified annual air 184 temperature range at 1.75 m above ground level (annual $T_{max} - T_{min}$) and maximum daily snowfall 185 as significant environmental predictors of genomic variation (Fig 3; annual air temperature range 186 $F_{1,7} = 2.28, P = 0.001$; maximum daily snowfall $F_{1,7} = 2.08, P = 0.001$). The first and second 187 RDA axes also explained substantial proportions of genomic variation (RDA1 = 18.7%, $F_{1,7}$ = 188 2.32, P = 0.014; RDA2 = 16.6% $F_{1.7} = 2.05$, P = 0.022). Candidate single nucleotide

189 polymorphisms (SNPs) were identified based on high correlation with temperature- and snow-190 related environmental variables (r > |0.65|) and z-score values of loadings of loci in ordination 191 space (z scores ± 2.1 , two-tailed P = 0.036). Based on these criteria, 107 SNPs were identified as 192 candidate loci (Fig 3). Sixty-eight SNPs were related to annual air temperature range, thirty-193 seven to maximum daily snowfall, and two were related to both temperature and snowfall (Table 194 S6). When the coastal Gualala River population was excluded, the pRDA was globally 195 significant ($F_{1,8} = 2.04$, P = 0.021; Fig S7), and with MEM1 as the conditioning variable, the 196 forward selection procedure identified only maximum daily snowfall as a significant predictor of 197 genomic variation. Using the above candidate loci criteria, 116 SNPs were related to maximum 198 snowfall (Table S9).

199 Latent factor mixed model (LFMM)- The LFMM represents a second approach to identify SNPs

200 related to environmental variability while accounting for overall population genetic structure.

201 With all California populations, a LFMM was run with five estimated ancestry coefficients as

202 latent factors to test single-locus relationships with annual air temperature range and maximum

203 daily snowfall (ancestry coefficients shown in Fig 1). A large proportion of identified

204 polymorphisms (19.2%; 4,289 SNPs) were associated with annual air temperature range, and

205 7.2% (1,603 SNPs) were associated with maximum daily snowfall (Fig 4). Using the LFMM

206 excluding the coastal Gualala River population and four ancestral populations, 1,471 SNPs

207 (6.6% total) were associated with maximum snowfall (Table S9, Fig S8).

208 SNP and protein functional annotations

209 To reduce probability of false positive associations and narrow the search for candidate

210 polymorphisms, we focused on SNPs identified by both pRDA and LFMM, and we assessed

211	associations across coastal and montane populations and then again using only montane
212	populations (Tables 2, S6, S9). In analyses with all populations, most SNPs correlated with
213	annual air temperature range in pRDA were also identified using LFMM (67 of 70). A slightly
214	lower proportion of SNPs associated with maximum daily snowfall based on pRDA were also
215	identified by LFMM (26 of 39; Table S6). In analyses with only montane populations, most
216	SNPs correlated with maximum daily snowfall based on pRDA were also identified by LFMM
217	(79 of 116), and 18 SNPs identified in the pRDA with only montane populations were also
218	identified in analyses with coastal and montane populations (Table S9).
219	Analyses of all populations and only montane populations identified three non-
220	synonymous SNPs associated with maximum daily snowfall found in genes coding for proteins
221	involved in cell structure and movement (inverted formin-2 and microtubule-actin cross-linking
222	factor). Analyses including all populations or only montane populations identified five non-
223	synonymous SNPs associated daily snowfall that are found in genes coding for proteins involved
224	in ion transport or cellular membrane activity (Table 3, S8A, S11A). Three non-synonymous
225	SNPs associated with air temperature range across all populations were found in genes coding
226	for proteins involved in intracellular signaling and energetics [cytochrome p450, phospholipid
227	transfer protein, (Table 3)].

229 Discussion

230 Detecting accurate signals of local adaptation in the genome requires linking observed genetic 231 patterns to underlying selective features of the environment while accounting for associations 232 imposed by neutral processes. Here we demonstrate that populations of the willow leaf beetle 233 Chrysomela aeneicollis across California are differentiated across the nuclear genome, and we 234 provide strong evidence that snow serves as a prominent selective gradient and driver of local 235 adaptation across their geographic range. We show that both large-scale variation in snowfall 236 across the California landscape and small-scale variation in snowfall within montane locations 237 are associated with adaptive genetic variation. Specifically, we provide evidence that variation in 238 maximum daily snowfall is linked to non-synonymous polymorphisms in genes associated with 239 cytoskeletal motility, ion transport, and membrane structure and function, highlighting the 240 potential role of adaptive protein modifications that could enhance insect cold tolerance in cold 241 snowy regions.

242 Spatial patterns of genetic divergence in <u>Chrysomela aeneicollis</u>

243 Results of this study reveal that populations of the willow leaf beetle Chrysomela aeneicollis 244 living in different regions of California are genetically differentiated across loci in the nuclear 245 genome. Three of four ecoregions sampled show substantial levels of genetic divergence among 246 them, such that North Coast populations are distinct from those in the Eastern Cascades 247 ecoregion, and both of those populations are distinct from populations in the Sierra Nevada and 248 Great Basin (Fig 1). Within Eastern California, populations from northern drainages of the 249 Eastern Sierra Nevada are less genetically isolated from populations sampled in the neighboring 250 White Mountains than those found in southern drainages of the Sierra Nevada. Furthermore,

consistent with previous studies, populations within the Sierra Nevada show relatively high
levels of genetic divergence given their relatively close geographic proximity (Fig 1) (Dahlhoff
et al., 2008; Rank, 1992a; Rank et al., 2020). Patterns of genetic differentiation separating
populations in different ecoregions suggest that geographic and seasonal environmental variation
present a major selective pressure on alleles in the nuclear genome and that genes related to
thriving under different local environmental conditions contribute to local adaptation among
populations of *C. aeneicollis* (Fig 2).

258 The strong pattern of geographic differentiation of genomic variation across California 259 was illustrated for the first time in the present study, but it is consistent with findings of Dellicour 260 et al. (2014). The earlier study found that C. aeneicollis populations in Western North America 261 (Montana, coastal Oregon, Colorado, and California) were strongly differentiated at 262 mitochondrial and nuclear genetic markers, suggesting that geographic isolation among these 263 regions predates recent fluctuations in the extent of glaciation over the past 50,000 years. 264 Isolation of populations at mitochondrial loci was greater than nuclear genes, but there was 265 overall agreement among loci that differentiation among geographic regions was substantial, 266 which would contribute to conditions favoring local adaptation (Dellicour et al., 2014). To date, 267 this study provides the best picture of signatures of adaptation to seasonal variation in this wide-268 ranging insect.

269 Maximum daily snowfall variation contributes to adaptive genetic variation

270 Identifying climatic variables that act as drivers of spatially varying selection will be critical for

271 predicting evolutionary responses to climate change and environmental disturbance (Bay et al.,

272 2018). Among all simulated microclimate conditions that represent air, soil, and snow conditions

273 throughout the year, we found that maximum daily snowfall explains a significant portion of 274 variation in genomic data, after controlling for spatial autocorrelation and population history (Fig 275 3, Fig S7). This association is identified both across the California landscape, where climatic 276 conditions differ greatly between coastal and montane populations, as well as within montane 277 populations, where differences in climatic conditions are more subtle. Comparisons made within 278 montane populations suggest that this snowfall gradient may characterize spatially varying 279 selective pressures related to winter cold exposure within mountain ecoregions (Fig S9). Eco-280 physiological models for C. aeneicollis indicate that the relationship between elevation and cold 281 exposure in soil is strongly non-linear, with cold exposure peaking at mid-elevation montane 282 populations that are not buffered by persistent snow cover (Roberts et al., 2021). Since snow 283 decouples the relationship between air and soil temperatures, variation in snow cover reflects 284 variation in cold exposure in the soil at a given elevation. Without the thermal buffer that snow 285 provides for organisms overwintering in soil, cold microclimate temperatures can drop below a 286 species-specific cold tolerance threshold, which can result in mortality or sublethal cold injuries 287 (Bale, 1996; Sinclair et al., 2003). This result highlights the importance of snow cover variation 288 as a key factor in maintaining this variation and driving selection on genes associated with cold 289 tolerance and stress in winter.

290 Prior work in Sierra Nevada populations of *C. aeneicollis* shows that air temperature 291 varies between genetically differentiated populations and shows evidence of physiological 292 adaptation to different thermal regimes (Dahlhoff & Rank, 2000; 2007; Rank et al., 2008). 293 However, in the present study, the effect of 'annual air temperature range' (Fig 3) is largely 294 driven by climatic conditions in the Coast Range (CR). This broad thermal selective gradient 295 covaries with neutral patterns of population structure, which complicates distinctions between 296 neutral and selected loci (Nadeau et al., 2016); thus, the high detection rates observed in the 297 LFMM in the present study could also be due to residual, unaccounted population structure (Fig. 298 4).

299 Putative mechanisms of local adaptation to snow cover mirror mechanisms of cold tolerance 300 Genes containing nonsynonymous SNPs associated with variation in snowfall encode proteins 301 with functions related to ion binding, actin and cytoskeleton binding and organization, and 302 membrane components; protein identifications were assigned with a high level of confidence, as 303 all homologous proteins are present in other beetle species (Table 3). These protein functions 304 align with previously identified mechanisms of cold tolerance and acclimation in both insects 305 and plants (Des Marteaux et al., 2018; Kim et al., 2006; Örvar et al., 2000; Pokorná et al., 2004). 306 Primary cellular challenges associated with deep and prolonged cold exposure or freezing 307 include loss of ion and water homeostasis and depolymerization of cytoskeletal components (e.g. 308 actin and tubulin), which can impair ion transport function, cause loss of cell junction integrity, 309 and exacerbate disturbances in membrane integrity caused by paracellular leaks of water and 310 ions (Cantiello, 1995; Khurana, 2000; Toxopeus & Sinclair, 2018; Turner et al., 1997). Cold-311 acclimated insects are better able to maintain ion and water balance at low temperatures

312 compared to warm-acclimated insects (Overgaard & Macmillan, 2017), due to cellular structural 313 modifications that enhance cytoskeletal stability, thus protecting ionoregulatory tissues (e.g. 314 Malpighian tubules in insects) from chilling injury and loss of transport function (Des Marteaux 315 et al., 2018). Cold-acclimated insects also differentially regulate cytoskeletal gene expression, 316 with cold acclimation inducing upregulation of actin-associated genes or enzymes that promote 317 membrane and cytoskeletal remodeling (Des Marteaux et al., 2017; Kim et al., 2006; Toxopeus 318 et al., 2019). Because polymorphisms associated with variation in snowfall may relate to protein 319 modifications that enhance cytoskeletal and membrane stability in the cold, putative mechanisms 320 underlying local adaptation to snow are related to primary cellular mechanisms of cold 321 acclimation and tolerance. These results provide genomic evidence that variation in snowfall 322 imposes a selective gradient in exposure to cold stress, supporting the theory that snow 323 modulates cold stress and exposure for insects that overwinter in the soil (Roberts et al., 2021). 324 Tandem genotype-environment association approach identifies signatures of local adaptation 325 In detecting genomic signatures of local adaptation, genotype-environment associations 326 identified by various methods will depend strongly on demographic and sampling scenarios 327 (Forester et al., 2018; M. R. Jones et al., 2013; Nadeau et al., 2016; Rellstab et al., 2015). 328 Simulations conducted by Forester et al. 2016 find that multivariate ordination methods like 329 pRDA produce uniformly low false positive rates (0-2%), whereas LFMM produced high false 330 positive rates under low dispersal scenarios (Forester et al., 2016). Chrysomela aeneicollis 331 individuals have low levels of dispersal, with individuals often spending most of their life on a 332 single host plant (Rank, 1992b, 1994).

333 Nonetheless, correcting for population structure in pRDA can result in low power to 334 detect true associations (Lotterhos, 2023), and recent simulation modeling indicates that LFMM 335 provides the best compromise between detection power and error rates in situations with 336 complex hierarchical neutral genetic structure (De Villemereuil et al., 2014). Herbivorous insects 337 can have a subdivided population structure that reflects the distribution of their plant hosts 338 (Moraiti et al., 2014; Orrest & Thomson, 2011), and previous work found hierarchical, 339 subdivided genetic structure among patches and willows within a patch (Rank, 1992a). The 340 application of these two GEA methods highlights the trade-off between conservative and liberal 341 approaches in detecting a true adaptive signal, yet applying these methods in combination can 342 therefore yield increased confidence in true positive detections of local adaptation. Future work 343 should investigate the relationship between non-clinal allele frequency patterns and 344 environmental gradients, which can evolve under multivariate environments and can lead to 345 inaccurate inferences using GEA approaches (Lotterhos, 2023). 346 Limitations 347 A limitation of this study is sampling bias toward populations in the Sierra Nevada 348 ecoregion relative to the other three eco-regions included in this study (Fig 1), which may bias 349 genetic-environmental relationships and relative contributions of isolation by environment and

350 distance (Fig 2). Replicated sampling along environmental gradients increases confidence in true

351 positive detections of genotype-environmental associations (Rellstab et al., 2015), yet the

beetle's fragmented distribution in California limits replication across climatic conditions.

353 Another potential limitation is that temporal coverage of sampling was limited to one year in all

but the Sierra Nevada (SN) Ecoregions (Table 1), so that allele frequencies in these populations

355 may be influenced by environmental conditions in the collection year. Prior studies suggest that 356 genetic variation among SN, CB and CR populations has remained relatively stable since we last 357 sampled and analyzed them (Dellicour et al., 2014). We therefore expect that patterns reported 358 here reflect adaptation to long-term environmental conditions due to the geographic isolation 359 among populations.

Additionally, stringent SNP filter thresholds were applied to ensure quality genotypes within each population, resulting in a relatively modest set of polymorphisms (*N* = 22,323 SNPs). While these thresholds did not alter overall estimates of population structure (Figs S3-S5), candidate SNPs associated with environmental gradients in this study likely represent a subset of loci involved in local adaptation.

365 *Conclusion*

366 Many montane species live on the periphery of both suitable habitat and physiological tolerance, 367 which contributes to the unique sensitivity of montane populations to climate change. Even small 368 environmental changes may result in large implications for survival and reproductive success 369 (Dahlhoff et al., 2019; Pepin et al., 2015; Stewart et al., 2017). The willow leaf beetle has 370 emerged as a natural model for analyzing the relationship between adaptive genetic variation and 371 environmental change (Dahlhoff et al., 2019; Dahlhoff & Rank, 2000; Rank, 1992a; Rank et al., 372 2020b). By analyzing all known Californian C. aeneicollis populations across the nuclear 373 genome, this study represents the broadest investigation of adaptive genetic variation in the 374 species to date and provides a path forward for understanding the evolutionary significance of 375 variation at genes associated with response to environmental stress. Future work should identify 376 regions where genetic-environmental relationships will be most likely disrupted by climate

- 377 change and reduced snowfall, which will be critical for land management decisions and gene
- conservation in vulnerable populations (Shaffer et al., 2022).

380 Methods

381 *Study populations and sampling design*

382 Ecoregions were identified following United States Geological Survey (USGS) designations

- 383 (Griffith et al., 2016). Beetle populations from the Sierra Nevada ecoregion were surveyed at
- 384 winter snowmelt (May-June) from 1996-2016, following methods detailed in Dahlhoff et al.
- 385 2019 (Appendix 1.1). In all, 175 individuals from 54 sampling locations were included and
- assigned *a priori* to 12 populations (Table 1, Fig 1) based on previous work (Dellicour et al.,
- 387 2014a; Rank, 1992a; Rank et al., 2020a). These represent all known populations in California,
- 388 and they experience a wide range of seasonality, snow cover, and air temperature variation,
- 389 especially between montane and coastal regions (Table S3). Though allele frequencies can
- 390 fluctuate within a beetle population across years (Rank & Dahlhoff, 2002), the magnitude of
- 391 these fluctuations is relatively small compared to the magnitude of genetic divergence among
- regions (Dahlhoff et al., 2008; Dellicour et al, 2014; Rank et al., 2020).
- 393 DNA Library preparation and processing of genomic sequencing data
- 394 Genomic DNA was extracted from individual beetles using NucleoMag Bacteria DNA Isolation
- kit (Macherey-Nagel, Düren, Germany), and whole genome libraries were prepared following
- the plexWell library preparation protocol by the CCGP MiniCore. Paired-end sequencing (2 x
- 397 150 bp) was performed on an Illumina HiSeq4000 platform at UC Berkeley's QB3 Genomics
- 398 Core Facility (Berkeley, CA, USA). Nextera adapter sequences and low-quality bases (base
- **399** quality < 15, sliding window 4 bp) were removed from each read using Trimmomatic v0.39
- 400 (Bolger et al., 2014). Reads were aligned to a *Chrysomela aeneicollis* reference genome
- 401 (Bracewell et al., 2023) using the Burrows-Wheeler Aligner (BWA-MEM) algorithm (Li &

402 Durbin, 2009). Joint genotyping was performed on all samples using Genome Analysis Toolkit 403 (GATK) v4.2.6.0 functions HaplotypeCaller and GenotypeGVCFs (Poplin et al., 2017). Variant 404 data were filtered to include only biallelic SNPs, and SNPs were hard-filtered using GATK best-405 practice recommendations (Van der Auwera & O'Conner, 2020) (Table S2A). SNPs were 406 removed if minor allele frequency (MAF) across all individuals was less than 0.01 or if 407 heterozygote frequencies deviated greatly from Hardy Weinberg expectations (e.g., excess 408 heterozygosity or inbreeding coefficient greater than +0.5) (Table S2B). Finally, SNPs were 409 retained if 70% of all samples and 70% of samples within each population showed a read depth 410 between three and 30 and a genotype quality greater than 20 [Table S2C; (Xuereb et al., 2018)]. 411 After filtering, principal components analysis (PCA) was performed on Hellinger-transformed 412 population-level minor allele frequencies (Legendre & Gallagher, 2001; Xuereb et al., 2018). 413 Because variant filter thresholds influence estimates of population structure (Linck & Battey, 414 2019; Pearman et al., 2022), we assessed sensitivity of genetic differentiation to filter threshold 415 levels.

416 Microclimate variable simulation

417 To obtain spatially explicit environmental variables representing local microclimate conditions 418 across the life cycle, microclimate simulations were conducted for the 12 beetle populations 419 using the biophysical modeling package *NicheMapR* (Kearney & Porter, 2017). The model 420 computes microclimatic conditions at a defined distance above ground, given local habitat 421 properties and weather conditions. The microclimate model was run using historical gridded 422 weather data from the GRIDMET daily weather database with 5 x 5 km resolution (Abatzoglou, 423 2013). The mid-latitude, -longitude, and -elevation of all demes within each population were 424 used as input in the model (Table 1, S2). The microclimate model was run in soil moisture and 425 snow modes under both minimum (10%) and maximum shade (90%) conditions for 1989-2020. 426 Simulated variables included air temperature and humidity at 1.75 m above the ground, snow-427 related variables, and soil-related variables. To characterize mean environmental conditions, 428 daily microclimate variables were averaged over 30 simulated years (Table S3). We evaluated 429 sensitivity of simulated microclimate variables to input microclimate model parameters by 430 calculating RMSE between simulated outputs and empirically derived microclimate data from 431 available weather stations (California Department of Water Resources, CDEC). Air temperature 432 and snow depth data from CDEC were available for weather stations within 1 km of mid-433 elevation sites in Rock Creek, Big Pine Creek, South Bishop Creek, and North Bishop Creek. 434 Population genomic differentiation across the California landscape 435 Population structure from SNP genotypic data was assessed by estimating proportions of 436 individual genomes originating from ancestral gene pools. A range of estimated ancestral gene 437 pools (K = 1-10) were tested using a sparse non-negative matrix factorization algorithm using the 438 function 'snmf' in the R package LEA v.3.6.0 [(Frichot et al., 2014; Frichot & François, 2015), 439 K= 3-7 shown in Fig S11]. The value of K that minimized cross-entropy and best explained 440 genotypic data was five [(Alexander & Lange, 2011), Fig S6] and this value was used for 441 subsequent analysis. The 'snmf' function was also used to estimate individual ancestry 442 coefficients. Five replicates were run using the best estimate of K, and individual ancestry 443 coefficients were extracted from the replicate with the lowest cross-entropy.

444 To quantify contributions of geographic and environmental distances to patterns of445 genetic differentiation, we assessed isolation by distance (IBD) and isolation by environment

446 (IBE) for all population pairs using an analysis of covariance (ANCOVA). The ANCOVA tested 447 whether the means of pairwise F_{st} between populations were equal across habitat type, while 448 controlling geographic distance. Unbiased pairwise F_{st} using minor allele frequencies of all 449 populations were calculated using the R package BEDASSLE v.1.6 (Bradburd, 2022; Weir & 450 Hill, 2002). Pairwise geographic distance in kilometers was calculated using the R package *fields* 451 v.13.3 (Nychka & Furrer, 2021). Population pairs were identified as "coast vs. mountain" and 452 "mountain vs. mountain" to describe habitat type of populations, as this categorical descriptor 453 represents most environmental variation among populations (Table S3). Using the R package 454 rstatix v.0.7.1, ANCOVA was conducted with pair-wise F_{st} values as dependent variable, binary 455 environmental descriptor as categorical independent variable, and geographic distance as a 456 covariate. Least squares means were calculated for habitat types using the R package *emmeans* 457 v.1.8.3.

458 *Genotype-environment association tests to identify signatures of local adaptation*

459 Signatures of local adaptation to climate were investigated using two genotype-environment 460 association (GEA) methods, partial redundancy analysis [pRDA, (Borcard et al., 1992; Forester 461 et al., 2018; Peres-Neto et al., 2006)] and latent factor mixed modeling [LFMM, (Frichot et al., 462 2013), which control for signals generated by neutral processes through separate mechanisms. 463 Both GEA analyses were performed on two sets of populations: 1) all populations and 2) all 464 montane populations excluding the coastal (Gualala River) population. Partial redundancy 465 analysis (pRDA) was conducted at the population level since the resolution of environmental 466 data did not include environmental variation within a population. To account for isolation by 467 distance, we conducted a spatial eigenfunction analysis that produced a conditioning matrix in

468 the pRDA using distance-based Moran's eigenvector maps [Appendix 1.2, (Forester et al., 469 2018b)]. All simulated environmental variables were scaled and centered to produce the 470 environmental matrix, and forward selection was used to select significant environmental 471 predictors, with significant dbMEMs as explanatory conditioning matrix and Hellinger-472 transformed SNP minor allele frequencies as response matrix. The final pRDA was run with 473 significant (alpha < 0.05) environmental predictors using the R package vegan v2.6-2 (Oksanen 474 et al., 2022). Outlier loci on constrained ordination axes were determined based on loadings of 475 each locus in ordination space (Forester et al., 2018; Xuereb et al., 2018). 476 We then conducted a latent factor mixed model (LFMM) and documented overlap of 477 detections with results from pRDA (Bay et al., 2018; De Villemereuil et al., 2014; Forester et al., 478 2018; Nadeau et al., 2016). Neutral population structure due to shared demographic history or 479 background genetic variation is introduced through unobserved, latent factors (Frichot et al., 480 2013). This method used individual-based genotypic data, which assessed the effect of *a priori* 481 designated populations used previously in pRDA. The 'lfmm' function in the LEA package was 482 implemented using individual-level genotypic data (22,323 SNPs) as response matrix, forward-483 selected environmental variables used in pRDA as environmental predictors, and the best 484 estimate of K (estimated ancestral gene pools) as number of latent factors. More detailed GEA 485 methods are provided in Appendix 1.3. 486 *SNP* and protein functional annotations 487 We identified genes containing candidate SNPs and predicted SNP's coding effects with an 488 interval forest approach using the program SnpEff v.5.1 (Cingolani et al., 2012) and Caen 1.0

489 annotated genome (Bracewell et al., 2023). SNPs were annotated based on genomic location, and

- 490 coding effects were predicted (Appendix 1.4). To assign a putative protein name, protein
- 491 sequences were aligned to NCBI's protein database using BlastP (Table 3, S7, S10). Gene
- 492 Ontology (GO) terms were assigned to candidate genes using the functional annotation web
- 493 server database Protein ANNotation with Z-scoRE [PANNZER2, (Törönen et al., 2018)].
- 494

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794 Tables

795

796 Table 1. Localities and sample sizes for population genomic studies.

<i>Ecoregion</i> Population name	Latitude	Longitude	Elevation (m)	N sites	N beetles (total)	Year(s) ¹
Sierra Nevada						
Tuttle Creek (TC)	36.53779	-118.21530	3012	1	10	2019
Taboose Pass (TP)	36.96824	-118.43419	3321	3	18	2009
Big Pine Creek (BP)	37.12863	-118.48704	3142	11	28	1998-2014
Baker Creek (BK)	37.16780	-118.47143	3120	3	18	1999
S Bishop Creek (BC)	37.16601	-118.55171	3098	14	38	2004-2014
Tyee Lakes (TL)	37.18567	-118.57565	3191	4	9	2014
N Bishop Creek (NF)	37.21760	-118.64757	3131	6	12	2003-2014
Pine Creek (PC)	37.34442	-118.72861	3057	2	4	2013
Rock Creek (RC)	37.45561	-118.74034	3030	5	10	2013-2014
Central Basin						
Davis Creek (DC)	37.78392	-118.23650	2895	1	12	2003
Eastern Cascades						
Fitzhugh Creek (FC)	41.35091	-120.29662	1968	3	11	2020
Coast Range						
Gualala River (GR)	38.74906	-123.51919	12	1	8	2016

797 ¹We sampled newly emerged overwintered adults, either from the most recent population

798 expansion (2013-14), or the most recent observation of overwintered beetles at that site. Further

799 details of sampling design are described in Appendix 1.1.

Table 2. Candidate SNPs correlated with microclimate variables. Total number of SNPs are
shown. For genic SNPs, the number of unique genes containing at least one non-synonymous
(NSY) or synonymous (SYN) substitution, as well as genes where the SNP is located in an
intron, are also indicated. Candidate SNPs and genes are delineated by identification through
analyses with montane and coastal populations or analyses with only montane populations.

Microclimate	Populations	Detection Method	Number of SNPs		Number of genes			
variable	•		Total	Genic	NonSyn	Syn	Intron	
Air temperature	Montane &	pRDA & LFMM	67	33	4	11	18	
range	coastal	pRDA only	70	33	4	11	18	
Maximum	Montane &	pRDA & LFMM	26	16	4	4	4	
daily snowfall	coastal	pRDA only	39	21	5	4	7	
Maximum	Montane only	pRDA & LFMM	79	40	4	10	11	
daily snowfall		pRDA only	116	62	8	13	15	

807 Table 3. Candidate proteins that vary with microclimate. Proteins were identified using

- 808 BlastP alignment using predicted amino acid sequence; associated NCBI accession number is
- 809 noted for sequence with highest homology to reference taxa; populations included in analysis
- 810 (montane and coastal, montane only, or both) are indicated.

Gene ID	Amino acid variants	Protein	Reference sequence (taxa ^A , % identity) Accession number	Gene Ontology (GO) terms ^B
Air tempe	rature rang	ge		
Montane &	& Coastal			
05_00.257	Val/Ile	nuclear valosin-containing	Ld: 99, 71	ATP binding and hydrolysis ²
		protein-like	XP_023023254.1	ribosome binding ² , biogenesis ³
				telomerase activity ³
06_05.960	Asn/His	cytochrome P450 315a1,	Ld: 100, 58	Monooxygenase, oxidoreductase
		mitochondrial	XP_023020072.1	activity ² ; ecdysone biosynthesis ³
15_02.330	Leu/Phe	phospholipid transfer	Ag: 100, 75	membrane ¹ nucleotidyl trans. activity ²
		protein	XP_018561647.1	⁻ phosphorylation, signal transduction ³
Maximum	daily snow	vfall		
Montane &	& Coastal			
02_12.369	Ser/Gly	transmembrane protein 131	<i>Ld:</i> 94, 66	membrane ¹
			XP_023015832.1	
14_11.590	Val/Ala	testin ^C	<i>Tg</i> : 100, 63	zinc ion binding ²
			XP_008194458.1	
Montane o	nly			
02_16.309	Ser/Pro	long-chain-fatty-acid CoA	Ld: 99, 76	ligase activity ² , lipid metabolic process ³ ,
02 01 420	Vol/L ou	ligase	XP_023012248.1	neuron cellular homeostasis ³
05_01.420	v al/Leu	protein pigeon (FION)	XP 023019414.1	(amyloid-beta) formation ³
03_04.184	Asn/Asp	ankyrin repeat; IBR	Ag: 98, 81	metal ion binding ² ,
	_	domain-containing protein ^C	XP_018576173.1	ubiquitin-protein transferase activity ² , protein ubiquitination ³
04_00.113	Ile/Val	zinc transporter ZIP-1 like	Ld: 100, 67	metal ion transmembrane transporter
10 04 151	A //TD1	isoform ^C	XP_023015018.1	activity ^{2,3}
18_04.151	Asn/1hr	ridosomai protein	La: 100, 68	ribosome', translation'
			AP_023030473.1	
Montane &	z Coastal +	<i>Montane only</i>	A a: 98 63	actin cytoskeleton organization ²
10_13.100	$\frac{Glu}{Asp^3}$		XP 072210886 1	actin cytosketeton organization
20 02 224	Cln/Ula	microtubule actin cross	Du: 15 60	mambrana ¹ outockalaton ¹
20_03.324	GIII/HIS	linking factor	<i>DV</i> . 43, 09 XD 028121080 1	$Ca^{++} \text{ ion hinding}^2 \text{ microtubula hinding}^2$
			AI_020131709.1	cytoskeleton organization ³

811 ^AReference taxa: *Leptinotarsa decemlineata (Ld:* Colorado potato beetle), *Anoplophora glabripennis (Ag:* Asian

812 long-horned beetle), *Tribolium castaneum (Tc:* Red flour beetle), *Diabrotica virgifera (Dv:* Corn rootworm beetle).

813 ^BGOTerm Categories: cellular component¹, molecular function², biological process³

814 ^cSNP only detected with pRDA;^γSNP locations directly adjacent (Table S6)











821 California. A. Map of study populations. Abbreviation in parenthesis refers to population

- 822 ecoregion (SN: Sierra Nevada, CB: Central Basin, EC: Eastern Cascades, CR: Coast Range).
- 823 Inset map features the sampled populations located in the Sierra Nevada and Central Basin
- 824 ecoregions. Populations in the Sierra Nevada ecoregion are presented using a blue color gradient
- and are ordered based by latitude, south to north. representing increasing latitude. **B.** PCA

826	ordination highlighting genomic differentiation among populations based on the minor allele
827	frequencies. C. Stacked barplots for each individual ($N = 175$ total) indicate estimated ancestry
828	coefficients, representing the posterior probability that an individual originates from $K = 5$
829	ancestral gene pools. Colors below the stacked barplot indicate each individual's a priori
830	population designations, as shown in parts A and B. Two-letter population designations are
831	described in Table 1.



Figure 2. Genomic differentiation as a function of geographic distance and habitat type for
California willow beetle populations. Data shown highlight the relationship between pairwise
geographic distance (km) and pairwise genetic distance (*Fst*). The black lines indicate the fitted
values from the ANCOVA model, and points are color coded by the categorical independent
variable used in the ANCOVA model.



843 844 Figure 3. Partial redundancy analysis (pRDA) identifies candidate loci associated with 845 selective climatic gradients. A. Ordination of populations and environmental variable loadings 846 in multivariate space. Environmental variable loadings are multiplied by 10 to improve 847 visualization. B. Ordination of SNP loci and environmental variable loadings in multivariate 848 space. Outlier loci are colored based on correlation with an environmental variable (Pearson's r > 849 [0.65]). Environmental variable loadings are multiplied by 0.4 to improve visualization. Two-850 letter population designations are described in Table 3. Results of pRDA with only montane 851 populations are provided in Figure S7.



B. Maximum snowfall





4 Figure 4. Latent factor mixed model (LFMM) identifies candidate loci associated with

855 selective climatic gradients. Points indicate the FDR-adjusted p-value (q-value) of the

856 association between a locus and an environmental gradient. The dotted black line represents a q-

857 value of 0.05, and purple and red colored loci are those detected by the pRDA. A. Loci

858 associations with annual air temperature range. **B.** Loci associations with maximum daily

859 snowfall. Results of LFMM with only montane populations are provided in Figure S8.