

1 **The impact of biological invasion and genomic local adaptation on the**
2 **geographical distribution of *Aedes aegypti* in Panama**

3

4 Kelly L. Bennett*, W. Owen McMillan*¹ & Jose R. Loaiza*^{†‡}¹.

5

6 ¹W.O.M and J.R.L contributed equally to this work.

7

8 * Smithsonian Tropical Research Institute, P.O. Box 0843-03092, Balboa Ancon, República de
9 Panamá.

10 † Instituto de Investigaciones Científicas y Servicios de Alta Tecnología, P. O. Box 0843-01103,
11 Panamá, República de Panamá.

12 ‡ Programa Centroamericano de Maestría en Entomología, Universidad de Panamá, República de
13 Panamá.

14

15 **Corresponding author**

16

17 Correspondence and requests for materials should be addressed to K.L.B., email: bennettK@si.edu;

18 and to J.R.L., email: jloaiza@indicat.org.pa.

19

20 **Keywords**

21

22 *Aedes* mosquitoes, local adaptation, sequence capture, Environmental Association Analysis,

23 arboviral disease landscape, Panama

24

25

26 **Abstract**

27

28 Local adaptation is an important consideration when predicting arthropod-borne disease risk
29 because it can impact on vector population fitness and persistence. However, the extent that vector
30 populations are adapted to local environmental conditions and whether this can impact on species
31 distributions generally remains unknown. Here we find that the geographic distribution of *Ae.*
32 *aegypti* across Panama is rapidly changing as a consequence of the recent invasion by its ecological
33 competitor, *Aedes albopictus*. Although *Ae. albopictus* has displaced *Ae. aegypti* in some areas,
34 species coexist across many areas, raising the question: What biological and environmental factors
35 permit population persistence?. Despite low population structure and high gene flow in *Ae. aegypti*
36 across Panama, excepting the province of Bocas del Toro, we identify 128 candidate SNPs, clustered
37 within 17 genes, which show a strong genetic signal of local adaptation. This putatively adaptive
38 variation occurs across relatively fine geographic scales with the composition and frequency of
39 candidate adaptive loci differing between populations in wet tropical environments along the
40 Caribbean coast and the dry tropical conditions typical of the Pacific coast of Panama. Temperature
41 and vegetation were important predictors of adaptive genomic variation in *Ae. aegypti* with
42 potential areas of local adaptation occurring within the Caribbean region of Bocas del Toro, the
43 Pacific coastal areas of Herrera and Panama City and the eastern Azuero Peninsula. Interestingly,
44 several of these locations coincide with areas where *Ae. aegypti* and *Ae. albopictus* co-exist,
45 suggesting that *Ae. aegypti* could have an adaptive edge under local environmental conditions that
46 impacts on inter-specific competition with *Ae. albopictus*. Our results guide future experimental
47 work by suggesting that locally adapted *Ae. aegypti* are able to persist on invasion by *Ae. albopictus*
48 and, as a consequence, may fundamentally alter future arborviral disease risk and efforts to control
49 mosquito populations.

50

51

52 **Author Summary**

53

54 Local environmental adaptation of mosquito vectors can alter the landscape of arthropod-borne
55 disease by impacting on life history traits that increase their relative fitness thus promoting
56 population persistence. We have identified a number of genomic loci in *Ae. aegypti* from Panama
57 that exhibit a signal of natural selection associated with variation in the environment. Loci with a
58 signal of local adaptation are predominately partitioned between wet and dry tropical environments
59 with variation largely impacted by temperature and vegetation indices. Local adaptation in tandem
60 with changes in the geographic distribution of *Ae. aegypti* due to the recent invasion of its ecological
61 competitor, *Ae. albopictus*, has the potential to alter the landscape of arboviral disease.

62

63 **Introduction**

64

65 The establishment and persistence of vectors within new geographic locations poses a serious threat
66 from emerging and endemic arboviral diseases [1,2]. For example, shifts in the distribution of ticks
67 and *Culex* mosquitoes are linked to the rise of West Nile Virus and tick-borne encephalitis viruses
68 within North America [3–5]. In addition, the introduction of invasive *Aedes* mosquitoes has facilitated
69 the recent spread of Zika and Chikungunya viruses throughout the Americas [6,7]. Although
70 introduced vector populations are unlikely to be at their fitness optimum when first confronted with
71 a new environment, local adaptation may play a large role in disease dynamics as vectors adapt to
72 their environment, increase their relative fitness and acquire new traits, thus potentially increasing
73 the threat of human arboviruses. However, local environmental adaptation has not yet been
74 characterised for any *Aedes* mosquito.

75

76 The importance of adaptation for human disease is exemplified in *Aedes aegypti*'s evolution to human
77 commensalism and the establishment of a number of arboviruses worldwide [8]. This mosquito has
78 undergone behavioural and genetic changes in comparison to its ancestral African form, including the
79 evolution of house-entering behaviour and a preference for human odour and blood-feeding [9–11].
80 The adaptation of *Ae. aegypti* to exploit human environments has allowed for the spread of zoonotic
81 arboviral diseases from forest animals to humans and promoted invasiveness through human-assisted
82 dispersal [8]. Another human commensal, *Aedes albopictus*, is similar to *Ae. aegypti* across many
83 ecological axes. The tiger mosquito has expanded from Asia within the last ~40 years and is now also
84 globally distributed [12]. In many locations, *Ae. albopictus* has displaced resident *Ae. aegypti* [13,14],
85 but the factors that facilitate co-occurrence are still unclear [15]. Identifying the abiotic and biotic
86 factors important in *Aedes* species interactions, particularly whether the two *Aedes* mosquitoes
87 coexist is critical. These interactions are likely to fundamentally reshape the arboviral disease
88 landscape worldwide.

89

90 Here we characterize genome-wide variation in *Ae. aegypti* across Panama and use this data to
91 explore the interplay between invasion history, the potential for local adaptation, and ecological
92 change. Panama provides an ideal opportunity to begin to understand how these factors interact
93 and, ultimately, affect the disease landscape by impacting on *Aedes* species distributions. Panama is
94 a small country, measuring just 772 kilometres East to West and 185 km North to South, but
95 provides a wealth of contrasting climatic conditions and discrete environments. This is largely owing
96 to its situation as a narrow isthmus flanked by the Caribbean Sea and Pacific Ocean as well as the
97 Cordillera Central mountain range, which acts as a North-South divide. Panama is also a hub of
98 international shipping trade, providing an important route of *Aedes* mosquito invasion into the
99 Americas. Panama's worldwide connections have potentially facilitated multiple introductions of the
100 invasive *Ae. aegypti* mosquito dating back to the 18th century in association with the global shipping
101 trade [8,16,17]. In addition, the Pan-American highway bisects the country, stretches almost 48,000

102 km throughout mainland America and provides important conduit for human-assisted dispersal of
103 *Aedes* mosquitoes [13,18].

104

105 We first investigate how genomic variation in *Ae. aegypti* is distributed across Panama. Secondly,
106 we evaluate the historical and current geographic distributions of both this mosquito and *Ae.*

107 *albopictus*. *Aedes albopictus* was first documented in Panama in 2002, providing the opportunity to
108 study how the interactions between the two species play out across a heterogeneous landscape.

109 Finally, we investigate whether local environmental adaptation could play a role in *Aedes* population
110 dynamics by identifying loci with a genomic signal of local adaptation that are associated with

111 discrete environmental conditions. These genomic regions might allow *Ae. aegypti* populations to
112 persist in competition with invading *Ae. albopictus*. How this scenario plays out in Panama will

113 provide insight into global species interactions and the spatial heterogeneity of viral transmission.

114

115 **Results**

116

117 **Characterisation of sequence variation in *Ae. aegypti*.** We processed 70 *Ae. aegypti* individuals with
118 hybridisation capture-based enrichment from 14 localities widespread across Panama. An average

119 number of 27,351,514 reads were mapped to the genome for each individual with 62 % of these

120 targeted to the designed capture regions. The mean coverage depth per individual was

121 approximately 74X. After applying stringent quality filters, 371,307 SNP's were identified throughout

122 all captured regions for downstream analyses.

123

124 **Global and local population structure of *Ae. aegypti*:** Our large SNP dataset allowed us to examine
125 population structure across both global and local scales. Comparison of global population structure

126 was achieved by comparing a subset of 2,630 of our SNP's from Panama that were shared with a

127 previously acquired *Ae. aegypti* SNP dataset from 26 other countries worldwide [19–23].

128 FastStructure analysis revealed that the number of model components and model maximum
129 likelihood were maximised by assigning each individual to between K=4-6 populations (S1 Fig).
130 Similar to that reported previously, we found that the new world variation is composed of an
131 admixture of populations distinct from African and Asian sources at higher values of K [19,20] (S1
132 Fig). Individuals from Panama, Costa Rica, Colombia, the Caribbean islands and populations from
133 Arizona and Texas in South western USA were consistently composed of a similar composition
134 throughout each possible value of K (S1 Fig). Thus, *Ae. aegypti* from Panama were genetically similar
135 to those found throughout the Americas, consistent with a strong geographic component to the
136 distribution of genetic variation across the world [24].

137

138 Within Panama, the much larger dataset including all 371,307 SNP's, highlighted significant
139 population structure. There were two major genomic clusters (Fig 1B & 1C) that distinguished
140 individuals from Bocas del Toro province in the western Caribbean region compared to individuals
141 from all other regions across Panama, revealed on both FastStructure and PCA analysis of all SNP's.
142 In addition, *Ae. aegypti* from the eastern Azuero Peninsula also appeared somewhat genetically
143 discrete (Fig 1C). All areas of Panama, including sampling locations on the Azuero Peninsula had
144 similar levels of heterozygosity and therefore the population differences we observed are not
145 expected to result from a recent population bottleneck or from insecticide spraying treatment,
146 which is irregularly applied during epidemics to target adults only within the urban areas of Panama
147 (Fig 1B).

148

149 **The geographical distribution of *Ae. aegypti* in response to invasion by *Ae. albopictus*.** To
150 understand how the recent introduction of *Ae. albopictus* has shaped populations of *Ae. aegypti*
151 across Panama over the last decade, we coupled historical surveys of mosquito populations with
152 intensive sampling of focal populations over the last three years. Over the sampling period, there
153 has been significant changes in the geographic distribution of *Ae. aegypti* (Fig 2). Analysis of all

154 occurrence data throughout all years revealed that the presence of *Ae. aegypti* is positively and
155 significantly associated with the presence of *Ae. albopictus* (GLM, $Z = 18.93$, $d.f = 7390$, $P = 0.000$),
156 reflecting the ecological similarity of the two species and the continued expansion of *Ae. albopictus*
157 throughout much of *Ae. aegypti*'s historical range. Although both species now co-exist in many areas
158 throughout Panama, areas in the wet and humid western Azuero Peninsula, rural Chiriquí, Veraguas
159 and the province of Panamá outside of Panama City (Gamboa and Chilibre), were solely inhabited by
160 *Ae. albopictus*. This includes regions, from which *Ae. aegypti* was previously documented by the
161 health authorities, confirming that *Ae. albopictus* has indeed replaced *Ae. aegypti* in these areas. The
162 replacement of *Ae. aegypti* by *Ae. albopictus* was further supported by a general decrease in the
163 proportion of positive sampling sites. This proportion has decreased for *Ae. aegypti* since 2005 from
164 ~50 % to ~20 %, while the presence of *Ae. albopictus* has increased from 0 to ~65 % (S2 Fig). *Ae.*
165 *aegypti* continued to be found in high abundance in Bocas del Toro and Darién, where *Ae. albopictus*
166 has only recently arrived (Darién) or has not yet been documented (Bocas del Toro).

167

168 **Genomic evidence for local adaptation in *Ae. aegypti* in response to environmental**

169 **heterogeneity across Panama.** The spatial environmental heterogeneity of Panama coupled with
170 the recent population changes associated with the introduction of *Ae. albopictus* provides a
171 framework to ask if there was any evidence that local adaptation of *Ae. aegypti* might allow
172 population persistence. If so, we would expect populations of *Ae. aegypti* to harbour genomic loci
173 with a signal of selection that are correlated to the local environmental conditions. These loci are
174 expected to be present in regions of *Aedes* co-existence.

175

176 As a first step, we applied redundancy analysis (RDA) to jointly identify candidate outlier loci and to
177 assess how candidate variation was partitioned among the different environmental variables. In this
178 analysis, we tested a number of environmental variables including Normalized Difference Vegetation
179 Index (NDVI), average rainfall, average humidity, average minimum and maximum temperature, and

180 human population density. RDA identified 1,154 candidate SNP's with a genomic signal of local
181 adaptation, which we used to visualise putatively adaptive variation on ordination plots. Overall,
182 there was a partitioning of alleles dependant on dry tropical and wet tropical conditions. For
183 example, the position of sampled individuals on the RDA ordination plots, in relation to the depicted
184 environmental variables, revealed that the candidate genotypes of *Ae. aegypti* from the wet tropical
185 regions of Almirante and Changuinola in Bocas del Toro province were positively associated with
186 humidity and average rainfall. Those from the wet tropical region of Chiriquí Grande in Bocas del
187 Toro were also positively associated with increasing NDVI vegetation index and negatively associated
188 with higher temperatures (Fig 3A). In comparison, the candidate genotypes of individuals from dry
189 tropical regions of Panamá province (i.e., Princesa Mía, Lluvia de Oro, Nuevo Chorrillo), Los Santos
190 (i.e., La Villa de Los Santos, Pedasí), Darién (i.e., Metetí) and David in Chiriquí province were
191 somewhat positively influenced by both temperature variables and negatively associated with wet
192 and vegetated conditions. Putatively adaptive variation in individuals from the province of Colón
193 (i.e., Sabanitas and Portobelo), locations which receive high rainfall but higher temperatures and
194 lower vegetation cover than in Bocas del Toro province, were associated with intermediate
195 temperature and vegetation conditions.

196

197 RDA is robust in detecting adaptive processes that result from weak, multilocus effects across a
198 range of demographic scenarios and sampling designs [25]. However, a proportion of the 1,154
199 candidate loci identified through this single analysis were likely false positives. Thus, rather than
200 reflecting local adaptation, the strongly skewed frequency differences could be reflective of
201 demographic processes such as hierarchical population structure, isolation by distance, allele surfing
202 on range expansion and background selection, as well as, coincidental associations of allele
203 frequencies to environmental variation or even covariance to other environmental factors not
204 included in the analysis [26]. To further refine our identification of putatively adaptive loci, we
205 identified candidates using two additional methods, PCAdapt and Latent Factor Mixed Model

206 analysis (LFMM). Both are considered less sensitive to confounding demography due to their ability
207 to account for population structure or unobserved spatial autocorrelation in the data [27]. The three
208 methods identified different numbers of putatively adaptive loci. For example, compared to the
209 1,154 outlier SNP's identified by RDA, PCAdapt identified 352 SNP's (S3 Fig), whereas LFMM analysis
210 identified 3,426 outlier SNP's with a signature of selection widespread across the genome and
211 associated with the environment respectively (S4 Fig).

212

213 Across all three methods there were 128 SNP's consistently identified as outliers, providing greater
214 confidence that these loci are located in or close to genomic regions possibly involved in local
215 adaptation. These candidate SNPs fell into 15 distinct clusters, suggesting that linkage disequilibrium
216 was driving some of the observed patterns (S5 Fig). The 128 SNPs fell into 17 genes, 11 of which are
217 annotated as involved in structural functions, enzyme activity and metabolism (S1 Table). None of
218 these genes are known to be involved in the development of insecticide resistance in populations of
219 *Aedes* mosquitoes.

220

221 We further narrowed down which of the environmental variables contributed most to the
222 partitioning of genomic variation using a combination of Generalised Dissimilarity Modelling (GDM)
223 and Gradient Forests (GF) analyses. Both approaches allowed us to visualize the allelic turnover of
224 these putatively adaptive loci in relation to each environmental variable. The environmental
225 variables that contributed the greatest variance to both GDM and GF models on analysis of the 128
226 candidate loci were minimum and maximum temperature (S2 Table, S6 Fig). GDM analysis revealed
227 that an increase in average minimum temperature accompanied a large change in putatively
228 adaptive allele frequencies, visualised as a smooth curve accumulating in a steeper incline at the
229 higher temperature range (Fig 3B). In comparison, GF turnover plots show a steeper incline at the
230 mid-range for both average minimum and maximum temperature (S7 & S8 Fig). GDM analysis also
231 revealed a distinct frequency change in putatively adaptive alleles with increasing NDVI vegetation

232 index, although the change in allele frequency was relatively minor compared to that of minimum
233 temperature (Fig 3B). In comparison, a low to negligible difference in allele frequency was observed
234 in association with average rainfall, average humidity and human population density. Therefore, the
235 variation in putatively adaptive allele frequencies between populations from dry tropical and wet
236 tropical environments of Panama appears largely driven by differences in temperature and NDVI
237 vegetation index.

238

239 **The geographic distribution of candidate adaptive alleles in relation to the present**

240 **distribution of *Ae. albopictus*.** Across our 128 candidate SNP's, we used GDM and GF analysis to
241 visualise the change in frequencies across Panama, and therefore the geographical landscape
242 features which increase or decrease the genomic signature of local adaptation in relation to the
243 environment. GDM analysis presented a smoother turnover in the geographical distribution of
244 putatively adaptive loci than that of putatively neutral loci as indicated by a smoother transition in
245 the colour palette between proximal geographic locations (Fig 4A & 4B). For example, there was
246 similarity in the colouring and therefore allele composition between wet tropical regions along the
247 Caribbean coast (i.e., the mainland/islands of Bocas del Toro, Chiriquí, and both the inland and
248 Caribbean coastal regions stretching from Bocas del Toro through Veraguas to Colón). Similarly,
249 there was greater continuity between dry tropical areas including David in Chiriquí, the eastern
250 Azuero Peninsula (i.e., La Villa de Los Santos and Pedasí), the Pacific coastal regions stretching from
251 the Azuero Peninsula through Coclé to Panamá, and the Darién (i.e., Metetí), indicating that these
252 environments share putatively adaptive alleles. Patterns in the data were less distinct for GF analysis
253 but the geographical distribution of putatively adaptive variation agreed with the GDM analysis in
254 that there was a continuity in the allele composition between the eastern Azuero Peninsula and dry
255 tropical Pacific coastal regions, distinct from the wet tropical regions along the Caribbean coast (S9
256 Fig).

257

258 Allele frequency turnover as predicted under neutral conditions and a scenario of local adaptation
259 involving the candidate loci were compared across geographical space to identify locations that
260 show the greatest disparity. These reflected the populations within Panama expected to be
261 experiencing a strong genomic signal of local adaptation. Their comparison revealed multiple
262 patches of potential local adaptation widespread across Panama, with a palpable patch occurring in
263 the Azuero Peninsula, as indicated by a high distance between the patterns of predicted
264 compositional allele frequency turnover (Fig 4C). A genomic signal of local adaptation was not
265 identified in the region of Bocas del Toro. Since this region has a strong population structure and
266 distinct climate within Panama, it is likely that the co-correlation of population structure and
267 environmental variation across our sampling design hindered the inference of possible local
268 adaptation in this case. This conclusion was supported by FastStructure analysis of the 128
269 putatively adaptive loci, which revealed that *Ae. aegypti* from the wet tropical region Bocas del Toro
270 has a distinct allele composition composed of alleles assigned to a distinct composition of K
271 populations, including unique alleles in addition to those shared broadly across the dry tropical
272 regions of Panama (S10 Fig). Although the Talamanca mountain range was documented as a natural
273 geographical barrier to dispersal across the region of Bocas del Toro for some *Anopheles* mosquitoes
274 [28], this was not expected to hinder gene flow in *Ae. aegypti*, since human-assisted movement of
275 this mosquito occurs via the local transport network [18]. Partitioning of the genomic data into 6=K
276 populations revealed that Sabanitas on the Caribbean coast, which is subject to intermediate climate
277 conditions, shared some of the distinct alleles present in Bocas del Toro. Moreover, individuals from
278 the Azuero Peninsula, the driest and least vegetated region of Panama, were also somewhat distinct
279 from other sampled regions since they had reduced levels of admixture.

280

281 Comparison of the geographical distribution of putatively locally adapted *Ae. aegypti* as revealed by
282 GDM analysis and the species distribution data revealed that both *Ae. aegypti* and *Ae. albopictus*
283 tended to co-occur in regions where *Ae. aegypti* have divergent candidate loci, despite evidence for

284 species replacement elsewhere (Fig 5). Notably long-term co-existence was documented with the
285 Pacific regions of Panama City, Coclé, the eastern Azuero Peninsula and potentially David in Pacific
286 Chiriquí, where patches of local adaptation in *Ae. aegypti* were identified.

287

288 **Discussion**

289

290 We combined genomic and ecological data to investigate whether *Ae. aegypti* have a signal of local
291 adaptation to the environment, and to investigate whether this variation could influence species
292 persistence on invasion by the recently introduced competitor *Ae. albopictus*. We first documented
293 how fine-scale genomic variation within *Ae. aegypti* is distributed across a complex environment
294 [11]. On a regional scale, Panamanian populations of *Ae. aegypti* are genetically similar to other
295 Central and Caribbean American populations highlighting high dispersal potential and recent gene
296 flow in this invasive species; however, this similarity belies a more complex local genomic
297 architecture. Across Panama, genomic variation was not structured randomly, with the isolated
298 Bocas del Toro region showing significant overall population differentiation. Across the rest of
299 Panama, populations are more homogeneous suggesting high levels of gene flow, likely facilitated by
300 the dispersal of *Aedes* mosquitoes in used tyres that are traded along the Pan-American highway
301 [18]. Nonetheless, a subset of genomic variation was differentially distributed with evidence of
302 localised adaptation across a relatively small number of SNPs and over a relatively fine geographical
303 scale. Genomic variation in these SNPs was strongly correlated with temperature and NDVI
304 vegetation index. Both these abiotic variables were previously identified as important in predicting
305 large-scale *Aedes* distribution patterns [12]. Temperature is important for egg laying, development
306 and survival of *Ae. aegypti* in larval habitats [29] and likely to promote selection to thermal tolerance
307 at the adult stage to resist diurnal and inter-seasonal variation [30]. Vegetation is considered an
308 important variable that contributes to oviposition cues [31], feeding dynamics [32] and microhabitat
309 characteristics such as local moisture supply and shade [33,34]. Although correlational, the genomic

310 patterns raise an important question: Is population persistence in the face of an ongoing invasion by
311 *Ae. albopictus* the result of local adaptation?

312

313 The possibility of climatically adapted populations of *Ae. aegypti* is not without precedence. Data on
314 a wide range of organisms with varying dispersal abilities [35–41] demonstrate that even well-
315 connected populations can adapt to environmental differences and habitat heterogeneity across
316 narrow spatial scales. Similar to other landscape genomics studies on plants [42–44], insects [45]
317 and vertebrates [46], we have found a signal of local environmental adaptation across a small
318 number of loci. The inability to identify more putative regions under selection may be the result of
319 the analytical difficulties weak multilocus signatures from the genomic differentiation introduced by
320 genetic drift and demography [25,47]. However, selection on just a few loci with large effects is
321 expected when migration is high since large effect loci are better able to resist the homogenising
322 effects of gene flow [48]. These few regions are expected to have a strong impact on fitness in one
323 environment over the other because the allele with the highest fitness is expected to spread to all
324 populations if this condition is not met [48].

325

326 The pattern of recent population distribution change in *Ae. aegypti* in response to the introduction
327 of *Ae. albopictus* was also consistent with local adaptation. Similar to studies from the South Eastern
328 USA and Bermuda [49–54], we have found that species co-occurrence is condition dependant, with
329 the long-term persistence of *Ae. aegypti* occurring throughout many areas despite invasion by *Ae.*
330 *albopictus* 7 to 15 years ago. Previous studies have suggested *Ae. aegypti* is able to persist in dry
331 climate conditions and/or urban environments because they are better adapted [15 and refs within].
332 The eggs of *Ae. aegypti* are more tolerant to higher temperatures and desiccation in comparison to
333 the eggs of *Ae. albopictus*, which are able to survive lower temperatures through diapause [15,55].
334 Consistent with the prediction that local environmental adaptation contributes to *Ae. aegypti*
335 persistence, we found putatively adaptive loci within the dry tropical Pacific regions of Chiriquí

336 (David), Coclé, the eastern Azuero Peninsula and provincial Panamá where both species co-occur.
337 There was also genetic evidence for local adaptation in the isolated wet tropical region of Bocas del
338 Toro and Costa Abajo near Colon, but whether this variation will allow *Ae. aegypti* to resist invasion
339 by *Ae. albopictus* is unknown, given that *Ae. albopictus* was only recorded in Costa Abajo in 2018 and
340 has not yet reached Bocas del Toro. Alternatively, the present patterns of species co-existence could
341 simply reflect the abilities of *Aedes* species to exploit a different ecological niche without involving
342 local environmental adaptation. Nonetheless, this doesn't reconcile the fact that *Ae. aegypti* is no
343 longer found in many areas where candidate adaptive alleles were not detected. Our findings
344 provide us with clear testable hypotheses moving forward. For example, if the genomic regions we
345 identified are adaptive, then we expect genotype specific survival under different environmental
346 conditions, which can be tested in a common garden with reciprocal transplant experiment in the
347 presence of an ecological competitor.

348

349 The presence of locally adapted populations of *Ae. aegypti* could have a significant impact on the
350 future arboviral disease landscape. Climate variables, most notably precipitation and temperature
351 associated with altitudinal and latitudinal clines, are able to drive population differentiation in both
352 *Anopheles* mosquitoes and *Drosophila* flies [56–59]. In the former, the *Anopheles gambiae* species
353 complex is hypothesised to have radiated through ecological speciation driven by adaptation to
354 aridity and in response to larval habitat competition. This has led to a series of ecotypes with semi-
355 permeable species boundaries [60]. The resulting differences among ecotypes in anthropophily and
356 the adult resting behaviour has a significant impact on malaria transmission risk [61]. Thus, at the
357 most basic level, differentially adapted population variants of *Ae. aegypti* across Panama, could have
358 different abilities to vector arboviral disease [62–67]. In addition, environmental adaptation would
359 need to be considered in spatially predictive models. Currently, species geographic distribution or
360 disease prediction models incorporate a set of environmental parameters coupled with a predicted
361 outcome on mosquito biology and abundance without considering adaptive response [68,69].

362 Assuming that the whole population will respond to environmental precursors as a homogenous unit
363 is erroneous when local adaptation is present and considering adaptability as a parameter, in
364 combination with the environmental response, will improve the accuracy of future projections
365 [12,70]. Furthermore, the presence of locally adapted populations threatens the efficiency of gene
366 drive systems aimed at promoting disease resistance within mosquito populations. This is because
367 environmental differences between sites, as well as physical geographical barriers, will restrict
368 mosquito dispersal and therefore limit the spread of beneficial alleles or inherited bacteria [71].
369 However, if locally adaptive alleles are well-characterised, this knowledge could also potentially be
370 exploited. A more tailored approach could improve gene drive efficiency, since locally adapted
371 individuals are theoretically more likely to survive to pass on the intended benefit to the next
372 generation.

373

374 If local environmental adaptation is proven to influence *Aedes* co-occurrence, then this could
375 facilitate the emergence of sylvatic arboviral disease. *Ae. albopictus* is an opportunistic feeder, able
376 to utilise a wide range of peri-domestic habitats outside of its native range [72,73] and the species
377 could act as an efficient bridge vector for emergent zoonotic diseases from the forest [73]. The
378 addition of the specialised commensal *Ae. aegypti*, provides the opportunity for any emergent
379 epidemic to spread and be maintained within the urban population [8–11]. This scenario may have
380 happened recently, where yellow fever virus re-emerged from forest reservoirs in Brazil [74]. In this
381 case, the re-emergence was a function of both ecological changes and vaccination frequency. Unlike
382 yellow fever virus, there is no vaccination against dengue, Zika, or chikungunya, reinforcing the role
383 that ecological changes will likely play in future epidemics.

384

385 **Conclusion:** The identification of small number of putatively adaptive genomic intervals provides
386 exceptional experimental opportunities to determine 1) If these regions are in fact under selection,
387 2) How selection might be acting if our hypothesis is true. Defining species fitness in association with

388 our candidate loci will allow us to untangle the interplay between genomic process, the
389 environment, species competition and how these resolve the spatial distribution and abundance of
390 medically important *Ae. aegypti*. Advances will be used to improve the accuracy of disease
391 prediction models and characterise the genomic basis of adaptations with the capacity to alter the
392 epidemiological landscape.

393

394 **Materials and Methods**

395

396 **Mosquito Sampling** *Aedes* mosquitoes were collected through active surveillance and oviposition
397 traps placed across 35 settlements and nine provinces of Panama from 2016 and 2018 (S3 Table).
398 Immature stages of *Aedes* from each trap were reared to adulthood as separate collections in the
399 laboratory, identified using the morphological key of Rueda *et al.* [75] and stored in absolute ethanol
400 at -20°C.

401

402 **Genomics data.** DNA was extracted from 70 *Ae. aegypti* (Fig 1A), representing populations subject to
403 different environmental conditions using a modified phenol chloroform method [76]. To identify
404 putative regions involved in the local adaption of *Ae. aegypti*, 26.74 Mb of the AaeL3 exome were
405 targeted for capture. For each sample, 100 ng DNA was mechanically sheared to fragment sizes of ~
406 350-500 base pairs and processed to add Illumina adapters using the Kapa Hyperprep kit. Amplified
407 libraries were assessed on a Bioanalyser and Qubit before 24 uniquely barcoded individuals each
408 were pooled to a combined mass of 1 µg to create three libraries of 24 individuals for hybridization.
409 Sequence capture of exonic regions was performed on each pool according to the NimbleGen
410 SeqCap EZ HyperCap workflow and using custom probes designed by Roche for the regions we
411 specified (S1 Dataset).

412

413 Low quality base calls (<20) and Illumina adapters were trimmed from sequence ends with
414 TrimGalore [77], before alignment to the *Ae. aegypti* AaeL5 reference genome with Burrows-
415 Wheeler aligner [78]. Read duplicates were removed with BamUtil. Sequence reads were processed
416 according to the GATK best practise recommendations, trained with a hard-filtered subset of SNPs
417 using online recommendations ([https://gatkforums.broadinstitute.org/gatk/discussion/2806/howto-](https://gatkforums.broadinstitute.org/gatk/discussion/2806/howto-apply-hard-filters-to-a-call-set)
418 [apply-hard-filters-to-a-call-set](https://gatkforums.broadinstitute.org/gatk/discussion/2806/howto-apply-hard-filters-to-a-call-set)). SNPs were called with a heterozygosity prior 0.0014 synonymous to
419 previously reported values of theta [24]. Filters applied to the resulting SNP dataset included a
420 minimum quality of 30, minimum depth of 30, minimum mean depth of 20, maximum 95 % missing
421 data across individuals and a minor allele frequency ≥ 0.01 . Indels were additionally removed to
422 reduce uncertainty in true variable sites by poor alignment to the reference genome.

423

424 **Environmental Data.** Climate variables including average rainfall, average humidity, average
425 minimum and maximum temperature difference, average minimum temperature and average
426 maximum temperature were obtained for each collection site from interpolated raster layers
427 composed of values reported by Empresa de Transmisión Eléctrica Panameña (ETESA). All available
428 data points from 2010 to 2017 representing 50-60 meteorological stations across Panama were
429 averaged. NDVI vegetation indexes for Panama were obtained from MODIS Vegetation Indices 16-
430 day L3 Global 250m products (NASA, USA) with values averaged over all available images from 2010
431 to 2017. Human population density values were obtained from Instituto Nacional de Estadística y
432 Censo 2010. Raster layers for Generalised Dissimilarity Models and Gradient Forest analyses were
433 created for each variable by inverse distance interpolation across the extent of Panama to a
434 resolution of 0.05 pixels in QGIS version 2.18.15 [79].

435

436 The collinearity and covariance of the environmental data was assessed the R Stats package [80].
437 One variable, average minimum and maximum temperature difference was removed from analysis
438 because it was highly correlated with the other temperature variables (>0.8 correlation coefficient).

439 All other variable comparisons had a correlation coefficient below 0.7 and were retained for analysis
440 (S4 Table).

441

442 **Analysis of population structure.** FastStructure was also applied to all loci to infer the ancestry
443 proportions of K modelled populations [81]. The optimal model complexity (K^*e) was chosen to be
444 two populations using the python script chooseK.py and confirmed by a PCA of all loci performed
445 with the R package PCAdapt [82](see Analysis of local environmental adaptation below).

446 FastStructure analysis with a logistic prior was also applied to 2,630 SNP's shared with a worldwide
447 SNP dataset representing *Ae. aegypti* from 26 different countries [19–23].

448

449 **Species distribution analysis.** Historical data on species distributions from 2005 to 2017 was
450 obtained from the Panamanian Ministry of Health (MINSa). This data was obtained through active
451 surveillance of settlements regardless of time of year. A binomial Generalised Linear Model was
452 performed to test for an association between the presence and absence of *Ae. aegypti* with the
453 presence and absence of *Ae. albopictus* using the species occurrence data obtained from both
454 MINSa and our own sampling using the Stats package in R [80]. The proportion of sampling sites
455 positive for *Ae. aegypti* and *Ae. albopictus* presence from 2005 through 2018 were calculated by
456 combining our mosquito surveillance data with that obtained from MINSa. Maps of the species
457 distribution of *Ae. aegypti* and *Ae. albopictus* were produced in QGIS [79].

458

459 **Analysis of local environmental adaptation.** To identify loci with a signal of selection differentiated
460 across regional environmental conditions, three methods with different underlying algorithms and
461 assumptions were applied. Two EAA approaches, redundancy analysis (RDA) and latent factor mixed
462 models (LFMM) were implemented to identify loci associated with environmental predictors. RDA
463 uses multivariate regression to detect genomic variation across environmental predictors as
464 expected from a multilocus signature of selection [25]. In comparison, LFMM is a univariate

465 approach which models background variation using latent factors, while simultaneously correlating
466 the observed genotype frequencies of individuals to each environmental variable [83]. Before
467 implementation of RDA, missing genotype values were imputed as the most common across all
468 individuals. Loci which are strongly correlated to environmental predictors were then identified
469 through multivariate linear regression of the genomic data with the environmental variables
470 followed by constrained ordination of the fitted values as implemented with the RDA function in the
471 R package Vegan [84]. Multi collinearity of the data was verified to be low as indicated by genomic
472 inflation factors ranging from 1.31-5.80. Candidate loci were then identified as those which
473 contribute most to the significant axes as determined by F statistics [85]. To account for population
474 structure, we applied two latent factors to our LFMM analysis based on the PCA and scree plots of
475 proportion of explained variance produced with PCAdapt (see below). As per recommendations to
476 improve power, we filtered our data before analysis to include only sites with an MAF > 5 % and
477 analysed our data with five separate LFMM runs, each with 20,000 cycles after an initial burn-in
478 period of 10,000 cycles. Median Z-scores were calculated from the five runs and Bonferroni
479 corrected for multiple tests, before loci significantly correlated with environmental variables were
480 identified based on a false discovery rate of 10 % using the Benjamini-Hochberg procedure outlined
481 in the program documentation. Visualisation of the Bonferroni adjusted probability values for the
482 loci correlated with each environmental factor revealed that the majority of probability values were
483 at a flat distribution while those correlated with environmental variables were within a peak close to
484 0, indicating that confounding factors were under control. In addition to the two EAA analyses,
485 PCAdapt was applied to identify loci putatively under selection pressure because they deviate from
486 the typical distribution of the test statistic Z [82]. Two K populations were chosen to account for
487 neutral population structure in the data based on scree plots of the proportion of explained variance
488 and visual inspection of PCA and STRUCTURE plots which revealed that populations from the region
489 of Bocas del Toro form a distinct genomic grouping (Fig 1, S11 Fig).

490

491 **Distribution of candidate loci across geographical space.** Both putatively neutral and adaptive
492 genomic variation was visualised across geographic space using Generalised Dissimilarity Modelling
493 (GDM) and Gradient Forests (GF) analysis [86]. GDM is a regression-based approach which maps
494 allelic turnover using non-linear functions of environmental distance in relation to F_{ST} genetic
495 distance. In comparison, GF uses a machine learning regression tree approach. Through subsetting
496 the genomic and environmental data, the algorithm determines the degree of change for each allele
497 along an environmental gradient and calculates the resulting split importance. Allelic turnover was
498 investigated for both a set of reference SNP's, not expected to be under selective pressure, as well
499 as the loci putatively involved in local adaptation as jointly identified by LFMM, PCAdapt analysis and
500 RDA. SNP's representative of neutral variation included those not identified as a candidate outlier by
501 any of the three methods. So as to reduce the dataset and avoid inclusion of strongly linked loci,
502 SNP's were thinned by a distance of 10 KB, an appropriate cut-off as indicated by the calculation of
503 R_2 linkage disequilibrium values for this dataset (S12 Fig).

504

505 To perform GDM analysis, the R program StAMPP [87] was used to generate the input F_{ST} matrixes
506 and BBmisc [88] used to rescale the distances between 0 and 1. Environmental and genetic distance
507 data were converted to GDM format and analysis performed using the R package GDM [89]. GF
508 analysis [90] was implemented on a matrix of minor allele frequencies for each SNP for both the
509 reference and candidate datasets, obtained through VCFtools [91]. Both SNP datasets only included
510 loci present in at least 11 of 14 populations to ensure robust regression. The model was fitted with
511 2,000 regression trees, a correlation threshold of 0.5 and variable importance computed by
512 conditional permutation with a distribution maximum of 1.37. Both analyses included Moran's
513 eigenvector map (MEM) variables which are weightings derived from the geographic coordinates of
514 sampling locations used to model unmeasured environmental variation and geographic distance
515 analogous to latent factors [86]. To visualise the patterns in allele variation across space, PCA was
516 used to reduce the variability into three factors. The difference in genomic composition was mapped

517 across the landscape of Panama by assigning the three centred principle components to RGB
518 colours; similar genomic composition across space is indicated by a similar colour shade. The
519 difference in allele turnover for the reference and candidate dataset was characterised to explore
520 whether allelic turnover was greater than predicted under neutral expectations. Exploration was
521 achieved by comparing and visualising the compositional turnover of allele frequencies for both
522 reference and candidate SNP dataset across geographical space using a Procrustes superimposition
523 on the PCA ordinations.

524

525 **Acknowledgements**

526

527 We are grateful to Panama's Ministry of Environment (*Mi Ambiente*) and the Panamanian
528 community for supporting our scientific collections of insects in Panama, to Yamileth Chin and Marta
529 Vargas for their guidance in the laboratory and Jose R. Rovira, Carmelo Gómez Martínez and
530 Alejandro Almanza for their assistance in the field.

531

532 **Author contributions**

533

534 The study was designed by KLB, WOM and JRL, and conducted by KLB, WOM and JRL. Sample
535 preparation and laboratory procedures were conducted by KLB. KLB and JRL performed the data
536 analysis and figure preparation. KLB wrote the manuscript with contributions from WOM and JRL.

537

538 **Funding**

539

540 This work was supported by MINSA, the Zika project, the Secretariat for Science, Technology and
541 Innovation (SENACYT) through the research grant IDDS15-047, and from the National System of
542 Investigation (SNI) award to JRL. Research activity by KLB was supported by the Smithsonian

543 Institution Fellowship Program, George Burch Fellowship, The Edward M. and Jeanne C. Kashian
544 Family Foundation Inc and Mr Nicholas Logothetis of Chartwell Consulting Group Inc.

545

546 **Ethics Statement**

547 Field research conducted in Panama was authorised under the Ministerio de Ambiente permit
548 number SE/A-67-2016-9.

549

550 **Data availability**

551

552 SNP data is available in the Sequence Read Archive data repository XXX

553

554 **Competing interests**

555

556 The authors received funding from The Edward M. and Jeanne C. Kashian Family Foundation Inc. and
557 Nicholas Logothetis of Chartwell Consulting Group Inc. The funders had no role in study design, data
558 collection and analysis, decision to publish, or preparation of the manuscript. There are no patents,
559 products in development or marketed products associated with this research to declare.

560

561 **References**

- 562 1. Kilpatrick AM, Randolph SE. Drivers, dynamics, and control of emerging vector-borne
563 zoonotic diseases. *Lancet*. 2012;380: 1946–1955. doi:10.1016/S0140-6736(12)61151-9
- 564 2. Weaver SC, Reisen WK. Present and future arboviral threats. *Antiviral Res*. 2010;85: 328–345.
565 doi:<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.antiviral.2009.10.008>
- 566 3. Artsob H, Gubler D, Enria D, Morales MA, Pupo-Antunez M, Bunning M, et al. West Nile Virus
567 in the New World: Trends in the spread and proliferation of West Nile Virus in the western
568 hemisphere. *Zoonoses Public Health*. 2009;56: 357–369. doi:10.1111/j.1863-
569 2378.2008.01207.x
- 570 4. Gasmi S, Bouchard C, Ogden NH, Adam-Poupart A, Pelcat Y, Rees EE, et al. Evidence for
571 increasing densities and geographic ranges of tick species of public health significance other

- 572 than *Ixodes scapularis* in Québec, Canada. PLoS One. Public Library of Science; 2018;13:
573 e0201924. doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0201924
- 574 5. Sonenshine DE. range expansion of tick disease vectors in North America: Implications for
575 spread of tick-borne disease. Int J Environ Res Public Health. MDPI; 2018;15: 478.
576 doi:10.3390/ijerph15030478
- 577 6. Musso D, Cao-Lormeau VM, Gubler DJ. Zika virus: following the path of dengue and
578 chikungunya? Lancet. Elsevier; 2018;386: 243–244. doi:10.1016/S0140-6736(15)61273-9
- 579 7. Weaver SC. Arrival of chikungunya virus in the New World: prospects for spread and impact
580 on public health. PLoS Negl Trop Dis. Public Library of Science; 2014;8: e2921.
581 doi:10.1371/journal.pntd.0002921
- 582 8. Powell JR, Tabachnick WJ. History of domestication and spread of *Aedes aegypti* - A Review.
583 Mem Inst Oswaldo Cruz. Instituto Oswaldo Cruz, Ministério da Saúde; 2013;108: 11–17.
584 doi:10.1590/0074-0276130395
- 585 9. Brown JE, Evans BR, Zheng W, Obas V, Barrera-Martinez L, Egizi A, et al. Human impacts have
586 shaped historical and recent evolution in *Aedes aegypti*, the dengue and yellow fever
587 mosquito. Evolution. 2014;68: 514–525. doi:10.1111/evo.12281
- 588 10. Trpis M, Hausermann W. Genetics of house-entering behaviour in East African populations of
589 *Aedes aegypti* (L.) (Diptera: Culicidae) and its relevance to speciation. Bull Entomol Res.
590 1978;68: 521–532. doi:10.1017/S0007485300009494
- 591 11. McBride CS, Baier F, Omondi AB, Spitzer SA, Lutomiah J, Sang R, et al. Evolution of mosquito
592 preference for humans linked to an odorant receptor. Nature; 2014;515: 222.
593 doi:10.1038/nature13964
- 594 12. Kraemer MUG, Sinka ME, Duda KA, Mylne AQN, Shearer FM, Barker CM, et al. The global
595 distribution of the arbovirus vectors *Aedes aegypti* and *Ae. albopictus*. eLife; 2015;4: e08347.
596 doi:10.7554/eLife.08347
- 597 13. Miller MJ, Loaiza JR. Geographic Expansion of the invasive mosquito *Aedes albopictus* across
598 Panama—Implications for control of dengue and chikungunya viruses. PLoS Negl Trop Dis;
599 2015;9: e0003383. doi:10.1371/journal.pntd.0003383
- 600 14. Kamal M, Kenawy MA, Rady MH, Khaled AS, Samy AM. Mapping the global potential
601 distributions of two arboviral vectors *Aedes aegypti* and *Ae. albopictus* under changing
602 climate. PLoS One; 2019;13: e0210122. doi://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0210122
- 603 15. Lounibos LP, Juliano SA. Where vectors collide: the importance of mechanisms shaping the
604 realized niche for modeling ranges of invasive *Aedes* mosquitoes. Biol Invasions. 2018;20:
605 1913–1929. doi:10.1007/s10530-018-1674-7
- 606 16. Bennett KL, Shija F, Linton Y-M, Misinzo G, Kaddumukasa M, Djouaka R, et al. Historical
607 environmental change in Africa drives divergence and admixture of *Aedes aegypti*
608 mosquitoes: a precursor to successful worldwide colonization? Mol Ecol. 2016;25: 4337–
609 4354. doi:10.1111/mec.13762

- 610 17. Eskildsen GA, Rovira JR, Dutari LC, Smith O, Miller MJ, Bennett KL, et al. Maternal invasion
611 history of *Aedes aegypti* and *Aedes albopictus* into the Isthmus of Panama: Implications for
612 the control of emergent viral disease agents. *PLoS One*. 2018;13: e0194874.
- 613 18. Bennett KL, Gómez Martínez C, Almanza A, Rovira JR, McMillan WO, Enriquez V, et al. High
614 infestation of invasive *Aedes* mosquitoes in used tires along the local transport network of
615 Panama. *Parasit Vectors*. BioMed Central; 2019;12: 264. doi:10.1186/s13071-019-3522-8
- 616 19. Kotsakiozi P, Gloria-Soria A, Schaffner F, Robert V, Powell JR. *Aedes aegypti* in the Black Sea:
617 recent introduction or ancient remnant? *Parasit Vectors*. BioMed Central; 2018;11: 396.
618 doi:10.1186/s13071-018-2933-2
- 619 20. Kotsakiozi P, Evans BR, Gloria-Soria A, Kamgang B, Mayanja M, Lutwama J, et al. Population
620 structure of a vector of human diseases: *Aedes aegypti* in its ancestral range, Africa. *Ecol*
621 *Evol.*; 2018;8: 7835–7848. doi:10.1002/ece3.4278
- 622 21. Pless E, Gloria-Soria A, Evans BR, Kramer V, Bolling BG, Tabachnick WJ, et al. Multiple
623 introductions of the dengue vector, *Aedes aegypti*, into California. *PLoS Negl Trop Dis*;
624 2017;11: e0005718. doi: 10.1371/journal.pntd.0005718
- 625 22. Saarman NP, Gloria-Soria A, Anderson EC, Evans BR, Pless E, Cosme L V, et al. Effective
626 population sizes of a major vector of human diseases, *Aedes aegypti*. *Evol Appl*; 2017;10:
627 1031–1039. doi:10.1111/eva.12508
- 628 23. Gloria-Soria A, Lima A, Lovin DD, Cunningham JM, Severson DW, Powell JR. Origin of a high-
629 latitude population of *Aedes aegypti* in Washington, DC. *Am J Trop Med Hyg*; 2018;98: 445–
630 452. doi:10.4269/ajtmh.17-0676
- 631 24. Rašić G, Filipović I, Weeks AR, Hoffmann AA. Genome-wide SNPs lead to strong signals of
632 geographic structure and relatedness patterns in the major arbovirus vector, *Aedes aegypti*.
633 *BMC Genomics*. 2014;15: 275. doi:10.1186/1471-2164-15-275
- 634 25. Forester BR, Lasky JR, Wagner HH, Urban DL. Comparing methods for detecting multilocus
635 adaptation with multivariate genotype–environment associations. *Mol Ecol*; 2018;27: 2215–
636 2233. doi:10.1111/mec.14584
- 637 26. Rellstab C, Gugerli F, Eckert AJ, Hancock AM, Holderegger R. A practical guide to
638 environmental association analysis in landscape genomics. *Mol Ecol*; 2015;24: 4348–4370.
639 doi:10.1111/mec.13322
- 640 27. de Villemereuil P, Frichot É, Bazin É, François O, Gaggiotti OE. Genome scan methods against
641 more complex models: when and how much should we trust them? *Mol Ecol*; 2014;23: 2006–
642 2019. doi:10.1111/mec.12705
- 643 28. Loaiza J, Miller M. Historical and contemporary forces combine to shape patterns of genetic
644 differentiation in two species of Mesoamerican *Anopheles* mosquitoes. *Biol J Linn Soc*.
645 2019;126: 146–157. doi:10.1093/biolinnean/bly168
- 646 29. Brady OJ, Golding N, Pigott DM, Kraemer MUG, Messina JP, Reiner Jr RC, et al. Global
647 temperature constraints on *Aedes aegypti* and *Ae. albopictus* persistence and competence

- 648 for dengue virus transmission. *Parasit Vectors*. 2014;7: 338. doi:10.1186/1756-3305-7-338
- 649 30. Brady OJ, Johansson MA, Guerra CA, Bhatt S, Golding N, Pigott DM, et al. Modelling adult
650 *Aedes aegypti* and *Aedes albopictus* survival at different temperatures in laboratory and field
651 settings. *Parasit Vectors*. 2013;6: 351. doi:10.1186/1756-3305-6-351
- 652 31. Afify A, Galizia CG. Chemosensory cues for mosquito oviposition site selection. *J Med*
653 *Entomol*. 2015;52: 120–130. doi:10.1093/jme/tju024
- 654 32. Tun-Lin W, Burkot TR, Kay BH. Effects of temperature and larval diet on development rates
655 and survival of the dengue vector *Aedes aegypti* in north Queensland, Australia. *Med Vet*
656 *Entomol*; 2000;14: 31–37. doi:10.1046/j.1365-2915.2000.00207.x
- 657 33. Lounibos LP, O’Meara GF, Juliano SA, Nishimura N, Escher RL, Reiskind MH, et al. Differential
658 survivorship of invasive mosquito species in South Florida cemeteries: Do site-specific
659 microclimates explain patterns of coexistence and exclusion? *Ann Entomol Soc Am*.
660 2010;103: 757–770. doi:10.1603/AN09142
- 661 34. Vezzani D, Rubio A, Velázquez SM, Schweigmann N, Wiegand T. Detailed assessment of
662 microhabitat suitability for *Aedes aegypti* (Diptera: Culicidae) in Buenos Aires, Argentina. *Acta*
663 *Trop*. 2005;95: 123–131. doi:10.1016/j.actatropica.2005.03.010
- 664 35. Exposito-Alonso M, Vasseur F, Ding W, Wang G, Burbano HA, Weigel D. Genomic basis and
665 evolutionary potential for extreme drought adaptation in *Arabidopsis thaliana*. *Nat Ecol Evol*.
666 2018;2: 352–358. doi:10.1038/s41559-017-0423-0
- 667 36. Hancock AM, Brachi B, Faure N, Horton MW, Jarymowycz LB, Sperone FG, et al. Adaptation to
668 Climate Across the *Arabidopsis thaliana*; Genome. *Science*. 2011;334: 83 LP – 86.
669 doi:10.1126/science.1209244
- 670 37. Oliveira EF, Martinez PA, São-Pedro VA, Gehara M, Burbrink FT, Mesquita DO, et al. Climatic
671 suitability, isolation by distance and river resistance explain genetic variation in a Brazilian
672 whiptail lizard. *Heredity*. 2018;120: 251–265. doi:10.1038/s41437-017-0017-2
- 673 38. Zhen Y, Harrigan RJ, Ruegg KC, Anderson EC, Ng TC, Lao S, et al. Genomic divergence across
674 ecological gradients in the Central African rainforest songbird (*Andropadus virens*). *Mol Ecol*;
675 2017;26: 4966–4977. doi:10.1111/mec.14270
- 676 39. Ahrens CW, Byrne M, Rymer PD. Standing genomic variation within coding and regulatory
677 regions contributes to the adaptive capacity to climate in a foundation tree species. *Mol Ecol*;
678 2019;28: 2502–2516. doi:10.1111/mec.15092
- 679 40. Miller AD, Hoffmann AA, Tan MH, Young M, Ahrens C, Cocomazzo M, et al. Local and regional
680 scale habitat heterogeneity contribute to genetic adaptation in a commercially important
681 marine mollusc (*Haliotis rubra*) from southeastern Australia. *Mol Ecol*; 2019;0.
682 doi:10.1111/mec.15128
- 683 41. Geue JC, Vágási CI, Schweizer M, Pap PL, Thomassen HA. Environmental selection is a main
684 driver of divergence in house sparrows (*Passer domesticus*) in Romania and Bulgaria. *Ecol*
685 *Evol*; 2016;6: 7954–7964. doi:10.1002/ece3.2509

- 686 42. Prunier J, Laroche J, Beaulieu J, Bousquet J. Scanning the genome for gene SNPs related to
687 climate adaptation and estimating selection at the molecular level in boreal black spruce. *Mol*
688 *Ecol*; 2011;20: 1702–1716. doi:10.1111/j.1365-294X.2011.05045.x
- 689 43. Shryock DF, Havrilla CA, DeFalco LA, Esque TC, Custer NA, Wood TE. Landscape genomics of
690 *Sphaeralcea ambigua* in the Mojave Desert: a multivariate, spatially-explicit approach to
691 guide ecological restoration. *Conserv Genet*. 2015;16: 1303–1317. doi:10.1007/s10592-015-
692 0741-1
- 693 44. Pais AL, Whetten RW, Xiang Q-Y (Jenny). Ecological genomics of local adaptation in *Cornus*
694 *florida* L. by genotyping by sequencing. *Ecol Evol*; 2017;7: 441–465. doi:10.1002/ece3.2623
- 695 45. Dudaniec RY, Yong CJ, Lancaster LT, Svensson EI, Hansson B. Signatures of local adaptation
696 along environmental gradients in a range-expanding damselfly (*Ischnura elegans*). *Mol Ecol*;
697 2018;27: 2576–2593. doi:10.1111/mec.14709
- 698 46. Bay RA, Harrigan RJ, Le Underwood V, Gibbs HL, Smith TB, Ruegg K. Genomic signals of
699 selection predict climate-driven population declines in a migratory bird. *Science*; 2018;359:
700 83–86.
- 701 47. Hoban S, Kelley JL, Lotterhos KE, Antolin MF, Bradburd G, Lowry DB, et al. Finding the
702 genomic basis of local adaptation: Pitfalls, practical solutions, and future directions. *Am Nat*.
703 2016;188: 379–397. doi:10.1086/688018
- 704 48. Savolainen O, Lascoux M, Merilä J. Ecological genomics of local adaptation. *Nat Rev Genet*;
705 2013;14: 807.
- 706 49. Bargielowski I, Carrasquilla MC, Nishimura N, Lounibos LP. Coexistence of *Aedes aegypti* and
707 *Aedes albopictus* (Diptera: Culicidae) in peninsular Florida two decades after competitive
708 displacements. *J Med Entomol*. 2016;53: 1385–1390. doi:10.1093/jme/tjw122
- 709 50. O’meara GF, Evans Leonard F. J, Gettman AD, Cuda JP. Spread of *Aedes albopictus* and
710 decline of *Ae. aegypti* (Diptera: Culicidae) in Florida. *J Med Entomol*. 1995;32: 554–562.
711 doi:10.1093/jmedent/32.4.554
- 712 51. Braks MAH, Honório NA, Lounibos LP, Lourenço-de-Oliveira R, Juliano SA. Interspecific
713 competition between two invasive species of container mosquitoes, *Aedes aegypti* and *Aedes*
714 *albopictus* (Diptera: Culicidae), in Brazil. *Ann Entomol Soc Am. BioOne*; 2004;97: 130–139.
- 715 52. Juliano SA. Species introduction and replacement among mosquitoes: Interspecific resource
716 competition or apparent competition? *Ecology. Ecological Society of America*; 1998;79: 255–
717 268. doi:10.1890/0012-9658(1998)079[0255:SIARAM]2.0.CO;2
- 718 53. Kaplan L, Kendell D, Robertson D, Livdahl T, Khatchikian C. *Aedes aegypti* and *Aedes*
719 *albopictus* in Bermuda: extinction, invasion, invasion and extinction. *Biol Invasions*. 2010;12:
720 3277–3288. doi:10.1007/s10530-010-9721-z
- 721 54. Leisnham P, Juliano S. Interpopulation differences in competitive effect and response of the
722 mosquito *Aedes aegypti* and resistance to invasion by a superior competitor. *Oecologia*.
723 2010. doi:10.1007/s00442-010-1624-2

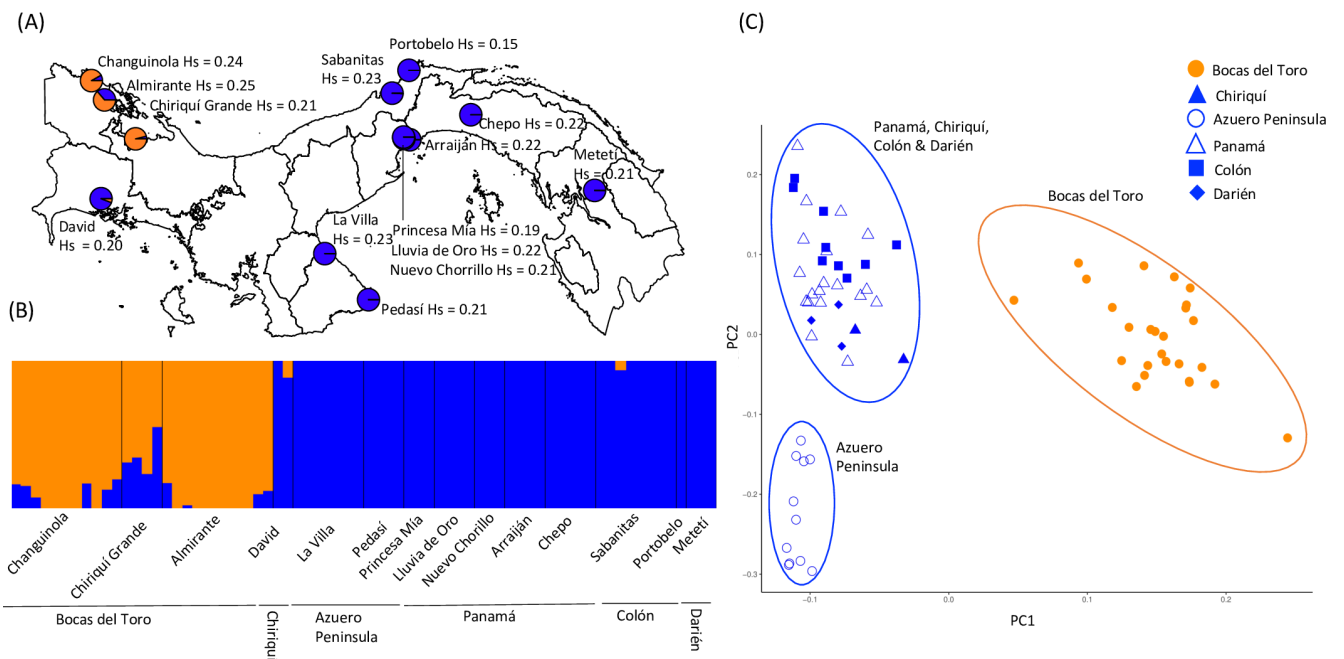
- 724 55. Juliano SA, O'Meara GF, Morrill JR, Cutwa MM. Desiccation and thermal tolerance of eggs
725 and the coexistence of competing mosquitoes. *Oecologia*. 2002;130: 458–469.
726 doi:10.1007/s004420100811
- 727 56. Kapun M, Fabian DK, Goudet J, Flatt T. Genomic evidence for adaptive inversion clines in
728 *Drosophila melanogaster*. *Mol Biol Evol*. 2016;33: 1317–1336. doi:10.1093/molbev/msw016
- 729 57. Love RR, Steele AM, Coulibaly MB, Traore SF, Emrich SJ, Fontaine MC, et al. Chromosomal
730 inversions and ecotypic differentiation in *Anopheles gambiae*: the perspective from whole-
731 genome sequencing. *Mol Ecol*. 2016;25: 5889–5906. doi:10.1111/mec.13888
- 732 58. Simard F, Ayala D, Kamdem GC, Pombi M, Etouna J, Ose K, et al. Ecological niche partitioning
733 between *Anopheles gambiae* molecular forms in Cameroon: the ecological side of speciation.
734 *BMC Ecol*. 2009;9: 17. doi:10.1186/1472-6785-9-17
- 735 59. Cheng C, White BJ, Kamdem C, Mockaitis K, Costantini C, Hahn MW, et al. Ecological
736 genomics of *Anopheles gambiae* along a latitudinal cline: a population-resequencing
737 approach. *Genetics*; 2012;190: 1417–1432. doi:10.1534/genetics.111.137794
- 738 60. Ayala D, Ullastres A, González J. Adaptation through chromosomal inversions in *Anopheles* .
739 *Frontiers in Genetics*. 2014. p. 129. doi:10.3389/fgene.2014.00129
- 740 61. White BJ, Collins FH, Besansky NJ. Evolution of *Anopheles gambiae* in relation to humans and
741 malaria. *Annu Rev Ecol Evol Syst*; 2011;42: 111–132. doi:10.1146/annurev-ecolsys-102710-
742 145028
- 743 62. Gonçalves CM, Melo FF, Bezerra JMT, Chaves BA, Silva BM, Silva LD, et al. Distinct variation in
744 vector competence among nine field populations of *Aedes aegypti* from a Brazilian dengue-
745 endemic risk city. *Parasit Vectors*. 2014;7: 320. doi:10.1186/1756-3305-7-320
- 746 63. Roundy CM, Azar SR, Rossi SL, Huang JH, Leal G, Yun R, et al. Variation in *Aedes aegypti*
747 mosquito competence for Zika Virus Transmission. *Emerg Infect Dis J*. 2017;23: 625.
748 doi:10.3201/eid2304.161484
- 749 64. Vega-Rúa A, Zouache K, Girod R, Failloux A-B, Lourenço-de-Oliveira R. High level of vector
750 competence of *Aedes aegypti* and *Aedes albopictus* from ten American countries as a crucial
751 factor in the spread of Chikungunya virus. *J Virol. Am Soc Microbiol*; 2014;88: 6294–6306.
- 752 65. Hugo LE, Stassen L, La J, Gosden E, Ekwudu O, Winterford C, et al. Vector competence of
753 Australian *Aedes aegypti* and *Aedes albopictus* for an epidemic strain of Zika virus. *PLoS Negl*
754 *Trop Dis*; 2019;13: e0007281. doi:10.1371/journal.pntd.0007281
- 755 66. Lounibos LP, Kramer LD. Invasiveness of *Aedes aegypti* and *Aedes albopictus* and vectorial
756 capacity for chikungunya virus. *J Infect Dis*; 2016;214: S453–S458. doi:10.1093/infdis/jiw285
- 757 67. Chouin-Carneiro T, Vega-Rua A, Vazeille M, Yebakima A, Girod R, Goindin D, et al. Differential
758 susceptibilities of *Aedes aegypti* and *Aedes albopictus* from the Americas to Zika Virus. *PLoS*
759 *Negl Trop Dis*; 2016;10: e0004543. doi: 10.1371/journal.pntd.0004543
- 760 68. Kalluri S, Gilruth P, Rogers D, Szczur M. Surveillance of arthropod vector-borne infectious

- 761 diseases using remote sensing techniques: A review. *PLOS Pathog*; 2007;3: e116.
762 doi:10.1371/journal.ppat.0030116
- 763 69. Bartlow WA, Manore C, Xu C, Kaufeld AK, Del Valle S, Ziemann A, et al. Forecasting zoonotic
764 infectious disease response to climate change: mosquito vectors and a changing
765 environment. *Veterinary Sciences* . 2019. doi:10.3390/vetsci6020040
- 766 70. Kearney M, Porter WP, Williams C, Ritchie S, Hoffmann AA. Integrating biophysical models
767 and evolutionary theory to predict climatic impacts on species' ranges: the dengue mosquito
768 *Aedes aegypti* in Australia. *Funct Ecol*; 2009;23: 528–538. doi:10.1111/j.1365-
769 2435.2008.01538.x
- 770 71. Jiggins FM. The spread of *Wolbachia* through mosquito populations. *PLOS Biol*; 2017;15:
771 e2002780. Available: <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pbio.2002780>
- 772 72. Faraji A, Egizi A, Fonseca DM, Unlu I, Crepeau T, Healy SP, et al. Comparative host feeding
773 patterns of the Asian tiger mosquito, *Aedes albopictus*, in urban and suburban Northeastern
774 USA and implications for disease transmission. *PLoS Negl Trop Dis*; 2014;8: e3037–e3037.
775 doi:10.1371/journal.pntd.0003037
- 776 73. Pereira Dos Santos T, Roiz D, Santos de Abreu FV, Luz SLB, Santalucia M, Jiolle D, et al.
777 Potential of *Aedes albopictus* as a bridge vector for enzootic pathogens at the urban-forest
778 interface in Brazil. *Emerg Microbes Infect*; 2018;7: 191. doi:10.1038/s41426-018-0194-y
- 779 74. Possas C, Lourenço-de-Oliveira R, Taulil PL, Pinheiro F de P, Pissinatti A, Cunha RV da, et al.
780 Yellow fever outbreak in Brazil: the puzzle of rapid viral spread and challenges for
781 immunisation. *Mem Inst Oswaldo Cruz*; 2018;113: e180278–e180278. doi:10.1590/0074-
782 02760180278
- 783 75. Rueda LM. Pictorial keys for the identification of mosquitoes (Diptera: Culicidae) associated
784 with dengue virus transmission. *Zootaxa*; 589:1-60. 2004.
- 785 76. Surendran SN, Sarma DK, Jude PJ, Kempainen P, Kanthakumaran N, Gajapathy K, et al.
786 Molecular characterization and identification of members of the *Anopheles subpictus*
787 complex in Sri Lanka. *Malar J*. 2013;12: 304. doi:10.1186/1475-2875-12-304
- 788 77. Krueger F. Trim Galore!: A wrapper tool around Cutadapt and FastQC to consistently apply
789 quality and adapter trimming to FastQ files; 2015. Available from
790 https://www.bioinformatics.babraham.ac.uk/projects/trim_galore/
- 791 78. Li H, Durbin R. Fast and accurate long-read alignment with Burrows–Wheeler transform.
792 *Bioinformatics*; 2010;26: 589–595. doi:10.1093/bioinformatics/btp698
- 793 79. QGIS Development Team. QGIS Geographic Information System. Open Source Geospatial
794 Foundation Project. Available from <http://qgis.osgeo.org>. 2019.
- 795 80. R Core Team. R: A language and environment for statistical computing. R Foundation for
796 Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria. Available from <http://www.R-project.org/>. 2019;
- 797 81. Raj A, Stephens M, Pritchard JK. fastSTRUCTURE: Variational Inference of Population
798 Structure in Large SNP Data Sets. *Genetics*. 2014;197: 573 LP – 589.

- 799 doi:10.1534/genetics.114.164350
- 800 82. Luu K, Bazin E, Blum MGB. PCADAPT: An R Package to Perform Genome Scans for Selection
801 Based on Principal Component Analysis. *bioRxiv*. 2016; 56135. doi:10.1101/056135
- 802 83. Frichot E, Schoville SD, Bouchard G, François O. Testing for Associations between Loci and
803 Environmental Gradients Using Latent Factor Mixed Models. *Mol Biol Evol*; 2013;30: 1687–
804 1699. doi:10.1093/molbev/mst063
- 805 84. Oksanen J, Blanchet FG, Friendly M, Kindt R, Legendre P, McGlenn D, et al. vegan: Community
806 Ecology Package. . Available from <https://cran.r-project.org/web/packages/vegan/index.html>.
807 2018.
- 808 85. Legendre P, Oksanen J, ter Braak CJF. Testing the significance of canonical axes in redundancy
809 analysis. *Methods Ecol Evol*; 2011;2: 269–277. doi:10.1111/j.2041-210X.2010.00078.x
- 810 86. Fitzpatrick MC, Keller SR. Ecological genomics meets community-level modelling of
811 biodiversity: mapping the genomic landscape of current and future environmental
812 adaptation. *Ecol Lett*; 2014;18: 1–16. doi:10.1111/ele.12376
- 813 87. Pembleton LW, Cogan NOI, Forster JW. StAMPP: an R package for calculation of genetic
814 differentiation and structure of mixed-ploidy level populations. *Mol Ecol Resour*. 2013;13:
815 946–952. doi:10.1111/1755-0998.12129
- 816 88. Bischi B, Lang M, Bossek J, Horn D, Richter J, Surmann D. BBmisc: Miscellaneous Helper
817 Functions for B. Bischi. 2017. Available from <https://rdr.io/cran/BBmisc/>
- 818 89. Manion G, Lisk M, Ferrier S, Nieto-Lugilde D, Mokany K, Fitzpatrick MC. gdm: Generalized
819 Dissimilarity Modeling. 2018. Available from <https://rdr.io/cran/gdm/>
- 820 90. Ellis N, Smith SJ, Pitcher CR. Gradient forests: calculating importance gradients on physical
821 predictors. *Ecology*; 2012;93: 156–168. doi:10.1890/11-0252.1
- 822 91. Group 1000 Genomes Project Analysis, Auton A, Albers CA, Banks E, Marth GT, Lunter G, et
823 al. The variant call format and VCFtools. *Bioinformatics*. 2011;27: 2156–2158.
824 doi:10.1093/bioinformatics/btr330
- 825
- 826
- 827
- 828
- 829
- 830
- 831
- 832

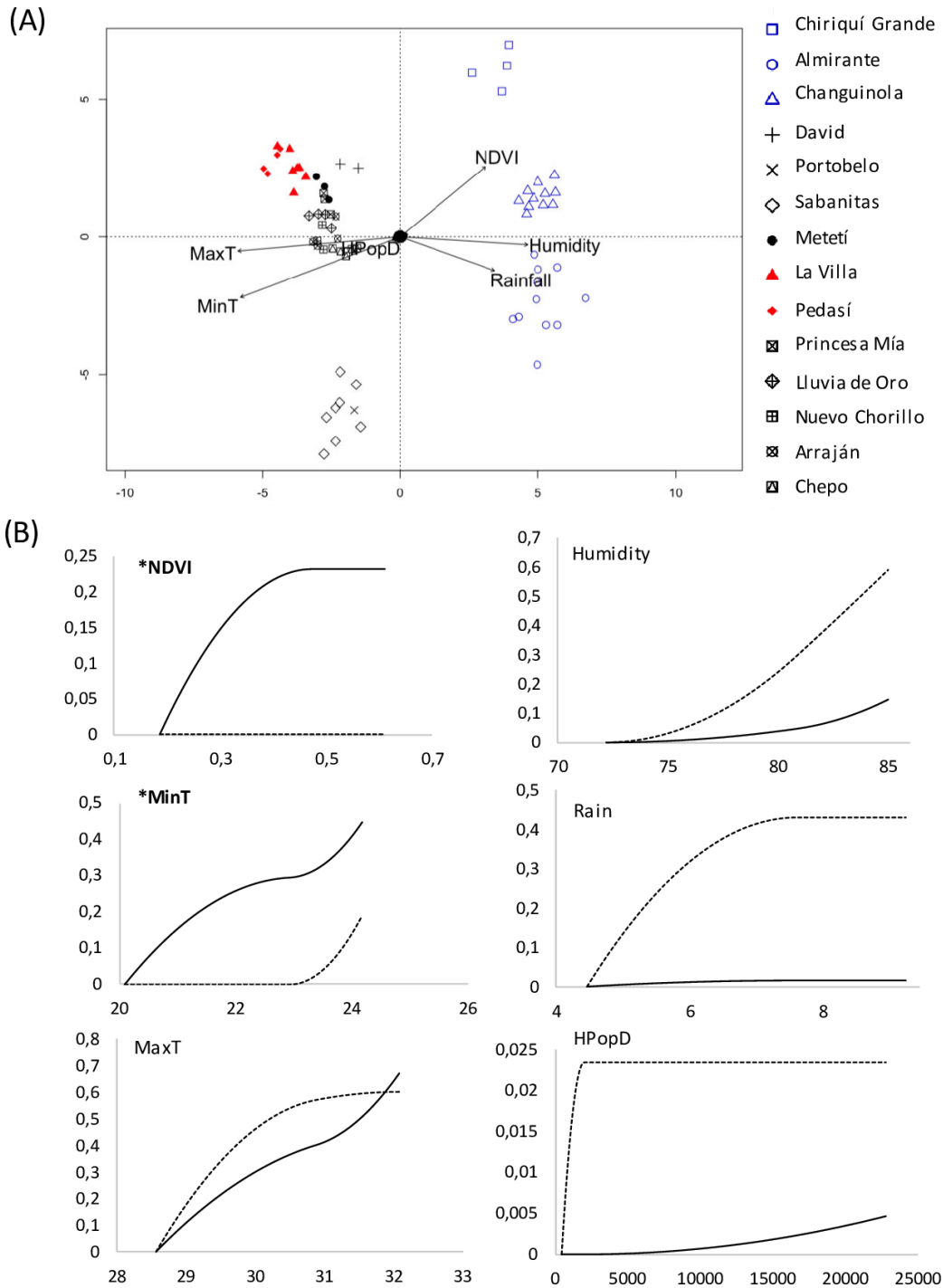
833

834



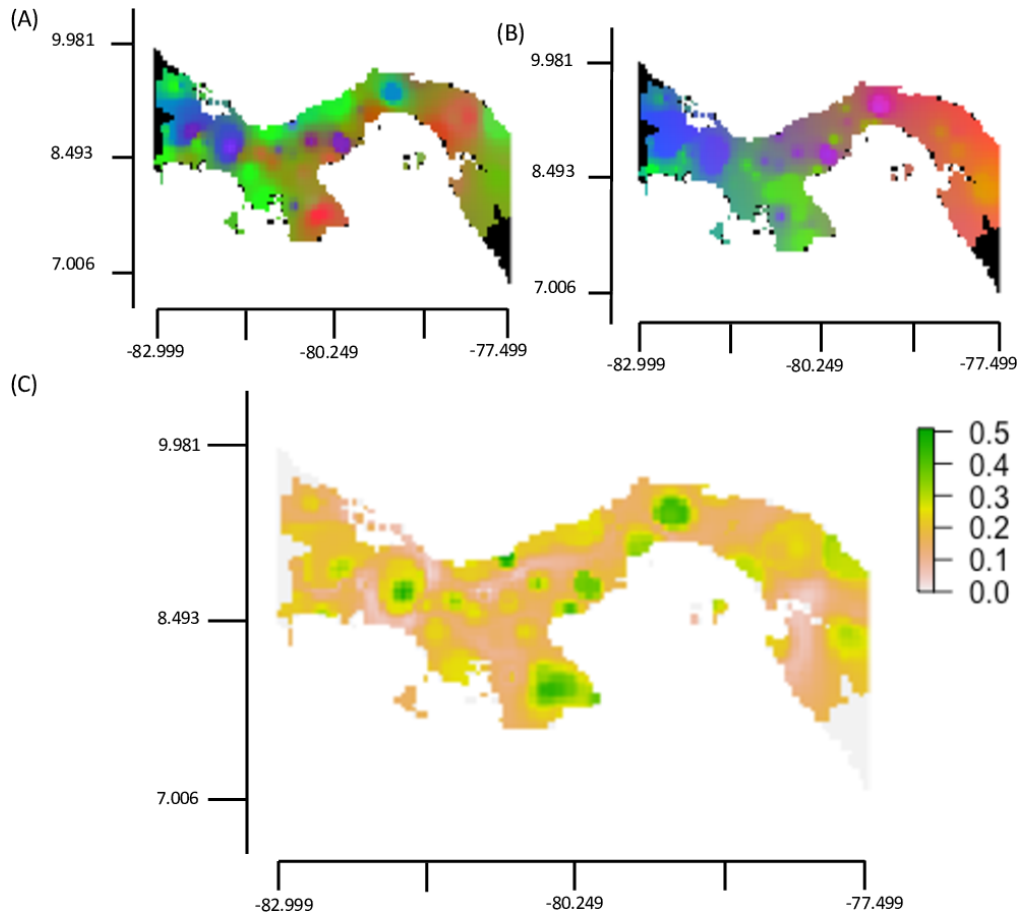
835

836 **Fig 1. Strong local population structure within the context of regional homogeneity and global**
837 **population structure:** (A) FastStructure plot of K=6 populations comparing 2,630 SNP's in individuals
838 of *Ae. aegypti* from Bocas del Toro and the rest of Panama to genetically similar populations
839 originating from South-western USA, Caribbean islands, Costa Rica and Columbia. FastStructure
840 assigns each individual to one or more K populations, as indicated by its colour. Genetically similar
841 populations share the same colour or similar admixture composition on comparison. (B) Admixture
842 proportions of K=2 populations in relation to sampling locations and population heterozygosity Hs of
843 *Ae. aegypti* across Panama as determined by FastStructure for 371,307 SNP's. (C) PCA of all *Ae.*
844 *aegypti* SNP's grouped by region.
845



846

847 **Fig 2. The species replacement and co-occurrence of *Aedes* species is condition dependent:** (A)
 848 The presence of *Ae. aegypti* (orange), *Ae. albopictus* (blue) and species co-occurrence (yellow)
 849 recorded by extensive sampling with both active surveillance and oviposition traps during the wet
 850 season months from 2016 through to 2018 in comparison to (B) Species occurrence data recorded
 851 from 2005 through 2017 through active surveillance by the Ministry of Health in Panama.

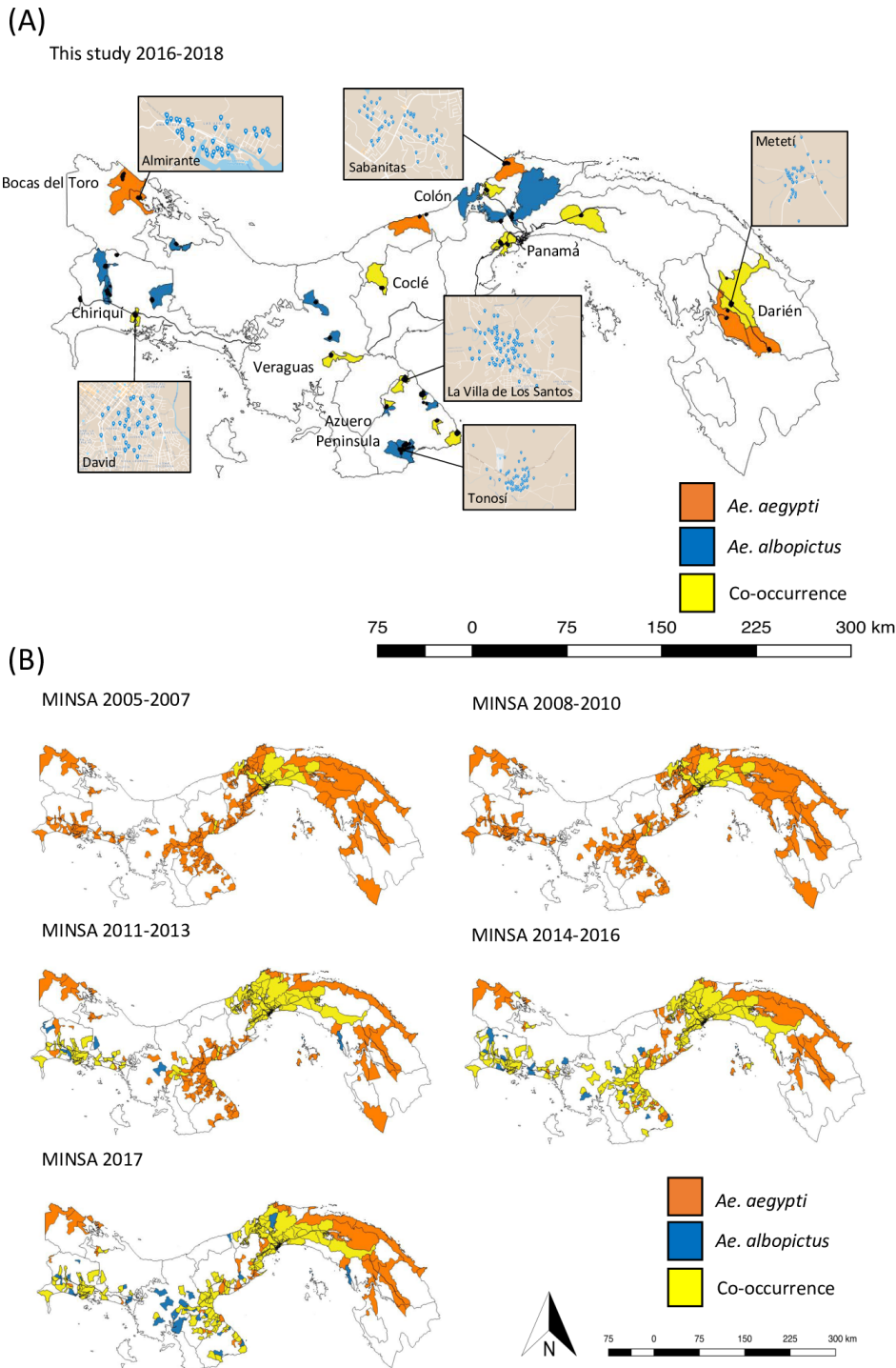


852

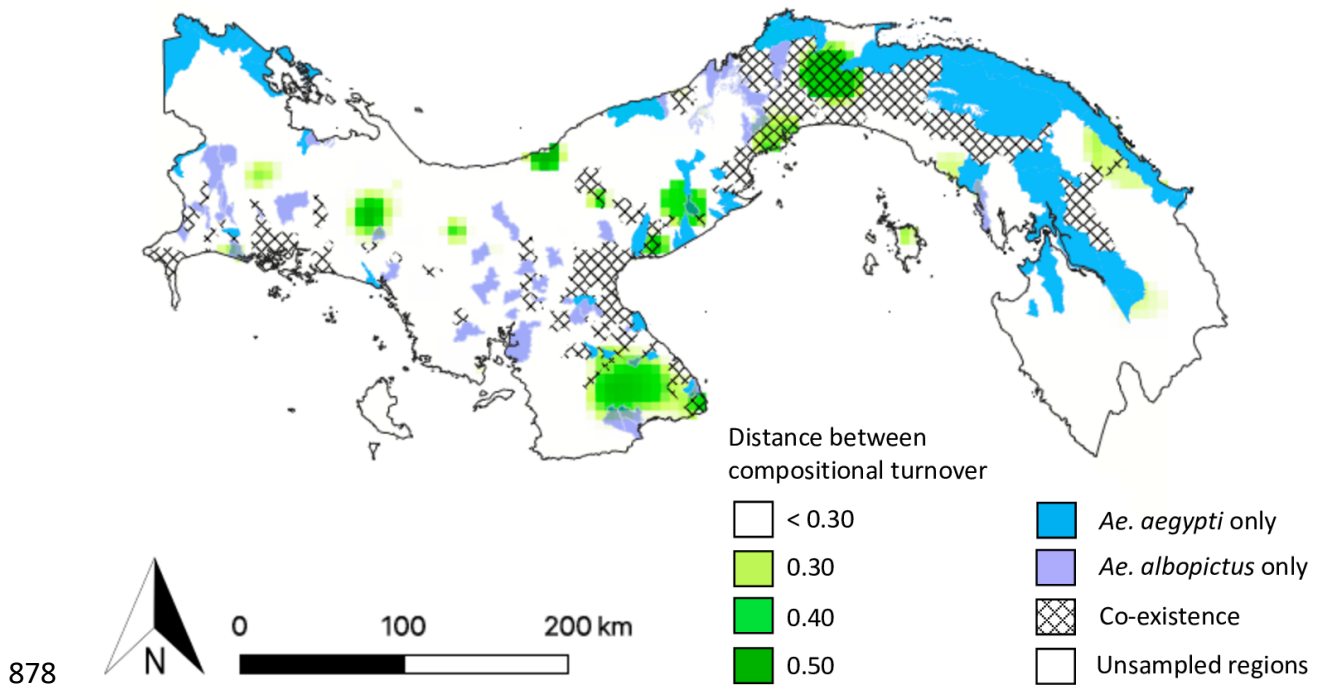
853 **Fig 3. Putative adaptive variation in *Ae. aegypti* is partitioned between wet and dry tropical**
854 **environments and associated with temperature and vegetation indices:** (A) Ordination triplot of
855 the first two constrained ordination axes of the redundancy analysis representing SNP's either
856 positively or negatively associated with the environmental variables as depicted by the position of
857 the arrows. *Ae. aegypti* from the wettest region (blue) and driest region (red) are highlighted. (B)
858 Compositional turnover splines for GDM analysis for the reference loci that are putatively neutral
859 (dashed line) and the 128 candidate loci with a signal of local adaptation (black line) in association
860 with NDVI vegetation index (NDVI), average minimum temperature (MinT), average maximum
861 temperature (MaxT), average humidity (Humidity), average rainfall (Rain) and human population
862 density (HPopD). A change in allele frequency relative to the reference loci is seen in the putatively
863 adaptive alleles with increasing values of NDVI and MinT, marked in bold with an asterix.

864

865



867 **Fig 4. Patches of local adaptation are revealed on comparison of putative neutral and adaptive**
 868 **variation across geographical space:** RGB maps of compositional allele frequency turnover over across
 869 geographical space based on GDM analysis of (A) putatively neutral loci, (B) the 128 candidate loci
 870 with a signal of local adaptation and (C) the difference in allele compositional turnover between the
 871 putatively neutral reference loci and putatively adaptive candidate dataset using a Procrustes
 872 superimposition on the PCA ordinations. On maps (A) and (B), the dissimilarity between allele
 873 composition is depicted by an increasing divergent colour spectrum. Locations with a similar allele
 874 composition are a similar colour. On map (C), the scale represents the distance between the allele
 875 compositional turnover of the reference and candidate SNP datasets, with higher distances
 876 indicating areas that are potentially experiencing local adaptation.
 877



879 **Fig 5. Putatively adaptive loci are predicted in *Ae. aegypti* populations within areas of species co-**
880 **existence.** Corregimientos with *Aedes* co-occurrence (dashed areas) are shown based on the most
881 recent species distributions recorded during this study in 2018 and in other sampled regions by
882 MINSa in 2017. The co-occurrence data is overlaid onto the compositional turnover of the reference
883 and candidate SNP dataset from Figure 4., with values greater than 0.30 shown. Green coloured
884 areas represent regions with a greater predicted distance between the allele composition of the
885 reference and candidate datasets, indicating the potential presence of locally adapted *Ae. aegypti*.
886 Corregimientos where only *Ae. aegypti* (blue) and *Ae. albopictus* (purple) were present are also
887 indicated.