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Article

Analysis of the genetic variation of the *Fruitless* gene within the *An. gambiae* (*Diptera*: *Culicidae*) complex populations in Africa.

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Simple Summary: Gene drive technologies for vector or pest control require to target a genomic region showing minimal variability to ensure the rapid spread of the genetic construct in the field, without the emergence of resistance. In this study, we have analyzed the genetic variation of the *Fruitless* gene (X: 1283016-1373662) within 18 populations of *An. gambiae* s.l in Africa. The variants density and the nucleotide diversity were low in the exonic regions of the *fru* gene especially the male sex-specific region, the BTB-exon 1 and 2, the zinc-finger B and C exons. These regions also showed high conservation scores. The allelic frequencies of the non-synonymous SNPs were low (freq < 0.26) except two SNPs identified at high frequencies (freq > 0.8) in the Zinc-finger A and B protein domains. The sex-specific region could be targeted to induce male *fru* splicing in Anopheles females to deeply investigate the ectopic effect of *fru* protein in the females phenotypes until then less known in *Culicidian* species. Understanding these ectopic effects in females and successful integration of the same modifications in males could help to maintain this line by back-crossing and possibly use it as a vector control tool.

Abstract: Targeting genes involved in sexual determinism for vector or pest control purpose, requires a better understanding of their polymorphism in natural populations in order to ensure a rapid spread of the construct. By using genomic data from *An. gambiae* s.l., we analyzed the genetic variation and the conservation score of the *fru* gene in 18 natural populations across Africa. A total of 34339 SNPs were identified including 3.11% non-synonymous segregating sites. Overall, the nucleotide diversity was low and the Tajima's D neutrality test was negative indicating an excess of low frequency SNPs in the *fru* gene. The allelic frequencies of the non-synonymous SNPs were low (freq < 0.26) except two SNPs identified at high frequencies (freq > 0.8) in the Zinc-finger A and B protein domains. The conservation score was variable throughout the *fru* gene with maximum values in the exonic compared to the intronic regions. These results showed a low genetic variation in overall the exonic regions especially the male sex-specific exon and the BTB-exon 1 of the *fru* gene. These findings are crucial for the development of a gene drive construct targeting the fru gene that can rapidly spread without encountering resistance in wild populations.

Keywords: *Fruitless*, genomics, *An. gambiae* s.l, vector control, Africa.

1. Introduction

In the animal kingdom, the male and female sexes show different morphological and behavioral characteristics. These characteristics are governed by genetics elements that are expressed through various signal to determine the sex of the individual [1]. In insects, sexual dimorphism starts commonly by a primary activation of a central gene that induces

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molecular cascade mechanisms controlling alternative splicing of the *Doublesex* (*dsx*) and *Fruitless* (*fru*) genes [2–4]. Therefore, these two genes (*dsx* and *fru*) are considered as the endpoint in the sex determination mechanism in insects. Although all the molecular processes involved in the sexual differentiation are less understood, available data suggest the implication of the *Yob1* gene, a maleness gene located on the *An. gambiae* Y chromosome, as the central gene trigging the male sexual differentiation of the Anopheles species [5,6].

In *Drosophila melanogaster* and *Aedes aegypti*, the *fru* gene is expressed in the central nervous system and it takes part in the construction of a neuronal network to direct the male courtship behavior [2]. The courtship behavior, as complex as it is, regroups a set of behavioral interactions in which the male engages a succession of actions including orientation and pursuit of females until they copulate. Studies have also shown the role of the *fru* gene in the construction of a set of abdominal muscles including the muscle of Lawrence (MOL) necessary for the copulation [7,8]. In *D. melanogaster*, *fru* mutants show abnormal mating behavior due to the inability to distinguish the partner, a copulation failure and a weakened abdominal muscle. These mutant males also exhibit a little wing extension and no song pulse signal was generated when flapping their wings. The ectopic expression of FRU^{M} in *Drosophila* females induced a masculinization of these females with MOL formation. The examination of the abdomen of the *An. gambiae* males compared to those of the females has led to the identification of a sexually dimorphic muscle structure in the A5 abdominal segment similar to the Lowrence muscle [9]. This muscle structure appears thicker, significantly longer and more built with more protruding extension sites than its corresponding in the female's A5 abdominal segment. Although the direct involvement of the *fru* gene in *Anpheles* male sexual orientation is less known, previous data recorded from closely related species notably the *Drosophilidae* species and *Ae. aegypti* confirm the role of the *fru* gene in the male courtship regulation [8,10].

Comparative analysis of the *fru* gene of the three dipteran species mainly *An. gambiae, D. melanogaster* and *Ae. aegypti* has revealed a similar sex-splicing pattern and conservation of certain domain and function between these species. Comparing of male and female mRNA sequences of the *fru* gene provided insights into the sex-specific splicing pattern in *An. gambiae*. During splicing, the female-specific isoform incorporates an early stop codon leading to the production of nonfunctional protein. Conversely in males, the sex-splicing pattern excludes the female-specific region producing a transcript that is normally translated into functional protein. This sex-splicing pattern, previously well known in Drosophila species, is shown to be the fundamental element switching the sexual orientation in insects species [8,9].

Current malaria control strategies rely essentially on the use of antimalarial drugs (artemisinin-based combination therapies) against the parasites and insecticides (mainly pyrethroids and carbamates) to target vector populations. The intensive use of these tools has contributed significantly to the reduction of malaria incidence, morbidity, and mortality over the past decade [11]. Recent years, due to the rapid raise and the generalization of the technical and entomological issues in malaria control, the current control tools seem to be ineffective and obsolete for reaching malaria elimination [12]. The emergence and rapid spread of insecticides resistance, as well as the changes in biting and resting behavior, and the diversity of the vectoral system in Africa, raise concerns about a dramatic reduction in LLIN and IRS effectiveness [13–16]. To address these challenges, innovative malaria control tools are being developed to strengthen current tools and accelerate malaria elimination. For example, genetic control strategies aim to reduce the reproductive and/or vectorial capacity of vectors by distorting the sex ratio, reducing females fecundity, or by making them unable of transmitting pathogens. One of the most promising approaches uses gene drive technologies to reduce the reproductive potential of the mosquito by disrupting genes essential for female reproduction [17–19]. Recently a gene drive was used to disrupt the female-specific intron-4-exon-5 boundary of the *dsx* gene in the African malaria vector *An. gambiae*. *Dsx* mutant females showed deep morphological ab-

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normalities and were unable to mate or take a blood meal, both essential for female reproduction. Releases of *dsx* mutant gene drive mosquitoes in small and large cages resulted in the rapid spread of the transgene and complete *An. gambiae* population suppression in less than a year [17,20]. Based on the success of the *dsx* gene drive, the development of self-sustaining and self-limiting genetic technologies targeting genes of the sex determination pathway, to reduce reproductive capacity and population size of vector species, has been a priority. *Fru* is an attractive candidate since its disruption in *D. melanogaster* and *Ae. aegypti* was shown to alter courtship behaviour and reduce successful matings [7,10,21]. For this purpose, it is crucial to target a genomic region showing minimal variability to ensure the rapid spread of the genetic construct in the field, without the emergence of resistance [17,22]. To the end, we analyzed the diversity and the abundance of single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) in the *fru* gene within the *An. gambiae* complex populations to identify the most conserved regions that would be suitable as gene drive targets. We also determined the non-synonymous variants dynamic and the conservation score of the gene. These findings are crucial for the development of a gene drive construct targeting the *fru* gene that can rapidly spread without encountering resistance in wild populations.

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2. Materials and Methods

2.1. Genomics data and Mosquito collection

The genomic data used in this study are from the Ag1000G phase 3 project and were publicly published in February 2021. These data are from 2784 wild caught *An. gambiae* mosquito species collected in 19 malaria-endemic countries in sub-Saharan Africa [23]. More details on the mosquito samples collection, the sequencing technology used, the storage and the management of the genomic data including the SNPs variants calling, haplotypes phasing and copy number variants identification including the rights to access these data have been described on the homepage of MalariaGEN. Briefly the mosquito samples were individually sequenced at high coverage using Illumina technology at the Wellcome Sanger Institute. The genomic data were then analyzed using BWA version 0.7.15 and GATK version 3.7-0 to call high quality SNPs, identify haplotypes and CNVs. After the analyses, the raw sequences in FASTQ format and the aligned sequences in BAM format were stored in the European Nucleotide Archive (ENA). The SNPs, haplotypes, CNVs in VCF and zarr format including the samples metadata have been stored in google cloud and are publicly accessible via the malariagen-data package or directly downloadable [24].

In our study, the access to the SNPs and the haplotypes data was possible through the malariagen-data package based on the python programming language to facilitate access and analysis of genomic data without downloading them. Thus, this package was used to locate and extract SNPs and haplotypes data called in the genomic region of the chromosome X (X: 1283016-1373662) corresponding to the *fru* gene of *An. gambiae* s.l. The SNPs and haplotypes data were extracted as multidimensional arrays. The malariagen-data package also allows access the reference data of *An. gambiae* including the reference genome and the transcripts of all the genes identified in the mosquito.

2.2. Data analysis

The SNPs and haplotypes data were analyzed using python programming on Jupyter Notebooks [25]. Python packages scikit-allel [26], malariagen-data [27] and others standard data management packages including dask [28], pandas [29], numpy [30], matplotlib [31], seaborn [32] were then used for the genomic analyses and data manipulation. All the graphs were created by using Python libraries matplotlib and seaborn and R v4.1.3 [33].

2.2.1. Genetic variation analysis

The malariagen-data package was used to locate and filter the SNPs and the haplotypes data called in the genomic region the chromosome X corresponding to the *fru* gene (X: 1283016-1373662). These data were then analyzed using the scikit-allel v1.3.3 package to determine the genetic variation of the gene. Thus, the number of segregating sites, the variants density, population mutation rate, nucleotide diversity, Tajima's D neutrality test, and haplotype diversity were calculated over the entire gene and within a 0.5 kb window throughout the *fru* gene. Watterson's theta estimator (θ) was calculated in the genomic region of the *fru* gene to estimate the mutation rate of the genomic region of the *fru* gene within each *An. gambiae* population. These parameters will provide insights into the genetic diversity of the gene among different anopheline species from different countries. To clarify the evolutionary processes that drive the observed genetic variation in the *fru* region, we performed a chromosome-wide selection scan using the Garud H statistics [34] to detect a signal of positive selection in the chromosome X.

The SNPs allele frequencies (the synonymous and non-synonymous SNPs) were calculated within the population using the 5 gene transcripts. Non-synonymous SNPs whose maximum allelic frequencies are greater than 5% in at least one population *An. gambiae* complex species were defined as major SNPs. The major SNPs were filtered and grouped according to the African regions (West, Central and East) for the analysis of their heterozygosity dynamics and the pattern of association of these SNPs between each pair of loci. The haplotypes identified at the major non-synonymous SNPs positions were selected for

the linkage disequilibrium analysis between each pair of these SNPs. The Lewontin Linkage disequilibrium (D') [35] was then calculated using the to understand the non-random association between each pair of the major non-synonymous SNPs.

2.2.2. *Conservation of the fru gene*

The conservation score was obtained for the genomic region of the *fru* gene using the AgamP4 conservation score metric [36]. Conservation score integrates a systematic analysis of genetic variation data from wild populations of *An. gambiae* and synthetic conserved regions of 19 *Anopheles* species, *D. melanogaster* and three mosquito species (*Ae. aegypti, Cx quinquefasciatus*) that are phylogenetically more distant within the dipteran order. Thus, this program was used to calculate the conservation score of each nucleotide in the *fru* gene and generate a data table containing the conservation score. The data table was then imported into Jupyter notebooks via Pandas to analyze the distribution and the variation of the conservation score alongside and within the specific regions of the gene.

3. Results

3.1. Genetic variation within the fru gene

In total 34339 segregating SNPs were identified including 3.11% [1071 SNPs] non-synonymous segregating sites (750 biallelic non-synonymous variants) and 41.55% [14268 SNPs] multi-allelic sites (more than 2 alleles). Many of these SNPs were identified in the intronic region (90.39% [31042 SNPs]) and only 9.61% [3297 SNPs] were identified in the coding regions of the gene. The lowest SNP variants were identified in the male-specific exons (62 SNPs [0.508 bp^{-1}]) and exon 2 (60 SNPs [0.48 bp^{-1}]). Globally, the average of variants density was 0.4 bp^{-1} indicating the occurrence of 2 SNPs in every 5 bp in the wild populations compared to the reference sequence of the *fru* gene (Appendix A). Compared to previous genome-wide analyses of *An. gambiae* (1 SNP every 1.9 bp) [37], this variant density was slightly lower in the genomic region of the *fru* gene. Table 1 shows the genetic diversity statistics of the *fru* gene calculated using the SNPs data from each african country that was sampled and *An. gambiae* complex species. From these results, the highest number of SNPs (17291 SNPs [sample size = 416]) was identified in *An. gambiae ss* species collected in Cameroon.

The nucleotide diversity is a molecular genomic notion that estimates the level of polymorphism of a genomic region within a population. It measures the number of nucleotide differences per site between two randomly selected DNA sequences in the same population [38]. In our study the overall nucleotide diversity was 0.0036 in the genomic region of the *fru* gene. Nucleotide diversity calculated within a non-overlapping 0.5 kb window along the entire *fru* gene was low in all populations and the median values ranged from 0.0049 to 0.0157 (Table 1, Appendix B). The overall Tajima's D test was negative (-2.52) within the genomic region of the *fru* gene (median values of Tajima's D calculated in a non-overlapping window of 0.5 kb varied from -2.337 to 0.180) (Table 1, Appendix C) indicating an excess of low frequency variants [39]. This low nucleotide diversity and the negative sign of Tajima's D could be due to an excess of rare variants within the genomic region of the *fru* gene in the *An. gambiae* complex populations. The excess of rare variants in a population may be caused by positive selection within the gene or rapid demographic changes causing the expansion of *An. gambiae* complex populations.

To elucidate the evolutionary processes (either a selective sweep or demographic changes) that drive the observed genetic variation, we performed a selection scan at the chromosome X level using the Garud H12 statistics in the *An. gambiae* s.l populations from different regions of Africa. The Garud H12 (< 0.05) was low in the *fru* genomic region (Appendix D & E). However, compared to the *Cyp9k1* (X:15240572-15242864), a cytochrome P450 gene shown to be involved in Pyrethroids resistance [40], the H12 (min = 0.026, median = 0.215, max = 0.782) values were high suggesting a positive selection in this gene. These results suggest that the excess of rare variants in the population may be caused by a rapid demographic changes of *An. gambiae* complex populations.

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Table 1. Summary of the diversity statistics. Segregating sites were calculated within the whole gene. Median of π, D, θ and H calculated in a window of 0.5 kb.

Populations	Number of mosquitoes	SNPs	ns SNPs	Biallelic ns SNP	π	D	θ	H
AGO (*An. coluzzii*)	81	2280	96	95	0.0095	-1.109	0.014	0.845
BFA (*An. arabiensis*)	3	289	2	2	0.0088	-0.256	0.008	0.600
BFA (*An. coluzzii*)	135	8312	118	114	0.0118	-2.098	0.037	0.915
BFA (*An. gambiae*)	157	11035	212	202	0.0119	-2.282	0.046	0.904
CAF (*An. coluzzii*)	18	2372	16	16	0.0108	-1.469	0.018	0.910
CAF (*An. gambiae*)	55	5303	38	38	0.0115	-1.983	0.029	0.886
CIV (*An. coluzzii*)	80	4440	38	37	0.0112	-1.635	0.023	0.900
CMR (*An. arabiensis*)	2	283	2	2	0.0157	0.180	0.015	0.833
CMR (*An. coluzzii*)	26	259	19	18	0.0104	-1.407	0.017	0.897
CMR (*An. gambiae*)	416	17291	430	392	0.0115	-2.337	0.059	0.893
COD (*An. gambiae*)	76	7955	172	167	0.0123	-2.192	0.039	0.916
FRA (*An. gambiae*)	23	966	56	56	0.0050	-1.164	0.008	0.618
GAB (*An. gambiae*)	69	1348	20	19	0.0087	-0.458	0.010	0.743
GHA (*An. coluzzii*)	64	4285	34	34	0.0114	-1.670	0.024	0.907
GHA (*An. gambiae*)	36	3685	18	18	0.0110	-1.749	0.024	0.900
GIN (*An. coluzzii*)	11	930	5	5	0.0095	-0.258	0.009	0.835
GIN (*An. gambiae*)	123	9083	118	111	0.0118	-2.218	0.040	0.904
GMB (*An. coluzzii*)	169	8241	92	91	0.0117	-2.019	0.034	0.912
GMB (*An. gambiae*)	69	3952	37	35	0.0111	-1.549	0.022	0.890
GNB (*An. gambiae*)	29	3375	32	32	0.0117	-1.696	0.022	0.900
KEN (*An. gambiae*)	28	1221	44	44	0.0074	-1.001	0.010	0.732
MLI (*An. arabiensis*)	2	188	0	0	0.0090	0.135	0.008	0.667
MLI (*An. coluzzii*)	91	6451	67	67	0.0116	-1.970	0.032	0.910
MLI (*An. gambiae*)	131	8888	125	121	0.0112	-2.191	0.041	0.893
MOZ (*An. gambiae*)	74	651	6	6	0.0049	-0.375	0.005	0.494
MWI (*An. arabiensis*)	41	1381	15	15	0.0084	-1.290	0.014	0.576
TZA (*An. arabiensis*)	225	2317	41	41	0.0093	-1.571	0.019	0.584
TZA (*An. gambiae*)	68	4066	71	70	0.0095	-1.838	0.025	0.807
UGA (*An. arabiensis*)	82	1545	26	26	0.0095	-1.124	0.015	0.595
UGA (*An. gambiae*)	207	10083	120	114	0.0109	-2.177	0.042	0.892

π: *Nucleotide diversity;* ***D***: *Tajima's D;* ***θ:*** *Watterson's Theta (population mutation rate);* ***H:*** *Haplotype diversity;* ***ns SNPs:*** *Non-Synonymous Single Nucleotide Polymorphism;* ***AGO:*** *Angola;* ***BFA***: *Burkina Faso;* ***CAF***: *Central African Republic;* ***CIV***: *Côte d'Ivoire;* ***CMR***: *Cameroon;* ***COD***: *Democratic Republic of Congo;* ***FRA***: *Mayotte;* ***GAB***: *Gabon;* ***GHA***: *Ghana;* ***GIN***: *Guinea;* ***GMB***: *Gambia;* ***GNB***: *Guinea-Bissau;* ***KEN***: *Kenya;* ***MLI***: *Mali;* ***MOZ***: *Mozambique;* ***MWI***: *Malawi;* ***TZA***: *Tanzania;* ***UGA***: *Uganda.*

3.2. Non-synonymous SNPs variation

Overall, 1071 non-synonymous SNPs were identified with allelic frequencies ranging from 0 to 1 within the 3 species of the *An. gambiae* complex (Table S1 and Table S2). Figure 1 shows the allelic frequencies of the non-synonymous SNPs whose maximum allelic frequencies are greater than 5% in at least one population. Overall, the allelic frequencies of the non-synonymous SNPs were low except two SNPs at position X:1309218 (C>G) and X:1300290 (C>G) identified at high frequencies in the Zinc-finger A and Zinc-finger B protein domains respectively. The SNP at position X:1309218 (C>G) was identified in all the *An. gambiae* complex populations at high allelic frequencies greater than 0.8. However, the SNP at position X:1300290 (C>G) mutation was only identified in *An. arabiensis* (freq = 1) populations from East Africa. This mutation was also found at low frequency (~0.015) in

the *An. gambiae* ss population from Tanzania. However, no *An. gambiae* complex population from West or Central Africa has shown this mutation. Its absence in *An. arabiensis* populations from west and central Africa could be due to the sample size which is low (Table 1).

Analysis of the major SNPs (allelic frequencies > 5%) variation has shown variable heterozygosity rates within these SNPs between the *An. gambiae* population. Heterozygosity rates were low and ranged from -0.0313 to 0.0076 (Figure 2) indicating a deviation from the Hardy-Weinberg law at some loci. Indeed, the SNP at position X:1300290 (C>G) showed a very low heterozygosity indicating that it is fully fixed in the *An. arabiensis* population of East Africa (allelic freq = 1) and is weakly found in the two other *An. gambiae* complex populations. On the other hand, the SNP at position X:1309218 (C>G) has also shown variable heterozygosity with an excess of heterozygotes in the West African populations (*An. gambiae* and *An. coluzzii*) and a deficit in Central and East African *An. gambiae* populations. Due to the fixation of the SNPs X:1309218 (C>G) in the East African *An. arabiensis*, no deviation from the Hardy-Weinberg law was observed at his position. These results are in conformity with the distribution of the allele frequencies that showed the fixation of some non-synonymous SNPs in the populations and a deviation from the Hardy-Weinberg law at some loci.

Figure 3 shows the linkage disequilibrium between the major non-synonymous SNPs (max freq > 0.05) and the corresponding allelic frequencies of each SNPs in the whole population. As Linkage disequilibrium is the non-random association of alleles at different loci, the mutation at position X:1309218 was strongly associated with the other non-synonymous mutations exhibiting a perfect linkage disequilibrium with them. This pattern of linkage disequilibrium between the SNP at position X:1309218 and the other SNPs is correlated with his high allelic frequencies in the populations. Overall, genetic variation analysis of the *fru* gene showed a low nucleotide diversity, a negative Tajima's D, a strong linkage disequilibrium as well as a fixation of a SNP at position X:1309218 (C>G) within all the population.

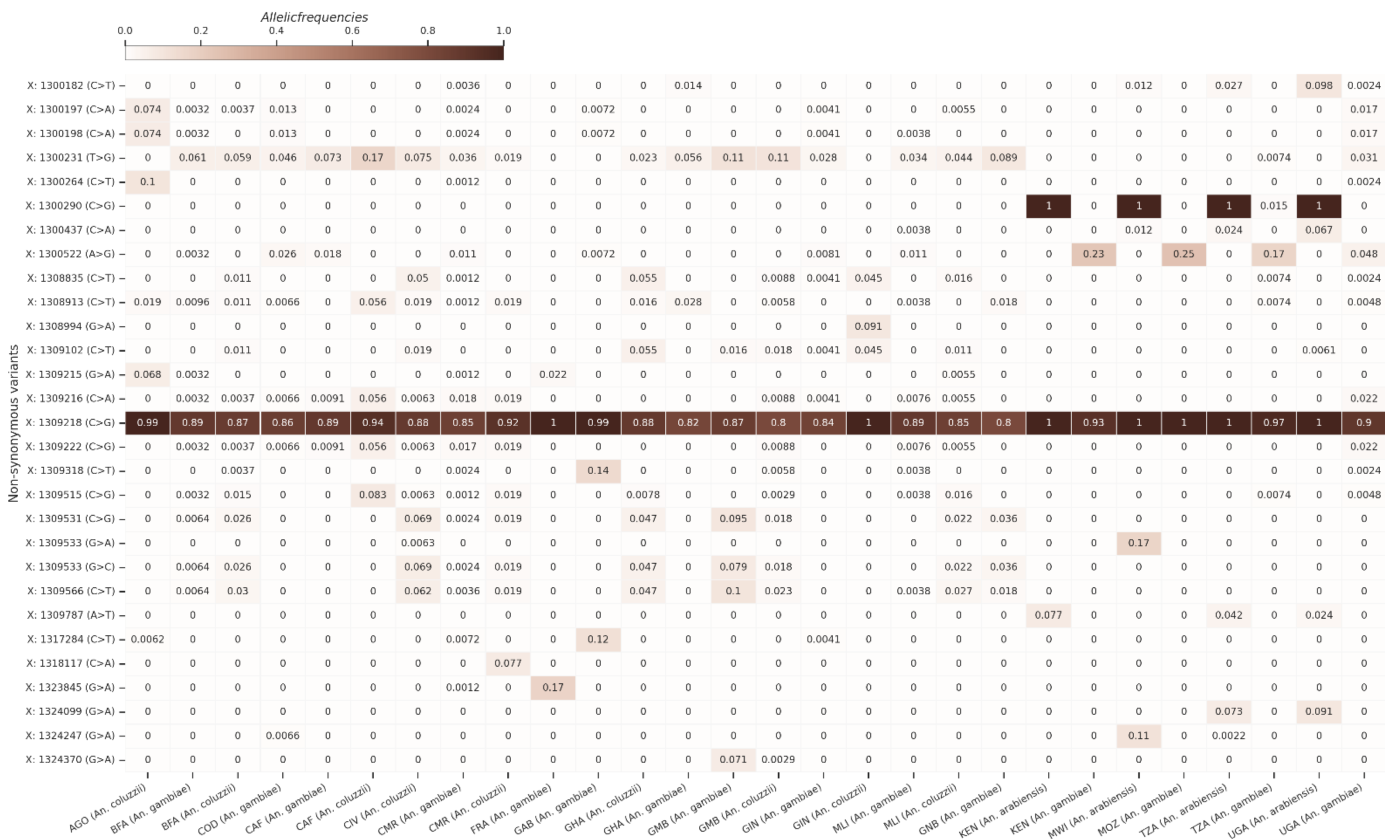

Figure 1. Allelic frequencies of non-synonymous mutation whose maximum allelic frequencies > 5% in at least one population. ***AGO***: *Angola;* ***BFA***: *Burkina Faso;* ***CAF***: *Central African Republic;* ***CIV***: *Côte d'Ivoire;* ***CMR***: *Cameroon;* ***COD***: *Democratic Republic of Congo;* ***FRA***: *Mayotte;* ***GAB***: *Gabon;* ***GHA***: *Ghana;* ***GIN***: *Guinea;* ***GMB***: *Gambia;* ***GNB***: *Guinea-Bissau;* ***MLI***: *Mali;* ***MOZ***: *Mozambique;* ***MWI***: *Malawi;* ***TZA***: *Tanzania;* ***UGA***: *Uganda.*

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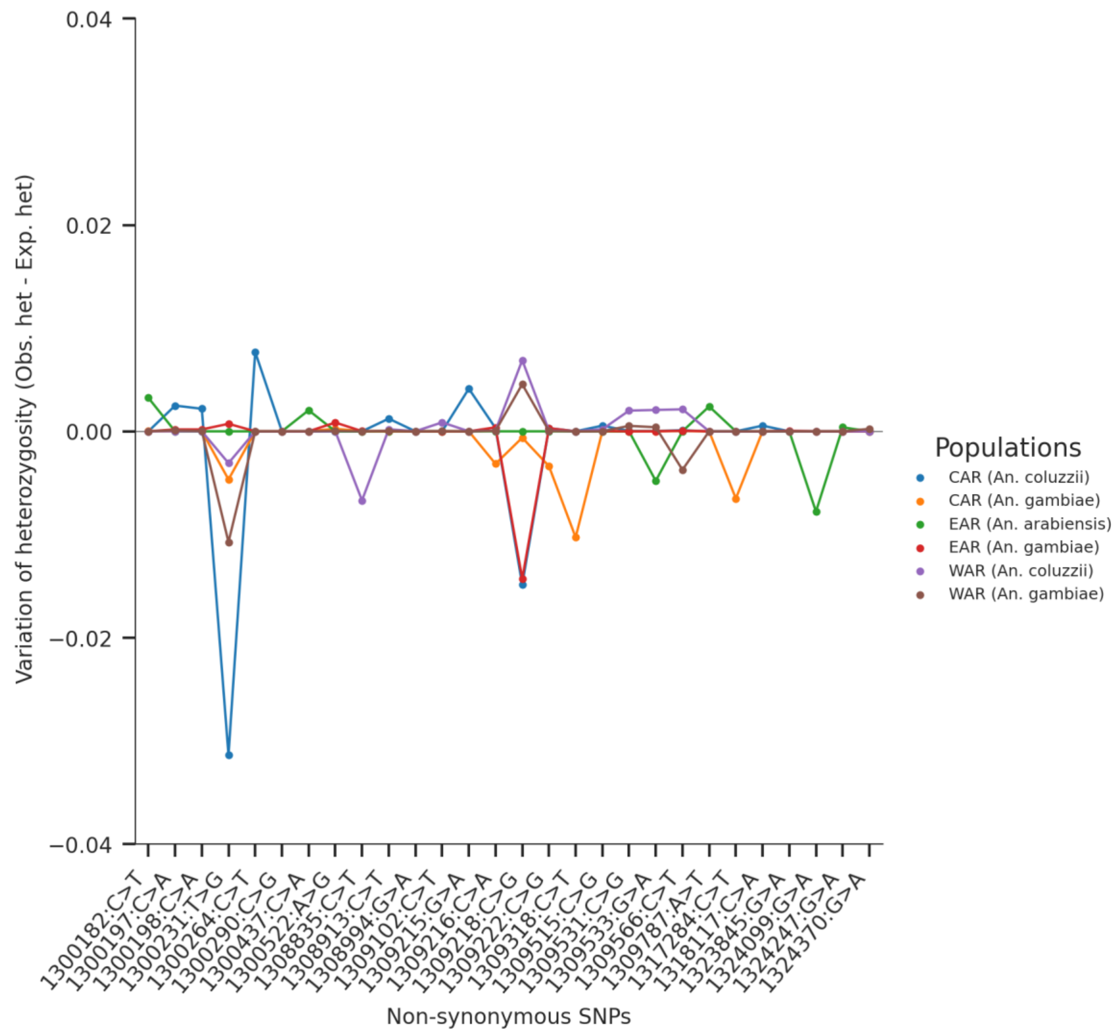

Figure 2. Variation of the heterozygosity within the non-synonymous SNPs whose maximum allelic frequencies are superior to 5 % in at least one population. ***Obs. het***.: *observed heterozygosity*, ***Exp. het***.: *expected heterozygosity*, ***CAR***: *Central African Region*, ***AER***: *Eastern African Region*, ***WAR***: *Western African Region*.

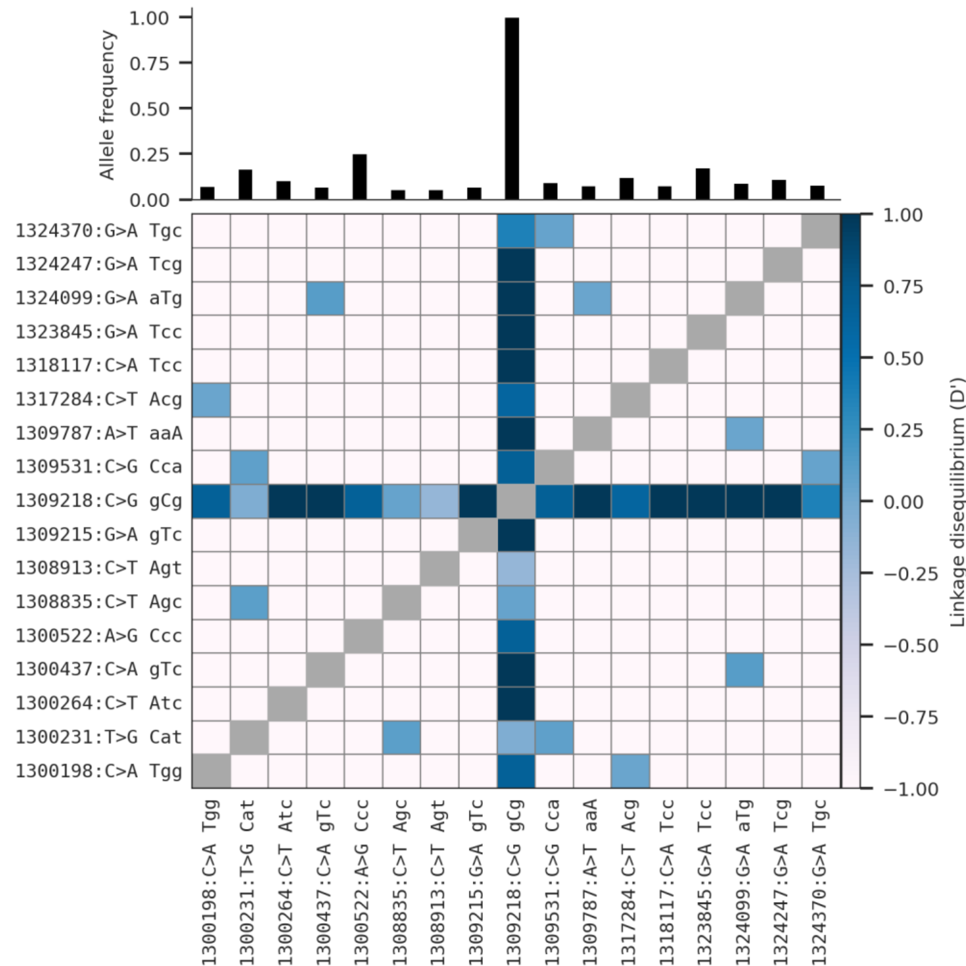

Figure 3. Linkage disequilibrium between the non-synonymous SNPs whose maximum allelic frequencies are superior than 5 % in at least one population; figure above shows allelic frequencies, figure below shows linkage disequilibrium value (-1 indicate no LD and +1 indicates perfect LD).

3.3. Conservation score of the fru gene

Figure 4 shows the conservation score or the evolution rate of the *fru* gene (Table S3) and the nucleotide diversity computed in a window of 12 nucleotides within the *fru* gene. In fact, the analyses have shown a high variable of conservation score throughout the *fru* gene with maximum values in the exonic compared to the intronic regions. The median conservation score was 0.00403. High conservation scores (Cs min = 0.00076; Cs median = 0.148; Cs max = 0.983) were recorded in the exonic regions and these data are correlated with low nucleotide diversity in these genomic regions (Figure 4, Appendix F, G, H and I).

Furthermore, the female-specific region of the *fru* gene spans the region X:1371771-1373662 and contains stop codons (Figure 5) that stop the mRNA translation during protein synthesis rendering the *fru* gene non-functional in females. These stop codons are responsible for the early termination of mRNA translation making the female FRU isoform non-functional. The female-specific region includes a short exon (~122 bp) at its beginning and spanning region X:1373540-1373662 (Figure 5) on the X chromosome corresponding to the male-specific region. This exon is translated into protein and makes the gene functional in males. In the male specific region, the conservation score was relatively high (Cs min = 0.0316; Cs median = 0.321; Cs max = 0.475) and conversely a low nucleotide diversity was noted in this region. These results showed a high conservation score of the common genomic region to both male and female transcripts compared to the non-common region which exhibited a relatively low conservation score (Cs min = 0; Cs median =

0.006; Cs max = 0.286) and high nucleotide diversity at some locations. The BTB (bric-a-brac, tramtrack, broad complex) domain is responsible for protein-protein interaction participating in a wide range of cellular functions in the organism. This domain, primarily identified in the fruit fly [41], is also found in the *An. gambiae* FRU protein and its genomic region spans from X:1323509 to X:1325039. It is common to the male and female transcripts and has 4 exons encoding the BTB domain. The conservation scores (Cs min = 0.004; Cs median = 0.169; Cs max = 0.983) computed in the exons of the BTB region were relatively high compared to those of the intronic region (Appendix F). Conversely, the nucleotide diversity remains high in the intronic regions and in some windows of exon 3. Seeing the pattern of the conservation score, the coding regions are highly conserved compared to non-coding regions as shown by previous studies [8,9].

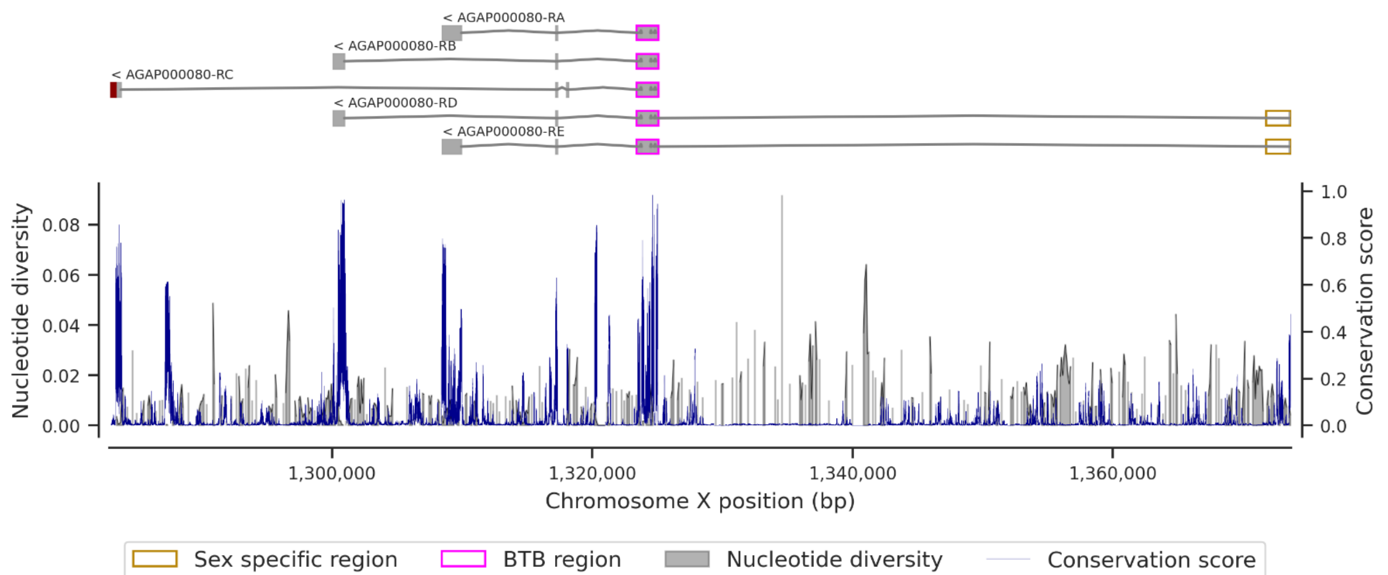

Figure 4. Conservation score and nucleotide diversity in a window of 12 bp within the sex-specific region of the *Fruitless* gene. The figure above shows the five transcripts of the *Fruitless* gene (Rectangles correspond to the exonic regions, simple lines are the intronic regions and dark red end is the 3 prime UTR within the AGP000080-RC transcript); Figure below shows the conservation score (blue line) and the nucleotide diversity (dark fill) plot.

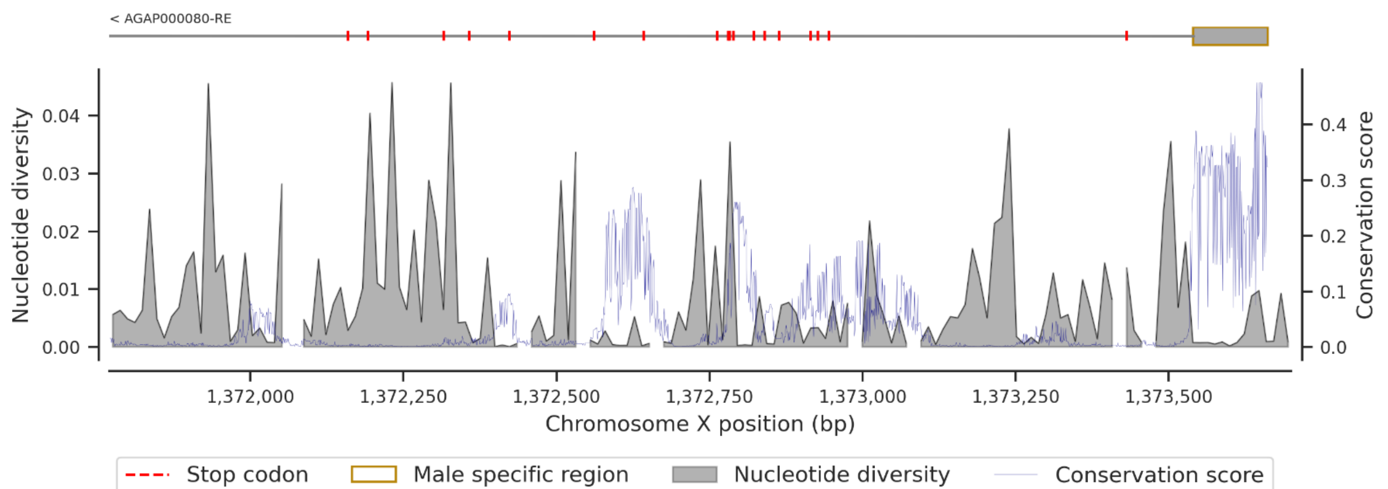

Figure 5. Conservation score and nucleotide diversity in a window of 12 bp within the sex-specific region of the *Fruitless* gene. The figure up is the sex-specific region of the *Fruitless* gene (Rectangle corresponds to the male specific region, rectangle + simple line correspond to the female specific region and red dashes are the probable stop codon within the female specific region); Figure down is the conservation score (blue line) and the nucleotide diversity (dark fill) plot.

4. Discussion

Genetic control of vectors has instigated a major interest in the study of genetic mechanisms involved in sexual determination and differentiation for the control of pest insect's population, particularly the disease vectors. Thus, *fru* and *dsx* genes are being potential targets for controlling sexual behavior and differentiation of malaria vectors respectively. However, the success of a genome editing construct targeting these genes in *An. gambiae* requires perfect insights of the genetic polymorphism of the target regions in wild populations in order to avoid resistance to the spread of the construct. Our study analyzed the distribution and the abundance of SNPs within the *fru* gene in eighteen populations of the *An. gambiae* complex in Africa.

The SNPs distribution across the *fru* gene was variable and almost all the SNPs were identified in intronic regions. The average SNPs density (2 SNPs per 5 bp) was low compared to those previously found in the whole genome of *An. gambiae* [42]. Indeed, according to the first published *An. gambiae* genome data, the chromosome 2 and 3 exhibited high SNPs variants density compared to the X chromosome [43]. In addition, the intronic regions showed a high level of polymorphism compared to the exons and only 9.60 % of SNPs variants including 2 non-synonymous SNPs, X:1309218 C>G (G669A) and X:1300290 C>G (G651A), with high frequencies were identified within the exons. These two SNPs, although their effect is moderate, may have an impact on the structure of the resulting protein. Both SNPs cause change of C>G at position X:1309218 and X:1300290 leading to amino acids change from glycine to alanine at position 651 (G651A) and 669 (G669A), respectively. The SNPs identified in non-coding regions do not directly affect the protein sequence but may have some effects on the regulation of transcription and the gene activity. Indeed, the spliceosome elements interact with specific sites on intron and exon terminals to ensure efficient and specific splicing [44,45]. Thus, a high density of SNPs in these regions can lead to the non-recognition of the interaction sites resulting in a dysfunction of the regulation process of the gene expression.

Our results also showed a signal of population expansion causing an excess of low frequency SNPs, low nucleotide diversity and negative Tajima's D in all populations. Although previous studies have shown a signal of positive selection in insecticide resistance

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genes [46,47], the Garud H12 [34] was low in the *fru* region suggesting that all the genetic variation found in *fru* region is probably caused by evolutionary processes other than positive selection. The rapid demographic changes can also cause an excess of rare variants in a given genomic region [48] as shown in our study, but many additional studies would be needed to clarify that. Considering the SNP X:1300290 (C>G) (Figure 1), only identified at high frequency in *An. arabiensis* populations from East Africa, the role of evolutionary processes in the maintenance of certain advantageous SNPs at high frequency in the populations of the *An. gambiae* complex is very clear. The same SNP was identified at a low frequency in *An. gambiae* populations (freq = 0.015 [sample size = 68]) in Tanzania. The existence of a possible introgression process between *An. gambiae* and *An. arabiensis*, two subspecies of the *An. gambiae* complex is the subject of considerable debate in the scientific community. A simulation study has demonstrated the occurrence of a possible gene flow between *An. gambiae* and *An. arabiensis* that still remains to be confirmed in the wild populations [49]. The low frequency of SNP X:1300290 (C>G) in the 2 other populations could have 2 possible explanations either to a purifying selection against this mutation in *An. gambiae* ss and *An. coluzzii* or a possible gene flow between *An. gambiae* and *An. arabiensis* as predicted by the previous studies [49,50]. However, further studies are still needed to confirm or contradict these hypotheses.

The genomic organization of the *fru* gene has been extensively studied in several *Diptera* species and the results of these studies have shown a strong conservation of the specific domains of the *fru* gene, notably the BTB and the Zinc-finger A, B and C domains between *An. gambiae, D. melanogaster* and *Ae. aegypti* species [8,9]. In our study, the conservation score corresponding to the evolution rate of the *fru* gene was variable and the exonic regions seemed to be more conserved compared to introns. Although the algorithm only analyzes nucleotide sequences, the distribution of the conservation score alongside the *fru* gene follows the same conservation pattern highlighted by previous analyses with a high level of conservation (>70%) in the coding regions of BTB, Zinc-finger A, B and C domains of the FRU protein. However, a comparative analysis of sex-specific protein domains has revealed a low conservation of these regions between *Drosophila, Ae. aegypti* and *An. gambiae* species, that could be due to the alternative splicing process that still remains specific in each of these Dipteran species [8]. The conservation score of the male-specific genomic region of the *fru* gene was moderate (>30%) indicating a low level of conservation of this region between Anopheles species and other Dipteran (*Culex sp, Aedes sp* and *Drosophila sp*). These results confirm the previous findings that showed a strong divergence between the genomes of these species [8,9].

In the purpose of vector control, the concept of using gene drive technologies to target and modify a given genomic region in the vector genome in order to disrupt progeny and reduce vector density is recurrent [18]. Although successful modifications have been performed in the *An. gambiae* and *Ae. aegypti* genomes, the development of resistance in the target site could strongly affect the long-term spread of the constructs in nature. Indeed, the spread of a transgene in nature requires a quasi-low polymorphism in the target region [51,52]. Thus, a thorough insight of the polymorphism and the evolution rate of the target regions is essential before any genetic modification action. In our study, the density of variants and nucleotide diversity within the *fru* gene were low in 18 populations of *An. gambiae* s.l in Africa mainly in the male sex-specific region (Figure 5), the BTB-exon 1 and 2 (Appendix F), the zinc-finger B (Appendix H) and C (Appendix I) exons. The sex-specific region could be targeted to induce male *fru* splicing in *Anopheles* females to deeply investigate the ectopic effect of *fru* protein in the females phenotypes until then less known in Culicidian [21]. Understanding these ectopic effects in females and successful integration of the same modifications in males could help to maintain this line by back-crossing and possibly use it as a vector control tool.

Supplementary Materials:
Table S1. All variants allelic frequencies. *pos: chromosome X position, wt_ac: wild type alleles count, alt1_ac: alternative 1 alleles count, alt2_ac: alternative 2 alleles count, alt3_ac: alternative 3 alleles count,*

wt_af: wild type alleles allelic frequencies, alt1_af: alternative 1 allele allelic frequencies, alt2_af: alternative 2 alleles allelic frequencies, alt3_af: alternative 3 alleles allelic frequencies.
Table S2. Non-synonymous allelic frequencies. *pos: chromosome X position, wt_ac: wild type alleles count, alt1_ac: alternative 1 alleles count, alt2_ac: alternative 2 alleles count, alt3_ac: alternative 3 alleles count, wt_af: wild type alleles allelic frequencies, alt1_af: alternative 1 allele allelic frequencies, alt2_af: alternative 2 alleles allelic frequencies, alt3_af: alternative 3 alleles allelic frequencies.*
Table S3. Conservation score within the *Fruitless* gene. *pos: chromosome X position; Cs: Conservation score.*

Author Contributions: A.D. and M.K. have designed the study and also acquired the genomic data from the Ag1000G project; M.K. and N.K. have analyzed the data, validated the results and drafted the first manuscript of the paper; M.I., N.T., H.K., D.D.S., M.N. and A.M.G.B. have corrected and reviewed the manuscript; All authors have read and agreed to this version of the manuscript.

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Data Availability Statement: All the Python code and the R code to reproduce the analyses in the article are available in GitHub: **https://github.com/mkient/fruitless_report**. The SNPs and haplotypes data are available in the homepage of MalariaGEN and could be accessed using the malariagen-data package.

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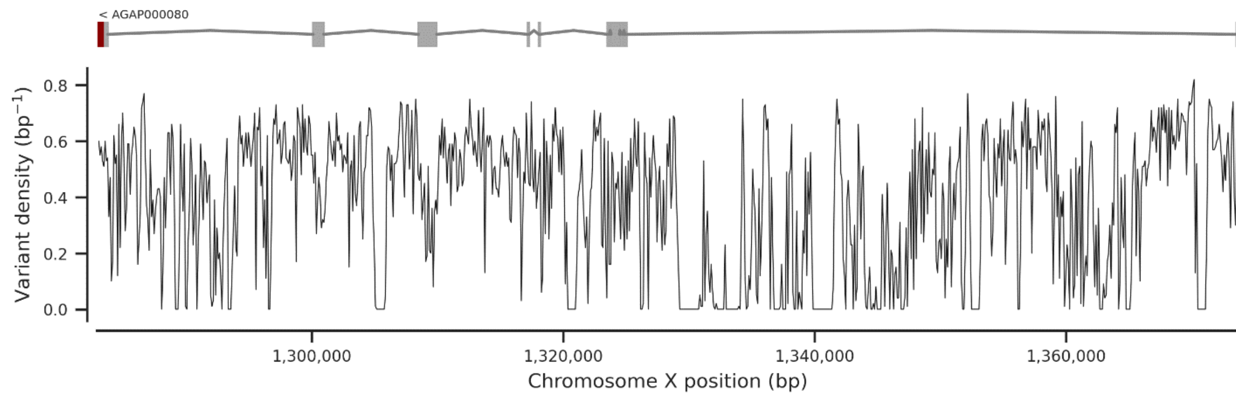
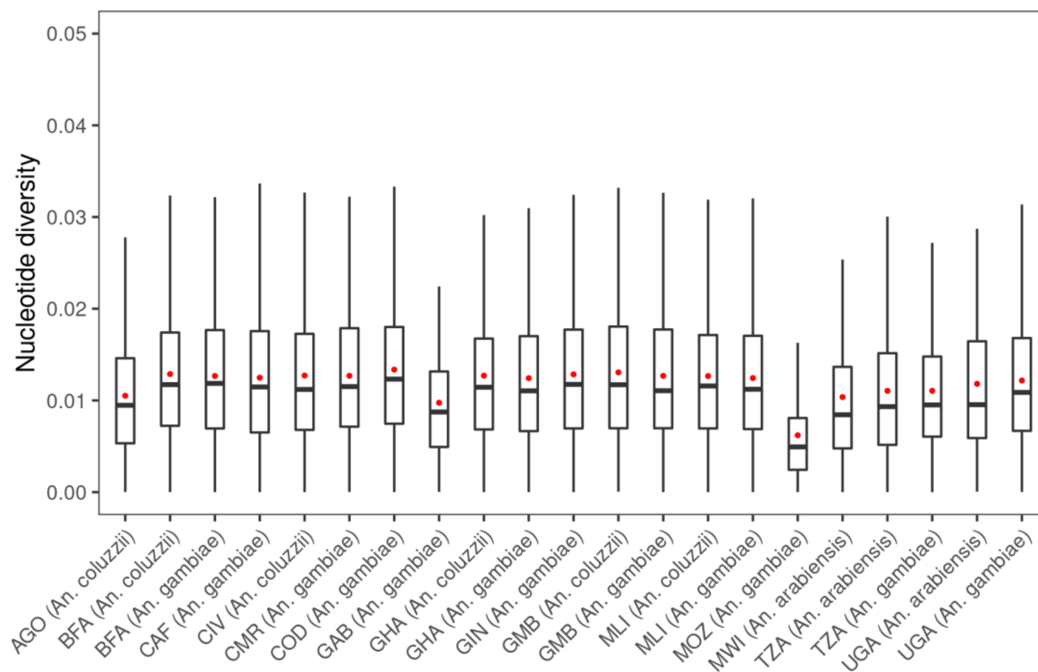
Conflicts of Interest: The authors declare that there is no conflict of interest.



Appendix A. Variant density (bp-1) in the genomic region of the *Fruitless* gene; Figure above is the genomic region of the *Fruitless* gene (Rectangles correspond to the exonic regions, simple lines are the intronic regions and dark red end is the 3 prime UTR); Figure below is the variant density plot.



Appendix B. Median of nucleotide diversity in a window of 500 bp across the genomic region of the Fruitless gene; red points indicate the mean of the of nucleotide diversity; ***AGO:*** *Angola;* ***BFA***: *Burkina Faso;* ***CAF***: *Central African Republic;* ***CIV***: *Côte d'Ivoire;* ***CMR***: *Cameroon;* ***COD***: *Democratic Republic of Congo;* ***GAB***: *Gabon;* ***GHA***: *Ghana;* ***GIN***: *Guinea;* ***GMB***: *Gambia;* ***MLI***: *Mali;* ***MOZ***: *Mozambique;* ***MWI***: *Malawi;* ***TZA***: *Tanzania;* ***UGA***: *Uganda.*

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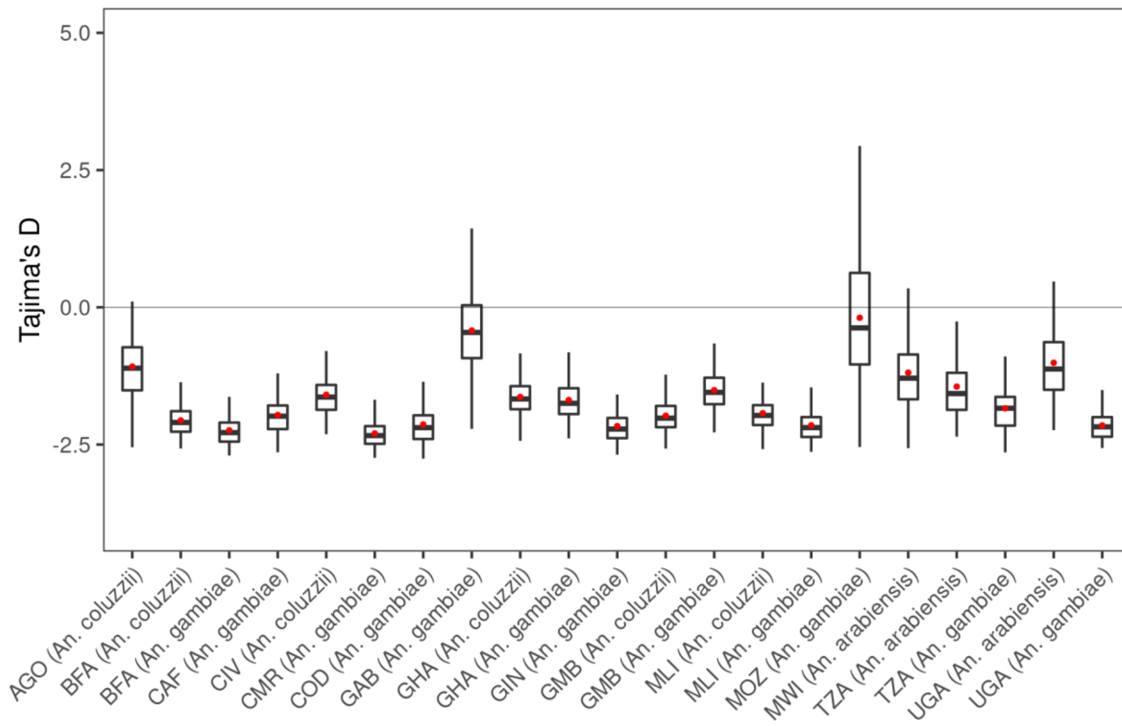
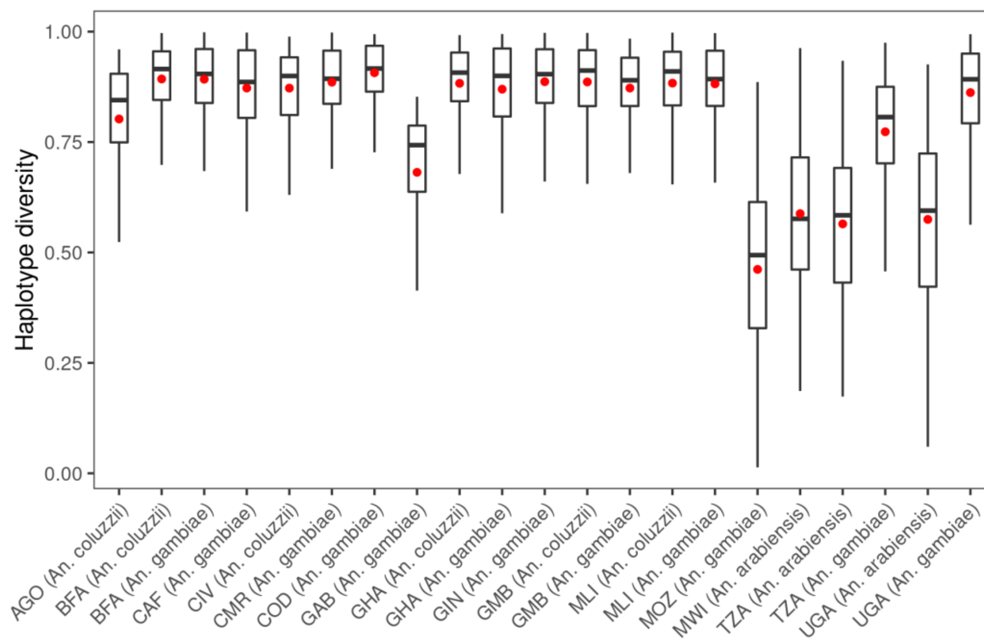


Appendix C. Median of Tajima's D in a window of 500 bp across the genomic region of the Fruitless gene; red points indicate the mean of the Tajima's D. Horizontal line indicates the null value of the Tajima's D test. ***AGO:*** *Angola;* ***BFA****: Burkina Faso;* ***CAF****: Central African Republic;* ***CIV****: Côte d'Ivoire;* ***CMR****: Cameroon;* ***COD****: Democratic Republic of Congo;* ***GAB****: Gabon;* ***GHA****: Ghana;* ***GIN****: Guinea;* ***GMB****: Gambia;* ***MLI****: Mali;* ***MOZ****: Mozambique;* ***MWI****: Malawi;* ***TZA****: Tanzania;* ***UGA****: Uganda.*



Appendix D. Haplotype diversity in a window of 500 bp across the genomic region of the fruitless gene; red points indicate the mean of the haplotype diversity. ***AGO****: Angola;* ***BFA****: Burkina Faso;* ***CAF****: Central African Republic;* ***CIV****: Côte d'Ivoire;* ***CMR****: Cameroon;* ***COD****: Democratic Republic of Congo;* ***GAB****: Gabon;* ***GHA****: Ghana;* ***GIN****: Guinea;* ***GMB****: Gambia;* ***MLI****: Mali;* ***MOZ****: Mozambique;* ***MWI****: Malawi;* ***TZA****: Tanzania;* ***UGA****: Uganda.*

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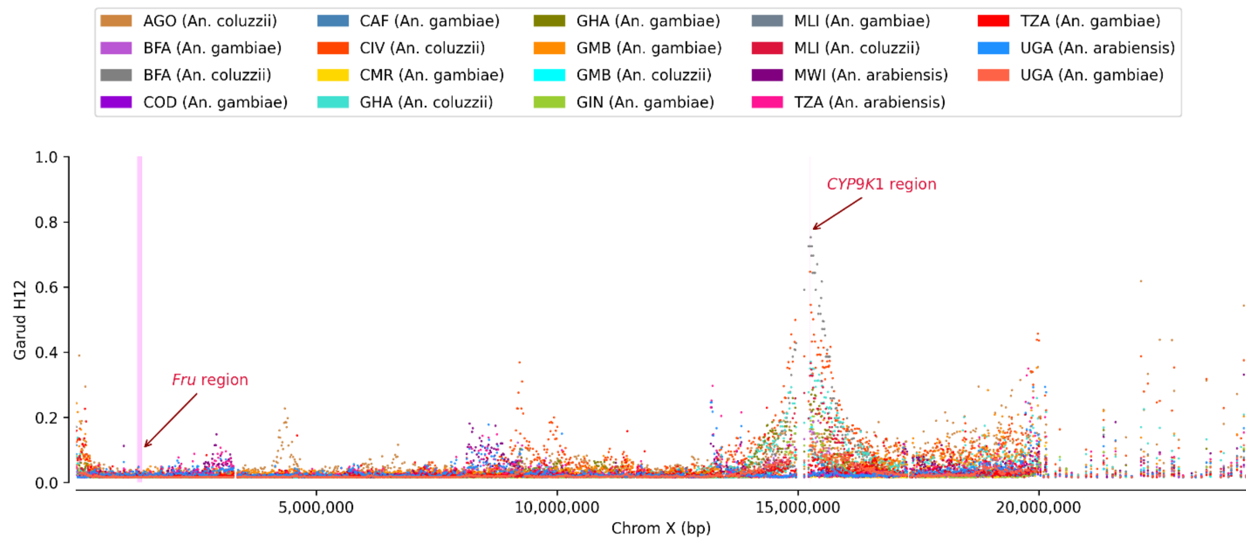
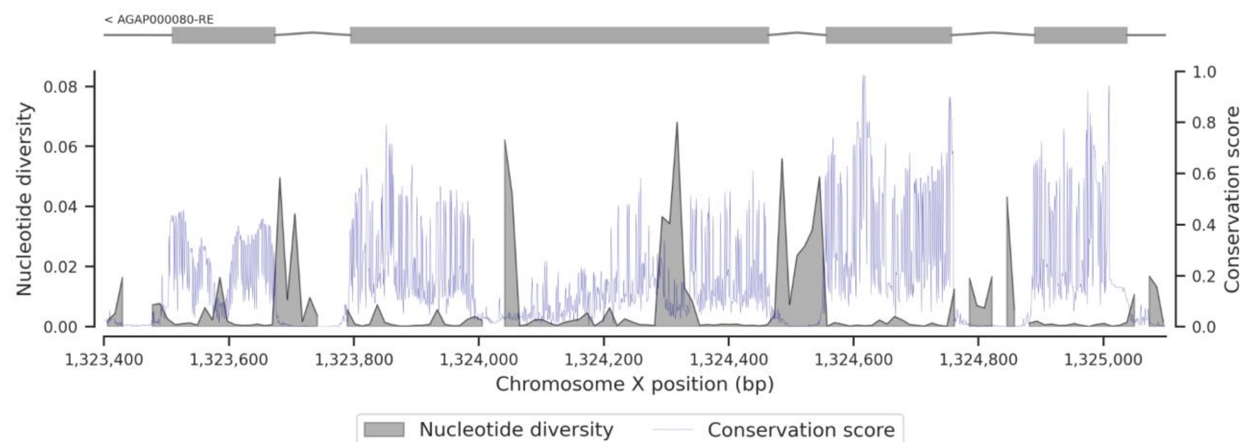


Appendix E. H12 statistic in the chromosome X (window size = 4 kb) of *An. gambiae* s.l population. High values of H12 in a given genomic region indicates a signal of positive selection in this genomic region within the population [34]. Magenta bands indicate the *fru* region (X: 1283016-1373662) and the *Cyp9k1* region (X:15240572-15242864). The H12 values were low in the fru region, but higher in the *Cyp9k1* region shown to be involved in the pyrethroid resistance in *An. gambiae* s.l populations [40]. ***AGO***: *Angola;* ***BFA***: *Burkina Faso;* ***CAF***: *Central African Republic;* ***CIV***: *Côte d'Ivoire;* ***CMR***: *Cameroon;* ***COD***: *Democratic Republic of Congo;* ***GHA***: *Ghana;* ***GIN***: *Guinea;* ***GMB***: *Gambia;* ***MLI***: *Mali;* ***MWI***: *Malawi;* ***TZA***: *Tanzania;* ***UGA***: *Uganda.*



Appendix F. Conservation score and nucleotide diversity in a window of 12 bp within the BTB + connector region of the Fruitless gene. Figure above shows the BTB and connector region (Rectangles correspond to the exonic regions and the simple lines are the intronic regions); Figure below shows the conservation score (blue line) and the nucleotide diversity (dark fill) plot.

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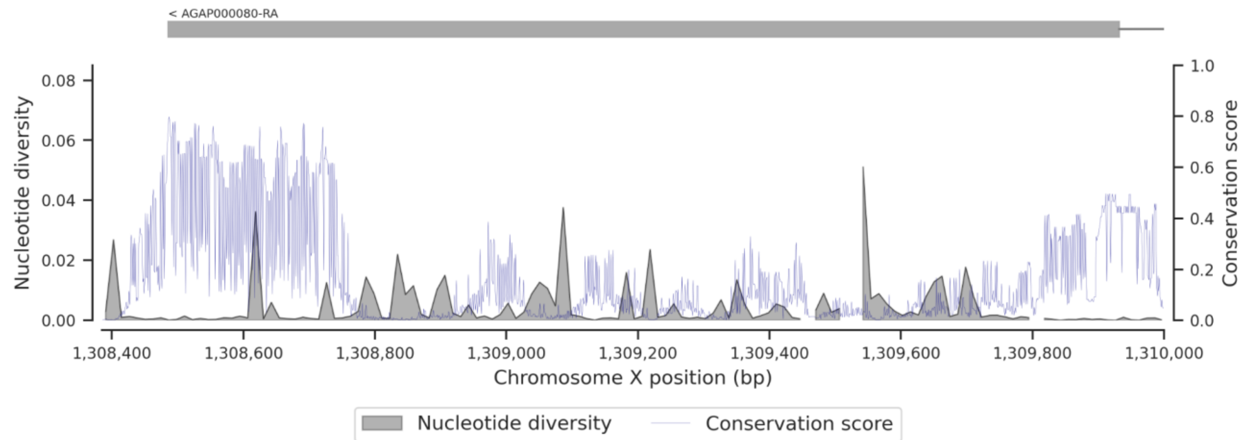
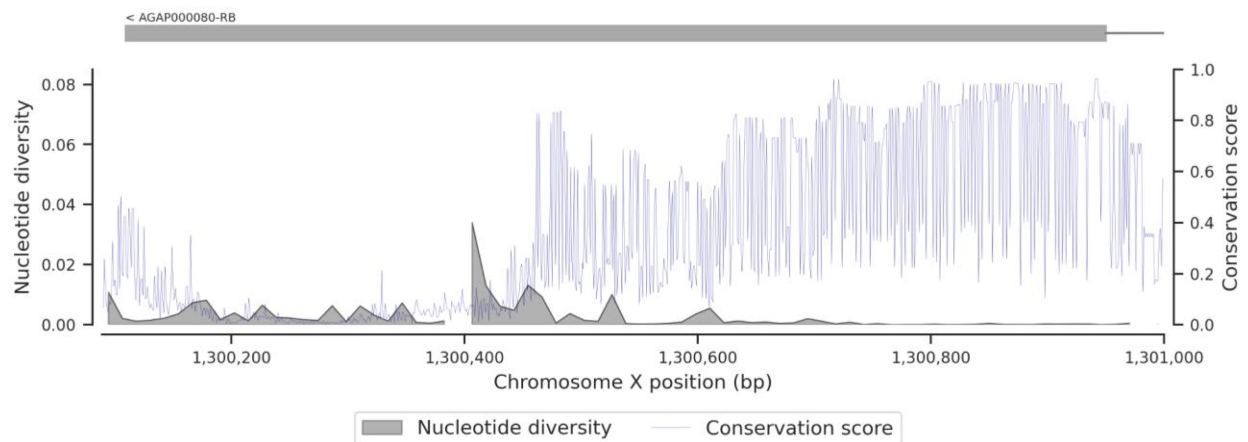
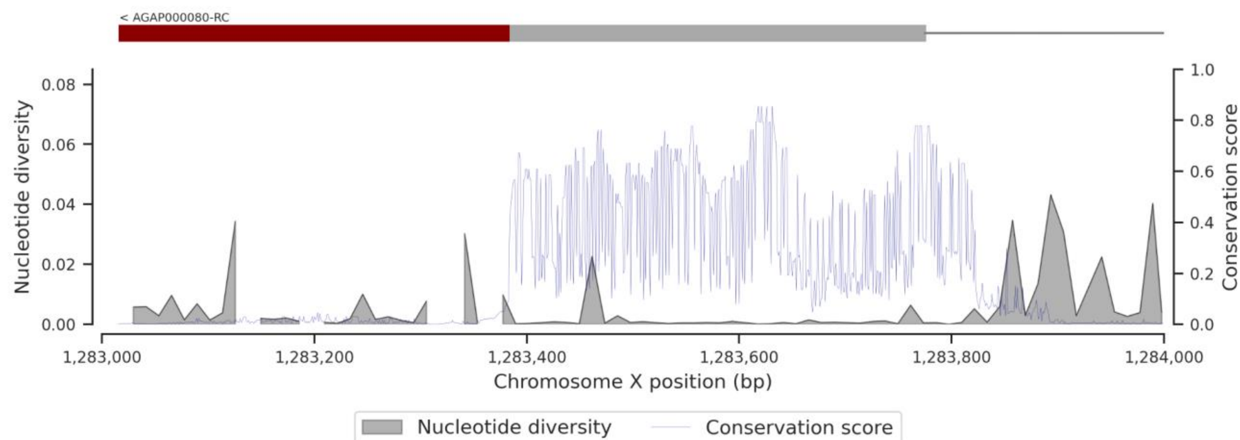


Appendix G. Conservation score and nucleotide diversity in a window of 12 bp within the Zinc-finger A (ZnFA) region of the Fruitless gene. Figure above shows the ZnFA region (the rectangle corresponds to the exonic region and the simple line is the intronic region); Figure below shows the conservation score (blue line) and the nucleotide diversity (dark fill) plot.



Appendix H. Conservation score and nucleotide diversity in a window of 12 bp within the Zinc-finger B (ZnFB) region of the Fruitless gene. Figure above shows the ZnFB region (the rectangle corresponds to the exonic region and the simple line is the intronic region); Figure below shows the conservation score (blue line) and the nucleotide diversity (dark fill) plot.



Appendix I. Conservation score and nucleotide diversity in a window of 12 bp within the Zinc-finger C (ZnFC) region of the Fruitless gene. Figure above shows the ZnFC region (the rectangle corresponds to the exonic region, the dark red end is the 3 prime UTR region and the simple line is the intronic region); Figure below shows the conservation score (blue line) and the nucleotide diversity (dark fill) plot.

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