

EDITORIAL



Structural variation in context: mechanisms, functions and selection regimes across the tree of life

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Genomic structural variants (SVs) are central to modern genetics. However, they do not fit easily into the simple classifications and analytical frameworks that work well for single-nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs). The papers in this special issue underscore that SVs cannot be treated as a homogeneous class, nor can their evolutionary consequences be inferred directly from their structural category alone. Instead, they compel us to engage explicitly with mutational mechanism, genomic context, and selection regime, and to recognize that the structural category only weakly predicts their functional and evolutionary impact.

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WHY STRUCTURAL VARIATION DEMANDS A DIFFERENT FRAMEWORK

Structural variants typically span kilobases to megabases and can influence multiple functional elements simultaneously, overlapping smaller genetic variants, altering local recombination rates, and reshaping three-dimensional (3D) genome architecture (Conrad and Hurler 2007; Kirkpatrick 2010; Spielmann et al. 2018). Because of this complexity, an SV is often better viewed as a multi-locus haplotype or genomic segment rather than a single biallelic variant (Charlesworth and Charlesworth 1973). This presents a challenge, as much of classical population genetics was developed for biallelic loci and is often presented, at least in its simplest formulations, under assumptions of additivity at a locus and weak interactions among loci, assumptions that are especially likely to be violated by SVs. In practice, a given phenotypic effect or inferred selection coefficient on SV can have a functional impact through numerous underlying processes, for example changes in gene dosage (Rice and McLysaght 2017), altered cis-regulatory architecture (Spielmann et al. 2018), modified chromatin contacts (Fudenberg and Pollard 2019), or shifts in segregation patterns (meiotic drive) (Courret et al. 2019), rather than a single, easily interpretable causal change.

Moreover, SVs are not rare exceptions at the tail of the mutational spectrum; in many genomes they affect more base pairs than SNPs (Karageorgiou et al. 2024), and individual SVs often perturb multiple genes at once (Chiang et al. 2017; Berdan et al. 2024). In humans and other primates, SVs frequently define species- or population-specific segments and have been repeatedly implicated in adaptive traits, disease risk, and genomic innovation (Soto et al. 2023; Pajic and Gokcumen 2026). In plants and crops, SVs contribute substantially to heritability and can reveal trait associations that SNP-only GWAS completely miss (Li et al. 2024; Zhang et al. 2024). These observations motivate a conceptual shift; from treating SVs as outliers in a SNP-centric model, to thinking first about functional effects and selection/constraint, and only then about their mechanistic labels.

SV CATEGORIES: USEFUL BUT INSUFFICIENT

We still rely on broad categories of SVs (inversions, deletions, duplications and other copy number variants (CNVs), insertions, mobile element insertions, translocations, fissions and fusions, as well as, more complex configurations such as nested inversions) to describe how genomes differ from one another. At the same time, detailed models now link specific breakpoint architectures to underlying mutational processes, including non-allelic homologous recombination (NAHR), non-homologous end joining (NHEJ), replication-based mechanisms, and transposon activity (Kidd et al. 2010; Currall et al. 2013; Carvalho and Lupski 2016). Yet across taxa, neither structural class nor mutational mechanism reliably predicts functional outcome (Hurler et al. 2008; Karageorgiou et al. 2024). A nominally “balanced” inversion may be dosage-neutral and act primarily as a recombination modifier with subtle life-history effects, or it may disrupt genes and carry substantial recessive load (Kirkpatrick and Barton 2006; Hoffmann and Rieseberg 2008; Charlesworth and Flatt 2021); likewise, duplications with similar structure can be tolerated, dosage-beneficial, or lethal, depending on their genomic context (Kuzmin et al. 2022).

Even within a single structural category, the same type of event can mediate local adaptation, contribute to intrinsic incompatibilities, or drift neutrally, and these roles may change over time (Todesco et al. 2020; Saitou et al. 2021). The contributions in this issue collectively show that meaningful inference requires moving beyond labels to consideration of (i) the mutational mechanism and breakpoint context, (ii) the genomic context affected (genes, regulatory elements, centromeres, topologically associating domains (TADs)), and (iii) the ecological and demographic context in which the SV segregates.

TECHNOLOGICAL ADVANCES TRANSFORMING SV DISCOVERY AND INTERPRETATION

The study of structural variation has its roots in classical cytogenetics, which first revealed chromosomal inversions and large karyotypic differences (Sturtevant 1921), and has since expanded through molecular and genome-wide approaches. Early work in systems such as *Drosophila* (Dobzhansky and Sturtevant 1938), *Coelopa* (Butlin and Day 1985), and holocentric insects (White 1973) made clear that chromosomal rearrangements could underlie local adaptation, reproductive isolation, and dramatic karyotype evolution, but cytogenetic methods could resolve only

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their approximate positions and sizes, not nucleotide-level breakpoints or detailed gene content.

Short-read sequencing enabled population-scale SV discovery, but with major blind spots; complex rearrangements, multi-allelic CNVs, repeat-rich regions, and large insertions were systematically undercalled (Goodwin et al. 2016). Long-read platforms (PacBio HiFi, Oxford Nanopore), coupled with graph-based and telomere-to-telomere assemblies, now routinely span repetitive regions and complex breakpoints, revealing far more SVs and structural complexity within each locus (Mahmoud et al. 2019). Crucially, nucleotide-level breakpoint resolution allows us to infer mutational mechanism, NAHR on segmental duplications, transposable element (TE)-mediated ectopic recombination, replication slippage, and to connect these mechanisms to mutational spectra, genomic “hotspots” and diverse phenotypes (Lin and Gokcumen 2019; Karageorgiou et al. 2025). It also enables direct mapping of SVs onto regulatory annotations and 3D genome architecture, making it possible to identify SVs that overlap enhancers, promoters, CpG-rich regulatory regions, or architectural elements such as TAD boundaries, and to test whether these events are associated with changes in chromatin contacts or gene regulation in specific cases. The GWAS SVatalog study by Chirmade et al. (2025) in this issue exemplifies how integrating long-read SV catalogs with GWAS summary statistics can uncover putatively causal regulatory SVs that explain association signals previously attributed to noncoding SNPs. Advances in genomics act as a bridge from “where are the SVs?” to “how did they form?”, “what do they change?” and “under what neutral or selection regimes do they persist?”.

FUNCTIONAL IMPACTS ACROSS THE TREE OF LIFE: PERSPECTIVES FROM THIS SPECIAL ISSUE

Rather than organizing this special issue by structural class, we emphasize four broad categories of functional impact that recur across taxa and mechanisms. In this section, we highlight how structural variants shape function across the animal tree of life, drawing on case studies in insects (*Drosophila*, *Coelopa frigida*, the black soldier fly, and other Stratiomyidae), teleost fishes (Zoarcoidei and threespine stickleback), and humans.

Gene dosage and expression modulation

Copy-number changing SVs, duplications, deletions, multi-allelic CNVs, and tandem array expansions, directly reshape gene dosage and regulatory context. Gene duplication remains a major source of evolutionary novelty: duplicated genes may confer an adaptive increase in dosage, undergo subfunctionalization, neofunctionalize under relaxed constraint, or pseudogenize (Ohno 1971; Force et al. 1999). The paper by Zhou et al. (2025) in this issue shows how lineage-specific gene family expansions in the black soldier fly, occurring in a TE-rich genomic background, have amplified immune and olfactory functions, while Stratiomyidae more broadly show duplicated gene families enriched for digestive and metabolic functions, plausibly contributing to higher decomposer efficiency and the ecological success of *Hermetia illucens*.

In polar fishes, Moosman et al. (2025) illustrate how copy-number variation in antifreeze proteins can be highly heterogeneous even within individuals. By developing haplotype-aware tools to control for assembly uncertainty and switch errors in phased long-read genomes, they show that type III AFP arrays in Zoarcoidei harbor substantial haplotype-level CNV, with intra-individual differences of several to more than ten copies, providing the standing variation on which temperature-related selection can act.

Across taxa, dosage-modifying SVs have been tied to traits ranging from variation in amylase copy number that appears advantageous in starch-rich diets (Bolognini et al. 2024; Yilmaz et al. 2024; Scheer et al. 2025) to herbicide resistance mediated by

EPSPS amplification (Gaines et al. 2010) and to human brain evolution and neurodevelopmental disorders (Dennis et al. 2012; Soto et al. 2025). The GWAS SVatalog compiled in Chirmade et al. (2025) highlights how relatively small indels in UTRs or introns, such as deletions in *TF*, *KCNQ5*, and *TMEM106B*, can modulate transcription factor binding and chromatin marks, thereby providing plausible causal variants for disease-associated GWAS loci that could not be mechanistically explained by nearby SNPs alone.

Structural reorganization and recombination effects

Balanced rearrangements, especially inversions, alter the recombination landscape and thereby change the effective linkage among loci. Inversion heterokaryotypes experience suppressed crossing-over within the inverted segment, which can maintain beneficially adapted alleles together in the face of gene flow, accumulate deleterious recessive variants, and modulate gene flow between ecotypes or incipient species (Kirkpatrick 2010; Faria et al. 2019; Berdan et al. 2023).

Several inversion case studies in this issue illustrate these principles. In an ecological context, Nicolas et al. (2025) investigated the polymorphic *Cf-Inv(4.1)* inversion in *Coelopa frigida*, which displays parallel latitudinal clines in frequency across North America and Europe that closely track thermal gradients. Experimental work revealed that this inversion affects egg-to-adult viability in interaction with temperature and genetic background, and is associated with differences in female fecundity between karyotypes, despite having no detectable impact on classical cold-tolerance measures. The authors suggest that fitness differences are shaped by subtle life-history trade-offs whose relative advantage varies with climate, rather than by tolerance to thermal extremes.

In an experimental set-up, Rodríguez-Fuentes et al. (2025) tested the fitness consequences of three paracentric inversions that consistently differentiate marine and freshwater threespine stickleback populations. Controlled crosses revealed no deviations from Mendelian ratios and no strong lethality or intrinsic underdominance at any of the three inversions, but heterozygotes at the chromosome I inversion had reduced body condition specifically in the freshwater treatment, hinting at environment-dependent fitness trade-offs and possible genic incompatibilities between inversion orientations.

Complementing these systems, Paris et al. (2025) demonstrate that the cosmopolitan *In(3 R)Payne* inversion in *Drosophila melanogaster* behaves as a supergene affecting a suite of life-history, stress-resistance, and survival traits, with the heterokaryotype showing overdominance for multiple pre-adult fitness components and male desiccation resistance, and with context-dependent dominance shifts across traits, sexes, and temperatures consistent with multiple forms of balancing selection, further complicated by genotype-by-environment interactions and parental effects.

In concert with other recent work, these examples reinforce that inversions could be viewed as recombination modifiers with diverse and often context-dependent fitness effects, sometimes strongly adaptive, sometimes nearly neutral, sometimes burdened by mutation load or involved in associative overdominance (Kapun and Flatt 2019; Berdan et al. 2022; Schaal et al. 2022).

Chromosomal rearrangements and genome architecture

At larger scales, translocations and chromosome fissions/fusions reconstruct karyotypes, change linkage groups, and modify 3D genome organization (Álvarez-González and Ruiz-Herrera 2025). The review by Diblasi and Saitou (2025) in this issue synthesizes emerging work showing how fissions, fusions, and translocations alter recombination patterns, centromere behavior, meiotic segregation, and sex chromosome evolution, often in ways that feed back into adaptation and speciation.

Chromosome fusions can reduce the number of linkage groups, facilitating the co-inheritance of locally adapted alleles, while fissions can increase chromosome number and reshape recombination landscapes; both can interact with meiotic drive acting on centromere number and strength to bias transmission (Malik and Henikoff 2002). Translocations and neo-sex chromosome formation can link sex-determining loci with sexually antagonistic alleles or relocate genes into new regulatory neighborhoods, changing dosage and expression. High-resolution Hi-C and assembly work in mammals and insects shows that such rearrangements can distort long-range chromatin contacts and sometimes, though not always, perturb TAD structure and regulatory interactions (Álvarez-González et al. 2022). These observations extend the traditional view of karyotype evolution beyond a purely cytological description, emphasizing its mechanistic and functional consequences for gene regulation, 3D genome architecture, and the rate at which populations can respond to selection (Vara et al. 2021).

Population-level consequences and signatures of selection

Across these mechanistic and functional categories, selection regimes acting on SVs are heterogeneous. Examples include:

- Strong positive selection on specific SVs underlying herbicide resistance (Gaines et al. 2010), insecticide resistance (Gimenez et al. 2020), or rapid local adaptation in plants (Hämälä et al. 2021; Wilson et al. 2025), invertebrates (Villoutreix et al. 2023; Gompert et al. 2025), and vertebrates (Hager et al. 2022; Liang et al. 2024; Sridharan et al. 2025).
- Balancing selection maintaining polymorphic inversions or SV hotspots that harbor alternative ecological strategies (Joron et al. 2011; Lamichhaney et al. 2016; Mérot et al. 2020; Matschiner et al. 2022; Kapun et al. 2023), immune functions (Fang and Edwards 2024), or oxygen transport variants (Leffler et al. 2017).
- Purifying selection eliminating deleterious rearrangements (Kondrashov et al. 2002; Kondrashov and Kondrashov 2006), particularly those disrupting essential genes or regulatory architecture (Zhang et al. 2011; Uddin et al. 2014; Gardner et al. 2019; Saxena and Baer 2025), with surviving SVs often biased toward gene-poor or functionally buffered regions (Lin and Gokcumen 2019; Igoikina et al. 2025).
- Nearly neutral or drift-dominated dynamics, especially in repeat-rich regions where recurrent formation and loss produces high turnover without clear phenotypic associations (Charlesworth et al. 1994; Mularoni et al. 2010; Palazzo and Koonin 2020).

Importantly, elevated frequency or wide geographic spread of an SV does not automatically imply positive selection or adaptation. Recurrent structural variants at mutational hotspots, biased segregation (meiotic drive), or demographic processes can all elevate SV frequencies without conferring fitness benefits. The stickleback experiments in this issue are particularly instructive. Inversions that consistently differentiate marine and freshwater populations show minimal fitness differences under the salinity regimes assayed, suggesting that salinity alone is unlikely to explain their evolution, and that either other selective forces or more subtle, context-dependent fitness effects may be involved (Rodríguez-Fuentes et al. 2025).

EXPANDING BEYOND MODEL ORGANISMS

These papers suggest that emerging technologies are gradually loosening the field's long-standing dependence on a few classical model systems. Chromosome-level assemblies and long-read resequencing are increasingly available for non-model taxa with diverse karyotypes, life histories, and ecological niches, from

soldier flies and robber flies to a growing set of vertebrates and plants (Rhie et al. 2021; Zhou et al. 2025). This broader coverage is beginning to reveal a wider range of SV mechanisms, sizes, and genomic contexts, including many that would be difficult to detect with short-read data alone (Sedlazeck et al. 2018; Moosman et al. 2025; Chirmade et al. 2025). As sampling expands across the tree of life, it becomes more feasible to ask which patterns—such as TE-associated genome expansions, inversion-mediated local adaptation, or fusion-associated changes in sex chromosomes—are common versus lineage-specific (Diblasi and Saitou 2025). Non-model systems also provide comparative settings where similar ecological challenges seem to have been resolved by distinct SV architectures, creating valuable opportunities for comparative inference. Population-scale sampling remains a major challenge. Pangenome initiatives in humans, domestic animals, and crops show that haplotype-specific sequences and SVs contribute substantially to adaptive and economically important traits and the same will likely prove true across the tree of life (Qin et al. 2021; Liao et al. 2023). Designing SV studies that span multiple populations and environmental niches will be essential for understanding the functional consequences of structural variation.

ON PREDICTING FUNCTION

The central message emerging from this special issue is that SV type does not equate to SV impact. The same mechanistic class, for instance a paracentric inversion, can be neutral, adaptive, or deleterious, depending on which genes and regulatory elements are involved, how recombination is altered, and under which ecological and demographic conditions the variant segregates. Conversely, very different structural events can converge on similar functional outcomes; duplications, TE insertions, and fusions can all create new regulatory environments or alter gene dosage for the same pathways.

To move toward prediction, we need a comprehensive approach that explicitly links:

1. Mechanism and structure: what mutational process generated the SV, what is its precise structure, and how stable is it (e.g., propensity for rearrangements)?
2. Molecular and cellular function: which genes, regulatory elements, chromatin domains, and centromeres are altered, and how does this affect expression, chromatin state, and recombination?
3. Population-genetic dynamics: what are the fitness effects across environments, the dominance relationships (including load and overdominance), and the null expectations under neutral processes?
4. Macroevolutionary consequences: how do SVs contribute to long-term phenotypic innovation, karyotype evolution, and lineage diversification?

CONCLUSIONS AND OUTLOOK

The studies gathered here present a snapshot of the diversity of mechanisms, functions, and selection regimes through which SVs shape genomes and phenotypes. They demonstrate that SVs are not peripheral outliers but major contributors to gene regulatory variation, gene family evolution, genome architecture, and local adaptation across taxa. They also show that simple inferences from structural class or frequency are insufficient; understanding SVs demands attention to mechanism, context, and ecology. Several future directions seem particularly pressing. First, improved theoretical models for the population genetics of SVs, incorporating recombination suppression, multi-locus linkage, mutation load, and heterogeneous environments, are needed to

interpret empirical patterns and to predict when inversions, fusions, or CNVs have been favored. Second, population-scale pangenomes and long-read resequencing across diverse lineages or populations will be essential to capture the full spectrum of SVs and to integrate them into GWAS, eQTL, and selection scans on equal footing with SNPs, moving from a handful of well-characterized loci to genome-wide maps of structural haplotypes and the evolutionary processes acting on them. Third, functional follow-up, from reporter assays and/or CRISPR editing of structural haplotypes to comparative phenotyping of engineered karyotypes, will be required to move from correlation to causation.

Genomics will be most effective when structural variants are treated not as a separate category, but as an integral part of models describing how genomes encode, regulate, and evolve phenotypes. The work showcased in this issue takes important steps in that direction, and invites us to rethink our theoretical and empirical approaches accordingly.

Charikleia Karageorgiou¹✉, Ellen M. Leffler²✉, Megan Y. Dennis^{3,4}✉ and Omer Gokcumen¹✉

¹Department of Biological Sciences, University at Buffalo, Buffalo, NY, USA. ²Department of Human Genetics, University of Utah School of Medicine, Salt Lake City, UT, USA. ³Department of Biochemistry & Molecular Medicine, MIND Institute, University of California, Davis, CA, USA. ⁴Genome Center, University of California, Davis, CA, USA. Associate editor: Aurora Ruiz-Herrera. ✉email: charikle@buffalo.edu; leffler@genetics.utah.edu; mydennis@ucdavis.edu; omergokc@buffalo.edu

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COMPETING INTERESTS

The authors declare no competing interests.