

1 **Mimicry diversification in *Papilio dardanus* via a genomic inversion in the regulatory**  
2 **region of *engrailed-inverted***

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20 **Abstract**

21 Polymorphic Batesian mimics exhibit multiple protective morphs that each mimic different  
22 noxious models. Here we study the genomic transitions leading to the evolution of different  
23 mimetic wing patterns in the polymorphic Mocker Swallowtail *Papilio dardanus*. We  
24 generated a draft genome (231 Mb over 30 chromosomes) and re-sequenced individuals of  
25 three morphs. Genome-wide SNP analysis revealed elevated linkage disequilibrium and  
26 divergence between morphs in the regulatory region of *engrailed*, a developmental gene  
27 previously implicated in the mimicry switch. The diverged region exhibits a discrete  
28 chromosomal inversion (of 40 kb) relative to the ancestral orientation that is associated  
29 with the *cenea* morph, but not with the bottom-recessive *hippocoonides* morph or with non-  
30 mimetic allopatric populations. The functional role of this inversion in the expression of  
31 the novel phenotype is currently unknown, but by preventing recombination, it allows the  
32 stable inheritance of divergent alleles enabling geographic spread and local co-existence  
33 of multiple adaptive morphs.

34

35

36 **Keywords:** Supergene; Batesian mimicry; butterflies; genomic rearrangement;  
37 polymorphism

38 **Background**

39 Mimetic butterflies undergo profound evolutionary changes in wing patterns driven by  
40 selection for a common signal deterring visual predators [1]. In Batesian mimics, which  
41 imitate harmful models but are not chemically defended themselves, the fitness advantage  
42 of being mimetic is a function of the predator's encounter frequency of palatable  
43 individuals among unpalatable ones. Thus, a rare phenotype has a better chance of survival  
44 than a frequent one and the lowered fitness with increasing abundance (negative frequency  
45 dependent selection) may favour the evolution of multiple forms that each resemble a  
46 different noxious model [2]. In various cases of Batesian mimics several such morphs co-  
47 exist as phenotypically discrete, genetically controlled variants within a single population  
48 [1, 2]. The African Mocker Swallowtail, *Papilio dardanus*, (Fig. 1) is a widely known  
49 example of a polymorphic Batesian mimic. The species has played a central role in the  
50 debate about the evolution of phenotypic diversity [3,4,5], starting with Trimen's work in  
51 the 1860s [6]. Sometimes referred to as "the most interesting butterfly in the world" [3],  
52 well over 100 variants have been named, including geographic races (subspecies) and about  
53 a dozen genetically well-defined wing pattern morphs (forms) that may co-occur in  
54 populations [7–9]. Females only are mimetic and both sexual dimorphism and female  
55 polymorphisms presumably are driven by negative frequency dependent selection from  
56 predators [10–12].

57

58 In *P. dardanus*, wing colours and patterns are controlled by a single Mendelian locus, *H*,  
59 whose various alleles segregate according to a well-defined hierarchy of dominance [3,13–  
60 15]. Phylogenetic analysis of subspecies and closely related species has led to the  
61 conclusion that mimicry has arisen fairly recently in *P. dardanus* and that the female  
62 mimetic forms are likely to have evolved from a 'male-like', presumed ancestral phenotype  
63 that is still found on Madagascar where the species is monomorphic and non-mimetic (Fig.  
64 1) [16]. Segregation analysis in pedigree-broods using AFLP [17] and population genetics  
65 [18] have shown that the mimicry switch in *P. dardanus* is genetically linked to the  
66 *engrailed-invested* locus, a region that codes for two paralogous homeodomain  
67 transcription factors involved in anterior-posterior patterning [19].

68 Here, we study the genomic mechanisms that ultimately lead to the evolution of multiple  
69 mimetic phenotypes in *P. dardanus*. The simple Mendelian segregation of the wing colour  
70 and pattern traits led early geneticists to argue that a novel phenotype arises through a  
71 single macromutation [4,20]. However, the idea of achieving perfect mimics in a single  
72 step was generally dismissed by proponents of the Modern Synthesis [21,22] who argued  
73 that Mendelian inheritance alone was not sufficient to prove an origin through a single  
74 mutation. Instead, a two-step mechanism, first proposed by Nicholson [23], became the  
75 favoured hypothesis: a new mimetic phenotype originates via an initial large-effect  
76 mutation that provides at least moderate resemblance to a new mimicry model, after which  
77 genetically linked secondary mutations gradually improve the resemblance [24,25]. A  
78 gradual process of mimicry evolution was also favoured by computer simulations of  
79 varying recombination frequency and selection strength [26]. Under this hypothesis the  
80 initial mutation acts as a ‘genomic sieve’ [27] for closely linked mutations that improve  
81 the resemblance to the model; selection against non-mimetic intermediates then leads to  
82 the evolution of tighter linkage among genes determining colour and pattern [26,28],  
83 potentially producing a ‘supergene’ controlling multiple linked mutations, such that  
84 different polymorphic traits show Mendelian co-segregation [28–30].

85  
86 A critical aspect of this process is that genetic recombination among functional sites is low,  
87 preventing the formation of intermediates with lower fitness. Molecular genetics studies in  
88 polymorphic butterflies, beetles and birds have detected associated genomic inversions as  
89 a mechanism that increases linkage of co-adapted mutations [31–36]. However, the  
90 importance of these inversions in the initial evolution and further diversification of  
91 polymorphic forms remains unclear. Mimetic polymorphism may exist with and without  
92 genomic inversions, as seen in the closely related Southeast Asian *Papilio polytes* and *P.*  
93 *memnon* whose mimicry locus (in the *dsx* genomic region) is contained in an inversion  
94 only in *P. polytes* [37].

95  
96 To understand the genetic architecture underlying polymorphic mimicry in *P. dardanus* we  
97 use comparative genomics of three female ‘forms’ (Fig. 1). Specifically, among the  
98 numerous female-limited mimicry types the prevalent morph is the form *hippocoon* (f.

99 *hippocoon*), also referred to as f. *hippocoonides* in some parts of its range, which is a black-  
100 and-white phenotype mimicking the danaid *Amauris niavius*. This morph is widely  
101 distributed on the African mainland and is recessive to all others. A further widespread  
102 phenotype is the black-and-orange form *cenea* (f. *cenea*) present mostly in specific regions  
103 of Kenya (subspecies *P. d. polytrophus*) and south-eastern Africa (subspecies *P. d. cenea*).  
104 Numerous other mimetic morphs co-occur within populations of these two subspecies at  
105 various frequencies throughout sub-Saharan Africa [7], but populations in Madagascar are  
106 always monomorphic and have been recognised as a separate subspecies, *P. d. meriones*  
107 [15]. Using a newly generated draft genome sequence we assess evidence for reduced  
108 recombination and genetic divergence in *P. dardanus*, and search for local rearrangements  
109 that might control the phenotypic switch. This first genome wide study of *P. dardanus*  
110 allows greater insight into the evolution of multiple mimicry forms and their stable  
111 inheritance in populations.

112

## 113 **Results**

### 114 Draft genome and linkage map

115 A draft genome sequence was constructed using a three-generation laboratory inbred male  
116 of subspecies *P. dardanus tibullus*, which was homozygous for the bottom recessive f.  
117 *hippocoonides* allele (Fig. 1). We obtained an assembly of 7,365 scaffolds (N50=596,599;  
118 L50 = 99) with a total length of 231,123,043 bp, which was very similar to a genome size  
119 estimate of 232 Mb obtained using k-mer counts (electronic supplementary  
120 material, figure S1). We were able to annotate 12,795 potential protein coding sequences  
121 (CDS) and obtained Gene Ontology annotations for 8,111 putative protein coding  
122 sequences. The level of completeness was similar to published draft genomes of three  
123 related *Papilio* species (electronic supplementary material, table S1 ). The entire mimicry  
124 locus *H* [17,18] was contained in two scaffolds which were merged into a 2.5 Mb scaffold  
125 using information from a publicly available BAC clone sequence from the same morph  
126 [18].

127

128 The scaffolds were assessed for correct assembly using co-segregation of RADseq  
129 polymorphisms generated for two pedigree broods (14 and 33 F1 individuals respectively).

130 For each brood, SNPs were selected that were heterozygous in the female parent and  
131 homozygous in the male parent. There is no crossing over in female Lepidoptera [38], and  
132 thus all heterozygous positions on a correctly assembled scaffold should show identical  
133 inheritance patterns in every offspring of a brood. Of the 7,365 scaffolds, 402 (total length:  
134 193,743,404 bp) contained at least two polymorphic RADtags and could be included in  
135 this analysis. Using SNP markers within the RADtags that were the furthest apart in the  
136 physical maps of the scaffolds, 379 of these 402 scaffolds showed matching SNP patterns  
137 in all the progeny, while discrepancies were observed for the remaining 23 scaffolds, whose  
138 correct assembly could therefore not be confirmed (electronic supplementary material,  
139 figure S2). The RADseq data were further used to merge the scaffolds into 29 unordered  
140 bins to represent provisional groups of linked sequences. Of the 12,795 *P. dardanus* CDS,  
141 9349 could be associated to one of these chromosome bins. Comparison with the well  
142 annotated *Heliconius melpomene* genome largely confirmed the groups (electronic  
143 supplementary material, figure S3). The 29 bins are not expected to include sex  
144 chromosomes as the analyses only used SNPs that are heterozygous in the female parent  
145 (female Lepidoptera are ZW, males ZZ). The data therefore suggests that *P. dardanus*  
146 exhibits 30 chromosomes (29 bins plus the sex chromosomes), in accordance with an AFLP  
147 study [17] and several related *Papilio* [39].

148

#### 149 Genomics of mimicry morphs

150 Genomic differentiation of morphs was established by shotgun sequencing of specimens  
151 of *hippocooides* (n=4), *cenea* (n=4), and an individual of the non-mimetic subspecies *P.*  
152 *d. meriones* (Fig. 1; Table 1; electronic supplementary material, table S2). Reads were  
153 mapped onto the genomic scaffolds that are longer than 100 kb (n=420). Genome-wide  
154 SNP analysis of 5-kb windows (electronic supplementary material, figure S4) detected  
155 elevated  $F_{st}$  values between the samples of *hippocooides* and *cenea* individuals in various  
156 regions throughout the genome, including a region of ~75 kb covering the *engrailed-*  
157 *invected* locus. This latter ~75 kb region also showed elevated LD. No such pattern of joint  
158 elevated LD and  $F_{st}$  was observed in any of the other 420 long contigs (electronic  
159 supplementary material, figure S4). These observations support the notion that within this  
160 region genetic subdivision is elevated and recombination is rarer than in other regions of

161 the *P. dardanus* genome (Fig. 2). The pinpointed region did not show evidence of elevated  
162 nucleotide diversity when analysing sequences from the *hippocoonides* and *cenea* morphs  
163 together (Fig. 2). However, sequence divergence (estimated as p-distance) between the  
164 *hippocoonides* individuals and the reference genome sequence (derived from a  
165 *hippocoonides* individual) was sharply lower in the pinpointed region than for the *cenea*  
166 individuals and the more divergent *P. d. meriones* (Fig. 2).

167

168 Closer inspection of the ~75 kb region revealed paired reads that were placed ~40 kb apart  
169 and in opposite orientation in all four f. *cenea* individuals (electronic supplementary  
170 material, figure S5). Such read-pairs were not observed in the four f. *hippocoonides*  
171 samples. This indicates that the genetically diverged region contains a ~40 kb inversion  
172 associated to the mimetic f. *cenea*. The inversion was not found in the non-mimetic *P. d.*  
173 *meriones* from Madagascar, which indicates that the bottom-recessive mimetic f.  
174 *hippocoonides* has the same arrangement as this male-like form, and therefore this specific  
175 arrangement is ancestral. The four f. *cenea* specimens represented two distinct subspecies  
176 from Kenya (*P. d. polytrophus* f. *cenea*) and South Africa (*P. d. cenea* f. *cenea*). The  
177 sequence data furthermore indicated that the Kenyan specimens carried a non-inverted  
178 allele too, suggesting they are heterozygous for f. *cenea* and f. *hippocoonides* ( $H_c/H_h$ )  
179 (Table 1) which is in agreement with breeding experiments (electronic supplementary  
180 material, figure S6). The South African f. *cenea* specimen was homozygous for the  
181 inversion; while homozygosity for the *cenea* allele has not been confirmed by breeding, it  
182 is likely because this morph is very common in this part of the species range [13].

183

184 We validated the inversion for several additional specimens of the two mimetic morphs by  
185 PCR amplification with boundary-defining primers (Fig. 3). PCR fragments confirmed the  
186 predicted inversion: all 4 additional f. *hippocoonides* individuals retained the arrangement  
187 of the draft genome physical map (based on primer pair A-B and C-D; electronic  
188 supplementary material, figure S7), consistent with the findings from the sequenced  
189 individuals. Four additional f. *cenea* individuals showed the ~40 kb inversion (primer pair  
190 A-C and B-D). These *cenea* females also showed the A-B and C-D fragments of the  
191 reference map, indicating they are heterozygous ( $H_c/H_h$ ). Fisher exact tests for association

192 between phenotype and inversion were highly significant ( $P < 0.0001$ ) (electronic  
193 supplementary material, table S3).

194

195 To test whether the genomic region surrounding *engrailed* and *invected* recombines freely,  
196 we used RAD data for two pedigree broods (homozygous f. *hippocoonides*), using 199  
197 SNPs at sites with variants in the male but not the female parents in the ~2.5 Mb scaffold  
198 containing *engrailed-invected*. We detected seven recombination events in one brood and  
199 two in the other (Fig. 2; electronic supplementary material, table S4), for a relatively high  
200 recombination frequency of 7.8 cM/Mb (9 recombination events in 47 offspring, or 19.1  
201 cM, over a distance of 2,458 Mb of the scaffold). These results were similar to those  
202 presented by Clark et al. [17], who analysed a cross between a heterozygous male ( $H_h/H_c$ )  
203 and a homozygous female ( $H_h/H_h$ ) and reported 5 recombination events between male-  
204 informative AFLP markers ACT and PD (highlighted on Fig. 2), which flank the *engrailed-*  
205 *invected* region, after scoring 35 F1 individuals.

206

## 207 **Discussion**

208 Our genomic analysis revealed a 40 kb inversion in *P. dardanus* at ~6,800 bp upstream of  
209 the *engrailed* start codon, which differentiates the haplotype associated with the  
210 *hippocoonides* and *cenea* morphs, and coincides with localized peaks in LD and  $F_{st}$   
211 between haplotypes of these morphs. Mimicry loci have been postulated to consist of  
212 several tightly linked, epistatically interacting loci that in concert determine adaptive  
213 phenotypes (i.e. acting as a supergene) [29]. Such interaction of multiple sites requires  
214 regions of reduced recombination preventing the segregation of co-adapted loci, which was  
215 broadly confirmed in recent work demonstrating inversions in mimicry-linked genomic  
216 regions of other mimetic butterflies [31,32,34,37,40]. We have not determined the  
217 sequence of the *cenea* ( $H_c$ ) allele and do not know whether several independent mutations  
218 are required for the switch between f. *cenea* and f. *hippocoonides* to happen, but the fact  
219 that a recombination suppressing inversion exists suggests a genomic architecture  
220 consistent with the supergene hypothesis (although due to the linkage of mutations within  
221 the inversion, it will not be possible to uncover the functional sites without functional  
222 studies).



223

224 The inversion in *P. dardanus* is small, compared to those associated with the mimicry loci  
225 in the Batesian mimic *P. polytes* and the Müllerian mimic *H. numata*, which stretch over  
226 130 kb and at least 400 kb, respectively, and in those species result in allelic divergence in  
227 several protein coding genes. The *P. dardanus* inversion also differs from those species by  
228 the fact that it is found in an extended regulatory region apparently devoid of protein coding  
229 sequences. The region contains various enhancer sequences [41,42] that in other species  
230 have been shown to exert *cis*-regulatory control of both *engrailed* and *invected* and  
231 therefore likely affect unlinked genes determining the colour pattern, as initially envisioned  
232 by the ‘regulatory hypothesis’ of Nijhout [8,43]. *Invected* also contains an intronic  
233 microRNA (miR-2768) conserved in Lepidoptera (Fig. 3; electronic supplementary  
234 material, figure S8), which has been shown to downregulate *cubitus interruptus (ci)*, a gene  
235 that determines patterning of the wing primordia via the *hedgehog* signalling pathway in  
236 nymphalid butterflies [44].

237

238 In *P. dardanus* the universally recessive *hippocoonides* form, despite being mimetic,  
239 apparently retains the presumed ancestral orientation found in the allopatric and genetically  
240 divergent (Fig. 2) Madagascan subspecies. This demonstrates that an inversion is not  
241 critical for the origin of mimetic forms, as also observed in *P. memnon* [37]. However,  
242 when multiple mimetic female forms are found in sympatry chromosomal inversions will  
243 assist stable segregation of divergent phenotypes, as has been shown for *P. polytes* [37].  
244 Here we show that inversions are associated with multiple sympatric mimicry forms also  
245 in *P. dardanus* in mainland Africa. Balanced inversion polymorphisms may be maintained  
246 in populations by negative frequency-dependent selection (Type II polymorphisms of  
247 [45]). In addition, the spread of an advantageous phenotype is promoted when it is  
248 associated with an inversion (e.g. see [46]). The f. *cenea*-linked inversion has spread widely  
249 across the African continent and across subspecies boundaries, as evident from the  
250 presence of the *cenea* morph in *P. d. polytrophus* from Kenya and *P. d. cenea* from South  
251 Africa, geographically separated by at least 3000 km (Fig. 1). The fact that the same  
252 inversion is associated with the *cenea* morph in different subspecies, adds support for its  
253 role in defining the phenotype.

254

255 It still needs to be confirmed if the regulatory region of *engrailed-invected* plays any  
256 functional role in determining the pleiotropic changes of the wing. However, *P. dardanus*  
257 would not be unique in having regulatory changes underlying polymorphic mimicry. A  
258 recent study on the nymphalid *Hypolimnas misippus*, which displays sex-limited mimicry,  
259 revealed a 10-kb intergenic region upstream of the *Sox5/6* gene to be strongly associated  
260 to the wing phenotype, suggesting that a cis-regulatory element plays a role in pattern  
261 determination [47]. Inversions in an intron of the *pannier* locus determining colour  
262 polymorphism in a ladybird beetle have been shown to affect gene expression and to  
263 underlie phenotypic differences among colour morphs [48], also supporting *cis*-regulation  
264 of the phenotype through inversions of non-coding regions. If the 40-kb inversion in *P.*  
265 *dardanus* has *cis*-regulatory effects on the expression of one or more of *engrailed*, *invected*  
266 and miR-2768 (and possibly the adjacent gene *orange*), the genetic architecture of the  
267 region may be particularly conducive to the evolution of novel phenotypes. Thus, new  
268 inversions may provide the hypothesized major-effect shifts through their regulatory  
269 function that impacts the mosaic of pattern and colour elements of the wing.

270

271 Other morphs now need to be investigated for chromosomal rearrangements in this region,  
272 and may not exclusively involve inversions, given a previously reported duplication of  
273 *engrailed-invected* and a few neighbouring genes closely associated with one of the other  
274 *P. dardanus* female forms (f. *lamborni*) [18]. Preliminary results also suggest a genomic  
275 rearrangement in an individual of f. *planemoides*, which indicates that recombination-  
276 suppressing reordering of the *engrailed* region is an integral part of the evolution of new  
277 mimicry morphs. Determination of the phenotype likely works in concert with other  
278 changes in the *engrailed-invected* region, such as those in the first exon of *engrailed* found  
279 in the top-dominant f. *poultoni* and f. *planemoides* that exhibit a statistically significant  
280 overrepresentation of non-synonymous substitutions indicative of diversifying selection  
281 [49]. These divergent sites are outside of the newly detected inversions, perhaps suggesting  
282 that for some morphs a combination of the divergent *engrailed* coding region and the  
283 upstream inversion are required for correct specification of the phenotype. The presence of  
284 chromosomal rearrangements might suppress the recombination frequency even beyond

285 the inverted region, as already evident from the wider region of high LD and  $F_{st}$  extending  
286 to ~75 kb (Fig. 3). Accordingly, recombinants producing maladaptive intermediate  
287 phenotypes should exist but are rare, and such non-mimetic phenotypes may persist locally.

288

289 With each study of polymorphic systems, now including the prototypical *P. dardanus*, the  
290 understanding of how discrete adaptive phenotypes evolve and are maintained in natural  
291 populations improves: all currently described butterfly mimicry loci show the expected  
292 signatures of allelic divergence, indicating that complex phenotypes indeed require  
293 multiple sites and probably evolved in smaller steps. However, the mechanisms by which  
294 tight linkage is achieved differ, as do the loci that determine the phenotypic switch.  
295 Inversions are not necessary, but helpful to promote the capture of alleles under positive  
296 selection, because they contribute to maintaining the alleles that would otherwise break up  
297 genetically linked sites and lead to poor fitness. They might also contribute to the genetic  
298 variation producing novel phenotypes, although for *P. dardanus*, the challenge remains to  
299 determine any role of the inversion in gene expression or the regulation of downstream  
300 pathways, in order to track the macro- and micro-mutations on the evolutionary trajectory  
301 towards stable polymorphisms of mimicry forms.

302

## 303 **Methods**

### 304 Genome sequencing, assembly and annotation

305 The draft genome sequence was generated from an inbred male specimen of subspecies *P.*  
306 *dardanus tibullus* (electronic supplementary material, table S2). Genomic DNA was used  
307 for construction of Illumina TruSeq libraries (insert sizes of 300 bp and 800 bp) and a  
308 Nextera mate-pair (MP) library prior to sequencing on Illumina platforms, followed by  
309 standard procedures for adapter removal and quality trimming. GenomeScope [50] was  
310 used to estimate genome size by obtaining the mean of the k-mer count distribution.  
311 Sequencing errors were corrected using QUAKE v0.3.5 [51] using JELLYFISH v1.1.11  
312 for k-mer counting [52]. Using an estimated genome size of 200 Mb we used k=17 for error  
313 correction and Quake was run using default parameters. Genome assembly was conducted  
314 using Platanus v. 1.2.4 [53], using only paired-end data for generating initial contigs, while  
315 using mate-pair data for subsequent steps as recommended by the developers (number of

316 links for scaffolding = 10). For improving accuracy of the assembly, removing redundancy  
317 and further scaffolding we used HaploMerger2 (Release 20151124) [54]. WindowMasker  
318 v1.0.0. was first used to mask repetitive regions and all-against-all whole genome  
319 alignments were then obtained using LASTZ and reciprocally-best whole-genome  
320 alignments using chainNET to generate an improved haploid assembly.

321

322 The haploid assembly was further scaffolded using SSPACE v3.0 (number of links = 10),  
323 using both paired-end and mate-pair libraries. Insert sizes were estimated by using the  
324 library \*\_insFreq.tsv file generated by Platanus. This assembly was further refined by the  
325 removal of tandem assembly errors and gaps in the assembly were closed using GapCloser.  
326 Lastly, to remove scaffolds that could be from contaminations, we built a custom database  
327 consisting of representative bacterial genomes from NCBI RefSeq 6, four reference  
328 genomes for *Papilio* sp. (*P. machaon*: GCA\_001298355.1; *P. polytes*: GCF\_000836215.1;  
329 *P. xuthus*: GCF\_000836235.1; and *P. glaucus*: GCA\_000931545.1) and a reference human  
330 genome (GRCh38.p7). All scaffolds were searched against the reference database using  
331 BLASTN with e-value of 1E-5. Genome completeness of this draft genome and other  
332 *Papilio* genomes was assessed using BUSCO version 3 [55]. The assembly was annotated  
333 using MAKER2 [56] with gene predictors trained by AUGUSTUS [57] using the BUSCO  
334 ortholog set. Predicted protein and RNA sequences from genome assemblies of other  
335 *Papilio* species were used as evidence. For functional annotations, protein sequences were  
336 matched to SWISS-PROT [58] using BLASTP (E-value 1e-5) and subject to InterProScan  
337 [59] for detection of protein signatures.

338

### 339 Scaffold clustering and mimicry locus genetic recombination

340 Sets of unordered linked scaffolds (“chromosome bins”) were obtained by SNP segregation  
341 in RADseq data generated for two *P. dardanus* broods of 14 and 35 offspring. RAD library  
342 construction was performed using *Pst*I restriction digestion and barcoded libraries were  
343 sequenced (100 bp single-end reads). Reads were de-multiplexed using the process\_radtags  
344 script of the package Stacks and subsequently mapped onto the genomic scaffolds using  
345 bbmap (sourceforge.net/projects/bbmap/) (setting: ambiguous=toss local=t). The resulting  
346 SAM files were sorted and converted to BAM files using SAMtools. Picard-tools-1.117

347 (<http://broadinstitute.github.io/picard>) was used to add read group information and merge  
348 the individual files of each brood into a single BAM file (i.e. one merged file per brood).  
349 These files were then converted to VCF format using the HaplotypeCaller program of  
350 GATK. Positions with 18x coverage or less for at least one of the samples within a brood  
351 were removed using SNPsift and the file converted to OneMap format using the  
352 `vcf_to_onemap_input` version 1.0 python script and positions heterozygous in the female  
353 parent (Onemap notation: 'a,b') and homozygous in the male (Onemap notation: 'a,a')  
354 parent (OneMap crosstype: D1.10) were extracted. For each scaffold with at least two  
355 segregating RADtags we tested co-segregation of the most distant SNPs to detect  
356 inconsistencies in segregation pattern, indicating incorrect assemblies. Co-segregation of  
357 SNPs was subsequently used to group scaffolds into linkage groups. CDS from linkage  
358 groups were compared to the *Heliconius melpomene* genome (version 2) and the positions  
359 of sequence matches on 21 *H. melpomene* chromosomes were recorded. The Perl GD::SVG  
360 library was used to visualise the positions of sequence matches. The RAD data was also  
361 used to investigate recombination within the scaffold containing *engrailed-inverted*. SNPs  
362 homozygous in the female parent and heterozygous in the male parent were extracted and  
363 inspected manually for evidence of genomic recombination.

364

#### 365 Population genomics of the *P. dardanus* supergene

366 Genomic data for eight specimens (Table 1) were mapped onto all scaffolds >100 kb using  
367 the BWA-MEM algorithm [60], merging the data for *hippocoonides* and *cenea* specimens  
368 into two separate files. Mean coverage was calculated for both for 5 kb sliding windows  
369 using SAMtools depth function and a custom perl script. To remove repetitive regions,  
370 sites with >400x coverage were masked for this analysis. The two files were merged and  
371 Kelly's ZnS statistic (the average of the LD measure  $r^2$  calculated between all pairs of  
372 SNPs) [61], nucleotide diversity ( $\pi$ ), and mean p-distance to the reference genome  
373 sequence were calculated using PopBam (sliding window 5 kb) [62].  $F_{st}$  values were  
374 calculated using VCFtools 0.1.12 [63] contrasting the *hippocoonides* and *cenea* morphs  
375 (window size 5 kb). PCR was used to validate a genomic inversions (Fig. 2) using  
376 additional *hippocoonides* and *cenea* specimens (electronic supplementary material, figure  
377 S7) and the following primers: A) 5'-gktgtcgatttttgcggcta-3', B) 5'-

378 aactaaaactrtyagagacacgcaa-3', C) 5'-tyaacgggtcagacaagttt-3' and D) 5'-  
379 amatggcgatgractgmca-3'. Fisher exact tests (two-tailed) were performed to test for  
380 association between phenotype and presence of an inversion (taking the dominance  
381 hierarchy into account) (electronic supplementary material, table S3).

382

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390

### 391 **Data accessibility**

392 Sequence data that support the findings of this study have been deposited in GenBank with  
393 the accession codes PRJNA451133, PRJNA600400, PRJNA600373 and SAMN05819004.

394

### 395 **Author' contributions**

396 MJTNT participated in the design of the study, carried out the molecular lab work, analysed  
397 data, and drafted the manuscript; AS carried out bioinformatics analyses and drafted the  
398 manuscript; SC participated in the design of the study and provided specimens; RM  
399 provided bioinformatics resources and critically revised the manuscript; APV participated  
400 in the design of the study and drafted the manuscript. All authors gave final approval for  
401 publication and agree to be held accountable for the work performed therein.

402

### 403 **Competing interests**

404 There are no competing interests.

405

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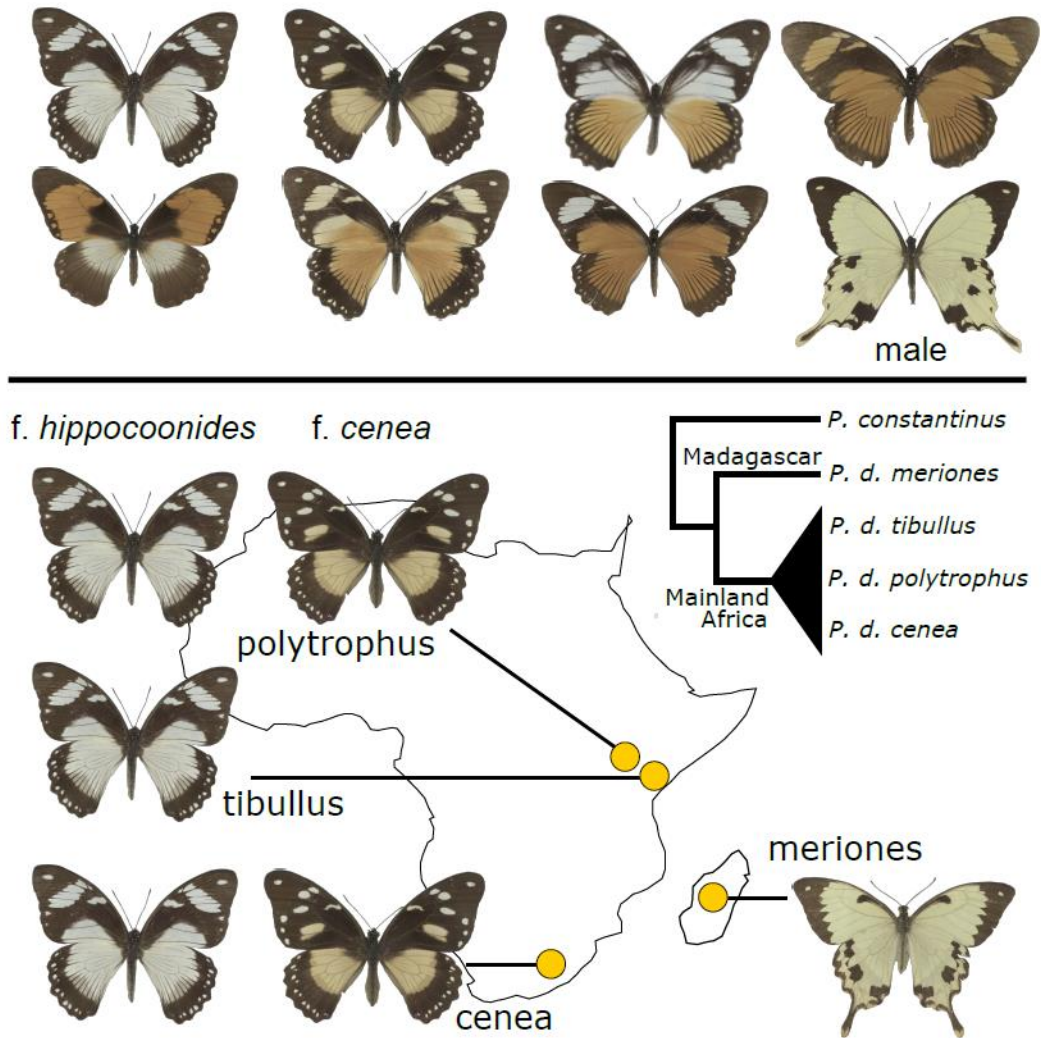
552  
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553

554 **Table 1:** Samples used for sequencing.

555

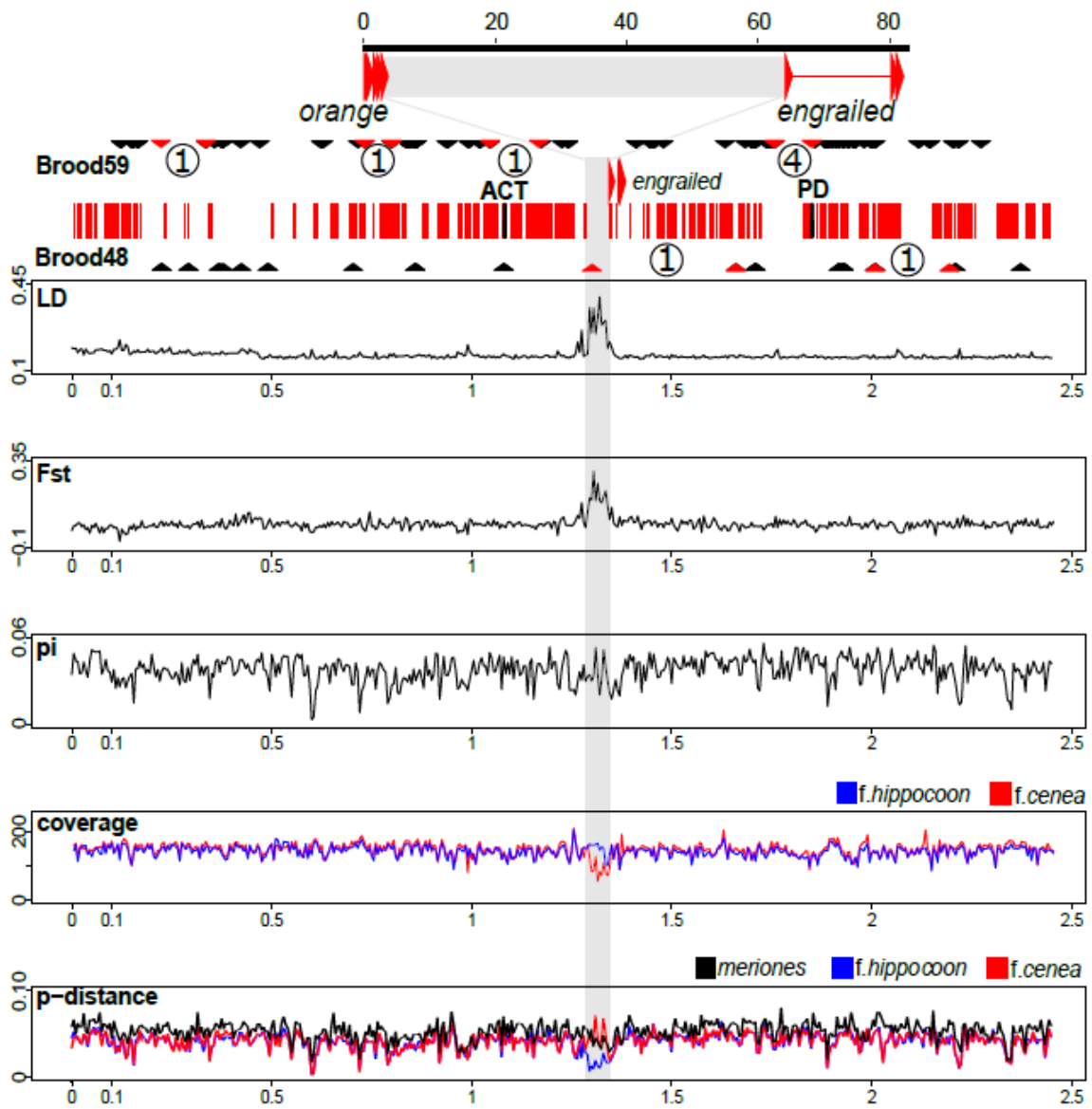
Voucher number	Geographic origin	Subspecies	Phenotype	H genotype	# Paired-End Reads	Estimated coverage	Reference orientation	40 kb inversion
BMNH746848	Kenya	polytrophus	hippocoonides	H <sub>h</sub> / H <sub>h</sub>	38039853	41	x	
BMNH746826	Kenya	polytrophus	hippocoonides	H <sub>h</sub> / H <sub>h</sub>	55548066	60	x	
BMNH847389	Kenya	polytrophus	hippocoonides	H <sub>h</sub> / H <sub>h</sub>	35666867	39	x	
BMNH746846	South Africa	cenea	hippocoonides	H <sub>h</sub> / H <sub>h</sub>	40600315	44	x	
BMNH746453	Kenya	polytrophus	cenea	H <sub>c</sub> /H <sub>h</sub>	49512794	54	x	x
BMNH746764	Kenya	polytrophus	cenea	H <sub>c</sub> /H <sub>h</sub>	56085254	61	x	x
Troph-c-02-46	Kenya	polytrophus	cenea	H <sub>c</sub> /H <sub>h</sub>	42184635	46	x	x
BMNH847353	South Africa	cenea	cenea	H <sub>c</sub> /?	39434400	43		x
BMNH740167	Madagascar	meriones	meriones		31242775	34	x	

556 H genotype: H<sub>c</sub> = H<sub>cenea</sub> , H<sub>h</sub> = H<sub>hippocoonides</sub>. #Paired End Reads: number of raw reads generated for each specimen. Estimated coverage  
 557 is calculated via: (number of raw reads \* read length) / length of genome assembly. Read length was 125 bp. The actual coverage is  
 558 expected to be lower due to not all reads passing quality control and the presence of contamination. “x” in the last three columns indicates  
 559 whether the specimen carried an allele with the reference orientation and the 40 kb inversion.



561

562 **Figure 1:** Phenotypic variation in *Papilio dardanus* and samples used. Top: Seven female  
 563 forms and a male. Bottom: Origin of samples for sequencing and population genetic  
 564 analyses, from four subspecies: *P. dardanus polytrophus* (Kenya), *P. dardanus tibullus*  
 565 (Kenya), *P. dardanus cenea* (South-Africa), and *P. dardanus meriones* (Madagascar). The  
 566 specimen of subspecies *P. dardanus tibullus* was used for the construction of the draft  
 567 genome sequence. The tree depicts the relationships among these four subspecies and is  
 568 based on a tree presented in [16]. Three female forms were analysed: *hippocoonides*, *cenea*,  
 569 and ‘male-like’.



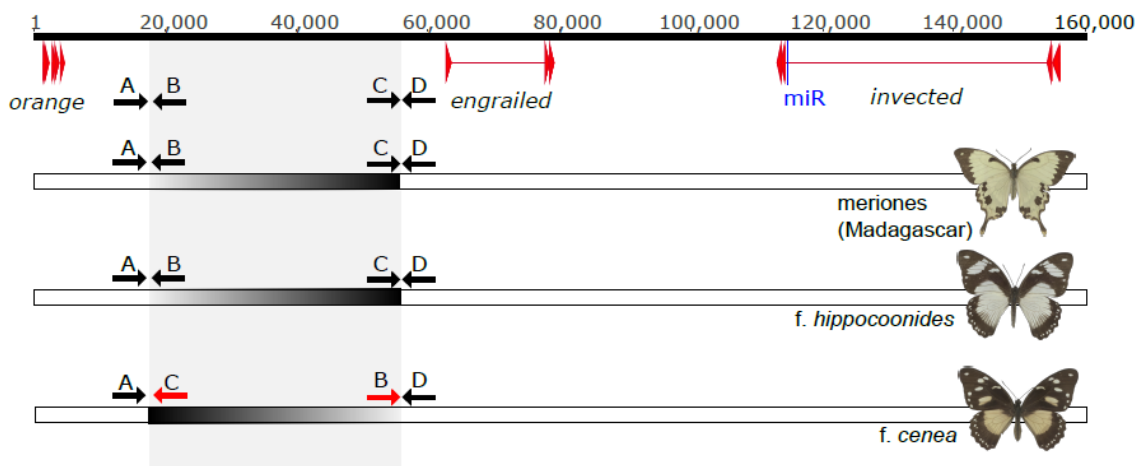
570

571 **Figure 2:** Population genomic analysis of the full *engrailed-inverted* containing scaffold.  
 572 Thin vertical red lines: exons of various genes in the region. Note the exons of *engrailed*  
 573 shown by large arrows and the upstream region marked in grey. Brood 59 and Brood 48:  
 574 Recombination events in pedigree broods. SNPs from RADseq data for two broods are  
 575 mapped on the *engrailed-inverted* scaffold, shown by black triangles. Red triangles mark  
 576 the intervals with confirmed recombination events, and the number of recombination  
 577 events within these intervals are circled. The central band in the figure shows the map of  
 578 the scaffold with exons (red arrows) and the upstream region of *engrailed* (grey). ACT and  
 579 PD indicate the position of the AFLP markers of [17]. Linkage disequilibrium (LD; Kelly's

580 ZnS statistic),  $F_{st}$ , nucleotide diversity ( $\pi$ ), coverage and p-distance (to the reference  
 581 genome) for the scaffold, calculated for the *f. cenea* and *f. hippocooides* samples in 5 kb  
 582 windows. Coverage and p-distance was calculated separately for the four *cenea* and for  
 583 four *hippocooides* specimens. The p-distance to the reference genome is also given for  
 584 the *P. dardanus meriones* sample. Scales are in million base pairs.

585

586



587

588 **Figure 3:** Length and relative position of the inversions in the upstream regulatory region  
 589 of *engrailed*. At the top, the map of the *engrailed-invested* region is shown, with short  
 590 arrows indicating exons and the miR-2768 [44] shown in blue. Below the map is the  
 591 direction of boundary-defining primers. The grey shading indicates the extent of the 40 kb  
 592 inversion associated with *f. cenea*. For each of the forms, dark grey – light grey shading is  
 593 used to indicate directionality of the 40 kb region. Scale is in base pair.

594

595