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Alyssa Woronik, Alyssa Woronik, Kalle Tunström, Michael Perry ...+10 more authors

Institutions: Stockholm University, New York University, University of California, San Diego, Royal Belgian Institute of Natural Sciences ...+3 more institutions

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1	A transposable element insertion is the switch between alternative life history strategies
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3	Authors: Alyssa Woronik* ^{1,2} , Kalle Tunström ¹ , Michael W. Perry ^{2,3} , Ramprasad Neethiraj ¹ ,
4 5	Constanti Stefanescu ^{4,5} , Maria de la Paz Celorio-Mancera ¹ , Oskar Brattström ⁶ , Jason Hill ^{1,7} , Philipp Lehmann ¹ , Reijo Käkelä ⁸ , Christopher W. Wheat* ¹
6	
7	Author affiliations:
8	¹ Department of Zoology, Stockholm University, S106 91 Stockholm, Sweden
9	² Department of Biology, New York University, New York, New York 10003, USA
10	³ Division of Biological Sciences, University of California San Diego, La Jolla, California 92093,
11	USA
12	⁴ Museum of Natural Sciences of Granollers, Granollers, Catalonia 08402, Spain
13	⁵ CREAF, Cerdanyola del Valles, Catalonia 08193, Spain
14	⁶ Department of Zoology, University of Cambridge, Cambridge CB23EJ, United Kingdom
15	⁷ Department of Medical Biochemistry and Microbiology, Uppsala University, Uppsala, Sweden
16	⁸ Helsinki University Lipidomics Unit, Helsinki Institute for Life Science (HiLIFE) and Molecular
17	and Integrative Biosciences Research Programme, University of Helsinki, FI00014 Helsinki,
18	Finland
19	
20	Correspondence to: AW alyssa.woronik@zoologi.su.se and CWW chris.wheat@zoologi.su.se
21	
22	Tradeoffs affect resource allocation during development and result in fitness consequences that
23	drive the evolution of life history strategies. Yet despite their importance, we know little about
24	the mechanisms underlying life history tradeoffs in wild populations. Many species of Colias
25	butterflies exhibit an alternative life history strategy (ALHS) where females divert resources from
26	wing pigment synthesis to reproductive and somatic development. Due to this reallocation, a
27	wing color polymorphism is associated with the ALHS: individuals have either yellow/orange or
28	white wings. Here we map the genetic basis of the ALHS switch in Colias crocea to a
29	transposable element insertion downstream of the Colias homolog of BarH-1, a homeobox
30	transcription factor. Using CRISPR/Cas9 gene editing, antibody staining, and electron
31	microscopy we find morph-specific specific expression of BarH-1 suppresses the formation of
32	pigment granules in wing scales. Lipid and transcriptome analyses reveal physiological
33	differences associated with the ALHS. These findings characterize a novel mechanism for a

female-limited ALHS and show that the switch arises via recruitment of a transcription factor
 previously known for its function in cell fate determination in pigment cells of the retina.

36

37 A life-history strategy is a complex pattern of co-evolved life history traits (e.g. number of 38 offspring, size of offspring, and lifespan¹), that is fundamentally shaped by tradeoffs that arise 39 because all fitness components cannot simultaneously be maximized. Therefore, finite 40 resources are competitively allocated to one life history trait versus another within a single individual, and selection acts on these allocation patterns to optimize fitness². Evolutionary 41 42 theory predicts that positive selection will remove variation from natural populations, as 43 genotypes with the highest fitness go to fixation³. However, across diverse taxa alternative life history strategies (ALHSs) are maintained within populations at intermediate frequencies due to 44 balancing selection⁴. Life history theory was developed using methods such as quantitative 45 genetics, artificial selection, demography, and modeling to gain significant insights into the 46 47 causes and consequences of genetic and environmental variation on life history traits. Yet 48 despite these advances, a key challenge that remains is to identify the proximate mechanisms 49 underlying tradeoffs, especially for ecologically relevant tradeoffs that occur in natural populations⁵. Here, we identify the mechanism underlying one such ALHS in the butterfly *Colias* 50 51 crocea (Pieridae, Lepidoptera) (Geoffroy, 1785).

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53 Colias butterflies (the "clouded sulphurs") are common throughout the Holarctic and can be 54 found on every continent except Australia and Antarctica⁶. In approximately a third of the nearly 90 species within the genus, females exhibit two alternative wing-color morphs: yellow or 55 56 orange (depending on the species) and white^{6,7} (Fig. 1A). The wing color polymorphism arises 57 because during pupation the white morph, also known as Alba, reallocates larval derived 58 resources from the synthesis of energetically expensive colored pigments to reproductive and somatic development⁸. This tradeoff has been well characterized in Colias crocea, the Old 59 60 World species that we focus upon in this work, via radio-labelled metabolite tracking in pupae⁹ as well as in the New World species *Colias eurytheme*⁸ (Pieridae, Lepidoptera) (Boisduval, 61 62 1852) using ultraviolet spectrophotometry. As a result of the resource reallocation, Alba females have faster pupal development, a larger fat body, and significantly more mature eggs at 63 eclosion compared to orange females¹⁰. However, despite these developmental advantages 64 and the dominance of the Alba allele, the polymorphism is maintained by several abiotic and 65 biotic factors ¹⁰⁻¹⁴. For example, males preferentially mate with orange females, as wing color is 66 an important cue for mate recognition^{10,12,13}. This mating bias likely has significant fitness costs 67

68 for Alba females because males transfer essential nutrients during mating, and multiply mated females have more offspring over their lifetime^{15,16}. The mating bias against Alba females is 69 70 strongest in populations that frequently co-occur with other white Pierid butterfly species due to 71 interference competition¹³. Also, Alba's development rate advantage is temperature dependent, 72 with Alba females having faster development in cold temperatures¹⁰. Field studies confirm Alba 73 frequency and fitness increases in species that inhabit cold and nutrient poor habitats, where 74 the occurrence of other white Pierid butterflies is low. While in warm environments with nutrient 75 rich host plants and a high co-occurrence of other white species, orange females exhibit increased fitness and frequency¹²⁻¹⁴. Previous work has also suggested Alba females have a 76 higher sensitivity to viral infections⁹. In all *Colias* species where it has been investigated (n=6), 77 the switch between the Alba or the orange strategy is controlled by a single, autosomal locus⁶. 78 79 This fact, along with ancestral state reconstruction⁷, has led to the assumption that the Alba 80 locus is conserved within the genus Colias, and potentially across the subfamily Coliadinae. Yet, 81 despite over a century of research on various aspects of Alba biology the mechanism underlying 82 this polymorphism remained unknown.

83

84 Using a *de novo* reference genome for *C. crocea* that we generated via Illumina and PacBio 85 sequencing, and three rounds of bulk segregant analyses (BSA) using whole genome 86 sequencing from a female and two male informative crosses for Alba, we mapped the Alba 87 locus to a ~3.7 Mbp region (Supplementary Fig.1, & Supplementary Information). Then, with 88 whole genome re-sequencing data from 15 Alba and 15 orange females from diverse population 89 backgrounds, a SNP association study fine mapped the Alba locus to a ~430 kb contig that fell 90 within the ~3.7 Mbp locus identified using the BSA crosses (Fig. 1B and Supplementary 91 Information). The majority of SNPs significantly associated with Alba (n=70 of 72) were within or 92 flanking a *Jockey-like* transposable element (TE) (Fig. 1C). We determined that the TE insertion 93 was unique to the Alba morph in C. crocea by assembling orange and Alba haplotypes for this 94 region, then quantifying differences in read depth between morphs within and flanking the insertion (Supplementary Information and Supplementary Figs. 2, 3, & 4). We then used PCR to 95 96 validate the presence or absence, respectively, of the insertion in 25 Alba and 57 orange wild-97 caught females (Supplementary Fig. 7). We also found no evidence of a TE insertion in the 98 homologous region of other butterfly genomes (Danaus plexippus & Heliconius melpomene) 99 (Supplementary Fig. 2).

100

101 The Alba-specific insertion was located ~30 kb upstream of a gene encoding a DEAD-box 102 helicase, and ~6kb downstream of the Colias homolog of BarH-1, a homeobox transcription 103 factor (Fig. 1C). BarH-1 was an intriguing find as it affects color via pigment granule 104 development within eyes of *Drosophila melanogaster*¹⁷. To investigate BarH-1 expression in 105 developing C. crocea wings, we used in situ hybridization of BarH-1 on wings from two day old 106 pupae of orange and Alba females. We found the BarH-1 protein is expressed in scale building 107 cells within the white wing regions in Alba females (Fig. 2B). We did not observe BarH-1 in scale 108 building cells from orange areas of the wing in orange females (Fig. 2C). Interestingly however, 109 we found BarH-1 is expressed in scale building cells within black regions for both morphs (Fig. 110 2A&D). To validate the functional role of *BarH-1* in the Alba phenotype, we generated 111 CRISPR/Cas9-mediated deletions within exons 1 and 2 using a mosaic knockout (KO) 112 approach (Supplementary Information). BarH-1 KO gave rise to a white/orange color mosaic on 113 the dorsal side of the wings in females with an Alba genotype (i.e. TE insertion +) (Fig. 1D), 114 while KO males and orange females displayed no white/orange mosaic on the wing. These 115 results indicate BarH-1 expression suppresses orange coloration in the wings. We also 116 observed black and green mosaic coloring of eyes in KO males and females of both morphs, 117 where green eyes are the wild type color (Fig. 1E). These results indicate BarH-1 also plays a 118 role in Colias eye development.

119

120 We next investigated how the Alba color change manifests within wings. Butterfly wing color can 121 arise either due to the absorption of light by pigments deposited within the scales, or by the 122 scattering of light via regularly arranged nanostructures in the scales¹⁸. *Colias* butterflies have 123 pteridine pigments. These pigments are synthesized within the wings and previous work using 124 ultraviolet spectrophotometry in C. eurytheme found Alba females exhibit dramatic reductions in colored pteridine pigments compared to orange^{8,9}. In insects, pteridines are synthsized in 125 126 pigment granules and pigment granules are concentrated within wing scales of Pierid 127 butterflies^{19,20}. However, whether morphs differed in wing scale morphology was unknown. To investigate wing morphology, we used scanning electron microscopy and found white scales 128 129 from Alba individuals exhibited a dramatic and significant reduction in pigment granules, 130 compared to orange scales ($t_{5.97}$ = 2.93, p = 0.03) (Fig 3 A&B). These results indicate the color 131 change to white is caused by reduced pigment granule formation. Congruent with this 132 interpretation, CRISPR KO Alba individuals exhibited significantly less pigment granules in 133 scales from the white wild-type region compared to scales in orange BarH-1 KO regions ($t_{5.45}$ = 134 10.78, p < 0.001) (Fig. 3C). To further test whether reduction in pigment granule amount alone

135 was sufficient for the orange to white color change, we chemically removed the pigment 136 granules from the wing of an orange *C. crocea* female. This resulted in formerly orange regions 137 turning white (Fig. 3D). Wings likely appear white after granule removal due to the scattering of light from the remaining non-lamellar nanosctructures²¹. These results demonstrate that BarH-1 138 139 suppresses pigment granule formation in wing scales, resulting in the white color of Alba 140 females in C. crocea. Thus, we propose the resource tradeoff between color and development 141 arises due to a classic Y reallocation model, wherein limited resources are competatively 142 allocated and increased investement in one trait results in a decreased investment to another²². 143 Within the energetically closed system of a developing pupa, reduced pigment granule 144 formation would likely result in reduced pigment synthesis, which would in turn leave more 145 resources free to be used for other developmental processes. Finally, we also observed scale 146 building cells in black regions of both morphs express BarH-1 and also lack pigment granules 147 (Fig 2 A&D and Fig 3 A&B), but these scales appear black due to melanin deposition within the scale¹⁸. These results suggest BarH-1 may also repress pigment granule formation within black 148 149 scales.

150

151 The Alba mechanism is assumed to be conserved across *Colias*. Therefore, we wished to test 152 whether Alba females from the New World species Colias eurytheme also exhibited significantly 153 less pigment granules than orange females. Indeed, we found orange C. eurytheme scales 154 exhibited abundant pigment granules while Alba scales almost entirely lacked granules (Fig. 3 155 E&F). These results demonstrate white wing color arises via the same morphological 156 mechanism within *Colias* and corroborate previous assumptions that Alba is conserved across 157 the genus. To further validate that other aspects of the Alba/orange alternative life history 158 strategy are conserved across the genus we tested whether one of the physiological tradeoffs of 159 Alba reported for New World species was also seen in *C. crocea*. In *C. eurytheme*, Alba females 160 have larger fat bodies than orange females and the strength of the Alba advantage increased in cold temperatures¹⁰. To compare abdominal lipid stores between morphs in *C. crocea*, we 161 162 conducted high performance thin layer chromatography on two day old adult females reared 163 under two temperature treatments (Hot: 27°C vs. Cold: 15°C during pupal development). Adults 164 were not allowed to feed before samples were taken, therefore these measurements reflect 165 larval stores, where the putative energetic tradeoff should be more clearly visible. We found 166 Alba females had larger abdominal lipid stores than orange in both temperature treatments, though the difference was only significant in the cold treatment (cold: n=32, $t_{29,12} = 3.42$, P = 167 0.002, hot: n=25, $t_{22,71} = 0.67$, P = 0.51) (Fig. 4A). These results are consistent with previous 168

reports from New World *Colias* species and indicate that the morph-specific tradeoff associatedwith the color change is also conserved across the genus.

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172 We then investigated the transcriptome of pupal abdomen and wing tissue at the time of 173 pteridine synthesis to identify genes that exhibited differential expression between morphs and 174 therefore may play a role in the morph-specific differences in physiology that arise due to the 175 resource tradeoff (Fig. 4 B&C, Supplementary Information, Supplementary Tables 5,6,&7). In C. 176 eurytheme Alba females emerge from the pupa with significantly more mature eggs than orange females¹⁰ and we find evidence that suggests similar dynamics are occurring in *C. crocea*. A 177 178 gene set enrichment analysis (GSEA) revealed that 'embryo development ending in birth or egg 179 hatching' (GO:0009792, p = 0.00072), 'proteasome-mediated ubiquitin-dependent protein 180 catabolic process' (GO:0043161, p = 0.00073), and 'proteolysis' (GO:0006508, p = 0.00101) 181 were within the top 5 terms enriched and upregulated within Alba abdomens (Supplementary 182 Table 6). Additionally our differential expression analysis identified a that gene which encodes a 183 triacylglycerol lipase was significantly upregulated within Alba abdomen tissue (log fold change 184 [log FC] of 4.8) (Fig. 4B and Supplementary Table 5). Triacylglycerol composes more than 90% 185 of the lipids stored in the fat body and during times of energy demand triacylalycerol lipases mobilize these stores²³. For example, during embryogenesis there is a massive shift in lipid 186 distribution from the fat body to ovaries as lipids comprise 30-40% of the dry weight of insect 187 188 embryos²³. Taken together these results suggest that, similar to *C. eurytheme*, Alba females of 189 C. crocea may be benefitting from increased embryogenesis compared to orange females. We 190 also observe an enrichment of 'defense response to Gram-positive bacterium' (GO:0050830, 191 0.00027) for genes upregulated within Alba abdomens. Interestingly, previous work has suggested that Alba females may have enhanced sensitivity to viral infection⁹. Further 192 193 investigation of potential morph-specific tradeoffs between wing color and immunity is of 194 interest.

195

For genes downregulated in Alba abdomens the GSEA revealed significant enrichment of
'regulation of nucleoside metabolic process' (GO:0009118, p value < 0.0001) and 'regulation of
purine nucleotide catabolic process' (GO:0033121, p value < 0.0001) (Supplementary Table 6). *Colias* wings use purine precursors to synthesize pteridines²⁴. Downregulation of these GO
terms in Alba abdomens suggests that the decreased pteridine synthesis observed in Alba
females⁸, which likely arises due to the decrease in pigment granules in the wings, leads to a
decrease in purine precursors being shunted from the abdomen to the wings. Additionally,

203 consistent with previous reports of GTP reallocation from wings to other areas of development 204 in Alba females⁸ we also observed significant enrichment of 'positive regulation of GTPase activity' (GO:0043547, p value < 0.0001). Additionally, *RIM*, a Rab GTPase effector²⁵, was one 205 206 of the most highly differentially expressed (DE) genes in both tissues (logFC increase in Alba of 207 3.4 in the abdomen and 5.1 in the wings) (Fig. 4 B&C and Supplementary Table 5). RIM acts as 208 a molecular switch by converting guanosine diphosphate to guanosine triphosphate (GTP), 209 thereby activating its associated Rab GTPase, which is in turn involved in synaptic vesicle 210 exocytosis and secretory pathways²⁶.

211

212 Within wings, BarH-1 was not differentially expressed between morphs at this stage, indicating 213 that morph specific expression differences are temporal. However, we did observe genes 214 downregulated in Alba wings were significantly enriched for 'xanthine dehydrogenase activity' (p 215 = 0.02, GO:0004854) (Supplementary Table 7). Xanthine dehydrogenase is the enzyme that 216 catalyzes the xanthopterin to leucopterin conversion during pteridine synthesis in Colias 217 butterflies⁸. These results are consistent with previous studies in *C. eurytheme* that reported the level of xanthopterin in Alba wings was 7-8 fold less than in orange⁸. Additionally we observed 218 219 enrichment of 'MAP kinase activity' (GO:0004709, p = 0.00109) in genes downregulated within 220 Alba wings. In Drosophila, BarH-1 represses Decapentaplegic a morphogen that is homolog to 221 TGF β^{27} . TGF β can activate signalling cascades, including MAP kinase pathways²⁸. Previous work in Drosophila has also suggested an interaction between Bar homeobox genes and 222 Ras/MAP kinase signalling during eve development²⁹. Future functional studies of candidate 223 224 genes are needed to better understand their mechanistic roles in wing development and the 225 tradeoffs associated with the ALHS.

226

227 Here we identified the proximate mechanism underlying a female-limited ALHS in a natural 228 population. Historically, the field of life history research has treated mechanistic details as a black box⁵, though recently several genetic mechanisms underlying ecologically relevant ALHSs 229 have been identified, e.g. in the wall lizard³⁰, ruff^{31,32}, white throated sparrow³³, and fire ant³⁴. 230 231 The majority of these studies found that supergenes, large loci that maintain many genes in tight linkage due to structural variation, gave rise to the alternative morphs³¹⁻³⁵. Such findings 232 233 established that structural variation facilitates the evolution of complex traits. However these 234 genomic architectures make determining the specific contributions of individual genes to ALHSs difficult, though there have been significant advances made in the white throated sparrow³³. 235 Interestingly, our results, and recent work in the wall lizard³⁰, found that ALHSs arose due to 236

237 changes in the regulatory region of either a single or two genes, respectively. This raises the 238 question of how these regions give rise to the other fitness-related traits associated with the 239 ALHS. We propose the Alba-associated physiological and developmental traits arise due to a 240 classic Y reallocation model, where reduced pigment granule formation results in reduced 241 pigment synthesis, which in turn leaves more resources free to be used for other developmental 242 processes. Previous literature studying the Alba phenotype had been unable to determine 243 whether allocation of resources from the fatbody, or pigment biosynthesis within the wing 244 scales, was the basis of Alba. Here, the mosaicism of the BarH-1 KO documents the cell level 245 autonomy of the Alba polymorphism, as abdomen level provisioning would affect all wing scales 246 equally. Nevertheless, there may be other pleiotropic effects of the reallocation, such as the 247 sensitivity of the Alba to viral disease, or of the TE insertion itself as it may affect BarH-1 248 expression in tissues other than the wing.

249

250 Previous work has shown that BarH-1 plays a role in the morphogenesis of neurons, leg segments, and eyes in *Drosophila*³⁶. Specifically, *BarH-1* expression is required for the 251 252 formation of pigment granules and the deposition of red pteridine pigments in the Drosophila 253 eye¹⁷. We find that *BarH-1* also plays a role in eye and wing color in *Colias* butterflies. However, 254 as BarH-1 expression represses the formation of pigment granules within Colias wings, we find 255 it has a reversed function in *Drosophila* and *Colias*. This may be one of several examples where 256 either whole or a part of a gene regulatory network that regulates eye development has been co-opted to give rise to a novel trait in the insect wing³⁷. If so, future work could investigate what 257 258 aspects of the network have been co-opted and how this lead to BarH-1's contrasting roles in 259 morphogenesis.

260

261 Additionally, recent work in the field of butterfly wing evolutionary-development has found that 262 several genes are repeatedly involved in wing color variation across distantly related species. Such genes form a patterning "toolkit" (e.g. optix³⁸, WntA³⁹, and cortex⁴⁰). BarH-1 might serve 263 264 as another toolkit gene for patterning wing color in butterflies beyond Colias as we found BarH-1 265 expression in scale building and socket cells of developing wings in Vanessa cardui 266 (Nymphalidae, Lepidoptera) (Linnaeus, 1758) pupae (Supplementary Fig. 10). However, the 267 functional role of BarH-1 in V. cardui wings remains to be determined. BarH-1 may have a novel 268 function within V. cardui wings. Alternatively, the function of BarH-1 as a repressor of pigment granule formation could be conserved, as V. cardui scales do not have pigment pigment 269 granules⁴¹ 270

271

- 272 Under the latter assumption, we would expect that BarH-1 is not expressed in closely related
- 273 Pierinae species that, despite appearing white, exhibit abundant pigment granules that are
- primarily filled with the UV-absorbing pteridine called leucopterin⁴². Future work investigating the
- evolutionary history of BarH-1's co-option to the wing and function in other species could shed
- 276 light on how complex traits such as ALHSs evolve.
- 277

278 Author Contributions

- AW conducted butterfly rearings and lab work, analysed the data, and wrote the manuscript with
- 280 CWW and input from the coauthors. AW, MWP, KT, and CWW conducted the CRISPR/Cas9
- 281 knockout experiment. AW and KT conducted the electron microscopy. MWP conducted
- antibody staining. RN and JH assisted with bioinformatics. PL and RK conducted HPTLC and
- AW and PL analyzed the data. AW, CS, CWW and OB conducted fieldwork. MC conducted lab
- work. CWW supervised the work at all stages.
- 285

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449 Methods

- For detailed methods, including all bioinformatic commands, please see the supplementary information.
- 452 **Data availability:** SRA reference numbers for the genome and sequencing data will be included 453 upon acceptance.
- 454 Genome assembly: An orange female and male carrying Alba (offspring from wild caught
- butterflies, Catalonia, Spain) were mated in the lab. DNA from an Alba female offspring of this
- 456 cross was extracted. Quality and quantity were assessed using a Nanodrop 8000
- 457 spectrophotometer (Thermo Scientific) and a Qubit 2.0 fluorometer (dsDNA BR, Invitrogen). A

180 insert size paired end library (101bp reads) was prepared (TruSeg PCR free) and 458 459 sequenced on an Illumina Hiseg 4000 at the Beijing Genomics Institute (Shenzhen, China). A Nextera mate-pair library with a 3 kb insert size was prepared and sequenced on an Illumina 460 461 HiSeg 2500 (125bp reads) at the Science for Life Laboratory (Stockholm, Sweden). Raw data was cleaned and high quality reads were used as input for the AllPaths-LG (v. $50960)^{43}$ 462 463 assembly pipeline. High molecular weight DNA was extracted from two more Alba females from 464 the above mentioned cross (i.e full siblings). Equal amounts of DNA from each individual were 465 pooled sent to the Science for Life Laboratory (Stockholm, Sweden) for PacBio sequencing on 24 SMRT cells (~17GB of data was produced). A Falcon (v. 0.4.2)⁴⁴ assembly was generated by 466 467 the Science for Life Laboratory. We then used Metassembler (v. 1.5)⁴⁵ to merge our AllPathsLG

and Falcon assemblies, using the AllPathsLG assembly as the primary assembly.

Bulk segregant analyses (BSA): The female informative cross data and mapping protocol 469 470 described in Woronik and Wheat, 2017⁴⁶ was applied to the high quality reference genome to identify the contigs that made up the Alba chromosome. Male Informative Cross (MIC) I: DNA 471 472 was extracted from a wild caught orange mother (Catalonia Spain) and 26 of her Alba and 24 of 473 her orange female offspring. DNA quality and quantity of each individual was assessed via a 474 Nanodrop 8000 spectrophotometer (Thermo Scientific, MA, USA) and a Qubit 2.0 Fluorometer 475 (dsDNA BR; Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA, USA) before pooling equal amounts of high-guality DNA from Alba and orange offspring into two pools, respectively. The library preparation (TruSeg 476 477 PCR-free) and Illumina sequencing (101 bp PE HiSeg2500), was performed at the Beijing Genomics Institute (Shenzhen, China). Raw reads were cleaned and then mapped to the 478 reference genome using NextGenMap v0.4.10 (-i 0.09)⁴⁷. SAMTOOLS v1.2⁴⁸ was used to filter 479 480 (view -f 3 -q 20), sort and index the bam files and generate mpileup files for the two pools and the orange mother. Popoolation2⁴⁹ were used to calculate the allele frequency difference 481 between Alba and orange pools. SNP sites were filtered in R^{50} , for a read depth \ge 30 and \le 300, 482 483 a bi-allelic state, and a minimum minor allele frequency of 3. The orange mother mpileup was similarly analyzed using Popoolation⁵¹ (read depth \geq 5 and \leq 30); but the major and minor allele 484 frequencies were calculated in R⁵⁰ by dividing the major and minor allele count by the read 485 486 depth at each site respectively. A SNP site was considered a MIC I Alba SNP when it met the 487 following expectations: 1) homozygous in the orange mother, 2) homozygous in the orange pool, 3) the allele frequency difference in the Alba pool compared to the orange was 0.45-0.55. 488 489 MIC II: A male carrying Alba mated an orange female in the lab at Stockholm University. DNA 490 was prepared as described above for 26 Alba and 28 orange female offspring resulting in two 491 DNA pools. Library preparation (TruSeg PCR-free) and Illumina sequencing (150 bp paired-end 492 reads with 350bp insert, HiSegX), was performed at Science for Life Laboratory (Stockholm, 493 Sweden). The same mapping and SNP calling pipeline used on the MIC I was applied. A site 494 was considered an Alba SNP if 1) it was homozygous in the orange pool and 2) the allele 495 frequency difference in the Alba pool compared to the orange was 0.45-0.55. A contig was 496 considered Alba associated if it had ≥ 3 Alba SNPs in all crosses. Nineteen Alba associated 497 contig were identified. They total ~3.7Mbp and are considered the Alba BSA locus.

498 Genome wide association study: DNA for genome re-sequencing was extracted from 15 Alba 499 and 15 orange females from diverse population backgrounds (Catalonia, Spain and Capri, Italy). 500 High quality DNA was prepared using Illumina TruSeg and sequenced at the Science for Life 501 Laboratory (Stockholm, Sweden) (150 bp paired-end reads HiSegX). Cleaned reads were mapped to the annotated reference genome using NextGenMap v0.4.10 (-i 0.6 -X 2000)⁴⁷. Bam 502 files were filtered and sorted using SAMTOOLS v1.2 (view -f 3 -q 20) 48. A VCF file was 503 generated using SAMTOOLS v1.2 (-t DP -t SP -Q 15)⁴⁸ and bcftools v.1.2 (-Ov -m)⁴⁸. VCFtools 504 (v0.1.13)⁵² was used to call SNP sites with no more than 50% missing data, an average read 505 depth between 15-50 across individuals, and a minimum SNP guality of 30. An association 506

analysis was performed with PLINK $(v1.07)^{53}$ and a Benjamini & Hochberg step-up FDR control was applied. SNPs with FDR <0.05 were considered Alba SNPs. We conducted this analysis both genome wide and only within the BSA locus. Both analyses fine mapped the Alba locus to the same genomic region.

511 Antibody Generation and Staining: A Rabbit-anti-Bar antibody was generated against the full 512 length sequence of the Vanessa cardui Bar homolog. Protein was generated by GenScript 513 (Piscataway, NJ) and purified to >80% purity. DNA sequences to produce this protein were 514 codon-optimized for bacterial expression and made via gene synthesis. GenScript injected 515 resultant protein into host animals, collected serum for testing, and affinity purified the product 516 using additional target protein bound to a column. Antibody staining was performed as described previously for Drosophila and butterfly tissues⁵⁴. Staged pupal wings and retinas were 517 dissected and fixed 48 hours post-pupation. The Rabbit-anti-Bar antibody was used at 1:100, 518 519 followed by secondary antibody staining with AlexFluor-555-anti-Rabbit secondaries at 1:500 520 and counterstaining with DAPI. Images were captured using standard confocal microscopy on a 521 Leica SP5.

522 CRISPR/Cas9 knockouts: The guide-RNA (gRNA) sequences were generated using the 523 protocol described in Perry et al. 2016. Viable Cas9 target-sites were located by manually looking for PAM-sites (NGG) in the exon region of BarH-1. Uniqueness of the target regions was 524 525 confirmed using a NCBI nucleotide blast (ver. 2.5.0+ using blastn-short flag and filtering for an 526 e-value of 0.01) against the C. crocea reference genome. gRNA constructs were ordered from 527 Integrative DNA Technologies (Coralville, Iowa, USA) as DNA (gBlocks). Full gRNA constructs 528 had the following configuration: an M13F region, a spacer sequence, a T7-promotor sequence, 529 the Target specific sequence, a Cas9 binding sequence, and finally a P505 sequence. Upon 530 delivery, gBlocks were amplified using PCR to generate single-stranded guide RNA (sgRNA). 531 For each gBlock, four 50ul reactions were conducted using the M13f and P505 primers and 532 Platinum Tag (Invitrogen cat. 10966-034). The four reactions were then combined and purified 533 in a Qiagen Minelute spin column (cat. 28004, Venlo, Netherlands). The resulting template was 534 transcribed using the Lucigen AmpliScribe T7-flash Transcription Kit from Epicentre/Illumina 535 (cat. ASF3507, Madison, WI, USA) followed by purification via ammonium acetate precipitation. 536 Products were resuspended with Qiagen buffer EB, concentrations were quantified by Qubit and 537 further diluted to 1000 ng/µl. They were then mixed with Cas9-NLS protein (PNA Bio, Newbury 538 Park, CA, USA) and diluted to a final concentration of 125-250 ng/µl. C. crocea females (n > 40) 539 from Aiguamolls de l'Empordà, Spain were captured and kept in morph-specific flight cages in 540 the lab at Stockholm University where they oviposited on alfalfa (Medicago sativa). Eggs were 541 collected between 1-7h post-laying and sterilized in 7% benzalkonium chloride for ~5 minutes 542 before injection. Injections were either at a concentration of 125 or 250 ng/ul and conducted 543 using a M-152 Narishige micromanipulator (Narishige International Limited, London, UK) with a 544 50 ml glass needle syringe, with injection pressure applied by hand via a syringe fitting.

545 **CRISPR/Cas9 validation:** To validate the mutation, Cas9 cut sites were PCR-amplified and a 546 ~370bp region, centered on the intended cut site were sequenced using Illumina MiSeq 300bp 547 paired-end sequencing. Primers were designed using Primer3

- 548 (http://biotools.umassmed.edu/bioapps/primer3_www.cgi). DNA was isolated from KO-
- 549 individuals using KingFisher Cell and Tissue DNA Kit from ThermoFisher Scientific (N11997)
- and the robotic Kingfisher Duo Prime purification system. DNA quality and quantity were
- assessed via a Nanodrop 8000 spectrophotometer (Thermo Scientific, MA, USA) and a Qubit
- 552 2.0 Fluorometer (dsDNA BR; Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA, USA). Aliquots were then taken and
- diluted to 1ng/ul before amplifying the region over the cleavage-site. Sequences were amplified
- and ligated with Illumina adapter and indexes in a two-step process following the protocol

provided by Science for Life Laboratories (Stockholm, Sweden) and Illumina. First, we amplified 555 556 the ~370bp long sequence around the cut sites and attach the first Illumina adapter, onto which 557 we later attach Illumina handles and Index using a second round of PCR (Accustart II PCR 558 Supermix from Quanta Bio [Beverly, MA, USA], settings 94C x 2 min followed by 40 cycles of 94 559 C x 30 sec + 60 C x 15 sec + 68 C x 1 min followed by 68 C x 5 min). PCR products were 560 purified using Qiagen Qiaquick (Cat. 28104). Concentration and quality of the product were 561 assessed via Nanodrop and gel electrophoresis. DNA was diluted to ~0.5ng/ul and then the 562 unique double indices were attached by the second round of PCR (same protocol as above). 563 The final PCR products were purified again using Qiaguick spin columns and concentration and 564 size was assessed using Qubit fluorometer and gel electrophoresis. All samples were then 565 mixed at equal molarity and sent for sequencing at Science for Life Laboratories (Stockholm, 566 Sweden). Sequences were aligned to their respective fragments (area surrounding cut site) using SNAP (ver. 1.0beta18)⁵⁵, identical reads were clustered using the collapser utility in Fastx-567 Toolkit (http://hannonlab.cshl.edu/fastx toolkit/). Sequences containing deletions were extracted 568 569 and the most abundant sequences containing deletions were selected for confirmation of 570 deletion in the expected region.

571 **Electron Microscopy:** To quantify pigment granule differences between Alba and orange 572 individuals pieces of the forewing were mounted on aluminum pin stubs (6mm length) with the 573 dorsal side upwards. Samples were coated in gold for 80 seconds using an Agar sputter coater 574 and imaged under 5 kV acceleration voltage, high vacuum, and ETD detection using a scanning electron microscope (Quanta Feg 650, FEI, Hillsboro, Oregon, USA). To quantify pigment 575 576 granules within the photos we selected images from the same magnification and randomly 577 placed three 4 μ m² squares on the images. We counted the number of pigment granules within 578 each square and took the average, then conducted a two sample t-test in R. To quantify 579 pigment granule differences between KO and wild type regions in our CRISPR KO mosaic 580 individuals, a biopsy hole punch a 2mm in diameter circle was used to cut out one piece mostly containing white scales and one piece with mostly orange scales. These pieces were first 581 582 photographed using a Leica EZ4HD stereo microscope in order to allow us to confirm the color 583 of each scale once they were covered with gold sputter. Five white and five orange scales were 584 then selected and the granules from a $4\mu m^2$ square were counted from each of those scales 585 and a two sample t-test was then conducted in R.

586 Lipid Analysis: Wild caught C. crocea Alba females (Catalonia, Spain) oviposited in the lab. 587 Eggs were moved into individual rearing cups and split between two temperature treatments (hot: 27°C and 16 hour day length during larval and pupal development, cold: reared at 22 °C 588 589 with a 16 hour day length during larval development and 15° C with a 16 hour day length during pupal development). Once pupated, individuals were checked a minimum of every 12 hours. 590 591 Upon eclosion adults were stored at 4 °C until the next day to provide time for meconium 592 excretion. Butterflies were not allowed to feed before dissection. Body weight was taken using a 593 Sauter RE1614 scale before dissection. Total lipids were extracted using the Folch method⁵⁶ according to the procedures outlined in Woronik et. al. 2018¹¹. HPTLC was conducted as 594 595 described in Woronik et. al. 2018¹¹. In brief, 5 µl of the sample lipid extract was applied on a silica plate with a Camag Automatic TLC Sampler 4 (Camag, Muttenz, Switzerland). After the 596 597 silica plate developed it was scanned with a Camag TLC plate scanner 3 at 254 nm using a 598 deuterium lamp with a slit dimension of 6 × 0.45 mm and analyzed with the Win-CATS 1.1.3.0 599 software. Peaks representing the four major neutral lipid classes (diacylglycerols, 600 triacylglycerols, cholesterol and cholesterol esters) were identified by comparing their retention 601 times against known standards. Then the peak areas were integrated and the amount of lipid within each class was calculated using the formula: pmol_{sample} = (Area_{sample} / Area_{standard}) x 602 603 pmol_{standard}. The total lipid content (nmol per abdomen) was calculated as a sum of pmol

604 contents of all neutral lipid classes. For the statistical analyses this value was regressed against
 605 abdomen weight and standardized residuals (i.e. mass-corrected storage lipid amount) and
 606 were subsequently used as dependent variable.

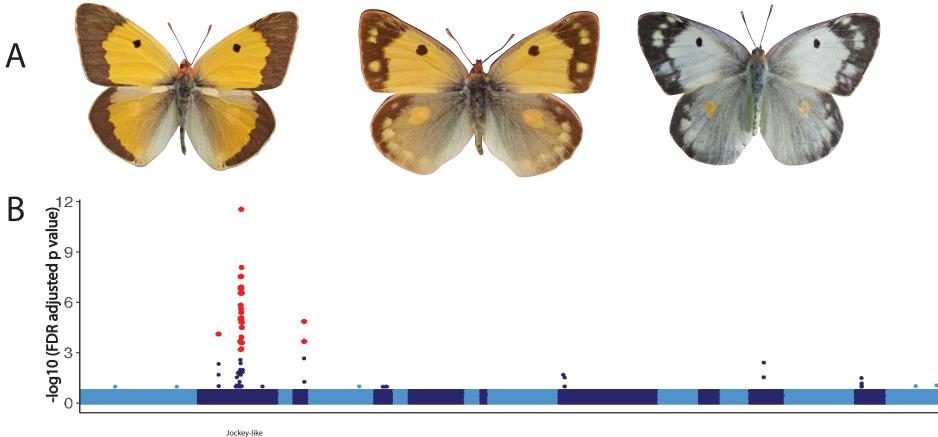
607 Transcriptome assembly and differential expression analysis: Offspring from a wild caught 608 Alba female from Catalonia, Spain were reared at Stockholm University. When larvae reached 609 the fifth instar they were checked at least every six hours and the pupation time of each 610 individual was recorded. Tissue was collected between 82% and 92% of pupal development. 611 Pupae were dissected in PBS solution, and the abdomen and wings were flash frozen in liquid 612 nitrogen and stored at -80 °C. RNA was extracted from the abdomen and wing tissues using 613 Trizol. RNA guality and guantity was assessed using a Nanodrop 8000 spectrophotometer 614 (Thermo Scientific) and an Experion electrophoresis machine using the manufacturer protocol 615 (Bio-Rad, Hercules, CA). Library preparation (Strand-specific TruSeq RNA libraries using poly-A 616 selection) and sequencing (101 bp PE HiSeq2500 - high output mode) was performed at the 617 Science for Life Laboratories (Stockholm, Sweden). In total 16 libraries were sequenced (4 618 orange and 4 Alba individuals - wings and abdomen from each individual). Raw data was 619 cleaned and reads from all libraries were used in a de novo transcriptome assembly (Trinity version trinitymased r2013 08 14 with default parameters)⁵⁷. To reduce the redundancy 620 621 among contigs and produce a biologically valid transcript set, the tr2aacds pipeline from the EvidentialGene software package⁵⁸ was run on the raw Trinity assembly. The sixteen RNA-Seq 622 623 libraries were mapped to the resulting transcriptome using NextGenMap v0.4.10 (-i 0.09)⁴⁷. SAMTOOLS v1.2⁴⁸ was then used to filter (view -f 3 -g 20), sort and index the sixteen barn files. 624 SAMTOOLS v1.2⁴⁸ idxstats was then used to calculate the read counts per gene for each of the 625 626 sorted bam files. These counts were then joined in a CSV file using an in-house pipeline and csvjoin⁵⁹. A differential expression analysis was conducted in EdgeR⁶⁰. A Benjamini Hochberg 627 628 correction was applied to the raw p values to correct for false discovery rate and differentially expressed genes were called (adjusted p value <0.05). eggNOG-mapper (v.1)⁶¹ was used with 629 default settings to functionally annotate the transcriptome. The R package topGo⁶² was used to 630 631 conduct a gene set enrichment analysis on genes that exhibited > 1 or < -1 log fold change in 632 the differential expression analysis.

Fig. 1. Color variation in *Colias crocea* and the genetic mechanism of Alba. (A) *Colias crocea* male, orange female, and Alba female (left to right). (B) SNPs significantly associated with the Alba phenotype (red) within the ~3.7 Mbp Alba locus identified via 3 rounds of bulk segregant analysis. Contigs in this region shown as alternating dark and light blue. (C) The location of Alba associated SNPs (red) on the ~430 kb outlier contig identified in the GWAS. Gene models for the DEAD-box helicase, the Jockey-like transposable element, and *BarH-1* shown at the top of the panel. (D) Wings of a female with an Alba genotype following CRISPR/Cas9 mosaic knockout of *BarH-1*, wild type regions are white, knockout regions are orange. Orange color is seen on the dorsal forewing (top) and hindwing (bottom). (D) *BarH-1* mosaic knockout also leads to black regions in the eyes, wild type regions are green.

Fig. 2. BarH-1 is expressed in white but not orange regions of the wing in *C. crocea* **females.** DAPI (nuclei, left, blue) and BarH-1 antibody (right, red) staining of pupal wings. Large nuclei are in scale building cells, small nuclei are in epithelial cells. The right part of the panel shows the approximate location of the stained area and the scales in this region in an adult wing. Scale bars are 2µm. (A) Staining of the forewing of an Alba female in an area at the black margin (top) and a white area (bottom). BarH-1 is expressed in melanic as well as white Alba scale building cells. (B) Antibody staining of the forewing of an orange female. BarH-1 is not expressed in these scale building cells. (C) Antibody staining of the hindwing of an orange female. BarH-1 is heterogeneously expressed in the scale building cells within this region. This staining pattern presumably corresponds to the variation in scale color, with melanic scale building cells expressing BarH-1 but orange lacking expression.

Fig. 3. Colias forewings and scanning electron microscope (SEM) images of their wing scale nanostructures. (A) C. crocea Alba female wing and wing scale structure. The top panel shows the SEM image of a black scale; pigment granules are absent. The bottom panel shows a white scale, exhibiting near absence of pigment granules. (B) Wing and wing scale structures of a wild type orange C. crocea female. The top panel shows a black scale, pigment granules are absent. The bottom panel shows an orange scale with abundant pigment granules. (C) Wing and wing scales of a genetically Alba female exhibiting CRISPR/Cas9 mosaic knockout of BarH-1. The top panel shows the wild-type white scale, where pigment granules are mostly absent. The bottom panel shows a scale in an orange BarH-1 KO region. It exhibits significantly more pigment granules than the white scales. (D) Wing and wing scales of an orange C. crocea female where pigment granules have been chemically removed from the distal half of the wing. The SEM image shows a scale from the white region with pigment granules completely missing. The white color of this wing section presumably results from light reflection off the remaining scale nanostructures. (E) Wing and wing scale structure of a C. eurytheme Alba female. Wing scales lack pigment granules, similar to the phenotype observed in C. crocea. (F) Wing and wing scale structures of a C. eurytheme orange female. Orange scales show abundant pigment granules, again consistent with the orange phenotype observed in C. crocea.

Fig. 4. Physiological differences between female morphs of *C. crocea.* A) The mass corrected total neutral lipid content for female morphs in two temperature treatments. Alba females, on average, have larger neutral lipid stores than orange females. However there is an interaction between morph and temperature as the difference is only significant in the cold treatment. Error bars are the standard error (cold: n=32, $t_{29.12} = 3.42$, P = 0.002, hot: n=25, $t_{22.71} = 0.67$, P = 0.51). B) Volcano plot to visualize gene expression differences between female morphs in pupal abdominal tissue. Each point is a gene. Genes not significantly differentially expressed between morphs are grey, while differentially expressed genes are blue. The black square is the triacylglycerol lipase and the black triangle is *RIM*. The X-axis is the log of the fold change (FC), positive log(FC) indicates the gene is upregulated in Alba individuals. C) Volcano plots to visualize gene expression differences between store store



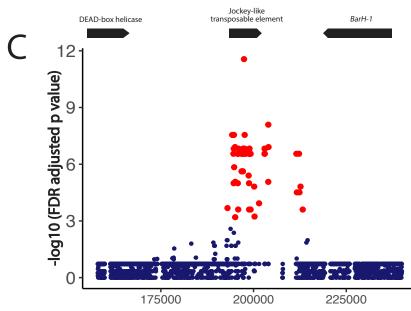


Figure 1



Ε



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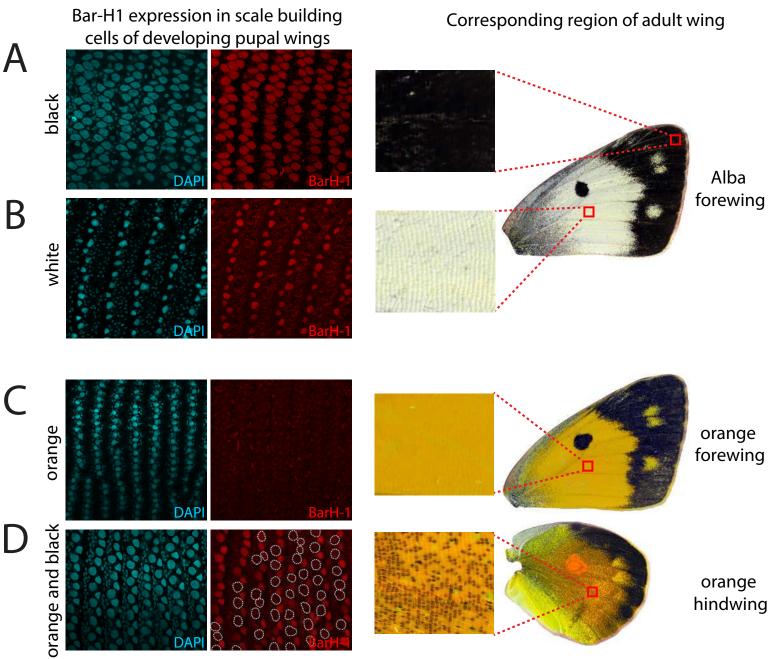


Figure 2

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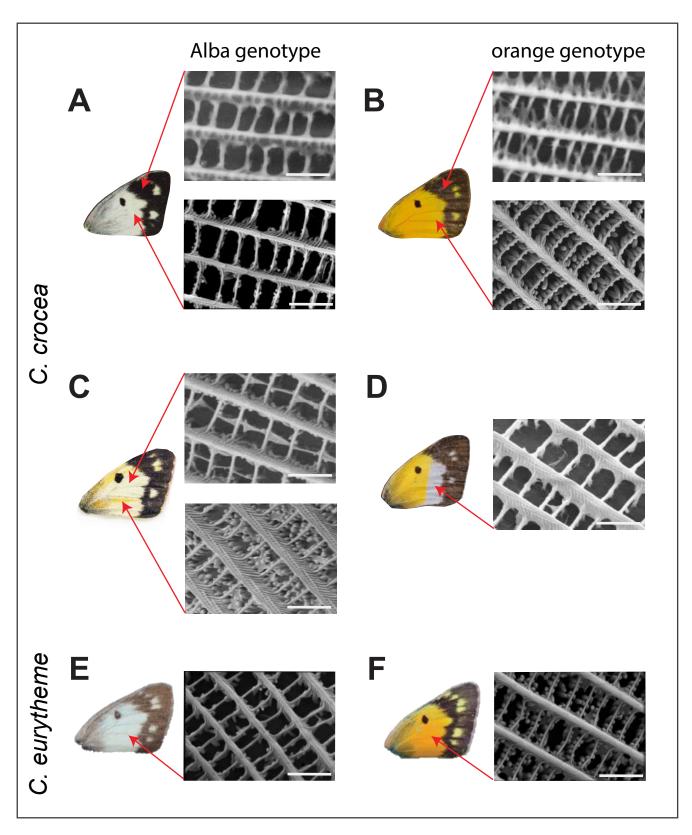


Figure 3

