A community-science approach identifies genetic variants associated with three color morphs in ball pythons (*Python regius*)

- 4
- Autumn R. Brown¹, Kaylee Comai¹, Dominic Mannino¹, Haily McCullough¹, Yamini Donekal¹,
 Hunter C. Meyers¹, The BIO306W Consortium¹, Chiron W. Graves^{1*}, and Hannah S. Seidel^{1*}
- 7 ¹Department of Biology, Eastern Michigan University, Ypsilanti, MI, USA
- 8 * Corresponding author:
- 9 E-mail: <u>hseidel@emich.edu</u> (HSS), <u>cgraves6@emich.edu</u> (CWG)

10 [^]The BIO306W Consortium comprises students in an undergraduate laboratory course at Eastern

11 Michigan University. Students are listed in the Acknowledgments.

12 Abstract

13 Color morphs in ball pythons (Python regius) provide a unique and largely untapped 14 resource for understanding the genetics of coloration in reptiles. Here we use a community-15 science approach to investigate the genetics of three color morphs affecting production of the pigment melanin. These morphs—Albino, Lavender Albino, and Ultramel—show a loss of melanin 16 17 in the skin and eyes, ranging from severe (Albino) to moderate (Lavender Albino) to mild 18 (Ultramel). To identify genetic variants causing each morph, we recruited shed skins of pet ball 19 pythons via social media, extracted DNA from the skins, and searched for putative loss-of-function 20 variants in homologs of genes controlling melanin production in other vertebrates. We report that 21 the Albino morph is associated with missense and non-coding variants in the gene TYR. The 22 Lavender Albino morph is associated with a deletion in the gene OCA2. The Ultramel morph is 23 associated with a missense variant and a putative deletion in the gene TYRP1. Our study is one 24 of the first to identify genetic variants associated with color morphs in ball pythons and shows that 25 pet samples recruited from the community can provide a resource for genetic studies in this 26 species.

Data availability: All relevant data are within the paper and its Supporting Information files. DNA
 sequences are available from GenBank, under accession numbers MZ269492-MZ269502.

Funding information: This work was supported by a Faculty Research Fellowship and James H. Brickley Award from Eastern Michigan University to HSS and an Undergraduate Research Stimulus Program Award and a Don Brown and Meta Hellwig Undergraduate Research Award from Eastern Michigan University to ARB. The funders had no role in study design, data collection and analysis, decision to publish, or preparation of the manuscript.

34 **Competing interests:** The authors have declared that no competing interests exist.

35 Introduction

Color patterns are distinctive and beautiful features of many animal species. Among the many functions of color are to camouflage animals to their surroundings, protect tissues from ultraviolet radiation, warn predators of poisons, and provide signals for mating and social communication [1]. Color patterns have also been targeted by artificial selection to create novel and fanciful color patterns in domestic animals [2].

41 Colors are produced through a combination of chemical pigments and physical structures 42 (structural colors). Pigments absorb light, whereas structural colors are created when light is 43 reflected by the nanoscale geometry of a tissue. Common pigments include brown-to-black 44 melanin, present throughout the animal kingdom, and yellow-to-red carotenoids and pteridines, 45 common in birds, reptiles, and lower vertebrates [3]. Color-producing structures include ordered 46 keratin matrices in bird feathers [4], chitin layers in butterfly wings [5], and purine crystals in the skin of fish, amphibians, and reptiles [6,7]. These color-producing structures can produce a variety 47 48 of colors, including iridescent colors, depending on the wavelengths of light they reflect [8].

The genetics and development of color patterns in vertebrates have been studied most extensively in mammals. Mammals largely rely on a single type of pigment (melanin), produced in the skin by a single type of cell (melanocyte) [9]. This system provides mammals with skin and hair colors ranging from black to reddish-brown, depending on the chemical structure of the melanin [10].

54 Skin colors outside mammals are more diverse and include bright colors of all hues. This 55 increased complexity is produced through a combination of structural colors and melanin and 56 non-melanin pigment, and it relies on multiple types of specialized color-producing cells in the 57 skin [11–15]. Color cell development has been characterized to some extent in fish [16–18], and 58 genes controlling the use of non-melanin pigments have been identified in a few species of fish 59 and birds [19–25]. The genetics and development of non-mammalian color patterns is less well 50 understood in other vertebrates, particularly in reptiles [although see 26–29].

61 A unique resource for understanding the genetics of color patterns in reptiles is the ball 62 python (P. regius). Ball pythons are native to sub-Saharan Africa, but have become common as pets in the United States [30]. Wild ball pythons exhibit a mottled color pattern, consisting of 63 brown-to-black melanin and red-to-yellow (non-melanin) pigments in the skin (Fig 1). Captive-64 65 bred ball pythons, by contrast, include many variants of the normal color pattern [26,31–33]. These variants, referred to as 'color morphs', include animals having reduced melanin (e.g. 66 67 Albino), increased melanin (e.g. Cinnamon), reduced red-to-yellow coloration (e.g. Axanthic), or 68 complex changes in the placement of color patches on the skin (e.g. Spider, Clown, Genetic 69 Stripe, and Enchi). Many color morphs are heritable and show simple dominant or recessive 70 patterns of inheritance. These inheritance patterns are consistent with single-gene causality, but 71 only a single genetic variant associated with a ball python color morph (Piebald) has been 72 identified to date [26]. Ball pythons therefore represent a tractable yet largely untapped resource 73 for understanding the genetics of coloration in reptiles. An additional feature of ball pythons 74 convenient for genetic studies is that DNA samples can be obtained non-invasively from shed 75 skin [34].

76 The goal of the current study was to perform proof-of-concept experiments to identify the 77 genetic causes of color morphs in ball pythons, using shed skins of pet ball pythons recruited via 78 social media. We focused on three morphs for which candidate genes could be readily identified: 79 Albino, Lavender Albino, and Ultramel. These morphs show a loss of brown-to-black coloration in 80 the skin and eves, characteristic of a defect in melanin production (Fig 1). These morphs are 81 recessive and non-allelic (i.e. crosses between these morphs yield offspring with normal 82 coloration). Their loss of melanin ranges from severe (Albino) to moderate (Lavender Albino) to 83 mild (Ultramel). This range of phenotypes mirrors the range of phenotypes observed for loss-of-84 function variants in genes required for melanin production in other vertebrates (Table 1). This

similarity provided a list of candidate genes that we predicted might harbor loss-of-function
variants causing the Albino, Lavender Albino, and Ultramel color morphs in ball pythons. Our
study demonstrates the feasibility of using community-sourced samples for genetic studies in ball
pythons and lays the groundwork for future investigations of reptile-specific color patterns in this
species.



90 Fig 1. The Albino, Lavender Albino, and Ultramel color morphs have reduced brown-to-91 black coloration, characteristic of a loss of melanin. Red-to-yellow coloration is unaffected in 92 these morphs. Hypothesized causative genes represent genes in which loss-of-function variants 93 in other vertebrates produce similar phenotypes (Table 1). (A) Wildtype. (B) Ultramel. (C) Lavender Albino. (D-F) Albino. (D) Albino animal described as an Alb^{Albino} homozygote. (E) Albino 94 animal described as an Alb^{Candy} homozygote. (F) Albino animal described as an Alb^{Toffee} 95 homozygote. Photo credits, Ryan Young of Molecular Reptile, Chiron Graves, Phil Barclay, 96 97 Michael Freedman of The Florida Reptile Ranch.

Gono	Spacia	as with identified loss of function variants	Role of	Loss-of-function	
Gene	Specie		protein	phenotype	
	Fish	Japanese carp [35], Japanese rice fish [36]	_		
	Frogs and	Japanese wild frogs (three species) [37],			
	snakes	Japanese rat snake [38]	_	Severe loss of melanin	
	Birds	Chicken [39–41]	_		
	Ungulates	Water buffalo [42], Cattle [43], Red deer [44],	Rate-limiting		
		Asinara donkey [45]	enzyme in		
TYR	Rodents	House mouse [46], Wistar rat [47], Domestic	melanin		
		guinea pig [48]	synthesis		
		Crab-eating macaque [49], Capuchin monkey	pathway		
	Primates	[50], Hamadryas baboon [51], Human			
		[reviewed in 52]			
	Other	Humpback whale [53], Ferret [54], American			
	mammals	mink [55], Domestic cat [56–58], Silver fox [59]			
	Fish	Mexican cavefish [60], Lake Malawi cichlid [61]	Cl ⁻ channel	Moderate loss of melanin	
OCA2	Snakes	Corn snake [62]	regulating		
	Mommolo	Domestic dog [63], Bama miniature pig [64],	melanosome		
	Ivianinais	House mouse [65], Human [reviewed in 52]	рН		
	Fish	Zebrafish [66]	_		
	Birds	Saker falcon [67]	Enzymes		
TVRP1	Mammals	Chinese indigenous pig [68], Liangshan pig	contributing to		
111111		[69], Domestic cat [58,70], Soay sheep [71],	melanin		
		Valais Red sheep [72], American mink [73],	synthesis		
		Human [reviewed in 52]	Synthesis		
TYRP2	Mammals	House mouse [74,75]			
SLC7A11	Mammals	House mouse [76]	-	Mild loss of melanin	
SLC24A5	Fish	Zebrafish [77]	_		
	Mammale	Domestic dog [78], Horse [79], Human			
	Warminais	[reviewed in 52]	Solute		
SLC45A2	Fish	Japanese rice fish [80]	transporters		
	Birds	Chicken and Japanese quail [81]			
	Mammals	Horse [82], House mouse [83], Bengal tiger			
		[84], Western lowland gorilla [85], Human			
		[reviewed in 52]			

98 Table 1. Loss-of-function phenotypes of melanogenesis genes across vertebrates.

99

100 **Results**

Obtaining a reference sequence for melanogenesis genes in a wildtype ball python

103 Genes required for melanin production have been identified in humans and other 104 vertebrates (Table 1). These genes encode enzymes that synthesize melanin (TYR, TYRP1, 105 TYRP2) [86], a chloride channel required for maintaining the pH of melanosomes (OCA2) [87], and transporters thought to import solutes into the cell or into organelles (SLC7A11, SLC24A5, 106 107 and SLC45A2) [76,88,89]. These genes are highly conserved among vertebrates and occur in 108 single copy in most vertebrate genomes. Loss-of-function variants in these genes in humans 109 cause a genetic disorder known as oculocutaneous albinism, which is characterized by loss of 110 melanin in the skin, hair, and eyes [52]. This loss of melanin ranges from severe to mild, 111 depending on the causative gene and exact genetics variants therein [52]. Similar phenotypes 112 occur in other animals, where the loss of melanin extends to feathers and scales (Table 1).

113 To obtain a reference sequence for melanogenesis genes in ball python, we amplified and 114 sequenced the coding regions of TYR, TYRP1, TYRP2, OCA2, SLC7A11, SLC24A5, and 115 SLC45A2 from a single ball python having normal coloration (henceforth 'wildtype'). Primers for 116 amplification were designed against the genome of Burmese python (Python bivittatus), the 117 closest relative of ball python for which genome sequence was available [90]. Comparison of ball 118 python sequences to sequences from Burmese python revealed 97.2-99.2% nucleotide identity 119 within coding regions and 96.9-98.5% nucleotide identity within flanking non-coding regions 120 (Table 2). This analysis provided a reference sequence for genes in ball python that might harbor 121 loss-of-function variants causing the Albino, Lavender Albino, and Ultramel color morphs.

Region	Gene	Total nucleotide sequence aligned (bp)	Nucleotide identity (%)	Amino acid identity (%)	
	TYR	1,591	98.5	99.6	
	TYRP1	1,584	99.2	99.6	
	TYRP2	1,473	98.3	99.1	
Coding	OCA2	2,577	98.9	99.7	
	SLC7A11	1,506	98.7	99.7	
	SLC24A5	1,379	98.2	99.5	
	SLC45A2	1,557	97.2	98.9	
	TYR	577	96.9		
	TYRP1	1,160	97.0		
Niere	TYRP2	1,060	97.9	(not	
Non-	OCA2	2,154	98.5	applicable)	
county	SLC7A11	3,407	97.9		
	SLC24A5	1,335	97.9]	
	SLC45A2	999	97.0		

Table 2. Comparison of ball python and Burmese python genomic and protein sequences for melanogenesis genes.

124

The Albino color morph is associated with three haplotypes of *TYR*

127 The Albino color morph in ball pythons is characterized by an absence or near absence 128 of melanin in the skin and eyes. This phenotype resembles the phenotype caused by loss of 129 function of *TYR* in other vertebrates. *TYR* encodes the enzyme catalyzing the rate-limiting step 130 of melanin production [86]. Loss of this enzymatic activity in other vertebrates causes a severe 131 loss of melanin, which is typically more severe than the loss of melanin caused by loss of function 132 of other melanogenesis genes (Table 1). We therefore hypothesized that the Albino color morph 133 in ball pythons was caused by loss-of-function variants in *TYR*.

134 To test whether the Albino color morph was associated with variants in TYR, we performed a small-scale association study using 50 Albinos and 56 Non-Albinos, recruited from a total of 18 135 136 states in the United States. Polymorphic sites were identified through pilot sequencing of a subset 137 of animals (see Methods). Six polymorphic sites were selected for the association study, two near 138 the 5' end of TYR and four near the 3' end (Fig 2A). Each animal was genotyped at each site, and 139 haplotypes were reconstructed using PHASE [91,92]. Association between haplotype and color 140 morph was tested using the case-control test of PHASE. As a negative control, we also tested for 141 association between haplotype and color morph at TYRP1, TYRP2, and OCA2, using two 142 polymorphic sites per gene (S1 Table). This analysis revealed a significant association between 143 haplotype and color morph at TYR (p = 0.04, Bonferroni corrected), but no association for the 144 other three genes (p > 0.05. Bonferroni corrected). The association for TYR was driven by two 145 features of the haplotype distribution: (i) diversity of TYR haplotypes was reduced among Albinos 146 compared to Non-Albinos (Fig 2A), and (ii) two of the three TYR haplotypes found in Albinos were 147 rare among Non-Albinos (Fig 2A). These results demonstrate an association between the Albino 148 color morph and variants in TYR; they further show that all Albino animals were homozygous or 149 compound heterozygous for any of three haplotypes of TYR.

150 We hypothesized that each of the three haplotypes of TYR found among Albinos might 151 carry a distinct loss-of-function variant in the gene. To search for such variants, we selected one 152 Albino animal homozygous for each haplotype and sequenced the TYR coding regions and 153 adjacent splice sites in these animals. We found that one of these animals was homozygous for 154 an aspartic acid-to-glycine variant (D394G) in the third coding region of TYR. A second animal 155 was homozygous for a proline-to-leucine variant (P384L), also in the third coding region of TYR. 156 Both variants alter conserved residues (Fig 2B), and the P384L variant occurs at the same site 157 as a similar variant (P384A) associated with oculocutaneous albinism in humans [93]. The third 158 animal carried no coding variants and no splice-site variants compared to wildtype. These results 159 show that two of the three TYR haplotypes found among Albinos carried missense variants that 160 are likely disruptive for TYR protein function. We term these TYR haplotypes TYR^{D394G} and TYR^{P384L}. We term the third Albino haplotype, which lacked coding or splice-site variants 161 compared to wildtype, TYR^{Albino}. 162

163 We hypothesized that D394G, P384L, and an unidentified variant on the TYR^{Albino} 164 haplotype were causative for the Albino color morph. This hypothesis predicts that animals 165 homozygous or compound heterozygous for these variants will be Albino. Heterozygotes and 166 non-carriers are predicted to be Non-Albino. To test this prediction, we genotyped our full panel 167 of 50 Albinos and 56 Non-Albinos for the missense variants D394G and P384L. Consistent with 168 our prediction, we found that animals homozygous or compound heterozygous for D394G, P384L, 169 or the TYR^{Albino} haplotype were exclusively Albino (Fig 2C). Heterozygotes and non-carriers were exclusively Non-Albino (Fig 2C). The most common haplotype among Albinos was TYR^{Albino} 170 (haplotype frequency of 71%), followed by TYR^{P384L} (16%) and TYR^{D394G} (13%). We conclude that 171 172 D394G, P384L, and an unidentified variant on the TYR^{Albino} haplotype are likely causative for the 173 Albino color morph. Any combination of these variants produces the Albino phenotype.



			111	genotype					
Breeder designation	TYR ^{Albino} / TYR ^{Albino}	TYR ^{Albino} / TYR ^{D394G}	TYR ^{D394G} / TYR ^{D394G}	TYR ^{Albino} / TYR ^{P384L}	TYR ^{D394G} I TYR ^{P384L}	TYR ^{P384L} / TYR ^{P384L}	TYR ^{Albino} / +	TYR ^{P384L} / +	+ / +
Alb ^{Albino} / Alb ^{Albino}	25	8	2	1					
Alb ^{Albino} / Alb ^{Candy}	3			5	1				
Alb ^{Albino} / Alb ^{Toffee}				1					
Alb ^{Candy} / Alb ^{Candy}						3			
Alb ^{Toffee} / Alb ^{Toffee}						1			
Non-Albino							1	1	54



174 Fig 2. The Albino color morph is associated with three haplotypes of TYR. (A) TYR haplotype frequencies among Albinos and Non-Albinos. (B) Alignment of TYR protein sequences 175 176 surrounding the missense variants D394G and P384L. (C) TYR genotypes and breeder 177 designations of animals used in the association study. +, any TYR haplotype found exclusively 178 among Non-Albinos. (D) PCR amplification of a genomic fragment containing the variable number 179 tandem repeat (VNTR) shown in E. Non-Albinos are examples of Non-Albinos homozygous for the longer allele of the VNTR. (E) Schematic of the three TYR haplotypes found in Albinos. The 180 TYR^{Albino} haplotype contains no coding variants and no splice-site variants compared to wildtype. 181 182 (A, E) Hash mark, discontinuity in the Burmese python reference genome.

183 The TYR^{Albino} haplotype lacks an obvious loss-of-function 184 variant

The lack of coding or splice-site variants on the TYR^{Albino} haplotype led us to hypothesize 185 that this haplotype carried a loss-of-function variant in a non-coding region. To search for such 186 187 variants, we examined the TYR promoter. We sequenced ~ 2 kb immediately upstream of the TYR start codon in a TYR^{Albino} homozygote and compared this sequence to wildtype. We found that 188 the TYR^{Albino} haplotype differed from wildtype at a total three sites (three single-base 189 substitutions). In all three cases, the *TYR*^{Albino} haplotype was homozygous for the allele shared 190 191 with Burmese python (i.e. the ancestral allele). This result suggests that these variants are not causative for the Albino color morph. We conclude that the causative variant in the TYRAlbino 192 haplotype does not reside within the sequenced region, ~2 kb upstream of the *TYR* start codon. 193

We hypothesized that the TYR^{Albino} haplotype might contain a large insertion or deletion 194 195 (indel) in an intron that disrupts gene function. Intronic indels can disrupt slicing and have been 196 found to disrupt the function of melanogenesis genes in other species [e.g. 62,73]. To search for large intronic indels, we tiled PCR amplicons across TYR introns and compared amplicon sizes 197 198 between a TYR^{Albino} homozygote and a wildtype animal. These amplicons tiled across a total of 199 ~38 kb of intronic sequence, which included part of intron 1 and all of introns 2, 3, and 4 (Fig 2E). 200 (Tiling across intron 1 was incomplete because this intron contains a discontinuity in the Burmese 201 python reference genome. Amplification across this discontinuity was unsuccessful in ball python, 202 even in wildtype.) Size differences between the TYR^{Albino} homozygote and wildtype were 203 assessed via standard agarose gel electrophoresis, which we estimate was sensitive enough to 204 reveal indels larger than ~50-100 bp, depending on amplicon size (which ranged from ~0.7-3.5 205 kb). This analysis revealed one size difference (Fig 2D). Further sequencing revealed that this 206 size difference was caused by a variable number tandem repeat (VNTR) that was ~400 bp larger 207 in the TYR^{Albino} homozygote than in wildtype. Genotyping of the 56 Non-Albinos for this indel 208 revealed that eight of these animals were homozygous for the larger allele of the VNTR (Fig 2D). This finding suggests that the larger allele of the VNTR is not causative for the Albino color morph. 209 We propose that the TYR^{Albino} haplotype harbors a loss-of-function variant other than a large 210 211 intronic indel or outside the genomic regions analyzed here.

212 *TYR^{P384L}* is associated with reduced phenotype severity 213 compared to *TYR^{D394G}* and *TYR^{Albino}*

Ball python breeders describe the Albino color morph as having three alleles: *Alb*^{*Albino*}, *Alb*^{*Candy*}, and *Alb*^{*Toffee*}. Evidence for this view comes in part from variation in the coloration of Albino animals. In some Albino animals, the brown-to-black coloration observed in wildtype is entirely absent, and skin patches appear white (Fig 1D). These Albinos are typically considered to be *Alb*^{*Albino*} homozygotes. Other Albinos show a less severe phenotype, where skin patches are faintly beige or lavender instead of white (Figs 1E and 1F). These Albinos are typically considered to carry one or more copies of *Alb*^{*Candy*} or *Alb*^{*Toffee*}.

221 We hypothesized that the Albino alleles recognized by breeders might correspond to the TYR haplotypes identified through sequencing $(TYR^{D394G}, TYR^{P384L})$, and TYR^{Albino}). To test this 222 hypothesis, we examined the breeder designations of the 50 Albinos in our panel. We found that 223 the Alb^{Candy} or Alb^{Toffee} designations typically corresponded the TYR^{P384L} haplotype (Fig 2C). The 224 Alb^{Albino} designation typically corresponded to the other two haplotypes (TYR^{D394G} and TYR^{Albino}, 225 Fig 2C). This correspondence was imperfect, and exceptions existed (e.g. three animals 226 designated as Alb^{Albino} / Alb^{Candy} compound heterozygotes did not carry the TYR^{P384L} haplotype, 227 Fig 2C). We conclude that the Alb^{Candy} and Alb^{Toffee} designations typically (but not exclusively) 228 represent the TYR^{P384L} haplotype. The Alb^{Albino} designation typically (but not exclusively) 229

represents the TYR^{D394G} or TYR^{Albino} haplotype. The association between the Alb^{Candy} and Alb^{Toffee} designations and the TYR^{P384L} haplotype suggests that this haplotype may confer a slightly less severe phenotype than do TYR^{D394G} and TYR^{Albino} .

The Lavender Albino color morph is associated with a deletion in OCA2

235 The Lavender Albino color morph is characterized by skin patches that are lavender 236 instead of brown or black. This phenotype is thought to arise from melanin levels that are 237 dramatically reduced but not entirely eliminated. Similar phenotypes have been observed in other 238 vertebrates upon loss of function of OCA2 (Table 1). OCA2 encodes a chloride channel required 239 for maintaining the pH of melanosomes [87,94]. When the OCA2 protein is absent or non-240 functional, the enzymes that synthesize melanin are less active, and only small amounts of 241 melanin are produced [95,96]. The resulting phenotype is typically less severe than the loss-of-242 function phenotype of TYR, but more severe than the loss-of-function phenotypes of other 243 melanogenesis genes (Table 1). We therefore hypothesized that the Lavender Albino color morph 244 was caused by loss-of-function variants in OCA2.

245 To search for loss-of-function variants in OCA2, we selected a single Lavender Albino 246 animal and sequenced 23 of the 24 coding regions of OCA2 in this animal. Comparison of these 247 sequences to wildtype revealed no coding variants and no splice-site variants. We attempted to repeat this analysis for the remaining coding region (coding region 18), but we were unable to 248 249 amplify this coding region from the Lavender Albino animal. Further test amplifications revealed 250 that the Lavender Albino animal was homozygous for a 1,514-bp deletion spanning coding region 251 18 (Figs 3A and 3B). This deletion removes 36 amino acids from the protein and likely introduces 252 a frameshift into the transcript, given that the coding regions downstream of the deletion are out 253 of frame compared to coding regions upstream of the deletion (Fig 3E). This frameshifted 254 transcript is predicted to produce a protein lacking six of the 12 transmembrane helices present 255 in wildtype OCA2. Truncations occurring at similar positions in the OCA2 protein have been 256 identified in humans and are associated with oculocutaneous albinism [97]. We conclude that the 257 deletion of OCA2 coding region 18 likely disrupts protein function and is a strong candidate for 258 the cause of the Lavender Albino color morph.

259 The Lavender Albino color morph is considered by breeders to have a single allele. We 260 therefore predicted that the OCA2 deletion would be shared by other Lavender Albino animals. 261 We predicted that Non-Lavender Albinos would be heterozygous for the deletion or non-carriers. 262 To test this prediction, we genotyped the OCA2 deletion in 13 additional Lavender Albino animals. 263 We also genotyped 76 Non-Lavender Albinos and one animal described as heterozygous for the 264 Lavender Albino color morph. We found that all 13 Lavender Albinos were homozygous for the 265 deletion (Figs 3C and 3D). All 76 Non-Lavender Albinos were non-carriers. The animal reported 266 to be heterozygous for Lavender Albino was heterozygous for the deletion. These findings support 267 the conclusion that the OCA2 deletion is causative for the Lavender Albino color morph (Fig 3E).



Fig 3. The Lavender Albino color morph is associated with a deletion in *OCA2*. (A) Schematic of the *OCA2* gene. (B) PCR amplification demonstrating the deletion in Lavender Albino. (C) PCR amplification used for genotyping the deletion in the animals in panel D. (D) Genotypes of 14 Lavender Albinos, 76 Non-Lavender Albinos, and one animal described as heterozygous for Lavender Albino. This set of animals includes the original Lavender Albino animal in which the OCA2 deletion was identified. (E) Schematic of the *OCA2* haplotype found in Lavender Albinos. (A, E) Hash mark, discontinuity in the Burmese python reference genome.

The Ultramel color morph is associated with a missense variant and a putative deletion in *TYRP1*

277 The Ultramel color morph is characterized by skin patches that are tan or light brown, 278 rather than dark brown or black. This phenotype suggests a mild loss of melanin. Similar 279 phenotypes in other vertebrates have been observed upon loss of function of any five genes: 280 TYRP1, TYRP2, SLC7A11, SLC24A5, and SLC45A2 (Table 1). TYRP1 and TYRP2 encode 281 enzymes involved in synthesizing melanin [86]. Their enzymatic activities are partially reductant with other enzymes in the melanin synthesis pathway, thus explaining their milder loss-of-function 282 283 phenotypes compared to TYR. SLC7A11 encodes a transporter responsible for importing cystine 284 into the cell [98]. Cystine is a precursor to some forms of melanin, and hence absence of the transporter alters melanin levels [76]. SLC24A5 and SLC45A2 encode a K⁺-dependent Na⁺-Ca²⁺ 285 286 exchanger [88] and a putative sugar transporter [89], respectively. Loss of either of these proteins 287 causes a reduction in melanin, through mechanisms that may involve defects in regulation of 288 melanosome pH [83,88,99]. We hypothesized that the Ultramel color morph was caused by loss-289 of-function variants in one of these genes.

290 To search for loss-of-function variants in TYRP1, TYRP2, SLC7A11, SLC24A5, and 291 SLC45A2, we selected a single Ultramel animal and sequenced the coding regions of each of 292 these genes in this animal. Comparison of these sequences to wildtype revealed a single coding 293 variant: an arginine-to-histidine substitution (R305H) in coding region 4 of TYRP1. The Ultramel 294 animal was homozygous for this variant. The arginine residue at this site is conserved across 295 vertebrates (Fig 4A) and is also conserved in TYR, which is paralogous to TYRP1 [100]. An 296 arginine-to-histidine substitution at the homologous site in TYR has been reported in humans and 297 is associated with oculocutaneous albinism [101–103], suggesting that a histidine at this site is 298 disruptive to protein function. The R305H variant is therefore a good candidate for the cause of 299 the Ultramel color morph.

300 The Ultramel color morph is considered by breeders to have a single allele. We therefore 301 predicted that the R305H variant would be shared by other Ultramels. We predicted that Non-302 Ultramels would be heterozygous or non-carriers. To test this prediction, we genotyped the 303 R305H variant in 10 additional Ultramels and 78 Non-Ultramels. We found that five of the 10 304 Ultramels were homozygous for the R305H variant (Fig 4B). Of the remaining Ultramels, two were 305 heterozygous for the R305H variant, and three did not carry it. By contrast, none of the 78 Non-Ultramels carried the R305H variant. This pattern is consistent with the R305H variant causing 306 307 the Ultramel phenotype in some Ultramels but not others.



308 Fig 4. The Ultramel color morph is associated with a missense variant and a putative deletion in TYRP1. (A) Alignment of TYRP1 protein sequence surrounding missense variant 309 R305H. (B) Genotypes of 11 Ultramels and 78 Non-Ultramels. This set of animals includes the 310 311 original Ultramel animal in which the R305H variant was identified. Ultramels heterozygous for 312 R305H are presumed to be heterozygous for the putative deletion of coding regions 6 and 7: 313 testing these animals for the putative deletion was not possible because the putative deletion cannot be detected in the heterozygous state. (C) Top, schematic of the TYRP1 gene. Bottom 314 315 left, PCR amplifications demonstrating the putative deletion in the Ultramels lacking R305H. 316 Bottom right, alignment of PCR amplicons to the TYRP1 gene. (D) Schematic of the two TYRP1 317 haplotypes found in Ultramels. (A, D) Hash mark, discontinuity in the Burmese python reference 318 genome.

319 We hypothesized that the R305H variant represents one of two loss-of-function alleles of 320 TYRP1. Under this scenario, Ultramels lacking the R305H variant are predicted to be 321 homozygous for an alternate loss-of-function allele. Ultramels heterozygous for R305H are 322 predicted to be compound heterozygotes. To test this prediction, we amplified and sequenced coding regions 1 through 5 of TYRP1 in one of the three Ultramels lacking the R305H variant. We 323 324 found no coding variants and no splice-site variants compared to wildtype. We attempted to repeat 325 this analysis for coding regions 6 and 7 of TYRP1, but we were unable to amplify these coding 326 regions from this animal (Fig 4C). Identical results were observed for the other two Ultramels 327 lacking the R305H variant (S5 Table). Further test amplifications indicated that coding regions 6 328 and 7 were missing from the genomes of all three animals (Fig 4C, S5 Table). Loss of these 329 coding regions was specific to Ultramels lacking the R305H variant and did not occur in any of 330 the Ultramels carrying the R305H variant, nor in any of the 78 Non-Ultramels (Fig 4B). A simple 331 explanation of this pattern is that the Ultramels lacking the R305H variant were homozygous for a deletion spanning coding regions 6 and 7 of TYRP1. This putative deletion removes at least 332 333 2,208 bp from the genome and 117 amino acids from the TYRP1 protein, including the second of 334 two zinc-binding domains. (The exact size and breakpoints of the putative deletion remain 335 undetermined because the deletion extends into a discontinuity in the Burmese python reference 336 genome.) Truncations occurring at similar positions in the TYRP1 protein have been identified in 337 humans and are associated with oculocutaneous albinism [104]. We conclude that the Ultramel 338 color morph is likely caused by variants in TYRP1 and has two alleles: missense variant R305H 339 and a putative deletion of coding regions 6 and 7 (Fig 4D).

340 **Discussion**

341 The goal of our study was to use pet samples recruited from the community to identify the 342 genetic causes of the Albino, Lavender Albino, and Ultramel color morphs. We succeeded in 343 recruiting 11 or more animals for each morph, along with a larger number of animals not belonging 344 to these morphs. This sample size, albeit small, was sufficient to identify putatively causal variants 345 for each morph (Fig 5). The Albino color morph was associated with three alleles of TYR: missense variant D394G, missense variant P384L, and haplotype TYR^{Albino}, which lacks coding 346 347 or splice-site variants compared to wildtype. The Lavender Albino color morph was associated 348 with a single allele of OCA2, a 1,514-bp deletion that removes OCA2 coding region 18. The 349 Ultramel color morph was associated with two alleles of TYRP1: missense variant R305H and a 350 putative deletion that removes TYRP1 coding regions 6 and 7. Due to the small sample size of 351 our study, we cannot exclude the possibility of additional loss-of-function alleles of these genes. 352 However, such alleles are expected to be at low frequency in the ball python population, given 353 their absence from our sample. These findings are consistent with genetic data from other 354 vertebrates (Table 1), indicating that the loss-of-function phenotypes of these genes range from 355 severe (TYR) to moderate (OCA2) to mild (TYPR1). Our study demonstrates that pet ball pythons 356 are a tractable resource for genetic analysis of coloration in reptiles, at least for color morphs 357 having obvious candidate genes.



Fig 5. Summary of genetic variants associated with the Albino, Lavender Albino, and
 Ultramel color morphs. Photo credits, Ryan Young of Molecular Reptile, Chiron Graves, Phil
 Barclay, Michael Freedman of The Florida Reptile Ranch.

Molecular functions of genetic variants associated with color morphs

363 The missense variants and deletions found in TYR, TYRP1, and OCA2 are likely 364 hypomorphic or null alleles. The deletion in OCA2 likely results in a frameshifted transcript that, if 365 not degraded by nonsense-mediated decay, encodes a protein lacking six of OCA2's 12 transmembrane helices [94]. This truncated protein is therefore unlikely to retain the Cl⁻ channel 366 367 activity observed for wildtype OCA2 [87]. TYR and TYPR1 encode globular enzymes that require copper or zinc as co-factors [86]. Variants P384L and D394G in TYR reside in the second of 368 369 TYR's two copper-binding domains and may therefore alter the ability of the TYR to bind copper. 370 Variant R305H in TYRP1 occurs at a site that normally forms salt bridges with residues located 371 elsewhere in the peptide chain [86]. An arginine-to-histidine substitution at this site likely disrupts 372 these salt bridges and may therefore interfere with proper protein folding. The putative deletion in TYRP1 removes the C-terminal ~20% of the protein. This deleted region includes the second of 373 374 TYRP1's two zinc-binding domains and several alpha helices residing to the enzyme's 375 hydrophobic core [86]. Truncated TYRP1 protein is therefore unlikely to fold properly, nor is it likely to properly associate with zinc. 376

The TYR^{Albino} haplotype is the most common TYR haplotype found among Albinos, but it lacks an obvious loss-of-function variant. This haplotype contains no coding variants, no splicesite variants, no derived variants within 2 kb upstream of the start codon, and no large indels in three of four introns (with the exception of a longer allele of a VNTR, which is not specific to the TYR^{Albino} haplotype). We propose that the TYR^{Albino} haplotype contains a loss-of-function variant not detectable by methods used in the current study. Examples include regulatory variants farther upstream of the start codon, substitutions in introns that disrupt slicing, or large indels or rearrangements involving the first intron. Cryptic loss-of-function variants in melanogenesis genes are thought to be relatively common in humans, where ~10-20% of oculocutaneous albinism patients are heterozygous for pathogenic variants in a known melanogenesis gene but lack a coding or splice-site variant on the opposite allele [105–107].

388 Multiple alleles of the Albino color morph

Prior to the current study, the Albino color morph was recognized by breeders as having 389 three alleles: Alb^{Albino}, Alb^{Candy}, and Alb^{Toffee}. Alb^{Albino} was thought to confer a more severe 390 phenotype than Alb^{Candy} and Alb^{Toffee} (Figs 1D-F). Our results confirm that the Albino color morph 391 has three molecular alleles (TYR^{D394G}, TYR^{P384L}, and TYR^{Albino}), but these alleles do not 392 correspond to the alleles recognized by breeders. The molecular allele *TYR*^{P384L} typically 393 corresponds to the breeder designations Alb^{Candy} and Alb^{Toffee} , whereas the molecular alleles 394 TYR^{D394G} and TYR^{Albino} typically correspond to the breeder designation Alb^{Albino} (Fig 2C). This 395 correspondence is imperfect and exceptions exist (Fig 2C). 396

We speculate that the TYR^{P384L} haplotype was discovered twice and was named Alb^{Candy} 397 by one breeder and Alb^{Toffee} by another breeder. We speculate that TYR^{D394G} and TYR^{Albino} confer 398 similar phenotypes and were not previously recognized by breeders as distinct. The less severe 399 phenotype associated with TYR^{P384L} may reflect the P384L variant being less disruptive to gene 400 401 function compared with variants on the other two alleles. Alternatively, the less severe phenotype associated with TYR^{P384L} may reflect genetic linkage to modifiers in other genes. In either case, 402 403 our study demonstrates that the Albino allele designations current in use by breeders are not an 404 accurate reflection of molecular genotype. Renaming of the Albino alleles is warranted, although 405 owners and breeders may be resistant to renaming due to cultural attachment to existing allele 406 names.

407 Multiple alleles of the Ultramel color morph

408 Our finding of multiple TYRP1 alleles for the Ultramel color morph was unexpected. This 409 morph was not previously described as having multiple alleles. We speculate that one of the two 410 alleles associated with the Ultramel color morph may represent an allele originally associated with 411 a morph known as Caramel Albino. Multiple lineages of Caramel Albinos have been described, 412 and their coloration similar to Ultramels. Caramel Albinos have been disfavored among owners 413 and breeders because of spinal kinking and reduced female fertility. Caramel Albinos were not 414 included in our study because we were unable to recruit any Caramel Albino samples. We 415 speculate that the Caramel Albino morph may be allelic with Ultramel, and that one of two TYRP1 416 alleles associated with Ultramel may represent an allele originally described as Caramel Albino. 417 Alternately, Ultramel may be distinct from Caramel Albino, and the two TYRP1 alleles may represent two distinct origins of the Ultramel morph. 418

419 **Prospects for genetic testing**

420 Many breeders of ball pythons wish to identify heterozygotes of recessive color morphs. 421 Currently the only tool for identifying heterozygotes is test breeding, which is slow and laborious. 422 The results of the current study will enable simple genetic testing for Albino, Lavender Albino, and 423 Ultramel, which will allow heterozygotes to be identified prior to reproductive maturity. Testing for 424 Lavender Albino can be performed by genotyping the OCA2 deletion. Testing for Albino can be 425 performed by sequencing the TYR missense variants D394G and P384L, and by genotyping variants that distinguish the TYR^{Albino} haplotype from other TYR haplotypes. Detection of D394G 426 427 or P384L can be considered diagnostic for Albino because these variants are likely causative for the Albino color morph. Detection of the TYR^{Albino} haplotype is less diagnostic because the 428

429 causative variant on *TYR*^{Albino} haplotype remains unknown. Testing for one of the two Ultramel 430 alleles can be performed by sequencing the *TYRP1* missense variant *R305H*. The other Ultramel 431 allele—the putative deletion of *TYRP1* coding regions 6 and 7—cannot currently be detected in 432 heterozygotes using simple methods because the breakpoints of this putative deletion are 433 unknown.

434 Use of Burmese python reference genome

435 One challenge for genetic studies in ball python is the absence of a reference genome. 436 To fill this gap, we relied on the genome of Burmese python [90], which is a scaffold-level 437 assembly. Contigs in this assembly are small, and genes are sometimes fragmented across scaffolds. This fragmentation limited our analysis of the TYR^{Albino} haplotype and the putative 438 deletion in TYRP1. For TYR^{Albino}, we were unable to assess whether the TYR^{Albino} haplotype 439 440 contained a large indel or rearrangement in the first intron of TYR, due to a discontinuity in the 441 Burmese python genome in this region. For the putative deletion in TYRP1, we were unable to 442 map the exact breakpoints of the deletion, due to a discontinuity in the Burmese python genome 443 immediately downstream of TYRP1. As genomic resources for Burmese python and ball python expand, we expect to identify a putatively causative variant on the TYR^{Albino} haplotype and to map 444 445 the breakpoints of the putative deletion in TYRP1. This information will increase the prospects for 446 genetic testing for these alleles.

447 Ball pythons as a genetic system

448 The market for pet ball pythons is huge, and many owners prefer animals with novel color 449 patterns. This demand has led breeders to propagate genetic variants affecting coloration [31,33]. 450 This effort has fortuitously created a collection of "mutants" useful for understanding the genetics 451 of coloration in reptiles. Examples include ball python morphs with altered red-to-yellow coloration 452 (e.g. Axanthic) and morphs in which the normal mottled color pattern is converted to dorsal strips 453 (e.g. Clown, Genetic Stripe, Super Stripe). Red-to-yellow pigments are largely uncharacterized in 454 reptiles [although see 28,29], and morphs affecting these pigments may provide insight into the 455 metabolism and storage of these pigments. Morphs with stripes are reminiscent of evolutionary 456 changes in color patterning across snake species [108] and may provide insights into the 457 developmental mechanisms by which these changes evolve. Future studies of ball python color 458 morphs will be aided by our groundwork showing that ball python samples can be recruited 459 effectively from pet owners, and that genetic analyses in ball python can be scaffolded using the 460 genome of Burmese python as a reference. Similar groundwork has also been provided by a 461 recent study characterizing the ball python morph known as Piebald [26]. We expect that a 462 continued community-science approach will be effective in developing ball pythons into a resource 463 for understanding the genetics of reptile coloration.

464 Materials and methods

465 **Recruitment of ball python sheds**

Ball python sheds were recruited from pet owners and breeders by placing announcements in Twitter, Reddit, Instagram, and Facebook, and by contacting sellers having active listings on Morph Market (www.morphmarket.com). Contributors were instructed to allow sheds to dry (if wet) and to ship sheds via standard first-class mail. Contributors sending multiple sheds were instructed to package sheds individually in plastic bags during shipping. Contributors were not provided monetary compensation for sheds, although some contributors were given prepaid shipping envelopes to cover shipping costs. Contributors were thanked via social media whenever possible. Upon receipt, sheds were stored at -20°C to kill any insect larvae infestingthe sheds.

475 To maximize genetic diversity within each category of morph, we limited our sample of 476 animals of any one morph to animals contributed by different contributors. Exceptions were made 477 if animals contributed by the same contributor had been obtained from different breeders. The 478 goal of this strategy was to reduce the number of animals that were close relatives (e.g. siblings 479 or parent-offspring pairs). Obtaining full pedigree information was not possible because most 480 owners lacked this information (e.g. "I bought my animal at a pet store" or "I got my animal from 481 a friend who was moving away"). Our discovery of multiple alleles for the Albino and Ultramel 482 color morphs supports the idea that animals in our sample were derived from multiple lineages. 483 However, we cannot exclude the possibility that some animals in our sample may have been 484 close relatives.

485 The total set of animals comprised 50 Albinos, 14 Lavender Albinos, 11 Ultramels, one 486 animal described as heterozygous for Lavender Albino, and 46 animals described as having 487 normal coloration (i.e. wildtype) or belonging to color morphs other than Albino, Lavender Albino, 488 or Ultramel. Phenotypes of Albinos, Lavender Albinos, and Ultramels were confirmed by 489 examining shed skins for a reduction of brown-to-black coloration. The single animal described 490 as heterozygous for Lavender Albino was included to demonstrate the three-primer assay for 491 genotyping the OCA2 deletion. Heterozygotes for Albino or Ultramel and additional heterozygous 492 for Lavender Albino were excluded from our study because we have found that animals described 493 as heterozygous for recessive traits by breeders and owners are sometimes not heterozygous for 494 these traits (e.g. due to mis-attribution of paternity).

495 **Performing experiments in an undergraduate laboratory** 496 **course**

497 The majority of experiments and analyses described in this study were performed by 498 undergraduate students as part of a laboratory course at Eastern Michigan University (BIO306W). 499 This practice required that our experimental design rely on simple techniques, namely PCR and 500 Sanger sequencing. To avoid student errors in these techniques, we implemented the following 501 precautions. First, students never extracted DNA from more than one animal within the same 502 laboratory period. Second, students performed negative and positive control reactions for all PCR 503 amplifications. Data from students having incorrect controls were excluded from analysis. Third, 504 all sequence analyses were performed independently by three or more students. When the results 505 of all students did not all agree, sequences were re-analyzed by the instructor (HSS).

506 Annotation of melanogenesis genes in Burmese python

507 Our analyses in ball python used the genome of Burmese python as a reference. We 508 therefore required high-confidence gene annotations in Burmese python for the genes used in our study (TYR, TYRP1, TYRP2, OCA2, SLC7A11, SLC24A5, and SLC45A2). Preliminary 509 510 inspection of existing gene annotations in Burmese python suggested that many gene annotations 511 contained errors. A main cause of these errors was that the Burmese python genome 512 (Python molurus bivittatus-5.0.2) is a scaffold-level assembly; many genes were split across 513 scaffolds. We therefore curated new gene annotations in Burmese python, using conservation of 514 gene structure across species. Alignment of protein sequences for each gene from corn snake, 515 anole lizard, chicken, and/or mouse revealed that gene structure was highly conserved for all 516 seven genes: Genes in each species contained the same number of coding regions, and the 517 coding-region boundaries relative to protein sequences were perfectly conserved across species, 518 with the exception of one slight difference in mouse for one boundary of SLC45A2 (S2 Table). 519 We therefore felt confident that conservation of coding-region boundaries could be used to curate

new gene annotations in Burmese python. While it remains theoretically possible that our new
 gene annotations contain minor errors, our confidence in these gene annotations is high, given
 the high conservation of gene structure across species.

523 To curate new gene annotations, we performed TBLASTN searches of the Burmese 524 python genome (*Python_molurus_bivittatus-5.0.2*) using protein sequences from anole lizard or 525 corn snake as the query. Hits were examined manually. Gene annotations were built to match the 526 coding-region boundaries conserved across species. Details for each gene annotation are given 527 below.

528 **TYR**

529 The Burmese python genome was queried using TYR protein sequence from anole lizard 530 ($XP_{003219419.1}$). The N-terminus of this query (coding region 1) hit Burmese python transcript 531 $XM_{007438960.1}$ on scaffold 4418. The C-terminus of this query (coding regions 2 to 5) hit 532 Burmese python transcript $XM_{007436041.2}$ on scaffold 3103. TYR was annotated as the union 533 of these transcripts. The 3' boundary of coding region 1 was adjusted to match the boundary 534 conserved across species (...TTC TCT TCA TGG CAA-3').

535 **TYRP1**

536 The Burmese python genome was queried using TYRP1 protein sequence from corn 537 snake (XP 034266320.1). The N-terminus of this query (coding regions 1 to 5) hit Burmese 538 python transcript XM 007426971.3 on scaffold 801. The C-terminus of this query (coding regions 539 6 and 7) hit unannotated regions on this same scaffold. TYRP1 was annotated as the union of 540 transcript XM 007426971.3 and coding regions 6 and 7. The boundaries of coding regions 6 and 541 7 were built to match the boundaries conserved across species (coding region 6, 5'-ATA TCT 542 CAA CAT ACC AAG TTC AGT GGC CAT-3'; coding region 7, 5'-CAC AAG CTC TCC 543 ATG....CAG TCA GAT GTG TGA-3').

544 **TYRP2**

545 The Burmese python genome was queried using TYRP2 protein sequence from corn 546 snake (XP 034273310.1). The N-terminus of this query (coding regions 1 to 3) hit unannotated 547 regions on Burmese python scaffold 4970. The C-terminus of this guery (coding regions 4 to 8) 548 hit Burmese python transcript XM 025174219.1 on this same scaffold. TYRP2 was annotated as 549 the union of coding regions 1 to 3 and C-terminal five coding regions of transcript 550 XM 025174219.1. Transcript XM 025174219.1 contains a sixth coding region that does not 551 match TYRP2 and was therefore excluded from the gene annotation. The boundaries of coding 552 regions 1 to 3 were built to match the boundaries conserved across species (coding region 1, 5'-553 ATG GCC TTC CTG CTG....GTT GCC AAT GCA CAG-3'; coding region 2, 5'-GAC ATT TTG 554 CTG GCT....GAG ATA CTC TAT TAG-3'; coding region 3, 5'- GAC CAG GCC GTC CCT....GAA 555 AGA GAT CTG CAG-3').

556 **OCA2**

557 The Burmese python genome was queried using OCA2 protein sequence from corn snake 558 $(XP_034287267.1)$. The N-terminus of this query (coding regions 1 to 9) hit Burmese python 559 transcript $XM_025173964.1$ on scaffold 4704. The C-terminus of this query (coding regions 10 to 560 24) hit Burmese python transcript $XM_007433276.1$ on scaffold 2194. OCA2 was annotated as 561 the union of these transcripts. The 5' boundary of coding region 10 was adjusted to match the 562 boundary conserved across species (5'-ATT GTC CAC AGG ACA...).

563 **SLC7A11**

The Burmese python genome was queried using SLC7A11 protein sequence from corn snake ($XP_{034257397.1}$). All regions of the query hit Burmese python transcript $XM_{007430906.3}$ on scaffold 1543. *SLC7A11* was annotated as transcript $XM_{007430906.3}$, with no further adjustments.

568 SLC24A5

569 The Burmese python genome was gueried using SLC24A5 protein sequence from corn 570 snake (XP 034290605.1) extended at its N-terminus to an upstream start codon present in the 571 parent transcript (XM 034434714.1). The N-terminus of the query (coding region 1) hit an 572 unannotated region on Burmese python scaffold 3984. The C-terminus of this guery (coding 573 regions 2 to 9) hit Burmese python transcript XM 007438007.2 on this same scaffold. SLC24A5 574 was annotated as the union of coding region 1 and transcript XM 007438007.2. The boundaries 575 of coding region 1 were built to match the boundaries conserved across species (5'-ATG CAG 576 CCT GCC GAG....TCC GCG AGG ATC CCG -3'). The 5' boundary of coding region 2 was 577 adjusted to match the boundary conserved across species (5'-AGA ACG AAA CCC GCT...).

578 **SLC45A2**

The Burmese python genome was queried using *SLC45A2* protein sequence from corn snake (*XP_034298386.1*). The N-terminal region of this query (coding regions 1 and 2) hit Burmese python transcript *XM_007432459.2* on scaffold 1939. The C-terminal region of this query (coding regions 5 to 7) hit Burmese python transcript *XM_007437721.2* on scaffold 3858. *SLC45A2* was annotated as the union of these transcripts.

584 **DNA extraction**

585 Sheds were rinsed in tap water to remove dirt and debris. Sheds were air dried and lysed 586 overnight at ~60°C in ~1 ml lysis buffer (100 mM Tris-HCl pH 8.0, 100 mM EDTA, 2% sodium 587 dodecyl sulfate, 3 mM CaCl₂, 2 mg/ml Proteinase K) per ~8 cm² piece of shed. Lysate was separated from visible fragments of undigested shed and further cleared by centrifugation at 588 589 13,000 x g for 2 min. To precipitate protein, ammonium acetate was added to supernatant to a 590 final concentration of 1.875 M. Samples were incubated on ice for 5-10 min and centrifuged at 591 13,000 x g for 3-5 min at 4°C. Supernatant was mixed with an equal volume of magnetic bead 592 mixture (10 mM Tris-HCl pH 8.0, 1 mM EDTA, 1.6 M NaCl, 0.2% Tween-20, 11% polyethylene 593 glycol, 0.04% washed SpeedBeads [Sigma #GE45152105050250]), and samples shaken for 5-594 10 min. Beads were separated from supernatant using a magnet, washed twice in 0.2 ml 70% 595 ethanol for 2 min, and air dried for ~1 min. DNA was eluted from beads in TE buffer (10 mM Tris-596 HCl pH 8.0, 1 mM EDTA) at 65°C for >5 min.

597 **Primer design and PCR**

598 Primers were designed against the genome of Burmese python or against genomic 599 sequences from ball python obtained in an earlier step of the study. Primers were designed using 600 Primer3 [109], using default parameters and a target annealing temperature of 60°C. Amplification 601 was first tested at 57°C, to allow for occasional divergence between ball python and Burmese 602 python genomic sequences. In some cases, annealing temperatures were later adjusted to 52°C, 60°C, or 61°C, to obtain stronger product or to eliminate background bands.

604 Genomic fragments were amplified using OneTag polymerase (NEB #M0480) or Q5 605 polymerase (NEB #M0491). Genotyping assays described below used OneTag, unless otherwise 606 specified. OneTag reactions consisted of 1X OneTag Standard Reaction Buffer, 200 µM dNTPs, 607 0.2 µM of each primer, and 0.025 U/µI OneTag polymerase. OneTag thermocycling conditions 608 were as follows: 94°C for 2 min; 30-35 cycles of 94°C for 30 sec, 52-61°C for 30 sec, and 68°C 609 for 1-4 min; and 68°C for 5 min. Q5 reactions consisted of 1X Q5 Reaction Buffer, 200 µM dNTPs, 610 0.5 µM of each primer, and 0.02 U/µI Q5 polymerase. Q5 thermocycling conditions were as follows: 98°C for 30 sec; 30-35 cycles of 98°C for 10 sec, 58-61°C for 15 sec, and 72°C for 1.5-3 611 612 min; and 72°C for 5 min. Reactions used 10-100 ng template DNA per 20 µl volume.

613 Sanger sequencing

614 PCR products were purified for Sanger sequencing using magnetic beads or gel 615 extraction. For magnetic-bead purification, PCR reactions were mixed with three volumes of 616 magnetic-bead mixture (10 mM Tris-HCl pH 8.0, 1 mM EDTA, 1.6-2.5 M NaCl, 0.2% Tween-20, 617 11-20% polyethylene glycol, 0.04% washed SpeedBeads [Sigma #GE45152105050250]), and 618 agitated for 5 min. Beads were separated from supernatant using a magnet, washed twice in 0.2 619 ml 80% ethanol for >30 sec, and air-dried for 30 sec. PCR products were eluted from beads in 10 620 mM Tris-HCl pH 8.0 for >3 min at 65°C. Gel extraction was performed using QIAquick Gel 621 Extraction Kit (Qiagen #28704), according to the manufacturer guidelines. Sanger sequencing 622 was performed by Eton Bioscience Inc (etonbio.com).

623 Sequencing of coding regions and comparison to Burmese 624 python

625 Coding regions of melanogenesis genes were amplified and sequenced using primers 626 S3 Chromatograms trimmed SnapGene given in Table. were using Viewer 627 (snapgene.com/snapgene-viewer) and aligned to one another or to genomic sequences from 628 Burmese python using ApE (jorgensen.biology.utah.edu/wayned/ape). Alignments were 629 examined manually to identify divergent and polymorphic sites. Sequence identity between ball 630 python and Burmese python was calculated across alignable sequence, excluding indels.

631 Association study genotyping

632 Variants for the association study were identified through amplification and pilot 633 sequencing of genomic fragments from five animals (four Non-Albinos and one Albino). For TYR, 634 TYRP1, and TYRP2, we identified one or more genomic fragments containing multiple 635 polymorphic sites within the same amplicon. These genomic fragments were selected for the 636 association study. For OCA2, we did not identify any genomic fragments containing multiple 637 polymorphic sites; we therefore selected two genomic fragments each containing a single 638 polymorphic site. Divergence between the Albino animal and the other four animals was not a 639 criterion for inclusion of variants in the association study. Variants were genotyped by amplifying 640 and sequencing genomic fragments containing the variants. Locations of variants and primers 641 used for amplifying and sequencing variants are given in S1 Table. Genotypes are provided in S6 642 Table.

643 Haplotype reconstruction

Haplotypes were reconstructed using PHASE version 2.1 [91,92]. Parameters were set to
200 iterations, a thinning interval of 2, and a burn-in parameter of 100. These settings produced
identical or nearly identical output for seven runs seeded with different random numbers; thus,
these settings met the criteria for effective choice of parameter settings, according to the PHASE
documentation). The case-control permutation test was performed by comparing Albinos to NonAlbinos.

650 Genotyping assays for TYR

TYR missense variants *D394G* and *P384L* were genotyped by amplifying and sequencing
a genomic fragment containing *TYR* coding region 3. This fragment was amplified using primers
13F (5'-ACT TTC AGG TGG GCA GCA G-3') and 13R (5'-GCT GAC AAC TAA AAT CTC TGC
AA-3') and an annealing temperature of 52°C. The amplicon was sequenced using primer 13F.
Genotypes are provided in S6 Table.

656 *TYR* promoter and intronic regions are amplified using primers given in S4 Table. 657 Promoter fragments were sequenced in full, and intronic fragments were sequenced from one 658 end, to confirm that the correct region of the genome had been amplified. Sequencing primers 659 are given in S4 Table. Size differences among intronic fragments were assessed by separating 660 fragments on a 1.25% agarose gel. Gels were run long enough for the shortest ladder band (100 661 bp) to migrate ~8 cm from its starting position.

Allele sizes of the variable number tandem repeat (VNTR) in *TYR* were genotyped by amplifying a genomic fragment located in *TYR* intron 3, using primers 214F (5'-TCT CAC CTG ATG GCA CAT TC-3') and 209R (5'-GTG CCC ACC CTG ATG TTA TT-3') and an annealing temperature of 60°C. Amplicon sizes were analyzed as for intronic fragments, described above.

666 **Genotyping assays for OCA2**

667 The OCA2 deletion was initially identified by amplifying and sequencing a genomic 668 fragment spanning OCA2 coding region 18. This fragment was amplified using primers 218F (5'-669 ACC CCG TAG CCT CTT CAA AT-3') and 166R (5'-TGG GTG GCA AAC AAT CAT AA-3'), an 670 annealing temperature of 60°C, and Q5 polymerase. Amplicons were sequenced using both 671 primers.

672 The OCA2 deletion was genotyped after its initial identification using a three-primer PCR 673 assay. This assayed used one forward primer and two reverse primers. The forward primer and 674 one of the reverse primers were located outside the deletion: 217F (5'-GGA GAG AGA ATC CAA 675 CCC TTG -3') and 166R (5'-TGG GTG GCA AAC AAT CAT AA-3'). The second reverse primer 676 was located within the deletion: 188R (5'-CAA AGA CCA TTG TCC ATT TCC-3'). The annealing 677 temperature was 57°C. This assay produces a 429-bp product for the wildtype allele and a 349-678 bp product for the deletion allele. Heterozygotes produce both products. Genotypes are provided 679 in S6 Table.

680 Genotyping assays for TYRP1

TYRP1 missense variant *R305H* was genotyped by amplifying and sequencing a genomic
 fragment spanning *TYRP1* coding region 4. This fragment was amplified using primers 18F (5' GCT CTT TTC TCT AAG TCT GAC CTC -3') and 18R (5'-TCT TGT CCC ACA AAA GGA TTT 3') and an annealing temperature of 57°C. The amplicon was sequenced using primer 18F.

The putative deletion of *TYRP1* coding regions 6 and 7 was identified using primers given in S5 Table. The putative deletion was genotyped after its initial identification by amplifying a genomic fragment of *TYRP1* spanning coding regions 6 and 7. This fragment was amplified using primers 20F (5'-GCA TTG TTT TAT CAG CCA TGA A-3') and 21R (5'-GGA ATT GAG ACA AAT CCT TGG-3') and an annealing temperature of 57°C. Genotypes are provided in S6 Table.

690 **Protein sequence alignment**

691

Protein sequences were aligned using Clustal Omega [110], using default parameters.

692 Acknowledgements

693 We thank Matt Rockman and Katy Greenwald for advice on haplotype reconstruction: Bob 694 Winning, Anne Casper, David Kass, and two anonymous reviewers for comments on the 695 manuscript; and the Educational Course Support program of New England BioLabs for reagents 696 used in undergraduate teaching labs. We thank the following individuals for contributing ball 697 python sheds: Adam and Nicole Schmid; Alycia Butler; Amanda Hall; Andelyn Czajka; Brad Carter 698 of Driftless Reptiles; Bryan Rivera; Chiron Graves; Chun Ku of Dynasty Reptiles; Dale Porcher; 699 Daniel Ross; David Wolf of Tornado Alley Reptiles; David Burstein; Dawn and Kelsi Greene of 700 Super Natural Balls; Dayna Plehn; Debby Brauer; Epic Vibrant Balls; Eric Chung of Chung 701 Reptiles; Erin Burt; George Straub; Haily McCullough; Jaden Christensen; Jake Lewis; Jamie 702 Palazzo of New Day Reptiles; Jeff Kearns; Jeff Linton; Jodi Wilkowski; Joe Myers; John Cordone 703 of Blue Water Reptiles; Jordan Noland; Justin Kobylka of J. Kobylka Reptiles; Lindsay VanOrman; 704 Lisa Huis: Manuel San Juan: Mark Bilger: Lynnet Melton: Maryann Barbon: Mia Hynes: Michael, 705 Lisa, and Bodie Cole of Ballroom Pythons South; Morgan Evans and Michael Kitto of MK Pythons; 706 Morgan Shelton; Paul and Amber Fiorito of Vivid Scales; Pets 'n' Things of Saline, MI; Rachel 707 Voyt; Royal Black Balls; Ryan Boyd and Brittney Delacruz; Ryan Young of Molecular Reptile; 708 Sergio McDole; Stephanie S. Crisp; Steve P. of Prime Pets; Zac Parpart; and several anonymous 709 contributors. We thank the following individuals for providing images of color morphs: Beth 710 Woodyard; Cat Church; Cormier Jason; Christine Miller; Darin Taylor; Daniel Hatcher; David C. 711 Callahan: Donald Grinstead; Elijah Snyder; Innovative Ectotherms; Jake Lewis; Jessica Allison; 712 Jessica Van Riper; Justin Kobylka; James Thompson; Justin Revington; Mariette van Vuuren; 713 Mark Hopkins; Mark Smith; Matthew Lopez; Michael Freedman of The Florida Reptile Ranch; 714 Morgan Evans; Phil Barclay, Robert Cooper; Ron Heisenberg; Ryan Young; Selectively Bred 715 Serpents; Seb Des Légendes Celtiques; and Thananan Jivaramonaikul.

716 Most of the data in this study were collected by undergraduates enrolled in a laboratory 717 course at Eastern Michigan University. These students constitute the BIO306W Consortium. 718 These students were Alexandra Ernst, Alia Frederick, Alissa Zoltowski, Amber Northcutt, Andrava 719 Ackerman, Anna Pathammavong, Annette Miller, Ashly Matzek, Asra Akhlaq, Aubrey Martin, 720 Bailey Knight, Benjamin Huff, Beth Wasserman, Brian Donald Condron, Caleb Sommer, Cassandra Rigor, Charles Southwell, Chase Chitwood, Chelsea Brown, Christina Roka, Ciarra 721 722 Womack, Clay McKenzie, Daniela Nappo, Darby Fracassa, Deirdre McCarter, Dhruvalkumar 723 Patel, Dominic Paoletti, Drake Dzierwa, Erica R, Geml, Erin Bissett, Ezekiel Butcher, Garrett 724 Chance, Garry Lewis, Genesis Garmendia, Geo Pullockaran, Hajer Musa Abuzir, Haley Praski, 725 Hanan Alroaini, Igra Akhlag, Ismael Yasin, Janelle Aethyr, Janelle Janisse, Jayce Alee Perysian, 726 Jemar Rooks, Jonathan Chang, Jonathan Harris, Joseph H. Oberlitner, Joshua Mason, Juwan 727 Taylor, Kailynn Sparks, Karissa Urban, Karli Siefman, Kealy Szymanski, Kelsy Rogue, Keyan 728 Marshall, Khaled Ali, Karleigh Hassenzahl, Kylie Powrie, Lauren Colone, Lissette Rosas, Manoj 729 Perumallapalli, Mariam Samir, Maryam Nimer, Maya Mackey, Megan McNulty, Mel Roberts, 730 Micaela Schempf, Molly Cook, Myah Kelly, Nahiel Sukar, Natalie Diaz, Natasha MacKay, Nathan 731 Barnett, Nathaniel Gonzalez, Noura Taybeh, Pablo De la Vega, Rida Ali, Ronnie Bryans, Ryan 732 Elliott, Saja Hussein, Samantha Glowacki, Samuel Teener, Sarah Holtzen, Sarah Schmidt, Shanti 733 Bernstein, Shelan Mizuree, Smarpita Singh, Stevie Zabrosky, Taia Broadbent, Tommiea 734 Robertson, Tyler Schallhorn, Verginio Persicone, William Soder, Wolfgang Ebersole, and Yvette 735 Campbell.

736 **References**

- 1. Cuthill IC, Allen WL, Arbuckle K, Caspers B, Chaplin G, Hauber ME, et al. The biology of color. Science. 2017;357: eaan0221. doi:10.1126/science.aan0221
- Cieslak M, Reissmann M, Hofreiter M, Ludwig A. Colours of domestication. Biol Rev.
 2011;86: 885–899. doi:10.1111/j.1469-185X.2011.00177.x
- 7413.Toews DPL, Hofmeister NR, Taylor SA. The Evolution and Genetics of Carotenoid742Processing in Animals. Trends Genet. 2017;33: 171–182. doi:10.1016/j.tig.2017.01.002
- 743 4. Prum RO. Anatomy, physics, and evolution of avian structural colors. Bird Coloration.
 744 Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press; 2006.
- 5. Ghiradella H. Structure and Development of Iridescent Lepidopteran Scales the
 Papilionidae as a Showcase Family. Ann Entomol Soc Am. 1985;78: 252–264.
 doi:10.1093/aesa/78.2.252
- 748 6. Bagnara JT, Taylor JD, Hadley ME. The dermal chromatophore unit. J Cell Biol. 1968;38:
 749 67–79. doi:10.1083/jcb.38.1.67
- 750 7. Saenko SV, Teyssier J, van der Marel D, Milinkovitch MC. Precise colocalization of
 751 interacting structural and pigmentary elements generates extensive color pattern variation
 752 in Phelsuma lizards. BMC Biol. 2013;11: 105. doi:10.1186/1741-7007-11-105
- Kinoshita S, Yoshioka S. Structural colors in nature: The role of regularity and irregularity
 in the structure. ChemPhysChem. 2005;6: 1442–1459. doi:10.1002/cphc.200500007
- Slominski A, Tobin DJ, Shibahara S, Wortsman J. Melanin pigmentation in mammalian skin
 and its hormonal regulation. Physiol Rev. 2004;84: 1155–1228.
 doi:10.1152/physrev.00044.2003
- Meredith P, Sarna T. The physical and chemical properties of eumelanin. Pigm Cell Res.
 2006;19: 572–594. doi:10.1111/j.1600-0749.2006.00345.x
- Bagnara JT, Fernandez PJ, Fujii R. On the blue coloration of vertebrates. Pigm Cell Res.
 2007;20: 14–26. doi:10.1111/j.1600-0749.2006.00360.x
- 762 12. Olsson M, Stuart-Fox D, Ballen C. Genetics and evolution of colour patterns in reptiles.
 763 Semin Cell Dev Biol. 2013;24: 529–541. doi:10.1016/j.semcdb.2013.04.001
- Shawkey MD, D'Alba L. Interactions between colour-producing mechanisms and their
 effects on the integumentary colour palette. Philos Trans R Soc B-Biol Sci. 2017;372:
 20160536. doi:10.1098/rstb.2016.0536
- Bagnara JT, Matsumoto J. Comparative Anatomy and Physiology of Pigment Cells in
 Nonmammalian Tissues. The Pigmentary System. John Wiley & Sons, Ltd; 2006. pp. 11–
 59. doi:10.1002/9780470987100.ch2
- Singh AP, Nuesslein-Volhard C. Zebrafish Stripes as a Model for Vertebrate Colour Pattern
 Formation. Curr Biol. 2015;25: R81–R92. doi:10.1016/j.cub.2014.11.013

- Huang D, Lewis VM, Foster TN, Toomey MB, Corbo JC, Parichy DM. Development and genetics of red coloration in the zebrafish relative Danio albolineatus. eLife. 2021;10:
 e70253. doi:10.7554/eLife.70253
- 775 17. Kimura T, Nagao Y, Hashimoto H, Yamamoto-Shiraishi Y, Yamamoto S, Yabe T, et al. 776 Leucophores are similar to xanthophores in their specification and differentiation processes 777 medaka. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S Α. 2014;111: 7343–7348. in 778 doi:10.1073/pnas.1311254111
- Nusslein-Volhard C, Singh AP. How fish color their skin: A paradigm for development and
 evolution of adult patterns Multipotency, plasticity, and cell competition regulate
 proliferation and spreading of pigment cells in Zebrafish coloration. Bioessays. 2017;39:
 1600231. doi:10.1002/bies.201600231
- T83
 19. Cooke TF, Fischer CR, Wu P, Jiang T-X, Xie KT, Kuo J, et al. Genetic Mapping and
 Biochemical Basis of Yellow Feather Pigmentation in Budgerigars. Cell. 2017;171: 427-+.
 doi:10.1016/j.cell.2017.08.016
- 786 20. Gazda MA, Araujo PM, Lopes RJ, Toomey MB, Andrade P, Afonso S, et al. A genetic
 787 mechanism for sexual dichromatism in birds. Science. 2020;368: 1270-+.
 788 doi:10.1126/science.aba0803
- 789 21. Kwon YM, Vranken N, Hoge C, Lichak MR, Francis KX, Camacho-Garcia J, et al. Genomic
 790 consequences of domestication of the Siamese fighting fish. 2021 Apr p.
 791 2021.04.29.442030. doi:10.1101/2021.04.29.442030
- Z2. Lopes RJ, Johnson JD, Toomey MB, Ferreira MS, Araujo PM, Melo-Ferreira J, et al.
 Genetic Basis for Red Coloration in Birds. Curr Biol. 2016;26: 1427–1434.
 doi:10.1016/j.cub.2016.03.076
- Mundy NI, Stapley J, Bennison C, Tucker R, Twyman H, Kim K-W, et al. Red Carotenoid
 Coloration in the Zebra Finch Is Controlled by a Cytochrome P450 Gene Cluster. Curr Biol.
 2016;26: 1435–1440. doi:10.1016/j.cub.2016.04.047
- 798 24. Toomey MB, Lopes RJ, Araujo PM, Johnson JD, Gazda MA, Afonso S, et al. High-density
 799 lipoprotein receptor SCARB1 is required for carotenoid coloration in birds. Proc Natl Acad
 800 Sci U S A. 2017;114: 5219–5224. doi:10.1073/pnas.1700751114
- Zhang W, Wang H, Brandt DYC, Hu B, Sheng J, Wang M, et al. The genetic architecture
 of phenotypic diversity in the betta fish (Betta splendens). bioRxiv. 2021;
 2021.05.10.443352. doi:10.1101/2021.05.10.443352
- 804 26. Garcia-Elfring A, Roffey HL, Hendry AP, Barrett RDH. A nonsense mutation in TFEC is the
 805 likely cause of the recessive piebald phenotype in ball pythons (Python regius). 2020 Nov
 806 p. 2020.10.30.362970. doi:10.1101/2020.10.30.362970
- 807 27. Guo L, Bloom J, Sykes S, Huang E, Kashif Z, Pham E, et al. Genetics of white color and
 808 iridophoroma in "Lemon Frost" leopard geckos. PLoS Genet. 2021;17: e1009580.
 809 doi:10.1371/journal.pgen.1009580

- 810 28. McLean CA, Lutz A, Rankin KJ, Stuart-Fox D, Moussalli A. Revealing the Biochemical and
 811 Genetic Basis of Color Variation in a Polymorphic Lizard. Mol Biol Evol. 2017;34: 1924–
 812 1935. doi:10.1093/molbev/msx136
- Ullate-Agote A, Burgelin I, Debry A, Langrez C, Montange F, Peraldi R, et al. Genome
 mapping of a LYST mutation in corn snakes indicates that vertebrate chromatophore
 vesicles are lysosome-related organelles. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A. 2020;117: 26307–
 26317. doi:10.1073/pnas.2003724117
- 817 30. Bale R. Ball python exports raise concerns as demand for the popular pet grows. National818 Geographic. 2020.
- 819 31. Broghammer S. Python regius: Atlas of Colour Morphs Keeping and Breeding. NTV Natur
 820 und Tier-Verlag; 2019.
- 32. Irizarry KJL, Bryden RL. In Silico Analysis of Gene Expression Network Components
 Underlying Pigmentation Phenotypes in the Python Identified Evolutionarily Conserved
 Clusters of Transcription Factor Binding Sites. Adv Bioinformatics. 2016;2016: 1286510.
 doi:10.1155/2016/1286510
- 33. McCurley K. Complete Ball Python, A Comprehensive Guide to Care, Breeding, and
 Genetic Mutations: Kevin McCurley: 9780976733409: Amazon.com: Books. ECO /
 Serpent's Tale NHBD; 2005.
- Burbrink FT, Castoe TA. Molecular Phylogeography of Snakes. Snakes: Ecology and Conservation. Cornell University Press; 2011. pp. 38–77. doi:10.7591/9780801459092-006
- Liu Q, Qi Y, Liang Q, Song J, Liu J, Li W, et al. Targeted disruption of tyrosinase causes
 melanin reduction in Carassius auratus cuvieri and its hybrid progeny. Sci China-Life Sci.
 2019;62: 1194–1202. doi:10.1007/s11427-018-9404-7
- Koga A, Wakamatsu Y, Kurosawa J, Hori H. Oculocutaneous albinism in the i(6) mutant of
 the medaka fish is associated with a deletion in the tyrosinase gene. Pigm Cell Res.
 1999;12: 252–258. doi:10.1111/j.1600-0749.1999.tb00758.x
- 836 37. Miura I, Tagami M, Fujitani T, Ogata M. Spontaneous tyrosinase mutations identified in
 albinos of three wild frog species. Genes Genet Syst. 2017;92: 189–196.
 doi:10.1266/ggs.16-00061
- 839 38. Iwanishi S, Zaitsu S, Shibata H, Nitasaka E. An albino mutant of the Japanese rat snake
 840 (Elaphe climacophora) carries a nonsense mutation in the tyrosinase gene. Genes Genet
 841 Syst. 2018;93: 163–167. doi:10.1266/ggs.18-00021
- 39. Tobita-Teramoto T, Jang GY, Kino K, Salter DW, Brumbaugh J, Akiyama T. Autosomal
 albino chicken mutation (ca/ca) deletes hexanucleotide (-deltaGACTGG817) at a copperbinding site of the tyrosinase gene. Poult Sci. 2000;79: 46–50. doi:10.1093/ps/79.1.46
- Chang C-M, Coville J-L, Coquerelle G, Gourichon D, Oulmouden A, Tixier-Boichard M.
 Complete association between a retroviral insertion in the tyrosinase gene and the recessive white mutation in chickens. BMC Genomics. 2006;7: 19. doi:10.1186/1471-21647-19

- 849 41. Chang CM, Furet JP, Coville JL, Coquerelle G, Gourichon D, Tixier-Boichard M.
 850 Quantitative effects of an intronic retroviral insertion on the transcription of the tyrosinase
 851 gene in recessive white chickens. Anim Genet. 2007;38: 162–167. doi:10.1111/j.1365852 2052.2007.01581.x
- Florisbal Dame MC, Xavier GM, Oliveira-Filho JP, Borges AS, Oliveira HN, Riet-Correa F,
 et al. A nonsense mutation in the tyrosinase gene causes albinism in water buffalo. BMC
 Genet. 2012;13: 62. doi:10.1186/1471-2156-13-62
- Schmutz SM, Berryere TG, Ciobanu DC, Mileham AJ, Schmidtz BH, Fredholm M. A form
 of albinism in cattle is caused by a tyrosinase frameshift mutation. Mamm Genome.
 2004;15: 62–67. doi:10.1007/s00335-002-2249-5
- Reiner G, Tramberend K, Nietfeld F, Volmer K, Wurmser C, Fries R, et al. A genome-wide
 scan study identifies a single nucleotide substitution in the tyrosinase gene associated with
 white coat colour in a red deer (Cervus elaphus) population. BMC Genet. 2020;21.
 doi:10.1186/s12863-020-0814-0
- 45. Utzeri VJ, Bertolini F, Ribani A, Schiavo G, Dall'Olio S, Fontanesi L. The albinism of the
 feral Asinara white donkeys (Equus asinus) is determined by a missense mutation in a
 highly conserved position of the tyrosinase (TYR) gene deduced protein. Anim Genet.
 2016;47: 120–124. doi:10.1111/age.12386
- 46. Yokoyama T, Silversides D, Waymire K, Kwon B, Takeuchi T, Overbeek P. Conserved
 Cysteine to Serine Mutation in Tyrosinase Is Responsible for the Classical Albino Mutation
 in Laboratory Mice. Nucleic Acids Res. 1990;18: 7293–7298. doi:10.1093/nar/18.24.7293
- Blaszczyk WM, Arning L, Hoffmann KP, Epplen JT. A Tyrosinase missense mutation
 causes albinism in the Wistar rat. Pigm Cell Res. 2005;18: 144–145. doi:10.1111/j.16000749.2005.00227.x
- 48. Yu F, Jiao S, Lai W, Liu Z, Zhu M, Zhu W, et al. Conserved aspartate-to-glycine mutation
 in tyrosinase is associated with albino phenotype in domestic guinea pigs (Cavia porcellus).
 Anim Genet. 2018;49: 354–355. doi:10.1111/age.12683
- Kim Y-H, Park S-J, Choe S-H, Lee J-R, Cho H-M, Kim S-U, et al. Identification and characterization of the tyrosinase gene (TYR) and its transcript variants (TYR_1 and TYR_2) in the crab-eating macaque (Macaca fascicularis). Gene. 2017;630: 21–27. doi:10.1016/j.gene.2017.07.047
- So. Galante Rocha de Vasconcelos FT, Hauzman E, Henriques LD, Kilpp Goulart PR, Galvao
 O de F, Sano RY, et al. A novel nonsense mutation in the tyrosinase gene is related to the
 albinism in a capuchin monkey (Sapajus apella). BMC Genet. 2017;18: 39.
 doi:10.1186/s12863-017-0504-8
- Koga A, Hisakawa C, Yoshizawa M. Baboon bearing resemblance in pigmentation pattern
 to Siamese cat carries a missense mutation in the tyrosinase gene. Genome. 2020;63.
 doi:10.1139/gen-2020-0003

- 887 52. Montoliu L, Gronskov K, Wei A-H, Martinez-Garcia M, Fernandez A, Arveiler B, et al.
 888 Increasing the complexity: new genes and new types of albinism. Pigment Cell Melanoma
 889 Res. 2014;27. doi:10.1111/pcmr.12167
- 890 53. Polanowski AM, Robinson-Laverick SM, Paton D, Jarman SN. Variation in the Tyrosinase
 891 Gene Associated with a White Humpback Whale (Megaptera novaeangliae). J Hered.
 892 2012;103: 130–133. doi:10.1093/jhered/esr108
- Blaszczyk WM, Distler C, Dekomien G, Arning L, Hoffmann K-P, Epplen JT. Identification
 of a tyrosinase (TYR) exon 4 deletion in albino ferrets (Mustela putorius furo). Anim Genet.
 2007;38: 421–423. doi:10.1111/j.1365-2052.2007.01619.x
- Anistoroaei R, Fredholm M, Christensen K, Leeb T. Albinism in the American mink
 (Neovison vison) is associated with a tyrosinase nonsense mutation. Anim Genet. 2008;39:
 645–648. doi:10.1111/j.1365-2052.2008.01788.x
- 899 56. Imes DL, Geary LA, Grahn RA, Lyons LA. Albinism in the domestic cat (Felis catus) is
 900 associated with a tyrosinase (TYR) mutation. Anim Genet. 2006;37: 175–178.
 901 doi:10.1111/j.1365-2052.2005.01409.x
- 57. Lyons LA, Imes DL, Rah HC, Grahn RA. Tyrosinase mutations associated with Siamese
 and Burmese patterns in the domestic cat (Felis catus). Anim Genet. 2005;36: 119–126.
 doi:10.1111/j.1365-2052.2005.01253.x
- Schmidt-Kuntzel A, Eizirik E, O'Brien SJ, Menotti-Raymond M. Tyrosinase and tyrosinase
 related protein 1 alleles specify domestic cat coat color phenotypes of the albino and brown
 loci. J Hered. 2005;96: 289–301. doi:10.1093/jhered/esi066
- 908 59. Yan S, Zhao D, Hu M, Tan X, Lai W, Kang J, et al. A single base insertion in the tyrosinase
 909 gene is associated with albino phenotype in silver foxes (Vulpes vulpes). Anim Genet.
 910 2019;50: 550–550. doi:10.1111/age.12816
- 911 60. Gross JB, Wilkens H. Albinism in phylogenetically and geographically distinct populations
 912 of Astyanax cavefish arises through the same loss-of-function Oca2 allele. Heredity.
 913 2013;111: 122–130. doi:10.1038/hdy.2013.26
- 814 61. Kratochwil CF, Urban S, Meyer A. Genome of the Malawi golden cichlid fish
 915 (Melanochromis auratus) reveals exon loss of oca2 in an amelanistic morph. Pigment Cell
 916 Melanoma Res. 2019;32: 719–723. doi:10.1111/pcmr.12799
- 917 62. Saenko SV, Lamichhaney S, Barrio AM, Rafati N, Andersson L, Milinkovitch MC.
 918 Amelanism in the corn snake is associated with the insertion of an LTR-retrotransposon in 919 the OCA2 gene. Sci Rep. 2015;5: 17118. doi:10.1038/srep17118
- 63. Caduff M, Bauer A, Jagannathan V, Leeb T. OCA2 splice site variant in German Spitz dogs
 with oculocutaneous albinism. PLoS One. 2017;12: e0185944.
 doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0185944
- 923 64. Zhang Y, Hong Q, Cao C, Yang L, Li Y, Hai T, et al. A novel porcine model reproduces
 924 human oculocutaneous albinism type. Cell Discov. 2019;5: 48. doi:10.1038/s41421-019925 0117-7

- Shoji H, Kiniwa Y, Okuyama R, Yang M, Higuchi K, Mori M. A nonsense nucleotide substitution in the oculocutaneous albinism II gene underlies the original pink-eyed dilution allele (Oca2(p)) in mice. Exp Anim. 2015;64: 171–179. doi:10.1538/expanim.14-0075
- 66. Krauss J, Geiger-Rudolph S, Koch I, Nuesslein-Volhard C, Irion U. A dominant mutation in
 tyrp1A leads to melanophore death in zebrafish. Pigment Cell Melanoma Res. 2014;27:
 827–830. doi:10.1111/pcmr.12272
- 67. Cortimiglia C, Castiglioni B, Pizzi F, Stella A, Capra E. Involvement of tyrosinase-related
 protein 1 gene in the light brown plumage phenotype of Falco cherrug. Anim Genet.
 2017;48: 125–126. doi:10.1111/age.12506
- 88. Ren J, Mao H, Zhang Z, Xiao S, Ding N, Huang L. A 6-bp deletion in the TYRP1 gene causes the brown colouration phenotype in Chinese indigenous pigs. Heredity. 2011;106: 862–868. doi:10.1038/hdy.2010.129
- 938 69. Wu X, Zhang Y, Shen L, Du J, Luo J, Liu C, et al. A 6-bp deletion in exon 8 and two
 939 mutations in introns of TYRP1 are associated with blond coat color in Liangshan pigs.
 940 Gene. 2016;578: 132–136. doi:10.1016/j.gene.2015.12.011
- 94170.Lyons LA, Foe IT, Rah HC, Grahn RA. Chocolate coated cats: TYRP1 mutations for brown942color domestic cats. Mamm Genome. 2005;16: 356–366. doi:10.1007/s00335-004-2455-4
- 943 71. Gratten J, Beraldi D, Lowder BV, McRae AF, Visscher PM, Pemberton JM, et al.
 944 Compelling evidence that a single nucleotide substitution in TYRP1 is responsible for coat-945 colour polymorphism in a free-living population of Soay sheep. Proc R Soc B-Biol Sci.
 946 2007;274: 619–626. doi:10.1098/rspb.2006.3762
- 947 72. Paris JM, Letko A, Hafliger IM, Ammann P, Flury C, Drogemuller C. Identification of two
 948 TYRP1 loss-of-function alleles in Valais Red sheep. Anim Genet. 2019;50: 778–782.
 949 doi:10.1111/age.12863
- 950 73. Cirera S, Markakis MN, Kristiansen T, Vissenberg K, Fredholm M, Christensen K, et al. A
 951 large insertion in intron 2 of the TYRP1 gene associated with American Palomino
 952 phenotype in American mink. Mamm Genome. 2016;27: 135–143. doi:10.1007/s00335953 016-9620-4
- 954 74. Budd P, Jackson I. Structure of the Mouse Tyrosinase-Related Protein-2 Dopachrome
 955 Tautomerase (tyrp2/Dct) Gene and Sequence of 2 Novel Slaty Alleles. Genomics. 1995;29:
 956 35–43. doi:10.1006/geno.1995.1212
- 957 75. Jackson I, Chambers D, Tsukamoto K, Copeland N, Gilbert D, Jenkins N, et al. A 2nd
 958 Tyrosinase-Related Protein, Trp-2, Maps to and Is Mutated at the Mouse Slaty Locus.
 959 Embo J. 1992;11: 527–535. doi:10.1002/j.1460-2075.1992.tb05083.x
- P60 76. Chintala S, Li W, Lamoreux ML, Ito S, Wakamatsu K, Sviderskaya EV, et al. SIc7a11 gene controls production of pheomelanin pigment and proliferation of cultured cells. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A. 2005;102: 10964–10969. doi:10.1073/pnas.0502856102

- P63 77. Lamason RL, Mohideen M, Mest JR, Wong AC, Norton HL, Aros MC, et al. SLC24A5, a
 putative cation exchanger, affects pigmentation in zebrafish and humans. Science.
 2005;310: 1782–1786. doi:10.1126/science.1116238
- 966 78. Winkler PA, Gornik KR, Ramsey DT, Dubielzig RR, Venta PJ, Petersen-Jones SM, et al. A
 967 Partial Gene Deletion of SLC45A2 Causes Oculocutaneous Albinism in Doberman
 968 Pinscher Dogs. PLoS One. 2014;9: e92127. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0092127
- Mack M, Kowalski E, Grahn R, Bras D, Penedo MCT, Bellone R. Two Variants in SLC24A5
 Are Associated with "Tiger-Eye" Iris Pigmentation in Puerto Rican Paso Fino Horses. G3Genes Genomes Genet. 2017;7: 2799–2806. doi:10.1534/g3.117.043786
- 80. Fukamachi S, Shimada A, Shima A. Mutations in the gene encoding B, a novel transporter
 protein, reduce melanin content in medaka. Nature Genet. 2001;28: 381–385.
 doi:10.1038/ng584
- 81. Gunnarsson U, Hellstrom AR, Tixier-Boichard M, Minvielle F, Bed'hom B, Ito S, et al.
 Mutations in SLC45A2 cause plumage color variation in chicken and Japanese quail.
 Genetics. 2007;175: 867–877. doi:10.1534/genetics.106.063107
- 82. Mariat D, Taourit S, Guerin G. A mutation in the MATP gene causes the cream coat colour
 in the horse. Genet Sel Evol. 2003;35: 119–133. doi:10.1051/gse:2002039
- 83. Newton JM, Cohen-Barak O, Hagiwara N, Gardner JM, Davisson MT, King RA, et al.
 Mutations in the human orthologue of the mouse underwhite gene (uw) underlie a new form
 of oculocutaneous albinism, OCA4. Am J Hum Genet. 2001;69: 981–988.
 doi:10.1086/324340
- 84. Xu X, Dong G-X, Hu X-S, Miao L, Zhang X-L, Zhang D-L, et al. The Genetic Basis of White
 Tigers. Curr Biol. 2013;23: 1031–1035. doi:10.1016/j.cub.2013.04.054
- 986 85. Prado-Martinez J, Hernando-Herraez I, Lorente-Galdos B, Dabad M, Ramirez O, Baeza987 Delgado C, et al. The genome sequencing of an albino Western lowland gorilla reveals
 988 inbreeding in the wild. BMC Genomics. 2013;14: 363. doi:10.1186/1471-2164-14-363
- 86. Lai X, Wichers HJ, Soler-Lopez M, Dijkstra BW. Structure and Function of Human
 Tyrosinase and Tyrosinase-Related Proteins. Chem-Eur J. 2018;24: 47–55.
 doi:10.1002/chem.201704410
- 87. Bellono NW, Escobar IE, Lefkovith AJ, Marks MS, Oancea E. An intracellular anion channel
 critical for pigmentation. eLife. 2014;3: e04543. doi:10.7554/eLife.04543
- 88. Ginger RS, Askew SE, Ogborne RM, Wilson S, Ferdinando D, Dadd T, et al. SLC24A5
 encodes a trans-golgi network protein with potassium-dependent sodium-calcium
 exchange activity that regulates human epidermal melanogenesis. J Biol Chem. 2008;283:
 5486–5495. doi:10.1074/jbc.M707521200
- 89. Vitavska O, Wieczorek H. The SLC45 gene family of putative sugar transporters. Mol Asp
 999 Med. 2013;34: 655–660. doi:10.1016/j.mam.2012.05.014

- 1000 90. Castoe TA, de Koning APJ, Hall KT, Card DC, Schield DR, Fujita MK, et al. The Burmese
 1001 python genome reveals the molecular basis for extreme adaptation in snakes. Proc Natl
 1002 Acad Sci U S A. 2013;110: 20645–20650. doi:10.1073/pnas.1314475110
- 1003 91. Stephens M, Scheet P. Accounting for decay of linkage disequilibrium in haplotype
 1004 inference and missing-data imputation. Am J Hum Genet. 2005;76: 449–462.
 1005 doi:10.1086/428594
- 100692.Stephens M, Smith NJ, Donnelly P. A new statistical method for haplotype reconstruction1007from population data. Am J Hum Genet. 2001;68: 978–989. doi:10.1086/319501
- Simeonov DR, Wang X, Wang C, Sergeev Y, Dolinska M, Bower M, et al. DNA Variations
 in Oculocutaneous Albinism: An Updated Mutation List and Current Outstanding Issues in
 Molecular Diagnostics. Hum Mutat. 2013;34: 827–835. doi:10.1002/humu.22315
- 1011 94. Gardner J, Nakatsu Y, Gondo Y, Lee S, Lyon M, King R, et al. The Mouse Pink-Eyed
 1012 Dilution Gene Association with Human Prader-Willi and Angelman Syndromes. Science.
 1013 1992;257: 1121–1124. doi:10.1126/science.257.5073.1121
- 1014 95. Ni-Komatsu L, Orlow SJ. Heterologous expression of tyrosinase recapitulates the misprocessing and mistrafficking in oculocutaneous albinism type 2: Effects of altering intracellular pH and pink-eyed dilution gene expression. Exp Eye Res. 2006;82: 519–528.
 1017 doi:10.1016/j.exer.2005.08.013
- 101896.Puri N, Gardner JM, Brilliant MH. Aberrant pH of melanosomes in pink-eyed dilution (p)1019mutant melanocytes. J Invest Dermatol. 2000;115: 607–613. doi:10.1046/j.1523-10201747.2000.00108.x
- 1021 97. Lee S, Nicholls R, Bundey S, Laxova R, Musarella M, Spritz R. Mutations of the P-Gene in
 1022 Oculocutaneous Albinism, Ocular Albinism, and Prader-Willi-Syndrome Plus Albinism. N
 1023 Engl J Med. 1994;330: 529–534. doi:10.1056/NEJM199402243300803
- Sato H, Tamba M, Ishii T, Bannai S. Cloning and expression of a plasma membrane cystine/glutamate exchange transporter composed of two distinct proteins. J Biol Chem.
 1926 1999;274: 11455–11458. doi:10.1074/jbc.274.17.11455
- Bin B-H, Bhin J, Yang SH, Shin M, Nam Y-J, Choi D-H, et al. Membrane-Associated
 Transporter Protein (MATP) Regulates Melanosomal pH and Influences Tyrosinase
 Activity. PLoS One. 2015;10: e0129273. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0129273
- 100. Sturm R, Osullivan B, Box N, Smith A, Smit S, Puttick E, et al. Chromosomal Structure of
 the Human Tyrp1 and Tyrp2 Loci and Comparison of the Tyrosinase-Related Protein Cone
 Family. Genomics. 1995;29: 24–34. doi:10.1006/geno.1995.1211
- 1033 101. Gershonibaruch R, Rosenmann A, Droetto S, Holmes S, Tripathi R, Spritz R. Mutations of
 the Tyrosinase Gene in Patients with Oculocutaneous Albinism from Various Ethnic Groups in Israel. Am J Hum Genet. 1994;54: 586–594.
- 102. Tripathi RK, Strunk KM, Giebel LB, Weleber RG, Spritz RA. Tyrosinase gene mutations in type I (tyrosinase-deficient) oculocutaneous albinism define two clusters of missense substitutions. Am J Med Genet. 1992;43: 865–871. doi:10.1002/ajmg.1320430523

- 1039
 103. Tsai CH, Tsai FJ, Wu JY, Lin SP, Chang JG, Yang CF, et al. Insertion/deletion mutations of type I oculocutaneous albinism in chinese patients from Taiwan. Hum Mutat. 1999;14:
 1041
 542. doi:10.1002/(SICI)1098-1004(199912)14:6<542::AID-HUMU14>3.0.CO;2-3
- 1042 104. Forshew T, Khaliq S, Tee L, Smith U, Johnson CA, Mehdi SQ, et al. Identification of novel
 1043 TYR and TYRP1 mutations in oculocutaneous albinism. Clin Genet. 2005;68: 182–184.
 1044 doi:10.1111/j.1399-0004.2005.00460.x
- 1045 105. Lasseaux E, Plaisant C, Michaud V, Pennamen P, Trimouille A, Gaston L, et al. Molecular
 1046 characterization of a series of 990 index patients with albinism. Pigment Cell Melanoma
 1047 Res. 2018;31: 466–474. doi:10.1111/pcmr.12688
- 1048106.Rooryck C, Morice-Picard F, Elcioglu NH, Lacombe D, Taieb A, Arveiler B. Molecular1049diagnosis of oculocutaneous albinism: new mutations in the OCA1-4 genes and practical1050aspects. Pigment Cell Melanoma Res. 2008;21: 583–587. doi:10.1111/j.1755-1051148X.2008.00496.x
- 1052 107. Rooryck C, Morice F, Lacombe D, Taieb A, Arveiler B. Genetic basis of oculocutaneous albinism. Expert Review of Dermatology. 2009;4: 611–622. doi:10.1586/edm.09.53
- 1054 108. Allen WL, Baddeley R, Scott-Samuel NE, Cuthill IC. The evolution and function of pattern 1055 diversity in snakes. Behav Ecol. 2013;24: 1237–1250. doi:10.1093/beheco/art058
- 1056 109. Untergasser A, Cutcutache I, Koressaar T, Ye J, Faircloth BC, Remm M, et al. Primer3-1057 new capabilities and interfaces. Nucleic Acids Res. 2012;40: e115. doi:10.1093/nar/gks596
- 1058 110. Sievers F, Wilm A, Dineen D, Gibson TJ, Karplus K, Li W, et al. Fast, scalable generation
 of high-quality protein multiple sequence alignments using Clustal Omega. Mol Syst Biol.
 2011;7: 539. doi:10.1038/msb.2011.75

1061

1062 Supporting information

S1 Fig. Raw gel images. (A) Raw image of the gel displayed in Fig 2. (B) Raw image of the gel displayed in Fig 3. (C) Raw image of the gel displayed in Fig 4. Brightness and contrast settings have not been adjusted in these images. x, experiment unrelated to the current study.

- **S1 Table. Variants used in the Albino association study and primers to genotype these variants.**
- **S2 Table. Conservation of gene structure of melanogenesis genes.**
- **S3 Table. Primers to amplify and sequence coding regions of melanogenesis genes.**
- **S4 Table. Primers to amplify non-coding regions of TYR.**
- **S5 Table. Primers to investigate the putative deletion in** *TYRP1***.**
- 1072 S6 Table. Genotypes.