Chromosome-level genome assembly and annotation of two lineages of the ant *Cataglyphis hispanica*: steppingstones towards genomic studies of hybridogenesis and thermal adaptation in desert ants

Hugo DARRAS [1,2,a,*], Natalia de Souza ARAUJO[1,3,*], Lyam BAUDRY[4,6], Nadège GUIGLIELMONI[1,7], Pedro LORITE[5], Martial MARBOUTY[6], Fernando RODRIGUEZ[8], Irina ARKHIPOVA [8], Romain KOSZUL[6], Jean-François FLOT[1,3], Serge ARON[1]

[1] Unit of Evolutionary Biology & Ecology, Université libre de Bruxelles (ULB), Brussels, Belgium
[2] Department of Ecology and Evolution, University of Lausanne, Lausanne, Switzerland
[3] Interuniversity Institute of Bioinformatics in Brussels – (IB)² Brussels, Belgium
[4] Centre for Integrative Genomics, University of Lausanne, Lausanne, Switzerland
[5] Department of Biologia Experimental, Universidad de Jaén, Jaén, Spain
[6] Unité Régulation Spatiale des Génomes, CNRS, Institut Pasteur, Paris, France
[7] Universität zu Köln, Köln, Germany
[8] Marine Biological Laboratory, Woods Hole, Massachusetts, USA

[a] corresponding author: Darras, H. hgdarras@gmail.com
[*] Authors contributed equally to this study

ABSTRACT

Cataglyphis are thermophilic ants that forage during the day when temperatures are highest and

sometimes close to their critical thermal limit. Several *Cataglyphis* species have evolved unusual

reproductive systems such as facultative queen parthenogenesis or social hybridogenesis, which

have not yet been investigated in detail at the molecular level. We generated high-quality genome

assemblies for two hybridogenetic lineages of the Iberian ant *Cataglyphis hispanica* using long-read

Nanopore sequencing and exploited chromosome conformation capture (3C) sequencing to

assemble contigs into 26 and 27 chromosomes, respectively. Further karyotype analyses confirm

this difference in chromosome numbers between lineages; however, they also suggest it may not

be fixed among lineages. We obtained transcriptomic data to assist gene annotation and built

custom repeat libraries for each of the two assemblies. Comparative analyses with 19 other

published ant genomes were also conducted. These new genomic resources pave the way for

exploring the genetic mechanisms underlying the remarkable thermal adaptation and the molecular

mechanisms associated with transitions between different genetic systems characteristics of the

ant genus *Cataglyphis*.

KEYWORDS

Social insects; *Cataglyphis*; Genome assembly; Genome annotation; karyotype; social hybridogenesis

BACKGROUND

Ants of the genus *Cataglyphis* inhabit arid regions throughout the Old World, including inhospitable deserts such as the Sahara (Boulay *et al.* 2017; Lenoir *et al.* 1990). Their foraging activities are strictly diurnal, with most species being active during the hottest hours of the day (Cerda *et al.* 1998; Wehner *et al.* 1992). Some *Cataglyphis* species even forage at temperatures close to their critical thermal limits (Cerda *et al.* 1998). For instance, workers of the silver ant *Cataglyphis bombycina* have been observed to forage when ground temperatures exceed 60°C (Wehner *et al.* 1992), which supposedly provides a competitive advantage against lizard predators who avoid such harsh conditions. The high thermal tolerance seen in *Cataglyphis* species relies on a range of behavioral, morphological, physiological and molecular adaptations, such as exploitation of thermal refuges, elongated legs, high speed of movement and intense recruitment of heat-shock chaperone proteins (Aron and Wehner 2021; Gehring and Wehner 1995; Perez and Aron 2020; Perez *et al.* 2021; Pfeffer *et al.* 2019; Sommer and Wehner 2012; Willot *et al.* 2017).

In addition to their impressive heat tolerance, *Cataglyphis* ants are prominent social insect models because of their amazing diversity of reproductive traits: the number of queens per colony, the mating frequencies, the dispersal strategies and the modes of production of different castes all vary greatly among species (Aron *et al.* 2016a, 2016b; Mardulyn and Leniaud 2016; Peeters and Aron 2017). Unusual reproductive systems relying on conditional use of sex to produce different female castes have evolved repeatedly in different *Cataglyphis* groups. Under these systems, non-reproductive workers are sexually generated, while reproductive queens are asexually produced by thelytokous parthenogenesis – a strategy that allows queens to increase the transmission rate of their genes to their reproductive female offspring while maintaining genetic diversity in the worker force (Kuhn *et al.* 2020; Pearcy *et al.* 2004). Males arise from arrhenotokous parthenogenesis, as is usually the case in Hymenoptera. In several species, the conditional use of sex evolved into a unique reproductive system, named clonal social hybridogenesis, whereby male and female sexuals are produced by parthenogenesis while workers are produced exclusively from interbreeding between two sympatric, yet non-recombining genetic lineages (Darras *et al.* 2014; Eyer *et al.* 2013; Kuhn *et al.* 2020; Leniaud *et al.* 2012).

The unique characteristics of *Cataglyphis* make this ant genus an interesting model to investigate the genetic mechanisms underlying thermal adaptation and the evolution of alternative reproductive strategies. To date, only one incomplete assembly of the genome of *Cataglyphis niger*, a species characterized by classical haplodiploid reproduction, is available for genomic analyses (Yahav and Privman, 2019). To fill this gap, we combined Oxford Nanopore long reads, Illumina short reads and chromosome conformation capture (3C) sequencing (Flot *et al.* 2015; Lieberman-Aiden *et al.* 2009; Marie-Nelly *et al.* 2014) to generate high-quality chromosome-scale genome assemblies of two lineages of the Iberian ant *Cataglyphis hispanica* (Figure 1). We also annotated and compared the repeats and gene sets of this species with those of other ant genera.

Figure 1. The ant *Cataglyphis hispanica.* (A) A queen of *C. hispanica* (red arrow) surrounded by workers. (B) Sampled sites in southwest Spain. The two interdependent lineages of the species, Chis1 and Chis2, were collected in Caceres (red), Merida (yellow) and Bonares (blue). For each lineage, a male from Bonares was used for whole genome short read sequencing (WGS Illumina) and queens from Caceres were used for both long read sequencing (WGS Nanopore) and chromosome conformation capture sequencing (3C-seq). Karyotypes of two Chis2 males and three hybrid (F1) workers were obtained from Merida and Bonares. To assist gene annotation, transcriptomes (RNA-seq) were generated from Chis1 and Chis2 individuals from Caceres. The complete range of the species *C. hispanica* is shown in grey.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Genome assemblies

Cataglyphis hispanica inhabits the most arid habitats of the Iberian Peninsula. Two sympatric hybridogenetic lineages (Chis1 and Chis2) co-occur as a complementary pair across the distribution range of the species (Leniaud *et al.* 2012; Darras *et al.* 2014). Queens of each lineage mate with males from the other lineage and produce non-reproductive workers by sexual reproduction. By contrast, male and female reproductive individuals are produced clonally through arrhenotokous and thelytokous parthenogenesis, respectively. As a result, all workers in the colonies are inter-lineage hybrids, but the two reproductive lineages are maintained divergent.

The genomes of the two hybridogenetic lineages were assembled independently (see Figure S1 for a schematic drawing of the assembly pipeline). For each of the Chis1 and Chis2 lineages, we generated respectively 5.7 and 5.1 Gbp of Nanopore reads from a pool of sister clonal queens (for *de novo* long-read assemblies); 32.2 and 34.2 Gbp of PE 2 x 100 bp Illumina reads with insert sizes ranging from 170 bp to 800 bp from a single male (for short read error correction/polishing); and 8.7 and 7.0 Gbp of 3C-seq PE 2 x 66 bp (after demultiplexing) Illumina reads from a single queen (for scaffolding). The long-read assembler Flye (Kolmogorov *et al.* 2019) generated assemblies consisting of several hundreds of contigs (439 and 929, respectively). The contigs were scaffolded using the 3C data (Marie-Nelly *et al.* 2014; Baudry *et al.* 2020): 99.7% of the Chis1 assembly was scaffolded into 26 chromosome-scale (> 2.4 Mb in length) scaffolds (Figure 2A), while 98.8 % of the Chis2 assembly was scaffolded into 27 chromosome-scale scaffolds (Figure 2B). These chromosome-scale scaffolds were numbered by decreasing size. The remaining 0.3 – 1.2% unscaffolded sequences were all relatively small (<40 kb for Chis1, <120 kb for Chis2). The overall sizes of the two scaffolded assemblies were 206 Mb and 209 Mb, respectively. Assembly completeness, as estimated by BUSCO scores (Manni *et al.* 2021), was very high: among the 5,991 highly conserved single-copy genes of the Hymenoptera odb10 database, 96.8% (Chis1) and 96.1% (Chis2) were complete in each assembly. In addition, only 0.5-0.4% of the BUSCO genes appeared duplicated for both assemblies, suggesting that our assemblies did not contain much uncollapsed haplotypes, if any. In line with these results, KAT analyses based on the Illumina reads

of each lineage showed a single peak of k-mer multiplicity, which were almost all represented

exactly once in the assemblies as expected for high-quality genomes (Figure S2); k-mer

completeness was estimated as 98.86% for Chis1 and 98.45%for Chis2 (Mapleson *et al.* 2016). For

each assembly, a region with no large-scale synteny pattern was assembled at the extremity of one

scaffold (the first 5.4 Mb of scaffold #9 of Chis1 and the first 3.1 Mb of scaffold #7 of Chis2). Each

of these regions consisted of a collection of small contigs (mostly in the 2-10 Kb range) with 2 to 5

times higher average coverage compared to other genomic regions. These sequences exhibited

microsyntenies with the extremities of other large scaffolds (Figure 2 and S3) suggesting that they

correspond to repeat sequences that were improperly assembled into fragmented contigs.

Chis1 chromosome-scale scaffolds

Chis2 chromosome-scale scaffolds

Figure 2. Assembly of the *Cataglyphis hispanica* Chis1 (A) and Chis2 (B) genomes into

chromosomes. Hi-C interaction map revealing the presence of 26 and 27 linkage groups. The color

scale represents the interaction frequencies. The positions of the rearranged chromosome are

indicated, and the arrows show the assembly artefact found in each genome (see main text). The

longest chromosome of Chis1 is split in two chromosomes in Chis2 *(*scaffolds 5 and 9, shown with

red and blue colors).

Comparison of the Chis1 and Chis2 assemblies revealed that 25 of the chromosome-scale

scaffolds had a one-to-one homolog in each of the two lineages. In addition, and by contrast, the

largest scaffold of Chis1 (#1) was split into two chromosome-scale scaffolds (# 5 and #9) in the

Chis2 assembly (Figure S3). The 3C contact maps of both lineages showed that these scaffolds

(Chis1 #1 and Chis2 #5, #9) correspond to well-individualized 3D features, thereby ruling out a

scaffolding error (Figure 2). These observations support that a centric fusion or fission

(Robertsonian translocation) took place in one of the two lineages studied. Robertsonian

translocations are the main mechanism of karyotype evolution in many animal groups, including

ants (Lorite and Palomeque, 2010) and can promote speciation through the suppression of genetic

recombination in the vicinity of rearranged centromeric regions or the reduction of fertility in

karyotypic hybrids (Davisson and Akeson, 1993; Faria and Navarro, 2010). Intrachromosomal

rearrangements between the lineages, consisting in large translocations and inversions, were also

observed for 6 of the 25 large orthologous scaffolds (Figure S3), but these could not be confirmed

independently with the current data.

Karyotyping

The numbers of chromosomes inferred for the Chis1 and Chis2 assemblies (n=26 and 27,

respectively) are within the range observed in karyotypes of *Cataglyphis bicolor* (n=26), *Cataglyphis*

iberica (n=26) and *Cataglyphis setipes* (n=26), as well as other Formicine species of the genera

Formica (n=26-27), *Iberoformica* (n=26) and *Polyergus* (n=27) (Hauschteck-Jungen and Jungen,

1983; Imai *et al.* 1984; Lorite and Palomeque 2010). To determine whether the two lineages of *C.*

hispanica are fixed for different chromosomal arrangements, we inspected metaphase chromosome

slides from male and worker pupae from different populations (Figure 1B). In ants, as in other social

Hymenoptera, males are haploid (*n*) whereas workers are diploid females (2*n*). Two males of the

Chis2 lineage from Merida and Bonares were analyzed (Figure 3A and S4A-D). Both male

karyotypes carried 27 chromosomes as was inferred with 3C data for the Chis2 lineage from the

Caceres population. The precise morphology of the chromosomes could not be determined due to

Figure 3. Karyotype analyses of *Cataglyphis hispanica*. (A,C and E) Metaphase chromosome slides of one haploid Chis2 male from Merida (A) and two F1 hybrid workers from Bonares (C) and Merida (E). (B,D and F) Corresponding karyotypes showing that the haploid chromosome number varies across populations from an haploid number of 26 (F) to 27 (B, D and F). The bar in all the images is 2 μm.

their small sizes (Figure 3). No male or queen pupa of the Chis1 lineage could be obtained for karyotyping. Instead, we indirectly inferred the karyotype variation in the Chis1 lineage using worker samples. Workers of *C. hispanica* are first generation hybrids and would, therefore, be expected to

carry odd chromosome numbers (i.e. 2n=26+27) if the two lineages were fixed for different

karyotypes. Workers from Bonares (N=2 from different colonies) and Merida (N=1) were analyzed.

The two workers from Bonares carried odd number of chromosomes (2n=54, Figure 3C and S4E)

suggesting that the parental lineages carry the same number of chromosomes in this population

(i.e. n=27). By contrast, the worker from Merida carried 53 chromosomes consistent with

expectations based on genome assemblies (Figure 3E and S5). If our assumptions are correct,

these results indicate that the number of chromosomes in the Chis1 lineage may vary in different

populations from n=26 (in the population used for 3C sequencing) to n=27 (in the population used

for karyotyping). The chromosomal polymorphism observed between our Chis1 and Chis2 genome

assemblies is therefore unlikely to be linked to the long-term maintenance of the two lineages.

Without clear karyotypes of pure Chis 1 individuals at hand, we were however unable to verify this

hypothesis. An alternative scenario would be that during the generation of the hybrid individuals a

fission sometimes occurs in the large chromosome #1 of Chis 1 producing 27 Chis1 chromosomes

in workers instead of 26.

Gene annotation

We annotated the genome of the Chis2 lineage (see Figure S1 for a schematic drawing describing

the genome annotation pipeline). *Ab initio* gene prediction using AUGUSTUS and homology-based

predictions using GenomeThreader (Gremme *et al.* 2005) identified 16,993 and 8,234 gene models,

respectively. A total of 40,969 models (including isoforms) were also predicted by the

PASA/Transdecoder (Haas *et al.* 2003) pipeline using direct evidence from 13 Gbp of Illumina RNA-

seq data. The three annotation sets were validated and combined into a single annotation of 16,146

non-overlapping models using EvidenceModeler (Haas *et al.* 2008). Among these, 11,101 gene

models showed significant similarity to proteins predicted in other ant species (blastp against 18 ant

proteomes from the RefSeq collection) and 10,543 had functional information inferred through

sequence orthology with the eggnog v5.0 database which covers more than five thousands

organisms (Huerta-Cepas *et al.* 2017, 2019). We filtered out all gene models non validated by at

least one of these databases to obtain a final dataset of 11,290 high quality gene models, 11,033

(98%) of which are placed within the 27 chromosome-scale scaffolds. This gene set is comparable

in size to those annotated by the NCBI Eukaryotic Genome Annotation Pipeline for other ant

genomes (range: 10,491-15,668; N= 18 different RefSeq ant genera; Table S1). We compared the

obtained gene set of *C. hispanica* (Chis2) with 19 published ant annotations. Out of the 258,587

protein-coding genes analyzed using OrthoFinder (Emms and Kelly 2019), 96.82% (250,353) were

placed in 13,698 orthogroups. Of these, 1,407 were species-specific and 6,199 were found in all

species including 3,365 single-copy genes. The orthogroup profile of *C. hispanica* was overall

comparable to that of other ants (Figure 4). However, our annotation had one of the smallest number

of genes placed in orthogroups (10,918), and one of the largest proportions of unassigned genes

(3.3%).

Figure 4. Summary values from the ortholog analyses. The color intensity indicates the z-score of

variation (deviation from the mean) among all species, from the smallest value (blue) to the highest

value (orange). Species are ordered according to their phylogenetic positions inferred from a

concatenated alignment of single-copy orthologs. The published *Lasius niger* assembly was

removed from this comparison due to its low quality.

Repeat annotation

We built custom repeat libraries for each of the two assemblies of *C. hispanica* and for the 19 published ant genomes (see genome accessions in Table S1). The Chis1 and Chis2 assemblies contained 1,708 and 1,673 different repetitive elements, which accounted for 15.43% (31,851,170 bp) and 15.1% (31,512,815 bp) of their assembly sizes, respectively (Figure 5). A large proportion of these corresponded to unclassified interspersed repeats (6.7% / 6.78% of the genomes; Figure S6). The two genomes also contained 2.0% / 1.8% of Class I (retroelements), and 2.18% / 1.85% of Class II elements (DNA transposons). In total, 56 different families of repetitive elements were annotated in *C. hispanica*. LTR/Gypsy were the most frequent transposable elements of Class I in the genomes (0.53% / 0.82%), while large Polintons / Mavericks were the most abundant Class II transposable elements (0.98% / 0.67%).

Figure 5. Summary of the repetitive elements' categories annotated in 20 different ant species using our custom pipeline. The ratios of the major categories of repetitive elements identified in each species is shown on the left. The total proportion of repetitive elements found in each genome is shown on the right. Species are ordered accordingly to their phylogenetic positions inferred from a concatenated alignment of single-copy orthologs.

Across published ant assemblies, the total proportion of transposable elements appeared quite variable irrespective of their phylogenetic relationships (range: 17.27 – 48.47%; N= 19 ant species; Figure 5; Table S2). The *C. hispanica* assemblies had smaller proportions of repetitive elements (15.1% - 15.43%) than any of these assemblies, including that of *Formica exsecta* (18.53 %), the closest species available for comparison. The relatively low proportion of transposable elements observed in the genomes of *C. hispanica* may be due to the fact that it was assembled primarily from noisy nanopore long-reads, possibly leading to a collapse of repeated regions. Alternatively, *C. hispanica* may resist the invasion and proliferation of transposable elements more efficiently than other species. Whether its unusual reproductive system, combining both diploid and haploid parthenogenesis for queen and male production, could help keep transposable elements at bay deserves further exploration.

Lineage comparison

We previously showed that *Cataglyphis hispanica* consists of two divergent lineages that are readily identifiable using microsatellite markers (Darras *et al.* 2014). Individuals from Chis1 and Chis2 lineages can however not be distinguished based on external traits: they share virtually the same morphologies for the queen and male castes, co-occur in the same localities and do not differ in any obvious colony characteristics. Furthermore, although queens mate with a partner originating from the alternative lineage to successfully produce workers, we have no evidence that lineages can recognize each other and avoid assortative mating. This apparent lack of differences among lineages suggests low overall genomic divergence. The interdependent nature of the lineages could stem from a small number of recessive mutations biasing development toward the queen caste in each lineage. Such "royal cheats" (Hughes and Boomsma 2008) seem common in eusocial Hymenoptera and have been hypothesized to be at the origin of caste determination and possibly social hybridogenesis (Anderson *et al.* 2008; Weyna *et al.* 2021; Withrow and Tarpy 2018). In line with this prediction of low inter-lineage genomic divergence, assemblies of the two lineages appear highly similar and syntenic (Figure S3). Large indel (>10kb) variation among lineages account for 6.6 % (13.6 Mb, Chis1) and 6.4 % (13.2 Mb, Chis2) of the chromosome-scale scaffolds. These

"lineage-specific" indels are scattered across the assemblies (Figure S7) and are gene-deprived;

only 35 of the 11,033 (0.3%) genes models from the Chis2 chromosome-scale scaffolds turned

missing from Chis1 when performing an annotation lift-over using Liftoff (Table S3). Small inter-

lineage polymorphism (i.e. SNPs and indels smaller than 100 bp) also appear uniformly distributed

across chromosomes, with no large portion of chromosomes showing elevated divergence among

assemblies (Figure S7). This later result contradicts previous hypotheses that hybridogenetic

lineage pairs might be determined by ancient non-recombining regions, as found in other dimorphic

system such as sex chromosomes or social chromosomes (Darras *et al.* 2014; Linksvayer *et al.*

2013; Schwander *et al.* 2014).

We additionally estimated divergence between the two genomes sequenced analyzing

polymorphism at four-fold-degenerate sites, which are expected to be neutrally evolving since every

mutation at a four-fold site is synonymous. Our annotation of the Chis2 genome contained

2,620,448 four-fold-degenerate sites. Among these, 13,048 had a different allele in the Chis1 and

Chis2 males used to obtain haploid genome consensus. Assuming no recombination and a typical

insect mutation rate of approximately 3×10^{-9} mutations per neutral site per haploid genome per

generation (Keightley *et al.* 2014, 2015; Yang *et al.* 2015; Liu *et al.* 2017; Oppold & Pfenninger,

2017), this proportion of mutated four-fold-degenerate sites translated into an average divergence

time of about 830,000 generations between the alleles of the two males sequenced (Obbard *et al.*

2012). Hence, the two genomes sequenced may have diverged almost 1 million years ago

(assuming one generation per year) - a divergence time similar to that observed between closely

related species of fire ants (Cohen & Privman, 2019). The origin of the hybridogenetic lineages

themselves could be much younger though, considering they might have emerged from two

divergent populations or shared ancestral polymorphism (Darras *et al.* 2019).

CONCLUSIONS

We generated high-quality chromosome level genome assemblies of the two lineages of the

hybridogenetic ant *C. hispanica*, a representative species of the thermophilic ant genus *Cataglyphis.*

Using chromosome conformation capture, we identified a Robertsonian translocation between the

two queens sequenced, resulting in 26 and 27 chromosomes, respectively. However, this difference

in chromosome numbers seem not fixed between lineages, suggesting that this chromosome

rearrangement was not pivotal in the origin and maintenance of social hybridogenesis in *C.*

hispanica. The two lineage assemblies were overall very similar with no large-scale region showing

high divergence. Future work using population genomic approaches and genomic comparisons with

other *Cataglyphis* species exhibiting social hybridogenesis will be necessary to identifying

polymorphic genes or regulatory regions that are involved in the differentiation of queens and

workers during development.

METHODS

Biological samples

Permits were obtained to collect colonies of *Cataglyphis hispanica* in three Spanish locations

(Bonares, Caceres and Merida; Figure 1B). Male samples from Bonares were used for Illumina

DNA sequencing. Shortly after sampling, the Bonares population was wiped out by human activities.

Consequently, samples from another locality (Caceres) were used for subsequent Nanopore

sequencing, 3C-seq and RNA-seq. Male and worker pupae from two distant localities (Bonares and

Merida) were used for karyotyping. Twelve diagnostic microsatellite loci were genotyped prior to

sequencing and karyotyping to assess the lineage membership of each queen and male and to

confirm that workers were all first generation hybrids (Darras *et al.* 2014).

DNA and RNA-Sequencing

Genomic resources were generated for both the Chis1 and the Chis2 lineages. High-molecular-

weight DNA was extracted from pure lineage queen and male individuals using QIAGEN Genomic-

tips. For each lineage, two queen clones originating from the same nest were used for Nanopore

sequencing. Queens of *C. hispanica* are produced through automictic parthenogenesis with central

fusion which results into diploid individuals that are highly homozygous (Darras *et al.* 2014; Pearcy

et al. 2011) and thus suitable for genome assembly. Nanopore libraries were prepared using rapid

sequencing kits (SQK-RAD001 and SQK-RAD004). The resulting long read libraries were

sequenced on MIN106 flow cells and basecalled using Albacore v2.1.10. For each lineage, three

Illumina libraries were generated from whole-genome amplified DNA extracted from a single male

with mean insert sizes of 170 bp, 500 bp and 800 bp, and sequenced with a HiSeq2000 (paired-

end 2 x 100 bp mode).

3C-seq libraries were prepared according to the protocol described in (Marie-Nelly *et al.* 2014).

Briefly, queens from both lineages had their gut removed and were immediately suspended in 30

mL of formaldehyde solution (Sigma Aldrich; 3% final concentration in 1X tris-EDTA buffer). After

one hour of incubation, quenching of the remaining formaldehyde was done by adding 10 mL of

glycine (0.25 M final concentration) to the mix for during 20 min. The cross-linked tissues were

pelleted and stored at −80°C until further use. The 3C-seq libraries were prepared using the *Dpn*II

enzyme and sequenced using an Illumina NextSeq 500 apparatus (paired-end 2×75 bp; first ten

bases corresponding to custom-made tags). 3C-seq libraries are similar to Hi-C libraries except that

they contain a higher percentage of paired-end reads due to the lack of an enrichment step (Flot *et*

al. 2015).

To help annotate the genomes, three normalized RNA-seq cDNA Illumina libraries were obtained:

one from an adult Chis1 queen, one from a Chis2 queen and one from a brood pool comprising

multiple developmental stages and adult workers originated from colonies of the two lineages

(HiSeq2000, paired-end 2 x 100 bp mode).

Genomes assembly

The genome of each hybridogenetic lineage was assembled independently following the pipeline

depicted in Figure S1. Nanopore data were assembled using Flye v2.7 with four iterations of

polishing based on long reads (Kolmogorov *et al.* 2019). Raw Illumina reads were trimmed for

quality   and   adapters   were   removed   using   Trimmomatic   v0.32   with   options

ILLUMINACLIP:TruSeq3-PE-2.fa:2:30:10   LEADING:3   TRAILING:3   SLIDINGWINDOW:4:15

MINLEN:36 (Bolger *et al.* 2014). The trimmed reads were then aligned to the long-read assemblies

using BWA-MEM v0.7.15 (Li and Durbin 2009). SNPs and indels with at least three supporting

observations were called using freebayes v1.2 (Garrison and Marth 2012), and error-corrected

consensus sequences were obtained using BCFtools v1.4 (Li *et al.* 2009).

To obtain chromosome-scale assemblies, we scaffolded the polished contigs with the 3C reads

using instaGRAAL, a MCMC, proximity-ligation based scaffolder (Baudry *et al.* 2020; Marie-Nelly

et al. 2014). The 3C reads were trimmed using cutadapt (Martin 2011) and subsequently processed

using hicstuff (https://zenodo.org/record/4722873) with the following parameters *–aligner bowtie2 –*

iterative –enzyme DpnII. The instaGRAAL scaffolder was run on the pre-processed data for 100

cycles (parameters: level 4, with options *--coverage-std 1 –level 4 –cycles 100*) (Baudry *et al.* 2020)

and final scaffolds were obtained using the instaGRAAL *-polish* script, with all corrective procedures

at once (only one parameter: *-m polish*). Briefly, instaGRAAL explores the chromosome structures

by testing the relative positions and/or orientations of DNA segments (or bins) according to the

contacts expected given a simple three-parameter power-law model. These modifications take the

form of a fixed set of operations (swapping, flipping, inserting, merging, etc.) of bins corresponding

to 3^4 = 81 *Dpn*II restriction fragments. The likelihood of the model is then maximized by sampling

the parameters using a MCMC approach (Marie-Nelly *et al.* 2014). After 100 iterations (i.e., a likely

position for each bin is tested 100 times), the genome structure converges towards a relatively

stable structure that does not evolve anymore when more iterations are added, resulting in

chromosome-level scaffolds. The algorithm is probabilistic and ignores initially part of the intrinsic

structure of the original contigs in order to sample a larger range of genome space (Baudry *et al.*

2020). Therefore, some trustworthy information contained in the initial polished assembly can be

lost, or modified, along the way. The final correction step of instaGRAAL consists in reintegrating

this lost information into the final assembly, to correct for instance local untrustworthy tiny inversions

of individual bins within a contig. The contact maps of the scaffolded assemblies were built using

hicstuff. Gaps created during the scaffolding process were closed using Nanopore data with four

iterations of TGS-GapCloser (Xu *et al.* 2019) and new polished consensus sequences were

obtained using BCFtools (see method above). Completeness of the assemblies were assessed at

each step using BUSCO v5.2.2 with the Hymenoptera odb10 lineage (Simão *et al.* 2015;

Waterhouse *et al.* 2017). We also ran KAT v2.4.1 to compare the k-mer frequencies of Illumina

reads to final assemblies (Mapleson *et al.* 2016). To investigate differences in chromosomal

arrangement among lineages, the two genome assemblies were aligned with minimap2 v2.17

(exact preset: -x asm5) and alignments were visualized using dot plots obtained with D-GENIES

(Cabanettes & Klopp, 2018).

Karyotyping

To validate the number of chromosomes inferred from 3C contact information, chromosome

preparations were made from brains of male and worker larvae following the protocol described by

(Lorite *et al.* 1996), with some modifications. Briefly, larvae at the last instar stage were dissected

and their cerebral ganglia were transferred to microplate wells with 0.05% colchicine in distilled

water. After 30 min, samples were transferred to a fixative solution (acetic acid:ethanol, 3:1) and

incubated for 45 min. Ganglia cells were disaggregated in a drop of 50% acetic acid on a clean

slide, new fixative solution was added and the slides were dried at 60ºC. Chromosome preparations

were stained with 10% Giemsa in phosphate buffer (pH 7). Microscopy images were captured with

a CCD camera (Olympus DP70) coupled to a microscope (Olympus BX51) and were processed

using Adobe Photoshop.

Gene annotation

We used the Chis2 chromosome-level assembly for gene annotation. A repeat library was

constructed using the REPET package v2.5 (Flutre *et al.* 2011; Quesneville *et al.* 2005). This repeat

library was cleaned up manually to remove bacterial genes, mitochondrial genes and genes with

hits to the gene set of the ant *Cardiocondyla obscurior* (v1.4) which had been purged of

transposable elements (Schrader *et al.* 2014). The fraction of the genome classified by

RepeatClassifier as "Unknown" was reduced from 2.2% to 0.9% as a result of this procedure.

Repeats were soft-masked using RepeatMasker v4.0.7 (Smit and Hubley,

http://www.repeatmasker.org) prior to *de novo* gene prediction.

Gene models were inferred from RNA-seq, homology data and *ab initio* predictions. The three

RNA-seq libraries were aligned to the *Chis2* genome using STAR v2.6.0 (Dobin *et al.* 2013) with

the multi-sample 2-pass mapping strategy. Transcripts were then assembled using Trinity v2.10.0

(Grabherr *et al.* 2011; Haas *et al.* 2013)(options --genome_guided_max_intron 100000 --

jaccard_clip) and combined into gene models using PASA (Haas *et al.* 2003). Ant proteomes

annotated using the NCBI Eukaryotic Genome Annotation pipeline (RefSeq, taxid:36668) were

aligned to the genome using GenomeThreader v1.5.10 (Gremme *et al.* 2005) in order to predict

gene structures. AUGUSTUS *ab initio* predictions were generated using BRAKER v2.1.02 (Hoff *et*

al. 2016, 2019) based on hints from RNA-seq data and GenomeThreader protein alignments (--

etpmode). BRAKER was first run with preliminary AUGUSTUS parameters trained by running

BUSCO v3.0.2 on the genome assembly (--long option; Hymenoptera odb9 database). To refine

the training of AUGUSTUS, the most accurate gene models inferred by BRAKER were then

identified using GeneValidator (Drăgan *et al.* 2016) with RefSeq ant proteomes as references and

an arbitrary quality threshold of Q89. To avoid biases, predicted proteins with more than 70%

sequence identity to another protein in the set were removed from the selected gene models using

the aa2nonred.pl script provided with BRAKER. The resulting gene models were used to train

AUGUSTUS again, and BRAKER was run with the new parameter set. *Ab initio*, RNA-seq-based

and homology-based gene predictions were combined into a single gene set using

EvidenceModeler v1.1.1 (Haas *et al.* 2008) with the following weight settings: PASA alignments:

10; GenomeThreader alignments: 3, Augustus predictions: 1, PASA/Transdecoder predictions: 1,

GenomeThreader predictions: 1. Functional information was obtained from eggNOG-mapper v2

(Huerta-Cepas *et al.* 2017, 2019) with the options "taxonomic scope adjusted per query" and

"annotations transferred from any ortholog". Protein sequences with similarity to RefSeq ant

proteins (as of July 2019) were identified using blastp and an E-value threshold of 10^{-5}. Annotations

with no known functional information and no hits to any RefSeq ant proteins were filtered out.

Comparative analyses

To identify orthologous and taxonomically restricted genes, we compared the proteomes of *C.*

hispanica, of 18 ants annotated by the NCBI Eukaryotic Genome Annotation Pipeline (Table S1)

and of *Lasius niger* (Konorov *et al.* 2017) using OrthoFinder v2.3.12 (Emms and Kelly, 2019) with

its standard DEndroBLAST workflow. We used the feature annotation tables from RefSeq

annotations to select the longest isoform of each gene annotated by NCBI prior to analysis. The

published genome of *L. Niger* is highly incomplete (no more than 65% of the 4,415 highly conserved

single-copy genes of BUSCO's Hymenoptera odb9 database are found in this assembly).

Consequently, it was only used to guide phylogenetic analyses due to its relative proximity with

Cataglyphis. A preliminary catalog of single-copy orthologs was obtained from a first run of

OrthoFinder. Single-copy sequences were aligned with Mafft v7.310 (Katoh and Standley, 2013)

and the alignments were trimmed with trimAL v1.4.1(options "-gt 0.8 -st 0.001") (Capella-Gutiérrez

et al. 2009). The concatenated alignments were then passed to IQ-TREE v1.7.17 (option "-m

LG+R4") (Nguyen et al. 2015) to infer a species tree. The tree was converted to an ultrametric

topology with the r8s program with options "mrca root Obir Hsal; fixage taxon=root age=150; divtime

method=LF algorithm=TN" (Sanderson 2003). The resulting species tree was used for a second,

more precise run of OrthoFinder.

Repeat annotation

To compare the frequency of repetitive elements found in the genome of *C. hispanica* to the

frequencies found in the genomes of other ant species available (Table S2), we constructed

optimized repeat libraries for each species using a custom pipeline

(https://github.com/nat2bee/repetitive_elements_pipeline). Shortly, repeat libraries were built with

RepeatModeler v1.0.11 (http://www.repeatmasker.org/RepeatModeler/), TransposonPSI

(http://transposonpsi.sourceforge.net/) and LTRharvest from GenomeTools v1.6.1 (Ellinghaus *et al.*

2008). For each species, the different libraries were merged into a non-redundant library (<80%

identity) using USEARCH v11.0.667 (Edgar 2010). Library annotations were obtained with

RepeatClassifier. Each custom library was concatenated with the Dfam v3.1 Hymenoptera library

of RepeatMasker v4.1.0 and used to annotate repeats in the genome of the corresponding species

using RepeatMasker. Summary statistics of the annotated repeats were obtained with

RepeatMasker_stats.py (https://github.com/nat2bee/repetitive_elements_pipeline).

Lineage comparison

The two assemblies were aligned with minimap v2.19 (-cx asm5 –cs) and variants were called with paftools (paftools.js call -L5000 -l1000). The distribution of large indels (>10 kb) and the density of small polymorphisms (SNPs and indels no larger than 100 bp) across the genomes were calculated using custom scripts. Annotation lift-over from the Chis2 assembly on to the Chis1 assembly was performed with Liftoff v1.6.3 (Shumate and Salzberg 2020). To verify if missing annotations did not result from misassemblies, we also lift these on a consensus Chis1 assembly derived from alignment of the Chis1 haploid short reads on the Chis2 assemblies using BCFtools as described above (see Genomes assembly) with regions not covered by reads masked to avoid reference bias (--mask --mask-with N).

To estimate the divergences of the two lineages of *C. hispanica*, we investigated the polymorphism at 4-fold-degenerate sites, which we assumed to be neutrally evolving. The Illumina read of the Chis1 lineage were mapped onto the Chis2 reference genome and single-nucleotide variants were called using MapCaller v0.9.9.41 (Lin and Hsu 2019). The resulting vcf file was filtered to keep only single-nucleotide variants with two alleles and a 'PASS' quality filter. To determine the proportion of 4-fold sites that were polymorphic among our male samples of the two lineages, the positions of 4-fold sites in coding sequences of our annotation were identified using a custom script (T. Sackton, github.com/tsackton/linked-selection.git).

DECLARATIONS

Data Availability

All the raw sequencing data and genome assemblies generated during this study have been deposited at NCBI (Accession numbers: SRR17481978 - SRR17481992). The genomes of *C. hispanica* were deposited in NCBI (Accession numbers: JAJUXC000000000 and JAJUXE000000000). Supplementary figures, tables, gene annotations, TE repeat libraries and reports can be accessed at figshare (https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.17964695.v7).

Funding

NSA and SA are supported by the Belgian Fonds National pour la Recherche Scientifique (FRS-

FNRS). NG was supported by the Horizon 2020 research and innovation program of the European

Union under the Marie Skłodowska-Curie grant agreement No. 764840 (ITN IGNITE, www.itn-ig-

nite.eu) to JFF. This project was funded by the FRS-FNRS Grants # J.0151.16 and T.0140.18 (to

SA). HD received financial support from the Jean-Marie Delwart Foundation. Computational re-

sources were provided by the Consortium des Équipements de Calcul Intensif (CÉCI), funded by

the Belgian Fund for Scientific Research-FNRS (F.R.S.-FNRS; grant No. 2.5020.11).

Authors' Contributions

HD collected the ants, prepared DNA/RNA, assembled and annotated the genome. NSA performed

TE analyses and genomic comparisons. Both HD and NSA prepared first manuscript draft. PL

performed karyotyping. LB optimized 3C scaffolding parameters. NG performed 3C scaffolding. MM

prepared the 3C libraries. FR constructed the TE library. IA supervised the construction of the TE

library. RK supervised 3C library generation and scaffolding. JFF supervised genome assembly.

SA collected the ants, designed and supervised the study. All authors read and approved the final

manuscript.

Acknowledgments

We thank A. Cohanim, E. Privman and R. Faure for their advices on early genome assemblies, F.

Rodriguez and L. Grumiau for their assistance with genotyping and Q. M. Pan for her comments on

the manuscript.

Conflict of interest disclosure

The authors of this article declare that they have no financial conflict of interest with the content of

this article. J.F. Flot is one of the PCI Genomics recommenders.

REFERENCES

Anderson, Kirk E., Timothy A. Linksvayer, and Chris R. Smith. 2008. "The Causes and

Consequences of Genetic Caste Determination in Ants (Hymenoptera: Formicidae)."

Myrmecological News 11: 119–32

Aron, Serge, Pascale Lybaert, Claire Baudoux, Morgane Vandervelden, and Denis Fournier. 2016a.

"Sperm Production Characteristics Vary with Level of Sperm Competition in *Cataglyphis*

Desert Ants." *Functional Ecology* 30 (4): 614–24.

Aron, Serge, Patrick Mardulyn, and Laurianne Leniaud. 2016b. "Evolution of Reproductive Traits in

Cataglyphis Desert Ants: Mating Frequency, Queen Number, and Thelytoky." *Behavioral*

Ecology and Sociobiology 70 (8): 1367–79.

Aron, Serge, and Rüdiger Wehner. 2021. "Cataglyphis." In *Encyclopedia of Social Insects*, 217–23.

Cham: Springer International Publishing.

Baudry, Lyam, Nadège Guiglielmoni, Hervé Marie-Nelly, Alexandre Cormier, Martial Marbouty,

Komlan Avia, Yann Loe Mie, *et al.* 2020. "InstaGRAAL: Chromosome-Level Quality

Scaffolding of Genomes Using a Proximity Ligation-Based Scaffolder." *Genome Biology* 21

(1): 148.

Bolger, Anthony M., Marc Lohse, and Bjoern Usadel. 2014. "Trimmomatic: A Flexible Trimmer for

Illumina Sequence Data." *Bioinformatics* 30 (15): 2114–20.

Boulay, Raphaël, Serge Aron, Xim Cerdá, Claudie Doums, Paul Graham, Abraham Hefetz, and

Thibaud Monnin. 2017. "Social Life in Arid Environments: The Case Study of *Cataglyphis*

Ants." *Annual Review of Entomology* 62 (January): 305–21.

Cabanettes, Floréal, and Christophe Klopp. 2018. "D-GENIES: Dot Plot Large Genomes in an

Interactive, Efficient and Simple Way." *PeerJ* 6 (June): e4958.

Capella-Gutiérrez, Salvador, José M. Silla-Martínez, and Toni Gabaldón. 2009. "TrimAl: A Tool for

Automated Alignment Trimming in Large-Scale Phylogenetic Analyses." *Bioinformatics* 25

(15): 1972–73.

Cerda, X., J. Retana, and S. Cros. 1998. "Critical Thermal Limits in Mediterranean Ant Species:

525   Trade-off between Mortality Risk and Foraging Performance." *Functional Ecology* 12 (1):

526   45–55.

527   Cohen, Pnina, and Eyal Privman. 2019. "Speciation and Hybridization in Invasive Fire Ants." *BMC*

528   *Evolutionary Biology* 19 (1): 111.

529   Darras, Hugo, Alexandre Kuhn, and Serge Aron. 2019. "Evolution of Hybridogenetic Lineages in

530   *Cataglyphis* Ants." *Molecular Ecology* 28 (12): 3073–88.

531   Darras, Hugo, Laurianne Leniaud, and Serge Aron. 2014. "Large-Scale Distribution of

532   Hybridogenetic Lineages in a Spanish Desert Ant." *Proceedings. Biological Sciences / The*

533   *Royal Society* 281 (1774): 20132396.

534   Davisson, M. T., and E. C. Akeson. 1993. "Recombination Suppression by Heterozygous

535   Robertsonian Chromosomes in the Mouse." *Genetics* 133 (3): 649–67.

536   Dobin, Alexander, Carrie A. Davis, Felix Schlesinger, Jorg Drenkow, Chris Zaleski, Sonali Jha,

537   Philippe Batut, Mark Chaisson, and Thomas R. Gingeras. 2013. "STAR: Ultrafast Universal

538   RNA-Seq Aligner." *Bioinformatics* 29 (1): 15–21.

539   Drăgan, Monica-Andreea, Ismail Moghul, Anurag Priyam, Claudio Bustos, and Yannick Wurm.

540   2016. "GeneValidator: Identify Problems with Protein-Coding Gene Predictions."

541   *Bioinformatics* 32 (10): 1559–61.

542   Edgar, Robert C. 2010. "Search and Clustering Orders of Magnitude Faster than BLAST."

543   *Bioinformatics* 26 (19): 2460–61.

544   Eyer, P. A., L. Leniaud, H. Darras, and S. Aron. 2013. "Hybridogenesis through Thelytokous

545   Parthenogenesis in Two *Cataglyphis* Desert Ants." *Molecular Ecology* 22 (4): 947–55.

546   Ellinghaus, David, Stefan Kurtz, and Ute Willhoeft. 2008. "LTRharvest , an Efficient and Flexible

547   Software for de Novo Detection of LTR Retrotransposons." *BMC Bioinformatics* 9 (1): 1–14.

548   Emms, David M., and Steven Kelly. 2019. "OrthoFinder: Phylogenetic Orthology Inference for

549   Comparative Genomics." *Genome Biology* 20 (1): 238.

Faria, Rui, and Arcadi Navarro. 2010. "Chromosomal Speciation Revisited: Rearranging Theory with
Pieces of Evidence." *Trends in Ecology & Evolution* 25 (11): 660–69.

Flot, Jean-François, Hervé Marie-Nelly, and Romain Koszul. 2015. "Contact Genomics: Scaffolding
and Phasing (Meta)Genomes Using Chromosome 3D Physical Signatures." *FEBS Letters*
589 (20 Pt A): 2966–74.

Flutre, Timothée, Elodie Duprat, Catherine Feuillet, and Hadi Quesneville. 2011. "Considering
Transposable Element Diversification in de Novo Annotation Approaches." *PloS One* 6 (1):
e16526.

Garrison, Erik, and Gabor Marth. 2012. "Haplotype-Based Variant Detection from Short-Read
Sequencing." *ArXiv [q-Bio.GN]*. arXiv. http://arxiv.org/abs/1207.3907.

Gehring, W. J., and R. Wehner. 1995. "Heat Shock Protein Synthesis and Thermotolerance in
Cataglyphis, an Ant from the Sahara Desert." *Proceedings of the National Academy of
Sciences of the United States of America* 92 (7): 2994–98.

Grabherr, Manfred G., Brian J. Haas, Moran Yassour, Joshua Z. Levin, Dawn A. Thompson, Ido
Amit, Xian Adiconis, *et al.* 2011. "Full-Length Transcriptome Assembly from RNA-Seq Data
without a Reference Genome." *Nature Biotechnology*. https://doi.org/10.1038/nbt.1883.

Gremme, Gordon, Volker Brendel, Michael E. Sparks, and Stefan Kurtz. 2005. "Engineering a
Software Tool for Gene Structure Prediction in Higher Organisms." *Information and Software
Technology* 47 (15): 965–78.

Haas, Brian J., Arthur L. Delcher, Stephen M. Mount, Jennifer R. Wortman, Roger K. Smith Jr, Linda
I. Hannick, Rama Maiti, *et al.* 2003. "Improving the Arabidopsis Genome Annotation Using
Maximal Transcript Alignment Assemblies." *Nucleic Acids Research* 31 (19): 5654–66.

Haas, Brian J., Alexie Papanicolaou, Moran Yassour, Manfred Grabherr, Philip D. Blood, Joshua
Bowden, Matthew Brian Couger, *et al.* 2013. "De Novo Transcript Sequence Reconstruction
from RNA-Seq Using the Trinity Platform for Reference Generation and Analysis." *Nature
Protocols* 8 (8): 1494–1512.

Haas, Brian J., Steven L. Salzberg, Wei Zhu, Mihaela Pertea, Jonathan E. Allen, Joshua Orvis,

Owen White, C. Robin Buell, and Jennifer R. Wortman. 2008. "Automated Eukaryotic Gene

Structure Annotation Using EVidenceModeler and the Program to Assemble Spliced

Alignments." *Genome Biology* 9 (1): R7.

Hauschteck-Jungen, E., and H. Jungen. 1983. "Ant Chromosomes." *Insectes Sociaux* 30 (2): 149–

64.

Hoff, Katharina J., Simone Lange, Alexandre Lomsadze, Mark Borodovsky, and Mario Stanke.

2016. "BRAKER1: Unsupervised RNA-Seq-Based Genome Annotation with GeneMark-ET

and AUGUSTUS: Table 1." *Bioinformatics*. https://doi.org/10.1093/bioinformatics/btv661.

Hoff, Katharina J., Alexandre Lomsadze, Mark Borodovsky, and Mario Stanke. 2019. "Whole-

Genome Annotation with BRAKER." *Methods in Molecular Biology*.

https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4939-9173-0_5.

Huerta-Cepas, Jaime, Kristoffer Forslund, Luis Pedro Coelho, Damian Szklarczyk, Lars Juhl

Jensen, Christian von Mering, and Peer Bork. 2017. "Fast Genome-Wide Functional

Annotation through Orthology Assignment by EggNOG-Mapper." *Molecular Biology and*

Evolution 34 (8): 2115–22.

Huerta-Cepas, Jaime, Damian Szklarczyk, Davide Heller, Ana Hernández-Plaza, Sofia K. Forslund,

Helen Cook, Daniel R. Mende, *et al.* 2019. "EggNOG 5.0: A Hierarchical, Functionally and

Phylogenetically Annotated Orthology Resource Based on 5090 Organisms and 2502

Viruses." *Nucleic Acids Research* 47 (D1): D309–14.

Hughes, William O. H., and Jacobus J. Boomsma. 2008. "Genetic Royal Cheats in Leaf-Cutting Ant

Societies." *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of*

America 105 (13): 5150–53.

Imai, B. Y. H. T., C. Baroni Urbani, M. Kubota, G. P. Sharma, M. N. Narasimhanna, B. C. Das, A.

K. Sharma, *et al.* 1984. "Karyological Survey of Indian Ants." *The Japanese Journal of*

Genetics. https://doi.org/10.1266/jjg.59.1.

Katoh, Kazutaka, and Daron M. Standley. 2013. "MAFFT Multiple Sequence Alignment Software

Version 7: Improvements in Performance and Usability." *Molecular Biology and Evolution* 30

(4): 772–80.

Keightley, Peter D., Rob W. Ness, Daniel L. Halligan, and Penelope R. Haddrill. 2014. "Estimation

of the Spontaneous Mutation Rate per Nucleotide Site in a Drosophila Melanogaster Full-

Sib Family." *Genetics* 196 (1): 313–20.

Keightley, Peter D., Ana Pinharanda, Rob W. Ness, Fraser Simpson, Kanchon K. Dasmahapatra,

James Mallet, John W. Davey, and Chris D. Jiggins. 2015. "Estimation of the Spontaneous

Mutation Rate in Heliconius Melpomene." *Molecular Biology and Evolution* 32 (1): 239–43.

Kolmogorov, Mikhail, Jeffrey Yuan, Yu Lin, and Pavel A. Pevzner. 2019. "Assembly of Long, Error-

Prone Reads Using Repeat Graphs." *Nature Biotechnology* 37 (5): 540–46.

Konorov, Evgenii A., Mikhail A. Nikitin, Kirill V. Mikhailov, Sergey N. Lysenkov, Mikhail Belenky,

Peter L. Chang, Sergey V. Nuzhdin, and Victoria A. Scobeyeva. 2017. "Genomic Exaptation

Enables Lasius Niger Adaptation to Urban Environments." *BMC Evolutionary Biology* 17

(Suppl 1): 39.

Kuhn, Alexandre, Hugo Darras, Omid Paknia, and Serge Aron. 2020. "Repeated Evolution of Queen

Parthenogenesis and Social Hybridogenesis in *Cataglyphis* Desert Ants." *Molecular Ecology*

29 (3): 549–64.

Leniaud, Laurianne, Hugo Darras, Raphael Boulay, and Serge Aron. 2012. "Social Hybridogenesis

in the Clonal Ant Cataglyphis Hispanica." *Current Biology: CB* 22 (13): 1188–93.

Lenoir, A., E. Nowbahari, L. Querard, N. Pondicq, and C. Delalande. 1990. "Habitat Exploitation and

Intercolonial Relationships in the Ant *Cataglyphis* Cursor (Hymenoptera: Formicidae)." *Acta*

Oecologica 11 (1): 3–18.

Li, Heng, and Richard Durbin. 2009. "Fast and Accurate Short Read Alignment with Burrows-

Wheeler Transform." *Bioinformatics* 25 (14): 1754–60.

Li, Heng, Bob Handsaker, Alec Wysoker, Tim Fennell, Jue Ruan, Nils Homer, Gabor Marth, Goncalo

Abecasis, and Richard Durbin. 2009. "The Sequence Alignment/Map Format and SAMtools."

Bioinformatics 25 (16): 2078–79.

Lieberman-Aiden, Erez, Nynke L. van Berkum, Louise Williams, Maxim Imakaev, Tobias Ragoczy,

Agnes Telling, Ido Amit, *et al.* 2009. "Comprehensive Mapping of Long-Range Interactions

Reveals Folding Principles of the Human Genome." *Science (New York, N.Y.)* 326 (5950):

289–93.

Linksvayer, Timothy A., Jeremiah W. Busch, and Chris R. Smith. 2013. "Social Supergenes of

Superorganisms: Do Supergenes Play Important Roles in Social Evolution?" *BioEssays* 35

(8): 683–89.

Liu, Haoxuan, Yanxiao Jia, Xiaoguang Sun, Dacheng Tian, Laurence D. Hurst, and Sihai Yang.

2017. "Direct Determination of the Mutation Rate in the Bumblebee Reveals Evidence for

Weak Recombination-Associated Mutation and an Approximate Rate Constancy in Insects."

Molecular Biology and Evolution. https://doi.org/10.1093/molbev/msw226.

Lorite, P., E. Chica, and T. Palomeque. 1996. "Cytogenetic Studies of Ant Linepithema Humile

Shattuck (= Iridomyrmex Humilis Mayr) in European Populations." *Caryologia* 49 (2): 199–

205.

Lorite, Pedro, and Teresa Palomeque. 2010. "Karyotype Evolution in Ants (Hymenoptera:

Formicidae), with a Review of the Known Ant Chromosome Numbers." *Myrmecological*

News / Osterreichische Gesellschaft Fur Entomofaunistik 13 (1): 89–102.

Manni, Mosè, Matthew R. Berkeley, Mathieu Seppey, Felipe A. Simão, and Evgeny M. Zdobnov.

2021. "BUSCO Update: Novel and Streamlined Workflows along with Broader and Deeper

Phylogenetic Coverage for Scoring of Eukaryotic, Prokaryotic, and Viral Genomes."

Molecular Biology and Evolution 38 (10): 4647–54.

Mapleson, Daniel, Gonzalo Garcia Accinelli, George Kettleborough, Jonathan Wright, and Bernardo

J. Clavijo. 2016. "KAT: A K-Mer Analysis Toolkit to Quality Control NGS Datasets and

Genome Assemblies." *Bioinformatics*, October, btw663.

Marie-Nelly, Hervé, Martial Marbouty, Axel Cournac, Jean-François Flot, Gianni Liti, Dante Poggi

Parodi, Sylvie Syan, *et al.* 2014. "High-Quality Genome (Re)Assembly Using Chromosomal

Contact Data." *Nature Communications* 5 (December): 5695.

Martin, Marcel. 2011. "Cutadapt Removes Adapter Sequences from High-Throughput Sequencing

Reads." *EMBnet.Journal* 17 (1): 10–12.

Nguyen, Lam-Tung, Heiko A. Schmidt, Arndt von Haeseler, and Bui Quang Minh. 2015. "IQ-TREE:

A Fast and Effective Stochastic Algorithm for Estimating Maximum-Likelihood Phylogenies."

Molecular Biology and Evolution 32 (1): 268–74.

Obbard, Darren J., John Maclennan, Kang-Wook Kim, Andrew Rambaut, Patrick M. O'Grady, and

Francis M. Jiggins. 2012. "Estimating Divergence Dates and Substitution Rates in the

Drosophila Phylogeny." *Molecular Biology and Evolution* 29 (11): 3459–73.

Oppold, Ann-Marie, and Markus Pfenninger. 2017. "Direct Estimation of the Spontaneous Mutation

Rate by Short-Term Mutation Accumulation Lines in Chironomus Riparius." *Evolution Letters*

1 (2): 86–92.

Pearcy, O. J. Hardy, and S. Aron. 2011. "Automictic Parthenogenesis and Rate of Transition to

Homozygosity." *Heredity* 107 (2): 187–88.

Pearcy, Morgan, Serge Aron, Claudie Doums, and Laurent Keller. 2004. "Conditional Use of Sex

and Parthenogenesis for Worker and Queen Production in Ants." *Science* 306 (5702): 1780–

83.

Peeters, Christian, and Serge Aron. 2017. "Evolutionary Reduction of Female Dispersal in

Cataglyphis Desert Ants." *Biological Journal of the Linnean Society. Linnean Society of*

London 122 (1): 58–70.

Perez, Rémy, and Serge Aron. 2020. "Adaptations to Thermal Stress in Social Insects: Recent

Advances and Future Directions." *Biological Reviews of the Cambridge Philosophical*

Society 95 (6): 1535–53.

Perez, Rémy, Natalia de Souza Araujo, Matthieu Defrance, and Serge Aron. 2021. "Molecular
Adaptations to Heat Stress in the Thermophilic Ant Genus *Cataglyphis*." *Molecular Ecology*
30 (21): 5503–16.

Pfeffer, Sarah Elisabeth, Verena Luisa Wahl, Matthias Wittlinger, and Harald Wolf. 2019. "High-
Speed Locomotion in the Saharan Silver Ant,." *The Journal of Experimental Biology* 222 (Pt
20). https://doi.org/10.1242/jeb.198705.

Quesneville, Hadi, Casey M. Bergman, Olivier Andrieu, Delphine Autard, Danielle Nouaud, Michael
Ashburner, and Dominique Anxolabehere. 2005. "Combined Evidence Annotation of
Transposable Elements in Genome Sequences." *PLoS Computational Biology* 1 (2): 166–
75.

Sanderson, Michael J. 2003. "R8s: Inferring Absolute Rates of Molecular Evolution and Divergence
Times in the Absence of a Molecular Clock." *Bioinformatics* 19 (2): 301–2.

Schrader, Lukas, Jay W. Kim, Daniel Ence, Aleksey Zimin, Antonia Klein, Katharina Wyschetzki,
Tobias Weichselgartner, *et al.* 2014. "Transposable Element Islands Facilitate Adaptation to
Novel Environments in an Invasive Species." *Nature Communications*.

Schwander, Tanja, Romain Libbrecht, and Laurent Keller. 2014. "Supergenes and Complex
Phenotypes." *Current Biology* 24 (7): 288–94.

Shumate, Alaina, and Steven L. Salzberg. 2020. "Liftoff: Accurate Mapping of Gene Annotations."
Bioinformatics 37 (12): 1639–1643.

Simão, Felipe A., Robert M. Waterhouse, Panagiotis Ioannidis, Evgenia V. Kriventseva, and Evgeny
M. Zdobnov. 2015. "BUSCO: Assessing Genome Assembly and Annotation Completeness
with Single-Copy Orthologs." *Bioinformatics* 31 (19): 3210–12.

Sommer, Stefan, and Rüdiger Wehner. 2012. "Leg Allometry in Ants: Extreme Long-Leggedness in
Thermophilic Species." *Arthropod Structure & Development* 41 (1): 71–77.

Waterhouse, Robert M., Mathieu Seppey, Felipe A. Simão, Mosè Manni, Panagiotis Ioannidis,
Guennadi Klioutchnikov, Evgenia V. Kriventseva, and Evgeny M. Zdobnov. 2017. "BUSCO

Applications from Quality Assessments to Gene Prediction and Phylogenomics." *Molecular*

Biology and Evolution, December. https://doi.org/10.1093/molbev/msx319.

Wehner, R., A. C. Marsh, and S. Wehner. 1992. "Desert Ants on a Thermal Tightrope." *Nature* 357

(6379): 586–87.

Weyna, Arthur, Jonathan Romiguier, and Charles Mullon. 2021. "Hybridization Enables the Fixation

of Selfish Queen Genotypes in Eusocial Colonies." *Evolution Letters* 5 (6): 582–94.

Willot, Quentin, Cyril Gueydan, and Serge Aron. 2017. "Proteome Stability, Heat Hardening and

Heat-Shock Protein Expression Profiles in Desert Ants." *The Journal of Experimental Biology*

220 (Pt 9): 1721–28.

Withrow, James M., and David R. Tarpy. 2018. "Cryptic 'Royal' Subfamilies in Honey Bee (Apis

Mellifera) Colonies." *PloS One* 13 (7): e0199124.

Xu, Mengyang, Lidong Guo, Shengqiang Gu, Ou Wang, Rui Zhang, Guangyi Fan, Xun Xu, Li Deng,

and Xin Liu. 2019. "TGS-GapCloser: Fast and Accurately Passing through the Bermuda in

Large Genome Using Error-Prone Third-Generation Long Reads." *BioRxiv*. bioRxiv.

https://doi.org/10.1101/831248.

Yahav, Tal, and Eyal Privman. 2019. "A Comparative Analysis of Methods for de Novo Assembly of

Hymenopteran Genomes Using Either Haploid or Diploid Samples." *Scientific Reports* 9 (1).

https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-019-42795-6.

Yang, Sihai, Long Wang, Ju Huang, Xiaohui Zhang, Yang Yuan, Jian-Qun Chen, Laurence D. Hurst,

and Dacheng Tian. 2015. "Parent-Progeny Sequencing Indicates Higher Mutation Rates in

Heterozygotes." *Nature* 523 (7561): 463–67.