High quality genomes corroborate 29 chromosomes of the haploid

Hyles **(Lepidoptera: Sphingidae) karyotype**

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scaffolding; wing pattern genes

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Abstract

FISH analysis of the karyotype revealed n = 29 chromosomes in *Hyles euphorbiae*.

The measured genome sizes of *H. euphorbiae* and *H. vespertilio* are estimated to

have average 1C DNA values of 472 and 562 Mb respectively. The *H. euphorbiae*

genome was PacBio sequenced and amended by Hi-C Illumina data yielding a 504

Mb assembly with a scaffold N50 of 18.2 Mb and 99.9% of the data being

represented by the 29 largest scaffolds, corroborating the haploid karyotype.

Chromosome length estimations based on karyotype image data provide an

additional quality metric of the assembled chromosome sizes. Hi-C data was also

used for chromosome-level scaffolding of the published *H. vespertilio* genome,

leading to a second assembly (651 Mb) with scaffold N50 of 22 Mb, 98% in the 29

largest scaffolds representing the chromosomes. The larger *H. vespertilio* genome

size was accompanied by a proportional increase of repeats from 45% in *H.*

euphorbiae to nearly 55% in *H. vespertilio*.

In both *Hyles* species, the three wing pattern genes, *optix, wingless/wint-1* and

cortex, were found on chromosomes 23, 4 and 17, respectively. Peaks of divergence

surrounding *wingless/wnt-1* and *cortex* provide candidate genomic areas in which

wing patterns are determined in this genus.

Introduction

The spurge hawkmoth *Hyles euphorbiae* Linnaeus 1758 is a charismatic Palearctic

species of the genus *Hyles* (family Sphingidae) with large, colorful, aposematic and

polymorphic larvae and camouflaged, heavy moths with strong flight abilities.

Surprisingly, its larvae do not sequester the toxic spurge diterpene esters [1] and

monophagy of larvae on toxic *Euphorbia* host plants has evolved twice independently

within the genus [2, 3]. The impressively high morphological variability of larvae has

complicated its taxonomy by contributing to an overestimation of species diversity

(overview in Hundsdoerfer et al. [4]). Similarly, high intraspecific mitochondrial marker

gene diversity bedeviled reconstruction of the molecular phylogeny of the former five

species [2], but provided valuable resolution for phylogeography [5]. Whereas some

larval patterns are correlated to geography [5] and are thus expected to be based on

underlying genetic diversity causing phenotypic variability, others appear to be

environmentally determined (phenotypic plasticity).

Early studies have already demonstrated that wing pattern similarity does not

correlate with phylogenetic relatedness in this genus [6, 7]. Seven basic wing

patterns are observed in the Central Palearctic *Hyles* species and they do not

correlate with species as currently defined and also do not reflect the phylogenetic

relationships within the genus. Recently, we standardized forewing patterns for

members of the genus, defined morphological characters and coded these for around

200 individuals in a matrix [8]. Group formation in tree reconstructions of these

morphological data could be characterized as being based completely on wing

pattern. One such group consists of moths with many stripes on the forewing (the

former subgenus 'Danneria' according to Danner et al. [9]), but this had to be refuted

as a clade by earlier molecular phylogenetic work [6]. Another large clade

encompasses moths that largely show a pattern of dark brown spots and stripes on a

lighter, cream-colored background. This corresponds to the typical *H. euphorbiae*

forewing pattern, and thus the group included all species with a similar wing pattern

[8] (or slight variations of it), despite many lacking a close molecular phylogenetic

relationship [10] to this species. Another clade consists of species with forewing

patterns that lack many or most of these pattern elements described above, including

H. vespertilio, for which the genome has been published recently [11]. This species'

forewings have the appearance of a naturally occurring lack of wing pattern, as if the

gene(s) for the wing pattern were naturally knocked-out, which makes a genomic

comparison to it particularly intriguing.

Interspecific differences in forewing patterns within the genus *Hyles* should be based

on detectable genetic differences, since the patterns are stable within species in the

well separated, oldest Neotropical (and Nearctic) taxa [6]. In the Palearctic,

incomplete lineage sorting and ongoing hybridization impede such insights, justifying

ongoing systematic, phylogenetic and taxonomic research (e.g. Patzold et al. [12]).

Currently, numerous Sphingidae genomes are being published (e.g. Pippel et al.

[11]), for which peer-review processes are partly still underway (e.g. *Mimas tiliae*,

Smerinthinae [13]). This wealth of data will enable insight into the evolution of wing

patterns in hawkmoths. Pioneer studies of genes underlying the Lepidoptera wing

pattern in the genus *Heliconius* (family Nymphalidae) [14] have revealed a modular

architecture with narrow stretches of the genome associated with specific differences

in color and pattern. *Optix* is a single-exon gene on chromosome 18 in *Heliconius*

[14, 15] encoding a transcription factor and thus not directly involved in ommochrome

pigmentation [16], but is nevertheless associated with red and orange forewing

patterning in these butterflies. Nearby non-coding regions control its expression in

Heliconius wing development [14] and these are the regions of divergence, whereas

the coding area is a conserved homeobox gene. *Hyles euphorbiae* forewings are

known for their pink flush in some regions of its distribution range (see moths in Fig. 2

of Hundsdoerfer, Lee et al. [4]), whereas red is not prominent in the grey wings of *H.*

vespertilio.

The gene *wingless* is necessary for wing and haltere development in *Drosophila*

melanogaster [17] and was identified as similar to mouse secretory glycoprotein *int-1*,

leading to the new nomenclature in which both genes are referred to as *wnt-1*

(*wingless*-type integration site gene family [18]). The *wntA* signalling ligand on

chromosome 10 is highly conserved at the amino-acid level within *Heliconius* [14])

and associated with the forewing black band. Variation is again rather influenced via

the expression during wing development and thus found in the nearby control region

[14]. Within *Hyles*, *wingless/wnt-1* sequences show variability and have thus been

used as a source of characters for phylogenetic inference [19].

Another wing pattern gene, *cortex* (on chromosome 17 and coding for yellow patterns

on *Heliconius* wings) [20], has been suggested to regulate pattern switches across

Lepidoptera [21]. The same flexible mechanism for rapid morphological diversification

is expected to apply to the genus *Hyles*. The insertion of a transposable element (TE)

into an intron of the gene *cortex* was shown to give rise to industrial melanism [22],

i.e. darker forewings in the Peppered Moth (*Biston betularia*; Geometridae),

corroborating the function across Lepidoptera. It had already been proposed that the

evolution of lepidopteran wing pattern stripes occurred through the repeated gain,

loss, and modification of only a handful of serially repeated elements [23]. In addition,

variation in the colors and certain color patterns of species is primarily expected to be

driven by biotic and abiotic factors [24] acting as selection pressure on individuals

with differential expression of genotypes, due to, e.g., the *cortex* TE insertion. Indeed,

this insertion [22], estimated to have occurred around 1819, could only be genetically

manifested in the population via selection pressure against the light-colored moths

showing up on the dark trees and thus experiencing higher predation.

In contrast to the genome-sequenced *H. vespertilio* [11], in which the forewings have

a naturally occurring knock-out appearance (as if the wing pattern genes were

dysfunctional) of near-uniform grey wings lacking high-contrast patterning, *H.*

euphorbiae shows important elements of the typical ground forewing pattern of the

genus, which has been reconstructed as the ancestral set of characters for proto-

Hyles [8]. By comparing the chromosome-level genomes of *H. euphorbiae* and *H.*

vespertilio, the current paper aims at providing a data basis and a directed track for

future studies to understand the origin of *Hyles* wing patterns as phenotypic variability

coded by the genetic wing pattern modules described in *Heliconius* (e.g. [14, 20, 23]).

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Results

Karyotype

Analysis of male mitotic chromosomes stained by FISH with telomeric probe

(telomere-FISH) showed that the karyotype of *H. euphorbiae* is composed of $2n = 58$

chromosomes (Fig. 1a). As is typical for Lepidoptera, the chromosomes are of the

holokinetic type, i.e. they lack a primary constriction (centromere) and are

morphologically uniform, differing only in size. The chromosome number was

confirmed by analysis of meiotic nuclei in the pachytene stage, where homologous

chromosomes pair and form elongated bivalents. Pachytene complements, stained

by GISH in combination with telomere-FISH, showed a haploid number of 29

bivalents in both sexes (Fig. 1b, c). In addition, GISH identified a WZ sex

chromosome bivalent in pachytene oocytes by labelling the major portion of the W

chromosome with the female gDNA probe (Fig. 1c), whereas no bivalent was

identified in pachytene spermatocytes (Fig. 1b). These results clearly show that *H.*

euphorbiae has a WZ/ZZ (female/male) sex chromosome system, which is common

in Lepidoptera. It should be noted that the WZ bivalent is relatively long (Fig. 1c),

suggesting that the W and Z chromosomes are among the largest chromosomes in

the *H. euphorbiae* karyotype.

Fig. 1. **Molecular cytogenetic analysis of *Hyles euphorbiae* chromosomes.** Hybridization signals
of the Cy3-labelled (TTAGG)$_n$ telomeric probe (red) indicate the chromosomal ends (**a–c**), and the
fluorescein-labelled female gDNA probe (green) identifies the sex chromosome system (**b** and **c**).
Chromosomes were stained with DAPI (grey). (**a**) Male mitotic prometaphase stained by telomere-
FISH showing a diploid chromosome number of $2n = 58$. (**b**) Male pachytene complement stained by
combination of GISH and telomere-FISH showing 29 bivalents, but without any bivalent highlighted,
thus indicating a ZZ sex chromosome constitution. (**c**) Female pachytene complement stained by
combination of GISH and telomere-FISH showing 29 bivalents including the WZ sex chromosome pair,
identified by the W chromosome highlighted with the female gDNA probe. Bar = 10 μm.
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Chromosome size estimation from karyotype image data

The chromosome size estimation is based on Fig. 1c, bivalents from a female pupal

gonad cell in the pachytene stage. The chromosome size estimates are shown in Fig.

2, they corroborate the WZ bivalent as the largest chromosome. Based on semi-

automated image processing, the software package napari-karyotype [25] relies on

threshold-based image segmentation to detect chromosome-related components.

Identified chromosomal objects are surrounded by red rectangles and labeled with

the estimates.

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191 **Fig. 2. Annotated chromosomes from a female pachytene *Hyles euphorbiae* karyotype image**
192 **using the software package napari-karyotype.** The top and middle rows show the input image, red
193 containment boxes and red size estimates. The bottom row shows the chromosomes aligned manually
194 according to the size estimated. The largest chromosome represents the sex chromosome, in this
195 case a WZ-bivalent.
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Genome size estimation

The genome sizes of *H. vespertilio* and *H. euphorbiae* were measured in three

replicates each from a single individual. The average results of 0.575 pg and 0.484

pg showed that the 1C DNA values were 562 Mb and 472 Mb, respectively (1 pg =

978 Mb).

Genome size estimate for *H. euphorbiae* using ModEst resulted in 535 Mb.

Hyles euphorbiae genome assembly

Assembly contiguity statistics are summarized in Table 1. The final contig assembly

consists of 321 contigs, has a N50 of 2.76 Mb and a size of 504 Mb and is available

under the NCBI SRA accession SRR17432892, BioProject PRJNA794104,

BioSample SAMN24610150 and genome JALBCW000000000, JALBCX000000000.

The final annotated circular mitochondrial genome has length of 15,322 bp.

Final assembly statistics are summarized in Table 2. The assembly of *H. euphorbiae*

is almost 124 Mb smaller than that of *H. vespertilio*.

Table 1: Contiguity statistics of different assembly steps from *H. euphorbiae* assembly.

	Contigs	Initial scaffolds	Curated scaffolds	Curated contigs
#Sequences	592	81	56	322
Total length	513,190,344	513,292,544	504,259,600	504,323,440
Largest sequence	6,062,269	30,760,442	30,347,856	10,621,849
N50	1,441,051	18,456,932	18,182,747	2,758,341

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222   **Table 2**: Available statistics of presented and related species. Genome size estimates for *B. mori* and
223   *M. sexta* are taken from the Animal Genome Size Database (Gregory, 2021).

	H. euphorbiae	*H. vespertilio*	*M. sexta*[26]	*B. mori*[27]
#sequences	322	390	4,057	697
Genome size	472,000,000	562,000,000	420,540,000[28]	508,560,000[29]
Total length	504,323,440	651,427,907	470,036,997	460,349,660
Scaffold N50	18,182,747	22,136,963	14,248,853	16,796,068
Contig N50	2,758,341	7,263,332	424,948	12,201,325
Karyotype (haploid)	29	29	28	28
Total length in longest scaffolds according karyotype [%]	99.9	95.3	86.1	96.7
BUSCO (N=5286)				
Complete	98.2	98.3	98.3	98.7
Single copy	97.9	95.4	91.8	97.8
Duplicated	0.3	2.9	6.5	0.9
Fragmented	0.5	0.7	0.7	0.4
Missing	1.3	1.0	1.0	0.9

Chromosome scaffolding *H. vespertilio* Hi-C data

HiRise scaffolding of *H. vespertilio* using more than 132M read pairs yielded a

scaffold N50 of 22.1 Mb. In total 146 joins and only one break of the input assembly

were introduced. The contact map clearly shows 29 well supported scaffolds

representing the chromosomes (Fig. 3). Sizes of chromosomes of both *Hyles* species

are of the same order of magnitude, but not identical (Table 3).

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238   **Fig. 3. Contact map of a)** *H. vespertilio* **and b)** *H. euphorbiae.* Chromosome-level scaffolding
239   clearly supports 29 scaffolds representing the chromosomes. Chromosomes are given in order of size
240   from the bottom left to top right.
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247 **Table 3**: Chromosome sizes based on bioinformatic analyzes of sequence data and chromosome
248 numbering in homology to *B. mori*. Chromosome 1 corresponds to chromosome Z [56]. Footnotes: *
249 also contains parts of BmChr26, ** also contains parts of BmChr11, § also contains parts of BmChr23,
250 # also contains part of BmChr24.

B. mori Chr. number	*H. vesper-tilio* Chr. number	*H. vespertilio* scaffold name in browser	Assembly Length (bp) incl. gaps	*H. eu-phorbiae* Chr. number	*H. euphorbiae* scaffold name in browser	Assembly Length (bp) incl. gaps
BMChrZ	HvChrZ	ScWp86a_195_HRSCAF_280	37,218,281	HeChrZ	sc_1	30,347,856
BmChr2	HvChr2*	ScWp86a_159_HRSCAF_226	24,553,817	HeChr2	sc_7	19,904,380
BmChr3	HvChr3	ScWp86a_257_HRSCAF_395	20,065,448	HeChr3	sc_18	16,855,035
BmChr4	HvChr4	ScWp86a_21_HRSCAF_27	25,450,662	HeChr4	sc_6	20,022,273
BmChr5	HvChr5	ScWp86a_119_HRSCAF_165	26,040,715	HeChr5	sc_4	21,578,258
BmChr6	HvChr6	ScWp86a_136_HRSCAF_194	22,136,963	HeChr6	sc_13	17,936,700
BmChr7	HvChr7	ScWp86a_95_HRSCAF_134	17,182,831	HeChr7	sc_23	14,557,976
BmChr8	HvChr8	ScWp86a_214_HRSCAF_310	21,873,546	HeChr8	sc_14	17,505,000
BmChr9	HvChr9	ScWp86a_232_HRSCAF_355	24,188,504	HeChr9	sc_11	19,134,990
BmChr10	HvChr10	ScWp86a_42_HRSCAF_61	24,738,224	HeChr10	sc_8	19,757,600
BmChr11	HvChr11	ScWp86a_178_HRSCAF_255	22,098,621	HeChr11	sc_15	17,388,153
BmChr12	HvChr12	ScWp86a_182_HRSCAF_262	26,852,440	HeChr12	sc_5	21,432,827
BmChr13	HvChr13	ScWp86a_68_HRSCAF_94	24,145,169	HeChr13	sc_10	19,486,524
BmChr14	HvChr14	ScWp86a_111_HRSCAF_155	20,079,433	HeChr14	sc_21	15,684,570
BmChr15	HvChr15	ScWp86a_62_HRSCAF_86	26,014,704	HeChr15	sc_3	21,768,765
BmChr16	HvChr16	ScWp86a_55_HRSCAF_78	18,679,767	HeChr16	sc_22	15,570,054
BmChr17	HvChr17	ScWp86a_210_HRSCAF_302	24,352,496	HeChr17	sc_9	19,686,965
BmChr18	HvChr18	ScWp86a_1_HRSCAF_1	20,909,092	HeChr18	sc_16	17,373,644
BmChr19	HvChr19	ScWp86a_207_HRSCAF_299	20,353,206	HeChr19	sc_19	16,571,156
BmChr20	HvChr20	ScWp86a_378_HRSCAF_523	16,497,537	HeChr20	sc_24	12,812,799
BmChr21	HvChr21	ScWp86a_162_HRSCAF_230	21,114,399	HeChr21	sc_17	17,181,161
BmChr22	HvChr22#	ScWp86a_157_HRSCAF_223	33,800,775	HeChr22	sc_2	27,093,441
BmChr23	HvChr23	ScWp86a_31_HRSCAF_41	22,933,977	HeChr23	sc_12	18,182,747
BmChr24	HvChr24	ScWp86a_166_HRSCAF_234	11,894,872	HeChr24	sc_27	10,049,873
BmChr25	HvChr25	ScWp86a_7_HRSCAF_7	19,247,757	HeChr25	sc_20	15,917,517
BmChr26	HvChr26**	ScWp86a_81_HRSCAF_111	9,224,630	HeChr26	sc_29	7,206,840
BmChr27	HvChr27	ScWp86a_289_HRSCAF_430	14,304,874	HeChr27	sc_26	12,048,215
BmChr28	HvChr28#	ScWp86a_140_HRSCAF_198	15,210,208	HeChr28	sc_25	12,771,623
n.a.	HvChr29§	ScWp86a_137_HRSCAF_195	9,587,503	HeChr29	sc_28	7,786,824

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Annotation

The proportion of the *H. euphorbiae* genome assembly covered by major classes of

repetitive elements is 45% in total (Table 4), illustrated by stacked bar charts (Fig. 4).

Hyles vespertilio thus exhibits nearly 10% more non-repetitive, potentially informative

DNA than *H. euphorbiae*. The mitochondrial genome of *H. euphorbiae* (Fig. S1)

contains 15 protein coding genes, two ribosomal RNA genes (rRNA) plus 22 transfer

RNA sequences (tRNA) and the control region.

Table 4. Assembly lengths and proportion of repeats.
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Species	Total length	Masked [%]
H. euphorbiae	504,310,614	47.1
H. vespertilio	651,427,907	53.39
M. sexta	470,036,997	34.13
B. mori	460,349,660	50.99

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271   **Fig. 4**. Proportional repeat contents of *H. euphorbiae*, *H. vespertilio*, *M. sexta* (all Sphingidae) and *B.*
272   *mori* (Bombycidae). Scale in megabases (Mb).
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277 **Fig. S1**. The annotated mitochondrial genome of *H. euphorbiae*.
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The *Hyles* genome alignment and annotations are accessible in the Senckenberg

Genome Browser (https://genome.senckenberg.de/cgi-bin/hgTracks?db=HLhylVes2 in an

alignment with *B. mori*, *M. sexta* and *H. euphorbiae,* and

https://genome.senckenberg.de/cgi-bin/hgTracks?db=HLhylEup1). The two species of the

genus *Hyles* have one more chromosome than *B. mori* ($n = 28$), but the alignment

between *H. vespertilio* and *B. mori* can still be illustrated (Fig. 5a) to allow

comparison by eye. CIRCOS plots of the alignment between the two species

showed high chromosome homology, except for some chromosomes that might be

involved in chromosome rearrangements. The *H. vespertilio* chromosome 2 (HvChr2)

corresponds to chromosomes 2 and 26 in *B. mori* (BmChr2, BmChr26). *Bombyx mori*

chromosome 24, BmChr24, is split among *H. vespertilio* chromosomes 22, 24 and 28

(HvChr22, HvChr24, HvChr28) and chromosome 11 of *B. mori* (BmChr11) is split

among *H. vespertilio* chromosomes 11 and 26 (HvChr11, HvChr26). These

chromosome rearrangements between *B. mori* and *H. vespertilio* are consistent with

those between *B. mori* and *M. sexta* [69], corroborating high chromosome homology

between the two hawkmoth species, *H. vespertilio* and *M. sexta* (Fig. 5b).

Chromosome 23 of *B. mori* (BmChr23) is split up into *H. vespertilio* chromosomes 23

and 29 (HvChr23, HvChr29), resulting in an additional chromosome in *H. vespertilio*

(HvChr29).

The plot comparing the 29 chromosome sequences (Fig. 5c) illustrates the high

synteny within the genus *Hyles* in the definition of colinearity, the conservation of

blocks of order within the two sets of chromosomes. The larger size of the *H.*

vespertilio genome based on the genome size estimation and its longer assembly

than that of *H. euphorbiae* are reflected by the larger size of every chromosome (Fig.

5c).

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Fig. 5. CIRCOS plots of genome alignments at chromosome level. Chromosome Z corresponds to
chromosome 1. Chromosomes are ordered according to size. The letters "ScWp86a" in *H. vespertilio*
scaffold names are omitted for clarity. **a**) *B. mori* and *H. vespertilio* with automatic coloration by
shinyCircos to facilitate correlation. **b**) *M. sexta* and *H. vespertilio* with coloration by chromosome.
c) *H. euphorbiae* and *H. vespertilio*, with the 29 chromosomes of each species (*H. vespertilio* dark
grey boxes in the outer rim, *H. euphorbiae* light grey boxes). The color of the links represents the
strandiness of the chromosomes of *H. euphorbiae* in comparison to the *H. vespertilio* strand
orientation (green= +; blue= -).

Wing pattern genes

The wing pattern genes *optix, wingless/wnt-1* and *cortex* were identified with high

confidence using BLAT [30, 31] (see above), since identity, bit score and alignment

length were highest for one sequence only with sufficient distance to the second best

hits to distinguish them from random hits.

The hits of the *M. sexta optix* gene sequence (Table S1) revealed a position on

chromosome 23 in *H. euphorbiae* (HeChr23, "sc_12:1,583,003-1,583,475 ", size: 473

bp) and *H. vespertilio* (HvChr23, "ScWp86a_31_HRSCAF_41:20,799,756-

20,800,228 ", size: 473 bp). No repeats are noted in the area of the exon in either

species. The divergence plot in 2 Kb windows of the 150 Kb surrounding the gene

showed a very high level of sequence identity, the p-distance always below 2%. (Fig.

6a). However, a high percentage of InDels (49.97%) was found in the alignment

downstream of the *optix* gene, which is why the alignment shown ends at 64 Kb.

Stretches with gaps in either sequence were removed for the calculation of the p-

distance.

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347   **Table S1**: Accession numbers of *Manduca sexta* reference wing pattern gene or protein sequences.
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Gene	Accession number	Length
wingless	XM_037446381.1	2.683 bp
optix	JH668350.1	551 bp
cortex (isoform X1)	XP_030035669.1	475 amino acids

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353 **Fig. 6.** Genomic divergence in 2 Kb windows surrounding wing pattern genes **a)** *optix,* **b)** *Wnt-*
354 A/*wingless* and **c)** *cortex*. The arrows point to the position of the respective gene.
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The public Lepidoptera (Sphingidae) *wingless* gene sequences (Tables S1, S2)

mapped to the *Hyles* genomes returned a positioning on chromosome 4 in *H.*

euphorbiae (HeChr4, "sc_6:4,890,189-4,890,590" size: 402 bp; Fig. S2a) and *H.*

vespertilio (HvChr4, "ScWp86a_21_HRSCAF_27:6,363,295-6,363,697" size: 403 bp;

Fig. S2b; Table 3). This region represents the first part of the second exon as

annotated in the reference *M. sexta* complete *wingless* sequence (XM_037446381.1;

sc_6:4,888,977-4,892,533).

Table S2: Accession numbers and species of additional *wingless* and *wnt-1** sequences of
Sphingidae included for comparison.
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Accession Number	Genus	species
XM_030185309.2*	*Manduca*	*sexta*
EU033109.1	*Manduca*	*sexta*
FN393412.1	*Deilephila*	*elpenor*
FJ001538.1	*Proserpinus*	*proserpina*
EU479478.1	*Daphnis*	*nerii*
EU479506.1	*Laothoe*	*populi*
EU479508.1	*Macroglossum*	*stellatarum*
EU479557.1	*Xylophanes*	*porcus*
KC893221.1	*Sphinx*	*pinastri*
KR154458.1	*Theretra*	*oldenlandiae*
MN696491.1	*Smerinthus*	*ocellata*
EU033092.1	*Hyles*	*lineata*
EU479499.1	*Hyles*	*hippophaes*
GU829586.1	*Hyles*	*gallii*
MW149631.1	*Hyles*	*calida*
MW149636.1	*Hyles*	*perkinsi*
FN393415.1	*Hyles*	*livornicoides*
FN393414.1	*Hyles*	*euphorbiae*

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372   a)

373
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375   b)

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379 **Fig. S2**. **View of publicly available *wingless/wnt-1* sequences** (first part of exon 2). **a**) aligned to
380 the spurge hawkmoth genome (looks identical in *H. vespertilio*) and **b**) in a 100 Kb view aligned to the
381 new *H. vespertilio* assembly presented here, showing the repeat occurrences in the vicinity.

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The public Lepidoptera (Sphingidae) *wingless* gene sequences (Table S2), the

corresponding ~400 bp spurge hawkmoth sequence "sc_6:4,890,189-4,890,590" and

the slightly longer fragments of the genomic sequences of *H. euphorbiae* and *H.*

vespertilio corresponding to the first and second exon were included to the sequence

alignment used to estimate a phylogenetic tree (Fig. S3). The RaxML tree shows

monophyletic *Hyles* sequences with *Theretra* and *Deilephila* as sister group.

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Fig. S3. Phylogenetic hypothesis of a subset of publicly available *Wnt-A/wingless* sequences of the
family Sphingidae, including the homologous sequences from the two *Hyles* genomes
("HLhylEup1_HiC_scaffold_6_5018902_5019246" represents the same short fragment as the other
genebank sequences only, whereas "HLhylEup1_HiC_scaffold_6" and "HLhylVes2_ScWp86a_21"
correspond to the length of "XM_037446381_Manduca_sexta_wingless_LOC119192566" and
represent both exon 1 and 2, intron insertions excluded).

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The divergence plot of the 150 Kb surrounding the *wingless/wnt-1* gene exons (Fig.

6b) shows a pattern with three peaks (at 1-2000 bp, 16.4%; 64001-66000 bp, 16.3%;

76001-78000 bp, 14.2%), and very low diversity at and in the vicinity of exon1

(56627-59348 bp in the alignment; window 56001-58000 bp, 0.95%).

BLAT search of *M. sexta cortex* protein sequence resulted in a match corresponding

to 8 exons on chromosome 17 in both species (Fig. S4; *H. euphorbiae* (HeChr17,

"sc_9:7,671,034-7,674,090") and *H. vespertilio* (HvChr17,

"ScWp86a_210_HRSCAF_302:14,798,018-14,801,349"). The position, quality and

quantity of repeats in the introns differs between the two species, e.g. the intron

between the first two exons has no repeats in *H. euphorbiae* but two LINEs plus a

large stretch of unknown repeats in *H. vespertilio*. The 100 Kb view reveals a high

number of repeats in the vicinity of the stretch of gene exons in both species (Fig.

S5).

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418 a)

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421 b)

427 **Fig. S4**. BLAT result of the *M. sexta* and *B. betularia cortex* protein (Table S1) on chromosome 17 in
428 **a**) *H. euphorbiae* (above) and **b**) *H. vespertilio* (below) showing the exon/intron structures. Both exon
429 and intron sizes appear to differ between genera and species (scales are similar).
430
431 a)

b)

432
433
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Fig. S5. BLAT result of the *M. sexta* mRNA (Table S1) on chromosome 17 in **a**) *H. euphorbiae* and **b**)
H. vespertilio (below) in a 100 Kb views showing large numbers of repeats in the vicinity, position,
length and type differing between species.

The divergence plot of the 150 Kb surrounding the *cortex* gene exons (Fig. 6c) shows

a pattern with three very high peaks over 30% divergence (at window 4001-6000 bp,

38.9%; 22001-24001 bp, 41.9; 24001-26000 bp, 33.5%).

Discussion

Karyotype

The genome alignment of *B. mori* and *H. vespertilio* assemblies (Fig. 5a) allowed

homology of chromosomes and thus a well-grounded chromosome taxonomy for the

two *Hyles* species studied here (Fig. 5c), but also for the entire genus *Hyles* in all

future work. In fact, we strongly emphasize the value of this chromosome taxonomy

for all Lepidoptera based on homology reasoning. The new hawkmoth assemblies

[13, 32], including that of *M. sexta* [26], only use arbitrary numbers (see Table S3)

according to chromosome size, which prevents well-founded future comparisons for

specific research questions, such as for an example the wing pattern gene

homologies in the study at hand.

Table S3: Chromosome and scaffold name conversion table of *B. mori*, *M. sexta*, *H. euphorbiae* and
H. vespertilio.
464

In lepidopteran karyotype evolution, BmChr11, BmChr23 and BmChr24 are often split

up in other lepidopteran species, which increases chromosome numbers compared

to *B. mori*, e.g. [33-35]. The ancestral number of chromosomes is considered to be *n*

= 31 in the haploid Lepidoptera genome [71-73]. *Bombyx mori* (n = 28) and *Hyles* (n

= 29) would appear to have undergone karyotype reductions from more basal taxa,

independently of e.g. *Heliconius* (21 chromosomes). The well-known chromosome

architecture, e.g. [36] in that genus was studied with linkage maps, e.g. [37-39].

The *H. euphorbiae* karyotype chromosome images obtained had a sufficient clarity to

be annotated with a size estimate by napari-karyotype (Tab. 3) [25]. However, it

should be noted that it was more difficult than expected, as the chromosomes were

touching one another in the image and thus had to be extracted manually. Without

this step, the assignment of object vs. background would have been inaccurate.

Furthermore, chromosomes are flexible structures and their length depends on the

stage, the degree of condensation and also on the preparation methods. Therefore,

their measured length does not always correspond to their size, which is especially

true for meiotic chromosomes in the pachytene stage. To be able to annotate the

chromosome images of the karyotype with the chromosome numbers correlated to *B.*

mori chromosome taxonomy, it will be necessary to implement further in-situ-

hybridization with gene-specific fluorescence-labelled probes following Yasukochi et

al. [33] (Figure 2) in the future.

Assembly Quality

Contiguity measured through scaffold N50 of *H. euphorbiae* and *H. vespertilio* is

higher compared to the related species *M. sexta* and *B. mori*. The percentages of

assembly length in *Hyles euphorbiae* contained in the longest scaffolds is the largest

(Table 2). Both measures underline the very high quality of the two *Hyles* assemblies.

The difference between scaffold and contig N50 is highest in *M. sexta*, suggesting a

more fragmented underlying assembly in comparison.

BUSCO completeness of all compared assemblies is similarly high. The only

noteworthy exception might be that the duplication rate is highest in *M. sexta* with

4.6% (Table 2).

Comparison of two *Hyles* genomes

The large difference in genome size estimates between the two species within the

genus *Hyles*, i.e. *H. vespertilio* with 562 Mb being ~20% larger than that of *H.*

euphorbiae with 472 Mb in flow cytometry estimation, is unexpected. *Hyles lineata* is

one of the oldest species of the genus [2] and it has an even smaller flow cytometry

genome size estimate of 450 Mb (0.46 pg) [28]. The lower genome size estimate of

this third *Hyles* species allows us to postulate that the larger genome of *H. vespertilio*

is more derived.

Not directly comparable are the values of the genome sizes based on the assembly

lengths. But the relative sizes are of the same order of magnitude:

The assembly length of *H. vespertilio* with 651 Mb is ~30% longer than that of *H.*

euphorbiae with 504 MB.

The *H. euphorbiae* genome presented in this work has much fewer repetitive

elements than its congener, especially LINEs (Long INterspersed Elements) and

other repeats. The high content of repeats found in all four genomes, especially LINE

is typical for lepidopteran genomes [40, 41]. However, the number of repeats varies

among the genomes. Previous research has showed a correlation between the

repetitive fraction of the genome, known as the repeatome, and genome size within

and among species [42, 43]. Indeed, the genome of *H. vespertilio* is the largest in our

comparison and the genome with the most extensive repeat content, whereas the

other two sphingid genomes show decreasing amounts of repeats correlated with

their genome size. As described in previous research, the repetitive elements found

here are thus likely drivers for genome size expansion, possibly due to positive

feedback that allows these elements to spread more easily in large genomes [44].

Furthermore, it is assumed that the repeatome plays a significant role in genome size

evolution as well as genetic innovation and speciation [45-49]. As *H. vespertilio* is

known to be one of the most isolated species in the genus of hawkmoths, this could

be a reasonable argument in our case. In contrast, *H. euphorbiae* is well known for its

wide distribution and frequent hybridization with even distantly related species [6, 50,

51].

As they belong to the same genus, a high synteny was expected between *H.*

vespertilio and *H. euphorbiae* on the nuclear set of chromosomes (Fig. 5) and indeed

the illustrated genome alignment (Fig. 5b) shows how similar the two *Hyles* genomes

are. The mitochondrial genome of *H. euphorbiae* (Fig. S1) is also highly similar to

that of *H. vespertilio* (see [12]).

Wing pattern genes

The locations of the three wing pattern genes have been well studied in *Heliconius*;

chromosome 18 (o*ptix*) [14, 15], chromosome 10 (*wntA*) [14] and chromosome 17

(*cortex*) [21, 52] are unsurprisingly not the same in *Hyles* (*optix* on chromosome 23,

wnt-1 on chromosome 4 and *cortex* on chromosome 17) given *Heliconius* has only 21

chromosomes, eight less than *Hyles*.

optix

The invariance found at and close to *optix* was expected, as *optix* and surrounding

genes are highly conserved within Lepidoptera [52]. In contrast, the high percentage

of InDels found in the alignment downstream of *optix* between the genomes of *H.*

vespertilio and *H. euphorbiae* could provide support for the hypothesis proposed by

[53], that the wing patterns are actually controlled by cis-regulatory elements close to

the position of *optix*. Zhang et al. [15] showed that *optix* knock-outs show complete

replacement of color pigments with melanins, resulting in black and grey butterflies.

Although there are no particular divergence peaks within the area surrounding *optix*

between *H. euphorbiae* and *H. vespertilio*, the stretches containing indels had to be

deleted and could thus not be taken into account (n = 2). The question as to whether

this gene could cause the grey wings in *H. vespertilio* thus cannot be answered until

more sequence data is available from more individuals to calculate F_{ST} plots.

wingless/wnt-1

The variability between the two species *H. euphorbiae* and *H. vespertilio* in the

genomic stretches surrounding *wingless/wnt-1* suggests the hypothesis that

regulation of this gene influences the wing pattern determination in *Hyles*. The two

species have very dissimilar forewings and the areas of peak p-distances between

them could determine one or the other. Sequence data from more individuals is

needed for a robust correlation.

cortex

The potential influence of *cortex* on forewing pattern development is strongly

suggested by the large number of high p-distance peaks found between *H.*

euphorbiae and *H. vespertilio*. The large high p-distance of over 40% in species that

are only around 4% apart on neutral phylogenetic markers [6] strongly suggests an

influence on determination of the highly dissimilar forewings.

Another striking difference between the two species in the vicinity of the stretch of the

8 *cortex* exons is an insertion of 229 bp marked as unknown repeat by repeatmasker.

Using BLAT, mapping onto the genome of *H. euphorbiae*, it yields 200 hits between

89.8-96.7% identity on every chromosome, and 203 hits on the new genome of *H.*

vespertilio (data not shown). An NCBI blast yielded exactly one hit on every

chromosome of the very closely related macroglossine species *Deilephila porcellus*

[32] and *Hemaris fuciformis* (under review), as well as nine hits on the genome of the

smerinthine *Mimas tiliae* [13], a species phylogenetically somewhat more distant.

These three genomes are yet to be officially published. Analyzes and comparison

with the genomes presented here is expected to yield a better understanding of wing

pattern evolution within the family Sphingidae.

Conclusions

Earlier studies had already demonstrated that wing pattern similarity does not

correlate with phylogenetic relatedness in the genus *Hyles* [2, 6, 7]. Wing patterns do

not even reliably correlate with species either as currently defined or as reflected by

molecular phylogeny. Morphologists have long argued that without knowledge of

molecular data they have to rely on phenotypic characters and often include striking

differences in wing patterns in their species descriptions. However, in *Hyles*, the

evolution of the wing pattern characters do not reflect the evolution of the species. Of

course, gene trees are not species trees [54], which is why traditional genetic

analyzes, e.g., [2, 6, 7] also do not necessarily reflect the true tree.

In this study we present two high quality annotated chromosome-level assemblies

and report the presence, sequence and location of wing pattern genes thus opening

possibilities for studying wing pattern evolution based on a numerically analyzable,

objective source of data. The two genes *wingless/wnt*-A and *cortex* promise utility in

Hyles, since the genomic areas surrounding these two gene regions show peaks of

high divergence between *H. euphorbiae* and *H. vespertilio*, which have very different

wing patterns. The genome data at chromosome level provided in this study for these

two species represent reliable references in the family Sphingidae for future studies

involving as many species as possible to clarify the evolution of forewing patterns in

this group of Lepidoptera.

Material and Methods

Material

For the karyotype, *H. euphorbiae* from Greece (leg. P. Mazzei, Serifos) was bred in

the lab (summer 2019). Several larvae and young pupae were used to prepare the

tissue slides (see below).

For the genome, one specimen of *H. euphorbiae* (Fig. 7) was collected near

Berbisdorf (Germany) on 27.7.2021 and a second, similar moth from the same

locality was placed as a voucher in the SNSD collection (Senckenberg

Naturhistorische Sammlungen Dresden).

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Fig. 7. *Hyles euphorbiae* male spurge hawkmoth from near Berbisdorf.

Karyotype

Spread chromosome preparations were made as described by Yoshido et al. [55]. Mitotic chromosomes were obtained from wing imaginal discs or testes of last instar larvae. Meiotic chromosomes in the pachytene stage of prophase I were obtained either from the testes of last instar larvae or from the ovaries of 3–5-day old pupae. Briefly, tissues were dissected in a saline solution, swollen either for 5 min (ovaries) or 15 min (testes and wing imaginal discs) in a hypotonic solution (75 mM KCl) and then fixed for 10 min in Carnoy's fixative (ethanol, chloroform, acetic acid, 6:3:1). Cells dissociated in 60% acetic acid were spread on a heating plate at 45°C. All chromosome preparations were passed through a graded ethanol series (70%, 80%, and 100%, 30 s each) and stored at –80°C.

Fluorescence *in situ* hybridization (FISH) with the $(TTAGG)_n$ telomeric probe and genomic *in situ* hybridization (GISH) were carried out following the procedure described by Yoshido et al. [56]. $(TTAGG)_n$ telomeric sequences were generated by non-template PCR according to the protocol of Sahara et al. [57]. Male and female

genomic DNAs (gDNAs) of *H. euphorbiae* were obtained separately from last instar

larvae by standard phenol-chloroform extraction. DNA probes were labelled by nick

translation using a mixture of DNase I and DNA polymerase I (both Thermo Fisher

Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA) with either aminoallyl-dUTP-Cy3 or fluorescein-12-

dUTP (both Jena Bioscience, Jena, Germany).

Chromosome preparations were removed from the freezer, passed through

the graded ethanol series, air-dried and then denatured in 70% formamide in 2× SSC

for 3.5 min at 70°C. For one preparation, the probe cocktail contained 500 ng of

fluorescein-labelled female gDNA, 100 ng of Cy3-labelled telomeric probe, 3 µg of

unlabelled sonicated male gDNA, and 25 µg of sonicated salmon sperm DNA

(Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA) in 10 µl hybridization buffer (50% formamide,

10% dextran sulfate in 2× SSC). Denaturation of the probe cocktail was performed

for 5 min at 90°C. Preparations were examined under a Zeiss Axioplan 2 microscope

(Carl Zeiss, Jena, Germany). Digital images were captured with an Olympus CCD

monochrome camera XM10 equipped with cellSens 1.9 digital imaging software

(Olympus Europa Holding, Hamburg, Germany) and processed with Adobe

Photoshop CS4.

Karyotype-based automated chromosome annotation and size estimation

The karyotype image was preprocessed with the image processing software GIMP

(version 2.10) [58] to manually cut out individual chromosomes. The processed

picture was loaded into the tool napari-karyotype (version c41103e) [25]. Image

segmentation threshold, blur factor and genome size were set to 0.13, 0.5 and 504

Mb respectively.

Genome size estimation

The two hawkmoth genome sizes were estimated following the flow cytometry

protocol with propidium iodide-stained nuclei described by Hare and Johnston [59].

Neural tissue of frozen (–80°C) adult samples of *H. vespertilio* and *H. euphorbiae*

and neural tissue of the internal reference standard *Acheta domesticus* (female, 1C =

2 Gb) were each chopped with a razor blade in a petri dish containing 2 ml of ice-cold

Galbraith buffer. The suspension was filtered through a 42-μm nylon mesh, then

stained with the intercalating fluorochrome propidium iodide (PI, Thermo Fisher

Scientific) and treated with RNase A (Sigma-Aldrich), each with a final concentration

of 25 μg/ml. The mean red PI fluorescence of stained nuclei was quantified using a

Beckman-Coulter CytoFLEX flow cytometer with a solid-state laser emitting at 488

nm. Fluorescence intensities of 10,000 nuclei per sample were recorded.

Subsequently, the nuclei suspensions of *H. vespertilio* and *H. euphorbiae* were each

mixed with the nuclei suspension of the internal reference standard (see above) and

again the fluorescence intensities of 10,000 nuclei per mixed sample were recorded.

We used the CytExpert 2.3 software for histogram analyzes. The total amount of

DNA in each sample of the two *Hyles* species was calculated as the ratio of the mean

fluorescence signal of the 2C peak of the stained nuclei of the respective species

divided by the mean fluorescence signal of the 2C peak of the stained nuclei of the

reference standard times the 1C amount of DNA in the reference standard. Three

replicates, each from the same individual of *H. vespertilio* and *H. euphorbiae*, were

measured on three different days to minimize possible random instrumental errors.

The genome size is reported as 1C, the mean amount of DNA in Mb in a haploid

nucleus.

Additionally, genome size was estimated by mapping coverage using ModEst [60].

Estimations were calculated with backmap.pl 0.5

(https://github.com/schellt/backmap), in combination with bwa mem 0.7.17 [61],

minimap 2.24 [62], samtools 1.15 [63], qualimap 2.2.1 [64], bedtools 2.30.0 [65], R

4.0.3 [66] and multiqc 1.12 [67]. Briefly, the reads used for assembly were mapped

back to the assembly itself. Subsequently, the number of mapped nucleotides was

divided by the mode of the mapping coverage distribution.

PacBio Genome DNA and sequencing

Head tissue (38 mg) of *Hyles euphorbiae* was used for high molecular weight DNA

extraction using an adaptation of the protocol of Miller et al. [68]. Final DNA purity

and concentrations were measured using NanoPhotometer® (Implen GmbH, Munich,

Germany) and Qubit Fluorometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA). One

SMRTbell library was constructed following the instructions of the SMRTbell Express

Prep kit v2.0 with Low DNA Input Protocol (Pacific Biosciences, Menlo Park, CA).

The total input DNA for the library was 3 µg. The library was loaded at an on-plate

concentration of 80 pM using diffusion loading. One SMRT cell sequencing run was

performed on the Sequel System II in CCS mode using 30-hour movie time with 2

hours pre-extension and sequencing chemistry V2.0.

Genome assembly of *Hyles euphorbiae*

We created PacBio CCS reads (rq > 0.99) from the *Hyles euphorbiae* subreads.bam

file using PacBio's ccs command line tool (version 6.3.0). We obtained 7.9 Gb high

quality CCS reads (HiFi reads) with a N50 of 11.74 Kb. To further increase the read

coverage we applied the tool DeepConsensus (v0.2 with default settings) [69] and

gained an overall yield of 8.8 Gb (N50: 11.83 Kb). We ran HiFiasm (version 0. 16.1-

r375) [70] to create the contig assembly. Remaining haplotypic duplications in the

primary contig set were removed using purge-dups (v.1.2.3) [71]. The assembly was

scaffolded with HiC data using yahs (v 1.1a) and manually curated with higlass.

Remaining gaps in the scaffolds were filled by mapping the raw PacBio subreads

with pbmm2 (version 1.7.0), and for alignment piles that fully span the gap regions

with 1000 anchor bases at both sides a consensus sequence was produced with

gcpp (version 2.0.2). The consensus sequence was used to fill a gap only if: 1) the

complete consensus sequence was covered by at least 5x coverage; and 2) the

coverage profile of the closed gaps fully supports the consensus sequence (i.e. no

alignment breaks or huge repeat alignment piles occur). Two rounds of error

polishing were performed by aligning the DeepConsensus reads to the assembly with

pbmm2, calling variants with DeepVariant (version 1.3.0) [72] and correcting

homozygous errors with bcftools consensus. The assembly was checked for

contaminations with blobtoolkit (version 1.1) and an in-house pipeline which screens

several blast databases. BUSCO (version 5.2.2) [73] scores and merqury (version

1.3) [74]. QV values were created for the final scaffolds (QV=58.1).

The mitochondrial genome was created with the mitoHifi pipeline (version 2) [75]

based on CCS reads and the closely related reference mitochondrial genome of

Theretra oldenlandiae (NCBI accession: MN885801.1).

Hi-C sequence data

The Dovetail Hi-C libraries for *H. vespertilio* and *H. euphorbiae* were prepared from

head tissue (52.2 mg and 40.6 mg) using the Dovetail Hi-C kit (Dovetail Genomics,

Scotts Valley, CA, USA) following the manufacturer's protocol version 1.4 for insect

samples. Briefly, the chromatin was fixed with formaldehyde then extracted. Fixed

chromatin was digested with DpnII, the 5' overhangs filled in with biotinylated

nucleotides, and the free blunt ends were ligated. After ligation, the crosslinks were

reversed, the associated proteins were degraded, and the DNA was purified. The

DNA was then sheared to ~350 bp mean fragment size and sequencing libraries

were generated using Illumina-compatible adapters. Biotinylated fragments were

captured with streptavidin beads before PCR amplification.

The Hi-C libraries were sequenced on a NovaSeq 6000 platform at Novogene (UK),

generating 100 million 2 × 150 bp paired-end reads each with a total volume of 30

Gb. The fragment size distribution and concentration of the final PacBio and Dovetail

Hi-C libraries were assessed using the TapeStation (Agilent Technologies) and the

Qubit Fluorometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA), respectively.

Scaffolding the assembly of *H. vespertilio* with HiRise

The *H. vespertilio* input assembly from Pippel et al. [11] and *H. vespertilio* Dovetail

Hi-C library reads were used as input data for HiRise, a software pipeline designed

specifically for using proximity ligation data to scaffold genome assemblies [76].

Dovetail Hi-C library sequences were aligned to the draft input assembly using a

modified SNAP read mapper (http://snap.cs.berkeley.edu). The separations of Hi-C

read pairs mapped within draft scaffolds were analyzed by HiRise version 2.1.7 to

produce a likelihood model for genomic distance between read pairs. The model was

used to identify and break putative misjoins, to score prospective joins, and make

joins above a threshold.

Annotation

Repeat annotation for *H. vespertilio*, *H. euphorbiae*, *M. sexta* and *B. mori* was

conducted using RepeatModeler 2.0.2a [77] and RepeatMasker 4.1.2-p1 [78] in

combination with rmblastn 2.11.0+. For RepeatModeler, the additional option "-

LTRstruct" and for RepeatMasker "-s -xsmall -e ncbi" were used. The repeat library

for RepeatMasker contains a combination of all Repbase entries (release 26.07) from

Lepidoptera and all repeat families identified from RepeatModeler.

Structural annotation of protein coding genes was conducted using TOGA [79], a

method that uses pairwise genome alignment chains between an annotated

reference genome (here *Hyles vespertilio* assembly) and other query species (here

Hyles euphorbiae). Briefly, TOGA uses machine learning to infer orthologous loci for

each reference transcript, utilizing the concept that orthologous genes display more

alignments between intronic and flanking intergenic regions [79]. TOGA then projects

each reference transcript to its orthologous query locus using CESAR 2.0 [80], a

Hidden Markov model method that takes reading frame and splice site annotation of

the reference exons into account. CESAR avoids spurious frameshifts and is able to

detect evolutionary splice site shifts and precise intron deletions [80, 81]. Using the

CESAR alignment, TOGA determines whether the transcript has inactivating

mutations (frameshifting mutations, premature stop codons, splice site disrupting

mutations, deletions of entire coding exons).

The mitochondrial genome of *H. euphorbiae* was annotated using the MITOS

WebServer [82] and the result illustrated using shinyCircos [83]. This software was

also used for the CIRCOS-Plots of the aligned genomes.

Comparison to other species

The assemblies of *H. euphorbiae* and *H. vespertilio* are compared to those of the

model species *Manduca sexta* (GCF_014839805.1) [26] and *Bombyx mori*

(GCF_014905235.1) [27]. The *Mimas tiliae* [13] and *Deilephila porcellus* [32]

genomes were still under review and was not published in time to include in a

detailed comparison in this work. To compare contiguity between *H. euphorbiae*, *H.*

vespertilio, *M. sexta* and *B. mori*, Quast 5.0.2 [84] was utilized. Assessment of

completeness regarding single copy orthologs was conducted via BUSCO 4.1.4

(Manni et al., 2021) together with the lepidoptera_odb10 set and the options "`--long`

`--offline`".

Genomes were aligned using LASTZ 1.04.03 [85] with parameters (K = 2400, L =

3000, Y = 9400, H = 2000 and the lastz default scoring matrix). Then, we used

axtChain [30] (default parameters except linearGap=loose) to compute co-linear

alignment chains, RepeatFiller [86] (default parameters) to capture previously missed

alignments between repetitive regions and chainCleaner [87] (default parameters

except minBrokenChainScore=75000 and -doPairs) to improve alignment specificity.

H. vespertilio was used as reference and *H. euphorbiae*, *B. mori* and *M. sexta* as

queries.

The genome alignment of *H. vespertilio* to *B. mori* was used to postulate

chromosome homologies and name chromosomes accordingly. Detailed values of

the proportions of homologous regions per chromosome are provided in Table S4

(supplementary file).

Table S4: Chromosome proportion values of the *B. mori – H. vespertilio* alignment.
839

Wing pattern genes

The positions of wing pattern genes *optix, wingless/wnt-1* and *cortex* (from *M. sexta*,

accession numbers see Table S1) were identified in the two *Hyles* genomes by using

the BLAT tool [30, 31] with default options as implemented in the Senckenberg

Genome browser. Blat results are presented sorted by alignment length and the

longest was chosen for every gene. The resulting *Hyles* alignment in an interval of +/-

70 Kb around the exons was downloaded from the genome browser for a plot

illustrating the divergence using the proportion (p) of nucleotide sites at which the two

genome sequences compared are different. Genomic divergence based on p-

distance values (in percent) is plotted for 2 Kb windows.

Additional public *wingless/wnt-1* sequences of further individuals of the genus *Hyles*

and the family Sphingidae (Table S3) from different sources (e.g. AToL, own) were

mapped to the *H. euphorbiae* genome using BLAT [30, 31]. The alignment together

with the *M. sexta* (XM_037446381) BLAT sequence results from both *Hyles* genomes

was used to produce a small phylogenetic tree using the online RaxML [88] BlackBox

portal (https://raxml-ng.vital-it.ch/#/) to illustrate orthology and variability.

For the gene *cortex*, we additionally compared *Hyles* data with the sequences of

Biston betularia (Geometridae; KT182637), in which the common pale (*typica*) form

was replaced by a previously unknown black (*carbonaria*) form during the Industrial

Revolution, driven by the interaction between bird predation and smoke pollution [89]

caused by a transposon in a *cortex* intron [22, 90].

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878   **References**
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