## **1** Parasite dispersal influences introgression rate

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Dispersal is a central process in biology with implications at multiple scales of organization  $^{1,2,3,4}$ . 17 18 Organisms vary in their dispersal abilities, and these differences can have important biological consequences, such as impacting the likelihood of hybridization events<sup>5</sup>. However, the factors 19 20 shaping the frequency of hybridization are still poorly understood, and therefore how dispersal 21 ability affects the opportunities for hybridization is still unknown. Here, using the ecological replicate system of dove wing and body lice (Insecta: Phthiraptera)<sup>6</sup>, we show that species with 22 23 higher dispersal abilities exhibited increased genomic signatures of introgression. Specifically, 24 we found a higher proportion of introgressed genomic reads and more reticulated phylogenetic 25 networks in wing lice, the louse group with higher dispersal abilities. Our results illustrate how 26 differences in dispersal ability can drive differences in the extent of introgression through 27 hybridization. The results from this study represent an important step for understanding the 28 factors driving hybridization. We expect our approach will stimulate future studies on the 29 ecological factors shaping hybridization to further understand this important process.

Dispersal is the permanent movement of organisms away from their place of origin. It is a fundamental process in biology with significant implications at multiple scales of organization<sup>1,2,3,4</sup>, including the reproduction of individuals, the composition of populations and

34 communities, and the geographical distribution of species  $^{1,7}$ .

Organisms differ in their dispersal abilities, and these differences have an impact on their biology, such as on the distributional range of a species or gene flow between populations<sup>5</sup>. For example, organisms with lower dispersal abilities tend to have smaller distributional ranges and populations that are genetically more structured<sup>5,8,9</sup>.

39 Dispersal ability might also affect the opportunities for hybridization between species 40 because the rates at which individuals encounter different species are likely to be higher in 41 organisms with higher dispersal capabilities. Indeed, recent evidence supports this prediction by demonstrating that range expansion is associated with the extent of introgression<sup>10,11</sup>. Similarly, 42 43 dispersal differences explain more than 30% of the variation in the width of hybrid zones across animals<sup>12</sup>. However, overall the factors influencing hybridization events are poorly known<sup>13</sup>, 44 45 and, in particular, the influence of dispersal ability on the rate of hybridization remains 46 understudied.

47 Comparisons of the effect of dispersal on hybridization should ideally hold constant most 48 factors other than dispersal. The ecological replicate system of wing and body lice (Insecta: 49 Phthiraptera) of pigeons and doves (Aves: Columbidae) has proven to be an ideal system for 50 comparing the impact of dispersal differences on other aspects of biology, such as population 51 structure and codivergence<sup>6,8,14,15,16</sup>. Both of these two lineages of feather lice occur across the 52 diversity of pigeons and doves and have the same basic life history and diet, but they 53 significantly differ in their dispersal ability<sup>17,18,19</sup>. Both wing and body lice disperse vertically

| 54 | between parents and offspring in the nest. However, wing lice can also attach to and hitchhike on                        |
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| 55 | hippoboscid flies to disperse "phoretically" between host individuals or host species <sup>17,18,19</sup> .              |
| 56 | Indeed, this additional dispersal mechanism profoundly influences their degree of  |
| 57 | population structure and cophylogenetic history <sup>8,14,16,20</sup> . In addition, wing lice have a higher rate        |
| 58 | of host-switching <sup>6,14,15</sup> (i.e., successful colonization of new host species) and of straggling <sup>21</sup> |
| 59 | (i.e., dispersal to new host species without reproduction on that new host).   |
| 60 | To compare differences in the extent of introgression between wing and body lice, we                                     |
| 61 | used whole-genome data from 71 louse individuals belonging to five taxa of wing lice                                     |
| 62 | (Columbicola) and seven taxa of body lice (Physconelloides) occurring across the same host                               |
| 63 | species. We predicted that wing lice, which have higher dispersal abilities and thus higher odds                         |
| 64 | of encountering individuals of a different louse species on the same host, should show more                              |
| 65 | extensive evidence of introgression (Fig. 1).  |
| 66 | We used two different approaches to quantify the differences in introgression between                                    |
| 67 | louse genera. First, in individual louse genomes, we quantified the genomic contributions from                           |
| 68 | different closely related louse species of the same genus <sup>22</sup> . Second, we quantified introgression at         |
| 69 | the species level, accounting for incomplete lineage sorting (ILS) by inferring phylogenetic                             |
| 70 | networks using a maximum pseudo-likelihood framework <sup>23,24,25</sup> .   |
| 71 | Both approaches revealed highly concordant results; higher levels of introgression among                                 |
| 72 | species of wing lice compared to body lice. In particular, using a read-mapping based method,                            |
| 73 | the genomic signature of introgression was significantly higher in wing louse species than in                            |
| 74 | body louse species (GLM with the mean values of the simulations; $F = 21.0705$ , $df = 69$ , $P =$                       |
| 75 | 2.367 x 10 <sup>-5</sup> ; Fig. 2, Supplementary Table S1, Figs. S1-S12).  |
|    |  |

Secondly, in a phylogenetic network framework, the optimal networks of wing lice were more reticulated than those of body lice even though the number of taxa included in the networks was lower (seven reticulations in *Columbicola* vs. four in *Physconelloides*, Fig. 3). Accordingly, the number of reticulations given the number of potential combinations was significantly higher  $(\chi^2 = 3.8132; df=1; P= 0.03)$ . Also, the specific lineages involved in the reticulations were generally congruent with signatures of introgression from the read-mapping based approach (Fig. S1-S12).

83 Taken together, evidence from wing and body louse genomes suggests that differences in 84 dispersal ability drive differences in the extent of introgression in this system of ecological 85 replicate parasites. This work is among the first studies of introgression in a host-symbiont system<sup>26</sup>. Notably, recent studies have found that straggling and host switching are relatively 86 common processes in host-symbiont systems<sup>27,28,29,30</sup>. Our study suggests that in a 87 88 straggling/host-switching scenario, hybridization can provide further variation with important eco-evolutionary consequences<sup>31</sup>. Overall, the results from this study represent a significant step 89 90 towards understanding the factors driving hybridization, because most previous studies focus on 91 the presence/absence of hybridization and the evolutionary consequences of hybridization 92 events<sup>13,32</sup>. Further research is needed to understand the factors shaping the frequency of 93 hybridization and how these factors influence eco-evolutionary dynamics.

# 95 Methods

### 96 <u>Data</u>

| 97  | We studied whole genome data from 71 louse individuals belonging to five and seven taxa                       |
|-----|---|
| 98  | of Columbicola and Physconelloides, respectively (Supplementary Table S2). Data were                          |
| 99  | available from previous studies <sup>16,33,34</sup> and represent all described New World ground-dove wing    |
| 100 | and body louse species, most host species in this group, and sampling across multiple                         |
| 101 | biogeographic areas within species <sup>16</sup> (Supplementary Table S2). Illumina genome sequence data      |
| 102 | pre-processing included several steps <sup>16</sup> . First, we discarded duplicate read pairs using the      |
| 103 | fastqSplitDups script (https://github.com/McIntyre-   |
| 104 | Lab/mcscriptand https://github.com/McIntyre-Lab/mclib). We then eliminated the Illumina                       |
| 105 | sequencing adapters with Fastx_clipper v0.014 from the FASTX-Toolkit  |
| 106 | (http://hannonlab.cshl.edu/fastx_toolkit). Also, we removed the first 5 nt from the 5' ends of                |
| 107 | reads using Fastx_trimmer v0.014 and trimmed bases from the 3' ends of reads until reaching a                 |
| 108 | base with a phred score $\geq$ 28 using Fastq_quality_trimmer v0.014. Finally, we removed any reads           |
| 109 | less than 75 nt and analyzed the cleaned libraries with Fastqc v0.11.5 to check for additional                |
| 110 | errors. We assembled nuclear loci in aTRAM following previous studies <sup>16,33,34,35</sup> . In particular, |
| 111 | we mapped modest coverage (25-60X), multiplexed genomic data to reference loci from a                         |
| 112 | closely related taxon. For our reference set of nuclear loci for wing lice, we used 1,039 exons               |
| 113 | of Columbicola drowni generated in a previous study <sup>33</sup> (raw data: SRR3161922). This data set       |
| 114 | was assembled de novo <sup>35</sup> using orthologous protein-coding genes from the human body louse          |
| 115 | genome ( <i>Pediculus humanus humanus</i> <sup>36</sup> ) as a set of target sequences. We mapped our newly   |
| 116 | generated Columbicola reads and the reads obtained from GenBank to the C. drowni references                   |
| 117 | using Bowtie2 <sup>37</sup> . For body lice, we obtained nuclear data using the same pipeline and software    |

parameters, except that we used 1,095 loci from *P. emersoni* as the reference for mapping. To generate the input ultrametric gene trees for Phylonet v3.6.8<sup>23,24,25</sup>, we first aligned each nuclear locus in MAFFT<sup>38</sup>(--auto) and removed columns with only ambiguous sequences ("N"). Then, we estimated gene trees in RAxML v8.1.3<sup>39</sup> with a GTR +  $\Gamma$  substitution model for each gene alignment. Finally, we made trees ultrametric using the nnls method in the *force.ultrametric* function within the "phytools" R package<sup>40</sup>.

#### 124 <u>Quantifying introgression</u>

125 We used two different approaches to quantify differences in the extent of introgression between the two louse genera. First, we used sppIDer<sup>22</sup> to quantify the genomic contributions of different 126 127 louse species in an individual louse genome. We built our reference for each genus using all the 128 nuclear loci from a single individual per species. For the reference, we selected those individuals 129 for which we assembled the highest number of loci. Finally, we estimated the extent of 130 introgression as the sum of the mean coverages of reads mapped from all the species excluding 131 the focal louse species, divided by the mean coverage of the focal louse species. Second, we 132 quantified introgression at the species level, while accounting for ILS, using a maximum pseudolikelihood framework with PhyloNet 3.6.1<sup>23,24,25</sup>. We trimmed the unrooted gene trees to the 133 134 same individuals used as reference taxa in sppIDer, and performed ten independent analyses with 135 a differing maximum number of reticulation nodes (i.e., from zero to ten). We conducted ten 136 runs per analysis. We then selected the optimal network for each genus based on AIC values.

137 <u>Analyses</u>

We compared the sppIDer results using generalized linear models (GLMs). We used a Gaussiandistribution of errors and an identity link function. We performed one GLM for each simulation

| 140 | iteration using the <i>glm</i> function of the "stats" R package <sup>41</sup> . The extent of introgression for each |
|-----|---|
| 141 | louse genus was the dependent variable, the genus identity was the independent variable, and we                       |
| 142 | accounted for the introgression differences between louse species including louse identity as a                       |
| 143 | fixed factor. We confirmed assumptions underlying GLMs by testing the normality of regression                         |
| 144 | residuals for normality against a Q-Q plot. We also considered the possibility that some of the                       |
| 145 | reads mapping to other species were technical contaminations, i.e., due to index-                                     |
| 146 | swapping $^{42,43,44,45}$ . To account for possible contaminants, we wrote a simulation in R that                     |
| 147 | randomly subtracted 9% from the mean coverage value of a particular sample (i.e., we subtracted                       |
| 148 | a random proportion of the mean coverage value for each species until reaching 9 %). We ran                           |
| 149 | 100 iterations of the simulation and ran a GLM for each iteration (Table S1). Finally, we used                        |
| 150 | the $\chi^2$ test to compare the number of species in pairwise comparisons of each genus with the                     |
| 151 | number of reticulations found in each optimal phylogenetic network.   |
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### 260 Additional information

Table S1, S2 and, Figures S1-S12 are embedded into the supplementary\_material.html file.

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265

#### 266 Author contributions

- 267 J.D., and K.P.J. conceived the study. J.D., A.D.S., and K.P.J. designed the study. A.D.S.
- 268 collected the data. J.D. and A.D.S. analysed the data. K.P.J. obtained financial support for the
- 269 project. J.D. wrote the manuscript and all authors contributed to editing the manuscript.

270

### 271 Data and materials availability

- All data needed to evaluate the conclusions in the paper are present in the paper and/or the
- 273 Supplementary Materials. Additional data related to this paper may be requested from the
- authors.

275

## 276 Competing interests

277 The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

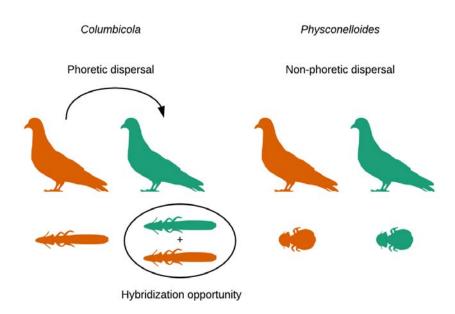
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279 **Correspondence and requests for materials** should be addressed to J.D (jorged@illinois.edu)

280 or K.P.J. (kpjohnso@illinois.edu).

- Figure 1. Diagram depicting the ecological replicate system and the hypothesis of this
- study. Wing lice (*Columbicola*) have higher dispersal abilities than body lice (*Physconelloides*),
- and thus higher odds of encountering individuals of a different louse species on the same host.
- 285 Thus, wing lice are predicted to show higher levels of introgression compared to body lice.

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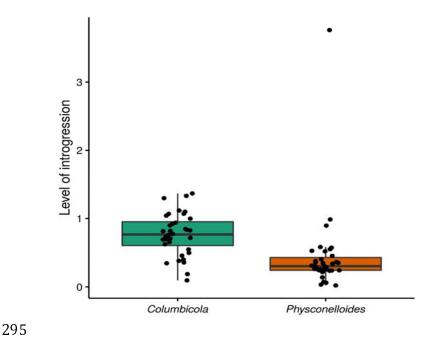


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Figure 2. Boxplot showing the differences in levels of introgression between wing (green) and

- body (orange) lice. Level of introgression represents the sum of the mean coverage of
- reads mapped from all the species excluding the focal louse species, divided by the mean
- 292 coverage of the focal louse species (see Methods). Black dots represent individual samples
- 293 (horizontally jittered).

294



- **Figure 3**. Optimal phylogenetic networks of feather lice genera. Orange branches depict
- 298 reticulations. From left to right, Columbicola (seven reticulations) and Physconelloides (four
- 299 reticulations) networks (See Methods).

