A major locus controls a biologically active pheromone component in *Heliconius melpomene*

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Running title: Genetics of bioactive pheromones in *Heliconius*

Abstract

Pheromones are important for courtship and mate choice in many insects, but we know relatively little of their role in butterflies. The butterfly *Heliconius melpomene* uses a complex blend of wing androconial compounds during courtship. Electroantennography in *H. melpomene* and its close relative *H. cydno* showed that responses to androconial extracts were not species-specific. Females of both species responded more strongly to the *H. cydno* extract, suggesting conservation of peripheral nervous system elements across the two species. Individual blend components provoked little to no response, with the exception of octadecanal, a major component of the *H. melpomene* blend. Supplementing octadecanal on the wings of octadecanal-rich *H. melpomene* males led to an increase in the time until mating, demonstrating the bioactivity of octadecanal in *Heliconius*. Using quantitative trait locus (QTL) mapping, we identified a single locus on chromosome 20 responsible for 41% of the parental species' difference in octadecanal production. This QTL does not overlap with any of the major wing color or mate choice loci, nor does it overlap with known regions of elevated or reduced F_{ST}. A set of 16 candidate fatty acid biosynthesis genes lies underneath the QTL.

Introduction

Chemical communication is the oldest form of sensory communication, and is found across the tree of life from bacteria (1) to humans (2,3). In Lepidoptera, work on pheromones has largely focused on female pheromones of nocturnal moths, where relatively simple alterations to pheromones can produce drastic differences in mate attraction. For example, different populations of the corn borer moth *Ostrinia nubialis* exhibit a simple *cis* to *trans* switch in the pheromone 11-tetradecenyl acetate (4) that leads to partial reproductive isolation between them (5). Sex pheromones have been less well studied in day-flying butterflies, where visual signaling is often assumed to play a more dominant role in mate choice (6). However, male butterflies also emit close-range pheromone bouquets which may act in concert with other wing pattern and behavioral cues (7), and are important in mate choice (8).

Despite the potential importance of pheromones in butterflies, pheromones have so far been identified in only a handful of butterfly species (9,10,11,12,13,14,15,16). Within butterflies, the genetic basis of pheromone production is known only in *Bicyclus anynana* (17). As in other diurnal butterflies, the chemical bouquets of *Heliconius* (8,18), are often complex, both in identity and quantity of compounds; however, just a few individual compounds may be biologically active pheromones. Identifying which

components of these complex chemical bouquets are responsible for pheromonal communication is a

considerable challenge. This is particularly true as even minor compounds can have major effects

(19,20). Determining pheromone bioactivity requires screening compounds via physiological activity

followed by behavioral verification, and in many cases pheromone bouquet composition is known but

the bioactive components remain unidentified.

To better characterize male butterfly pheromone production and the role it plays in mating and species

recognition, we first comprehensively analyzed pheromone bouquets of the closely related *Heliconius*

melpomene and *H. cydno* butterflies to determine the most important bioactive compounds. We further

mapped a genetic locus likely responsible for the differential biosynthesis of the main fatty-acid

compound between the two species. The two species are closely related yet strongly reproductively

isolated (21). Over the past decade there has been considerable research into genomic architecture of

differences in wing pattern and mate preference (21,22). Surprisingly, both wing color and mating

preferences between these species have a relatively simple genetic basis with a large proportion of the

difference between parental forms being controlled by a small handful of loci of large effect (21,22). This

has important implications for speciation, as theory predicts that large effect loci should facilitate

speciation in the face of gene flow (23). Similarly, clustering of genetic loci that contribute to speciation

can also make speciation easier (24,25), and there is evidence for tight linkage of a gene controlling wing

pattern and a QTL underlying divergent preference behaviors (22). Here, we identify an

electrophysiologically active compound, octadecanal, explore its behavioral role, and investigate the

genetic basis of its production in *H. melpomene* using QTL mapping.

Results

<u>Androconial chemical bouquets of *Heliconius melpomene* and *H. cydno*</u>

In order to identify candidate pheromone compounds, we first investigated the distribution of chemical

compounds on the wings of *H. cydno* for comparison with published data on *H. melpomene* (Figure 1).

We found that the bouquet of *H. cydno* was simpler than that of *H. melpomene*, with 7 main compounds

versus 21 in *H. melpomene*. *Heliconius cydno* also had a less abundant overall bouquet, with an

individual total of 1787 ± 776 ng vs. 3174 ± 1040 ng in *H. melpomene* (Table S1). Most of the main

compounds (defined as those occurring in at least 90% of individuals) in *H. cydno* were linear alkanes (4

of 7 compounds), while *H. melpomene* has a more diverse array of different compound classes. Of the

five major compounds (> 100ng per individual) in *H. melpomene*, only syringaldehyde was found in

similar amounts in *H. cydno*; the major compounds octadecanal, 1-octadecanol, (*Z*)-11-icosenal, and (*Z*)-

11-icosenol were absent or found in very low amounts in *H. cydno*. Comparison with previously

published data for other *Heliconius* species, all of which lack octadecanal in the large amounts seen in *H.*

melpomene, demonstrates that this high level of octadecanal is an evolutionarily derived state in *H.*

melpomene (18,26). When focusing on the hindwing androconia of *H. cydno*, only two compounds

[syringaldehyde (24.7% of the hindwing androconial bouquet) and (*Z*)-11-icosenol (1.7%)] were specific

to this region. For details, please see SI text, Figures S1-S3, and Tables S1-S2.

<u>Electroantennographic responses to con- and heterospecific pheromone stimulus sets</u>

We next investigated the electroantennographic (EAG) response of both species to natural con- and

heterospecific pheromone bouquets extracted from adult male butterflies. Females of both *H.*

melpomene and *H. cydno* responded more strongly (i.e. showed a larger voltage displacement from the

antennal baseline) to both natural wing extracts (Mnat and Cnat, respectively) as compared with the

control solvent (dichloromethane plus 1 ng/μL 2-tetradecyl acetate, hereafter "DCM+IS") (Figure 2,

Figure S6; see Table S3 for statistical details). Males of both species also responded to both wing

extracts. Females of both species showed stronger responses to *H. cydno* wing extracts than to *H.*

melpomene wing extracts. Responses differed in males, with *H. melpomene* males responding equally to

both species' wing extracts, while males of *H. cydno* responded more strongly to wing extracts of *H.*

melpomene.

We then explored antennal responses to synthetic compound blends. These were based on the most

abundant compounds from each species (see Methods, Figure S4). Responses to the synthetic *H.*

melpomene wing blend were mixed in *H. melpomene* females. In the first stimulus set (comparison of

hetero- and conspecific stimuli) the synthetic blend (Msyn) yielded stronger responses than the natural

H. melpomene wing extracts (Figure 2, Table S3) but in the second stimulus set (individual pheromone

components) the synthetic blend yielded weaker responses than the natural *H. melpomene* wing

extracts (Figure 3, Table S3). A similar pattern was seen in male *H. melpomene*. Both sexes of *H. cydno*

produced only a modest response to the synthetic *H. cydno* wing blend (Csyn) when compared with the

hexane solvent. In all cases this response was lower than to natural *H. cydno* wing extract.

<u>Electroantennographic responses to individual pheromone components from both species</u>

Finally, we explored the responses to individual compounds to identify specific biologically active

pheromone components. Only octadecanal differed significantly from the controls in all four species-sex

combinations (Figure 3, Table 1, Table S3). Both sexes of *H. cydno* also showed altered responses to the

shared compound (*Z*)-11-icosenol, with an increased response in *H. cydno* males and a decreased

response in *H. cydno* females. Both *H. cydno* females and *H. melpomene* males had decreased responses

to (*Z*)-11-icosenal. *Heliconius cydno* females also showed a decreased response to (*Z*)-13-docosenal.

Male *H. cydno* had increased responses to 1-octadecanol and henicosane. No other compound-species-

sex combinations were significantly different from hexane. The shared compound syringaldehyde was

the only pheromone component to show no change in EAG amplitude relative to the solvents in any

species-sex combination.

In females of both species, response to octadecanal was stronger than response to the conspecific

synthetic mixture. By contrast, male *H. melpomene* responded equally to the conspecific synthetic

mixture and octadecanal, while male *H. cydno* responded equally to the conspecific synthetic mixture

and both its components syringaldehyde and henicosane, with no evidence for a synergistic mixture

effect. Individual components (with the exception of octadecanal) were not equivalent to the synthetic

blends for females of both *H. melpomene* and *H. cydno*, suggesting a synergistic mixture effect. Antennal

responses to a given stimulus can change over time, and this may reflect biological processes of

neuronal adaptation. Female *H. melpomene* adapted equally quickly to octadecanal and the natural and

synthetic *H. melpomene* pheromones, while adaptation to other stimuli was equal to the control, further

supporting octadecanal's salience as the main pheromone in *H. melpomen*e (see SI text, Figures S7-S8,

and Table S4).

<u>Behavioral response to octadecanal supplementation in *H. melpomene*</u>

We next confirmed a behavioral response to the most physiologically active substance, octadecanal, one

of the dominant compounds in *H. melpomene*. A total of 29 behavioral experiments were conducted,

with mating observed in 18 (62%); one trial was excluded due to wing damage, leaving 17 successful

matings. With our small sample size, we found no evidence that females showed a preference for either

treatment, mating with the hexane male 11 times (65%) and with the octadecanal male the remaining 6

times (35%) (p = 0.332). However, mating latency (time from experiment onset to mating) was

significantly longer for the octadecanal matings (average 88.5 minutes) than for the hexane matings

(average 43.7 minutes; t = 2.7848, df = 8.2491, p = 0.023). There was no evidence that this mating

latency was due to evaporation of the octadecanal treatment, as there was no detectable drop in

octadecanal quantity in the hindwing androconia over time [comparison of 30 minute and 2 hour

treatments (Figure S9)]. Furthermore, little octadecanal rubbed off onto the forewing overlap region.

Interestingly, although about 5.5x as much octadecanal as normal should have been present on the

wings of treated males, only about 2-2.5x was seen after 30 minutes (the time at which the female

would be introduced to the two males), suggesting some of the added octadecanal was lost before the

start of the behavioral experiments, perhaps due to oxidization or pheromone hydrolysis, as has been

shown in some moths (27).

<u>Genetic basis of octadecanal production in *H. melpomene*</u>

Analysis of octadecanal production by F_1 males showed that the *H. cydno* octadecanal phenotype (little

to no octadecanal) is dominant over the octadecanal-rich *H. melpomene* phenotype, and octadecanal

production segregates in backcrosses to *H. melpomene* (Figure S10). Using the variance within the

backcross individuals, we calculated a Castle-Wright estimator of 0.81 loci, suggesting a potentially

monogenic basis for octadecanal production in *H. melpomene*. Quantitative trait locus (QTL) mapping

revealed a single significant peak on chromosome 20 (Figure 4a, Figure S11). The chromosome 20 peak

remained significant when kinship was taken into account and explained 41.31% of the difference

between the two parent species. Bayesian confidence intervals for the peak on chromosome 20 were

identical with and without kinship, spanning a range of 46.9-56.37cM with the peak at 47.66cM (with or

without kinship), corresponding to a physical range of 3.4Mb along chromosome 20. To ensure that our

findings were replicable across individual families, we also constructed effect plots at the kinship peak

for each family separately, and all showed the same directionality (Figure 4b). The peak on chromosome

20 does not overlap with any of the major wing color loci (21,28), nor does it overlap with mate choice

QTL (22). The confidence interval region contains 160 genes, all of which represent potential candidates

for octadecanal production.

We next evaluated the evidence in support of the 160 genes in this interval to identify top candidates

for octadecanal production. In total, 14 were putative fatty-acyl CoA reductases (FARs), which catalyze

the conversion of fatty acids to alcohols via a bound aldehyde intermediate (Table S5). Octadecanal is

most likely produced via this pathway (Figure 4c), either as a direct product of a FAR-catalyzed

conversion of 18-carbon stearic acid (by releasing the bound intermediate directly) or as a product of a

further dehydrogenation of the alcohol intermediate (octadecanol) to the aldehyde product. Two

candidate alcohol dehydrogenases, which might catalyze this reaction, were also contained within the

region, yielding a total of 16 candidates. To ascertain whether octadecanol might serve as the precursor

to octadecanal in *H. melpomene*, we also searched for QTL underlying octadecanol production (Castle-

Wright estimator of 0.71 loci), and found a very similar pattern to octadecanal, with a single QTL peak

on chromosome 20 (Figure 4d) explaining 25.36% of the difference between the two parent species.

This peak broadly overlapped the octadecanal peak, with a much broader confidence interval from

10.91-56.37cm (12.9Mb) and a peak at 51.82cM regardless of whether kinship was taken into account

(Figure S11). The 14 FARs in the region are highly clustered, with a set of eight found within a 133kb

region. Sequence comparison between the *H. melpomene* and *H. cydno* alleles showed that nearly all of

these genes harbor nonsynonymous SNPs between the two species (Table S5, Supplementary Data 1).

One gene showed no coding SNPs between the two species; nine had between three and 24

nonsynonymous SNPs; and four had more substantial changes, including missing exons and frameshifts.

The final two genes (one alcohol dehydrogenase and one FAR) could not be found in the *H. cydno*

genome, and may instead represent annotation or assembly errors in *H. melpomene* or, alternately,

deletions in *H. cydno*. Nearly all of the intact genes displayed purifying selection (ω between 0.001 and

0.2459), with only the remaining alcohol dehydrogenase ($\omega = 1.2478$) under positive selection (Table

S5). Taken together, these results suggest that either of the alcohol dehydrogenase candidates may

underlie the production of bioactive octadecanal from octadecanol in *H. melpomene*, although

functional experiments are required to confirm this hypothesis. Alternately, as QTL for octadecanal and

its likely precursor octadecanol overlap, a single FAR may be responsible for producing both volatiles.

Discussion

Previous work has shown that male *Heliconius* butterflies use pheromones during courtship, and the

presence of these pheromones is necessary for successful mating to take place (8). Here we

demonstrate that the two closely related species with strong mating differences, *H. melpomene* and *H.*

cydno, show strong differences in chemical bouquets with a number of major compounds including

octadecanal, 1-octadecanol, (*Z*)-11-icosenal, and (*Z*)-11-icosenol found in high concentrations in *H.*

melpomene but largely absent in *H. cydno*, consistent with prior results (18,26). Somewhat surprisingly,

despite these strongly divergent pheromone signals, there was little difference in antennal response to

both overall wing chemical bouquets and various chemical components between the species. Indeed,

only octadecanal elicited a significant response in *H. melpomene*. Somewhat surprisingly, octadecanal

was also physiologically active in *H. cydno*, where it is largely absent from the male wing bouquet.

These data stand in marked contrast to similar studies in other insect species and suggest that the

peripheral nervous system architecture of *H. melpomene* and *H. cydno* has not diverged alongside their

wing pheromone components. By contrast, the moth *Ostrinia nubialis*, whose *E*- and *Z*-strains diverged

approximately 75,000-150,000 years ago (29), have opposite topologies in the antennal lobe and

antennal sensillae (30,31), and similar divergence in peripheral nervous system architecture has been

seen in *Rhagoletis pomonella* (32,33) and *Drosophila mojavensis* (34,35) despite much shorter

divergence times than between *H. melpomene* and *H. cydno*. Our results in *Heliconius* parallel what is

seen in *Colias* butterflies, where *C. eurytheme* and *C. philodice* show very similar female

electrophysiological responses to the con- and heterospecific pheromone compounds, despite a

behavioral effect of treating males with heterospecific pheromones (11). However, *Colias* use multiple

signals when choosing between mates (36), so rapid divergence in peripheral nervous system elements

may not be necessary for full reproductive isolation. A similar pattern most likely occurs in *Heliconius*,

with EAG responses very similar between species, and probable differences in the antennal lobe and

higher brain regions (e.g. the mushroom body or lateral protocerebrum) driving behavioral differences

(see e.g. (37)). Female *Heliconius* butterflies likely integrate multiple signals (including pheromones,

male courtship flights, and visual cues) in these higher brain regions when making the decision to mate.

We have identified octadecanal as the major pheromone component in *H. melpomene* and showed that

responses to it are conserved across both species despite its general absence in *H. cydno*. In the

Lepidoptera, the activity of octadecanal as a pheromone has been tested in eight species across a

variety of families (16,38,39,40,41,42,43,44,45). Only in *Cerconota anonella* (44), and now in *Heliconius*

melpomene, has some electrophysiological and behavioral activity been seen. The closely related

hexadecanal is a major pheromone component in the butterfly *Bicyclus anynana* (15), and differs from

octadecanal only in its origin from palmitic rather than stearic acid and carbon number, so octadecanal's

role as a pheromone in *Heliconius* is perhaps not entirely unexpected from a biochemical perspective. In

contrast, we have failed to discover the physiologically active pheromone(s) in *H. cydno*. This is not

entirely unexpected, as we focused on the most abundant compounds, but minor components have

been shown to be important in other systems (19,20).

Intriguingly, despite the strong EAG response, there was a marked negative behavioral response to

increased octadecanal. A plausible explanation for the negative behavioral response to octadecanal

supplementation is that disruption of the normal mixture ratios of *H. melpomene* may inhibit the female

response, as seen in the butterfly *Pieris napi*, where synergistic processing of two volatile components in

the male bouquet is necessary for acceptance behavior (46). Octadecanal may also experience a dose-

response curve with an aversive response to higher concentrations and an attractive response at lower

ones. Potential mixture or dosage effects suggest that female *H. melpomene* may use octadecanal

quantity or relative abundance to assess male quality or choose between courting males. The increased

mating latency with octadecanal-treated males may reflect females undergoing a period of adjustment,

either in the peripheral or central nervous system, to the higher dose of octadecanal; this would be

consistent with our results showing long-term adaptation to octadecanal. We remain uncertain of what

effect, if any, octadecanal would have on the behavior of *H. cydno*, where it is largely absent from the

male pheromone bouquet. It may be used to avoid courtship with *H. melpomene*, supporting other

divergent signals in maintaining reproductive isolation.

Given the strong physiological and behavioral response to octadecanal, and its possible role in

reproductive isolation between *H. melpomene* and *H. cydno*, we sought to understand its genetic

underpinnings. Fatty-acid derived compounds comprise the largest category of Lepidoptera sex

pheromones (47), and are produced from fatty acyl-CoA precursors via the action of several enzymes.

Since these pheromones are secondary metabolites derived from primary metabolic pathways, their

production is likely to be relatively labile in evolutionary terms, allowing simple genetic changes to drive

the wide diversity of lepidopteran sex pheromones. Even though we have a broad knowledge of

pheromone diversity in Lepidoptera, our understanding of the genetics of pheromone biosynthesis is

relatively weak. To date, only a handful of genes have been identified, mostly desaturases and fatty acyl-

CoA reductases (48).

Using a QTL mapping approach, we have shown that the production of octadecanal has a relatively

simple genetic basis, with a region on chromosome 20 corresponding to production of both octadecanal

and its likely precursor octadecanol in *Heliconius*. This locus therefore likely represents a region under

divergent selection between *H. melpomene* and *H. cydno* that is unlinked to previously identified species

differences in color and mate choice (21,22). Patterns of F_{ST} between the species are highly

heterogeneous and were not especially informative in further delimiting the locus (data from (49)). Due

to our small mapping population, the confidence intervals for these QTL therefore remain large: the

octadecanal QTL spans 3.4Mb and contains 160 genes. Of these, we identified 16 likely candidate genes

based on known biosynthetic pathways in moths and the butterfly *Bicyclus anynana* (17): 14 fatty acyl-

CoA reductases and two alcohol dehydrogenases. Fatty acyl-CoA reductases have previously been

identified in *H. melpomene* by (17), who noted lineage-specific duplications within *H. melpomene* on

two scaffolds corresponding to *H. melpomene* chromosomes 19 and 20. All but one of the candidate

FARs found on chromosome 20 were identified by Lienard et al, but all fall outside their clade of

pheromone gland FARs. The identified *Bicyclus* FAR that produces hexadecanol does not also produce

the major pheromone hexadecanal, implying the presence of an additional as yet undescribed alcohol

dehydrogenase in *Bicyclus*, and the biochemical similarity between hexadecanal and octadecanal

suggests *Heliconius* may also use an alcohol dehydrogenase to produce octadecanal. By contrast, the

overlapping octadecanol and octadecanal QTL on chromosome 20 in *Heliconius* suggest the presence of

a bifunctional FAR that produces both the alcohol and aldehyde together. Further studies, including

functional assays and location of wing pheromone biosynthesis, will be required to tease apart our

potential candidates.

Our studies of the electrophysiological and behavioral responses of *Heliconius* butterflies and the

genetic basis of pheromone production add to the growing body of literature suggesting that

pheromonal communication in Lepidoptera is not limited to nocturnal moths but can be found in day-

flying butterflies that also use striking visual signals. *Heliconius* butterflies can detect con- and

heterospecific wing compound bouquets, and a major component, octadecanal, is physiologically and

behaviorally active in *H. melpomene* and its genetic basis appears relatively simple, consistent with

other pheromone shifts found in insects (50). Along with their striking wing color patterns, male

Heliconius use chemistry to affect female mate choice, combining courtship behaviors, and chemistry in

a dance to elicit female mating responses (7,51). Despite our human bias towards visual signals, we are

now beginning to understand how such visually striking butterflies communicate using chemistry.

Methods

Data and analysis code are deposited in Dryad under accession XXX. Sequencing reads leading to linkage

map construction are deposited in the European Nucleotide Archive (ENA) under accession YYY.

<u>Butterflies</u>

Stocks from central Panama of *Heliconius melpomene rosina* and *H. cydno chioneus* (hereafter *H.*

melpomene and *H. cydno*) were used for all experiments (8). Butterflies were reared in insectaries at the

Smithsonian Tropical Research Institute, Gamboa, Panama under ambient temperature and light

conditions. Eggs were collected from these breeding stocks and the resulting larvae fed on *Passiflora*

platyloba var. williamsi, *P. biflora*, *P. menispermifolia*, and *P. vitifolia* until pupation. Data from (52)

indicate that larval diet does not affect the major compounds found in *H. melpomene*, suggesting that

this dietary variation is unlikely to affect results. Newly-eclosed adult butterflies were separated by sex

to ensure virgin status and supplied with flowers from *Psiguria warscewiczii*, *Psiguria triphylla*, *Gurania*

eriantha, *Psychotria poeppigiana*, *Stachytarpheta mutabilis*, and *Lantana* sp. (most likely *L. camara*) as

pollen sources, as well as a ~20% sucrose solution as a nectar source. All experiments used virgin

butterflies. For assessment of *H. cydno* wing bouquets, male butterflies were between 10-12 days post

eclosion and had fed exclusively on *Passiflora platyloba var. williamsi*. For electrophysiology, female

butterflies were between 1 and 20 days post eclosion, and males between 10-20 days post eclosion to

ensure male sexual maturity (8). For behavior, female butterflies were used the day after eclosion and

males were between 10 and 59 days post eclosion. Natural wing extracts of both species were extracted

from males 10-12 days post eclosion as described in (8) using dichloromethane plus 1 ng/μL 2-tetradecyl

acetate (hereafter "DCM+IS") and concentrated approximately 10x prior to use under room air. All

samples were stored at -20°C before use.

<u>Identification and quantification of androconial compounds</u>

To identify species specific compounds among our two species, the chemical composition of the *H.*

cydno androconial bouquet was investigated in samples from 26 adult male *H. cydno* and compared with

31 adult male *H. melpomene*, the latter including samples previously analyzed in (8,52), all collected as

above. Samples were assessed using gas chromatography-mass spectrometry (GC-MS) with an Agilent

7890B gas chromatograph coupled with an Agilent 5977 mass spectrometer with electron ionization

(Agilent Technologies, California, USA). The GC utilized an Agilent HP-5MS capillary column (30m length,

0.25mm inner diameter), helium carrier gas at 1.2 mL/minute, and an Agilent ALS 7693 autosampler.

Injection was splitless with an inlet temperature of 250°C. The temperature ramp was isothermal at 50°C

for 5 minutes, then increased at 5°C/minute to 320°C and was then isothermal for 5 minutes. Samples

were identified using a custom MS library and quantified by comparison with the internal standard.

In line with (8), wings from eight male *H. cydno* were dissected into four regions: hindwing androconia,

forewing overlap region, hindwing rest-of-wing, and forewing rest-of-wing, and all extracted identically

after dissection. Wing region area was quantified by photographing the wings before dissection and

measuring the total pixel area of each wing region in the GNU Image Manipulation Program v.2.8.20

(GIMP Development Team), with the pixel-mm conversion via measurement of a ruler in the

photograph. Quantified compounds in each wing region for each individual were scaled by the area of

the relevant wing region in that individual.

<u>Chemicals</u>

Syringaldehyde (3,5-dimethoxy-4-hydroxybenzaldehyde), 1-octadecanol, and henicosane were obtained

commercially (Sigma-Aldrich). The aldehydes octadecanal, (Z)-11-icosenal, and (Z)-13-docosenal were

obtained from the respective alcohols 1-octadecanol, (Z)-11-icosen-1-ol, and (Z)-13-docosen-1-ol by

oxidation with iodoxybenzoic acid (IBX) in ethyl acetate according to (53). The required alcohols (Z)-11-

icosen-1-ol and (Z)-13-docosen-1-ol were in turn obtained by lithium aluminum hydride reduction from

commercially available (Z)-11-icosenoic acid and methyl (Z)-13-docosenoate (Larodan) according to (54).

The seven target compounds (see Figures S4 and S5 for structures and reaction scheme) were chosen

due to their quantitative dominance in the chemical profiles of *H. melpomene* and *H. cydno*. The solvent

for all synthesized compounds was hexane, with the exception of the polar syringaldehyde, which was

diluted in a 1:10 mixteur of dichloromethane and hexane.

Synthetic blends of *H. melpomene* and *H. cydno* male wing bouquets were prepared from these

synthesized compounds. Synthetic *H. melpomene* contained 23.22 ng/µL syringaldehyde, 23.33 ng/µL

octadecanal, 6.92 ng/µL 1-octadecanol, 4.67 ng/µL (Z)-11-icosenal, 20.33 ng/µL (Z)-11-icosenol, and 4.83

ng/µL (Z)-13-docosenal. Synthetic *H. cydno* contained 47 ng/µL syringaldehyde and 93.33 ng/µL

henicosane. Floral direct extractions from *Lantana* sp. (most likely *L. camara*) growing wild in Gamboa,

Panama were used as a positive control. Single umbels were removed from plants at dawn and placed in

a scintillation vial to which 400uL of DCM+IS was added. After 1 hour, the DCM+IS was removed to a

glass vial and kept at -20°C before use.

<u>Electroantennography</u>

Electrophysiological preparations were assembled as follows: antennae were cut from the head of a

virgin butterfly using fine scissors and the final 6.5 segments (approximately 1.5mm) cut off with a

scalpel. Both antennae were then placed in parallel across an antenna fork (Syntech, Buchenbach,

Germany) and held in place using electrode gel (Spectra 360 Electrode Gel, Parker Laboratories Inc.,

Fairfield, NJ, USA). The antenna fork was mounted on a Syntech EAG CombiProbe with 10x internal gain,

and signal from this was routed through a Syntech IDAC4. EAG waveforms recorded using Syntech

GcEad/2014 software. Stimulus pulses were delivered using a Syntech CS-55 Stimulus Controller with

foot pedal trigger. Both continuous unhumified room air and stimulus pulses were delivered to the

preparation at 1.5 liters/min. The stimulus pulses were delivered in triplets of 0.5 seconds each,

separated by 5 seconds, with triplets initiated every 30 seconds. Stimulus delivery used odor cartridges

assembled from Pasteur pipettes with a strip of filter paper plugged with cotton when not in use; each

stimulus cartridge was 'charged' with 10uL of stimulus solution for each experiment. Each antennal

preparation was used only once.

Two sets of stimuli were delivered: a species comparison set and a synthetic compound set. Both sets

used air (nothing added to filter paper), hexane, and DCM+IS as negative controls and *Lantana* extract as

a positive control. The species comparison set included male wing extracts from *H. melpomene* and *H.*

cydno ("Mnat" and "Cnat" respectively) and synthetic blends representing the two species ("Msyn" and

Csyn"). The synthetic compound set included air, hexane, DCM+IS, the conspecific male wing extract,

the conspecific synthetic blend, and the seven synthetic compounds. Presentation order was

randomized before each experiment. Species comparison experiments consisted of sixteen pulses each

of the seven stimuli, interspersed with five pulses of *Lantana* extract at the start, between every three

stimuli, and at the end. Synthetic compounds were similar, with eleven pulses of each of the twelve

stimuli, interspersed with four pulses of *Lantana* at the start, between every four stimuli, and at the end.

For analysis, the first triplet of each stimulus set was removed, leaving fifteen and ten pulses

respectively. At least ten female and five male butterflies of each species were used with each

experiment.

Onset time and amplitude of EAG responses were marked using GcEad/2014. To control for antennal

signal degradation over time, a time-dependent correction factor was calculated using linear

interpolation between each *Lantana* set and this applied to the absolute value of the EAG response

amplitude. These corrected amplitudes were then scaled to the amplitude of the initial *Lantana* set to

partially control for differences between preparations.

<u>Analysis of antennal adaptation</u>

Short-term adaptation (STA), as defined in (55), is adaptation occurring only over a very brief window

from the initial stimulus that then resolves quickly with no further stimulation (e.g. the 10 second

interval given for salamanders). By contrast, long-term or long-lasting adaptation (LTA) are defined in

the same source as persisting over an extended period of time, up to several minutes in vertebrates and

insects (56). Within our electrophysiological data set, there is the potential to measure both types of

adaptation. STA, if present, should be evident within an individual triplet, as the stimuli within a triplet

are separated by 5 seconds (and thus STA is likely to persist within a triplet), whereas LTA should be

evident across an individual stimulus set, as these lasted 5.5-8 minutes with maximum intervals of 30

seconds between stimuli, insufficient for LTA to be abolished if we assume similar mechanisms as

vertebrates. We assessed antennal responses for LTA by pooling all triplets within a stimulus-species-sex

combination. We pooled these data within stimulus set types (species comparison and synthetic

compound), treating butterfly preparation identity as a random effect. For each stimulus, the change in

antennal response was assessed over the time since initial presentation of the stimulus. STA was

assessed by looking for significant changes in the residuals from this analysis between members of a

triplet.

<u>Behavior</u>

To test the potential role of octadecanal in *H. melpomene* female mate choice, behavioral experiments

were conducted in insectaries at STRI, Gamboa, Panama, between April and July 2018. One day old

virgin females were presented with both an octadecanal treated and a control *H. melpomene* male for

two hours. Males were at least ten days old and were selected based on similarity of size, wing-wear

and age, with treatment being allocated randomly by coin flip. Either 25 µl octadecanal (140 ng/µl

octadecanal in hexane, thus adding 3500ng to the existing average 773.4ng for approximately a 5.5x

dose) or 25 µl pure hexane (both evaporated down to a smaller volume under room air) was applied to

the hindwing androconial region of each male, and males were then allowed 30 minutes to settle before

beginning the two hour experiment period. Experiments began at or close to 9am, with observations

being made every 15 minutes or until mating occurred.

To test the persistence of the octadecanal treatment on the wings of live butterflies, a separate set of *H.*

melpomene males was treated as above with either hexane or octadecanal. Separate males were

sampled at 30 minutes post treatment and two hours post treatment by extraction of the forewing

overlap region (8) and the hindwing androconia in DCM+IS as above, with two males per treatment-time

combination. Octadecanal was then measured using GC-MS as above and quantified by peak area

comparison with the 2-tetradecyl acetate internal standard.

<u>Quantitative trait locus mapping for octadecanal production</u>

To map the genetic basis for octadecanal production in *H. melpomene*, we took advantage of the fact

that *H. cydno* produces little to no octadecanal. Bidirectional F_1 crosses between the two species

revealed that the *H. cydno* phenotype (low to no octadecanal) is dominant over the high octadecanal

production found in *H. melpomene*, so we constructed backcross families by crossing F_1 males to female

H. melpomene from our existing stocks. A total of ten families (nine with a female *H. melpomene*

grandparent and one with a female *H. cydno* grandparent) were constructed, with each offspring

representing a single recombination event from the F_1 father. Butterflies were reared and wing extracts

collected and analyzed from male offspring as described above, except that all larvae were reared on

Passiflora platyloba var. williamsi. Bodies of male offspring were collected into dimethyl sulfoxide

(DMSO) for later library preparation. The Castle-Wright estimators for octadecanal and octadecanol

production were calculated using the phenotypic variance of the backcross individuals as the estimated

segregation variance (57).

Qiagen DNeasy kits (Qiagen) were used for DNA extraction. Individuals were genotyped either by RAD-

sequencing as previously described (22,58), or low-coverage whole genome sequencing using nextera-

based libraries. For the nextera-based libraries a secondary purification was performed using magnetic

SpeedBeads™ (Sigma) dissolved in 0.44mM PEG8000, 2.5M NaCl, 1mM Tris-Cl pH=8, and 0.1mM EDTA

pH=8.0. High-throughput sequencing libraries were generated using a method based on the Nextera

DNA Library Prep (Illumina, Inc.) with purified Tn5 transposase (59). Sample barcoding was performed

using PCR extension with an i7-index primer (N701–N783) and the N501 i5-index primer. Libraries were

purified and size selected using the same beads as above. Pooled libraries were sequenced by HiSeq

3000 (Illumina) by BGI (China).

Linkage mapping was conducted using standard Lep-MAP3(LM3) pipeline (60) . First, individual fastq

files were mapped to the melpomene reference genome using BWA MEM (61) and then sorted bams

were created using SAMtools (62). The input genotype likelihoods were constructed by SAMtools

mpileup and pileupParser2+pileup2posterior from LM3. The pedigree of individuals was validated and

corrected using IBD (identity-by-descent) module and the sex of individuals was validated and corrected

according to the coverage on the Z chromosome and autosomes using SAMtools depth. Then,

ParentCall2 (parameter ZLimit=2) and Filtering2 (dataTolerance=0.001) modules were called on the

input data and a random subset of 25% of markers (to speed up analysis) was used for the subsequent

steps.

Initial linkage groups (chrX.map) and marker orders (orderX.txt) were constructed based on melpomene

genome for each of 21 chromosomes. SeparateChromosomes2 was run on each of these groups with

the default parameters (lodLimit=10) except for map=chrX.map (for X=1..21). Finally, OrderMarkers2

was run on each chromosome in the constructed order, with parameter scale=0.05, recombination2=0,

evaluateOrder=orderX.txt and map=result_from_SeparateChromsomes2.chrX.txt. Another evaluation

was done with data in the grandparental phase (additional parameter grandparentPhase=1). The phased

data of these orders were matched using phasematch script (LM3) and obtaining all markers from the

first evaluation in the grandparental phase. This obtained result was used as the final map.

Map construction resulted in the retention of 447,818 SNP markers across 89 individuals with

phenotype data. To facilitate computation, markers were thinned evenly by a factor of ten, resulting in

44,782 markers with no missing data. Octadecanal production was log-transformed to obtain normality,

then regressed against marker position using the R/qtl2 R library (63). Significance thresholds were

obtained by permutation testing in R/qtl2 with 1000 permutations, and QTL confidence intervals

obtained using the bayes_int command. To account for the family structure present in our QTL mapping

populations, we additionally included a kinship matrix calculated by R/qtl2 using the LOCO (leave one

chromosome out) method in the marker regression and recalculated significance thresholds and

confidence intervals with the kinship term included. Percent variance explained was calculated as the

difference in phenotype means of individuals of each genotype divided by the difference in the parental

phenotype. Since the genetic linkage map was based on whole genome data, we were able to obtain

physical positions of QTL confidence interval endpoints. The physical positions of the kinship-included

confidence interval were used to query Lepbase (64) for potential candidate genes from the *H.*

melpomene genome. To identify putative functions for each potential candidate, protein sequences

from Lepbase were searched against the nr (non-redundant) protein database using BLASTp (65). For

each candidate with a promising functional annotation, exons were pulled out of the *H. cydno* genome

(66) and aligned to the *H. melpomene* genes using BLASTn with each *H. melpomene* exon to search for

SNPs between the two species. Selection was tested at the sequence level using codeml (67) in pairwise

mode with the F3X4 codon frequency model.

<u>Statistical analysis</u>

Differences in individual compounds between *H. melpomene* and *H. cydno* were assessed using a

Welch's *t*-test. Wing region differences in *H. cydno* were assessed for each individual compound found

in at least four of eight samples of at least one wing region using a linear mixed model with wing region

as a fixed effect and butterfly identity as a random effect using the package nlme v.3.1.137 (68).

Statistical tests for these models were assessed with the Anova function in the package car v.3.0.0 (69),

and comparisons between wing regions were performed using the emmeans package v.1.3.1 (70).

For electroantennography, species comparison sets and synthetic compound sets were analyzed

separately. Corrected and scaled EAG responses (for each experiment within sexes and species) were

compared between stimuli with a linear mixed model for *H. melpomene* with stimulus as a fixed effect

and butterfly preparation identity as a random effect using nlme as above. EAG responses for *H. cydno*

were better represented as an inverse gamma distribution, so were assessed in the same fashion with a

generalized linear mixed model (glmmPQL) using the package MASS v.7.3.50 (71). Statistical tests for

these models were assessed with the Anova and emmeans (version 1.1.3) functions as above.

Long-term adaptation was assessed using robust linear mixed models with the package robustlmm

v.2.2.1 (72), with corrected but unscaled amplitude as the response variable, time since initial

presentation of the stimulus as a fixed variable, and butterfly preparation as a random variable.

Responses were pooled across samples within a species-sex combination and considered for each

stimulus separately. As robustlmm does not provide p-values, confidence intervals were used to assess

significance and difference between sample-species combinations. Short-term adaptation was assessed

using the residuals from the same regression. Differences in the residuals between triplets within a

triplet set were tested using a one-sample t-test with a hypothesized mean value of zero (i.e. no

difference between residuals), performed on the subtractive difference between the residuals of the

third (last) and first triplets.

Female mate choice was assessed using a binomial test, and treatment differences in time until mating

were assessed with a two-sided t-test assuming unequal variances. Octadecanal persistence was not

assessed statistically due to the small sample size. All statistical tests were performed in R v.3.5.0,

v.3.5.1, or v.3.5.2 (73).

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Author contributions

KJRPB designed, performed, and analyzed electrophysiology experiments, performed QTL mapping and

downstream analysis, and wrote the manuscript. KD designed and performed QTL mapping crosses,

designed behavioral experiments, and prepared sequencing libraries. KD, SFG, DAA, KJRPB, and JM

reared butterflies for all experiments. JM performed and analyzed behavioral experiments. IAW

prepared sequencing libraries. YFC and MK provided Tn5 transposase for sequencing. SS provided

synthetic compounds used in electrophysiology and behavior experiments as well as mass spectrometry

libraries. PR analyzed sequencing data and constructed linkage maps. RMM helped design the QTL

experiment. CDJ and WOM contributed funding, resources, and helped design the overall study. All

authors contributed to the manuscript editing process.

Tables

Table 1: Electroantennographic responses of the different sex-species combinations to individual

compounds compared with hexane (P2-7) or hexane and dichloromethane (P1). Only significant

alterations are shown. No asterisk: $p \leq 0.05$; *: $p \leq 0.01$; **: $p \leq 0.001$; ***: $p \leq 0.0001$. P1:

syringaldehyde, P2: octadecanal, P3: 1-octadecanol, P4: henicosane, P5: (*Z*)-11-icosenal, P6: (*Z*)-11-

icosenol, P7: (*Z*)-13-docosenal. *Heliconius melpomene* wing bouquet contains P1-7; *H. cydno* wing

bouquet contains P1, P4, and P6 (Table S1). Artificial *H. melpomene* wing blend contains the dominant

compounds P1-P3 and P5-P7; artificial *H. cydno* wing blend contains dominant compounds P1 and P4.

Species	Sex	n	P1	P2	P3	P4	P5	P6	P7
H. melpomene	Female	11	-	↑***	-	-	-	-	-
H. melpomene	Male	5	-	↑***	-	-	↓**	-	-
H. cydno	Female	10	-	↑***	-	-	↓	↓***	↓
H. cydno	Male	5	-	↑***	↑*	↑***	-	↑*	-

SI Table 1: Comparison of *Heliconius cydno* and *H. melpomene* wing androconia bouquet. Amounts given

are the mean in nanograms across 31 (*H. melpomene*) and 26 (*H. cydno*) samples, ± SD. Compounds are

only included if found in at least 1/3 of samples for at least one species at levels of at least 1ng. #:

compound found in at least 90% of samples of that species. Bold: species differ significantly. dof:

Welch's two sample t-test degrees of freedom.

SI Table 2: Wing region specificity of *Heliconius cydno* androconial compounds. Amounts given are the

mean across eight samples ± SD. Numbers in parentheses after compound amounts indicate the number

of samples the compound was found in. Bold: wing regions differ significantly. NA: post-hoc test not

conducted as original linear model not significant.

SI Table 3: Details of statistical comparisons of stimuli from electrophysiological experiments. P1-P7: as

in the main text and Figure 4.

SI Table 4: Short-term adaptation to different stimuli in *H. melpomene* and *H. cydno* males and females.

t1, t2, and t3: first, second, and third members of a stimulus triplet. dof: degrees of freedom. P1-P7: as

in the main text and Figure 4.

SI Table 5: Potential candidate genes for octadecanal production underlying the QTL peak on

chromosome 20 in *Heliconius melpomene*.

    Figures

Figure 1: Chemical ecology of *Heliconius melpomene* and *H. cydno*. a: dorsal forewing and hindwing of

each species showing the silvery androconial region of the hindwing used during male courtship. b: Total

ion chromatogram of *H. melpomene* (top) and *H. cydno* (bottom) wing androconia. P1: syringaldehyde;

P2: octadecanal; P3: 1-octadecanol; P4: henicosane; P5: (*Z*)-11-icosenal; P6: (*Z*)-11-icosenol; P7: (*Z*)-13-

docosenal; IS: internal standard (2-tetradecyl acetate); x: contaminant; C21: henicosane; C22: docosane;

C23: tricosane.

Figure 2: Electroantennographic responses of *Heliconius* butterflies to conspecific and heterospecific

wing extracts. Stimuli: air, dichloromethane plus 2-tetradecyl acetate (internal standard), hexane,

Lantana extract, natural male *H. melpomene* wing extract, synthetic *H. melpomene* blend, natural male

H. cydno wing extract, synthetic *H. cydno* blend. Bars: average of normalized corrected amplitude ± SEM.

Figure 3: Electroantennographic responses of *Heliconius* butterflies to synthetic wing compounds.

Stimuli: air, dichloromethane plus 2-tetradecyl acetate (internal standard), hexane, *Lantana* extract,

natural male *H. melpomene* or *H. cydno* wing extract, synthetic *H. melpomene* or *H. cydno* blend. P1-P7

as in Figure 1. Bars: average of normalized corrected amplitude ± SEM. Light red/light blue: compound

found in all *H. melpomene* (red) or *H. cydno* (blue) and >1% of natural bouquet makeup; purple:

compound found in both species and >1% of natural bouquet makeup in at least one species.

Figure 4: QTL mapping of octadecanal and octadecanol production in *Heliconius melpomene*. a: QTL map

for production of octadecanal. b: Effect plots at the peak of the locus on chromosome 20 for the seven

individual backcross mapping families with at least 5 individuals. c: Potential biosynthetic pathway for

octadecanal production. d: QTL map for production of octadecanol, a potential precursor of

octadecanal.

SI Figure 1: Comparison of the major compounds in *Heliconius melpomene* and *H. cydno*. Compounds

shown are those contributing at least 1% of the total bouquet amount in either species. Numbers under

each bar indicate how many samples (out of 31 for *H. melpomene* and 26 for *H. cydno*) the compound

was found in. Significantly different compounds: * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$; *** $p < 0.001$. n.s., not

significant.

SI Figure 2: Absolute and relative abundance of different compound classes in *H. melpomene* and *H.*

cydno. n.s., not significant; * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$; *** $p < 0.001$. The two unknown categories were not

tested as the compound types are not known.

SI Figure 3: The seven compounds found in at least $0.1ng/mm^2$ of wing tissue in at least one wing region

in *Heliconius cydno*. a: Compound abundance per square millimeter of tissue. b: Compound abundance

without tissue area correction. Numbers under each bar indicate how many samples (out of eight) the

compound was found in; letters above bars indicate significant differences between regions. n.s., not

significant. A: hindwing androconia; O: forewing overlap region; H: hindwing excluding androconia; F:

forewing excluding overlap region.

SI Figure 4: Structures and names of major components of the androconia of *H. melpomene* and *H.*

cydno used in electrophysiological experiments.

SI Figure 5: Synthesis of target compounds used in electrophysiological experiments. IBX: iodosobenzoic

acid; LiAlH: lithium aluminum hydride.

SI Figure 6: *Heliconius melpomene* responds to electrophysiological stimuli. Top to bottom:

dichloromethane plus 2-tetradecyl acetate (internal standard) (negative control), *Lantana* extract

(positive control), natural *H. melpomene* male wing extract, depiction of stimulus pulse timing. Data

from a single virgin female.

SI Figure 7: Long-term adaptation to natural and synthetic stimuli in *Heliconius* butterflies. The 95%

confidence intervals of the robust LMM slope are shown; a negative slope means that responses to that

stimulus drop over time. P1-P7: see Figure 2.

SI Figure 8: Strength of long-term adaptation correlates with amplitude of EAG response in a sex-specific

fashion. In females, a stronger response to a given stimulus correlates with a stronger degree of LTA

both overall and for the synthetic compound set. In males the same is seen overall and for the natural

extract set in *H. cydno,* but not in *H. melpomene.*

SI Figure 9: Octadecanal persistence in treated males over time. Bars show individual males, with two

males per treatment-time point combination. Hindwing androconia and forewing overlap region males

are shown in the same positions.

SI Figure 10: Octadecanal in *H. melpomene*, *H. cydno*, two F_1 families (one in each crossing direction),

and the ten backcross to *H. melpomene* families used in QTL mapping.

SI Figure 11: Chromosome 20 QTL map for production of octadecanal and octadecanol in *H. melpomene*.

Shaded regions indicate the Bayesian confidence intervals with kinship structure taken into account and

black line indicates the peak of the QTL.

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