1	Selection and gene flow define polygenic barriers between incipient butterfly species		
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17 Abstract

Characterizing the genetic architecture of species boundaries remains a difficult task. 18 19 Hybridizing species provide a powerful system to identify the factors that shape genomic variation and, 20 ultimately, identify the regions of the genome that maintain species boundaries. Unfortunately, complex 21 histories of isolation, admixture and selection can generate heterogenous genomic landscapes of 22 divergence which make inferences about the regions that are responsible for species boundaries 23 problematic. However, as the signal of admixture and selection on genomic loci varies with 24 recombination rate, their relationship can be used to infer their relative importance during speciation. 25 Here, we explore patterns of genomic divergence, admixture and recombination rate among hybridizing 26 lineages across the Heliconius erato radiation. We focus on the incipient species, H. erato and H. himera, 27 and distinguish the processes that drive genomic divergence across three contact zones where they 28 frequently hybridize. Using demographic modeling and simulations, we infer that periods of isolation 29 and selection have been major causes of genome-wide correlation patterns between recombination 30 rate and divergence between these incipient species. Upon secondary contact, we found surprisingly 31 highly asymmetrical introgression between the species pair, with a paucity of H. erato alleles 32 introgressing into the H. himera genomes. We suggest that this signal may result from a current 33 polygenic species boundary between the hybridizing lineages. These results contribute to a growing appreciation for the importance of polygenic architectures of species boundaries and pervasive genome-34 35 wide selection during the early stages of speciation with gene flow.

36 Introduction

37 Disentangling the factors that drive genomic divergence is necessary for advancing our understanding of speciation. Targets of selection, for example, may be responsible for adaptive 38 39 differences between species; and their number, distribution and effect on gene flow along the genome 40 define the architecture of species boundaries. In population genomic studies, targets of selection are expected to show elevated divergence between species and reduced genetic diversity within species [1]. 41 42 These highly divergent loci often reflect local adaptation and/or incompatibilities between species, and 43 can be considered the loci that define the species [2,3]. This is because natural selection acts as a local genomic "barrier" to gene flow between hybridizing species [4-6]. In contrast, the rest of the genome, 44 45 which is not under such selective pressures, may be expected to exchange more freely between the 46 species (i.e. admixture). However, genetic variation at these latter genomic regions can be greatly impacted by neutral demographic processes (i.e. population size and migration) and the indirect effects 47 48 of nearby targets of selection (i.e. linked selection). Local recombination rates can further influence how 49 these processes impact genetic variation, which collectively result in highly heterogenous patterns of 50 genome-wide divergence [1,4,7–10]. Thus, the challenge is to distinguish those targets of selection and 51 demographic processes that generate the genomic landscape of divergence.

52 Here, we reconstruct the history of demographic isolation and characterize the extent to which 53 selection has shaped genomic divergence between two closely related, hybridizing Heliconius species. 54 More precisely, we first use a demographic modeling approach to reconstruct the history of population 55 sizes and isolation during divergence of these species [11-18]. Next, with knowledge of the most likely 56 demographic history, we use coalescent simulations to test for the importance of selection as the 57 underlying mechanism driving heterogeneous patterns of genomic divergence. The coalescent 58 simulation approach allows us to explore other genomic factors, such as recombination rate, on 59 genomic divergence. Specifically, we can test for genome-wide impacts of linked selection by using the 60 expectation that linked selection is higher in regions of the genome where recombination rate is lower 61 [19]. Hence, we would expect a negative association between recombination rate and divergence across 62 the genome [8,9,20,21]. Similarly, we expect a positive association between recombination rate and 63 admixture, if the species continue to hybridize [4,22], but not necessarily if they diverged in isolation 64 [8,23]. Thus, the relationships of recombination rate with divergence and admixture can be used to infer 65 the relative importance of different evolutionary processes during speciation.

To provide a relative perspective of the divergence between our focal hybridizing Heliconius 66 species, we first investigate the relationship between reproductive isolation and genomic divergence 67 68 across 15 pairs of increasingly divergent populations and species in the *H. erato* clade. Next, we use the 69 incipient species *Heliconius erato* and *Heliconius himera* that hybridize across three geographically 70 distinct contact zones to test for the relative contribution of demographic and selective factors in the 71 evolution of the divergence landscape. Heliconius himera is found in dry forest areas of southern 72 Ecuador and northern Peru [24]. It comes into contact with Heliconius erato cyrbia on the western slopes of the Ecuadorian Andes and with Heliconius erato favorinus and Heliconius erato emma on the 73 74 eastern slopes of the Andes, both areas with wet forest (Figure 1A). Hybridization is ongoing and hybrids 75 are easily identifiable by their wing color patterns. In Ecuador, hybrids compose approximately 5% of the 76 population in the contact zone [25], and, although poorly characterized, hybridization is known to occur 77 in the other contact zones. The two species show strong premating isolation but little or no postmating 78 reproductive barriers [25]. The eastern and western *H. erato* populations that hybridize with *H. himera* 79 do not come into contact with each other and show deep genetic divergence in the *H. erato* clade [26].

80 Our findings demonstrate the importance of both isolation and selection in establishing the 81 heterogeneous genomic landscape of divergence that characterizes our hybridizing species. The 82 reconstructed demographic history supports a complex dynamics of population fluctuations and varying 83 migration rates, that with selection, resulted in the observed heterogeneous patterns of genomic 84 divergence. Further, our coalescent simulations well fit the observed relationship of genomic divergence and recombination when we consider genome-wide impacts of recent and strong selective events in the 85 86 absence of gene flow. Finally, we show that the species boundary between H. himera and H. erato is 87 highly porous and that gene flow is highly asymmetrical and distinct across each of the three contact 88 zones. We suggest that this asymmetrical signal of gene flow may be the result of polygenic species 89 boundaries that restrict introgression in H. himera. Overall, our results highlight that the study of 90 heterogeneous landscapes of divergence can help us understand how demographic and selective 91 processes drive speciation.





93 Figure 1. Geographical distribution, population structure and phylogeny of the focal populations in relation to the Heliconius 94 erato radiation. (A) We sampled two populations of H. himera, H. e. cyrbia, H. e. emma and H. e. favorinus. The distribution of 95 H. himera (red) covers dry valleys in the Andes of South Ecuador and North Peru. In the North, H. himera (N) comes into contact 96 with a H. e. cyrbia (S) population. In the South, H. himera comes into contact with a H. e. emma (W) and H. e. favorinus (W) 97 population. (B) Principal Component Analysis (PCA) of the focal samples (colored points) among all the available whole genome 98 data for the H. erato radiation (black points). (C) Maximum likelihood tree built using FastTree and using only autosomal sites 99 from 121 whole genome resequenced individuals (see Figure S1 for the uncollapsed tree). Nodes in the tree that represent the 100 major clades within H. erato (east and west of Andes) obtained high support (= 1) from the Shimodaira-Hasegawa test.

101 Results & discussion

102 Genomic landscape of divergence among hybridizing races and incipient species

103 We first sought to describe the general patterns of genome-wide divergence and how they varied based on the varying degrees of reproductive isolation. To do this, we compared genome-wide 104 105 patterns of divergence across 15 contact zones in the H. erato clade that have varying degrees of 106 reproductive isolation (*RI*, Figure 2; Table S1). Correlations of *RI* with genome-wide estimates of relative 107 divergence (F_{ST}) show that divergently selected color patterns between hybridizing races of *H. erato* with 108 absence of other pre- or post-mating barriers are not sufficient to drive genome-wide increases in 109 divergence (Figure 2A). In these hybridizing *H. erato* races, there are only narrow peaks of divergence 110 largely centered over the loci known to be responsible for color pattern differences (Figure 2B). In 111 contrast, between the incipient species H. erato cyrbia and H. himera, which have strong differences in 112 mate preference, divergence is much higher across the entire genome. Divergence between these 113 species has increased to the extent that F_{ST} peaks near the known color pattern loci WntA (chr 10), 114 cortex (chr 15), and optix (chr 18) are not detectable (Figure 2B). The H. himera and H. erato contact 115 zones on the eastern Andes (H. e. emma and H. e. favorinus) also show elevated genome-wide 116 divergence, but much lower overall than in the western Andes contact zone. As expected, genomic divergence was highest between H. e. venus and H. e. chestertonii from Colombia, where both mate 117 118 preference and hybrid sterility have been reported [27]. We also note a dramatic increase in divergence 119 on the Z chromosome relative to the autosomes (Figure 2). This is in line with previous work on H. e. 120 chestertonii, which suggested the important role played by the Z chromosome as a barrier to gene flow 121 [28].





123 Figure 2. Reproductive isolation and divergence among Heliconius erato populations. (A) Genome-wide averages of relative 124 divergence (F_{st}) show a sharp increase with increasing measures of reproductive isolation between parapatric H. erato 125 populations. The measure of reproductive isolation (RI) was obtained by equally weighting ecological (RI_{ec}), pre-isolation (RI_{pre}) 126 and post-isolation (RI_{post}) components (Table S1). Higher relative divergence on the Z chromosome can be observed for the 127 more divergent parapatric comparisons, however, incompatibilities that are potentially Z-linked have only been suggested for 128 H. e. chestertonii crosses [27,28]. (B) Plots of relative divergence (average F_{ST} in 50 kb windows) between parapatric H. erato 129 populations along the genome. Plots are ordered according to the measure of reproductive isolation (RI). Colored circles match 130 color codes used for the focal populations in this study. Divergence peaks on chromosome 10, 15 and 18 correspond to the 131 divergently selected color pattern genes WntA (affecting forewing band shape), cortex (affecting yellow hindwing bar), and 132 optix (affecting red color pattern elements), respectively [26].

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134 Demographic change and selection jointly drive genomic divergence among incipient species

135 Collectively, our results provide a view into the genomic landscape among lineages with 136 increasing degrees of reproductive isolation (Figure 2)[29,30]. However, the increase in divergence does not seem to be a linear process as there is a marked increase in divergence between the incipient 137 138 species that are known to still frequently and continuously hybridize over many generations. To 139 understand what drives these elevated patterns of divergence, we have to recognize that each of these 140 contact zones reflect hybridization between evolutionary distinct lineages. In this regard, the genomic landscapes do not reflect a continuum of genomic divergence throughout speciation, but rather they 141 each are the evolutionary outcomes of various neutral and adaptive processes that shaped each of the 142 143 populations coming into contact. For example, we find increased divergence between H. himera and H. 144 erato from the western Andes slopes compared to H. erato from eastern Andes slopes. As seen in the 145 PCA and phylogenetic inference, this results from a deeper split between *H. himera* and *H. e. cyrbia* from 146 the western Andes slope compared to *H. himera* and the *H. erato* races that are found east of the Andes,

including *H. e. emma* and *H. e. favorinus* (Figure 1B, C). This is consistent with previous studies that
placed *H. himera* nested within the *H. erato* clade and not as a sister species to *H. erato* [26,31].

149 To understand what forces are likely driving differences in patterns of genome-wide divergence 150 between H. erato and H. himera, we fit the estimated joint site-frequency spectrum (JSFS) for three 151 geographically distinct contact zones to 26 alternative demographic scenarios that varied in split times, 152 migration rates and population sizes (Figure 3). All three H. erato and H. himera contact zones best fit 153 models that included secondary contact (SC) after a period of isolation without gene flow (Figure S2-3; 154 Table S2). For all three zones we found support for asymmetrical migration. In each case, migration 155 rates were predominantly in one direction, with on average 0.5 to 0.6 migrants per generation moving 156 from *H. erato* into *H. himera*, compared to 0.07 to 0.13 moving from *H. himera* into *H. erato*. This result 157 is consistent with the effective migration rates being driven by the marked population size differences 158 between the two species (Figure 3B).

159 Nearly all the models that included exponential population growth (G) best fit the JSFS, with the 160 exception of the H. himera and H. e. emma comparison. Estimates of ancestral and contemporary 161 population sizes suggest strong expansions in *H. himera* and *H. erato*. These inferred changes in 162 population sizes broadly fit previous results obtained from pairwise sequentially Markovian coalescent 163 (PSMC) analysis (Van Belleghem et al. 2018), which suggested an overall population growth in *H. erato* 164 east and west of the Andes in the past 1 My and size reduction for *H. himera* in the past 200 Ky (Figure 165 S3). However, we found that estimates of contemporary population sizes varied greatly depending on 166 the population comparison (Figure 3B, C), a result possibly explained by unaccounted population 167 structure and difficulties in estimating growth (G). For H. e. favorinus, estimates of contemporary 168 population size were generally much smaller than the ancestral population. This result fits the 169 observation that H. e. favorinus is a smaller Andean population of the "postman" color pattern (i.e. red 170 forewing band), which has a much larger distribution throughout the Neotropics. Collectively, the 171 models support a history that includes periods of allopatry, followed by lineage specific changes in 172 population size that coincide with more recent gene flow.

To investigate if the JSFS contained evidence of selection driving patterns of divergence across the contact zones, we incorporated heterogeneity in population size (2N) and migration rate (2M) into the models, similar to what was done by Rougeux *et al.* 2017 [32] and Tine *et al.* 2014 [16], respectively. The 2N model allows heterogeneity in population size estimates across loci that result from the differences in allelic variation caused by linked selection (*ls* = effective population size of locus relative to

178 neutral loci; Q = proportion of the genome affected by *ls*). We found that all contact zones between *H*. 179 *erato* and *H*. *himera* well supported 2N models, suggesting the effect of linked selection in shaping 180 patterns of genomic variation and divergence between the incipient species. The strongest *ls* was 181 observed for the population comparisons of *H. erato* East and West (*ls* = 0.10; *Q* = 0.35) and *H. himera* 182 and *H. erato* West (*ls* = 0.15; *Q* = 0.90) and the lowest observed between *H. e. emma* and *H. e. favorinus* 183 (*ls* = 0.07; *Q* = 0.04) (Figure 3C, Table S3).

The result of selection on locally adapted alleles is a heterogeneous landscape with regions containing these variants showing much lower rates of admixture compared to the rest of the genome. The 2M models allow for this type of heterogeneity in migration rates across the genome. Both contact zones in the eastern Andes supported these models for *H. himera* and *H. erato*, suggesting that the model fits the eastern Andean populations having genomic regions with much lower rates of introgression than other parts of the genome.



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191 Figure 3. Secondary Contact (SC) best demographic model of the H. himera and H. erato population history. (A) Joint Site 192 Frequency Spectra (JSFS) for data and best model (see Table S2 and Figure S3-4 for AIC values (Akaike Information Criterion)). 193 (B) Reconstruction of historical demography of H. himera and H. erato populations using models with best AIC scores. All best 194 models included a period of isolation and secondary contact. Arrows indicate effective migration rates (2N_am). Migration from 195 H. himera into H. erato is indicated in orange, migration from H. erato into H. himera is indicated in blue. (C) Table with 196 parameter ranges obtained from five best scoring models out of twenty runs. N_a = ancestral population size, N_1 = Size of 197 population 1, N_2 = size of population 2, g_1 = growth coefficient of population 1, g_2 = growth coefficient of population 2, I_s = 198 linked selection, Q = proportion of the genome with a reduced effective size due to linked selection (*ls*), $m_{1<-2}$ = migration from 199 population 2 into 1, $m_{2<-1}$ = migration from populations 1 into 2, t_{split} = split time, t_{SC} = time of secondary contact, P = proportion 200 of the genome evolving neutrally.

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202 Simulations of linked selection and secondary contact predict correlation of recombination rate with 203 divergence, not admixture

The demographic models provide a comprehensive reconstruction of the evolutionary history of divergence between *H. erato* and *H. himera* and allow us to estimate time intervals of lineage splits, size changes and migration changes that span the past million year of divergence between *H. himera* and *H. erato* in the Andes (Figure 3). We next use these estimates to inform simulations and conduct further

tests for the impact of selection and demography during genomic divergence of the incipient species. To do this, we simulated the expected relationship of recombination rate to relative divergence (F_{ST}) and admixture (f_d) at a locus linked to a site under selection. We used two distinct scenarios of migration broadly applicable *to H. erato* and *H. himera* and compared the simulation results to real data (Figure 4A, B).

213 As demonstrated by other studies, in a scenario of "isolation with migration" (IM) with long periods of 214 migration and divergent selection, our simulations predict a strong negative correlation between 215 recombination rate and F_{ST} [20,21,33] and a strong positive correlation between recombination rate and 216 f_d [4,8] (Figure 4C, left). This pattern reflects the degree of linkage between neutral sites and loci under 217 divergent selection [23,34]. In contrast, our simulations show that the relationship between 218 recombination rate and f_d is reduced when migration is more recent or low (Figure 4C, left). As expected, 219 in a "secondary contact" (SC) scenario that is characterized by a more recent onset of migration, the 220 simulations show that F_{ST} values are generally high and f_d values close to zero (Figure 4C, right). This 221 results in the absence of a relationship between recombination rate and F_{ST} or f_d in most SC scenarios. 222 However, when selection in the genome is recent (~selective sweeps), a negative relationship between 223 recombination rate and divergence, but not admixture, emerges in the SC scenario (Figure 4C). This 224 relationship arises due to linked selection that reduces diversity within populations and increases the 225 relative divergence, F_{ST}, between populations [35]. The relationship holds for lower selection strengths 226 at relatively short distances from the selected site (s = 0.02; Figure S5).



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228 Figure 4. Expected relationship of recombination rate with divergence (F_{ST}) and admixture (f_{d}) near a divergently selected 229 locus. (A) The population tree shows the simulated scenario with the onset of divergent selection on a derived allele indicated 230 in red and in which migration rate (m) and migration time (t_m) between P2 and P3 and selection start time (t_s) are varied. Left 231 and right of the simulated scenario are parameter combinations for two extreme scenarios that both include linked selection; 232 on the left a scenario with Isolation with Migration (IM) and on the right a scenario reflecting Secondary Contact (SC). (B) Effect 233 of population recombination rate (ρ) on relative divergence (F_{ST}) and admixture (f_d) near a divergently selected locus for the 234 two simulated scenarios with parameter combinations as in panel A. The selected allele occurs at position 0. The dashed red 235 line indicates a locus at 500 kb from the selected locus at which the relationship between ρ , divergence and admixture is 236 assessed in panel C. (C) The effect of migration start time (t_m) and selection start time (t_s) on the relation between ρ , divergence 237 and admixture. Apart from the respective parameters being evaluated, other parameters were fixed as in panel A, with the red 238 lines indicating the exact parameter combinations as in panel A and B. For simulations with a lower selection coefficient (s =239 0.02), see Figure S5.

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241 Patterns of divergence are shaped by linked selection

242 The differences in the expected relationships between recombination rate and *F*_{sT} and between

recombination rate and f_d under the IM and SC scenarios provide specific predictions that we can use to

244 determine how linked selection may have shaped genomic divergence between H. erato and H. himera. 245 We first explored this relationship of recombination rate, relative divergence and admixture across the 246 optix locus using the expected patterns obtained from our simulations. The optix locus controls red wing 247 pattern differences among H. erato races, as well as between H. erato and H. himera and is a target of strong selection (Figure 5A) [26,31,36]. We found recombination rate (ρ) estimates were markedly lower 248 249 upstream, compared to downstream of the optix gene (Figure 5C). Such sharp decreases in 250 recombination rate near chromosome ends have been observed in other *Heliconius* species [4] and likely 251 explain the decrease in recombination rate upstream of the optix gene. To test if selection at the optix 252 locus has produced the expected relationship of recombination rate with divergence and admixture, as 253 predicted above in our simulations (Figure 4C), we sampled sites 500 kb from the center of the peak of 254 the divergence at optix and plotted the recombination rate and divergence estimates for those sites 255 (Figure 5D). As expected from the scenario of SC with linked selection, we found negative relationships 256 between recombination rate and divergence (F_{sT}) and no correlations between recombination rate and 257 admixture (f_d) . These findings demonstrate that our simulated patterns of recombination, divergence 258 and admixture, reflect real observed patterns in a region known to be under strong selection.



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Figure 5. Divergence (F_{ST}), admixture (f_d) and recombination rate (ρ) near the red color pattern gene *optix*. (A) The *optix* gene is located near the start of chromosome 18 and has been demonstrated to control the expression of red color pattern elements in *Heliconius* wings [37]. (B) Relative divergence (F_{ST}) and admixture (f_d) comparisons performed between *H. himera*, *H. e. cyrbia*, *H. e. emma* and *H. e. favorinus*. Colored circles match color codes in Figure 2. (C) Lines show F_{ST} , f_d and recombination rate (ρ) calculated in 50 kb non-overlapping windows. The green line in the bottom plot shows a loess fit of the recombination rate. Gene models including the location of the *optix* gene are presented at the top. (D) Relationship between F_{ST} and recombination rate (ρ) 500 kb left and right from the center of the *optix* regulatory sequence divergence peak.

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To test for evidence that linked selection has driven genome-wide patterns of divergence, we compared recombination rates with divergence and admixture across the whole genome. We found a significant negative association between recombination rate (ρ) and relative divergence (F_{ST}) between *H*. *himera* and *H. erato* populations (Figure 6A) but no association with admixture (f_d) (Figure 6B). These genome-wide patterns are identical to those observed at the *optix* locus (Figure 5D) and the simulations of SC with linked selection (Figure 4C). Further, we observed a positive association between proportion of coding sequence and relative divergence, which again suggests the importance of linked selection for

275 genome divergence (Figure S6). Additionally, we found a significant relationship between F_{ST} and f_d in 276 the H. himera – H. erato hybrid zones, which suggests that, although admixture can partly explain 277 reduced F_{ST} (Figure 6C), the rates of migration have been too low or recent to build up a significant 278 association with recombination rate. Finally, we note that the observed patterns of linked selection may 279 include the effects of both genetic hitchhiking and background selection. While our genomic dataset 280 does not allow us to differentiate between them, our simulations suggest that the observed patterns 281 can be explained by genetic hitchhiking alone and other studies suggest background selection may be 282 too subtle to cause these patterns [9].

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Figure 6. Correlations of divergence and admixture proportions with recombination rate in the three *H. himera* – *H. erato* contact zones. (A) Relative divergence (F_{ST}) versus recombination rate (ρ). (B) Admixture proportion (f_d) versus recombination rate (cM/Mb). (C) Relative divergence (F_{ST}) versus admixture proportion (f_d). Statistics were calculated in 50 kb non-overlapping windows. Recombination rates were calculated from each *H. erato* population separately and averaged over populations (see methods) and showed a genome-wide average of ρ equal to 0.071 (SD = 0.026; $\rho = 4N_er$). Colored circles match geographic distributions and contact zones in Figure 2.

291 Asymmetrical admixture suggests a polygenic species boundary

292 The combination of empirical and simulation data suggests that periods of isolation and linked 293 selection within populations have played a major role in shaping the divergence landscape between H. 294 erato and H. himera. To explore how these factors influence the finer details of genomic divergence we 295 investigated patterns of admixture along chromosomes. We were both interested in the patterns of 296 admixture across our three replicate hybrid zones and inferring the direction of admixture. To 297 determine if patterns of admixture were similar across the three contact zones, we used a modified 298 four-taxon D-statistic called f_d [38]. Across several chromosomes we observed large blocks of increased 299 f_{d_i} particularly in the hybrid zone between *H. himera* and *H. e. cyrbia* west of the Andes (see 300 chromosomes 3, 4, 6, 7, 8, 12 and 18 in Figure 7A). The large size of these admixture tracks indicates 301 that these signals are recent and there has not been sufficient time for recombination to break down 302 the haplotypes. In contrast, high admixture values (f_d) between H. himera and H. e. emma and H. himera 303 and H. e. favorinus east of the Andes are distributed more evenly along the chromosomes (Figure 7A), 304 which would agree with older admixture events between these populations. In general, there was a lack 305 of overlap between genomic regions with high f_d in the different hybrid zone comparisons further 306 reinforcing the idea that we are examining independent admixture events.

307 To determine the directionality of introgression across the genome we used a five-taxon D_{FOIL}-308 statistic [39]. This test considers all available taxa (i.e. two populations of *H. himera* and two populations 309 of *H. erato*) and calculates all possible four-taxon *D*-statistic comparisons to infer admixture as well as 310 directionality of admixture. While the D_{FOIL} -statistic is calculated using a single genome for each taxon, 311 we performed this test on all possible combinations of available samples and represented the D_{FOIL} signal 312 as the proportion of significant comparisons (Figure 7A). Comparing f_d and D_{FOIL} results revealed that 313 among loci that show strong evidence of admixture, there is a relative paucity of loci in H. himera 314 individuals carrying H. erato alleles (Figure 7B). This asymmetry suggests H. erato is more porous to 315 introgressed alleles from H. himera than vice-versa. Consistent with a well characterized "large X(Z) 316 effect" in speciation, on the sex (Z) chromosome there are only a few loci that show signals of admixture 317 (high f_d) and again the D_{FOIL} tests only show evidence of introgression of H. himera alleles into H. erato 318 (Figure 7A).



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320 Figure 7. Admixture (f_d) and admixture directionality (D_{FOIL}) between H. himera and H. erato in three contact zones. (A) Points 321 show admixture (f_d) values, whereas coloring shows directionality (D_{FOIL}) in 50 kb non-overlapping windows for the contact 322 zones H. himera – H. e. cyrbia (top), H. himera – H. e. emma (middle) and H. himera – H. e. favorinus (bottom). Blue indicates 323 predominant admixture from H. erato into H. himera (12 <- 34), whereas red indicates predominant admixture from H. himera 324 into H. erato (12 -> 34) based on the D_{FOIL} tests. (B) Summary of admixture versus directionality with points above the 95% 325 quantile indicated in blue (12 -> 34) and red (12 -> 34) demonstrates that the majority of windows with high f_d indicate 326 admixture from H. himera into H. erato. The green line indicates a loess fit of the data. Colored circles match color codes in 327 Figure 2.

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329 We propose that the multitude of loci with asymmetrical gene flow may represent the genetic signal of 330 a polygenic species barrier. These barriers could result from co-adapted loci in *H. himera* that cannot be 331 replaced by H. erato alleles without fitness consequences. The inference that this pattern results from a 332 polygenic species barrier is further strengthened by two observations. First, H. himera males have been 333 shown to mate more frequently with F1 hybrids compared to *H. erato* males [25], which should result in 334 an opposite asymmetric admixture pattern than we found [40], with more alleles introgressing from H. 335 erato into H. himera. Second, the smaller effective population size estimates of H. himera should also 336 result in an opposite pattern of asymmetric admixture [13], with more alleles introgressing from H. 337 erato into H. himera. This latter expectation is observed in the demographic modeling results, which show greater migration of alleles from H. erato into H. himera and corresponds to their estimated 338 differences in population size between the species (Figure 3B), but is not seen in the more recent signals 339 340 of admixture as measured by f_d .

341 Different histories can generate similar heterogeneous divergence patterns

342 Although the genomic landscape of divergence between hybridizing taxa reflects the history of 343 selection and demographic changes they have experienced, different histories can generate strikingly 344 similar heterogeneous patterns. This can greatly mimit our ability to make inferences about the 345 evolutionary processes driving genomic change [2]. For example, in *Heliconius melpomene* there are 346 strikingly similar heterogeneous landscapes of divergence to those we report here for H. erato and H. 347 himera, despite known differences in their evolutionary histories [41,42]. Here, we show that through a 348 comprehensive set of analytical approaches we can disentangle these evolutionary histories and reveal 349 that different evolutionary processes have resulted in similar divergence landscapes among the *H. erato* 350 and H. melpomene clades.

351 Heliconius melpomene and H. erato are co-mimics and experience similar strong selective pressures on wing color patterns throughout their distributions. In the H. melpomene clade, H. 352 353 melpomene comes into contact and hybridizes with H. cydno in Panama and occasionally with H. 354 timareta in Ecuador and northern Peru. Although at first sight the genomic landscapes appear similar, 355 correlation analyses reveal differences in the relative importance of admixture. The H. melpomene 356 comparisons showed strong correlations of recombination rate with divergence as well as admixture, 357 which supports a longer history of divergent selection with gene flow (Martin et al. 2019). In contrast, H. 358 himera and H. erato comparisons showed recombination rate correlated with divergence, but not 359 admixture. We suggest the lack of correlation may be because the secondary contact is recent and the 360 rates of gene flow are low between H. erato and H. himera. Thus, there has not been enough time for a 361 correlation between recombination rate and admixture to arise. Instead, we argue that differences 362 accumulated in periods of isolation have had more profound effects on the divergence landscape of H. 363 erato and H. himera whereas gene flow has likely been more continuous throughout the divergence 364 history of the young species pair in the H. melpomene clade. These differences in the history of 365 divergence among co-mimetic species highlights the power of approaches like those applied here to 366 resolve the roles of different evolutionary processes in generating seemingly similar heterogeneous 367 patterns of genomic divergence.

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370 Conclusions

371 We observed genome-wide increase of divergence as reproductive barriers increase between 372 hybridizing populations or species. Nonetheless, it remains difficult to determine if peaks of divergence 373 result from barrier loci that are resistant to ongoing gene flow (heterogeneous gene flow), from recent 374 selective sweeps in isolated populations (heterogeneous selection), or both. Fortunately, using a 375 combination of demographic modeling, simulations, and correlation analyses we can characterize the 376 evolutionary processes responsible for the heterogeneous landscapes of divergence. For the incipient 377 species H. erato and H. himera, our results suggest a disproportionately large effect of the Z 378 chromosome on the evolution of species barriers in *H. erato*. The data also favor a scenario of periods of 379 isolation accompanied by both selection and gene flow. The overall patterns of asymmetric admixture 380 suggest that during periods of isolation, selection at multiple loci may have resulted in a polygenic 381 species boundary. This finding adds to a number of studies that illustrate how fluctuating gene flow and 382 pervasive selection along the genome lead to the evolution of polygenic architectures of species 383 boundaries [4,8,21,43,44].

384 Methods

385 Sampling

386 We obtained whole genome resequence data for a total of 122 *Heliconius* butterflies (Tables S4). 387 These include northern (North Ecuador, n = 10) and southern (South Ecuador H. himera contact zone, n 388 = 4) *H. e. cyrbia*, western (Peru *H. himera* contact zone, n = 4) and eastern (Peru *H. e. favorinus* contact 389 zone, n = 7) H. e. emma and western (Peru H. himera contact zone, n = 4) and eastern (Peru H. e. emma 390 contact zone, n = 8) H. e. favorinus used to study admixture patterns with northern (Ecuador H. e. 391 emma/favorinus contact zone, n = 5) and southern H. himera (Peru H. e. cyrbia contact zone, n = 4). 392 Additionally, samples from H. e. petiverana (Mexico, n = 5), H. e. demophoon (Panama, n = 10), H. e. 393 hydara (Panama, n = 6 and French Guiana, n = 5), H. e. erato (French Guiana, n = 6), H. e. amalfreda 394 (Suriname, n = 5), H. e. notabilis (Ecuador Heliconius erato lativitta contact zone, n = 5 and Ecuador H. e. 395 etylus contact zone, n = 5), H. e. etylus (Ecuador, n = 5), H. e. lativitta (Ecuador, n = 5), H. e. phyllis 396 (Bolivia, n = 4), H. e. venus (Colombia, n = 5) and H. e. chestertonii (Colombia, n = 7) were used for 397 contact zone divergence analysis and population structure visualization as well as samples of H. 398 hermathena (Brazil, n = 3) as an outgroup to root the phylogenetic inference and polarize site frequency 399 spectra. All data have been previously published [26,28], apart from the ten H. e. cyrbia from North 400 Ecuador.

401

402 Sequencing and genotyping

403 Genotypes were obtained as in [28]. In short, whole-genome 100-bp paired-end Illumina 404 resequencing data from H. erato samples were aligned to the v1 [26] reference genome, using BWA v0.7 [45]. PCR duplicated reads were removed using PICARD v1.138 (http://picard.sourceforge.net) and 405 406 sorted using SAMTOOLS [46]. Genotypes were called using the genome analysis tool kit (GATK) 407 Haplotypecaller [47]. Individual genomic VCF records (gVCF) were jointly genotyped using GATK's 408 genotype GVCFs. Genotype calls were only considered in downstream analysis if they had a minimum 409 depth (DP) \geq 10, maximum depth (DP) \leq 100 (to avoid false SNPs due to mapping in repetitive regions), 410 and for variant calls, a minimum genotype quality (GQ) \geq 30. Specific data filtering steps for running 411 population structure, phylogenetic and demographic analysis are explained in the respective sections.

412 Population structure and phylogenetic relationships

We estimated levels of relative divergence (F_{ST}) [48] between populations in nonoverlapping 50 413 414 kb windows using python scripts and egglib [49]. For this analysis, we only considered windows for 415 which at least 10% of the positions were genotyped for at least 75% of the individuals within each 416 population. On average 96% of windows met this criterium. To discern population structure among the 417 H. erato and individuals, we performed principal component analysis (PCA) using EIGENSTRAT SmartPCA 418 [50]. For this analysis, we only considered autosomal biallelic sites that had coverage in all individuals 419 and excluding the Z chromosome (5,058,785 SNPs). Using the same filtering but including the outgroup 420 H. hermathena (4,927,152 SNPs), we used FastTree v2.1 [51] to infer an approximate maximum 421 likelihood phylogeny using the default parameters.

422

423 Demographic modeling

424 We performed demographic analyses on the joint site-frequency spectra (JSFS) of five 425 population comparisons using a modified version of $\partial a \partial i$ v1.7 [11]. Genotype calls were filtered for 426 biallelic autosomal SNPs with a threshold of at least 50 % minimum genotype calls for each population 427 of interest. In order to ensure demographic analyses were performed on unlinked loci, we subsampled 428 our data so that a single SNP was selected at least every ~1000 bp (based on linkage disequilibrium maps 429 from [52] in Figure S1). Unfolded joint site-frequency spectra (JSFS) were created from the filtered calls 430 data using H. hermathena as an outgroup, including on average 316090.3 SNPS (Table S3). The 431 proportion of accurate SNP orientation (O) was consistent across all pairwise comparisons (~97 %), 432 which suggests that ancestral state identification was correct for the majority of SNPs using H. 433 hermathena as an outgroup.

434 Models tested include four basic scenarios in addition to 22 extensions of the basic models that allowed for independent assessment of additional selective and demographic parameters [32] (Table 435 S5). Basic model scenarios included strict isolation (SI), ancient migration (AM), isolation-with-migration 436 437 (IM), and secondary contact (SC). The standard four models involved the divergence of an ancestral 438 population (N_{ref}) at t generations into two resulting daughter populations with an effective size of N_1 and 439 N_2 , respectively. Migration occurred in IM, AM, and SC at rate m_{12} from population 2 into population 1 440 and m_{21} in the opposite direction. Model extensions included growth rate parameters (q) which account 441 for changes in the effective population size over time (bottlenecks and expansions) by taking a ratio of 442 the contemporary and ancient population sizes. Note that $\partial a \partial i$ cannot infer both heterogeneous

443 migration and genetic drift when gene flow is not temporally localized (i.e. IM model). To capture the effects of linked selection that are due to sweeps and background selection (Hill and Robertson, 1966; 444 445 Maynard Smith and Haigh, 1974; Charlesworth et al, 1993), further model extensions incorporated two 446 categories of loci (2N) that occur in proportions of Q and 1-Q in order to account for heterogeneity in N_e 447 across the genome. A Hill-Robertson scaling factor (hrf) was included with these models that relates the 448 effective size of loci experiencing selection to that of neutral loci. Models that infer migration (IM, AM, 449 SC) were extended to include parameters that capture heterogeneous migration rates (2m) across the genome resulting from selection on barrier loci during adaptive divergence [16]. These extensions 450 451 allowed for the estimation of a proportion of loci (P) experiencing standard migration rates (m_{12} and m_{21}) 452 and a second category of loci (1-P) undergoing rates me_{12} and me_{21} . Given that the JSFS was polarized using *H. hermathena* as the outgroup for all comparisons, a SNP orientation parameter (*O*) was included 453 454 in all models to account for ancestral state misidentification. Additionally, the effective mutation rate (ϑ) 455 of *N_{ref}* was estimated as a free parameter in all comparisons.

456 To check for model convergence, a total of 20 independent optimizations were performed for 457 each model on each population comparison. When running these models, consistency in the likelihood 458 scores generally increased as the best optimized parameters from previous steps were incorporated into 459 subsequent steps. To score the models and account for overparameterization, the Akaike Information 460 Criterion (AIC: Burnham and Anderson 2004) was used and parameters from the top five scoring runs for 461 each model were averaged. The models with the best average AIC score for each comparison were 462 retained for each comparison. The highest and lowest optimized parameter values in the top five 463 replicate runs for each model were used to construct intervals to estimate uncertainty.

464 Model parameter estimates for effective population sizes, migration rates and divergence times 465 were transformed into absolute units using a Heliconius mutation rate of 2 x 10⁻⁹ per generation (i.e. 466 spontaneous Heliconius mutation rate corrected for selective constraint; Keightley et al. 2014; Martin, 467 Eriksson, et al. 2015) and assuming a generation time of 0.25 years. Ancestral effective population size 468 was calculated using the optimized theta value for each model comparison ($N_{ref} = \partial/4\mu L$), where L 469 represents the effective sequence length and μ the estimate of the mutation rate. Effective sequence 470 length for each pairwise comparison is estimated as L = (x/y)z, where x is the number of SNPs used in the 471 dadi demographic analysis and y is the number of segregating sites detected in the original sample out 472 of z total sites. Migration rates are presented in units of $2N_{ref}$ to represent the number of individuals per 473 generation that migrate into each population.

474 Divergence and admixture simulations

475 To compare patterns in our data to expectations, we simulated genealogies near a selected 476 locus. Genealogies were simulated using the coalescent simulator msms [56] and from these 477 genealogies 10 kb sequences were simulated with a mutation rate of 2e⁻⁹ (i.e. spontaneous Heliconius 478 mutation rate corrected for selective constraint; Keightley et al. 2014; Martin, Eriksson, et al. 2015) and 479 a Hasegawa–Kishino–Yano (HKY) substitution model using seq-gen v1.3.4 [57]. With msms, we simulated four populations with a split history given by (((P1, P2), P3), O) where t_1 , t_2 and t_3 denote the split times 480 481 between P1 and P2, (P1, P2) and P3 and ((P1, P2), P3) and O, respectively (Figure 4A). Population size 482 (N_e) was fixed to 1,000,000 individuals and t_2 and t_3 were fixed to 0.5 (2,000,000 generations) and 1 483 (4,000,000 generations) coalescent units $(4N_e)$, respectively. Within the range of selection on color 484 pattern in *Heliconius* [58], we simulated divergent selection at a single locus with selection coefficients 485 (s) of 0.2 and 0.02 for homozygous genotypes and 0.1 and 0.01 for heterozygous genotypes and 486 selection strength specified in units of $2N_es$. Selection was set to work in opposite direction for P1 and 487 P2 versus P3 and O and was set to start at time t_s . After population splits, migration (m) was restricted 488 between P2 and P3 only, with symmetrical migration rates and a start time equal to t_m . In relevance to 489 our demographic modeling results, we ran simulations by varying the parameters t_s (selection start time; $2e^3 - 2e^6$ generations), t_m (migration start time; $2.5e^{-5} - 5e^{-1}$ generations), m (migration rate; $1e^{-7} - 1e^{-5}$ 490 491 generations) and ρ (population recombination rate 4N_er; r = probability of recombination per generation 492 per bp; 6.25e⁻⁴ - 8e⁻²). A maximum ρ of 8e⁻² was used for computational feasibility. The genealogies were 493 sampled at 100 kb increments from the selected locus. This was achieved by using an infinite 494 recombination sites model and changing the position of the selected locus in increments of 10 neutral 495 locus units (i.e. 10 x 10 kb) away from the sampled locus. Divergence (F_{ST}) was calculated as in Hudson et al. 1992 and admixture (f_d) was calculated as in Martin et al. 2016 using python scripts and egglib v3 (De 496 497 Mita & Siol, 2012). We investigated the correlation between F_{ST} , f_d and recombination rate at a distance 498 of 500 kb from a selected locus but similar expectations are obtained from wide range of distances to 499 the selected locus. Simulations were run with 100 replicates for each parameter combination. 500 Pseudocode to run the *msms* command lines are provided in Tables S6.

501

502 *Recombination rate estimates*

503 We estimated fine-scale variation in population recombination rate ($\rho = 4N_er$; r = probability of 504 recombination per generation per bp) along the *H. erato* chromosomes from linkage-disequilibrium in

505 population genetic data using LDhelmet v1.7 [59]. We phased quality filtered genotypes from thirteen H. 506 erato populations (i.e. H. e. cyrbia, H. e. venus, H. e. demophoon, H. e. hydara (Panama), H. e. emma, H. 507 e. etylus, H. e. lativitta, H. e. notabilis, H. e. favorinus, H. e. phyllis, H. e. erato, H. e. hydara (French 508 Guiana) and H. e. amalfreda) using Beagle v4.1 [60] with default parameters. From the phased 509 genotypes, fasta sequences were generated for 50 kb windows. These 50 kb windows were transformed 510 to haplotype configuration files with the recommended window size of 50 SNPs used by LDhelmet to 511 estimate composite likelihoods of the recombination rate. From the haplotype configuration files, 512 lookup tables for two-locus pairwise recombination likelihoods and Padé coefficients were generated 513 within the recommended value range. Transition matrices were calculated for each chromosome 514 separately by comparing genotypes obtained from *H. erato demophoon* to the outgroup species *H.* 515 hermathena. The likelihood lookup tables, Padé coefficients and transition matrices were used in the 516 riMCMC procedure of LDhelmet to estimate the recombination map. In this latter step, 1000,000 517 Markov chain iterations were run with a burn-in of 100,000 iterations, a window size of 50 SNPs and 518 block penalty of 50. To reduce the potential effect of locus-specific changes in effective population size 519 (N_e) on population recombination rate (ρ) estimates (e.g. due to population specific selective sweeps or 520 background selection), we estimated ρ for each *H. erato* population separately and obtained averages 521 for each 50 kb interval.

522

523 Admixture statistics

524 We estimated admixture proportions for 50 kb non-overlapping windows using the f_d statistic 525 [38]. This statistic is based on the ABBA-BABA test or Patterson's D statistic which measures an excess of 526 derived allele sharing between sympatric non-sister taxa [61]. This excess is tested by comparing the 527 relative abundance of SNP patterns termed ABBAs and BABAs in a tree of three populations and an 528 outgroup with the relationship (((P1, P2), P3), O). ABBAs are sites where a derived allele is shared 529 between P2 and P3, whereas BABAs are sites where a derived allele is shared between P1 and P3. Under 530 a neutral coalescent model, such sites are only expected to be found due to incomplete lineage sorting 531 or recurrent mutation and a D statistic of 0 is expected. In the presence of admixture, however, an 532 access of either ABBAs or BABAs can be observed and a D statistic that significantly deviates from 0 may be obtained. The f_d statistic is derived from the D statistic by calculating the difference between ABBA 533 534 and BABA sites and normalizing this difference by a scenario of complete admixture. The estimator is 535 dynamic in that for the complete admixture scenario used to normalize, a donor population for the

admixture is chosen with the highest frequency of the derived site. The resulting normalized measure is approximately proportional to the effective migration rate and has been evaluated not to be confounded by locus-specific changes in effective population size due to background selection or reductions in diversity due to selective sweeps [4,38]. The populations included as P1, P2, P3 and O are indicated in the figures. *Heliconius hermathena* samples were consistently used as the outgroup taxa.

541

542 Admixture directionality

543 By expanding the four-taxon D statistic to a five-taxon scenario, it is possible to obtain 544 information on the directionality of admixture (i.e. donor versus recipient population). A set of statistical 545 measures that use a five-taxon symmetric phylogeny to infer both the taxa involved in and the direction 546 of admixture are called the D_{FOIL} statistics [39]. The D_{FOIL} statistics identify taxa involved in admixture by 547 performing four possible D tests with different combinations of three ingroup taxa within a five-taxon 548 phylogeny defined as (((P1, P2), (P3, P4)), O). These four D tests considered collectively can provide 549 information on the directionality of admixture. This is because admixture does not only change the 550 position of the donor sample in the topology but will also change the relationship of the donor's sister taxon to the other taxa in the phylogeny. For instance, if admixture occurs from P2 into P3, the sampled 551 552 topology becomes (((P2, P3), P1), P4), O) and P1 will group more closely to (P2, P3) because of more recent sharing of variation with P2, whereas if admixture occurs from P3 into P2, the topology becomes 553 554 (((P2, P3), P4), P1), O). For the latter instance, this will be reflected by a similar sign of the D test 555 statistics that include (((P1, P2), P3), O) or (((P1, P2), P4), O) but a different sign for the D test that 556 includes (((P3, P4), P2), O) and no significant D test for (((P3, P4), P1), O). Hence, by comparing the 557 combinations of different signs (+, -, or 0) of the four D tests within the five-taxon topology, the 558 directionality of admixture can be assessed [39].

559 We assessed directionality of admixture in 50 kb non-overlapping windows in the three H. 560 himera contact zones with H. erato populations using the D_{FOIL} tests explained above using the available 561 dfoil software (www.github.com/jbpease/dfoil). Samples from the H. himera North and South 562 populations were specified as the P1 and P2 group, whereas samples from the considered H. erato 563 populations were specified as P3 and P4. Heliconius hermathena was used as the outgroup taxon (ID 564 hermathena_13 in Table S4). The D_{FOIL} statistics were calculated between each possible combination of 565 available ingroup taxa (i.e. one sample for each taxon group); 800 combinations for H. himera – H. e. 566 cyrbia, 500 for H. himera – H. e. emma and 480 for H. himera – H. e. favorinus. Among these sample

567 combinations, significant D_{FOIL} signatures (χ^2 goodness-of-fit test) were counted and used to obtain 568 heterogeneous patterns of admixture directionality along the genome.

569

570 Data accessibility

571

For GenBank accession numbers of whole genome resequence data see Table S4.

572

573 Author contributions

The study was conceived and designed by SVB and BAC in collaboration with RP and WOM. Genomic analyses were performed by SVB and JC. Demographic modeling with $\partial a \partial l$ was conducted by JC. Samples of *H. e. cyrbia* from northern Ecuador were contributed by GMK, and CB assisted with permits. RP, GMK and WOM provided input on results and manuscript preparation. The manuscript was written and figures were made by SVB, JC, and BAC.

579

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