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40 1. Neural divergence and speciation (supplementary introduction)

Table S1: Examples of neural divergence during ecological divergence between populations/species with incomplete reproductive isolation

					Evide	ence for	
Species	Environmental context	Neural divergence	Heritable divergence	Selection	Hybrid	Behavioural	Key references
					effects	relevance	
A) Vertebrates							
Astyanax mexicanus	Micro-habitat divergence (surface/cave systems)	Brain morphology	Confirmed using common garden experiments	Not tested?	Evidence of intermediate traits inferred from [1]	Not tested, but likely linked to differences in use of sensory modalities.	[1–3]
Coregonus cupleaformis	Micro-habitat divergence (limnetic/benthic)	Neural gene expression	Confirmed using common garden experiments	Overlap between eQTLs and peaks in genome-wide patterns of divergence	Misexpression of neural genes in hybrids	Not tested, but likely linked to differences in use of sensory modalities.	[4,5]
Cichlidae	Micro-habitat divergence (adaptive radiation)	Brain morphology	Absent among congeneric sp., implied by [6]	Not tested?	Not tested?	Links to brain morphology not tested but see [7]	[8,9]
Gasterosteus aculeatus	Micro-habitat divergence (benthic/generalist)	Brain morphology	Not tested?	Not tested?	Not tested?	Not tested?	[10]
Gasterosteus aculeatus	Micro-habitat divergence (limnetic/benthic)	Brain morphology	Not tested?	Not tested?	Not tested?	Not tested?	[11]
Poecilia reticulata	Micro-habitat divergence (up/down stream and low/high predation)	Brain morphology	Not tested?	Not tested?	Not tested?	Not tested?	[12]
Poecilia mexicana	Micro-habitat divergence (surface/darkness/toxic hydrogen sulphide streams)	Brain morphology	Rejected using common harden experiments	Not tested?	Not tested?	Not tested?	[13]
Pungitius pungitius	Micro-habitat divergence (river/lake/sea)	Brain morphology	Not tested?	Not tested?	Not tested?	Not tested?	[12]

B) Invertebrates

Culicidae	Host shifts	Olfactory circuits	Inferred from lab experiments	Not tested?	Not tested?	Host odour detection	[15]
Drosophila melanogaster/sechellia	Host plant shifts	Olfactory circuits/antennal lobe morphology	Inferred from lab experiments	Not tested?	Not tested?	Host plant odour detection	[16,17]
Drosophila pseudoobscura/subobscura	Micro-habitat divergence hypothesised, but there is limited ecological data and contemporary populations occur on separate continents	Brain morphology	Implied by using lab populations experiments	Not tested?	Not tested?	Evidence for divergent mating behaviours, but no formal tests for an association with divergent brain morphology	[18]
Heliconius erato cyrbia/himera	Micro-habitat divergence	Brain morphology	Confirmed using common garden experiments	Not tested?	Not tested?	Not tested?	[19]
Heliconius melpomene/cydno	Micro-habitat divergence	Brain morphology, neural gene expression	Confirmed using common garden experiments	Evidence from PST/FST analyses and reduced gene flow around differentially expressed loci	Intermediate brain morphology and misexpression of neural genes in hybrids	Not tested, but likely linked to habitat dependent light regimes	Current study
Rhagoletis pomonella	Host plant shifts	Olfactory circuits	Inferred from lab experiments	Evidence of fitness trade offs [20]	Not tested?	Host plant odour detection	[21,22]

44 2. Materials and methods

45

46 2 *i*. Sampling of wild individuals

47 Although they began to diverge ~2 million years ago [23], melpomene and cydno have a long history of persistent gene flow [23,24], and in that sense speciation is considered to be 48 49 incomplete. Distributed across Central and South America, the species boundary is 50 maintained by ecological divergence and disruptive selection against hybrids [25-28], which 51 now occur at low frequencies [29]. Although deep intra-clade splits are similar in age [23], 52 populations of *melpomene* are currently ascribed to 'races' (defined by colour pattern 53 variation), while several cydno lineages (timareta, pachinus) have been promoted to species 54 level [30]. The geographic distribution of the *melpomene* and *cydno* clades allowed us to 55 sample a series of populations, accounting for both geographic divergence on small and 56 continental scales, as well as ecological divergence. All individuals were collected using hand 57 nets and kept alive in glassine envelopes until brain tissue could be fixed within a few hours 58 of collection. Sampling of wild individuals (Table S2) was focused on four countries:

59

60 Panama

In Panama, *H. c. chioneus* is found in closed forest habitats whereas *H. m. rosina*, occurs in
secondary forest [25,31]. We sampled 10 individuals of each species along Pipeline road,
Gamboa (elevation 60 m), which transects open to closed forest, and the nearby Soberanía
National Park. Samples were collected under permits SEX/A-3-12, SE/A-7-13 and SE/AP-1418.

66

67 **Peru**

68 H. timareta is a member of the cydno clade restricted to mid-elevation forest on the eastern 69 Andes. In Peru, H. t. thelxinoe is in mosaic sympatry with H. m. amaryllis, with which it shares 70 a co-mimetic wing pattern. Like low-elevation H. cydno, H. timareta is specialised for closed 71 forests [26,32], suggesting micro-habitat partitioning from *H. melpomene* is maintained across 72 the cydno clade. Because they are isolated by ecology but not by mimicry ring, this pair 73 provides a 'control' for neuroanatomical divergence associated with visual mate cues. 10 74 individuals of each species were samples in the Escalera region near Tarapoto, Departamento 75 de San Martín (elevation 300-1295 m). Samples were collected under permits 0289-2014-76 MINAGRI-DGFFS/DGEFFS, 020-014/GRSM/PEHCBM/DMA/ACR-CE, 040-77 2015/GRSM/PEHCBM/DMA/ACR-CE, granted to Dr Neil Rosser. 78

- 10
- 79

80 Costa Rica

81 H. c. galanthus and H. pachinus are parapatric species, within the cydno clade, that are 82 restricted to opposite coastal drainages in Costa Rica. In spite of evidence for ongoing gene 83 flow, few hybrids have been collected suggesting that strong reproductive isolation maintains 84 the species barrier [33,34]. Except for differences in colour pattern, there are no known 85 ecological differences between the two taxa suggesting they are ecologically equivalent and 86 the product of allopatric speciation across the Central Valley [33–35]. This provides a 'control' 87 speciation event where we do not expect neuroanatomical divergence between species. 10 88 H. c. galanthus were sampled at La Selva Biological Station (elevation 30-130 m) and Orosí (elevation ~1300 m). 10 H. pachinus were sampled at Las Cruces Biological Station (elevation 89 90 <20 m) and Le Leona eco-lodge on the edge of Corcovado National Park (elevation ~1000 91 m). A small number of *H. m. rosina* were also collected from these locations. Samples were 92 collected under permit SINAC-SE-GASP-PI-R-2015.

93

94 French Guiana

95 At the eastern extreme of its geographic distribution, *H. melpomene* is allopatric with *cydno*. 96 *H. m. melpomene* shares its general ecology with its western relatives, with some exceptions. 97 H. m. melpomene is more oligophagus in its larval food plants [36] and there is some 98 suggestion that it uses the forest interior to a greater extent [37], although data supporting this 99 observation is lacking. As we sampled 10 H. m. melpomene from forest edge habitats in the 100 Arrondissement of Cayenne (elevation 0-150m), we consider them to have been exposed to 101 similar micro-habitats as *melpomene* in Peru and Panama. We therefore use this population 102 to construct a test of character displacement in brain morphology between sympatric 103 melpomene/cydno species. At the time of sampling no permits were required to sample 104 outside National Parks in French Guiana.

105

106 2 *ii. Insectary reared animals*

107 To determine whether any variation we observed was due to environmentally-induced 108 plasticity, we performed common garden experiments focusing on the Panamanian species 109 pair, H. c. chioneus and H. m. rosina. Insectary-reared individuals were obtained from wild-110 caught females. Adults were kept under standard conditions in outbred stock cages (c. 1 x 2 111 x 2 m) of mixed sex and equal densities at the Smithsonian Tropical Research Institute's 112 Gamboa insectaries. These cages are maintained on the edge of the butterfly's native habitat, 113 and light conditions do not substantially deviate from the forest edge environment. Stock 114 cages contained a minimum of 10 females. Because H. m. rosina are monophagus, larvae were reared on the species' preferred host plant (Passiflora menispermifolia and P. triloba 115 116 respectively). To assess whether hybrid individuals show intermediate or disrupted 117 phenotypes we produced multiple H. c. chioneus x H. m. rosina crosses in both directions, 118 during two distinct field seasons (2013, 2019). Samples from the 2013 crosses were used for 119 neuroanatomical measurements, while samples from both sets were used to collect gene 120 expression data. We focus on F1 individuals because they are the represent a large portion 121 of hybrids found in natural Heliconius hybrids [29] and must survive to produce back crosses 122 with parental species. F1 larvae were reared on P. triloba. For both pure species and hybrid 123 crosses, eggs were collected from the host plants on a daily basis over an ~8-week period, 124 and isolated until hatching. Individual larvae were then raised on new growth shoots in outdoor 125 larval cages. After eclosion, adults were aged for 2-3 weeks for the neuroanatomical samples, 126 and 9-15 days for gene expression samples (Table S2, S3). Both sexes are sexually and 127 behaviourally mature at ~8 days [38].

128

129 2 iii. Neuroanatomy protocols

130 Brains were fixed in situ using a ZnCl₂-formaldehyde solution, following Ott [39]. Further 131 methodological details and anatomical descriptions of the Heliconius brain are available in 132 Montgomery et al. [40]. Briefly, brain structure was revealed using immunofluorescence 133 staining against a vesicle-associated protein at presynaptic sites, synapsin (anti-SYNORF1; 134 obtained from the Developmental Studies Hybridoma Bank, University of Iowa, Department of 135 Biological Sciences, Iowa City, IA 52242, USA; RRID: AB 2315424) and Cy2-conjugated 136 affinity-purified polyclonal goat anti-mouse IgG (H+L) antibody (Jackson ImmunoResearch 137 Laboratories, West Grove, PA), obtained from Stratech Scientific Ltd., Newmarket, Suffolk, 138 UK (Jackson ImmunoResearch Cat No. 115-225-146, RRID: AB 2307343). All imaging was 139 performed on a confocal laser-scanning microscope (Leica TCS SP5 or SP8, Leica 140 Microsystem, Mannheim, Germany) using a 10x dry objective with a numerical aperture of 0.4 141 (Leica Material No. 11506511), a mechanical z-step of 2μ m and an x-y resolution of 512 x 512 142 pixels. The z-dimension was scaled by 1.52 to correct the artefactual shortening [40]. We 143 assigned image regions to brain components, or neuropils, using the Amira 5.5 (Thermo 144 Fisher Scientific) labelfield module and defining outlines based on the brightness of the 145 synapsin immunofluorescence. We reconstructed total central brain volume (CBR), six paired 146 neuropils in the optic lobes (OL), six paired and one unpaired neuropils in the central brain 147 (CBR) in all wild individuals, using the *measure statistics* module to estimate component 148 volumes. In insectary samples the POTu, a small posteriorly located neuropil, was 149 inconsistently stained and was not measured, and in hybrids only neuropils with evidence of 150 divergence between *melpomene* and *cydno* were segmented. The total volume of segmented 151 structures in the CBR was subtracted from total CBR volume to obtain a measure of the 152 remaining, unsegmented CBR (rCBR), which is used as an allometric control throughout. Note 153 that in insectary samples rCBR does not include POTU, and among comparisons including

- hybrids rCBR is simply CBR minus AOTU volume. Due to the lack of volumetric asymmetry in *Heliconius* neuropils [40] we measured the volume of paired neuropils from one hemisphere,
 chosen at random unless one hemisphere was damaged, and multiplied the measured volume
 by two. All volumes were log₁₀-transformed before data analysis.
- 158

159 2 iv. Statistical analyses of neuropil volumes

160 We identified non-allometric differences between brain component sizes using nested linear 161 models, analysed in the Ime4 R package [41]. Linear models included each brain component 162 as the dependent variable, rCBR and taxonomic/experimental grouping as an independent 163 variable, with sex and country (where relevant) included as random factors. The likelihoods of 164 nested models were compared using a Chi²-test. Correction for multiple testing was performed 165 using a sequential Bonferroni procedure [42]. For neuropils showing a significant 166 clade/species effect, we subsequently explored the scaling parameters responsible for group 167 differences using SMATR v.3.4-3 [43]. Using the standard allometric scaling relationship: log 168 $y = \beta \log x + \alpha$, where y is the brain component of interest and x is rCBR, we performed tests 169 for significant shifts in the allometric slope (β) between taxa, followed by two further tests which 170 assume a common slope: 1) for differences in α that suggest discrete 'grade-shifts' in the 171 relationship between two variables, 2) for major axis-shifts along a common slope. Deviation 172 from a shared scaling relationship, by slope or elevation, can indicate an adaptive change in 173 the functional relationship between two brain structures [44].

174 In addition to our allometrically controlled regressions, we performed two further 175 analyses to explore the role of selection in neuroanatomical divergence. First, using data from 176 wild-caught samples, we performed a Mantel test between pairwise differences in neuropil 177 volumes and two estimates of Fst from Arias et al. [30], based on AFLPs and mtDNA. H. m. 178 amaryllis was not included in Arias et al. we therefore use H. m. malleti as a surrogate, as 179 these two colour pattern races are geographically and phylogenetically close [45]. Pairwise 180 differences in neuropil volumes were taken as log₁₀(|Population_A-Population_B|+1). Partial 181 Mantel tests, controlling for pairwise differences in rCBR volumes, were performed using 182 ECODIST [46] with Pearson correlations and 1000 permutations.

183 Second, with insectary reared samples, we calculated Pst using the PSTAT package 184 [47] initially using a c/h^2 ratio of 1, where c is the proportion of the total variance presumed to be due to additive genetic effects across populations, and h^2 is the trait heritability. Quantitative 185 186 genetic parameters for invertebrate neuroanatomy are sorely lacking in the literature, with only 187 a small number of heritability estimates (0.123-0.376) for linear dimensions of Drosophila 188 mushroom body size [48]. We therefore also varied the c/h^2 ratio assuming c equals 0.25, 0.50, 0.75, 1.00, and *h*² equals 0.25, 0.50, 0.75, resulting in ratios of (0.33, 0.67, 1.00, 1.33, 189 190 1.50, 2.00, 3.00, 4.00) to test how sensitive the Pst estimates are to these assumptions. Pst 191 calculations were performed on raw, log₁₀-transformed neuropil volumes, and on residual 192 volumes after regressing neuropil volumes against rCBR using the res() function. To test if an 193 individual neuropil's PsT was significantly higher than expected by neutral divergence, we 194 calculated a p-value as the proportion of the FsT distribution [24] (see below) that was above 195 each PsT value, where a PsT value above the 95th percentile of the FsT distribution is taken as 196 evidence of selection.

Finally, we identified intermediate traits in hybrids we also performed Principal Component Analysis and ANOVAs among parental and hybrid individuals, with post-hoc Tukey tests to compare group means, using base R packages [49] (R Core Team, 2013).

200

201 2 v. RNA extraction and sequencing

202 All samples used for our comparative transcriptomics were reared in common garden 203 conditions (see above). Brains were dissected out of the head capsule in cold (4 °C) 0.01M PBS solution and include the CBR, OL and ommatidia. Full details of library preparation and 204 205 sequencing are available in Rossi et al. [50], but briefly, in 2014, mRNA was extracted from 206 whole brains of age-matched *H. c. chioneus* (n =11), *H. m. rosina* (n = 12), and F1 hybrids in 207 2014 (n = 4), using TRIzol Reagent (Thermo Fisher, Waltham, MA, USA) and a RNeasy kit 208 (Qiagen, Valencia, CA, USA). Samples were treated with DNase I (Ambion, Darmstadt, 209 Germany), and Illumina libraries were prepared and sequenced with 100bp paired-end reads 210 at Edinburgh Genomics (Edinburgh, UK). In 2019, mRNA was extracted from whole brains of 211 age-matched H. c. chioneus (n = 5), H. m. rosina (n = 5), and F1 hybrids (n = 12), using TRIzol 212 Reagent and a PureLink RNA Mini Kit, with PureLink DNase digestion on column (Thermo 213 Fisher, Waltham, MA, USA). Illumina 150bp paired-end RNA-seq libraries were prepared and 214 sequenced at Novogene (Hong Kong, China).

After trimming adaptor and low-quality bases from raw reads using TrimGalore v.0.4.4 (www.bioinformatics.babraham.ac.uk/projects), Illumina reads were mapped to the *H. melpomene* 2 genome [51]/*H. melpomene* 2.5 annotation [52] using STAR v.2.4.2a in 2-pass mode [53]. We kept only reads that mapped in 'proper pairs', using Samtools [54]. The number of reads mapping to each gene was estimated with HTseq v. 0.9.1 (model = union) [55].

220

221 2 vi. Statistical analyses of gene expression data

Differential gene expression analyses between groups were conducted in DESeq2 [56], including sex and sequencing batch as random factors. We considered only those genes showing a 2-fold change in expression level, and at adjusted (false discovery rate 5%) pvalues < 0.05, to be differentially expressed due to the potential for tissue composition to drive significant, but low-fold change differences in expression [57]. We conducted a Principal Component Analysis on rlog-transformed gene count data (as implemented in DESeq2) to inspect clustering of expression profiles among groups (species, or hybrids) for all genes, and for differentially expressed genes only.

We performed ANOVAs on normalized gene expression counts of species and hybrids, with post-hoc Tukey tests, and categorized gene expression levels in hybrids as follows:

1. "melpomene-like": where F1 vs. cydno p<0.05 and F1 vs melpomene p>0.05

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2. "*cydno*-like": where F1 vs. *cydno* p>0.05 <u>and</u> F1 vs *melpomene* p<0.05

- 3. "intermediate": where F1 vs. *cydno* p>0.05 <u>and</u> F1 vs *melpomene* p>0.05, or *cydno* p<0.05 <u>and</u> F1 vs *melpomene* p<0.05, with F1s having an intermediate mean
 expression level between parental species
- 4. "transgressive": where *cydno* p<0.05 <u>and</u> F1 vs *melpomene* p<0.05, with F1 having
 higher or lower mean expression compared to both parental species.

240 We estimated phenotypic differentiation in gene expression (Pst) from normalized 241 gene counts in *H. m. rosina* and *H. c. chioneus*, following Uebbing et al. [58]. For the main 242 analysis we set heritability to be 0.5, but examined the effects of varying heritability in the 243 supplementary results. The distribution of genome-wide genetic differentiation (Fst) between 244 H. m. rosina and H. c. chioneus were retrieved from Martin et al. [24]. To test if an individual 245 gene's Pst was significantly higher than expected by neutral divergence, we calculated p-246 values as the proportion of the Pst distribution that was above each Fst value. (Pst values 247 above the 95th percentile of the FsT distribution, were considered as showing evidence of 248 selection). We subsequently explored how the frequency of this index of selection varied 249 between gene expression categories (differentially expressed or not, and hybrid categories as 250 defined above) by comparing the proportion of genes showing $P_{ST} > F_{ST} q(95\%)$, in the various 251 gene categories).

252 To further test whether genes highlighted by these analyses contribute to divergence 253 between *melpomene* and *cydno*, we asked whether genes with Pst > Fst q(95%), or with 254 intermediate expression in hybrids, were more likely to occur in regions of the genome with 255 low levels of gene flow. We retrieved estimated admixture proportions (f_d) between H. m. 256 rosina and H. c. chioneus, and population recombination rates (rho) from Martin et al. [59]. 257 We then investigated the relationship between f_d (estimated in 100kb non-overlapping) 258 windows) and Pst, accounting for variation in recombination rate, as a way to study whether 259 selection acts against introgression of foreign alleles. In this analysis, we fitted the following generalized linear mixed models (glmm): $f_d \sim rho + PsT + (1|chromosome)$, assuming a 260 261 Gaussian distribution. We also explored whether genes with intermediate expression in F1s showed higher levels of PsT, and lower levels of f_d , compared to other genes, with glmm models: *intermediate_Y_or_N~X+(1|chromosome)*, where $X = f_d$ or PsT, assuming a binomial distribution. Inclusion of chromosome as a random factor provides partial correction for the effects of physical linkage between sites, however, we acknowledge this analysis may still be prone to inflated effect sizes due to non-independence of genomic regions. To test for differences in levels of PsT and f_d values among all gene categories we conducted a Kruskal-Wallis test with post-hoc Dunn test (with Bonferroni correction).

Finally, to infer possible overrepresentation of specific molecular functions among gene categories, we first used InterProScan v.5 [60] to retrieve gene ontology (GO) terms associated with every gene annotated in the Hmel2.5 genome. We then conducted a gene set enrichment analysis (Fisher's exact test, p < 0.01) with the TopGO package in R [61], using the "elim" algorithm, which corrects for non-independence among GO terms. We identified GO term enrichment tests for differentially expressed genes, genes showing intermediate expression in F1 hybrids, and genes with PsT > FsT q(95%), relative to all other genes, using Fisher's exact tests at $\alpha = 0.05$.

297 3. Supplementary results

298

299 3 i. Intra-clade variation in brain morphology

300 In cydno, no neuropil shows significant intra-clade divergence in scaling with an allometric 301 control (Table S4B, Table S5B), whereas several do in melpomene. Below, we illustrate this 302 difference with two neuropils, the medulla (A,C) and AOTU (B,D). Post-hoc tests in SMATR 303 (following Table S5B) identify no significant shifts in the cydno clade for either the medulla 304 (figure S1A) or AOTU (Figure S1B), consistent with our Ime4 analyses (Table S4B). In the 305 melpomene clade, H. m. rosina has a divergent slope from H. m. amaryllis for the medulla (X² = 4.096, p = 0.043), but this difference is not significant compared to H. m. melpomene (X^2 = 306 307 2.585, p=0.108) (Figure S1C). However, H. m. melpomene does have major-axis shift in 308 medulla size relative to H. m. amaryllis (Wald-statistic = 21.235, p<0.001) and H. m. rosina (X² 309 = 7.386, p = 0.007) consistent with coordinated expansion of the medulla and rCBR (Figure 310 S1C). For the AOTU (Figure S1D), H. m. rosina has a divergent scaling relationship with rCBR compared to H. m. amaryllis ($X^2 = 8.382$, p = 0.004) and, to a lesser extent, H. m. 311 *melpomene* ($X^2 = 3.352$, p = 0.067), whereas and *H. m. amaryllis* and *H. m melpomene* have 312 313 grade shift on the y-axis (test=6.908, p=0.009) indicating non-allometric variation in AOTU 314 size between these population.



Figure S1. Example of intra-clade variation in neuropil scaling in the *cydno* (A,B) and *melpomene* (C,D) clades for the medulla (A,C) and AOTU (B,D). See also Table S4B and
Table S5B.

337 **3** *ii* **Tests of neutrality on neuropil volumes**

338 Pairwise volumetric differences in the visual neuropils, or total optic lobe volume, are not 339 generally associated with Fst across populations (Table S8A). Although power is likely limited 340 by the number of populations, the only neuropils that suggest a relationship between trait 341 divergence and Fst are the lobula (LOB), antennal lobe (AL) and both mushroom body 342 components (MBCA, MBLOPE), with only LOB showing an association at p<0.05 for Fst 343 estimates from both mtDNA and AFLP data. None of these four neuropils show evidence of 344 non-allometric shifts in relative size between the melpomene and cydno clades. In contrast, 345 all neuropils that show this pattern of divergence lack associations with Fst. Under the association phenotypic drift is linearly associated with neutral genetic divergence this provides 346 347 evidence for a role of selection in driving divergence in brain composition across the cydno-348 *melpomene* clade.

349 Pst estimates based on comparisons between H. m. rosina and H. c. chioneus reared 350 in common-garden conditions are consistent with this interpretation (Table S8B). With the 351 exception of components of the central complex (PB and CB) all Pst estimates for raw volumes are above the 95th percentile of the FsT distribution, most likely reflecting divergence 352 353 in total brain size. However, after accounting for allometric variation through regressions 354 against central brain volume (rCBR), significant Pst>Fst effects are only detected for total 355 optic lobe size (OL), lamina (LAM), medulla (ME), lobula (LOB), ventral lobe of the lobula 356 (vLOB), and the anterior optic tubercule (AOTU). All are robust to correcting for multiple tests. 357 Varying the c/h^2 ratio suggests these results are widely robust to assumptions about the 358 proportion of genetic variance and heritability (Table S8C). All significant Pst>Fst results are recovered except under low a c/h^2 ratio, where the proportion of total variance accounted for 359 by additive genetic variance is low, and heritability is high. A scenario we suspect is unlikely. 360 361 Even under this scenario, LAM, vLOB and AOTU show significant Pst>Fst results before correcting for multiple tests. Under high c/h^2 ratios above 1, the lobula plate (LOP) also has 362 363 significant Pst>Fst.

Taken together at least LAM, ME, vLOB, aME and AOTU show greater degrees of phenotypic divergence between Panamanian *H. m. rosina* and *H. c. chioneus*, <u>and</u> an absence of an association with neutral divergence across the *cydno-melpomene* clade, which is highly suggestive of adaptive evolution, which ultimately affects overall OL size. Our data also suggests that the LOP and LOB have been under divergent selection between *melpomene* and *cydno*, but potentially with less consistency across the clade.

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374 3 iii. Hybrid disruption

375 In addition to having intermediate volumes relative to rCBR volume, hybrids also show some 376 evidence of intermediate scaling between pairs of neuropils. Scaling analyses between pairs 377 of visual neuropils in SMATR identify several comparisons with significant deviation in scaling 378 across parental species and F1 hybrids, affecting either the slope or elevation of the scaling 379 relationship (Table S7Di, Dii). Many of these cases reflect pairs of neuropils with direct 380 connections in other insects, including the LOB and vLOB [62], ME and AOTU [63], LOB and 381 AOTU [63], LAM and aME [64], or where there are likely indirect functional connections, e.g. 382 LAM and LOP, which are connected via projections to the MED [65], or the aME and AOTU 383 which both process polarised light [64,66,67].

384 Post-hoc analyses of tests with p<0.10 suggest that F1 hybrids show potentially 385 intermediate scaling relative to cydno and melpomene. For example, the elevation constant 386 for scaling between the LAM and aME in F1 hybrids is intermediate between H. cydno and H. 387 *melpomene*, although in both cases it is marginally non-significant (*H. cydno* wald = 3.665, p 388 = 0.056; *H. melpomene* wald = 3.758, p = 0.053; Figure S1A). In other cases, scaling in F1 389 hybrids is significantly different from one parental species, but not both (Table S7D iii; Figure 390 S1B,C). However, different pairs of neuropils show different parental similarities, with some 391 scaling like H. melpomene (e.g. aME~AOTU), while other scale like H. cydno (e.g. 392 aME~VLOB, LAM~LOB). We suggest that this provides a second potential avenue for hybrid 393 disruption if information flow between multiple neuropils are unbalanced.





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3 *iv.* **Divergence** *in* **gene expression**





log₂(fold-change Hmel/Hcyd)

Figure S3. Volcano plot for neural gene expression comparisons between *Heliconius melpomene* and *H. cydno*. Vertical dotted lines indicate the thresholds of a 2-fold change in expression (at x values of -1 and 1), the horizontal dotted line indicates significance (p-adjusted<0.05) in the test for differential expression (as conducted in DESeq2). Differentially expressed genes are colored in blue if up-regulated in *cydno*, and red if up-regulated in *melpomene*. Note that 3 outliers (with very low associated p-values) were removed for clarity.



469 Figure S4. Principal component analyses of expression level profiles of (A) all genes and of 470 (B) genes that were not detected as differentially expressed (see also, Figure 4). H. cydno 471 samples are colored in blue, F1 hybrids in gray, H. melpomene in red. Hybrids show reduced 472 intermediary in gene expression level when taking all genes into account, and are not 473 intermediate when non-differentially expressed genes are analysed. However, a trend for 474 dominance of the *melpomene* alleles is also evident across all genes (of all genes: 8.7% are 475 melpomene-like, 7.5% cydno-like, 3.9% statistically intermediate, 1.3% transgressive, 78.3% show no difference between species), Sequencing batch is denoted by the dot shape: circular 476 477 (batch 2014) and rhomboid (batch 2019).



Figure S5. Dendogram of neural expression profiles for *H. cydno*, F1 hybrids and *H. melpomene*, for genes detected to be differentially expressed between *cydno* and *melpomene* (different sequencing batches, 2014 and 2019, are highlighted with different shades of blue for *H. cydno*, gray for F1s, and red for *H. melpomene*).

3 v. Classification of gene expression in F1 hybrids

Our classification of gene expression patterns in hybrids relative to both parental species provides insights into the disruptive nature of hybridisation on expression profiles. Figure S6 provides illustrative examples of the pattern of variance characteristic of each gene category. Among differentially expressed genes, 589 were melpomene-like, 344 were cydno-like, 12 were 'transgressive', and 701 were intermediate between parental distributions. Considering all genes regardless of their differential expression between species, 1686 were classed as melpomene-like, 1449 were cydno-like, 259 were 'transgressive', and 746 were intermediate



Figure S6. Example of expression profiles for genes assigned to the different categories mentioned (e.g. intermediate in F1s). "n =" denotes the number of genes classified in each category. y-axis indicates the (rlog) normalized gene count. Dots correspond to individual samples, and are colored in blue for *H. cydno* samples, in gray for F1 hybrids, and in red for *H. melpomene*. Horizontal black bars indicate mean, with boxplots delineating + and - one standard deviation, of normalized gene counts.

530 3 vi. Tests of neutrality on gene expression

531 Pst estimates vary significantly between gene categories (Kruskal-Wallis test with post-hoc 532 Dunn test with Bonferroni correction, p<0.001 in pairwise comparisons except between 533 transgressive and "no differentially expressed" genes), with 11% (n=432/3881) of genes 534 showing intermediate or species-like expression in hybrids having Pst estimates within the 535 95th percentile of the FsT distribution, compared to 0.02% (n=3/15330) for non-differentially 536 expressed genes. The proportion of genes with significant PsT estimates is highest within 537 genes with intermediate expression in hybrids 23% (n=169/746), followed by melpomene and 538 cydno-like genes (9% (n=159/1686) and 7% (n=104/1449) respectively), and lowest within 539 transgressive genes (0% (n=0/259)). To test how these results varied under different assumed heritabilities, we recalculated PsT under five h^2 values (Figure S5). As expected, the results 540 541 are consistent across this range, with increased support for selection at lower h^2 values.





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Figure S7. Median, interquartile range and distributions of FsT and PsT values (for different gene categories), where PsT was estimated with varying levels of heritability (h²), indicated on top of each panel. Percentages (in blue) indicate the percentages of genes with PsT value higher than the 95% quantile of FsT (indicated by a horizontal dotted blue line), in each category.

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554			H. c-like	intermed.	H. mel-like	no diff.
555		intermed.	P<0.0001	-	-	-
556	F	H. mel-like	P<0.001	P<0.0001	-	
557	لم. ان		1 0.001			
558		no diff.	P<0.0001	P<0.0001	P<0.0001	-
559		transgres.	P<0.0001	P<0.0001	P<0.0001	P=0.094
560						
561			H. c-like	intermed.	H. mel-like	no diff.
562		intermed.	P<0.001	-	-	-
563	<u>_</u> P	H. mel-like	P=1.000	P<0.010	-	
564	-		1 1.000			
565		no diff.	P<0.0001	P<0.0001	P<0.0001	-
566		transgres.	P=0.646	P<0.001	P=0.185	P=1.000
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568 569 570	Figure S8. Full pairw Bonferroni correctior	vise compa n (see Figu	arisons fro ire 5).	om a Krus	kal-Wallis	test with
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5523 vii. Variation in Psτ and fd among gene categories553

590 4. Supplementary references

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