

1 **Divergent evolution in the genomes of closely-related lacertids, *Lacerta***
2 ***viridis* and *L. bilineata* and implications for speciation**

3 Rohit Kolora, Anne Weigert[‡], Amin Saffari[‡], Stephanie Kehr, Maria Beatriz Walter Costa,
4 Cathrin Spröer, Henrike Indrischek, Gero Doose, Manjusha Chintalapati, Konrad Lohse, Jörg
5 Overmann, Boyke Bunk, Christoph Bleidorn, Klaus Henle, Katja Nowick, Rui Faria, Peter F
6 Stadler, Martin Schlegel

7 [‡] These authors contributed equally to this work.

8
9 **Abstract**

10 **Background:** *Lacerta viridis* and *L. bilineata* are sister species of European green lizards
11 (eastern and western clades respectively), which until recently were grouped together as the *L.*
12 *viridis* complex. Genetic incompatibilities were observed between lacertid populations through
13 crossing experiments, which led to the delineation of two separate species within the *L. viridis*
14 complex. The population histories of these sister species and processes driving divergence are
15 unknown. We constructed high quality *de novo* genome assemblies for both *L. viridis* and *L.*
16 *bilineata* through Illumina and PacBio sequencing, with annotation support provided from
17 transcriptome sequencing of several tissues. To estimate gene flow between the two species and
18 identify the intrinsic and extrinsic factors involved in reproductive isolation, we studied their
19 evolutionary histories, identified cross-species genomic rearrangements, detected evolutionary
20 pressures on non-coding RNA and genes undergoing varying selection pressures.

21 **Findings:** Here we show that the gene flow between the lacertid species was primarily
22 unidirectional from *L. viridis* to *L. bilineata* since their split 2.7-3.05 Mya. Adaptive evolution
23 of the non-coding repertoire, mutations in transcription factors, accumulation of divergence

24 through inversions and selection on genes involved in neural development, reproduction and
25 behavior have been critical for reduced reproductive success between lacertid species.

26 **Conclusion:** Divergent evolution between lacertid species is a result of adaptive evolution of
27 non-coding elements, cognitive and reproductive genes. We propose that assortative mating in
28 lacertids is influenced by diversification of genes responsible for cutaneous response on
29 exposure to UV-B. Our results provide valuable insights into the demographic history and
30 factors contributing to evolutionary divergence leading to speciation in European green lizards.

31

32 **Introduction**

33 Understanding what species are and the processes driving their emergence have been two
34 central issues in biology [1]. Divergent evolution, which can eventually lead to speciation, is
35 driven by various mechanisms, such as chromosomal rearrangements, polyploidy in plants,
36 whole genome duplications followed by differential loss of genes and reduced hybrid viability
37 or sterility through Bateson-Dobzhansky-Muller incompatibilities (BDMIs) [2]. Both genetic
38 drift and selection can lead to the emergence of reproductive barriers, in particular intrinsic
39 BDMIs and, ultimately speciation.

40 During the last century, the genes involved in reproductive isolation were essentially identified
41 through crosses in the lab [3]. Studies characterizing these so-called “speciation genes” in
42 model organisms such as *Drosophila*, revealed several general patterns: i) genes involved in
43 post-zygotic incompatibilities show signatures of accelerated evolution [3]; ii) incompatibilities
44 often involve a disproportionate number of genes located on sex chromosomes [4, 5] and iii)
45 mis-expression is often observed in hybrids, suggesting that gene regulation is an important
46 component of speciation [6-8]. Genes involved in speciation can often be non-essential and
47 reproductive isolation can be restricted to a few loci in the genome [9, 10].

48 The advent of high throughput sequencing has enabled comparative genomic analyses making
49 it possible to identify genomic regions contributing to diversification. Additionally, their
50 distribution across the genome provides crucial information to understand the genomic
51 architecture of speciation [11]. For instance, genomic rearrangements can now be detected in
52 model and non-model organisms using *in-silico* methods [12-14], allowing to test hypotheses
53 about the role of genomic rearrangements in speciation [15]. Specifically theory suggests that
54 rearranged regions of the genome can facilitate speciation and several empirical studies have
55 shown that inversions show higher divergence and an enrichment for genetic incompatibilities
56 between species compared to collinear regions [16-19]. Inversions are also known to facilitate
57 speciation in the presence of gene flow in different ways: i) allow accumulation of genetic
58 differences within rearrangements (including genes involved in reproductive isolation) despite
59 gene flow [20, 21], ii) avoid species fusion after secondary contact [16] and iii) maintain
60 favorable combinations of locally adapted alleles at different loci favoring spread of
61 rearrangements [22].

62 Assessment of divergence in regulatory elements and transcription factors between species
63 contributes to a more complete understanding of the link between genotypes and phenotypes.
64 This opens the door to investigate the general importance of gene regulation in speciation, as
65 well as more specific hypotheses such as the role of zinc-finger genes, especially *Krüppel*-type
66 zinc fingers (KZNFs), a family of transcription factors in species diversification [7]. In addition
67 to protein-coding regions in the genome, variations in non-coding RNAs (ncRNAs) act as
68 precursors of speciation through differences in epigenetic mechanisms [23]. These functional
69 differences are primarily attributed to species-specific diversity of ncRNA classes and structural
70 evolution in conserved ncRNAs [24-26].

71 The demographic history of recently diverged taxa can now be inferred from genome-wide
72 sequencing data. Different model-based methods are now available [27], including some that

73 make use of genomic data from a single individual from each species to test for migration as
74 well as population size changes during divergence [28]. These methodological advances allow
75 for a better interpretation of the genomic landscape of speciation and the evolutionary processes
76 involved [29].

77 Lizards provide an excellent model for the study of speciation due to the existing knowledge
78 on their long-term demographics and adaptive morphologies, in addition to the ease of sample
79 collection and experimental manipulations [30]. Lizards of the genus *Anolis* have especially
80 been studied in detail, as their distribution on islands coupled with repeated events of adaptive
81 radiations offered a perfect framework for evolutionary ecology studies. Not surprisingly, the
82 first sequenced squamate genome was an anole lizard [31]. Comparative genomic analysis of
83 *Anolis carolinensis* (anole lizard) with the genomes of birds and mammals was pivotal in
84 identifying accelerated evolution of egg proteins associated with amniote evolution [31].
85 Further sauropsid genomes (birds and reptiles) were sequenced in recent years, now covering a
86 broader taxonomic range of Squamata, Archosauria and Chelonia [32-39]. The study of *Gekko*
87 *japonicus* (gecko lizard) contributed to the understanding of evolution and adaptation of tail
88 regeneration, clinging, nocturnal vision and diversification of the olfactory system [34]. In
89 addition, the genomes of *Pogona vitticeps* (bearded dragon lizard) and *Shinisaurus*
90 *crocodilurus* (Chinese crocodile lizard) have recently been characterized [32, 35]. However,
91 comparative genome analyses of closely-related lizard species pairs have only been undertaken
92 recently in anoles where adaptive evolution of genes related to brain development and behavior
93 was reported [40].

94 In particular, the family Lacertidae (Sauropsida, Squamata) has been well covered in-terms of
95 phylogeographic studies, providing important information about the likely timing and
96 geographic context of speciation [30]. Within this family, the *Lacerta viridis* complex shows
97 an intricate evolutionary history with secondary contact zones [41, 42]. Here, we focus on the

98 divergence between the western clade formally described as *L. bilineata* (corresponding to
99 lineage B) and the eastern clade of *L. viridis* (lineage V) that currently occupy disjoint regions
100 in Europe [42].

101 Adult individuals from the two taxa are very similar: throat coloration of hatchlings and early
102 juveniles is the only described diagnostic trait so far [43]. Although ongoing gene flow between
103 these two species was previously hypothesized in studies of allozyme variation [44, 45], recent
104 analyses based on mtDNA and one nuclear marker (fibint7) have cast doubt on the taxonomic
105 classification of the individuals analyzed in those studies [42]. Furthermore, the limited power
106 of these two markers did not provide conclusive evidence either for or against gene flow
107 between *L. viridis* and *L. bilineata*.

108 Hybrids between different main lineages within the *L. viridis* complex (northern Italy and
109 Hungary) exhibit reduced fitness under laboratory conditions [46]. This suggests at least partial
110 reproductive isolation between *L. viridis* and *L. bilineata* in the wild which can arise due to
111 BDMIs. This raises the prospect that genomic rearrangements could be involved in the
112 diversification of the *Lacerta viridis* complex [47, 48]. Lizard-specific KZNF genes have
113 recently been predicted [49], making our focal pair of taxa an excellent case study of evolution
114 in this class of genes and their role in speciation between via changes in gene regulatory
115 networks.

116 Here we combine short Illumina and long PacBio read sequencing approaches to construct high
117 quality *de novo* genomes for both *L. bilineata* and *L. viridis*, with annotation support from
118 transcriptomic data. We investigated the demographic history of divergence between the two
119 lacertid taxa, performed a broad comparison of genomic features contributing to species
120 divergence and quantified selection in lacertid evolution.

121

122

123 **Results**

124 **The genomes of *L. viridis* and *L. bilineata***

125 We employed a hybrid strategy of combining Illumina and PacBio sequencing data to produce
126 separate genome assemblies for the two lacertid species. Genome sequencing coverages of 34x
127 Illumina and 14x PacBio for *L. viridis*; 37x Illumina and 11x PacBio for *L. bilineata* aided in
128 the construction of high quality genome assemblies (supplement SI-1; Figure S2, S3). The
129 assembled lacertid genomes achieved better contiguity than the high coverage illumina-only
130 contigs of *A. carolinensis* and *G. japonicus* (Table S1). The contig N50's of genomic assemblies
131 of *L. viridis* and *L. bilineata* were 368kb and 663kb respectively, while the BUSCO
132 (Benchmarking Universal Single-Copy Orthologs) completeness were 96% and 94%
133 respectively which was higher than the available lizard genomes. Since the genome of *L. viridis*
134 had better contiguity than *L. bilineata*, *L. viridis* was used as the reference to predict genomic
135 variants (structural variants (SVs) and single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) between the
136 two taxa. There were no observable differences in segmental duplications between the lacertid
137 genomes (Figure S4). The syntenic blocks between the genomes of *L. viridis* and *L. bilineata*
138 had an identity of 98.2% (87% represented by pair-wise syntenies). Synteny information was
139 used to create unordered contig clusters (min. size of 1 Mbp covering one-third of the *L. viridis*
140 genome) which roughly represent positioning on the same chromosome (Suppl. File S2). The
141 median synonymous substitution rate (Ks) and non-synonymous substitution rate (Ka) between
142 the two lacertid species were 0.021 and 0.016 respectively. A divergence time of 2.5-2.9 million
143 years was estimated between the two species based on 4d-sites.

144 The identical structures of the HOX-cluster between the lacertid species and *A. carolinensis*
145 confirms the high genomic assembly quality since the HOX-clusters are highly conserved

146 (supplement SI-1). The number of chromosomes and the sex-determination system are different
147 between anole lizards ($2n=36$, 12 macro- and 24 microchromosomes; XY) and lacertid lizards
148 ($2n=38$; 36 macro- and 2 microchromosomes; ZW) [50, 51]. However, genomic contigs of both
149 lacertid species were syntenic without breaks or inter-chromosomal transpositions to the macro-
150 chromosomes of *A. carolinensis* (Figure S2), though the lacertids and anoles split more than
151 150 Mya. An exception to this was a single *L. viridis* contig which split over two macro-
152 chromosomes of the *A. carolinensis* genome. This particular contig of *L. viridis* was syntenic
153 to five separate contigs in *L. bilineata* assembly, demonstrating higher fragmentation in genome
154 assembly of the latter.

155 The assembled transcripts were crucial for gene annotations since the *ab initio* methods
156 predicted fragmented proteins and coding sequences (CDS). A majority of the longest *de novo*
157 assembled transcript isoforms were from the ovarian tissue followed by the brain. Since the
158 sequencing throughput was highest for the liver tissue in both the species, the formation of
159 longest isoforms in the ovaries was confirmed as not an artifact of sequencing. We identified
160 22156 genes in *L. viridis* and 22491 genes in *L. bilineata* supported by *de novo* assembled
161 transcripts (supplement SI-2; Table S2). The higher number of genes in *L. bilineata* was due to
162 the fragmentation of genes onto multiple contigs, which can be resolved with scaffolding
163 information. Compared to *A. carolinensis*, we observed an over-representation of genes in
164 transfer RNA (tRNA) aminoacylation (Panther release 20170413, fold-enrichment=2.13-2.25,
165 $p<0.03$) and tRNA metabolic process (Panther release 20170413, fold-enrichment=1.84-1.89,
166 $p<0.003$) in both lacertids, indicating an expansion of tRNA-processing genes. Putative Z-
167 chromosome linked contigs consisted of few non-coding elements (supplement SI-3). The total
168 length of the contigs assigned to the Z-chromosome in lacertids was longer (13.5-15.6 Mbp)
169 than the assigned Z-chromosomes of *P. vitticeps* (8 Mbp) but the number of identified genes
170 were similar (205-221 in lacertids and 219 in *P. vitticeps*) [52].

171 The number of predicted members of the different non-coding RNA classes was similar in *L.*
172 *viridis* and *L. bilineata* (Table S3). Compared to other selected tetrapod species, there was a
173 substantial increase in the number of tRNAs (both functional- and pseudo-tRNAs) in the two
174 lacertid species (Figure S5, S6). However, the number of tRNAs and pseudo-tRNAs are known
175 to vary significantly in eukaryotes[53]. We found an over-representation of tRNA-processing
176 genes supported by the expansion of tRNA elements in both lacertid species maintained through
177 deletion-duplication events within lacertids. miRNA and snoRNA in the lacertids exhibited
178 losses compared to the *A. carolinensis* (Figure S7, S8). Even though the number of snoRNA
179 and miRNA were almost identical within lacertids, the members in each ncRNA class
180 diversified between the two sister species. Repeat content also differed between *L. viridis* and
181 *L. bilineata*; with the later exhibiting a gain of long-terminal repeat (LTR) elements (Table S5).

182 **Demography and gene flow during divergence**

183 Across all sites, mean Heterozygosity was slightly higher in *L. bilineata* than in *L. viridis*
184 ($\pi=0.0014$ and 0.0013 respectively). Absolute divergence per site between the two species as
185 measured by D_{xy} was around 0.0110 . These estimates correspond to a pairwise F_{ST} between *L.*
186 *viridis* and *L. bilineata* of 0.77 .

187 We inferred past divergence and gene flow between the two lacertid species using a likelihood
188 method based on the site frequency spectrum of short sequence blocks i.e. blockwise site
189 frequency spectrum (bSFS) [28, 54]. Since the likelihood calculation assumes no recombination
190 within blocks and an infinite sites mutation model, we partitioned the genome into short (i.e.
191 200 bases) blocks. Our dataset consisted of 18,059 informative blocks (i.e. not all sites in the
192 block are missing data), of which a mere 95 were filtered out due to the evidence of
193 recombination (they contained both shared heterozygous sites and fixed differences which

194 violates the 4-gamete criterion). Less than 1% of the total sites were filtered out due to
195 recombination reducing the average per-site heterozygosity in both species slightly (Table S6).

196 The counts of the four entries of the folded joint site frequency spectrum (heterozygous (het.)
197 sites unique to A and B; het. sites shared by A and B; fixed differences) for each block defined
198 304 different configurations, 196 of which appeared more than once in the data.

199 We compared the support between different demographic scenarios (Figure 1) that assume
200 either complete isolation or isolation with unidirectional migration between the two lacertid
201 species and co-estimates all parameter under each model (supplement SI-4; Table S7) by
202 maximizing the likelihood across blocks (*Mathematica* code available in supplemental file 3).

203 The best model supports gene flow between the two species with the assumption of two
204 different effective population sizes (M4.1 and M4.2). The overall best model (M4.1) supports
205 isolation between the two lacertid species with unidirectional gene flow from *L. viridis* to *L.*
206 *bilineata* and fits significantly better than simpler models without gene flow (or just a single N_e
207 parameter) (Table 1). This model (M4.1) also suggests a larger effective population size of *L.*
208 *bilineata* ($N_e=29,546$) compared to its ancestor and *L. viridis* ($N_e=14,764$) (Table S7 Parameter
209 b) and a migration rate per generation of 0.11 from *L. viridis* to *L. bilineata*.

210 Assuming a generation time of 3-3.5 years and a mutation rate of $1.14e-8$, our estimate of the
211 split between *L. viridis* and *L. bilineata* corresponds to 2.7-3.05 Mya (Table S8).

212 **Detection of genomic rearrangements**

213 We detected 20,160 genomic rearrangements or structural variants (SVs) longer than 50bp
214 between the two lacertids (Figure 2; Table S9). These rearrangements covered 39.4Mb of the
215 *L. viridis* genome accounting to 2.7% of the genome. These rearranged regions had a higher
216 GC-content (47.1%) compared to regions with no detected rearrangements (44.5%). This

217 contrast in GC-content has been observed in genomic breakpoints, copy-number variants
218 (CNVs) and somatic rearrangements before [55-58]. 10.8 Mb of the *L. viridis* genome (0.07%)
219 was detected to be covered with large rearrangements affecting genes (covering the entire
220 length of more than one gene) compared to *L. bilineata*, but these regions had a slightly smaller
221 GC (44.4%). These large regions were enriched for RNA-directed DNA polymerase activity
222 (22.46 fold-enrichment, $p=5.11e-03$).

223 Indels are the most frequent genomic rearrangements mainly affecting introns, repeat elements
224 and pseudo-tRNAs (supplement SI-5; Table S10). This concedes with the observations made
225 with respect to SVs in human populations and pigs [13, 59]. Most SVs overlapping exons cover
226 entire exons and do not result in frame-shift mutations, with the exception of EXD2 and HERC2
227 which were either non-essential or their functions can be complemented by other genes
228 (supplement SI-6).

229 **Structural selection of ncRNAs**

230 MicroRNAs (miRNA) were the most structurally conserved family of ncRNAs followed by
231 small non-coding RNAs (snoRNA) (Figure S9). The four types of ncRNAs and the number of
232 groups in each category are tabulated in Table S11 (supplement SI-7). High levels of diversity
233 were observed in tRNAs, especially in pseudo-tRNA, which was further supported by high copy
234 numbers of tRNAs with low conservation between the two lacertid species.

235 All ncRNAs with low diversity across orthologs were computationally tested for sites with
236 positive selection in either lacertids. The divergent snoRNA families belong to the H/ACA box
237 class which can introduce change posttranslational mechanisms and pseudouridylation between
238 the two species [60]. SNORD61 (Small Nucleolar RNA, C/D Box 61) (Figure S10a) was
239 inferred to have evolved under positive selection in *L. bilineata*. The human ortholog of
240 SNORD61 occurs in the intron of a RBMX (RNA binding motif protein, X-linked gene), known

241 to be involved in the dosage compensation and cohesion regulator of sister chromatids [61].
242 Two microRNAs showed signs of positive selection in *L. viridis*: MIR6516 (mir-6516-3p)
243 (Figure S10b) associated with urea synthesis[62] and MIR27 (mir-27a and mir27-d) (Figure
244 S10c) which is known to play a role in regeneration and osteoblast differentiation in mice [63,
245 64]. However, mir-27d was absent in *L. bilineata*, so the indication of divergence between
246 lacertids can be due to the presence of an additional MIR27 sequence in *L. viridis*. Two
247 lincRNAs orthologs (LiNC66 and LiNC29) overlapping with conserved regions across
248 tetrapods were structurally divergent between the lacertids, since both had high selection scores
249 and passed the visual filtering (Figure S10d-e).

250 **Purifying selection in lacertids**

251 The visual opsins are pivotal for adaptation to diurnal habitats in Squamata [32, 65]. Moreover,
252 the nocturnal *G. japonicus* lost two of the five functional opsin paralogs [34]. All five paralogs
253 of visual opsins of *A. carolinensis* (22 transcripts from ENSEMBL) were also present in *L.*
254 *viridis* and *L. bilineata* (20 transcript sequences), indicating similar diurnal adaptations. We
255 observed high conservation of SWS1 (opsin) which is crucial for sexual selection [66, 67] and
256 of the pigmentation protein MC1R linked to adaptive coloration [68] within the lacertids
257 (supplement SI-8).

258 **Varying selection pressures in protein-coding genes between lacertids**

259 Genes involved in neuronal activity, behavior, auditory perception and female reproductive
260 system development were conserved in the lacertid ancestor i.e. before the split between the
261 two lacertid species (compared to five other vertebrates as background). Genes with different
262 selection constraint between the two lacertid species (i.e. difference in purifying selection after
263 the split between *L. viridis* and *L. bilineata*) were related to brain and neural development,
264 embryo and cartilage development along with behavioral responses (Table S12).

265 The test for positive selection in either of the lacertid species was performed with branch-site
266 model of codeml (model M2) using a sub-set of other lizards as background branches. The
267 number of genes with positively selected sites (PSS) in different foreground branches (*L.*
268 *viridis*; *L. bilineata*; or the ancestor of *L. viridis* and *L. bilineata*) are tabulated in the Table S13
269 (supplement SI-9). One of the genes with PSS in *L. bilineata* (STAR7) was present on Z-
270 chromosome. The predicted ontologies of genes with PSS in either of the two lacertid species
271 indicate potential variation in growth and developmental processes, behavioral responses
272 (temperature and pH) and transcriptional regulation (Table S14). Three genes (NASP, PDL11
273 and RTKN) were positively selected in the ancestor of the lacertid branch compared to
274 background branches that include more distant classes such as mammals and birds (supplement
275 SI-9, Table S15).

276 The prostacyclin synthase (PTGIS) involved in regeneration through prostaglandin synthesis is
277 positively selected in *A. carolinensis* and *G. japonicus* [34]. This gene evolved under positive
278 selection in the lacertid ancestor with *A. carolinensis* and *G. japonicus* as the background,
279 hinting at evolutionary changes in regenerative mechanisms between lizards.

280 **Diversification of UV-responsive genes**

281 We identified three paralogs of the hyaluronidases (HYAL1, HYAL2 and HYAL4) in both the
282 lacertid genomes. Two genes (STIK1 and HYAL2) coding for proteins in the extra-cellular
283 matrix of the skin reacting to UV-B light (GO:0071493) [69] were positively selected in
284 ancestral branch of the lacertids, while the HYAL1 paralog was positively selected in *L. viridis*
285 (supplement SI-8). Arylsulfatase gene (ARSB) which is involved in the chondroitin sulfate
286 biosynthesis pathway along with HYAL was also positively selected in *L. viridis*. Significant
287 pathway enrichment of chondroitin sulfate biosynthesis was observed for PSGs in *L. viridis*
288 ($p=2.6e-06$, $q=1.3e-05$).

289 **Divergence of Kruppel-type zinc-finger proteins and species-specific alternative splicing**

290 KRAB-ZNFs or KZNFs (zinc finger proteins with a *Krüppel*-associated box (KRAB)) are
291 transcriptional regulators are confined to tetrapod vertebrates [70] and are known to play a role
292 in reproductive isolation through binding domain differences as well as in the shaping of
293 recombination landscape across the primate genomes [7, 71-74]. To investigate the role of
294 KRAB-ZNFs in the reproductive isolation of our two lacertid species, we compared the KZNF
295 orthologs for differences in their DNA-binding domains and found divergent six orthologous
296 C2H2 zinc-finger proteins (supplement SI-10). Interestingly, all of these KZNFs had their
297 longest transcripts assembled from ovarian tissues (Table S16) and these were not tissue-
298 specific since they were expressed in all the five tissues.

299 The genes with significantly varying splice forms between the lacertid species were enriched
300 for spliceosomal activity (supplement SI-10). These differences in alternative splicing were
301 predicted based on the presence of alternative splice junction read support in all the five tissue
302 transcriptomes (brain, heart, liver, kidneys and ovaries).

303 **Impact of rearrangements on sequence evolution**

304 Deletions are the most frequent type of SVs in the genome and occurred on both positively
305 selected and neutrally evolving genes. Duplications and insertions only occurred in genes
306 evolving neutrally while deletions and inversions occurred in genes irrespective of their
307 selective regime. The ratio of regions with rearrangements or SVs to those with no detected
308 rearrangements was different between genes under positive selection and neutrally evolving
309 genes (Boschloo's exact test, two-sided; difference in proportion=0.125, $p=0.06$). This implies
310 low significance in the association of genes under positive selection (PSGs) with SVs. Since
311 this can be due to indels over-showing other categories of SVs due to higher abundance, we
312 tested the individual effect of each SV category with positive selection separately. The

313 association between PSGs and each SV category (or rearrangements) was performed with
314 independent Boschloo exact-tests (Table S17). Tests between different categories of SVs over
315 PSGs and neutrally evolving genes (NGs) showed significantly higher occurrence of inversions
316 with PSGs compared to other SV categories ($p=0.028$). These inversions overlapping with
317 PSGs were independent events on different contigs. We also observed a significant occurrence
318 of inversions with PSGs over NGs compared to both non-rearranged regions ($p=0.009$) and
319 collinear regions ($p=0.006$).

320

321 **Discussion**

322 We provide the assembled genomes of two closely-related lacertid species, *L. viridis* and *L.*
323 *bilineata*, investigated the population history and determined the patterns of genomic
324 divergence between these species.

325 The error correction of PacBio reads (15-18% error rate) with Illumina data (<0.1% error rate)
326 provided a clear improvement in the genome assembly. The assembly contiguity was highest
327 with partial error correction of PacBio reads (without splitting at chimeric junctions) followed
328 by hybrid assembly through DBG2OLC implementing removal of chimeric joins. This hybrid
329 assembly strategy aided in generating high quality contig-level genomes with moderate genome
330 coverages (~35X Illumina and ~15X PacBio). The quality of the lacertid genome assemblies
331 was higher than the available lizard genomes (Table S1).

332 The estimated time of split between *L. viridis* and *L. bilineata* was 2.7-3.05 Mya which is
333 similar to the earlier predicted split time of 2.6-3.4 Mya based on mitochondrial genomes which
334 are 95% identical [41, 75]. The genetic divergence between the two lacertid species ($F_{ST}=0.77$)
335 is slightly higher than between species divergence in primates ($F_{ST}=0.54-0.74$ between

336 chimpanzees and bonobos) and within species divergence of *L. agilis* populations ($F_{ST}=0.299$).
337 Therefore, our results support the separate species status of *L. viridis* and *L. bilineata*.

338 The best demographic model confirmed unidirectional gene flow predominantly in the direction
339 from *L. viridis* to *L. bilineata*. We also infer a higher effective population size for *L. bilineata*
340 which can be explained by greater population subdivision compared to *L. viridis* [42, 76, 77].
341 The eastern clade (*L. viridis*) possesses smaller effective population size indicating lower
342 genetic diversity in our sampled population (Hungary), in line with previous studies. Another
343 possibility is that *L. viridis* is strongly structured into meta-populations that are affected by local
344 extinction and recolonization events[78].

345 Diversity within various ncRNA classes and adaptive differences in ncRNA orthologs capable
346 of altering their secondary structures are leading factors contributing to evolutionary divergence
347 since varying ncRNA structures imply functional changes [25]. Copy number variation and
348 differences in the content of miRNA families hints at variability in gene regulatory networks
349 between the lacertid sister species. Species-specific splicing mechanisms can be attributed to
350 the losses of snoRNA families (SNORA 17 and SNORA20) in *L. bilineata* and structural
351 changes in SNORD61 whose human ortholog occurs in RBMX gene (catalytic site 2
352 spliceosome) involved in dosage compensation [79]. This is supported by significant
353 enrichment of alternative splicing differences for spliceosomal complex related genes.
354 Although differential alternative splicing was observed in all extracted tissues of both species
355 (without reference bias), this needs to be further investigated with more biological replicates.

356 Positive selection of sites in NASP and PDLIM1 compared to distant background branches
357 including mammals and birds indicate disparate evolutionary changes in both *L. viridis* and *L.*
358 *bilineata* with regard to reproductive processes i.e. spermatogenesis, fertilization and embryo
359 implantation [80-83]. Positive selection of sites in the genes of either lacertid species after their

360 split from a common ancestor indicates adaptive differences leading to speciation if selection
361 occurred before complete reproductive isolation [84-86].

362 UV-reflectance of plumages in birds an important trait in the sexual selection of
363 morphologically similar sibling species [87]. Sexual selection in *L. viridis* has been linked to
364 UV-response, males with more UV-reflective patches on the skin are preferably selected by the
365 females [88, 89]. Hyaluronidases, known to be differentially expressed on exposure to UV-B
366 in the skin of mice [69, 90, 91] evolve rapidly in lacertids. We speculate that differential
367 cutaneous response as a result of adaptive differences in chondroitin sulfate (CS) biosynthesis
368 pathway drives preferential mating in these lacertid species.

369 The divergence of transcription factors, especially differences in DNA-binding regions of
370 KZNFs as observed here, might have contributed to the reduced reproductive success between
371 lacertid species. This receives further support from adaptive differences in the transcription
372 factors (UBIP1 and RPA2) crucial for spermatogonia formation [92, 93]. Varying levels of
373 purifying selection in genes influencing forebrain development and behavior indicate
374 dissimilarities between *L. viridis* and *L. bilineata* [94-98]. These differences can arise from
375 adaptations to varying ecological habitats and environmental conditions [43]. Adaptive changes
376 in genes involved in habitat preference, behavior and viability after the split of *L. viridis* and *L.*
377 *bilineata* seem to be elemental in their divergence. Similar observations were made between
378 species of anoles through selective differences in genes related to behavior and brain
379 development [40].

380 Genomic regions harboring inversions are known to suppress recombination in
381 heterokaryotypes [99] facilitating speciation in the presence of gene flow. Genomic inversions
382 between the two lacertids are significantly associated with positively selected genes and may
383 play a role in reproductive isolation. In particular, adaptation of genes related to cognitive and

384 reproductive genes (GPR155 and TDRD3) may contribute to reproductive isolation through
385 association with inversions. Despite observing association of inversions with PSGs which can
386 lead to reproductive isolation, we are currently unaware of fixed inversion differences between
387 lacertids.

388 SV-polymorphisms also occur within populations [13] and sequencing of multiple individuals
389 from different populations of each species is required before drawing far-reaching conclusions.
390 Assessing the frequencies of these inversions within and between lacertid populations would
391 be crucial in understanding their relevance to speciation. In addition to a detailed analysis of
392 the demographic history and evolutionary scenario of European green lizards, our study
393 provides valuable data that will help establish conservation guidelines for lacertids which are
394 declining [100] due to habitat loss.

395

396 **Conclusions**

397 We assembled the first high quality genomes of two closely-related species of European green
398 lizards produced with a cost-effective strategy. Genes related to with transcriptional regulation,
399 behavior, neural and reproductive development have diversified the most between the lacertids.
400 Species-specific diversity of ncRNAs, adaptive evolution in regulatory elements and
401 transcription factors (especially KZNFs) indicate variation in gene regulatory networks
402 pointing to reproductive isolation between the two species. Preferential mate selection between
403 lacertids is driven by adaptation of genes responsible for differential cutaneous response to UV-
404 exposure. Reproductive isolation between *L. viridis* and *L. bilineata* seems to be also driven by
405 accumulated divergence through inversions and their association with genes under positive
406 selection. Altogether, we provide a comprehensive study of the evolutionary history; genic,

407 structural and regulatory differences between the genomes of two closely-related lacertid
408 species.

409

410 **Materials and Methods**

411 **Sampling**

412 Two adult females were sampled for this study, a *L. viridis* from Tokaj, north-eastern Hungary
413 (21.39775°E, 48.11363°N) (September 2013) and a *L. bilineata* from Malain, France
414 (4°48'2.01"E, 47°21'16.27"N) (July 2014). There is no known morphological variation
415 between the individuals of the two species (Figure S1). These represent two of the four main
416 clades within the *L. viridis* complex [41, 42, 46, 101]. The specimens were transported in a
417 cotton bag and kept at room temperature over night to avoid extreme stress responses. Tissues
418 from the brain, heart, liver, kidney and ovaries were dissected for tissue-specific transcriptome
419 sequencing and the remaining body tissues were stored separately at -80°C.

420 **Whole-genome and transcriptome sequencing**

421 Tail tissue from each sample was digested with proteinase K and genomic DNA was extracted
422 using a chloroform-based method [102]. The whole genome was sequenced using both short
423 (Illumina) and long read (PacBio) sequencing techniques. Short-read libraries with insert sizes
424 of 380bp and 450bp were prepared for each individual separately. The Illumina paired-end
425 sequences were double-indexed using a multiplexing sequencing protocol [103, 104] on a
426 HiSeq2500. SMRTbellTM template library was prepared according to the instructions from
427 PacificBiosciences, Menlo Park, CA, USA, following the Procedure and Checklist – Greater
428 Than 10 kb Template Preparation. Briefly, for preparation of 15kb libraries 10µg (*L. bilineata*)
429 and 20µg (*L. viridis*) genomic DNA was damage-repaired twice, end-repaired and ligated

430 overnight to hairpin adapters applying components from the DNA/Polymerase Binding Kit P6
431 from Pacific BioSciences, Menlo Park, CA, USA. Reactions were carried out according the
432 manufacturer's instructions. BluePippin™ Size-Selection to greater than 15kb was performed
433 according to the manufacturer's instructions (Sage Science, Beverly, MA, USA). Conditions
434 for annealing of sequencing primers and binding of polymerase to purified SMRTbell™
435 template were assessed with the Calculator in RS Remote, PacificBiosciences, Menlo Park, CA,
436 USA. Long-read sequencing was carried out for both genomes with 20 SMRT Cells applying
437 P6-C4 chemistry on a PacBio RS-II sequencer. Average PacBio read lengths of 14kb and 12kb
438 were retrieved for *L. viridis* and *L. bilineata*, respectively.

439 RNA from each tissue was extracted using Trizol Reagent (Life Technologies, Carlsbad, CA,
440 USA) and purified with the RNeasy® Mini Kit (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany). The mRNA was
441 purified using the Dynabeads® mRNA Purification Kit (Life Technologies, Carlsbad, CA,
442 USA). The purity and concentration of RNA and cDNA were checked using Nanodrop and
443 Bioanalyzer 2100 (Agilent Technologies, CA, USA) and fragments of length 200-250bp were
444 obtained using Ambion® RNA fragmentation reagent. The first and second strands of cDNA
445 were synthesized using random hexamer primers with SuperScript® II reverse transcriptase
446 (Life Technologies, Carlsbad, CA, USA) and DNA Polymerase I with RNase H treatment (Life
447 Technologies, Carlsbad, CA, USA) respectively.

448 *L. viridis* was sequenced on a single lane for a more elaborated estimation of the genome size
449 and repeat content. In order to avoid lane- and run-biases, sequencing was distributed over three
450 lanes with all genomes and transcriptomes.

451 **Non-coding RNA (ncRNA) annotation and Repeat analysis**

452 Small ncRNAs were annotated on the genomic contigs by performing an infernal cmscan
453 (V1.1.1) using the RFAM covariance models as input and homologous ncRNA genes were
454 filtered with a cut-off of 1e-06 [105, 106].

455 Additionally, ncRNA class-specific annotation methods were used for tRNAs, snoRNAs and
456 miRNAs. tRNAs were annotated using tRNAscan-SE with default parameters [107]. The
457 BLAST-based snoStrip pipeline [108] was used to annotate snoRNAs. A comprehensive set of
458 snoRNAs from vertebrates and aves were used as query set [109]. To detect miRNAs, the avian
459 set of miRNAs were used as query sequences for a BLAST search in the lizard genomes. All
460 resulting blast hits were filtered for conservation of the seed region. The annotated snoRNAs
461 and miRNAs in lacertids were validated by blast searches against this reference database and
462 mature miRNA sequence homologies were used. In the case of overlapping miRNA and
463 snoRNA annotations, both were retained as it is known that snoRNAs can be processed into
464 small derived RNAs (sdRNAs) from miRNA-like RNAs [110]. Putative lincRNAs were
465 predicted based on the transcripts with no coding potential as assessed by Transdecoder [111]
466 and mapping on their respective genome without chimeric paths. Furthermore, only the
467 conserved lincRNAs with one-to-one orthologs between lacertids were retained.

468 For comparison, ncRNA families (except lincRNA) were also annotated in other selected
469 sauropsid genomes. A reference database was created using sequenced and annotated genomes
470 from reptiles, aves and other vertebrates. The program ePoPe [112] was used to understand the
471 evolution of snoRNAs and miRNAs in the lacertids through the construction of phylogenetic
472 trees based on the gains and losses of ncRNA families.

473 The Repeatmodeler pipeline [113] was used to predict repeats in the genomes of lacertids. The
474 predicted repeat-families were used as initial libraries for *de novo* annotation of repeats using
475 Repeatmasker [114]. The evolution of these repeats was investigated using the repeat library
476 available for tetrapod species (Database: 20140131).

477 **Population histories, gene flow and coalescence**

478 To infer the history of divergence and gene flow between *L. viridis* and *L. bilineata* we used
479 the blockwise composite likelihood approach. We analytically computed the probabilities of
480 mutational configurations in blocks of fixed length using the blockwise site frequency spectrum
481 (bSFS) framework [28].

482 We mapped the illumina reads from *L. viridis* and *L. bilineata* to the *L. viridis* genome as
483 reference with BWA mem [115]. The homozygosity/heterozygosity of each site in both
484 lacertids was predicted based on the reference genome with freebayes [116] with a minimum
485 read support of 5. For each block of length 200 bp, we counted the number of the four mutation
486 types defined by the joint SFS (Figure 3). We then summarized the frequency of each
487 polymorphism pattern across all blocks [117, 118]. This data summary is referred to as
488 distribution of bSFS.

489 Blocks containing both fixed differences and shared heterozygous sites, violate the 4-gametes
490 criterion and were removed given the assumption of no recombination within blocks. To correct
491 for the extent of linkage disequilibrium which includes correlation between adjacent blocks, we
492 followed a conservative approach for the correction of maximum-likelihood of each model in
493 every 114 blocks. We fitted seven different demographic scenarios (Figure 2): divergence with
494 the same effective population sizes in two separated populations and their ancestor (M1),
495 divergence with different effective population sizes in one lineage compared to its ancestor
496 (M2.1, M2.2), divergence with continuous unidirectional gene flow with fixed effective
497 population size (M3.1, M3.2), and divergence with continuous unidirectional gene flow with
498 different effective population sizes in one lineage compared to its ancestor (M4.1, M4.2). The
499 best fitting scenario was chosen based on the difference in composite Log likelihoods between
500 models.

501 To calculate the time of split between *L. viridis* and *L. bilineata*, we assumed a mutation rate of
502 $1.14e-08$ based on the within-lineage divergence estimate of *L. viridis* from the pairwise
503 distances of cytochrome *b* gene [42]. This assumption was similar to the estimation of mutation
504 rate in *A. carolinensis* [119]. No published estimate of the generation time for *L. viridis* and *L.*
505 *bilineata*. However, this can be calculated approximately as the mean age of the mothers of all
506 offspring [120] given the age structure data by Elbing [121] and Saint Girons *et al.* [122] for
507 three German populations of *L. viridis* and two French populations of *L. bilineata*, respectively.
508 In captivity, females that breed for the first time lay on average 8.5 eggs, whereas older females
509 lay 11.1 eggs [123]. Given this data we estimated a mean generation length of 3.6 and 2.9 years
510 for *L. viridis* and *L. bilineata*, respectively. We therefore assumed a generation time of about
511 3-3.5 years for both species.

512 **Detection of genomic rearrangements from read-based pipelines and syntenic blocks**

513 Genomic rearrangements between the lacertids were detected based on both read-based
514 methods and syntenic blocks information. *L. viridis* was used as the reference genome since the
515 assembly was more contiguous. Genomic reads from *L. bilineata* were used as the query and
516 the reads of *L. viridis* mapped against the reference were used as control.

517 ***Read-based pipelines:*** Genomic rearrangements were detected between lacertids using read
518 mapping based methods for Illumina paired-end reads and for PacBio-reads separately,
519 followed by SV callers specifically developed to deal with short and long read sequences,
520 respectively. In both approaches, reads of *L. bilineata* (query) and of *L. viridis* (control) were
521 separately mapped against the same reference (*L. viridis*).

522 The alignment of Illumina reads was carried out with BWA mem [115] and rearrangements
523 were detected with MetaSV [124] pipeline which uses Breakdancer [125] to infer structural
524 variants (SVs) using paired-end read information, CNVnator [126] to predict copy-number

525 variants (CNVs) from abnormal read-coverages and Pindel [127] to detect large SV-related
526 breakpoint events. The insert-size was estimated as 400 ± 50 from one million observations
527 based on the alignment of paired-end Illumina reads. A minimum support of five reads and
528 mapping quality of 30 was set as the threshold to support SVs from Breakdancer. A bin-size of
529 500 was used to run CNVnator and only precise SV-events were called. While for Pindel, only
530 variants with minimum read support of 5 paired-reads were used. MetaSV pipeline was used to
531 merge the SVs from these three different SV-callers and local *de novo* assemblies were
532 constructed using the ABYSS assembler for insertions. In order to maintain a high level of
533 sensitivity and specificity (>90%) in the detection of SVs, only the rearrangements called with
534 a minimum support of 8 uniquely mapped paired-end reads were used for further analyses
535 [128].

536 The PacBio reads were aligned to the reference with NGMLR and the alignment was fed to
537 Sniffles SV-caller [12] to call variants with a minimum support of seven reads (atleast half of
538 the PacBio genome coverage of 14X).

539 ***Syntenic blocks approach:*** In addition to read-based methods, rearrangements were also
540 detected from the blocks of synteny obtained through the UCSC pipeline [129]. The alignments
541 were converted to single-coverage genomes using `single_cov2` of the MultiZ pipeline [130] to
542 avoid spurious assignments. Strand changes within syntenic blocks were clustered as inversions
543 (I) based on the orientation of the successive (I+1) and preceding (I-1) blocks. Regions with
544 missing bases in the query alone were predicted to be deletions while gaps in the reference
545 genome alone were considered as insertions. Additionally, Hierarchical Alignment (HAL)
546 format [131] of the single-coverage genomes was used to predict rearrangements with
547 `halBranchMutations` tool. This tool generates annotations for the location of rearrangements
548 based on the branch of interest in the HAL file (between *L. viridis* and *L. bilineata* in our case).
549 The events detected with in both directions i.e. *L. viridis* reference with *L. bilineata* as query

550 and *L. bilineata* reference and *L. viridis* as query were retained. The length threshold was set to
551 50bp and the predicted rearrangements were filtered based on quality to reduce false-positives
552 (supplement SM-7).

553 Segmental duplications in the two lacertid species were detected by self-aligning the two
554 genomes separately with chained LASTZ[132] (step=9, H=3000, K=5000). High identity
555 matches (90% identity) within each genome of 1kb or more were defined as segmental
556 duplications.

557 **Structural selection in non-coding RNAs (ncRNA)**

558 The predicted ncRNAs (miRNA, snoRNA, tRNA and lincRNA) in lacertids were tested for
559 structural selection (selection of sites acting on secondary structure in either of the lacertids)
560 with *G. japonicus* as outgroup. We used the Selection on the Secondary Structure test (SSS-
561 test) [133], a statistical test that assigns selection scores for each given sequence based on the
562 comparison between the structure of the given sequence and the structure of group consensus.
563 It also provides a diversity value for the family that indicates its structural conservation. The
564 diversity value (d-score) is the family's median base-pair distance to its consensus. The
565 miRNAs, snoRNAs and tRNAs were divided into sub-groups based on their families or their
566 anti-codon sequences, and only those sub-groups with at least three sequences were tested. The
567 groups that exhibited high structural diversity (median base pair distance to the consensus,
568 $d \geq 10.0$) were excluded from further analyses.

569 A ncRNA structural test to detect positively selected structures is only appropriate for
570 structurally conserved groups. Low d-score values ($d < 10.0$) were used to distinguish
571 conservation chosen based on structural uniformity of the groups. This cut-off was based on the
572 visual inspection of the secondary structures of families with d-scores of 1 to 20. Secondary
573 structures of ncRNA sequences were predicted using RNAfold [134]. In a similar fashion,

574 structures with selection scores of 0 to 30 were visually compared to the structure of their group
575 consensus. High selection scores ($s \geq 10.0$) were used to predict the positively selected sequences
576 of small ncRNAs. Secondary structures with high selection scores were manually inspected to
577 remove false positives. Specifically, the candidates with structures of low stability or those
578 fundamentally dissimilar to the family consensus indicating loss of function were excluded.

579 The selection test was adapted for lincRNAs and performed only on the two lacertid species
580 without any outgroup since lincRNA annotations of other closely-related species were
581 unavailable. Since positive selection of secondary structure cannot be determined without
582 outgroups, we instead detected divergence of lincRNA structure within the lacertids. Local
583 conserved structure blocks were predicted for the orthologous lincRNA families and these
584 blocks were subjected to an adaptation of SSS-test based on local structures. The structural
585 selection for lincRNAs was assessed locally, since most base-pairings occur between
586 nucleotides within a short distance [133, 135]. Local blocks of high structural diversity were
587 excluded from further analysis. Since outgroups were not used for lincRNAs, a lower selection
588 score threshold ($s \geq 4.0$) was applied to detect divergent candidates which were visually
589 inspected later to exclude false-positives.

590 **Ortholog prediction and selection tests**

591 In order to investigate the selection pressure in the lacertid branch (ancestor of *L. viridis* and *L.*
592 *bilineata*) compared to other vertebrates, the coding sequences (CDS) of five species, namely
593 anole lizard (*Anolis carolinensis*), chicken (*Gallus gallus*), frog (*Xenopus tropicalis*), spotted
594 gar fish (*Lepisosteus oculatus*) and human (*Homo sapiens*) were downloaded from the Ensembl
595 database version 83 [136]. To keep the data consistent and avoid re-annotations, the CDS
596 annotations were also extracted from the Ensembl database. The orthologs between the coding
597 sequences of the species were identified with ProteinOrtho V5 using the synteny option to
598 reduce false orthologs assignments. The output was converted to run the POTION pipeline

599 [137] which tests for selection acting on protein coding genes. Only the single-copy orthologs
600 in each species was retained for each orthologous group.

601 The protein identity filtering in POTION was set to 30% in each orthologous group and
602 sequence size limits to more than 10 times or less than 0.2 of the median size in the group. Only
603 groups with at least 4 species were retained. The sequences in each orthologous group (after
604 filtering paralogs) were aligned, gap trimmed, phylogenetic trees were constructed and groups
605 with recombinants were excluded from the selection tests. The intermediates files from the
606 POTION pipeline were used to generate unrooted trees with lacertids (*L. viridis* and *L.*
607 *bilineata*) in the foreground branches. The remaining species were used as the background to
608 test for positive-selection using branch-site model of codeml within the PAML package[138].
609 A likelihood ratio test (LRT) based on χ^2 distribution was used to detect genes with significant
610 positive selection followed by multiple testing through Benjamini–Hochberg (BH) procedure.
611 Genes with $p < 0.05$ and $q < 0.05$ were retained and referred to as being positively selected in the
612 lacertid branch.

613 To detect adaptive evolution through positive selection within either lacertids, additional tests
614 (PAML branch-site models) were performed with less distant outgroups using a set of five
615 lizard species, namely *L. viridis*, *L. bilineata*, *Anolis carolinensis*, *Gekko japonicus* and *Pogona*
616 *vitticeps*. The single-copy orthologs were identified with ProteinOrtho with a minimum protein
617 identity of 70%, e-value of 1e-06 and minimum similarity of 0.99 for additional hits. The
618 orthologous coding sequences from the five lizard species were aligned with MACSE while
619 accounting for frame-shifts and the stop codon at the end of the sequence was removed.
620 Unrooted trees were generated with three different foreground branches: i) lacertids (*L. viridis*
621 and *L. bilineata*) ii) *L. viridis* alone and iii) *L. bilineata* alone. The rest of the workflow for
622 detection of recombinants, removal of gaps and codeml tests was similar to the POTION
623 pipeline followed by filtering for significant candidate genes ($p < 0.05$, $q < 0.05$). In order to

624 avoid false predictions of positively selected sites (PSS) at the beginning or towards the end of
625 alignments, where mismatches were allowed, the candidate genes predicted to contain PSS in
626 either species were visually inspected.

627

628 **Data Access**

629 The genome assembly, transcript data, DNA and RNA sequencing reads have been deposited
630 in the European Nucleotide Archive under the Bioproject PRJEB24178.

631 GCA_900245905 - *L. viridis* genome assembly

632 GCA_900245895 - *L. bilineata* genome assembly

633 The transcript assemblies, genome browser and online BLAST databases for the lacertid data
634 are hosted at <http://lacerta.bioinf.uni-leipzig.de>

635 Genome annotations, variant calls (VCFs) and other supporting datasets are available at
636 <http://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.1219810>

637

638 **Declarations**

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653 **Declaration of interest**

654 The authors report no conflicts of interest. The authors alone are responsible for the content and
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656 **Additional files**

657 Additional file 1: This supplement contains methods SM1-SM12, information S11-SI10,
658 Figures S1–S10, Tables S1–S17 and References.

659 Additional file 2: The figure for the contig clusters in lacertids generated from synteny
660 information between *L. viridis* and *L. bilineata*.

661 Additional file 3,4: *Mathematica* notebooks containing the code used and other supporting
662 information from the demography analysis of *L. viridis* and *L. bilineata*.

663

664

665

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1016 **Figure Legends**

1017 Figure 1. Demographic models for the divergence between *L. viridis* and *L. bilineata*.
1018 Divergence at time T with different N_e in one group (M2.1, M2.2) and divergence at time T
1019 with continuous unidirectional gene flow with different N_e in one group (M4.1, M4.2). The
1020 grey area indicates gene flow between both species and the similar shading of the branches
1021 indicates similar effective population sizes (N_e). $N_{A,B}$ - effective population size compared to
1022 ancestor, T - split time.

1023

1024 Figure 2. Total counts and length ranges (in bp) of genomic rearrangements of SVs between *L.*
1025 *viridis* and *L. bilineata*. The counts are represented by bars and length ranges by whiskers (y-
1026 axis is log10-scaled). The rearrangements plotted are categorized into deletions (DEL),
1027 duplications (DUP), insertions (INS) and inversions (INV).

1028

1029 Figure 3. The folded blockwise site frequency spectrum (bSFS). The variation in alleles
1030 represented by different colours (the ancestral state showed in red). Given a single genealogy
1031 (a diploid genome from two populations can form six possible genealogies), each block contains
1032 four mutation types: i) unique heterozygous sites in *L. bilineata*, ii) unique heterozygous sites
1033 in *L. viridis*, iii) shared heterozygous sites between *L. viridis* and *L. bilineata* or iv) homozygous
1034 sites which are different between *L. viridis* and *L. bilineata* i.e. homozygous fixed differences.
1035 The bSFS (spectrum of SFS) has been calculated by counting the number of occurrences of
1036 each SFS.

1037

1038 **Tables**

1039 Table 1. Comparison of different demographic models for divergence between *L. viridis* and *L. bilineata*.
 1040 The Δ in log likelihood of each model is given relative to the best model. V - *L. viridis*, B - *L. bilineata*.
 1041 ‘ \rightarrow ’ indicates the direction of gene flow between the two species; 2Ne - two different effective
 1042 population sizes assumed; IM - isolation with migration; DIV_V - divergence without gene flow assuming
 1043 dissimilar effective population size in *L. viridis* compared to the lacertid ancestor and *L. bilineata*; DIV_B
 1044 - divergence without gene flow assuming dissimilar effective population size in *L. bilineata* compared
 1045 to the lacertid ancestor and *L. viridis*.

M2 (without gene flow)		M4 (presence of gene flow)	
DIV2NeV	DIV2NeB	IM2NeV\rightarrowB	IM2NeB\rightarrowV
-9.44	-9.45	0	-3.04
-12.1	-12.0	0	-1.27
-16.9	-16.7	0	-1.16

1046