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1 Title: Patterns of morphological variation highlight the effect of natural selection on eyespots
2 modularity in the butterfly *Morpho telemachus*

3

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10

11 Abstract (200/200):

12 Morphological correlations can stem from developmental constraints but also from selective
13 pressures. Butterfly eyespots are repeated wing color pattern elements, widespread across
14 species. As developmental serial homologues, they are controlled by similar developmental
15 pathways imposing correlations among eyespots: selection on a single eyespot may induce
16 correlated responses in all eyespots. We study the variations in the ventral eyespots of *Morpho*
17 *telemachus*, where two different selective regimes are likely to act: while most eyespots are
18 always-visible, two eyespots are conditionally-displayed: hidden at rest, they can be exposed
19 when the butterflies are threatened, or during sexual interactions. We investigate how such
20 contrasted selection across eyespots can alter the covariations imposed by their shared
21 developmental origin. We quantified eyespots co-variations within a large population of *M.*
22 *telemachus* and compared the observed patterns to those found in *M. helenor*, where all eyespots
23 are always-visible and thus probably affected by a similar selection regime. We found that *M.*
24 *telemachus* conditionally-displayed eyespots are less variable than always-visible eyespots and
25 that these two eyespots form a separate variational module in this species, in contrast to *M.*
26 *helenor*. Our results suggest that eyespots covariations were shaped by selection, highlighting
27 how natural selection may promote the evolution of modularity.

28

29 Keywords: Stabilizing selection, developmental constraints, variation, modularity, butterflies,
30 fluctuating asymmetry

31

32

33 Introduction

34 The level of evolutionary constraints on any morphological trait depends on its
35 correlations with other traits, that originate from genetic, developmental and physical
36 connections among traits. Ancestral correlations can strongly influence the evolution of traits
37 under selection. For example, adaptive radiations have been suggested to occur primarily along
38 the lines of least resistance, drawn by constraining effects of genetic correlations (Schluter
39 1996). But the correlations among traits can also evolve in response to selection: for example,
40 deleterious pleiotropic effects can be eliminated or compensated for (e.g. Pavlicev and Wagner
41 2012), and correlational selection (joint selection of several traits) can favor certain genetic
42 correlations (e.g. Sinervo and Svensson 2002). Correlations among traits – trait integration –
43 but also their independence from other traits – trait modularity – thus stem from both selective
44 and developmental factors (e.g. Wagner 1996; Klingenberg, 2008). Whether the patterns of
45 modularity mostly reflect the developmental constraints exerted on the evolution of traits or the
46 selection regime is a long-standing question (e.g. Cheverud, 1984; Kirschner and Gerhard 1998;
47 Schlosser and Wagner, 2005; Wagner et al. 2007; Klingenberg 2008; Mello et al. 2016).

48 Serial homologues, like vertebrate teeth (Van Valen 1994) or arthropod segments
49 (Emerson & Schram 1990), are relevant traits to identify how selection can act on
50 morphological integration. Such homologous traits stem from the repetition of the same
51 developmental pathway in different locations of the body (Hall 1995). Serial homologues are
52 thus expected to present a tight covariation due to their shared developmental basis (Young and
53 Hallgrímsson 2005). In contrast, heterogeneous selection across the elements of a series might
54 drive their divergence and break down their co-variation (Wagner and Altenberg 1996; Melo
55 and Marroig, 2015). The patterns of covariation across serial homologues therefore reflect the
56 prevailing effect of developmental vs. selective factors affecting trait evolution (Beldade and
57 Brakefield, 2003; Allen 2008): a tight covariation across serial homologues would indicate a
58 prominent effect of shared developmental pathways, while a modular structuration of the series,
59 opposing co-selected elements to others, would rather suggest a prominent role of selection.

60 Butterfly eyespots are a textbook example of serial homology: these circular color
61 patterns are repeated across the wings in many butterfly species. All eyespots are formed by the
62 expression of a common developmental cascade at different locations on the wings, as shown
63 by developmental studies carried out in the model species *Bicyclus anynana* (see Monteiro 2015
64 for a review). Such serial developmental homology results in strong genetic correlations across
65 eyespots: artificial selection on a particular eyespot indeed induces a correlated response on all

66 eyespots, consistent with their developmental integration (Monteiro *et al.* 1994, 1997; Beldade
67 *et al.* 2002; Beldade & Brakefield 2002, 2003).

68 The wide diversity of eyespot morphology – including size, shape, and color – suggests
69 that diverse selective pressures affect their evolution (Kodandaramaiah 2011). In some species,
70 eyespots are conditionally-displayed: hidden at rest, they can be uncovered at will. Usually large
71 and highly conspicuous, these eyespots might intimidate predators if suddenly uncovered during
72 an attack (Stevens 2005; Dapporto *et al.* 2019). Radically different eyespots observed in other
73 species, with a small size and peripheral location, are constantly visible at rest. Such eyespots
74 might divert predator attacks away from the vital parts of the body (Lyytinen *et al.* 2004;
75 Stevens 2005; Olofsson *et al.* 2010 ; Prudic *et al.* 2015). The continuum of ecological contexts
76 encountered by different butterfly species may explain the important variations in eyespots
77 across species (Kodandaramaiah 2011). On top of selection by predators, sexual selection might
78 also affect eyespot evolution. In *B. anynana*, UV reflectance in the center of the ventral
79 conditionally-displayed eyespot, affects males mate choice (Huq *et al.* 2019), promoting UV
80 coloration in these particular eyespots. The heterogeneous morphology of eyespots from the
81 same series observed within many butterfly species suggests that contrasted selective pressures
82 may affect them, potentially breaking their covariation and leading to their morphological
83 divergence.

84 Here we investigate how contrasted selective pressures may disrupt developmental
85 constraints, by assessing morphological covariations across eyespots within the butterfly
86 species *Morpho telemachus* (Linné, 1758), where the different eyespots are likely submitted to
87 different selective regimes. In the *Morpho* genus, a series of eyespots is observed on the ventral
88 side of the wings (Debat *et al.* 2020), exposed when the butterflies are resting. In contrast with
89 most *Morpho* species, *M. telemachus* has two large conditionally-displayed eyespots on the
90 ventral side of the forewing (Figure 1) that are usually hidden at rest by the overlapping
91 hindwing but can be revealed when the butterfly spreads its wings. These eyespots might have
92 an intimidating effect on predators if unmasked during an attack, as suggested in other butterfly
93 species (Stevens 2005; Dapporto *et al.* 2019): paired eyespots are indeed particularly
94 intimidating (Stevens 2005; Inglis *et al.* 2010). They could also be part of a concealable sexual
95 signal. The remaining eyespots, located on the hindwing and on the forewing tip, are always-
96 visible, suggesting they might be submitted to a different selective pressure, possibly
97 contributing to the general cryptic appearance of the butterfly at rest. Such contrasted selective
98 regimes across eyespots in *M. telemachus* provide a relevant opportunity to investigate the

99 impact of selection on the pattern of covariation across a series of developmental homologues.
100 While shared developmental pathways may generate tight morphological covariations among
101 eyespots (Brakefield, 2001; Allen, 2008), the differential selection on a subset of eyespots
102 should promote their relative independence.

103 Because the covariation between different eyespots of the series might ancestrally differ,
104 we contrasted patterns of variations observed in *M. telemachus* with another Morpho species,
105 *Morpho helenor* (Cramer, 1776). Like in most other Morpho species, including the two species
106 branching at the basis of Morpho phylogeny (Chazot et al. 2016; Debat *et al.* 2020), all eyespots
107 of *M. helenor* are always-visible, suggesting that, in contrast to *M. telemachus*, similar selective
108 pressures affect all eyespots of the series. Comparing the patterns of eyespot covariation of *M.*
109 *telemachus* and *M. helenor* should thus shed light on the effect of heterogeneous selection on
110 the evolution of eyespot modularity. In *M. helenor*, the congruent selective and developmental
111 effects should favor the tight covariation of all eyespots, while in *M. telemachus*, a pattern of
112 covariation opposing always-visible and conditionally-displayed eyespots should be detected,
113 would the contrasted selective pressures prevail.

114 We first assessed the conspicuousness of the different eyespots in the two species, by
115 measuring the reflectance spectra of the yellow and black rings forming the eyespots and
116 computing the color contrast perceived by avian predators. We measured the size and shape of
117 the two rings within each eyespot and then assessed their patterns of variations and covariations
118 at two levels. First, we assessed variance among individuals, that reflects genetic and
119 environmental differences among individuals. Then, we study variance within individuals, i.e.
120 fluctuating asymmetry (FA), stemming from random developmental variation leading to subtle
121 differences between right and left sides for a given trait (Palmer and Strobeck 1986). FA
122 covariation across traits is then assumed to reflect developmental integration, as it is expected
123 to result from direct developmental interactions across traits (Klingenberg 2003, 2008, 2014).
124 To assess the impact of selection on trait evolution and modularity, we used two sets of analyses.
125 (1) By comparing the levels of variation of the different eyespots within each species, we
126 predicted a homogeneous variation in all eyespots in *M. helenor* as a result of a similar selection
127 acting on all eyespots. In contrast, if different selection pressures affect the two types of
128 eyespots in *M. telemachus*, they should present contrasted levels of variation as compared to
129 other eyespots. (2) By comparing the covariations between traits within species, we predicted a
130 global pattern of correlation across eyespots in *M. helenor*, resulting from homogeneous
131 selective effects. In contrast, in *M. telemachus*, we predicted different patterns of modularity in

132 the conditionally-displayed vs. always-visible eyespots, as a result of the contrasted selective
133 regimes.

134

135 Materials & Methods

136

137 Butterfly Samples

138 *M. telemachus* is a canopy species distributed throughout the Amazon basin, from the foothills
139 of the Andes to the Brazilian Atlantic Forest (Blandin et Purser 2013). We focused on an
140 exceptional sample composed of 370 males from a single emergence bloom of *M. telemachus*
141 *exsusarion* (Le Moult & Réal 1962) collected in 1995 in Bolivia, in the province of Chapare
142 (Department of Cochabamba CBBA; Gilbert Lachaume, pers. com.). This sample provides a
143 relevant opportunity to assess eyespot variability within a natural population. All individuals
144 likely encountered similar environmental conditions, reducing the potential effects of
145 phenotypic plasticity.

146 We compared the levels of variation in the different eyespots within this population of *M.*
147 *telemachus* to the variation of the same eyespots in a closely-related species, *M. helenor*. We
148 gathered specimens of *M. helenor* from the collections of the Muséum National d'Histoire
149 Naturelle (Paris), by sampling 31 males originating from two localities (Chapare - Bolivia/
150 Perene - Peru). Since these collection specimens were originally caught by different collectors
151 at different localities, the morphological variation measured in *M. helenor* combines intra- and
152 inter-population differences – either genetic or environmental – and thus likely over-estimates
153 phenotypic variation.

154

155 Estimating eyespot conspicuousness

156 To estimate the level of conspicuousness of the different eyespots, we measured their color
157 contrast on a subsample of 10 individuals per species. For each eyespot, the reflectance
158 spectrum of the yellow and the black ring was measured using a spectrophotometer (AvaSpec-
159 ULS2048CL-EVO-RS, software AvaSoft v.8.12.0.0), sensitive to wavelengths between 200
160 and 1100 nm. A light source (Avalight-DH-S-BAL) covering the visible and UV wavelengths
161 from 300 to 700 nm was used to illuminate the specimens (coupling a deuterium lamp with a
162 spectrum of 215 to 500 nm, and a halogen lamp from 500 to 2500 nm). Our measurements were
163 conducted while minimizing external light sources. To assess the contrast between the two rings
164 as perceived by avian predators, we quantified chromatic and achromatic contrasts (Olsson *et*

165 *al.* 2018) using the two major visual systems documented in birds (UV and violet-sensitive
166 respectively), as implemented in the R package PAVO2 (Maia *et al.* 2019). The vision models
167 were all applied with standard conditions (Weber fraction value of 0.05 - Dell'Aglio *et al.* 2018)
168 with the following relative cone densities 0.37:0.7:0.99:1 for UV-sensitive model (UVS:S:M:L)
169 and 0.25:0.5:1:1 for Violet-sensitive model (VS:S:M:L) (Finkbeiner *et al.* 2017). The chromatic
170 and achromatic contrast analyses were performed using a bootstrap procedure. Contrasts are
171 expressed in JND (*Just Noticeable Difference*) with a threshold of 1 JND. Values above that
172 threshold will be considered as noticeable by an avian observer.

173

174 Measuring eyespot size and shape: Imaging and morphometric measurements

175 The four wings of each individual were photographed in a photo studio under controlled LED
176 light using a Nikon D90 (Camera lens: AF-S Micro Nikkor 60 mm 1:2.8G ED), in standardized
177 conditions allowing to minimize shape distortion due parallax. Each eyespot is composed of
178 two concentric rings: an external yellow ring and an internal black ring, around a central white
179 pupil. *M. telemachus* usually has 9 ventral eyespots (Figure 1A-B): 4 on the forewing and 5 on
180 the hindwing. Nevertheless, two of these eyespots (E2 and E6 - visible on Figure 1B) were very
181 often extremely reduced or absent; in addition, these eyespots are never found in *M. helenor*
182 (Figure 1B). We thus excluded them from our protocol and focused on the 7 eyespots observed
183 on all specimens.

184 For both species, length and width of the yellow and black rings (respectively noted L_y , W_y and
185 L_b , W_b , Figure 1C) were measured on all eyespots using ImageJ (version 1.8.0_112). Following
186 previous studies (Monteiro *et al.* 1997; Breuker *et al.* 2007; Allen 2008), length was measured
187 along the direction parallel to the veins framing the eyespot and passing through the center of
188 the eyespot and width along the perpendicular to that direction (Figure 1C). To characterize the
189 shape of the different eyespots, we computed the ratio between length and width of the two
190 rings for each eyespot ($R_y=L_y/W_y$ and $R_b=L_b/W_b$) and used $(1 - R)$ as a measure of their departure
191 from perfect circularity. All measurements were made on both left and right eyespots, to assess
192 asymmetry.

193

194 Assessing patterns of variations and covariations

195 Estimating fluctuating asymmetry

196 Fluctuating asymmetry (FA) is the deviation from perfect bilateral symmetry due to
197 developmental noise, *i.e.* the small, random variation independently affecting the two sides of

198 a trait during development (Palmer and Strobeck, 1986). FA was measured as the variance of
199 the right minus left values distribution (FA4 in the terminology of Palmer 1994). To avoid
200 measurement bias due to the lateralization of the human observer, mirror images of the left
201 wings were used (package TransformJ, Meijering *et al.* 2001), and the order of measurements
202 (right or left) randomized.

203

204 Checking measurement error and allometric effects on FA

205 To quantify measurement error (ME), a random sub-sample of 30 individuals was measured 3
206 times, and the impact of ME on FA was assessed. We estimated ME on the different traits, using
207 the repeated measurements protocol described in Palmer and Strobeck (1986) and Palmer
208 (1994). We applied two-way mixed model ANOVAs with ‘side’ as a fixed effect and
209 ‘individual’ as a random effect, for each of the 28 variables. In these models, the interaction
210 term (side x individual) assesses FA and its statistical significance tests whether FA is greater
211 than ME, which is included in the residual term. For all measurements, individual variation and
212 fluctuating asymmetry were significantly larger (on average 11.6 times) than ME, suggesting
213 that FA is not strongly affected by error.

214 To test whether larger eyespots display higher asymmetries, we computed the correlation of
215 trait asymmetry values ($L-R$) and trait average size $(L+R)/2$. As no correlation was detected
216 ($r = -0.01$, $p = 0.284$), correction for eyespot size was not applied. In contrast, a significant
217 positive correlation was detected between eyespot size and eyespot variance ($r = 0.79$,
218 $p < 0.001$). Inter-individual variation of linear measurements was thus assessed by their
219 coefficient of variation (CV). Finally, to assess whether larger butterflies tended to display
220 higher asymmetries, we tested the correlation between asymmetry values and wing area, used
221 as a proxy of butterfly size. A significant correlation was detected, but it was very low
222 ($r = 0.026$, $p < 0.01$), suggesting that allometric effects are weak.

223

224 Comparing eyespots variability

225 We then estimated the levels of variation of the different traits within each of the two species.
226 Differences in mean size (L_y , W_y , L_b and W_b) and shape (ratios R_y and R_b) among eyespots were
227 tested using pairwise Welch tests, which allows to compare means of multiple samples with
228 unequal variances. FA and inter-individual variances were compared across eyespots using
229 pairwise F -tests, because FA was computed as a variance. Coefficients of variation of size were
230 compared using an asymptotic test for the equality of multiple coefficients of variation (based

231 on the calculation of the $D'AD$ statistic proposed by Feltz and Miller 1991 - R package
232 “cvequality”, Marwick and Krishnamoorthy 2019). Multiple testing was accounted for by using
233 Holm-Bonferroni procedure. We then compared the intraspecific levels of variations of all
234 eyespots between species using F -tests.

235 As the sample sizes were very different (370 for *M. telemachus* and 31 for *M. helenor*), the
236 interspecific comparisons were based on a bootstrap procedure, by random subsampling 10000
237 batches of 31 *M. telemachus*.

238

239 Assessing the patterns of modularity across eyespots

240 To identify the different variational modules, we estimated morphological covariations between
241 traits within each species. The covariation of morphological traits across individuals can stem
242 from different factors, including environmental effects (plasticity), but also allelic variation in
243 genes involved in the underlying developmental pathway (pleiotropy). In contrast, FA
244 covariation (*i.e.* the covariation of trait asymmetries across individuals) results from the direct
245 effect of shared developmental factors. Since FA is inherently random, its values can be
246 correlated across traits only if those traits directly interact during development: this can happen
247 when the traits are physically linked or share a part of their developmental pathways (*e.g.*
248 common precursor, or global pre-patterning) (Klingenberg 2003, 2008; Breuker et al. 2007).
249 We thus quantified both covariation between traits values, averaged across sides (individual
250 covariation) and covariation between traits asymmetries (FA covariation).

251 We specifically compared the covariations among always-visible eyespots with those among
252 the two conditionally-displayed eyespots of *M. telemachus*, by computing the average inter-
253 eyespot correlations. The patterns of modularity across eyespots were estimated using
254 correlation matrices restricted to statistically significant correlations among traits. Correlation
255 matrices were visually displayed as networks in which each variable is a node and each
256 correlation an edge, using the package qgraph (Epskamp *et al.* 2012). The hypotheses of
257 modularity were then tested using a hierarchical module partition using Ward’s hierarchical
258 cluster analysis (Ward 1963; Zelditch *et al.* 2008) using the function pvclust of the pvclust
259 package (Suzuki *et al.* 2006), which calculates p -values for hierarchical clustering via
260 multiscale bootstrap resampling. Each node supported by a significant p -value defines a
261 module. This method has the advantage of allowing to detect nested modularity patterns and
262 thus, a simultaneous analysis of the intra- and inter-eyespots modularity.

263 All statistical analyses were carried out in R version 3.6.3 (R Core Team 2020).

264

265 Results

266

267 *Contrasted levels of conspicuousness among eyespots in M. telemachus*

268 In *M. telemachus*, conditionally-displayed eyespots were significantly larger than all other
269 eyespots (41.46% for L_y , 37.10% for W_y , 49.03% for L_b and 37.67% for W_b , on average; Figure
270 2A, Table S1). Their shape was also significantly rounder than in other eyespots (Figure 2B,
271 details in Tables S2). Achromatic contrasts in *M. telemachus* were heterogeneous across
272 eyespots, conditionally-displayed eyespots displaying particularly high values (55.69% higher
273 than other eyespots in UV-models and 56.81% higher in Violet-models, on average; Figure 2C).
274 Conversely, achromatic contrasts in *M. helenor* eyespots were homogeneously high,
275 comparable to *M. telemachus* conditionally-displayed eyespots (Figure 2C). The reduced size
276 and achromatic contrast of the always-visible eyespots of *M. telemachus* suggest a strong
277 decrease in conspicuousness in these eyespots as compared to the conditionally-displayed
278 eyespots of *M. telemachus* and to all eyespots of *M. helenor*. Such difference was nevertheless
279 not observed for chromatic contrasts (Figure S1), suggesting that similar coloration was
280 conserved throughout all eyespots in both species.

281

282 *The shape of always-visible eyespots is more variable and asymmetrical in M. telemachus*

283 For both species, the variability of eyespot size, as estimated by the variation among individuals
284 and by fluctuating asymmetry, was quite homogeneous across eyespots: most pairwise
285 comparisons of size variation between eyespots were non-significant (fluctuating asymmetry
286 see Figures S2; individual variation: L_y : $D'AD = 1.87$, $p = 0.93$; L_b : $D'AD = 0.91$, $p = 0.99$; W_y :
287 $D'AD = 2.84$, $p = 0.83$; W_b : $D'AD = 2.36$, $p = 0.88$ - Figure S3). In contrast, variability of
288 eyespot shape was strikingly different across eyespots in *M. telemachus*. Overall, both
289 individual variation and asymmetry of shape were lower in the two conditionally-displayed
290 eyespots than in the always-visible eyespots (Figure 3), and particularly strikingly so for the
291 yellow ring (on average 4.01 times less variable and 10.08 times less asymmetric than the
292 always-visible eyespots). Such low variability of shape in the conditionally-displayed eyespots
293 suggests a selective effect on the roundness of these eyespots.

294 Overall, eyespot shape variability tended to be lower in *M. helenor* than in *M. telemachus*:
295 among-individual variation was on average 1.62 and 2.79 times lower, in the yellow and black

296 rings ($F_{\text{yellow}} = 1.62$, $df = 2566$, $p < 0.001$; $F_{\text{black}} = 2.80$, $df = 2564$, $p < 0.001$ - Figure 3), and FA
297 was 3.13 and 2.27 times lower ($F_{\text{yellow}} = 3.13$, $df = 2566$, $p < 0.001$; $F_{\text{black}} = 2.27$, $df = 2564$,
298 $p < 0.001$ - Figure 3). This difference was particularly strong for always-visible eyespots, which
299 were very variable between individuals in *M. telemachus*, and much more stable in *M. helenor*.
300 Combined with a generally more conspicuous appearance of all eyespots in *M. helenor*, this
301 stability of eyespot shape points at a similar selection regime acting on all eyespots in this
302 species. Overall, the comparison of the two species suggests a similarly low variability in the
303 whole series of eyespots in *M. helenor*, as well as in the conditionally-displayed eyespots in *M.*
304 *telemachus*. In contrast, the always-visible eyespots of *M. telemachus* are much more variable.

305

306 *Conditionally-displayed eyespots form a variational module in M. telemachus*

307 Figure 4 clearly shows that there were more correlations across traits (individual variation) than
308 across traits asymmetries (FA). Since covariations in FA reflect direct developmental
309 interactions among traits, correlations are expected within physically-interacting traits, *e.g.*
310 within each eyespot, while correlations in FA across eyespots are expected to be limited. The
311 patterns of covariation obtained from inter-individual variation and FA matrices were
312 nevertheless mostly congruent. Unexpectedly, the different eyespots tended to vary
313 independently from one another, the two rings tightly covarying within an eyespot, but more
314 loosely among eyespots. This is particularly striking in *M. helenor* for individual variation
315 (Figures 4A and 5A; mean correlations: $\text{cor}_{\text{within all eyespots}} = 0.94 \pm 0.05$; $\text{cor}_{\text{among all}}$
316 $\text{eyesspots} = 0.54 \pm 0.14$; see Table S3 for all correlations categories), but also for FA (Figures 4B and
317 5B; mean correlations: $\text{cor}_{\text{within all eyespots}} = 0.67 \pm 0.24$; $\text{cor}_{\text{among all eyespots}} = 0.03 \pm 0.19$). Consistent
318 with a homogeneous effect of selection on the whole series of eyespots in *M. helenor*, no sub-
319 clustering of eyespots is detected in this species.

320 In contrast, in *M. telemachus*, the two conditionally-displayed eyespots exhibit strong
321 covariations and clearly form a separate variational module. Their FA covariation is also three
322 times higher than that of always-visible eyespots ($\text{cor}_{\text{conditionally-displayed CD}} = 0.30 \pm 0.17$; $\text{cor}_{\text{always-}}$
323 $\text{visible}} = 0.11 \pm 0.12$; see Table S3 for all correlations categories). Figure 5 highlights that most
324 eyespots form distinct modules, within which the width and length of each ring (black or
325 yellow) are correlated. In contrast, the different measurements performed on the two
326 conditionally-displayed eyespots tightly cluster, irrespective of eyespot identity (Figure 5C).
327 The same pattern is found for individual variation, the covariation among conditionally-
328 displayed eyespots being even almost as high as that measured within a single eyespot

329 ($\text{cor}_{\text{conditionally-displayed}} = 0.74 \pm 0.12$, $\text{cor}_{\text{always-visible}} = 0.49 \pm 0.10$, $\text{cor}_{\text{within all}} = 0.82 \pm 0.18$). Overall, this
330 opposition between conditionally-displayed vs. always-visible eyespots suggests a change in
331 the modularity pattern in *M. telemachus* as compared to *M. helenor*.

332

333 Discussion

334 *Differential eyespot variability in M. telemachus shaped by contrasted selection regimes*

335 In *M. telemachus*, the large difference in achromatic contrast detected between conditionally-
336 displayed eyespots and the others (Figure 2C), suggests that the two types of eyespots may be
337 submitted to different selective regimes. Achromatic contrast is indeed often used by birds to
338 detect small targets while chromatic contrast is involved in discrimination of large targets and
339 recognition of chromatic patterns (Osorio *et al.* 1999; Théry *et al.* 2004; Halpin *et al.* 2020).
340 Achromatic contrast was also shown to increase prey conspicuousness and detection by mantid
341 predators (Prudic *et al.* 2007). Our results thus highlight that conditionally-displayed eyespots
342 are more conspicuous than the other eyespots. Their evolution might thus have been influenced
343 by different selective pressures.

344 Our analyses then showed that in *M. telemachus*, conditionally-displayed eyespots are larger
345 and rounder than the always-visible eyespots. Their shape is also strikingly less variable, with
346 levels of variation and fluctuating asymmetry (FA) comparable to those detected in *M. helenor*
347 (Figure 3). This is consistent with an effect of stabilizing selection, expected to reduce genetic
348 variation (Stearns *et al.* 1995; Boonekamp *et al.* 2018). Stabilizing selection might also favor
349 eyespot developmental robustness, reducing variation and FA via enhanced canalization and
350 developmental stability (Schmalhausen, 1949; Palmer and Strobeck 1986; Clarke 1998; Leamy
351 and Klingenberg 2005; Garnier *et al.* 2006; but see Pelabon *et al.* 2010).

352 Most Morpho species, including the species *M. eugenia* and *M. marcus*, branching at the basis
353 of the Morpho phylogeny, display large and conspicuous eyespots similar to those of *M. helenor*
354 (Debat *et al.* 2020). The small size and high variability of the always-visible eyespots in *M.*
355 *telemachus* is thus likely a derived condition. This higher variability might be related to a
356 relaxation of selection on these eyespots. Non-functional and vestigial structures are indeed
357 expected to present increased morphological variance and FA (reviewed in Lahti *et al.* 2009),
358 as observed in the reduced wings of some insects (e.g. carabid: Garnier *et al.* 2006; gall thrips:
359 Crespi and Vanderkist, 1997) or the reduced digits of some mammals (in primates: Tague, 1997,
360 2002, or canids: Tague, 2020). We recently reported a negative correlation between eyespot

361 size and intraspecific variability of eyespot size and shape across the whole *Morpho* genus
362 (Debat *et al.* 2020), suggesting that beyond the particular example of *M. telemachus*, stabilizing
363 selection on the smallest eyespots might be relaxed compared to larger ones.

364 The high variability of *M. telemachus* always-visible eyespots might also be explained by other
365 specific selective regimes, like apostatic selection (Allen and Clarke 1968; Ursprung and
366 Nöthiger 1972 Bond 2007), a form of negative frequency-dependent selection favoring rare
367 phenotypes in prey. Rarely encountered morphologies would be more difficult to identify by
368 predators, as suggested for the cryptic patterns of moths (Bond and Kamil 2002, 2006).
369 Apostatic selection may thus favor low frequency variants in *M. telemachus* always-visible
370 eyespots, improving crypsis. While this selection in principle relies on genetic variants, it might
371 also favor low levels of developmental robustness. The high FA measured in these eyespots
372 raises the interesting possibility of an adaptive developmental instability (Forde 2009).

373

374 *The pattern of eyespot modularity is likely shaped by selection in M. telemachus*

375 In both species, the covariation among eyespots was markedly lower than within eyespots, for
376 both FA and individual variation. This result was expected for FA, as direct developmental
377 interactions across eyespots are expected to be limited to the common global pre-patterning of
378 the wing or to physically close traits (e.g. Breuker *et al.* 2007). Considering individual variation,
379 the relative independence of the different eyespots was unexpected. Eyespots serial homology
380 indeed implies that genetic variation affecting any of the components of the shared genetic
381 network should trigger a joint phenotypic variation. Similarly, any environmental influence on
382 this common network should increase phenotypic covariance (e.g. Allen 2008). A tight
383 covariation across eyespots was in particular predicted in *M. helenor*, where all eyespots are
384 expected to be submitted to the same selection regime. The relative independence of the
385 different eyespots thus suggests that their formation involves locally different processes,
386 allowing some independent variation. This result is consistent with artificial selection
387 experiments in *B. anynana* (Beldade *et al.* 2002; Beldade and Brakefield 2003), showing that
388 the independent evolution of eyespots is not strongly constrained by the genetic correlations
389 among eyespots.

390 A remarkable exception to this global pattern of independence is the tight covariation between
391 the two conditionally-displayed eyespots of *M. telemachus*. In particular, their covariance in FA
392 suggests that specific developmental processes have evolved that jointly affect these two
393 eyespots but not the others. This change in modularity, opposing the conditionally-displayed

394 eyespots to the always visible eyespots, is likely shaped by the contrasted selective pressures
395 affecting them. Such a change in modularity may result from the adaptive suppression of
396 pleiotropy across groups of traits submitted to different selective pressures (Cheverud, 1984 ;
397 Wagner and Altenberg 1996 ; Breuker *et al.* 2006; Wagner *et al.* 2007; Klingenberg 2014).
398 Studies investigating the adaptive evolution of modularity are still largely lacking (Breuker et
399 al 2006; Klingenberg *et al.* 2010). Our study on the eyespots of *M. telemachus* may thus
400 represent a relevant case where modularity can be tuned by natural selection (Breuker *et al.*
401 2006). Similar analysis of modularity should be performed in other species harboring
402 heterogeneous morphologies of eyespots, to assess how selection can affect developmental
403 covariations between traits. Experiments are now required to identify (1) the exact selection
404 regime affecting conditionally-displayed eyespots in *M. telemachus* and, (2) the developmental
405 bases underlying the evolution of modularity across *Morpho* species.

406

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599

600 Figures legends

601

602 **Figure 1: Eyespots observed on the ventral sides of the wings in *Morpho telemachus* and**
603 ***Morpho helenor*.** (A) Picture of *M. telemachus* taken in resting position, showing the always-
604 visible eyespots. Photo credit: Peter Møllmann. (B) Position and numbering of the measured
605 eyespots. Eyespots E3 and E4, figured in dark and light orange, are conditionally-displayed in
606 *M. telemachus* (they are usually hidden by the hindwing at rest), and always exposed in *M.*
607 *helenor*. The other eyespots are figured in grey. Left - *M. telemachus*: Right - *M. helenor*. (C)
608 The four measurements taken on each eyespot (length and width of the yellow and black rings,
609 respectively noted L_y , W_y , L_b and W_b).

610

611 **Figure 2: Sizes, shapes and colors of eyespots, revealing contrasted levels of**
612 **conspicuousness in *M. telemachus* and *M. helenor*.** Eyespots E3 and E4 (conditionally-
613 displayed in *M. telemachus*) are figured in orange. Circles: *M. telemachus*; triangles: *M.*
614 *helenor*. **A:** Eyespots sizes. The four measurements are similarly different across eyespots, so
615 only L_y is displayed. Boxplots indicate mean and standard deviation. Significant differences
616 between eyespots are shown using different letters (a, b, c) – results for *M. telemachus* are

617 displayed in full letters (above) and results for *M. helenor* are displayed in italic letters (below).
618 **B:** Deviation from roundness of *M. telemachus* eyespots yellow rings (assessed by L_y/W_y ratio).
619 **C:** Achromatic contrast (JND) between the yellow and the black rings of each eyespot. Results
620 are similar across the 2 vision models, so only the UV-model results are displayed (see Figure
621 S1 for chromatic contrasts).

622

623 **Figure 3: High levels of shape variability in *M. telemachus* always-visible eyespots suggest**
624 **a relaxed selection. Inter-individual variation (top) and fluctuating asymmetry (bottom)**
625 **of eyespots yellow ring shape (L_y/W_y).** For each species, significant differences between
626 eyespots are shown using different letters (a, b, c; a letter pools non-significantly different
627 traits). Left: *M. telemachus* (n = 370); right: *M. helenor* (n = 31). The relatively low variability
628 of E3 and E4 is comparable to that observed in most *M. helenor* eyespots, suggesting a similar
629 stabilizing selection. The high variability of *M. telemachus* always-visible eyespots in turn
630 suggests a relaxed or apostatic selection.

631

632 **Figure 4: Contrasted patterns of modularity observed in *M. telemachus* and *M. helenor*.**
633 as assessed by correlation matrices of linear parameters (L_y , W_y , L_b , W_b) of the 7 different
634 eyespots. Top: *M. helenor* (n = 31); Bottom: *M. telemachus* (n = 370). Left: modularity patterns
635 inferred from individual variation; Right: modularity patterns inferred from FA. Nodes
636 represent the 4 measured variables and the edges represent the statistically significant
637 correlations. Line thickness is proportional to the correlation. The blue ellipse shows the module
638 regrouping E3 and E4 detected by the hierarchical clustering in *M. telemachus*.

639

640 **Figure 5: Hierarchical clustering based on the FA and inter-individual correlation**
641 **matrices** of linear parameters (L_y , W_y , L_b , W_b) of the 7 different eyespots. *M. telemachus* (n =
642 370) is shown on the second row and *M. helenor* (n = 31) on the first row. Left: Hierarchical
643 clustering based on the inter-individual correlation matrices. Right: Hierarchical clustering
644 based on FA correlation matrices. Hierarchical clustering exploring the networks modularity.
645 The height of the nodes indicates the distance between two observations (here we used
646 correlation matrix as distance matrix, so the higher the height, the less correlated are two traits).
647 A node market with a blue circle indicate that the associated cluster is significant. The cluster
648 associating the conditionally-displayed eyespots E3 and E4 in *M. telemachus* is the only cluster
649 whose intra-eyespot modularity is overcome by inter-eyespot modularity.

650

651 Appendices

652 **Figure S1: Chromatic contrasts (JND) between the yellow ring and the black ring of**
653 **eyespot** measured in *M. telemachus* (n = 10; circles) and *M. helenor* (n = 10; triangles). The 2
654 vision models are displayed: UV-sensitive birds (left) and Violet-sensitive birds (right).

655

656 **Figure S2: Fluctuating asymmetry of eyespots linear parameters**, respectively length and
657 width of the yellow ring (L_y and W_y) and length and width of the black ring (L_b and W_b) of each
658 eyespot (E1, E3, E4, E5, E7, E8 and E9), measured in the *M. telemachus* sample (n = 370) and
659 *M. helenor* (n = 31). Significant differences between eyespots are shown using different letters
660 (a, b, c) – results for *M. telemachus* are displayed in full letters (above) and results for *M.*
661 *helenor* are displayed in italic letters (below).

662

663 **Figure S3: Inter-individual variation of eyespots linear parameters**, respectively length
664 and width of the yellow ring (L_y and W_y) and length and width of the black ring (L_b and W_b) of
665 each eyespot (E1, E3, E4, E5, E7, E8 and E9), measured in the *M. telemachus* sample (n = 370)
666 and *M. helenor* (n = 31).

667

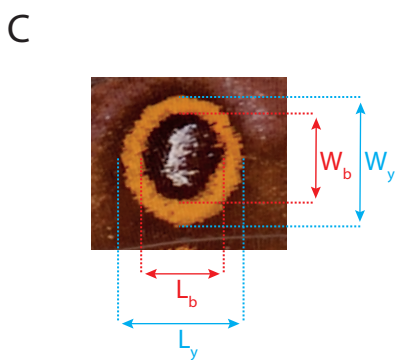
668 **Table S1: Pairwise comparisons of size differences among *M. telemachus* eyespots** (L_y
669 measures), using Welch's tests, and accounting for multiple comparisons using Holm-
670 Bonferroni correction. The sample size for all tests is 370.

671

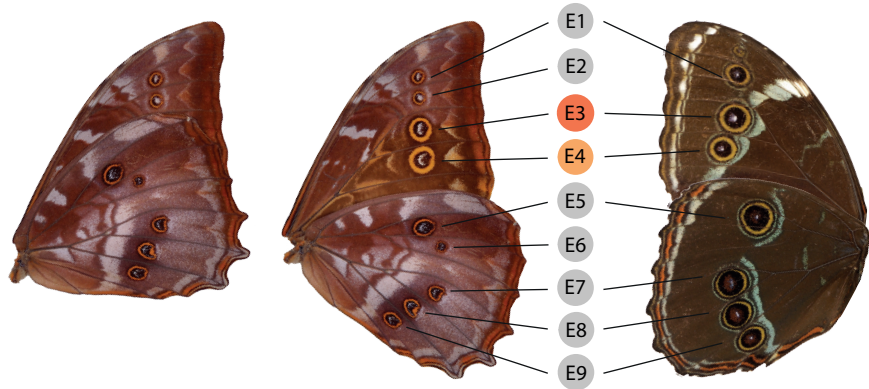
672 **Table S2: Pairwise comparisons of the yellow ring shape among *M. telemachus* eyespots**
673 (R_y measures), using Welch's tests and accounting for multiple testing by using Holm-
674 Bonferroni correction. The sample size for all tests is 370.

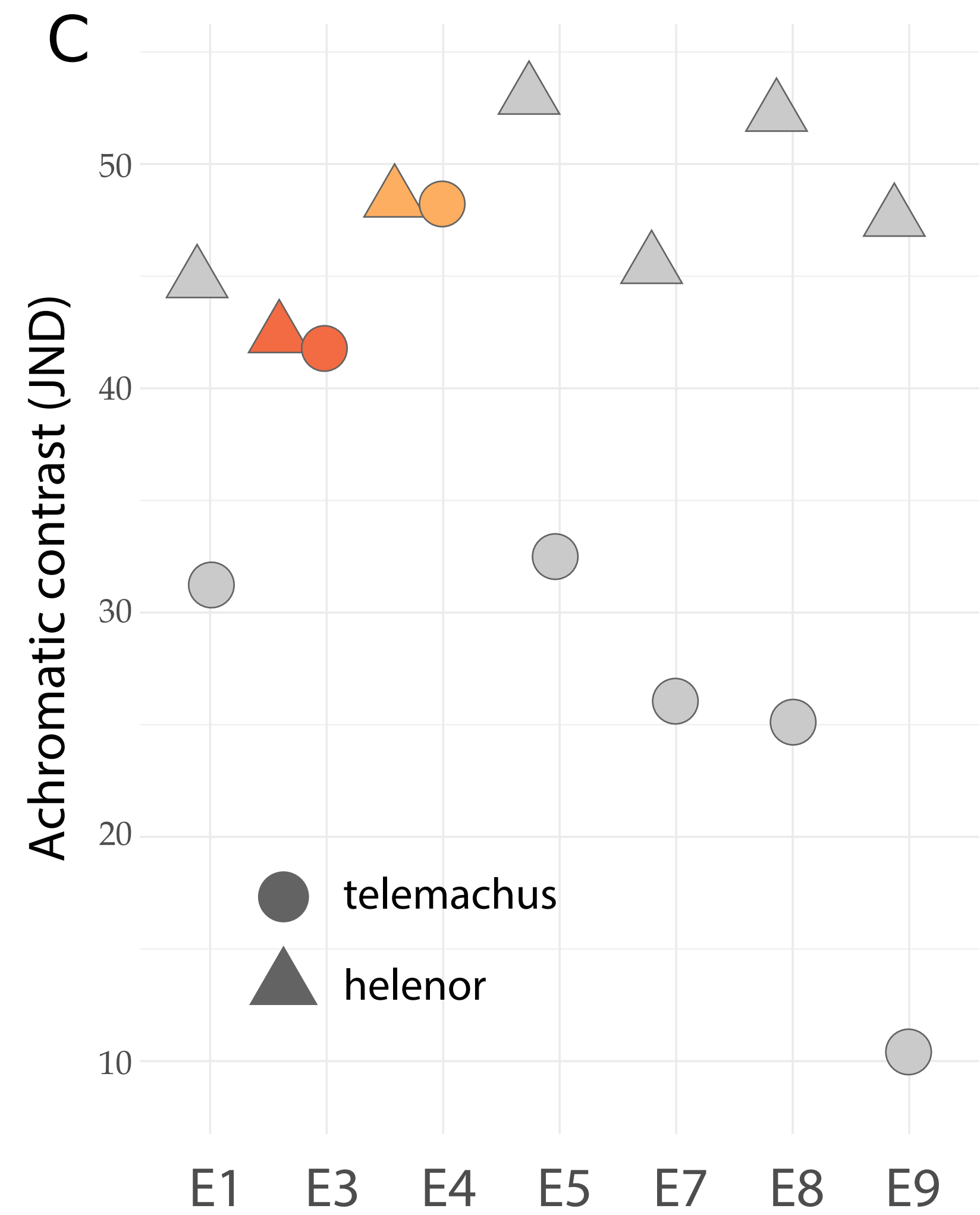
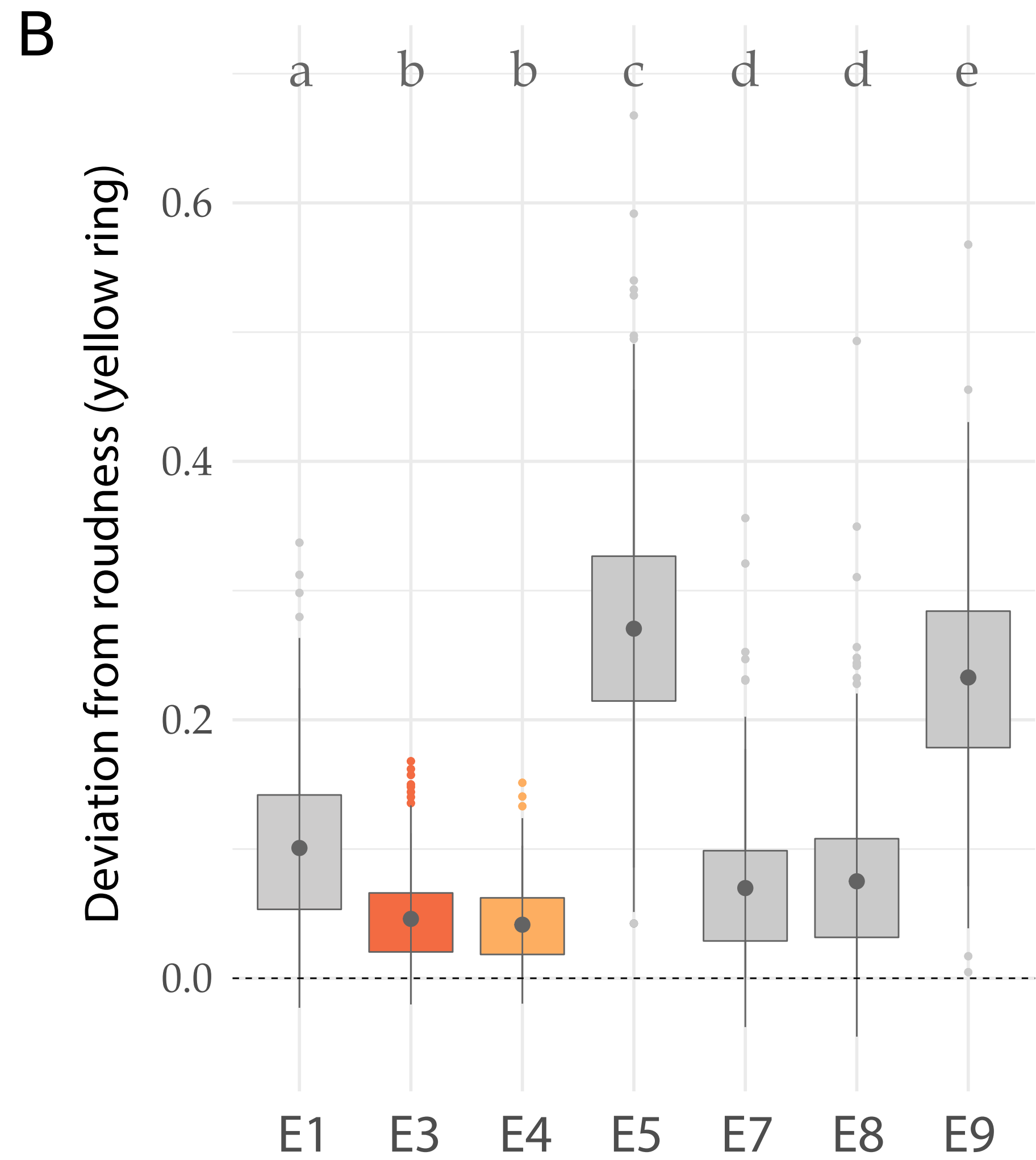
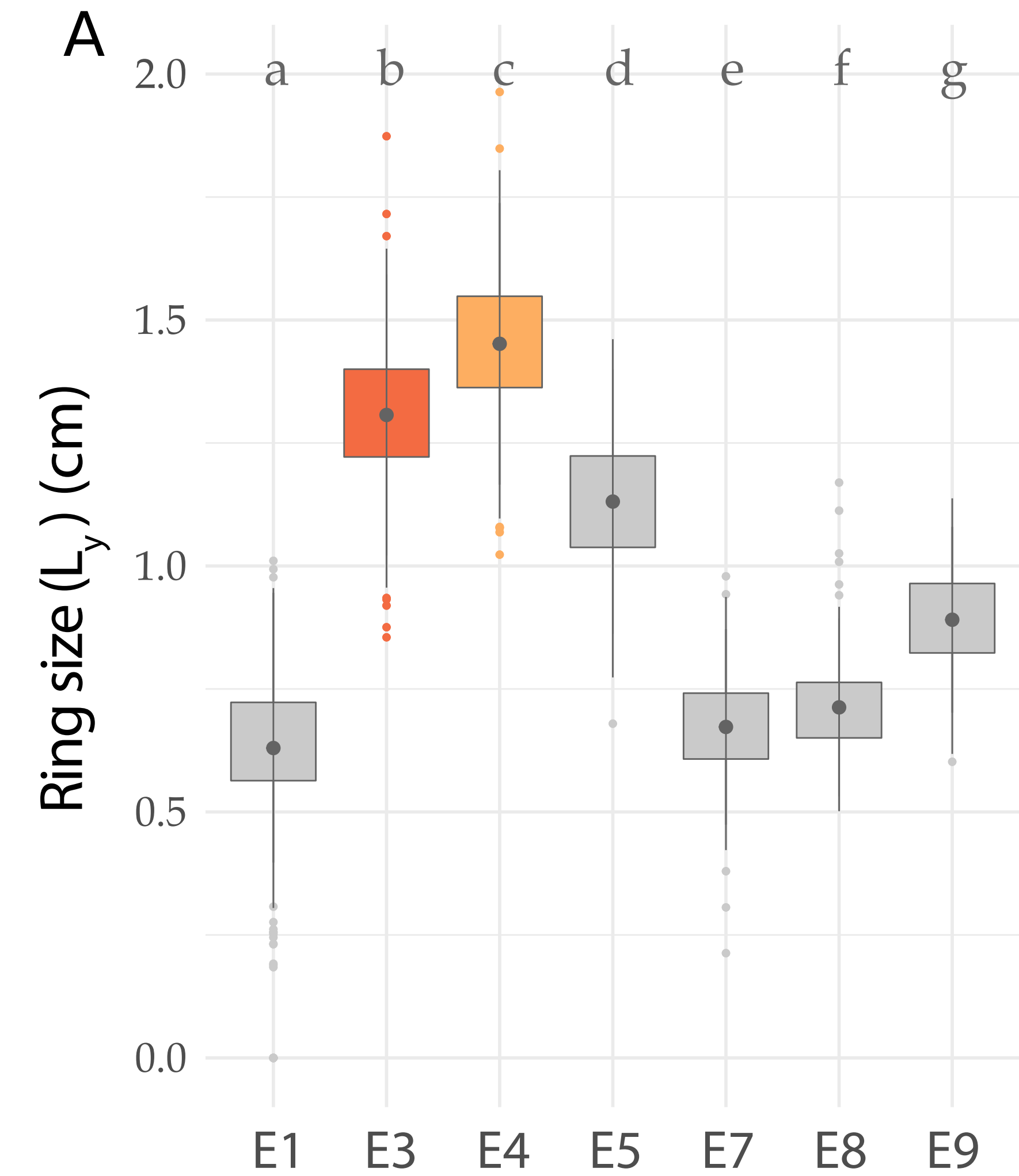
675

676 **Table S3: Summary of the measured correlations between eyespots of *M. telemachus* and**
677 *M. helenor* – especially between conditionally-displayed (E3-E4) and always-visible (AV)
678 eyespots. Table indicate mean and standard deviation.

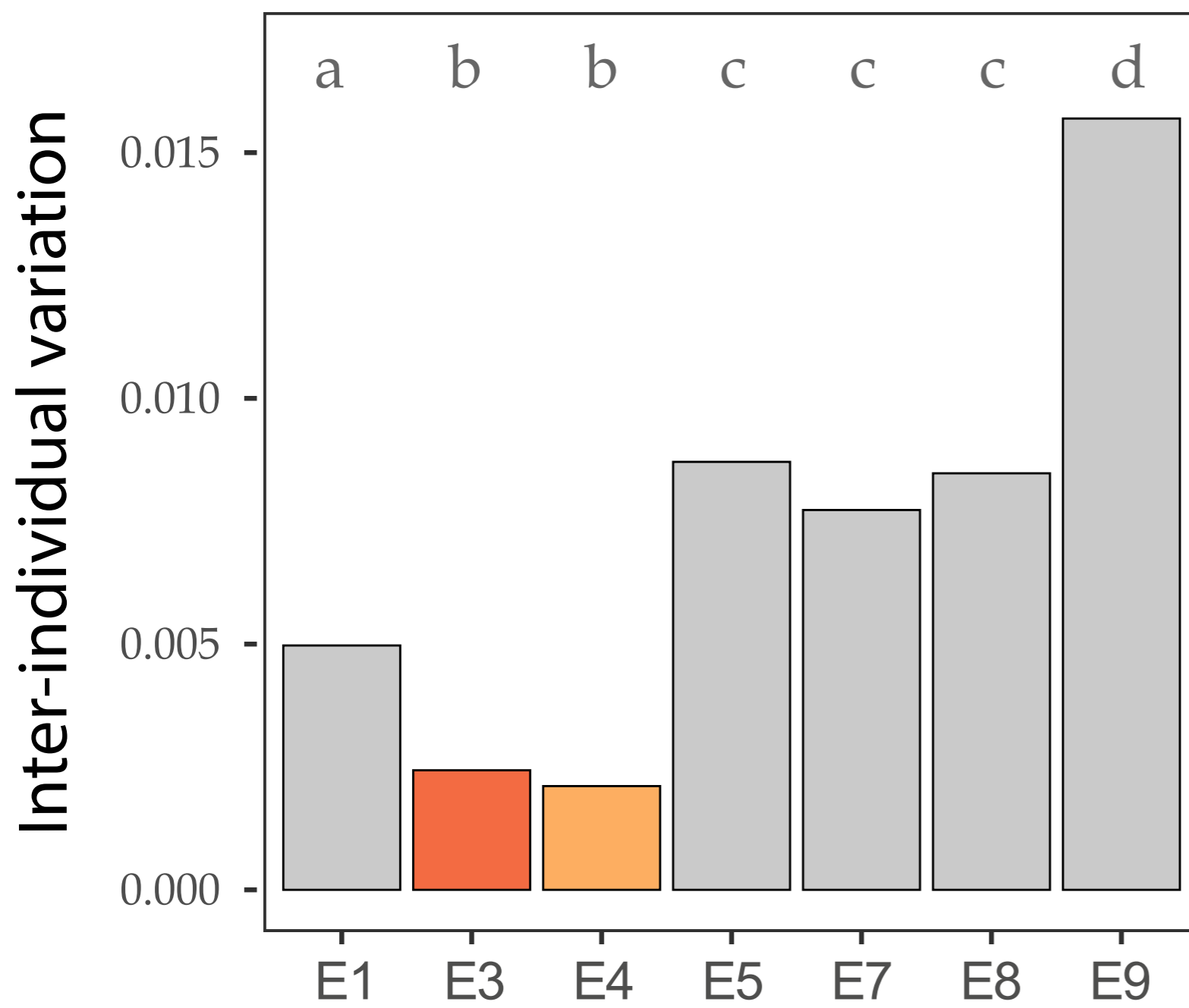


B

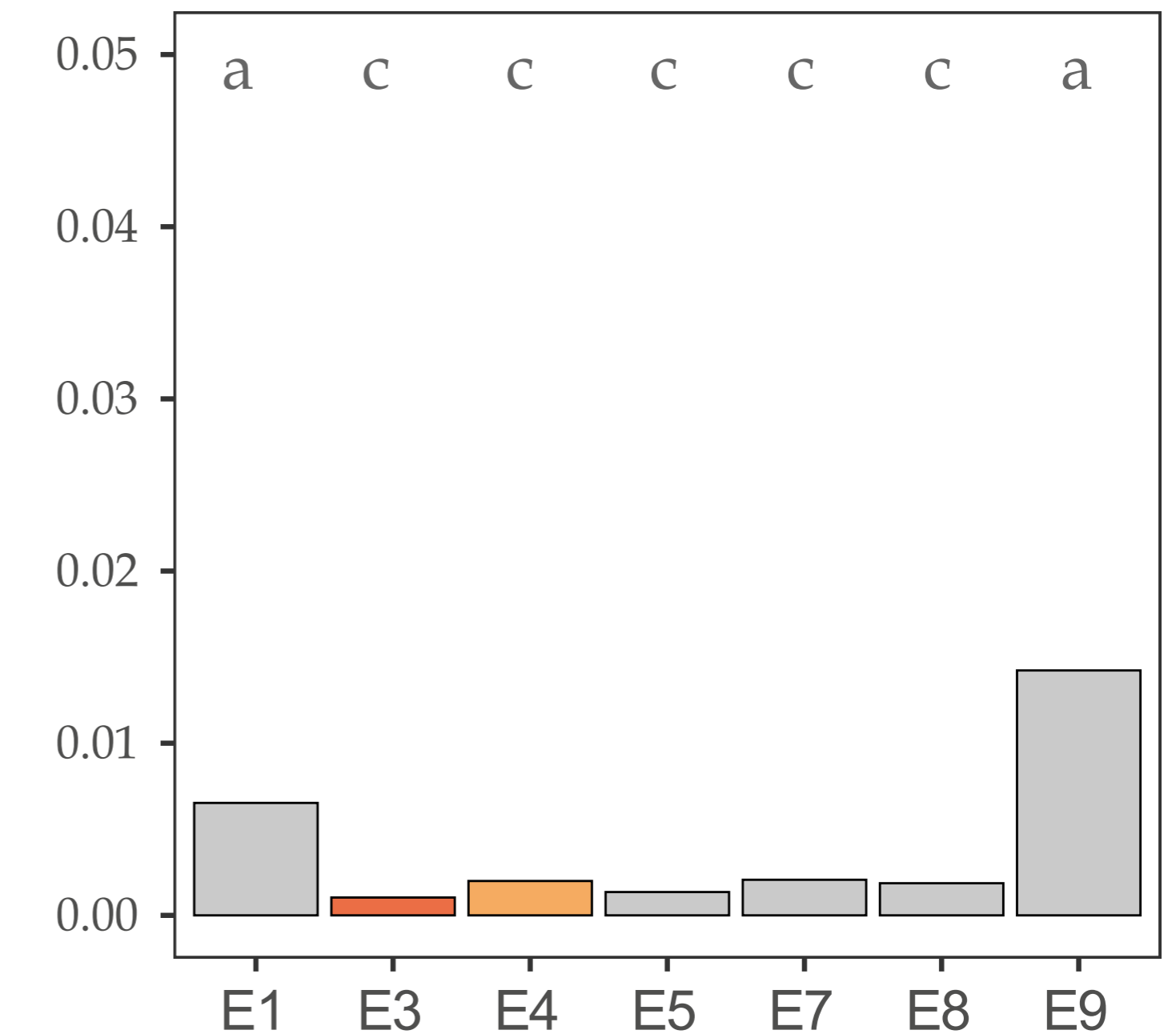
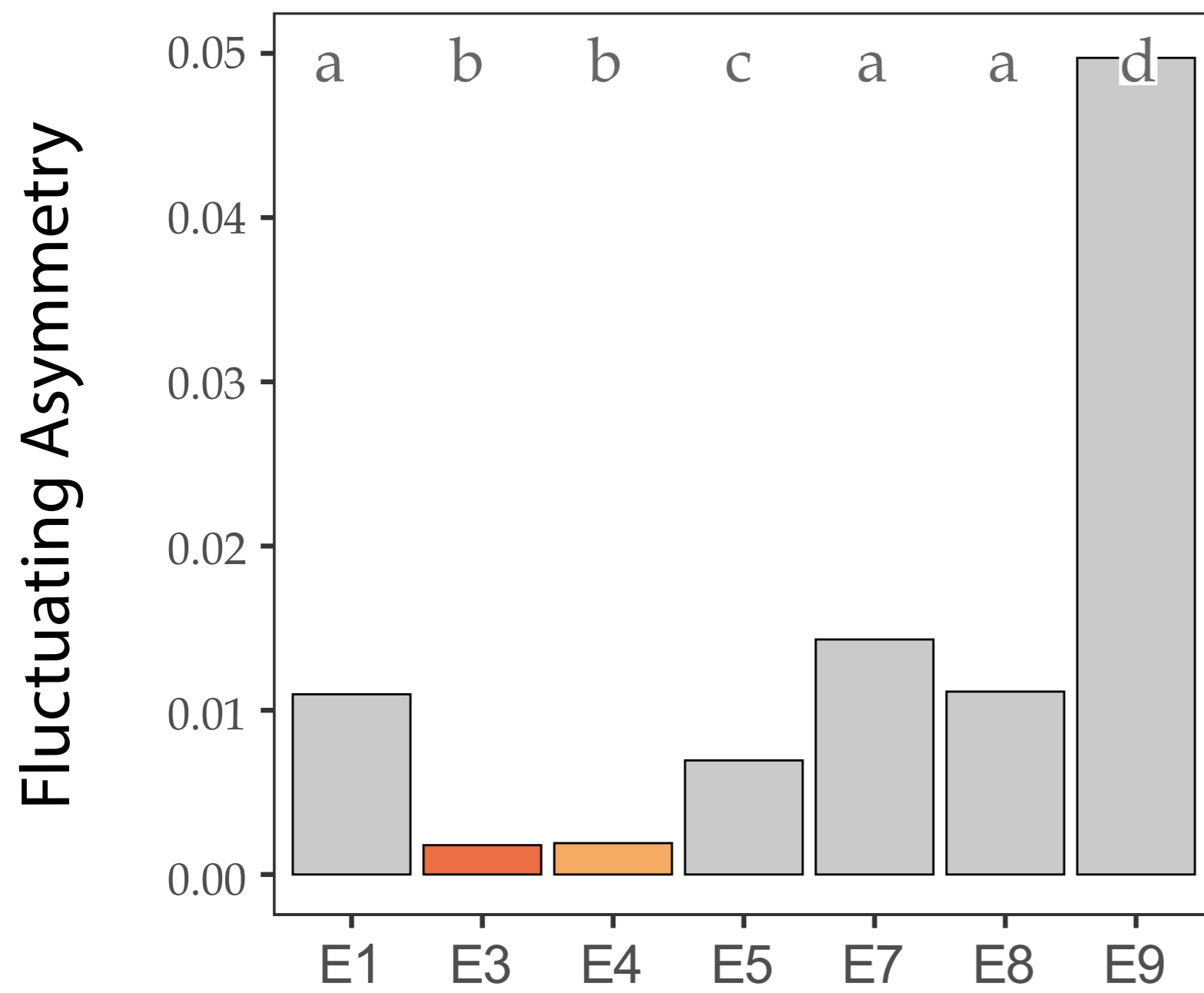
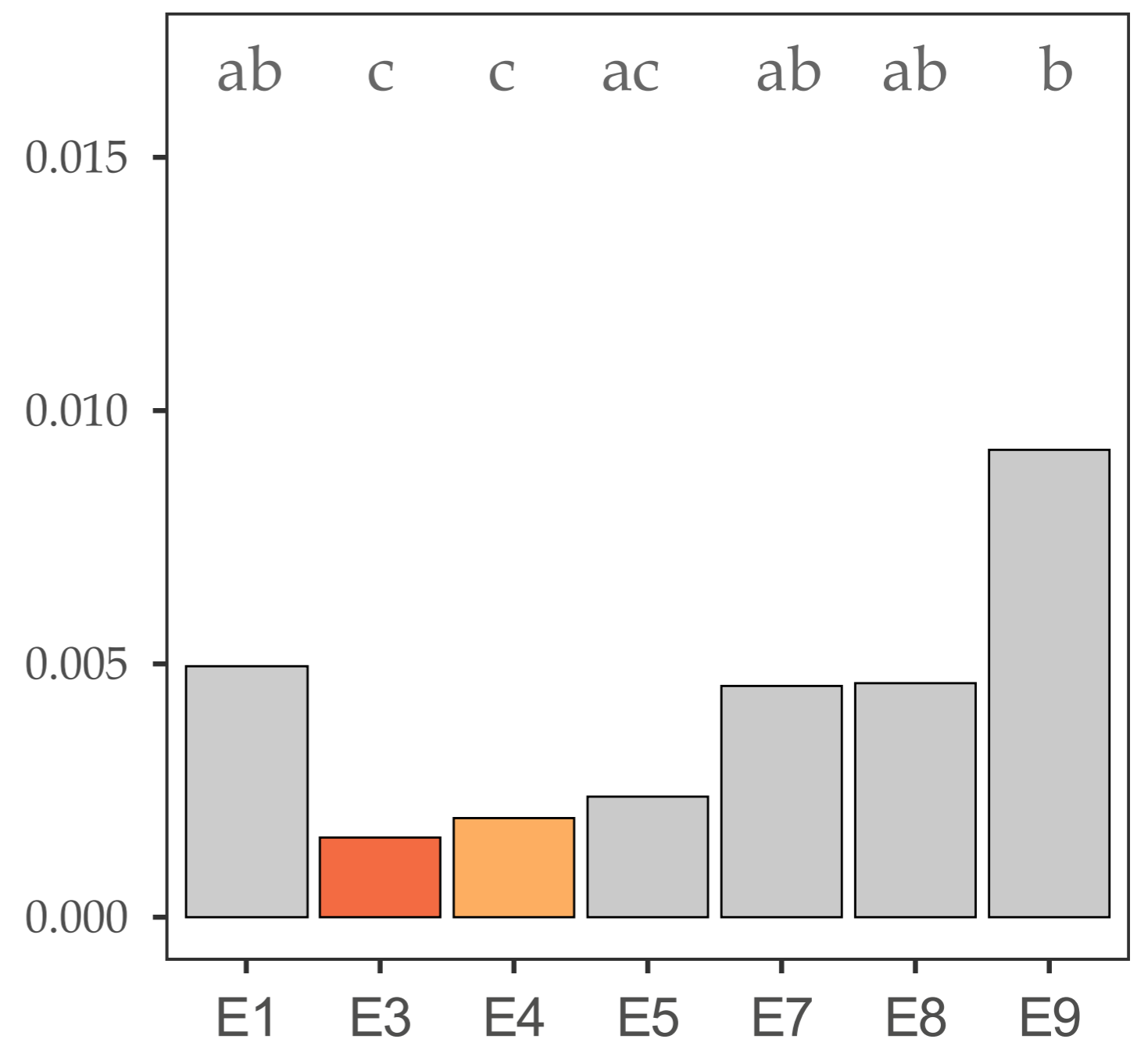




M. telemachus



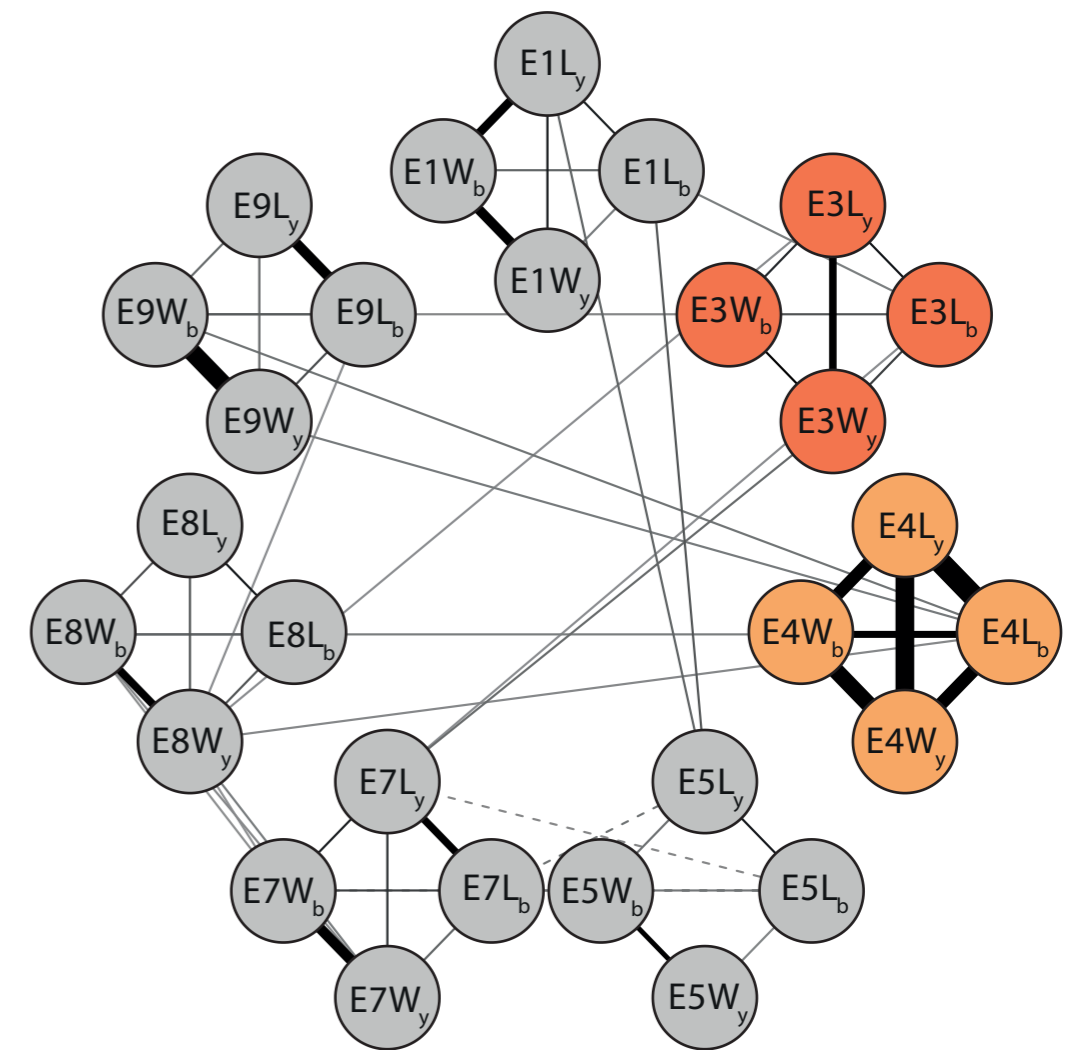
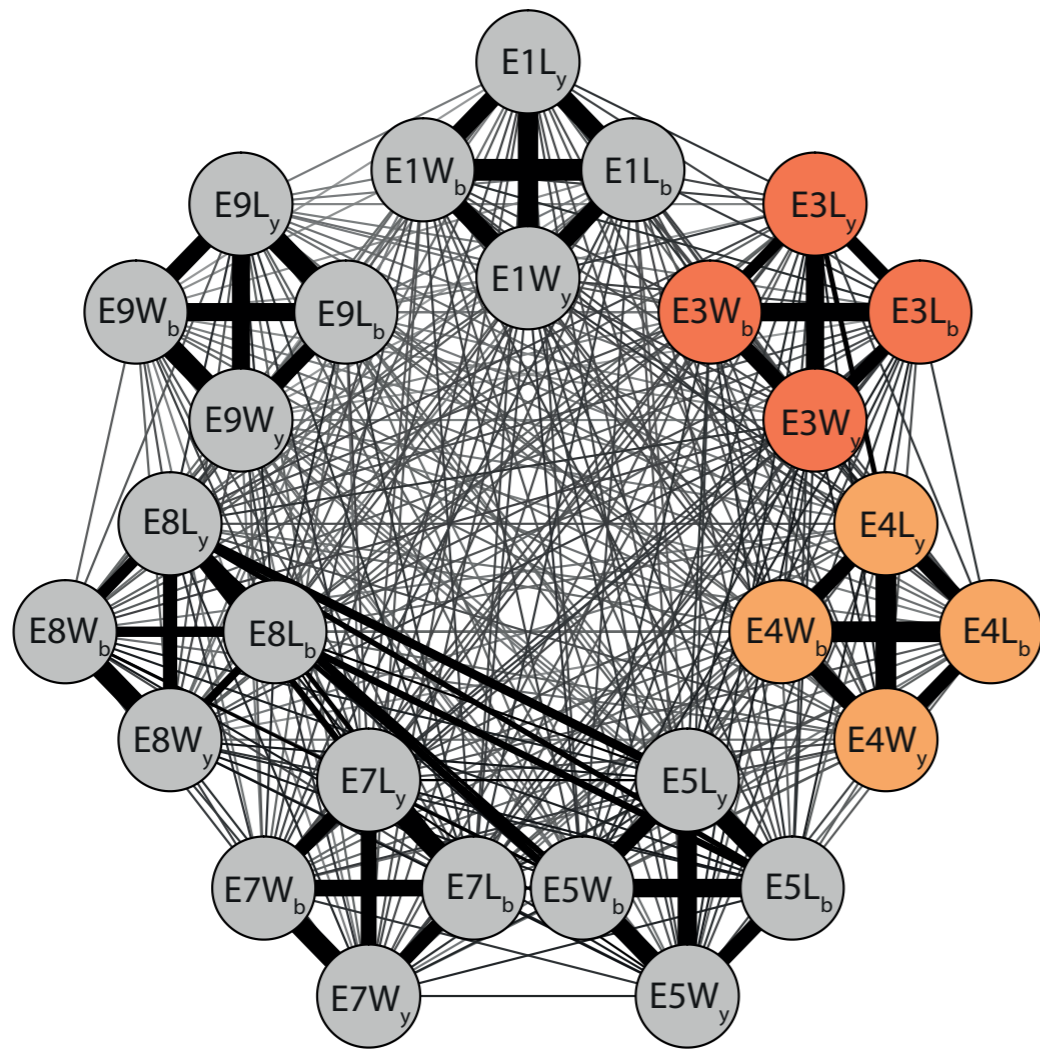
M. helenor



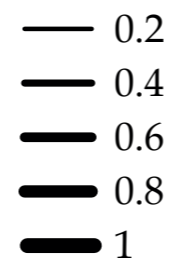
Individual variation

Fluctuating asymmetry

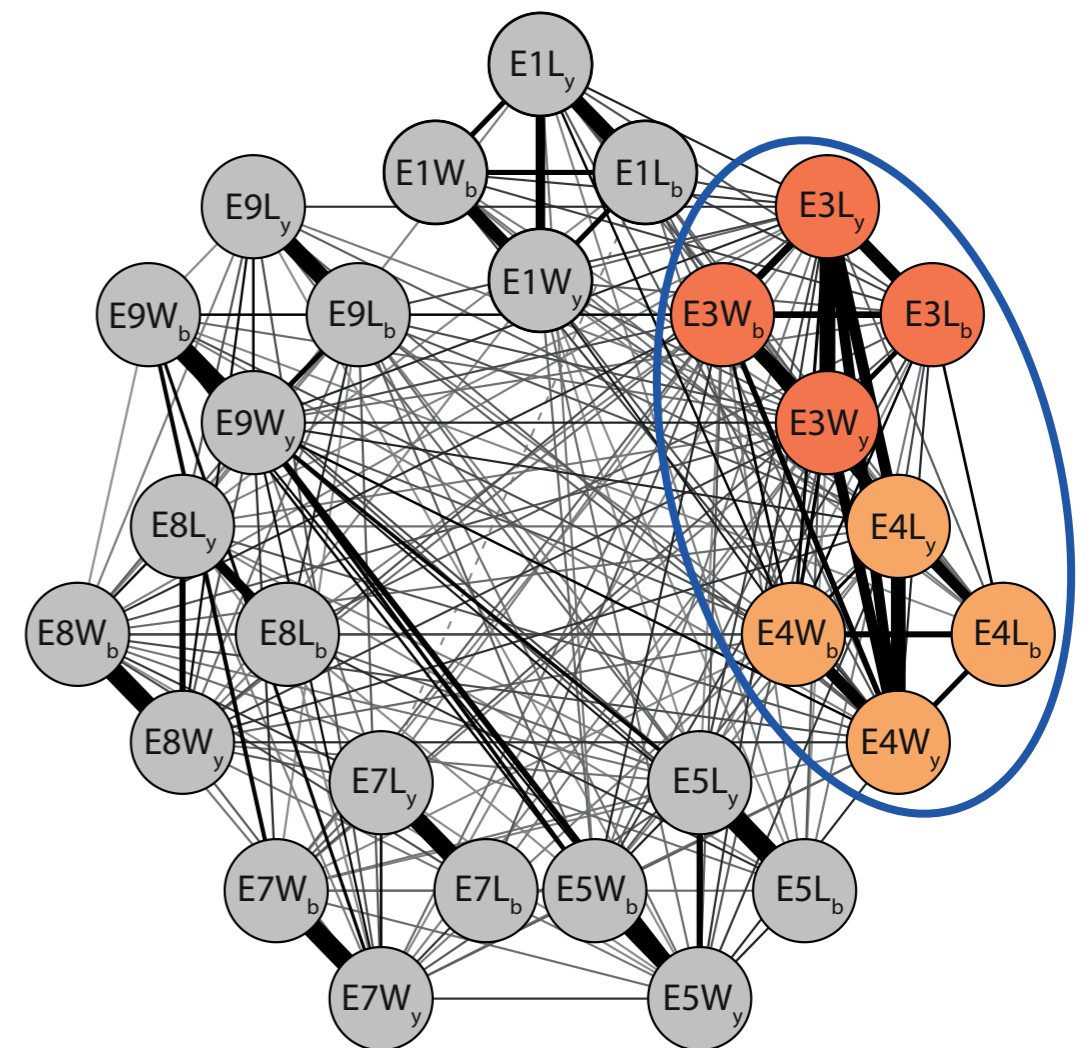
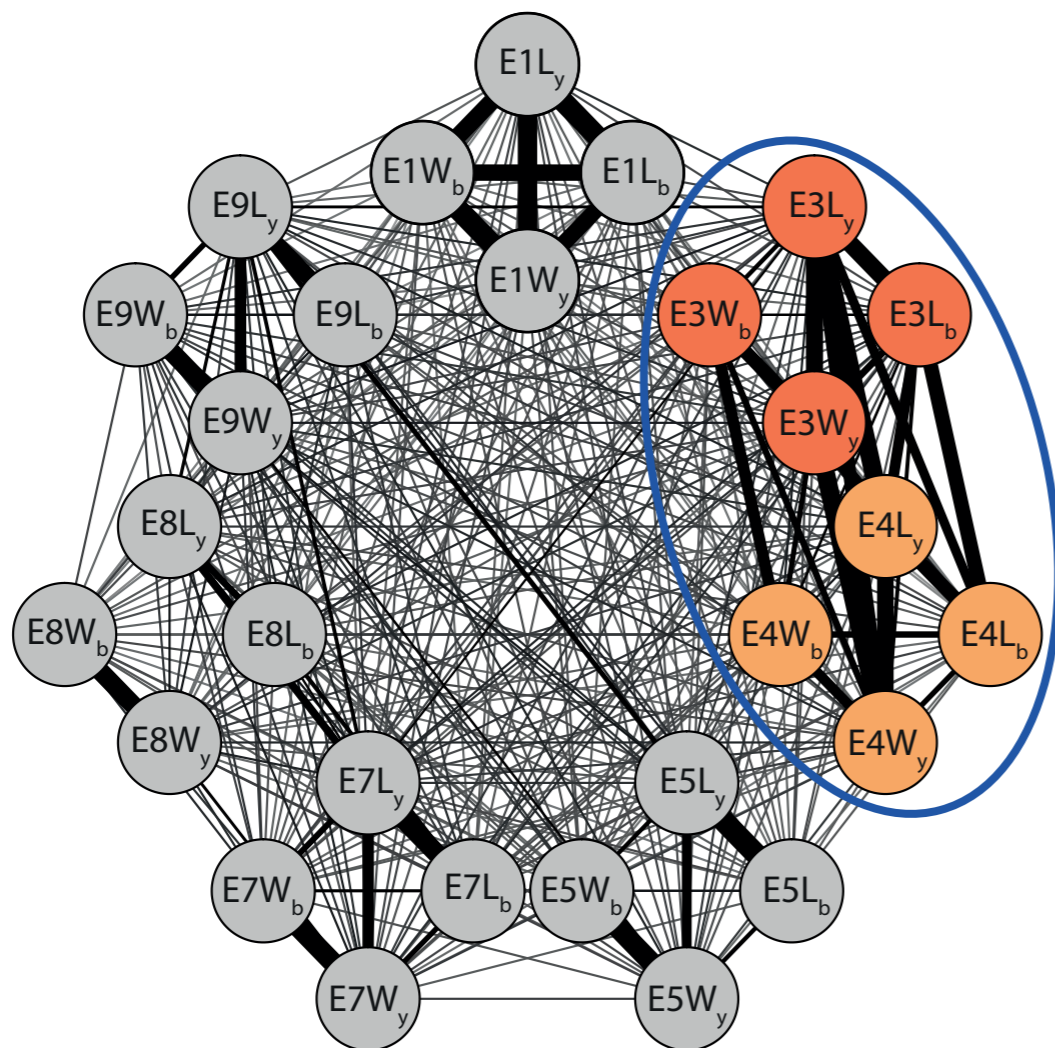
M. helenor



Correlation

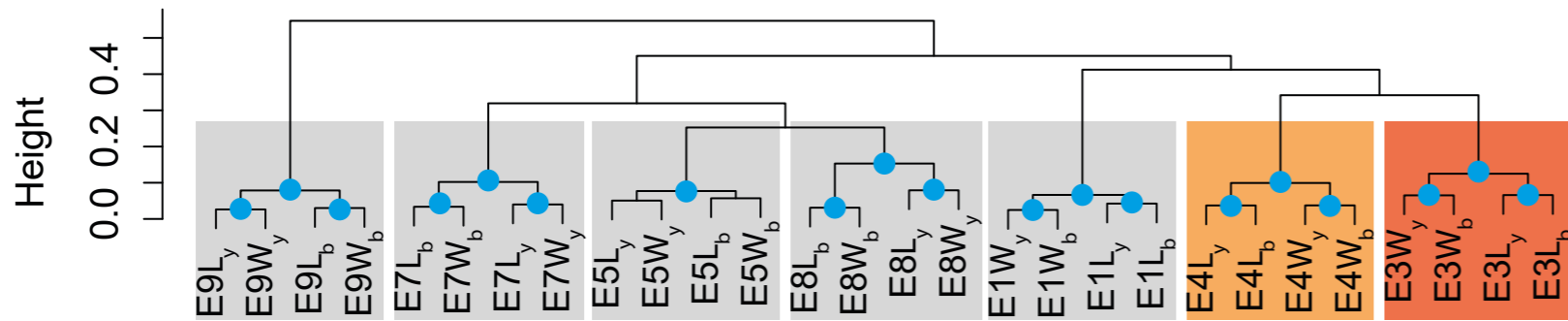


M. telemachus

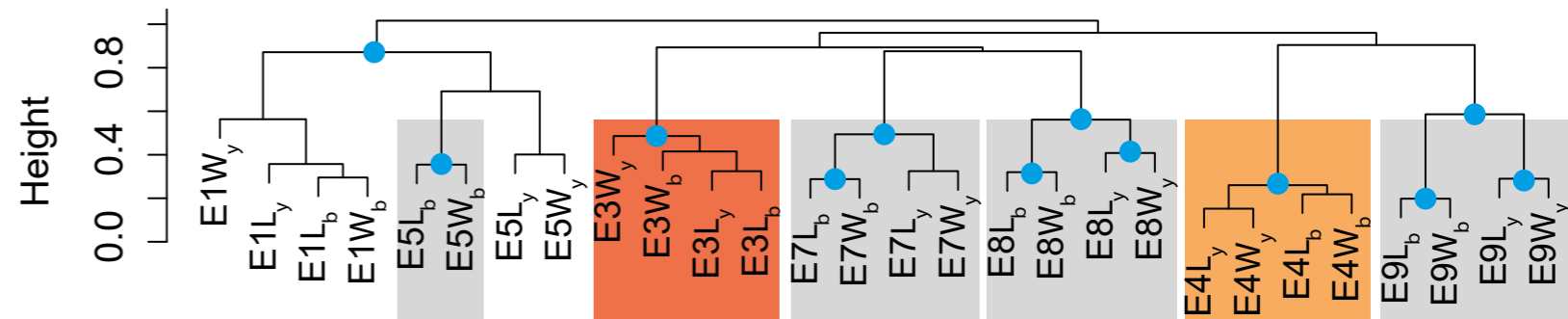


M. helenor

Individual variation



Fluctuating asymmetry



M. telemachus

