

1 **Micropyle number is associated with elevated female promiscuity in**

2 **Lepidoptera**

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7

8 **Abstract**

9 In the majority of insects, sperm fertilise the egg via a narrow canal through the outer chorion called
10 the micropyle. Despite having this one primary function, there is considerable unexplained variation
11 in the location, arrangement and number of micropyles within and between species. Here, we
12 examined the relationship between micropyle number and female mating pattern through a
13 comparative analysis across Lepidoptera. Three functional hypotheses could explain profound
14 micropylar variation: (i) increasing micropyle number reduces the risk of infertility through sperm
15 limitation in species that mate infrequently; (ii) decreasing micropyle number reduces the risk of
16 pathological polyspermy in species that mate more frequently; (iii) increasing micropyle number
17 allows females to exert greater control over fertilisation within the context of post-copulatory sexual
18 selection, which will be more intense in promiscuous species. Micropyle number was positively
19 related to the degree of female promiscuity as measured by spermatophore count, regardless of
20 phylogenetic signal, supporting the hypothesis that micropyle number is shaped by post-copulatory
21 sexual selection. We discuss this finding in the context of cryptic female choice, sperm limitation and
22 physiological polyspermy.

23 **Keywords**

24 Cryptic female choice, Lepidoptera, micropyle, polyspermy, sperm competition, spermatophore
25 count

26

27 1. Introduction

28 Micropyles (from the Greek *mikros*, small, *pulē*, gate) are small openings that allow male gametes to
29 enter and fertilise the ovum in a wide diversity of taxa including insects, fishes, cephalopods and
30 plants [1]. Amongst insect orders, micropyles exhibit considerable variation in position, arrangement
31 and number. For example in some species micropyles protrude from the egg chorion on ‘stalks’
32 (micropylar processes) such as *Drosophila spp.* [2] whereas others are located in micropylar pits as in
33 some Lepidoptera [e.g. 3], whilst others are superficial [1,2]. Within the Heteroptera variation in
34 micropyle number is extensive: 0 – 70 [4], whilst in the Lepidoptera there are between 1-20 [1], with
35 some evidence of intraspecific variation [5,6]. Despite such large and obvious differences between
36 species, few authors have attempted to seek functional explanations for this variation.

37 Here we use a comparative approach to investigate variation in micropyle number, testing
38 between three hypotheses associated with female mating pattern. If micropyles only act to facilitate
39 fertilisation success, we predict more micropyles in those species at greater risk of fertilisation
40 failure due to sperm limitation. This could occur in populations that have a strongly female-biased
41 operational sex ratio [7] and/or in populations in which females mate infrequently. For example,
42 female *Drosophila pseudoobscura* that copulate only once appear to have insufficient viable sperm
43 stores to maintain fertility [8]. Hence, if greater micropyle number increases fertilisation success we
44 predict a negative association with the likelihood of female promiscuity. Similarly, if micropyle
45 number functions to mitigate against pathological polyspermy (embryonic failure due to more than
46 one sperm entering the oocyte cytoplasm [9]), then we predict a negative association between
47 micropyle number and female mating frequency, such that promiscuous species at greater risk of
48 pathological polyspermy have fewer micropyles. (It should be noted that our approach cannot
49 distinguish between these two hypotheses.) By contrast, if micropyles are shaped by post-copulatory

50 sexual selection, then greater micropyle number is predicted to be positively associated with
51 promiscuous mating patterns. In species where ejaculates from more than one male compete to
52 fertilise a female's set of eggs cryptic female choice can operate to bias fertilisation success in favour
53 of particular male traits [10]. In species with internal fertilisation, this can manifest itself as a number
54 of male-female interactions [11] including those at the sperm-egg interface [12]. Thus it is possible
55 that variation in micropyle number could be driven by post-copulatory sexual selection if females are
56 able to use these structures to exert control over fertilisations. However, to our knowledge, no
57 studies have yet examined this novel hypothesis.

58 We therefore compare micropyle number against the extent of female promiscuity, using
59 lepidopteran species that vary greatly in both female mating pattern and egg micropyle number. The
60 Lepidoptera are especially suitable for this study because mating pattern can be quantified from
61 spermatophore counts which persist within the female bursa copulatrix [13]. We hypothesise that
62 variation in micropyle number functions to: (i) reduce the risk of sperm limitation and egg infertility,
63 (ii) reduce the risk of pathological polyspermy, or (iii) allow greater control over paternity.

64

65 **2. Materials and methods**

66 a) Data collation

67 Species-specific average micropyle number and spermatophore count (number of spermatophores
68 recovered from the bursa copulatrix) were collated from the literature alongside egg size (a potential
69 co-variate; [14]) for 56 species of Lepidoptera from 15 families (25 butterflies and 31 moths).

70 Lepidopteran eggs fall broadly into two shapes: fusiform (butterflies) and flat/round (moths). Thus
71 volume was approximated using the formula for a prolate ellipsoid ($(\frac{1}{2} \text{ egg length} \times \frac{1}{2} \text{ egg width}^2 \times \pi)$)

72 $4/3$) for butterfly eggs and half-oblate spheroids for the moth eggs ($(\frac{1}{2} \text{ egg length} \times \frac{1}{2} \text{ egg width}^2 \times$
73 $\pi) 4/3/2$). In particular estimates of species-level promiscuity were gained primarily from field
74 studies (as opposed to lab-based studies) which reported spermatophore count (for a discussion on
75 using this method see [13]).

76

77 Statistical analyses

78 We used a phylogenetic generalized least squares regression (PGLM) [15, 16] between mean
79 micropyle number and spermatophore count. The `pglmEstLambda` function of the 'CAIC' package
80 was used to identify the maximum likelihood value of λ [15; 17; 18] which measures the degree to
81 which the matrix follows a Brownian model; λ can vary between 0 (no phylogenetic autocorrelation)
82 to 1 (complete phylogenetic autocorrelation). We present results from the PGLM along with the
83 ordinary least squares (OLS) for comparison [19]: where $\lambda = 0$, the resulting model is equivalent to a
84 standard linear model. Analysis was carried out using R code kindly provided by R.P. Freckleton
85 (University of Sheffield). We used butterfly phylogenies available on the Tree of Life Web Project
86 [20] with branch lengths set to one. All analyses were run in R version 2.15.2 [21].

87

88 **3. Results and Discussion**

89 Species-specific micropyle number varied from 1 to 15 (mean $4.06 \pm \text{S.E.M. } 0.43$) across the
90 Lepidoptera sampled (Table 1). We found no evidence that micropyle number was associated with
91 risk of sperm limitation and infertility, or that fewer micropyles were associated with a likely
92 increased risk of polyspermy. Rather, micropyle number was positively correlated with our estimate

93 of female promiscuity. (Table 2). Micropyle number was positively related to spermatophore count
94 in corrected and non-corrected PGLS (Table 2, Figure 1).

95 At a functional level more micropyles would suggest greater potential for multiple sperm
96 entry into the egg. This raises two questions: i) why allow multiple sperm to enter the egg? And ii)
97 why make this easier in species with greater female promiscuity? Physiological polyspermy is
98 widespread in nature, being the norm in Urodeles and birds but also reported in other taxa [9, 22]
99 including Lepidoptera [23]. In physiological polyspermy, several sperm enter the egg but only one
100 fuses with the female pronucleus. The remaining supernumerary sperm nuclei degenerate [2]. Why
101 physiological polyspermy occurs only in some taxa is unclear, although a recent study by Hemmings
102 & Birkhead [24] indicates that polyspermy is essential for early embryonic development in both the
103 domestic fowl and the zebra finch (*Taeniopygia guttata*). Physiological polyspermy enables the
104 intriguing possibility of mate choice within an egg cell [25]. In the polyspermic ctenophore (*Beroe*
105 *ovata*) the female pronucleus migrates among male pronuclei within the egg before fusing with one
106 [26]. Thus, the presence of multiple micropyles could increase the opportunity for post-copulatory
107 female choice within the egg environment. Such mechanisms are likely to be most relevant for
108 polyandrous species where selection has acted on mating pattern to increase the opportunity for
109 sperm choice.

110 Alternatively, more micropyles may represent a bet-hedging strategy for the female where
111 sperm numbers are limited. Although sperm are cheaper to produce than eggs, they still involve a
112 reproductive cost. When sperm competition is high, males can allocate their ejaculates prudently
113 resulting in sperm limitation for females [27]. Thus the presence of a greater number of micropyles
114 may represent an evolved mechanism to counter male traits which incidentally lower female fitness.

115 Lastly, the micropyle opening is only one component of micropyles. The micropylar
116 openings lead to canaliculi, minute ducts through the chorion. In some species these canals show
117 complex structuring; for example, *Bombyx mori* have a single external micropyle which branches to
118 3-5 canaliculi which lead to the chorion [28]. Given that the number of sperm entering eggs in *B.*
119 *mori* varies from 1 to 11, Kawaguchi et al. [6] proposed that the number of canals is related to the
120 degree of polyspermy. Such diversity in internal structuring of the micropyles suggests a greater
121 degree of complexity to their function than has been considered previously and a possible role in
122 polyspermy in insects.

123

124 **Conclusions**

125 This is the first study to show that micropylar variation is in part driven by the degree of female
126 promiscuity. Micropyles allow sperm entry into the egg, hence more micropyles should aid sperm
127 entry in to the egg, reducing the likelihood of infertility, whilst at the same time increasing the
128 likelihood of physiological polyspermy. Whether physiological polyspermy benefits early
129 embryogenesis in insects as it appears to do in birds [24] and/or offers an alternative site for cryptic
130 female choice [25] requires further study.

131 **Ethics**

132 **Ethical approval was granted from University of Lincoln's College of Science Ethics Committee**
133 **(COSREC37).**

134 **Data accessibility**

135 Data are available on the Dryad Digital Repository doi:10.5061/dryad.2c5m1[29]

136

137 **Authors' contributions**

138 G.I. and P.E. designed the study, G.I. collated and analysed the data, G.I. and P.E. drafted the
139 manuscript. M.J.G.G. shared his butterfly sperm dataset, contributed to the study design and helped
140 draft the manuscript. All authors gave final approval for publication and agreed to be accountable
141 for all aspects of the content therein.

142

143 **Competing interests**

144 We have no competing interests.

145

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220

221 Table 1 Average micropyle number across lepidopteran family

222

Family	Number of species	Average micropyle number
Arctiidae	1	4 (4-6)
Erebidae	1	2
Gelechiidae	1	3
Heliiothinae	1	3 (3,4)
Lycaenidae	2	3.5
Noctuidae	14	5.2
Notodontidae	2	10.5
Nymphalidae	18	3.6
Papilionidae	1	7
Pieridae	2	1.5
Pyralidae	4	2
Saturnidae	1	7
Sphingidae	1	1
Tortricidae	2	1

223

224

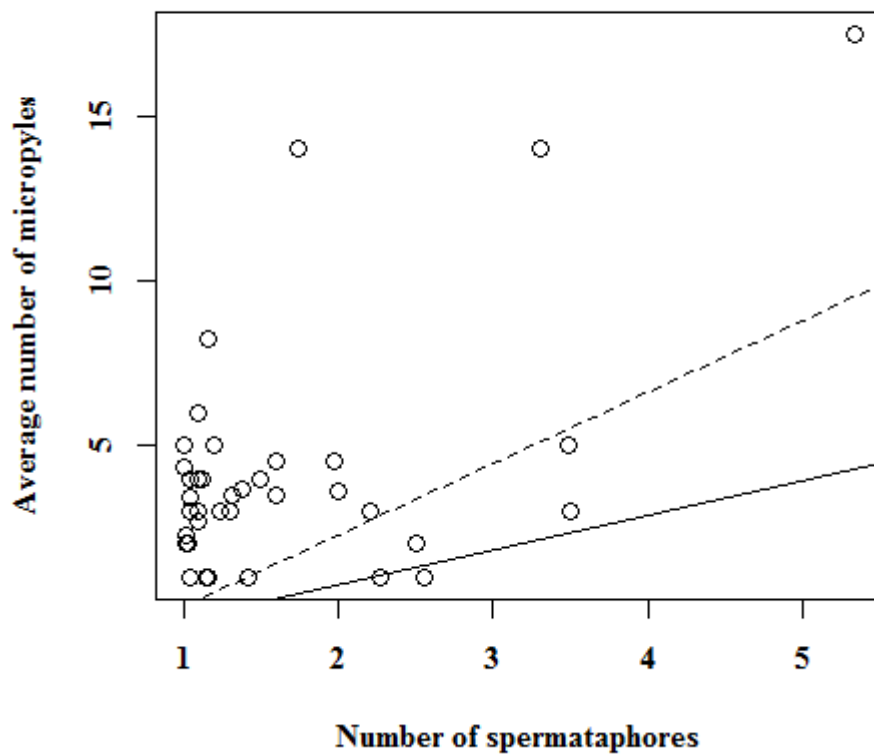
225 Table 2 PGLM model results for the relationship between micropyle number and spermatophore count. For each model the $\beta \pm SE$, t and p values are
226 presented. In addition, the estimate of Pagel's λ (Pagel 1999) is calculated.

227

Model	Parameter	N	Non-phylogenetically corrected			Phylogenetically-corrected			
			B \pm SE	t	p	B \pm SE	λ	t	p
	Intercept	39	-0.08 \pm 1.19	-0.07	0.946	1.09 \pm 1.54	1.00	0.70	0.485
	Egg volume		1.86 \pm 1.60	1.16	0.252	1.14 \pm 1.49		1.76	0.449
	Spermatophore count		2.30 \pm 0.55	4.20	<0.001	1.09 \pm 0.45		2.40	0.022

228 Figure 1 The relationship between micropyle number and spermatophore count in corrected (solid
229 line) and non-corrected (dotted line) PGLS.

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231

