

PROCEEDINGS B

A neo-W chromosome in a tropical butterfly links colour pattern, male killing and speciation

Journal:	<i>Proceedings B</i>
Manuscript ID	Draft
Article Type:	Research
Date Submitted by the Author:	n/a
Complete List of Authors:	Smith, David; Natural History Museum, Eton College Gordon, Ian; Birdlife International Traut, Walther; Universitat zu Lubeck Sektion Naturwissenschaften Herren, Jeremy; International Centre for Insect Physiology and Ecology Collins, Steve; African Butterfly Research Institute Martins, Dino; Turkana Basin Institute, Saitoti, Kennedy; National Museums of Kenya Ireru, Piera; Kenyatta University Ffrench-Constant, Richard; University of Exeter,
Subject:	Evolution < BIOLOGY, Ecology < BIOLOGY, Genetics < BIOLOGY
Keywords:	neoW, chromosome, male-killing, Spiroplasma, colour pattern
Proceedings B category:	Population Genetics

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Manuscripts

1 **A neo-W chromosome in a tropical butterfly links colour pattern, male killing and**
2 **speciation**

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16
17 Sexually antagonistic selection can drive both the evolution of sex chromosomes and speciation itself. The
18 tropical butterfly the African Queen, *Danaus chrysippus*, shows two such sexually antagonistic
19 phenotypes, sex-linked colour polymorphism and susceptibility to a male-killing mollicute *Spiroplasma*
20 *ixodetis*. In East Africa male-killing is prevalent in a narrow hybrid zone centred on Nairobi. This hybrid
21 zone separates otherwise allopatric subspecies with different colour patterns. Here we show that a neo-W
22 chromosome, a fusion between the W (female) chromosome and an autosome that controls colour pattern,
23 links susceptibility to male-killing with a change in colour pattern. Studies of the population genetics of
24 the neo-W around Nairobi show that the interaction between colour pattern and male-killer susceptibility
25 restricts gene flow between the two subspecies of *D. chrysippus*. Our results demonstrate how a complex
26 interplay between sex, colour pattern, male-killing and a neo-W chromosome, has set up a genetic
27 ‘firewall’ that keeps the two subspecies apart. The association between the neo-W and male-killing thus
28 provides a ‘smoking gun’ for an ongoing speciation process.

29

30 **Keywords:** *Danaus chrysippus*; male-killing; neo-W chromosome; colour pattern; speciation; *Spiroplasma*.

31

32

33
34**INTRODUCTION**

35 Ever since Poulton [1] noted that two butterfly colour morphs could be bred from the same parents, the African
36 Queen, *Danaus chrysippus* (L.), has been considered 'polymorphic'. However, our long-term studies at three
37 sites around Nairobi, Kenya (figure S1), have established that in this region the butterfly comprises two
38 essentially parapatric (though migratory) subspecies. *D. c. chrysippus* and *D. c. dorippus* (henceforth termed
39 *chrysippus* and *dorippus*, figure 1a-c). Each subspecies has an individual colour pattern controlled by a single
40 autosomal locus *C* [2-4], *dorippus* being homozygous for *CC* and *chrysippus* homozygous for *cc*. The F₁ hybrid
41 *transiens* (the heterozygote *Cc*) closely resembles *dorippus* but is usually phenotypically detectable (figure 1e)
42 [5]. The subspecies make frequent contact across East Africa creating colour polymorphisms within a mosaic of
43 hybrid clines centred on Nairobi but reaching south to Tanzania [2], east into Uganda [6-9], and north to Sudan
44 [8], Ethiopia [10] and Oman [9]. Outside the hybrid zone, both subspecies are monomorphic for the *C* locus
45 through their separate ranges [figure 1S, 11-12].

46 Previous investigations have explored relationships between colour pattern, male-killing and sex linkage.
47 Throughout the hybrid zone female-biased sex ratios, driven by male-killing and marked by hybrid excess,
48 predominate [2-4]. Two phenotypes are associated, the first being colour pattern, which may be sex-linked or
49 independent of sex and the second susceptibility to the male-killing intracellular mollicute *Spiroplasma ixodetis*
50 [13-14]. We have previously found that the *c* bearing autosome of *chrysippus* females strictly segregates with the
51 W chromosome within the hybrid zone and have therefore postulated that a W-autosomal fusion (\overline{Wc}) has
52 occurred [11-12], physically linking the female determining W chromosome with the colour pattern locus *C*.
53 Further, we have also found within the hybrid zone that *chrysippus* females and their *transiens* daughters are all
54 infected with the male-killing *Spiroplasma* and thus produce all-female broods, whereas, in contrast, *dorippus*
55 females are largely uninfected by *Spiroplasma* and therefore produce both males and females. The aims of the
56 present study were therefore to look at five specific factors likely to govern the population genetics of the hybrid
57 zone. 1) To demonstrate, using cytogenetics, that an autosome has indeed become fused to the female-specific
58 W-chromosome, as previously postulated. 2) To document the frequency of *Spiroplasma* infection in the hybrid
59 zone and to try to understand how this fusion maintains the highly female-biased sex ratios found. 3) To
60 investigate any possible relationship between population density and sex ratio. 4) To document, via
61 spermatophore count per female, potentially different rates of mating between hybrids and pure-bred individuals

62 in the hybrid population. 5) Finally, to examine whether sexual selection or mate choice (assortative, random or
63 disassortative) within the hybrid zone affects sex ratio.

64 Here, in a cytogenetic analysis using fluorescent *in situ* hybridisation (FISH) to visualise telomeres, we show
65 that in *chrysippus* females the W chromosome is fused to an autosome and forms a trivalent with the Z
66 chromosome and the autosome in meiosis, whereas in *dorippus* females W/Z and autosomes pair independently,
67 as do Z and autosomes in all males. We also show that in a female-dominated hybrid zone site at Kitengela
68 (figure S1) immigrant *dorippus* males are relatively immune to male-killing and that nearly all females are
69 inseminated despite outnumbering males by around 5:1. Paradoxically, the female-biased hybrid population is an
70 evolutionary stable strategy (or ESS) which can withstand perturbations induced by weather, population density
71 or immigration and reinforces a barrier to gene flow between two nascent species that has endured for at least 40
72 years around Nairobi [2-3]. The extraordinary effectiveness of this barrier is demonstrated by field data,
73 presented here, that shows a rapid return to the prevailing female biased sex ratios after a seasonal influx of
74 males that are *Spiroplasma*-infected but resistant to male-killing.

75

76 2. MATERIAL AND METHODS

77 (a) Cytogenetics

78 Male metaphase I and II cells were obtained from testis cysts of pupae and last-instar larvae, female pachytene
79 cells from the tips of ovarioles of adult females. Fixation in Carnoy's fluid (ethanol:chloroform:acetic acid,
80 6:3:1) was followed by spreading in 60% acetic acid and staining with 4'-diamidino-2-phenylindole (DAPI).
81 Female metaphase I was prepared from mature eggs by fixation in Carnoy's fluid, squashing in 60% acetic acid,
82 freezing in liquid N₂, flipping off the coverslip with a scalpel ('dry ice method'), post-fixation in ethanol and
83 staining with DAPI. Telomeres were visualised by FISH with a (TTAGG)_n probe generated by substrate-free
84 PCR (primers: TAGGTTAGGTTAGGTTAGGT and CTAACCTAACCTAACCTAAC) and labelled with Orange-
85 dUTP.

86

87 (b) *Spiroplasma* screening

88 DNA from *D. chrysippus* was extracted from a 2 mm² piece of thorax tissue using the Puragene DNA
89 purification kit (Quiagen, Valencia, CA). DNA was extracted using three times the suggested volume for a single
90 *Drosophila* and then hydrated in 70 µL ddH₂O. Previously described *ixodetus*-clade specific primers (Spixof

91 and Spixor) and PCR cycling conditions [15] were used to amplify an 810 bp region of *Spiroplasma* 16S rDNA
92 to confirm the presence of *Spiroplasma*. As a positive control for DNA quality, a region of host mitochondrial
93 DNA (mtDNA) was amplified using primers LCO1490 and HCO2198 [16].

94

95 (c) *Field sampling*

96 The new field data from Kitengela comprise samples of flying adult butterflies collected by net in 19 two hour
97 sessions from May 2013 to September 2015 (Table S2). As most butterflies seen were caught, the samples are \pm
98 random. All butterflies were date marked and released at the point of capture. Mated pairs were recorded. 260
99 wild females of random genotype were dissected to count spermatophores.

100

101 3. RESULTS

102 (a) *Cytogenetics*

103 Previous cross-breeding has suggested that the autosome carrying the *C* locus may have become linked to the
104 female-specific W (and not the Z) chromosome via a previously undocumented fusion [11-12, Table S1]. To test
105 this hypothesis we examined the cytogenetics of butterflies of known descent for colour pattern from within the
106 Nairobi hybrid zone. We found that the diploid chromosome complement in F_1 *transiens* (*Cc*) females from
107 Nairobi contains a novel fusion chromosome (a neo-W): 28 bivalents and a trivalent are present in female
108 meiosis ($2n = 59$), whereas in meiosis of females from outside the hybrid zone 30 bivalents ($2n = 60$) are present
109 (figure 1*b, d*, Table S3). This confirms our earlier prediction and explains the strict sex-linkage found only in the
110 hybrid zone (figure 1*c, e*). As the neo-W pairs in meiosis I of oögenesis with Z and the *C* bearing autosome, the
111 former becomes Z_1 and the latter Z_2 in a W/Z_1Z_2 trivalent. All males from several sources had 30 bivalents ($2n =$
112 60), in agreement with older data [17, 18]. The data-set therefore directly supports our earlier hypothesis that an
113 autosome carrying the *C* locus has indeed become directly fused to the female-specific W-chromosome.

114

115 (b) *Spiroplasma screening*

116 In order to understand how infection with the male-killing *Spiroplasma* drives the female-biased sex ratios found
117 within the hybrid zone we typed 87 butterflies (72 females and 15 males) from the Kitengela field site for
118 *Spiroplasma* (Table S4). We paid particular attention to infection rates in the rarer males which appear after the
119 rains and then vanish from the population over time. The high infection rate in females (87.9%), equally across
120 all genotypes, is expected from the high rate of male-killing and is similar that observed in 2009-10 at Kasarani

121 [19] ($\chi^2_1 = 1.997$, $p = 0.158$). However, Kitengela male samples had the highest ever recorded infection rates
122 (66.7%) [cf. 8, 13, 14, 19] and significantly so ($\chi^2_1 = 23.356$, $p < 0.0001$) compared to the 2009-10 Kasarani
123 samples [19]. Comparing male infection rates for June (40.0%) and July (81.3%), the increase approaches
124 significance (Exact $p_{\text{(one-tailed)}} = 0.115$). The increasing frequency of *Spiroplasma*-infected but male-killer
125 resistant males is reflected in a significant change in sex ratio from 86.6% female in May, through 82.1% in
126 June down to 72.4% in July ($\chi^2_2 = 10.415$, $p = 0.005$) (Table S5). The infected males were found only when
127 butterflies were atypically abundant following heavy rainfall across the region. It is therefore clear that the high
128 frequency of infected males (which can only exist if they are resistant) at this time was unusual and most likely
129 the result of substantial immigration. Prior to this period, 91% ($n = 76$) of broods obtained from wild *Cc* males
130 mated to *cc* females (Table S1) had produced all-female progeny. Two months later (in September) all males
131 had vanished from the hybrid zone and the sample was once again 100% female (Table S5). The all-female
132 population was therefore restored and all males eliminated in as little as two butterfly generations. The summary
133 statistics of the *D. chrysippus* populations which have been sampled for *Spiroplasma* and/or the male-killing
134 phenotype, on the one hand, and hybridism on the other (Table S6) shows that the two phenomena are far from
135 independent ($\chi^2_1 = 22.562$, $p < 0.0001$). In conclusion, the high frequency of male-killing *Spiroplasma* and its
136 association with the neo-W fusion within the hybrid zone rapidly cleanses the population of males. Following an
137 unusual immigration of large numbers of males, they can be removed from the population within a staggering
138 two generations.

139

140 (c) **Field data**

141 To rule out the possibility of any association between sex ratio and population density, we estimated the density
142 of the Kitengela population on several occasions. Bailey Index estimates for population size [20] at the 5 ha site
143 varied between extremes of 27 ± 16.7 (5.4 per ha, 100.0% female) in October 2014 and 344 ± 229.5 (68.8 per ha,
144 86.6% female) in May 2015. Despite a ~13-fold difference in density, the sex ratio was unaffected (Exact $p =$
145 0.063). The Kitengela sex ratio data (Table S2) conform to the historical (1986-2010) norm for the region (figure
146 2Sb I-III). The mean sex ratio of 84.1% female (figure 2Sb, IV) – the highest recorded in the Nairobi region – is
147 nonetheless within the C_{95} limits for the regional mean (figure 2Sb, V).

148

149

150

151 *(d) Spermatophore counts*

152 To test if females of different colour morphs experienced different rates of mating success we counted the
153 number of the male-transferred spermatophores found per female. Spermatophores per female at Kitengela
154 (2013-14, $n = 260$) averaged 1.73 ± 1.24 (range 0-6) with only 19 (7.3%) unmated; thus all females are expected
155 eventually to mate. The sexual histories of Cc ($n = 227$) and cc females ($n = 23$) did not differ ($t_{258} = 0.073$, $p >$
156 0.99). The spermatophore count is significantly less than 3.50 ± 1.36 ($n = 20$) for a population in Ghana with a
157 sex ratio of 1:1 ($t_{278} = 6.126$, $p < 1.0 \times 10^{-4}$). In conclusion, overall spermatophore counts per female do not
158 differ between colour morphs within the hybrid zone.

159

160 *(d) Sexual selection*

161 Finally, we used a period of unusually high male frequency to study the potential effects of sexual selection and
162 to test if mating between colour morphs was assortative, random or disassortative. In May-July 2015 the
163 Kitengela population irrupted during heavy rains after a long period of drought. For the first time males were
164 relatively numerous, and male-female courtship and successful mating was observed in the field. We seized the
165 corresponding opportunity to study sexual selection (Table S7). The frequency of males caught *in copula* was
166 63.4% compared to 13.4% for females. In other words males were nearly five times more likely to mate. This
167 remarkable statistic attests to the unrelenting pressure to mate on males. Sexual selection for colour genotype
168 was not significant for either sex ($\chi^2_{1(\sigma)} = 0.191$, $p = 0.662$; $\chi^2_{1(\varphi)} = 2.071$, $p = 0.150$). However, with numbers
169 corrected for penetrance (Table S7), the majority of males *in copula* (57.7%) were CC , whereas among females
170 75.0% were Cc , 25% cc and 0% CC ; hence pairings were substantially disassortative for genotype. As mate
171 choice in polymorphic populations is normally assortative for colour pattern [21, 22], enforced disassortative
172 mating must invoke sexual conflict [23-25]. Matrilineal descent of neo-W, combined with male-killing, would
173 ensure that the progenies from such disparate pairings are overwhelmingly females of genotype $\bar{W}c/Z,C$ (Table
174 S1) [3-4].

175

176 **DISCUSSION**

177 This paper shows for the first time that a neo-W chromosome, a W-autosome fusion, is indeed responsible for
178 the previously observed non-random segregation of colour pattern and sex and that it promotes the genetic
179 separation of two incipient butterfly species across a hybrid zone, as will be shown below. The data on morph

180 frequencies and mated pairs also confirm for the first time that mating is disassortative within this hybrid zone
181 despite being assortative outside it [21, 22]. This paradoxical situation is entirely due to the restricted mate
182 choice that results from male killing and the neo-W fusion. At this stage we are uncertain as to exactly which
183 autosome is fused to the female-specific W chromosome. However what is clear is that this autosome carries loci
184 controlling both colour pattern (the *C* locus) and susceptibility to the male-killing *Spiroplasma*. The high
185 frequency of the neo-W fusion in the Kitengela population ensures that butterflies within the hybrid zone are
186 predominantly female and that the sex ratio is stable despite seasonal influxes of *Spiroplasma*-infected but male-
187 killer resistant males. If these males carry a Z-linked suppressor gene, as seems likely, the suppressor would be
188 lost in dead male offspring, thus protecting the female-biased sex ratio.

189 Remarkably, all females obtain at least one mating although their spermatophore count is significantly less
190 than in a population with a 1:1 sex ratio. Thus, females in populations susceptible to male-killing receive fewer
191 (and possibly smaller) spermatophores from their hard-pressed male partners. As spermatophores contain
192 nutrients and defensive pyrrolizidine alkaloids in addition to sperm [26], hybrid zone females are inevitably
193 disadvantaged. Moreover, as females outnumber males ~5:1, to achieve 1.7 pairings per female (as found at
194 Kitengela) each male must mate an astonishing 8.5 times. Males will quickly be seduced by females, become
195 entrapped and eventually exhausted [27]. As all are expected to mate many times, sexual selection on males is
196 relaxed but their life expectancy must be curtailed. Furthermore, the paucity of males reduces effective
197 population size (N_e) by $\pm 50\%$ and severe inbreeding is the likely outcome from an average of 4.3 females
198 sharing each male partner.

199 In figure S2 we show the karyotypes that result after a founding cross between unfused *D. c. dorippus* males
200 with 30 bivalents and *D. c. chrysippus* females with 28 bivalents and a W/Z₁Z₂ trivalent. The array is
201 comprehensive for a hybrid population after the first two rounds of mating. Most of the rare recombinants are
202 heterozygotes for either *C* bearing autosomes, sex chromosomes or both, and arguably unfit. However,
203 karyotype J with an unfused W chromosome is probably the standard karyotype in *chrysippus* populations
204 outside the hybrid zone, which, in the absence of the neo-W and associated male-killing, should be subject to
205 Fisherian selection for a balanced sex ratio [28]. The shuffling of chromosomes in females that produces
206 karyotype J suggests that once free from the hybrid zone, *chrysippus* populations could quickly revert to 1:1 sex
207 ratios.

208 The neo-W fusion is apparently able to avoid suppression and ensures that male immigration does not reduce
209 the high frequencies of females, except in the very short term; in effect the neo-W fusion imposes an ESS on the

210 Kitengela population. The influx of *dorippus* males in July 2015 reduced the sex ratio only for the duration of
211 their life span ($\chi^2_1 = 4.083$, $p = 0.043$) and by September 2015 the female-biased ESS had been regained within
212 just two generations ($\chi^2_1 = 13.203$; $p = 0.0002$) (Table S5). Given the great selective advantage gained by male-
213 killing suppressor genes [29] this is an extraordinary result and is most easily explained if these genes are carried
214 on the Z_2 chromosome ($\sim C$ -autosome) introduced by the immigrant males. This chromosome will be
215 automatically eliminated in dead males within two generations, exactly as observed. Immigration by outside
216 females does, however, have the potential to disrupt the ESS as it will always change the W_u : neo-W ratio (figure
217 2, figure S2b). Ratios in the range 1:2 to 3:1 contain a transition point between two adaptive peaks wherein the
218 sex ratio switches rapidly from near normal to 80% female. When the neo-W is less common (30% or lower), the
219 sex ratio remains relatively normal despite the presence of male killing, and in practice (particularly in samples
220 of active adults) will show no significant departures from 1:1. At Kitengela, the high frequency of the neo-W
221 maintains sex ratios well above the tipping point and, even when males were most abundant in July 2015, adult
222 female frequencies were never less than 70%. Moreover, all founding W_u : neo-W ratios in the range 1:1 to 1:4
223 fall inside C_{95} of the empirical mean for the Nairobi area (figure S2b, V), confirming the ESS status of the
224 Kitengela sex ratios.

225 Within the hybrid mosaic the neo-W and the male-killing phenotype are probably obligatorily linked as
226 neither has ever been observed in the known absence of the other [11, 12]. We speculate that the effect of the
227 neo-W associated phenotypes is the erection of a genetic ‘firewall’ which diverts both *chrysippus* and *dorippus*
228 male genomes into a ‘black hole’, thus erasing their Z chromosomes and C bearing autosomes; these are
229 precisely the expected locations of ‘speciation’ genes [30-33] that would damage fitness in alien gene pools. The
230 effectiveness of this firewall is dramatically illustrated by the rapid return to all-female sex ratios observed at
231 Kitengela in September after the introduction of male-killer suppressors in May-July 2015.

232 Finally, infected male hosts (Table S4) are the hallmark of suppression of the male-killer phenotype
233 [29]. If those *Spiroplasma*-infected males which survive infection mate with uninfected females, CC (*dorippus*)
234 or cc (*chrysippus*), cytoplasmic incompatibility could cause their progeny to die during embryogenesis [34]. This
235 could explain why female CC and cc genotypes, unlike their male homologues, are otherwise invariably and
236 inexplicably rare at Kitengela (Table S2). We hope to test this hypothesis but suitable material has so far been
237 elusive. A Red Queen scenario is predictable [35, 36], the protagonists being the neo-W chromosome and a
238 suppressor of male-killing gene [4].

239 Our results are striking for several reasons. First, they break Haldane's rule [37] which states: 'When in the
240 offspring of two animal races one sex is absent, rare or sterile, that sex is the heterozygous [heterogametic] one.'
241 Haldane's rule does not apply here because in *D. chrysippus* it is the *homogametic* males that die in the hybrid
242 zone. Second, albeit via a different mechanism, the evolutionary outcome is similar to other animal hybrid zones
243 between incipient species such as stickleback fish [38], *Drosophila* or *Anopheles* [39], *Podisma* grasshoppers
244 [40], where gene flow is obstructed by hybrid male sterility, or in *Heliconius* butterflies by hybrid female sterility
245 [41]. Third, unlike all the foregoing, the *D. chrysippus* genetic 'firewall' comprises susceptibility to male-killing
246 and a neo-W conserved by linkage in heterogametic females. The neoW of the African Queen is therefore a
247 reinforcement mechanism of a type not previously in speciation.

248 Finally, while we have yet to probe the molecular basis of this story, we note some striking parallels with
249 other butterflies and moths in which micro-organisms affect sex ratios. The most notable being *Eurema*
250 butterflies carrying feminising *Wolbachia* (*wFem*) which lack W chromatin and therefore appear to have actually
251 lost their W chromosome [42]. At this stage we cannot tell if the African Queen is also on the way to losing its
252 W chromosome but we do know that the neoW now also controls colour pattern conferred by the C bearing
253 autosome that is now fused to the W chromosome. Whilst we can only guess as to the genetic nature of the C
254 locus we note that *doublesex* has recently been shown to control not only colour polymorphism in another
255 butterfly, *Papilio polytes* [43, 44], but can also change the penetrance of male-killing via manipulation of
256 alternative splicing within the gene itself [45]. We will therefore now test if *dsx* is indeed carried on the
257 autosome now fused to the W chromosome in the neoW or if some other colour pattern gene is encoded by the C
258 locus. Taken together, our data support a hypothesis that two sexually antagonistic traits have been translocated
259 to the newly formed female specific neo-W chromosome of this butterfly and are now driving its speciation
260 around Nairobi. In closing, however, we also note that any local advantage enjoyed by the neo-W may be
261 transitory and gradually erode as Muller's ratchet may well ensure the pervasive loss of autosomal genes and
262 cause rapid subsequent degeneration of the neo-W chromosome [46-48].

263

264 AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

265 D.A.S.S., I.J.G. and R.ff.-C. conceived the project and wrote the first and second drafts of the paper. I.J.G., S.C.
266 and K.S. oversaw the breeding. I.J.G., D.A.S.S., K.S. and D.J.M. planned and supervised the field work. W.T.
267 performed the cytogenetic investigations, J.H. scanned for *Spiroplasma*, and P.I. counted spermatophores. All
268 authors contributed to further revisions of the manuscript.

269

270 **ACKNOWLEDGMENTS**

271 Matt McClements (Blink Studios Ltd) designed the figures, Bernard Rono assisted with field work and Samuel
272 Katoï provided specimens from Watamu. Field work at Silole Sanctuary (Kitengela) was sanctioned by Nani
273 Croze, Eric Krystall, John Keen and Mark van Rampelberg. Simon Martin scrutinized the first draft of the MS
274 and made valuable suggestions for its improvement. *Spiroplasma* screening was carried out at *icipe*. D.A.S.S.
275 thanks the Linnean Society of London and the Outreach Fund of the Royal Entomological Society of London for
276 funding. Research Clearance Permits NACOSTI/P15/3290/3607 to D.A.S.S. and NACOSTI/P15/2403/3602 to
277 W.T., were issued by the National Commission for Science and Technology, Nairobi. I.J.G., D.A.S.S., W.T. and
278 K.S. are Research Affiliates of the National Museums of Kenya.

279

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Figure legends

389

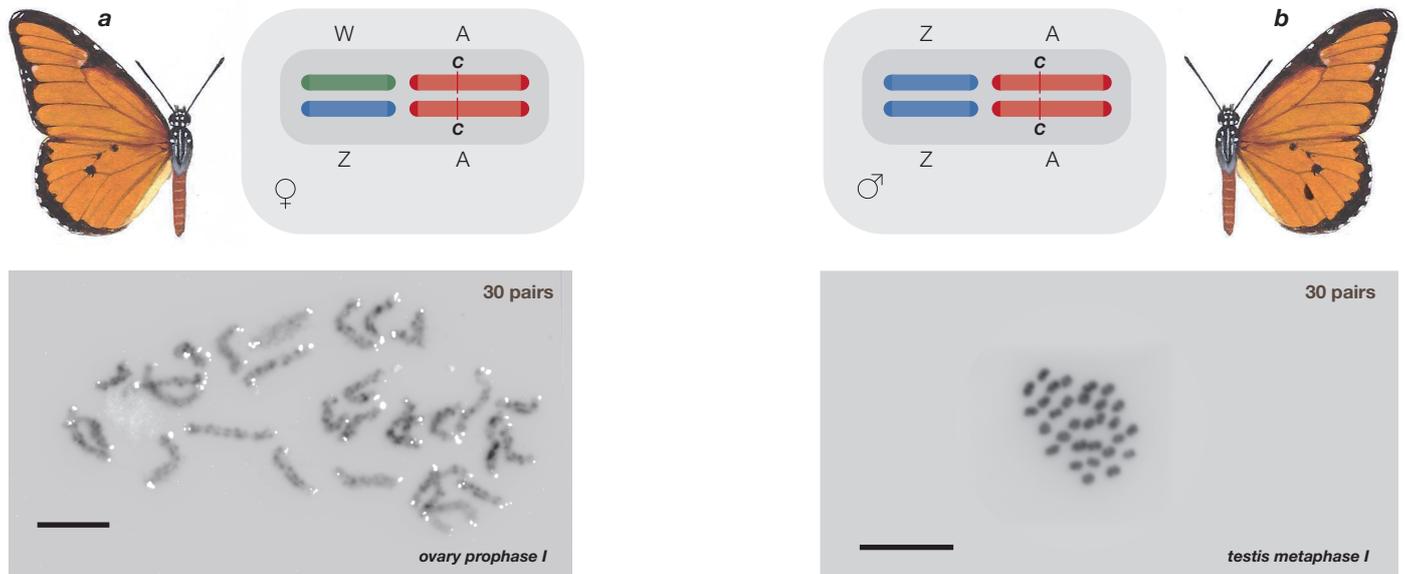
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391 Figure 1. Colour phenotypes, genotypes and karyotypes of subspecies *D. c. chrysippus* (*cc*), *D. c. dorippus* (*CC*)
 392 and the hybrid form *transiens* (*Cc*) in the Nairobi region. *a-d*. Meiosis prophase I pachytene chromosome pairs
 393 from female ovaries (*a, c*) and metaphase I pairs from male testes (*b, d*): *Danaus chrysippus dorippus*, *a* female,
 394 *b* male, 30 bivalents ($2n = 60$) in both sexes; *D. c. chrysippus*, *c* female, 28 bivalents, 1 trivalent ($2n = 59$); *d*
 395 male, ($2n = 60$) as *b*; the white dots in the female micrographs *a* and *c* are telomere signals. Scale bars represent
 396 10 μm . *e-f*. F₁ progeny, female (*e*) and male (*f*) from a cross between a *Spiroplasma*-positive *D. c. chrysippus*
 397 female (*c*) and a *Spiroplasma*-negative *D. c. dorippus* male (*d*). The provenance of chromosomes is shown as
 398 red, *dorippus* C-autosome; pink, *chrysippus* c-autosome; dark blue, *dorippus* Z chromosome; light blue,
 399 *chrysippus* Z chromosome; green, W chromosome unfused; yellow, W chromosome fused. Wild type bivalents
 400 (in *a, b, d*) comprise, respectively, two sex chromosomes (Z/Z or Z/W) with two autosomes carrying the C locus,
 401 whereas the $\overline{Wc}/Z,c$ trivalent is found only in the mutant females *c* and *e*. Chromosomes in square brackets in
 402 females *c, e* and male *f* are lost in successive generations of dead sons (marked with a cross in *f*). A few *f* males
 403 escape death by either immunity (suppression of male-killing) or failed transmission of *Spiroplasma* [13]; most
 404 male survivors have the *transiens* (*Cc*) phenotype detectable by the white spots (arrowed in *e-f*) on the underside
 405 and/or scattered black scales on the upper side of the forewing apex.

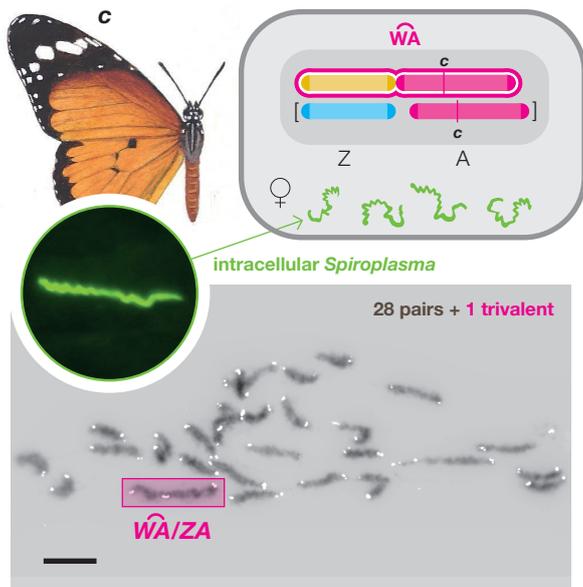
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407 Figure 2. Graph showing the predicted frequency of females (*y*) in a hybrid population of *D. chrysippus* in the
 408 Nairobi district of Kenya as a function of the ratio W_u : neo-W (*x*) in the founder females, where $y = (a + b)/(2a +$
 409 $b)$, and $a = fW_u$ (range 10-1), $b = f_{\text{neo-W}}$ (range 1-10). The model assumes neutrality and absence of migration
 410 by females (but not by males).

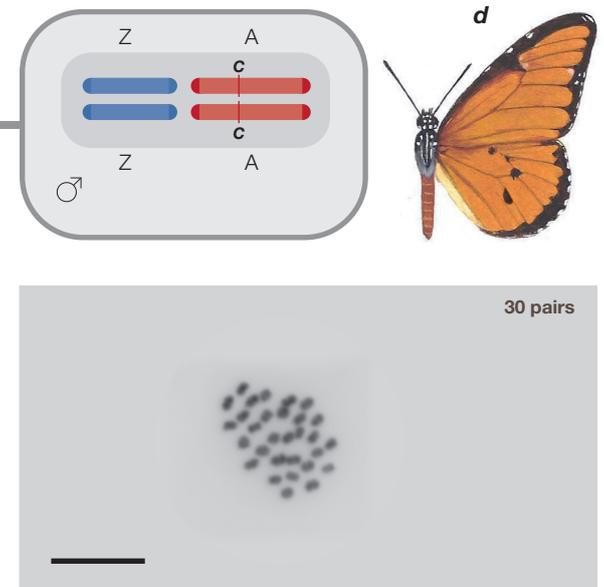
Danaus chrysippus dorippus (wild type)



Danaus chrysippus chrysippus ♀ (neoW-BC autosome fusion type)



Danaus chrysippus dorippus ♂



Danaus chrysippus transiens F1 from the cross S+ *D. c. chrysippus* ♀ × S- *D. c. dorippus* ♂

