Repeated origin of the W chromosome from the Z chromosome in Lepidoptera

Wenting Dai[1], Judith E. Mank[2], Liping Ban[1, *]

[1] Department of Grassland Resources and Ecology, College of Grassland Science and

Technology, China Agricultural University, Beijing, China

[2] Department of Zoology and Biodiversity Research Centre, University of British

Columbia, Vancouver, Canada

[*] To whom correspondence should be addressed: liping_ban@163.com (LB).

Abstract

We built a chromosome-level genome assembly of the Asian corn borer, *Ostrinia*

furnacalis Guenée (Lepidoptera: Pyralidae, Pyraloidea), an economically important

pest in corn, from a female, including both the Z and W chromosome. Despite deep

conservation of the Z chromosome across Lepidoptera, our chromosome-level W

assembly reveals this chromosome has recently derived from the *O. furnicalis* Z

chromosome. We also recover evidence for convergent formation of the W in two

other related families, all independently derived from the Z chromosome. Despite its

recent origin, the W chromosome has accumulated significant repetitive elements and

experienced rapid pseudogenization, illustrating that degeneration can occur rapidly

following recombination suppression. Our results, taken together, reveal remarkable

dynamics for the sex chromosomes in this otherwise highly-conserved clade.

Introduction

The Asian corn borer *Ostrinia furnacalis* Guenée (Lepidoptera: Pyralidae, Pyraloidea), is a major insect pest of corn, widespread in the Asian-Western Pacific region. Like other Lepidoptera insects, it has a female heterogametic sex chromosome system, with ZW females and ZZ males[1,2]. The conservation of the Z chromosome has been well established in Lepidoptera[3], however, the W chromosome in Lepidoptera is unusual in that it was recruited into the genome well after the Z chromosome[4], as the basal lineages in the clade are Z0/ZZ. Available evidence suggests that, at least in some lineages, the W chromosome bears no homology to the Z[3,5,6], and may actually have originated from a B chromosome[3]. Within the Lepidoptera, at the base of the Ditrysia group, complex sex chromosomes, including neo-W chromosomes are observed in many clades based on cytogenetic analysis[4]. However, a detailed genomic understanding of origin and evolution of the Lepidopteran W chromosome, has remained elusive due to the difficulties of assembling sex-limited chromosomes.

Recently, third-generation sequencing advances have permitted partial or chromosome-level assemblies of the W chromosome in a limited number of Lepidoptera, including *Cydia pomonella* (Torticidae, Tortricoideae)[6], *Cnaphalocrocis medinalis*[7] (Crambidae, Pyraloidea), *Spodoptera exigua*[8], *Spodoptera frugiperda*[9] (Noctuidea, Noctuoidea), *Trichoplusia ni*[10] (Noctuidae, Noctuoidea) and *Dryas iulia*[5] (Nymphalidae, Papilionoidea). This work has revealed no detectible homology between the Z and W in *C. pomonella*[6], *T. ni*[11] and *D. iulia*[5]. All this is consistent with a non-canonical origin of the W chromosome in Lepidoptera, where the W has been recruited from a B chromosome and it therefore not homologous to the deeply conserved corresponding Z chromosome.

Consistent with the cytogenetic evidence within the Ditrysia of highly variable W chromosome karyotype morphologies[4,12], substantial synteny between the W chromosomes of *S. exigua* and *C. medinalis*[7] clades has been noted[12]. Whether these nascent W chromosomes share a common origin from the Z chromosome, is not known. To answer questions about the conservation of the W, as well as the Z

chromosome, we built a chromosome-level genome of *O. furnacalis* though the combination of PacBio HiFi (CCS) sequencing and Hi-C. We couple this with extensive RNA-Seq analysis of multiple developmental stages and tissues in both sexes to reveal that although the Z chromosome of the species shares a highly conserved synteny with the Z in other Lepidopterans, the W has formed recurrently across the lineage from the Z chromosome, most notably in the recent ancestor of *O. furnicalis*. Despite this recent origin, the *O. furnicalis* W has accumulated significant repetitive elements and pseudogenes, suggesting that degeneration of the sex-limited chromosome can occur rapidly following recombination suppression.

Methods

Samples

O. furnacalis larvae were collected from a corn field at Beijing, China, in July 2020, and fed with an artificial diet in the laboratory of China Agricultural University. The incubator environment was set at 26 ± 1℃ and 50 ± 5% relative humidity on a photoperiod (Light: Dark = 16:8).

Genome sequencing and assembly

Genomic DNA was extracted from a female laboratory-fed pupa with the SDS method. From this single individual, we obtained 32.96 Gb circular consensus sequencing (CCS) data from one cell of the PacBio Sequel II platform at Biomarker Co., Ltd., Qingdao, China (Table S1). High accuracy PacBio Hifi data were assembled using hifiasm (v0.12) software to obtain a draft genome[13]. We used purge_haplotigs[14] to remove redundant contigs and generate a non-redundant assembled genome.

Hi-C scaffolding

We constructed Hi-C libraries (300-700 bp insert size), following Rao et al.[15], and sequenced them with pair-end 150 Illumina Hiseq at Biomarker Co., Ltd., Qingdao, China. 53.05Gb of clean data were produced after filtering adapter sequences, primer

sequences and low-quality data (Table S2). The resulting trimmed reads were aligned

to the draft assembly with BWA (v0.7.10-r789), retaining only uniquely aligned read

pairs with mapping quality >20 for further analysis. Invalid read pairs, including

dangling-end, self-cycle, re-ligation and dumped products, were removed by HiC-Pro

(v2.8.1)[16].

The 56.25% of unique mapped read pairs represent valid interaction pairs and were

used for correction, clustering, ordering and orientation of scaffolds into

chromosomes with LACHESIS[17]. Before chromosome assembly, we performed a

preassembly for error correction of contigs which required the splitting of contigs into

segments of 50kb on average. Then Hi-C data were mapped to these segments using

BWA (v0.7.10-r789). The uniquely mapped data were retained for the assembly, and

any two segments which showed inconsistent connection with information from the

raw scaffolds were checked manually. Parameters for running LACHESIS included:

CLUSTER_MIN_RE_SITES = 27; CLUSTER_MAX_LINK_DENSITY = 2;

ORDER_MIN_N_RES_IN_TRUNK = 15; ORDER_MIN_N_RES_IN_SHREDS = 15. After this

step, placement and orientation errors exhibiting obvious discrete chromatin

interaction patterns were manually adjusted. Finally, we constructed a heatmap based

on the interaction signals of valid mapped read pairs between chromosomes.

Genome annotation

Transposable elements (TEs) were identified by a combination of homology-based and

de novo approaches. We first carried out a de novo repeat prediction using

RepeatModeler2 (v2.0.1)[18], which implements RECON (v1.0.8)[19] and RepeatScout

(v1.0.6)[20]. Then the predicted results were classified using RepeatClassifier[18] by means

of repbase (v19.06)[21], REXdb (v3.0)[22] and Dfam (v3.2)[23]. Secondly, we performed a de

novo prediction for long terminal repeats (LTRs) using LTR_retriever (v2.8)[24] via

LTRharvest (v1.5.9)[25] and LTR_finder (v2.8)[26]. A non-redundant species-specific TE

library was constructed by combining the de novo TE library above with the known

databases. Final TE sequences in the *O. furnacalis* genome were identified and

classified by homology search against the library using RepeatMasker (v4.10)[27].

Tandem repeats were annotated by Tandem Repeats Finder (TRF v409)[28] and

MIcroSAtellite identification tool (MISA v2.1)[29].

We integrated de novo prediction, homology search, and transcript-based assembly to

annotate protein-coding genes. The de novo gene models were predicted using

Augustus (v2.4)[30] and SNAP (2006-07-28)[31], both ab initio gene-prediction approaches.

For the homolog-based approach, we used GeMoMa (v1.7)[32] with reference gene

models from *Drosophila melanogaster*, *Bombyx mori*, *Chilo suppressalis* and *Galler*

mellonella. For the transcript-based prediction, RNA-sequencing data were mapped to

the reference genome using Hisat (v2.0.4)[33] and assembled with Stringtie (v1.2.3)[34].

GeneMarkS-T (v5.1)[35] was used to predict genes based on the assembled transcripts.

PASA (v2.0.2)[36] was used to predict genes based on the unigenes assembled by Trinity

(v2.11)[37]. Gene models from these different approaches were combined with EVM

(v1.1.1)[38] and updated by PASA (v2.0.2)[36]. The final gene models were annotated by

searching the GenBank Non-Redundant (NR, 20200921), TrEMBL (202005), Pfam

(v33.1)[39], SwissProt (202005)[40], eukaryotic orthologous groups (KOG, 20110125), gene

ontology (GO, 20200615) and Kyoto Encyclopedia of Genes and Genomes (KEGG,

20191220) databases.

We used tRNAscan-SE (v1.3.1)[41] with default parameters to identify transfer RNAs

(tRNAs), and barrnap (v0.9) with default parameters to identify the ribosomal RNAs

(rRNAs) based on Rfam (v12.0)[42]. miRNAs were identified with miRbase[43]. Small

nucleolar RNA (snoRNAs) and small nuclear RNA (snRNAs) were identified with

Infernal (v1.1.1)[44], using the Rfam (v12.0) database[42].

Pseudogenes have similar sequences to functional genes, but may have lost their

biological function because of mutations, such as indels. GenBlastA (v1.0.4)[45] was used

to scan the whole genome after masking predicted functional genes. Putative

candidates were then analyzed by searching for non-mature mutations and frame-shift

mutations using GeneWise (v2.4.1)[46].

Comparative genomics and phylogenetic reconstruction

Protein sequence alignments between *O. furnacalis* and seven other Lepidopteran species (*Bombyx mori, Chilo suppressalis, Cydia pomonella, Cnaphalocrocis medinalis, Spodoptera exigua, Spodoptera fugiperda,* and *Trichoplusia ni*) were performed with diamond (-e<1e-5), then alignment results were analyzed and the homologous chromosomal regions were identified with MCScanX (MATCH_SCORE: 50, MATCH_SIZE: 5, GAP_PENALTY: -1, OVERLAP_WINDOW: 5, E_VALUE: 1e-05, MAX GAPS: 15). The synteny relationships among chromosomes were displayed using circos (v0.69–9).

We used the protein sequences of *Ostrinia furnacalis and* ten other insect species (*Spodoptera frugiperda, Spodoptera litura, Bombyx mori, Chilo suppressalis, Danaus plexippus, Melitaea cinxia, Papilio Xuthus, Cydia pomonella*, *Plutella xylostella* and *Drosophila melanogaster*) for phylogenetic analysis, keeping only the longest transcript of each gene for analysis, and using OrthoFinder (v2.5.4)[47] with default settings to identify orthologues and homologues. To infer the phylogeny of these insects, multiple sequence alignments of single-copy orthologs were performed using MAFFT (v7.471)[48]. Then we extracted conserved sequences with gblocks (v0.91b)[49] and concatenated them to a single sequence alignment. The resulting sequence alignment was used to construct a maximum likelihood phylogenetic tree using IQ-TREE (v1.6.12)[50] (outgroup: *Drosophila melanogaster*). Divergence times between various species were estimated by MCMCtree in PAML (v4.9j)[51]. Three standard divergence time points from the TimeTree database (http://timetree.org/) were used for calibration: *Spodoptera frugiper* - Spodoptera *litura*, 100-122 million years ago (Mya), *Danaus plexippus - Melitaea cinxia*, 76-102 Mya, (*Danaus plexippus*, *Melitaea cinxia*) - *Papilio xuthus*, 76-146 Mya. The tree was visualized using FigTree (v1.4) (http://tree.bio.ed.ac.uk/software/figtree/).

Detection of sex chromosomes

In order to identify the sex chromosomes, we performed genome resequencing with five female and male pupae. High-quality clean data (24.95-28.80-fold coverage of the

genome) were obtained through the pair-end 150 Illumina Hiseq platform at Biomarker Co., Ltd., Qingdao, China (Table S3). The clean data were aligned to reference genome with Bwa-men (v0.7.17). We compared the coverage differences between male and female samples[52] to distinguish the Z, W and autosomes. Specifically, we used the genomecov and groupby in Bedtools (v2.30.0) to obtain a per-base median coverage depth for each chromosome and normalized them by the mean of all chromosome median coverages for each sample. Normalized coverage depth was averaged by sex to produce a coverage depth per chromosome for each sex. Then we compared coverage depth between sexes for each chromosome and calculated $\log_2$ male:female (M:F) coverage ratio [$\log_2$(M:F coverage)]. Autosomes have an equal coverage between sexes [$\log_2$ (M:F coverage) = 0], while the Z chromosome should show approximately two-fold greater coverage in the males [$\log_2$(M:F coverage) = 1]. The W chromosome should show a strong female-biased coverage pattern. We also calculated the M:F median coverage ratio along each chromosome with nonoverlapping 1000 bp windows.

Z-W synteny and phylogenetic analysis

Genome DNA sequences of Z and W are aligned using MUMmer (v4.0.0rc1)[53] (nucmer –mum), keeping only homologous DNA sequences >2000bp (delta-filter -1 -l 2000 -o 0). The results of sequence alignments are used to display the Z-W synteny with RectChr (v1.34) (https://github.com/BGI-shenzhen/RectChr).

Predicted protein sequences were used to detect reciprocal best hits between Z- and W-linked genes using getRBH.pl, for *O. furnacalis*, *C. pomonella*, *C. medinalis*, *S. exigua* and *S. fugiperda*, which were considered as Z-W gametologs for each species. The same method was used to identify the Z-Z orthologs between *O. furnacalis* and the other four Lepidopteran species. Based on Z-Z homology among species, we gained 10 groups of orthologous Z-W gametologs, the coding sequence of which was used for constructing maximum-likelihood gene trees. Specifically, for each group of Z-W gametologs, multiple coding sequences from different insect species were aligned using MAFFT (v7.471)[48]. Conserved sequences were then extracted with gblocks

(v0.91b)[49] and used to construct a maximum likelihood phylogenetic tree using IQ-

TREE (v1.6.12)[50] , with Z chromosome outgroups *D. plexippus, B. mori or T. ni*.

Results

Chromosome-level genome assembly of the Asian Corn Borer

Our chromosome assembly strategy employed PacBio HiFi (CCS) sequencing data to

assemble the draft genome and Hi–C data to detect chromosomal contact information.

These PacBio long-reads were self-corrected using Quiver and assembled into a draft

genome assembly with a total length of 493.10Mb, consisting of 57 contigs with an

N50 length of 15.69Mb (Table S4). The assembled genome size is similar to that

obtained from genome surveys (Supplementary Figure 1). Next, Hi–C linking

information further anchored, ordered, and oriented 46 contigs to 32 chromosomes

(30 autosomes, with Z and W sex chromosomes), which contained 86.79% of the

whole genome assembly (Table S4, Supplementary Figure 2). The chromosome-level

genome assembly was 492.57Mb with a scaffold N50 of 16.47Mb (Table S4).

We evaluated the completeness of *O. furnacalis* genome assembly with the Metazoan

Benchmark of Universal Single-Copy Orthologs (BUSCO v4) and CEGMA core genes

(CEGMA v2.5) datasets. Our assembly contained 97.69% of BUSCO genes, of which

97.06% were single copy and 0.63% were duplicates, and 96.07% of CEGMA genes, of

which 79.03% were highly conserved (Table S5). To further evaluate the genome

assembly quality, genomic DNA sequencing data from Illumina HiSeq were mapped to

the assembly scaffolds, with a 99.07% coverage rate (Table S5). Finally, Lepidopteran

genomes typically exhibit very high levels of synteny. Whole-genome alignment of the

O. furnacalis assembly to the chromosomes of the *Spodoptera litura* revealed that

chromosomal linkage and ordering of genes are highly conserved (Supplementary

Figure 3). All these analyses indicated that the genome assembly is both highly reliable

and complete for subsequent analyses.

Genome annotation

In total, 860,391 repeat sequences spanning 204.4Mb were identified, constituting

41.45% of the *O. furnacalis* genome (Table S4, Figure 1a). We integrated the result of *ab initio*, homology-based and RNA-seq methods to annotate protein-coding genes, most of the which came from homology-based and RNA-seq methods, indicating the high-quality of annotation (Supplementary Figure 4). Finally, we obtained 16,509 protein coding genes in the *O. furnacalis* genome, which has similar gene features to other Lepidopteran genomes (gene length, gene number, coding length, intron length of each gene, exon length) (Supplementary Figure 4). Next, we identified different types of noncoding RNAs (ncRNAs), including 7,710 transfer RNAs (tRNA), 73 ribosomal RNAs (rRNA), and 39 microRNAs (miRNA) (Table S6). In addition, we annotated 171 pseudogenes in the *O. furnacalis* genome, most of which were located in the chromosome LG3 (Figure 1c, Table S6), the W chromosome (see below). We performed a functional annotation for all predicted protein coding genes using NCBI nonredundant, EggNOG, GO, KEGG, SWISS-PROT and Pfam databases, with 98.21% of our predicted genes assigned to at least one of these databases (Table S6).

Fig 1. Genomic characterization of *Ostrinia furnacalis*. a. Circular diagram depicting the genomic landscape of the 32 chromosomes (Chr1–Chr32 on a Mb scale). The denotation of each track is listed in the center of the circle. Blue lines in LG3 (the W chromosome) represent collinearity within the W, due to repeat elements. b. Number and distribution of protein-coding genes. c. Number and distribution of pseudogenes. d. Number of genes with FPKM > 0.5. e. Average chromosomal expression level.

We used OrthoFinder to find orthologous genes among *O. furnacalis* and 10 other insect species (see methods). A total of 16231 orthologous groups with 1163 single-copy orthologous genes were identified. We inferred a phylogenic tree and divergence time estimate using the end-to-end concatenated amino acid sequences of 1163 single-copy orthologous genes. The Crambidae lineage to which *O. furnacalis* belongs was estimated to diverge from Obtectomeran Lepidoptera approximately 77.3 Mya ago (Figure 2a).

Fig 2. a. Phylogenetic tree and gene orthology of *O. furnacalis* with nine Lepidopteran genomes and *D. melanogaster*. Comparative analysis of synteny between *O. furnacalis* and **b.** *Chilo suppressalis*, **c.** *Bombyx mori*, **d.** *Cnaphalocrocis medinalis*, **e.** *Cydia pomonella,* **f.** *Spodoptera exigua*, **g.** *Spodoptera fugiperda*, and **h.** *Trichoplusia ni*. The chromosomes of *O. furnacalis* are shown in the left, and the other insects' chromosomes are shown in the right. The *O. furnacalis* W chromosome is LG3, and the Z is LG1 (b-h).

Synteny, karyotype evolution, and sex chromosomes

We compared the syntenic relationships between *O. furnacalis* and other Lepidopterans*,* including *Bombyx mori, Chilo suppressalis, Cnaphalocrocis medinalis, Spodoptera litura, Spodoptera exigua, Spodoptera fugiperda, and Trichoplusia ni* (Fig 2b-h)*.* In general*,* the *O. furnacalis* genome shows a high level of synteny with other Lepidopteran genomes, though with some fusion and fission events. *O. furnacalis* LG1 is syntenic with the Z chromosome in all other species, suggesting it is the Z chromosome in *O. furnicalis* as well, and this is also evident from M:F coverage analysis (Figure 3a), which reveals two-fold greater coverage in males (ZZ) compared to females (ZW).

O. furnacalis LG3, the W chromosome, exhibits female-biased coverage consistent with a female-limited chromosome (Figure 3a). The M:F coverage is highly variable across chromosome LG3 compared to all other chromosomes (Figure 3b), due in large part to the abundance of TEs on this chromosome (Supplementary Figure 5, Supplementary Figure 6). The W chromosome (LG3) is the second largest chromosome (22.23 Mb) in our assembly (Figure 1a), with the largest number of predicted protein coding genes compared with other chromosomes (Figure 1b), a large proportion of which are pseudogenized (18.43%) (Figure 1c). Indeed, this chromosome contains 39.8% of all pseudogenes annotated in the genome. Consistent with high levels of pseudogenization, relatively few predicted W genes are expressed (Figure 1d) and those that are expressed show low levels of mRNA (Figure 1e).

Furthermore, LG3 has a notably greater repeat density and significantly different repeat composition compared to other chromosomes (Supplementary Figure 5, Supplementary Figure 6) with a larger proportion of satellites, DIRS, LINE, Copia and Gypsy, and an enrichment of *Maverick* elements.

Fig 3. Detection of sex chromosomes and ZW synteny. a. Male:female coverage ratios for each chromosome, plotted by chromosome length. Each point represents a single chromosome. The dashed gray line is the theoretical expectation for autosomes and the dashed red line shows the expectation for the Z chromosome. **b.** Male:female coverage ratios plotted in 500bp windows across scaffolds for Z, W, and a representative autosome (LG32). **c.** A synteny circular plots between the Z and W. From the outside to the center, (I) represents the Z and W chromosome of *Ostrinia furnacalis*, and the outermost scale line shows the physical position in chromosome (Mb), (II) depicts the gene content (0-12) in non-overlapping windows of 100 kb, and (III) indicates the repeat density (0-1) in non-overlapping windows of 100 kb. Links between genes were computed from the reciprocal best BLASTP hits and are color coded relative to the BLASTP alignment percent identity, with percent identity > 80% in blue and > 90% in red.

Z-W homology

Given that previous reports have found no evidence of homology between the Z and

W in some basal Lepidopteran species[5,6,11], we next investigated the relationship

between genes on the *O. furnacalis* Z and W chromosomes. Contrary to expectation,

we detected significant gene homology (Figure 3c) between the Z and W. Using our W

gene set, we further examined homology between the *O. furnacalis* W chromosome

and the W chromosome from other Lepidopterans. The *O. furnacalis* W shows

substantial homology with the W in *Cnaphalocrocis medinalis*, consistent with some

form of shared ancestry within the family Crambidae. However, we observed no

discernable homology between the *O. furnacalis* W and the W chromosome of any of

the more distantly related Lepidopterans that we queried (Fig 2 b-h).

We next investigated the phylogenetic relationships of these genes, as well as

homologs identified from related species (Fig 4). *O. furnicalis* Z-W orthologs

distributed across the entirely of the Z chromosome clustered most closely with the

corresponding W chromosome, consistent with a recent formation of the W from the

Z chromosome. Our gene trees suggest additional independent W chromosomes

originating from the Z chromosome in at least three families: Crambidae

(*Cnaphalocrocis*, Pyraloidea), Noctuidae (*Spodoptera*, Noctuloidea) and Pyralidae

(*Ostrinia*, Pyraloidea).

Fig 4. Maximum-likelihood gene trees for *O. furnacalis, S. exigua, S. frugiperda, C.*

pomonella and *C. medinalis* orthologous ZW gametologs (outgroup: *D. plexippus/B.mori/T. ni*), with physical position and synteny (in grey) between the Z and W chromosomes. Black lines represent position on Z and W chromosomes.

Discussion

Here we report a high quality, chromosome-level genome for *O. furnicalis*. Our reference genome includes a single, contiguous sequence for the female-specific W chromosome, allowing us to query the evolutionary history of W chromosome coding content as well as determine Z-W synteny. Our results are consistent with a recent and repeated origin of the neo-W chromosome from the Z in several distinct lineages.

Composition and transcription of the W chromosome

W and Y chromosomes are often enriched with repeat sequences[54,55], resulting in significantly higher repeat content compared to other chromosomes[6,7,55]. Consistent with this, we observe enrichment of repetitive elements on the W chromosome in *O. furnicalis* (Supplementary Figure 6), with the number of *Maverick* elements particularly higher on the W chromosome compared to the rest of the genome (Supplementary Figure 5). *Maverick*, also known as *Polinton*, is a DNA transposon widespread in eukaryotes[56], and one of the most striking characteristics of *Maverick* is the large size, typically 15–20 kb[56].

In addition, we found that the number of protein-coding genes of W chromosome is indeed the largest in the whole genome (Figure 1a). However, the transcription activity of W-linked genes is particularly low (Figure 1d), consistent with previous reports that the W is transcriptionally inactive in somatic tissues[2].

Conservation of sex chromosomes across Lepidoptera species

We searched orthologs to Z-linked genes of *O. furnacalis* in other Lepidopterans, and found that although the Z chromosome shows clear strong conservation[4], the *O. furnacalis* W chromosome is only conserved with *C. medinalis*, also a member of Crambidae. This is consistent with previous work suggesting that the composition of the W varies even among species with the same family[57].

Evolutionary history of the sex chromosomes in *O. furnacalis*

Karyotype work has revealed a complex history of the W chromosome, including the repeated origin of neo-W chromosomes in many Lepidopteran lineages[4,58-60]. The evolutionary history of the W chromosome in Lepidoptera differs from the canonical model of sex chromosome formation in that it was recruited, possibly from a B element, after the formation of the Z chromosome[4], at the common root of Ditrysia and Tischerioidea[2,61]. Lineages ancestral to this recruitment exhibit Z0:ZZ karyotypes[4]. The B-chromosome origin of the W is supported by the fact that in some basal lineages, W chromosome bears no homology to the Z[3,5,6].

Subsequent to this, neo-sex chromosomes have formed in several lineages within the Ditrysia[4], and the evolutionary history of these neo-sex chromosomes, as well as the W chromosome itself, remains unclear, with multiple plausible scenarios[59]. Although we cannot rule out that the Z-derived portion of the W chromosome in *O. furnicalis* represents neo-W chromosomes instead of turnovers, our assembly of the W chromosome reveals a single, contiguous molecule (Fig 4), which is not consistent with a physically separated neo-W that co-segregates with a persisting B chromosome. We also observe Z-W synteny across the entirety of the assembled *O. furnicalis* W chromosome (Figure 3c, Figure 4), which is not consistent with a neo-W. Regardless of whether it is a W or neo-W chromosome, our results indicate that peudogenization and repetitive elements accumulate on the W very quickly following recombination arrest.

Importantly, in Lepidopterans, recombination is confined to males[12], which means that any element that pairs with the Z chromosome in females during meiosis will remain female-limited in its transmission, and also completely cease to recombine. Our phylogenetic results (Figure 4) suggest that female-limited chromosomes have originated several times independently from the Z chromosome, occurring in at least the Crambidae (*Cnaphalocrocis*, Pyraloidea), Noctuidae (*Spodoptera*, Noctuloidea) and Pyralidae (*Ostrinia*, Pyraloidea).

The lack of recombination in females also means that any female-limited chromosome

will immediately experience the full degenerative effects of a non-recombining

region[62,63], and we do not expect strata of different ages. The rapid accumulation of

pseudogenes and repetitive elements on the W chromosome in *O. furnacalis* is

analogous to the rapid degeneration of neo-Y chromosomes in *Drosophila* species,

which experience male achiasmy[64]. Consistent with this, we observe high levels of

pseudogenization and repeat elements (Figure 1) on the W chromosome, despite its

recent origin.

In addition to female achiasmy, Lepidoptera exhibit a complex form of complete Z

chromosome dosage compensation[65,66], and recent theory has suggested that the

evolution of dosage compensation may facilitate the rapid degeneration of the sex-

limited chromosome[66]. This is consistent with recent reports of rapid degeneration of

Y chromosomes following the evolution of complete sex chromosome dosage

compensation[67,68], and the data may therefore suggest that the best predictor of the

degree of Y or W degeneration is the degree of dosage compensation for the X or Z.

Authors' contributions

LB conceived and designed the research, and wrote the manuscript. WD performed

the experiments, analyzed and interpreted the data, and wrote the manuscript. JM

analyzed the data and wrote the manuscript. All authors read and approved the final

manuscript.

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Competing interests

The authors declare that they have no competing interests.
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