

1 Restricted X chromosome introgression and support for Haldane's rule in hybridizing

2 damselflies

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4 Running head: Genomic introgression in *Ischnura* damselflies

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17

18 ABSTRACT

19 Contemporary hybrid zones act as natural laboratories for the investigation of species  
20 boundaries and allow to shed light on the little understood roles of sex chromosomes in  
21 species divergence. Sex chromosomes are considered to function as a hotspot of genetic  
22 divergence between species; indicated by less genomic introgression compared to autosomes  
23 during hybridisation. Moreover, they are thought to contribute to Haldane's rule which states  
24 that hybrids of the heterogametic sex are more likely to be inviable or sterile. To test these  
25 hypotheses, we used contemporary hybrid zones of *Ischnura elegans*, a damselfly species  
26 that has been expanding its range into the northern and western regions of Spain, leading to  
27 chronic hybridization with its sister species *Ischnura graellsii*. We analysed genome-wide  
28 SNPs in the Spanish *I. elegans* and *I. graellsii* hybrid zone and found (i) that the X  
29 chromosome shows less genomic introgression compared to autosomes and (ii) that males are  
30 underrepresented among admixed individuals as predicted by Haldane's rule. This is the first  
31 study in Odonata that suggests a role of the X chromosome in reproductive isolation.  
32 Moreover, our data adds to the few studies on species with XO sex determination system and  
33 contradicts the hypothesis that the absence of a Y chromosome causes exceptions to  
34 Haldane's rule.

35

36 KEYWORDS

37 Hybrid zone, sex chromosome, species divergence, Haldane's rule

38

39 INTRODUCTION

40 Since Darwin's theory of evolution (Darwin 1859) it has become clear that speciation – the  
41 evolution of reproductive barriers between populations – is complex and continuous. It is  
42 already well established that due to independent assortment and recombination, genome  
43 regions have unique evolutionary histories. For example, alleles that are neutral or (generally)  
44 adaptive are expected to cross species boundaries, while alleles under divergent selection or  
45 associated with reproductive isolation do not (Ravinet et al. 2017). Species boundaries can  
46 therefore be expected to be 'semipermeable'. The heterogeneity of genomic divergence is  
47 expected to be the result of the interplay between natural and sexual selection as well as gene  
48 flow, demography and recombination. However, characterizing the genomic architecture of  
49 barriers to gene exchange remains a key challenge in studies of speciation (Payseur and  
50 Rieseberg 2016; Fraïsse and Sachdeva 2020), especially in non-model species (Fraïsse and  
51 Sachdeva 2020).

52 Contemporary hybrid zones – regions where species hybridize and introgress – offer  
53 fascinating opportunities to study speciation (Gompert et al. 2017). First, hybrid zones act as  
54 natural laboratories for the investigation of species boundaries and more generally the origin  
55 of species (Harrison and Larson 2016). It is within these hybrid zones that divergent loci  
56 associated with reproductive isolation can be detected. This is in contrast to the comparison  
57 of allopatric (non-overlapping) parental species, where divergent loci can reflect different  
58 selection pressures and/or random effects operating after speciation has been completed  
59 (Nosil and Schluter 2011; Feder et al. 2013). Second, hybrid zones allow to shed light on the  
60 little understood role of sex chromosomes in facilitating species divergence. Indeed, loci that  
61 are showing divergence between species are expected to be enriched on sex chromosomes  
62 (the "large X-effect") as recessive loci that increase fitness in the heterogametic sex (males in  
63 XY systems) would accumulate faster on the X chromosome because of immediate exposure

64 to selection (Meisel and Connallon 2013). Other processes such as recombination rate,  
65 mutation rate and effective population size differences between X chromosomes and  
66 autosomes, may add to this pattern (Meisel and Connallon 2013; Charlesworth et al. 2018).  
67 The X chromosome is therefore considered to function as a hotspot of genetic divergence  
68 between species; indicated by less genomic introgression compared to autosomes during  
69 hybridization. Consequently, due to hybrid incompatibilities on sex chromosomes it can also  
70 be expected that the hybridised heterogametic sex suffers from a fitness reduction compared  
71 to the homogametic sex (“Haldane’s rule”; Haldane 1922).

72 Although vast evidence has been found for these processes, this evidence comes from  
73 a limited number of lineages (with a majority of studies in birds, Lepidoptera and Diptera  
74 (Presgraves 2018)), and sex determination systems (mainly XY and ZW systems (Presgraves  
75 2018)). To expand our knowledge on the role of sex chromosomes in speciation, more  
76 comprehensive knowledge is needed in a wider range of taxa and other sex determination  
77 systems, such as the XO and ZO systems (Fraïsse and Sachdeva 2020).

78 We therefore sought to clarify the role of the X chromosome in the origin of  
79 reproductive barriers in an insect order with an XO sex determination system. More  
80 specifically, we focus on the recently established hybrid zone in Spain between the damselfly  
81 sister species pair *Ischnura elegans* and *I. graellsii* (Sánchez-Guillén et al. 2012a). X-linked  
82 genes and their properties have recently been identified in *I. elegans* (Chauhan et al., 2021),  
83 yet it has not been investigated whether “speciation genes” can be more often found on the X  
84 chromosome in this insect order. Hybridisation between the two species is the consequence  
85 of the recent anthropogenic-driven range expansion of *I. elegans* into the northern and  
86 western regions of Spain (Sánchez-Guillén et al. 2011). Both species have been studied in  
87 exceptional detail for the last 20 years, providing access to a wealth of ecological and natural  
88 history data. Admixture analyses in the hybrid zone have revealed that the majority of *I.*

89 *elegans* show levels of introgression similar to those expected for *I. elegans* backcrosses, and  
90 in a few cases F<sub>1</sub> hybrids (first generation hybrids) (Sánchez-Guillén *et al.* 2011). *Ischnura*  
91 damselfly females have one pair of X chromosomes (XX), whereas males have a single X  
92 chromosome (and no Y chromosome). Thus, females have a diploid sex chromosome  
93 karyotype (XX) whereas males are hemizygous for X (X0). To our knowledge, so far only  
94 two other studies investigated introgression patterns between autosomes and the X  
95 chromosome in species with an X0 sex determination system (both in the insect order  
96 Orthoptera; Maroja *et al.*, 2015; Moran *et al.*, 2018). Interestingly, the absence of a Y  
97 chromosome might relax several mechanisms that contribute to Haldane's rule, such as  
98 incompatibilities between Y-linked and autosomal genes (Sweigart 2010; Campbell *et al.*  
99 2012) and meiotic drive (Patten 2018). By studying species with an X0 sex determination  
100 system we can explore whether these mechanisms are necessary for Haldane's rule to apply.  
101 The few existing case studies of X0 sex determination systems show incidentally rare  
102 exceptions to Haldane's rule (Moran *et al.* 2017a).

103 Today high-throughput sequencing technology provides unprecedented opportunities  
104 to study genomic evolutionary histories at hybrid zones (Harrison and Larson 2016) allowing  
105 exciting approaches to disentangle evolutionary processes across the speciation continuum  
106 (Gompert *et al.* 2017). Here we analyse genome-wide distributed single nucleotide  
107 polymorphisms (SNPs) in the Spanish *I. elegans* and *I. graellsii* hybrid zone to test whether  
108 the X chromosome shows less genomic introgression compared to autosomes and whether  
109 X0 males are underrepresented among hybrids and backcrosses as predicted by Haldane's  
110 rule during hybridization caused by range expansion.

111

## 112 METHODS

### 113 *Sampling strategy*

114 We sampled individuals from fifteen localities in the hybrid zone along with five localities of  
115 allopatric *I. elegans* and three localities of allopatric *I. graellsii* (Fig. 1A; for details see Table  
116 S1 in Supplemental Information). Additionally, three closely related species from the  
117 *elegans*-clade (*I. fountaineae*, *I. genei* and *I. saharensis*) were also sampled (Table S1 in  
118 Supplemental Information).

119

#### 120 *Library construction, RAD-seq analysis and filtering*

121 Genomic DNA from the head and thorax of 269 individuals (260 samples of *I. elegans* and *I.*  
122 *graellsii* and nine samples of closely related *Ischnura* species that were used as outgroup  
123 samples in part of subsequent analyses, Table S1 in Supplementary Information) was  
124 extracted with the DNeasy Blood & Tissue Kit (Qiagen). Extracted genomic DNA was  
125 quantified using Nanodrop and Qubit and DNA degradation was visually expected through  
126 1% agarose gel electrophoresis. In total, eight single-digest Restriction site–Associated DNA  
127 (RAD) libraries were constructed following the protocol described in Etter et al. (2011) and  
128 modified in Dudaniec et al. (2018). Per library, forty unique barcodes were used to label the  
129 samples (sourced from Metabion). Five of these libraries (containing 206 samples) were  
130 paired-end sequenced (2\*100 bp) on separate lanes of an Illumina HiSeq 2500 at SNP&SEQ  
131 Technology Platform at Uppsala University, whereas the remaining three libraries  
132 (containing 61 samples) were paired-end sequenced (2\*125 bp) on three lanes of an Illumina  
133 HiSeq 2500 at BGI (Hong Kong).

134 We used the bioinformatic pipelines in STACKS v2.2 (Catchen et al. 2011, 2013) to  
135 process the sequences. Process\_radtags was used to demultiplex the raw reads, and  
136 clone\_filter to identify and discard PCR clones using default parameters. Next, sequence  
137 reads were aligned to the *I. elegans* draft genome assembly (Chauhan et al. 2021) using  
138 BOWTIE2 v.2.3 (mismatch allowance per seed alignment of 1, maximum mismatch penalty

139 of 6 and minimum of 2, maximum fragment length of 1000 bp and minimum of 100 bp,  
140 Langmead & Salzberg, 2012). The aligned samples were processed with the ref\_map pipeline  
141 to detect SNPs using default parameters (different runs were performed when including and  
142 excluding outgroup samples).

143 We discarded 35 samples that had a mean depth < 20x and also two *I. graellsii*  
144 samples from the population Seyhouse (Algeria) as exploratory analyses of population  
145 structure revealed possible hybridization in those samples with a third *Ischnura* species  
146 (Sánchez-Guillén et al., in review). We generated three different SNP sets for subsequent  
147 analyses using ‘populations’ in STACKS: a first set including all SNPs detected among  
148 allopatric samples of *I. elegans* and *I. graellsii*; a second set with only diagnostic SNPs  
149 between the allopatric samples of *I. elegans* and *I. graellsii* (i.e. loci that are differentially  
150 fixed between these two groups), and a third set when also outgroup samples were included.  
151 For all three SNP sets, only SNPs with a minor allele frequency of > 0.05 and an observed  
152 heterozygosity of < 0.7 were retained. Moreover, loci had to occur in 80% of the individuals  
153 in a population. For the two non-diagnostic SNP sets, the locus had to occur in 80% of the  
154 individuals in a population and in 20 of the 25 (or 28 for the SNP set with outgroup samples  
155 included) populations to be included in the final SNP set. The SNP sets that did not include  
156 the outgroup samples were subsequently filtered to include only one random SNP per RAD-  
157 tag to create data without closely linked loci (using the write\_random\_snp option in  
158 STACKS). These SNP sets are hereafter referred to as the ‘full SNP set’ and the ‘diagnostic  
159 SNP set’, respectively, while the SNP set with the outgroup samples is referred to as the  
160 ‘outgroup SNP set. For all three SNP sets, we differentiated between SNPs that were located  
161 on autosomes versus the X chromosome based on an *I. elegans* reference genome assembly  
162 (Chauhan et al. 2021).

163           Next, we genotypically classified individuals as male or female based on observed  
164 homozygosity ( $H_O$ ) at X-linked SNPs. As males are hemizygous, we expect an  $H_O = 1.0$  at X-  
165 linked SNPs for males, yet in practice deviations are expected due to genotyping error. As  
166 females have two copies of the X chromosome, we expect lower  $H_O$  in females compared to  
167 males. Accordingly, using data of X-linked SNPs at the full SNP set, we found that the  $H_O$   
168 values among all *I. elegans* and *I. graellsii* samples were bimodally distributed (Figure S1 in  
169 Supplemental Information). We selected a cut-off value at the valley of the bimodal  $H_O$   
170 distribution (i.e.  $H_O = 0.96$ ) to classify samples having  $H_O < 0.96$  as females and samples  
171 having  $H_O > 0.96$  as males. In this way, we genotypically classified the *I. elegans* and *I.*  
172 *graellsii* samples as 129 females and 94 males. As we used samples that were in many cases  
173  $> 10$  years old, phenotypically sexing of individuals was not always straightforward. Among  
174 the *I. elegans* and *graellsii* samples that had been phenotypically classified as females all 96  
175 had  $H_O < 0.96$  as expected, whereas 19 of 105 phenotypically classified as males had  $H_O <$   
176  $0.96$  (these were treated as females in the analyses). Among the samples that had not been  
177 phenotypically sexed, 14 were classified as females and eight as males based on  $H_O$ . The  
178 outgroup samples were genotypically classified as eight females and one male using  $H_O$  at X-  
179 linked SNPs at the outgroup SNP set.

180           Finally, we filtered the X-linked SNPs further by retaining only those SNPs that were  
181 homozygous in all genotypically classified males. This was done for all three SNP sets,  
182 giving the final SNP sets: the full SNP set with 7,352 SNPs of which 390 are X-linked, the  
183 diagnostic SNP set with 1,931 SNPs of which 111 are X-linked, and the outgroup SNP set  
184 with 64,452 SNPs of which 4,603 are X-linked. When analyses are performed on only  
185 autosomal SNPs or only X-linked SNPs, we referred to these SNP sets as, e.g., the X-linked  
186 full SNP set or the autosomal diagnostic SNP data set.

187



188 *Population structure analysis*

189 To discern population structure among the samples, we performed Principal Component  
190 Analysis (PCA) using the PCA function in PLINK v1.9 (Purcell et al. 2007). For this  
191 analysis, we used autosomal SNPs from the full SNP set).

192

193 *Individual ancestry coefficients*

194 We compared the ancestry of individuals to allopatric *I. elegans* and *I. graellsii* between  
195 autosomes and the X chromosome by calculating individual ancestry coefficients ( $Q$ -  
196 values) using both the autosomal and X-linked diagnostic SNP set in ADMIXTURE v1.3.0  
197 (Alexander and Lange 2011). ADMIXTURE was run using the supervised learning mode  
198 with the allopatric *I. elegans* and *I. graellsii* individuals as reference samples meaning 100%  
199 ancestry is assumed for the respective species. For the X-linked diagnostic SNP set,  
200 hemizyosity was accounted for by setting the haploid flag for all males.

201

202 *Introgression analysis*

203 We used two different approaches to infer whether introgression patterns are different  
204 between autosomes versus the X chromosome. First, we employed a Bayesian Genomic  
205 Clines (BGC) analysis of Gompert & Buerkle (2011, 2012), which makes use of Markov  
206 chain Monte Carlo to estimate genomic cline parameters within a Bayesian genomic cline  
207 model. The per locus probability of being inherited from a given parental population ( $\pi$ ) is  
208 calculated, which is then compared to the genome-wide average probability, i.e. the hybrid  
209 index. Two parameters,  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$ , summarise this probability and hence the pattern of  
210 introgression between the parental populations that are nearly fixed for the focal markers. For  
211 this analysis we used the autosomal and X-linked diagnostic SNP set. In our case, the  
212 parameter  $\alpha$  measures the directional movement of alleles from *I. graellsii* into *I. elegans* ( $\alpha >$

213 0) or movement from *I. elegans* into *I. graellsii* ( $\alpha < 0$ ), while the  $\beta$  parameter, measures the  
214 strength of the barrier to gene flow between the two species. Higher positive values of the  $\beta$   
215 parameter describe steeper clines and a greater strength of the gene flow barrier. We ran 5  
216 independent chains in BGC using the genotype certainty model, each for 50,000 steps with a  
217 burn-in of 25,000 and thinning samples by 20. We combined the output for both  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$   
218 using ClineHelpR (available at <https://github.com/btmartin721/ClineHelpR>). To test whether  
219 X-linked SNPs displayed higher  $\beta$  values than the autosomes, we generated 10,000 permuted  
220 datasets by sampling without replacement from the autosomal  $\beta$  value distribution. For each  
221 dataset we sampled 111 times, i.e. the number of X-linked diagnostic SNPs, to generate equal  
222 sample sizes between autosomal and X-linked datasets. Subsequently, we compared the  
223 median of  $\beta$  values of the X-linked distribution to the median of each permuted autosomal  
224 dataset and considered a greater gene flow barrier on X-linked SNPs compared to autosomal  
225 SNPs if the X-linked observed median exceeded the median in  $> 95\%$  of the permuted  
226 datasets (Baiz et al. 2020).

227         Second, we made use of ABBA-BABA statistics which are based on the relative  
228 frequency of shared alleles between three focal groups, along one outgroup to determine  
229 which allele is ancestral. In our case, we compare (i) the frequency of shared alleles between  
230 sympatric *I. elegans* and allopatric *I. graellsii* ('ABBA') compared to shared alleles between  
231 allopatric *I. elegans* and allopatric *I. graellsii* ('BABA'), and (ii) the frequency of shared  
232 alleles between sympatric *I. graellsii* and allopatric *I. elegans* ('ABBA') compared to shared  
233 alleles between allopatric *I. graellsii* and allopatric *I. elegans* ('BABA') (see Figure 3). If  
234 introgression occurs in sympatry, higher frequencies of ABBA than of BABA are expected.  
235 Patterson's D is the original test statistic used to measure this but is now often used in parallel  
236 with related test statistics  $f_d$  and  $f_{dM}$  that are less biased when, for example, used in sliding  
237 windows frameworks (Malinsky et al. 2021). We here report the results using  $f_{dM}$ , yet similar

238 results were found with test statistics  $D$  and  $f_d$  (results not given). For this analysis we used  
239 the outgroup SNP set. We ran *Dsuite* (Malinsky et al. 2021) to measure these test statistics  
240 along the genome using a sliding window approach. More specifically, we ran the function  
241 *Dinvestigate* with a window size of 50 informative SNPs and a step of 5 SNPs. As outgroup  
242 we used 3 samples each from congeneric species *I. genei*, *I. fountaineae* and *I. saharensis*.  
243 We calculated the introgression parameters both for introgression from allopatric *I. graellsii*  
244 into sympatric *I. elegans* and from allopatric *I. elegans* into sympatric *I. graellsii*. In Figure 3  
245 is depicted which samples we used as ‘P1’, ‘P2’ and ‘P3’ for both analyses (‘P4’ is the  
246 outgroup). As we wanted to include sympatric individuals that can be considered to be  
247 genomically *I. elegans* or *I. graellsii*, respectively, in this analysis, but did not know how  
248 incorporating individuals of more recent hybrid ancestry will affect the results, we used  
249 different autosomal  $Q$  admixture cut-off values to decide which sympatric individuals can be  
250 considered to be either genomically *I. elegans* or *I. graellsii*. (i)  $Q = 0$  for sympatric *I.*  
251 *elegans* and  $Q = 1$  for sympatric *I. graellsii*, (ii)  $Q < 0.1$  for sympatric *I. elegans* and  $Q > 0.9$   
252 for sympatric *I. graellsii*, (iii)  $Q < 0.25$  for sympatric *I. elegans* and  $Q > 0.75$  for sympatric *I.*  
253 *graellsii*. We ran one analysis for each of these chosen cut-off values per species (six  
254 analyses in total).

255 Analogously to the BGC analysis, we generated permuted datasets from the  
256 distributions of test statistics of the autosomal windows and compared the medians of these to  
257 the median of the test statistics of the observed X-linked distribution. This was done for all  
258 six analyses with the given autosomal  $Q$  admixture cut-off value. Note that using the  
259 autosomal  $Q$  admixture cut-off value is a conservative approach to compare introgression  
260 levels between autosomal and X-linked windows. We considered there to be less  
261 introgression on the X chromosome compared to autosomes if the X-linked observed median  
262 was less than the median in  $> 95\%$  of the permuted datasets.

263 As it is not possible to analyse males as hemizygous at the X chromosome in BGC  
264 and Dsuite, we ran these analyses using a subset of the data containing only the genotypically  
265 classified female individuals. However, we reran the analyses including both males and  
266 females (which did not change the results qualitatively; see below).

267

### 268 *Haldane's rule*

269 To test whether males were underrepresented among sympatric admixed individuals, we  
270 tested for associations between sex and proportion admixture for three different autosomal  
271 and X-linked Q admixture cut-off values using the full SNP set. As only females were  
272 sampled in the Western sympatric region ('sympatric West', Fig. 1A) we excluded all  
273 individuals in this region from the analysis. The following cut-off values were used to  
274 differentiate between admixed and non-admixed individuals: (i)  $Q = 0$  or  $1$  (non-admixed  
275 individuals) and  $0 < Q < 1$  (lowly to highly admixed individuals), (ii)  $0.1 > Q > 0.9$  (non- to  
276 lowly admixed individuals) and  $0.1 < Q < 0.9$  (moderately to highly admixed individuals),  
277 and (iii)  $0.25 > Q > 0.75$  (non- to moderately admixed individuals) and  $0.25 < Q < 0.75$   
278 (highly admixed individuals). Fisher's exact tests were used to test whether males and  
279 females differed in numbers of non-admixed and admixed individuals for each Q value cut-  
280 off based on autosomal and X-linked SNPs, respectively.

281

## 282 RESULTS

### 283 *Genetic structure*

284 A principal component analysis of all allopatric and sympatric *I. elegans* and *I. graellsii*  
285 individuals based on autosomal SNPs at the full SNP set clearly separated the allopatric  
286 populations at the first axis (PC1) which explained much of the variation (Figure 1B). In  
287 contrast, some of the sympatric populations in the hybrid zone spread out along PC1, and

288 separated partly along the minor second axis, PC2 (Figure 1B). An admixture analysis  
289 confirmed these patterns by grouping individuals in allopatric populations in separate  
290 clusters, while some sympatric samples had intermediate admixture proportions (Q values;  
291 Figure 1C). Interestingly, more individuals had intermediate Q values using autosomal SNPs  
292 compared to when using X-linked SNPs. At X-linked SNPs, sympatric individuals were more  
293 often showing Q admixture values closer to the values of allopatric individuals (Figure 1C).

294

### 295 *Bayesian genomic clines*

296 We tested the strength and direction of allele movements between species using the  
297 diagnostic SNP set in females. We found that  $\beta$  values were significantly higher at X-linked  
298 SNPs compared to autosomal SNPs (permutation test,  $P < 0.001$ ; Figure 2A). Also, the  $\alpha$   
299 parameter was higher at X-linked compared to autosomal SNPs ( $P = 0.034$  Figure 2B). In  
300 other words, X-linked SNPs showed steeper clines (and hence a greater strength of the gene  
301 flow barrier) with alleles more likely to move from *I. graellsii* into *I. elegans* compared to the  
302 autosomal SNPs. Indeed 87% of the X-linked SNPs showed positive  $\beta$  values compared to  
303 56% of the autosomal SNPs and 59% showed positive  $\alpha$  values compared to 46% in the  
304 autosomes. Similar results were found in analysis that included both females and males  
305 (Table S3 in Supplementary Information).

306

### 307 *ABBA-BABA*

308 Figure 3 shows the distributions of  $f_{dM}$  statistics between autosomal windows and windows  
309 located on the X chromosome. This statistic has the advantage of being symmetrically  
310 distributed around zero under the null hypothesis of no introgression and quantifies shared  
311 variation between P2 and P3 (positive values; ABBA) or between P1 and P3 (negative  
312 values; BABA) equally. For most Q admixture cut-off values used to include sympatric

313 individuals (i.e.,  $Q = 0$  or  $1$ ;  $Q < 0.1$  or  $> 0.9$ ;  $Q < 0.25$  or  $> 0.75$ ), X-linked SNPs showed  
314 significantly less introgression ( $f_{\text{dM}}$  values distributed close to 0) between allopatric *I.*  
315 *graellsii* and sympatric *I. elegans* (*I. elegans* panel), and between allopatric *I. elegans* and  
316 sympatric *I. graellsii* (*I. graellsii* panel), than autosomal SNPs ( $f_{\text{dM}}$  biased towards positive  
317 values; permutation test,  $P \leq 0.01$  in all six analyses; Figure 3). Overall, the bias towards  
318 more introgression of autosomal than X-linked SNPs was more apparent for introgression  
319 into sympatric *I. elegans* (*I. elegans* panel). From Figure 3 it can also be concluded that  
320 overall introgression occurs more frequently from allopatric *I. graellsii* into sympatric *I.*  
321 *elegans* than from allopatric *I. elegans* into sympatric *I. graellsii* (Wilcoxon rank sum test,  $P$   
322  $< 0.001$  in all three comparisons,  $Q = 0$  vs  $Q = 1$ ;  $Q < 0.1$  vs.  $Q > 0.9$ ;  $Q < 0.25$  vs.  $Q > 0.75$ ).  
323 These above results are for analysis with females only, but similar results were found in  
324 analyses including also males (Table S3 in Supplementary Information).

325

### 326 *Haldane's rule*

327 Admixed males were overall underrepresented within the hybrid zone, but the degree of  
328 underrepresentation differed for autosomal and X-linked diagnostic SNPs, and when different  
329 admixture cut-off values were used to categorize individuals as admixed or non-admixed  
330 (Figure 4). For autosomal SNPs, males were significantly underrepresented in the admixed  
331 category both when individuals with  $Q$  values between 0.1 and 0.9 ( $0.1 < Q < 0.9$ ; Fisher's  
332 exact test,  $P < 0.007$ ), and between 0.25 and 0.75 ( $0.1 < Q < 0.9$ ;  $P = 0.050$ ), were  
333 categorized as admixed (Figure 4, upper panels). However, when  $Q$  values between 0 and 1  
334 ( $0 < Q < 1$ ) were used to categorize admixed individuals, males were not significantly  
335 underrepresented among admixed individuals ( $P = 1$ ). For X-linked SNPs, males were  
336 significantly underrepresented among admixed individuals when individuals with  $Q$  values  
337 between 0 and 1 ( $0 < Q < 1$ ;  $P = 0.009$ ), and between 0.1 and 0.9 ( $0.1 < Q < 0.9$ ;  $P < 0.001$ ),

338 were categorized as admixed (Figure 4, lower panels). For Q values between 0.25 and 0.75  
339 ( $0.25 < Q < 0.75$ ), males were not significantly underrepresented among the admixed  
340 individuals ( $P = 0.120$ ), but it should be noted that the numbers of sampled highly admixed  
341 individuals was very low (Figure 4).

342

## 343 DISCUSSION

344 In this study we analysed genome-wide distributed SNPs in the Spanish *I. elegans* and *I.*  
345 *graellsii* hybrid zone and found (i) that the X chromosome showed less genomic  
346 introgression compared to autosomes and (ii) that males are underrepresented among hybrids  
347 and backcrosses as predicted by Haldane's rule.

348

### 349 *Introgression patterns*

350 Through two different approaches and SNP sets (BGC using the 'diagnostic SNP set' with  
351 only *I. elegans* and *graellsii* samples, and ABBA-BABA using the 'outgroup SNP set' which  
352 also included outgroup samples) we detected lower introgression at the X chromosome  
353 compared to autosomes. Indeed, both methods measure introgression, yet BGC is a model-  
354 based approach while ABBA-BABA measures statistics proportional to the effective  
355 migration rate (Martin and Jiggins 2017). The similar results should be considered as  
356 complementary evidence for greater divergence at the X chromosome compared to  
357 autosomes between the two species in the hybrid zone. This is the first study in Odonata that  
358 suggests a role of the X chromosome in reproductive isolation. Although at this point direct  
359 evidence is lacking, our results suggest that a large X-effect may have contributed to an  
360 accumulation of reproductive barrier genes on the X chromosome. Only two other studies  
361 investigated introgression patterns between autosomes and the X chromosome in hybrid  
362 zones of species with an X0 sex determination system (both in insect order Orthoptera,

363 Maroja et al., 2015; Peter A. Moran et al., 2018). Both these studies also detected that large X  
364 evolution has contributed to an accumulation of reproductive isolating genes on the X  
365 chromosome, as was detected in the current damselfly system.

366 Interestingly, both introgression analyses suggest that the direction of introgression is  
367 biased towards introgression from allopatric *I. graellsii* into sympatric *I. elegans*. This can be  
368 explained by two processes. First, from previous research in western Spain we know that  
369 there is asymmetry in the strength of the reproductive barriers between reciprocal crosses.  
370 Male *I. elegans* can more easily mate and produce hybrids with female *I. graellsii* and female  
371 hybrids, than the other way around (Sánchez-Guillén et al. 2012b, 2014). Curiously, this was  
372 also reflected here by the fact that the only sampled male F1 hybrid (autosomal SNP Q value:  
373 0.5) had inherited its X chromosome from an *I. graellsii* mother. Overall weaker reproductive  
374 barrier in *I. elegans* would imply easier introgression into this species. Second, it could be  
375 expected that, in this case, alleles from *I. graellsii* rather than from *I. elegans* confer higher  
376 fitness in hybrid individuals (Gompert et al. 2017). This hypothesis is based on the rationale  
377 that alleles from the native *I. graellsii* are expected to contribute more to local adaptation  
378 than those from *I. elegans* (which is relatively new to this region) (Wellenreuther et al. 2018).  
379 Note that even when reproductive barriers are strong between two species, adaptive  
380 introgression is possible (Gompert et al. 2017). Both mechanistic asymmetry as well as  
381 adaptive introgression could have acted simultaneously to the observed asymmetric  
382 introgression.

383

#### 384 *Evidence for Haldane's rule*

385 When we compared the proportion of admixed versus non-admixed individuals between the  
386 sexes, we found fewer males than females among the admixed individuals. This pattern was  
387 pronounced at low levels of admixture of the X chromosome but not of the autosomes. Lower



388 survival of males carrying hybrid and backcrossed X chromosomes is in accordance with the  
389 expectations from Haldane's rule. Our data hence suggest that Haldane's rule is valid in this  
390 insect order. An increased rate of mortality among hybrid and backcrossed males could be  
391 caused by the expression of recessive, deleterious alleles on the X chromosome in X0 male  
392 hybrids and homozygous females only, but not in heterozygous females (the latter which are  
393 more common). The observed pattern of stronger isolation between the two studied species at  
394 the X chromosome as compared to the autosomes further supports the presence of X-linked  
395 incompatibilities. This is one of the rare studies using a natural system in which the study  
396 species do not have a Y chromosome, and our results imply that neither incompatibilities  
397 between Y-linked and autosomal genes, nor meiotic drive, are necessary to cause the  
398 deleterious effects in male hybrids. Thus, our study does not support the suggestion that the  
399 absence of a Y chromosome constitute an exception to Haldane's rule (Moran et al. 2017b).

400         Interestingly, the overall lower survival of males in the hybrid zone could impact sex-  
401 ratios and hence sexual conflict (Runemark et al. 2018). In the current species, sexual conflict  
402 over optimal mating rates is extensively studied (Sánchez-Guillén et al. 2017) and our results  
403 hence warrant further investigation on the effects of hybridization on sexual conflict.

404

#### 405 *Conclusions*

406 As predicted by theory, we here demonstrate that X-linked SNPs introgress less than  
407 autosomal SNPs in *I. elegans* and *I. graellsii* in the contemporary hybrid zone in Spain.  
408 Moreover, our data also suggest that Haldane's rule is valid in Odonata and contradicts the  
409 hypothesis that the absence of a Y chromosome causes exceptions to Haldane's rule. Thus,  
410 this is the first study in this insect order that suggests a role of the X chromosome in  
411 reproductive isolation. Future work is needed to establish if this also extends to other  
412 odonates and is thus a general rule. Expanding knowledge in the area of reproductive

413 barriers, and mechanisms that fuel species melting, is urgently needed to predict biodiversity  
414 consequences under a scenario of climate induced range shifts that will increase the  
415 encounters of closely related species, and consequently the likelihood of introgressive  
416 hybridization (Sánchez-Guillén et al. 2016). Moreover, deciphering the relative contributions  
417 of X chromosomes and autosomes in keeping species together or not is shedding important  
418 fundamental insights into genome function and the evolutionary processes at play that  
419 contribute to speciation.

420

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441

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535

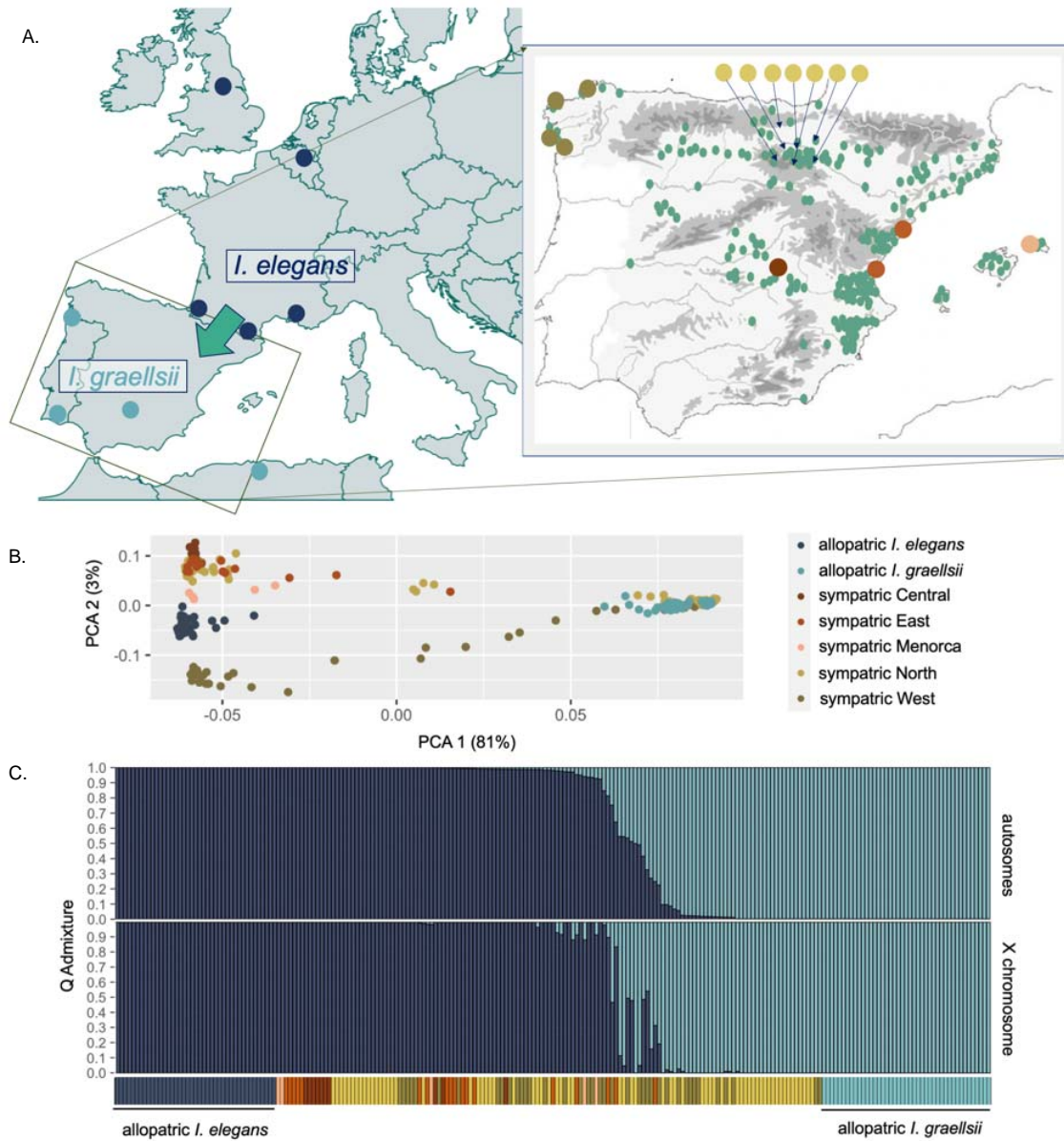
## FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure 1. (A) Maps showing the allopatric (left) and sympatric populations (right) of *I. elegans* and *I. graellsii* that were studied. Green areas on the rightmost map indicate where *I. elegans* has expanded its range into Spain. (B) The first two axes of a principal component analysis (PCA) of all allopatric and sympatric individuals. The colors match the sample locations on the map. (C) Individual admixture proportions (Q values) based on autosomal and X-linked SNPs, respectively. Samples have been ordered based on the Q values from autosomal SNPs.

Figure 2. Results of BGC analysis of females in sympatric populations of *I. elegans* and *I. graellsii*. Shown are the beta (A) and alpha (B) distributions. The medians of the distributions measured autosomal and X-linked SNPs, respectively, are given in each panel, as well as the *P*-value from a permutation test comparing these medians.

Figure 3. Results of ABBA-BABA analysis of females in sympatric populations of *I. elegans* and *I. graellsii*. Shown are the  $f_{dM}$  distributions. The medians of the distributions measured with autosomal and X-linked SNPs, respectively, are included in each panel, as well as the *P*-value from a permutation test to compare these medians. Left panels show results from sympatric *I. elegans*, and right panels sympatric *I. graellsii*.

Figure 4. Proportion of admixed and non-admixed individuals in females and males, respectively, when using three different Q admixture cut-off values and either (A) autosomal and (B) X-linked SNPs. In all cases, males were underrepresented in the admixed (or highly admixed) category compared to females (Fisher's exact test; A:  $P = 1, < 0.007, 0.050$ , respectively; B:  $P = 0.009, < 0.001, 0.120$ , respectively).





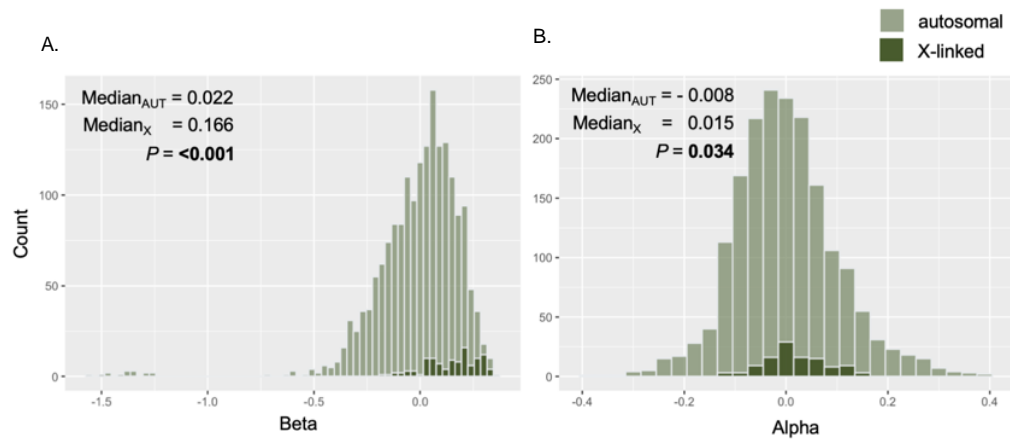


Figure 2

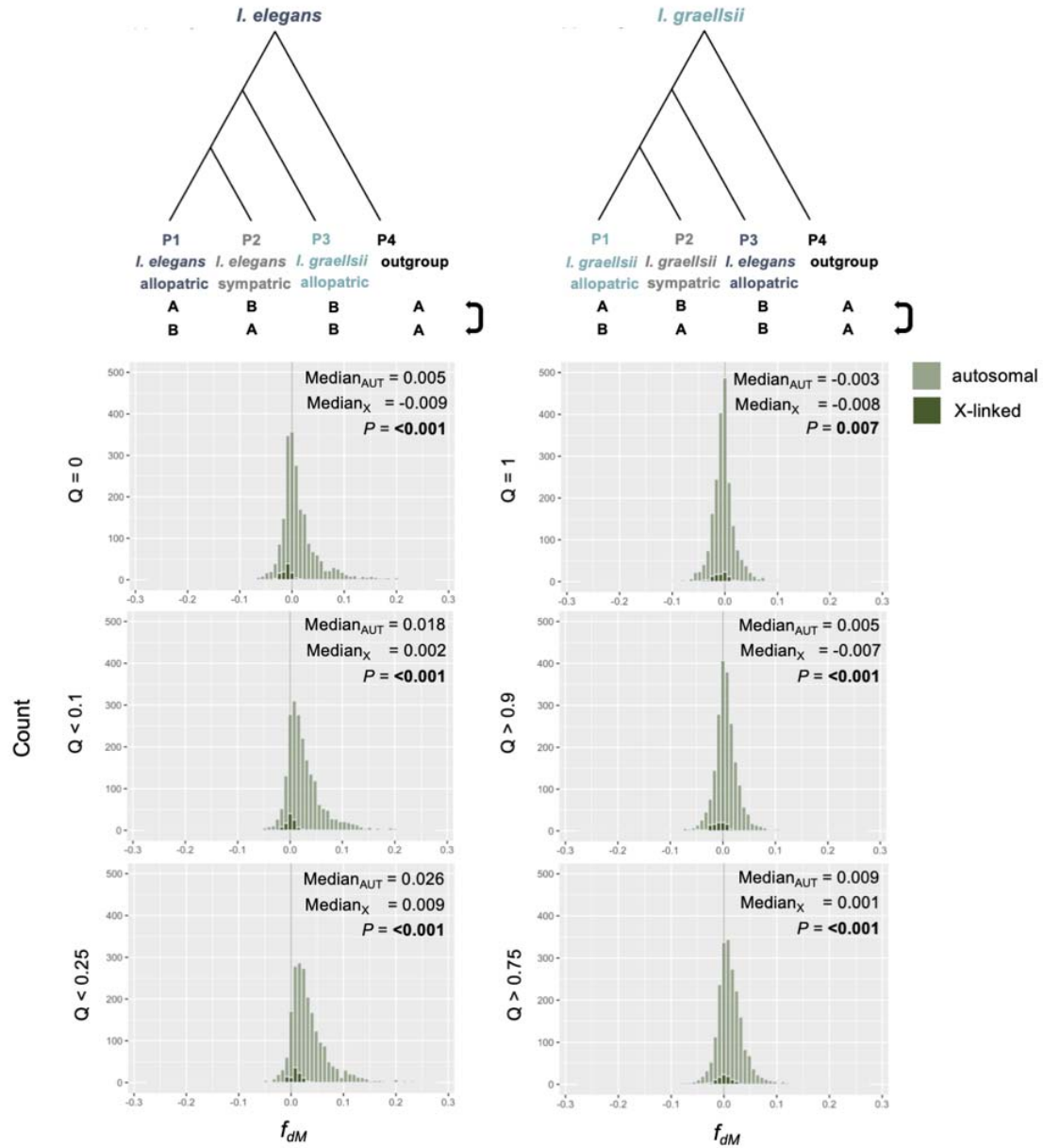


Figure 3

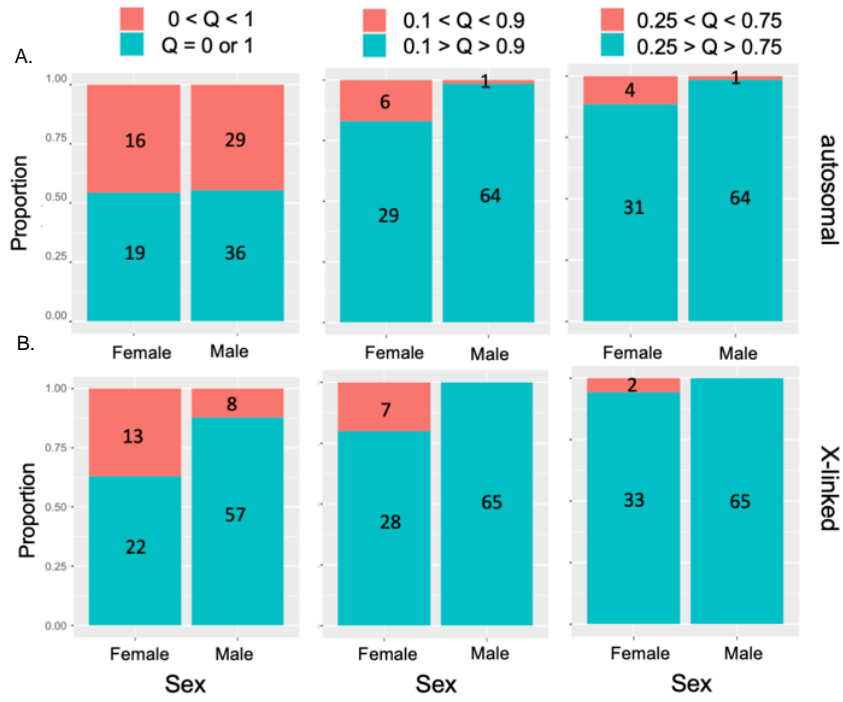


Figure 4