THE GENETICS OF PAPILIO DARDANUS, BROWN. II. RACES DARDANUS, POLYTROPHUS, MESERES, AND TIBULLUS

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IN Part I (CLARKE and SHEPPARD 1959) we described the genetics of *P. dardanus* race *cenea* from South Africa. The present paper concerns four other races of the butterfly—*dardanus*, *polytrophus*, *meseres* and *tibullus*. The map (Figure 1) shows the distribution of these and their geographical relationships



FIGURE 1.—Distribution and geographical relationship of P. dardanus races.

with *P. dardanus cenea*. In addition the areas inhabited by the Madagascan race *meriones* and the Abyssinian race *antinorii* are indicated, and these forms will be the subject of a separate paper (Part III).

RACE DARDANUS

This has the most extensive range of any of the races of *P. dardanus*. It is found down the West Coast of Africa from Sierra Leone to Angola, and spreads eastwards towards Uganda and Tanganyika Territory to Lake Victoria. In these areas it merges into the transitional race *meseres*. In the western part of its range the female is almost invariably the mimetic form *hippocoon*, and this closely resembles the form *hippocoonides* already described under race *cenea* from South Africa (Part I).

In race *dardanus* we have bred *hippocoon* both from the eastern and western parts of its range and have also investigated f. *trophonissa*, f. *niobe* and f. *plane-moides*. The mimetic form *cenea* has not so far appeared in our material but we have carried out a race cross using this form from South Africa (see below).

F. hippocoon

This form (Plate, No. 1) which mimics *Amauris niavius niavius* is very similar to *hippocoonides*, and, wherever we have tested it in relation to other forms,



PLATE—No. 1. f. hippocoon, race dardanus. No. 2. f. niobe, race dardanus. No. 3. f. cenea showing breakdown of mimicry. No. 4. f. cenea, showing no breakdown of mimicry. No. 5. f. planemoides, race dardanus. No. 6. f. proto-planemoides. No. 7. f. poultoni, race polytrophus. No. 8. f. dorippoides. No. 9. f. trophonissa, race dardanus.

440

we have found that it behaves similarly to hippocoonides. As in Part I, therefore, we have assumed that *hippocoon* and *hippocoonides* and the hybrids between the two are equally satisfactory for testing either for dominance relationships or allelomorphism.

Hybrids between f. hippocoon and f. cenea from South Africa: It is of interest that when f. hippocoon from the West Coast of Africa (where cenea does not occur) is crossed with f. cenea from South Africa, the mimetic pattern of f. cenea is broken down (Plate, No. 3). On the other hand, when f. hippocoon from the eastern range of *dardanus* (where f. *cenea* does occur but at a low frequency) is crossed with f. cenea from South Africa, the breakdown of the mimetic pattern is very much less (No. 4). This suggests that on the west coast the population does not possess the modifying genes perfecting the mimicry of f. cenea, whereas these are present further east. In contrast the mimetic pattern of f. trophonius is not appreciably altered when crossed with f. hippocoon from race dardanus. This we believe to be because f. *trophonissa* is found throughout the range of the race (CLARKE and SHEPPARD 1960 for elaboration of this point).

F. niobe

This is a bright orange insect with an orange body (Plate, No. 2). It has the pattern of trophonissa, but with the subapical spot of the forewing orange instead of white. It is therefore much like f. salaami from South Africa (see Part I) but the hind wings are more raved as in *hippocoon*.

Autosomal inheritance of f. niobe: It is clear that the gene controlling this form is, like the others investigated, autosomal. Thus, in brood 3228 a *niobe* female, mated to a male which cannot have carried *niobe*, produced seven *niobe* daughters, showing that the gene cannot be on the X chromosome. That it cannot be sex-linked on the Y chromosome is demonstrated in brood 3029, where a female hippocoon which could not have carried niobe, when mated to a male which had eleven niobe sisters, produced 23 males, ten hippocoon females and eight niobe females (see Table 1).

	E	Origin of	Offspring					
Brood no.	and genotype where known	father and genotype where known	Males	hippocoon females	<i>niobe</i> females			
3029	hippocoon	heterozygous niobe/ hippocoon H ^{Ni} h*	23	10	8			
3228	niobe 3029 H ^{Ni} h	hh‡ (cannot be carrying niobe)	9	3	7			

TABLE 1

Autosomal inheritance of f. niobe (race dardanus)

• H^Nih=niobe/hippocoon.

+ The designation of the genotype of the male known to be homozygous for hippocoonides, hippocoon or the hybrid N.B. The full list of the genetic symbols used to indicate the various genotypes in all races of *P*. dardanus will be given at the end of Part III. Dominance relationships of f. niobe: In brood 3017 a female niobe 2779 mated to a male known to be homozygous for hippocoon(ides) produced six males, two hippocoon(ides) and four niobe females. (A hippocoon or hippocoonides of hybrid origin is written as hippocoon(ides) in this paper if race dardanus or antinorii is involved.) Again in brood 3029 a hippocoon female 2862 (in which no niobe had appeared) mated to a male 2802 (which had niobe among its sibs), produced 23 males, ten hippocoon(ides) and eight niobe females. Broods 3017 and 3029 therefore prove that f. niobe is dominant to f. hippocoon(ides) and pure hippocoon.

When crossed with f. cenea (from South Africa) niobe either forms a recognizable heterozygote with cenea or else is fully dominant to it. In brood 2779 a niobe female 2666 (not carrying cenea) mated to a male 2640 heterozygous for cenea and hippocoonides (and not carrying niobe) produced 11 males, two cenea, three hippocoon(ides), two niobe and two females with cenea patterning and niobe coloring $(H^oH^{Ni}, \text{ the heterozygotes called red-brown cenea})$. In contrast, in brood 2802 a cenea female which could not have been carrying niobe was mated to a male heterozygous for niobe and hippocoon. Their offspring were 27 males, six cenea, six hippocoon(ides) and 11 niobe females. No recognizable heterozygotes were produced in this brood. F. cenea thus behaves with f. niobe much as it does with f. leighi (see Part I).

Niobe can also be formed as the heterozygote between f. trophonius and f. planemoides. In brood 3059 a trophonius female heterozygous for hippocoon(ides) (and not carrying niobe) was mated to a male heterozygous for f. planemoides and f. hippocoon (the male had five hippocoon and five planemoides sisters and ten brothers, none of which when mated produced niobe). The offspring of brood 3059 were one male, one hippocoon(ides), one trophonius and five "synthetic" niobe females. We have shown, however, on several occasions that f. niobe does not usually arise in this way, and that it is more often inherited as a unit. Thus in brood 3029 a male carrying niobe was mated to a hippocoon female and produced 23 males, ten hippocoon(ides) and eight niobe females. Again in brood 3017 a *niobe* female mated to a male homozygous for *hippo*coon(ides) produced six males, two hippocoon(ides) and four niobe females. Broods 2967 and 3228 give similar information. In none of these instances has *niobe* given rise to *planemoides* or *trophonius* (see Table 2). It is not known how often niobe is formed in the wild by a combination of trophonius and planemoides, but this could well happen since the forms are sympatric in the eastern part of the range of race dardanus.

More work on *niobe* is necessary before we have formal proof that it is controlled by a gene at the same locus as the other forms, though this is suggested by our data.

F. trophonissa

This orange insect with a white subapical spot (Plate, No. 9) resembles the mimic f. *trophonius* from South Africa (Part I) except that the upper side of the hindwing has more marked longitudinal rays. In brood 2862 (Table 3) a *tro*-

						Offspring					
	Form of mother	Origin of father	Recognizable heterozygote niobe/						trophonius/ planemoides, synthetic		
Brood no.	and genotype where known	and genotype where known	Males	<i>cenea</i> females	<i>cenea</i> females	hippocoon females	<i>niobe</i> females	trophonius females	<i>niobe</i> females		
2779	niobe H ^{Ni} h	polytrophus H°h	11	2	2	3	2	0	0		
2802	cenea H¢h	$H^{Ni}h$	27	6	0	6	11	0	0		
2967	niobe 2802 H ^{Ni} h	hh	6	0	0	6	5	0	0		
3017	niobe 2779 H ^{Ni} h	hh	6	0	0	2	4	0	0		
3029	hippocoon hh	H ^{Ni} h 2802	23	0	0	10	8	0 '	0		
3059	trophonius H ^T h	H ^{p1} h 2863 see Table 5	1	0	0	1	0	. 1	5		
3228	niobe 3029 HNih	hh	9	0	0	3	7	0	0		

Dominance relationships of f. niobe, (race dardanus)

hh = hippocoonides, hippocoon or the hybrid. Such an insect of hybrid origin is written hippocoon(ides) or h'(ides). $H^{n+h} = cenea/hippocoon$. $H^{n+h} = niobe/hippocoon$. $H^{Th} = trophonius/hippocoon$. $H^{P_1}h = planemoides/hippocoon$.

phonissa female mated to a wild male produced 17 trophonissa and 18 hippocoon females. If hippocoon were dominant to trophonissa, all the offspring of 2862 would carry the latter form. In fact this is almost certainly not the case because in broods 3015 and 3040 (Table 3) no butterflies resembling the recognizable trophonius/planemoides heterozygote (i.e., synthetic niobe) or trophonissa appeared. Therefore, trophonissa, like trophonius, is almost certainly dominant to hippocoon. If this is so, brood 3002 (Table 3), where the father is not carrying trophonissa shows that trophonissa is neither sex-linked on the X nor on the Y chromosome (because *hippocoon(ides*) was produced), but is, like the genes controlling the other forms, autosomal. It seems highly probable that trophonissa is a modified trophonius and controlled by the same major gene. Thus in race crosses between the South African trophonius and hippocoon, the hybrids resemble trophonissa having the rayed hindwing characteristic of this form and of hippocoon.

			Offspring							
Brood no.	Form of mother and genotype where known	Origin of father and genotype where known	Males	hippocoon or h'(ides) females	trophonissa females	planemoides females				
2862	wild trophonissa	wild male race <i>dardanus</i>	13	18	17	0				
3002	H ^T h trophonissa 2862	leighi/ hippocoon(ides) also carrying part of gene complex of antinorii, Brood 2876 (see Part III)	20	8	6	4 (2 of these were proto-plane- moides)				
3015	H ^{P1} h planemoides 2863 see Table 5	hh 2862	15	9	0	4				
3040	H ^{p1} h planemoides 2863 see Table 5	hh 2862	14	13	0	11				

Dominance relationships and autosomal inheritance of f. trophonissa (race dardanus)

 $H^{Pl}h = planemoides/hippocoon.$

 $H^{T}h \equiv trophonissa/hippocoon.$ $hh \equiv hippocoon.$

F. planemoides

This form has an irregular orange band on the forewing and white hindwings with a wide black border (Plate, No. 5). It is a mimic of Bematistes poggei.

Autosomal inheritance of f. planemoides: Broods 3015 and 3040 show that the gene controlling *planemoides* is not sex-linked on the X chromosome, and brood 3005 shows that it is not sex-linked on the Y. The gene therefore is autosomal (Table 4).

Dominance relationships of f. planemoides: In brood 2863, (Table 5) a wild planemoides female from Entebbe produced 11 males, five hippocoon and five *planemoides* females. A female *planemoides* of brood 2863 mated to a male from brood 2862 (which segregated trophonissa and hippocoon, Table 3) gave 15 males, nine hippocoon and four planemoides females (brood 3015, Table 5). Mating 3040 (Table 4) shows a similar situation, and these two broods show that planemoides is dominant to hippocoon.

Race crosses using f. planemoides: When a female f. planemoides from race dardanus was crossed with a male known to be homozygous for hippocoonides from race polytrophus (where the mimicry is imperfect, often due to the presence of male-like yellow scales), the mimetic pattern of *planemoides* was broken down. This occurred in brood 3049 (Table 5) where a *planemoides* female 2863 was mated to a male homozygous for *hippocoonides* with some *polytrophus* but no

			Offspring					
Brood no.	Form of mother and genotype where known	Origin of father and genotype where known	Males	hippocoon females	planemoides females	_		
3005	<i>hippocoonides</i> unknown brood	<i>H^{P1}h</i> 2863 wild	8	2	4			
3015	<i>planemoides</i> 2863 see Table 5	hh	15	9	4			
3040	<i>planemoides</i> 2863 see Table 5	hh	14	13	11			

Autosomal inheritance of f. planemoides (race dardanus)

 $H^{p_l}h = planemoides/hippocoon.$

hh = hippocoon.

dardanus in its ancestry. The offspring of mating 3049 were eight males, two *hippocoon(ides)* and three *proto-planemoides* females. In these the normal orange band on the forewing was interrupted by a horizontal black bar (Plate, No. 6). (The prefix *proto-* signifies that the form concerned is an imperfect mimic).

As with form niobe, "synthetic" planemoides was formed in one of the crosses. In brood 3002 (Table 5) a female trophonissa 2862 was mated to a male 2816 (see Part III) heterozygous for leighi/hippocoonides (niavioides) and which, therefore, carried part of the gene complex for the Abyssinian race antinorii. Neither of the butterflies had *planemoides* in their known ancestry. The brood produced eight hippocoon(ides), six trophonissa, two normal-looking planemoides and two proto-planemoides females. In contrast when leighi from race *cenea* (not carrying part of the *antinorii* gene complex) is crossed with race *dar*danus, the leight pattern (which is nonmimetic) does not appreciably alter, and planemoides is not produced (see brood 1462, Table 5). Although the complete relationship of the two forms is not yet fully worked out, it appears that with a certain combination of modifiers *leighi* can be converted to *planemoides*, and in this connection FORD (1936) has pointed out that the patterns of *planemoides* and *leighi* are rather similar. It is of interest that in brood 3002 the expected *salaami* which is the recognizable heterozygote between *leighi* and *trophonius* (see Part I) did not appear. The reason for this is not known, but it is certain that proto-planemoides cannot have been of this genetic constitution since if it were it would have segregated in brood 3176 (Table 5). Whether *planemoides* is an allelomorph of the other forms has not yet been established, but it seems probable that it will prove to be so.

In summary, therefore, the following are the findings in race *dardanus*:

- (1) F. trophonissa is almost certainly dominant to f. hippocoon.
- (2) F. niobe is dominant to f. hippocoon.

			Offspring					
Brood no.	Form of mother and genotype where known	Origin of father and genotype where known	Males	<i>plane-</i> <i>moides</i> females	proto- plane- moides females	hippocoon or h'(ides) females	<i>leighi</i> females	<i>trophonissa</i> females
1462	<i>leighi</i> race <i>cenea</i> H ^L h	race dardanus hh	11	0	0	5	*5	0
2863	<i>planemoides</i> wild	race <i>dardanus</i> wild	11	5	0	5	0	0
3002	trophonissa 2862 H ^T h	H ^L h carrying part of gene complex of <i>antinorii</i> Brood 2816 (Part III)	20	2	2	8	0	6
3015	planemoides 2863	race dardanus hh	15	4	0	9	0	0
3049	planemoides 2863	hh	8	0	3	2	0	0
3176	proto- planemoides 3002	hh	4	0	3 (1 gyna romo	a 1 nd- rph)	0	0

Dominance relationships of f. planemoides (race dardanus)

* No breakdown of leighi pattern, c.f. brood 3002. $H^{L}h \equiv leighi/hippocoonides.$ $H^{T}h \equiv trophonissa/hippocoon.$

hh = hippocoon.

(3) F. niobe is sometimes dominant to f. cenea from South Africa and sometimes forms a recognizable heterozygote with it.

(4) Although f. niobe is usually inherited as a unit it can be synthesized by combining f. trophonissa with f. planemoides, and the frequency of the two forms makes it likely that this, in fact, may sometimes happen in the wild.

(5) F. planemoides is dominant to f. hippocoon.

(6) F. planemoides and f. proto-planemoides have been synthesized in the laboratory in a race cross. The parents were a male carrying South African leighi and also part of the gene complex of antinorii and a female trophonissa from race dardanus.

(7) The nonmimetic pattern of f. leighi from South Africa does not alter appreciably when this form is crossed with race dardanus from the west coast, where *leighi* does not occur.

(8) F. cenea from race dardanus has not so far been tested with f. hippocoon but in a race cross using f. cenea from South Africa, cenea was dominant to hippocoon. There was variable breakdown in the cenea mimetic pattern according to the area from which hippocoon was obtained.

(9) It is not yet known whether the various forms of *dardanus* are allelomorphic, but it is likely that they will prove to be so.

RACE POLYTROPHUS

This race inhabits the mountain range in the center of Tanganyika Territory and Kenya Colony on the east side of Lake Victoria. It thus occupies a position between the transitional race *meseres* and race *tibullus* (Figure 1).

It is characteristic of race *polytrophus* that some of the female forms are imperfect mimics, and these usually possess some yellow male-like pigment which can be identified by its fluorescence under ultraviolet light. The incompletely developed forms corresponding to the different mimics have the prefix *proto*added to each.

We have not as yet investigated race *polytrophus* extensively, but we have obtained a certain amount of information regarding some of the forms. Furthermore, we have produced butterflies of the "*proto-*" form in various hybrids between the yellow nonmimetic forms (both from Abyssinia and from Madagascar) and butterflies from race *cenea* and race *dardanus*. These are discussed in Part III. The following are the forms of race *polytrophus* which we have bred:

F. proto-cenea.

This form includes all specimens of *cenea* which possess fluorescent yellow pigment. FORD, quoting VAN SOMEREN'S data on the frequency of the *polytrophus* forms at Nairobi, shows that out of 150 females, 47 were normal *cenea* and 18 *proto-cenea*. The relative frequency of these is of importance when analysing the broods bred by VAN SOMEREN and also reported in FORD'S monograph (1936). Thus in 19 families where the female parent was *cenea*, there were produced 91 *cenea* and 36 *proto-cenea* butterflies (28 percent of the latter form). On the other hand, where *proto-cenea* was the parent, the totals in 12 families were 31 *cenea* and 49 *proto-cenea* (61 percent of the latter form). These figures strongly suggest that *proto-cenea* is either dominant or epistatic to *cenea*. Our own data support this view because, as is shown in Table 6a, in two broods where a *proto-cenea* female was mated to a male which could not have carried *cenea* this form was produced.

VAN SOMEREN'S data (given later) also suggest that proto-cenea (in this instance from race tibullus) is dominant to hippocoonides, and our data demonstrate this for race polytrophus. Thus in brood 2629 (Table 6b) a hippocoon(ides) female with no race polytrophus in its ancestry, when mated to a polytrophus male with seven proto-cenea and two cenea sisters, produced one proto-cenea, three cenea and five hippocoon(ides) females in its offspring. This brood also proves that the gene controlling proto-cenea is not on the Y chromosome since if it were, proto-cenea could not have appeared. Moreover, several broods prove that the form is not sex-linked on the X chromosome—for example, brood 2624, where the male could not have been carrying proto-cenea, and yet this form appeared in the offspring (Table 6b).

Relationship between proto-cenea and cenea

a. Race crosses showing dominance of proto-cenea to cenea. In each family the father is from a race where proto-cenea does not usually occur.

			Offspring							
Brood no.	Origin and form of mother	- Origin of father	Males	proto- cenea females	<i>cenea</i> females	<i>natalica</i> females	hippo- coon(ides) females	troph- onius females		
2626	proto-cenea race polytrophus	race cenea (known not to be carrying f. cenea)	6	3	1	4	0	3		
2801	proto-cenea 2629 (see b below)	race <i>dardanus</i> (known not to be carrying f. <i>cenea</i>)	42	4	13 α	0	16	0		

b. Families showing (1) dominance of f. proto-cenea to f. hippocoon(ides), (2) autosomal inheritance of f. proto-cenea and (3) probability that proto-cenea and cenea are not allelomorphs.

			Offspring					
Brood no.	Form and origin of mother	Origin of father	Males	proto- cenea females	<i>cenea</i> females	hippo- coon(ides) females		
2624	proto-cenea race polytrophus	race <i>cenea</i> (known not to be carrying f. <i>cenea</i>)	12	3	0 α	5		
2629	hippocoon(ides) (no race poly- trophus in ancestry)	race $poly$ - trophus male β	14	1 γ	3	5		
2913	<i>hh</i> race unknown	race <i>polytrophus</i> 2748 (Table 8)	15	12	0	7		

a Plus one cenea missing and therefore not scorable for proto-cenea. β This male had two cenea, seven proto-cenea and one poultoni sisters. γ This female fluoresced only slightly but was the mother of 2801 which produced proto-cenea in her offspring when mated to a race dardanus male which could not have been carrying the fluorescent form (see Table 6 a).

Allelomorphism: The intensity of fluorescence in the proto-cenea examined by us appeared to depend on how little ("white" cenea) or how much ("brown" cenea) nonfluorescent buff pigment was present. The former fluoresced brilliantly, the latter little or not at all. This masking of the fluorescence by the brown pigment makes the scoring of fluorescence rather unreliable, and this is particularly important when dealing with the question of allelomorphism.

The data quoted by FORD (1936) suggest that proto-cenea and cenea are not allelomorphs since on several occasions hippocoonides females mated to wild males have produced all three forms i.e., proto-cenea, cenea, and hippocoonides, whereas if they were alleles, only two of them could have appeared. Nevertheless, in the wild there is always the possibility that the female has been mated to several males of different genotypes. In the present work this cannot happen, but our data on allelomorphism is scanty. However, in brood 2629 (Table 6b) all three forms appeared, and in brood 2732 (Table 7) a hippocoon(ides) mother produced proto-cenea, cenea and poultoni. Although these broods suggest that proto-cenea and cenea are not allelomorphs, yet because of the scoring difficulty it may be that the results are due to modifiers affecting the amount of buff pigment and that *cenea* and *proto-cenea* are in fact allelomorphic.

F. poultoni

This is an orange butterfly not unlike *niobe*, but less rayed on the hindwing and with a grey or fawn body with black dots (Plate, No. 7). We have obtained two forms, one pale and the other bright orange, and the exact relationship between these is not yet established. However, in the vast majority of cases, the *poultoni* offspring are of the color carried or expressed by the parent, though the occasional exception occurs due possibly to the presence of modifiers (see brood 2732 and 3096, Tables 7 and 8).

Autosomal inheritance of f. poultoni: Broods 2732 and 2750 show that the gene or genes controlling both bright and pale *poultoni* are not sex-linked on the Y chromosome, and broods 2892 and 3075 show that neither is carried on the X. It is therefore clear that the genes responsible for both forms of *poultoni* are carried on an autosome (Table 7).

Dominance relationships: (a) f. pale poultoni: In brood 2750 (Table 7) a female hippocoon(ides) which could not have carried poultoni, mated to a male who

			Offspring								
Brood no.	Form of mother and genotype where known	Origin of father and genotype where known	Males	pale poultoni females	bright <i>poultoni</i> females	r <i>cenea</i> females	ecognizab heterozy gote <i>poultoni</i> , <i>cenea</i> females	le hippo- / coon- (ides) females	yellow hippo- coon- (ides) females	dorip- poides females	
2732	hippocoon(ides)	wild	36	1	17	*16	0	0	0	0	
0.750	hh	(from <i>poultoni</i> mother)			0	0	0	0	0	0	
2750	hippocoon(ides) hh	(from <i>poultoni</i> mother)	37	э	U	U	U	g	U	0	
2892	pale <i>poultoni</i> 2750	(not carrying poultoni) Hch	23	3	0	† 8	6	4	0	0	
3075	bright <i>poultoni</i>	Hyh	11	0	4	0	0	4	3	6	

TABLE 7

Autosomal inheritance of bright and pale poultoni

hh = hippocoon(ides).

nn = nippocoon(ides). $H^{e}h = cenea/hippocoon(ides).$ $H^{y}h = yellow/hippocoonides.$ H^{y} is the allelomorph controlling the male-like pattern (see Part III). * Of these 16 cenea females one showed strong, one slight and ten a trace of fluorescence. Four showed no fluorescence. II were "brown" cenea.

All were "brown" cenea. † Six of these cenea fluoresced and two were missing.

had a *poultoni* mother, (but whether of the bright or pale form is unknown) produced nine *hippocoon(ides)* and five pale *poultoni* females. This shows that pale *poultoni* is dominant to *hippocoon(ides)*. Broods 3300 and 3365 confirm this (Table 8).

(b) f. bright poultoni: Brood 2732 (Table 7) was a mating between a female hippocoon(ides) (which could not have carried poultoni or cenea), to a male whose mother was a wild poultoni of unknown color. The offspring of brood 2732 were 16 cenea, 17 bright poultoni and one pale poultoni female. This shows that the father must have been heterozygous cenea/poultoni (see below, allelomorphism). As no hippocoon(ides) appeared in brood 2732 it is clear that bright poultoni also is dominant to hippocoonides.

When crossed with *cenea* both bright and pale *poultoni* usually form a recognizable heterozygote with *cenea* pattern and *poultoni* coloring $(H^cH^{bp} \text{ or } H^cH^{pp})$, called orange and buff *cenea* respectively)—as also occurs occasionally when both *niobe* and *leighi* are crossed with *cenea*. These *cenea/poultoni* heterozygotes have appeared in broods 2747, 2748 and 2892, (Table 8), and on three occasions when they have been mated to males homozygous for *hippocoon(ides)* their off-spring have segregated for *poultoni* and *cenea* only, (broods 3054, 3055 and 3096, Table 9).

The only evidence which we have regarding *poultoni* and *trophonius* suggests that they, too, form a recognizable heterozygote. Thus, in brood 2927 (Table 9) a hybrid female heterozygous for *trophonius* and the yellow nonmimetic form *antinorii* (from brood 2741, see Part III) when mated to an unknown male, produced one male and one female of *trophonius* pattern and color, but with the white subapical spot replaced by pale orange. Brood 3080 (Table 9) was a mating between this female and a male homozygous for *hippocoon(ides)*, and from it only *trophonius* (13) and pale *poultoni* (15) females were obtained—no other form appearing. Clearly, therefore, the unknown male carried pale *poultoni*, and the mother of brood 3080 was a heterozygote *trophonius*/pale *poultoni*.

The dominance relationships of bright and pale *poultoni* to f. *leighi*, f. *natalica*, f. *planemoides* and f. *niobe* are not yet known.

Allelomorphism (Table 9): In brood 3054 a female pale poultoni/cenea heterozygote 2892 (which can only have received poultoni from her mother and cenea from her father) mated to a male homozygous for hippocoon(ides) produced four cenea females and one bright poultoni female. Brood 3055 was a similar mating (a female 2892 pale poultoni/cenea with an hh male) and this produced eight cenea and three pale poultoni females. Brood 3096 again was between a female pale poultoni/cenea heterozygote 2892 and a male homozygous for hippocoon(ides). This produced one male and one female bright poultoni. Broods 3054, 3055 and 3096, therefore, show that poultoni and cenea are allelomorphs since no hippocoon(ides) females appeared.

Brood 3080 shows that pale *poultoni* and *trophonius* are allelomorphs. In this mating a female 2927, heterozygous for *trophonius* and pale *poultoni* (each form being inherited from a different parent), when mated to a male homozy-

GENETICS OF THE BUTTERFLY

TABLE 8

			Offspring							
Brood no.	Form of mother Origin of father and genotype and genotype where known where known		Males	bright poultoni females	pale poultoni females	i hippo- coonides females	recognizab neterozygo <i>cenea/</i> <i>poultoni</i> females	le te <i>cenea</i> females		
2747	race polytrophus	race polytrophus	4	0	1	0	3	3 α		
	f. cenea H ^c h	from wild <i>poulto</i> mother	ni							
2748	race polytrophus	race polytrophus	9	0	0	0	5	9β		
	f. proto-cenea H ^c h	from wild <i>poulto</i> mother	ni							
2892	race polytrophus	race polytrophus	23	0	3	4	6	8γ		
	pale <i>poultoni</i> 2750 H ^{pp} h	H ^c h								
2006	(see Table 7)	1.1.	4	1	0	0	0	0		
3090	heterozygote cenea/bright poultoni δ 2892	nn	1	1	U		U	U		
3300	pale <i>poultoni</i> 3055 H ^{pp} h	hh	2	0	2	2	0	0		
3365	(see Table 9) pale <i>poultoni</i> 3080 H ^{pp} h (see Table 9)	hh	7	0	8	3	0	0		

Dominance relationship of bright and pale poultoni to hippocoonides and cenea

 $H^{c}h = heterozygous \ cenea/hippocoonides.$

hh = hippocoonides. $H^{pp}h = pale poultoni/hippocoonides.$

a Two proto-cenea and one butterfly missing. β Five proto-cenea, three cenea plus one cenea missing and not scored for proto-cenea.

ix proto-cenea and two butterflies missing. γ Six proto-cenea and two putter β From a pale poultoni mother.

gous for hippocoon(ides) produced 13 trophonius and 15 pale poultoni females. As poultoni has been proved to be an allelomorph of f. trophonius and f. cenea, it follows that it is also an allele of f. leighi and f. natalica. It is also an allelomorph of the yellow nonmimetic forms of races antinorii and meriones (see Part III).

F. dorippoides

There is a form, proto-salaami, occurring both in race polytrophus and occasionally in race meseres, which is similar to the South African salaami except that the black bar between the subapical orange spot and the lower part of the forewing is less distinct. Proto-salaami intergrades on the one hand to f. poultoni where the black bar is complete and on the other to dorippoides where it is

			Offspring							
Brood no.	Form of mother and genotype where known	Origin of father and genotype where known	Males	brigh t poultoni females	pale poultoni females	tro- phonius females	recognizabl heterozygo <i>trophonius</i> pale <i>poultoni</i> females	e ce / females		
2927	trophonius/	Hpph	1	0	0	0	1	0		
	antinorii F ₁ hybrid*									
3054	recognizable heterozygote <i>cenea/poultoni</i> 2892	hh	15	1	0	0	0	4		
3055	(see Tables 7 and 8) recognizable heterozygote <i>cenea/poultoni</i> 2892	hh	10	0	3	0	0	8		
3080	(see Tables 7 and 8) recognizable heterozygote trophonius/pale poultoni	hh	23	0	15	13	0	0		
3096	recognizable heterozygote <i>cenea/poultoni</i> 2892 (see Tables 7 and 8)	hh	1	1	0	0	0	0		

Allelomorphism of poultoni, trophonius and cenea

From brood 2741, see Part III.

hh = hippocoonides. $H^{pp}h = Pale poultoni/hippocoonides.$

absent, and here the forewing, except for the black border, is entirely orange, (Plate, No. 8). Dorippoides received its name because it resembles the model Danais chrysippus dorippus, but FORD (1936) doubts whether it is in fact a mimic.

F. dorippoides appeared in three of our race crosses though in none of them had it occurred in the known ancestry of either parent. In each instance, however, the butterflies inherited the gene controlling either bright or pale *poultoni* from one parent and some part of the antinorii gene complex from the other, and this combination can certainly produce dorippoides. The shade of orange of the *dorippoides* corresponds to that of the bright or pale *poultoni* parent. The matter is dealt with in more detail in Part III. Our synthesis of dorippoides agrees with the hypothesis which we have also put forward below to explain van SOMEREN's data for the same form, referred to under proto-salaami.

GENETICS OF THE BUTTERFLY

F. proto-trophonius (lamborni)

This is a trophonius-like insect but with the subapical spot and part of the orange area of the forewing pale yellow (FORD 1936. Plate 2). It has not appeared in our wild stock but we have on one occasion produced a butterfly resembling it by crossing f. trophonius from South Africa with the nonmimetic race meriones from Madagascar, (discussed in Part III). Though this might suggest that proto-trophonius is a modified trophonius, yet it seems highly probable that the two forms are in fact controlled by different genes because (1) on backcrossing a trophonius from a South African \times polytrophus hybrid to polytrophus for four generations we did not produce proto-trophonius, the orange insect remaining similar to the original trophonius in race polytrophus (Forn 1936). (2) f. trophonius \times f. planemoides give f. niobe, whereas proto-trophonius \times f. planemoides probably give proto-salaami, a less extreme form of f. dorippoides (see VAN SOMEREN's data).

In summary, therefore, the following are the findings in race polytrophus:

(1) Proto-cenea. This is dominant to hippocoon(ides) and either dominant or epistatic to cenea. The data suggest that proto-cenea and cenea are not allelomorphs, but difficulties in scoring the two forms make this conclusion very tentative.

(2) Both bright and pale *poultoni* are dominant to *hippocoon(ides)*.

(3) Both bright and pale *poultoni* usually form a recognizable heterozygote with *cenea*, the insects having the *cenea* pattern and the *poultoni* coloring.

(4) The evidence (from one insect only) suggests that *poultoni* and *tro-phonius* also form a recognizable heterozygote.

(5) F. poultoni, f. cenea and f. trophonius are all allelomorphs, and therefore the gene for poultoni is at the same locus as all the other South African forms. (It is also an allelomorph of the yellow nonmimetic forms of races antinorii and meriones, see Part III).

(6) We have synthesized f. *dorippoides* from parents in whose known ancestry the form has not appeared.

(7) A form resembling f. proto-trophonius (lamborni) has been produced by crossing f. trophonius with f. meriones from Madagascar, but it has been shown that this form in polytrophus is probably controlled by a different gene from that of f. trophonius.

RACE MESERES AND RACE TIBULLUS (VAN SOMEREN'S DATA)

Race *meseres* (also known as the transitional race) is found in Uganda and Tanganyika Territory east of Lake Victoria. Further east it merges with race *polytrophus* and to the west with *dardanus*. It comprises seven forms of female (FORD 1936). Rarely the mimetic pattern is imperfect and when this occurs the prefix *proto*- has been added as in *polytrophus*. Race *tibullus* is found for an uncertain distance north of the Mombasa district and extends southwards to Delagoa Bay. The female forms are similar to those in race *cenea*, (see Part I) but in the northern part of its range where it merges into race polytrophus imperfect mimics are occasionally found.

We have no personal experience of either meseres or tibullus, and we are indebted to DR. VAN SOMEREN who has allowed us to quote his breeding experiments with these two races.

It will be seen from his family S1 in our Table 10 that a female hippocoonides from race tibullus mated to a wild tibullus male produced nine proto-cenea and eight hippocoonides females. Four of these females (one proto-cenea and three *hippocoonides*) were used in race crosses with *meseres* males. It will be seen that the results strongly suggest, but do not prove, that proto-cenea is dominant to *hippocoonides* as the chance of the *meseres* male parent in S3 being heterozygous for proto-cenea is small, the frequency of the form being very low in this race. Because brood S1 contained no female forms other than proto-cenea and hippocoonides (nor did the F_2 , F_3 , or F_4 generations from this family—number

TABLE 1	0
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VAN SOMEREN'S data

				Offspring							
Brood no.	Brood no. and form of female	Origin of male	Males	hippo- coonides females	plane- moides females	<i>leighi</i> females	proto- trophonius females	proto- salaami females	<i>proto-</i> <i>cenea</i> females	~	
S1	h	w	14	8	0	0	0	0	9		
	tibullus	tibullus									
S2	h (S1)	w	6	2	0	1	0	0	0		
	tibullus	meseres									
S 3	p-c (S1)	w	8	1	0	3	0	0	5		
	tibullus	meseres									
S4	h (S1)	w	20	4	6	0	0	0	0		
	tibullus	meseres									
S5	h (S1)	w	20	11	3	0	0	0	0		
	meseres	meseres									
S6	h	w	21	12	0	0	0	0	0		
	meseres	meseres									
S7	p-p	w	6	0	0	0	0	3	0		
	meseres	meseres									
S 8	h (S6)	(S7)	29	0	9	0	10	0	0		
	meseres	meseres									
S 9	p (S8)	(S8)	17	6	8	.0	0	8	0		
	meseres	meseres									
S 10	p-t (S8)	(S8)	6	0	3	0	5	0	0		
	meseres	meseres									
S11	p-t (S10)	(S 10)	10	1	12	0	2	0	0		
	meseres	meseres									
S12	h (S9)	(S9)	3	0	3	0	0	0	0		
	meseres	meseres									

* Brood S1 is pure race tibullus and four subsequent broods from it (not shown in table) have produced nothing but proto-cenea and hippoconides (numbers not given). The males of all the other broods are of race meseres as are the females of broods S6 to S12. h=hippoconides. p=planemoides. l=leighi. p-t=proto-trophonius. p-c=proto-cenea. p-p=proto-planemoides. p-s=proto-salaami. w=wild.

not given by VAN SOMEREN and not shown in Table 10), it is highly probable that the brood was not carrying the genes for *planemoides* or *leighi*. His data (broods S2, S3, S4 and S5), therefore, agree with ours in showing *leighi* dominant to hippocoonides and in addition to this they show that f. planemoides, as it is not sex-linked, is also dominant to *hippocoonides* in these race crosses. In Table 10 it will be found also that within the race *meseres*, a female protoplanemoides, an insect which looks intermediate between f. planemoides and f. *leighi* (Plate, No. 6), mated to a male of unknown constitution produced three proto-salaami females and six males (brood S7). One of these S7 males mated to a hippocoonides produced only proto-trophonius (lamborni) and planemoides (brood S8). Thus, as proto-trophonius is not sex-linked (Ford 1936), it is also dominant to *hippocoonides*, a view fully in agreement with the other broods in the same table. If the genes controlling *planemoides* and *proto-trophonius* are not allelomorphs (though they probably are, see below), then proto-trophonius must be dominant; if it were not it would have appeared among the offspring of brood S9. In other words, the parents of S9 must have both been heterozygous for planemoides and neither can have carried proto-trophonius since none appeared in S9. On the assumption that the two are controlled by independent loci we cannot assume that in this brood proto-salaami is a combination of planemoides and proto-trophonius since no proto-salaami appeared in S8.

VAN SOMEREN's data give useful information about the inheritance of protosalaami. An F₂ generation (brood S9) produced proto-salaami, a form which although present in the female sibs of one male grandparent was not present among the sibs of the parents. This suggests at first sight that proto-salaami is dominant to hippocoonides, as is strongly indicated in Ford's paper, but cannot express itself in the presence of *planemoides* or *proto-trophonius*. However, brood S9 is inconsistent with this view which would necessitate a ratio of 12:3:1 or a 12:2:2 planemoides to proto-salaami to hippocoonides. Moreover, the families in FORD's monograph strongly suggest that proto-salaami is also dominant to proto-trophonius, which is not in accord with the newer data. A less unlikely hypothesis is that in VAN SOMEREN's families proto-salaami is a recessive, and that brood S9 is an example of a 9:4:3 ratio. The other broods do not contradict this hypothesis, if we assume that the male parent of S8 was heterozygous for the gene producing proto-salaami, and that brood S10 resulted from two parents neither of which was carrying the gene. Whatever view we take, it is clear that proto-salaami is genetically controlled in two distinct ways. Firstly, from F mb's paper (1936) and our own results with f. poultoni (a form of proto-salo.m.i) it can be seen that proto-salaami can be inherited as a single unit dominant in effect; secondly, from VAN SOMEREN'S results it is clear that proto-salaami is either a recessive or, more likely, the heterozygote between allelomorphs controlling *planemoides* and *proto-trophonius*. It has often been pointed out that the pattern of *planemoides* is easily derived from that of *leighi*, and in view of the results with f. salaami from South Africa it seems more probable that planemoides and proto-trophonius are allelomorphs at the same locus as those

controlling all the South African forms, and that proto-salaami is the recognizable heterozygote between planemoides and proto-trophonius. Brood S8 is fully consistent with this view if the male parent (and his three female sibs, brood S7) were a heterozygote. On this hypothesis there is, however, a deficiency of proto-trophonius in brood S9 and of proto-salaami in brood S10 and S11. Nevertheless, because there seems to be some deficiency of hippocoonides in broods S10 and S11 combined and particularly of proto-trophonius in brood S11 (even if we assume that the forms are controlled by independent loci), it may be that there was abnormal segregation due to viability effects. This is a likely proposition as VAN SOMEREN reported that the butterflies in brood S11 were particularly undersized, and it is here that there is the notable excess of planemoides and deficiency of proto-trophonius.

In summary, therefore, VAN SOMEREN'S findings are: (1) f. proto-cenea is almost certainly dominant to f. hippocoonides. (2) f. proto-planemoides and f. proto-trophonius are dominant to hippocoonides. (3) f. proto-salaami must be inherited in at least two ways, sometimes as a unit dominant to hippocoonides or sometimes not as a dominant but in all probability as the heterozygote between planemoides and proto-trophonius.

SUMMARY

A genetic investigation into races *dardanus*, *polytrophus*, *meseres* and *tibullus* of *Papilio dardanus*, together with some hybridization experiments between them, has been carried out.

(1) In race *dardanus* it was found that f. *trophonius*, f. *niobe* and f. *plane-moides* were all dominant to f. *hippocoon*, and that *trophonius* and *planemoides* gave a recognizable heterozygote resembling *niobe*. The *cenea/niobe* heterozy-gote was variable and not always distinguishable from *niobe*.

In race *polytrophus*, f. *proto-cenea* was found to be dominant to f. *hippocoon-ides* as were the two forms bright and pale *poultoni*. The last two, however, produced intermediate forms with *cenea* and are *allelomorphic* with this and all the other South African forms. Furthermore, in race *meseres*, a *poultoni*-like form (*proto-salaami*), is sometimes inherited not as a single dominant but probably as the heterozygote between *planemoides* and *proto-trophonius*.

(2) Race crosses show that when the gene complexes are disturbed by hybridization the effects of the genes become far less constant. For example, the mimetic pattern of *cenea* breaks down when the form is hybridized with the West African material where the mimicry does not occur.

(3) Dominance is commoner and more complete between forms that are sympatric as compared with those that are allopatric. This suggests that dominance has been evolved.

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