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1 **Understanding the Chromosomal Evolution in Cuckoos (Aves, Cuculiformes): A Journey Through**
2 **Unusual Rearrangements**

3

4 Rafael Kretschmer^{1,2,*}, orcid 0000-0002-6856-2152
5 Marcelo Santos de Souza³, orcid 0000-0002-2130-6100
6 Ricardo José Gunski³, orcid 0000-0002-7315-0590
7 Analía del Valle Garnero³, orcid 0000-0003-4252-8228
8 Thales Renato Ochotorena de Freitas⁴, orcid 0000-0002-1019-9303
9 Edison Zefa², orcid 0000-0002-0317-7843
10 Gustavo Akira Toma⁵, orcid 0000-0002-8084-1787
11 Marcelo de Bello Cioffi⁵, orcid 0000-0003-4340-1464
12 Edivaldo Herculano Corrêa de Oliveira^{6,7}, orcid 0000-0001-6315-3352
13 Rebecca E. O'Connor¹, orcid 0000-0002-4270-970X
14 Darren K. Griffin¹, orcid 0000-0001-7595-3226
15

16 **1** School of Biosciences, University of Kent, Canterbury, Kent CT2 7NJ, UK; **2** Departamento de Ecologia,
17 Zoologia e Genética, Instituto de Biologia, Universidade Federal de Pelotas, Pelotas 96010-900, RS, Brazil; **3**
18 Laboratório de Diversidade Genética Animal, Universidade Federal do Pampa, São Gabriel, Rio Grande do Sul,
19 97300-162 Brazil; **4** Departamento de Genética, Universidade Federal do Rio Grande do Sul, Porto Alegre, Rio
20 Grande do Sul 91509-900, Brazil; **5** Departamento de Genética e Evolução, Universidade Federal de São Carlos,
21 São Carlos, São Paulo 13565-905, Brazil; **6** Laboratório de Cultura de Tecidos e Citogenética, SAMAM,
22 Instituto Evandro Chagas, Ananindeua, Pará 67030-000, Brazil; **7** Instituto de Ciências Exatas e Naturais,
23 Universidade Federal do Pará, Belém, Pará 66075-110, Brazil.

24 *Correspondence: rafael.kretschmer@ufpel.edu.br

25

26

27 **Abstract**

28 The Cuculiformes are a family of over 150 species that live in a range of habitats, such as forests, savannas, and
29 deserts. Here, bacterial artificial chromosome (BAC) probes (75 from chicken and 14 from zebra finch
30 macrochromosomes 1-10 +ZW and for microchromosomes 11-28 (except 16)) were used to investigate
31 chromosome homologies between chicken and the squirrel cuckoo (*Piaya cayana*). In addition, repetitive DNA
32 probes were applied to characterize the chromosome organization and to explore the role of these sequences in
33 the karyotype evolution of *P. cayana*. We also applied BAC probes for chicken chromosome 17 and Z to the
34 guira cuckoo (*Guira guira*) to test if this species has an unusual Robertsonian translocation between a
35 microchromosome and the Z chromosome, recently described in the smooth-billed ani (*Crotophaga ani*). Our
36 results revealed extensive chromosome reorganization with inter- and intrachromosomal rearrangements in *P.*
37 *cayana*, including a conspicuous chromosome size and heterochromatin polymorphism on chromosome pair 20.
38 Furthermore, we confirmed that the Z-autosome Robertsonian translocation found in *C. ani* is also found in *G.*
39 *guira*, not *P. cayana*. These findings suggest that this translocation occurred prior to the divergence between *C.*
40 *ani* and *G. guira*, but after the divergence with *P. cayana*.

41 **Keywords:** Birds, genome evolution, sex chromosomes, chromosomal rearrangements, heterochromatic
42 polymorphism.

43 **Introduction**

44 Cuculiformes is a group of birds commonly known as cuckoos exhibiting great diversity in morphology,
45 ecology, and behavior (Shufeldt 1901; Payne 1997). There are ~150 species of cuckoos found worldwide (Gill et
46 al. 2023), with a wide range of habitats, including forests, savannas, and deserts (Shufeldt 1901; Payne 1997).
47 Five subfamilies are recognized among cuckoos, Crotophaginae, Neomorphinae, Centropodinae, Couinae, and
48 Cuculinae (Sorenson and Payne 2005) (**Figure 1**). Cuckoos are essential components in many ecosystems, being
49 both predators of insects and other tiny animals as well as food for other birds and mammals and have cultural
50 significance since many traditions and civilizations value their distinctive calls. Little research has hitherto
51 focused on chromosomal studies in these species and most of these used conventional karyotyping methods
52 (Waldrigues and Ferrari 1982; Waldrigues et al. 1983). Despite this, these investigations showed a significant
53 range of karyotypes, with diploid numbers ranging from $2n=64$ in *Crotophaga major* (Crotophaginae)

54 (Waldrigues et al. 1983) to $2n=90$ in *Piaya cayana* (Cuculinae) (dos Santos et al. 2020). Moreover, there have
55 been many differences reported in chromosomal size and morphology, indicating various evolutionary
56 chromosome rearrangements, including inversions, fusions, fissions, and translocations.

57 Molecular cytogenetic data in Cuculiformes are only available for *Guira guira* (Crotophaginae), *P. cayana*, and
58 *Crotophaga ani* (dos Santos et al. 2020; Kretschmer et al. 2021). In *G. guira* and *P. cayana*, whole chromosomal
59 painting probes derived from *Gallus gallus* (GGA) and *Leucopternis albicollis* were used to investigate the
60 conservation of the syntenic groups corresponding to the avian ancestral macrochromosomes (GGA1-10) (dos
61 Santos et al. 2020). This report highlighted fusion events in *G. guira*, bringing the ancestral diploid number
62 down from $2n=80$ to $2n=76$ (dos Santos et al. 2020), however *P. cayana* had more fissions, leading to a higher
63 diploid number ($2n=90$) (dos Santos et al. 2020). Moreover, bacterial artificial chromosome (BAC) probes
64 derived from the macro- and microchromosomes of *G. gallus* were used to examine the karyotype of *C. ani*
65 (Kretschmer et al. 2021). Several fusion events similar to those in *G. guira* were discovered in *C. ani* including a
66 peculiar Robertsonian translocation involving the Z chromosome and the microchromosome pair homologous to
67 *G. gallus* 17 (Kretschmer et al. 2021).

68 Since the discovery was made nearly a century ago, researchers have investigated the possible roles that
69 chromosomal rearrangements may play in adaptation and speciation (Sturtevant 1926, 1938; Dobzhansky 1970;
70 Bogart et al. 2022). Recent research demonstrated the importance of chromosomal rearrangements in promoting
71 local adaptation in several studies (Faria et al. 2019; Wellenreuther et al. 2019; Cayuela et al. 2020). Low levels
72 of recombination caused by chromosomal rearrangements within the affected genomic regions can result in
73 independent evolution, even when the remaining portion of the genome experiences high levels of gene flow
74 (Faria and Navarro 2010; Wellenreuther et al. 2019). Because of this independence, specific traits that are linked
75 to local adaptation can be expressed (Mérot et al. 2018; Westram et al. 2018; Wellband et al. 2019; Cayuela et al.
76 2020).

77 Based on these findings, the initial goal of this work was to investigate the karyotype evolution of *P. cayana*,
78 paying particular attention to intrachromosomal rearrangements in the macrochromosomes and the arrangement
79 of the microchromosomes, aspects that were not explored by dos Santos et al. (2020). To achieve this goal, we
80 mapped chicken BAC probes from chromosomes 1-28 +ZW, as well as probes corresponding to repetitive DNA
81 sequences in the metaphase chromosomes of *P. cayana*. The results were compared with *G. guira* and *C. ani* to

82 highlight the evolutionary trends within cuckoos (or at least the species studied). We also mapped chicken BACs
83 for chromosome 17 in *G. guira* to ask whether the Robertsonian translocation involving this chromosome and
84 the Z chromosome found in *C. ani* is also present in *G. guira*.

85

86 **Material and Methods**

87 ***Specimens and chromosome preparation***

88 This work examined three females *P. cayana* and one male *G. guira* (Table 1). The individuals were captured in
89 their natural habitat between 2014 and 2022 using mist nets. More specifically, two *P. cayana* were obtained
90 from municipality of Santana da Boa Vista, Rio Grande do Sul (RS) State, Brazil, and one from municipality of
91 Porto Vera Cruz (RS, Brazil), while *G. guira* was captured in São Gabriel (RS, Brazil). All experiments
92 performed here were in accordance with the protocols approved by the Ethics Committee on Animal
93 Experimentation of Universidade Federal do Pampa (CEUA number 018/2014) and the System of Authorization
94 and Information in Biodiversity (SISBIO, numbers 33860-1 and 44173-1). Metaphase chromosome spreads were
95 obtained from fibroblast cell cultures, established from skin biopsies according to Furo et al. (2017), or bone
96 marrow direct culture, following Garnero and Gunski (2000). Both methods included a colcemid treatment for an
97 hour, a hypotonic solution (0.075 M KCl, for 15 min), and a fixation step using a 3:1 methanol/acetic acid
98 solution. The cell line derived from the individual from Porto Vera Cruz was cultured up to the fourth passage.
99 At each passage, the diploid number was examined to verify the maintenance of the original chromosome
100 organization.

101

102 ***Diploid number, karyotype description, and chromosome banding***

103 The diploid number and chromosome morphology of *P. cayana* and *G. guira* were determined from the analysis
104 of at least 20 metaphase chromosome spreads for each individual, conventionally stained with Giemsa 10% in
105 0.07 M phosphate buffer at pH 6.8. The chromosome morphology followed Guerra (1986). The G-banding
106 patterns of *P. cayana* chromosomes were obtained with a combination of DAPI and propidium iodide (Joseph et

107 al. 2018). The distribution of constitutive heterochromatic blocks of *P. cayana* was analyzed by C-banding
108 following Summer (1972).

109

110 ***Fluorescence in situ hybridization (FISH)***

111 BAC probes from chicken autosomal chromosomes GGA1-28 (except GGA16) and Z and W sex chromosomes
112 were applied to metaphases of *P. cayana* (**Table S1**). Two BAC probes were selected for chromosomes GGA6-
113 28, while we applied more than two BACs for the first five macrochromosomes (GGA1-5) and the Z
114 chromosome to detect intrachromosomal rearrangements, totaling 78 BAC clones. Only BAC probes from
115 chicken chromosomes 17 and Z were used for *G. guira*. BAC clone isolation, amplification, labeling, and
116 hybridization were performed following O'Connor et al. (2019). FISH results were confirmed by analyzing at
117 least 10 metaphase spreads per experiment.

118 Concerning repetitive DNA probes, seven Oligonucleotides [(CA)₁₅, (CAC)₁₀, (CAG)₁₀, (CGG)₁₀, (GA)₁₅,
119 (GAA)₁₀, and (GAG)₁₀], directly labeled with Cy3 during synthesis (Sigma, St. Louis, MO, USA), were mapped
120 to metaphases of *P. cayana*, according to Kubat et al. (2008). 18S rDNA fragments were obtained by polymerase
121 chain reaction (PCR) as described in Cioffi et al. (2009) and labeled with Spectrum Green-dUTP (Vysis,
122 Downers Grove, IL, USA) by nick translation, according to the manufacturer's recommendations (Roche,
123 Mannheim, Germany). Results were confirmed by analyzing at least 10 metaphase spreads per experiment.

124

125 ***Image acquisition and processing***

126 The BAC FISH images were acquired through a CCD camera paired with the SmartCapture system from Digital
127 Scientific UK, coupled on an Olympus BX61 epifluorescence microscope. Meanwhile, the repetitive DNA FISH
128 images were captured using an Olympus BX50 microscope (Olympus Corporation, Ishikawa, Japan), equipped
129 with CoolSNAP. Final image processing was performed using Adobe Photoshop 7.0.

130

131

132 **Results**

133 Overall, our results confirmed the fissions previously found in *P. cayana* (PCA) by chromosome painting and
134 revealed five intrachromosomal rearrangements in the first five macrochromosomes and in the Z chromosome.
135 Regarding the microchromosomes, no evidence of interchromosomal rearrangements was found. In addition, we
136 noticed a conspicuous chromosome size and heterochromatin polymorphism in one *P. cayana* individual from
137 Santana da Boa Vista and one from Porto Vera Cruz involving the 20th microchromosome pair. The
138 Robertsonian translocation involving the Z chromosome and the microchromosome homologous to GGA 17
139 found in *C. ani* was also confirmed in *G. guira*, indicating a common origin.

140

141 *Diploid number, karyotype description and chromosome banding*

142 *P. cayana* had $2n = 90$, with 13 macrochromosome pairs, including the Z and W sex chromosomes, and 32
143 microchromosome pairs (**Figure 2 A**). Pairs 1, 5, 6, and 10 are telocentric, 2 is submetacentric, 3, 4, and 11 are
144 metacentric, and 7, 8, 9, and 12 are acrocentric. The morphology of the microchromosomes could not defined
145 due their small size. The Z and W are submetacentric and acrocentric respectively. A large acrocentric
146 chromosome, without a homologous chromosome at first glimpse and equivalent in size to pair 5 was found in
147 one *P. cayana* individual from Santana da Boa Vista and one from Porto Vera Cruz. This chromosome was later
148 identified by the FISH results as homologous to PCA chromosome 20 (see below).

149 C-banding revealed heterochromatin in a few autosomes and in the Z chromosome of *P. cayana*. Yet only the W
150 chromosome and the large acrocentric chromosome of the 20th pair had substantial blocks of heterochromatin
151 (**Figure 2 B**). Three potential patterns were established based on the C-banding patterns discovered in this pair:
152 i) homomorphic for small heterochromatic block (**data not shown**), ii) homomorphic for large heterochromatic
153 block (not seen in our data), and iii) heteromorphic condition (**Figure 2 B**).

154

155 *Fluorescence in situ hybridization (FISH) of chicken and zebra finch BAC clones in P. cayana and G. guira*

156 When compared with chicken, three macrochromosomes are split in *P. cayana*: the ancestral avian chromosomes
157 homologous to GGA 1 and 3 are split into two distinct pairs each (PCA1 and PCA6, PCA5 and 10, respectively),

158 while the homologous to GGA 2 split in three pairs (PCA2, PCA13, and PCA15). As compared to chicken, just
159 one fusion involving GGA7 and an unknown microchromosome was found in *P. cayana* (**Figure 2 A**). **Figure 3**
160 displays illustrative FISH pictures. The chromosome mapping of BACs from GGA 1 is shown in **Figure 4**,
161 while the chromosome mapping of BACs from GGA 2-5 and Z is shown in **Figures S1–S5**. Besides, a total of
162 five intrachromosomal rearrangements were found in the macrochromosomes 2, 3, 5, and Z of *P. cayana*
163 (**Figures S1, S2, S4, and S5**).

164 As stated in the karyotype description, two *P. cayana* sampled individuals contained a large acrocentric
165 chromosome that did not initially appear to have a homologous pair (**Figure 2 A**). Interestingly, the BAC probe
166 from chicken chromosome 15 produced a signal in a microchromosome and the terminal region of this
167 chromosome's long arms (**Figure 3 B-E**). In the individuals, without this large acrocentric chromosome, the
168 BAC probe from chicken chromosome 15 produced a signal in a pair of microchromosomes (**Figure S6**).

169 In *G. guira*, the BAC probes from chicken chromosomes Z and 17 revealed the Z-autosome Robertsonian
170 translocation (**Figure S7**), similar to previous findings in *C. ani*.

171

172 *Fluorescence in situ hybridization (FISH) of repetitive sequences in P. cayana*

173 One pair of *P. cayana*'s macrochromosomes contained the 18S rDNA clusters (**Figure 5 A**). We mapped seven
174 repeat motifs to comprehend better the size and heterochromatic polymorphism detected for chromosome 20
175 (**Figure 5 B-H and Table 2**). The majority of these sequences were identified on chromosomes 1, 2, 3, and 5,
176 and the sex chromosomes Z and W (**Figure 5 B-H and Table 2**). Except for the GAG₁₀, which generates signals
177 scattered over all *P. cayana*'s chromosomes, and, surprisingly, none of the repeat motifs employed was found
178 accumulated in PCA20.

179

180 **Discussion**

181 Previous cytogenetic studies on cuckoo species have revealed an interesting karyotype variation in chromosome
182 number and morphology (Waldrigues and Ferrari 1982; Waldrigues et al. 1983; dos Santos et al. 2020),
183 indicating that both inter- (fusion and fission events) and intrachromosomal rearrangements (pericentric

184 inversion and centromere repositions) have played an important role in the chromosome evolution of these
185 species. Our current results are a significant advance in those of dos Santos et al. (2020) who only used
186 macrochromosome paints 1-10+Z, thereby only detecting inter-chromosome rearrangements. Here we map intra-
187 chromosomal rearrangements as well as adding information on nearly three times as many chromosomes (W +
188 the microchromosomes to pair 28). *P. cayana* underwent substantial chromosome reorganization, including
189 intra- and interchromosomal rearrangements involving both macro and microchromosomes. Moreover, as
190 described earlier, pair 20 in two out of three *P. cayana* individuals analyzed here had a noticeable chromosome
191 size and heterochromatic polymorphism. We also described an unusual Z-autosome Robertsonian translocation
192 shared between *G. guira* and *C. ani*. Overall, if these species are reasonably representative, these results have
193 provided new insights into cuckoo species' karyotype and genome evolution.

194 The chromosome number ($2n=90$) and morphology of *P. cayana* are consistent with dos Santos et al. (2020),
195 except for the size and heterochromatic polymorphism found in autosome pair 20 of two individuals analyzed
196 here. Waldrigues et al. (1983) previously described the karyotype with $2n=76$ in seven *P. cayana* specimens. The
197 number and morphology of macrochromosomes are the same, except for the lack of such a polymorphism. These
198 findings suggest that the variation in diploid number discovered by Waldrigues et al. (1983) corresponds to the
199 numbers of microchromosomes, most likely as a result of technical constraints. The fact that the polymorphism
200 discovered here was absent in the subjects of Waldrigues et al. (1983) analysis is a further conclusion.

201 On the W sex chromosome and one of the homologues of PCA 20th pair, heterochromatin accumulation is
202 observed. It is unusual for birds to exhibit heterochromatic polymorphism. For instance, heterochromatic
203 polymorphism has been identified in pair 7 of *C. aura*, where one of the chromosomes contains a larger block of
204 heterochromatin than its homologue (Tagliarini et al. 2009). Moreover, a male of *Cariama cristata* was found to
205 have an unpaired tiny acrocentric chromosome with prominent positive C-banding (Belterman and De Boer
206 1984). Nevertheless, these observations are often restricted to macrochromosomes since it is challenging to
207 detect variations in the amount of heterochromatin in microchromosomes unless the variations are quite large, as
208 in the case of *P. cayana*.

209 Chromosomal polymorphisms have played an important initial role in speciation forming gene flow barriers and
210 subsequent differentiation process (Faria and Navarro 2010; Dobigny et al. 2017; Satou et al. 2021; Galindo et
211 al. 2021). Among animals, several studies detected chromosomal polymorphisms, most of them due to centric

212 fusion/fission and inversions (reviewed in Dobigny et al. 2017). An alternate type of polymorphisms involves
213 the amount, size, and chromosome position of heterochromatic material, such as that found in human
214 chromosome groups D, F, and G, as well as pairs 1, 9, and 16 (Craig-Holmes and Shaw 1971). *P. cayana*
215 appears to exhibit this distinct variety of polymorphism, which was not found in other cuckoo species studies so
216 far (Waldrigues and Ferrari 1982; Waldrigues et al. 1983; dos Santos et al. 2020), including previous studies
217 with *P. cayana* individuals (dos Santos et al. 2020). We suggest that chromosome 20's polymorphism and
218 variable heterochromatin pattern is most likely caused by the addition of heterochromatic sequences since there
219 is a clear increase in chromosomal size while the distal euchromatic region in the long arms has a size similar to
220 its homolog (**Figure 2 A**).

221 As has previously been hypothesized for humans, the most plausible source of the heterochromatin variations is
222 via uneven crossing-over in the tandemly repeated sequences (Craig-Holmes and Shaw 1971). Interestingly, the
223 larger element of pair 20 did not contain any of the repeat motifs we employed in our experiments. According to
224 Schueler and Sullivan (2006) and Eymery et al. (2009), constitutive heterochromatin often correlates to gene-
225 poor regions that include tandem repeats of satellites, minisatellites, microsatellites, and transposable elements
226 (Charlesworth et al. 1994; López-Flores and Garrido-Ramos 2012). Tandem repeating sequences are vital to the
227 evolution of animal genomes, for instance, Ruiz-Herrera et al. (2006) provided evidence that chromosomal
228 rearrangements have driven the evolution of the mammalian genome at fragile sites, composed of tandem
229 repetitive sequences. Recently, we showed that heterochromatic chromosomes in birds, like the W sex
230 chromosomes, feature microsatellites motifs that have been amplified significantly (Furo et al. 2017; Kretschmer
231 et al. 2018; Gunski et al. 2019; de Souza et al. 2021). Many repetitive sequences, including transposable
232 elements, are likely what invaded one of the chromosomes of the pair 20 of *P. cayana*. However, future studies
233 are necessary to test this hypothesis.

234 Previously, whole chromosome painting with chicken and white hawk probes, have been carried out on the
235 chromosomes of *G. guira* and *P. cayana* (dos Santos et al. 2020). According to this research, the karyotype
236 evolution of these groups has been significantly influenced by chromosomal rearrangements involving both
237 macro- and microchromosomes (dos Santos et al. 2020). Using BAC-FISH, we were able to corroborate the
238 fissions previously discovered in *P. cayana* (dos Santos et al. 2020). Regarding the microchromosomes, there
239 was no evidence of chromosomal rearrangement involving the chicken microchromosome pairs 11-28 (except

240 16) in *P. cayana*. Moreover, the gap observed here and by dos Santos et al. (2020) in pair 7 of *P. cayana* was not
241 covered by the microchromosomes tested in our analysis, indicating that any of the chicken microchromosomes
242 not used in this study (pairs 29-38 or 16) may have fused to this chromosome.

243 Cuckoo species exhibit uncommon rearrangements, such as a translocation between the Z chromosome and
244 microchromosome 17 in *C. ani* (Kretschmer et al. 2021). In *G. guira*, this translocation was also discovered.
245 Nevertheless, it had not been identified in *P. cayana*. Our findings suggested that this rearrangement happened,
246 at the very least, in the two species' most recent common ancestor. As these species share the subfamily
247 Crotophaginae (Sorenson and Payne 2005), it is likely that other members of this subfamily also exhibit this
248 translocation. Recent studies also described the occurrence of Z-autosome translocation in some species of
249 Sylvioidea, a songbird group that includes the warblers, thrushes, and babblers (Pala et al. 2012; Sigeman et al.
250 2019; Sigeman et al. 2020; Dierickx et al. 2020; Sigeman et al. 2022), and in parrots (Huang et al. 2021). Hence,
251 contrary to what was presumed, the avian ZW sex chromosome system is not exceptionally stable (Nanda and
252 Schmid 2002; Nanda et al. 2008).

253 Taken together, the results of our cytogenetic analysis show that the mechanism of chromosomal evolution in
254 cuckoo species involved fissions, fusions, inversions, and accumulation of repetitive sequences, which resulted
255 in unusual rearrangements like Z-autosome Robertsonian translocation and a substantial amount of
256 heterochromatic polymorphism.

257 **Acknowledgements**

258 The authors would like to thank the Sistema de Autorização e Informação em Biodiversidade (SISBIO) for the
259 authorization to sampling of specimens studied in this manuscript. We would also like to thank all our colleagues
260 at the Laboratório de Citogenômica e Mutagenese Ambiental of Instituto Evandro Chagas (PA, Brazil) and
261 Laboratório de Diversidade Genética Animal of Universidade Federal do Pampa (RS, Brazil) for their support to
262 collect and to perform the cell culture of the species analyzed in this study.

263

264 **Data availability**

265 All data generated or analyzed during this study are included in this published article or supplementary files.

266

267 **Author contribution**

268 Conceptualization: RK, DKG

269 Data curation: RK, MSS, GAT

270 Formal analysis: RK, MSS, GAT

271 Funding acquisition: RK, DKG, ADG, RJG, MBC

272 Investigation: RK, EZ, TROF, EHCO, MSS, GAT, ADG, RJG, MBC

273 Methodology: RK, MSS, GAT, REO

274 Project administration: RK, DKG

275 Resources: ADG, RJG, TROF, MBC, EHCO, REO, DKG

276 Supervision: DKG

277 Validation: RK, MSS, GAT

278 Visualization: RK, MSS, GAT

279 Writing – original draft: RK

280 Writing – review & editing: RK, MSS, GAT, EZ, TROF, ADVG, RJG, MBC, EHCO, DKG

281

282 **Competing interests**

283 The authors declare no conflict of interest.

284

285 **Funding information**

286 This study was supported by Conselho Nacional de Desenvolvimento Científico e Tecnológico (CNPq, Proc.
287 PDE 204792/2018-5 to Rafael Kretschmer, Proc. 407285/2021-0 to Analía del Valle Garnero, and Proc.
288 304781/2022-3 to Edivaldo Herculano C. de Oliveira) and the Biotechnology and Biological Sciences Research
289 Council UK (BB/K008226/1).

290

291 **Ethics approval**

292 The experiments followed protocols approved by the ethics committee from Universidade Federal do Pampa (no.
293 018/2014). The specimens were collected with permissions from Sistema de Autorização e Informação em
294 Biodiversidade (SISBIO 33860-1 and 44173-1).

295

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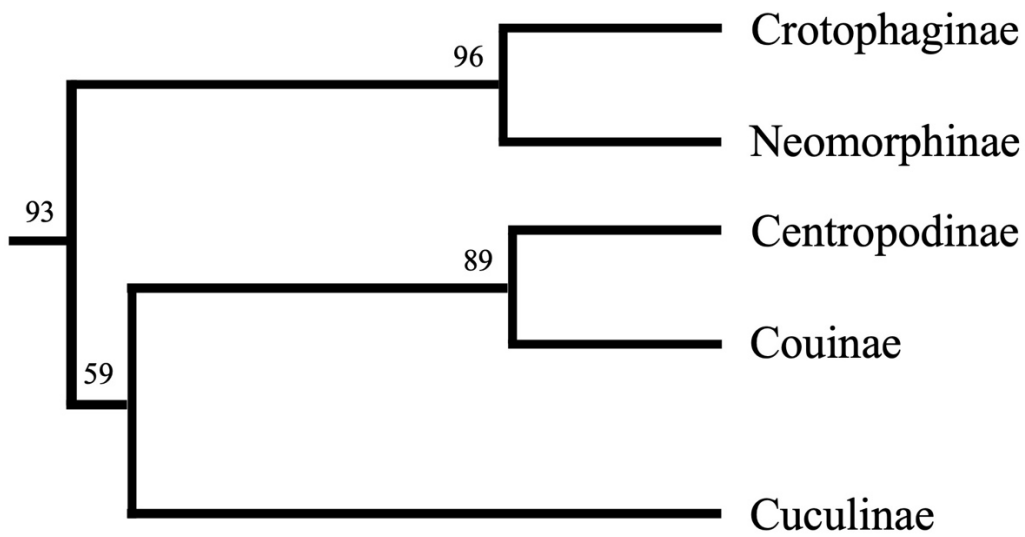
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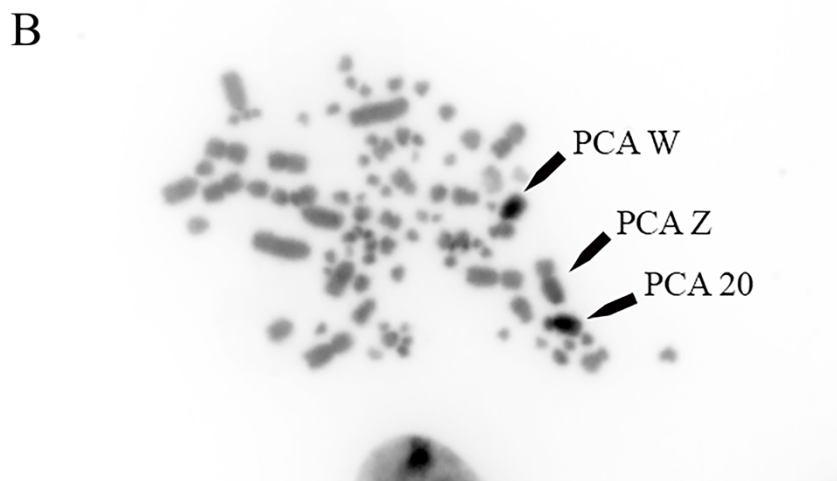
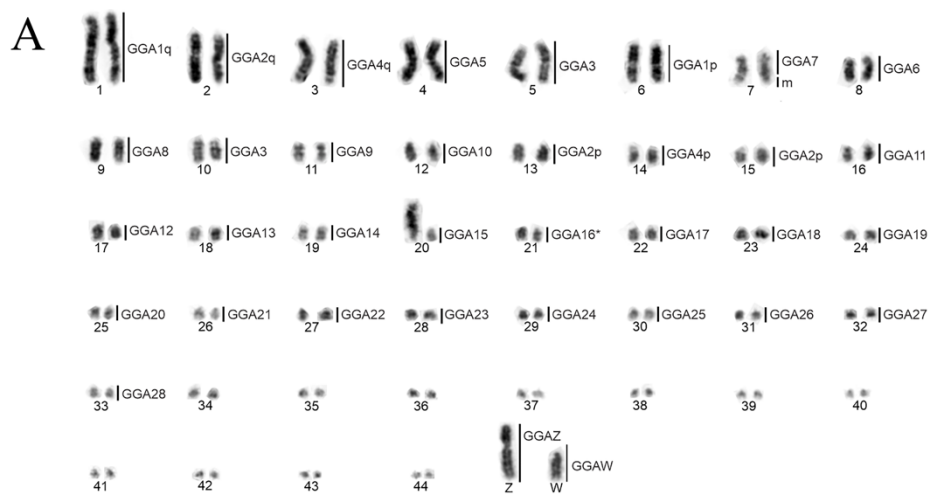
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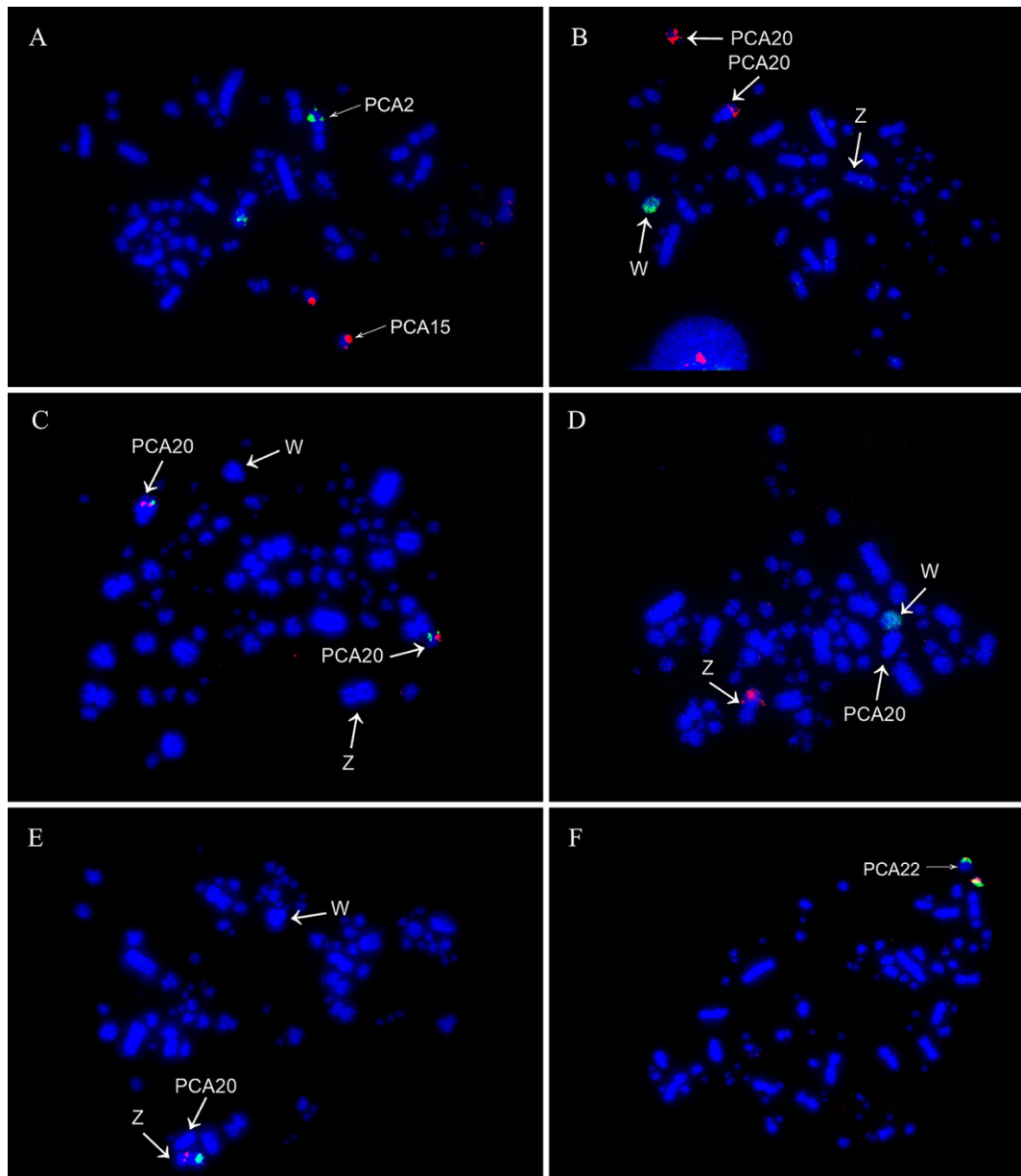


415
 416 **Figure 1** – Phylogeny of the five subfamilies among cuckoos. Bootstrap values are shown above each node. The
 417 phylogeny was adapted from Sorenson and Payne (2005).



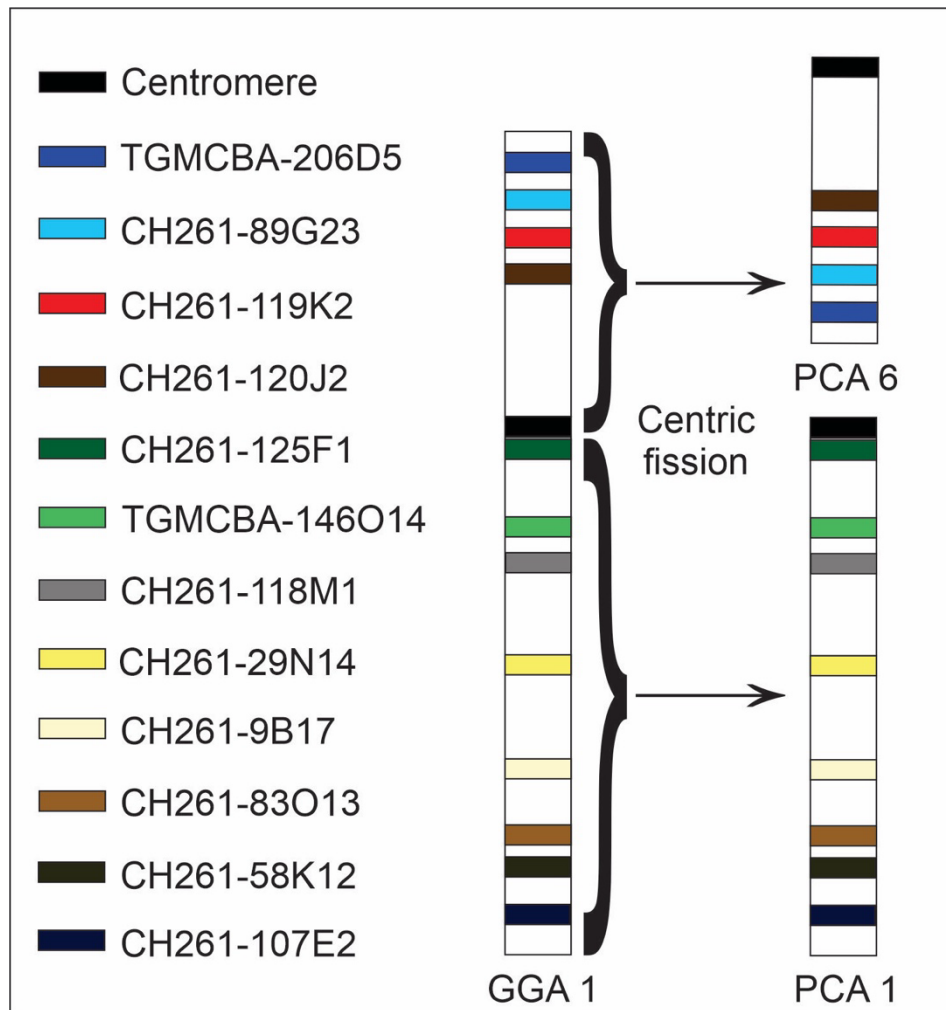
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419 **Figure 2** – Characterization of a female *Piaya cayana* (PCA) karyotype by classical cytogenetics: A) G-banded
 420 karyotype with polymorphism in the 20th autosome pair (PCA 20). On the right of each chromosome pair is a
 421 representation of the homology maps with *Gallus gallus* (GGA); B) C-banded metaphase. The PCA 20, the Z
 422 and W sex chromosomes are indicated by arrows. Using C-banding, the homologous microchromosome 20
 423 could not be located.



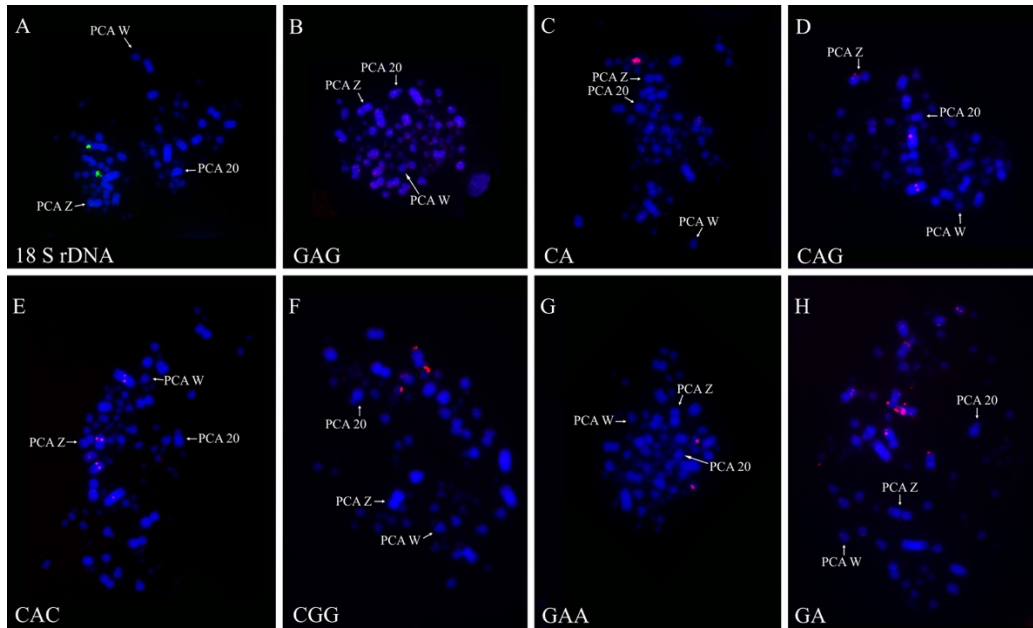
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425 **Figure 3** - Examples of FISH investigations in *Piaya Cayana* (PCA) using chicken (CH261) or zebra finch
 426 (TGMCB) BAC probes: A) Macrochromosome 2 CH261-123O22 Texas Red and CH261-44H14 FITC; B)
 427 chicken microchromosome 15 CH261-90P23 Texas Red and chromosome W CH261- 94E12 FITC; C) chicken
 428 microchromosome 15 CH261-90P23 Texas Red and TGMCB-266G23 FITC; D) chicken chromosome Z
 429 CH261-129A16 Texas Red and chromosome W CH261- 94E12 FITC; E) chicken chromosome Z CH261-
 430 129A16 FITC and CH261-133M4 Texas Red; F) Microchromosome 17 TGMCB-37515 Texas Red and
 431 CH261-42P16 FITC.



432

433 **Figure 4** – Schematization of the chromosomal localization of the zebra finch (TGMCBA) and chicken (CH261)
 434 BACs that are homologous to chicken chromosome 1 (GGA1) employed in our investigation. The colors
 435 represent the selected BACs and centromeres. The detected chromosomal rearrangements are indicated by the
 436 brackets. PCA1 and PCA 6 were produced by centric fission in *Piaya cayana* (PCA).



437

438 **Figure 5** - Representative examples of FISH experiments using different repeat motif in *P. cayana* (PCA). The
 439 arrows point to Z and W sex chromosomes and chromosome 20 with a large accumulation of heterochromatin.

440

441 Table 1 - Specimen information and chromosome preparation protocols used in this study.

Individuals	Sex	Location	Chromosome preparation protocol
<i>Piaya cayana</i> 1	Female	Porto Vera Cruz - RS, Brazil	Fibroblast cell culture
<i>Piaya cayana</i> 2	Female	Santana da Boa Vista - RS, Brazil	Bone marrow direct culture
<i>Piaya cayana</i> 3	Female	Santana da Boa Vista - RS, Brazil	Bone marrow direct culture
<i>Guira guira</i>	Male	São Gabriel - RS, Brazil	Bone marrow direct culture

442 RS = Rio Grande do Sul State.

443

444 **Table 2** - Hybridization of microsatellite sequences in *Piaya cayana*.

Repeat motif	Pattern of Hybridization
(CA) ₁₅	Zq and Wq, weak signals in some microchromosomes
(CAC) ₁₀	Interstitial region in 1q, 5q, weak in Zq and Wq
(CAG) ₁₀	Interstitial region in 1q and in Zq

(CGG) ₁₀	One pair of microchromosomes and terminal region in Zq
(GA) ₁₅	Interstitial and telomeric region in 2q, telomeric region of 2, and telomeric region of 3p, weak signals in some microchromosomes
(GAA) ₁₀	Centromeric region of chromosome 11
(GAG) ₁₀	Dispersed in all chromosomes

445

446

447