

Hill-Robertson Interference Reduced Genetic Diversity on a Young Plant Y-chromosome

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ABSTRACT X and Y chromosomes differ in effective population size (N_e), rates of recombination, and exposure to natural selection, all of which can affect patterns of genetic diversity. On Y chromosomes with suppressed recombination, natural selection is expected to eliminate linked neutral variation and lower the N_e of Y compared to X chromosomes or autosomes. However, female-biased sex ratios and high variance in male reproductive success can also reduce Y-linked N_e , making it difficult to infer the causes of low Y-diversity. Here, we investigate the factors affecting levels of polymorphism during sex chromosome evolution in the dioecious plant *Rumex hastatus* (Polygonaceae). Strikingly, we find that neutral diversity for genes on the Y chromosome is on average 2.1% of the value for their X-linked homologues, corresponding to a chromosome-wide reduction of 93% compared to the standard neutral expectation. We demonstrate that the magnitude of this diversity loss is inconsistent with reduced male N_e caused by neutral processes. Instead, using forward simulations and estimates of the fitness effects of deleterious mutations, we show that Y chromosome diversity loss can be explained by purifying selection on a large number (≥ 800 kb) of genetically-linked sites. Our results are in agreement with theory on interference selection, and provide evidence that this can considerably reduce levels of polymorphism on a young plant Y chromosome. Given the relatively recent origin of *R. hastatus* sex chromosomes, our results imply that Y-chromosome degeneration in the early stages may be largely driven by such interference effects rather than by widespread gene silencing followed by neutral genetic drift.

KEYWORDS Nucleotide Diversity; Suppressed Recombination; Deleterious Mutations; Interference Selection

Introduction

Morphologically distinct sex chromosomes have evolved multiple times independently in both plants and animals (Westergaard 1958; Ohno 1967; Bull 1983; Charlesworth 1991, 2015). Despite clear biological differences between these kingdoms, X and Y chromosomes in both lineages have undergone similar genetic changes. In both groups, the loss of recombination between X and Y chromosomes is associated with an accumulation of deleterious mutations and a gradual loss of functional genes from the Y chromosome (Hough *et al.* 2014; Bergero *et al.* 2015; Bachtrog 2013), and in some species, such genetic deterioration has also led to the evolution of dosage compensation on the X chromosome (Charlesworth 1996b; Muyle *et al.* 2012; Mank 2013; Papadopoulos *et al.* 2015). The independent evolution

of these phenomena in such taxonomically distant groups as mammals and flowering plants suggests that general evolutionary mechanisms may be involved, but inferring the causes of molecular evolution and patterns of polymorphism in genomic regions that lack recombination is a longstanding challenge for both theoretical and experimental biologists (Charlesworth 1978; Feldman *et al.* 1980; Barton 1995; Charlesworth 1996b; Otto and Feldman 1997; Charlesworth and Charlesworth 2000; McVean and Charlesworth 2000a).

One fundamental difference between X and Y chromosomes is that there are 1/3 as many Y-linked gene copies as X-linked ones in a diploid population. Therefore, genes on the Y chromosome are expected to experience an effective population size (N_e) that is 1/4 that of autosomal genes, and 1/3 that of X-linked genes (assuming an equal number of reproducing females and males). The lowered N_e of the Y chromosome implies that the level of neutral polymorphism maintained at equilibrium, proportional to the product of N_e and the neutral mutation rate, μ , should be lower for Y-linked genes than for their X-linked

50 counterparts. In the absence of recombination, genes on the Y chromosome are also expected to be in strong linkage disequilibrium, making them vulnerable to diversity loss due to 51 selection against strongly deleterious mutations (background selection; Charlesworth *et al.* 1993) and selective sweeps of strongly 52 beneficial mutations (genetic hitchhiking; Maynard Smith and 53 Haigh 1974). Furthermore, the build-up of genetic associations 54 among selected mutations (fitness covariance) on the Y means 55 that selection will act non-independently across the chromosome, 56 such that selection at a focal site may "interfere" with 57 selection at linked sites (Hill and Robertson 1966). A large body 58 of work has now shown that such "selective interference" effects 59 are expected to reduce both the efficacy of selection and 60 the equilibrium level of neutral variability (Fisher 1930; Muller 61 1964; Hill and Robertson 1966; McVean and Charlesworth 2000b; 62 Kaiser and Charlesworth 2009; Good *et al.* 2014), with the magnitude 63 of the effect depending on the number and density of sites 64 experiencing selection. These arguments all suggest that large 65 non-recombining Y chromosomes with many linked selected 66 sites should harbor a lower amount of neutral variability than 67 predicted based on the number of Y chromosomes in a population 68 (1/4 that of autosomes). However, the relative importance 69 of neutral and selective factors for reducing chromosome-wide 70 levels of diversity is not well understood.

71 In addition to reduced diversity arising from selection, in 72 species with female-biased sex ratios or extensive male-male 73 competition, high variance in male reproductive success is 74 also expected to reduce the N_e experienced by genes on the 75 Y chromosome (Caballero 1995; Charlesworth 2001; Laporte and 76 Charlesworth 2002; Pool and Nielsen 2007; Ellegren 2009), sug- 77 gesting that inferences about the effects of selection need to be 78 distinguished from these neutral processes. Because variance 79 in male reproductive success differentially affects the N_e of X, Y, 80 and autosomal chromosomes (Kimura and Crow 1964; Nomura 81 2002), evidence for this can be obtained by comparing levels of 82 silent site variability on X and Y chromosome, relative to values 83 on autosomes. For example, variance in male reproductive 84 success reduces male N_e , which reduces the Y/A diversity ratio 85 relative to the neutral expectation (1/4), but also causes an 86 increase in the X/A ratio. Based on such comparisons, studies 87 in humans, for example, have suggested that the observation of 88 an inflated X/A ratio can be explained by a historical excess of 89 breeding females compared to males (Hammer *et al.* 2008; but 90 see Bustamante and Ramachandran 2009; Hammer *et al.* 2010; 91 Cotter *et al.* 2016).

92 Despite widespread interest in determining the evolutionary 93 factors that affect neutral diversity on sex chromosomes (Elle- 94 gen 2011; Bachtrog 2013), we still know very little about how 95 sex ratio variation or selective processes have affected levels of 96 diversity on more recently evolved sex chromosomes. The time 97 scales over which these processes are likely to be important are 98 therefore not well understood. In humans, estimates of silent 99 site diversity on the Y are considerably lower than predicted 100 under neutral evolutionary models, and simulations suggest 101 that observed levels of diversity are consistent with strong puri- 102 fying selection (Wilson Sayres *et al.* 2014). However, given that 103 human sex chromosomes evolved from autosomes ~200 million 104 years ago (Lahn and Page 1999a; Ross *et al.* 2005), it is not clear 105 whether purifying selection might have had a similarly strong 106 effect on Y chromosomes that evolved *de novo* from autosomes 107 much more recently (e.g., within the last ~20 MYA in the case of 108 dioecious plants; Charlesworth 2015).

109 Simulations of strong selection models (background selection 110 and genetic hitchhiking) suggest that these processes may have 111 the greatest effects during the earliest stages of sex chromosome 112 evolution, before the Y has lost many of its genes (Bachtrog 2008). 113 Moreover, theory suggests that even weak purifying selection, 114 when aggregated over a large number of genetically-linked sites, 115 can generate strong deviations from neutrality, whereas classic 116 background selection theory breaks down in such cases (McVean 117 and Charlesworth 2000b; Comeron and Kretzman 2002; Kaiser 118 and Charlesworth 2009; Good *et al.* 2014). Given that a large 119 number of selected sites are likely to be in linkage disequilibrium 120 on a recently evolved Y chromosome, such "interference 121 selection" *sensu* Good *et al.* 2014 is *a priori* likely to be a strong 122 force affecting the evolution of young plant sex chromosomes. 123 However, if there has been widespread gene silencing during 124 the early stages of Y-chromosome evolution, as in *Drosophila al- 125 bomicans*, for example (Zhou and Bachtrog 2012), then diversity 126 loss might be expected to be lower on younger Y chromosomes. 127 That is, if Y-linked gene silencing occurs early during sex chro- 128 mosome evolution, then few sites may be under selection, and Y 129 chromosome degeneration may be driven primarily by neutral 130 genetic drift rather than inefficient selection. Understanding 131 the relative importance of selection and neutral drift during Y 132 chromosome evolution is therefore a major open issue.

133 To investigate the factors affecting nucleotide diversity in the 134 early stages of sex chromosome evolution, we analyzed neutral 135 polymorphism levels on X, Y, and autosomal chromosomes in 136 the plant *Rumex hastatus* (Polygonaceae). This species is a dioecious 137 annual with heteromorphic X and Y chromosomes that originated ~15 MYA (Quesada del Bosque *et al.* 2011; Grabowska- 138 Joachimiak *et al.* 2015; Navajas-Pérez *et al.* 2005), making Y chro- 139 mosomes in this species over 100 million years younger than the 140 highly degenerated Y chromosomes in mammals (Lahn and 141 Page 1999b; Ross *et al.* 2005). *Rumex hastatus* has also received 142 particular attention because of the occurrence of an interesting 143 polymorphism in sex chromosome system, in which both XY 144 and XY₁Y₂ male genotypes occur in geographically distinct pop- 145ulations (so-called "chromosomal races"; Smith 1963). The de- 146 rived XY₁Y₂ sex chromosome system in this species is thought to 147 have originated through an X-autosome fusion, with the current 148 XY system maintaining the ancestral chromosome complement 149 (Smith 1964). Interestingly, despite the recent origin of sex chro- 150 mosomes in both races, there is evidence that both the ancestral 151 and neo-Y-chromosomes have undergone gene loss and func- 152 tional deterioration (Hough *et al.* 2014). Here, to simplify our 153 comparison of polymorphism levels on X, Y, and autosomes, 154 and to ensure that our diversity estimates are not biased by non- 155 equilibrium conditions arising from the X-autosome fusion, we 156 focus only on the XY system with the ancestral chromosome 157 complement.

158 Of particular relevance to our study, *R. hastatus* populations 159 have been found to exhibit female-biased reproductive sex 160 ratios, with a mean sex ratio of ≈ 0.6 (Pickup and Barrett 2013). 161 Indeed, the occurrence of female-biased sex ratios in dioecious 162 flowering plants has been found to be more common in species 163 with heteromorphic X and Y chromosomes than in those with 164 monomorphic sex chromosomes (Field *et al.* 2013; Hough *et al.* 165 2013). In *R. hastatus*, the availability of field measurements 166 of sex ratio variation thus provides an opportunity to test both 167 neutral and selective models of Y-chromosome diversity loss 168 during sex chromosome evolution.

173 **Materials and Methods**174 **Population Samples and Sex-Linked Genes**

175 We analyzed sex-linked and autosomal genes identified from
 176 Illumina RNA sequence data from 12 population samples (1
 177 male and 1 female from each of 6 populations). Samples were
 178 collected in 2010 from throughout the native range of the Texas
 179 chromosome race *R. hastatulus* (locations in Table S1), and plants
 180 were grown in the glasshouse at the University of Toronto
 181 from seeds collected from open-pollinated females. We ex-
 182 tracted RNA from leaf tissue using Spectrum Plant Total RNA
 183 kits (Sigma-Aldrich). Isolation of mRNA and cDNA synthesis
 184 was conducted according to standard Illumina RNAseq proce-
 185 dures, and sequencing was conducted on two Illumina HiSeq
 186 lanes with 150-bp end reads at the Genome Quebec Innova-
 187 tion Center. Reads from these samples were mapped to the
 188 *R. hastatulus* reference transcriptome (Hough *et al.* 2014) us-
 189 ing the Burrows-Wheeler Aligner (Li and Durbin 2010), fol-
 190 lowed by Stampy (Lunter and Goodson 2011). We used Picard
 191 tools (<http://picard.sourceforge.net>) to process mapping align-
 192 ments for the Genome Analysis Toolkit variant calling software
 193 (McKenna *et al.* 2010), and subsequently removed genes with low
 194 coverage (<10x) and low Phred Quality Scores <20. The RNAseq
 195 data from these population samples were previously reported
 196 in Hough *et al.* (2014), where they were used to validate the as-
 197 certainment of sex-linked genes identified through segregation
 198 analysis, and raw sequences are available from the GenBank
 199 Short Read Archive under accession no. SRP041588. Here, to
 200 focus on sex-linked genes likely to be relatively older and closer
 201 to equilibrium, we focused on the previously described set of
 202 460 X/Y genes for which a Y homolog was found in both races
 203 (i.e., X/Y genes where the Y copy was inferred to be on the Y₁
 204 chromosome).

205 **Autosomal Genes**

206 In evaluating evidence for nucleotide diversity differences be-
 207 tween X and Y chromosomes, it is important to distinguish
 208 between reduced Y-linked diversity, and the possibility that X-
 209 linked diversity is elevated above the level predicted from a
 210 neutral model. To do this, we normalized our sex-linked diver-
 211 sity estimates by autosomal diversity, and compared empirical
 212 X/A and Y/A nucleotide diversity ratios to those predicted
 213 from neutral models and from simulations (described below).
 214 Because the criteria for ascertaining autosomal loci in Hough
 215 *et al.* (2014) were based on identifying four segregating SNPs
 216 per locus, and since this set of genes is likely to be higher in
 217 diversity than the average autosomal gene, here we instead used
 218 the larger set of all non-sex linked (putatively autosomal) genes
 219 as our autosomal reference. We filtered genes in this set to re-
 220 move any genes that may have been sex-linked but were not
 221 identified as such by Hough et al.'s conservative ascertainment
 222 criteria. In particular, we removed: (i) any genes in which there
 223 was evidence for at least one SNP with a sex-linked segregation
 224 pattern, (ii) any genes where SNPs showed fixed heterozygosity
 225 in males and fixed homozygosity in females, (iii) genes with
 226 less than 10X coverage or greater than 100X coverage from in-
 227 dependently obtained genomic coverage data (Beaudry *et al.*,
 228 in prep), to filter out duplicates or genes with highly repetitive
 229 sequences, and (iv) any genes containing SNPs with large (>0.4)
 230 allele frequency differences between males and females. Finally,
 231 we removed genes with fewer than 100 filtered synonymous
 232 sites to avoid biasing our results toward genes that may have
 233 been particularly short due to assembly problems. This filtering

234 resulted in a final set of 12,356 autosomal genes.

235 **Phasing X and Y alleles**

236 To estimate polymorphism for X and Y sequences separately in
 237 males, it is necessary to infer the phase of SNPs in sex-linked
 238 transcripts. In previous work, phasing alleles on *R. hastatulus*
 239 sex chromosomes was achieved using segregation analysis from
 240 a genetic cross. Here, to phase SNPs from population samples
 241 where such segregation data was unavailable, we used HAP-
 242 CUT (Bansal and Bafna 2008), a maximum-cut based algorithm
 243 that reconstructs haplotypes using sequenced fragments (Illum-
 244 ina read data) from the two homologous chromosomes to
 245 output a list of phased haplotype blocks containing the poly-
 246 morphic variants on each chromosome. Because the resulting
 247 haplotype blocks produced by HAPCUT contained SNPs that
 248 were phased relative to each other, but not designated to either
 249 the X or Y chromosome, we assigned individual variants to X
 250 or Y by independently identifying fixed X-Y differences within
 251 each haplotype block (i.e., sites where all females were homozy-
 252 gous, and all males were heterozygous). Identifying such fixed
 253 differences within phased haplotype blocks enabled us to then
 254 infer the correct phase (X or Y) of the polymorphisms from HAP-
 255 CUT's output. In particular, this was done by matching the
 256 phase of fixed X-Y differences with neighboring polymorphic
 257 sites: when a fixed X-Y difference occurred in the same phased
 258 haplotype block as a polymorphic site, then the variants in that
 259 block were assigned to either X or Y based on the known phase
 260 of the fixed difference with which they were matched. SNPs that
 261 were identified outside of phased blocks, or in blocks without
 262 fixed X-Y differences, were recorded as missing data. Finally,
 263 we filtered out SNPs with quality scores < 60, and those within
 264 a distance of 10bp or less from indels. This filtering procedure
 265 resulted in alignments of X and Y sequences for 372 sex-linked
 266 genes.

267 We further validated the results of HAPCUT's allele phasing
 268 by comparing the accuracy of this method with the phasing-by-
 269 segregation method that was conducted in Hough *et al.* (2014).
 270 To do this, we first phased the sequence data from parents and
 271 their progeny using HAPCUT's algorithm (using the same pa-
 272 rameters as for the population data), and then identified cases
 273 where SNPs were inferred on the Y chromosome by HAPCUT,
 274 but where the true level of polymorphism, indicated by the
 275 genetic cross, was zero. We identified 7% of sex-linked genes
 276 that either had phasing errors or genotyping errors. This cor-
 277 responds to a SNP error rate estimate of 1.7×10^{-4} . Note that
 278 this rate is very low relative to population-based estimates of
 279 polymorphism on the X and autosomes (Table 1), and therefore
 280 should have minimal effects on our estimation of the X/A ratio.
 281 However, because this rate is high relative to the expected level
 282 of polymorphism on the Y chromosome, we conducted a further
 283 filtering step for Y-linked SNPs and identified false positive SNP
 284 calls arising from: (i) phasing errors caused by gene duplicates
 285 (more than two haplotypes), (ii) polymorphisms around indels,
 286 and (iii) genotyping errors caused by low Y-expression. This
 287 final filtering was conducted by manually checking each indi-
 288 vidual putative polymorphism on the Y chromosome using IGV
 289 (Robinson *et al.* 2011).

290 **Estimating nucleotide diversity on sex chromosomes and au-
 291 tosomes**

292 For each locus in our analysis, we calculated Watterson's (1975)
 293 estimator of the population parameter $\theta = 4N_e\mu$, where N_e is

the diploid effective population size, and μ is the per-base mutation rate per-generation, using a modified version of the Perl program Polymorphurama (Bachtrog and Andolfatto 2006). To compare sex-linked and autosomal loci, we calculated the average value of θ for each chromosome type, weighted by the number of synonymous sites in each gene (Figure 2). We obtained 95% confidence intervals for X/A and Y/A ratios by bootstrapping per gene using the BCa method (Efron and Tibshirani 1994) implemented in the Boot package in R (Canty and Ripley 2012), and calculating X/A and Y/A on each iteration for 20000 replicates each. Bootstrapping was conducted on the final filtered set of 173 sex-linked, and 12355 autosomal genes.

Note that the lack of recombination on the Y chromosome implies that statistical assumptions about independence across loci are violated, suggesting that the true uncertainty in the Y/A estimate may be wider than implied by bootstrapping. To address this, we also used a maximum likelihood approach (Wright and Charlesworth 2004) to independently estimate a credibility interval for the Y/A ratio (Figure S1). Because of the thousands of genes involved, a likelihood method incorporating divergence to control for heterogeneity in mutation rate was not feasible, as this would require maximizing the likelihood estimate of the mutation rate for each locus independently. However, previous analysis of divergence data does not suggest important chromosomal differences in synonymous divergence contributing to diversity heterogeneity (see Results). Therefore, we assumed no heterogeneity in mutation rate, no recombination between Y-linked genes, and free recombination between autosomal loci. Our model thus had two parameters: θ_{aut} , our estimate of Watterson's theta for autosomal genes, and f , the ratio of effective population size of the Y chromosome to autosomes. We varied both parameters and evaluated the likelihood for f from 0.001 to 1, and θ_{aut} per base pair from 0.001 to 0.01. In particular, we evaluated the likelihood of θ_{aut} and f , given (1) the observed number of synonymous segregating sites for each i of n autosomal loci (S_i), (2) the number of segregating sites on the Y chromosome (S_y), and (3) the total number of sites per locus (L_i and L_y). The likelihood of (θ_{aut}, f) is given by:

$$L \propto P(S_Y, L_Y | f, \theta_{aut}) \prod_{i=1}^n P(S_i, L_i | \theta_{aut}) \quad (1)$$

Neutral predictions and the effect of sex ratio bias on diversity
To test whether our estimated levels of diversity on X, Y and autosomal chromosomes could be explained by neutral processes, including female-biased population sex ratios or high variance in male reproductive success, we compared our normalized X/A and Y/A diversity estimates to the corresponding neutral predictions for a given effective population size "sex ratio", $r = N_{ef}/(N_{ef} + N_{em})$. Because we were primarily interested in determining the parameter space within which a reduced male N_e could result in Y/A and X/A diversity ratios consistent with our data, we tested the fit of our estimates to predictions across the full range of r (0.1 to 0.9; we excluded all-female or all-male cases). For autosomal and sex-linked effective population sizes given by:

$$N_{eA} = \frac{4N_{em}N_{ef}}{N_{em} + N_{ef}} \quad (2)$$

$$N_{ex} = \frac{9N_{em}N_{ef}}{4N_{em} + 2N_{ef}} \quad (3)$$

$$N_{ey} = \frac{N_{em}}{2} \quad (4)$$

(Wright 1931), the corresponding expected X/A and Y/A ratios can be expressed as:

$$\frac{N_{ex}}{N_{eA}} = \frac{9(-1+r)}{8(1-r)(-2+r)} \quad (5)$$

and

$$\frac{N_{ey}}{N_{eA}} = \frac{1}{8r} \quad (6)$$

respectively. Note that when $N_{ef} = N_{em}$ ($r = 0.5$) then, $N_{ex}/N_{eA} = 0.75$, and $N_{ey}/N_{eA} = 0.25$ as in the standard neutral model (Wright 1931). With a female-biased ratio, however, the expected X/A ratio can become greater than 1, approaching 1.125 in the limit as $r \rightarrow 1$ (Caballero 1995).

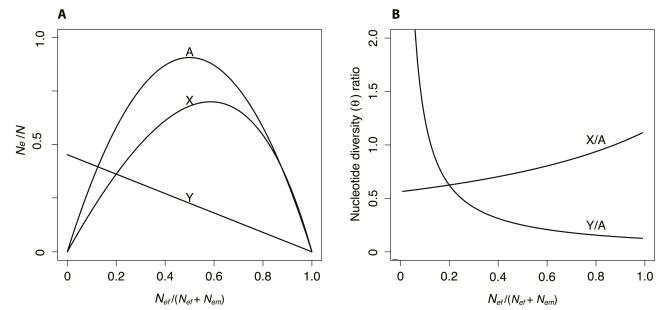


Figure 1 A. Normalized effective population sizes at equilibrium for genes on autosomes, X chromosomes, and Y chromosomes as a function of the sex ratio. B. The corresponding X/A and Y/A ratios of nucleotide diversity predicted at equilibrium, assuming equal neutral mutation rates for sex-linked and autosomal genes.

Simulations of purifying selection

To study the effects of purifying selection on expected levels of Y-chromosome diversity, we conducted forward-time simulations of haploid Y chromosomes using the software SFSCODE (Hernandez 2008). We first estimated the distribution of fitness effects of deleterious amino acid mutations from our polymorphism data for X-linked genes using the method of Keightley and Eyre-Walker (2007), which fits a gamma distribution of negative selection coefficients to the observed frequency distribution of non-synonymous and synonymous polymorphisms. We then used this estimated gamma distribution to parameterize the simulations, initializing them with our estimated θ_{aut} , adjusted to reflect the neutrally expected N_{ey} for a sex ratio of $r = 0.6$. To match our sample size and the number of synonymous sites sampled from our data (see Supporting Information), the simulations sampled 6 haploid chromosomes, and the genome sequence contained 45,331 bp of linked neutral sequence from which we calculated silent site diversity, π_s . To examine the expected reduction in diversity as a function of the number of selected sites (L), we ran simulations over a range of values of L , up to a maximum of 5×10^6 (Figure 3). To obtain an estimate of L , we calculated the approximate likelihood of our observed data based on the proportion of simulations in which synonymous diversity, π_s , was less than 0.0001 from our empirical estimate (Figure 3B).

378 Results and Discussion

379 Extensive loss of Y-chromosome diversity

380 Our analysis of polymorphism levels across the genome of the
 381 dioecious plant *R. hastatus* revealed a widespread loss of neutral
 382 diversity from the Y chromosome. In particular, neutral
 383 diversity for Y-linked genes was on average ~2.1% of the value
 384 for their homologues on the X chromosome. Taking 1/4 of the
 385 mean autosomal diversity as the equilibrium expectation for θ_Y
 386 under neutrality, this corresponds to a chromosome-wide reduction
 387 of 93% relative to the standard neutral model (Wright 1931).
 388 Note that by normalizing X and Y diversity estimates by auto-
 389 somal diversity levels, our results indicate that the difference
 390 between X and Y homologues is not due to an elevation of diver-
 391 sity on the X chromosome, but a Y-specific reduction. Interest-
 392 ingly, our results also suggest an elevation of X-linked diversity
 393 ($X/A = 0.85$) compared to the neutral prediction ($X/A = 0.75$),
 394 though the confidence intervals on this estimate are wide, rang-
 395 ing from 0.74 to 0.95 (Figure 2). Given the empirically-estimated
 396 sex ratio of $r = 0.6$ in *R. hastatus* (Pickup and Barrett 2013),
 397 however, the X/A elevation we observed is not unexpected; the
 398 neutrally-predicted X/A ratio for a sex ratio of 0.6 is ≈ 0.8 (Figure
 399 2; Equation 4). Although our estimates of diversity have not
 400 been normalized by divergence, previous work has shown that
 401 the average synonymous substitution rate, between *R. hastatus*
 402 and the non-dioecious outgroup *R. bucephalophorus* is compara-
 403 ble for sex-linked (0.2016) and autosomal genes (0.219), and
 404 we found no evidence for significant differences in substitution
 405 rate between Y and X chromosomes (Hough *et al.* 2014). It is
 406 therefore unlikely that our results are caused by mutation rate
 407 differences between sex-linked and autosomal genes.

Table 1 Observed and neutrally-expected silent site diversity on sex chromosomes and autosomes in *R. hastatus*

Observed			Expected	
chr	θ	$/\theta_{aut}$	θ	$/\theta_{aut}$
A	0.0055	1	0.0055	1
X	0.0047	0.85	0.0041	0.75
Y	10^{-4}	0.018	0.0014	0.25

408 Female Biased Sex Ratios and Variance in Male Reproductive 409 Success

410 The occurrence of female-biased sex ratios in *R. hastatus* is
 411 expected to lower Y diversity through a reduction in male N_e
 412 and thus a reduction in the N_e of the Y chromosome. Male N_e
 413 could be further reduced by high variance in male reproduc-
 414 tive success, which is expected in annual wind-pollinated plants
 415 such as *R. hastatus* that commonly exhibit extensive pheno-
 416 typic plasticity in plant size and flower production. Given that
 417 male plants in this species produce large amounts of pollen,
 418 and female flowers are uniovulate, there may indeed be strong
 419 competition among males to fertilize ovules. Such competition
 420 should cause a proportional increase in X-linked diversity to
 421 a level that is close to (or even higher than) levels of auto-
 422 somal diversity (Caballero 1995), while simultaneously reducing
 423 Y-linked diversity. In common with most flowering plants, we
 424 do not have marker-based estimates of variance in male repro-
 425

ductive success in *R. hastatus*. We therefore tested whether an overall reduction in male N_e , arising either from high variance in male reproductive offspring number and/or a female biased population sex ratio, could explain our observed Y/A and X/A ratios, by comparing our data to neutral predictions across the full range of values for the N_e sex ratio, r .

As shown in Figure 2, the expected reduction in Y/A as a function of r is substantially higher than our observed Y/A diversity ratio. Indeed, the lower limit for the Y/A ratio in a neutral model is 1/8, such that even in the extreme case where $r = 0.9$, the expectation for Y/A is ≈ 0.14 , which is substantially higher than our observed estimate ($Y/A = 0.018$) (Table 1; Figure 2). Moreover, such large reductions in N_{e_m} would also predict levels of X/A diversity that are significantly larger than what we observed (Figure 2). Our results therefore indicate that, although reduced male N_e arising from sex-biased demography is expected to contribute to reduced Y chromosome polymorphism, it is insufficient to explain the Y/A reduction we observed.

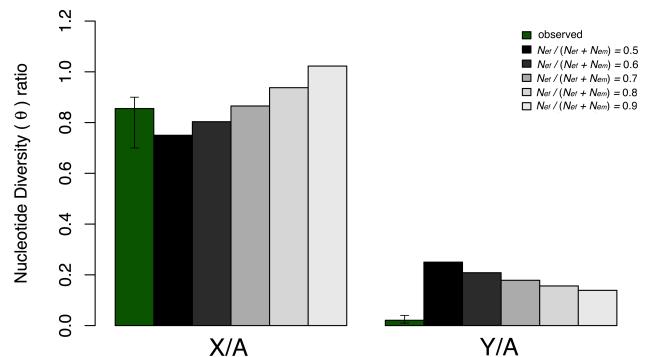


Figure 2 Observed and predicted X/A and Y/A ratios of neutral diversity. Predictions are shown for increasing values of the effective population size sex ratio, $N_{ef}/(N_{em} + N_{ef})$. Observed estimates of X/A and Y/A were calculated as the average θ across genes, weighted by the number of synonymous sites per gene. Confidence intervals were calculated by bootstrapping (20000 replicates) using the BCa method (Efron 1987) implemented in the Boot package in R (Canty and Ripley 2012), and using maximum likelihood for the Y-chromosome (see Methods).

Purifying selection

Selection against strongly deleterious mutations is expected to be an important factor reducing genetic variability in regions with low recombination (Charlesworth *et al.* 1993; Charlesworth 1996a). The effects of such “background selection” (BGS) have been well studied theoretically (Charlesworth *et al.* 1997; Nordborg *et al.* 1996; Kim and Stephan 2000) and the theory has been used to explain patterns of genetic diversity across genomes (Comeron 2014) and plays a central role in explanations for diversity loss on Y chromosomes in mammals (Wilson Sayres *et al.* 2014) and *Drosophila* (McAllister and Charlesworth 1999; Charlesworth 1996b). Under background selection theory for a Y chromosome, the predicted loss of diversity is modeled as a reduction in the equilibrium N_e such that $\pi \approx (\frac{Y}{A})4N_e f_0 \mu$, where

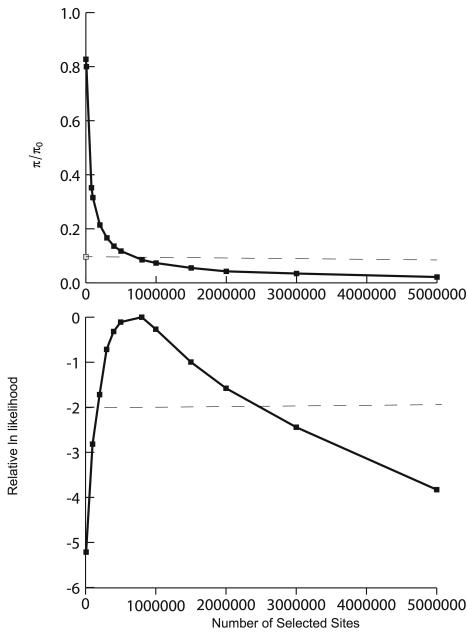


Figure 3 Results from forward simulations of purifying selection. Top: estimated silent site diversity π relative to neutrality (π_0) as a function of the number of selected sites. The dashed line corresponds to our estimate of diversity on the Y chromosome (θ_Y). Bottom: the relative likelihood curve for the number of selected sites, with the dashed line reflecting the approximate 95% credibility interval.

$f_0 = e^{-\frac{U}{sh}}$, U is the mutation rate to strongly deleterious variants on the Y, and s and h are selection and dominance coefficients (Hudson and Kaplan 1995). This yields the expected value of π under the model: $E[\pi] = \pi_0 e^{\frac{-U}{sh}}$, where π_0 is the expected diversity in the absence of BGS, $\pi_0 = (\frac{Y}{A})4N_e\mu$, and Y/A is the expected ratio of the effective population size of the Y relative to autosomes. Here, assuming that the proportion of males is 0.4, and therefore that Y/A is 0.21 of the total N_e estimated from autosomes as a result of the female biased sex ratio in *R. hastatulus* (Pickup and Barrett 2013), and using $s=0.003$ as estimated from the distribution of fitness effects of deleterious mutations, the corresponding expected diversity on the Y chromosome under BGS is $E[\pi]=1.5\times10^{-5}$ for a haploid Y chromosome mutation rate of 7×10^{-9} per nucleotide per generation and 1 MB of selected sites. Although there is considerable uncertainty in these parameters, the calculation yields an expected value of diversity that is 70% lower than what we observed (Table 1; Figure 2; Figure 4).

Importantly, BGS assumes independence among sites, and the theory breaks down when many linked sites are subject to selection at the same time. This is because high linkage disequilibrium causes the behavior of selected alleles interfere with the action of selection at linked sites (Good *et al.* 2014; Kaiser

and Charlesworth 2009). As there are no analytical formulae for predicting the outcome of selection on many linked alleles experiencing selection and drift, however, simulations are fundamental to understanding such selective interference in realistic situations. We therefore conducted forward simulations of purifying selection using our estimated parameters for the distribution of fitness effects of deleterious mutations, and tested whether interference selection could result in a level of Y diversity at neutral sites similar to the level we observed. Our maximum likelihood estimates of the number of selected sites, L , from our simulations, suggest that the number of sites subject to selection required to explain the diversity loss from the *R. hastatulus* Y chromosome is ($\approx 800kb$) and may be as large as 2.5 MB (Figure 3). Thus, these results are consistent with the hypothesis that the early stages of Y degeneration are characterized by the persistence of a large number of sites subject to purifying selection.

While clearly approximate, we can ask how these estimates compare to how many selected sites we might expect to be present on the Y chromosome. Our previous estimates based on cytological measurements suggested that there may be roughly 5,600 genes on the X chromosome of the XY race (Hough *et al.* 2014). We also estimated that approximately 28 percent of genes had degenerated, leaving us with an estimated 1568 genes remaining on the Y chromosome. Using the average number of codons in genes of *Arabidopsis thaliana* (426) (Wortman *et al.* 2003), and assuming 2/3 of codons are under selection, this would imply 1.3 MB of selected sites, which is well within the range of our uncertainty (Figure 3). Thus, although our estimates are broad, these results are consistent with the retention of a large proportion of sites subject to purifying selection on the Y chromosome, as expected in the early stages of degeneration.

Although our analyses of purifying selection models are consistent with our observed reduction in Y-linked diversity, it is also possible that selective sweeps have contributed. We have not formally excluded this possibility. However, if patterns of molecular evolution on the Y are driven primarily by interference selection, as our results suggest, then a further implication is that beneficial mutations should suffer a reduction in their probability of fixation, limiting the scope for sweeps to drive down diversity. Nonetheless, there is abundant evidence that “soft sweeps” are important determinants of patterns of nucleotide diversity (Messer and Petrov 2013), and it is possible that they have contributed to the extremely low levels of Y-linked variability that we observed.

Conclusions

The non-recombining region of a Y chromosome produces evolutionary dynamics that are similar to a haploid asexual population, with the lack of recombination resulting in build up of genetic associations among selected sites, a loss in the efficiency of selection, and an increase in population fitness variance (Fisher 1930; Muller 1964; Hill and Robertson 1966; McVean and Charlesworth 2000b; Kaiser and Charlesworth 2009; Good *et al.* 2014). Our study of neutral diversity levels on the relatively young *R. hastatulus* sex chromosomes provides clear evidence for an extensive loss of neutral diversity on the Y chromosome. Whereas neutral models of sex-biased demography were unable to explain the magnitude of diversity loss, forward population genetic simulations suggest that the extensive loss of diversity is most likely due to purifying selection. However, while standard background selection theory over-predicted the loss of diversity

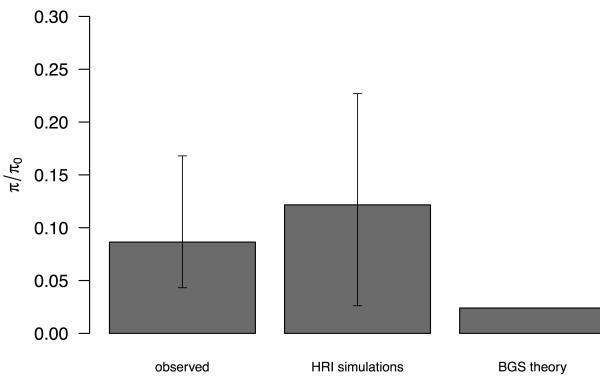


Figure 4 Estimated levels of Y-linked nucleotide diversity compared to estimates obtained from simulations of purifying selection among linked selected sites (HRI simulations) and analytical predictions from background selection theory. Silent site diversity is reported relative to the neutral expectation (π_0), where $\pi_0 = (\frac{Y}{A})4N_e\mu$, and Y/A is the expected ratio of the effective population size of the Y relative to autosomes for a sex ratio of $r = 0.6$, as estimated in *R. hastatus* populations. The credibility interval for our observed Y diversity was obtained by maximum likelihood (see methods), and error bars for HRI simulations correspond to 1.5x the interquartile range for π_s estimates, approximately equal to the 95% confidence interval for the median (Chambers 1983).

on the Y chromosome by $\approx 70\%$, simulations of purifying selection acting over a large number of linked selected sites resulted in a level of Y-diversity that was similar to what we observed. These results are consistent with theory on interference selection, and suggest that the effects of interference is likely an important force in the evolution of young Y chromosomes. Moreover, our results imply that when a large number of linked sites are subject to purifying selection, Y-chromosome degeneration in the early stages may largely be driven by the effects of interference rather primarily by widespread silencing of Y-linked genes and their subsequent degeneration through neutral drift.

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