Using squamate systems to understand molecular underpinnings of evolutionary processes

by

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Abstract

The solidification of evolutionary biology as a scientific theory provided a foundation for understanding the source of life's variation, an objective that has since become a central aim in biology. While scientific acceptance of evolution answered some biological questions, it created and continues to create more questions than it has answered. Several questions being studied across the globe include (1) "How are species formed?" (2) "What factors influence trait evolution?", and (3) "How do changes in genetics and environment determine how phenotypes respond to selection?" Squamate reptiles, the most species-rich group of tetrapods, are a diverse natural resource for empirical approaches to understanding biological questions. Within this dissertation, I utilize three squamate reptile systems (the species complex of spotted flying lizard Draco maculatus, the north American whiptail lizards Aspidoscelis, and the western terrestrial garter snake *Thamnophis elegans*) to answer questions regarding causes of lineage diversification, consequences of asexual reproduction, and genomics of life history evolution. I integrate results from molecular phylogenetics, whole-organism performance, mitochondrial physiology, and population genomics to test the riverine barrier hypothesis, the association of asexual reproduction with mitochondrial respiration, and the genetic underpinnings of senescence. Finally, I discuss the role of the mitochondrion in shaping evolutionary patterns, examine findings from this dissertation in broader biological and societal contexts, and provide recommendations for future endeavors to further tease out answers to these complex questions.

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Chapter 1: Introduction to evolutionary questions and study systems

1.1 Questions

"There is grandeur in this view of life... from so simple a beginning endless forms most beautiful and most wonderful have been, and are being evolved." (Darwin 1859)

The solidification of evolutionary biology as a scientific theory provided a foundation for understanding the source of life's variation, an objective that has since become a central aim in biology. While scientific acceptance of evolution has answered some biological questions, it continues to create more questions than it has answered. Scientists today still seek to understand the forces that are shaping these "endless forms most beautiful", and often these forces are complex. For example, Darwin, the same individual who referred to an evolutionary mindset as a view with "grandeur", was so troubled by understanding how evolution could shape all life that he once wrote, "The sight of a feather in a peacock's tail, whenever I gaze at it, it makes me sick!" (Burkhardt et al. 1993).

The challenge of answering difficult questions has been mitigated by a concerted effort focused on several highly-accessible species. Studies of these organisms, deemed "model organisms", make up the vast majority of all biological studies. Examining the genetics, behavior, physiology, and evolution of taxa such as *Drosophila* flies, *Caenorhabditis* worms, *Saccharomyces* yeast, and *Mus* mice (just to name a few) has resulted in major breakthroughs regarding our understanding of the natural world. However, if a primary goal of evolutionary biology is to understand the forces shaping "endless forms", then findings derived from a handful of organisms will necessarily fall short of this goal. Several major questions examined by evolutionary biologists that cannot be answered without a broader taxonomic scope include (1) How are new species formed? (2) What factors influence trait evolution? And (3) How do changes in genetics and environment shape phenotypes?

Squamate reptiles (snakes and lizards) provide a wealth of natural systems teeming with information that can help us answer these and other questions in evolutionary biology. With approximately 11,500 known species (Uetz et al. 2022), squamates are the most species-rich group of tetrapods on earth. These species occupy a diverse array of habitats and niches, including those of low and high elevation, humid and xeric climates, cold and warm temperatures, and multiple levels in their respective food webs from primary consumers to apex predators. They can be found in habitats viewed as mild and those considered extreme. Multiple, divergent clades rich with species with diverse morphology and life history make squamates a great system for understanding how natural processes shape life on Earth. For example, squamates contain multiple, independent transitions from viviparity-oviparity, gonochorism-parthenogenesis, carnivory-herbivory, and limbs-no limbs, among other traits, enabling the study of the general mechanisms that underlie these evolutionary transitions.

As a doctoral student at Auburn University interested in evolutionary mechanisms that shape biodiversity, I focused my research on three questions:

- 1) What drives lineage diversification?
- 2) What are the physiological consequences of asexual reproduction?
- 3) How does variation in gene networks shape divergence in life history strategies?

These questions, along with their respective squamate reptile study systems used for this dissertation work, are shown in Fig. 1.1. While every chapter is set within a unique field in evolutionary biology, each contains a component linked to the evolution of the mitochondrion and its contribution to the observed patterns. In the final chapter (Chapter 5), I discuss the history of mitochondriology, its connection with evolutionary biology, and how this dissertation contributes to our understanding of the influence mitochondria have on shaping biodiversity. In the remainder of this introductory chapter, I will provide background information for each question, study, and squamate system.

1.2 What Drives Lineage Diversification in a Biodiversity Hotspot?

Evolution implies shared ancestry, and provokes two major questions: (1) what forces create the diverse traits in organisms, and (2) what forces make one species become two? Natural selection provided an overarching answer for the first question, described by contemporary scientists Charles Darwin and Alfred Wallace (Darwin and Wallace 1958). Reproductive isolation of populations and subsequent independent evolution provided the answer to the second question. However, the agents responsible for the restriction of gene flow can be complex and are dependent on whether the mode of speciation is allopatric (or a variation of allopatry, such as peripatry) or sympatric. Allopatric speciation is intrinsically placed within the field of biogeography– another field in biology originally described by Alfred Wallace (Wallace 1855). Biogeography posits that the evolutionary history of organisms is connected to their geographic distributions. While the linkage of speciation and geography is widely accepted, much remains to be explained regarding the specific biogeographic mechanisms that are directly responsible for

restricting gene flow. This is especially true in Indochina- the continental outreach of Southeast Asia that has engendered significantly more species than any of the other highly diverse regions in the area (De Bruyn et al. 2014).

Using Indochina as a natural laboratory that has formed a remarkable number of lineages *in situ*, we can apply tools in molecular evolution to test hypotheses of lineage divergence in this megadiverse region. One hypothesis that may explain the source for some of the biodiversity in Indochina is the riverine barrier hypothesis (Wallace 1852), an idea based in biogeography that predates the description of evolution by natural selection. The riverine barrier hypothesis suggests that rivers dividing a population create a barrier to gene flow. With time, the population disconnectivity results in the independent evolution of populations on either side of the river resulting in two new species. Alfred Wallace originally described this idea while traversing the rivers of the Amazon Basin and observing the distribution of monkey species (Wallace 1852).

While riverine barriers may not play critical roles in reducing gene flow for all species (Naka and Pil 2020), empirical evidence of rivers as barriers to gene flow exists for many. A database search on Web of Science using the search criteria "Riverine Barrier Hypothesis" recovered 32 studies with results that implicate rivers as barriers to gene flow (out of 49 total studies involving the hypothesis; range of studies 1994–2022). Because the effect of rivers on biodiversification across Indochina as a whole had not been examined, I assessed the evolutionary history of a widespread Indochinese species complex (*Draco maculatus*) and statistically tested whether historical taxonomy, mitochondrial phylogeny, or riverine barriers best explained the patterns in sequence data I collected (Chapter 2). My results indicate that riverine barriers best explained the

patterns in the data, and I suggest that the high levels of in situ diversification in this hotspot may be due in-part to riverine vicariance followed by lineage divergence.

Study System

Because of their remarkable species richness, diverse morphology, and ability to adapt to many (including extreme) niches, squamate reptiles have become great model systems for understanding lineage diversification in the context of biogeography (Camargo et al. 2010; Marshall et al. 2018). Flying lizards (genus *Draco*) are among the squamates that have been useful in understanding how the geological history of Southeast Asia has contributed to the high levels of biodiversity within the region (Honda et al. 1999; Mcguire and Kiew 2001; McGuire et al. 2007; Reilly et al. 2021). The expansive range of *Draco maculatus* extending across Indochina, along with the presence of morphological polymorphisms, led us to use this putative species complex to test if the geography of Indochina shapes the lineage diversity of its terrestrial inhabitants.

Soon after its description by John Edward Gray in 1845, *Draco maculatus* was recognized by scientists for its variation in dewlap color (Gray 1845; Musters 1983). At various points throughout its taxonomic history, its subspecies (*D. maculatus divergens*, *D. maculatus haseii*, *D. maculatus maculatus*, and *D. maculatus whiteheadi*) were considered independent species (Boettger 1893; Boulenger 1899; Taylor 1934) only to be re-categorized within the *D. maculatus* as subspecies. I followed the suggestion of Mcguire and Kiew (2001) by conducting a phylogeographic study and implementing tests for several hypotheses that may explain the potentially discrete morphological variation in this species complex.

1.3 What Are the Physiological Consequences of Asexual Reproduction?

In 1930 renowned evolutionary biologist Sir Ronald A. Fisher wrote that asexual reproduction could not "be ascribed with certainty to any known group" (Fisher 1930). Two years later, Carl and Laura Hubbs described the first all-female asexual animal species, the Amazon Molly (Poecilia formosa), whose common name originates in the mythological tribe of warrior women (Hubbs and Hubbs 1932). Three years after that, British herpetologist Malcom Arthur Smith collected over 100 samples of fox geckos (Hemidactylus garnotii) from Southeast Asia without finding a single male (Smith 1935), marking the dawn of the first described parthenogenetic¹ organism. Since then, numerous asexual taxa have been described, and our understanding of reproduction without sex has gone from "virtually nonexistent" to "fairly common" in the animal kingdom (Suomalainen 1962). However, within vertebrates, parthenogenesis (Greek "partheno" : virgin, "genesis" : origin) remains a rare phenomenon (Dawley and Bogart 1989). While several types of asexual reproduction exist throughout vertebrates, transgenerational asexual reproduction devoid of male contribution (parthenogenesis) has only been described in several instances of squamate reptiles. Essentially all instances of these parthenoforms are a result of hybridization (but see Sinclair et al. 2010), and a large degree of heterozygosity is maintained due to "pseudo-recombination" after an endoreplication event before Meiosis I (Cuellar 1971; Lutes et al. 2010). For this reason, these organisms are frequently referred to as "biotypes" or "parthenoforms" rather than species. However, because many asexual organisms (including the

¹ "Parthenogenetic" organisms reproduce without sperm as their primary mode of reproduction, which separates them from organisms that use other modes of reproduction requiring sperm involvement (e.g., "gynogenetic", "hybridogenetic", and "kleptogenetic") and those that typically reproduce sexually yet have the ability to reproduce asexually (e.g., "tychoparthenogenetic").

focal group of this dissertation) are morphologically diagnosable and evolving along independent lineages, I will refer to them as species for the sake of simplicity.

John Maynard-Smith first coined the "two-fold cost of sex", which describes the sexual disadvantages of (1) wasting half of one's reproductive effort on producing males [cost of males] and (2) only passing on half of one's genetic material [cost of meiosis] (Maynard Smith 1958; Williams 1975). The fact that the process of fertilization is the exact opposite of cell division indicates that an asexually-reproducing organism will have a two-fold reproductive advantage over a sexually-reproducing organism. In other words, if two female individuals (one sexual and one asexual) have the same number of offspring with the same fitness level, the asexual female will have passed on double the amount of genetic material compared to the sexual female (Fig. 1.2). This cost is reduced, or even eliminated, when fitness differs between the offspring of the reproductive modes (sexual vs asexual), thus providing a potential avenue for explaining the scarcity of asexual vertebrates.

Organismal and intracellular physiology constitute a collection of functional phenotypes critical for organismal survival and reproduction, making the factors contributing to variation in physiological phenotypes worthy targets of selection. Several past studies found reduced performance in aerobic activities for asexual species of whiptail lizards (Cullum 1997), dace fish (Mee et al. 2011), and mole salamanders (Denton et al. 2017). I aimed to elucidate the source of this reduced performance by measuring aerobic performance at the organismal level and intracellular traits in whiptail lizards (genus *Aspidoscelis*): endurance running and mitochondrial respiration (Chapter 3). My results in endurance running show reduced endurance capacity in the

asexual hybrid species, reflecting those found previously (Cullum 1997). These are refined by my results in isolated mitochondrial respiration, which show a reduced rate of oxygen consumption by the asexual hybrid species. Additionally, I found that endurance capacity and mitochondrial respiration are positively associated with one another. At the end of Chapter 3 and within the conclusion (Chapter 5) I discuss potential underpinnings of these findings.

Study System

Whiptail lizards (genus *Aspidoscelis*; "whiptails") have become the model system for understanding the biology of parthenogenesis. With one-third of this genus reproduce via parthenogenesis, this system allows for examination of (1) the cytological mechanisms involved in parthenogenesis (Lutes et al. 2010), (2) the evolutionary conditions that result in parthenogenesis (Moritz et al. 1992; Barley et al. 2019, 2021, 2022*a*), (3) the genomic consequences of parthenogenesis (Fujita et al. 2020), and (4) the physiological consequences of parthenogenesis (Cullum 1997; Mata-Silva et al. 2008). *Aspidoscelis* puzzled taxonomists for over a century, but advances in technology for estimating evolutionary history have aided significantly in resolving relationships among the species in this genus (Reeder et al. 2002; Barley et al. 2022*b*), and genomic resources for this genus are being actively developed by multiple laboratories.

Within the same year that the first parthenogenetic lizard was officially described (Darevsky 1958), Minton (1958) and Tinkle (1959) reported independently that they had never seen a male *Aspidoscelis tesselatus*. Within a few days, reviews of specimens and field notes found that there were no males in *A. exsanguis*, *A. neomexicanus*, *A. velox*, *A. flagellicaudus*, *A. sonorae*, and *A.*

uniparens (Lowe 1993). The first publications confirming parthenogenesis in *Aspidoscelis* came just a few years later (Maslin 1962, 1967, 1971), and others described the mechanism of parthenogenetic species formation by hybridization of divergent gonochoristic species (Lowe and Wright 1966*a*, 1966*b*; Neaves and Gerald 1968, 1969; Neaves 1969; Cuellar 1974; Cuellar and McKinney 1976).

The endurance capacity of whiptails in the context of evolutionary ecology has been of interest to biologists since the 1980s. The connection of whiptail aerobic performance with observed patterns in behavior and physiology include notes on their high energy expenditure (Anderson and Karasov 1981), large home range sizes (Garland Jr. 1993), and wide foraging strategy (Garland Jr. 1993). However, it wasn't until 1997 that a difference in endurance capacity was seen between gonochoristic and parthenogenetic species (Cullum 1997). With the historical precedence of running whiptails on treadmills (Garland 1994; Cullum 1998, 2000), testing for a connection between aerobic performance and mitochondrial function was an appropriate next step to understand whether mitochondria may be underpinning the observed reduction in performance.

1.4 How Do Gene Networks Shape Divergence in Life History Strategies?

Uncovering the underpinnings responsible for variation in traits such as lifespan, growth rate, fecundity, and senescence across taxa will help us understand the targets of selection that cause divergence in these traits. Senescence (hereafter "aging"), defined as the process of decline in the probability of survival and/or reproduction with age, is a widespread phenomenon nested within the life history strategy of many organisms. Despite this phenomenon being relevant on a broad

scale taxonomically, the vast majority of studies on aging are focused on the few model organisms mentioned earlier in section 1.1.

Identifying the genetic mechanisms that contribute to aging is a necessary step in understanding the targets of natural selection that facilitate divergence in life history strategies. Examination of genetic dissimilarity in natural populations with variation in aging provides a window to genes and gene networks involved with aging. In addition to most studies of aging being focused on the heretofore mentioned model organisms, these studies were conducted in controlled laboratory settings with inbred lines where inference was drawn based on experimental manipulation. While these studies are highly informative and benefit from exclusion of natural noise experienced by populations outside of the lab, they lack the factors present in native environments that put the "nature" in "natural selection." Several studies have examined evolutionary alterations in aging of other taxa, but these have focused primarily on differences between species, genera, families, or classes that have diverged in numerous other traits in addition to those related to aging (Remot et al. 2021; Opazo et al. 2022; Reinke et al. 2022). An accurate understanding of the genes behind aging requires examination of sequence variation in populations with variation in aging.

Two divergent ecotypes of terrestrial garter snakes (*Thamnophis elegans*) are present in populations around Eagle Lake in Northeastern California (USA). These ecotypes are at different positions on the "pace of life" spectrum, with one ecotype having a higher rate of aging, shorter lifespan, and higher metabolic rate compared to the other. Targeting gene networks associated with aging in model organisms (e.g., genes of the insulin signaling network and genes of the electron transport system in the mitochondrion), I sought to identify patterns in gene expression

and sequence variation associated with aging. Between ecotypes, I identified networks with enriched expression and genes with significant sequence variation. I also examined the functional implications of sequence variation (e.g., effect of mutation on peptide sequence and protein function). My results reflect many of those found in model systems, with variation in the same gene networks (and some of the same genes) associated with variation in aging, yet I also found highly divergent responses to heat in gene expression between the ecotypes and identify novel genes of interest with functional implications.

Study System

The garter snakes of Eagle Lake have been studied in-detail over the past half century. Stevan Arnold used populations around Eagle Lake to compare their ecology with those along the California coastline (Arnold 1977, 1981, 1992; Arnold and Wassersug 1978; Kephart and Arnold 1982). After twenty years of researchers collecting data at the site, Anne Bronikowski, a new graduate student at that time, found that the variation between populations around Eagle Lake was largely partitioned between individual ecotypes with divergent life history strategies (Bronikowski and Arnold 1999). Twenty more years of research of the ecotypes revealed that the lakeshore populations grow larger (Bronikowski and Arnold 1999), produce larger litter sizes (Sparkman et al. 2007), possess a higher metabolic rate (Gangloff et al. 2015), experience more oxidative stress (Schwartz and Bronikowski 2013), and die younger (Bronikowski and Vleck 2010) than the higher-elevation meadow populations. The ecotypes can also be differentiated based on general pattern and coloration, with the lakeshore populations being more gray and checkered with a pale dorsal stripe, whereas the meadow populations are more solid black with a yellow dorsal stripe (Manier and Arnold 2005).

Examination of the mitochondrial genome by Tonia Schwartz found that a nonsynonymous mutation in CYTB, a core subunit of Cytochrome C Reductase, segregated between the ecotypes in her sample set (Schwartz et al. 2015). Examining this further revealed that the individuals with the derived CYTB SNP were almost entirely from meadow populations, and these made up a monophyletic group within our estimated phylogeny (Gangloff et al. 2020). With multiple lines of evidence supporting the differences in ecological and physiological traits between these ecotypes, I set out to examine the potential genomic underpinnings of this divergence.

1.5 Scientific Techniques and Implications

Using the previously described squamate systems within the context of their respective research questions, I apply techniques in evolutionary biology to better understand the processes driving observed patterns. Techniques applied in chapters two, three, and four include molecular phylogenetics, Bayesian hypothesis testing, linear statistical modeling, high-resolution mitochondrial respirometry, phylogenetic network statistical modeling, processing of high-throughput targeted sequencing, and population genomics analyses. By examining data using these techniques, I shed light on potential (1) processes driving lineage diversification in a biodiversity hotspot, (2) physiological consequences of asexual reproduction in vertebrates, and (3) genomic underpinnings of variation in aging. As a conclusion, in chapter five, I discuss some of the contributions of this dissertation to science and society, including an overview of historical perspectives on the connection between the mitochondrion and general patterns in evolution.

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Chapter 1: Figures

Figure 1.1 Introduction to Questions and Study Systems of This Dissertation

Figure 1.2 The Costs of Sexual Reproduction

Ch 1: Figures



Figure 1.1: Introduction to Questions and Study Systems of This Dissertation

Focal questions of dissertation, along with the geographic locations and images of the focal species. Photo credit for Draco maculatus image: Matthieu Berroneau (www.matthieu-berroneau.fr). Photo credit for Aspidoscelis image: L. Miles Horne.


Figure 1.2: The Costs of Sexual Reproduction

The costs of sex are depicted here in number and genetic composition of offspring. In this example we will assume a fixed clutch size of two, a fixed sex ratio of 1:1, and no differential fitness between reproductive modes. The colors are indicative of genetic composition. Two females are shown in the P generation: one individual of a sexually reproducing species (far left; blue) and one individual of an asexually reproducing species (right; pink). Each of these individuals produce F1 offspring. The sexually reproducing female only passes on 50 percent of her genetic material to each F1 progeny, whereas the asexually reproducing individual passes on 100 percent of her genetic material. Further, the sexually-reproducing species has to waste half of her reproductive investment in males, whereas the asexually reproducing individual creates only female offspring.

Chapter 2: Rivers of Indochina as potential drivers of lineage diversification in the spotted flying lizard (*Draco maculatus*) species complex

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Abstract

Southeast Asia hosts a rich concentration of biodiversity within multiple biodiversity hotspots. Indochina, a region with remarkably high levels of *in situ* diversification, possesses five major rivers (Chiang Mai, Ayeyarwady, Mekong, Salween, and Red), several of which coincide with phylogenetic breaks of terrestrial taxa. *Draco maculatus* possesses a range that stretches across Indochina, which widespread geographic distribution along with potential discrete variation within subspecies alludes to the possibility of this taxon constituting multiple divergent lineages. Using sequence data from three mitochondrial (*12S*, *16S*, and *ND2*) and three nuclear (*BDNF*, *CMOS*, and *PNN*) genes, we provide the first estimated phylogeny of this hypothesized species complex and examine its phylogeographic architecture with maximum likelihood and Bayes factor delimitation (BFD) approaches. Our results support multiple divergent lineages with phylogenetic breaks coincident with rivers, indicating that river barriers may be contributing to the elevated levels of *in situ* diversification of Indochina.

2.1 Introduction

Speciation, biodiversification, and the natural processes driving these phenomena have been of great interest to biologists since the dawn of evolutionary biology (Wallace, 1852). Southeast Asia is a region with concentrated biodiversity and a complex geological history, and is therefore a prime setting for testing hypotheses of biodiversification and biogeography (Hall, 2009). Within the continental core of Southeast Asia, Indochina (composed of far-eastern India, Myanmar, Thailand, Cambodia, Laos, Vietnam, southwestern China, and northern Peninsular Malaysia; Fig. 2.1) is a major evolutionary hotspot noted for its remarkable species richness and in situ diversification (de Bruyn et al., 2014; Myers et al., 2000). Indochina is home to the Indo-Burma biodiversity hotspot, a region noted among the 'hottest hotspots' for its high degree of endemism and threatened habitat (Myers et al., 2000; Tordoff et al., 2012). Species descriptions from this area are accumulating at a high rate, yet the forces driving speciation within this megadiverse landscape have not been well characterized. While its montane contour has remained stable over the past 20 million years (Bain and Hurley, 2011; Workman, 1975), multiple studies of Indochina's biodiversity allude to a significant evolutionary impact from riverine barriers (Campbell et al., 2004; Takacs et al., 2005; Johansson et al., 2007; Reddy, 2008; Zhang et al., 2010a; Zhang et al., 2010b; Wang et al., 2012; Wood Jr. et al., 2012; Hartmann et al., 2013; Agarwal et al., 2014; Wang et al., 2015; Yuan et al., 2016). Here we assess the importance of major SE Asian rivers as potential drivers of lineage diversification in a widespread lizard species, *Draco maculatus*, that is distributed across the entirety of Indochina.

2.1.1 Geological History of Indochina

The current topography of Indochina was largely shaped by the collision of the Indian subcontinent with Eurasia ~50 million years ago (mya), resulting in the uplift of the Tibetan Plateau and concomitant creation of Indochina's major waterways, including the Chao Phraya, Ayeyarwady, Mekong, Red, and Salween rivers (Nie et al., 2018; Horton et al., 2002). All five of these watersheds originate on the Tibetan Plateau, and contiguously gather in close proximity within the Hengduan Mountains before radiating across Indochina (Fig. 2.1).

Although the headwaters of each of these rivers have remained geographically static since their onset, for several of these rivers downstream paths and volumes changed drastically beginning in the Miocene (Lacassin et al., 1998; Meijaard and Groves, 2006). Until recently (post-Pleistocene), the Mekong and Salween rivers flowed via the Chao Phraya River Basin southward beyond the current delta at the Gulf of Thailand in a vast watershed known as the Siam River (Carbonnel, 1965; Hutchinson, 1989). While the Ayeyarwady River has maintained its course within the Myanmar Central Basin since the Late Eocene, the volume of this river decreased after its connection with the northern Yarlung Tsangpo River was severed in the Early Miocene (Robinson et al., 2014). Similarly, the course of the Red River within the Song Hong fault has been constant since its origin, but it was fed by the Middle Yangtze from the north until this connection was broken between 24 - 12 mya, resulting in a substantial reduction in flow (Clift et al., 2008; Robinson et al., 2014). Riverine vicariance, wherein waterways act as barriers to geneflow (Wallace, 1852), has been suggested as a mechanism of allopatric speciation in Indochinese taxa (Meijaard and Groves, 2006; Johansson et al., 2007; Corlett, 2009; Woodruff, 2010; Wang et al., 2015), including multiple species of herpetofauna (Zhang et al., 2010a; Zhang et al., 2010b; Bain and Hurley, 2011; Wood et al., 2012; Hartmann et al., 2013; Grismer et al., 2014,

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Yuan et al., 2016). As major geographical barriers within Indochina, these rivers may act as significant agents of allopatric isolation and drivers of biodiversification.

2.1.2 Species Complex of Indochinese Agamid Lizards

Found throughout Southeast Asia, the genus *Draco* (family Agamidae) stands unique among Earth's extant lifeforms due to their wing-like patagia attached to elongated ribs that can be extended voluntarily to generate lift as they glide between trees (Herre, 1958; Klingel, 1965; Colbert, 1967; McGuire *et al.*, 2011). *Draco maculatus* (Gray, 1945) has a large range covering all of Indochina (Taylor, 1963; Musters, 1983). This species is listed as a species of least concern by IUCN (although it is protected in Thailand) despite 95 percent of primary rainforest being lost due to human activity (Myers et al., 2000). Despite the loss of primary forest edge habitat, *D. maculatus* remain abundant due to their ability to persist in disturbed habitats with similar structure, such as rubber tree plantations.

Draco maculatus may constitute multiple evolutionary lineages given (A) its expansive geographic range across Indochina and (B) the occurrence of potentially discrete morphological variation that has been used in the diagnoses of subspecies (Taylor 1963; Musters, 1983). The geographic setting and widespread nature of this putative species complex makes it ideal for testing biogeographic hypotheses, specifically concerning the influence of riverine vicariance on the reported high levels of *in situ* diversification within Indochina. Using molecular phylogenetics and Bayes factor delimitation (BFD), we test hypotheses about the population structure across *Draco maculatus* based on (A) riverine barriers, (B) mitochondrial DNA (mtDNA) variation, and (C) current taxonomy, and recover statistical support for significant

divergence within this group with models of riverine barriers separating lineages as the best explanation for the genetic variation within this Indochinese species complex.

2.2 Materials and Methods

2.2.1 Sample Collection

We obtained a total of 115 *Draco maculatus* samples for this study, which were collected from the field between 1997 and 2013. Many of these were collected by members of our team, with the remainder obtained from museum collections or GenBank (see Appendix 2.B). In sampling individuals we did our best to cover the entire species range, and collected within three of the four subspecies ranges (the only exception being *D. maculatus divergens*, which is restricted to the Chiang Mai valley; Fig. 2.1). To assess the level of lineage structure within *D. maculatus* compared to other *Draco* species, we downloaded ND2 sequence data for most *Draco* species and several outgroup species (see Appendix 2.B).

2.2.2 DNA Extraction and Amplification

We extracted genomic DNA from liver samples (stored in 95% ethanol or RNA-Later) using the animal tissue protocol in the Qiagen DNeasyTM tissue kit (Qiagen). We first amplified a region of NADH dehydrogenase subunit 2 (*ND2*) for all samples to guide our subsampling of individuals from which to collect more loci (to minimize redundancy and lower sequencing cost). Our subsampling method is detailed in section 2.3. We then amplified genetic regions of six loci for all subsampled individuals, including three mitochondrial (mitochondrially encoded 12S ribosomal RNA [*12S*], mitochondrially encoded 16S ribosomal RNA *16S*, and *ND2*) and three nuclear (brain-derived neurotrophic factor [*BDNF*], oocyte maturation factor Mos [*CMOS*], and

pinin [PNN]) genes using double stranded polymerase chain reaction (PCR) under the following conditions: 1.0 µL 5X buffer (1.5 µM), 0.1 µL Tag polymerase, 1.0 µL Bovine Serum Albumin (BSA [0.05 mg/mL]), 1.0 μ L dinucleotide pairs (dNTP [1.5 μ L]), 1.0 μ L primer (Appendix 2.C), and 6.5 µL diH₂O. Each PCR was carried out on an MJ Research PTC-2000 Peltier Thermal Cycler using the following protocol: Initial denaturation at 94° C for 2 min, followed by 35 cycles of a secondary denaturation at 94°C for 30 s, annealing for 30 s (temperatures varied by locus, see Appendix 2.C), elongation at 72°C for 1.5 min, with a final extension at 72°C for 10 min. We visualized the PCR product on agarose gels, and purified PCR products that successfully amplified the targeted region using PrepEase PCR Purification 96-well (Ultrafiltration) plates. We resuspended purified PCR products in diH₂O, and sequenced all samples using an ABI Big-Dye Terminator v3.1 Cycle Sequencing Kit in an ABI GeneAmp PCR 9700 thermal cycler. We purified sequencing reaction products using Sephadex G-50 Fine (GE Healthcare), and generated sequences on an ABI 3730xl DNA Analyzer. After assembling sample-specific contigs and edited sequences in GENEIOUSv8.1.5 (Kearse et al., 2012), we aligned the DNA fragments using the MUSCLEv3.831 algorithm (Edgar, 2004) and adjusted the alignments manually in Mesquite v3.02 (Maddison and Maddison, 2015). Multiple individuals had loci sequenced prior to the onset of this study, and these sequence data were also included in the sub-sample set (Appendix 2.B).

2.2.3 Maximum Likelihood Tree Inference and Sequence Analysis

We estimated all gene trees using maximum likelihood (ML) in IQ-TREE with 1,000 nonparametric bootstrap replicates; we used the "-m TEST" function to perform model selection for each locus followed by subsequent tree inference (Nguyen et al., 2015; Kalyaanamoorthy et

al, 2017). Because *ND2* is a rapidly evolving protein-coding gene, we used it to guide our selection of samples for which to collect nuclear DNA sequences. More specifically, we used the ML tree estimated from the ND2 sequences to sub-sample at least one individual from each clade of identical or nearly identical sequences, effectively reducing our original sample set of 115 individuals to a sub-sample set of 62 individuals. All analyses described below used this sub-sample of 62 individuals.

We created a concatenated alignment of all the loci using the program Sequence Matrix (Vaidya et al., 2011). When estimating the tree from the concatenated alignment, we allowed each gene to evolve under a different model of nucleotide substitution along a shared genealogy. We then separated mitochondrial and nuclear genes into respective nexus files and estimated ML trees for each of these (Fig. 2.2). Finally, we estimated ML gene trees for each of the six genes (Figs. 2.54–2.59). All ML trees were visualized using the program FigTree (Rambaut, 2012).

After determining the number of variable sites (S) and nucleotide diversity (π) for each locus (treating the three mtDNA regions as a single locus) within the program MEGA7 (Kumar et al., 2016), we identified haplotypes using the package Haplotypes in R (Aktas, 2015). We obtained the proportion of variable sites within each gene from the IQ-TREE output log (Table 2.1).

To make intrageneric comparisons between *Draco maculatus* and other *Draco* species, we aligned our *ND2* sequence data with that of 32 other *Draco* species and several additional genera for outgroup and rooting purposes (Appendix 2.B; McGuire and Kiew, 2001; Grismer et al., 2016). After estimating the ML gene tree (Fig. 2.2A), we calculated the phylogenetic distance

between each pair of sister lineages by summing the branch lengths that separate the sister pairs using the R package ape (calculating the mean branch length for lineages composed of multiple tips; Paradis and Schliep, 2018). We plotted phylogenetic distances for lineage pairs using the R package ggplot2 (Wickham, 2009).

2.2.4 Testing Hypotheses of Phylogeographic Structure

We used the nuclear DNA (nDNA) sequence data to estimate marginal likelihoods of 15 models, designing each model based on one of three categories: (1) riverine barriers, (2) mtDNA clustering, or (3) current taxonomy. The riverine barrier models utilize contemporary GIS data for mapping these rivers, with the inclusion/exclusion of specific rivers in differing models reflects historical paths that may have been involved in biodiversification. These models are described in detail within the supplementary methods, with graphical summaries of each model provided in Fig. 2.4.

Stepping-stone sampling (Xie et al., 2011) is a reliable approach for estimating the marginal likelihoods of phylogenetic models, and it outperforms other widely used approaches in phylogenetics (Baele et al., 2012, Oaks et al., 2019). The program BEAST2 (Bouckaert et al., 2014) facilitates stepping-stone sampling within a fully Bayesian framework during species-tree estimation (Leaché et al., 2014). We estimated the marginal likelihoods for each model, verifying our results with a total of seven uniquely seeded BEAST runs per model.

For each model, we designed an XML file using the BEAST graphic user-interface BEAUTi, using the *BEAST template. Nuclear sequence data was phased using a python script written by Jamie Oaks (Oaks, 2012). Mitochondrial sequence data was not included in marginal likelihood estimation. Samples were grouped into taxon sets based on the criteria from each model. Because our NULL model hypothesized a single lineage and *BEAST requires at least two taxa for species tree estimation, we used sequence data from a single *D. fimbriatus* as the outgroup taxon in all hypotheses. Each nuclear locus was treated as an independent (unlinked) evolutionary unit, and a model of nucleotide substitution was selected for each using the BIC criterion within the program Partition Finder (Table 2.1; Lanfear et al, 2012). We used a strict molecular clock for each locus, and fixed the mutationRate parameter to be equal (mean = 1.0) among the nuclear loci. We used an exponential distribution with a mean of 0.001 as the hyperprior on the scale parameter of the gamma-distributed prior on the effective population sizes, with the population function set to "linear with constant root." A Yule process model was used for the species tree prior, which assumes a constant lineage birthrate for each branch of the tree; we used an exponential distribution with a mean of 300 for the prior on the birthrate (initialized at 300). For a prior on kappa values (transition-transversion parameter of the HKY model or rate AG/CT parameter of partition of the TN93 model, depending on the partition) and the shape parameter of the gamma-distributed rates among sites, we used a lognormal (log mean = 1, log standard deviation = 1.25) and exponential (mean = 1) distribution, respectively. To approximately sample from the posterior distribution, we ran a Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) simulation for 80,000,000 generations (with a preburnin of 20,000,000), and sampled every 5,000 generations. Following the tutorial by Leaché and Ogilvie (2016), we then manually edited the XML file for stepping-stone sampling (100 steps; 10,000,000 iterations per step; total chain length of 80,000,000). We ran 4 randomly seeded BEAST (v2.4.3) replicates for each model, and combined log (only step1– the final step) and tree files. We assessed convergence of all

parameters visually and using effective sample sizes > 200 using the program Tracer v1.6.0 (Rambaut *et al*, 2014).

Bayes factors (BF) are measurements obtained via Bayesian model comparison to identify the model that best explains empirical data among a group of hypothesized models (Baele et al., 2013; Grummer et al., 2014; Oaks et al. 2019). We calculated Bayes factors on a 2ln(BF) scale by finding twice the pairwise difference between median log marginal likelihood values of the models being compared. We evaluated Bayes factors under the criteria provided by Kass and Raftery (1995): [A] 0 < 2ln(BF) < 2 is not more than a bare mention, [B] 2 < 2ln(BF) < 6 is positive support, [C] 6 < 2ln(BF) < 10 is strong support, and [D] 2ln(BF) > 10 is decisive.

2.2.5 Divergence Time Estimation

We estimated the timing of *Draco maculatus* diversification using *BEAST (in BEAST2) and the species-tree model that best explained the sequence data according to our BFD analyses. The mitochondrial rate of evolution for other agamid lizards has been estimated at ~0.65% per million years (Macey et al., 1998). However, this value was obtained using parsimony distances that did not account for multiple substitutions per site, and therefore may have underestimated the true evolutionary rate. Using the *Paralaudakia* dataset from Macey et al. (1998), we aligned and truncated the mtDNA sequence data (*Paralaudakia*) to only include the *ND2* region used in our study. We estimated pairwise distances by calculating maximum composite likelihoods (sum of the log-likelihoods) between all *Paralaudakia* sequence pairs in MEGA7, and applied these values to the same vicariance-based calibration using statistical regression (Fig. 2.S1; Appendix 2.G). Our analysis estimates an evolutionary rate of 1% per million years for *Paralaudakia*, and we fixed this substitution rate for the *ND2* partition. Rates for the remaining mitochondrial and nuclear regions were estimated based on the sequence data relative to the *ND2* rate.

With both phased nuclear sequence data and mitochondrial sequence data, we used the *BEAST template in BEAUTi for XML file formatting. We linked the tree models for the mitochondrial loci (due to the lack of recombination in the mtDNA genome), but left the tree model unlinked for nuclear loci and site and clock models unlinked for all loci due to the time calibration rate being specific to ND2 region and the differences in the number of variable sites and selected models for each locus. We selected site models using the BIC criterion within the program Partition Finder (Table 2.1; Lanfear et al, 2012). We assumed a strict molecular clock for each locus; we fixed the substitution rate of ND2 to 0.01, and used an exponentially distributed prior (with means and starting values at 0.01) for the other loci. For the scale parameter of the gammadistributed prior on effective population sizes, we used a 1/x prior, with the population function set to "linear with constant root." A Yule process model was used for the species tree prior, which assumes a constant lineage birthrate for each branch of the tree; we assumed a 1/xdistributed prior on the birthrate. For priors on the kappa parameters (transition-transversion parameter of the HKY model or rate AG/CT parameter of the TN93 model, depending on the partition) and shape parameters of the gamma-distributed rates among sites, we used lognormal (log mean = 1, log standard deviation = 1.25) and exponential (mean = 1) distributions, respectively. To sample from the posterior distribution, we ran a Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) simulation for 50,000,000 generations, and sampled every 5,000 generations. We ran five replicate BEAST (v2.4.8) analyses with random number starting seeds. Within the program

Tracer v1.6.0 (Rambaut *et al*, 2014) we examined stationary and convergence for all parameters visually and using effective sample sizes (ESS) greater than 200 (after discarding the first 25% of each run as burn-in), and visualized species trees in Figtree (Rambaut, 2012). We consider Bayesian posterior probabilities (PP) \geq 0.95 as statistically significant (Wilcox *et al*, 2002).

2.3 Results

2.3.1 Sequence Variation

Our concatenated alignment of six gene regions included 4311 base pairs, and aligned sequences revealed that while mtDNA data comprise 56 percent of the complete dataset, it contributes 85 percent of the total variable sites. Further, mtDNA nucleotide diversity is more than an order of magnitude greater than that of each nDNA locus. These results were expected due to the high mutation rate of the mitochondrial genome. Table 2.1 summarizes locus diversity by clade and best-fit models of nucleotide substitution.

2.3.2 ND2 Guide Tree Recovers Five Major Clades

The ND2 ML tree estimated using all individuals (we will refer to this tree as the "ND2 guide tree" in subsequent references within this paper) recovered five well-supported clades (Fig. 2.S2), which may represent instances of local endemism in five regions of Indochina: (1) Central [bootstrap proportion (BP) = 81], (2) Northeast [a.k.a. China-Vietnam Coastal Plain; BP = 100], (3) Hainan Island [BP = 100], (4) Southeast [BP = 70], and (5) West [BP = 100].

2.3.3 Discordant ML Trees from Sub-sample Set

Topological comparisons between trees indicate that the six-locus ML tree appears to be primarily influenced by the mitochondrial rather than the nuclear data (Fig. 2.S3; Fig. 2.2). Further, this mtDNA topology ML tree seems to be largely influenced by ND2 sequences, the 12S and 16S gene trees reflect similar relationships where nodes are well-supported, but between-group relationships are unsupported (Figs. 2.S4–2.S6). The concatenated nDNA ML tree (Fig. 2.2B) and each nDNA gene tree (Figs. 2.S4–2.S8) are discordant with the 6-locus (Fig. 2.S3) and mitochondrial (Fig. 2.2A) ML trees. However, the concatenated nDNA ML tree contains very few (3 of 58) well-supported nodes. The tip labeled "?" in both Figs. 2.2A and 2.2B (and supplemental figures) corresponds to an individual that was purchased at a market (ROM47738), and therefore the locality could not be specified.

2.3.4 Genus-wide Analysis Shows Species-level Divergence

In order to compare the divergence between mitochondrial lineages in a genus-wide context, we examined phylogenetic distance between sister pairs across *Draco*. Our resulting genus-wide *ND2* ML tree (Fig. 2.3) largely reflects the relationships estimated by McGuire and Kiew (2001). Differences in topology between the trees include two regions where bootstrap support values are low in both analyses (relationships within the Philippine *volans* group, and the placement of *D. sumatranus* relative to *D. volans* and the *D. boschmai* group). Reasons for variation between these trees may include (A) shorter sequence region (our alignment did not include the tRNA regions that were obtained by McGuire and Kiew [2001]), (B) decreased tip diversity (we did not include undescribed species or geographic variants used by McGuire and Kiew [2001]), and (C) different methodology (PAUP* vs IQ-TREE, GTR vs TIM2). Because all points of disagreement

involve poorly supported relationships, we do not address other species placements within *Draco*.

Draco maculatus within the genus-wide ND2 ML tree subdivides into the same five clades we see in Fig. 2.2A, albeit with reduced support for the Central (BP = 64) and Southeast (BP = 56) clades (it is worth noting that the Southeast clade receives strong support [BP = 100] at the node excluding ROM32033 [locality G; Fig. 2.S10]). Our genus-wide comparisons show that the phylogenetic distance between the lineages described in this study ([West]-[Central]: 0.18; [Hainan Island]-[Northeast]:0.14; [[Hainan Island]-[Northeast]]-[Southeast]: 0.16) are greater than 27% of our included *Draco* sister pairs (Appendix 2.E). When species richness per sister group is accounted for (i.e., when the number of species in the sister clade is taken into account), the [West]-[Central] lineages are separated by a phylogenetic distance greater than 55 percent of other *Draco* species (Fig. 2.3B). The [[Hainan Island]-[Northeast]]-[Southeast] group is separated by a phylogenetic distance greater than 16 percent of other *Draco* species (Fig. 2.3B). The [[Hainan Island]-[Northeast]]-[Southeast] group is separated by a phylogenetic distance greater than 25 percent of other *Draco* species (Fig. 2.3B). The [[Hainan Island]-[Northeast]]-[Southeast] group is separated by a phylogenetic distance greater than 55 percent of other *Draco* species (Fig. 2.3B). The [[Hainan Island]-[Northeast]]-[Southeast] group is separated by a phylogenetic distance greater than 16 percent of other *Draco* species (Fig. 2.3B). The set data imply that, according to this mitochondrial region (*ND2*), these *D. maculatus* lineages have experienced divergence commensurate with the majority of included comparable *Draco* species.

2.3.5 **BFD Supports Eight Lineages**

The MCMC computational running time for marginal likelihood estimation (MLE) is described in Appendix 2.F. It is worth re-emphasizing that although information from mtDNA sequence data was used in model design (models F, H, and M), we did not use these sequence data for testing any of the models (MLE analyses were performed using nDNA sequence data only). The River-8 hypothesis (Model A) yielded the largest median MLE value (see Table 2.2). Bayes factor analyses of model A with each other model indicates the following: decisive support compared to models L–O, strong support compared to model D–K, and positive support compared to model B and C (Fig. 2.4). Based on these findings we infer that (1) *Draco maculatus* is not a single, pannictic population, and (2) current subspecies taxonomy does not best reflect evolutionary history. We found a strong positive correlation between the lineage number and the estimated marginal likelihood ($p < 1.0 \times 10^{-5}$), indicating that our BFD may favor splitting.

<u>The River-8 hypothesis (Model A)</u>: Aquatic barriers best explain the nDNA variation. Riverine and marine bodies acting as agents of geographic isolation include the Chao Phraya, Ayeyarwady, Mekong, Red, and Salween rivers and the Qiongzhou Strait. Lineage descriptions: (1) Western Myanmar Hills [east of Ayeyarwady], (2) Central Myanmar Lowlands [west of Ayeyarwady, east of Salween], (3) Thai-Malay Peninsula, (4) Shan Hills [west of Salween, east of Mekong, north of Chao Phraya], (5) Cardamom Mountains [west of Mekong, east of Chao Phraya], (6) Annamite Mountains [east of Mekong, south of Red], (7) China-Vietnam Coastal Plain [north of Red], and (8) Hainan Island [separated by Qiongzhou Strait].

2.3.6 Species Trees and Divergence Time Estimations

Because BFD indicated strongest support for model A, we used this model for estimating a species tree using all of the data (mtDNA and nDNA; Fig. 2.5). Our time-calibrated species tree estimate (Fig. 2.5) indicates strong support for the monophyly of *Draco maculatus* with respect to *D. fimbriatus*, with the split between the two occurring 30 - 16 mya (placing the most recent

common ancestor [MRCA] within the Late Oligocene – Early Miocene). Estimates for the most recent common ancestor for all extant *D. maculatus* range between 10 - 7 mya, placing the basal node of the *D. maculatus* radiation during the Late Miocene. Timing of diversification events within *D. maculatus* ranges throughout the Late Miocene, Pliocene, and Pleistocene. We include biogeographic implications with respect to estimated node ages within the discussion.

2.4 Discussion

In order to provide a biogeographical analysis of Indochina and assess the lineage content of the *Draco maculatus* complex, we performed a comprehensive phylogenetic analysis of *D. maculatus* with samples from across Indochina. Our ML results indicate that that this widespread species is actually composed of at least five lineages whose mitochondria are as divergent from one another as most other currently recognized *Draco* species pairs, and our BFD results support eight divergent lineages. Contemporary river courses for the major rivers of Indochina, which have been suggested as agents of diversification in other Indochinese taxa, appear to correlate with phylogeographic breaks between divergent *D. maculatus* lineages.

2.4.1 Biogeography

Musters (1983) suggested that the variation observed in *Draco maculatus* may be a result of population isolation during the last glacial period. Our divergence time estimations based on molecular clock analysis suggest that most divergence within *D. maculatus* predates the onset of the Quaternary ice age (Fig. 2.5), therefore rendering Musters' (1983) hypothesis unlikely. While Pleistocene glacial cycles likely had little influence on diversification of the *D. maculatus* species complex, older forces within this region may have played important roles. Changes in

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forest structure and microhabitat offer one potential explanation. However, throughout most of the Miocene and Pliocene predominantly warm and humid conditions persisted throughout much of Indochina (Meijaard and Groves, 2006) and montane dynamics remained mostly stable (Bain and Hurley, 2011; Workman, 1975). Water barrier dynamics offer another explanation, wherein shifting river courses and marine channels may have restricted gene flow and led to population divergence (see Wallace, 1852). To evaluate the potential role of riverine barriers in *D. maculatus* diversification, we examined alternative associations of six water channels (Chao Phraya, Ayeyarwady, Mekong, Salween, and Red rivers, and the Qiongzhou Strait) relative to lineage boundaries within the *D. maculatus* complex (see Table 2.3). While each of these rivers has an origin on the Tibetan Plateau dating back to the Miocene (Brookfield, 1998), their volumes and downstream courses have experienced substantial shifts over time.

The Mekong river is Southeast Asia's largest river and one of the ten largest rivers in the world today. The upper Mekong river valley became deeply incised within the Qiantang, Lhasa, and Himalaya terranes during the middle Miocene (Nie et al., 2018). This date for rapid river cutting coincides with a period of strong monsoon activity within Southeast Asia (Clift, 2006; Guo et al., 2002), in which intensified erosion likely contributed to the reported increase in incision rate of the Mekong River Valley. Geological and biological evidence indicates that until recently (post-Pleistocene), the Mekong and Salween rivers joined the Siam River system and flowed to the presently recognized Gulf of Thailand through the Chao Phraya River Basin, dividing Indochina into East and West regions (Sawamura and Laming, 1974; Carbonnel, 1965; Hutchinson, 1989; Attwood and Johnston, 2001; Glaubrecht and Köhler, 2004; Lukoschek et al., 2011). The basal *D. maculatus* bifurcation reflected in both the mtDNA ML tree (Fig. 2.2A) and time-calibrated

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species tree (Fig. 2.5) correspond with the presence of this longitudinal riverine boundary (9.9 – 6.5 mya; Late Miocene), and may explain the geographic and phylogenetic division within the species tree into east/west groups.

The Red River fault zone forms the boundary between the South China and Indochina plates, where water flow has remained constant through the Red River since the India-Asia collision ~30 mya, (Searle, 2006; Leloup et al., 1995; Hall, 1998). This shear zone largely delimits the boundary between subtropical and tropical climates (Chen and Chen, 2013; Peel et al., 2007). The Red River is hypothesized to inhibit gene flow in the bird *Parus monticolus* (Wang et al., 2012), and in the frogs *Microhyla fissipes* (Yuan et al., 2016), *Leptobrachium ailaonicum* (Zhang et al., 2010b), and *Nanorana yunnanensis* (Zhang et al., 2010a), *Ichthyophis bannanicus* (Wang et al., 2015), and appears to coincide with a barrier for the two northeast lineages (China-Vietnam Coastal Plain + Hainan Island) from populations to the west (Cardamom Mountains + Annamite Mountains + Shan Hills; Fig. 2.5). Divergence time estimation in other organisms around the Red River are consistent our estimates for *Draco maculatus* (8.6 – 6.0 mya; Yuan et al., 2016; Zhang et al., 2010a; Zhang et al., 2010b), which is contemporaneous with a significant extrusion event along the Red River fault zone (Xiang et al., 2004; Leloup et al., 1995).

While the geological (volcanic vs. continental) and geographic (Leizhou Peninsula vs Beibu Gulf) history of Hainan Island is debated (Zhao et al., 2007; Zhu, 2016), it is widely accepted that the Qiongzhou Strait has separated the island from the Leizhou Peninsula for the past ~2.5 million years with periodic land bridges during glacial maxima. MtDNA indicates significant divergence between the Northeast clade (China-Vietnam Coastal Plain) and Hainan Island clade (Figs. 2.2A, 2.6), and divergence time estimation suggests that these lineages split between 7.0– 2.1 mya (Fig. 2.5). While a portion of this range predates the estimated origin of the Qiongzhou Strait, it reflects similar squamate colonization times across the same marine channel in the snakes *Trimeresurus albolabris* (Zhu et al., 2015), *T. stejnegeri* (Liang et al., 2018), and *Protobothrops mucrosquamatus* (Guo et al., 2019), and the gecko *Goniurosaurus lichtenfelderi* (Guo et al., 2016).

The Salween and Ayeyarwady Rivers also appear to be associated with population structure in *Draco maculatus*, an observation consistent with the century-old "Mekong-Salween Divide" and "Salween-Ayeyarwady Divide" hypotheses (Li et al., 2011; Ward, 1921). The Central Myanmar Lowland and Western Myanmar Hills lineages, divided by the Salween, diverged between 3.5 - 1.5 mya, and these two lineages diverged from the Thai-Malay Peninsula group between 3.9 - 2.7 mya. These divergence times coincide with the hypothesized capture of a major drainage in the Southeastern region (~4 mya), which increased the volume of the Salween via capture of the Mekong (Clark et al., 2004). Other Indochinese vertebrates also appear to experience population divergence corresponding to the course of the Salween and Ayeyarwady river basins, including in the gecko genus *Cyrtodactylus* (Wood Jr. et al., 2012; Agarwal et al., 2014), bird genera *Phylloscopus* and *Seicercus* (Johansson et al., 2007), gibbon genera *Bunopithecus* and *Hylobates* (Takacs et al., 2005), and bat genus *Cynopterus* (Campbell et al., 2004).

The current course of the Mekong River has received much attention in studies of Indochinese biogeography (Geissler et al., 2015; Bain and Hurley, 2011; Tantrawatpan, 2011; Meijaard and Groves, 2006; Fooden, 1996; Long et al., 1994), with mixed results regarding its impact on gene

flow. Contrasting biogeographic findings within this region may be due in part to the dynamic history of the Mekong, which has experienced a great West to East geographical shift (over 700 km) since the Pleistocene (Carbonnel, 1965; Hutchinson, 1989). Because of the unique histories of the Upper (stable) and Lower (west-east shifting) Mekong, the geographically entangled relationships between Cardamom (4.7–7.8 mya), Annamite (2.1–6.1 mya), and Shan regions are not totally unsurprising (Fig. 2.5). These results echo similar findings in other draconinae lizards (e.g., genus *Calotes*), where the lower Mekong River appears to coincide with a barrier to gene flow (Hartmann et al., 2013).

Several instances of river boundaries separating color-morph races occur within species of *Heliconius*, a neotropical butterfly genus that has become a model for understanding processes of speciation (Lamas, 1982; Beltrán et al., 2002; Arias et al., 2008; Muñoz et al., 2011). Similarly, with the *Draco maculatus* species complex exhibiting widespread color pattern polymorphism, population structure, and phylogenetic boundaries coinciding with riverine barriers, we see potential for the *Draco maculatus* species complex being used as a terrestrial vertebrate system to understand tropical speciation and biodiversification. Understanding whether the rivers themselves versus other co-occuring ecological factors (i.e., the distinct Chinese floristic provinces found on the west and east sides of the upper Salween [Wu and Wu, 1998]) requires further examination involving the specific geographical history of these rivers.

2.4.2 Phylogenetic Discordance and the "Out of China" Hypothesis

The smaller effective population size of the mitochondrial genome (1/4 that of the nuclear genome) is expected to lead to more rapid lineage sorting of the mitochondrion (Funk and

Omland, 2003; Lynch, 2006). Furthermore, phylogenetic estimation of the ND2 genealogy is aided by the high mutation rate of this region and its length relative to other loci included in this study, two characteristics which resulted in a high number of variable sites (Appendix 2.D). Additionally, all three mitochondrial regions evolved along a single gene tree (due to the lack of recombination in the mitochondrial genome; Nichols, 2001). This would explain the wellsupported, divergent clades in the mitochondrial tree (Fig. 2.2A), whereas a slower sorting rate of ancestral variation would explain the lack of monophyletic clustering in the nuclear tree (Fig. 2.2B). The larger effective population size and slower mutation rate of nDNA results in a greater time requirement for identifiable lineage emergence (Nichols, 2001). While the effect of incomplete lineage sorting makes it difficult to recover more strongly supported relationships, studies using genome-wide SNP data have had success in resolving previously obscure species boundaries (e.g. Rubin et al., 2012; Leaché et al., 2014; Hou et al., 2017). We suggest that further studies seeking to resolve the *D. maculatus* phylogeny at a finer scale implement a highthroughput SNP dataset.

If the observed mitonuclear phylogenetic discordance is due to incomplete lineage sorting, the region with the most widespread variation throughout the tree may hint at the geographic origin of *Draco maculatus*. Samples from the Northeast clade occur as a monophyletic group sister to all other *D. maculatus* samples, and the remaining Northeast samples are scattered throughout the nDNA ML tree (Fig. 2.2B). This extensive variation could be due to this region being the ancestral origin of the *D. maculatus* lineages, but is contrary to Musters' (1983) hypothesis of *D. maculatus* originating in Thailand. Furthermore, the species within the sister clade of *D. maculatus* (*D. cristatellus*, *D. fimbriatus*, and *D. hennigi*, *D. punctatus*) are all found south of the

Isthmus of Kra, suggesting the initial split may have occurred here. Future testing of biogeographic hypotheses would benefit from inclusion of samples from Thailand.

2.4.3 Regarding Taxonomy

In this study, we provide the first fine-scale molecular examination of the *Draco maculatus* species complex. While our findings from BFD support eight divergent lineages, the multispecies coalescent implemented in *BEAST assumes no population structure within species, and thus can be biased toward lineage division. We therefore opt against elevating subspecies to species status or creating new names for these divergent *D. maculatus* lineages.

Major examinations implementing morphological and molecular analyses have aided in understanding species richness and composition of the Phillipine, Sulawesi, and *Draco fimbriatus* groups (McGuire and Alcala, 2000; McGuire et al., 2007; McGuire et al., 2018). However, the *Draco maculatus* complex has received no such treatment and has consistently puzzled taxonomists (Honda et al., 1999; McGuire and Kiew, 2001). Although the four subspecies were originally described as full species (Gray, 1845; Taylor, 1934; Boettger, 1893; Boulenger, 1899; Appendix 2.A), lack of information regarding the presence or absence of intergradation at the subspecies boundaries has left taxonomists reluctant to elevate subspecies to species status (see, for example, McGuire and Kiew, 2001; Taylor, 1963, Musters, 1983). McGuire and Kiew (2001) suggest the need for a phylogeographic and/or fine-scale morphological study to better understand relationships among the *D. maculatus* subspecies. We echo this suggestion, and recommend that future studies sample individuals from the contact zones of the divergent lineages described in this study. While superimposing our sampling localities over the subspecies ranges described by Taylor (1963) and Musters (1983) indicates general geographic clustering of some subspecies within unique clades of the ML tree (Fig. 2.1), our results reject the current recognition "four subspecies" of *Draco maculatus* restricted to West Indochina (*D. maculatus maculatus*), Southeast Indochina (*D. maculatus haasei*), Northeast Indochina (*D. maculatus whiteheadi*), and the Chiang Mai Valley (*D. maculatus divergens*) on the basis of (A) our concatenated ML trees recovering a divergent clade grouping samples of westernmost Myanmar with southeastern Laos [Central clade], and (B) our recovery of a divergent fifth clade [Hainan Island] sister to the mainland Northeast clade. The range of *D. maculatus divergens* is defined as being strictly within the Chiang Mai Valley, therefore the Central clade is either a unique group or the range of *D. maculatus divergens* is larger than previously assumed.

Studies of morphology in subspecies have been biased by geographical sampling limitations. For example, the key Musters (1983) developed for subspecies identification only examined *Draco maculatus whiteheadi* from Hainan Island (the type locality), but no material from the mainland. Our molecular results question the taxonomic proximity of island individuals with those of the adjacent mainland, indicating that *D. maculatus* of Hainan may be endemic to the island. Lastly, our genus-wide gene tree (Fig. 2.3) supports the hypothesis that species-level diversity is present within this group, waiting to be described.

2.5 Conclusion

Our results support the hypothesis that there are multiple divergent lineages within *Draco maculatus*. Comparing the fit of a suite of hypotheses for explaining the distribution of genetic variation across this species indicate that the major rivers of Indochina coincide with boundaries between divergent lineages. The rapid origin of the massive Siam River (sourced by the current Upper Mekong) along its Pre-Pleistocene course within the Chao Phraya river valley may have acted as a major geographic barrier, resulting in the phylogenetic split of west and east lineages. These groups may be phenotypically distinct based on dewlap color, with the West group possessing a sky-blue patch at the base of the dewlap and the east group lacking such a patch. Given similar patterns have been observed in other phylogeographic studies in Indochina, our results suggest riverine vicariance as a mechanism for diversification of *D. maculatus* within this megadiverse hotspot.

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Chapter 2: Figures

Figure 2.1 Indochina and Study Sampling
Figure 2.2 Lineage Divergence in *Draco maculatus*Figure 2.3 Species Richness and Lineage Divergence in *Draco*Figure 2.4 Bayes Factor Results

Figure 2.5 Divergence Time Estimates



Figure 2.1: Indochina and Study Sampling

Map of Indochina with sample localities (grey circles, labeled alphabetically), geographic ranges of Draco maculatus subspecies (colored), and the major rivers within the region. Dewlap illustrations for each subspecies are based on diagnostic characters from live- animal and specimen examinations by Musters (1983) and Taylor (1963).





Maximum likelihood phylogenies for (A) mitochondrial sequence data (12S, 16S, ND2) and (B) nuclear sequence data (BDNF, CMOS, PNN). Filled circles indicate nodes with BV greater than or equal to 70. Tip letters correspond to sampling localities in Fig. 1. Colored lineages represent divergent clades of Draco maculatus: Navy blue = West, green = China-Vietnam Coastal Plain, light blue = Hainan Island, orange = Southeast, light yellow = Central.



Figure 2.3: Species Richness and Lineage Divergence in Draco

Genus-wide analysis of phylogenetic distance using ND2 sequence data. (A) Gene tree. Filled circles at nodes indicate BV greater than or equal to 70. Colored lineages represent divergent clades of Draco maculatus: Navy blue = West, green = China-Vietnam Coastal Plain, light blue = Hainan Island, orange = Southeast, light yellow = Central. Each D. maculatus lineages is an average branch length for all samples pertaining to the respective clade (Sample sizes: West = 28, Central = 3, Southeast = 11, Hainan Island = 3, China-Vietnam Coastal Plain = 12). (B) Plot showing phylogenetic distance between Draco species and sister lineages. The x-axis groups species by the number of species in their sister lineage. We plotted the data in this manner to show that phylogenetic distance is positively associated with the number of species in the sister lineage, thus showing that the divergence between a species with a single sister species is not directly comparable to a species with three species in its sister lineage. Colored circles correspond to D. maculatus lineages in (A). The line of best fit is shown by the diagonal red line (Adjusted R2 =

0.3021, p-value = 0.003)



Figure 2.4: Bayes Factor Results

Experimental Design and Results from Bayes Factor Delimitation (BFD). Left: Models depicted in map form, with colored letters corresponding to model category (riverine barriers, mtDNA clustering, or historical taxonomy). Right: Plot for the estimated marginal log-likelihood scores of eight replicates. Model letters on x-axis correspond to those above each map. Vertical lines indicate 2ln(BF) value for model A compared to each other model.





Time-calibrated maximum clade credibility trees for the best-supported model (River-8 [Model A]), estimated from DNA sequence data of six loci. Filled circles indicate nodes greater than or equal to 0.95 BPP. Grey bars show the 95% HPD (Bayesian credible interval) for timing of divergence. Tree tip colors correspond to the localities shown on the map.

Chapter 2: Tables

Table 2.1: Summary statistics and selected models for each of the four loci sequenced: *12S*, *16S*, *ND2*, *BDNF*, *CMOS*, and *PNN*. (treating the mtDNA regions as a single locus). S = number of segregating sites, π = nucleotide diversity.

Locus	Function	n	Nucleotide Sites	Variable Sites	Percent Variable	Site Model Selected	Haplotypes	π
mtDNA	Protein & RNA Coding	53	2470	601	24%	TrN+G	58	0.077
BDNF	Protein Coding	54	730	51	7%	K80+G	42	0.007
CMOS	Protein Coding	54	422	29	7%	K80+G	26	0.007
PNN	Protein Coding	54	689	44	6%	TrN+G	30	0.007
Total	-	54	4311	704	16%	NA	NA	NA

Table 2.2: Marginal-likelihood estimation (MLE) for each species hypothesis and pairwise Bayes factor delimitation (BFD) between each of the four tested hypotheses. BFD interpretation is as follows: 0 < 2ln(BF) < 2 is not more than a bare mention, 2 < 2ln(BF) < 6 is positive support, 6 < 2ln(BF) < 10 is strong support, and 10 < 2ln(BF) is decisive.

Hypothesis	Туре	N Lineages	Median MLE	2In BF (Hyp A)
А	riverine barriers	8	-4407.60	-
В	riverine barriers	7	-4419.38	4.93
С	riverine barriers	7	-4422.14	5.35
D	riverine barriers	6	-4433.22	6.49
E	riverine barriers	6	-4449.44	7.47
F	mtDNA clustering	5	-4455.48	7.74
G	riverine barriers	5	-4464.10	8.07
Н	mtDNA clustering	4	-4469.22	8.24
I	historical taxonomy	3	-4532.99	9.66
J	historical taxonomy	3	-4534.02	9.68
K	historical taxonomy	3	-4534.75	9.69
L	riverine barriers	2	-4577.66	10.27
Μ	riverine barriers	2	-4582.74	10.33
Ν	mtDNA clustering	2	-4597.62	10.49
0	historical taxonomy	1	-4754.80	11.70

Table 2.3: Divergent lineages from the River-8 Hypothesis (Model A) along with the riverine barriers corresponding to phylogenetic breaks and relevant geographical history (references cited in section 4.1). Lineages include China-Vietnam Coastal Plain (CVCP), Hainan Island (HI), Central Myanmar Lowlands (CML), Western Myanmar Hills (WMH), and Thai-Malay Peninsula (TML) lineages, and the two major branches from the basal node of *Draco maculatus* (East & West). EDT = Estimated divergence time.

Lineages	EDT	Barrier	Geographical relevance to est. divergence time
East / West	9.9 – 6.5	Siam River (Chao Phraya River Basin)	Corresponds with Middle Miocene rapid river cutting for Siam River
(CVCP + HI) / West	8.6 - 6.0	Red River	Corresponds with extrusion event along the Song Hong fault zone
CVCP / HI	7.0–2.1	Qiongzhou Strait	Predates assumed strait formation, but reflects other studies
CML / WMH	3.5 – 1.5	Salween	Corresponds with river capture event (Mekong -> Salween)

Chapter 2: Appendices

Appendix 2.A: Subspecies names (with description reference), distribution, and dewlap

coloration based on previous studies of multiple individuals.

Subspecies	Distribution	Dewlap Color
Draco maculatus divergens (Taylor, 1934)	Chiang Mai, Thailand	Dewlap dirty greenish with a dim blue spot (Taylor, 1963). Blue spot on base of gular pouch (Musters, 1983)
Draco maculatus haasei (Boettger, 1893)	Indochinese Peninsula (Eastern Thailand, Cambodia, Southern Vietnam)	Base of dewlap deep orange and lacking blue spot. (Taylor, 1963). Base of dewlap yellow/white and lacking blue spot (Musters, 1983).
Draco maculatus maculatus (Gray, 1845)	Western Indochina (Eastern India, Myanmar, Western & Southern Thailand, Peninsular Malaysia)	Bright blue spot on base of dewlap, with front and terminals pearl grey (Taylor, 1963). Blue spot at base of dewlap (Musters, 1983)
Draco maculatus whiteheadi (Boulenger, 1900)	Northeastern Indochina (Northern Vietnam, Hainan Island)	Dewlap blue at end, red behind base (Taylor, 1963).Base of gular pouch brownish (Musters, 1983).

Appendix 2.B: List of samples with voucher ID (VID), locality ID from Fig. 1 (LID), country codes (C), latitude & longitude coordinates, and GenBank numbers for all sequences used in this study.

VID	Taxon	LID	С	Lat	Long	ND2	12S	16S	BDNF	CMOS	PNN
TNHC57874	Aphaniotis fuscus	-	MYS	3.33	101.77	AF288228.1	-	-	-	-	-
TNHC56517	Bronchocela cristatella	-	MYS	1.72	110.33	AF288229.1	-	-	-	-	-
LSUMZ81212	Japalura splendida	-	-	-	-	AF288230.1	-	-	-	-	-
TNHC56803	Draco maximus	-	MYS	6.05	116.70	AF288231.1	-	-	-	-	-
TNHC56829	Draco quinquefasciatus	-	MYS	3.33	101.77	AF288232.1	-	-	-	-	-
TNHC58527	Draco spilopterus	-	PHI	9.22	123.57	AF288240.1	-	-	-	-	-
TNHC57786	Draco bimaculatus	-	PHI	11.80	125.27	AF288241.1	-	-	-	-	-
TNHC56531	Draco blanfordii	-	MYS	6.68	100.18	AF288242.1	-	-	-	-	-
ROM31987	Draco indochinensis	-	VNM	13.18	108.68	AF288243.1	-	-	-	-	-
TNHC56769	Draco cornutus	-	MYS	6.05	116.70	AF288244.1	-	-	-	-	-
TNHC56842	Draco cyanopterus	-	PHI	6.97	125.42	AF288245.1	-	-	-	-	-
TNHC56702	Draco reticulatus	-	PHI	9.83	124.14	AF288247.1	-	-	-	-	-
TNHC58848	Draco mindanensis	-	PHI	7.19	125.41	AF288249.1	-	-	-	-	-
TNHC56814	Draco obscurus	-	MYS	6.05	116.70	AF288250.1	-	-	-	-	-
TNHC56685	Draco taeniopterus	-	MYS	6.68	100.18	AF288251.1	-	-	-	-	-
TNHC55072	Draco ornatus	-	PHI	11.86	125.07	AF288252.1	-	-	-	-	-
TNHC56763	Draco cristatellus	-	MYS	1.73	110.33	AF288255.1	-	-	-	-	-
LSUMZ81446	Draco punctatus	-	IDN	-	-	AF288257.1	-	-	-	-	-
TNHC56847	Draco haematopogon	-	MYS	4.84	100.78	AF288259.1	-	-	-	-	-
TNHC58847	Draco guentheri	-	PHI	7.19	125.41	AF288260.1	-	-	-	-	-
TNHC55067	Draco quadrasi	-	PHI	13.37	121.06	AF288261.1	-	-	-	-	-
TNHC56719	Draco palawanensis	-	PHI	14.58	120.98	AF288262.1	-	-	-	-	-
TNHC56540	Draco formosus	-	MYS	3.33	101.77	AF288263.1	-	-	-	-	-
TNHC56728	Draco sumatranus	-	MYS	3.33	101.77	AF288265.1	-	-	-	-	-
LSUMZ81441	Draco volans	-	IDN	-7.45	110.52	AF288267.1	-	-	-	-	-
WAM104530	Draco boschmai	-	IDN	8.67	120.81	AF288269.1	-	-	-	-	-
WAM107005	Draco timoriensis	-	IDN	- 10.17	123.60	AF288275.1	-	-	-	-	-
LSUMZ81223	Draco walkeri	-	IDN	2.64	120.18	AF288276.1	-	-	-	-	-
LSUMZ81270	Draco biaro	-	IDN	2.10	125.38	AF288277.1	-	-	-	-	-
LSUMZ81297	Draco bourouiensis	-	IDN	3.75	126.79	AF288279.1	-	-	-	-	-
LSUMZ81327	Draco rhytisma	-	IDN	-1.59	123.22	AF288280.1	-	-	-	-	-
LSUMZ81307	Draco caerulhians	-	IDN	3.61	125.48	AF288281.1	-	-	-	-	-
LSUMZ81375	Draco spilonotus	-	IDN	1.43	124.98	AF288282.1	-	-	-	-	-
USNM559811	Ptyctolaemus collicristatus	-	MMR	21.37	93.98	AY555837.1	-	-	-	-	-

CAS210160	Draco maculatus	L	MMR	22.32	94.48	MT041888	MT031857	MT040978	MK754266	MK754325	MT041831
CAS210245	Draco maculatus	L	MMR	22.32	94.48	MT041889	MT031858	MT040979	MK754267	MK754326	MT041832
CAS210502	Draco maculatus	L	MMR	22.32	94.47	MT041890	MT031859	MT040980	MK754268	MK754327	MT041833
CAS214083	Draco maculatus	0	MMR	20.91	95.24	MT041891	MT031860	MT040981	MK754269	MK754328	MT041834
CAS215259	Draco maculatus	Р	MMR	20.70	96.51	MT041892	MT031861	MT040982	MK754270	MK754329	MT041835
CAS215538	Draco maculatus	L	MMR	22.32	94.44	MT041893	MT031862	MT040983	MK754271	MK754330	MT041836
CAS215634	Draco maculatus	L	MMR	22.32	94.49	MT041894	MT031863	MT040984	MK754272	MK754331	MT041837
CAS215637	Draco maculatus	L	MMR	22.32	94.49	MT041895	MT031864	MT040985	MK754273	MK754332	MT041838
CAS220002	Draco maculatus	Ν	MMR	21.38	93.97	MT041896	MT031865	MT040986	MK754274	MK754333	MT041839
CAS220005	Draco maculatus	Ν	MMR	21.38	93.97	MT041897	MT031866	MT040987	MK754275	MK754334	MT041840
CAS220006	Draco maculatus	Ν	MMR	21.38	93.97	MT041898	MT031867	MT040988	MK754276	MK754335	MT041841
CAS220007	Draco maculatus	Ν	MMR	21.38	93.97	MT041899	MT031868	MT040989	MK754277	MK754336	MT041842
CAS220018	Draco maculatus	Ν	MMR	21.37	93.98	MT041900	MT031869	MT040990	MK754278	MK754337	MT041843
CAS220019	Draco maculatus	Ν	MMR	21.37	93.98	MT041901	MT031870	MT040991	MK754279	MK754338	MT041844
CAS220050	Draco maculatus	Ν	MMR	21.33	93.92	MT041902	MT031871	MT040992	MK754280	MK754339	MT041845
CAS220257	Draco maculatus	Q	MMR	17.70	94.65	MT041903	MT031872	MT040993	MK754281	MK754340	MT041846
CAS221127	Draco maculatus	М	MMR	21.00	92.88	MT041904	MT031873	MT040994	MK754282	MK754341	MT041847
CAS222144	Draco maculatus	S	MMR	18.90	96.06	MT041905	MT031874	MT040995	MK754283	MK754342	MT041848
CAS228463	Draco maculatus	Р	MMR	21.12	96.35	MT041906	MT031875	MT040996	MK754284	MK754343	MT041849
CAS228472	Draco maculatus	U	MMR	13.84	98.45	MT041907	MT031876	MT040997	MK754285	MK754344	MT041850
CAS228473	Draco maculatus	Y	MMR	21.20	99.76	MT041908	MT031877	MT040998	MK754286	MK754345	MT041851
CAS228474	Draco maculatus	Y	MMR	21.32	99.30	MT041909	MT031878	MT040999	MK754287	MK754346	MT041852
CAS228475	Draco maculatus	V	MMR	10.00	98.54	MT041910	MT031879	MT041000	MK754288	MK754347	MT041853
CAS235050	Draco maculatus	Ν	MMR	21.69	93.80	MT041911	-	-	-	-	-
CAS235106	Draco maculatus	Ν	MMR	21.60	93.94	MT041912	MT031880	MT041001	MK754289	MK754348	MT041854
CAS235961	Draco maculatus	V	MMR	10.46	98.50	MT041913	-	-	-	-	-
CAS239914	Draco maculatus	Q	MMR	19.03	93.81	MT041914	-	-	-	-	-
CAS239915	Draco maculatus	Q	MMR	19.03	93.81	MT041915	MT031881	MT041002	MK754290	MK754349	MT041855
CAS239934	Draco maculatus	Q	MMR	18.95	93.83	MT041916	-	-	-	-	-
CAS243205	Draco maculatus	К	MMR	23.74	93.57	MT041917	-	-	-	-	-
CAS243219	Draco maculatus	К	MMR	23.77	93.57	MT041918	-	-	-	-	-
FMNH263343	Draco maculatus	J	KHM	11.33	104.07	MT041919	-	-	-	-	-
KU311487	Draco maculatus	С	CHN	22.78	111.05	MT041920	MT031892	MT041013	MK754298	MK754359	MT041861
KU311482	Draco maculatus	В	CHN	23.01	109.10	MT041921	MT031888	MT041009	MK754294	MK754353	MT041858
MVZ226483	Draco maculatus	D	VNM	21.45	105.64	MT041922	-	-	-	-	-
MVZ226484	Draco maculatus	D	VNM	21.45	105.64	MT041923	-	-	MK754318	MK754376	MT076080
MVZ241447	Draco maculatus	E	CHN	19.13	109.96	MT041924	-	-	MK754319	MK754377	MT041881
NCSM85190	Draco maculatus	Z	LAO	17.65	105.74	MT041925	MT031910	MT041031	MK754320	MK754378	MT041882

ROM35898	Draco maculatus	D	VNM	21.21	106.48	MT041926	MT031912	MT041032	MK754322	MK754380	MT041884
ROM35899	Draco maculatus	D	VNM	21.21	106.48	MT041927	-	-	-	-	-
ROM47737	Draco maculatus	F	VNM	?	?	MT041928	-	-	-	-	-
ROM47738	Draco maculatus	F	VNM	?	?	MT041929	MT031913	MT041033	MK754323	MK754381	MT041885
TNHC56576	Draco maculatus	х	MYS	6.63	100.21	MT041930	MT031886	MT041007	MK754292	MK754351	MT041886
LSUMZ81826	Draco maculatus	Е	CHN	18.91	109.69	MT041931	MT031914	MT041034	MK754324	MK754382	MT041887
USNM587772	Draco maculatus	т	MMR	17.44	97.10	MT041932	-	-	-	-	-
ROM32033	Draco maculatus	G	VNM	14.34	108.48	MT041933	MT031911	-	MK754321	MK754379	MT041883
LSUHC5617	Draco punctatus	-	MYS	5.33	101.37	MT041934	MT031884	MT041005	MK754303	-	MT041866
ROM32032	Draco maculatus	G	VNM	14.34	108.48	MT041935	-	-	-	-	-
LSUHC4191	Draco maculatus	Е	CHN	18.82	109.51	MT041936	-	-	-	-	-
LSUHC7852	Draco maculatus	н	KHM	12.26	103.00	MT041937	MT031906	MT041027	MK754311	MK754369	MT041875
LSUHC7919	Draco maculatus	н	KHM	12.26	103.00	MT041938	MT031907	MT041028	MK754312	MK754370	MT041876
LSUHC7851	Draco maculatus	н	КНМ	12.26	103.00	MT041939	MT031905	MT041026	MK754310	MK754368	MT041874
KU311488	Draco maculatus	С	CHN	22.78	111.05	MT041940	-	-	-	-	-
LSUHC7117	Draco maculatus	х	MYS	6.38	99.67	MT041941	-	-	-	-	-
MVZ236739	Draco maculatus	Е	CHN	18.91	109.68	MT041942	-	-	-	-	-
KU311481	Draco maculatus	В	CHN	23.01	109.10	MT041943	-	-	-	-	-
KU311485	Draco maculatus	С	CHN	22.78	111.05	MT041944	MT031890	MT041011	MK754296	MK754355	MT041860
KU351002	Draco maculatus	В	CHN	23.01	109.10	MT041945	-	-	-	-	-
KU351004	Draco maculatus	В	CHN	23.01	109.10	MT041946	-	-	-	-	-
KU311486	Draco maculatus	С	CHN	22.78	111.05	MT041947	MT031891	MT041012	MK754297	MK754356	-
KU311479	Draco maculatus	В	CHN	23.01	109.10	MT041948	MT031887	MT041008	MK754293	MK754352	MT041857
KU311484	Draco maculatus	В	CHN	23.01	109.10	MT041949	-	-	-	-	-
LSUHC4190	Draco maculatus	Е	CHN	18.82	109.51	MT041950	MT031898	MT041019	MK754302	MK754361	MT041865
LSUHC8798	Draco maculatus	Х	MYS	6.52	100.23	MT041951	-	-	-	-	-
LSUHC8800	Draco maculatus	х	MYS	6.63	100.18	MT041952	-	-	-	-	-
LSUHC10524	Draco maculatus	J	КНМ	10.67	103.27	MT041953	-	-	-	-	-
USNM587770	Draco maculatus	L	MMR	22.32	94.49	MT041954	-	-	-	-	-
LSUHC9426	Draco maculatus	х	MYS	6.43	99.71	MT041955	-	-	-	-	-
CAS235962	Draco maculatus	V	MMR	10.44	98.50	MT041956	-	-	-	-	-
CAS239951	Draco maculatus	Q	MMR	18.96	93.84	MT041957	-	-	-	-	-
CAS240511	Draco maculatus	т	MMR	17.42	97.05	MT041958	-	-	-	-	-
CAS240615	Draco maculatus	т	MMR	17.43	97.10	MT041959	MT031882	MT041003	MK754291	MK754350	MT041856
CAS243212	Draco maculatus	к	MMR	23.76	93.55	MT041960	-	-	-	-	-
CAS247990	Draco maculatus	U	MMR	14.74	98.20	MT041961	-	-	-	-	-
MVZ226481	Draco maculatus	D	VNM	21.45	105.64	MT041962	-	-	-	-	-
MVZ226482	Draco maculatus	D	VNM	21.45	105.64	MT041963	-	-	MK754317	MK754375	-
ROM35902	Draco maculatus	D	VNM	21.21	106.48	MT041964	-	-	-	-	-
KU351001	Draco maculatus	В	CHN	23.01	109.10	MT041965	-	-	-	-	-

KU351003	Draco maculatus	В	CHN	23.01	109.10	MT041966	MT031894	MT041015	MK754300	MK754358	MT041863
KU351005	Draco maculatus	В	CHN	23.01	109.10	MT041967	MT031895	MT041016	MK754301	MK754360	MT041864
LSUHC6791	Draco maculatus	х	MYS	6.37	99.67	MT041968	-	-	-	-	-
LSUHC6824	Draco maculatus	х	MYS	6.37	99.67	MT041969	-	-	-	-	-
LSUHC6825	Draco maculatus	х	MYS	6.37	99.67	MT041970	MT031900	MT041021	MK754305	MK754362	MT041868
LSUHC6827	Draco maculatus	х	MYS	6.37	99.67	MT041971	-	-	-	-	-
LSUHC7103	Draco maculatus	х	MYS	6.38	99.67	MT041972	-	-	-	-	-
LSUHC7104	Draco maculatus	х	MYS	6.38	99.67	MT041973	-	-	-	-	-
LSUHC7105	Draco maculatus	х	MYS	6.38	99.67	MT041974	MT031901	MT041022	MK754306	MK754363	MT041869
LSUHC7343	Draco maculatus	I	KHM	12.03	104.17	MT041975	MT031903	MT041024	MK754308	MK754365	MT041871
LSUHC7411	Draco maculatus	I	KHM	12.03	104.17	MT041976	-	-	-	-	-
LSUHC7613	Draco fimbriatus	-	MYS	6.38	99.67	MT041977	MT031883	MT041004	MK754309	MK754366	MT041872
LSUHC10305	Draco melanopogon	-	MYS	5.98	100.95	MT041978	MT031885	MT041006	MK754314	MK754372	MT041878
USNM587773	Draco maculatus	т	MMR	17.44	97.10	MT041979	-	-	-	-	-
KU311480	Draco maculatus	В	CHN	23.01	109.10	MT041980	-	-	-	-	-
KU311483	Draco maculatus	В	CHN	23.01	109.10	MT041981	MT031889	MT041010	MK754295	MK754354	MT041859
LSUHC7321	Draco maculatus	I	KHM	11.86	104.15	MT041982	MT031902	MT041023	MK754307	MK754364	MT041870
LSUHC8981	Draco maculatus	х	MYS	6.66	100.32	MT041983	-	-	-	-	-
LSUHC9936	Draco melanopogon	-	MYS	2.04	103.56	MT041984	-	-	-	-	-
KU312113	Draco maculatus	А	CHN	25.48	107.88	MT041985	MT031893	MT041014	MK754299	MK754357	MT041862
LSUHC6823	Draco maculatus	х	MYS	6.37	99.67	MT041986	MT031899	MT041020	MK754304	-	MT041867
LSUHC6826	Draco maculatus	х	MYS	6.37	99.67	MT041987	-	-	-	-	-
LSUHC6828	Draco maculatus	х	MYS	6.37	99.67	MT041988	-	-	-	-	-
LSUHC7322	Draco maculatus	I	KHM	11.86	104.15	MT041989	-	-	-	-	-
LSUHC7342	Draco maculatus	I	KHM	12.03	104.17	MT041990	-	-	-	-	-
LSUHC7344	Draco maculatus	I	KHM	12.03	104.17	MT041991	-	-	-	-	-
LSUHC7490	Draco maculatus	х	MYS	6.36	99.67	MT041992	-	-	-	-	-
LSUHC7849	Draco maculatus	н	KHM	12.26	103.00	MT041993	MT031904	MT041025	-	MK754367	MT041873
LSUHC8411	Draco maculatus	н	KHM	12.26	103.00	MT041994	MT031908	MT041029	MK754313	MK754371	-
LSUHC8980	Draco maculatus	х	MYS	6.66	100.32	MT041995	-	-	-	-	-
LSUHC10525	Draco maculatus	J	KHM	10.67	103.27	MT041996	MT031896	MT041017	MK754315	MK754373	MT041879
LSUHC10526	Draco maculatus	J	KHM	10.67	103.27	MT041997	MT031897	MT041018	MK754316	MK754374	MT041880
AB023727	Draco maculatus	н	THA	12.05	102.33	NA	AB023727	-	-	-	-
AB023739	Draco maculatus	Н	THA	12.05	102.33	NA	-	AB023739	-	-	-
AB023758	Draco maculatus	W	THA	9.52	99.99	NA	-	AB023758	-	-	-
AB023759	Draco maculatus	н	THA	12.05	102.33	NA	AB023759	-	-	-	-
LSUHC9304	Draco maculatus	н	KHM	12.31	102.99	NA	MT031909	MT041030	-	-	MT041877

Locus	Primers	Sequence	Annealing Temp	Reference
12S	L10091	AAACTGGGATTAGATACCCCACTAT	55	Kocher et al., 1989
	H1478	GAGGGTGACGGGCGGTGTGT		
16S	L2606	CTGACCGTGCAAAGGTAGCGTAATCACT	50	Hass et al., 1993
	H3056	CTCCGGTCTGAACTCAGATCACGTAGG		
ND2	L4437a (Metf.6)	AAGCTTTCGGGCCCATACC	50	Macey et al., 1997
	ALAr.2m*	AAAGTGTCTGAGTTGCATTCRG		
BDNF	BDNF-F	GACCATCCTTTTCCTKACTATGGTTATTTCATACTT	56	Townsend et al., 2008
	BDNF-R	CTATCTTCCCCTTTTAATGGTCAGTGTACAAAC		
CMOS	G73	GCGGTAAAGCAGGTGAAGAAA	54	Saint et al., 1998
	G74	TGAGCATCCAAAGTCTCCAATC		
PNN	PNN_F1	TTTGCAGARCARATAAAYAAAATGGA	50.5	Townsend et al., 2008
	PNN_R1	AACGCCTTTTGTCTTTCCTGTCTGATT		

Appendix 2.C: PCR conditions for each of the six loci used in this study

* Primer modified from Macey et al. (1997); see McGuire and Kiew, 2001.

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- Townsend, T.M., Alegre, R.E., Kelley, S.T., Wiens, J.J., Reeder, T.W. (2008). Rapid development of multiple nuclear loci for phylogenetic analysis using genomic resources: An example from squamate reptiles. *Molecular Phylogenetics and Evolution*. 47(1)129-42. DOI: 10.1016/j.ympev.2008.01.008

Appendix 2.D: Summary statistics and selected models for each of the three mtDNA regions sequenced: *12S*, *16S*, and *ND2*. The clade column indicates the monophyletic groups from the full concatenated phylogeny.

Locus	Function	n	Nucleotide Sites	Variable Sites	Percent Variable	Site Model Selected	Haplotypes	Π
ND2	Protein Coding	53	1032	545	53%	TrN+I+G	46	0.113
12S	rRNA	57	439	221	50%	HKY+G	33	0.035
16S	rRNA	56	999	141	14%	HKY+G	43	0.042

Appendix 2.E: Sister pairs and phylogenetic distance from ND2 ML gene tree (Fig. 7A).

Accession numbers for each species can be found in Appendix B.

Sister Pair	Phylogenetic Distance
D.biaro-D.caerulhians	0.0599
D.boschmai-D.timoriensis	0.0723
D.spilonotus-(D.biaro-D.caerulhians)	0.0733
D.fimbriatus-D.punctatus	0.0933
D.formosus-D.obscurus	0.0957
D.cyanopterus-D.reticulatus	0.1158
D.maculatus.ChinaVietnamCoastalPlain- D.maculatus.HainanIsland	0.1362
D.maculatus.Southeast- (D.maculatus.ChinaVietnamCoastalPlain- D.maculatus.HainanIsland)	0.1618
D.lineatus-D.rhytisma	0.1692
D.maculatus.West-D.maculatus.Central	0.1795
D.taeniopterus-(D.formosus-D.obscurus)	0.1835
D.volans-(D.sumatranus-(D.boschmai-D.timoriensis))	0.1922
D.maximus-D.mindanensis	0.2066
D.sumatranus-(D.boschmai-D.timoriensis)	0.2386
D.cristatellus-(D.fimbriatus/D.punctatus)	0.2576
D.walkeri-(D.lineatus-D.rhytisma)	0.2604
D.haematopogon-D.indochinensis	0.2632
D.quadrasi-D.spilopterus	0.2693
D.cornutus-(D.palawanensis-((D.ornatus-D.guentheri)- (D.quadrasi-D.spilopterus)))	0.2905
D.ornatus-D.guentheri	0.3078
D.melanopogon-(D.haematopogon-D.indochinensis)	0.3167
D.blanfordii-(D.taeniopterus-(D.formosus-D.obscurus))	0.3214
D.palawanensis-((D.ornatus-D.guentheri)-(D.quadrasi- D.spilopterus))	0.3374
D.quinquefasciatus-((D.melanopogon-(D.haematopogon- D.indochinensis))-(D.blanfordii-(D.taeniopterus- (D.formosus-D.obscurus))))	0.3479
D.bimaculatus-((D.volans-(D.sumatranus-(D.boschmai- D.timoriensis)))-(D.cyanopterus-D.reticulatus)- (D.cornutus-(D.palawanensis-((D.ornatus-D.guentheri)- (D.quadrasi-D.spilopterus))))-(D.spilonotus-(D.biaro- D.caerulhians))-(D.walkeri-(D.lineatus-D.rhytisma)))	0.4996

Appendix 2.F: Replicate runs for each BFD hypothesis. Table indicates hypothesis abbreviation, rationale, species number (n), CPU Time (seconds), and log marginal likelihood estimation (MLE) values.

Hypothesis	Rationale	n	Replicate	CPU Time	MLE
А	Historical Aquatic Geography	8	rep1	214160	-4597.617158
			rep2	208372	-4597.720615
			rep3	209697	-4596.598447
			rep4	374806	-4597.029853
			rep5	377002	-4596.56537
В	Historical Aquatic Geography	7	rep1	395097	-4593.675208
			rep2	374383	-4597.530861
			rep3	213651	-4596.879477
			rep4	372869	-4596.808071
			rep5	391229	-4597.253378
С	Historical Aquatic Geography	7	rep1	387899	-4597.252168
			rep2	201704	-4597.545547
			rep3	200302	-4598.237985
			rep4	211689	-4598.834807
			rep5	214806	-4594.887357
D	Historical Aquatic Geography	6	rep1	214027	-4577.645098
			rep2	375033	-4577.089999
			rep3	212527	-4577.662676
			rep4	214236	-4579.212076
			rep5	214156	-4578.1297
E	Historical Aquatic Geography	6	rep1	377698	-4576.574852
			rep2	378138	-4577.888589
			rep3	394398	-4576.788208
			rep4	214561	-4577.698038
			rep5	391686	-4577.3389
F	mtDNA Molecular Markers	5	rep1	390011	-4578.122939
			rep2	360315	-4577.419931
			rep3	203948	-4578.141564
			rep4	204505	-4578.791566
			rep5	200797	-4576.25828
G	Historical Aquatic Geography	5	rep1	371081	-4453.935685
			rep2	211816	-4455.739569
			rep3	374055	-4456.014235
			rep4	392188	-4453.660578
			rep5	386381	-4454.551731

Н	mtDNA Molecular Markers	4	rep1	211365	-4455.272653
			rep2	387163	-4456.05453
			rep3	390064	-4453.251308
			rep4	355560	-4455.483302
			rep5	201861	-4456.411531
I	Current taxonomy	3	rep1	201865	-4455.606074
			rep2	198743	-4455.016161
			rep3	372704	-4457.68514
			rep4	424806	-4460.945711
			rep5	212183	-4469.06854
J	Current taxonomy	3	rep1	373583	-4469.498338
			rep2	388249	-4468.147914
			rep3	388132	-4469.94697
			rep4	211908	-4464.400202
			rep5	386660	-4469.556508
К	Current taxonomy	3	rep1	215004	-4467.895765
			rep2	199973	-4468.577431
			rep3	202725	-4469.812417
			rep4	199160	-4466.499783
			rep5	211592	-4469.604985
L	Historical Aquatic Geography	2	rep1	210705	-4469.217751
			rep2	376643	-4583.611463
			rep3	374253	-4582.358616
			rep4	374253	-4582.358616
			rep5	214682	-4581.90713
М	mtDNA Molecular Markers	2	rep1	378195	-4581.578355
			rep2	377165	-4581.859893
			rep3	392489	-4581.971004
			rep4	394023	-4582.744517
			rep5	214062	-4583.13061
N	Historical Aquatic Geography	2	rep1	390845	-4581.705425
			rep2	200813	-4583.677188
			rep3	201189	-4582.940865
			rep4	372319	-4582.897457
			rep5	200628	-4582.743971
0	Null	1	rep1	213951	-4582.286366
			rep2	213089	-4581.425775
			rep3	391542	-4757.010739
			rep4	385114	-4754.391687
			rep5	231071	-4756.783417

Appendix 2.G: Pairwise Maximum Composite Likelihood values for *ND2* region used in this study, with average likelihood values for each known geological event (10, 9, 3.5, 2.5, 1.5) listed beneath columns. Data and dates for geological events described in Macey et al (1998).

Species 1	Species 2	MAXCOMLIK	<u>10</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>3.5</u>	<u>2.5</u>	<u>1.5</u>
P.himalayana	P.lehmanni	0.159	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
P.himalayana	P.lehmanni	0.165	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
P.lehmanni	P.lehmanni	0.058	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
P.himalayana	P.lehmanni	0.165	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
P.lehmanni	P.lehmanni	0.058	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
P.lehmanni	P.lehmanni	0	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
P.himalayana	P.lehmanni	0.165	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
P.lehmanni	P.lehmanni	0.058	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
P.lehmanni	P.lehmanni	0	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
P.lehmanni	P.lehmanni	0	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
P.himalayana	P.lehmanni	0.165	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
P.lehmanni	P.lehmanni	0.058	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
P.lehmanni	P.lehmanni	0	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
P.lehmanni	P.lehmanni	0	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
P.lehmanni	P.lehmanni	0	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
P.himalayana	P.lehmanni	0.165	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
P.lehmanni	P.lehmanni	0.058	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
P.lehmanni	P.lehmanni	0	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
P.lehmanni	P.lehmanni	0	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
P.lehmanni	P.lehmanni	0	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
P.lehmanni	P.lehmanni	0	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
P.himalayana	P.microlepis	0.161	0.161	NA	NA	NA	NA
P.lehmanni	P.microlepis	0.192	0.192	NA	NA	NA	NA
P.lehmanni	P.microlepis	0.189	0.189	NA	NA	NA	NA
P.lehmanni	P.microlepis	0.189	0.189	NA	NA	NA	NA
P.lehmanni	P.microlepis	0.189	0.189	NA	NA	NA	NA
P.lehmanni	P.microlepis	0.189	0.189	NA	NA	NA	NA
P.lehmanni	P.microlepis	0.189	0.189	NA	NA	NA	NA
P.himalayana	P.microlepis	0.161	0.161	NA	NA	NA	NA
P.lehmanni	P.microlepis	0.192	0.192	NA	NA	NA	NA
P.lehmanni	P.microlepis	0.189	0.189	NA	NA	NA	NA
P.lehmanni	P.microlepis	0.189	0.189	NA	NA	NA	NA
P.lehmanni	P.microlepis	0.189	0.189	NA	NA	NA	NA
P.lehmanni	P.microlepis	0.189	0.189	NA	NA	NA	NA
P.lehmanni	P.microlepis	0.189	0.189	NA	NA	NA	NA
P.microlepis	P.microlepis	0	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
P.himalayana	P.erythrogaster	0.164	0.164	NA	NA	NA	NA
P.lehmanni	P.erythrogaster	0.193	0.193	NA	NA	NA	NA
P.lehmanni	P.erythrogaster	0.196	0.196	NA	NA	NA	NA
P.lehmanni	P.erythrogaster	0.196	0.196	NA	NA	NA	NA
P.lehmanni	P.erythrogaster	0.196	0.196	NA	NA	NA	NA
P.lehmanni	P.erythrogaster	0.196	0.196	NA	NA	NA	NA
P.lehmanni	P.erythrogaster	0.196	0.196	NA	NA	NA	NA
P.microlepis	P.erythrogaster	0.151	NA	0.151	NA	NA	NA
P.microlepis	P.erythrogaster	0.151	NA	0.151	NA	NA	NA

P.himalayana	P.erythrogaster	0.166	0.166	NA	NA	NA	NA
P.lehmanni	P.erythrogaster	0.191	0.191	NA	NA	NA	NA
P.lehmanni	P.erythrogaster	0.195	0.195	NA	NA	NA	NA
P.lehmanni	P.erythrogaster	0.195	0.195	NA	NA	NA	NA
P.lehmanni	P.erythrogaster	0.195	0.195	NA	NA	NA	NA
P.lehmanni	P.erythrogaster	0.195	0.195	NA	NA	NA	NA
P.lehmanni	P.erythrogaster	0.195	0.195	NA	NA	NA	NA
P.microlepis	P.erythrogaster	0.147	NA	0.147	NA	NA	NA
P.microlepis	P.erythrogaster	0.147	NA	0.147	NA	NA	NA
P.erythrogaster	P.erythrogaster	0.009	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
P.himalayana	CaucasusMountains	0.153	0.153	NA	NA	NA	NA
P.lehmanni	CaucasusMountains	0.195	0.195	NA	NA	NA	NA
P.lehmanni	CaucasusMountains	0.194	0.194	NA	NA	NA	NA
P.lehmanni	CaucasusMountains	0.194	0.194	NA	NA	NA	NA
P.lehmanni	CaucasusMountains	0.194	0.194	NA	NA	NA	NA
P.lehmanni	CaucasusMountains	0.194	0.194	NA	NA	NA	NA
P.lehmanni	CaucasusMountains	0.194	0.194	NA	NA	NA	NA
P.microlepis	CaucasusMountains	0.153	NA	0.153	NA	NA	NA
P.microlepis	CaucasusMountains	0.153	NA	0.153	NA	NA	NA
P.ervthrogaster	CaucasusMountains	0.056	NA	NA	0.056	NA	NA
P.erythrogaster	CaucasusMountains	0.061	NA	NA	0.061	NA	NA
P.himalavana	CaucasusMountains	0.157	0.157	NA	NA	NA	NA
P.lehmanni	CaucasusMountains	0.199	0.199	NA	NA	NA	NA
P.lehmanni	CaucasusMountains	0.197	0.197	NA	NA	NA	NA
P.lehmanni	CaucasusMountains	0.197	0.197	NA	NA	NA	NA
P.lehmanni	CaucasusMountains	0.197	0.197	NA	NA	NA	NA
P.lehmanni	CaucasusMountains	0.197	0.197	NA	NA	NA	NA
P.lehmanni	CaucasusMountains	0.197	0.197	NA	NA	NA	NA
P.microlepis	CaucasusMountains	0.155	NA	0.155	NA	NA	NA
P.microlepis	CaucasusMountains	0.155	NA	0.155	NA	NA	NA
P.ervthrogaster	CaucasusMountains	0.053	NA	NA	0.053	NA	NA
P.erythrogaster	CaucasusMountains	0.059	NA	NA	0.059	NA	NA
CaucasusMountains	CaucasusMountains	0.005	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
P.himalavana	CaucasusMountains	0.156	0.156	NA	NA	NA	NA
Plehmanni	CaucasusMountains	0 198	0 198	NA	NA	NA	NA
Plehmanni	CaucasusMountains	0 197	0 197	NA	NA	NA	NA
P.lehmanni	CaucasusMountains	0.197	0.197	NA	NA	NA	NA
Plehmanni	CaucasusMountains	0 197	0 197	NA	NA	NA	NA
P.lehmanni	CaucasusMountains	0.197	0.197	NA	NA	NA	NA
P.lehmanni	CaucasusMountains	0.197	0.197	NA	NA	NA	NA
P microlepis	CaucasusMountains	0 154	NA	0 154	NA	NA	NA
P microlepis	CaucasusMountains	0 154	NA	0 154	NA	NA	NA
P ervthrogaster	CaucasusMountains	0.054	NA	NA	0.054	NA	NA
P ervthrogaster	CaucasusMountains	0.06	NA	NA	0.06	NA	NA
CaucasusMountains	CaucasusMountains	0.002	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
CaucasusMountains	CaucasusMountains	0.003	NA	NA	NA	NA	NΔ
P himalayana	SouthCaspian	0.169	0 169	NA	NA	NA	NΔ
Plehmanni	SouthCasnian	0 198	0 198	NΔ	NΔ	NΔ	NΔ
Plehmanni	SouthCasnian	0.202	0.202	ΝΔ	ΝΔ	ΝΔ	NA
Plehmanni	SouthCaspian	0.202	0.202	NA	NA	NA	NΔ
	e cano dopian	0.202	J.LUL				

P.lehmanni	SouthCaspian	0.202	0.202	NA	NA	NA	NA
P.lehmanni	SouthCaspian	0.202	0.202	NA	NA	NA	NA
P.lehmanni	SouthCaspian	0.202	0.202	NA	NA	NA	NA
P.microlepis	SouthCaspian	0.163	NA	0.163	NA	NA	NA
P.microlepis	SouthCaspian	0.163	NA	0.163	NA	NA	NA
P.erythrogaster	SouthCaspian	0.059	NA	NA	0.059	NA	NA
P.erythrogaster	SouthCaspian	0.065	NA	NA	0.065	NA	NA
CaucasusMountains	SouthCaspian	0.034	NA	NA	NA	0.034	NA
CaucasusMountains	SouthCaspian	0.033	NA	NA	NA	0.033	NA
CaucasusMountains	SouthCaspian	0.034	NA	NA	NA	0.034	NA
P.himalayana	Balkhan	0.165	0.165	NA	NA	NA	NA
P.lehmanni	Balkhan	0.198	0.198	NA	NA	NA	NA
P.lehmanni	Balkhan	0.2	0.2	NA	NA	NA	NA
P.lehmanni	Balkhan	0.2	0.2	NA	NA	NA	NA
P.lehmanni	Balkhan	0.2	0.2	NA	NA	NA	NA
P.lehmanni	Balkhan	0.2	0.2	NA	NA	NA	NA
P.lehmanni	Balkhan	0.2	0.2	NA	NA	NA	NA
P.microlepis	Balkhan	0.16	NA	0.16	NA	NA	NA
P.microlepis	Balkhan	0.16	NA	0.16	NA	NA	NA
P.erythrogaster	Balkhan	0.057	NA	NA	0.057	NA	NA
P.erythrogaster	Balkhan	0.06	NA	NA	0.06	NA	NA
CaucasusMountains	Balkhan	0.032	NA	NA	NA	0.032	NA
CaucasusMountains	Balkhan	0.029	NA	NA	NA	0.029	NA
CaucasusMountains	Balkhan	0.03	NA	NA	NA	0.03	NA
SouthCaspian	Balkhan	0.023	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
P.himalayana	Balkhan	0.165	0.165	NA	NA	NA	NA
P.lehmanni	Balkhan	0.198	0.198	NA	NA	NA	NA
P.lehmanni	Balkhan	0.2	0.2	NA	NA	NA	NA
P.lehmanni	Balkhan	0.2	0.2	NA	NA	NA	NA
P.lehmanni	Balkhan	0.2	0.2	NA	NA	NA	NA
P.lehmanni	Balkhan	0.2	0.2	NA	NA	NA	NA
P.lehmanni	Balkhan	0.2	0.2	NA	NA	NA	NA
P.microlepis	Balkhan	0.16	NA	0.16	NA	NA	NA
P.microlepis	Balkhan	0.16	NA	0.16	NA	NA	NA
P.erythrogaster	Balkhan	0.057	NA	NA	0.057	NA	NA
P.erythrogaster	Balkhan	0.06	NA	NA	0.06	NA	NA
CaucasusMountains	Balkhan	0.032	NA	NA	NA	0.032	NA
CaucasusMountains	Balkhan	0.029	NA	NA	NA	0.029	NA
CaucasusMountains	Balkhan	0.03	NA	NA	NA	0.03	NA
SouthCaspian	Balkhan	0.023	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
Balkhan	Balkhan	0	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
P.himalayana	CaspianKopetDagh	0.17	0.17	NA	NA	NA	NA
P.lehmanni	CaspianKopetDagh	0.198	0.198	NA	NA	NA	NA
P.lehmanni	CaspianKopetDagh	0.205	0.205	NA	NA	NA	NA
P.lehmanni	CaspianKopetDagh	0.205	0.205	NA	NA	NA	NA
P.lehmanni	CaspianKopetDagh	0.205	0.205	NA	NA	NA	NA
P.lehmanni	CaspianKopetDagh	0.205	0.205	NA	NA	NA	NA
P.lehmanni	CaspianKopetDagh	0.205	0.205	NA	NA	NA	NA
P.microlepis	CaspianKopetDagh	0.162	NA	0.162	NA	NA	NA
P.microlepis	CaspianKopetDagh	0.162	NA	0.162	NA	NA	NA

P.erythrogaster	CaspianKopetDagh	0.068	NA	NA	0.068	NA	NA
P.erythrogaster	CaspianKopetDagh	0.074	NA	NA	0.074	NA	NA
CaucasusMountains	CaspianKopetDagh	0.048	NA	NA	NA	0.048	NA
CaucasusMountains	CaspianKopetDagh	0.044	NA	NA	NA	0.044	NA
CaucasusMountains	CaspianKopetDagh	0.045	NA	NA	NA	0.045	NA
SouthCaspian	CaspianKopetDagh	0.036	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
Balkhan	CaspianKopetDagh	0.024	NA	NA	NA	NA	0.024
Balkhan	CaspianKopetDagh	0.024	NA	NA	NA	NA	0.024
P.himalayana	CaspianKopetDagh	0.169	0.169	NA	NA	NA	NA
P.lehmanni	CaspianKopetDagh	0.2	0.2	NA	NA	NA	NA
P.lehmanni	CaspianKopetDagh	0.207	0.207	NA	NA	NA	NA
P.lehmanni	CaspianKopetDagh	0.207	0.207	NA	NA	NA	NA
P.lehmanni	CaspianKopetDagh	0.207	0.207	NA	NA	NA	NA
P.lehmanni	CaspianKopetDagh	0.207	0.207	NA	NA	NA	NA
P.lehmanni	CaspianKopetDagh	0.207	0.207	NA	NA	NA	NA
P.microlepis	CaspianKopetDagh	0.16	NA	0.16	NA	NA	NA
P.microlepis	CaspianKopetDagh	0.16	NA	0.16	NA	NA	NA
P.erythrogaster	CaspianKopetDagh	0.066	NA	NA	0.066	NA	NA
P.erythrogaster	CaspianKopetDagh	0.072	NA	NA	0.072	NA	NA
CaucasusMountains	CaspianKopetDagh	0.045	NA	NA	NA	0.045	NA
CaucasusMountains	CaspianKopetDagh	0.042	NA	NA	NA	0.042	NA
CaucasusMountains	CaspianKopetDagh	0.043	NA	NA	NA	0.043	NA
SouthCaspian	CaspianKopetDagh	0.034	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
Balkhan	CaspianKopetDagh	0.022	NA	NA	NA	NA	0.022
Balkhan	CaspianKopetDagh	0.022	NA	NA	NA	NA	0.022
CaspianKopetDagh	CaspianKopetDagh	0.002	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
P.himalayana	CaspianKopetDagh	0.167	0.167	NA	NA	NA	NA
P.lehmanni	CaspianKopetDagh	0.197	0.197	NA	NA	NA	NA
P.lehmanni	CaspianKopetDagh	0.205	0.205	NA	NA	NA	NA
P.lehmanni	CaspianKopetDagh	0.205	0.205	NA	NA	NA	NA
P.lehmanni	CaspianKopetDagh	0.205	0.205	NA	NA	NA	NA
P.lehmanni	CaspianKopetDagh	0.205	0.205	NA	NA	NA	NA
P.lehmanni	CaspianKopetDagh	0.205	0.205	NA	NA	NA	NA
P.microlepis	CaspianKopetDagh	0.158	NA	0.158	NA	NA	NA
P.microlepis	CaspianKopetDagh	0.158	NA	0.158	NA	NA	NA
P.erythrogaster	CaspianKopetDagh	0.064	NA	NA	0.064	NA	NA
P.erythrogaster	CaspianKopetDagh	0.07	NA	NA	0.07	NA	NA
CaucasusMountains	CaspianKopetDagh	0.047	NA	NA	NA	0.047	NA
CaucasusMountains	CaspianKopetDagh	0.045	NA	NA	NA	0.045	NA
CaucasusMountains	CaspianKopetDagh	0.046	NA	NA	NA	0.046	NA
SouthCaspian	CaspianKopetDagh	0.035	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
Balkhan	CaspianKopetDagh	0.022	NA	NA	NA	NA	0.022
Balkhan	CaspianKopetDagh	0.022	NA	NA	NA	NA	0.022
CaspianKopetDagh	CaspianKopetDagh	0.013	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
CaspianKopetDagh	CaspianKopetDagh	0.011	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
		0.128457895	0.19287	0.15663	0.06194	0.03822	0.02266

Chapter 2: Supplementary Methods

2.S1 Model Design

(1) NULL- Historical taxonomy: *D. maculatus* may be a widespread taxon with divergent mitochondrial lineages, but it is nevertheless a single species. McGuire and Kiew (2001) proposed this as a potential scenario following examination of the subspecies [<u>Model code: O</u>].

(2) The data is best explained by two species. Riverine barriers: Lineages are divided by either
(A) the Chao Phraya and Upper Salween [<u>Model code: L</u>], or (B) the Chao Phraya and Upper
Mekong [<u>Model code: N</u>]. Until recently (post Pleistocene) the Mekong and Salween rivers
joined and flowed to the Gulf of Thailand through the presently known Chao Phraya River Basin
(Lehman and Fleagle, 2006; Woodruff, 2010). This large river may have played a role in
maintaining post-Miocene geographic isolation between the West and Southeast clades. MtDNA
clustering: The most basal node of the MtDNA clustering splits the two major lineages [<u>Model code: M</u>].

(3) The data is best explained by three species. **Historical taxonomy:** The currently recognized subspecies *D. maculatus haasei*, *D. maculatus maculatus*, and *D. maculatus whiteheadi*. While another subspecies is currently recognized (*D. maculatus divergens*), we have left it out of this model because it is located strictly in Chiang Mai, Thailand (a locality missing from our sample set). We sorted samples into the three subspecies by geographic location based on the subspecific distribution described by Musters (1983; Appendix A). The lineage grouping of samples from the Annamite region (localities Z, F, & G) led us to create three subspecies hypotheses: All Annamite samples included in *D. maculatus whiteheadi* [*Model code: J*], all Annamite samples

included in *D. maculatus haasei* [<u>Model code: K</u>], and Annamite samples included in *D. maculatus whiteheadi* [<u>Model code: I</u>].

(4) The data is best explained by four species. **MtDNA clustering:** The most basal split of the ML tree is followed by a subsequent split on each branch, resulting in four lineages (reciprocally monophyletic pairs). We name these monophyletic groups the (1) West Indochina clade, (2) Central Indochina clade, (3) Southeast Indochina clade, and (4) Northeast Indochina clade. While the topology of the species tree may not reflect these relationships, this model poses that the data is best explained by four lineages grouped according to monophyly from the MtDNA clustering [*Model code: H*].

(5) The data is best explained by five species. **MtDNA clustering:** This model is almost identical to *H* (4 species), with the difference being the splitting of monophyletic Hainan samples and the monophyletic China-Vietnam Coastal Plain samples from the original Northeast Indochina clade, creating five total lineages [*Model code: F*]. **Riverine barriers:** Lineages are divided by four major rivers: Chao Phraya, Mekong, Red, and Upper Salween, four of Indochina's most prominent rivers [*Model code: G*].

(6) The data is best explained by six species. Riverine barriers: Lineages are divided by either
(A) four major rivers: Chao Phraya, Mekong, Red, and Salween, four of Indochina's most prominent rivers [*Model code: D*], or (B) four major rivers: Chao Phraya, Mekong, Red, and Upper Salween, along with the Quiongzhou Strait [*Model code: E*].

(7) The data is best explained by seven species. **Riverine barriers:** Lineages are divided by either (A) five major rivers: Chao Phraya, Irrawady, Mekong, Red, and Salween, five of

Indochina's most prominent rivers [*Model code: B*], or (B) four major rivers: Chao Phraya, Mekong, Red, and Salween, along with the Quiongzhou Strait [*Model code: C*].

(8) The data is best explained by eight species. **Riverine barriers:** Lineages are divided by five major rivers: Chao Phraya, Irrawady, Mekong, Red, and Salween, along with the Quiongzhou Strait [*Model code: A*]

Chapter 2: Supplementary Figures

Figure S1 Molecular Clock Estimation

Figure S2 Complete ND2 Tree

Figure S3 ML Tree from Six Concatenated Loci

Figure S4 ML gene tree from 12S sequence data

Figure S5 ML gene tree from 16S sequence data

Figure S5 ML gene tree from ND2 sequence data

Figure S5 ML gene tree from BDNF sequence data

Figure S5 ML gene tree from CMOS sequence data

Figure S5 ML gene tree from PNN sequence data

Figure S10 Genus ML gene tree from ND2 sequence data



Figure S1: Molecular Clock Estimation

Agamid rate of evolution for region of ND2 used in this study estimated from vicariance-based calibration within Paralaudakia species of the Iranian Plateau. Plot shows relationship of average maximum composite likelihood scores estimated from sequences from Macey et al (1998) using truncated ND2 sequence data aligned to the locus used in this study (y axis) and dated geological events

corresponding to cladogenesis in Paralaudakia (x axis). Figure is analogous to Fig. 7 in Macey et al (1998), which used parsimony distances.





Maximum-likelihood (ML) ND2 gene tree with all samples from this study. From this tree we subsampled individuals for future phylogenetic analysis. Bold, Italicized tip names indicate subsampled individuals. Tips are labeled by voucher name (Appendix B). Voucher names followed by * indicate samples with molecular data sequenced before this study.



Figure S3: ML Tree from Six Concatenated Loci

ML tree estimated from six-locus (12S, 16S, ND2, BNDF, CMOS, and PNN) concatenated dataset.



Figure S4: ML gene tree from 12S sequence data.


Figure S5: ML gene tree from 16S sequence data.



Figure S6: ML gene tree from ND2 sequence data.



Figure S7: ML gene tree from BDNF sequence data.



Figure S8: ML gene tree from CMOS sequence data.



Figure S9: ML gene tree from PNN sequence data.



Figure S10: Genus ML gene tree from ND2 sequence data.

Chapter 3: Reduced mitochondrial respiration in hybrid asexual lizards

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Abstract

The scarcity of asexual reproduction in vertebrates alludes to an inherent cost. Several groups of asexual vertebrates exhibit lower endurance capacity (a trait predominantly sourced by mitochondrial respiration) compared to congeneric sexual species. Here we measure endurance capacity in five species of *Aspidoscelis* lizards and examine mitochondrial respiration between sexual and asexual species using mitochondrial respirometry. Our results show reduced endurance capacity, mitochondrial respiration, and phenotypic variability in asexual species compared to parental sexual species along with a positive relationship between endurance capacity and mitochondrial respiration. Results of lower endurance capacity and lower mitochondrial respiration in asexual *Aspidoscelis* are consistent with hypotheses involving mitonuclear incompatibility.

3.1 Introduction

The fitness advantages of asexual reproduction predict an abundance of asexual species (Maynard Smith 1958, 1978). However, the prevalence of sexual reproduction in animals suggests that the evolutionary costs of asexual reproduction outweigh the benefits (Speijer et al. 2015). Although theoretical and empirical studies over the past century have proposed and tested hypotheses regarding these costs, much remains to be understood regarding the direct consequences of asexual reproduction in vertebrates (Fujita et al. 2020).

For the purposes of this article, we refer to "asexuality" as a reproductive strategy where all progeny are produced without male genetic contribution (as opposed to facultative asexuality). Asexual vertebrates, virtually all of which are of hybrid origin (Dawley and Bogart 1989; Avise 2008, 2015; Fujita et al., 2020; but see Sinclair et al. 2010), reproduce by premeiotically doubling their ploidy (Lutes et al. 2010). The subsequent pairing of conspecific homologous chromosomes in meiosis I results in the perpetual preservation of genome-wide heterozygosity (Vrijenhoek and Pfeiler 2008; Warren et al. 2018). With ploidy restored after the completion of meiosis, the cells are ready to develop without variation introduced via fertilization or recombination, thus maintaining the genome in a "frozen" hybrid state (Vrijenhoek and Pfeiler 2008; Warren et al. 2018) and Warren et al. (2018) for evidence of some gene conversion).

The effect of this unique evolutionary strategy on intracellular bioenergetics is unclear, but examining the effect of heterozygosity on mitochondrial function and overall fitness can inform predictions. Higher rates of coupled mitochondrial respiration and increased fitness (interpreted as heterosis) have been observed in F₁ hybrids from inbred *Drosophila melanogaster* lines (McDaniel and Grimwood 1971; Martinez and McDaniel 1979) and natural *Tigriopus californicus* populations (Ellison and Burton 2008) compared to their parental lineages, whereas lower values for these traits have been observed when backcrosses lead to mismatched mitochondrial and introgressed nuclear genomes in natural populations of *Tigriopus californicus* (Ellison and Burton 2008) and *Urosaurus* (Haenel and Moore 2018). High heterozygosity of asexual vertebrates led numerous researchers to predict an increase in performance compared to sexual parental species (White 1970; Schultz 1971; Cole 1975; Mitton and Grant 1984; Bullini 1994; Cullum 1997), yet the results from several studies have contradicted these predictions by showing reduced aerobic performance in asexual lineages (Cullum 1997; Mee et al. 2011; Denton et al. 2017).

Aerobic activities requiring endurance (continuous exertion) are powered by oxidative phosphorylation. This catalytic conversion process occurs in the mitochondrion, where a proton gradient powered by nutrient-donated electrons facilitates the phosphorylation of ADP. Production of ATP via this electron transport system (ETS) produces the vast majority of energy used for cellular functions. While the link between mitochondrial function and endurance may seem intuitive, studies examining the association of endurance capacity with mitochondrial respiration have been primarily in the context of biomedical and exercise physiology rather than evolution (e.g., Davies et al. 1981; Gollnick and Saltin 1982; Mercier et al. 1995; Bouchard et al. 1999; Eynon et al. 2011; Jacobs and Lundby 2013; Scott et al. 2018). Reductions in asexual aerobic performance may be explained in part by mitonuclear incompatibility- the result of interactions between poorly co-adapted gene products from mitochondrial and nuclear genomes that can result in reduced mitochondrial function, organismal performance, and fitness (Ryan and Hoogenraad 2007; Meiklejohn et al. 2013; Hill et al. 2019; Healy and Burton 2020; Rand and Mossman 2020; Moran et al. 2021). We test the hypothesis that the reduced aerobic performance previously observed in several groups of hybrid asexual vertebrates is due to decreased mitochondrial function, as would be predicted with mitonuclear incompatibility. The evolutionary mechanisms leading to incompatibility in these F_1 hybrids could result from mismatched genomes with dominance effects as a result of Darwin's corollary (Turelli and Moyle 2007) and/or the reduced efficiency of selection on nuclear mutations imposed by the lack of recombination in asexual species (Fisher 1930; Muller 1932). Because asexual vertebrates are of hybrid origin, rather than seeking to disentangle the effects of these traits (asexual reproduction and hybrid origin) we strictly examine hypothesized contributions of an intracellular process (mitochondrial respiration) to an organismal phenomenon (reduced endurance capacity). Squamata (snakes and lizards) is the only vertebrate clade with lineages that reproduce primarily through parthenogenesis, a mode of asexual reproduction with no male input. Using the whiptail lizard genus Aspidoscelis as a model system (in which roughly one third of species reproduce parthenogenetically), we quantify endurance capacity and mitochondrial respiration to contrast a sample of sexual and asexual species with two independent origins of parthenogenesis (Reeder et al. 2002; Densmore et al. 1989).

3.2 Methods

3.2.1 Animal Capture

We collected individuals of three sexual (n=6 *Aspidoscelis inornatus*, n=6 *A. marmoratus*, n=7 *A. septemvittatus*) and two asexual (n=4 *A. neomexicanus*, n=7 *A. tesselatus*) species along the Rio Grande basin between Las Cruces, NM and Big Bend National Park, TX (Table 3.S1). The estimated evolutionary relationships of these species (from Reeder et al., 2002) are depicted in Figure 1A (note: although asexual lineages are not "species" in the typical sense [originating via cladogenesis], we join others in referring to them as such given their independent evolutionary trajectory). We caught lizards via lasso or by hand and transported all individuals to Auburn University for temporary housing. All collection and animal care procedures were approved by the United States Department of the Interior, state departments, and the Auburn University IACUC (2018-3286). Additional sampling information is included in the Supplemental Methods.

3.2.2 Endurance Capacity and Mitochondrial Respirometry

We quantified endurance by measuring the time a lizard maintained forward progression at 1 km/hr (on a treadmill), following previously established protocols (Garland 1994; Cullum 1997; see Supplemental Methods for more details). One week later, we measured mitochondrial respiration following previously established protocols (Palmer et al. 1977; Hood et al. 2019; see Supplementary Methods for more details). To measure oxygen consumption through the electron transport chain, we added isolated mitochondria with electron-donating substrates to electrode chamber A (for starting electron transport from CI and continuing through CIII, CIV, and CV) and to electrode chamber B (for starting electron transport from CII and continuing through CIII, CIV, and CV). Measuring mitochondrial respiration via the electron transport chain using these two ports of entry provides independent avenues with different starting substrates to quantify respiration. Because both avenues (starting with CI or CII) comprise interacting mitochondrial

and nuclear gene products (CIII, CIV, and CV), it is inappropriate to use these measures to draw conclusions regarding mitonuclear compatibility.

To initiate coupled, ADP-stimulated respiration (State 3), we added ADP to each chamber. After the phosphorylation of ADP was complete and any oxygen being consumed was driven by protons moving across the inner membrane without facilitation from ATP synthase, we recorded basal respiration (State 4). We normalized respiration rates to mitochondrial protein concentration. To calculate the respiratory control ratio (RCR), we divided State 3 respiration by State 4 respiration.

1.2.2.1 Predictions

To test our hypothesis of reduced mitochondrial respiration in hybrid asexual species compared to their sexual congeneric progenitors, we used the six mitochondrial respiration response variables (State 3, State 4, and RCR initiated from either CI or CII). State 3 respiration measures the rate of oxygen consumption when ATP is being produced (i.e., oxygen consumption is coupled with proton movement through ATP synthase [CV]). If coupled electron transport and ATP synthesis is associated with endurance capacity, we predict that State 3 respiration would be lower in hybrid asexual species. State 4 respiration measures the rate of oxygen consumption when ATP is not being produced (i.e., oxygen consumption is coupled with proton leak across the inner membrane). In this context, we predict no differences in State 4 respiration. As RCR is an indicator of respiration efficiency (coupled respiration controlling for leak), we predicted to see lower RCR in hybrid asexual species if they have lower endurance capacity.

3.2.3 Phylogenetic Network Estimation

Accounting for evolutionary history is critical for accurate comparative methods when multiple lineages are present in a sample set. However, in study systems where lineage history is reticulate rather than bifurcate, models with a phylogenetic network (rather than a tree) more appropriately account for evolutionary history. To estimate the history of diversification and hybridization of the five species of *Aspidoscelis*, we sequenced mitochondrial genomes (following Roelke et al. 2018) and downloaded available mitochondrial sequence data from GenBank (Table 3.S2). We used several software packages to estimate the phylogenetic network (Than and Nakhleh, 2008; Nguyen et al. 2015; Solís-Lemus et al. 2017); we provide details in the Supplementary Methods.

3.2.4 Statistical Analyses

We analyze the data in three ways. First, we use phylogenetic network linear models that include reticulate evolutionary relationships within the model to estimate (1) the effect of hybrid asexuality on each response variable (endurance and mitochondrial respiration [State 3, State 4, and RCR initiated from either CI or CII]) and (2) the effect of mitochondrial respiration on endurance capacity. Second, we use linear mixed-effects models with species random effects to test for (1) an effect of hybrid asexuality on each response variable, (2) the effect of mitochondrial respiration on endurance capacity, and (3) differences in variability between hybrid asexual and sexual species for each response variable. Third, we use linear models for subgroups without needing to account for ancestry to test the effect of hybrid asexuality on each response variable (we made subgroup assignments based on mitochondrial history and parentage). More details for each of these approaches are provided in the Supplementary

Methods. Data and code are available on GitHub (Klabacka, 2021;

https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.5784646) and Dryad (Klabacka et al., 2021; https://doi.org/10.5061/dryad.zs7h44j8n).

3.3 Results

3.3.1 Effect of Hybrid Asexuality on Endurance and Mitochondrial Respiration

We found reduced endurance capacity and mitochondrial respiration in hybrid asexual species when using either the phylogenetic network or mixed-effects linear models (Fig. 3.1; Table 3.1; summary statistics in Table 3.S3). We observed that hybrid asexual species had reduced endurance capacity and rates of oxygen consumption when starting from either CI or CII for State 3 and State 4 respiration. We see no support for differences in RCR (for either complex) between sexual and asexual species (Fig. 3.S2). This is not surprising given that both State 3 and State 4 changed in the same direction, resulting in no changes in the ratio between the two measures (RCR). The effect sizes for each response variable are similar between phylogenetic network and mixed-effects linear models (Table 3.1), providing evidence for little phylogenetic signal for response variables. Within-group comparisons show the same general pattern without a statistically significant effect for each response variable (potentially due to lower sample size; Table 3.S4). Details on the within-group comparisons are included in the supplemental materials.

3.3.2 Positive Relationship Between Endurance and Mitochondrial Respiration

We observed a positive relationship between endurance and rate of oxygen consumption when starting from either CI or CII for State 3 and State 4 respiration with either the phylogenetic network or mixed-effects linear models; each of these relationships are statistically significant except for the phylogenetic network model for CII State 3 (Table 3.1; Fig. 3.2). We see no support for a relationship between endurance and RCR.

3.3.3 Greater Variation in Sexual Species

We found that models incorporating different residual variation parameters for sexual and hybrid asexual groups were preferred for endurance, CII State 3 respiration, and CI and CII State 4 respiration (Tables 1 and S5, Figure S3; also see pink rows vs gray rows in Fig. 3.1B). The approximate posterior probability that sexual species have a greater mean-corrected variance than asexual species was 75 percent, 96 percent, 83 percent, and 94 percent for endurance, CI State 4, CII State 3, and CII State 4, respectively (Fig. 3.S4).

3.4 Discussion

We present novel findings of reduced mitochondrial respiration in hybrid asexual species, along with results reproducing those of previous studies indicating reduced endurance capacity in these asexual species relative to parental sexual species (Cullum 1997; Mee et al. 2011; Denton et al. 2017). A positive relationship between mitochondrial respiration and endurance capacity is evident in our results, which matches our prediction given that aerobic activities require a large amount of ATP and reflects a similar correlation between endurance and mitochondrial genotype in *Drosophila* (Sujkowski et al. 2019). The lower variability in endurance, CII State 3, and CI/CII State 4 in the hybrid asexual species supports the hypothesis that asexual species have lower phenotypic variability due to decreased genetic variation (Ghiselin 1974; Williams 1975; Maynard Smith 1978). While lower phenotypic variability in locomotor performance has been previously documented in asexual *Aspidoscelis* species (Cullum 2000), our study is the first to

report decreased variability in mitochondrial respiration of hybrid asexual species relative to respective parental sexual species.

Despite the high heterozygosity of hybrid asexual species, which led numerous researchers to predict an increase in performance of hybrid asexual species compared to parental sexual species ("hybrid vigor"; see White 1970; Schultz 1971; Cole 1975; Mitton and Grant 1984; Bullini 1994; Cullum 1997), several studies have shown reduced aerobic performance in asexual vertebrate species (Cullum 1997; Mee et al. 2011; Denton et al. 2017). Historically this decrease in performance has been attributed to either (A) genomic incompatibility [consequence of hybridization via negative epistasis (Cullum 1997; Denton et al. 2017) and/or subsequent gene conversion], (B) mutational erosion [consequence of asexuality via Muller's Ratchet (Muller 1964; Leslie and Vrijenhoek 1978; Cullum 1997; Vorburger 2001)], or (C) the inability of the organism to "keep up" with the evolution of parasites due to lack of variation [consequence of asexuality via Red Queen (Valen 1973; Hamilton et al. 1990; Lively et al. 1990; Moritz et al. 1991; Mee and Rowe 2006; Mata-Silva et al. 2008)]. It is also possible that the inability of asexual lineages to combine beneficial alleles that arise in a population via sexual recombination (Maynard Smith 1978) results in the failure of the nuclear genome to efficiently compensate for deleterious mutations that arise in the mitochondrial genome. This hypothesis, an extension of the Hill-Robertson effect (Fisher 1930; Muller 1932; Felsenstein 1974; Hill and Robertson 2007) in the context of accelerated compensatory evolution in nuclear-encoded mitochondrial genes, was originally posed to explain the origin and prevalence of sexual reproduction among eukaryotes (Havird et al. 2015). Additional biological factors such as demography, ecology, and/or life history strategies specific to Aspidoscelis sexual mode may contribute to the

differences in endurance and mitochondrial respiration, although several studies have found little to no differences in factors such as response to habitat disturbance (Cosentino et al. 2019), thermal preference (Díaz de la Vega-Pérez et al. 2013), reproductive strategies (Schall 1993), and diet (Smith 1989; Mata-Silva et al. 2013). This study is unable to identify which of the previously described non-mutually exclusive hypotheses best explain our observation of reduced mitochondrial respiration in hybrid asexual species. We recommend that future work integrates genomic sequencing approaches with physiological and cellular measurements (e.g., RNA-seq and individual ETS complex activity) to disentangle potential contributions from these hypotheses.

While reduced endurance is observed in several groups of asexual vertebrates (including this study), examination of parthenogenetic geckos in the *Heteronotia binoei* complex has shown no difference (Roberts et al. 2012) and increased endurance (Kearney et al. 2005) in hybrid asexual species compared to sexual progenitors in different studies. Variation in results between asexual groups may be due to differences in (1) age of asexual lineages, (2) divergence between parental species at the time of hybridization, (3) ploidy, or (4) ecology. Compared to *Heteronotia, Aspidoscelis* possesses (1) younger asexual lineages (Reeder et al. 2002; Kearney et al. 2006), (2) greater divergence times between parental species (Strasburg and Kearney 2005; Zheng and Wiens 2016), (3) diploid asexuals [in this study; however, see Cullum (1997) for diploid and triploid asexual *Aspidoscelis* species] (Kearney et al. 2005; Roberts et al. 2012), and (4) a more active foraging strategy (Milstead 1957; Bauer 2007). We do not refer to these differences between taxa as factors that wholly explain our observations, rather we point out that

complexities within these biological systems may be responsible for the seemingly contrasting results.

Decreased RCR between sexual parent and asexual hybrid species is not evident given our data, which contradicts our predictions. We attribute this to the significant differences in State 4 respiration, which we did not predict. State 4, commonly called the "leak" or "basal" state, occurs when ADP has been exhausted. Oxygen consumption occurring via the ETS is being driven by protons "leaking" across the mitochondrial inner membrane rather than via ATP synthase. Low State 4 respiration tends to lead to high reactive oxygen species (ROS) production (Brand 2000), therefore a higher State 4 in sexual compared to hybrid asexual species may be an adaptive trait to mitigate oxidative damage. Investigation into potential differences in ROS production and oxidative damage between sexual and hybrid asexual species is needed to test this hypothesis. We also recommend that future studies include additional respiration states (e.g., State 4 induced by oligomycin, State 3u) for examination of respiratory ratios (Gnaiger 2020).

Lower State 3 respiration in hybrid asexual species suggests decreased mitochondrial respiratory capacity and, as a result, diminished ATP production. The positive relationship we observed between mitochondrial respiration and endurance capacity affirms our predicted relationship between these traits and supports the hypothesis that efficient oxidative phosphorylation increases endurance capacity. Reduced variability of endurance and mitochondrial respiration in hybrid asexual species, a potential result of decreased genetic variation, may be an evolutionary disadvantage. Here we show novel evidence for costs incurred by hybrid asexual species on mitochondrial respiration and reproduce findings of their reduced endurance capacity.

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Determining the evolutionary underpinnings of these phenomena, and thus shedding light on which hypotheses are responsible, will require integrating of physiological and genomic sequencing approaches. While the benefits of asexual reproduction can explain the genesis of asexual lineages, incurred costs for this strategy may explain their short evolutionary existence. Reduced mitochondrial respiration and variability in hybrid asexual species may be evolutionary disadvantages when performance and variation are important factors in the realm of natural selection.

3.5 Acknowledgements

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3.6 Statement of Authorship

RLK: Conceptualization, Funding acquisition, Experimental design, Permit acquisition, Sample collection, Animal care, Data collection, Data processing, Data analysis, Data visualization,

Provided resources [field equipment], Code scripting, Writing – original draft, Writing – review and editing

HAP: Data collection, Data processing, Writing - review and editing

KNY: Data collection, Data processing, Writing – review and editing

RAC: Sample collection, Animal care, Data collection

VAH: Sample collection, Animal care, Data collection

LMH: Sample collection, Writing - review and editing

MEW: Data analysis, Code scripting, Data visualization, Writing - review and editing

JAM: Sample collection, Data collection

MKF: Conceptualization, Provided resources [lab equipment, reagents], Writing – review and editing

ANK: Provided resources [lab equipment], Supervision, Writing - review and editing

JRO: Conceptualization, Experimental design, Provided resources [field equipment, reagents], Supervision, Writing – review and editing

TSS: Conceptualization, Experimental design, Provided resources [field equipment, reagents], Supervision, Writing – review and editing

3.7 Data and Code Accessibility

GitHub: https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.5784646 (Klabacka, 2021)

Dryad: https://doi.org/10.5061/dryad.zs7h44j8n (Klabacka et al., 2021)

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Chapter 3: Figures

Figure 3.1 Reduced endurance and mitochondrial respiration in hybrid parthenogens

Figure 3.2 Positive relationship between mitochondrial respiration states and endurance





body size [SVL] as a covariate in the model, and the lines of best fit represent hybrid asexual species (pink) and sexual species (gray). The y axes for each of the mitochondrial respiration response variables is the same. Values for effect sizes, variance, and p can be found in Table 1. Plots with full y axes (along with RCR) are shown in figure S2.



Figure 3.2: **Positive relationship between mitochondrial respiration states and endurance** Scatterplot showing effect of mitochondrial respiration for the initiation complexes (CI and CII) and respiration states (State 3 and State 4) on log₁₀ endurance. Colors and shapes correspond to species and sex, respectively (circles=females, squares=males). Values for effect size (slope), *p*, and r² can be found in Table 1

Chapter 3: Tables

	Hybrid Parthenogens				Log Endurance			
	β	SE	р	σs,σa	β	SE	р	r^2
PhyloNetwork Model								
Log Endurance	-0.22	0.040	0.031	_	_	_	_	-
CI State 3	-6.88	0.44	6.03e-04	_	0.033	0.0036	0.0028	0.97
CI State 4	-2.33	0.23	0.0020	_	0.095	0.016	0.011	0.92
CI RCR	0.066	0.13	0.66	_	-0.13	0.55	0.84	0.017
CII State 3	-6.12	1.13	0.013	_	0.031	0.11	0.060	0.74
CII State 4	-2.90	0.47	0.0087	_	0.072	0.017	0.023	0.86
CII RCR	-0.13	0.09	0.26	_	0.52	0.59	0.44	0.20
Mixed-effects Model								
Log Endurance	-0.24	0.050	0.017	0.18,0.090*	< _	_	_	-
CI State 3	-7.10	1.77	0.028	4.77, 4.51	0.021	0.0050	0.0002	0.40
CI State 4	-2.31	0.57	0.026	2.26, 0.75*	0.049	0.014	0.0023	0.29
CI RCR	0.021	0.29	0.95	0.69, 0.88	-0.042	0.042	0.33	0.23
CII State 3	-5.91	1.28	0.019	4.53, 2.49*	0.021	0.0060	4.0e-04	0.37
CII State 4	-3.17	0.85	0.034	3.29, 1.32*	0.023	0.011	0.042	0.14
CII RCR	0.036	0.13	0.81	0.36, 0.21	0.039	0.11	0.71	0.0035

Table 3.1: Results from PhyloNetwork and Mixed-effects linear models

NOTE. – Within columns we show the deviation of hybrid asexual species from sexual species for all response variables (left) and the effect of mitochondrial respiration states on endurance (right). The table is broken into two horizontal sections showing results from the PhyloNetwork linear model (top) and the mixed-effects linear model (bottom). Effect sizes (β), standard error (SE), p-values (p), standard deviations for reproductive modes ($\sigma s, \sigma a$; standard deviation for sexual and hybrid asexual species, respectively. Asterisks [*] indicate models where two residual variances were selected. Confidence intervals, results from the likelihood ratio test, and coefficients of variation are in Table S5.), and coefficient of determination (r^2) are shown for the models.

Chapter 3: Supplementary Methods

Animal Capture

We collected individuals along the Rio Grande basin between Las Cruces, New Mexico and Big Bend National Park, Texas. We caught thirty lizards (Table S1) either via lasso or by hand, and transported all individuals to Auburn University for temporary housing. Lizards were housed in laboratory conditions reflecting their typical desert habitat (25° C burrowing conditions, 40° C sunning conditions), and were fed ad libitum (crickets and mealworms) and watered daily (Townsend 1979). Individuals were accessioned as alcohol-preserved specimens in the Auburn University Museum of Natural History.

Endurance Capacity

After one month of acclimation to lab conditions, we randomly ordered individuals for treadmill running. After fasting the lizards 24 hours, we measured endurance capacity by timing the number of seconds an individual maintained forward progression on a treadmill moving at 1 km/hr (measured with a stopwatch). We terminated each trial when an individual could no longer keep pace with the treadmill following five repeated prompts (light pinching at base of tail). We log (Log_{10}) transformed the endurance measurement for all statistical models including endurance following visual inspection of the distribution of residuals (log transformation showed a more normal distribution of residuals). For all models comparing the effect of reproductive mode on endurance, we included snout-vent length (SVL) as a covariate for body size (Garland, 1994).

Mitochondrial Isolation and Respirometry

One week after endurance trials, we randomly ordered individuals and assigned them to days for live mitochondrial respirometry. After fasting lizards one day, we euthanized animals via decapitation and immediately excised and transferred skeletal muscle from the front and hind limbs to 10 w/v of isolation buffer (100 mM l^{-1} KCl, 40 mM l^{-1} Tris-HCl, 10 mM l^{-1} Tris base, 1 mM l^{-1} MgCl2, 1 mM l^{-1} EGTA, 0.2 mM l^{-1} ATP and 0.15 percent [w/v] free fatty acid bovine serum albumin [BSA], pH 7.50). After mincing muscle tissue, we homogenized the sample with VITRIS-5 homogenizer at medium power for five seconds and added fresh protease (Trypsin-T1426: 5 mg/g wet muscle). Homogenate was then mixed every 30 seconds for seven minutes before digestion was terminated with an equal volume of isolation buffer. We then centrifuged the sample at 500 xG for 10 minutes at 4°C, and passed the supernatant through gauze. We performed two steps of centrifugation at 4969 xG for 15 minutes at 4° C, with resuspension of the mitochondrial pellet following each of these two centrifugations (using isolation buffer with a volume equal to that of the original isolation buffer used, but the second resuspension used isolation buffer lacking

BSA). Following centrifugation, we suspended the final mitochondrial pellet in 100 μ l mannitol/sucrose solution (220 mmol l⁻¹ mannitol, 70 mmol l⁻¹ sucrose, 10 mmol l⁻¹ Tris-HCl, and 1 mmol l⁻¹ EGTA; pH 7.40).

We added isolated mitochondria to respiration buffer (100 mM KCl, 10 mM KH2PO4, 1 mM EGTA, 50 mM MOPS, 10 mM MgCl2, 20 mM glucose, and 0.2 percent BSA) in two water-jacketed respiratory chambers (Hansatech Oxytherm; hereafter referred to as chambers A and B) with continuous stirring at 40° C. We measured respiration by quantifying oxygen consumption with 2 mM pyruvate, 2 mM malate and 10 mM glutamate substrates in chamber A for respiration initiated through complex I (CI), and 5 mM succinate as a substrate with 5 μ M of rotenone to inhibit CI in chamber B for respiration initiated through complex II (CII). We began ADP-stimulated respiration (State 3) by adding 0.25 mM ADP in each chamber. Basal respiration (State 4), which occurs when oxygen consumption is driven by protons "leaking" across the inner membrane, was recorded after the phosphorylation of ADP was complete. Respiration rates were normalized to mitochondrial protein content determined via Bradford assay. Respiratory control ratio (RCR) was calculated by dividing state 3 respiration by state 4 respiration. Mitochondria isolation and respirometry were both executed in a manner where the researchers and data recorders were blind to the species and mode of reproduction.

Phylogenetic Network Estimation

We sequenced mitochondrial genomes following methods described by (Roelke et al., 2015) and downloaded available mitochondrial sequence data from GenBank for phylogenetic estimation (Table S2). We aligned sequences using the MAFFT v7.388 algorithm (Katoh et al., 2002) within the sequence editing program Geneious Prime v2019.0.4. We bootstrapped the sequence alignment (1000 nonparametric replicates), estimated the maximum likelihood tree for each bootstrap replicate, and used the maximum likelihood trees (with the -m TEST command to perform standard model selection) to construct a consensus tree using the program IQ-Tree (Nguyen et al., 2015; see Fig S1). We pruned the tree to include only the focal taxa for this study using the R package ape. Because this gene tree only represented the maternal mitochondrial ancestry, to approximate the paternal history we pruned copies of the asexual hybrid lineages from their maternal sister lineage and grafted these in with their paternal sister lineage while preserving the branch lengths. The reticulation at the base of an asexual lineage occurs at the hybridization event between two sexual species. Shortly after this event, the asexual species' mitochondrial gene tree (which generally sorts [coalesces] faster than the nuclear ancestry due to the smaller effective population size) diverged from the maternal sexual ancestor, providing an upper bound on the time of hybridization. While using this paternal tree would not be an appropriate reference for understanding the evolution of the nuclear genome in the hybrid lineages, it is adequate to reconstruct the reticulate phylogeny that is currently supported from previous studies with these species (Densmore et al., 1989). With the maternal and paternal trees as input, we estimated the phylogenetic network using the InferNetwork_ML (maximum

likelihood) command in the program PhyloNet (Than and Nakhleh, 2008; see Fig S1).

Linear Modeling and Analyses

We analyze the data in three ways:

1) Phylogenetic Linear Models

First, in order to account for reticulate evolutionary history, we constructed phylogenetic network linear models to test (1) the effect of hybrid asexuality on each response variable (Log_{10} Endurance, CI State 3, CI State 4, CI RCR, CII State 3, CII State 4, and CII RCR) and (2) the effect of mitochondrial respiration on endurance capacity using the function phylolm within the Julia package PhyloNetworks (Solis-Lemus et al., 2017). These models included the phylogenetic network to compute the variance matrix for the linear regression. Within-species variation was captured using the y_mean_std flag to incorporate standard deviation into the model.

2) Linear Mixed-Effects Models

Second, we designed linear mixed-effects models with species random effects to again test for (1) an effect of hybrid asexuality on each response variable, (2) differences in variation between hybrid asexual and sexual species for each response variable, and (3) the effect of mitochondrial respiration on endurance capacity. In this approach we did not include phylogenetic relatedness, therefore all species are independent. We created linear models using the R packages nlme and MCMCglmm. Here we briefly describe the model architecture; model specifics can be seen in the annotated code file StatisticalAnalysis.R. Results from the analyses are shown in Table S5.

For each response variable, we created two linear models using the function lme: (1) a model with the sexual mode as a fixed-effect independent variable and species as a random variable and (2) a model with the same components as model 1, with an additional residual variation parameter [allowing for different variability for sexual and hybrid asexual species]. We fit the models to the data and performed a likelihood ratio test to compare model fit (to test whether a model with two parameters of variation fit better than a model with a single parameter). For the models including two residual variation parameters, we obtained estimates of uncertainty by performing nonparametric bootstrapping (1000 replicates) and re-estimating the standard deviation.

Because there can be a linear relationship between the mean and variance on the scale of measurement, estimates of variance using mean-corrected approaches can provide a conservative approach to assessing heteroscedasticity. To account for the possibility that differences in variance between sexual and asexual species is due to differences in scale
of the response variable, we also used a Bayesian approach to compare mean-corrected standard deviations. Within models constructed using MCMCglmm, we used a non-informative prior, a burn-in of 3000, a thinning interval of 50, and a chain length of 53,000 (giving us 1,000 samples of the posterior). Each model contained unique residual variance parameters for each of the reproductive modes to allow for differences in variance between sexual and hybrid asexual species (Fig S3). For each MCMC sample, we calculated the difference between hybrid asexual and sexual species in the coefficient of variation (i.e., the standard deviation divided by the mean). We then compared the coefficients of variation between reproductive modes by subtracting the posterior distribution of the hybrid asexual species from that of the sexual species (Fig S4).

3) Subgroup Linear Models

Third, in order to examine the same effects we described in the linear mixed-effects model within individual subgroups (i.e., without needing to account for ancestry), we constructed linear models for (A) the tesselatus and neomexicanus groups independently (comparing each hybrid asexual to its parental species) and (B) all species with the same mitochondrial ancestry (Aspidoscelis marmoratus, A. neomexicanus, and A. tesselatus). While ideally the latter would include information regarding which of the two asexual groups first arose, such information is yet to be estimated (thus we assume they arose at the same time).

Chapter 2: Supplementary Results

Within-group ANOVAs

We observed the same general pattern in the Tesselatus and Neomexicanus groups (reduced endurance and respiration [State 3 and 4] in hybrid asexual species compared to parental sexual species), however, many of the models were not statistically significant (Table S4). RCR for both CI and CII showed no differences between sexual parents and hybrid asexuals. The models including the three species with similar mitochondrial haplotypes (Aspidoscelis marmoratus, A. neomexicanus, A. tesselatus) showed reduced endurance and maximal and basal respiration (State 3 and 4 for CI and CII) of both hybrid asexuals compared to A. marmoratus, although models for CI State 4 and CII State 4 were not statistically significant (Table S4). RCR for both CI and CII showed no differences between A. marmoratus and hybrid asexuals.

Study Limitations

Ideally our sampling would have focused entirely on female individuals and been larger than 30 individuals per species. Although we aimed to collect only female individuals, challenges of capturing sufficient females within our timeframe led to our inclusion of males in the dataset (the lizards within this study system are particularly difficult to capture). We found this justifiable based on previous work showing marginal sexual dimorphism within the same species examined in this study (Cullum, 1998), and on this basis we determined that bias due to sex would be minor. Although removing males severely reduces our sample size and dramatically decreases the power for our analyses, when we perform analyses in a female-only dataset we see that the direction of the patterns remain consistent with our conclusions.

Because post-hoc tests can impose an unnecessarily strict procedure to an underpowered dataset (Nakagawa, 2004), we do not perform post-hoc corrective tests. We recognize the possible contribution of false positives within our results and encourage replication.

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Supplementary Tables and Figures

- Table 3.S1
 Sample information.
- Table 3.S2 List of individuals used for phylogenetic inference.
- Table 3.S3 Summary statistics
- Table 3.S4 Within-group linear models
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CII RCR	1.69	1.79	2.30	1.62	1.93	1.90	1.57	1.85	3.11	2.16	2.22	2.12	1.78	2.13	1.92	2.19	1.75	1.65	2.03	1.94	1.96	1.62	2.30
CII State 4	13.52	15.72	8.19	13.41	11.17	17.71	18.23	15.01	6.36	10.91	9.03	12.29	8.73	9.53	11.32	10.40	12.03	13.11	16.51	15.54	13.88	16.14	9.53
CII State 3	22.80	28.19	18.84	21.76	21.59	33.71	28.61	27.80	19.74	23.52	20.08	26.08	15.54	20.26	21.72	22.81	21.03	21.58	33.57	30.08	27.21	26.18	21.90
CI RCR	3.76	3.11	5.52	3.42	3.30	3.22	2.33	3.51	4.76	3.43	3.55	3.72	2.66	3.30	4.16	3.80	3.58	3.01	3.26	3.50	3.49	2.63	3.53
CI State 4	6.43	9.12	3.83	8.8	7.04	10.36	12.81	8.57	4.8	7.29	6.01	7.99	5.82	6.35	6.36	4.01	5.79	6.82	10.61	10.13	7.41	10.7	8.53
CI State 3	24.17	28.38	21.14	30.09	23.23	33.35	29.83	30.11	22.85	25.01	21.36	29.70	15.49	20.93	26.48	15.24	20.71	20.50	34.62	35.46	25.87	28.16	30.11
Endurance	3.47	12.37	4.03	9.17	4.62	12.05	5.68	5.38	6.55	5.50	6.07	8.42	2.50	3.13	3.83	4.45	4.80	7.65	7.10	15.85	4.07	4.50	8.47
Long	-103.1735	-105.016495	-105.016564	-105.016291	-106.821715	-106.82207	-102.9989	-102.9977	-102.9974	-102.9974	-105.015899	-107.63207	-106.82133	-106.82327	-106.82299	-106.84009	-103.2987	-103.300742	-103.297041	-103.297782	-103.1771	-103.17565	-103.1735
Lat	29.3024	30.776757	30.777342	30.776901	32.249198	32.249134	29.1775	29.1781	29.1781	29.1781	30.775838	32.25602	32.24994	32.24704	32.24631	32.25612	29.2589	29.254819	29.260019	29.259492	29.2959	29.29646	29.3024
County	Brewster	Hudspeth	Hudspeth	Hudspeth	Doña Ana	Doña Ana	Brewster	Brewster	Brewster	Brewster	Hudspeth	Doña Ana	Doña Ana	Doña Ana	Doña Ana	Doña Ana	Brewster						
State	ΤX	ΤX	ΤX	ΤX	MN	MN	ΧT	ΤX	ΤX	ΤX	ΤX	MN	MN	MN	MN	MN	ΧT	ΤX	ΤX	ΤX	ΤX	ΤX	ΤX
Sex	Μ	Μ	ц	Μ	Μ	М	Μ	М	Ц	Μ	Μ	Μ	ц	ц	Ц	Ц	Μ	Μ	Μ	Ц	ц	Μ	Ц
SVL	4.9	5.3	5.1	5.8	5.5	5.6	8.2	6.9	7.8	7.4	8.6	8.7	5.7	6.9	6.1	6.7	9.1	8.5	8.2	8.5	7.0	7.2	T.T
Reprod	sex	sex	sex	sex	sex	sex	asex	asex	asex	asex	sex												
Capture Date	5/16/2019	5/24/2019	5/25/2019	5/26/2019	5/29/2019	5/29/2019	5/18/2019	5/18/2019	5/19/2019	5/19/2019	5/25/2019	5/28/2019	5/28/2019	5/29/2019	5/29/2019	5/30/2019	5/15/2019	5/15/2019	5/15/2019	5/15/2019	5/16/2019	5/16/2019	5/16/2019
Species	A. inornatus	A. marmoratus	A. neomexicanus	A. neomexicanus	A. neomexicanus	A. neomexicanus	A. septemvittatus																
Field ID	RLK178	RLK198	RLK200	RLK204	RLK210	RLK211	RLK186	RLK187	RLK191	RLK193	RLK205	RLK206	RLK208	RLK212	RLK213	RLK214	RLK165	RLK170	RLK171	RLK172	RLK174	RLK176	RLK177

Table 3.S1: Sample Information

CII RCR	2.04	1.63	1.58	2.25	1.87	1.97	1.96
CII State 4	10.21	12.88	10.02	8.42	8.98	8.62	9.72
CII State 3	20.78	21.02	15.83	18.90	16.75	16.95	19.05
CI RCR	4.03	3.93	2.39	5.45	3.14	3.34	2.60
CI State 4	6.14	5.18	6.41	5.06	5.86	5.62	6.37
CI State 3	24.75	20.38	15.34	27.56	18.42	18.74	16.55
Endurance	3.73	2.95	3.98	3.13	5.27	4.02	4.82
Long	-104.035785	-103.6143	-103.1781	-103.1743	-102.9989	-102.9981	-102.997929
Lat	29.324813	29.1622	29.3055	29.3055	29.1775	29.1779	29.177572
County	Brewster						
State	TX	ΤX	ΤX	ΤX	ΤX	ΤX	TX
Sex	ц	Ц	Ц	Ц	Ц	Ц	ц
SVL	8.1	T.T	6.6	7.2	7.8	6.5	8.6
Reprod	asex						
Capture Date	5/15/2019	5/17/2019	5/17/2019	5/17/2019	5/18/2019	5/18/2019	5/19/2019
Species	A. tesselatus						
Field ID	RLK162	RLK181	RLK182	RLK183	RLK185	RLK189	RLK194

Table 3.S1: Sample Information (cont.)

GenBank Accession	Species	Loci	Field ID
OK104662	Aspidoscelis gularis	MtDNA Genome	ASH22
OK104663	Aspidoscelis gularis	MtDNA Genome	ASH25
OK104664	Aspidoscelis gularis	MtDNA Genome	ASH63
AY620808.1	Aspidoscelis inornatus	ND4	NA
AY620811.1	Aspidoscelis inornatus	ND4	NA
AY620813.1	Aspidoscelis inornatus	ND4	NA
AY620812.1	Aspidoscelis inornatus	ND4	NA
OK104676	Aspidoscelis inornatus	MtDNA Genome	ASH120
OK104677	Aspidoscelis inornatus	MtDNA Genome	ASH121
MZ673806	Aspidoscelis inornatus	MtDNA Genome	ASH124
OK104678	Aspidoscelis inornatus	MtDNA Genome	ASH123
OK104715	Aspidoscelis sexlineatus	MtDNA Genome	KLC154
OK104716	Aspidoscelis sexlineatus	MtDNA Genome	KLC156
OK104717	Aspidoscelis sexlineatus	MtDNA Genome	KLC157
OK104681	Aspidoscelis marmoratus	MtDNA Genome	ASH131
OK104685	Aspidoscelis marmoratus	MtDNA Genome	ASH145
OK104686	Aspidoscelis marmoratus	MtDNA Genome	ASH146
OK104730	Aspidoscelis neomexicanus	MtDNA Genome	RLK89
OK104731	Aspidoscelis neomexicanus	MtDNA Genome	RLK90
OK104668	Aspidoscelis tesselatus	MtDNA Genome	ASH80
OK104669	Aspidoscelis tesselatus	MtDNA Genome	ASH97
OK104665	Aspidoscelis tesselatus	MtDNA Genome	ASH70
OK104670	Aspidoscelis tesselatus	MtDNA Genome	ASH98
OK104687	Aspidoscelis marmoratus	MtDNA Genome	ASH148
AF026179.1	Aspidoscelis septemvittatus	ND4	NA
AF026181.1	Aspidoscelis septemvittatus	ND4	NA
AF026182.1	Aspidoscelis septemvittatus	ND4	NA
AF026170	Teius teyou	ND4	NA
AF151207	Kentropyx viridistriga	ND4	NA

Table 3.S2: Individuals used for phylogenetic inference

			Species			Repro I	Mode
	A. inornatus	A. marmoratus	A. neomexicanus	A. septemvittatus	A. tesselatus	Hybrid Asexual	Sexual
Endurance							
\bar{x}	7.62	6.27	3.48	7.49	3.99	3.80	7.14
σ	4.09	1.14	0.85	4.06	0.84	0.84	3.30
95% CI	$\bar{x} \pm 1.67$	$\bar{x} \pm 0.46$	$\bar{x} \pm 0.42$	$\bar{x} \pm 1.53$	$\bar{x} \pm 0.32$	$\bar{x} \pm 0.25$	$\bar{x} \pm 0.76$
CI State 3							
\bar{x}	26.73	26.48	19.54	27.92	20.25	20.00	27.09
σ	4.65	3.91	5.32	6.03	4.42	4.51	4.77
95% CI	$\bar{x} \pm 1.90$	$\bar{x} \pm 1.59$	$\bar{x} \pm 2.66$	$\bar{x} \pm 1.28$	$\bar{x} \pm 1.67$	$\bar{x} \pm 1.36$	$\bar{x} \pm 1.09$
CI State 4							
\bar{x}	7.60	7.91	5.64	8.57	5.81	5.74	8.05
σ	2.34	2.76	1.11	1.97	0.55	0.75	2.26
95% CI	$\bar{x} \pm 0.95$	$\bar{x} \pm 1.13$	$\bar{x} \pm 0.556$	$\bar{x} \pm 0.744$	$\bar{x} \pm 0.21$	$\bar{x} \pm 0.23$	$\bar{x} \pm 0.52$
CI RCR							
\bar{x}	3.72	3.55	3.48	3.29	3.55	3.53	3.51
σ	0.91	0.77	0.65	0.35	1.04	0.88	0.69
95% CI	$\bar{x} \pm 0.37$	$\bar{x} \pm 0.32$	$\bar{x} \pm 0.33$	$\bar{x} \pm 0.13$	$\bar{x} \pm 0.39$	$\bar{x} \pm 0.27$	$\bar{x} \pm 0.16$
CII State 3							
\bar{x}	24.48	24.31	20.08	25.94	18.47	19.06	24.96
σ	5.47	3.83	3.20	4.77	2.02	2.49	4.53
95% CI	$\bar{x} \pm 2.23$	$\bar{x} \pm 1.56$	$\bar{x} \pm 1.60$	$\bar{x} \pm 1.80$	$\bar{x} \pm 0.77$	$\bar{x} \pm 0.75$	$\bar{x} \pm 1.04$
CII State 4							
\bar{x}	13.29	11.97	10.00	13.82	9.84	9.89	13.07
σ	3.35	4.24	1.12	2.51	1.51	1.32	3.29
95% CI	$\bar{x} \pm 1.37$	$\bar{x} \pm 1.73$	$\bar{x} \pm 0.56$	$\bar{x} \pm 0.95$	$\bar{x} \pm 0.57$	$\bar{x} \pm 0.40$	$\bar{x} \pm 0.75$
CII RCR							
\bar{x}	1.87	2.17	2.00	1.89	1.90	1.94	1.97
σ	0.24	0.52	0.19	0.24	0.23	0.21	0.36
95% CI	$\bar{x} \pm 0.10$	$\bar{x} \pm 0.21$	$\bar{x} \pm 0.10$	$\bar{x} \pm 0.09$	$\bar{x} \pm 0.09$	$\bar{x} \pm 0.06$	$\bar{x} \pm 0.08$

Table 3.S3:	Summary	statistics	for	species	and	reproductive	modes

 $\bar{x} =$ mean, $\sigma =$ standard deviation. Endurance is time in minutes. Respiration states are nmoles O₂ consumed per minute per mg of protein.

		tess model	tess-marm	tess-sept	neom model	neom-marm	neom-inor	marm model	neom-marm	tess-marm
Log ₁₀ Endur										
	β	NA	-0.17	-0.20	NA	-0.043	-0.43	NA	-0.17	-0.18
	SE	NA	0.076	0.074	NA	0.16	0.13	NA	0.074	0.11
	р	0.011	0.041	0.016	0.032	0.80	0.0060	8.60E-04	0.034	0.0031
CI State 3										
	β	NA	-6.23	-7.67	NA	-6.94	-7.19	NA	-6.94	-6.23
	SE	NA	2.74	2.63	NA	2.94	2.94	NA	2.88	2.48
	р	0.023	0.036	0.0096	0.056	0.034	0.024	0.039	0.030	0.025
CI State 4										
	β	NA	-2.11	-2.76	NA	-2.28	-1.96	NA	-2.28	-2.11
	SE	NA	1.07	1.03	NA	1.49	1.49	NA	1.14	0.98
	р	0.041	0.066	0.016	0.31	0.15	0.21	0.086	0.066	0.050
CI RCR										
	β	NA	-0.0044	0.27	NA	-0.070	-0.24	NA	-0.070	-0.0044
	SE	NA	0.43	0.41	NA	0.52	0.52	NA	0.56	0.49
	р	0.77	0.99	0.52	0.88	0.90	0.65	0.99	0.90	0.99
CII State 3										
	β	NA	-5.84	-7.47	NA	-4.22	-4.40	NA	-4.22	-5.84
	SE	NA	2.07	1.98	NA	2.85	2.85	NA	1.96	1.69
	р	0.0040	0.012	0.0016	0.28	0.16	0.15	0.012	0.049	0.0038
CII State 4										
	β	NA	-2.14	-3.98	NA	-1.98	-3.29	NA	-1.98	-2.14
	SE	NA	1.60	1.54	NA	2.19	2.19	NA	1.79	1.54
	р	0.059	0.20	0.019	0.35	0.38	0.16	0.36	0.29	0.19
CII RCR										
	β	NA	-0.28	0.0061	NA	0.13	-0.17	NA	-0.17	-0.27
	SE	NA	0.19	0.18	NA	0.24	0.24	NA	0.23	0.20
	р	0.28	0.17	0.97	0.39	0.59	0.49	0.41	0.48	0.19

Table 3.S4: Within-group linear models

Effect sizes (β), standard error (SE), and p-values (p) for each response variable. The tess model (left) includes effects between maternal-hybrid (tess-marm) and paternal-hybrid (tess-sept). The neom model (center) includes effects between maternal-hybrid (neom-marm) and paternal-hybrid (neom-sept). The marm model (right) includes effects between hybrids and the maternal offspring (neom-marm and tess-marm). We considered effects with p < 0.05 as statistically significant.

		lme			MCMCglmm						
	<i>σs</i> , <i>σa</i>	SEs,SEa	L Ratio	р	σs,σa	(95% HPDs),(95% HPDa)	ΔCV	Р			
Endurance	0.18,0.090	0.030,0.016	5.19	0.023	0.20,0.11	(0.13-0.26),(0.067-0.18)	0.027	0.75			
CI State 3	4.77,4.51	0.56,0.84	0.041	0.84	5.27,5.29	(3.38-7.20),(3.09-8.34)	-0.076	0.21			
CI State 4	2.26,0.75	0.36,0.19	11.44	7e-04	2.47,0.89	(1.63-3.43),(0.512-1.37)	0.14	0.96			
CI RCR	0.69,0.88	0.17,0.21	0.81	0.37	0.75,0.103	(0.49-1.02),(0.59-1.63)	-0.08	0.20			
CII State 3	4.53,2.49	0.62,0.48	3.95	0.047	4.95,2.86	(3.469-6.89),(1.63-4.39)	0.069	0.83			
CII State 4	3.29,1.32	0.51,0.36	8.28	0.004	3.55,1.58	(2.55-4.99),(0.90-2.48)	0.11	0.94			
CII RCR	0.36,0.21	0.084,0.039	8.55	0.088	0.38,0.25	(0.26-0.52),(0.14-0.38)	0.063	0.89			

Table 3.S5: Differences in variance between sexual and hybrid asexual species

LME SECTION: Standard deviations for the lme model fitting two residual variation parameters to the data (for the reproductive modes) are shown under σ_s, σ_a (standard deviation for sexual species, hybrid asexual species). The standard errors for each reproductive mode (SEs,SEa) were estimated using a nonparametric bootstrap approach. For each response variable, a likelihood ratio test was performed between a model fitting a single residual variation parameters and a model fitting two residual variation parameters (for the reproductive modes). L Ratio is the likelihood ratio score. *p* is the p-value for the likelihood ratio test, with *p* < 0.05 indicating the model with two residual variation parameters is a better fit for the data. MCMCglmm SECTION: Standard deviations determined by calculating the mean of the posterior distribution for the MCMCglmm model fitting two residual variance parameters to the data (for the reproductive modes) are shown under σ_s, σ_a (standard deviation for sexual species). (95% HPDs),(95% HPDa) is the 95% credible interval for the standard deviations estimated from the posterior distribution (see Fig S3 for a posterior distribution of the standard deviations estimated from the MCMCglm approach). Δ CV is the mean difference for the coefficient of variation (sexual - asexual hybrid). P is the posterior probability that the sexual coefficient of variation is greater than the hybrid asexual coefficient of variation Fig S4.



Figure 3.S1: Left: mitochondrial consensus tree constructed from 1000 boostrap replicates of the mitochondrial alignment with subsequent maximum likelihood tree estimation using IQ-Tree with individuals described in Table S3. Right: Phylogenetic network estimated using PhyloNet using mitochondrial relationships from the mitochondrial consensus tree and an estimated paternal ancestry. Blue lines represent estimated contribution from paternal ancestor, and yellow lines represent estimated contribution from maternal ancestor.



Figure 3.S2: Plots showing effect of hybrid asexuality on mitochondrial respiration. Each plot corresponds to the individual data from Table S1. All models showed a significant difference between sexual and hybrid asexuals for the response variables for both lme and phylonetworklm approaches (p < 0.05) except for the two models for RCR. Point symbols represent males (triangles) and females (circles)



Figure 3.S3: Plots showing the approximate posterior distribution for the standard deviation for sexual (s) and hybrid asexual (a) species for each of the response variables: (A) Endurance, (B) CI State 3 Respiration, (C) CI State4 Respiration, (D) CI RCR, (E) CII State 3 Respiration, (F) CII State 4 Respiration, and (G) CII RCR. Posteriors distributions were estimated using the MCMCglmm package in R. The gray bar on the x-axis is the 95% credible interval, with the red diamond and blue cross marking the mean and mode, respectively. The red line marks the standard deviation estimated from the nlme::lme approach.



Figure 3.S4: Plots showing the approximate posterior distribution for the sexual-asexual difference between coefficient of variance posterior distributions. The gray bar on the x-axis is the 95% credible interval, with the red diamond and blue cross marking the mean and mode, respectively. P = posterior probability that the sexual coefficient of variation is greater than the asexual coefficient of variation. The dashed red line marks the line where the sexual and asexual coefficient of variations are equal, with the green area under the curve showing the area of the posterior distribution with greater coefficient of variation in sexual species compared to hybrid asexual species.

Chapter 4: Divergence in genetic variation and expression in molecular networks that underlie aging between fast- and slow-aging garter snakes.

Formatted for Aging Cell

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Abstract

Understanding the genetic underpinnings of natural variation in rates of aging can identify mechanisms for how such variation evolves. The process of organismal aging has been explained by many gene networks in laboratory model organisms. However, a thorough understanding of the mechanisms of aging requires examination of patterns in wild populations. Phenotypic divergence between fast- and slow-aging ecotypes of western terrestrial garter snakes (Thamnophis elegans) is associated with differences in many aging-related cell signaling pathways. Here we test whether there are genetic underpinnings for these divergent ecotypes by examining gene networks associated with aging: Metabolic Function (including Insulin and Insulin-like Signaling [IIS] and Oxidative Phosphorylation), Macromolecule Damage and Repair, and Stress Adaptation. We assess (1) divergent transcriptomic responses between the ecotypes in response to acute heat stress, and (2) divergence in sequence variation of putative aging loci through elevated genetic distance (F_{ST} and D_{XY}) and amino acid polymorphisms between fast- and slow-aging snake ecotypes. We find significant divergence between the two aging ecotypes in regulation of the IIS, Oxidative Phosphorylation, and DNA repair networks, particularly in response to stress, as well as genetic divergence in key nodes in these networks. We incorporate findings of previous work conducted in the Eagle Lake garter snake system and compare our findings to what is known from model organisms. This research provides insight into the evolution of life-history traits, including aging, and highlights the importance of studying aging within and across species.

4.1 Introduction

Demographic aging is measured at the population level and defined by accelerating age-specific adult mortality. Such aging is widespread across animals (Reinke et al., 2022) and is underpinned by conserved cellular phenotypes (e.g., accumulation of damaged macromolecules, genomic instability, deregulation of cellular signaling) (López-Otín et al., 2013). These cellular aging phenotypes lead to deterioration of an individual's functional traits, with resultant increased frailty and organismal aging. Variation in cellular aging phenotypes can originate from sequence variation and altered gene expression in evolutionarily conserved molecular networks. Integrated signaling across these molecular networks gives rise to shared "pillars/hallmarks" of aging (sensu (López-Otín et al., 2013; Kennedy et al., 2014)), which can be defined at cellular and organismal levels (e.g., genomic instability and sarcopenia, respectively). Of particular interest are the hallmark-related cellular phenotypes that are robust to animal diversity, many of which were discovered in model laboratory species. Interesting questions arise as to (i) whether homologous molecular networks govern aging in natural populations (i.e., where aging evolved); and (ii) whether the genetic underpinnings of aging are shared across animals. Answers to these questions are critical for understanding which nodes within molecular networks of aging are flexible – and thereby recommend themselves as targets for biomedical intervention – versus those that are constrained or species-specific, and unlikely to result in meaningful increases to healthspan.

Comparisons between long- and short-lived species have further corroborated that conserved cellular aging phenotypes underlie organismal aging (Kennedy et al., 2014) – and, ultimately, demographic aging and lifespan – due to variation in the genetic mechanisms controlling these

phenotypes. For example, Tian et al. (2017) reviewed genes with roles in DNA repair, tumor suppression, or insulin and insulin-like cellular signaling (IIS) that distinguish short- and long-lived mammals. Additionally, McGaugh et al. (2015) and Passow et al. (2019) have quantified variation in selection across genes in these same molecular networks both within mammals and reptiles, and across amniotes. In a larger comparative framework, Hoekstra et al. (2020) reviewed studies on cellular aging mechanisms in reptiles and further defined their use in compliment to mammals. As the sister clade to mammals, similarities and differences in aging mechanisms between reptiles and mammals suggest evolvability in these molecular networks and additional networks that may account for variation in cellular aging hallmarks and aging demography within and between amniotes.

Intraspecific genetic variation that correlates with fast versus slow demographic aging can lead to the discovery of novel genes and gene networks involved in aging in addition to corroborating such variation observed across species. While much of this research has focused on differences between the sexes in aging and lifespan (Bronikowski et al., 2022), a complimentary approach is to study the evolution and function of molecular networks among populations within a species that have polymorphism in aging rates. Our own work in natural populations of western terrestrial garter snake *(Thamnophis elegans)* has utilized this latter approach to better understand the evolution of aging at both demographic and cellular scales. These populations have diverged in many aging traits including growth, maturation, reproductive rate, and mortality (Bronikowski and Arnold, 1999; Miller et al., 2014; Schwartz et al., 2015). These suites of co-evolved life-history traits establish that populations in close proximity (ca. 25km) can evolve independently in aging and lifespan, and their divergence has resulted in Fast- and Slow- aging

ecotypes (FA and SA, hereafter). Snakes of the FA ecotype have high mortality and lower median and maximum lifespan than SA snakes (age-in-years at 50th and 95th percentile of survivorship: FA = 5, 9; SA = 9, 13) (Miller et al., 2014; Reinke et al., 2022). Previous work in this system has used classic quantitative genetic approaches (i.e., common gardens, laboratory reciprocal transplants) to understand the contributions of genetic (Bronikowski, 2000; Gangloff et al., 2015) and environmental (Gangloff et al., 2016; Addis et al., 2017) variation to the lifehistory divergence between FA and SA snakes. Remarkably, genetic differentiation between FA and SA populations is relatively low at neutral nuclear markers (microsatellites) and at the whole-genome level (ca. $F_{ST} \sim 0.05$), yet high at the mitochondrial genome (ca. $F_{ST} \sim 0.45$) (Manier and Arnold, 2005; Schwartz et al., 2015; Gangloff et al., 2020). The many putative cellular mechanisms underlying the divergence between FA and SA snakes have been reviewed in Schwartz and Bronikowski (2011) and Hoekstra et al. (2020). FA and SA snakes are known to differ in measures representing three main cellular hallmarks of aging (sensu Kennedy et al., 2014): (1) Metabolism, (2) Macromolecule Damage, and (3) Stress Adaptation (summarized in Table 4.1). Regarding metabolism, we found differences that often interact with temperature in whole-animal metabolism, cellular respiration, and aspects of nutrient sensing pathways between these two ecotypes (Schwartz and Bronikowski, 2013). Moreoever, the two ecotypes have diverged in circulating hormone levels and gene expression of their receptors within the Insulin and Insulin-like cellular signaling network (IIS) (Reding et al., 2016). Regarding macromolecular damage, we have found ecotype differences in the production of free radicals and in the DNA-damage-repair response (Schwartz and Bronikowski, 2013). Finally, regarding stress adaptations, we have found consistent differences between FA and SA snakes in both innate and aquired immunity (Sparkman and Palacios, 2009; Palacios et al., 2013).

Here we interrogate these natural populations for divergence in gene expression and segregating allelic variation to test the hypothesis that the molecular genetic networks regulating three aging hallmarks (metabolism, macromolecule damage, and stress adaptation) are diverging between the FA and SA ecotypes. First, using transcriptome data we test for divergence in the regulation of molecular pathways related to aging between the ecotypes under control laboratory conditions and in response to heat stress. Second, we use genetic sequence data to evaluate allelic variation within these candidate networks and test for molecular network divergence between the FA and SA snakes in the wild.

4.2 Materials and Methods

4.2.1 Description of study species and habitats

Here we interrogate these natural populations for divergence in gene expression and segregating allelic variation to test the hypothesis that the molecular genetic networks regulating three aging hallmarks (metabolism, macromolecule damage, and stress adaptation) are diverging between the FA and SA ecotypes. First, using transcriptome data we test for divergence in the regulation of molecular pathways related to aging between the ecotypes under control laboratory conditions and in response to heat stress. Second, we use genetic sequence data to evaluate allelic variation within these candidate networks and test for molecular network divergence between the FA and SA snakes in the wild.

4.2.2 Genetic Data

We use two data types to address our goals: RNAseq data for liver gene expression (detailed methods in Schwartz and Bronikowski [2013] and Schwartz et al. [2015]); and sequence variation data from three sources – the RNAseq data, DNA allele sequence capture (detailed methods in Gangloff et al. [2020]) and whole genome sequences.

4.2.2.1 Gene Expression Data, Differential Expression, and Enrichment Analyses

Data Collection. Our first experiment tests for differential gene expression between FA and SA snakes and their responses to an acute metabolic stress (including an interaction between ecotype and stress). We conducted two heat stress experiments in 2008 and 2012 (hereafter referred to as HS2008 and HS2012). The physiological responses to heat stress in these two ecotypes from these experiments are described in-detail in Schwartz and Bronikowski (2013). Each heat stress experiment was conducted on lab-born juveniles at age 1.2 or 1.3 years with a 2 x 2 factorial design (temperature treatment x ecotype). We assigned animals (siblings split across treatments) to either a control temperature treatment (27 $^{\circ}C$ – i.e., a temperature within their normal rearing range) or a heat stress treatment (37 °C) for two hours, after which organs were dissected and flash-frozen. For HS2008, we assayed three unrelated females for each temperature-by-ecotype combination (total N = 12). For HS2012, we assayed five unrelated individuals (three males and two females) for each temperature-by-ecotype combination (total N = 20). Liver RNA was extracted with an RNAeasy kit (Qiagen) for 80-cycle single read sequencing on the Illumina GXII platform (one library per lane for HS2008), or 100 cycle paired-end sequencing on the Illumina HiSeq platform (HS2012). Population and ecotype sampling for this dataset are shown in Figure 4.1.

<u>Differential Expression</u>. The bioinformatic analysis pipeline for the RNAseq data is depicted in Figure 4.S1, and the scripts can be found on GitHub

(https://github.com/rklabacka/ThamnophisElegans FunctionalGenomics2021). For the two RNAseq datasets we removed reads shorter than 36bp, and cleaned raw sequencing reads using Trimmomatic (version 0.36) (Bolger et al., 2014) - removing leading and trailing bases with quality value lower than 25 (for HS2012 data) or 20 (for HS2008 data), and a sliding window of six with a quality value lower than 30. We mapped the clean reads to the *Thamnophis elegans* reference genome (rThaEle1.pri; GenBank GCA 009769535.1, Bronikowsi et al., 2019) using HiSat2 (version 2.1.0; Pertea et al., 2016) and counted reads mapped to genes defined in the genome annotation file (.gff) with Stringtie (Pertea et al., 2015, 2016) using the PrepDE.py script to generate read counts. Genes with low or no expression were removed for the analysis of differential gene expression in EdgeR (Robinson et al., 2010). To identify individual genes that were differentially expressed between FA and SA snakes in response to heat stress treatment, the two datasets were first analyzed independently in the R packages EdgeR and Limma-Voom (Law et al., 2014, 2018; Ritchie et al., 2015). Log-CPM data were normalized using the TMM method in EdgeR, and variance was modeled in Limma-Voom. We assessed five linear models using Limma-Voom with the following fixed effects: (1) Ecotype (FA, SA), (2) Temperature (Control, Heat stress), (3) the Interaction between Ecotype and Temperature; and two analyses on the following subsets of data, (4) Temperature within FA, (5) Temperature within SA. We used an Empirical Bayes smoothing of standard errors and a false discovery rate of FDR < 0.05.

To identify genes that were consistently differentially expressed across both RNAseq datasets, we used the results from the independent analyses of the datasets described above to conduct a meta-analysis using the R package metaSeq (Tsuyuzaki and Nikaido, 2021). For each linear model described above, the results for HS2008 and HS2012 datasets were combined by converting p-values from each experiment into z-values via the inverse normal cumulative distribution function, also matching the sign with the direction of the estimated change. This procedure provides additional evidence for differential expression when the estimated direction of a test is the same in both experiments, while weakening evidence for differential expression when the estimated directions of a test are different for each experiment.

Functional Pathway Enrichment. To test for divergence in gene expression at the level of molecular pathways, we used Gene Set Enrichment Analysis (GSEA) (Mootha et al., 2003; Subramanian et al., 2005). For this analysis we only used HS2012 due to higher sample size, and deeper and more consistent read coverage across samples. Using the results from the linear models described above, for each model we calculated a rank value for each gene using the sign of the fold change multiplied by the negative log of the p-value (Reimand et al., 2019). As a result, highly upregulated genes with small p-values are ranked at the top of the list and highly downregulated genes with small p-values are ranked at the bottom of the list. For this analysis we used 10,602 genes that passed the no/low expression filter and had annotation that mapped to a human gene ID in the GSEA database. In GSEA, we tested 146 KEGG pathways (Gene Set: c2.cp.kegg.v7.5.1.symbols.gmt [Curated]) for enrichment of genes that are at the leading edge of each ranked list (i.e., Ecotype, Temperature, Ecotype-by-Temperature Interaction, and Temperature within each Ecotype). To visualize the relationships among the KEGG pathways that were enriched in the leading edge of the ranked genes for each model, the GSEA results were imported into Cytoscape (Shannon et al., 2003) using the Enrichment Map App (Merico et

al., 2010) keeping all pathways that were significantly enriched at FDR 0.1 with edges set for overlap similarity coefficient between pathways > 0.3. For the resulting network of enriched KEGG pathways for each model, we highlight pathways that were associated with our cellular hallmarks of aging (i.e., metabolism, macromolecule damage, and stress adaptation).

4.2.2.2 Sequence Variation

<u>Sequence Capture Data Collection.</u> We designed MyBaits probes to capture DNA sequences that targeted exons for 455 nuclear genes in molecular pathways of relevance to various life-history and behavioral differences between the two ecotypes. The full methodology for this sequence capture is published in Gangloff et al. (2020) where we focused on the divergence of the mitochondrial genome between the ecotypes. We sequenced 100bp paired-end reads on Illumina HiSeq 2000. Probes were blasted (blastx) against the *Thamnophis elegans* reference genome (rThaEle1.pri; GenBank Assembly Accession GCA_009769535.1; Bronikowski et al., 2019) to confirm the identification of the putative annotation. We used these blast results to create new annotation files for three categories of data: (1) *gene:* genic regions

(SeqCap_CapturedGenes.gff) including exons and parts of introns that had coverage, (2) *exon*: transcribed regions (the exons of genic regions; SeqCap_CapturedExons.gff), and (3) *CDS*: translated regions (the coding sequence (CDS) of genic regions; SeqCap_CapturedCDS.gff). These reference annotation files were used downstream to bin variants into the gene, exon, and CDS categories. In a few instances, a probe matched to multiple genes in the genome and was removed from the analyses. We probed the genomes of 94 individuals from our FA and SA populations (Figure 4.1). The probes successfully matched genic region in 397 genes in the *T. elegans* reference genome Table 4.S1. We refer to this dataset as "Seq-Cap" hereafter.

Whole Genome Data Collection. To expand our sample size for our genes of interest, we used a subset of data from a larger whole genome sequencing project (Judson, 2021). Specifically, we included the variable sites (see "SNP identification and filtering" section below) identified in our Seq-Cap focal genes from whole-genome resequencing of 122 additional individuals (Fig. 1). In brief, we extracted DNA from blood cells using either a Qiagen DNeasy Blood and Tissue Kit or a phenol-chloroform DNA extraction protocol (Sambrook et al. 1989). To confirm high DNA quality before sequencing, we quantified DNA with a NanoDrop[™] 2000 Spectrophotometer and assessed DNA purity and quality using a 1% agarose gel. For library preparation of DNA for whole genome resequencing, we prepared libraries of 250bp insert size and sequenced libraries on a DNBSEQ-G400 with 100bp paired-end reads (BGI Genomics). We refer to this dataset as "WGS" hereafter.

<u>SNP identification and filtering.</u> We identified SNPs from the two RNA-Seq datasets and the Seq-Cap dataset as described in Figure 4.S2. For the two RNAseq datasets and the Seq-Cap dataset, we trimmed adapters and cleaned raw sequencing reads using Trimmomatic (version 0.36). For mapping, we used the *Thamnophis elegans* reference genome (rThaEle1.pri, GenBank Assembly Accession: GCA_009769535.1, (Bronikowsi et al., 2019). We mapped the cleaned RNAseq reads to the reference using the splice-aware aligner HiSat2 (version 2.1.0; Pertea et al., 2016), and mapped the sequence capture data to the reference using the BWA -mem algorithm (version 0.7.15; Li and Durbin, 2009). The resulting SAM files for both the RNA-Seq and Seq-Cap data were processed for calling SNPs by first adding read groups to reads and marking PCR duplicates using Picard (version 2.1.0; Broad Institute, 2016). We called SNPs using GATK

(version 4.1.7.0; Van der Auwera and O'Conner, 2020) following the GATK best practices guidelines for non-model organisms (DePristo et al., 2011; Poplin et al., 2018; see **Figure 4.**S2). We then used GATK to filter SNPs following the best practices guidelines, and we performed additional filtering to remove: genotypes with low quality (GQ < 20; VCFtools version 0.1.17 [Danecek et al., 2011]); genotypes with low depth (DP<10; VCFtools v0.1.17); multiallelic SNPs (more than 2 alleles; BCFtools version 1.2.3 [Danecek et al., 2021]); low frequency alleles (singletons; VCFtools 0.1.17); and sites with low sample representation (>70 percent samples missing; VCFtools v0.1.17). Following filtering, we annotated the SNPs using the reference genome annotation and BCFtools (v1.3.2), and we reduced the SNPs to include only sites within the genes of our final probe set (Table 4.S1). We then categorized variants as within a gene, within an exon, and/or within a CDS using the annotate tool from BCFtools (v1.2.3).

Obtaining Focal SNP calls from Whole Genome Sequencing Data. After calling SNPs from our RNAseq and Seq-Cap datasets, we called genotypes of these same variant sites from the WGS dataset to increase sample size and broaden the number of populations for population genetic analyses. The raw reads from the whole genome sequencing dataset were trimmed for adapter sequences, contained more than 10% unknown bases, or had more than 50% low quality bases $(Q \le 12)$ with cutadapt v2.5 (Martin 2011). We downloaded the NCBI *Thamnophis elegans* reference genome (rThaEle1.pri, GenBank Assembly Accession: GCA 009769535.1, Bronikowski et al., 2019) and used the -mem algorithm (Li 2013) in bwa v0.7.17 (Li and Durbin 2009; Li and Durbin 2010) to align all reads to the reference. Before variant calling, we used SAMtools v1.9 (Li et al. 2009) to remove unmapped reads and reads not in primary alignment. We used the Sentieon DNAseq workflow (v 201808.01; Kendig et al., 2019) to call variants across individuals. For each individual, we marked and removed duplicate reads with the – LocusCollector and –Dedup algorithms, then realigned reads around insertions and deletions (indels) with the –Realigner algorithm before using the –Haplotyper algorithm to generate genomic variant call format files (GVCFs). We joint-called variants across all GVCFs with a minimum base quality > 20 using the –GVCFtyper algorithm, which results in a VCF file of variants called across all individuals. We limited this VCF to only SNPs using GATK v.4.0.4.0 (McKenna et al. 2010; DePristo et al. 2011) and filtered sites from the whole-genome VCF based on the SNPs recovered from the sequence capture VCF with VCFtools v0.1.14 (Danecek et al. 2011).

<u>Merging Datasets.</u> We used the variant sites from the RNA-Seq + Seq-Cap VCF as a guide for SNP isolation from the whole-genome sequencing data. We then merged the RNA-Seq + Seq-

Cap VCF file and the reduced WGS VCF file using the merge tool in BCFtools (v1.2.3; Danecek et al., 2021). <u>Predicting Peptide Sequences and SNP functions.</u> We created nucleotide sequences of our targeted regions for each sample by inserting sample-specific SNPs into the reference genome for each individual from the RNA-Seq and Seq-Cap dataset using the GATK tool FastaAlternateReferenceMaker. To eliminate bias from unsequenced regions, we masked each alternate reference for individual genotypes with read depth less than two using BEDtools (v2.30.0 (Quinlan and Hall, 2010) sub-commands genomecov and maskfasta. We then extracted coding sequences using the program gffreader (v0.12.7; Pertea and Pertea, 2020) and translated them using the custom python script parse_and_translate.py within our GitHub repository. We created multiple sequence alignments for each gene of interest (including all RNA-Seq and Seq-Cap samples).

Functionally Annotating Variants. To identify nonsynonymous and synonymous SNPs, we functionally annotated the merged CDS VCF file using snpeff (v27; Cingolani et al., 2012) and created VCF files for synonymous and nonsynonymous SNPs. We obtained additional functional information for nonsynonymous SNPs of interest using the software package SIFT4G (commit 8fd9f40; Vaser et al., 2016). The lack of a *Thamnophis* genome annotation stored in the Ensembl genomics database required us to create a SIFT database from our local genome file and annotation (Ng, 2020). In brief, we downloaded the uniref90 protein database and used the perl script make-SIFT-db-all.pl with our configuration file. We then used the SIFT4G_Annotator.jar script (Ng, 2019) to annotate our VCF with SIFT scores and categories. In analyses of functional implications for variants of interest, we filtered out any SNPs with low confidence SIFT scores (as reported in the SIFT4G output).

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Population Genetic Analyses. To estimate relative (F_{ST}) and absolute (D_{XY}) genetic divergence, we calculated pairwise F_{ST} and D_{XY} between populations for each gene (i.e., using SNPs from exon regions in target genes) and for each site with a nonsynonymous SNP. For these calculations, we used the popgenWindows.py script in the genomics general software package (Martin, 2019). This script conducts pairwise calculations of F_{ST} (more specifically Kst [Hudson et al., 1992]) and D_{XY} in sliding windows across sites and per each site. In addition, this software calculates pairwise averages of nucleotide diversity (π) for each specified group. Pairwise population calculations were categorized as either "within-ecotype" or "between-ecotype" comparisons (e.g., comparing two FA populations versus comparing an FA and an SA population). We then used R to perform two-tailed T-tests of the distribution of F_{ST} or D_{XY} of within and between ecotype comparisons for both the per gene and per site estimates (R Core Team, 2020). We identified loci with a significant (< 0.05) p-value for sites of interest from the ttest. For per SNP estimates, we constructed a linear mixed effects model to (1) test for differences in divergence estimates between sub-categories of the Hallmarks of Aging, (2) test for an overall difference in the pairwise population divergence estimates from within-ecotype comparisons vs between-ecotype population comparisons, and (3) test for an interaction between ecotype comparison and gene network on F_{ST} / D_{XY} values. considered p-values < 0.05 as statistically significant. We also calculated Tajima's D statistic for each locus using VCFtools (v0.1.14; Danecek et al., 2011).

4.3 Results

4.3.1 Differential Gene Expression

The HS2008 and HS2012 RNA-Seq datasets varied in quality and depth of sequencing. The HS2008 data set had 5 to 31 million reads per library with average quality scores ranging from 21 to 36, and the HS2012 dataset had 42 to 90 million reads per library with quality scores ranging from 35 to 36, due to advances in high-throughput sequencing (Table 4.S1). Of the 21,554 annotated genes in the *T. elegans* genome, 13,067 passed the low/no expression filter in HS2008, and 14,431 in the HS2012 dataset, with 12,897 genes expressed in both datasets (Figure 4.S3).

In general, the meta-analysis increased the number of differentially expressed genes (DEGs) identified and had a large overlap with the HS2012 dataset (Figure 4.2, Figure 4.S3), providing confidence in the two datasets and demonstrating the increased power of the HS2012 dataset relative to HS2008. As expected, acute heat stress had a strong transcriptomic response (the meta-analysis identified 962 DEG), with approximately twice as many genes up-regulated compared to down-regulated (Figure 4.2). The list of differentially expressed genes contained the expected heat shock proteins (including our candidate gene HSP70; (Schwartz and Bronikowski, 2013), validating the 37 °C temperature treatment as a heat stress on these garter snakes. Between ecotypes overall, we found only 11 DEG. As expected with a small sample size and a large number of genes reducing the statistical power, we found no DEGs at FDR 0.05 in the Interaction model. However, when we separated ecotypes to test for the effect of heat stress, we found that the SA ecotype had twice as many DEG in response to heat stress (340 DEG) compared to the FA ecotype (136 DEG). This separated analysis of heat treatment showed only 50 shared DEG between ecotypes (Figure 4.2).

4.3.2 Gene Set Enrichment Analysis

By using the information from all the genes in a pathway, gene set enrichment analysis provides more power to detect biological relevant molecular pathways that are divergent between groups relative to conducting individual gene tests. The GSEA identified 14 KEGG Pathways that were significantly enriched in high-ranking genes in response to heat treatment, 12 of which were upregulated (Figure 4.3). Of our focal pathways, the Insulin Signaling Network (of the Metabolic Function hallmark) was upregulated in a highly connected network including EERB signaling, neurotrophin signaling, and T-cell signaling pathways. Interestingly, two pathways related to the Macromolecule Damage and Repair hallmark (Nucleotide Excision Repair and DNA Replication) were downregulated in response to heat (Figure 4.3, Figure 4.S4).

The between-ecotype comparison revealed six significantly enriched pathways (Figure. 3), including networks related to the Macromolecule Damage and Repair hallmark (Base Excision Repair) and the Metabolic Function hallmark (Oxidative Phosphorylation). Despite not having the power to detect individual DEGs with a significant interaction between ecotype and response to heat stress, the GSEA interaction model found many significantly enriched pathways including two related to the Metabolic Function hallmark (Insulin Signaling [again in a tight network of overlapping pathways] and Oxidative Phosphorylation) and one related to the Macromolecule Damage and Repair hallmark (DNA Replication) that responded differently to heat between the ecotypes (Figures 4.3 and 4.S4). We separated datasets by ecotype to better understand the expression patterns of these interactions. By contrasting networks of enriched pathways between the SA ecotype and the FA ecotype responses to heat stress, we see a highly connected network of 20 pathways (including Insulin Signaling) upregulated in response to heat

in the SA ecotype, compared to a few minimally connected pathways in the FA ecotype (Figures 4.3 and 4.S4); this suggests a more highly coordinated cellular signaling response in the SA ecotype relative to the FA ecotype. Examining the significant interaction with Oxidative Phosphorylation, in response to heat stress SA is downregulating Oxidative Phosphorylation whereas FA is upregulating this pathway (when viewing pathways at FDR of 0.17 instead of 0.1) (Figures 4.3 and 4.S4). Interestingly, both ecotypes are downregulating pathways for DNA repair in response to heat, although SA shows a stronger response with more DNA repair-related pathways reaching significance.

4.3.3 SNP Analysis

Of the 397 captured genes, 351 genes contain at least one SNP, 333 contain at least one SNP within an exon, 304 contain at least one SNP within the coding region, and 211 contain at least one nonsynonymous SNP. Our final SNP dataset contained 12,290 SNPs, of which 3,868 were within exons, 2,664 were within CDS, and 790 were nonsynonymous SNPs. Information on all genes is contained within Table 4.S1. For the remainder of this manuscript, we will be focusing on 297 focal genes from the aging hallmark categories: Macromolecule Damage Repair (83), Stress Adaptation (44), and Metabolic Function (170).

4.3.4 Population Genetics for Focal Genes

Average pairwise F_{ST} and D_{XY} between FA and SA ecotype populations (ignoring population assignment) for exons of focal genes was 0.0169 and 0.00011, respectively (Figure 4.S9, center) demonstrating how closely related the populations are across this landscape. The frequency distributions for pairwise F_{ST} and D_{XY} are right-skewed, with some genes (albeit few) having F_{ST} values of 0.05 to 0.24 and D_{XY} values of 0.00025 to 0.000876, suggesting resisted gene flow between the ecotypes at these genes (or genomic locations). The shapes of these distributions were also reflected in average pairwise differences for each of the respective populations (Figure 4.S9, bottom). Average Tajima's D for focal genes is 0.85, indicating no obvious evidence of selection across the dataset as a whole (Figure 4.S9, top right). However, the right-skew in the wide-ranging distribution (-1.22 to 6.16) may be due to some genes experiencing selection, with those genes >2 potentially diverging between the ecotypes.

Effect sizes for "within" and "between" ecotype interpopulation comparisons are shown in Figure 4.4 for both per-gene and per-ecotype analyses. The number, categorical distribution, and gene names of statistically significant findings from analyses of the within-ecotype vs betweenecotype F_{ST} and D_{XY} comparisons for both exon regions and nonsynonymous sites are shown in Figure 4.5B. The distribution of F_{ST} estimates from between-ecotype comparisons were significantly different than within-ecotype comparisons for exon regions in 33 of the 397 genes. The distribution of D_{XY} estimates from between-ecotype were significantly different than withinecotype interpopulation comparisons for exon regions of 13 genes. Of the 33 and 13 genes significant for F_{ST} and D_{XY} (respectively), 12 overlapped. For nonsynonymous SNPs, per-site F_{ST} estimates for 35 SNPs from 26 genes were significantly higher in the between-ecotype than within-ecotype comparisons. Per-site D_{XY} estimates for 12 SNPs from 11 genes were significantly different for between-ecotype as compared to within-ecotype interpopulation comparisons. Of the 26 and 11 genes containing sites significant for F_{ST} and D_{XY} , 15 sites overlapped from eight genes. It is worth noting that for every case where F_{ST} or D_{XY} was shown to be significantly different, the higher value was always for the between-ecotype comparison

(Figure 4.4). Four genes contained significant F_{ST} and D_{XY} values for both exon regions and nonsynonymous sites (HIF1A, NR4A1, PYROXD2, and XRCC3). Details of the genes/sites are contained within Tables 4.S1, 4.S2, and 4.S3.

Across most of the SNPs within the focal genes, the alternate allele frequency was similar for both the FA and SA ecotypes (Figure 4.5C; Table 4.S2). However, the frequency distribution of the difference between allele frequencies (Δ AF) is right-skewed, showing that some alleles are more prevalent in populations of one ecotype compared to the other. Most of the nonsynonymous SNPs with significant differences in F_{ST} or D_{XY} values are contained within the right tail of the distribution (Figure 4.5C).

Within the nonsynonymous site data binned into finer-scale groups of each hallmark category (Macromolecule Damage and Repair [DNA Repair, Oxidative Stress, p53], Metabolic Function [Oxidative Phosphorylation, Nutrient Sensing with Insulin Signaling, Metabolism], and Stress Adaptation [Heat, Hypoxia, General Stress]), we found no difference in average F_{ST} between these categories, between population comparison type (within-ecotype populations vs between-ecotype populations), or an interaction between these. However, we did find a significant difference between the population comparison type for D_{XY} of the nonsynonymous sites. Within-ecotype comparisons had D_{XY} values 9.04×10^{-3} ($\pm 7.89 \times 10^{-3}$) less than those between-ecotypes (p = 0.021). However, when examined visually it is apparent that this difference is driven primarily by the Heat and General Stress groups, with only slight differences in D_{XY} values (Figure 4.S10). The model examining D_{XY} showed no difference between hallmark categories or in the interaction between population comparison type and the categories.

4.3.5 Predicting Functional Effects of SNPs

Annotation from SIFT4G for the nonsynonymous SNPs significant for F_{ST} or D_{XY} are included in the Table 4.S3. Only one SNP (gene NDUFV1 pos. 69298519) was reported to have a low confidence SIFT score due to insufficient coverage in the multiple sequence alignment constructed by SIFT4G. Of the remaining 37 nonsynonymous SNPs, three were labeled as "deleterious" with SIFT scores below 0.05 (PIK3C2A pos. 83291589, NFKBIA pos. 128350420, and CYP4F22 pos. 876503), suggesting these SNPs likely have a strong impact on the function of the protein. SIFT scores for these SNPs are plotted in Figure 4.S8.

We point out that the "deleterious" designation is a prediction of functional impact based on evolutionary constraint that does not account for evolutionary relatedness (i.e., prevalence of the allele in a multiple sequence alignment across taxa, all taxa are treated as equally related), thus permitting biased assignments depending on taxonomic representation within the alignment (which are heavily mammal-biased). It is possible that variants marked as "deleterious" have functional implications that aren't necessarily harmful, but likely have an impact on how that protein functions. Therefore, we recommend that scores deviating from baseline be examined for functional impact using additional approaches, and in the discussion we comment on potential effects that some of these mutations may have on phenotypic divergence between ecotypes.

4.5 Discussion

In this study we set out to determine whether the hallmarks of aging identified in laboratory model species can translate to natural populations where aging phenotypes are evolving. We provide evidence that supports our hypothesis that life history differences between ecotypes are

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underpinned by differences in transcriptional regulation and sequence variation (including nonsynonymous sequence variation) in gene networks underlying the hallmarks of aging (Figure 4.6).

We used a whole-transcriptome approach to understand the hepatic response to heat stress and test for divergence between the ecotypes in this response. Strikingly, we found that < 1/6 of the transcriptomic response to heat stress was shared by the ecotypes, which are closely related populations of the same species (Fig 1, 3, S5). Further, we found the SA ecotype, relative to the FA ecotype, had a more robust response in terms of the number of genes differentially regulated, and a more coordinated response with a larger and more tightly connected network of molecular pathways responding to heat stress. Taken together these results suggests that the ecotypes are responding to acute heat stress using largely different molecular mechanisms. The more robust and coordinated transcriptomics response to an environmental stressor in the slow-aging ecotype may be a purview into the coevolutionary process for stress-resistance and senescence-resistance.

Within the network of pathways enriched for ecotype-specific responses to heat stress we found pathways that fit within the hallmarks of aging that we targeted for assessing genetic variation (Figure 4.3). Among our targeted set of genes evaluated for sequence variation, 47 showed divergence between the ecotypes. The differences in gene regulation, particularly those in response to stress, appear more extensive that those of genetic sequence (see "nutrient sensing" and "oxidative phosphorylation" boxes of Figure 4.6). This is expected given that regulatory differences often drive phenotypic divergence over genetic sequence dissimilarity (King and Wilson, 1975; Whitehead and Crawford, 2006; Abolins-Abols et al., 2018), and prominent

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differences in gene expression may be due to sequence variation in cis-regulatory regions (see Jin et al., 2001; Brem et al., 2002; Cheung et al., 2003; Stamatoyannopoulos, 2004; Gibson and Weir, 2005). In the integration of the gene expression and sequence variation results in the context of the hallmarks of aging pathways we see many examples of proteins that are divergent between the aging ecotypes in their gene regulation that are interacting with proteins divergent in their sequence variation (Figure 4.6), illustrating the cooperative nature of selection acting on expression regulation and protein structure/function to manipulate molecular networks.

To our knowledge, this is the first study to examine the potential genomic (at both sequence and expression levels) underpinnings of aging in a natural, conspecific vertebrate system using targeted gene networks and a controlled experimental design. Below we discuss the relevance of the patterns we observed in genes and gene networks with significant expression and/or sequence divergence within their respective hallmark categories. We illuminate the contributions of genetic variation in several molecular networks to these ecotypes with divergent aging phenotypes by integrating results from gene expression and nucleotide sequence variation with previously published life-history traits from the Eagle Lake terrestrial garter snake study system. Given that many physiological and molecular pathways associated with aging are shared across vertebrate lineages (Hoekstra et al., 2020), we discuss the extent to which ecotypes within a species differ in expression and allelic variation for genes of these pathways and highlight findings that are consistent with patterns of aging seen across vertebrates.

4.5.1 Macromolecule Damage and Repair

Unrepaired DNA damage is linked to rate of aging and overall longevity. It has been hypothesized that molecular pathways for DNA repair are responsible for aging due to deleterious somatic mutation accumulation in the blueprint for essential cellular machinery (Gladyshev, 2013). Previous findings in the SA and FA ecotypes show divergence in DNA repair phenotypes, with the FA ecotype showing less-efficient DNA repair (Bronikowski, 2008) and a decreased capacity to repair DNA (Robert and Bronikowski, 2010; Schwartz and Bronikowski, 2013) compared to the SA ecotype. Our pathway enrichment analyses indicated that the Base Excision Repair pathway is upregulated in SA compared to FA, a pattern which is consistent with observations of longer-living organisms exhibiting upregulation in DNA-repair genes (MacRae et al., 2015). The interaction between ecotype and heat stress response indicates that the DNA replication pathway is more downregulated in SA in response to acute heat stress relative to the FA response. Focusing on the response of each ecotype to acute heat stress separately shows that four pathways involved with DNA repair are downregulated by SA compared to only one by FA (Figure 4.3). Overall this interaction pattern of gene expression at the pathway level is consistent with Schwartz and Bronikowski (2013, Fig. 5) that showed SA has lower background DNA damage but more DNA damage in response to acute heat stress, and then faster, more efficient repair.

In addition to regulatory modifications influencing aging, there is evidence for an association between sequence variation in DNA repair genes and longevity across species (Tollis et al., 2019). Eleven genes in this study that are involved with macromolecule damage and repair have significant divergence in exon regions and /or nonsynonomous SNPs between ecotypes (XRCC3, RAD54B, CCS, GADD45B, GDAP1, GPX3, MYC, PRDX6, PXDN, and PYROXD2, MPO). Because the decreased ability of somatic cells to properly respond to damaging oxidative agents such as ROS is an integral part of aging, and alterations to antioxidant expression can affect aging (Landis and Tower, 2005), the significance of these genes (many of which are involved in oxidative stress response) matched our predictions.

Our pathway enrichment analysis showed that two of these genes, XRCC3 and RAD54B, were on the leading-edges of the Homologous Recombination DNA repair pathways for the heat treatment in the SA ecotype. The gene XRCC3, a RAD51 homolog, is required to recruit RAD51 to breakage sites for double-strand DNA repair. In addition to XRCC3 having significant differences between ecotypes in absolute and relative divergence for SNPs in the exon regions (16 total SNPs), we also found that one of the two non-synonymous SNPs (Q129R, based on human amino acid number) showed absolute and relative divergence significantly different between ecotypes. Additionally, we found a high Tajima's D value for XRCC3 (2.05), indicating the possibility of balancing selection occurring within this gene. Similarly, the gene RAD54B, a subunit of the enzyme RAD54, is involved in double-strand DNA repair. In our study, this gene is on the expression leading edge of the homologous recombination pathway for the response to heat, and it contains four significant nonsynonymous SNPs; one is within the superfamily II DNA/RNA helicase and the other three are within the DEXH-box helicase.

Variation in genes associated with double-strand break (DSB) repair is associated with longevity in humans (Debrabant et al., 2014) and the long-living American lobster (Polinski et al., 2021). Further, differences in lifespan between queen and workers in eusocial insects (specifically, ants and termites) are associated with higher expression of DNA repair genes (including XRCC3 and RAD54B; Lucas et al., 2016; Tasaki et al., 2018). Overexpression of RAD54 also resulted in longer median lifespans in Drosophila lab strains (Shaposhnikov et al., 2015). While sequence variation in XRCC3 has not been directly associated with aging, paralogs and factors within the homologous recombination repair regime cause progeroid phenotypes in mammals (Lombard et al., 2005). It has also been proposed that the well-established relationship between Sir2 function and senescence involves the DSB repair function of Sir2 (Hasty, 2001).

Silencing of the copper chaperone CCS, which has been proposed as a candidate gene for longevity in pigs (Metodiev et al., 2006), is shown to cause significant decreases in viability and performance (Theotoki et al., 2019). An association between the expression and activity of superoxide dismutase (the copper recipient of CCS) and aging has been observed in Drosophila (Dudas and Arking, 1995; Spencer et al., 2003; Tower, 2015), yeast (Fabrizio et al., 2003), nematodes (Larsen, 1993; Yen et al., 2009), lab mice (Levin et al., 2005), peas (del Río et al., 2003), and bean weevils (Šešlija et al., 1999). Increased expression of PRDX6, which in our study contains a significant nonsynonymous SNP with potential functional impact (SIFT - 0.19), is associated with increased aging in mice (Pacifici et al., 2020; Soriano-Arroquia et al., 2021), rats (Lubec et al., 2019) and human cells (Chhunchha et al., 2017, 2020, 2022; Salovska et al., 2022). Reduced expression of GPX3 has also been associated with increased aging in mice (Qi et al., 2018) and humans (Pastori et al., 2016). Involvement of MYC, a transcription factor that is estimated to regulate up to 15 percent of all genes in the genome (Dang et al., 2006), with maintaining cellular redox balance has been proposed (Benassi et al., 2006). MYC expression is associated with that of PRDX6 in human cells (Li et al., 2021). Expression of the antioxidant MPO, which in our study contains a significant nonsynonymous SNP that may affect function (SIFT = 0.08), is associated with aging in lab rats (Gen Son et al., 2005; Liu et al., 2015), lab

mice (Shen et al., 2018; Marquez-Exposito et al., 2022), humans (Vianello et al., 2016; Lee et al., 2021), and human cells (Liu et al., 2015; Lee et al., 2022).

Decreased expression of GADD45B, a transcriptional target of NFKB involved with cellular stress response to regulate proliferation and apoptosis (Papa et al., 2004, 2007), is associated with premature aging in mouse cells (Magimaidas et al., 2016), and deletion of GADD45B is associated with decreased long-term memory (Leach et al., 2012; Sultan et al., 2012) and reduced neurogenesis (Ma et al., 2009) in mice. In our study, we observed a significant nonsynonymous SNP that likely influences function (SIFT = 0.05). Sequence variation in the NFKB pathway and related pathways are associated with long lifespans in mammals (Kowalczyk et al., 2020).

4.5.2 Metabolic Function

Nutrient Sensing. Pathways involved with nutrient sensing and energy conversion have been implicated with the life-history trade-off hypothesis, which suggests that investment in growth/reproduction is inversely linked with investment in maintenance/survival. The nutrient sensing pathway IIS/Tor is involved in variation in longevity across animals (Kenyon et al., 1993; Fontana et al., 2010; Kenyon, 2010; Sparkman et al., 2012; Allison et al., 2014; McGaugh et al., 2015; Sanders et al., 2018; reviewed in Hoekstra et al., 2020), and although the pathways are highly conserved, variation indicative of positive selection has been found within squamate reptiles (McGaugh et al., 2015). In this study we found the SA and FA ecotypes differentially regulate this pathway (Figure 4.3), and some of the top regulators of this pathway evidence genetic divergence between ecotypes of the pathway, including IGF2, INSR, and IRS. This bias in sequence divergence in top regulator genes reflects predictions from the hypothesis that top

regulators of the IIS network and critical intracellular genes experience positive selection while downstream genes experience purifying selection (McGaugh et al., 2015).

We found evidence for significant divergence in both relative nucleotide divergence and gene expression for IGFBP3, a main IGF transport protein in the bloodstream that is associated with human longevity and aging (He et al., 2014; Teumer et al., 2016), and suppression of insulin-like growth factors is associated with increased longevity (Kenyon, 2005; Tullet et al., 2008). A nonsynonymous SNP in the IGF2 E-peptide shows significant relative divergence between ecotypes, although it is unclear how this affects IIS signaling since (in mice) the E-peptide is cleaved prior to IGF2 secretion for endocrine function (Buchanan et al., 2001). INSR, a gene with a nonsynonymous SNP with significant relative divergence between ecotypes, has been identified as a longevity-associated gene in long-living mammals (Yu et al., 2021), and sequence variation in INSR is associated with longevity in human centenarians (Kojima et al., 2004). Reduced activity of PI3K and its upstream regulator IRS have been associated with increases in lifespan in Drosophila, nematodes, and mice (Clancy et al., 2001; Ayyadevara et al., 2008; Foukas et al., 2013). We found lower SA expression in both of these genes in response to heat and evidence for significant relative divergence between ecotypes in IRS and three nonsynonymous SNPs of PIK3C2A (an enzyme within the PI3K family), demonstrating consistency in the role of these genes in longevity across lab model organisms and our natural populations of snakes.

The PI3K pathway, which plays an important role in regulating the cell cycle, is activated by the same upstream components as the IIS network. Genetic variation in PI3K is associated with

longevity in nematodes and Drosophila (Ayyadevara et al., 2008; Moskalev and Shaposhnikov, 2008). PI3K directly converts PIP₂ to PIP₃, which is an upstream activator of both AKT and mTOR. INPP5A catalyzes the reversal of PIP₃ to PIP₂, thus inhibiting activation of AKT and mTOR. We found a nonsynonymous SNP within INPP5A that is significantly differentiated between the ecotypes and possesses a predicted functional impact (SIFT score of 0.05).

The forkhead box (FOX) proteins are downstream transcription factors in the IIS gene network that regulate genes associated with life history and are associated with variation in longevity (Passtoors et al., 2013; Stefanetti et al., 2018; Li et al., 2019). Variation in FOXO3, a gene with significant divergence between ecotypes, is linked to longevity in several metazoan lineages. FOXO3 is one of the few genes with multiple studies showing genetic variation associated with increased longevity in humans (Willcox et al., 2008; Anselmi et al., 2009; Flachsbart et al., 2009; Pawlikowska et al., 2009; Soerensen et al., 2010; Bao et al., 2014; Sun et al., 2015; Teumer et al., 2016). Upstream of FOXO3 is FOXA3, a gene with significant relative divergence between ecotypes that also contains a nonsynonymous SNP with significant relative divergence between ecotypes. Located within the forkhead N-terminal region, this SNP has a low SIFT score (0.06), which we interpret as high probability of impacting protein function.

While the effects of variation in the PI3K-mediated IIS pathway on aging are better understood, evidence for a link between the Ras/MAPK-mediated IIS pathway and variation in aging also exist (Slack et al., 2015). We found evidence for SA downregulation in response to heat (SHC, GRB2, SOS, Ras, Raf, and ELK) and genetic divergence (Ras, MAPK3, RIT1) within the Ras/MAPK-mediated IIS pathway. MAP3K1, a gene downstream of Ras with significant relative divergence between ecotypes, contains a nonsynonymous SNP with significant relative and absolute divergence between ecotypes. However, the high SIFT score (1.0) suggests no indication of functional impact from this SNP. MAP3K1 activates NR4A1 expression downstream, a gene strongly associated with aging in nematodes (Akhoon et al., 2019) that in our study shows significant relative and absolute divergence between ecotypes and contains a nonsynonymous SNP with significant relative and absolute divergence that may affect protein function (SIFT 0.09).

We also observed a nonsynonymous SNP with significant absolute divergence between the ecotypes within the gene TSC1, a gene that inhibits cell growth and regulates the mTOR signaling pathway. This SNP has a low SIFT score (0.15), suggesting the possibility of a functional impact. Knocking out TSC1 is associated with accelerated aging in lab mice (Deng et al., 2021; Rao et al., 2021) and differences in expression are associated with longevity in Drosophila (Li et al., 2019), lab mice (Zhang et al., 2017), and humans (Passtoors et al., 2013).

<u>Mitochondrial Function.</u> Oxidative phosphorylation, the primary metabolic pathway for energy production in animals, is widely recognized as a pathway whose dysfunction is directly associated with senescence (López-Otín et al., 2013; Kennedy et al., 2014). Our pathway enrichment analyses show differences in OXPHOS as a network between ecotypes (upregulated in SA) and in the heat x ecotype interaction (Figure 4.2), and we found five nonsynonymous sites were significantly divergent between ecotypes (Figure 4.5C).

Evidence for divergence in OXPHOS expression between ecotypes is harmonious with previously reported differences in mitochondrial function between the two ecotypes showing physiological divergence in mitochondrial efficiency, ROS production, antioxidant expression, organismal metabolic rate, and cellular oxygen consumption rate (Bronikowski and Vleck, 2010; Robert and Bronikowski, 2010; Schwartz and Bronikowski, 2013; Gangloff et al., 2015, 2020), and this also ties in with the ecotypic segregation of a nonsynonymous mitochondrial-encoded SNP in Cytochrome-C Reductase (Complex III, ; Schwartz et al., 2015). Interestingly, at the expression level the directionality is reversed for nuclear-encoded mitochondrial-targeted genes, which show higher expression in SA compared to FA, while mitochondrial-encoded genes show higher expression in FA compared to SA (Schwartz et al., 2015). However, we do not know whether the difference in mitochondrial transcript abundance is due to more mitochondrial genomes or increased transcription.

Genes with significant relative and/or absolute divergence between ecotypes in either exon regions or nonsynonymous SNPs include members of the electron transport chain; the location of the affected subunits and amino acids within the complexes are shown in Figure 4.S11 We see no evidence for significant genetic divergence between ecotypes for any of the nuclear-encoded genes in CIII corresponding to the ecotype-segregating SNP. In addition to the genetic divergence we observed between ecotypes, it is possible that genetic variation in upstream regulators or differences in mitochondrial behavior/morphology may be responsible for the significant differences in enrichment that we observed between ecotypes and their gene expression response to heat.

4.5.3 Stress Adaptation

The effectiveness of organismal and cellular responses to external stressors, which occur via pathways that are largely conserved across animals, generally declines with age. Examples of stressors and the intracellular groups involved in stress responses include (1) hypoxia and hypoxia-inducible factors (HIFs), and (2) heat stress and heat shock proteins (HSPs).

Hypoxia. The association of longevity genes and those involved with the hypoxic response is documented in humans (Passtoors et al., 2013) and nematode worms (Mabon et al., 2009). Two primary responders to hypoxia are VHL and its target protein HIF1-A, whose inactivation results in an increase in longevity (Mehta et al., 2009; Müller et al., 2009). HIF1A and VHL were significantly divergent between the ecotypes across the exon regions, and HIF1A has a significant nonsynonomous SNP that may affect function (SIFT = 0.35). RORC, whose expression is regulated by HIF1A, also has a divergent nonsynonymous SNP that may affect function (SIFT = 0.23). Activity of the NF- κ B transcription factor, which responds to a variety of cellular stressors including hypoxia, is modulated by the IKK complex and nucleoporin 88 (Takahashi et al., 2008). Sequence variation in NFKBIA, which encodes a subunit in the IKK complex, is associated with longevity in humans. In NFKBIA, we observed significant absolute and relative divergence between ecotypes in exon regions as a whole and a nonsynonymous SNP within the ANK 1 region that is predicted to affect protein function (SIFT = 0.04) with relative divergence significantly different between ecotypes We also observed a nonsynonymous SNP in nucleoporin 88 (NUP88) with relative divergence significantly different between ecotypes that may affect function (SIFT = 0.22). NFKB1A and VHL, both of which show significant absolute and relative divergence between ecotypes, are associated with aging and longevity in nematodes

(HIF-1 [Leiser and Kaeberlein, 2010]; VHL [Müller et al., 2009]), and humans (Ryu et al., 2021). A nonsynonymous SNP in NFKB1A with significant relative divergence is predicted to affect protein function (SIFT = 0.04).

Heat Stress. The efficiency of a cell to respond to misfolded proteins is linked to cellular health, and this efficiency decreases with aging (Tower, 2009). This understanding, based on the differential gene expression of heat shock proteins (HSPs), is observed in Drosophila (King and Tower, 1999; Yang and Tower, 2009), humans (Fonager et al., 2002), lab mice (Jurivich et al., 2020), nematodes (Manière et al., 2014), and Rhesus macaques (Schultz et al., 2001). Heat treatment showed significant differential gene expression compared to control in six out of twelve targeted heat shock proteins. We found significant sequence divergence between ecotypes for several HSP genes, which is not a widely reported observation in studies on aging. This distinction may be due to environmental conditions differing between wild populations and lab strains. FA and SA ecotypes inhabit unique environments with unique selection pressures, including differences in climate. For instance, the ephemeral ponds of the meadows (where SA snakes reside) are more prone to shifts in temperature than the stable lakeshore (where FA snakes reside).

4.5.4 Implications for Life History Evolution:

While multiple studies have examined the genetic underpinnings of life-history variation between species (e.g., Fushan et al., 2015; McGaugh et al., 2015; Passow et al., 2019) and within lab model organisms (e.g., Flatt, 2020; Evans et al., 2021; Bou Sleiman et al., 2022), less is known about the genetic basis for life-history variation in conspecific natural populations of nonmodel species. In this study we identify nucleotide sequence and genetic regulatory differences between phenotypically divergent, conspecific ecotypes in gene networks that have been associated with aging variation on a deeper evolutionary scale and within experimental lab settings. The converse environmental selective pressures experienced by the two ecotypes (including predation, food availability, temperature, water permanence) have been implicated as sources of life history phenotypic divergence in the Eagle Lake garter snake system, and they may also be the drivers of genetic divergence and regulatory differences between the ecotypes. Numerous lines of evidence support the hypothesis that caloric restriction increases longevity via decreased activity of the IIS pathway, and the fluctuating food availability in SA habitats (Bronikowski and Arnold, 1999) may be responsible for the genetic divergence in IGF2 and FOXO3 along with the difference in SA IIS regulatory response to heat. Enhanced risk of predation (or other sources of extrinsic mortality) is associated with decreased longevity and senescence (Magnhagen, 1990; Austad, 1993; Dudycha, 2001; Bryant and Reznick, 2004; Bronikowski and Promislow, 2005; Carlson et al., 2007; Costanzo et al., 2011; Chandrasegaran et al., 2018) due to inefficient selection on old-individual phenotypes and/or deleterious mutation accumulation, and genetic ecotypic divergence and expression differences in DNA repair genes XRCC3 and RAD54B may be due in-part to divergence in extrinsic mortality in the FA and SA habitats (Sparkman and Bronikowski, 2013). Although low levels of overall genetic differentiation in this and other studies suggest that gene flow occurs between populations of these ecotypes, strong selection could result in restriction to gene flow in genes and genomic regions that maintain ecotype life-history divergence.

4.5.5 Value of Studying Aging Within and Across Species

Understanding general processes of aging and their underlying genetic mechanisms requires a broad understanding of aging variation. Knowledge on commonalities across systems can provide insights into life history theory, evolution of aging hypotheses, and inform decisions in medical research. While research in model organisms has pioneered aging research, restricting efforts to a handful of taxa limits knowledge capacity to a few tips of the tree of life. Expanding the scope to include more diverse taxa has provided previously hidden perspectives into phenotypic traits associated with longevity (Reinke et al., 2022), sequence diversity of aging genes (Opazo et al., 2022), and unique expression patterns of aging genes (Beatty et al., 2022). These two approaches (model species vs diverse taxa) provide finite and expanded perspectives, yet they both lack a critical vantage point found within conspecific populations with naturally occurring variation in aging where evolution in real-time, rather than the end result, can be examined. By working with a populations such as *Thamnophis elegans* around Eagle Lake to quantify aging-related traits, document (or control) environmental conditions, and capture the genomic diversity, connections can be made between these three measures, thus shedding light on the source of aging phenotypes in a natural population.

4.6 Conclusion

Using natural population of garter snakes that are divergent in their physiology, life history, and lifespan, we have documented divergence in regulation and nucleotide sequence of candidate gene networks underpinning three hallmarks of aging: metabolic processes, macromolecule damage and repair, and stress adaptation. In doing so, we have demonstrated these candidate molecular networks regulating aging translate from lab models to natural populations. In addition, the interaction between ecotypes in response to heat indicate many more pathways are

diverging in these garter snakes than the ones highlighted in this study, suggesting natural populations and non-model organisms likely have mechanisms for diversification in aging processes beyond those currently identified in lab models.

4.7 Reproducibility

Raw sequencing reads are available on GenBank (SRA052923, SRA062606) and upon request. Additional sequence files (BAM, FASTA, and VCF) are available upon request. Code is available on github:

https://github.com/rklabacka/ThamnophisElegans_FunctionalGenomics2021).

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Figures

Figure 4.1 Map with sample geographic and dataset distribution

- Figure 4.2 Differentially Expressed Genes from Meta Analysis
- Figure 4.3 Networks of Enriched Pathways
- Figure 4.4 Sequence divergence for "within" vs "between" ecotype population comparisons
- Figure 4.5 Targeted Genes and Divergent Loci

Figure 4.6 Summary of differential gene expression and sequence variation results





Map of Eagle Lake and surrounding topography (CA, USA) with garter snake population localities. Ecotype populations are shown in red (FA) and blue (SA). Sample distribution within datasets of populations are shown within the table.



Figure 4.2: Differentially Expressed Genes from Meta Analysis

Upset plot showing the number of differentially expressed genes from the meta analysis of RNA-seq data. The genes found to be differentially expressed in the meta analysis were divided amongst categories for up/down regulation in each of the ecotypes (FA/SA). The horizontal bar chart (labeled "DEG") shows the number of differentially expressed genes contained within each of the sets. The vertical bar chart (labeled "number of genes in intersection") shows the number of genes from the DEG sets that are unique to each of the intersections between sets.



Figure 4.3: Networks of Enriched Pathways

Results from Gene Set Enrichment Analysis where enriched pathways from each model were imported into Cytoscape for visualization as a network of pathways. Each node is a KEGG pathway that was enriched (FDR ;0.1) for differentially expressed genes in the following statistical models: Heat relative to Control, Ecotype (SA relative to FA), Heat x Ecotype interaction (SA relative to FA), Heat for FA ecotype, Heat for SA ecotype. Here, the Cytoscape plot was simplified- node sizes, edge lengths, and edge widths do not convey information. For the full Cytoscape plot, along with each pathway name, see Figure S5. Colors correspond to focal gene networks/pathways that we found to be enriched (non-focal gene networks/pathways are grey).



Figure 4.4: Average Fst and dxy for "within" vs "between" ecotype population comparisons The number and categorical distribution of statistically significant findings from analyses of the within-ecotype vs between-ecotype Fst/Dxy comparisons for both exon regions and missense sites are shown,. Left column: Each point corresponds to the Fst/dxy value calculated from the exonic regions of a focal gene. The red dotted line marks the genome wide Fst value between ecotypes (0.02). Right column: Each point corresponds to the Fst/dxy value calculated from a nonsynonymous SNP from a focal gene. For each plot, the Within" category refers to pairwise comparisons for populations of the same ecotype (i.e., within-ecotype comparisons) whereas the "Between" category refers to pairwise comparisons for populations of differing ecotype (i.e., between-ecotype comparisons). The lines between points connect the same genes for between and within comparisons (i.e., the effect size). Black points/lines are the genes/sites with statistically significant differences in Fst or dxy between comparison type ("within" or "between"). Transparent points with dotted lines are genes/sites from targeted genes with no statistically significant differences.



Figure 4.5: Targeted Genes and Significant Loci

A: Number of genes we targeted, shown within their categories. The color categories (orange, blue, green) correspond to three pillars of aging (stress adaptation, macromolecule damage and repair, and metabolic function). B: Upset plot for genes of interest based on statistical significance in Fst and/or dxy from exon regions or nonsynonymous sites. Sets: ER/EA sets contain the focal genes whose exon regions have significantly different relative (fst; ER) or absolute (dxy; EA) divergence values for between- vs within-ecotype population comparisons. NR/NA sets contain the nonsynonymous SNPs from the focal genes with significantly different relative (fst; NR) or absolute (dxy; NA) divergence values for between- vs within-ecotype population comparisons. NR/NA sets contain the nonsynonymous SNPs from the focal genes with significantly different relative (fst; NR) or absolute (dxy; NA) divergence values for between- vs within-ecotype population comparisons. The different intersections of genes within these categories are shown within the sets by dots and lines, with the number of genes pertaining to each intersection displayed in the top barchart. The side barchart shows the number of genes within each set. C: Differences in allele frequency (ΔAF) of nonsynonymous SNPs between ecotypes. Across the great majority of significant nonsynonymous SNPs within the focal genes, the alternate allele frequency was similar for both the FA and SA ecotypes. Distribution of ΔAF between FA and SA ecotypes for all nonsynonymous SNPs from focal genes is shown in grey. Significant nonsynonymous SNPs with Fst and/or dxy values are listed with a line directed to their respective ΔAF; most of these are contained within the right tail of the distribution. The colors of the genes correspond to the hallmarks of aging to which each gene corresponds.





Summary of ecotype divergence at the gene network level in the context of primary cellular localities involved. Focal pathways of interest are colored similar to Figure 4.5 within their respective hallmarks are shown. Genes on leading edge of enriched pathways (either up- or down-regulated in Ecotype treatment or Heat x Ecotype interaction- see Fig. 2) are highlighted in yellow. The unmarked yellow circles are genes on the leading edge that we didn't focus on, but show the extent of the enrichment within the pathway. Genes with sequence divergence significantly different in exon regions between ecotypes are outlined in red. Nonsynonymous SNPs with divergence significantly different between ecotypes are marked with red asterisks.

Ch 4: Tables

Table 4.1: Three	Cellular Hallmarks	of Aging and	Differences	Between FA	and SA Snakes

Cellular Hallmark	Characteristic	FA	SA	References
Metabolism	Mass-independent VO ₂	Higher	Lower	Bronikowski & Vleck, 2010 Gangloff et al. 2015, 2016
	Basal & Maximal Cellular VO ₂	Increases with age	Decreases with age	Gangloff et al. 2020
	Mitochondrial transcription	Higher	Lower	Schwartz et al. 2015
	Mitochondrial efficiency (P:O)	Lower	Higher	Robert & Bronikowski 2010
	Liver expression of IGF hormones	Higher IGF1R & IGF2R	Lower IGF1R & IGF2R	Reding et al. 2016
	Blood circulating IGF1	Higher IGF1 at cool temp Constant over adult age	Lower IGF1 at cool temp Decreases with adult age	Reding et al. 2016 Addis et al. 2017 Sparkman et al. 2009
	Blood circulating IGF2	Higher IGF2 at warm temp	Lower IGF2 at warm temp	Reding et al. 2016
Macromolecular Damage	Mitochondrial superoxide	Higher under heat stress	Lower under heat stress	Schwartz et al. 2015 Schwartz & Bronikowski 2013
	Hydrogen peroxide production	Higher	Lower	Robert et al. 2010
	DNA damage and repair	Lower repair capacity	Higher repair capacity	Robert & Bronikowski 2010 Bronikowski 2008
Adaptation to Stress	Natural antibodies	Higher	Lower	Sparkman & Palacios 2009
	Complement-mediated lysis	Higher	Lower	Sparkman & Palacios 2009
	Bactericidal competence	Higher or same	Lower or same	Palacios et al. 2013
	T-lymphocyte proliferation	Higher	Lower	Palacios et al. 2013
	B-lymphocyte proliferation	Higher	Lower	Palacios et al. 2013

Supplementary Figures

Figure 4.S1 Bioinformatics Pipeline - Gene Expression

- Figure 4.S2 Bioinformatics Pipeline Sequence Variation
- Figure 4.S3 Cytoscape networks of enriched pathways
- Figure 4.S4 Insulin Signaling Gene Expression enplot
- Figure 4.S5 Oxidative Phosphorylation FA Heat Treatment Gene Expression enplot
- Figure 4.S6 Oxidative Phosphorylation SA Heat Treatment Gene Expression enplot
- Figure 4.S7 Nonsynonymous SNP Functional Impact Scores
- Figure 4.S7 SNP frequency distributions
- Figure 4.S8 Comparison of Dxy between ecotypes for each category
- Figure 4.S9 Electron Transport Chain Significant Subunits and Nonsynonymous SNPs



Figure 4.S1: Bioinformatics Pipeline - Gene Expression

The bioinformatics pipeline used to process genomic data to examine gene expression for this study.



Figure 4.S2: Bioinformatics Pipeline - Sequence Variation

The bioinformatics pipeline used to process genomic data to examine sequence variation for this study.





Upset plots summarizing the results from the differential gene expression analysis of four statistical models using the 2008 Heat Stress Dataset (HS2008), the 2012 Heat Stress Dataset (HS2012), or the meta-analysis across both datasets. Each panel displays the number of differentially expressed genes for each dataset (horizontal bars) and their overlap among datasets (vertical bars). A. Testing for effect of treatment (Heat vs Control Treatments). B. Testing for effect of Ecotype (Slow-living vs Fast-living Ecotypes). C. Testing for the effect of Treatment within the Fast-living

Ecotype only. D. Testing for the effect of Treatment within the Slow-living Ecotype only. Note the Y-axis for the vertical bar graph, and the X-axis for the horizontal bar plot are not standardized across the panels.



Figure 4.S4: Cytoscape networks of enriched pathways

Results from Gene Set Enrichment Analysis where enriched pathways from each statistical model were imported into Cytoscape for visualization as a network of pathways for each model. Within each network, each node is a KEGG pathway that was enriched (FDR < 0.1) for high ranking (upregulated pathways, Red) or low ranking genes (downregulated pathways, blue). The size of node is relative to the number of genes in that pathway. The width of the edges between KEGG pathways represented the number of genes shared between the pathways with overlap set to 0.3, and the length of the edges represent the connectedness of the node to the network. The background shapes highlight the same focal pathways affected by the different models: yellow

triangle=Insulin Signaling; green square = Oxidative Phosphorylation; lavender diamond= DNA damage/repair. A. Right, the network of KEGG pathways enriched in response to Heat Treatment relative to Control Treatment; Left, pathways enriched between ecotypes, Slow-living relative relative to Fast-living. B. Network of pathways enriched under the interaction between Heat Treatment and Ecotype. Tables on sides provide examples of the top ten leading edge genes for two enriched pathways: Insulin signaling or Oxidative Phosphorylation. The line graphs provide examples of the interaction for a single gene, the top ranking gene, in each of those pathways. C. Ecotypes are separated to further illustrate their unique responses to heat stress. Right, the network of KEGG pathways enriched in response to Heat Treatment relative to Control Treatment in the Fast-living Ecotype. Here the FDR = 0.17 to illustrate the pattern for Oxidative Phosphorylation. All pathway names with FDR 0.10 to 0.17 are in gray. Left, the network of KEGG pathways enriched in response to Heat Treatment relative to Control Treatment in the Fast-living Ecotype.



Figure 4.S5: Insulin Signaling Gene Expression enplot

Plot of enrichment score (ES) for IIS genes in SA ecotype in response to heat. ES indicates degree to which a gene is overrepresented at the top or bottom of a ranked list. The top plot shows the ES calculated along the gene set, with the leading edge subset of genes occurring prior to the maximum ES (the ES for the gene set). The gene position for each of the genes in the set among all ranked genes from the study is shown in the middle plot. The bottom plot shows the ranking metric, which measures the signal-to-noise ratio for each gene.



Figure 4.S6: Oxidative Phosphorylation FA Heat Treatment Gene Expression enplot

Plot of enrichment score (ES) for OXPHOS genes in FA ecotype in response to heat. ES indicates degree to which a gene is overrepresented at the top or bottom of a ranked list. The top plot shows the ES calculated along the gene set, with the leading edge subset of genes occurring prior to the maximum ES (the ES for the gene set). The gene position for each of the genes in the set among all ranked genes from the study is shown in the middle plot. The bottom plot shows the ranking metric, which measures the signal-to-noise ratio for each gene.



Figure 4.S7: Oxidative Phosphorylation SA Heat Treatment Gene Expression enplot

Plot of enrichment score (ES) for OXPHOS genes in SA ecotype in response to heat. ES indicates degree to which a gene is overrepresented at the top or bottom of a ranked list. The top plot shows the ES calculated along the gene set, with the leading edge subset of genes occurring prior to the maximum ES (the ES for the gene set). The gene position for each of the genes in the set among all ranked genes from the study is shown in the middle plot. The bottom plot shows the ranking metric, which measures the signal-to-noise ratio for each gene.



Figure 4.S8: Nonsynonymous SNP Functional Impact Scores

SIFT4g scores for each significant nonsynonymous SNP. SIFT scores ≤ 0.05 are predicted to be "deleterious".

Scores for each site are available in the supplemental file "top_fst_dxy_missense_complete.csv".





Frequency distribution for a few perspectives of the genomic dataset. Top left: Number of SNPs within the coding sequence (CDS) normalized by the length of the CDS for each focal gene. Top right: Tajima's D for exon regions of each focal gene. Center: Calculated Fst (left) and dxy (right) from exon regions of each focal gene. Bottom: Calculated pi for each ecotype (FA, SA) from exon regions of each focal gene.



Figure 4.S10: Comparison of Dxy between ecotypes for each category

Statistically significant differences between ecotypes for Dxy shown here; we interpret these differences as not biologically significant. The only evident non-overlapping segment of distribution is in the slightly noticeable difference in the Heat and General Stress categories.



Figure 4.S11: Electron Transport Chain Significant Subunits and Nonsynonymous SNPs
Complexes of the electron transport chain with subunits/residues with significant fst/dxy values highlighted (subunits: yellow; residues: red). Complex I (subunits with significant divergence: NDUFA13, NDUFB6, NDUFS3, NDUFV3, and NDUFV1), Complex II (subunits with significant divergence: SDHD), Complex IV (subunits with significant divergence: ATP5A1, ATP5B, and ATP5D)

Chapter 4: Supplementary Tables

 Table 4.S1
 Targeted
 Genes

- Table 4.S2 Significant Gene Regions
- Table 4.S3 Significant Nonsynonymous SNPs

Genes
Targeted
for
Statistics
4.S1:
Table

TajD	-0.94	-0.96	0.08	1.11	3.65	0.74	1.39	NA	0.48	2.05	0.12	0.34	-0.90	NA	1.26	1.01	4.41	0.53	3.17	-1.03	1.26	1.44	1.26	0.28	0.55	0.70	1.59	0.87	0.91	1.15	-0.08	1.27	-0.27	0.23	0.82	0.27	0.89
d _{XY} lm	1.1E-05	2.1E-05	1.2E-04	8.7E-05	1.1E-04	1.0E-04	1.8E-05	NA	1.6E-04	5.6E-05	7.6E-05	3.6E-05	1.2E-05	NA	2.3E-04	8.0E-05	3.1E-04	1.1E-04	4.2E-04	4.1E-05	2.3E-04	2.5E-04	2.2E-04	4.9E-05	9.1E-05	7.7E-05	2.7E-04	1.4E-04	2.9E-04	4.5E-05	4.7E-05	4.1E-04	5.2E-05	1.0E-04	4.1E-05	4.7E-05	2.4E-04
F _{ST} LM	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.02	0.05	0.00	0.02	NA	0.00	20:0	0.00	0.00	0.01	NA	0.04	0.03	0.01	0.06	0.00	0.00	0.01	0.01	0.00	0.00	0.03	0.02	0.01	0.01	0.00	0.01	0.02	0.04	0.01	0.02	0.01	0.00	0.02
PiL	1.1E-05	2.1E-05	1.2E-04	8.7E-05	1.1E-04	1.0E-04	1.8E-05	NA	1.6E-04	5.6E-05	7.6E-05	3.6E-05	1.2E-05	NA	2.3E-04	8.0E-05	3.1E-04	1.1E-04	4.2E-04	4.1E-05	2.3E-04	2.5E-04	2.2E-04	4.9E-05	9.1E-05	7.7E-05	2.7E-04	1.4E-04	2.9E-04	4.5E-05	4.7E-05	4.1E-04	5.2E-05	1.0E-04	4.1E-05	4.7E-05	2.4E-04
PiM	1.1E-05	2.1E-05	1.2E-04	8.7E-05	1.1E-04	1.0E-04	1.8E-05	NA	1.6E-04	5.6E-05	7.6E-05	3.6E-05	1.2E-05	NA	2.3E-04	8.0E-05	3.1E-04	1.1E-04	4.2E-04	4.1E-05	2.3E-04	2.5E-04	2.2E-04	4.9E-05	9.1E-05	7.7E-05	2.7E-04	1.4E-04	2.9E-04	4.5E-05	4.7E-05	4.1E-04	5.2E-05	1.0E-04	4.1E-05	4.7E-05	2.4E-04
MPCL	0.002	0.001	0.002	0.000	0.000	0.005	0.005	0.000	0.002	0.002	0.002	0.004	0.001	0.000	0.004	0.000	200.0	0.003	0.003	0.004	0.000	0.003	0.002	0.002	0.000	0.000	0.008	0.003	0.003	0.001	0.000	0.001	0.000	0.000	0.002	0.001	0.000
SPCL	0.002	0.003	0.004	0.002	0.002	0.015	0.008	0.000	0.007	0.006	0.009	0.008	0.002	0.000	0.006	0.004	0.016	0.005	0.021	0.004	0.003	0.014	0.011	0.006	0.000	0.000	0.020	0.012	0.003	0.003	0.003	0.001	0.000	0.001	0.008	0.003	0.000
Syn SNPs	0	5	2	2	5	12	8	0	4	ю	13	4	1	0	2	4	ъ	2	10	0	2	7	9	3	0	0	8	9	0	3	2	0	0	1	11	2	0
Mis SNPs	2	5	2	0	0	ъ	14	0	2	2	4	ъ	5	0	3	0	4	2	5	3	0	2	1	2	0	1	5	2	2	2	0	1	0	0	ю	1	0
CDS SNPs	2	4	4	2	2	17	22	0	9	7	17	6	9	0	ß	4	6	4	12	3	2	6	7	5	0	1	13	8	2	5	2	1	0	1	14	3	0
CDS Len	1186	1420	266	1011	1169	1101	2656	3854	831	1106	1804	1114	3662	1453	823	1059	580	750	578	750	636	660	629	838	944	2419	663	687	655	1568	768	774	918	1062	1844	1074	1086
Exons SNPs	4	7	4	2	ъ	19	25	0	9	10	24	25	10	0	7	ю	22	8	17	ю	2	18	12	7	1	3	19	21	3	10	3	1	2	2	18	7	2
Exons Len	5379	3377	1712	3351	4274	2566	13390	3956	1282	5581	2096	4662	7789	4819	1231	3305	1344	2120	861	1266	1263	1022	1221	4359	2733	2810	980	1576	1226	5417	3166	892	2294	1775	4932	3802	1565
Genes SNPs	19	43	7	24	13	83	83	0	6	29	69	41	23	14	21	6	31	22	68	ъ	7	64	36	13	1	15	58	64	9	31	5	3	8	8	60	23	×
Gene Len	2900	6597	9818	10768	414447	50825	43356	44299	8233	14483	27446	12159	58062	47754	9372	7823	3107	10564	19949	8510	7836	10679	12388	17440	2733	45369	11434	16180	9213	45580	14110	6286	28828	14115	96632	44542	30839
End	45109315	270367	35562127	118441466	111966535	138019047	53696736	77561430	9551339	149011978	47617405	13466706	26349280	23679141	9246390	46597877	100197177	91679582	175727532	33759381	122559083	4479935	69290696	17349013	29154108	116318685	4450843	4583606	45383509	100816651	21325877	18468697	17381010	31882815	5944343	64460425	47145436
Start	45101414	263769	35552308	118430697	111552087	137968221	53653379	77517130	9543105	148997494	47589958	13454546	26291217	23631386	9237017	46590053	100194069	91669017	175707582	33750870	122551246	4469255	69278307	17331572	29151374	116273315	4439408	4567425	45374295	100771070	21311766	18462410	17352181	31868699	5847710	64415882	47114596
Scaffold	NC_045543.1	NC_045554.1	NC_045542.1	NC_045541.1	NC_045541.1	NC_045544.1	NC_045548.1	NC-045546.1	NC_045558.1	NC_045541.1	NC_045552.1	NC_045555.1	NC_045549.1	NC_045541.1	NC_045557.1	NC_045548.1	NC_045542.1	NC_045542.1	NC_045541.1	NC_045545.1	NC_045543.1	NC_045544.1	NC_045541.1	NC_045554.1	NC_045545.1	NC_045541.1	NC_045544.1	NC_045544.1	NC_045545.1	NC_045541.1	NC_045550.1	NC_045553.1	NC_045554.1	NC_045558.1	NC_045558.1	NC_045547.1	NC-045545.1
Sub-category	DR	SO	80	os	SO	8	8	SO	SO	80	80	8	80	SO	SO	SO	os	SO	SO	SO	SO	os	SO	8	SO	80	SO	8									
Category	MDR	MDR	MDR	MDR	MDR	MDR	MDR	MDR	MDR	MDR	MDR	MDR																									
Human Symbol	DNAJA1	DNAJA3	DNAJC22	RAD51	RAD51B	RAD51C	RAD54B	TERT	XRCC2	XRCC3	AIFMI	AIFM2	ALPK1	ATF2	CCS	GDAP1	GPX1	GPX3	GPX4	GPX7	GPX8	GSTA1	GSTP1	HAGHL	JUN	PLA2G4E	GSTA4	GSTA4	GSTM1	CAT	GST01	GSTT1	HAGH	PON2	MAP3K3	MAPK11	MAPK13
Gene ID	DNAJA1	DNAJA3	DNAJC22	RAD51	RAD51B	RAD51C	RAD54B	TERT	XRCC2	XRCC3	AIFM1	AIFM2	ALPK1	ATF2	CCS	GDAP1	GPX1	GPX3	GPX4	GPX7	GPX8	GSTA1	GSTP1	HAGHL	JUN	LOC116505938	LOC116507099	LOC116507918	LOC116508979	LOC116514261	LOC116514334	LOC116516566	LOC116517285	LOC116520753	LOC116522295	MAPK11	MAPK13

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: Statistics	
Table 4.S1	

TajD	-0.45	NA	1.30	-0.19	0.20	0.62	-0.38	1.99	2.71	NA	-0.85	0.78	NA	3.65	-1.15	2.16	-0.69	2.54	0.89	NA	2.20	NA	NA	NA	NA	2.53	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA						
D_{XY} LM	1.6E-05	NA	2.8E-05	2.2E-05	1.1E-05	1.1E-05	4.0E-05	5.5E-05	1.1E-04	NA	2.5E-05	1.7E-04	NA	3.1E-04	1.4E-04	1.5E-05	3.2E-05	1.5E-04	1.1E-04	NA	1.4E-04	NA	NA	NA	NA	1.6E-04	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA						
F _{ST} LM	0.01	NA	0.01	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.04	0.01	0.01	NA	0.01	0.01	NA	0.02	0.01	0.02	-0.02	0.00	20:0	NA	0.04	NA	NA	NA	NA	0.01	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA						
PiL	1.6E-05	NA	2.8E-05	2.2E-05	1.1E-05	1.1E-05	4.0E-05	5.5E-05	1.1E-04	NA	2.5E-05	1.7E-04	NA	3.1E-04	1.4E-04	1.5E-05	3.2E-05	1.5E-04	1.1E-04	NA	1.4E-04	NA	NA	NA	NA	1.6E-04	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA						
PiM	1.6E-05	NA	2.8E-05	2.2E-05	1.1E-05	1.1E-05	4.0E-05	5.5E-05	1.1E-04	NA	2.5E-05	1.7E-04	NA	3.1E-04	1.4E-04	1.5E-05	3.2E-05	1.5E-04	1.1E-04	NA	1.4E-04	NA	NA	NA	NA	1.6E-04	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA						
MPCL	0.001	0.000	0.001	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.004	0.002	0.003	0.000	0.002	0.001	0.000	0.000	0.002	0.002	0.000	0.005	0.002	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.002	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
SPCL	0.009	0.000	0.013	0.000	0.000	0.003	0.010	0.012	0.013	0.000	0.002	0.006	0.000	0.013	0.011	0.014	0.000	0.024	0.004	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.014	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
Syn SNPs	11	0	17	0	0	4	13	13	22	0	0	4	0	8	9	57	0	27	ю	0	0	0	0	0	0	17	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Mis SNPs	1	0	2	0	0	0	8	2	9	0	1	-	0	0	1	4	0	8	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
CDS SNPs	12	0	19	0	0	4	21	15	28	0	1	ъ	0	8	7	64	0	35	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	20	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
CDS Len	1273	1260	1408	523	1388	1385	2138	1288	2205	595	592	863	857	633	661	4420	565	1481	1733	487	673	896	1200	905	573	1415	1540	1502	611	350	476	1272	567	612	1263	1376	1995
Exons SNPs	14	0	21	1	1	æ	23	21	37	0	2	16	0	14	14	88	1	4	7	0	4	0	0	0	0	21	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Exons Len	7177	8623	7118	5303	16764	19026	3332	4990	2797	4212	1753	1260	066	1235	1217	17845	1073	1998	2188	697	2780	10913	1628	2392	10419	1834	4885	18044	4274	2282	1388	2357	2445	1745	4352	7582	2956
Genes SNPs	67	13	59	2	2	36	85	29	174	2	6	61	3	45	43	230	ъ	129	29	4	15	0	0	0	0	76	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Gene Len	22221	39649	13823	23489	36073	51629	35408	6002	78325	8163	13842	13462	8290	11880	17854	6/1/6/	11120	16829	12346	8101	10255	14840	3322	10377	9681	13934	6922	42063	9506	46682	3942	38278	10233	19641	14320	15522	24768
End	71240583	89089094	1097507	66380027	38309476	170690469	118669946	69071587	3684985	41318938	67344583	10996385	17716753	17244	12015594	798190	14742612	10397732	25931512	50813527	58644474	48829477	191546	28564304	47905926	37433319	38024	109721802	6319756	294605	25115039	68016852	46471643	116918708	NA	48042974	6355765
Start	71218361	89049444	1083683	66356537	38273402	170638839	118634537	69065584	3606659	41310774	67330740	10982922	17708462	5363	11997739	718410	14731491	10380902	25919165	50805425	58634218	48814636	188223	28553926	47896244	37419384	31101	109679738	6310249	247922	25111096	67978573	46461409	116899066	NA	48027451	6330996
Scaffold	NC_045551.1	NC_045542.1	NC_045553.1	NC_045541.1	NC_045545.1	NC_045541.1	NC_045544.1	NC_045548.1	NC_045551.1	NC_045545.1	NC_045542.1	NC_045550.1	NC_045551.1	NW_022473598.1	NC_045551.1	NC_045543.1	NC_045553.1	NC_045547.1	NC_045550.1	NC_045546.1	NC_045544.1	NC_045549.1	NC_045555.1	NC_045555.1	NC_045545.1	NC_045553.1	NC_045553.1	NC_045541.1	NC_045543.1	NC_045542.1	NC_045545.1	NC_045546.1	NC_045544.1	NC_045558.1	NA	NC_045547.1	NC_045557.1
Sub-category	8	8	08	08	os	8	08	08	08	80	80	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	08	8	p53	p53	p53	p53	p53											
Category	MDR	MDR	MDR	MDR	MDR	MDR	MDR	MDR	MDR	MDR	MDR	MDR	MDR	MDR	MDR	MDR	MDR	MDR	MDR	MDR	MDR	MDR	MDR	MDR	MDR	MDR	MDR	MDR	MDR	MDR	MDR	MDR	MDR	MDR	MDR	MDR	MDR
Human Symbol	MAPK8	MAPK9	MAPKAPK5	MAX	MKNK1	MKNK2	OfIM	MYC	PLA2G4A	PRDX1	PRDX2	PRDX3	PRDX4	PRDX5	PRDX6	PXDN	PXMP2	PYROXD1	PYROXD2	SOD1	SOD2	CASP3	CASP9	CDK1	CDKN1A	CHEK1	CHEK2	DDB2	E2F6	GABARAPL1	GADD45A	HDAC3	PERP	BAX	TP 53	MDM2	MTA2
Gene ID	MAPK8	MAPK9	MAPKAPK5	MAX	MKNK1	MKNK2	MPO	МҮС	PLA2G4A	PRDX1	PRDX2	PRDX3	PRDX4	PRDX5	PRDX6	PXDN	PXMP2	PYROXD1	PYROXD2	SOD1	SOD2	CASP3	CASP9	CDK1	CDKN1A	CHEK1	CHEK2	DDB2	E2F6	GABARAPL1	GADD45A	HDAC3	LOC116507565	LOC116523000	LOC116523426	MDM2	MTA2

TajD	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	-0.17	-1.08	1.02	0.61	1.65	2.81	NA	0.90	NA	0.45	1.01	0.58	0.06	-0.26	3.15	1.16	-0.30	0.54	0.50	0.00	0.87	2.11	0.54	-0.67	3.14	-0.21	0.88	-0.20	1.71	1.46	2.45	0.32
D _{XY} LM	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	1.3E-04	3.2E-05	1.2E-05	3.0E-05	9.6E-05	4.4E-04	NA	1.1E-04	NA	3.1E-05	3.5E-05	6.1E-05	2.5E-05	7.9E-05	7.0E-05	1.1E-04	1.0E-04	2.2E-04	4.0E-05	3.5E-05	8.2E-05	1.4E-04	3.8E-05	3.4E-05	2.1E-04	3.4E-05	1.3E-05	3.4E-06	1.2E-05	4.9E-05	5.7E-05	2.2E-05
F _{ST} LM	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	0.04	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.04	0.00	NA	0.02	NA	0.00	0.00	0.01	0.02	0.01	0.02	0.02	0.01	0.00	0.02	0.00	0.00	0.06	0.01	0.01	0.00	0.04	0.00	0.00	0.03	0.00	0.10	0.02
PiL	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	1.3E-04	3.2E-05	1.2E-05	3.0E-05	9.6E-05	4.4E-04	NA	1.1E-04	NA	3.1E-05	3.5E-05	6.1E-05	2.5E-05	7.9E-05	7.0E-05	1.1E-04	1.0E-04	2.2E-04	4.0E-05	3.5E-05	8.2E-05	1.4E-04	3.8E-05	3.4E-05	2.1E-04	3.4E-05	1.3E-05	3.4E-06	1.2E-05	4.9E-05	5.7E-05	2.2E-05
PiM	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	1.3E-04	3.2E-05	1.2E-05	3.0E-05	9.6E-05	4.4E-04	NA	1.1E-04	NA	3.1E-05	3.5E-05	6.1E-05	2.5E-05	7.9E-05	7.0E-05	1.1E-04	1.0E-04	2.2E-04	4.0E-05	3.5E-05	8.2E-05	1.4E-04	3.8E-05	3.4E-05	2.1E-04	3.4E-05	1.3E-05	3.4E-06	1.2E-05	4.9E-05	5.7E-05	2.2E-05
MPCL	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.002	0.000	0.001	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.010	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.001	0.004	0.011	0.006	0.004	0.003	0.009	0.000	0.002	0.000	0.003	0.001	0.002	0.003	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.000	0.000
SPCL	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.002	0.004	0.001	0.002	0.001	0.002	0.000	0.015	0.000	0.002	0.000	0.002	0.016	0.020	0.015	0.010	0.009	0.023	0.003	0.002	0.002	0.007	0.002	0.005	0.021	0.002	0.007	0.001	0.002	0.004	0.000	0.001
Syn SNPs	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0		-	2	0	6	0	ю	0	-	17	14	14	6	9	6	5	0	2	ю	-	4	23	2	6	0	2	9	0	
Mis SNPs	0	0	0	0	0		0		0	0	0	0	15	0	0	0		9	16	6	9	3	9	1	3	0	ю		2	4		2			2	0	0
CDS SNPs	0	0	0	0	0	-	2	-		-	2	0	24	0	ю	0	2	23	30	23	15	6	15	9	3	2	×	5	9	22	ю	п		е	8	0	-
CDS Len	1713	1062	1080	1302	3886	476	512	942	549	1986	1001	3531	1572	806	1556	1560	606	1476	1469	1491	1545	166	662	2069	1931	1033	1100	1330	1258	1300	1339	1672	1318	1482	1909	1963	1648
Exons SNPs	0	0	0	0	0	6	4	3	4		2	0	26	0	6	ю	18	23	39	42	24	13	17	9	5	4	10	7	7	22	ю	14		4	18	5	9
Exons Len	3093	4019	36314	3787	18135	1316	1370	14382	2007	4548	1124	3531	1987	806	6380	7404	3030	6558	2105	4557	2211	1232	852	4735	4165	3546	2238	2699	2495	1666	3996	15535	34492	26595	5133	6216	9547
Genes SNPs	0	0	0	0	0	11	10	2	6	11	42	0	144	0	31	7	73	70	178	103	53	21	68	28	25	9	21	2	6	26	ъ	29	5	13	21	7	12
Gene Len	37361	15658	20785	26349	73022	1691	2375	168930	67741	50120	16789	46368	33129	13695	40011	25424	13688	5611	15838	11953	10840	6124	19172	61211	21182	5786	3340	6355	23518	2528	16654	16729	44331	177492	46879	127666	13250
End	137248552	56828645	692620	42135	44878660	186466768	88421971	111585387	49661938	14256726	51989892	26029188	894981	71975426	18420517	38127812	89333769	425513	418388	1815654	5283825	42151782	99185664	25309079	54111232	42959286	131480876	129720820	1906575	53368	55158438	77445081	101750370	139301006	16501192	31059005	55432196
Start	137211190	56812986	671834	15785	44805637	186465076	88419595	111416456	49594196	14206605	51973102	25982819	861851	71961730	18380505	38102387	89320080	419901	402549	1803700	5272984	42145657	99166491	25247867	54090049	42953499	131477535	129714464	1883056	50839	55141783	77428351	101706038	139123513	16454312	30931338	55418945
Scaffold	NC_045544.1	NC_045548.1	NC_045556.1	NW_022473647.1	NC_045543.1	NC_045541.1	NC_045543.1	NC-045544.1	NC_045547.1	NC_045553.1	NC_045548.1	NC_045545.1	NC_045542.1	NC-045541.1	NC_045544.1	NC_045545.1	NC_045541.1	NC_045552.1	NC_045552.1	NC_045554.1	NC_045556.1	NC_045543.1	NC_045545.1	NC_045547.1	NC_045545.1	NC_045544.1	NC_045541.1	NC_045541.1	NC_045552.1	NW_022473632.1	NC_045542.1	NC_045549.1	NC_045544.1	NC_045541.1	NC_045543.1	NC_045544.1	NC_045552.1
Sub-category	p53	p53	p53	p53	p53					Μ	М	Μ	M	Μ	Σ	M	Μ	Μ	M	М	М	Μ	М	М	M	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS
Category	MDR	MDR	MDR	MDR	MDR	MDR	MDR	MDR	MDR	MF	MF	MF	MF	MF	MF	MF	MF	MF	MF	MF	MF	MF	MF	MF	MF	MF	MF	MF	MF	MF	MF	MF	MF	MF	MF	MF	MF
Human Symbol	PPM1D	RRM2B	TPM1	WIP12	WRN	GADD45B	GADD45G	MSRA	MSRB3	AACS	DECR1	LEPR	CYP4F22	FADS1	CYB5R4	CYP4B1	CYB5R2	CYP2G1	CYP2A13	CYP2W1	CYP1A1	GAPDH	LBP	NUAKI	NUAK2	CCN2	FOS	FOXA1	FOXA3	FOXF1	FOXJ1	FOXJ2	FOXN2	FOXN3	FOX01	FOXO3	FOXO4
Gene ID	PPMID	RRM2B	TPM1	WIP12	WRN	GADD45B	GADD45G	MSRA	MSRB3	AACS	DECR1	LEPR	LOC116502538	LOC116505343	LOC116507994	LOC116509327	LOC116513013	LOC116515748	LOC116515749	LOC116517450	LOC116519097	GAPDH	LOC116509241	NUAKI	NUAK2	CCN2	FOS	FOXA1	FOXA3	FOXF1	FOXJ1	FOXJ2	FOXN2	FOXN3	FOXOI	FOX03	FOX04

TajD	06.0-	-0.13	2.24	-0.37	1.14	-0.18	2.04	-0.40	0.08	0.39	1.58	-0.03	0.05	1.33	1.13	0.35	0.03	-0.67	1.06	0.52	1.34	-0.46	0.97	0.62	0.05	3.06	-0.60	3.17	0.10	-0.46	1.86	0.12	2.32	-0.42	-0.27	-0.76	0.38
d _{XY} LM	1.3E-06	2.3E-05	6.7E-06	2.6E-05	3.1E-05	5.7E-05	3.4E-05	1.8E-05	1.4E-05	7.7E-06	5.2E-05	5.6E-05	3.4E-05	3.1E-05	1.3E-04	2.9E-05	1.1E-05	3.9E-05	1.8E-05	1.7E-05	7.0E-05	3.2E-05	3.4E-05	3.8E-05	6.2E-05	9.6E-06	2.2E-05	1.9E-05	NA	3.1E-05	2.3E-05	1.1E-05	1.7E-04	6.1E-06	3.3E-05	2.2E-05	1.1E-04
F _{ST} LM	0.00	0.02	0.01	0.07	0.00	0.02	0.00	0.03	0.00	0.00	0.02	0.04	0.01	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.03	0.02	0.03	0.01	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.01	0.01	0.00	0.01	0.00	NA	0.00	0.00	0.02	0.01	0.05	0.00	0.00	0.01
PiL	1.3E-06	2.3E-05	6.7E-06	2.6E-05	3.1E-05	5.7E-05	3.4E-05	1.8E-05	1.4E-05	7.7E-06	5.2E-05	5.6E-05	3.4E-05	3.1E-05	1.3E-04	2.9E-05	1.1E-05	3.9E-05	1.8E-05	1.7E-05	7.0E-05	3.2E-05	3.4E-05	3.8E-05	6.2E-05	9.6E-06	2.2E-05	1.9E-05	NA	3.1E-05	2.3E-05	1.1E-05	1.7E-04	6.1E-06	3.3E-05	2.2E-05	1.1E-04
PiM	1.3E-06	2.3E-05	6.7E-06	2.6E-05	3.1E-05	5.7E-05	3.4E-05	1.8E-05	1.4E-05	7.7E-06	5.2E-05	5.6E-05	3.4E-05	3.1E-05	1.3E-04	2.9E-05	1.1E-05	3.9E-05	1.8E-05	1.7E-05	7.0E-05	3.2E-05	3.4E-05	3.8E-05	6.2E-05	9.6E-06	2.2E-05	1.9E-05	NA	3.1E-05	2.3E-05	1.1E-05	1.7E-04	6.1E-06	3.3E-05	2.2E-05	1.1E-04
MPCL	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.001	0.002	0.000	0.000	0.001	0.001	0.000	0.000	0.001	0.001	0.002	0.001	0.000	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.000	0.001	0.001	0.000	100.0	0.000	0.004	0.002	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.003	0.001	0.001	0.002	0.005
SPCL	0.000	0.002	0.000	0.001	0.003	0.004	0.016	0.002	0.003	0.000	0.001	0.001	0.002	0.002	0.001	0.005	0.002	0.001	0.003	0.001	0.009	0.002	0.003	0.006	0.001	0.010	0.003	0.007	0.008	0.002	0.002	0.002	0.015	0.002	0.001	0.010	0.021
Syn SNPs	0	ю	0	0	4	ъ	17	ю	ю	0		0				9	2	2	ß	-	19	2	2	8	1	21	9	49	×	-	80	4	14	-	0	7	17
Mis SNPs	0	0	0	2	9	0	0	4		0	0	-	2	4	2	0	-	2	2	-	ю	2	-	-	0	13	8	5	0	0	0	-	ю	-	-	2	ß
CDS SNPs	0	ю	0	5	10	ю	17	~	4	0	-	-	3	ъ	e	9	ю	4	4	2	я	4	8	6	1	34	14	51	8	-	8	ß	17	7		6	13
CDS Len	2000	1375	1414	3574	3043	1177	1034	4597	1430	1245	1210	1273	1807	2628	2222	1206	1981	3020	2245	2210	2327	2350	2339	1494	1413	3453	5317	7550	954	550	4021	2439	1160	1226	951	919	1042
Exons SNPs	10	ю	8	~	14	18	8	12	4	ю	8		4	9	ю	~	4	ю	7	5	я	9	10	12	3	36	15	64	8	-	13	ю	53	4	-	24	32
Exons Len	75861	5763	47373	7081	7630	2626	7826	7006	9787	16248	5548	2675	4384	8327	2723	4892	14044	3780	16630	13758	2988	3866	6243	4951	2179	34084	6107	16274	1155	2290	13123	14874	1633	18257	3173	4685	1529
Genes SNPs	24	52	17	×	19	33	69	35	10	Ħ	19	ю	11	31	ю	35	30	43	48	21	89	12	59	44	14	96	48	352	28	ß	63	16	86	11	9	53	81
Gene Len	170673	26574	131885	17109	19636	52241	60792	77109	32386	39053	92676	12875	38146	57501	33386	65367	57896	48771	121377	79127	29414	29671	67170	33804	11773	41577	66102	82793	35658	30976	438353	19927	12228	13645	11513	14588	25015
End	50938364	5357461	38157869	40423168	25050118	22795477	4778731	121770410	53010554	104345243	17348708	31968343	21313242	62969537	63009270	43035925	109500604	109252562	18634783	19233066	92977	139990614	44556784	135650931	66650977	34006230	21497065	7287667	NA	9011531	46544388	21519272	2117076	72509176	16219377	10943684	180418543
Start	50767690	5330886	38025983	40406058	25030481	22743235	4717938	121693300	52978167	104306189	17250731	31955467	21275095	62912035	62975883	42970557	109442707	109203790	18513405	19153938	63562	139960942	44489613	135617126	66639203	33964652	21430962	7204873	NA	8980554	46106034	21499344	2104847	72495530	16207863	10929095	180393527
Scaffold	NC_045545.1	NC_045552.1	NC_045543.1	NC_045552.1	NC_045546.1	NC_045556.1	NC_045554.1	NC-045543.1	NC_045545.1	NC_045558.1	NC_045551.1	NC_045558.1	NC_045554.1	NC-045542.1	NC_045542.1	NC_045555.1	NC_045542.1	NC_045543.1	NC_045552.1	NC_045551.1	NW_022473598.1	NC_045541.1	NC_045552.1	NC_045544.1	NC_045541.1	NC_045556.1	NC_045554.1	NC_045555.1	NA	NC_045558.1	NC_045542.1	NC_045555.1	NC-045552.1	NC_045541.1	NC_045553.1	NC_045548.1	NC-045541.1
Sub-category	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS																				
Category	MF	MF	MF	MF	MF	MF	MF	MF	MF	MF	MF	MF	MF	MF	MF	MF	MF																				
Human Symbol	FOXP4	GSK3A	GSK3B	IRS4	KL	MAP2K1	MAP2K3	MAP3K1	MDM4	PDK2	PDK3	PDK4	PDPK1	PIK3R5	PIK3R6	PTEN	RAFI	RASA1	RPS6KA1	RPS6KA3	RPS6KA4	RPS6KA5	RPS6KA6	RPS6KB1	RPS6KB2	TSC1	TSC2	MTOR	NRF1	RHEB	RPTOR	SIRT1	SIRT2	SIRT3	SIRT4	SIRT5	SIRT6
Gene ID	FOXP4	GSK3A	GSK3B	IRS4	KL	MAP2K1	MAP2K3	MAP3K1	MDM4	PDK2	PDK3	PDK4	PDPK1	PIK3R5	PIK3R6	PTEN	RAF1	RASA1	RPS6KA1	RPS6KA3	RPS6KA4	RPS6KA5	RPS6KA6	RPS6KB1	RPS6KB2	TSC1	TSC2	MTOR	NRFI	RHEB	RPTOR	SIRT1	SIRT2	SIRT3	SIRT4	SIRT5	SIRT6

TajD	-0.55	0.45	1.40	2.42	0.17	2.54	0.68	2.23	0.65	3.12	0.31	2.81	0.21	NA	1.62	-0.93	0.05	1.35	0.81	1.85	0.69	0.94	NA	-0.56	2.30	3.74	NA	-0.82	0.18	0.33	0.97	0.97	0.68	2.69	1.26	0.17	1.57
d _{XY} Lm	3.7E-05	5.1E-05	6.2E-05	6.9E-05	1.1E-05	9.9E-05	1.0E-04	4.5E-05	2.0E-05	1.2E-04	5.9E-05	1.5E-04	6.4E-05	NA	6.6E-06	3.5E-06	2.9E-05	7.1E-05	2.7E-05	1.8E-04	8.9E-05	1.4E-04	NA	1.2E-04	3.7E-05	7.0E-04	NA	4.0E-05	2.5E-04	2.9E-04	6.6E-04	5.7E-04	3.8E-04	7.9E-04	3.8E-04	5.5E-05	4.7E-04
F _{ST} LM	0.01	0.02	0.00	0.00	0.04	0.02	0.02	0.07	0.01	0.03	0.01	0.02	0.00	NA	0.01	0.00	0.00	0.06	0.03	0.00	0.03	0.18	NA	0.02	0.02	0.02	NA	0.00	0.00	0.02	0.00	0.07	0.01	0.00	0.01	0.00	0.01
PiL	3.7E-05	5.1E-05	6.2E-05	6.9E-05	1.1E-05	9.9E-05	1.0E-04	4.5E-05	2.0E-05	1.2E-04	5.9E-05	1.5E-04	6.4E-05	NA	6.6E-06	3.5E-06	2.9E-05	7.1E-05	2.7E-05	1.8E-04	8.9E-05	1.4E-04	NA	1.2E-04	3.7E-05	7.0E-04	NA	4.0E-05	2.5E-04	2.9E-04	6.6E-04	5.7E-04	3.8E-04	7.9E-04	3.8E-04	5.5E-05	4.7E-04
PiM	3.7E-05	5.1E-05	6.2E-05	6.9E-05	1.1E-05	9.9E-05	1.0E-04	4.5E-05	2.0E-05	1.2E-04	5.9E-05	1.5E-04	6.4E-05	NA	6.6E-06	3.5E-06	2.9E-05	7.1E-05	2.7E-05	1.8E-04	8.9E-05	1.4E-04	NA	1.2E-04	3.7E-05	7.0E-04	NA	4.0E-05	2.5E-04	2.9E-04	6.6E-04	5.7E-04	3.8E-04	7.9E-04	3.8E-04	5.5E-05	4.7E-04
MPCL	0.003	0.002	0.006	0.001	0.004	0.001	0.000	0.002	0.003	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.001	0.002	0.001	0.002	0.001	0.001	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.002	0.001	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.002	0.000	0.003	0.000	0.000	0.000	600.0	0.000	0.000
SPCL	0.003	0.006	0.015	0.003	0.004	0.013	0.000	0.003	0.010	0.008	0.003	0.001	0.001	0.000	0.002	0.004	0.003	0.006	0.002	0.003	0.001	0.001	0.000	0.004	0.004	0.009	0.000	0.002	0.002	0.018	0.007	0.012	0.009	0.003	0.018	0.001	0.000
Syn SNPs	0	ю	11	7	ю	8	0	1	36	ю	2	1	-	0	5	1	8	ю	9	1			0	1	13	ю	0	7	0	8	1	ю	ю	-	ю	1	0
Mis SNPs	ю	7	7	ы	12		0	1	14	0	0	0	0	0			4	-	9	1	0	0	0	2	4	0	0	0	-	0	1	0	0	0	ю	0	0
CDS SNPs	Э	ъ	18	12	15	6	0	2	50	ß	2		-	0	ю	2	12	4	12	2			0	3	17	ю	0	5	-	80	2	3	ю		9	-	0
CDS Len	1199	874	1216	3429	3370	678	619	643	5108	661	730	762	742	730	1873	505	4084	647	7400	64.4	878	872	773	823	4053	339	1063	829	407	436	303	254	317	346	332	896	172
Exons SNPs	2	7	26	16	17	13	ю	4	55	5	3	80	2	0	ю	2	14	ß	12	9	4		0	3	18	14	0	7	ю	15	2	9	ß	3	16	3	5
Exons Len	2623	4230	3890	4864	14718	3183	2133	7767	8955	3455	3013	2323	3861	1441	47290	9704	5251	3870	8934	1986	3112	2422	4238	1070	0962	541	1496	1178	750	598	439	442	576	540	630	1881	654
Genes SNPs	11	12	93	95	36	71	ъ	21	239	15	10	11	6	2	6	8	49	ъ	62	8	7		3	8	71	32	0	80	×	40	9	14	13	17	31	7	5
Gene Len	25660	23077	232976	65460	76097	34359	86062	9452	57156	7943	16710	14911	19929	12394	162201	73424	225270	20180	82226	10741	86818	34278	30739	26434	84333	3547	29947	9226	6706	12446	2207	6461	5598	6179	8594	11727	3968
End	49166303	993399772	48986459	26338926	75109628	8053229	56741032	61960076	83316287	5416034	75112826	142702733	121783914	4975020	126466410	23903413	21663937	80174323	59064872	79536695	60993928	79584615	97207892	43746573	166184388	3772841	77446458	19822847	166307546	171964618	69800461	120015146	2283756	61940369	38040	117689387	140832332
Start	49140642	99316894	48753482	26273465	75033530	8018869	56654969	61950623	83259130	5408090	75096115	142687821	121763984	4962625	126304208	23829988	21438666	80154142	58982645	79525953	60120609	79550336	97177152	43720138	166100054	3769293	77416510	19813620	166300839	171952171	69798253	120008684	2278157	61934189	29445	117677659	140828363
Scaffold	NC_045542.1	NC-045541.1	NC_045555.1	NC_045545.1	NC_045543.1	NC_045547.1	NC_045541.1	NC-045545.1	NC_045541.1	NC_045557.1	NC_045545.1	NC_045544.1	NC_045544.1	NC-045543.1	NC-045543.1	NC_045547.1	NC_045556.1	NC_045541.1	NC_045544.1	NC_045558.1	NC_045541.1	NC_045558.1	NC_045558.1	NC_045543.1	NC_045541.1	NC_045546.1	NC_045547.1	NC_045553.1	NC_045541.1	NC_045541.1	NC_045546.1	NC_045558.1	NC-045558.1	NC_045547.1	NW_022473609.1	NC_045541.1	NC_045541.1
Sub-category	NS	SN	NS	OP	OP	OP	OP	OP	OP	OP	OP	OP	OP	OP	OP																						
Category	MF	MF	MF	MF	MF	MF	MF	MF	MF	MF	MF	MF																									
Human Symbol	SIRT7	CCND1	INPP5A	JAK1	JAK2	KRAS	MRAS	NRAS	PIK3C2A	RIT1	YWHAB	YWHAE	YWHAG	YWHAQ	GHR	IGF1	IGF1R	IGF2	IGF2R	IGFBP1	IGFBP2	IGFBP3	IGFBP4	IGFBP7	INSR	NDUFC2	NDUFA9	NDUFA10	NDUFA11	NDUFA13	NDUFA2	NDUFA3	NDUFA4	NDUFA5	NDUFA7	NDUFAF1	NDUFB1
Gene ID	SIRT7	CCND1	INPP5A	JAK1	JAK2	KRAS	MRAS	NRAS	PIK3C2A	RIT1	YWHAB	YWHAE	YWHAG	YWHAQ	GHR	IGF1	IGF1R	IGF2	IGF2R	IGFBP1	IGFBP2	IGFBP3	IGFBP4	IGFBP7	INSR	LOC116509867	LOC116511712	NDUFA10	NDUFA11	NDUFA13	NDUFA2	NDUFA3	NDUFA4	NDUFA5	NDUFA7	NDUFAF1	NDUFB1

(cont.)
Genes
Targeted
atistics for
ble 4.S1: St
Tal

TajD	-0.55	1.15	-0.92	-0.46	0.01	0.39	1.40	0.82	-0.25	1.03	1.22	0.38	-0.04	NA	1.57	0.97	3.84	2.91	1.71	1.00	NA	1.14	3.83	1.48	NA	1.33	0.40	NA	-0.07	-0.03	NA	1.21	0.03	3.13	-0.07	0.58	NA
d _{XY} LM	1.1E-04	4.9E-04	5.4E-05	2.5E-04	5.2E-05	2.3E-04	4.6E-04	2.3E-04	9.3E-05	4.2E-05	1.3E-04	1.9E-04	2.0E-04	NA	5.2E-04	1.2E-04	2.2E-04	3.8E-04	2.2E-04	NA	NA	2.5E-04	3.9E-04	1.5E-04	NA	2.3E-04	1.6E-04	NA	1.0E-04	1.7E-04	NA	2.2E-04	1.8E-04	8.8E-04	2.3E-04	1.9E-04	NA
F _{ST} LM	0.01	0.01	0.00	0.00	0.02	0.00	0.24	0.00	0.01	0.00	0.00	0.06	0.00	NA	0.01	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.09	NA	NA	0.00	0.02	0.01	NA	0.01	0.01	NA	0.01	0.01	NA	0.04	0.07	0.02	0.02	0.00	NA
PiL	1.1E-04	4.9E-04	5.4E-05	2.5E-04	5.2E-05	2.3E-04	4.6E-04	2.3E-04	9.3E-05	4.2E-05	1.3E-04	1.9E-04	2.0E-04	NA	5.2E-04	1.2E-04	2.2E-04	3.8E-04	2.2E-04	NA	NA	2.5E-04	3.9E-04	1.5E-04	NA	2.3E-04	1.6E-04	NA	1.0E-04	1.7E-04	NA	2.2E-04	1.8E-04	8.8E-04	2.3E-04	1.9E-04	NA
PiM	1.1E-04	4.9E-04	5.4E-05	2.5E-04	5.2E-05	2.3E-04	4.6E-04	2.3E-04	9.3E-05	4.2E-05	1.3E-04	1.9E-04	2.0E-04	NA	5.2E-04	1.2E-04	2.2E-04	3.8E-04	2.2E-04	NA	NA	2.5E-04	3.9E-04	1.5E-04	NA	2.3E-04	1.6E-04	NA	1.0E-04	1.7E-04	NA	2.2E-04	1.8E-04	8.8E-04	2.3E-04	1.9E-04	NA
MPCL	0.000	0.000	0.000	200.0	0.000	0.002	0.002	0.000	0.006	0.002	0.002	0.000	0.002	0.000	0.013	0.000	0.004	0.003	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.011	0.003	0.000	0.000	0.003	0.000	0.001	0.001	0.000	0.000	0.005	0.000	0.000	0.006	0.000
SPCL	0.000	0.007	0.000	0.018	0.000	0.007	0.005	0.000	0.012	0.014	0.021	0.001	0.002	0.000	0.025	0.002	0.010	0.007	0.003	0.006	0.000	0.005	0.033	0.008	0.000	0.000	0.010	0.000	0.004	0.010	0.000	0.001	0.011	0.005	0.000	0.006	0.000
Syn SNPs	0	ю	0	3	0	3	1	0	3	26	27	-	0	0	ß		6	3	1	ю	0	4	12	9	0	0	9	0	ю	4	0	-	1	1	0	0	0
Mis SNPs	0	0	0	2	0	1	1	0	3	4	ю	0	1	0	ß	0	ю	2	0	0	0	0	9	5	0	0	3	0		-	0	0	1	0	0	2	0
CDS SNPs	0	3	0	5	0	4	2	0	9	30	30		1	0	10		14	ъ	-	ю	0	4	18	11	0	0	6	0	9	œ	0		2	1	0	2	0
CDS Len	521	450	312	280	408	564	437	378	521	2169	1398	770	538	334	398	608	1388	730	357	504	2001	853	546	1436	272	332	935	423	1351	823	240	737	190	208	224	345	229
Exons SNPs	2	3	2	7	ю	7	3	4	11	35	36	3	2	0	10	3	23	6	1	3	0	4	32	14	0	5	13	0	7	6	0	ю	2	3		9	0
Exons Len	746	534	658	476	2863	827	795	639	1480	4968	1617	954	707	1168	516	2716	1658	924	2144	1539	2466	1086	952	1634	496	1184	1196	632	1685	1020	491	1340	871	553	593	1029	496
Genes SNPs	ъ	9	9	30	18	26	4	5	22	131	154	15	12	2	33	6	75	31	2	11	4	13	47	62	0	20	36	0	38	10	0	16	7	12	1	16	ю
Gene Len	3127	51194	4083	8475	6244	8002	11205	6180	8302	42590	16868	14222	40075	3361	5711	14770	5509	16322	12219	8837	47843	9014	9417	22698	3875	7156	2900	3604	15137	5079	4237	5491	11051	6273	3641	8030	3939
End	21855605	12766025	21878460	8254340	38282371	60489488	60330100	65291857	67208013	4720243	5480255	110236057	123282804	30620349	77311071	66465211	69299998	25053578	56333543	NA	83338650	7608503	48083134	115943491	38937238	54454152	80369214	4101064	6814582	40126624	5484627	32850545	109417773	37994728	14915577	94090734	55939528
Start	21852477	12714830	21874376	8245864	38276126	60481485	60318894	65285676	67199710	4677652	5463386	110221834	123242728	30616987	77305359	66450440	69294488	25037255	56321323	NA	83290806	7599488	48073716	115920792	38933362	54446995	80366313	4097459	6799444	40121544	5480389	32845053	109406721	37988454	14911935	94082703	55935588
Scaffold	NC_045554.1	NC_045542.1	NC_045547.1	NC_045541.1	NC_045543.1	NC_045550.1	NC_045543.1	NC_045542.1	NC_045548.1	NC_045541.1	NC_045557.1	NC-045541.1	NC_045543.1	NC_045552.1	NC_045546.1	NC_045541.1	NC_045541.1	NC_045548.1	NC_045546.1	NA	NC_045558.1	NC_045555.1	NC_045553.1	NC_045542.1	NC_045545.1	NC_045548.1	NC_045548.1	NC_045553.1	NC_045554.1	NC_045554.1	NC_045557.1	NC_045542.1	NC_045543.1	NC_045543.1	NC_045544.1	NC_045544.1	NC_045548.1
Sub-category	OP	ОР	OP	ОР	OP	OP	OP	OP	OP	OP	OP	OP	OP	OP	OP	OP	OP	OP	OP	OP	OP																
Category	MF	MF	MF	MF	MF	MF	MF	MF	MF	MF	MF	MF	MF	MF	MF	MF	MF	MF																			
Human Symbol	NDUFB10	NDUFB11	NDUFB2	NDUFB3	NDUFB4	NDUFB5	NDUFB6	NDUFB7	NDUFB9	NDUFS1	NDUFS2	NDUFS3	NDUFS4	NDUFS5	NDUFS6	NDUFS8	NDUFV1	NDUFV2	NDUFV3	SDHC	SDHA	SDHB	SDHD	UQCRC1	UQCRH	UQCRB	CYC1	UQCR10	UQCRC2	UQCRFS1	UQCRQ	COX11	COX7C	COX17	COX7A2	COX7A2L	COX6C
Gene ID	NDUFB10	NDUFB11	NDUFB2	NDUFB3	NDUFB4	NDUFB5	NDUFB6	NDUFB7	NDUFB9	NDUFS1	NDUFS2	NDUFS3	NDUFS4	NDUFS5	NDUFS6	NDUFS8	NDUFV1	NDUFV2	NDUFV3	LOC116523446	SDHA	SDHB	SDHD	LOC116503820	LOC116509003	LOC116512557	LOC116512786	LOC116516714	LOC116517709	LOC116518020	LOC116520028	LOC116503018	LOC116506575	LOC116506766	LOC116506963	LOC116507992	LOC116512326

TajD	-0.99	1.59	-0.75	NA	2.80	0.34	0.13	2.71	2.26	-0.23	1.20	-0.16	1.61	-0.72	1.75	0.72	-0.11	2.13	4.46	-0.79	1.01	0.64	0.09	-0.83	0.69	-0.08	-0.95	1.70	-0.90	1.04	-1.22	0.89	0.40	1.46	-1.17	2.59	1.78
D _{XY} LM	4.4E-05	5.6E-04	1.2E-04	NA	4.8E-04	2.1E-04	3.5E-05	1.6E-04	1.4E-04	6.1E-05	3.3E-04	6.5E-05	5.0E-04	6.2E-05	6.0E-04	1.5E-04	1.0E-04	1.4E-04	1.2E-04	4.7E-05	4.8E-05	1.3E-04	1.3E-04	3.6E-05	2.9E-04	9.1E-05	1.3E-05	3.4E-05	1.1E-05	3.3E-05	2.7E-05	7.8E-05	3.0E-05	8.5E-05	1.4E-05	5.8E-05	6.7E-05
F _{ST} LM	0.02	0.01	0.00	NA	0.00	0.02	0.05	0.01	0.03	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.00	0.00	0.01	0.01	0.00	0.01	0.00	0.01	0.02	0.02	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.00	0.00	0.05	0.02	0.01	0.01	0.03	0.08	0.04	0.00	0.01	0.01
PiL	4.4E-05	5.6E-04	1.2E-04	NA	4.8E-04	2.1E-04	3.5E-05	1.6E-04	1.4E-04	6.1E-05	3.3E-04	6.5E-05	5.0E-04	6.2E-05	6.0E-04	1.5E-04	1.0E-04	1.4E-04	1.2E-04	4.7E-05	4.8E-05	1.3E-04	1.3E-04	3.6E-05	2.9E-04	9.1E-05	1.3E-05	3.4E-05	1.1E-05	3.3E-05	2.7E-05	7.8E-05	3.0E-05	8.5E-05	1.4E-05	5.8E-05	6.7E-05
PiM	4.4E-05	5.6E-04	1.2E-04	NA	4.8E-04	2.1E-04	3.5E-05	1.6E-04	1.4E-04	6.1E-05	3.3E-04	6.5E-05	5.0E-04	6.2E-05	6.0E-04	1.5E-04	1.0E-04	1.4E-04	1.2E-04	4.7E-05	4.8E-05	1.3E-04	1.3E-04	3.6E-05	2.9E-04	9.1E-05	1.3E-05	3.4E-05	1.1E-05	3.3E-05	2.7E-05	7.8E-05	3.0E-05	8.5E-05	1.4E-05	5.8E-05	6.7E-05
MPCL	0.004	0.000	0.008	0.000	0.002	0.002	0.001	0.002	0.001	0.000	0.008	0.007	0.002	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.002	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.001	0.000	0.003	0.000	0.001	0.000	0.002	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.000	0.000	0.002	0.001	0.006	0.014
SPCL	0.004	0.004	0.013	0.000	0.009	0.007	0.002	0.010	0.003	0.013	0.016	0.007	0.004	0.000	0.008	0.000	0.002	0.007	0.005	0.003	0.002	0.003	0.001	0.005	0.002	0.002	0.002	0.005	0.002	0.001	0.006	0.001	0.002	0.002	0.006	0.030	0.026
Syn SNPs	0	-	-	0	4	2		14	4	11	4	0		0	5	0	0	6	6	5	2	-	1	1	1	1	2	9	-	0	7	2	ю	1	5	23	35
Mis SNPs	ю	0	5	0	-	1	-	ю		0	4	1	-	0	0	0	-	0	0	0	0		0	1	0	1	0	ю	5	1	2	0	0	2	1	9	43
CDS SNPs	ю		ю	0	ю	ю	7	17	ъ	Ħ	×		7	0	5	0		6	6	ß	2	7	1	2	1	2	2	6	e	-	6	2	3	3	9	59	82
CDS Len	1215	258	237	312	533	428	1023	1650	1583	815	497	151	446	209	266	761	481	1340	1840	1513	1274	672	1418	386	521	1091	1097	1967	1923	1845	1394	1379	1764	1293	973	677	2995
Exons SNPs	ы	9	4	0	4	6	2	23	9	17	18	ъ	9		9	2	-	21	14	9	4	9	3	4	3	3	2	14	ъ	2	6	ы	ъ	10	9	35	80
Exons Len	1770	553	790	1037	797	810	4944	2011	2370	2161	749	2048	711	442	480	1548	1259	2030	3616	1857	5318	1843	1704	1752	818	1572	2298	7958	7591	8777	2550	2779	6685	3110	3755	4346	3715
Genes SNPs	16	24	2	1	33	57	ъ	79	20	67	63	6	18	4	42	80	4	37	57	67	26	26	21	7	18	5	~	24	16	ю	12	14	13	13	22	93	188
Gene Len	6476	4369	2527	3185	3860	8275	19511	14787	7355	16371	10232	5510	12575	4840	3395	13555	6507	18165	32189	18746	37363	12390	18817	6746	7499	4576	51603	45174	11192	23184	57099	57393	128673	11589	8414	16823	76391
End	26294530	9993328	37550835	16415643	47276904	5401460	89725159	142028579	28186474	5620049	175091426	86273824	22471798	49255584	4630500	58444921	52931199	9528946	38637546	34583588	57025562	14674540	38910014	84058362	130912489	26263919	27819226	28339866	34963239	82125409	22974981	139794226	34478971	37678064	6280201	48011053	4257445
Start	26288053	9988958	37548307	16412457	47273043	5393184	89705647	142013791	28179118	5603677	175081193	86268313	22459222	49250743	4627104	58431365	52924691	9510780	38605356	34564841	56988198	14662149	38891196	84051615	130904989	26259342	27767622	28294691	34952046	82102224	22917881	139736832	34350297	37666474	6271786	47994229	4181053
Scaffold	NC_045550.1	NC-045552.1	NC_045552.1	NC_045553.1	NC_045554.1	NC_045556.1	NC_045558.1	NC_045543.1	NC_045542.1	NC_045547.1	NC_045541.1	NC_045545.1	NC_045542.1	NC-045543.1	NC_045554.1	NC_045545.1	NC_045542.1	NC_045542.1	NC_045543.1	NC_045553.1	NC_045548.1	NC_045547.1	NC_045548.1	NC_045543.1	NC_045541.1	NC_045550.1	NC-045553.1	NC_045542.1	NC_045541.1	NC_045558.1	NC_045556.1	NC_045543.1	NC_045546.1	NC_045547.1	NC_045557.1	NC_045554.1	NC 045542.1
Sub-category	OP	OP	OP	OP	OP	OP	OP	OP	OP	OP	OP	OP	OP	OP	OP	OP	OP	OP	OP	OP	OP						BR	BR	BR	BR	BR						
Category	MF	MF	MF	MF	MF	MF	MF	MF	MF	MF	MF	MF	MF	MF	MF	MF	MF	MF	MF	MF	MF	MF	MF	MF	MF	MF	0	0	0	0	0						
Human Symbol	COX15	COX6B1	COX7B	COX6A1	COX411	COX5A	COX18	ATP5A1	ATP5B	ATP5C1	ATP5D	ATP5E	ATP5G2	ATP5I	ATP5J2	ATP5F1	ATP5H	ATP6AP1	ATP6V1A	ATP6V1B2	ATP6V1C1	ATP6V1E1	ATP6V1H	ISCA1	ISCA2	SLC25A28	SLC25A37	NR4A1	NR4A2	NR4A3	SMAD6	SMAD7	ALCAM	AMDHD1	B3GAT3	CA5A	CC2D1A
Gene ID	LOC116514227	LOC116516211	LOC116516217	LOC116517048	LOC116517973	LOC116519415	LOC116520881	ATP5F1A	ATP5F1B	ATP5F1C	ATP5F1D	ATP5F1E	ATP5MC2	ATP5ME	ATP5MF	ATP5PB	ATP5PD	ATP6AP1	ATP6V1A	ATP6V1B2	ATP6V1C1	ATP6V1E1	ATP6V1H	ISCA1	ISCA2	SLC25A28	SLC25A37	NR4A1	NR4A2	NR4A3	SMAD6	SMAD7	ALCAM	AMDHD1	B3GAT3	CA5A	CC2D1A

(cont.)	
Genes	
Targeted	
for	
Statistics	
4.S1:	
Table	

TajD	0.42	0.65	-1.04	-0.91	1.43	0.72	2.30	3.44	-0.59	1.59	-0.52	0.40	0.10	NA	2.65	NA	NA	-0.67	-0.58	-0.07	6.16	0.32	2.35	0.59	2.89	0.88	-0.21	-0.07	-0.81	-0.55	0.56	1.53	2.18	2.19	-0.40	1.68	1.02
d _{XY} LM	6.5E-05	4.3E-05	1.4E-05	6.2E-05	4.9E-05	2.6E-05	6.6E-05	1.3E-04	1.7E-05	1.6E-05	1.1E-05	1.3E-06	4.1E-05	NA	3.4E-05	NA	NA	2.7E-05	8.4E-05	9.3E-06	7.0E-05	1.2E-05	7.0E-05	4.4E-05	9.7E-05	4.8E-05	1.2E-04	6.1E-05	3.2E-05	3.4E-06	5.7E-05	8.3E-05	4.9E-05	9.0E-05	1.4E-05	1.4E-04	8.5E-05
F _{ST} LM	0.02	0.13	0.02	0.00	0.03	0.01	0.12	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.04	0.00	NA	0.00	NA	NA	0.00	0.02	0.01	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.01	0.01	0.00	0.02	0.01	0.03	0.01	0.09	0.01	0.00	0.02	0.00	0.00
PiL	6.5E-05	4.3E-05	1.4E-05	6.2E-05	4.9E-05	2.6E-05	6.6E-05	1.3E-04	1.7E-05	1.6E-05	1.1E-05	1.3E-06	4.1E-05	NA	3.4E-05	NA	NA	2.7E-05	8.4E-05	9.3E-06	7.0E-05	1.2E-05	7.0E-05	4.4E-05	9.7E-05	4.8E-05	1.2E-04	6.1E-05	3.2E-05	3.4E-06	5.7E-05	8.3E-05	4.9E-05	9.0E-05	1.4E-05	1.4E-04	8.5E-05
PiM	6.5E-05	4.3E-05	1.4E-05	6.2E-05	4.9E-05	2.6E-05	6.6E-05	1.3E-04	1.7E-05	1.6E-05	1.1E-05	1.3E-06	4.1E-05	NA	3.4E-05	NA	NA	2.7E-05	8.4E-05	9.3E-06	7.0E-05	1.2E-05	7.0E-05	4.4E-05	9.7E-05	4.8E-05	1.2E-04	6.1E-05	3.2E-05	3.4E-06	5.7E-05	8.3E-05	4.9E-05	9.0E-05	1.4E-05	1.4E-04	8.5E-05
MPCL	0.000	0.001	0.001	0.000	0.000	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.000	0.001	0.001	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.016	0.000	0.003	0.000	0.002	0.000	0.002	0.000	0.001	0.001	0.002	0.000	0.001	0.003	0.000	0.000	0.000
SPCL	0.001	0.001	0.002	0.003	0.002	0.012	0.004	0.005	0.001	0.002	0.005	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.005	0.000	0.000	0.001	0.002	0.003	0.027	0.000	0.009	0.000	0.017	0.002	0.008	0.000	0.003	0.001	0.010	0.001	0.001	0.011	0.001	0.000	0.001
Syn SNPs	-1	0	4	2	ю	21	12	12	1	2	æ	2	0	0	2	0	0	1	2	4	50	1	12	0	38	2	5	0	4	4	18	1	1	15	1	0	-
Mis SNPs	0		3	0	0	3	3	3	0	2	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	65	0	ъ	0	9	0	2	0	2	13	5	0	1	7	0	0	1
CDS SNPs	1	-	7	2	ю	24	15	15	1	4	6	2	0	0	7	0	0	1	2	~	115	1	17	0	44	2	7	0	9	17	23	1	2	23	1	0	2
CDS Len	1016	1715	4071	749	1214	2073	3825	2729	808	2116	1794	14871	589	1352	380	1567	1497	006	875	2608	4189	4853	1868	1020	2609	1099	892	763	1755	12304	2325	1085	1376	2091	1568	1360	2018
Exons SNPs	ю	2	7	3	7	24	15	15	1	9	10	ъ	34	0	23	0	0	1	8	23	151	1	28	2	44	4	8	4	7	17	35	19	2	30	2	3	9
Exons Len	3114	6199	4963	864	5399	7296	5457	2889	2900	19003	9240	160957	3666	1688	9045	2690	5610	1321	1677	19447	6024	17227	4080	5006	3140	4101	1457	2019	2891	34576	3188	3248	8521	3091	6098	2577	3122
Genes SNPs	18	4	42	17	15	63	68	36	2	28	20	13	39	4	22	19	16	16	22	51	176	13	113	15	113	16	8	4	17	60	148	27	13	101	12	7	10
Gene Len	11635	12818	32672	22591	51594	58026	98570	25623	82339	29834	15725	171254	16355	9893	4713	21999	35762	14472	8001	27887	23676	216203	34960	120942	34039	18121	5591	2904	22823	125927	104259	27132	29976	7828	21007	24964	9007
End	84652874	32720172	122490672	124766850	37584089	3984172	28591018	37572480	53351195	64610740	26669351	9492161	94431850	35903516	116192067	160915567	30548372	86222547	41282695	21982503	123047376	75937105	7905253	40490821	9391243	9089594	29061398	18274315	33464822	36421690	10122392	80652390	47783958	1902664	75605590	116976901	20293724
Start	84641238	32707353	122457999	124744258	37532494	3926145	28492447	37546856	53268855	64580905	26653625	9320906	94415494	35893622	116187353	160893567	30512609	86208074	41274693	21954615	123023699	75720901	7870292	40369878	9357203	9071472	29055806	18271410	33441998	36295762	10018132	80625257	47753981	1894835	75584582	116951936	20284716
Scaffold	NC_045543.1	NC_045550.1	NC_045543.1	NC_045544.1	NC_045547.1	NC_045554.1	NC_045550.1	NC_045554.1	NC_045542.1	NC_045547.1	NC_045550.1	NC_045558.1	NC_045541.1	NC_045542.1	NC_045542.1	NC_045542.1	NC_045543.1	NC_045545.1	NC_045551.1	NC_045552.1	NC_045558.1	NC_045544.1	NC_045548.1	NC_045542.1	NC_045557.1	NC_045553.1	NC_045547.1	NC_045552.1	NC_045545.1	NC_045548.1	NC_045549.1	NC_045543.1	NC_045547.1	NC_045557.1	NC_045541.1	NC_045542.1	NC-045553.1
Sub-category	BR	BR	BR	BR	BR	BR	BR	BR	BR	BR	BR	BR	BR	BR	BR	BR	BR	BR	BR	BR	BR	BR	BR	BR													
Category	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Human Symbol	CTSL	D2HGDH	DHX29	EIF4H	ELK3	FOXK1	GIGYF2	GPATCH1	GRB2	HDAC10	KLHL24	KMT2C	LIN7C	TUBA1B	H2AC1	Zfp160	CYP2K21	CTSZ	ARGLU1	AG04	ZNF629	LTBP1	MAK	MAP2K6	MAP3K11	MAPK1	MPST	NR0B2	PODN	PRKDC	PRKG2	PSAT1	RAB3IP	RFX5	RNH1	RUVBL1	SLC20A1
Gene ID	CTSL	D2HGDH	DHX29	EIF4H	ELK3	FOXK1	GIGYF2	GPATCH1	GRB2	HDAC10	KLHL24	KMT2C	LIN7C	LOC116503212	LOC116503736	LOC116504544	LOC116505849	LOC116508584	LOC116514694	LOC116515224	LOC116521616	LTBP1	MAK	MAP2K6	MAP3K11	MAPK1	MPST	NR0B2	PODN	PRKDC	PRKG2	PSAT1	RAB3IP	RFX5	RNH1	RUVBL1	SLC20A1

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	TajD	2.19	1.67	0.82	NA	2.09	NA	2.02	0.31	-0.36	2.28	2.49	NA	-1.06	0.30	-0.46	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	-0.70	NA	NA	NA	NA	1.31	NA	-0.23	1.26	0.62	NA	NA	NA	NA
	d _{XY} LM	2.5E-05	4.1E-04	1.3E-04	NA	7.1E-06	NA	1.3E-04	1.0E-04	1.2E-04	1.7E-04	3.3E-04	NA	5.3E-06	2.8E-05	2.1E-05	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	2.0E-05	NA	NA	NA	NA	6.2E-05	NA	1.9E-05	1.4E-04	3.0E-05	NA	NA	NA	NA
	F _{ST} LM	0.01	0.01	0.03	NA	0.01	NA	0.01	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.01	NA	0.01	0.08	0.01	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	0.00	NA	NA	NA	NA	0.03	NA	0.00	0.03	0.00	NA	NA	NA	NA
	PiL	2.5E-05	4.1E-04	1.3E-04	NA	7.1E-06	NA	1.3E-04	1.0E-04	1.2E-04	1.7E-04	3.3E-04	NA	5.3E-06	2.8E-05	2.1E-05	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	2.0E-05	NA	NA	NA	NA	6.2E-05	NA	1.9E-05	1.4E-04	3.0E-05	NA	NA	NA	NA
	PiM	2.5E-05	4.1E-04	1.3E-04	NA	7.1E-06	NA	1.3E-04	1.0E-04	1.2E-04	1.7E-04	3.3E-04	NA	5.3E-06	2.8E-05	2.1E-05	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	2.0E-05	NA	NA	NA	NA	6.2E-05	NA	1.9E-05	1.4E-04	3.0E-05	NA	NA	NA	NA
	MPCL	0.001	0.000	0.001	0.000	0.003	0.000	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.007	0.003	0.000	0.001	0.001	0.003	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.001	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.001	0.000	0.000	0.004	0.010	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
	SPCL	0.009	0.003	0.001	0.000	0.018	0.000	0.014	0.007	0.005	0.016	0.004	0.000	0.001	0.001	0.004	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.001	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.005	0.000	0.001	0.011	0.013	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
	Syn SNPs	31	2	1	0	21	0	17	4	4	12		0		0	7	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	16	0		80	ю	0	0	0	0
	Mis SNPs	9	0	2	0	4	0	-	-		6	ю	0	-	1	ы	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	2	0		ß	×	0	0	0	0
	CDS SNPs	37	2	3	0	25	0	18	∞	ю	21	4	0	5	1	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	18	0	2	13	Ξ	0	0	0	0
	CDS Len	4199	759	2330	1834	1395	2679	1265	1225	1071	1335	1127	1111	1581	1554	1935	834	1728	944	1717	2573	2481	290	1383	1577	3476	4397	375	2178	3278	480	2285	1206	831	1362	1113	1195	1084
	Exons SNPs	44	3	3	0	26	0	35	6	ъ	32	4	0	4	1	15	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	18	0	ю	16	20	0	0	0	0
	Exons Len	10625	1090	2330	1861	39332	3153	1985	1948	1071	1723	1127	2746	10071	2630	5888	1222	4075	944	8530	2573	3389	260	3745	1577	11068	67185	597	2772	3771	480	6640	1633	6269	6266	10422	1327	2397
	Genes SNPs	75	27	23	0	104	0	116	20	ъ	94	2	1	4	14	51	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	8	0	0	0	0	62	9	17	51	34	0	0	0	0
	Gene Len	65730	8612	53749	26651	17815	89750	31635	69217	5316	27251	31676	93007	55708	102680	79659	52744	23901	944	182439	196671	16692	3809	23962	18802	92471	87286	12275	8568	18588	4138	39803	32115	27375	118447	504075	7049	15973
	End	142369289	16277989	51241667	18759682	2376466	14866688	7294038	76463823	7919720	68427029	76405856	35795587	59145594	59083947	17197177	39973368	48127202	49216120	132703024	31450074	36575519	114464283	30483595	71232140	351600	83109855	8146494	1054510	1481256	62159753	135299383	4818310	91196013	170886972	171505786	169618702	170915629
	Start	142303558	16269376	51187917	18733030	2358650	14776937	7262402	76394605	7914403	68399777	76374179	35702579	59089885	58981266	17117517	39920623	48103300	49215175	132520584	31253402	36558826	114460473	30459632	71213337	259128	83022568	8134218	1045941	1462667	62155614	135259579	4786194	91168637	170768524	171001710	169611652	170899655
	Scaffold	NC_045544.1	NC_045556.1	NC_045542.1	NC_045544.1	NC_045554.1	NC-045546.1	NC_045541.1	NC-045542.1	NC_045542.1	NC_045549.1	NC_045541.1	NC-045552.1	NC-045546.1	NC-045546.1	NC_045547.1	NC_045547.1	NC_045553.1	NC_045554.1	NC-045542.1	NC_045551.1	NC_045542.1	NC_045544.1	NC_045547.1	NC_045543.1	NC_045545.1	NC_045541.1	NC-045553.1	NC_045557.1	NC_045557.1	NC_045545.1	NC-045541.1	NC_045558.1	NC-045542.1	NC_045542.1	NC_045542.1	NC_045542.1	NC_045542.1
	Sub-category	BR	в	в	в	в	в	в	В	в	υ	U	U	υ	C	υ	c	С	С	FE	Æ	毘	臣	9	U	U	G	-	-	-	I	-						
	Category	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Human Symbol	SMG6	SNRPA1	SPATA 20	TBX18	TMEM184A	TRPC6	WDR12	ADRB2	AVPR2	CCKAR	DRD4	EDA	MAOA	MAOB	SLC6A12	KITLG	BCD02	MCIR	MITF	OCA2	PMEL	POMC	SOX10	TYRP1	CFH	NCR3LG1	IGLL5	SV2A	MYOIE	TSHB	TSHR	VIPR1	CD74	MR1	MR1	MR1	MRI
	Gene ID	SMG6	SNRPA1	SPATA20	TBX18	TMEM184A	TRPC6	WDR12	ADRB2	AVPR2	CCKAR	DRD4	EDA	LOC116510561	LOC116510618	SLC6A12	KITLG	LOC116516483	MCIR	MITF	OCA2	PMEL	POMC	SOX10	TYRP1	CFH	LOC116512145	LOC116516798	SV2A	LOC116519949	TSHB	TSHR	VIPR1	CD74	LOC116503377	LOC116503386	LOC116503390	LOC116503394

TajD	-0.50	1.88	-0.64	-1.19	0.03	-0.02	0.45	-0.51	NA	2.93	1.98	0.06	1.80	3.05	3.65	-0.72	1.01	-0.76	1.18	-0.24	0.67	-0.20	-0.11	-0.36	0.37	1.50	1.01	3.03	2.28	-0.26	1.57	-0.07	2.19	0.01	0.30	-0.18	-0.53
d _{XY} Lm	3.0E-05	9.4E-05	3.9E-05	1.7E-05	3.3E-05	2.2E-05	6.7E-06	3.2E-05	NA	2.3E-04	1.6E-04	5.6E-05	6.9E-05	6.2E-05	3.0E-04	2.9E-05	1.8E-04	8.6E-06	1.6E-04	8.7E-05	4.8E-05	2.6E-05	1.3E-05	3.4E-05	1.6E-04	7.2E-05	6.6E-05	1.5E-04	9.0E-06	2.7E-05	5.6E-05	1.6E-05	1.1E-04	4.6E-05	6.2E-05	5.8E-05	2.8E-05
F _{ST} LM	0.00	0.02	0.00	-0.01	0.00	0.03	0.00	0.00	NA	0.00	0.03	0.00	0.01	0.02	0.00	0.02	0.00	0.09	0.01	0.01	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.06	0.00	0.00	0.02	0.00	0.01	0.01	0.05	0.07	0.01	0.03	0.03	0.01
PiL	3.0E-05	9.4E-05	3.9E-05	1.7E-05	3.3E-05	2.2E-05	6.7E-06	3.2E-05	NA	2.3E-04	1.6E-04	5.6E-05	6.9E-05	6.2E-05	3.0E-04	2.9E-05	1.8E-04	8.6E-06	1.6E-04	8.7E-05	4.8E-05	2.6E-05	1.3E-05	3.4E-05	1.6E-04	7.2E-05	6.6E-05	1.5E-04	9.0E-06	2.7E-05	5.6E-05	1.6E-05	1.1E-04	4.6E-05	6.2E-05	5.8E-05	2.8E-05
PiM	3.0E-05	9.4E-05	3.9E-05	1.7E-05	3.3E-05	2.2E-05	6.7E-06	3.2E-05	NA	2.3E-04	1.6E-04	5.6E-05	6.9E-05	6.2E-05	3.0E-04	2.9E-05	1.8E-04	8.6E-06	1.6E-04	8.7E-05	4.8E-05	2.6E-05	1.3E-05	3.4E-05	1.6E-04	7.2E-05	6.6E-05	1.5E-04	9.0E-06	2.7E-05	5.6E-05	1.6E-05	1.1E-04	4.6E-05	6.2E-05	5.8E-05	2.8E-05
MPCL	0.006	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.001	0.001	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.004	0.001	0.000	0.004	0.001	0.005	0.000	0.000	0.001	0.000	0.001	0.001	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.001	0.003	0.002	0.001	0.000	0.002	0.004	0.000	0.000	0.001	0.002	0.000	0.001
SPCL	0.013	0.001	0.001	0.003	0.002	0.002	0.001	0.001	0.000	0.008	0.005	0.001	0.008	0.006	0.015	0.001	0.000	0.001	0.001	0.002	0.004	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.003	0.014	0.004	0.005	0.000	0.005	0.010	0.001	0.004	0.001	0.002	0.002	0.002
Syn SNPs	œ	-	1	4	1	2	4	-	0	9	ю	3	11	~	11	-	0	0	-	-	6	0	0	1	2	12	4	9	1	9	6	2	6		0	4	3
Mis SNPs	6	0	0	0	1	-	ю	0	0	9	-	0	14	2	ю	0	0		0	-	2	0	0	0	1	е	4	-	0	4	7	0	0	7	ю	0	2
CDS SNPs	14	-		4	2	ю	7	-	0	12	9	3	25	6	16	-	0			7	Ξ	0	0		3	15	8	2		10	16	2	6	ю	3	4	ъ
CDS Len	1057	1646	1102	1144	1286	1500	7742	1837	444	1469	1221	2267	3307	1509	1078	959	585	1963	1221	1243	2774	1187	1251	2896	996	1083	2173	1299	2369	2149	1606	1676	2177	2370	1405	1907	2510
Exons SNPs	15	ю	-	6	ю	4	11	-	0	12	6	3	25	6	16	-	ы		4	9	11	ю	-	3	3	24	18	6	4	12	16	2	15	6	ъ	9	2
Exons Len	4228	3806	1102	3968	4333	7585	31045	1976	886	1469	2000	2450	3635	5954	1290	1017	1230	2321	1649	1760	4279	3267	10303	3736	1208	3335	3227	2473	39949	4642	4479	9226	2769	3453	3071	2349	3909
Genes SNPs	57	ю	6	36	ю	9	46	36	0	12	23	8	74	28	71	14	ы	15	18	10	12	10	10	13	17	55	43	28	16	55	62	4	43	25	14	9	64
Gene Len	16641	34634	80591	9994	4333	26779	90838	56990	7120	1469	16284	48712	53777	36010	11988	11285	10357	16789	11267	20670	4279	76670	19301	81094	4662	8733	19945	47658	51649	7860	28684	26612	6945	12202	7222	2349	27376
End	172901387	102013729	76682763	57114934	12507109	42048058	31541678	8734744	8964303	75264739	86002071	16164788	2920727	67626213	139223592	86922277	1136503	122257920	100847412	37415101	103735778	55538600	147425113	21866873	128352147	2104406	122787174	74008911	50418617	48930	80182729	38079562	147322852	24434095	45595126	152506232	82330594
Start	172884745	101979094	76602171	57104939	12502775	42021278	31450839	8677753	8957182	75263269	85985786	16116075	2866949	67590202	139211603	86910991	1126145	122241130	100836144	37394430	103731498	55461929	147405811	21785778	128347484	2095672	122767228	73961252	50366967	41069	80154044	38052949	147315906	24421892	45587903	152503882	82303217
Scaffold	NC_045542.1	NC_045544.1	NC_045543.1	NC_045552.1	NC_045548.1	NC_045542.1	NC_045545.1	NC-045550.1	NC_045557.1	NC_045548.1	NC_045542.1	NC_045552.1	NC_045552.1	NC-045549.1	NC_045544.1	NC_045545.1	NC_045549.1	NC_045543.1	NC-045544.1	NC_045552.1	NC_045542.1	NC_045545.1	NC_045541.1	NC_045549.1	NC_045541.1	NC_045552.1	NC_045544.1	NC_045547.1	NC_045545.1	NC_045554.1	NC_045548.1	NC_045544.1	NC_045541.1	NC_045547.1	NC_045546.1	NC_045541.1	NC_045542.1
Sub-category	I	Ч	R	ы	В	В	В	Я	R	ч	В	R	Ч	ы	ы	ы	В	В	В	ы	Ч	GS	GS	GS	GS	GS	GS	GS	GS	GS	н	Н	Н	н	Н	Н	н
Category	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	SA	\mathbf{SA}	SA	SA	$_{\rm SA}$	SA	SA	\mathbf{SA}	SA	SA	SA	SA	SA	\mathbf{SA}	SA	SA
Human Symbol	MR1	FSHR	DMRT1	RBMX	SOX4	6XOS	USP24	BTBD16	CATSPER1	CATSPER2	CATSPER3	CATSPER4	CATSPERG	SPATA 18	SPATA22	SYCP2	TEX261	DDX4	EIF4A3	PGK1	RBM15B	MAPKAPK2	MOK	NFKB1	NFKBIA	NFKBIB	NUP88	PPARA	PPARD	TRAP1	HSFI	HSF2	HSP90AA1	HSP90B1	HSPA13	HSPA2	HSPA4
Gene ID	LOC116503405	LOC116507754	DMRT1	RBMX	SOX4	SOX9	USP24	BTBD16	CATSPER1	CATSPER2	CATSPER3	CATSPER4	CATSPERG	SPATA 18	SPATA 22	SYCP2	TEX261	DDX4	EIF4A3	PGK1	RBM15B	MAPKAPK2	MOK	NFKB1	NFKBIA	NFKBIB	NUP88	PPARA	PPARD	TRAP1	HSFI	HSF2	HSP90AA1	HSP90B1	HSPA13	HSPA2	HSPA4

(cont.)
Genes
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Statistics
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TajD	2.10	-0.01	1.08	3.18	2.11	2.85	-0.23	1.20	2.17	0.17	-0.06	0.57	1.65	0.91	NA	2.74	0.69	-0.12	0.23	4.51	NA	0.87	1.53	-0.28	1.74	-0.01	2.18	
D_{XY} LM	1.3E-04	7.2E-05	8.4E-05	3.8E-04	1.8E-05	1.3E-04	1.8E-05	1.8E-05	2.1E-05	6.3E-05	2.3E-05	2.4E-05	9.7E-05	1.3E-04	NA	5.0E-05	3.0E-04	1.6E-04	4.3E-06	4.4E-05	NA	1.6E-05	9.0E-06	3.9E-05	1.2E-04	4.6E-05	7.4E-05	
F _{ST} LM	0.00	0.01	0.02	0.00	0.06	0.01	0.01	0.03	0.00	0.00	0.01	0.00	0.10	0.00	NA	0.00	0.02	0.01	0.01	0.00	NA	0.00	0.05	0.00	0.03	0.02	0.05	
PiL	1.3E-04	7.2E-05	8.4E-05	3.8E-04	1.8E-05	1.3E-04	1.8E-05	1.8E-05	2.1E-05	6.3E-05	2.3E-05	2.4E-05	9.7E-05	1.3E-04	NA	5.0E-05	3.0E-04	1.6E-04	4.3E-06	4.4E-05	NA	1.6E-05	9.0E-06	3.9E-05	1.2E-04	4.6E-05	7.4E-05	
PiM	1.3E-04	7.2E-05	8.4E-05	3.8E-04	1.8E-05	1.3E-04	1.8E-05	1.8E-05	2.1E-05	6.3E-05	2.3E-05	2.4E-05	9.7E-05	1.3E-04	NA	5.0E-05	3.0E-04	1.6E-04	4.3E-06	4.4E-05	NA	1.6E-05	9.0E-06	3.9E-05	1.2E-04	4.6E-05	7.4E-05	
MPCL	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.005	0.002	0.001	0.000	0.003	0.000	0.000	0.001	0.000	0.002	0.001	0.000	0.002	0.000	0.014	0.001	0.000	0.000	0.002	0.000	0.001	0.010	0.000	0.002	
SPCL	0.012	0.014	0.005	0.017	0.003	0.015	0.001	0.011	0.001	0.002	0.002	0.000	0.003	0.002	0.000	0.016	0.014	0.028	0.003	0.005	0.000	0.006	0.001	0.005	0.021	0.002	0.007	
Syn SNPs	23	28	10	æ	ю	28	2	11	2	4	œ		4	1	0	23	9	9	7	15	0	13	3	6	16	1	3	
Mis SNPs	0	0	0	ю	ю	2	0	ß	0	0	4	-	4	1	0	3	0	9	9	0	0	ъ	0	2	13	0	-	
CDS SNPs	23	58	10	Π	8	30	2	16	7	4	12	2	8	2	0	26	9	12	13	15	0	18	3	11	29	-	4	
CDS Len	1951	1933	2020	630	2544	1939	1430	1475	1427	2314	5682	7201	2451	1063	565	1577	441	426	4891	3184	3165	3110	2157	2169	1357	516	537	
Exons SNPs	25	31	19	п	8	35	ъ	19	ю	4	12	2	10	2	0	44	6	19	16	15	0	18	7	14	51	4	п	
Exons Len	2139	2236	2934	956	18513	2443	7479	13163	17954	2448	6642	8504	2889	1957	740	6073	693	068	41491	9877	6174	12390	33008	3265	2021	3457	4767	
Genes SNPs	78	102	92	17	57	146	26	42	13	9	57	10	41	24	7	173	10	24	49	82	6	96	19	75	111	25	24	
Gene Len	6459	10474	23632	10692	23540	18983	62126	6177	169982	15888	31431	75276	45931	18149	22460	90312	1123	1373	110462	43581	81875	48398	63059	49620	7706	16598	7030	
End	35106860	44854285	17791685	121726986	24420818	6977329	151180361	252080	71205040	1737863	31460	32755615	154105065	18937425	59524365	144377346	400622	6325300	52964169	60250578	34569141	6055587	116871157	165645817	3756948	28628204	122503014	
Start	35100400	44843810	17768052	121716293	24397277	6958345	151083181	242902	71035057	1721974	28	32680338	154059133	18919275	59501904	144287033	399498	6323926	52853706	60206996	34487265	6007188	116808097	165596196	3749241	28611605	122495983	
Scaffold	NC_045556.1	NC_045553.1	NC_045543.1	NC_045544.1	NC_045546.1	NC_045552.1	NC_045541.1	NC_045552.1	NC_045544.1	NC_045557.1	NC_045554.1	NC_045547.1	NC_045541.1	NC-045555.1	NC_045543.1	NC_045543.1	NC_045546.1	NC_045548.1	NC_045545.1	NC_045550.1	NC_045550.1	NC_045555.1	NC_045543.1	NC_045541.1	NC_045557.1	NC_045547.1	NC_045542.1	1
Sub-category	н	Н	Н	Н	Н	Н	HΥ	λН	ΗΥ	ΗΥ	HУ	λH	λН	λН	ΗΥ	ΗΥ	λН	λН	λН	λН	ΗΥ	ΗΥ	λН	λН	λн	ΗΥ	HΥ	
Category	SA	SA	$_{\rm SA}$	SA	$_{\rm SA}$	SA	SA	SA	$_{\rm SA}$	SA	$_{\rm SA}$	SA	\mathbf{SA}	\mathbf{SA}	$_{\rm SA}$	SA	$_{\rm SA}$	$_{\rm SA}$	\mathbf{SA}	\mathbf{SA}	SA	SA	SA					
Human Symbol	HSPA5	HSPA8	HSPA9	HSPB1	1H9H1	HSPA8-like	AKT1	AKT2	AKT3	ARNT	CREBBP	EP300	HIFIA	HIFIAN	IXN	PIK3C3	HBE1	HBA2	PIK3C2B	PIK3CA	PIK3CB	PIK3CD	PIK3R1	PIK3R2	RORC	TXN2	VHL	
Gene ID	HSPA5	HSPA8	HSPA9	HSPB1	HSPH1	LOC116515182	AKT1	AKT2	AKT3	ARNT	CREBBP	EP300	HIF1A	HIFIAN	LOC116506478	LOC116506537	LOC116510063	LOC116512631	PIK3C2B	PIK3CA	PIK3CB	PIK3CD	PIK3R1	PIK3R2	RORC	TXN2	THI	

Human Symbol	Category	Sub-Category	N SNPs	Total Length	$\overline{F_{ST}}$ Within	$\overline{F_{ST}}$ Between	F _{ST} p-val	$\overline{D_{XY}}$ Within	$\overline{D_{XY}}$ Between	D _{XY} p-val
HSPA13	SA	Н	5	3071	-0.002	0.034	1.1E-06	5.4E-05	5.9E-05	1.2E-01
IGFBP3	MF	NS	1	2422	0.017	0.126	2.0E-05	8.8E-05	1.1E-04	3.4E-01
NDUFS3	MF	OP	3	954	-0.004	0.043	2.4E-05	1.8E-04	2.0E-04	1.8E-01
NDUFB6	MF	OP	3	795	0.031	0.152	2.4E-05	2.8E-04	3.6E-04	8.7E-02
NFKBIA	SA	GS	3	1208	0.004	0.077	5.3E-05	1.4E-04	1.7E-04	3.0E-03
PYROXD2	MDR	OS	7	2188	0.016	0.073	1.2E-04	9.0E-05	1.0E-04	7.3E-04
COX7C	MF	OP	2	871	0.000	0.036	4.1E-04	1.5E-04	1.5E-04	8.1E-01
VHL	SA	HY	11	4767	0.017	0.060	5.9E-04	6.7E-05	7.4E-05	8.0E-05
GPX3	MDR	OS	8	2120	0.031	0.069	6.2E-04	9.3E-05	1.1E-04	4.1E-02
FOXO3	MF	NS	5	6216	0.034	0.103	7.6E-04	4.8E-05	5.4E-05	7.5E-02
HIF1A	SA	HY	10	2889	0.018	0.066	1.5E-03	8.0E-05	8.9E-05	4.4E-02
MAP3K1	MF	NS	12	7006	0.011	0.034	1.8E-03	1.7E-05	1.8E-05	2.0E-01
IGF2	MF	NS	5	3870	0.010	0.035	1.8E-03	5.7E-05	5.8E-05	8.9E-01
GDAP1	MDR	OS	5	3305	0.024	0.073	1.9E-03	7.0E-05	7.8E-05	1.3E-02
XRCC3	MDR	DR	10	5581	0.025	0.074	2.4E-03	4.9E-05	5.7E-05	1.3E-05
RAD54B	MDR	DR	25	13390	-0.004	0.021	3.8E-03	1.7E-05	1.8E-05	2.7E-01
IRS4	MF	NS	8	7081	0.019	0.047	4.1E-03	2.4E-05	2.5E-05	2.6E-01
PXDN	MDR	OS	68	17845	0.017	0.035	5.7E-03	1.5E-05	1.6E-05	1.5E-01
ATP5B	MF	OP	6	2370	0.018	0.043	5.9E-03	1.3E-04	1.4E-04	1.6E-01
HSP90AA1	SA	Н	15	2769	0.014	0.043	7.8E-03	1.1E-04	1.1E-04	1.5E-02
NR4A1	MF		14	7958	0.023	0.058	8.0E-03	3.1E-05	3.4E-05	6.0E-02
NRAS	MF	NS	4	7767	0.007	0.043	1.4E-02	4.0E-05	4.3E-05	1.0E-01
HSPA2	SA	Н	6	2349	-0.001	0.014	1.8E-02	5.9E-05	5.9E-05	8.9E-01
CYP4F22	MF	М	26	1987	0.018	0.030	1.9E-02	1.1E-04	1.1E-04	8.7E-02
NDUFV3	MF	OP	1	2144	-0.020	0.045	2.1E-02	1.8E-04	2.1E-04	1.7E-02
FOXA3	MF	NS	7	2495	-0.003	0.013	2.5E-02	3.3E-05	3.6E-05	3.4E-01
HSPH1	SA	Н	8	18513	-0.002	0.023	2.5E-02	1.6E-05	1.7E-05	3.6E-01
PRDX6	MDR	OS	14	1217	0.009	0.019	2.6E-02	1.4E-04	1.4E-04	8.4E-01
CCS	MDR	OS	7	1231	0.028	0.068	2.9E-02	2.0E-04	2.2E-04	2.5E-02
MYC	MDR	OS	21	4990	0.011	0.020	3.0E-02	5.4E-05	5.4E-05	7.3E-01
GADD45B	MDR		9	1316	0.044	0.087	3.5E-02	1.4E-04	1.6E-04	4.1E-01
NDUFA13	MF	OP	15	598	0.009	0.025	4.4E-02	2.6E-04	2.6E-04	9.1E-01
HSPA8	SA	Н	31	2236	0.019	0.032	4.4E-02	7.4E-05	7.6E-05	6.0E-01
RIT1	MF	NS	5	3455	-0.003	0.009	5.6E-02	1.2E-04	1.2E-04	4.1E-03
PIK3R1	SA	HY	7	33008	0.038	0.069	6.3E-02	8.4E-06	9.3E-06	1.8E-02

Table 4.S2: Genes with Significant Interpopulation-Ecotype Divergence

opulation-Ecotype Divergence
h Significant Interp
ble 4.S3: Nonsynonymous SNPs wit

SIFT n	398	179	206	373	211	398	394	394	383	397	339	337	101	277	132	305	399	343	343	306	241	172	399	213	339	374	393	208	196	184	141	257	378	352	281	400	377	313
SIFT Med	3.16	2.51	2.76	2.7	2.74	3.1	3.45	3.45	2.82	2.82	2.65	3.01	2.75	2.47	2.92	2.8	2.77	2.25	2.27	2.32	2.29	2.56	3.84	2.54	3.05	3.06	3.05	3.23	2.76	3.75	3.06	2.46	3.74	2.39	2.67	3.53	2.67	3.05
SIFT Score	0	0.63	0.06	0.23	0.05	0.15	0.64	0.74	0.16	1	0.09	0.15	0.23	0.14	0.19	0.18	0.05	0.24	0.5	0.88	0.58	0.06	0	1	1	0.03	0.69	0.79	0.08	1	0.22	0.04	1	0.71	0.35	0.35		0.05
D _{XY} p-val	2.7E-01	3.5E-01	7.1E-01	5.9E-04	1.5E-03	6.9E-01	2.4E-01	1.8E-01	1.5E-02	1.5E-02	1.7E-02	3.1E-03	1.1E-01	5.1E-01	8.3E-03	5.4E-01	7.6E-01	4.4E-05	5.1E-01	5.1E-01	5.1E-01	7.9E-01	8.4E-01	2.7E-01	4.8E-01	7.4E-01	7.4E-01	6.5E-01	2.1E-01	7.9E-03	5.2E-01	3.1E-01	6.3E-01	7.9E-04	2.4E-05	1.6E-01	3.5E-06	1.9E-01
$\overline{D_{XY}}$ Between	0.368	0.441	0.154	0.498	0.520	0.153	0.346	0.372	0.475	0.473	0.437	0.506	0.383	0.217	0.510	0.342	0.099	0.520	0.196	0.196	0.188	0.246	0.081	0.352	0.315	0.127	0.132	0.200	0.294	0.512	0.238	0.245	0.305	0.515	0.532	0.461	0.544	0.360
$\overline{D_{XY}}$ Within	0.339	0.432	0.146	0.465	0.467	0.142	0.320	0.338	0.399	0.398	0.364	0.495	0.337	0.198	0.485	0.329	0.093	0.465	0.178	0.178	0.170	0.240	0.077	0.316	0.293	0.122	0.126	0.189	0.250	0.477	0.225	0.214	0.296	0.419	0.473	0.441	0.464	0.312
F _{ST} p-val	1.9E-02	5.1E-03	9.5E-03	7.4E-01	7.6E-02	7.8E-03	3.9E-02	3.0E-02	1.1E-03	1.5E-03	1.0E-02	7.2E-01	8.7E-05	1.1E-04	4.7E-02	7.0E-03	1.4E-02	8.3E-05	1.9E-02	1.6E-02	1.4E-02	3.1E-02	1.2E-02	4.0E-03	3.7E-02	1.5E-02	4.4E-02	1.5E-02	4.5E-03	2.7E-02	1.2E-03	1.9E-05	4.2E-02	4.4E-02	8.5E-04	2.5E-02	4.3E-03	2.1E-03
$\overline{F_{ST}}$ Between	0.044	-0.002	0.018	-0.036	0.074	0.048	0.019	0.019	0.085	0.082	0.098	-0.038	0.054	0.033	0.023	0.012	0.054	0.048	0.061	0.062	0.062	0.016	0.031	0.055	0.068	0.030	0.033	0.031	0.085	0.040	0.020	0.055	0.008	0.122	0.063	0.020	0.088	0.101
$\overline{F_{ST}}$ Within	0.012	-0.012	0.001	-0.047	0.032	0.014	-0.004	-0.005	0.024	0.000	0.037	-0.048	0.000	-0.008	0.002	-0.012	0.005	0.005	0.015	0.014	0.011	0.000	0.011	0.016	0.026	-0.001	0.002	0.001	0.023	0.012	0.000	0.005	-0.004	0.062	0.012	0.001	0.024	0.024
Δ AF	0.16	0.08	0.11	0.19	0.23	0.09	0.19	0.2	0.29	0.29	0.27	0.14	0.16	0.17	0.2	0.08	0.08	0.18	0.13	0.13	0.12	0.14	0.08	0.27	0.1	0.05	0.06	0.09	0.22	0.22	0.08	0.19	0.09	0.3	0.32	0.15	0.22	0.17
AF-M	0.15	0.29	0.03	0.5	0.34	0.11	0.3	0.32	0.77	0.77	0.16	0.41	0.31	0.05	0.63	0.82	0.01	0.64	0.05	0.05	0.06	0.11	0	0.11	0.17	0.05	0.05	0.14	0.07	0.35	0.11	0.06	0.13	0.25	0.33	0.4	0.58	0.25
AF-L	0.31	0.37	0.14	0.69	0.57	0.02	0.11	0.12	0.48	0.48	0.43	0.55	0.15	0.22	0.43	0.74	60.0	0.46	0.18	0.18	0.18	0.25	0.08	0.38	0.27	0.1	0.11	0.05	0.29	0.57	0.19	0.25	0.22	0.55	0.65	0.25	0.36	0.08
AC-M	35	61	8	109	79	27	68	71	176	167	34	88	70	12	132	169	4	141	12	12	13	20	2	26	35	11	11	33	16	79	25	14	33	53	76	93	136	56
AC-L	12	82	36	155	136	9	26	28	116	111	102	121	37	53	98	162	21	105	41	41	41	45	22	92	59	25	25	13	64	135	46	61	56	120	160	62	92	19
AA Pos	266	155	71	442	262	121	506	208	475	352	87	40	340	154	57	114	214	536	308	242	104	147	270	158	584	682	1049	8	12	1002	502	114	543	142	492	1025	144	158
AA	R/C	L/V	Γ/V	S/T	K/R	L/I	I/T	I/F	H/R	M/L	I/Λ	M/L	E/G	K/R	T/I	T/A	R/K	E/D	M/V	N/S	A/T	A/V	R/C	T/S	γ/N	Y/F	I/L	Λ/I	G/S	G/S	T/M	N/S	I/Λ	R/Q	A/S	G/A	N/D	P/A
Alt	A	J	Τ	Τ	U	н	U	A	U	U	н	А	υ	ပ	н	G	н	G	U	C	н	Т	Т	U	Α	Т	С	Α	A	Т	Γ	U	А	н	A	G	U	ს
Ref	G	U	C	Α	Α	G	A	н	н	Н	υ	Г	н	н	U	Α	υ	U	н	Г	U	C	C	U	Τ	Α	Α	G	U	C	С	н	G	U	U	С	A	C
Sub-Category	Μ	М	NS	ΗΥ	os	os	Η	Η	os	os		NS	Н	н	g	QP	NS	DR	DR	DR	DR	OS	OP	NS	λН	ΗΥ	ΗΥ	Μ	os	NS	GS	GS	OP	DR	HУ	NS	Q	
Category	MF	MF	MF	SA	MDR	MDR	SA	SA	MDR	MDR	MF	MF	$_{\rm SA}$	SA	MF	MF	MF	MDR	MDR	MDR	MDR	MDR	MF	MF	SA	SA	SA	MF	MDR	MF	SA	SA	MF	MDR	SA	MF	MF	MDR
Pos	876503	1810567	1884906	3749701	9246067	12002316	24404921	24412139	25921051	25925545	28310789	33998360	45589746	45591271	48077603	48080392	48843477	53660338	53664004	53668476	53672176	69067706	69298519	80157313	83288816	83291589	83302247	89321298	118637004	121713512	122777754	128350420	142028312	149009348	154070464	166109368	175086965	186466105
Scaffold	NC_045542.1	NC_045554.1	NC_045552.1	NC_045557.1	NC_045557.1	NC_045551.1	NC_045546.1	NC_045546.1	NC_045550.1	NC_045550.1	NC_045542.1	NC_045556.1	NC_045546.1	NC_045546.1	NC_045553.1	NC_045553.1	NC_045555.1	NC_045548.1	NC_045548.1	NC_045548.1	NC_045548.1	NC_045548.1	NC_045541.1	NC_045541.1	NC_045541.1	NC_045541.1	NC_045541.1	NC_045541.1	NC_045544.1	NC_045543.1	NC_045544.1	NC_045541.1	NC_045543.1	NC_045541.1	NC_045541.1	NC_045541.1	NC_045541.1	NC_045541.1
Human Symb	CYP4F22	CYP2W1	FOXA3	RORC	CCS	PRDX6	HSPH1	HSPH1	PYROXD2	PYROXD2	NR4A1	TSC1	HSPA13	HSPA13	SDHD	SDHD	INPP5A	RAD54B	RAD54B	RAD54B	RAD54B	MYC	NDUFV1	IGF2	PIK3C2A	PIK3C2A	PIK3C2A	CYB5R2	MPO	MAP3K1	NUP88	NFKBIA	ATP5A1	XRCC3	HIF1A	INSR	ATP5D	GADD45B
Chapter 5: Summary and Concluding Remarks

While the reader of this dissertation may find the goals and methods within each data chapter diverse from one another, it should be recognized that the mitochondrion is a consistent character within each study. I examined hypotheses that implicated mitochondria as players driving patterns in lineage diversification (Chapter 2), aerobic performance (Chapter 3), and ecotype divergence (Chapter 4). In this final chapter I review the historical connections between mitochondriology (the study of mitochondria) and evolutionary biology, I summarize how research findings from the data chapters impact society as a whole, and I discuss contributions of this dissertation to our current understanding regarding the role of mitochondria in driving patterns in evolution.

5.1 History and Current Understanding of Mitochondriology

Perceived importance of the mitochondrion to life and the evolution thereof has fluctuated over the past two centuries. Their initial discovery was so underappreciated that it is difficult to assign an exact time (sometime in the 1850's) or person (Lehninger 1964), and the lack of a widelybroadcasted description resulted in scientists referring to the same structure with variety of names over the next half century (sarcosomes, fila, blepharoblasts, chondriokonts, chondriomites, chondrioplasts, chondriosomes, chondriospheres, fuchsinophilic granules, interstitial bodies, Körner, Fädenkörner, mitogel, parabasal bodies, plasmasomes, plastochondria, plastosomes, spheroblasts, vermicules, bioblasts, mitochondria, and others). However, occasionally a scientist during the late 19th / early 20th century would hypothesize regarding their crucial function, causing an ephemeral buzz in the scientific community (Fig. 5.1); Richard Altmann referred to them as the ultimate "elementary living particles" (Altmann 1894), Friedrich Meves contended they were bearers of heredity characteristics (Meves 1908), Benjamin Kingsbury suggested that they possessed respiratory capabilities (Kingsbury 1912), Paul Portier hypothesized that they were bacterial 'symbiotes' living within every animal cell (Portier 1918), and Ivan Wallin claimed they play a fundamental role in speciation (Wallin 1927). Yet the lack of widespread acceptance and examination of these organelles, potentially caused by insufficient interest within the general scientific community, resulted in a relatively limited focus on mitochondria for several decades (Figure 5.1).

Recognition of mitochondria as critical players in physiology began in the late 1940's with interdisciplinary discussion between cytotologists, biochemists, and enzymologists (Lehninger 1964) who discovered the localization of respiratory enzymes exclusively within the mitochondrion (Kennedy and Lehninger 1948). Subsequent work identified the mitochondrion as the site of ATP production via oxidative phosphorylation, a process driven by a hydrogen ion gradient generated from an electron transport system (Mitchell 1961; Criddle et al. 1962; Hatefi et al. 1962). Although these findings were originally met with much skepticism, with time each was completely accepted (Lehninger 1964; Tzagoloff 1982). Frequency of mitochondrial-involved research began to increase around this time (Fig 5.1), with the majority of these studies conducted within the fields of physiology and biochemistry.

In an entirely separate field whose early work rarely interdigitated with that of physiology, patterns consistent with non-mendelian inheritance (Baur 1908; Correns 1909) led geneticists to accept that "certain forms of inheritance are the outcome of self-perpetuating bodies in the cytoplasm" (Morgan 1919). Despite this spot-on claim written by renowned geneticist Thomas Hunt Morgan, he later stated that, based on the "rare cases" of cytoplasmic inheritance, "the cytoplasm may be ignored genetically" (Morgan 1926). Yet as the accumulation of evidence for cytoplasmically inherited traits increased, several scientists over the next quarter century refused to accept this statement (East 1934; Wright 1941; Ephrussi 1949). During the middle of the twentieth century, a larger group of biologists began to suggest the importance of the mitochondrion as a functional and heritable intracellular entity (Sonneborn 1950; Newcomer 1951; Lederberg 1952). In 1963 Margit and Sylvan Nass discovered the presence of DNA within the mitochondrion (Nass and Nass 1963), opening the door for collaboration between physiologists, population geneticists, and phylogeneticists. Just four years later, Lynn Margulis published a landmark study describing the endosymbiotic nature of eukaryotes (Sagan 1967).

Following the discovery of mitochondrial DNA and a description of their prokaryotic ancestry, geneticists and molecular biologists dissected and characterized the mitochondrial genome in yeast for the next couple of decades (Tzagoloff 1982). These studies, along with the mitochondrial physiological studies that took off in the 50s, resulted in a dramatic increase in publications on the mitochondrion (Fig 5.1).

Once the power of nucleotide sequence data became available to evolutionary biologists, genes in the mitochondria were found to be useful genetic markers (Avise 2012). Those who utilized coalescent theory recognized the usefulness of a non-recombining, haploid, maternally inherited unit with a relatively elevated mutation rate (in the case of most metazoans) for estimating evolutionary history. The abundance of mitochondrial DNA is much greater than that of the nucleus, making it much easier to extract and amplify with PCR. Additionally, the presence of conserved regions of the mitochondrial genome adjacent to variable sites allowed for efficient primer design at informative areas (Ladoukakis and Zouros 2017). This led to widespread use during the 1990's in studies of population genetics and systematics (Vigilant et al. 1991; Rubinoff and Holland 2005; Figure 5.1), but interestingly few publications focused on additional questions regarding the interactive nature of the mitochondrial and nuclear genomes at the functional and coevolutionary level (in fact, it seemed that many evolutionary biologists simply looked at genes within the mitochondrial genome as useful genetic markers without considering function at all). Further, physiologists continued to provide a more detailed picture of the molecular underpinnings of cellular respiration, but rarely were broad-scale connections made regarding evolution. Somehow it seemed the perspectives of the early and late 20th century were completely flipped– the broad scope of early scientists focused on the forest, whereas more recent scientists focused on the trees.

In the 21st century, recognition of the mitochondrion as more than just an ATP-producing organelle with a neutrally-evolving genome has widened our understanding of mitochondrial biology (Towarnicki and Ballard 2020). This shift was catalyzed by an association of mitochondria with various traits and functions, including innate immune response (Wang et al. 2011), intracellular signaling (Rizzuto et al. 2012), reactive oxygen species production (Hirst et al. 2008), and programed cell death (Bossy-Wetzel et al. 1998), in addition to a more thorough understanding of mitochondrial respiration via oxidative phosphorylation. Medical researchers also discovered associations between multiple diseases and mitochondrial mutations (Singh et al. 1989; Agostino et al. 2003; McFarland et al. 2007; Koopman et al. 2012; Lightowlers et al. 2015). These findings, along with a more vivid picture of the nuclear and mitochondrial genomes in several organisms, allowed integrative biologists to hypothesize a central role of the mitochondrion in driving biological patterns (Lane and Martin 2010; Lane 2014), including the three central themes of this dissertation: (1) speciation (Hill 2016, 2017; Visinoni and Delneri 2022), (2) sexual reproduction (Hörandl and Hadacek 2013; Havird et al. 2015; Radzvilavicius and Blackstone 2015; Speijer 2015; Garg and Martin 2016), and (3) aging (Short et al. 2005; Schulz et al. 2007; López-Otín et al. 2013; Kang et al. 2016; Sun et al. 2016). For the remainder of this concluding chapter I will focus on implications and future directions of my chapters that addressed these themes in the context of the findings described in their respective data chapters (chapters two, three, and four), and at the end (in section 5.5) I will summarize how this dissertation contributes to our understanding of the mitochondrion's role in contributing to the evolution of these biological patterns.

5.2 Riverine Barriers as Potential Drivers of Lineage Diversification in Indochina

5.2.1 Relevance to Biodiversification Hypotheses and Conservation Efforts Biodiversity benefits humanity, as humanity has learned step by step through breakthroughs in biomedicine and engineering. Whether or not one recognizes the inherent value of earth's organisms (Curry 2011), quantifying existing biodiversity is critical to understand the severity of our current mass extinction (Ceballos et al. 2020) and assess the future impact on vulnerable taxa (Costello et al. 2013). The study presented in Chapter 2 provides novel empirical support for the riverine barrier hypothesis and suggests a potential mechanism for the remarkable species richness generated in-situ within this biodiversity hotspot. We discovered multiple, independent lineages within the flying lizard *Draco maculatus* species complex, and the discovery of this hidden diversity may be relevant to conservation efforts. These lineages are potential species that have yet to be described, and we cannot protect what we don't know exists. Identifying these lineages is a first step in the process of assessing whether any require conservation efforts.

5.2.2 Paleo-Rivers and/or Paleo-Niches Driving Divergence: Suggestions for Future Work I make recommendations in Chapter 2 regarding future directions for this work, including sampling from contact zones of the divergent lineages in the study, collecting genome-wide sequencing data (e.g., RAD-seq) for more accurate phylogenetic estimation, and measuring finescale morphological data for species descriptions. Here I make an additional recommendation regarding the riverine barrier hypothesis as an agent of isolation within Indochina involving paleo-river and paleo-niche reconstructions.

My results from Chapter 2 are published in the journal *Molecular Phylogenetics and Evolution* (Klabacka et al. 2020). During the peer-review process, one reviewer recommended changing the manuscript title to "Ancient rivers drive lineage diversification of flying lizards in tropical Indochina." However, I settled with the final title of "Rivers of Indochina as *potential* drivers of lineage diversification in spotted flying lizards." We retained the word "potential" since this study doesn't provide direct evidence that the rivers themselves are driving diversification (rather that they coincide with phylogenetic breaks). We omitted the word "Ancient" since we don't test the historical paths of these rivers, only the contemporary paths. Because of this, I recommend direct testing whether paleo-river dynamics correspond with evolutionary history and making comparisons with niche evolution to determine whether rivers are true barriers or if they simply

co-vary with changes in habitat distribution. This can be achieved by estimating evolutionary history, reconstructing ancestral niches, and testing paleo-river hypotheses.

The riverine barrier hypothesis suggests speciation resulting from vicariance via river formation (allopatry) or dispersion with subsequent isolation (peripatry). Two hypotheses of geographic river history in Indochina suggest either of these mechanisms of biodiversification (Figure 5.2)– peripatry in the Ancient Paleo-river Hypothesis, which suggests the rivers of Indochina have been in the same location since at least the middle Miocene (Workman 1975; Attwood and Johnston 2001; Clark et al. 2004; Jamaluddin et al. 2019), and allopatry in the Dynamic Paleo-river Hypothesis, which suggests most of the rivers in Indochina formed in or just before the Pliocene (Hallet and Molnar 2001; Bolotov et al. 2017; Nie et al. 2018; Wang et al. 2020).

An alternative explanation for lineage boundaries corresponding with riverine barriers focuses on the connectivity of suitable habitat. Systems where divergent populations with historically continuous habitats are bisected by rivers (Continuous Paleo-niche Hypothesis) lend support to biodiversification occurring directly as a result of riverine vicariance (Fig. 5.2). However, paleoniche fragmentation where gaps roughly correlate geographically with rivers can cause population divergence that may appear directly caused by riverine barriers (Fragmented Paleoniche Hypothesis), especially when current suitable habitat is unfragmented.

Using (1) phylogenetic divergence time estimation, (2) paleo-niche building, (3) ancestral state reconstruction, and (4) Bayes factor comparison of models built from hypotheses, the contributions of previously listed hypotheses to patterns of biodiversity could be elucidated.

However, because information gained from approaches 1–3 would be used to construct models for approach 4, independently analyzed datasets should be used for approaches 1–3 (Dataset 1) and approach 4 (Dataset 2) to avoid multiple use of data.

The species assignments for each model for approach 4 could be based on (1) riverine barriers from the Ancient Paleo-river Hypothesis, (2) riverine barriers from the Dynamic Paleo-river Hypothesis, or (3) suitable habitat that was historically fragmented (Fig. 5.2). In addition to having species assignments, models could also include information on geographic connectivity over time from approaches 1-3 with Dataset 1 (such as separation due to river formation or distribution fragmentation). Thus models would include both extant lineage groupings and historical constraints based on past events that promote/suppress the potential for divergence. To determine the model that best explains the current distribution of genomic diversity across the range of *Draco maculatus*, the marginal likelihood can be estimated for each model and support can be quantified for the best model using Bayes factors.

If approaches 1–3 indicate (A) divergence time corresponds to proposed recent river capture and (B) no evidence for niche fragmentation (or if niche fragmentation is evident, it does not correspond with divergence times), this would support the Dynamic Paleo-river Hypothesis. Alternatively, if results from approaches 1–3 show (A) divergence times do not correspond with proposed recent river capture and (B) no evidence for niche fragmentation (or if niche fragmentation is evident, it does not correspond with divergence times), this would support the Ancient Paleo-river Hypothesis. Results from approaches 1–3 with evidence that niche fragmentation corresponds to divergence times would support the Fragmented Paleo-niche

Hypothesis. Marginal likelihood estimates could then be obtained using Dataset 2 for pairwise model comparison.

As a last note on recommendations for future investigation, replication across taxa with distributions spanning Indochina would provide additional support for the riverine barrier hypothesis as a major agent of biodiversification within Indochina. For example, an examination of multiple taxa across these putative barriers, potentially testing for shared divergence times (such as with the software EcoEvolity (Oaks 2019)) would provide a useful perspective on how river capture affects diversification across taxa.

5.2.3 Relevance of Lineage Diversification Research to Society

Looming over my time as a PhD student, the global COVID-19 pandemic shows the relevance of this work to science and the public on a broad scale. The general population has had a challenging wake-up call regarding lineage diversification; since early 2020, we have experienced the rapid dispersion and radiation of a novel human-vectored coronavirus, Sars-coV2. This resulted in a global pandemic of a dangerous disease, COVID-19. Humankind has witnessed the power of evolution as a force, and those without previous knowledge in molecular evolution have become familiar with the terms "mutation" and "variant". Understanding the broad processes driving evolution (e.g., vicariance in this dissertation chapter) is critical to defending humankind from biological pathogens and misinformation dissimilated during pandemia.

5.3 Reduced Mitochondrial Respiration in Hybrid Asexual Lineages

The study presented in Chapter 3 provides empirical evidence for reduced physiological performance in hybrid asexual lineages compared to their parental sexual species. On a broader scale, it also contains implications for understanding why the vast majority of vertebrate organisms reproduce sexually. If a shift from sexual reproduction to asexual reproduction results in a decrease in performance that negatively impacts fitness, this may explain the scarcity of parthenogenesis as a primary mode of reproduction across vertebrates.

5.3.1 Implications for Mitonuclear Ecology

In Chapter 2, I suggest that reduced mitochondrial respiration in hybrid asexual lizards relative to their sexual parental species may be a result of genomic incompatibility. Given the hybrid ancestry of these organisms, this incompatibility may be inter-specific (between the divergent genomes of the parental species). These interspecific interactions may occur between nuclear genomes or between the paternal nuclear genome and the maternal mitochondrial genome. Alternatively, given the lack of recombination in an asexual lineage, the incompatibility may also be intra-specific (within the genome of a parental species). The mechanism of this latter hypothesis is based on the mutational erosion principle, wherein due to the inability to purge deleterious mutations via genetic recombination, asexual species retain these mutations within the genomes of their descendants. The continuation of this process results in the compiling acquisition of deleterious mutations, a.k.a. Muller's Ratchet. I deem this intraspecific incompatibility given that the incompatible interactions can occur within the genome of a single parental species. More specifically, these interactions could be between (A) genes of the nuclear genome or (B) those of the nuclear genome and those of the mitochondrial genome, although it is worth noting that this process could also affect interactions between the divergent parental

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genomes. A process that may explain intraspecific incompatibility between the nuclear and mitochondrial genomes invokes both Muller's Ratchet (described above) and the Red Queen Hypothesis (the requirement of organisms to use sexual recombination to "keep up" with fastevolving parasites). I've deemed this process the "Red Ratchet" Hypothesis.

Before describing the Red Ratchet hypothesis, it is important to note some fundamentals of mitonuclear ecology. First, in bilaterian animals, the mitochondrion has a higher substitution rate than the nuclear genome. Second, the mitochondrial genome acquires deleterious mutations. Third, sexually-reproducing organisms can utilize variation within their population's allele pool to recombine nuclear mutations that mitigate the deleterious effects of the mitochondrial mutation (a process known as "compensatory coevolution").

In the Red Ratchet Hypothesis, intergenomic incompatibility arises gradually as the coadaptation between intraspecific nuclear and mitochondrial genomes deteriorates via accumulation of deleterious mutations in the mitochondrial genome (Muller's Ratchet) and the inability of the nuclear genome to respond to said deleterious mutations via sexual recombination (Red Queen). If this is the primary driver of reduced mitochondrial respiration in hybrid asexual lineages, then younger lineages would be predicted to have a less-severe effect size compared to older lineages. It is worth noting that none of these hypotheses are mutually exclusive, but they can be somewhat disentangled by integrating mitochondrial physiology and targeted genomics. I describe some of these approaches below:

5.3.1.1 Time Machine

Ideally, identifying the contributions of interspecific and intraspecific (including Red Ratchet) incompatibilities to reduced mitochondrial respiration would involve an experimental design where a researcher could compare the parental sexual species with the hybrid asexuals from the timepoint of hybridization and compare them with today. Figure 5.3 provides a visual schematic of this. Samples from each lineage could be taken from the time of the hybridization event (T1) and today (T2), and a reaction norm could be created using a measure of mitochondrial function as a response variable.

Predicted responses in the context of each hypothesis are shown in Figure 5.3. Interspecific incompatibility would show reduced mitochondrial function at the time of hybridization, and this shouldn't change over time based on the frozen genome hypothesis (although it is possible that gene conversion could affect this [Hillis et al., 1991; Warren et al., 2018)). Intraspecific incompatibility would show no reduction in mitochondrial function at the time of hybridization (T1), but over time the accumulation of deleterious mutations with lack of compensation would result in reduced mitochondrial function at T2. A combination of these two hypotheses would result in both reduced mitochondrial function at the time of hybridization (T1) and a future reduction by T2. Hybrid vigor is essentially the opposite of interspecific incompatibility; essentially the high heterozygosity acquired at hybridization (T1) results in favorable allele combinations that boost mitochondrial function. Lastly, vigor + intraspecific incompatibility would result in an increased mitochondrial function at the time of hybridization (T1), but this would gradually decrease with the acquisition of deleterious mutations (T2). To repeat a previous point, results consistent with predictions of intraspecific incompatibility could be due either to

nuclear-nuclear interactions or nuclear-mitochondrial interactions. Disentanglement of these requires further approaches, some of which are described below.

5.3.1.2 Complex Activity Assays

One approach is to use complex activity assays to examine the efficiency of electron transport for each protein complex of the electron transport chain. Because all of the protein complexes except for succinate dehydrogenase (CII) are made up of both mitochondrial and nuclear gene products, comparing the effect sizes between protein complexes can shed light on the contributions of different hypotheses (Fig. 5.4). A scenario with reductions in enzyme efficiency of consistent effect size at all five complexes could be due to nuclear-nuclear incompatibilities, since every complex contains nuclear-encoded protein subunits. Alternatively, if all complexes have reduced enzyme efficiency except for CII, this would provide indirect evidence for mitonuclear incompatibility in genes coding for transcription or translation (i.e., ribosomal proteins [encoded by the nucleus] and rRNA [encoded by mitochondrion]). There is another scenario where both of these occur, wherein all complexes show reduced enzyme efficiency, but the reduction is less in CII compared to the other five complexes. Scenarios with alternative combinations of enzyme efficiency (e.g., reductions in activity of one or two complexes) would indicate incompatibility within the subunits themselves, which could be due to nuclear-nuclear, mito-mito, or mitonuclear interactions. All of the above scenarios assume the presence of genetic variation at or upstream of the ETS subunits. The precise genetic source of the reduced enzyme efficiency, if detected, can then be elucidated by examining genetic variation at the gene products involved with mitochondrial function (i.e., genes encoding RNA polymerase, tRNA synthetase, tRNA, mitochondrial ribosomal proteins, mitochondrial rRNA, and ETS subunits).

5.3.1.3 Selection Ratios

The Red Queen hypothesis poses that genetic recombination utilizes variants available in the gene pool to mix and match genotypes to keep pace with the high mutation rates of pathogens, thus sexual populations can draw from the pool of variants available within the population rather than only those that arise within their genome. However, it is worth noting that the necessity of recombination to compensate for pathogen evolution is only critical in the genes that interact (directly or indirectly) with the pathogen. Because of this, genes of the immune system in sexual species have higher rates of substitution compared to those in other regions of the genome. Similarly, gene products of the nuclear genome that interact with the gene products of the fastevolving mitochondrial genome are shown to have evidence of higher positive selection compared to similar genes that only interact with nuclear-encoded gene products (Barreto et al. 2018). These genes include ribosomal proteins, Amino-acyl tRNA synthetases, and the protein complexes of the electron transport chain. To test if intragenomic mitonuclear incompatibilities (a result of the red ratchet hypothesis) may be occurring, the ratio of Dn/Ds for nuclear gene products that interact with other nuclear gene products (n) can be compared to that of nuclear gene products that interact with mitochondrial gene products (m). We'll refer to Dn/Ds as ω , with ω_n referring to the value calculated from n and ω_m referring to the value calculated from m. We can then compare the ω_n / ω_m ratio (hereafter Ω) of these values between sexually reproducing lineages ($\Omega_{\rm S}$) and asexually reproducing lineages ($\Omega_{\rm A}$), with the prediction that the ratio of the sexual lineages will be greater than that of the asexual lineages ($\Omega_S > \Omega_A$).

5.3.1.4 Functional Genomics

In addition to population genetics examination such as that described in 1.3.1.3, functional examination of the interacting gene sequences of nuclear and mitochondrial genomes can shed light on the genetic mechanisms underlying the observed reduction in mitochondrial function. This can be achieved by sequencing the mitochondrial genomes and the nuclear-encoded genes that interact with mitochondrial gene products for both sexual and asexual species and then examining sequence variation for these genes. If any variants modify the peptide sequence (i.e., nonsynonymous SNPs), these can be examined for functional significance using statistical software packages (e.g., using SNP annotation software such as SIFT (Ng and Henikoff 2003), Polyphen-2 (Adzhubei et al. 2010), or PHACT (Kuru et al. n.d.)), by comparing protein stability between peptide variants (e.g., using the modeling software SWISS-MODEL (Waterhouse et al. 2018)), by investigating whether the peptide variant is near areas of interest (e.g., using structural model visualization software such as Chimera (Pettersen et al. 2004)), and by performing insilico docking assays (e.g., using VMD software (Humphrey et al. 1996)). The tests examining genomic interactions can be conducted between (1) gene products of the same genome (paternal or maternal) to assess intraspecific compatibility (including between nuclear and mitochondrial gene products), and (2) gene products of the divergent genomes to assess interspecific incompatibility.

5.3.2 Mitochondrial Biology – Recognizing the Complete Picture

Readers making inferences from the results I presented in Chapter 3 (which show differences in mitochondrial respiration between parental sexual species and hybrid asexual lineages) should keep in mind that this examined only one facet of mitochondrial physiology (mitochondrial respiration). Further, they should also recognize that only a portion of the available approaches

for measuring mitochondrial respiration were implemented. To be more specific, we examined State 3 and State 4 Respiration through Complex I and through Complex II, providing four total measurements of mitochondrial respiration (CIS3, CIIS3, CIS4, and CIIS4). We used these values to calculate the respiratory control ratio (RCR), providing two additional metrics (CIRCR and CIIRCR). However, other approaches are available and would provide further detail into the differences between these groups. These approaches include oligomycin-modulated state 4 (State 40; achieved by supplying a CV inhibitor rather than depending on natural ADP depletion), and uncoupled respiration (State 3u; achieved by supplying an uncoupler that permeabilizes the inner membrane). State 40 provides the true leak state; oxygen consumption is mediated solely by the leaking of protons across the inner membrane. State 3u provides the full capacity of electron transport; the rate of transport is not limited by ATP production. Additionally, quantification of the membrane potential and free radical production, either of which can be measured in conjunction with mitochondrial respiration on the Oroboros O2k-FluoRespirometer, provide yet another angle of mitochondrial physiology.

In addition to mitochondrial physiology, mitochondrial behavior and morphology also play a role in mitochondrial performance (Heine and Hood 2020). The quantity, size, structure, positioning, and connectivity of mitochondria affect organelle performance (Mannella 2006; Zick et al. 2009; Rafelski 2013). Rate of ATP production, for example, can be affected by cristae structure within the mitochondrion (Mannella et al. 2013; Nielsen et al. 2017). It is possible that the pattern we observed in Chapter 2 are due to differences in mitochondrial behavior and morphology; ruling this out through examination using electron microscopy examination would be useful in disentangling the underpinning forces behind our observed pattern.

5.3.3 Implications for Evolutionary Physiology

Although the mitochondrion is widely recognized as the agent responsible for producing the great majority of energy used for active cellular processes, the connection between mitochondrial respiration and aerobic performance within the context of evolutionary ecology is understudied. While variation in endurance performance among organisms has been observed, lacking is empirical evidence that directly links this variation to mitochondrial function. A Web of Science query used to find studies that examine the relationship between mitochondria and endurance in the context of either evolution or ecology (syntax: ALL="mitochondria*" AND "respiration" AND "endurance" AND ("evolution" OR "ecology") NOT ("exercise" OR "train*" OR "disease*" OR "athlet*") yielded only our paper published in The American Naturalist from Chapter 2. Several related studies found using variations of this search criteria (e.g., excluding "respiration", "endurance", or "evolution") include (1) an association between whole-organism metabolic rate and running in birds (Bundle et al. 1999), (2) an association between hydrophobicity of mitochondrial membrane proteins and aerobic capacity in tetrapods (Kitazoe et al. 2011), and (3) an association between endurance capacity and mitochondrial protein abundance (Wisløff et al. 2005) and respiratory capacity (Aon et al. 2021) in rats selected for high- and low-capacity running. Our study provides valuable insight into the connection between aerobic performance and cellular energy production, yet there is a need for future studies to examine this relationship in a broader phylogenetic context.

5.4 Divergence in Molecular Networks that Underly Aging

5.4.1 Relevance to Evolutionary Biology

Understanding genomic underpinnings of aging in natural populations provides insight to the evolution of life history strategies. All fields of biology are unified by evolution. The diverse forms of life on earth are explained through evolution by natural selection. And an understanding of natural selection is achieved through the lens of life history theory (Stearns 1992). To explain this in more detail, it is helpful to think of natural selection as a force that requires two connected characteristics in its subjects, which are (1) variation in heritable matter (genes) that cause (2) variation in reproductive success (fitness). Fitness is influenced by the underlying genes inherited from ancestors, but it is important to recognize that fitness is relative to the environment. In other words, the efficacy of an organism to reproduce varies depending on its surroundings. For example, a population with high prevalence of parasites may have a delayed age of sexual maturity due to an increased allocation of energy to combat parasites compared to a population with less parasites which reaches sexual maturity sooner. If the age of maturity is genetically determined, placing an individual from either population in the alternate environment could result in decreased fitness. The individuals and their genes haven't changed, but their environment has.

Consider a population residing in an environment with an abundance of food sources; we'll call this Env I. A few individuals from this population disperse into a neighboring region which has less food availability; we'll call this Env II. While individuals in Env II experience reduced access to food, they don't have to compete with the greater number of individuals in the source population. Now imagine that a mutation occurs in an individual of Env II that results in a decreased investment in growth and a reduced need for food uptake. This individual is not as dependent on a high concentration of food for survival, and therefore is more likely to survive to reproductive maturity than the individuals with greater investment in growth. Selection acts on this differential fitness, resulting in an increase in frequency of the mutation among the Env II sub-population. However, this increase does not occur in the Env I sub-population, because the difference in food availability results in a change in fitness for individuals with this mutation. Therefore, a balance in allele frequencies (for the original and mutated versions of the gene) is reached between the two subpopulations, which will flutter due to migration and drift.

While this simple example has outlined how variation in a life history strategy might arise and become prevalent, it does not address a fundamental question relevant to both life history and evolutionary theory: What are the specific gene networks that underly this phenotypic variation, and is variation in the same gene networks found in independent populations with similar phenotypic divergence? In his seminal work, Stephen Stearns wrote that students of life history seek to explain the variation in reproductive traits (Stearns 1992). Within earlier frameworks of life history theory, genetic details were treated as a black box (Flatt and Heyland 2011). Yet a thorough explanation of variation in life histories requires investigation of intracellular processes, including the blueprint of said processes (DNA). Therefore, more specific questions for those interested in molecular life history evolution should include: Where did the mutation occur (what genomic region)? Did it occur within a region that encodes a product (e.g., protein, RNA)? If within a protein-coding gene, is it within an exon or an intron? If within an exon, does the mutation alter the amino acid? If it alters the amino acid, does the change result in a difference in polarity? Does the change alter the structure of the protein? Is it located at a region that interacts with other proteins? If it is not within the coding region of a gene, is it a gene expression regulatory region? Is the locus part of a gene network? How many gene products

interact with this gene and/or gene product (i.e., is it a top-regulator or at a key node)? Answers to these questions can help us understand the path from genotype to phenotype, which, as I mentioned at the beginning of this section, is central to our understanding of evolution (Lewontin 1974). On a broader scale, we can also examine the genomic sources of convergent evolution and determine whether the same gene networks, genes, and even locations within a gene underpin similarities in life history strategies across the tree of life. Addressing these questions using genomics is now feasible in non-model organisms due to the affordable cost of high-throughput sequencing, deposition of genomic resources in public databases, computational capacity of high-performance computers, and accessibility to software programs shared globally on the internet.

In Chapter 4, I presented differences in nucleotide sequences and gene expression patterns between two garter snake ecotypes with divergent life history strategies. The genes and gene networks with significant results reflect those associated with differences in life history (specifically aging) among other taxa. We see our findings as both (A) relevant for current understanding of life history evolution, providing a critical perspective from a natural population, and (B) instrumental in the collective effort of understanding whether general processes cause similar phenotypes across the tree of life.

5.4.2 Implications for Mitonuclear Ecology

The exact role of the mitochondrion in aging is not well understood- but the relationship between mitochondrial function and aging is undeniable (Son and Lee 2021). Several current hypotheses that seek to explain the evolution of aging include (1) antagonistic pleiotropy (alleles that benefit

the fitness of an organism early in life have a negative effect on survival later in life), (2) the disposable soma (allocation of energy to reproduction limits the amount available for repair), and (3) mutation accumulation (inefficient selection on individual old-body phenotypes due to extrinsic mortality). The bioenergetic efficiency of the mitochondrion throughout an organisms life is relevant to each of these hypotheses (Batalha et al. 2022). For example, reactive oxygen species, which originate at the mitochondrion, early in an organism's life are important molecular messengers and later in life become damaging intracellular molecules. Given that ATP is required for cellular maintenance, impaired ATP production at the mitochondrion would result in a reduced energy pool for reproduction and cell repair. And the mitochondrion acquires deleterious mutations whose damaging effects increase mortality.

Similarly, while the nature of the relationship between life history divergence and the mitochondrion in the terrestrial garter snakes is not well-defined, evidence for the existence of a relationship is well established (Schwartz et al. 2015; Gangloff et al. 2020). This published evidence to-date includes ecotypic divergence in mitochondrial respiration efficiency, ROS production, antioxidant expression, whole-organism metabolic rate, cellular oxygen consumption, mitochondrial gene expression, and mitochondrial sequence divergence (Bronikowski and Vleck 2010; Robert and Bronikowski 2010; Schwartz and Bronikowski 2013; Gangloff et al. 2015, 2020; Schwartz et al. 2015). The differences in mitochondrial gene expression between ecotypes along with the SNP in the mitochondrial genome that coincides with ecotype divergence are mirrored by differences in pathway-level expression and molecular divergence of the nuclear-encoded OXPHOS genes (see results in Chapter 4). I recommend future comparison of the evolutionary history of these nuclear-encoded OXPHOS genes with (A)

the mitochondrial genome and (B) the rest of the nuclear genome to identify whether patterns in life history are reflected by the phylogeny for genes involved with mitochondrial respiration. I predict that the evolutionary history of the nuclear-encoded OXPHOS genes of significance from Chapter 4 is more similar to that of the mitochondrial genome compared to the rest of the nuclear genome.

5.4.3 Relevance to Medicine

Whether aging is (Bulterijs et al. 2015) or isn't (Rattan 2014) a disease, its connection to increased mortality is undeniable. While human lifespan (average length of life) has increased significantly over the past century (Oeppen and Vaupel 2002), healthspan (average length of healthy life) has remained unchanged (Crimmins 2015; Olshansky 2018). A desire to maintain an active, healthy lifestyle late into the "third age" has created a growing public interest in understanding the processes responsible for aging and how to slow them. This has led to many pills and creams promising to reduce the effects of aging (usually with no scientific evidence) and multiple best-selling books focused on the causes of aging and how they can be mitigated (some written by prominent scientific researchers, many written by amateurs, and others written by charlatans). Knowledge of processes and development of treatments for aging and age-related disease requires the acquisition of basic knowledge regarding the genes and gene networks associated with aging.

Understanding the genomic underpinnings of aging can help illuminate areas worth targeting for medical research. Scientific research over the past century has revealed that aging is plastic, and that variation in environments (e.g., McCay et al. 1935; Lamb 1968) and genotypes (e.g.,

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Friedman and Johnson 1988; Kenyon et al. 1993) contribute to aging and longevity. Genetic research of aging prompted the pharmaceutical targeting of several candidate genes, which have shown some promise in preventing or reducing age-related disease (Nadon et al. 2017; Garay 2021). However, these developments are based almost entirely on research in model organisms; much information with medical relevance remains to be discovered in non-model organisms. Given similar patterns in a hallmark of aging across vertebrates (Remot et al. 2021), presence of sequence diversity in aging genes of vertebrates (Opazo et al. 2022), widespread variation of aging rates in ectothermic tetrapods (Reinke et al. 2022), and differential expression of genes associated with aging in tetrapods (Beatty et al. 2022), seeking out genomic underpinnings of aging on a taxonomically broad scale can inform our understanding of the general processes relevant to individual lineages (including humans). This includes comparative approaches both within and between species and comparing these results with those of model organisms in controlled labs with knock-out and artificially-selected strains.

As shown in Chapter 4, patterns of divergence in nucleotide sequence and gene expression between garter snake ecotypes are similar to those found in other organisms with variation in aging (including humanas). Although these similarities may not lead to direct application within human medicine, identification of patterns among diverse taxa will help illuminate the molecular pathways that are critical for aging across the tree of life. Reptiles may not be considered by the general public to have relevance to human medicine, but compounds derived from lizard and snake venom are currently used to treat diabetes, stroke, hypertension, cardiovascular diseases, and acute peripheral arterial occlusion (El-Aziz et al. 2019; Bordon et al. 2020). When it comes to medicine, the distance between basic and applied research may not be as distant as some may perceive. Solutions to many human health concerns may be hidden within the biology of our scaly relatives.

5.5 Dissertation Contributions and Implications

Although the essential role mitochondria play in sustaining life is undeniable and has been solidified over the past two centuries by theorists and empiricists alike, this dissertation shows that the sources of biological patterns across the tree of life are complex and may not be best explained by a singular source. I hypothesized that patterns of lineage diversification, consequences of parthenogenesis, and ecotype divergence in three independent reptile systems were all results of mitonuclear ecology, but my results contained mixed support for a central role of the mitochondrion in driving these patterns. In the Draco maculatus species complex (Chapter 2), we tested the hypothesis that mitochondrial phylogeny best explained patterns in nuclear lineage structure. However, the hypothesis receiving the strongest support implicated riverine barriers as the agents driving isolation rather than mitochondrial lineages. In Aspidoscelis (Chapter 3), we did find support for reduced mitochondrial function as a basis for lower endurance capacity in asexual hybrid species. Determining the nature of this relationship will require further work integrating physiology and genomics. And lastly, in Thamnophis elegans (Chapter 4), we hypothesized that ecotype divergence in physiology (metabolic rate, ROS production), life history (rates of aging and longevity) and mitochondrial genetics (nonsynonymous SNP) would be reflected by patterns in the nuclear-encoded OXPHOS genes. While OXPHOS genes showed evidence of expression and sequence variation that matched our predictions, these did not stand out from patterns we observed in other candidate networks (e.g., insulin signalling and DNA repair) as drivers of divergence.

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These findings do not preclude or resolve any of the forementioned hypotheses involving the mitochondria, but they do supply some perspective on the role of mitochondria as ubiquitous players in eukaryotic evolution. The "endless forms most beautiful" referenced in the Introduction (Chapter 1) of this dissertation are the result of interactions within a "tangled bank" (Darwin 1859). Similarly, the patterns of variation observed in lineage diversification, sexual/asexual reproduction, and life history strategies are the result of an intricate and complex network of intracellular products working together within an external environment. Depending on the system, some of these networks (including the gene products involved in mitochondrial function) may play a more influential role, and variation in underlying contributors can be largely determined by environmental influences.

5.6 Concluding Remarks

"Why does receiving answers to curiosity-based research questions matter?" I imagine that scientists Mary Anning, Gregor Mendel, Charles Darwin, Alfred Russell Wallace, among other greats, faced a question similar to this. After all, to many they were simply collecting curies, picking peas, playing with barnacles, and catching butterflies. Today, a century later, we recognize these individuals for their ground-breaking contributions to evolution and genetics. The rippling effect of their findings have impacted diverse areas of basic and applied biological research. In this concluding chapter, I addressed the relevance and implications of the basic science within this dissertation to different aspects of biological theory and society. As mentioned in the Introduction to this dissertation, reptiles as models are valuable resources to finding answers for key questions in evolutionary biology. Findings from projects designed

around these questions are relevant to diverse fields and topics in biology, such as conservation, speciation, mitonuclear ecology, sex evolution, evolutionary physiology, mitochondrial biology, life history evolution, and human medicine. While much remains to be understood regarding the forces driving lineage diversification, the scarcity of parthenogenetic organisms, and the genetic underpinnings of variation in life history strategies, these findings provide some pieces to these puzzles. In the words of Steven J. Gould (Gould 1985), "We have made some sense and order of nature's confusion."

4.6 References

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Ch 5: Figures

Figure 5.1 Publications involving mitochondria through time

- Figure 5.2 Paleo-river and Paleo-niche hypotheses for Draco maculatus lineage diversification
- Figure 5.3 Ideal experimental design for inter-genomic vs intra-genomic testing

Figure 5.4 Predictions for complex activity under different hypotheses





Results from Web of Science literature search using the following search criteria: "sarcosomes" OR "film"
OR "blepharoplasty" OR "chondriochonts" OR "chondriomites" OR "chondroblasts"
OR "chondriosomes" OR "chondrosphere" OR "fuchsinophilic granules" OR
"interstitial bodies" OR "Körsdr" OR "Fädenkörsdr" OR "mitogen" OR "parabasal
bodies" OR "plastosomes" OR "plastochondria" OR "plastosomes" OR
"spheroplasts" OR "vermiculites" OR "bioblasts" OR "mitochondria" OR
"mitochondrion" OR "mitochondrial". A- Raw search results for each year. B- Search results for each
year divided by the total number of publications that matched the search criteria "evolution" OR "ecology"

OR "physiology" OR "biology".



Figure 5.2: **Paleo-river and Paleo-niche hypotheses for** *Draco maculatus* **lineage diversification** Cartoon depictions of Paleo-river (top) and Paleo-niche (bottom) hypotheses driving lineage diversification in *Draco maculatus*. Descriptions of these hypotheses can be found in section 5.2.2.





In order to understand the contributions of inter- vs intra-genomic contributions to patterns in mitochondrial function, it would be helpful to collect samples from the timepoint when the hybridization occured (T1) and also from today (T2). A: Evolutionary tree depicting relationships of two sexual species (P1 and P2) and one asexual hybrid (AH) lineage. The parental ancestral lineages of the hybrid asexual lineage are depicted by the red lines; dotted line = paternal reticulation, solid line = maternal reticulation. B: Patterns predicted at different time points for the different lineages under six hypotheses. Null = the hypothesis where none of the

time points are different from one another; Inter-Specific = reduced mitochondrial function began at the origin of the hybrid asexual lineage and is due to incompatibilities between the parental genomes; Intra-Specific = reduced mitochondrial function did not begin at the origin of the hybrid asexual lineage, rather a gradual reduction in mitochondrial function was incurred due to the

effect of mutational erosion (via Muller's ratchet); Inter+Intra = a combination of hybrid incompatibility (beginning at initial

hybridization event) and mutational erosion; Hybrid Vigor = the hybrid asexual lineage experiences increased mitochondrial function due to the beneficial combination of alleles from the divergent parental genomes; Vigor+Intra = a combination of hybrid vigor (increased mitochondrial performance at time of hybridization) and mutational erosion.



Figure 5.4: Predictions for complex activity under different hypotheses

Predictions of complex activity at each electron transport chain complex of the mitochondrion under four hypotheses. CI-CV are the five primary protein complexes involved in oxidative phosphorylation. PS = parental sexual species, HA = hybrid asexual lineage. The Y axis for each graph is enzyme activity (the rate at which the protein complex catalyzes its respective action).