1 2	A mitochondrial genetic divergence proxy predicts the reproductive compatibility of mammalian hybrids
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#### 34 Abstract

Despite the significant genetic barriers that arise during the process of reproductive 35 36 isolation between species, numerous hybrid offspring of divergent mammalian 37 species pairs have been catalogued. In some cases, these hybrids are only able to 38 produce offspring through backcrosses with a parent species due to unisexual sterility (Haldane's Rule). In other instances, F1 hybrids are able to produce F2s 39 40 through matings with F1s. Here, we explicitly tested whether genetic distance can be used as a proxy to predict the relative fertility of the hybrid offspring resulting from 41 42 numerous pairs of terrestrial mammals. We assessed the proxy's predictive power 43 using a well characterised felid hybrid system, and applied it to modern and ancient 44 hominins. Our results revealed a small overlap in mitochondrial genetic divergence values that distinguish species pairs whose divergence values fall within two 45 46 categories: those whose hybrid offspring follow Haldane's Rule, and those whose hybrid offspring can produce F2s. The strong correlation between genetic distance 47 and hybrid fertility demonstrated here suggests that this proxy can be employed to 48 49 predict whether the hybrid offspring of two mammalian species will follow Haldane's Rule. 50

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#### 52 Introduction

Though hybrids between mammalian species have been catalogued for decades [1], the extent and frequency of gene flow between evolutionarily divergent taxa has only been recognised since the availability of high-coverage nuclear genomes. Recent studies have revealed rampant gene flow between multiple species of bears[2], canids[3], felids[4–6], and cetaceans[7,8]. Genome analyses of other vertebrate and invertebrate lineages beyond mammals have also revealed similarly extensive patterns of ancient and contemporary introgression [9–14].

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This demonstrated frequency of genomic introgression is perhaps surprising given the significant barriers that maintain reproductive isolation in species pairs that diverged up to millions of years ago. In mammals, genomic barriers manifest in accordance with Haldane's Rule [15] as the unisexual sterility of the heterogametic sex (XY males) in F1 hybrid offspring. In cases where matings between F1s fail to produce F2s, fertile offspring can often be produced through backcrosses between the fertile F1 females and males from one of the parent species. Occasionally, however, F1s produced from interbreeding between closely related mammalianspecies pairs can result in viable and fertile F2 offspring.

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71 If genetic divergence values between two species correlated with the ability of their 72 hybrid offspring to produce F2s, these values could serve as a proxy to predict this 73 occurrence. Though at least one study [16] reported that genetic divergence values 74 do generally correlate with species boundaries, others [17,18] have guestioned whether this correlation exists, and have instead stated that measures of species 75 76 divergence are not reliable predictors of hybrid sterility. A recent empirical study of 77 damselflies, however, demonstrated a strong correlation between the genetic 78 distances between species pairs and their relative reproductive isolation [19].

79

80 Establishing whether genetic distance and reproductive isolation are correlated is 81 also critical for our understanding of the genetic architecture of reproductive 82 isolation. Doing so firstly requires knowing whether any two species are capable of 83 producing viable or fertile offspring, but there is a general paucity of captive breeding 84 experiments or field data that have unequivocally established this. An alternative 85 approach is to develop a metric that can accurately predict the relative fertility of the F1 hybrids of any two species that makes use of interspecific crosses whose 86 87 offspring have been reproductively characterized. Here we developed a robust, quantitative framework based on the correlation between mitochondrial genetic 88 89 distance between mammalian species known to produce F1spairs to obtain a quantitative measure of whether F1 hybrids of both sexes are likely to be capable of 90 91 breeding, or if they instead manifest Haldane's Rule. We tested the accuracy of the proxy in a well characterised felid hybrid system, and then applied it to a hominin 92 93 case study to assess the relative potential sterility of hybrids between humans and 94 their closest extinct relatives.

95

#### 96 Results and Discussion

### 97 Categorizing Hybrid Incompatibility

We first explicitly defined two dichotomous categories along the spectrum of hybrid
compatibility. Category 1 is defined by mammalian species pairs capable of
producing fertile F1 offspring of both sexes that can reproduce without backcrossing
with a parent species (even if there are observed asymmetries in gene flow and

102 variation in male fertility amongst the hybrids) (Table S1). Category 2 is defined by 103 pairs of species that can produce viable F1 offspring, but follow Haldane's Rule, and 104 thus only female F1s can reproduce by backcrossing with a parent species. 105 Category 2 also includes species pairs whose hybrids are infertile (Table S1). We 106 determined the categorical assignment of each species pair (Table S1, Fig. S1) by 107 following a flowchart (Fig. S2) based upon empirical evidence derived from 108 experimental studies of F1 hybrid fertility. We confidently placed seven species pairs 109 into Category 1, and six others into Category 2.

110

Many additional live hybrid offspring have been reported in the literature than are included in Fig. 1 or in Fig. S1. We identified 17 species pairs known to produce viable offspring, but for which there was insufficient evidence to confidently assign them into either category (Table S2, Fig. S3). The framework and threshold values depicted in Fig. 1 allow us to predict the fertility of these offspring given the definitions described above and their placement into Categories 1 or 2. These pairs are listed in Table S2 and their relative positions are depicted in Fig. S3.

119 We then obtained published sequence data across all species (Table S3) from both the cytochrome b gene (CYTB) (n=1795) and complete mitochondrial genomes 120 121 (n=30) (excluding the control region) from multiple individuals per species. By 122 matching the phylogenies derived from the alignments to available nuclear species 123 trees, and by only including sequences that fell into reciprocally monophyletic clades, 124 we ensured that the selected mitochondrial sequences for each species were neither 125 mislabelled, nor nuclear copies of mitochondrial genes (NUMTs), nor derived from 126 hybrid populations. Using the sequence alignments, we then calculated average 127 pairwise genetic distances between each species pair using both the number of raw differences, and differences scaled by several different nucleotide substitution 128 models. In addition, we calculated genetic distances for four nuclear loci (CHRNA1, 129 GHR, ZFX, ZFY) available between ten of the primate species pairs to test the 130 131 correlation between the mitochondrial proxy and the nuclear genome estimates [20] 132 (Fig. S4).

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Plotting the calculated divergence estimates using *CYTB* revealed a small overlap in
values associated with the two categories (Fig 1, Fig. S1). More specifically, the

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Category 1 pair with the greatest divergence value was a pair of guinea pig species that were 8.0% divergent, and the Category 2 pair with the lowest divergence was a pair of vole species that were 7.2% divergent. Within this 0.8% overlapping region were several pairs of species that fall into both categories suggesting that this level of CYTB divergence is the region where F1 offspring begin to require a backcross to generate an F2. The existence of a genetic distance threshold separating the two categories also held true for the complete mitogenomes (Fig. S4).

144 In addition, both the male and female hybrid offspring of one of the two most 145 divergent pairs, Domestic Pig (Sus domesticus) x Babirusa (Babyrousa celebensis), 146 were shown to be infertile, and an exhaustive study that attempted to produce 147 hybrids between mountain hares and European rabbits failed completely [21]. The significant divergence values between these species pairs corroborates previous 148 149 studies showing that along the continuum of speciation, infertility in both sexes 150 evolves prior to inviability [22-24]. In addition, a Mann-Whitney U test showed 151 significantly lower genetic divergence values of species pairs in Category 1 relative 152 to those in Category 2 (p<6.3e-4).

153

Importantly, the two categories of fertility defined here are not strictly linked with 154 155 gene flow. For instance, though both male and female Category 1 hybrid offspring 156 can reproduce without requiring a backcross with a parent species, gene flow 157 asymmetries have been demonstrated in virtually all of these species pairs including 158 house mice (Mus musculus musculus x Mus musculus domesticus) [25], and 159 between brown bears (Ursus arctos) and polar bears (Ursus maritimus) [2] (Table 160 S1). Gene flow has also been demonstrated between Category 2 species (including 161 Mus musculus and M. spretus [26]). Since both fertility and the potential for gene flow vary along a continuum, it is striking that the divergence values associated with 162 163 the two fertility categories defined here do not overlap more substantially.

164

The lack of available nuclear sequences (relative to mitochondria) limited our ability to test whether nuclear genes generally produced the same pattern as the mitochondria across all our species pairs. Despite this limitation, we were able to identify four nuclear loci: Zinc finger Y-chromosomal protein (*ZFY*), Zinc finger Xchromosomal protein (*ZFX*), Growth Hormone Receptor (*GHR*), Cholinergic 170 Receptor Nicotinic Alpha (CHRNA1), that have been sequenced in 10 primate pairs 171 (Fig. S4) known to produce viable hybrid offspring [20]. We generated pairwise 172 distances for each of these genes using the same method employed in the 173 mitochondrial distance calculation. We then assigned each species pair to Category 174 1 or Category 2 based upon their CYTB divergence values within the original 175 framework. In each case, though the order of the taxa based upon pairwise 176 divergence values varied relative to the pattern generated using CYTB (owing to 177 significantly fewer variable sites and thus smaller divergence values in nuclear loci), 178 for the two most variable nuclear loci, ZFX and GHR, there was no overlap in 179 divergence values between the two categories, consistent with the mitochondrial assessment (Fig. S4). The other two loci, ZFY and CHRNA1, possessed very limited 180 181 interspecific nucleotide variability, but generally followed the same overall pattern. 182

183 **Testing the proxy using known mammalian hybrids** 

184 In order to further substantiate both this correlation and the robustness of CYTB divergence as a proxy for hybrid sterility, we tested the utility of this system for 185 186 predicting fertility in a well-known hybrid system. Cat breeders have crossed 187 domestic cats (Felis catus) with several wild felids, including the Jungle cat (F. chaus), Leopard cat (Prionailurus bengalensis), and Serval (Leptailurus serval) [27], 188 189 to create three exotic cat breeds: Chausies, Bengals, and Savannahs, respectively. 190 In all cases, the F1 male hybrids are sterile. To regain fertility while maintaining 191 some wild felid characteristics, breeders must backcross the F1 female offspring with 192 male domestic cats to establish a breeding population of pets [27]. Given that 193 multiple generations of unidirectional backcrossing was required for all three crosses 194 to generate a fertile population, our proxy would firstly predict that the CYTB 195 distances between all three pairs should be close to or greater than ~7.2%, and that 196 they should all fall into the range encompassed by Category 2. Secondly, the pairs 197 with larger genetic distance values should require a greater number of backcrosses with domestic cats (halving the wild cat ancestry with each subsequent generation) 198 199 before fertility is restored in hybrid males and a breeding pet population is 200 established.

201

202 Both of these predictions are borne out by the data (Fig 1, Table S3). All three pairs 203 show *CYTB* distances greater than or equal to 7.5% and the increasing molecular 204 distances between the pairs correlate with an increase in the number of required backcross generations to regain fertility. Specifically, distances between domestic 205 206 cats and Jungle cats, Leopard cats and Servals (7.54%, 10.94%, and 11.28% 207 respectively) are consistent with both the observed minimum (2, 3, and 4 208 respectively) and average (3, 4, and 5, respectively) number of backcrosses with domestic cats required for hybrid males to acquire fertility [27]. These results are 209 210 also consistent with an early hybrid experiment using guinea pigs in which hybrids between Cavia fulgida and C. porcellus (8.0% CYTB divergence) were able to regain 211 212 male fertility after three generations of backcrossing [28](Table S1).

213

214 Accidental hybrids in zoos also confirm the predictive power of this proxy. In 2006, the Copenhagen Zoo placed a domestic sow (Sus domesticus) in a pen with a male 215 216 babirusa (Babyrousa celebensis) with the expectation that the two species were 217 sufficiently evolutionarily divergent that they would be incapable of producing 218 offspring. Months later, however, five piglets were born and though two died from 219 maternally induced trauma, the other three (two males, and one female), all survived 220 and were shown to be infertile [29] (Table S1, Fig. S1). Historically, hybrid offspring 221 between distantly related species have accidentally been produced in zoos (Table 222 S2), though the relative fertility of the F1s was rarely established. In this case, the 223 CYTB divergence between the two species (12.9%) is not much greater than the 224 value between rhesus macaques and hamadryas baboons (12.5%) which were able 225 to produce a live offspring, thus suggesting that live offspring between these suids 226 was possible.

227

## 228 Assessing hominin hybrid incompatibility

229 The initial discovery of Neanderthals led some anthropologists, as early as the turn 230 of the 20th century, to speculate that anatomically modern humans (AMH) and their 231 closest extinct relatives were capable of producing hybrid offspring [30]. The 232 absence of Neanderthal mitochondrial genomes in the extant human population, 233 however, led some to suggest that AMH and Neanderthals did not hybridise [31–33]. 234 More recent analyses of whole ancient genome sequences have demonstrated that, 235 in fact, archaic hominins, including Neanderthals and Denisovans, did produce hybrid offspring, not only with AMH [34-36], but also with each other [37]. The 236 237 generation of these ancient genomes has also allowed for an assessment of the role that incompatibility may have played in the selection for and against hybrid
introgression in modern humans [38]. The genomic confirmation of the existence of
hominin hybrids supported the conclusions of two studies [39,40] that used a
qualitative correlation between the divergence times between species pairs and the
fertility of their hybrid offspring to suggest that, given their relatively recent temporal
divergence, AMH and Neanderthals could have retained the ability to produce fertile
offspring of both sexes.

245

246 We quantitatively assessed the relative fertility of hybrids between pairs of modern 247 and ancient hominin lineages using the proxy established in this study. To do so, we calculated the average pairwise divergence in CYTB sequences between AMH and 248 three extinct hominin lineages: Neanderthals, Denisovans, and the ancient 249 250 population from the Sima de los Huesos cave in Spain [29,41]. To avoid 251 overestimating the genetic divergence resulting from the comparison of modern and 252 extinct populations, we generated distance values using the CYTB sequences 253 derived solely from ancient AMH found in archaeological contexts (Supp Table 3). 254

255 The divergence values for each pairing of three *Homo* groups (Sima de los Huesos, Neanderthals, and AMH) occupy the bottom of the Category 1 range and are less 256 257 than the divergence values between Polar Bears and Brown Bears, and between 258 subspecific crosses of *Mus musculus* (Fig 1, Fig. S1, Table S1). When placed within 259 this context, our data predict that ancient hominin lineages were likely not sufficiently 260 divergent from each other to expect a significant biological impediment to the 261 generation of fertile offspring. This is consistent with the ancient genomic evidence, 262 which has shown not only that archaic populations interbred with AMH on at least 263 four occasions [42], but also that introgression took place in both directions [43]. In 264 addition, the divergence values of Denisovan-Neanderthal and Denisovan-AMH are the largest of the Homo pairings, and are consistent with the suggestion that 265 266 Denisovans possessed a mitochondrial lineage that may have introgressed from 267 another source population [44].

268

We also assessed hybrid sterility between more distantly diverged hominin lineages. Specifically, we calculated divergence values between humans and our two closest living relatives: chimpanzees (*Pan troglodytes*) and bonobos (*P. paniscus*). Female 272 chimpanzees inseminated with human sperm during a Soviet experiment in the 1920s failed to produce any offspring, and the reverse experiment did not progress 273 274 beyond the planning stage [45]. Recent molecular clock assessments have 275 suggested that AMH and chimps diverged ~5-6 Mya [46], well beyond both the two-276 million-year threshold suggested by other studies as the upper limit to hybrid fertility [39,40], and the average time to speciation [47]. Our analysis places the divergence 277 278 values between AMH and chimps, and AMH and bonobos within Category 2 suggesting that even if hybrids could be produced, they would likely follow Haldane's 279 280 Rule (Fig 1, Fig S1).

281

#### 282 Conclusions

The correlation demonstrated here between CYTB divergence (but also genetic 283 284 divergence in general) and relative hybrid sterility suggests that distance values can be used as a proxy to accurately and rapidly predict the relative sterility of hybrids 285 286 resulting from matings between pairs of mammalian species. Our emphasis here on 287 mitochondrial DNA should not be misinterpreted as a claim that CYTB plays a 288 causative role in hybrid sterility, though recent studies have proposed that speciation 289 may be mediated by mitonuclear interactions [48,49]. Nor can the use of genetic 290 divergence values as a proxy be perfectly predictive. For example, under the 291 Dobzhansky-Müller model incompatibility can arise from as few as two mutations in 292 isolated populations irrespective of time since divergence, meaning that it would be 293 possible for closely related populations to be incapable of generating fertile hybrids 294 [48,50], though no such examples have been described.

295

296 The value of any proxy is determined by both its predictive power and the ease of 297 generating the proxy data. Publicly available mtDNA sequences from thousands of mammalian taxa already exist and calculating pairwise divergence values is 298 299 inexpensive, simple and fast. As a result, mitogenomic distances have substantial 300 value as a means to predict the potential for any two mammalian species to produce 301 fertile offspring, and the relative degree of sterility in one or both sexes. As whole 302 genomes become available from the same set of species, this analysis can be 303 extended to determine which regions of the nuclear genome may also be more or 304 less predictive.

305

306 The discovery of additional extinct hominin populations that survived into the last 250,000 years, including H. floresiensis [51] and H. naledi [52], has raised interest in 307 308 understanding the limits to fertility and hybridization between extinct and extant 309 Homo spp [53]. If and when mitochondrial genomes from these samples can be 310 obtained, the approach described here may provide an answer, even if nuclear 311 genomic data are not obtainable. Lastly, establishing which species pairs violate the 312 predictions of the framework will identify unique systems that may lead to a better understanding of the process of reproductive isolation and the biological 313 314 mechanisms responsible for hybrid sterility.

315

#### 316 Materials and Methods

#### 317 Assessment of Hybrid Fertility and Rationale of Assignment into Categories

318 In order to ascertain if there was a correlation between genetic divergence and the 319 fertility of hybrid offspring between species, we first collected published examples of 320 species pairs that were capable of producing live offspring. We then split the hybrid 321 pairings into two categories. Category one consisted of seven species pairs that are 322 capable of producing fertile F1 offspring of both sexes, and for which we were able to obtain evidence of captive breeding experiments showing that the F1s could mate to 323 324 produce F2s. The evidence and rationale for placing each of these pairs into 325 Category 1 is listed in Table S1 and the flow chart we used to determine the 326 categorisation is shown in Table S2.

327

The hybrid offspring of all of six pairs of species in Category 2 are either completely infertile, or require one or more generations of female hybrid backcrosses with the male of a parent species to produce fertile offspring. For these pairs, we obtained evidence demonstrating no successful F2s from F1 hybrid pairings, an inability to produce offspring other than by backcrossing to a parent species, or other biological measurements (including histological assessments of the testes from the hybrid males) that demonstrated complete infertility (Table S1, Supp Fig. 5).

335

#### 336 Genetic Distance Calculation

Both *CYTB* sequences and full mitogenomes (excluding the control region) of

- 338 multiple individuals of each species were collected from Genbank (Table S4) and
- aligned using Clustal Omega version 1.2.4 [54]. In order to ensure that none of the

340 sequences were either mislabelled, or were nuclear copies of mitochondrial genes, we constructed Neighbour-Joining trees using Geneious version 6.1.8 [55] and 341 342 removed all individuals that did not fall into monophyletic clades consisting of 343 individuals from each species. We first used *pModelTest* version 1.04 [56] to 344 determine the best model for the alignment of each set of sequences for both 345 species. We then calculated pairwise distances between each species pair using RAXML version 8 [57] and FASTTree version 2.1 [58]. We also generated raw 346 347 distance values using the Hamming distance method which sums the number of 348 base pair differences (ignoring transition or transversion status) and divides that 349 number by the sequence length.

350

The distances were generated from the *CYTB* and nuclear gene alignments for each set of species pairings in fasta file format using a Python 2.7 wrapper to automate the terminal based programs RAXML, FastTree, and pModelTest. A custom Python 3.6 program was written to calculate Hamming distances of sequences making use of the distance v0.1.3 [59] and Biopython v1.66 [60] modules. Gaps in the aligned sequences were treated as missing data.

357

The mean distance and standard errors for each pairwise comparison were 358 359 calculated using the bootstrapping method on the assumption that the sets of pairwise distances between related species would not be normally distributed. Each 360 361 pairwise comparison group containing Hamming distances was randomly resampled into sets of equal sample size and processed using a helper function in the custom 362 363 software which made use of the bootstrapped v0.0.2, NumPy v1.10.1 [61] and SciPy v0.16.0 [62] Python modules. The source code is available at 364 https://github.com/BeebBenjamin/MrHamming. The CYTB distances were validated 365 through comparison with data generated using the `compute between group mean 366

367 distance` method in MEGA X for GNU/Linux [63], using the following settings:

- 368 a) Variance Estimation Method: Bootstrap Method
- b) No of Bootstrap Replications: 500
- 370 c) Substitutions Type: Nucleotide
- d) Model/Method: p-distance
- e) Substitutions to Include: d: Transitions + Transversions
- 373 f) Rates among Sites: Uniform Rates
- 374 g) Gaps/Missing/Data Treatment: Complete deletion

- 375 h) Select Codon Positions: 1st, 2nd, 3rd, Noncoding Site
- Using a Student's t-test (two tailed), the differences between the results were found
  to be statistically non-significant (t=-0.11222, p= 0.912504).
- 378

# 379 Mann-Whitney test of statistical difference between CYTB distance in hybrid 380 categories

- 381 The statistical significance of observed differences in CYTB divergence between
- 382 Categories 1 and 2 was tested using the Mann-Whitney U test (p=6.216e-4)
- implemented in the R-software package [64].
- 384
- 385 Figure Legends
- 386

# 387 Figure 1

A depiction of the correlation between CYTB divergence between mammalian 388 species pairs and the relative fertility of their hybrid offspring. In column A, the green 389 390 circles represent species capable of producing fully fertile F1 offspring which can 391 reproduce independently of their parent species (Category 1). Brown circles 392 represent species pairs that follow Haldane's Rule and require backcrossing of a 393 female F1 with a parent species, or both sexes are sterile (Category 2). The green 394 and brown shaded regions represent the range of divergence values of the two categories. Column B depicts the divergence between three wild felid species and 395 396 domestic cats, as well as the minimum number of generations of backcrosses with domestic cats before full fertility of the hybrid is restored. The white circles in Column 397 398 C depict the divergence between three ancient hominins and AMH, as well as the 399 distances between AMH and chimpanzees and bonobos (in Category 2). The 400 asterisks represent those pairs that include modern samples of AMH. The lack of an 401 asterisk signifies that only sequences derived from archaeological AMH were used to 402 compute the divergence values. Details regarding the specific species pairs are 403 listed in Fig. S1 and Table S1.

404

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- 413

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Average Cytochrome-B Divergence Between Species Pairs (%)