

## MHC II DRB variation and trans-species polymorphism in the golden snub-nosed monkey (*Rhinopithecus roxellana*)

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Genetic variation is generally believed to be important in studying endangered species' adaptive potential. Early studies assessed genetic diversity using nearly neutral markers, such as microsatellite loci and mitochondrial DNA (mtDNA), which are very informative for phylogenetic and phylogeographic reconstructions. However, the variation at these loci cannot provide direct information on selective processes involving the interaction of individuals with their environment, or on the capability to resist continuously evolving pathogens and parasites. The importance of genetic diversity at informative adaptive markers, such as major histocompatibility complex (MHC) genes, is increasingly being realized, especially in endangered, isolated species. Small population size and isolation make the golden snub-nosed monkey (*Rhinopithecus roxellana*) particularly susceptible to genetic variation losses through inbreeding and restricted gene flow. In this study, we compared the genetic variation and population structure of microsatellites, mtDNA, and the most relevant adaptive region of the MHC II-DRB genes in the golden snub-nosed monkey. We examined three Chinese *R. roxellana* populations and found the same variation patterns in all gene regions, with the population from Shennongjia population, Hubei Province, showing the lowest polymorphism among three populations. Genetic drift that outweighed balancing selection and the founder effect in these populations may explain the similar genetic variation pattern found in these neutral and adaptive genes.

**golden snub-nosed monkey, major histocompatibility complex, microsatellite, mitochondrial D-loop**

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Genetic variation plays an important role in buffering populations against widespread pandemics [1]. Understanding how different levels of genetic variation influence the survival of threatened species is of primal interest to evolutionary and conservation biologists. Dramatic reductions in available habitat, together with increasing habitat fragmentation and isolation threatened many species, leading to population sizes descending and reduction of genetic diversity [2–5]. Loss of genetic diversity is likely to happen in small populations, and this may augment extinction risk due to decreased reproductive fitness and adaptive flexibility, and increased disease susceptibility [6].

Genetic diversity is often measured by neutral markers, such as mitochondrial DNA and microsatellites [5], which are instructive for phylogenetic and phylogeographic reconstructions, such as examining dispersal routes of individuals and classifying individuals by relatedness and paternity analyses [7,8]. However, neutral variation provides little direct information on adaptive evolution within and between populations [9,10]. Meanwhile, the significance of genetic variation at informative adaptive genes is increasingly being realized [11,12], as the aforementioned issues are relevant to evolutionary ecology and conservation [13,14]. Major histocompatibility complex (MHC) genes are famous adaptive significance examples, and are of special relevance to conservation owing to their role in patho-

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gen resistance [15,16]. The MHC genes are highly polymorphic, with an important role in the regulation of the immune system and in the recognition and discrimination of self from non-self antigens. MHC variability is believed to measure the ability of individuals to react to continuously evolving pathogens and parasites and thus, reflects evolutionarily-relevant and adaptive processes within and between populations [5,17].

Parasite-driven balancing selection, which encompasses heterozygote advantage hypothesis, frequency-dependent selection hypothesis and fluctuating selection hypothesis, is widely accepted as the main mechanism in maintaining the unusually high level of polymorphism in the MHC genes [18–20]. Other than balancing selection, reproductive mechanisms might be alternative or complementary mechanisms for MHC variation maintenance, such as disassortative mating and maternal-fetal interactions (reviewed in [5]). Two major groups of MHC genes have been widely studied. The MHC class I genes, which are expressed on all nucleated somatic cell surfaces, are crucial in the immune defense against intracellular pathogens by binding peptides mainly derived from viral proteins and cancer-infected cells. MHC class II genes are preponderantly involved in monitoring the extracellular environment and primarily expressed on antigen presenting cells of the immune system, such as B cells and macrophages [21]. In mammals, most researches have focused on DRB exon 2 and other class II genes because they code for parts of the antigen binding sites (ABS) that are of significant function [5,22,23]. The class II genes are closely linked, and variants at these genes are generally in strong linkage equilibrium [24]. Thus, the observed MHC II loci pattern represents a proper index of MHC variation [25].

We studied DRB and neutral genetic variation in the golden snub-nosed monkey (*Rhinopithecus roxellana*), an endangered primate endemic to China, which inhabits three isolated areas: Sichuan and Gansu provinces (SG); the Qinling Mountains, Shaanxi Province (QL); and the Shennongjia Forestry District, Hubei Province (SNJ) (Figure 1). Current census data suggest that fewer than 20000 individuals remain, and previous studies have found that SNJ population has very low genetic variation and is genetically distinct [26,27]. The small population size and isolated status that typically characterize the SNJ population make it particularly susceptible to genetic variation losses through inbreeding and restricted gene flow. In this study, we described genetic variation at the most studied adaptive region of the DRB genes in the golden snub-nosed monkey, and studied DRB evolution by testing for signatures of balancing selection, recombination, and trans-species polymorphism (TSP). We also compared the genetic variation and population structure at neutral genes and DRB. This study furthers our understanding of the evolutionary significance and conservation implications of MHC in free-ranging monkeys.

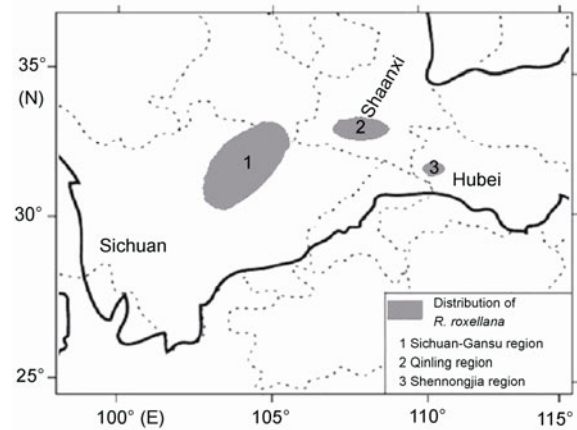


Figure 1 Distribution of isolated *R. roxellana* populations.

## 1 Materials and methods

### 1.1 Sample collection and DNA extraction

We collected 64 *R. roxellana* samples (SG population = 25, QL population = 22, and SNJ population = 17) (Figure 1), in compliance with the relevant institutions and laws of China. Muscle and skin samples were also gathered from carcasses provided by local museums and nature reserves. Skin samples were stored dry. Muscle samples were stored in 95% ethanol. Blood samples were collected while trapping individuals for physical examination and were stored at  $-80^{\circ}\text{C}$ . Benches and plastic ware were cleaned with 10% bleach and sterile water and then exposed to UV light for 30 min prior to handling to prevent contamination during DNA extraction. The surface of muscle, skin, and hair samples were also exposed to UV light for 30 min. We used eight extraction controls, and none produced positive amplification during subsequent polymerase chain reaction (PCR) analysis.

### 1.2 MHC amplification, cloning and sequencing

Primers 5'-TTCTCAGGAGGCCGCCCGTGTGA-3' and 5'-ACCTCGCCGCTGCACTGTGAAGCTC-3' were designed to amplify 270 bp of the MHC II DRB genes. PCR was performed in 50  $\mu\text{L}$  reaction mix comprising 2.5 mmol/L  $\text{MgCl}_2$ , 10 mmol/L Tris-HCl (pH 8.4), 50 mmol/L KCl, 0.2 mmol/L each dNTP, 0.4  $\mu\text{mol/L}$  each primer, 1.0 unit Hot-start-Taq DNA polymerase (Takara Bio, Otsu, Japan), and 10–100 ng DNA template. The amplification began with incubation at  $94^{\circ}\text{C}$  for 5 min, followed by 35 cycles of 30 s at  $94^{\circ}\text{C}$ , 30 s at  $54^{\circ}\text{C}$  and 30 s at  $72^{\circ}\text{C}$ , followed by an extension at  $72^{\circ}\text{C}$  for 10 min. Wizard PCR Preps DNA Purification Kit (Promega, Madison, WI, USA) was used to purify PCR products according to the manufacturer's protocol. Purified PCR products were cloned into a pMD-18T vector (Takara Bio). Positive transformants containing an

insert of the predicted length were identified by PCR screening and agarose electrophoresis. Eight to 15 clones were sequenced on an ABI 377 or ABI-PRISM™ 3100 Genetic Analyzer (Applied Biosystems Inc.) with the Prism BigDye™ Terminator Ready Reaction Kit (Applied Biosystems Inc.).

### 1.3 MHC diversity analyses

All MHC sequences were aligned using ClustalX version 1.83 [28] and translated into the corresponding amino acid sequences using the program Mega 4 [29]. The histocompatibility nature of the sequences was verified through a homology analysis using BlastN at NCBI (<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov>). As some sequences obtained could have been artifacts of polymerase error during amplification [30], we considered a new sequence variant to be an allele when it was identified in either two separate PCRs from the same individual, or from PCRs from at least two different individuals [31]. We used Mega 4 to detect the number of variable and parsimony-informative sites (i.e. sites with at least two different nucleotides or amino acids) to compute the mean number of nucleotide differences. This program was also used to derive the overall mean genetic distances of nucleotide sequences based on Kimura's two-parameter evolutionary distances, as well as Poisson-corrected amino acid distances. Standard errors of the estimates were obtained through 1000 bootstrap replicates.

The DRB sequences obtained represented alleles from at least two loci. In accordance with Miller et al. [16], we referred to all sequences as alleles even though they may have come from different loci. Not all alleles could be assigned to each locus in an individual on the basis of their sequence, making it impossible to calculate heterozygosity, allele frequencies, and  $F_{ST}$  at DRB genes. Mean number of alleles per individual, total number of alleles per population, and average percent difference were used as measures of within-population genetic variation [16]. The locations of the putative ABS (i.e. residues whose side chains form the antigen-binding groove) and non-ABS were inferred from the human MHC II molecule structure by Reche and Reinherz [32].

### 1.4 Phylogenetic analysis and recombination analysis

Phylogenetic relationship among MHC alleles was constructed under maximum likelihood parameters using PhyML version 3.0 [33]. Prior to phylogenetic analysis of DRB sequences, the best-fitting models of sequence evolution were chosen on the basis of the Akaike information criterion using Modeltest version 3.7 [34]. The analysis revealed that the model K81uf+I+G was most appropriate for the DRB data, with a gamma shape parameter  $\alpha = 0.4484$ . In addition, intra-specific phylogenetic structures were inferred using Neighbor-Net method in SplitsTree4 V 4.12.6

[35]. To estimate the rate of population recombination  $\rho$  ( $\rho=4N_e r$ ), the composite-likelihood method [36] in LDhat [37] was used. The  $\rho$  was calculated by crossing over effective population size ( $N_e$ ) and rate per generation ( $r$ ), and was estimated without prior information [37]. Even for sequences evolving under balancing selection in the presence of recombination events, LDhat still works efficiently [38]. Additionally, GARD tests incorporated in the HyPhy package on the Datamonkey website was also used to detect recombination signals [39].

### 1.5 Detecting balancing selection

Two methods were used to detect historical selection. First, sliding window calculation of Tajima's D was calculated in DNAsp [40] using a sliding window size of 6 bp, and a step size of 2 bp. Second, the Codeml subroutine in the PAML 4 program suite was used [41]. This procedure, which is believed to be more sensitive than other methods for detecting selection [42], uses maximum likelihood estimation to examine heterogeneity in  $\omega$  ( $\omega = d_N/d_S$ ) [43] among codons within a sequence ( $\omega = d_N/d_S > 1$  indicating positive selection).  $\omega$  were estimated following the protocol of Yang et al. [44]. Six different models (M0, M1a, M2a, M3, M7, and M8) that integrated different selection intensities among sites (and deduced from the data) were tested in this study [44,45]. Likelihood-ratio tests comparing nested models (M0 vs. M3, M1a vs. M2a, and M7 vs. M8), in which the alternative models (M2a, M3, and M8) suggest the presence of sites with  $\omega > 1$ .

## 2 Results

A total of 679 clones derived from 64 individuals, representing three populations of the golden snub-nosed monkey, were examined. We identified 37 unique DRB alleles (Table 1) and these alleles were named *Rhro*-DRB\*01–37 (GenBank accession numbers JQ863322–JQ863358) according to the nomenclature of Klein et al. [46]. Two to four alleles were found in each sample, indicating multi-locus amplification. Three among the 37 alleles identified in this study were commonly shared among the three populations. However, differences in frequency for these shared alleles were observed between populations. The nucleotide alignment of DRB sequences revealed a total of 80 (29.63%) variable sites. No indels causing shifts of the reading frame and/or stop codons were detected. The putative amino acid translation of this fragment corresponded to 89 amino acids. Of these amino acid sites, 35 (39.33%) were parsimony-informative sites; 41 (46.07%) were variable, and of those variable sites, 13 were located in putative important antigen-binding positions. There was no indication that either locus was a pseudogene. Measures of MHC diversity in three populations are summarized in Table 2. Though the



heterozygosity at DRB loci was not able to be calculated, mean number of DRB sequences per individual could be a good estimator of heterozygosity, since homozygous individuals at two loci will have two alleles while heterozygous individuals have four [16]. Similar to neutral variation, MHC allelic richness was lower in the SNJ population (Tables 2 and 3).

The alleles phylogenetic relationships are shown in Figures 2 and 3. The alleles relationship was not consistent with the population geographical distribution. Also, phylogenetic analyses showed alleles did not cluster into different species, but were intermixed with each other, which is known as TSP (Figure 2). The pseudogenes that download from GenBank clustered together, and none of the alleles identified in this study clustered with those pseudogenes. Population recombination analysis in LDhat revealed that the DRB locus had a high recombination rate ( $\rho = 16$ ). And the GARD test showed significant evidence for a recombination breakpoint within DRB allele ( $P < 0.01$ ).

Clear signals of historical selection for amino acid replacements in the codons involved in antigen binding were detected. First, Tajima's D analysis across the exon 2 sequence showed three regions with a significantly positive ( $P < 0.05$ ) D value (Figure 4), indicating balancing selection has been acting on these regions. The regions (between 37–52, 93–98 and 215–224) encompass putative ABS sites. Second, through comparisons of codon evolution models in PAML 4, similar results were obtained (Table 4). On the basis of the LRT tests, models integrated positive selection (M2a, M8, and M3) fitted our data significantly better than

other models that did not (Table 5).

### 3 Discussion and conclusions

#### 3.1 Genetic variation of DRB in golden snub-nosed monkey

In the past two decades, the MHC class II genes of some primate species were investigated extensively, especially those in the rhesus macaque (*Macaca mulatta*), which is widely used in biomedical research to study organ transplantation or human pathogens because of its similarity to humans [47]. More recently, extensive research has been conducted in non-model primates to assess the adaptive genetic variation in populations. For example at DRB loci, 0.24 alleles per individual were found in the grey mouse lemur (*Microcebus murinus*) [48], 2.06 alleles per individual were identified in *Cynomolgus* macaques (*Macaca fascicularis*) [49], and 0.34 alleles per individual were isolated in fat-tailed dwarf lemurs (*Cheirogaleus medius*) [18]. We found that the MHC genetic diversity in the golden snub-nosed monkey is relatively high (0.58 alleles per individual) compared with these previous studies. Two to four alleles were found in individuals, indicating at least two DRB loci were sequenced in this study. Multiple amplifications are common in DRB research because gene duplication is a major reason for high polymorphism in MHC genes, and it is difficult to sequence a single locus from DRB without genome data owing to the similarity among loci [19]. Some duplicated genes become pseudogenes or have altered

**Table 2** Summary of DRB variation in *R. roxellana* populations

	SG	QL	SNJ
<i>N</i>	25	22	17
Number of alleles	24	20	13
Number of specific alleles	7	6	7
Mean number of alleles per individual	0.92	0.91	0.76
Gene diversity	0.95±0.01	0.91±0.02	0.89±0.02
Mean number of pairwise differences	26.97±11.93	23.53±10.48	19.55±8.81
Nucleotide diversity (average over loci)	0.10±0.05	0.09±0.04	0.07±0.04

**Table 3** Summary of neutral variation in *R. roxellana* populations<sup>a)</sup>

Pop	Control region						Microsatellites (unpublished data)					
	<i>n</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>h</i> ±SD	$\pi$ ±SD	Tajima's D ( <i>P</i> -value)	<i>F<sub>s</sub></i> ( <i>P</i> -value)	<i>N</i>	No. of loci	<i>A<sub>R</sub></i>	<i>H<sub>E</sub></i> ±SD	<i>H<sub>O</sub></i> ±SD	<i>F<sub>IS</sub></i>
SG	41	15	0.90±0.02	0.02±0.01	1.45 (0.95)	7.67(0.97)	25	16	4.635	0.736±0.022	0.714±0.022	0.017
QL	23	10	0.84±0.05	0.01±0.007	1.02 (0.87)	3.29 (0.90)	22	16	4.854	0.713±0.036	0.653±0.024	0.071
SNJ	22	5	0.56±0.10	0.002±0.001	-0.08 (0.51)	1.04 (0.76)	17	16	3.473	0.611±0.038	0.591±0.030	0.030
All	86	30	0.94±0.01	0.020±0.010	0.42 (0.72)	2.64 (0.86)	64	16	4.321	0.755±0.022	0.660±0.014	0.041

a) *n*, Number of individuals; *N*, number of haplotypes; *h*, gene diversity;  $\pi$ , nucleotide diversity; *A<sub>R</sub>*, allelic richness; *H<sub>E</sub>*, expected heterozygosity; *H<sub>O</sub>*, observed heterozygosity.



**Figure 2** Maximum likelihood of *Rhro*-DRB alleles and a representative set of other primates alleles. Bootstrap values above 50% are shown. Red lines indicate *Rhro*-DRB allele haplotypes from this study. Other allelic sequences were downloaded from GenBank, which are: *Homo sapiens* (FJ442950, DQ837166, AY271987, AJ311892, AJ293861, AJ238155), *Pan troglodytes* (M96121-M96123, M94944, M96077, M96089, M96084-M96087, M94950), *Gorilla gorilla* (AF031271, AF031275), *Macaca mulatta* (AF17531, AF175315), *Mandrillus sphinx* (DQ103732).

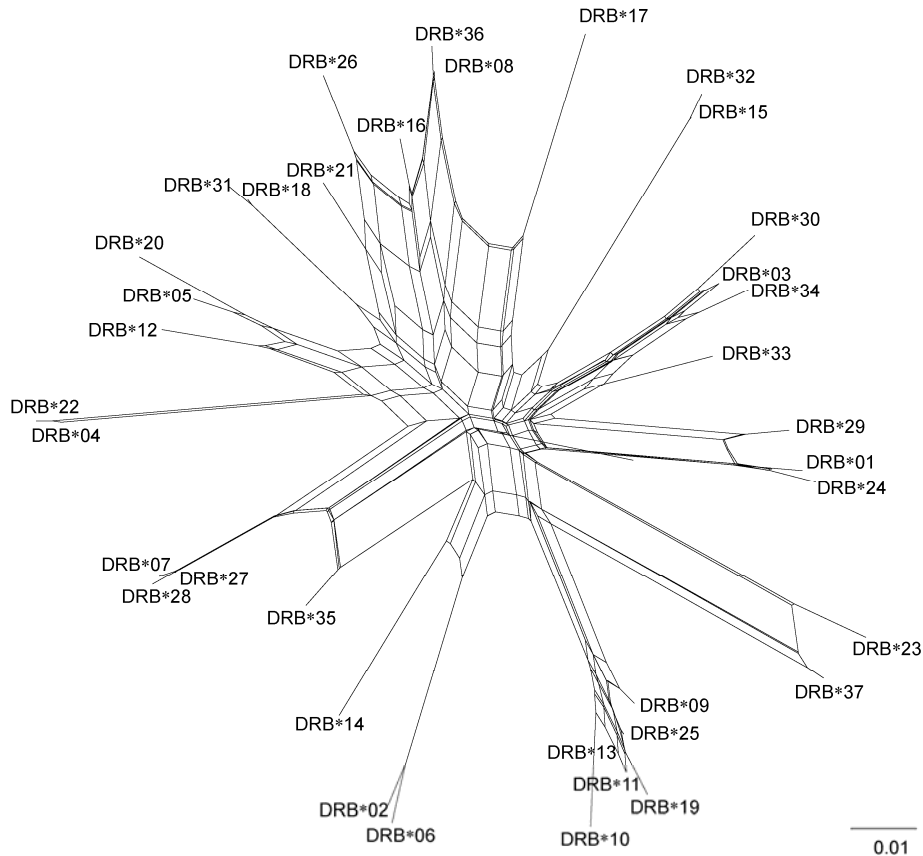
functions because of mutations, insertions or deletions [50]. We found two alleles (H10 and H23) that had lost three bases at 239–241 bp and 242–244 bp, resulting in a loss of an amino acid at site 80 and site 81, respectively (Table 1). They may come from another locus; as the deletions were in-frame and these two genes did not cluster with the pseudogenes during the phylogenetic construction (Figure 2), it appears they are still functional.

Within populations, the SNJ population had the lowest

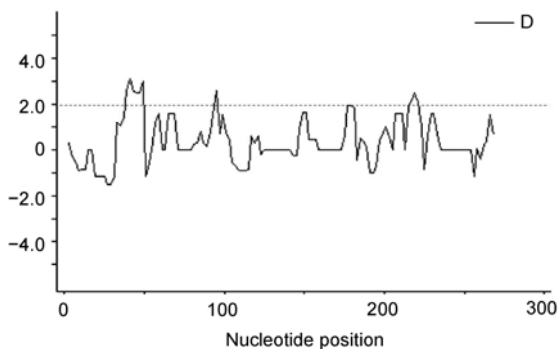
polymorphism at the MHC loci, as was observed for the microsatellite and mitochondrial gene analysis (Tables 2 and 3). Both the number of alleles and the mean number of pair-wise differences in the SNJ population were lower than other populations and the result was consistent with previous study [26,51]. Though DRB genes usually display high diversity, in cases of small and isolated or bottlenecked populations, a lower variation is expected [52]. Similar results were found in other species such as northern elephant seals (*Mirounga angustirostris*) [53], great crested newt (*Triturus cristatus*) [54], and the black-footed rock-wallaby (*Petrogale lateralis lateralis*) [55]. Genetic drift is the reason for the reduced MHC variation in these populations because compared with balancing selection, which usually has a great influence on MHC genes, genetic drift becomes relatively stronger in small, isolated populations, leading to reduced variation at the MHC loci [56]. Beyond genetic drift, a foundation event may have also contributed to the low genetic diversity present in the SNJ population. Among the three populations, the SG population is predicted to be the ancestral population, with the SNJ population arising from the QL population [57]. Microsatellites (unpublished data) and mitochondrial data [57] suggested little gene flow between SNJ and the other two populations. This may indicate that the genetic variation in the SNJ population was reduced compared with the other populations either at its foundation or soon after [52].

### 3.2 Balancing selection and recombination

MHC genes have been recognized of important role in evolutionary genetics because they are believed to be a good example of the effects of balancing selection [19,58]. Evidence of balancing selection acting on DRB genes was revealed in this study. First, three regions which encompassing putative ABS sites with a significantly positive ( $P < 0.05$ ) D value were identified in Tajima's D test across the exon 2 sequences (Figure 4), suggesting balancing selection exists on these regions [16,59]. Additionally, the sharing of MHC alleles among populations also indicates that MHC alleles may have been conserved by selection [54]. Second, random sites model analysis in PAML showed the existence of base selection in the maximum likelihood method. Analysis suggested that the models including selection (M2a, M3 and M8) matched DRB alleles better than those without selection (Tables 4 and 5). Under the M2a and M8 models, some DRB sites were exposed to significant selection. Further evidence for balancing selection was provided by trans-species evolution of the DRB alleles. TSP is the occurrence of alleles that are more similar in related species than alleles within each species, except cases in which the sameness happened by convergent evolution [60], and is commonly observed in MHC genes. Under balancing selection, TSP is generated by the passage of alleles from ancestral to descendant species. Under selection, some MHC alleles or



**Figure 3** Network of DRB alleles using Neighbor-Net method in SplitsTree.



**Figure 4** Sliding window calculation of Tajima's D for exon 2 of DRB (window size 6 bp, step 2 bp). The threshold for  $P < 0.05$  is shown by the dotted line.

allelic lineages are found in other species, which indicates they existed prior to speciation and were inherited from ancestral species [60]. For example, two DRB exon two sequences are shared by cynomolgus (crab-eating) macaques (*M. fascicularis*) and rhesus macaques (*M. mulatta*) [61]. Mass of sharing of both MHC alleles and allele lineages was also perceived among 28 species of cetacean [62].

While balancing selection maintains high MHC genetic variation, recombination is an important mechanism for generating MHC polymorphism [63]. In human MHC, recombination is thought to have played a major role in gen-

eration of novel alleles at various human leucocyte antigen (HLA) loci [64]. In our study, a high recombination rate was found ( $\rho = 16$ ) in DRB and the recombination event was further confirmed by GARD test. In the LDhat software, the likelihood model excludes the effects of selection, increasing the likelihood that balancing selection influenced the estimated result. However, a previous study simulated a model of symmetric balancing selection with recombination, indicating that LDhat works well even when a great deal of recombination and mutation expected to accumulate among sequences maintained by balancing selection [38].

### 3.3 Conclusions

Control region DNA and microsatellites are believed to be neutral or nearly neutral genes and are representatives of mitochondrial DNA and nuclear DNA respectively; while DRB genes are a good example of adaptive related genes and the polymorphism are mainly maintained by balancing selection [22,23]. Despite the differences among these genes, the same genetic variation pattern was found in the populations of golden snub-nosed monkey with the lowest polymorphism in SNJ population. The results revealed that the long isolated status of the small populations making genetic drift may play a greater role in different kinds of genes regardless of different evolutionary mechanisms. This

**Table 4** Results of maximum-likelihood models for exon 2 of the DRB gene

Model code	<i>P</i>	Log-likelihood	Parameter estimates	Positively selected sites
M0 (one ratio)	1	-2429.84	$\omega = 0.748$	None
M1a (nearly neutral)	1	-2455.86	$p_0 = 0.916$ ( $p_1 = 0.084$ )	Not allowed
M2a (positive selection)	3	-2404.20	$p_0 = 0.858, p_1 = 0.120$ ( $p_2 = 0.022$ ) $\omega_2 = 4.904$	<b>1R,3L,12E,14F,16S,33Y,35Y,40Y,41V,50F,59P</b> <b>60V,63N,64F,70F,73Q,74R,77Q,81Y,89V</b>
M3 (discrete)	4	-2391.34	$p_0 = 0.930, p_1 = 0.069$ ( $p_2 = 0.001$ ) $\omega_1 = 3.150, \omega_2 = 28.757$	Not allowed
M7 (beta)	2	-2456.47	$p = 0.010, q = 0.066$	Not allowed
M8 (beta and omega)	4	-2404.41	$p_0 = 0.975$ ( $p_1 = 0.024$ ) $p = 0.011, q = 0.072,$ $\omega = 4.673$	<b>1R,3L,12E,14F,16S,29Y,31Q,33Y,35Y,40Y,41V,</b> <b>50F,59P,60V,63N,64F,67Q,70F,73Q,74R,</b> <b>77Q,80N,81Y,87G,89V</b>

a) *P* is the number of parameters in the  $\omega$  distribution,  $\omega$  is the selection parameter and  $p_n$  is the proportion of sites falling into the  $\omega_n$  site class. For models M7 and M8, *p* and *q* are the shape parameters of the  $\beta$  function. Positively selected sites were identified in models M2a and M8 by the Bayes empirical Bayes procedure [45]. Sites inferred under selection at the 99% level are listed in bold, and those inferred at the 95% level are shown in italics.

**Table 5** Summary of test statistics for the likelihood-ratio test of codon evolution at DRB exon 2

Models compared	df	Test statistic	Significance ( <i>P</i> )
M2a vs. M1a	2	103.32	<0.001
M3 vs. M0	4	77	<0.001
M8 vs. M7	2	104.12	<0.001

research may contribute to making effective management decisions. Though the population size of golden snub-nosed is largest among the snub-nosed monkeys [65], as a flagship endangered species, it is also important to keep genetic health other than population increase [66].

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