

Divergent patterns of selection on the *DAB* and *DXB* MHC class II loci in *Xiphophorus* fishes

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Abstract Two MHC class II loci, *DAB* (a classical class II locus) and *DXB* (putatively a non-classical class II locus), were sequenced in samples of individuals from two

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populations of swordtail fish, *Xiphophorus multilineatus* and *X. pygmaeus*. The *DAB* locus showed higher levels of genetic variation in the *B1*-encoding region, (putative binding region) than the *DXB* locus. We used two methods to investigate d_N/d_S ratios. The results from a maximum likelihood method based on phylogenetic relationships indicated positive selection on the *B1* region of *DAB* (this method could not be used on *DXB*). Results from a coalescent-based method also showed evidence for positive selection in the *B1* region of *DAB*, but only weak evidence for selection on the *DXB*. Further analyses indicated that recombination is an important source of variation in the *B1* region of *DAB*, but has a relatively small effect on *DXB*. Overall, our results were consistent with the hypothesis that the *DAB* locus is under positive selection driven by antagonistic coevolution, and that the *DXB* locus plays the role of a non-classical MHC II locus. We also used simulations to investigate the presence of an elevated synonymous substitution rate in the binding region. The simulations revealed that the elevated rate could be caused by an interaction between positive selection and codon bias.

Keywords Swordtail fish ·
Major histocompatibility complex · Positive selection ·
Non-classical MHC II locus

Introduction

Classical MHC class I and class II loci are responsible for presenting peptides to T cells. The interaction of the peptide-MHC class II complex with a T cell receptor (TCR) and its co-receptor CD4 is the crucial step in initiating an immune response (Wang and Reinherz 2002). The classical MHC genes are typically polygenic and polymorphic, and

in fact are the most polymorphic gene system known in vertebrates (Hughes 1999). This variability is probably driven by overdominance or negative frequency-dependence in the context of antagonistic parasite–host coevolution (Hughes and Yeager 1998a, b). This theory is supported by the observation that the most extensive variability found among MHC class II genes is found in the regions that encode the peptide binding region (the *B1* region), and that variability is a result of positive selection (Hughes 1999, 2002). In contrast, nonclassical MHC class II genes encode proteins that perform functions other than antigen presentation to T helper cells, such as regulating the loading and unloading of peptide onto classical MHC molecules, and are not associated with high levels of polymorphism (Alfonso and Karlsson 2000).

Classical MHC class II proteins, after synthesis and transport into the ER of antigen presenting cells (APC), bind invariant chain (Ii), a protein chaperone (Cresswell 1996). The Ii guides MHC class II molecules out of the ER and targets them to MHC class II compartments (MIICs) where most peptide loading occurs (Neefjens 1999). Within the MIICs, Ii is degraded by proteases, leaving only a small fragment in the peptide binding pocket of MHC known as CLIP, or class II-associated Ii peptide (Robbins et al. 1996). In humans, CLIP is released from the CLIP-MHC class II complex either spontaneously or with the aid of nonclassical MHC class II HLA-DM heterodimer, which serves as a lysosomal chaperone (Alfonso and Karlsson 2000).

Another nonclassical MHC class II protein identified in humans, HLA-DO, is thought to associate with DM in B cells and inhibit the function of DM in endosomes (Kropshofer et al. 1998). Nonclassical class II genes are structurally similar to classical MHC class II genes in that they encode a leader sequence, $\alpha 1$, and $\alpha 2$ (or *B1* and *B2*) domains, connecting peptide, a transmembrane segment, and a cytoplasmic tail. However, in exon 3, the most conserved exon, nonclassical MHC class II genes are more divergent from classical MHC class II genes than classical MHC class II genes are from each other (Serenius et al. 1987). Nonclassical MHC genes are generally much less polymorphic than classical MHC genes (Alfonso and Karlsson 2000).

MHC class II genes have been studied in many species of fish, but putative nonclassical MHC class II loci have only recently been identified (Roney et al. 2004). McConnell et al. (1998a) identified and characterized two highly divergent types of class II *B* loci, *DAB* and *DXB*, in fish of the genus *Xiphophorus*. The putative nonclassical class II locus, *DXB*, was identified largely based on the sequence divergence between *DXB* and *DAB*, and the presence of alternative RNA splicing found only in *DXB* transcripts (Roney et al. 2004). The presence of both *DAB*

and *DXB* has only been confirmed in the *Xiphophorus* species *X. helleri*, *X. maculatus*, *X. multilineatus*, *X. pygmaeus*, and the guppy *Poecilia reticulata* (McConnell et al. 1998a, 1998b; Roney et al. 2004). *Xiphophorus* fishes have been used in research of the immune system for well over fifty years (Kallman 1958, 1964). Backcrosses between certain strains of *helleri* and *maculatus* can result in fish that develop malignant melanoma, among other diseases (Anders et al. 1994; Kazianis et al. 2001). The availability of inbred strains and the initial characterization of MHC *DAB* and *DXB* genes in *Xiphophorus* make the genus an excellent system in which to study evolutionary dynamics of MHC class II genes.

In this study, we investigate the evolution of these genes in a comparative framework, using DNA sequences from several different populations of two different species of fish from the genus *Xiphophorus*: *X. multilineatus* and *X. pygmaeus*. In particular, we focus on the differences between *DXB* and *DAB* in terms of levels of polymorphism and patterns of molecular evolution.

The hypothesis that *DXB* represents an MHC locus equivalent to a nonclassical class II locus such as the HLA-DM locus in humans predicts that this locus will be under different selection pressures than *DAB*, which is a classic MHC locus involved in the binding of foreign peptides. The *DAB* locus should be intimately involved in the continual antagonistic coevolution that characterizes the interaction between immune system genes and parasite genes (Hughes 1999). Antagonistic coevolution drives diversifying selection, in which selection favors new protein variants in both the hosts and parasites (Hughes 1999). Therefore, we expect higher levels of polymorphism to occur in *DAB* relative to *DXB*, and we expect the action of diversifying selection to be stronger and more pervasive on *DAB* than on *DXB*.

We first briefly characterize levels of polymorphism in these two loci. We then investigate levels of trans-population and trans-species polymorphism in *DAB*, to determine the degree of ancient polymorphism present at this locus. To test the prediction of higher polymorphism and of stronger diversifying selection on the *DAB* locus than the *DXB* locus, we analyze the ratio of non-synonymous to synonymous substitution rates.

Materials and methods

Fishes

Xiphophorus multilineatus specimens were captured in the Río Coy (21°45'0" N, 98°57'25" W) and the Arroyo Tambaque (21°41'6" N, 99°2'30" W), San Luis Potosí state, Mexico. *Xiphophorus pygmaeus* specimens were captured

at two locations on the Rio Huichihuayán (21°28′48.1″ N, 98°58′0″ W and 21°27′8.8″ N, 98°56′18.8″ W), San Luis Potosí state, Mexico, near the towns of Huichihuayán and La Y-Griega Vieja. Thirty-nine specimens were collected (25 *X. multilineatus* and 14 *X. pygmaeus*).

RNA isolation, cDNA preparation, and PCR conditions

Intestinal tissue RNA samples obtained from the 39 *Xiphophorus* fishes were obtained using the Trizol reagent protocol (Life Technology Inc., Gaithersburg, MD) and converted into single-stranded cDNA using the Gibco First Strand preamplification system with Oligo-dT (Life Technology Inc., Gaithersburg, MD). Single-stranded cDNA samples were then used to amplify MHC class II *DAB* and *DXB* transcripts using the identical primer sets and reaction conditions as previously described (Roney et al. 2004, McConnell et al. 1998a). Briefly, all *DAB* and *DXB* transcripts were isolated using a modified Polymerase Chain Reaction +1 (PCR +1) method to eliminate or minimize any possibility of chimeric PCR artifacts (Borriello and Krauter 1990; Hardee et al. 1995). *DXB* PCR +1 fragments were produced using primers TM341 (5′-ATCTCTGTTGC CAATCTAAGA-3′), TM328 (5′-ATGTGTAAGGCTA AATGAT-3′), and TM342 (5′-GAGAAGCTTATCTCTGT TGCCAATCTAAGA-3′) for the +1 step (*Hind*III site is underlined). *DAB* PCR +1 fragments were produced using primers TM396 (5′-GCTGGGCTGGCTGCTGGTCAT-3′), TM398 (5′-GAAGCAGGAGGAACCAGAACC-3′), and TM399 (5′-AGAAAGCTTGTGGGCTGGCTGCTGGT CAT -3′) for the +1 step. *DXB* transcripts were amplified by combining 50 ng of the single stranded cDNA sample, 1× Clontech Advantage cDNA Polymerase Mix (BD Biosciences, Palo Alto, CA), 1× cDNA PCR Reaction Buffer (BD Biosciences, Palo Alto, CA), 0.2 mM dNTP (BD Biosciences, Palo Alto, CA), 1 mM Primer TM328 and 0.2 mM primer TM341. This mixture was held at 94°C for 1 min, then cycled through 94°C for 1 min, 62°C for 1 min, and 68°C for two minutes for 35 times in a MJResearch PTC-200 Peltier Thermal Cycler (Waltham, MA) heated lid thermocycler. The “+1” cycle was performed as previously described (Roney et al. 2004), and the resulting DNA was ligated into pGEM-T Easy (Promega Corporation, Madison, WI). After electroporation of ligated plasmid into TOP 10 Ultracompetent Cells (Invitrogen, La Jolla, CA) via electroporation at 1.5 kV, 200 µF, and 25 F in a 0.1 cm cuvette, plasmid DNA that was isolated and linearized by the enzyme *Hind*III was selected for DNA sequencing, as linearization indicated that the clone contained a PCR +1 gene fragment.

DNA sequencing

From each individual fish, at least one PCR +1 positive plasmid clone from *DAB* and from *DXB* was sequenced, using Universal Forward, Universal Reverse, and gene specific sequence primers. Sequencing reactions followed the protocol recommended by Applied Biosystems (Foster City, CA) using 1 µl of primer, 2 µl Big Dye Terminator and 2 µl Big Dye Buffer (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA), and 200–500 ng of plasmid DNA for 26 cycles in an MJResearch PTC-200 Peltier Thermal Cycler (Waltham, MA). The reaction mixtures were processed on an ABI Prism 377 Sequencer (Foster City, CA). The resulting electropherograms were edited and assembled in AutoAssembler (Perkin-Elmer Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA). Individual sequences were verified as *DXB* and *DAB* transcripts using the NCBI BLAST program (Altschul et al. 1990). None of the cDNA clones analyzed included primer-induced sequence. GenBank accession numbers for the sequences are as follows: *X. multilineatus* *DXB*: EU852812-25; *X. multilineatus* *DAB*: EU852868-911; *X. pygmaeus* *DXB*: EU852826-36; *X. pygmaeus* *DAB*: EU852837-67.

In order to be conservative and avoid analyzing PCR and cloning artifacts, we filtered the *DAB* sequences as follows for the analyses of positive selection (the complete datasets for each locus were used for analyses of within-population polymorphism, because the results were very similar to the results from analysis of the culled datasets): First, we created a dataset consisting of unique haplotypes ($N = 37$ sequences). We then created a more restricted dataset ($N = 14$) consisting of only haplotypes that were independently replicated across individuals (which we will refer to as the “core dataset”). Given the extreme variability of the *DAB* sequences, it is virtually impossible that identical sequences would be present in two distinct individuals as the result of independent PCR or cloning artifacts. Hence the core dataset is highly unlikely to include any artificial haplotypes. For the analyses of positive selection, we analyzed both the unique haplotype and the core datasets. Also, multiple independent PCR amplifications and sequencing reactions were performed for *DAB* on a single fish specimen, resulting in eight near identical sequences. These eight sequences consisted of four identical sequences, three sequences that differed by a single nucleotide, and one sequence with two differing nucleotides. Therefore the many apparently distinct *DAB* alleles, differing from one another by 40–50 nucleotides, represent true alleles and are not the product of RT or *Taq* errors. Any ambiguous sites in differentiating alleles (a maximum of two sites per sequence) were assigned an “N” in analyses.

The *DXB* locus is much less polymorphic than the *DAB* locus (see Results), and the variation among sequences is confined to small numbers of single nucleotide differences. Hence it was not possible to obtain a restricted (core) dataset with the method used for *DAB*. For *DXB*, we analyzed three datasets: the complete (original) dataset, a dataset consisting of only unique haplotypes, and a dataset consisting of the haplotypes of the same individuals as the restricted dataset for *DAB*. We note that the analysis of the full dataset for *DXB* is conservative with respect to our hypothesis, given that PCR and cloning artifacts should enhance variation among sequences.

Sequences used for the cross-species analysis for *DAB* were taken from GenBank: *Morone saxatilis* (GI: 501167), *Scophthalmus maximus* (GI: 62901681), *Stizostedion vitreum* (GI: 37724342), *Pagrus major* (GI: 37779051), *Oryzias latipes* (GI:7527374), *Poecilia reticulata* (GI:976097), *Xiphophorus maculatus* (GI: 2961096).

Sequence analysis

Sequences were aligned in Clustal X (Thompson et al. 1997), and checked by eye. Alignment was straightforward as there were very few gaps. Levels of polymorphism within populations and levels of divergence between populations were estimated in the program DnaSP (Rozas et al. 2003). Gene trees were estimated via parsimony and maximum likelihood in PAUP 4.0b10 (Swofford 2003). The coalescence of the most parsimonious gene trees within the species and populations tree was estimated with the coalescent simulation module in MESQUITE 2.0 (Maddison and Maddison 2007).

We used comparative sequence analysis methods to search for a signal of selection across individuals, populations and species. For cross-species analyses, we used maximum likelihood methods (implemented in the CODEML program of the PAML package (Yang 1997)) to investigate the ratio of nonsynonymous to synonymous substitution rates, or omega (ω). A value of omega greater than one indicates the action of positive selection (Yang and Bielawski 2000).

We carried out a cross-species comparison of ω for *DAB*, using sequences from a variety of other species obtained from the literature, as listed above (this could not be done for *DXB*, as this locus has been sequenced in only a few species as yet). For the cross-species comparisons, we used tree topologies that represented a combination (an informal supertree) of well-supported phylogenetic trees from the recent molecular systematics literature (see online supplement for details).

For the analysis of ω across species, we used the branch and codon-specific model MA implemented in CODEML (Zhang et al. 2005). The significance of evidence for

positive selection was tested with a log-likelihood ratio test (LRT), and specific sites under positive selection were identified using a Bayesian method (the Bayes Empirical Bayes method).

The methods implemented in CODEML are designed to be used for the analysis of separate lineages in a phylogenetic framework (Yang 2001). This is not a problem for our cross-species analysis, but is a potential problem for the datasets containing multiple sequences from the same population and species. Previous research indicates that recombination can be extensive in MHC loci (Doxiadis et al. 2006). Recent simulation studies (Anisimova et al. 2003) indicate that substantial recombination among sequences can cause these methods to confuse recombination with positive selection. In this study, recombination among sequences within a population is a distinct possibility, as is recombination between populations, and even between species (the amount of hybridization is unknown).

To investigate the influence of recombination, we used the computer program LDhat (McVean et al. 2002). LDhat estimates recombination rate using the composite-likelihood method developed by Hudson (2001), but the model is extended by using a finite-sites model to estimate the likelihood of two-locus haplotypes under the coalescent (McVean et al. 2002). Under coalescent theory, one can estimate $\rho = 4N_e r$, where N_e is the effective population size and r is the recombination rate. The estimate of recombination is conditioned on theta (θ), which is estimated using a finite-series version of the Watterson estimator. This method is less subject to false positives because it takes into account the probability of recurrent substitutions, which can generate patterns of variation interpreted as evidence of recombination under some methods. Simulation studies indicate that the method implemented in LDhat provides accurate estimates of the relative contributions of point mutation and recombination to the observed sequence variation, even when both occur at high rates (Richman et al. 2003). The composite likelihood model implemented in LDhat does not take selection into account. However, recent simulation studies indicate that the method performs very well even in the presence of selection (Richman et al. 2003).

One caveat with respect to the data analyzed here is that the method implemented in LDhat assumes the data come from a single-locus, with intragenic recombination. Previous research (McConnell et al. 1998a) indicates that this is the case for *DXB* in *Xiphophorus*, but we cannot be sure that that is true for the *Xiphophorus DAB* data. Nevertheless, the method provides a useful first step in estimating the relative contributions of mutation and recombination in producing the sequence variation that characterizes the MHC II *DAB* gene region of *Xiphophorus*.

In order to address the evidence for positive selection on point mutations explicitly, we used a recently developed maximum likelihood method that does not utilize a phylogenetic framework, but rather uses the coalescent as a framework for the analysis of ω , implemented in the program omegaMap (Wilson and McVean 2006). The method estimates two focal parameters, the selection parameter (ω) and the recombination rate (ρ), as well as the transition-transversion ratio (κ) and the insertion/deletion rate (ϕ). Because there can be multiple phylogenetic trees along the sequence (due to recombination), the trees are treated as a nuisance parameter and the likelihood function is averaged across all possible trees and branch lengths. The addition of recombination makes the calculation of likelihoods highly computationally intensive, so an approximation to the likelihood in the presence of recombination developed by Li and Stephens (2003) is used. This method uses a hidden Markov model to incorporate key properties of the proper likelihood while improving computational efficiency. The model of Nielsen and Yang (1998) is used to specify the transition rates among codons, with a modification that allows the addition of an insertion/deletion rate (Wilson and McVean 2006). The method employs a Bayesian framework, using a Markov Chain Monte Carlo approach to sample the likelihood surface and estimate posterior probabilities.

The model employs a flexible blocking structure implemented in the prior distribution on ω . This approach is based on the multiple change-point model of Green (1995) and developed by McVean et al. (2004). It allows estimation of variable recombination rates along a sequence. The blocking structure reduces the computational load and exploits the information available in the sequence more thoroughly.

Simulation studies and studies on sample datasets suggest that the method performs well, and that estimates of ω do not confound estimates of ρ or vice versa (Wilson and McVean 2006). The method requires that prior distributions be used for each of the parameters: For the initial runs, we used the following prior distributions and ranges or initial values: $\omega = \text{inverse}$ (0.01–100), $\rho = \text{inverse}$ (0.01–100), $\mu = \text{improper inverse}$ (0.1), $\kappa = \text{improper inverse}$ (3.0), $\phi = \text{improper inverse}$ (0.1), as suggested in the omegaMap documentation (Wilson 2006). Each combination of gene and species was run at least twice, and the posterior probabilities for each key parameter (ω , ρ , μ , κ , ϕ) were examined to insure that the results were consistent between the independent runs. We also ran each combination of gene and species using two different blocking structures for the prior distribution on ω : 30 codons and 5 codons. To determine the sensitivity of the analyses to the distribution and initial values chosen for the priors, we carried out two other runs for each locus using alternatives

as follows: Prior A: exponential distribution, with mean 0.07 for μ , mean 3.0 for κ , mean 0.1 for ϕ , mean 1.0 for ω , and 0.1 for ρ ; Prior B: a uniform prior distribution was used for μ and ρ , with range 0–10, an exponential ratio distribution for κ , with median equal to 1.0, an exponential prior distribution of ϕ with a mean of 1.0, and gamma distribution for ω , with a mean of 1.0 and a value of 2.0 for the shape parameter (Wilson and McVean 2006). For each analysis, we ran 500,000 generations. To summarize the data, we used the Summarize module of the omegaMap program, which summarizes the results from every 100th generation of the run. A burnin of 25,000 generations was used, and the data was visualized in Microsoft EXCEL.

We note that both intra- and inter-locus recombination are potentially important sources of adaptive variation in the MHC (Reusch and Langefors 2005). In some cases, recombination appears to play a dominant role in producing adaptive variation at the MHC (Richman et al. 2003). Hence, we used LDhat (McVean et al. 2002) to characterize the relative contributions of point mutation and recombination to variation in the MHC II *DAB* and *DXB* loci of both species, and we used omegaMap to investigate positive selection on point mutations, controlling for recombination.

Simulation of positive selection and codon bias

We wished to test whether the elevated d_S of the *B1* region, as compared to the remainder, of *DAB* could be explained by a combination of positive selection on nonsynonymous sites due to selection at the protein level and positive selection on synonymous sites due to codon bias. In order to test this possibility, we took a simulation approach. The approach was to first infer the DNA sequence ancestral to all of the extant sequences used in this analysis and then evolve the ancestral sequence toward each of the extant sequences in a three-step process: (1) introduce the *minimum* number of nonsynonymous substitutions necessary to produce codons that code for the amino acids coded by the target extant sequence (not necessarily the codons of the extant sequence), thus simulating selection at the protein level; (2) introduce random synonymous substitutions at the rate estimated from pairwise comparisons of the non-*B1* region (0.009 substitutions per site), which represents the background mutation rate; and (3) introduce any additional synonymous substitutions required to produce the most *preferred* codon of each codon family in the target sequence (not necessarily the codons of the extant sequence), thus simulating selection for preferred codons. This was conducted for the *B1*-coding and the non-*B1*-coding regions separately. The third step was used simply to determine whether codon selection is necessary to explain the elevated d_S in *B1* that may otherwise arise

because of positive selection on nonsynonymous sites alone (due to different codons being used to code for the same amino acid in different sequences). Because codon bias is expected to affect both regions equally, any difference in d_S due to codon selection between the two regions must be due to its interaction with positive selection on nonsynonymous sites in *B1*.

The ancestral sequence was inferred from 40 *DAB* sequences deemed to be unique alleles. These sequences were chosen by randomly eliminating all but one sequence from clusters, in a Neighbor-Joining tree, in which sequences diverged by a distance of <0.003 substitutions per site (the maximum intra-individual value). The ancestral sequence was then inferred from a Neighbor-Joining tree of the 40 remaining sequences using a Bayesian method implemented in PAML. The values of d_S and d_N were estimated using the Nei-Gojobori method with pairwise sequence comparisons of Jukes-Cantor-corrected distances, using MEGA2 (Kumar et al. 2001).

Results

The total number of transcripts analyzed in the complete dataset were: 25 *X. multilineatus DXB*, 15 *X. pygmaeus DXB*, 50 *X. multilineatus DAB*, and 28 *X. pygmaeus DAB*. The *B1* region through the cytoplasmic tail-encoding region (*CT*) of *DXB* is 702 nucleotides (234 amino acids) in length while *DAB* is smaller with 687 nucleotides (229 amino acids). We also used several reduced datasets in the analyses of selection (see Materials and methods: DNA sequencing). *DAB* and *DXB* nucleotide transcripts and protein sequences from each species were aligned, and were 56 and 44.5% identical, respectively.

A standard measure of nucleotide diversity (Π) showed *DAB* to be substantially more polymorphic than *DXB* (Table 1). In *DAB*, polymorphism was similar between species, and was clustered mostly within the first 300 nucleotides, which corresponds to the *B1* region and the first 40 amino acids (out of 278) of the $\beta 2$ -encoding (*B2*) region. The observed polymorphism in *DXB* was not clustered into any particular domain. The small amount of variability found in *DXB* is mainly localized around three particular nucleotide positions (520, 525, 527) that are within the *B2* region and consist of G–A transitions.

The average number of nonsynonymous substitutions per nonsynonymous site (d_N) for *DAB* was much higher in the *B1* region than in the rest of the transcript (Table 2). The d_S for the *B1* region of *X. multilineatus* was slightly higher than that of *X. pygmaeus*. *Xiphophorus pygmaeus* had a slightly higher d_N .

The d_S and d_N of *DXB B1* region are very different from that of *DAB* (Table 2). The observed numbers of both

Table 1 Levels of polymorphism and genetic divergence between populations of *X. multilineatus* and *X. pygmaeus*, for the *DAB* and the *DXB* locus, calculated in the program DnaSP (Rozas et al. 2003)

Species	Population	Locus	<i>N</i>	NHaps	HapDiv	NucDiv(Π)
Ximu	Rio Coy	DAB	24	22	0.993	0.057
Ximu	A.T.	DAB	26	22	0.981	0.074
Ximu	Rio Coy	DXB	11	9	0.946	0.013
Ximu	A.T.	DXB	13	10	0.923	0.015
Xipy	Huich. 1	DAB	12	9	0.955	0.047
Xipy	Huich. 2	DAB	15	15	1.000	0.062
Xipy	Huich. 1	DXB	7	5	0.857	0.009
Xipy	Huich. 2	DXB	9	9	1.000	0.018

N, Number of sequences; NHaps, number of haplotypes; HapDiv, haplotype diversity; NucDiv (Π), nucleotide diversity; Ximu, *X. multilineatus*; Xipy, *X. pygmaeus*; A.T., Arroyo Tambaque; Huich 1 & 2, Rio Huichihuayán, site 1 and site 2

Table 2 Average number of substitutions in *DAB* and *DXB*: d_S (d_N) refer to the average number of synonymous (nonsynonymous) substitutions per synonymous (nonsynonymous) site

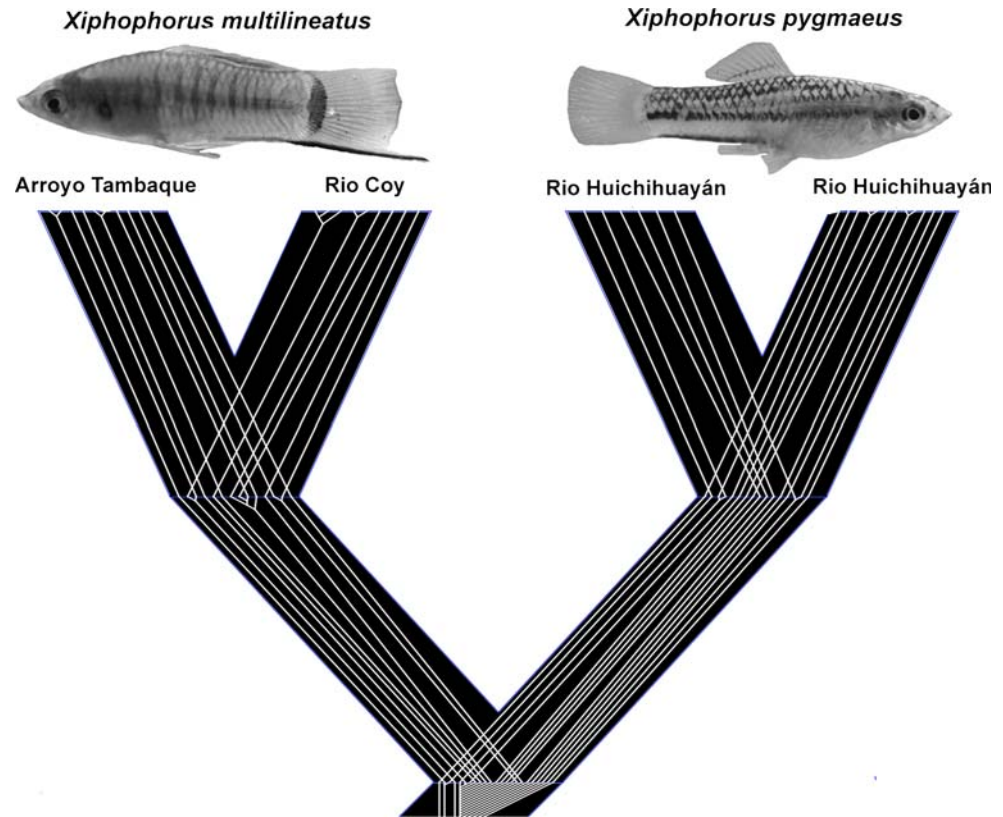
	<i>DAB</i>				<i>DXB</i>			
	d_S	S.E.	d_N	S.E.	d_S	S.E.	d_N	S.E.
<i>B1</i>	0.136	0.023	0.159	0.019	0.006	0.002	0.020	0.006
Ximu	0.157	0.021	0.137	0.024	0.005	0.003	0.020	0.005
Xipy	0.130	0.023	0.147	0.020	0.010	0.006	0.019	0.005
<i>B2-CT</i>	0.016	0.006	0.010	0.004	0.016	0.007	0.009	0.003
Ximu	0.015	0.006	0.009	0.003	0.019	0.007	0.007	0.003
Xipy	0.018	0.007	0.011	0.004	0.007	0.005	0.011	0.003

S.E., Standard error. *B1* and *B2-CT* refer to specific regions (see Introduction). Species averages follow the combined averages. Ximu, *X. multilineatus*; Xipy, *X. pygmaeus*

synonymous and nonsynonymous substitutions per site (d_N and d_S) in the *B1* was higher for *DAB* than for *DXB* (Table 2). The d_S of the *B1* are small (0.006), and are actually less than that found in the remainder of the *DXB* transcript (0.016), versus the large d_S for the *B1* of *DAB*. The d_N is higher than the d_S for *DXB B1* (0.020 and 0.006), and higher than the d_N found in the remainder of the transcript (0.009). However, the d_N in the *B1* region observed in *DAB* is much larger. *Xiphophorus multilineatus* had a slightly higher d_S than that of *X. pygmaeus* in the analysis of the *B2* region through the cytoplasmic tail region.

The coalescent analysis revealed extensive lack of reciprocal monophyly among species (and populations), or trans-species polymorphism. Figure 1 illustrates this for one of the set of most parsimonious gene trees fitted into a “contained tree” (the hypothetical population and species tree), using the program MESQUITE (the results are similar no matter which tree of the set is used). Much of the

Fig. 1 A “contained tree”, showing the coalescence of the haplotypes of the *DAB* gene tree within the population and species tree of *Xiphophorus* investigated in this study. The contained tree was created in the program MESQUITE 2.0 (Maddison and Maddison 2007)



polymorphism across these populations and species is ancestrally retained, indicating that analyses of selection should focus on all of the sequences as a single set subject to similar selection pressures (Richman et al. 2007).

The cross-specific analysis of ω at the *DAB* locus with CODEML yielded abundant evidence for positive selection, as has been found in previous analyses of the MHC in other taxa. The branch specific analysis (model MA) showed a very high value of ω : 321.7 at between 2 and 3% of the codon sites. The LRT for the comparison of MA with MA (fixed ω) was significant ($\chi^2 = 27.58$, $P < 0.05$). The Bayes Empirical Bayes (BEB) method detected significant probabilities of positive selection at two sites in the antigen-binding region, site 69 and 83. Surprisingly, significant probabilities of positive selection were also detected at three sites outside of the binding region: 208, 241 and 242. Elevated probabilities of positive selection were also detected at a number of other sites in the binding region: Site (probability): 23 (0.83), 26 (0.91), 28 (0.91), 42 (0.77), 53 (0.79), 54 (0.68), 96 (0.60), 97 (0.54), and 99 (0.57).

The analyses with omegaMap also revealed evidence for selection on *DAB*. Figure 2 presents the results from the analysis of the core dataset (the analysis of the unique dataset produced virtually identical results). The point estimates indicate multiple regions in which ω is far above one. Posterior probabilities of positive selection were significant (above 95%) for each of these regions. The

minimum estimates for the 95% highest posterior probability densities (HPDs) remained far above one in each region where selection was detected. Running the analyses with alternative priors did not affect the significance of the results for *DAB* (results not shown). For *DXB*, analysis of each dataset also showed evidence for positive selection on point mutations in the *B1* region, but the estimated average levels were consistently far lower than for *DAB* (Fig. 3). Figure 3 shows the results for the core dataset for *DXB*, but the results were equivalent no matter which of the three *DXB* datasets was analysed. For *DXB*, regions of positive selection were not confined to the *B1* region, but were also found in other parts of the sequence (Fig. 3). In contrast to the results from *DAB*, the minimum of the HPD was typically less than one, indicating that the evidence for positive selection on the *DXB* was weak. The posterior probabilities of positive selection for the estimates for the regions of *DXB* estimated to have an omega greater than one did exceed 95%, but, in contrast to *DAB*, this result was sensitive to the choice of prior. For example, under the exponential prior with the mean of ω set to 1.0, none of the regions showing positive selection had a posterior probability of 95% or above (results not shown). Hence, the signal of positive selection for the *DXB* locus was relatively weak, and strongly influenced by the prior.

Our analyses of recombination indicate that recombination does play an important role in producing and

Fig. 2 Plot of omega versus codon position across the gene estimated from the omegaMap run for the *DAB* core dataset, using standard priors (see Materials and methods: sequence analysis). The markov chain monte carlo was run for 500,000 generations in each case, with burnin of 25,000 generations. The point estimate for omega is shown in black, and the 95% minimum for the posterior probability density is shown in white. Figures show codon positions across the X axis, and estimates of omega on the Y axis

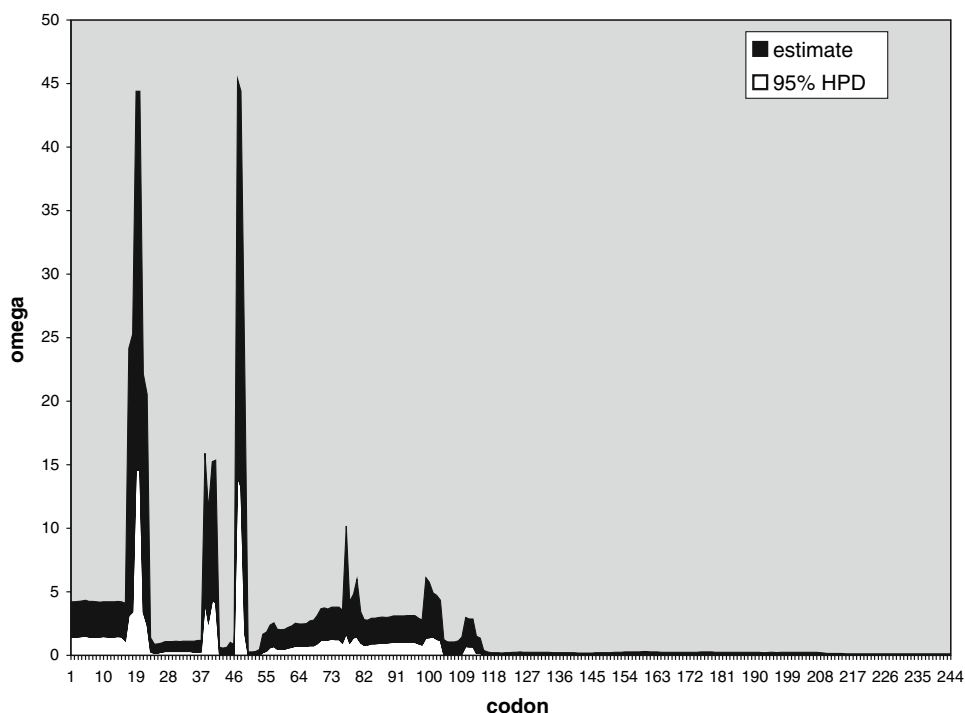
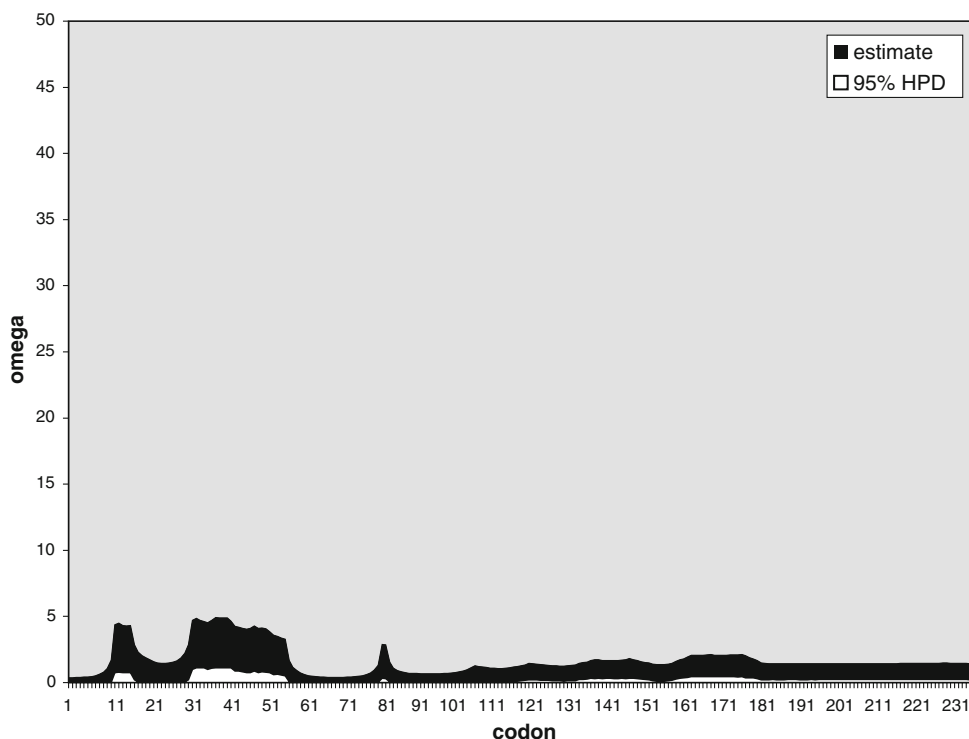


Fig. 3 The same as Fig. 2, except that the omega estimates for *DXB*, rather than *DAB*, are plotted



maintaining the variation seen in these MHC sequences. For *X. multilineatus*, the Watterson estimate of $4N_e\mu$ or θ (using the LDhat program) was equal to 43.09 (for *DAB*) and 10.44 (for *DXB*). For *X. pygmaeus*, the corresponding values for θ were 44.17 (*DAB*) and 8.14 (*DXB*). For *X. multilineatus*, the maximum likelihood estimate of $4N_e r$ was 18 for *DAB* and 3 for *DXB*. For *X. pygmaeus*, the

corresponding values for $4N_e r$ were 44 (*DAB*) and 2 (*DXB*). In each case the evidence for recombination was highly significant using a likelihood permutation test ($P < 0.000$). The minimum number of recombination events, estimated by the method of Hudson and Kaplan (1985), was 28 for *X. multilineatus DAB*, 38 for *X. pygmaeus DAB*, 1 for *X. multilineatus DXB*, and 1 for *X. pygmaeus DXB*. This

provides further evidence that levels of recombination in *DAB* are substantially higher than in *DXB*.

One unusual feature identified in this study is that both the nonsynonymous and the synonymous rates of substitution are highly elevated in the *B1* region of *DAB*, relative to the remainder of the gene (*B2-CT*). One possible reason for the increase in synonymous substitutions is codon bias, which occurs when one or more triplet codes for the same amino acid are commonly used and other triplet codes for the same amino acid are rare. One explanation for codon bias is that in highly expressed genes, more abundant transfer RNAs (tRNAs) are used in proteins and less abundant tRNAs are thought to be eliminated by purifying selection (Nei and Kumar 2000). Another potential source of codon bias is mutational pressure to go from CG to AT or vice versa at silent first and third codon positions (Nei and Kumar 2000). We used simulation to test whether the elevated d_S seen in *DAB* could (in part) be caused by an interaction between positive selection and codon bias at this locus. Such an interaction could give rise to an elevated d_S if selection at the protein level does not necessarily produce the most preferred codon of a codon family, leading to subsequent selection for preferred codons and hence a higher d_S (Lipman and Wilbur 1984; DuMont et al. 2004; Comeron and Kreitman 1998).

The results show that the first step of the simulation (positive selection at the protein level) was sufficient to account for d_N observed for the *B1* region, but that the third step (selection for preferred codons) was necessary to account for d_S in this region (Table 3). Similarly, the first step was sufficient to account for the observed d_N in the non-*B1* region, but, in contrast, the second step (mutation) was sufficient to account for d_S in this region (Table 3).

Table 3 Simulation of the combined effects of positive selection of nonsynonymous sites and selection of preferred codons on *DAB* regions

Simulation		Beta-1		Non-beta-1	
Step ^a	Replicate	d_S	d_N	d_S	d_N
1	1	0.033	0.181	0.004	0.013
	2	0.033	0.180	0.004	0.013
	3	0.032	0.181	0.003	0.014
2	1	0.050	0.181	0.018	0.013
	2	0.048	0.181	0.025	0.013
	3	0.049	0.181	0.021	0.014
3	1	0.152	0.191	0.013	0.016
	2	0.152	0.191	0.013	0.016
	3	0.152	0.191	0.013	0.016
Extant		0.153	0.183	0.018	0.013

^a Simulation steps: (1) protein selection; (2) mutation; (3) preferred codon selection

These results support the hypothesis of an interaction between codon selection and positive selection (which occurs for *B1* only) being responsible for the elevated d_S observed for the *B1* region.

Discussion

DAB and *DXB* are highly divergent MHC class II *B*-like genes. Both genes encode a *B1* region, *B2* region, a connecting peptide, transmembrane membrane, and cytoplasmic tail, yet are only about 45% identical. *DAB* is highly polymorphic, and is most variable in the region that corresponds to the encoded peptide binding pocket (*B1*). Classical MHC class II *B*-like genes also follow this pattern. In humans, classical MHC class II genes are more polymorphic than class I *A* genes, and have d_N values ranging from 0.10 to 0.20 in the *B1* regions of the three classical MHC class II loci (*HLA-DR*, *DQ*, and *DP*) (Hughes and Yeager 1998a). These d_N values are comparable to the d_N value (0.16) observed for the *B1* region of *DAB* in this study.

These extreme levels of polymorphism are thought to be maintained by overdominant selection or negative frequency dependent selection, and this selection is thought to be targeted specifically to the part of the gene that encodes the peptide binding region (Hughes and Yeager 1998a). Studies of MHC class II *B* polymorphism in a variety of species have supported the hypothesis that class II genes are under positive selection (Edwards et al. 1998; Hughes and Nei 1989; Hedrick et al. 2002). Evidence for positive selection on MHC class II loci has been found in a number of fish, including danio, trout, several species of cichlid, and salmon (Figuroa et al. 2000; Graser et al. 1996; Miller and Withler 1996). In this study, the level of *DAB* polymorphism is consistent with the hypothesis of overdominant or negative frequency-dependent selection, which suggests that the *DAB* encoded β -chain probably plays a classical role in *Xiphophorus*.

Our analysis of the coalescence of *DAB* haplotypes across populations and species of *Xiphophorus* indicates that both trans-population and trans-species polymorphism is extensive for this locus (Fig. 1). This is consistent with the persistent action of diversifying selection. The cross-specific analyses of positive selection using the branch- and codon-specific model (MA) in the CODEML program showed evidence for strong positive selection acting on the branch connecting all other species to *X. multilineatus* and *X. pygmaeus*, and the LRT was highly significant. The Bayes Empirical Bayes method indicated that there are a number of sites in the *B1* region with significant posterior probabilities of positive selection. Analyses using omega-Map to estimate selection on point mutations independent

of recombination also showed strong evidence of positive selection in the *B1* region. The signal of selection was robust to variation in the mean and distribution of the prior on omega.

The results from the omegaMap analyses address positive selection on point mutations, and exclude the effects of recombination. Of course, recombination itself is likely an important mechanism for generating haplotype variation at this locus. In sexual species, recombination can rapidly generate new haplotypes by combining new protein variants that have arisen through separate mutation events within a single population. This is a crucial source of variation in sexually reproducing species. In fact, according to the red queen hypothesis developed by William D. Hamilton and others, immune system genes are likely to be key loci with respect to selection for the maintenance of sexual recombination itself (Hamilton et al. 1990). Several recent studies have identified recombination as the primary mechanism producing variation in the peptide binding region of MHC class II sequences (e.g. Richman et al. 2003; Reusch and Langefors 2005). In our analyses using LDhat, we found evidence for extensive recombination in *DAB*. Hence, it is highly likely that recombination contributes to adaptive variation at this locus as well.

DAB and the rate of synonymous substitution

Our simulation of positive selection and codon bias in *DAB* shows that the elevated d_S of the *B1* region compared to the non-*B1* region could be explained by an interaction between these two forces. The argument is that positive selection produces new codons that are not necessarily the most preferred within the codon family and that subsequent selection for preferred codons elevates the synonymous substitution rate. However, our simulation does not provide the opportunity for genetic hitchhiking, in which synonymous mutations could spread to fixation due to their linkage to positively selected nonsynonymous mutations. Therefore, hitchhiking remains a possible alternative explanation. However, the observation of a high rate of recombination and strong codon bias in *DAB* supports the codon bias hypothesis over hitchhiking.

DXB and nonclassical MHC II loci

The results of the analyses of *DXB* sequences presented here and in previous work (McConnell et al. 1998a, 1998b; Roney et al. 2004) suggest that this locus may play a nonclassical role in the fish immune system. In human and mouse, the nonclassical MHC class II genes *DM* and *DO* have limited polymorphism that is not clustered in any one region of the gene (Alfonso and Karlsson 2000). In one study of HLA-*DOB* almost no polymorphism was observed

(Naruse et al. 2002). This is thought to be a result of purifying selection on *DO* as a change in amino acid structure could be deleterious to the role of *DO* as a co-chaperon. *DM* also has very low levels of polymorphism in both mouse and human (Walter et al. 1996). *DXB* has very little polymorphism, and the few differences found are not confined to any particular gene region. *DXB* is also unique in MHC class II genes found in fishes in that it has at least two alternative transcripts (Roney et al. 2004).

The analyses of *DXB* using omegaMap indicated the presence of positive selection, but the signal was weak compared to *DAB*. The minimum of the 95% HPD interval was below one in most cases, and none of the regions estimated to show positive selection had significant posterior probabilities of positive selection under a conservative prior (i.e. exponential distribution with mean equal to 1.0). The signature of positive selection can persist for a very long time (Garrigan and Hedrick 2003), so it is possible that the signature detected in the analyses presented here came from positive selection on these sequences in the distant past. This suggests the possibility that the *DXB* currently serves a non-classical role, but was originally derived from a duplication event involving a classical MHC II *B* locus.

The evidence presented here and in previous studies is consistent with the hypothesis that *DXB* plays a nonclassical role in *Xiphophorus* fishes. Nonclassical MHC class II *B*-like genes have not previously been identified as such in fishes. The nonclassical genes *DM* and *DO* are currently the focus of research to fully elucidate their function. Insight into a nonclassical MHC class II gene in fish will help characterize the evolution of nonclassical genes as well as the evolution the specific immune system.

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