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Title:

Population genomics reveals low genetic diversity and adaptation to hypoxia in snub-nosed monkeys

Authors:

Xuming Zhou^{1,2†*}, Xuehong Meng^{3†}, Zhijin Liu^{1†}, Jiang Chang^{4†}, Boshi Wang^{1†}, Mingzhou Li^{5†}, Pablo Orozco-terWengel⁶, Shilin Tian^{3,5}, Changlong Wen⁷, Ziming Wang¹, Paul A Garber^{8,9}, Huijuan Pan¹⁰, Xinpeng Ye¹¹, Zuofu Xiang¹², Michael W. Bruford⁶, Scott V. Edwards¹³, Yinchuan Cao³, Shuancang Yu⁷, Lianju Gao³, Zhisheng Cao³, Guangjian Liu¹, Baoping Ren¹, Fanglei Shi¹, Zalan Peterfi², Dayong Li¹⁴, Baoguo Li¹⁵, Zhi Jiang³, Junsheng Li⁴, Vadim N. Gladyshev², Ruiqiang Li^{3*}, Ming Li^{1*}

Author affiliation:

¹ Key laboratory of Animal Ecology and Conservation Biology, Institute of Zoology, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Beijing 100101, China.

² Division of Genetics, Department of Medicine, Brigham and Women's Hospital, Harvard Medical School, Boston, MA 02115, USA

³ Novogene Bioinformatics Institute, Beijing 100083, China.

⁴ State key laboratory of Environmental Criteria and Risk Assessment, Chinese Research Academy of Environmental Sciences, Beijing 100012, China.

⁵ College of Animal Science and Technology, Sichuan Agricultural University, Ya'an 625014, China.

⁶ Biodiversity and Sustainable Places Research Institute, Cardiff School of Biosciences, Cardiff University, Cardiff CF10 3T, UK.

⁷ Beijing Vegetable Research Center (BVRC), Beijing Academy of Agricultural and Forestry Sciences, Beijing 100097, China

⁸ Department of Anthropology, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign, Urbana-Champaign, Illinois 61801, USA.

⁹ Program in Ecology and Evolutionary Biology, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign, Urbana-Champaign, Illinois 61801, USA.

¹⁰ College of Nature Conservation, Beijing Forestry University, Beijing 100083, China.

¹¹ School of Life Sciences, Shaanxi Normal University, Xi'an 710062, China.

¹² College of Life Science and Technology, Central South University of Forestry and Technology, Changsha 410004, China.

¹³ Department of Organismic and Evolutionary Biology, Harvard University, Cambridge, MA 02138, USA

¹⁴ College of life Sciences, China West Normal University, Nanchong, Sichuan 637002, China

¹⁵ College of Life Sciences, Northwest University, Xi'an 710069, China.

†These authors contributed equally to this work.

**Corresponding author:*

Dr. **Ming Li** (lim@ioz.ac.cn)

Dr. **Ruiqiang Li** (lirq@novogene.cn)

Dr. **Xuming Zhou** (xmzhou0103@163.com)

Abstract

2 Snub-nosed monkeys (genus *Rhinopithecus*) are a group of endangered colobines
endemic to South Asia. Here, we re-sequenced the whole genomes of 38 snub-nosed
4 monkeys representing four species within this genus. By conducting population
genomic analyses, we observed an similar load of deleterious variation in snub-nosed
6 monkeys living in both smaller and larger populations and found that genomic
diversity was lower than that reported in other primates. Reconstruction of
8 *Rhinopithecus* evolutionary history suggested that episodes of climatic variation over
the past 2 million years, associated with glacial advances and retreats and population
10 isolation, have shaped snub-nosed monkey demography and evolution. We further
identified several hypoxia-related genes under selection in *R. bieti* (black snub-nosed
12 monkey), a species that exploits habitats higher than any other nonhuman primate.
These results provide the first detailed and comprehensive genomic insights into
14 genetic diversity, demography, genetic burden and adaptation in this radiation of
endangered primates.

16

18 *Keywords:*

20 Snub-nosed monkeys | Population genomics | Demographics | Genetic diversity |
Genetic adaptation

22

Introduction

2 Snub-nosed monkeys (*Rhinopithecus* spp.) represent a diverse radiation of
endangered leaf-eating monkeys (colobines or foregut fermenters) that exploit a diet
4 composed principally of leaves, seeds, bark and lichen (IUCN 2011). These primates
were once widely distributed across Asia but now are limited to mountain forests in
6 south China, Myanmar, and Vietnam (Kirkpatrick 1998; Quan and Xie 2002). Five
extant species with different census population sizes are recognized: *R. roxellana*, the
8 Sichuan or golden snub-nosed monkey, ~ 25,000 individuals; *R. brelichi*, the gray
snub-nosed monkey, ~800 individuals; *R. bieti*, the black or Yunnan snub-nosed
10 monkey, ~2,000 individuals; *R. avunculus*, the Tonkin snub-nosed monkey, ~200
individuals; and *R. strykeri*, the Myanmar snub-nosed monkey, ~300 individuals (**fig.**
12 **1a** and **supplementary fig. S1**) (Quan and Xie 2002). Three species, the golden, gray
and black, are endemic to China, while a fourth species, the Tonkin snub-nosed
14 monkey is restricted to northern Vietnam. The Myanmar snub-nosed monkey, which
was discovered from Myanmar (Burma) in 2011, has now also been reported to range
16 into southwestern China (Nujiang prefecture) (Geissmann et al. 2011). Genetic
evidence suggests that *Rhinopithecus* represents the most basal lineage of Asian
18 colobines, however, evolutionary relationships within the genus *Rhinopithecus*,
remain unclear (Liedigk et al. 2012). During the Pleistocene changes in rates of gene
20 flow, population isolation, and periods of population expansion and population
reduction, associated with major climatic (glacial) and geological events (uplifting of
22 the Tibetan plateau), make this clade an instructive model for investigating questions

concerning evolutionary genetics and adaptation.

2 Moreover, the black snub-nosed monkey which is confined to high altitude
forests from 3,400 and 4,600 meters above sea level within a narrow region of the
4 Tibetan plateau between the Yangtze and Mekong rivers (98°37' to 99°41'E, 26°14' to
29°20'N) has the highest elevational range of any primate species (Long et al. 1994,
6 1996; Li et al. 2002). Across their range, *R. bieti* is exposed to significant challenges
associated with hypothermia, hypoxia and locating calorie-rich food during winter
8 (2-3 months) when temperatures commonly fall below -10° C. In response to these
challenges, *R. bieti* exhibits a set of derived anatomical and behavioral traits such as
10 increased body mass, predominantly black pelage and a behavioral pattern
characterized by travel to locations above the tree line and preferred use of southern
12 mountain slopes to increase exposure to solar radiation (Quan and Xie 2002)
(**supplementary table S1**). It has been proposed that the tectonic migration of the
14 Hengduan Mountains, located in southwest China and northern Myanmar, and
concomitant environmental perturbations associated with periods of glacial expansion
16 and glacial retreat during the last 1.9-2.8 mya (million years ago) are likely to have
led to population isolation events in snub-nosed monkeys (Pan and Jablonski 1987;
18 Liedigk et al. 2012). However, the genetic implications of population isolation and the
genomic basis of adaptations of black snub-nosed monkeys to high altitude
20 environments have not been determined (Yu et al. 2011).

Here, we sequenced 38 wild snub-nosed monkey genomes (four *Rhinopithecus*
22 species). By conducting extensive species and population comparisons, we have

reconstructed the phylogenetic relationships, demographic history and species ancient
2 distributions, as well as have determined the effects of changes in population size and
the relative frequency of deleterious mutations across the genus. We also examined
4 selected regions of the genome that indicate genetic changes that facilitated the
exploitation of high altitude forests and recent population divergence among
6 snub-nosed monkey species.

8 **Results and Discussion**

Phylogeny and genetic diversity

10 Genome mapping of 42 individuals (27 golden, four gray, two Myanmar and nine
black snub-nosed monkeys) across the snub-nosed monkey's 3.05 Gb genome
12 resulted in an average of 98.6 % sequencing coverage with ~10.39-fold and
~25.38-fold coverage depth for 35 and seven individuals, respectively (Zhou et al.
14 2014) (**supplementary tables S2-S7** and **figs. S2-S4**). The neighbor-joining (NJ) tree
of snub-nosed monkeys features two clusters, with golden and gray snub-nosed
16 monkeys, both northern species, grouping together and black and Myanmar
snub-nosed monkeys ('Himalayan' species) forming the other cluster (**fig. 1b** and
18 **supplementary fig. S5**). The principal components analysis (PCA) (Patterson et al.
2006) also recovered these groupings, with the first and second eigenvectors separate
20 *R. roxellana*, *R. brelichi* and *R. strykeri*/*R. bieti* (**fig. 1c** and **supplementary table S8**).
Within golden snub-nosed monkeys, only individuals from the Shennongjia (SNJ)
22 mountains clustered together and formed a monophyletic group distinct from the
remaining populations (Sichuan/Gansu populations, including Minshan [MS] and

Qionglai [QLA] mountains, and Qinling mountains [QL], termed as non-SNJ cluster)
2 **(fig. 1b and supplementary fig. S5)**. Both PCA and *frappe* analyses (Tang et al. 2005)
recapitulated these findings. In particular, the first eigenvector separated the two
4 genetic lineages (SNJ and non-SNJ clusters) (variance explained = 5.98%,
Tracy-Widom $P = 1.09 \times 10^{-8}$), but the second eigenvector failed to separate the
6 Qinling population from the other populations (variance explained = 3.65%,
Tracy-Widom $P = 1.09 \times 10^{-8}$) **(supplementary fig. S6 and table S9)**. Cross validation
8 analysis using ADMIXTURE (Alexander et al. 2009) offers support for two clusters
(supplementary figs. S7). Using *frappe*, we found a division between the SNJ and
10 the non-SNJ (QL-MS-QLA) when $K = 2$, with slight shared ancestry sequences
between these two groups **(fig. 1d and supplementary fig. S8)**. Although three
12 distinct clusters were found at $K = 3$, this result was not corroborated by
cross-validation and was inconsistent with the population's biogeographic distribution,
14 i.e. Qinling (QL), Minshan-Qionglai (MS-QLA), and Shennongjia (SNJ) mountains,
indicating strong gene flow between the Qinling (QL) and Minshan-Qionglai
16 (MS-QLA) populations.

Compared to other primate taxa, the heterozygosity of snub-nosed monkeys,
18 defined as the number of heterozygous SNPs divided by total callable sequence in
each individual, at 0.015%-0.068%, was found to be generally lower than in humans
20 (0.08%-0.12%) and great apes (0.065%-0.178%) (Prado-Martinez et al. 2013), and
was similar to that reported in endangered carnivores, such as the Amur Tiger, African
22 Lion and Snow Leopard (0.048%-0.0073%) (Cho et al. 2013) **(supplementary figs.**

2 **S9-S10, supplementary table S10**). In contrast, the heterozygous SNP rate of the
3 snub-nosed monkeys was higher than the Yangtze River dolphin (0.0121%) (Zhou et
4 al. 2013) and Chinese alligator (0.015%) (Wan et al. 2013), both of which are
5 considered critically endangered. The low genetic diversity of snub-nosed monkeys is
6 consistent with their small extant population sizes, which may be related to an
7 evolutionary history of environmental change associated with severe forest
8 fragmentation across isolated mountain terrain (Pan and Jablonski 1987; Quan and
9 Xie 2002). Within snub-nosed monkeys, the heterozygosity of the two northern
10 species (golden: $0.041\% \pm 7.16 \times 10^{-5}$ [mead \pm standard deviations] and gray:
11 $0.068\% \pm 5.40 \times 10^{-5}$) was higher than that of the Himalayan species (black:
12 $0.032\% \pm 1.02 \times 10^{-5}$ and Myanmar: $0.015\% \pm 2.05 \times 10^{-5}$) ($P < 0.05$) (**supplementary**
13 **fig. S10**), suggesting differences in population histories, with smaller population sizes
14 in the Himalayan species.

14

Demographic history and correlation with climate change

16 To explore the demographic histories of snub-nosed monkeys, we inferred historical
17 population size changes using the PSMC model (Li and Durbin 2011) based on the
18 distribution of heterozygous sites across the genome. We found that individuals from
19 the same species showed a highly similar pattern of historical fluctuation in effective
20 population sizes (N_e) (**fig. 2a** and **supplementary fig. S11**). However, the historical
21 trends in N_e for black, gray and Myanmar snub-nosed monkeys showed a very
22 different pattern from those of golden snub-nosed monkeys, with continuing declines

of N_e in the first three species and two bottlenecks and two expansions in golden
2 snub-nosed monkeys (Zhou et al. 2014). Within golden snub-nosed monkeys,
individuals from the same habitats or mountain region showed a similar pattern of
4 historical fluctuation of N_e with very few exceptions (two individuals), possibly due to
migration or hybridization that occurred in these populations (**fig. 2b**). The
6 post-bottleneck population expansion after 10^5 years was not found in individuals
from the Shennongjia (SNJ) and southern Qinling mountain populations, consistent
8 with their reduction in heterozygosity when compared to other populations.

For golden snub-nosed monkeys, we also inferred the time of the divergence event
10 between the Shennongjia (SNJ) and Qinling-Minshan-Qionglai (non-SNJ)
populations, as well as recent demographic fluctuations in population size. Using the
12 joint site frequency spectrum between SNJ and non-SNJ and the diffusion
approximations method (Gutenkunst et al. 2009), the IM-pre model, identified the
14 split between SNJ and non-SNJ populations around 4.60 thousand years ago (Upper
Pleistocene and Holocene) (**fig. 3a, supplementary table S11 and fig. S12**), similar to
16 the timing of separation revealed by the SM model (split with migration) and PSMC
analyses. Relative cross coalescence rates (CCR) estimated by a MSMC (multiple
18 sequentially Markovian coalescent) model (Schiffels and Durbin 2014) revealed that
the complete split between the SNJ and non-SNJ populations occurred 10 kya
20 (thousand years ago), near the end of the last glacial maximum (LGM, 25-15 kya) (**fig.**
3b). In the early stages of the LGM (~20 kya), substantial alpine glaciations (for
22 example, Gongga glacial II in Qinghai-Tibetan Plateau, 15-20 kya) (Zheng et al. 2002)

2 resulted in extensive loss and fragmentation of forested habitats across the snub-nosed
3 monkey distribution, likely leading to population isolation. Population studies using
4 allozyme loci polymorphisms (Li et al. 2003) also proposed a recent bottleneck for
5 golden snub-nosed monkeys, in that case within the last 15,000 years.

6 During the Pleistocene, climatic fluctuations and periodic uplifting of the
7 Qinghai-Tibetan Plateau had important effects on biodiversity and changes in the
8 geographic distribution of mammals in southwest China (He and Jiang 2014). For
9 example, it has been suggested that the LIG (Last Interglacial Maximum) was an
10 unfavorable period for mole shrews (*Anourosorex squamipes*) because of increased
11 seasonality in temperature extremes. During this period, mole shrews survived in
12 isolated interglacial refugia mainly located in the southern subregion and then rapidly
13 expanded during the LGM (He et al. 2016). The amount and distribution of suitable
14 habitat for snub-nosed monkeys also is likely to have been affected by these climatic
15 events. To assess the role of climate using species distribution models and
16 palaeoclimatic data on temperature and precipitation, we estimated suitable habitat of
17 golden snub-nosed monkeys during the time periods of 120-140 kya (LIG), 21 kya
18 (LGM), 6 kya (Mid-Holocene), and the present (**fig. 3c** and **supplementary table**
19 **S12**). The model revealed that suitable habitat during the LIG was more widely
20 available than during both the colder LGM and warmer mid Holocene. Specifically,
21 climate change during the LIG period resulted in an expansion of suitable habitat in
22 northward areas (**fig. 3c**). This result parallels patterns of population size change in
23 golden snub-nosed monkeys estimated from the PSMC model, which suggested an

expansion in population size beginning at 0.1 mya and a bottleneck occurring at the
2 LGM. Strikingly, the suitable habitat of golden snub-nosed monkeys expanded toward
warmer southern areas during the LGM; by contrast, the fossil record implied that
4 population have moved into colder northern areas during the mid-Holocene (**fig. 3c**).
Given that seasonal extremes in temperature have a significant effect on forest
6 productivity (Ni et al. 2001), climate change likely dramatically contributed to the
shifts in the geographic distribution of golden snub-nosed monkey populations from
8 the LIG to the LGM. In addition, combined with genetic evidence of population
history, these results are consistent with severe population isolation of golden
10 snub-nosed monkeys during the LGM, followed by subsequent *in situ* survival in their
extant ranges.

12

Signatures of deleterious variation and positive selection

14 As demonstrated above and reported in a previous study (Zhou et al. 2014),
levels of heterozygosity and demographic trajectories varied substantially among
16 snub-nosed monkey species and populations. Genome-wide linkage disequilibrium
(LD) also varied markedly within *Rhinopithecus*; specifically, the average distance
18 over which LD decayed to half of its maximum value in gray (>100 kb) and black
snub-nosed monkeys (~66.7 kb) was substantially longer than that of golden
20 snub-nosed monkeys (~17.5 kb) (**fig. 4a**). Because deleterious mutations should be
removed more efficiently in larger populations (Kimura 1983; Charlesworth 2009;
22 Xue et al. 2015), we examined the genetic load of deleterious variation in different

snub-nosed monkeys. We found a similar number of derived missense and
2 loss-of-function (LoF) alleles among golden, gray and black snub-nosed monkeys (**fig.**
4b). We did not observe a larger number of derived missense alleles in gray
4 snub-nosed monkeys and black snub-nosed monkeys compared to golden snub-nosed
monkeys (**fig. 4b**). Thus, despite their larger census population size, selection was not
6 more effective at removing moderately deleterious mutations in golden snub-nosed
monkeys, a pattern also seen in humans (Do et al. 2015). This may either be because
8 golden snub-nosed populations were still too small for selection to effectively remove
deleterious mutations or that ancient bottlenecks had an impact on purifying and
10 background selection (Lynch 2006). We found that black snub-nosed monkeys had
more LoF variants than golden snub-nosed monkeys. However, the ratio of
12 homozygous LoF genotypes in black snub-nosed monkeys is higher than in golden
snub-nosed monkeys (**fig. 4c**), which is consistent with the assumption that LoF
14 variants are more likely to be strongly deleterious and are more frequently exposed in
a homozygous state (Glémin 2003). We also found LoF variants differing significantly
16 in homozygous and heterozygous tracts (**fig. 4d**), which is consistent with that
recessive LoF variants are likely more deleterious in the homozygous rather than the
18 heterozygous state, where they are masked.

Finally, we looked at variation in genes or genomic regions that were possibly
20 under selection and adaptation in snub-nosed monkeys. We first focused on black
snub-nosed monkeys. This species inhabits the highest known mountain elevations
22 among *Rhinopithecus* and among non-human primates generally (Long et al. 1996; Li

et al. 2002). Given that the divergence between black snub-nosed monkeys and other
2 snub-nosed monkeys was relatively recent, we used a population genetic methodology
to identify selective regions and adaptations. Using fixation (F_{ST}) and genetic
4 diversity (θ_{π}), we identified 19 genes, containing a total of 2.16 Mb of genomic
sequence, with maximum F_{ST} values (top 5%) and minimum $\theta_{\pi 1}/\theta_{\pi 2}$ (top 5%) in black
6 snub-nosed monkeys (**fig. 5a** and **supplementary table S13**). Of these potentially
selected genes, *ADAM9*, which encodes a cell-surface membrane glycoprotein, is a
8 member of the ADAM (a disintegrin and metalloprotease domain) family (**fig. 5b**).
Members of this family have been implicated in a variety of biological processes
10 involving cell-cell and cell-matrix interactions, muscle development and neurogenesis
(Primakoff and Myles 2000). Several ADAM family members have been identified as
12 positively selected genes in Tibetan yak and ground tit, compared to their lowland
relatives (Qiu et al. 2012; Cai et al. 2013). With regard to *ADAM9*, previous study has
14 showed that the mRNA and protein expression levels of this gene are elevated by the
regulation of reactive oxygen species under hypoxic stress conditions in prostate
16 cancer cells (Shen et al. 2013). In addition, hypoxia (1% oxygen) can also induce the
expression of *ADAM9* in gastric cancer cells (Kim et al. 2014). Interestingly, *ADAM9*
18 has also been identified as one of the positively selected genes in Tibetan chicken
(Zhang et al. 2016), suggesting a common strategy for hypoxia adaption has been
20 utilized in both two species. Also, it is well documented that that an unfolded protein
response (UPR) is involved in O₂-sensitive signaling pathways caused by hypoxia in
22 cancer (Wouters et al. 2008) and moderate to severe hypoxia will affect the

pulmonary vascular remodeling and cardiac muscle function (Julian 2007).

2 Accordingly, we found another two genes positively selected in the black snub-nosed
monkey (**supplementary tables S14 and S15**) that are associated with such pathways,
4 i.e., Ubiquitin mediated proteolysis (*HERC1*) and Cardiac muscle contraction
(*SLC9A6*).

6 To examine the local adaptations of golden snub-nosed monkey populations, we
measured selected regions across genome between the SNJ and non-SNJ golden
8 snub-nosed monkey populations, which are geographically and genetically distinct.
We found twice as many genomic regions were under positive selection in the SNJ
10 population (161 genes containing 17.86 Mb of sequence, or 0.625% of the genome) as
there were in the non-SNJ populations (64 genes containing 7.77 Mb, or 0.272% of
12 the genome) (**fig. 5c and supplementary table S14**). Genes embedded in selected
regions of the SNJ and non-SNJ populations were significantly associated with lipid
14 metabolism process, such as negative regulation of very-low-density lipoprotein
particle remodeling (2 genes, $P = 2.0 \times 10^{-4}$, Fisher exact test), steroid metabolic
16 process (8 genes, $P = 2.5 \times 10^{-3}$, Fisher exact test) and cellular lipid catabolic process
(4 genes, $P = 4.4 \times 10^{-3}$, Fisher exact test) (**supplementary tables S16-S17**).
18 Moreover, several genes (including *GTF2I*, *TRIPL1*, *DTNB*, *CATSPER3*, *PPIL6*,
RBBP8) that under selection in SNJ populations associated with adult height and
20 organ development in humans. This may be related to the fact that golden snub-nosed
monkeys living in Shennongjia mountain differ from other golden snub-nosed
22 monkey populations in possessing extremely reduced or absent nasal bones and fusion

of the premaxilla superior to the piriform aperture, a longer tail and longer forelimbs
2 (supplementary tables S18-S19) (Kirkpatrick 1998; Wang et al. 1998; Mittermeier et
al. 2013). Interestingly, one of those genes (i.e., *GTF2I*) is located in the causal region
4 (7q11.23) of the Williams-Beuren syndrome, a microdeletion or
contiguous-gene-deletion disorder, resulting in a distinctive, ‘elfin’ facial appearance,
6 along with a flat nasal bridge (Francke 1999; Pober 2010). Moreover, given that some
traits characteristic of the SNJ population, for example their long tail, are also found
8 in other species of snub-nosed monkeys, we speculate that the natural selection on
genes corresponding to these common characters has relaxed in the non-SNJ
10 population of golden snub-nosed monkeys, leading to an increase in the frequency of
this polymorphism.

12

Conclusions

14 In the present study, we first provide a comprehensive analysis of genomic
polymorphism within the genus *Rhinopithecus* and then reconstruct phylogenetic
16 relationships across snub-nosed monkey genomes. Our results indicate that
biogeography and climate change critically shaped the demographic history of
18 snub-nosed monkeys. We found low genetic diversity within each species of this
primate clade, likely the result of historical bottlenecks caused by glacial and tectonic
20 events the Pleistocene. This is consistent with biogeographical and fossil information
indicating that snub-nosed monkeys were once widely distributed throughout China
22 and parts of South Asia but that currently all five endangered species are confined to

isolated mountain forests. We also found that a larger census population size of golden
2 snub-nosed monkeys did not result in a reduction of burden of deleterious mutations
compared to other snub-nosed monkeys. Given the limited remaining population size
4 of each snub-nosed monkey species, it is likely that continued habitat loss and
fragmentation resulting from climate change and human interference will lead to
6 further population isolation and decline.

We found evidence of positive selection in the genome of the black snub-nosed
8 monkeys for several genes that potentially facilitate an adaptive response to hypoxia.
We do caution, however, that genomic variation can be affected by many evolutionary
10 processes and that without functional experiments, it is difficult to distinguish natural
selection from genetic drift on specific loci, including candidate genes listed in the
12 present study. This study highlights the value of genomic data in assessing genetic
diversity, measuring the power of natural selection, and identifying local adaptations.

14

Materials and Methods

16 Sampling and Sequencing

This study was approved by the Animal Ethics Committee of the Institute of Zoology,
18 Chinese Academy of Sciences. The muscle and dried skin samples were collected
from individuals who died of natural causes in Nature Reserves. The blood samples
20 were collected from injured individuals who were treated by veterinarians from the
rescue station of the nature reserves or zoos. The procedure of blood collection was in
22 strict accordance with the Animal Ethics Procedures and Guidelines of the People's

Republic of China. Our sample included 26 golden, three gray, one Myanmar and
2 eight black snub-nosed monkeys. For golden snub-nosed monkeys, our samples
included each of the five extant mountain populations, i.e., Sichuan/Gansu (GS or SG),
4 Minshan (MS), Qinling mountains (QL), Qionglai mountain (QLA) and Shennongjia
(SNJ). Individuals from the same location were avoided in order to reduce the
6 potential effect of kinship on genetic diversity. Genomic DNA of 38 snub-nosed
monkeys was extracted from blood or muscle using a Gentra Puregene Blood Kit
8 (Qiagen) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Sequencing libraries were
constructed with insert size 500 bp or 300 bp, and then sequenced on an Illumina
10 HiSeq 2000 platform using paired-end (PE) 100 bp reads. The average sequencing
depth was $\sim 30\times$ per sample for the 3 golden snub-nosed monkey individuals and
12 $\sim 10\times$ per sample for the other 35 individuals (**supplementary table S3**).
Resequencing reads of snub-nosed monkeys in this study have been deposited in
14 NCBI Sequence Read Archive (SRA) under accession SRP051679. Four previously
published snub-nosed monkey genome data were retrieved from NCBI under
16 accession SRP033389.

18 **Read mapping and variant calling**

Adapter and low quality reads (e.g. Reads with $\geq 10\%$ unidentified nucleotides (N);
20 reads with > 10 nt aligned to the adapter, allowing $\leq 10\%$ mismatches;
bases having phred quality < 30) were removed from the raw data using inhouse Perl
22 script. The remaining high quality reads were aligned to the golden snub-nosed

1 monkey (GSM) genome (Zhou et al. 2014) using Burrows-Wheeler algorithm
2 implemented in BWA software (Li and Durbin 2009) with parameters ‘BWA aln -o 1
-e 10’. In order to reduce mismatch generated by PCR amplification before
4 sequencing, duplicated reads were removed using Samtools (version 1.2) (Li et al.
2009).

6 We performed variant calling on population-scale for all samples using Samtools
(version 1.2) mpileup with parameters ‘-q 1 -C 50 -S -D -m 2 -F 0.002’ and using
8 bcftools (with parameters ‘view -cvg’) to view variants (Li et al. 2011). The following
filtering steps were applied in order to obtain high quality variants: 1) minimum read
10 depth was 8; 2) maximum read depth was 30; 3) minimum root-mean-square (RMS)
mapping quality was 20; and 4) SNP within 3 bp around a mapping gap to be filtered.
12 Other parameters in ‘bcftools/vcfutils.pl varFilter’ are default. Genotype quality less
than 20 and variants with allele frequency less than 10% of the 42 samples also were
14 filtered. To assess sequence accuracy, we genotyped 100 randomly selected variants in
38 snub-nosed monkeys using a PCR-based KASP (Kbioscience Allele-specific
16 Polymorphism) genotyping approach. Of the 2,330 loci successfully genotyped, 95.45%
SNPs (2,224 loci) were consistent with the SNPs identified from resequencing,
18 demonstrating the high quality and reliability of our variant calls.

20 **Heterozygosity analysis**

Genetic diversity was assessed using heterozygosity in each individual.
22 Heterozygosity (h) for each individual was calculated as the number of heterozygous

sites divided by the total number of callable sites across the whole genome.

2

Phylogenetics, population structure and principal components analysis

4 Phylogenetic trees were inferred using neighbor joining (NJ) method and
implemented in TreeBest (<http://treesoft.sourceforge.net/treebest.shtml>) with 500
6 bootstraps. Population structure within golden snub-nosed monkeys was inferred by
ADMIXTURE (Alexander et al. 2009) with 10-fold cross-validation (Alexander and
8 Lange 2011). The ancestral sequences of snub-nosed monkeys were inferred using the
program *frappe* (Tang et al. 2005), which implements an expectation-maximization
10 algorithm. We did not assume any prior information about their structures in these
analyses and predefined the number of genetic clusters K from 2 to 5. The maximum
12 iteration of the expectation-maximization algorithm was set to 10,000.

The principal component analysis (PCA) of 42 samples was conducted using
14 EIGENSOFT3.0 (Patterson et al. 2006) and the significance of eigenvectors were
determined with the Tracey-Widom test in the EIGENSOFT 3.0 (Patterson et al.
16 2006). The numbers of individuals differ greatly between species and this can
potentially influence the PCA. Therefore, we repeated the PCA analyses by randomly
18 selecting 9 and 4 golden snub-nosed monkey individuals, respectively (five replicates
for each). The repeated analyses supported the original results.

20

Demographic history reconstruction

22 Changes in effective population size were inferred from a haploid pairwise

sequentially Markovian coalescence (PSMC) model (Li and Durbin 2011) with
2 parameters '-g 10 -R -u 1.36e-8 -m 100 -X 2000000 -p "4+25*2+4+6"'. Several
gradient levels for the parameter '-p' were set (from 26 free interval parameters with
4 60 atomic time intervals to 30 free interval parameters with 68 atomic time intervals)
to test the performance of PSMC model in golden snub-nosed monkeys. The
6 estimated TMRCA is in units of $2N_0$ time and the mean generation time was set at 10
years and μ (unit: nt/generation) was estimated as 1.36×10^{-8} according to our
8 previous estimation (Zhou et al. 2014). Given that the reduced genetic variation in X
chromosomes would affect the inference of population genetic information, we
10 excluded SNPs located in X chromosomal regions and kept autosomal SNPs for
PSMC analyses and later MSMC analyses. We aligned the scaffolds of the golden
12 snub-nosed assembly to the human (genome hg19) using LASTZ (Harris 2007) and
excluded the longest scaffold that showed a syntenic relationship with the human X
14 chromosome.

The recent demographic history of golden snub-nosed monkeys was inferred using
16 $\partial a \partial i$ (Gutenkunst et al. 2009). Many divergence models between two genetic
populations, including the Standard neutral model (SNM), the Instantaneous size
18 change followed by exponential growth with and without population split model, Split
into two populations with migration (SM) model, Isolation-with-migration model with
20 exponential pop growth (IM) model, and Isolation-with-migration model with
exponential pop growth and a size change prior to split (IM-pre) were considered. The
22 IM_pre and SM models were chosen as the optimal models by comparing the

optimized model likelihood. The ancestral population size (N_A) was estimated on the
2 basis of the optimized parameters and the estimated mutation rate. Nonparametric
bootstrapping was performed 100 times to determine the variance of each parameter
4 using equal numbers of loci sampled without replacement from the original data set.
The relative cross coalescence rates (CCR) for the Shennongjia (SNJ) and
6 Qinling-Minshan-Qionglai (non-SNJ) populations divergence within Golden
snub-nosed monkeys was estimated under MSMC model (Schiffels and Durbin 2014).

8

Species distribution modeling

10 Geographical information on species presence ($n=127$) was obtained from the
State and local records in China since 1616 and published in previous studies (Quan
12 and Xie 2001; Li et al. 2002, 2003b). A total of 25 fossil localities were drawn from
the literature (Pan 1995; Hijmans et al. 2005) to collate the modelled past species
14 distribution areas. Generally, the fossil localities represent a subset, rather than an
exhaustive search of the literature available, and modelled ranges consequently
16 represent a subset of the entire past distribution of the species.

We developed the present-day Species Distribution Models (SDMs) based on
18 current climate data, and then projected the SDMs to three periods: mid-Holocene
(~6000 years BP), last glacial maximum (LGM, ~21000 years BP), and last
20 interglacial (LIG, ~120000 - 140000 years BP). Nineteen bio-climatic variables used
for model construction and projections were obtained from the WorldClim 1.4

database at a spatial resolution of 2.5 arc-minutes (Hijmans et al. 2005). The
2 bio-climatic layers for the present-day were based on spatially interpolated values of
temperature and precipitation gathered from weather stations around the world from
4 1950-2000 (Pan 1995), whereas the variables for both the period mid-Holocene and
LGM were generated from the climate reconstructions based on CCSM4
6 (<http://www.cesm.ucar.edu/>) (Collins et al. 2006) and MIROC-ESM (Otto-Bliesner et
al. 2006), and the variables for LIG were downscaled from simulations with Global
8 Climate Models (GCMs) (Otto-Bliesner et al. 2006).

SDMs were run at each grid size in R-based BIOMOD for the golden snub-nosed
10 monkey, and each probability distribution was predicted across the study area. We
divided the occurrence data into two subsets: the first, a random sample from 70% of
12 the total database was used to calibrate (train) the models, whereas the second,
comprising the remaining data, was used to evaluate (test) model predictions (Fielding
14 and Bell 1997). The eight methods included in the testing framework were: artificial
neural networks (ANN) (Venables and Ripley 2013); classification tree analysis (CTA)
16 (Breiman et al. 1984); random forest (RF) (Breiman 2011); generalized linear models
(GLM) (McCullagh and Nelder 1989); generalized boosting models (GBM)
18 (Ridgeway 1999); generalized additive models (GAM) (Hastie and Tibshirani 1990),
mixture discriminate analysis (MDA) (Hastie 1994), and Maximum Entropy (MaxEnt)
20 (Phillips et al. 2006). To assess the quality of predictions, we randomly split the
dataset using 70% of the data to calibrate the models and the remaining 30% for

evaluation (Barbet-Massin et al. 2012). Since only occurrence records were available
2 for the species, we used 1000 randomly generated pseudo-absence points in
constructing SDMs (Elith et al. 2006). Model performance at each grid size was
4 assessed using Cohen's kappa statistic (Cohen 1990), the area under the curve (AUC)
of receiver operating characteristics (ROC) (Fielding and Bell 1997), and true skills
6 statistics (TSS) (Allouche et al. 2006). From the output of all eight species
distribution models, we generated ensemble projections based on the weighted mean
8 of predicted probabilities of presence (Thuiller 2003).

10 **Linkage-disequilibrium (LD) analyses**

To assess linkage disequilibrium (LD) pattern in snub-nosed monkey species, the
12 coefficient of determination between any two loci in each population was calculated
using Haploview (Barrett et al. 2005) with parameters '-maxdistance 500 -dprime
14 -minGeno 0.75 -minMAF 0.05 -hwcutoff 0.001'. For plotting LD decay curves,
variants with a highly similar physical distance (500 kb) were merged into groups
16 and calculation of average r^2 for each group. Considering the samples were not equal
in three snub-nosed monkeys, we randomly chose 9 and 4 golden snub-nosed
18 monkeys, respectively and repeated the LD analyses 10 times.

20 **Genetic load and purging of deleterious mutations**

The genetic load and the power of removing deleterious mutations were
22 measured using the methods proposed for gorillas (Xue et al. 2015). We used

ANNOVAR (Wang et al. 2010) to annotate and classify coding sequence variants based on the following sequence ontology terms: LoF variants: stop_gain, frameshift_variant, inframe_insertion, inframe_deletion; Missense variants: missense_variant; Synonymous variants: synonymous_variant. We determined the ancestral allele at each position on the basis of comparison to the macaque genome (MMUL 1.0). In order to estimate the relative excess of missense and deficit of LoF variants in *R. bieti* (black snub-nosed monkey) and *R. brelichi* (gray snub-nosed monkey) compared to *R. roxellana* (golden snub-nosed monkey): for each pairwise comparison, we first calculated the number of alleles ('derived alleles') found in one population (for example, population A), but not the other (for example, population B). Then, the relative number of derived alleles in each comparison were determined by $R_{A,B}(C) = L_{A,B}(C) / L_{B,A}(C)$, where $L_{A,B}(C)$ was estimated from:

$$L_{A,B}(C) = \frac{\sum_{i \in C} f_i^A (1 - f_i^B)}{\sum_{j \in I} f_j^A (1 - f_j^B)}$$

When we estimated $L_{A,B}(C)$, at each site i , the observed derived allele frequency in population A was defined as $f_i^A = d_i^A / n_i^A$, where n_i^A is the total number of alleles and d_i^A is the number of derived alleles identified in population A. The f_i^B was similarly defined in population B. In the above formula, C and I indicate category of protein-coding sites and a set of intergenic sites respectively. Totally, 3.66 Mb, 3.53Mb and 4.88Mb intergenic sites were selected in black, gray and golden snub-nosed monkeys, respectively.

To investigate the ratio of homozygous LoF genotypes in each subspecies of

sub-nosed monkeys, we also counted the number of LoF segregating sites (n_{hom})
2 where at least one individual is homozygous for the derived allele in each subspecies.
In total, we found 296 such sites in *R. bieti*, 181 in eastern *R. brelichi* and 271 in *R.*
4 *roxellana*. In order to normalize the numbers of samples in each species, we also
counted n_{hom} in each of 10,000 random samples of segregating synonymous sites. The
6 LoF mutations occurring as homozygous tracts within individuals were normalized by
the rate of synonymous variant sites in the same regions.

8

Selective signals in black and golden snub-nosed monkeys

10 The polymorphism levels in each group were quantified by pairwise nucleotide
diversity (θ_{π}) (Tajima 1983, equation A3) and the genetic differentiation in two
12 populations was quantified by pairwise F_{ST} ($=[H_{\text{T}} - H_{\text{S}}] / H_{\text{T}}$, Weir and Cockerham
1984). Both θ_{π} and F_{ST} were calculated by a sliding window method (100 kb windows
14 sliding in 10 kb steps). Variants were filtered when the minor allele frequency was
less than 5% and the missing genotypes frequency was more than 50%. For
16 comparing groups (groups 1 and 2), the regions with maximum F_{ST} values (top 5%)
and minimum $\theta_{\pi 1} / \theta_{\pi 2}$ (top 5%) were identified as selected regions for group1, and vice
18 versa. We used DAVID (Huang et al. 2009) to perform GO term enrichment analysis
on the candidate selective gene located in selected regions (DAVID analysis was run
20 June 25, 2016).

22 Supplementary Material

Supplementary figures S1–S12, tables S1–S19, and references are available at

2 Molecular Biology and Evolution online (<http://www.mbe.oxfordjournals.org/>).

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Figure Legend:

2 **Fig. 1 | Geographic distribution, phylogenetics, and population structure of**
3 **snub-nosed monkeys. (a)** Current geographic distribution of snub nosed
4 monkeys. **(b)** The neighbor-joining tree constructed from the allele-shared matrix
5 of variants of 42 snub-nosed monkeys (crab-eating macaque, *Macaca*
6 *fascicularis*, is the outgroup). **(c)** The Principal components analysis (PCA) of 42
7 snub-nosed monkeys. **(d)** Genetic structure of the golden snub-nosed monkeys
8 inferred by *frappe* analysis. The number of populations (*K*) from 2 to 5 is shown.
9 The sample location for each individual is also indicated.

10

11 **Fig. 2 | Ancestral population size of snub-nosed monkeys. (a)** Ancestral population
12 size was inferred using a PSMC model for each individual from gray, black, and
13 Myanmar snub-nosed monkeys. Generation time (*g*) = 10 years, and neutral
14 mutation rate per generation (μ) = 1.36×10^{-8} . **(b)** Ancestral population size
15 was inferred for each golden snub-nosed monkey individual from six current
16 habitats or mountains. PSMC of black and Myanmar snub-nosed monkeys
17 shown here are under 2% and 4% FDR, respectively.

18

19 **Fig. 3 | Recent demographic history and species distribution models of golden**
20 **snub-nosed monkeys. (a)** $\partial a \partial i$ simulations showing the recent demographic
21 history of golden snub-nosed monkeys using IM-pre models. Y in brackets

denotes years and I in brackets denotes individuals. **(b)** Relative cross
2 coalescence rates (CCR) for the Shennongjia (SNJ) and
Qinling-Minshan-Qionglai (non-SNJ) populations divergence within Golden
4 snub-nosed monkeys. **(c)** Species distribution models of golden snub-nosed
monkeys. Present occurrences (Upper left), fossil records (green triangles) and
6 the Mid-Holocene (~6 kya), LGM (~21 kya) and LIG (~120-140 kya) species
distribution predictions of golden snub-nosed monkeys made using occurrence
8 records (black dots) and the climatic and elevation variables. Areas in red
indicate the most suitable environmental conditions and those in blue are
10 background areas (values ranging from 0 to 1). The red line is the value of
seasonal changes in temperature (standard deviation \times 100), which has the
12 highest contribution among the 19 climatic variables used.

14 **Fig. 4 | The linkage disequilibrium and genetic load.** **(a)** LD patterns. **(b)** Relative
number ($R_{x/y}$) of derived alleles at LoF (shade) and missense (blank) sites in
16 pair-wise comparing groups among gray, black, and golden snub-nosed monkeys.
Error bars represent ± 2 SD. **(c)** The scaled number of LoF variant sites (hexagon)
18 in each population where at least one sample is homozygous for the derived
allele. The distributions of the synonymous sites using the same statistic are
20 shown in box. Whiskers show 5th and 95th percentiles. **(d)** The rate of LoF
variants relative to synonymous variants in homozygous tracts for each sample

(red circles) and in nonhomozygous regions (green diamonds). Horizontal bars
2 denote population means; P values received from Kolmogorov-Smirnov test.

4 **Fig. 5 | Genomic regions with selective sweep signals.** (a) The θ_π ratios (black
snub-nosed monkeys /other snub-nosed monkeys) and F_{ST} values of the
6 scaffolds where 19 positively selected genes in black snub-nosed monkey
located. (b) Example of genes with strong selective sweep signals in black
8 snub-nosed monkeys. θ_π ratios and F_{ST} values are plotted using a 10 kb sliding
window. (c) Distribution of θ_π ratios (SNJ /Non-SNJ) and F_{ST} values, which are
10 calculated in 100 kb windows sliding in 10 kb steps. Data points located to the
left and right of the left and right vertical dashed lines, respectively
12 (corresponding to the 5% left and right tails of the empirical θ_π ratio distribution),
and above the horizontal dashed line (the 5% right tail of the empirical F_{ST}
14 distribution) were identified as selected regions for the SNJ (Red points) and
non-SNJ (blue points) populations. (d) Box plot of F_{ST} values (left) and θ_π ratios
16 (SNJ /non-SNJ) (right) for genomic regions of the SNJ and nonSNJ populations
of golden snub-nosed monkeys that have undergone positive selection versus the
18 whole genome. Boxes denote the interquartile range (IQR) between the first and
third quartiles (25th and 75th percentiles, respectively) and the line inside the
20 box denotes the median. Whiskers denote the lowest and highest values within
1.5 times IQR from the first and third quartiles, respectively. Outliers beyond the
22 whiskers are shown as black dots.