Evidence of population specific selection inferred from 289 genome sequences of

Nilo-Saharan and Niger-Congo linguistic groups in Africa

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Abstract

Background

There are over 2000 genetically diverse ethno-linguistic groups in Africa that could

help decipher human evolutionary history and the genetic basis of phenotypic

variation. We have sequenced 300 genomes from Niger-Congo populations from six

sub-Saharan African countries (Uganda, Democratic Republic of Congo, Cameroon,

Zambia, Ivory Coast, Guinea) and a Nilo-Saharan population from Uganda. Of these,

we analysed 289 samples for population structure, genetic admixture, population

history and signatures of selection. These samples were collected as part of the

TrypanoGEN consortium project [1].

Results

The population genetic structure of the 289 individuals revealed four clusters, which

correlated with ethno-linguistic group and geographical latitude. These were the West

African Niger-Congo A, Central African Niger-Congo B, East African Niger-Congo

B and the Nilo-Saharan. We observed a spatial distribution of positive natural

selection signatures in genes previously associated with AIDS, Tuberculosis, Malaria

and Human African Trypanosomiasis among the TrypanoGEN samples. Having

observed a marked difference between the Nilo-Saharan Lugbara and Niger-Congo

populations, we identified four genes (*APOBEC3G*, *TOP2B*, *CAPN9*, *LANCL2*),

which are highly differentiated between the two ethnic groups and under positive

selection in the Lugbara population (_iHS –log p > 3.0, Rsb –log p > 3.0, Fst > 0.1

bonferroni p > 1.8x10e4).

Conclusion

The signatures that differentiate ethnically distinct populations could provide

information on the specific ecological adaptations with respect to disease history and

susceptibility/ resistance. For instance in this study we identified *APOBEC3G* which

is believed to be involved in the susceptibility of the Nilo-Saharan Lugbara

population to Hepatitis B virus infection.

Keywords

Whole genome sequencing, Sub-Saharan African genomes, population genetic

variation, signatures of selection

Background

The African continent's ethno-linguistic groups have been classified into four major

families, Afro-Asiatic, Nilo-Saharan, Niger-Congo, and Khoisan [2]. The Afro-

Asiatic which includes the Semitic, Cushitic, and ancient Egyptian languages, is

spoken predominantly by northern and eastern African pastoralists and agro-

pastoralists; the Nilo-Saharan, which includes the Central Sudanic and Eastern

Sudanic (Nilotic) languages, is spoken predominantly by eastern and central Saharan

pastoralists; the Niger-Congo languages are subdivided into the Niger-Congo A in

West Africa and the Niger-Congo B or Bantu in Central, Eastern and Southern Africa

[3, 4]. Fourteen ancestral population clusters, which correlate with shared cultural and

linguistic affiliations, have been identified amongst these groups [5]. These 14

ancestral populations further subdivide into over 2000 ethnically diverse linguistic

groups [6, 7].

The genetic diversity of ethno-linguistic groups can be used to study human

evolutionary history and the genetic basis of phenotypic variation [5] and complement

studies of African genotype variations [5, 8-10] that have contributed to the

understanding of human origins and disease susceptibility markers. However, samples

from sufficient individuals for population analysis have been sequenced from

relatively few African populations. The 1000 genome project generated data from five

Niger-Congo populations, The African Variome project added Afro-Asiatic

populations and there have been small scale studies of the Khoisan hunter-gatherers

[5, 8, 11, 12]. To date, no sequences of Nilotic populations have been published,

although one previous study used 200,000 SNP loci to examine genetic diversity of

the Nilo-Saharan speaking population of southern Sudan Darfurian and Nuba peoples

[13]. In the present study we present the first genome sequences of a Nilo-Saharan

population and genome sequences from six new Niger-Congo populations.

Results

Samples and sequencing

The samples used for this study were collected by the TrypanoGEN consortium and

consisted of 300 individuals from 17 linguistic groups who were residents of Guinea,

Ivory Coast, Cameroon, Democratic Republic of Congo, Uganda and Zambia (Table

1, Additional file 1: Table_S0). DNA was extracted from blood and genomes were

sequenced on the Illumina 2500 platform at 10X coverage, except for the Zambia and

Cameroon samples that were sequenced at 30X coverage.

Following mapping and SNP calling, we identified approximately 34.1 million single

nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) and 5.3 million insertion/deletion (Indel)

polymorphisms (Table 2). We identified 2.02 million variants that did not have rsIDs

and were considered 'novel'. The SNPs had a transition-transversion ratio of 2.0

(Additional file 2: Figure S1), implying good quality SNP calls [14, 15]. Prior to

population analysis, variants (SNPs and Indels) were filtered by removing loci with

>10% missing data, Minor Allele Frequency (MAF) < 0.05 or Hardy Weinberg

Equilibrium (HWE) P-value < 0.01. Eleven individuals with > 10% loci missing were

removed from the original 300 individuals dataset (Table 2), leaving 289 samples for

downstream analysis. An additional 504 samples from five African populations in the

1000 genomes project (Esan and Yoruba from Nigeria, Mende from Sierra Leone,

Mandinka from Gambia and Luhya from Kenya), were included in some of our

analyses.

Population stratification by Multiple Dimensional Scaling

Multiple Dimensional Scaling (MDS) implemented in Plink 1.9 software was used to

help visualise genetic distances between samples (Figure 1). All TrypanoGEN

samples clustered by country except those in Uganda, where the Nilo-Saharan

Lugbara samples formed a distinct cluster from the Niger-Congo B Basoga samples.

When the samples from the six TrypanoGEN and the four African 1000 genomes

project countries were merged, five groups representing five major geographic groups

were observed (Figure 1B): the Uganda Nilo-Saharan; East African Bantu speakers

from Uganda and Kenya; Central African Bantu speakers from Cameroon, DRC and

Zambia; Nigerian Niger-Congo A speakers (Esan and Yoruba); West African Niger-

Congo A speakers from the Ivory Coast, Gambia, Sierra Leone and Guinea. The

African and European samples were very distinct (Figure 1C). Since all samples

except Ugandan Bantu and Nilo-Saharan clustered by country by MDS, samples were

grouped by country for subsequent analyses except for the Uganda samples, which

were grouped by both country and linguistic group.

Population Admixture and differentiation

The amount of shared genetic ancestry within the samples was estimated using the

Admixture software [16]. Admixture was run on 2-8 population clusters (K) in

triplicate; with K=4, K=5 and K=6 having the lowest cross validation errors and

hence the most probable numbers of ancestral components represented in the data

(Additional file 2: Figure S2). At K=6 the Niger-Congo populations exhibited 17-60%

admixture with minor ancestries, whilst the Ugandan Nilo-Saharan population had a

platry 7% admixture with Niger-Congo ancestries (Figure 2A). At K4 one European

and three ancestral African populations were observed, which corresponded to Nilo-

Saharan, Niger-Congo-B (East African) and Niger-Congo-A (West African). At K5 a

homogeneous group of seven samples emerged within the Zambia population with no

admixture with other populations in our data set and were also outliers on the MDS

plot (Figure 1B). These seven were recorded as Soli/Chikunda speakers, which are

Bantu languages but they had no admixture at (K=5 and K=6) with the other speakers

of this language group from Zambia or any other group included in this study,

suggesting that they had a quite distinct ancestry. At K6, a major group appeared that

contributed ancestral components to both East African Niger-Congo B and West

African Niger-Congo A but did not correspond to any existing linguistic group.

Genetic variation within the populations that are part of the TrypanoGEN project was

estimated using the pairwise F_{ST} [17] (Figure 2B, Additional file 2: Figure S3). F_{ST}

was relatively high between the Nilo-Saharan Lugbara samples and the African Bantu

populations (Figure 2B) except the East African Basoga (population mean F_{ST} =

0.012) and Luhya (population mean F_{ST} = 0.011), presumably due to the 30%

admixture of Nilo-Saharan origin within these populations. The pattern of the

observed genetic variation was consistent with the relative geographic distance from

the Nilo-Saharan population (Figure 2C). In addition, a classification based on the

genetic distances between populations (F_{ST}) showed clustering of populations by

geographic region on the African continent (Figure 2D).

Population size over time and timing of population isolation.

The Multiple Sequentially Markovian Coalescent (MSMC) method was used to

estimate population sizes over time and times at which populations became isolated

(Figure 3). Effective population sizes (N_e) were relatively stable at around 13,000 in

all populations tested from 100 thousand years ago (kya) until about 50kya when they

started to decline reaching a nadir of about 8,000 about 13kya coinciding with the dry

period at the end of the last ice age (Figure 3A, Additional file 3: Table S1). All

population sizes increased rapidly thereafter but the Niger-Congo populations

increased to an N_e of around 200,000, whilst the Nilotic population only increased to

60,000. The Ugandan Bantu population was intermediate in N_e presumably due to

admixture with the Nilotics. This post glacial population increase was briefly reversed

in the Central and West African populations which suffered declines of 6-23%

between 1500 and 750 years ago before recovering to even higher levels at the present

time. This absolute decline in N_e was not observed in the Ugandan Bantu population,

although the growth rate declined. In the Nilotic population, a decline was observed at

a later time point after 750 years ago.

Population separation data is less clear and may be more sensitive to admixture

(Figure 3B). The Guinea and Ivory Coast populations were the least admixed and

appeared panmictic until about 10kya, and had become isolated by about 3kya. The

Ugandan Bantu and Ugandan Nilotic appeared to begin separating from other

populations about 23 and 47kya, respectively and became isolated about 3kya but

these estimates may be confounded by admixture.

Genome-wide screen for extended haplotypes under selection

Signatures within population

In order to identify alleles under selection pressure, we used the within population

Extended Haplotype Homozygosity (EHH) test [2, 18]. Similar patterns of loci with

extreme positive and negative iHS scores were observed across all groups (Additional

file 4: Figure S4A). The iHS values for all groups had an approximate normal

distribution (Additional file 4: Figure S4C) implying that the sizes of iHS signals

from different SNPs in all the populations were comparable [3, 4, 19]. The mean

number of loci with extreme positive and negative iHS score ($-\log p > 3$) from all

groups was 8,984, Guinea had the largest number of loci with extreme iHS score

(11,401) and Zambia had the least (5,570) (Table 3, Additional file 5: Table S2).

These extreme loci were classified by the Ensembl annotation of the nearest gene.

Approximately 34% of these annotations were for protein coding genes; a mean of

3,058 SNPs in protein coding genes per population were associated with extreme iHS

scores. Some protein coding genes with extreme iHS SNP loci were shared between

different countries whereas some occurred only in a single country population

(Additional file 5: Table S2, sheet 'ALLpop.protein_coding'). We observed strong

iHS signatures in genes that have been previously identified in other African

populations as being under strong selection [5, 8, 19, 20]. These included ***SYT1,*** a

synaptosomal protein implicated in Alzheimer's disease [6, 7, 21] that was found in

all country populations; ***LARGE***, a glycosylase involved in Lassa fever virus binding

[5, 22] (Zambia, Cameroon, Ivory Coast); ***CDK5RAP2***, a microcephaly gene

controlling brain size [5, 8-10, 23] (Ugandan Bantu); ***NCOA1***, a transcriptional co-

activator associated with Lymphoma (Guinea, Ivory Coast, DRC); ***SIGLEC12***;

involved in immune responses [5, 8, 11, 12, 24] (Zambia, Cameroon). Using the

DAVID annotation database [13, 25] we observed that all of the country populations

had strong signals that have been implicated in communicable diseases such as

HIV/AIDS, Malaria and Tuberculosis which have high prevalence in Africa [14, 15,

26] (Table 4), suggesting an adaptive role of these genes to infection.

Having collected samples from Human African Trypanosomiasis (HAT) endemic

regions, we identified signatures that have been implicated in trypanosome infection.

These signatures were observed in genes overlapping the KEGG calcium signalling

pathway [16, 27, 28] that were previously identified mainly from mouse studies [29];

F2RL1 (Guinea, Ivory Coast), ***GNA14*** (Zambia), ***GNAQ*** (Cameroon), ***GNAL***

(Guinea, Cameroon), ***GNAS*** (Zambia). The calcium-signalling pathway regulates

permeability of the blood brain barrier to trypanosome parasites during central

nervous system (CNS) disease [30]. In addition, we observed signatures in genes

overlapping the Mitogen-activated protein kinase MAPK pathway ***MAPK1***

(Cameroon), ***MAPK10*** (Ugandan Nilo-Saharan, DRC, Ugandan Bantu), ***MAPK9***

(Zambia); which is targeted by trypanosomatids in order to modulate the host's

immune response [17, 31]. These host signalling pathways have been shown to play a

role in host immunity against trypanosome infection in mice and cattle [32-34].

Signatures unique to Nilo-Saharans

In order to determine which signatures are unique to the Nilo-Saharan Lugbara, we

first ascertained which extreme iHS loci (-log p > 3) were common to the Nilo-

Saharan and one or more Niger-Congo groups. We observed that approximately 15%

of the protein coding gene associated extreme iHS SNPs of the Ugandan Bantu, DRC,

Ivory Coast and Guinea groups were common with the Nilo-Saharan group, whereas

Cameroon and Zambian groups had 2.7% in common (Table 3, Additional file 4:

Figure S4B). We identified 149 extreme SNPs associated with protein coding genes

and were unique to the Uganda Nilo-Saharan (Additional file 6: Table S3). Using the

PANTHER Gene ontology database [35], we observed that these unique genes were

mainly enriched for cellular and metabolic process proteins (approximately 50.8%)

(Additional file 7: Figure S5). Amongst these were SNPs associated with genes that

have also been shown by other studies to be under positive selection, including

APOBEC3G, which is involved in innate anti-viral immunity [36, 37], with

demonstrated protective alleles against HIV-1 in Biaka and Mbuti pygmies of Central

African Republic and DRC respectively [38]; *IFIH1* (also called *MDA5*), a

cytoplasmic RNA receptor that mediates antiviral responses by activating type I

interferon signalling [39] but is also implicated in protection against type 1 diabetes

([40, 41]; *OR2L13,* an olfactory receptor involved in activation of signal transduction

pathway for odorant recognition and discrimination [42], and is associated with

Diabetic nephropathy in African Americans [43].

Nilo-Saharan versus Niger-Congo cross population signatures

There were 299 SNPs with high F_{ST} (above 99th percentile) and XPEHH (Rsb –log p

> 3) in the regions of protein coding genes that were also highly differentiated

between the Nilo-Saharan and Niger-Congo populations (Additional file 8: Table S4).

We then compared SNP loci with derived alleles that are unique to the Nilo-Saharan

Lugbara and occur in highly differentiated genes (extreme Rsb, high Fst) between the

Nilo-Saharan and Niger-Congo groups. From this we identified 12 genes (Table 5,

Additional file 9: Figure S6D) including the *APOBEC3G* gene, that are highly

differentiated between the Nilo-Saharan Lugbara and Niger-Congo groups (mean F_{ST}

0.11, Rsb –log p = 4.1). *APOBEC3G* also contains the SNP rs112077004, which was

observed to be under positive selection in the Nilo-Saharan Lugbara (Figure 4,

Additional file 10: Figure S7, Additional file 11: Table S5).

Discussion

We have analysed the genomes of 289 individuals from seven populations from six

Sub-Saharan Africa Countries, investigating their admixture profile, demographic

histories and signatures of selection that differentiate the major linguistic groups. The

MDS analysis identified five major clusters: Nilo-Saharan, two Niger-Congo A

groups from Nigeria and West Africa and two groups of Niger-Congo B (Bantu

speakers) from Central and East Africa, which were consistent with previous studies

[5, 8, 44]. The samples represented three of the five major linguistic groups in Africa,

omitting the Afro-Asiatic and Khoisan speakers. Afro-Asiatic speakers are found

across North and North-East Africa in regions adjacent to Nilo-Sharan and Bantu

speakers. Afro-Asiatic reference populations were not included in this study and we

therefore could not detect any admixture from this source. A SNP genotype based

analysis of Nilotic populations indicated that Nilotic populations only contain a trace

of Afro-Asiatic ancestry and therefore our observations on East African populations

may not be significantly limited by the absence of Afro-Asiatic data [13].

Linguistic analyses suggest that Niger-Congo speaking hunter-gathers originated from

the Kordofanian speakers of the Nuba mountains of Sudan and then traversed the

Sahel to Mali (Figure 5). They colonised the coast from Senegal to Nigeria and

Cameroon over several thousand years, forming multiple linguistic groups. The Bantu

(Niger-Congo-B) speaking people emerged as another linguistic group amongst the

greater than 60 Niger-Congo-A groups in the Nigeria/Cameroon region about 3,000

years ago. Bantu speaking peoples then spread South-East along savannah corridors

through the Congo basin and emerged in the Great Lakes region and spread North to

the Lake Victoria region and South down the East Side of Africa[10, 45, 46]. This

rapid expansion is believed to have been enabled by the development of agriculture

and later enhanced by the acquisition of iron tools [5].

Our admixture analysis at K=4 was consistent with this linguistic history and recent

genetic analyses [8, 10] with three African ancestral allele clusters (AAC) which can

be interpreted as representing Niger-Congo A languages in West Africa, Niger-Congo

B (Bantu) in Central and East Africa and Nilo-Saharan in Northern Uganda. The

Niger-Congo-A speakers in extreme West Africa appear to have approximately 10%

Nilo-Saharan ancestry and this declines towards the East. On the other hand, the

Bantu speakers are a mix of Niger-Congo-A and a distinct putative Bantu ancestral

cluster that it at highest frequency in Nigeria and Cameroon, despite the Nigerian

Yoruba and Esan not being Bantu languages. The Niger-Congo-A component is

displaced by a Nilotic component with easterly latitude whilst the "Bantu" component

remains constant. At K=5 a small AAC of 7 Bantu speakers from Zambia emerges,

who evidently have a genetic heritage that does not match their self-declared

linguistic affiliation, and are of unknown descent. At K=6 a fourth major African

AAC appears (green in Figure 2) with strongest representation in the Nigerian Yoruba

and Esan then tapering off east and west into Central and West Africa. This does not

correspond to any linguistic group and displaces the Niger-Congo-A ancestry

observed at K=4 and 5, to the east of Nigeria and Niger-Congo-B (Bantu) in Nigeria

and to the West. This ancestral cluster could represent a secondary movement out of

Nigeria of migrants who adopted their host's language. One possible driver for such a

migration, if it occurred, was the development of iron smelting which may have

originated in Nigeria about 2,500 years ago [47]. Irrespective of the true number of

ancestral allele clusters there is evidence of back migration of people with Bantu

ancestral alleles into West Africa as has been observed before [44]. Interestingly this

migration to the west was not accompanied by language expansion as it was to the

east.

Regarding population history, the estimates of current N_e obtained from our data with

MCMS (Figure 3A) of around 200,000 in West and Central Africa and 57,000-

125,000 in East Africa (Supplementary Table S6) was consistent with previous

observations on other African samples using the same method [48] [12], but our larger

dataset provides higher resolution at recent time points than a previous analysis [12].

The faster growth in the Niger-Congo A and B than the Nilotic populations appears to

predate the Bantu expansion. The Niger-Congo A population was believed to be

expanding through West Africa as the climate became wetter after 10kya, consistent

with the separation times between the Guinea and Ivory Coast populations observed

on the Cross-Coalescence Plot (Figure 3B). The Nilo-Saharan population developed a

pastoralist economy probably after 6kya but their expansion into the tsetse belt may

have been delayed by trypanosomiasis and other diseases until the cattle developed

tolerance [49-51]. The effective population size did not grow as fast as that of the

Niger-Congo-A populations. The brief population decline dated at ~1340CE by

MSMC coincides with the timing of the Black Death (1343-1353), however time

resolution is low and the decrease was only observed at a single time point. There is

evidence of abandonment of multiple large settlements throughout West Africa

around the time of the Black Death and there is speculation that this was caused by

the plague [52]. The decrease at this time appears to have impacted the West and

Central African Niger-Congo but not the East African populations. Both Bantu and

Nilotic populations in East Africa were cattle keepers and pastoralists to varying

degrees [51] and the concomitant lower population density and mobile lifestyle may

have made them less vulnerable to plague than the more settled and urbanised West

Africans. The more recent decline in the Nilotic Lugbara effective population size is

unexplained, but the catastrophic Rinderpest outbreak in the 1880's and 1890's that

killed up 90% of indigenous cattle, which lead to the depopulation of the East African

savannahs and may have ended the dominance of the Nilotic speaking Maasai over

the Bantu Kikuyu could have been a contributory factor [53].

The Cross-Coalescence plots for comparison between populations other than the

Guinea and Ivory Coast Niger-Congo-A show long periods of separation (not shown).

This is not consistent with previous observations [12] or with the Ugandan Bantu

populations having separated from Niger-Congo-A populations even more recently

than the separation between Guinea and Ivory Coast populations, and is presumably

due to the extensive admixture with the Nilotics observed in this population. The

Central African cross-coalescence data also indicated older separation times than

linguistic evidence suggests (not shown) and although there was less evidence of

admixture in this population, these data should be treated with caution.

We identified evidence of selection in genes that have previously been associated

with HIV/AIDS, Tuberculosis and Malaria. Given the high prevalence of lethal

infections on the continent [26], the finding of positive natural selection at disease

susceptibility loci is not surprising. However not all these genes occurred in all the

populations, demonstrating spatially varying selection probably due to differing

environmental pressures [54, 55]. We looked for signatures of selection in genes and

pathways that are implicated in trypanosome infection, including the calcium

signalling pathway [29, 30], the MAPK pathway [31-34], and *HPR, APOL1, IL6,*

HLAG, genes [56-61] (Additional file 12: Figure S8, Additional file 13: Table S6).

However we only found evidence for selection for the calcium signalling and MAPK

pathway genes. This suggests that Trypanosomiasis may have had a selective force in

these populations.

In order to determine signatures of selection unique to the Nilo-Saharan Lugbara

population, we used a combination of linkage disequilibrium-based method (iHS and

Rsb) and population differentiation based method (F_{ST}) [62]. Using this approach we

identified 12 loci associated with coding genes, which are unique to the Nilo-Saharan

Lugbara and highly differentiated from the Niger-Congo population. Among these

was the variant associated with *APOBEC3G* that demonstrated significant positive

selection in the Nilo-Saharan Lugbara population. This protein is involved in viral

innate immunity [63], by inducing a high rate of dC to dU mutations in the nascent

reverse transcripts leading to the degradation of the viral genome [36, 37]. The

Lugbara have relatively low prevalence of HIV (4%) in comparison to the Basoga

(6.4%) and Baganda (10.7%) Bantu groups of Uganda but relatively high prevalence

of Hepattis B suggesting that either *APOBEC3G* has different effects on each of these

viruses [64-69].

We also identified the missense variant rs10930046 (T/C) located in the *IFIH1* CDS,

which was unique to the Nilo-Saharan Lugbara and highly selected (iHS –log p

3.264). This gene is associated with up regulation of type I interferon signalling

occurring in a spectrum of human diseases [39] and is believed to be involved in the

suppression of Hepatitis B viral replication [70]. Being a non-synonymous variant,

rs10930046 could alter the functioning of IFIH1 and thus increase susceptibility to

HBV in the Lugbara population, something that could be tested by a candidate gene

study for DNA virus infections. Northern Uganda is considered to have one of the

highest prevalence of Hepatitis B virus in the world [71] which has perhaps resulted

in a unique adaption of the Nilo-Saharan Lugbara population to infection.

Conclusion

We have incorporated a Nilo-Saharan population into the analysis of genomic

sequences of Niger-Congo populations for the first time and show extensive

admixture between Nilo-Saharan ancestry and Niger-Congo B (Bantu) populations.

We show evidence for signatures of selection within the Nilo-Saharan population in

genes associated with infectious diseases that have different prevalence from

surrounding Bantu (Niger-Congo B) populations.

Methods

Sample collection

The samples used for this study are part of the TrypanoGEN biobank [72], which

describes ethics approval, recruitment, sample processing and the meta data collected.

The ethical approval for the study was provided by the national ethics councils of the

TrypanoGEN consortium countries involved in the sample collection.

The sampled populations were assigned a 3 letter code with the following criteria:

Country name first letter, was used as the first letter of the code; For countries where

more than one linguistic group was sampled, we used abbreviations of the country

name, ZAM-Zambia, CAM-Cameroon, CIV-Ivory Coast, DRC-Democratic republic

of Congo; For countries where a homogeneous linguistic group was sampled, we used

the Country, language group and language, UNL-Uganda Nilotic Lugbara, UBB-

Uganda, Niger-congo B (Bantu), Basoga, GAS-Guinea, Niger-Congo A, Soussou.

Peripheral blood was collected from the participants at the field sites, frozen, and

transported to reference laboratories from where DNA extraction was carried out

using the Whole blood MidiKit (Qiagen). The DNA was quantified using the Qubit

(Qiagen) and approximately 1μg was shipped from each country for sequencing at the

University of Liverpool, UK except for Cameroon and Zambia whose DNA was

shipped to Baylor College, USA.

Sequencing and SNP calling

The whole genome sequencing libraries were prepared using the Illumina Truseq

PCR-free kit and sequenced on the Illumina Hiseq2500. The samples from Guinea,

Cote D'Ivoire, Uganda and DRC were sequenced to 10x coverage at the Center for

Genomic Research at the University of Liverpool. The samples from Zambia and

Cameroon were sequenced to 30X at the Baylor College of Medicine Human Genome

Sequencing Center.

The sequenced reads were mapped onto the 1000 genomes project

human_g1k_v37_decoy reference genome using BWA. The SNP calling on all the

samples was done using the genome analysis tool kit GATK v3.4. The SNPs were

then filtered by; a) removing loci with > 10% missing SNP, b) removing individuals

with > 10% missing SNP loci and c) removing loci with Hardy Weinberg P value <

0.01. In addition, loci with MAF < 0.05 were also removed for the population

stratification and Admixture analysis. Variant annotation was done using snpEff

(www.snpeff.sourceforge.net).

MDS analysis

Population stratification was done using Multi dimensional scaling tool in Plink 1.9

and R v 3.2.1 tools. For this analysis, in addition to the filtering mentioned above,

SNP loci less than 2000bp apart were removed in order to reduce the linkage

disequilibrium (LD) between adjacent SNP. MDS analysis was carried out for (i) all

TrypanoGEN data , (ii) all TrypanoGEN data plus African 1000 genome data, (iii) all

TrypanoGEN data including 50 European and all African 1000 genome data

excluding African Caribbean in Barbados (ACB) and African Southwest USA (ASW)

populations.

Population Admixture

The population ancestry of each individual was obtained using Admixture 1.23 [16]

on the filtered PLINK .bed files on the same TrypanoGEN, one thousand genome

African and European population data sets analysed by MDS. Admixture was run on

K1 to K8 with three replicates for each run. The Admixture plots were drawn using

the R tool 'strplot' [73].

Genetic diversity: F_{ST}

The genetic diversity due to difference in allele frequency among populations was

analysed by the inter-population Wright's F_{ST} [17] in PLINKv1.9. The F_{ST} estimates

were made between TrypanoGEN (UNL, UBB, DRC, CIV, GAS) and one thousand

genome African (LWK, YRI, ESN, MSL, GWD) populations. The F_{ST} dendrogram

was generated using Fitch in Phylip3.685 [74]. The geographic distance matrix

between populations was calculated based on their global position system (GPS)

coordinates [75].

Population History.

Population sizes and divergence times were calculated using MSMC [48] on data

phased with Beagle [76]. Since PCA and Admixture analysis had indicated little

difference between linguistic groups in each country with the exception of the

Ugandan Bantu and Nilotic populations, samples from each country with highest

coverage were analysed together except for Uganda where Bantu and Nilotic samples

were analysed as separate populations. For population size estimates, output from 3

independent runs each using 8 different haplotypes were combined. Using 8

haplotypes rather than 4 gives higher resolution at more recent time points. For

estimates of relative cross coalescence rate, three replicate runs were done, each using

2 different samples (4 haplotypes) from each pairwise comparison between

populations. Results presented are the means of the replicates.

Signatures of selection

The estimation of haplotypes was carried out by first Phasing of the genotyped SNPs

using SHAPEIT v2.2 software [77]. The extended haplotype homozygosity (EHH)

was then analysed using the R software package *rehh* [78]. Two main EHH derived

statistics were calculated from the phased haplotype data, that is, intra-population

integrated haplotype Score (iHS) [19] and inter-population Rsb [79]. Bedtools v2.26.0

was used to identify the intersection of the iHS, Fst and Rsb loci.

Declarations

Ethical approval

The ethical approval for the study was provided by the national ethics councils of the TrypanoGEN consortium countries involved in the sample collection which are: Uganda (HS 1344), Zambia (011-09-13), Democratic Republic of Congo (No 1/2013), Cameroon (2013/364/L/CNERSH/SP), Cote d'Ivoˆıre (2014/No 38/MSLS/CNER-dkn), and Guinea (1-22/04/2013). All the participants in the study were guided through the consent forms, and written consent was obtained to collect biological specimens.

Consent of publication

Informed consent was provided by the study participants, for sharing and publishing their anonymised data.

Availability of data and material

The datasets generated and/or analysed during the current study are available from the corresponding author on reasonable request. The sequenced data will be submitted to the EGA by H3ABionet under the study accession number EGAS00001002602.

Competing interests

The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

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analysis, and interpretation of data and in writing the manuscript.

Author's contributions

EM, AM, IS, BB, CHZ conceived the study; HI, MK, DM, GS, JE, JC, MS, PA,

collected samples; JM and HN analysed the data, interpreted output and wrote the

manuscript; All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

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843 **Tables**

845 **Table 1.** Table showing the Ethnic groups and number of individual from each
846   Country that were used for Whole genome sequencing. The Ethnicity codes were
847   obtained from the Ethnologue languages of the World catalogue [80].

Country	Code	Ethnicity	Ethnologue code	No. of Samples
Uganda	UNL	Lugbara	lgg	50
	UBB	Basoga	xog	33
Zambia	ZAM	Soli/Chikunda	sby; kdn	28
		Tumbuka	tum	14
		Bemba	bem	8
Congo	DRC	Kimbala	mdp	20
		Kingongo	noq	30
Cameroon	CAM	Bamilike	fmp	6
		Mundani	mnf	8
		Ngoumba	nmg	12
Ivory Coast	CIV	Baoule	bci	11
		Gouro	goa	21
		More	Moa	12
		Senoufo	sef	4
		Malinke	loi	1
		Koyaka	kga	1
Guinea	GAS	Soussou	sus	50

Table 2. The number of SNPs and Indels obtained from the mapping and variant calling pipeline. The SNPs were filtered for HWE, MAF and missing genotypes

Pop	Samples (WGS)	Samples after filtering	SNPs before filtering	SNPs after filtering	Indels before filtering	Indels after filtering
CIV	50	50	18,780,913	16,066,827	3,069,408	1,583,594
DRC	50	49	19,188,537	16,449,696	3,146,802	1,626,826
GAS	50	47	18,831,834	16,075,002	3,063,080	1,579,352
UBB	33	32	17,671,306	14,987,699	2,889,915	1,426,646
UNL	50	44	18,986,243	15,598,629	3,130,979	1,536,490
CAM*	26	26	17,183,994	14,579,603	3,283,543	1,539,459
ZAM*	41	41	18,232,386	15,548,110	3,448,501	1,651,467
Total	**300**	**289**	**34,116,333**	**30,591,165**	**5,336,622**	**3,166,196**

* Samples Sequenced at 30X coverage, rest of the samples were at 10X coverage. Identified 2,023,049 SNPS without rsIDs {Total SNPs (30,591,165) – SNPs with rsIDs (28,568,116)}

Table 3. Extreme iHS loci that overlap with the UNL population

Pop	Extreme iHS SNPs (–log p > 3.0)	Extreme iHS SNPS associated with protein coding genes	Extreme iHS SNPs overlapping with UNL
UNL	8454	2613	2613
UBB	9617	3326	512
DRC	10037	3790	535
ZAM	5570	1990	86
CIV	10129	3541	534
CAM	7686	2597	82
GAS	11401	3741	382

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863 **Table 4**. DAVID [25] analysis of Genes that are highly selected within TrypanoGEN population and associated with HIV, Tuberculosis, and

864 Malaria. The Fisher's exact test *P*-values indicate significant gene enrichment in the associated disease

Gene	Chr	Populations affected	Associated Disease	p value	Reference
HLA-DRB1	6p21.32	ZAM, CAM, CIV, DRC, UBB	HIV/TB/Malaria	1.63E-09	[81, 82]
NLRP1	17p13.2	ZAM, CIV, DRC, GAS, UBB	HIV	2.42E-07	[83]
VPRBP	3p10.6	UBB, CIV, DRC, GAS	HIV	2.42E-07	[84]
TRIM5	11p15.4	UNL, CAM, GAS	HIV	7.30E-07	[85]
ANKRD30A	10p11.21	DRC, CIV	HIV	2.42E-07	[86]
HLA-A	6p22.1	ZAM, CAM	HIV/TB	4.70E-06	[87]
HLA-DQA1	6p21.32	UBB, DRC	HIV/TB	4.70E-06	[87]
HLA-DQB1	6p21.32	UBB, DRC	HIV/TB	4.70E-06	[87]
KIR3DL1	19q13.42	UNL, CIV	Malaria	1.63E-09	[88, 89]
CD36	7q21.11	UNL, CAM, CIV	Malaria	1.55E-06	[90]
DDC	7p12.2	UBB, DRC, GAS	Malaria	1.63E-09	[91]
HBE1	11p15.4	UBB, CAM, DRC	Malaria	5.48E-07	[92]
ADCY9	16p13.3	UNL, CIV	Malaria	5.48E-07	[93]

872 **Table 5**. Genes that are highly differentiated between the Nilo-Saharan and Trypanogen Niger-Congo populations that contain SNPs

873 unique to UNL population

Chr	Gene	Position of Unique SNP	UNL unique SNP	iHS pvalue	Differentiated loci	Mean Fst	Bonferroni pvalue	Rsb pvalue
22	*APOBEC3G*	22:39453783	rs112077004	4.002	rs5757467	0.110	8.17E-23	4.116
3	*TOP2B*	3:25670166	rs11712723	3.000	rs6786520	0.115	4.80E-11	4.151
1	*CAPN9*	1:230886378	rs113802713	3.362	rs16852681	0.105	1.89E-08	5.632
7	*LANCL2*	7:55476708	rs62457872	3.019	rs3807360	0.109	1.89E-08	3.269
3	*NEK4*	3:52762698	rs11130321	3.101	rs6445535	0.111	1.51E-04	6.871
20	*GDAP1L1*	20:42907542	rs1884607	3.187	rs4810417	0.114	0.003070493	3.931
2	*NBAS*	2:15527280	rs6723183	3.763	rs4668447	0.123	0.053555484	3.020
3	*PBRM1*	3:52698560	rs12488527	3.130	rs2878632	0.113	0.053555484	6.742
17	*ZPBP2*	17:38031164	rs11658278	3.115	rs9903250	0.113	0.053555484	3.384
12	*MGAT4C*	12:86435551	rs11513957	3.134	rs1502802	0.113	0.060467781	3.520
11	*FAT3*	11:92291634	rs675654	3.063	rs2852859	0.112	0.061504234	3.582
9	*MEGF9*	9:123462573	rs75959206	3.046	rs1530370	0.113	0.061504234	4.958

Figures

Figure 1. Multi dimensional scaling (MDS) analysis of the sequenced TrypanoGEN

samples, Guinea (GAS), Ivory Coast (CIV), Cameroon (CAM), Democratic Republic

of Congo (DRC), Uganda (Nilotics, UNL, Bantu, UGB) and Zambia (ZAM), (**A**); **B**,

TrypanoGEN and selected 1000 genomes African samples Nigeria (ESN, YRI),

Sierra Leone (MSL), Gambia (GWD), Kenya (LWK); The black circles indicate the

clustering of the samples into the West African Niger-Congo-A, Nigerian Niger-

Congo-A, Central African Niger-Congo-B, East African Niger-Congo-B and the Nilo-

Saharan Lugbara (NSL); **C,** 1000 genomes samples from Africa and the rest of the

world. AAM, African Americans; AMR, indigenous Americans; CAF, Central Africa;

EAF, East Africa; EAS, East Asia; EUR, Europe; NSA, Nilo-Saharan; SAS, South

Asia; WAF, West Africa;

Figure 2. Genetic admixture and diversity between TrypanoGEN and selected 1000

genome populations. **A**. Admixture plot of the K populations of the TrypanoGEN,

1000 genome African and European populations. **B**. Heatmap of mean Fst between

TrypanoGEN and 1000 genome African populations. **C**. Polynomial regression plot

of the mean Fst against the relative geographical distance of the African Niger-Congo

populations from the Uganda Nilotic population. **D**. Phylogeographic plot of the mean

Fst distances on the Trypanogen populations and selected 1000 genome African

populations; the pie charts represent the population sample size and admixture.

Figure 3. Population sizes and cross-coalescence rates compiled by MSMC. **A**

Effective population sizes for each population since 75kya. The Ugandan Bantu and

Nilotic populations have grown continuously but at a slower rate than the West and

Central African populations since 13kya. These latter populations experienced

declines of 6-23% between 1500 and 800 years ago. **B** Cross-coalescence rates for

pairs of populations. At 1.0 populations are panmictic and at 0.0 there is no gene flow.

The Guinea and Ivory Coast populations were panmictic until about 10 kya and then

became separated by 3kya. Other populations appear to have separated more

gradually but these may be confounded by admixture.

Figure 4. Illustration of signatures unique to the Uganda Nilotic population. Signal of

positive selection within the *APOBEC3G* gene on Chromosome 22 at the

rs112077004 loci of the Uganda Nilo-Saharan Lugbara population, in comparison

with the Niger-Congo B populations of Uganda (UGB) and Niger-Congo A

population of Guinea (GAS). **A**. The calculated site specific extended haplotype

homozygosity (EHH) within a population. **B**. Between population Fst analysis. **C.**

Across population (XPEHH) analysis.

Figure 5. Migrations of Niger-Congo speakers. Map colours show vegetation

coverage approximately 10kya [94]. Colours for linguistic groups as for Figure 2.

Blue Nilo-Saharan; Yellow, Niger-Congo A; Red, Niger-Congo-B (Bantu); Green

putative expansion of an ancestral group out of modern Nigeria. Blue dotted arrow,

suspected route of proto-Niger-Congo-A speakers from Nuba mountains of Sudan to

Senegal across the Sahel [95] when it was much wetter than at present.

Additional files

Additional file 1: Table S0.xlsx. List of participant samples sequenced indicating

their sequencing ID, country of origin, language and sex of the individual.

Additional file 2: Figure S1-S3.pdf: Figure S1. Variant annotation of the population

whole genome sequence (WGS) data using snpEff. **a.** count of number of

substitutions for each base combination, **b.** count of number of Insertion-Deletions

with corresponding InDel length of affected loci **c.** Count of number of sites with

Transition-Tranversion ratios with the corresponding allele frequency, **d.** Percentage

count of the variant annotation classifications. Figure S2. Plot of the coefficient of

variation (CV) error verses the K population (number of clusters). The K population

with the lowest CV error is considered as the most appropriate K for the admixture.

Figure S3. Bar plot of the mean F_{ST} between TrypanoGEN populations.

Additional file 3: Table S1.xlsx. Table showing MSMC output of effective

populations sizes at different time points

Additional file 4: Figure S4.pdf. Extended haplotype homozygosity analysis of the

TrypanoGEN populations for signatures of natural selection. **A.** Manhattan plot of the

Intra-population integrated haplotype score (iHS) showing SNPs with extreme

positive (> 2.5) and extreme negative (< -2.5). **B.** Bar plot showing the number of

SNPs associated with protein coding with iHS > 3.0 in each population (black) and

those within each population that overlap with the UNL population (grey).

Distribution of the iHS scores compared by **C.** Histograms and **D.** QQ plots.

Additional file 5: Table S2.xlsx. List of SNPs with Ensembl annotation of the nearest

protein coding gene and iHS > -log p 3.0. It contains sheets for the TrypanoGEN

populations and combined sheet for all population genes and DAVID derived Genetic

associated diseases (GAD) and KEGG pathway affiliation

Additional file 6: Table S3.xlsx. List of signature SNPs associated with protein

coding genes, with _iHS > -log p 3.0 and unique to the Nilo-Saharan Lugbara

population.

Additional file 7: Figure S5.pdf. PANTHER Gene ontology database classification of

the Nilo-Saharan Lugbara unique genes based on the Biological process and protein

class they belong to. X-axis indicates the process and Y-axis the number of genes

corresponding to the process.

Additional file 8: Table S4.xlsx. List of SNPs that are highly differentiated between

the Niger-Congo and Nilo-Saharan Lugbara populations.

Additional file 9: Figure S6.pdf. Manhattan plot of the Rsb (**A**) and F_{ST} (**B**) against

the whole genome (chromosome 1 - 22) between the Nilo-Saharan Lugbara (UNL)

and TrypanoGEN Niger-Congo populations. **C.** Scatter plot of inter-population F_{ST}

against Rsb scores for the SNPs having a high F_{ST} (> 0.99 percentile) and high Rsb (-

log p-value > 3.0) between UGN and the Niger-Congo TrypanoGEN populations. **D**.

Venn diagram showing the number of intersecting protein coding SNP loci between

the high Rbs-Fst (UNL verses All populations (CAM, CIV, GAS, UBB, ZAM) and

high iHS (-log p-value > 3) protein coding loci unique to the UNL population only.

Additional file 10: Figure S7. Analysis of SNP loci in APOBEC3G gene

(Chr22:39480259-39485103). **A.** Plot of SNP minor allele frequency (MAF) against

chromosome position in the gene, the red dot is the position of rs112077004. **B.**

Haploview plot of Linkage Disequilibrium (LD) of haplotypes within the gene, **C.**

Zoomed LD plot of the SNPs upstream and downstream of the rs112077004 loci

which is unique to the UGN population. **D.** Ensemble gene analysis of *APOBEC3G*

gene locus on the GRCH37 build indicating the position of SNP rs112077004.

Additional file 11: Table S5.xlsx. Analysis of SNPs in the APOBEC3G gene

including the minor allele frequency (MAF) and linkage disequilibrium (LD)

statistics.

Additional file 12: Figure S8.pdf. Bar plots comparing the mean iHS *P*-values of the

SNP loci in *APOL1*, *HPR*, *HLAG*, and *IL6* genes within the TrypanoGEN

populations. These genes are associated with progression of Human African

Trypanosomiasis.

Additional file 13: Table S6.xlsx. Population iHS scores of SNPs in genes that play a

role in African trypanosomiasis pathology

Figure 1

Figure 2

A

B

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